1 Bacterial Resistance to Antisense Peptide-Phosphorodiamidate Morpholino Oligomers 2 3 Running Title: Morpholino oligomer resistance 4 Susan E. Puckett<sup>1,a,#</sup>, Kaleb A. Reese<sup>1,#</sup>, Georgi M. Mitev<sup>1</sup>, Valerie Mullen<sup>1</sup>, Rudd C. 5 6 Johnson<sup>1</sup>, Kyle R. Pomraning<sup>2</sup>, Brett L. Mellbye<sup>3,b</sup>, Lucas D. Tilley<sup>3,c</sup>, Patrick L. Iversen<sup>3</sup>, Michael Freitag<sup>2</sup>, and Bruce L. Geller<sup>1, 3\*</sup> 7 8 <sup>1</sup> Department of Microbiology, <sup>2</sup>Department of Biochemistry and Biophysics, Oregon State 9 University, Corvallis, Oregon, and <sup>3</sup>AVI BioPharma, Inc., Corvallis, Oregon 10 11 12 13 #These authors contributed equally to the report 14 15 \*Corresponding Author; Department of Microbiology, 220 Nash Hall, Oregon State University, 16 Corvallis, OR 97331-3804. Tel: 541-737-1845; Fax: 737-0496; e-mail: gellerb@orst.edu 17

- <sup>a</sup>Currently at Department of Microbiology and Immunology, Weill Cornell Medical College,
- 19 New York City, NY.
- <sup>b</sup>Currently at Department of Microbiology, Oregon State University, Corvallis, OR.
- <sup>c</sup>Currently at Department of Microbiology and Molecular Genetics, University of Vermont,
- 22 Burlington, VT

Peptide phosphorodiamidate morpholino oligomers (PPMO) are synthetic DNA mimics that bind complementary RNA and inhibit bacterial gene expression. (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB- AcpP PPMO (R. arginine; F, phenylalanine; X, 6-aminohexanoic acid; B, β-alanine) is complementary to 11 bases of the essential gene acpP (encodes acyl carrier protein). The MIC of (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-AcpP was 2.5 µM (14 µg/ml) in Escherichia coli W3110. The rate of spontaneous resistance of E. coli to (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-AcpP was 4 x 10<sup>-7</sup> mutations/cell division. A spontaneous (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-AcpP-resistant mutant (PR200.1) was isolated. The MIC of (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-AcpP was 40 µM (224 µg/ml) in PR200.1. The MICs of standard antibiotics were identical in PR200.1 and W3110. The sequence of acpP was identical in PR200.1 and W3110. PR200.1 was also resistant to other PPMOs conjugated to (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB or peptides with a similar composition or pattern of cationic and non-polar residues. Genomic sequencing of PR200.1 identified a mutation in sbmA, which encodes an active transport protein. In separate experiments, a (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-AcpP-resistant isolate (RR3) was selected from a transposome library, and the insertion was mapped to sbmA. Genetic complementation of PR200.1 or RR3 with sbmA restored susceptibility to (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-AcpP. Deletion of sbmA caused resistance to (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-AcpP. We conclude that resistance to (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-AcpP was linked to the peptide and not the PMO, dependent on the composition or repeating pattern of amino acids, and caused by mutations in sbmA. The data further suggest that (RFF)<sub>3</sub>R-XB PPMOs may be transported across the plasma membrane by SbmA.

24

25

26

27

28

29

30

31

32

33

34

35

36

37

38

39

40

41

42

43

### Introduction

Antibiotic resistance in bacteria continues to be a serious problem. The number of antibiotic-resistant pathogens is increasing, the level of resistance to standard antibiotics is increasing, and the percentage of isolates with resistance to multiple antibiotics has risen dramatically in recent years (3, 37). At the same time, the number of antibiotics that are being developed has decreased significantly, particularly for those targeting Gram-negative bacteria. Most of the new antibiotics that have been approved for use in the United States in the past 40 years are not new classes of antibiotics, but simply chemical derivatives of the same antibiotic classes that were discovered in the mid twentieth century (8). There is an urgent need for new antibiotics particularly for those with novel or innovative strategies of targeting bacterial pathogens that cause serious diseases (3, 22).

Genomics has created an attractive potential for developing innovative strategies that address the problem of antibiotic resistance. Synthetic antisense oligomers, such as peptide nucleic acids (14), phosphorothioates (16), and phosphorodiamidate morpholino oligomers (11, 15), silence expression of bacterial genes. Gene-silencing oligomers decrease expression of reporter genes such as luciferase, activate endogenous genes such as β-galactosidase, and inhibit growth and kill bacteria by targeting essential genes (10). Antisense oligomers targeted to specific, essential bacterial genes reduce infections and increase survival in mouse models of infection (12, 15, 40).

Antisense oligomers require assistance to cross the outer membrane of Gram-negative bacteria because of their molecular weight and polar characteristics. Short amphipathic peptides have been attached to antisense oligomers, and this has greatly improved their entry into Gram-negative bacteria and increased their potency (11, 13, 27).

Membrane-penetrating peptides have diverse sequences, but many are cationic and amphipathic. Previous investigations suggest that a repeated peptide motif with one cationic residue followed by either one or two hydrophobic residues may be an important feature for efficient membrane penetration (39). More recently, we have compared a variety of membrane-penetrating peptides for their abilities to enhance the efficacy of peptide-phosphorodiamidate morpholino oligomers (PPMO), and found differences among peptides that vary in their pattern of alternating cationic and nonpolar residues and their amino acid compositions (27).

Despite the progress that has been made on improving efficacy and potency of antisense oligomers, little is known about bacterial resistance to these compounds. Some naturally-occurring antimicrobial peptides, which have some similar characteristics to the synthetic peptides used to make peptide-oligomers, do not appear to cause resistance in bacteria (38). One report of resistance to an antisense morpholino oligomer found a mutation in the region of a virus genome targeted by the oligomer (28). Resistance to any antibiotic is always an important characteristic to be determined during drug development. Ultimately the frequency of antibiotic resistance will manifest itself in the clinic, and will play a role in its use for any particular indication.

In this report, we characterize spontaneous resistance to a peptide-PMO (PPMO) and compare cross-resistance to other antibiotics, PPMOs with different peptides but the same PMO, and PPMOs with the same peptide but targeted to different genes. Furthermore, the same gene that causes PPMO-resistance is identified in isolates from two independent strategies of selection.

## **Material and Methods**

**Bacterial strains.** Wild type K-12 *E. coli* W3110 was used for selecting spontaneous mutants that are resistant to the PPMO (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-AcpP. Spontaneous mutants that are resistant to (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-AcpP were selected by growth in Mueller-Hinton II broth supplemented with at 8 x MIC of (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-AcpP. Liquid cultures were grown in either Mueller-Hinton II or LB broth. LB agar was used for growth on solid medium. Transformants with pSE380myc-luc (11) were grown in LB supplemented with 50 μg/ml ampicillin (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO).

Oligopeptide transport mutants PA0183 (*opp*), PA0333 (*opp dpp*), PA0410 (*opp tpp*), PA0643 (*opp dpp tpp*), and PA0610 (*opp dpp tpp*), which were derived from parent strain Morse 2034 (*trpE9851 leu 277* F<sup>-</sup>IN(*rrnD-rrnE*)), have been described (36) and were gifts from J. W. Payne (University of Wales, Bangor, UK).

In-frame, non-polar knock-out strains *E. coli* JW3496 (*dctA*<sup>-</sup>), JW5730 (*eptA*<sup>-</sup>), and JW0368 (*sbmA*<sup>-</sup>) and their isogenic parent strain BW25113 (2), were provided from the Keio collection by the National BioResource Project (NIG, Japan). The knock-out strains were grown in LB broth with 50 μg/ml kanamycin (Sigma-Aldrich). The IPTG-inducible *sbmA* expression plasmid (which we call pSbmA, from strain b0377) and empty vector control (pNTR-SD) (34) were also provided by the National BioResource Project (NIG, Japan) and grown in LB broth with 20 μg/ml ampicillin.

**PPMO.** PPMOs were synthesized at AVI BioPharma (Corvallis, Oregon) as described (39). The base sequence of all PPMOs targeted to *acpP* (AcpP) is 5'-CTTCGATAGTG-3', to *ftsZ* (FtsZ) is 5'-TCCATTGGTTC-3', and to *luc* (Luc) is 5'-AACGTTGAGIG. Inosine in place of

a guanine in the Luc PPMO was necessary to make the oligomer soluble in aqueous solutions by avoiding guanine quartet structure. The scrambled base sequence control (Scr) is 5'-TCTCAGATGGT-3'.

**Antibiotics.** Antibiotics were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich, except bleomycin (Enzo Life Science, Farmingdale, NY).

**Minimal inhibitory concentration.** Minimal inhibitory concentration was determined by the microdilution method (5) in Mueller-Hinton II broth. For MICs using XL1-Blue MRF' and RR3, Mueller-Hinton II broth was supplemented with 1% tryptone.

Luciferase expression. Spontaneous (RFF) $_3$ RXB-AcpP-resistant mutants were made chemically competent and transformed as described (29) with pSE380myc-Luc (11). Overnight cultures were grown aerobically at 37°C in LB medium plus 50  $\mu$ g/ml ampicillin (LBA), and then diluted 2 x 10 $^{-2}$  into LBA with or without various concentrations (8, 20 and 50  $\mu$ M) of (RFF) $_3$ RXB-Luc or (RFF) $_3$ RXB-Scr, and grown aerobically at 37°C for 7 h. Samples were analyzed for luciferase expression by luminometry as described (11).

Rate of spontaneous resistance. The rate of spontaneous resistance to peptide-PMO was measured by the method of Luria and Delbruck (23) as described (33). An overnight culture was diluted to  $1\times 10^4$  cfu/ml in LB medium and divided into  $20\times 1$  ml aliquots. Each aliquot was grown overnight at 37°C with aeration, and then 1 µl or 50 µl of each was spread on 20 agar plates (60 mm  $\times$  15 mm) of LB plus 20 µM peptide-PMO. Plates were grown overnight at 37°C with aeration, and colonies were enumerated.

Screening transposome mutants. EX-Tn5<R6K $\gamma$ ori/Kan-2>Tnp (Epicentre, Madison, WI) was electroporated into *E. coli* XL1-Blue MRF', and 3 x 10³ transductants were selected on LB kanamycin (15  $\mu$ g/ml) plates. The transductants were pooled and stored in

PBS + 15% glycerol at -75°C. The pooled transductants were thawed and 1 x 10<sup>4</sup> cfu was spread on an LB plate that included 20 μM (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-AcpP. Insertion mutations from PPMO-resistant mutants were sequenced by rescue cloning as described by the manufacturer (Epicentre). Insertions in *sbmA* were confirmed using polymerase chain reaction (PCR) as described (18). Briefly, PCR reactions contained chromosomal DNA extracted from bacteria using a commercial kit (DNAeasy, Qiagen, Valenica, CA) and primers (IDT Technologies, Coralville, IA) that flank the insertion site: 5′-GATTGCCGTTATCTTCTGGC and 5′-GCTCAAGGTATGGGTTACTTCC. Thirty PCR reaction cycles were: denature, 95°C, 0 sec; anneal 45°C, 0 sec; extend 72°C, 1 min. PCR reactions were run on a 1605 air thermo-cycler (Idaho Technology, Idaho Falls, ID).

**Sequencing** *acpP*. The *acpP* allele from each strain analyzed was amplified by polymerase chain reaction (18) using as template a single bacterial colony picked from a growth plate, Promega Taq polymerase (Madison, WI), and the following primers (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA): 5'-AACGTAAAATCGTGGTAAGACC-3', and 5'-TAACGCCTGGTGGCCGTTGATG-3'. The PCR products were gel-purified using Qiagen MinElute PCR purification kit (Valencia, CA), and sequenced using the same primers shown above at the core laboratory of the Center for Genome Research, Oregon State University.

**Genomic sequencing.** Genomic DNA from the W3110 wild type and PR200.1 was generated by standard procedures (1). DNA was sheared by sonication and processed for Illumina high-throughput sequencing as previously described (31, 32). Data analyses to find individual point mutations were carried out as described (32).

### Results

**Spontaneous mutants resistant to peptide-PMO.** Spontaneous resistance was apparent from growth that occasionally occurred in some cultures that included (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-AcpP (X is 6-aminohexanoic acid and B is β-alanine) at concentrations above the MIC. Growth above the MIC was never observed in cultures that included other AcpP PPMOs with different peptides attached to the same PMO, such as (RX)<sub>6</sub>B-AcpP or (RXR)<sub>4</sub>XB-AcpP. The rate of spontaneous resistance to (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-AcpP was measured and found to be  $4 \times 10^{-7}$  mutations/cell generation.

Susceptibility to antibiotics and growth rate. Colonies were isolated from a single liquid culture of W3110 grown with 8 × MIC (20  $\mu$ M = 112  $\mu$ g/ml) of (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-AcpP. One colony (PR200.1) was picked at random and further characterized. PR200.1 was equally susceptible as the parent strain W3110 to each antibiotic tested (MIC = 4  $\mu$ g/ml, 1.25  $\mu$ g/ml, 1.25  $\mu$ g/ml, 0.125  $\mu$ g/ml, and 10  $\mu$ g/ml for ampicillin, tetracycline, kanamycin, polymyxin B, and rifampin, respectively). These results indicate that this particular PPMO-resistant isolate was not resistant to antibiotics in general.

Doubling times of PR200.1 and W3110 were identical and no difference in growth rate was observed in liquid or solid media.

**Sequences of** *acpP* **alleles.** The target of the PMO, *acpP*, was sequenced in PR200.1 and W3110 and found to be identical (data not shown).

MICs of AcpP PPMOs attached to various peptides. MICs for different AcpP
PPMOs were measured using PR200.1 and W3110 as indicators (Table 1). All of the AcpP
PPMOs tested had the same base sequence, but had different peptides attached. The
attached peptides differed not only in their amino acid compositions, but also in the pattern of

repeating sequences of cationic and nonpolar residues. Repeating patterns of amino acids, often including cationic and non-polar residues, are important features of membrane-penetrating peptides (17, 41, 42). Four of the AcpP PPMOs, including (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-AcpP, had peptides with a repeating amino acid motif of cationic-nonpolar-nonpolar (C-N-N), and one of these was composed of D- instead of the usual L-amino acids. One AcpP PPMO was conjugated to (RX)<sub>6</sub>B, which has a repeating motif of cationic-nonpolar (C-N). Two other AcpP PPMOs were conjugated to peptides with a repeating motif of cationic-nonpolar-cationic (C-N-C): (RXR)<sub>4</sub>XB or (RFR)<sub>4</sub>XB. Another AcpP PMO was conjugated to RTRTRFLRRTXB, which does not conform to any of the other repeat patterns. All of these PPMOs with various peptides attached to the same AcpP PMO have been previously characterized and found to be effective in inhibiting growth of *E. coli* (27).

The results show that PR200.1 was resistant to every AcpP PMO tested with the C-N-N peptide motif, but was fully susceptible to (RX)<sub>6</sub>B-AcpP PMO and (RXR)<sub>4</sub>XB-AcpP PMO (Table 1). However, PR200.1 was resistant to (RFR)<sub>4</sub>XB-AcpP, which shares the C-N-C motif with (RXR)<sub>4</sub>XB-AcpP, but like (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-AcpP contains phenylalanine instead of 6-aminohexaonoic acid. Compared to the susceptible parent strain W3110, resistance to (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-AcpP in PR200.1 increased the MIC 16-fold. PR200.1 was also resistant to the D-isomeric form of (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB. The MIC of RTRTRFLRRTXB-AcpP, which lacks a repeating amino acid motif but includes one phenylalanine, increased only 2-fold using PR200.1 compared to W3110 as indicator. The MICs of scrambled-base sequence PPMOs composed with each of the same peptides used for the AcpP PPMOs were undetectable (>80 μM) in every case.

(RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-PPMOs targeted to various genes. PR200.1 was tested for susceptibility to two PPMOs, each with the (RFF)<sub>3</sub> peptide motif, but different base sequences. One PPMO is complementary to *ftsZ*, which is an essential gene involved in cell division. The other PPMO is targeted to a luciferase reporter gene (*luc*).

Exponential cultures were grown for 18 h with (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-FtsZ, which is targeted to *ftsZ*, or a scrambled (Scr) base sequence control. Samples of each culture were then plated, and viable cells counted. PR200.1 grew to normal cell density, whereas the viable cell count of the parent strain W3110 was reduced by over 2 orders of magnitude in the presence of (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-FtsZ (Figure 1). The Scr had no effect on growth of either W3110 or PR200.1.

In other experiments, exponential cultures of W3110 and PR200.1 were grown for 7 h with various concentrations of (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-Luc, which is targeted to a luciferase reporter gene, or the scrambled base control (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-Scr. A plasmid that expresses luciferase had been transferred into PR200.1 prior to the experiment. Samples of each culture were then analyzed by luminometry for luciferase activity. The results show that (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-Luc did not inhibit luciferase in PR200.1 at any of the 3 concentrations tested (Figure 2). In comparison, W3110 showed inhibition of luciferase that was proportional to the concentration of PPMO added. The scrambled sequence control did not inhibit luciferase in either strain. There were no differences in the growth (optical density) of any of the cultures (data not shown).

**Peptide transport mutants.** The above results indicated that resistance to PPMOs is linked to the peptide moiety. We hypothesized that PPMO-resistance could be caused by a mutation in one of three known oligopeptide transporters. To test this, the MIC was measured using various strains with mutations in one, two, or all three oligopeptide transporters (Table

2). The results show that (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-AcpP had the same MIC in PR200.1 as the parent (non-mutant) strain. (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-Scr scrambled control showed no detectable MIC (>160 μM).

**Genomic sequencing.** The genomes of PR200.1 and its parent strain W3110 were sequence and compared. The results indicated that a total of 3 genes had mutations in PR200.1 compared to W3110: dctA, eptA, and sbmA. In dctA, there were 2 transition mutations at bases 3958154 (T $\rightarrow$ A) and 395153 (A $\rightarrow$ G), both of which are in codon 396, that caused a missense from ile to ala. In eptA, there was one transversion mutation at base 4339795 (T $\rightarrow$ A) that affected codon 259 and caused a missense from ser to thr. In sbmA, there was one transversion mutation at base 396121 (T $\rightarrow$ G) that changed codon 87 (ser to ala). No deletions or insertions were detected in any gene.

Characterize deletion mutants. In frame knock-out mutants of dctA, eptA, and sbmA were tested for susceptibility to  $(RFF)_3RXB$ -AcpP and compared to the parent strain (BW25113). The MIC of  $(RFF)_3RXB$ -AcpP was the same  $(2 \mu M = 11 \mu g/ml)$  using either the  $dctA^-$  or  $eptA^-$  knock-out strains or the parent strain. The MIC using the  $sbmA^-$  strain was 32  $\mu M$  (179  $\mu g/ml$ ).

The MIC of (RXR)<sub>4</sub>XB-AcpP was measured using  $sbmA^-$  strain as indicator, and found to be 2  $\mu$ M (11  $\mu$ g/ml), the same as its isogenic parent strain.

Complementation with pSbmA. PR200.1 was genetically complemented with an IPTG-inducible expression plasmid that encodes *sbmA* (pSbma), or its empty control. The complemented strain was grown with IPTG and used to measure the MIC of (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-AcpP. The MIC was 1 μM and 32 μM in the induced, *sbmA*<sup>+</sup> complemented strain and the empty vector control strain, respectively.

**Transposome mutants.** *E. coli* XL1-Blue MRF' was mutagenized with the transposome EZ-Tn5 and a library of 1 x 10<sup>4</sup> mutants was spread on selection plates that included 20 μM (RFF)<sub>3</sub>R-AcpP. Two colonies grew on the selection plate, and the mutated gene in each was sequenced. The sequences of both isolates indicated that the transposome had inserted into the exact same position in *sbmA* in each isolate, suggesting that the two colonies were clones. The isolates were named RR3.

RR3 was characterized by measuring the MICs of various standard antibiotics (Table 3). All standard antibiotics tested had the same MIC using either XL1-Blue MRF' or RR3 as indicator, including two peptide antibiotics colistin and polymyxin B. However, RR3 was about 4-fold resistant to each of the peptide antibiotics bleomycin and phleomycin. PR200.1 was also 4-fold resistant to bleomycin (MIC =  $5.6 \mu M$  [8 ug/ml]) and phleomycin (MIC =  $5.2 \mu M$  [8 µg/ml]) compared to W3110 (bleomycin MIC =  $1.4 \mu M$  [2 µg/ml]; phleomycin MIC =  $1.3 \mu M$  [2 µg/ml]).

The MICs of (RFF)<sub>3</sub>R-AcpP and (RXR)<sub>4</sub>XB-AcpP were measured using RR3 or XL1-Blue MRF' as indicators. The results show that RR3 was 32-fold resistant to (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-AcpP, and 8-fold resistant to (RXR)<sub>4</sub>XB-AcpP (Table 3). RR3 was also resistant to the PPMO made with D-amino acids ([D-(RFF)<sub>3</sub>R]XB-AcpP). Scrambled-sequence control PPMOs did not inhibit growth of either RR3 or XL1-Blue MRF'.

RR3 and XL1-Blue MRF' were genetically complemented with pSbmA and used to measure the MIC of (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-AcpP. pSbma fully restored susceptibility of RR3 to the PPMO, when induced with IPTG (Table 3). Interestingly, the MIC was significantly less using the complemented strains as indicators compared to the strains without pSbmA.

Complementation with pSbmA also restored susceptibility to bleomycin and phleomycin.

### Discussion

This is the first report we are aware of to characterize bacterial resistance to an antisense antibacterial compound. Initially, growth was occasionally and unexpectedly observed during routine MIC assays of (RFF)<sub>3</sub>XB-AcpP in cultures 4- to 8-fold above the MIC. Similar growth was never observed during MIC assays for (RXR)<sub>4</sub>XB-AcpP or (RX)<sub>6</sub>B-AcpP. We speculate that the greater number of X residues (6-aminohexanoic acid) or the lack of F in the latter two PPMOs may be responsible for the apparent lack of spontaneous resistance to these PPMOs under the conditions used for the MIC assay. Alternatively, there could be more genetic loci involved in resistance to (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB PPMOs than in any (putative) resistance to PPMOs conjugated to other peptides such as (RXR)<sub>4</sub>XB or (RX)<sub>6</sub>B. However, we have not yet rigorously pursued resistance to these later PPMOs, and it is certainly possible that spontaneous resistance may occur under appropriate conditions.

The rate of spontaneous resistance to (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-AcpP was similar to the rate of spontaneous mutation for individual genes in *E. coli*, which is typically between 10<sup>-6</sup> to 10<sup>-7</sup> mutations/gene/ generation (6, 24). This suggests that there are few genes which, when mutated, can give rise to the PPMO-resistant phenotype. However, the rate of mutation can vary widely, and any measurement of the rate of mutation is a function of many variables (25), including the concentration of antibiotic used for selection, and the number of genes or loci capable of causing a resistance phenotype. Ultimately, the rate of resistance to PPMOs under in vivo conditions for specific infections will be the most meaningful measure of their usefulness in the clinic.

The spontaneous mutant PR200.1 was susceptible to all small molecule antibiotics tested. This shows that resistance to the PPMO is not caused by a change in physiology that might result in resistance to antibiotics in general. Such general changes are known to occur, and include a reduction of the net negative charge of the lipopolysaccharide of Gram-negative bacteria (7, 30), changes in capsule polysaccharide (4), changes in expression of outer membrane porins (30), alterations in outer membrane lipid composition that results in decreased membrane permeability (30), and activation or overexpression of multidrug efflux pumps (21). We tested a variety of antibiotics, some of which are hydrophilic (ampicillin, kanamycin), hydrophobic (rifampin, tetracycline), or amphiphilic (polymyxin B), and some which enter Gram-negative bacteria through the outer membrane porins (ampicillin, tetracycline) or through the outer membrane lipid bilayer (rifampin, polymyxin B). The results suggested that the mutation in PR200.1 is specific for (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-AcpP or PPMOs with similar peptide moieties. Later, following the identification of the mutation in *sbmA*, PR200.1 was found to be mildly resistant (4-fold) to the peptide antibiotics bleomycin and phleomycin.

We hypothesized that resistance was caused by a mutation in the sequence of *acpP* targeted by the PPMO. We have previously shown that a one-base mismatch near the 3'end of a PPMO targeted to *acpP* in *Burkholderia cepacia* complex raised the MIC by a factor of at least 8-32-fold (15). However, the results in the present report found no mutation in the target region of *acpP* in this one resistant mutant. Therefore, the hypothesis in this case was disproven. However, this is not to say that target site mutations cannot or do not occur on other as of yet uncharacterized mutants. Nevertheless, target site mutations would be statistically improbable considering that there are only 4 wobble bases in the target region of

acpP that might possibly lead to a decrease in efficacy without changing the amino acid sequence of the targeted protein.

Another hypothesis was that resistance in PR200.1 was caused by a mutation in an oligopeptide transporter. However, oligopeptide transport mutants were just as susceptible to (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-AcpP as the isogenic parent strain. This showed that resistance in PR200.1 was not caused by a mutation in the known oligopeptide transporters that were tested.

In another effort to identify the mutation in PR200.1 that is responsible for resistance to (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-AcpP, the genome of PR200.1 was sequenced. The results showed missense mutations in only 3 genes compared to the PPMO-susceptible strain: *dctA*, *eptA*, and *sbmA*. In-frame, non-polar deletion mutations of each gene showed that of the three, only the *sbmA* deletion strain was resistant to (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-AcpP. Furthermore, complementation of PR200.1 with *sbmA* restored susceptibility to the PPMO. These results show that mutations in *sbmA* cause resistance to (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-AcpP.

The MIC of (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-AcpP was slightly lower using the *sbmA* deletion strain than PR200.1 as indicator. However, the strains originated from different parent strains, and this probably accounts for the difference in susceptibility. The parent strain of the *sbmA* deletion was also slightly more susceptible to the PPMO than the parent strain of PR200.1.

The transposome mutant RR3 was resistant to both (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-AcpP and (RXR)<sub>4</sub>XB-AcpP. This differs from the spontaneous mutant PR200.1 and the *sbmA* deletion strain, which were resistant to (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-AcpP but not (RXR)<sub>4</sub>XB-AcpP. This suggests that a polar affect in RR3 on the gene downstream from *sbmA* (*yaiW*) may be responsible for resistance to (RXR)<sub>4</sub>XB-AcpP. *yaiW* is a predicted DNA-binding transcriptional regulator. Apparently a mutation in *sbmA* is sufficient to cause resistance to (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-AcpP, but not (RXR)<sub>4</sub>-AcpP.

PR200.1 was susceptible to (RXR)<sub>4</sub>XB-AcpP but resistant to (RFR)<sub>4</sub>XB-AcpP, although these two PPMOs share the same C-N-C repeat motif. This indicates that the amino acid composition of the PPMOs may be more important than the repeating pattern of amino acids in determining resistance in PR200.1. The similarity in resistance of PR200.1 to either (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-AcpP or (RFR)<sub>4</sub>XB-AcpP, but complete susceptibility to (RXR)<sub>4</sub>XB-AcpP may suggest that X (6-aminohexanoic acid) accounts for the difference. This is supported by the result (Table 1) that resistance to (RXX)<sub>3</sub>RXB-AcpP is 4-fold less than resistance to (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-AcpP, despite having the same repeating pattern of cationic and non-polar amino acids, but containing more X. Perhaps the unusual 6-carbon backbone of X causes a conformational change that disallows interaction with SbmA. Alternatively, sbmA mutants seem to be more resistant to peptides with F (phenylalanine). There is a positive trend between the number of F in the peptide and resistance. This is supported by the results that show higher resistance to PPMOs with more F (such as (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-AcpP and (RFR)<sub>4</sub>XB-AcpP), lesser resistance to PPMOs with fewer F (such as RTRTRFLRRTXB-AcpP), and no resistance to PPMOs with no F (such as (RXR)<sub>4</sub>XB-AcpP and (RXR)<sub>6</sub>XB-AcpP), although (RXX)<sub>3</sub>RXB-AcpP is an exception to this trend. sbmA encodes an active transporter for bleomycin and other peptide antibiotics (19, 26, 35, 43). Our results are consistent with SbmA acting as the active transporter for

339

340

341

342

343

344

345

346

347

348

349

350

351

352

353

354

355

356

357

358

359

360

sbmA encodes an active transporter for bleomycin and other peptide antibiotics (19, 26, 35, 43). Our results are consistent with SbmA acting as the active transporter for (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-AcpP. sbmA homologs are widely conserved among bacteria (9). The homolog of sbmA in Rhizobium meliloti, bacA, is required for symbiosis with alfalfa (9). The homolog in Brucella abortus is a virulence factor important for intracellular survival in macrophages (20). It has been proposed that the physiological substrates of SbmA are organic signaling

molecules (43). Development of an assay to measure uptake of PPMOs is currently not available, but could be used to define further the role of SbmA in resistance to PPMO.

361

362

363

364

365

366

367

368

369

370

371

372

373

374

375

376

377

378

379

380

381

382

383

The substrate specificity of SbmA has been investigated and found to be guite flexible. Initially, the specificity was proposed to be associated with a thiazole or oxazole structural motif (43). Later, proline-rich antimicrobial peptides were shown to be transported by SbmA (26). However, (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-AcpP has none of these structural features. If SbmA is the transporter of (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-AcpP, apparently the specificity of SbmA is not limited to thiazoleor oxazole-containing compounds or to proline-rich peptides. Our results suggest that the substrate specificity of SbmA is flexible enough to accommodate polypeptides without thiazole, oxazole, or proline. With the peptides we used in our conjugates, the specificity appears to be linked to the spacing of cationic and non-polar amino acid residues within the context of the peptide. It is also noteworthy that our all-D enantiomer conjugate (NG-05-0653) had the same MIC values as the all-L conjugate (NG-05-0200) for parental and resistant strains. This is in contrast to results shown for an all-D isomer of the proline-rich antimicrobial peptide Bac7(1-35), which was ineffective compared to the all-L form (26). It was suggested that the stereospecificity of Bac7(1-35) was attributable to its interaction with SbmA, although uptake of all-D Bac7(1-35) was not demonstrated. Perhaps the stereospecificity of Bac7(1-35) is caused by its interaction with its cytoplasmic target and not SbmA. Our results suggest that the specificity of SbmA is not necessarily limited to either the L- or D-enantiomeric form of a peptide, and is broader than previously known.

If SbmA is the plasma membrane transporter for (RFF)<sub>3</sub>R-AcpP, we speculate that other mechanisms exist for PPMOs to cross the plasma membrane. PR200.1, RR3, and the *sbmA* deletion strain are still somewhat susceptible to (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-AcpP, albeit at high

concentrations. We speculate that PPMOs may be able to cross the plasma membrane by passing through the lipid bilayer in the same manner that they cross the outer membrane. There also may be additional active transporters with specificities for nucleic acid oligomers. This latter possibility is suggested by the ability of PMOs (not conjugated to a peptide) to inhibit gene expression in strains with porous outer membranes that allow passage of large oligomers (11, 12).

In summary, the results suggest that bacterial resistance to a PPMO can be determined by the peptide and not the PMO. The rate of occurrence of spontaneous resistance to (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-AcpP is similar to that of spontaneous changes in other bacterial phenotypes. In PR200.1 and RR3, resistance is caused by mutations in *sbmA*. Our results in combination with the known role of SbmA in peptide antibiotic uptake, suggest that SbmA acts as a transporter of (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-AcpP from the periplasm to the cytoplasm.

# Acknowledgement

This work was supported by AVI BioPharma and the Howard Hughes Medical Institute (through undergraduate student research fellowships to Susan E. Puckett and Valerie Mullen). Preparation of Illumina sequencing libraries and data analyses were supported by start-up funds from the OSU Computational and Genome Biology Initiative to Michael Freitag. The authors thank Andrew Karplus for a critical discussion. Bruce Geller was employed by both AVI BioPharma and Oregon State University.

406	Refer	ences
407		
408	1.	Ausubel FM, Brent R, Kingston RE, Moore DD, Seidman JG, Smith JA, and Struhl K.
409		1998. Current Protocols in Molecular Biology. John Wiley and Sons, Inc., New York, N.
410		Y.
411		
412	2.	Baba T, Ara T, Hasegawa M, Takai Y, Okumura Y, Baba M, Datsenko KA, Tomita M,
413		Wanner BL, and Mori H. 2006. Construction of Escherichia coli K-12 in-frame, single-
414		gene knockout mutants: the Keio collection. Mol. Sys. Biol. 2:2006.0008.
415 416	3.	Boucher HW, Talbot GH, Bradley JS, Edwards, Jr JE, Gilbert D, Rice LB, Scheld M,
417		Spellberg B, and Bartlett J. 2009. Bad bugs, no drugs: No ESKAPE! An update from
418		the Infectious Diseases Society of America. Clin. Infect. Dis. 48:1-12.
419		
420	4.	Campos MA, Vargas MA, Regueiro V, Llompart CM, Alberti S, and Bengoechea JA.
421		2004. Capsule polysaccharide mediates bacterial resistance to antimicrobial peptides.
422		Infect. Immun. <b>72:</b> 7107-7114.
423		
424	5.	Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute. Methods for dilution antimicrobial
425		susceptibility tests for bacteria that grow aerobically: Approved standard-seventh
426		edition. Wayne, PA, USA 2006. 10.2-10.3.
427		
428	6.	Drake J, Charlesworth WB, Charlesworth D, and Crow JF. 1998. Rates of spontaneous

mutation. Genetics 148:1667-1686.

430		
431	7.	Ernst RK, Guina T, and Miller SI. 2001. Salmonella typhimurium outer membrane
432		remodeling: role in resistance to host immunity. Microbes Infect. 3:1327-1334.
433 434	8.	Fischback MA, and Walsh CT. 2009. Antibiotics for emerging pathogens. Science
435		<b>325:</b> 1089-1093.
436	9.	Gazebrook J, Ichige A, and Walker GC. 1993. A Rhizobium meliloti homolog of the
437		Escherichia coli peptide antibiotic-transport protein SbmA is essential for bacteroid
438		development. Genes Dev. 7:1485-1497.
439		
440	10	. Geller BL. 2005. Antisense Antibiotics. Curr. Opin. Mol. Ther. <b>7:</b> 109-113.
441		
442	11	Geller BL, Deere JD, Stein DA, Kroeker AD, Moulton HM, and Iversen PL. 2003.
443		Inhibition of gene expression in Escherichia coli by antisense phosphorodiamidate
444		morpholino oligomers. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 47:3233-3239.
445		
446	12	Geller BL, Deere J, Tilley L, and Iversen PL. 2005. Antisense phosphorodiamidate
447		morpholino oligomer inhibits viability of Escherichia coli in pure culture and in mouse
448		peritonitis. J. Antimicrob. Chemother. <b>55:</b> 983–988.
449		
450	13	Good L, Awasthi SK, Dryselius R, Larsson O, and Nielsen PE. 2001. Bactericidal
451		antisense effects of peptide-PNA conjugates. Nat. Biotechnol. 19:360-364.
452		

453	14. Good L, and Nielsen PE. 1998. Antisense inhibition of gene expression in bacteria by
454	PNA targeted to mRNA. Nat. Biotechnol. 16:355-358.
455	
456	15. Greenberg DE, Marshall-Batty KR, Brinster LR, Zarember KA, Shaw PA, Mellbye BL,
457	Iversen PL, Holland SM, and Geller BL. 2010. Antisense phosphorodiamidate
458	morpholino oligomers targeted to an essential gene inhibit Burkholderia cepacia
459	complex. J. Infect. Dis. <b>201</b> :1822-1830.
460	
461	16. Harth G, Zamecnik PC, Tabatadze D, Pierson K, and Horwitz MA. 2007. Hairpin
462	extensions enhance the efficacy of mycolyl transferase-specific antisense
463	oligonucleotides targeting Mycobacterium tuberculosis. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U S A.
464	<b>104</b> :7199-7204.
465	
466	17. Henriques ST, Melo MN, and Castanho MARB. 2006. Cell-penetrating peptides and
467	antimicrobial peptides: how different are they? Biochem. J. 399:1-7.
468	
469	18. Kramer MF, and Coen DM. 2001. Enzymatic amplification of DNA by PCR: standard
470	procedures and optimization. Unit 15.1. In F. M. Ausubel, R. Brent, R. E. Kingston, D.
471	D. Moore, J. G. Seidman, J. A. Smith, K. Struhl (ed.) Current Protocols in Molecular
472	Biology, John Wiley & Sons, Inc. New York, NY.
473	

4/4	19. Lavina M, Pugsley AP, and Moreno F. 1986. Identification, mapping, cloning and
475	characterization of a gene (sbmA) required for mirocin B17 action on E. coli K12. J.
476	Gen. Microbiol. <b>132:</b> 1685-1693.
477	
478	20. LeVier K, Phillips RW, Gripper VK, Roop II RM, and Walker GC. 2000. Similar
479	requirements of a plant symbiont and a mammalian pathogen for prolonged
480	intracellular survival. Science <b>287:</b> 2492-2493.
481	
482	21.Li XZ, and Nikaido H. 2009. Efflux-mediated drug resistance in bacteria: an update.
483	Drugs. <b>69:</b> 1555-1623.
484	
485	22. Livermore DM. 2009. Has the era of untreatable infections arrived? J. Antimicrob.
486	Chemother. 64: Suppl. 1, i29-i36.
487	
488	23. Luria SE, and Delbruck M. 1943. Mutations of bacteria from virus sensitivity to virus
489	resistance. Genetics 28:491-511.
490	
491	24. Maloy S. 2011. Mutation rates.
492	http://www.sci.sdsu.edu/~smaloy/MicrobialGenetics/topics/mutations/fluctuation.html
493	
494	25. Martinez JL, and Baquero F. 2000. Mutation frequencies and antibiotic resistance.
495	Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 44:1771-1777.
496	

497	26. Mattimuzzo M, Bandiera A, Gennaro R, Bennincasa M, Pacor S, Antcheva N, and
498	Scocchi M. 2007. Role of the Escherichia coli SbmA in the antimicrobial activity of
499	proline-rich peptides. Molec. Microbiol. 66:151-163.
500	
501	27. Mellbye BL, Puckett SE, Tilley LD, Iversen PL, and Geller BL. 2009. Variations in
502	amino acid composition of antisense peptide-phosphorodiamidate morpholino
503	oligomers affect potency against Escherichia coli in vitro and in vivo. Antimicrob.
504	Agents Chemother. 53:525-530.
505	
506	28. Neuman BW, Stein DA, Kroeker AD. Churchill MJ, Kim AM, Kuhn P, Dawson P,
507	Moulton HM, Bestwick RK, Iversen PL, and Buchmeier MJ. 2005. Inhibition, escape,
508	and attenuated growth of severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus treated with
509	antisense morpholino oligomers. J. Virol. 79:9665-9676.
510	
511	29. New England Biolabs, Inc. Rubidium chloride method.
512	http://www.neb.com/nebecomm/tech_reference/gene_expression/RbCl_protocol.asp
513	
514	30. Nikaido H. 2003. Molecular basis of bacterial outer membrane permeability revisited.
515	Microbiol. Mol. Biol. Rev. 67:593-656.
516	
517	31. Pomraning KR, Smith KM, and Freitag M. 2009. Genome-wide high throughput
518	analysis of DNA methylation in eukaryotes. Methods 47:142-150.
519	

520	32. Pomraning KR, Smith KM, and Freitag M. 2011. Bulk segregant analysis followed by
521	high-throughput sequencing reveals the Neurospora cell cycle gene, ndc-1, to be allelic
522	with the gene for ornithine decarboxylase, spe-1. Eukaryot. Cell 10:724–733.
523	
524	33. Rosche WA, and Foster PL. 2000. Determining mutation rates in bacterial populations.
525	Methods <b>20:</b> 4-17.
526	
527	34. Saka K, Tadenuma M, Nakade S, Tanaka N, Sugawara H, Nishikawa K, Ichiyoshi N,
528	Kitagawa M, Mori H, Ogasawara N, and Nishimura A. 2005. A complete set of
529	Escherichia coli open reading frames in mobile plasmids facilitating genetic studies.
530	DNA Research 12:63-68.
531	
532	35. Salomon RA, and Farias RN. 1995. The peptide antibiotic microcin 25 is important
533	through the TonB pathway and the SbmA protein. J. Bacteriol. 177:3323-3325.
534	
535	36. Smith MW, Tyreman DR, Payne GM, Marshall NJ, Payne JW. 1999. Substrate
536	specificity of the periplasmic dipeptide-binding protein from Escherichia coli:
537	Experimental basis for the design of peptide prodrugs. Microbiol. 145:2891-2901.
538	
539	37. Spellberg B, Guidos R, Gilbert D, Bradley J, Boucher HW, Scheld WM, Bartlett JG, and
540	Edwards, Jr. J. 2008. The epidemic of antibiotic-resistant infections: A call to action for
541	the medical community from the Infectious Diseases Society of America. Clin. Infect.
542	Dis. <b>46:</b> 155-164.

543	38. Splith K, and Neundorf I. 2011. Antimicrobial peptides with cell-penetrating peptide
544	properties and vice versa. Eur. Biophys. J. 40:387-397.
545	
546	39. Tilley LD, Hine OS, Kellogg JA, Hassinger JN, Weller DD, Iversen PL, and Geller BL.
547	2006. Gene-specific effects of antisense phosphorodiamidate morpholino oligomer-
548	peptide conjugates on Escherichia coli and Salmonella enterica serovar typhimurium in
549	pure culture and in tissue culture. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 50:2789-2796.
550	
551	40. Tilley LD, Mellbye BL, Puckett SE, Iversen PL, and Geller BL. 2007. Antisense peptide-
552	phosphorodiamidate morpholino oligomer conjugate: dose-response in mice infected
553	with Escherichia coli. J. Antimicrob. Chemother. 59:66-73.
554	
555	41. Vaara M, and Porro M. 1996. Group of peptides that act synergistically with
556	hydrophobic antibiotics against gram-negative enteric bacteria. Antimicrob. Agents
557	Chemother. <b>40:</b> 1801-1805.
558	
559	42. Yeaman MR, and Yount NY. 2003. Mechanisms of antimicrobial peptide action and
560	resistance. Pharmacol. Rev. <b>55:</b> 27-55.
561	
562	43. Yorgey P, Lee J, Kordel J, Vivas E, Warner P, Jebaratnam D, and Kolter R. 1994.
563	Posttranslational modifications in microcin B17 define an additional class of DNA
564	gyrase inhibitor. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 91:4519-4523.
565	

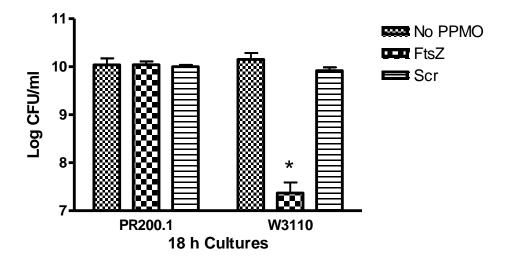


Figure 1. **Viable Cell Count of 18 h Cultures**. Stationary cultures of W3110 or PR200.1 were diluted to 5 x  $10^5$  CFU/ml in Mueller-Hinton broth and divided in three. (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-FtsZ (FtsZ) or scrambled (Scr) PPMO (160  $\mu$ M), or no PPMO was added. Cultures were grown aerobically at 37°C for 18 h, and then samples of each were diluted and plated to determine viable cells. Error bars indicate standard deviation. \*indicates highly significant (P < 0.01) difference compared to either no PPMO or Scr-treated culture.

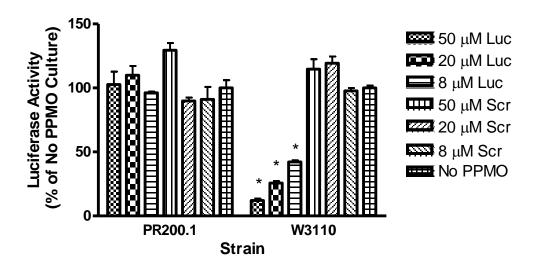


Figure 2. Luciferase Activity of Cultures Treated with PPMO. Growing cultures were treated for 7 h without PPMO (No PPMO), or with 3 concentrations of a PPMO [(RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-Luc] targeted to a luciferase reporter gene, or a scrambled sequence control [(RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-Scr]. After 7 h samples of each culture were measured for luciferase activity by luminometry. The experiment was repeated 3 times and the error bars indicate standard deviation.

\*indicates a highly significant (P < 0.01) difference compared to cultures of PR200.1 with the same concentrations of (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-Luc, the cultures of W3110 with the same concentrations of (RFF)<sub>3</sub>RXB-Scr, or the culture without PPMO.

Table 1. MIC of AcpP PPMO in Pure Cultures of E. coli

	_	MIC (μM	[µg/ml])
PPMO No. NG-	Conjugated Peptide*	W3110	PR200.1
Motif 1			
(C-N-N)**	_		
05-0200	RFFRFFRFFRXB	2.5 [14]	40 [222]
05-0653	DRDFDFDRDFDRDFDRXB	2.5 [14]	40 [222]
23-248	RXXRXXRXXRXB	20 [102]	80 [204]
06-0199	KFFKFFKFFKXB	10 [54]	80 [435]
Motif 2			
(C-N)**	<u>-</u>		
06-0073	RXRXRXRXRXRXB	1.25 [7]	1.25 [7]
14 44 0			
Motif 3			
(C-N-C)**	_		
06-0076	RXRRXRRXRXXB	1.25 [7]	1.25 [7]
07-0795	RFRRFRRFRXB	1 [6]	16 [94]
N. N. 416			
No Motif	_		
05-0246	RTRTRFLRRTXB	20 [111]	40 [111]

<sup>\*</sup>X is 6-amino-hexanoic acid. B is  $\beta$ -alanine. O is ornithine. D indicates the isomeric form or the residue that follows.

<sup>\*\*</sup>Motif 1 is (cationic-nonpolar-nonpolar, abbreviated C-N-N). Motif 2 is (cationic-nonpolar, abbreviated C-N). Motif 3 is (cationic-nonpolar-cationic, abbreviated C-N-C).

Table 2. MIC of  $(RFF)_3R$ -AcpP (NG-05-0200) Using Oligopeptide Transport Mutants

		N	1IC
E. coli strain	Mutation/Phenotype	μМ	μg/ml
Morse 2034	Wild-type oligopeptide transport	5	28
PA0183	opp <sup>-</sup> /oligopeptide permease	5	28
	deletion		
PA0333	dpp <sup>-</sup> , opp <sup>-</sup> /PA0183 plus	5	28
	dipeptide permease deletion		
PA0643	tpp <sup>-</sup> ,dpp <sup>-</sup> ,opp <sup>-</sup> /PA0333 plus	5	28
	tripeptide permease mutant		

Table 3. MIC of standard antibiotics and PPMOs using transposome mutant RR3, isogenic parent strain XL1-Blue MRF', and their *sbmA* complemented strains

		MIC (μM [μg/ml])			
	Antibiotic	XL1-Blue MRF'	RR3	XL1-Blue MRF' (pSbmA)	RR3 (pSbmA
	Polymyxin B	0.8 [1]	0.8 [1]	0.8 [1]	0.8 [1]
	Colistin	0.9 [1]	0.9 [1]	0.9 [1]	0.9 [1]
	Erythromycin	34 [25]	34 [25]	34 [25]	34 [25]
	Rifampin	6 [5]	6 [5]	6 [5]	6 [5]
	Bleomycin	0.2 [0.25]	0.7 [1]	0.01 [0.016]	0.01 [0.016]
	Phleomycin	0.3 [0.5]	1.3 [2]	0.02 [0.03]	0.02 [0.03]
PPMO No. NG-	PPMO				
05-0200	(RFF) <sub>3</sub> RXB-AcpP	2 [11]	64 [355]	2 [11]	2 [11]
05-0653	[D-(RFF) <sub>3</sub> R]XB-AcpP	2 [11]	64 [355]	2 [11]	2 [11]
06-0076	(RXR) <sub>4</sub> XB-AcpP	1 [6]	8 [48]	0.1 [0.6]	0.1 [0.6]
05-0655	(RFF)₃RXB-Scr	>128 [>714]	>128 [>714]	>128 [>714]	>128 [>714]
06-0078	(RXR) <sub>4</sub> XB-Scr	>128 [>714]	>128 [>714]	>128 [>714]	>128 [>714]