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3	The Activity of Glycopeptide Antibiotics Against Resistant Bacteria Correlates with their Ability to
4	Induce the Resistance System
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17	Running Title: Structure-Activity Study of Glycopeptide Derivatives
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25 ABSTRACT

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Glycopeptide antibiotics containing a hydrophobic substituent display the best activity against vancomycin-resistant enterococci, and they have been assumed to be poor inducers of the resistance system. Using a panel of 26 glycopeptide derivatives and the model resistance system in *Streptomyces coelicolor*, we confirm this hypothesis at the level of transcription. Identification of the glycopeptide structural features associated with inducing resistance gene expression has important implications in the search for more effective antibiotic structures.

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35 Glycopeptides are an important class of antibiotics active against Gram-positive pathogens but 36 vancomycin and teicoplanin are the only two glycopeptide antibiotics currently used in the clinic. They exhibit important differences in activity which are believed to be related to their structural differences, 37 38 but to date only the mode of action and resistance mechanism to vancomycin has been characterized in 39 detail. The rapid spread of resistance to these two drugs through pathogenic bacterial populations is an 40 acute public health concern and the discovery of additional natural or semi-synthetic glycopeptides 41 with more effective antibiotic activity has been targeted (1). A broad spectrum of vancomycin and 42 teicoplanin derivatives has previously been generated through chemo-enzymatic synthesis, and their 43 activity toward pathogenic enterococcal strains determined (2-9). Interestingly, derivatives containing a 44 hydrophobic substituent were in general found to be significantly more active against both 45 glycopeptide-sensitive and resistant strains. Dong et al. (8) demonstrated that the key functional 46 difference between vancomycin and teicoplanin is due to the absence or presence of lipidation, and 47 evidence that this is related to differing abilities for inducing the resistance system has been obtained in 48 experiments correlating minimum inhibitory concentrations (MICs) with the activity of VanX enzyme

49 or the activity of reporter protein in a transcriptional fusion assay (10-13), but a direct effect on 50 transcription of the resistance genes has not been investigated. The important implication of this 51 question, that it is possible to produce glycopeptide structures which are invisible to existing inducible 52 resistance systems but which retain significant antibiotic activity, has now stimulated us to seek a 53 definitive answer. Using the vancomycin resistance system in the harmless bacterium Streptomyces 54 *coelicolor* as a model, we assay a panel of different natural and semi-synthetic glycopeptide antibiotic 55 structures for their ability to induce transcription of the *van* gene cluster (14), and the general cell wall 56 stress response signa factor sigE (15), and relate this to the antibiotic activity they exhibit. S. 57 *coelicolor* does not synthesize any glycopeptide antibiotic, but does possess a cluster of seven genes 58 (vanRSJKHAX) conferring inducible resistance to vancomycin but not to teicoplanin (similar to the 59 phenotype shown in VanB-type VRE), and it offers a safe and convenient model system for the study 60 of VanB-type glycopeptide resistance (Fig. 1A) (16-21). sigE encodes an extracytoplasmic function (ECF) sigma factor (σ^{E}) which is part of a signal transduction system that senses and responds to 61 62 general cell wall stress in S. coelicolor. sigE is constitutively expressed at a low basal level in S. 63 *coelicolor* but is also generically induced by a wide-variety of agents that stress the cell wall (Fig. 1B) 64 (15).

65 For this study, we have classified all the glycopeptide derivatives analyzed into 4 different groups 66 according to the substituents located at positions 1 and 3, and the presence or absence of a hydrophobic 67 group (Fig. 2). Group 1 includes vancomycin aglycones that carry either a non-hydrophobic 68 carbohydrate or no sugar at all. Group 2 compounds all possess aromatic amino acid residues that are 69 cross-linked into their core peptide backbone as for teicoplanin but are otherwise similar to Group 1. 70 Group 3 are hydrophobic derivatives of vancomycin possessing either a teicoplanin-type 71 monosaccharide containing a saturated lipid or a vancomycin-type disaccharide carrying a 72 chlorobiphenyl residue. Group 4 includes teicoplanin, dalbavancin and related derivatives all

73 containing a saturated lipid as a hydrophobic substituent. Table 1 reports the MIC of each compound 74 against S. coelicolor in liquid culture. Consistent with the previous observations in VRE strains 75 according to Dong et al. (8), all the glycopeptide derivatives containing a hydrophobic substituent 76 (Group 3 and 4) are significantly more active against both vancomycin resistant (wild type) and 77 sensitive ($\Delta vanRS$) S. coelicolor strains (14). Among all the hydrophobic derivatives, teicoplanin 78 derivatives (Group 4) generally exhibited greater activity than vancomycin derivatives (Group 3). 79 Interestingly, hydrophobic group 3 vancomycin derivatives with a chlorobiphenyl (CBP) substituent 80 were shown to be more active than those with a lipid substituent. To determine the correlation between 81 the MIC of a derivative and its ability to induce the van resistance system, the abundance of vanH 82 transcripts in RNA isolated from growing liquid cultures of wild type S. coelicolor (M600) treated by 83 addition of 10 µg/ml of each glycopeptide derivative was monitored using quantitative real time PCR 84 (qRT-PCR). Samples taken 30, 60 and 90 min after treatment were compared to a preinduction control taken immediately before addition (T0), as previously as described (21). sigE transcription was 85 86 similarly quantified as a reporter for cell wall stress. Consistent with previous results, vanH 87 transcription increased immediately in response to vancomycin and reached a maximum level after 30-88 60 min before beginning to decline (Fig. 3). With the exception of chloroeremomycin, group 1 89 compounds were typically the best inducers of *vanH* expression, and all, including chloroeremomycin, 90 also induced a strong peak in sigE transcript abundance after 30 min. The derivatives in Group 2 91 behaved similarly, although the maximum level of *vanH* induction was delayed to 60 min, and the level 92 of expression was generally weaker. Strikingly, the Group 3 and 4 derivatives containing hydrophobic 93 substituents exhibited the lowest MIC and all failed to induce *vanH* transcription - except compound 3a 94 which showed only a very weak induction of *vanH* expression - but produced a strong transcriptional 95 response for *sigE*. The order of the *vanH* induction level starting with the best inducer group can 96 therefore be summarized as Group 1 > Group 2 > Group 3 > Group 4, and this result perfectly

97 correlates with the observed MIC result. This implies that the strong activity of glycopeptide 98 derivatives toward vancomycin resistant bacteria is indeed due to their poor ability to induce the 99 resistance system. The hydrophobic substituent presumably prevents productive interaction with the 100 VanS sensor kinase, the key component for triggering the expression of van genes, but has no 101 detrimental effect on antibiotic activity. Assessment of the cell wall stress response by monitoring the 102 level of sigE transcription allowed the comparison of MIC values with vanH transcription to be set in a 103 useful context. Interestingly, sigE was significantly induced following exposure to each compound in 104 Groups 1 to 4, but its transcription was quickly and continuously reduced only in cases where *vanH* 105 expression had also been strongly up-regulated (Fig. 3). In contrast, sigE transcription remained high or 106 continued to increase if the compound acted as a poor or non-inducer for vanH transcription (i.e. 107 Groups 3 and 4). This result implies that expression of the *sigE* system alone is insufficient to produce 108 a recovery from the cell wall stress created by the glycopeptides. Those compounds which failed to 109 induce transcription of *vanH* therefore cause continuous cell wall stress and damage which is in turn 110 reflected in their improved activity against vancomycin resistant strains. A group of damaged 111 glycopeptide derivatives produced by Edman degradation or reductive hydrolysis and exhibiting a 112 significantly reduced affinity toward the D-Ala-D-Ala dipeptide terminus of peptidoglycan precursors 113 were also analyzed (2). Although the damaged derivatives share virtually identical streochemical 114 structures with their corresponding parent glycopeptides, their biological activities are vastly different 115 due to modification of the binding pocket for the D-Ala-D-Ala dipeptide (22, 23). Similar results were 116 obtained in this study where both damaged vancomycin (D-1a) and teicoplanin (D-4a) exhibited no 117 activity in the MIC tests, and failed to induce transcription of either vanH or sigE. Interestingly 118 however, the MIC test showed that both damaged versions of CBP-vancomycin (D-3f) and dalbavancin 119 (D-4d) retain significant antibiotic activity despite the damage to their D-Ala-D-Ala binding pockets 120 (Table 1 and Fig. 3). In contrast to D-1a and D-4a, both compounds also induced a low but sustained increase in *sigE* transcription over the 90 min period of the study (Fig. 3). This indicates that these two derivatives possess a second mode of antibiotic action against cell wall biosynthesis in addition to that mediated by binding to the D-Ala-D-Ala termini of peptidoglycan precursors.

124 This work clarifies the relationship between glycopeptide structure, antibiotic activity and the ability to 125 induce the VanB-type van resistance system. By integrating data from MIC studies with reporters for 126 transcription of the van resistance (vanH) and cell wall stress response (sigE) systems in an S. 127 *coelicolor* model, we confirm for the first time that the activity of glycopeptide derivatives previously 128 identified against resistant pathogenic Enterococcal strains can be attributed to an inability to activate 129 transcription of the van resistance system. Derivatives with large hydrophobic substituents were shown 130 to be the most successful at evading detection by the VanB-type resistance mechanism while still 131 retaining potent antibiotic activity. Significant activity was also identified in two damaged derivatives 132 whose structures render them incapable of interacting normally with their D-Ala-D-Ala target groups. 133 Such structure-activity data has the potential to inform the future design and production of novel, more 134 effective glycopeptide antibiotic structures.

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214 FIGURE LEGENDS

216	FIG 1 A model illustrating organization and regulation of the vancomycin resistance system (A) and
217	the SigE system (B) in S. coelicolor.
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FIG 2 Chemical structure of glycopeptide derivatives used in this study.

221	FIG 3 Induction of vanH and sigE transcription in S. coelicolor M600 in response to glycopeptide			
222	derivatives. Total RNAs were extracted from each sample and analyzed using qRT-PCR. The X-axis			
223	indicates time (min) after addition of the treatment, and the Y-axis shows the fold change in expression			
224	relative to the level at time 0. Raw qRT-PCR data are presented in Table S1 and S2. For the detailed			
225	experimental procedure, see the experimental section in the supplemental material.			
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238 TABLE 1 MIC (µg/ml) of glycopeptide derivatives against S. coeliicolor in liquid culture. For

experimental details, see the experimental section in the supplemental material.

compounds	Streptomy	vces coelicolor
compounds	Sensitive ($\Delta vanRS$)	Resistant (wild type)
Group 1		
1a vancomycin	0.2	>100
1b vancomycin pseudoaglycone	0.4	>100
1c vancomycin aglycone	<0.3	>100
1d epi-vancomvcin	0.2	>100
1e vancomycin + putrescine	<0.1	15
1f chloroeremomycin	<0.1	20
1g balhimycin	0.1	45
Group 2		
2a glucosylated teicoplanin aglycone	<0.1	20
2b teicoplanin aglycone	<0.3	20
2c teicoplanin pseudoaglycone	<0.1	20
2d epi-vanco-Glc teicoplanin	< 0.1	10
 Group 3 3a 2-aminodecanoyl-Glc vancomycin 3b 6-aminodecanoyl-Glc vancomycin 3c 6-aminodecyl-Glc vancomycin 3d C6-CBP vancomycin 3e C6-amino CBP vancomycin 3f CBP vancomycin 3g CBP vancomycin + putrescine 	0.3 0.4 <0.1 <0.1 <0.1 <0.1 <0.1	$ \begin{array}{c} 10 \\ 5 \\ 1 \\ 0.2 \\ < 0.1 \\ < 0.1 \\ 0.2 \end{array} $
Group 4		
4a teicoplanin	< 0.1	0.2
4b 2-aminodecanoyl-Glc teicoplanin	<0.1	3
4c 6-aminodecanoyl-Glc teicoplanin	<0.1	0.2
4d dalbavancin	<0.1	<0.1
Damaged glycopeptide derivatives		
D-1a damaged vancomycin	>100	>100
D-4a damaged teicoplanin	>100	>100
D-3f damaged CBP-vancomycin	2	10
D 4d damaged dalbayancin	2	18



FIG 1 A model illustrating organization and regulation of the vancomycin resistance system (A) and the SigE system (B) in *S. coelicolor*.

	<u>Group 1</u>	<u>Group 3</u>
vancomycin derivatives	$\mathbf{1a} \mathbf{R}^{1} = \begin{array}{c} \overset{HO}{\longrightarrow} \overset{HO}{\longrightarrow} \overset{HO}{\longrightarrow} \overset{HO}{\longrightarrow} \overset{HO}{\longrightarrow} \overset{HO}{\longrightarrow} \mathbf{R}^{2} = \mathbf{H} \qquad \mathbf{R}^{3} = \mathbf{OH}$	$3a R^{1} = \qquad \qquad$
	$\mathbf{1b} \mathbf{R}^{1} = \overset{HO}{\underset{HO}{\bigcup}} \overset{HO}{\underset{OH}{\bigcup}} \mathbf{R}^{2} = \mathbf{H} \mathbf{R}^{3} = \mathbf{OH}$	3b $R^1 = HO$ C $R^2 = H$ $R^3 = OH$
	$\mathbf{ic} \mathbf{R}^1 = \mathbf{H} \mathbf{R}^2 = \mathbf{H} \mathbf{R}^3 = \mathbf{O}\mathbf{H}$	$3c$ $R^1 = HO O H$ $R^2 = H$ $R^3 = OH$
R ¹ → TOH HO OH	$1d R^{1} = \overset{HO}{\longrightarrow} \overset{HO}{\longrightarrow} \overset{HO}{\longrightarrow} \overset{HO}{\longrightarrow} \overset{HO}{\longrightarrow} R^{2} = H \qquad R^{3} = OH$	$3d R^1 = H_0 \underset{\text{transform}}{\overset{\text{NH}_2}{\longrightarrow}} R^2 = H \qquad R^3 = OH$
T NH2	$\mathbf{1e} \mathbf{R}^{1} = \underbrace{H_{1} H_{1} H_{1} H_{2}}_{\text{OH}} \mathbf{R}^{2} = \mathbf{H} \mathbf{R}^{3} = \mathbf{H}_{2} \mathbf{N}^{2} \mathbf{H}$	
Damaged D-Ala-D-Ala binding pocket	If $R^1 = {}^{HO} \underbrace{T_0}_{O} \underbrace{H_0}_{OH}^{HO} R^2 = {}^{HO} \underbrace{T_0}_{OL}^{Mn_2} R^3 = OH$	$3e R^{1} = HO_{NH} \qquad 3f R^{1} = HO_{NH} \qquad HO_{OH} $
	$\mathbf{1g} \mathbf{R}^{1} = \begin{array}{c} \overset{HO}{\longrightarrow} & \mathbf{R}^{2} = \begin{array}{c} \overset{NH_{2}}{\longrightarrow} & \mathbf{R}^{3} = \mathrm{OH} \end{array}$	$R^2 = H$ $R^3 = OH$ $R^2 = H$ $R^3 = OH$
		$3\mathbf{g} \mathbb{R}^{1} = \underset{H_{0}}{\overset{N_{H}}{\underset{h_{0}}{\overset{O}{\underset{h_{0}}{\overset{O}{\underset{h_{0}}{\overset{O}{\underset{h_{0}}{\overset{O}{\underset{O}{\overset{H_{0}}{\overset{O}{\underset{O}{\overset{H_{0}}{\overset{O}{\underset{O}{\overset{H_{0}}{\overset{O}{\underset{O}{\overset{H_{0}}{\overset{O}{\underset{O}{\overset{O}{\atopO}{\overset{O}{\underset{O}{\overset{O}{\overset{O}{\underset{O}{\overset{O}{\underset{O}{\overset{O}{\underset{O}{\overset{O}{\overset{O}{{\bullet}}{\overset{O}{{\atopO}}{\overset{O}{{\atopO}}{{\:{O}}{{\:{O}}{{\:{O}}{{\:{O}}{{\:$
teicoplanin derivatives	Group 2	<u>Group 4</u>
	$2\mathbf{a} \mathbf{R}^{1} = \overset{HO^{OH}}{\underset{HO}{\overset{OH}}{\overset{OH}{\overset{OH}{\overset{OH}{\overset{OH}{\overset{OH}{\overset{OH}{\overset{OH}{\overset{OH}{\overset{OH}{\overset{OH}{\overset{OH}{\overset{OH}{\overset{OH}{\overset{OH}{\overset{OH}{\overset{OH}{\overset{OH}{\overset{OH}{\overset{OH}}{\overset{OH}{\overset{OH}{\overset{OH}{\overset{OH}{\overset{OH}}{\overset{OH}{\overset{OH}{\overset{OH}}{\overset{OH}{\overset{OH}{\overset{OH}{\overset{OH}}{\overset{OH}}{\overset{OH}{\overset{OH}{\overset{OH}}{\overset{OH}{\overset{OH}}{\overset{OH}{\overset{OH}}{\overset{OH}{\overset{OH}}}{\overset{OH}{\overset{OH}{\overset{OH}{\overset{OH}{\overset{OH}{\overset{OH}}{\overset{OH}{\overset{OH}}{\overset{OH}}{\overset{OH}}{\overset{OH}}{\overset{OH}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}$	4a $R^1 = 4a$ $R^1 = 4a$ $R^2 = 4a$ $R^3 = 0H$
	2b $R^1 = H$ $R^2 = H$ $R^3 = OH$ $R^4 = H$	
	2c $R^{1} = H$ $R^{2} = HO \downarrow O$ NH $R^{3} = OH$ $R^{4} = H$ O = 4	4 $\mathbf{k}^{0} = \mathbf{k}^{0}$ b $\mathbf{k}^{-1} = \mathbf{k}^{0}$ c $\mathbf{k}^{-1} = \mathbf{k}^{-1}$ c
TNH2 CH	$2\mathbf{d} \mathbf{R}^{1} = \overset{HO}{} \overset{NH_{2}}{} \overset{OH}{} \overset{OH}{\underset{OH}} \qquad \mathbf{R}^{2} = \mathbf{H} \qquad \mathbf{R}^{3} = \mathbf{OH} \qquad \mathbf{R}^{4} = \mathbf{H}$	$4d R^1 = 4d R^1 = 4d R^2 = H R^2 = H R^3 = 2d R^3 = $
Damaged D-Ala-D-Ala binding pocket		$R^{4} = \bigcup_{\substack{O \leftarrow OH\\OH \\OH}} \prod_{OH} DH$

FIG 2 Chemical structure of glycopeptide derivatives used in this study.



FIG 3 Induction of *vanH* and *sigE* transcription in *S. coelicolor* M600 in response to glycopeptide derivatives. Total RNAs were extracted from each sample and analyzed using qRT-PCR. The X-axis indicates time (min) after addition of the treatment, and the Y-axis shows the fold change in expression relative to the level at time 0. Raw qRT-PCR data are presented in Table S1 and S2. For detailed the experimental procedure, see the experimental section in the supplemental material.