

A new therapy against MDR bacteria by *in silico* virtual screening of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* LpxC inhibitors

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SUMMARY

Multidrug-resistant (MDR) bacteria are a significant threat to communities worldwide. MDR *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* is, a pathogen resistant to most therapies, can cause serious conditions such as endocarditis and pneumonia. The development of an antibiotic is needed before current treatments fail. We targeted LpxC, a key protein for biosynthesizing lipid A of lipopolysaccharide, by *in silico* virtual screening of current approved therapies. In our first prediction, ZINC000001587011, also known as brequinar, had a low binding energy, high bioavailability, but an unfavorably high calculated octanol-water partition coefficient (cLogP), which signifies poor solubility in water. We performed functional group modification to decrease the high cLogP. Finally, after going through virtual screening of 20,000 candidates and 30 derivatives of ZINC000001587011, we propose that N11 might have the most potential against *P. aeruginosa* lipid A synthesis, making it a potential treatment for MDR *P. aeruginosa*.

INTRODUCTION

Multidrug-resistant (MDR) bacteria, bacterial strains resistant to drugs in three or more antimicrobial categories, pose a significant threat to communities worldwide with an estimated 2.8 million antibiotic-resistant infections occurring in the U.S. per year (1, 2). These infections are linked to increased morbidity and mortality, with around 35,000 deaths resulting from antibiotic-resistant infections in the U.S each year (2). MDR bacteria such as methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA), *Staphylococcus aureus*, and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* have become resistant over time to most available antibacterial agents, including tetracycline and chloramphenicol (3, 4). Even newly developed antibiotics like vancomycin became ineffective against these MDR bacteria due to the antibiotic-resistant genes being generated in these strains after the abuse of antibiotics (4). Antibiotics eliminate the non-antibiotic-resistant bacteria, making resistant strains dominant within the microbial communities. As antibiotic-resistance genes form in bacteria, other antibiotics must be used as a treatment, and eventually, the bacteria will become resistant to the new antibiotic. The abuse of antibiotics, where antibiotics are over-prescribed, accelerates this process, and the bacteria will become more and more resistant to antibiotics

(5). Eventually, MDR bacteria will evolve to overcome current antibiotic treatments, so alternative ways to remedy MDR bacteria must be investigated.

A conventional way to kill pathogens is to block off crucial metabolic pathways of pathogens by targeting a key set of proteins (6). This method is simple, effective, and has been used extensively. One promising new way is to inhibit virulence factors of pathogens, including preventing the synthesis of endotoxins and exotoxins (7), blocking quorum sensing (8), and stopping biofilm formation (9). Our method in this study is to prevent the synthesis of an endotoxin, which is known as lipopolysaccharide (LPS), by inhibiting lipid A synthesis. The assembly of LPS starts with lipid A, then core polysaccharides, and finally the O-antigen. Lipid A is the membrane anchor domain of LPS, and it is vital to both protect gram-negative bacteria against external agents and is also essential for bacterial growth. Therefore, inhibiting the biopathway of lipid A should lead to the death of gram-negative bacteria (10).

LpxC (EC: 3.5.1.108) is a hydrolase from the committed step in the lipid A biosynthesis pathway that hydrolyzes UDP-3-O-myristoyl-N-acetylglucosamine to UDP-3-O-myristoylglucosamine. LpxC can function as a monomer that binds with either cofactors Zn²⁺ or Fe²⁺ (11). LpxC is highly conserved among gram-negative bacteria, and potentially can be lethal if inhibited. Previous research has targeted LpxC to design potential inhibitors, such as CHIR-090, BB78484, LpxC-4, and TU-514 (12-15) (Figure 1). However, no inhibitors are available commercially. LpxC remains a relatively unexplored target for developing inhibitors. Our study will attempt to find a potential lead compound for LpxC

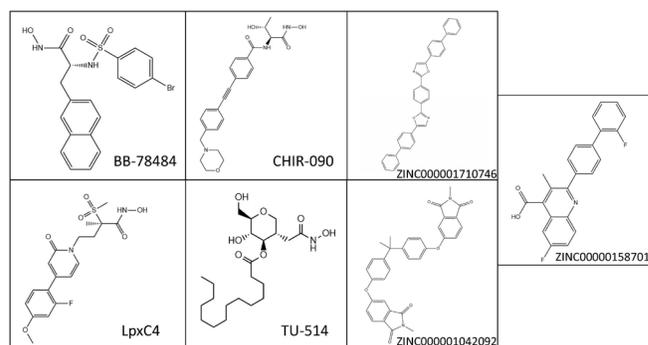


Figure 1: Structure of LpxC inhibitors from previous research. Structures were obtained from PubChem and redrawn in ChemDraw.

inhibition in *P. aeruginosa* by using *in silico* docking.

Reverse pharmacology is a method contrary to classical pharmacology of drug development for finding lead compounds (16). Reverse pharmacology utilizes computational techniques to find potential drug candidates. A specific protein target is first selected based on the significance of the pathogenic mechanism, then a computer attempts to dock multiple molecules at a binding site on the protein. The candidates with the lowest binding energies have potential, as the molecule and enzyme are more likely to bind. For the process to be thermodynamically favorable, the binding energy must be negative.

Here, we performed an *in silico* virtual screening on LpxC in *P. aeruginosa* to find a new drug against this MDR bacteria. We then made several functional group modifications to the lead compound, and the modified molecules were re-docked. We hypothesized that using computational techniques of molecular docking, we could find a potential lead compound that can prevent the bio-synthesis of LPS leading to the death of the pathogen. In this study, we found a promising lead compound that can inhibit LpxC in *P. aeruginosa* and modified it to increase its bioavailability, which can be further studied for human use.

RESULTS

To identify a lead compound, we docked twenty thousand substances from the catalogs of Alfa-Chemistry in the ZINC15 database. Around 0.865% of the compounds had a binding energy of -9 kcal/mol and under, with only two compounds having a binding energy of less than -11 kcal/mol. ZINC000001042092 had an exceptionally low binding energy of -11.7 kcal/mol. ZINC000001710746 also had a low binding energy of -11.5 kcal/mol (Table 1).

The "Lipinski rule of 5" is most commonly used to eliminate non-ideal candidates. This rule states that a lead compound which violates more than one of these rules will have poor absorption or permeation: {1} - More than 5 hydrogen bond donors; {2} - More than 10 hydrogen bond acceptors; {3} - Molecular weight of more than 500 Dalton; {4} - Calculated octanol-water partition coefficient (cLogP) is calculated to be greater than 5 (17). Although both ZINC000001042092 and ZINC000001710746 only violate one of these rules, their high molecular weight and the number of benzene rings lead to concerns about permeability and solubility. Taking these

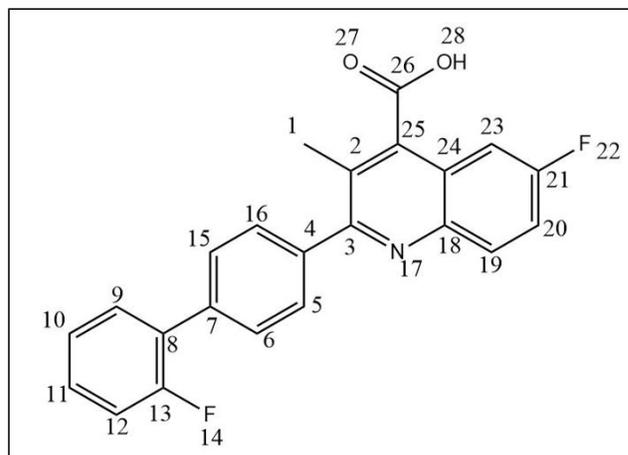


Figure 2: Structure of ZINC000001587011. The numbers are used to identify all individual atoms except for hydrogen.

into consideration, we chose ZINC000001587011, as it had a much lower molecular weight and much higher Abbot bioavailability score while maintaining an acceptable binding energy of -10.9 kcal/mol. Moreover, this compound, known as brequinar, is already clinically used to treat autoimmune diseases, such as rheumatoid arthritis, by inhibiting human dihydroorotate dehydrogenase (18).

In order to improve our lead compound, we modified it with chloroalkane, nitro, and aldehyde groups. We then re-docked these derivatives of brequinar. We specifically chose these groups because they have the potential to increase the electron acceptor groups, making it easier to interact with the binding site. Carbon atoms, which can be modified with functional groups, are C₁, C₁₀, C₁₁, C₁₂, C₁₉, C₂₀, C₂₃ (Figure 2). No improvement in binding energy was observed out of the 30 derivatives, but cLogP values varied widely. For molecules modified with chloroalkane groups, the cLogP unexpectedly increased, while others modified with nitro groups and aldehyde groups usually decreased in cLogP (Table 2). The lowest achieved cLogP, N1, had a difference in cLogP of 1.12 compared to the original lead compound. The reason for analyzing the cLogP is because lower values usually have better performances in drug-likeness tests due to increased solubility in water.

Next, we analyzed the 3D structure of the modified compounds docked with LpxC. We found that a Zn²⁺ ion was

Molecule	MW (Da)	R	A	D	cLogP	Binding Energy (kcal/mol)	Abbot
ZINC000001042092	546.57	6	6	0	4.89	-11.7	0.55
ZINC000001710746	516.59	6	4	0	7.75	-11.5	0.17
ZINC000001587011	375.37	3	5	1	5.09	-10.9	0.85

MW: molecular weight; R: number of rotatable bonds; A: number of hydrogen acceptors; D: number of hydrogen donors.

Table 1: Top three molecules with the lowest binding energies after docking with LpxC.

Molecule	MW (Da)	cLogP	Binding Energy (kcal/mol)	Tunnel	Molecule	MW (Da)	cLogP	Binding Energy (kcal/mol)	Tunnel
N11	420.37	4.29	-10.2	Y	N12	420.37	4.3	-8.7	N
N20	420.37	4.28	-9.9	Y	CHO10	403.38	4.78	-8.7	N
CHO20	403.38	4.77	-9.8	Y	CL23	409.81	5.57	-8.7	N
CL20	409.81	5.55	-9.8	Y	CL12	409.81	5.6	-8.7	N
CL19	409.81	5.59	-9.8	Y	N9	420.37	4.32	-8.6	N
CL11	409.81	5.61	-9.8	Y	CHO1	403.38	4.55	-8.6	N
N19	420.37	4.26	-9.7	Y	CHO11	403.38	4.78	-8.6	N
CHO19	403.38	4.79	-9.5	Y	CHO5	403.38	4.78	-8.6	N
CL6	409.81	5.62	-9.5	Y	CHO12	403.38	4.8	-8.6	N
N5	420.37	4.32	-9.3	Y	CL1	409.81	5.3	-8.6	N
CL10	409.81	5.61	-9.1	N	N10	420.37	4.32	-8.5	N
N1	420.37	3.97	-8.9	N	CHO23	403.38	4.73	-8.5	N
N23	420.37	4.27	-8.9	N	CHO6	403.38	4.81	-8.4	N
N6	420.37	4.34	-8.9	N	CHO9	403.38	4.77	-8.3	N
CL5	409.81	5.59	-8.8	N	CL9	409.81	5.61	-8.3	N

MW: molecular weight; Y and N for the Tunnel column dictates whether the molecule reaches into the small tunnel in the active site.

Table 2: Docking results of ZINC000001587011 derivatives.

inside the active site which has two openings (Figure 3). One opening is connected to a small tunnel, which only allows certain structures to enter it. However, all compounds that could enter this tunnel had tighter interactions with LpxC (Figure 4; Table 2). In fact, these compounds had the 10 lowest binding energies of all the modified molecules. We found that only 2 benzyl rings could reach inside the tunnel, so modifications made on those rings would have a large effect on the binding energies. Only C₅ and C₆, which is located at the neck of the small tunnel, had space for small molecular modifications without drastic changes to the binding energy (Figure 4). We were able to perform larger molecular modification without affecting the binding energy in the phenyl ring near the center of the active site, at C₁₉ and C₂₀. C₂₃, on the same phenyl ring, is too close to the Zn²⁺ binding site of the candidates, leaving no space for modifications.

To compare our candidates to inhibitors from previous

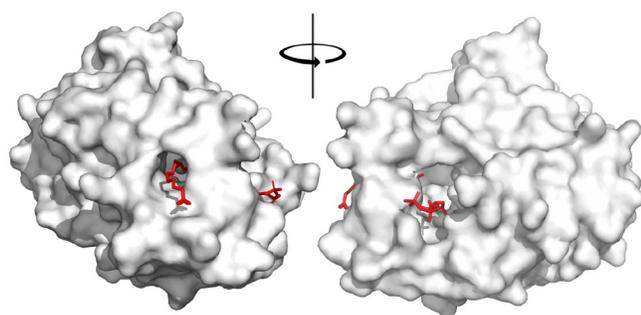


Figure 3: Active pocket on LpxC with two openings. Under this axis, small tunnel is located in the left side, and the one on the right is much bigger opening. The substrate is colored in red.

research, CHIR-090, BB78484, LpxC-4 and TU-514, Simplified Molecular Input Line Entry System (SMILES) files were pasted into Chem3D and exported as SDF files for molecular docking. We see that our candidates are similar in structure; however, their inhibitors have much higher binding energies, between -9.2 and -7.0 kcal/mol (Table 3). As mentioned earlier, we found that molecules that could reach inside the smaller tunnel in the binding site had better interactions. Most of these candidates reach into the tunnel, the purple-shaded region in Figure 5. CHIR-090 and LpxC-4 both use their benzyl ring structures to reach into the tunnel. TU-514 uses a long carbon chain to reach into the tunnel. Only BB78484 does not reach into the tunnel due to its structure.

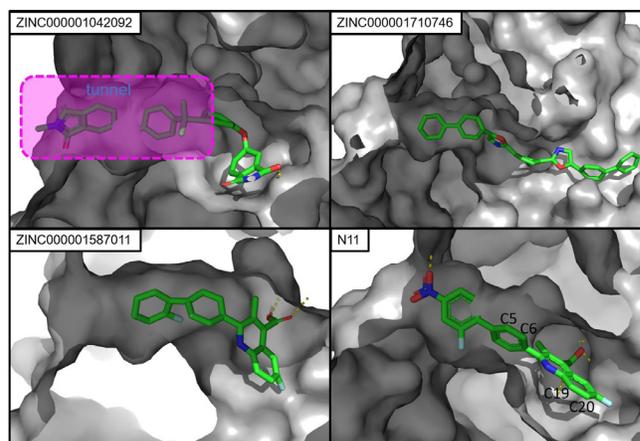


Figure 4: Ligand-protein 3D images. Small tunnel in the active site is shadowed in pink color. Green: Carbon, Blue: Nitrogen, Red: Oxygen, Light Blue: Fluorine.

Molecule	MW (Da)	cLogP	Binding Energy (kcal/mol)	Tunnel
CHIR-090	437.49	1.53	-9.2	Y
LpxC4	412.43	1.53	-8.8	Y
BB-78484	449.32	2.95	-8.8	N
TU-514	431.56	3.3	-7	Y

MW: molecular weight; Y and N for the Tunnel column dictates whether the molecule reaches into the small tunnel in the active site.

Table 3: Docking results of inhibitors from previous research.

DISCUSSION

In our research, we eliminated ZINC000001042092 and ZINC000001710746, our top two lead compounds with the lowest binding energies, due to concerns of permeability and solubility despite their extremely low binding energies. We used ZINC000001587011 as our lead compound and modified it with functional groups, as it had good permeability and solubility while maintaining a low binding energy. We then docked functional-group-modified versions of our lead compound and analyzed the results. We propose that N11 is our best candidate due to its low cLogP, which makes the compound soluble in the water and thus more easily absorbed by the human body. Although its binding energy is slightly worse than the original ZINC000001587011, the cLogP value improved while maintaining the same bioavailability as the original, making it our best candidate.

Bioavailability is very complicated in calculation, and even small modifications to the original compound can lead to large differences in bioavailability score. Although nitro-modified molecules had a decrease in bioavailability scores, the scores are still slightly higher than the two original eliminated candidates. The chloroalkane and aldehyde modified molecules had the exact same bioavailability score as brequinar, so these are more ideal for human consumption.

When compared to candidates from other research, we saw that previous candidates have a much lower cLogP, between 1.53 to 3.3. However, their binding energies are not as favorable as ours, ranging from -7 to -9.2 kcal/mol. Future studies should be done on the modification of ZINC000001587011 to lower the cLogP to enhance drug performance. After analyzing the 3D structure of our results, we believe that future work should start with modification on C₁₉ or C₂₀ to better occupy the entire binding site. We predict that proper modifications on these carbons will lead to an improvement in binding energy.

In this study, we found that the N11 modification of ZINC000001587011 is an ideal candidate for the inhibition of LpxC in *P. aeruginosa*, due to its favorable binding energy, low cLogP, and high bioavailability. With further *in vitro* testing, this candidate is a promising treatment of the ongoing problem of MDR bacteria and can benefit communities worldwide.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Materials

Two online databases were used; RCSB PDB (<https://www.rcsb.org/>) and ZINC15 (<https://zinc15.docking.org/>) used to download protein structure files and ligands file, respectively. Docking platforms used were AutoDockTools 1.5.6 and PyRX 0.9.x. Molecule remodeling programs used were ChemDraw 20.0 and Chem3D. Protein-ligand interaction figures in this study were made with Pymol 2.4. SwissADME was used for lead compound elimination and modified compound elimination.

Molecular Docking

The ligand files from the Alfa-Chemistry catalog were downloaded and converted to PDBQT format with the Open Babel function on PyRX. The docking center was set to -14.39, 14.97, -28.08 (x,y,z) with the grid box dimensions (Å) of 41.25, 20.25, 20.25 (x,y,z). The AutoDock VI-NA panel in PyRX was used for docking, with exhaustiveness set to 10. The two candidates with the lowest binding energies were selected for further remodeling.

Lead Compound Elimination

The compounds with the lowest binding energies from docking were successively analyzed with SwissADME, focusing on the molecular weights, ClogP, and the Abbot bioavailability scores. To make the final decision about the candidate to modify, these values were considered along with the binding energy.

Functional Group Modification

The candidates' original ligand structures were input into ChemDraw using the SMILES code. Chloroalkane, nitro, and aldehyde groups were added on to the candidates' backbone carbons one at a time. The modified molecules were copied to Chem3D and saved as SDF files. The molecular docking process was then repeated with these files.

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