

Article

Not peer-reviewed version

Corallopyronin B Antibiotic Construct from Heterogeneous Soil Environments in Egypt

[Mohammed MahmoudShawky Kassab](#) *

Posted Date: 13 May 2024

doi: 10.20944/preprints202405.0769.v1

Keywords: Corallopyronin B; Infection; Antimicrobial; Resistance; Myxobacteria



Preprints.org is a free multidiscipline platform providing preprint service that is dedicated to making early versions of research outputs permanently available and citable. Preprints posted at Preprints.org appear in Web of Science, Crossref, Google Scholar, Scilit, Europe PMC.

Copyright: This is an open access article distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution License which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Article

Corallopyronin B Antibiotic Construct from Heterogeneous Soil Environments in Egypt

Mohammed Kassab

Professor of Microbiology and Immunology, Department of Microbiology and Immunology, Faculty of Pharmacy, Cairo University, Egypt; ksabmhd676@gmail.com; Tel.: +201032579044

Abstract: Background: Antibiotic resistance is an urgent issue everywhere in the globe. It is necessary to look into new sources of antibiotics to address this issue. Methodology: Several soil conditions in Egypt were examined to create bacterial isolates that generated the antibiotic chemical *Corallopyronin B*. Using *reversed-phase HPLC*, *Myxopyronin B* was purified. The test antibiotic's minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) and in vitro antibacterial activity were ascertained using the paper disc diffusion assay and the broth microdilution technique. Furthermore, in stages 1/2 of randomized clinical trials including human and animal models, pharmacokinetics, adverse drug reactions, and the in vivo antibacterial spectrum were discovered. Results: The soil bacterial isolate *Coralloccoccus coralloides* DSM 2259, which was grown on a Casein yeast peptone (CYP) plate, produced *Corallopyronin B* from its culture supernatant. At MICs more than 100 mcg/ml, the test antibiotic inhibited the growth of many Gram -ve bacteria, including *Escherichia coli*, while also preventing the growth of numerous Gram +ve bacteria, with MICs ranging from 1 to 10 mcg/ml. Eukaryotic cells, on the other hand, including those in humans and fungi, were unharmed. Conclusion: The current work was noteworthy since it involved the production of the bactericidal antibiotic *Corallopyronin B* from *Coralloccoccus coralloides* DSM 2259 which was isolated from several soil environments in Egypt.

Keywords: Corallopyronin B; infection; antimicrobial; resistance; myxobacteria

1. Introduction

Selective toxicity is a requirement for an antibiotic's medicinal value [1]. Compared to human cells, the activity of bacteria must be greatly inhibited [2]. Since antibiotic resistance is a significant, worldwide difficulty that needs to be addressed, the hunt for new sources of antibiotics is crucial [3]. Antibacterial medications primarily target four structures: nucleic acids, cell membranes, ribosomes, and cell walls [4]. Due to their lack of a cell wall and the presence of special ribosomes, nucleic acid enzymes, and sterols in their membranes, these medications do not affect human cells [5]. Antibiotics that are classified as bactericidal are expeditious in killing bacteria [6]. Contrarily, bacteriostatic medications stop the development of microorganisms [7]. The patient's phagocytes eradicate the infection while using bacteriostatic medications [8].

Bacteriocidal medications have to be administered to patients with low neutrophil levels [9]. *Corallopyronins* are a class of alpha-pyrone antibiotics [10]. A family of heterocyclic chemical compounds is known as pyrones [11]. They feature a ketone functional group and an unsaturated six-membered ring with one oxygen atom [12]. The terms *4-pyrone* and *2-pyrone* refer to the two isomers [13]. Because Corallopyronins do not cross-resistance with any other medicine, they may be able to help solve the developing issue of drug resistance in TB [14]. *Methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) therapy could potentially be advantageous [15]. The cognitive content of the current study was to evaluate the synthesis of a new antibiotic named *Corallopyronin B* under diverse soil conditions in Egypt. In phase 1/2 randomized clinical trials involving humans, antibacterial activity was also examined.

2. Patients and Methods

2.1. Ethical Statement

All relevant institutional, national, and/ or worldwide standards on the use and care of humans and animals were given priority in the current study. The Ethical Committee for Human and Animal Handling at Cairo University (ECAHCU), housed at the Faculty of Pharmacy, Cairo University, Egypt, approved all study procedures involving humans and animals per the recommendations of the Weatherall Report (approval number T716-2022). The number and degree of suffering of the study's human and animal participants were minimized at all costs. The randomized human clinical trial registration number for *Phases 1/2* was NCT00000381/ 2022.

2.2. Type of the Study

Screening experimental study.

2.3. Place and Date of the Study

The study was conducted at Cairo University's pharmacy faculty in Egypt between *Julie 2022* and *November 2023*.

2.4. Source of Animal Models

The Department of Pharmacology and Toxicology at Cairo University's College of Pharmacy provided animal models, which were deemed acceptable.

2.5. Inclusion Criteria for Animal Models

Animal models of adult male, obese rabbits weighing approximately 2 kg are available for inoculation against several bacterial diseases. Before the trial, the rabbits were allowed to acclimatize for one week. At 50% ± 5% humidity, a 12-hour light-dark cycle, and a regulated temperature of 25± 2°C. Fresh grass was given to the bunnies to eat.

2.6. Exclusion Criteria for Animal Models

Young and female rabbits; Non-obese rabbits weighing less than 2 kg.

2.7. Collection of 100 Soil Samples

The samples were randomly selected grassland soils that were taken from various soil settings in Egypt at a depth of 30 cm. Before being processed, samples were kept at 4 °C in sterile containers. Each soil sample was weighed out at one gram, and each 250 ml Erlenmeyer flask had 99 ml of sterile distilled water. The flasks were shaken at 400 rpm for five minutes using a gyrator shaker. Following dilutions from 10⁻¹ to 10⁻⁶ in sterile distilled water, the soil suspensions were plated on selective *Casein yeast peptone agar medium* (bought from *Sigma-Aldrich, USA*).

50 cc of *nutrient broth liquid* at PH 7 was added to 250 ml Erlenmeyer flasks to create the inoculum for the bacterial isolate under investigation. The medium was autoclaved and then infected with a loopful of culture from a nutritional agar slant that had been left overnight. The inoculum was the inoculated flasks, which were shaken for a whole day at 150 rpm.

3. Instruments

3.1. Material

The suppliers of all chemical and biological materials were the Egyptian companies Alnasr Chemical Company and Algomhuria Pharmaceutical Company. Analytical-grade chemical reagents were utilized in all cases.

Table 1. List of instruments.

Instrument	Model and manufacturer
Autoclaves	Tomy, japan
Aerobic incubator	Sanyo, Japan
Digital balance	Mettler Toledo, Switzerland
Oven	Binder, Germany
Deep freezer -70 °C	Artiko
Refrigerator 5	whirlpool
PH meter electrode	Mettler-toledo, UK
Deep freezer -20 °C	whirlpool
Gyrator shaker	Corning gyrator shaker, Japan
190-1100nm Ultraviolet-visible spectrophotometer	UV1600PC, China
Light(optical) microscope	Amscope 120X-1200X, China

3.2. Isolation of *Coralloccoccus Coralloides* DSM 2259 Producing Corallopyronin Antibiotics

The selective isolation of species of *Coralloccoccus coralloides* DSM 2259 from different soil samples was directly achieved using dilution plating. The technique comprised the suppression of competing bacteria exploiting antibiotics such as 10 mcg/ ml Vancomycin and/ or 10 mcg/ ml Chloramphenicol combined with wet heat treatment of soils and air drying. Fungi were eliminated by supplementing the plating medium with 2 mcg/ ml Terbinafine HCl. Swarming of *Coralloccoccus coralloides* DSM 2259 colonies was controlled with Casein Yeast Peptone (CYP) plates incubated at 30°C and PH 7.2 for 5 days. The constitution of the CYP plate included 0.4 % Peptone from Casein, tryptically digested, 0.3 % CaCl₂.2H₂O, 0.1 % MgSO₄.7H₂O, PH 7.2. The potent bacterial isolate producing Myxopyronin was performed utilizing a 16 S rRNA sequencing technique. The predominant bacterial isolate with high antibacterial activity was identified using 16S rRNA sequencing and other biochemical tests. Nucleic acid was extracted from a swab by bead-beating in a buffered solution containing Phenol, Chloroform, and Isoamyl alcohol. The variable region of the 16S rRNA gene was then amplified from the resulting nucleic acid using PCR. The genomic DNA was extracted from 120 hours of cultured cells using a DNA purification kit[PurreLink™ Genomic DNA Mini Kit with Catalog number: K182002 was purchased from Invitrogen, USA] according to the protocol provided by the manufacturer of the DNA purification kit. The 16S rRNA gene was amplified by PCR[PCR SuperMix kit was purchased from Invitrogen, USA] using forward[5-AGAGTTTGATCCTGGCTCAG-3'] and reverse[5-GGTTACCTTGTTACGACTT-3'] primers. PCR amplicons from up to hundreds of samples were then combined and sequenced on a single run. The resulting sequences were matched to a reference database to determine relative bacterial abundances. Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) was a powerful method for amplifying particular segments of DNA. PCR used the enzyme Platinum™ Taq DNA polymerase with catalog number 10966018[purchased from Invitrogen, USA] that directed the synthesis of DNA from deoxynucleotide substrates on a single-stranded DNA template. DNA polymerase added nucleotides to the 3` end of a custom-designed oligonucleotide when it was annealed to a longer template DNA. Thus, if a synthetic oligonucleotide was annealed to a single-stranded template that contained a region complementary to the oligonucleotide, DNA polymerase could use the oligonucleotide as a primer and elongate its 3` end to generate an extended region of double-stranded DNA. **Denaturation was the initial PCR cycle stage** The DNA template was heated to 94° C. This broke down the weak hydrogen bonds that held DNA strands together in a helix, allowing the strands to separate creating single-stranded DNA. **Annealing was the second PCR cycle.** The mixture was cooled to anywhere from 50-70° C. This allowed the primers to bind (anneal) to their complementary sequence in the template DNA. **The extension was the final step of the PCR cycle.** The reaction was; then heated up to 72° C, the optimal temperature for DNA polymerase to act.

DNA polymerase extended the primers, adding nucleotides onto the primer in a sequential manner, using the target DNA as a template. With one cycle, a single segment of double-stranded DNA template was amplified into two separate pieces of double-stranded DNA. These two pieces were then available for amplification in the next cycle. As the cycles were repeated, more and more copies were generated and the number of copies of the template was increased exponentially. The amplified PCR product was sequenced using a genetic analyzer 3130XL [purchased from Applied Biosystems, USA]. DNA sequence homology search analysis of the predominant bacterial isolate was achieved using the Blastn algorithm at the NCBI website. Fruiting bodies were examined using a Stereomicroscope (dissecting microscope) MSC-ST45T (purchased from Infetik, China). Wet mounts from crushed fruiting bodies were prepared. The refractivity, shape, and size of Myxospores were determined by employing phase contrast microscopy. On the other hand, the plates were exposed to 360 nm wavelength ultraviolet light to assess the fruiting bodies fluoresced [16].

3.3. Identification of Myxopyronin B-Producing Bacterial Isolates

3.3.1. Gram Stain

It classified bacteria into two categories based on the makeup of their cell walls. The bacterial cells became purple after being treated with a solution of crystal violet and subsequently iodine on a microscope slide. When colored cells were treated with a solvent such as alcohol or acetone, gram-positive organisms kept the stain whereas gram-negative organisms lost the stain and turned colorless. With the addition of the counter-stain safranin, the clear, gram-negative bacteria became pink [17].

3.3.2. Spore Shape

This was discovered using the spore staining method. To get rid of any fingerprints, the slide was wiped with alcohol and a Kim wipe. On the bottom of the slide, a Sharpie was used to create two circles. Each circle was filled with two tiny droplets of water using an inoculation loop. A very small amount of germs was taken out of the culture tube using an aseptic method. The water droplet on the slide had microorganisms on it. The slide was thoroughly dried by air. Bypassing the slide through the flame three to four times with the smear side up, the slide was heat-fixed. It took a while for the slide to completely cool. A piece of paper towel placed inside the slide's border was used to hide the streaks. A beaker of heating water was situated over the slide. The slide was allowed to steam for three to five minutes; while the paper towel was covered with a malachite green liquid. Removed and thrown away was the discolored paper towel. To get rid of any stray paper towel bits, the slide was gently cleaned with water. The counter-stain was safranin for 1 minute. Before putting the slide on the microscope's stage and seeing it via the oil immersion lens, the slide's bottom was dried [18].

3.3.3. Spore Site

During the Gram stain test, the spore location was established [19].

3.3.4. Cell Shape

During the Gram stain test, the cell shape was assessed [20].

3.3.5. Blood Hemolysis

On blood agar media, the test antibiotic capacity to haemolyze the blood was tested [21].

3.3.6. Motility Test

It discriminated between motile bacteria and non-motile bacteria.

A sterile needle was used to penetrate the medium to within 1 cm of the tube's bottom to select a well-isolated colony and test for motility. The needle was certainly retained in the same position as

it was inserted and removed from the medium. It took 18 hours of incubation at 35°C, or until noticeable growth appeared [22].

3.3.7. Nitrate Reduction Test

0.5 ml of nitrate broth was added to a clean test tube, autoclaved for 15 minutes at 15 lbs pressure and 121°C, and let to cool to room temperature. The tube was inoculated with a heavy inoculum of fresh bacterial culture and was incubated at 35°C for 2 hours. 2 drops of reagent A and 2 drops of reagent B were added and mixed well. The development of a red color within 2 minutes was observed. If no red color was developed, a small amount of zinc dust was added and observed for the development of the red color within 5 minutes [23].

3.3.8. Methyl Red Test

In the Methyl Red test, an infected tube of MR broth was used before adding the methyl red PH indicator. The buffers in the medium were overcome by the acids when an organism used the mixed acid fermentation pathway and produced stable acidic end products, resulting in an acidic environment [24].

3.3.9. Catalase Test

A little inoculum of a specific bacterial strain was introduced to a 3% hydrogen peroxide solution to see if it might produce catalase. It was observed for the rapid emergence of oxygen bubbles [25].

3.3.10. Oxidase Test

The 1% Kovács oxidase reagent was applied to a tiny piece of filter paper, which was then allowed to air dry. A well-isolated colony was taken from a fresh (18 to 24-hour culture) bacterial plate using a sterile loop, and it was then rubbed onto prepared filter paper. Color alterations were noticed [26].

3.3.11. Citrate Utilization

Five milliliters of a Simmon Koser's citrate medium were taken after it had been autoclaved at 15 pounds for 15 minutes. To create a clear slant and butt, the test tube containing melted citrate medium was slanted. Using sterilized wire and labeled tubes, the specified samples of microbe were injected on the media's incline. For 24 hours, the tubes were incubated at 37°C. The medium's color shift was watched for [27].

3.3.12. Starch Hydrolysis

For 48 hours at 37°C, the bacterium plates were injected. After incubation, a dropper was used to saturate the surface of the plates with an iodine solution for 30 seconds. Iodine that was in excess was afterward poured out. The area surrounding the bacterial growth line was looked at [28].

3.3.13. Tween 80 Hydrolysis

1% Tween 80 was used to create agar media. The supplied microorganism was added to the Tween 80 agar plates by utilizing an inoculating loop to create a single center streak in the plate. The plates were incubated for 24 hours at 37 °C. HgCl₂ solution was poured over the plates. After a short while, the plates were examined. Positive test result; distinct halo-zone surrounding the injected region showed Tween 80 hydrolysis [29].

3.3.14. Growth at 10-45°C

On nutrient agar media, growth was observed to be possible at 10-45°C [30].

3.3.15. Indole Test

The test tube containing the microorganism for inoculation received 5 drops of the Kovács reagent directly. Within seconds after introducing the reagent to the media, the reagent layer formed a pink-to-red color (cherry-red ring), which was a sign of a positive indol test [31].

3.3.16. Tolerance Salinity Test

Its capacity to develop on nutrient agar while being responsive to 5% and 7 % NaCl was examined [32].

3.3.17. Voges-Proskauer(VP) Test

For the test, Voges-Proskauer broth, a glucose-phosphate broth loaded with microorganisms, was added to alpha-naphthol and potassium hydroxide. A successful outcome was indicated by a cherry red tint, whereas an unfortunate outcome was indicated by a yellow-brown color [33].

3.3.18. Casein Hydrolysis Test

For testing the casein hydrolyzing activity of the test antibiotic, a single line streak of the given culture was made in the center of the skim milk agar plate under aseptic conditions, and the plate was incubated at 37°C in an incubator for 24-48 h [34].

3.4. Saccharide Fermentation Tests

3.4.1. Glucose Fermentation Test

The fermentation reactions of glucose were investigated using glucose purple broth. Peptone and the PH indicator bromocresol purple made up the purple broth. A 1% concentration of glucose was added. Isolated colonies from a 24-hour pure culture of microorganisms were added to the glucose purple broth as an inoculant. Parallel to the inoculation of the glucose-based medium, a control tube of purple broth base was used. The inoculated medium was incubated aerobically for 3 days at a temperature of 35–37 °C. The medium began to become yellow, which was a sign of a successful outcome. A poor carbohydrate fermentation response was indicated by the lack of yellow color development [35].

3.4.2. Fructose Fermentation Test

A pure culture's inoculum was aseptically transferred to a sterile tube of phenol red fructose broth. The infected tube was incubated for 18–24 hours at 35–37 °C. A color shift from red to yellow, signifying an acidic PH alteration, was a sign of a favorable response [36].

3.4.3. Maltose Fermentation Test

A pure culture inoculum was aseptically transferred to a sterile tube containing phenol red maltose broth. The infected tube was incubated for 18–24 hours at 35–37 °C. A color shift from red to yellow, signifying an acidic PH alteration, was a sign of a favorable response [37].

3.4.4. Sucrose Fermentation Test

A pure culture's inoculum was aseptically transferred to a sterile tube containing phenol red sucrose broth. For 24 hours, the infected tube was incubated at 35–37 °C. A color shift from red to yellow, signifying an acidic PH alteration, was a sign of a favorable response [38].

3.4.5. Purification of Corallopyronin B Antibiotic

This was achieved through the reversed phase chromatography technique.

The aeration rate was 0.142 V/ V. min. The stirring rate was 500 rpm. PO₂ was at about 90 % of saturation; but decreased to about 20 % after 18 hours). The fermentation was stopped after 40 hours

via centrifugation at 500 rpm in a gyrator shaker. The supernatants were collected; and then tested for antimicrobial sensitivity using broth dilution technique to detect MICs and agar paper diffusion discs technique. The test antibiotic was extracted from the 2 liters of culture broth with 2/ 10 volume ethyl acetate. The ethyl acetate was then removed under the reduced pressure at 40 °C. Afterward, the residue was dissolved in 398 ml of methanol-water (90: 10) and chromatographed on reversed-phase HPLC. Methanol was the mobile phase. The eluent was 70 part methanol: 16 part water: and 4 part acetic acid with a flow rate of 300 ml/ min. Detection of the antibiotic components was achieved by exploiting the refractive index. The main peak with a retention time of 5 minutes contained the biological antibiotic activity which was determined via agar diffusion assay using paper discs and *Staphylococcus aureus* as an indicator organism. On the other hand, the main peak was subjected to neutralization via NaHCO₃. Corallopyronin A was extracted using 10 % V/ V Methylene chloride. After the evaporation of the solvent, about 87 % of the antibiotic substance purified was Corallopyronin B. It was noticed that the retention time of Corallopyronin B was 9 minutes. The molecular formula of the purified Corallopyronin B was detected through a mass spectrometer (Quadrupole mass spectrometer, Advion, USA) [39]. It was detected also, that 13% of Corallopyronin mixture extract were 7% Corallopyronin A and 6% Corallopyronin C.

3.5. The Procedure of Broth Dilution Assay for Determination of MICs of Corallopyronin B

A specific broth was added to several microtiter plates during the testing process based on the requirements of the target bacterium. The test microorganisms and antibiotics were then introduced to the plate in varying amounts. After that, the plate was put into a non-CO₂ incubator and left there for sixteen to twenty hours at 37 degrees Celsius. The plate was taken out and examined for bacterial growth after the specified amount of time had passed. Bacterial growth was detected in the cloudiness of the broth. The lowest concentration of antibiotics that prevented bacterial growth, or Minimum Inhibitory Concentration (MIC), was used to describe the outcomes of the broth microdilution method [40].

3.6. Agar Diffusion Assay with Paper Discs Procedure for the Determination of Corallopyronin B Antimicrobial Activity

The agar diffusion technique (ADM) was used to classify the disc diffusion method (DDM) because the test microorganism-seeded agar media allowed the test antibiotic extract to disperse from its reservoir. A filter paper disc put on an agar surface served as the reservoir most of the time. After the filter paper disc was incubated, an inhibitory zone formed around the tested extract chemicals that were microbiologically active. The test extract's antibacterial potency was accurately reflected by the inhibition zone's diameter [41]. Both broth and selection or enrichment growing media were used to isolate the test microorganisms (Table 2).

Table 2. It demonstrates different isolation media for different pathogenic m.os. utilized in the Broth microdilution test and agar diffusion assay using paper discs:

Pathogenic m.o	No of strains	Isolation media
<i>Bacillus subtilis</i>	5	Mannitol egg yolk polymixin agar (MEYP)
<i>Bacillus cereus</i>	7	Polymixin egg yolk mannitol bromothymol blue agar (PEMBA)
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	6	Salt mannitol agar (SMA)
<i>Pneumococci</i>	13	Todd Hewitt broth with yeast extract

<i>E. coli</i>	17	Sorbitol- Macconkey agar
<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	10	<i>Pseudomonas isolation agar (PSA)</i>
<i>Candida albicans</i>	1	Potato dextrose agar (PDA)
<i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i>	5	Sabourad dextrose agar (SDA)
<i>Salmonella typhimurium</i>	4	Bismuth sulfite agar (BSA)
<i>Haemophilus influenza</i>	3	Enriched chocolate agar
Gonococci	4	Thayer martin medium
meningococci	6	Mueller Hinton agar
<i>Serratia Marcescens</i>	4	Caprylate thallos agar medium
<i>Mucor hiemalis</i>	1	Potato dextrose broth
<i>Shigella dysenteriae</i>	8	Hekteen enteric agar
<i>Micrococcus luteus</i>	1	Tryptic soy agar
<i>Proteus mirabilis</i>	1	Blood agar
<i>Chlamydiae pneumoniae</i>	1	<i>Chlamydiae pneumoniae</i> Monkey cell culture
<i>Rickettsiae typhi</i>	1	Chicken embryos culture

3.7. Estimation of Corallopyronin B Effect on Bacterial RNA Synthesis

The concentration of RNA isolated with *RNeasy Kits* (purchased from QIAGEN, USA) was determined by measuring the absorbance at 260 nm in a spectrophotometer. An absorbance of 1 unit at 260 nm corresponds to 40 µg of RNA per ml ($A_{260} = 1 = 40 \mu\text{g/ml}$) [42].

3.8. Estimation of Corallopyronin B Effect on Bacterial Protein Synthesis

Absorbance was measured at 205 nm to calculate the protein concentration by comparison with a standard curve. A (205) method could be used to quantify total protein in crude lysates and purified or partially purified protein. The UV spectrophotometer was set to read at 205 nm allowing 15 min for the instrument to equilibrate. The absorbance reading was set to zero with a solution of the buffer and all components except the protein present. The protein solution was placed in the 1 ml cuvette and the absorbance was determined. The dilution and readings of samples were performed in duplicate. The matched cuvettes for samples and controls were utilized during the test procedure. The extinction coefficient of the protein was known, and the following equation was employed. $\text{Absorbance} = \text{Extinction coefficient} \times \text{concentration of protein} \times \text{path length (1 cm)}$ to determine the concentration of the protein [43].

3.9. Estimation of Pharmacodynamic and Pharmacokinetic Effects of Corallopyronin B during Experimental Animal Testing in Preclinical Clinical Trials

In the present study, the pharmacokinetics and the pharmacodynamics of *Corallopyronin B* were evaluated after dosing in male rabbit animal models weighing about 2 kg. Furthermore, compound concentrations were determined in target compartments, such as lung, kidney, and thigh tissue, using LC-MS/MS. Based on the pharmacokinetic results, the pharmacodynamic profile of *Corallopyronin B* was assessed victimizing the standard neutropenic thigh and lung infection models [44].

3.10. Estimation of Pharmacodynamic and Pharmacokinetic Effects of Corallopyronin B in Randomized Human Clinical Trials Phases 1/2

This study was conducted on 150 human volunteer subjects to show the bioavailability, pharmacokinetics, and pharmacodynamics of the test antibiotic. The study was designed as a randomized, single-dose, 2-treatment, 2-period crossover trial with a washout period of 1 week. Blood samples were collected at 0 (baseline), 10, 20, and 40 minutes and at 1, 1.5, 2, 3, 4, 6, 9, 12, and 24 hours postdose. Plasma concentrations of the 4 drugs were measured by using a rapid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry method. Pharmacokinetic parameters were calculated by using noncompartmental methods. Bioequivalence was determined if the 90 % CIs of the log-transformed test/reference ratios $AUC(0-26)$, $AUC(0-\infty)$, and C_{max} were within the predetermined range of 80% to 125%. Tolerability was assessed by using clinical parameters and subject reports. Pharmacodynamic effects were evaluated through the determination of MICs via agar diffusion assay and broth dilution technique. During randomized human clinical trials phases 1/2 all utilized infectious bacterial cell counts were estimated spectrophotometrically [45].

3.11. Estimation of Phototoxicity, Mutagenicity, and Carcinogenicity of the Test Antibiotic

The phototoxicity of Corallopyronin B was determined via the 3T3 neutral red uptake phototoxicity technique [46]. On the other hand, mutagenicity and carcinogenicity of the test antibiotic were assessed using the Ames test [47].

3.12. The Determination of Toxicokinetic and Toxicodynamic Effects

Up and down method for acute toxicity detection of Corallopyronin B was utilized for this purpose [48].

3.13. The Determination of the Maximum Bactericidal Activity of Corallopyronin B

A pure culture of a specified microorganism was grown overnight, then diluted in growth-supporting broth (typically Mueller Hinton Broth) to a concentration between 1×10^5 and 1×10^6 cfu/ml. A stock dilution of the antimicrobial test substance was made at approximately 100 times the expected MIC. Further 1:1 dilutions were made in test tubes. All dilutions of the test antibiotic were inoculated with equal volumes of the specified microorganism. A positive and negative control tube was included for every test microorganism to demonstrate adequate microbial growth over the course of the incubation period and media sterility, respectively. An aliquot of the positive control was plated and used to establish a baseline concentration of the microorganism used. The tubes were then incubated at the appropriate temperature and duration. Turbidity indicated growth of the microorganism and the MIC was the lowest concentration where no growth was visually observed. To determine the MBC, the dilution representing the MIC and at least two of the more concentrated test product dilutions were plated and enumerated to determine viable CFU/ml. The MBC was the lowest concentration that demonstrated a pre-determined reduction (such as 99.9%) in CFU/ml when compared to the MIC dilution [49].

3.14. Determination of Plasma Protein Binding Capacity of Corallopyronin B

Employing an ultrafiltration technique, the protein binding (PB) extent and changeability of the test antibiotic medicates were settled when given simultaneously to 30 patients inoculated with infectious pneumococci inside hospitals in Egypt. Clinical samples used were routinely received by the microbiological laboratory inside the faculty of Pharmacy, Cairo University, Egypt. Plasma proteins were likewise plumbed. A protein-free medium was used to determine the nonspecific binding. Plasma samples from 30 patients were enclosed, of which plasma proteins were deliberated for 24 patients.

3.15. Determination of Liver, Kidney, and Heart Function Tests after the Addition of Corallopyronin B

These functional tests were performed to assess the vitality of the *liver*, *kidney*, and *heart* during the randomized human clinical trials phases 1/2. On the other hand, Urine, and stool analyses were achieved in addition to the estimation of *complete blood counts* for all experimental subjects who received graded doses of *Corallopyronin B*.

3.16. Formulation of Corallopyronin B (COR B)

A liquid solution (COR B > 30 mg ml⁻¹) comprising polyethyleneglycol-15-hydroxy stearate (35%), propylene glycol (15%), and phosphate-buffered saline pH 7.3 (75%), as excipients, was prepared for IV and SC administration. PEG 400 (50%) and phosphate buffered saline pH 7.3 (60%) were added to a liquid formulation that included COR B for human effectuality attempts administered by oral and SC methods. For toxicity tests, a liquid COR B formulation based on PEG 200 that permitted an oral dosage of 1500 mg kg⁻¹ (150 mg ml⁻¹) was created. Each formulation exhibited adequate COR B in-use stability.

4. Statistical Analysis

All cultures were conducted in triplets. Their presentation was by means and standard deviation. One-way analysis of variance ($p \text{ value} \leq 0.05$) was used as a means for performing statistical analysis and also, statistical analysis was based on excel-spreadsheet-software. The *F statistical analysis test* was utilized during the present study.

5. Results

From the culture supernatant of the soil bacterial isolate *Coralloccoccus coralloides* DSM 2259, which was cultivated on a Casein yeast peptone (CYP) plate, *Corallopyronin B* was generated. The test antibiotic prevented the growth of various *Gram +ve* bacteria (MICs ranging from 1 to 10 mcg/ml) and reduced the development of many *Gram -ve* bacteria (including *Escherichia coli*) at MICs more than 100 mcg/ml. Conversely, eukaryotic cells—such as those found in fungi and humans—were unaffected. By preventing bacterial *DNA-dependent RNA polymerase*, the test antibiotic was demonstrated to have a bactericidal effect (RNLP). When 600 mg of the dose per 70 kg of body weight was given SC in phases 1/2 of randomized human clinical trials, the *C_{max}* was 8.6 mcg/ml at *T_{max}* of one hour; *T_{1/2}* reached 136 mins as a result of *first-order kinetics of elimination*. About six to seven hours after SC was given, it ceased working. Less than 6% of experimental candidates experienced unusual toxicity in phases 1/2 of the preclinical and randomized human clinical trials, manifested as decreased bile flow. A detectable 83% protein binding with plasma albumin was found. After the test antibiotics were refined and purified using the *reverse phase HPLC technology*, *Corallopyronin B* was the predominant component (Table 4). The *3T3 neutral red uptake phototoxicity test* was used to determine the phototoxicity, and it revealed no phototoxicity. However, the Ames test was used to determine the mutagenicity and carcinogenicity of the test antibiotic, and the results showed that there was no genotoxicity or carcinogenicity. The main isolates of *Gram-negative* bacteria that produce the antibiotic *Corallopyronin B* are shown using a stereomicroscope in Figure 11.

Tables 9 and 10, respectively, show that there was a considerable decrease in protein synthesis and *mRNA* synthesis as the dosage of *Myxopyronin B* was increased. Docking experiments with the *MCULE* and *SWISS DOCK software* showed that the test antibiotic's mechanism of action was most likely caused by inhibiting *RNA polymerase* by binding to its switch region. The test antibiotic's high ΔG was found to be roughly 15 J/mol using the *SWISS-MODEL software*. However, utilizing *SWISS-MODEL software*, it was discovered that the test antibiotic's low *K_d* near the switch area was roughly -720 nM. Table 11 provides a summary of the biochemical profile and morphology of the strong bacterial isolates used in this investigation to produce the test antibiotic.

Coralloccoccus coralloides DSM 2259 was the most common bacterial isolate that secreted the extracellular test antibiotic, according to its appearance and biochemical responses. The study involved 150 human volunteers in total, with a mean age of 28.9[8.1] years (SD). The 88% confidence

intervals (CIs) for the long transformed ratios of C_{max} , $AUC (0-26)$, and $AUC (0-\infty)$ for the test antibiotic were, in order, 93.3 to 94.6, 90.5 to 95.2, and 90.7 to 93.1. *Corallopyronin B* was found to have a mean protein binding (PB) of about 83%. It was shown that *Albumin* exhibited the predominant protein binding for both Rifampicin and *Corallopyronin B*. The therapeutic activity was discovered to be attributed to the unbound fraction. The structure of *Corallopyronin B*, which was isolated from bacterial isolates of *Coralloccoccus coralloides* DSM 2259 collected from various soil conditions in Egypt, is depicted in *Figure 1*. Using a mass spectrometer, the molecular formula of the purified test antibiotic was found to be $C_{31}H_{43}NO_7$. The area under the curve (AUC) after oral *Corallopyronin B* dosing during phases 1/2 of clinical trials is shown in *Figure 9*. The range of effective doses was 9.5–10 mg/kg of body weight. The action started after over thirty minutes. It adhered to the kinetics of first-order elimination. The quantal dosage response curve for the assessment of *Corallopyronin B*'s toxicokinetics is displayed in *Figure 10*. It was discovered that $LD_{50\%}$ was 150 mg/kg and $LD_{99\%}$ was around 310 mg/kg. The AUC of *Corallopyronin B* after SC injection in phases 1/2 of randomized human clinical trials is displayed in *Figure 8*. The range of effective doses was 8–9 mg/kg of body weight. The beginning of the action was noted after a close 15 minutes. It adhered to the kinetics of first-order elimination. The docking of the *Corallopyronin B* ligand on Bacterial RNA polymerase is shown in *Figure 2*. High affinity and an inhibitory impact were demonstrated by *Corallopyronin B* towards the RNA Polymerase switch region. *Figure 7* uses the UV spectrophotometer absorbance at 205 nm to illustrate how *Corallopyronin B* affects protein synthesis. A significant reduction in protein synthesis was seen upon administration of escalating dosages of the antibiotic *Corallopyronin B*. The three-dimensional structure of bacterial prokaryotic RNA polymerase is depicted in *Figure 3*. This structure includes the switch binding site, to which *Corallopyronin B* Ligand binds strongly, inhibiting the activity of bacterial RNA polymerase selectively, which in turn causes the inhibition of mRNA transcription and ultimately the death of the microbe. Alpha and Beta spiral sheets make up the RNA polymerase enzyme's secondary structure. It had a molecular mass of about 198 amino acids. *Figure 6* speaks about estimating *Corallopyronin B*'s impact on the productivity of microbial mRNA. An increase in the dosage of the antibiotic *Myxopyronin B* was found to cause a commensurate decrease in mRNA production. The effects of varying peptone concentrations as a nitrogen growth factor on *Corallopyronin B* production are depicted in *Figure 5*. The effect of different soluble starch concentrations on the synthesis of *Corallopyronin B* is depicted in *Figure 4*. The resolution of biological reactions is shown in *Table 11*. *Table 8* uses the Broth microdilution technique to show the minimum bactericidal concentrations (MBCs) of *Corallopyronin B* on various bacteria. The measurement of the amount of mRNA using a UV spectrophotometer at 260 nm following the addition of *Corallopyronin B* is displayed in *Table 9*. The distribution of bacterial isolates that produce *Corallopyronin B* is displayed in *Table 3*. The degree of purity of the test antibiotics after they were purified using the reversed-phase HPLC process is shown in *Table 4*. *Table 5* shows how to use BLASTn software to detect 16S rRNA in isolates that produce *Corallopyronin B*. *Table 7* shows *Corallopyronin B*'s minimum inhibitory concentrations (MICs) on several bacteria using the broth microdilution method. *Corallopyronin B*'s zones of inhibition and minimum inhibitory concentrations are estimated using the Agar diffusion assay with paper discs, as shown in *Table 6*.

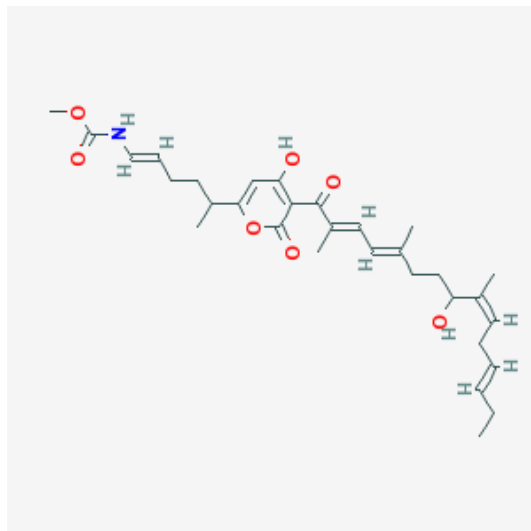


Figure 1. It demonstrates the structure of *Corallopyronin B* extracted from bacterial isolates *Corallocooccus coralloides* DSM 2259 collected from different soil environments in Egypt. The molecular formula of the purified test antibiotic was noticed to be $C_{31}H_{43}NO_7$ determined through a mass spectrometer.

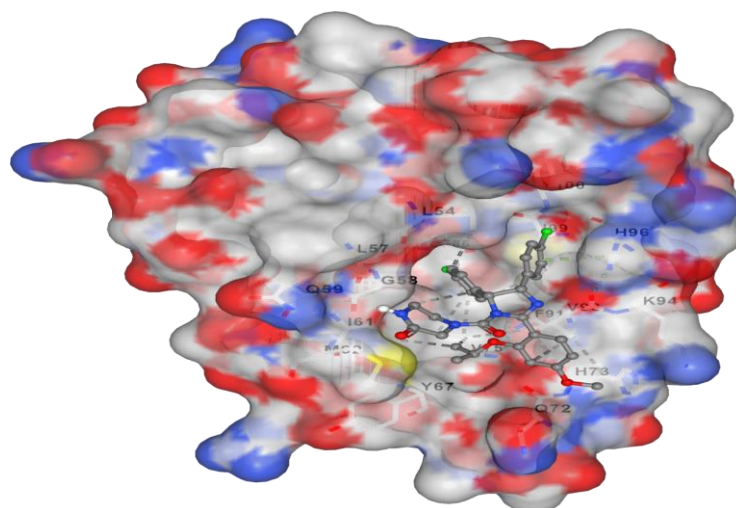


Figure 2. It represents the docking of *Corallopyronin B* ligand on Bacterial RNA polymerase. *Corallopyronin B* showed high affinity and inhibitory effect towards the switch region of RNA Polymerase. The molecular mass of *Corallopyronin B* was observed to be nearly 540 Da. ΔG was found to be roughly 15 J/mol; nevertheless, it was discovered that the test antibiotic's K_d near the switch area was roughly -720 nM.

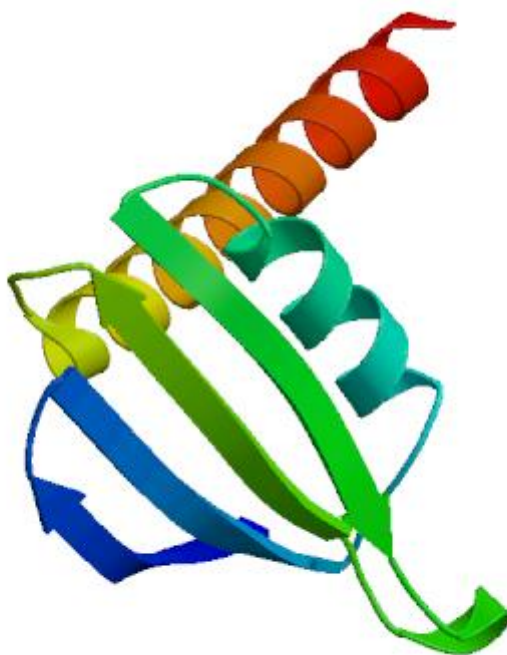


Figure 3. It demonstrates the 3D structure of bacterial prokaryotic *RNA polymerase* comprising the switch binding site to which *Corallopyronin B Ligand* is strongly bound inhibiting bacterial *RNA polymerase* activity selectively leading to the inhibition of *mRNA* transcription and subsequently the mortality of the microbe. The secondary structure of the *RNA polymerase* enzyme consisted of spiral *alpha* and *beta* sheets. Its molecular mass was approximately 198 amino acids.

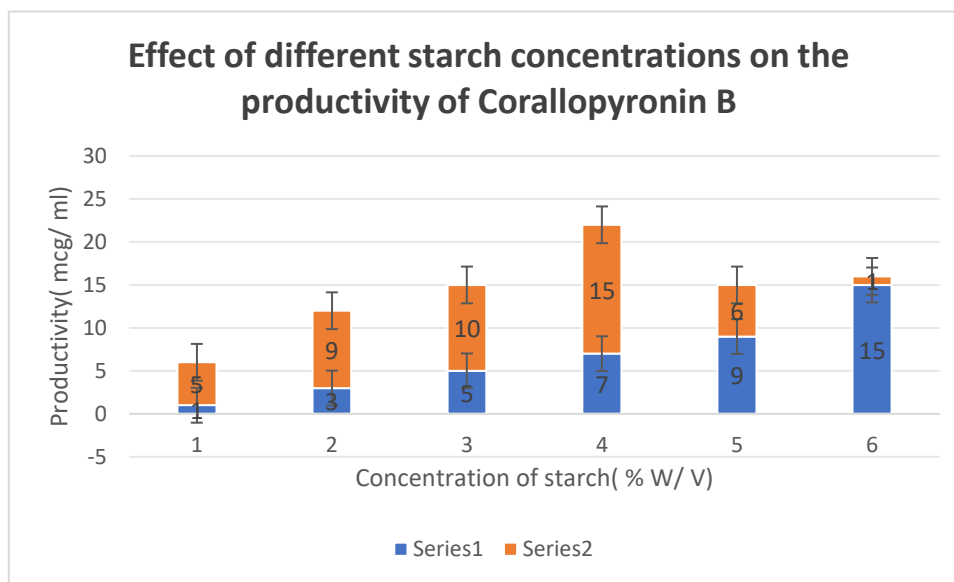


Figure 4. It shows the impact of various concentrations of *Soluble starch* on the production of *Corallopyronin B*.

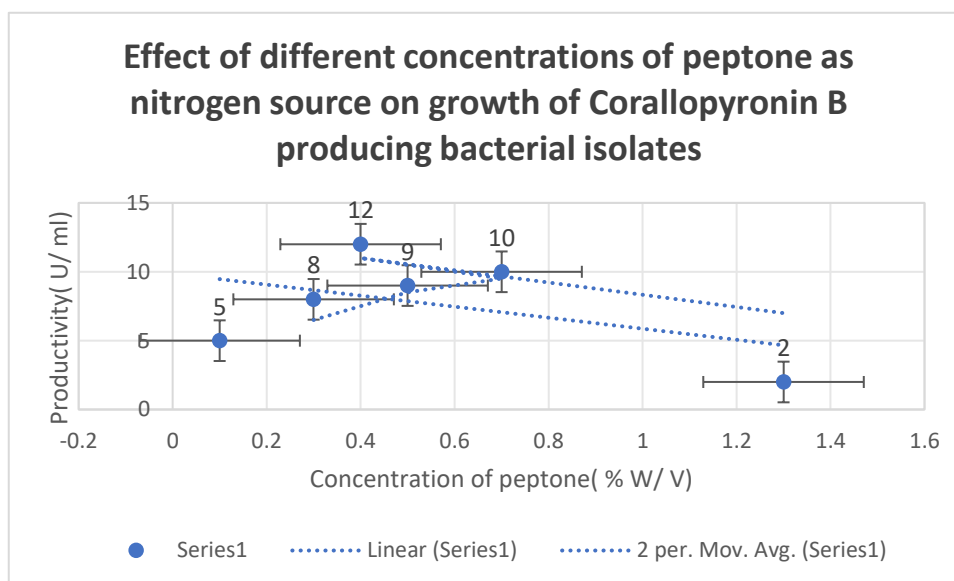


Figure 5. It shows the effects of different *Peptone* concentrations as a nitrogen growth factor on the productivity of *Corallopyronin B*.

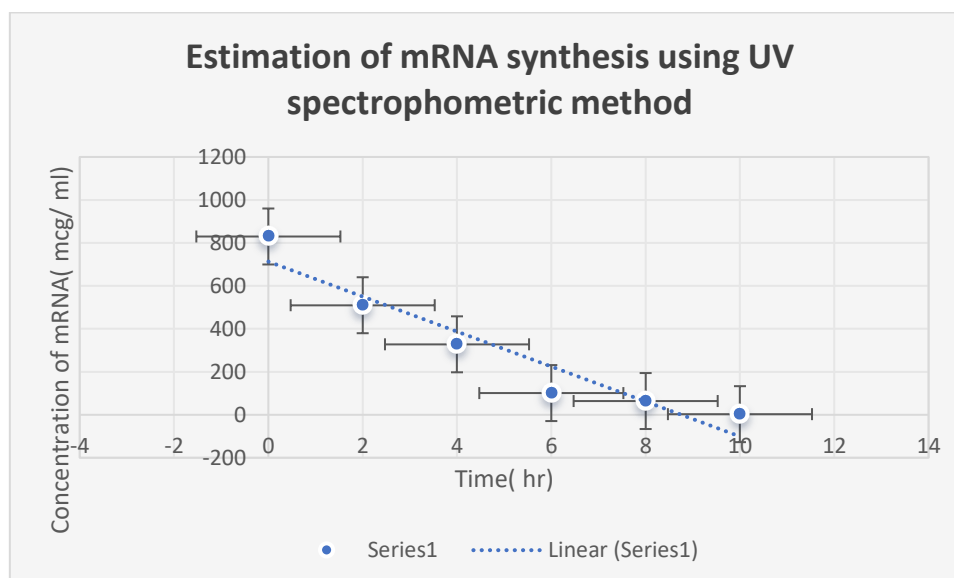


Figure 6. It refers to the estimation of the effect of *Corallopyronin B* on microbial *mRNA* productivity. *mRNA* synthesis was detected to be diminished proportionately upon employment of exploding doses of *Myxopyronin B* antibiotic.

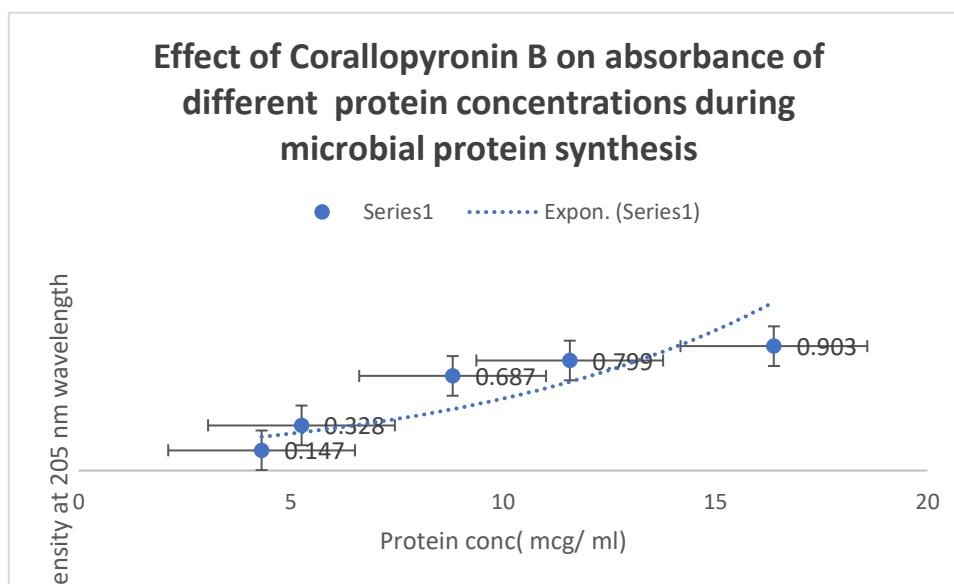


Figure 7. It demonstrates the influence of *Corallopyronin B* on protein synthesis using UV spectrophotometer absorption at 205 nm. Protein synthesis was noticed to be decreased dramatically upon utilization of increasing doses of *Corallopyronin B* antibiotic.

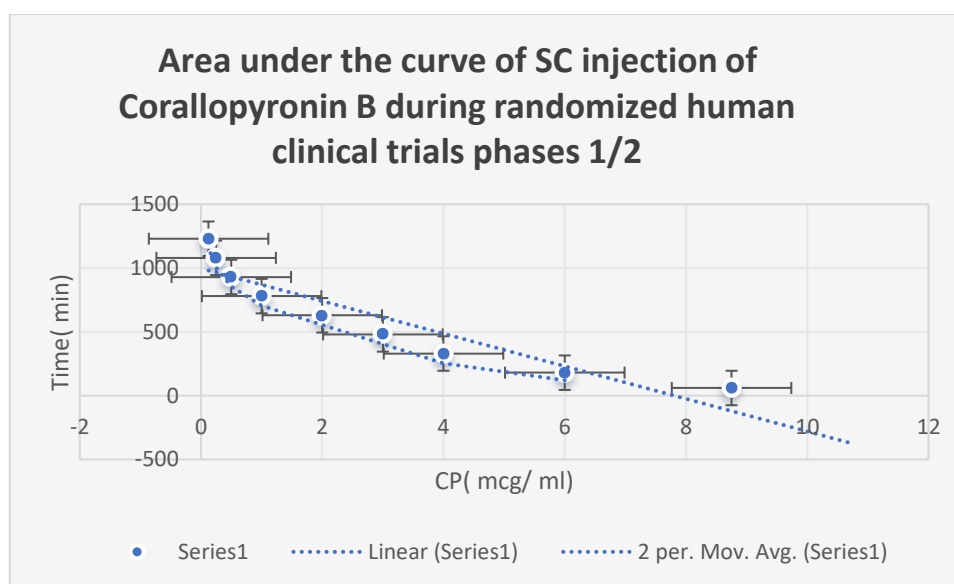


Figure 8. It shows the AUC of *Corallopyronin B* following SC administration in randomized human clinical trials stages 1/2. Efficacious dose ranged from 8-9 mg/kg of body weight. The onset of action was observed following closely 15 minutes. It followed the first order of elimination kinetics. Bioavailability approximately reached 96%.

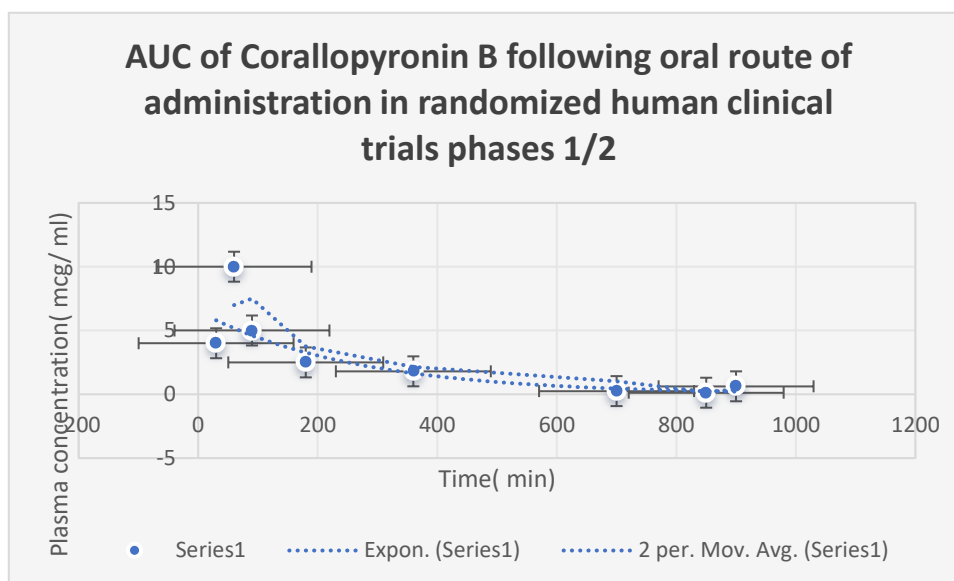


Figure 9. Area under the curve (AUC) following oral administration of *Corallopyronin B* during clinical trials phases 1/2. Efficacious dose ranged from 9.5-10 mg/ kg of body weight. The onset of action was observed following nearly 30 minutes. It followed the first order of elimination kinetics. Bioavailability reached approximately 95%.

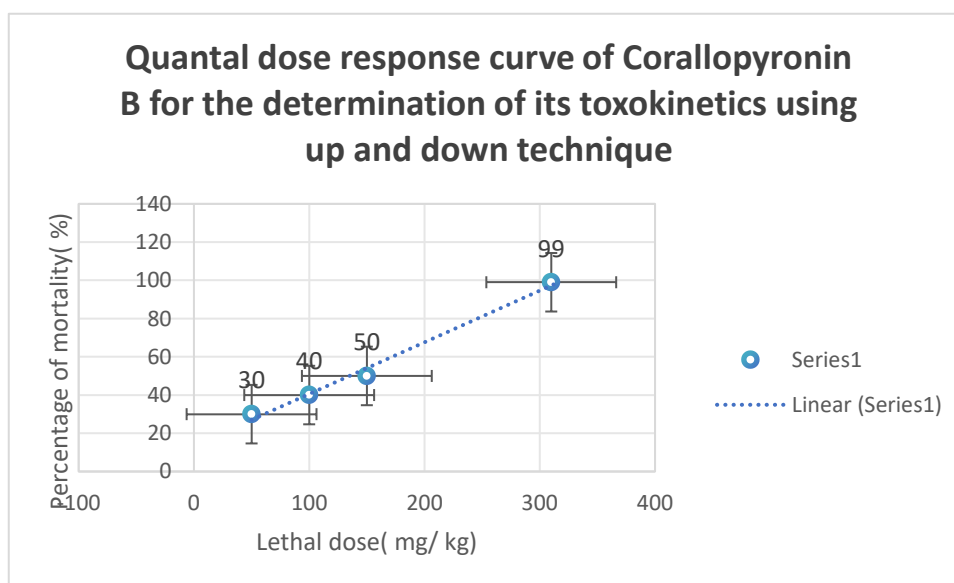


Figure 10. The quantal dose-response curve for the determination of toxicokinetics of *Corallopyronin B*. LD_{50} % was found to be 150 mg/kg; while LD_{99} % was nearly 310 mg/ kg.



Figure 11. It demonstrates the major Gram-negative bacterial isolates producing *Corallopyronin B* antibiotic using a Stereomicroscope.

Table 3. It shows the distribution of *Corallopyronin B*-producing bacterial isolates.

No of +ve bacterial isolates producing <i>Corallopyronin A</i>	No of -ve bacterial isolates producing <i>Corallopyronin A</i>
61	39

Table 4. It demonstrates the degree of purity of test antibiotics following the purification via the reversed-phase HPLC technique:.

Test antibiotic	Degree of purity (%)
<i>Corallopyronin A</i>	7
<i>Corallopyronin B</i>	90
<i>Corallopyronin C</i>	3

Table 5. It demonstrates 16 S rRNA detection of *Corallopyronin B*-producing isolates using BLASTn software.

Description	Query Cover	E value	Per. ident	Acc. Len
<i>Coralloccoccus coralloid's DSM 2259, complete genome</i>	100%	0	100	10080619
<i>Coralloccoccus sp. NCR chromosome, complete genome</i>	100%	0	99.05	9787125
<i>Coralloccoccus coralloid's strain B035 chromosome, complete genome</i>	100%	0	98.57	9587888
<i>Coralloccoccus sp. EGB chromosome, complete genome</i>	100%	0	96.83	9431171
<i>Myxococcus fulvus 124B02, complete genome</i>	100%	0	92.08	11048835
<i>Myxococcus sp. MH1 DNA, complete genome</i>	100%	0	91.92	10778154
<i>Myxococcus sp. SDU36 chromosome, complete genome</i>	100%	0	91.63	9016985
<i>Myxococcus xanthus strain GH3.5.6c2 chromosome, complete genome</i>	100%	0	91.28	9321034
<i>Vulgatibacter incomptus strain DSM 27710, complete genome</i>	99%	2.00E-153	82.99	4350553
<i>Anaeromyxobacter sp. Fw109-5, complete genome</i>	99%	1.00E-125	80.43	5277990
<i>Uncultured bacterium clone F5K2Q4C04IF4QS 23S</i>	77%	3.00E-122	83.53	492

<i>ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence</i>				
Uncultured bacterium clone F5K2Q4C04I5GUV 23S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence	77%	6.00E-114	82.73	491

Table 6. It shows the estimation of zones of inhibition and minimum inhibitory concentrations of Corallopyronin B via Agar diffusion assay using paper discs.

Test organism ¹	MIC ($\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$)	Diameter of inhibition zone (mm)
<i>Bacillus subtilis</i>	5	10
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	6	16
<i>Streptococcus pneumoniae</i>	10	7
<i>Escherichia coli</i>	119	13
<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	129	0
<i>Candida albicans</i>	114	0
<i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i>	109	0
<i>Salmonella typhimurium</i>	137	15
<i>Bacillus cereus</i>	14	12
<i>Micrococcus luteus</i>	18	7
<i>Serratia Marcescens</i>	140	10
<i>Mucor hiemalis</i>	0	19
<i>Shigella dysentery</i>	109	14
<i>Proteus mirabilis</i>	123	8
<i>Rickettsiae prowazaki</i>	146	11
<i>Chlamydiae pneumoniae</i>	125	19
<i>Legionella pneumophilla</i>	116	9

¹ The initial density of each organism during the Agar diffusion assay for the determination of minimum inhibitory concentrations and zones of inhibition of growth was nearly $10^5/\text{ml}$.

Table 7. It demonstrates MICs of Corallopyronin B on different microorganisms using broth microdilution technique.

Pathogenic m.o	MIC ($\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$)
<i>Bacillus subtilis</i>	10
<i>Bacillus cereus</i>	7
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	9
<i>Pneumococci</i>	6
<i>E.coli</i>	127
<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	0
<i>Candida albicans</i>	0

<i>Sacchromyces cerevisiae</i>	0
<i>Salmonella typhimurium</i>	109
<i>Haemophilus influenza</i>	0
<i>Gonococci</i>	105
<i>meningococci</i>	134
<i>Serratia Marcescens</i>	129
<i>Mucor hiemalis</i>	0
<i>Shigella dysenteriae</i>	111
<i>Micrococcus luteus</i>	0
<i>Proteus mirabilis</i>	0
<i>Rickettsiae prowazaki</i>	139
<i>Chlamydiae pneumoniae</i>	131
<i>Legionella pneumophilla</i>	146

Table 8. It demonstrates Minimum bactericidal concentrations (MBCs) of Corallopyronin B on different microorganisms using the Broth microdilution technique.

Pathogenic m.o	MBC ($\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$)
<i>Bacillus subtilis</i>	24
<i>Bacillus cereus</i>	23
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	39
<i>Pneumococci</i>	44
<i>E.coli</i>	338
<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	399
<i>Candida albicans</i>	0
<i>Sacchromyces cerevisiae</i>	0
<i>Salmonella typhimurium</i>	320
<i>Haemophilus influenza</i>	0
<i>Gonococci</i>	380
<i>meningococci</i>	377
<i>Serratia Marcescens</i>	307
<i>Mucor hiemalis</i>	0
<i>Shigella dysenteriae</i>	309
<i>Micrococcus luteus</i>	0
<i>Proteus mirabilis</i>	0
<i>Rickettsiae prowazaki</i>	400
<i>Chlamydiae pneumoniae</i>	416
<i>Legionella pneumophilla</i>	252

Table 9. It shows the estimation of mRNA quantity via UV spectrophotometer at 260 nm after the addition of Corallopyronin B.

<i>mRNA concentration (ng/ ml)</i>	<i>Absorbance (optical density) at 260 nm</i>
600	0.729
567	0.501
204	0.247
25	0.093

Table 10. It shows the effect of *Corallopyronin A* on microbial protein synthesis using a UV spectrophotometer at 205 nm.

Bacterial protein concentration (mcg/ ml)	Time (hr)
91.3	2
45.96	4
28.38	7
3.37	10
0.26	3

Table 11. The resolution of biochemical reactions.

Test	Result
Gram stain	<i>-ve rods</i>
Cell shape	Elongated bacilli with tapered ends
Spore shape	Ellipsoidal
Spore site	Central
Motility	+ via gliding
Catalase	+
Oxidase	-
Blood haemolysis	-
Indol	-
Methyl red	-
Nitrate reduction test	+
Vogues Proskauer	-
Citrate utilization	-
Starch hydrolysis	+
Casein hydrolysis	+
Growth at 45 °C	Bacterial isolates did not grow at 45 °C; but were grown at 10-37 °C
Tween 80	+
Tolerance salinity	
5% NaCl	-
7% NaCl	-
Saccharide fermentation	
Glucose	-

Fructose	-
Maltose	-
Sucrose	-

6. Discuss

Globally, exploding morbidity and mortality due to antibiotic-resistant micro-organism infections were observed. Hence, amended hindrance and touchstone of infectious diseases, as well as appropriate use of approved antibacterial drugs were essential. The in vitro and in vivo antimicrobial activity of *Corallopyronin B*, a novel antibiotic was evaluated in the present study. It demonstrated excellent bactericidal activity against a broad spectrum of *G +ve bacteria* with MICs that did not exceed 20 mcg/ml. On the other hand, It showed broad bactericidal activities against *G -ve bacteria* with minimal inhibitory concentrations greater than 100 mcg/ml. Its mechanism of action was realized during the investigation of *RNA synthesis* to be via the inhibition of prokaryotic *DNA-dependant-RNA polymerase*; whereas no inhibitory impact was observed for Eukaryotic one. Docking studies through *SWISS DOCK* software confirmed this as well. The antibiotic activities *Corallopyronin A, B, and C* were isolated from the culture supernatant of 29 bacterial isolates of *Myxobacterium Corallococcus coralloides DSM 2259* detected molecularly using *16 S rRNA* technique (Table 3). The antibiotic activity did not inhibit the growth or kill eukaryotic cells such as human and fungal cells reflecting selectivity towards the inhibition of the growth of prokaryotic bacterial cells. This selectivity effect minimized the adverse effects noticed during the present study. Docking studies via *SWISS DOCK* software revealed that desmethylation of either *Corallopyronin A, B, or C* enhanced its biological activity. Purification was performed through reversed-phase *HPLC*. *Corallopyronin B* was the main refined antibiotic. Its purity degree reached approximately 90 %; while the remaining purified antibiotics were detected to be *Corallopyronin A (7 %)* and *C (3 %)*. The antibacterial activity was assessed via the determination of MICs of the test antibiotics using the agar diffusion technique utilizing paper discs 5 mm in diameter and the broth dilution assay. The initial density of each test microorganism was about $10^5/ml$ of the culture suspension. The MICs of test antibiotics against *G +ve bacteria* ranged from 6 to 20 mcg/ml; Whereas MICs reached above 100 mcg/ml against some selected *G -ve bacteria*. On the other hand, no effect was detected against the growth of fungi and yeasts. (Irschik H et al., 1983) stated that *Myxovalargin A* was a novel peptide antibiotic isolated from the culture supernatant of the *myxobacterium Myxococcus fulvus strain Mx f65*. It was active against *Gram-positive bacteria* (MIC 0.3 approximately 5 micrograms/ml), at higher concentrations also against *Gram-negative ones* (MIC 6 approximately 100 micrograms/ml), and not at all against yeasts and molds. Its mechanism of action involved the inhibition of bacterial protein synthesis [50]. According to (Glaus F et al., 2018) *Ripostatin*, a novel antibiotic, isolated from the culture supernatant of *Myxobacterium, Sorangium cellulosum strain So ce377*. On the other hand, it interfered with the bacterial *RNA synthesis* [51]. On the other hand, *Corallopyronin B* was found to be structurally related to α -pyrone antibiotics from *myxobacteria*. Its ability to inhibit *RNA polymerase* was through interaction with the switch region of *RNA polymerase*; while *Rifampicin* inhibited the same enzyme through different regions [52]. *Myxopyronin* showed no phototoxicity and mutagenicity in rabbit animal models during the *preclinical trials stage*, in the present study. Rare adverse effects including cholestatic jaundice were reported in less than 5 % of the experimental subjects who received the test antibiotics during *randomized human clinical trials phases 1/2*. The biological half-life of *Corallopyronin B* reached approximately 2.25 hours. 0.4 % peptone and 7 % soluble starch were detected to be the optimal nitrogen and carbon growth factors for bacterial isolates producing the test antibiotics, respectively (Figures 4 and 5). The high ΔG of the test antibiotic was observed to be approximately 15 J/mole as determined via *SWISS-MODEL* software reflecting high catalytic activity of the test antibiotic towards the switch region. On the other hand, low *Kd* of the test antibiotic towards the switch region was found to be approximately -720 nM using *SWISS MODEL* software indicating high affinity and binding capacity. Bioavailability studies were performed using *HPLC* during *randomized human clinical trials phases 1/2* revealed that *Corallopyronin B* reached nearly 95% oral bioavailability, 96% IM bioavailability, and

100% IV bioavailability. Metabolic studies using HPLC revealed that the test antibiotic showed no in vivo induction of hepatic metabolizing *Cytochrome P450* enzymatic system; while *Rifampicin* induced *CYP3A4* hepatic metabolizing enzyme potently. Up and down procedure intended for the evaluation of the acute toxicity profile of the test antibiotic showed that $LD_{50\%}$ was about 150 mg/ kg body weight; while $LD_{99\%}$ reached 310 mg/ kg. On the other hand, the therapeutic margin of the test antibiotic ranged from 7 mcg/ ml to 100 mcg/ ml. *Corallopyronin B*-producing bacterial isolates were gram-negative, spore-forming obligate aerobes and chemoorganotrophic. They were elongated rods with tapered ends. No flagella were present, but the cells moved via gliding. They fermented Tween 80, starch, and casein. On the other hand, they were positive for catalase while negative for oxidase tests. They reduced nitrates

And were able to grow at 10-37 °C. A total of 150 human subjects (mean SD age, 27.3[8.6] years were enrolled and completed the study. The 88% confidence intervals (CIs) for the long transformed ratios of C_{max} , AUC (0-26), and AUC (0-∞) for the test antibiotic were, in order, 93.3 to 94.6, 90.5 to 95.2, and 90.7 to 93.1, respectively. The point estimates for C_{max} in the present study were outside the limit for bio-equivalence for the *Rifampicin* standard drug. The mean PB was observed for *Corallopyronin B* which approximated 83% while that of *Rifampicin* reached 88% [53]. It was noticed that plasma protein binding was proportionally increased with increasing the doses of the test antibiotic. The plasma protein binding participated in extending the *Corallopyronin B* duration of action. The major protein binding for *Corallopyronin B* and *Rifampicin* was noticed to be Albumin. The unbound fraction was detected to be responsible for the therapeutic activity.

7. Conclusions

Antibiotic resistance is a global challenge that the current study shows promise in solving. According to the findings of the current study, *Corallopyronin B*, which was isolated from the bacterial isolates *Coralloccoccus coralloides* DSM 2259 that were collected from various soil environments in Egypt, exhibited significant antibiotic activity both in vitro and in vivo against a moderate range of pathogenic bacteria, particularly *G+ve* varieties. Future research is recommended to investigate pharmacological interactions of the synergism type between *Corallopyronin A* and different antibiotic classes.

8. Patents

Corallopyronin B produced from the bacterial isolates *Coralloccoccus coralloides* DSM 2259 that were collected from different soil environments in Egypt, evidenced fundamental antibiotic activity both in vitro and in vivo versus a moderate scope of infective micro-organisms, peculiarly *G+ve* miscellanea.

Author contribution: This study was achieved completely by the single author, Prof. Mohammed Kassab.

Funding: This study was funded by the single author, Prof. Mohammed Kassab.

Institutional Review Board statement: The study was conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki and approved by Ethics committee; as well as all relevant institutional, national, and/ or worldwide standards on the use and care of humans and animals were given priority in the current study. The Ethical Committee for Human and Animal Handling at Cairo University (ECAHCU), housed at the Faculty of Pharmacy, Cairo University, Egypt, approved all study procedures involving humans and animals per the recommendations of the Weatherall Report (approval number T716-2022). The number and degree of suffering of the study's human and animal participants were minimized at all costs. The randomized human clinical trial registration number for Phases 1/2 was NCT00000381/ 2022.

Informed Consent Statement: Written informed consent was obtained from all patients to publish this paper; as well as informed consent was obtained from all subjects involved in the study.

Data Availability Statement: All data supporting the reported results are included within the manuscript.

Acknowledgement: Faculty of Pharmacy, Cairo University, Egypt are acknowledged due to their support to achieve the present study.

References

1. Dalhoff A. Selective toxicity of antibacterial agents-still a valid concept or do we miss chances and ignore risks? *Infection*. 2021 Feb;49(1):29-56. doi: 10.1007/s15010-020-01536-y. Epub 2020 Dec 23. PMID: 33367978; PMCID: PMC7851017.
2. Hutchings MI, Truman AW, Wilkinson B. Antibiotics: past, present and future. *Curr Opin Microbiol*. 2019 Oct;51:72-80. doi: 10.1016/j.mib.2019.10.008. Epub 2019 Nov 13. PMID: 31733401.
3. Wencewicz TA. Crossroads of Antibiotic Resistance and Biosynthesis. *J Mol Biol*. 2019 Aug 23;431(18):3370-3399. doi: 10.1016/j.jmb.2019.06.033. Epub 2019 Jul 6. PMID: 31288031; PMCID: PMC6724535.
4. Lepe JA, Martínez-Martínez L. Resistance mechanisms in Gram-negative bacteria. *Med Intensiva (Engl Ed)*. 2022 Jul;46(7):392-402. doi: 10.1016/j.medine.2022.05.004. Epub 2022 May 31. PMID: 35660283.
5. Vila J, Marco F. Lectura interpretada del antibiograma de bacilos gramnegativos no fermentadores [Interpretive reading of the non-fermenting gram-negative bacilli antibiogram]. *Enferm Infecc Microbiol Clin*. 2010 Dec;28(10):726-36. Spanish. doi: 10.1016/j.eimc.2010.05.001. Epub 2010 Jun 26. PMID: 20579775.
6. Mushtaq S, Vickers A, Woodford N, Livermore DM. WCK 4234, a novel diazabicyclooctane potentiating carbapenems against Enterobacteriaceae, Pseudomonas, and Acinetobacter with class A, C, and D β -lactamases. *J Antimicrob Chemother*. 2017 Jun 1;72(6):1688-1695. doi: 10.1093/jac/dkx035. PMID: 28333319.
7. Irwin SV, Fisher P, Graham E, Malek A, Robidoux A. Sulfites inhibit the growth of four species of beneficial gut bacteria at concentrations regarded as safe for food. *PLoS One*. 2017 Oct 18;12(10):e0186629. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0186629. PMID: 29045472; PMCID: PMC5646858.
8. Jeong S, Lee Y, Yun CH, Park OJ, Han SH. Propionate, together with triple antibiotics, inhibits the growth of Enterococci. *J Microbiol*. 2019 Nov;57(11):1019-1024. doi: 10.1007/s12275-019-9434-7. Epub 2019 Oct 28. PMID: 31659687.
9. Kohanski MA, Dwyer DJ, Hayete B, Lawrence CA, Collins JJ. A common mechanism of cellular death induced by bactericidal antibiotics. *Cell*. 2007 Sep 7;130(5):797-810. doi: 10.1016/j.cell.2007.06.049. PMID: 17803904.
10. Brauer M, Herrmann J, Zühlke D, Müller R, Riedel K, Sievers S. Myxopyronin B inhibits the growth of a Fidaxomicin-resistant Clostridioides difficile isolate and interferes with toxin synthesis. *Gut Pathog*. 2022 Jan 6;14(1):4. doi: 10.1186/s13099-021-00475-9. PMID: 34991700; PMCID: PMC8739712.
11. Doundoulakis T, Xiang AX, Lira R, Agrios KA, Webber SE, Sisson W, Aust RM, Shah AM, Showalter RE, Appleman JR, Simonsen KB. Myxopyronin B analogs as inhibitors of RNA polymerase, synthesis, and biological evaluation. *Bioorg Med Chem Lett*. 2004 Nov 15;14(22):5667-72. doi: 10.1016/j.bmcl.2004.08.045. PMID: 15482944.
12. Lira R, Xiang AX, Doundoulakis T, Biller WT, Agrios KA, Simonsen KB, Webber SE, Sisson W, Aust RM, Shah AM, Showalter RE, Banh VN, Steffy KR, Appleman JR. Syntheses of novel myxopyronin B analogs as potential inhibitors of bacterial RNA polymerase. *Bioorg Med Chem Lett*. 2007 Dec 15;17(24):6797-800. doi: 10.1016/j.bmcl.2007.10.017. Epub 2007 Oct 17. PMID: 17980587.
13. Moy TI, Daniel A, Hardy C, Jackson A, Rehauer O, Hwang YS, Zou D, Nguyen K, Silverman JA, Li Q, Murphy C. Evaluating the activity of the RNA polymerase inhibitor myxopyronin B against Staphylococcus aureus. *FEMS Microbiol Lett*. 2011 Jun;319(2):176-9. doi: 10.1111/j.1574-6968.2011.02282.x. Epub 2011 Apr 20. PMID: 21477256.
14. Srivastava A, Talaue M, Liu S, Degen D, Ebright RY, Sineva E, Chakraborty A, Druzhinin SY, Chatterjee S, Mukhopadhyay J, Ebright YW, Zozula A, Shen J, Sengupta S, Niedfeldt RR, Xin C, Kaneko T, Irschik H, Jansen R, Donadio S, Connell N, Ebright RH. New target for inhibition of bacterial RNA polymerase: 'switch region'. *Curr Opin Microbiol*. 2011 Oct;14(5):532-43. doi: 10.1016/j.mib.2011.07.030. Epub 2011 Aug 19. PMID: 21862392; PMCID: PMC3196380.
15. Mosaei H, Harbottle J. Mechanisms of antibiotics inhibiting bacterial RNA polymerase. *Biochem Soc Trans*. 2019 Feb 28;47(1):339-350. doi: 10.1042/BST20180499. Epub 2019 Jan 15. PMID: 30647141.
16. Sucipto H, Sahner JH, Prusov E, Wenzel SC, Hartmann RW, Koehnke J, Müller R. In vitro reconstitution of α -pyrone ring formation in myxopyronin biosynthesis. *Chem Sci*. 2015 Aug 1;6(8):5076-5085. doi: 10.1039/c5sc01013f. Epub 2015 May 18. PMID: 29308173; PMCID: PMC5724707.
17. O'Toole GA. Classic Spotlight: How the Gram Stain Works. *J Bacteriol*. 2016 Nov 4;198(23):3128. doi: 10.1128/JB.00726-16. PMID: 27815540; PMCID: PMC5105892.
18. Luhur J, Chan H, Kachappilly B, Mohamed A, Morlot C, Awad M, Lyras D, Taib N, Gribaldo S, Rudner DZ, Rodrigues CDA. A dynamic, ring-forming MucB / RseB-like protein influences spore shape in Bacillus

- subtilis. PLoS Genet. 2020 Dec 14;16(12):e1009246. doi: 10.1371/journal.pgen.1009246. PMID: 33315869; PMCID: PMC7769602.
19. Qin Y, Faheem A, Hu Y. A spore-based portable kit for on-site detection of fluoride ions. J Hazard Mater. 2021 Oct 5;419:126467. doi: 10.1016/j.jhazmat.2021.126467. Epub 2021 Jun 24. PMID: 34182423.
 20. Cabeen MT, Jacobs-Wagner C. Bacterial cell shape. Nat Rev Microbiol. 2005 Aug;3(8):601-10. doi: 10.1038/nrmicro1205. PMID: 16012516.
 21. Wang Q, Xiao L, He Q, Liu S, Zhang J, Li Y, Zhang Z, Nie F, Guo Y, Zhang L. Comparison of hemolytic activity of tentacle-only extract from jellyfish *Cyanea capillata* in diluted whole blood and erythrocyte suspension: diluted whole blood is a valid test system for hemolysis study. Exp Toxicol Pathol. 2012 Nov;64(7-8):831-5. doi: 10.1016/j.etp.2011.03.003. Epub 2011 Apr 6. PMID: 21474292.
 22. Dubay MM, Acres J, Riekeles M, Nadeau JL. Recent advances in experimental design and data analysis to characterize prokaryotic motility. J Microbiol Methods. 2023 Jan;204:106658. doi: 10.1016/j.mimet.2022.106658. Epub 2022 Dec 15. PMID: 36529156.
 23. Wang C, Zhang Y, Luo H, Zhang H, Li W, Zhang WX, Yang J. Iron-Based Nanocatalysts for Electrochemical Nitrate Reduction. Small Methods. 2022 Oct;6(10):e2200790. doi: 10.1002/smt.202200790. Epub 2022 Sep 14. PMID: 36103612.
 24. Hu CY, Cheng HY, Yao XM, Li LZ, Liu HW, Guo WQ, Yan LS, Fu JL. Biodegradation and decolorization of methyl red by *Aspergillus versicolor* LH1. Prep Biochem Biotechnol. 2021;51(7):642-649. doi: 10.1080/10826068.2020.1848868. Epub 2020 Nov 23. PMID: 33226883.
 25. Xu D, Wu L, Yao H, Zhao L. Catalase-like nanozymes: Classification, Catalytic Mechanisms, and Their Applications. Small. 2022 Sep;18(37):e2203400. doi: 10.1002/sml.202203400. Epub 2022 Aug 15. PMID: 35971168.
 26. Pawlik A, Stefanek S, Janusz G. Properties, Physiological Functions and Involvement of Basidiomycetous Alcohol Oxidase in Wood Degradation. Int J Mol Sci. 2022 Nov 9;23(22):13808. doi: 10.3390/ijms232213808. PMID: 36430286; PMCID: PMC9699415.
 27. Cordaro JT, Sellers W. Blood coagulation test for citrate utilization. Appl Microbiol. 1968 Jan;16(1):168-9. doi: 10.1128/am.16.1.168-169.1968. PMID: 5636461; PMCID: PMC547351.
 28. Krajang M, Malairuang K, Sukna J, Rattanapradit K, Chamsart S. Single-step ethanol production from raw cassava starch using a combination of raw starch hydrolysis and fermentation, scale-up from 5-L laboratory and 200-L pilot plant to 3000-L industrial fermenters. Biotechnol Biofuels. 2021 Mar 16;14(1):68. doi: 10.1186/s13068-021-01903-3. PMID: 33726825; PMCID: PMC7962325.
 29. Kerwin BA. Polysorbates 20 and 80 used in the formulation of protein biotherapeutics: structure and degradation pathways. J Pharm Sci. 2008 Aug;97(8):2924-35. doi: 10.1002/jps.21190. PMID: 17973307.
 30. Trueba FJ, Neijssel OM, Woldringh CL. Generality of the growth kinetics of the average individual cell in different bacterial populations. J Bacteriol. 1982 Jun;150(3):1048-55. doi: 10.1128/jb.150.3.1048-1055.1982. PMID: 6804435; PMCID: PMC216321.
 31. McCrea KW, Xie J, LaCross N, Patel M, Mukundan D, Murphy TF, Marrs CF, Gilsdorf JR. Relationships of non-typeable *Haemophilus influenzae* strains to hemolytic and nonhemolytic *Haemophilus haemolyticus* strains. J Clin Microbiol. 2008 Feb;46(2):406-16. doi: 10.1128/JCM.01832-07. Epub 2007 Nov 26. PMID: 18039799; PMCID: PMC2238123.
 32. Jogawat A, Vadassery J, Verma N, Oelmüller R, Dua M, Nevo E, Johri AK. PiHOG1, a stress regulator MAP kinase from the root endophyte fungus *Piriformospora indica*, confers salinity stress tolerance in rice plants. Sci Rep. 2016 Nov 16;6:36765. doi: 10.1038/srep36765. PMID: 27849025; PMCID: PMC5111105.
 33. Barry AL, Feeney KL. Two quick methods for the Voges-Proskauer test. Appl Microbiol. 1967 Sep;15(5):1138-41. doi: 10.1128/am.15.5.1138-1141.1967. PMID: 4865027; PMCID: PMC547154.
 34. Wang J, Su Y, Jia F, Jin H. Characterization of casein hydrolysates derived from enzymatic hydrolysis. Chem Cent J. 2013 Apr 4;7(1):62. doi: 10.1186/1752-153X-7-62. PMID: 23556455; PMCID: PMC3626679.
 35. de Bie TH, Witkamp RF, Balvers MG, Jongasma MA. Effects of γ -aminobutyric acid supplementation on glucose control in adults with prediabetes: A double-blind, randomized, placebo-controlled trial. Am J Clin Nutr. 2023 Sep;118(3):708-719. doi: 10.1016/j.ajcnut.2023.07.017. Epub 2023 Jul 24. PMID: 37495019.
 36. Endoh R, Horiyama M, Ohkuma M. D-Fructose Assimilation and Fermentation by Yeasts Belonging to Saccharomycetes: Rediscovery of Universal Phenotypes and Elucidation of Fructophilic Behaviors in *Ambrosiozyma platypodis* and *Cyberlindnera americana*. Microorganisms. 2021 Apr 5;9(4):758. doi: 10.3390/microorganisms9040758. PMID: 33916327; PMCID: PMC8065679.
 37. Lu Z, Guo W, Liu C. Isolation, identification and characterization of novel *Bacillus subtilis*. J Vet Med Sci. 2018 Mar 24;80(3):427-433. doi: 10.1292/jvms.16-0572. Epub 2018 Jan 23. PMID: 29367516; PMCID: PMC5880821.
 38. Zhao Y, Meng K, Fu J, Xu S, Cai G, Meng G, Nielsen J, Liu Z, Zhang Y. Protein engineering of invertase for enhancing yeast dough fermentation under high-sucrose conditions. Folia Microbiol (Praha). 2023 Apr;68(2):207-217. doi: 10.1007/s12223-022-01006-y. Epub 2022 Oct 6. PMID: 36201138.

39. Irschik H, Gerth K, Höfle G, Kohl W, Reichenbach H. The myxopyronins, new inhibitors of bacterial RNA synthesis from *Myxococcus fulvus* (Myxobacterales). *J Antibiot (Tokyo)*. 1983 Dec;36(12):1651-8. doi: 10.7164/antibiotics.36.1651. PMID: 6420386.
40. Wiegand I, Hilpert K, Hancock RE. Agar and broth dilution methods to determine the minimal inhibitory concentration (MIC) of antimicrobial substances. *Nat Protoc*. 2008;3(2):163-75. doi: 10.1038/nprot.2007.521. PMID: 18274517.
41. Balouiri M, Sadiki M, Ibensouda SK. Methods for in vitro evaluating antimicrobial activity: A review. *J Pharm Anal*. 2016 Apr;6(2):71-79. doi: 10.1016/j.jpha.2015.11.005. Epub 2015 Dec 2. PMID: 29403965; PMCID: PMC5762448.
42. Dell'Anno A, Fabiano M, Duineveld GCA, Kok A, Danovaro R. Nucleic acid (DNA, RNA) quantification and RNA/DNA ratio determination in marine sediments: comparison of spectrophotometric, fluorometric, and high-performance liquid chromatography methods and estimation of detrital DNA. *Appl Environ Microbiol*. 1998 Sep;64(9):3238-45. doi: 10.1128/AEM.64.9.3238-3245.1998. PMID: 9726866; PMCID: PMC106716.
43. Simonian MH. Spectrophotometric determination of protein concentration. *Curr Protoc Cell Biol*. 2002 Aug;Appendix 3:Appendix 3B. doi: 10.1002/0471143030.cba03bs15. PMID: 18228395.
44. Rox K, Becker T, Schiefer A, Grosse M, Ehrens A, Jansen R, Aden T, Kehraus S, König GM, Krome AK, Hübner MP, Wagner KG, Stadler M, Pfarr K, Hoerauf A. Pharmacokinetics and Pharmacodynamics (PK/PD) of Corallopyronin A against Methicillin-Resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Pharmaceutics*. 2022 Dec 30;15(1):131. doi: 10.3390/pharmaceutics15010131. PMID: 36678760; PMCID: PMC9860980.
45. Xu J, Jin H, Zhu H, Zheng H, Wang B, Liu C, Chen M, Zhou L, Zhao W, Fu L, Lu Y. Oral bioavailability of rifampicin, isoniazid, ethambutol, and pyrazinamide in a 4-drug fixed-dose combination compared with the separate formulations in healthy Chinese male volunteers. *Clin Ther*. 2013 Feb;35(2):161-8. doi: 10.1016/j.clinthera.2013.01.003. PMID: 23410999.
46. Utku Türk EG, Jannuzzi AT, Alpertunga B. Determination of the Phototoxicity Potential of Commercially Available Tattoo Inks Using the 3T3-neutral Red Uptake Phototoxicity Test. *Turk J Pharm Sci*. 2022 Feb 28;19(1):70-75. doi: 10.4274/tjps.galenos.2021.86344. PMID: 35227052; PMCID: PMC8892553.
47. Thomas DN, Wills JW, Tracey H, Baldwin SJ, Burman M, Williams AN, Harte DSG, Buckley RA, Lynch AM. Ames Test study designs for nitrosamine mutagenicity testing: qualitative and quantitative analysis of key assay parameters. *Mutagenesis*. 2023 Dec 19:gead033. doi: 10.1093/mutage/gead033. Epub ahead of print. PMID: 38112628.
48. Zhang, YY., Huang, YF., Liang, J. et al. Improved up-and-down procedure for acute toxicity measurement with reliable LD50 verified by typical toxic alkaloids and modified Karber method. *BMC Pharmacol Toxicol* 23, 3 (2022). <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40360-021-00541-7>.
49. Heuser E, Becker K, Idelevich EA. Bactericidal Activity of Sodium Bituminosulfonate against *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Antibiotics (Basel)*. 2022 Jul 5;11(7):896. doi: 10.3390/antibiotics11070896. PMID: 35884150; PMCID: PMC9311858.
50. Irschik H, Gerth K, Kemmer T, Steinmetz H, Reichenbach H. The myxovalgins are new peptide antibiotics from *Myxococcus fulvus* (Myxobacterales). I. Cultivation, isolation, and some chemical and biological properties. *J Antibiot (Tokyo)*. 1983 Jan;36(1):6-12. doi: 10.7164/antibiotics.36.6. PMID: 6432761.
51. Glaus F, Dedić D, Tare P, Nagaraja V, Rodrigues L, Aínsa JA, Kunze J, Schneider G, Hartkoorn RC, Cole ST, Altmann KH. Total Synthesis of Ripostatin B and Structure-Activity Relationship Studies on Ripostatin Analogs. *J Org Chem*. 2018 Jul 6;83(13):7150-7172. doi: 10.1021/acs.joc.8b00193. Epub 2018 Mar 29. PMID: 29542926.
52. Dennison TJ, Smith JC, Badhan RKS, Mohammed AR. Formulation and Bioequivalence Testing of Fixed-Dose Combination Orally Disintegrating Tablets for the Treatment of Tuberculosis in the Paediatric Population. *J Pharm Sci*. 2020 Oct;109(10):3105-3113. doi: 10.1016/j.xphs.2020.07.016. Epub 2020 Jul 22. PMID: 32710905.
53. Alghamdi WA, Al-Shaer MH, Peloquin CA. Protein Binding of First-Line Antituberculosis Drugs. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 2018 Jun 26;62(7):e00641-18. doi: 10.1128/AAC.00641-18. PMID: 29735566; PMCID: PMC6021678.

Disclaimer/Publisher's Note: The statements, opinions and data contained in all publications are solely those of the individual author(s) and contributor(s) and not of MDPI and/or the editor(s). MDPI and/or the editor(s) disclaim responsibility for any injury to people or property resulting from any ideas, methods, instructions or products referred to in the content.