

Antibiotics

BIOTECHNOLOGY
AND USE



What are antibiotics?

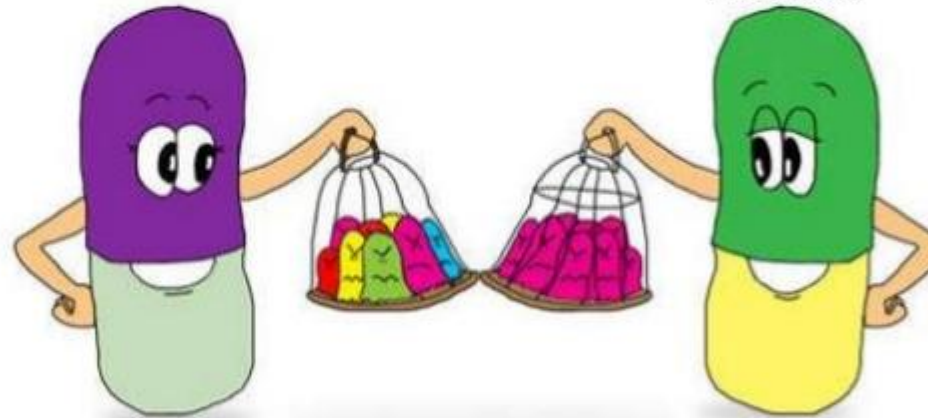
- Antibiotic (from the Ancient Greek: - anti, "against", and - bios, "life")
 - Substance produced by a microorganism
 - Kills or inhibits the growth of other microorganisms, namely bacteria
- Are antimicrobials (group includes anti-viral, anti-fungal, anti-parasitic drugs)
- Relatively harmless to the host, therefore can treat infection



Classes of Antibiotics

- Carbepenams
- Chloramphenicol
- 2nd 3rd 4th Gen Cephalosporiins
- 3rd Gen Fluoroquinolones
- Broad spectrum penicillins
- Tetracyclines

- Penicillin V and G
- Lincosamides(Clindamycin)
- Glycopeptides(Vanco and Teicoplanin)
- Streptogramins
- Rifamycins
- Daptomycin



Broad Spectrum Coverage

Narrow Spectrum Coverage

- Broad-spectrum can act against a wide range of bacteria
 - Acts on both Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria
- Narrow-spectrum are only each effective against one specific family of bacteria

Classes of Antibiotics: based on mode of Action

EXAMPLES:
Chloramphenicol
Erythromycin
Clindamycin
Sulfonamides
Trimethoprim
Tetracyclines



Bacteria are
alive, but not
capable of
multiplication.

Bacteriostatic



EXAMPLES:
Aminoglycosides
Beta-lactams
Vancomycin
Quinolones
Rifampin
Metronidazole

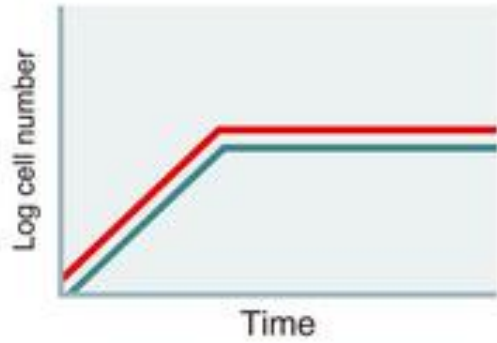
Bacteria die, but
physically continue
to be present in the
environment.

Bacteriocidal

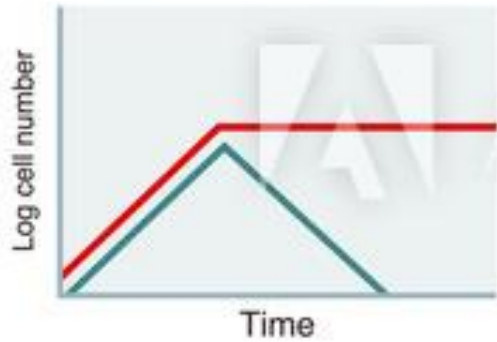
Antagonism between Bacteriostatic and Bactericidal Antibiotics

- **Bacteriostatic antibiotics** limit the growth of bacteria by interfering with bacterial protein production, DNA replication, or other aspects of bacterial cellular metabolism.
- **Bactericidal antibiotics** that inhibit cell wall synthesis: the *beta-lactam antibiotics* (penicillin derivatives (penams), cephalosporins (cephems), monobactams, and carbapenems) and *vancomycin*. Also bactericidal are *daptomycin*, *metronidazole*, *nitrofurantoin*, *co-trimoxazole*, *telithromycin*, *fluoroquinolones*.
- **Bacteriolytic antibiotics** act to lyse the bacteria, dramatically decreasing the total cell count and the viable cell count. Many common antibiotics such as Penicillin act in this way. Bacteria die, bacterial cell walls are destroyed.

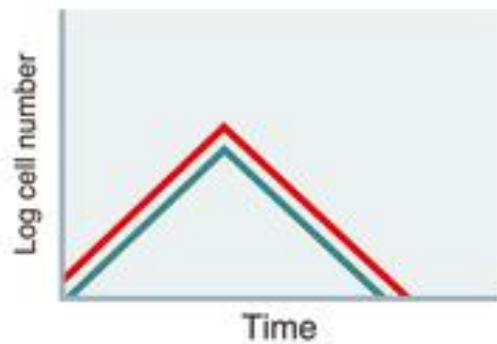
Bacteriostatic



Bactericidal



Bacteriolytic



Major Classes of Antibiotics

- Aminoglycosides
- Beta-lactams:
 - Penicillins
 - Cephalosporins
 - Carbapenems
 - Monobactams
- Fluoroquinolones
- Glycopeptides
- Ketolides
- Lincosamides
- Macrolides
- Oxazolidinones
- Streptogramins
- Sulphonamides
- Tetracyclines



History of Antibiotics



Rudolph Emmerich



Late 1800s

- Germ theory accepted (bacteria as cause of ailments)
- The search for antibiotics began
- Scientists began to devote time to searching for drugs to kill the disease-causing bacteria
- German doctors, Rudolf Emmerich and Oscar Low
 - First to make an effective medication that they called pyocyanase from microbes
 - First antibiotic to be used in hospitals, however not often work

History of Antibiotics

1928 and Penicillin

- The first effective antibiotic discovered
- French physician Ernest Duchesne noted in his 1896 thesis that certain *Penicillium* molds killed bacteria
- Sir Alexander Fleming's bacterium culture of *Staphylococcus aureus* was ruined by accidental fungal contamination
 - Fleming noticed a clear zone surrounding the colony of mold (*Penicillium notatum*)
 - Mold was secreting something that stopped bacterial growth
- Since the mold was of the genus *Penicillium*, he named this compound penicillin



Ernest Duchesne made this discovery 32 years before Alexander Flemming discovered the antibiotic properties of penicillin, a substance derived from those molds, but his research went unnoticed.

History of Antibiotics



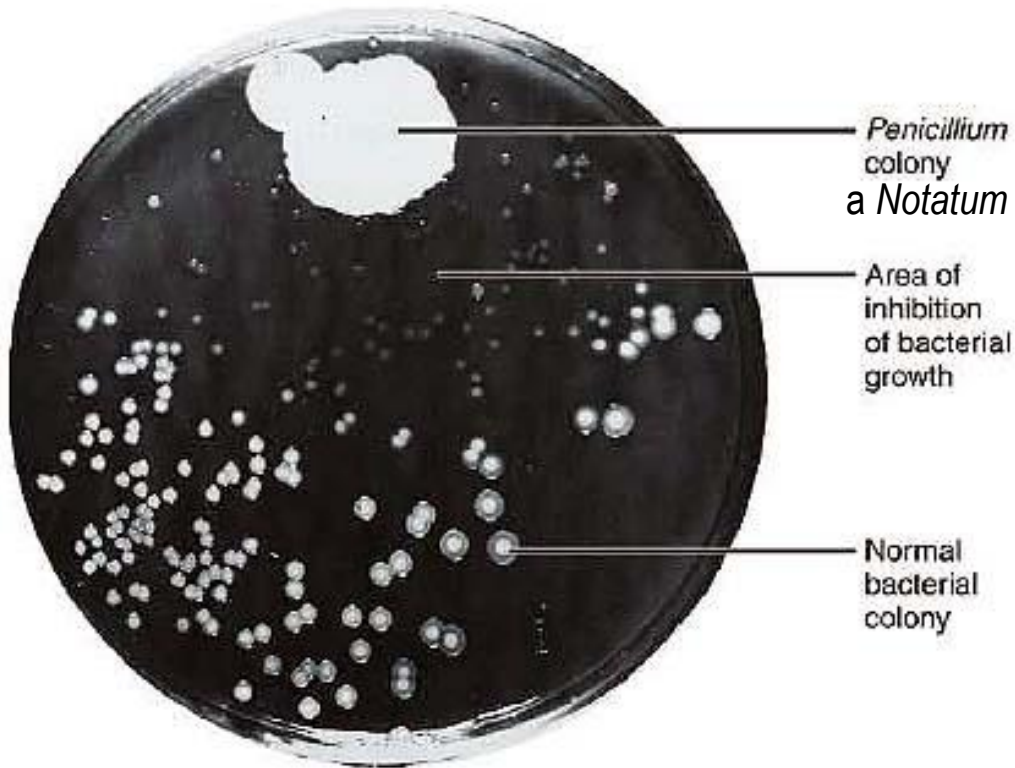
Sir Alexander Fleming,
discovered antibiotics in 1929.



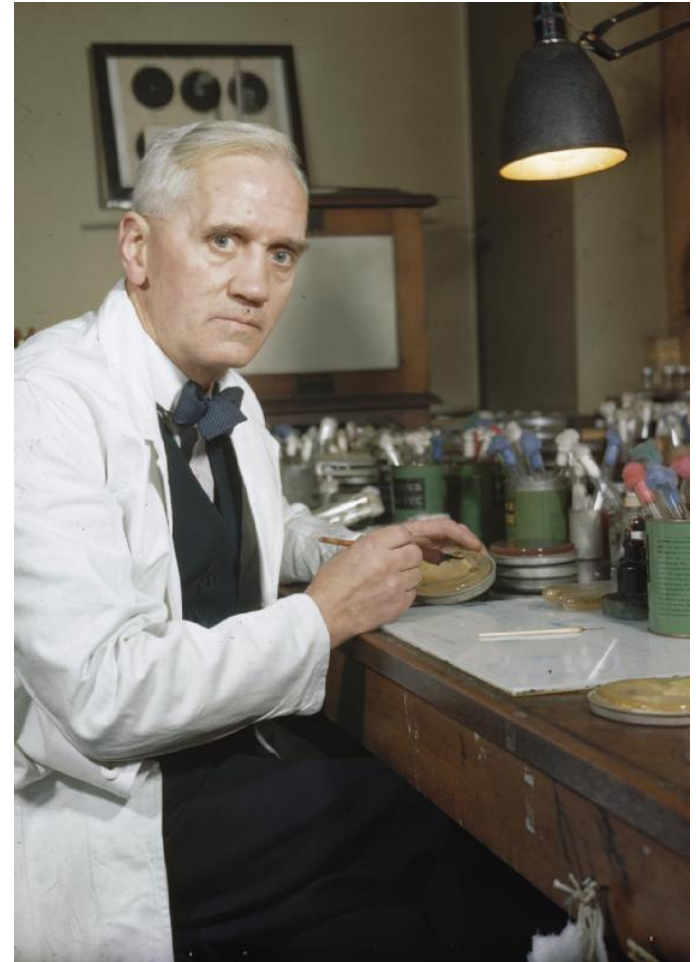
Penicillium Notatum
Fungus In Culture



Producing Antibiotics:



All instruments were unsuitable for large scale production, but in next years so far biotechnology has made great advances



Sir Alexander Fleming,
discovered antibiotics in 1929.

History of Antibiotics

The 1940s

- Manufacturing process for Penicillin G Procaine invented by Howard Florey and Ernst Chain
- Penicillin could now be sold as a drug
- American microbiologist Selman Waksman made streptomycin from soil bacteria
 - The first of a new class of drugs called aminoglycosides
 - Streptomycin could treat diseases like tuberculosis, but with severe side effects



History of Antibiotics

The 1950s

- 1955: Tetracycline patented by Lloyd Conover
 - Became the most prescribed broad spectrum antibiotic in the United States
- 1957: Nystatin patented and used to cure disfiguring and disabling fungal infections



Lloid Conover



US 2699054 A

History of Antibiotics

1981



- SmithKline Beecham patented Amoxicillin (amoxicillin/clavulanate potassium tablets)
- First sold the antibiotic in 1998 under the tradenames: Amoxicillin, Amoxil, and Trimox
 - Amoxicillin is a semi synthetic antibiotic

Nobel Prizes

- 1939: Edward Chain and Howard Florey further studied penicillin
 - Later carried out human trials
- Fleming, Florey, and Chain shared the 1945 Nobel Prize for medicine for their work on penicillin
 - Ushered in the era of antibiotics



Alexander Fleming



Howard Florey



Adward Chain

Why Microorganisms Produce Antibiotics ?

Even though antibiotics are entirely natural products, scientists have to admit that they are not quite sure why microorganisms produce them:

Interspecific competition - but this is only part of the entire story;

Antibiotics are secondary metabolites - once the microorganism runs out of nutrients, it is capable of breaking them down again to overcome a nutritional short supply

Production of an antibiotic is a metabolic waste product, besides being self-immune it keeps away competing organisms.

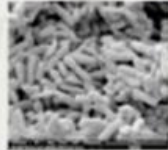


Development with biotechnology

- Originally only derived from living organisms
 - Most new ones are semi-synthetic
 - Chloromycetin, cycloserine, and synthetic tetracycline were first produced completely by man
- Use new tools to culture on large scale (fermentation)
- New strains improve production and reduce costs
- Aim to make more specific to bacteria with fewer side effects

Living sources

- Bacteria



- Bacillus brevis
- B. polymyxa
- Streptococcus cremoris

- Actinomycetes



- Micromonospora purpurea
- Nocardia mediterranei
- Streptomyces griseus

- Fungi



- Cephalosporium acremonium
- Penicillium chrysogenum
- P. griseofulvum

Processing an Antibiotic

Biotechnologists induce mutations by inserting extra-species gene sequences while



Screening procedures enable the scientist to isolate the correct mutant



Processing an Antibiotic

For this reason, a fermentation process was developed

Although most antibiotics occur in nature, they are not normally available in the quantities necessary for large-scale production.

It is important that sterile conditions be maintained throughout the manufacturing process.

Isolating a desired antibiotic

Fueling growth of the culture

Isolating the final antibiotic product

Biotechnologically produced antibiotics are chemically modified strains of *Penicillin*

Contamination by foreign microbes will ruin the fermentation.

How to Isolate a Desired Antibiotic

Results in a zone of inhibition once it is exposed to it



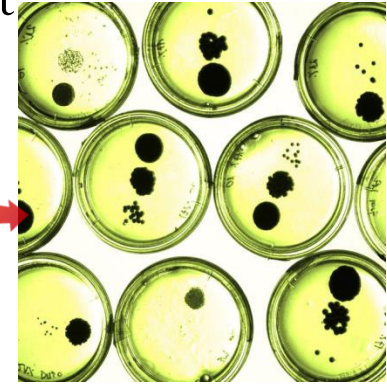
Microorganisms are kept in Erlenmeyer flask



Aseptic transfer of about 1 cm³



Selecting an individual colony



Transferring it to several sterile petri dishes



Drying and incubating for about 48 hours



A single colony of the unknown organism is transferred.



Further incubating

Screening by extracting a sample with a selected contaminant that is sensitive to a particular antibiotic

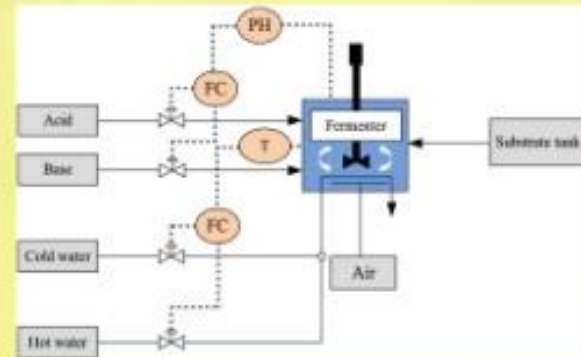


Upstream processing

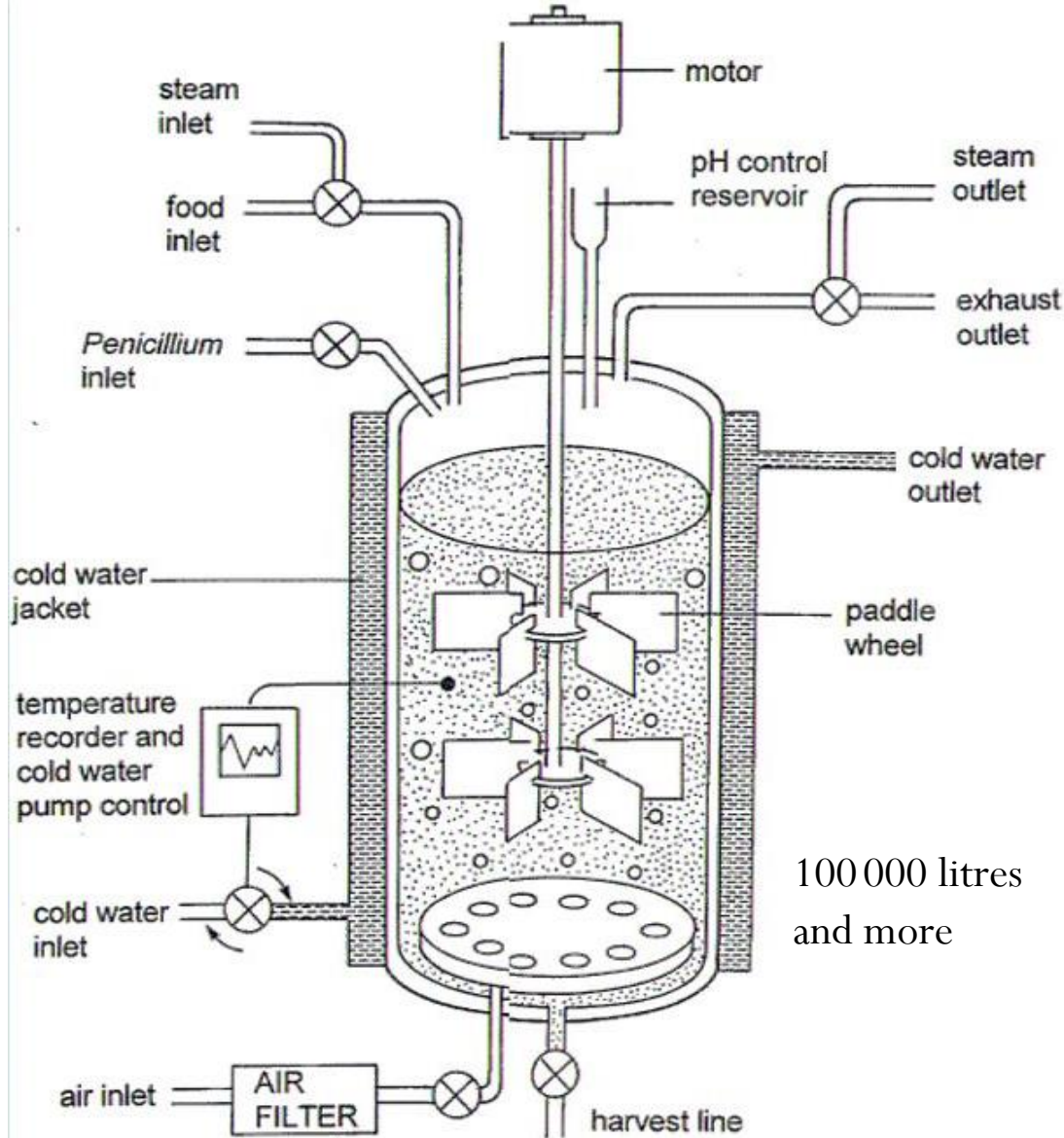
- Uses any technology that leads to synthesis of product
- Production strains stored in dormant form
- Incubated and fermented with oxygen to grow
- Uses carbon, nitrogen, and mineral sources in penicillin production

Fermentation

- Inoculum seeded in fermenter
- Temperature, pH, and mineral contents controlled
- Incubated with oxygen to grow
- Antibiotic produced over time



FERMENTATION in Antibiotics' Producing.



The fermentation conditions with such as temperature, PH, mineral contents should also be maintained.

The process starts immediately after the addition of the inoculum strain according to batch procedure.

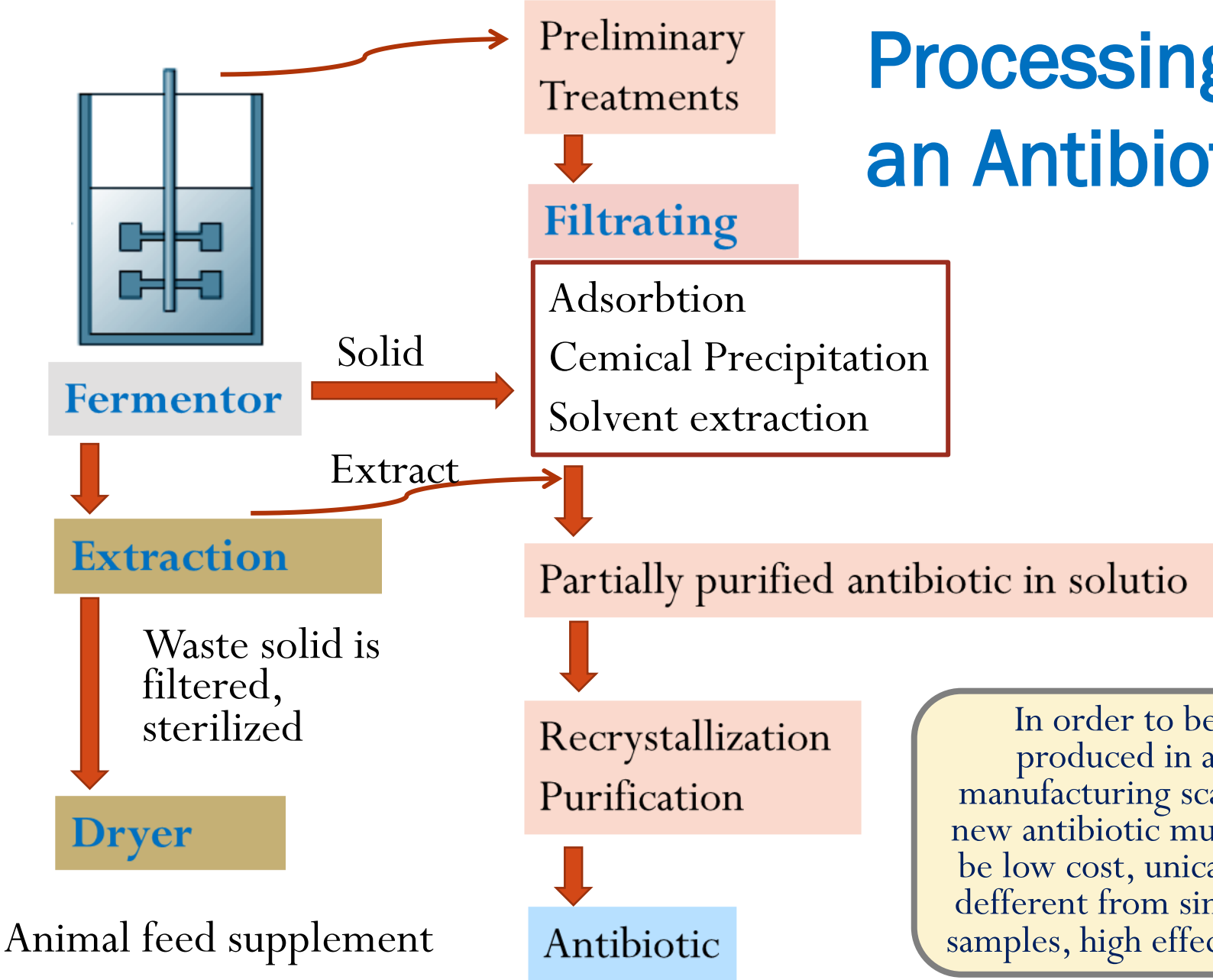
After the required amount of time, the required antibiotic is produced in the fermenter.

Downstream processing

- Extraction and purification of biotechnological product from fermentation
- Stages:
 - Solid-liquid separation
 - Extraction
 - Filtration, rotary vacuum filter
 - Add to low pH solution
 - Purification
 - Charcoal treatment
 - Sterilization
 - Crystallization
- Packaging:
 - Sterile vials as powder or suspension
 - Tableted with film coating



Processing an Antibiotic



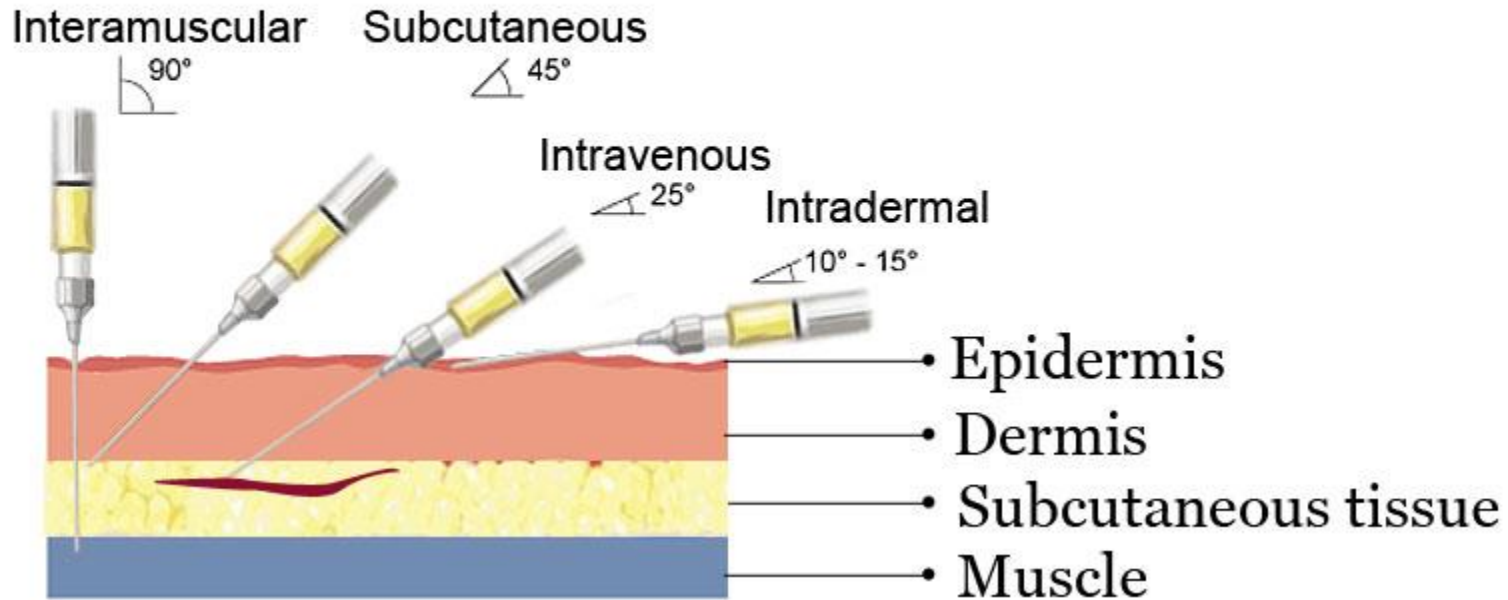
In order to be produced in a manufacturing scale a new antibiotic must to be low cost, unicable, defferent from similar samples, high effective.

How medicines are made?

Use of Antibiotics: administration

- The type of administration affects the absorption rate of the drug
- Parentally (intravenously, intra-muscularly...)
 - Quickest absorption, more serious cases
 - IV less painful, less irritating, higher dose
- Orally (tablets or caplets)
- Local application to skin, mucous membranes, respiratory tract...
- Inhalation as aerosol (small molecules sprayed in respiratory passages)

Types of Parenteral Routes of Administration



Orally



Inhalation as aerosol



Local application to skin

Physiological effects

Metabolized by:

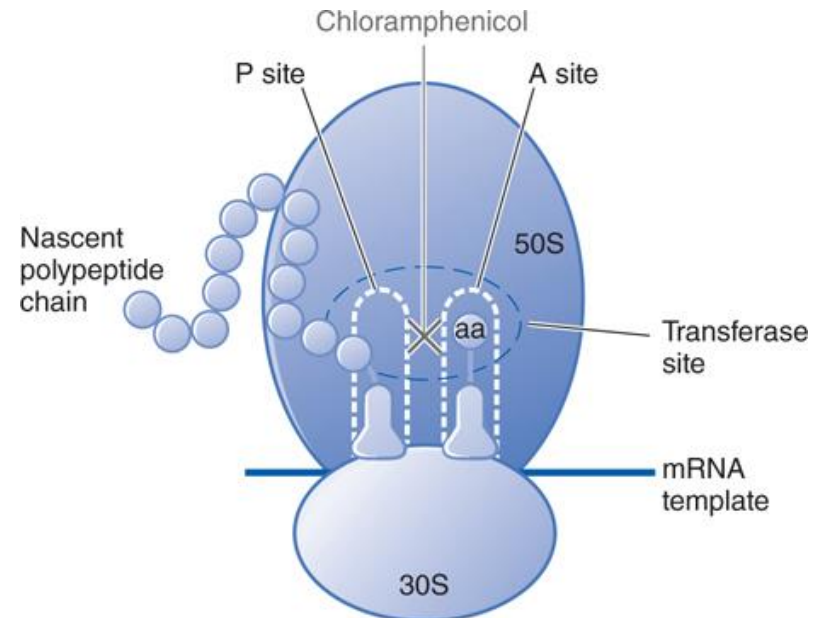
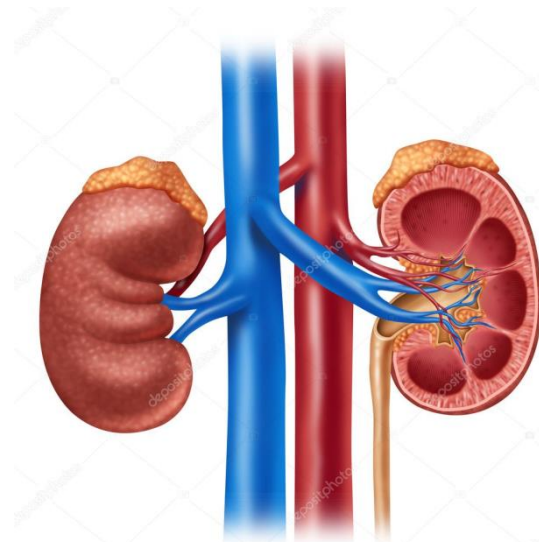
Kidney (most important);
Also excreted through faeces, sweat,
respiration.

Cell wall synthesis inhibitors:

Prevent microorganisms/bacteria from
making peptidoglycan for cell wall.

Interfering with protein synthesis:

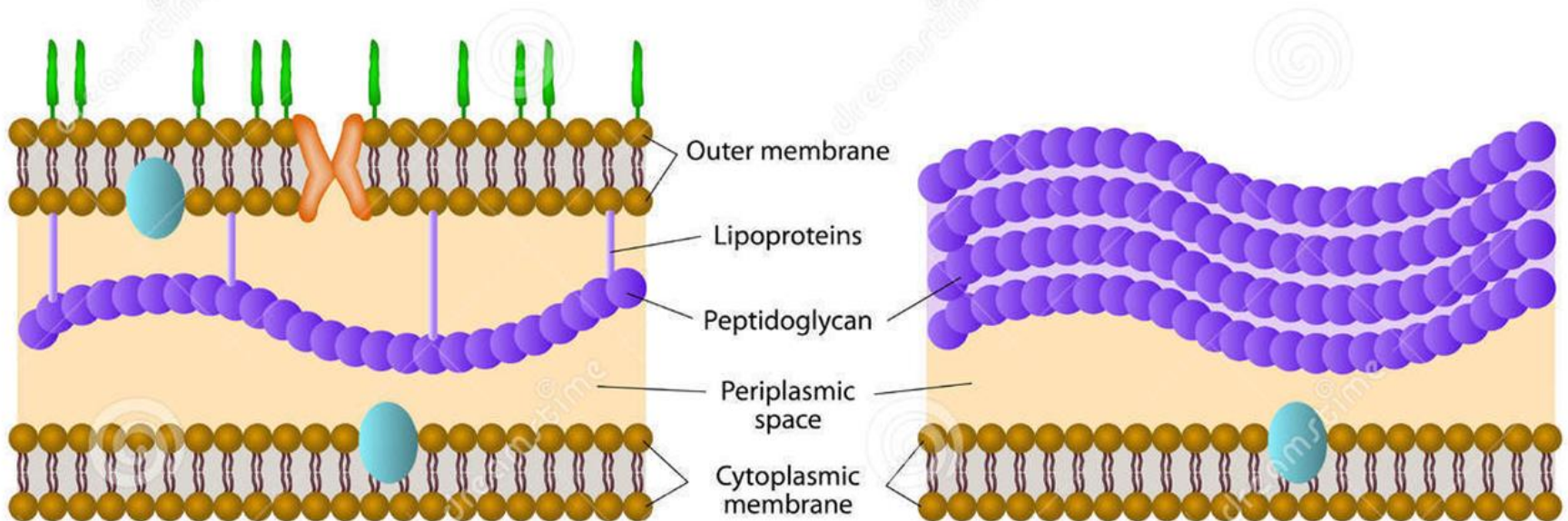
Inhibit protein synthesis machinery
(tetracyclines, chlormphenicol,
aminoglycosides, macrolides).



Peptidoglycans for bacteria's cell wall

GRAM-NEGATIVE

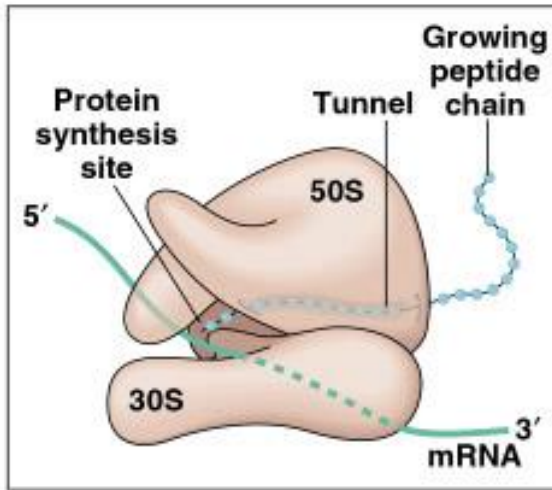
GRAM-POSITIVE



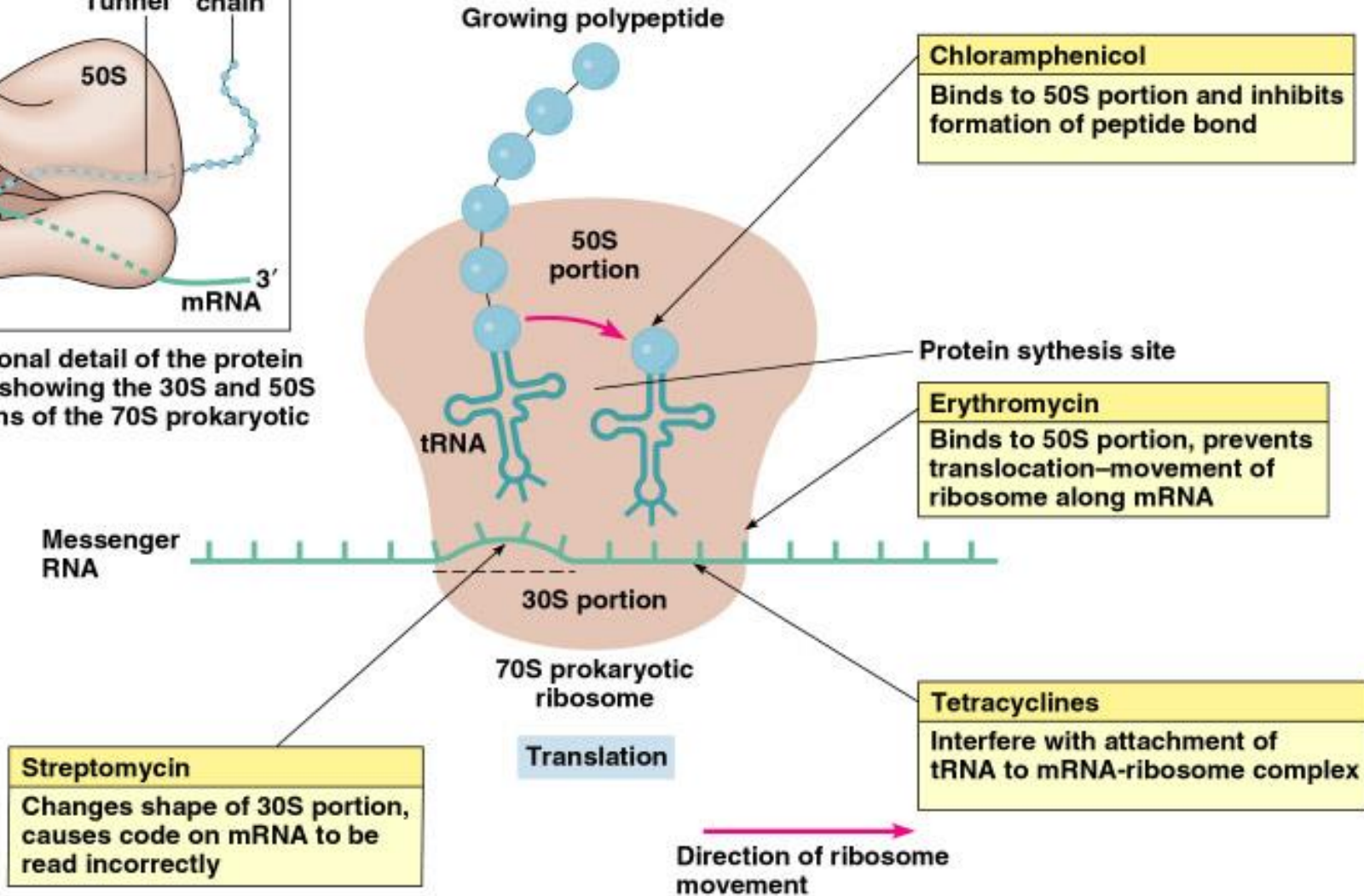
 Lipopolysaccharides

 Porin

 Protein



(a) Three-dimensional detail of the protein synthesis site showing the 30S and 50S subunit portions of the 70S prokaryotic ribosome.

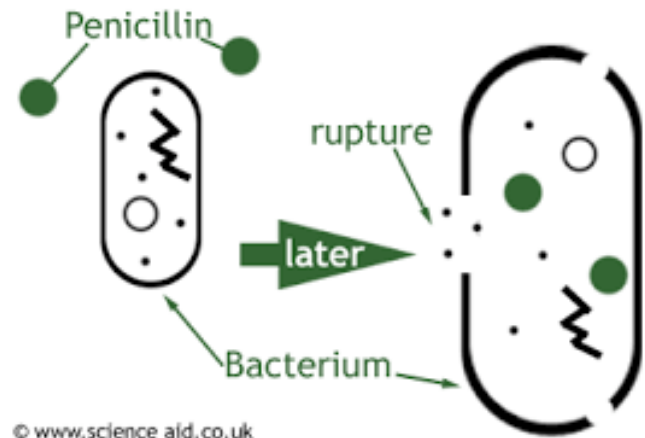


(b) In the diagram the black arrows indicate the different points at which chloramphenicol, erythromycin, the tetracyclines, and streptomycin exert their activities.

Physiological effects

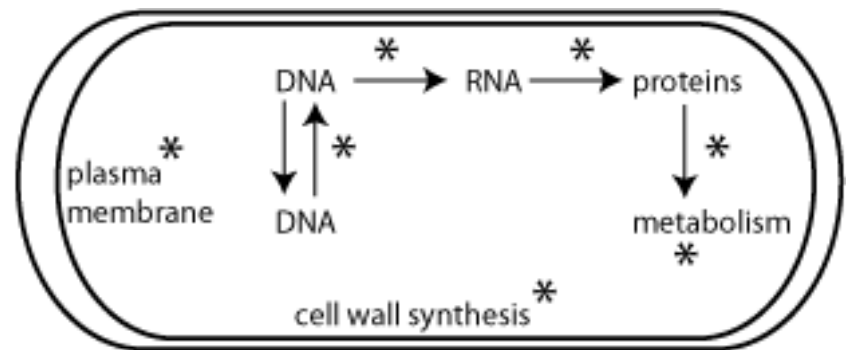
Cell membrane inhibitors:

Disrupt integrity/structure of cell membrane, killing them (Polymyxins); Effective on Gram-negative bacteria that have definite cell membrane.



Effect on Nucleic Acids:

Some bind to the proteins required for processing of DNA and RNA, stopping synthesis and growing of cells (Quinolones, rifamycins)

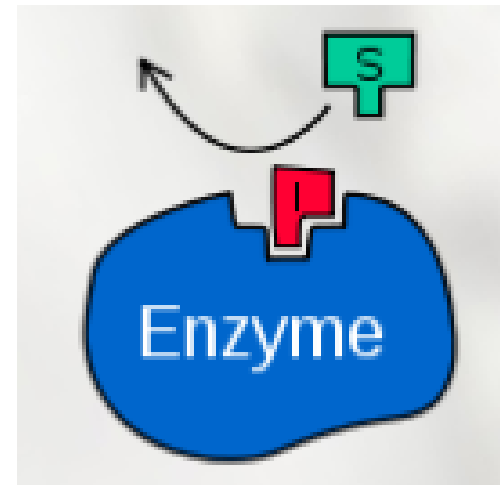


Antibiotics act at all of these points

Physiological effects

Competitive inhibitors:

Anti-metabolites/growth factor analogs.
Competitively inhibit the important
matabolic pathways in bacterial cell
(Gantrisin, Trimethoprim)



Application of Antibiotics

- Streptomycin effective against diseases that penicillin was not (eg. Bubonic plague)
- Aureomycin does work of both penicillin and streptomycin
- Terramycin considered one of most effective antibiotics ever found
- Chloromycetin effective against typhus, whooping cough, and typhoid
- Fluoroquinolone used on chickens and turkeys to stop E. coli deaths
- Clinically used in ophthalmology



Bubonic plague



Whooping cough

Typhus



Antibiotic resistance

Genetically

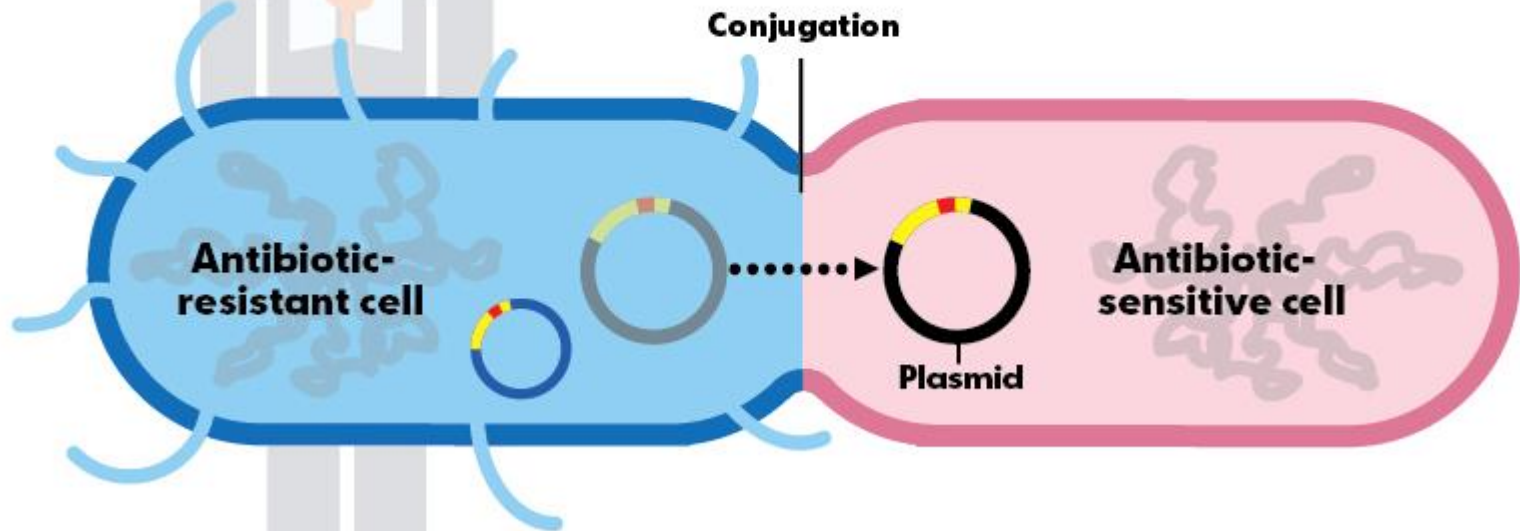
- Evolutionary process based on natural selection
- Newer strains of bacteria resistant to previously lethal antibiotics
 - Antibiotics act as selective pressure on bacteria
 - Those that survive are selected for, and go on to reproduce
- Intrinsic resistance can occur naturally from genetic makeup
- Mutations also aid survivorship
- Cross-resistance with other bacteria lead to co-resistance of many antibiotics

Antibiotics cross-resistance

Antibiotic resistance genes are readily passed on via plasmids (conjugation of bacteria)

How a resistance gene moves between bacteria

The cells come in contact, a process called conjugation, and the plasmids move from one to another, taking the resistance gene with them and making the new bacterial cell drug-resistant as well.



The presence in the plasmid of antibiotic resistance genes plays a significant role in isolating bacteria with an embedded portion of foreign DNA.

Mechanisms of Antibiotics resistance

- Microorganisms may lack the structure on which the antibiotic acts (for example, bacteria of the genus mycoplasma (Latin Mycoplasma) are insensitive to penicillin, since they do not have a cell wall);
- Some microorganisms are impervious to certain antibiotics (most gram-negative bacteria are resistant to penicillin G, in which the cell wall is protected by an additional membrane);
- Microorganisms can translate the antibiotic into an inactive form (many staphylococci (Latin Staphylococcus) contain the β -lactamase enzyme which destroys the β -lactam ring of most penicillins);
- As a result of gene mutations, the metabolism of the microorganism can be modified in such a way that the chemical reactions blocked by the antibiotic are no longer critical to the body's vital functions;

Exposure to bacteria occurs.

Infection occurs and the bacteria spread.

Drug treatment is used.

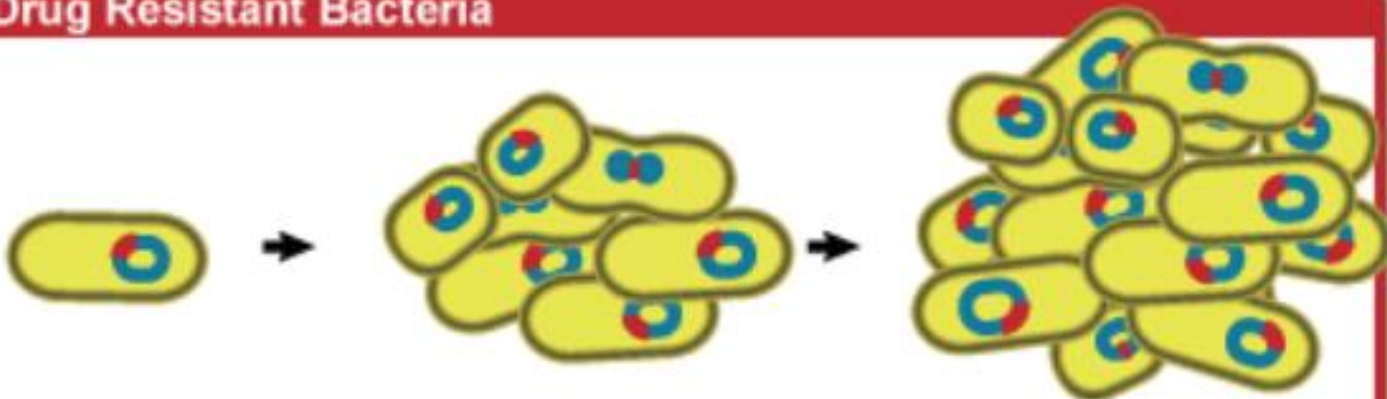
Non-resistant Bacteria



The bacteria multiply.

The bacteria die. The person is healthy again.

Drug Resistant Bacteria



The bacteria multiply.

The bacteria continue to spread. The person remains sick.

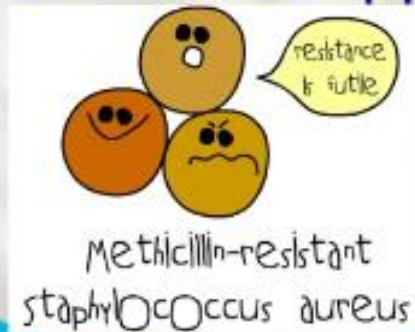
Superbacteria



Strains

Antibiotic use in foods has led to creation of antibiotic-resistant strains

- Salmonella spp.
- Campulobacter spp.
- Escherichia coli
- Enterococcus spp.



Solutions

- Development of pharmaceutical compounds that reverse antibiotic resistances
 - Called “resistance modifying agents”
- Idea of using bacteriophages instead of antibiotics
 - Phages tailored to specific bacteria, to destroy them