

**SRI VENKATESWARA INTERNSHIP PROGRAM FOR RESEARCH IN ACADEMICS (SRI-VIPRA)**



# **SRI-VIPRA**

# **Project Report SVP-2429**

**"Identification of novel potential inhibitors against the PPE/PE proteins of** *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* **using** *in silico* **approach"** 

**IQAC**

**Sri Venkateswara College University of Delhi Benito Juarez Road, Dhaula Kuan, New Delhi New Delhi -110021**

## **SRIVIPRA PROJECT 2024**

**Title:** *Identification of novel potential inhibitors against the PPE/PE proteins of Mycobacterium tuberculosis using in silico approach*





## **List of students under the SRIVIPRA Project**



## **Certificate of Originality**

This is to certify that the aforementioned students from Sri Venkateswara College have participated in the summer project SVP2429 titled *"Identification of novel potential inhibitors against the PPE/PE proteins of Mycobacterium tuberculosis using in silico approach"*. The participants have carried out the research project work under my guidance and supervision from  $1<sup>st</sup>$  July, 2024 to 30<sup>th</sup> September 2024. The work carried out is original and carried out in an online/offline/hybrid mode.

Nimish

 $\mu$ 

**Signature of Mentor Signature of Mentor**

## **Acknowledgement**

*We express our heartfelt gratitude to Almighty God for blessing us with good health throughout this journey. Our deepest thanks go to our families, whose unwavering support and unconditional love have been our constant source of strength.*

*We extend our sincere appreciation to our teachers and mentors, Dr. Nimisha Sinha and Dr. Vandana Malhotra, for their invaluable guidance, insightful suggestions, and innovative ideas throughout the course of our work. Their encouragement and open communication greatly fueled our curiosity and deepened our engagement with the project. We are profoundly thankful for the time and assistance she generously provided. It has been a privilege to work under their mentorship in accomplishing this endeavor.*

*We are also deeply thankful to everyone who contributed to the project, offering their assistance and correcting our mistakes along the way. Their support was crucial in completing the project within the designated time frame.*

*Finally, we would like to thank our college for offering us the necessary resources, knowledge, and the unforgettable experience of working on this project.*

## **TABLE OF CONTENTS**



#### **Abstract**

Tuberculosis (TB), caused by *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*, is a global health threat, with drug-resistant strains complicating treatment efforts. Recent studies have highlighted the potential of PE/PPE family proteins, such as PPE18 and PPE25, as novel drug targets due to their roles in virulence and immune modulation. These PPE proteins have been reported to contribute to M.tb pathogenicity by modulating he host immune responses and facilitating persistence in the host. This study aims to identify natural ligands derived from marine organisms and plants sources as potential inhibitors of PPE18 and PPE25 using bioinformatics-based molecular docking.

In this study, 3D structures of PPE18 and PPE25 were obtained from the Protein Data Bank (PDB) and prepared for molecular docking using AutoDock 4.2. A comprehensive library of natural compounds was created, through extensive review of literature, containing marine and plant-derived bioactive compounds known for their antimicrobial properties. The top-ranked ligands were selected based on binding energy scores and then key interactions were assessed, including hydrogen bonding and hydrophobic interactions with critical residues of receptor proteins.

The docking results revealed a few promising ligands with strong binding affinities for PPE18 and PPE25. Some of the ligands showed stable interactions within the critical sites/pockets of the receptor proteins, suggesting potential inhibitory effects on PPE protein function. This study demonstrates the potential of some of the natural compounds as novel inhibitors targeting PPE18 and PPE25, providing a new strategy for combating drug-resistant TB. Future experimental validation is required to confirm these findings and elucidate the mechanisms of action.

**Keywords:** *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*, PPE18, PPE25, natural ligands, molecular docking, drug resistance.

#### **1. Introduction/Background**

In 1882, Robert Koch discovered *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (*M. tb*), as the causative agent of tuberculosis (TB). It is one of the world's leading causes of infectious disease-related death despite 90 years of vaccination and 60 years of chemotherapy (1). According to the 2022 World Health Organisation (WHO) report, around one quarter of the world's population (2 billion) are latently infected with *M. tb*. In the individuals carrying latent TB infections (LTBI), the estimated lifetime risk for TB reactivation is 5–10%. as shown in the figure below, in 2022, eight countries accounted for more than two thirds of global TB cases: India (27%), Indonesia (10%), China (7.1%), the Philippines (7.0%), Pakistan (5.7%), Nigeria (4.5%), Bangladesh (3.6%) and the Democratic Republic of the Congo (3.0%). Unfortunately, no effective vaccine is currently available to prevent TB disease in adults, either before or after exposure to *M. tb*. Nonetheless, the only licenced TB vaccine, Bacille Calmette-Guérin (BCG) can confer moderate protection in infants and children (2).

Also, the people suffering from HIV have an 18 times higher risk of developing TB than unaffected person. In the context of the coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic, the impact of TB on global health has become even more severe. Individuals who have recovered from COVID-19 have been found to have a higher risk of developing TB, likely due to the negative impact of COVID‐19 on the immune system. Therefore, new TB treatment drugs remain an urgent research priority while the ability of Mtb to survive in the microenvironment of the human host remains as one of the greatest challenges (3).



**Figure-1: The prevalence of tuberculosis worldwide: Source: WHO report 2023**

#### **1.1 Life Cycle and Pathogenesis**

The pathogenesis of tuberculosis is connected to the development and progress of the causative bacteria - *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*. The bacterium initiates its life cycle upon engagement with the respiratory tract and lungs, specifically interacting with alveolar macrophages.

Active tuberculosis patients transmit the infection via coughing/sneezing, leading to release of M.tb containing aerosol droplets, which travel through the trachea to bronchi, bronchioles and ultimately alveoli present in the lungs. Occurrence of the bacterium in the alveoli alerts the alveolar macrophages, which recognize it as a foreign particle and initiate phagocytosis by engulfing. Pathogen associated molecular patterns (PAMPS) on TB release Danger associated molecular patterns (DAMPS) that are recognized by Toll Like Receptors (TLRs) on alveolar macrophages and phagocytosis occurs. At this point, intracellular lysosomal enzymes are released in the vesicle containing bacteria, which may digest and destroy the bacilli, leading to the eradication of the disease (4).



**Figure-2: Schematic representation of life cycle of Mycobacterium in the host cell**

However, in most cases the bacteria are able to evade this fate by action of complex mechanisms. Prolonged interaction with MTB causes release of inflammatory cytokines that activate and recruit neutrophils, T lymphocytes and monocytes to the site of infection. If the infected macrophages travel to the thoracic lymph nodes, they can cause adverse effects on the immune system and initiate macrophage cell death, which

would finally lead to the advancement of the bacilli through the lymphatic and circulatory system. This would result in the disease spreading to different regions of the body, and is labelled extra pulmonary tuberculosis.

The second fate of mycobacterium tuberculosis infected macrophages is the development of a structure called **granuloma** (an important feature of TB) (5). Macrophages, along with addition of T cells and B cells form a clustered covering in the vicinity of the bacilli, with the intent of containing the bacteria within itself, prohibiting its spread. Unfortunately, this also ensures a refuge for bacterial populations. As a result, the immune system doesn't recognize this danger and brings about the latent state of TB infection, which aids the survival of granulomas and patients are thus asymptomatic (6).

As the granuloma matures, macrophages differentiate into foamy cells. The center of granuloma may undergo necrosis of the host immune cells forming caseum (caseous granuloma) known as Ghon focus. Ghon focus with Hilar Lymph node forms Ghon Complex. This Ghon complex undergoes fibrosis and calcification to form Ranke complex and in some cases the *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* is killed but in many immunocompromised individual reactivation of TB takes place (7).

The immunocompromised individual is often seen suffering from HIV which gives rise to the granuloma cavitation and resulting in the conversion to active form of the disease. A delayed response by T cells triggers necrosis in the center of the granuloma, allowing it to become caseous in nature. This is characterized by the conversion of macrophages into foam cells, leading to their accumulation, along with the presence of necrotic host immune cells. Latent state TB involves the maturation of this state, inducing cavitation, and thereby permitting the release of mycobacterium tuberculosis back into the lung airways. This marks the transition from latent to active tuberculosis, that is symptomatic and infectious.

#### **1.2 Signs and Symptoms**

*Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (MTB) is a rod shaped bacterium, measuring approximately 3-4 micrometers in length and 0.3-0.6 micrometers in width. MTB is a slow growing bacterium, often taking several weeks for a single colony to grow on a culture plate.

Latent MTB infection remains asymptomatic, though it may produce positive results in diagnostic tests. Signs and symptoms of active MTB infection vary depending on the severity of the disease. Common symptoms include a persistent cough lasting for weeks, coughing up blood or phlegm (mucus), chest pain, fatigue, weight loss, fever, night sweats, swellings that persist for weeks, chills, loss of appetite, and shortness of breath.

Depending on where MTB is growing in the body, other symptoms may include swollen, firm, red, or purple lymph nodes under the skin (Lymph nodes), blood in the urine (Kidneys), headache or confusion (Brain), back pain (Spine), and hoarseness (Larynx) (8).

#### **1.3 Current Treatment Regimen**

This section reviews various currently essential drugs prescribed to the Drug Sensitive tuberculosis (DS-TB) patients classified according to the basis of their mode of action and their abilities to eradicate specific stages of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis (Mtb)* (7).

#### **1.3.1 Cell Wall assembly in Mycobacterium**

*Mtb* possesses an atypical cell wall structure composed majorly of simple lipids and carbohydrates. This envelope includes Peptidoglycan (PG), Arabinogalactan (AG), Lipoarabinomannan (LAM) and, Mycolic acid (MA) which forms a mycolyl-arabinogalactan peptidoglycan complex (mAGP) with some units of phosphatidyl myo-inositol based lipoglycans. Mycolic acid is one of the most indispensable parts of the cell wall as it envelopes the entirety of the cell and provides the bacterium permeability and ability to anchor it to a foreign object. Although hampering any component of the cell wall of the bacterium renders it vulnerable, interfering with MA and AG synthesis effectively makes it dysfunctional for pathogenesis.

#### **1.3.2 First Line Drugs for Tuberculosis treatment**

The first line drugs include those antibiotic drugs which are specifically designed to affect Mtb and its pathogenesis. The drugs include Isoniazid (INH), Rifampicin (RIF), Pyrazinamide (PZA) and Ethambutol (EMB) whose combination is given for the initial DS-TB patients.

- INH exerts an inhibitory effect on an enzyme InhA which is involved in the biosynthesis of MA. InhA is an enoyl acyl carrier protein (ACP) reductase which reduces long chain 2-enoyl acyl by forming covalent adducts with NAD cofactors and enoyl-CoA substrates. INH forms an adduct with NAD cofactors which indirectly inhibits InhA activity ultimately hampering MA biosynthesis. It is most effective against actively growing Mtb.
- RIF is a potent inhibitor of bacterial DNA-dependent RNA polymerase. RIF binds to the β subunit of the RNA pol II preventing the initiation factor  $(\sigma)$  from binding thereby arresting the process of transcription but RIF does not arrest DNA replication. RIF has a rapid bactericidal effect on the bacterial cells making it essential for TB treatment regimen for DS-TB patients.
- PZA is a prodrug which gets activated in the presence of an enzyme pyrazinamidase. This enzyme is found in the latent granuloma formed by Mtb infection and converts PZA into pyrazinoic acid which in turn interferes with fatty acid biosynthesis thereby affecting Mtb cell wall. PZA has a bactericidal effect against both actively growing as well as dormant Mtb cells.
- EMB inhibits the synthesis of arabinogalactan (AG) by targeting the arabinosyl transferases such as EmbA, EmbB and EmbC. EMB inhibits the growth of the actively proliferating Mtb cells but does not directly kill them, rendering a bacteriostatic effect (5, 9).

#### **1.3.3 Current DS-TB Treatment and its consequences**

For DS-TB (Drug Sensitive tuberculosis) patients, initially, the treatment lasts for 6 months with use of the first-line drugs (INH, RIF, PZA and EMB) only. All the first-line drugs for the initial two months and then continuation of INH and RIF for the next four months are prescribed for complete eradication of the dormant TB.

The treatment for DS-TB (as well as other forms of TB discussed later) has severe side effects associated with it which includes liver dysfunction, peripheral neuropathy, erythromelalgia, ocular toxicity, central nervous system (CNS) toxicity, gastrointestinal (GI) intolerance and skin rash.

#### **1.4 Challenges faced against TB and the need for a novel approach**

Poor patient compliance owing to the above mentioned unwanted side-effects, high pill count and protracted duration of therapy in addition to the overuse/misuse of antibiotics contributed to the emergence of drug resistant (DR) M.tb strains.

#### **1.4.1 MDR-TB and emergence of second-line drugs in TB treatment**

Multi Drug Resistant tuberculosis (MDR-TB) is referred to the drug resistant M.tb infection which is immune to the effect of either INH or RIF or both. MDR-TB cure rates are significantly lower as compared to DS-TB as it is resistant to two of the most powerful TB frontline drugs.

MDR-TB requires another auxiliary series of drugs that are referred to as second-line drug targets for its treatment. Second-line drugs are not specific for TB treatment but are antibiotics which support the firstline drugs in their treatment. Second-line drugs are classified into three groups namely GroupA (Linezolid, Bedaquiline, Moxifloxacin and Levofloxacin) GroupB (Clofazimine, Terizidone and Cycloserine) and Group C (Delamanid, Streptomycin, Amikacin, Imipenem, Meropenem, ANSA, Ethionamide and Prothionamide) drugs.

Two of the important second-line drugs include Bedaquiline (BDQ) and Fluoroquinolones (Moxifloxacin and Levofloxacin). BDQ is one of the drugs which functions on a novel mechanism discovered in the last half a century (other being Delamanid (DLM)). BDQ is a bactericidal antibiotic which inhibits the activity of ATP synthase thereby arresting the energy production from metabolism.

Fluoroquinolones is a class of antibiotics which contain a bicyclic structure. These inhibit DNA Gyrase, an enzyme responsible for separating DNA strands during replication (comparable to DNA topoisomerases in eukaryotes) arresting DNA replication in any prokaryotic cell (bacterial cell).

#### **1.4.2 MDR-TB Treatment**

The treatment for MDR-TB (after the initial period of six months for DS-TB) lasts for nearly 12 months. In general, the treatment starts with an initial phase of four-six months of administering INH (high doses), ETH/PTH, BDQ, one fluoroquinolone and clofazimine keeping in mind BDQ must be continued for six months regardless of the duration for other drugs. It is then continued with administering one fluoroquinolone, clofazimine, PZA and EMB for 5 months.

The treatment however, is not so simple as it is dependent on various factors such as (1) fluoroquinolone susceptibility (2) no previous history of second-line drug being administered for one month before (3) no other antibiotic resistance other than INH or RIF (4) no pregnancy (5) age 6 or above.

#### **1.4.3 Co-Infection with other diseases and XDR**

TB, in particular, is a disease known to remain in the pulmonary alveoli as a latent granuloma even after the treatment and the Mtb cells always try to find a way to become active whenever the immune response of the person is diverted or in a dysfunctional state. Hence, a co-infection with another severe disease is a perfect opportunity for Mtb cells to become active and perform its pathogenic processes which has become a highly potent challenge.

TB and HIV co-infection is near to impossible to treat as both the pathogens completely disarm the immune response. There is no proper treatment plan that can be devised for both the pathogens increasing the pill burden, overlapping side effects and drug-drug interactions.

The pandemic of the COVID-19 in 2020 also caused an increase in the number of deaths due to TB as their co-infection had catastrophic effects on any infected person. Since both the pathogens targeted the respiratory tract there was an increase in deaths from TB with 1.5 million in 2020 to 1.6 million in 2021. The pandemic affected the progress in controlling TB disease as all the efforts for the provision of preventive therapy and DR-TB treatment significantly declined.

Extensive Drug-Resistant Tuberculosis (XDR-TB) is a subset of MDR-TB where the Mtb infection has drug resistance towards at least one of the fluoroquinolone or any injected second line drug in addition to INH or RIF drug resistance. This has been a very severe challenge as the pill burden increases for a very limited option of drugs which may also cause resistance to these antibiotics too. There is neither a general treatment nor a plan to tackle XDR-TB. The only procedure that can be done is reducing or delaying the effects of the infection because such an infection cannot be eradicated (10, 11).

#### **1.4.4 Need for a Novel Approach in drug discovery**

The above mentioned challenges including MDR-TB, XDR-TB, various co-infections, etc has lead the research towards some novel findings in the *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* pathogenesis which includes binding to the alveolar sacs, evasion of immune system and other modes of absorption of nutrients and metal ions. Our research thus came across a family of proteins known as PE/PPE proteins which are potentially responsible for such effects and are present in different strains of Mycobacterium.

#### **1.5. Introduction to PE/PPE family of proteins in Mycobacterium**

Analysis of the *M. tuberculosis H37Rv* genome sequence revealed the presence of two novel gene families that comprise almost 10% of the coding capacity of the genome [12]. These were designated the PE and PPE genes, after highly conserved Proline-Glutamate and Proline-Proline-Glutamate residues near the start of their encoded proteins. The proteins can be categorized into subgroups, encompassing members with highly variable length and sequence features (Figure 2) [12].



**Figure-3: Schematic representation of PE and PPE family Sub-groups.**

The relatively conserved N-terminal is approximately 110 amino acids (aa) and 180 aa in the PE and PPE families, respectively. Recent studies have indicated that the ESX system contributes to PE/PPE protein export, and, likewise, ESX system protein secretion is related to that of PE/PPE proteins.

#### **1.5.1 Evolution of PE/PPE proteins**

Obligate symbiotic bacteria and obligate intracellular pathogens, such as *Mycobacterium*, often undergo reductive evolution, eliminating genes that are non-essential for survival while duplicating those critical for persistence, especially within a host. However, the PE/PPE gene families within *Mycobacterium* have exhibited constructive evolution, expanding significantly in number. This gene expansion is particularly notable in *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*, which possesses the highest number of PE/PPE proteins, along with species such as *M. marinum*, *M. leprae*, and *M. avium*. These PE/PPE genes comprise around 7-10% of the total coding capacity in these species, indicating their importance in pathogenicity, immune evasion, and survival within host cells (13,14, 15).

The PE-PPE gene families are intricately associated with the ESAT-6 (ESX) gene clusters, which encode the type VII secretion system (T7SS) in *Mycobacterium* species (16). These ESX regions are believed to have originated from an ancestral plasmid found in fast-growing Mycobacteria, carrying virulence factors that facilitated interactions with host macrophages. This co-evolutionary relationship between PE-PPE genes and the ESX system suggests that both evolved in concert to enhance *Mycobacterium's* ability to survive within host cells, contributing to its pathogenicity. The ESX secretion system comprises five distinct ESX clusters: ESX-1, ESX-2, ESX-3, ESX-4, and ESX-5. Among these, ESX-1, ESX-3, and especially ESX-5 are critically involved in the secretion of PE/PPE proteins. ESX-5 is particularly notable as it is primarily responsible for exporting PE/PPE proteins into the host environment. This secretion process plays a vital role in immune modulation and the pathogen's ability to evade the host's immune system, thereby promoting survival within the host. ESX-1, while essential for virulence, and ESX-3, involved in iron acquisition, are less directly associated with PE/PPE secretion compared to ESX-5, which is uniquely linked to the expansion and functional diversification of the PE/PPE gene families.

The evolutionary expansion of PE/PPE genes is reflected in five distinct sublineages: PE\_PGRS, PPE-PPW, PPE-SVP, and PPE-MPTR. Among these, the PE\_PGRS and PPE-MPTR subfamilies are believed to have evolved from ESX-5, indicating a specialized evolutionary path tied to the secretion functions of this system. The ancestral ESX cluster, ESX-4, does not contain any PE/PPE genes, suggesting that these genes were integrated later, likely into ESX-1, and subsequently expanded via gene duplication.

The PE-PPE genes associated with ESX-1, specifically PE35 (Rv3872) and PPE68 (Rv3873), are considered the ancestral members of the PE-PPE family. These genes are thought to be the progenitors from which the entire PE/PPE family evolved through multiple rounds of duplication and diversification. This expansion, driven by the selective pressures of host interaction and survival, highlights the complex co-evolution of the PE/PPE genes and the ESX secretion system, with ESX-5 being a major driver of the PE/PPE gene family's evolution and functional diversification within pathogenic Mycobacteria (15).

#### **1.5.3 Significance of PE/PPE proteins family**

The PE (proline-glutamate) and PPE (proline-proline-glutamate) protein family represents a cluster of proteins present in the cell wall of Mycobacteria, including human pathogen *Mycobacterium tuberculosis.* The genes for PE and PPE proteins, which accounts for about 10% of the coding sequence, are closely related to bacterial virulence [17]. The N-terminal sequence of this family is relatively conserved and Cterminal sequence is highly polymorphic and the variation in the C-terminal sequence might be the molecular basis of mutations of PE/PPE proteins. Most of the PE/PPE family proteins are localized in the cell wall and can inhibit macrophage apoptosis [18].



**Figure-4: Schematic representation of some immunomodulatory roles played by PE/PPE proteins** 

PE/PPE family proteins regulate the immune function of host cells. Secretion of PE/PPE proteins dependent on the early secreted antigenic target 6 kDa (ESAT-6) secretion system (ESX). Mutations in PPE38 can block the secretion of two major substrates of ESX-5, thereby increasing the virulence [19]. During the Mtb infection PE/PPE proteins can regulate various cell death pathways, such as apoptosis and pyroptosis. PE/PPE family proteins, integral to the pathogenicity of Mtb, present novel therapeutics against Mtb [20]. These proteins due to their significant representation in the Mtb genome and multiple roles in pathogenesis, particularly in mechanisms of immune invasion, offer a unique target for drug development. The conceptualization of small molecule inhibitors targeting distinct PPE/PE proteins holds significant promise in disrupting pathophysiological processes of Tuberculosis.

## **1.6 Selection of Ligands from natural sources: marine organisms and plant derived secondary metabolites**

The significance of natural products in antibacterial drug treatment has been indisputable. Historically, natural products have been important in therapy against TB. Natural compounds form the basis for many commonly used medications. Bioactive molecules derived from widespread naturally occurring plant substances, including alkaloids, organosulfur compounds, phenolic acids, flavonoids, carotenoids, coumarins, terpenes, tannins, and some primary metabolites (amino acids, peptides, organic acids) have been reported to exhibit antimicrobial properties (21, 22). Flavonoids are secondary polyphenolic metabolites occurring commonly in many plants and fungi. Their effectiveness to treat tuberculosis was documented six decades back with the intravenous use of rutin to relieve pulmonary tuberculosis. According to the reported data, flavonoids and other phenolic compounds can disrupt specific mycobacterial mechanisms that are essential for the pathogen's survival (23). For instance, some of them impede mycolic acid synthesis, which aids in the formation of a highly impenetrable bacterial cell wall, limiting antibiotic effectiveness. Moreover, other flavonoids are reported to inhibit nucleic acid synthesis, energy metabolism, and reverse antibiotic resistance, which can improve the efficacy of currently available drugs (24).

Traditionally terrestrial microorganisms were explored as a source of biologically active natural products, however, natural products sourced from the marine environment are becoming increasingly important as a source of structurally novel and biologically active compounds. The oceans, with their unique aquatic environment and rich biodiversity, have proven to be a plentiful source of diverse natural products with significant antimicrobial, antiviral, antimalarial, antitumor, anti-inflammatory, and anti-oxidant activities [25, 26].

#### **2. Objectives**

2.1 Identification and characterization of PE/PPE proteins as potential drug targets in *Mycobacterium tuberculosis.*

2.2 Characterization of novel ligands derived from natural sources, plant based and marine organisms derived to be used as potential drug molecules.

2.3 Docking study of the target proteins with the selected ligands to identify potential drug molecules.

#### **3. Materials/Methods**

#### **3.1. Selection of PE/PPE Proteins:**

Through extensive literature search, selection of PPE proteins that play a vital role in virulence in *Mycobacterium tuberculosis H37RV* was done. It was found that PPE18, PPE25, PE-PGRS47 and PE35- PPE68 complex proteins are highly responsible for the virulence in the host organism. These proteins play crucial roles in the pathogenicity, immune evasion, and antigenic variation in bacteria (27, 28, 29).

#### **3.2. Sequence of selected proteins:**

To obtain the sequences of selected proteins i.e, PPE18, PPE25, PE-PGRS47 and PE35-PPE68, we used the **NCBI** (National Center for Biotechnology Information) database and derived the FASTA sequence of each protein.

#### **3.3. Prediction of Protein Structure:**

To obtain the structure of each selected protein, Protein Data Bank (PDB) database was used but respective X-ray crystallography structures were not available on PDB. So to predict the 3D structure we proceeded with online structure prediction tools such as Swiss-Modeller. **Swiss-Modeller** uses the principle of homology modeling where the query sequence is matched with a template sequence already present in the database and a model is built around that. We gave the FASTA format sequence of our PE and PPE proteins and a 3D structure was built by the software whose validation was done by studying the Ramachandran Plot of the given protein. A **Ramachandran plot** is a two-dimensional graphical representation that displays the allowed and disallowed regions of dihedral angles (**ϕ** and **ψ**) in a polypeptide backbone. It is a

valuable tool in structural biology for understanding protein folding, secondary structure, and overall conformation.

#### **3.4. Comparison of virulent and non-virulent strains**

We selected ten virulent and ten non-virulent Mycobacterium strains as shown in Table 2, to study and compare how the sequences of specific proteins (PPE18, PPE25, PE-PGRS47 and PE35-PPE68) are distributed across different strains. To analyze the sequence of these proteins in different virulent and nonvirulent strains, we used Uniprot and Clustal Omega for sequence comparison and alignment. Through comparison and alignment analysis, it was found out that PPE18 and PPE25 were showing greater degree of similarity with each of the virulent strains while their sequences were absent in non- virulent strains leading to the conclusion that these were the major proteins responsible for virulence in Mycobacterium. Other PE-PGRS47 and PE35-PPE68 proteins were excluded from the study as they were showing lesser degree of similarity in virulent and non-virulent strains of Mycobacterium.





#### **3.5. Active Site Prediction**

For screening of the selected proteins with several drug molecules, information about the active sites is an important parameter. The active sites of the models can be predicted by software like COACH and PROSITE. COACH generates complementary ligand binding site predictions using two comparative methods, TM-SITE and S-SITE, which recognize ligand-binding templates from the BioLiP protein function database by binding-specific substructure and sequence profile comparisons. Though we used blind docking for screening drug molecules, we still used COACH for active site prediction of our target proteins. We provided the FASTA sequence of the target protein and obtained the results from COACH in 24-48 hrs.

#### **3.6. Selection of ligands**

In order to select a competent ligand different secondary metabolites like flavonoids, alkaloids, plant derived molecules and marine compounds were studied. Through an extensive literature research a compounds library was created of the compounds which showed antagonistic effects on various strains of Mycobacterium. The structure of these compounds was found on Pubchem. For a ligand to be a suitable drug Lipinski's rule of 5 is the criteria which indicates 5 properties to be in a molecule to be a drug. For a compound to be a drug, it should have some basic properties. It should not have more than 5 H bond donors, it should not have more than 10 H bond acceptors, its molecular mass should be less than 500 Dalton, partition coefficient should not be greater than 5. This is called the Lipinski Rule of 5. This set of rules was studied using a software called Swiss ADME which is a free software and uses the SMILES formula to study a compound. Ligands not following Lipinski's rule were removed from the list. The structures of selected ligands were downloaded from PubChem and saved in .sdf format (Spatial Data File format). For drugs to work on Autodock .pdb format is required. The .sdf format was converted to .pdb format using software Open Babel. It is desirable to download the 3D conformers of the ligands from PubChem.

#### **3.7. Screening of Ligand Molecules**

For screening of ligand molecules Autodock4.2 was used as the docking tool. The receptor molecules (selected proteins) were read by autodock and were converted to **.pdbqt** file format by first removing water molecules. As our models were created by software so there was no water of crystallization but we did it as an exercise, then by adding polar hydrogens, then adding Kohlman Charges and finally assigning molecules AD-4 type. Same steps were taken to save ligands in .**pdbqt** format. While selecting the ligand,

the detect root function was done and then it was again saved in **.pdbqt** file format. The autogrid function was first run where the grid box was made around the whole protein for blind docking or a grid box was created around the specific amino acids in the active site making sure that it was at the center of the grid box. The grid box was first saved as a text file and then saved as .**gpf** file and then the autogrid.exe was run which generated the **.glg** file. After successful completion of the autogrid function then the autodock function was executed. The macromolecule and the ligand were selected for the autodock. The Genetic Algorithm was selected for performing the autodock which uses the Darwinian method of natural selection and a total of ten runs were performed. The file was saved as a **.dpf** file and the autodock command was executed and the .dlg file was generated. This **.dlg** file was analyzed and the binding energies were calculated to find the best ligand for a receptor.

#### **4. Results**

## **4.1 Sequence of proteins (in FASTA Format)**

### **4.1.1 PPE18 (** *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* **H37Rv)**

>CCP43952.1 PPE family protein PPE18 [Mycobacterium tuberculosis H37Rv] MVDFGALPPEINSARMYAGPGSASLVAAAQMWDSVASDLFSAASAFQSVVWGLTVGSWIGSSAGLMVA AASPYVAWMSVTAGQAELTAAQVRVAAAAYETAYGLTVPPPVIAENRAELMILIATNLLGQNTPAIAVNE AEYGEMWAQDAAAMGYAAATATATATLLPFEEAPEMTSAGGLLEQAAAVEEASDTAAANQLMNNVPQ ALQQLAQPTQGTTPSSKLGGLWKTVSPHRSPISNMVSMANNHMSMTNSGVSMTNTLSSMLKGFAPAAAA QAVQTAAQNGVRAMSSLGSSLGSSGLGGGVAANLGRAASVGSLSVPQAWAAANQAVTPAARALPLTSL TSAAERGPGQMLGGLPVGQMGARAGGGLSGVLRVPPRPYVMPHSPAAG

## **4.1.2 PPE25 (***Mycobacterium tuberculosis* **H37Rv)**

>CCP44553.1 PPE family protein PPE25 [Mycobacterium tuberculosis H37Rv]

MDFGALPPEINSGRMYCGPGSGPMLAAAAAWDGVAVELGLAATGYASVIAELTGAPWVGAASLSMVAA ATPYVAWLSQAAARAEQAGMQAAAAAAAYEAAFVMTVPPPVITANRVLVMTLIATNFFGQNSAAIAVA EAQYAEMWAQDAVAMYGYAAASASASRLIPFAAPPKTTNSAGVVAQVAAVAAMPGLLQRLSSAASVS WSNPNDWWLVRLLGSITPTERTTIVRLLGQSYFATGMAQFFASIAQQLTFGPGGTTAGSGGAWYPTPQFA GLGASRAVSASLARANKIGALSVPPSWVKTTALTESPVAHAVSANPTVGSSHGPHGLLRGLPLGSRITRRS GAFAHRYGFRHSVVARPPSAG

## **4.1.3 PPE68 (***Mycobacterium tuberculosis* **H37Rv)**

>YP\_178022.1 PPE family protein PPE68 [Mycobacterium tuberculosis H37Rv] MLWHAMPPELNTARLMAGAGPAPMLAAAAGWQTLSAALDAQAVELTARLNSLGEAWTGGGSDKALA AATPMVVWLQTASTQAKTRAMQATAQAAAYTQAMATTPSLPEIAANHITQAVLTATNFFGINTIPIALTE MDYFIRMWNQAALAMEVYQAETAVNTLFEKLEPMASILDPGASQSTTNPIFGMPSPGSSTPVGQLPPAAT QTLGQLGEMSGPMQQLTQPLQQVTSLFSQVGGTGGGNPADEEAAQMGLLGTSPLSNHPLAGGSGPSAGA GLLRAESLPGAGGSLTRTPLMSQLIEKPVAPSVMPAAAAGSSATGGAAPVGAGAMGQGAQSGGSTRPGL VAPAPLAQEREEDDEDDWDEEDDW

## **4.1.4 PE-PGRS47 (***Mycobacterium tuberculosis* **H37Rv)**

>CCP45540.1 PE-PGRS family protein PE\_PGRS47 [Mycobacterium tuberculosis H37Rv] MSFVIAAPEFLTAAAMDLASIGSTVSAASAAASAPTVAILAAGADEVSIAVAALFGMHGQAYQALSVQAS AFHQQFVQALTAGAYSYASAEAAAVTPLQQLVDVINAPFRSALGRPLIGNGANGKPGTGQDGGAGGLLY GSGGNGGSGLAGSGQKGGNGGAAGLFGNGGAGGAGASNQAGNGGAGGNGGAGGLIWGTAGTGGNGG FTTFLDAAGGAGGAGGAGGLFGAGGAGGVGGAALGGGAQAAGGNGGAGGVGGLFGAGGAGGAGGFS DTGGTGGAGGAGGLFGPGGGSGGVGGFGDTGGTGGDGGSGGLFGVGGAGGHGGFGSAAGGDGGAGGA GGTVFGSGGAGGAGGVATVAGHGGHGGNAGLLYGTGGAGGAGGFGGFGGDGGDGGIGGLVGSGGAG GSGGTGTLSGGRGGAGGNAGTFYGSGGAGGAGGESDNGDGGNGGVGGKAGLVGEGGNGGDGGATIAG KGGSGGNGGNAWLTGQGGNGGNAAFGKAGTGSVGVGGAGGLLEGQNGENGLLPS

## **4.2 Protein Model**

## **4.2.1 Building the Model**

The models for the proteins were built by using Swiss-Model as shown in the figure 5.





**A) PPE18 B) PPE68** 





**Figure-5: Proteins models obtained from Swiss-Modeller**

### **4.2.2 Validation of models**

The validation of PPE18, PPE25, PE-PGRS47 and PPE68 protein model described above was done using Ramachandran plot with the allowed and not allowed amino acids to have been plotted.





**Figure-6: Ramachandran Plots for the modeled protein structures. The Ramachandran plot is the 2d plot of the φ-ψ torsion angles of the protein backbone. It provides a simple view of the conformation of a protein. The φ-ψ angles cluster into distinct regions in the Ramachandran plot where each region corresponds to a particular secondary structure.**

The Ramachandran plot of PPE18 protein showed that almost 90% of the amino acid residues are situated in the favored areas and in PPE25 protein almost 85% amino acid residues are present in the allowed regions. In PPE68 many amino acids were falling in the not allowed region and in PE-PGRS47 which is a complex protein containing two different chains was difficult to dock. After the protein modeling and studying the Ramachandran plot two proteins PPE18 and PPE25 were selected for further docking studies. So, the docking exercise was done on two selected protein models with a list of ligands shown in section 4.4.

## **4.2.3 CLUSTAL OMEGA analysis of PPE proteins in virulent and non-virulent proteins**

## **4.2.3.1 PPE 18**





#### **4.2.2 PE-PGRS47**

**1.Mycobacterium Tuberculosis variant Africanum: KBF91755.1**

**2.Mycobacterium Canetti : CCC45099.1** 

**3.Mycobacterium Tuberculosis H37Rv : AOE37152.1**

**4.Mycobacterium Tuberculosis variant Microti : AMC60453.1**

**5. Mycobacterium tuberculosis variant Bovis : QCU70083.1**





## **4.2.3 PPE25**

CLUSTAL 0(1.2.4) multiple sequence alignment





#### **4.3 Ligand Library**

The table 2 below shows the ligands that were selected through literature review. These ligands are obtained from natural sources primarily derived from marine organisms and plant sources. Natural products play a pivotal role in contemporary drug development, particularly as antibacterial. Plant derived alkaloids and flavonoids have emerged as crucial sources of novel pharmacologically active compounds, directly or indirectly contributing to the development of numerous drugs. Similarly, the marine compounds, obtained from the marine environment that has vast species diversity, exhibit structural diversity at the level of secondary metabolites. It has been reported that marine natural products demonstrate a higher incidence of significant bioactivity and structural novelty when compared to their terrestrial counterparts. This emphasis on marine organisms as a source of novel compounds underscores the potential for discovering unique and biologically active molecules in the quest for new therapeutic agents.

<b>S.No.</b>	Name of the ligand	Molecular weight (g/mol)	Lipinski Rule
$\mathbf{1}$	Echinulin	461.6	$HBD=3$ $HBA = 2$ $LogP = 4.6$
$\overline{2}$	Dehydroechinulin	459.6	$HBA = 2$ $HBD=3$ $LogP = 4.61$
3	Cristatumin A	339.4	$HBA = 3$ $HBD=4$ $LogP = 2.16$

Table 2 List of ligands with molecular weight, structure and adherence to Lipinski rule





















#### **4.4 Docking Results**

In this study, blind docking of several ligands was carried out and after successful docking. We obtained 10 best docked conformations in each docking and then two best conformers based on the minimum binding energy were selected for analysis of the kind of interactions shown between the residues of receptor protein and ligands (Table 3). The results showed significant binding of ligands with target proteins. These interactions were visualized using protein ligand interaction profiler. Protein ligand interactions in general is stabilized by different types of weak interactions but usually we consider hydrogen interactions as the most important interaction. After obtaining results from profiler, it was found that the ligands showed energetically favorable hydrogen and hydrophobic interactions with the amino acid residues present within the protein and not on the surface (Table 4). The best conformers were analyzed using Discovery Studio Visualizer.

S.No.	<b>Receptor</b>	Ligand	<b>Run Number</b>	<b>Binding Energy</b> (Kcal/mol)
	<b>PPE 25</b>	Echinulin	9	$-5.52$ $-5.47$

Table 3 showing the two best conformers in each docking with the binding energy









Table 4 shows the interacting residues of different ligands with the receptor proteins PPE18and PPE25















![](_page_54_Picture_175.jpeg)

![](_page_55_Picture_125.jpeg)

#### **5. Discussion**

PPE18 and PPE25 are proteins from the PPE (Proline-Proline-Glutamate) family in Mycobacterium tuberculosis H37Rv, which are considered important due to their roles in host-pathogen interactions, immune modulation, and potential involvement in bacterial virulence. Their unique properties make them intriguing candidates for drug targeting. Both PPE18 and PPE25 have been identified as virulence factors. They can modulate host immune responses, potentially helping the pathogen persist within the host. PPE18 has been linked to inhibiting host immune mechanisms, making it a key player in immune evasion. PPE18 and PPE25 **are both surface-exposed proteins** and are secreted, making them accessible targets for drug molecules. Targeting such proteins could weaken the pathogen's ability to persist and evade the immune response. Interestingly, it was observed that the expression patterns and functional roles of PPE 18 and PPE 25 showed variation between virulent and non-virulent strains of Mycobacterium species. In pathogenic strains of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* such as H37Rv, the expression levels of PPE18 and PPE25 have been reported to be higher compared to non-virulent or attenuated strains like H37Ra. On comparing the gene sequence of these two proteins from different virulent and non-virulent strains it was observed that there are variations in the sequence of both these proteins. These variations include mutations, deletions, or duplications in the PPE gene loci, which can alter their expression and function. This observation has a functional implication and explains the role of PPE18 and PPE25 in modulating host immune responses, which is critical for virulence. In virulent strains, they contribute to immune evasion by interacting with host immune receptors, inhibiting antigen presentation, or altering cytokine responses. But in non-virulent strains these proteins are either absent completely or are attenuated leading to reduced capacity of these strains to inhibit host immune responses and exhibit less effective intracellular survival in host cells. Due to their differential expression in virulent versus non-virulent strains, PPE18 and PPE25 can also serve as potential biomarkers for distinguishing pathogenic Mycobacterium strains. This study highlights the therapeutic potential of natural compounds, especially those derived from marine sources, as novel inhibitors of PE/PPE family proteins in M.tb. By targeting PPE18 and PPE25, these natural ligands may disrupt M.tb's immune evasion mechanisms and reduce its pathogenicity. However, to confirm these findings and determine the mechanisms by which these compounds exert their inhibitory effects need to be validated experimentally through in vitro and in vivo studies.

#### **6. References**

[1] Kaufmann SH, Schaible UE. 100th anniversary of Robert Koch's Nobel Prize for the discovery of the tubercle bacillus. Trends Microbiol. 2005 Oct;13(10):469-75. doi: 10.1016/j.tim.2005.08.003. PMID: 16112578.

[2] Holmes KK, Bertozzi S, Bloom BR, Jha P, Gelband H, DeMaria LM, Horton S. Major Infectious Diseases: Key Messages from *Disease Control Priorities*, Third Edition. In: Holmes KK, Bertozzi S, Bloom BR, Jha P, editors. Major Infectious Diseases. 3rd ed. Washington (DC): The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development / The World Bank; 2017 Nov 3. Chapter 1. PMID: 30212102.

[3] Bagcchi S. WHO's Global Tuberculosis Report 2022. Lancet Microbe. 2023 Jan;4(1):e20. doi: 10.1016/S2666-5247(22)00359-7. Epub 2022 Dec 12. PMID: 36521512.

[4]. Chandra P, Grigsby SJ, Philips JA. Immune evasion and provocation by Mycobacterium tuberculosis. Nat Rev Microbiol. 2022 Dec;20(12):750-766. doi: 10.1038/s41579-022-00763-4. Epub 2022 Jul 25. PMID: 35879556; PMCID: PMC9310001.

[5]. Chandra P, Grigsby SJ, Philips JA. Immune evasion and provocation by Mycobacterium tuberculosis. Nat Rev Microbiol. 2022 Dec;20(12):750-766. doi: 10.1038/s41579-022-00763-4. Epub 2022 Jul 25. PMID: 35879556; PMCID: PMC9310001.

[6]. Cadena AM, Fortune SM, Flynn JL. Heterogeneity in tuberculosis. Nat Rev Immunol. 2017 Nov;17(11):691-702. doi: 10.1038/nri.2017.69. Epub 2017 Jul 24. PMID: 28736436; PMCID: PMC6247113.

[7]. Yang J, Zhang L, Qiao W, Luo Y. *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*: Pathogenesis and therapeutic targets. MedComm (2020). 2023 Sep 4;4(5):e353. doi: 10.1002/mco2.353. PMID: 37674971; PMCID: PMC10477518.

[8]. Toth A, Fackelmann J, Pigott W, Tolomeo O. Tuberculosis prevention and treatment. Can Nurse. 2004 Nov;100(9):27-30. PMID: 15623010.

[9]. Maiolini M, Gause S, Taylor J, Steakin T, Shipp G, Lamichhane P, Deshmukh B, Shinde V, Bishayee A, Deshmukh RR. The War against Tuberculosis: A Review of Natural Compounds and Their Derivatives. Molecules. 2020 Jun 30;25(13):3011. doi: 10.3390/molecules25133011. PMID: 32630150; PMCID: PMC7412169.

[10]. Hamada Y, Getahun H, Tadesse BT, Ford N. HIV-associated tuberculosis. Int J STD AIDS. 2021 Aug;32(9):780-790. doi: 10.1177/0956462421992257. Epub 2021 Feb 20. PMID: 33612015; PMCID: PMC8236666.

[11].TB/COVID-19 Global Study Group. Tuberculosis and COVID-19 co-infection: description of the global cohort. Eur Respir J. 2022 Mar 24;59(3):2102538. doi:

[12]. Cole ST, Brosch R, Parkhill J, Garnier T, Churcher C, Harris D, Gordon SV, Eiglmeier K, Gas S, Barry CE 3rd, Tekaia F, Badcock K, Basham D, Brown D, Chillingworth T, Connor R, Davies R, Devlin K, Feltwell T, Gentles S, Hamlin N, Holroyd S, Hornsby T, Jagels K, Krogh A, McLean J, Moule S, Murphy L, Oliver K, Osborne J, Quail MA, Rajandream MA, Rogers J, Rutter S, Seeger K, Skelton J, Squares R, Squares S, Sulston JE, Taylor K, Whitehead S, Barrell BG. Deciphering the biology of Mycobacterium tuberculosis from the complete genome sequence. Nature. 1998 Jun 11;393(6685):537-44. doi: 10.1038/31159. Erratum in: Nature 1998 Nov 12;396(6707):190. PMID: 9634230.

[13]. Moran NA. Microbial minimalism: genome reduction in bacterial pathogens. Cell. 2002 Mar 8;108(5):583-6. doi: 10.1016/s0092-8674(02)00665-7. PMID: 11893328.

[14]. Murray GGR, Charlesworth J, Miller EL, Casey MJ, Lloyd CT, Gottschalk M, Tucker AWD, Welch JJ, Weinert LA. Genome Reduction Is Associated with Bacterial Pathogenicity across Different Scales of Temporal and Ecological Divergence. Mol Biol Evol. 2021 Apr 13;38(4):1570-1579. doi: 10.1093/molbev/msaa323. PMID: 33313861; PMCID: PMC8042751.

[15]. Fishbein S, van Wyk N, Warren RM, Sampson SL. Phylogeny to function: PE/PPE protein evolution and impact on Mycobacterium tuberculosis pathogenicity. Mol Microbiol. 2015 Jun;96(5):901-16. doi: 10.1111/mmi.12981. Epub 2015 Mar 30. PMID: 25727695.

[16]. Gey van Pittius NC, Sampson SL, Lee H, Kim Y, van Helden PD, Warren RM. Evolution and expansion of the Mycobacterium tuberculosis PE and PPE multigene families and their association with the duplication of the ESAT-6 (esx) gene cluster regions. BMC Evol Biol. 2006 Nov 15;6:95. doi: 10.1186/1471-2148-6-95. PMID: 17105670; PMCID: PMC1660551.

[17 ]Medha, Sharma S, Sharma M. Proline-Glutamate/Proline-Proline-Glutamate (PE/PPE) proteins of Mycobacterium tuberculosis: The multifaceted immune-modulators. Acta Trop. 2021 Oct;222:106035. doi: 10.1016/j.actatropica.2021.106035. Epub 2021 Jul 3. PMID: 34224720.

[18]. Guo F, Wei J, Song Y, Li B, Qian Z, Wang X,Wang H and Xu T (2023) Immunological effects of the PE/PPE family proteins ofMycobacterium tuberculosis and related vaccines.Front. Immunol. 14:1255920.doi: 10.3389/fimmu.2023.1255920

[19]. Abdallah AM, Verboom T, Weerdenburg EM, Gey van Pittius NC, Mahasha PW, Jiménez C, Parra M, Cadieux N, Brennan MJ, Appelmelk BJ, Bitter W. PPE and PE\_PGRS proteins of Mycobacterium marinum are transported via the type VII secretion system ESX-5. Mol Microbiol. 2009 Aug;73(3):329-40. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2958.2009.06783.x. Epub 2009 Jul 7. PMID: 19602152.

[20]. Liu CH, Liu H, Ge B. Innate immunity in tuberculosis: host defense vs pathogen evasion. Cell Mol Immunol. 2017 Dec;14(12):963-975. doi: 10.1038/cmi.2017.88. Epub 2017 Sep 11. PMID: 28890547; PMCID: PMC5719146.

[21] Özçelik, B.; Kartal, M.; Orhan, I. Cytotoxicity, antiviral and antimicrobial activities of alkaloids, flavonoids, and phenolic acids. Pharm. Biol. 2011,49, 396–402.

[22) Liu S , Han W, Sun Cet al. . Subtractive screening with the Mycobacterium tuberculosis surface protein phage display library. Tuberculosis 2011; 91:579–86.

[23]. Rabaan, A.A.; Alhumaid, S.; Albayat, H.; Alsaeed, M.; Alofi, F.S.; Al-Howaidi, M.H.; Turkistani, S.A.; Alhajri, S.M.; Alahmed, H.E.; Alzahrani, A.B.; et al. Promising Antimycobacterial Activities of Flavonoids against Mycobacterium Sp. Drug Targets: A Comprehensive Review. Molecules 2022, 27, 5335. https://doi.org/10.3390/ molecules 27165335

[24]. Gygli, S.M.; Borrell, S.; Trauner, A.; Gagneux, S. Antimicrobial resistance in Mycobacterium tuberculosis: Mechanistic and evolutionary perspectives. FEMS Microbiol. Rev. 2017, 41, 354–373 10. X.M. Wei et al. Neopetrosiamine A, biologically active bis-piperidine alkaloid from the Caribbean Sea sponge Neopetrosia proxima, Bioorg. Med. Chem. Lett (2010)

[25]. E. Fahy et al. Haliclonadiamine, an antimicrobial alkaloid from the sponge Haliclona sp Tetrahedron Lett. (1988)

[26]. R.R. Yadav et al. Antimalarial and antitubercular activities of meridianin derivatives Eur. J. Med. Chem. (2015)

[27]. C. D'Souza, U. Kishore, and A. G. Tsolaki, "The PE-PPE Family of Mycobacterium tuberculosis: Proteins in Disguise," 2023. [Online]. Available:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.imbio.2022.152321>

[28]. Riley R, Pellegrini M, Eisenberg D. Identifying cognate binding pairs among a large set of paralogs: the case of PE/PPE proteins of Mycobacterium tuberculosis. PLoS Comput Biol. 2008 Sep 12;4(9):e1000174. doi: 10.1371/journal.pcbi.1000174. PMID: 18787688; PMCID: PMC2519833.

[29]. He Z, Wang C, Guo X, Sun H, Bi Y, Pitt ME, Li C, Song J, Coin LJM, Li F. MERITS: a web-based integrated *Mycobacterial* PE/PPE protein database. Bioinform Adv. 2024 Mar 2;4(1) :vbae 035. doi: 10.1093/bioadv/vbae035. PMID: 38549946; PMCID: PMC10973932.

![](_page_59_Picture_7.jpeg)