



CABRINI UNIVERSITY

**These students' works were presented
at the 2019 Arts, Research
and Scholarship Symposiums**



TABLE OF CONTENTS

CONTENTS

SCHOOL OF NATURAL SCIENCES AND ALLIED HEALTH

05

USE OF A MODIFIED TUBE
DILUTION METHOD TO
DETERMINE BACTERIAL
SUSCEPTIBILITY TO
ANTIMICROBIAL PROTEINS
FROM EISENIA HORTENSIS

SCHOOL OF BUSINESS, ARTS, AND MEDIA

18

NEXT
MAGAZINE

21

CHOCOLATTE
PACKAGE
DESIGN

22

PIPELINE
MAGAZINE

24

POSITIVE SCENTS
PACKAGE
DESIGN

26

STADIUMS
OF THE NFL
BOOK

30

RUSH
MAGAZINE

EDITOR

- Sheryl Fuller-Espie, PhD, DIC Department of Science

REVIEWERS

- Joyce Belcher, PhD Department of Science
- Donald Dempsey Department of Graphic Design and Fine Arts
- Nicholas Jacques Department of Graphic Design and Fine Arts
- Vinayak Mathur, PhD Department of Science



SCHOOL OF NATURAL SCIENCES AND ALLIED HEALTH

Use of a modified tube dilution method to determine bacterial susceptibility to antimicrobial proteins from *Eisenia hortensis*

Anna Bauer*, Alyssa Rothman, Sophia Scarpone & Sheryl Fuller-Espie

Research Mentor: Dr. Sheryl Fuller-Espie

*Primary author of this work

Science Department, Cabrini University, 610 King of Prussia Rd, Radnor, PA 19087-3698

Abstract

The objective of this investigation was to determine if a protein extract purified from the earthworm *Eisenia hortensis* is inhibitory to the growth of selected Gram positive bacteria using a broth-based method, and if so, at what concentration. Protein extracts were prepared using 85% ammonium sulfate precipitation, dialysis, filtration and concentration techniques. Previous results in the lab using a disk diffusion method revealed zones of inhibition for two bacteria, *Micrococcus luteus* and *Bacillus megaterium*, using disks impregnated with 500 or 2,000 μ g and placed on agar plates streaked with each of the bacteria. A tube dilution method was modified to determine the concentration of extract required to inhibit growth in liquid culture. Overnight tryptic soy broth cultures of bacteria were diluted to OD₆₀₀ ~0.1 and incubated with three concentrations of extract (high, medium, and low) for 16-24 hours. In two separate trials conducted in duplicate, the number of colony forming units (CFUs)/ml for treated and untreated control samples was determined by preparing ten-fold serial dilutions made in 0.85% saline and plating on tryptic soy agar in the absence of protein extract to permit recovery of bacteria. Statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) decreases in CFUs/ml were observed for *M. luteus* treated with 0.82 (high) and 0.082 (medium) mg/ml, but not with 0.0082 (low) mg/ml compared to untreated controls. Results show that *B. megaterium* exhibited less sensitivity to the extract than *M. luteus*, with significant inhibition observed at 2.5 but not 0.25 or 0.025 mg/ml. Future studies will focus on the concentration of protein extract required to inhibit the growth of *M. roseus*.

Introduction

Antibiotics have helped reduced the risk of bacterial infections for decades, but bacteria are becoming increasingly more resistant to antibiotics and more challenging to control during infection. In recent years, antibiotics used in agriculture to increase livestock growth rate have caused concern for resistant bacteria that could affect human health (Cheng et al., 2014). To combat this problem, there are alternative microbial agents that can be used. Bacteriophages and antimicrobial peptides (AMPs) are alternatives that can help combat multidrug resistance in harmful bacteria. A recent review by Lin, Koskella, and Lin (2017) emphasizes the importance of pursuing phage therapy as an alternative to microbial drug regimens to combat clinically significant multi-drug resistant pathogens. Antimicrobial peptides have the capacity to destroy the integrity of the cell wall and cell membrane of both Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria making them attractive candidates for therapeutic use. AMPs were shown to be effective in humans in *in vitro* studies. Alternative antimicrobial agents can come from invertebrates, such as earthworms.

In common with other invertebrates, earthworms do not possess adaptive immunity providing the ability to produce antibodies and must compensate with other innate immune defenses. Earthworms, an oligochaete annelid, have been used for both traditional medicine for centuries in the Far East, and medical research in recent years to more fully understand the therapeutic effect of active factors (Bilej, De Baetselier, & Beschin, 2000). Earthworms, including *Eisenia hortensis* (also known as the European nightcrawler - the model organism used in this study), have multiple layers of defense mechanisms for protection against the myriad of pathogens encountered in their natural habitat. The skin has a cuticle layer with antimicrobial mucopolysaccharides and has mucus that also acts as an antibacterial barrier (Bilej et al., 2000). Internally, the coelomic fluid and coelomocytes residing in the coelomic cavity provide multiple defense mechanisms. A number of humoral products have been identified in *Eisenia fetida*, a closely related species of *E. hortensis*, including lysozyme, hemolysins, antimicrobial peptides, lysenin, fetidin, eiseniapore, and Lumbricin I (reviewed in Bilej et al., 2010). Coelomic cytolytic factor 1 (CCF-1) has also been isolated from *E. fetida* which binds to O-antigen of lipopolysaccharide, α -1,3, glucan of zymosan, and muramic acid and muramyl dipeptide of peptidoglycan, activating the prophenoloxidase cascade (Beschlin et al., 1998). Earthworm coelomocytes make up three distinct subpopulations derived from a common progenitor (prohemocyte) including hyaline amoebocytes (large coelomocytes), granular amoebocytes (small coelomocytes), and chloragocytes (eleocytes) (Hartenstein, 2006). The hyaline amoebocytes are phagocytic, the granular amoebocytes exhibit natural killer-like activity, and the chloragocytes contain chloragosomes that enable secretion of lytic substances (Cossarizza et al., 1995; Fuller-Espie et al., 2010).

There are other invertebrates that have been used in antimicrobial research. Two species of horseshoe crab have a cationic protein, known as tachyplesin, that has antimicrobial effects on Gram-negative and Gram-positive bacteria (Tincu & Taylor, 2004). The crustacean *Penaeus vannamei*, a shrimp species, has an antimicrobial peptide known as penaeidin that is effective against Gram-positive bacteria (Tincu & Taylor, 2004). Antimicrobial peptides have also been identified in the fruit fly *Drosophila* (Dimarcq, Bulet, Hetru, & Hoffmann, 1998). The use of therapeutic alternatives to traditional antibiotics are attractive candidate drugs from invertebrate species thanks to these previous studies.

The research described in this paper focuses on the antimicrobial properties of protein extracts purified from the earthworm species *E. hortensis*. These investigations have not been previously described in the literature for this particular organism. A crude protein extract was tested at various concentrations to examine inhibitory effects on growth of selected bacteria. It was hypothesized that *M. luteus* and *B. megaterium* will show growth inhibition to the protein extract using a modified

tube-dilution broth method, and that the concentration of extract required to inhibit growth could be ascertained through serial dilution techniques.

Methods

Preparation of TSB, TSA, PBS, and glass tubes

500 mL of tryptic soy broth (TSB) was prepared and 50 mL was aliquotted into ten 100 mL flasks. 2.5 L of 0.85% NaCl was prepared and aliquotted into five 1 L flasks each filled with 500 mL of PBS. Tryptic soy agar (TSA) plates were prepared according to manufacturer's directions. All solutions were sterilized by autoclaving.

A large quantity of glass test tubes was sterilized by autoclaving prior to the start of the experiments. Once autoclaved, 9 mL of the sterile NaCl solution was pipetted into each tube, sealed tightly, and placed into a test tube holder for serial dilutions (saline blanks).

Preparation of earthworm protein extract

Figure 1 depicts the method used to prepare the protein extract from the earthworm *E. hortensis* (Rothman, 2018). Briefly, after precipitation with 85% ammonium sulfate, dialysis, and filtration, the final concentration was determined to be 247.4 mg/mL by Nanodrop. Confirmation of protein heterogeneity and integrity is shown in **Figure 2** where an SDS polyacrylamide gel was employed to separate proteins according to mass and charge (Rothman, 2018).

Treatment of *M. luteus* and *B. megaterium* with earthworm protein extract

An overnight culture was prepared by inoculating 20 mL of TSB with isolated colonies obtained from a TSA Petri dish culture. After incubation at 30°C with aeration, the culture was diluted with TSB to OD₆₀₀ ~ 0.1. Duplicate tubes containing diluted bacteria included the negative control (no earthworm extract), and high, medium, and low concentrations of earthworm extract as specified using ten-fold serial dilutions. The initial goal was to use the earthworm extract at a range of concentrations using 1 mg/mL as the upper limit. After factoring in dilutions in growth media, however, the working concentrations used were less than originally planned for *M. luteus*; 0.82, 0.082, and 0.0082 mg/mL were actually used. *B. megaterium* exhibited less sensitivity to the earthworm extract than *M. luteus* necessitating a three-fold increase in the amount of extract used, i.e. 2.5, 0.25, and 0.025 mg/mL were used. After overnight incubation with aeration, ten-fold serial dilutions of 10⁻¹ – 10⁻⁶ were made in 9 mL saline blanks before plating 0.1 mL of the 10⁻⁴ – 10⁻⁶ dilutions onto TSA Petri dishes. Following

overnight incubation, colony forming units (CFU's) were counted and subjected to statistical analyses.

Figure 3 summarizes the protocol setup and dilution schemes.

Results

Growth inhibition of *M. luteus* with earthworm extract

The two trials for *M. luteus* showed that the earthworm extract inhibited the growth of the bacteria. **Figure 4** shows two separate trials conducted with *M. luteus* at 10⁻⁴ dilution, with trial 1 on the left, and trial 2 on the right. The plates are arranged with the negative control (no extract) in row 1, high concentration (0.82 mg/mL) in row 2, medium concentration (0.082 mg/mL) in row 3, and low concentration (0.0082 mg/mL) in row 4. The graphs underneath each trial show the respective statistical analyses. For both trials, the high and medium concentrations showed statistical significance (* p < 0.05). These concentrations of extract had few to no colonies, while the low concentration showed growth of the bacteria at levels similar to the untreated control.

Growth inhibition of *B. megaterium* with earthworm extract

B. megaterium also showed inhibition of growth. **Figure 5** shows the two trials done, with trial 1 using the 10⁻⁴ dilution, and trial 2 using the 10⁻⁵ dilution. The plates are arranged with the negative control (no extract) in row 1, high concentration (2.5 mg/mL) in row 2, medium concentration (0.25 mg/mL) in row 3, and low concentration (0.025 mg/mL) in row 4. The two trials for *B. megaterium* also have their respective graphs below the plates. The graphs show the statistical analysis done for both trials, and showed statistical significance (* p < 0.05, ** p < 0.005) for the high concentrations in both trials. *B. megaterium* showed less sensitivity to the inhibitory properties of the earthworm extract compared to *M. luteus*. These results corroborated with previous results in the lab with the extract (Rothman, 2018), where a higher concentration of earthworm extract was employed when using *B. megaterium*. The extract needed to be 3X more concentrated to exert negative effects on growth than what was required to inhibit *M. luteus*.

Discussion

Ideally these experiments would have benefited from another round of testing providing data for three replicate trials. Given the high degree of consistency and reproducibility of the data acquired in the duplicate trials reported in this study, it is believed that the results are an accurate demonstration of the antimicrobial effects of the earthworm extracts. Overall, *M. luteus* was more sensitive to the

earthworm extract than *B. megaterium*, since *B. megaterium* required 3X the amount of extract in order to show any inhibitory effects. It would be interesting to explore the basis for the difference in sensitivity between the two Gram-positive bacteria used in this study; this information would provide a better understanding of the mechanism of action of the antimicrobial component of the extract.

The crude extract was a heterogeneous mixture of proteins and showed antimicrobial activity, however, the specific component responsible for this effect is currently unknown. The isolation of this specific component should be explored in more detail. Several ways to accomplish this would include gel filtration, ion exchange, or hydrophobic interaction chromatography methods. These methods would help separate and purify the antimicrobial component in question. The next step would be to isolate the gene encoding the protein responsible for antimicrobial activity and then mass produce the protein. One way to do this would involve the use of reverse genetics where the amino acid sequence of part of the purified protein is first determined, then a synthetic degenerate nucleic acid probe based on codons would be generated, and finally the genome would be screened by hybridization of either a copy DNA (cDNA, based on messenger RNA sources) or genomic DNA (gDNA) library. It would be useful to expand the scope of the present study to include a more comprehensive panel of pathogenic bacteria to further elucidate the clinical usefulness of antimicrobial proteins isolated from *E. hortensis*.

Acknowledgements

We would like to thank the Pennsylvania Academy of Science for awarding a research grant to support Alyssa Rothman's research. We thank Cabrini University Science Department for providing the lab facilities and lab supplies. We thank Dr. Fuller-Espie as our research mentor.

References

- Beschin, A., Bilej, M., Hanssens, F., Raymakers, J., Van Dyck, E., Revets, H., Brys, L., Gomez, J., De Baetselier, P., & Timmermans, M. (1998). Identification and cloning of a glucan- and lipopolysaccharide-binding protein from *Eisenia fetida* earthworm involved in the activation of prophenoloxidase cascade. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*, 273, 24948–24954.
- Bilej, M., De Baetselier, P., & Beschin, A. (2000). Antimicrobial defense of earthworms. *Folia Microbiologica*, 45, 283. doi:10.1007/BF02817549

Bilej, M., Prochazkova, P., Silerova, M., & Joskova, R. (2010). Earthworm immunity. *Invertebrate Immunity*, 708, 66-79.

Cheng, G., Hao, H., Xie, S., Wang, X., Dai, M., Huang, L., & Yuan, Z. (2014). Antibiotic alternatives: the substitution of antibiotics in animal husbandry? *Frontiers in Microbiology*, 5, 217. doi:10.3389/fmicb.2014.00217

Cossarizza, A., Cooper, E., Quaglino, D., Salvioli, S., Kalachnikova, G., & Franceschi, C. (1995). Mitochondrial mass and membrane potential in coelomocytes from the earthworm *Eisenia foetida*: studies with fluorescent probes in single intact cells. *Biochemical and Biophysical Research Communications*, 214, 503-510.

Dimarcq, J., Bulet, P., Hetru, C., & Hoffmann, J. (1998). Cysteine-rich antimicrobial peptides in invertebrates. *Biopolymers*, 47, 465-477. doi:10.1002/(SICI)1097-0282(1998)47:6<465::AID-BIP5>3.0.CO;2-#

Fuller-Espie, S.L., Nacarelli, T., Blake, E., & Bearoff, F.M. (2010). The effect of oxidative stress on phagocytosis and apoptosis in the earthworm *Eisenia hortensis*. *Invertebrate Survival Journal*, 7, 89-106.

Hartenstein, V. (2006). Blood cells and blood cell development in the animal kingdom. *Annual Review of Cellular and Developmental Biology*, 22, 677-712.

Lin, D., Koskella, B., & Lin, H. (2017). Phage therapy: An alternative to antibiotics in the age of multi-drug resistance. *World Journal of Gastrointestinal Pharmacology and Therapeutics*, 8(3) 162-173. 10.4292/wjgpt.v8.i3.162.

Rothman, A. (2018) Characterization of the molecular basis of antimicrobial activity found in earthworm extracts. Master's Thesis, Cabrini University, December 2018.

Tincu, J. A., & Taylor, S. W. (2004). Antimicrobial peptides from marine invertebrates. *Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy*, 48 (10), 3645-3654; doi: 10.1128/AAC.48.10.3645-3654.2004

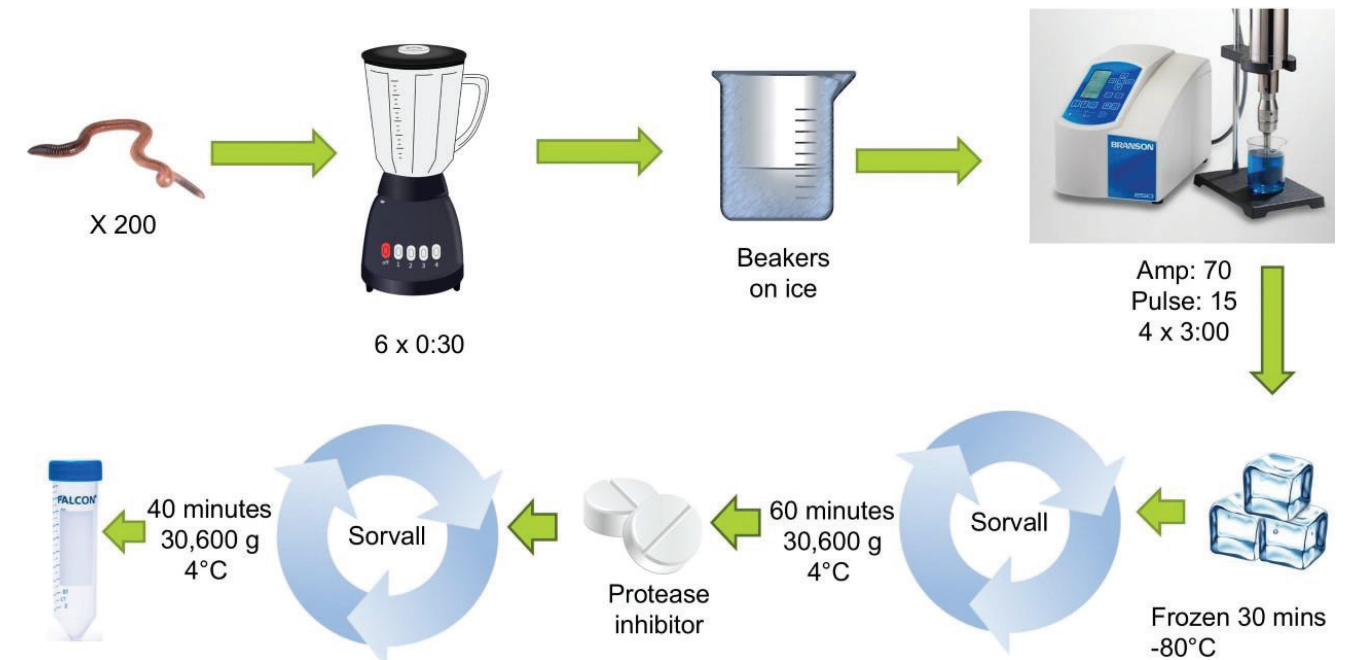


Figure 1: Preparation of the earthworm protein extract. Two hundred earthworms were liquefied in 6 pulses of 30 seconds at 4°C. The samples were sonicated and frozen to disrupt cellular membranes. The samples were centrifuged, then a protease inhibitor was added. Once the samples were centrifuged again, the samples' pellets were placed into PBS. Then ammonium sulfate was added (85%) to precipitate proteins. Following centrifugation and resuspension of pellet in PBS, dialysis was conducted followed by filtration. Nanodrop was performed to determine protein concentration (247.4 mg/ml) (Rothman, 2018).

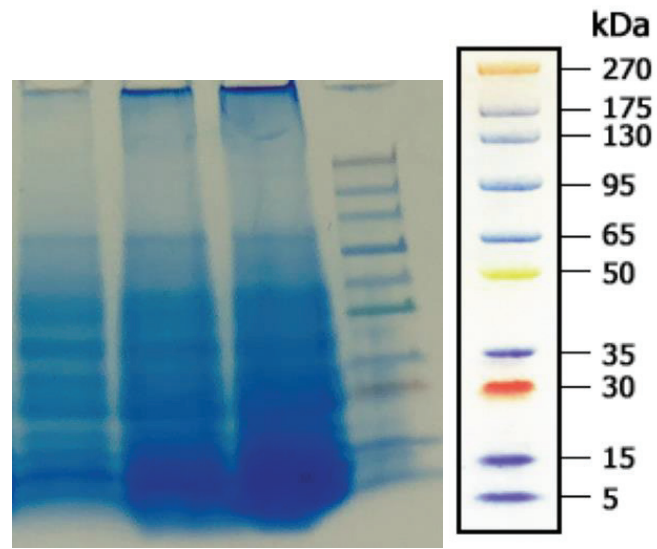


Figure 2: Sodium dodecylsulfate polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE). Earthworm protein extracts at three different amounts (0.309, 0.618, and 1.236 mg) were electrophoresed as shown in lanes 1-3 using a BIO-RAD Mini-PROTEAN TGX™ precast gel. Molecular weight standard is shown in lane 4 (Precision Plus Protein dual Xtra, prestained protein standard). The banding pattern reflects the heterogeneity of the protein sample (Rothman, 2018).

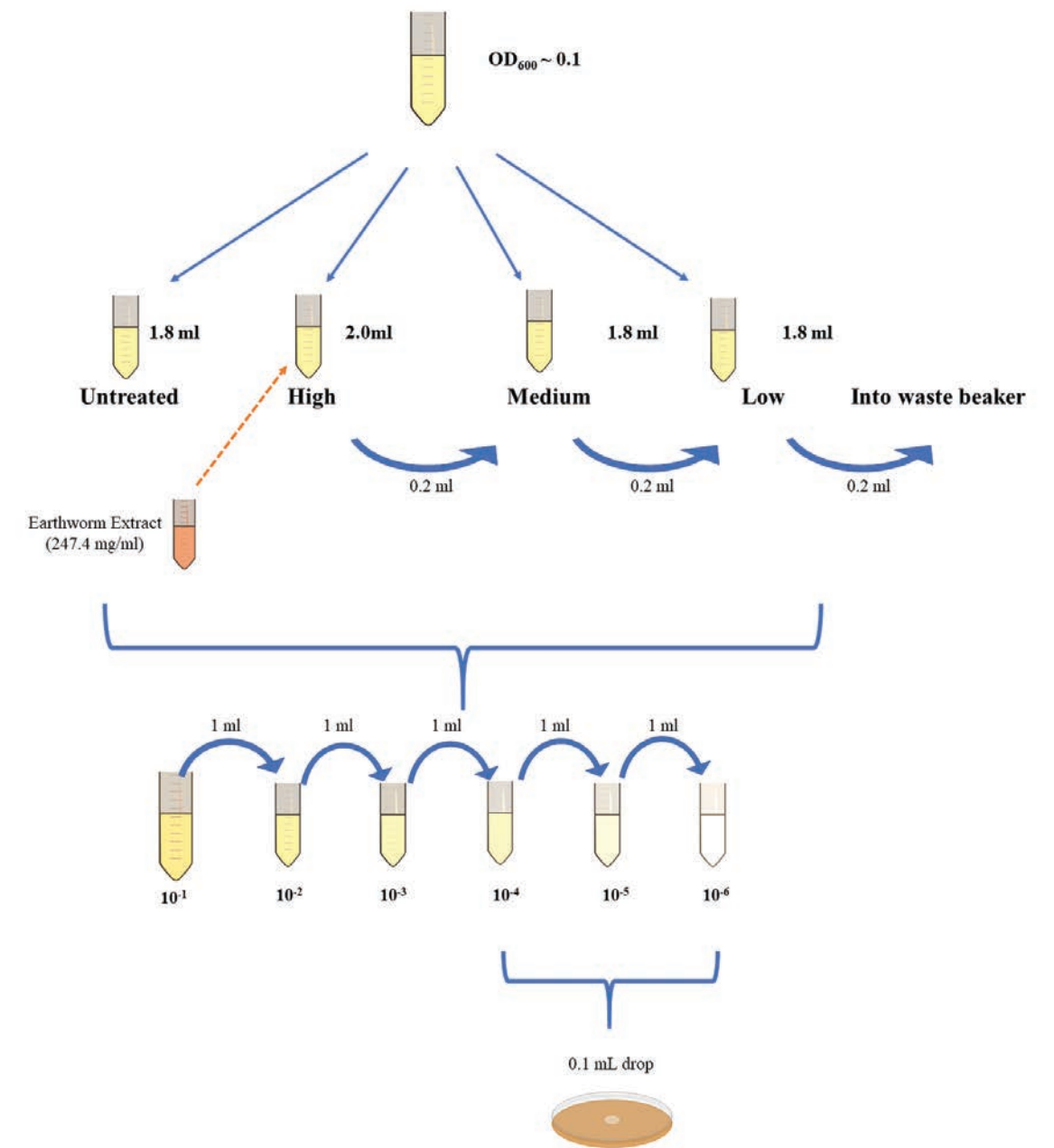


Figure 3: Testing antimicrobial activity of earthworm extracts using a modified tube dilution method. First an overnight culture of the bacteria was grown in TSB and subsequently diluted to achieve an $OD_{600} \sim 0.1$. Then the dilution was aliquoted in duplicate into tubes labeled untreated, high, medium, and low. The earthworm extract was added to the desired concentration in the high tube, and then medium and low were prepared by ten-fold serial dilutions. The samples were incubated overnight at 30°C before preparing ten-fold serial dilutions in saline blanks to create 10^{-1} to 10^{-6} dilutions. Aliquots of 0.1 ml of 10^{-4} – 10^{-6} were added to each TSA plate, spread thoroughly using sterile technique and inverted plates were incubated overnight. The CFUs were counted after 1 day (*B. megaterium*) or 2 days (*M. luteus*) of incubation.

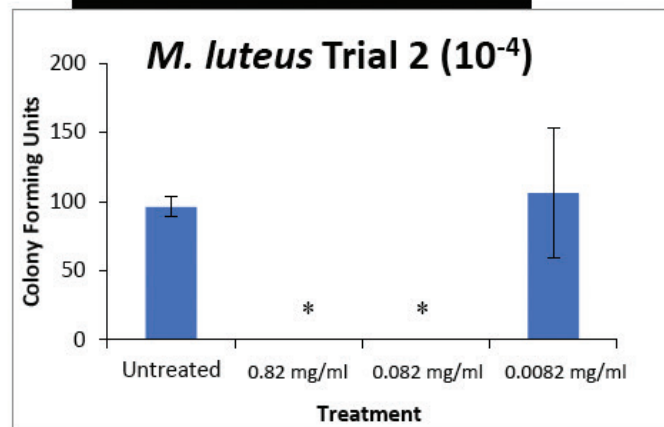
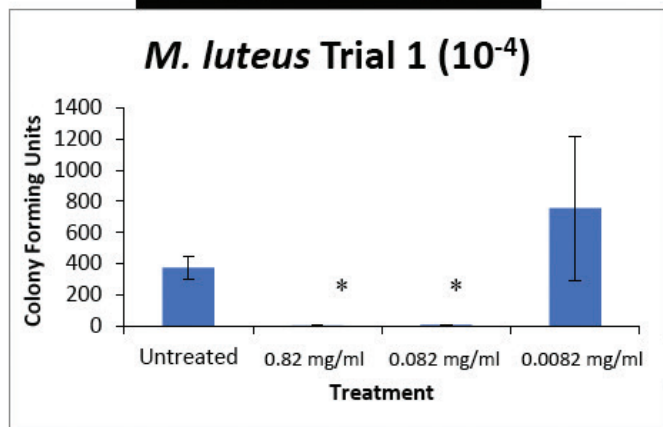
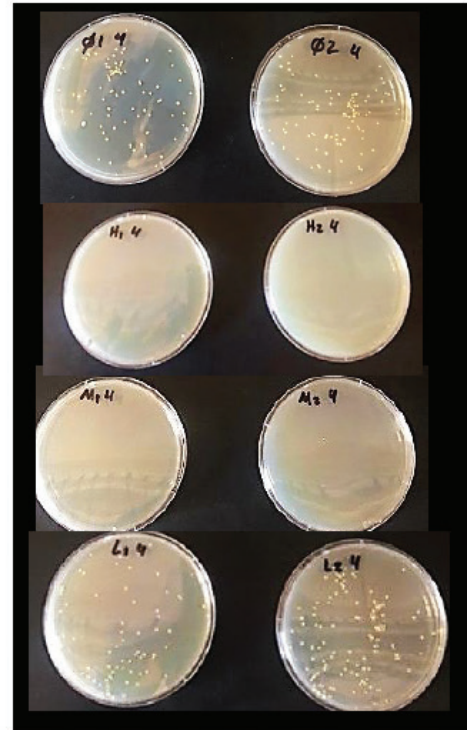
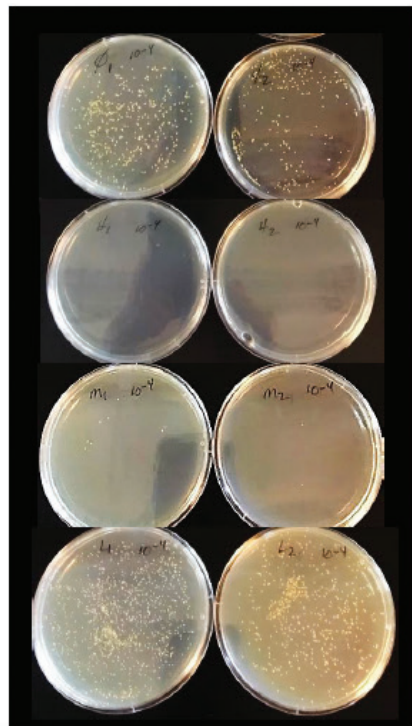


Figure 4: Earthworm protein extract possesses antimicrobial activity on *M. luteus*. Petri dishes are shown in duplicate: row 1=untreated (control), row 2=high (0.82 mg/ml), row 3=medium (0.082 mg/mL), and row 4=low (0.0082 mg/mL). Colony forming units on plates of the 10⁻⁴ dilution were graphed and statistical significance (* p<0.05) is indicated.

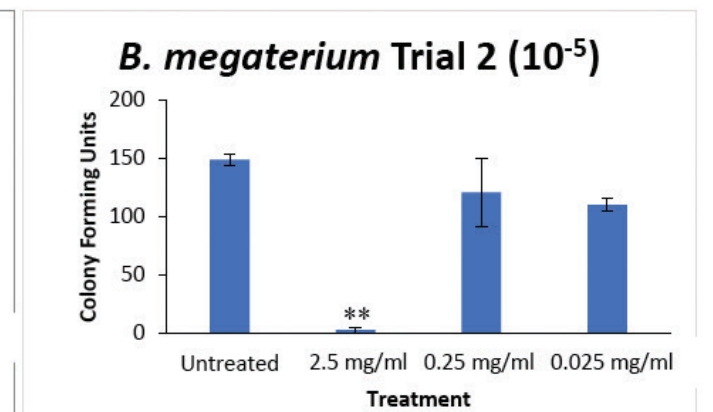
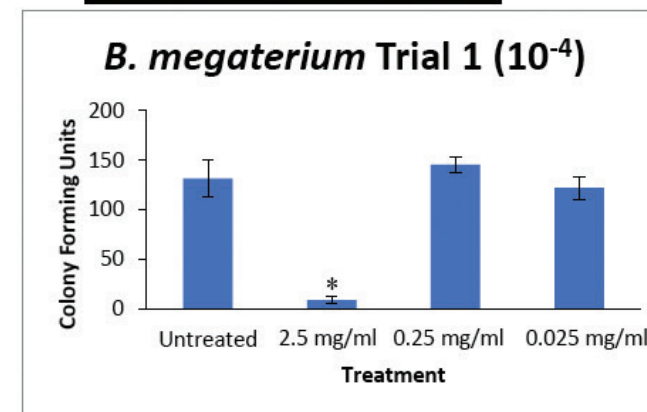
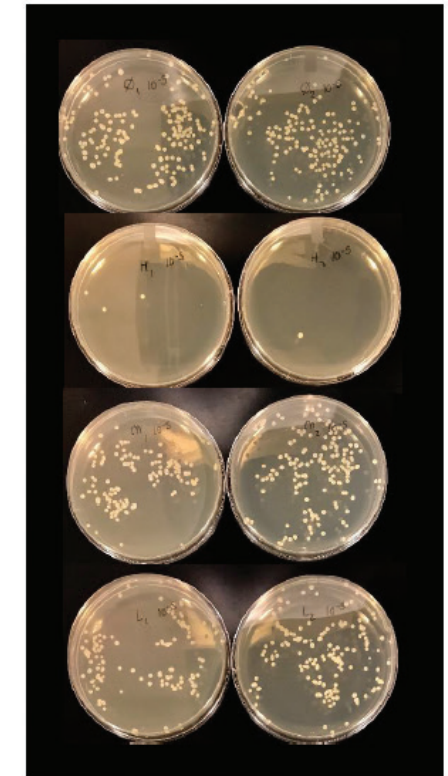
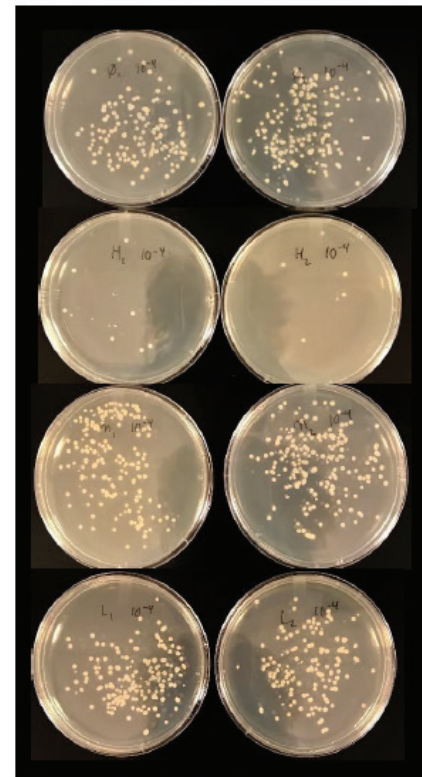
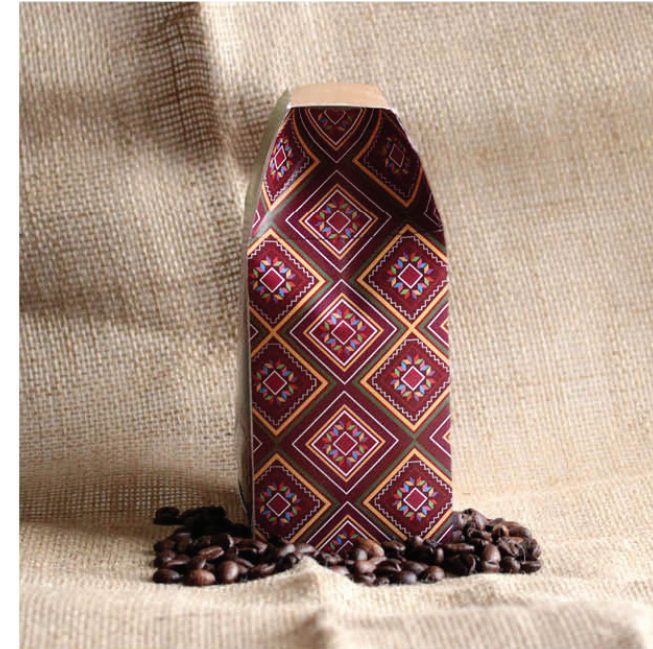


Figure 5: Earthworm protein extract possesses antimicrobial activity on *B. megaterium*. Petri dishes are shown in duplicate: row 1=untreated (control), row 2=high (2.5 mg/mL), row 3=medium (0.25 mg/mL), and row 4=low (0.025 mg/mL). Colony forming units on plates of the 10⁻⁴ dilution (Trial 1) or 10⁻⁵ dilution (Trial 2) were graphed and statistical significance (* p<0.05; **p<0.005) is indicated.

SCHOOL OF BUSINESS, ARTS, AND MEDIA

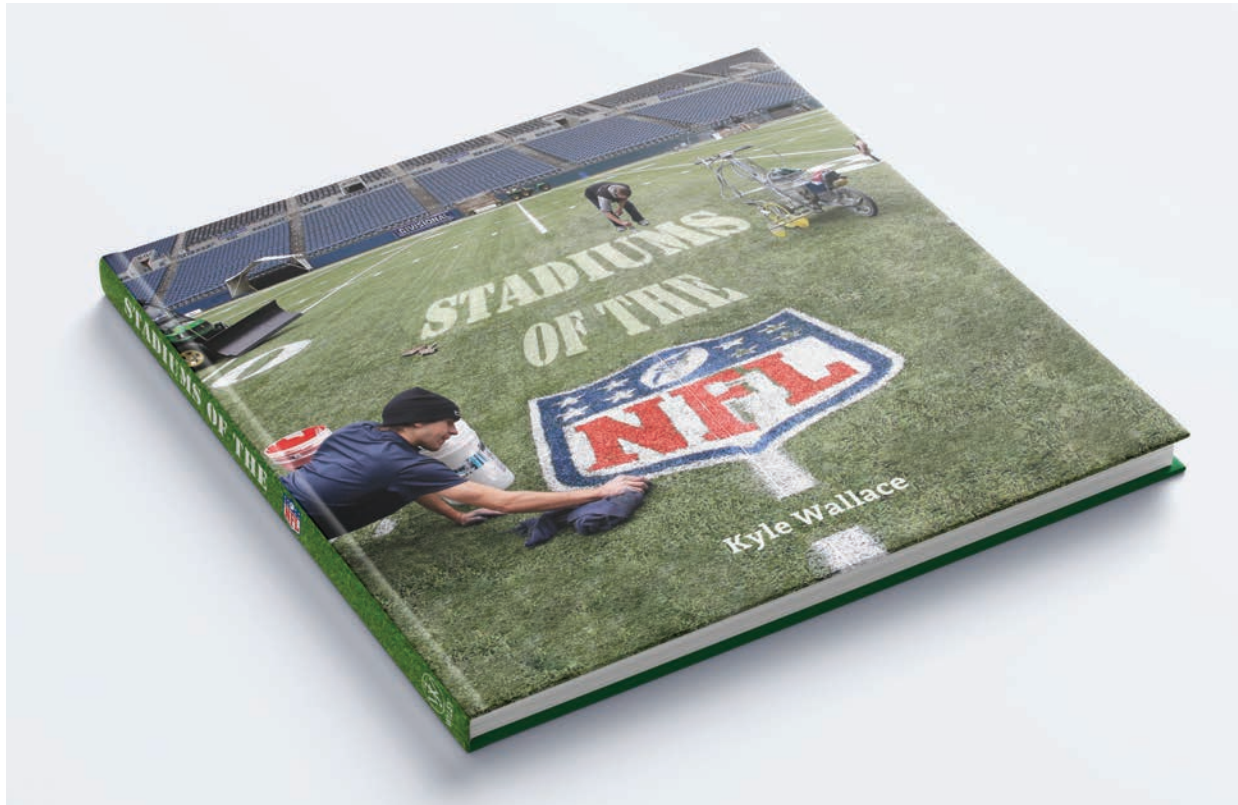
















CABRINI UNIVERSITY

610 KING OF PRUSSIA ROAD
RADNOR, PA

CABRINI.EDU

