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# Compounds Containing 2,3‐Bis(phenylamino) Quinoxaline Exhibit Activity Against Methicillin‐ Resistant Staphylococcus aureus, Enterococcus faecalis, and Their Biofilms

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### ABSTRACT

Antimicrobial resistance remains a global issue, hindering the control of bacterial infections. This study examined the antimicrobial properties of 2,3‐N,N‐diphenyl quinoxaline derivatives against Gram‐positive, Gram‐negative, and Mycobacterium species. Two quinoxaline derivatives (compounds 25 and 31) exhibited significant activity against most strains of Staphylococcus aureus, Enterococcus faecium, and Enterococcus faecalis tested, with MIC values ranging from 0.25 to 1 mg/L. These compounds also showed effective antibacterial activity against methicillin-resistant S. aureus (MRSA) and vancomycin-resistant E. faecium/E. faecalis (VRE) strains. They demonstrated comparable or superior activity to four current antibiotics (vancomycin, teicoplanin, daptomycin, and linezolid) against a wide range of clinically relevant isolates. Additionally, they were more effective in preventing S. aureus and E. faecalis biofilm formation compared to several other antibiotics. In summary, these two quinoxaline derivatives have potential as new antibacterial agents.

#### Introduction

Antimicrobial resistance (AMR) leads to treatment failure, increased mortality and morbidity as well as spiralling costs for healthcare providers and governments (Salam et al. [2023\)](#page-15-0). With an estimated 10 million deaths attributable to AMR by 2050, this public health threat remains a worldwide concern (O'Neill [2016](#page-14-0)). Recently, an in‐depth evaluation from Murray and colleagues showed that 4.95 million deaths were associated with drug‐resistant infections globally in 2019 (Murray et al. [2022](#page-14-1)). Among the potential interventions to effectively combat the rise of AMR are those that involve the identification and development of novel antimicrobials (Courtenay et al. [2019\)](#page-13-0). Novel antimicrobials can help combat the rising

threat of antibiotic‐resistant bacteria, ensure effective treatment options for bacterial infections exist and, more broadly, support diverse public health initiatives. However, the gap in innovation for developing new antibacterials stems from a combination of scientific, economic and regulatory challenges (Hegemann et al. [2023](#page-14-2)). Addressing this gap requires a multifaceted approach that involves stakeholders working across healthcare and academic sectors; an example of such an approach is highlighted in this study.

Heterocyclic structures, contained within natural or synthetic products, are increasingly being used as components of new therapeutics. Amongst these, the quinoxaline core represents an important scaffold associated with many biologically—and

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pharmacologically—active properties useful for treating both non‐communicable diseases and infectious agents (Ajani [2014;](#page-13-1) Pereira et al. [2015\)](#page-14-3). For example, quinoxaline derivatives possess potent antiparasitic activities against Leishmania (Silva de Jesus Passaes et al. [2023](#page-15-1)), Trypanosoma (Rodrigues et al. [2014\)](#page-14-4), Plasmodium (Kümpornsin et al. [2023](#page-14-5)) and Schistosoma (Ingram‐Sieber et al. [2014\)](#page-14-6) species.

During our search for broadly‐active anthelmintics to control the neglected tropical disease Schistosomiasis, we recently designed, synthesised and evaluated a small library of quinoxaline analogues against Schistosoma mansoni, Schistosoma japonicum and Schistosoma haematobium (Padalino et al. [2021\)](#page-14-7). While these compounds demonstrated anti‐schistosomal potencies at nanomolar concentrations, they also displayed structural similarities to previously‐described, antibacterial, quinoxaline‐containing compounds (El‐Atawy et al. [2019](#page-14-8); Keri et al. [2018](#page-14-9); Montana et al. [2021](#page-14-10)).

With the increasing concerns around the emergence of resistance (Yadav and Kapley [2021](#page-15-2); Chait, Vetsigian, and Kishony [2012](#page-13-2)) and tolerance (Brauner et al. [2016;](#page-13-3) Kester and Fortune [2014\)](#page-14-11) to currently used antibiotics, we decided to further investigate the broader antibacterial potential of this family of quinoxaline‐ containing compounds. Here, we first tested a small number of 2,3‐N,N‐diphenyl quinoxaline derivatives against a wide panel of bacterial strains (Gram‐positive bacteria, Gram‐negative bacteria and Mycobacterium smegmatis) to gather preliminary information about the structure–activity relationship (SAR). We subsequently progressed more detailed antibacterial screens with selected compounds against defined strains of clinical relevance, particularly against antibiotic‐resistant isolates.

We used both a standard microdilution broth assay to determine minimal inhibitory concentrations (MIC) and a biofilm test to measure minimal biofilm eradication concentrations (MBEC). Indeed bacterial biofilms are less susceptible to antibiotics (Zhao, Sun, and Liu [2023a\)](#page-15-3) and are clinically more relevant (Zhao, Sun, and Liu [2023a;](#page-15-3) Donlan [2001](#page-14-12)).

By doing so, our results demonstrate the relevance of two of our synthesised quinoxaline derivatives (compound 25 and compound 31) against a range of bacteria, warranting further investigations.

## Methods

## The Workflow of Antibacterial Investigations Described in This Study

The present study was performed in four phases. In Phase 1, a library of 15 compounds (13 synthesised compounds and the 2 initial building blocks) was initially tested against nine bacterial strains (see the full list in Table S<sub>1</sub>). In Phase 2, only the six most promising compounds derived from Phase 1 were investigated against 18 bacterial species originating from clinical settings. In Phase 3, the antibacterial activities of the two most active compounds (derived from Phase 2) were next explored against a further 41 clinical strains. In Phase 4, the effects of pre-exposure to subminimum inhibitory concentrations (MIC) were evaluated for the two most active compounds (derived from Phase 2).

The organisms used in this study (full list included in Table [S1\)](#page-15-4) were obtained from hospital Laboratories (e.g., SACU Bead No 23306, available from the Specialist Antibacterial Chemotherapy Unit ‐ Public Health Wales, Cardiff), the American Type Culture Collection (e.g., ATCC 700699, 12301 Parklawn Drive, Rockville, MD 20852, USA) and the National Collection of Type Cultures (e.g., NCTC 12201, Central Public Health Laboratory, 61 Colindale Avenue, London NW9 5HT).

#### Phase 1: Compound Preparation

A library of 15 compounds (13 synthesised compounds and the two initial building blocks, described in Padalino et al. (Padalino et al. [2021](#page-14-7)), was prepared in 100% methanol (MeOH) at 2.5 mg/mL final concentration. A full list of compounds can be found in Table [S1](#page-15-4).

#### Phase 1: Bacterial Growth Conditions

All procedures were carried out in a biosafety level (BSL) 2 cabinet. A fresh subculture of each of the nine bacterial species (full list in Table [S1\)](#page-15-4) was prepared by streaking onto a fresh agar plate and incubating at 37°C for 24 h. The agar plates were prepared with high salt Lysogeny Broth medium (HSLB, 4 g), agar  $(2 g)$  and water  $(200 \text{ mL})$  for all strains except Mycobacterium smegmatis  $mc^2$ 15, which required supplementation of the solid growth medium with 0.2% v/v glycerol and 0.05% v/v Tween‐80. Bacteria were stored on agar plates at 4°C until needed and replaced weekly.

Before use, a single colony of each bacterium was removed from the agar plates using a sterile loop and inoculated in a fresh growth medium. Lysogeny broth (LB) medium was used for all strains except  $M$ . smegmatis  $mc<sup>2</sup>15$ , which required supplementation with 0.2% (v/v) glycerol and 0.05% (v/v) Tween‐80. Cultures were incubated for 24 h (or 48 h for M. smegmatis) at 37°C with aeration at 200 rpm until they reached an  $OD<sub>600</sub>$  between 0.8 and 1.0 (assessed using spectrophotometer BioTek Synergy 4). In the case of low  $OD_{600}$ , the cultures were left to incubate further; if the  $OD_{600}$  was higher than 1.0, then a dilution was performed. Once optimal  $OD_{600}$  were reached, each bacterial culture was diluted with LB medium to approximately  $1.0 \times 10^5$  CFU/mL.

## Phase 1: Determination of in Vitro Antibacterial Activity Against Bacteria Isolates

The MIC was determined using the broth microdilution method in a 96‐well plate containing fresh LB medium except for M. smegmatis, which was supplemented with 0.05% Tween 80% and 0.2% glycerol (Wiegand, Hilpert, and Hancock [2008a;](#page-15-5) Bhowmick et al. [2022](#page-13-4); Baptista et al. [2018](#page-13-5)). A full list of bacteria isolates is included in Table [S1.](#page-15-4)

A primary screen was carried out at both 125.0 and 62.5 mg/L to keep the MeOH content below 10% v/v. A secondary, dose–response titration (125.00, 62.50, 31.25, 15.63, 7.81, 3.91 mg/L or even lower concentrations when appropriate) was performed only for compounds able to inhibit the visible growth of bacteria in the primary screen. In each assay, all compounds were tested in triplicate against the nine bacteria strains; both primary and dose–response assays were performed twice.

The  $OD_{600}$  was measured at the beginning (initial reading) and at the end (after incubation at 37°C for 24 or 72 h for M. smegmatisl—final readings) of dose–response titration. Those readings were compared to calculate the MIC (as mg/L), defined as the lowest concentration of compound that inhibits 90% of the growth of the organism studied.

## Phase 2 and 3: Determination of in Vitro Antibacterial Activity Against Clinically Relevant Bacteria Strains

A sub‐selection of compounds (2Cl‐Q, 22 f, 25, 31, 32 and 35) was selected for Phase 2 of the study (Table [S2\)](#page-15-4). Here, the broth microdilution assay was performed in Mueller‐Hinton broth (MHB) according to the ISO‐20766 international standard (Standardization IOf [2019](#page-15-6)) and clinical significance of MIC was interpreted using the current EUCAST breakpoints ([https://](https://www.eucast.org/clinical_breakpoints/) [www.eucast.org/clinical\\_breakpoints/\)](https://www.eucast.org/clinical_breakpoints/).

Each compound was prepared in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO instead of MeOH used in Phase 1) and then diluted in water to create stock solutions at lower concentrations (0.008 to 128 mg/L). For some bacteria (S. pneumoniae, H. influenzae and Neisseria species), the MHB was supplemented with 5% lysed horse blood and nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (β‐NAD).

The MIC values (expressed in mg/L) were determined as the lowest concentration that, under defined in vitro conditions (incubation at 34°C to 37°C), prevented visible growth of bacteria within a defined period (for 18–24 h).

During Phase 3, four antibiotics (vancomycin, teicoplanin, linezolid and daptomycin) with known activity against Grampositive agents were used for activity comparison (Table [S3A\)](#page-15-4). The MIC values (expressed as mg/L) of each known antibiotic were interpreted using the current EUCAST breakpoints (Standardization IOf [2019](#page-15-6)) ([https://www.eucast.org/clinical\\_](https://www.eucast.org/clinical_breakpoints/) [breakpoints/](https://www.eucast.org/clinical_breakpoints/) l—summarised in Table [S3B\)](#page-15-4).

#### Phase 4

In this final stage of the study, only the two most active compounds (25 and 31) were further investigated to determine potential bacterial emerging resistance following exposure, their minimum biocidal concentrations (MBCs) and their minimum biofilm eradication concentrations (MBECs).

#### Phase 4: Determination of MIC Following Pre‐Exposure to Quinoxaline Analogues 25 and 31

Fresh stocks of compounds 25 and 31 were resuspended in 1 mL DMSO and further diluted to 512 mg/L in deionised water (final

DMSO concentration below 1% v/v). S. aureus ATCC 29213, E. faecalis ATCC 29212 (vancomycin sensitive) and E. faecalis NCTC 12201 (vancomycin-resistant) (see details in Table [S1\)](#page-15-4) were stored in cryopreservation beads (Fisher Scientific, Loughborough, UK) at −80°C and sub‐cultured onto tryptone soya agar (TSA) for a maximum of two subcultures before use.

To initiate liquid cultures of each strain for repeat MIC determinations, MHB supplemented with cations to a final concentration of 20 mg/L CaCl<sub>2</sub> and 10 mg/L MgCl<sub>2</sub> was inoculated with two to three bacterial colonies and incubated at 37°C for 16–24 h. Suspensions were centrifuged at 3000xg for 20 min to pellet the bacteria; the pellets were resuspended in fresh cationadjusted MHB to reach a cell density between 1.5 and  $5 \times 10^6$ CFU—Colony Forming Units/mL.

Following the ISO‐20766 international standard (Standardization IOf [2019](#page-15-6)), assays were initiated in 96‐well microtiter plates where descending twofold dilutions of compounds (quinoxaline analogues or antibiotic controls) were included in a final volume of  $50 \mu L$ ; negative control wells remained compound-free but contained 50 μL of MHB instead. Aliquots of adjusted bacterial inoculum (50  $\mu$ L) were added to each well except for the negative control wells where  $50 \mu L$  of MHB was added instead, giving a final cell concentration of approximately 5  $\times 10^5$  CFU/mL (in 0.8% v/v DMSO, the highest concentration used). The plates were incubated at 37°C for 16–24 h. The lowest concentration of compound that inhibited cell growth was determined by visual inspection and recorded as the MIC (mg/L). The experiments were conducted in triplicate and the most frequently occurring MIC was recorded.

To determine MIC following compound pre‐exposure, bacterial cultures were exposed to compounds 25 and 31 (at half of the MIC concentration, determined above) for a period of 16–24 h at 37°C in total volumes of 10 ml in 50 mL Falcon™ centrifuge tubes (Fisher Scientific, UK), using the cell densities and culture conditions described in the MIC protocol. Bacterial cultures were incubated with agitation at 200 rpm. Following incubation, the cultures were centrifuged at 3,000 x g and the pellets were resuspended in neutraliser solution (Lecithin 10 g/L, Tween80 30 g/L, Sodium Thiosulphate 20 g/L, <sup>L</sup>‐Histidine 1 g/L, Saponin 30 g/L, Sodium Dodecyl Sulphate 5 g/L in deionised water) and vortexed. The suspensions were re‐centrifuged, the cell pellets resuspended in tryptone sodium chloride (TSC) and the cell densities adjusted to  $1.5-5 \times 10^6$  CFU/mL.

MIC determination of compounds 25 and 31 were subsequently determined as described above using the cultures that had been pre‐exposed to sub‐MIC levels of the test compounds.

In addition, a selection of known antibiotics (ampicillin, imipenem, vancomycin, levofloxacin, ciprofloxacin, trimethoprim/sulfamethoxazole, cefotixin, gentamicin, erythromycin, tetracycline, rifampicin and benzylpenicillin) was diluted and prepared as described in BS EN ISO20776‐1:2020 (British Standards Institution [2020\)](#page-13-6). Antibiotic‐loaded 6 mm paper discs (Oxoid, Basingstoke, UK) were applied to the surfaces of the agar plates seeded with each of the three bacteria strains (stated above) before (control) and after pre‐ exposure to test compounds 25 and 31. Plates were incubated for  $18 \pm 2$  h at 37°C. Zones of inhibition were measured using a calliper

and recorded. The antibiotic susceptibility profiles of the three bacteria strains before and after pre‐exposure to the quinoxaline derivatives to the known antibiotics selection were compared to the current EUCAST breakpoints [\(https://www.eucast.org/clinical\\_](https://www.eucast.org/clinical_breakpoints/) [breakpoints/\)](https://www.eucast.org/clinical_breakpoints/) (Ekkelenkamp et al. [2022](#page-14-13)).

#### Phase 4: Determination of Minimum Biocidal Concentration (MBC)

Following MIC determination (described in the section above), the entire contents of the wells corresponding to the MIC level and all higher concentrations for which no visible growth was observed, were removed by pipette and plated onto TSA plates. The plates were incubated at 37°C for 16–24 h. The MBC was recorded as the lowest concentration of test compounds for which there were no colonies.

## Phase 4: Determination of Minimum Biofilm Eradication Concentration (MBEC)

The standard ASTM E2799 (International A. [2012](#page-14-14)) assay was used to determine the MBEC of compounds 25 and 31 as well as several antibiotics (vancomycin, rifampicin, linezolid, teicoplanin and sparfloxacin). Briefly, bacterial cultures  $(1.5 \times 10^5$  CFU/mL) were added to 96‐well Calgary biofilm devices (Innovotech, Canada); plastic lids containing 96 pegs were subsequently added to each 96‐well base. The entire Calgary device was incubated at 37°C for 16–24 h in an orbital shaker to allow the initial biofilm establishment on a surface. The biofilm‐containing pegs were rinsed in TSC to remove planktonic cells and transferred to a challenge plate containing test compounds 25 and 31 as well as five selected antibiotics serially diluted across the plate. Following another 24 h incubation, the pegs were placed in neutralising broth (Lecithin 10 g/L, Tween‐80 30 g/L, Sodium Thiosulphate 20 g/L, <sup>L</sup>‐Histidine 1 g/L, Saponin 30 g/L, Sodium Dodecyl Sulphate 5 g/L in deionised water) for 10 min and then transferred to a recovery plate containing 100 μL of sterile tryptone soya broth (TSB). An effectiveness test of the neutralising broth was performed in accordance with ASTM E2799 to validate the use of the neutralising broth. The recovery plates were placed in a sonicating water bath for  $30 \pm 5$  min to disaggregate the biofilms. The lids containing the pegs were discarded and replaced with standard lids. The plates were incubated at 37°C for 16–24 h to allow biofilm growth and the MBECs were determined qualitatively by recording the lowest concentration of antibiotic/compound that prevented cell growth (i.e., absence of turbidity).

## Evaluation of Cell Morphology Following Exposure to Test Compounds

Bacterial cultures (S. aureus ATCC 29213 and E. faecalis NCTC 12201) were grown for 16–24 h at 37°C in cation‐adjusted MHB and resuspended in TSC to approximately  $1 \times 10^9$  CFU/mL.

A suspension of bacteria (final concentration  $5 \times 10^5$  CFU/mL) and each compound (25 and 31) was prepared at a concentration double the MBC of each test compound.

Untreated control cultures were initiated using TSC only. Following incubation at 37°C for 16–24 h, the suspensions were centrifuged at 3000 x g and bacteria pellets were fixed by incubation with 2.5% glutaraldehyde for 2 h at 21°C. Following another centrifugation step, the cell pellets were washed in an ascending series of ethanol concentrations (from 10% to 100%), with 5 min incubation at each step and centrifugation between each wash. The entire 2 mL volume of the final suspension in 100% ethanol was filtered through a 0.2 μm polycarbonate membrane (Whatman™, Cytiva, UK) using a manifold system. The filtered membranes were transferred to Petri dishes and placed in a bell jar overnight to remove residual moisture.

Membranes were subsequently fixed to aluminium stubs using carbon adhesive tabs (Fisher Scientific, Loughborough, UK) and sputter-coated with 20 nm gold/palladium (Au/Pd). Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images were acquired using a beam energy of 5 kV and an in-lens detector on a Sigma HD field gun Scanning Electron Microscope (Carl Zeiss Ltd, UK). Three representative fields of view were captured for each treatment at magnifications between 10,000 and 50,000.

# Results and Discussion

## Determination of in Vitro Antibacterial Activity Against ATCC/NTCT Isolates (Phase 1)

We recently reported the identification of quinoxaline derivatives as part of a high-throughput ex vivo screening campaign to identify potent anti‐schistosomal compounds (Padalino et al. [2021\)](#page-14-7). Medicinal chemistry optimisation resulted in the generation of 5 N‐aryl analogues (compounds 25, 30‐32 and 35) and two N‐phenyl‐alkyl analogues (compounds 36‐37) created via a one‐step reaction using 2,3‐Dichloro‐6‐nitroquinoxaline as the starting material (referred here as 2Cl-Q—Figure [1](#page-4-0)). The 6-acyl derivatives were obtained from classical catalytic hydrogenation of the 6‐nitro‐substituted quinoxaline 22 into the amino derivative, before a final acylation to assemble the analogues  $22c-22g$  (Figure [1\)](#page-4-0). Due to solubility restrictions, only 13 compounds (amongst the originally 21 synthesised in (Padalino et al. [2021\)](#page-14-7)) were selected for antibacterial screening (compounds 25, 30-32, 35-37, 22b-22g as well as the 2,3-Dichloro-6-nitroquinoxaline (2Cl-Q) and its 6-nitroquinoxaline-2,3diol derivative starting materials, Figure [1](#page-4-0)—adapted from (Padalino et al. [2021\)](#page-14-7)).

The minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) of this library was initially assessed by the broth microdilution method (Wiegand, Hilpert, and Hancock [2008a](#page-15-5)). Representative species derived from Gram-positive and Gram-negative strains as well as M. smegmatis were first screened with all compounds at two concentrations (125.00 and 62.50 mg/L). Compounds showing inhibition of bacterial growth at 62.50 mg/L were further tested in a secondary dose– response assay. From these screens, the minimal concentrations of 15 quinoxaline analogues that reduced visible growth were calculated for each bacteria strain (Table [1](#page-4-1)).

Of the six bacteria species tested, Escherichia coli, Pseudomonas aeruginosa, Bacillus cereus and Staphylococcus epidermidis were minimally affected (MIC > 62.5–125 mg/L) by the compounds. Two compounds (31 and 37) demonstrated some

<span id="page-4-0"></span>

FIGURE 1 | Synthesis of the 2,3-bis(phenylamino)-quinoxaline series. The synthesised derivatives are grouped by structural similarity: the N-aryl analogues are highlighted with a blue box, the N‐phenyl‐alkyl analogues are contained in the green box and the 6‐acyl derivatives are included in a magenta box. Reagents and conditions: (i) different substituted anilines (compounds 22–35) or phenyl‐alkyl amines (36 and 37), anhydrous DMSO, 130°C, 30 min; (ii) H<sub>2</sub>, cat. Pd/C, AcOEt, rt, 2 h; (iii) Br(CH<sub>2)2</sub>Br, K<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>, CH<sub>3</sub>CN, MWI (300 W), 150°C, 15 min; (iv) R<sub>2</sub>COCl, anhydrous Pyr, anhydrous DCM,  $0^{\circ}C \rightarrow$  rt, 1 h. This figure is adapted from (Padalino et al. [2021](#page-14-7)) with particular focus only on the quinoxaline derivatives (Table [S1A](#page-15-4)) and bacterial species (Table [S1B](#page-15-4)) investigated in this study.

	MIC (mg/L)							
	Gram-positive				Gram-negative	Mycobacteria <sup>a</sup>		
Entry	S. aureus	S. epidermidis	<b>B.</b> cereus	E. coli	P. aeruginosa	M. smegmatis mc <sup>2</sup> 15		
2,3-dichloro- 6-nitroquinoxaline/2Cl-Q	< 3.91	< 62.50	< 62.50	62.50	125	1.95		
6-nitroquinoxaline-2,3-diol	125			>125		>125		
25	< 3.91	< 62.50	125	>125	>125	>125		
30	7.81	>125	>125	>125	>125	>125		
31	0.98	< 62.50	< 62.50	>125	>125	31.25		
32	1.95	< 62.50	125	62.5	>125	62.50		
35	62.50	< 62.50	< 62.50	>125	>125	>125		
36	>125			>125		>125		
37	>125			>125		31.25		
22 <sub>b</sub>	15.63	>125	>125	>125	>125	>125		
22c	62.50	< 62.50	< 62.50	>125	>125	>125		
22d	62.50	>125	125	>125	>125	>125		
22e	>125			>125		125		
22f	31.25	125	< 62.50	>125	>125	>125		
22 g	>125			>125		125		

<span id="page-4-1"></span>TABLE 1 | Minimum inhibitory concentrations (MICs, mg/L) of 15 quinoxaline derivatives.

Note: Strains used: S. aureus ‐ ATCC 29213; Staphylococcus epidermidis ‐ NTCT11077; Bacillus cereus ‐ ATCC 14579; Escherichia coli ‐ ATCC 25922; Pseudomonas aeruginosa ATCC 27853, M. smegmatis mc<sup>2</sup>15 ATCC 700084. Concentration tested: 125, 62.50, 31.25, 15.63, 7.81, 3.91, 1.95, 0.98 µg/mL; Green cells indicate MIC values of 31.25 mg/L or lower.

<span id="page-4-2"></span>Cells containing the value '> 125' indicate that bacterial growth was still observed at the highest concentration tested (125 mg/L). Cells containing the value '< 62.5' or '< 3.91' indicate that there was no visible bacterial growth at that concentration (62.5 and 3.91 mg/L, respectively). A further titration (below 62.50 or 3.91 mg/L, respectively) would be needed to define the exact value of MIC. Cells containing '-' indicated that the MIC of that compound was not determined. <sup>a</sup>48 h incubation with the drug. Other bacteria strains were incubated for 24 h.

antimycobacterial activity, with the initial building block (2,3‐ Dichloro‐6‐nitroquinoxaline) being the most active (MIC 1.95 mg/L). In contrast, Staphylococcus aureus showed the highest susceptibility to these compounds with 31 and 32 producing MICs of 0.98 and 1.95 mg/L, respectively. Only 5 of the 15 compounds tested (6‐nitroquinoxaline‐2,3‐diol, 36, 37, 22e and  $22 g$ ) were not effective against this bacterium (MIC > 125 mg/L). Compound 25 and 2.3-dichloro-6‐nitroquinoxaline showed some activity with a MIC below 3.91 mg/L.

The antibacterial properties of 7 of the most active compounds against *S. aureus* prompted further studies on three methicillinresistant S. aureus (MRSA) strains (Table [2](#page-5-0)).

Here, some compounds (e.g., 2,3-dichloro-6-nitroquinoxaline and compounds 30, 22b and 22 g) lost activity against some or all of the MRSA strains tested. Compounds 25, 31 and 32 retained some activity on MRSA strains, but they were not as potent when compared to the S. aureus reference strain. Compound 35 was the only compound that showed an increased potency against the MRSA strains (15.53–31.25 mg/L compared to a MIC of 62.50 mg/L for the standard S. aureus strain).

### Determination of in Vitro Antibacterial Activity Against Clinically Relevant Bacteria Strains (Phases 2 and 3)

Based on compounds 25, 31, 32, 22 f, 35 and 2,3‐dichloro‐ 6‐nitroquinoxaline/2Cl‐Q's activities against MRSA strains, a wider antibacterial screen (Figure [2](#page-6-0)) was conducted on 19 clinically relevant bacterial species/strains (Table [S2A](#page-15-4)).

Amongst the compounds tested, 2Cl-Q showed minimal activities (MICs  $\geq$  8 mg/L) against the selected strains. Compound 22 f displayed activities against Neisseria gonorrhoeae (ATCC 49226; MIC of 1 mg/l), one flucloxacillin-resistant S. aureus strain (S. aureus NCTC 12493; MIC =  $1 \text{ mg/L}$ ) and two vancomycinresistant Enterococcus faecalis (VRE) strains (NCTC 12201 ‐  $MIC = 0.250$  mg/L and ATCC 51299 - MIC = 2 mg/L). Compounds 25, 31, 32 and 35 were active against S. aureus and E. faecalis wild-type strains. However, these compounds were even more active against the drug-resistant *S. aureus* and *E. faecalis* strains with compounds 25 and 31 generally being more active than the other two (Figure [2\)](#page-6-0).

Exploring the wider panel of Gram‐positive bacteria strains, compound 31 was the only compound with activity  $(MIC = 2 mg/L)$ against Streptococcus pneumoniae (ATCC 49619), the most common cause of community‐acquired pneumonia and one of nine bacteria of international concern (World Health Organisation; WHO (Organization WH [2014](#page-14-15))). This compound also retained its activity against the MLS‐resistant S. pneumoniae strain (21395,  $MIC = 2 mg/L$ , but was less active against 18778 and 21394  $(MIC = 4 mg/L).$ 

Focusing on the Gram‐negative species, compounds 25 and 31 were also the only two compounds active against Neisseria species and Haemophilus influenzae. In terms of H. influenzae, compound 25 demonstrated greater activity (compared to 31) against both standard- (ATCC 49766, MIC = 4 and 16 mg/L for compounds  $25$ 

<span id="page-5-0"></span>



<span id="page-5-1"></span><sup>a</sup>MICs values against S. aureus reported here as a reference (from Table [1\)](#page-4-1). Green cells indicate MIC values of 31.25 mg/l or lower. Those compounds were selected for further screening against MRSA strains. Strains used: standard S. aureus - ATCC 29213; Methicillin-resistant S. aureus (MRSA) isolates - USA300, ATCC 33591, EM RSA.

<span id="page-6-0"></span>

		<b>Compound IDs</b>					
<b>2CI-O</b>	∿ী	ౡ	ዹ	∾	≪ہ	<b>Organism IDs</b>	<b>Strain IDs</b>
32 000	8.000	0.125	0.125	1.000	2.000	S. aureus	ATCC 29213
32 000	4.000	0.250	0.060	1.000	0.500	E. faecalis	ATCC 29212
64.000	8.000	4 0 0 0	2.000	8.000	8 0 0 0	S. pneumoniae	ATCC 49619
32 000	64.000	4.000	16 000	>64.000	64.000	H. influenzae	ATCC 49766
32 000	16,000	1.000	4.000	8.000	8.000	N. meningitidis	20434
16,000	1 00C	1 000	0.500	2 00C	2 000	N. gonorrhoeae	ATCC 49226
16.000	1.000	0 06C	በ 125	0.500	1 000	S. aureus	<b>NCTC 12493</b>
32 000	8.000	በ 125		0.500	1.000	S. aureus	ATCC BAA-977
32.000	8.000	0.125	0.125	0.500	1.000	S. aureus	<b>ATCC 700698</b>
16.000	8.000	በ 125		0.50C	2.000	S. aureus	11051
8.000	0.250	0.060	0.060	0.500	0.500	E. faecalis	<b>NCTC 12201</b>
32.000	2.000	0.250	0.250	0.500	 1.000	E. faecalis	<b>ATCC 51299</b>
64.000	8.000	8.000	4.000	32.000	16.000	S. pneumoniae	18778
64.000	8.000	4.000	4.000	32.000	8.000	S. pneumoniae	21394
64.000	8.000	4.000	2.000	8.000	8.000	S. pneumoniae	21395
32 000	64.000	8.000	16.000	>64.000	64.000	H. influenzae	18391
32 000	64.000	8.000	16.000	>64.000	>128.000	H. influenzae	17428
32.000	4.000	1.000	1.000	8.000	8.000	N. meningitidis	1578
16.000	4.000	1.000	1.000	8.000	32.000	N. gonorrhoeae	20121
							<b>Resistant Strains</b>
60.08		<b>40.08</b>	20.08		$\sigma_{\!i\!o\!o}$		

FIGURE 2 | Minimum Inhibitory Concentrations (MICs, mg/L) against 19 clinically relevant strains. More information about the strains can be found in Table [S2A](#page-15-4). MICs (expressed in mg/L) are indicated. A colour code was used based on the highest (64 mg/L – in blue) to the lowest value  $(0.06 \text{ mg/L} - \text{in green})$  contained within the data set (the coloured bar, in mg/l, is at the bottom of the picture). Relevant strains with resistance mechanisms are highlighted in pink – more details on the specific resistance and mechanism can be found in Table [S2A.](#page-15-4) The complete antibacterial data set is available in Table  $S2B$ . 2Cl-Q = 2,3-dichloro-6-nitroquinoxaline.

<span id="page-6-1"></span>



and 31, respectively) and resistant‐ strains (18391, 17428 with MIC = 8 and 16 mg/L for compounds 25 and 31, respectively).

Compounds 31 and 25 showed the broadest and most potent antibacterial activities against all species/strains investigated, including the thirteen drug‐resistant strains (Figure [2\)](#page-6-0). Therefore, these two quinoxalines were selected for further investigations against additional drug‐resistant strains of both S. aureus and E. faecalis (Table [3\)](#page-6-1).

Both compounds were particularly active against vancomycinresistant strains of E. faecalis, especially against the NCTC 12201 strain ( $MIC = 0.60$  mg/L). They additionally demonstrated equivalent potencies against the flucloxacillin‐, vancomycin‐, tetracycline‐ and erythromycin/clindamycin‐resistant S. aureus strains (Table [3\)](#page-6-1).

### Activity of Compounds 25 and 31 on Additional Clinically Relevant Bacterial Strains (Phase 3)

Based on the promising antibacterial effects of compounds 25 and 31 on representative Gram‐positive bacteria of clinical importance, a more expansive panel of Gram‐positive bacterial strains was next subjected to MIC investigations (Figure [3](#page-7-0) and

<span id="page-7-0"></span>





FIGURE 3 | Legend on next page.

Table [S3\)](#page-15-4). In addition to S. aureus (Figure [3A](#page-7-0)) and E. faecalis (Figure [3B\)](#page-7-0), Enterococcus faecium (Figure [3C\)](#page-7-0) was also included in these assays due to broader resistance and higher virulence than E. faecalis (Kramer et al. [2018\)](#page-14-16).

Vancomycin, teicoplanin, linezolid and daptomycin MICs were first compared to the two quinoxaline analogues (Table [S3A](#page-15-4) and Table [S3B](#page-15-4)). Regarding S. aureus, three control strains (methicillin‐sensitive Staphylococcus aureus strain ATCC 29213 ‐ MSSA ‐ and two MRSA strains ATCC 700698 and 700699) were evaluated along with 20 clinical isolates. Compounds 25 and 31 showed a good antibacterial profile across all S. aureus isolates under analysis with MICs ranging from 0.125 to 0.500 mg/L (Figure [3A\)](#page-7-0).

A heterogeneous MIC spectrum for the four clinical antibiotics was identified for the S. aureus standard stains and clinical isolates with linezolid being the least potent. Both quinoxaline analogues demonstrated greater potencies than vancomycin, teicoplanin and linezolid with comparable activity to daptomycin in some cases. When looking at the GISA strains, the two test compounds outperformed the first-line treatment (vancomycin and teicoplanin— Figure [3A](#page-7-0)).

Compounds 25 and 31 were next tested against a panel of 13 E. *faecalis* strains (Figure  $3B$ ); these included three standard strains (sensitive strain ATCC 29212 and two vancomycin‐resistant enterococci (VRE) strains (NTCC 12201 and ATCC 51299)) and ten clinically relevant strains (Table [S3A](#page-15-4)). Both compounds 25 and 31 showed antibacterial activity against all Enterococci tested. While compound 25 appeared equally active across the strains under analysis, compound 31 had a much wider range of MICs from 0.060 mg/L against ATCC 29212 and NCTC 12201 to 1 mg/L against clinical isolate 27135.

Lastly, the antibacterial activities of compounds 25 and 31 were investigated against a selection of clinically relevant E. faecium strains (vancomycin-sensitive or resistant exemplars; Figure [3C](#page-7-0)). Both compounds had MIC values lower than 0.250 mg/mL against all strains examined (both sensitive and resistant strains of standard and clinical isolates of E. faecium). This represents a better antimicrobial profile over the second‐line agents (daptomycin and linezolid) and, in some cases, an equal (or even better activity) when compared to first-line agents (vancomycin and teicoplanin).

# Determination of MIC Following Pre‐Exposure to Quinoxaline Analogues 25 and 31 (Phase 4)

To determine if pre‐exposure to compounds 25 and 31 altered antimicrobial susceptibility, S. aureus and E. faecalis reference strains were exposed to sub‐MIC levels (50% of the MIC for 16–24 h) of these quinoxaline analogues. MICs of pre‐exposed (Spe) strains to controls without pre‐exposure (Sc) were sub-sequently compared (Table [4\)](#page-9-0). Following pre-exposure of bacteria to sub‐MIC levels of compound 25, MICs increased between two and eightfold. Pre‐exposure of bacteria to sub‐MIC levels of compound 31 increased MICs to between 64‐ and 256‐fold.

Since pre‐exposure of bacteria to the two quinoxaline analogues decreased their susceptibility, MICs of commonly used antibiotics (ampicillin, imipenem, vancomycin, levofloxacin, ciprofloxacin, trimethoprim/sulfamethoxazole, cefotixin, gentamicin, erythromycin, tetracycline, rifampicin and benzylpenicillin) were subsequently determined for S. aureus and E. faecalis with and without pre-exposure to compounds 25 and 31 (Table [5\)](#page-9-1).

Pre‐exposure of S. aureus ATTC 29213 or E. faecalis ATCC 29212 to sub‐inhibitory concentrations of either compound did not alter these strains' susceptibility to any of the antibiotics tested. In contrast, pre‐exposure of E. faecalis NCTC 12201 to compound 31 (but not compound 25) led to vancomycin susceptibility with a zone of inhibition greater than the clinical breakpoint. Additionally, E. faecalis NCTC 12201 pre-exposed to a sub-inhibitory concentration of compound 31 (but not compound 25) altered trimethoprim‐susceptibility to a trimethoprim‐resistant phenotype (Table [5](#page-9-1)).

## Minimum Biocidal Concentration (MBC) Determination and Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) Analyses

To complement the extensive MIC testing of compounds 25 and 31, minimum biocidal concentrations of these quinoxaline analogues were also determined for both S. aureus and E. faecalis (Table [6\)](#page-9-2). Compound 25 demonstrated greater bactericidal activity against both S. aureus and E. faecalis when compared to compound 31 (Table [6\)](#page-9-2).

SEM images of both S. aureus and E. faecalis exposed to double the MBC of compounds 25 and 31 revealed gross structural damage in comparison to untreated cells (Figure [4](#page-10-0), Panels A, B, G, H). The morphology of S. aureus exposed to compound 25 changed from round, well‐defined cells in the untreated cultures (Panels A and B) to dimpled and irregular cells (Panels C and D). The damage to S. aureus cells treated with compound 31 appeared even more pronounced, with greater levels of structural damage and possible loss of intracellular contents (Panels E and F). Similarly, E. faecalis exposed to compound

FIGURE 3 | Minimum Inhibitory Concentrations (MICs, mg/l) of two selected compounds and four comparative agents against a panel of S. aureus (Panel A), E. faecalis (Panel B) and E. faecium (Panel C). Panel A - All clinical strains of S. aureus (blue line), except for the final three standard S. aureus strains (ATCC 29213, ATCC 700698 and ATCC 700699, black line). MSSA = methicillin-sensitive Staphylococcus aureus;  $S =$  sensitive; GISA = glycopeptideintermediate S. aureus; hGISA = hetero-GISA; Panel B - All clinical strains of E. faecalis (blue line), except for the final three ATCC/NTC strains (black line). VRE = vancomycin-resistant enterococci; S = sensitive short for MSSA - methicillin-sensitive S. aureus; Panel C - VRE = vancomycin-resistant enterococci;  $S =$  sensitive. Comparative agents: Van – Vancomycin; Lzd – Linezolid; Teic - Teicoplanin; Dap – Daptomycin. A colour code was used based on the highest (in blue) to the lowest MIC value (in green) of the data set (the coloured bar, mg/l, is included on the left-hand side of the picture). The highest range of the colour mapping was set to 2.00 (Panel A) or 4.00 (Panels B and C) for visualisation purposes.

<span id="page-9-0"></span>**TABLE 4** | Pre-exposure of S. *aureus* and E. *faecalis* to quinoxaline analogues decreases their sensitivities.

			MIC (mg/l)	<b>Fold increase</b>				
			Sc		<b>Spe</b>		Spe/Sc	
Organism ID	Ref. strain	Comp 25	Comp 31	Comp $25$	Comp 31	Comp $25$	Comp 31	
S. aureus	ATCC 29213	0.250	0.125			8	64	
E. faecalis	ATCC 29212	0.125	0.125		32	8	256	
E. faecalis	<b>NCTC 12201</b>	0.125	0.063	0.250			63.5	

Note: Values represent the mode of three independent experiments. Sc: strain without pre-exposure - control strain; Spe: strain with pre-exposure. Spe/Sc: ratio of compound MICs values in pre‐exposed strain to control strain.

<span id="page-9-1"></span>TABLE 5 | Pre-exposure of S. aureus and E. faecalis to compounds 25 and 31 and impact on cross resistance to clinically available antibiotics.

		S. aureus ATTC 29213		E. faecalis NCTC 12201					E. faecalis ATCC 29212	
	Sc	$Spe_{25}$	$Spe_{31}$	<b>Sc</b>	$Spe_{25}$	$Spe_{31}$	<b>Sc</b>	$Spe_{25}$	$Spe_{31}$	
Ampicillin	ND	ND	ND	19.8	19.0	20.0	17.2	17.8	17.9	
Imipenem	ND	ND	ND	26.4	26.5	26.5	27.1	27.8	27.8	
Vancomycin	ND.	<b>ND</b>	ND.	10.7	10.9	15.3	15.9	16.6	15.6	
Levofloxacin	ND	ND	ND	20.4	21.2	21.5	22.6	22.0	23.0	
Ciprofloxacin	22.0	21.9	22.0	21.6	21.9	22.3	24.0	24.0	24.	
Tri/Sulf	29.9	31.9	30.0	28.6	28.7	$\mathbf{0}$	32.0	31.5	32.8	
Cefotixin	28	28.2	28.3	ND	ND	<b>ND</b>	ND	ND	ND	
Gentamicin	21.5	22.4	22.2	N <sub>D</sub>	ND.	<b>ND</b>	ND	N <sub>D</sub>	ND	
Erythromycin	25.7	27.2	26.6	<b>ND</b>	ND	<b>ND</b>	ND	N <sub>D</sub>	ND	
Tetracycline	24.8	24.8	25.8	ND.	ND	<b>ND</b>	ND	N <sub>D</sub>	ND	
Rifampicin	31.6	32.2	33.0	<b>ND</b>	ND	<b>ND</b>	ND	N <sub>D</sub>	ND	
Benzylpenicillin	14.8	14.2	13.0	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	

Note: Zones of inhibition (mm) produced by antibiotic-loaded discs against S. aureus and E. faecalis species. Sc: strain without exposure; Spe<sub>25</sub>: strain with exposure to compound 25; Spe<sub>31</sub>: strain with exposure to compound 31; Tri/Sulf: Trimethoprim/sulfamethoxazole; ND: Not Determined; Bacteria were deemed susceptible (in green) or resistant (in blue) according to EUCAST clinical breakpoints.

<span id="page-9-2"></span>



Note: Values represent the mode of three independent experiments.

25 (Panels I and J) and 31 (Panels K and L) showed severe structural damage, including wrinkled cell surfaces and cells that appear to have collapsed.

# Estimation of Minimum Biofilm Eradication Concentration (MBEC)

The efficacy of compounds 25 and 31 to eradicate preformed biofilms of S. aureus and E. faecalis was next determined and compared to a group of known antibiotics

(vancomycin, rifampicin, linezolid, teicoplanin and sparfloxacin) (Table [7\)](#page-10-1). An MBEC of 256 mg/L was found for both quinoxaline analogues against S. aureus ATCC 29213 and E. faecalis ATCC 29212 strains. While compound 25 also yielded an MBEC of 256 mg/L against E. faecalis ATCC 12201, compound 31 was less effective in eradicating biofilms caused by this bacterium. Except for rifampicin against S. aureus (MBEC < 128 mg/L), the other four antibiotics (vancomycin, linezolid, teicoplanin and sparfloxacin) all had higher MBECs ( $> 512$  or  $> 1024$  mg/L) than compounds 25 and 31 (Table [7\)](#page-10-1).

## Structure–Activity Relationship (SAR) Studies Based on Phase 1 Results

The antibacterial data collected for a small number of quinoxaline analogues in Phase 1 of this study highlighted that the central quinoxaline scaffold was responsible for some activity, particularly against S. aureus (2,3-dichloro-6‐nitroquinoxaline, Table [1](#page-4-1)). The hydroxy derivative (6‐ nitroquinoxaline‐2,3‐diol), in contrast, had poor activity against S. aureus and was ineffective against Gram‐negative bacteria and mycobacteria.

<span id="page-10-0"></span>

FIGURE 4 | Quinoxaline analogues induce phenotypic alterations to the surface of both S. aureus and E. faecalis. Scanning electron micrographs of S. aureus ATCC 29213 (A–F) and E. faecalis NCTC 12201 (G–L). Panels A and G and Panels B and H represent untreated cells captured at 20,000‐ and 50,000‐times magnification, respectively. Bacteria treated with 2x MBC concentration of compound 25 are depicted in Panels C and I as well as Panels D and J at 20,000- and 50,000-times magnification, respectively. Bacteria treated with 2 x MBC concentration of compound 31 are shown in Panels E and K as well as Panels F and L at 20,000- and 50,000-times magnification, respectively. Blue arrows: loss of cellular content; red arrows: wrinkled cell surfaces; black arrow: cells that appear to have collapsed.

	$MBEC$ (mg/L)						
	S. aureus <b>ATCC</b> 29213	E. faecalis <b>ATCC</b> 29212	E. faecalis <b>NCTC</b> 12201				
Compound 25	256	256	256				
Compound 31	256	256	> 256				
Vancomycin	> 512	> 512	> 512				
Rifampicin	< 128	> 512	> 512				
Linezolid	>1024	>1024	>1024				
Teicoplanin	>1024	>1024	>1024				
Sparfloxacin	>1024	>1024	>1024				

<span id="page-10-1"></span>TABLE 7 | Quinoxaline analogues showed better anti-biofilm activities (MBEC) compared to five selected comparative antibiotics.

Note: Values represent the mode of three independent experiments.

Although a limited number of compounds were screened, preliminary structural activity relationship (SAR) analyses highlighted the importance of aromatic ring substitutions and the functionalisation of position 6 of the central scaffold (highlighted in blue and magenta, respectively in Figure [1\)](#page-4-0) for the antimicrobial activity. The N‐aromatic derivatives of the central quinoxaline scaffold showed antibacterial activity primarily against Gram‐positive bacteria with compounds 25, 31 and 32 being particularly potent (Table [8](#page-11-0)).

Regarding the effect of para or meta substitution, the paratrifluoromethyl (compound 31) resulted in increased activity against both S. aureus and M. smegmatis when compared to the meta isomer (compound 30). The introduction of fluorine (compound 32) led to increased antibacterial activity when compared to the parent compound (the meta-trifluoromethyl derivative 30) as previously observed with other antibacterial small molecules (Limban and Chifiriuc [2011\)](#page-14-17). However, the combination of a methoxy substituent with a trifluoromethyl group (compound 35) led to a decrease in activity (against S. aureus) when compared to compound 30.

One of the original medicinal chemistry optimisations performed on these quinoxaline derivatives involved modifying the C‐6 nitro group to mitigate cytotoxicity (Padalino et al. [2021](#page-14-7)). Therefore, the antibacterial activity of these C‐6 derivatives was next explored to gain preliminary information about their SARs (Table [9\)](#page-12-0). Overall, these analogues showed low activity on the selected bacterial strains suggesting that the nitro group on the C‐6 position might be essential for their antibacterial effects, a finding similar to what has previously been reported (El‐Hossary et al. [2018;](#page-14-18) Matos et al. [2013\)](#page-14-19). The preliminary investigation of these quinoxaline derivatives showed low or no activity at all against E. coli and mycobacteria supporting the idea that a lipid‐ rich barrier (outer lipopolysaccharide membrane in Gram‐ negative or free lipid and mycolate layer in mycobacteria) is an impediment to the uptake of these compounds by these bacteria (Ebbensgaard et al. [2018;](#page-14-20) Mamelli et al. [2009\)](#page-14-21). While S. aureus

<span id="page-11-0"></span>TABLE 8 | Antibacterial activity of the N-aromatic quinoxaline analogues. (R1: residue of aromatic ring).





was somewhat affected by the C-6 nitro-containing compound 22b ( $MIC = 15.63$  mg/L), the other three compounds lacking a C-6 nitro group (22c, 22 d and 22 f) were much less active. These findings broadly suggest that the nitro group offers less versatility for the antibacterial activity compared to the N-aromatic rings with further SAR conclusions related to the antibacterial activity of quinoxaline‐containing analogues of this study summarised in Figure [5](#page-12-1).

# Discussion Around Phase 2 and 4 of This Study

A sub‐selection of these quinoxaline derivatives (namely compound 22 f, 25, 31, 32, 35 and 2,3‐dichloro‐6‐nitroquinoxaline/2Cl‐Q) was selected for additional testing (Phase 2) against 19 clinically relevant strains as they showed initial activity against MRSA (Figure [2](#page-6-0)).

Here, we confirmed the importance of the N-aromatic ring's functionalisation for the antibacterial activity against S. aureus due to negligible activity of the central scaffold (2Cl‐Q) and of the C6 derivative (22 f). Compounds 25, 31, 32 and 35 retained activities against the S. aureus clinical isolates (confirming Phase 1's results) and were even more active against the documented drug-resistant strains (Table [S2B\)](#page-15-4). This was particularly noticeable for compounds 25 and 31.

We also obtained data about the antibacterial activity of the quinoxaline derivatives against E. faecalis. Similarly to S. aureus, compounds 25, 31, 32 and 35 were very active against both clinical and drug‐resistant isolates including the most important vanA and vanB genotypes (Table [3\)](#page-6-1). More specifically, S. aureus and E. faecalis expressing clinical resistance to systemic antibiotics (flucloxacillin, vancomycin, tetracycline and erythromycin/clindamycin) were both found to be susceptible to compounds 25 and 31 at low concentrations (0.06–0.25 mg/L— Table [3](#page-6-1)).

We extended our testing against a larger spectrum of Gram-positive bacteria (Figure [3\)](#page-7-0) including S. aureus, E. faecalis and E. faecium to ensure our selected quinoxaline derivatives (namely compounds 25 and 31) retained their activity against a broad range of clinical isolates including some having specific and documented antibiotic resistance mechanisms (Table [S3](#page-15-4)). E. faecium was of particular interest due to its broader resistance and higher virulence compared to E. faecalis (Kramer et al. [2018\)](#page-14-16).

Encouragingly, compounds 25 and 31 maintained potent antibacterial activity against a wide panel of MRSA strains (Table [S3\)](#page-15-4), including clinically important pathogens with reduced clindamycin susceptibility (via the D-zone test (Lewis and Jorgensen  $2005$ )) and containing Panton‐Valentine Leukocidin (PVL) genes (pvl genes detected by PCR (McClure et al. [2006\)](#page-14-23)). They demonstrated better antibacterial profiles than vancomycin and teicoplanin (first‐line treatment) and linezolid (second‐line treatment) with MICs ranging from 0.125 to 0.500 mg/L and comparable activity to the cyclic lipopeptide antibiotic daptomycin (Figure [3\)](#page-7-0). In terms of E. faecalis and E. faecium, compounds 25 and 31 showed equal to or better activity with lower concentrations than most of the antibiotics tested except for teicoplanin and daptomycin against E. faecalis 23948 and vancomycin against E. faecium 26575. These results are particularly promising when considering the impact that both Enterococci have on urinary tract infections and hospital length of stay (i.e., E. faecium) (Nichol et al. [2006\)](#page-14-24) as well as sepsis, endocarditis and meningitis in immunocompromised patients (i.e., E. faecalis) (Bolocan et al. [2019](#page-13-7); Giucă et al. [2010](#page-14-25)).

One of the main challenges in developing new antimicrobials relates to how long the targeted bacterial species would need to develop resistance (Salam et al. [2023;](#page-15-0) O'Neill [2016\)](#page-14-0). Therefore, we decided to assess how pre‐exposure to our quinoxaline derivatives (namely compounds 25 and 31) affects bacterial susceptibility. Pre‐exposure of all tested bacterial strains to sub‐ inhibitory doses of compounds 25 and 31 led to increases in MIC levels (Table [4\)](#page-9-0). The increases were more profound for preexposure to compound 31. Yet pre‐exposure to compounds 25 and 31 did not alter the clinical susceptibility profile of commonly used antibiotics, with the expectation of trimethoprim/ sulfamethoxazole and vancomycin in one of the two E. faecalis strain tested (E. faecalis NCTC 12201 ‐ Table [5\)](#page-9-1).

The pretreatment of vancomycin-resistant E. faecalis (NCTC 12201) with compound 31 (but not compound 25) made this strain sensitive to vancomycin. At this stage, we can only speculate about the potential mechanism of resistance involved. Efflux, which is a common and efficient mechanism leading to multidrug resistance (Maillard and Pascoe [2024\)](#page-14-26), is likely to be involved here (no change in tetracycline or quinolones (levofloxacin and ciprofloxacin) MIC—Table [5\)](#page-9-1). Compound 31 might inhibit efflux pumps critical for expelling a wide range of structurally diverse compounds (Hernando‐Amado et al. [2016\)](#page-14-27) in vancomycin‐resistant E. faecalis (NCTC 12201). A recent study also demonstrated that structurally similar quinoxaline‐ containing compounds inhibited efflux pump activity and restored drug susceptibility in drug‐resistant non‐tuberculous mycobacteria (Corona et al. [2022](#page-13-8)).

In contrast, pretreatment of E. faecalis (NCTC 12201) with compound 31 induced sensitivity to resistant transition to

<span id="page-12-0"></span>**TABLE 9** | Antibacterial activities of the C-6 derivatives.  $(R_1:$  residue on C-6 position of quinoxaline core).





<span id="page-12-1"></span>

FIGURE 5 | Summary of the SAR studies performed on different regions of the synthesised derivatives. A total of 15 similarly structured compounds were analysed to generate this map. All the biological results regarding their antibacterial activity were included in Tables 1–[2.](#page-4-1)

trimethoprim/sulfamethoxazole (Table [5](#page-9-1)). Once again, the mechanism behind this transition is currently unknown. Despite this, our lead compounds 25 and 31 were quite active against multidrug‐resistant pathogens (Figure [2](#page-6-0) and Table [3\)](#page-6-1).

While MIC values represent a measure of antibacterial susceptibility (Tables [3](#page-6-1) and [4](#page-9-0)), they do not reveal whether the antibiotic (or test compound) is bacteriostatic or bactericidal (Wiegand, Hilpert, and Hancock [2008b\)](#page-15-7). Recent studies support the combined use of MIC and MBC to provide a more detailed understanding of the bacteria's susceptibility to compounds (Kłodzińska et al. [2018](#page-14-28)) and correlate in vitro data with possible outcomes of in vivo treatments (Pankey and Sabath [2004\)](#page-14-29). In our investigations, the MBC of compounds 25 and 32 (Table [6](#page-9-2)) were higher than their MIC values (Tables [3](#page-6-1) and [4](#page-9-0)) confirming the general trend of MBC being higher or equal to MIC (Abedon [2011](#page-13-9)). Moreover, we can conclude that compound 25 is bactericidal since the MBC is no more than four times the MIC value (French [2006](#page-14-30); Cushnie et al. [2020\)](#page-13-10).

SEM images of both S. aureus and E. faecalis exposed to double the MBC of compounds 25 and 31 revealed gross structural damage in comparison to untreated cells (Figure [4,](#page-10-0) Panels A, B, G, H). However, these findings cannot provide significant insights into the possible mechanism of action and/or final target of these compounds.

In addition to quantifying compounds 25 and 31's MICs and MBCs on S. aureus and E. faecalis, we also measured these quinoxaline‐containing compounds' ability to affect biofilms. Biofilms have been recognised as a potential source of recurring infection and high levels of antibiotic tolerance are prevalent in bacterial biofilms (Zhao, Sun, and Liu [2023b](#page-15-8)). Equally, the formation of biofilms on implant surfaces is a major cause of implant‐associated infection difficult to treat (Okae et al. [2022\)](#page-14-31). Biofilm‐producing bacteria show different behaviour when compared to planktonic (free‐floating) bacteria that are typically used in the testing of traditional antibiotics; this behaviour often limits compound penetration through biofilms (Choi et al. [2023](#page-13-11)). Reassuringly, both compounds 25 and 31 retained their antibacterial against pre-formed S. aureus and E. faecalis biofilms and, more importantly, they performed better than all other antibiotics tested (except for rifampicin for S. aureus biofilm—Table [7\)](#page-10-1). This result is particularly promising for the use of these compounds in antibiofilm products like implants and wound dressings, although further testing would be required against biofilms in vivo, which are notably more resistant to antibiotics than in vitro ones (Okae et al. [2022\)](#page-14-31).

## Conclusions

This study identified quinoxaline derivatives, particularly compounds 25 and 31, with promising antibacterial activities against Gram-positive bacteria such as S. aureus, E. faecalis and E. faecium. These compounds showed activity comparable to or better than vancomycin, teicoplanin, linezolid, and daptomycin. They were also effective against bacterial biofilms, a property rarely tested at this stage. Further medicinal chemistry optimisation will examine the structure–activity relationships, aiming to develop more potent antibacterial candidates with biocidal and biofilm‐inhibiting properties. Due to their poor aqueous solubility, these compounds are likely to be used in topical formulations for skin and soft‐tissue infections or for coating implants and dressings.

#### Author Contributions

Gilda Padalino: conceptualisation, investigation, formal analysis, methodology, writing–review and editing, writing–original draft; visualization, validation, project administration. Katrina Duggan: investigation; data curation; formal analysis, methodology, writing–original draft; writing–review and editing; validation. Luis A J Mur: resources, writing-review and editing. Jean-Yves Maillard: resources, writingreview and editing. Andrea Brancale: resources, writing–review and editing, supervision. Karl F Hoffmann: conceptualisation, resources, funding acquisition, supervision, writing–original draft, writing–review and editing; project administration.

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#### Ethics Statement

The authors have nothing to report.

#### Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

#### Data Availability Statement

The data generated and analysed during this study are included in this published article and its supporting information.

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#### <span id="page-15-4"></span>Supporting Information

Additional supporting information can be found online in the Supporting Information section.