



NON ANTIBIOTIC THERAPY FOR MYCOBACTERIUM TUBERCULOSIS INFECTION

Patil T.R¹., Patil ST²., Patil S³ and Patil A⁴

¹Consultant Physician and Cardiologist, Pharmacologist and Medico Legal Consultant
MD med, MD pharmacology, FCPS, LLB

²Gynecologist

³Department of Public Health Dentistry School of Dental Sciences Karad, Maharashtra, India

⁴Oral pathologist

ARTICLE INFO

Article History:

Received 17th February, 2018

Received in revised form 4th

March, 2018

Accepted 20th April, 2018

Published online 28th May, 2018

Key words:

Tuberculosis, Phenothiazines, Proton pump inhibitor, Antihypertensive, Metformin

ABSTRACT

Despite many recent developments in the management of tuberculosis [TB], it still remains a world-wide menace due to its prolonged duration and high cost of therapy, marked drug toxicity, failure of the patient to complete the prescribed pharmacotherapy. Defense mechanisms of the organism against host immunity and the emergence of multi drug resistant strains [MDR] of mycobacterium tuberculosis [Mtb] adds to the difficulty of the treatment. Newly recommended antibiotics for resistant forms of tuberculosis are Linezolid, Bedaquiline and Delamanid. These drugs have their own potential hematological and neurological toxicities and are expensive. Hence there is a need to find out newer antibiotics or to use the antimicrobial properties of non antibiotic drugs to treat the resistant forms of TB. Drugs which are not antibiotics but have been proved to possess anti tubercular activity are -1] Phenothiazines like Chlorpromazine and Thioridazine 2] proton pump inhibitor like Lansoprazole 3] Antihypertensive like L type calcium channel blocker Verapamil and 4] Anti diabetic like biguanide derivative Metformin. They inhibit bacterial efflux pumps and also affect the energy metabolism of the organism. In addition they modify the host defense mechanisms like increased mitochondrial ROS production and enhanced fusion of lysosome with phagosome of the macrophages. These drugs are less expensive than the newer drugs recommended by WHO. Hence there is a need for extensive clinical trials of these non antibiotic drugs to establish their use as an adjunct or as first or second line of treatment in the management of Mtb.

Copyright © 2018 Patil T.R et al. This is an open access article distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

INTRODUCTION

Tuberculosis [TB] is still a world-wide menace which is getting more serious with the immune compromised conditions like HIV infection. Despite many recent developments in the management of tuberculosis, it still remains unsatisfactory due to its prolonged duration and high cost of therapy, high drug toxicity, failure of the patient to complete the recommended pharmacotherapy, defense mechanisms of the organism against host immunity and the most important the emergence of multi drug resistant strains [MDR] of mycobacterium tuberculosis [Mtb]. These bacteria have impermeable mycolic acid cell wall which favors their longer survival in the host cells. Their long duplication time also adds to the development of drug resistance to anti TB drugs. This demands an urgency for discovering newer effective drugs to treat this infection.^{1,2}

Mechanism of resistance of Mtb organism includes 1]. Various defense mechanisms of Mtb- cell wall virulence factor like mycolic acid in the cell wall, inhibition of phagosome-

lysosome fusion of macrophages, inhibition of phagosomal acidification and protection against oxidative radicals produced by macrophages³ 2]. Efflux of anti TB drugs by the mycobacterial efflux pumps⁴⁻⁷ and 3] the development of mutations at the gene coding level of the antibiotic target.⁸ The initial response of infected organism to the noxious stimuli and the antibiotic is to over express the efflux pumps.⁹⁻¹²

Resistance produced by Mtb organisms against the available anti TB drugs are of various types. Infections resistant to first line anti TB drugs like Isoniazide and Rifampicin are termed as multidrug resistant tuberculosis¹³ Resistance to second line drugs like Amikacin, Kanamycin, Capreomycin and Fluoroquinolones in addition to Isoniazide and Rifampicin is termed as extensively drug resistant tuberculosis [XDR TB].¹⁴ Recently resistance to all the anti TB drugs have been noted in Italy, Iran, South Africa and also in India which is termed as totally drug resistant tuberculosis [TDR TB].¹⁵ Newly recommended antibiotics for resistant forms of tuberculosis are Linezolid, Bedaquiline and Delamanid. These

*Corresponding author: Patil T.R

Consultant Physician and Cardiologist, Pharmacologist and Medico Legal Consultant MD med, MD pharmacology, FCPS, LLB.

drugs have their own potential hematological and neurological toxicities. WHO still continues to recommend the use of these extremely costly drugs for the treatment of MDR and XDR TB.¹⁶⁻¹⁹ Now there is a need to find out newer antibiotics or to use the antimicrobial actions of non antibiotic drugs to treat the resistant forms of TB.

Drugs which are not antibiotics but have been proved to possess the anti TB activity are -1] Phenothiazines like Chlorpromazine and Thioridazine.²⁰ 2] Proton pump inhibitor like Lansoprazole.²¹ 3] Antihypertensive like L type calcium channel blocker Verapamil²² and 4] Anti diabetic like biguanide derivative Metformin.²³

Phenothiazines like Chlorpromazine [CPZ] and Thioridazine [TZ] are heterocyclic compounds. In vitro anti mycobacterial property of CPZ was observed in the year 1977²⁴ which was eventually confirmed after 10 years.²⁰ CPZ has its own serious adverse drug reactions.²⁵ TZ was found to have fewer side effects as compared to CPZ, when it was used with proper doses and precautions along with frequent evaluation of the patient for cardiomyopathy. TZ has been used for more than 60 years and is found to be safe. It was tested for in vitro activity against the both susceptible and resistant strains of Mtb and was found to be equally effective.^{26,27}

Both CPZ and TZ are active against susceptible and resistant strains [MDR and XDR] of Mtb.²⁸⁻³¹ CPZ reduces the resistance by acting on the cell wall of Mtb.^{32,33} Similarly TZ was also found to reduce the resistance to the first line anti TB drugs at the dose which is used clinically to treat psychosis.³⁴ The role of efflux pumps in the organism which pumps out the antibiotics was confirmed in the MDR TB.^{5,35} Studies have shown that TZ reversed the resistance of Mtb for INH through the interference in the over expression of genes of efflux pumps of organisms *mmpL7, p55, efpA, mmm, Rv1258c* and *Rv2459*.⁴

Besides the interference in efflux pumps of organisms, the other possible mechanisms of TZ against Mtb are the disturbances in the genes that code for essential proteins of cell envelope³⁶ and those that code for proteins of plasma membrane and are involved in governing the essential energy production, active transport and permeability in response to oxidative stress and antibiotics.³⁷ The affected genes were those that encode efflux pumps which extrude antibiotics and also the genes that encode for oxidoreductases, enzymes of fatty acid metabolism and aerobic respiration.³⁸

It was observed in several studies that TZ acts on the components of mycobacterial respiratory chain namely type II NADH menaquinone oxidoreductase [NDH2] which involves in the ATP oxidative phosphorylation. NDH 2 catalyses the first reaction of the electron transfer chain of Mtb that leads to ATP oxidative phosphorylation. This forms the molecular target for TZ against Mtb. Modification in the respiration of Mtb with defective ATP synthesis and NADH regeneration results in to hypoxic non replicating mycobacteria. This mechanism of TZ is responsible to reduce the population of both actively replicating and dormant Mtb.³⁹⁻⁴¹

CPZ and TZ were found to be effective against the drug sensitive and MDR strains of Mtb and also against XDR strains.⁴² TZ showed synergistic effect with the first line anti TB drugs.⁴³ TZ gets concentrated in the phagolysosome and it was found to enhance the killing of intracellular Mtb.^{44,45} The accelerated fusion of phagosome with the lysosome of the

macrophage, inhibition of ion channels and efflux of ions from phagolysosomal unit, acidification of phagolysosomal unit and activation of hydrolytic enzymes through the coupling of the vesicular ATPases of phagolysosome favour bacterial killing.⁴⁶ TZ inhibits bacterial efflux pumps.^{4,5,35} The inhibition of the efflux of ions from phagolysosomal unit of macrophage leads to significant increase in intracellular stores of Ca²⁺ resulting in to indirect acidification of the compartment and the activation of hydrolytic enzymes via coupling of vesicular ATPases and killing of entrapped Mtb.^{4,43}

The studies supported the use of non antibiotic drug TZ against resistant Mtb infection used either in combination with other anti TB drugs or as an alternative therapeutic drug alone to treat Mtb.⁴⁷⁻⁵¹ When TZ was used in a group of patients of XDR TB as a mono therapy or in combination with anti TB drugs, it resulted in to the complete cure.⁵² Udwardia *et al*⁵³ and Abbate *et al*⁵² have observed that the use of TZ was safe without having any significant effect on QT interval and on other cardiac properties.

Before starting treatment with TZ, patients should be evaluated for possible cardiomyopathy. The drug is safe up to 1000mg/day. TZ needs to be introduced to the patient starting with the dose of 25mg/day and gradually increasing weekly up to 50,100 and 200mg per day. This protocol has been proved to be safe as it did not affect the QT interval.⁵²⁻⁵⁵

Those patients are the good candidates for the treatment with TZ as a single drug or as an adjunct drug to anti TB drugs in whom resistance to antibiotic is produced possibly due to over expression of efflux pump system. At present there are few laboratories which have the facilities to assay the efflux pump status of the infecting Mtb in the given sample which helps to confirm the ability of TZ to reverse the resistance.⁵⁶

TZ is quite safe as compared to the side effects noted in patients of MDR TB treated with the newly approved anti TB drugs like Linezolid, Fluoroquinilone, Bedaquiline or Delamanid. These drugs are also expensive than TZ. As compared to all other anti TB drugs TZ is cost effective.⁵⁷ Though safety profile of TZ is good, cardiac evaluation is needed before starting the drug as certain class of population like eastern Europeans have mutations in CYP 450 that may lead to raised TZ levels and subsequent cardiac toxicity.^{54,55}

WHO has recommended Linezolid to be included in the regimens of anti TB drugs used for MDR TB and XDR TB infection.^{16,58} But Linezolid has very narrow therapeutic window and is associated with the significant toxicities like hematological disorders and neuropathy.^{18,59,60}

In comparison TZ is effective in a dose of 200 mg per day⁵² in combination with the first line anti TB drugs for any form of TB. TZ gets concentrated by phagolysosome and is effective against bacterial efflux pumps responsible for MDR TB and thus enhances the bacterial killing.

Extensive clinical trials are needed to study the potential of TZ as an anti TB drug so that this drug can be considered for regular use to treat tuberculosis as it is quite economical and free from adverse reaction when used with proper precautions and in proper dose in comparison with other available anti TB drugs at present.

Proton pump inhibitor-Lansoprazole

Proton pump inhibitors [PPIs] are weak bases and consist of two moieties -1] substituted pyridine and 2] benzimidazole.

These are acid activated pro drugs which get converted in to tetracyclic sulfenamide. Activated sulfenamide binds to the parietal cell H⁺K⁺ATPase [proton pumps] and inhibits acid release.⁶¹⁻⁶³ PPIs are indicated for acid peptic disorders, NSAID induced gastric mucosal injury, Zollinger Ellison syndrome and H.Pylori infection.⁶⁴ To treat H. Pylori infection Lansoprazole [LPZ] is preferred due to its specific structure activity relationship like the presence of trifluoroethoxy group at C 4 position of pyridine ring in its structure which makes it more potent antibacterial agent than the other PPIs.⁶⁵

LPZ was found to have intracellular anti tubercular activity. By sulfoxide reduction pro drug LPZ gets intra cellularly converted in to a highly stable metabolite LPZ sulfide [LPZS] which has selective antimicrobial action against Mtb. LPZS reduces the synthesis of bacterial cellular ATP due to the inhibition of cellular respiration.⁶⁴ LPZS prevents ATP generation from ADP by acting on cytochrome bc 1 complex [complex III] which is an essential respiratory chain component for ATP synthesis. The ratio of ADP/ATP in mycobacterium treated with LPZS was about 7 fold more than in untreated group.⁶⁶ Cytochrome b subunit of cytochrome bc 1 complex-Qcr B- was identified as drug target for Mtb which is an integral member of bc 1 complex of respiratory electron transport chain.^{67,68} LPZS is a novel class of QcrB inhibitor which is emerging as a highly promising drug against Mtb. LPZS is a highly safe and a promising anti TB lead compound which does not inhibit gastric proton pumps. The differential activation of pro drug LPZ in gastric parietal cells [sulfenic acid and sulfenamide intermediates] and in the mycobacterial cell [sulfoxide reduction of LPZ to LPZS] makes the LPZS a highly effective anti TB drug. Thus targeting of cytochrome bc 1 complex-QcrB of Mtb forms the new mechanism of action of anti TB drug.

Antihypertensive -Verapamil

L type calcium channel blocker verapamil has been tried for its activity against Mtb. Verapamil was tested against drug resistant Mtb both in vitro and in the human macrophages. This ion channel blocker drug inhibits drug efflux from bacteria and exhibits synergistic inhibitory activity against Mtb when combined with anti TB drugs like Isoniazide and Rifampicin.^{69,70} Whenever Mtb is exposed to antibiotic, it's efflux genes and related efflux pumps get over expressed within Mtb. The inhibition of this efflux pump activity by verapamil increases the intra bacterial concentration of the drug which helps in the bacterial killing and overcoming the drug resistance.⁷¹⁻⁷⁴ This also prevents the development of drug resistant mutants. Verapamil by inhibiting efflux pumps acts as a promising anti tubercular drug.⁷³⁻⁷⁶

Verapamil showed highly rapid anti tubercular activity due to the interference in the energy metabolism of the Mtb resulting in to decreased intracellular ATP synthesis. Key electron transport chain enzymes required for energy production in the bacteria are thought to be inhibited by verapamil.^{77,78} This decreases the energy supply required for bacterial efflux pumps and reduces the drug resistance. Thus verapamil has anti TB activity and reduces the drug resistance.⁷⁹

Verapamil also promotes the acidification in the phagosome vacuoles essential for microbial killing and their digestion through lysosomal hydrolytic enzymes.^{80,81} Inhibition of bacterial vacuolar efflux pumps and increased concentration of verapamil in the bacteria enhances the transcription of proton

pump V-ATPases resulting in to increased phagosomal acidification⁸² and increase in Ca²⁺ concentration in the lumen. This results in to the activation of acidification dependant lysosomal hydrolases and enhances macrophage mediated mycobacterial killing.⁸³

Verapamil induced enhanced killing activity of macrophages depends upon the availability of intracellular K⁺ and Ca²⁺. Voltage gated calcium channels negatively regulate protective immunity to Mtb.⁸⁴⁻⁸⁶ Gupta *et al* demonstrated that the increased intracellular Ca²⁺ stores in the macrophages resulted in to reduced Mtb population as a result of improved host macrophage immunity.⁸⁴

Thus verapamil targets mycobacteria and host macrophages resulting in to the inhibition of respiratory chain complexes and energy production required for bacterial efflux activity. This also promotes phagosomal acidification, enhances transcription of hydrolases in host cells and increases intra macrophage Ca²⁺ concentration resulting in to the inhibition of bacterial growth which contributes for its synergistic activity with anti TB drugs. Overall verapamil is well tolerated with fewer side effects.

Antidiabetic- Metformin

Evasion of either innate or adoptive host cell immune responses by the organisms favors the prolongation of infection.⁸⁷⁻⁸⁹

The major host innate immune responses against microbia include the generation of reactive oxygen species [ROS], the phagosomal activity enhancing phagosome-lysosome fusion and the autophagy pathway which destroys the intracellular pathogens.^{90,91} Adenosine monophosphate activated protein kinase [AMPK] plays an important role in the regulation of host immunity. Disturbances in the phagosomal activity, autophagy pathway and AMPK activation are responsible for virulence of Mtb organisms.^{92,93}

AMPK activating anti diabetic drug metformin was found to inhibit the growth of intracellular Mtb and attenuate the disease related immune pathology. Amit Singh *et al* found that treatment with metformin attenuated the growth of M.bovis bacillus calmette Guerin in the human cell line and also in the H37Rv strain of Mtb. It also restricted the replication of intracellular MDR strain of Mtb. AMPK activation by metformin was responsible for its anti TB activity. Metformin selectively induced mitochondrial ROS [mROS] production. This could be due to the inhibition of mitochondrial complex-1 [NADH dehydrogenase] activation which resulted in to the accelerated phagosome-lysosome fusion.^{23,94,95} Production of mROS triggers the intrinsic apoptotic pathway leading to cell death as a result of the dissipation of mitochondrial membrane potential and intra cytoplasmic release of cytochrome C.⁹⁶

Studies showed that metformin enhanced the efficacy of the conventional anti TB drugs and decreased the tissue bacillary load in the mice lung. After treatment with metformin, tissue related pathology of tuberculosis in the lung and spleen was found to resolve associated with accelerated bacillary clearance.⁹⁷

Metformin treatment was also found to improve host immune responses as observed by increased CD 4 and CD 8 cell count in the lungs of mice infected with Mtb and increased

mycobacteria specific interferon secreting CD8 cells which contributed to the control of Mtb infection.²³

AMPK is a negative regulator of inflammation whose activation by metformin imparts anti inflammatory effect.⁹⁸ The inflammatory responses in the infected animals were reduced by metformin as it normalized various inflammatory pathways and also reduced the expression of related inflammatory genes such as IL-1B,IL-6,TNF alpha, CXCL-5 CXCL-10 and MCP-1 in the mouse lung.²³

Reduction in the severity of tubercular infection, better clinical outcome and reduced mortality in the patients of diabetes mellitus with tuberculosis was observed when they received antiTB drugs along with metformin than with other anti diabetic drugs.⁹⁹ Metformin reduced the incidence of latent tuberculosis in the diabetic patients as confirmed by T- SPOT test reactivity.²³

Metformin when combined with conventional anti TB drugs in the mice infected with Mtb reduced the severity of bacillary load in the lungs. In this animal study dose of metformin used was 500mg/kg which was equivalent to 2430mg/day for 60kg human beings, which is lesser than maximum permissible human dose of 3gms/day.²³

These observations related to metformin as an adjunct drug to treat tuberculosis opens the new promising avenue for host directed anti TB therapy which can be used for improved clinical outcome in TB patients.

CONCLUSION

These non antibiotic drugs inhibit the bacterial efflux pumps and also affect their energy metabolism and reduce ATP synthesis. They improve the host defense mechanisms like mROS production and acceleration of phagosome lysosome fusion in macrophages. Thus they act as anti TB drugs. Hence there is need for extensive clinical trials of these drugs to establish their use in the of treatment of Mtb either as an adjunct or as first line or second line drugs.

References

1. Zumla A, Maeurer M. Rational development of adjunct immune-based therapies for drug-resistant tuberculosis: hypotheses and experimental designs. *J Infect Dis.* 2012 May 15;205 Suppl 2:S335-9.
2. Raviglione MC, Ditiu L. Setting new targets in the fight against tuberculosis. *Send to Nat Med.* 2013; 19: 263.
3. Laxman S, Meena and Rajni Survival mechanisms of pathogenic Mycobacterium tuberculosis H37Rv the FEBS journal 2010, 277,2416-2427
4. Machado D, Couto I, Perdigão J, Rodrigues L, Portugal I, Baptista P, et al. Contribution of efflux to the emergence of isoniazid and multidrug resistance in Mycobacterium tuberculosis. *PLoS ONE.* 2012; 7:e34538.
5. Rodrigues L, Machado D, Couto I, Amaral L, Viveiros M Contribution of efflux activity to isoniazide resistance in the Mycobacterium tuberculosis complex *Infect Genet Evol* 2012,12,695-700
6. Black PA, Warren RM, Louw GE, Helden PD, Victor TC, Kana BD. Energy metabolism and drug efflux in Mycobacterium tuberculosis. *Antimicrob. Agents Chemother.* 2014;58:2491-2503
7. Schmalstieg AM, Srivastava S, Belkaya S, Deshpande D, Meek C, Leff R, et al. The antibiotic resistance

arrow of time: Efflux pump induction is a general first step in the evolution of mycobacterial drug resistance. *Antimicrob. Agents Chemother.* 2012; 56:4806-4815.

8. Martins A, Iversen C, Rodrigues L, Spengler G, Ramos J, Kern WV et al. An AcrAB-mediated multidrug-resistant phenotype is maintained following restoration of wild-type activities by efflux pump genes and their regulators. *Int. J. Antimicrob. Agents.* 2009;34:602-604
9. Amaral L, Martins A, Spengler G, Molnar J. Efflux pumps of Gram-negative bacteria: What they do, how they do it, with what and how to deal with them. *Front. Pharmacol.* 2014; 4 doi: 10.3389/fphar.2013.00168.
10. Martins A, Hunyadi A, Amaral L. Mechanisms of resistance in bacteria: An evolutionary approach. *Open Microbiol. J.* 2013; 7:53-58.
11. Amaral L, Cerca P, Spengler G, Machado L, Martins A, Couto I, et al. Ethidium bromide efflux by Salmonella: Modulation by metabolic energy, pH, ions and phenothiazines. *Int. J. Antimicrob. Agents.* 2011; 38:140-145.
12. Martins A, Spengler G, Martins M, Rodrigues L, Viveiros M, Davin-Regli A, et al. Physiological characterisation of the efflux pump system of antibiotic-susceptible and multidrug-resistant *Enterobacter aerogenes*. *Int. J. Antimicrob. Agents.* 2010;36:313-318
13. Munsiff SS, Nivin B, Sacajiu G, Mathema B, Bifani P, Kreiswirth BN. Persistence of a highly resistant strain of tuberculosis in New York City during 1990-1999. *J. Infect. Dis.* 2003; 188:356-363.
14. Matteelli A, Roggi A, Carvalho AC. Extensively drug-resistant tuberculosis: Epidemiology and management. *Clin. Epidemiol.* 2014;6:111-118.
15. Parida SK, Axelsson-Robertson R, Rao MV, Singh N, Master I, Lutckii A, et al. Totally drug-resistant tuberculosis and adjunct therapies. *J. Intern. Med.* 2015;277:388-405
16. World Health Organization. Global Tuberculosis Report 2015. World Health Organization; Geneva, Switzerland: 2015. [(accessed on 1 may 2018)]. Available online: http://www.who.int/tb/publications/global_report/en/
17. Agyeman AA, Ofori-Asenso R. Efficacy and safety profile of linezolid in the treatment of multidrug-resistant (MDR) and extensively drug-resistant (XDR) tuberculosis: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Ann. Clin. Microbiol. Antimicrob.* 2016;15.
18. Zhang X, Falagas ME, Vardakas KZ, Wang R, Qin R, Wang J, et al. Systematic review and meta-analysis of the efficacy and safety of therapy with linezolid containing regimens in the treatment of multidrug-resistant and extensively drug-resistant tuberculosis. *J. Thorac. Dis.* 2015;7:603-615.
19. Oлару ID, von Groote-Bidlingmaier F, Heyckendorf J, Yew WW, Lange C, Chang KC. Novel drugs against tuberculosis: A clinician's perspective. *Eur. Respir. J.* 2015;45:1119-1131
20. Kristiansen JE, Vergmann B. The antibacterial effect of selected phenothiazines and thioxanthenes on slow-growing mycobacteria. *Acta Pathol. Microbiol. Immunol. Scand. B.* 1986;94:393-398.
21. Patil T R, Patil S, Patil A, Patil S T Antimicrobial properties of proton pump inhibitors *International*

- journal of toxicological and pharmacological research* 2017;9[1]64-68
22. Patil T R, Patil S, Patil A, Patil S T Antimicrobial actions of antihypertensives *International journal of toxicological and pharmacological research* 2016;8[6]455-449
 23. Singhal A, Jie L, Kumar P, Hong G, Leow M, Paleja B, *et al.* Metformin as adjunct antituberculosis therapy. *Science Translational Medicine* 2014; 19 : 263RA159.
 24. Molnár J, Béládi I, Földes I. Studies on antitubercotic action of some phenothiazine derivatives in vitro. *Zentralbl. Bakteriol. Orig. A.* 1977;239:521-526.
 25. Gardos G, Cole JO. Maintenance antipsychotic therapy: Is the cure worse than the disease? *Am. J. Psychiatry.* 1976;133:32-36.
 26. Amaral L, Kristiansen JE, Abebe LS, Millett W. Inhibition of the respiration of multi-drug resistant clinical isolates of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* by thioridazine: Potential use for initial therapy of freshly diagnosed tuberculosis. *J. Antimicrob. Chemother.* 1996;38:1049-1053.
 27. Amaral L, Kristiansen JE, Viveiros M, Atouguia J. Activity of phenothiazines against antibiotic-resistant *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*: A review supporting further studies that may elucidate the potential use of thioridazine as anti-tuberculosis therapy. *J. Antimicrob. Chemother.* 2001;47:505-511.
 28. Martins M, Schelz Z, Martins A, Molnar J, Hajös G, Riedl Z, *et al.* In vitro and ex vivo activity of thioridazine derivatives against *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*. *Int. J. Antimicrob. Agents.* 2007;29:338-340.
 29. De Knecht GJ, ten Kate MT, van Soolingen D, Aarnoutse R, Boeree MJ, Bakker-Woudenberg IA, *et al.* Enhancement of in vitro activity of tuberculosis drugs by addition of thioridazine is not reflected by improved in vivo efficacy. *Tuberculosis.* 2014;94:701-707.
 30. Pieroni M, Machado D, Azzali E, Santos Costa S, Couto I, Costantino G, *et al.* Rational design and synthesis of thioridazine analogues as enhancers of the antituberculosis therapy. *J. Med. Chem.* 2015;58:5842-5853.
 31. Vesenbeckh S, Krieger D, Bettermann G, Schönfeld N, Bauer TT, Rüssmann H, *et al.* Neuroleptic drugs in the treatment of tuberculosis: Minimal inhibitory concentrations of different phenothiazines against *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*. *Tuberculosis.* 2016;98:27-29.
 32. Amaral L, Kristiansen J, Lorian V. Synergic effect of chlorpromazine on the activity of some antibiotics. *J. Antimicrob. Chemother.* 1992;30:556-558.
 33. Amaral L, Lorian V. Effects of chlorpromazine on the cell envelope proteins of *Escherichia coli*. *Antimicrob. Agents Chemother.* 1991;35:1923-1924.
 34. Viveiros M, Amaral L. Enhancement of antibiotic activity against poly-drug resistant *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* by phenothiazines. *Int. J. Antimicrob. Agents.* 2001; 17: 225-228.
 35. Viveiros M, Portugal I, Bettencourt R, Victor TC, Jordaan AM, Leandro C, *et al.* Isoniazid-induced transient high-level resistance in *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*. *Antimicrob. Agents Chemother.* 2002;46:2804-2810.
 36. Dutta NK, Mazumdar K, Dastidar SG, Karakousis PC, Amaral L. New patentable use of an old neuroleptic compound thioridazine to combat tuberculosis: A gene regulation perspective. *Recent Pat. Antiinfect. Drug Discov.* 2011;6:128-138.
 37. De Keijzer J, Mulder A, de Haas PE, de Ru AH, Heerkens EM, Amaral L, *et al.* Thioridazine alters the cell-envelope permeability of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*. *J. Proteom. Res.* 2016;15:1776-1786.
 38. Dutta NK, Mehra S, Kaushal D. A *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* sigma factor network responds to cell-envelope damage by the promising anti-mycobacterial thioridazine. *PLoS ONE.* 2010;5:e10069.
 39. Yano T, Li LS, Weinstein E, Teh JS, Rubin H. Steady-state kinetics and inhibitory action of antitubercular phenothiazines on *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* type-II NADH-menaquinone oxidoreductase (NDH-2) *J. Biol. Chem.* 2006;281:11456-11463.
 40. Teh JS, Yano T, Rubin H. Type II NADH: Menaquinone oxidoreductase of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*. *Infect. Disord. Drug Targets.* 2007;7:169-181.
 41. Sharma S, Singh A. Phenothiazines as anti-tubercular agents: Mechanistic insights and clinical implications. *Expert Opin. Invest. Drugs.* 2011;20:1665-1676.
 42. Ordway D, Viveiros M, Leandro C, Bettencourt R, Almeida J, Martins M, *et al.* Clinical concentrations of thioridazine kill intracellular multidrug-resistant *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*. *Antimicrob. Agents Chemother.* 2003;47:917-922.
 43. Machado D, Pires D, Perdigo J, Couto I, Portugal I, Martins M, *et al.* Ion channel blockers as antimicrobial agents, efflux inhibitors, and enhancers of macrophage killing activity against drug resistant *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*. *PLoS ONE.* 2016;11:e0149326.
 44. Daniel WA, Wojcikowski J. Contribution of lysosomal trapping to the total tissue uptake of psychotropic drugs. *Pharmacol. Toxicol.* 1997;80:62-68.
 45. Daniel WA, Wojcikowski J. The role of lysosomes in the cellular distribution of thioridazine and potential drug interactions. *Toxicol. Appl. Pharmacol.* 1999;158:115-124.
 46. Adams KN, Takaki K, Connolly LE, Wiedenhof H, Winglee K, Humbert O, *et al.* Drug tolerance in replicating mycobacteria mediated by a macrophage-induced efflux mechanism. *Cell.* 2011;145:39-53.
 47. Amaral L, Molnar J. Mechanisms by which thioridazine in combination with antibiotics cures extensively drug-resistant infections of pulmonary tuberculosis. *In Vivo.* 2014;28:267-271.
 48. Amaral L, Udwardia Z, Abbate E, van Soolingen D. The added effect of thioridazine in the treatment of drug-resistant tuberculosis. *Int. J. Tuberc. Lung Dis.* 2012;16:1706-1708.
 49. Amaral L, Molnar J. Why and how thioridazine in combination with antibiotics to which the infective strain is resistant will cure totally drug-resistant tuberculosis. *Expert Rev. Anti. Infect. Ther.* 2012;10:869-873.
 50. Amaral L. Thioridazine: An old neuroleptic effective against totally drug resistant tuberculosis. *Acta Med. Port.* 2012;25:118-121.

51. Amaral L, Martins A, Molnar J, Kristiansen JE, Martins M, Viveiros M, *et al.* Phenothiazines, bacterial efflux pumps and targeting the macrophage for enhanced killing of intracellular XDR-TB. *In Vivo.* 2010;24:409-424.
52. Abbate E, Vescovo M, Natiello M, Cufre M, Garcia A, Gonzalez Montaner P, *et al.* Successful alternative treatment of extensively drug-resistant tuberculosis in Argentina with a combination of linezolid, moxifloxacin and thioridazine. *J. Antimicrob. Chemother.* 2012;67:473-477.
53. Udwardia ZF, Sen T, Pinto LM. Safety and efficacy of thioridazine as salvage therapy in Indian patients with XDR-TB. *Recent Pat. Antiinfect. Drug Discov.* 2011;6:88-91.
54. Thanacoody RH, Daly AK, Reilly JG, Ferrier IN, Thomas SH. Factors affecting drug concentrations and QT interval during thioridazine therapy. *Clin. Pharmacol. Ther.* 2007;82:555-565.
55. Thanacoody RH. Thioridazine: The good and the bad. *Recent Pat. Antiinfect. Drug Discov.* 2011;6:92-98.
56. Amaral L, van Soolingen D. A novel advanced laboratory diagnosis to guide tuberculosis drug therapy. *Recent Pat. Antiinfect. Drug Discov.* 2015;10:71-73.
57. Kwon S, Koh WJ. Synthetic investigational new drugs for the treatment of tuberculosis. *Expert Opin. Invest. Drugs.* 2016;25:183-193.
58. World Health Organization. Key Bottlenecks in M/XDR-TB Control and Patient Care. World Health Organization; Geneva, Switzerland: 2009. [(accessed on 1 May 2018)]. Available online: http://www.who.int/tb/challenges/mdr/bottleneck_s/en/
59. Sotgiu G, Centis R, D'ambrosio L, Migliori GB. Tuberculosis treatment and drug regimens. *Cold Spring Harb. Perspect. Med.* 2015; 5: a017822.
60. Wasserman S, Meintjes G, Maartens G. Linezolid in the treatment of drug-resistant tuberculosis: The challenge of its narrow therapeutic index. *Expert Rev. Anti. Infect. Ther.* 2016;14:901-915.
61. Shin J, Sachs G. Pharmacology of Proton Pump Inhibitors. *Curr Gastroenterol Rep.* 2008; 10(6): 528-534.
62. Shin J, Munson K, Vagin O, Sachs G. The gastric HK-ATPase: structure, function, and inhibition. *Pflugers Arch.* 2009; 457(3): 609-622.
63. Sachs G, Shin J, Vagin O, Lambrecht N, Yakubov I, Munson K. The Gastric H,K ATPase as a Drug Target Past, Present, and Future. *J Clin Gastroenterol.* 2007; 41(Suppl 2): S226-S242.
64. Nagata K, Sone N, Tamura T. Inhibitory activities of lansoprazole against respiration in *Helicobacter pylori*. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 2001; 45(5):1522-7.
65. Iwahi T, Satoh H, Nakao M, Iwasaki T, Yamazaki T, Kubo K, *et al.* Lansoprazole, a novel benzimidazole proton pump inhibitor, and its related compounds have selective activity against *Helicobacter pylori*. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 1991;35(3):490-6.
66. Rybniker J, Vocat A, Sala C, Busso P, Pojer F, Benjak A *et al.* Lansoprazole is an antituberculous prodrug targeting cytochrome bc1. *Nature Communications* 2015; 6: 7659.
67. Ko Y, Cho I. Putative 3D Structure of QcrB from *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* Cytochrome bc1 Complex, a Novel Drug-Target for New Series of Antituberculosis Agent Q203. *Bulletin of the Korean Chemical Society.* 2016; 37: 725-731.
68. Abrahams KA, Cox JAG, Spivey VL, Loman NJ, Pallen MJ, Constantinidou C, *et al.* Identification of Novel Imidazo [1,2-a] pyridine Inhibitors Targeting M. tuberculosis QcrB. *PLoS ONE* 2012; 7(12): e52951.
69. Gupta S, Tyagi S, Almeida DV, Maiga MC, Ammerman NC, Bishai WR. Acceleration of tuberculosis treatment by adjunctive therapy with verapamil as an efflux inhibitor. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 2013;188:600-7.
70. Pasca M, Gugliera P, Rossi E, Zara F, Riccardi G. mmpL7 Gene of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* Is Responsible for Isoniazid Efflux in *Mycobacterium smegmatis*. *Antimicrob. Agents Chemother.* 2005; 49:4775-4777.
71. Adams KN, Szumowski JD, Ramakrishnan L. Verapamil, and its metabolite norverapamil, inhibit macrophage-induced, bacterial efflux pump-mediated tolerance to multiple anti-tubercular drugs. *J Infect Dis.* 2014; 210: 456-66.
72. Mitchison D, Davies G. The chemotherapy of tuberculosis: past, present and future. *Int J Tuberc Lung Dis.* 2012; 16(6):724-32.
73. Rayasam GV, Balganeshts. Exploring the potential of adjunct therapy in tuberculosis. *Trends Pharmacol Sci.* 2015; 36(8):506-13.
74. Machado D, Couto I, Perdigão J, Rodrigues L, Portugal I, Baptista P, *et al.* Contribution of Efflux to the Emergence of Isoniazid and Multidrug Resistance in *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*. *PLoS ONE* 2012; 7(4): e34538.
75. Schmalstieg AM, Srivastava S, Belkaya S, Deshpande D, Meek C, Leff R, *et al.* The antibiotic resistance arrow of time: efflux pump induction is a general first step in the evolution of mycobacterial drug resistance. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 2012; 56: 4806-15.
76. Louw GE, Warren RM, Gey van Pittius NC, McEvoy CR, Van Helden PD, Victor TC. A balancing act: efflux/influx in mycobacterial drug resistance. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 2009; 53: 3181-3189
77. Martins M, Viveiros M, Couto I, Amaral L. Targeting human macrophages for enhanced killing of intracellular XDR-TB and MDR-TB. *Int J Tuberc Lung Dis.* 2009; 13: 569-573.
78. Sazanov L. A giant molecular proton pump: structure and mechanism of respiratory complex I. *Nature Reviews Molecular Cell Biology* 2015; 16: 375-388. 30.
79. Gumbo T. Biological variability and the emergence of multidrug-resistant tuberculosis. *Nat Genet.* 2013; 45: 720-721.
80. Blacka P, Warrena R, Louwa G, van Helden P, Victora T, Kanab B. Energy Metabolism and Drug Efflux in *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*. *Antimicrob. Agents Chemother.* 2014; 58: 2491-2503.
81. Hurst JK. What really happens in the neutrophil phagosome? *Free Radic Biol Med.* 2012; 53: 508-520.
82. Nauseef WM. How human neutrophils kill and degrade microbes: an integrated view. *Immunol Rev.* 2007; 219: 88-102.

83. Bruns H, Stegelmann F, Fabri M, Döhner K, van Zandbergen G, Wagner M, *et al.* Abelson tyrosine kinase controls phagosomal acidification required for killing of Mycobacterium tuberculosis in human macrophages. *J Immunol.* 2012; 189: 4069-4078
84. Gupta S, Salam N, Srivastava V, Singla R, Behera D, Khayyam KU, *et al.* Voltage Gated Calcium Channels Negatively Regulate Protective Immunity to Mycobacterium tuberculosis. *PLoS ONE* 2009; 4: e5305 .
85. Amaral L, Martins M, Viveiros M. Enhanced killing of intracellular multidrug-resistant Mycobacterium tuberculosis by compounds that affect the activity of efflux pumps. *J Antimicrob Chemother.* 2007; 59: 1237-1246.
86. Weinstein EA, Yano T, Li LS, Avarbock D, Avarbock A, Helm D, *et al.* Inhibitors of type II NADH:menaquinone oxidoreductase represent a class of antitubercular drugs. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA.* 2005; 102: 4548-4553.
87. Bhatt K, Salgame P. Host innate immune response to Mycobacterium tuberculosis. *J. Clin. Immunol.* 2007; 27: 347-362.
88. Behar SM, Divangahi M, Remold HG. Evasion of innate immunity by Mycobacterium tuberculosis: Is death an exit strategy? *Nat. Rev. Microbiol.* 2010; 8: 668-674.
89. Baena A, Porcelli SA. Evasion and subversion of antigen presentation by Mycobacterium tuberculosis. *Tissue Antigens* 2009; 74: 189-204.
90. Gutierrez MG, Master SS, Singh SB, Taylor GA, Colombo M, Deretic V. Autophagy is a defense mechanism inhibiting BCG and Mycobacterium tuberculosis survival in infected macrophages. *Cell* 2004;119: 753-766.
91. Levine B, Deretic V. Unveiling the roles of autophagy in innate and adaptive immunity. *Nat. Rev. Immunol.* 2007; 7: 767-777.
92. Kumar D, Nath L, Kamal MA, Varshney A, Jain A, Singh S *et al.* Genome-wide analysis of the host intracellular network that regulates survival of Mycobacterium tuberculosis. *Cell* 2010; 140: 731-743.
93. Kumar D, Rao KV. Regulation between survival, persistence, and elimination of intracellular mycobacteria: A nested equilibrium of delicate balances. *Microbes Infect.* 2011; 13: 121-133.
94. Owen MR, Doran E, Halestrap AP. Evidence that metformin exerts its anti-diabetic effects through inhibition of complex 1 of the mitochondrial respiratory chain. *Biochem. J.* 2000; 348: 607-614.
95. Wheaton WW, Weinberg SE, Hamanaka RB, Soberanes S, Sullivan LB, Anso E *et al.* Metformin inhibits mitochondrial complex I of cancer cells to reduce tumorigenesis. *E life* 2014; 3: e02242.
96. Marchi S, Giorgi C, Suski JM, Agnoletto C, Bononi A, Bonora M, *et al.* Mitochondria-Ros crosstalk in the control of cell death and aging. *J. Signal Transduct.* 2012; 2012: 329635.
97. Zumla A, Nahid P, Cole ST. Advances in the development of new tuberculosis drugs and treatment regimens. *Nat. Rev. Drug Discov.* 2013;12: 388-404.
98. O'Neill LA, Hardie DG. Metabolism of inflammation limited by AMPK and pseudo-starvation. *Nature* 2013; 493: 346-355.
99. T Sullivan T, Ben Amor Y. The co-management of tuberculosis and diabetes: Challenges and opportunities in the developing world. *PLOS Med.* 2012; 9: e1001269.

How to cite this article:

Patil T.R *et al* (2018) 'Non Antibiotic Therapy For Mycobacterium Tuberculosis Infection', *International Journal of Current Medical And Pharmaceutical Research*, 04(5), pp. 3289-3295.
