B-CELL EPITOPE PREDICTION IN CYSTIC FIBROSIS LUNG MICROBIAL COMMUNITY

A DISSERTATION

SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF THE DEGREE

OF

MASTERS OF SCIENCE IN BIOTECHNOLOGY

Submitted by

JYOTI SHARMA

2k19/MSCBIO/24

Under the supervision of

DR. SMITA RASTOGI VERMA



DEPARTMENT OF BIOTECHNOLOGY

DELHI TECHNOLOGICAL UNIVERSITY (Formerly Delhi College of Engineering) Bawana Road Delhi-110042 May, 2021

DELHI TECHNOLOGICAL UNIVERSITY

(Formerly Delhi College of Engineering)

Bawana Road Delhi-110042

CANDIDATE'S DECLARATION

I, Jyoti Sharma, 2k19/MSCBIO/24, student of M.Sc. (Biotechnology), hereby declare that the project dissertation titled "B-cell epitope prediction in cystic fibrosis lung microbial community" which is submitted by me to the Department of Biotechnology, Delhi Technological University, Delhi in partial fulfilment of the requirement for the award of the degree of Masters of Science, is original and not copied from any source without proper citation. This work has not previously formed the basis for the award of any Degree, Diploma Associateship, Fellowship or other similar title or recognition.

Place: Delhi

Date: 29th May, 2021

Jyotisharma

JYOTI SHARMA (2k19/MSCBIO/24)

DEPARTMENT OF BIOTECHNOLOGY

DELHI TECHNOLOGICAL UNIVERSITY (Formerly Delhi College of Engineering) Bawana Road Delhi-110042

CERTIFICATE

I hereby certify that the Project Dissertation titled "B-cell epitope prediction in cystic fibrosis lung microbial community" which is submitted by Jyoti Sharma, 2k19/MSCBIO/24, Department of Biotechnology, Delhi Technological University, Delhi in partial fulfilment of the requirement for the award of the degree of Masters of Science, is a record of the project work carried out by her under my supervision. To the best of my knowledge this work has not been submitted in part or full for any Degree or Diploma to this University or elsewhere.

Place: Delhi

Date: 29th May, 2021

DR. SMITA RASTOGI VERMA

Smile

SUPERVISOR

Assistant Professor Department of Biotechnology Delhi Technological University

ABSTRACT

Human were considered as sterile for a long time period but, as the science advanced in Biology, a lot of techniques have been discovered that figured them out. Human body consisting of 100 trillion cells is inhabited by many bacteria and other microbes all over, for example, over skin, beneath the skin, gut, oral axis, and in lungs. All the microbial community is collectively called microbiome. They play role as the essential components of immunity, influence metabolism, and also modulate drug interactions. However, under disease conditions, as the normal physiology of body changes, dysbiosis of microbiota occurs and the advantageous normal microbes get replaced by the competent infectious ones. Human body thus acts as host to them. The present study aims at analysis of normal microbiota in human oral-gut axis and lungs, followed by the dysbiosis in lung microbiota in cystic fibrosis. This dysbiosis causes infection leading to a high mortality rate in cystic fibrosis patients. Most of these infectious agents in CF are drug resistant, so it has become difficult to treat them. Hence, a need has arisen to search for alternative strategies to treat cystic fibrosis. These infectious microbial community in lungs can be targeted on basis of their surface structures. This thesis aims to predict the B-cell epitope in three major microbes implicated in high mortality rate in CF. B-cell epitopes were predicted using major bioinformatics tool, IEDB, Uniprot, PDB, Bepipred, Discotope, Phyre^2 and Firstglance Jmol. Using data from the tools, antigen specific antibody can be synthesized. As, antibody binds the specific antigen, a higher chance is that the infection rate can be slowed or eliminated using other drugs along with the antibody cocktail.

I would like to thank all the people who guided and supported me in completing this project. Their continuous encouragement helped me in completing the project successfully.

I would like to thank Prof. Pravir Kumar, Head, Department of Biotechnology and Prof. Jai Gopal Sharma, Ex-Head, Department of Biotechnology for their motivation and support.

I would like to thank my mentor Dr. Smita Rastogi Verma, Assistant Professor, Department of Biotechnology for giving me the opportunity to do this project. She was always present for guiding me even at odd times. She has been a constant source of encouragement and support. I would also like to thank Dr. Asmita Das for giving her inputs at the initial stages of the project.

I feel happy and content in expressing my deep sense of gratitude to all those who have helped me directly or indirectly in successfully completing this project.

yotisharma **JYOTI SHARMA**

Place: Delhi

Date: 29th May, 2021

2k19/MSCBIO/24

CONTENTS

CONTENTS	Page No.
CANDIDATE'S DECLARATION	
CERTIFICATE	
ABSTRACT	
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	
LIST OF FIGURES	
LIST OF TABLES	
CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION	1
CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW	2
2.1 Cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator	3
2.2 Mutations in CF	3
2.3 Microbes and human body	4
2.4 Microbiome of oral cavity and gastrointestinal tract	5
2.5 Lung microbiota	8
2.6 Cross talk between gut and lung axis	9
2.7 Major microbiota in CF	11
2.8 B-cell and T-cell epitope recognition	13
CHAPTER 3. MATERIALS AND METHODS	15
3.1 Tools used in B-cell epitope, T-cell epitope and Ab prediction	16
3.2 Steps involved in epitopes and Ab prediction	
CHAPTER 4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	22
4.1 Epitopes and Ab prediction in <i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	22
4.2 Epitopes and Ab prediction in <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	28
4.3 Epitopes and Ab prediction in <i>Burkholderia cepacia</i>	31
4.4 Discussion and Conclusion	33
REFERENCES	35
PUBLICATIONS	40

LIST OF TABLES

	Tables	Page No.	
Table 1.	Classes of mutations in CFTR gene in cystic fibrosis patients	4	
Table 2.	The strategy adopted for studying human microbes is presented	6	
Table 3.	Balance between microbial immigration and elimination	9	
Table 4.	Pathogens in cystic fibrosis lung infections	12	
Table 5.	T cell epitope: MHC class 1 (Pseudomonas aeruginosa)	26	
Table 6.	T cell epitope: MHC class 2 (Pseudomonas aeruginosa)	27	

LIST OF FIGURES

Figures		Page No.
Figure 1.	Windows observed for B-cell and T-cell epitope prediction	19 to 21
	(Image reference: IEDB.org)	
Figure 2.	Bepipred, linear epitope graph representation for antigen	24
	Exotoxin A (Pseudomonas aeruginosa)	
Figure 3.	DiscoTope structure based Ab prediction rule (Pseudomonas	25
	aeruginosa)	
Figure 4.	Bepipred, linear epitope graph representation for antigen	29
	Exotoxin A (Staphylococcus aureus)	
Figure 5.	DiscoTope structure based Ab prediction rule (Staphylococcus	30
	aureus)	
Figure 6.	Bepipred, linear epitope graph representation for antigen	31
	Exotoxin A (Burkholderia cepacia)	
Figure 7.	DiscoTope structure based Ab prediction rule (Burkholderia	32
	cepacia)	

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

Cystic fibrosis (CF) is a autosomal recessive disorder of mucus gland, it is genetically inherited, and only inherited by the offspring if both parents have defected genes. Mutation in the gene responsible for the disease is in protein CFTR gene, which is an ion pump. It pumps Cl ions out of cell in mucus glands and reabsorbs Cl ions in sweat glands. A number of mutations have been identified in CF, but the common one in most of the populations with CF is at the position number 508, in CFTR gene; the deletion of three nucleotides coding phenylalanine. Due to this deletion, CFTR protein is not able to take a complete and correct conformation, and loses its function. The protein is not correctly folded in ER and undergoes impaired post-translational processing (protein does not undergo glycosylation), and is retained in ER and degraded rather secretion towards the cell membrane. Normally, CFTR pumps Cl ions into the mucus, present around the mucus cells, these Cl ions attract water molecule, which makes it thin. In CF patients, as the CFTR is non-functional, the mucus is thick which causes difficulty in breathing, non-motility of cilia preventing the clearing of airways pathways, lung becomes home to infectious microbial community, and dysbiosis occurs. Microbes harbouring the lungs of CF patients are predominantly Stenotrophomonas maltophilia, Stenotrophomonas, Burkholderia cepacia complex, Haemophilus influenza, Staphylococcus aureus, Pseudomaonas aeruginosa, Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus* aureus (MRSA), *Mycobacterium* abscessus, Achromobacter spp., Streptococcus milleri, and Aspergillus fumigatus. The high mortality rate in CF is not due to disease, rather it is due to the infection caused by different classes of bacteria, viruses and fungi. Most of them have developed resistance due to the development of MDR transporters on the cell membrane or formation of biofilms. So, to increase the lifetime of a CF patient, it becomes necessary to target infectious agents individually. By targeting the Epitopes for B-cell and T-cell on the surface, creating monoclonal antibody (Ab) (idiotype), the rate of infection can be slowed down, along with the other drugs, physiotherapy and exercise.

B-cell epitope identification is important step in the development of vaccines based on epitope, therapeutic Abs, and diagnostic tools. Epitope based Abs, are most promising class of biopharmaceuticals. Categorization and analysis (*in silico*) of identified epitopes, have important role in the production of epitope-based Abs.

For the prediction of B-cell epitope, a number of *in silico* tools are available which are based on sequence / structural data. Prediction of B-cell epitopes provides the ability for the identification of correct structure, and replace the Ag in the immunization process, serodiagnosis and Ab production. Computational prediction and epitope mapping added more insights into the process of recognition and development of Ag- Ab complexes, which is helpful to localize B-cell epitope more precisely.

T-cell epitope prediction main aim is to identify peptides the shortest, within an ag that are able to rouse either CD4 or CD8 cells. Calculation of discrete peptides with Ags and T-cell epitopes aims in the identification of those peptides that are immunogenic. Most of the *in silico* methods to generate T-cell epitopes are similar to epitopes of B-cell, but T-cell epitope processing and its binding and formation of complex is still a problem. So, currently Abs are mostly generated for B-cell epitope. In the present work, experiments (*in silico*) which is for the calculation of B and T cell epitopes, for the database which is already existing, with the help of tools available online and performed.

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

Cystic fibrosis is known as fatal, chronic and progressive genetic disorder of human body's mucus and sweat gland, and it majorly affects respiratory and digestive systems [Steven et al., 2000]. It is an autosomal recessive disease. The most common symptoms observed are excessive loss of salts upon sweating and the mucus accumulation majorly in lungs and intestine. Along by these major problems, the other medical problems consider are, following sinusitis, nasal polyps, pneumothorax, liver disease, inflammation in pancreas, diabetes, also occur with CF [Steven et al., 2000]. This disorder is more common in white people, Americans, Europeans, and Canadians; and less common in Africans and Asians.

In 1985, it was proved that CF locus was linked to DNA polymorphism, and the gene for CF is positioned on the longest arm of human chromosome 7 [Davies et al., 2007]. Later, progressive fragments of DNA associated with CF gene were found. From all the linkagedisequilibrium data collected it is implied that the CF chromosome in a large proportion of cases arose from mutational events. Mutations in the gene encoding CFTR pump, it comprises of 27 exons and is situated on chromosome 7 [Davies et al., 2007]. The most common mutation observed in CF is the deletion of phenylalanine codon 508 (phe508del, until recently known as Δ F508). This occurs in about 70% of patients [Davies et al., 2007]. Although CFTR is expressed in many of the internal organ, but most effected organs are Intestine, lungs, and reproductive tract [Coffey et al., 2019]. Pulmonary CF is the most lethal. Air epithelia in defective cases have high rates of sodium adsorption which dehydrates the airways and impairs mucus transport. As the mucus gets more and more viscous the mucociliary clearance mechanism (MCC) becomes unable to clear the microbial infection. The second major organ impacted is the gastrointestinal tract [Coffey et al., 2019]. Dysfunction of the CFTR also results in an altered intestinal condition which is a reduced concentration of Bicarbonate and low ph in intestinal, delayed intestinal transit, and an impaired innate immunity and the problem continues from childhood to adulthood [Coffey et al., 2019].

2.1 Cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator (CFTR)

Protein encoded by CFTR gene is Pump which is C-AMP regulated (Cyclic-AMP) which is situated in the exocrine epithelial cells of the apical membrane. This pump functions to regulate the ion flow along the trans-epithelial layer, which is important for maintaining the proper ionic composition. [Rafeeq et al., 2017]. It is also involved in the other process involved in the regulation of the bicarbonate, sodium channels, and the pH of the intracellular organelles and the cell. In a normal human, the isotonic secretions travel from the acinus of the sweat gland to the skin surface, epithelial cell lining of the duct reabsorbs NaCl resulting in hypertonic solution [Rafeeq et al., 2017].

CFTR is basically phosphorylation regulated, ATP-dependent Cl-channel. It belongs to the family of ATP-binding cassette (ABC transporter) family. This pump has two NBD (Nucleotide binding domain), along with two membrane spanning domain [Cotton et al., 1996]. In the ABC family the cell uses ATP and pump out solutes uphill against the concentration gradients, as ATP bind transporter show conformational changes, that leads to hydrolysis of ATP, and rearrangements in the transmembrane domains, which allow substrate to move alternately exposed sides of the membrane. [Miller, 2010]. CFTR has two remarkable distinctions, one that it is only ion channel in ABC family and other is that it is the only ATP gated channel [Hwang and Kirk, 2013]. CFTR pumps out chloride and bicarbonate ion. As, transport domains have two NBD and MBD, the cycle began with the appropriate substrate binding to MBD [Vallières, 2014]. After, this ligation of ATP to NBD, there is subsequent dimerization, binding of ATP provides energy for the release of bound substrate. Later, ATP is hydrolyzed, NBD destabilised, ADP and Pi released and protein gets in original space [Vallières, 2014].

2.2 Mutations in CF

Genes for CF are present on chromosome 7. Most of the common mutation found in CFTR is at position 508 for phenylalanine, present in NBD1(N-terminal cytoplasmic) [Thibodeau et al., 2010]. A single Aa deletion leads to results in dramatic reduction of mature CFTR protein. The undeveloped state of a protein is recognized by the cell, it is arrested in the intermediate conformational and targeted for the degradation process by ubiquitination [Thibodeau et al., 2010]. Five major classes of mutations have been reported in CFTR gene [Burney and Davies, 2012]. These are summarized in Table 1.

Class of mutation	Effect due to mutation	Problem caused due to mutation
Class 1	Failure to reach the membrane due to incorrect folding	Protein production mutations
Class 2	Commonest Caucasian defect is Phe508Del	Mutations lead to protein processing
Class 3	Defects in gating	Gating mutations
Class 4	Conductance	Transfer mutations
Class 5	Abnormally low channel numbers	Insufficient protein mutations

Table 1. Mutations classes in CFTR gene in CF patients

Mutated CFTR becomes impermeable to chloride ions and alters the surface of airways in CF patients, making it a chronic infection [Steven et al., 2000]. The Patch clamp technique is used to observe single-channel activity that suggests the defect in the regulation of the chloride-channels [Steven et al., 2000]. The associated other responses like neutrophilic inflammatory responses, pulmonary failure can be the cause of death in CF [LiPuma, 2010].

2.3 Microbes and human body

The human body has 10¹³ cells and harbours 10¹⁴ numbers of microflora. This is normal microflora and is relatively stable in the specific individual in a complete life. The role of this microflora is far beyond the local environment [Belkaid and Hand, 2015]. The study of the oral-lung and gut-lung axes has shown it to be essential for disease etiology and treatment. Dysbiosis of these microbes is associated with the alteration of an individual's immune response. This review discusses the role of lung microbiota and cross-talk between oral-lung and gut-lung axis in the case of CF [Belkaid and Hand, 2015]. Trillions of microbes are associated with humans and act as a major factor in their healthiness and disease. Human microbial community include Bacteria, virus, archaebacterial, and eukaryotic microbes. The

vital part of human microbiota is explained via several mechanisms [Françoise and Héry-Arnaud, 2020]. The most important role of microbiota has the potential to increase the arte extraction rate of energy from the food, also with this it increase nutrient harvest and alter appetite signalling. Along with this it provide a barrier that protects the host from foreign pathogens via the prohibiting as well as by producing antimicrobial substances [Françoise and Héry-Arnaud, 2020]. Several bacterial communities that inhabit various organs, and tissues of the human body, for example, gut, skin, lung, etc. are also important for their role in maintaining tissue, organ and immune homeostasis. Microbiota is also known as for promoting a state of immune tolerance to prevent inflammatory response caused by inhalation of harmful substances and maintain homeostasis [Françoise and Héry-Arnaud, 2020]. Microbes in the human body is in a symbiotic relationship that is coevolved and coexisted [Beck et al., 2012]. Commensal bacteria colonize just after birth and grow as a community with the growth of the host. To characterize importance of microbes in health and disease it is important to understand their functions in a healthy individual. Germ-free animals, mostly mice, have been used for decades to find the relationship between the host and microbiota. The health condition of the host is greatly impacted by the diversity of resident microbes [Beck et al., 2012]. Microbiomes of oral cavity and gastrointestinal tract have been implicated in maintaining homeostasis with the immune system. Cross-talk between oral-lung and gastrointestinal tract-lung has been suggested through studying the role of oral and gut microbes in respiratory disease such as asthma [Kilian et al., 2016].

2.4 Microbiome of oral cavity and gastrointestinal tract

Microbes are important for human physiology and health. The strategy adopted for studying human microbes involve clinical, technical, analytical and translational steps [Dumas et al., 2018]. The details are presented in Table 2.

Steps	Details
Clinical	Procedural details, sample type obtained, sample processing
Technical	Characterization of bacterial, viral and fungal microbiota, Inter- kingdom microbe and host interactions
Analytical	Functional properties of the microbiome
Translational	Use of relevant animals or other models to understand mechanism of human microbe observation

Table 2. Strategy adopted for studying human microbes

Different microbial habitats such as teeth, cheeks, lips, hard palate are present in mouth/oral cavity [Dewhirst et al. 2010]. 13 phyla and 619 are reported in HOMD (Human oral microbiome Database) [Dewhirst et al. 2010]. Salivary components of the oral cavity, for example, secretory immunoglobin A (IgA are the primary nutritional source for the microorganisms. These, directly and indirectly, regulate the microbiome and are important for balanced microbiome growth [Dewhirst et al. 2010].

The role of salivary flow and microaspiration is the pathway to foster lung microbe. The composition of oral and lung microbe is almost similar, but some of the microbes are specific to the lungs, and they eliminate common bacterial such as *Prevotella* sp. [Gaeckle et al., 2020]. A healthy gut microbe shows a huge bacterial diversity and richness. The gastrointestinal tract shows the best host-associated microbiota that increases in diversity along with the gastrointestinal tract. Interpersonal variations in the gut microbiota arise due to genetics as well as prevailing environment including lifestyle, diet, pH, bile concentration, digestion retention time and host defense factors [Budden et al., 2016]. Considering all these disparities, the gut microbiota is dominated by four major bacterial phyla, with the lesser and, sporadic representation of other phyla, including Fusobacteria, verrumicrobia and spirochaetes [Cani, 2018]. In total 14 bacterial genera and 150 bacterial species are known to inhabit the gut. In addition to the bacterial species, gut microbiota also consists of phages, yeast, and fungi [Kho and Lal, 2018]. Gut microbiota is essential to the host digestive system and generates nutrients

by using a substrate that cannot be digested by the host alone. For example, digestion of xyloglucan found in dietary vegetable lettuce and onions is facilitated by microbial gene products. Genes for xyloglucan digestion have been reported in Bacteroides in 92% of individuals [Shreiner et al., 2015].

Variations in gut microbiota also have a profound influence on immune response and disease susceptibility. Microbiomes of the gastrointestinal tract always maintain homeostasis with the immune system. Microbial dysbiosis at the phylum level in the gastrointestinal tract causes metabolic disorders including IBD, asthma, obesity and, diabetes [Cani, 2018]. APC have a key feature, as their ability to protect the body against infection and maintaining immune tolerance. Example, Dendritic cell of Peyer's patches and dendritic cell of spleen triggered by same ag DC of Peyer's patches will produce interleukin-10 (IL-10) in higher amounts than the splenic DC [Wu and Wu, 2012]. In the case of B-cells, mostly IL-10 is found in Peyer's patches and the most secreted form is IgA. Major driving force for the production of secreted forms of IgA is gut microbiota. [Wu and Wu, 2012].

From the mucosal and systematic immune system revealed that the, systematic is independent and highly specialised, whereas mucosal immune system undergoes major changes after bacterial colonization [Lazar et al., 2018]. Immune receptors like toll-like receptors (TLRs) from lymphoid cells and membrane epithelial cells of small intestine are involved in the differential recognition and responsible for normal development [Lazar et al., 2018]. Receptors like NLRs nod like receptors, recognize various microbial specific mol and initiate the assembly of inflammasomes, it acts as a sensor damage- associated patterns [Lazar et al., 2018]. Many of the metabolites produced include Folate, indoles, secondary bile acids, SCFAs. [Hufnagl et al., 2020].

SCFAs are most investigated, which are produced by the anaerobic bacteria. Besides of serving an important energy source, SCFAs are critical for maintaining and regulating Immune system and its response [Hufnagl et al., 2020].

2.5 Lung microbiota

Lungs were considered sterile organs for a long time, but advanced technology enabled the detection of the microbial community of lung. Microbial sampling in the lungs is much more difficult as a consequence of low biomass and contamination from oral cavities [Dumas et al.,

2018]. Lung microbiota analysis is mainly based on metagenomics using RNA sequencing. The composition of bacteria differs in upper and lower respiratory tract showing niche-specific microbial colonization [Dumas et al., 2018]. It is observed that some bacterial community is shared between the oral cavity and the lungs, as it is needed in the lungs. The human major gut and lung also share similar microbiota composition at the phylum level but differ in the species composition [Dewhirst et al., 2010]. Lung microbes composition is eepnd upon factor that are immigration, microbial elimination and regional growth conditions [Mathieu et al., 2018]. Physiological factors including nutrient, oxygen tension, blood flow, local pH and temperature also influence bacterial population [Mathieu et al., 2018]. Selective elimination and migration [Wang et al., 2017]. The processes involving microbial immigration and elimination are listed in Table 3. However, this balance is disturbed in case of lung diseases. In most healthy population, environment is not conductive for bacterial community development.As a consequence, lungs have a comparatively low microbial biomass, however, they are exposed to continuous entry of microorganisms [Wang et al., 2017].

 Table 3. Balance between microbial immigration and elimination maintains lung

 microbiota

Microbial immigration	Microbial elimination
Inhalation	Cough
Micro-aspiration	Immunity (innate adaptive host defense)
Mucosal dispersion	Mucociliary clearance

Dysbiosis of microbiomes in lungs affects metabolic, inflammatory or immune pathways [Mao et al., 2018]. Healthy lung microbes belong to the phylum Bacteroidetes, Actinobacteria and Firmicutes. In case of respiratory infections microbes found in more abundance are Proteobacteria [Hufnagl et al., 2020]. This dysbiosis activates inflammatory pathways that contribute to hyperbronchial responsiveness and bronchoconstriction. Outer environment factor can affect Lung microbiota both positively and negatively [Hufnagl et al., 2020]. Antibiotics, antiulcer medications severely impaired gut and leads to a dysfunctional microbial community. Dysbiosis result in the lack of microbes which ultimately leads to dysregulation of the gut-lung cross talk, resulting in hypersensitivity and hyperactivity [Hufnagl et al., 2020].

In case of asthma, patients have lower microbial diversity but some of the species that increase in the number include phylum Proteobacteria and *H. influenzae* [Hufnagl et al., 2020]. Lack of microbial diversity clues to weakening of the immune system (pulmonary) resulting in the host vulnerable to lung disorder [Hufnagl et al., 2020].

2.6 Cross talk between gut-lung axis

Microbes play a very important role in maintaining and regulating immune response in addition to maintaining host immune homeostasis. Lung microorganisms are important for the homoeostasis of lung immune response and its dysbiosis could invoke host immune response.

The healthy hallmark gut and lung axis is the rich microbe diversity. An adjacent connection is observed in between the lung and gut microbe and the two affect each other's composition [Enaud et al., 2020]. Although the site-specific microbiota provides local immunization, a long-reaching impact of gut microbe is observed on pulmonary immune system [Enaud et al., 2020]. The intact bacteria, their metabolites and their fragments can translocate crossways of the intestinal barrier via the mesenteric lymphatic system, and are associated with Respiratory disease [Enaud et al., 2020]. Thus, bidirectional cross-talking amongst gut and lung, creates a relation that dysbiosis in one organ affects the other [Enaud et al., 2020]. A mechanism is followed by gut microbe to influence the immune response and inflammation in the lungs includes T-cells subsets, TLRs, inflammatory cytokines and surfactants [Enaud et al., 2020].

In a pre-clinical model, infection due to influenza has been shown to trigger an increased proportion of Enterobacteriaceae and decreased abundance of Lactococci and Lactobacilli [Enaud et al., 2020]. Lymphoid cells of innate adaptive system shows tissue repair have been shown to recruit from gut to lung in response the interleukin 25 (IL-25) [Enaud et al., 2020]. The glucopyranosyl lipid adjuvant (GLA) immunization results from the complex interaction between the gut-lung axis microbe with a local and long leaving effect of the immune system [Enaud et al., 2020]. The immunization of gut depends on the lung APCs (dendritic, macrophages and B-cells) and influenza infections that modulates the microbiota of gut[Zhang et al., 2020]. The nasal inoculation by salmonella provides a specific immunization that depends on lung dendritic cells [Zhang et al., 2020]. In people suffering from chronic obstructive pulmonary disorder (COPD), change in gut microbiota is observed that is associated with change in the modulation of innate immunity and for the systematic immunization [Zhang et al., 2020]. SCFAs, one of the most widely recognised metabolites

produced by gut microbiota, are produced through fermentation and involved in lung-gut axis [Cait et al., 2017]. SCFAs generated by gut microbes control immune system and participate in the increase in allergic reactions, as example, in modulating the immune system in case of asthma [Cait et al., 2017]. SCFAs also act as the lung's signalling molecules APCs to increase the rate of inflammatory and allergic reactions [Cait et al., 2017]. SCFAs act as a potent anti-inflammation molecule and release of cytokines molecule induce apoptosis [Vaughan et al., 2019]. In asthma patients, a shift is observed in the metabolite production from SCFAs toward the production of carbohydrates, amino acids and lipids. Asthma is majorly due to Th2 cell respone. (Vaughan et al., 2019). SCFAs are also produced during cystic fibrosis, as the hypoxic environment airways allow the growth of the facultative anaerobic bacteria which produce SCFA through fermentation [Vaughan et al., 2019]. A progressive correlation between SCFA and sputum neutrophil count has been suggested. The amount of SCFA present in the airways affects granulocyte colony-stimulating factor, granulocyte-macrophage colony stimulating factor and IL-6. [LiPuma et al., 2010].

Segmented factor bacteria (SFB) are long-reaching immune effectors components, also commensal bacteria that colonize ileum of most animals, and involve in modulation of immune system [Enaud et al., 2020]. SFBs also regulate polarization ofCD4+ T-cell pathway, which work in response to fungal infections and lung autoimmune manifestations [Enaud et al., 2020].

2.7 Major microbiota in CF

High rate of mortality and morbidity in CF is due to the infection in the airways. [Zemanick and Hoffman, 2016]. Traditional CF respiratory pathogens show three major feature are a) Diverse in nature b) Polymicrobial in nature c) Continuous evolution. [Zemanick and Hoffman, 2016].

When Cf was recognized in 1938, it was linked with *S. aureus*. It was thought that *S. aureus* play a critical role in mortality rate [Hauser et al., 2011]. In 1950s, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* is also added in Cf pathogen list, by 1970s, *Burkholderia cepacia* complex (BCC) is added and were recognized as a major pathogen, as they are associated with rapid declines in pulmonary function, bacteremia, and increased mortality [Hauser et al., 2011]. A pattern of contagion is observed in most of the patients, initially infection began with *S. aureus* and *H. influenzae* in new-born and ends with *P. aeruginosa* in adolescence. Bacteria colonising Lung in CF moderately controlled by antibiotics, with the exception of *Pseudomonas* and *Burkholderia*

species which leads to the contagion infection and high mortality [Hutchison and Govan, 1999]. As, the treatment become more effective and improved for most of the conventional pathogens, this leads to discovery of new pathogens [Surette, 2014]. It has been recognized that lower airways in pateints are colonized by more poly microbila community. [Surette, 2014]. A list of conventional and evolving pathogens in CF lung infections is given in Table 4.

Conventional	Emerging
Pseudomonas aeruginosa	Stenotrophomonas maltophilia
Staphylococcus aureus Staphylococcus	Methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus
aureus	aureus (MRSA)
H. influenzae	Achromobacter spp
BCC	Mycobacterium abscessus
(Burkholdera cepacia complex)	
Stenotrophomonas	Streptococcus milleri / anginosus group
	Aspergillus fumigatus*

Table 4. Pathogens in CF lung infections (Fungal pathogen)*

Pseudomonas aeruginosa, Staphylococcus aureus and *BCC* are major bacterial classes [LiPuma et al., 2010], have an important in the life expectancy of the patient. *B. cepacia* known as versatile organism and a plant phytogen [Woodhead et al., 2001]. From past few decades it emerged as pathogen with devastating effects in the CF community. Its pulmonary colonisation accelerates the decline in the lung function. *B. cepacia* cause a rapid pneumonic illness "cepacia syndrome", also the *B. cepacia* is highly transmissible and resistant to most of the antibiotics [Woodhead et al., 2001].

B. cepacia show transcriptional reprogramming when the host immune system response, in case of antimicrobial therapy, in response to the nutrient availability and limitation of oxygen [Scoffone et al., 2017]. *B. cepacia* is due to the overexpression of the efflux pumps, up to 5 family of transporters are involved which include major facilitator superfamily (MFC), ATP-binding cassette family, small multidrug resistance family (SMR), the resistance nodulation family (RND) [Zlosnik et al., 2015]. Virulence factor expressed by *B. cepacia* those intercat with host, that leads to greater mortality and morbidity associated with pathogens. [Woodhead

et al., 2001]. Endotoxin act as virulence factor, in *B. cepacia* infection. Isolated lipopolysaccharides (ILPs) of *B. cepacia* are nine times more virulent than *P. aeruginosa* [Woodhead et al., 2001].

Staphylococcus aureus, gram positive nonmotile, non-spore-forming, unencapsulated most common and the first recovered pathogen of Cf patient. The overall increase in rate of infection in S. aureus is because of the Methicillin-resistant S. aureus (MRSA) in the people a variant of original S. aureus [LiPuma et al., 2010]. Increase in frequency of infection with the MRSA, is for person of every age but highest frequency is for the teen-agers, aged between 11 to 17 years [Razvi et al., 2009]. MRSA is unique from other strains as they have either beta-lactams or carry mec A gene, which encode for the resistance [Zemanick and Hoffman, 2016]. Another variant of S. aureus, is SCVs (small colony variants), which are slow growing, antibiotic resistant. Patients with infection of SCVs are found to have a, lower lung infection, and show a faster rate in decline of lung functions [Hoffman et al., 2006]. SCVs are known for resistance to aminoglycoside and persistence in infections, as in CF [Hoffman et al., 2006]. Pseudomonas aeruginosa, is proven to be the responsible for chronic infection of lung, leads to ultimate high mortality rate [Lyczak et al., 2002]. Infection with the P. aeruginosa cause damage to epithelia surface, airway plugging, impairing way [Lyczak et al., 2002]. Chronic contagion with P. aeruginosa is major factor responsible for morbidity and mortality [Hutchison and Govan, 1999].

2.8 B-cell and T-cell epitope recognition

Development of pathogen specific memory that provides immunological function is a key characteristic of B-cell and T-cell epitopes. Their ability to recognize specific Ag, in pathogens via the specific receptors is effective and important function. Humoral immune response, respond to invading pathogen by Ag-Ab interactions. For every ag, there is an Ab, for the discrete regions known as ag determinants. Ability of B-cell to access the cluster of Aa, which are recognized by secreted form of Ab, and able to elicit the immune response.

B-cell receptors (membrane-bound immunoglobulins), recognize solvent-exposed Ags. Activation of B-cells leads a process known as differentiation of B-cells in effector cell (Ab secreting cells), secrete Ab, and memory cells. Function of Ab is to neutralize and destruct pathogens. Ag portion that bind to ab is B-cell epitope. It may consist of exposed solvent region in Ag.

Receptors of T-cell are specific that enables them to recognize when they are bound to MHC and displayed on APCs. Epitopes for T-cell are presented by Class 1 MHC and class 2 MHC that are further recognized by different class of T-cells, CD8 and CD4. CD8 are Cytotoxic T-cells and CD4 become Th (helper cells). Th cell amplify the immune response, differentiate in to 3 major classes: Th1, Th2 and Th3.

CHAPTER 3

MATERIALS AND METHODS

So far, we have discussed how the infection by microbes in cystic fibrosis cause the major problem increasing the mortality rate. Major bacteria of the lung implicated in CF were analysed for B-cell and T-cell epitopes by using various Bioinformatics tools. Three bacteria were selected on the basis of associated high mortality in CF. These include *Pseudomonas aeruginosa, Staphylococcus aureus* and *Burkholderia cepacian*.

3.1 Tools used in B-cell epitope, T-cell epitope and Ab prediction

Bioinformatics tools used in epitope and Ab prediction included Immune Epitope Database and Analysis Resource (IEDB), UniProt, Protein Data Bank (PDB), Bepipred, DiscoTope, Phyre^2, FirstGlance in Jmol.

3.1.1 Immune Epitope Database and Analysis Resource (IEDB)

IEDB is tool that assist in biomedical research, therapeutics, and vaccine design. It is freely available, and provide access to variety of epitope analysis and prediction tools. Tools in IEDB also validate methods of prediction to bind with class I and 2 MHC. It can be combined with other tools, for the better result. In addition to this secondary analysis tools are associated with IEDB to calculate relevant analytic variables, epitope conservation, and coverage of population. Data in IEDB is vast and experimentally derived. It is also linked to other pathogen-specific and immunological database. An extensive data of experimentally measured epitopes, and tools for their prediction is present along within IEDB.

3.1.2 UniProt

It is known as a resource for protein, their sequence and data annotation. It also consists of UniprotKB, UniprotRef, Uniparc. It is freely accessible and provide information of protein data sequence. Data in Uniprot is managed by consortium, it combines European Bioinformatics

institute (EBI), Swiss institute of Bioinformatics (SIB) and Protein Information Resource (PIR).

3.1.3 Protein Data Bank (PDB)

It is a data base for large molecules, consist of Primary structural database. It includes X-ray crystallography, NMR and Cryo-electron microscopy. Structured files can be viewed in free at open source computer programs, such as Jmol, VMD. Data stored in PDB is a reflection of ongoing research. PDB have structural information for proteins and nucleic acid. It also shows data for ribosome, for whole virus, oncogenes and drug targets.

3.1.4 Bepipred

It is a server for the prediction of B-cell epitopes from ag sequence. Its prediction method is based on Markov model and a propensity scale method for B-cell linear epitope.

3.1.5 DiscoTope

It is a tool for the prediction of discontinuous epitopes in 3D structure of protein in the PDB format. It combines spatial properties of proteins and surface localization with a propensity scale. It is based on Aa stat, and accessibility to surface epitopes determined by X-ray crystallography of antibody/antigen protein complexes. It is 1st method for discontinuous epitope prediction.

3.1.6 Phyre²

It is web tool to predict and analyse the structure of protein, mutations and functions. Main focus of the tool is to provide simple and informative result. It use advanced homology based detection based method, and build 3D model, than predict ligand binding sites, and give analysed result. It can be used to check both 3D and 2d models. The server is available on at http://www.sbg.bio.ic.ac.uk/phyre2. It take 30 minutes to 2hours for one prediction.

3.1.7 FirstGlance in Jmol

It is web tool, free and open source for molecule visualization. It use Jmol, also a free open source for final result. It works in all windows and IOS. It provide tooltips extensively, and explanatory which appear automatically. The major macromolecules can be turned in to 3D structure are Protein, DNA, RNA, ligand and solvent. It reveals secondary structure, Aa and carboxy termini, salt bridges and cation-pi interactions. This is the most advanced tool available for students.

3.2 Steps involved in epitopes and Ab prediction

- Step 1. Open the IEDB (IEDB.org) in browser
- Step 2. Type the organism's name in the search bar of epitope source
- Step 3. Select epitope type as linear
- Step 4. In assay select T-cell, B-cell and MHC ligand
- Step 5. In MHC restriction select any
- Step 6. In host select Human (For this case)
- Step 7. In disease section, add cystic fibrosis
- Step 8. Press the search button
- Step 9. If epitope data is present inside the software, it will appear in result
- Step 10. Copy antigen and organism name on the UniProt search bar
- Step 11. Select the FASTA sequence for the same organism and antigen
- Step 12. Copy FASTA sequence in to the word, find the similar epitope in FASTA as mentioned for the antigen on IEDB
- Step 13. If the epitope of the organism is present in the FASTA, then proceed for next step
- Step 14. Go back to the IEDB home page
- Step 15. Select B-cell epitope prediction tools
- Step 16. Select prediction of linear epitopes from protein sequence

- Step 17. Copy the epitope sequence selected earlier, on the tool and submit
- Step 18. Select the longest peptide from the result
- Step 19. The longest one is the B-cell epitope
- Step 20. Next step is to predict the T-cell epitope for both class MHC1 and MHC2
- Step 21. For T-cell prediction, go back to IEDB home page and select the T-cell epitope prediction tools
- Step 22. Select the Tepi tool on the page
- Step 23. Copy the longest peptide of B-cell on the page and press next
- Step 24. Select human in host species and class 1 in allele
- Step 25. Press the next button
- Step 26. On next page select the specific alleles and press next
- Step 27. Select apply default settings for low number of peptides, for the selected peptides to be included and press next
- Step 28. For the selection of peptide and prediction, select IEDB recommended, for prediction method to use and select peptides based on predicted percentile rank for selection of predicted peptides
- Step 29. Press submit
- Step 30. Result will be in tabular form
- Step 31. For class, MHC2, go on the T-cell epitope prediction and click on the tepi tool
- Step 32. Select human for host, and class2 for allele class
- Step 33. For specific alleles, select Predict for pre-selected panel of alleles
- Step 34. Select apply default setting for low number of peptides, for peptides to be included in prediction
- Step 35. For the selection of peptide and prediction, select IEDB recommended, for prediction method to use and select peptides based on predicted percentile rank for selection of predicted peptides

Step 36. Press next, and submit

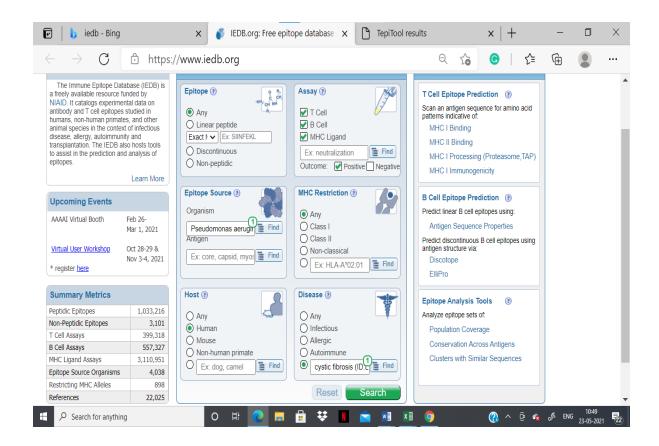
Step 37. Result will be in tabular form

By using the same tools and steps, B-cell and T-cell epitopes are predicted for all the infectious microbiota in case of disease cystic fibrosis

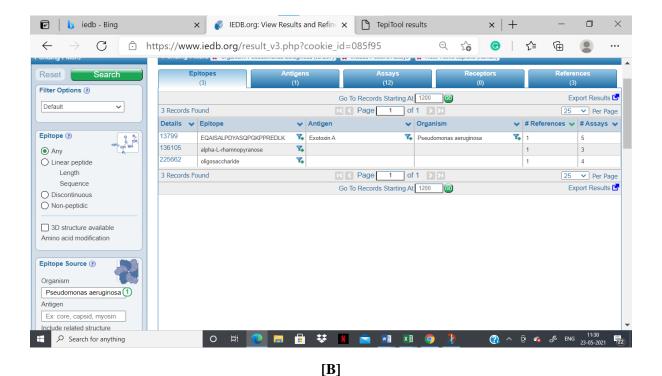
Step 38. Add Ag name in PDB

Step 39. Find the PDB Id

- Step 40. Copy this PDB Id in DiscoTope
- Step 41. Result from DiscoTope predicts the discontinuous epitope
- Step 42. Enter the PDB id in Bepipred, it will predict the linear epitope
- Step 43. For the 3D structure of the ag, use tool Phyre^2
- Step 44. Download this 3D structure, using First glance mol (Using jmol)This tool uses sequence alignment method, for generation of a 3D generation



[A]



	V D T(T		v	1		0
Image: Second	× TepiTool res	sult 🗙 🔝 exotoxin	a psel X	+	_	
$\leftarrow ightarrow extbf{C}$ A Not secure tools.iedb.org/main/tce	ell/	1	G G	£≡	(Ħ	•
Overview T Cell Tools B Cell Tools Analysis Tools Tools-API	Usage Download	Datasets Contril	oute Tools	Reference	95	
Cell Epitope Prediction Tools						
T Cell Epitopes - MHC Binding Prediction						
These tools predict IC50 values for peptides binding to specific I recognition by T cells.	VIHC molecules. No	ote that binding to N	IHC is nece	essary bu	it not su	fficient fo
Peptide binding to MHC class I molecules						
This tool will take in an amino acid sequence, or set of s MHC class I molecule.	sequences and dete	ermine each subse	quence's a	ability to	bind to	a specif
Peptide binding to MHC class II molecules						
This tool employs different methods to predict MHC Clas	ss II epitopes, inclu	iding a consensus	approach	which co	mbines	NN-alig
SMM-align and Combinatorial library methods.						
TepiTool: The Tepitool provides prediction of peptides binding to N	AHC class I and cla	ss II molecules. Tr	ol is desir	uned as a	wizard	l with 6 a
as described below. Each field (except sequences and a	lleles) is filled with	default recommer	ided settiñ	igs for pr	edictior	n and
selection of optimum peptides. The input parameters ca to change your selection before submission of the job. (Once you submit th	e job (at the end	of step-6),	yoū will		
make any more changes and will have to start the predi	iction all over agair	n with updated inp	ut parame	ters.		
T Cell Epitopes - Processing Prediction						
		н				
P Search for anything O 🖽 👩 🛱	👯 👖 🚖 🛛	/i 🗴 🌖 🤱	<u>(</u>)	^ ĝ 🝖	d ENG	12:10 23-05-2021
	[C]					
🖻 🛛 🔥 iedb - Bing 🛛 🗙 🛛 💕 IEDB.org: Free 🗙 🎦 TepiTool	× C TepiTool res	sult 🗙 📔 💭 exotoxin	a pse 🗙 📔	+	—	٥
\leftarrow $ ightarrow$ \bigcirc	/	٢	6 6	5_≡	Ē	•
		Current select	ions:			
		No. of sequence Host species	es 1 Human			
		Allele class	Class I			
Steps 1 2 3 4 5 6			1. A*01:0 2. A*02:0			

		No. of sequences	1
		Host species	Human
		Allele class	Class I
Steps 1 2 3 4 5 ALLELES - Specify all Alleles		Selected alleles Reset alleles	1. A*01:01 2. A*02:01 3. A*02:03 4. A*02:06 5. A*03:01 6. A*11:01 7. A*23:01 8. A*24:02 9. A*26:01 10. A*30:02 12. A*31:01 13. A*32:01 14. A*33:01 15. A*68:01
Start Over Back	Next		16. A*68:02 17. B*07:02 18. B*08:01
			19. B*15:01 20. B*35:01 21. B*40:01 22. B*44:02 23. B*44:03 24. B*51:01 25. B*52:01
$\mathcal P$ Search for anything	o 🛱 💽 🛱 🖶 🐱 🔳 💼 💆	×II 🧿 🤱	^ 🚯

[D]

\rightarrow	C A	Not secure	tools.iedb	.org/tepitool/				ĩo	G		£≡	Ē		
redictio	n results - con	cise (Downlo	ad table 🔊											
	-			Percentile rank • •										
1	24		RLIGHPLPL		HLA-A*32:01									
1	24 24	32	RLIGHPLPL	0.05	HLA-A*02:03 HLA-A*02:01									
1	3		LPGFYRTGL		HLA-A*02.01 HLA-B*07:02									
1	17	25		0.08	HLA-B 07:02 HLA-A*68:02									
1	24		RLIGHPLPL		HLA-A*02:06									
1	24	32			HLA-B*40:01									
1	5		GFYRTGLTL		HLA-A*23:01									
1	28	36			HLA-B*07:02									
1	17	25			HLA-A*26:01									
1	24		RLIGHPLPL		HLA-B*15:01									
1	24	32	RLIGHPLPL	0.47	HLA-B*08:01									
1	25	33	LIGHPLPLR	0.49	HLA-A*31:01									
1	5	13	GFYRTGLTL	0.54	HLA-A*24:02									
1	24	32	RLIGHPLPL	0.55	HLA-A*30:01									
1	26	34	IGHPLPLRL	0.57	HLA-B*51:01									
1	39	47	GPEEEGGRL	0.6	HLA-B*07:02									
, С Sea	rch for anything		o H	💿 📻 🔒 :	V 🔳 🚖	w∎ ×∄	Q		<u>(?)</u>	~ ĝ	ji 🕋	c∄ ENG	13:42 23-05-202	
							_						23-05-202	

Figure 1 [A to E]. Windows observed for B-cell and T-cell epitope prediction (Image reference: IEDB.org)

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The epitope prediction results obtained for the selected microbes, namely, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa, Staphylococcus aureus* and *Burkholderia cepacia* are presented here. Using, IEDB tool antigen and its epitope were predicted in interested bacteria. FASTA sequence for the same Ag was extracted from Uniprot. Longest peptide was selected using B-cell linear epitope predictor on IEDB home page. Using Bepipred, graph for the linear epitope was predicted. In Bepipred, yellow part indicated the probability to be a part of epitope during binding to Ab (Parameters such as hydrophilicity, flexibility, accessibility, turns, exposed surface, polarity and antigenic propensity are considered). Using DiscoTope, the region of Ab binding site on actual Ag on surface of Ag was predicted (only represented for chain A). In DiscoTope, green predictions were the positive one; peach were negative ones. 3D structure of Ag was created using Phyre^2 and animated version was created by using Firstglance in Jmol.

4.1 Epitopes and Ab prediction in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*

Organism name: Pseudomonas aeruginosa

Epitope: EQAISALPDYASQPGKPPREDLK

Antigen: Exotoxin A

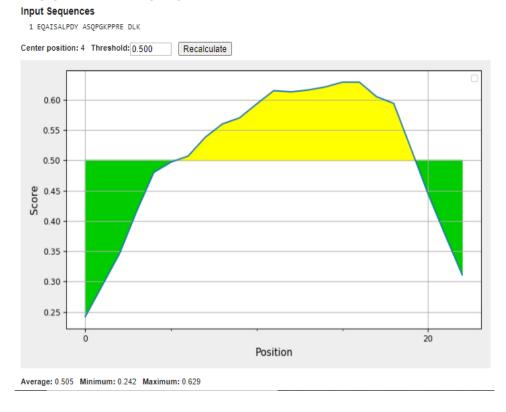
FASTA result:

MHLTPHWIPLVASLGLLAGGSFASAAEEAFDLWNECAKACVLDLKDGVRSSRMSVDPAIA DTNGQGVLHYSMVLEGGNDALKLAIDNALSITSDGLTIRLEGGVEPNKPVRYSYTRQARG SWSLNWLVPIGHEKPSNIKVFIHELNAGNQLSHMSPIYTIEMGDELLAKLARDATFFVRA HESNEMQPTLAISHAGVSVVMAQAQPRREKRWSEWASGKVLCLLDPLDGVYNYLAQQRCN LDDTWEGKIYRVLAGNPAKHDLDIKPTVISHRLHFPEGGSLAALTAHQACHLPLETFTRH RQPRGWEQLEQCGYPVQRLVALYLAARLSWNQVDQVIRNALASPGSGGDLGEAIREQPEQ ARLALTLAAAESERFVRQGTGNDEAGAASADVVSLTCPVAAGECAGPADSGDALLERNYP TGAEFLGDGGDISFSTRGTQNWTVERLLQAHRQLEERGYVFVGYHGTFLEAAQSIVFGGV RARSQDLDAIWRGFYIAGDPALAYGYAQDQEPDARGRIRNGALLRVYVPRSSLPGFYRTG LTLAAPEAAGEVERLIGHPLPLRLDAITGPEEEGGRLETILGWPLAERTVVIPSAIPTDP RNVGGDLDPSSIPDK<mark>EQAISALPDYASQPGKPPREDLK</mark>

B-cell epitope

SSLPGFYRTGLTLAAPEAAGEVERLIGHPLPLRLDAITGPEEEGGRLET (49) (Longest peptide selected)

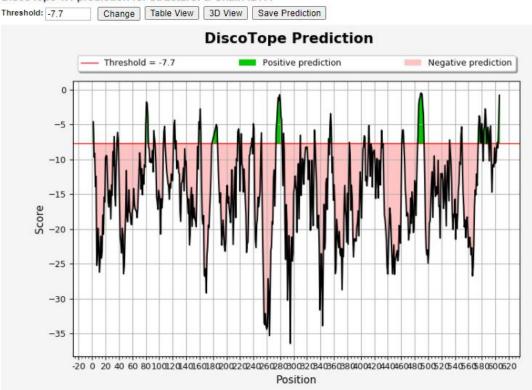
Bepipred result



Bepipred Linear Epitope Prediction 2.0 Results

Figure 2. Bepipred, linear epitope graph representation for antigen Exotoxin A (*Pseudomonas aeruginosa*) [X-axis represents residue positions in the sequence; Y-axis represents correspondent score]

DiscoTope result



DiscoTope: Structure based antibody prediction.

DiscoTope 1.1 prediction for structure: & Chain ID: A

Figure 3.DiscoTope structure based Ab prediction rule (*Pseudomonas aeruginosa*)(B-cell epitope from the discontinuous epitopes from 3D structures of
proteins in PDB format) Green predictions are the positive one; Peach are
negative ones

Seq #	Peptide start	eptide start Peptide end Peptide P		Percentile rank	Allele
1	24	32	RLIGHPLPL	0.05	HLA-A*32:01
1	24	32	RLIGHPLPL	0.05	HLA-A*02:03
1	24	32	RLIGHPLPL	0.06	HLA-A*02:01
1	3	11	LPGFYRTGL	0.07	HLA-B*07:02
1	17	25	EAAGEVERL	0.08	HLA-A*68:02
1	24	32	RLIGHPLPL	0.11	HLA-A*02:06
1	22	30	VERLIGHPL	0.14	HLA-B*40:01
1	5	13	GFYRTGLTL	0.35	HLA-A*23:01
1	28	36	HPLPLRLDA	0.35	HLA-B*07:02
1	17	25	EAAGEVERL	0.4	HLA-A*26:01
1	24	32	RLIGHPLPL	0.41	HLA-B*15:01
1	24	32	RLIGHPLPL	0.47	HLA-B*08:01
1	25	33	LIGHPLPLR	0.49	HLA-A*31:01
1	5	13	GFYRTGLTL	0.54	HLA-A*24:02
1	24	32	RLIGHPLPL	0.55	HLA-A*30:01
1	26	34	IGHPLPLRL	0.57	HLA-B*51:01
1	39	47	GPEEEGGRL	0.6	HLA-B*07:02
1	22	30	VERLIGHPL	0.66	HLA-B*44:02
1	22	30	VERLIGHPL	0.67	HLA-B*44:03
1	28	36	HPLPLRLDA	0.67	HLA-B*35:01
1	17	25	EAAGEVERL	0.68	HLA-B*53:01
1	24	32	RLIGHPLPL	0.7	HLA-B*07:02
1	3	11	LPGFYRTGL	0.74	HLA-B*08:01
1	20	28	GEVERLIGH	0.82	HLA-B*44:03
1	17	25	EAAGEVERL	0.82	HLA-B*35:01
1	26	34	IGHPLPLRL	0.82	HLA-B*08:01
1	25	33	LIGHPLPLR	0.88	HLA-A*33:01
1	25	33	LIGHPLPLR	0.89	HLA-A*03:01
1	20	28	GEVERLIGH	0.93	HLA-B*44:02
1	17	25	EAAGEVERL	0.95	HLA-B*51:01
1	25	33	LIGHPLPLR	0.96	HLA-A*68:01
1	25	33	LIGHPLPLR	0.98	HLA-A*11:01

 Table 5. T cell epitope: MHC class 1 (Pseudomonas aeruginosa)

Seq #	Peptide	Peptide	Peptide sequence	Consensus	Allele
	start	end		percentile rank	
1	3	17	LPGFYRTGLTLAAPE	8.1	HLA-DPA1*03:01/DPB1*04:02
1	3	17	LPGFYRTGLTLAAPE	9.1	HLA-DQA1*01:02/DQB1*06:02
1	30	44	LPLRLDAITGPEEEG	0.46	HLA-DQA1*03:01/DQB1*03:02
1	3	17	LPGFYRTGLTLAAPE	4.4	HLA-DQA1*03:01/DQB1*03:02
1	11	25	LTLAAPEAAGEVERL	7.3	HLA-DQA1*03:01/DQB1*03:02
1	30	44	LPLRLDAITGPEEEG	3.1	HLA-DQA1*04:01/DQB1*04:02
1	3	17	LPGFYRTGLTLAAPE	6.6	HLA-DQA1*04:01/DQB1*04:02
1	11	25	LTLAAPEAAGEVERL	6.6	HLA-DQA1*04:01/DQB1*04:02
1	11	25	LTLAAPEAAGEVERL	6.6	HLA-DQA1*05:01/DQB1*03:01
1	3	17	LPGFYRTGLTLAAPE	8.1	HLA-DQA1*05:01/DQB1*03:01
1	20	34	GEVERLIGHPLPLRL	2.8	HLA-DRB1*01:01
1	3	17	LPGFYRTGLTLAAPE	8.2	HLA-DRB1*01:01
1	30	44	LPLRLDAITGPEEEG	4.5	HLA-DRB1*03:01
1	3	17	LPGFYRTGLTLAAPE	0.9	HLA-DRB1*04:01
1	3	17	LPGFYRTGLTLAAPE	7	HLA-DRB1*09:01
1	3	17	LPGFYRTGLTLAAPE	9.8	HLA-DRB1*11:01
1	20	34	GEVERLIGHPLPLRL	8.4	HLA-DRB1*12:01
1	20	34	GEVERLIGHPLPLRL	9.5	HLA-DRB1*13:02
1	30	44	LPLRLDAITGPEEEG	4.6	HLA-DRB3*01:01
1	3	17	LPGFYRTGLTLAAPE	8	HLA-DRB3*02:02

 Table 6. T-cell epitope: MHC class 2 (Pseudomonas aeruginosa)

4.2 Epitope and Ab prediction in *Staphylococcus aureus*

Organism: Staphylococcus aureus

Antigen: ABC transporter, ATP-binding protein, putative (UniProt: Q2FYP2)

Epitope: DRHFLNNVC

FASTA result:

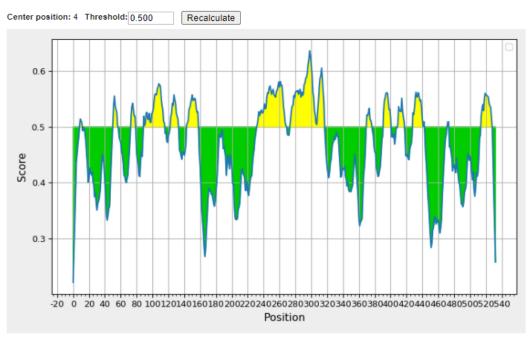
>tr|Q2FYP2|Q2FYP2_STAA8 ABC transporter, ATP-binding protein, putative OS=*Staphylococcus aureus* (strain NCTC 8325 / PS 47) OX=93061 GN=SAOUHSC_01392 PE=4 SV=1

MLQVTDVSLRFGDRKLFEDVNIKFTEGNCYGLIGANGAGKSTFLKILSGELDSQTGHVSL GKNERLAVLKQDHYAYEDERVLDVVIKGHERLYEVMKEKDEIYMKPDFSDEDGIRAAELE GEFAEMNGWNAEADAANLLSGLGIDPTLHDKKMAELENNQKIKVLLAQSLFGEPDVLLLD EPTNGLDIPAISWLEDFLINFDNTVIVVSH<mark>DRHFLNNVC</mark>THIADLDFGKIKVYVGNYDFW YQSSQLAQKMAQEQNKKKEEKMKELQDFIARFSANASKSKQATSRKKQLEKIELDDIQPS SRRYPFVKFTPEREIGNDLLIVQNLSKTIDGEKVLDNISFTMNPNDKAILIGDSEIAKTT LLKILAGEMEPDEGSYKWGVTTSLSYFPKDNSEFFEGVNMNLVDWLRQYAPEDEQTETFL RGFLGRMLFSGEEVKKKASVLSGGEKVRCMLSKMMLSSANVLLLDEPTNHLDLESITAVN DGLKSFKGSIIFTSYDFEFINTIANRVIDLNKQGGVSKEIPYEEYLQEIGVLK

B-cell epitope

ANASKSKQATSRKKQLEKIELDDIQPSSRRYPFVKFTPEREIGN

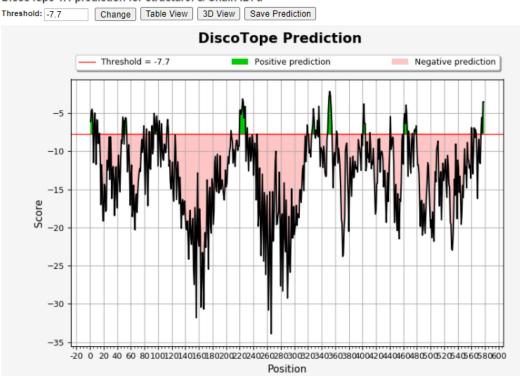
Bepipred result



Average: 0.466 Minimum: 0.222 Maximum: 0.636

Figure 4. Bepipred, linear epitope graph representation for antigen exotoxin A (*Staphylococcus aureus*) [X-axis represents residue positions in the sequence; Y-axis represents correspondent score] Yellow part indicates the probability to be a part of epitope during binding to Ab (Parameters such as hydrophilicity, flexibility, accessibility, turns, exposed surface, polarity and antigenic propensity are considered).

DiscoTope result



DiscoTope: Structure based antibody prediction.

DiscoTope 1.1 prediction for structure: & Chain ID: a

Figure 5.DiscoTope structure based Ab prediction rule (Staphylococcus aureus) (B-
cell epitope from the discontinuous epitopes from 3D structures of proteins
in PDB format) Green predictions are the positive one; Peach are negative ones

4.3 Epitope and Ab prediction in *Burkholderia cepacia*

Organism: Burkholderia cepacia

Ag: Peptidoglycan-associated protein

Epitope: SYSVKDEYQPLMQQHAQYLK

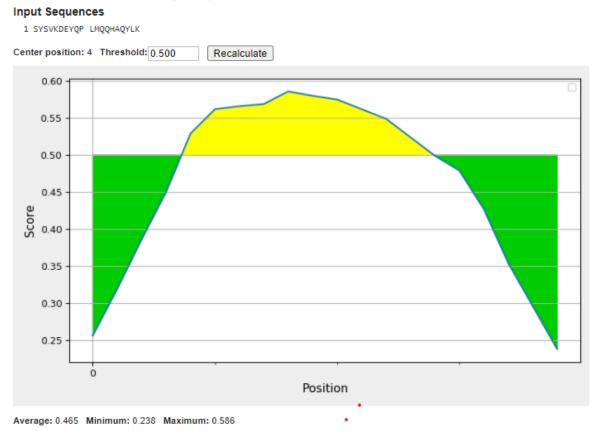
FASTA result:

>tr|B4EDC1|B4EDC1_BURCJ Peptidoglycan-associated protein OS=*Burkholderia cepacia* (strain ATCC BAA-245 / DSM 16553 / LMG 16656 / NCTC 13227 / J2315 / CF5610) OX=216591 GN=pal PE=1 SV=1

MMSNKARLALAVMMISALAACKSGVKLDDKANNAGAVSTQPSADNVAQVNVDPLNDPNS PLAKRSIYFDFD<mark>SYSVKDEYQPLMQQHAQYLK</mark>SHPQRHVLIQGNTDERGTSEYNLALGQKR AEAVRRAMALLGVNDSQMEAVSLGKEKPQATGHDEASWAQNRRADLVYQQ

B-cell epitope: KDEYQPLMQQ

Bepipred result



Bepipred Linear Epitope Prediction 2.0 Results

Figure 6. Bepipred, linear epitope graph representation for antigen exotoxin A (*Burkholderia cepacia*) [X-axis represents residue positions in the sequence;
Y-axis represents correspondent score]. Yellow part indicates the probability to be a part of epitope during binding to Ab (Parameters such as hydrophilicity, flexibility, accessibility, turns, exposed surface, polarity and antigenic propensity are considered)

DiscoTope result

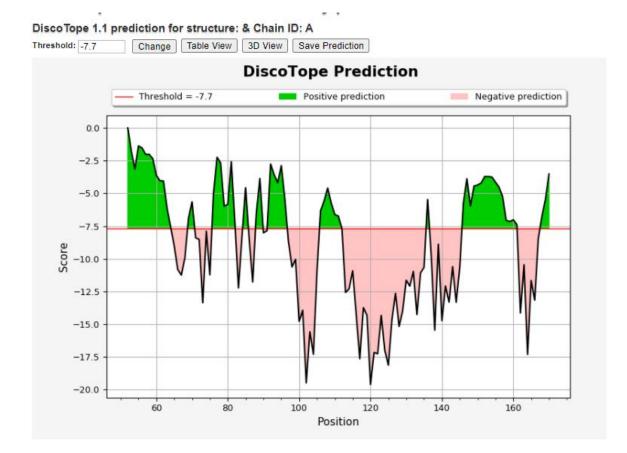


Figure 7. DiscoTope structure based Ab prediction rule (*Burkholderia cepacia*) (Bcell epitope from the discontinuous epitopes from 3D structures of proteins in PDB format)

4.4 Discussion and Conclusion

Human body harbours tremendous amounts of microorganisms ranging from the bacteria, archaea to virus and fungi. Increase in the evidence of the complex cross-talk between the gut and lung, and also between the gut and the host immunity proves the importance of the microbiota for the human body. Neither lungs nor the gut is sterile in nature and change in the diversity of the microbes lead to several disorders. Dysbiosis of the microbiota is associated with the development of the common respiratory diseases, such as asthma, respiratory infection, chronic obstructive pulmonary disorder, cystic fibrosis and lung cancer. The microbiota associated with cystic fibrosis patients might somehow be important for the pathophysiology and development of the disease. Owing to high mortality rate (deaths in 90% cases), it has become imperative to come up with new therapeutic techniques to treat the deadly disease, and microbial therapy can be a ray of hope. Modification and the improvement of the role of the gut microbiota in respiratory disorders but also provide effective and new therapeutic strategies to combat cystic fibrosis.

Most of the drugs used during the treatment of CF are anti-inflammatory, CFTR modulators, Mucolytics, Bronchodilators. Mortality rate in CF patients is higher due to bacterial infections. Most of the bacteria which cause severe infection in CF have evolved and become antibiotic resistant. P. aeruginosa shows resistance to variety of antibiotics [Pang et al., 2019]. B. cepacia modifies their LPs layer and provide resistance to drug penetration [Rhodes and Schweizer, 2016]. In addition, adaptive antibiotic resistance of *P. aeruginosa* is a recently characterized mechanism, which includes biofilm-mediated resistance and formation of multidrug-tolerant persister cells, and is responsible for recalcitrance and relapse of infections. As most of the bacteria that are fatal to CF patients, have become drug resistant, the main objective of epitope identification is to replace an antigen in the immunization, antibody production, and serodiagnosis. Epitope-based antibodies are currently the most promising class of biopharmaceuticals. Identification of B-cell epitopes is a fundamental step for the development of epitope-based vaccines, therapeutic antibodies, and diagnostic tools. Prediction of B-cell epitope gives information that these bacterial sp. can be targeted by generating specific Ab. Thus, by using 3D Ag structure, F(ab) region of antibodies can be generated for specifically targeting bacterial pathogens and hence reducing the mortality rate in CF patients. The analysis done in the current study, is restricted to only single B-cell epitope for three bacterial sp. Pseudomonas aeruginosa, Staphylococcus aureus and B. cepacia, which needs to be extended.

Moreover, though the 3D structure of Ag gives information about F(ab), this is not all needed for generation of Ab. Accurate identification of B-cell epitopes and data integration on large-scale, is still a major challenge for immunologist. Using the predicted epitopes on surface of infectious microbes, monoclonal Abs can be produced *in vitro* using tissue-culture based hybridoma technique. By, targeting the B-cell and T-cell epitopes on the surface, creating monoclonal antibody (Ab) (idiotype), the rate of infection can be slowed down, along with the other drugs, physiotherapy and exercise.

REFERENCES

- Beck, J. M., Young, V. B., & Huffnagle, G. B. (2012). The microbiome of the lung. Translational Research, 160(4), 258–266. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trsl.2012.02.005
- Belkaid, Y. and T. H. (2015). Role of the Microbiota in Immunity and inflammation Yasmine. Cell, 157(1), 121–141. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2014.03.011.Role
- Budden, K. F., Gellatly, S. L., Wood, D. L. A., Cooper, M. A., Morrison, M., Hugenholtz,
 P., & Hansbro, P. M. (2017). Emerging pathogenic links between microbiota and the gutlung axis. Nature Reviews Microbiology, 15(1), 55–63. https://doi.org/10.1038/nrmicro.2016.142
- Burney, T. J., & Davies, J. C. (2012). Gene therapy for the treatment of cystic fibrosis.
 Application of Clinical Genetics, 5, 29–36. https://doi.org/10.2147/TACG.S8873
- [5] Cait, A., Hughes, M. R., Antignano, F., Cait, J., Dimitriu, P. A., Maas, K. R., Reynolds, L. A., Hacker, L., Mohr, J., Finlay, B. B., Zaph, C., McNagny, K. M., & Mohn, W. W. (2018). Microbiome-driven allergic lung inflammation is ameliorated by short-chain fatty acids. Mucosal Immunology, 11(3), 785–795. https://doi.org/10.1038/mi.2017.75
- [6] Cani, P. D. (2018). Human gut microbiome : hopes , threats and promises. 1716–1725. https://doi.org/10.1136/gutjnl-2018-316723
- [7] Coffey, M. J., Nielsen, S., Wemheuer, B., Kaakoush, N. O., Garg, M., Needham, B.,
 Pickford, R., Jaffe, A., Thomas, T., & Ooi, C. Y. (2019). Gut Microbiota in Children
 With Cystic Fibrosis: A Taxonomic and Functional Dysbiosis. Scientific Reports, 9(1),
 1–14. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-019-55028-7
- [8] Cotten, J. F., Ostedgaard, L. S., Carson, M. R., & Welsh, M. J. (1996). Effect of Cystic Fibrosis-associated Mutations in the Fourth Intracellular Loop of Cystic Fibrosis Transmembrane Conductance Regulator *. Journal of Biological Chemistry, 271(35), 21279–21284. https://doi.org/10.1074/jbc.271.35.21279
- [9] Davies, J. C., Alton, E. W. F. W., & Bush, A. (2007). Cystic fibrosis. 1255–1259. https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.39391.713229.AD
- [10] Dewhirst, F. E., Chen, T., Izard, J., Paster, B. J., Tanner, A. C. R., Yu, W. H., Lakshmanan, A., & Wade, W. G. (2010). The human oral microbiome. Journal of Bacteriology, 192(19), 5002–5017. https://doi.org/10.1128/JB.00542-10
- [11] Dumas, A., Bernard, L., Poquet, Y., Lugo-Villarino, G., & Neyrolles, O. (2018). The role of the lung microbiota and the gut–lung axis in respiratory infectious diseases. Cellular Microbiology, 20(12), 1–9. https://doi.org/10.1111/cmi.12966

- [12] Enaud, R., Prevel, R., Ciarlo, E., Beaufils, F., Wieërs, G., Guery, B., & Delhaes, L. (2020). The Gut-Lung Axis in Health and Respiratory Diseases: A Place for Inter-Organ and Inter-Kingdom Crosstalks. Frontiers in Cellular and Infection Microbiology, 10(February), 1–11. https://doi.org/10.3389/fcimb.2020.00009
- [13] Françoise, A. (2020). The Microbiome in Cystic Fibrosis Pulmonary Disease.
- [14] Gaeckle, N. T., Pragman, A. A., Pendleton, K. M., Baldomero, A. K., & Criner, G. J. (2020). The Oral-Lung Axis: The Impact of Oral Health on Lung Health. C, 1–10. https://doi.org/10.4187/respcare.07332
- [15] Ghorbani, P., Santhakumar, P., Hu, Q., Djiadeu, P., Wolever, T. M. S., Palaniyar, N., & Grasemann, H. (2015). Short-chain fatty acids affect cystic fibrosis airway inflammation and bacterial growth. European Respiratory Journal, 46(4), 1033–1045. https://doi.org/10.1183/09031936.00143614
- [16] Hauser, A. R., Jain, M., Bar-Meir, M., & McColley, S. A. (2011). Clinical significance of microbial infection and adaptation in cystic fibrosis. Clinical Microbiology Reviews, 24(1), 29–70. https://doi.org/10.1128/CMR.00036-10
- [17] Hoffman, L. R., Déziel, E., D'Argenio, D. A., Lépine, F., Emerson, J., McNamara, S., Gibson, R. L., Ramsey, B. W., & Miller, S. I. (2006). Selection for Staphylococcus aureus small-colony variants due to growth in the presence of Pseudomonas aeruginosa. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America, 103(52), 19890–19895. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0606756104
- [18] Hufnagl, K., Pali-Schöll, I., Roth-Walter, F., & Jensen-Jarolim, E. (2020). Dysbiosis of the gut and lung microbiome has a role in asthma. Seminars in Immunopathology, 42(1), 75–93. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00281-019-00775-y
- [19] Hutchison, M. L., & Govan, J. R. W. (1999). Pathogenicity of microbes associated with cystic fibrosis. Microbes and Infection, 1(12), 1005–1014. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1286-4579(99)80518-8
- [20] Hwang, T. C., & Kirk, K. L. (2013). The CFTR Ion channel: Gating, regulation, and anion permeation. Cold Spring Harbor Perspectives in Medicine, 3(1). https://doi.org/10.1101/cshperspect.a009498
- [21] Kho, Z. Y., & Lal, S. K. (2018). The human gut microbiome A potential controller of wellness and disease. Frontiers in Microbiology, 9(AUG). https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2018.01835
- [22] Kilian, M., Chapple, I. L. C., Hannig, M., Marsh, P. D., Meuric, V., Pedersen, A. M. L., Tonetti, M. S., Wade, W. G., & Zaura, E. (2016). The oral microbiome - An update for

oral healthcare professionals. British Dental Journal, 221(10), 657–666. https://doi.org/10.1038/sj.bdj.2016.865

- [23] Lazar, V., Ditu, L. M., Pircalabioru, G. G., Gheorghe, I., Curutiu, C., Holban, A. M., Picu, A., Petcu, L., & Chifiriuc, M. C. (2018). Aspects of gut microbiota and immune system interactions in infectious diseases, immunopathology, and cancer. Frontiers in Immunology, 9(AUG). https://doi.org/10.3389/fimmu.2018.01830
- [24] Lipuma, J. J. (2010). The Changing Microbial Epidemiology in Cystic Fibrosis. 23(2), 299–323. https://doi.org/10.1128/CMR.00068-09
- [25] LiPuma, J. J. (2010). The changing microbial epidemiology in cystic fibrosis. Clinical Microbiology Reviews, 23(2), 299–323. https://doi.org/10.1128/CMR.00068-09
- [26] Lyczak, J. B., Cannon, C. L., & Pier, G. B. (2002). Lung infections associated with cystic fibrosis. Clinical Microbiology Reviews, 15(2), 194–222. https://doi.org/10.1128/CMR.15.2.194-222.2002
- [27] Mao, Q., Jiang, F., Yin, R., Wang, J., Xia, W., Dong, G., Ma, W., Yang, Y., Xu, L., & Hu, J. (2018). Interplay between the lung microbiome and lung cancer. In Cancer Letters (Vol. 415). Elsevier B.V. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.canlet.2017.11.036
- [28] Mathieu, E., Escribano-Vazquez, U., Descamps, D., Cherbuy, C., Langella, P., Riffault, S., Remot, A., & Thomas, M. (2018). Paradigms of lung microbiota functions in health and disease, particularly, in asthma. Frontiers in Physiology, 9(AUG), 1–11. https://doi.org/10.3389/fphys.2018.01168
- [29] Miller, C. (2010). CFTR: Break a pump, make a channel. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America, 107(3), 959–960. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0913576107
- [30] Pang, Z. R. Raudonis, B. R. Glick, T. J. Lin, and Z. Cheng (2019) Antibiotic resistance in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*: mechanisms and alternative therapeutic strategies. Biotechnological Advances 37(1), 177–192, doi: 10.1016/j.biotechadv.2018.11.013
- [31] Rafeeq, M. M., Aly, H., & Murad, S. (2017). Cystic fibrosis : current therapeutic targets and future approaches. Journal of Translational Medicine, 1–9. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12967-017-1193-9
- [32] Razvi, S., Quittell, L., Sewall, A., Quinton, H., Marshall, B., & Saiman, L. (2009).
 Respiratory microbiology of patients with cystic fibrosis in the United States, 1995 to 2005. Chest, 136(6), 1554–1560. https://doi.org/10.1378/chest.09-0132
- [33] Rhodes, K. A., Schweizer, H. P. (2016). Antibiotic resistance in *Burkholderia* species.
 Drug Resistance Updates, 28, 82–90. doi: 10.1016/j.drup.2016.07.003.

- [34] Scoffone, V. C., Chiarelli, L. R., Trespidi, G., Mentasti, M., Riccardi, G., & Buroni, S. (2017). Burkholderia cenocepacia infections in cystic fibrosis patients: Drug resistance and therapeutic approaches. Frontiers in Microbiology, 8(AUG), 1–13. https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2017.01592
- [35] Shreiner, A. B., Kao, J. Y., & Young, V. B. (2015). The gut microbiome in health and in disease. Current Opinion in Gastroenterology, 31(1), 69–75. https://doi.org/10.1097/MOG.0000000000139
- [36] Steven M. Rowe, M.D., Stacey Miller, B.S., and Eric J. Sorscher, M. (2000). Cystic fibrosis Cystic fibrosis. Center for Disease Control, 196(5), 1–6. https://www.erswhitebook.org/chapters/cysticfibrosis/%0Awww.informahealthcare.com
- [37] Surette, M. G. (2014). The cystic fibrosis lung microbiome. Annals of the American Thoracic Society, 11(SUPPL. 1), 61–65. https://doi.org/10.1513/AnnalsATS.201306-159MG
- [38] The New England Journal of Medicine Downloaded from nejm.org on October 14, 2015.
 For personal use only. No other uses without permission. Copyright © 1990
 Massachusetts Medical Society. All rights reserved. (1990).
- [39] Thibodeau, P. H., Richardson, J. M., Wang, W., Millen, L., Watson, J., Mendoza, J. L., Du, K., Fischman, S., Senderowitz, H., Lukacs, G. L., Kirk, K., & Thomas, P. J. (2010). The cystic fibrosis-causing mutation ΔF508 affects multiple steps in cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator biogenesis. Journal of Biological Chemistry, 285(46), 35825–35835. https://doi.org/10.1074/jbc.M110.131623
- [40] Vallières, E. (2014). Cystic fibrosis gene mutations: evaluation and assessment of disease severity. 161–173.
- [41] Vaughan, A., Frazer, Z. A., Hansbro, P. M., & Yang, I. A. (2019). COPD and the gutlung axis: The therapeutic potential of fibre. Journal of Thoracic Disease, 11(1), S2173– S2180. https://doi.org/10.21037/jtd.2019.10.40
- [42] Wang, L., Hao, K., Yang, T., & Wang, C. (2017). Role of the lung microbiome in the pathogenesis of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. Chinese Medical Journal, 130(17), 2107–2111. https://doi.org/10.4103/0366-6999.211452
- [43] Woodhead, E. M., Schaberg, T., Jones, A. M., Dodd, M. E., & Webb, A. K. (2001). SERIES " RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN PULMONARY INFECTIONS " Burkholderia cepacia : current clinical issues, environmental controversies and ethical dilemmas. European Respiratory Journal, 1, 1001–1007.

- [44] Wu, H. J., & Wu, E. (2012). The role of gut microbiota in immune homeostasis and autoimmunity. Gut Microbes, 3(1), 37–41. https://doi.org/10.4161/gmic.19320
- [45] Zemanick, E. T., & Hoffman, L. R. (2016). Cystic Fibrosis: Microbiology and Host Response. Pediatric Clinics of North America, 63(4), 617–636. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pcl.2016.04.003
- [46] Zhang, D., Li, S., Wang, N., Tan, H. Y., Zhang, Z., & Feng, Y. (2020). The Cross-Talk Between Gut Microbiota and Lungs in Common Lung Diseases. Frontiers in Microbiology, 11. https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2020.00301
- [47] Zlosnik, J. E. A., Zhou, G., Brant, R., Henry, D. A., Hird, T. J., Mahenthiralingam, E., Chilvers, M. A., Wilcox, P., & Speert, D. P. (2015). Burkholderia species infections in patients with cystic fibrosis in British Columbia, Canada: 30 years' experience. Annals of the American Thoracic Society, 12(1), 70–78. https://doi.org/10.1513/AnnalsATS.201408-395OC

PUBLICATIONS DETAILS

Title of Paper: Lung microbiota and cross-talk between gut-lung axis in CF Authors: Jyoti Sharma, Dr. Smita Rastogi Verma Name of Journal: Indian Journal of Microbiology Status of Paper: Communicated Date of Paper Communication: 27th May, 2021

	8mita Rastogi Verma ≺smitar@dtu.ao.in
NJM: Submission Confirmation for Lung Microbiota and Cross-Talk Between Gut-Lung Axis in Cystic Fibrosis - [EMID:3d293f0810e473ee] I message	
idian Journal of Microbiology (INJM) <em) epiy-To: "Indian Journal of Microbiology (INJ SMITA RASTOGI VERMA <smitan@dtu.ac< td=""><td>M)" <ramya.thulasingam@springer.com></ramya.thulasingam@springer.com></td></smitan@dtu.ac<></em) 	M)" <ramya.thulasingam@springer.com></ramya.thulasingam@springer.com>
Dear DR. RASTOGI VERMA,	
Your submission entitled "Lung Microbiota ar received by journal Indian Journal of Microbi	nd Cross-Talk Between Gut-Lung Axis in Cystic Fibrosis" has been ology
You will be able to check on the progress of https://www.editorialmanager.com/injm/.	your paper by logging on to Editorial Manager as an author. The URL is
Your manuscript will be given a reference nu	mber once an Editor has been assigned.
Alternatively, please call us at 001-630-468- Monday to Friday.	7784 (outside the US)/(630)-468-7784 (within the US) anytime from
Thank you for submitting your work to this jo	umal.
Kind regards,	
Editorial Office Indian Journal of Microbiology	
"Our flexible approach during the COVID-19	apandemic"
	er-review process, please do let us know. While our systems will continue m to be as flexible as possible during the current pandemic.
This letter contains confidential information,	is for your own use, and should not be forwarded to third parties.
Information on file to use in the process of su on how we use your personal details please	within the Editorial Manager database for this journal. We will keep your ubmitting, evaluating and publishing a manuscript. For more information see our privacy policy at https://www.springemature.com/production- ve messages from this journal or you have questions regarding database office at the link below.

DECLARATION

I hereby certify that the work which is presented in the research work entitled "B-cell epitope prediction in lung microbial community" in fulfilment of the requirement for the award of Degree of Masters in Science in Biotechnology and submitted to the Department of Biotechnology, Delhi Technological University, Delhi is an authentic record of my own work, carried during a period from 7th Jan 2021 to 28th May 2021, under the supervision of Dr. Smita Rastogi Verma.

The matter presented in this thesis has not been submitted by me for the award of any other degree of this or any other University. This work has been communicated in SCI indexed journal with the following details:

Title of paper: Lung microbiota and cross-talk between Gut-lung axis in CF

Author's name: Jyoti Sharma, Smita Rastogi Verma

Name of Journal: Indian Journal of Microbiology

Status of paper: Communicated

Date of paper communicated: 27th May, 2021

Date of paper acceptance: NA

Date of paper publication: NA

JYOTI SHARMA

2k19/MSCBIO/24

SUPERVISOR CERTIFICATE

To the best of my knowledge, the above work has not been submitted in part or full for any degree or diploma to this University or elsewhere. I further certify that the publication and indexing information given by students is correct.



Place: Delhi

DR. SMITA RASTOGI VERMA

Date: 28th May, 21