



# **APPLICATION OF BACTERIOPHAGE IN NOSOCOMIAL INFECTION CONTROL, A NEW CONCEPT TO DISINFECT HOSPITAL ENVIRONMENT**

M.Sc. Thesis

2021

Submitted to:

**Central Department of Biotechnology**

Tribhuvan University

Kirtipur, Kathmandu, Nepal

Submitted by:

**Himani Upreti**

Exam Roll No. BT 406/073

TU Registration No. 5-2-61-136-2012

Supervisor:

**Prof. Rajani Malla, Ph.D.**

Co-Supervisors:

**Mr. Gunraj Dhungana**

**Mrs. Priti Regmi**

## Recommendation

This is to certify that the research work entitled “**APPLICATION OF BACTERIOPHAGE IN NOSOCOMIAL INFECTION CONTROL, A NEW CONCEPT TO DISINFECT HOSPITAL ENVIRONMENT**” was successfully carried out by Ms. Himani Upreti under our supervision.

This thesis work was performed for the partial fulfillment of the Master of Science in Biotechnology under the course code BT 621. The result presented here is her original findings. We, hereby, recommend this thesis for final evaluation

.....

**Prof. Rajani Malla, Ph. D.**

**(Supervisor)**

Central Department of Biotechnology

Tribhuvan University

Kritipur, Kathmandu, Nepal

.....

**Asst. Prof. Priti Regmi**

**(Co-Supervisor)**

Central Department of Biotechnology

Tribhuvan University

Kritipur, Kathmandu, Nepal

.....

**Mr. Gunraj Dhungana,**

**Co-Supervisor, Ph.D. Scholar**

Central Department of Biotechnology

Tribhuvan University

Kritipur, Kathmandu, Nepal

## Certificate of Evaluation

This is to certify that this thesis entitled “**APPLICATION OF BACTERIOPHAGE IN NOSOCOMIAL INFECTION CONTROL, A NEW CONCEPT TO DISINFECT HOSPITAL ENVIRONMENT**” presented to evaluation committee by **Ms. Himani Upreti** is found satisfactory for the partial fulfillment of Master of Science in Biotechnology.

.....

**Prof. Rajani Malla, Ph.D.**

**(Supervisor)**

Central Department of Biotechnology

Tribhuvan University

Kritipur, Kathmandu, Nepal

.....

**Prof. Krishna Das Manandhar, Ph. D.**

**Head of Department**

Central Department of Biotechnology

Tribhuvan University

Kritipur, Kathmandu, Nepal

.....

**Dr. Deena Bajracharya**

**External Examiner**

Senior Research Scientist

Center for Health and Disease Studies

Kathmandu, Nepal

.....

**Ms. Pragati Pradhan**

**Internal Examiner**

Central Department of Biotechnology

Tribhuvan University

Kritipur, Kathmandu, Nepal



.....

**Mr. Gunraj Dhungana**

**Co-Supervisor, Ph.D. Scholar**

Central Department of Biotechnology

Tribhuvan University

Kritipur, Kathmandu, Nepal

.....

**Asst. Prof. Priti Regmi**

**(Co-Supervisor)**

Central Department of

Biotechnology Tribhuvan University

Kritipur, Kathmandu, Nepal

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENT**

Firstly, the vow of gratitude goes to my supervisor Prof. Dr. Rajani Malla for her continuous guidance, supervisions, motivation as well as for providing necessary arrangements to conduct the research work. Her love, care and belief in me always motivates me to do my best. Being the part of Bacteriophage team, it will always make me feel proud. Despite my own effort, it would not have been possible without the kind support and help of my Co-Supervisors Priti Regmi and Mr. Gunraj Dhungana. I am also very much thankful to NAST as this research project was supported by NAST.

I would like to acknowledge Prof. Dr. Krishna Das Manandhar, Head of Department, for providing space and comfortable environment to complete thesis in the department.

Thank you to all the faculty member of department for their rigorous teaching skills which always motivated me for executing the knowledge and skill for the accomplishment of my best work. Thank you to all the Senior, laboratory and administrative staffs for helping me with the required chemicals and equipment during the work and for their cooperation and kind words to motivate.

This work was impossible to complete without help of my lab mates Indu Gyanwali, Yujeen Chapagai, Prashant Poudel, Surendra Kumar Subedi. Also, I would like to remember my friends Rachita Gautam, Sishir Gautam, Archana Chataut. Grateful thank to my friends from 8th batch for their invaluable friendship and moral support. I would also like to acknowledge my seniors Apshara Parajuli, Madhav Regmi and Elisha Regmi for their Supports.

I would like to remember my family for their countless love, support, concerns and sacrifices and all who directly and indirectly helped me to complete by thesis work. Thanks to my husband Dipendra Kumar Joshi and my brother Gaurav Upreti for always helping and supporting me. Lastly, thanks to all the well-wishers who directly or indirectly helped me throughout this journey.

**Himani Upreti**

## **GLOSSARY ACRONYMS:**

µg: Microgram [one billion ( $1 \times 10^{-9}$ ) of Kilogram]

µl: Microliter [one millionth ( $1 \times 10^{-6}$ ) of a liter]

ABR: Anti-bacterial Resistance

AMR: Antimicrobial Resistance

AST: Antibiotic Sensitivity Test

BLAST: Basic Local Alignment Search Tool

BLASTN: Basic Local Alignment Search Tool- nucleotide

CDBT: Central Department of Biotechnology

CDC: Centre for disease control and prevention

CDS: Coding DNA Sequence

CF: Cystis Fibrosis

CFU: Colony Forming Unit

CNS: Central Nervous System

CPS: Capsular Polysaccharides

CFU: Colony Forming Unit

CRE: Carbapenem Resistant Enterobacteriaceae

DLAA: Double Layer Agar Assay

DNA HT library: Deoxyribonucleic Acid High-Throughput library

DNA: Deoxyribonucleic Acid

dsDNA: double stranded Deoxyribonucleic Acid

dsRNA: double stranded Ribonucleic Acid

EOP: Efficiency of Plating

FDA: Food and Drug Administration

GB: Giga Bytes

GC or G+C content: Guanine – Cytosine content

gDNA: genomic Deoxyribonucleic Acid

GPS: Global Positioning Service

GRAS: Generally Recognized as Safe

HCAI: Health Care associated infection  
Ip: Intraperitoneal  
ICTV: International Committee for Taxonomy of Viruses  
IOM: Institute of Medicine  
Kbp: Kilobase pairs  
LB: Luria Bertani  
Log: Logarithm  
LPS: Lipopolysaccharide  
MDR: Multidrug Resistant  
MHR: Multiple Host Range  
MOI: Multiplicity of Infection  
mRNA: messenger RNA  
MRSA: Methicillin Resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*  
MTB: *Mycobacterium Tuberculosis*  
NA: Nutrient Agar  
NCBI: National Center for Biotechnology Information  
NDM-1: New Delhi Metallo-beta-lactamase-1  
ng: nanogram [one billionth ( $1 \times 10^{-9}$ ) of a gram]  
NGS: Next Generation Sequencing  
NIH: National Institute of Health Science USA  
nm: nanometer [one billionth ( $1 \times 10^{-9}$ ) of a meter]  
NPHL: National Public Health Laboratory  
OD: Optical Density  
ORF: Open Reading Frame  
PCR: Polymerase Chain Reaction  
PDR: Pan Drug Resistant  
PFU: Plaque Forming Unit  
PHASTER: PHAGE Search Tool Enhanced Release  
PT: Phage Therapy  
RBP: Receptor Binding Protein  
rpm: revolutions per minute

RNA: Ribonucleic Acid  
rRNA: ribosomal Ribonucleic Acid  
SM buffer: Sodium Magnesium buffer  
SDS-PAGE: Sodium Dodecyl Sulphate Polyacrylamide Gel Electrophoresis  
SPL: Staphylococcal Phage Lysate  
ss DNA: single stranded Deoxyribonucleic Acid  
ss RNA: single stranded Ribonucleic Acid  
TAE: Tris-Acetate EDTA Buffer  
TE: Tris- Chloride EDTA Buffer  
TEM: Transmission Electron Microscopy  
tRNA: transfer Ribonucleic Acid  
TSA: Tryptic Soya Agar  
TSB: Tryptic Soy Broth  
TU: Tribhuvan University  
UF: Ultra Filtration  
US-FDA: United States – Food and Drug Administration  
US-NIAID: United States - National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases  
UV: Ultra Violet  
VRE: Vancomycin Resistant Enterococci  
VRSA: Vancomycin Resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*  
WGS: Whole Genome Sequencing  
WHO: World Health Organization  
W/V: Weight by Volume  
XDR: Extensively Drug Resistant  
ZOI: Zone of Inhibition

# LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE 1. 1 TYPICAL BACTERIOPHAGE. A) SCHEMATIC DRAWING OF T4 BACTERIOPHAGE, B) EXTERNAL STRUCTURE OF BACTERIOPHAGE AND C) LS OF BACTERIOPHAGE. FIGURE SOURCE: BIOLOGY DISCUSSION .COM .....	2
FIGURE 1. 2 MEMBER OF THE CAUDOVIRALES FAMILY. FIGURE SOURCE: (WHITE & ORLOVA, 2020) .....	3
FIGURE 1. 3 DIFFERENT FAMILY OF BACTERIOPHAGE. FIG SOURCE (KARTIK,2014).....	3
FIGURE 1. 4 MECHANISM OF BACTERIOPHAGE .....	4
FIGURE 3. 1: REPRESENTATIVE FIGURE OF WATER SAMPLE COLLECTION .....	16
FIGURE 3. 2: DLAA TECHNIQUE FOR PHAGE ISOLATION AND CULTURE .....	17
FIGURE 3. 3: DECONTAMINATION ASSAY ON FABRIC CLOTH. ....	22
FIGURE 4. 1: SUBCULTURE ON NA FROM CETRIMIDE AGAR PLATE IN (1) AND SUBCULTURE IN NA PLATE FROM MSA PLATE IN NA PLATE IN (2 & 3). ....	24
FIGURE 4. 2: GRAM STAINING .....	24
FIGURE 4. 3: BIOCHEMICAL TEST FOR GRAM POSITIVE BACTERIA .....	25
FIGURE 4. 4: IMVIC AND TSIA TEST RESULT (LEFT: CONTROL, RIGHT: WITH TEST ORGANISM) MEDIA ARE SIM (SIMONS INDOLE MOTILITY), MR, VP, CITRATE AND TSIA FROM LEFT TO RIGHT IN EACH INDIVIDUAL FIGURE. ....	25
FIGURE 4. 5: AST OF <i>PSEUDOMONAS AERUGINOSA</i> AND <i>STAPHYLOCOCCUS AUREUS</i> BACTERIA .....	26
FIGURE 4. 6: GEL ELECTROPHORESIS IN 0.8% AGAR.....	27
FIGURE 4. 7 CHROMATOGRAM FILE OF BACTERIA P3 OF 16SRRNA GENE USING CHROMAS .....	27
FIGURE 4. 8 NCBI BLAST OF OBTAINED SEQUENCE.....	28
FIGURE 4. 9 INITIAL ISOLATION OF BACTERIOPHAGE AGAINST <i>PSEUDOMONAS AERUGINOSA</i> STRAIN P3 ....	29
FIGURE 4. 10 PURIFICATION OF PHAGE BY STREAKING METHOD.....	30
FIGURE 4. 11 A) SPOT ASSAY OF P4 SHOWING LYSIS UP TO 10 <sup>8</sup> DILUTION, FIG B,C,D AND E ARE PLAQUES FORMED IN THE DILUTION 10 <sup>7</sup> ,10 <sup>8</sup> ,10 <sup>11</sup> AND 10 <sup>13</sup> RESPECTIVELY OF P4 PHAGE .....	30
FIGURE 4. 12 INVITRO LYSIS OF BACTERIA BY PHAGE.....	31
FIGURE 4. 13 INTRA HOST RANGE OF <i>PSEUDOMONAS AERUGINOSA</i> .....	32
FIGURE 4. 14: INTER HOST RANGE OF PHAGE P4 .....	34
FIGURE 4. 15: SDS PAGE AND PROTEIN BANDS OF PHAGE P4. ....	35
FIGURE 4. 16: NEGATIVE STAINING IMAGES OF PHAGES P4 BY TEM .....	35
FIGURE 4. 17 THERMAL STABILITY OF PHAGE P4 .....	36
FIGURE 4. 18 STABILITY OF PHAGE P4 AT DIFFERENT PH.....	36
FIGURE 4. 19 ONE STEP GROWTH CURVE OF P4 PHAGE .....	37



FIGURE 4. 20 DECONTAMINATION ASSAY OF PHAGE P4 AT DIFFERENT MOI VALUES .....	38
FIGURE 4. 21 COMPARISON BETWEEN PHAGE P4 AND PHENOL AS DISINFECTANT .....	39
FIGURE 4. 22 DECONTAMINATION BY PHAGE P4 AT DIFFERENT TIME PERIOD ON MARBLE TILES.....	39

# LIST OF TABLES

TABLE 3. 1 BACTERIA USED AND THEIR CODE NAME .....	13
TABLE 3. 2 FORWARD AND REVERSE PRIMER SEQUENCE USED FOR PCR.....	14
TABLE 3. 3 PCR COMPONENT, THEIR CONCENTRATION AND VOLUME USED FOR PCR REACTION .....	15
TABLE 3. 4 THERMOCYCLING CONDITION FOR 16SRNA AMPLIFICATION .....	15
TABLE 4. 1 ANTIBIOTIC SUSCEPTIBILITY PATTERN OF HOST BACTERIAL STRAIN .....	26
TABLE 4. 2 TABLE SHOWING PHAGE AND THEIR SITE OF COLLECTION .....	28
TABLE 4. 3 INITIAL SCREENING OF BACTERIOPHAGE .....	29
TABLE 4. 4 PLATE COUNT UPON SERIAL DILUTIONS AND PHAGE TITRE DETERMINATION (PFU/ML).....	31
TABLE 4. 5 INTRA HOST ANALYSIS BY SPOT ASSAY .....	32
TABLE 4. 6 INTER HOST RANGE OF PHAGES BY SPOT ASSAY .....	33
TABLE 4. 7: TEM IMAGE ANALYSIS AND CLASSIFICATION OF PHAGES BASED ON ICTV GUIDELINES. ....	35

# TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT.....	i
GLOSSARY ACRONYMS:.....	ii
LIST OF FIGURES.....	v
LIST OF TABLES.....	vii
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	viii
ABSTRACT.....	xi
1. INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1Background:.....	1
1.1.1 Bacteriophage.....	1
1.1.2 Bacteriophage biology.....	4
1.1.3 Host bacteria.....	5
1.1.4 Nosocomial infection.....	6
1.2 Rationale/ Statement of Problem.....	6
1.3 Objectives.....	7
1.3.1 General Objectives.....	7
1.3.2 Specific Objectives.....	7
1.4 Hypothesis.....	7
1.4.1 Null hypothesis.....	7
1.4.2 Alternative hypothesis.....	7
2. LITERATURE REVIEW.....	8
2.1 Nosocomial infection and its prevalence.....	8
2.2 Prevalence of nosocomial infection in Nepal.....	8
2.3 Bacteriophage to treat <i>P. aeruginosa</i> .....	9
2.4 Bacteriophage to treat nosocomial infection.....	10
2.5. Bacteriophage as a disinfectant.....	11
2.6: Application of bacteriophage.....	11
2.6.1. Phage therapy.....	11

2.6.2	Phage display .....	12
2.6.3	Phage typing .....	12
2.6.4	Bioprocessing and bio control .....	12
3.	MATERIALS AND METHODS .....	13
3.1	Preparation of media .....	13
3.2	Bacteria collection, isolation and identification .....	13
3.3	Antibiotic susceptibility test .....	14
3.4	Molecular detection of <i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> bacteria.....	14
3.4.1	Genomic DNA extraction of bacterial strain.....	14
3.4.2	PCR amplification of 16SrRNA gene.....	14
3.4.3	PCR Condition of 16srRNA gene amplification .....	15
3.5	Sample collection for bacteriophage isolation .....	15
3.6	Bacteriophage isolation .....	16
3.7.	Bacteriophage purification: Phage streak protocol.....	17
3.8.	Phage lysate/stock preparation .....	17
3.9	Determination of phage titer.....	18
3.10	Determination of Optimum Multiplicity of Infection (MOI).....	18
3.11	Characterization of phage.....	19
3.11.1.	Host Range Analysis .....	19
3.11.2.	One step growth curve analysis and burst size determination .....	19
3.11.3.	Protein profiling by Sodium Dodecyl Sulfate Polyacrylamide Electrophoresis (SDS-PHAGE) .....	20
3.11.4.	Transmission Electron Microscopy .....	20
3.11.5.	Stability of phage against temperature .....	21
3.11.6.	Stability of phage against pH .....	21
3.12	Application of phage as disinfectant .....	21
3.12.1.	Use of bacteriophage on contaminated cloth.....	21
3.12.2.	Comparison between <i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> phage and phenol.....	22
3.12.3	Decontamination by bacteriophage on marble tiles.....	22
3.13	Statistical analysis .....	23

4. RESULTS.....	24
4.1. Isolation and identification of bacteria.....	24
4.1.1: Gram staining.....	24
4.1.2: Biochemical tests .....	24
4.2 Antibiotic susceptibility test .....	25
4.3 Bacterial genomic DNA extraction.....	26
4.4. Isolation of bacteriophage .....	28
4.5. Purification of Bacteriophage .....	30
4.6. Phage titer determination .....	30
4.7: Determination of Multiplicity of infection (MOI) .....	31
4.8. Characterization of phage P4.....	32
4.8.1. Multiple Host Range Analysis by Spot Assay .....	32
4.8.2. SDS-PAGE .....	35
4.8.3. Transmission electron microscopy .....	35
4.8.4: Effect of temperature on phage stability .....	36
4.8.5: Effect of pH on phage P4 viability.....	36
4.8.6: One step growth curve determination .....	37
4.9: Decontamination assay of bacteriophage .....	37
4.9.1: Decontamination assay Using phage P4.....	37
4.9.2: Comparison between phage P4 and phenol as disinfectant.....	38
4.9.3 Decontamination by bacteriophage on marble tiles .....	39
5. DISCUSSION.....	41
6. SUMMARY.....	47
7. CONCLUSION.....	48
8. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY.....	49
9. RECOMMENDATION .....	50
REFERENCES.....	51
APPENDICES .....	60

## ABSTRACT

**Introduction:** Health care associated infections (HAIs) are one of the important public health problems which might result in significant rise in mortality and morbidity, predominantly in immune compromised patients of Intensive Care Unit (ICU). A study showed that in the Asian region, risks of HAIs have been estimated to be 2-20 times higher than in developed countries up to 25% of hospitalized patients having acquired infection (Ling et al., 2015) and also a report shows that in United States, roughly 9.2 out of every 100 patients acquire a nosocomial infection, according to Healthline and among them also some HAIs is quite serious and potentially life-threatening. The common bacteria causing nosocomial infections include *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *klebsiella pneumonia*, *Acinetobacter baumannii*, *Enterococci* etc. (Khan, Baig, & Mehboob, 2017). Therefore, disinfectants like alcohols, hypochlorite, hydrogen peroxide, amyl phenol, glutaraldehyde etc. are widely used in hospital to kill these organisms which cause NAs but sometimes these chemical disinfectants might be hazardous, irritants and toxic to us and environment. Among many alternatives, bacteriophage mediated bio-control of the pathogenic bacteria is considering as one of the best options. Our objective of the study is to isolate, identify the pathogenic bacteria from the hospital environment and evaluate the efficacy of newly isolated lytic bacteriophage to minimize the bacterial load on hospital fomites.

**Methodology:** The study time period of this research was 6 months and, in this study, we isolated phage against *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* bacteria collected from ICU of Teku hospital. Then most potent phage was characterized morphologically and Physiochemically. Burst size was obtained from one step growth curve. Intraspecific and interspecific host range was assessed by spot assay. During this research work, we used sterile fomite cloth pieces and marble tile as they are most potent sources where bacteria reside. Firstly, we contaminate the fomites and tiles with *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* bacteria then after we used *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* phage to decontaminate those cloths and tile.

**Result:** Altogether 16 bacterial strain, 4 *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and 12 *Staphylococcus aureus* were confirmed by Gram staining and Biochemical test and among them 2 *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* strains and 5 *Staphylococcus aureus* strains were found to be Carbapenem resistance and Multi Drug Resistant (MDR) respectively. Total six bacteriophages against *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* were isolated from different sewage samples. And one of the most potent phage P4 was characterized morphologically and physiochemically. Burst size of the phage was found to be 28 virions per bacterium. Protein profiling was done by SDS-PAGE where protein band between 20-250Kda were found and Phage P4 belongs to order Caudovirales and family Siphoviridae. Similarly, Phage was found to tolerate temperature of 70°C for 20 minutes, pH 3-12, exhibiting multiple host range as well. Decontamination assay was done on the sterile fabric cloth which showed that the P4 phage having MOI value 1 showed higher rate of decontamination with log reduction of 1 and p-value (0.002) i.e., significant. Further Comparison was done between P4 phage and normal disinfectant Phenol where we found that single phage has more disinfectant rate than phenol.

Similarly, time period up to which bacteriophage can show their effectivity as disinfectant was also done and it showed highest level of effectivity up to 6 hours at MOI 1 with the CFU/ml log reduction of 1.

**Conclusion:** The result from the present thesis reveals several characteristics of the bacteriophage (P4), for instance, effective lytic capability, multiple host range, and stability in wide range of pH and temperature. Higher rate of decontamination with the log reduction of 1 CFU/ml and p-value (0.002) was showed by P4 phage having MOI value of 1. While doing comparison single phage have more disinfectant rate than normal disinfectant & P4 phage can show its highest level of effectivity up to 6 hrs at MOI 1.

**Keywords:** Nosocomial Infection, disinfectant, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, bacteriophage, decontamination

# 1. INTRODUCTION

## 1.1 Background:

Persistent contamination of hospital environments by pathogenic microbes is one of the major causes of healthcare-associated infections (HAI) (Allegranzi *et al.*, 2011), which represent a main concern in all western hospitals and most common bacteria responsible for hospital acquired nosocomial infection are *Acinetobacter baumannii*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, *Escherichia coli*, *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Clostridium difficile*, *Bacteroides fragilis* etc. (Khan, Baig, & Mehboob, 2017). Among them Multi drug resistant (MDR) *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* is a causative pathogen in healthcare associated infection and is also considered as the most common Gram-negative pathogen causing nosocomial pneumonia in the United States, which is frequently implicated in hospital-acquired urinary tract, lungs, sepsis and bloodstream infections (Nathwani, Raman, Sulham, Gavaghan, & Menon, 2014) and they are directly responsible for about 37,000 deaths each year, and, economic loss of approximately € 7 billion, (ECDC, 2013). The control of these pathogen contaminations has been approached so far by conventional sanitation which is based on the use of chemical-based sanitizers and disinfectants, including chlorine-derivatives, triclosan, chlorhexidine and others. All these approaches are unable to decrease microbial contamination in a stable way and it is not capable of preventing recontamination that occurs continuously due to the presence of inpatients, medical staff, visiting persons, etc. And also, chemical sanitizers kill microbes indiscriminately; thus, both the pathogenic and the potentially beneficial normal microbiota are targeted equally (Fiessinger *et al.*, 1981)

The solution behind all these problems could be bacteriophage. Lytic bacteriophages are safe for humans, being able to only infect bacteria and unable to transduce them. And also their action is rapid and they can be applied successfully on surfaces, as reported for treatment of food or food-processing surfaces (Abuladze *et al.*, 2008; Tomat *et al.*, 2014) and against AMR bacteria (Sulakvelidze, 2005; Jensen *et al.*, 2015). Phages are indicated as an interesting safe and green technology for bacterial decontamination and they have specific characteristic that are specific to single host bacteria only (Jensen *et al.*, 2015), and in aqueous solution (Abuladze *et al.*, 2008), showed that they can be successfully used to rapidly decrease the amount of pathogens commonly associated with HAIs on different types of surfaces, including AMR strains (D'Accolti *et al.*, 2018). Here in this study we aimed to analyze the feasibility and the effectiveness of routine phage decontamination.

### 1.1.1 Bacteriophage

Bacteriophages are the group of viruses displaying the ability to infect or kill bacteria while they do not affect cell lines from other eukaryotic organisms. They are the incomplete organism that can only replicate in a live cell and also known as bacterial parasites because they lack the cell structure and enzyme systems necessary for food uptake, protein synthesis or construction of new particles (Wernicki *et al.*, 2017). Bacteriophage or “phage” is viruses of prokaryotes (Abendon, 2009) which was discovered independently by Frederick Twort- a bacteriologist from England in 1915 and



Felix d' Herelle- a French Canadian microbiologist- two year later in 1917 (Duckworth, 1976). Felix d' Herelle coined the term 'Bacteriophages', a word that is derived from the fusion of 'bacteria' and 'phagein' (to eat in Greek), size of the most bacteriophage range from 22nm-200nm in length. The largest Bacteriophage T4 is 200nm long and about 80-100nm wide, they are found everywhere where bacterial host is present. It has been established that the population number of phages in aquatic systems lies within the range of  $10^4$  to  $10^6$  virions per milliliter (ml) and about  $10^9$  virions per gram(g) in the soil, with an estimated total number of  $10^{32}$  of bacteriophages on the planet (Wittebole et al. 2014).

Generally, phage consists of nucleic acid molecule also called genome surrounded by coat protein known as capsid or head. The genetic material of phage consists of single stranded or double stranded RNA or DNA. The head or capsid is made up of morphological subunits called promoters. Many but not all phages have tails; length of tail varies among family of phages. Phage have contractile sheath which surrounds tail and contract during infection of the bacterium in some phages. Some phages also have a base plate and one or more tail fibers are attached to the tail end. Phages are specific to one or a limited number of bacterial host strains (Yuan & Gao, 2017). Most of the phages are tailed bacteriophage (Order: Caudovirales), accounting for 96% of all phages present on earth and are the oldest known virus group (Ackermann, 2009).

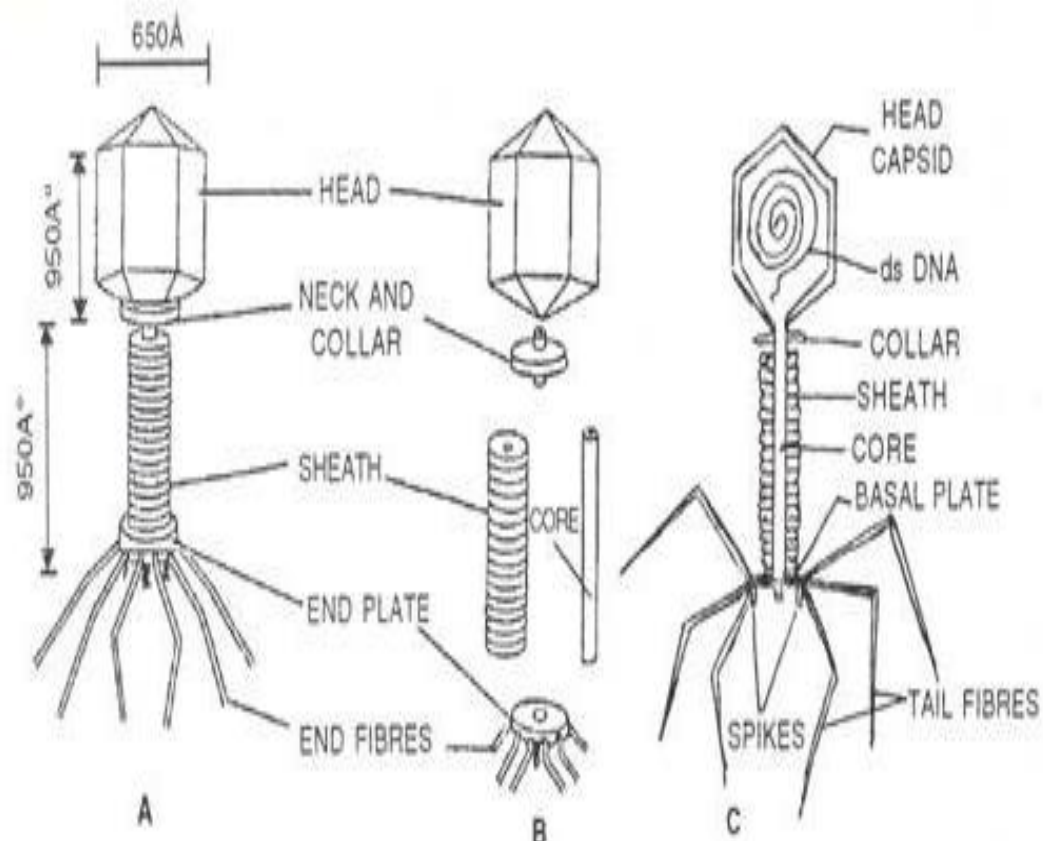


Figure 1.1: Typical Bacteriophage. A) Schematic drawing of T4 bacteriophage, B) External Structure of Bacteriophage and C) LS of Bacteriophage. Figure Source: Biology discussion .com

International Committee on Taxonomy of Viruses (ICTV) classified phages on the basis of morphology and nucleic acid. They are classified into 13 orders based on: Tailed

bacteriophage (Order Caudovirales), RNA- containing bacteriophage with polyhedral capsids, DNA- containing bacteriophage with polyhedral capsids, Non tailed phages, Pleomorphic bacteriophage, Filamentous bacteriophage. The Caudovirales are classified into three different families: Podoviridae (Short non-contractile tail, eg: Enterobacteria T7), Myoviridae (Long contractile tail, eg: Enterobacteria phage T4) and Siphoviridae (Long non-contractile tail, eg: HK97) (Fokine & Rossmann, 2014).

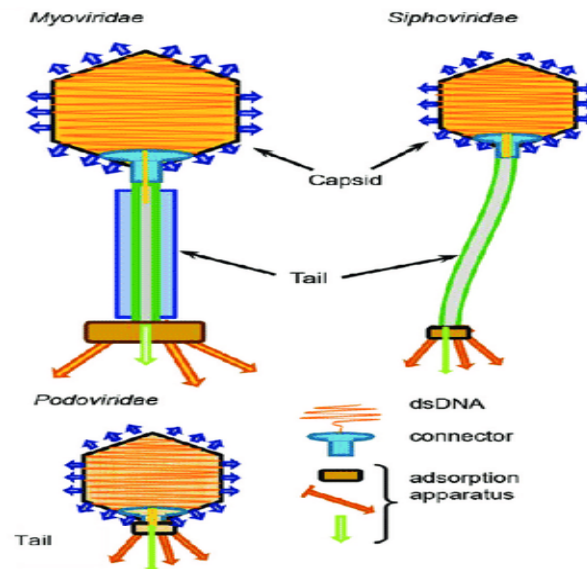


Figure1. 2: Member of the Caudovirales Family. Figure source: (White & Orlova, 2020)

There are seven other families of filamentous, pleomorphic phages which comes under unassigned group as per the recent 9<sup>th</sup> report (Karthik, 2014). List of phages with details about shape and structure is given below:

FAMILY	PROPERTIES	SHAPE
<i>Myoviridae</i>	Contractile tail	
<i>Siphoviridae</i>	Noncontractile long tail,	
<i>Podoviridae</i>	Short tail	
<i>Microviridae</i>	ssDNA (C), 27 nm, 12 knoblike capsomers	
<i>Corticoviridae</i>	dsDNA (C), complex capsid, lipids, 63 nm	
<i>Tectiviridae</i>	dsDNA (L), inner lipid vesicle, pseudo-tail, 60 nm	
<i>Leviviridae</i>	ssRNA (L), 23 nm, like poliovirus	
<i>Cystoviridae</i>	dsRNA (L), segmented, lipidic envelope, 70–80 nm	
<i>Inoviridae</i>	ssDNA (C), filaments or rods, 85–1950 x 7 nm	
<i>Plasmaviridae</i>	dsDNA (C), lipidic envelope, no capsid, 80 nm	

Figure1. 3: Different family of Bacteriophage. Fig source (Kartik, 2014)

### 1.1.2 Bacteriophage biology

Phages are the obligatory parasite thus; require host cellular machinery for the replication of their genetic material. Based on the mode of replication, the phage has two types of life cycle: Lytic and lysogenic cycle where they undergo five general steps such as adsorption or attachment, penetration, biosynthesis, assembly and release for completely lysis of host cell as eukaryotic viruses. In order to infect a specific host cell, bacteriophage recognizes and adheres itself to the bacterial surface, specifically on a receptor found on the bacterial's surface. This process is called adsorption and cannot occur randomly. To successfully adhere, molecules on the phage tail or tail fiber must match specific molecules on the bacterial surface that serves as receptors. A bacterium lacking these molecules is resistant to infection and this causes specificity in phages. Once it becomes permanently bound to the cell, the bacterial virus injects its genetic material into the bacterium in a step called Penetration. This involves the contraction of helical sheath, which forces the hollow tube into the cell cytoplasm, much like the microscopic syringe. In this process, the viral DNA is released into the cell's interior. The viral capsid does not enter the cell. It remains as an empty shell, attached to the cell exterior. Depending on the type of phage, one of two cycles will follow- lytic or lysogenic cycle (Orzechowska & amp; Mohammed, 2019).

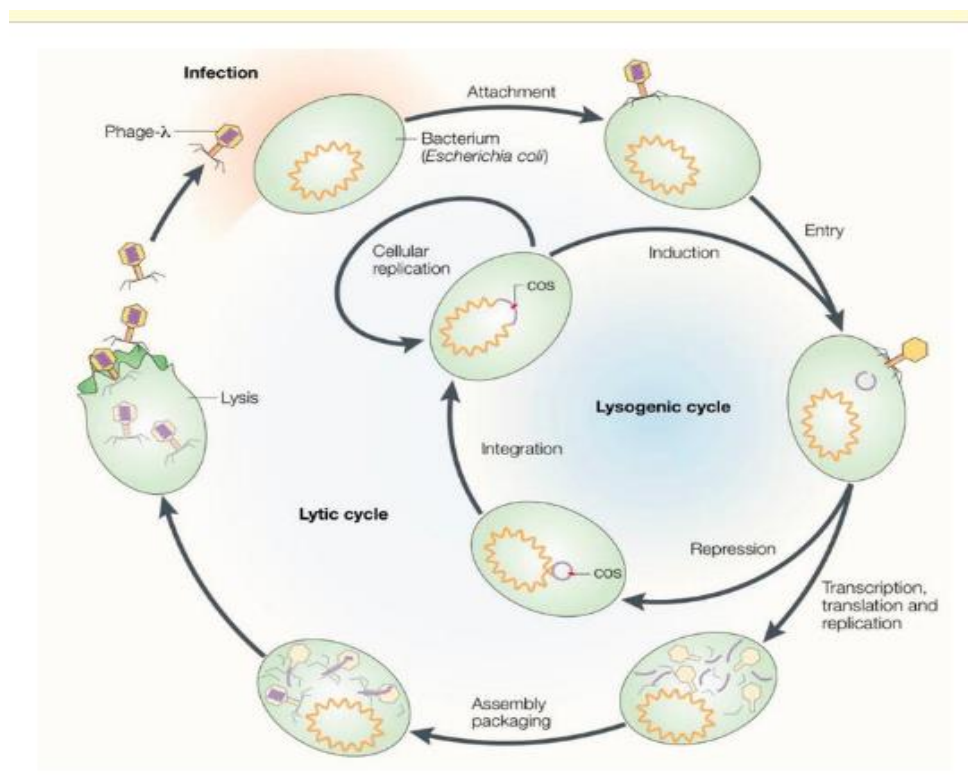


Figure1. 4: Mechanism of Bacteriophage

During the lytic cycle, the phage will make use of the host cells chemical energy as well as its biosynthetic machinery to produce phage nucleic acids (Phage DNA and phage mRNA) and phage proteins. During this, the metabolic activity of the cell is blocked and the cell begins producing protein coded by the viral DNA. These include proteins that block normal host-cell activity, enzymes required for viral replication, and structural proteins needed to construct new capsids. The viral DNA is also repeatedly copied. All energy required for these processes is provided by the host cell. Once the production

phase is finished, the phage nucleic acids and structural proteins are then spontaneously assembled. After a while, certain protein collectively known as lysin are produced within the cell which causes the cell wall to lyse, allowing the assembled phages within to be released and to infect other susceptible bacterial cells (Ofir & Sorek, 2018). All the phages do not undergo lytic cycle. Viral reproduction can also occur through the lysogenic cycle where host cells are not necessarily killed or lysed.

In lysogenic cycle, after the injection of phage genome into a host cell, it gets incorporated into the host genome and rests as a prophage until its lysogenic conversion and the state is called lysogeny. Usually, the lysogenic conversion occurs when the host comes under stress (UV or mutagenic chemicals and desiccation). The phage genome multiplies along with the host genome and the daughter host cells are also capable of producing phage upon lysogenic conversion. Lysis of bacterial cell after phage maturation occurs several methods depending on the type of phage involved. Double stranded DNA containing phages produce endolysin an enzyme which digests peptidoglycan in the cell wall; it reaches the cell wall by the action of a second protein called Holin which permeabilizes the cell membrane. Some phages also contain genes which code for two alternative lysis proteins, and are supposed to interfere with the cell membrane or cell wall. Single NA containing phages possess only one lysis protein which is presumed to interrupt with peptidoglycan synthesis. Filamentous phages can emerge from the infected bacterial cells through phage encoded channels in the bacterial cell wall. The lysogenic cycle, although does not cause lysis and is not lethal to bacteria, but has a negative impact on the bacterial growth (Wang, Smith *et al.*, 2000).

For the isolation of phage in laboratory, DLAA (Double Layer Agar Assay) method is widely used. In this method, a hard layer serves as a base layer and the mixture of phage particles, host cell and soft agar forms the upper overlay in the petri plate. When the plate is incubated, host bacterium forms a confluent growth and phages attached with the host lyse the bacterium releasing new phage particles which then infect neighboring bacterium. The spread of virus to the whole plate is limited by gel. The area in which phage kills the bacterium is seen as a clear plaque and hence this method is also called "plaque assay". The individual plaque in the plate is supposed to result from a single plaque forming unit and hence the plaque count gives the number of plaque forming units (PFU) in the original phage culture.

### **1.1.3 Host bacteria**

#### **1.1.3.1 *Staphylococcus aureus***

*Staphylococcus aureus* is a Gram- positive, round-shaped bacteria frequently found in the upper respiratory tract and on the skin (Masalha *et al.*, 2001), they are both a commensal bacterium and a human pathogen. Approximately 30% of the human population is colonized with *S. aureus* and it is a leading cause of bacteremia and infective endocarditis (IE) as well as osteoarticular, skin and soft tissue, pleuropulmonary, and device-related infections (Wertheim *et al.*, 2015). According to the WHO *S. aureus* is one of the leading bacteria that is resistant to fourth generation of antibiotic, now superbug needs to be developed to cure infection caused by *S. aureus*. Each year, around 500,000 patients in hospitals of the United States contract a Staphylococcal infection, chiefly by *S. aureus* (Tracey, 2018).

### 1.1.3.2 *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*

*Pseudomonas aeruginosa* is gram negative, rod shaped opportunistic pathogen of animals, ubiquitous in nature (Palumbo, 1972). According to United States National Nosocomial Infection Surveillance System, it accounts for 16.1% of all nosocomial infections and ranked second among Gram negative pathogens (Ranjan et al, 2010). It is the third leading cause of 12 % of hospital-acquired urinary tract infections, upper and lower respiratory tract infections like cystic fibrosis that is associated with high mortality rate in immune-compromised patients (Todar, 2011) and also gender-wise prevalence showed 61.78% male and 38.22% females were infected by *P. aeruginosa* (Khan et al, 2008). Souli and colleagues (2008) published data from 23 countries on the European Antimicrobial Resistance Surveillance System and it was shown that 18% of all isolates were multidrug resistant *P. aeruginosa* strains (Souli et al, 2008). Aman Ullah and their colleagues (2012) carried out a study in Islamabad and showed that *P. aeruginosa* is 94% resistant to Chloramphenicol, 88% to Colistin /sulphate, 73% to Tetracycline and 3% to Imipenem (Ullah et al, 2012).

### 1.1.4 Nosocomial infection

The term "Nosocomial" comes from two Greek words: "Nosus" meaning "disease" + "komeion" meaning "to take care of." Hence, "Nosocomial" should apply to any disease contracted by a patient while under medical care. However, common usage of the term "Nosocomial" is now synonymous with hospital-acquired. Nosocomial infections are infections that are found in a hospital and are potentially caused by organisms that are resistant to antibiotics (Rosenthal et al., 2012). The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) defines nosocomial infection (NI) as an infectious event that is diagnosed >48 hours after admission without evidence that the pathogen was already in the incubation phase (Yangco, 1989)

In the United States, roughly 9.2 out of every 100 patients acquire a nosocomial infection, according to *Healthline and among them also* some HAIs can be quite serious and potentially life-threatening (Chalik, 2014). We can find different factors that can influence the development of HAIs, contaminated instruments, objects, and substances, poor use or maintenance of catheters and ventilators, patient/health care worker contact, contaminated air conditioning systems, understaffing, congested hospitals (beds in close proximity to one other), improper sterilization and disinfection practices, reusing syringes and needles. Although there are significant recommendations to control hospital acquired infections such as by controlling antimicrobial agents by individual prescribers, by making the hospital rooms well ventilated, proper cleaning and decontamination of surgical clothes, surgical instruments and floor of the hospitals, by using gloves during surgery, by not allow anyone to walk bare foot. Despite of all these control measures, it is unable to control the hospital acquired nosocomial infection due to the resistant mechanism of bacteria against the antibiotic (Reardon, 2015).

## 1.2 Rationale/ Statement of Problem

Nosocomial infections (NIs) are an important public health concern due to increasing numbers of immune compromised hospitalized patients. The World Health Organization (WHO) has reported that 1.4 million people around the world are suffering from NIs at any one time. Mostly nosocomial infections in hospitals nowadays are caused by

antibiotic resistant microorganisms and improper sterilization and disinfection practices (WHO, 2017). Disinfectants by chemicals are hazardous, harmful and irritant when used in excess amount and also, they equally target normal microflora of our body (Fiessinger et al., 1981). Therefore, most useful and effective replacement is natural agents (Virus) that kill or inhibit bacteria, which is Bacteriophage. Recent findings also support the potential of phage to be an alternative for decontaminants. Bacteriophage against *Acinetobacter baumannii* when used in hospital environment showed significant decrease in *Acinetobacter*-associated HAIs (Ho *et al.*, 2016).

This study aims to focus on the study of phage activity as a disinfectant to decontaminate bacteria on fomite clothes and marble tile. Study of phage activity as disinfectant help us to study the efficacy of phage to minimize the bacterial load in fomites and marble tiles, responsible for nosocomial infection in the hospital.

## **1.3 Objectives**

### **1.3.1 General Objectives**

1. To evaluate the efficacy of bacteriophage to minimize the bacterial load responsible for nosocomial infection.

### **1.3.2 Specific Objectives**

1. To isolate and identify bacteria from ICU ward of Teku hospital that are responsible for nosocomial infection
2. To perform antibiotic susceptibility test and molecular identification of isolated bacterial pathogen.
3. To isolate the lytic bacteriophage against the bacteria isolated from ICU ward.
4. To perform multi host range of the isolated phage.
5. To characterize the most potent phage morphologically and physiochemically.
6. To evaluate the reduction of bacterial load with bacteriophage lysate on hospital fomites.

## **1.4 Hypothesis**

This research aims to answer “Can phages be used effectively as potential agent to minimize the nosocomial infection?”

### **1.4.1 Null hypothesis**

H0: The bacteriophage does not reduce the load of the bacteria responsible for nosocomial infection on fomite.

### **1.4.2 Alternative hypothesis**

H1: The bacteriophage significantly reduces the load of the bacteria responsible for nosocomial infection on fomite.

## 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

### 2.1 Nosocomial infection and its prevalence

Nosocomial infections are infections that occur while receiving health care that are developed in a hospital or other health care facility that appears in first 48 hours or more than 48 hours after hospital admission, or within 30 days after having received health care. There are multiple studies that indicate the common types of adverse events affecting hospitalized patients are adverse drug events and surgical complications. The US Center for Disease Control and Prevention studied that nearly 1.7 million hospitalized patients annually acquire NIs while being treated for other health issues and that more than 98,000 patients, which causes death of one among seventeen (Haque, M. 2018) and is a recognized public health problem world-wide with a prevalence rate of 3.0-20.7%, an incidence rate of 5-10%. It has become increasingly obvious that infections acquired in the hospital have led to increased morbidity and mortality which causes economic burden as well (Samuel, S et al., 2010).

Other studies conducted in high-income countries found that 5%–15% of the hospitalized patients acquire HCAs which can affect from 9% to 37% of those admitted to intensive care units (ICUs) (Vincient, J-L. 2008). In the United States, it has been estimated that as many as one hospital patient in ten acquires a nosocomial infection, or 2 million patients a year. Estimate of the annual cost ranges from \$4.5 billion to \$11 billion and up. Nosocomial infections contributed to 88,000 deaths in the US in 1995. In France, prevalence was 6.87% in 2001 and 7.5% in 2006, some patients were infected twice. In Italy, in the 2000s, about 6.7% of hospitalized patients were infected, i.e, between 450,000 and 700,000 patients, which caused between 4,500 and 7,000 deaths. In Switzerland, extrapolations assume about 70,000 hospitalized patients are affected by nosocomial infections, between 2 and 14% of hospitalized patients. In India, 30 to 35 percent of persons admitted to hospitals develop HAIs. Among hospital-acquired infections 30 to 40% are urinary tract infections, 15 to 20% surgical wound infections, 15 to 20% lower respiratory tract infections and 5 to 15% blood stream infections. (The +Hindu article, 2008). A survey (2002-2007) study at Sir H.N. Hospital & Research Center Mumbai, found the highest incidence of *P. aeruginosa* (28.35%) was found in ICU, which was followed by IMCU (26.86%), NICU (16.41%), IPCU (14.92%), and ICCU (13.43%) (Balikaran, R. 2010).

### 2.2 Prevalence of nosocomial infection in Nepal

Nosocomial infection/Hospital acquired infections (HAI) are one of the most common complications of hospital care, leading to high morbidity and mortality. Hospital acquired infection includes Ventilator Associated Pneumonia (VAP), Central Line Associated Bloodstream Infection (CLABSI), Catheter Acquired Urinary Tract Infection (CAUTI), and Surgical Site Infection (SSI) (Koirala, A. 2018). There are different studies done in Nepal about prevalence of nosocomial infection in hospitals, a study conducted in the Grande International Hospital to review the profile of hospital at the time interval of one year where 664 patients were taken where majority of infections (21.08%) were seen among the age group of 65- 78 years and most of the HAIs in ICU were caused by MDR Gram Negative Organism & *Acinetobacter baumannii* was most common and





The efficacy of phage therapy was observed up to 7 days post infection in a biofilm-associated murine model where *P. aeruginosa* establishes a natural long-term chronic lung infection and also in an artificial sputum medium biofilm model, phage can effectively kill *P. aeruginosa* (Waters, E. M., 2017). Pires et al. 2011 used a broad-host-range phage for *P. aeruginosa* biofilm control and the effect of lytic phages in the prevention of *P. aeruginosa* biofilm formation in hydrogel-coated catheters (Fu et al., 2010) resulted in a 3-log reduction of biofilm cell populations after 48 h, compared with untreated catheters.

Overall, phage therapy has significantly contributed to control and even prevention of *P. aeruginosa* infections *in vivo*. Regarding the clinical trials in mouse models, most of the reported cases showed survival rates that ranged between 80% and 100% after phage treatment, and intraperitoneal or intranasal administration seemed to be the most efficient route of administration. Phages were also able to increase the life span of both *P. aeruginosa*-infected wax moth larvae and *P. aeruginosa*-infected *Drosophila melanogaster* (Pires, D. P., 2015). Finally, phage lysin research is also on the increase: Guo et al. described a novel endolysin with *in vitro* activity against *P. aeruginosa* and other Gram-negative bacteria on the critical priority pathogens list (Guo et al., 2017).

## 2.4 Bacteriophage to treat nosocomial infection

Due to the increasing resistance of bacteria against various antibiotics Bacteriophages have been considered as a potential antibiotic alternative for treating bacterial infections (Cao, F. et al., 2015). Morello, et al., 2011 showed that intranasal administration of Phage 1513 can also effectively treat pneumonia that is caused by *K. pneumoniae*. Another clinical trial was done by Aleshkin and his team; evaluate therapeutic effectiveness of the cocktail in an intensive care unit, caused by multi-resistant strains of *Acinetobacter baumannii*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and *Staphylococcus aureus* where 79% of the initial samples from 14 patients' endotracheal aspirate, blood and urine were contaminated. Twenty-four hours after the 3-day phage therapy, contamination level dropped to 21% (Aleshkin, et al., 2016). LM33\_P1 was infected with O25b *E. coli* strains which show 70% coverage on the two major antibiotic resistant pandemic clonal complexes ST13 1-O25b:H4 and ST69-O25 and the *in vivo* activity of bacteriophage LM33\_P1 using three different extra intestinal virulence murine models showed that it infects bacteria in several organs. Prazak. et al., 2019 compared the efficacy of intravenous phage cocktail therapy ( $2-3 \times 10^9$  pfu/ml, n = 12) with teicoplanin (3 mg/kg, n = 12), and combination of both (n = 11) showed that treatment with either phages or teicoplanin increased survival from 0% to 58% and 50%, respectively (P < 0.005).

Application of Commercial bacteriophage cocktail targeting *K. pneumoniae* which was administered orally over 5 days to patients hospitalized in the neonatal intensive care unit, where the rate of nosocomial *K. pneumoniae* infections decreased to zero and remained at this level for more than a month of surveillance in the ICU (Aslanov. et al., 2018). The bacterial pathogens *Klebsiella pneumoniae* causes urinary tract infections in immune compromised patients of local hospital in Shanghai, China used Phage 117 as a biocontrol agent against *K. pneumoniae* isolates with carbapenem resistance (Tan, et al., 2019).

## 2.5. Bacteriophage as a disinfectant

Recently, phages have been widely used for the decontamination of food, but limited data are available in which phages are used for decontamination of hospital environment. Some research papers are found in which bacteriophages are used as disinfectant. A two-phase prospective intervention study was performed by Ho.etal.,2016 at a 945 bed public teaching hospital Taiwan where 264 Carbapenem-resistant *A. baumannii* (CRAB) were isolated and mainly responsible for healthcare-associated infection in intensive care units (ICUs) and to control this, the bacteriophage decontamination was conducted where 8 selected phages of  $10^7$  PFU (plaque forming unit) stock was passed singly through ultrasonic humidifier for 5 min which convert it in the form of cool fog and spread equally in the room and then the patients were sifted to the aerosolized ICU rooms. The result showed that CRAB in the intensive care units decreased from 8.57 per 1000 patient-days in the pre-intervention period to 5.11 per 1000 patient-days in the intervention period ( $p = 0.0029$ ) where the mean percentage of resistant isolates CRAB decreased from 87.76% to 46.07% in the intensive care units ( $p = 0.001$ ).

A comparative study was done by Accoti, et al., 2018, where the decontamination ability of phage and phage plus probiotic-based sanitation system (Probiotic Cleaning Hygiene System, PCHS) was tested in vitro (plastic, glass, and ceramic surfaces) and in situ (ceramic sink of a bathroom), against drug-susceptible or resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Escherichia coli*, and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* strains, and result showed that the combined use of phages and PCHS not only resulted in a rapid reduction (up to >90%) of the targeted pathogens, but also, due to the stabilizing effect of probiotics, the pathogens were maintained at low levels (>99%) at later times too whereas a significant reduction, compared to controls. In 2019 Accoti, et al., analyze the feasibility and effectiveness of phage addition to PCHS sanitation, which showed that a daily application of phage by nebulization induced a rapid and significant decrease in *Staphylococcus* spp. load on treated surfaces, up to 97% more than PCHS alone ( $P < 0.001$ ). Treatments with phage cocktails produced complete inactivation (ca. 5–6 log CFU/ml) of EPEC920 and O157:H7 STEC464 on glass coverslips, and of EPEC920, non-O157 STEC ARG4827 and O157:H7 STEC464 on stainless steel coupons, at both temperatures (4 °C and 37 °C) at multiplicity of infection ca. 103 and 107 respectively (Tomat et al., 2014). Decontamination of fabric, glass slide and coverslip inoculated with MRSA strain treated with singular phage yield a 1-1.5, 1.5 and 0.5 log reduction in CFU/ml compared with mock treatment with a p-value  $\leq 0.01$ ,  $\leq 0.005$  and  $\leq 0.02$  respectively whereas cocktails of phage were typically more effective at decontaminating MRSA than single phage (Jensen, et al., 2015).

## 2.6: Application of bacteriophage

A part from bacteriophage as a disinfectant, there are many applications of bacteriophage:

### 2.6.1. Phage therapy

Phage therapy has many advantages over antibiotics for therapy, but there are also concerns. This approach has been used in animal, plants, and human beings with varied degrees of success. One of the advantages of using phage is their specificity to the target

bacteria and lack of interference with the host normal flora. After phage administration, they spread quickly through the human body reaching every organ. However, the immune response generates antibodies that clear the systemic phage and that is one of the major concerns about using phage therapy. One way to circumvent this is to use the phage's lytic enzymes such as endolysins and holins for therapy instead of using the whole viron particle (Haq et al., 2012).

### 2.6.2 Phage display

In the phage display technique, DNA, which encodes the desired polypeptide, is fused within the coat protein genes for the phage. Then the desired protein is produced and expressed on the surface of the phage (Smith, 1985). Phage display can be used to generate antibody fragments libraries using the filamentous phage such as M13 phage. These display libraries have been involved in many applications such as in the treatment of cocaine addiction. First, the phages are administered nasally until it reaches the central nervous system where the displayed antibody binds to the molecules of cocaine and prevent its effect on the brain (Dickerson et al., 2005).

### 2.6.3 Phage typing

The use of phages as a diagnostic tool or for phage typing depends upon the sensitivity patterns of bacteria to certain phages. There are various methods that can be used to detect pathogenic bacteria. For example, phages can be used to deliver reporter genes, which can be detected post infection. Phage adsorption can be detected by using phage that has fluorescent dye attached to their coats (Goodridge et al., 1999). Detection of released bacterial proteins following bacterial lysis due to phage infection, such as adenylate kinase, can be detected by using antibodies produced by phage display that will bind specifically to these complexes (Petrenko and Vodyanoy, 2003). The phage amplification assay is the most technique that have been used to detect bacteria such as *Pseudomonas*, *E.coli*, *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*, *Salmonella*, *Campylobacter* and *Listeria* species (Barry et al., 1996).

### 2.6.4 Bioprocessing and bio control

Bacteriophages are used in bioprocessing to decrease the bacterial load in foods. Especially, foods that are minimally processed to avoid cooking associated texture or flavor (Garcia et al., 2010). Phage bioprocessing has been employed to reduce the growth of many food pathogens such as *Salmonella enteritidis* in cheese, *Campylobacter* and *Salmonella* on chicken skin, and *Listeria monocytogenes* on meat. In addition, this approach can be used to extend the shelf life of animal products (Dykes and Moorhead, 2002).

Phages can be used as well as predators of bacteria that associated with fungi, plants or their products. Phage biocontrol of plants pathogens has been a successfully used against *Xanthomonas pruni* on peaches, peppers, and cabbage plants. These methods also worked against *Ralstonia solanacearum* on tobacco and *Xanthomona campestris* on tomatoes.

### 3. MATERIALS AND METHODS

#### 3.1 Preparation of media

Nutrient Agar (NA), Macconkey Agar (MA), and Luria Bertain (LB) broth were used to culture and subculture bacteria. To confirm Multi Drug Resistant (MDR) bacteria, Muller Hinton Agar (MHA) was used. Similarly, Tryptic Soya Broth and Sodium chloride and Magnesium sulfate (SM) Buffer were used for Bacteriophage isolation, purification and amplification. Cetrimide agar (CA) was used for growth of bacteria after decontamination assay by phage on apron pieces and tiles.

#### 3.2 Bacteria collection, isolation and identification

Bacterial samples were collected from ICU ward of Teku Hospital by plate exposure and swabbing method. Swabbing was done from different utensils and lab coat of the nurse of ICU ward. Similarly, NA (nutrient agar), MSA (Mannitol Salt Agar) and cetrimide agar plates were exposed for 30 minutes in the ICU ward. The plates were safely transported to the Central Department of biotechnology (CDBT). The plates were then incubated at 37°C for 24 hours. After incubation, next day individual yellow mucoid colony from MSA plate and greenish colony from cetrimide plate were subculture on the NA plate for further biochemical test and Gram staining. Biochemical tests performed were Indole test, Methyl Red (MR) test, Voges Proskauer (VP) test, Citrate utilization test, Triple Sugar Iron Agar (TSIA) test, Oxidase test and Urease test.

Table3. 1: Bacteria used and their code name

SN	Bacteria	Code name
1	<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	P <sub>1</sub>
2	<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	P <sub>2</sub>
3	<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	P <sub>3</sub>
4	<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	P <sub>4</sub>
5	<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	Sa <sub>1</sub>
6	<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	Sa <sub>2</sub>
7	<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	Sa <sub>3</sub>
8	<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	Sa <sub>4</sub>
9	<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	Sa <sub>5</sub>
10	<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	Sa <sub>6</sub>
11	<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	Sa <sub>7</sub>
12	<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	Sa <sub>8</sub>

13	<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	Sa <sub>9</sub>
14	<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	Sa <sub>10</sub>
15	<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	Sa <sub>11</sub>
16	<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	Sa <sub>12</sub>

### 3.3 Antibiotic susceptibility test

All the isolated bacteria were tested for antibiotic susceptibility test by Kirby- Baure disc diffusion method. Different classes of antibiotics were used like, Meropenem, Imipenem, Ciprofloxacin, Methicillin, Vancomycin, Ampicillin. For AST, a small quantity of bacterial culture was inoculated in LB broth and incubated at 37 degree Celsius. A 0.5 McFarland was prepared by adding 9.95ml of 1% H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> and 0.05ml of 1% Barium chloride. Bacterial density in the culture was compared with 0.5 McFarland and when similar turbidity was achieved, the bacterial culture was taken for AST.

For AST testing, 100 microliters of above culture was spread plated in MHA (Muller Hinton Agar) plate and antibiotic discs were aseptically put firmly in the plates. The plates were then cultured at 37 degree Celsius for 24 hours. After incubation the clear zone around antibiotics (zone of inhibition) was measured in millimeters using ruler. The size of zone of inhibition was compared with provided standard data to determine if the organism was sensitive, intermediate or resistant with that antibiotic.

### 3.4 Molecular detection of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* bacteria

Isolated *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* was further confirmed by sequencing the 16S rRNA gene Xcelaris Genomics India.

#### 3.4.1 Genomic DNA extraction of bacterial strain

Genomic DNA extraction was done by using bacterial DNA isolation Kit. Quality of gDNA was checked on 0.8% agarose gel for the single intact band. Genomic DNA samples were loaded into the wells of 0.8% agarose gel and run gel at 110V for 30 mins. The gel was then observed in UV transilluminator for single intact band.

#### 3.4.2 PCR amplification of 16SrRNA gene

Molecular identification of the host bacteria was done by PCR using primer16SrRNA. PCR amplification was done. For PCR amplification already optimized PCR condition and PCR reaction volume was used shown in table 3.4 and 3.3 respectively.

Table3. 2: Forward and Reverse primer sequence used for PCR

Primer name	Tm	Sequence	Amplicon size
27F	56.4	AGAGTTTGATCMTGGCTCAG	1500
1492R	56.4	CGTTACCTTGTTACGACTT	1500

PCR reaction mixture was prepared in PCR tubes as mentioned in table and subjected for PCR amplification. After the completion of PCR amplification, 5µl of the amplified

product was analyzed by 1 % agarose gel electrophoresis on Tris Acetate EDTA (TAE) buffer containing 0.2 $\mu$ g/ml Ethidium Bromide (EtBr) as a DNA staining solution. Gel was viewed on a UV transilluminator and image captured with the help of Gel Doc.

Table3. 3: PCR component, their concentration and volume used for PCR reaction

SN	Component	Concentration	Volume
1	Master mix	1X	12.5
2	Forward primer	10pmol/ $\mu$ l	1
3	Reverse primer	10pmol/ $\mu$ l	1
4	Template	100ng/ $\mu$ l	1
5	NFW		9.5
	Total		25 $\mu$ l

PCR product was then sent to Xcelaris Laboratory, India for sequencing of 16s rRNA. Sequence obtained from the lab was analyzed by using different bioinformatics tools. Chromas was used for analysis of chromatogram file and to know the sequence similarity between our sequence and nucleotide database sequences, direct BLAST search was done.

### 3.4.3 PCR Condition of 16srRNA gene amplification

Table3. 4: Thermo cycling condition for 16srRNA amplification

SN	Steps	Temperature( $^{\circ}$ C)	Time	Cycle
1.	Enzyme Activation	95	5min	
2.	Initial Denaturation	95	30sec	
3.	Annealing	55	30sec	35
4.	Extension	75	2.5min	
5.	Final extension	72	5min	
6.	Final hold	4	$\infty$	

### 3.5 Sample collection for bacteriophage isolation

Water samples were collected from different river of Kathmandu valley. Sample was taken from Balkhu River, Teku River and Basundhara River, Sali Nadi River. While collecting the sample stacked water was preferred rather than the running water. 30 ml water was collected in sterile falcon tubes, carried to the Central Department of Biotechnology (CDBT) lab and it was then centrifuged to 4000 rpm for 30 minutes in order to remove unwanted contaminants and other bacterial cell debris. Now, with the help of membrane filter of size 0.22 $\mu$ m (PES Filter Media, Whatman™) syringe filter was

done to remove bacterial contamination and other unwanted materials .The filtrate was collected in sterile falcon tubes and stored at 4°C for further use.



Figure 3. 1: Representative figure of water sample collection

### 3.6 Bacteriophage isolation

Bacteriophage isolation was done by standard technique of Double Layer Agar Assay (DLAA) method using Kropinski et al., 2009 method. Briefly, the processed (syringe filtered) 1ml water sample was taken in a sterile tube and log phase bacterial growth (100 $\mu$ l) was added on it and allowed to remain for attachment. Then, 3ml semisolid Tryptone soya broth (0.5% agar) was added to tubes and poured into the already prepared Tryptone soya agar plate (1% agar). After solidification of the media then plates were incubated in the incubator at 37°C for 24 hours (Chase & Bradely, 2011). After incubation presence/absence of plaque was observed. Two types of plaques were observed on the plate, round bull's eye and small pin head. Small pin head plaques were selected for further processing. Plaques were characterized by size, shape and turbidity.

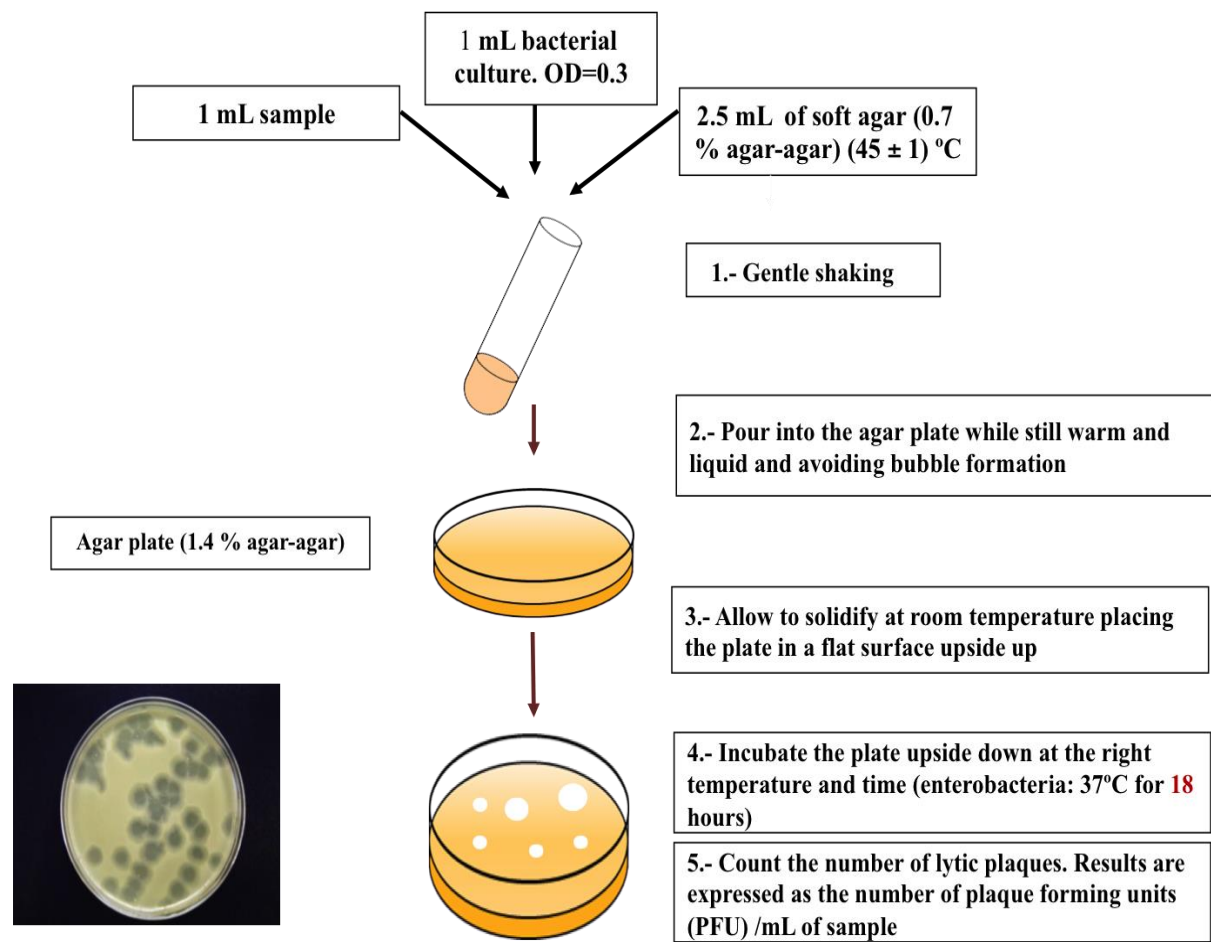


Figure 3. 2: DLAA technique for phage isolation and culture

### 3.7. Bacteriophage purification: Phage streak protocol

The initially formed plaques may be of different types, so for further processing and characterization of phage it should be obtained in pure form. Analogous to bacteria, each phage plaque is presumed to be clonal, having originated from a single virion. The picking and sub-culturing of plaques ensures that a phage population is descended from a single virion and is therefore clonal, or “pure”. Streaking the phage on agar plate and overlaying with bacterial lawns is an efficient way of isolating single plaques from sample putatively heterogeneous populations. The technique is very similar to streaking for single bacterial colony. First the single isolated phage was touched at the center with a sterile wooden toothpick and streaked on 1.5% TSA plate making primary, secondary and tertiary inoculums. Then 100  $\mu$ l of host bacterial culture was mixed with 3ml of soft agar in a sterile falcon tube and poured in streaked petri plate starting from the end point of streaking then incubated overnight at 37°C after solidification of agar. Three subsequent rounds of streaking were performed to obtain pure phage plaques (Clokie & Kropinski, 2009).

### 3.8. Phage lysate/stock preparation

Phage stock solution was prepared by amplifying phages in petri dishes. Eight TSA plates were streaked with a single plaque by continuous streaking method and allowed to dry. Then after 100  $\mu$ l of bacterial culture in LB was mixed with 3ml of soft agar and overlaid on streaked plates. The petri plates were then incubated at 37°C overnight after



solidification. Next day 3 ml of SM buffer was poured on each plate containing plaques and allow agitating in shaker for 5 hours at 100rpm. SM buffer help to absorb and detach the phage particles from the media. Then the upper layer of soft agar along with SM buffer was scraped with sterile cotton buds and transferred to falcon tube. The mixture was then centrifuged at 4000 rpm for 30 minutes to settle down the debris. Transferring the filtrate to another falcon tube centrifugation was repeated for next 15 minutes. Then the filtrate was filtered through 0.22µm pore size syringe filter in a sterile falcon tube and thus the stock solution of phage was ready. The stock was stored at 4°C for further use and characterization (Fortier & Moineau, 2009).

### 3.9 Determination of phage titer

For the titer determination of phage, the phage stock was diluted into different dilution ranging from  $10^{-1}$  to  $10^{-14}$ . The stock culture is the  $10^0$  dilution. To dilute stock, 100ul of stock was added to 900ul SM buffer and labeled  $10^{-1}$  dilution and from each upper dilution 100ul was added to 900ul SM buffer to produce 10-fold lower dilutions.

Spot assay was utilized for titer determination. In this, grids were drawn on the bottom of TSA plate for spot test of each dilution. Then the bacterial lawn was prepared by pouring the mixture of 100 µl active log phase bacteria (P3) in 3ml soft agar into the labeled TSA plates. After allowing drying, 5 µl of respectively prepared phage dilutions were spotted aseptically onto corresponding grids as labeled. Only SM buffer was used as negative control. The droplets were allowed to soak into the agar and plates were incubated at 37°C for 24 hours in inverted position. Next day, the plates were observed for the clear zone of bacterial lysis/plaques on spots (Anderson et al., 2011).

For determining the concentration of phage in stock solution, the last three dilutions which showed clear lysis on spot assay were used. DLAA was performed taking individual dilutions and host bacteria (P3) and incubated overnight after solidification. After overnight incubation, the plates were observed for plaque formation and the distinguishable plaques were counted. The plaque forming unit per ml was calculated by using the following formula:

$$\text{pfu/ml} = \frac{\text{number of plaques observed}}{\text{dilution} \times \text{volume of sample}}$$

### 3.10 Determination of Optimum Multiplicity of Infection (MOI)

MOI is defined as the ratio of the number of phages infecting a number of bacterial host cells. To determine the optimal MOI of phage, different dilution of bacteria and phage are mixed with each other so that the ratio between the numbers of phages to number of bacteria gives MOI (Abedon, 2016).

$$\text{MOI} = \frac{\text{number of phage}}{\text{number of bacteria}}$$

Different MOI of 100, 10, 1, 0.1, 0.01, 0.001 and 0.0001 were prepared and added to 10 ml of sterile LB broth and allowed to incubate in shaking incubator at 37°C for 24 hours. The solution was observed for clarity as turbidity refers to growth of bacteria. The

lowest MOI at which clear solution without bacterial growth was observed was taken as optimal MOI.

### 3.11 Characterization of phage

Newly isolated *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* phage was further characterized:

#### 3.11.1. Host Range Analysis

Both intra specific and inter genus host range analysis was done by spot assay with slight modification of Verma et al., 2009. For intra specific host range, all the *Pseudomonas* strains were grown aseptically to the active log phase. Three milliliters of 0.5 % warm (50°C) soft agar was mixed with 100µl of each bacterial culture in different sterile test-tube and poured on properly labeled separate fresh Tryptic soya agar plate (TSA). Petri plates were swirled so as to distribute top agar evenly and left to solidify. Isolated *Pseudomonas* phage was used for host range and grid were marked in plate for each phage. SM buffer was used as a negative control. After solidification of the top agar layer, 5µl of the phage stock was applied to spots on the corresponding marked line and left for 15-20mins to dry. The plates were incubated for 24 hours at 37°C and checked for the presence or absence of bacterial lysis and clear zone. Double layer agar assay was done for those host strain which shows the intra host range during spot assay and number of plaques were counted after DLAA. For interspecies host range, different strain of *Klebsiella*, *Pseudomonas*, *Acinetobacter* and *Salmonella* were collected and revived these species were already available in the CDBT Laboratory. Single phage of *Pseudomonas*, cocktail of *Pseudomonas*, *Klebsiella*, *Acinetobacter*, and *Salmonella* were tested. At first, lawn culture of all 28 bacteria was prepared by mixing 100µl active log phase bacteria with 3ml soft agar (Vermal et al., 2009). The mixture was then poured into TSA plates and allowed to set for few minutes. Like the spot assay performed above, blocks were already made for different phages to be spotted. 5µl of each phage was pipetted on corresponding blocks and allowed to soak for about 15 minutes. Then the plates were incubated overnight at 37°C. Presence of clear spot after incubation shows lysis of bacteria by corresponding phage.

#### 3.11.2. One step growth curve analysis and burst size determination

For one-step growth curve, 0.01 MOI of bacteria and phage were prepared and added to 30 ml sterile LB broth (Jin et al, 2012). The LB broth was then incubated in shaking incubator at 37°C for 1.5 hour and during this time; samples were taken at 5 mins, 10 mins, 20 mins, 30 mins, 40 mins, 50 mins, 60 mins, 70 mins and 80 mins. The samples were then centrifuged at 12000 rpm for 2 mins to settle bacterial debris. The supernatant was taken and mixed with 3ml soft agar, 100ul bacterial culture and plated on TSA plate. During plating after 30 mins, the supernatant was diluted 10 times and for both diluted and original supernatant, DLAA was performed. The plates were incubated at 37°C for 24 hours and numbers of plaques were observed.

The graph was plotted with PFU/ml against time. The latent period was identified as time in between after absorption and the initial rise in plaque number. The Burst size was identified by dividing the average of PFU/infected-cell in the post-rise period of growth curve by the average of pfu/infected-cell in the pre-rise period of the growth curve (Ellis & Delbruck, 1939).

### 3.11.3. Protein profiling by Sodium Dodecyl Sulfate Polyacrylamide Electrophoresis (SDS-PHAGE)

SDS-PAGE of phage protein was done, in which, sample was prepared by direct heating method and acetone precipitation method.

#### 3.11.3.1 Sample preparation

**a) Direct heating method:** In this method, 25µl of purified phage was mixed with equal volume of 2X sample buffer and heated in heating mantle at 95°C for 10 minutes to denature protein (kumari, Harjal *et al*, 2009).

**b) Acetone precipitation method:** For acetone precipitation method, purified phage solution and ice-cold acetone were mixed in the ratio of 1:4 (200µl:800µl) and vortexed (Sillankorva, 2009). Then, the vortexed sample was incubated for 60 minutes at -20°C for phage precipitation (Urban-Chmiel, *et al.*, 2018). After incubation, the sample was centrifuged at 13000rpm for 10 minutes. The supernatant was decanted and pellet was air dried and was resuspended in 50µl PBS buffer (8 g l<sup>-1</sup> NaCl, 0.2 g l<sup>-1</sup> KCl, 0.2 g l<sup>-1</sup> KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, 1.44 g l<sup>-1</sup> Na<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub> × 2H<sub>2</sub>O, pH7.5). Acetone precipitation of phage helps to concentrate the different proteins of phage particles so that proteins can be easily visualized in the gel. Denaturation of protein was performed as in direct heating method.

#### 3.11.3.2 SDS-PAGE

SDS-PAGE was performed as described by Laemmli (1970) with slight modification. Separation was carried out in 12% resolving gel (Tris–HCl buffer with pH 8.8), and 4% polyacrylamide in Tris–HCl buffer (pH 6.8) was used as a stacking gel. Electrophoresis was carried out in standard Tris–glycine chamber buffer at a constant current of 400 mA till the tracking dye reached the bottom of the gel. A molecular weight standard (Protein Ladder, (Genei) with a molecular weight range from 7 to 240 kDa was used as protein marker (Urban-Chmiel, *et al.*, 2018). After electrophoretic separation, the gels were stained with Bio-Safe Coomassie brilliant blue solution for certain hours in a shaker and then suitably destained with destaining solution for best visibility of protein bands. The gel was scanned in scanner and photograph of separated protein bands was taken (Sangha, *et al.*, 2014).

#### 3.11.4. Transmission Electron Microscopy

Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM) the potent lytic phages were selected for Transmission Electron Microscopy. The phage titer was maintained at a range of 10<sup>-8</sup> - 10<sup>-10</sup> pfu/ml. Phage lysates were transported to Advanced Instrumentation Research Facility – Jawaharlal Nehru University (AIRF-JNU), New Delhi, India in cold chain. TEM of bacteriophages was performed using the method described by Ackermann (Ackermann, 2009). Phages lysates were fixed with fixative (2.5% glutaraldehyde and 2% paraformaldehyde, prepared in 0.7M sodium phosphate buffer (pH 7.2). For fixation, equal volume of phage lysate and fixative were added, mixed and left overnight. Next day, the fixed phages were subjected to high-speed centrifugation (35,000g) for 3 hours. Pellet of phages was deposited on separate 300 mesh carbon coated copper grid and then flooded with 2%(w/v) uranyl acetate (pH 4.5) and after 2 min excess stain was soaked-off with blotting paper. The copper grid was dried and examined in Transmission

electron microscope under various magnifications. Phage morphology was observed from the micrographs. The TEM micrographs were analyzed through ImageJ 1.52a (<https://imagej.nih.gov/ij>) for determining tail size (width and length) and size of phage capsid/ head. Three readings of head and tail, width and length, were recorded and mean value was taken. The bacteriophage isolate was assigned to a respective family in accordance with the recommended guidelines of the International Committee on Taxonomy of Viruses (ICTV), based upon examination of virion particle morphology.

### **3.11.5. Stability of phage against temperature**

The determination of Stability of phage against different temperatures was determined by exposing the phage to different temperature and time. The stability against temperature and pH was done by taking a reference from (D'Andrea *et al.*, 2017) first, the phage stock was diluted to different dilution with SM buffer and  $10^8$  diluted solutions was taken at which countable plaques of phage were found. 1ml of  $10^8$  diluted phages were kept in different sterile eppendorf tubes and these were kept to 37°C, 40°C, 50°C, 60°C, 70°C and 80°C temperature for different time period 10min, 20min, 30min, 40min, 50min and 60min. Incubation was done in dry heat such as incubator, heating mantle and hot air oven. After incubation in different time and temperature, the tubes were withdrawn from the temperature at their respective time and immediately 100µl of log phase host *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* at OD 0.1( $10^8$ PFU/ml) was mixed with the heat-treated phage solution and DLAA was done. After overnight incubation, the number of surviving plaques were counted and expressed as PFU/ml then graph was plotted PFU/ ml against temperature.

### **3.11.6. Stability of phage against pH**

pH stability was done according to (Han *et al.*, 2014) with slight modification. pH ranging from 1-13 was prepared by adjusting the pH of fresh LB broth. 1M HCL was added drop by drop to achieve desired acidic pH and 1M NaOH was used to achieve desired basic pH. 900µl of pH adjusted LB broth was taken in thirteen different eppendorf tube (pH from 1-13) and autoclaved. 100µl of phage suspension of high titer ( $10^8$ PFU/ml) was mixed to make a final solution 1ml and incubated for 1hours at 37°C. Phage suspension having pH7 was used as control. After the incubation period, phage titer was determined by double layer agar method against host bacteria *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. The counts of surviving phage were expressed as PFU/ml and plotted against pH values.

## **3.12 Application of phage as disinfectant**

### **3.12.1. Use of bacteriophage on contaminated cloth**

Cloth decontamination assay was performed according to (Jensen *et al.*, 2015) with slight modification. Laboratory coat materials are composed of 35% cotton and 65% polyester. 1.5×1.5cm pieces were prepared and autoclaved to achieve sterility. *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* bacteria were cultured to logarithmic growth, and then diluted to obtain  $10^5$  CFU/ml. 100µl of  $10^5$  CFU/ml bacterial culture was added to the pieces of lab coat (pieces of lab coat were kept on glass slide and covered with Petridish) and allowed to remain for 30min at 37°C. After that 100µl of phage titer was then added and incubated at 37°C for 1hr. Phage titers added to the cloth ranged from  $10^5$ PFU/ml to  $10^9$ PFU/ml for a range of MOI of 1 to 10,000. For control, sterile phage buffer with bacteria was added in one lab coat piece. After one-hour incubation bacteria were

removed by placing the cloth into 500 $\mu$ l LB broth and vortexed at high speed for 10 seconds. Cetrimide agar plates were prepared and labeled as control, MOI 1, MOI 10, MOI 100, MOI 1000, MOI 10,000. 100 $\mu$ l broth was taken and put on the cetrimide agar plate, spreading was done and incubated at 37°C overnight. Next day colonies were counted on the plates and compared with the colonies on the control plate.

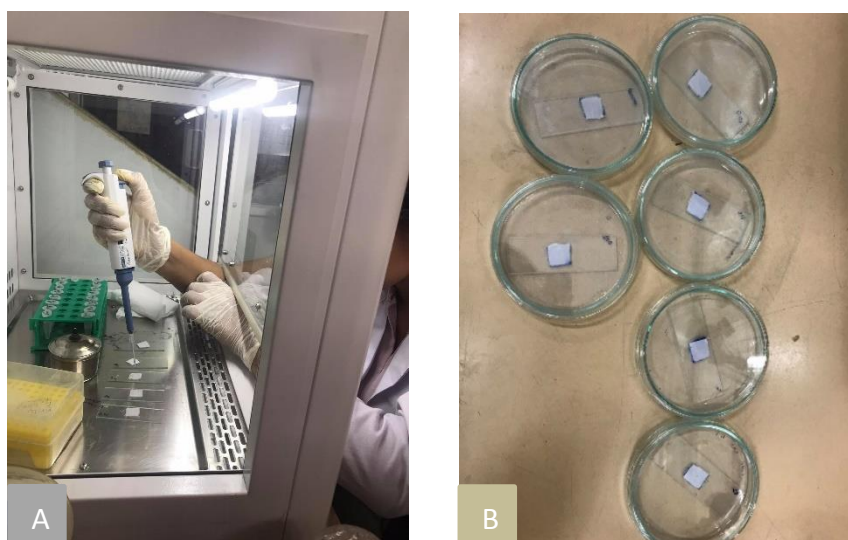


Figure 3. 3: Decontamination assay on fabric cloth.

Figure A is the addition of 100 $\mu$ l of bacterial culture added to the piece of lab coat slides. Figure B is the pieces of lab coat kept on glass slide, covered with Petridis and ready to be incubated at 37°C.

### 3.12.2. Comparison between *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* phage and phenol

Comparison between *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* phage and phenol was done using above procedure. This experiment was done to compare the effectivity of phage and phenol on the cloth contaminated with bacteria. Concentration of phenol was kept ranging from  $10^{-5}$  dilution to  $10^{-9}$  dilution and concentration of bacteria was kept  $10^5$ CFU/ml.

### 3.12.3 Decontamination by bacteriophage on marble tiles

Decontamination by bacteriophage on marbles was done by following (Accolti., 2018) protocol with slight modification. Host bacteria was grown on LB broth reaching the logarithmic growth phase 0.1 at OD<sub>600nm</sub>, then diluted with LB broth to obtain a final concentration of  $10^6$  CFU/ml. 8 pieces of 5 $\times$ 5cm surface marble tiles were taken and labeled as control after 1hr, MOI 1 after 1hour, MOI 1 after 3 hours, MOI 1 after 6hrs, MOI 1 after 24hrs, MOI 10 after 1hr, MOI 10 after 3hrs, MOI 10 after 6hrs. 10 $\mu$ l of bacterial suspension was spread on the surface of tile obtaining final concentration of  $10^6$ CFU/ml and allowed to dry at room temperature for 15minutes. After that 100 $\mu$ l of phage lysate of titer  $10^6$ PFU/ml and  $10^7$ PFU/ml was added to the surface to obtain the MOI 1 and MOI 10 respectively and incubated at 37°C. After 1hr, 3hrs, 6hrs and 24hrs, surface of tiles were directly touched on the surface of the Cetrimide agar plate and spreading was done, incubated at 37°C. Next day colonies on the plates were counted and compared with control.

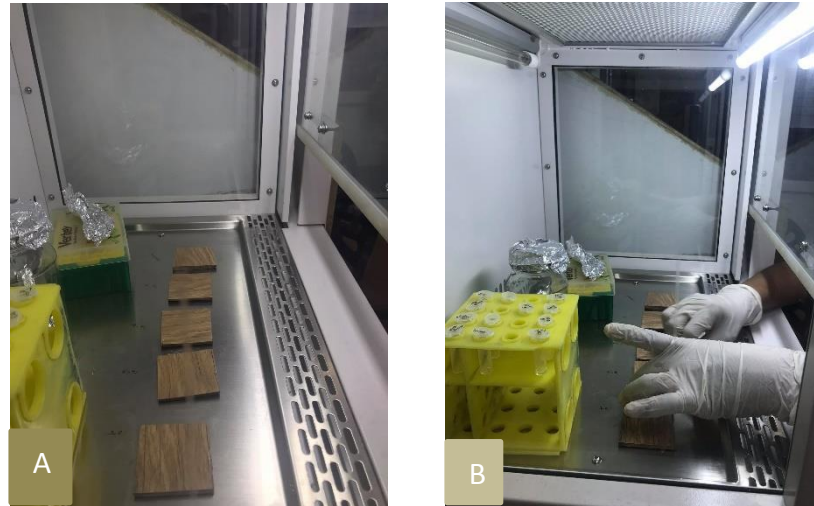


Figure3. 4: Decontamination assay on marble tiles

Fig A: Sterile marble tiles ready for decontamination assay. Fig B: Bacterial sample was added by swabbing in the tile.

### 3.13 Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was done by using Statistical Package for social science (SPSS). The data were evaluated using paired t- test.

## 4. RESULTS

### 4.1. Isolation and identification of bacteria

Sixteen samples of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (4) and *Staphylococcus aureus* (12) were isolated from ICU ward of Teku hospital by plate exposure method. The colony with green pigment on cefrimide agar was presumed to be *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and colony with yellowish pigment on Mannitol Salt Agar (MSA) was presumed to be *Staphylococcus aureus* which was then picked and sub cultured in NA agar for Gram staining and biochemical identification. Cultures were named as Sa1, Sa2 and so on up to Sa12 for *Staphylococcus* species and P1, P2 and so on up to P4 for *Pseudomonas* species.

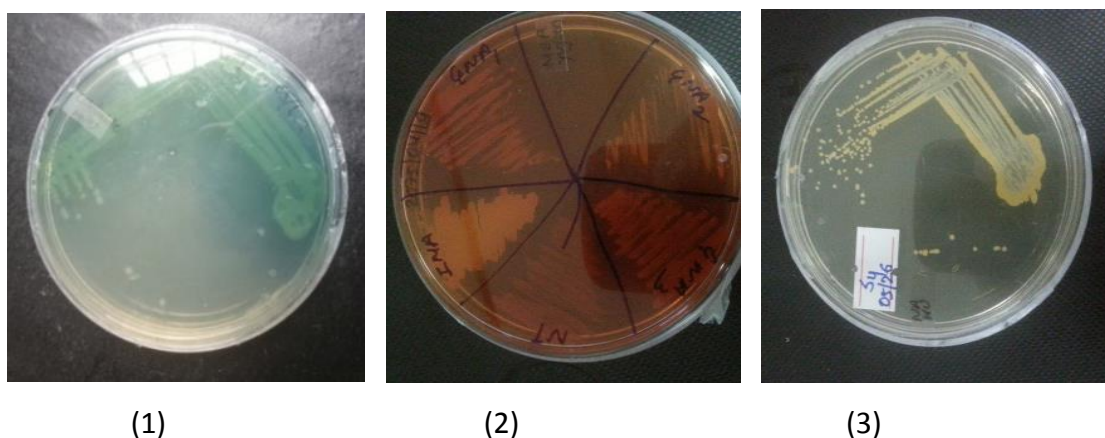


Figure4. 1: Subculture on NA from cefrimide agar plate in (1) and subculture in NA plate from MSA plate in NA plate in (2 & 3).

#### 4.1.1: Gram staining

The colony from NA plates were Gram stained and organisms were found to be: Both Gram positive, dioplococci in figure (A) and Gram Negative, Rod Shaped in figure (B)

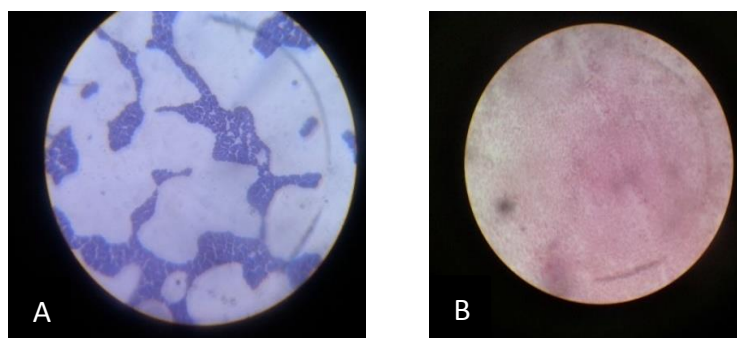


Figure4. 2: Gram staining

#### 4.1.2: Biochemical tests

Biochemical test was performed for both Gram positive and Gram-negative bacteria. For Gram Positive bacteria, Catalase, Coagulase and Oxidase tests were done and for Gram negative bacteria, Indole, Methyl Red, Voges Proskauer, Citrate (IMViC) tests were done.

#### For Gram positive bacteria

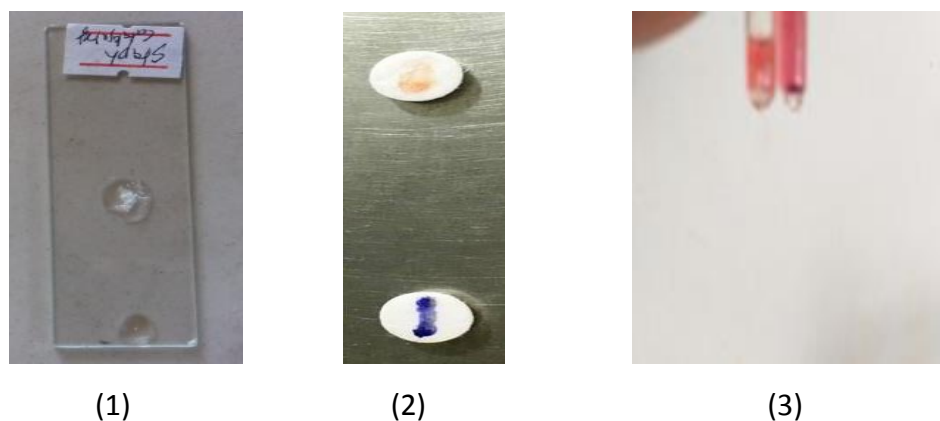


Figure4. 3: Biochemical test for Gram positive bacteria

In figure (1), Gram positive sample on the top showing catalase positive and sample on the bottom is control, in figure (2), Gram positive sample on the top showing oxidase negative and sample on the bottom is control showing oxidase positive of Gram-negative bacteria and in figure (3), Gram positive sample on right side showing coagulase test and sample on the left is control.

Form these above tests for Gram positive bacteria; we can confirm that the bacteria are *Staphylococcus aureus*.

#### For Gram negative bacteria

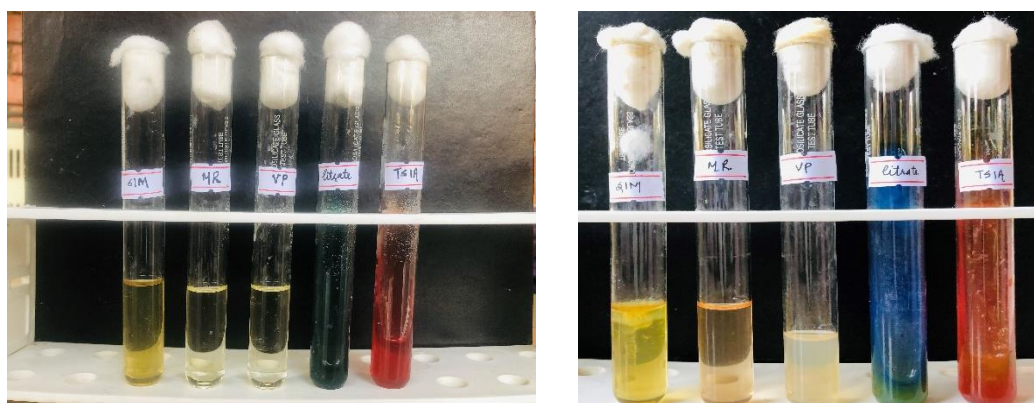


Figure4. 4: IMViC and TSIA test result (Left: Control, right: with test organism) Media are SIM (Simons Indole Motility), MR, VP, Citrate and TSIA from left to right in each individual figure.

The biochemical tests of all the isolates of Gram negative showed following result:

**Indole:** Negative

**Methyl Red (MR):** Negative

**Voges Proskauer (VP):** Negative

**Citrate:** Positive

**Triple Sugar Iron Agar (TSIA) test:** No H<sub>2</sub>S producer

Form these above tests for Gram negative bacteria, we can confirm that the bacteria are *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*.

## 4.2 Antibiotic susceptibility test

Antibiotic Susceptibility Test (AST) of 16 bacterial strains (4 strain of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and 12 strains of *Staphylococcus aureus*) was done. Among them 2 strains of



*Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (P3 & P4) and 5 strains of *Staphylococcus aureus* (Sa3, Sa5, Sa12, Sa15 and Sa11) were found to be Multidrug Resistant (MDR), Sa3 was found to be Vancomycin Resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (VRSA). Both the bacterial strain of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* showed resistance to imipenem and meropenem drugs which confers the carbapenem resistant.

Table4. 1 Antibiotic Susceptibility pattern of host bacterial strain

Antibiotics	Reference Zone (mm)			Zone of Inhibition Diameter (mm)			
	S	I	R	Sa1	Sa3	P3	P4
Ampicillin	>17	14-16	≤13	12 (R)	0 (R)	NT	NT
Ciprofloxacin	>35	28-35	≤27	29 (I)	0 (R)	0 (R)	0 (R)
Methicillin	>21	18-20	≤17	22 (S)	8(R)	0 (R)	0 (R)
Vancomycin	>21	17-21	≤16	26(S)	12	0 (R)	0 (R)
Meropenem	>31	22-30	≤21	NT	NT	0 (R)	0 (R)
Imipenem	>32	24-31	≤23	NT	NT	0 (R)	0 (R)
Ofloxacin	>22	17-21	≤16	NT	NT	0 (R)	0 (R)

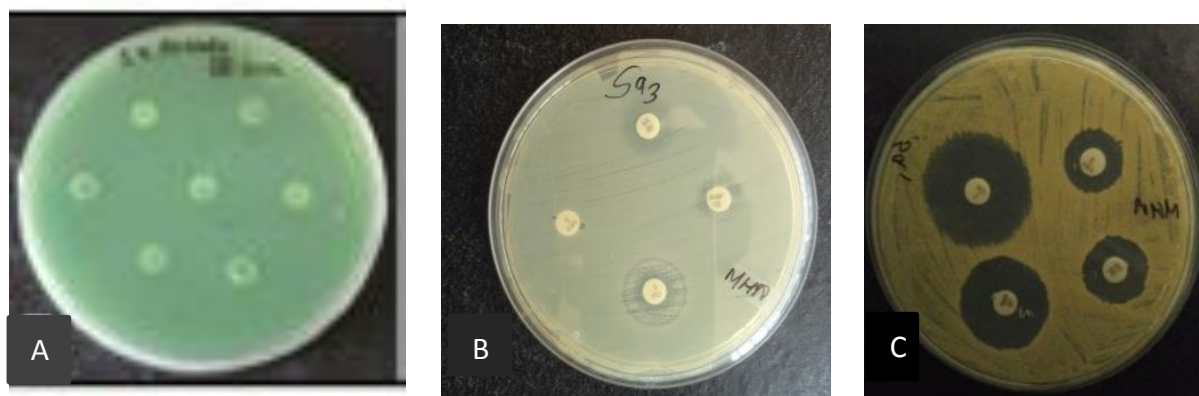


Figure4. 5: AST of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and *Staphylococcus aureus* bacteria

### 4.3 Bacterial genomic DNA extraction

Bacterial DNA extraction was done by Kit method, distinct bands of DNA was observed for 2 different strains of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* analyzed in 0.8% agarose electrophoresis which showed smiley bands when observed in UV transilluminator. Smiley bands represent low concentration of genomic DNA in the sample as shown below.

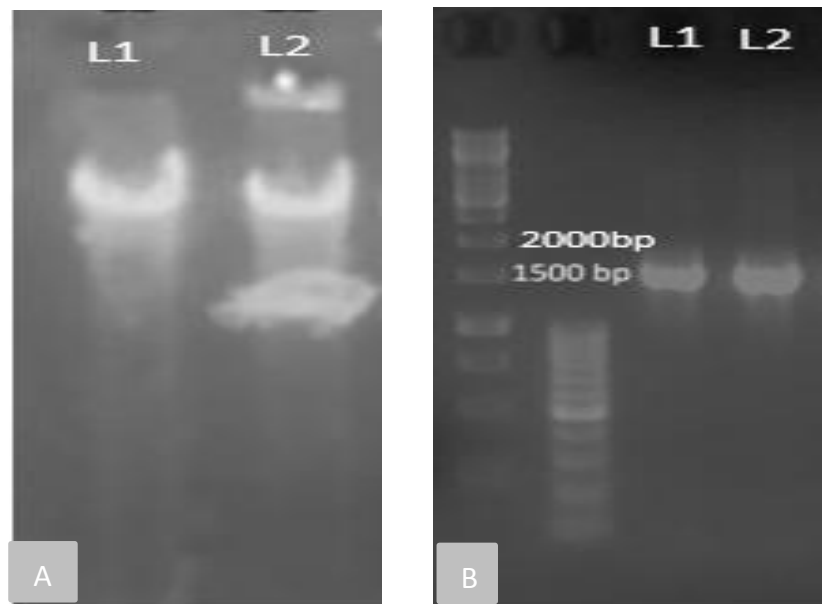


Figure4. 6: A) Gel electrophoresis in 0.8% agar, B) Gel electrophoresis in 1% agar

Fig A: bacterial genomic DNA visualized with UV transilluminator. Lane L1: P3 and Lane L2: P4 and fig. B: Amplification of 16srRNA gene of bacterial DNA using Universal primer (Expected size of band = 1500bp) in 1% agarose gel. Lane L1: P3 and lane L2: P4

The 16srRNA sequence of bacterial strain *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* was received. The sequence was then analyzed using chromas software showed chromatogram as follows:

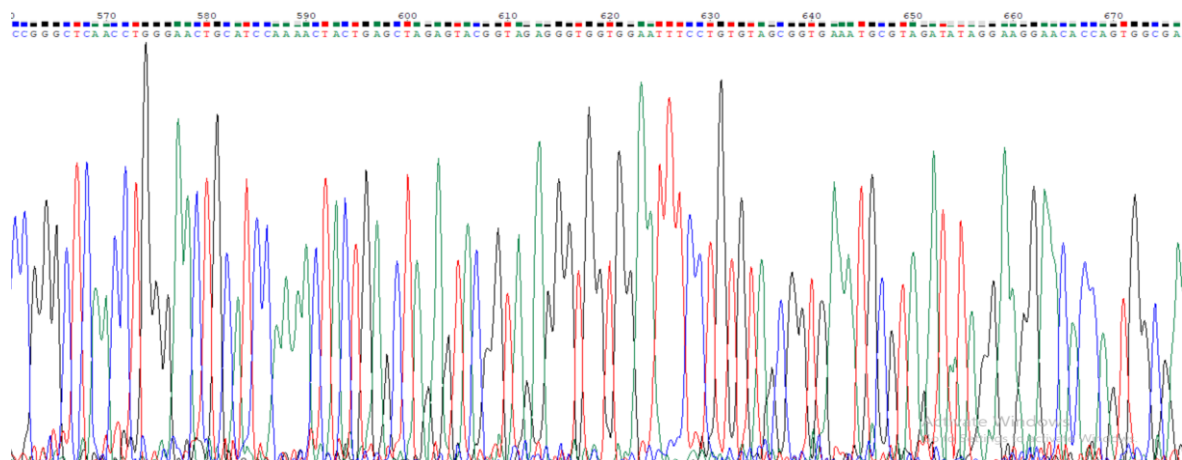


Figure 4. 7 Chromatogram file of bacteria P3 of 16srRNA gene using chromas

The evenly spaced peaks, each with only one color determines the quality of clean sequence and BLAST of obtained chromatogram samples showed maximum (96-99%) similarity with *P. aeruginosa* from which the biochemically unidentified samples were identified as *P. aeruginosa* strains.

Sequences producing significant alignments:

Select: All None Selected:0

Alignments Download GenBank Graphics Distance tree of results

Description	Max Score	Total Score	Query Cover	E value	Per. Ident	Accession
<input type="checkbox"/> Pseudomonas aeruginosa strain KRF_102_16S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence	1689	1689	99%	0.0	98.49%	<a href="#">gij353025318 JN604532.1</a>
<input type="checkbox"/> Pseudomonas aeruginosa strain Hualan_196_1_16S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence	1686	1686	98%	0.0	98.58%	<a href="#">gij1723195100 MN314684.1</a>
<input type="checkbox"/> Pseudomonas aeruginosa strain H25883 chromosome, complete genome	1686	6732	98%	0.0	98.58%	<a href="#">gij1518045211 CP033686.1</a>
<input type="checkbox"/> Pseudomonas aeruginosa strain TLPA_1_16S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence	1684	1684	98%	0.0	98.58%	<a href="#">gij1631898696 MH998020.1</a>
<input type="checkbox"/> Pseudomonas aeruginosa strain Xuyi_330_1_16S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence	1684	1684	98%	0.0	98.58%	<a href="#">gij1723195334 MN314803.1</a>
<input type="checkbox"/> Pseudomonas aeruginosa strain SZH16_16S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence	1684	1684	98%	0.0	98.58%	<a href="#">gij288189621 GU384267.1</a>
<input type="checkbox"/> Pseudomonas aeruginosa strain R8-589_16S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence	1683	1683	98%	0.0	98.48%	<a href="#">gij381217606 JQ659967.1</a>
<input type="checkbox"/> Pseudomonas aeruginosa strain GQ-2_16S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence	1682	1682	98%	0.0	98.68%	<a href="#">gij528794346 KF453952.1</a>
<input type="checkbox"/> Pseudomonas aeruginosa strain AP-CMST_11_16S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence	1682	1682	98%	0.0	98.38%	<a href="#">gij407750815 JX465662.1</a>
<input type="checkbox"/> Pseudomonas aeruginosa strain OES_16S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence	1682	1682	98%	0.0	98.48%	<a href="#">gij1735137052 MN416143.1</a>
<input type="checkbox"/> Pseudomonas aeruginosa strain GIMC5002:PAT-169 chromosome	1682	6728	98%	0.0	98.48%	<a href="#">gij1736694455 CP043549.1</a>
<input type="checkbox"/> Pseudomonas aeruginosa strain GIMC5001:PAT-23 chromosome	1682	6728	98%	0.0	98.48%	<a href="#">gij1735629040 CP043483.1</a>
<input type="checkbox"/> Pseudomonas aeruginosa isolate ID40 genome assembly, chromosome, ID40_omosome	1682	6728	98%	0.0	98.48%	<a href="#">gij1735417931 JLR700248.1</a>
<input type="checkbox"/> Pseudomonas aeruginosa strain CCUG_51971_chromosome, complete genome	1682	6728	98%	0.0	98.48%	<a href="#">gij1733063483 CP043328.1</a>
<input type="checkbox"/> Pseudomonas aeruginosa strain DD.SS.SJ_03_16S ribosomal RNA gene, partial sequence	1682	1682	98%	0.0	98.48%	<a href="#">gij1730723937 MN971810.1</a>

Figure 4. 8 NCBI BLAST of obtained sequence

#### 4.4. Isolation of bacteriophage

All together 6 bacteriophages were isolated against two strain of bacteria P3 and P4. Water samples were collected from different rivers of Kathmandu valley Sali nadi, Basundhara river and Balku river, followed with isolation of Bacteriophage. The initial plate contain variation in lysis and morphology of plaque which differ from small pin head clear plaque to hallow forming Bull's eye but most dominant was small pin head plaque. Among numerous plaques single clear plaque was selected for further processing.

Table 4. 2 Table showing phage and their site of collection

S.N	Sample site	Host Bacteria				
		P3	P4	Sa3	Sa2	Sa5
1	Teku	-	NT	-	-	-
2	Balku	+	+	-	NT	-
3	Basundhara	+	+	-	NT	-
4	Sali nadi	+	+	-	NT	-
5	Om Hospital side river	NT	-	-	-	-
6	Chabel	-	NT	-	-	-
7	Pashupati	NT	-	-	-	-
8	KMC Hospital side river	-	NT	-	-	NT

Note: '+' denotes presence of phage, '-' denotes absence of phage and NT denotes not tested

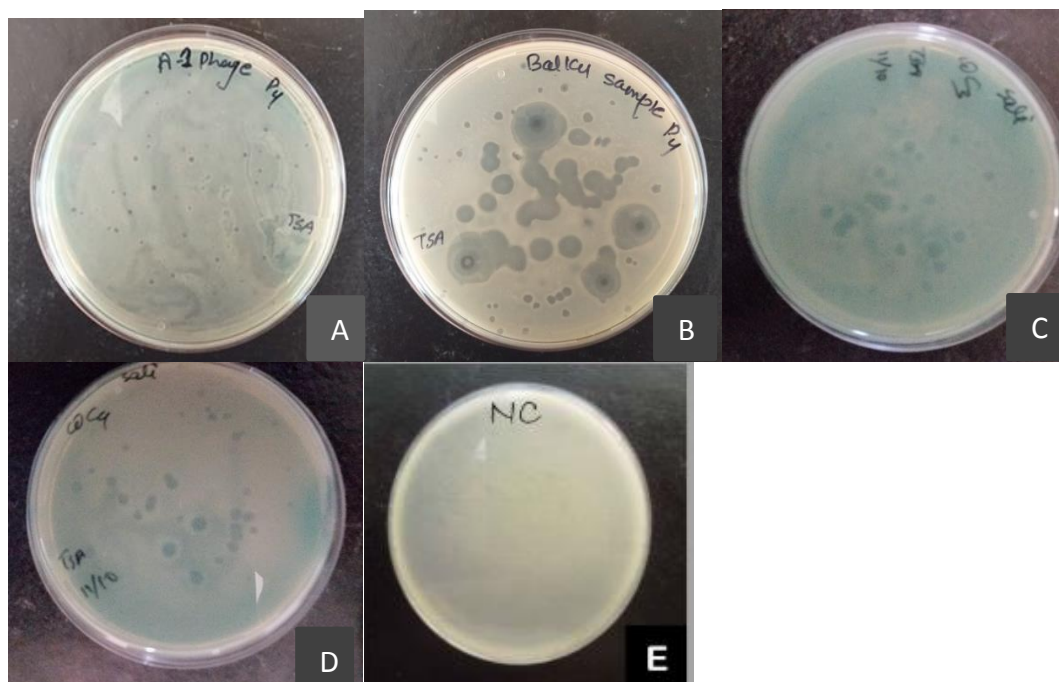


Figure 4. 9 Initial isolation of Bacteriophage against *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* strain P3

In figure A, B and C mixed type of plaques are seen (bull's eye and pin head) from Balkhu, Sali nadi and Sali nadi water sample of bacterial strain P4 and P3 respectively, in fig D pin head plaques are seen from Basundhara water sample against P4 bacterial strain.

Table 4. 3 Initial Screening of Bacteriophage

S.N	Host Bacteria	Sample site	Phage Morphology	Lysis pattern
1	P3	Sali nadi	Bull's eye and pin head	Clear center surrounded by turbid ring and complete lysis
		Basundhara	Clear Plaque	Complete lysis
		Balkhu	Clear Plaque	Complete lysis
2	P4	Sali nadi	Bull's eye and pin head	Clear center surrounded by turbid ring and complete lysis
		Basundhara	Clear Plaque	Complete lysis
		Balkhu	Bull's eye and pin head	Clear center surrounded by turbid ring and complete lysis

## 4.5. Purification of Bacteriophage

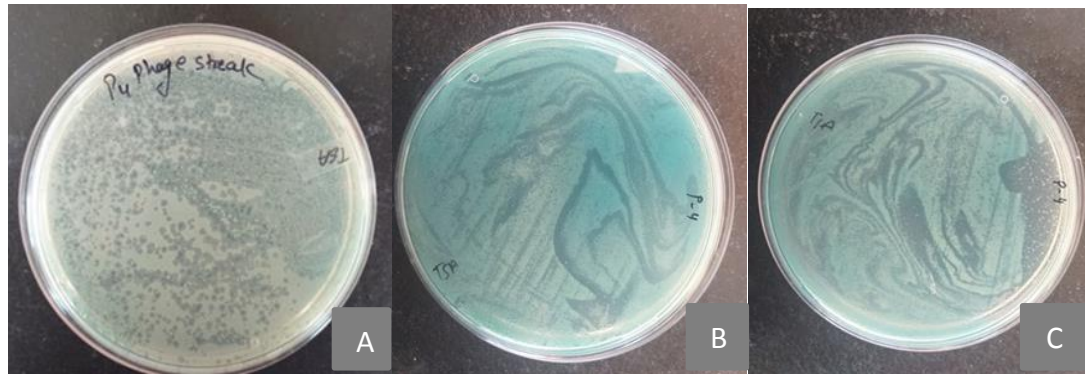


Figure 4. 10 Purification of phage by streaking method

Fig A, B and C is the three rounds of purification of phage P4 by continuous streaking method.

Bacteriophage purification was done by three round streaking of single plaque. Bacteriophage which had clear lytic plaque morphology was selected for purification. Among different phages that were isolated from Balkhu River, Basundhara River and Sali nadi, Single plaque of bacteriophage from Basundhara River was selected for purification by streaking because their plaque morphology was clearer than other and clear lysis was seen over the streaking line.

## 4.6. Phage titer determination

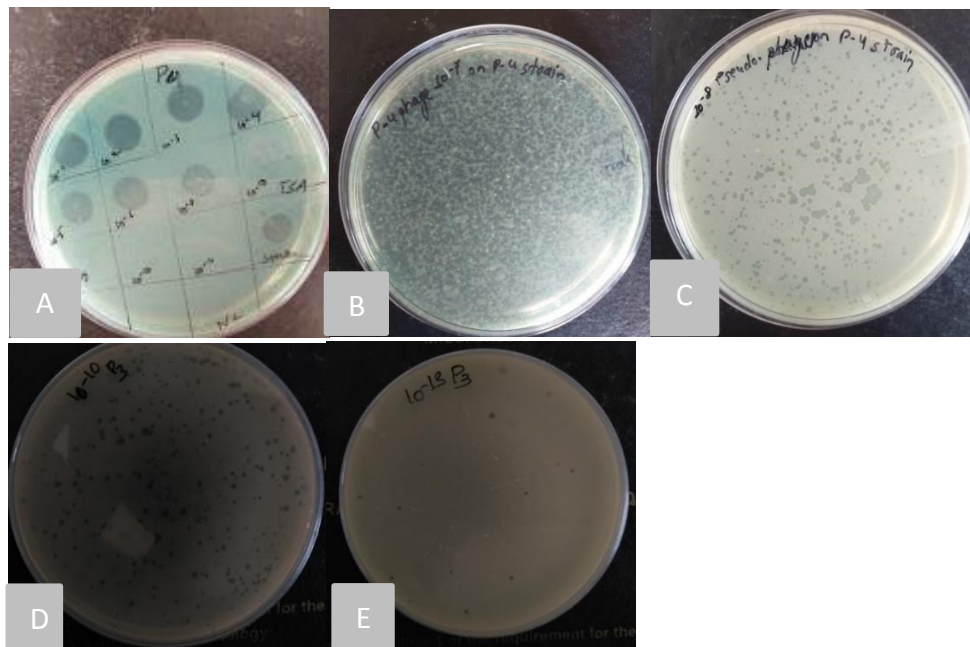


Figure4. 11 A) Spot assay of P4 showing lysis up to  $10^8$  dilutions, Fig B, C, D and E are plaques formed in the dilution  $10^{-7}$ ,  $10^{-8}$ ,  $10^{-11}$  and  $10^{-13}$  respectively of P4 phage

The spot assay was used to determine the titre/concentration of phages in the original stock solution. The figure above shows plaques of phages at different dilutions up to dilution  $10^{-13}$ . But clear lysis above  $10^{-8}$  is not observed in first figure of 4.11 that might be due to less amount of phage dilution (5 $\mu$ l) pipetted in respective areas.

For further confirming the presence of phage as shown by spot assay, individual dilutions were taken and plated on individual. After incubation the plaques on each plate was counted and total concentration of phage was calculated as below:

Table 4. 4 Plate count upon serial dilutions and phage titre determination (PFU/ml)

Phage	$10^{-1}$	$10^{-5}$	$10^{-6}$	$10^{-8}$	$10^{-9}$	$10^{-10}$	$10^{-11}$	$10^{-12}$	$10^{-13}$
P4	Clear	TMTC	TMTC	TMTC	TMTC	366	106	38	16

The concentration of phage stock solution was determined by following formula.

PFU/ml= Number of plaques/ Volume of phage $\times$  dilution

$$= 16/1 \times 10^{-13}$$

$$= 1.6 \times 10^{14}$$

Where, PFU/ml= plaque forming unit per milliliter of sample

#### 4.7: Determination of Multiplicity of infection (MOI)

MOI or in vitro lysis bacteriophage was calculated by comparing the optical density at 600nm in calorimetry, increase in bacterial density in the culture medium where as other graphs contain bacteria with phage at different MOI. The optimum lysis was seen at 1 MOI.



Figure4. 12 Invitro Lysis of bacteria by phage

Culture of bacteria P3 and phage P4 at different MOI. Tubes are bacteria only (no phage), blank (no bacteria or phage), bacteria and phage at MOI 100, MOI 10, MOI 1, MOI 0.1, MOI 0.01 and MOI 0.001 from left to right

The tubes incubated for 24 hours with different MOI showed some turbidity in 0.001 and 0.01 MOI, though it was not as turbid as the bacterial culture. This shows

incomplete but high degree of bacterial lysis even in lower MOI. Clear solution, like blank (no bacteria and phage, only sterile LB broth) were seen in the tubes with MOI 1 and above. This indicates the optimal MOI for the complete lysis of bacteria is 1 MOI. The result indicates that although there is high degree of bacterial lysis even at MOI 0.001, these MOI cannot completely lyse the bacteria and some bacterial population still remains in solution which can further grow and multiply, after the activity of phage is decreased. But at MOI 1 and above, complete bacterial lysis can be obtained by the phage particles, showing the ratio of 1:1 for phage: bacteria is enough to completely get rid of bacteria in-vitro in the LB broth.

## 4.8. Characterization of phage P4

### 4.8.1. Multiple Host Range Analysis by Spot Assay

Inter host range analysis and intra host range analysis was done by spot assay. While doing intra host range analysis only 8 strains of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* were used. The strain used were P4, P3, P19, P53, P6, P10, P9 and P20 and the P4 phage showed intra host range for strains P4, P3, P9, P19 and P20. Inter host range analysis was done by using different strains of *Acinetobacter baumannii*, *Salmonella* spps, *Klebsiella pneumoniae*. Altogether 28 strains were used for inter host range analysis by spot assay. Along with the P4 Phage, phage cocktail of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* was used to observe synergistic mechanism and other phages of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* were provided by Senior from Phage lab of Central Department of Biotechnology, T.U.

Table4. 5 Intra host analysis by spot assay

S.N	Phage	Host Bacteria							
		P3	P4	P6	P9	P10	P19	P20	P53
1	P4 Phage	+++	+++	x	++	x	+++	++	x

+ sign indicate the presence of lysis by P4 phage to the host bacteria and x sign indicate

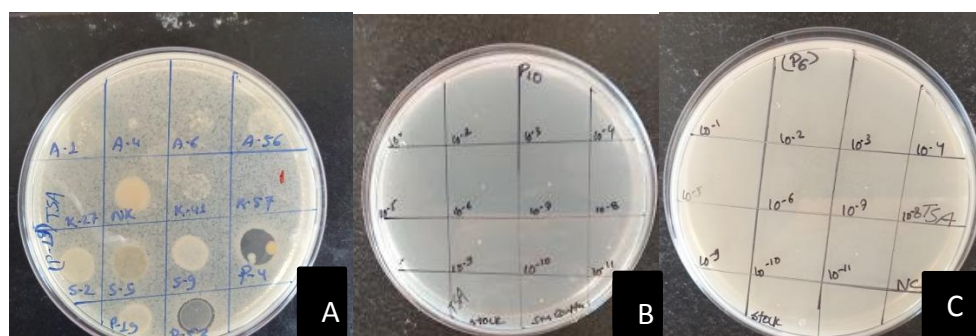


Figure4.13. Intra host range analysis

Fig A: P19 is the bacterial strain lawn in the TSA plate where P4 phage showed lysis in the spotted region, Fig B: Dilution of P4 Phage did not show lysis in the P10 bacterial strain lawn in the TSA plate similarly in Fig C: Dilution of P4 phage did not showed lysis in the P6 bacterial strain.

Table4. 6 Inter host range of phages by spot assay

Bacterial Genus	Code Name	Lysis of phage			
		Phage P4	Phage P19	Phage P53	Pseudomonas phage cocktail
<i>Acinetobacter</i> Strains	A1	+	+	+	+
	A4	-	+	+	+
	A5	-	+	+	++
	A6	+	+	+	+
	A7	+	+	+	-
	A8	-	-	-	-
	A11	+	+	+	-
	A17	+	+	-	+
	A21	+	+	+	+
	A23	+	-	+	-
	A38	+	+	+	+
	A47	-	-	-	-
	A50	-	-	-	-
	A53	-	-	-	-
	A56	-	-	-	+++
	A70	-	-	-	+
<i>Klebsiella</i> Strains	NK	+++	-	-	++
	K27	-	-	-	+
	K41	-	-	-	-
	K57	-	-	-	+
	K52	-	-	-	-
<i>Salmonella</i> Strains	S2	-	-	-	+++
	S3	-	-	-	-
	S4	-	-	-	-
	S5	-	-	-	+++
	S6	-	-	-	-

[Note: 'x' indicates no lysis of bacteria, '+' indicates very slight lysis with turbidity on lysis zone, '++' indicates better lysis with slightly larger lysis zone but irregular with turbid areas, and '+++ indicates clear lysis zone with uniformity in lysis (best lysis).]



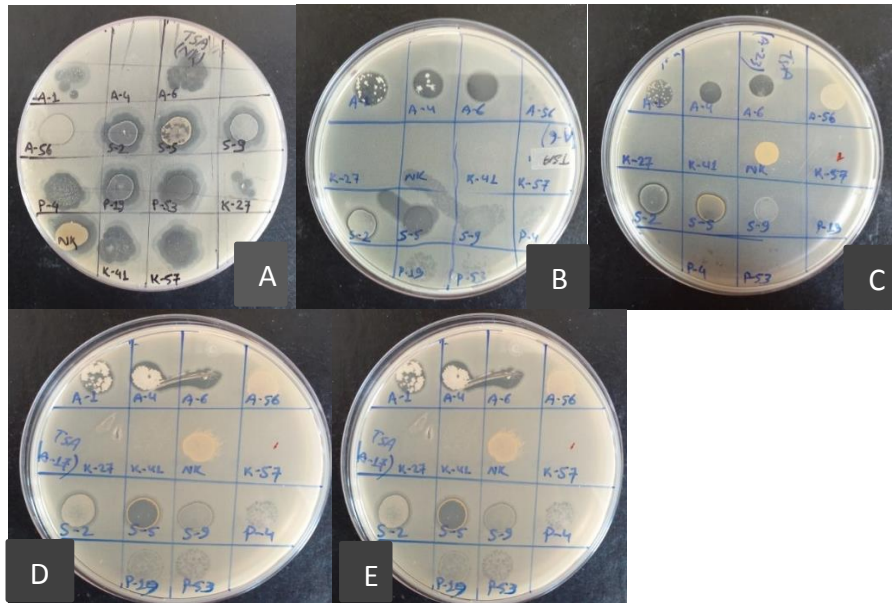


Figure4. 14: Inter host range of phage P4. In figure A, B, C, D and E phage P4 showed lysis against bacterial strain A6, A23, A15, NK and A27 respectively. Lawn of Bacterial strain was made on TSA plate and Host range analysis was done by spot assay method.

During the multi-host range analysis of the bacteriophage, out of 28 bacterial samples taken, *Salmonella* and *Klebsiella* were not lysed by any of the 4 phages taken for study except NK strain of *Klebsiella* by P4 phage. The largest host range was shown by phage cocktail, as phage cocktail lyse bacterial strain which were not lysed by all the three phages, which is known as synergistic mechanism. *Pseudomonas* phages (P4, P53, P19) showed wide host range to *Acinetobacter* spp. Even though all the phages of *Pseudomonas* showed wide host range, we took phage P4 for further study.

While doing Host range analysis, we made lawn of bacterial strain and phages were tested by spot assay. In figure 4.14. A, we can see that there is contamination (bacterial growth) in spot S5 and NK phages. The contamination was due to the contamination in stored NK and S5 phage. During the study me and my friend both were doing research on bacteriophage, we took single plate of bacterial for host range analysis and my thesis work is mainly focused on Phage P4 not on Phage NK and S5, in the figure 4.14. we can clearly observe that there is no contamination or bacterial growth on spot P4 which defines that our Phage P4 stock was not contaminated during storage.

### 4.8.2. SDS-PAGE

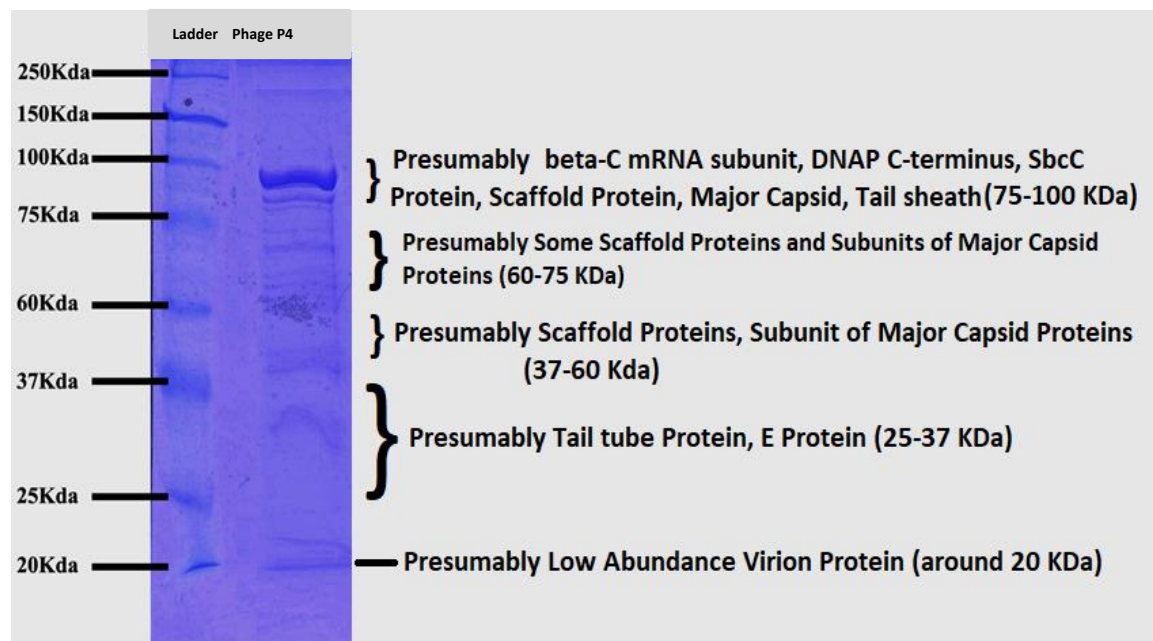


Figure4. 15: SDS PAGE and protein bands of phage P4.

Protein profiling was done by SDS-PAGE and the band size obtained was compared with standard protein marker (20-250 KDa protein ladder, Genei). Clear bands were seen below 100 KDa which is the largest protein and might be capsid protein present in phage. Multiple bands between 20 and 100 Kdal were observed.

### 4.8.3. Transmission electron microscopy

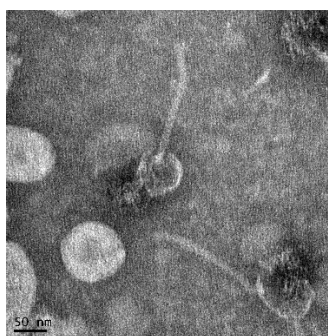


Figure4. 16: Negative staining images of phages P4 by TEM

TEM micrograph of phages was obtained and the result was analyzed by using ImageJ i1.52a software and interpreted according to ICTV guidelines. The criteria for classification of phages according to ICTV guideline is capsid size, capsid symmetry, absence or presence of tail, tail length and genome size. Depending on these criteria, phages were classified as given in table 4.7.

Table4. 7: TEM image analysis and classification of phages based on ICTV guidelines.

Phage name	Capsid 'nm'	Tail 'nm'		Shape	Order	Putative Family
		Width	Length			
Phage P4	60.77	11.62	179.67	Isohedral	Caudovirales	Siphoviridae

#### 4.8.4: Effect of temperature on phage stability

Temperature stability of phage was determined at different temperature from 30°C to 80°C at different time of incubation. The result we obtained was that the phage was found to be stable even at 70°C for 20 min. The viability decreased with the increase in temperature and vice versa.

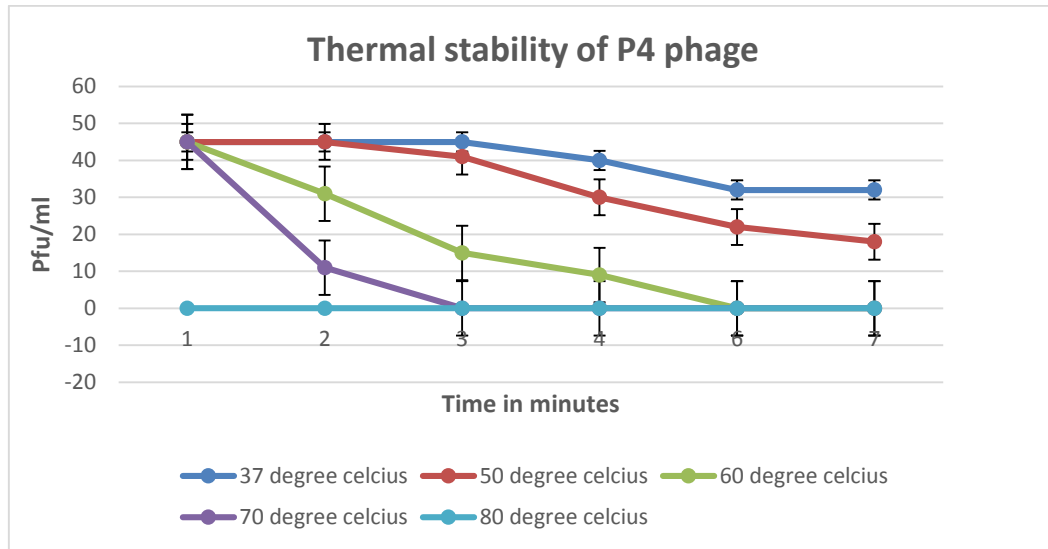


Figure4. 17 Thermal Stability of Phage P4

Temperature stability of phage was determined at different temperature in different time of incubations. Phage was found to be stable even at 70°C up to 20 minutes. The phage titer was decreased after 40min incubation at 60°C. This result showed that infectivity of phage decreases at the temperature increases.

#### 4.8.5: Effect of pH on phage P4 viability

pH stability test showed that phage P4 is stable in pH3 to pH12. Phage showed most efficient lytic activity at pH6 and pH7 and lost its lytic activity below pH3 and above pH12.

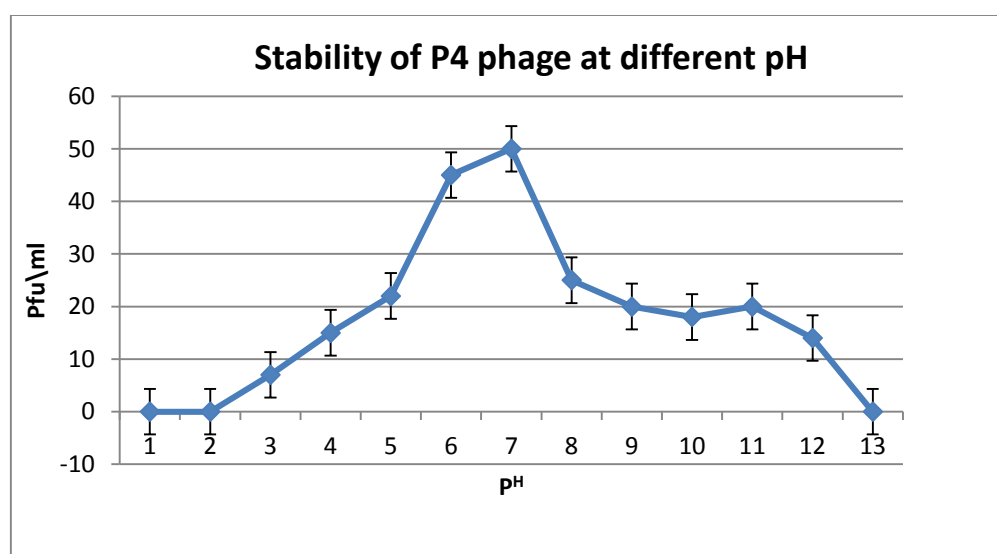


Figure4. 18 Stability of Phage P4 at different pH

Phage P4 was found to be stable from the pH ranging from 3-12 and it could not survive below 3.

#### 4.8.6: One step growth curve determination

One step growth curve was done to determine the latent period, rise period and burst size of our phage. The result showed that the latent period was found to be 30min and burst size was found to be 28 virions per bacterium. The phage P4 has short latent period meaning that it can lyse bacterial cell more rapidly.

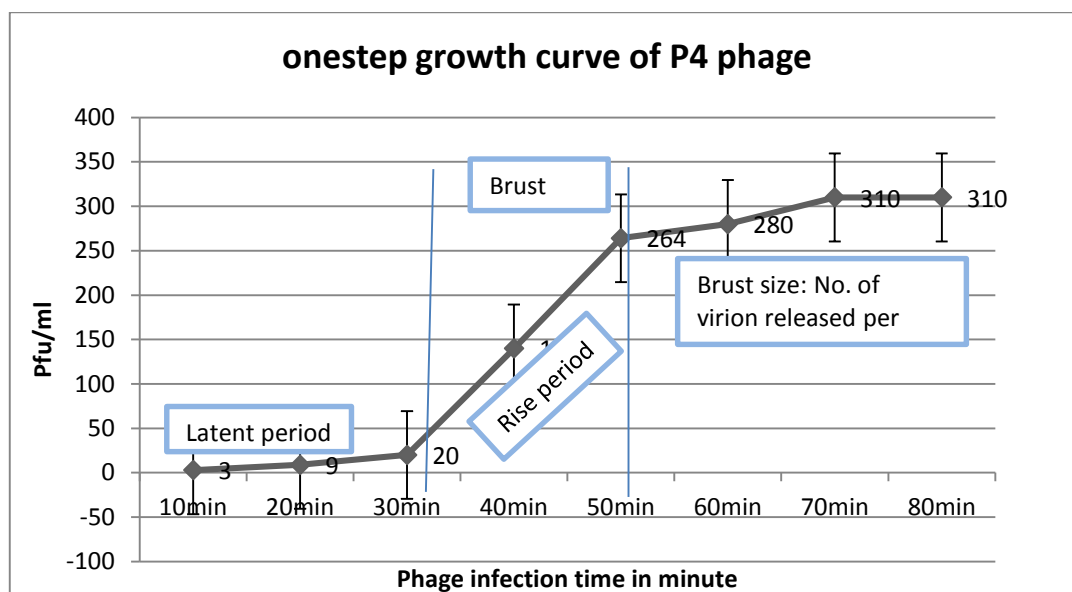


Figure4. 19 One step growth curve of P4 Phage

The one-step growth curve of phage P4 showed a latency period of 30 minutes after which rapid infection takes place and phage virions are released afterwards. The latency period means the time for adsorption and infection by phage particles which happened in about 30 minutes during our experiment and the burst size was found to be 28 virions per bacterium.

The explosion of plaque forming units at 60 mins is due to bursting and release of phage virions after infecting the host. From the experiment, the burst size was calculated to be  $280/10$  i.e. 28 phage particles per infected bacterial cell (28 PFU/CFU).

#### 4.9: Decontamination assay of bacteriophage

During decontamination assay comparative study was done. Along with the phage P4, phenol was also used as decontaminant. Decontamination was done in marble tile pieces and apron cloth pieces. Firstly, decontamination assay was done on cloth using bacteriophage P4 of different MOI values to determine the MOI value at which phage P4 can show more lysis of bacteria on cloth. Phenol (which is regularly used in hospitals to decontaminate floors) of different MOI were also used from the comparison between the effectiveness of lysis of phage P4 and phenol.

##### 4.9.1: Decontamination assay Using phage P4

*Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (P3) bacterial strain was inoculated on to sterile fabric cloth (from a lab coat similar to one worn by clinicians) and then added a single phage P4 and bacterial load was determined in the form of CFU. Phage P4 of different MOI (1, 10, 100,

1,000 and 10,000) and control which contain only bacteria was prepared. The result showed that the bacteriophage with MOI value 1 showed higher rate of decontamination i.e. Phage P4 applied on cloth piece was able to lyse more bacteria in cloth as, we observed less no, of colonies on cetrimide agar plate. The result obtained showed that phage P4 have higher decontamination (less number of bacterial colonies on Cetrimide agar plate) at MOI 1 with the CFU/ml log reduction of 1 and p-value was 0.002 i.e., statistically significant by using paired T- test. The decontamination rate

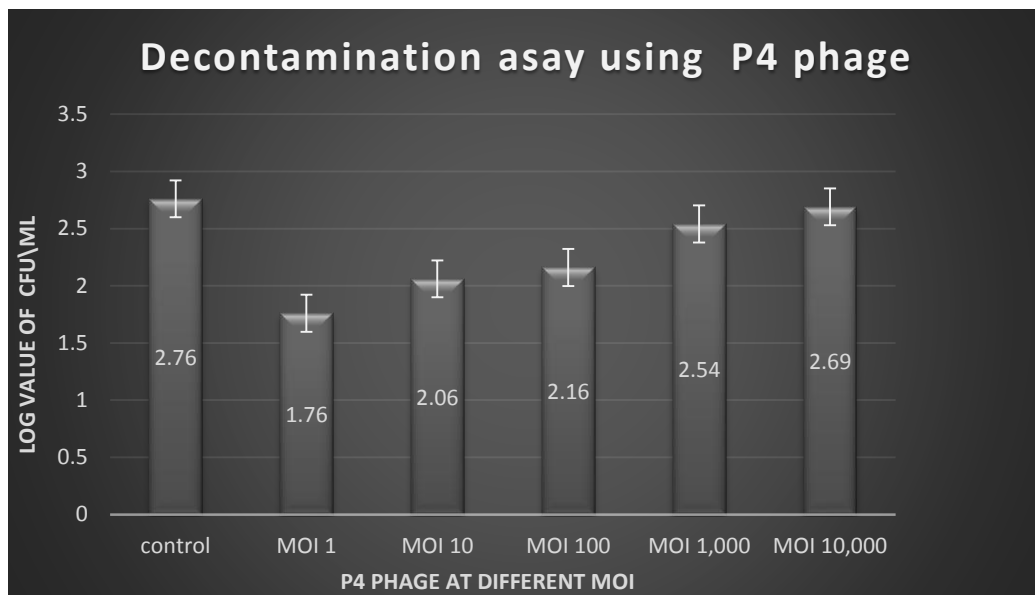


Figure4. 20 Decontamination assay of phage P4 at different MOI values

decreases with increase in the MOI values.

Phage P4 showed higher rate of decontamination at MOI value of 1 which means that one phage P4 can lyse one bacteria at a time

#### 4.9.2: Comparison between phage P4 and phenol as disinfectant

*A Pseudomonas aeruginosa (P3)* bacteria was inoculated on to sterile cloth and phage P4 and phenol was added separately in different cloth pieces. Then, bacterial load was determined in the form of CFU. Comparison was done to determine the effectivity of phage P4 and phenol. Comparison was done between the MOI values 1 and 10. The result obtained showed that single phage has higher decontamination rate at MOI 1 with the CFU/ml log reduction of 1 and p value was 0.002 whereas MOI 10 showed less decontamination rate than that of MOI 1 with the CFU/ml log reduction of 0.692 and p value was 0.004. Likewise, Phenol did not show significant decontamination at MOI value 1 and 10 than that of single phage. While comparing, phage P4 with MOI value 1 was found to be more effective than phenol.

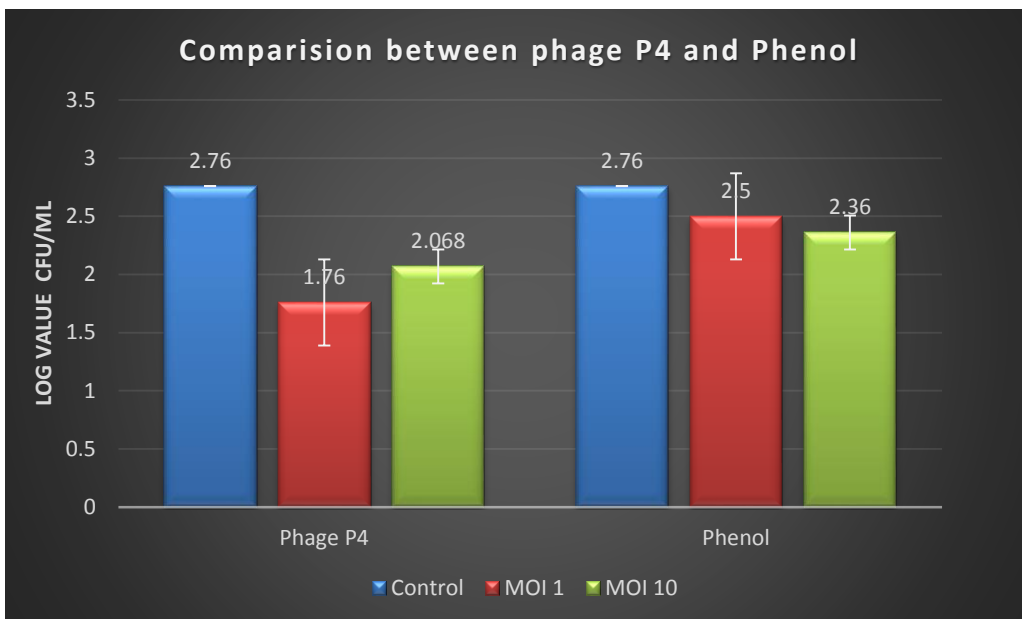


Figure4. 21 Comparison between Phage P4 and phenol as disinfectant

P4 Phage showed higher rate of decontamination at MOI value of 1 which means only 1 phage is required to lyse 1 bacteria at a time, Phenol did not show significant decontamination at MOI value of 1 and 10.

#### 4.9.3 Decontamination by bacteriophage on marble tiles

Decontamination assay by bacteriophage on marbles was done to determine the time period up to which bacteriophage can show their effectivity on marble. The result showed that bacteriophage has highest level of effectivity up to 6 hours at MOI 1 with the CFU/ml log reduction of 1 and p value was 0.002 and the effectivity level goes on decreasing. But bacteriophage showed its effectiveness for more than 24 hours with the log reduction of 0.47 and p value 0.098, it was also checked on MOI 10 and was effective up to 6 hours with the pfu/ml log reduction of 0.62 and p value was 0.009.

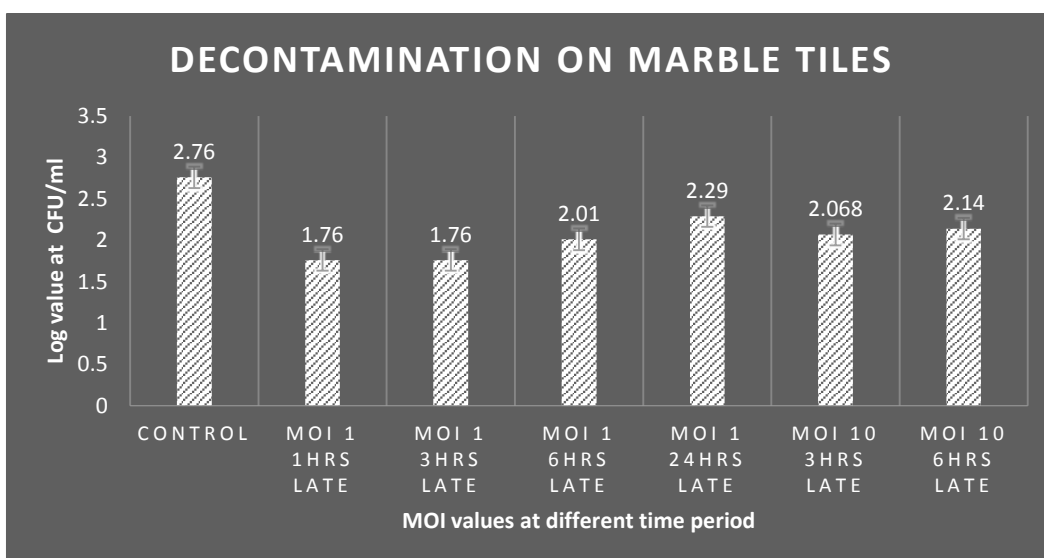


Figure4. 22 Decontamination by Phage P4 at different time period on marble tiles

Phage can show its effectivity up to 24 hrs at MOI1 but its effectivity goes on decreasing from 1 hour to 24 hour and MOI 10 also showed its effectivity after 6 hrs on marble tiles.

## 5. DISCUSSION

In this study, we screen, isolate, characterize and also check their potent ability of the lytic of bacteriophage against *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* that can be used to decontaminate the hospital floor which can help some how to control the hospital acquired nosocomial infections because *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* is one of the most frequent and severe causes of acute nosocomial infection, mainly affecting immune compromised patients or those who are admitted to the intensive care unit (ICU) (Lila, et al., 2018).

Among 4 strain of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and 12 strains of *Staphylococcus aureus*, only 2 strains of *P. aeruginosa* and 5 strains of *Staphylococcus aureus* were found to Carbapenem resistance and methicillin resistance respectively, also one strain of *Staphylococcus* was found to be VRSA. *P. aeruginosa* strains were found to be Carbapenem resistant. We performed only disc method to check the susceptibility of the bacteria towards antibiotics. Therefore altogether 3 strains of *Staphylococcus aureus* (Sa<sub>2</sub>, Sa<sub>3</sub> and Sa<sub>5</sub>) and 2 strains of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (P3 and P4) were used to isolate the lytic bacteriophages. The P3 bacteria which was used for further processing against lytic bacteriophage was confirmed by 16SrRNA sequence analysis as *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. The use of 16SrRNA gene sequencing is one of the easiest methods for identifying bacteria (Janda & Abbot, 2007).

We faced lots of problems during isolation of the bacteriophage against *Staphylococcus aureus*, we tried in various samples but it was hard to find the phage. That might be due to either there is absence of phage in those particular host or there might be some error in our work (attachment time period between phage and bacteria, improper collection of sewage samples). Up to 1 and half month we keep on trying on different new sewage sample but we were unable to isolate the new bacteriophage. In some water sample, there might not be presence of lytic phages that might be due to absence of host or error in water sample collection, which is collecting water without sedimentation. As phage particles are attached to sediment and with over time these phages attached sediment aggregate in the bottom of the water body and with gently shaking the ground floor phages are released into water so it can be said that phages are generally more abundant in the sediment than overlying water. A study done by Mattila, Ruotsalainen, & Jalasvuori, 2015 also showed that isolation of new phages against methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* strains was found to be very difficult. They were able to isolate phages for only a single *S. aureus* strain, SA10, from 117 enrichment attempts (Mattila, Ruotsalainen, & Jalasvuori, 2015)

We were only able to isolate 6 phages against *Pseudomonas* strain from 3 different water samples. This result would suggest water of Kathmandu valley might not contain the lytic phages against that MDR *Staphylococcus aureus* and as phages are strictly specific to their host it is difficult to isolate phage against these bacteria. Phages were isolated by using double layer agar assay method of Adam, (1959). It helps to form greater uniformity of plaque and formed greater size plaque due to greater rates of phage diffusion in soft agar. Thus, soft agar permits diffusion of phage to nearby infected cells but does not permits new phages to move to remote parts of plate. We were only able to isolate bacteriophage against P3 and P4 bacteria from 3 rivers (Sali nadi, Basundhara river and Balkhu river) of Kathmandu valley.



Different types of plaques were isolated from these three rivers. The morphology of plaques were small pin head to the large bull's eye, among them pin head plaques were dominant so, we choose pin head plaques for further processing. There was a different sized and different morphological plaque which indicates there is more than one type of phage in the water sample. The size of the plaque is proportional to the efficiency of adsorption, the length of the latent period and the burst size of the plaque. A diversity of plaque sizes can result, if the phage can infect cells at different time during the bacterial growth phase ie., the phage that infect early makes larger plaques than that of which infect later and also the another factor is that the physical size of the bacteriophage also plays important role in the overall size of the plaque morphology, smaller phage has less physical size which can diffuse more quickly and easily through the semi-solid media in plaque assay plate in order to produced zone of lysis whereas larger plaque have difficulty in diffusion and form small size plaques that is a slowly proliferating phage, one which yield low number of progeny phage will more likely to produce a smaller plaque compared to quickly proliferating phage.

A clear plaque indicates that the host is completely susceptible to the phage which is formed in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (P3 ad P4). The Pin head morphology of *Pseudomonas* phage was similar with the phage produced by Tang and his team against *P. aeruginosa* TC6 (Tang et al., 2018). Similar type of plaque morphology was seen in *Pseudomonas* phage BrSP1 against *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (Melo et al., 2019). Pin head plaques are dominant during the phage isolation which indicates phage induced bacterial lysis is more efficient or complete early during the lysis. Decreasing lytic efficiency can be a consequence of the bacterial lawn, associated increases in the size of the micro colonies making of the bacterial lawn, or because of the less general phenomenon such as lysis inhibition phenotype seen in the T-even phages ([www.phage.org](http://www.phage.org)). Bull's eye plaque indicates bacterial lysis is less efficient or complete later on during plaque development than it is early on during plaque development. The halo around the plaque indicate the decapsulation of the bacterial host cell by phage produced soluble enzyme depolymerase and the hazy ring indicate phage produced a depolymerase enzyme that defused through the agar layer and degraded the bacterial capsular polysaccharides (CPS) into different oligosaccharide components. Early studies showed that certain *Klebsiella pneumoniae* bacteriophages produced depolymerase during phage proliferation and released the enzyme from infected bacteria that targeted other bacteria's CPS (Admans M H, 1959)

After isolation of bacteriophage, purification, amplification and titer determination was done. Single phage colony was taken with the help of sterile loop and streak on the TSA plate and the soft agar with bacteria was lawn over the plate, this helps in the purification of the single colony of bacteriophage and amplification of a single selected colony. Stock preparation of bacteriophage was done on the SM (sodium, chloride, magnesium) buffer. The magnesium salt contained in SM buffer help to absorb the phage but not bacteria, gelatin helps to maintain the stability of the phage particles during storage and chloroform maintain the sterility of the phage particles by hindering the bacterial growth. For the characterization of phage higher titer value is preferred so we made the phage stock of higher titer. The bacteriophage titer is a quantitative measurement of the biological activity of virus and is expressed as plaque forming units (PFU) per ml. Determination of phage titer in a sample is a key step in the study of the

phage involved. It is very important to select suitable dosage in the phage therapy for bacterial infection. As a common method of detection, a plating assay (plaque) is widely used method to detect phage number present in the test samples at various diluted points.

The multiplicity of infection is the ratio of phage to the bacteria. When referring to the bacterial culture inoculated with virus particles, Multiplicity of infection or MOI is the ratio of number of virus particles to the number of bacteria present in a definite space. Lysis of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* was determined by comparing the optimal density of bacterial culture with bacteriophage at different MOI with the growth of bacterial culture free of bacteriophage. P4 phage showed efficient reduction of bacterial cell in liquid culture medium. The optimum lysis was observed at MOI 1. Here the optimum MOI 1 means that the optimum lysis occurs at the ratio of 1 phage: 1 bacteria. A study done by Scarascia showed, a MOI value of 10 was the optimal for bacteriophage infection (Scarascia, Yap, Kaksonen, & Hong, 2018). It is likely that this MOI value maximized encounter rates between bacteriophage and bacterial cell, hence ensuring that nearly all host cells are infected by at least one bacteriophage particle.

Multiple host range is a property of phage in which phage can infect or lyse not only for specific host but also for other interspecific or intraspecific host. It is important and highly desirable property in phage therapy because broader the host range broader will be the infectivity of given phage. Spot assay is a quick way to check whether a phage sample can infect a bacterium by placing a small drop or spot of phage onto a plate inoculated with the bacterium. In this study we used three phages of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (P4, P19 and P53). Phage P19 and P53 was provided by our Senior Apshara Parajuli. Intra and inter host analysis was done. From this study P4 phage showed narrow range of lysis against *Pseudomonas strain* and at the same time we used only 8 strains of *Pseudomonas*. But P4, P19 and P53 phages showed broader range of lysis against strain of *Acinetobacter baumannii* and it also showed lysis against some strains of *Klebsiella* and *Salmonella*. Lysis pattern was also checked by making cocktail of those three phages. As expected, phage cocktail had broader host range for the MDR strain and cocktails were found to be more effective. Spot assay is the most common way of testing host range, in which a small volume of phage is placed on a growing lawn of bacteria. As it is simple and rapid, this technique can sometimes cause false positive because of lysis of bacterial cells without phage infection. It can also be confirmed by killing assay but it was not done in this study. Wider host range may be due to production of depolymerase enzyme. Lopez-Cuevas et al. 2011 hypothesized that the difference of host range might be due to the environmental origin of bacteria tested in which a loss of bacteriophage receptors may had happened as a result of antagonistic co evolution between bacterium and bacteriophage. At the same time, it could be associated with the prevention of adsorption by bacterial receptor mutations or with degradation due to restriction or modification of the resistance bacterial system (Abedon et al., 2010).

In this study we found interesting result, the cocktail of *Pseudomonas* phage lysed 2 Carbapenem resistant *Acinetobacter baumannii* (A70 and A56), 2 colistin resistant *Salmonella typhi* (S2 and S5) and 2 Carbanepem resistant *Klebsiella pneumoniae* (K27 and K57) but when tested with each of the single phage of *Pseudomonas*, they did not show any lytic effect, which means there is synergistic effect between the phages during

infection process. From this result we can hypothesized that such synergistic effect might be due to the one phage that facilitates the infection to the same bacterium by providing certain mechanism so that another phage easily cause infection. This might be also due to that phage having different types of receptors. Synergy provides a potential tool for improving phage therapy however process of synergy between phages is relatively unexplored. Similar result was suggested by Regeimbal et al., 2016 in which phage cocktail was seen lowering the burden of the wound and preventing the spread of infections in case of *Acinetobacter baumannii* infections in mouse model experiment. In this study also, the cocktail is composed of four phages that do not kill the parent strain of the infection. Another result showed that combination of T7 and J8-65 phage have 100-fold greater killing efficiency than T7 and J8-65 phages alone have their killing efficiency (Schmerer, Molineux, & Bull, 2014). Thus, phage cocktail represents new way of therapeutics, which is more effective than single phage and antibiotics on the basis of mechanism of action.

Protein profiling done by SDS- PHAGE showed clear protein band ranging from 20Kda to 250Kda. Comparing our protein bands with the data of protein mass published on ASM (2018), Journal of Virology, we can make various presumptions about the proteins present in our phage P4. The presumed proteins along with their respective size are labeled in the figure 4.15. Protein bands obtained in SDS show a wide variety of proteins present in our phage ranging from large capsid, scaffold, tail proteins to smaller tail tube proteins and low abundance virion proteins. Similarly, TEM analysis is relatively faster than genome analysis and according to shape and size phages can be classified into respective families in a very short time. Our Phage P4 belongs to Caudovirales order and Siphoviridae family with tail width 11.62nm and length 179.77nm.

pH plays crucial role in phage survivability. It should be noticed that at higher and lower pH, the plaque morphology was changed as there is difficulty in setting agar. Our phage P4 was able to tolerate over wide range of pH (3-12). A study done to obtain pH stability of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* phages vB\_PaeM\_SCUT-S1 (S1) and vB\_PaeM\_SCUT-S2 (S2) showed phages were stable at pH range of 4-10 (Guo, Chen, Lin, & Wafng, 2019), which suggest our phage P4 has higher stability in higher acidic and alkaline condition which indicate that they could be maintained in human physiological condition that our phage is highly stable at wide range pH. It was shown that hydrogen ion concentration influences phage aggregation. For example, MS2 phages showed significant ability to aggregate when pH was less than or equal to the phage isoelectric point (PI =3.9) (Jończyk, Kłak, Międzybrodzki, & Górski, 2011). Their aggregate could be up to 6µm in diameter. This may cause decline in phage count and easier elimination of aggregates through their adsorption on membrane than single virion.

Temperature plays a fundamental role in attachment, penetration, multiplication and latent period of phage. Attachment is dependent on capsid proteins of bacteriophages and surface proteins on bacterial hosts, both of which are sensitive to high temperatures (Scarascia, Yap, Kaksonen, & Hong, 2018). Stability of phage on exposure to varying temperature is considered as a key model for understanding the ability of to adapt into novel environment. It determines the occurrence, viability and storage of bacteriophage. The result showed that phage P4 was able to tolerate up to 70°C for 20min. The phage was not stable above 80°C when exposed for 10min and nor phage was able to tolerate at 70°C when exposed for 30min. Here in this study, we used dry heat but from different

studies we found that phages were more stable at moist heat. Our phage showed less stability to the temperature as compared to Pa1 and Pa2 (up to 90°C) (Marei, 2020) but our phage P4 showed similar result with phage OMKO1 (up to 70°C) (Blazanin, Lam, Chan, & Turner, 2019). The effect of different temperature showed that phage P4 was able to withstand exposure to temperature up to 70°C for 20minute.

One-step growth curve was performed to determine lysis through phage multiplication, abortive infection or lysis pattern. From this study we determined different stages of virus growth curve; latent period, raise period and burst size. These parameters are influenced by the temperature of incubation, medium on which the experiment was done and specific growth rate. In our study phage P4 showed short latent of 30minute and high burst size of around 28 virions per bacterium. In a study (Gadagkar & Gopinathan, 1980) found that the burst size of the phage is inversely correlated with the multiplicity of infection and our finding supports this finding as our phage has a large burst size of 28 virions per bacterium and optimum MOI 1. The high adsorption rates, burst sizes, and short latent periods agree with the lytic activity, which makes them potentially good bio control agents (Magin, Garrec, & Andrés, 2019).

Latent period of a phage is a time period in which phage synthesized early protein needed for replication, coat protein and other structure protein and in the raise period the phage assembles all the protein to make a mature virion. And after the assembly, phage is released by lysing the host bacterial cell. Burst size of a bacteriophage is the number of virions released after the lysis of an infected bacterium, and burst size depends upon the various factors such as nutritional availability in a bacterial culture and functions of phage coated proteins such as polymerase and other regulatory proteins essential for replication; inherently low efficiency of proteins may not allow the phage to make full use of bacterial machinery and consequently the burst size may be limited (Gadagkar & Gopinathan, 1980). Burst size value varies in accordance with the specific virus and may range from 10 to 100 for the DNA transducing phages to approximately 20,000 PFU for the RNA virus.

Nosocomial transmission is a major problem, especially when the immune compromised and those with underlying health issues become infected. We sought to determine if our phages could effectively decontaminate fomites associated with nosocomial transmission. We used the results of the spot tests to design combinations where the phages were predicted to have a host range that would include the bacterial targets. Decontamination of fabric was also analyzed as a more likely source of nosocomial transmission. We used pieces of marble tiles to represent decontamination of solid surfaces. Firstly, we used fabric cloth pieces to determine the MOI at which our phage could show the effective lytic activity against bacteria spread on the fabric cloth and it was found to be MOI 1. This result completely agrees with the result which we did in this research previous but that time the MOI was determined in the liquid culture medium.

The result on the fabric cloth was high significant with 1 log reduction in CFU<sub>s</sub> of bacteria with P value was found to be 0.002 and log reduction in CFU<sub>s</sub> goes on increasing with increase in MOI values. The attachment time for bacteria and phage on fabric cloth was kept 30min as we knew that the latent period of our phage was 20 min, which we got from one step growth curve result. After determination of MOI, comparative analysis was done with phenol (which is used as daily decontaminating agent).

The effective time period up to which Phage could show significant lytic activity was determined which was done on the marble tiles, which represent decontamination of solid surfaces. At this time, we took single phage P4, as we came to know that single phage has high rate of lytic activity than phenol. But we took phage of 2 different MOI (MOI 1 and MOI 10). After 1, 3, 6, 18 and 24 hours, surfaces were directly sampled by contact Rodac plates on TSA, to collect residual viable bacteria. Each plate, containing samples taken at the different time points, was incubated for 24 hours at 37°C and bacterial load was evaluated by enumerating plate CFU. The result showed that phage can show its lytic activity for more than 24 hours and it can suppress the recontamination of bacteria even though bacteria get recontamination after 1 hour. A significant reduction, compared to controls, was detected at 1 hour post treatment at 10 MOI ( $-40\pm 15\%$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) (D'accolti et al., 2018).

## 6. SUMMARY

The pathogenic MDR *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* bacteria were collected from ICU ward of Teku Hospital and from AST result, 2 strain of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and 5 strains of *Staphylococcus aureus* were found to be Carbapenem and methicillin resistant. A *pseudomonas aeruginosa* (P3) bacterium was identified by 16srRNA gene analysis and the gene was submitted to NCBI. P3 bacteria showed 98% similarity with *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* when performed BLAST in NCBI database. Altogether 6 lytic phages were isolated by double layer agar assay method which lyses carbapenem resistant bacteria without enrichment. Mixed plaques (Bull's eye and pin head) were found in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* phage, we choose phage P4 having pin head plaques for further study. The phage was purified by repeated continuous streaking method and then titer was determined from phage stock. Phage P4 showed titer value above  $10^8$  concentrations.

Physiochemical Characterization is important for the application of phage which was studied in host range, SDS-PAGE, TEM, pH and temperature. Phage P4 showed wider intra and inter host range lysis. The invitro lysis of host bacteria by phage showed optimum lysis of MOI 1 and burst size 28 virions per bacterium.

Protein profiling of phages was done by SDS-PAGE using acetone precipitation method (to obtain concentrated protein). Proteins of different band size between 20-250 Kda were obtained. From Transmission electron microscopy, the phages were found to be of order Caudovirales and siphoviridae family. Exposure to high temperature ranging from 50°C to 70°C drastically reduces the phage viability, although phage P4 was able to tolerate exposure to temperature as high as 70°C for 20 minutes. Similarly, optimum pH is 7 but our phage was also able to tolerate even in alkaline pH12 and acidic pH3.

Decontamination assay was done in cotton fabric cloth and marble tiles. Firstly, we used fabric cloth pieces to determine the MOI at which our phage could show the effective lytic activity against bacteria spread on the fabric cloth and it was found to be MOI 1. The result on the fabric cloth was highly significant with 1 log reduction in CFU<sub>s</sub> of bacteria with p value was found to be 0.002. Similarly, comparative analysis was done with phenol (which is used as daily decontaminating agent). Our phage P4 was found to be more effective and showed significant lytic activity against bacteria than phenol. Our P4 phage showed 1 log reduction of CFU<sub>s</sub> with p-value of 0.002 at MOI 1 but phenol showed 0.2 log reductions at MOI 1. We also determined the effective time period up to which Phage could show significant lytic activity which was done on the marble tiles, as it represents decontamination of solid surfaces. Phage P4 can show its lytic activity for more than 24 hours and it can suppress the recontamination of bacteria even though bacteria get recontamination after 1 hours.

## 7. CONCLUSION

- Pathogenic MDR *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* bacteria were identified and were found to be methicillin and Carbapenem resistant respectively.
- Total Six phages against two multidrug resistant *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* were isolated which were lytic in nature; plaques were pinhead and Bull's eye.
- Phages were tested for multi host susceptibility and most phages were found to be susceptible to *Acinetobacter baumannii*.
- Phage P4 was found to tolerate wide range of pH and temperature from pH 3-12 and temperature up to 70°C.
- Burst size of phage was found to be 28 virions per bacterium which was calculated using one-step growth curve.
- Our phage P4 was found to be more effective and showed significant lytic activity against bacteria than phenol. Our P4 phage showed 1 log reduction of CFU<sub>s</sub> with p-value of 0.002 at MOI 1 but phenol showed 0.2 log reductions at MOI 1.
- The effective time period up to which Phage showed significant lytic activity for MOI 1 hrs. Late but can show its lytic activity for more than 24 hours and it can suppress the recontamination of bacteria even though bacteria get recontamination after 1 hours.

## **8. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

As our study was conducted in research lab of Central Department of Biotechnology, all the requirements to conduct our study was not available in our lab

- For bacterial identification by 16s rRNA sequencing, bacterial samples were sent to India and it took time for identifying the biochemically unidentified bacteria.
- We were unable to get the whole genome sequencing of our phages and study the mechanism of synergy.
- Due to lack of sophisticated instruments like TEM we had to export our sample to abroad, and could not get TEM result clear as expected.
- We were not able to study in more than one host MDR bacteria due to time limitation.



## 9. RECOMMENDATION

As our study was the preliminary work on studying the use of bacteriophage as a disinfectant to cure hospital acquired infection by using fomite cloth and tiles, following would be the recommendations for further extension of research.

- First and foremost, whole genome sequencing and complete genome annotation of phage need to be done to understand the phage biology and genetics.
- Aerosol should be made and applied in hospital
- Study should be done in more than one host MDR bacteria.
- Study should be done on the synergistic mechanism of bacteriophage and normal micro flora inside our body.
- Further experiment should be done in hospital, before that it might be done inside CDBT laboratory.

## REFERENCES

1. Abedon, S. T. (2016). Phage therapy dosing: The problem(s) with multiplicity of infection (MOI). *Bacteriophage*, 6(3). <https://doi.org/10.1080/21597081.2016.1220348>
2. Abedon, S. T., Kuhl, S. J., Blasdel, B. G., & Kutter, E. M. (2011). Phage treatment of human infections. *Bacteriophage*, 1(2), 66–85. doi: 10.4161/bact.1.2.15845
3. Abedon, S. T., & Yin, J. (2009). Bacteriophage plaques: theory and analysis. *Methods in Molecular Biology (Clifton, N.J.)*, 501, 161–174. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-60327-164-6\\_17](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-60327-164-6_17)
4. Abuladze, T., Li, M., Menetrez, M. Y., Dean, T., Senecal, A., & Sulakvelidze, A. (2008). Bacteriophages Reduce Experimental Contamination of Hard Surfaces, Tomato, Spinach, Broccoli, and Ground Beef by Escherichia coli O157:H7. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, 74(20), 6230-6238. doi:10.1128/aem.01465-08
5. Aleshkin, A. V., Ershova, O. N., Volozhantsev, N. V., Svetoch, E. A., Popova, A. V., Rubalskii, E. O., ... Bochkareva, S. S. (2016). Phagebiotics in treatment and prophylaxis of healthcare-associated infections. *Bacteriophage*, 6(4). doi: 10.1080/21597081.2016.1251379
6. Allegranzi, B., Bagheri Nejad, S., Combescure, C., Graafmans, W., Attar, H., Donaldson, L., and Pittet, D. (2011) Burden of endemic health-care-associated infection in developing countries: systematic review and meta-analysis. *Lancet* 377: 228–241
7. Anderson, B., Rashid, M. H., Carter, C., Pasternack, G., Rajanna, C., Revazishvili, T., Dean, T., Senecal, A., & Sulakvelidze, A. (2011). Enumeration of bacteriophage particles. *Bacteriophage*, 1(2), 86–93. <https://doi.org/10.4161/bact.1.2.15456>
8. Aslanov, B., Lubimova, A., Dolgiy, A., & Pshenichnaya, N. (2018). Bacteriophages for the control of Klebsiella outbreak in the neonatal intensive care unit. *International Journal of Infectious Diseases*, 73, 295. doi: 10.1016/j.ijid.2018.04.4087
9. Barry, M. A., Dower, W. J., & Johnson, S. A. (1996) Toward cell-targeting gene therapyvectors: Selection of cell-binding peptides from random peptide-presenting phage libraries. *Nature Medicine*, 2, 299–305
10. Bhattarai, P., Dhungel, B., Shah, P., & Amatya, J. (2013). Prevalence of Staphylococcus aureus in Intensive care Units and Post-Operative Ward as a possible source of Nosocomial infection: An experience of tertiary care hospital. *Janaki Medical College Journal of Medical Science*, 1(1), 21–25. doi: 10.3126/jmcjms.v1i1.7882

11. Blazanin, M., Lam, W. T., Chan, B. K., & Turner, P. E. (2019). Characterizing the tolerance of phage therapy candidate OMKO1 to environmental stress. doi:10.1101/864025
12. Bock, L., Wand, M., & Sutton, J. (2016). Varying activity of chlorhexidine-based disinfectants against *Klebsiella pneumoniae* clinical isolates and adapted strains. *Journal of Hospital Infection*, 93(1), 42-48. doi:10.1016/j.jhin.2015.12.019
13. Bodier-Montagutelli, E., Pardessus, J., Dalloneau, E., Fevre, C., Lhostis, G., Morello, E., ... Heuzé-Vourch, N. (2018). Inhaled phage therapy for the treatment of acute *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* lung infections. *Respiratory Infections*. doi: 10.1183/13993003.congress-2018.pa2649
14. Chase, C., & Bradley, K. W. (2011) Phage Resource Guide. Science Education Alliance Howard Hughes Medical Institute
15. Cao, F., Wang, X., Wang, L., Li, Z., Che, J., Wang, L., ... Xu, Y. (2015). Evaluation of the Efficacy of a Bacteriophage in the Treatment of Pneumonia Induced by Multidrug Resistance *Klebsiella pneumoniae* in Mice. *BioMed Research International*, 2015, 1–9. doi: 10.1155/2015/752930
16. Chan, B. K., Turner, P. E., Kim, S., Mojibian, H. R., Elefteriades, J. A., & Narayan, D. (2018). Phage treatment of an aortic graft infected with *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. *Evolution, Medicine, and Public Health*, 2018(1), 60–66. doi: 10.1093/emph/eoy005
17. Clokie, M. R.J., Milliard, A.D., Letarov, A.V, & Heaphy, S. (2011). Phages in nature, (February), 31-45
18. Daccolti, M., Soffritti, I., Lanzoni, L., Bisi, M., Volta, A., Mazzacane, S., & Caselli, E. (2019). Effective elimination of Staphylococcal contamination from hospital surfaces by a bacteriophage–probiotic sanitation strategy: a monocentric study. *Microbial Biotechnology*. doi: 10.1111/1751-7915.13415
19. Daccolti, M., Soffritti, I., Piffanelli, M., Bisi, M., Mazzacane, S., & Caselli, E. (2018). Efficient removal of hospital pathogens from hard surfaces by a combined use of bacteriophages and probiotics: potential as sanitizing agents. *Infection and Drug Resistance*, Volume 11, 1015–1026. doi: 10.2147/idr.s170071
20. Dedrick, R. M., Guerrero-Bustamante, C. A., Garlena, R. A., Russell, D. A., Ford, K., Harris, K., ... Spencer, H. (2019). Engineered bacteriophages for treatment of a patient with a disseminated drug-resistant *Mycobacterium abscessus*. *Nature Medicine*, 25(5), 730–733. doi: 10.1038/s41591-019-0437-z
21. Dickerson, T. J., Kaufmann, G. F., & Janda, K. D. (2005) Bacteriophage-mediated protein delivery into the central nervous system and its application in immunopharmacotherapy. *Expert Opinion on Biological Therapy*, 5(6), 773–81. doi:10.1517/14712598.5.6.773.

22. Dublanchet, A., & Bourne, S. (2007). The Epic of Phage Therapy. *Canadian Journal of Infectious Diseases and Medical Microbiology*, 18(1), 15–18. doi: 10.1155/2007/365761
23. Duckworth, D. H. (1976). "Who discovered bacteriophage?". *Bacteriological Reviews*, 40(4), 793–802.
24. Dykes, G. A., & Moorhead, S. M. (2002) Combined antimicrobial effect of nisin and a listeriophage against *Listeria monocytogenes* in broth but not in buffer or on raw beef. *International Journal of Food Microbiology*, 73(1), 71-81.
25. ECDC (2013) Point Prevalence Survey of Healthcare-associated Infections and Antimicrobial Use in European Acute Care Hospitals. Stockholm, Sweden: ECDC.
26. ECDC (2015) European Surveillance of Healthcare Associated Infections in Intensive Care Units. ECDC. Available from: <http://ecdc.europa.eu/en/publications/publications/healthcare-associated-infections-hai-icuprotocol>.
27. Fahimipour, A. K., Maaar, S. B., Mcfarland, A. G., Blaustein, R. A., Chen, J., Glawe, A. J., . . . Hartmann, E. M. (2018). Antimicrobial Chemicals Associate with Microbial Function and Antibiotic Resistance Indoors. *MSystems*, 3(6). doi:10.1128/msystems.00200-18
28. Feleke, T., Eshetie, S., Dagnaw, M., Endris, M., Abebe, W., Tiruneh, M., & Moges, F. (2018). Multidrug-resistant bacterial isolates from patients suspected of nosocomial infections at the University of Gondar Comprehensive Specialized Hospital,
29. Fiessinger, F., Richard, Y., Montiel, A., & Musquere, P. (1981). Advantages and disadvantages of chemical oxidation and disinfection by ozone and chlorine dioxide. *Studies in Environmental Science*, 245–261. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0166-1116\(08\)70851-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0166-1116(08)70851-3)
30. Fortier, L.-C., & Moineau, S. (2009). Phage production and maintenance of stocks, including expected stock lifetimes. *Methods in Molecular Biology*, 203–219. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-60327-164-6\\_19](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-60327-164-6_19)
31. Masalha M, Borovok I, Schreiber R, Aharonowitz Y, Cohen G (December 2001). "Analysis of transcription of the *Staphylococcus aureus* aerobics class Ib and anaerobic class III ribonucleotide reductase genes in response to oxygen". *Journal of Bacteriology*. 183 (24): 7260–72.
32. Northwest Ethiopia. *BMC Research Notes*, 11(1). doi:10.1186/s13104-018-3709-7
33. Fischer, S., Kittler, S., Klein, G., & Glünder, G. (2013). Impact of a Single Phage and a Phage Cocktail Application in Broilers on Reduction of *Campylobacter jejuni* and Development of Resistance. *PLoS ONE*, 8(10). doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0078543
34. Fokine, A., & Rossmann, M. G. (2014). Molecular architecture of tailed double-stranded DNA phages. *Bacteriophage*, 4(2). doi:10.4161/bact.28281

35. Fruciano, D. E., & Bourne, S. (2007). Phage as an Antimicrobial Agent: D'herelle's Heretical Theories and Their Role in the Decline of Phage Prophylaxis in the West. *Canadian Journal of Infectious Diseases and Medical Microbiology*, 18(1), 19–26. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2007/976850>
36. Fu W, Forster T, Mayer O, Curtin JJ, Lehman SM, Donlan RM. 2010. Bacteriophage cocktail for the prevention of biofilm formation by *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* on catheters in an *in vitro* model system. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 54:397–404. doi:10.1128/AAC.00669-09
37. Gadagkar, R., & Gopinathan, K. P. (1980). Bacteriophage burst size during multiple infections. *Journal of Biosciences*, 2(3), 253–259. doi:10.1007/bf02703251
38. García, P., Rodríguez, L., Rodríguez, A., & Martínez, B. (2010) Food biopreservation: promising strategies using bacteriocins, bacteriophages and endolysins. *Trends in Food Science & Technology*, 21(8), 373–382. doi:10.1016/j.tifs.2010.04.010
39. Golkar, Z., Bagasra, O., & Pace, D. G. (2014). Bacteriophage therapy: a potential solution for the antibiotic resistance crisis. *The Journal of Infection in Developing Countries*, 8(02), 129–136. doi: 10.3855/jidc.357
40. Goodridge, L., Chen, J. and Griffiths, M. (1999) Development and characterization of a fluorescent-bacteriophage assay for detection of *Escherichia coli*. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* O157 : H7, 65(4).
41. Guo, Y., Chen, P., Lin, Z., & Wang, T. (2019). Characterization of Two *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* Viruses vB\_PaeM\_SCUT-S1 and vB\_PaeM\_SCUT-S2. *Viruses*, 11(4), 318. doi:10.3390/v11040318
42. Haque, M., Sartelli, M., Mckimm, J., & Bakar, M. B. A. (2018). Health care-associated infections – an overview. *Infection and Drug Resistance*, Volume 11, 2321–2333. doi: 10.2147/idr.s177247
43. Haq, I. U., Chaudhry, W. N., Akhtar, M. N., Andleeb, S., & Qadri, I. (2012) Bacteriophages and their implications on future biotechnology: a review. *Virology Journal*, 9(1), 9. doi:10.1186/1743-422X-9-9.
44. Hospital infection control committees, need of the hour; Monday, Nov 10, 2008;The Hindu.
45. Ho, Y.-H., Tseng, C.-C., Wang, L.-S., Chen, Y.-T., Ho, G.-J., Lin, T.-Y., ... Chen, L.-K. (2016). Application of Bacteriophage-containing Aerosol against Nosocomial Transmission of Carbapenem-Resistant *Acinetobacter baumannii* in an Intensive Care Unit. *Plos One*, 11(12). doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0168380
46. Janda, J. M., & Abbott, S. L. (2007). 16S rRNA Gene Sequencing for Bacterial Identification in the Diagnostic Laboratory: Pluses, Perils, and Pitfalls. *Journal of Clinical Microbiology*, 45(9), 2761–2764. doi: 10.1128/jcm.01228-07

47. Jensen, K. C., Hair, B. B., Wienclaw, T. M., Murdock, M. H., Hatch, J. B., Trent, A. T., ... Berges, B. K. (2015). Isolation and Host Range of Bacteriophage with Lytic Activity against Methicillin-Resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* and Potential Use as a Fomite Decontaminant. *Plos One*, 10(7). doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0131714S
48. Jończyk, E., Kłak, M., Międzybrodzki, R., & Górski, A. (2011). The influence of external factors on bacteriophages—review. *Folia Microbiologica*, 56(3), 191-200. doi:10.1007/s12223-011-0039-8
49. Karthik, K. (2014). Bacteriophages: Effective Alternative to Antibiotics. *Advances in Animal and Veterinary Sciences*, 2(3S), 1-7. doi:10.14737/journal.aavs/2014/2.3s.1.7
50. Khan, H. A., Baig, F. K., & Mehboob, R. (2017). Nosocomial infections: Epidemiology, prevention, control and surveillance. *Asian Pacific Journal of Tropical Biomedicine*, 7(5), 478-482. doi:10.1016/j.apjtb.2017.01.019
51. Klevens, R. M., Edwards, J. R., Richards, C. L., Horan, T. C., Gaynes, R. P., Pollock, D. A., & Cardo, D. M. (2007). Estimating Health Care-Associated Infections and Deaths in U.S. Hospitals, 2002. *Public Health Reports*, 122(2), 160–166. doi: 10.1177/003335490712200205
52. Koirala, A., & Acharya, D. (2018). Profile of hospital acquired infection in tertiary level hospital. *International Journal of Infectious Diseases*, 73, 291–292. doi: 10.1016/j.ijid.2018.04.4079
53. Kropinski, A. M., Mazzocco, A., Waddell, T. E., Lingohr, E., & Johnson, R. P. (2009). Enumeration of bacteriophages by double agar overlay plaque assay. *Methods in Molecular Biology*, 69–76. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-60327-164-6\\_7](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-60327-164-6_7)
54. Kutateladze, Mzia, and RevazAdamia.(2010). —Bacteriophages as potential new therapeutics to replace or supplement antibiotics. *Trends in Biotechnology* 28(12), 591-595.
55. Kutter, E. (2009). Phage Host Range and Efficiency of Plating. In M. R. J. Clokie & A. M. Kropinski (Eds.), *Bacteriophages* (Vol. 501, pp. 141–149). Totowa, NJ: Humana Press. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-60327-164-6\\_14](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-60327-164-6_14)
56. Lin, D. M., Koskella, B., & Lin, H. C. (2017). Phage therapy: An alternative to antibiotics in the age of multi-drug resistance. *World Journal of Gastrointestinal Pharmacology and Therapeutics*, 8(3), 162. doi: 10.4292/wjgpt.v8.i3.162
57. Lila, G., Mulliqi-Osmeni, G., Raka, L., Kurti, A., Bajrami, R., & Azizi, E. (2018). Molecular epidemiology of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* in University Clinical Center of Kosovo. *Infection and Drug Resistance, Volume 11*, 2039–2046. doi: 10.2147/idr.s174940
58. Ling, M. L., Apisarnthanarak, A., & Madriaga, G. (2015). The burden of healthcare-associated infections in Southeast Asia: A systematic literature review and meta-analysis. *Clinical Infectious Diseases*, 60(11), 1690–1699. <https://doi.org/10.1093/cid/civ095>

59. Magin, V., Garrec, N., & Andrés, Y. (2019). Selection of Bacteriophages to Control In Vitro 24 h Old Biofilm of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* Isolated from Drinking and Thermal Water. *Viruses*, *11*(8), 749. doi:10.3390/v11080749
60. Marei, E. M. (2020). Isolation and Characterization of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and its Virulent Bacteriophages. *Pakistan Journal of Biological Sciences*, *23*(4), 491-500. doi:10.3923/pjbs.2020.491.500
61. Matsuzaki, S., Rashel, M., Uchiyama, J., Sakurai, S., Ujihara, T., Kuroda, M., ... Wakiguchi, H. (2005). Bacteriophage therapy: a revitalized therapy against bacterial infectious diseases. *Journal of Infection and Chemotherapy*, *11*(5), 211–219. doi: 10.1007/s10156-005-0408-9
62. Mattila, S., Ruotsalainen, P., & Jalasvuori, M. (2015). On-Demand Isolation of Bacteriophages Against Drug-Resistant Bacteria for Personalized Phage Therapy. *Frontiers in Microbiology*, *6*. doi:10.3389/fmicb.2015.01271
63. Markoishvili K, Tsitlanadze G, Katsarava R, Morris JG Jr, Sulakvelidze A. A novel sustained-release matrix based on biodegradable poly(ester amide)s and impregnated with bacteriophages and an antibiotic shows promise in management of infected venous stasis ulcers and other poorly healing wounds. *Int J Dermatol* 2002; 41:453 - 458; PMID: 12121566; <http://dx.doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-4362.2002.01451.x> [Crossref], [PubMed], [Web of Science®], [Google Scholar]
64. Mcvay, C. S., Velasquez, M., & Fralick, J. A. (2007). Phage Therapy of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* Infection in a Mouse Burn Wound Model. *Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy*, *51*(6), 1934–1938. doi: 10.1128/aac.01028-06
65. Melo, A. C., Gomes, A. D., Melo, F. L., Ardisson-Araújo, D. M., Vargas, A. P., Ely, V. L., . . . Wolff, J. L. (2019). Characterization of a bacteriophage with broad host range against strains of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* isolated from domestic animals. *BMC Microbiology*, *19*(1). doi:10.1186/s12866-019-1481-z
66. Morello, E., Sausseureau, E., Maura, D., Huerre, M., Touqui, L., & Debarbieux, L. (2011). Pulmonary Bacteriophage Therapy on *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* Cystic Fibrosis Strains: First Steps Towards Treatment and Prevention. *PLoS ONE*, *6*(2). doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.001696
67. Nathwani, D., Raman, G., Sulham, K., Gavaghan, M., & Menon, V. (2014). Clinical and economic consequences of hospital-acquired resistant and multidrug-resistant *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* infections: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Antimicrobial Resistance and Infection Control*, *3*(1), 32. doi:10.1186/2047-2994-3-32
68. Nosocomial infection-Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia; available at [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Nosocomial\\_infection](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Nosocomial_infection).

69. Oduor, J. M. O., Onkoba, N., Maloba, F., Arodi, W. O., & Nyachio, A. (2016). Efficacy of lytic *Staphylococcus aureus* bacteriophage against multidrug-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* in mice. *The Journal of Infection in Developing Countries*, 10(11), 1208–1213. doi: 10.3855/jidc.7931
70. Orzechowska, B., & Mohammed, M. (2019). The War between Bacteria and Bacteriophages. *Growing and Handling of Bacterial Cultures*. doi:10.5772/intechopen.87247
71. Ofir, G., & Soker, R. (2018). Contemporary phage biology: From classic modes to new insight. *Cell*, 172(6), 1260-1270.
72. Palumbo, S. A. (1972). Role of Iron and Sulfur in Pigment and Slime Formation by *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. *Journal of Bacteriology*, 111(2), 430-436. doi:10.1128/jb.111.2.430-436.1972
73. Parajuli, N. P., Acharya, S. P., Mishra, S. K., Parajuli, K., Rijal, B. P., & Pokhrel, B. M. (2017). High burden of antimicrobial resistance among gram negative bacteria causing healthcare associated infections in a critical care unit of Nepal. *Antimicrobial Resistance & Infection Control*, 6(1). doi: 10.1186/s13756-017-0222-z
74. Podolsky, S. H. (1999). Felix d'Herelle and the Origins of Molecular Biology William C. Summers Felix d'Herelle and the Origins of Molecular Biology William C. Summers New Haven: Yale University Press, 1999, 288 p., \$35.00. *Canadian Bulletin of Medical History*, 16(2), 366–367. doi: 10.3138/cbmh.16.2.366
75. Pires, D. P., Boas, D. V., Sillankorva, S., & Azeredo, J. (2015). Phage Therapy: a Step Forward in the Treatment of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* Infections. *Journal of Virology*, 89(15), 7449–7456. doi: 10.1128/jvi.00385-15
76. Pires D, Sillankorva S, Faustino A, Azeredo J. 2011. Use of newly isolated phages for control of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* PAO1 and ATCC 10145 biofilms. *Res Microbiol* 162:798–806. doi:10.1016/j.resmic.2011.06.010.
77. Prazak, J., Iten, M., Cameron, D. R., Save, J., Grandgirard, D., Resch, G., ... Haenggi, M. (2019). Bacteriophages Improve Outcomes in Experimental *Staphylococcus aureus*
78. Sah MK , Mishra SK, Ohora H , Kirikae T , Sherchan JB , Rijal BP, Pokhrel BM. Nosocomial Bacterial Infection and Antimicrobial Resistant Pattern in a Tertiary Care Hospital in Nepal. *Journal of Institute of Medicine*. 2014;36(3):39-48
79. Samuel, S., Kayode, O., Musa, O., Nwigwe, G., Aboderin, A., Salami, T., & Taiwo, S. (2010). Nosocomial infections and the challenges of control in developing countries. *African Journal of Clinical and Experimental Microbiology*, 11(2). doi: 10.4314/ajcem.v11i2.53916
80. Sankaran, N. (2010). The bacteriophage, its role in immunology: how Macfarlane Burnet's phage research shaped his scientific style. *Studies in History and*



- Philosophy of Biological and Biomedical Sciences, 41(4), 367–375.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.shpsc.2010.10.012>
81. Scarascia, G., Yap, S. A., Kaksonen, A. H., & Hong, P. (2018). Bacteriophage Infectivity Against *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* in Saline Conditions. *Frontiers in Microbiology*, 9. doi:10.3389/fmicb.2018.00875
  82. Schmidt, C. (2019). Phage therapy's latest makeover. *Nature Biotechnology*, 37(6), 581–586. doi: 10.1038/s41587-019-0133-z
  83. Schmerer, M., Molineux, I. J., & Bull, J. J. (2014). Synergy as a rationale for phage therapy using phage cocktails. *PeerJ*, 2. doi:10.7717/peerj.590
  84. Shrestha, S. K., & Shrestha, P. K. (2018). Epidemiology and Risk Factors of Healthcare Associated Infections in Critically Ill Patients in a Tertiary Care Teaching Hospital in Nepal. *American Journal of Infection Control*, 46(6). doi: 10.1016/j.ajic.2018.04.012
  85. Slopek S, Kucharewicz-Krukowska A, Weber-Dabrowska B, Dabrowski M. Results of bacteriophage treatment of suppurative bacterial infections. VI. Analysis of treatment of suppurative staphylococcal infections. *Arch Immunol Ther Exp (Warsz)* 1985; 33:261 - 273; PMID: 2935117
  86. Sulakvelidze, A. (2005). Phage therapy: An attractive option for dealing with antibiotic-resistant bacterial infections. *Drug Discovery Today*, 10(12), 807-809. doi:10.1016/s1359-6446(05)03441-0
  87. Sulakvelidze, A., Alavidze, Z., & Morris, J. G. (2001b). Bacteriophage Therapy. *Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy*, 45(3), 649–659. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.45.3.649-659.2001>
  88. Tan, D., Zhang, Y., Cheng, M., Le, S., Gu, J., Bao, J., ... Zhu, T. (2019). Characterization of *Klebsiella pneumoniae* ST11 Isolates and Their Interactions with Lytic Phages. *Viruses*, 11(11), 1080. doi: 10.3390/v11111080
  89. Tang, C., Deng, C., Zhang, Y., Xiao, C., Wang, J., Rao, X., . . . Lu, S. (2018). Characterization and Genomic Analyses of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* Podovirus TC6: Establishment of Genus Pa11virus. *Frontiers in Microbiology*, 9. doi:10.3389/fmicb.2018.02561
  90. Tomat, D., Quiberoni, A., Mercanti, D., & Balagué, C. (2014). Hard surfaces decontamination of enteropathogenic and Shiga toxin-producing *Escherichia coli* using bacteriophages. *Food Research International*, 57, 123–129. doi: 10.1016/j.foodres.2014.01.013
  91. Ventilator-associated Pneumonia. *American Journal of Respiratory and Critical Care Medicine*, 200(9), 1126–1133. doi: 10.1164/rccm.201812-2372oc
  92. Verma, V., Harjai, K., & Chhibber, S. (2009) Characterization of a T7-Like lytic bacteriophage of *klebsiella pneumoniae* b5055: A potential therapeutic agent.

- Current Microbiology, 59(3), 274–281. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00284-009-9430-y>.
93. Vincent J-L. Nosocomial infections in adult intensive-care units. *Lancet*. 2003;361(9374):2068–2077.
94. Wang, I. N., Smith, D. L., & Young, R. (2000). Holins: the protein clocks of bacteriophage infections. *Annual Review of Microbiology*, 54, 799–825. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.micro.54.1.799>
95. Waters, E. M., Neill, D. R., Kaman, B., Sahota, J. S., Clokie, M. R. J., Winstanley, C., & Kadioglu, A. (2017). Phage therapy is highly effective against chronic lung infections with *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. *Thorax*, 72(7), 666–667. doi: 10.1136/thoraxjnl-2016-209265
96. White, H. E., & Orlova, E. V. (2020). Bacteriophages: Their Structural Organisation and Function. *Bacteriophages - Perspectives and Future*. doi:10.5772/intechopen.85484
97. Wernicki, A., Nowaczek, A., & Urban-Chmiel, R. (2017). Bacteriophage therapy to combat bacterial infections in poultry. *Virology Journal*, 14(1). <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12985-017-0849-7>
98. Wertheim HF , Melles DC , Vos MC , van Leeuwen W , van Belkum A , Verbrugh HA , Nouwen JL . 2005. The role of nasal carriage in *Staphylococcus aureus* infections. *Lancet Infect Dis* 5:751–762. doi:10.1016/S1473-3099(05)70295
99. Wittebole, X., De Roock, S., & Opal, S. M. (2014). A historical overview of bacteriophage therapy as an alternative to antibiotics for the treatment of bacterial pathogens. *Virulence*, 5(1), 226–235. <https://doi.org/10.4161/viru.25991>
100. Wittebole, X., Roock, S. D., & Opal, S. M. (2013). A historical overview of bacteriophage therapy as an alternative to antibiotics for the treatment of bacterial pathogens. *Virulence*, 5(1), 226–235. doi: 10.4161/viru.25991
101. Yu, L., Wang, S., Guo, Z., Liu, H., Sun, D., Yan, G., ... Lei, L. (2017). A guard-killer phage cocktail effectively lyses the host and inhibits the development of phage-resistant strains of *Escherichia coli*. *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 102(2), 971–983. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00253-017-8591-z>
102. Young, R. Y. (1992). —Bacteriophage lysis: mechanism and regulation. *Microbiological Reviews* 56(3), 430.

## APPENDICES

### Media composition/Reagent preparation

#### A) Luria Bertani (LB) Broth

<b>Ingredients</b>	<b>Grams/litre</b>
Casein enzymic hydrolysate	10.00
Yeast extract	5.00
Sodium chloride	10.00
Final pH (at 25°C)	7.5 ± 0.2

#### B) Tryptic Soy Broth (TSB)/Soybean-Casein Digest Medium – HiMedia

<b>Ingredients</b>	<b>Grams / Litre</b>
Pancreatic digest of casein	17.00
Papaic digest of soyabean meal	3.00
Sodium Chloride	5.00
Dextrose	2.50
Dibasic Potassium Phosphate	2.50
Final pH (at 25°C)	7.3 ± 0.2

#### C) Salt of Magnesium (SM) buffer

<b>Ingredients</b>	<b>Grams / Litre</b>
Sodium chloride	100mM
Magnesium sulphate	10mM
Tris-HCL	50mM
Gelatin	0.01% (w/v)

### Reagents for SDS-PAGE

#### A) 30% acrylamide solution: (For 100ml)

<b>Constituent's</b>	<b>weight/volume</b>
Acrylamide; C <sub>3</sub> H <sub>5</sub> NO	29g
Bis Acrylamide; C <sub>7</sub> H <sub>10</sub> N <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	1g
TDW	Maintain upto 100ml

## B) Casting Constituents

Solution components	Resolving gel (12%) :10ml	Stacking gel (5%) :3ml
TDW	3.3	2.1
30% Acrylamide	4	0.5
1.5% Tris (pH 8.8)	2.5	–
1.5% Tris (pH 6.8)	–	0.38
10% SDS	0.1	0.3
10% (NH <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> S <sub>2</sub> O <sub>8</sub>	0.1	0.3
TEMED	0.004	0.003

## C) Tris buffer

Lower tris pH 8.8: for 100ml			Upper tris pH 6.8: for 50ml		
S.N.	Constituents	Amount	S.N.	Constituents	Amount
1	Tris (Tris base)	1.5M/18.17 g	1	Tris (Tris base)	0.5M/3.03g
2	TDW	Maintain 100ml	2	TDW	Maintain 50ml

D) Loading (Sample) buffer (pH 6.8): For 10ml

S.N.	Constituents	Amount (ml)
1	Upper Tris pH 6.8	1.25
2	10% SDS	3.0
3	Glycerol	4.75
4	Beta-mercaptoethanol	0.5
5	0.1% bromothymol blue	0.5

E) Staining solution CBB G-250: 500ml

S.N.	Constituents	Amount
1	CBB G-250	500mg
2	Glacial acetic acid	25ml
3	Methanol	250ml
4	TDW	225ml

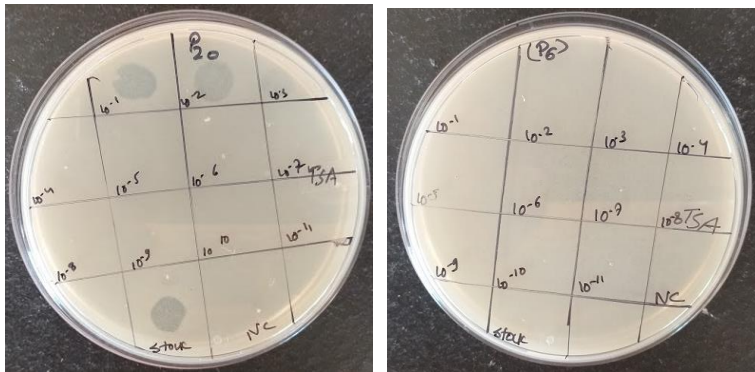
F) Destain solution: 500ml

S.N.	Constituents	Amount (ml)
1	7% glacial acetic acid	37.5
2	5% methnol	25
3	TDW	437.5

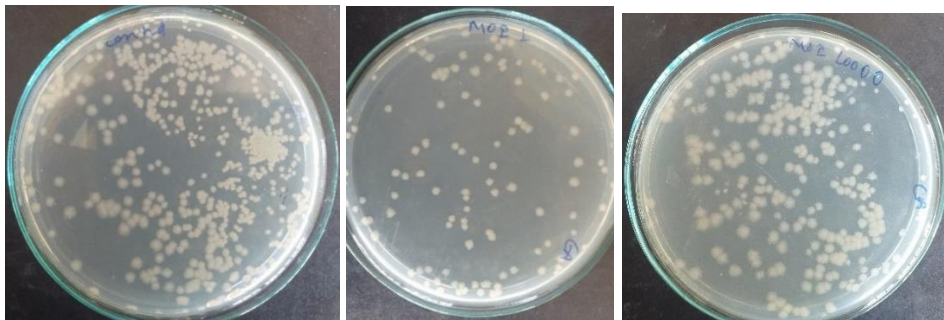
G) Running buffer/ Electrolysis buffer (pH 8.4): 1000ml

S.N.	Constituents	Amount
1	39mM tris	4.724g
2	48mM glycine	3.603g
3	0.1% SDS	0.37g

### Intra Host Range analysis



### Phage P4 as disinfectant by using bacteria on Fomite cloth



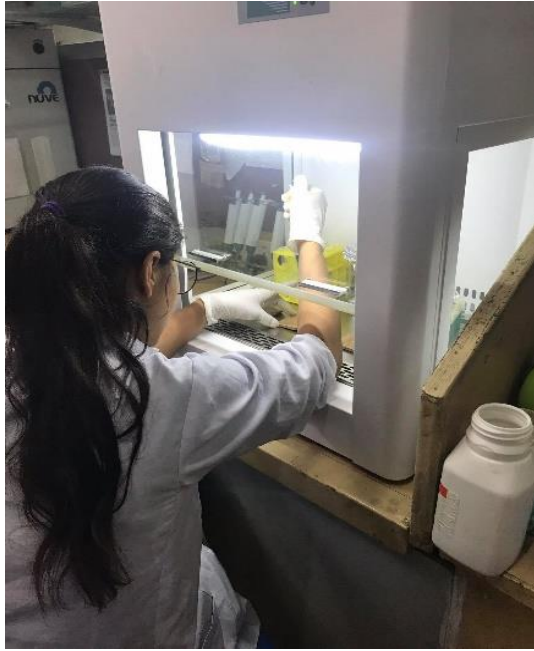
### Some pictures during CDBT Thesis Journey



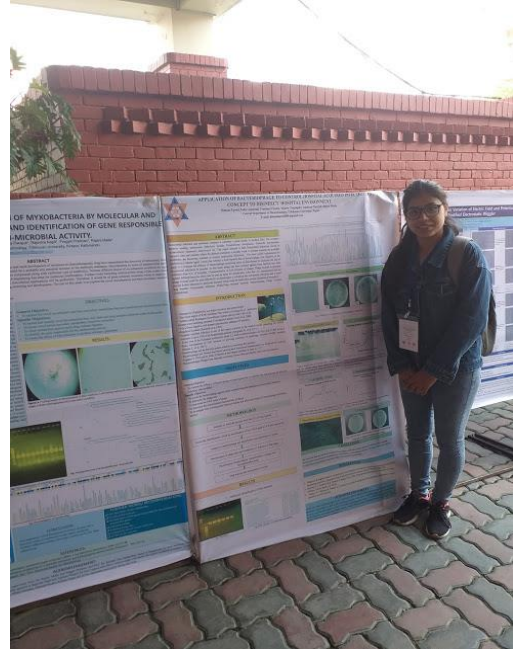
Preparing SDS\_PAGE apparatus



Working at laminar hood



**Loading bacterial sample on marble tiles**



**Poster Presentation in International Youth Conference organized by NAST, October 2019**



**Thesis defense day with my Supervisors and HOD Sir**



**Holi program at CDBT**



**CDBT's Stall at NAST on World DNA Day by we third semester students**