A trained deep neural network predicts antibiotic activity in molecules that are structurally different from known antibiotics, among which Halicin exhibits efficacy against broad-spectrum bacterial infections in mice.
A Deep Learning Approach to Antibiotic Discovery

Jonathan M. Stokes,1,2,3 Kevin Yang,3,4,10 Kyle Swanson,3,4,10 Wengong Jin,1,4 Andres Cubillos-Ruiz,1,2,5 Nina M. Donghia,1,6 Craig R. MacNair,6 Shawn French,6 Lindsey A. Carfrae,6 Zohar Bloom-Ackermann,2,7 Victoria M. Tran,1 Anush Chiappino-Pepe,5,7 Ahmed H. Badran,1,2 Ian W. Andrews,1,2,5 Emma J. Chory,1,2
George M. Church,5,7,8 Eric D. Brown,10 Tommi S. Jaakkola,3,4 Regina Barzilay,3,4,9,* and James J. Collins1,2,5,8,9,11,*

1Department of Biological Engineering, Synthetic Biology Center, Institute for Medical Engineering and Science, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, MA 02139, USA
2Broad Institute of MIT and Harvard, Cambridge, MA 02142, USA
3Machine Learning for Pharmaceutical Discovery and Synthesis Consortium, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, MA 02139, USA
4Computer Science and Artificial Intelligence Laboratory, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, MA 02139, USA
5Wyss Institute for Biologically Inspired Engineering, Harvard University, Boston, MA 02115, USA
6Department of Biochemistry and Biomedical Sciences, Michael G. DeGroote Institute for Infectious Disease Research, McMaster University, Hamilton, ON L8N 3Z5, Canada
7Department of Genetics, Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA 02115, USA
8Harvard-MIT Program in Health Sciences and Technology, Cambridge, MA 02139, USA
9Abdul Latif Jameel Clinic for Machine Learning in Health, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, MA 02139, USA
10These authors contributed equally
11Lead Contact
*Correspondence: regina@csail.mit.edu (R.B.), jimjc@mit.edu (J.J.C.)
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2020.01.021

SUMMARY

Due to the rapid emergence of antibiotic-resistant bacteria, there is a growing need to discover new antibiotics. To address this challenge, we trained a deep neural network capable of predicting molecules with antibacterial activity. We performed predictions on multiple chemical libraries and discovered a molecule from the Drug Repurposing Hub—halicin—that is structurally divergent from conventional antibiotics and displays bactericidal activity against a wide phylogenetic spectrum of pathogens including Mycobacterium tuberculosis and carbapenem-resistant Enterobacteriaceae. Halicin also effectively treated Clostridioides difficile and pan-resistant Acinetobacter baumannii infections in murine models. Additionally, from a discrete set of 23 empirically tested predictions from >107 million molecules curated from the ZINC15 database, our model identified eight antibacterial compounds that are structurally distant from known antibiotics. This work highlights the utility of deep learning approaches to expand our antibiotic arsenal through the discovery of structurally distinct antibacterial molecules.

INTRODUCTION

Since the discovery of penicillin, antibiotics have become the cornerstone of modern medicine. However, the continued efficacy of these essential drugs is uncertain due to the global dissemination of antibiotic-resistance determinants. Moreover, the decreasing development of new antibiotics in the private sector that has resulted from a lack of economic incentives is exacerbating this already dire problem (Brown and Wright, 2016; PEW Trusts, 2019). Indeed, without immediate action to discover and develop new antibiotics, it is projected that deaths attributable to resistant infections will reach 10 million per year by 2050 (O’Neill, 2014).

Historically, antibiotics were discovered largely through screening soil-dwelling microbes for secondary metabolites that prevented the growth of pathogenic bacteria (Clardy et al., 2006; Wright, 2017). This approach resulted in the majority of clinically used classes of antibiotics, including β-lactams, amino-glycosides, polymyxins, and glycopeptides, among others. Semi-synthetic derivatives of these scaffolds have maintained a viable clinical arsenal of antibiotics by increasing potency, decreasing toxicity, and sidestepping resistance determinants. Entirely synthetic antibiotics of the pyrimidine, quinolone, oxazolidinone, and sulfa classes have also found prolonged clinical utility, and continue to be optimized for the same properties.

Unfortunately, the discovery of new antibiotics is becoming increasingly difficult. Natural product discovery is now plagued by the dereplication problem, wherein the same molecules are being repeatedly discovered (Cox et al., 2006; Wright, 2017). This approach resulted in the majority of clinically used classes of antibiotics, including β-lactams, amino-glycosides, polymyxins, and glycopeptides, among others. Semi-synthetic derivatives of these scaffolds have maintained a viable clinical arsenal of antibiotics by increasing potency, decreasing toxicity, and sidestepping resistance determinants. Entirely synthetic antibiotics of the pyrimidine, quinolone, oxazolidinone, and sulfa classes have also found prolonged clinical utility, and continue to be optimized for the same properties.
to a few million molecules, are often prohibitively costly to curate, limited in chemical diversity, and fail to reflect the chemistry that is inherent to antibiotic molecules (Brown et al., 2014). Since the implementation of high-throughput screening in the 1980s, no new clinical antibiotics have been discovered using this method. Novel approaches to antibiotic discovery are needed to increase the rate at which new antibiotics are identified and simultaneously decrease the associated cost of early lead discovery. Given recent advancements in machine learning (Camacho et al., 2018), the field is now ripe for the application of algorithmic solutions for molecular property prediction to identify novel structural classes of antibiotics. Indeed, adopting methodologies that allow early drug discovery to be performed largely in silico enables the exploration of vast chemical spaces that is beyond the reach of current experimental approaches.

The idea of analytical exploration in drug design is not new. Decades of prior work in chemoinformatics have developed models for molecular property prediction (Mayr et al., 2018; Wu et al., 2017). However, the accuracy of these models has been insufficient to substantially change the traditional drug discovery pipeline. With recent algorithmic advancements in modeling neural network-based molecular representations, we are beginning to have the opportunity to influence the paradigm of drug discovery. An important development relates to how molecules are represented; traditionally, molecules were represented by their fingerprint vectors, which reflected the presence or absence of functional groups in the molecule, or by descriptors that include computable molecular properties and require expert knowledge to construct (Mauri et al., 2006; Moriwaki et al., 2018; Rogers and Hahn, 2010). Even though the mapping from these representations to properties was learned automatically, the fingerprints and descriptors themselves were designed manually. The innovation of neural network approaches lies in their ability to learn this representation automatically, mapping molecules into continuous vectors that are subsequently used to predict their properties. These designs result in molecular representations that are highly attuned to the desired property, yielding gains in property prediction accuracy over manually crafted representations (Yang et al., 2019b).

While neural network models narrowed the performance gap between analytical and experimental approaches, a difference still exists. Here, we demonstrate how the combination of in silico predictions and empirical investigations can lead to the discovery of new antibiotics (Figure 1). Our approach consists of three stages. First, we trained a deep neural network model to predict growth inhibition of Escherichia coli using a collection of 2,335 diverse molecules for those that inhibited the growth of E. coli, using a directed message passing approach. We first trained our neural network model using a collection of 2,335 diverse molecules for those that inhibited the growth of E. coli, augmenting the model with a set of molecular features, hyperparameter optimization, and ensembling. Next, we applied the model to multiple chemical libraries, comprising >10^7 million molecules, to identify potential lead compounds with activity against E. coli. After ranking the candidates according to the model’s predicted score, we selected a list of promising candidates.
model to several discrete chemical libraries, comprising >107 million molecules, to identify potential lead compounds with activity against E. coli. After ranking the compounds according to the model’s predicted score, we lastly selected a list of candidates based on a pre-specified prediction score threshold, chemical structure, and availability.

Through this approach, from the Drug Repurposing Hub, we identified the c-Jun N-terminal kinase inhibitor SU3327 (De et al., 2009; Jang et al., 2015) (renamed halicin herein), which is structurally divergent from conventional antibiotics, as a potent inhibitor of E. coli growth. Further investigations revealed that halicin displays growth inhibitory properties against a wide phylogenetic spectrum of pathogens through selective dissipation of the bacterial transmembrane ΔpH potential. Importantly, halicin shows efficacy against Clostridioides difficile and pan-resistant Acinetobacter baumannii infections in murine models. Of note, the World Health Organization has designated A. baumannii as one of the highest priority pathogens against which new antibiotics are urgently required (Lee et al., 2017; Perez et al., 2007). In addition to halicin, from a distinct set of 23 empirically tested predictions from >107 million molecules found in the ZINC15 database, we readily discovered eight additional antibacterial compounds that are structurally distant from known antibiotics. Remarkably, two of these molecules displayed potent broad-spectrum activity and could overcome an array of antibiotic-resistance determinants in E. coli. This work highlights the significant impact that machine learning can have on early antibiotic discovery efforts by simultaneously increasing the accuracy rate of lead compound identification and decreasing the cost of screening efforts.

RESULTS

Initial Model Training and the Identification of Halicin

Initially, we desired to obtain a training dataset de novo that was inexpensive, chemically diverse, and did not require sophisticated laboratory resources. This would allow for the development of a robust model with which new antibiotics could be predicted, without the practical hurdles that can be associated with large-scale antibiotic screening efforts. We screened for growth inhibition against E. coli BW25113 (Zampieri et al., 2017) using a widely available US Food and Drug Administration (FDA)-approved drug library consisting of 1,760 molecules of diverse structure and function. To further increase chemical diversity, we included an additional 800 natural products isolated from plant, animal, and microbial sources, resulting in a primary training set of 2,560 molecules (Figures 2A and S1A; Table S1A)–2,335 unique compounds when deduplicated (Figure S1B; Table S1B). Using 80% growth inhibition as a hit cut-off, this primary screen resulted in the identification of 120 predicted molecules displaying growth inhibition against E. coli, and compounds with molecular graphs common between the training dataset and the Drug Repurposing Hub were removed (Figure 2C; Table S2B). Notably, we compared the molecule prediction ranks from our model (Table S2B) to numerous others, including a learned model without RDKit feature augmentation (Table S2C), a model trained exclusively on RDKit features (Table S2D), a feed-forward deep neural network model using Morgan fingerprints as the molecular representation (Table S2E), a random forest classifier using Morgan fingerprints (Table S2F), and a support-vector machine model using Morgan fingerprints (Table S2G).

Next, we curated the 99 molecules unique to the Drug Repurposing Hub that were most strongly predicted to display antibacterial properties by our model and empirically tested these for growth inhibition. We observed that 51 of the 99 predicted molecules displayed growth inhibition against E. coli, based on a cut-off of OD600 <0.2 (Figure 2D). Importantly, higher prediction scores correlated with a greater probability of growth inhibition (Figure 2E). Furthermore, empirically testing the lowest predicted 63 molecules that were unique to the Drug Repurposing Hub revealed that only two of these compounds displayed growth inhibitory activity (Figure 2F).

After identifying the 51 molecules that displayed growth inhibition against E. coli, we prioritized these based on clinical phase of investigation, structural similarity to molecules in the primary training dataset, and predicted toxicity using a deep neural network model trained on the ClinTox database (Gayvert et al., 2016; Wu et al., 2017) (Table S2B). Specifically, we prioritized predicted compounds in preclinical or Phase 1/2/3 studies, those with low structural similarity to training set molecules, and...
those with low predicted toxicity. The compound that satisfied all of these criteria was the c-Jun N-terminal kinase inhibitor SU3327 (De et al., 2009; Jang et al., 2015) (renamed halicin), a preclinical nitrothiazole under investigation as a treatment for diabetes. Excitingly, halicin, which is structurally most similar to a family of nitro-containing antiparasitic compounds (Tanimoto similarity \(C_{24}=0.37\); Figures 2G and 2H; Table S2H) (Rogers and Hahn, 2010) and the antibiotic metronidazole (Tanimoto similarity \(C_{24}=0.21\)), displayed excellent growth inhibitory activity against \(E. coli\), achieving a minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) of 2 \(\mu\)g/mL (Figure 2I).

Importantly, we observed that the prediction rank of halicin in our model (position 89) was greater than that in four of the other five models tested (positions ranging from 273 to 2579;
Figure 3. Halicin Is a Broad-Spectrum Bactericidal Antibiotic

(A) Killing of *E. coli* in LB media in the presence of varying concentrations of halicin after 1 h (blue), 2 h (cyan), 3 h (green), and 4 h (red). The initial cell density is $10^6$ CFU/mL. Shown is the mean of two biological replicates. Bars denote absolute error.

(B) Killing of *E. coli* in PBS in the presence of varying concentrations of halicin after 2 h (blue), 4 h (cyan), 6 h (green), and 8 h (red). The initial cell density is $10^6$ CFU/mL. Shown is the mean of two biological replicates. Bars denote absolute error.

(C) Killing of *E. coli* persisters by halicin after treatment with $10^{-3}$ mg/mL ($10^{-3}$ MIC) of ampicillin. Light blue is no halicin. Green is $5 \times$ MIC halicin. Purple is $10 \times$ MIC halicin. Red is $20 \times$ MIC halicin. Shown is the mean of two biological replicates. Bars denote absolute error.

(legend continued on next page)
Tables S2D–S2G). Indeed, only the learned model without RDKit augmentation positioned halicin in a higher prediction rank (position 61; Table S2C). These data highlight the importance of using a directed-message passing deep neural network approach in the discovery of halicin.

**Halicin Is a Broad-Spectrum Bactericidal Antibiotic**

Given that halicin displayed potent growth inhibitory activity against *E. coli*, we next performed time- and concentration-dependent killing assays to determine whether this compound inhibited growth through a bactericidal or bacteriostatic mechanism. In rich growth conditions against an initial cell density of ~10^6 colony-forming unit (CFU)/mL, we observed bacterial cell killing in the presence of halicin (Figure 3A). The apparent potency of halicin decreased as initial cell density increased (Figures S2A and S2B), likely as a result of dilution of the molecule over a greater number of cells. Next, we considered whether halicin might induce bacterial cell death against *E. coli* in a metabolically repressed, antibiotic-tolerant state (Balaban et al., 2019; Stokes et al., 2019a, 2019b). Indeed, given that metronidazole is bactericidal against non-replicating cells (Tally et al., 1978), we reasoned that halicin may similarly display this activity. Remarkably, by incubating *E. coli* in nutrient-free buffer supplemented with halicin, we observed that this molecule retained bactericidal activity (Figures 3B, S2C, and S2D). This is in stark contrast to the conventionally bactericidal antibiotic ampicillin, which was unable to eradicadate *E. coli* existing in metabolically repressed states (Figures S2E–S2G), despite its efficacy against metabolically active cells (Figures S2H–S2J). Moreover, halicin was able to eradicate *E. coli* persistor cells that remained after treatment with ampicillin (Figure 3C), consistent with its bactericidal activity against cells in nutrient-free buffer conditions.

The efficacy of halicin against antibiotic-tolerant cells represents a significant improvement over the majority of conventional antibiotics (Lobritz et al., 2015; Stokes et al., 2019b). This observation suggested that the molecule could function through an uncommon mechanism of action, and therefore overcome many common resistance determinants. We initially tested halicin against a selection of *E. coli* strains harboring plasmid-borne antibiotic-resistance genes conferring resistance to polymyxins (MCR-1), chloramphenicol (CAT), β-lactams (OXA-1), aminoglycosides [ant(2′)-Ia], and fluoroquinolones [aac(6′)-Ib-cr]. Here, we observed no change in halicin MIC in the presence of any resistance gene relative to the antibiotic-susceptible parent strains (Figures 3D and S2K). Similarly, the MIC of halicin did not change in *E. coli* displaying resistance to the nitrofuran antibiotic nitrofurantoin via deletion of *nfsA* and *nfsB* (Sandegren et al., 2008) (Figures S2L and S2M).

To more comprehensively assess the ability of halicin to overcome antibiotic-resistance genes, as well as understand phylogenetic spectrum of bioactivity, we assayed for halicin-dependent growth inhibition against *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*, as well as 36 multidrug-resistant clinical isolates each of carbapenem-resistant Enterobacteriaceae (CRE), *A. baumannii*, and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. These pathogens are regarded by the World Health Organization as the bacteria that most urgently require new treatments. The molecule we have named halicin was reported to have growth inhibitory activity against *M. tuberculosis* in a high-throughput screening setting (unpublished data; PubChem AID 1259343). Excitingly, we observed that halicin was rapidly bactericidal against *M. tuberculosis* (Figures 3E and 3F) and had strong growth inhibitory activity against CRE and *A. baumannii* clinical isolates (Figure 3G; Table S3). While it remains to be experimentally elucidated, the lack of efficacy against *P. aeruginosa* may be explained by insufficient permeability to the cell membrane (Angus et al., 1982; Yoshimura and Nikaido, 1982).

**Halicin Dissipates the ΔpH Component of the Proton Motive Force**

The observations that halicin retained bacteriicidal activity against antibiotic-tolerant *E. coli* and *M. tuberculosis*, as well as growth inhibitory properties against multidrug-resistant Gram-negative clinical isolates, suggested that this compound was antibacterial through an unconventional mechanism. Because our model was agnostic to the mechanism of action underlying growth inhibition, we initially attempted to elucidate mechanism through the evolution of halicin-resistant mutants. However, we were unable to isolate spontaneous suppressor mutants after 30 days of serial passaging in liquid media (Figure 4A) or after 7 days of continuous halicin exposure on solid media (Figure S3A). As such, we applied RNA sequencing to understand the physiologic response of *E. coli* to halicin. Here, early-log phase cells were treated with a range of concentrations of compound, and whole-transcriptome sequencing was performed. We observed a rapid downregulation of genes involved in cell motility across all concentrations, as well as the upregulation of genes required for iron homeostasis at sub-lethal concentrations (Figures 4B, S3B, and S3C; Tables S4A–S4C). Interestingly, previous work has shown that dissipation of the cytoplasmic transmembrane potential results in decreased bacterial locomotion and flagellar biosynthesis (Manson et al., 1977; Paul et al., 2008; Shioi et al., 1982). Moreover, given that cells must maintain an electrochemical transmembrane gradient for viability (Hurdle et al., 2011; Coates and Hu, 2008), dissipation of the proton motive force would result in the death of tolerant cells.

To test the hypothesis that halicin dissipated the proton motive force, we first assayed for changes in halicin MIC against...
E. coli as a function of media pH. In E. coli (Figure 4C), as well as Staphylococcus aureus (Figure S3D), we observed that halicin potency decreased as pH increased, providing evidence that this compound may be dissipating the ΔpH component of the proton motive force (Farha et al., 2013). Consistent with this observation, the addition of sodium bicarbonate to the growth medium (Farha et al., 2018) antagonized the action of halicin against E. coli (Figure S3E).

To further ascertain that halicin dissipates the transmembrane ΔpH potential in bacteria, we applied the potentiometric fluorophore 3,3'-dipropylthiadicarbocyanine iodide [DiSC3(5)] (Wu et al., 1999). DiSC3(5) accumulates in the cytoplasmic membrane in response to the Δc component of the proton motive force, and self-quenches its own fluorescence. When Δc is disrupted, or the membrane is permeabilized, the probe is released into the extracellular milieu resulting in increased fluorescence. Conversely, when ΔpH is disrupted, cells compensate by increasing Δc, resulting in enhanced DiSC3(5) uptake into the cytoplasmic membrane and therefore decreased fluorescence. Here, early-log E. coli cells were washed in buffer and introduced to DiSC3(5) to allow fluorescence equilibration. Cells were then introduced to polymyxin B (Figure 4D), which disrupts the cytoplasmic membrane, causing release of DiSC3(5) from the membrane and a corresponding increase in fluorescence. Next, we introduced cells to varying concentrations of halicin, and observed an immediate decrease in DiSC3(5) fluorescence in a dose-dependent manner (Figure 4D), suggesting that halicin selectively dissipated the ΔpH component of the proton motive.
force. Similar DISC$_3$(5) fluorescence changes were observed in S. aureus treated with halicin (Figures S3F and S3G). Moreover, halicin displayed antibiotic antagonism and synergy profiles consistent with ΔpH dissipation. Of note, halicin antagonized the activity of tetracycline in E. coli, and synergized with kanamycin (Figure 4E), consistent with previous work showing that the uptake of tetracyclines is dependent upon ΔpH (Yamaguchi et al., 1991), whereas aminoglycoside uptake is driven largely by Δψ (Taber et al., 1987).

Interestingly, our observations that halicin induced the expression of iron acquisition genes at sub-lethal concentrations (Tables S4A–S4C) suggested that this compound complexes with iron in solution, thereby dissipating transmembrane ΔpH potential similarly to other antibacterial ionophores, such as daptomycin (Farha et al., 2013). We note here that daptomycin resistance via deletion of dsp1 in S. aureus did not confer cross-resistance to halicin (Figure S3H). We observed enhanced potency of halicin against E. coli with increasing concentrations of environmental Fe$^{3+}$ (Figure 4E). This is consistent with a mechanism of action wherein halicin may bind iron prior to membrane association and ΔpH dissipation.

**Halicin Displays Efficacy in Murine Models of Infection**

Given that halicin displays broad-spectrum bactericidal activity and is not highly susceptible to plasmid-borne antibiotic-resistance elements or de novo resistance mutations at high frequency, we next asked whether this compound might have utility as an antibiotic in vivo. We therefore tested the efficacy of halicin in a murine wound model of A. baumannii infection. On the dorsal surface of neutropenic BALB/c mice, we established a 2 cm$^2$ wound and infected with $\approx 2.5 \times 10^5$ CFU of A. baumannii strain 288 acquired from the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). This strain is not susceptible to clinical antibiotics generally used for treatment of A. baumannii, and therefore represents a pan-resistant isolate. Importantly, halicin displayed potent growth inhibition against this strain *in vitro* (MIC = 1 µg/mL; Figure 5A) and was able to sterilize A. baumannii 288 cells residing in metabolically repressed conditions (Figures 5B, S4A, and S4B). After 1 h of infection establishment, mice were treated with Glaxal Base Moisturizing Cream supplemented with vehicle (0.5% DMSO) or halicin (0.5% w/v). Mice were then treated after 4 h, 8 h, 12 h, 20 h, and 24 h of infection, and sacrificed at 25 h.

**Figure 5. Halicin Displays Efficacy in Murine Models of Infection**

(A) Growth inhibition of pan-resistant *A. baumannii* CDC 288 by halicin. Shown is the mean of two biological replicates. Bars denote absolute error.

(B) Killing of *A. baumannii* CDC 288 in PBS in the presence of varying concentrations of halicin after 2 h (blue), 4 h (cyan), 6 h (green), and 8 h (red). The initial cell density is $\approx 10^6$ CFU/mL. Shown is the mean of two biological replicates. Bars denote absolute error.

(C) In a wound infection model, mice were infected with *A. baumannii* CDC 288 for 1 h and treated with either vehicle (green; 0.5% DMSO; n = 6) or halicin (blue; 0.5% w/v; n = 6) over 24 h. Bacterial load from wound tissue after treatment was determined by selective plating. Black lines represent geometric mean of the bacterial load for each treatment group.

(D) Growth inhibition of *C. difficile* 630 by halicin. Shown is the mean of two biological replicates. Bars denote absolute error.

(E) Experimental design for *C. difficile* infection and treatment.

(F) Bacterial load of *C. difficile* 630 in feces of infected mice. Metronidazole (red; 50 mg/kg; n = 6) did not result in enhanced rates of clearance relative to vehicle controls (green; 10% PEG 300; n = 7). Halicin-treated mice (blue; 15 mg/kg; n = 4) displayed sterilization beginning at 72 h after treatment, with 100% of mice being free of infection at 96 h after treatment. Lines represent geometric mean of the bacterial load for each treatment group.

See also Figure S4.
Figure 6. Predicting New Antibiotic Candidates from Unprecedented Chemical Libraries
(A) Tranches of the ZINC15 database colored based on the proportion of hits from the original training dataset of 2,335 molecules within each tranche. Darker blue tranches have a higher proportion of molecules that are growth inhibitory against E. coli. Yellow tranches are those selected for predictions.
(B) Histogram showing the number of ZINC15 molecules from selected tranches within a corresponding prediction score range.
post-infection. We observed that wound-carrying capacity had reached \(\sim10^6\) CFU/g in the vehicle control group, whereas 5 of the 6 mice treated with halicin contained \(<10^3\) CFU/g (below the limit of detection) and one contained \(~10^2\) CFU/g (Figure 5C).

After showing that halicin displayed efficacy against \(A.\ baumannii\) in a murine wound model, we next sought to investigate whether this molecule may have utility against a phylogenetically divergent pathogen that is increasingly becoming burdensome to healthcare systems—namely, \(C.\ difficile\). This spore-forming anaerobe causes pseudomembranous colitis, often as a result of dysbiosis following systemic antibiotic administration. Metronidazole or vancomycin are first-line treatments, with failure resulting from antibiotic resistance and/or the presence of metabolically dormant cells (Surawicz et al., 2013). In cases of recurrent infection, fecal bacteriotherapy is required to re-establish the normal colonic microbiota to outcompete \(C.\ difficile\) (Gough et al., 2011), which can be more invasive than antibiotic therapy.

We first assayed for the ability of this molecule to inhibit the growth of \(C.\ difficile\) strain 630 in vitro and observed an MIC of 0.5 \(\mu g/mL\) (Figure 5D). To establish the murine infection, C57BL/6 mice were administered intraperitoneal injections of ampicillin (200 mg/kg) every 24 h for 72 h. Mice were then given 24 h to recover and subsequently administered 5 \(\times 10^3\) spores of \(C.\ difficile\) 630 via oral gavage. Beginning 24 h after \(C.\ difficile\) gavage, mice were gavaged with antibiotics (50 mg/kg metronidazole or 15 mg/kg halicin) or vehicle (10% polyethylene glycol [PEG] 300) every 24 h for 5 days, and fecal samples were collected to quantify \(C.\ difficile\) load (Figure 5E). Excitingly, we observed that halicin resulted in \(C.\ difficile\) clearance at a greater rate than vehicle or the antibiotic metronidazole (Figure 5F), which is not only a first-line treatment for \(C.\ difficile\) infection, but also the antibiotic most similar to halicin based on Tanimoto score (Figure 2H; Table S2H). Indeed, halicin resulted in sterilization of 3 out of 4 mice after 72 h of treatment, and 4 out of 4 mice after 96 h of treatment.

### Predicting New Antibiotic Candidates from Vast Chemical Libraries

After applying our deep neural network model to identify antibiotic candidates from the Drug Repurposing Hub, we subsequently explored two additional chemical libraries—the WuXi anti-tuberculosis library housed at the Broad Institute that contains 9,997 molecules, and the ZINC15 database, a virtual collection of \(~1.5\) billion molecules designed for in silico screening (Sterling and Irwin, 2015). The WuXi anti-tuberculosis library served to test our model in chemical spaces that were highly divergent from the training dataset, prior to conducting large-scale predictions in the vast ZINC15 database. We applied our empirical data gathered from the Drug Repurposing Hub molecules to re-train the original model and then applied this new model to the WuXi anti-tuberculosis library. Interestingly, we observed an upper limit prediction score of just \(~0.37\) for the WuXi anti-tuberculosis library (Figure S5A), which was substantially lower than the highest prediction scores observed for the Drug Repurposing Hub (upper limit \(~0.97\); Figure 2C). Next, we curated and empirically assayed the 200 WuXi anti-tuberculosis library compounds with the highest prediction scores and the 100 with the lowest. As expected, none of the 300 molecules that were assayed for growth inhibition against \(E.\ coli\) displayed antibacterial activity (Figures S5B and S5C; Table S5).

After again re-training our model with the empirical data gathered from these 300 WuXi anti-tuberculosis library molecules, we performed predictions on a subset of the ZINC15 database. Here, rather than screening the entire \(\sim1.5\) billion-molecule database, we focused specifically on those tranches that contained molecules with physicochemical properties that are observed in antibiotic-like compounds (Figure 6A). This more focused approach resulted in the in silico curation of 107,349,233 molecules for perspective, this is two orders of magnitude larger than empirical screening permits (Brown et al., 2014), and our in silico screen of the library could be performed in 4 days.

After running predictions on the selected tranches of the ZINC15 database, compounds were binned based on prediction score. This resulted in 6,820 molecules with scores >0.7, 3,260 molecules with scores >0.8, and 1,070 molecules with scores >0.9 (Figure 6B; Table S6A). We compared the top 6,820 ZINC15 prediction ranks from our model (Table S6A) to numerous others, including a learned model without RDKit feature augmentation (Table S6B); a model trained exclusively on RDKit features (Table S6C); a feed-forward deep neural network model using Morgan fingerprints as the molecular representation (Table S6D); a random forest classifier using Morgan fingerprints as the molecular representation (Table S6E).
fingerprints (Table S6E); and a support-vector machine model using Morgan fingerprints (Table S6F). Next, all molecules were rank ordered based on prediction score using our model and assessed for Tanimoto similarity to all known antibiotics. Because we were interested in identifying antibacterial molecules that were structurally dissimilar from current antibiotics, we prioritized compounds for curation with prediction scores $>0.8$ and Tanimoto similarities to any known antibiotic $<0.4$. We were able to curate 23 compounds that met these criteria for empirical testing (Figure 6C; Table S7A).

Next, we assayed these compounds for growth inhibition against *E. coli*, *S. aureus*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, *A. baumannii*, and *P. aeruginosa*. Indeed, even though our model was trained on growth inhibition against *E. coli*, because the majority of antibiotics display activity against numerous bacterial species, we reasoned that it could be possible that some of these predictions had bioactivity against diverse pathogens. Excitingly, we observed that 8 of the 23 molecules displayed detectable growth inhibitory activity against at least one of the tested species (Figures 6C, 6D, and S5D–S5K; Tables S7A and S7B).

Of note, we observed two compounds that displayed potent broad-spectrum activity, ZINC000100032716 and ZINC000225434673 (Figure 6D), and overcame an array of common resistance determinants (Figures 6E and 6F). Interestingly, ZINC000100032716 has structural features found in both quinolones and sulfa drugs, yet remains highly divergent from known antibiotics (enrofloxacin nearest neighbor with Tanimoto similarity $\sim0.39$) and was only weakly impacted by plasmid-borne fluoroquinolone resistance via aac(6$\gamma$)-lb-cr (Figure 6E) or chromosomal resistance via mutation of gyrA (Figures S5L and SSM). Moreover, both ZINC000100032716 and ZINC000225434673 displayed bactericidal activity against *E. coli* in rich medium (Figures 6G and 6H), with the latter resulting in complete sterilization after just 4 h of treatment. Given its novel structure (nitroside nearest neighbor with Tanimoto similarity $\sim0.16$) and low predicted toxicity in humans (Table S7A), we posit that ZINC000225434673 warrants further investigation.

Last, upon determining the antibacterial properties of these 23 predicted molecules, we ventured to understand their chemical relationships to the training data. We therefore analyzed the structural relationships between these compounds, ZINC15 molecules with prediction scores $>0.9$, our primary training set, the Drug Repurposing Hub, and the WuXi anti-tuberculosis library (Figure 6I). Intriguingly, our analysis revealed that the WuXi anti-tuberculosis library contained molecules that largely occupied a distinct chemical space relative to compounds with antibacterial activity, consistent with our results showing that even the highest predicted of these were unable to inhibit the growth of *E. coli*. Moreover, this analysis emphasized the fact that the predicted compounds resided in varied chemical spaces, suggesting that our model was largely unbiased in enriching for specific chemical moieties—at least below our Tanimoto nearest neighbor threshold of 0.4.

**DISCUSSION**

The prevalence of antibiotic resistance is rapidly increasing on a global scale. Concurrently, the steadily declining productivity in clinically implementing new antibiotics due to the high risk of early discovery and low return on investment is exacerbating this problem (Brown and Wright, 2016). Therefore, the development of new approaches that can substantially decrease the cost and increase the rate of antibiotic discovery is essential to reinfuse the pipeline with a steady stream of candidates that show promise as next-generation therapeutics. The adoption of machine learning approaches is ideally suited to address these hurdles. Indeed, modern neural molecular representations have the potential to: (1) decrease the cost of lead molecule identification because screening is limited to gathering appropriate training data, (2) increase the true positive rate of identifying structurally novel compounds with the desired bioactivity, and (3) decrease the time and labor required to find these ideal compounds from months or years to weeks.

In this study, we applied neural molecular representations to predict antibacterial compounds *in silico* from a collection of >107 million compounds. We first trained a deep neural network model with empirical data analyzing *E. coli* growth inhibition by molecules from a widely available FDA-approved drug library supplemented with a modest natural product library, totaling 2,335 molecules. Next, we applied the resulting model to predict antibacterial compounds from the Drug Repurposing Hub. Excitingly, among the most highly predicted molecules, our model performed well (51.5% accuracy) and ultimately resulted in identifying halicin as a broad-spectrum bactericidal antibiotic with exceptional *in vivo* efficacy. The low structural similarity of halicin to its nearest neighbor antibiotic, metronidazole (Tanimoto similarity $\sim0.21$), showed that our approach was capable of generalization, thus permitting access to new antibiotic chemistry.

We subsequently expanded our prediction space to include the WuXi anti-tuberculosis library, as well as a subset of the ZINC15 database comprising 107,349,233 molecules, in order to identify additional candidate antibacterial molecules. We did not observe growth inhibition from any molecules empirically tested from the WuXi library, in agreement with the correspondingly low model prediction scores (upper limit $\sim0.37$). However, from among the 23 molecules from the ZINC15 database that we curated for empirical testing, we observed that eight of these validated as true positives in at least one of the tested pathogens. Importantly, these compounds were curated based on high prediction scores and low Tanimoto similarities to known antibiotics, providing further support that our model was able to generalize to new chemistries. Remarkably, two of these eight molecules, ZINC000100032716 and ZINC000225434673, displayed broad-spectrum activity and maintained activity against *E. coli* harboring an array of resistance determinants.

It is important to emphasize that machine learning is imperfect. Therefore, the success of deep neural network model-guided antibiotic discovery rests heavily on the coupling of these approaches to appropriate experimental designs. The first consideration should be the assay design for training: what is the biological outcome that is desired after cells are exposed to compounds? In the proof-of-concept described herein, we selected growth inhibition as the biological outcome of interest.
property on which we would gather training data, since this generally results in a reasonable proportion of active compounds relative to the size of the screening library, and quite easily generates reproducible data. However, the number of bacterial phenotypes that could theoretically result in efficacious antibiotics is expansive (Farha and Brown, 2015; Kohaniski et al., 2010), and so long as it is possible to gather a sufficient quantity of reproducible hit compounds from a primary screen, deep neural network approaches would be well-suited to predict additional molecules with the desired biological property. Indeed, where our screen was largely mechanism of action agnostic, future applications could incorporate phenotypic screening conditions that enrich for molecules against specific biological targets (Stokes and Brown, 2015; Stokes et al., 2016, 2017; Yang et al., 2019a).

The second consideration is the composition of the training data itself: on what chemistry should the model be trained? It is important to use training data that have sufficient chemical diversity in both active and inactive compounds, as well as appropriate pharmacology/absorption, distribution, metabolism, and excretion [ADME]/toxicity properties for in vivo application. If all active molecules are structurally similar, the model will be unable to generalize to new scaffolds. Moreover, model accuracy deteriorates as the training set and prediction set diverge. As such, there exists a tension of sorts between prediction accuracy and chemical generalization, and it is advantageous to have the broadest structural variation possible in the training phase to maximize the probability of successful generalization in new chemical spaces. In our case, the desire to train on a supplemented FDA-approved drug library was to offer the capability of performing a small screen and simultaneously capturing substantial chemical diversity with desired pharmacology/ADME/toxicity properties. While mining pre-existing screening datasets could have been implemented, we reasoned that at this early stage in the application of machine learning for antibiotic discovery, a carefully controlled training set would allow for more tractable predictions that avoided potentially unfavorable molecules. Nevertheless, given the increasing volume of screening data that exists (Wang et al., 2017), carefully leveraging these resources could result in millions of molecular graph-biological property relationships, provided that the data are of adequate quality and methodological uniformity so that erroneous predictions could be minimized.

The third consideration is in prediction prioritization: what is the most appropriate approach to selecting tens of molecules for follow-up investigation from thousands of strongly predicted compounds? Because we aimed to identify new antibacterial candidates, our prioritization scheme involved the selection of molecules that were (1) given a high prediction score, (2) structurally unique relative to clinical antibiotics based on Tanimoto nearest neighbor analyses, and in some cases, (3) unlikely to display toxicity. Indeed, this approach allowed us to identify halcin, as well as numerous attractive compounds from the ZINC15 database. It should be noted here, however, that investigators can encounter limitations in acquiring predicted compounds in quantities sufficient to perform experiments. This can be due to the inability to synthesize predicted molecules, prohibitive costs of synthesizing those that can, and/or compound instability in aqueous solution. However, emerging models in retrosynthesis and physicochemical property prediction may overcome these limitations in the near future (Coley et al., 2018; Gao et al., 2018).

Where our deep neural network model was trained using a targeted dataset, future endeavors could aim to assemble chemical libraries designed for model training on a task-by-task basis, which may contain on the order of perhaps ~10^5 compounds of diverse structure. In the context of antibacterial discovery, these training libraries should contain molecules with physicochemical properties consistent with antibacterial drugs (Tommasi et al., 2015), yet sufficiently diverse such that the model can generalize to unconventional chemistry. Furthermore, with repeated training cycles across phylogenetically diverse species, it may be possible to predict molecules with antibacterial activity against a specified spectrum of pathogens. This has the promise to result in narrow-spectrum agents that can be administered systemically without damaging the host microbiota. Moreover, by training on multidrug-resistant pathogens, it may be possible to identify scaffolds that overcome pre-existing resistance determinants. Overall, our results suggest that the time is ripe for the application of modern machine learning approaches for antibiotic discovery—such efforts could increase the rate at which new molecular entities are discovered, decrease the resources required to identify these molecules, and decrease associated costs. Deep learning approaches could therefore enable us to expand our antibiotic arsenal and help outpace the dissemination of resistance.

**STAR METHODS**

Detailed methods are provided in the online version of this paper and include the following:

- **KEY RESOURCES TABLE**
- **LEAD CONTACT AND MATERIALS AVAILABILITY**
- **METHODS DETAILS**
  - Model training and predictions
  - Additional molecule-level features
  - Hyperparameter optimization
  - Ensembling
  - Chemical analyses
  - Chemical screening
  - Growth inhibition assays
  - Bacterial cell killing assays
  - Mutant generation
  - RNA sequencing
  - DISCO5 assays
- **EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND SUBJECT DETAILS**
  - A. baumannii mouse infection model
  - C. difficile mouse infection model
- **DATA AND CODE AVAILABILITY**
  - Code availability
  - RNA sequencing data
- **ADDITIONAL RESOURCES**
  - Online model availability
SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Supplemental Information can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2020.01.021.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Caleb Bashor from Rice University for valuable discussions, Gerry Wright from McMaster University for antibiotic-resistant strains of *E. coli*, and Michael Gilmore from Harvard Medical School for *S. aureus* RN4220 and *A. baumannii*. This work was supported by the Abdul Latif Jameel Clinic for Machine Learning in Health; the Defense Threat Reduction Agency (HDTRA1-15-1-0051 to J.J.C.); the Broad Institute of MIT and Harvard (to J.J.C.); the DARPA Make-It program under contract Army Research Office (W911NF-16-2-0023 to T.S.J. and R.B.); the Defense Threat Reduction Agency (HR00111920025 to T.S.J. and R.B.); the Canadian Institutes of Health Research (FRN 143215 to E.D.B.); the Canadian Foundation for Innovation (to E.D.B.); the Canada Research Chairs Program (Tier 1 to E.D.B.); the Banffing Fellowships Program (393360 to J.M.S.); the Canadian Institutes of Health Research (grant to C.R.M.); the Human Frontier Science Program (LT000975/2016-L to Z.B.-A.); the Broad Institute Tuberculosis Donor Group and the Pershing Square Foundation (to Z.B.-A. and V.M.T.); the Swiss National Science Foundation (P2ELP2_181884 to A.-P.C.); the Broad Institute of MIT and Harvard (to A.H.B.); NIH Early Investigator Award (DP5-OD-024590 to A.H.B.); the National Science Foundation Graduate Research Fellowship Program (1122374 to I.W.A.); and by a generous contribution from Anita and Josh Bekenstein.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS


DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

J.J.C. is scientific co-founder and SAB chair of EnBiotix, an antibiotic drug discovery company.

Received: August 27, 2019
Revised: December 4, 2019
Accepted: January 15, 2020
Published: February 20, 2020; corrected online: April 16, 2020

REFERENCES


**STAR METHODS**

**KEY RESOURCES TABLE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>REAGENT or RESOURCE</th>
<th>SOURCE</th>
<th>IDENTIFIER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Bacterial and Virus Strains</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Escherichia coli BW25113</td>
<td>CGSC</td>
<td>7636</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staphylococcus aureus USA 300</td>
<td>ATCC</td>
<td>TCH1516</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Klebsiella pneumoniae ATCC 700721</td>
<td>ATCC</td>
<td>700721</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acinetobacter baumannii ATCC 17978</td>
<td>ATCC</td>
<td>17978</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pseudomonas aeruginosa PA01</td>
<td>ATCC</td>
<td>47085</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clostridioides difficile 630</td>
<td>ATCC</td>
<td>BAA-1382</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mycobacterium tuberculosis H37Rv</td>
<td>ATCC</td>
<td>25618</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Antibiotic-resistant isolates from CDC</td>
<td>CDC AR Isolate Bank</td>
<td>See Table S3 for unique identifiers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Chemicals, Peptides, and Recombinant Proteins</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SU3327 (halicin)</td>
<td>TCI chemicals</td>
<td>A2940</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZINC000013517522</td>
<td>Vitas-M</td>
<td>STL439768</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZINC000006719085</td>
<td>Vitas-M</td>
<td>STK708267</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZINC000101675810</td>
<td>Vitas-M</td>
<td>STK940888</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZINC000101676256</td>
<td>Vitas-M</td>
<td>STK929481</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZINC00018090096</td>
<td>Specs</td>
<td>AP-216/15652011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZINC000169457956</td>
<td>Specs</td>
<td>AP-216/15652003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZINC000004481415</td>
<td>IBScreen</td>
<td>STOCK1S-22001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZINC00019771150</td>
<td>ChemBridge</td>
<td>5773027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZINC000001387673</td>
<td>ChemBridge</td>
<td>5253687</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZINC000005510605</td>
<td>TimTec</td>
<td>STS0999405</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZINC000022865640</td>
<td>TimTec</td>
<td>STS0990898</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZINC00015134557</td>
<td>TimTec</td>
<td>ST4019615</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZINC000098210492</td>
<td>KeyOrganics</td>
<td>AS-8081</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZINC000100506795</td>
<td>TimTec</td>
<td>STS022762</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZINC000238901709</td>
<td>TimTec</td>
<td>ST100643</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZINC000004623615</td>
<td>TimTec</td>
<td>ST4104620</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZINC000100323716</td>
<td>TimTec</td>
<td>ST45053787</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZINC000584578353</td>
<td>PI Chemicals</td>
<td>PI-31452</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZINC000006661600</td>
<td>Ambeed</td>
<td>A107950</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZINC000225434673</td>
<td>Ambinter</td>
<td>Amb22349288</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZINC000006599408</td>
<td>Ambinter</td>
<td>Amb17836664</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZINC000038568996</td>
<td>Ambinter</td>
<td>Amb19958926</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZINC000001735150</td>
<td>NCI Plated 2007</td>
<td>200689</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Deposited Data</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>RNA sequencing datasets</strong></td>
<td>This study</td>
<td>BioProject ID: PRJNA598708</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Experimental Models: Organisms/Strains</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mouse: BALB/c</td>
<td>Charles River</td>
<td>028</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mouse: C57BL/6</td>
<td>Charles River</td>
<td>C57BL/6NCrl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Oligonucleotides</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TAGCCGGCGATGCCCAGGCAAGAGAGAA</td>
<td>This study</td>
<td>AB5044</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TTACATTCGGTTAAGTGTATTTCCGGG</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GATTCGGTCGACC</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACCTTTGTAACTGCTGGCACCCAAAT</td>
<td>This study</td>
<td>AB5045</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TACCTTCACTGGGAGCTTTATGT</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GTAGGCTGGAGCTGCTTCG</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Continued on next page)
LEAD CONTACT AND MATERIALS AVAILABILITY

Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to James J. Collins (jimjc@mit.edu). All unique/stable reagents generated in this study are available from the Lead Contact with a completed Materials Transfer Agreement.

METHODS DETAILS

Model training and predictions
A directed-message passing neural network (Chemprop), like other message passing neural networks, learns to predict molecular properties directly from the graph structure of the molecule, where atoms are represented as nodes and bonds are represented as edges. For every molecule, we reconstructed the molecular graph corresponding to each compound’s SMILES string and determined the set of atoms and bonds using the open-source package RDKit (Landrum, 2006). Next, we initialized a feature vector, as described in Yang et al. (2019b), for each atom and bond based on computable features:

1. **Atom features**: atomic number, number of bonds for each atom, formal charge, chirality, number of bonded hydrogens, hybridization, aromaticity, atomic mass.

2. **Bond features**: bond type (single/double/triple/aromatic), conjugation, ring membership, stereochemistry.

The model applies a series of message passing steps where it aggregates information from neighboring atoms and bonds to build an understanding of local chemistry. In Chemprop, on each step of message passing, each bond’s featurization is updated by summing the featurization of neighboring bonds, concatenating the current bond’s featurization with the sum, and then applying a single neural network layer with non-linear activation. After a fixed number of message-passing steps, the learned featurizations across the molecule are summed to produce a single featurization for the whole molecule. Finally, this featurization is fed through a feed-forward neural network that outputs a prediction of the property of interest. Since the property of interest in our application was the binary classification of whether a molecule inhibits the growth of *E. coli*, the model is trained to output a number between 0 and 1, which represents its prediction about whether the input molecule is growth inhibitory.

In addition to the basic D-MPNN architecture described above, we employed three model optimizations (Yang et al., 2019b):

**Additional molecule-level features**
While the message passing paradigm is excellent for extracting features that depend on local chemistry, it can struggle to extract global molecular features. This is especially true for large molecules, where the longest path through the molecule may be longer than the number of message-passing iterations performed, meaning information from one side of the molecule does not inform the features on the other side of the molecule. For this reason, we chose to concatenate the molecular representation that is learned via message passing with 200 additional molecule-level features computed with RDKit.

**Hyperparameter optimization**
The performance of machine learning models is known to depend critically on the choice of hyperparameters, such as the size of the neural network layers, which control how and what the model is able to learn. We used the Bayesian hyperparameter optimization scheme, with 20 iterations of optimization to improve the hyperparameters of our model (see table below). Bayesian hyperparameter
optimization learns to select optimal hyperparameters based on performance using prior hyperparameter settings, allowing for rapid identification of the best set of hyperparameters for any model.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hyperparameter</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of message-passing steps</td>
<td>[2, 6]</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neural network hidden size</td>
<td>[300, 2400]</td>
<td>1600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of feed-forward layers</td>
<td>[1, 3]</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dropout probability</td>
<td>[0, 0.4]</td>
<td>0.35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Ensembling**

Another standard machine learning technique used to improve performance is ensembling, where several copies of the same model architecture with different random initial weights are trained and their predictions are averaged. We used an ensemble of 20 models, with each model trained on a different random split of the data (Dietterich, 2000).


Our experimental procedure consisted of four phases: (1a) a training phase to evaluate the optimized but non-ensembled model and (1b) training the ensemble of optimized models; (2) a prediction phase; (3) a retraining phase; and (4) a final prediction phase. We began by evaluating our model on the training set of 2,335 molecules using all optimizations except for ensembling, in order to determine the best performance of a single model. Here, we randomly split the dataset into 80% training data, 10% validation data, and 10% test data. We trained our model on the training data for 30 epochs, where an epoch is defined as a single pass through all of the training data, and we evaluated it on the validation data at the end of each epoch. After training was complete, we used the model parameters that performed best on the validation data and tested the model with those parameters on the test data. We repeated this procedure with 20 different random splits of the data and averaged the results. After we were satisfied with model performance, we conducted predictions on new datasets. Since we wanted to maximize the amount of training data and were no longer interested in measuring performance on the test set, we trained new models on the training data from each of 20 random splits, each with 90% training data, 10% validation data, and no test data.

The ensemble consisting of 20 models is the model that was applied first to the Drug Repurposing Hub, and then the WuXi anti-tuberculosis library. After empirically testing the highest and lowest predicted molecules from these libraries for growth inhibition against *E. coli*, we included all these data into our original training sets to create a new training set. The updated training set contained 2,911 unique molecules, with 232 (7.97%) showing growth inhibitory activity. We next used our retrained model to make predictions on the aforementioned subset of the ZINC15 database. We selected all molecules with a prediction score > 0.7, which resulted in 6,820 compounds. All molecules selected for curation were subsequently cross-referenced with SciFinder to ensure that these were not clinical antibiotics.

We lastly compared the prediction outputs of our augmented D-MPNN with a D-MPNN without RDKit features; a feedforward DNN model with the same depth as our D-MPNN model with hyperparameter optimization using RDKit features only; the same DNN instead using Morgan fingerprints (radius 2) as the molecular representation; and RF and SVM models using the same Morgan fingerprint representations. We used the scikit-learn implementation of a random forest classifier with all of the default parameters except for the number of trees, where we used 500 instead of 10. When making predictions, we output the growth inhibition probability for each molecule according to the random forest, which is the proportion of trees in the model that predict a 1 for that molecule. Similarly, we used the scikit-learn implementation of a support vector machine with all of the default parameters. When making predictions, we output the signed distance between the Morgan fingerprint of the molecule and the separating hyperplane that is learned by the SVM. This number represents how much the model predicts a molecule is antibacterial, with large positive distances meaning most likely antibacterial and large negative distances meaning most likely not. Although the signed distance is not a probability, it can still be used to rank the molecules according to how likely they are to be antibacterial.

To predict the toxicity of molecules for possible in vivo applications, we trained a Chemprop model on the ClinTox dataset. This dataset consisted of 1,478 molecules, each with two binary properties: (a) clinical trial toxicity and (b) FDA-approval status. Of these 1,478 molecules, 94 (6.36%) had clinical toxicity and 1,366 (92.42%) were FDA approved. Using the same methodology as described in phase (1) of our experimental procedure, the Chemprop model was trained on both properties simultaneously and learned a single molecular representation that was used by the feed-forward neural network layers to predict toxicity. We utilized the same RDKit features as in our other models, except for that the ClinTox model was an ensemble of five models and used the following optimal hyperparameters: message-passing steps = 6; neural network hidden size = 2200; number of feed-forward layers = 3; and dropout probability = 0.15. This ensemble of models was subsequently used to make toxicity predictions on our candidate molecules.
Chemical analyses

We utilized Tanimoto similarity to quantify the chemical relationship between molecules predicted in our study. The Tanimoto similarity of two molecules is a measure of the proportion of shared chemical substructures in the molecules. To compute Tanimoto similarity, we first determined Morgan fingerprints (computed using RDKit) for each molecule using a radius of 2 and 2048-bit fingerprint vectors. Tanimoto similarity was then computed as the number of chemical substructures contained in both molecules divided by the total number of unique chemical substructures in either molecule. The Tanimoto similarity is thus a number between 0 and 1, with 0 indicating least similar (no substructures are shared) and 1 indicating most similar (all substructures are shared). Morgan fingerprints with radius \( R \) and \( B \) bits are generated by looking at each atom and determining all of the substructures centered at that atom that include atoms up to \( R \) bonds away from the central atom. The presence or absence of these substructures is encoded as 1 and 0 in a vector of length \( B \), which represents the fingerprint. For t-SNE analyses, plots were created using scikit-learn’s implementation of t-Distributed Stochastic Neighbor Embedding. Here, we first used RDKit to compute Morgan fingerprints for each molecule using a radius of 2 and 2048-bit fingerprint vectors. We then used t-SNE with the Jaccard distance metric to reduce the data points from 2048 dimensions to the two dimensions that are plotted. Note that Jaccard distance is another name for Tanimoto distance, and Tanimoto distance is defined as: Tanimoto distance = 1 - Tanimoto similarity. We used scikit-learn’s default values for all t-SNE parameters besides the distance metric.

Chemical screening

E. coli BW25113 was grown overnight in 3 mL Luria-Bertani (LB) medium and diluted 1/10,000 into fresh LB. 99 \( \mu \)l of cells was added to each well of a 96-well flat-bottom plate (Corning) using a multichannel pipette. Next, 1 \( \mu \)l of a 5 mM stock of each molecule from an FDA-approved drug library supplemented with a natural product library (2,560 molecules total; MicroSource Discovery Systems) was added, in duplicate, using an Agilent Bravo liquid handler. The final screening concentration was 50 \( \mu \)M. Plates were then incubated in sealed plastic bags at 37°C without shaking for 16 hr, and subsequently read at 600 nm using a SpectraMax M3 plate reader (Molecular Devices) to quantify cell growth. Plate data were normalized based on the interquartile mean of each plate.

Growth inhibition assays

Cells were grown overnight in 3 mL LB medium and diluted 1/10,000 into fresh LB. In 96-well flat-bottom plates (Corning), cells were then introduced to compound at a final concentration of 50 \( \mu \)M, or to compound at two-fold serial dilutions, in final volumes of 100 \( \mu \)l. Plates were then incubated at 37°C without shaking until untreated control cultures reached stationary phase, at which time plates were read at 600 nm using a SpectraMax M3 plate reader. We note here that the incubation time required to reach stationary phase differed between species but was generally between 12 hr and 18 hr. For ZINC15 compound validation, the strains were differed between species but was generally between 12 hr and 18 hr. For ZINC15 compound validation, the strains were

M. tuberculosis H37Rv was grown at 37°C in Middlebrook 7H9 broth supplemented with 10% OADC (oleic acid-albumin-dextrose complex, vol/vol), 0.2% glycerol, and 0.05% Tween-80, or on Middlebrook 7H10 plates supplemented with 10% OADC and 0.5% glycerol. Cells were grown to mid-log phase, then added to 96-well plates at \( \text{OD}_{600} = 0.0025 \), in a total of 50 \( \mu \)l of 7H9 medium. In addition, each well contained 45 \( \mu \)l of 7H9 medium and varying compound concentrations diluted in a total of 5 \( \mu \)l of medium. Plates were incubated at 37°C in a humidified container for 14 days. \( \text{OD}_{600} \) was measured using a SpectraMax M5 plate reader.

Bacterial cell killing assays

Cells were grown overnight in 3 mL LB medium and diluted 1/10,000 into fresh LB. In 96-well flat-bottom plates (Corning), cells were grown to the required density, at which time antibiotic was added at the indicated concentration and cultures were incubated for the required duration. Cells were then pelleted in plates by centrifugation at 4000 x g for 15 min at 4°C and washed in ice cold PBS. After washing, cells were 10-fold serially diluted in PBS and plated on LB to quantify cell viability. In experiments where cells were incubated with antibiotic in nutrient-deplete conditions, cells were grown to the required density in LB media, washed in PBS, and subsequently resuspended in PBS prior to the addition of antibiotic. After cultures were incubated for the required duration, cells were pelleted in plates by centrifugation at 4000 x g for 15 min at 4°C and washed in ice cold PBS. After washing, cells were 10-fold serially diluted in PBS and plated on LB to quantitify cell viability. M. tuberculosis H37Rv was grown to mid-log phase, then 30,000 cells were added to a 24 well plate in 1 mL of 7H9 medium. A sample from each well was taken as time = 0, prior to halicin addition, then halicin was added to each well at the 16 \( \mu \)g/ml (1x MIC). At the indicated time points, samples were taken from each well and plated on 7H10. Control wells contained the relevant DMSO concentration without halicin. Plates were incubated at 37°C and counted twice after 4 and 6 weeks.

Mutant generation

For serial passage evolution, E. coli BW25113 was grown overnight in 3 mL LB medium and diluted 1/10,000 into fresh LB. Cells were grown in 96-well flat-bottom plates (Corning), in the presence of varying concentrations of halicin (or ciprofloxacin) at two-fold serial dilutions, in final volumes of 100 \( \mu \)l. Plates were incubated at 37°C without shaking for 24 hr, at which time they were read at 600 nm using a SpectraMax M3 plate reader. After 24 hr, cells that grew in the presence of the highest concentration of halicin...
(or ciprofloxacin) were diluted into fresh LB at the equivalent of 1/10,000 of a dense culture, and once again introduced to varying concentrations of halicin (or ciprofloxacin) at two-fold serial dilutions. This procedure was performed every 24 hr over the course of 30 days. For spontaneous suppressor generation, \( \sim 10^8 \) CFU of *E. coli* BW25113 grown in LB media was spread onto LB agar in 10 cm Petri dishes, either without antibiotics or supplemented with ciprofloxacin (Millipore Sigma) or halicin (TCI Chemicals) at the indicated concentrations. Plates were subsequently incubated at 37 °C for seven days, at which time colonies from each plate were re-streaked onto LB and LB supplemented with antibiotics at the same concentration on which the colonies were originally grown. These plates were grown at 37 °C overnight to monitor re-growth. For strain engineering, *E. coli* BW25113 Δ*nfsA::kan Δ*nfsB::cat* was derived from BW25113 Δ*nfsA::kan* via introduction of a cat gene to disrupt the *nfsB* ORF using the Lambda Red method (Datsenko and Wanner, 2000). Briefly, 2 mL 2x YT media with BW25113 Δ*nfsA::kan* carrying the temperature-sensitive plasmid pKD46 at 30 °C was induced with 20 mM arabinose. Upon reaching mid-log phase (OD600~0.5), cells were pelleted at 6000 x g for 2 min, then washed three times with 1 mL 15% glycerol. The final pellet was resuspended in 200 μl of 15% glycerol, and 50 μl was mixed with 300 ng of disruption fragment (generated using primers AB5044 and AB5045 on pKD32 to amplify the FRT-flanked cat cassette). Cells were electroporated at 1800 kV, then allowed to recover overnight in 5 mL 2x YT at 30 °C. Cells were then pelleted at 6000 x g for 2 min, resuspended in 200 μl deionized water and plated on 2x YT agar plates with 15 μg/ml kanamycin (Millipore Sigma) and 20 μg/ml chloramphenicol (Millipore Sigma). Plates were incubated at 37 °C for 24-48 hr. Single colonies were PCR checked (primers AB5046, AB5047) for loss of the *nfsB* gene (1069 bp) and appearance of the cat gene insertion (1472 bp). Finally, positive colonies were assayed for loss of pKD46 at 37 °C by replica plating on 15 μg/ml kanamycin and 20 μg/ml chloramphenicol with or without 50 μg/ml carbenicillin (Millipore Sigma).

**RNA sequencing**

Cells were grown in 3 mL LB medium and diluted 1/10,000 into 50 mL fresh LB. When cultures reached \( \sim 10^7 \) CFU/ml, halicin was added at 0.25x MIC (0.5 μg/ml), 1x MIC (2 μg/ml), or 4x MIC (8 μg/ml) and cells were incubated for the noted durations. After incubation, cells were harvested via centrifugation at 15,000 x g for 3 min at 4 °C, and RNA was purified using the Zymo Direct-zol 96-well RNA purification kit (R2056). Briefly, \( \sim 10^7-10^8 \) CFU pellets were lysed in 500 μl hot Trizol reagent (Life Technologies). 200 μl chloroform (Millipore Sigma) was added, and samples were centrifuged at 15,000 x g for 3 min at 4 °C. 200 μl of the aqueous phase was added to 200 μl anhydrous ethanol (Millipore Sigma), and RNA was purified using a Zymo-spin plate as per the manufacturer’s instructions. After purification, Illumina cDNA libraries were generated using a modified version of the RNAtag-seq protocol (Shishkin et al., 2015). Briefly, 500 ng – 1 μg of total RNA was fragmented, depleted of genomic DNA, dephosphorylated, and ligated to DNA adapters carrying 5’-AN9-3’ barcodes of known sequence with a 5’ phosphate and a 3’ blocking group. Barcoded RNAs were pooled and depleted of rRNA using the RiboZero rRNA depletion kit (Epicenter). Pools of barcoded RNAs were converted to Illumina cDNA libraries in two main steps: (1) reverse transcription of the RNA using a primer designed to the constant region of the barcoded adaptor with addition of an adaptor to the 3’ end of the cDNA by template switching using SMARTScribe (Clontech), as previously described (Zhu et al., 2001); and (2) PCR amplification using primers whose 5’ ends target the constant regions of the 3’ or 5’ adaptors and whose 3’ ends contain the full Illumina P5 or P7 sequences. cDNA libraries were sequenced on the Illumina NextSeq 500 platform to generate paired end reads. Following sequencing, reads from each sample in a pool were demultiplexed based on their associated barcode sequence. Up to one mismatch in the barcode was allowed, provided it did not make assignment of the read to a different barcode possible. Barcode sequences were removed from the first read, as terminal G’s from the second read that may have been added by SMARTScribe during template switching. Next, reads were aligned to the *E. coli* MG1655 genome (NC_000913.3) using BWA (Li and Durbin, 2009) and read counts were assigned to genes and other genomic features. Differential expression analysis was conducted with DESeq2 (Love et al., 2014) and/or edgeR (Robinson et al., 2010). To verify coverage, visualization of raw sequencing data and coverage plots in the context of genome sequences and gene annotations was conducted using GenomeView (Abeel et al., 2012). To determine biological response of cells as a function of halicin exposure, we performed hierarchical clustering of the gene expression profiles using the clustergram function in MATLAB 2016a. We selected the Euclidean distance as the metric to define the pairwise distance between observations, which measures a straight-line distance between two points. The use of Euclidian distance has been considered as the most appropriate to cluster log-ratio data (D’haeseleer, 2005). With a metric defined, we next selected the average linkage as the clustering method. The average linkage uses the algorithm called unweighted pair group method with arithmetic mean (UPGMA), which is the most popular and preferred algorithm for hierarchical data clustering (Jaskowiak et al., 2014; Loewenstein et al., 2008). UPGMA uses the mean similarity across all cluster data points to combine the nearest two clusters into a higher-level cluster. UPGMA assumes there is a constant rate of change among species
(genes) analyzed. We tested all alternative clustering metrics available (i.e., Spearman, Hamming, cosine, etc.) in the \texttt{pdist} function within the \texttt{clustergram} function in MATLAB and concluded that the Euclidean metric together with the average linkage allow the clearest and probably most meaningful definition of clusters for our dataset. Transcript cluster enrichment was performed using EcoCyc Pathway Tools (Karp, 2001; Karp et al., 2016; Keseler et al., 2013). \(P\) values were calculated using Fisher’s exact test.

\textbf{DiSC\textsubscript{3}(5) assays}

\textit{S. aureus} USA300 and \textit{E. coli} MC1061 were streaked onto LB agar and grown overnight at 37°C. Single colonies were picked and used to inoculate 50 mL LB in 250 mL baffled flasks, which were incubated for 3.5 hr in a 37°C incubator shaking at 250 rpm. Cultures were pelleted at 4000 \(\times\) g for 15 min and washed three times in buffer. For \textit{E. coli}, the buffer was 5 mM HEPES with 20 mM glucose (pH 7.2). For \textit{S. aureus}, the buffer was 50 mM HEPES with 300 mM KCl and 0.1% glucose (pH 7.2). Both cell densities were normalized to \(O_D_{600}=0.1\). loaded with 1 \(\mu\)M DiSC\textsubscript{3}(5) dye (3,3’-dipropylthiadicarbocyanine iodide), and left to rest for 10 min in the dark for probe fluorescence to stabilize. Fluorescence was measured in a cuvette-based fluorometer with stirring (Photon Technology International) at 620 nm excitation and 670 nm emission wavelengths. A time-course acquisition was performed, with compounds injected after 60 s of equilibration to measure increases or decreases in fluorescence. For \textit{E. coli}, polymyxin B was used as a control to monitor \(\Delta\psi\) dissipation. For \textit{S. aureus}, valinomycin was used as a \(\Delta\psi\) control and nigericin was used as a \(\Delta\phi\) control. Upon addition of antibiotic, fluorescence was read continuously for 3 min and at an endpoint of 4 hr.

\textbf{EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND SUBJECT DETAILS}

\textbf{A. baumannii mouse infection model}

Experiments were conducted according to guidelines set by the Canadian Council on Animal Care, using protocols approved by the Animal Review Ethics Board at McMaster University under Animal Use Protocol #17-03-10. Before infection, mice were relocated at random from a housing cage to treatment or control cages. No animals were excluded from analyses, and blinding was considered unnecessary. Six- to eight-week-old BALB/c mice were pretreated with 150 mg/kg (day 0) and 100 mg/kg (day 1) of cyclophosphamide to render mice neutropenic. Mice were then anesthetized using isofluorane and administered the analogic buprenorphine (0.1 mg/kg) intraperitoneally. A 2 cm\(^2\) abrasion on the dorsal surface of the mouse was inflicted through tape-stripping to the basal layer of epidermis using approximately 25-30 pieces of autoclave tape. Mice were infected with \(\sim 2.5 \times 10^5\) CFU \textit{A. baumannii} CDC 288 directly pipetted on the wounded skin. The infection was established for 1 hr prior to treatment with Glaxal Base supplemented with vehicle (0.5% DMSO) or halicin (0.5% w/v). Groups of mice were treated 1 hr, 4 hr, 8 hr, 12 hr, 20 hr, and 24 hr post-infection. Mice were euthanized at the experimental endpoint of 25 hr and the wounded tissue collected, homogenized, and plated onto LB to quantify bacterial load.

\textbf{C. difficile mouse infection model}

Experiments were conducted according to protocol IS00000852-3, approved by Harvard Medical School Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee and the Committee on Microbiological Safety. \textit{C. difficile} 630 spores were prepared from a single batch and stored long term at 4°C, as previously reported (Edwards and McBride, 2016). To disrupt colonization resistance and enable infection with \textit{C. difficile}, four colonies (\(n = 20\)) of six- to eight-week-old C57BL/6 mice were administered 200 mg/kg ampicillin every 24 hr for 72 hr via intraperitoneal injection. Antibiotic-treated mice were given 24 hr to recover prior to infection with \textit{C. difficile}. A total of \(5 \times 10^8\) spores of \textit{C. difficile} strain 630 was delivered via oral gavage and mice were randomly assigned to three treatment groups: 50 mg/kg metronidazole (\(n = 7\)), 15 mg/kg halcin (\(n = 7\)) and 10% PEG 300 vehicle (\(n = 6\)). We note here that three mice from the halcin treatment group failed to display \textit{C. difficile} colonization. Beginning at 24 hr after \textit{C. difficile} challenge, mice were gavaged with antibiotics or vehicle control every 24 hr for five days. To monitor \textit{C. difficile} colonization, fecal samples were collected, weighed and diluted under anaerobic conditions with anaerobic PBS. CFUs were quantified using TCCFA plates supplemented with 50 \(\mu\)g/ml erythromycin at 37°C under anaerobic conditions, as previously described (Winston et al., 2016).

\textbf{DATA AND CODE AVAILABILITY}

\textbf{Code availability}

Chemprop code is available at: https://github.com/swansonk14/chemprop.

\textbf{RNA sequencing data}

RNA sequencing data is available at the NCBI Sequence Read Archive under accession PRJNA598708.

\textbf{ADDITIONAL RESOURCES}

\textbf{Online model availability}

A web-based version of the antibiotic prediction model described herein is available at: http://chemprop.csail.mit.edu/.
Figure S1. Primary Screening and Initial Model Training, Related to Figure 2.
(A) Primary screening data for growth inhibition of *E. coli* by 2,560 molecules within the FDA-approved drug library supplemented with a natural product collection. Red are growth inhibitory molecules; blue are non-growth inhibitory molecules. (B) Rank-ordered de-duplicated screening data containing 2,335 molecules. Shown is the mean of two biological replicates. Red are growth inhibitory molecules; blue are non-growth inhibitory molecules.
Figure S2. Activity of Halicin, Related to Figure 3

(A) Killing of *E. coli* in LB media in the presence of varying concentrations of halicin after 1 hr (blue), 2 hr (cyan), 3 hr (green), and 4 hr (red). The initial cell density is \( \sim 10^8 \) CFU/ml. Shown is the mean of two biological replicates. Bars denote absolute error. (B) Same as (A), with initial cell density \( \sim 10^7 \) CFU/ml. (C) Killing of *E. coli* in PBS in the presence of varying concentrations of halicin after 2 hr (blue), 4 hr (cyan), 6 hr (green), and 8 hr (red). The initial cell density is \( \sim 10^8 \) CFU/ml. Shown is the mean of two biological replicates. Bars denote absolute error. (D) Same as (C), with initial cell density \( \sim 10^7 \) CFU/ml. (E) Killing of *E. coli* in PBS in the presence of varying concentrations of ampicillin after 2 hr (blue), 4 hr (cyan), 6 hr (green), and 8 hr (red). The initial cell density is \( \sim 10^8 \) CFU/ml. Shown is the mean of two biological replicates. Bars denote absolute error. (F) Same as (E), with initial cell density \( \sim 10^7 \) CFU/ml. (G) Same as (E), with initial cell density \( \sim 10^6 \) CFU/ml. (H) Killing of *E. coli* in LB media in the presence of varying concentrations of ampicillin after 1 hr (blue), 2 hr (cyan), 3 hr (green), and 4 hr (red). The initial cell density is \( \sim 10^8 \) CFU/ml. Shown is the mean of two biological replicates. Bars denote absolute error. (I) Same as (H), except with initial cell density \( \sim 10^7 \) CFU/ml. (J) Same as (I)
[H], except with initial cell density $\sim 10^6$ CFU/ml. (K) MIC of various antibiotics against E. coli strains harboring a range of plasmid-borne, functionally diverse, antibiotic-resistance determinants. The mcr-1 gene was expressed in E. coli BW25113. All other resistance genes were expressed in E. coli BW25113 ΔbamBΔtolC. WT is wild-type E. coli. R is E. coli harboring a resistance plasmid. Chlor is chloramphenicol. Amp is ampicillin. Gent is gentamicin. Levo is levofloxacin. Experiments were conducted with two biological replicates. (L) Growth inhibition of wild-type E. coli (blue) and ΔnfsAΔnfsB E. coli (green) by halcin. Shown is the mean of two biological replicates. Bars denote absolute error. (M) Growth inhibition of wild-type E. coli (blue) and ΔnfsAΔnfsB E. coli (green) by nitrofurantoin. Shown is the mean of two biological replicates. Bars denote absolute error.
A

B

C

D

E

F

G

H

(legend on next page)
Figure S3. Mechanistic Investigations into Halicin, Related to Figure 4

(A) Evolution of spontaneous resistance against halicin (top) or ciprofloxacin (bottom). *E. coli* BW25113 (~10^9 CFU) was plated onto non-selective or selective media and incubated for 7 days prior to imaging, and re-streaking of colonies onto fresh non-selective or selective media. 40 μg/ml halicin and 20 ng/ml ciprofloxacin, respectively, were used for suppressor mutant evolution. Note that the colonies that emerged at the edge of halicin-supplemented plates after 7 days grew well on LB non-selective media but did not re-streak onto halicin-supplemented media. All seven selected ciprofloxacin-resistant colonies grew on both non-selective and ciprofloxacin-supplemented media. (B) Whole transcriptome hierarchical clustering of *E. coli* treated with halicin at 0.25x MIC for 1 hr, 2 hr, 3 hr, and 4 hr. Shown is the mean transcript abundance of two biological replicates of halicin-treated cells relative to untreated control cells on a log2-fold scale. In the growth curve, blue represents untreated cells; red represents halicin-treated cells. (C) Same as (B), except cells were treated with 1x MIC halicin. (D) Growth inhibition by halicin against *S. aureus* USA300 in pH-adjusted media. Shown is the mean of two biological replicates. Bars denote absolute error. (E) Growth inhibition by halicin against *E. coli* in LB (blue) or LB supplemented with 25 mM sodium bicarbonate (red), which dissipates the ΔpH component of the proton motive force. Shown is the mean of two biological replicates. Bars denote absolute error. (F) DiSC3(5) fluorescence in *S. aureus* upon exposure to valinomycin (64 μg/ml; dissipates Δψ), nigericin (16 μg/ml; dissipates ΔpH), halicin (4 μg/ml), or DMSO. Halicin induced fluorescence changes more similar to nigericin relative to valinomycin, suggesting that halicin dissipates the ΔpH component of the proton motive force. The right panel is a magnified image of the drug-induced decrease in fluorescence shown in the left. (G) DiSC3(5) fluorescence in *S. aureus* upon exposure to valinomycin, nigericin, halicin, or DMSO after 4 hr of exposure. (H) Growth inhibition by daptomycin (left) and halicin (right) against *S. aureus* RN4220 (blue) or a daptomycin-resistant RN4220 strain (ΔdspF; red) in LB media. Shown is the mean of two biological replicates. Bars denote absolute error.
Figure S4. Activity of Halicin against *A. baumannii* CDC 288, Related to Figure 5

(A) Killing of *A. baumannii* in PBS in the presence of varying concentrations of halicin after 2 hr (blue), 4 hr (cyan), 6 hr (green), and 8 hr (red). The initial cell density is ~10^7 CFU/ml. Shown is the mean of two biological replicates. Bars denote absolute error. (B) Same as (A), with initial cell density ~10^6 CFU/ml.
Figure S5. Model Predictions from the WuXi Anti-tuberculosis Library and the ZINC15 Database, Related to Figure 6

(A) Rank-ordered prediction scores of WuXi anti-tuberculosis library molecules. Note the overall low prediction scores. (B) The top 200 predictions from the data shown in (A) were curated for empirical testing for growth inhibition of E. coli. None were growth inhibitory, in agreement with their low prediction scores. Shown is the mean of two biological replicates. (C) The bottom 100 predictions from the data shown in (A) were curated for empirical testing for growth inhibition of E. coli. None were growth inhibitory, in agreement with their low prediction scores. Shown is the mean of two biological replicates. (D-K) Growth inhibition by eight empirically validated ZINC15 predictions against E. coli (blue), S. aureus (green), K. pneumoniae (purple), A. baumannii (pink), and P. aeruginosa (red) in LB media. Shown is the mean of two biological replicates. Bars denote absolute error. (L) Growth inhibition by ZINC000100032716 against E. coli BW25113 (blue) or a ciprofloxacin-resistant gyrA S83A mutant of BW25113 (red). Shown is the mean of two biological replicates. Bars denote absolute error. (M) Same as (L) except using ciprofloxacin. Note the 4-fold smaller change in MIC with ZINC000100032716 between the gyrA mutant and wild-type E. coli relative to ciprofloxacin.