Vaccine 39 (2021) 6920-6929



Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Vaccine



journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/vaccine

Intranasal vaccination with protein bodies elicit strong protection against *Streptococcus pneumoniae* colonization



L.F. van Beek ^{a,b,*}, J.D. Langereis ^{a,b}, H.B. van den Berg van Saparoea ^c, J. Gillard ^{a,b}, W.S.P. Jong ^c, F.J. van Opzeeland ^{a,b}, R. Mesman ^d, L. van Niftrik ^d, I. Joosten ^a, D.A. Diavatopoulos ^{a,b}, J. Luirink ^{c,e,1}, M.I. de Jonge ^{a,b,1}

^a Laboratory of Medical Immunology, Radboud Institute for Molecular Life Sciences, Radboudumc, Nijmegen 6525 GA, the Netherlands

^b Radboud Center for Infectious Diseases, Radboudumc, Nijmegen 6525 GA, the Netherlands

^c Abera Bioscience AB, Solna 17141, Sweden

^d Department of Microbiology, Institute for Water and Wetland Research (IWWR), Faculty of Science, Radboud University, Nijmegen 6525 AJ, the Netherlands

^e Department of Molecular Microbiology, Faculty of Science, Amsterdam Institute of Molecular and Life Sciences, Vrije Universiteit Amsterdam, Amsterdam 1081 HZ, the Netherlands

ARTICLE INFO

Article history: Received 5 July 2021 Received in revised form 22 September 2021 Accepted 6 October 2021 Available online 23 October 2021

Keywords: Streptococcus pneumoniae Protein bodies Intranasal vaccine Colonization

ABSTRACT

Protein bodies (PBs) are particles consisting of insoluble, aggregated proteins with potential as a vaccine formulation. PBs can contain high concentrations of antigen, are stable and relatively resistant to proteases, release antigen slowly and are cost-effective to manufacture. Yet, the capacity of PBs to provoke immune responses and protection in the upper respiratory tract, a major entry route of respiratory pathogens, is largely unknown.

In this study, we vaccinated mice intranasally with PBs comprising antigens from *Streptococcus pneu-moniae* and evaluated the level of protection against nasopharyngeal colonization. PBs composed of the α -helical domain of pneumococcal surface protein A (PspA α) provided superior protection against colonization with *S. pneumoniae* compared to soluble PspA α . Immunization with soluble protein or PBs induced differences in antibody binding to pneumococci as well as a highly distinct antigen-specific nasal cytokine profile upon *in vivo* stimulation with inactivated *S. pneumoniae*. Moreover, immunization with PBs composed of conserved putative pneumococcal antigens reduced colonization by *S. pneumoniae* in mice, both as a single- and as a multi-antigen formulation.

In conclusion, PBs represent a vaccine formulation that elicits strong mucosal immune responses and protection. The versatility of this platform offers opportunities for development of next-generation vaccine formulations.

© 2021 The Authors. Published by Elsevier Ltd. This is an open access article under the CC BY license (http:// creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/).

1. Introduction

Particle-based vaccine formulations offer several advantages over traditional subunit vaccines, including reduced antigen degradation, enduring antigen presenting cell (APC) stimulation by slow antigen release, and enhanced activation of APCs by higher local antigen concentrations and improved antigen uptake [1,2]. Insoluble protein aggregates – designated protein bodies (PBs) – are particles that, until now, have primarily been viewed as an undesirable by-product of recombinant protein production by bacteria [3–5]. Recently, we have optimized a broadly applicable short tag, which can be genetically fused to any

¹ These authors contributed equally.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vaccine.2021.10.006 0264-410X/© 2021 The Authors. Published by Elsevier Ltd. This is an open access article under the CC BY license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/).

antigen-encoding gene of interest, resulting in large quantities of PBs composed of the encoded fusion protein in a controlled fashion [6,7]. The generic applicability, combined with the potential for large scale production and relatively low manufacturing costs, make PBs an attractive delivery vehicle for a variety of biomedical applications, including vaccine development [3,4,8].

Earlier studies provided evidence that protein aggregates can successfully elicit immune responses [9–17]. PBs produced with the same platform as used in this study have previously been found to induce both CD4+ and CD8+ T cell responses following antigen presentation by murine dendritic cells *in vitro* [10]. It was shown that aggregated antigens are more potent in mounting an immune response leading to better protection than soluble antigens [9,16]. Immunization of mice with a *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* antigen formulated as protein aggregates without adjuvant conferred a higher level of protection against infection than the same antigen

^{*} Corresponding author at: PO Box 9101, 6525 GA Nijmegen, the Netherlands. *E-mail address:* Lucille.vanbeek@radboudumc.nl (L.F. van Beek).

in soluble form administered together with an adjuvant [9]. Similarly, when compared to soluble antigen, mice immunized with protein aggregates of a *M. tuberculosis* fusion protein showed enhanced cellular and humoral immune responses [16].

The upper respiratory tract (URT) is the primary entry site of respiratory pathogens, from which they can spread to the lower airways leading to infection and disease. This process can be blocked efficiently when vaccination strategies induce effective mucosal immune responses [18]. Streptococcus pneumoniae is the most important global cause of lower respiratory tract infections in children, immune compromised individuals and the elderly [19,20]. Importantly, disease development is typically preceded by asymptomatic colonization of *S. pneumoniae* in the URT, which also facilitates transmission of the bacterium to susceptible individuals. Therefore, broadly protective and affordable immunization strategies providing protection against both colonization and disease are highly desired to replace or complement the currently available pneumococcal conjugate vaccines (PCVs) [21,22]. Protein-based vaccines have been examined as a promising alternative for polysaccharide-based PCVs [23,24].

In this study, we investigated the potency of PB-based formulations in establishing mucosal immune responses and protection against the pneumococcus in the URT, following intranasal administration in mice. We provide evidence that intranasally applied PBs in mice outperform the same antigen in soluble form with respect to protection against pneumococcal colonization. Analysis of the nasal cytokine profile upon *in vivo* stimulation with *S. pneumoniae* identified significant differences between mice immunized with a soluble or particulate antigen. Considering the versatility of this technology, PBs have significant potential as a (mucosal) vaccine platform.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Ethics statement

Mice experiments performed for this study were approved by the Radboudumc Committee for Animal Ethics (AVD103002017904 and AVD103002016454) and conducted according to the Dutch legislation.

2.2. Bacterial strains and growth conditions

For all experiments, *S. pneumoniae* strains were cultured in Todd-Hewitt broth (BD, Maryland, USA) supplemented with yeast extract (CONDA, Madrid, Spain) (THY) under static conditions at 37 °C, 5% CO₂ to an optical density (OD)₆₂₀ of 0.25. Subsequently, glycerol stocks were stored at -80 °C until usage. For mouse infection experiments, TIGR4 (serotype 4), and Pneumococcal Bacteraemia Collection Nijmegen (PBCN) isolates 0231 (serotype 4) and 0460 (serotype 18C) were used. To assess antibody binding to pneumococci, TIGR4, TIGR4 $\Delta pspA$, TIGR4 Δcps and TIGR4 $\Delta cps\Delta p$ *spA* were used. For the C3 deposition experiments, TIGR4 and TIGR4 Δcps were used. For *in vivo* stimulation experiments, TIGR4 and TIGR4 $\Delta pspA$ were used, which were heat-killed (30 min, 65 °C) prior to storage at -80 °C.

2.3. Soluble PspA α protein production and purification

Escherichia coli BL21(DE3) cells harboring a pET16b expression plasmid, pET16b-nHis-PspA α (Supplementary Methods), were grown in Lysogeny Broth (10 g/L of tryptone (Oxoid, Hampshire, United Kingdom), 5 g/L of yeast extract (Oxoid) and 10 g/L of NaCl (Sigma-Aldrich, Missouri, USA)) supplemented with 2 g/L of glucose (Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) containing 2 g/L glucose (Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) and kanamycin (50 µg/ml, Sigma-Aldrich) to early log phase. Protein expression was induced by the addition of isopropyl-β-D thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG) to a final concentration of 0.5 mM, and the cells were incubated for a further 2.5 h. After centrifugation, the cells containing pellet was resuspended in buffer A (50 mM NaPO4, 300 mM NaCl [pH 7.4]), and phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride (PMSF) was added to a concentration of 1 mM. The cells were disrupted by two passages through a One Shot cell disruptor (Constant Systems Ltd., Daventry, UK) at 1.2 \times 10⁸ Pa. Cell debris and membranes were removed by centrifugation at 10,000g and 293,000g, respectively, at 4 °C. The His₆-tagged protein was isolated from the cleared lysate using Talon Superflow medium (GE Healthcare Life Sciences, Massachusetts, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The eluate was dialyzed overnight at 4 °C against 500 volumes of PBS (pH 7.4). After dialysis, glycerol was added to 15%, and aliquots were stored at -80 °C. The concentration of the antigen was determined by comparison with a BSA standard on Coomassie-stained SDS-PAGE gel. Before use the protein solution was diluted with PBS containing 15% glycerol, typically to a concentration of 2.5 mg/mL.

2.4. Production of PB-based vaccine formulations

For production of the various PBs, DNA inserts encoding the used antigens (sequences in Supplementary Methods) flanked on either side by triple repeats of the TorA signal sequence (PspA α and Green Fluorescent Protein (GFP)) [6], or a truncated ($\Delta 29$ -36) derivative thereof (PnrA, DiiA, SP1690 and AliA) [7] were cloned under tet-promoter control in pASK-IBA3 (IBA GmbH, Göttingen, Germany). To isolate PBs, E. coli K-12 strain TOP10F' (Invitrogen, Massachusetts, USA) cells harbouring one of the pIBA plasmids were grown in Lysogeny Broth supplemented with 2 g/ L of glucose (Merck) and 100 mg/L of ampicillin (Sigma-Aldrich) from an OD₆₀₀ of 0.05 to an OD₆₀₀ of approximately 0.4 at 37 °C with aeration. Protein expression was induced by the addition of anhydrotetracycline to a final concentration of 0.2 mg/L. After three hours of further incubation, the cells were collected by centrifugation. The cells were resuspended in Lysis buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 1 mM EDTA, 10 μ g/mL lysozyme) to an OD₆₀₀ of 20, incubated at 37 °C for one hour and lysed using a Branson Sonifier 250 (Branson Ultrasonics, Connecticut, USA). The resulting lysate was subjected to centrifugation (15,000g, 15 min) to sediment the PBs. To remove contaminants, the pelleted PB material was subjected to a number of consecutive washing steps: The PBs were resuspended (2x concentrated) in 10 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 1 mM EDTA using tip sonication, after which the suspension was mixed with an equal volume of Triton Wash Buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 1 mM EDTA, 2% Triton X-100) and incubated at room temperature for 1 h. PBs were collected by centrifugation (15,000g, 15 min) and resuspended (2x concentrated) in 10 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0 using tip sonication. After addition of an equal volume of Urea/Salt Wash buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 2 M Urea, 2 M NaCl) the suspension was incubated at room temperature for 1 h. PBs were again collected by centrifugation (15,000g, 15 min), resuspended (1x concentrated) in PBS using sonication, again sedimented by centrifugation (15,000g, 15 min), and finally resuspended in a small volume (typically $\sim 100 \times$ more concentrated) of PBS containing 15% glycerol and stored at -80 °C. The concentration of the antigen is determined by comparison with a BSA standard on Coomassie-stained SDS-PAGE gel. Before use the PB suspension was diluted with PBS containing 15% glycerol, typically to a concentration of 2.5 mg/mL.

2.5. Particle visualization by negative stain – Transmission electron microscopy (NS-TEM)

Of each PB sample, 3 μ L (\sim 7.5 μ g) was incubated for 1 min on a glow discharged grid (Cu, 100 mesh with carbon-coated formvar

film) and excess sample was blotted off. Grids were negative stained with 0.5% uranyl acetate (UA) in MQ, by rinsing twice with 0.5% UA followed by 1 min incubation with 0.5% UA and subsequent blotting and overnight air drying. Grids were analysed using a JEM-2100 transmission electron microscope (JEOL, Tokyo, Japan) operating at 200 kV.

2.6. Mouse immunization

For all mouse experiments, 7 week-old female C57BI/6J mice were obtained from Charles River in France or Germany. Upon arrival, mice were randomized, using Random.org sequence generator, in groups of 3, 4 or 5 over individually ventilated cages. Prior to inclusion in the experiments, mice had at least one week to acclimate. Mice were allocated to control and experimental groups randomly, the investigators were not blinded. Sterile water and food were provided *ad libitum*, and mice were monitored daily.

Mice were intranasally immunized three times under inhalation anaesthesia (isoflurane) with a two weeks interval. Vaccine formulations consisted of PBs, soluble antigen with or without 4 μ g Cholera Toxin subunit B (CTB, Sigma-Aldrich) per vaccine dose in a total volume of 5 μ L in PBS. Prevnar was administered intramuscularly, without anaesthesia, at 1/15th of the human dose using the same immunization scheme as for intranasally vaccinated mice. Two weeks post third vaccination, blood was collected from the tail vein for further analysis.

2.7. Mouse colonization model

Three weeks after the third vaccination, mice were intranasally challenged with 1×10^6 colony forming units (CFU) *S. pneumoniae* TIGR4, PBCN0231 or PBCN0460 in 5–10 μ L in PBS under inhalation anaesthesia (isoflurane). Three or seven days post-infection, mice were euthanized, and nasal tissue was harvested, homogenized, and used for plating on blood agar plates to determine the bacterial load. Remaining homogenized nasal tissue was snap frozen and stored for further analysis. After incubating (37 °C, 5% CO₂) the blood agar plates overnight, the nasal bacterial load was quantified.

2.8. In vivo stimulation model

Three weeks after the third vaccination, mice were intranasally stimulated with 1×10^6 CFU heat-killed *S. pneumoniae* TIGR4 or TIGR4 $\Delta pspA$ in 5 μ L PBS under inhalation anaesthesia (isoflurane). 2, 4, 6 or 24 h post-stimulation, mice were euthanized, and nasal tissue was harvested. Homogenized tissue was directly snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen for further analysis.

2.9. Cytokine analysis

Cytokine levels in supernatant of nasal homogenates were determined using the mouse Bio-Plex Pro assay (Bio-Rad, California, USA) including the detection of mouse IFN- γ , IL-1 β , IL-4, IL-5, IL-6, IL-10, IL-12-p70, IL-13, IL-17A, KC, and TNF- α . The assay was performed according to the manufacturers protocol. Data acquisition was performed on the FlexMap-3D System (Luminex, 's-Hertogenbosch,

The Netherlands) using xPONENT software (Luminex) and data analysis was performed using Bio-Plex manager software (Bio-Rad).

2.10. Antibody binding to pneumococci

Antibody binding to pneumococci was performed based on a previously described method [25], with several adjustments.

Bacteria were thawed, pelleted (5 min, 16,000 g) and resuspended in PBS with 0.075% catalase (Sigma-Aldrich) and 5 mM carboxyfluorescein succinimidyl ester (CFSE, Sigma-Aldrich) for labelling (30 min, 37 °C, 220 rpm). Bacteria were washed three times and resuspended in PBS with 2% BSA at a concentration of 2 \times 10^8 CFU/mL. 10 μ L bacteria was mixed with 10 μ L serum collected 2 weeks after the third immunization or 10 μ L homogenized nasal tissue collected at termination in a sterile 96 wells round bottom plate and incubated (30 min, 37 °C, 220 rpm). Nasal tissue was used undiluted, serum was diluted 1:1000 (IgG, IgG1, IgG2c) or 1:50 (IgA, IgM) in PBS with 2% BSA. After incubation, bacteria were washed twice with PBS and stained with fluorescently labelled antibodies (30 min, 4 °C) diluted in PBS with 2% BSA: 1:200 goat anti-mouse IgA PE (Southern Biotech, Alabama, USA, 1040-09), 1:100 goat anti-mouse IgG AF647 (Southern Biotech, 1030-31), 1:200 goat anti-mouse IgG1 AF647 (Southern Biotech, 1070-31). 1:100 goat anti-mouse IgG2c PE (Southern Biotech, 1079–09) and 1:100 goat anti-mouse IgM PE (Southern Biotech, 1020-09). Measurement of IgG1 (660+\-20 nm) and IgG2c (575 ± 26 nm) on pneumococci (530 ± 30 nm) was multiplexed. Similarly, IgG (660+\-20 nm) and IgA (575 \pm 26 nm) were combined in case the same serum/nasal tissue dilution could be used to detect both antibody classes. IgM (575 ± 26 nm) binding to pneumococci was measured separately. Bacteria were washed once and fixed in 2% paraformaldehyde in PBS (20 min, room temperature). Bacteria are diluted 10-fold in PBS and used directly for flow cytometric analysis on a LSR II machine (BD biosciences, Vianen, The Netherlands). 20,000 CFSE positive events were recorded and analysed using Flow JoX version 10.2. Groups were compared based on the mean fluorescent intensity (MFI) in arbitrary units (AU) for each of the antibody isotypes or subclasses. Bacteria incubated with PBS and pooled samples from CTB immunized mice were included as negative controls. To evaluate potential antigen-independent recognition of S. pneumoniae, incubations with TIGR4 Δ pspA were included in parallel for all samples.

2.11. C3 deposition on pneumococci

Mouse complement C3 deposition was performed similarly as described above for antibody binding to pneumococci, with a few adjustments. Bacteria were thawed, pelleted (5 min, 16,000 g) and resuspended in PBS with 0.075% catalase (Sigma-Aldrich) and 5 mM Pacific Blue[™] Succinimidyl ester (PBSE, Invitrogen) for labelling (30 min, 37 °C, 220 rpm). Bacteria were washed three times and resuspended in Hanks' Balanced Salt Solution (HBSS, Gibco, Amarillo, Texas) without phenol red containing Ca²⁺/ Mg²⁺ + 0.1% gelatin (HBSS3+), at a concentration of 2 \times 10⁸ CFU/ mL. 10 μ L bacteria was mixed with 10 μ L 1:50 diluted serum collected 2 weeks after the third immunization and 1% final concentration of C57BL6 mouse Complement (mC) source (Innovative Research, Novi, Michigan) in HBSS3 + in a sterile 96 wells round bottom plate and incubated (30 min, 37 °C, 220 rpm). A 1:50 dilution of serum was selected as this dilution enabled detectable levels of IgG as well as IgM binding to the bacterial surface. Bacteria were washed once and fixed in 2% paraformaldehyde in PBS (20 min, room temperature). Subsequently, bacteria were stained with goat anti-mouse C3-FITC (525 \pm 40 nm) (MPbio, Eschwege, Germany: 0855500) 1:800 diluted in PBS with 2% BSA (15 min. room temperature). Bacteria were washed once, diluted 10-fold in PBS, and used directly for flow cytometric analysis on a Cyto-FLEX (Beckman Coulter, Woerden, Netherlands). 20,000 PBSE positive events were recorded and analysed using Flow JoX version 10.2. Groups were compared based on the MFI in AU. As negative controls, heat-inactivated mC (20 min, 56 °C) or HBSS only are used.

2.12. Statistics

Group sizes in animal vaccination experiments with as primary read-out the nasal bacterial load, ranged between n = 8 and n = 12, with the main control group in each experiment being 1.5- or 2fold larger, to improve statistical power when performing multiple comparisons. Values used for sample size calculations are, standard deviation: 0.75–1.25 log10 CFU, true difference of means: 1.0–1.8 log10 CFU, alpha: 0.05, power: 0.8. In case a mouse developed symptoms of invasive pneumococcal disease following challenge (humane endpoint), this mouse was excluded from all subsequent analyses (criterium established *a priori*). Mucosal cytokine analysis was performed using n = 3 (time series pilot) and n = 4 mice, as minimal number of animals required for statistical analysis.

PCA and effect size analysis on nasal cytokine levels were performed using R (R Core Team, 2016). To estimate the difference in cytokine production between HKSpWT and HKSp $\Delta pspA$ stimulation conditions, cytokine values were first log10 transformed to render a normal distribution. A linear model was constructed per cytokine with vaccine and infection conditions as well as their interaction as covariates. In R notation: Cytokine ~ Vaccine + Con dition + Vaccine : Condition. The difference of least square means of HKSpWT and HKSp $\Delta pspA$ knockout stimulation conditions was extracted using the 'Ismeans' package in R for each vaccine condition (Tukey-adjusted comparisons). Differences between soluble PspA α and PB PspA α vaccine conditions for the HKSpWT – HKSp $\Delta pspA$ comparison (the difference of differences) were extracted from the estimate of the interaction term.

Other statistical analyses were all performed using GraphPad Prism version 5.03 (GraphPad Software, California, USA). Details on the statistical parameters used can be found in the figure legends. Analysis of bacterial loads and cytokine levels were performed on log10 transformed data to render normal distribution. p < 0.05 was considered significant. For access to raw data contact the corresponding author.

3. Results

3.1. PB production and characterization using pneumococcal model antigen PspA α

To investigate the potency of PBs in establishing protection in the URT, we selected a well-studied model antigen of *S. pneumoniae*, i.e. pneumococcal surface protein A (PspA). PspA has been shown to protect against pneumococcal colonization and disease following mucosal or parenteral vaccination when administered soluble or as a particle-based formulation [26–28]. We previously showed that the N-terminal, surface-exposed, α -helical coiled-coil domain of PspA, referred to as the PspA α fragment, is highly immunogenic and induces strong protection against pneumococcal colonization when presented on *Salmonella* outer membrane vesicles (OMVs) [26,29].

In a previous study, we showed that fusion of a PB-formation tag based on the signal sequence of *torA* from *E. coli* (i.e. PB-tag) to the N- or C-terminus of the normally soluble TrxA and MBP proteins results in PB formation [6,7]. Here, we generated PBs of PspA α by a genetic fusion of the α domain of *pspA* to the PB-tag. Upon high expression conditions in *E. coli*, the PB-tag-PspA α fusion protein formed insoluble aggregates, as was shown previously for other constructs [6,7]. PBs were subsequently isolated by disruption of *E. coli* cells followed by low-speed centrifugation. The PBs in the pellet were then sequentially washed with Triton X-100 to remove excess membrane material including LPS, then with urea to break low-affinity protein interactions, and finally with a high

concentration of NaCl to break potential electrostatic protein interactions. The purified PspA α PBs were analysed by SDS-PAGE (Fig. 1a). NS-TEM analysis revealed that the PBs displayed a rough surface geometry (Fig. 1b).

3.2. Intranasal immunization with $PspA\alpha$ PBs confers protection against pneumococcal colonization

To explore the potency of PBs as a vaccine formulation, we used the PspA α PBs to intranasally vaccinate mice three times with a two-week interval. A dose range from 1 to 50 μ g PspA α PBs per vaccination, adjuvanted with CTB [30], was tested. For comparison, groups of mice vaccinated with PBS, CTB, soluble PspAa, PspAa PBs without CTB, or PBs comprised of the unrelated GFP with CTB were included. Three weeks after the third vaccination, mice were challenged with 1×10^6 CFU of *S. pneumoniae* strain TIGR4, a challenge strain that is widely used in animal experiments [26,31,32]. At three days post-challenge, the nasal bacterial load was determined (Fig. 2a). When comparing each of the groups that received a CTBadjuvanted formulation to the CTB only group, a statistically significant reduction of the bacterial load was observed for mice vaccinated with 50 μ g, 10 μ g, or 3 μ g of PspA α PBs, of which immunization with 10 μ g PspA α PBs resulted in the strongest decrease (45-fold) (Fig. 2a). Immunization with an equimolar amount of soluble PspA α (5 µg) adjuvanted with CTB did not significantly protect against pneumococcal colonization. In addition, neither PspA PBs without adjuvant, nor GFP PBs with CTB reduced the nasal bacterial load.

Since the expression and accessibility of PspA on the bacterial surface may vary between clinical strains and serotypes, we repeated the experiment using additional challenge strains. To this end, we selected two isolates from a pneumococcal bacteraemia cohort that contained a PspA α amino acid sequence identical to that of TIGR4: PBCN0231 (serotype 4) and PBCN0460 (serotype 18C). For this experiment, mice were either vaccinated intranasally with 10 μ g PspA α PBs, vaccinated intramuscularly with 13-valent PCV (Prevnar) or left untreated. The bacterial load in the murine nose was determined at three- or seven-days post-challenge with 1×10^6 CFU (Fig. 2b, c). PB PspA α immunized mice challenged with either PBCN0231 or PBCN0460 showed a strong reduction in bacterial load compared to unvaccinated mice, both at three days and seven days post-challenge (Fig. 2b, c). In contrast, vaccination with Prevnar did not result in a reduction of pneumococcal colonization (Fig. 2b, c), as has been reported previously [33,34].

3.3. Differences in antibody binding to pneumococci following intranasal immunization with $PspA\alpha$ soluble or PBs

To gain insight into the mechanisms underlying the protection induced by PspA α PBs, we investigated the antibody response in PB-vaccinated mice and compared this to soluble $PspA\alpha$ immunized mice. Recognition of pneumococci by vaccine-induced antibodies was measured by in vitro binding to TIGR4 and an isogenic *pspA* knock-out strain (TIGR4 Δ *pspA*) using flow cytometry (Fig. 3, Fig. S1). Binding of mucosal antibodies to pneumococci was determined using homogenized nasal tissue collected three days post-infection. Systemic antibody binding to pneumococci was determined in serum collected two weeks after the third immunization. A moderately elevated mean fluorescent intensity (MFI), expressed as arbitrary units (AU), of mucosal IgA bound to pneumococci was detected for PB PspAa immunized mice compared to soluble PspA α immunized mice (p = 0.0520), a similar trend was found for serum IgA. Binding of serum-derived IgM and IgG1 was higher for mice immunized with the soluble antigen when compared to PB immunized mice (p = 0.0005 and p = 0.0024,



Fig. 1. Characterization of PspA α **PBs.** PspA α PBs were characterized by SDS-PAGE with Coomassie staining (**a**), and negative-stain transmission electron microscopy (NS-TEM) (**b**). **a**) Purified PBs were analysed by SDS-PAGE (PspA α fusion protein: 49 kDa). **b**) Two examples of NS-TEM pictures of purified PspA α PBs are shown. White scale bars indicate 200 nm.

respectively). Except for IgM, binding of mucosal or systemic antibodies to the bacterial surface revealed similar patterns.

As pneumococci downregulate their capsule during colonization to allow nutrient uptake and adhesion to the mucosal surface [35], we also measured antibody binding to unencapsulated pneumococci (Fig. S2). Results were overall highly similar compared to those obtained using the encapsulated strain. Statistical significance was only reached for the increased nasal IgG1 binding measured in samples from soluble $PspA\alpha$ immunized mice (p = 0.0392). Of note, no correlation was found between antibody binding to pneumococci and the nasal bacterial load measured three days post-infection (data not shown). In addition, no antibody binding was detected using nasal tissue or serum of CTB immunized mice, or when using pspA knockout strains (Figs. S1 and S2), suggesting that bacterial recognition by antibodies is highly antigen-specific. Taken together, immunization with soluble PspAa or PB PspAa induces differences in antibody binding to pneumococci by IgA, IgM and IgG1. To study whether these differences in antibody binding have distinct functional consequences that could potentially contribute to differences in protection, we assessed the capacity of serum-derived antibodies from immunized mice to induce complement C3 deposition on the bacterial surface in presence of an external complement source. No differences in C3 deposition were found when sera of PB PspAa or soluble PspA α immunized mice were used (Fig. S3a, b), indicating that the antibodies induced by vaccination with these formulations have similar complement-activating capacity.

3.4. PspA α PB vaccinated mice display a distinct mucosal cytokine profile following intranasal stimulation with S. pneumoniae

To examine whether differences in the local cytokine response correlate with protection, we conducted a separate study in which we vaccinated mice again with either soluble or PB PspA α , both adjuvanted with CTB. Since the *in vivo* immune response following infection may not only be influenced by the initial challenge dose but also by subsequent differences in bacterial replication, we intranasally administered heat-killed *S. pneumoniae* expressing *pspA* (wild-type; HKSpWT). To determine whether these responses were antigen-specific or more reflective of an early innate response to *S. pneumoniae*, we also stimulated mice with an isogenic *pspA* knock-out strain (HKSp Δ *pspA*). Following intranasal stimulation, nasal tissue was harvested after 4 h, homogenized, and used for multiplex measurement of IFN- γ , IL-1 β , IL-4, IL-5, IL-6, IL-10, IL-12-p70, IL-13, IL-17A, KC and TNF- α . The 4 h time point was selected based on the outcome of an initial optimization experiment (Fig. S4).

Principal Component Analysis (PCA) showed that the cytokine profile of PB PspA α vaccinated mice stimulated with HKSpWT was highly distinct from all other groups (Fig. 4a, Fig. S5). This was visualised by a shift along the x-axis corresponding to principal component 1, which accounts for approximately 65% of the variation in the dataset. Mice vaccinated with soluble PspA α and stimulated with HKSpWT also showed a unique cytokine profile deviating from all other groups, based on the separate cluster formed by these mice (Fig. 4a). In contrast, no shifts were observed in the PCA following stimulation with HKSp Δ pspA, implying that the observed differences in cytokine responses are antigenspecific (Fig. 4a).

We found that nasal cytokine levels of mice vaccinated with PB PspA α and stimulated with HKSpWT were significantly lower than in the other groups, except for IL-17A and KC (Fig. 4b).

The antigen-mediated effect on the cytokine response (effect size) was analysed by comparing the cytokine response following stimulation with HKSpWT and HKSp $\Delta pspA$ within each vaccination group (Fig. 4c). PB vaccinated mice showed a significant antigen-mediated effect on the levels of all cytokines, except IL-17A and KC, whereas a significant effect for soluble PspA α vaccinated mice was only found for KC, IL-6 and IL-12-p70 (Fig. 4c). Additionally, significant differences between the effect sizes of PB PspA α and soluble PspA α vaccinated mice were observed for all cytokines, except IL-17A, KC and IL-4 (Fig. 4c, Fig. S6). Thus, the cytokine profile of PB vaccinated mice is impacted by the presence of the PspA α antigen during the stimulation and this effect size is, for the majority of the cytokines, statistically different from the effect size determined for soluble PspA α vaccinated mice.

3.5. Vaccination with PBs composed of conserved antigens confers protection against pneumococcal colonization

To evaluate whether the PB platform is suitable for proteins other than the highly variable PspA protein, we also examined PB formulations of four highly conserved, putative pneumococcal vaccine antigens: nucleoside binding protein PnrA, oligopeptide binding protein AliA, dimorphic cell wall protein DiiA, and carbohydrate binding protein SP1690 [36–41]. Purified PB formulations were analysed by SDS-PAGE (Fig. S7a, c, e, g). Subsequent analysis by NS-TEM demonstrated that the particles have a rough surface geometry, as was found for PspA α PBs, however to a slightly different extent depending on the protein (Fig. S7b, d, f, h).

The protective capacity of these PB variants was determined following intranasal vaccination of mice with 10 μ g PBs composed of PnrA, DiiA, SP1690, AliA, or a cocktail of all four PBs (40 μ g in total), all adjuvanted with CTB. Mice vaccinated with PB PnrA or the PB cocktail showed a strong and statistically significant reduction in pneumococcal colonization compared to the CTB control group (PnrA: 36-fold, p = 0.0097; cocktail: 49-fold, p = 0.0043) (Fig. 5. Although not statically significant, immunization with AliA PBs also resulted in a moderately decreased colonization level compared to the CTB-only group (15-fold, p = 0.0940). In contrast, mice immunized with DiiA or SP1690 PBs showed roughly similar colonization levels compared to CTB vaccinated mice. Taken together, these results demonstrate that PB-based formulations of various



Fig. 2. Intransally administered PSpA2 PBs conter protection against colonization by *S*, *pneumoniae*. a) Mice were intransally vaccinated infee times with PBs (n = 8), CTB (n = 22), various dosages of PspA2 PBs + CTB (50 μ g (n = 10), 10 μ g (n = 18), 3 μ g (n = 8), 1 μ g (n = 8)), 10 μ g PspA2 PBs (n = 7), 5 μ g soluble PspA2 + CTB (n = 8) or 10 μ g Green Fluorescent Protein (GPF) PBs + CTB (n = 8). Ten μ g PspA2 PBs is equivalent to 5 μ g of soluble PspA2 based on the number of PspA2 molecules/dose. Mice were challenged with 1 × 10⁶ CFU *S*, *pneumoniae* strain TIGR4 and the nasal bacterial load was assessed 3 days post-challenge. Data was obtained from two separate animal experiments, indicated by open and closed circles. Statistical analysis was performed using a one-way ANOVA with Dunnett Post-Hoc testing and 95% confidence intervals on log10 transformed data, using CTB vaccinated mice as control group. In 10 μ g PspA2 PBs group 1 mouse was excluded because of pneumococcal disease development. **b**, **c**) Mice were vaccinated mice (n = 18). Mice were challenged with 1 × 10⁶ CFU *S*, *pneumoniae* strain analysis was performed using a two-sided T-test with 95% (or 900) or PBCN0460 (c) and the nasal bacterial load was assessed 3- or 7-days post-challenge. Statistical analysis was performed using a two-sided T-test with 95% confidence intervals on log10 transformed data, except for PB PspA2 + CTB at day 7 in (**c**) because no bacteria were detected. In 10 μ g PspA2 PBs + CTB group and Prevnar group both 1 mouse was excluded because of pneumococcal disease development. ***** p-value < 0.001. Dashed lines indicate detection limit (22 CFU/animal), symbols represent individual mice with the geometric mean indicated by a horizontal line.

conserved pneumococcal proteins are able to reduce pneumococcal colonization following intranasal administration.

4. Discussion

Improvements in nanomedicine-based research have encouraged the development of highly effective particle-based vaccine formulations over the past decade [1,2]. However, the applicability of these particle-based vaccines is often low due to complicated designs, high manufacturing costs or difficulties with scaling up the production process [42]. Here, we explored the use of insoluble protein aggregates – which are easy to produce at low costs – as a platform for mucosal vaccination. We demonstrate that PB-based formulations provide superior protection against URT infection of mice with *S. pneumoniae* as compared to antigen administration in soluble form. This observation was associated with differences in antibody binding to pneumococci as well as a highly distinct mucosal cytokine profile in response to *in vivo* stimulation. Moreover, we show that this PB-strategy is applicable to a variety of pneumococcal antigens.

The improved efficacy observed following intranasal vaccination with $PspA\alpha$ PBs when compared to vaccination with

the corresponding soluble antigen is in line with a study of Ahmad *et al.* [9]. In this study, subcutaneous immunization with aggregated unadjuvanted antigen Ag85 protected significantly better against infection with *M. tuberculosis* in mice than immunization with adjuvanted soluble Ag85 [9]. The lack of protection against colonization by unadjuvanted PspA α PBs in our study might be explained by differences in vaccination route, as the nasal mucosa is considered to be a more tolerant environment compared to parenteral sites [43].

While PspA α PBs provided better protection than soluble PspA α , this did not correlate with differences in mucosal or systemic antibody binding to pneumococci on a single mouse level and could not be linked to differences in complement C3 deposition on the bacterial surface. The relatively high binding of nasal tissue-derived IgA to pneumococci when compared to serum, which is also slightly elevated in PB PspA α immunized mice, suggests that mainly secretory IgA is produced, which has previously been shown to play an important role in mucosal protection [44]. Interestingly, we observed differences in IgG1 and IgG2c/IgG2a distribution between mice vaccinated with aggregated or soluble PspA α , which has also been described by others [9,16]. These differences could be the result of differences in total levels of



Fig. 3. Differential antibody binding to *S. pneumoniae* **between soluble or PB PspA** α **immunized mice.** Mice were intranasally vaccinated three times with 10 µg PB PspA α + CTB (n = 8; circles) or 5 µg soluble PspA α + CTB (n = 8; squares). Serum was collected two weeks after the third vaccination. Three weeks after the third vaccination, mice were challenged with 1 × 10⁶ CFU *S. pneumoniae* strain TIGR4 and nasal tissue was collected 3 days post-challenge. Binding of antibodies (IgG, IgM, IgA, IgG1, IgG2c) present in serum (systemic) and nasal tissue (mucosal) to encapsulated TIGR4 was measured by flow cytometry. Nasal tissue was used undiluted, serum samples were diluted 1:1000 (IgG, IgG1, IgG2c) or 1:50 (IgM, IgA). Data is presented as mean fluorescent intensity (MFI) in arbitrary units (AU). Groups were compared by a two-sided T-test. ** p < 0.001. Symbols represent individual mice with the geometric mean indicated by a horizontal line.

anti-PspA antibodies and/or differences in capacity to recognize the native antigen on the bacterial surface. Of note, as a large proportion of the proteins in the PB formulation has most likely not attained its native conformation, it is conceivable that PB induced antibodies primarily recognize linear epitopes within PspA α . However, it is also possible that certain PspA α protein domains are properly folded, and/or that proteins released from the PB structure attain their native conformation [5,8,11].

Besides minor differences in antibody binding to pneumococci following immunization with PB or soluble PspAx, we also observed a distinct mucosal cytokine profile after intranasal stimulation with non-replicating pneumococci. In PB vaccinated mice we observed reduced levels of most of the cytokines tested, including cytokines associated with both an innate and an adaptive immune response. Although cytokine levels in PB PspAa vaccinated mice were reduced in comparison to the soluble PspAa vaccinated animals, it remains to be determined how these levels relate to the levels before re-stimulation. Pre-challenge IL-6 levels have previously been shown to differ between unvaccinated mice and mice intranasally immunized with soluble PspA adjuvanted with whole cell pertussis vaccine, possibly as a consequence of increased infiltration of immune cells [45]. Importantly, the measured cytokine responses are a snapshot and the net result of the interplay between the innate and adaptive immune system, for which different vaccine formulations might display different kinetics. We speculate that a fast and strong adaptive immune response in PBvaccinated mice may have downregulated the proinflammatory response to intranasal challenge. Such a response may have facilitated improved clearance compared to soluble PspAa vaccinated mice. Importantly, the PB-dependent cytokine responses were antigen-specific since no differences were observed between soluble and PB PspAx immunized mice upon in vivo stimulation with the pspA knock-out strain.

Protection against colonization induced by protein antigen-based vaccine formulations – including PspA – has been associated with production of CD4 T-cell dependent IL-17 [29]. IL-17 has been shown to play an important role in clearance of

pneumococcal colonization in mice [46]. It was therefore surprising that no differences in IL-17 levels were found between the vaccination groups, even though clear differences were detected with regards to levels of protection. Possibly, the timing of cytokine measurement might have played a role in this observation. The improved protection and the effective T cell memory induced when aggregating antigens, as shown previously [10], can possibly be explained by a variety of features. First of all, the higher local antigen density may have facilitated a higher antigen quantity per APC, which could have enabled a prolonged or higher level of antigen presentation [1.47.48]. In addition, their relative resistance to proteases, which are abundant at mucosal surfaces, may facilitate prolonged APC stimulation [49,50]. Thirdly, the uptake of PB particles by APCs and the transport across the epithelial barrier is probably more efficient than that of soluble proteins. This might be further aided by repetitive epitope display by the PB, consequently impacting the transport of the antigen to lymphoid organs [9]. Also, the activation of different intracellular signalling pathways following interaction with a soluble protein or a particulate antigen could have contributed to a more effective immune response [48,51]. Considering the important role of particle size and shape in the type and magnitude of an immune response [47,51], it is tempting to speculate that PB structure may also play a role in immunogenicity and protection.

An important finding of the present study is the suitability of the PB platform for multiple conserved pneumococcal proteins. The development of a broadly protective, protein-based, vaccine against *S. pneumoniae* represents a promising approach to eliminate the emergence of non-PCV serotypes in pneumococcal colonization and disease [21,22,24]. PBs consisting of PnrA were able to significantly reduce the pneumococcal load in the murine nose. Previously, PnrA was shown to be important for bacterial virulence, and immunization with this protein conferred protection against pneumococcal colonization and disease [36,52], underscoring the relevance of PnrA as a vaccine antigen. Moreover, combining PnrA PBs with PBs consisting of AliA, DiiA, and SP1690, which have previously been shown to protect against pneumococcal colonization



when administered as soluble antigen [37–41], resulted in the largest reduction in colonization compared to adjuvant-only vaccinated mice. This observation illustrates exciting opportunities for a future multi-protein, PB-based pneumococcal vaccine. By the development of vaccines that reduce colonization, as shown in this study, the chance that pneumococci migrate from the nasopharynx to distant sites will be limited and subsequent disease development can be prevented. Future studies will therefore investigate whether PB-based vaccines can also induce immunity and protection in the lungs and protect against invasive disease.

In conclusion, this study provides insight into the potency of PB-based vaccine formulations in enabling mucosal immunity



Fig. 5. PBs composed of conserved pneumococcal antigens can protect against colonization in mice. Mice were vaccinated intranasally three times with 10 μ g of PBs of a single antigen (n = 9 or 10/group), or with a cocktail of the four PBs (10 μ g of each PB variant, n = 10), all adjuvanted with CTB. CTB vaccinated mice (n = 15) and unvaccinated mice (n = 10) were included as controls. Mice were challenged with 1 \times 10⁶ CFU PBCN0231 and the nasal bacterial load was determined 3 days post-challenge. Statistical analysis was performed using a one-way ANOVA with Dunnett Post-Hoc testing and 95% confidence intervals on log10 transformed data, using CTB vaccinated mice as control group. In CTB + PB DiiA and CTB + PB AliA groups 1 mouse was excluded because of pneumococcal disease development. ** p-value < 0.01. Dashed lines indicate detection limit (22 CFU/animal), symbols represent individual mice with the geometric mean of each group indicated by a horizontal line.

and protection against *S. pneumoniae* in the URT of mice, upon intranasal administration. The PB vaccination approach seems very promising for broad application as we have shown that multiple different pneumococcal proteins can be formulated as PBs inducing strong immunogenicity. More importantly, this study has provided evidence that antigens formulated as PBs can induce superior protection as compared to soluble antigen. Therefore, PBs represent a low-cost, safe, easy to produce, and versatile platform for the development of vaccines.

Author contributions

L.F.B., J.D.L., D.A.D., M.I.J., J.L. designed the experiments; L.F.B., J. D.L., H.B.B.S., F.J.O., R.M. performed the experiments; L.F.B. and J.G. performed the data analysis; W.S.P.J., L.N., D.A.D., M.I.J., I.J., J.L. were involved in supervision. All authors have approved the final article.

Data availability

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author on request.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests: L.F.B., J.D.L., H.B.B.S., W.S.P.J., J.L. and M.I.J. are co-inventors on a patent application describing the presented work. H.B.B.S., W.S.P.J. and J.L. are associated to the company Abera Bioscience AB that aims to develop pneumococcal vaccines. The remaining authors declare no competing interests.

Appendix A. Supplementary material

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vaccine.2021.10.006.

References

- Brito LA, O'Hagan DT. Designing and building the next generation of improved vaccine adjuvants. | Control Release 2014;190:563–79.
- [2] Pati R, Shevtsov M, Sonawane A. Nanoparticle vaccines against infectious diseases. Front Immunol 2018;9:2224.
- [3] de Marco A, Ferrer-Miralles N, Garcia-Fruitos E, Mitraki A, Peternel S, Rinas U, et al. Bacterial inclusion bodies are industrially exploitable amyloids. FEMS Microbiol Rev 2019:43:53–72.
- [4] Ramón A, Señorale-Pose M, Marín M. Inclusion bodies: not that bad.... Front Microbiol 2014;5:56. <u>https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2014.00056</u>.

4

Fig. 4. Highly distinct nasal cytokine profile in mice vaccinated with PB or soluble PspA\alpha following *in vivo* **stimulation with** *S. pneumoniae***. Mice were intranasally vaccinated three times with CTB (n = 8, black), 10 µg PspA\alpha PBs + CTB (n = 8, orange) or 5 µg soluble PspA\alpha + CTB (n = 8, blue), with a two-week interval. Three weeks after the last vaccination mice were intranasally stimulated (1 × 10⁶ CFU) with either heat-killed TIGR4 wild type (HKSpWT; n = 4 per group; closed symbols), or heat-killed TIGR4\DeltapspA (HKSp\DeltapspA; n = 4 per group; open symbols). Nasal tissue was harvested 4 h post-stimulation and cytokines (IFN-\gamma, IL-16, IL-6, IL-10, IL-12-p70, IL-13, IL-17A, KC and TNF-\alpha) were measured in homogenized nasal tissue using a multiplex bead-based assay. a) Principal component analysis of all cytokines measured using 10 transformed values. PC1, Principal component 1; PC2, principal component 2. b) Absolute nasal cytokine levels. Dashed lines indicate detection limit (IL-1β 3.2 pg/mL; IL-76 6.4 pg/mL; IL-6 3.4 pg/mL; IL-6 3.4 pg/mL; IL-6 1.8 pg/mL; IL-10 6.0 pg/mL; TNF-\alpha 7.0 pg/mL; IL-13 26.2 pg/mL; KC 3.2 pg/mL; IL-17A 0.8 pg/mL; IL-12-p70 58.0 pg/mL), symbols represent individual mice with the geometric mean indicated by a horizontal line. Statistical analysis was performed using a two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni correction on log10 transformed cytokine levels. * p-value < 0.01; *** p-value < 0.01; c) Effect size analysis of the antigen-mediated cytokine response was performed by calculating the differences in estimated bootstrap means between the HKSp\DeltapspA and HKSp\DeltapspA condition per vaccine formulation, determined following linear regression analysis on log10 transformed data. Dots represent difference in estimated means, estimated 95% confidence levels are indicated by horizontal lines. * p-value < 0.05; *** p-value < 0.001. Differences of the HKSp\DeltaPspA comparison between PB PspA\alpha + CTB and soluble PspA\alpha + CTB vaccinated mice (differences of differences) were extracted from**

L.F. van Beek, J.D. Langereis, H.B. van den Berg van Saparoea et al.

- [5] García-Fruitós E, Vázquez E, Díez-Gil C, Corchero JL, Seras-Franzoso J, Ratera I, et al. Bacterial inclusion bodies: making gold from waste. Trends Biotechnol 2012;30(2):65–70.
- [6] Jong WSP, Vikström D, Houben D, van den Berg van Saparoea HB, de Gier J-W, Luirink J. Application of an *E. coli* signal sequence as a versatile inclusion body tag. Microb Cell Fact 2017;16(1). <u>https://doi.org/10.1186/s12934-017-0662-4</u>.
- [7] Jong WSP, ten Hagen-Jongman CM, Vikström D, Dontje W, Abdallah AM, de Gier J-W, et al. Mutagenesis-based characterization and improvement of a novel inclusion body tag. Front Bioeng Biotechnol 2019;7. <u>https://doi.org/ 10.3389/fbioe.2019.00442</u>.
- [8] Vázquez E, Corchero JL, Burgueño JF, Seras-Franzoso J, Kosoy A, Bosser R, et al. Functional inclusion bodies produced in bacteria as naturally occurring nanopills for advanced cell therapies. Adv Mater 2012;24(13):1742–7.
- [9] Ahmad F, Zubair S, Gupta P, Gupta UD, Patel R, Owais M. Evaluation of aggregated Ag85B antigen for its biophysical properties, immunogenicity, and vaccination potential in a murine model of *tuberculosis* infection. Front Immunol 2017;8:1608.
- [10] Schetters STT, Jong WSP, Kruijssen LJW, van den Berg van Saparoea HB, Engels S, Unger WWJ, et al. Bacterial inclusion bodies function as vehicles for dendritic cell-mediated T cell responses. Cell Mol Immunol 2020;17(4):415–7.
- [11] Zepeda-Cervantes J, Cruz-Reséndiz A, Sampieri A, Carreón-Nápoles R, Sánchez-Betancourt JI, Vaca L. Incorporation of ORF2 from Porcine Circovirus Type 2 (PCV2) into genetically encoded nanoparticles as a novel vaccine using a selfaggregating peptide. Vaccine 2019;37(14):1928–37.
- [12] Wedrychowicz H, Kesik M, Kaliniak M, Kozak-Cieszczyk M, Jedlina-Panasiuk L, Jaros S, et al. Vaccine potential of inclusion bodies containing cysteine proteinase of *Fasciola hepatica* in calves and lambs experimentally challenged with metacercariae of the fluke. Vet Parasitol 2007;147(1-2):77–88.
- [13] Kęsik M, Sączyńska V, Szewczyk B, Płucienniczak A. Inclusion bodies from recombinant bacteria as a novel system for delivery of vaccine antigen by the oral route. Immunol Lett 2004;91(2-3):197–204.
- [14] Nurjayadi M, Ariastuti D, Agustini K, Sulfianti A, Mangunwardoyo W. The immune responds of balb/C Mice on antigen recombinant fm-C inclusion bodies Salmonella typhi protein emulsified with alumina adjuvant. IOP Conference Series: Materials Science and Engineering 2019;509:012089. https://doi.org/10.1088/1757-899X/509/1/012089.
- [15] Rivera F, Espino AM. Adjuvant-enhanced antibody and cellular responses to inclusion bodies expressing FhSAP2 correlates with protection of mice to *Fasciola hepatica*. Exp Parasitol 2016;160:31–8.
- [16] Chen S, Sandford S, Kirman J, Rehm BHA. Design of bacterial inclusion bodies as antigen carrier systems. Adv Biosyst 2018;2(11):1800118. <u>https://doi.org/ 10.1002/adbi.v2.1110.1002/adbi.201800118</u>.
- [17] Kęsik M, Jedlina-Panasiuk L, Kozak-Cięszczyk M, Płucienniczak A, Wędrychowicz H. Enteral vaccination of rats against *Fasciola hepatica* using recombinant cysteine proteinase (cathepsin L1). Vaccine 2007;25 (18):3619–28.
- [18] Ogra PL, Faden H, Welliver RC. Vaccination strategies for mucosal immune responses. Clin Microbiol Rev 2001;14(2):430–45.
- [19] O'Brien KL, Wolfson LJ, Watt JP, Henkle E, Deloria-Knoll M, McCall N, et al. Burden of disease caused by *Streptococcus pneumoniae* in children younger than 5 years: global estimates. Lancet (London, England) 2009;374 (9693):893–902.
- [20] Ferreira-Coimbra J, Sarda C, Rello J. Burden of community-acquired pneumonia and unmet clinical needs. Adv Ther 2020;37(4):1302–18.
- [21] Balsells E, Guillot L, Nair H, Kyaw MH, Borrow R. Serotype distribution of Streptococcus pneumoniae causing invasive disease in children in the post-PCV era: A systematic review and meta-analysis. PLoS ONE 2017;12(5):e0177113. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0177113.
- [22] Miller E, Andrews NJ, Waight PA, Slack MPE, George RC. Herd immunity and serotype replacement 4 years after seven-valent pneumococcal conjugate vaccination in England and Wales: an observational cohort study. Lancet Infect Dis 2011;11(10):760–8.
- [23] Pichichero ME. Pneumococcal whole-cell and protein-based vaccines: changing the paradigm. Expert Rev Vaccines 2017;16(12):1181–90.
- [24] Malley R, Anderson PW. Serotype-independent pneumococcal experimental vaccines that induce cellular as well as humoral immunity. PNAS 2012;109 (10):3623–7.
- [25] Dudukina E, de Smit L, Verhagen GJA, van de Ende A, Marimón JM, Bajanca-Lavado P, et al. Antibody binding and complement-mediated killing of invasive Haemophilus influenzae Isolates from Spain, Portugal, and the Netherlands. Infect Immun 2020;88(10). <u>https://doi.org/10.1128/IAI.00454-20</u>.
- [26] Kuipers K, Daleke-Schermerhorn MH, Jong WSP, ten Hagen-Jongman CM, van Opzeeland F, Simonetti E, et al. *Salmonella* outer membrane vesicles displaying high densities of pneumococcal antigen at the surface offer protection against colonization. Vaccine 2015;33(17):2022–9.
- [27] Tamborrini M, Geib N, Marrero-Nodarse A, Jud M, Hauser J, Aho C, et al. A synthetic virus-like particle streptococcal vaccine candidate using B-cell epitopes from the proline-rich region of pneumococcal surface protein A. Vaccines (Basel) 2015;3(4):850–74.
- [28] Wang D, Lu J, Yu J, Hou H, Leenhouts K, Van Roosmalen ML, et al. A novel PspA protein vaccine intranasal delivered by bacterium-like particles provides broad protection against pneumococcal pneumonia in mice. Immunol Invest 2018;47(4):403–15.
- [29] Kuipers K, Jong WSP, van der Gaast-de Jongh CE, Houben D, van Opzeeland F, Simonetti E, et al. Th17-mediated cross protection against pneumococcal

carriage by vaccination with a variable antigen. Infect Immun 2017;85(10). https://doi.org/10.1128/IAI.00281-17.

- [30] Kuipers K, Diavatopoulos DA, van Opzeeland F, Simonetti E, van den Kieboom CH, Kerstholt M, et al. Antigen-independent restriction of pneumococcal density by mucosal adjuvant cholera toxin subunit B. J Infect Dis 2016;214 (10):1588–96.
- [31] Chiavolini D, Memmi G, Maggi T, Iannelli F, Pozzi G, Oggioni MR. The three extra-cellular zinc metalloproteinases of *Streptococcus pneumoniae* have a different impact on virulence in mice. BMC Microbiol 2003;3:14.
- [32] Ritchie ND, Ritchie R, Bayes HK, Mitchell TJ, Evans TJ, Tuomanen EI. IL-17 can be protective or deleterious in murine pneumococcal pneumonia. PLoS Pathog 2018;14(5):e1007099. <u>https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.ppat.1007099</u>.
- [33] Jensen KM, Melchjorsen J, Dagnaes-Hansen F, Sørensen UBS, Laursen RR, Østergaard L, et al. Timing of Toll-like receptor 9 agonist administration in pneumococcal vaccination impacts both humoral and cellular immune responses as well as nasopharyngeal colonization in mice. Infect Immun 2012;80(5):1744–52.
- [34] Reglinski M, Ercoli G, Plumptre C, Kay E, Petersen FC, Paton JC, et al. A recombinant conjugated pneumococcal vaccine that protects against murine infections with a similar efficacy to Prevnar-13. npj Vaccines 2018;3(1). https://doi.org/10.1038/s41541-018-0090-4.
- [35] Hall-Stoodley L, Nistico L, Sambanthamoorthy K, Dice B, Nguyen D, Mershon WJ, et al. Characterization of biofilm matrix, degradation by DNase treatment and evidence of capsule downregulation in *Streptococcus pneumoniae* clinical isolates. BMC Microbiol 2008;8(1):173. <u>https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2180-8-173</u>.
- [36] Voß F, Kohler TP, Meyer T, Abdullah MR, van Opzeeland FJ, Saleh M, et al. Intranasal vaccination with lipoproteins confers protection against pneumococcal colonisation. Front Immunol 2018;9:2405-.;9. <u>https://doi.org/ 10.3389/fimmu.2018.02405</u>.
- [37] Ogunniyi AD, Mahdi LK, Trappetti C, Verhoeven N, Mermans D, Van der Hoek MB, et al. Identification of genes that contribute to the pathogenesis of invasive pneumococcal disease by *in vivo* transcriptomic analysis. Infect Immun 2012;80(9):3268–78.
- [38] van Beek LF, Surmann K, van den Berg van Saparoea HB, Houben D, Jong WSP, Hentschker C, et al. Exploring metal availability in the natural niche of *Streptococcus pneumoniae* to discover potential vaccine antigens. Virulence 2020;11(1):1310–28.
- [39] Hermans PWM, Bootsma HJ, Burghout PJ, Østergaard C, Kuipers OP, Bijlsma JJE, et al. New virulence factors of Streptococcus pneumoniae, World Intellectual Property Organization Patent WO2010041938A2; 8th July 2010.
- [40] Bidossi A, Mulas L, Decorosi F, Colomba L, Ricci S, Pozzi G, et al. A functional genomics approach to establish the complement of carbohydrate transporters in *Streptococcus pneumoniae*. PLoS ONE 2012;7(3):e33320. <u>https://doi.org/ 10.1371/journal.pone.0033320</u>.
- [41] Martín-Galiano AJ, Escolano-Martínez MS, Corsini B, Campa AGdl, Yuste J. Immunization with SP_1992 (DiiA) protein of *Streptococcus pneumoniae* reduces nasopharyngeal colonization and protects against invasive disease in mice. Vaccines 2021;9(3):187. <u>https://doi.org/10.3390/vaccines9030187</u>.
- [42] Hua S, de Matos MBC, Metselaar JM, Storm G. Current trends and challenges in the clinical translation of nanoparticulate nanomedicines: pathways for translational development and commercialization. Front Pharmacol 2018;9.
- [43] Czerkinsky C, Anjueie F, McGhee JR, Geoige-Chundy A, Holmgren J, Kieny M-P, et al. Mucosal immunity and tolerance: relevance to vaccine development. Immunol Rev 1999;170(1):197–222.
- [44] Fukuyama Y, King JD, Kataoka K, Kobayashi R, Gilbert RS, Oishi K, et al. Secretory-IgA antibodies play an important role in the immunity to Streptococcus pneumoniae. J Immunol 2010;185(3):1755–62.
- [45] Tostes RO, Rodrigues TC, da Silva JB, Schanoski AS, Oliveira MLS, Miyaji EN, et al. Protection elicited by nasal immunization with recombinant Pneumococcal surface protein A (rPspA) adjuvanted with whole-cell pertussis vaccine (wP) against co-colonization of mice with *Streptococcus* pneumoniae. PLoS ONE 2017;12(1):e0170157. <u>https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0170157</u>.
- [46] Jochems SP, Weiser JN, Malley R, Ferreira DM, Dehio C. The immunological mechanisms that control pneumococcal carriage. PLoS Pathog 2017;13(12): e1006665. <u>https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.ppat.1006665</u>.
- [47] Gause KT, Wheatley AK, Cui J, Yan Y, Kent SJ, Caruso F. Immunological principles guiding the rational design of particles for vaccine delivery. ACS Nano 2017;11(1):54–68.
- [48] Snapper CM. Distinct immunologic properties of soluble versus particulate antigens. Front Immunol 2018;9:598.
- [49] Menou A, Duitman JanWillem, Flajolet P, Sallenave J-M, Mailleux AA, Crestani B. Human airway trypsin-like protease, a serine protease involved in respiratory diseases. Am J Physiol Lung Cell Mol Physiol 2017;312(5):L657–68.
- [50] Neutra MR, Kozlowski PA. Mucosal vaccines: the promise and the challenge. Nat Rev Immunol 2006;6(2):148–58.
- [51] Underhill DM, Goodridge HS. Information processing during phagocytosis. Nat Rev Immunol 2012;12(7):492–502.
- [52] Saxena S, Khan N, Dehinwal R, Kumar A, Sehgal D, Beall B. Conserved surface accessible nucleoside ABC transporter component SP0845 is essential for pneumococcal virulence and confers protection *in vivo*. PLoS ONE 2015;10(2): e0118154. <u>https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0118154</u>.