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1 **First steps towards a vaccine against *Acinetobacter baumannii***

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38 Abstract

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40 *Acinetobacter baumannii* has become an important cause of human infections, most notably in
41 the hospital setting. In addition, the global dissemination of multidrug resistant strains has
42 complicated effective antibiotic therapy of infections produced by this pathogen, necessitating
43 the development of novel treatment and prevention strategies. Active and passive immunization
44 approaches have begun to be explored in experimental animal models as potential alternative
45 therapies for *A. baumannii*. In the present review, we discuss the advantages and disadvantages
46 of each therapeutic strategy with respect to *A. baumannii* infections, and summarize the recent
47 studies that have explored these approaches. The single antigen candidates that have been tested
48 include, the outer membrane protein OmpA, the membrane transporter Ata, the biofilm-
49 associated protein Bap, the K1 capsular polysaccharide and the membrane associated
50 polysaccharide poly-*N*-acetyl- β -(1-6)-glucosamine. Strategies employing multicomponent
51 antigens include inactivated whole cells, outer membrane complexes and outer membrane
52 vesicles. The strengths and limitations of each approach are discussed and the challenges that
53 remain to be addressed for successful *A. baumannii* vaccine development are highlighted.

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56 **Keywords:** *Acinetobacter baumannii*, Vaccine, Passive immunization.

57 INTRODUCTION

58 *Acinetobacter baumannii* is a Gram-negative coccobacillus that has been associated with a number of
59 human infections including pneumonias, bloodstream infections, meningitis, urinary tract infections,
60 and skin and soft tissue infections. The majority of infections produced by *A. baumannii* are hospital
61 acquired, although community acquired infections have been reported [1]. Within the hospital
62 setting,

63 *A. baumannii* has the ability to persist on surfaces within the patient environment for long periods of
64 time, and is thought to be transmitted from patient to patient by contaminated equipment and contact
65 with hospital personnel [2]. Infections caused by this organism have been especially problematic in
66 critically-ill patients in intensive care units, and are associated with increased patient morbidity and
67 mortality [1]. The prevalence of infections caused by *A. baumannii* can vary widely between
68 institutions and geographic locations. However, a recent report from the European Centre for Disease
69 Control and Prevention which included data from over 900 hospitals from 29 countries indicated that *A.*
70 *baumannii* accounted for 3.6% of all hospital acquired infections, 8.7% of all pneumonias/lower
71 respiratory tract infections, and 4.1% of all bloodstream infections [3].

72 The clinical management of infections caused by

73 *A. baumannii* has become increasingly difficult due to the high prevalence of infections caused by
74 multidrug resistant strains. In many cases, these strains are resistant to the majority of clinically-available
75 antibiotics, leaving clinicians with few options that still retain adequate antimicrobial activity against
76 the infecting organism. As an example, the carbapenem class of antibiotics has traditionally been a
77 mainstay of treatment for infections caused by *A. baumannii*. However, the global emergence of strains
78 with resistance to carbapenems over the proceeding two decades has severely compromised the efficacy
79 of this antibiotic class for the treatment of *A. baumannii* infections. This is evidenced by a recent
80 European point prevalence study that included data from 29 countries in which 81.2% of isolates for
81 which susceptibility data were available demonstrated non-susceptibility to carbapenems [3]. This
82 worrisome trend has prompted the increasing use of novel therapeutic approaches, one of which is the
83 reintroduction of colistin for the treatment of infections caused by multidrug resistant gram negative
84 infections. Colistin is an “old” peptide antibiotic that was introduced half a century ago, although its use
85 has not been widespread in recent decades due to concerns regarding nephrotoxicity [4]. More recently,
86 however, colistin has been used increasingly in the treatment of infections for which local epidemi-
87 ology indicates that traditional therapies, such as carbapenems, will not have adequate activity.

88 Unfortunately, strains that acquire resistance in response to treatment with colistin have been described
89 [5-7], making the emergence of pan-drug resistant strains, with resistance to all clinically-used antibi-
90 otics, a reality that has already been reported in sporadic cases [8, 9].

91 In this current context of antibiotic resistant *A. baumannii*, the development of novel treatment and
92 prevention strategies is of interest. While antibiotic stewardship practices and hospital hygiene-based
93 approaches will undoubtedly play a role in combating the appearance of resistant strains, new
94 therapeutics with the ability to prevent and/or treat infections caused by highly resistant strains of *A.*
95 *baumannii* could provide an important alternative to existing treatments, which are increasingly
96 ineffective [10]. Vaccination represents a therapeutic approach that has the potential to reduce patient
97 morbidity and mortality, and at the same time help to prevent the emergence of resistance by
98 decreasing clinicians' dependence on antibiotics for treating infections caused by *A. baumannii*. A
99 handful of preclinical studies have begun to characterize different vaccine candidates in animal models
100 of infection. In general, these vaccines can be divided into two broad categories, vaccines based on
101 single purified bacterial antigens, and vaccines that contain multiple antigens. In this review, we
102 summarize the results that have been obtained from these initial studies, and comment on the
103 remaining challenges that still must be addressed for successful development of a vaccine against *A.*
104 *baumannii*.

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108 **ACTIVE IMMUNIZATION VS. PASSIVE IMMUNIZATION/ANTIBODY-BASED THERAPY**

109 Active immunization, which involves the administration of an antigen that stimulates a protective
110 immune response, and passive immunization/antibody-based therapy, which relies on the
111 administration of antibodies with antibacterial activity, both represent potential novel therapeutic ap-
112 proaches which could be effective for prevention and/or treatment of infections caused by *A.*
113 *baumannii*. Advantages of the active immunization approach are that it is a cost-effective method with
114 a proven track record regarding safety and efficacy. The major drawback of active immunization for
115 preventing infections caused by *A. baumannii* is that patients at risk for infection must be identified
116 with sufficient lead time to allow for the host to mount a protective immune response after
117 immunization. Due to the fact that *A. baumannii* produces predominately nosocomial infections, it may
118 not be possible to vaccinate acute patients admitted urgently with sufficient lead time for achieving
119 protective immunity. In contrast, antibody-based passive immunization has the potential to provide
120 instantaneous protective immunity, thus avoiding the problem of lead time that could occur with active
121 immunization. In addition, antibodies with antibacterial activity could potentially be used for treating
122 established *A. baumannii* infections, either alone or in combination with traditional antibiotic therapy.
123 The drawbacks associated with antibody-based approaches are that they are largely unproven in the
124 clinical setting for bacterial infections, and that they are typically significantly more costly than active
125 immunization approaches. Regardless of the immunization approach that is employed, active
126 vaccination and passive immunization, in many cases, both rely on the identification of an antigen(s)
127 that can induce protective immunity. In the sections below, the antigens that have been tested in
128 preclinical models are presented and their advantages and disadvantages discussed.

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130 **SINGLE ANTIGEN VACCINES**

131 Vaccines based on a single bacterial antigen are attractive because high levels of antigen purity can be
132 obtained, thus avoiding the presence of contaminating bacterial components such as lipopolysaccharide
133 (LPS). In addition, manufacturing and regulatory issues may be less cumbersome for vaccines based on
134 a single, well-defined bacterial component (Table 1). A potential disadvantage of a vaccine based on a
135 single antigen includes the possibility that not all circulating strains express the chosen antigen, likely
136 resulting in the ineffectiveness of the vaccine against such a strain. It is also possible that bacteria may

137 adapt to the selective pressure produced by an immune response generated by immunization through
138 downregulation of the antigen targeted by the vaccine. In this scenario, the downregulation of a single
139 antigen may be more readily achieved than the downregulation of several targeted antigens. Similarly,
140 the targeting of a single antigen may result in the selection and expansion of a variant that was a
141 minority member of the bacterial population and does not possess the epitope to which the vaccine-
142 induced antibodies are directed. The single antigen vaccines that have been studied for *A. baumannii*
143 include three outer membrane proteins, outer membrane protein A (OmpA), the biofilm associated
144 protein (Bap) and a surface autotransporter (Ata), and the surface polysaccharide poly-*N*-acetyl- β -(1-
145 6)- glucosamine (PNAG) and the capsular polysaccharide.

146 *Acinetobacter baumannii* OmpA is a transmembrane protein that shares sequence and structural
147 homology with the OmpA superfamily of proteins, which are highly conserved among Gram-negative
148 bacteria [11]. OmpA has been implicated in a number of virulence traits expressed by *A. baumannii*
149 including induction of host cell apoptosis, adherence, biofilm formation and surface motility [12-14].
150 OmpA may also play a role in bacterial survival and/or dissemination during infection given data
151 showing that blood bacterial loads in mice with *A. baumannii* pneumonia were lower in mice
152 infected with an *ompA* mutant compared to the wild type strain [13]. Lou *et al.* identified OmpA as a
153 target of the humoral immune response produced in mice during sublethal intravenous infection with *A.*
154 *baumannii* [15]. Based on these findings, purified recombinant OmpA was combined with an
155 aluminium hydroxide adjuvant and used for immunization. Vaccination stimulated high levels of
156 OmpA-specific antibodies and provided partial protection from intravenous infection in a diabetic
157 mouse model. Vaccination also resulted in a 10-fold reduction in tissue bacterial loads compared to
158 control mice. Importantly, anti-OmpA antibodies were shown to enhance opsonophagocytic killing of
159 *A. baumannii* *in vitro*, and were able to mediate passive protection in mice. OmpA is known to be a
160 predominant component of the bacterial outer membrane, and sequence analysis has shown that it is
161 highly conserved between *A. baumannii* strains [15], supporting the use of this antigen for vaccine
162 development.

163 Bap is an 854 kDa surface exposed protein that is involved in biofilm formation [16]. Fattahian *et al.*
164 evaluated a 371 amino acid region of Bap that had previously been predicted to be a conserved
165 functional motif in the native protein as a vaccine antigen [17]. Three administrations of the Bap
166 subunit in combination with Freund's complete and incomplete adjuvants produced antigen-specific
167 antibodies that were able to recognize intact bacterial cells in a whole cell ELISA. Immunized mice had
168 lower bacterial loads in spleen and liver 18 hours after intraperitoneal infection, and showed increased
169 survival compared to unimmunized controls. An important consideration for a vaccine based on Bap is
170 the expression of this protein in circulating clinical strains of *A. baumannii*, since it has been shown that
171 not all strains produce biofilm [18], and it is unknown if strains express Bap independent of whether or
172 not biofilm is produced.

173 The *A. baumannii* Ata protein is a surface-exposed, trimeric autotransporter that has been shown to
174 participate in biofilm formation and the adhesion of *A. baumannii* cells to host extracellular and
175 basement membrane proteins such as collagen type IV [19]. Ata also appears to play a role in
176 pathogenesis as mice infected with wild type *A. baumannii* showed decreased survival compared to
177 mice infected with an isogenic mutant strain lacking Ata expression in an intraperitoneal model of
178 infection. Rabbit antisera to Ata were able to block the binding of *A. baumannii* to immobilized
179 collagen type IV and promote the opsonophagocytic killing and complement-dependent bactericidal
180 killing of *A. baumannii* strains *in vitro*, including multidrug resistant clinical isolates [20]. Passive
181 immunization of mice with Ata antisera resulted in reduced lung bacterial loads after intranasal infec-
182 tion compared to control mice receiving non-immune serum, demonstrating that antibodies against Ata
183 have antibacterial activity *in vivo*. It remains to be seen if the antibacterial activity mediated by Ata
184 antibodies is sufficient for reducing post-infection mortality in animal models that evaluate survival. As
185 with other antigens, the presence and expression of Ata in circulating strains of *A. baumannii* is a
186 critical issue. Bentancor *et al.* used PCR to demonstrate that the *ata* gene was present in 44/75 (58.6%)
187 of isolates from different geographic locations, and that the levels of surface expression of Ata in PCR-

188 positive isolates showed considerable variation, indicating that the presence and expression of Ata
189 varies between clinical strains.

190 The surface-associated polysaccharide PNAG is produced by a variety of Gram-positive and Gram-
191 negative bacterial pathogens and consists of linked subunits of N-acetyl- D-glucosamine [21, 22]. In *A.*
192 *baumannii*, PNAG is synthesized by the products of the *pgaABCD* genes, as a mutant lacking *pgaABC*
193 genes did not produce PNAG [23]. PNAG has been shown to play a role in biofilm formation in *A.*
194 *baumannii*. Bentancor *et al.* raised rabbit antisera against a synthetic nonameric oligonucleotide to
195 evaluate the ability of PNAG-specific antibodies to mediate bacterial killing and protection from
196 infection [24]. The antisera were able to promote the opsonophagocytic killing of a PNAG-producing
197 strain, but not its isogenic mutant lacking the *pgaABC* genes. In addition, the antisera were able to
198 promote opsonophagocytosis of four multidrug resistant clinical isolates. In animal models of
199 pneumonia and bacteremia, passive immunization with the anti-PNAG sera resulted in lower bacterial
200 loads in lung and blood, respectively. Protection studies evaluating survival after administration of
201 PNAG antisera were not reported. The presence of the *pgaABCD* locus in a collection of 30 multidrug
202 resistant clinical isolates was evaluated by PCR, and showed that all 30 produced amplification
203 products corresponding to the predicted size [23]. An immunoblot assay demonstrated that of these 30
204 strains, 14 showed high levels of PNAG expression, 14 showed low levels of expression, and 2
205 demonstrated no PNAG expression. The use of PNAG as a vaccine antigen is supported by studies with
206 other PNAG-expressing bacterial species that have shown encouraging results in preclinical models
207 [25, 26].

208 The *A. baumannii* capsular polysaccharide has been shown to play a role in bacterial growth and
209 survival in human ascites fluid, human serum and a rat soft tissue model of infection [27]. Based on
210 these findings, and the fact that the capsular polysaccharide is surface exposed and that bacterial
211 capsules have formed the basis for vaccines against a number of pathogens [28-30], Russo *et al.*
212 characterized a monoclonal antibody directed against the K1 capsular polysaccharide of *A. baumannii*
213 in passive immunization studies [31]. Their results showed that the monoclonal antibody could
214 promote neutrophil-mediated bactericidal activity *in vitro* and reduce post-infection bacterial loads in a
215 rat soft tissue model of infection. Using an immunoassay, the monoclonal antibody reacted with 13 of
216 100 (13%) strains of *A. baumannii* from different geographic locations and isolated from different body
217 sites or environmental sources. Clearly in the case of the capsular polysaccharide more work is
218 necessary in order to characterize the different capsular serotypes in circulating strains in order to
219 facilitate broad coverage of a potential vaccine or antibody-based therapy.

220 221 **VACCINES CONTAINING MULTIPLE BACTERIAL ANTIGENS**

222 Vaccines containing multiple bacterial components, such as whole cells or membrane complexes, have
223 the advantage of potentially producing an immune response against multiple antigens. This may result
224 in increased vaccine coverage of strains within a bacterial species compared to vaccines based on
225 single antigens given that antigen expression can vary widely between strains. Potential disadvantages
226 of these types of vaccines include difficulties associated with achieving consistent levels of all vaccine
227 components between production lots, and the presence of bacterial components that could produce
228 unwanted side effects such as LPS. Multi-antigen vaccines against *A. baumannii* that have been re-
229 ported to date include a vaccine based on outer membrane complexes, an inactivated whole cell
230 vaccine and a vaccine consisting of outer membrane vesicles (OMVs).

231 Outer membrane complexes are prepared by isolating whole bacterial membranes and then solubilizing
232 the inner membrane component using a detergent before subsequent removal. Proteomic analysis of
233 outer membrane complexes prepared from the *A. baumannii* ATCC 19606 strain grown in laboratory
234 media identified 61 protein components, 41 of which were predicted to be located on the cell surface
235 [32]. Immunization of mice with the outer membrane complexes induced antibodies against multiple
236 bacterial outer membrane proteins that were able to recognize surface proteins from multiple clinical

237 isolates. Immunized mice infected with *A. baumannii* using an intraperitoneal sepsis model
238 demonstrated dramatically reduced post-infection tissue bacterial loads and lower serum levels of the
239 pro-inflammatory cytokines IL-6, IL-1 β and TNF- α compared to unimmunized controls. Vaccinated
240 mice also showed increased survival after infection, including after infection with a pandrug resistant
241 clinical isolate. Importantly, treatment of previously infected mice with antisera raised against outer
242 membrane complexes 1 hour after infection was able to therapeutically rescue mice from infection.
243 These results indicate that a mixture of outer membrane components can induce a potent immune
244 response. However, the use of outer membrane complexes as a vaccine is limited by the difficult nature
245 of standardizing the levels of the multiple components that are present in the vaccine preparation.

246 Vaccines based on whole bacterial cells have the advantage of potentially inducing a response against
247 multiple surface antigens in their native conformation. An inactivated whole cell vaccine prepared by
248 formalin inactivation of the ATCC 19606 strain was highly immunogenic and produced antibodies
249 against multiple bacterial outer membrane proteins [33]. Immunized mice showed reduced bacterial
250 loads and serum cytokine levels compared to control mice, and increased survival after infection with
251 the ATCC 19606 strain and two clinical isolates. While these results are promising, concerns about
252 using whole cells due to the high levels of LPS present a crucial limitation.

253 OMVs are vesicles produced from the bacterial outer membrane that are actively produced by
254 numerous Gram- negative bacteria [34]. They are typically 20-200 nm in size and consist of multiple
255 bacterial components including periplasmic and outer membrane proteins, as well as LPS. *A. baumannii*
256 OMVs have been shown to contain a number of potential virulence factors and immune modulating
257 proteins [35]. In vaccination studies, *A. baumannii* OMVs were highly immunogenic, producing
258 antibodies against multiple bacterial outer membrane proteins [36]. Mice vaccinated with OMVs had
259 reduced post-infection tissue bacterial loads and increased survival after intraperitoneal infection com-
260 pared to control mice. Similar to whole cell vaccines, vaccines based on OMVs have the advantage of
261 presenting multiple antigens in their native form. Unfortunately, OMVs, like whole cells, have the
262 limitation of containing high levels of LPS. OMVs that have been detergent extracted to remove LPS, or
263 OMVs isolated from strains genetically modified to lack LPS have been employed as vaccines for other
264 bacterial species [37], raising the possibility that this approach may hold promise for *A. baumannii*
265 OMVs as well.

266

267 REMAINING CHALLENGES

268 The studies summarized above demonstrate the proof of concept that protective immunity can be
269 achieved against *A. baumannii* through both active and passive immunization. However there is clearly
270 a great deal of further work that must be performed before these therapies can begin to be considered
271 as viable alternative therapies for treating and preventing infections caused by this pathogen. An ideal
272 antigen would be present on the cell surface, highly conserved between strains within the species, and
273 be highly expressed during infection. Although some of the candidates described above hold promise,
274 the continued identification of antigens that meet such criteria is warranted. An additional aspect that
275 must be clarified is the definition of the correlates of protective immunity for *A. baumannii*. While
276 passive immunization experiments indicate that antibodies alone are sufficient for providing protection
277 against infection, the role of the cell-mediated immune response has not been characterized. The
278 findings that the cell-mediated immune response may play a role in controlling infections caused by
279 *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, a bacterium that is phylogenetically related to *A. baumannii* and produces
280 similar types of infections, supports the idea that this aspect of the immune response may have
281 importance [38, 39]. Finally, although a number of animal models of infection by *A. baumannii* have
282 been developed [1], in some cases these models are not ideal for characterizing the protective capacity
283 of vaccines. Due to the low virulence of *A. baumannii* in mice, some models employ neutropenic mice
284 or virulence enhancing agents (e.g. porcine mucin) in order to achieve mortality, although a recent
285 study has identified a strain that produces lethal infection without manipulation [40]. These limitations
286 demonstrate the importance of the further development of additional models that more accurately
287 reflect human infection with *A. baumannii* (i.e. models that permit bacterial growth and do not

288 provoke a cytokine “storm” in order to produce mortality). Although further studies are required, the
289 continued development of active and passive immunization strategies for *A. baumannii* is of interest
290 given their potential for reducing the morbidity and mortality produced by this drug resistant pathogen.

291 **CONFLICT OF INTEREST**

292 MJM owns stock in and act as scientific advisors for Vaxdyn, S.L., a biotechnology company
293 developing vaccines for multidrug resistant bacteria, including *A. baumannii*. The other authors declare
294 no potential conflicts of interest.

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296
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306 **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

307

- Ata = *Acinetobacter* trimeric
autotransporter
- Bap = Biofilm-associated protein
- ELISA = Enzyme-linked immunosorbant
assay
- LPS = Lipopolysaccharide
- OmpA = Outer membrane protein A
- OMV = Outer membrane vesicles
- PNAG = poly-*N*-acetyl- β -(1-6)-
glucosamine

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Table 1. Advantages and disadvantage of single and multiple antigen vaccine strategies.

Vaccine Type	Advantages	Disadvantages
Single antigen vaccines	Well-defined composition, low levels of reactogenic impurities, existence of standardized methods for industrial production	Concerns regarding expression of the antigen in all strains, adaptation to immune pressure via antigen down-regulation more feasible, purification process can alter native antigen conformation
Multicomponent vaccines	Higher stain coverage due to targeting of multiple antigens, reduced risk of adaptation due to immune pressure, antigens can be maintained in their native conformation	Difficult to standardize all vaccine components between production lots, presence of impurities that could produce side effects (e.g. LPS)

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