

1 The intriguing interaction of *Escherichia coli* with the host environment and innovative  
2 strategies to interfere with colonization: A summary of the 2019 *E. coli* and the Mucosal  
3 Immune System meeting.

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26 **Abstract**

27 The 3<sup>rd</sup> *E. coli* and the Mucosal Immune System (ECMIS) meeting was held at Ghent  
28 University in Belgium from June 2-5, 2019. It brought together an international group of  
29 scientists interested in mechanisms of colonization, host response, and vaccine development.  
30 ECMIS distinguishes itself from related meetings on these enteropathogens by providing a  
31 greater emphasis on animal health and disease, and covering a broad range of pathotypes  
32 including enterohemorrhagic, enteropathogenic, enterotoxigenic, enteroaggregative, and  
33 extraintestinal pathogenic *E. coli*. As it is well-established that the genus *Shigella* represents  
34 a subspecies of *E. coli*, these organisms along with related enteroinvasive *E. coli* are also  
35 included. In addition, *Tannerella forsythia*, a periodontal pathogen, was presented as an  
36 example of a pathogen which uses its surface glycans for mucosal interaction. This review  
37 summarizes several highlights from the 2019 meeting and major advances to our  
38 understanding of the biology of these pathogens and their impact on the host.

39

40

## 41 Introduction

42

43 The gut microbiome is a diverse community of more than 100 trillion microorganisms which  
44 influence mucosal and systemic immune functions via production of metabolites, virulence  
45 factors and through interactions with other members of the microbiota. Most bacteria in the  
46 gut belong to one of eight phyla, with the phylum *Proteobacteria* accounting for ca. 2.1% of  
47 the population. Among these, the majority classify as *Enterobacteriaceae*, with *Escherichia*  
48 *coli* by far the most abundant species (1). A recent phylogenetic study of human-derived *E.*  
49 *coli* suggested a highly dynamic nature with turnover in the order of months to years (2). The  
50 authors suggest, based on data of Faith *et al* (3), that this might also be the case for the rest of  
51 the microbiome. Thus, the potential for clonal turnover to change gut function is great.  
52 Understanding how this might influence the host or how host factors affect the microbiome is  
53 challenging.

54 The conference on *E. coli* and the Mucosal Immune System in 2019 (ECMIS-2019)  
55 was the 3<sup>rd</sup> conference in a series of conferences of which the first one was held in 2011,  
56 exactly 100 years after the death of Theodor Escherich. The meetings are organized to bring  
57 together basic scientists and clinicians working on *E. coli* and the mucosal immune system in  
58 particular focusing on the interaction of these intriguing pathogens with the mucosal  
59 epithelium, and to exchange knowledge on the pathogenicity of different types of *E. coli* over  
60 species. Whereas the first meeting in 2011 focused on differences between infections in  
61 different species, the second meeting in 2015 rather addressed mechanisms of different *E. coli*  
62 pathogens independent of species. This 3<sup>rd</sup> conference addressed some new insights in the  
63 interactions between host, pathogen and its environment and how these interactions steer host  
64 and/or pathogen. Furthermore, several examples were presented of how this interaction can be

65 exploited to control *E. coli* infections. More information on this last conference can also be  
66 found at [www.ecmis.ugent.be](http://www.ecmis.ugent.be)

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68

69 **The mucosal immune system and modulation of the host by *E. coli***

70 The main function of the immune system is to protect the host from pathogens. The  
71 mammalian gut harbors large numbers of diverse microbes, which establish a strong  
72 relationship with the immune system, ensuring host homeostasis and consequently supporting  
73 health. The microbes have strong potential to generate immunoglobulin A (IgA), the most  
74 abundantly produced antibody isotype, which promotes maintenance of non-invasive  
75 commensal bacteria, immune tolerance, and neutralization of invasive pathogens through  
76 multiple mechanisms. Supporting evidence for physiologic relevance comes from studies in  
77 patients with selective IgA deficiency, who exhibit an increased susceptibility to autoimmune  
78 diseases (4). IgA synthesis occurs at different gut-associated lymphoid tissues (GALT), either  
79 in organized tissues such as Peyer's patches and mesenteric lymph nodes, or by dispersed B  
80 cells in the lamina propria in isolated lymphoid follicles. Diversification of the IgA repertoire,  
81 primarily via T cell-dependent pathways, is required to maintain gut homeostasis and ensure  
82 mucosal defense. Dr. Meryem Aloulou (Center for Pathophysiology of Toulouse Purpan)  
83 began the session "Modulation of the Host", by describing the crucial role of follicular T cells  
84 to support B cell maturation in germinal centers (GC), where positive and negative regulatory  
85 roles are classically assigned to T follicular helper (Tfh) and regulatory (Tfr) cells,  
86 respectively (5). GCs represent critical sites in which B cell responses are amplified and  
87 refined in specificity and isotype, leading to the generation of high-affinity memory B cells  
88 and long-lived plasma cells. Tfh cells regulate GC B cells and lead to their maturation  
89 through somatic hypermutation (SHM) and class switch recombination (CSR), brought about

90 by the expression of activation-induced cytidine deaminase (AID). Interestingly, *AIDG23S*  
91 mice carrying a knocked-in mutation of the *AID* gene, which causes specific defects in SHM,  
92 developed hyperplasia of GCs in GALTs, dysbiosis of the microbiota and more susceptibility  
93 to infection, indicating that SHM is essential in maintaining intestinal homeostasis and  
94 mucosal defense (6). GC Tfh cells are thought to be the positive regulators of this process,  
95 while Tfr cells, a subset of Foxp3<sup>+</sup> regulatory T (Treg) cells, are negative regulators. Gut Treg  
96 cells, however, in addition to suppressing inflammation and preserving immune tolerance, are  
97 also known to promote GC and IgA responses by generating GC T cells, ultimately resulting  
98 in the diversification of gut microbiota (7, 8). Gut Treg depletion, in fact, causes a rapid loss  
99 of specific IgA responses in the intestine. Overall, Tfh and Treg cells function not so much in  
100 opposition but in a mutualistic relationship to regulate the GC reaction in the gut, maintain a  
101 diverse and healthy gut microbiota, and foster immune homeostasis. The exact mechanisms  
102 by which Treg and Tfh cells cooperation achieve these homeostatic and symbiotic functions  
103 are still poorly understood. Therefore, understanding the mechanism of these processes and  
104 their regulation will facilitate the development of new strategies for prevention or treatment of  
105 gut disorders.

106 Another mechanism to modulate the host immune response is used by *Shigella*. It is  
107 well known that several rounds of infection with *Shigella* are needed to prime antibody  
108 responses, which are of short duration. Dr. Katja Brunner (Institut Pasteur) of the group led  
109 by Dr. Armelle Phalipon presented research providing insights into antibody suppression.  
110 *Shigella* can induce B cell death by invading the lymphocytes, and, as demonstrated using  
111 different mutants, by interaction of the type three secretion system (T3SS) needle tip adhesin  
112 IpaD with TLR2 on B cells. For apoptosis to occur bacterial co-signals are required which  
113 sensitize the B cells to apoptosis and upregulate TLR2 (9). Another mechanism was  
114 demonstrated for *in vitro* activated human blood B- and CD4<sup>+</sup> T-, and CD8<sup>+</sup> T-lymphocytes,

115 but also B- and T-lymphocytes residing in the colonic mucosa. *Shigella* can inject these cells  
116 via the type III secretion system without invading them (10). T cell activation enhances  
117 expression of GM1 gangliosides, which interact with the O-antigen-moiety of *Shigella*  
118 lipopolysaccharide, making these activated T cells more susceptible for T3SS-mediated  
119 injection (11). So far, the only outcomes of this direct targeting of activated T cells are the  
120 impairment of CD4+ T cell dynamics and migration, mediated by the T3SS effector IpgD.

121 In the third presentation of this session, Dr. James Fleckenstein (Washington  
122 University School of Medicine), described new virulence factors from human ETEC strains,  
123 namely EtpA and EatA (reviewed in 13). EtpA is an extracellular adhesin, while EatA is a  
124 member of the serine protease autotransporter of the *Enterobacteriaceae* family and acts as a  
125 mucinase to degrade host MUC2. Degradation enhances epithelial access and ETEC  
126 adhesion, including that mediated the EtpA-mediated bridging of flagella with *N*-  
127 acetylgalactosamine (GalNAc) exposed on the surface of epithelial cells. Affinity is highest  
128 for terminal GalNAc of blood group A, which might explain the more severe disease in  
129 humans with this blood group (14).

130 Type 1 fimbriae (F1) also can play a role in ETEC interaction with the mucosa (15).  
131 Lastly, an excellent example of the host-pathogen interaction mediated by by ETEC heat-  
132 labile toxin (LT) was presented. In this model, initial delivery of LT triggers upregulation  
133 expression of CEACAM6 molecules on intestinal epithelial cells, which then serve as critical  
134 receptors for FimH, the tip adhesin of F1. While it has been suggested that ETEC use their  
135 toxins to propel organisms back into the environment, these studies suggest a more  
136 sophisticated scenario where LT is exploited to enhance a transient epithelial niche on small  
137 intestinal enterocytes.

138

139 **Modulation of *E. coli* by the host**

140 It has become increasingly evident that host factors present in the gastrointestinal tract impact  
141 virulence and growth of pathogenic bacteria. In the intestines intrinsic factors of different  
142 origin are sensed by invading pathogens and used to modulate gene and protein expression. In  
143 the session “Modulation of *E. coli* by the Host” Drs. Åsa Sjöling (Karolinska Institute),  
144 Stephanie Schüller (University of East Anglia), and Guoqiang Zhu (Yangzhou University)  
145 presented recent data on how pathogenic *E. coli* respond to different host factors.

146 The first talk by Dr. Sjöling described the ETEC response to bile stress encountered in  
147 the gastrointestinal tract. The bile components secreted by the gallbladder are reabsorbed by  
148 epithelial cells through the jejunum and ileum. Remaining bile acids may be converted to  
149 secondary bile acids by resident microbiota, mainly in the large intestine. Regulation of  
150 virulence and biofilm formation in response to specific concentrations of bile has been  
151 reported in a number of enteropathogenic bacteria (16, 17).

152 Human ETEC isolates expressing the colonization factors CS5 and CS6 belong to a  
153 globally spread and highly virulent lineage (18). Isolates of this lineage respond specifically  
154 to the bile salt sodium glycocholate (NaGCH), which not only induces specific expression of  
155 colonization factor CS5 (16, 19), but also an entire regulon of virulence factors located on a  
156 virulence plasmid as well as on the chromosome. Dr. Sjöling explained how this induction is  
157 governed by the transcription factor CsvR (Coli surface virulence factor regulator) located  
158 upstream of the plasmid-encoded CS5-operon. CsvR also regulates motility by down-  
159 regulation of flagellar operons located on the chromosome. Altogether the results indicate that  
160 bile salt sensing induces a large virulence regulon, controlling the initial states of attachment  
161 to the host. Oxygen regulation is an important factor in the gut since pathogenic species in the  
162 gastrointestinal (GI) tract are often facultative anaerobes that might thrive in presence of  
163 higher levels of oxygen. Oxygen levels decrease through the GI tract and a radial gradient is  
164 also present with oxygen levels diffusing from the intestinal mucosa towards the anaerobic

165 gut lumen (20). Dr. Schüller introduced a microaerobic diffusion Chamber system to  
166 determine the influence of oxygen and human colonic epithelium on virulence gene  
167 expression in enteroaggregative *E. coli* (EAEC). While oxygen induced expression of the  
168 transcription factor AggR and its dependent adhesion factors AAF and dispersin, physical  
169 contact with host cells triggered subsequent expression of the mucinase Pic and the cytotoxins  
170 HlyE and Pet. Interestingly, host cell-mediated virulence gene induction occurred  
171 independently of the master regulator AggR (21, 22).

172 Bacteria use quorum sensing to signal a coordinated gene expression within a bacterial  
173 population. The acyl-homoserine-lactones (AHL) are produced and sensed by Gram-negative  
174 species to communicate and recent findings indicate that homologues are secreted by  
175 eukaryotic cells thereby mediating interkingdom signaling. Dr. Zhu reported findings that  
176 exogenous and endogenously produced AHL activate acid resistance regulons and stress  
177 responses in enterohemorrhagic *E. coli* (EHEC) thereby facilitating survival in low pH  
178 environments.

179 An interesting connection was revealed in this session, contrasting intestinal  
180 colonization strategies used by different *E. coli* pathotypes. AggR and CsrR are both  
181 members of the AraC-family of transcriptional regulators and activate adherence by distinct  
182 pathogens in response to different environmental cues. Interestingly, AggR activates dispersin  
183 in EAEC, and CsrR (23) the dispersin-like protein CexE in ETEC, as well as the putative  
184 secretion systems encoded by the *aatPABCD* operon. Hence, *E. coli* as well as other  
185 enteropathogens share conserved transcription factors and responses to host stimuli.  
186 Interestingly, both AHL and bile sensing in EHEC have an opposite effect on colonization by  
187 downregulating the locus of enterocyte effacement (LEE) (24, 25). EHEC as well as EAEC  
188 primarily colonize colonic epithelium where bile salt concentrations are lower than in the  
189 proximal small intestine, where ETEC is preferentially found. Differences in regulatory

190 circuits may explain the spatial preferences. In summary, increased knowledge of the most  
191 important factors sensed at the site of infection might reveal novel targets to limit  
192 enteropathogenic disease.

193

194 **Modulation of *E. coli* by the environment.**

195 The bacterial pathogenesis field appreciates that the study of virulence mechanisms and gene  
196 expression needs to consider impacts of other microorganisms and metabolites in the  
197 environment. Enterohaemorrhagic *E. coli* (EHEC) O157:H7 is a serious foodborne pathogen  
198 most commonly transmitted to humans through contaminated beef and fresh produce. Strains  
199 of O157:H7 differ in their carriage of virulence genes, however human disease requires the  
200 T3SS-associated gene for intimin (*eae*), and one or more genes encoding for Stx1 and/or  
201 Stx2, the two isoforms of Shiga toxin (Stx). A number of publications describe mechanisms  
202 by which gut commensals regulate *eae*. This session explored how the gut microbiome  
203 influences the expression and toxicity of Stx.

204 As Dr. Frederic Auvray (Institut de Recherche en Santé Digestive) detailed in his talk,  
205 “Overview of Stx phages diversity and their role in virulence and evolution of *Escherichia*  
206 *coli*”, genes for Stx are encoded within lambdoid bacteriophages. These phages are  
207 genetically diverse, and capable of jumping to other *E. coli* including other pathogenic  
208 variants resulting in newly appreciated “hybrid” types. Excision may also lead to loss of  
209 prophage from O157:H7 and other Shiga toxin-producing *E. coli* (STEC), which can  
210 complicate interpretation of diagnostic assays. Induction of the phage is known to increase  
211 Stx production, and often this is achieved in the laboratory through addition of DNA  
212 damaging agents such as mitomycin C, fluoroquinolones or hydrogen peroxide.

213 Dr. Edward Dudley (The Pennsylvania State University) described in the talk  
214 “Commensal *E. coli* that enhance toxin production by *E. coli* O157:H7” known mechanisms

215 by which non-O157:H7 *E. coli* can enhance virulence potential. This talk presented a newly  
216 discovered mechanism (26), involving a previously unknown microcin produced by a strain  
217 designated 0.1229. Co-culture of O157:H7 with 0.1229 leads to a *recA*-dependent  
218 enhancement of Stx production *in vitro*. Co-inoculated germ-free mice also exhibited more  
219 serious signs of disease than mice inoculated with either *E. coli* alone. These data demonstrate  
220 that non-Stx producing *E. coli* that naturally colonize the intestines may accelerate the course  
221 of disease.

222 To the contrary, Dr. Mononmani Soundararajan (Institute for Molecular Infection  
223 Biology) demonstrated that some *E. coli* dampen toxin production in the talk “Inactivation of  
224 *stx*-phages by probiotic *E. coli* strain Nissle 1917”. Nissle 1917 (EcN) is a well-established  
225 probiotic strain and is the active component of the commercial product sold under the name  
226 Mutaflor. This study demonstrated that EcN, when incubated with an *stx*-converting  
227 bacteriophage, leads to a 2-log inactivation as measured by phage plaque assays. While the  
228 exact mechanism is unclear, heat-killed EcN exhibited similar activity, while treatment with  
229 Proteinase K abolished it, suggesting heat-stable protein(s) are responsible. The laboratory  
230 strain *E. coli* K-12, when co-cultured with O157:H7, increased Stx production, and previous  
231 work of others has shown that this mechanism involves *stx*-converting phage infection of the  
232 non-pathogenic strain. This talk demonstrated that in a triculture, where O157:H7, EcN, and  
233 K-12 are grown together, both Stx- and phage levels are reduced compared to the co-culture  
234 lacking EcN. These data demonstrate that probiotics including EcN may decrease the severity  
235 of O157:H7 disease.

236 Lastly, Dr. Anne Kijewski (Norwegian Institute of Life Sciences) provided evidence  
237 that microbial metabolites, specifically vitamin K, may play a role in modulating virulence of  
238 O157:H7. While vitamin K naturally occurs within the intestinal tract of humans, individual  
239 differences in concentration occur due to diet, host factors, and microbial communities

240 present. Through investigating different chemical forms of vitamin K, it was discovered that  
241 menadione and menadione bisulfite both inhibited the growth of *E. coli* O157:H7 strain  
242 EDL933 in laboratory broth. Addition of these compounds also decreased Stx toxin  
243 production and gene transcription, and decreased *stx*-converting phage levels, when bacteria  
244 were grown in the presence of hydrogen peroxide or ciprofloxacin. This treatment also  
245 increased O157:H7 survival, collectively suggesting these vitamin K derivatives dampen  
246 phage induction normally resulting from DNA damaging agents. Several DNA damaging  
247 agents including ciprofloxacin and mitomycin C induce cellular filamentation of O157:H7,  
248 and this phenotype was also inhibited by menadione and menadione sodium bisulfate.

249 Collectively, the talks in this session provided a new appreciation of how the intestinal  
250 environment, especially other *E. coli* strains, may direct the severity of disease outcome  
251 during an O157:H7 infection. Future work is needed to understand whether results also apply  
252 to non-O157 STEC, which are collectively a more common cause of human illness than  
253 O157:H7. Additionally, previous studies demonstrated that extracts from fecal bacteria can  
254 reduce Stx production, and the work presented on vitamin K may provide us with insights  
255 into the possible mechanism(s) behind such observations.

256

### 257 **A role of bacterial cell surface glycoproteins in colonization of host cells**

258 Cell surface-associated glycosylation systems translate into a molecular barcode that is  
259 pivotal to the pathogenicity of several bacteria, mediating distinct bacteria-host interactions  
260 and increasing bacterial fitness in their niche (27). Thus, for understanding of the  
261 pathogenesis of bacterial infections, insight into glyco-compound biosynthesis is  
262 instrumental. However, due their secondary gene product-nature this is a challenging  
263 endeavour (28, 29).

264 Dr. Christina Schäffer (BOKU University of Natural Resources and Life Sciences)  
265 began the “Host-pathogen interaction at the receptor level” session, presenting as example her  
266 work on glycobiology-based strategies of the Gram-negative anaerobe *Tannerella forsythia*  
267 which support its status as a periodontal pathogen (30). This pathogen is gaining attention not  
268 only as a cause of periodontitis – globally, the most common inflammatory disease of  
269 bacterial origin – but also due to its link to systemic diseases. It is covered by a 2D crystalline  
270 cell surface (S-) layer that displays a unique protein glycosylation encoded by a general  
271 protein *O*-glycosylation system (31, 32). The BOKU research group found that the  
272 localization of *T. forsythia* within dental plaque varied depending on changes in the S-layer  
273 glycan, which also affected aggregation with and the prevalence of other bacteria present in a  
274 multispecies biofilm model (33). Immune response profiling of primary monocytes and  
275 human oral keratinocytes (HOK) revealed that truncation of the *T. forsythia* glycan leads to  
276 significant reduction of IL-1 $\beta$  and regulates macrophage inflammatory protein-1. HOK  
277 infected with *T. forsythia* produce IL-1Ra, chemokines and VEGF (34). Overall, the *T.*  
278 *for sythia* S-layer and attached sugars contribute to dampening the immune response to initial  
279 infection, mediate persistence of the bacterium in the host and, hence, play a pivotal role in  
280 orchestrating the bacterial virulence. As future aims it will be important to deepen our  
281 understanding of the vast mechanisms bacteria possess for protein glycosylation to devise  
282 novel strategies for designing vaccine formulations and protein therapeutics, based on  
283 synthetic glycobiology approaches.

284 The knowledge on interaction of adhesion factors of the bacteria with host cell glycans  
285 can also be used to develop strategies to prevent colonization. The research group of Dr. Eric  
286 Cox (Ghent University) has demonstrated that porcine F18<sup>+</sup> ETEC and/or Stx2e-producing  
287 F18<sup>+</sup> *E. coli* (STEC) interact via their fimbrial tip adhesin with glycosphingolipids having  
288 blood group ABH determinants on a type-1 core. The relative binding affinity to different

289 blood group determinants decreases in the order B5 type 1 and A6 type1, A7 type I and B7  
290 type 1, H5 type 1, A7 type 4, A8 type 1 and A9 type 1, with the latter having the weakest  
291 interaction (35). Ten mg per mL PBS of the A6 type 1 oligosaccharide was able to decrease  
292 binding to intestinal villi by 73% suggesting that the sugar could be used as a decoy receptor  
293 to decrease intestinal colonization. By conjugating the oligosaccharide on a carrier, the  
294 concentration needed for 70% inhibition was significantly decreased. Experiments using a  
295 small intestinal segment perfusion model demonstrated that this was sufficient for the host to  
296 reabsorb intestinal fluid secretion due to infections with F18<sup>+</sup> ETEC. Supplementing feed or  
297 water of piglets with the decoy receptor significantly reduced duration and height of fecal  
298 excretion of and F18<sup>+</sup> STEC strain, showing the potential of this strategy to control infection  
299 in piglets.

300 Piglets which suckle their dam are protected against ETEC infection by milk  
301 antibodies that interfere with binding of the fimbrial adhesins of ETEC to the mucosa, but at  
302 weaning this protection disappears and severe ETEC-induced diarrhea can occur. The VIB  
303 research group (Ghent University-VIB) of Dr. Vikram Viridi demonstrated that the antigen-  
304 binding variable domain of the llama heavy chain-only antibody (VHH), specific for the  
305 adhesin of F4<sup>+</sup> fimbriae, grafted onto porcine IgA Fc and expressed in *Arabidopsis* seed was  
306 able to neutralize the infection of piglets with an F4<sup>+</sup> ETEC strain (36). VHHs can survive  
307 harsh chemical and temperature conditions yet remain functional. In that first study co-  
308 transformation of VHH-IgA with the porcine joining chain and secretory component led to  
309 the production of light-chain devoid, assembled multivalent dimeric, and secretory IgA-like  
310 antibodies. The produced antibodies, a mixture of monomeric, dimeric and secretory IgA  
311 significantly reduced infection.

312 Unexpectedly, this group demonstrated in a second study that the monomeric IgA  
313 (mVHH-IgA) format against ETEC delivered orally in feed is sufficient to prevent ETEC

314 bacterial attachment, and to lower the shedding of the challenge ETEC bacteria, thus  
315 protecting piglets similarly as the SIgA format (37). Furthermore, they showed that mVHH-  
316 IgAs can be produced efficiently in soybean seeds and a *Pichia pastoris* yeast cell production  
317 platform. Crushed soybean seeds expressing mVHH-IgA, or the dried medium from *Pichia*  
318 secreting mVHH-IgA, when orally delivered in a feed formulation, protected the piglets from  
319 the ETEC challenge. The convenient scalability and frugal downstream processing make  
320 these anti-ETEC mVHH-IgAs most suitable for translation as a safe alternative prophylaxis to  
321 antibiotics. Moreover, given the anatomical organ size similarity, the in-piglet model results  
322 are highly relevant for translation of oral mVHH-IgA applications for human GI infections.

323

#### 324 **New vaccine strategies against enterotoxigenic *Escherichia coli* (ETEC)**

325 Vaccination is considered an effective prevention option for ETEC induced diarrhoea. Indeed,  
326 vaccinating pregnant livestock animals to provide protective maternal antibodies to suckling  
327 newborns largely prevents neonatal diarrhea in young animals particularly pigs (38).  
328 However, though a few vaccine candidates have been under clinical studies (39-41), there are  
329 still no vaccines licensed against ETEC associated diarrhea for humans (42, 43).

330 Using controlled human challenge models (CHIMs) is a cost- and time efficient way  
331 to test new prevention strategies among which new vaccine candidates (44). Such models  
332 already exist for ETEC disease, but there is a need for models that use relevant ETEC strains  
333 circulating in low-and-middle-income countries. Some vaccine candidates require specific  
334 toxin or colonization factor (CF) profiles in the challenge strain, for example testing a heat-  
335 stable toxin (ST)-based candidate would require absence of heat-labile toxin (LT) to avoid the  
336 contribution of LT to diarrheal stool output, the main outcome measure in a challenge model.

337 Efforts to develop a model based on a STh only epidemiologically relevant strain was  
338 presented by Dr. K Hanevik (University of Bergen). An inoculum of  $10^{10}$  CFU of the STh

339 only ETEC strain TW10722 was observed to cause an overall diarrhea attack risk of 78% in  
340 healthy human volunteers (45). However, a good immunological correlate of protection for  
341 ETEC disease is still missing (46). While ETEC specific small intestinal IgA antibodies are  
342 thought to be an important contributor to protection against symptomatic ETEC infection,  
343 measuring it is both impractical and inaccurate due to the location of infection and the  
344 dilution/contaminant effects of intestinal content.

345 The use of CHIMs has a large potential to increase understanding of ETEC  
346 pathophysiology and the search for potential correlates of protection (44). An adequate  
347 antibody response is dependent on CD4<sup>+</sup> T cell helper cell involvement (47). Dr. Hanevik  
348 showed that ETEC infection elicited a rapid and long-lasting human CD4 T cell response  
349 against CFs CS5, CS6, and the ETEC mucinase YghJ. These responses correlated with serum  
350 anti-CS5 and anti-CS6 IgA levels. Further experiments should examine which particular T  
351 cell subtypes are involved, and how this correlates with ETEC specific IgA intestinal lavage  
352 and with protection against ETEC.

353 Key challenges in developing effective vaccines against ETEC diarrhea in humans  
354 include heterogeneity among ETEC strains and difficulty in inducing robust local mucosal  
355 immunity (42, 43). Over 25 immunologically different colonization factors (CFs) and two  
356 very distinctive enterotoxins (Sta (with two variants STh and STp) and LT) have been  
357 identified from ETEC strains isolated from human diarrhea patients. ETEC bacteria producing  
358 any one or two CFs and either or both enterotoxins can cause diarrhea in children and  
359 international travelers. To overcome these challenges, new strategies have been implemented  
360 for developing effective ETEC vaccines. This includes high expression of multiple ETEC CFs  
361 in a vaccine product, identification of conservative antigens among ETEC strains, and  
362 application of an epitope- and structure-based vaccinology platform to induce antibodies  
363 protecting against heterogeneous ETEC strains. To enhance vaccine candidates in stimulating

364 local mucosal immunity, mucosal adjuvants double mutant LT (dmLT; LT<sub>R192G/L211A</sub>), LTB,  
365 CTB, LT and CT B subunit hybrid (LCTB), as well as aminopeptidase N (APN)-specific  
366 antibody formats were applied to increase antigen uptake by small intestinal epithelial cells  
367 and thus local mucosal immune responses. Several of these strategies were explored in the  
368 ECMIS 2019 symposium.

369 Dr. Ann-Mari Svennerholm (University of Gothenburg) presented results from several  
370 clinical trials of an oral inactivated ETEC vaccine comprising four recombinant ETEC strains  
371 overexpressing the most prevalent human ETEC CFs (*i.e.*, CFA/I, CS3, CS5 and CS6) in  
372 combination with an LCTB toxoid (ETVAX) (39, 40) and given alone or together with dmLT  
373 adjuvant in Swedish adults and in decreasing age groups (45 years to 6 months of age) in  
374 Bangladesh. These studies showed that the vaccine is safe and induced strong mucosal  
375 immune responses against all the primary vaccine antigens determined by IgA antibody in  
376 lymphocyte secretions (ALS) and/or fecal SIgA antibody responses in a majority of the  
377 vaccinees (39, 40). Furthermore, the vaccine was shown to induce a mucosal immunological  
378 memory for at least 1-2 years after primary vaccination (49). Additionally, dmLT adjuvant  
379 was demonstrated an effective adjuvant to enhance ETVAX in inducing mucosal immunity in  
380 Bangladesh children. Thus, addition of dmLT adjuvant to the vaccine significantly enhanced  
381 mucosal immune responses against CFs and the O antigen (O78 LPS) of ETVAX in infants 6-  
382 11 months of age.

383 Different from the cocktail vaccine strategy, Dr. Weiping Zhang (University of  
384 Illinois) presented the epitope- and structure-based multiepitope fusion antigen (MEFA)  
385 vaccinology platform to develop broadly protective ETEC subunit vaccines. A combination  
386 of two MEFA proteins, CFA/I/II/IV MEFA which applied CFA/I subunit CfaB backbone to  
387 present neutralizing epitopes of CFA/II (CS1 - CS3) and CFA/IV (CS4 - CS6) and toxoid  
388 fusion MEFA 3xSTa<sub>N12S</sub>-mnLT<sub>R192G/L211A</sub> of which three copies of STa toxoid STa<sub>N12S</sub> were

389 presented by the monomeric LT mutant (a single peptide with one LTB subunit peptide  
390 genetically fused to one LTA subunit peptide with mutations at residues 192 and 211), was  
391 shown to induce antibodies that broadly inhibited adherence of ETEC bacteria producing any  
392 of the seven most important ETEC adhesins (CFA/I, CS1 - CS6) and neutralized  
393 enterotoxicity of both toxins (LT, STa) (50). Moreover, antibodies derived from CFA/I/II/IV  
394 MEFA and toxoid fusion protected against ETEC diarrhea in a pig challenge model,  
395 suggesting the potential application of these two proteins for a broadly protective multivalent  
396 ETEC subunit vaccine. Additionally, Dr. Duan from Yanzhou University presented that  
397 antibodies induced by toxoid fusion 3xSTa<sub>N12S</sub>-mnLT<sub>R192G/L211A</sub> protein had little cross  
398 reactivity to guanylin and uroguanylin (51). Researchers from the Henry Jackson Foundation  
399 and the Naval Medical Research Center examined the application of recombinant ETEC  
400 adhesin proteins CfaEB of CFA/I and CssBA of CS6 as carrier proteins for antigens of  
401 *Campylobacter jejuni* and *Shigella flexneri*, and protection against ETEC adherence. From a  
402 non-human primate immunization study, they reported that *Aotus nancymae* monkeys  
403 immunized with HS23/36-CfaEB were protected when challenged with ETEC and *C. jejuni*.  
404 Recombinant CssBA alone was also evaluated as vaccine against CS6 ETEC strains. In  
405 contrast to the multivalent vaccine strategy, conservative antigen vaccine approach was also  
406 discussed.

407         Researchers also presented recent advances in inducing small intestinal mucosal  
408 immunity. Researchers from Ghent University presented data on antibody-mediated targeting  
409 of vaccine antigens to aminopeptidase N (also known as CD13), an apical membrane protein  
410 in enterocytes involved in transcytosis of F4 fimbriae (52). A key hurdle in oral subunit  
411 vaccines is poor transport of vaccine antigens across the epithelial barrier (53). This might be  
412 surmounted by their targeted delivery to APN. Upon oral administration to piglets, the  
413 selective delivery of vaccine antigens, as fused antigens or encapsulated in microparticles, to

414 APN by antibodies resulted in their transport across the small intestinal barrier and the  
415 induction of antigen-specific systemic and mucosal IgA<sup>+</sup> antibody secreting cells (54-56).

416 Progress on vaccines against pig post-weaning diarrhea (PWD) was presented as well.  
417 Coliprotec<sup>®</sup> F4, an oral vaccine licensed in some European countries by Elanco Animal  
418 Health, was shown to improve pig growth performance (based on daily weight gain) during  
419 the first three weeks of the post-weaning period. Pigs immunized with the oral live bivalent *E.*  
420 *coli* F4/F18 (Coliprotec<sup>®</sup> F4/F18) showed similar technical performance parameters and a  
421 significant reduction in medication use, compared to pigs treated with colistin. Additionally,  
422 researchers in the US examined the MEFA platform to include neutralizing epitopes of F4  
423 and F18 fimbriae and toxins LT, STa, STb and Stx2e to develop a broadly protective vaccine  
424 against PWD (57, 58).

425 While developing effective vaccines against ETEC-associated diarrhea remains to be  
426 challenging, progress has been made from recent research. Novel vaccine technologies  
427 include those presented at ECMIS-2019 and continuous efforts from research groups can  
428 accelerate ETEC vaccine development and potentially lead to the licensing of effective  
429 vaccines for children's, travelers', and pig post-weaning diarrhea.

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