

Title	パイエル板組織内共生菌アルカリゲネス由来 LPS/lipid Aのアジュバント応用に関する研究
Author(s)	Wang, Yun-Ju
Citation	大阪大学, 2022, 博士論文
Version Type	VoR
URL	https://doi.org/10.18910/88000
rights	
Note	

The University of Osaka Institutional Knowledge Archive : OUKA

https://ir.library.osaka-u.ac.jp/

The University of Osaka

1 パイエル板組織内共生菌アルカリゲネス由来 LPS/lipid A のアジュバント応用に関する研究 2 The study on adjuvant application of LPS/lipid A 3 derived from Alcaligenes spp, lymphoid tissue 4 resident symbiotic bacterium in the Peyer's 5 patches 6 7 8 9 Materials. Vaccine Graduate School Laboratory of of 10 Pharmaceutical Sciences, Osaka University 11

Laboratory of Vaccine Materials, Center for Vaccine and Adjuvant
 Research, National Institutes of Biomedical Innovation, Health and
 Biomedical (NIBIOHN)

- 16 大阪大学大学院 薬学研究科 博士後期課程
- 17 創成薬学専攻 ワクチン材料学
- 18 王 韻茹
- 19 WANG YUN-JU
- 20 **2022**

21 Abstract

Alcaligenes spp., including A. faecalis, is a gram-negative facultative 22 bacterium uniquely residing inside the Peyer's patches. We previously showed 23 24 that A. faecalis-derived lipopolysaccharides (Alcaligenes LPS) acts as a weak agonist of toll-like receptor 4 (TLR4) to activate dendritic cells (DCs) and shows 25 adjuvant activity by enhancing IgG and Th17 responses to systemic vaccination. 26 27 Here, I examined the efficacy of Alcaligenes LPS as a nasal vaccine adjuvant. Nasal immunization with ovalbumin (OVA) plus Alcaligenes LPS induced 28 follicular T helper cells (Tfh cells) and germinal center (GC) formation in the 29 nasopharynx-associated lymphoid tissue (NALT) and cervical lymph nodes 30 (CLNs), and consequently enhanced OVA-specific IgA and IgG responses in 31 32 the respiratory tract and serum. In addition, nasal immunization with OVA plus 33 Alcaligenes LPS induced OVA-specific T cells producing IL-17 and/or IL-10, whereas nasal immunization with OVA plus cholera toxin (CT) induced OVA-34 specific T cells producing IFN-y and IL-17, which are recognized as pathogenic 35 type of Th17 cells. In addition, CT, but not Alcaligenes LPS, promoted the 36 37 production of TNF- α and IL-5 by T cells. Nasal immunization with OVA plus CT, but not Alcaligenes LPS, led to increased numbers of neutrophils and 38 eosinophils in the nasal cavity. Together, these findings indicate the benign 39 nature of Alcaligenes LPS is an effective nasal vaccine adjuvant that induces 40 41 antigen-specific mucosal and systemic immune responses without activation of 42 inflammatory cascade after nasal administration.

Lipid A is responsible for biological effect of LPS and has been applied to adjuvant. Here, I also examined adjuvant activity and safety of chemically synthesized *Alcaligenes* lipid A. Mice subcutaneously immunized with OVA plus *Alcaligenes* lipid A showed increased levels of OVA-specific serum IgG antibody, comparing to immunization with OVA alone. In addition, *Alcaligenes* lipid A induced high levels of IL-17 production from splenic CD4⁺ T cells, suggesting that *Alcaligenes* lipid A promoted antigen-specific Th17 cell responses as well

50 as Alcaligenes LPS did in nasal immunization. Moreover, Alcaligenes lipid A 51 had little side effects, such as weight loss and fever, reducing number of 52 lymphocytes and platelets. In vitro stimulation with Alcaligenes lipid A upregulated expression of MHCII, CD40, CD80 and CD86 and enhanced the 53 54 production of cytokine, IL-6, which are involved in inducing antibody production and Th17 cell responses, from murine bone marrow-derived dendritic cells 55 56 (BMDCs). Also, in human peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs), stimulation with Alcaligenes lipid A induced the production of cytokines, 57 including IL-6 and IL-1β. These findings suggest that *Alcaligenes* lipid A is also 58 59 a safe and applicable synthetic adjuvant for systemic vaccination.

60 **1. Introduction**

61 Commensal bacteria in the gut are involved in the regulation of host immunity; 62 therefore, are expected to play important roles not only in host immune responses to immunization but also in host responses to pathogenic infection. 63 64 Accumulating evidence have indicated the involvement of certain commensal bacteria in the regulation of specific immunity. For instance, Klebsiella spp. 65 have been shown to induce Th1 cell polarization, and segmented filamentous 66 bacteria have been shown to drive Th17 cell responses to pathogenic infection 67 (1,2). Similarly, *Clostridium* spp. have been shown to induce regulatory T cells 68 69 for the control of allergic diseases (3).

Previously, we have demonstrated that commensal bacteria are present not 70 71 only in the intestinal lumen but also inside intestinal tissues such as Peyer's 72 patches (PPs) and the colonic lamina propria (4). For the first time, we find that 73 the gram-negative bacterium Alcaligenes spp. including A. faecalis, is a 74 representative bacterium that symbiotically resides in PPs. Our previous study 75 have shown that A. faecalis promotes the production of several cytokines (e.g., 76 transforming growth factor beta [TGF-\beta], B-cell activating factor [BAFF], and 77 interleukin 6 [IL-6]) by dendrtic cells (DCs) to enhance the production of IgA in 78 the intestine (4,5). A subsequent study reveals that A. faecalis increases IL-10 79 producing DCs, which contributes to establish the symbiotic environment in the 80 gut (6). A more recent study by our group using A. faecalis reveals that lipopolysaccharides (LPS) derived from A. faecalis (Alcaligenes LPS) 81 82 possesses unique immunomodulatory activity. Indeed, Alcaligenes LPS enhances the production of IL-6 from DCs by acting as a weak agonist of toll-83 like receptor 4 (TLR4) (7). It is worth noting that the biological activity of 84 Alcaligenes LPS is lower than that of E. coli-derived LPS (E. coli LPS) when 85 Alcaligenes LPS or E. coli LPS is injected subcutaneously into mice together 86 with OVA. In addition, Alcaligenes LPS can enhance both antigen-specific IgG 87 production and Th17 cell responses without inducing excessive inflammation. 88

These findings suggest the potential of *Alcaligenes* LPS as a novel vaccine adjuvant (7).

91 Although subcutaneous or intramuscular injection is a commonly accepted 92 and practiced vaccination, mucosal vaccination (e.g., nasal and oral vaccines) 93 has currently attracted attention due to several advantages, including reduced fear and pain, decreased medical waste such as syringe and needle, and 94 95 abatement of the work of medical staff responsible for vaccination. In addition, mucosal vaccination has the benefit of inducing both systemic and mucosal 96 97 immune responses (8,9). And the licensed mucosal vaccine has been used in preventing or helping against diseases. For example, Rotarix is an oral vaccine 98 against diarrhea caused by rotavirus (10). FluMist/Fluenz is a nasal vaccine 99 100 against influenza caused by influenza A and influenza B viruses (11).

101 Oral or nasal administration is a major route for mucosal vaccine. In case of 102 nasal immunization, nasopharynx-associated lymphoid tissue (NALT) is one of 103 the responsible sites for inducing antigen-specific immune responses. NALT is 104 located at the bottom edge of nasal cavity in rodents (12), and the human tonsils 105 known as Waldeyer's tonsillar ring are considered as equivalent lymphoid 106 tissues to rodent NALT (13). NALT has all the necessary immunocompetent 107 cells, such as B cells, T cells, DCs, and M cells, to initiate antigen-specific 108 immune responses (14). M cells located in the NALT epithelium act as antigen 109 uptake cells to deliver antigens to DCs (14). The DCs then process and present the antigens to T cells and B cells in germinal center (GC) located in the NALT 110 to initiate antigen-specific IgA responses (14,15). IgA class switching 111 recombination is a critical step for promoting IgA⁺ B cell development in the GC 112 of NALT with the essential support by follicular T helper cells (Tfh cells) (15,16). 113 The antigen-specific IgA produced by IgA⁺ B cells is secreted through the 114 epithelium into the nasal cavity, where it binds to antigens to prevent the 115 invasions of pathogens from nasal cavity (14). 116

Although mucosal vaccination has these advantages, one of the issues to be 117 solved includes the induction of immune tolerance to cause immune non-118 119 responses (17). Mucosal adjuvants are required to overcome the issues such 120 as inducing immune tolerance by inducing mucosal antigen-specific immune 121 responses. Recently, some adjuvant candidates for nasal vaccines have been 122 developed by using microbial components (15). For example, when the TLR5 123 agonist, flagellin of Salmonella typhimurium, is used as a nasal adjuvant for the 124 H7N9 influenza subunit vaccine, it can induce effective IgG and IgA antibody 125 responses, Th1 and Th2 cell responses (18). Also, intranasal co-administration of adenylate cyclase toxin of Bordetella pertussis and pertactin elicits robust 126 IgG and IgA antibody responses and has a protective effect when challenged 127 128 with *B. pertussis* intranasally (19).

129 LPS is composed of lipid A, core oligosaccharide, and O-antigens (20). The 130 chemical structure of lipid A varies among bacteria and shows different 131 biological activities (20,21). Here, based on our previous findings on the 132 adjuvant activity of Alcaligenes LPS (7), I evaluate the efficacy of Alcaligenes 133 LPS and lipid A as an adjuvant when administered to mice by nasal 134 immunization and subcutaneously injection, respectively. I find that Alcaligenes 135 LPS as nasal adjuvant induced both systemic and mucosal immune responses, 136 including antigen-specific IgG and IgA antibody production as well as Th17 cell 137 responses. In addition, Alcaligenes lipid A as adjuvant shows antigen-specific IgG and Th17 cell responses. Both of Alcaligenes LPS and lipid A induce 138 immune responses without local inflammation, which confirms the potential of 139 140 Alcaligenes LPS and lipid A to function effectively as adjuvants.

141

142 **2. Materials and Methods**

143 **2.1. Mice**

Female BALB/c mice (age 8–9 weeks) were used for subcutaneous or nasal immunization and female BALB/c mice (age 4–5 weeks) were used for

preparation of bone marrow cells. The mice were purchased from CLEA Japan, Inc. (Tokyo, Japan) and were kept in a specific-pathogen-free (SPF) environment on a 12/12-h light/dark cycle at the National Institutes of Biomedical Innovation, Health, and Nutrition (Osaka, Japan). All experimental procedures were performed in accordance with the guidelines of the Animal Care and Use Committee of the National Institutes of Biomedical Innovation, Health, and Nutrition (Approval Nos. DS27-47R13 and DS27-48R13).

153

154 **2.2. Preparation of LPS and lipid A**

Alcaligenes LPS and chemically synthesized Alcaligenes lipid A were 155 provided by Professors Fukase and Shimoyama of Osaka University. 156 Alcaligenes LPS was extracted from heat-killed (60°C for 30 min) A. faecalis 157 (13111T, Biological Resource Center, NITE [NBRC], Japan) by using an LPS 158 159 Extraction Kit (iNtRON Biotechnology, Inc., Sangdaewon-Dong, Korea). After 160 extraction, Alcaligenes LPS is lyophilized and stored as a powder at -30°C. And 161 Alcaligenes lipid A was chemically synthesized as previously described (22) For 162 stock solution, Alcaligenes LPS was added to phosphate-buffered saline (PBS: 163 Nacalai Tesque, Inc., Kyoto, Japan) and Alcaligenes lipid A was dissolved with 164 dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO; Nacalai Tesque, Inc.). The stock solution of the LPS or lipid A was prepared to a concentration of 1 mg/mL, sonicated for 5 min, and 165 166 then stored at -30°C until use.

167

168 2.3. Immunization

For nasal immunization, mice were immunized equally into the two nostrils of mice without anesthesia on day 1, 7, and 17 (23). One week after the final immunization, nasal wash, bronchoalveolar lavage fluid (BALF), serum, nasal passage, NALT, CLNs, and spleen were collected as previously described (23,24) and used for analysis. The groups were divided as follows: 5 µg of ovalbumin (OVA) (Sigma-Aldrich) alone; 5 µg of OVA with 10 µg of *Alcaligenes*

LPS or 1 μg of cholera toxin isolated from *Vibrio cholerae* (List Biological
Laboratories, Campbell, CA, USA)

For subcutaneous injection, mice were immunized on day 1 and 10 (7). One
week after the final immunization, serum and spleen were collected for analysis.
The groups were divided as follows: 10 µg of OVA and 1 µg of OVA alone or
plus 1 µg of *Alcaligenes* lipid A.

181

182 2.4. Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA)

ELISA was performed as follows (25). The bottom of flat-bottom 96-well immunoplates (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., Waltham, MA, USA) were coated with OVA diluted in PBS to a concentration of 1 mg/mL and then the plates were incubated overnight at 4°C. After incubation, the plates were blocked with 1% (w/v) bovine serum albumin (BSA; Nacalai Tesque, Inc.) in PBS for 2 h at room temperature. After blocking, the plates were washed 3 times with PBS containing 0.05% (v/v) Tween 20 (Nacalai Tesque, Inc.).

190 Next, serum, nasal wash, or BALF samples were serially diluted with 1% (w/v) 191 BSA, containing 0.05% (v/v) Tween 20 in PBS and seeded into the plates; the 192 plates were then incubated for 2 h at room temperature and washed 3 times 193 with PBS containing 0.05% Tween 20. After washing, horseradish peroxidase-194 conjugated goat anti-mouse IgG and IgA (Southern Biotech, Inc., Birmingham, 195 AL, USA) diluted with 1% (w/v) BSA containing 0.05% (v/v) Tween 20 in PBS 196 were added to the plates and left to react for 1 h at room temperature. After 197 being left to react, the plates were washed 3 times with PBS containing 0.05% Tween 20. Tetramethylbenzidine peroxidase substrate (SeraCare Life Sciences 198 Inc., Milford, MA, USA) was then added, and the plates were left to react for 2 199 min at room temperature; 0.5 N HCl (Nacalai Tesque, Inc.) was added to stop 200 the reaction. Absorbance at 450 nm was measured by using an iMark[™] 201 Microplate Absorbance Reader (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Inc., Hercules, CA, 202 USA). 203

204

205 2.5. Immunohistochemistry

Immunohistological analysis was performed as follows (23). NALT and 206 CLNs were embedded into Tissue-Tek O.C.T. Compound (Sakura Finetek 207 208 Japan Co., Ltd., Tokyo, Japan) to make frozen blocks. Blocks were frozen by 209 liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C until use. Sections (6-µm-thick) of NALT and 210 CLNs were cut at -20° C by using a Leica CM3050 S cryostat (Leica Biosystems, Nussloch, Germany). Then, the sections of NALT and CLNs were air-dried, 211 212 fixed with 100% acetone (Nacalai Tesque, Inc.) for 1 min, and washed 2 times with PBS for 5 min each time. After washing, the sections were blocked with 213 214 2% Newborn Calf Serum (NCS; Equitech-Bio, Kerrville, TX, USA) -PBS for 30 stained with Purified anti-mouse/human CD45R/B220 Antibody 215 min, (BioLegend, San Diego, CA, USA; clone: RA3-6B2) and biotin-PNA (Vector 216 217 Laboratories, Inc., Burlingame, CA, USA) and incubated overnight at 4°C. After 218 incubation, the sections were washed 2 times with PBS for 5 min each time, 219 stained with anti-hamster Cv3 (Jackson ImmunoResearch Inc., West Grove, PA, 220 USA) and Alexa Fluor 488/Streptavidin Conjugate (Invitrogen, Thermo Fisher 221 Scientific Inc.) for 30 min, washed 2 times with PBS for 5 min each time, stained 222 with DAPI (AAT Bioquest, Inc., Sunnyvale, CA, USA) for 10 min, and washed 2 223 times with PBS for 5 min each time. Finally, each section was covered with one 224 drop of Fluoromount (Diagnostic BioSystems, Pleasanton, CA, USA) followed 225 by a 24 × 36-mm-thick cover glass (Matsunami Glass USA Inc., Bellingham, 226 WA, USA) and observed under a BZ-9000 BioRevo fluorescence microscope 227 (Keyence Corp., Osaka, Japan).

228

229 2.6. T-cell assay

T-cell assay was performed as follows (23). Spleen from subcutaneously
 injected mice; spleen and CLNs from nasal immunized mice were collected to
 make cell suspension. The cell suspension was passed through a 100-µm cell

233 filter (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc.); then mixed with red blood cell lysis buffer (1.5 M NH₄Cl, 100 mM KHCO₃, and 10 mM EDTA-2Na [all Nacalai Tesque, Inc.]) 234 235 for 1 min at room temperature; the resulting suspension was passed through a 100-µm cell filter (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc.) again, and the filtrate was 236 237 retained. CD4⁺ T cells were purified from the filtrate by using CD4 (L3T4) MicroBeads and a magnetic cell separation system (Miltenyi Biotec, Bergisch 238 239 Gladbach, North Rhine-Westphalia, Germany). Splenic cells were treated with 30 Gy of ionizing radiation and used as antigen-presenting cells. The CD4⁺ T 240 cells (2 × 10^5 cells/well) and antigen-presenting cells (1 × 10^4 cells/well) were 241 suspended in RPMI1640 medium (Sigma-Aldrich) supplemented with 10% 242 Fetal Bovine Serum (FBS; Life Technologies, Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc.), 1 243 mM sodium pyruvate solution (Nacalai Tesque, Inc.), 1% penicillin-244 streptomycin mixed solution (Nacalai Tesque, Inc.), and 0.5 mM 2-245 246 mercaptoethanol (Gibco, Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc.); seeded in Nunc™ 96-247 Well, Nunclon Delta-Treated, U-Shaped-Bottom Microplates (Thermo Fisher 248 Scientific Inc.); and cultured with or without 1 mg/mL OVA for 72 h. The number 249 of viable cells was determined by using a CyQUANT Cell Proliferation Assay kit 250 (Invitrogen, Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc.), and the absorbance of the cells was 251 measured at 485/535 nm with an ARVO X2 (PerkinElmer, Yokohama, Japan) 252 fluorescence microplate reader. The culture supernatant was collected and 253 used for the measurement of the concentrations of the cytokines as follows: 254 interferon gamma (IFN- γ), IL-4, IL-17, IL-10, and TNF- α . The cytokines were 255 determined by using a BD CBA Mouse Th1/Th2/Th17 Cytokine Kit (BD 256 Biosciences, San Jose, CA, USA), and the concentration of IL-5 was 257 determined by using IL-5-specific ELISA kit (BioLegend).

258

259 **2.7. Preparation of bone marrow-derived dendritic cells**

260 Mice bone marrow-derived dendritic cells (BMDCs) were cultured as 261 previously described (7). Bone marrow cells were harvested from femurs of

mice and were treated with red blood cell lysis buffer (1.5 M NH4CI [Nacalai 262 Tesque, Inc.], 100 mM KHCO3 [Nacalai Tesque, Inc.], and 10 mM EDTA-2Na 263 [Nacalai Tesque, Inc.]) for 5 minutes, then washed by RPMI1640 medium 264 (Sigma-Aldrich) supplemented with 10% FBS (Life Technologies, Thermo 265 266 Fisher Scientific Inc.), 1% 100mM-sodium pyruvate solution (100×) (Nacalai Tesque, Inc.), 1% penicillin-streptomycin mixed solution (Nacalai Tesque, Inc.), 267 and 0.1% 2-Mercaptoethanol (gibco, Thermo Fisher Scientific). BMDCs were 268 cultured in the medium which is contained the concentration of 20 ng/mL GM-269 270 CSF (PeproTech, Rocky Hill, USA). Half of the culture medium was replaced with fresh medium containing GM-CSF in every 2 days. On day 6, BMDCs were 271 272 sorted by using CD11c MicroBeads UltraPure, mouse and LS Columns from Magnetic Cell Separation System (Miltenyi Biotec). The experience procedure 273 was according to the instruction of manufacturer. 274

275

276 2.8. Flow Cytometric Analysis

Flow cytometry was performed as follows (26). Cells of NALT, CLNs and nasal passage; BMDCs were incubated with 5 µg/mL anti-CD16/32 antibody (TruStain FcX; BioLegend) for avoiding non-specific staining and 7AAD viability staining solution (BioLegend) to detect dead cells, for 15 minutes at room temperature.

282 The cells were then stained with fluorescently labeled antibodies for 30 min 283 at 4°C. For analyzation of NALT and CLNs from nasal immunized mice, GC and 284 IgM⁻ IgA⁺ B cells were stained with FITC-IgA (BD Biosciences; clone: C10-3), 285 PE-Cy7-IgM (BioLegend; clone: RMM-1), AF647-GL7 (BioLegend; clone: GL7), and BV421-B220 (BioLegend; clone: RA3-6B2). Tfh cells were stained with 286 FITC-CD3c (BD Biosciences; clone: 145-2C11), PE-PD-1 (BioLegend; clone: 287 29F.1A12), APC-Cy7-CD8α (BioLegend; clone: 53-6.7), and BV421-CD4 288 (BioLegend; clone: RM4-5). Nasal passage from nasal immunizaed mice was 289 used for analyzation of neutrophils and eosinophils and the cell were stained 290

with FITC-Ly6G⁺ (BioLegend; clone: 1A8), APC-Cy7-CD11b (BioLegend; clone:
M1/70), BV421-Siglec-F (BD Biosciences; clone: E50-2440), and APC-CD45
(BioLegend; clone: 30-F11). And BMDCs were stained with FITCI-A^d (BD
Biosciences; clone: AMS-32.1), PE-CD80 (BioLegend; clone: 16-10A1), APCCy7-CD86 (BioLegend; clone: GL-1) and PE-Cy7-CD40 (BioLegend; clone:
3/23). Samples were analyzed by MACSQuant[®] Analyzer (Miltenyi Biotec).
Data were analyzed by using FlowJo, LLC Software 10.2 (BD Biosciences)

298 Intracellular cytokine staining was performed as previously described with 299 modification (27,28). Cells collected from nasal immunized mice spleen were stimulated with 50 ng/mL phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate (PMA; Sigma-Aldrich) 300 301 and 750 ng/mL ionomycin (Sigma-Aldrich) for 4 h at 37°C; 5 ng/mL brefeldin A (BioLegend) was added at around 3rd hour. After incubation, the cells were 302 stained with NIR-zombie (BioLegend), FITC-TCR-β (BioLegend; clone: H57-303 304 597), PerCP-CD4 (BioLegend; clone: GK1.5), and BV421-CD45 (BioLegend; 305 clone: 30-F11). The cells were fixed and permeabilized by using BD Cytofix/Cytoperm plus (BD Biosciences) and then stained with PE-IFN-y 306 (BioLegend; clone: XMG1.2) and AF647-IL-17A (BD Biosciences; clone: TC11-307 18H10). Samples were analyzed by MACSQuant[®] Analyzer (Miltenyi Biotec) 308 and the data were analyzed using FlowJo software v.10.2 (BD Biosciences). 309

310

311 **2.9.** Measurement of cytokines in supernatant of BMDCs or PBMCs

312 BMDCs (1×10⁵ cells/well) or peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) (2×10⁵ cells/well, FUJIFILM Wako Pure Chemical, Osaka, Japan) were seeded 313 314 into the Nunc[™] 96-Well, Nunclon Delta-Treated, U-Shaped-Bottom Microplate 315 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Inc.). 0.1 or 1 ng/mL of Alcaligenes lipid A were used to incubate with BMDCs for 48 hours or PBMCs for 24 hours at 37°C. The 316 culture supernatant from BMDCs and PBMCs were collected for measurement 317 of cytokines. For detection of IL-6 and IL-23 in supernatant of BMDCs, BD 318 cytometric bead array Mouse Inflammation Kit (BD Biosciences) and LEGEND 319

320 MAX[™] Mouse IL-23 (p19/p40) ELISA Kit (BioLegend) were used. For detection

of IL-6 and IL-1 β in supernatant of PBMCs, BDTM CBA Human Inflammation Kit

322 (BD Biosciences) and LEGEND MAX[™] Human IL-1β ELISA Kit (BioLegend)

323 were used. Samples were analyzed by MACSQuant[®] Analyzer (Miltenyi Biotec).

324 The experience procedure was according to the instruction of manufacturer.

325

326 **2.10. Measurement of blood cells and body temperature in mice**

Blood samples (100 µL) mixed with 1.5 µL of 10 mM EDTA-2Na (Nacalai Tesque, Inc.) were diluted 1:6 with saline solution (Otsuka Pharmaceutical Co., Ltd., Tokyo, Japan) for measuring the number of lymphocytes and platelets with Vet Scan HMII hematology analyzer (Abaxis, Union City, CA, USA). Body temperature was measured from the rectal temperature of the subcutaneously injected mice.

333

334 2.11. Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were performed by using PRISM 6 software (GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA, USA). Data are presented as mean \pm SD. Statistical significance was determined by one-way ANOVA with the Bonferroni post-hoc test (*p < 0.05; **p < 0.01; n.s., not significant).

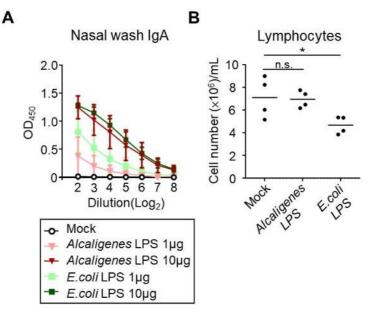
339

340 **3. Results**

341 3.1. Nasally co-administered *Alcaligenes* LPS promoted respiratory 342 antigen-specific IgA antibody production

Previously, we demonstrated that *Alcaligenes* LPS enhanced IgA production by B cells co-cultured with DCs *in vitro* (7). I extended our previous study by investigating the efficacy of *Alcaligenes* LPS as an adjuvant for nasal vaccination *in vivo*. To determine the optimal dose of *Alcaligenes* LPS, mice were nasally immunized with OVA alone (Mock group), OVA plus 1 or 10 µg of *Alcaligenes* LPS and OVA plus 1 or 10 µg of *E. coli* LPS. The results showed

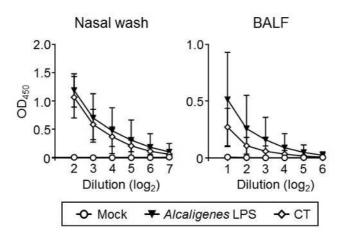
that nasal immunization with 10 µg of Alcaligenes LPS induced higher levels of 349 nasal IgA responses than 1 µg of Alcaligenes LPS (Fig. 1A). And 10 µg of E. 350 coli LPS showed comparable levels of nasal IgA responses to 10 µg of 351 Alcaligenes LPS (Fig. 1A). However, 10 µg of E. coli LPS induced severe side 352 effect such as lymphopenia (Fig. 1B). This result has been shown in our 353 previous research (7). Therefore, I determined the 10 µg of *Alcaligenes* LPS for 354 355 the nasal immunization in this study and employed cholera toxin (CT), a gold standard experimental mucosal adjuvant as control. 356



357

358 Fig. 1. E. coli LPS induced dose-dependent nasal IgA responses and lymphopenia in the 359 blood. Mice were nasally immunized 3 times with OVA alone (Mock) or with OVA plus 360 Alcaligenes LPS (1 or 10 µg) or E. coli LPS (1 or 10 µg); one week after the final 361 immunization, (A) Nasal wash were collected to determine levels of OVA-specific IgA by 362 ELISA (n = 4 per group). Mice were nasally immunized with OVA alone (Mock) or with OVA 363 plus Alcaligenes LPS (10 µg) or E. coli LPS (10 µg). 24 hours after immunization, (B) blood 364 samples were collected to measure the number of lymphocytes (n = 4 per group). Data are representative of two independent experiments and analyzed by one-way ANOVA (*p < 365 366 0.05; n.s.: not significant).

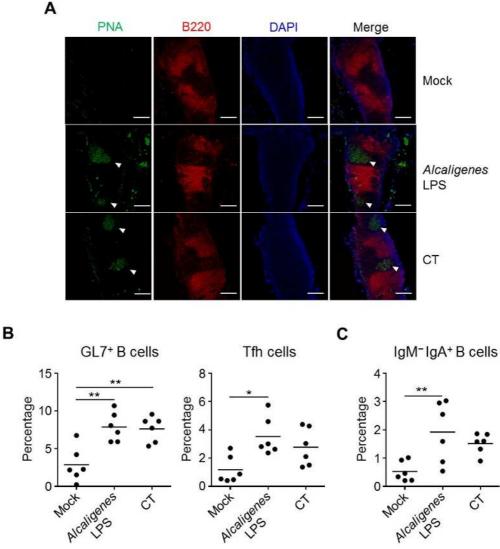
To examine OVA-specific IgA production in the nasal wash and BALF, mice were nasally immunized with OVA alone (Mock group), OVA plus 10 µg of *Alcaligenes* LPS (*Alcaligenes* LPS group) or 1 µg of CT (CT group). I found that the nasal wash and BALF from Mock group showed undetectable levels of 371 OVA-specific IgA (Fig. 2). In contrast, the nasal wash and BALF from 372 *Alcaligenes* LPS group contained substantial levels of OVA-specific IgA 373 antibody, which were comparable to the levels of the CT group (Fig. 2).



374

Fig. 2. *Alcaligenes* LPS promoted mucosal OVA-specific IgA antibody production upon nasal immunization. Mice were nasally immunized 3 times with OVA alone (Mock) or with OVA plus *Alcaligenes* LPS or CT; one week after the final immunization, Nasal wash and BALF were collected to determine levels of OVA-specific IgA by ELISA (*n* = 5 or 6 per group).

The production of IgA antibody is associated with B cell class-switch 380 381 recombination from IgM to IgA in the GC of NALT, which is supported by Tfh 382 cells. Immunohistological analysis revealed that Mock group did not induce the 383 formation of GC, while Alcaligenes LPS or CT group induced the formation of 384 GC in the NALT (Fig. 3A). Consistent with this finding, flow cytometry analysis demonstrated that the percentage of GC GL7⁺ B cells increased in both 385 386 Alcaligenes LPS and CT groups when compared to Mock group (Fig. 3B). In addition, the percentage of PD-1⁺ Tfh cells (Fig. 3B) and IgM⁻ IgA⁺ B cells (Fig. 387 3C) were significantly increased in the NALT from Alcaligenes LPS group 388 compared with that in Mock group. Together, these results indicate that 389 Alcaligenes LPS promoted the formation of GC in the NALT with Tfh cells and 390 IgA⁺ B cells for the subsequent IgA antibody production in the respiratory tract. 391



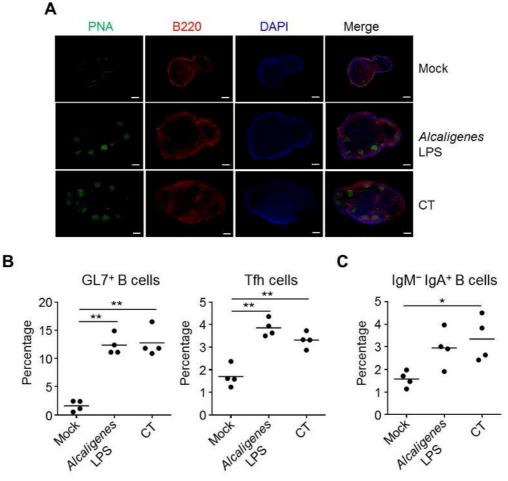
392

393 Fig. 3. Alcaligenes LPS induced GC formation in NALT. Mice were nasally immunized 3 394 times with OVA alone (Mock) or with OVA plus Alcaligenes LPS or CT; one week after the 395 final immunization, (A) formation of GC in NALT were observed by analysis of 396 Immunohistochemistry. PNA: GC marker; B220: B cell marker; arrow heads: GC location. 397 (B) Induction of GC GL7⁺ B cells (gated on: CD3²⁻ B220⁺ GL7⁺) and Tfh cells (gated on: CD3ε⁺ CD8α⁻ CD4⁺ PD-1⁺) and (C) IgM⁻ IgA⁺ B cells (gated on: CD3ε⁻ B220⁺ GL7⁺ IgM⁻ 398 399 IgA^+) in NALT were analyzed by flow cytometry analysis (n = 6 per group). Data are 400 representative of two independent experiments and were analyzed by one-way ANOVA (*p < 0.05; ***p* < 0.01). 401

402

403 **3.2.** Alcaligenes LPS promoted systemic antibody responses

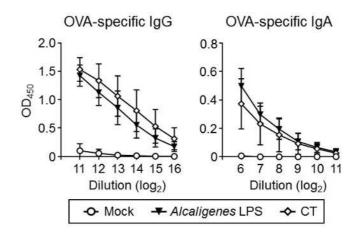
404 Next, I examined the immune responses in the CLNs, which are the lymph 405 nodes that drain to the nose. As in the NALT, GC formation and significantly increased or higher induction of $GL7^+$ B cells, Tfh cells, and IgM^- IgA⁺ B cells were detected in the CLNs from *Alcaligenes* LPS or CT group when compared to the Mock group (Fig. 4A–C).



409

Fig. 4. Alcaligenes LPS induced GC formation in CLNs. Mice were nasally immunized 3 410 times with OVA alone (Mock) or with OVA plus Alcaligenes LPS or CT; one week after the 411 412 final immunization, (A) GC formation (PNA: GC marker; B220: B cell marker), and the induction of (B) GC GL7⁺ B cells (gated on: CD3²⁻ B220⁺ GL7⁺) and Tfh cells (gated on: 413 414 CD3 ϵ^+ CD8 α^- CD4⁺ PD-1⁺) and (C) IgM⁻ IgA⁺ B cells (gated on: CD3 ϵ^- B220⁺ GL7⁺ IgM⁻ 415 IgA⁺) in CLNs were examined by flow cytometry analysis. (n = 4 per group). Data are 416 representative of two independent experiments and were analyzed by one-way ANOVA (*p < 0.05; ***p* < 0.01). 417

To further assess whether nasally co-administered *Alcaligenes* LPS also supports the induction of antigen-specific systemic antibody responses or not, l examined serum antibodies. Negligible levels of OVA-specific IgG and IgA responses were observed in Mock group. While higher levels of OVA-specific IgG and IgA responses were noted in *Alcaligenes* LPS group, which were
almost comparable to the levels of CT group (Fig. 5). Thus, co-administered *Alcaligenes* LPS could support the elevated antigen-specific systemic antibody
responses upon nasal vaccination.



426

Fig. 5. *Alcaligenes* LPS promoted systemic antibody responses. Mice were nasally
immunized 3 times with OVA alone (Mock) or with OVA plus *Alcaligenes* LPS or CT; one
week after the final immunization, serum was collected to determine OVA-specific IgG and
IgA by ELISA (*n* = 5 per group). Data are representative of two independent experiments.

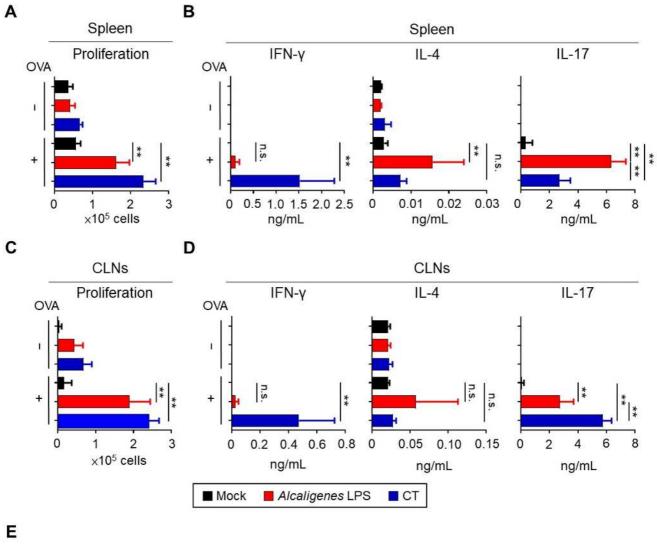
431

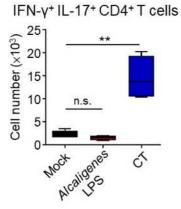
432 3.3. Alcaligenes LPS promoted an OVA-specific Th17 cell response

To understand how *Alcaligenes* LPS inducing antigen-specific antibody responses, I examined T cell responses such as cell proliferation and cytokine production in the spleen and CLNs. CD4⁺ T cells from the spleen and CLNs of mice nasally immunized with OVA plus *Alcaligenes* LPS or CT proliferated vigorously upon the *ex vivo* stimulation with OVA, when compared with those from the Mock group (Fig. 6A, 6C). The finding suggests that *Alcaligenes* LPS is a potent nasal adjuvant for the enhancement of CD4⁺ T cell responses.

440 Next, I examined the production of cytokines from OVA-specific CD4⁺ T cells, 441 especially related to the Th1 (IFN-γ), Th2 (IL-4), and Th17 (IL-17). Consistent 442 with low OVA-induced CD4⁺ T cell proliferation activity of the Mock group from 443 spleen and CLNs, it was noted that the production of cytokines in Mock group 444 is negligible or low. (Fig. 6B, 6D). In contrast, splenic and CLNs CD4⁺ T cells from the *Alcaligenes* LPS group preferentially produced IL-17 with significant
increase of IL-4 and little production of IFN-γ, whereas the CT group showed
significantly increased production of both IFN-γ and IL-17 with less production
of IL-4 (Fig. 6B, 6D).

It has been considered that T cells secreting IL-17 alone are considered non-449 450 pathogenic and contribute to immunological defense against extracellular pathogens, whereas T cells producing both IL-17 and IFN-y are pathogenic to 451 cause inflammation and autoimmunity. One of the differences between 452 453 Alcaligenes LPS and CT groups was the significantly higher IFN-y production 454 in the CT group. Base on this result, I found that splenic CD4⁺ T cells from the CT group contained significantly higher numbers of IFN-y⁺ IL-17⁺ CD4⁺ T cells 455 compared with that in the Mock or *Alcaligenes* LPS group by performing flow 456 cytometry analysis (Fig. 6E). These results indicate that nasally co-457 458 administered Alcaligenes LPS primarily induced Th17 cell-mediated non-459 pathogenic responses, whereas nasally co-administered CT induced 460 pathogenic Th17 cell responses.





461 Fig. 6. Alcaligenes LPS promoted OVA-specific Th17 cell responses. Mice were nasally 462 immunized 3 times with OVA alone (Mock) or with OVA plus Alcaligenes LPS or CT; one 463 week after the final immunization, splenic or CLNs CD4⁺ T cells were collected and 464 stimulated with OVA by ex vivo. (A) Proliferation activity of splenic CD4⁺ T cells were

465 determined by CyQUANT® Cell Proliferation Assays Kits and fluorescence microplate 466 reader, ARVO X2 with measuring at 485/535 nm. (B) Production of cytokines: IFN-y, IL-4 467 and IL-17 in the supernatant of splenic CD4⁺ T cell culture was collected and measured 468 by the CBA kit. (C) Proliferation activity of CLNs CD4⁺ T cells. (D) Production of 469 cytokines: IFN-y, IL-4 and IL-17 in the supernatant of CLNs CD4⁺ T cell culture. (E) 470 Number of IFN-y⁺ IL-17⁺ CD4⁺ T cells (gated on: zombie- CD45⁺ TCR-β⁺ CD4⁺ IFN-y⁺ IL-471 17^+) in mice spleen were analyzed by intracellular flow cytometry analysis (n = 4 or 6 per 472 group). Data are representative of two independent experiments and were analyzed by 473 one-way ANOVA (**p < 0.01; n.s.: not significant).

474

3.4. Alcaligenes LPS had low Inflammatory but high regulatory properties 475 476 In addition to classical T helper cell subsets associated with cytokines examined above, T cells are also known to produce various inflammatory and 477 regulatory cytokines (29). Therefore, I applied T-cell assay to examined other 478 cytokine production profiles (e.g., TNF- α , IL-5, and IL-10) by OVA-specific CD4⁺ 479 T cells from CLNs and spleen of *Alcaligenes* LPS group. TNF- α is a cytokine 480 related to inflammation such as neutrophilia in tissue and can be secreted by 481 Th1 cells (30,31). IL-5 is involved in inducing tissue eosinophilia and is 482 produced by Th2 cells (32). IL-10 is the cytokine that regulate immune 483 responses and is produced by CD4⁺ T cells such as T regulatory cells (33). 484

The results revealed that CT group significantly induced TNF- α and IL-5 production in the supernatant of splenic CD4⁺ T cell culture and significantly induced TNF- α production from CLNs CD4⁺ T cell culture, but not the Mock and *Alcaligenes* LPS groups. It is interesting to note that the production of IL-10 was preferentially heightened in the supernatant of splenic and CLNs CD4⁺ T cell culture from the *Alcaligenes* LPS group (Fig. 7A–B).

491 Considering that the cytokines produced by T cells can cause neutrophilia 492 and eosinophilia (32,34), which can lead to local inflammation, I examined the 493 numbers of neutrophils and eosinophils in the nasal cavity of the nasally 494 immunized mice. Consistent with the cytokine profiles, flow cytometry analysis revealed the increased numbers of neutrophils and eosinophils in the nasal
cavity of CT group compared with the Mock or *Alcaligenes* LPS group (Fig. 8).
These results indicate that, unlike CT, *Alcaligenes* LPS did not induce local
inflammation in the nasal cavity.

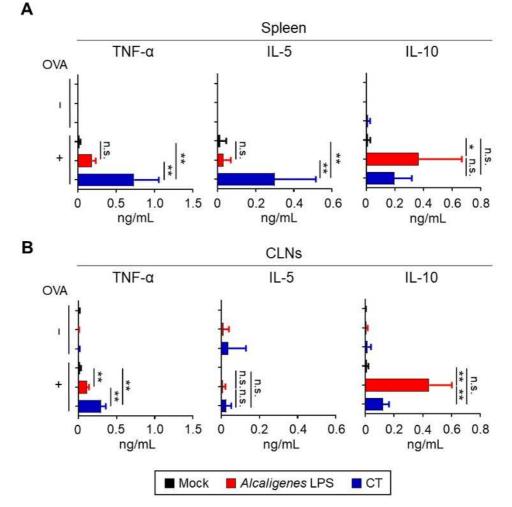
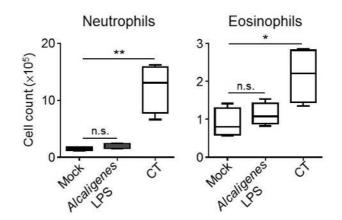


Fig. 7. *Alcaligenes* LPS had low Inflammatory but high regulatory properties. Mice were nasally immunized 3 times with OVA alone (Mock) or with OVA plus *Alcaligenes* LPS or CT; one week after the final immunization, the production of cytokines: TNF- α , IL-5, and IL-10 in the supernatant of (A) splenic CD4⁺ T cell culture and of the (B) CLNs CD4⁺ T cell culture were surveyed after *ex vivo* stimulation by OVA (*n* = 6 per group). Data are representative of two independent experiments and were analyzed by one-way ANOVA (**p* < 0.05; ***p* < 0.01; n.s.: not significant).



507

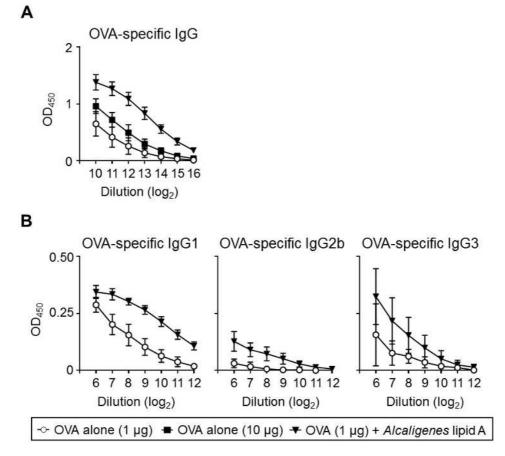
Fig. 8. *Alcaligenes* LPS induced little inflammation at the site of administration. Mice were nasally immunized 3 times with OVA alone (Mock) or with OVA plus *Alcaligenes* LPS or CT; one week after the final immunization, the number of neutrophils (gated on: 7AAD⁻ CD45⁺ CD11c⁺ Ly6G⁺) and eosinophils (gated on: 7AAD⁻ CD45⁺ CD11c⁺ Siglec-F⁺) in the nasal passage were determined by flow cytometry analysis (n = 4 per group). Data are representative of two independent experiments and analyzed by one-way ANOVA (*p <0.05; **p < 0.01; n.s.: not significant).

515

516 3.5. Subcutaneously co-administered Alcaligenes lipid A promoted 517 systemic antibody responses

As described above, I showed that nasal immunization with OVA plus *Alcaligenes* LPS showed effective immune responses without severe side effects. In addition, a previous study by our group showed that subcutaneous immunization of OVA plus *Alcaligenes* LPS also induced the safe and effective immune responses (7). Based on these findings, I then focused on the adjuvant activity of lipid A, the activity site of LPS, to trigger the immune responses induced by subcutaneous immunization (20).

525 Mice were subcutaneously immunized with OVA alone (Mock group) or plus 526 chemically synthesized *Alcaligenes* lipid A (*Alcaligenes* lipid A group) and 527 serum antibodies were analyzed by ELISA. Mice subcutaneously immunized 528 with 1 µg of OVA plus *Alcaligenes* lipid A showed increased levels of OVA-529 specific serum IgG when compared with mice immunized with 1 µg of OVA 530 alone (Fig. 9A). Furthermore, mice immunized with 1 µg of OVA plus 531 *Alcaligenes* lipid A showed higher levels of OVA-specific IgG than mice immunized with 10 µg of OVA alone. Consistent with these results, mice
immunized with 1 µg of OVA plus *Alcaligenes* lipid A showed higher levels of
OVA–specific IgG1, IgG2b, and IgG3 than mice immunized with 1 µg of OVA
(Fig. 9B). These results indicate that *Alcaligenes* lipid A could enhance antigenspecific systemic antibody responses upon subcutaneous injection.



537

Fig. 9. *Alcaligenes* lipid A promoted OVA–specific systemic antibody responses. Mice were
subcutaneously immunized 2 times with OVA plus *Alcaligenes* lipid A. One week after the
last immunization, serum was collected to measure levels of (A) OVA-specific IgG, (B) IgG1,
IgG2b and IgG3 by ELISA (*n* = 7 per group). Data are combined of two independent
experiments.

543

3.6. *Alcaligenes* lipid A promoted an OVA-specific Th17 cell responses

545 To unveil the mechanism of *Alcaligenes* lipid A inducing antigen-specific 546 systemic antibody responses, I examined effects of *Alcaligenes* lipid A on T cell 547 responses such as cell proliferation and cytokine production in the spleen. CD4⁺ T cells from the spleen of *Alcaligenes* lipid A group proliferated vigorously upon the *ex vivo* stimulation with OVA, when compared with those from the Mock group (Fig. 10A). The finding suggests that *Alcaligenes* lipid A has adjuvant activity to promote CD4⁺ T cell responses.

Next, I examined the production of cytokines from OVA-specific CD4⁺ T cells. Splenic CD4⁺ T cells from the *Alcaligenes* lipid A group preferentially produced IL-17 with little production of IL-4 and IFN- γ . And *Alcaligenes* lipid A group showed the increased tendency of IFN- γ and the decreased tendency of IL-4 when compared with Mock group (Fig. 10B). These results collectively indicate that *Alcaligenes* lipid A preferentially induced Th17 cell responses.

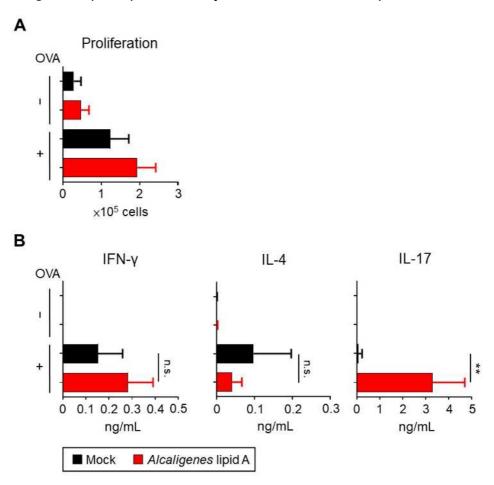


Fig. 10. *Alcaligenes* lipid A promoted OVA-specific Th17 cell responses. Mice were
subcutaneously immunized 2 times with OVA plus *Alcaligenes* lipid A; one week after the
final immunization, splenic CD4⁺ T cells were collected and stimulated with OVA by *ex vivo*.
(A) Proliferation activity of splenic CD4⁺ T cells were determined by CyQUANT® Cell

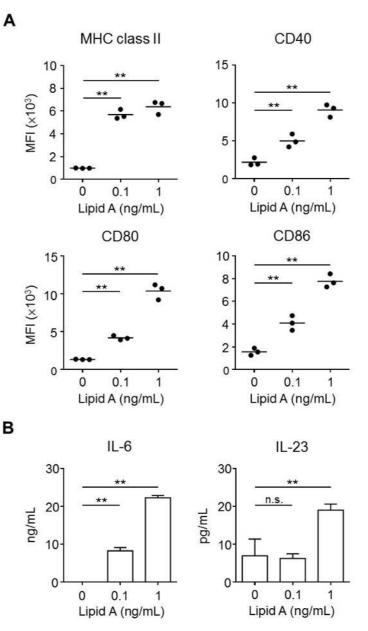
Proliferation Assays Kits and fluorescence microplate reader, ARVO X2 with measuring at 485/535 nm. (B) Production of cytokines: IFN-γ, IL-4 and IL-17 in the supernatant of splenic CD4⁺ T cell culture was collected and measured by the CBA kit (n = 6 per group). Data are combined of two independent experiments and analyzed by one-way ANOVA (**p < 0.01; n.s.: not significant).

568

569 **3.7.** *Alcaligenes* lipid A induced BMDCs activation

DCs play the key role in the induction of acquired immunity, including 570 antibody production and T cell responses through acting as antigen-presenting 571 cells. To examine effects of Alcaligenes lipid A on DCs, I measured expression 572 of MHC II and costimulatory molecules, including CD40, CD80 and CD86 when 573 574 BMDCs were stimulated with *Alcaligenes* lipid A by flow cytometry analysis. The expression of MHC II, CD40, CD80 and CD86 was increased by Alcaligenes 575 Lipid A in dose-dependent manner (Fig. 11A), indicating that Alcaligenes lipid A 576 577 induces activation of DCs.

578 Cytokines profile of DCs determines class of T cell responses, thus I next 579 examined cytokines produced from BMDCs. IL-6 and IL-23 produced from 580 BMDCs showed increased levels by stimulation with *Alcaligenes* lipid A in dose-581 dependent manner (Fig. 11B), indicating that *Alcaligenes* lipid A activates DCs 582 to induce production of Th17 polarization-associated cytokines, including IL-6.

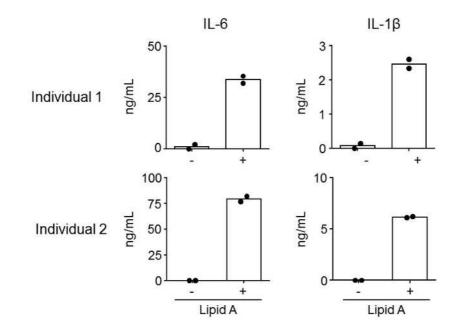


583

Fig. 11. *Alcaligenes* lipid A activated BMDCs. BMDCs were stimulated with *Alcaligenes* lipid A at the concentration of 0.1 and 1 ng/mL. After incubation for 48 hours, (A) expression of MHCII, CD80, CD86 and CD40 were analyzed by flow cytometry analysis. (B) Production of cytokines: IL-6 and IL-23 in the supernatant of BMDCs were collected and measured by the ELISA kit (n = 3-4 per group). Data are representative of two independent experiments and analyzed by one-way ANOVA (*p < 0.05; **p < 0.01; n.s.: not significant).

591 **3.8.** *Alcaligenes* lipid A activated human PBMCs

592 To consider effects of *Alcaligenes* lipid A on human, I examined cytokines 593 produced from PBMCs stimulated with *Alcaligenes* lipid A. In individuals 1 and 594 2, stimulation of 1 ng/mL with *Alcaligenes* Lipid A increased levels of IL-6 and 595 IL-1 β (Fig. 12). These results indicated that *Alcaligenes* lipid A could activate 596 human PBMCs. Furthermore, since IL-6 and IL-1 β were required for Th17 cell-597 differentiation in human, these results also suggest that *Alcaligenes* lipid A 598 could induce antigen-specific Th17 cell responses in human.



599

Fig. 12. Alcaligenes lipid A activated PBMCs. Human PBMCs from two independent
 individuals were stimulated with Alcaligenes lipid A at the concentration of 1 ng/mL. After
 incubation for 24 hours, production of cytokines: IL-6 and IL-1β in the supernatant of
 PBMCs were collected and measured by the CBA kit and the ELISA kit.

604

605 **3.9.** *Alcaligenes* lipid A showed no severe side effects.

606 Considering the safety of *Alcaligenes* lipid A as an adjuvant, I examined the 607 number of lymphocytes and platelets in blood of mice. Lymphocytes and 608 platelets were measured 24 hours after immunization. Mice immunized with 609 OVA plus *Alcaligenes* lipid A showed lower numbers of lymphocytes and 610 platelets, comparing with mice immunized with OVA alone, but the number of 611 lymphocytes and platelets is within a reasonable physiological range of mice or 612 slightly below the normal physiological range of mice. (Fig. 13A).

Body temperature was surveyed at different time points after the 613 immunization (0, 1st to 8th and 24th hour) by measuring rectal temperature of 614 mice. Immunization with Alcaligenes lipid A showed no effects on body 615 temperature, comparing with Mock group (OVA alone), and body temperature 616 617 of all mice are within a reasonable physiological range of mice (Fig. 13B). Consistent with this result, body weight was not changed before and after 618 619 immunization with OVA with or without Alcaligenes lipid A (Fig. 13C). Collectively, these results indicate that immunization with Alcaligenes lipid A did 620 not cause severe side effects on mice, suggesting application of Alcaligenes 621 lipid A as an adjuvant is safe. 622

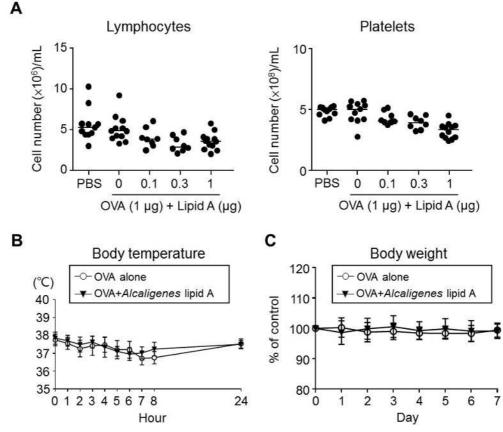




Fig. 13. *Alcaligenes* lipid A showed no severe side effects. Mice were subcutaneously immunized with OVA plus *Alcaligenes* lipid A. (A) The number of lymphocytes and platelets were measured in blood after 24 hours from immunization. (B) Body temperature at 0, 1st to 8th and 24th hour and (C) body weight in 7 days after the immunization were continuously monitored (n = 4 per group). Data are representative of two independent experiments.

630

631 **4. Discussion**

632 In this study, I revealed that Alcaligenes LPS as a nasal vaccine adjuvant have the efficacy to enhance antigen-specific respiratory including nasal and 633 634 BALF IgA antibody responses. Consistent with the elevation of IgA antibody responses, the data indicated that nasal immunization with OVA plus 635 636 Alcaligenes LPS induced GC formation in the NALT and CLNs, where Tfh cells were also induced. According to our previous study, Alcaligenes LPS stimulated 637 BMDCs or PP-derived DCs to produce IL-6 (7), a cytokine involved in the 638 differentiation of Tfh cells, Th17 cells, and IgA⁺ B cells (35–38). Collectively, 639 these findings indicate that Alcaligenes LPS creates an immunological 640 environment that promotes GC formation with Tfh cells and Th17 cells, which 641 in turn induces antibody responses in the NALT and CLNs. 642

643 I also found that similar serum IgG antibody responses induced by Alcaligenes 644 LPS immunized nasally or by *Alcaligenes* lipid A immunized subcutaneously. In 645 this study, Alcaligenes lipid A immunized subcutaneously induced the 646 subclasses antibody responses, including IgG1, IgG2b and IgG3. This evidence 647 was further supported by that Th17 cell responses induce production of IgG1, 648 IgG2b and IgG3 by secretion of IL-17 or IL-21 from Th17 cells (39). Moreover, 649 IgG antibody contributes to activating complement and phagocytosis by 650 macrophages and neutrophils to defense bacterial and viral infections (40). 651 Especially, since IgG1 and IgG3 show high activities in binding to C1q to induce 652 complement system, it is suggested that Alcaligenes lipid A is helpful to protect 653 against pathogen invasion through these immune responses (40).

As mentioned above, *Alcaligenes* LPS as nasal adjuvant induced Th17 cell
responses which is same as CT induced in this study, however, CT induces
different Th17 cell type from *Alcaligenes* LPS. Both adjuvants induced T cells
producing IL-17, but the T cells induced by CT also expressed IFN-γ, whereas
those induced by *Alcaligenes* LPS did not. IL-17 and IFN-γ–producing T cells

are considered pathogenic because they induce severe inflammatory 659 responses in autoimmune diseases (41,42). Consistent with our present 660 findings, studies by other groups have shown that CT induces IL-6, IL-1β, and 661 IL-23 from DCs (43), which creates an environment that promotes the 662 663 differentiation of pathogenic Th17 cells (44,45). Regarding Alcaligenes, in our previous studies, we demonstrated that heat-killed Alcaligenes induces the 664 production of IL-6, BAFF, TGF-β, and IL-10 when co-cultured with BMDCs, PP 665 DCs, or murine PP cells (4,7). However, in our previous study, heat-killed 666 Alcaligenes did not induce BMDCs to produce IL-12 (7), the cytokine that 667 causes differentiation of Th1 cell. These characteristics plausibly led to the 668 preferential differentiation of non-pathogenic Th17 cells by Alcaligenes LPS. 669 Thus, it is likely that the production of IL-1 β by antigen-presenting cells is the 670 factor to determine which type of Th17 cells (pathogenic or non-pathogenic) is 671 672 induced in our experimental condition. This is consistent with the results of a 673 previous study, which showed that IL-1 β is required for the pathogenicity of 674 Th17 during intracellular bacterial infection (46).

675 To understand the mechanism for the induction of Th17 cell responses and 676 the serum antibody production by Alcaligenes LPS and lipid A, I examined the 677 effects of *Alcaligenes* lipid A on DCs in this study. DCs present antigen to T cells 678 via MHC class II and costimulatory molecules, such as CD80 and CD86 679 (47,48), which are required for T cell activation, including T cell proliferation and 680 differentiation. In this regard, Alcaligenes lipid A enhances expression of MHCII, CD80 and CD86 from BMDCs in this study. Moreover, differentiation of T cells 681 is determined by differences in cytokine environment produced from antigen-682 presenting cells, including DCs. For example, transforming growth factor beta 683 $(TGF-\beta)$ and IL-6 promote the differentiation of Th17 cells, and IL-23 promotes 684 the stabilization of Th17 cells in mice (49-51). Consistent with our previous 685 reports about Alcaligenes-mediated activation of DCs (4,5,7), Alcaligenes lipid 686 A increases IL-6 and IL-23 production from murine BMDCs. Furthermore, 687

human PBMCs stimulated by *Alcaligenes* lipid A had increased production of IL-6 and IL-1β, which contribute to the differentiation and stabilization of human Th17 cells (49–52). IL-23 was also produced by the PBMCs; however, unlike IL-6 and IL-1β, the reactivity was different among the individuals. This difference between individuals indicates that *Alcaligenes* lipid A may have multiple pathways to induce human Th17 development (49–52).

In addition, *Alcaligenes* lipid A enhanced the expression of CD40 on BMDCs, suggesting that *Alcaligenes* lipid A could induce antibody production via the T cell independent pathway. CD40 expressed on DCs plays a role in regulating B cell proliferation by the direct interaction via CD40L expressed on B cells, leading to enhance IgG production (53).

In the present study, I also examined the safety of Alcaligenes LPS and lipid 699 A when being used as an adjuvant. I found that CT, but not Alcaligenes LPS, 700 701 induced inflammation in the nasal cavity, which was characterized by increased 702 infiltration of neutrophils and eosinophils with the increased levels of TNF- α and 703 IL-5 production from T cells. Consistent with the findings, our previous studies 704 showed that the production levels of TNF- α and nitric oxide (NO), an 705 inflammatory molecule that induces TNF- α production, were lower in BMDCs 706 treated with Alcaligenes LPS than in BMDCs treated with E. coli LPS (7,54). 707 TNF- α also upregulates vascular endothelial cell adhesion molecules such as 708 intercellular adhesion molecule 1 (ICAM-1), vascular adhesion molecule 709 (VCAM-1), and E-selectin, thereby promoting the migration of neutrophils and 710 eosinophils to sites of inflammation (32,55). And IL-5 induces the differentiation of eosinophils and interacts with IL-17 to promote the survival and 711 degranulation of eosinophils (32), leading to tissue inflammation and damage. 712 In addition, Alcaligenes LPS induced T cells secreting IL-10, which inhibits 713 neutrophil recruitment by regulating the secretion of chemokines such as 714 CXCL9 and 12 and CCL3–5, 11, and 17 (56). Together, these findings indicate 715 that Alcaligenes LPS did not induce inflammation because of lower production 716

of T cells producing TNF-α or IL-5 and higher production of T cells producing
IL10 compared to CT, resulting in the migration of fewer eosinophils and
neutrophils to the nasal cavity.

Regarding the immunological property of Alcaligenes LPS, our previous 720 721 studies indicated that Alcaligenes LPS has little cytotoxic activity. Indeed, 722 compared with E. coli LPS, Alcaligenes LPS showed lower endotoxin activity in 723 the limulus amebocyte lysate test and caused only limited inflammatory 724 reactions when intraperitoneally injected into mice, including lower levels of 725 serum IL-6, less change in body temperature, and less damage to lung tissue with little infiltration of inflammatory cells such as neutrophils and eosinophils 726 727 (7).

Alcaligenes lipid A did not show severe side effects on mice, when the 728 729 number of lymphocytes and platelets, body temperature and body weight were 730 examined as safe indicators for Alcaligenes lipid A as an adjuvant. However, 731 the number of lymphocytes and platelets shows a decrease in Alcaligenes lipid 732 A group, comparing with Mock group, but most of them were in normal range 733 of mice, suggesting that Alcaligenes lipid A has a slight risk of causing 734 leukopenia and thrombosis. I thought that it is still necessary to have more 735 careful consideration such as setting a safety dose, for the clinical application 736 of Alcaligenes lipid A.

737 In terms of IL-6 production from BMDCs, TLR4-deficient BMDCs did not 738 respond to Alcaligenes LPS, whereas TLR2-deficient BMDCs produced 739 comparable levels of IL-6 as wild type BMDCs (7). Further, Alcaligenes LPS did 740 not act as a competitive inhibitor of *E. coli* LPS in the IL-6 production from 741 BMDCs (7), collectively suggesting that Alcaligenes LPS acts as a weak agonist of TLR4, which is expressed in the nasal or lung tissues of mice (57,58). This 742 suggests that Alcaligenes LPS induced the immune responses also through 743 744 combination of TLR4.

745 As biochemical characteristics, the structure of LPS is mainly composed of lipid A, core oligosaccharide, and O-antigens. Lipid A is the active center of LPS 746 and acts as an agonist of TLR4/MD-2 complex. The activity as a TLR4 agonist 747 is determined by several feature of lipid A structure. As for lipid A component in 748 Alcaligenes LPS, a mixture of tetra- to hexa-acylated species was identified, 749 750 and the lipid A with hexa-acylated species was composed of a 751 bisphosphorylated glucosamine disaccharide backbone carrying 14:0 (3-OH) 752 as primary and 12:0 (3-OH) and 10:0 as secondary fatty acids with distribution 753 in a 3 + 3 fashion with respect to the disaccharide backbone, which were 754 different with E. coli LPS whose lipid A has 4 + 2 symmetry and is composed of 755 14:0 (3-OH) as primary and 14:0 and 12:0 as secondary fatty acids (22,59).

Although the other component of LPS such as O-antigen possibly plays some roles in the adjuvant activity of LPS (60), our previous studies implicated that the uniqueness of lipid A structure is the critical determinant of inflammatory activity. However, it is needed to study more details such as the relationship between the bioactivity and the structure of *Alcaligenes* LPS or lipid A to affect the signal pathway including MyD88 pathway after binding to TLR4 receptor to trigger the immune responses.

763 In conclusion, Alcaligenes LPS showed efficacy as a nasal vaccine adjuvant 764 to induce respiratory and systemic immune responses without inducing local 765 inflammation via the induction of non-pathogenic Th17 cell responses and GC 766 formation. And chemically synthesized *Alcaligenes* lipid A as an adjuvant in 767 systemic vaccination promoted both antigen-specific IgG antibody and Th17 responses in mice by directly stimulating DCs. Stimulation with Alcaligenes lipid 768 A also induced the production of IL-6 and IL-1 β in human PBMCs, suggesting 769 770 a potency to be applied for use in human.

771

772 Acknowledgements

I would like to thank Professors Fukase and Shimoyama (Osaka University)
for providing *Alcaligenes* LPS and lipid A, Professor Kiyono (The University of
Tokyo) for helpful discussion. Especially thank Dr. Hosomi and Professor
Kunisawa for the helpful instruction; the members of the Laboratory of Vaccine
Materials, Center for Vaccine and Adjuvant Research, and Laboratory of Gut
Environmental System, National Institutes of Biomedical Innovation, Health and
Nutrition (NIBIOHN) for their advice, encouragement, and help.

780

781 **References**

Ivanov II, Atarashi K, Manel N, et al. Induction of Intestinal Th17 Cells by
 Segmented Filamentous Bacteria. *Cell* (2009) **139**:485–498. doi:
 10.1016/j.cell.2009.09.033

2. Atarashi K, Suda W, Luo C, et al. Ectopic colonization of oral bacteria in the intestine drives T_{H1} cell induction and inflammation. *Science* (2017) **358**:359–365. doi: 10.1126/science.aan4526

3. Atarashi K, Tanoue T, Shima T, et al. Induction of colonic regulatory T cells
by indigenous Clostridium species. *Science* (2011) **331**:337–341. doi:
10.1126/science.1198469

4. Obata T, Goto Y, Kunisawa J, et al. Indigenous opportunistic bacteria
inhabit mammalian gut-associated lymphoid tissues and share a mucosal
antibody-mediated symbiosis. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* (2010) **107**:7419–7424.
doi: 10.1073/pnas.1001061107

5. Kunisawa J, Kiyono H. Alcaligenes is Commensal Bacteria Habituating in
the Gut-Associated Lymphoid Tissue for the Regulation of Intestinal IgA

797 Responses. *Front Immunol* (2012) **3**: doi: 10.3389/fimmu.2012.00065

Fung TC, Bessman NJ, Hepworth MR, et al. Lymphoid-Tissue-Resident
Commensal Bacteria Promote Members of the IL-10 Cytokine Family to
Establish Mutualism. *Immunity* (2016) 44:634–646. doi:
10.1016/j.immuni.2016.02.019

7. Shibata N, Kunisawa J, Hosomi K, et al. Lymphoid tissue-resident
Alcaligenes LPS induces IgA production without excessive inflammatory
responses via weak TLR4 agonist activity. *Mucosal Immunol* (2018) 11:693–
702. doi: 10.1038/mi.2017.103

806 8. Azegami T, Yuki Y, Kiyono H. Challenges in mucosal vaccines for the
807 control of infectious diseases. *Int Immunol* (2014) **26**:517–528. doi:
808 10.1093/intimm/dxu063

809 9. Lobaina Mato Y. Nasal route for vaccine and drug delivery: Features and
810 current opportunities. *Int J Pharm* (2019) **572**:118813. doi:
811 10.1016/j.ijpharm.2019.118813

10. Lee B, Kader MA, Colgate ER, et al. Oral rotavirus vaccine shedding as a
marker of mucosal immunity. *Sci Rep* (2021) **11**:21760. doi: 10.1038/s41598021-01288-1

11. Lanthier PA, Huston GE, Moquin A, et al. Live attenuated influenza vaccine

816 (LAIV) impacts innate and adaptive immune responses. Vaccine (2011)

817 **29**:7849–7856. doi: 10.1016/j.vaccine.2011.07.093

12. Asanuma H, Thompson AH, Iwasaki T, et al. Isolation and characterization

of mouse nasal-associated lymphoid tissue. J Immunol Methods (1997)

820 **202**:123–131. doi: 10.1016/s0022-1759(96)00243-8

13. Kuper CF, Koornstra PJ, Hameleers DM, et al. The role of nasopharyngeal
lymphoid tissue. *Immunol Today* (1992) **13**:219–224. doi: 10.1016/01675699(92)90158-4

14. Kiyono H, Fukuyama S. NALT- versus PEYER'S-patch-mediated mucosal
immunity. *Nat Rev Immunol* (2004) **4**:699–710. doi: 10.1038/nri1439

- 15. Boyaka PN. Inducing Mucosal IgA: A Challenge for Vaccine Adjuvants and
- 827 Delivery Systems. *J Immunol* (2017) **199**:9–16. doi: 10.4049/jimmunol.1601775

828 16. Fazilleau N, Mark L, McHeyzer-Williams LJ, et al. Follicular helper T cells:

- 829 lineage and location. *Immunity* (2009) **30**:324–335. doi:
 830 10.1016/j.immuni.2009.03.003
- 17. Lamichhane A, Azegami T, Kiyono H. The mucosal immune system for
- 832 vaccine development. *Vaccine* (2014) **32**:6711–6723. doi:
 833 10.1016/j.vaccine.2014.08.089
- 18. Song L, Xiong D, Song H, et al. Mucosal and Systemic Immune Responses
- to Influenza H7N9 Antigen HA1-2 Co-Delivered Intranasally with Flagellin or
- 836 Polyethyleneimine in Mice and Chickens. Front Immunol (2017) 8:326. doi:
- 837 10.3389/fimmu.2017.00326
- 19. Orr B, Douce G, Baillie S, et al. Adjuvant effects of adenylate cyclase toxin
- of Bordetella pertussis after intranasal immunisation of mice. *Vaccine* (2007)
- 840 **25**:64–71. doi: 10.1016/j.vaccine.2006.07.019
- 841 20. Steimle A, Autenrieth IB, Frick J-S. Structure and function: Lipid A
- 842 modifications in commensals and pathogens. *Int J Med Microbiol IJMM* (2016)
- **306**:290–301. doi: 10.1016/j.ijmm.2016.03.001

Fujimoto Y, Shimoyama A, Saeki A, et al. Innate immunomodulation by
lipophilic termini of lipopolysaccharide; synthesis of lipid As from
Porphyromonas gingivalis and other bacteria and their immunomodulative
responses. *Mol Biosyst* (2013) **9**:987. doi: 10.1039/c3mb25477a

848 22. Shimoyama A, Di Lorenzo F, Yamaura H, et al. Lipopolysaccharide from

849 Gut-Associated Lymphoid-Tissue-Resident Alcaligenes faecalis: Complete

850 Structure Determination and Chemical Synthesis of Its Lipid A. *Angew Chem*851 *Int Ed* (2021)10023–10031. doi: 10.1002/anie.202012374

23. Yoshii K, Hosomi K, Shimoyama A, et al. Chemically Synthesized
Alcaligenes Lipid A Shows a Potent and Safe Nasal Vaccine Adjuvant Activity
for the Induction of Streptococcus pneumoniae-Specific IgA and Th17 Mediated
Protective Immunity. *Microorganisms* (2020) 8:1102. doi:
10.3390/microorganisms8081102

Suzuki H, Nagatake T, Nasu A, et al. Impaired airway mucociliary function
reduces antigen-specific IgA immune response to immunization with a claudin4-targeting nasal vaccine in mice. *Sci Rep* (2018) 8:2904. doi: 10.1038/s41598018-21120-7

25. Nagatake T, Hirata S-I, Koga T, et al. BLT1 mediates commensal bacteriadependent innate immune signals to enhance antigen-specific intestinal IgA
responses. *Mucosal Immunol* (2019) **12**:1082–1091. doi: 10.1038/s41385-0190175-z

865 26. Nagatake T, Suzuki H, Hirata S, et al. Immunological association of 866 inducible bronchus-associated lymphoid tissue organogenesis in Ag85B-

867 rHPIV2 vaccine-induced anti-tuberculosis mucosal immune responses in mice.

868 Int Immunol (2018) **30**:471–481. doi: 10.1093/intimm/dxy046

869 27. Wei Z, Spizzo I, Diep H, et al. Differential Phenotypes of Tissue-Infiltrating

T Cells during Angiotensin II-Induced Hypertension in Mice. *PLoS ONE* (2014)

871 **9**:e114895. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0114895

28. Okada K, Sato S, Sato A, et al. Identification and Analysis of Natural Killer

873 Cells in Murine Nasal Passages. PLOS ONE (2015) 10:e0142920. doi:

874 10.1371/journal.pone.0142920

29. Luckheeram RV, Zhou R, Verma AD, et al. CD4⁺T cells: differentiation and

functions. *Clin Dev Immunol* (2012) **2012**:925135. doi: 10.1155/2012/925135

877 30. Griffin GK, Newton G, Tarrio ML, et al. IL-17 and TNF-α Sustain Neutrophil

878 Recruitment during Inflammation through Synergistic Effects on Endothelial

Activation. *J Immunol* (2012) **188**:6287–6299. doi: 10.4049/jimmunol.1200385

31. Zeng G, Zhang G, Chen X. Th1 cytokines, true functional signatures for
protective immunity against TB? *Cell Mol Immunol* (2018) **15**:206–215. doi:

882 10.1038/cmi.2017.113

883 32. Klion AD, Ackerman SJ, Bochner BS. Contributions of Eosinophils to

Human Health and Disease. *Annu Rev Pathol Mech Dis* (2020) **15**:179–209.

doi: 10.1146/annurev-pathmechdis-012419-032756

33. Bedke T, Muscate F, Soukou S, et al. IL-10-producing T cells and their dual

functions. *Semin Immunol* (2019) **44**:101335. doi: 10.1016/j.smim.2019.101335

888 34. Gao H, Ying S, Dai Y. Pathological Roles of Neutrophil-Mediated

889 Inflammation in Asthma and Its Potential for Therapy as a Target. *J Immunol*

890 *Res* (2017) **2017**:1–12. doi: 10.1155/2017/3743048

- 35. Crotty S. Follicular Helper CD4 T Cells (T FH). Annu Rev Immunol (2011) 891
- 892 29:621–663. doi: 10.1146/annurev-immunol-031210-101400
- 36. Crotty S. T Follicular Helper Cell Differentiation, Function, and Roles in 893 Disease. Immunity (2014) 41:529-542. doi: 10.1016/j.immuni.2014.10.004
- 894
- 37. Ramsay AJ, Husband AJ, Ramshaw IA, et al. The role of interleukin-6 in 895
- mucosal IgA antibody responses in vivo. Science (1994) 264:561-563. doi: 896
- 897 10.1126/science.8160012
- 38. Beagley KW, Eldridge JH, Lee F, et al. Interleukins and IgA synthesis. 898
- Human and murine interleukin 6 induce high rate IgA secretion in IgA-899 900 committed В cells. J Exp Med (1989) **169**:2133–2148. doi: 10.1084/jem.169.6.2133 901
- 902 39. Mitsdoerffer M, Lee Y, Jäger A, et al. Proinflammatory T helper type 17
- cells are effective B-cell helpers. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A (2010) 107:14292-903
- 14297. doi: 10.1073/pnas.1009234107 904
- 905 40. Scott-Taylor TH, Axinia S-C, Amin S, et al. Immunoglobulin G; structure
- and functional implications of different subclass modifications in initiation and 906
- 907 resolution of allergy. Immun Inflamm Dis (2018) 6:13-33. doi: 10.1002/iid3.192
- 41. Harbour SN, Maynard CL, Zindl CL, et al. Th17 cells give rise to Th1 cells 908
- that are required for the pathogenesis of colitis. Proc Natl Acad Sci (2015) 909
- **112**:7061–7066. doi: 10.1073/pnas.1415675112 910
- 42. Yasuda K, Takeuchi Y, Hirota K. The pathogenicity of Th17 cells in 911 912 autoimmune diseases. Semin Immunopathol (2019) 41:283-297. doi: 10.1007/s00281-019-00733-8 913

914 43. Silva-Vilches C, Pletinckx K, Lohnert M, et al. Low doses of cholera toxin
915 and its mediator cAMP induce CTLA-2 secretion by dendritic cells to enhance
916 regulatory T cell conversion. *PLOS ONE* (2017) **12**:e0178114. doi:
917 10.1371/journal.pone.0178114

44. Lee Y, Awasthi A, Yosef N, et al. Induction and molecular signature of
pathogenic TH17 cells. *Nat Immunol* (2012) 13:991–999. doi: 10.1038/ni.2416
45. Stockinger B, Omenetti S. The dichotomous nature of T helper 17 cells. *Nat Rev Immunol* (2017) 17:535–544. doi: 10.1038/nri.2017.50

922 46. Uchiyama R, Yonehara S, Taniguchi S, et al. Inflammasome and Fas923 Mediated IL-1β Contributes to Th17/Th1 Cell Induction in Pathogenic Bacterial
924 Infection In Vivo. *J Immunol* (2017) **199**:1122–1130. doi:
925 10.4049/jimmunol.1601373

47. Zhao Y, Hanniffy S, Arce-Gorvel V, et al. Immunomodulatory properties of
Brucella melitensis lipopolysaccharide determinants on mouse dendritic cells in
vitro and in vivo. *Virulence* (2018) **9**:465–479. doi:
10.1080/21505594.2017.1386831

48. Audiger C, Rahman MJ, Yun TJ, et al. The Importance of Dendritic Cells

931 in Maintaining Immune Tolerance. J Immunol Baltim Md 1950 (2017)

932 **198**:2223–2231. doi: 10.4049/jimmunol.1601629

49. Korn T, Bettelli E, Oukka M, et al. IL-17 and Th17 Cells. Annu Rev Immunol

- 934 (2009) **27**:485–517. doi: 10.1146/annurev.immunol.021908.132710
- 935 50. Patel DD, Kuchroo VK. Th17 Cell Pathway in Human Immunity: Lessons
- from Genetics and Therapeutic Interventions. *Immunity* (2015) **43**:1040–1051.
- 937 doi: 10.1016/j.immuni.2015.12.003

51. Knochelmann HM, Dwyer CJ, Bailey SR, et al. When worlds collide: Th17
and Treg cells in cancer and autoimmunity. *Cell Mol Immunol* (2018) 15:458–
469. doi: 10.1038/s41423-018-0004-4

52. Revu S, Wu J, Henkel M, et al. IL-23 and IL-1β Drive Human Th17 Cell
Differentiation and Metabolic Reprogramming in Absence of CD28
Costimulation. *Cell Rep* (2018) **22**:2642–2653. doi:
10.1016/j.celrep.2018.02.044

53. Ma DY, Clark EA. The role of CD40 and CD154/CD40L in dendritic cells.

946 Semin Immunol (2009) **21**:265–272. doi: 10.1016/j.smim.2009.05.010

947 54. Hosomi K, Shibata N, Shimoyama A, et al. Lymphoid Tissue-Resident

948 Alcaligenes Establish an Intracellular Symbiotic Environment by Creating a

949 Unique Energy Shift in Dendritic Cells. *Front Microbiol* (2020) **11**:561005. doi:

- 950 10.3389/fmicb.2020.561005
- 951 55. Soroush F, Tang Y, Mustafa O, et al. Neutrophil-endothelial interactions of
- 952 murine cells is not a good predictor of their interactions in human cells. FASEB

953 *J* (2020) **34**:2691–2702. doi: 10.1096/fj.201900048R

954 56. Peñaloza HF, Nieto PA, Muñoz-Durango N, et al. Interleukin-10 plays a

955 key role in the modulation of neutrophils recruitment and lung inflammation

956 during infection by Streptococcus pneumoniae. *Immunology* (2015) **146**:100–

- 957 112. doi: 10.1111/imm.12486
- 57. Lafferty EI, Qureshi ST, Schnare M. The role of toll-like receptors in acute
- 959 and chronic lung inflammation. J Inflamm (2010) 7:57. doi: 10.1186/1476-9255-
- 960 7-57

- 58. Arora S, Ahmad S, Irshad R, et al. TLRs in pulmonary diseases. *Life Sci*(2019) 233:116671. doi: 10.1016/j.lfs.2019.116671
- 59. Fukase K, Kirikae T, Kirikae F, et al. Synthesis of [³H]-Labeled Bioactive
 Lipid A Analogs and Their Use for Detection of Lipid A-Binding Proteins on
 Murine Macrophages. *Bull Chem Soc Jpn* (2001) **74**:2189–2197. doi:
- 966 10.1246/bcsj.74.2189
- 967 60. Nurminen marjatta, Älander R-M. The role of the O antigen in adjuvant
- 968 activity of lipopolysaccharide. FEMS Microbiol Lett (1991) 83:51-54. doi:
- 969 10.1111/j.1574-6968.1991.tb04387.x