Aberystwyth University

Rethinking Schistosomiasis Vaccine Development

Egesa, Moses; Hoffmann, Karl; Hokke, Cornelis H.; Yazdanbakhsh, Maria; Cose, Stephen

Published in:

Trends in Parasitology

DOI:

[10.1016/j.pt.2017.07.007](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pt.2017.07.007)

Publication date:

2017

Citation for published version (APA):

Egesa, M., Hoffmann, K., Hokke, C. H., Yazdanbakhsh, M., & Cose, S. (2017). Rethinking Schistosomiasis Vaccine Development: Synthetic Vesicles. *Trends in Parasitology*, 33(12), 918-921. [1671].
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pt.2017.07.007>

General rights

Copyright and moral rights for the publications made accessible in the Aberystwyth Research Portal (the Institutional Repository) are retained by the authors and/or other copyright owners and it is a condition of accessing publications that users recognise and abide by the legal requirements associated with these rights.

- Users may download and print one copy of any publication from the Aberystwyth Research Portal for the purpose of private study or research.
- You may not further distribute the material or use it for any profit-making activity or commercial gain
- You may freely distribute the URL identifying the publication in the Aberystwyth Research Portal

Take down policy

If you believe that this document breaches copyright please contact us providing details, and we will remove access to the work immediately and investigate your claim.

tel: +44 1970 62 2400

email: is@aber.ac.uk

Forum

Rethinking
Schistosomiasis
Vaccine
Development:
Synthetic Vesicles

Moses Egesa,^{1,2}
Karl F. Hoffmann,³
Cornelis H. Hokke,⁴
Maria Yazdanbakhsh,⁴ and
Stephen Cose^{2,5,*}

There is currently no vaccine against schistosomiasis. With few *Schistosoma* vaccine candidates in clinical trials, unexplored antigens from the vulnerable schistosomulum should be considered as possible vaccine candidates. In addition, we suggest developing synthetic vesicles as a new delivery vehicle and adjuvant for immunoprophylactic schistosomula vaccine candidates.

It Is Time to Think Elimination

Schistosomiasis is one of the most prevalent parasitic diseases worldwide. Treatment of schistosomiasis in at-risk populations with a single dose of praziquantel annually has not prevented transmission of *Schistosoma*, and consequently reinfection is common in endemic areas. The World Health Organisation (WHO) reported that 219 million people worldwide needed preventative treatment against schistosomiasis in 2015. Of those who required treatment, less than one third received it through mass drug administration (MDA) programmes [1]. Even more disconcerting is that modelling studies suggest that MDA will only reduce the prevalence of schistosomiasis if more than 70% of communities participate and the MDA is conducted annually [2]. A drug-based strategy alone therefore

may not move national schistosomiasis programs of low- to middle-income countries from morbidity control towards elimination [3]. Other interventions, working alongside MDA, such as vaccination, could effectively prevent reinfection, and thus eliminate schistosomiasis. Vaccination with radiation-attenuated cercariae protects murine and nonhuman primate models against challenges with schistosomes. However, using radiation-attenuated cercariae in human trials is impractical because they are difficult to produce under good manufacturing practice (GMP), and delivery of the vaccine under liquid nitrogen presents considerable logistical challenges. As a consequence, recombinant antigens that can be easily produced are being considered as potential subunit vaccine candidates (reviewed in [4]). Some of these vaccine candidates are efficacious against challenge infection in animal models, but show low immunogenicity as purified single antigens when tested further in human preclinical tests. Therefore, we suggest two approaches to improve the immunogenicity of *Schistosoma* vaccine antigens. Firstly, multiple, and not single, antigens should be used [both extracellular vesicle (EV) and non-EV encoded] in the development of a schistosomiasis vaccine. Secondly, we consider synthetic vesicles as a proof-of-concept antigen-delivery and adjuvant system. *Schistosoma*-shed vesicles have been recently identified [5,6], but whether we can design synthetic stimulatory versions of these vesicles to deliver *Schistosoma* vaccine targets is a question yet to be addressed. This Forum article examines the potential of using synthetic vesicles as adjuvant and delivery vehicle containing multiple schistosomula vaccine candidates.

Targeting Schistosomula Antigens As Vaccine Candidates

The schistosomulum is the transition phase between a free-living nonfeeding cercaria in fresh water and the parasitic blood fluke in the mammalian host. When cercariae penetrate human skin they transform into the skin-stage

schistosomula (Figure 1). The skin-stage schistosomula upregulates specific genes during transformation to facilitate invasion and to survive the hostile host immune response [7]. The schistosomula also develops both an inner and outer lipid bilayer membrane covering the tegument that facilitates survival within the host. Just as the new coat develops, the early postpenetration schistosomulum is vulnerable to host immune-mediated attack [8]. The late-phase schistosomulum is less susceptible to both eosinophil- and macrophage-mediated cytotoxicity when it develops towards adulthood. Early schistosomulum antigens are therefore possible candidates for the development of a prophylactic vaccine against human schistosome infections. However, there are few current efforts to identify and prioritise schistosomula antigens for a novel vaccine. One such initiative was The SchistoVac consortium that targeted antigens highly expressed by the skin schistosomula for vaccine development[†]. The work done provides a template for future targeted (stage-specific) vaccine development.

Schistosomes are complex multicellular organisms, and this may partly explain why current vaccines composed of a single antigen are not capable of inducing long-lived protective immunity. We propose multiple-antigen preparations to target different aspects of the early-stage schistosomula ranging from tegument formation and turnover to metabolite (glucose) uptake. In fact, the multivalent chimeric schistosomiasis vaccine of SmTSP-2 and Sm29 induces more robust immune responses compared to single-antigen preparations in mice [9]. Although identifying new antigens based on the schistosomulum is a critical step, combining new and existing antigens as a multiple vaccine preparation is, we believe, a necessary step in designing the next generation of vaccines to a complex, multicellular organism. We would suggest both non-EV antigens (to target the schistosomula) and

Figure 1. Migration of Schistosomula through the Host Skin. 1. The cercaria is attracted to human skin. 2. The cercaria burrows through the skin and detaches the bifurcated tail to form a schistosomulum. 3. The schistosomulum releases excretion/secretion (ES) products, including extracellular vesicles (EVs) that interact with resident Langerhans cells, which migrate to skin draining lymph nodes to initiate adaptive immune responses. 4. The schistosomulum moves towards the basement membrane that temporarily halts their migration. 5. Once in the dermis, the schistosomulum is vulnerable to antibody-mediated killing by granulocytes. 6. Schistosome-induced cytokines activate more phagocytes and polarize the immune response towards inflammatory responses. 7. The schistosomulum penetrates dermal veins and migrates to the lungs. 8. The schistosomulum is coated with host proteins as an immune evasion mechanism. The figure was adapted and modified from Servier Medical Artⁱⁱ.

EV-encoded antigens (to target secreted EVs). Finally, the multiple-antigen vaccine will require new tools, such as synthetic vesicles, to be delivered to immune cells.

Synthetic Vesicles to Deliver *Schistosoma* Vaccine Candidates

Schistosomes release excreted/secreted (E/S) products to survive the hostile host immune system. Among these products

characterised to date are *Schistosoma*-shed extracellular vesicles (EVs) [5,6], spherical structures encapsulated by a lipid bilayer and shown to be responsible for intercellular communication [10]. The major subsets of EVs are exosomes, microvesicles, and apoptotic bodies. EVs are classified based on their biogenesis, their size, and what surface markers they express. Of importance is that

Schistosoma EVs (derived from both schistosomula and adult worms) contain potential vaccine candidates, including SmTSP-2 and Sm29 [5,6].

We suggest packaging schistosome vaccine antigens in synthetic vesicles because naturally occurring *Schistosoma mansoni* EVs may contain inhibitory biological material such as miRNAs and

Table 1. Pros and Cons of Antigen Delivery via Synthetic Vesicles

Advantages	EV ^a and non-EV antigens target both schistosomula and EVs, increasing immunogenicity
	Antigen-presenting cells can be targeted by displaying specific ligands on the outer surface of synthetic vesicles using GPI ^b anchors
	Adding molecules that activate antigen-presenting cells means that synthetic vesicles are not just antigen-delivery vehicles, but also an adjuvant as well
	Synthetic vesicles exhibit natural EV properties, such as stability and resistance to enzymatic degradation in body fluids
	Naturally occurring EV cargo, such as miRNA, with inhibitory properties, is avoided in synthetic vesicles
	Synthetic vesicles lack host proteins, a potential mechanism for decreasing immunogenicity
Disadvantages	Expensive to manufacture
	Risk of reactogenicity associated with synthetic materials may lead to adverse effects in humans
	Extensive regulatory requirements are expected for human use license

^aEV, extracellular vesicle.^bGPI, Glycosylphosphatidylinositol.

tsRNAs [6]. Packaging parasite antigens into vesicles will improve their antigenicity compared to using the antigens directly for vaccination [11]. Another advantage of utilizing synthetic vesicles is that they are free of host proteins that have been described in EVs of other parasites such as *Echinostoma caproni* and *Fasciola hepatica* [12]. The proof-of-concept for manufacturing synthetic vesicles already exists with other lipid molecules such as virus-like particles (VLPs) and outer-membrane vesicles (OMVs). The pros and cons of antigen delivery using synthetic vesicles are summarised in Table 1. We suggest that it is now time to take this technology forward and target the schistosome.

Vaccine candidates within vesicles are also effectively protected from degradation as they move through body fluids, improving their stability within the host. For synthetic vesicles to work as adjuvants, additional ligands that target receptors on antigen-presenting cells – such as pathogen recognition receptors on dendritic cells – could be added to the vesicle surface using glycosylphosphatidylinositol (GPI) anchors for robust cellular responses. With appropriate thought given to the incorporation of membrane-embedded glycoprotein ligands or receptors, targeting specific

immunological cells could be engineered and achieved. In addition to targeting the actual schistosomula, immune responses induced by synthetic vesicles (to EV-encoded antigens) will also target and neutralise *Schistosoma* EVs, decreasing the ability of the schistosomula to dampen immune responses and make the environment less suitable for survival. All in all, immune responses to multiple-antigen preparations from the early phase of the schistosomulum, packaged in synthetic vesicles, may prevent development of the adult schistosomes and subsequently the laying of eggs that cause the pathology associated with schistosomiasis.

Concluding Remarks

Although schistosomiasis is treatable, reinfections are common in endemic areas. It is widely acknowledged that a vaccine used alongside chemotherapy would control, and possibly eliminate, schistosomiasis. We have suggested using synthetic vesicles that are pre-loaded with multiple schistosomula antigens to elicit protective, skin-stage host responses as a next-generation antischistosomal vaccine. As we move towards 2025, the year that WHO has set to eliminate schistosomiasis globally, these and other novel approaches are required to develop vaccines.

Disclaimer Statement

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

Acknowledgments

ME was supported by a Wellcome Trust Uganda PhD Fellowship in Infection and Immunity funded by a Wellcome Trust Strategic Award (Grant no. 084344) and through the DELTAS Africa Initiative (Grant no. 107743). The DELTAS Africa Initiative is an independent funding scheme of the African Academy of Sciences (AAS)'s Alliance for Accelerating Excellence in Science in Africa (AESA) and supported by the New Partnership for Africa's Development Planning and Coordinating Agency (NEPAD Agency) with funding from the Wellcome Trust (Grant no. 107743) and the UK government. The views expressed in this publication are those of the author(s) and not necessarily those of AAS, NEPAD Agency, Wellcome Trust, or the UK government. ME also received support from TheSchistoVac (Grant no. 242107) under the European Community's Seventh Framework Programme (FP7-Health-2009-4.3.1-1).

Resources

ⁱwww.theschistovac.eu/

ⁱⁱ<http://smart.servier.com/>

¹Department of Medical Microbiology, School of Biomedical Sciences, Makerere University College of Health Sciences, Kampala, Uganda

²Medical Research Council/Uganda Virus Research Institute Uganda Research Unit on AIDS, Entebbe, Uganda

³Institute of Biological, Environmental and Rural Sciences (IBERS), Edward Llwyd Building, Room 3-31, Aberystwyth University, Ceredigion, SY23 3DA, UK

⁴Department of Parasitology, Leiden University Medical Center, Albinusdreef 2, 2333 ZA Leiden, The Netherlands

⁵Department of Clinical Research, London School of Hygiene & Tropical Medicine, Keppel Street, London WC1E 7HT, UK

*Correspondence:

stephen.cose@lshtm.ac.uk,
stephen.cose@mrcuganda.org (S. Cose).
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.pt.2017.07.007>

References

1. WHO/Department of Control of Neglected Tropical Diseases (2016) Schistosomiasis and soil-transmitted helminthiasis: number of people treated in 2015. *Wkly. Epidemiol. Rec.* 91, 585–595
2. Gurarie, D. *et al.* (2015) Modelling control of *Schistosoma haematobium* infection: predictions of the long-term impact of mass drug administration in Africa. *Parasites Vectors* 8, 529
3. Ross, A.G. *et al.* (2015) Can mass drug administration lead to the sustainable control of schistosomiasis? *J. Infect. Dis.* 211, 283–289
4. Hewitson, J.P. and Maizels, R.M. (2014) Vaccination against helminth parasite infections. *Expert Rev. Vaccines* 13, 473–487
5. Sotillo, J. *et al.* (2016) Extracellular vesicles secreted by *Schistosoma mansoni* contain protein vaccine candidates. *Int. J. Parasitol.* 46, 1–5
6. Nowacki, F.C. *et al.* (2015) Protein and small non-coding RNA-enriched extracellular vesicles are released by the pathogenic blood fluke *Schistosoma mansoni*. *J. Extracell. Vesicles* 4, 28665
7. Fitzpatrick, J.M. *et al.* (2009) Anti-schistosomal intervention targets identified by lifecycle transcriptomic analyses. *PLoS Negl. Trop. Dis* 3, e543
8. Butterworth, A.E. *et al.* (1974) Antibody-dependent cell-mediated damage to schistosomula *in vitro*. *Nature* 252, 503–505
9. Pinheiro, C.S. *et al.* (2014) A multivalent chimeric vaccine composed of *Schistosoma mansoni* SmTSP-2 and Sm29 was able to induce protection against infection in mice. *Parasite Immunol.* 36, 303–312
10. Coakley, G. *et al.* (2016) Host parasite communications – messages from helminths for the immune system: parasite communication and cell–cell interactions. *Mol. Biochem. Parasitol.* 208, 33–40
11. Beauvillain, C. *et al.* (2009) Exosomes are an effective vaccine against congenital toxoplasmosis in mice. *Vaccine* 27, 1750–1757
12. Marcilla, A. *et al.* (2012) Extracellular vesicles from parasitic helminths contain specific excretory/secretory proteins and are internalized in intestinal host cells. *PLoS One* 7, e45974