

THE NASAL MICROBIOTA: DIVERSITY, DYNAMICITY, AND VACCINE-MEDIATED EFFECTS

Jane C. Deng, M.D., M.S.

Associate Professor of Medicine

David Geffen School of Medicine

University of California, Los Angeles

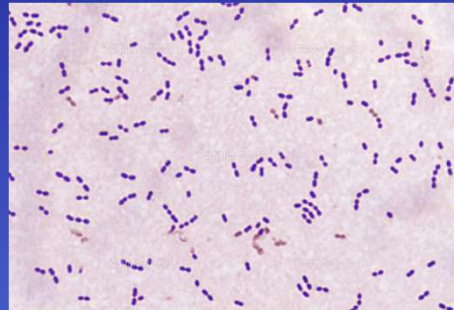
Section Chief, Pulmonary and Critical Care

Veteran Affairs Medical Center, Ann Arbor,
Michigan

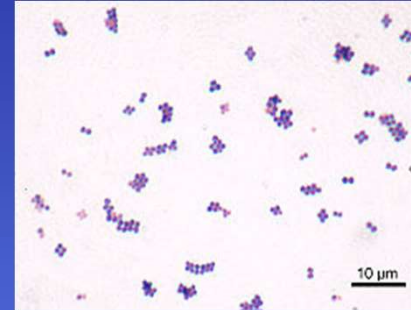
Why do we care about the nasopharyngeal microbiota?

- Pneumonia – bacterial and influenza – is a leading cause of death in the United States and worldwide
 - 1.3 million child deaths annually (*O'Brien, et al, Lancet 2009*)
- We believe the upper respiratory tract flora informs, to a large extent, the microbiota of the lower respiratory tract (LRT) and is a precursor to LRT infections (e.g., pneumonia)
- Involved in maintenance and dissemination of pathogens across the population
- May also govern the acquisition of antibiotic resistance genes among bacteria from different genera

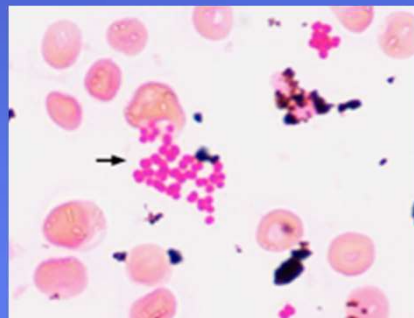
“The Big Four” in the nasopharynx



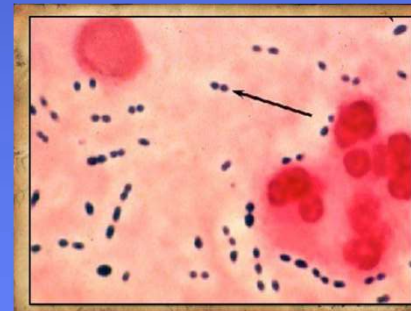
Streptococcus pneumoniae



Staphylococcus aureus



Moraxella catarrhalis



Haemophilus influenzae

List of members of the “normal” bacterial flora in the nose and oropharynx (partial)

- *Staph epi*
- *Propionobacteria*
- *Staph aureus*
- *Streptococcus pne*
- *Strept pyogenes*
- *Neisseria spp (inclu*
- *Haemophilus influ*
- *Mycoplasma*
- *Corynebacterium diphtheriae* (less common member of the normal flora after vaccination)

Our bodies are
“colonized” with
potentially pathogenic
bacteria

Unanswered questions

- How does bacterial colonization happen in the first place by potentially pathogenic bacteria
 - Host factors
- How do interspecies interactions alter bacterial composition (bacteria-bacteria, viral-bacteria)
- How do environmental factors alter the nasal flora?
 - Temperature
 - Humidity
 - Pollution
 - Cigarette smoke
 - Antibiotics
- How does microbe transition from colonizer to invader

Unanswered questions

- How does bacterial colonization happen in the first place by potentially pathogenic bacteria
 - Host factors
- How do interspecies interactions alter bacterial composition (bacteria-bacteria, viral-bacteria)
- How do environmental factors alter the nasal flora?
 - Temperature
 - Humidity
 - Pollution
 - Cigarette smoke
 - Antibiotics
- How does microbe travel to the nose?
 - Invader

How intranasal vaccine alters bacterial composition in the nose
- Role of the host immune response

Nasopharyngeal microbiota

- The community is established in the first year after birth
- Varies throughout lifetime
- High inter-individual variability

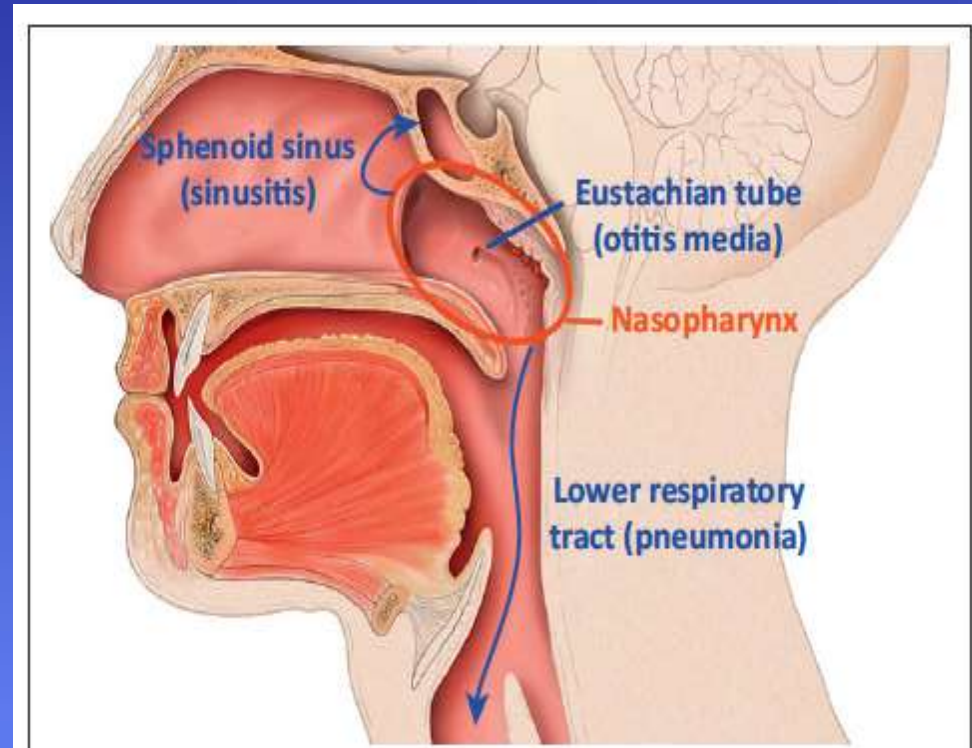


TABLE 1 Most frequent nasal swab OTUs^a

| OTU | Frequency (%) ^b |
|-------------------------------------|----------------------------|
| Unclassified <i>Moraxellaceae</i> | 19.00 |
| <i>Streptococcus</i> | 17.86 |
| <i>Corynebacterium</i> | 7.04 |
| <i>Moraxella</i> | 6.46 |
| <i>Haemophilus</i> | 4.66 |
| Unclassified <i>Pasteurellaceae</i> | 4.09 |
| <i>Staphylococcus</i> | 3.84 |
| <i>Acinetobacter</i> | 3.44 |
| <i>Dolosigranulum</i> | 3.21 |
| <i>Propionibacterium</i> | 3.13 |
| Unclassified <i>Proteobacteria</i> | 2.59 |
| <i>Lactococcus</i> | 2.58 |
| <i>Neisseria</i> | 1.45 |
| <i>Actinomyces</i> | 1.24 |
| <i>Rothia</i> | 1.13 |
| <i>Veillonella</i> | 1.05 |

^a Frequency of $\geq 1\%$.

^b Percentage of total sequences per nasal microbial community, i.e., per child.

Children (6 mos. to 6 years old in Philadelphia

- 69% African-American
- 88% completed PCV7 vaccine
- All had URI symptoms

Nasal microbiota composition

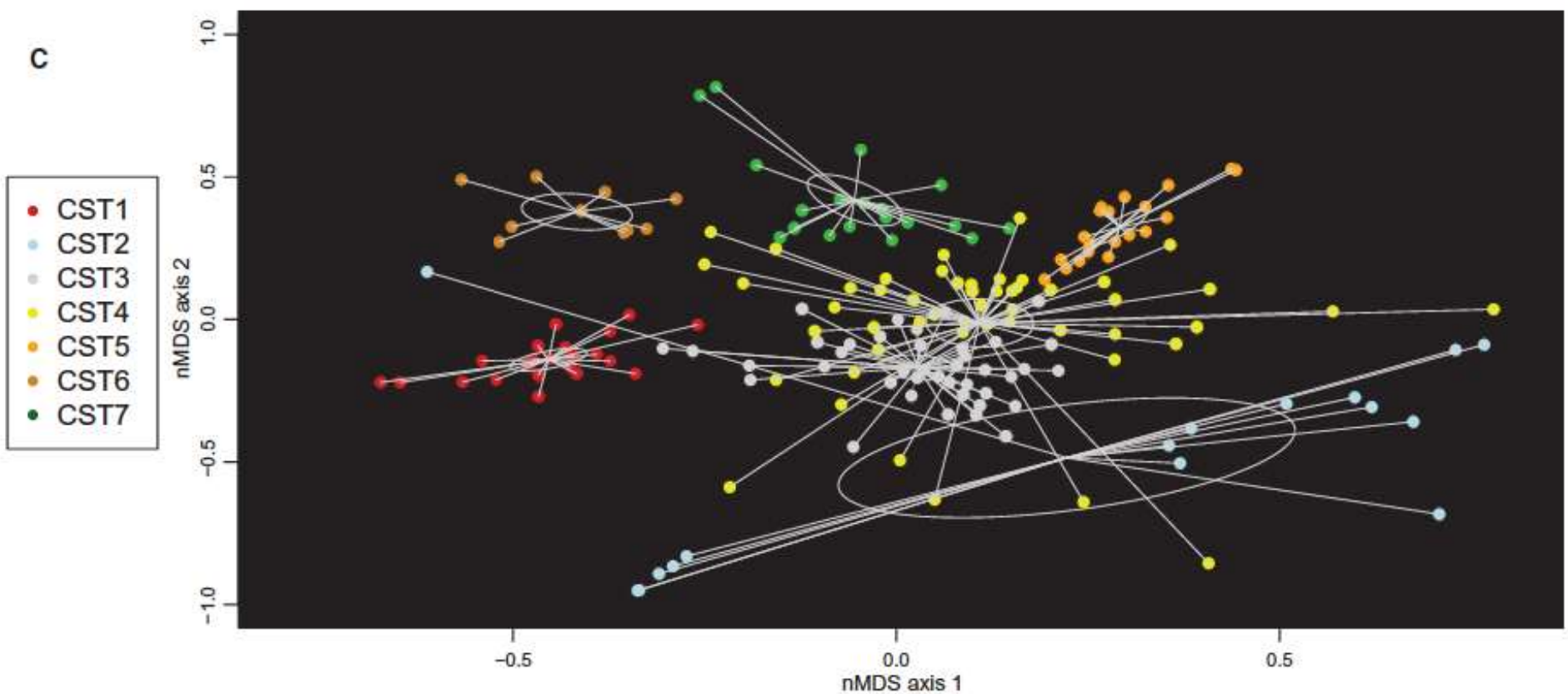
Danish Twin Registry study: (2015)

- Adults in Denmark
- Median nasal bacterial density $\sim 4 \times 10^6$ 16S rRNA copies per nasal swab (range 6.7×10^5 to 2.1×10^9 copies)
 - Women had less than half the nasal density of men (2.97 vs. 7.94×10^6 copies)
- Most **ubiquitous** bacterial taxa are:
 - *Corynebacterium* (88.2%)
 - *Propionibacterium acnes* (83.7%)
 - *Staphylococcus epidermidis* (90.4%)

Liu et al, Science Advances, 2015

Nasal microbiota composition

Danish Twin Registry study: (2015)



Liu et al, Science Advances, 2015

Important themes

- The microbiome of a particular site is a community, where the number of pathogens are kept in check.
- The inhabitants of individual communities can look very different from person to person or from body niche body niche, but the communities function similarly in the healthy state.
- When that community is perturbed in such a way that you have elimination of the normal inhabitants, you have proliferation of the bad actors, and perhaps even the emergence of newly acquired pathogens

Effects of pneumococcal vaccine

- Nasopharyngeal colonization precedes bacterial pneumonia and otitis media
 - Invasive diseases (septicemia, meningitis)
 - Children often carry multiple serotypes
- Several *S. pneumoniae* vaccines in clinical use
 - Pneumococcal polysaccharide-based (PPS)
 - Pneumovax – 23 polysaccharide
 - Pneumococcal conjugate vaccines
 - PCV7, PCV10, PCV13 (Pevnar)
- PCV programs have been successful in decreasing incidence of pneumococcal diseases... but eliminating the strain-specific serotypes in vaccine is followed by emergence of non-vaccine serotypes in the population
 - New clones become more evident
 - Capsule switching

Table 2Effects of pneumococcal vaccination on nasopharyngeal carriage rates of *S. aureus*, *H. influenzae*, and *M. catarrhalis* in children.

| Study [ref] | Study description | Ages examined | <i>S. aureus</i> | <i>H. influenzae</i> | <i>M. catarrhalis</i> |
|-----------------------------------|--|---|---|--|---|
| Madhi et al. 2007 [45] | Randomised controlled trial of PCV9 in South Africa | mean age 5.64 years (5.3 years after third dose of vaccine) | No differences in carriage between PCV9 and placebo groups | No differences in carriage between PCV9 and placebo groups | ND |
| Prymula et al. 2009 [69] | Randomised controlled trial of PCV11 in Czech Republic and Slovakia | 6, 12–15, 13–16, 15–18, 19–22, and 24–27 months | ND | Lower carriage in the PCV11 group (10%) compared to control (18%) at 15–18 months; no longer significant when molecular assays differentiating NTHi and <i>H. haemolyticus</i> applied | ND |
| Lee et al. 2009 [33] | Prospective observational study in two time periods following PCV7 introduction (2–3 and 5–6 years post-PCV7) in the United States | Mean age 2.7 years | Carriage rate remained stable at 14% in both time periods examined | ND | ND |
| van Gils et al. 2011 [65,66] | Randomised controlled trial of PCV7 in the Netherlands | 6 weeks and 6, 12, 18, and 24 months | Higher carriage in the 2 + 1 dose group (10%) compared to unvaccinated controls (5%) at 12 months | No differences between vaccinated children and unvaccinated controls | Lower carriage in the 2 + 1 dose group (61%) compared to unvaccinated controls (68%) at 12 months |
| Prymula et al. 2011 [70] | Randomised controlled trial of PCV10 in Czech Republic | 12–15, 13–16, 15–18, 19–22, and 24–27 months | ND | Lower carriage of NTHi (differentiated from <i>H. haemolyticus</i>) in the PCV10 group (10%) compared to unvaccinated controls (16%) at 24–27 months | ND |
| Dunne et al. 2012 [59] | Randomised controlled trial of PCV7 with or without 23 valent polysaccharide booster (23vPPS) in Fiji | 17 months | ND | No differences in carriage between PCV7 (with or without 23vPPS) and unvaccinated controls | No differences in carriage between PCV7 (with or without 23vPPS) and unvaccinated controls |
| Ho et al. 2012 [64] | Cross-sectional study in Hong Kong | Mean age 3.9 years | No difference in carriage between PCV7 vaccinated and unvaccinated children | ND | ND |
| Dukers-Muijrrers et al. 2012 [32] | Cross-sectional study in the Netherlands | 6 weeks to 4 years | No difference in carriage between PCV7 vaccinated and unvaccinated children | ND | ND |
| Spijkerman et al. 2012 [63] | Cross-sectional study in two time periods following PCV7 introduction (3 and 4–5 years post-PCV7) compared to pre-PCV7 data in the Netherlands | 11–12 months and 24 months | Higher carriage in both post-PCV7 time periods (9% and 14%) compared to pre-PCV7 (5%) at 11–12 months | Higher carriage in both post-PCV7 time periods at 11–12 months (65% and 65% post-PCV7 compared to 46% pre-PCV7) and at 24 months (73% and 76% post-PCV7 compared to 52% pre-PCV7) | Higher carriage 4–5 years post-PCV7 (80%) compared to pre-PCV7 (59%) at 24 months |

Note: Only statistically significant differences are reported. ND= not determined.

Dunne et al, Vaccine (2013)

Table 2Effects of pneumococcal vaccination on nasopharyngeal carriage rates of *S. aureus*, *H. influenzae*, and *M. catarrhalis* in children.

| Study [ref] | Study description | Ages examined | <i>S. aureus</i> | <i>H. influenzae</i> | <i>M. catarrhalis</i> |
|--------------------------|---|---|--|---|-----------------------|
| Madhi et al. 2007 [45] | Randomised controlled trial of PCV9 in South Africa | mean age 5.64 years (5.3 years after third dose of vaccine) | No differences in carriage between PCV9 and placebo groups | No differences in carriage between PCV9 and placebo groups | ND |
| Prymula et al. 2009 [69] | Randomised controlled trial of PCV11 in Czech Republic and Slovakia | 6, 12–15, 13–16, 15–18, 19–22, and 24–27 months | ND | Lower carriage in the PCV11 group (10%) compared to control (18%) at 15–18 months; no longer significant when | ND |

Conclusions from a number of epidemiological studies:

- Widespread use of PCV has coincided with increased incidence of MRSA infections
- Carriage *S. aureus* has been shown to increase or not change following introduction of PCV
 - H₂O₂ produced by *S. pneumoniae* kills *S. aureus*?
 - No study shows significant association between *S. pneumoniae* and *S. aureus* carriage
- *S. pneumoniae* carriage does appear to be positively associated with *H. influenzae* carriage and *Moraxella catarrhalis* in most studies
 - Serotype specific
 - PCV vaccine study in Netherlands: (Spijkerman *Plos One* 2012)
 - Vaccine strains of Sp decreased; increase in non-vaccine strains
 - H influenzae prevalence increased

Note: Only statistically significant differences are reported. ND= not determined.

Dunne et al, *Vaccine* (2013)

Changes in the nasopharyngeal microbiome after PHiD-CV in Kenyan toddlers

Table 2. Relative abundance of common nasopharyngeal bacterial 16S rRNA sequence types

| Taxa | All Subjects | PHiD-CV Group (N = 25) ^a | | Control Group (N = 29) ^a | | Day 180-Day0 |
|----------------------------------|-------------------|-------------------------------------|-------------------|-------------------------------------|-------------------|-----------------------------------|
| | Day 0 | Day 0 | Day 180 | Day 0 | Day 180 | Comparison (p-value) ^b |
| Proteobacteria | 56.9% (33.7–70.6) | 58.6% (31.4–70.2) | 61.7% (46.2–78.3) | 53.8% (36.1–70.6) | 57.1% (43.6–69.8) | 0.74 |
| <i>Haemophilus influenzae</i> | 1.6% (0–9.8) | 1.6% (0–7.9) | 1.0% (0–4.9) | 2.0% (0–13.8) | 2.5% (0–12.6) | 0.85 |
| <i>Moraxella catarrhalis</i> | 12.3% (3.7–24.5) | 15.7% (3.4–28) | 12% (1–24.6) | 9.2% (3.7–18.8) | 4.2% (1.4–13.1) | 0.65 |
| <i>Moraxella nonliquefaciens</i> | 2.1% (0.6–10) | 2.5% (1.2–9.5) | 4.0% (0.8–14) | 1.4% (0.3–10.2) | 2.4% (0.1–8.9) | 0.47 |
| Firmicutes | 25.9% (15–46.8) | 20.1% (11.8–44.8) | 18.2% (8.6–46.6) | 26.6% (19.9–46.9) | 31.6% (15.6–41.2) | 0.66 |
| <i>Streptococcus pneumoniae</i> | 4.4% (0.2–25.4) | 4.0% (0.3–32.3) | 10.3% (0.4–37.7) | 4.9% (0–21.1) | 10% (0.9–35.3) | 0.67 |
| Actinobacteria | 7.8% (1.8–21.6) | 8.5% (1.5–15.8) | 5.1% (0.9–9.2) | 6.9% (2.3–22.1) | 2.1% (0.5–15.2) | 0.18 |
| <i>Corynebacterium spp.</i> | 5.6% (1.7–19.8) | 8.5% (0.9–15.4) | 3.8% (0.8–7.7) | 5.2% (2–21.1) | 2.1% (0.4–15.1) | 0.45 |
| Bacteroidetes | 0.4% (0.1–3.8) | 0.7% (0.2–4.1) | 1.0% (0–4.2) | 0.3% (0.1–2.4) | 0.3% (0–3.3) | 0.92 |
| Other Phyla | 0% (0–0.2) | 0% (0–0.3) | 0.1% (0–0.2) | 0.1% (0–0.2) | 0% (0–0.2) | 0.15 |

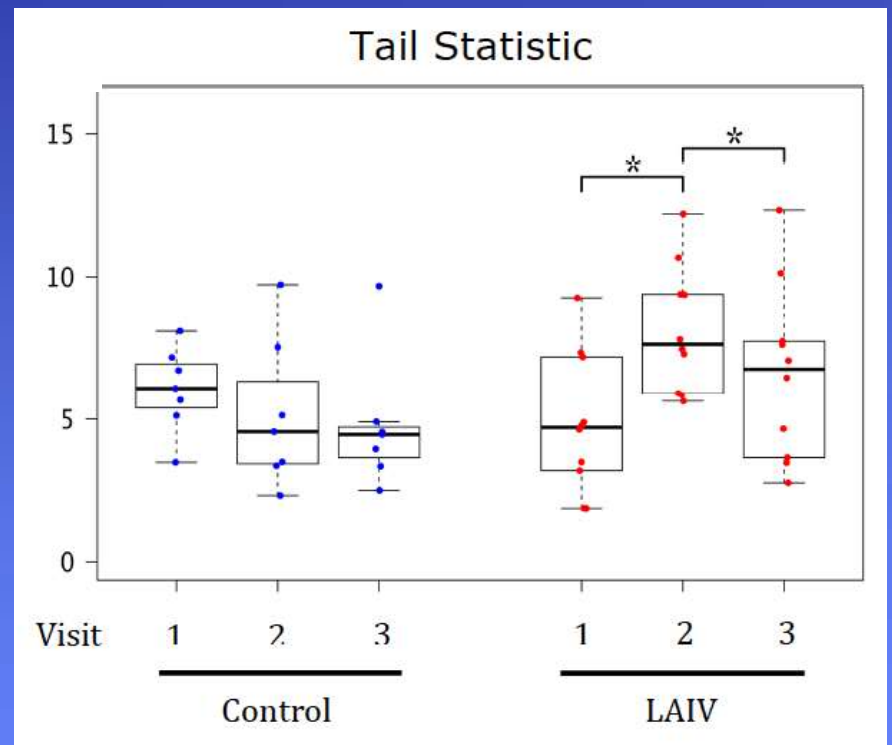
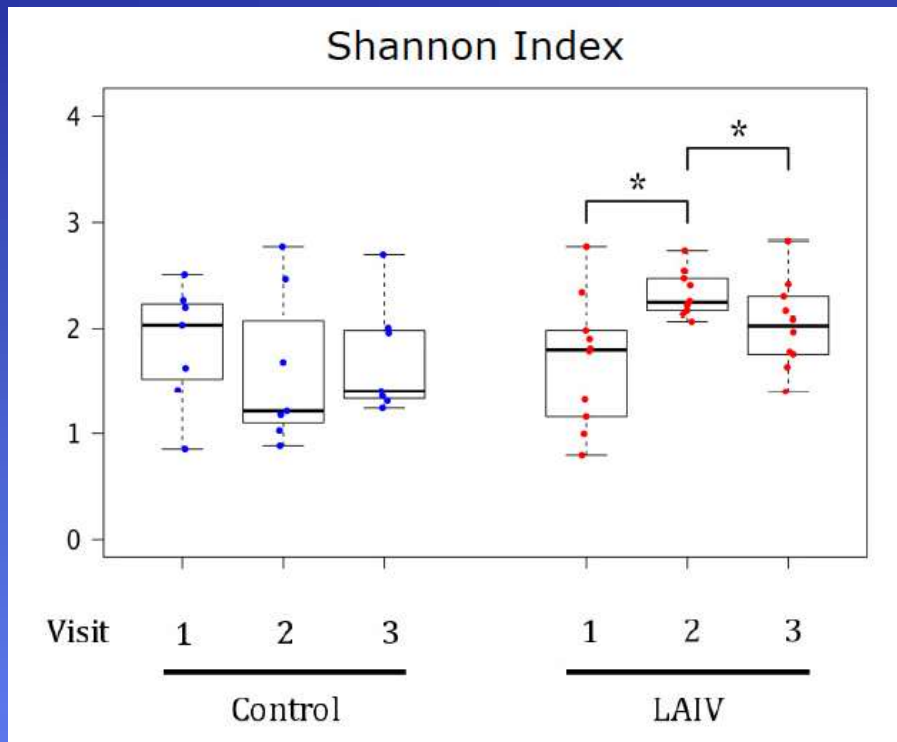
Feazel et al, *Plos One*, (2015)

Changes in microbiome following viral vaccine

- Has not been examined
- Study was conceived as a means of interrogating whether type I interferons were an important mechanism for post-viral bacterial pneumonias
- Used LAIV nasal vaccine as means of stimulating the host antiviral immune response

Effects of influenza vaccine

- Healthy adult volunteers between ages 18-65 in Los Angeles
 - Non-smokers, no chronic medical conditions
- Sampled nasal swabs+nasal wash at baseline, 2 weeks, and 6 weeks after live attenuated influenza vaccine (intranasal LAIV) or saline nasal spray (control)
- Examined changes in the microbiome by 16S sequencing
- Concurrently obtained nasal epithelial brushings for host transcriptome analysis (microarray) to determine immune responses



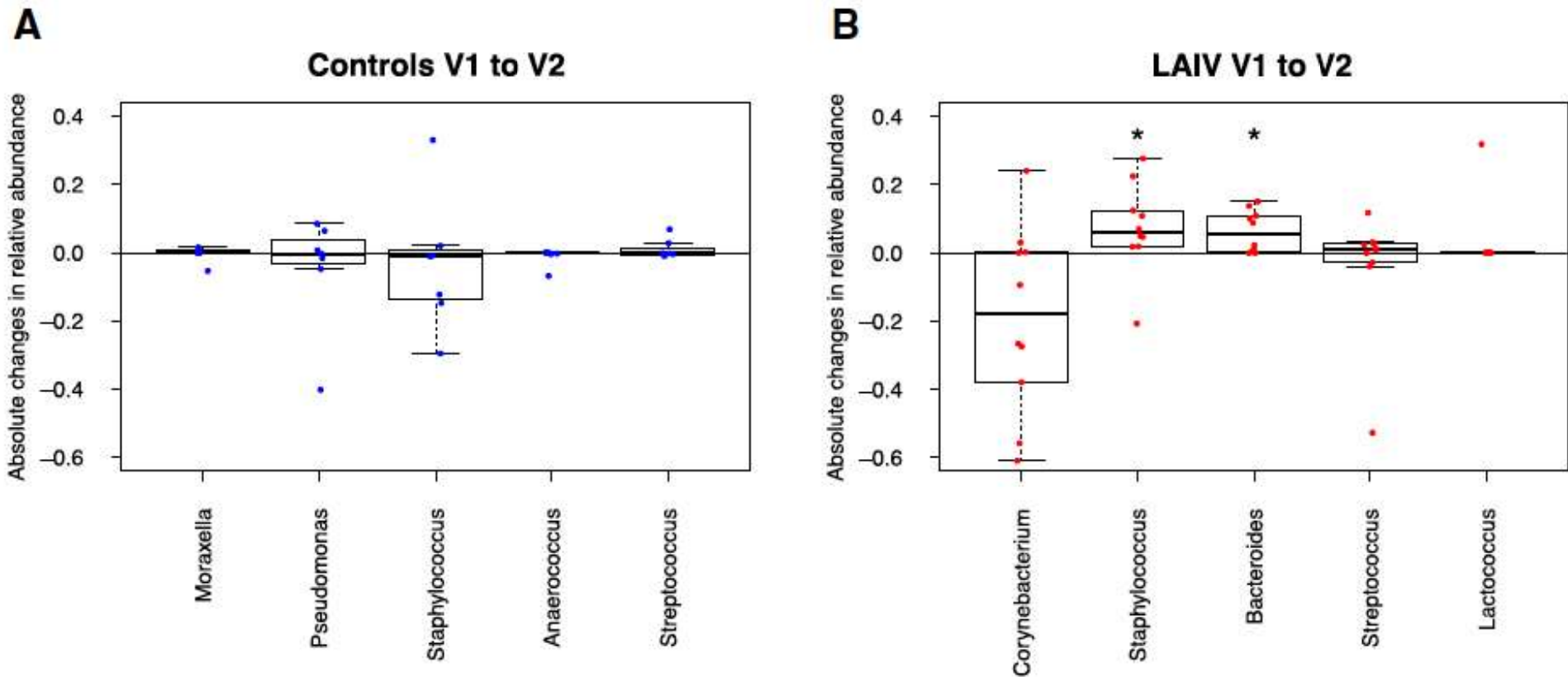
Tarabichi et al, Microbiome (2015)

Table 2 Mean relative abundance of detected phyla and genera by group and visit

| Phylum | Controls | | | LAIV | | |
|----------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| | Visit 1 (%) | Visit 2 (%) | Visit 3 (%) | Visit 1 (%) | Visit 2 (%) | Visit 3 (%) |
| <i>Genera (in italics)</i> | | | | | | |
| Actinobacteria | 37.46 | 38.94 | 35.42 | 45.97 | 23.52 | 38.96 |
| <i>Corynebacterium</i> | 24.89 | 25.75 | 25.16 | 34.44 | 15.40 | 30.86 |
| <i>Propionibacterium</i> | 10.29 | 11.09 | 8.00 | 6.66 | 6.21 | 5.35 |
| <i>Actinomycetales</i> | 1.41 | 1.62 | 1.60 | 3.09 | 1.42 | 2.16 |
| Firmicutes | 32.18 | 25.56 | 41.56 | 40.71 | 51.34 | 44.99 |
| <i>Staphylococcus</i> | 16.14 | 12.79 | 25.28 | 19.04 | 26.37 | 24.53 |
| <i>Streptococcus</i> | 1.11 | 2.14 | 0.49 | 8.37 | 4.68 | 4.26 |
| <i>Bacilli Class</i> | 2.67 | 2.10 | 4.10 | 3.60 | 4.80 | 4.32 |
| <i>Bacillales</i> | 1.87 | 1.37 | 2.74 | 1.85 | 2.56 | 2.55 |
| Proteobacteria | 23.91 | 30.29 | 13.34 | 5.28 | 6.92 | 5.01 |
| <i>Moraxella</i> | 11.66 | 22.16 | 10.51 | 0.68 | 0.02 | 0.12 |
| <i>Pseudomonas</i> | 7.59 | 3.12 | 0.87 | 0.03 | 1.26 | 0.07 |
| <i>Enterobacteriaceae</i> | 0.92 | 1.20 | 0.18 | 3.29 | 1.69 | 0.47 |
| Bacteroidetes | 1.40 | 0.85 | 0.04 | 2.60 | 7.87 | 4.95 |
| <i>Bacteroides</i> | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.01 | 0.00 | 6.26 | 4.13 |
| Cyanobacteria | 1.36 | 1.85 | 1.41 | 1.04 | 3.66 | 3.65 |
| <i>Streptophyta</i> | 1.21 | 1.79 | 1.40 | 1.03 | 3.58 | 0.88 |

Tarabichi et al, *Microbiome* (2015)

Top 5 most changed genera



Tarabichi et al, *Microbiome* (2015)

- Defense response
- Lymphocyte mediated immunity
- Antigen processing and presentation
- Acute inflammatory reaction
- Cellular response to cytokine stimulus
- Interferon gamma mediated signalling

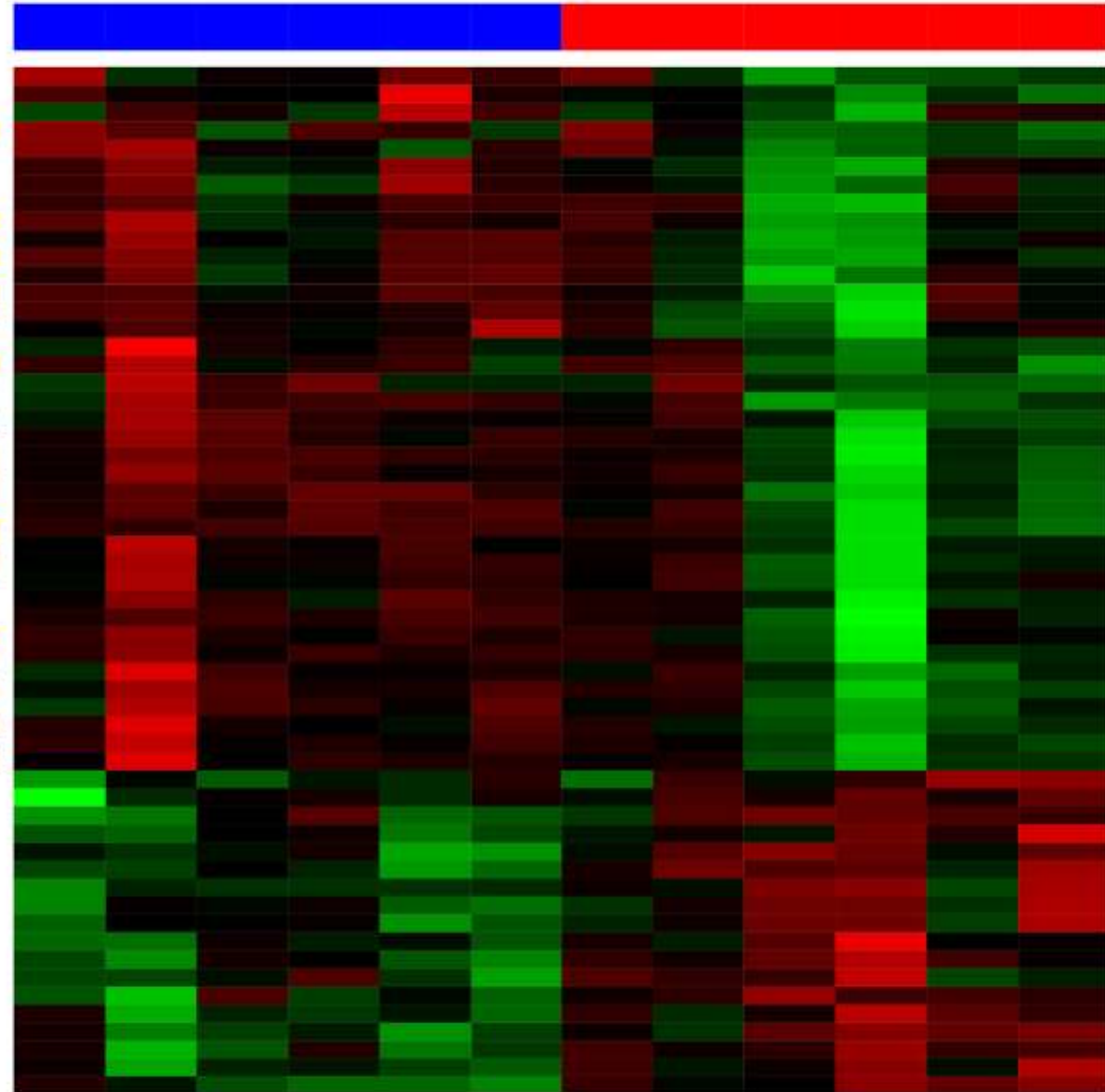
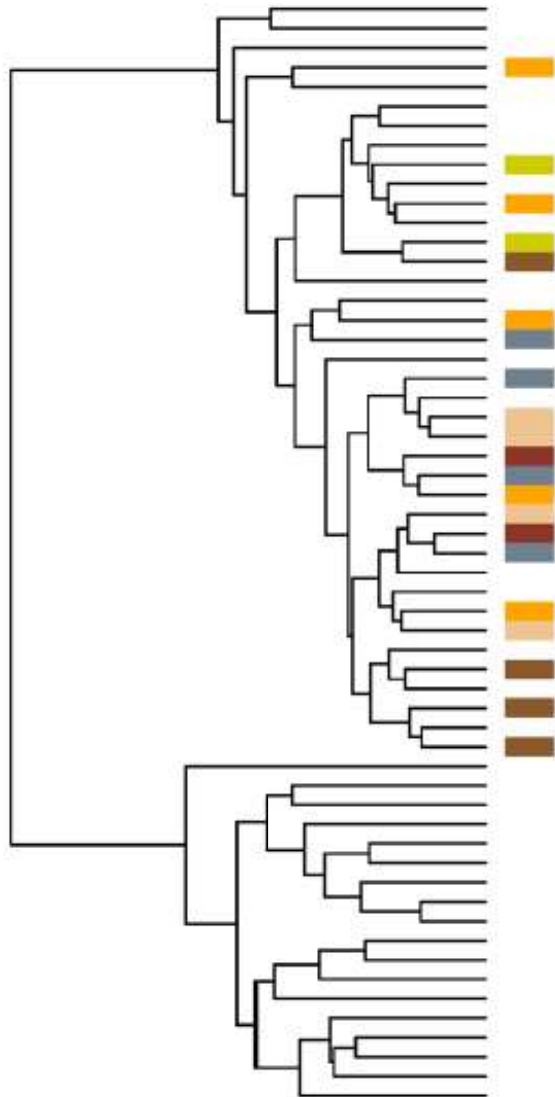
Visit 1

Visit 2

Color Key



-2 0 2
Row Z-Score

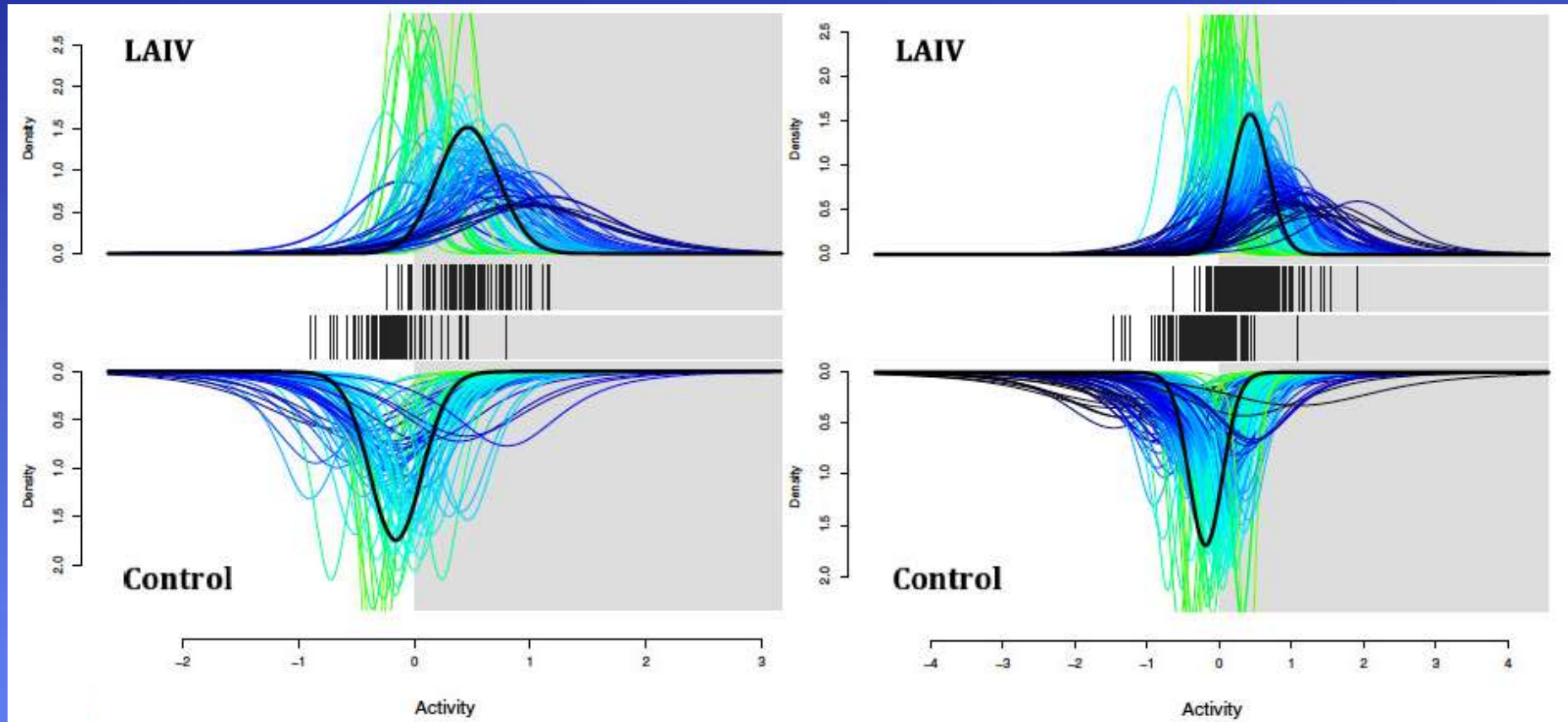


- ATP12A
- RHOU
- ST8SIA4
- SERPINA1
- SLC26A4
- ASPHD2
- BCAT1
- DUOXA2
- DUOX2
- HS3ST3B1
- CFB
- PDZK1IP1
- CCRL2
- TNIP3
- SOCS2
- MS4A7
- C3
- HLA-DPA1
- FAR2
- HLA-DRA
- IL10RA
- HLA-DMA
- HLA-DMB
- BTN3A3
- HLA-F
- SERPINC1
- CYBB
- C1QB
- GBP2
- GIMAP8
- TRIM31
- CD163
- TNFSF13B
- FGL2
- WIPF1
- MPEG1
- COTL1
- LAPTMS
- TYROBP
- TFAP2B
- CALML3
- LAMB4
- KRT15
- LRRC2
- UBE2QL1
- DST
- SNAI2
- LAMB1
- LRP4
- POSTN
- KAL1
- ITM2A
- TENM2
- COL7A1
- BCAM
- DKK3
- CDH11

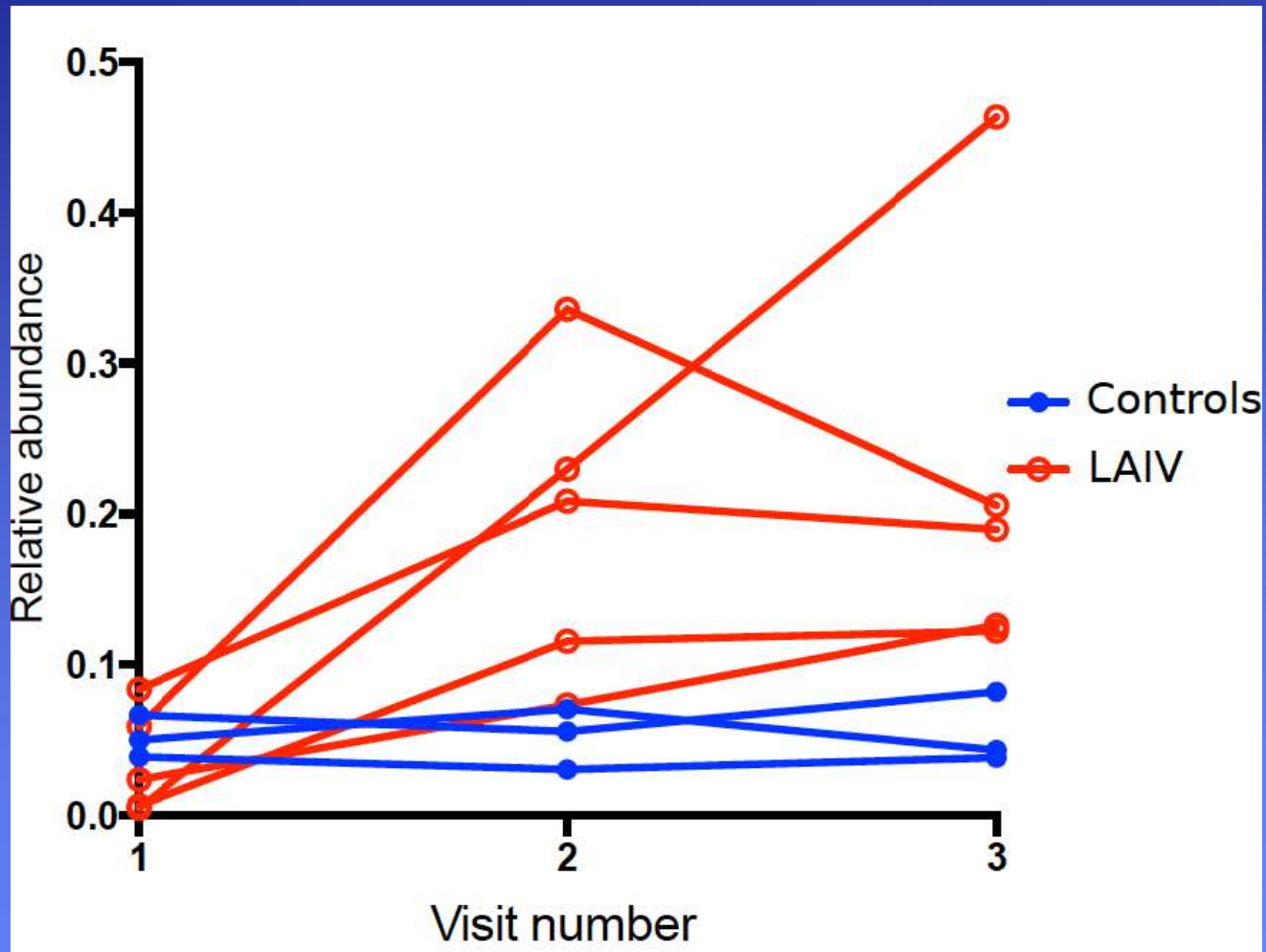
Interferon-stimulated genes

Type I IFN

Type II IFN



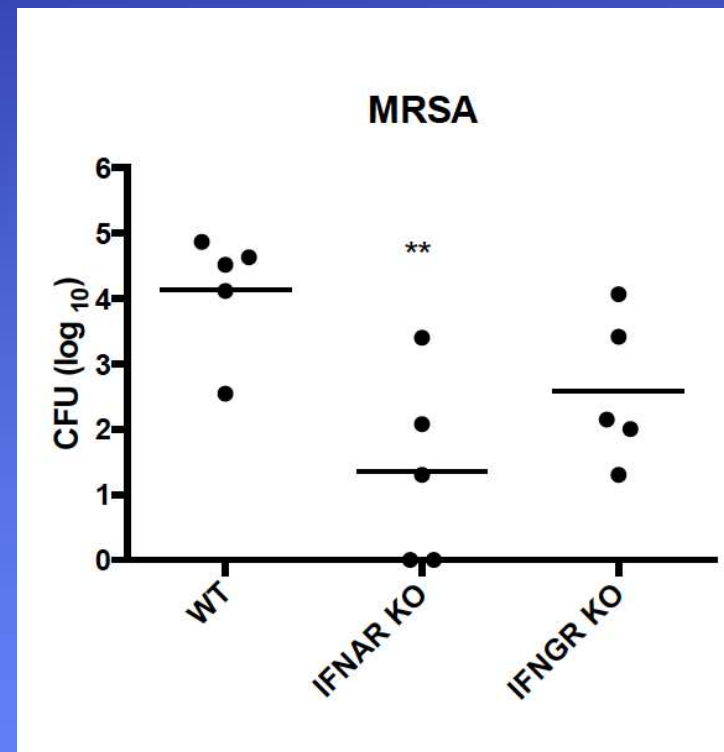
LAIV is associated with increased abundance of Staphylococcus



IFN may enhance *S. aureus* colonization

Administered MRSA intranasally to WT mice and knockout strains for type I interferon receptor (IFNAR KO) and type II interferon receptor (IFNGR KO)

- Examined persistence of MRSA
- IFNAR animals had significantly lower intranasal load of MRSA



Conclusions

- The nasal-pharyngeal microbiome is of significance to public health and to vaccine developers
 - Composition may impact the development of lower respiratory tract and other invasive infections (otitis media, meningitis, sinusitis, etc.)
 - Involved in maintenance and transmission of pathogens throughout a community
- The composition on the whole is remarkably robust to environmental changes
- However, external perturbations – such as viruses or vaccines – can promote the emergence of specific bacterial taxa
 - Which may be mediated by host responses

Conclusions (cont.)

- We need a better mechanistic understanding of inter-microbial interactions
 - How elimination or reduction of individual microbial populations alters presence, abundance, diversity, and behavior of others
 - Long-term view of vaccinations – alter carriage patterns in populations over time
 - Short-term benefits versus long-term implications
- How host factors alter the acquisition and/or elimination of individual taxa
 - Immune responses
 - Individual ecological factors

Acknowledgements

UCLA

- Scott Hu, M.D., M.S.C.R.
- Yasir Tarabichi, M.D., M.S.C.R.
- Wing Lung
- Connie Yuen, M.S.
- DOM Statistical Core
 - David Elashoff, Ph.D.
 - Xiaoyan Wang, Ph.D

J. Craig Venter Institute

- Barbara Methe, Ph.D.
- Kelvin Li, Ph.D.

NIH Genomic Sequencing Centers for Infectious Diseases

- Maria Giovanni, Ph.D.

New York University

- Elodie Ghedin, Ph.D.

Funding: Cal Tech-UCLA Joint Center for Translational Medicine TAG Award, UCLA CTSI seed grant, NIH R01 HL10894901; NIAID; UCLA STAR Program

THANK YOU!

