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Genome- and proteome-wide screening strategies for antigen discovery and immunogen design

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ABSTRACT

Infectious diseases remain a leading global cause of morbidity and mortality and there is an urgent need for effective approaches to develop vaccines, especially against complex pathogens. The availability of comprehensive genomic, proteomic and transcriptomic datasets has shifted the paradigm of vaccine development from microbiological to sequence-based approaches. However, how to effectively translate raw data into candidate vaccines is not yet obvious. Herein, we review cutting-edge technologies and screening strategies to mine genomic sequence information for state-of-the-art rational vaccine design, and highlight recent trends. Interdisciplinary approaches which cross the traditional boundaries of genomics, molecular biology, cell biology, immunology and computer science, and which prioritise antigens according to clinically relevant criteria, offer potential solutions to the widespread threat that complex pathogens pose to public health.

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1. Introduction

Infectious diseases account for approximately 16% of adult deaths across the globe (http://www.who.int/healthinfo/global_burden_disease/2004_report_update/en/index.html) and up to 68% of the mortality rates of children under five years of age (Black et al., 2010).

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63 Leading infectious agents include HIV (AIDS), *Mycobacterium* spp. (tu-
64 berculosis), *Plasmodium* spp. (malaria) and *Trypanosomatid* protozoa
65 (leishmaniasis, trypanosomiasis). All are complex pathogens that
66 cause global pandemics and cause chronic infections, many have
67 adapted to long-term coexistence with the human immune system,
68 and relevant correlates of protection against these pathogens as well
69 as their mechanisms of immune evasion are not well understood.

70 The control of infectious diseases is seriously threatened by the
71 steady increase in the number of pathogens that are resistant to a
72 broad range of antimicrobial agents, associated with increased morbidity
73 and increased rates of disease transmission (Holmberg et al., 1987;
74 Rubinstein, 1999). Reducing the likelihood of infection and disease by
75 vaccination is widely considered to be the most effective and sustain-
76 able public health intervention (Einsiedel, 2011). However, vaccines
77 against hypervariable viruses, complex bacteria and parasites have
78 proved elusive and many existing vaccines require yearly reformulation
79 and repeat immunisation. Compared to pathogens for which vaccine
80 development has been successful, complex pathogens generally have
81 high mutation rates and genetic variability, which allow them to actively
82 evade the host immune system, affect a wider age group and induce
83 only strain-specific protection without long-lasting protective immuni-
84 ty (Tobin et al., 2008).

85 Most currently licensed vaccines use live, attenuated or killed whole
86 pathogens as immunogens, and derive from empirical methodologies
87 pioneered by Edward Jenner and Louis Pasteur in the 18th and 19th
88 centuries, respectively. However, the large number of datasets and tech-
89 nological advances in the “omics” era has led to the advance of high-
90 throughput approaches enabling antigen discovery for sub-unit vac-
91 cines (Doolan et al., 2003a; Rappuoli, 2000). Herein we discuss new
92 approaches using computational and immunomic technologies for anti-
93 gen discovery and recent trends in integrative next generation vaccine
94 design strategies. A timeline of the most important milestones for anti-
95 gen discovery and vaccine design in the last two decades is presented in
96 Fig. 1.

2. “First and second generation” vaccine development and empirical antigen discovery 97

98 In the 18th century Edward Jenner pioneered the field of vaccinology 99
100 by demonstrating that a boy inoculated with pus from a cowpox-infected 100
101 milkmaid was protected against the human smallpox virus. This work 101
102 was further refined by Louis Pasteur who established the principle of 102
103 isolation, inactivation and administration of pathogens for vaccine devel- 103
104 opment ([http://www.cdc.gov/mmwr/preview/mmwrhtml/00000572.](http://www.cdc.gov/mmwr/preview/mmwrhtml/00000572.htm)
105 [htm](http://www.cdc.gov/mmwr/preview/mmwrhtml/00000572.htm)). Throughout the 20th century, these “first generation” vaccines, 104
105 consisting of live, attenuated or killed pathogens, have been widely 105
106 employed against several disease-causing microbes (e.g. plague, pertus- 106
107 sis, polio, rabies, smallpox) (Bagnoli et al., 2011). The whole organ- 107
108 ism approach offers the benefit of delivering a vast array of antigens 108
109 in their native conformation. However, the requirement for large- 109
110 scale production of pathogens and the risk of reversion to the viru- 110
111 lent form have led to the development of a safer “second generation” of 111
112 vaccines made up of purified pathogen components (tetanus, diph- 112
113 theria, anthrax, pneumonia, influenza, hepatitis B, lyme disease) 113
114 (Bagnoli et al., 2011). Sub-unit vaccines, based on the native macro- 114
115 molecules of pathogens, aim to mimic pathogen-specific exposure in 115
116 order to trigger the host immune system to generate effector and 116
117 memory immune responses that would protect against future infec- 117
118 tion. However, the development of sub-unit vaccines requires strat- 118
119 egies to identify potential antigens capable of eliciting protective 119
120 immunity. 120

121 Conventional approaches to antigen identification typically start 122
123 with the cultivation of the target pathogen under laboratory conditions. 123
124 The component proteins are then assayed in a cascade of in vitro and 124
125 in vivo assays, leading ultimately to the identification of a subset of pro- 125
126 teins associated with protective immunity. However, not all pathogens 126
127 can be cultivated outside the host organism, many proteins are 127
128 expressed only transiently during the course of infection, and not all 128
129 proteins are abundant enough to be detected by in vitro assays. 129

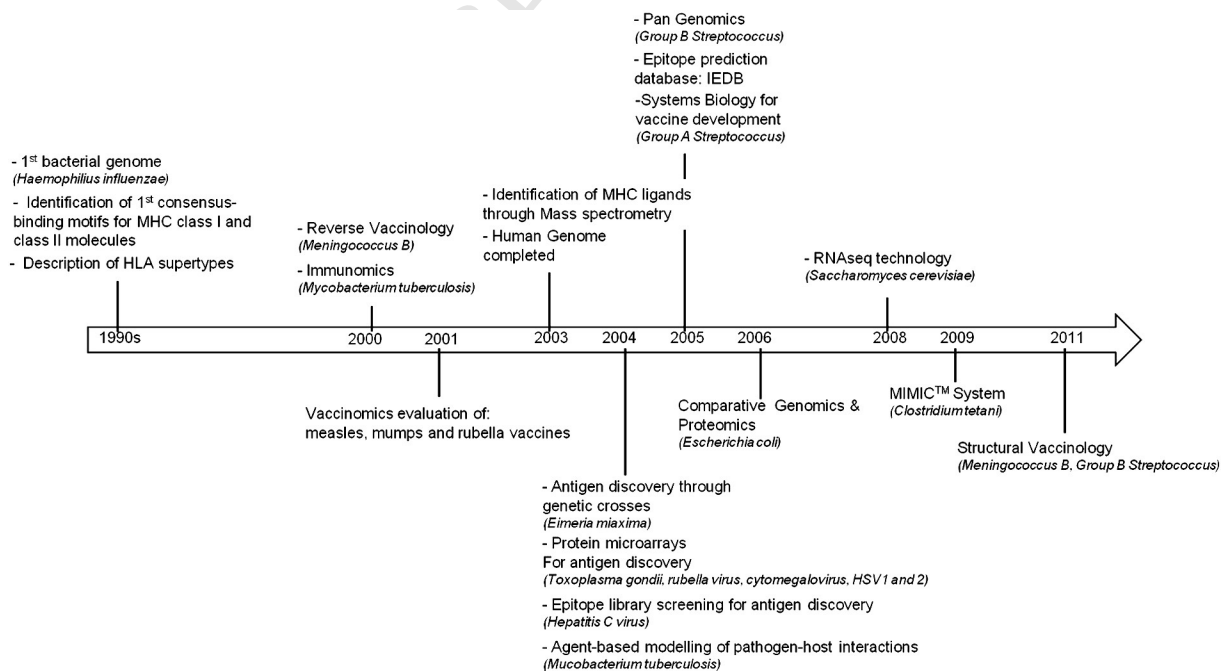


Fig. 1. Milestones for large-scale antigen discovery. The completion of the first bacterial genome sequence in 1995 provided the foundation for a new era of vaccine development based on genomic information. Genomic, proteomic, and transcriptomic datasets form the basis for reverse vaccinology and immunomics approaches pioneered at the beginning of the 21st century. Since then, advances in mass spectrometry and high-throughput sequencing techniques have led to more rapid and accurate identification and evaluation of vaccine candidates. A plethora of high-throughput approaches and databases are now available to predict, evaluate and test vaccine candidates in silico, in vitro and in vivo.

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