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Temporal development of the humoral immune response to surface antigens of Moraxella catarrhalis in young infants

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ABSTRACT

The primary *Moraxella catarrhalis*-specific humoral immune response, and its association with nasopharyngeal colonization, was studied in a cohort of infants from birth to 2 years of age.

Results indicated that the levels of antigen-specific IgG, IgA and IgM showed extensive inter-individual variability over time, with IgM and IgA levels to all 9 recombinant domains, from 7 different OMPs, being relatively low throughout the study period. In contrast, the level of antigen-specific IgG was significantly higher for the recombinant domains Hag\(^{385-863}\), MID\(^{764-913}\), MID\(^{962-1200}\), UspA1\(^{557-704}\) and UspA2\(^{165-318}\) in cord blood compared to 6 months of age (\(P \leq 0.001\)). This was a most likely a consequence of maternal transmission of antigen-specific IgG to newborn babies, possibly indicating a future role for these 3 surface antigens in the development of an effective humoral immune response to *M. catarrhalis*. Finally, at 2 years of age, the levels of antigen-specific IgG still remained far below that obtained from cord blood samples, indicating that the immune response to *M. catarrhalis* has not matured at 2 years of age.

We provide evidence that a humoral antibody response to OMPs UspA1, UspA2 and Hag/MID may play a role in the immune response to community acquired *M. catarrhalis* colonization events.

Keywords: *Moraxella catarrhalis*; colonization; immune response; surface antigens; vaccine; children
INTRODUCTION

*Moraxella catarrhalis* is an aerobic, Gram-negative diplococcal commensal of the respiratory tract. Although healthy children are frequently colonized with this bacterium, it is also able to cause disease, being especially associated with otitis media (OM), as well as exacerbations of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) in adults.

Studies have shown that the bacterium colonizes the nasopharynx soon after birth and that the carriage rate of *M. catarrhalis* in healthy children may differ per geographical region, season and year of isolation [1]. For example, in a German study (November 1991 to April 1992), 9% of children attending day-care centers ranging in age from 4 months to 3 years old were colonized with *M. catarrhalis* [2]. In a Japanese study conducted in 1999, children aged 1 month to 5 years attending day-care centers, 35% were found to be colonized [3]. In The Netherlands, a comparative study of 1.5 to 14 month old children born between February 2003 and August 2005, indicated a carriage rate for children ranging from 11.8% at the age of 1.5 months to 29.9% at the age of 6 months and 29.7% at the age of 14 months [4]. In general, despite local geographical variation, infants tend to become colonized with *M. catarrhalis* at a very early age, resulting in a nasopharyngeal colonization peak for *M. catarrhalis* at 2 years of age [5].

Bacterial adherence to the respiratory mucosa is an essential step towards colonization of the human respiratory tract epithelium, and research has indicated that the most important adhesins responsible for the attachment of *M. catarrhalis* to host cells include the outer membrane proteins (OMPs) UspA1, UspA2 and Hag/MID, though several other surface-exposed outer membrane proteins have been described that may also play a role in the process. Further, with respect to *M. catarrhalis*, it has been shown that colonization of the human respiratory tract epithelium results in an increased risk of disease, specifically OM disease (both chronic and acute) in children [6-7]. Further, two distinct genetic lineages
related to 3 different 16S rRNA types have been identified for *M. catarrhalis*, which differ phenotypically in their ability to resist the killing effect of human serum (sero-resistant versus sero-sensitive), and in their ability to adhere to human epithelial cells [8-9]. Therefore, it is reasonable to expect that an effective immune response raised against UspA1, UspA2 and Hag/MID, for example via vaccination, will have a significant effect on colonization and disease.

OM is one of the major childhood diseases that necessitate visits to general practitioners [10]. In 2004, the American Academy of Pediatrics (AAP) published new guidelines that addressed the diagnosis and treatment of acute otitis media (AOM), largely because the treatment of AOM is not always appropriate, and the long-term overuse of antibiotics increases the risk of the development of antimicrobial resistance. The AAP guidelines recommended the use of observation as a potential strategy for the treatment of AOM, although global rates of antibiotic prescription for AOM still vary greatly [11-13].

An alternative strategy to the use of antibiotics in the treatment of OM disease is vaccination [14]. However, there is currently no licensed vaccine available against *M. catarrhalis*, and none of the antigens so far described (which may serve as potential vaccine candidates) have progressed to clinical trials. The challenge in identifying potential vaccine candidates for *M. catarrhalis* lies in identifying antigens that are able to generate an appropriate immune response that prevents the process leading from colonization to infection, and are conserved among global strains [15]. It is known that healthy adults possess naturally acquired serum antibodies directed against several *M. catarrhalis* OMPs, apparently via the acquisition and elimination of many different *M. catarrhalis* strains [16]. Further, changes in antibody response are observed in adults suffering from *M. catarrhalis*-mediated COPD disease [17].
The introduction of a vaccination strategy against *M. catarrhalis* (either in children and/or in adults) is still a topic for debate, though the continuing high prevalence of OM disease in children and the rising prevalence of COPD in adults means that *M. catarrhalis*-associated disease continues to increase in global significance. Further, the introduction of successful vaccines against respiratory bacterial pathogens that occupy the same niche as *M. catarrhalis* e.g. *Streptococcus pneumoniae* and *Haemophilus influenzae* could facilitate a concomitant increase in *M. catarrhalis* colonization and infection.

Several new *M. catarrhalis* OMP vaccine candidates have been described in the literature, and previous studies have suggested that a multivalent vaccine comprising a combination of epitopes of these *M. catarrhalis* OMP vaccine candidates should form the basis of a vaccine to prevent *M. catarrhalis*-mediated colonization and disease [16, 18-19].

However, relatively little is known about the humoral immune response to these vaccine candidates, especially within the first few years of life. The present study was performed to determine the humoral immune response to potential *M. catarrhalis* vaccine candidates in healthy Dutch children from birth to 2 years of age. The previously described *M. catarrhalis* recombinant domains UspA1$_{557-704}$, UspA2$_{165-318}$, MID$_{764-913}$, MID$_{962-1200}$, Hag$_{385-863}$, MhaC, Mcal$_{51-333}$, orf238 and orf296 were used in this study [16, 20-24]. These 9 recombinant proteins (from 7 different OMPs) represented the majority of published *M. catarrhalis* immunogenic proteins discovered at the time that the study was initiated. Further, the relationship between *M. catarrhalis* colonization and humoral immune response was also investigated.
MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study cohort

This study was embedded in the Generation R Study, a population-based prospective cohort study, designed to identify early environmental and genetic causes of normal and abnormal growth, development and health from fetal life until young adulthood [25]. This study was performed in a randomly selected subgroup of Dutch children whose parents are ethnically homogeneous (two parents and four grandparents born in The Netherlands), in order to exclude possible confounding factors associated with ethnicity.

In total, 57 infants who were born between February 2003 and August 2005 were included in this study. Three or 4 serial serum samples were collected from each infant for inclusion in the study. The collection totalled 177 samples, comprising 54 (31%) cord blood samples, 32 (18%) samples obtained at 6 months, 46 (26%) samples obtained at 14 months, and 45 (25%) samples obtained at 24 months of age. The bacterial colonization status was determined by taking nasopharyngeal swabs at the ages of 1.5, 6, 14 and 24 months of age, with swabs being taken at the same time as serum samples. Swabs were obtained from 40 (70%), 49 (86%), 50 (88%) and 48 (84%) infants at 1.5, 6, 14 and 24 months of age, respectively. The colonization status was determined using standard M. catarrhalis culture and detection techniques [1].

Moraxella catarrhalis antigens

The previously described M. catarrhalis recombinant domains UspA1\(^{557-704}\) (aa 557–704 of UspA1), UspA2\(^{165-318}\), MID\(^{764-913}\), MID\(^{962-1200}\), Hag\(^{385-863}\), MhaC, McaP\(^{51-333}\), orf238 and orf296 were used in this study [16, 20-24]. These 9 recombinant proteins (from 7 different OMPs) represented the majority of published M. catarrhalis immunogenic proteins.
discovered at the time that the study was initiated, and are derived from the reference *M. catarrhalis* strains Bc5 (UspA1 557-704, UspA2 165-318, MID 764-913 and MID 962-1200) and O35E (MhaC, McAp 51-333 and Hag 385-863) [16, 20, 22, 26]. Orf238 and orf296 are hypothetical proteins that share homology with lipoprotein family A proteins and with the *M. osloensis* disulfide isomerase gene, which encodes a virulence factor, respectively.

**Antigen coupling**

Recombinant proteins were coupled to SeroMAP™ beads, which are carboxylated beads that are developed for serological applications. The coupling procedure was performed as detailed by Verkaik *et al.* (2008) [27]. Briefly, 5.0 × 10⁶ microspheres were resuspended in 100 mmol/L monobasic sodium phosphate (pH 6.2) buffer. For activation of the carboxyl groups on the surface of the beads, 10 µl of 50 mg/ml of *N*-hydroxysulfosuccinimide (Sulfo-NHS) and 1-ethyl-3-(3-dimethylaminopropyl) carbodiimide was used (Pierce Biotechnology, Rockford, IL). The coupling buffer consisted of 50 mmol/L 2-(N-morpholino) ethanesulfonic acid, pH 5.0 (Sigma-Aldrich, Zwijndrecht, The Netherlands) in which 25 µg of protein was added. The final concentration of microspheres was adjusted to 4000 beads/µl with blocking-storage buffer (PBS-BN; PBS, 1% bovine serum albumin, and 0.05% sodium azide [pH 7.4]). The microspheres were protected from light and stored at 4°C until required. All centrifugation steps were performed at 12,000 g for 2 min at room temperature (RT).

Uncoupled beads were used as a negative control, and to determine non-specific binding. If minor non-specific binding was observed, then the median fluorescence intensity (MFI) values obtained from this non-specific binding was subtracted from the antigen-specific results.

**Multiplex *M. catarrhalis* antibody assay**
The multiplex procedure was performed as described elsewhere [27]. Briefly, after validation of the assay (where human pooled serum (HPS) MFI multiplex assay values were compared to corresponding HPS MFI singleplex assay values), the different antigen-coupled microspheres were mixed to a working concentration of 4000 beads per color per well. Serum samples were diluted 1:100 in PBS-BN for measurement of antigen-specific IgG and IgA and 1:50 for measurement of IgM. Fifty microliters per diluted sample was incubated with the microspheres in a 96-well filter microtiter plate (Millipore) for 35 min at room temperature on a Thermomixer plate shaker (Eppendorf). The plate was washed twice with PBS-BN that was aspirated by vacuum manifold, and the microspheres were resuspended in 50 μl of PBS-BN. In separate wells, 50 μl of a 1:100 dilution of R-phycoerythrin (RPE)-conjugated AffiniPure goat anti-human IgG and IgA and 50 μl of a 1:50 dilution of RPE-conjugated donkey anti-human IgM (Jackson Immuno Research) were added. The plate was incubated for 35 min at room temperature and washed. The microspheres were resuspended in 100 μl of PBS-BN. Measurements were performed on the Luminex 100 instrument (BMD) using Luminex IS software (version 2.2). Tests were performed in duplicate, and the fluorescence intensity values, reflecting quantitative antibody levels, were averaged. The coefficient of variation of these values was then calculated for each serum sample and averaged per protein and antibody isotype.

Vaccine candidate gene carriage

*M. catarrhalis* isolates were grown from glycerol stocks at 37°C overnight on blood agar plates. DNA was extracted using the MagNA Pure LC System (Roche Applied Science). PCR was performed to detect the major identified *M. catarrhalis* vaccine candidates uspA1, uspA2 and hag/mid genes. Primer pairs were used to detect the uspA1 (RTF1-8 5’-cgttatgcactaaaagagcagtc and RTB1-8 5’-gcatctgaccagcttagaccaatc) and uspA2 (RTF2-10 5’-
gcatgcggatacaagtttg and RTB2-10 5’-tgagccatagccaccaagtgc) genes according to the protocol of Meier et al. (2002) [28]. For the detection of the hag/mid gene, the primers McatHag-2 (5’-gtcagcatgtatatatttaagg) and McatHagR4 (5’-tgagcggtaatggcttaagtg) were used [19]. The uspA2, uspA2H and uspAl screening primers are situated at the 3’-end of the respective genes, whilst the hag/mid primers amplify a region at the 5’-end of the gene, including a small region of the promotor.

Further, PCR was performed to detect 16S rRNA types as previously described by Verhaegh et al. (2008) [19].

To identify the 16S rRNA types of individual M. catarrhalis isolates, 16S rRNA PCR products were digested using the enzymes FspBI (10 U) and HhaI (10 U) according to Verhaegh et al. (2008) [19].

Isolate genotyping

M. catarrhalis genotyping was performed on 30 isolates (representing all M. catarrhalis culture positive swabs obtained during the course of the study), by pulsed-field gel electrophoresis (PFGE) as detailed by Verduin et al. (2000) [29]. Briefly, M. catarrhalis plug digestions were performed using SpeI at 20 U/reaction and an electrophoresis protocol comprising a 1st block with a constant voltage of 6 V cm⁻¹, a pulse time from 3.5 to 25 seconds during the first 12 hours, followed by a 2nd block of 8 hours where the pulse time increased linearly from 1 to 5 seconds. All PFGE patterns were analyzed using BioNumerics (Applied Maths), with gel lanes normalized against a lambda DNA ladder (Bio-Rad) and band tolerance set to 1.5%. PFGE products between 48.5 and 339.5 kb were included in the band matching analysis.

Statistical analysis
Statistical analyses were performed using SPSS PASW 17.0.2. The Wilcoxon signed-rank test was used to compare the anti-Moraxella antibody levels between different age groups. The Mann-Whitney U-test was used to compare differences in antibody levels between colonized and non-colonized children. A P-value of ≤0.05 was considered to be statistically significant.

RESULTS

Isolate genotyping and vaccine candidate gene carriage

A high degree of genotypic heterogeneity in M. catarrhalis isolates colonizing children in the focus cohort was maintained over the entire study period, with no association found between genotype and any of the antigen-specific MFI values. In total, 28 different genotypes were observed, with only two children being colonized more than once (Fig. 1).

Ninety-seven percent (29/30) of the M. catarrhalis isolates were found to be positive for uspA1, with 90% (27/30) positive for uspA2, and 87% (26/30) positive for hag/mid gene carriage. In total, 87% (26/30) of the M. catarrhalis isolates were categorized into 16S type lineage 1 (16S type 1; seroresistant lineage), with the remaining 13% belonging to the 16S type lineage 2 (16S type 2 and 3; serosensitive lineage) (Table 1).

Dynamics of the anti-Moraxella antibody response

The changes measured in anti-M. catarrhalis IgG, IgA and IgM during the first 2 years of life are shown in Fig. 2. The levels of antigen-specific IgG, IgA and IgM showed extensive inter-individual variability over time. The level of antigen-specific IgG in cord blood (maternal antibody) was significantly higher for Hag$^{385-863}$, MID$^{764-913}$, MID$^{962-1200}$, UspA1$^{557-704}$ and UspA2$^{165-318}$ than at 6 months of age ($P\leq0.001$), presumably due to passive
immunization by maternally acquired IgG antibodies in utero. Such passive immunity typically remains until approximately 6 months after birth [30].

IgG levels against MID\textsuperscript{764-913}, MID\textsuperscript{962-1200}, UspA\textsubscript{1}\textsuperscript{557-704} and UspA\textsubscript{2}\textsuperscript{165-318} rose significantly between 6 months to 2 years of age. IgG levels to \textit{M. catarrhalis} OMPs Hag\textsuperscript{385-863}, Mca\textsubscript{51-333}, MhaC, orf238 and orf296 remained relatively low and did not significantly increase over the 6 month to 2 year time period.

IgM and IgA levels to all 9 recombinant domains of 7 different OMPs were relatively low throughout the study period. However, IgM levels to MhaC, MID\textsuperscript{764-913}, MID\textsuperscript{962-1200}, UspA\textsubscript{1}\textsuperscript{557-704} and UspA\textsubscript{2}\textsuperscript{165-318}, and IgA levels to Hag\textsuperscript{385-863}, MID\textsuperscript{764-913}, MID\textsuperscript{962-1200}, UspA\textsubscript{1}\textsuperscript{557-704} and UspA\textsubscript{2}\textsuperscript{165-318} increased significantly (\(P \leq 0.05\)) over the 6 month to 2 year time period. Finally, not every infant developed an antigen-specific IgG, IgA or IgM response to all of the recombinant proteins tested in the first 2 years of life.

**Relationship between colonization and anti-\textit{M. catarrhalis} antibody levels**

In order to relate colonization status to changes in anti-\textit{M. catarrhalis} antibody levels (which would provide an estimation of the efficacy of the immune response in preventing \textit{M. catarrhalis} colonization), results were utilized from sera and nasopharyngeal colonization data of children at 6, 14 and 24 months of age where concurrent sera and nasopharyngeal swab data was available. Children were divided into colonized or non-colonized at each time period and their IgG levels to Hag\textsuperscript{385-863}, MID\textsuperscript{764-913}, MID\textsuperscript{962-1200}, UspA\textsubscript{1}\textsuperscript{557-704} and UspA\textsubscript{2}\textsuperscript{165-318} plotted.

In total, 9 (33%), 10 (24%) and 11 (29%) of the children were found to be colonized with \textit{M. catarrhalis} at the time of sampling at 6, 14 and 24 months, respectively. There was no significant difference in IgG levels for all antigens between colonized and non-colonized children, except for MID\textsuperscript{962-1200} at 24 months of age (\(P=0.04\)) (Fig. 3). Further, the increase in
IgG antibody response did not result in a decrease in the percentage of infants nasopharyngeal colonized by *M. catarrhalis*, although antigen-specific IgG levels significantly increased for MID$^{764-913}$, MID$^{962-1200}$, UspA1$^{557-704}$ and UspA2$^{165-318}$ between 6 months and 2 years of age (Fig. 4).

**DISCUSSION**

The research performed in this publication represents the most extensive study of the infant immune response to potential vaccine candidates of *M. catarrhalis* performed to date, utilizing 9 recombinant domains representing 7 different *M. catarrhalis* OMPs in a cohort of 57 healthy children followed from birth until 2 years of age. Further, the study was performed using multiplexed Luminex’s xMAP technology that proved to be a rapid method for research into humoral immune response changes during *M. catarrhalis* colonization.

In our study, the level of antigen-specific IgG to *M. catarrhalis* antigens in cord blood was significantly higher compared to the anti-*M. catarrhalis* IgG level at 6 months, most likely due to the presence of maternally derived IgG antibodies that were transferred to the fetus through the placenta. The passage of antibodies between mother and baby, via the umbilical cord, gives rise to “passive immunity”, which generally tends to confer humoral protection against infection until approximately 6 months after birth [30]. During this 6 month period, passively acquired antibodies disappear and are replaced by antibodies generated by the infants’ own “actively acquired” humoral immune response. This actively acquired immune response may be generated by successive rounds of colonization and/or infection by pathogens, leading to the development of a host-specific immune response and eventual pathogen clearance. In this respect, Ejlertsen *et al.* (1994) showed a significant fall in antibody concentration during the first 3 months of life, and a steady low level was maintained in the age group from 3 to 10 months, similar to the results obtained in this study.
Further, from the age of 1 year, the immune response of the children in the study of Ejlertsen et al. (1994) and Tan et al. (2006) increased slowly to reach maternal levels at the age of 10 years and in healthy adults, and though only sampling children up to 2 years of age, our study also showed increases in IgG antibody response for the antigens MID\(^{764-913}\), MID\(^{962-1200}\), UspA1\(^{557-704}\) and UspA2\(^{165-318}\) between years 1 and 2. In contrast, MhaC, MhaP, orf238 and orf296 did not induce major humoral immune responses in this cohort of children. Although *M. catarrhalis* is considered to be a major mucosal pathogen of the human respiratory tract, the IgA response towards OMPs of *M. catarrhalis* remained relatively low throughout the study period. Two forms of IgA can be distinguished based upon their location (serum IgA and secretory IgA). In its secretory form, IgA is the main immunoglobulin found in mucous secretions, including respiratory epithelium. Studies have shown that human salivary IgA response is directed consistently against a small number of major OMPs in healthy adults and adults suffering from COPD. It is also found in small amounts in blood [32]. This may explain the relatively low levels of IgA found in this study, as serum antigen-specific IgA levels were measured and not secretory IgA [33-34].

The IgM levels to all 7 OMPs were also relatively low throughout the study period. IgM antibodies appear early in the course of an infection and usually reappear, to a lesser extent, after further exposure. In contrast to IgG, IgM (and also IgA) antibodies do not pass across the human placenta.

Though an antibody response was generated against our *M. catarrhalis* OMP vaccine candidates in our focus cohort group during the first 2 years of life, the relatively constant level of *M. catarrhalis* nasopharyngeal colonization observed within the cohort suggests that the antibody response measured did not provide significant protection against *M. catarrhalis* nasopharyngeal colonization up to 2 years of age, with the exception of antigen MID\(^{962-1200}\). Non-colonized children showed significantly higher IgG levels for MID\(^{962-1200}\) compared to
colonized children at 24 months of age. MID^{962-1200} represents the IgD-binding domain of the \textit{M. catarrhalis} IgD-binding protein (MID), a 200-kDa outer membrane protein comprising 2,139 amino acids that has been shown to display a unique and specific affinity for human IgD. This result provides preliminary evidence that antibodies raised against MID^{962-1200} could offer protection against \textit{M. catarrhalis} colonization. If indeed confirmed, then a MID^{962-1200} vaccine may possibly be used to boost immunity levels at or before 2 years of age, in order to provide protection against \textit{M. catarrhalis} colonization, and hence disease. However, further research is required to investigate this hypothesis.

The factors influencing \textit{M. catarrhalis} colonization and elimination are not yet fully understood, though genetic variation and adhesion to mucosal receptors appear to play an important role in colonization dynamics [35]. For example, several studies have shown that children acquire and eliminate a number of different strains throughout the first 2 years of life by the ability of these strains to evade the host immune system, caused by phase variation and antigenic variation [36]. Under “immune pressure”, antigenic variation due to sequence changes in virulence genes may provide a selective advantage for bacterial isolates expressing novel sequence variants. Alternatively, mutations may generate phase variable gene expression, switching off genes that are recognized by the immune system. Specifically, \textit{M. catarrhalis} OMPs UspA1, UspA2 and Hag/MID are known to undergo phase-variation, with antigenic variation reported in the target region of monoclonal antibody (MAb) 17C7 (a conserved UspA1 and UspA2 binding site) [37-42]. The relatively constant level of \textit{M. catarrhalis} nasopharyngeal colonization observed within the cohort could also be related to host factors, for example relatively low levels of antibody at 2 years of age, lack of effective antibody neutralizing activity, evasion of the host innate immune defence by several virulence factors involved in adherence to the respiratory tract, or complement resistance [31, 43-44].
Further research is required in order to determine whether increased IgG levels against the OMPs UspA1, UspA2, and Hag/MID (induced for example via vaccination) would significantly reduce the incidence of *M. catarrhalis* colonization and infection in infants up to 2 years of age (and in later life). In this respect, further studies are being planned at 5 years of age.

**CONCLUSIONS**

Though further research is required, our results indicate that at 2 years of age, the antibody response to *M. catarrhalis* is still developing, and is largely based on an IgG isotype of antibodies raised against 3 major OMPs (i.e. UspA1, UspA2 and MID/Hag). We also provide preliminary evidence to suggest that antibodies directed against Hag/MID may be associated with the prevention of *M. catarrhalis* colonization, though natural variation in amino acid sequences of this protein may act to limit the potential of vaccines created to generate an immune response against Hag/MID.

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All authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

REFERENCES


Table 1. Prevalence of virulence genes for 30 *M. catarrhalis* isolates for which PFGE genotyping was performed.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Virulence genes</th>
<th>positive (%)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>uspA1</em></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>uspA2</em></td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>hag/mid</em></td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16S lineage 1</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16S lineage 2</td>
<td>13</td>
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**Figure 1.** Relationship between *M. catarrhalis* genotypes (representing all positive *M. catarrhalis* nasopharyngeal swab cultures isolated at 6, 14 and 24 months of age) and vaccine candidate serum MFI values. No relationship between MFI value and genetic relatedness was observed for these isolates. Key: Age nasopharyngeal swabs were taken; 6 = 6 months, 14 = 14 months, 24 = 24 months, after birth. The month and year of isolate culture from the nose of children is also shown.
Figure 2. Levels of IgG, IgM and IgA directed against *M. catarrhalis* immunoglobulin D-binding protein (MID) and ubiquitous surface proteins A1 (UspA1) and A2 (UspA2) in 57 children at birth, 6 months, 14 months and 24 months. Antibody levels are reflected by MFI values. Each dot represents a serum sample. Median values are indicated by a horizontal line.
Figure 3. Relationship between *M. catarrhalis* colonization and anti-Hag/MID, UspA1 and UspA2, IgG levels at 6, 14 and 24 months of age, as reflected by MFI values. Median values are indicated by a horizontal line. A significant difference between non-colonized and colonized children was observed for MID$^{962-1200}$ at 24 months of age ($P=0.04$).
Figure 4. Relationship between *M. catarrhalis* colonization, (colonized children as a percentage of total number of children tested), and anti-*M. catarrhalis* IgG levels at birth, 6, 14 and 24 months of age, as reflected by median fluorescence intensity values. The total number of children tested at birth, 6, 14 and 24 months was 54, 32, 46 and 45, respectively.