Review Article

Innate Immunity Plays a Key Role in *Leishmania* Infection: Implications for Vaccine Design

Negar Seyed*, Sima Rafati

Department of Immunotherapy and Leishmania Vaccine Research, Pasteur Institute of Iran, Tehran, Iran

Received Jun 04, 2017; Accepted Jun 14, 2017

Neutrophils are part of the first line of immune response and are essential for resistance against a variety of pathogens. They professionally mediate direct killing of pathogens, recruit other phagocytes by specific chemokines, produce cytokines and interact with different immune cells to shape the adaptive response. *Leishmania* as an obligatory intracellular parasite has evolved to benefit this early innate response to find its way into macrophages, the final host cells. Therefore it is important to reconsider the role of neutrophils for further improvement of the current vaccine status. *J Med Microbiol Infec Dis, 2016, 4 (3-4): 39-44.*

Keywords: Innate immunity, Neutrophil, Leishmania, Vaccine.

INTRODUCTION

Leishmaniasis is a vector-borne disease mainly Asia, Africa, South America, and Mediterranean basin. The unicellular parasite from Leishmania genus inhabits some natural reservoirs and is transmitted to human by infected sandfly vectors. The result of infection in human as host is multifactorial and ranges self-healing local cutaneous to disfiguring mucocutaneous or lethal visceral leishmaniasis. Sandfly saliva-derived proteins and microbiota [1], parasite species and associated viruses and most importantly competency of host immune system together with host microbiome [2], are factors that determine the infection outcome. The resolution, in general, is Th1 cellular immune response mediated, and Th2 response promotes disease establishment. There are several pieces of evidence indicating that innate immune response and in particular neutrophils as sentinels play a critical role in Th1/Th2 polarization early after infection. Therefore it is evident that for efficient vaccine development, the innate immune response must be considered together with adaptive immunity.

Neutrophils are sentinels of the innate immune response against invaders

leukocytes Polymorphonuclear also known neutrophils, are the most abundant circulating human blood leukocytes (50-70%) that accumulate in the inflammation site very rapidly before any other cell type. They originate from the same precursors as mononuclear phagocytes in bone marrow in a constitutive manner. Neutrophils are short-lived cells that are programmed to die by apoptosis within a few hours. This is necessary to regulate their functions tightly. These cells are well equipped to fight against bacterial and fungal infections and are responsible for wound healing after sterilization of the site. They harbor diverse types of granules with exclusive roles within the cytoplasm [3]. Azurophilic or primary granules contain Myeloperoxidase and Serin proteases, and specific or secondary granules contain mostly antimicrobial peptides as LL-37, defencins, lactoferrin and pro-cathelicidin. These granules are especially involved in the direct killing of invaders. The rest of granules including tertiary granules which are filled with matrix metalloproteinase 9 and secretory vesicles containing receptors required for cell adhesion (like integrins) are involved in digestion of extracellular matrix and extravasation of neutrophils at the inflamed site respectively [4]. Evidently, inappropriate activation of neutrophils may lead to tremendous tissue damage during an autoimmune or uncontrolled inflammatory response [5].

Early after infection and/or tissue damage, pattern recognition receptors (PRRs) on tissue resident macrophages, fibroblasts, keratinocytes and endothelial cells effectively sense the pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs) and/or the danger-associated molecular patterns (DAMPs) and produce neutrophil-attracting chemokines which are IL-8 in human and CXCL1 and CXCL2 in mice [6-9]. These chemokines signal via CXCR2 to activate neutrophils and promote their adhesion to the endothelial cells. Activated neutrophils firmly adhere to the endothelium and extravasate at inflamed site. Neutrophils express CD11b (complement receptor for C3b/iC3b components) also immunoglobulin Fc-γ receptors for phagocytosis of opsonized microbes.

*Correspondence: Negar Seyed

Department of Immunotherapy and *Leishmania* Vaccine Research, Pasteur Institute of Iran, No. 69, Pasteur Ave, Tehran, Iran, 1316943551.

Email: Negarse@gmail.com

Tel/Fax: +98 (21) 64112810

After phagocytosis, microbes are killed by direct killing mechanisms. Reactive oxygen species (ROS) produced by membrane-associated NADPH oxidase [10], the fusion of primary and secondary granules including proteases and antimicrobials with phagosomes [11] degranulation into the periphery, directly kills the pathogen. Furthermore different signals such as ROS mediate nuclear chromatin release from these cells together with some granule contents as LL-37, defencins and neutrophil elastase during NETosis (Neutrophil Extracellular Traps) [12, 13]. Primarily, NETs entrap and block further dissemination of the pathogens in addition to killing some pathogens and facilitating phagocytosis by other phagocytes [4, 14]. Neutrophils can play an additional role which is orchestrating the adaptive immunity [15]. Neutrophil-derived/induced chemoattractants recruit immature dendritic cells (iDCs) to the inflammation site [16]. Human and mouse studies suggest that neutrophils directly interact with dendritic cells by Mac-1/DC-SIGN engagement to activate iDCs [17]. Mouse neutrophils can transport peripheral antigens to draining lymph nodes to prime antigen-specific Th1, Th17 and CD8⁺ T cells [18-20]. IL-18 produced by neutrophils jointly with IL-12 produced by dendritic cells also activates natural killer cells. Human neutrophils release IFN-y for macrophage activation and T cell differentiation [21].

The programmed cell death in neutrophils could be delayed by different signals such as pro-inflammatory cytokines and pathogens [22]. Macrophage recruitment by neutrophil-secreted chemokine including antimicrobial peptides and MIP-1 and reciprocal interaction between these two cells induce apoptosis even after days of survival [23, 24]. Apoptotic neutrophils are removed by macrophages and dendritic cells (efferocytosis) to avoid further tissue damage by hazardous components of neutrophils [25]. Eventually, neutrophil levels return to their baselines.

Leishmania parasites have evolved to advantage early innate response of neutrophils

Leishmania parasites are obligatory intracellular pathogens transmitted via sandfly bite and do not survive out of the host cells after deposition in the skin. Therefore upon transmission, the parasite benefits a massive recruitment of neutrophils to sandfly bite site instead of stopping neutrophil accumulation. Tissue injury caused by sandfly bite is sufficient to recruit neutrophils. However, the sandfly saliva [26] together with parasite factors including promastigote secretory gel (PSG) [27] and Leishmania chemotactic factor (LCF) [28] in the inoculum. augment neutrophil recruitment within first 30-45 min post infection. Although many others had previously demonstrated the early accumulation of neutrophils, Peters et al., were the first group to image the massive and sustained recruitment of neutrophils in vivo (detectable up to 8 days) after sandfly deposition of the parasite in the ear dermis by using 2Photon Intravital Microscopy [29]. According to their findings, the neutrophils uptake 80-90% of inoculated parasites compared to 10-20% engulfed by macrophages [30]. LPG and GP63 surface molecules are well-known targets for C3b-component of alternative complement pathway. Surface receptors for complement components enable neutrophils to efficiently uptake opsonized parasites [31]. Meanwhile, LPG [32] and GP63 [33] molecules block further deposition of membrane attack complex (MAC) components of complement pathways on C3b and resist direct complement killing this way.

Leishmania parasites have evolved to survive in the hostile environment inside neutrophils by different evading mechanisms [34]. Some parasites like Leishmania major and Leishmania donovani can inhibit toxic oxygen metabolite production by acid phosphatases [35, 36]. Laskey et al. have recently proposed that L. major parasites can survive within human neutrophils because ingestion of uninfected apoptotic neutrophils by infected neutrophils inhibits ROS production [37]. This is entirely reasonable since high numbers of neutrophils are present at the infection site. Even uptake of apoptotic promastigotes in the inoculum can suppress further ROS production [38]. Leishmania parasites are also able to block fusion of the neutrophil granules with phagosome which is partly explained by surface LPG [39]. Many different species of Leishmania also induce NETosis such as L. major and Leishmania amazonensis [40], L. donovani, Leishmania infantum and Leishmania mexicana. However, several species resist NET killing by structural hindrance of surface LPG like L. donovani [41], by parasite-derived 3'nucleotidase/nuclease activity like L. infantum [42] and by an unknown mechanism like L. mexicana [43]. Furthermore, a recent work by Chagas et al. has identified a novel NETdestroying endonuclease (Lundep) in Lutzomyia longipalpis (L. longipalpis) saliva which promotes survival against the leishmanicidal activity of NET [44].

Leishmania parasites delay the apoptosis of neutrophils in vitro [45, 46]; however, controversial results have been obtained by ex vivo experiments: once engulfed, surviving parasites accelerate neutrophil apoptosis [47]. Neutrophil apoptosis is further facilitated by sandfly saliva components [48]. Sandfly components also augment macrophage chemoattractant production by neutrophils [48]. Recruited macrophages, first encounter apoptotic neutrophils [22]. Leishmania parasites then translocate into macrophages by "Trojan Horse" different mechanisms. In macrophages directly engulf apoptotic bodies of infected neutrophils [49]. In "Trojan Rabbit" model free parasites are ingested along with neutrophil apoptotic bodies [50]. Parasites can even be released from neutrophils to enter macrophages this time even more infectious than other pathways [22] and evade macrophage killing mechanisms. Evidently, apoptotic body ingestion by both macrophages and dendritic cells [51], known as "silent entry," has an adverse effect on activation of these cells and compromises appropriate adaptive immune response polarization by decreasing IL-12 and increasing TGF-β production [52]. Eventually, the parasite propagates in macrophages as host, however depending on some host factors including Neutrophil Elastase (NE), Toll-Like Receptor-4 (TLR-4) on macrophages and Tumor Necrosis Factor (TNF), the fate of the disease could be determined. Thus massive neutrophil infiltration induced by sandfly saliva is exploited by

Leishmania to impair the early reaction of macrophages and dendritic cells and to delay cellular immune responses [22]. This might be the reason why vaccines against Leishmania fail to protect against natural infection [30].

A robust effector response is crucial to control early inflammatory response after parasite deposition by sandfly

Employing 2Photon Intravital Microscopy to record the early in vivo events, massive recruitment of neutrophils to mouse ear epidermis within a few minutes after an intradermal challenge by L. major infected sand fly was confirmed [29, 53]. Interestingly neutrophil depletion before needle and sandfly challenge dramatically reduces the parasite number per ear [54]. These observations were then used to explain why leishmanization remains the most efficient vaccine formulation so far. After leishmanization, healed mice are effectively protected against secondary sandfly challenge. Instead, neither ALM-CpG [53] nor polyprotein-GLA-SE vaccines (KSAC-GLA-SE LeishF110-GLA-SE) [55] match the potency of leishmanization in protecting against sandfly challenge while protective against needle challenge. As investigated by Peters et al., the key differences between healed and ALM or polyprotein vaccinated mice are attributable first to a robust immune response early after sandfly challenge mediated by CD3⁺CD4⁺ T cells and then to a higher IFNγ/IL-17 ratio leading to low numbers of neutrophils 4 weeks post infection. Of particular note, neutrophil depletion after sandfly challenge in ALM-CpG vaccinated mice enhances the protective effect, comparable to healed mice, by increasing IFN-γ producing CD4⁺ T cells [53]. This means that only a rapid and robust immune response soon after a infective bite can control immunomodulatory conditions at early time points postinfection when neutrophils have accumulated at the site.

Further investigation revealed that parasite persistence after healing is the key to leishmanization success. Persistent parasites after healing, maintain an effector and not memory population of $CD4^{+}$ T cells that produce IFN- γ and are characterized by high levels of Ly6C and t-bet molecules. These cells are introduced as the primary correlates of the immunity conferred by leishmanization since they infiltrate the bite site very rapidly after sandfly probing (opposite of a memory profile). They are shortlived in the absence of antigen and disappear as soon as the antigen level drops [56] (a common characteristic of nonliving vaccines like ALM or polyproteins). They potentially modulate the inflammatory milieu in favor of Th1 response early after infection.

Immunity to sandfly saliva plays a major role in disease control

Together with the parasite, sand flies co-inject salivary components that facilitate getting a blood meal [57]. Further investigation demonstrated that co-inoculation of sand fly saliva and *Leishmania* exacerbates the disease and increases parasite load [58-61]. However pre-exposure to salivary gland homogenates (SGH) [59], bites of uninfected sand flies [62] or even vaccination with specific salivary molecules, either alone [26, 63-67] or in combination with

parasite immunogenic proteins [68, 69], potentially protects against infectious challenge. Also, in endemic areas, antisaliva immunity coincides with delayed-type hypersensitivity (DTH) response against Leishmania antigens [70-72]. Altogether these data raised the concept that immune response against sandfly saliva confers a long term protection against Leishmania. In 2007, a group of volunteers was experimentally exposed to uninfected (L. longipalpis) bites and high levels of IgG1, IgG4 and IFN-y were detected. One year after exposure, recall responses efficiently produced IFN-y [73]. Furthermore, Valenzuela et al. demonstrated that immunization with DNA encoding Phlebotomus papatasi (P. papatasi) SP15 (PpSP15) protein protects against infectious challenge three-month post-immunization [26].

There are two alternatives to explain this fact. First, immunization with saliva neutralizes exacerbating factors. These could be mainly chemoattractants that recruit neutrophils to the sandfly probing site. Previously, components of L. longipalpis [74] and L. intermedia [75] saliva were demonstrated to induce a rapid recruitment of neutrophils in Balb/c model. Recently, C57BL/6 neutrophil migration towards salivary glands of the P. duboscqi and L. longipalpis in vitro was illustrated which was compromised by Proteinase K treatment indicating the protein nature of recruiting factors [76]. In this respect, pre-treatment with SGH from L. longipalpis [77] or P. papatasi [78] reduced recruitment by different mechanisms. neutrophil Alternatively, cellular anti-saliva immunity provides a DTH environment that controls early inflammatory events at infection site [79]. Oliveira et al. have correlated this with early recruitment of lymphocytes and IFN-γ/IL-12 production within 2 hours after the bite [80]. Biopsies taken at the site of a DTH response 48 hours after experimental bites were dominated by lymphocytes, macrophages and high levels of IFN-y indicative of a Th1 response [81]. In another word, Th1 response against sandfly saliva promotes a Th1 response against Leishmania.

Concluding remarks: implications for vaccine development

As explained so far, Leishmania parasites are able to benefit neutrophils and bypass their hostile environment to establish a progressive disease. In this respect, sandfly saliva plays a crucial role in the massive recruitment of neutrophils, apoptosis induction, and NET disruption to support parasites' moving to their final destination in macrophages. The silent entry shuts down leishmanicidal activities of macrophages and dendritic cells and eventually suppresses Th1 deviation. This could be one possible explanation why vaccine formulations with promising results in experimental needle challenge models fail in the field to protect against sandfly challenge. This point has drawn full attraction to re-think about the role of neutrophils in vaccine design against leishmaniasis. On one side, the humoral immune response could be raised against defined neutrophil chemoattractants in saliva to restrict massive recruitment of neutrophils. On the other side, multiple proteins like PpSP15 in P. papatasi or its counterparts in other sandfly species, used alone or in

combination with immunogenic proteins of parasite, could be advantaged in DNA or dendritic cell context (vaccine modalities with more sustained antigen production and presentation) to promote long-lasting cellular immune response that rapidly colonize at the sandfly bite site. This reaction could confer protection by modulating the environment for Th1 deviation and parasite killing following sandfly challenge. Then there is an urgent need to further characterize immunogenic proteins in different sandfly and different Leishmania species in each endemic country and also define the saliva chemotactic factors of each sandfly species. These might promisingly lead us one step forward in improving vaccines against leishmaniasis although we still need to fully understand the role of the innate immune system in Leishmania infection and the function of other innate cells in the skin including $\gamma\delta$ -T cells and innate lymphoid Cells (ILCs) and even the skin related microbiota. We should keep in mind that the parasite species and the experimental models used are important factors to be considered in every vaccine concept.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The authors wish to acknowledge Pasteur Institute of Iran for supporting this work.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest associated with this manuscript.

REFERENCES

- 1. Finney CA, Kamhawi S, Wasmuth JD. Does the arthropod microbiota impact the establishment of vector-borne diseases in mammalian hosts? PLoS Pathog. 2015; 11 (4): e1004646.
- 2. Lopes ME, Carneiro MB, Dos Santos LM, Vieira LQ. Indigenous microbiota and Leishmaniasis. Parasite Immunol. 2016; 38 (1): 37-44.
- 3. Abbas A, Lichtman A, Pillai S. Cells and tissues of the immune system. In: Abbas A, Lichtman A, Pillai S. Cellular and molecular immunology. 8th ed. Philadelphia: WB Saunders; 1991; 13-34.
- 4. Kolaczkowska E, Kubes P. Neutrophil recruitment and function in health and inflammation. Nat Rev Immunol. 2013; 13 (3): 159-75.
- 5. Mocsai A. Diverse novel functions of neutrophils in immunity, inflammation, and beyond. J Exp Med. 2013; 210 (7): 1283-99.
- 6. Galli SJ, Borregaard N, Wynn TA. Phenotypic and functional plasticity of cells of innate immunity: macrophages, mast cells and neutrophils. Nat Immunol. 2011; 12 (11): 1035-44.
- 7. Charmoy M, Auderset F, Allenbach C, Tacchini-Cottier F. The prominent role of neutrophils during the initial phase of infection by *Leishmania* parasites. J Biomed Biotechnol. 2010; 2010: 719361.
- 8. Ley K, Laudanna C, Cybulsky MI, Nourshargh S. Getting to the site of inflammation: the leukocyte adhesion cascade updated. Nat Rev Immunol. 2007; 7 (9): 678-89.

- 9. McDonald B, Pittman K, Menezes GB, Hirota SA, Slaba I, Waterhouse CC, Beck PL, Muruve DA, Kubes P. Intravascular danger signals guide neutrophils to sites of sterile inflammation. Science. 2010; 330 (6002): 362-6.
- 10. Nathan C, Srimal S, Farber C, Sanchez E, Kabbash L, Asch A, Gailit J, Wright SD. Cytokine-induced respiratory burst of human neutrophils: dependence on extracellular matrix proteins and CD11/CD18 integrins. J Cell Biol. 1989; 109 (3): 1341-9.
- 11. Soehnlein O. Direct and alternative antimicrobial mechanisms of neutrophil-derived granule proteins. J Mol Med (Berl). 2009; 87 (12): 1157-64.
- 12. Delgado-Rizo V, Martinez-Guzman MA, Iniguez-Gutierrez L, Garcia-Orozco A, Alvarado-Navarro A, Fafutis-Morris M. Neutrophil Extracellular Traps and Its Implications in Inflammation: An Overview. Front Immunol. 2017; 8: 81.
- 13. Yang H, Biermann MH, Brauner JM, Liu Y, Zhao Y, Herrmann M. New Insights into Neutrophil Extracellular Traps: Mechanisms of Formation and Role in Inflammation. Front Immunol. 2016; 7: 302.
- 14. Brinkmann V, Reichard U, Goosmann C, Fauler B, Uhlemann Y, Weiss DS, Weinrauch Y, Zychlinsky A. Neutrophil extracellular traps kill bacteria. Science. 2004; 303 (5663): 1532-5.
- 15. Nathan C. Neutrophils and immunity: challenges and opportunities. Nat Rev Immunol. 2006; 6 (3): 173-82.
- 16. Schuster S, Hurrell B, Tacchini-Cottier F. Crosstalk between neutrophils and dendritic cells: a context-dependent process. J Leukoc Biol. 2013; 94 (4): 671-5.
- 17. Boudaly S. Activation of dendritic cells by polymorphonuclear neutrophils. Front Biosci (Landmark Ed). 2009; 14: 1589-95.
- 18. Beauvillain C, Cunin P, Doni A, Scotet M, Jaillon S, Loiry ML, Magistrelli G, Masternak K, Chevailler A, Delneste Y, Jeannin P. CCR7 is involved in the migration of neutrophils to lymph nodes. Blood. 2011; 117 (4): 1196-204.
- 19. Beauvillain C, Delneste Y, Scotet M, Peres A, Gascan H, Guermonprez P, Barnaba V, Jeannin P. Neutrophils efficiently cross-prime naive T cells *in vivo*. Blood. 2007; 110 (8): 2965-73.
- 20. Abi Abdallah DS, Egan CE, Butcher BA, Denkers EY. Mouse neutrophils are professional antigen-presenting cells programmed to instruct Th1 and Th17 T-cell differentiation. Int Immunol. 2011; 23 (5): 317-26.
- 21. Ethuin F, Gerard B, Benna JE, Boutten A, Gougereot-Pocidalo MA, Jacob L, Chollet-Martin S. Human neutrophils produce interferon gamma upon stimulation by interleukin-12. Lab Invest. 2004; 84 (10): 1363-71.
- 22. Ribeiro-Gomes FL, Sacks D. The influence of early neutrophil-Leishmania interactions on the host immune response to infection. Front Cell Infect Microbiol. 2012; 2: 59.
- 23. Laskay T, van Zandbergen G, Solbach W. Neutrophil granulocytes as host cells and transport vehicles for intracellular pathogens: apoptosis as infection-promoting factor. Immunobiology. 2008; 213 (3-4): 183-91.
- 24. Abdossamadi Z, Seyed N, Rafati S. Mammalian host defense peptides and their implication on combating *Leishmania* infection. Cell Immunol. 2016; 309: 23-31.
- 25. Serhan CN, Savill J. Resolution of inflammation: the beginning programs the end. Nat Immunol. 2005; 6 (12): 1191-7.
- 26. Valenzuela JG, Belkaid Y, Garfield MK, Mendez S, Kamhawi S, Rowton ED, Sacks DL, Ribeiro JM. Toward a defined anti-

- Leishmania vaccine targeting vector antigens: characterization of a protective salivary protein. J Exp Med. 2001; 194 (3): 331-42.
- 27. Rogers M, Kropf P, Choi BS, Dillon R, Podinovskaia M, Bates P, Muller I. Proteophosophoglycans regurgitated by Leishmania-infected sand flies target the L-arginine metabolism of host macrophages to promote parasite survival. PLoS Pathog. 2009; 5 (8): e1000555.
- 28. van Zandbergen G, Hermann N, Laufs H, Solbach W, Laskay T. *Leishmania* promastigotes release a granulocyte chemotactic factor and induce interleukin-8 release but inhibit gamma interferon-inducible protein 10 production by neutrophil granulocytes. Infect Immun. 2002;70 (8): 4177-84.
- 29. Peters NC, Egen JG, Secundino N, Debrabant A, Kimblin N, Kamhawi S, Lawyer P, Fay MP, Germain RN, Sacks D. *In vivo* imaging reveals an essential role for neutrophils in leishmaniasis transmitted by sand flies. Science. 2008; 321 (5891): 970-4.
- 30. Peters NC, Sacks DL. The impact of vector-mediated neutrophil recruitment on cutaneous leishmaniasis. Cell Microbiol. 2009; 11 (9): 1290-6.
- 31. Ueno N, Bratt CL, Rodriguez NE, Wilson ME. Differences in human macrophage receptor usage, lysosomal fusion kinetics and survival between logarithmic and metacyclic *Leishmania* infantum chagasi promastigotes. Cell Microbiol. 2009; 11 (12): 1827-41.
- 32. Puentes SM, Da Silva RP, Sacks DL, Hammer CH, Joiner KA. Serum resistance of metacyclic stage *Leishmania major* promastigotes is due to release of C5b-9. J Immunol. 1990; 145 (12): 4311-6.
- 33. Brittingham A, Morrison CJ, McMaster WR, McGwire BS, Chang KP, Mosser DM. Role of the *Leishmania* surface protease gp63 in complement fixation, cell adhesion, and resistance to complement-mediated lysis. J Immunol. 1995; 155 (6): 3102-11.
- 34. Laufs H, Muller K, Fleischer J, Reiling N, Jahnke N, Jensenius JC, Solbach W, Laskay T. Intracellular survival of *Leishmania major* in neutrophil granulocytes after uptake in the absence of heat-labile serum factors. Infect Immun. 2002; 70 (2): 826-35.
- 35. al Tuwaijri AS, al Mofleh IA, Mahmoud AA. Effect of *Leishmania major* on human polymorphonuclear leucocyte function *in vitro*. J Med Microbiol. 1990; 32 (3): 189-93.
- 36. Remaley AT, Glew RH, Kuhns DB, Basford RE, Waggoner AS, Ernst LA, Pope M. *Leishmania donovani*: surface membrane acid phosphatase blocks neutrophil oxidative metabolite production. Exp Parasitol. 1985; 60 (3): 331-41.
- 37. Salei N, Hellberg L, Kohl J, Laskay T. Enhanced survival of *Leishmania major* in neutrophil granulocytes in the presence of apoptotic cells. PLoS One. 2017; 12 (2): e0171850.
- 38. van Zandbergen G, Bollinger A, Wenzel A, Kamhawi S, Voll R, Klinger M, Muller A, Holscher C, Herrmann M, Sacks D, Solbach W, Laskay T. *Leishmania* disease development depends on the presence of apoptotic promastigotes in the virulent inoculum. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2006; 103 (37): 13837-42.
- 39. Mollinedo F, Janssen H, de la Iglesia-Vicente J, Villa-Pulgarin JA, Calafat J. Selective fusion of azurophilic granules with *Leishmania*-containing phagosomes in human neutrophils. J Biol Chem. 2010; 285 (45): 34528-36.
- 40. Guimaraes-Costa AB, Nascimento MT, Froment GS, Soares RP, Morgado FN, Conceicao-Silva F, Saraiva EM. *Leishmania amazonensis* promastigotes induce and are killed by neutrophil extracellular traps. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2009; 106 (16): 6748-53.
- 41. Gabriel C, McMaster WR, Girard D, Descoteaux A. *Leishmania donovani* promastigotes evade the antimicrobial activity of neutrophil extracellular traps. J Immunol. 2010; 185 (7): 4319-27.

- 42. Guimaraes-Costa AB, DeSouza-Vieira TS, Paletta-Silva R, Freitas-Mesquita AL, Meyer-Fernandes JR, Saraiva EM. 3'-nucleotidase/nuclease activity allows *Leishmania* parasites to escape killing by neutrophil extracellular traps. Infect Immun. 2014; 82 (4): 1732-40.
- 43. Hurrell BP, Schuster S, Grun E, Coutaz M, Williams RA, Held W, Malissen B, Malissen M, Yousefi S, Simon HU, Muller AJ, Tacchini-Cottier F. Rapid Sequestration of *Leishmania mexicana* by Neutrophils Contributes to the Development of Chronic Lesion. PLoS Pathog. 2015; 11 (5): e1004929.
- 44. Chagas AC, Oliveira F, Debrabant A, Valenzuela JG, Ribeiro JM, Calvo E. Lundep, a sand fly salivary endonuclease increases *Leishmania parasite* survival in neutrophils and inhibits XIIa contact activation in human plasma. PLoS Pathog. 2014; 10 (2): e1003923.
- 45. Aga E, Katschinski DM, van Zandbergen G, Laufs H, Hansen B, Muller K, Solbach W, Laskay T. Inhibition of the spontaneous apoptosis of neutrophil granulocytes by the intracellular parasite *Leishmania major*. J Immunol. 2002; 169 (2): 898-905.
- 46. Sarkar A, Aga E, Bussmeyer U, Bhattacharyya A, Moller S, Hellberg L, Behnen M, Solbach W, Laskay T. Infection of neutrophil granulocytes with *Leishmania major* activates ERK 1/2 and modulates multiple apoptotic pathways to inhibit apoptosis. Med Microbiol Immunol. 2013; 202 (1): 25-35.
- 47. Ribeiro-Gomes FL, Peters NC, Debrabant A, Sacks DL. Efficient capture of infected neutrophils by dendritic cells in the skin inhibits the early anti-*leishmania* response. PLoS Pathog. 2012; 8 (2): e1002536.
- 48. Prates DB, Araujo-Santos T, Luz NF, Andrade BB, Franca-Costa J, Afonso L, Clarencio J, Miranda JC, Bozza PT, Dosreis GA, Brodskyn C, Barral-Netto M, et al. Lutzomyia longipalpis saliva drives apoptosis and enhances parasite burden in neutrophils. J Leukoc Biol. 2011; 90 (3): 575-82.
- 49. van Zandbergen G, Klinger M, Mueller A, Dannenberg S, Gebert A, Solbach W, Laskay T. Cutting edge: neutrophil granulocyte serves as a vector for *Leishmania* entry into macrophages. J Immunol. 2004; 173 (11): 6521-5.
- 50. Ritter U, Frischknecht F, van Zandbergen G. Are neutrophils important host cells for *Leishmania* parasites?. Trends Parasitol. 2009; 25 (11): 505-10.
- 51. Steinman RM, Turley S, Mellman I, Inaba K. The induction of tolerance by dendritic cells that have captured apoptotic cells. J Exp Med. 2000; 191 (3): 411-6.
- 52. Byrne A, Reen DJ. Lipopolysaccharide induces rapid production of IL-10 by monocytes in the presence of apoptotic neutrophils. J Immunol. 2002; 168 (4): 1968-77.
- 53. Peters NC, Kimblin N, Secundino N, Kamhawi S, Lawyer P, Sacks DL. Vector transmission of *leishmania* abrogates vaccine-induced protective immunity. PLoS Pathog. 2009; 5 (6): e1000484.
- 54. Ribeiro-Gomes FL, Roma EH, Carneiro MB, Doria NA, Sacks DL, Peters NC. Site-dependent recruitment of inflammatory cells determines the effective dose of *Leishmania major*. Infect Immun. 2014; 82 (7): 2713-27.
- 55. Peters NC, Bertholet S, Lawyer PG, Charmoy M, Romano A, Ribeiro-Gomes FL, Stamper LW, Sacks DL. Evaluation of recombinant *Leishmania* polyprotein plus glucopyranosyl lipid A stable emulsion vaccines against sand fly-transmitted *Leishmania major* in C57BL/6 mice. J Immunol. 2012; 189 (10): 4832-41.
- 56. Peters NC, Pagan AJ, Lawyer PG, Hand TW, Henrique Roma E, Stamper LW, Romano A, Sacks DL. Chronic parasitic infection maintains high frequencies of short-lived Ly6C+CD4+ effector T cells

- that are required for protection against re-infection. PLoS Pathog. 2014; 10 (12): e1004538.
- 57. Ribeiro JM. Role of saliva in blood-feeding by arthropods. Annu Rev Entomol. 1987: 32: 463-78.
- 58. Titus RG, Ribeiro JM. Salivary gland lysates from the sand fly Lutzomyia longipalpis enhance *Leishmania* infectivity. Science. 1988; 239 (4845): 1306-8.
- 59. Belkaid Y, Kamhawi S, Modi G, Valenzuela J, Noben-Trauth N, Rowton E, Ribeiro J, Sacks DL. Development of a natural model of cutaneous leishmaniasis: powerful effects of vector saliva and saliva preexposure on the long-term outcome of *Leishmania major* infection in the mouse ear dermis. J Exp Med. 1998; 188 (10): 1941-53.
- 60. Kamhawi S. The biological and immunomodulatory properties of sand fly saliva and its role in the establishment of *Leishmania* infections. Microbes Infect. 2000; 2 (14): 1765-73.
- 61. Carregaro V, Costa DL, Brodskyn C, Barral AM, Barral-Netto M, Cunha FQ, Silva JS. Dual effect of Lutzomyia longipalpis saliva on *Leishmania* braziliensis infection is mediated by distinct saliva-induced cellular recruitment into BALB/c mice ear. BMC Microbiol. 2013; 13: 102.
- 62. Kamhawi S, Belkaid Y, Modi G, Rowton E, Sacks D. Protection against cutaneous leishmaniasis resulting from bites of uninfected sand flies. Science. 2000; 290 (5495): 1351-4.
- 63. Gomes R, Teixeira C, Teixeira MJ, Oliveira F, Menezes MJ, Silva C, de Oliveira CI, Miranda JC, Elnaiem DE, Kamhawi S, Valenzuela JG, Brodskyn CI. Immunity to a salivary protein of a sand fly vector protects against the fatal outcome of visceral leishmaniasis in a hamster model. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2008; 105 (22): 7845-50.
- 64. Tavares NM, Silva RA, Costa DJ, Pitombo MA, Fukutani KF, Miranda JC, Valenzuela JG, Barral A, de Oliveira CI, Barral-Netto M, Brodskyn C. Lutzomyia longipalpis saliva or salivary protein LJM19 protects against *Leishmania braziliensis* and the saliva of its vector, Lutzomyia intermedia. PLoS Negl Trop Dis. 2011; 5 (5): e1169.
- 65. Xu X, Oliveira F, Chang BW, Collin N, Gomes R, Teixeira C, Reynoso D, My Pham V, Elnaiem DE, Kamhawi S, Ribeiro JM, Valenzuela JG, et al. Structure and function of a "yellow" protein from saliva of the sand fly Lutzomyia longipalpis that confers protective immunity against *Leishmania major* infection. J Biol Chem. 2011; 286 (37): 32383-93.
- 66. Oliveira F, Rowton E, Aslan H, Gomes R, Castrovinci PA, Alvarenga PH, Abdeladhim M, Teixeira C, Meneses C, Kleeman LT, Guimaraes-Costa AB, Rowland TE, et al. A sand fly salivary protein vaccine shows efficacy against vector-transmitted cutaneous leishmaniasis in nonhuman primates. Sci Transl Med. 2015; 7 (290): 290ra90.
- 67. Katebi A, Gholami E, Taheri T, Zahedifard F, Habibzadeh S, Taslimi Y, Shokri F, Papadopoulou B, Kamhawi S, Valenzuela JG, Rafati S. *Leishmania* tarentolae secreting the sand fly salivary antigen PpSP15 confers protection against *Leishmania major* infection in a susceptible BALB/c mice model. Mol Immunol. 2015; 67 (2 Pt B): 501-11.
- 68. Zahedifard F, Gholami E, Taheri T, Taslimi Y, Doustdari F, Seyed N, Torkashvand F, Meneses C, Papadopoulou B, Kamhawi S, Valenzuela JG, Rafati S. Enhanced protective efficacy of nonpathogenic recombinant *leishmania* tarentolae expressing cysteine proteinases combined with a sand fly salivary antigen. PLoS Negl Trop Dis. 2014; 8 (3): e2751.
- 69. Reed SG, Coler RN, Mondal D, Kamhawi S, Valenzuela JG. *Leishmania* vaccine development: exploiting the host-vector-parasite interface. Expert Rev Vaccines. 2016; 15 (1): 81-90.

- 70. Aquino DM, Caldas AJ, Miranda JC, Silva AA, Barral-Netto M, Barral A. Epidemiological study of the association between anti-Lutzomyia longipalpis saliva antibodies and development of delayed-type hypersensitivity to *Leishmania* antigen. Am J Trop Med Hyg. 2010; 83 (4): 825-7.
- 71. Barral A, Honda E, Caldas A, Costa J, Vinhas V, Rowton ED, Valenzuela JG, Charlab R, Barral-Netto M, Ribeiro JM. Human immune response to sand fly salivary gland antigens: a useful epidemiological marker?. Am J Trop Med Hyg. 2000; 62 (6): 740-5.
- 72. Gomes RB, Brodskyn C, de Oliveira CI, Costa J, Miranda JC, Caldas A, Valenzuela JG, Barral-Netto M, Barral A. Seroconversion against Lutzomyia longipalpis saliva concurrent with the development of anti-*Leishmania* chagasi delayed-type hypersensitivity. J Infect Dis. 2002; 186 (10): 1530-4.
- 73. Vinhas V, Andrade BB, Paes F, Bomura A, Clarencio J, Miranda JC, Bafica A, Barral A, Barral-Netto M. Human anti-saliva immune response following experimental exposure to the visceral leishmaniasis vector, Lutzomyia longipalpis. Eur J Immunol. 2007; 37 (11): 3111-21.
- 74. Teixeira CR, Teixeira MJ, Gomes RB, Santos CS, Andrade BB, Raffaele-Netto I, Silva JS, Guglielmotti A, Miranda JC, Barral A, Brodskyn C, Barral-Netto M. Saliva from Lutzomyia longipalpis induces CC chemokine ligand 2/monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 expression and macrophage recruitment. J Immunol. 2005; 175 (12): 8346-53.
- 75. de Moura TR, Oliveira F, Rodrigues GC, Carneiro MW, Fukutani KF, Novais FO, Miranda JC, Barral-Netto M, Brodskyn C, Barral A, de Oliveira CI. Immunity to *Lutzomyia intermedia* saliva modulates the inflammatory environment induced by *Leishmania braziliensis*. PLoS Negl Trop Dis. 2010; 4 (6): e712.
- 76. Guimaraes A, Wen X, Carvalho AM, Brzostowski J, Valenzuela J, Oliveira F. Neutrophil recruitment during *Leishmania* infection: The role of sand fly salivary proteins. J Immunol. 2016; 196 (1 Supplement): 135-9.
- 77. Monteiro MC, Nogueira LG, Almeida Souza AA, Ribeiro JM, Silva JS, Cunha FQ. Effect of salivary gland extract of *Leishmania* vector, Lutzomyia longipalpis, on leukocyte migration in OVA-induced immune peritonitis. Eur J Immunol. 2005; 35 (8): 2424-33.
- 78. Carregaro V, Valenzuela JG, Cunha TM, Verri WA, Jr., Grespan R, Matsumura G, Ribeiro JM, Elnaiem DE, Silva JS, Cunha FQ. Phlebotomine salivas inhibit immune inflammation-induced neutrophil migration via an autocrine DC-derived PGE2/IL-10 sequential pathway. J Leukoc Biol. 2008; 84 (1): 104-14.
- 79. Belkaid Y, Valenzuela JG, Kamhawi S, Rowton E, Sacks DL, Ribeiro JM. Delayed-type hypersensitivity to Phlebotomus papatasi sand fly bite: An adaptive response induced by the fly?. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2000; 97 (12): 6704-9.
- 80. Oliveira F, Lawyer PG, Kamhawi S, Valenzuela JG. Immunity to distinct sand fly salivary proteins primes the anti-*Leishmania* immune response towards protection or exacerbation of disease. PLoS Negl Trop Dis. 2008; 2 (4): e226.
- 81. Teixeira C, Gomes R, Oliveira F, Meneses C, Gilmore DC, Elnaiem D-EA, Valenzuela JG, Kamhawi S. Characterization of the early inflammatory infiltrate at the feeding site of infected sand flies in mice protected from vector-transmitted *Leishmania major* by exposure to uninfected bites. PLoS Negl Trop Dis. 2014; 8 (4): e2781.