- Parenteral Administration of Capsule Depolymerase EnvD Prevents Lethal Inhalation Anthrax
- Infection

- David Negus,^a Julia Vipond,^b Graham J. Hatch,^b Emma L. Rayner,^b Peter W. Taylor^a#
- ^aSchool of Pharmacy, University College London, London WC1N 1AX, UK
- ^bPublic Health England, Porton Down, Salisbury SP4 0JG, UK

- Running title: Prevention of lethal anthrax
- #Address correspondence to Peter Taylor, peter.taylor@ucl.ac.uk

ABSTRACT Left untreated, inhalation anthrax is usually fatal. Vegetative forms of Bacillus anthracis survive in blood and tissues during infection due to elaboration of a protective poly-y-D-glutamic acid (PDGA) capsule that permits uncontrolled bacterial growth in vivo, eventually leading to overwhelming bacillosis and death. As a measure to counter threats from multi-drug-resistant strains, we are evaluating the prophylactic and therapeutic potential of the PDGA depolymerase EnvD, a stable and potent enzyme which rapidly and selectively removes the capsule from the surface of vegetative cells. Repeated intravenous administration of 10 mg/kg recombinant EnvD to mice infected with lethal doses of *B. anthracis* Ames spores by inhalation prevented the emergence of symptoms of anthrax and death; all animals survived the five day treatment period and 70% survived to the end of the 14 day observation period. In contrast to sham-treated animals, the lungs and spleen of rEnvD-dosed animals were free of gross pathological changes. We conclude that rEnvD has potential as an agent to prevent the emergence of inhalation anthrax in infected animals and is likely to be effective against drug resistant forms of the pathogen.

48 INTRODUCTION

49 Bacillus anthracis featured in offensive weapons programs in the USA and former Soviet Union during the last century (1) and has been identified by the World Health Organization, the United 50 51 Nations and the Working Group on Civilian Defense (WGCB) as a pathogen of great concern. The 52 WGCB has highlighted a limited number of microorganisms that could cause infections in sufficient 53 numbers to cripple a city or region and B. anthracis is one of the most serious of such threat agents 54 (2). Their spores are able to survive in hostile environments for many decades and, in aerosolized 55 form, can travel significant distances on prevailing winds, disseminating over a wide area. Accidental 56 release of anthrax spores as an aerosol from a military facility in Sverdlovsk in 1979 resulted in at 57 least 79 cases of anthrax and 68 deaths, demonstrating its lethal potential (3). These traits define B. 58 anthracis as a potential threat agent, attractive to both rogue states and terrorist groups, and a 59 cause of human and animal disease globally. The vegetative bacilli release toxin complexes that 60 cause hemorrhage, edema and necrosis and are protected from host innate defenses by a capsule 61 comprised of poly-y-D-glutamic acid (PDGA) (4). In inhalation anthrax, endospores gain access to the 62 alveolar spaces and are ingested by macrophages; they are then transported to regional lymph 63 nodes where spore germination occurs after a variable period of dormancy (4, 5). Toxin-mediated 64 clinical symptoms typically arise soon after the onset of rapid bacillary growth (2).

65 Effective treatment requires prompt and aggressive antibiotic therapy; a fluoroquinolone 66 and an agent that inhibits protein synthesis such as linezolid are currently recommended by the 67 Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (6). The consensus approach to prophylaxis and 68 treatment of inhalation anthrax could be compromised by the release of B. anthracis carrying 69 engineered antibiotic resistance genes and occasional reports have emerged of naturally occurring 70 strains resistant to currently useful antibiotics (7, 8). Clearly, new agents or novel therapeutic and 71 prophylactic modalities should be developed as a part of a comprehensive preparedness strategy. 72 We previously demonstrated that parenteral administration of a capsule depolymerase with the 73 capacity to rapidly and selectively remove the protective capsule from the bacterial surface can

74 resolve potentially lethal Escherichia coli infection in the neonatal rat (9, 10). Systemic anthrax is an 75 attractive candidate for this approach as infections are attributable to a single, phylogenetically 76 homogeneous bacterial species, all strains elaborate the unique PDGA capsule essential for 77 pathogenesis (11) and hydrolysis of the outermost layer of the bacilli would confound attempts to 78 circumvent antibiotic chemotherapy by the introduction of antibiotic resistance genes into B. 79 anthracis. Here we report that early intravenous administration of rEnvD, a recombinant PDGA 80 hydrolase elaborated by a consortium culture of soil bacteria, is able to prevent anthrax in mice 81 infected by the inhalation route.

82

83 MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacteria. *B. anthracis* Ames (NR-2324; pXO1+, pXO2+) was obtained from the Biodefense and
Emerging Infections Research Resources Repository (Manassas, VA). Spores were prepared by fed
batch culture in a 2 l bioreactor for 26 h at 37°C with stirring at 400 rpm, collected by centrifugation
and washed in sterile distilled water. For spore challenge tests, suspensions (8 × 10⁹ CFU/ml) were
prepared in sterile water. *Bacillus licheniformis* ATCC 9945a was purchased from the American Type
Culture Collection and grown in Medium E containing 615 µM MnSO₄ in an orbital incubator (200
orbits/min) at 37°C (12).

91 Recombinant EnvD. The enzyme was expressed, refolded and purified as described previously (12).
92 Endotoxin was removed using Proteus Endotoxin Removal Columns (Abd Serotec, Oxford, UK) and
93 removal confirmed with the Pierce LAL Chromogenic Endotoxin Quantitation Kit (Thermo Fisher,
94 Rockford, USA). Purified rEnvD was stored in 20 mM Tris (pH 8.5) at -20°C until required.

Impact of rEnvD on bacterial viability. A culture (50 ml) from a single, heavily mucoid colony of *B*. *licheniformis* 9945a was grown to OD₆₀₀ 0.6 and examined by light microscopy to ensure only
vegetative bacilli were present. Two aliquots of 1 ml were removed and rEnvD added to one aliquot
to give a final protein concentration of 1µg/ml. An equal volume of phosphate buffered saline (PBS)

99 was added to the second. Both samples were incubated at 37°C for 15 min, serially diluted in PBS
100 and plated onto Luria-Bertani agar. Plates were incubated at 37°C for 16 h and bacteria enumerated.

101 Stability of rEnvD in serum. Aliquots of rEnvD (final concentration 100 nM; in 1.6 ml Eppendorf 102 tubes) were incubated at 37°C in serum from BALB/c mice (Sigma; total volume 200 μ l) for up to 24 h 103 and EnvD activity determined at regular intervals by Förster resonance energy transfer (FRET) 104 utilizing the fluorescently labelled synthetic peptide substrate 5-FAM-(D-Glu-γ-)₅-K(QXL[™]520)-NH₂ as 105 previously described (12). Two tubes were used for each time point, to provide duplicate readings. In 106 some experiments heat-inactivated (56°C, 30 min) serum was used and some assays were conducted 107 in the presence of Roche complete protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche, Basel, Switzerland) at 108 concentrations specified by manufacturer's guidelines. 109 Serum half-life. Pairs of female adult BALB/c mice were dosed with 10 mg/kg rEnvD in 180 µl 20 mM

110 Tris pH 8.5 by tail vein injection. Paired animals were sacrificed over a 24 h period, blood withdrawn 111 by cardiac puncture and serum obtained. Serum was diluted twofold with 0.1 M Tricine, 0.1% 112 CHAPS, pH 8.5 to a final volume of 200 µl and 100 µl transferred to each well of a black 96 well 113 microtiter plate. All assays were run in duplicate. rEnvD activity was measured using the FRET assay 114 described above with the exception that fluorescence was measured over a 4 min period. The 115 concentration of enzyme in each sample was determined using a standard curve prepared in mouse 116 serum. Area under the curve (AUC) was calculated by GraphPad Prism (GraphPad Software Inc., La 117 Jolla, CA) using the trapezoid rule.

Infection of mice with *B. anthracis*. All animal studies were carried out in accordance with the UK Animals (Scientific Procedures) Act, 1986 and the Codes of Practice for the Housing and Care of Animals used in Scientific Procedures, 1989 following approval by the local ethical committee and the UK Home Office. Female BALB/c mice (minimum age 10 weeks; approximate body weight 20 g; food and water available *ad libitum*) were obtained from Charles River (Canterbury, UK) and infected by aerosol (13). Groups of ten mice were challenged with 10-50 minimum lethal doses (LD₅₀ 6 × 10⁴

124 CFU; presented dose $\sim 1.45 \times 10^6$ CFU) of *B. anthracis* spores with the AeroMP-Henderson apparatus. 125 The challenge aerosol was generated using a six-jet Collison nebuliser (BGI Inc., Waltham, MA), the 126 aerosol mixed with conditioned air in the spray tube and delivered to the nose of each animal 127 through an exposure tube in which non-anesthetized mice were held in restraint tubes. Samples of 128 the aerosol were obtained with an AGI30 glass impinger (Ace Glass Inc., Vineland, NJ) and the mean 129 particle size determined with an aerodynamic particle sizer (TSI Instruments Ltd., High Wycombe, 130 UK); these processes were controlled and monitored from an AeroMP management platform (Biaera 131 Technologies, Hagerstown, MD) . All-glass impinger samples were titrated by serial dilution and 132 plated on trypticase soy agar prior to incubation at 37°C for 16-24 h.

133 Intravenous (i.v.) administration of rEnvD was initiated 12 h after spore challenge. The 134 dosing regimen was guided by the stability of the enzyme in commercial mouse serum and by the 135 rate of clearance of rEnvD from the circulation of adult female BALB/c mice. Each mouse received 136 rEnvD (0.5-10 mg/kg) by injection at regular intervals up to 120 h after spore challenge; groups were 137 comprised of ten individual animals. Control mice received i.v. injections of PBS (180 µl) at these 138 time points. Additional groups of ten mice received oral doses of ciprofloxacin (118 mg/kg every 12 h for 14 days). Animals were monitored and assigned a clinical score at least twice daily up to 14 days 139 140 after spore challenge and at least four times daily during critical periods (13). Clinical scores were 141 based on severity of symptoms (ruffled fur, closed eyes, arched back, immobility, weight loss). 142 Animals surpassing a threshold score were euthanized humanely by pentobarbital overdose. 143 Surviving mice from each group were euthanized at day 14 after challenge. Post mortem, blood, lung 144 and spleen samples were taken for enumeration of bacterial load: tissues were weighed and 145 homogenized in sterile water using a Precellys24 tissue homogenizer (Bertin Technologies, 146 Villeurbanne, France), the homogenates serially diluted in sterile water, plated onto trypticase soy 147 agar and the plates incubated at 37°C for 16-24 h before enumeration. Further lung and spleen 148 samples were placed in 10% neutral-buffered formalin for pathological evaluation. An additional 149 group of ten mice was employed to evaluate pathological changes six days after spore challenge;

animals were culled 24 h after receiving their final dose of rEnvD on day five and blood and tissue
samples removed. Kaplan-Meier log rank test was used to determine the significance of differences
in survival between groups of animals and GraphPad Prism software (GraphPad, La Jolla, USA) was
employed. For histological evaluation, formalin-fixed tissue samples were processed to paraffin wax
and 3-5 µm sections cut and stained with hematoxylin and eosin. Sections were examined by light
microscopy and evaluated subjectively. Slides were randomized by a third party before microscopic
examination to avoid prior knowledge of group or treatment.

157

158 **RESULTS**

159 rEnvD is a promising candidate for *in vivo* attenuation of *B. anthracis* capsule expression.

160 Unusually, envD resides on the genome of a strain of Pusillimonas nortemannii but the enzyme is 161 only produced when the bacteria are co-cultured with a strain of *Pseudomonas fluorescens* (12, 14). 162 rEnvD showed strong sequence homology to bacterial dienelactone hydrolases and its enzymatic 163 activity is restricted to the hydrolysis of γ -linkages in D- and L-glutamic acid-containing polymers (k_{cat} $[h^{-1}]$ 72.6; $k_m [\mu M]$ 0.65; $k_{cat}/k_m [M^{-1}s^{-1}x \ 10^4]$ 3.08 at 37°C). The enzyme retained enzymatic activity 164 after accelerated storage at 37°C for 30 days and completely removed the capsule from B. anthracis 165 166 Pasteur strain within 5 min at 37°C (12). Exposure of Bacillus licheniformis ATCC 9945a (induced to 167 elaborate a PDGA polymer) to rEnvD resulted in rapid stripping of the capsule (12) but the viability of 168 this surrogate strain was not significantly altered (2.5×10^8 to 2.9×10^8 CFU/ml over 15 min; *n*=6, 169 Student's *t* >0.05).

There is limited capacity for repeated parenteral injections in small animals. To guide the design of dosing regimens for the administration of rEnvD to infected BALB/c mice, we determined the retention of depolymerase activity in mouse serum and the serum half-life (t_{1/2}) following intravenous (i.v.) administration. The reduction in rEnvD activity following incubation at 37°C in murine serum as determined by FRET assay (12) followed first-order kinetics with t_{1/2} of 177 min (Fig. 1A); approximately 20% of activity remained after 8 h incubation. Neither heat inactivation of serum

176 nor the presence of protease inhibitors had any impact on the rate of reduction of activity. 177 Elimination of rEnvD from the blood circulation of BALB/c mice was biphasic, with an initial rapid 178 decrease in serum concentration (0.5 h to 1 h) followed by a slower elimination phase (2 h to 24 h) 179 characteristic of first order kinetics (Fig. 1B). This elimination profile is typical of agents administered 180 by the intravenous route (15); a rapid decrease in serum concentration due to distribution from the 181 central circulation into the peripheral body tissues (alpha phase) followed by a gradual decrease in 182 plasma concentration attributable to metabolism and excretion of the drug (beta phase). AUC was 183 determined as 118 nM.h/l. Based on this data, we established a dosing regimen in which mice 184 received rEnvD (0.5-10 mg/kg body weight) by i.v. injection 12 h, 24 h, 48 h, 72 h, 96 h and 120 h 185 after spore challenge.

186 rEnvD administration prevents inhalation anthrax in aerosol-challenged mice. Typically, all animals 187 in sham-treated (PBS) control groups met humane endpoints within 72 h (median time to death 48 188 h) whereas all mice treated with 10 mg/kg of rEnvD survived the treatment period (P<0.0001; log 189 rank) (Fig. 2A). Nine days after termination of treatment, 70% of rEnvD-treated mice had survived 190 (P<0.0001, compared to control animals). The protective effect of rEnvD was reflected in the 191 comparative health status of the mice: abnormal clinical signs were absent from rEnvD-treated 192 animals during the five-day period of enzyme administration (Fig. 2B). At six and fourteen days post-193 challenge and in contrast to controls, bacteria were not cultured from the blood or spleen of 194 surviving rEnvD-treated mice from the tissue group; sham-treated mice were found to carry a high B. 195 anthracis bioburden in the blood (mean 2.4×10^4 CFU/ml) and spleen (mean 5.84×10^4 CFU/mg) at 196 time of *post mortem* examination (based on severity threshold score). High numbers of viable 197 bacteria were also present in the lung of sham-treated animals at the same time point (mean $1.37 \times$ 198 10⁵ CFU/mg). In comparison to controls, a significant (*P*=0.006311) reduction in the lung bioburden 199 was noted in EnvD-treated animals six days after spore challenge (mean 1.55×10^2 CFU/mg) 200 compared to controls and a lower number (mean 2.07×10^1 CFU/mg) were present in the lung of 201 surviving animals 14 days after challenge (Fig. 3).

202 Microscopic changes referable to infection with *B.anthracis* were observed in the lung and 203 spleen of all control animals. In the lung, there was prominent pulmonary congestion and patchy 204 haemorrhage, expanding septal cavities and numerous bacilli located in alveolar spaces, walls and 205 within vessel lumena (bacteremia) (Fig. 4A). In the spleen, numerous bacilli within the red pulp 206 sinusoids and vascular lumena were present in these control animals (data not shown). Further, 207 splenic white pulp contained prominent degeneration and loss of lymphocytes, characterized by 208 nuclear fragmentation and cellular paucity. In contrast, animals receiving rEnvD and surviving until 209 study endpoints were found to be clear of gross pathological changes and bacilli were not visible 210 within lung (Fig. 4B) or spleen tissue.

Experiments with 5 mg/kg rEnvD dosed over three days also demonstrated a high degree of protection from anthrax infection (100% survival at 3 days; 60% survival at 14 days) but 0.5 mg/kg rEnvD did not prevent the emergence of clinical symptoms and death; rEnvD administered for five days provided better protection than orally dosed ciprofloxacin administered by the oral route throughout the fourteen day period (Fig. 2C & D).

216

217 DISCUSSION

218 This study provides clear evidence that prompt serial i.v. administration of small quantities 219 of EnvD prevents the onset and progression of inhalation anthrax in a robust murine model of 220 invasive disease. Even though the strain employed in this study is highly toxigenic, removal of the 221 capsule during the early stages of infection appears sufficient to confound the pathogenic potential 222 of the invading bacteria and further supports the key role of the protective PDGA capsule in anthrax 223 pathogenesis (4, 11), highlighting the requisite nature of the capsule for in vivo dissemination of 224 vegetative bacilli. The study also adds to growing evidence that prophylaxis and treatment of severe 225 systemic infections can be realised by agents that do not kill the target bacterial population per se 226 but modify the phenotype of the pathogen in a way that is beneficial to the host (16). Further, this

approach has the potential to deliver exquisitely selective therapeutics that are unaffected by thepresence of antibiotic resistance mechanisms.

229 Treatment of bacterial infections with capsule depolymerases was first explored over 80 230 years ago by Dubos, Avery and colleagues at the Rockefeller Institute for Medical Research. They 231 used an enzyme preparation from cultures of a peat soil bacterium to selectively remove the 232 polysaccharide capsule from the surface of type III pneumococci (17), the pathogen's principle 233 means of defense against immune attack. Intraperitoneal administration of enzyme extracts to mice 234 prior to challenge with type III pneumococci gave rise to type III-specific protection (18), i.v. 235 administration to rabbits with type III dermal infections resulted in early termination of the normally 236 fatal infection (19) and the enzyme prevented dissemination, sterilized the blood and promoted 237 early recovery in non-human primates infected by the intratracheal and intrabronchial routes (20). 238 In addition to our previous work on systemic neonatal E. coli infections (9, 10), capsule 239 depolymerases have been shown to resolve potentially lethal experimental Klebsiella pneumoniae 240 K1 infections in mice (21).

241 Recently, other attempts have been made to exploit PDGA depolymerases as anti-anthrax therapeutics. CapD is a γ -glutamyltranspeptidase elaborated by *B. anthracis* and catalyzes the 242 243 attachment of PDGA to peptidoglycan, but also functions as a depolymerase, effecting the release of 244 diffusible PDGA fragments from the surface of producer strains (22). CapD mediates removal of the 245 capsule and induces macrophage uptake and neutrophil killing in vitro (23). Intraperitoneal co-246 injection of CapD and vegetative B. anthracis Ames bacteria afforded some protection against 247 infection in mice but no significant protection could be demonstrated when the enzyme was 248 administered after challenge with Ames spores (24), almost certainly due to the labile nature of 249 CapD (12, 20). rEnvD is a far more robust enzyme (12) and a better candidate for therapeutic 250 development.

Current evidence suggests that although the toxin complex undoubtedly plays a vital role in
 anthrax pathogenesis, probably by suppression of the immune response in early stages of the

253 disease, death occurs from overwhelming bacteremia and sepsis due to uncontrolled bacterial 254 proliferation and release of pro-inflammatory mediators (25). Thus, a therapeutic window may be 255 available if treatment is initiated before extensive bacterial division occurs in the blood. Our results 256 support this hypothesis: depolymerase administration initiated 12 h after aerosol challenge provided 257 significant protection against systemic anthrax and prevented bacteremia and dissemination of 258 bacilli to the spleen. This concurs with a previous report that the capsule is essential for 259 hematogenous bacillary spread, as capsule negative mutants did not migrate to the spleen in 260 experimental infections (11). In the current study, deaths generally occurred following cessation of 261 treatment. Viable bacteria were present in the lung of rEnvD-treated mice after the treatment 262 period and animals that subsequently succumbed to infection almost certainly died due to delayed 263 germination of latent spores and after enzyme had been cleared from the blood circulation. B. 264 anthracis spores are known to persist in the lung for extended periods: for example, latent spores 265 have been isolated from the lung tissue of non-human primates months after initial exposure (26). 266 The size of the mouse restricts the number of i.v. injections that can be given over a relatively short 267 period of time and this issue will be addressed using larger species such as the rabbit. In addition, 268 the mouse is particularly susceptible to death from systemic anthrax due to uncontrolled in vivo 269 bacterial growth and a high quantitative level of bacteremia (27), factors which do not favour an 270 anti-capsule therapeutic strategy. The relative susceptibility of humans to toxemia and infection in 271 anthrax is poorly documented but the rabbit is used as an equivalent to human infection (27) and 272 examination of rEnvD in this species will be an important next step.

273

274 FUNDING INFORMATION

This study was funded by project grant GA2014-001R from the British Society for Antimicrobial
Chemotherapy, Centre for Defence Enterprise contract DSTLX1000088481 from the Defence Science

and Technology Laboratory (Dstl) and project grant HF5E PoC-13-020 from UCL Business.

278

279	ACKNOWLEDGMENTS
280	This work was supported by the National Institute for Health Research University College London
281	Hospitals Biomedical Research Centre.
282	
283	
284	
285	
286	
287	
288	
289	
290	
291	
292	
293	
294	
295	
296	
297	
298	
299	
300	
301	
302	
303	
304	

305 **REFERENCES**

- 3061.Leitenberg M, Zilinskas RA. 2012. p188. In The Soviet Biological Weapons Program: A
- 307 History. Harvard University Press, Cambridge, MA.
- 2. Inglesby TV, O'Toole T, Henderson DA, Bartlett JG, Ascher MS, Eitzen E, Friedlander AM,
- 309 Gerberding J, Hauer J, Hughes J, McDade J, Osterholm MT, Parker G, Perl TM, Russell PK,
- 310 **Tonat K.** 2002. Anthrax as a biological weapon, 2002: updated recommendations for
- 311 management. J Am Med Assoc **287:**2236-2252.
- 312 3. Meselson M, Guillemin J, Hugh-Jones M, Langmuir A, Popova I, Shelokov A, Yampolskaya
- 313 **O.** 1994. The Sverdlovsk anthrax outbreak of 1979. Science **266**:1202-1208.
- 4. **Mock M, Fouet A.** 2001. Anthrax. Ann Rev Microbiol **55**:647-671.
- 5. Lincoln R, Hodges DR, Klein F, Mahlandt BG, Jones WI Jr, Haines BW, Rhian MA, Walker JS.
- 316 1965. Role of the lymphatics in the pathogenesis of anthrax. J Infect Dis **115**:481-494.
- 317 6. Adalja AA, Toner E, Inglesby TV. 2015. Clinical management of potential bioterrorism-
- 318 related conditions. N Engl J Med **372:**954-962.
- 319 7. Turnbull PCB, Sirianni NM, LeBron Cl, Samaan MN, Sutton FN, Reyes AE, Peruski LF. 2004.
- 320 MICs of selected antibiotics for *Bacillus anthracis*, *Bacillus cereus*, *Bacillus thuringiensis*, and
- 321 *Bacillus mycoides* from a range of clinical and environmental sources as determined by the
- 322 Etest. J Clin Microbiol **42:**3626-3634.
- 323 8. Ågren J, Finn M, Bengtsson B, Segerman B. 2014. Microevolution during an anthrax

324 outbreak leading to clonal heterogeneity and penicillin resistance. PLoS One **9**:e89112.

- 9. **Mushtaq N, Redpath MB, Luzio JP, Taylor PW.** 2004. Prevention and cure of systemic
- 326 *Escherichia coli* K1 infection by modification of the bacterial phenotype. Antimicrob Agents
 327 Chemother **48**:1503-1508.
- Mushtaq N, Redpath MB, Luzio JP, Taylor PW. 2005. Treatment of experimental *Escherichia coli* infection with recombinant bacteriophage-derived capsule depolymerase. J Antimicrob
 Chemother 56:160-165.

331	11.	Drysdale M, Heninger S, Hutt J, Chen Y, Lyons CR, Koehler TM. 2005. Capsule synthesis by
332		Bacillus anthracis is required for dissemination in murine inhalation anthrax. EMBO J
333		24: 221-227.
334	12.	Negus D, Taylor PW. 2014. A poly-y-D-glutamic acid depolymerase that degrades the
335		protective capsule of <i>Bacillus anthracis</i> . Molec Microbiol 91: 1136-1147.
336	13.	Hatch GJ, Bate SR, Crook A, Jones N, Funnell SG, Vipond J. 2014. Efficacy testing of orally
337		administered antibiotics against an inhalational Bacillus anthracis infection in BALB/c mice. J
338		Infect Dis Ther 2: 1000175.
339	14.	Stabler RA, Negus D, Pain A, Taylor PW. 2013. Draft genome sequences of Pseudomonas
340		fluorescens BS2 and Pusillimonas noertimanii BS8, soil bacteria that cooperate to degrade
341		the poly-γ-D-glutamic acid anthrax capsule. Genome Announc 1 :e00057-12.
342	15.	Shargel L, Yu ABC. 1993. Applied biopharmaceutics and pharmacokinetics, 3rd ed. Appleton
343		and Lange, Norwalk, CT.
344	16.	Taylor PW, Bernal P, Zelmer A. 2009. Modification of the bacterial phenotype as an
345		approach to counter the emergence of multidrug-resistant pathogens, p 43-78. In Bonilla AR,
346		Muniz KP (ed), Antibiotic Resistance: Causes and Risk Factors, Mechanisms and Alternatives.
347		Nova Science Publishers, Hauppauge, NY.
348	17.	Dubos R, Avery OT. 1931. Decomposition of the capsular polysaccharide of pneumococci
349		type III by a bacterial enzyme. J Exp Med 54: 51-71.
350	18.	Avery OT, Dubos R. 1931. The protective action of a specific enzyme against type III
351		pneumococcus infection in mice. J Exp Med 54: 73-89.
352	19.	Goodner K, Dubos R, Avery OT. 1932. The action of a specific enzyme upon the dermal
353		infection of rabbits with type III pneumococcus. J Exp Med 55: 393-404.
354	20.	Francis T, Terrell EE, Dubos R, Avery OT. 1934. Experimental type III pneumococcus
355		pneumonia in monkeys: II Treatment with an enzyme which decomposes the specific
356		capsular polysaccharide of pneumococcus type III. J Exp Med 59: 641-667.

357	21.	Lin TL, Hsieh PF, Huang YT, Lee WC, Tsai YT, Su PA, Pan YJ, Hsu CR, Wu MC, Wang JT. 2014.
358		Isolation of a bacteriophage and its depolymerase specific for K1 capsule of Klebsiella
359		pneumoniae: implication in typing and treatment. J Infect Dis 210: 1734-1744.
360	22.	Candela T, Fouet A. 2005. Bacillus anthracis CapD, belonging to the γ -
361		glutamyltranspeptidase family, is required for the covalent anchoring of capsule to
362		peptidoglycan. Molec Microbiol 57:717-726.
363	23.	Scorpio A, Chabot DJ, Day WA, O'Brien DK, Vietri NJ, Itoh Y, Mohamadzadeh M,
364		Friedlander AM. 2007. Poly-γ-glutamate capsule-degrading enzyme treatment enhances
365		phagocytosis and killing of encapsulated Bacillus anthracis. Antimicrob Agents Chemother
366		51: 215-222.
367	24.	Scorpio A, Tobery SA, Ribot WJ, Friedlander AM. 2008. Treatment of experimental anthrax
368		with recombinant capsule depolymerase. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 52:1014-1020.
369	25.	Coggeshall KM, Lupu F, Ballard J, Metcalf JP, James JA, Farris D, Kurosawa S. 2014. The
370		sepsis model: an emerging hypothesis for the lethality of inhalation anthrax. J Cell Mol Med
371		17: 914-920.
372	26.	Henderson DW, Peacock S, Belton FC. 1956. Observations on the prophylaxis of
373		experimental pulmonary anthrax in the monkey. J Hyg (Lond) 54:28-36.
374	27.	Goossens PL. 2009. Protective antigen as a correlative marker for anthrax in animal models.
375		Molec Aspects Med 30: 467-480.
376		
377		
378		
379		

380 FIG. 1 In vitro stability in serum and elimination of rEnvD from the circulation of BALB/c mice. A: 381 Stability of rEnvD in BALB/c mouse serum; 100 nM of enzyme was incubated at 37°C in serum and 382 activity determined by FRET assay (12). Enzyme activity in relative fluorescent units was converted to 383 concentration of active enzyme by comparison to a standard curve. Error bars represent the range 384 of three separate determinations; t_{1/2} in serum of rEnvD was 2.95 h (177 min). B: rEnvD in serum 385 obtained from mice intravenously dosed with 10 mg/kg rEnvD. Serum was obtained by terminal 386 bleed and enzyme activity determined by FRET assay; Serum concentration (Cp) of rEnvD was 387 obtained by comparison to a standard curve. Error bars represent the range of three separate 388 determinations performed in duplicate; $t_{1/2}$ was calculated by determination of the elimination rate 389 constant (K_e) and transformation of data to the natural log (In) to produce a line of best fit for each 390 phase with the slope equal to K_e : $t_{1/2} = ln(2)/K_e$. The $t_{1/2}$ for the initial alpha phase between 0.5 h and 391 1 h was 0.22 h (13 min) and for the beta phase between 2 h and 24h was 2.71 h (163 min).

FIG. 2 Impact of intravenous administration of rEnvD on inhalation anthrax in mice. Combined Kaplan-Meier survival plots (A, C) and cumulative mean clinical observation scores (B, D) for rEnvDdosed, infected BALB/c mice. Mice were infected with *B. anthracis* Ames on day 0 by aerosol followed by tail vein administration of either 10 mg/kg rEnvD or PBS vehicle (A, B) or 0.5 mg/kg rEnvD (C, D) at the times indicated by arrows. Ciprofloxacin (118 mg/kg) was also administered orally for 14 days (C, D). Clinical observations were scored as described (13) and were based on severity of symptoms (ruffled fur, closed eyes, arched back, immobility, weight loss).

FIG. 3 *B. anthracis* (CFU/mg tissue) in the spleen and lung of mice following rEnvD or PBS administration by the intravenous route; *n*=7-10, mean ±1 SD. PBS controls were culled when the clinical score reached threshold levels, as the animals were then close to death (13). Tissues were weighed and homogenized in sterile water, the homogenates serially diluted in sterile water, plated onto trypticase soy agar and the plates incubated at 37°C for 16-24 h.

FIG. 4 Pathology of lung tissue six days after inhalation of spores. Samples were fixed in 10% neutralbuffered formalin, processed to paraffin wax, sectioned to 3-5 μm, stained with HE and examined by
light microscopy. Slides were randomized by a third party before microscopic examination to avoid
prior knowledge of group or treatment. A: From animals receiving only PBS vehicle; region shows
iatrogenic thickening of the alveolar walls due to the collapsed nature of the tissue. Arrows indicate
bacilli located in alveolar spaces; Ve, vessel lumena. B: From animals receiving 10 mg/kg rEnvD over
5 days; image from region of inflated lung.