



# Outer membrane vesicles are the powerful cell-to-cell communication vehicles that allow bacteria to monitor extracellular milieu

Meysam Sarshar<sup>1</sup>, Daniela Scribano<sup>2</sup>, Payam Behzadi<sup>3</sup>, Andrea Masotti<sup>1</sup>, Cecilia Ambrosi<sup>4</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Research Laboratories, Bambino Gesù Children's Hospital-IRCCS, Rome, Italy; <sup>2</sup>Department of Public Health and Infectious Diseases, Sapienza University of Rome, Rome, Italy; <sup>3</sup>Department of Microbiology, Shahr-e-Qods Branch, Islamic Azad University, Tehran, Iran; <sup>4</sup>Department of Human Sciences and Promotion of the Quality of Life, San Raffaele Open University, IRCCS, Rome, Italy

Correspondence to: Meysam Sarshar. Research Laboratories, Bambino Gesù Children's Hospital-IRCCS, Viale San Paolo, n. 15, 00146 Rome, Italy. Email: meysam.sarshar@uniroma1.it.

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Existence of cell-to-cell communication strategies among bacteria (i.e., defined as inter-species, intra-species, and inter-kingdom crosstalk) reveals how genius they are (1,2). The common and well-studied language for bacterial communication is quorum sensing (QS), an informative signaling pathway within a bacterial population (3-5). Specifically, bacteria secrete signaling modules under QS regulation, known as autoinducers (AIs), to share quorum information and regulate group behaviours. QS modulates the expression of bacterial pathogenicity factors involved in the infection process, as a similar regulation could occur in the physiology of host cells. Detailed mechanisms are extensively reviewed (6,7).

Bacterial conversation enables them to feel the surrounding stimuli and coordinate their gene expression accordingly. This cooperation in sensing and responding to environmental changes could result in arrays of behaviour, ranging from symbiosis to virulence, biofilm formation, stress adaptation and natural product production, leading bacteria to live like multicellular organisms (8-10). Furthermore, bacteria need to manage competition for ecological niches and resources that favour their survival and genetic persistence. This strategy underlies mechanisms of complex interactions that occur among bacteria as well as bacteria-hosts.

While the potency of QS has gained the interest of researchers for a long time, only recently QS-regulated

pathways have been reported to be involved in membrane vesicles (MVs) or outer membrane vesicles (OMVs) biogenesis in Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria, respectively (11). OMVs have been recognized as an alternative vehicle for cell-to-cell signaling in bacteria. This spherical membranous structure can package cargoes such as virulence factors, biologically active proteins, DNA, RNA, as well as signaling molecules, playing an important role in bacterial adaptation and survival (2,12). Despite tremendous progress in the OMVs field (e.g., involvement in disease-related processes and delivery mechanisms into host cells), there is still some uncertainty in the biogenesis of OMVs and their precise sorting mechanisms within bacterial communities.

So far, there is enough evidence connecting QS and OMVs, indicating that either QS molecules could serve as OMVs cargo or they are able to control the release of OMVs in several nosocomial pathogens (i.e., *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Acinetobacter baumannii* and *Escherichia coli*) (13). The latter mechanism could act either by stimulating OMVs secretion, a phenomenon evidenced in *P. aeruginosa*, *Vibrio harveyi*, *Stenotrophomonas maltophilia*, as well as in plant pathogens such as *Xanthomonas oryzae* and *Xanthomonas campestris* or vice versa by inhibiting its release as reported in *Xylella fastidiosa* (14-18).

For instance, through a QS-regulated process, OMVs released by the environmental pathogen *Chromobacterium*

*violaceum* (*C. violaceum*) deliver the antimicrobial compound violacein to compete with other bacteria, exerting its toxicity *in vivo* even over far distances (19). As a QS metabolite produced by various bacterial species, the OMV cargo violacein contributes to a broad range of antimicrobial activities (20). Batista *et al.* showed that violacein of *C. violaceum* is not only toxic against Gram-positive bacteria, but also it induces OMV biogenesis for its own delivery and contributes to biofilm formation (19). Another example of bacterial usage of OMVs related to cope with nutritional challenges (i.e., iron-limited conditions) was reported by Lin *et al.* (21). They found that the type VI secretion system H3-dependent effector for iron uptake TseF is packed into OMVs. This finding suggested that TseF is incorporated into OMVs and interacts with the iron-binding *P. aeruginosa* quinolone signal (PQS); this interaction facilitates the delivery of the metal ion to its receptors on cell surface receptors (FptA or OprF) (21). Of note, for most bacterial pathogens, sensing, sequestering and uptaking efficiently environmental iron is critical to enable colonization and pathogenicity, and for this reason, this process involves multi-component complexes (22).

In a recent issue of *Science of The Total Environment*, Zhao *et al.* reported the isolation and purification of PQS-containing OMVs (PQS-OMVs) produced by *P. aeruginosa* and evaluated the effects of this signaling molecules on the formation and structure of *P. aeruginosa* biofilm (23). Their study indicated that *P. aeruginosa* biofilm capacity is regulated by OMV-mediated PQS that promotes the increase of bacterial biomass, leading to biofilm formation. Subsequently, the authors quantified in detail the extracellular polysaccharides (PS) and proteins, the two main matrix components of biofilms. Their analyses revealed that proteins and PS have a synergistic effect, although the expression of proteins regulated by OMV-mediated PQS played the dominant role with respect to PS in the formation of *P. aeruginosa* biofilms. Next, in a dual-species biofilm formed by *P. aeruginosa* and *S. aureus*, the research proved that OMV-mediated PQS exerted inhibitory effects on *S. aureus* growth, leading to a decrease in extracellular polymeric substances produced by *S. aureus* (23). These two major opportunistic pathogens, commonly co-isolated from cystic fibrosis patients, are often found growing together in biofilms in lungs and wounds (24). It should be noted that bacteria in diverse conditions (i.e., lab growth, hospital setting and during infection) behave differently as evidenced by phenotype changes as well as in exporting QS molecules and

stimulating OMV biogenesis (25-29). For example, the traffic of PQS between the inner and outer membranes defines the yield of OMVs production. Florez *et al.* showed that OMVs production depends on PQS export rates rather than a defect in its production; therefore, the accumulation of PQS in the inner membrane resulted in a poor OMVs production due to early saturation of the export pathway (30).

Owing to the ability of OMVs to distribute widely PQS in an aqueous environment, it is reasonable to think that they can enable long distance transport of this essential element, thus allowing trans-feeding of bacteria at distant sites of the host during infection. In addition, the effective biofilm dispersion is dependent on the production of PQS-induced OMVs, which likely act as delivery vehicles for matrix-degrading enzymes. Accordingly, OMVs represent promising bacterial-derived molecules that could operate as an alternative for antibiotics for the treatment or inhibition of biofilm-forming species.

The studies connecting QS to OMVs in *P. aeruginosa* opened up new perspectives on other clinically relevant nosocomial pathogens such as multidrug-resistant (MDR) *Acinetobacter* spp (28,29). Previous studies have shown that *Acinetobacter* spp. can successfully release OMVs carrying plasmids containing resistance genes (i.e., *bla*<sub>OXA-24</sub>) to recipient cells through horizontal gene transfer (31,32). To this point, Chatterjee *et al.* reported that *A. baumannii* strain ST 1462 releases OMVs capable to transfer an intact plasmid harbouring a carbapenem resistance gene (*bla*<sub>NDM-1</sub>) during *in vitro* growth (33). Notably, these OMVs carrying *bla*<sub>NDM-1</sub> were found in an active form allowing high frequency of transformation and transmittable abilities not only intra-species (*A. baumannii*) but also inter-species (*E. coli*) (33). Carbapenem-resistant *A. baumannii*, i.e., extensively drug-resistant or pandrug-resistant isolates, are responsible for substantial life-threatening hospital-acquired infections in patients with severe underlying diseases, mainly in intensive care units, often related to invasive procedures or indwelling devices (10,34,35). A recent study reported by Huang *et al.* showed an increase in the production of OMVs under antibiotic stress (36). Under stimulation by different antibiotics, *A. baumannii* releases OMVs at different levels of efficiency; compared to other tested antibiotics, levofloxacin was the strongest OMVs inducer both in particle number, protein level and particle diameter. Moreover, the stress induced by levofloxacin led to the encapsulation of large amounts of intracellular components into OMVs by activating efflux pumps proteins; AdeB, AdeA and AcrB were identified as the most

expressed proteins. Both *in vitro* and *in vivo* experiments showed that bacteria are able to pack pumped antibiotics into OMVs; this excellent drug-resistance ability becomes a strategy to kill other bacteria (36). Moreover, the orally administration of the antibiotic-loaded OMVs could kill pathogenic bacteria in the intestine as demonstrated by the effective killing of enterotoxigenic *E. coli* in a mouse model of intestinal infection (36).

More recently, Dhurve *et al.* reported that *A. baumannii* DS002 releases OMVs carrying proteins associated with cell wall/membrane biogenesis, inorganic ion transport and metabolism through QS signalling (37). The OMVs cargo content underlies the prominent role of OMVs in cell physiology, signaling activities, transport functions and pathogenesis, as well as in the defence mechanisms against host immunity (37). Interestingly, OMVs were selectively enriched in TonB-dependent transporters (TonRs), outer membrane proteins that capture and transport iron chelated by siderophores into *A. baumannii* DS002 cells. Thus, the OMV-associated TonRs appeared to play a critical role in the survival of *A. baumannii* in certain conditions such as nutrient-limiting polymicrobial environments (37). Despite only some pathogenicity properties in *A. baumannii* have been shown to be under QS control such as surface-associated motility and biofilm formation (38), the potential linkage between OMVs production mediated by QS remains to be investigated. In our opinion, OMVs biogenesis in *A. baumannii* could be induced through QS signaling and their role warrants extensive examinations.

## Conclusion and future perspective

Overall, Zhao *et al.* provided new insights into the role of OMV-mediated PQS on biofilm formation, structure and composition of EPS in *P. aeruginosa* as well as inter-specific inhibitory effects of PQS in the context of microbial community. We learned that bacterial pathogens during their growth and metabolism excrete OMVs with biologically active proteins as well as transmissible DNA sequences associated with diverse functions. The multiple advantages of OMVs as drug delivery carriers, biofilm inhibitor or anti-bacteria adhesion will broaden effective/alternative therapeutic approaches. Due to the increased rates of antibiotic resistance as well as biofilm-associated infections, OMVs delivery could potentially direct us to explore innovative tools (i.e., development of artificial OMVs or the engineering of the natural ones) for clinical

application in order to better control intestinal, pulmonary or even systemic infections caused by MDR pathogens. The intracellular trafficking of OMVs can be studied in detail using advanced *in vitro* models such as human tissue-derived organoids.

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