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**ORIGINAL ARTICLE:**

Effective sequestration of *Clostridium difficile* protein toxins by calcium aluminosilicate

**RUNNING TITLE:** *Clostridium difficile* toxin sequestration

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32 **ABSTRACT:**

33 *Clostridium difficile* is a leading cause of antibiotic-associated diarrhea and the  
34 etiologic agent responsible for *C. difficile* infection. TcdA and TcdB are nearly  
35 indispensable virulence factors for *Clostridium difficile* pathogenesis. Given the toxin-  
36 centric mechanism by which *C. difficile* pathogenesis occurs, the selective sequestration  
37 and neutralization of TcdA and TcdB by non-antibiotic agents represents a novel mode of  
38 action to prevent or treat *C. difficile*-associated disease. In this preclinical study, we used  
39 quantitative enzyme immunoassays to determine the extent by which a novel drug,  
40 calcium aluminosilicate uniform particle size Novasil (CAS UPSN M-1), is capable of  
41 sequestering TcdA and TcdB *in vitro*. The following major findings were derived from  
42 the present study: Firstly, CAS UPSN M-1 efficiently sequestered both TcdA and TcdB  
43 to undetectable levels. Secondly, we show that CAS UPSN M-1's affinity for TcdA is  
44 greater than its affinity for TcdB. Lastly, we show that CAS UPSN M-1 exhibited limited  
45 binding affinity for non-target therapeutic proteins. Together, these results suggest that  
46 ingestion of calcium aluminosilicate might protect gastrointestinal tissues from antibiotic-  
47 or chemotherapy-induced *C. difficile* infection by neutralizing the cytotoxic and pro-  
48 inflammatory effects of luminal TcdA and TcdB.

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51 **KEYWORDS:** *Clostridium difficile*, TcdA, TcdB, calcium aluminosilicate,  
52 gastrointestinal inflammation, quantitative enzyme immunoassay

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**INTRODUCTION**

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*Clostridium difficile* is a leading cause of antibiotic-associated diarrhea (AAD)

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and the etiologic agent responsible for *C. difficile*-associated infection (CDI). CDI

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typically starts as a mild diarrhea but rapidly degenerates into a variety of potentially life-

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threatening conditions, including sepsis syndrome and pseudomembranous colitis (1). In

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the United States, approximately 330,000 cases of CDI are estimated each year (2);

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however the incidence of *C. difficile* infection continues to increase (2-3). Increasing CDI

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rates highlight that current infection control procedures and treatment options are

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insufficient.

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In the healthcare setting, endospore-forming *C. difficile* are transmitted to patients

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via the fecal-oral route (4). Following exposure, the host's gastrointestinal microbiota

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typically either quells a nascent *C. difficile* infection or suppresses it to sub-clinical levels

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(5). As a result of the latter, approximately 20% of hospitalized adults become

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asymptomatic *C. difficile* carriers, while carriage rates approach 50% for patients in long-

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term care (6-9). The likelihood of developing CDI increases in patients with dysbiotic

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gastrointestinal microbiota, since *C. difficile* can thrive in the dysbiotic niche (5, 10). This

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dysbiosis is often the result of non-specific chemotherapies that are used to treat

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conditions unrelated to *C. difficile* infection (e.g., antibacterial agents or antineoplastic

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drugs).

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The antibiotics metronidazole and vancomycin are currently used to treat CDI

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(11). Unfortunately, given the conflicting roles of antibiotics in the establishment and

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resolution of CDI, *C. difficile* AAD is recurrent in up to 1 in 5 patients (12). These

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already high reoccurrence rates are expected to increase if *C. difficile* strains with

77 intermediate- and complete-resistance to metronidazole and vancomycin emerge (13).  
78 Together, these alarming trends illustrate an urgent need to develop novel and efficacious  
79 therapeutics to treat CDI, including non-traditional therapeutic agents.

80 *C. difficile* is an extracellular pathogen and it typically does not invade host  
81 tissues. While a number of *C. difficile*-encoded virulence factors are responsible for *C.*  
82 *difficile* carriage and pathogenesis, toxin A (TcdA) and toxin B (TcdB) are among the  
83 best-studied (14). Once secreted into the colon, these cytotoxic protein-based enzymes  
84 are translocated across the membrane bilayer and into the cytosol by receptor-mediated  
85 endocytosis (15). Once inside the cell, these glycosyltransferases trigger altered cellular  
86 transcription, which results in significant cellular apoptosis and tissue remodeling (16-  
87 18). TcdA and TcdB are also strongly pro-inflammatory, which exacerbates their effects  
88 on structural and functional changes in tissue integrity (19-20). Together, these  
89 inflammation-related activities contribute to the progressive ablation of gastrointestinal  
90 function that is characteristic of CDI. In animal models, the administration of purified *C.*  
91 *difficile* TcdA induces the hallmark symptoms of an acute, pseudomembranous colitis-  
92 like condition: edema, gastrointestinal inflammation, cellular necrosis, and gastroenteritis  
93 in the absence of the bacterium (19, 21-23). The administration of TcdB elicits similar  
94 effects, albeit to a lesser degree (22, 24). As a result, these protein-based enzymes have  
95 been ascribed as nearly indispensable determinants for *C. difficile* pathogenesis.

96 Given the toxin-centric mechanism by which *C. difficile* pathogenesis occurs, the  
97 selective sequestration and neutralization of TcdA and TcdB by non-antibiotic agents  
98 represents a novel mode of action to prevent or treat *C. difficile*-associated diseases (25-  
99 26). To date, four *C. difficile* toxin-binding agents have been examined in pre-clinical

100 studies: cholestyramine, colestipol, synsorb 90, and tolevamer (25). Of these toxin-  
101 binding agents, only three have been tested in clinical studies. Unfortunately, none of  
102 these agents have proven to be as efficacious as traditional antibiotic therapies.  
103 Nevertheless, it is important to continue to develop new candidate therapies. In this  
104 manuscript, we describe the characterization of CAS UPSN M-1, a novel calcium  
105 aluminosilicate agent that has been developed to selectively bind to and neutralize large  
106 clostridial protein toxins. Calcium aluminosilicate is recognized by the Food and Drug  
107 Administration (FDA) as a Generally Regarded as Safe (GRAS) additive, which can be  
108 supplemented to foods at levels up to 2% (w/w) (27).

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## MATERIALS AND METHODS

112 **Protein-based cytotoxic enzymes and reagents.** Lyophilized *C. difficile* TcdA  
113 and *C. difficile* TcdB were stored according to the manufacturer's specification  
114 (Calbiochem, Gibbstown, NJ). TcdA and TcdB were resuspended in 10 mM 2,2-  
115 bis(hydroxymethyl)-2,2',2-nitrioltriethanol (Bis-Tris) buffer (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis,  
116 MO) and maintained on ice prior to being assayed. All other chemicals were molecular  
117 biology grade and stored as recommended by the manufacturer. A SevenMulti  
118 conductivity meter (Mettler Toledo, Columbus, OH) was used for pH measurements.

119 **Putative toxin binding agent.** Calcium aluminosilicate uniform particle size  
120 Novasil M-1 (CAS UPSN M-1), the novel sequestering agent used in this study, was  
121 provided by Salient Pharmaceuticals Incorporated (Houston, TX).

122 **Quantitative enzyme immunoassay (qEIA) for toxin quantification.** The  
123 concentration of *C. difficile* TcdA or TcdB was measured using the Premier Toxins A&B

124 enzyme immunoassay (EIA) according to the manufacture's instructions (Meridian  
125 Bioscience Inc., Cincinnati, OH) except that a series of assay positive control samples  
126 (*i.e.*, TcdA and TcdB reference standards at a range of known concentrations) was  
127 incorporated into each repeated measurement; the concentration of these reference  
128 standards typically ranged from 5 to 20 ng/ml. In brief, the resultant qEIA uses *C.*  
129 *difficile* TcdA- and TcdB-specific polyclonal antibodies to capture TcdA and TcdB and to  
130 non-covalently anchor them to the solid-phase EIA support matrix. Matrix-bound toxins  
131 were subsequently complexed with horseradish peroxidase (HRP)-conjugated mouse  
132 anti-toxin A (monoclonal) or goat anti-toxin B (polyclonal) antibodies, respectively.  
133 After the removal of unbound HRP-antibody conjugates, degradation of urea hydrogen  
134 peroxide by toxin-bound horseradish peroxidase was assayed in the presence of the  
135 reducing co-substrate 3,3',5,5'-tetramethyl-[1,1'-biphenyl]-4,4'-diamine (TMB).  
136 Phosphoric acid (1 M) was used to arrest the reaction. The terminal chromophore  
137 benzidine-4,4'-diimine (BZDI), an oxidized derivative of TMB, was measured in  
138 arbitrary units (AU) at an optical density of 450 nm (OD<sub>450 nm</sub>) using an Infinite M200  
139 microplate reader (Tecan US Inc., Durham, NC). The Infinite M200 iControl software  
140 was used to generate custom EIA microplate templates to speed data acquisition and to  
141 ensure accurate sample assignment.

142 **Toxin sequestration assays.** This qEIA was used to assess the sequestration (an  
143 aggregate of adsorption and absorption) of large clostridial protein toxins by calcium  
144 aluminosilicate. Unless otherwise indicated, calcium aluminosilicate was suspended up to  
145 a final concentration of 0.5 mg/ml in 10 mM Bis-Tris (pH 6.5) and pre-equilibrated to  
146 37°C in a Thermomixer R shaking incubator (Eppendorf, Hauppauge, NY) equipped with

147 a 1.5-ml block with constant agitation at 1,200 revolutions per minute (rpm). Individual  
148 sequestration reactions were started by the addition of the toxin to a final concentration of  
149 10 ng/ml (TcdA) or 15 ng/ml (TcdB), unless otherwise indicated. Sequestration reactions  
150 were then incubated for 10 min at 37°C with constant agitation at 1,200 rpm in a  
151 Thermomixer R (Eppendorf). The sequestration reaction was stopped when the residual  
152 calcium aluminosilicate and calcium aluminosilicate-bound toxin complexes were  
153 pelleted by centrifugation (2 min at  $21,130 \times g$ ) in a 5424 bench top centrifuge  
154 (Eppendorf). Following centrifugation, the clarified supernatant was carefully removed  
155 by aspiration, transferred to a 1.5 ml tube, and chilled on ice prior to toxin quantification  
156 using the qEIA described above.

157 **Heterologous, non-therapeutic protein-binding and SDS-PAGE.** Calcium  
158 aluminosilicate (5 mg/ml) was co-incubated with the SeeBlue Plus2 protein ladder (750  
159  $\mu\text{g/ml}$ ; Invitrogen, San Diego, CA), which contains a number of non-therapeutic target  
160 proteins. Samples were incubated at 37°C for 20 min with constant agitation (1,200 rpm).  
161 The reaction was stopped when the residual calcium aluminosilicate and calcium  
162 aluminosilicate-bound protein complexes were pelleted by centrifugation (2 min at  
163  $21,130 \times g$ ) in an Eppendorf 5424 bench top centrifuge (Eppendorf). The supernatant  
164 was carefully transferred to a fresh tube and set on ice. The pellet containing the residual  
165 calcium aluminosilicate and calcium aluminosilicate-bound protein complexes was re-  
166 suspended in 1 volume buffer and agitated for 20 min at (1,200 rpm). The unbound  
167 calcium aluminosilicate and calcium aluminosilicate-bound protein complexes were  
168 again pelleted by centrifugation (2 min at  $21,130 \times g$ ). The resultant pellet eluate—  
169 including any proteins eluted from the calcium aluminosilicate—was carefully transferred

170 to a fresh tube. Negative control samples (*i.e.*, SeeBlue Plus2 devoid of calcium  
171 aluminosilicate) were otherwise treated identically to experimental samples.

172 The original supernatant and the pellet eluate were both subjected to  
173 polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (PAGE). Samples (15  $\mu$ l) were loaded into the 1-mm  
174 wells of a NuPAGE Novex Tris-Acetate gel (Invitrogen) using 1 $\times$  lithium dodecyl sulfate  
175 (LDS) sample buffer (Invitrogen). Protein electrophoresis was carried out (150 V for 1 h)  
176 in an Xcell SureLock Mini Cell (Invitrogen) and 1 $\times$  NuPAGE tris-acetate SDS running  
177 buffer (Invitrogen). Proteins were stained using the SimplyBlue Safe Stain (Invitrogen)  
178 according to the manufacturer's instruction. The results were captured using the  
179 FluorChem HD2 documentation system with a 5 MHz cooled digital CCD camera (Alpha  
180 Innotech).

181 **Biostatistics.** Raw qEIA data were captured using the Infinite M200 i-Control  
182 software, exported to Excel (Microsoft Corporation, Redmond, WA), and analyzed using  
183 Prism (GraphPad Software Inc., La Jolla, CA). Unless otherwise indicated, data  
184 represent at least three repeated measures. Data are expressed as the mean ( $\bar{x}$ )  $\pm$  either the  
185 standard error of the mean (SEM) or standard deviation (SD), as noted. Calibration  
186 curves were generated by least-squares regression. ANOVA was used to determine the  
187 statistical significance of the measured differences between treatments. When significant  
188 differences were detected by ANOVA, Bonferroni tests were performed *posthoc* in order  
189 to explore these differences. An associated *p* value of less than 0.05 was considered  
190 statistically significant. The base-10 logarithm ( $\log_{10}$ ) of each data point was calculated  
191 and a calibration curve for the interpolation of unknowns was generated using least-squares  
192 linear regression.



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## RESULTS

195           **Optimization of a quantitative enzyme immunoassay (qEIA) to detect TcdA**  
196 **and TcdB.** Samples containing known concentrations of TcdA or TcdB were used to  
197 generate standard curves. The standard curves from each of six randomly selected vials of  
198 TcdB are plotted in **FIGURE 1**. A one-factor ANOVA found toxin vial-specific effects  
199 were statistically significant ( $p < 0.0051$ ); however, *posthoc* comparisons using the  
200 Bonferroni test indicated that—with the exception of one obvious outlier ( $p < 0.05$ )—  
201 differences between the remaining five curves were statistically nonsignificant ( $p > 0.05$ ).  
202 For this experimental subset ( $n = 5$ ), the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient  
203 ( $r$ ) indicated a strong, co-linear relationship between toxin concentration and optical  
204 density that was statistically significant between inter-experimental EIA replicates ( $r =$   
205  $0.9078$ ,  $p = 0.0047$ ). Similar results were seen for TcdA ( $n = 5$ ), although differences  
206 between individual vials of TcdA were statistically nonsignificant ( $p = 0.8707$ ). As seen  
207 with TcdB, a strong co-linear relationship between toxin concentration and optical  
208 density was observed. This co-linear relationship was statistically significant between  
209 inter-experimental qEIA replicates ( $r = 0.9973$ ,  $p = 0.0027$ ). In separate experiments that  
210 examined the effect of toxin thermostability, differences in qEIA reactivity following  
211 short-term (*e.g.*, 8 h) incubation on ice were found to be statistically nonsignificant ( $p >$   
212  $0.05$ ). As a result, individual toxin vials were used to conduct multiple sequestration  
213 assays within a single workday and were then discarded.

214           **Data distribution and transformation.** The descriptive statistic skewness ( $g_1$ )  
215 and the Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) normality test were used to examine the data  
216 distribution within the TcdA and TcdB datasets. While both datasets skewed right

217 (TcdA:  $g_I = 0.6626$ ; TcdB:  $g_I = 1.331$ ), the K-S test indicated that neither exhibited  
218 significant differences from the Gaussian distribution ( $p > 0.10$ ). Nevertheless, the base-  
219 10 logarithm ( $\log_{10}$ ) of each datapoint was calculated to normalize the data. Linear  
220 regressions of mean TcdA ( $n = 4$ ;  $R^2 = 0.968$ ) and TcdB ( $n = 5$ ;  $R^2 = 0.966$ ) reference  
221 curves are plotted in **FIGURE 2**. Signal response plateaus were observed at very high  
222 toxin concentrations and very low toxin concentrations (data not shown).

223 **Calcium aluminosilicate does not affect the pH of the qEIA.** In order to  
224 determine if calcium aluminosilicate might artificially diminish the sensitivity of the  
225 qEIA by affecting the pH of the buffer system, calcium aluminosilicate was  
226 supplemented to a final working concentration of 0.5 mg/ml in 100 mM Tris (pH 6.5) and  
227 the pH was measured ( $n = 3$ ) once the mixture was equilibrated to 37°C. Incorporation of  
228 calcium aluminosilicate up to 0.5 mg/ml did not affect the pH of the buffer system ( $\bar{x} =$   
229 6.52, SD = 0.01) when compared to a buffer control that was devoid of calcium  
230 aluminosilicate ( $\bar{x} = 6.50$ , SD = 0.001), as expected.

231 **Effective, dose-dependent sequestration of large *C. difficile* cytotoxic enzymes**  
232 **by calcium aluminosilicate.** Calcium aluminosilicate was assessed for its ability to  
233 reduce the concentration of large clostridial protein-based cytotoxic enzymes *in vitro*.  
234 During these dose-response experiments, the concentration of TcdA or TcdB (**FIGURE**  
235 **3**) was fixed at 10 ng/ml, while the calcium aluminosilicate concentration was varied  
236 100-fold (*i.e.*, 0.05 mg/ml, 0.075 mg/ml, 0.1 mg/ml, 0.3 mg/ml, 0.5 mg/ml, 0.75 mg/ml, 1  
237 mg/ml, 2 mg/ml, 3 mg/ml, and 5 mg/ml). Calcium aluminosilicate efficiently sequestered  
238 TcdA and TcdB *in vitro*. Differences in mean endpoint OD<sub>450 nm</sub> between the assay  
239 negative control (*i.e.*, vehicle devoid of TcdA) samples ( $\bar{x} = 0.044$  AU, SD = 0.001 AU)

240 and experimental samples supplemented with calcium aluminosilicate up to 2 mg/ml ( $\bar{x}$  =  
241 0.049 AU, SD = 0.004 AU), 3 mg/ml ( $\bar{x}$  = 0.049 AU, SD = 0.005 AU), and 5 mg/ml ( $\bar{x}$  =  
242 0.048 AU, SD = 0.004 AU) were statistically nonsignificant ( $p > 0.05$ ).

243 The raw qEIA measurements obtained from experimental samples were converted  
244 to residual toxin concentrations using intra-experimental EIA calibration curves.

245 Differences in residual TcdA concentration between the assay positive control (*i.e.*,  
246 TcdA-containing samples devoid of calcium aluminosilicate) samples and experimental  
247 samples containing calcium aluminosilicate supplemented up to 0.05 mg/ml ( $\bar{x}$  = 11.11  
248 ng/ml, SD = 1.82 ng/ml), 0.075 mg/ml ( $\bar{x}$  = 11.35 ng/ml, SD = 0.22 ng/ml), and 0.1  
249 mg/ml ( $\bar{x}$  = 10.93 ng/ml, SD = 0.06 ng/ml) were statistically nonsignificant (**FIGURE 3**).

250 In contrast, statistically significant differences in residual TcdA concentrations were  
251 measured between the assay positive control and experimental samples containing  
252 calcium aluminosilicate supplemented to 0.3 mg/ml ( $\bar{x}$  = 8.54 ng/ml, SD = 1.19 ng/ml,  $p$   
253  $< 0.05$ ), 0.5 mg/ml ( $\bar{x}$  = 4.88 ng/ml, SD = 0.80 ng/ml,  $p < 0.001$ ), 0.75 mg/ml ( $\bar{x}$  = 3.20  
254 ng/ml, SD = 0.65 ng/ml,  $p < 0.001$ ), 1 mg/ml ( $\bar{x}$  = 1.67 ng/ml, SD = 0.71 ng/ml), 2 mg/ml  
255 ( $\bar{x}$  = below the lower limit of detection (bLLD),  $p < 0.001$ ), 3 mg/ml ( $\bar{x}$  = bLLD,  $p <$   
256 0.001), and 5 mg/ml ( $\bar{x}$  = bLLD,  $p < 0.001$ ). The lower limit of detection for this qEIA is  
257 approximately 1.4 ng/ml for TcdA and 2.4 ng/ml for TcdB.

258 The efficiency by which the calcium aluminosilicate calcium aluminosilicate  
259 sequestered TcdB was also explored (**FIGURE 3**). Differences in endpoint OD<sub>450 nm</sub>  
260 measurements between the assay negative control (*i.e.*, vehicle devoid of TcdB) samples  
261 ( $\bar{x}$  = 0.047 AU, SD = 0.004 AU) and experimental samples supplemented with calcium  
262 aluminosilicate up to 3 mg/ml ( $\bar{x}$  = 0.043 AU, SD = 0.001 AU), and 5 mg/ml ( $\bar{x}$  = 0.041

263 AU, SD = 0.002 AU) were statistically nonsignificant ( $p > 0.05$ ). As performed with  
264 TcdA, the raw qEIA measurements were converted to residual toxin concentrations.  
265 Differences in residual TcdB concentration between the assay positive control (*i.e.*,  
266 TcdB-containing samples devoid of calcium aluminosilicate) samples and experimental  
267 samples containing calcium aluminosilicate supplemented up to 0.05 mg/ml ( $\bar{x}$  = 9.07  
268 ng/ml, SD = 0.06 ng/ml), 0.075 mg/ml ( $\bar{x}$  = 8.75 ng/ml, SD = 0.05 ng/ml), 0.1 mg/ml ( $\bar{x}$  =  
269 9.02 ng/ml, SD = 1.38 ng/ml), and 0.3 mg/ml ( $\bar{x}$  = 8.44 ng/ml, SD = 0.8 ng/ml) were  
270 statistically nonsignificant ( $p > 0.05$ ). In contrast, statistically significant differences in  
271 residual TcdB concentrations were measured between the assay positive control and  
272 experimental samples containing calcium aluminosilicate supplemented up to 0.5 mg/ml  
273 ( $\bar{x}$  = 6.27 ng/ml, SD = 0.36 ng/ml,  $P < 0.001$ ), 0.75 mg/ml ( $\bar{x}$  = 5.47 ng/ml, SD = 0.64  
274 ng/ml;  $p < 0.001$ ), 1 mg/ml ( $\bar{x}$  = 4.99 ng/ml, SD = 1.23 ng/ml), 2 mg/ml ( $\bar{x}$  = 3.75 ng/ml;  
275  $p < 0.001$ ), 3 mg/ml ( $\bar{x}$  = bLLD,  $p < 0.001$ ), and 5 mg/ml ( $\bar{x}$  = bLLD,  $p < 0.001$ ).

276 **The protein-binding activity of calcium aluminosilicate.** The selectivity of  
277 calcium aluminosilicate's protein-binding activity was explored further using a variation  
278 of the *C. difficile* toxin-binding assay described above. During these experiments,  
279 calcium aluminosilicate (5 mg/ml) was challenged with a commercial protein cocktail  
280 that contained a number of non-therapeutic proteins, including myosin, bovine serum  
281 albumin, and glutamate dehydrogenase. A representative SDS-PAGE gel of the  
282 supernatant and the pellet eluate can be found in **FIGURE 4**. CAS UPSN M-1 bound  
283 non-therapeutic proteins, but did so with varying efficiency. Indeed, CAS UPSN M-1  
284 bound myosin and bovine serum albumin inefficiently, while glutamate dehydrogenase  
285 was bound efficiently. Attempts to elute proteins bound to CAS UPSN M-1 were

286 unsuccessful (**FIGURE 4**, lanes 4-5), which suggests that proteins bound to CAS UPSN  
287 M-1 are bound tightly.

288

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## DISCUSSION

290 The initial toxin concentrations used in this study were selected because they  
291 approximated the median concentration of TcdA (4.3 ng/ml) that is typically found in the  
292 stool of patients with *C. difficile*-associated diarrhea (range 0.6 ng/ml to 19 µg/ml) (28).  
293 As such, the developed qEIA protocol enabled *C. difficile* TcdA and TcdB quantification  
294 at clinically relevant concentrations. No hook effect was obvious for either toxin at toxin  
295 concentrations between 5 to 15 ng/ml, which constituted the linear range for this qEIA.  
296 The high-dose hook effect occurs when the antigen negatively affects the binding  
297 capacity of the reporter antibody or when it is added in excess of the reporter antibody  
298 (29). The intra-experimental EIA calibration curves generated using this qEIA protocol  
299 enabled toxin quantification via interpolation and, thus, facilitated the conversion of  
300 optical density measurements to residual toxin concentrations. Furthermore, given the  
301 high degree of reproducibility, this qEIA supported inter-experimental comparisons  
302 between repeated measurements (*e.g.*, randomized block experiments).

303 This assay revealed that calcium aluminosilicate efficiently removed both TcdA  
304 and TcdB at physiologically relevant concentrations. Indeed, calcium aluminosilicate  
305 neutralized TcdA to sub-clinical levels *in vitro*. Like tolevamer, protein binding by  
306 calcium aluminosilicate does not occur in a generalized or otherwise indiscriminate  
307 fashion and, thus, displays a degree of target specificity. Tolevamer is an anionic, high-  
308 molecular-weight polymer (>400 kDa) that was developed to neutralize TcdA and TcdB.

309 Tolevamer has been shown to ameliorate CDI-like symptoms in hamsters (30). In  
310 addition, tolevamer has demonstrated therapeutic efficacy in a number of phase II and  
311 phase III clinical studies (25-26). While effective, tolevamer's cure rate was found to be  
312 inferior to those of vancomycin and metronidazole (26, 31). Surprisingly, however, the  
313 rate of CDI reoccurrence was generally lower with tolevamer than with either  
314 vancomycin or metronidazole (26)

315 TcdA and TcdB are postulated to be paralogs (32-33). As a result, these proteins  
316 share significant amino acid sequence similarity to one another—especially at their  
317 amino- and carboxy-terminal regions. Both toxins share approximately 47% identity to  
318 each other and approximately 68% sequence similarity (data not shown). Both proteins  
319 are comprised of three well-characterized functional domains (15). The amino-terminus  
320 of the protein encodes a peptidase C80-type glycosyltransferase domain and a proximal  
321 substrate recognition domain. The hydrophobic middle region is putatively involved in  
322 membrane translocation. The carboxy terminus of the protein encodes the clostridial  
323 repetitive oligopeptides (CROPS)—also known as cell wall binding (CWB) domains.  
324 The carboxy-terminal CROPS facilitate calcium-dependent host cell recognition (33), and  
325 may also play a role in the sequestration of TcdA and TcdB by calcium aluminosilicate.  
326 Proteins that are evolutionarily and/or structurally related to TcdA and TcdB might also  
327 be viable therapeutic targets for calcium aluminosilicate, however additional research is  
328 required to test this hypothesis.

329 In addition to the similarities noted above, a number of toxin-specific differences  
330 were also observed. For example, the lowest experimental concentration of calcium  
331 aluminosilicate for which there was no observable effect was 0.1 mg/ml for TcdA, but 0.3

332 mg/ml for TcdB. The minimum effective concentration (*i.e.*, the threshold dose) for  
333 calcium aluminosilicate was 0.3 mg/ml for TcdA, but 0.5 mg/ml for TcdB. Under these  
334 conditions, the calcium aluminosilicate concentration that achieved maximum efficacy  
335 (EC<sub>100</sub>) was 2 mg/ml for TcdA, but the concentration of calcium aluminosilicate that  
336 provided approximately 50% of the maximum effect (EC<sub>50</sub>) for TcdA was 0.5 mg/ml. In  
337 contrast the EC<sub>100</sub> and EC<sub>50</sub> for TcdB were 3 mg/ml and 1 mg/ml, respectively. While  
338 calcium aluminosilicate sequesters both protein-based cytotoxic enzymes, these results  
339 suggest that its affinity for TcdA is greater than its affinity for TcdB.

340         As antibiotic resistant pathogens continue to emerge, the development of non-  
341 antibiotic treatment options represents a timely therapeutic approach to CDI management.  
342 Calcium aluminosilicate exhibited potent *C. difficile* TcdA- and TcdB-neutralizing  
343 activity and selective protein binding *in vitro*. Given the well-documented safety profile  
344 of calcium aluminosilicate (34), these studies provide *in vitro* evidentiary support our  
345 hypothesis that ingestion of calcium aluminosilicate might protect gastrointestinal tissues  
346 and accelerate a patient's recovery from antibiotic- or chemotherapy-induced, *C. difficile*-  
347 associated diarrhea by neutralizing the cytotoxic effects of luminal TcdA and TcdB.  
348 Depending on its relative effectiveness and tolerability during downstream clinical  
349 studies, CAS UPSN M-1, the novel sequestration agent described in this study, may be  
350 used to complement or, possibly, replace existing antibiotic therapies for the treatment of  
351 CDI. However, it is beyond the scope of this current study to examine the biological  
352 effects of calcium aluminosilicate *in vivo*.

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356

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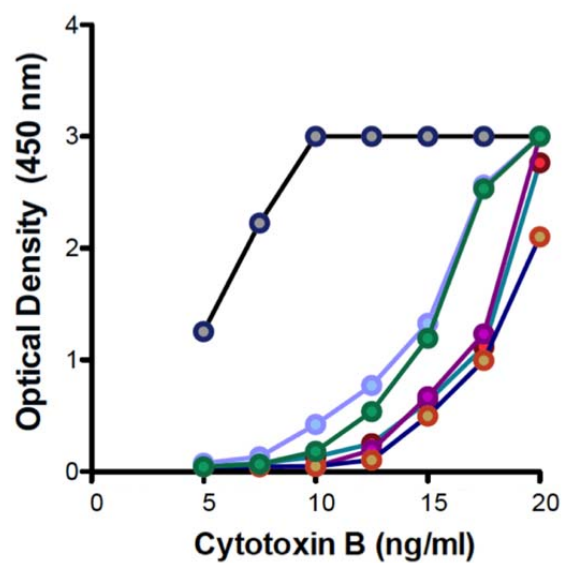
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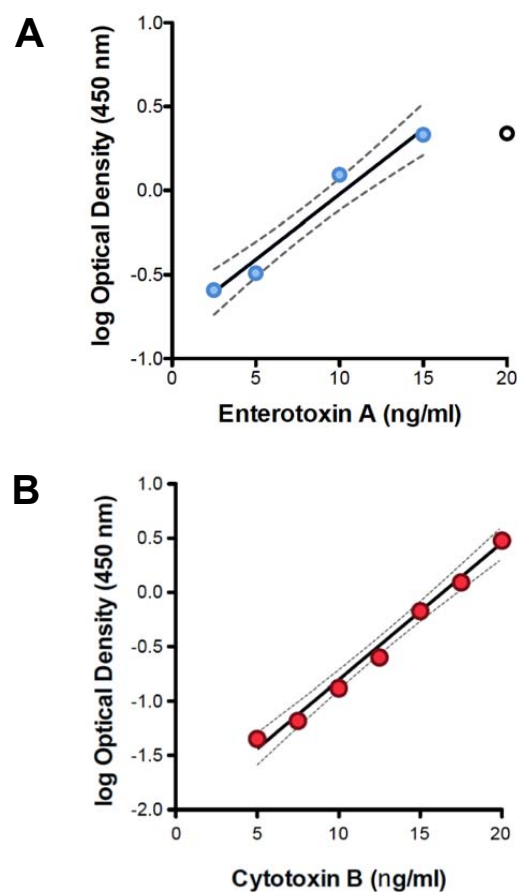
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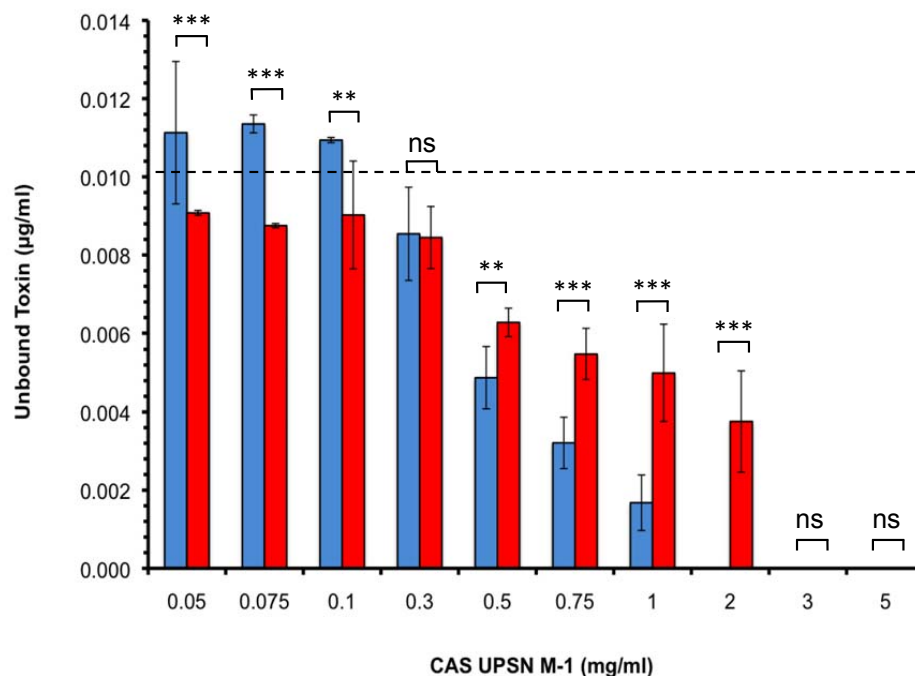
**FIGURE 1. Untransformed EIA calibration curves.** The mean optical density (y-axis) for each of six randomly selected cytotoxin B EIA calibration curves is plotted as a function of cytotoxin B concentration (x-axis). The data are expressed as means  $\pm$  SEM.

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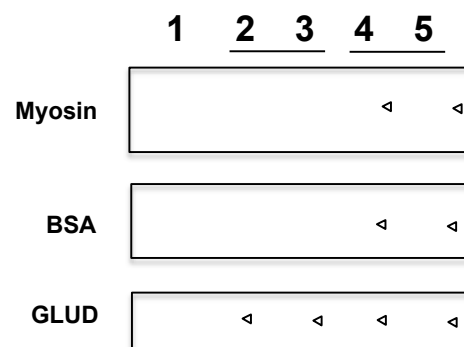
**FIGURE 2. Linear regression of representative logarithm-transformed qEIA calibration data.** The logarithm (base 10) of the optical density of each reference standard (*y-axis*) was determined by EIA and plotted against toxin concentration (*x-axis*). Circles denote median calibration data from *n* repeated replicates. The solid line denotes linear regression with 95% confidence limits, while dashed lines denote the boundaries of the calculated 95% confidence interval. **Panel A**, linear regression of enterotoxin A data ( $n = 5$ ,  $R^2 = 0.968$ ). **Panel B**, linear regression of cytotoxin B calibration data ( $n = 4$ ,  $R^2 = 0.966$ ).

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**FIGURE 3. The selective and dose-dependent adsorption of *C. difficile* toxins by CAS UPSN M-1 *in vitro*.** CAS UPSN M-1 was supplemented to a final concentration between 0.05 to 5 mg/ml (100-fold range) (*x*-axis), while toxin concentration was fixed to 10 µg/ml (dashed line). After a 10-min co-incubation, the mineral-toxin complexes were removed by centrifugation and the residual concentration of enterotoxin A (blue) and cytotoxin B (red) was determined by quantitative EIA (*y*-axis). The data are expressed as the means ± SD. The statistical significance of differences in toxin-specific binding-ability are reported for each concentration. Abbreviations: ns, statistically nonsignificant ( $P > 0.05$ ); \*\*, statistically significant ( $P < 0.01$ ); \*\*\*, statistically significant ( $P < 0.001$ ).

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**FIGURE 4. Non-therapeutic protein-binding assay.** SDS-PAGE gels illustrating differential binding of myosin (top panel), bovine serum albumin (BSA) (middle panel), and glutamate dehydrogenase (GLUD) (bottom panel). Lane 1, untreated reference protein (negative control); Lanes 2-3, CAS UPSN M-1-treated protein samples (duplicates); Lanes 4-5, eluate of protein-bound-CAS UPSN M-1 complexes (duplicates). White carots are used to mark lanes that are devoid of a protein band.