



## Oral immunization of cattle with hemagglutinin protein of rinderpest virus expressed in transgenic peanut induces specific immune responses

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### Abstract

Rinderpest is an acute, highly contagious often fatal disease of large and small ruminants, both domestic and wild. Global eradication of rinderpest needs a robust, safe and cost-effective vaccine. The causative agent, rinderpest virus (RPV) is an important member of the genus *Morbillivirus* in the *Paramyxoviridae* family. We have generated transgenic peanut (*Arachis hypogea* L.) plants expressing hemagglutinin protein of RPV and report here, the induction of immune responses in cattle following oral feeding with transgenic leaves expressing hemagglutinin protein without oral adjuvant. Hemagglutinin-specific antibody was detected in the serum as confirmed by immunohistochemical staining of virus-infected cells, and in vitro neutralization of virus infectivity. Oral delivery also resulted in cell-mediated immune responses.

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**Keywords:** Rinderpest virus; Hemagglutinin; Transgenic peanut; Oral immunogenicity

### 1. Introduction

Rinderpest is an acute, febrile, highly contagious disease of cattle caused by rinderpest virus (RPV), which is a member of the family *Paramyxoviridae* and genus *Morbillivirus*. In spite of availability of a highly effective live attenuated vaccine, rinderpest remains a threat to livestock in developing countries. The difficulty in maintaining the cold chain results in failure of vaccination in the hot regions where rinderpest is endemic. Attempts have been made to develop heat stable rinderpest vaccines, which include thermostable Vero cell-adapted rinderpest vaccine [1,2], Xerovac live attenuated rinderpest vaccine [3] and dry powder rinderpest vaccine [4]. RPV contains two glycoproteins, hemagglutinin (H) and fusion (F) proteins, on its host cell membrane-derived envelope. H and F proteins are known to be highly immunogenic and confer protective immunity. Efforts have been made to develop recombinant vaccinia virus expressing H and F [5–9] and recently long-term immunity in cattle has also been demonstrated [10,11]. Because of its wide host range, the use of recombinant vaccinia virus remains a matter of debate. Another pox virus (capripox virus), which has more restricted host range, has been used to develop recom-

binant capripox–rinderpest virus vaccine [12,13] and vaccination with this vaccine confers long-term immunity in African cattle [14]. Further, the H and F proteins expressed by recombinant baculo virus was shown to be immunogenic [15] and a recombinant baculo virus expressed H protein could induce both humoral and cell-mediated immune response [16,17]. In addition, the recombinant H expressed as extracellular baculo virus particles has been shown to elicit cytotoxic T-cell responses and a CTL epitope on H has been mapped [18,19]. Although the above-mentioned efforts promise to provide an effective vaccine, their use becomes prohibitively expensive because of the cost of production of cell culture vaccine.

In order to effectively control and eliminate rinderpest, a vaccine is necessary which provides a handle to differentiate between animals that have been vaccinated and those, which have recovered from natural infection [20]. For pathogens, which enter and colonize in the mucosal epithelium of gastrointestinal, respiratory and genital tract, it would be better to employ a mucosal vaccine since induction of both mucosal and systemic immune responses is achieved whereas the reverse does not hold true. A recombinant subunit vaccine expressed in edible parts of transgenic plants promises to possess the desired properties. In case of foot and mouth disease and transmissible gastroenteritis, recombinant antigens expressed in transgenic plants have been reported to possess immunological properties at least

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69 in the mouse model [21,22]. We have recently shown that  
70 the H protein of RPV expressed in a model plant, tobacco is  
71 immunogenic and elicit specific humoral immune response  
72 [23]. Further, we have expressed the hemagglutinin protein  
73 in transgenic peanut, a crop which is also used in India  
74 for animal feeding after harvesting the nuts, and tested its  
75 antigenicity and immunogenicity. This peanut-derived H is  
76 immunologically active when delivered through parenteral  
77 or through oral route in experimental mouse model system  
78 (Khandelwal et al., submitted for publication). In the present  
79 communication, we report the induction of specific immune  
80 responses in cattle upon oral feeding with transgenic leaves  
81 of peanut expressing H without mucosal adjuvant.

## 82 2. Materials and methods

### 83 2.1. Animals

84 Four cattle (C1–C4) were maintained at the Central Ani-  
85 mal Facility of the Institute. C1, C2 and C4 (4–5 years age)  
86 of Holstein–Friesian cross-breed and C3 (about 2–3 years  
87 age) is a Jersey breed.

### 88 2.2. Cells and viruses

89 Vero cells were obtained from National Center for Cell  
90 Science, Pune, India and were maintained in MEM sup-  
91 plemented with 5% fetal calf serum (Gibco-BRL, USA) at  
92 37 °C in a CO<sub>2</sub> incubator. A tissue culture adapted vaccine  
93 strain of RPV (RBOK) [24] was obtained from the Institute  
94 of Animal Health and Veterinary Biologicals, Bangalore, In-  
95 dia and vaccine strain of PPRV (Nig 75/1) was provided by  
96 Dr. A. Diallo, CIRAD-EMVT, France. To prepare infected  
97 cell lysates, at 24–48 h post-infection of Vero cells when  
98 70% CPE was seen, cells were lysed in PBS by freezing and  
99 thawing three times and stored at –20 °C till further use.

### 100 2.3. Recombinant proteins

101 Recombinant hemagglutinin protein expressed in insect  
102 cells secreted into the medium (SecH) was used [25]. Re-  
103 combinant nucleocapsid protein of RPV expressed in *E.*  
104 *coli* was purified by CsCl gradient as described earlier [26].  
105 The full length M gene of RPV (RBOK) was cloned into  
106 pBluescript KS<sup>+</sup> vector (kindly provided by Dr. M. Baron,  
107 Institute for Animal Health, Pirbright, UK) was subcloned  
108 into pRSET expression vector and expressed in *E. coli*  
109 BL21 (DE3) (Shaji and Shaila, unpublished data), as His  
110 tag protein. The protein was purified on a nickel affinity  
111 column.

### 112 2.4. Antibodies

113 A mouse monoclonal antibody D2F4 to RPV H protein  
114 earlier generated in the laboratory [27] was used. Polyclonal

monospecific antibodies to RPV H purified from infected 115  
cell extracts were generated in rabbits [28]. 116

### 2.5. Transgenic peanut plants 117

The hemagglutinin gene of attenuated strain (RBOK) of 118  
rinderpest virus was subcloned into binary vector pBI 121. 119  
In the recombinant binary vector pBI H, the H gene is under 120  
the control of constitutively expressed CaMV 35S pro- 121  
moter. pBI H was mobilized into *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* 122  
(EHA 105). Transgenic peanut plants obtained using pBI 123  
121 served as the control and termed as vector-transformed 124  
peanut plants. Transgenic peanut plants expressing hemag- 125  
glutinin protein were generated via *Agrobacterium*-mediated 126  
transformation of shoot apices (Khandelwal et al., submit- 127  
ted for publication). Total protein from leaves was isolated 128  
employing the method of McGarvey et al. [29] used for the 129  
solubilization of rabies virus glycoprotein. The expression 130  
level of H was in the range of 0.2–1.3% of total soluble 131  
protein as estimated by double antibody sandwich ELISA 132  
using a standard curve where recombinant H was used as 133  
an antigen. Leaves from different lines expressing H were 134  
pooled and fed to the animals such that each dose con- 135  
tained an amount of H equivalent to 0.5% of total soluble 136  
protein. 137

### 2.6. Immunization schedule 138

The animals were fed with either transgenic peanut leaves 139  
expressing H (C2–C4) or with vector-transformed peanut 140  
leaves (C1) as control at weekly interval for three consecu- 141  
tive weeks. The first immunization was with about 7.5 g of 142  
leaves followed by 5 g of leaves at 7 and 14 days. Animals 143  
were given normal feed at all times. 144

### 2.7. Competition ELISA 145

The method described by Anderson and McKay [30] was 146  
used. The assay was performed in a 96-well flat bottom plate. 147  
SecH was used as the antigen (1:150 dilution in PBS) and 148  
D2F4 monoclonal antibody (1:5000) was used for competi- 149  
tion with test serum. The reaction was developed with 50 µl 150  
of OPD (4 mg/ml) and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (2 µl of 30% stock) in PBS after 151  
terminating the reaction with 50 µl of 2N H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, plate 152  
was read at 490 nm in an ELISA reader, which is attached 153  
to a computer having enzyme immunoassay (EIA) software 154  
of Biologicals Diagnostic mSupplies Ltd. (BDL) and the 155  
OD values were converted to percentage inhibition (PI) val- 156  
ues. Percentage inhibition more than 40 was considered to 157  
be significant. 158

### 2.8. Immunohistochemical staining 159

The method described by Naik et al. [16] was used to 160  
test the immune sera for reactivity with RPV H made in 161  
virus-infected cells. 162

## 163 2.9. Virus neutralization test

164 Serum samples collected at various time points were  
 165 tested for the presence of neutralizing antibodies (both  
 166 homologous and cross-neutralizing) in triplicates using  
 167 flat-bottomed 96-well plates as described by Barrett et al.  
 168 [6]. Attenuated strain of RPV (RBOK strain) and vaccine  
 169 strain of PPRV Nig 75/1 were grown on Vero cells and  
 170 titrated employing TCID<sub>50</sub> method [31]. Pooled serum  
 171 samples (for each bleed, serum was pooled from all the five  
 172 mice of the group) were heat inactivated at 56 °C for 30 min  
 173 and then double diluted with culture medium, starting from  
 174 an initial dilution of 1:20. Following incubation with 100  
 175 TCID<sub>50</sub> of virus at 37 °C for 1 h, 2 × 10<sup>4</sup> cells were added  
 176 to each well. The wells without the sera/virus served as  
 177 control. The plates were monitored for 5–7 days for cyto-  
 178 pathic effects (CPE) for RPV and 3–5 days for PPRV. Virus  
 179 neutralization titer was defined as the highest dilution of  
 180 the sera, which inhibited CPE by 50%.

181 2.10. *In vitro* lymphoproliferation

182 Animals were bled through jugular vein puncture at spec-  
 183 ified times. The blood was diluted 1:2 in sterile PBS and  
 184 was subjected to Ficoll–Hypaque (Pharmacia) density cen-  
 185 trifugation at 3000 rpm for 30 min. The buffy coat was col-  
 186 lected and diluted in excess PBS. The cells were recovered  
 187 by centrifugation and washed and resuspended in RPMI  
 188 1640 supplemented with 10% FBS (Gibco-BRL, USA). The  
 189 lymphocytes were proliferated in triplicates at a density of  
 190 2 × 10<sup>5</sup> cells per well in presence of varying concentrations  
 191 of SecH, N, M proteins or PPRV infected cell lysate or un-  
 192 infected cell lysate in a final volume of 200 μl per well for  
 193 5 days. The cells were pulsed with 1 μCi [<sup>3</sup>H]-thymidine  
 194 (specific activity 6500 mCi/mmol; Amersham) for 16 h and  
 195 harvested on glass fiber filter (Nunc, USA). The incorpo-  
 196 rated radioactivity was measured in a Rackbeta scintillation  
 197 spectrometer.

## 3. Results

## 3.1. Humoral immune responses

200 Animals were bled at regular intervals after immuniza-  
 201 tion either with transgenic peanut leaves expressing H or  
 202 vector-transformed peanut leaves and sera were examined  
 203 for the presence of H-specific serum antibodies in ELISA  
 204 using recombinant secretory form of H (SecH) in a competi-  
 205 tion ELISA. Inhibition of binding to H protein of monoclonal  
 206 antibody (D2F4) generated against RPV H by immune sera  
 207 (Fig. 1) demonstrates the specificity of antibody. The serum  
 208 from immunized animal, which received transgenic peanut  
 209 expressing H competed very well with the monoclonal anti-  
 210 body and no significant competition was seen in presence  
 211 of serum from the cattle fed with vector-transformed peanut  
 212 leaves.

213 The specificity of the antibody produced in response to  
 214 oral delivery of recombinant H as part of food was also ver-  
 215 ified by immunostaining of the infected cells. When anti-  
 216 bodies from the orally fed animals were used for reactivity  
 217 with antigens expressed in virus-infected cells only the im-  
 218 mune cattle serum reacted with viral antigen expressed  
 219 in infected cells and the immune serum from the control  
 220 animal that was fed with vector-transformed peanut leaves  
 221 did not show any reactivity (Fig. 2) suggesting the capabil-  
 222 ity of induced antibodies to recognize the antigens made by  
 223 infected cells.

3.2. *In vitro* neutralization of virus infectivity

224 To analyze the *in vitro* protective ability of the induced  
 225 antibodies, virus neutralization test was performed. Results  
 226 (Tables 1 and 2) clearly show that high levels of neutral-  
 227 izing and cross-neutralizing antibodies are present in the  
 228 serum 1 week after immunization and are maintained up  
 229 to the duration of the experiments in the orally immunized  
 230 animals. Homologous and heterologous virus neutraliz-

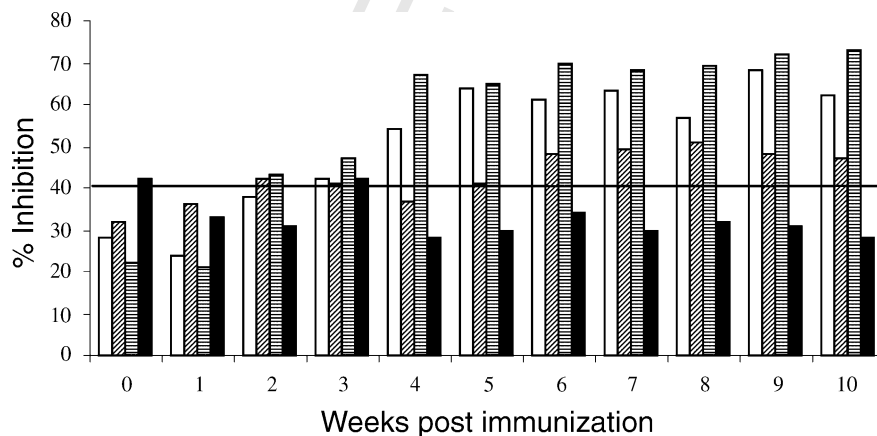


Fig. 1. Competition of immunized cattle serum with monoclonal antibody for recombinant H protein. Percent inhibition is calculated using the formula:  $PI = 100 - [(OD \text{ in test well} / OD \text{ in } 0\% \text{ control well}) \times 100]$ . C1–C4 are represented as follows: C1 (■), C2 (□), C3 (▨) and C4 (▩).

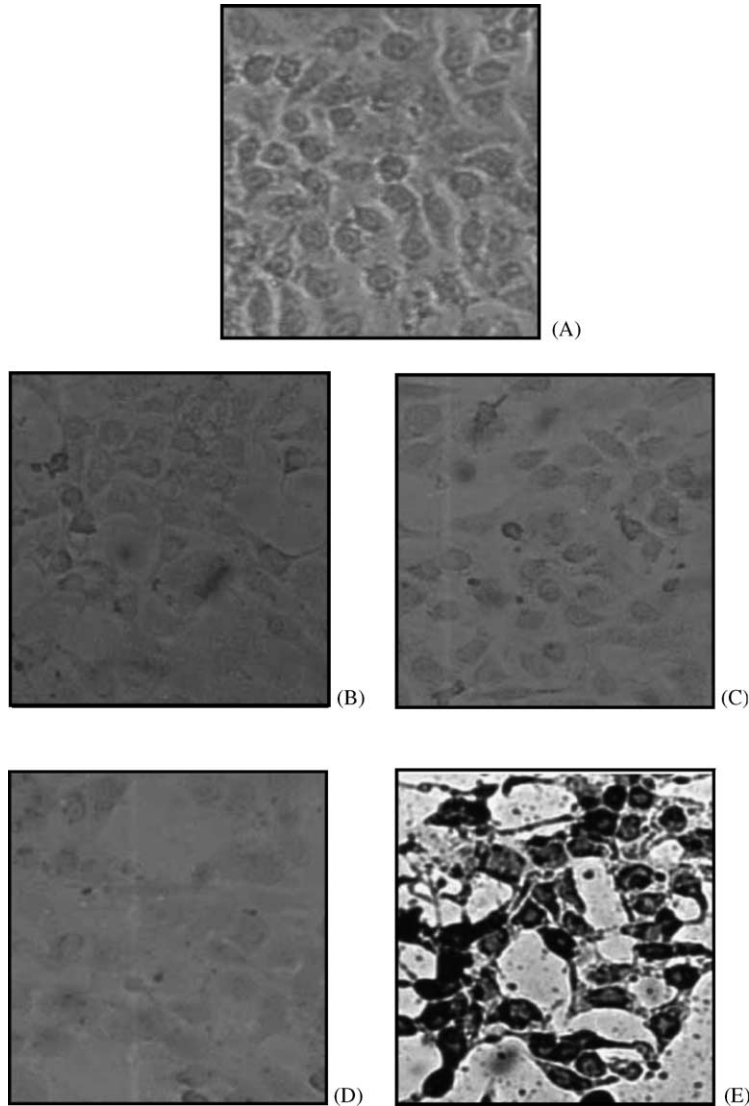


Fig. 2. Immunohistochemical staining. Panel A: uninfected Vero cells. Panels B and C: infected Vero cells immunostained with preimmune and immune serum (1:50 dilution in PBS) from animal fed with vector-transformed leaves (C1), respectively. Panels D and E: infected Vero cells stained with preimmune and immune serum (1:50 dilution in PBS) from animal fed with transgenic peanut leaves (C4), respectively. Vero cells grown on coverslips were infected with RPV (RBOK) at a multiplicity of 0.1–0.5 and incubated at 37 °C, for 48–72 h till 30–40% CPE was seen. Coverslips were washed in PBS and cells were fixed for immunohistochemical staining.

231 ing ability was absent in serum from the animal fed with  
 232 vector-transformed peanut leaves. Earlier work from our  
 233 group on virus neutralization titer following vaccination  
 234 had shown virus neutralization titers of 20, 40, 40, 160 at  
 235 1, 2, 4 and 8 weeks post-immunization and nearly twofold  
 236 lower titers of cross-neutralization against PPRV [17]. How-  
 237 ever, immunization of cattle with recombinant baculovirus  
 238 expressing H (rECV-H) resulted in a twofold higher titer  
 239 for both homologous and heterologous virus neutralization  
 240 titers. Induction of high levels of virus neutralization titer  
 241 immediately at 1 week post-immunization could be due  
 242 to the adjuvant activity provided by some plant compo-  
 243 nent. These results demonstrate that antibodies generated  
 244 upon oral immunization are able to provide protection

against RPV or cross-protection against PPRV infections  
 in vitro. 245 246

### 3.3. Lymphoproliferative responses 247

At the end of 10th week post-immunization, PBMC were  
 isolated and used for in vitro proliferation assay in pres-  
 ence of recombinant antigens (Fig. 3A and B). PBMC  
 from animals fed with transgenic peanut leaves expressing  
 H proliferated in a dose-dependent manner when SecH was  
 used as the antigen (Fig. 3A), and the animal (C1) fed with  
 vector-transformed peanut leaves did not show any prolifer-  
 ation in response to SecH. The specificity of lymphopro-  
 liferative responses was tested by stimulating the PBMC in  
 248 249 250 251 252 253 254 255 256

Table 1

In vitro neutralization of RPV infectivity by serum collected from cattle after oral immunization with transgenic peanut leaves or with vector-transformed peanut leaves

Animal	Virus neutralization titer <sup>a</sup> (days post-immunization)										
	0	7	14	21	28	35	42	49	56	63	70
C1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
C2	0	320	320	640	80	40	40	40	40	40	20
C3	0	640	640	320	160	160	160	160	80	40	20
C4	0	160	320	320	160	160	160	40	40	40	40

<sup>a</sup> Virus neutralization titer is defined as the reciprocal of the highest dilution of serum exhibiting 50% protection of infected cells.

257 presence of other antigens of RPV. Data shown in Fig. 3B  
 258 shows that lymphocytes from orally immunized animals do  
 259 not respond to other antigens of RPV (nucleocapsid (N)  
 260 protein and matrix (M) protein). Although the lymphocytes  
 261 from vaccinated animal have been shown to proliferate in  
 262 response to N protein of RPV [18]. In addition, when the  
 263 cross-reactive proliferative responses to PPRV antigens were  
 264 tested (Fig. 3C), lymphocytes from the animal immunized  
 265 with peanut-derived H proliferated well in vitro in presence  
 266 of PPRV infected cell lysate and the animal that received  
 267 vector-transformed peanut leaves did not respond.

#### 268 4. Discussion

269 As part of efforts to develop edible vaccine for rinderpest,  
 270 we generated transgenic peanut (*Arachis hypogea* L.)  
 271 plants expressing hemagglutinin protein of rinderpest virus.  
 272 The antigenicity of peanut-derived H protein was established  
 273 using specific antibodies and its immunogenicity was analyzed  
 274 in a mouse model (Khandelwal et al., submitted for  
 275 publication). Oral feeding of transgenic peanut leaves induced  
 276 specific mucosal (secretory IgA) and systemic immune  
 277 responses (serum IgG and IgA) and also cell-mediated  
 278 immune responses. In the present work, induction of  
 279 immune responses in cattle was monitored upon oral delivery  
 280 of hemagglutinin protein of rinderpest virus as part of  
 281 food, without any mucosal adjuvant. To our knowledge, this  
 282 is the first report describing elicitation of specific immune  
 283 responses in the host animal by a protective antigen of a

Table 2

In vitro neutralization of PPRV infectivity by serum collected from cattle after oral immunization with transgenic peanut leaves or with vector-transformed peanut leaves

Animal	Virus neutralization titer <sup>a</sup> (days post-immunization)										
	0	7	14	21	28	35	42	49	56	63	70
C1	0	2	2	2	2	2	4	2	2	0	0
C2	0	128	256	256	256	64	32	32	32	32	8
C3	0	0	0	0	0	64	128	128	64	64	16
C4	0	128	256	256	64	64	64	32	32	16	8

<sup>a</sup> Virus neutralization titer is defined as the reciprocal of the highest dilution of serum exhibiting 50% protection of infected cells.

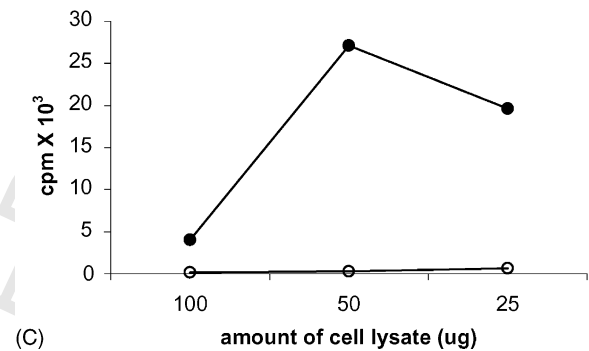
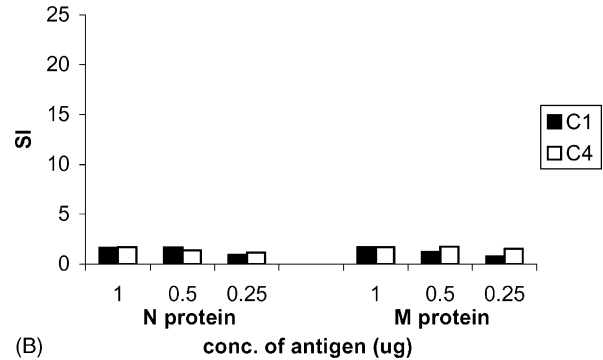
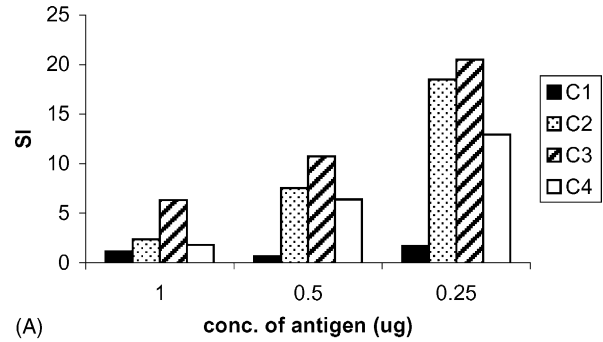


Fig. 3. (A) Lymphoproliferation of PBMC from animals fed with either vector-transformed peanut leaves (C1) or with transgenic peanut leaves (C2–C4) at 10 weeks post-immunization in presence of recombinant hemagglutinin protein. (B) Lymphoproliferation of PBMC from C1 (control animal fed with vector-transformed peanut leaves) and C4 (fed with transgenic peanut leaves expressing H) in presence of nucleocapsid (N) and matrix (M) protein of RPV. (C) In vitro proliferation of PBMC from C1 (○) and C4 (●) in presence of antigens of PPRV.

*Morbillivirus* expressed in transgenic plants given orally. 284  
 Although small quantities of transgenic plant tissues (7.5 g 285  
 for the first feeding followed by two feedings of 5 g) was 286  
 given orally, the test animals developed high titer of spe- 287  
 cific antibodies. These antibodies were able to compete out 288  
 monoclonal antibodies in ELISA (Fig. 1) demonstrating the 289  
 specificity of the induced antibodies; in addition, these anti- 290  
 bodies neutralized the virus infectivity in vitro. Animals 291  
 were fed only thrice with plant-derived antigen at weekly 292  
 intervals, which in addition to production of significant lev- 293  
 els of specific antibody, resulted in stimulation of T cells 294  
 from immunized animals in response to specific antigens 295

(Fig. 3A and B) indicating the induction of systemic immune response upon oral immunization. Wigdorovitz et al. [21] reported induction of protective systemic immune response in the mouse model upon oral feeding of transgenic plants expressing VP1 protein of foot and mouth disease virus. In this work, the VP1 protein expressed in alfalfa plants was not detected by Western blotting and several immunizations (three times a week for 2 months with approximately 0.3 g of leaves) were needed in order to induce a significant immune response. Similarly, Gomez et al. [22] have shown oral immunogenicity of the spike protein of swine-transmissible gastroenteritis coronavirus expressed in potato in a mouse model. This group followed almost similar immunization schedule as reported by Wigdorovitz et al. [21]. However, there was no detectable neutralization activity, which was attributed to the post-translational processing in the host plant. Compared to these two reports, in the present work, small quantities of peanut expressed H protein given orally without adjuvant induced high levels of virus neutralizing antibodies.

There are two reports where induction of specific immune response is demonstrated upon oral feeding of human volunteers with potato tubers expressing LT-B of *E. coli* [32] or Norwalk virus capsid protein-assembled as virus like particles [33]. In the first human trials, the antigen used (LT-B) is a well-known mucosal adjuvant and therefore when given through oral route, LT-B antigen induced significant systemic and mucosal immune responses. In the second trial, potato expressing Norwalk virus capsid protein was delivered orally. It has been suggested that the particulate nature of the virus like particles confer greater stability to the antigen in the stomach and resulted in specific immune response although the level of specific serum antibody was modest. Induction of specific immune response in mice upon oral delivery of measles virus hemagglutinin expressed in plant tissues has been demonstrated [34]. The induction of immune responses upon oral delivery shown in the present work might be due to “bioencapsulation” as described by Kong et al. [35]. Modelska et al. [36] have shown that expressed antigen is more immunogenic when plant material is fed orally as compared to the plant proteins present in the extract. Additionally, there is evidence to suggest that components of the plant also influence the immunogenicity of the antigen expressed [22]. The induction of serum or mucosal antibody response to orally administered antigens is often difficult and generally requires large quantities of antigen as only part of the antigen is being absorbed and is capable of eliciting an immune response. It was assumed that co-administration of a mucosal adjuvant is necessary to achieve optimum oral immunogenicity for a given antigen. Furthermore, the presentation of large amount of antigen may lead to oral tolerance and use of mucosal adjuvant will result in non-specific stimulation of mucosal immune system. de Aizpurua and Russell-Jones [37] have identified the class of proteins that provoke an immune response upon oral feeding and concluded that all the proteins that possess

“lectin or lectin-like” binding activities are active in oral immunization. These molecules have the ability to bind to glycolipids or glycoproteins on the intestinal mucosae and thus transported across the epithelial barrier, to enter the circulation and elicit an immune response. More recently, plant lectins with different sugar specificities have been investigated for mucosal immunogenicity [38] and elicitation of specific systemic and mucosal antibody response was observed upon intranasal or oral administration. Since hemagglutinin protein of RPV is a cell attachment protein which binds to cell surface oligosaccharide containing protein or glycoconjugate in order for the virus to begin the infection process, it qualifies to be in the categories of antigens having “lectin or lectin-like” activities. Therefore, it is conceivable that H protein may be transported across the epithelial barrier easily through the mechanism described by Lavelle et al. [38] and leading to systemic immune responses. It remains to be seen if this protein expressed in peanut plants elicits a mucosal immune response upon oral immunization.

Rinderpest is an economically important disease of livestock and certainly remains a threat to the world because of the isolated foci of the disease. History has witnessed the outbreak of the disease after 40 years of rinderpest-free Sri Lanka [39]. Since most part of the world is declared rinderpest-free, use of time tested live attenuated vaccine is restricted. And the infection cannot be diagnosed at an early stage since there is no simple test to differentiate between animals vaccinated with currently used vaccine and infected animals. The recombinant subunit oral vaccine expressed in plants is useful not only in differentiating vaccinated and infected animals but also offers a cost-effective means of mass vaccination by production of transgenic plants expressing the vaccine antigen in developing countries. In addition, it will have the advantage provided by an oral vaccine which results in induction of both mucosal and systemic immune responses better achieved through oral administration as compared to parenteral delivery of the antigen and may help in the first line of defense at the mucosal surfaces. Although we have not carried out any challenge experiments due to lack of high disease security and containment facilities, *in vitro* neutralization demonstrated the protective capability of the induced antibodies and priming of T cells, which are also involved in rinderpest immunity [15] and therefore the present work clearly demonstrates the potential of edible oral vaccine against rinderpest.

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