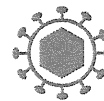


- **Reviews mucosal vaccine development and compartmentalization of the mucosal immune system.**
- 27 Fujihashi K, McGhee JR. Mucosal immunity and tolerance in the elderly. *Mech. Ageing Dev.* 125(12), 889–898 (2004).
- 28 Fukuyama, S, Hiroi T, Yokota Y *et al.* Initiation of NALT organogenesis is independent of the IL-7R, LT β R, and NIK signaling pathways but requires the Id2 gene and CD3⁺ CD4⁺ CD45⁺ cells. *Immunity* 17(1), 31–40 (2002).
- 29 Hagiwara Y, McGhee JR, Fujihashi K *et al.* Protective mucosal immunity in aging is associated with functional CD4⁺ T cells in nasopharyngeal-associated lymphoreticular tissue. *J. Immunol.* 170(4), 1754–1762 (2003).
- 30 Kato H, Fujihashi K, Kato R *et al.* Lack of oral tolerance in aging is due to sequential loss of Peyer's patch cell interactions. *Int. Immunol.* 15(2), 145–158 (2003).
- 31 Koga T, McGhee JR, Kato H, Kato R, Kiyono H, Fujihashi K. Evidence for early aging in the mucosal immune system. *J. Immunol.* 165, 5352–5359 (2000).
- 32 Kunisawa J, Nochi T, Kiyono H. Immunological commonalities and distinctions between airway and digestive immunity. *Trends Immunol.* 29(11), 505–513 (2008).
- 33 Pascual DW, Riccardi C, Csencsits-Smith K. Distal IgA immunity can be sustained by α E β 7⁺ B cells in L-selectin-/- mice following oral immunization. *Mucosal Immunol.* 1(1), 68–77 (2008).
- 34 Rennert PD, Browning JL, Mebius R, Mackay F, Hochman PS. Surface lymphotoxin α/β complex is required for the development of peripheral lymphoid organs. *J. Exp. Med.* 184(5), 1999–2006 (1996).
- 35 Yoshida H, Honda K, Shinkura R *et al.* IL-7 receptor α^+ CD3(-) cells in the embryonic intestine induces the organizing center of Peyer's patches. *Int. Immunol.* 11(5), 643–655 (1999).
- 36 Kurebayashi S, Ueda E, Sakaue M *et al.* Retinoid-related orphan receptor γ (ROR γ) is essential for lymphoid organogenesis and controls apoptosis during thymopoiesis. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA* 97(18), 10132–10137 (2000).
- 37 Sun Z, Unutmaz D, Zou YR *et al.* Requirement for ROR γ in thymocyte survival and lymphoid organ development. *Science* 288(5475), 2369–2373 (2000).
- 38 Yokota Y, Mansouri A, Mori S *et al.* Development of peripheral lymphoid organs and natural killer cells depends on the helix-loop-helix inhibitor Id2. *Nature* 397(6721), 702–706 (1999).
- 39 Banchereau J, Steinman RM. Dendritic cells and the control of immunity. *Nature* 392(6673), 245–252 (1998).
- 40 Hochrein H, Shortman K, Vremec D, Scott B, Hertzog P, O'Keeffe M. Differential production of IL-12, IFN- α , and IFN- γ by mouse dendritic cell subsets. *J. Immunol.* 166(9), 5448–5455 (2001).
- 41 Pulendran B, Banchereau J, Maraskovsky E, Maliszewski C. Modulating the immune response with dendritic cells and their growth factors. *Trends Immunol.* 22(1), 41–47 (2001).
- 42 Steinman RM. The dendritic cell system and its role in immunogenicity. *Annu. Rev. Immunol.* 9, 271–296 (1991).
- 43 Klinman DM, Currie D, Gursel I, Verthelyi D. Use of CpG oligodeoxynucleotides as immune adjuvants. *Immunol. Rev.* 199, 201–216 (2004).
- 44 Wagner H. Bacterial CpG DNA activates immune cells to signal infectious danger. *Adv. Immunol.* 73, 329–368 (1999).
- 45 Klinman DM, Yi AK, Beaucage SL, Conover J, Krieg AM. CpG motifs present in bacterial DNA rapidly induce lymphocytes to secrete interleukin 6, interleukin 12, and interferon gamma. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA* 93(7), 2879–2883 (1996).
- 46 Krieg AM, Yi AK, Matson S *et al.* CpG motifs in bacterial DNA trigger direct B-cell activation. *Nature* 374(6522), 546–549 (1995).
- 47 Yamamoto S, Yamamoto T, Kataoka T, Kuramoto E, Yano O, Tokunaga T. Unique palindromic sequences in synthetic oligonucleotides are required to induce IFN and augment IFN-mediated natural killer activity. *J. Immunol.* 148(12), 4072–4076 (1992).
- 48 Zimmermann S, Egeter O, Hausmann S *et al.* CpG oligodeoxynucleotides trigger protective and curative Th1 responses in lethal murine leishmaniasis. *J. Immunol.* 160(8), 3627–3630 (1998).
- 49 Jahrsdorfer B, Weiner GJ. CpG oligodeoxynucleotides for immune stimulation in cancer immunotherapy. *Curr. Opin. Investig. Drugs* 4(6), 686–690 (2003).
- 50 Kline JN, Waldschmidt TJ, Businga TR *et al.* Modulation of airway inflammation by CpG oligodeoxynucleotides in a murine model of asthma. *J. Immunol.* 160(6), 2555–2559 (1998).
- 51 Brazolot Millan CL, Weeratna R, Krieg AM, Siegrist CA, Davis HL. CpG DNA can induce strong Th1 humoral and cell-mediated immune responses against hepatitis B surface antigen in young mice. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA* 95(26), 15553–15558 (1998).
- 52 Davis HL, Weeratna R, Waldschmidt TJ, Tygrett L, Schorr J, Krieg AM. CpG DNA is a potent enhancer of specific immunity in mice immunized with recombinant hepatitis B surface antigen. *J. Immunol.* 160(2), 870–876 (1998).
- 53 Eastcott JW, Holmberg CJ, Dewhirst FE, Esch TR, Smith DJ, Taubman MA. Oligonucleotide containing CpG motifs enhances immune response to mucosally or systemically administered tetanus toxoid. *Vaccine* 19(13–14), 1636–1642 (2001).
- 54 Klinman DM. Therapeutic applications of CpG-containing oligodeoxynucleotides. *Antisense Nucleic Acid Drug Dev.* 8(2), 181–184 (1998).
- 55 Klinman DM, Barnhart KM, Conover J. CpG motifs as immune adjuvants. *Vaccine* 17(1), 19–25 (1999).
- 56 Kovarik J, Bozzotti P, Love-Homan L *et al.* CpG oligodeoxynucleotides can circumvent the Th2 polarization of neonatal responses to vaccines but may fail to fully redirect Th2 responses established by neonatal priming. *J. Immunol.* 162(3), 1611–1617 (1999).
- 57 McCluskie MJ, Davis HL. CpG DNA is a potent enhancer of systemic and mucosal immune responses against hepatitis B surface antigen with intranasal administration to mice. *J. Immunol.* 161(9), 4463–4466 (1998).
- 58 Moldoveanu Z, Love-Homan L, Huang WQ, Krieg AM. CpG DNA, a novel immune enhancer for systemic and mucosal immunization with influenza virus. *Vaccine* 16(11–12), 1216–1224 (1998).
- 59 McCluskie MJ, Weeratna RD, Krieg AM, Davis HL. CpG DNA is an effective oral adjuvant to protein antigens in mice. *Vaccine* 19(7–8), 950–957 (2000).
- 60 Weeratna RD, Brazolot Millan CL, McCluskie MJ, Davis HL. CpG ODN can re-direct the Th bias of established Th2 immune responses in adult and young mice. *FEMS Immunol. Med. Microbiol.* 32(1), 65–71 (2001).

- 61 Yi AK, Yoon JG, Yeo SJ, Hong SC, English BK, Krieg AM. Role of mitogen-activated protein kinases in CpG DNA-mediated IL-10 and IL-12 production: central role of extracellular signal-regulated kinase in the negative feedback loop of the CpG DNA-mediated Th1 response. *J. Immunol.* 168(9), 4711–4720 (2002).
- 62 Boyaka PN, Tafaro A, Fischer R, Leppla SH, Fujihashi K, McGhee JR. Effective mucosal immunity to anthrax: neutralizing antibodies and Th cell responses following nasal immunization with protective antigen. *J. Immunol.* 170(11), 5636–5643 (2003).
- 63 Brasel K, McKenna HJ, Morrissey PJ *et al.* Hematologic effects of flt3 ligand *in vivo* in mice. *Blood* 88, 2004–2012 (1996).
- 64 Maraskovsky E, Brasel K, Teepe M *et al.* Dramatic increase in the numbers of functionally mature dendritic cells in Flt3 ligand-treated mice: multiple dendritic cell subpopulations identified. *J. Exp. Med.* 184, 1953–1962 (1996).
- 65 Lyman SD, James L, Johnson L *et al.* Cloning of the human homologue of the murine flt3 ligand: a growth factor for early hematopoietic progenitor cells. *Blood* 83(10), 2795–2801 (1994).
- 66 Pulendran B, Banchereau J, Burkeholder S *et al.* Flt3-ligand and granulocyte colony-stimulating factor mobilize distinct human dendritic cell subsets *in vivo*. *J. Immunol.* 165(1), 566–572 (2000).
- 67 Robinson S, Mosley RL, Parajuli P *et al.* Comparison of the hematopoietic activity of flt-3 ligand and granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor acting alone or in combination. *J. Hematother. Stem Cell Res.* 9(5), 711–720 (2000).
- 68 Small D, Levenstein M, Kim E *et al.* STK-1, the human homolog of Flk-2/Flt-3, is selectively expressed in CD34⁺ human bone marrow cells and is involved in the proliferation of early progenitor/stem cells. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA* 91(2), 459–463 (1994).
- 69 Lyman SD, James L, Vanden Bos T *et al.* Molecular cloning of a ligand for the flt3/flk-2 tyrosine kinase receptor: a proliferative factor for primitive hematopoietic cells. *Cell* 75(6), 1157–1167 (1993).
- 70 Viney JL, Mowat AM, O'Malley JM, Williamson E, Fanger NA. Expanding dendritic cells *in vivo* enhances the induction of oral tolerance. *J. Immunol.* 160, 5815–5825 (1998).
- 71 Williamson E, Westrich GM, Viney JL. Modulating dendritic cells to optimize mucosal immunization protocols. *J. Immunol.* 163, 3668–3675 (1999).
- 72 Pisarev VM, Parajuli P, Mosley RL *et al.* Flt3 ligand enhances the immunogenicity of a gag-based HIV-1 vaccine. *Int. J. Immunopharmacol.* 22(11), 865–876 (2000).
- 73 Baca-Estrada ME, Ewen C, Mahony D, Babiuk LA, Wilkie D, Foldvari M. The haemopoietic growth factor, Flt3L, alters the immune response induced by transcutaneous immunization. *Immunology* 107, 69–76 (2002).
- 74 Hung CF, Hsu KF, Cheng WF *et al.* Enhancement of DNA vaccine potency by linkage of antigen gene to a gene encoding the extracellular domain of Fms-like tyrosine kinase 3-ligand. *Cancer Res.* 61, 1080–1088 (2001).
- 75 Moore AC, Kong WP, Chakrabarti BK, Nabel GJ. Effects of antigen and genetic adjuvants on immune responses to human immunodeficiency virus DNA vaccines in mice. *J. Virol.* 76, 243–250 (2002).
- 76 Esche C, Subbotin VM, Maliszewski C, Lotze MT, Shurin MR. FLT3 ligand administration inhibits tumor growth in murine melanoma and lymphoma. *Cancer Res.* 58(3), 380–383 (1998).
- 77 Lynch DH, Andreasen A, Maraskovsky E, Whitmore J, Miller RE, Schuh JC. Flt3 ligand induces tumor regression and antitumor immune responses *in vivo*. *Nat. Med.* 3(6), 625–631 (1997).
- 78 Pulendran B, Smith JL, Caspary G *et al.* Distinct dendritic cell subsets differentially regulate the class of immune response *in vivo*. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA* 96(3), 1036–1041 (1999).
- 79 Vollstedt S, Franchini M, Hefti HP *et al.* Flt3 ligand-treated neonatal mice have increased innate immunity against intracellular pathogens and efficiently control virus infections. *J. Exp. Med.* 197(5), 575–584 (2003).
- 80 Kataoka K, McGhee JR, Kobayashi R, Fujihashi K, Shizukuishi S, Fujihashi K. Nasal Flt3 ligand cDNA elicits CD11c⁺CD8⁺ dendritic cells for enhanced mucosal immunity. *J. Immunol.* 172(6), 3612–3619 (2004).
- 81 Sekine S, Kataoka K, Fukuyama Y *et al.* A novel adenovirus expressing flt3 ligand enhances mucosal immunity by inducing mature nasopharyngeal-associated lymphoreticular tissue dendritic cell migration. *J. Immunol.* 180(12), 8126–8134 (2008).
- 82 Fukuiwa T, Sekine S, Kobayashi R *et al.* A combination of Flt3 ligand cDNA and CpG ODN as nasal adjuvant elicits NALT dendritic cells for prolonged mucosal immunity. *Vaccine* 26(37), 4849–4859 (2008).
- 83 Fukuyama Y, King JD, Kataoka K *et al.* A combination of Flt3 ligand cDNA and CpG oligodeoxynucleotide as nasal adjuvant elicits protective secretory-IgA immunity to *Streptococcus pneumoniae* in aged mice. *J. Immunol.* 186(4), 2454–2461 (2011).
- 84 Bockman DE, Cooper MD. Pinocytosis by epithelium associated with lymphoid follicles in the bursa of Fabricius, appendix, and Peyer's patches. An electron microscopic study. *Am. J. Anat.* 136(4), 455–477 (1973).
- 85 Farstad IN, Halstensen TS, Fausa O, Brandtzaeg P. Heterogeneity of M-cell-associated B and T cells in human Peyer's patches. *Immunology* 83(3), 457–464 (1994).
- 86 Gebert A, Rothkotter HJ, Pabst R. M cells in Peyer's patches of the intestine. *Int. Rev. Cytol.* 167, 91–159 (1996).
- 87 Neutra MR, Frey A, Kraehenbuhl JP. Epithelial M cells, gateways for mucosal infection and immunization. *Cell* 86(3), 345–348 (1996).
- **Focuses on M cells in the mucosal immune system.**
- 88 Owen RL, Jones AL. Epithelial cell specialization within human Peyer's patches: an ultrastructural study of intestinal lymphoid follicles. *Gastroenterology* 66(2), 189–203 (1974).
- 89 Wolf JL, Bye WA. The membranous epithelial (M) cell and the mucosal immune system. *Annu. Rev. Med.* 35, 95–112 (1984).
- **Focuses on M cells in the mucosal immune system.**
- 90 Ermak TH, Dougherty EP, Bhagat HR, Kabok Z, Pappo J. Uptake and transport of copolymer biodegradable microspheres by rabbit Peyer's patch M cells. *Cell Tissue Res.* 279(2), 433–436 (1995).
- 91 Allan CH, Mendrick DL, Trier JS. Rat intestinal M cells contain acidic endosomal-lysosomal compartments and express class II major histocompatibility complex determinants. *Gastroenterology* 104(3), 698–708 (1993).
- 92 Jones BD, Ghori N, Falkow S. *Salmonella typhimurium* initiates murine infection by penetrating and destroying the specialized

- epithelial M cells of the Peyer's patches. *J. Exp. Med.* 180(1), 15–23 (1994).
- 93 Teitelbaum R, Schubert W, Gunther L *et al.* The M cell as a portal of entry to the lung for the bacterial pathogen *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*. *Immunity* 10(6), 641–650 (1999).
- 94 Jang, MH, Kweon MN, Iwatani K *et al.* Intestinal villous M cells: an antigen entry site in the mucosal epithelium. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA* 101(16), 6110–6115 (2004).
- 95 Yamamoto M, Rennert P, McGhee JR *et al.* Alternate mucosal immune system: organized Peyer's patches are not required for IgA responses in the gastrointestinal tract. *J. Immunol.* 164(10), 5184–5189 (2000).
- 96 Wolf JL, Rubin DH, Finberg R *et al.* Intestinal M cells: a pathway for entry of reovirus into the host. *Science* 212(4493), 471–472 (1981).
- 97 Nibert ML, Furlong DB, Fields BN. Mechanisms of viral pathogenesis. Distinct forms of reoviruses and their roles during replication in cells and host. *J. Clin. Invest.* 88(3), 727–734 (1991).
- 98 Wu Y, Boysun MJ, Csencsits KL, Pascual DW. Gene transfer facilitated by a cellular targeting molecule, reovirus protein $\sigma 1$. *Gene Ther.* 7(1), 61–69 (2000).
- 99 Wu Y, Wang X, Csencsits KL, Haddad A, Walters N, Pascual DW. M cell-targeted DNA vaccination. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA* 98(16), 9318–9323 (2001).
- 100 Nochi T, Yuki Y, Matsumura A *et al.* A novel M cell-specific carbohydrate-targeted mucosal vaccine effectively induces antigen-specific immune responses. *J. Exp. Med.* 204(12), 2789–2796 (2007).
- 101 Kim SH, Seo KW, Kim J, Lee KY, Jang YS. The M cell-targeting ligand promotes antigen delivery and induces antigen-specific immune responses in mucosal vaccination. *J. Immunol.* 185(10), 5787–5795 (2010).
- 102 Rynda A, Maddaloni M, Mierzejewska D *et al.* Low-dose tolerance is mediated by the microfold cell ligand, reovirus protein $\sigma 1$. *J. Immunol.* 180(8), 5187–5200 (2008).
- 103 Suzuki H, Sekine S, Kataoka K *et al.* Ovalbumin-protein $\sigma 1$ M-cell targeting facilitates oral tolerance with reduction of antigen-specific CD4⁺ T cells. *Gastroenterology* 135(3), 917–925 (2008).
- 104 Arakawa T, Chong DK, Langridge WH. Efficacy of a food plant-based oral cholera toxin B subunit vaccine. *Nat. Biotechnol.* 16(3), 292–297 (1998).
- 105 Haq TA, Mason HS, Clements JD, Arntzen CJ. Oral immunization with a recombinant bacterial antigen produced in transgenic plants. *Science* 268, 714–716 (1995).
- 106 Mason HS, Ball JM, Shi JJ, Jiang X, Estes MK, Arntzen CJ. Expression of Norwalk virus capsid protein in transgenic tobacco and potato and its oral immunogenicity in mice. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA* 93(11), 5335–5340 (1996).
- 107 Mason HS, Haq TA, Clements JD, Arntzen CJ. Edible vaccine protects mice against *Escherichia coli* heat-labile enterotoxin (LT): potatoes expressing a synthetic LT-B gene. *Vaccine* 16(13), 1336–1343 (1998).
- 108 Richter LJ, Thanavala Y, Arntzen CJ, Mason HS. Production of hepatitis B surface antigen in transgenic plants for oral immunization. *Nat. Biotechnol.* 18(11), 1167–1171 (2000).
- 109 Sandhu JS, Krasnyanski SF, Domier LL, Korban SS, Osadjan MD, Buetow DE. Oral immunization of mice with transgenic tomato fruit expressing respiratory syncytial virus-F protein induces a systemic immune response. *Transgenic Res.* 9(2), 127–135 (2000).
- 110 Streatfield SJ, Jilka JM, Hood EE *et al.* Plant-based vaccines: unique advantages. *Vaccine* 19(17–19), 2742–2748 (2001).
- 111 Tacket CO, Mason HS, Losonsky G, Clements JD, Levine MM, Arntzen CJ. Immunogenicity in humans of a recombinant bacterial antigen delivered in a transgenic potato. *Nat. Med.* 4(5), 607–609 (1998).
- 112 Nochi T, Takagi H, Yuki Y *et al.* Rice-based mucosal vaccine as a global strategy for cold-chain- and needle-free vaccination. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA* 104(26), 10986–10991 (2007).
- 113 Tokuhara D, Yuki Y, Nochi T *et al.* Secretory IgA-mediated protection against *V. cholerae* and heat-labile enterotoxin-producing enterotoxigenic *Escherichia coli* by rice-based vaccine. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA* 107(19), 8794–8799 (2010).
- 114 Nochi T, Yuki Y, Katakai Y *et al.* A rice-based oral cholera vaccine induces macaque-specific systemic neutralizing antibodies but does not influence pre-existing intestinal immunity. *J. Immunol.* 183(10), 6538–6544 (2009).
- 115 Yuki Y, Tokuhara D, Nochi T *et al.* Oral MucoRice expressing double-mutant cholera toxin A and B subunits induces toxin-specific neutralising immunity. *Vaccine* 27(43), 5982–5988 (2009).
- 116 de Haan A, Geerligts HJ, Huchshorn JP, van Scharrenburg GJ, Palache AM, Wilschut J. Mucosal immunoadjuvant activity of liposomes, induction of systemic IgG and secretory IgA responses in mice by intranasal immunization with an influenza subunit vaccine and coadministered liposomes. *Vaccine* 13(2), 155–162 (1995).
- 117 de Haan A, Tomee JF, Huchshorn JP, Wilschut J. Liposomes as an immunoadjuvant system for stimulation of mucosal and systemic antibody responses against inactivated measles virus administered intranasally to mice. *Vaccine* 13(14), 1320–1324 (1995).
- 118 Ernst WA, Kim HJ, Tumpey TM *et al.* Protection against H1, H5, H6 and H9 influenza A infection with liposomal matrix 2 epitope vaccines. *Vaccine* 24(24), 5158–5168 (2006).
- 119 Hasegawa H, Ichinohe T, Strong P *et al.* Protection against influenza virus infection by intranasal administration of hemagglutinin vaccine with chitin microparticles as an adjuvant. *J. Med. Virol.* 75(1), 130–136 (2005).
- 120 Marinaro M, Boyaka PN, Finkelman FD *et al.* Oral but not parenteral interleukin (IL)-12 redirects T helper 2 (Th2)-type responses to an oral vaccine without altering mucosal IgA responses. *J. Exp. Med.* 185(3), 415–427 (1997).
- 121 Reddy ST, Swartz MA, Hubbell JA. Targeting dendritic cells with biomaterials, developing the next generation of vaccines. *Trends Immunol.* 27(12), 573–579 (2006).
- Describes general features of dendritic cells in the innate and acquired immune systems.
- 122 Sharma S, Mukkur TK, Benson HA, Chen Y. Pharmaceutical aspects of intranasal delivery of vaccines using particulate systems. *J. Pharm. Sci.* 98(3), 812–843 (2009).
- 123 Zurbriggen R, Gluck R. Immunogenicity of IRIV- versus alum-adsorbed diphtheria and tetanus toxoid vaccines in influenza primed mice. *Vaccine* 17(11–12), 1301–1305 (1999).
- 124 Alving CR. Immunologic aspects of liposomes: presentation and processing of liposomal protein and phospholipid antigens. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 1113(3–4), 307–322 (1992).
- 125 Brochu H, Polidori A, Pucci B, Vermette P. Drug delivery systems using immobilized intact liposomes: a comparative and critical review. *Curr. Drug Deliv.* 1(3), 299–312 (2004).

- 126 Gregoriadis, G. Immunological adjuvants: a role for liposomes. *Immunol. Today* 11(3), 89–97 (1990).
- 127 Amidi M, Romeijn SG, Verhoef JC *et al.* N-trimethyl chitosan (TMC) nanoparticles loaded with influenza subunit antigen for intranasal vaccination: biological properties and immunogenicity in a mouse model. *Vaccine* 25(1), 144–153 (2007).
- 128 Gilmore JL, Yi X, Quan L, Kabanov AV. Novel nanomaterials for clinical neuroscience. *J. Neuroimmune Pharmacol.* 3(2), 83–94 (2008).
- 129 Kageyama S, Kitano S, Hirayama M *et al.* Humoral immune responses in patients vaccinated with 1-146 HER2 protein complexed with cholesteryl pullulan nanogel. *Cancer Sci.* 99(3), 601–607 (2008).
- 130 Nomura Y, Ikeda M, Yamaguchi N, Aoyama Y, Akiyoshi K. Protein refolding assisted by self-assembled nanogels as novel artificial molecular chaperone. *FEBS Lett.* 553(3), 271–276 (2003).
- 131 Nochi T, Yuki Y, Takahashi H *et al.* Nanogel antigenic protein-delivery system for adjuvant-free intranasal vaccines. *Nat. Mater.* 9(7), 572–578 (2010).
- 132 Lehner T. Innate and adaptive mucosal immunity in protection against HIV infection. *Vaccine* 21 (Suppl. 2), S68–S76 (2003).
- 133 Lehner T, Wang Y, Whittall T, Seidl T. Innate immunity and HIV-1 infection. *Adv. Dent. Res.* 23(1), 19–22 (2011).
- 134 Tengvall S, Lundqvist A, Eisenberg RJ, Cohen GH, Harandi AM. Mucosal administration of CpG oligodeoxynucleotide elicits strong CC and CXC chemokine responses in the vagina and serves as a potent Th1-tilting adjuvant for recombinant gD2 protein vaccination against genital herpes. *J. Virol.* 80(11), 5283–5291 (2006).
- 135 Tengvall S, O'Hagan D, Harandi AM. Rectal immunization generates protective immunity in the female genital tract against herpes simplex virus type 2 infection: relative importance of myeloid differentiation factor 88. *Antiviral Res.* 78(3), 202–214 (2008).
- 136 Mowat AM, Faria AM, Weiner HL. Oral tolerance: physiological basis and clinical applications. In: *Mucosal Immunology*. Mestecky J, Lamm ME, Strober W, Bienenstock J, McGhee JR, Mayer L (Eds.). Elsevier/Academic Press, CA, USA, 487–537 (2004).
- 137 Frati F, Moingeon P, Marcucci F *et al.* Mucosal immunization application to allergic disease: sublingual immunotherapy. *Allergy Asthma Proc.* 28(1), 35–39 (2007).
- 138 Moingeon P, Batard T, Fadel R, Frati F, Sieber J, Van Overtvelt L. Immune mechanisms of allergen-specific sublingual immunotherapy. *Allergy* 61(2), 151–165 (2006).
- 139 Sun JB, Czerkinsky C, Holmgren J. Sublingual 'oral tolerance' induction with antigen conjugated to cholera toxin B subunit generates regulatory T cells that induce apoptosis and depletion of effector T cells. *Scand. J. Immunol.* 66(2–3), 278–286 (2007).
- 140 Sun JB, Raghavan S, Sjoling A, Lundin S, Holmgren J. Oral tolerance induction with antigen conjugated to cholera toxin B subunit generates both Foxp3⁺CD25⁺ and Foxp3⁺CD25⁺CD4⁺ regulatory T cells. *J. Immunol.* 177(11), 7634–7644 (2006).
- 141 Hagiwara Y, Kawamura YI, Kataoka K *et al.* A second generation of double mutant cholera toxin adjuvants: enhanced immunity without intracellular trafficking. *J. Immunol.* 177(5), 3045–3054 (2006).
- 142 van Ginkel FW, Jackson RJ, Yoshino N *et al.* Enterotoxin-based mucosal adjuvants alter antigen trafficking and induce inflammatory responses in the nasal tract. *Infect. Immun.* 73(10), 6892–6902 (2005).
- 143 van Ginkel FW, Jackson RJ, Yuki Y, McGhee JR. Cutting edge: the mucosal adjuvant cholera toxin redirects vaccine proteins into olfactory tissues. *J. Immunol.* 165(9), 4778–4782 (2000).
- 144 van Ginkel FW, McGhee JR, Watt JM, Campos-Torres A, Parish LA, Briles DE. Pneumococcal carriage results in ganglioside-mediated olfactory tissue infection. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA* 100(24), 14363–14367 (2003).
- 145 Yoshino N, Lu FX, Fujihashi K *et al.* A novel adjuvant for mucosal immunity to HIV-1 gp120 in nonhuman primates. *J. Immunol.* 173(11), 6850–6857 (2004).
- 146 BenMohamed L, Belkaid Y, Loing E, Brahimi K, Gras-Masse H, Druilhe P. Systemic immune responses induced by mucosal administration of lipopeptides without adjuvant. *Eur. J. Immunol.* 32(8), 2274–2281 (2002).
- 147 McCluskie MJ, Brazolot Millan CL, Gramzinski RA *et al.* Route and method of delivery of DNA vaccine influence immune responses in mice and non-human primates. *Mol. Med.* 5(5), 287–300 (1999).
- 148 Montgomery PC, Rafferty DE. Induction of secretory and serum antibody responses following oral administration of antigen with bioadhesive degradable starch microparticles. *Oral Microbiol. Immunol.* 13(3), 139–149 (1998).
- 149 Song, JH, Kim JI, Kwon HJ *et al.* CCR7-CCL19/CCL21-regulated dendritic cells are responsible for effectiveness of sublingual vaccination. *J. Immunol.* 182(11), 6851–6860 (2009).
- 150 Song JH, Nguyen HH, Cuburu N *et al.* Sublingual vaccination with influenza virus protects mice against lethal viral infection. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA* 105(5), 1644–1649 (2008).
- 151 Zhang T, Hashizume T, Kurita-Ochiai T, Yamamoto M. Sublingual vaccination with outer membrane protein of *Porphyromonas gingivalis* and Flt3 ligand elicits protective immunity in the oral cavity. *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.* 390(3), 937–941 (2009).
- 152 Knop E, Knop N. Lacrimal drainage-associated lymphoid tissue (LDALT): a part of the human mucosal immune system. *Invest. Ophthalmol. Vis. Sci.* 42(3), 566–574 (2001).
- 153 Knop N, Knop E. Conjunctiva-associated lymphoid tissue in the human eye. *Invest. Ophthalmol. Vis. Sci.* 41(6), 1270–1209 (2000).
- 154 Cain C, Phillips TE. Developmental changes in conjunctiva-associated lymphoid tissue of the rabbit. *Invest. Ophthalmol. Vis. Sci.* 49(2), 644–649 (2008).
- 155 Chodosh J, Nordquist RE, Kennedy RC. Comparative anatomy of mammalian conjunctival lymphoid tissue: a putative mucosal immune site. *Dev. Comp. Immunol.* 22(5–6), 621–630 (1998).
- 156 Giuliano EA, Moore CP, Phillips TE. Morphological evidence of M cells in healthy canine conjunctiva-associated lymphoid tissue. *Graefes Arch. Clin. Exp. Ophthalmol.* 240(3), 220–226 (2002).
- 157 Gomes JA, Jindal VK, Gormley PD, Dua HS. Phenotypic analysis of resident lymphoid cells in the conjunctiva and adnexal tissues of rat. *Exp. Eye Res.* 64(6), 991–997 (1997).
- 158 Knop N, Knop E. Ultrastructural anatomy of CALT follicles in the rabbit reveals characteristics of M-cells, germinal centres and high endothelial venules. *J. Anat.* 207(4), 409–426 (2005).



RESEARCH

Open Access

Potency of a vaccine prepared from A/swine/Hokkaido/2/1981 (H1N1) against A/Narita/1/2009 (H1N1) pandemic influenza virus strain

Masatoshi Okamatsu¹, Yoshihiro Sakoda¹, Takahiro Hiono¹, Naoki Yamamoto¹ and Hiroshi Kida^{1,2*}

Abstract

Background: The pandemic 2009 (H1N1) influenza virus has spread throughout the world and is now causing seasonal influenza. To prepare for the emergence of pandemic influenza, we have established a library of virus strains isolated from birds, pigs, and humans in global surveillance studies.

Methods: Inactivated whole virus particle (WV) and ether-split (ES) vaccines were prepared from an influenza virus strain, A/swine/Hokkaido/2/1981 (H1N1), from the library and from A/Narita/1/2009 (H1N1) pandemic strain. Each of the vaccines was injected subcutaneously into mice and their potencies were evaluated by challenge with A/Narita/1/2009 (H1N1) virus strain in mice.

Results: A/swine/Hokkaido/2/81 (H1N1), which was isolated from the lung of a diseased piglet, was selected on the basis of their antigenicity and growth capacity in embryonated chicken eggs. Two injections of the WV vaccine induced an immune response in mice, decreasing the impact of disease caused by the challenge with A/Narita/1/2009 (H1N1), as did the vaccine prepared from the homologous strain.

Conclusion: The WV vaccine prepared from an influenza virus in the library is useful as an emergency vaccine in the early phase of pandemic influenza.

Keywords: Influenza A (H1N1)pdm, Vaccine, Swine influenza virus

Background

A pandemic influenza caused by swine-origin H1N1 virus appeared in Mexico in 2009 and spread throughout the world [1-3]. The pandemic virus isolates were antigenically similar to classical swine influenza viruses and distinct from H1N1 virus strains circulating in humans since 1977 [2,4]. A pandemic 2009 (H1N1) vaccine was produced and evaluated in clinical trials [5]. The production of a large amount of egg-produced pandemic 2009 (H1N1) vaccine was, however, limited due to its poor yield in chicken embryos [6], leading to a delay in the efficient control of the pandemic.

It was revealed that the H3 HA gene of A/Hong Kong/68 (H3N2) strain originated from that of isolates from

migratory ducks and that pigs served as a mixing vessel for the generation of reassortants with the precedent human H2N2 influenza virus [7-10]. To prepare for pandemic influenza, we have conducted a global surveillance of influenza in birds and mammals since 1977, and have established a vaccine strain library of influenza A viruses [11-15]. Their pathogenicity, antigenicity, genetic information, and yield in chicken embryos have been analyzed and the data are available at <http://virusdb.czc.hokudai.ac.jp/>.

In the present study, a vaccine strain against pandemic 2009 (H1N1) influenza was selected from 42 H1N1 influenza viruses in the virus library. The potency of inactivated whole virus particle (WV) and ether-split (ES) vaccines prepared from a virus strain in the library was evaluated.

* Correspondence: kida@vetmed.hokudai.ac.jp

¹Laboratory of Microbiology, Department of Disease Control, Graduate School of Veterinary Medicine, Hokkaido University, Kita 18 Nishi 9, Kita-ku, Sapporo 060-0818, Japan

²Research Center of Zoonosis Control, Hokkaido University, Sapporo 001-0020, Japan

Results

Antigenic analysis of H1N1 influenza viruses

Eighteen H1N1 influenza virus strains were selected from 42 strains in the library, showing good growth in embryonated chicken eggs (data not shown). The 18 virus strains were antigenically analyzed by hemagglutination-inhibition (HI) test with chicken antisera to H1N1 viruses isolated from birds, pigs and humans (Table 1). The pandemic strain, A/Narita/1/2009 (H1N1) (Narita/09), which was the first isolate in Japan in 2009, reacted with the antiserum to Sw/Hok/81 at a titer of 1:640, 8-fold lower than that to homologous virus. The antiserum to Narita/09 reacted with swine influenza viruses, especially the isolates in 1930–1981 at a titer of 1:1,280–2,560, which was 2- to 4-fold lower than that to homologous virus. These results indicate that the antigenicity of Narita/09 was to some extent related to those of H1N1 classical swine flu virus strains.

Genetic analyses of H1N1 viruses

Nucleotide sequences of the HA genes of the 18 H1N1 viruses were phylogenetically analyzed by the neighbor-joining method with those of other H1N1 strains, including

H1N1 viruses isolated from humans. Based on the results of phylogenetic analysis, H1 HA genes were grouped into human, swine, or avian origin clusters (Figure 1). Swine influenza viruses isolated in Japan during 1977–1981 were clustered with pandemic 2009 (H1N1) viruses. Identity of amino acid of HA between Sw/Hok/81 and Narita/09 was 89.9% and glycosylation sites of HA were not different.

Growth of H1N1 viruses in embryonated chicken eggs

The growth of 18 H1N1 viruses in embryonated chicken eggs was assessed. All the viruses replicated efficiently and had reached a plateau by 48 hours post-infection (p.i.). No significant difference in peak titers of vaccine candidates was detected (data not shown). Sw/Hok/81 showed the highest titer at 10^{8.3} plaque-forming units (PFU)/ml 48 hours p.i., which was 10 times higher than that of Narita/09 (10^{7.3} PFU/ml).

Potency test of the vaccine against H1N1 pandemic virus in mice

Four, 20, and 100 µg protein of WV or ES vaccines of Narita/09 and Sw/Hok/81, respectively, were subcutaneously

Table 1 The cross-reactivity of H1N1 viruses isolated from pigs, humans, and birds

Virusesa	HI titer of chicken antisera against representative H1 viruses					
	Narita/09	Sw/Iowa/15/30	Sw/Hok/81	PR/8/34	Hok/4/96	Dk/Mong/540/01
A/Narita/1/2009	5,120b	80	640	40	40	80
Swine isolates						
A/swine/Iowa/15/1930	1,280	1,280	2,560	20	80	640
A/swine/Niigata/1/1977	1,280	1,280	2,560	40	160	640
A/swine/Shimane/1/1978	2,560	1,280	5,120	40	160	640
A/swine/Shizuoka/1/1978	2,560	1,280	5,120	40	160	640
A/swine/Toyama/1/1978	2,560	1,280	5,120	40	160	640
A/swine/Kanagawa/1/1978	1,280	1,280	640	40	320	640
A/swine/Hokkaido/2/1981	1,280	1,280	5,120	80	80	640
A/swine/Miyagi/5/2003 (H1N2)	640	320	2,560	160	80	80
Human isolates						
A/PR/8/1934	20	40	40	2,560	160	20
A/Hokkaido/2/1996	320	80	80	160	5,120	320
A/Hokkaido/11/2002	160	80	80	320	5,120	80
Avian isolates						
A/duck/Miyagi/66/1977	160	80	80	40	40	640
A/swan/Hokkaido/55/1996	320	80	40	80	80	1,280
A/duck/Hokkaido/1130/2001	160	80	40	<20	<20	1,280
A/duck/Hokkaido/1203/2001	160	80	80	<20	<20	640
A/duck/Mongolia/540/2001	80	160	40	<20	20	1,280
A/duck/Hokkaido/83/2004	160	80	40	<20	<20	640
A/duck/Hokkaido/W73/2007	80	80	80	<20	<20	640

a: Subtype of viruses was H1N1 except for A/swine/Miyagi/5/2003 (H1N2).
 b: Homologous titer was shown in bold.

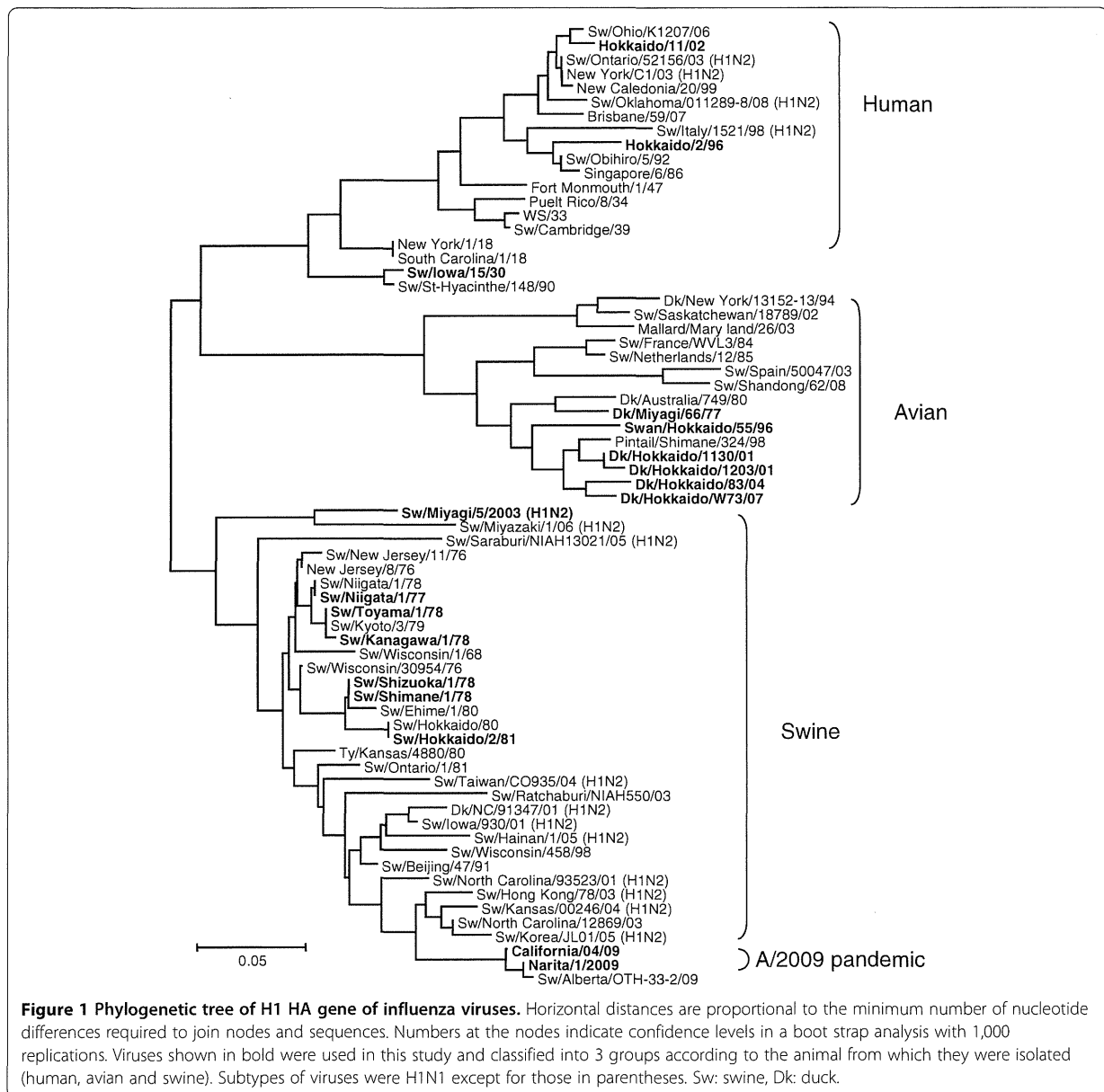


Figure 1 Phylogenetic tree of H1 HA gene of influenza viruses. Horizontal distances are proportional to the minimum number of nucleotide differences required to join nodes and sequences. Numbers at the nodes indicate confidence levels in a boot strap analysis with 1,000 replications. Viruses shown in bold were used in this study and classified into 3 groups according to the animal from which they were isolated (human, avian and swine). Subtypes of viruses were H1N1 except for those in parentheses. Sw: swine, Dk: duck.

injected once into 5 mice. The serum antibody titers of mice against the vaccine and challenge strains were examined (Table 2). The neutralization (NT) antibodies were induced by each vaccine in a dose-dependent manner. Serum NT antibodies induced by injection of WV or ES vaccine of Sw/Hok/81 were not detected with Narita/09.

To assess the potency of the vaccine against the challenge with pandemic 2009 (H1N1) virus, $10^{6.0}$ PFU of Narita/09 were intranasally inoculated into mice which were injected subcutaneously once with each of the test vaccines. The rate of weight loss of the mice after virus challenge is shown in Figure 2. The mice injected with Narita/09 or Sw/Hok/81 vaccines survived for 14 days,

although they showed some weight loss, while the non-vaccinated control mice showed significant weight loss and had died by day 14 after the challenge. In the mice injected with Narita/09 vaccine, no significant difference in weight loss was observed in the mice vaccinated with WV or ES vaccine. The mice injected with ES vaccine of Sw/Hok/81, however, showed significant weight loss compared with mice injected with WV vaccine. The rate of weight loss of mice injected with ES vaccine of Sw/Hok/81 correlated in a dose-dependent manner. The potency of vaccines was also evaluated by measuring the virus titer in the lower respiratory tract of mice (Table 2). The virus titers in the lungs were $10^{4.3}$ – $10^{4.7}$ PFU/g in mice injected with

Table 2 Neutralizing antibody titers of mice injected once with the vaccine and virus titers in the lungs after challenge

Strain	Vaccine		NT titer to		Virus titer in lungs, mean log PFU/g \pm Se ^a
	Protein, μ g	Formulation	Narita/09	Sw/Hok/81	
PBS	-	-	<10, <10, <10, <10, <10	<10, <10, <10, <10, <10	5.0 \pm 0.17
Narita/09	4	ES	<10, <10, <10, <10, <10	ND	4.6 \pm 0.10
	20	ES	<10, 20, 20, 20, 40	ND	4.6 \pm 0.12
	100	ES	20, 40, 80, 160, 160	ND	4.1 \pm 0.35
Narita/09	4	WV	40, 40, 40, 80, 160	ND	4.2 \pm 0.17
	20	WV	40, 80, 160, 160, 320	ND	3.9 \pm 0.25*
	100	WV	320, 320, 640, 1280, 1280	ND	2.4 \pm 0.50**
Sw/Hok/81	4	ES	<10, <10, <10, <10, <10	<10, <10, <10, 10, 10	4.6 \pm 0.04
	20	ES	<10, <10, <10, <10, <10	<10, 10, 10, 20, 80	4.4 \pm 0.02
	100	ES	<10, <10, <10, <10, <10	10, 20, 20, 40, 40	4.7 \pm 0.02
Sw/Hok/81	4	WV	<10, <10, <10, <10, <10	20, 40, 40, 40, 80	4.5 \pm 0.06
	20	WV	<10, <10, <10, <10, <10	20, 40, 80, 80, 80	4.4 \pm 0.04
	100	WV	<10, <10, <10, <10, <10	160, 160, 160, 160, 320	4.3 \pm 0.09

Mice were injected with each vaccine subcutaneously. Serum samples were collected 3 weeks after injection.

The animals were challenged by intranasal administration of 106.0 PFU of A/Narita/09.

At 3 days after challenge, lungs samples were collected and virus titers were measured. ES: ether split vaccine, WV: whole inactivated vaccine

a: Data are for 5 mice.

*: P<0.05, vs. virus titers in PBS group.

** : P<0.01, vs. virus titers in PBS group.

100, 20, and 4 μ g protein of each vaccine of Sw/Hok/81, and 10^{5.0} PFU/g in the non-vaccinated mice.

To improve the efficacy of the Sw/Hok/81 vaccine, WV or ES vaccine of Sw/Hok/81 was injected twice into mice. At 2 weeks p.i., the serum NT antibody titers of the mice injected with the vaccine were higher than that of mice injected once (Table 3). Although the challenge appeared to be less severe compared to first experiment (Figure 3), the virus titers of the lungs of the mice were similar to those of mice injected once with Narita/09 vaccine (Table 3). These results indicate that even if an antigenic difference was observed between vaccine and challenge strains, the WV vaccine induced immunity in mice, decreasing the impact of disease caused by the challenge strain.

Discussion

Vaccination is a measure to reduce the impact of influenza; however, it takes 6 months to prepare a vaccine [16]. Virus isolates from humans usually do not grow well in embryonated chicken eggs, which poses significant limitations for influenza vaccine production. Attempts to increase the yield of candidate vaccine strains have been made by multiple passages in eggs over time or genetic reassortment with a high growth laboratory strain [17,18]. To prepare for pandemic influenza, a virus library of non-pathogenic influenza A viruses with 144 combinations of 16 HA and 9 NA subtypes has been established [15]. In the present study, we selected vaccine strains from 18 H1N1 virus isolates from birds, pigs, and humans on the basis of their growth in embryonated chicken eggs and their antigenicity. Among

these viruses, the yield of Sw/Hok/81 in embryonated chicken eggs showed 10^{8.3} PFU/ml, which is higher than that of Narita/09 (10^{7.3} PFU/ml), indicating that a virus strain selected from the influenza virus library could be used for the vaccine strain.

The 1957 and 1968 pandemic influenza virus strains were reassortants of avian and human strains [19]. Kida *et al.* showed that viruses in pigs are in antigenically stasis, as are those in ducks, compared with influenza viruses in humans [9,10]. The present results of antigenic analysis of H1N1 viruses indicate that pandemic 2009 (H1N1) virus was antigenically similar to that of classical swine influenza viruses, not to that of human influenza viruses, as previously described by Garten *et al.* [2]. Although we cannot predict the subtype of the pandemic strain, the antigenicity of the virus is conserved in pigs or ducks. Thus, antigenically related strains isolated from natural hosts could be used for human pandemic influenza vaccines. In order to update the influenza virus library as a seed of vaccine strains, continuous surveillance of avian and swine influenza and the study of pathogenicity, antigenicity, genetic information, and yield in chicken embryo of virus strains are needed.

In the present study, to prepare for future pandemics, we evaluated the potency of a vaccine prepared from Sw/Hok/81 against the pandemic 2009 (H1N1) virus. It was revealed that mice injected with WV or ES vaccine prepared from Sw/Hok/81 induced immunity to suppress the disease manifestation after challenge with Narita/09, although an

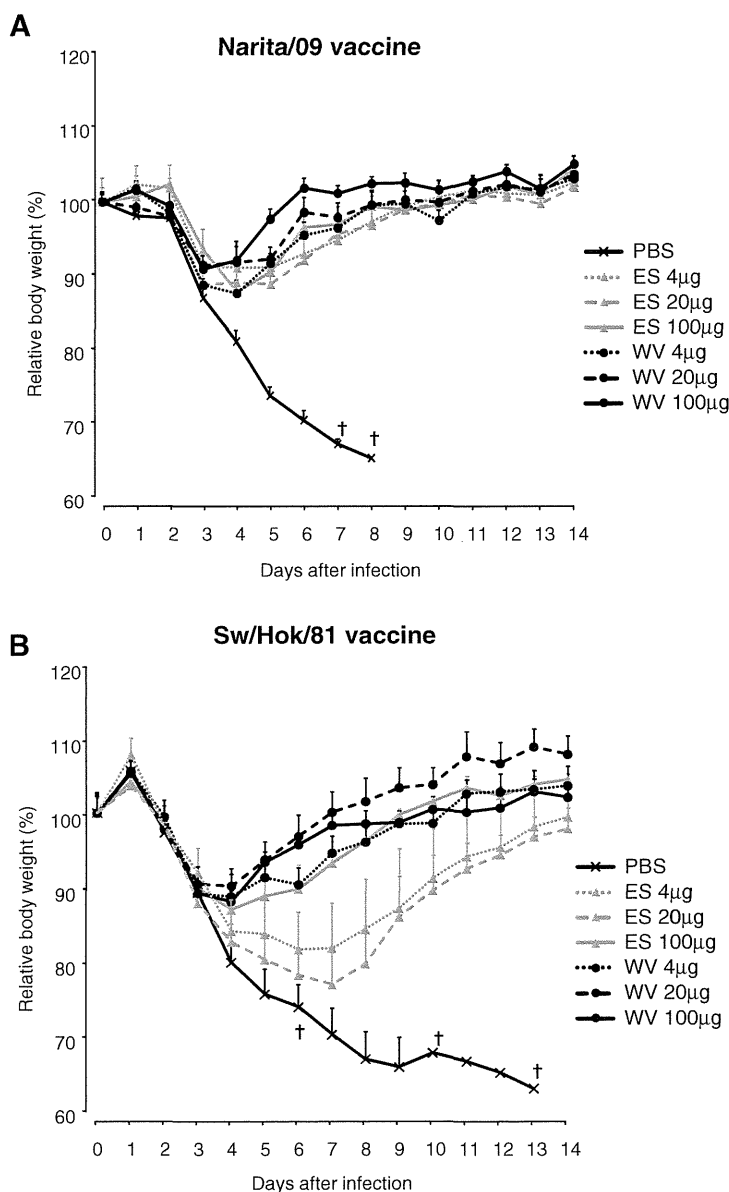


Figure 2 Changes in body weight of mice injected subcutaneously once with Narita/09 (A) or Sw/Hok/81 (B) vaccine after the challenge with Narita/09. Data are shown as mean body weight \pm standard error. ES: ether split, WV: whole inactivated. †: Mice died.

antigenic difference was observed in these viruses. WV vaccine induces higher immune responses after intramuscular immunization and is superior to ES and subunit vaccine in human populations [20,21]. The reason for these immune responses to WV vaccine is the stimulation of innate [22] and cell-mediated immune responses to internal viral proteins. Indeed, identity of NP protein between Sw/Hok/81 and Narita/09 were 96.9%. In the previous studies, WV vaccine prepared from a virus strain selected from the library also showed protective efficacy against H5 and H7 virus infection in chicken, mice and cynomolgus macaques

[23-28]. These results suggest that WV vaccine should work best in immunologically naive people in the early phase of a pandemic and two injections of the vaccine will be more effective even if the antigenicity of the pandemic strain is partially different from the vaccine strain.

Conclusion

The potency of the vaccine prepared from Sw/Hok/81 for the pandemic 2009 (H1N1) virus was evaluated. Mice injected once with WV vaccine prepared from Sw/Hok/81 induced immunity to suppress weight loss and virus growth

Table 3 Neutralizing antibody titers of mice injected twice with the vaccine and virus titers in the lungs after challenge

Strain	Vaccine		NT titer to		Virus titer in lungs, mean log PFU/g ± Se ^a
	Protein, µg	Formulation	Narita/09	Sw/Hok/81	
PBS	-	-	<10, <10, <10, <10, <10	<10, <10, <10, <10, <10	4.4±0.08
Sw/Hok/81	4.0	ES	<10, <10, <10, <10, <10	20, 40, 80, 160, 160	4.4±0.07
	20	ES	<10, <10, <10, <10, <10	80, 80, 160, 160, 160	4.2±0.19
	100	ES	<10, <10, <10, <10, <10	80, 80, 160, 320, 310	3.9±0.14*
Sw/Hok/81	4.0	WV	<10, <10, <10, <10, <10	160, 320, 320, 640, 640	4.2±0.11
	20	WV	<10, <10, <10, <10, <10	160, 320, 640, 640, 640	3.9±0.28
	100	WV	<10, 10, 40, 40, 160	160, 320, 640, 640, 640	2.9±0.30**

Mice were injected twice with each vaccine subcutaneously with a 2-week interval. Serum samples were collected 2 weeks after the final immunization. The animals were challenged by intranasal administration of 106.0 PFU of A/Narita/09.

At 3 days after challenge, lungs samples were collected and virus titers were measured. ES: ether split vaccine, WV: whole inactivated vaccine

a: Data are for 5 mice.

*: P<0.05, vs. virus titers in PBS group.

** : P<0.01, vs. virus titers in PBS group.

in the lungs after challenge with Narita/09. The suppression of virus recovery from lungs of mice injected twice with WV vaccine was similar to that in mice injected once with Narita/09 vaccine. These results suggest that WV vaccine should work best in immunologically naive people in the early phase of a pandemic, and two injections of the vaccine will be more effective if the antigenicity of the pandemic strain is partially different from the vaccine strain.

representative of 42 H1N1 virus strains in our virus library (<http://virusdb.czc.hokudai.ac.jp/>). Narita/09 was provided by the National Institute of Infectious Diseases (Tokyo, Japan). Viruses were propagated in 10-day-old embryonated chicken eggs at 35°C for 48 hours.

Madin-Darby canine kidney (MDCK) cells were maintained in minimum essential medium (Nissui, Japan) supplemented with calf serum and used for titration of viral infectivity.

Materials and methods

Viruses and cells

Eighteen H1N1 influenza viruses isolated from humans, pigs and wild birds were used in the present study as

Sequencing and phylogenetic analysis

Viral RNA was extracted with TRIzol LS reagent (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) from the allantoic fluid of chicken

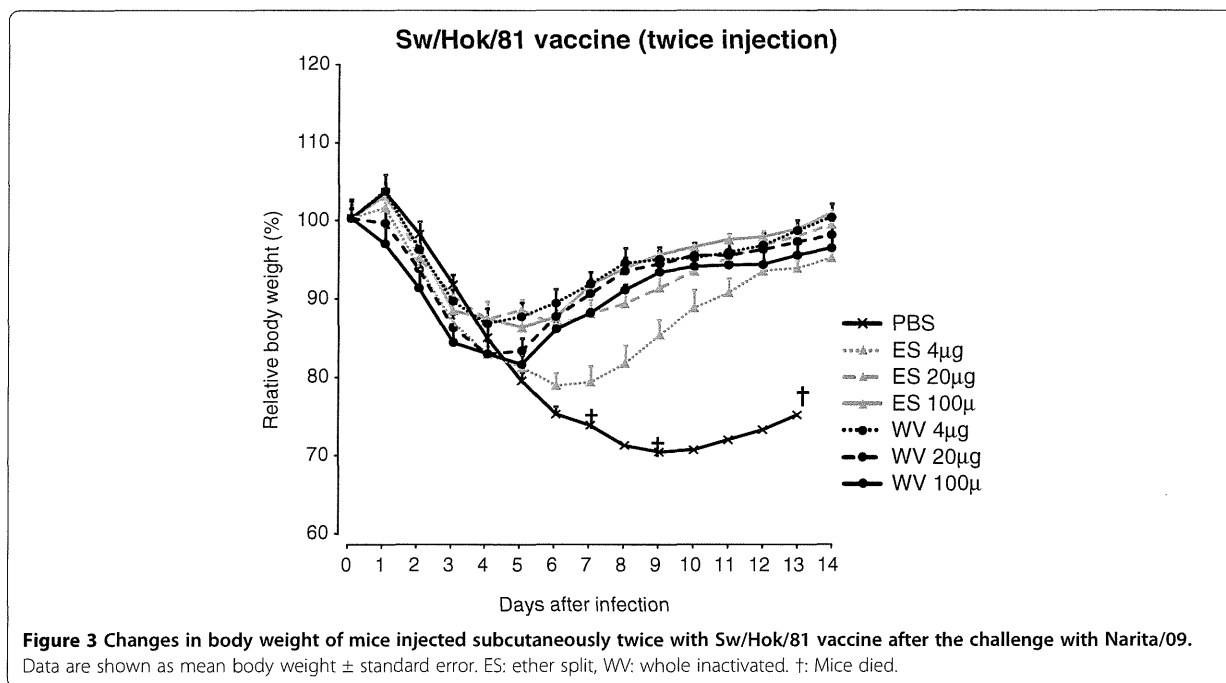


Figure 3 Changes in body weight of mice injected subcutaneously twice with Sw/Hok/81 vaccine after the challenge with Narita/09. Data are shown as mean body weight ± standard error. ES: ether split, WV: whole inactivated. †: Mice died.

embryos infected with the virus. Nucleotide sequences of all eight gene segments were determined after RT-PCR, as described previously [29]. The sequence data were analyzed using GENETYX ver. 9.1 (GENETYX Corporation, Tokyo, Japan). Phylogenetic analysis of the HA gene was performed by BioEdit ver. 7.0 and MEGA 5 by the neighbor-joining method with 1,000 bootstraps.

Serological tests

HI tests were performed by the microtiter method [30]. The HI titer was expressed as the reciprocal of the highest serum dilution showing complete inhibition of the hemagglutination of 4 HA units of the virus. In NT tests, titers were determined as the reciprocals of serum dilution of the complete inhibition of the cytopathic effect of 100 PFU of viruses using MDCK cells.

Viral growth in embryonated chicken eggs

Viruses of 100 50% egg infectious dose (EID₅₀) were inoculated into 10-day-old embryonated chicken eggs and incubated at 35°C for 48 hours. Allantoic fluid was harvested to determine viral titers at different time points (0, 12, 24, 48, and 72 hr). The PFU of each virus in the allantoic fluid was determined.

Vaccine preparation

To assess the potency of vaccines, inactivated WV vaccines of Sw/Hok/81 and Narita/09 were prepared as described previously [31]. ES vaccine of each strain was also prepared according to Kida *et al.* [32]. Briefly, purified viruses were disrupted with 0.1% Tween 80 and an equal volume of diethyl-ether for 30 min at room temperature. After centrifugation for 30 min at 6,000 g, the water phase was collected and ether dissolved in water was blown out with a stream of nitrogen.

Potency test of vaccine against Narita/09 in mice

WV or ES vaccines of each strain with 4, 20 and 100 µg protein were injected subcutaneously into ten 4-week-old female BALB/c mice (CLEA Japan Inc., Tokyo, Japan), respectively. PBS was injected into control mice. Three weeks after immunization, serum samples were collected and 30 µl of 10^{6.0} PFU of Narita/09 was intranasally inoculated into the mice under anesthesia. Three days after the challenge, five mice in each group were sacrificed and the lungs were collected. The virus titers in the lung homogenates were quantified by plaque assay of MDCK cells. Five other mice were observed for clinical signs and weight loss for 14 days. WV and ES vaccines of Sw/Hok/81 were also injected into mice twice with a 2-week interval. Two weeks after the final injection, the serum samples were collected and Narita/09 was inoculated into mice. Animal experiments were authorized by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of the Graduate School of Veterinary Medicine,

Hokkaido University (approved numbers: 9148 and 1052) and all experiments were performed according to the guidelines of this committee.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Authors' contributions

MO drafted the manuscript and prepared the vaccines used in the present study. MO, TH, NM carried out animal experiment. YS, and HK participated in the coordination of the study. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Acknowledgements

We would like to thank Miss M. Endo for providing technical support. We would also like to thank Dr. N. Isoda for invaluable advice. This work was supported in part by a grant from the Global Centers of Excellence Program and Program for Leading Graduate Schools from Japan Society for the Promotion of Science. The present work was also supported in part by the J-GRID; the Japan Initiative for Global Research Network on Infectious Diseases and Japan Science and Technology Agency Basic Research Programs.

Received: 23 August 2012 Accepted: 1 February 2013

Published: 6 February 2013

References

1. Dawood FS, Jain S, Finelli L, Shaw MW, Lindstrom S, Garten RJ, Gubareva LV, Xu X, Bridges CB, Uyeki TM: Emergence of a novel swine-origin influenza A (H1N1) virus in humans. *N Engl J Med* 2009, **360**:2605–2615.
2. Garten RJ, Davis CT, Russell CA, Shu B, Lindstrom S, Balish A, Sessions WM, Xu X, Skepner E, Deyde V, *et al*: Antigenic and genetic characteristics of swine-origin 2009 A(H1N1) influenza viruses circulating in humans. *Science* 2009, **325**:197–201.
3. Smith GJ, Vijaykrishna D, Bahl J, Lycett SJ, Worobey M, Pybus OG, Ma SK, Cheung CL, Raghvani J, Bhatt S, *et al*: Origins and evolutionary genomics of the 2009 swine-origin H1N1 influenza A epidemic. *Nature* 2009, **459**:1122–1125.
4. Hancock K, Veguilla V, Lu X, Zhong W, Butler EN, Sun H, Liu F, Dong L, DeVos JR, Gargiullo PM, *et al*: Cross-reactive antibody responses to the 2009 pandemic H1N1 influenza virus. *N Engl J Med* 2009, **361**:1945–1952.
5. Greenberg ME, Lai MH, Hartel GF, Wichems CH, Gittleson C, Bennet J, Dawson G, Hu W, Leggio C, Washington D, Bassler RL: Response to a monovalent 2009 influenza A (H1N1) vaccine. *N Engl J Med* 2009, **361**:2405–2413.
6. Wanitchang A, Kramyu J, Jongkaewwattana A: Enhancement of reverse genetics-derived swine-origin H1N1 influenza virus seed vaccine growth by inclusion of indigenous polymerase PB1 protein. *Virus Res* 2010, **147**:145–148.
7. Yasuda J, Shortridge KF, Shimizu Y, Kida H: Molecular evidence for a role of domestic ducks in the introduction of avian H3 influenza viruses to pigs in southern China, where the A/Hong Kong/68 (H3N2) strain emerged. *J Gen Virol* 1991, **72**(Pt 8):2007–2010.
8. Kida H, Ito T, Yasuda J, Shimizu Y, Itakura C, Shortridge KF, Kawaoka Y, Webster RG: Potential for transmission of avian influenza viruses to pigs. *J Gen Virol* 1994, **75**(Pt 9):2183–2188.
9. Kida H, Shortridge KF, Webster RG: Origin of the hemagglutinin gene of H3N2 influenza viruses from pigs in China. *Virology* 1988, **162**:160–166.
10. Kida H, Kawaoka Y, Naeve CW, Webster RG: Antigenic and genetic conservation of H3 influenza virus in wild ducks. *Virology* 1987, **159**:109–119.
11. Kida H, Yanagawa R: Isolation and characterization of influenza A viruses from wild free-flying ducks in Hokkaido, Japan. *Zentralbl Bakteriol Orig A* 1979, **244**:135–143.
12. Okazaki K, Takada A, Ito T, Imai M, Takakuwa H, Hatta M, Ozaki H, Tanizaki T, Nagano T, Ninomiya A, *et al*: Precursor genes of future pandemic influenza viruses are perpetuated in ducks nesting in Siberia. *Arch Virol* 2000, **145**:885–893.
13. Manzoor R, Sakoda Y, Mweene A, Tsuda Y, Kishida N, Bai GR, Kameyama K, Isoda N, Soda K, Naito M, Kida H: Phylogenetic analysis of the M genes of influenza viruses isolated from free-flying water birds from their Northern Territory to Hokkaido, Japan. *Virus Genes* 2008, **37**:144–152.

14. Kida H: Ecology of influenza viruses in nature, birds, and humans. *Global Environmental Research* 2008, **12**:9–14.
15. Kida H, Sakoda Y: Library of influenza virus strains for vaccine and diagnostic use against highly pathogenic avian influenza and human pandemics. *Dev Biol (Basel)* 2006, **124**:69–72.
16. Gerdil C: The annual production cycle for influenza vaccine. *Vaccine* 2003, **21**:1776–1779.
17. Lu B, Zhou H, Chan W, Kemble G, Jin H: Single amino acid substitutions in the hemagglutinin of influenza A/Singapore/21/04 (H3N2) increase virus growth in embryonated chicken eggs. *Vaccine* 2006, **24**:6691–6693.
18. Kodihalli S, Justewicz DM, Gubareva LV, Webster RG: Selection of a single amino acid substitution in the hemagglutinin molecule by chicken eggs can render influenza A virus (H3) candidate vaccine ineffective. *J Virol* 1995, **69**:4888–4897.
19. Webster RG, Bean WJ, Gorman OT, Chambers TM, Kawaoka Y: Evolution and ecology of influenza A viruses. *Microbiol Rev* 1992, **56**:152–179.
20. Hovden AO, Cox RJ, Haaheim LR: Whole influenza virus vaccine is more immunogenic than split influenza virus vaccine and induces primarily an IgG2a response in BALB/c mice. *Scand J Immunol* 2005, **62**:36–44.
21. Hagenaaers N, Mastrobattista E, Glansbeek H, Heldens J, van den Bosch H, Schijns V, Betbeder D, Vromans H, Jiskoot W: Head-to-head comparison of four nonadjuvanted inactivated cell culture-derived influenza vaccines: effect of composition, spatial organization and immunization route on the immunogenicity in a murine challenge model. *Vaccine* 2008, **26**:6555–6563.
22. Koyama S, Aoshi T, Tanimoto T, Kumagai Y, Kobiyama K, Tougan T, Sakurai K, Coban C, Horii T, Akira S, Ishii KJ: Plasmacytoid dendritic cells delineate immunogenicity of influenza vaccine subtypes. *Sci Transl Med* 2010, **2**:25ra24.
23. Itoh Y, Ozaki H, Tsuchiya H, Okamoto K, Torii R, Sakoda Y, Kawaoka Y, Ogasawara K, Kida H: A vaccine prepared from a non-pathogenic H5N1 avian influenza virus strain confers protective immunity against highly pathogenic avian influenza virus infection in cynomolgus macaques. *Vaccine* 2008, **26**:562–572.
24. Isoda N, Sakoda Y, Kishida N, Soda K, Sakabe S, Sakamoto R, Imamura T, Sakaguchi M, Sasaki T, Kokumai N, et al: Potency of an inactivated avian influenza vaccine prepared from a non-pathogenic H5N1 reassortant virus generated between isolates from migratory ducks in Asia. *Arch Virol* 2008, **153**:1685–1692.
25. Takada A, Kuboki N, Okazaki K, Ninomiya A, Tanaka H, Ozaki H, Itamura S, Nishimura H, Enami M, Tashiro M, et al: Avirulent Avian influenza virus as a vaccine strain against a potential human pandemic. *J Virol* 1999, **73**:8303–8307.
26. Sakabe S, Sakoda Y, Haraguchi Y, Isoda N, Soda K, Takakuwa H, Saijo K, Sawata A, Kume K, Hagiwara J, et al: A vaccine prepared from a non-pathogenic H7N7 virus isolated from natural reservoir conferred protective immunity against the challenge with lethal dose of highly pathogenic avian influenza virus in chickens. *Vaccine* 2008, **26**:2127–2134.
27. Kashima Y, Ikeda M, Itoh Y, Sakoda Y, Nagata T, Miyake T, Soda K, Ozaki H, Nakayama M, Shibuya H, et al: Intranasal administration of a live non-pathogenic avian H5N1 influenza virus from a virus library confers protective immunity against H5N1 highly pathogenic avian influenza virus infection in mice: comparison of formulations and administration routes of vaccines. *Vaccine* 2009, **27**:7402–7408.
28. Itoh Y, Ozaki H, Ishigaki H, Sakoda Y, Nagata T, Soda K, Isoda N, Miyake T, Ishida H, Okamoto K, et al: Subcutaneous inoculation of a whole virus particle vaccine prepared from a non-pathogenic virus library induces protective immunity against H7N7 highly pathogenic avian influenza virus in cynomolgus macaques. *Vaccine* 2010, **28**:780–789.
29. Manzoor R, Sakoda Y, Nomura N, Tsuda Y, Ozaki H, Okamatsu M, Kida H: PB2 protein of a highly pathogenic avian influenza virus strain A/chicken/Yamaguchi/7/2004 (H5N1) determines its replication potential in pigs. *J Virol* 2009, **83**:1572–1578.
30. Sever JL: Application of a microtechnique to viral serological investigations. *J Immunol* 1962, **88**:320–329.
31. Soda K, Ozaki H, Sakoda Y, Isoda N, Haraguchi Y, Sakabe S, Kuboki N, Kishida N, Takada A, Kida H: Antigenic and genetic analysis of H5 influenza viruses isolated from water birds for the purpose of vaccine use. *Arch Virol* 2008, **153**:2041–2048.
32. Kida H, Brown LE, Webster RG: Biological activity of monoclonal antibodies to operationally defined antigenic regions on the hemagglutinin molecule of A/Seal/Massachusetts/1/80 (H7N7) influenza virus. *Virology* 1982, **122**:38–47.

doi:10.1186/1743-422X-10-47

Cite this article as: Okamatsu et al.: Potency of a vaccine prepared from A/swine/Hokkaido/2/1981 (H1N1) against A/Narita/1/2009 (H1N1) pandemic influenza virus strain. *Virology Journal* 2013 **10**:47.

Submit your next manuscript to BioMed Central and take full advantage of:

- Convenient online submission
- Thorough peer review
- No space constraints or color figure charges
- Immediate publication on acceptance
- Inclusion in PubMed, CAS, Scopus and Google Scholar
- Research which is freely available for redistribution

Submit your manuscript at
www.biomedcentral.com/submit





ELSEVIER

Contents lists available at SciVerse ScienceDirect

Veterinary Microbiology

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/vetmic



Potency of an inactivated influenza vaccine prepared from a non-pathogenic H5N1 virus against a challenge with antigenically drifted highly pathogenic avian influenza viruses in chickens

Shintaro Shichinohe^a, Masatoshi Okamatsu^a, Naoki Yamamoto^a, Yu Noda^b, Yuka Nomoto^c, Takashi Honda^b, Noriyasu Takikawa^c, Yoshihiro Sakoda^a, Hiroshi Kida^{a,d,*}

^a Laboratory of Microbiology, Department of Disease Control, Graduate School of Veterinary Medicine, Hokkaido University, Sapporo, Hokkaido 060-0818, Japan

^b The Chemo-Sero-Therapeutic Research Institute, Kikuchi, Kumamoto 869-1298, Japan

^c Kitasato Daiichi Sankyo Vaccine Co., Ltd., Kitamoto, Saitama 364-0026, Japan

^d Research Center for Zoonosis Control, Hokkaido University, Sapporo, Hokkaido 001-0020, Japan

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 13 November 2012

Received in revised form 25 January 2013

Accepted 30 January 2013

Keywords:

Antigenicity

Chicken

H5N1

Highly pathogenic avian influenza virus

Vaccine

ABSTRACT

Antigenic variants of H5N1 highly pathogenic avian influenza virus (HPAIV) have selected and are prevailing in poultry populations in Asia. In the present study, the potency of inactivated influenza vaccine prepared from a non-pathogenic H5N1 avian influenza virus, A/duck/Hokkaido/Vac-3/2007 (H5N1), was assessed by challenging with H5N1 HPAIV variants, A/muscovy duck/Vietnam/OIE-559/2011 (H5N1), A/whooper swan/Hokkaido/4/2011 (H5N1), and A/peregrine falcon/Hong Kong/810/2009 (H5N1) belonging to clades 1, 2.3.2.1, and 2.3.4, respectively. All chickens immunized with the Vac-3 vaccine survived without showing any clinical signs after intranasal challenge either with A/whooper swan/Hokkaido/4/2011 (H5N1) or A/muscovy duck/Vietnam/OIE-559/2011 (H5N1). After challenge with A/peregrine falcon/Hong Kong/810/2009 (H5N1), 10 out of 12 vaccinated chickens survived and the other 2 died on 4 or 7 post-challenge days. The Vac-3 vaccine of 2.4-fold antigen concentration conferred complete protective immunity in chickens against challenge with A/peregrine falcon/Hong Kong/810/2009 (H5N1).

© 2013 Published by Elsevier B.V.

1. Introduction

Avian influenza caused by H5N1 highly pathogenic avian influenza virus (HPAIV) has spread in poultry in more than 60 countries in Eurasia and Africa since 1996, when

the first outbreak occurred at a goose farm in Guangdong province in China (Smith et al., 2006; Xu et al., 1999). In recent intensive surveillance studies in Asia, especially in China, genetically different viruses of clades 2.3.2, 2.3.4, and 7 were characterized as dominant isolates from poultry and wild birds (Kou et al., 2009; Smith et al., 2009; Jiang et al., 2010). In the updated grouping of H5 HPAIVs, it was reported that the clades of H5N1 viruses were divided into one or more newly defined second-, third-, and/or fourth-order clades, e.g. recent H5N1 isolates that had been categorized into clade 2.3.2 were defined as

* Corresponding author at: Laboratory of Microbiology, Department of Disease Control, Graduate School of Veterinary Medicine, Hokkaido University, Kita 18 Nishi 9, Kita-ku, Sapporo, Hokkaido 060-0818, Japan. Tel.: +81 11 706 5207; fax: +81 11 706 5273.
E-mail address: kida@vetmed.hokudai.ac.jp (H. Kida).

clade 2.3.2.1 (WHO/OIE/FAO H5N1 Evolution Working Group, 2012). In Japan, H5N1 HPAIVs belonging to clade 2.3.2.1 were isolated from dead whooper swans in 2008 (Uchida et al., 2008; Okamatsu et al., 2010), fecal samples of ducks that flew from Siberia in October 2010 (Kajihara et al., 2011), and from wild birds and domestic poultry in 2011 (Sakoda et al., 2012). Antigenicity of H5N1 HPAIVs belonging to clades 2.3.2.1 and 2.3.4 was distinct from that of other HPAIVs and non-pathogenic avian influenza viruses (Okamatsu et al., 2010; Smith et al., 2009), suggesting that antigenic variants of H5N1 HPAIV have been selected during circulation in poultry populations.

A reassortant influenza virus, A/duck/Hokkaido/Vac-1/2004 (H5N1) (Dk/Vac-1/04), was generated using two non-pathogenic avian influenza viruses, A/duck/Mongolia/54/2001 (H5N3) and A/duck/Mongolia/47/2001 (H7N1). Both viruses were isolated from fecal samples of migratory ducks (Soda et al., 2008b). Vac-1 vaccine prepared from Dk/Vac-1/04 conferred immunity to suppress the manifestation of clinical signs and the amount of virus shed in chickens after challenge with H5N1 HPAIVs belonging to clades 2.2 and 2.5 (Isoda et al., 2008). Vac-1 vaccine induced a high level of HI antibody response in chickens, lasting as long as 138 weeks after vaccination (Sasaki et al., 2009b). Vac-1 vaccine confers protective immunity against antigenically drifted H5N1 HPAIV, A/whooper swan/Hokkaido/1/2008 (H5N1) (Ws/Hok/08), belonging to clade 2.3.2.1 in chickens (Okamatsu et al., 2010).

In the present study, we prepared a vaccine from A/duck/Hokkaido/Vac-3/2007 (H5N1) (Dk/Vac-3/07), which is antigenically closely related with Dk/Vac-1/04, and growth potential in embryonated chicken eggs was higher than that of Dk/Vac-1/04 (Soda et al., 2008b). The potency of the Vac-3 vaccine was assessed by challenge with recently prevailing antigenic variant HPAIVs.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Viruses

Dk/Vac-3/07 was generated in our laboratory as a reassortant influenza virus between A/duck/Hokkaido/101/2004 (H5N3) and A/duck/Hokkaido/262/2004 (H6N1), isolated from fecal samples of migratory ducks (Soda et al., 2008b). The following HPAIV isolates were used: A/muscovy duck/Vietnam/OIE-559/2011 (H5N1) (Mdk/VN/11), was isolated from an apparently healthy muscovy duck in Viet Nam in 2011, A/whooper swan/Hokkaido/4/2011 (H5N1) (Ws/Hok/11), isolated from a dead whooper swan found on the waterside of lake Ohnuma in Hokkaido, Japan (Sakoda et al., 2012), and A/peregrine falcon/Hong Kong/810/2009 (H5N1) (Pf/HK/09) was kindly provided by Dr. Luk S. M. Geraldine, Tai Lung Veterinary Laboratory (Hong Kong SAR, China). All viruses used in the present study were propagated in 10-day-old embryonated chicken eggs at 35 °C for 30–48 h and infectious allantoic fluids were stored at –80 °C until use.

The complete nucleotide sequence of Dk/Vac-1/04 and Dk/Vac-3/07 have been registered in GenBank/EMBL/DDBJ (Accession numbers: AB259709–AB259716 and AB355926–AB355933, respectively) (Soda et al., 2008b). It is also

revealed that the all genes of Dk/Vac-1/04 were closely related to Dk/Vac-3/07 (98% similarity in HA gene, 97% similarity in NA gene, and more than 99% similarity in the other genes).

2.2. Generation of recombinant viruses

In addition to Dk/Vac-3/07, vaccine was prepared from attenuated Pf/HK/09. Viral RNA was extracted from the allantoic fluid of embryonated chicken eggs infected with Pf/HK/09 using a commercial kit (TRIzol LS Reagent, Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) and reverse transcribed with the Uni12 primer (Desselberger et al., 1980) and M-MLV Reverse Transcriptase (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA). PCR-based amplification of the full-length HA and NA gene segments was performed using universal primer sets (Hoffmann et al., 2001). The PCR products were inserted into the vector pHW2000 (Hoffmann et al., 2000) using an In-Fusion HD Cloning Kit (Takara Bio Inc., Otsu, Shiga, Japan). To generate a mutant virus with polybasic amino acid residue RRRK deletions at the HA cleavage site, amino acid mutation residue T (codon ACA) were substituted into the HA cleavage site of the Pf/HK/09 strains using a Quick Change II site-directed mutagenesis kit (Stratagene, La Jolla, CA, USA). Attenuated Pf/HK/09, Pf/mut (H5N1), was generated by reverse genetics methods according to Hoffmann et al. (2000). Pf/mut (H5N1) possesses the gene encoding the mutant HA of Pf/HK/09, in which polybasic amino acid at the cleavage site was deleted, NA of Pf/HK/09, and the backbone of Dk/Vac-1/04 internal genes. To confirm attenuation of Pf/mut (H5N1), the IVPI test was carried out according to the OIE (World Organization for Animal Health) manual (OIE, 2008).

2.3. Vaccine preparation

Vac-3 vaccine and Pf/mut vaccine were prepared from Dk/Vac-3/07 or Pf/mut (H5N1), respectively. Dk/Vac-3/07 or Pf/mut (H5N1) was inoculated into the allantoic cavity of 10-day-old embryonated chicken eggs and the eggs were then incubated at 35 °C for 48 h. After the allantoic fluid was harvested, formalin was added to a final concentration of 0.2%, and the mixture was incubated at 4 °C for 7 days to inactivate the viruses. Virus inactivation was confirmed by inoculation of the formalin-treated samples into embryonated chicken eggs. The inactivated Dk/Vac-3/07 and Pf/mut (H5N1) virus suspensions were concentrated by ultrafiltration using the Vivaflow 200 (Sartorius AG, Goettingen, Germany), then diluted with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS, pH7.2) to give the required hemagglutinin titer concentration. The inactivated viruses, light liquid paraffin, sorbitan monooleate, and polysorbate 80 were mixed in a volume ratio of 9:36:4:1 and then agitated to obtain emulsion. The Vac-3 vaccine of 2.4-fold antigen concentration was also prepared and designated as Vac-3 conc. vaccine. Vac-3 vaccine contains inactivated virus of 756 HA per dose and was prepared from the dilution of infectious allantoic fluid 1:1 with PBS, 378 HA per dose of Pf/mut vaccine at 1:1, and 1843 HA per dose of Vac-3 conc. vaccine at 2.4:1, respectively.

2.4. Antigenic analysis of the viruses

Polyclonal antisera were prepared from chickens immunized with inactivated Dk/Vac-3/07, A/chicken/Yamaguchi/7/2004 (H5N1) (Ck/Yamaguchi/04), A/whooper swan/Mongolia/3/2005 (H5N1) (Ws/Mon/05), Mdk/VN/11, Ws/Hok/11, or Pf/HK/09. Each virus inactivated with formalin was inoculated once or twice into the lower thigh muscle of chickens. Two weeks after the final immunization, serum was obtained from each vaccinated chicken and used for a hemagglutination-inhibition (HI) test to assess antigenic relationships among H5 influenza viruses. HI test was performed according to Isoda et al. (2008). The differences within 4-fold HI titers were determined as antigenically related, whereas over 4-fold determined as antigenically different.

The antigenic specificities of H5 viruses, Mdk/VN/11, Ws/Hok/11, and Pf/HK/09, were assessed by the fluorescent antibody method using monoclonal antibodies (MAb) to the HA according to the method of Soda et al. (2008a). MDCK cells infected with each of the H5 influenza virus were fixed with 100% acetone 8 h post-inoculation. Reactivity patterns of the H5 viruses with MAbs were investigated with FITC-conjugated goat anti-mouse IgG (ICN Biomedicals Inc., Irvine, CA, USA) using a fluorescent microscope (Axiovert 200; Carl Zeiss, Oberkochen, Germany).

2.5. Potency test of vaccines in chickens

One hundred and ten chickens (White leghorn) were hatched and raised in our laboratory. Half a milliliter of Vac-3 vaccine was injected into the lower thigh muscle of 54 four-week-old chickens. Three weeks later, 18 vaccinated and 4 non-vaccinated seven-week-old chickens in 3 groups were challenged intranasally with 100 50% chicken lethal dose (CLD₅₀) of Mdk/VN/11, Ws/Hok/11, or Pf/HK/09. One hundred times CLD₅₀ of Mdk/VN/11, Ws/Hok/11, and Pf/HK/09 was 10^{6.3}, 10^{5.7}, and 10^{5.5} 50% egg infectious dose (EID₅₀), respectively. Twelve out of 18 vaccinated chickens in each group were monitored for their clinical signs for 2 weeks, and 6 chickens in each group were sacrificed 3 days post-challenge (d.p.c.).

Pf/mut and Vac-3 conc. vaccines were injected into the lower thigh muscle of 2 groups of 18 four-week-old chickens. Three weeks later, 18 vaccinated and 4

non-vaccinated chickens in the 2 groups were challenged intranasally with 100 CLD₅₀ of Pf/HK/09. Twelve out of 18 vaccinated chickens in each group were monitored for their clinical signs for 2 weeks, and 6 chickens in each group were sacrificed 3 d.p.c.

When chickens died or were sacrificed, tracheal and cloacal swabs were collected and soaked in minimum essential medium (MEM), and their tissues (trachea, lungs, kidneys, and colon) were collected aseptically. To make 10% suspensions with MEM, the collected tissue samples were homogenized using a Multi-Beads Shocker (Yasui Kikai, Osaka, Japan). Serial 10-fold dilutions of the suspensions with PBS were inoculated into 10-day-old embryonated chicken eggs and incubated at 35 °C for 48 h. EID₅₀ of viruses was determined by the method of Reed and Muench (1938) and expressed as EID₅₀ per milliliter of swab or gram of tissue, respectively. Sera were collected from all of the 90 vaccinated and 20 non-vaccinated chickens just before challenge and examined for the presence of antibodies against the vaccine strains and challenge virus strains by the HI tests. Challenge studies were carried out in self-contained isolator units (Tokiwa Kagaku, Tokyo, Japan) at a BSL3 biosafety facility at the Graduate School of Veterinary Medicine, Hokkaido University, Japan. Animal experiments were authorized by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of Hokkaido University (approval numbers: 09-0119 and 10-0007) and all experiments were performed according to the guidelines of this committee.

3. Results

3.1. Antigenic analysis

H5N1 HPAIVs used as the vaccine strain and challenge virus in the present study were antigenically analyzed by the HI tests (Table 1). Dk/Vac-3/07 is antigenically closely related to Ck/Yamaguchi/04 and Ws/Mon/05, but is different from Ws/Hok/11 and Pf/HK/09. The recent H5N1 HPAIV isolates belonging to clades 1.1, 2.3.2.1, and 2.3.4 were antigenically different.

H5N1 HPAIVs used as the vaccine strain and challenge virus in the present study were antigenically analyzed using a panel of MAbs recognizing six different epitopes on the HA of A/duck/Pennsylvania/10218/84 (H5N2). Each of the MAbs bound to the low pathogenic avian influenza

Table 1
Antigenic analysis of H5N1 subtype avian influenza viruses using polyclonal antibodies.^a

Virus	Clade ^b	Antiserum to					
		Vac-3	Yama/04	Mon/05	VN/11	Hok/11	HK/09
A/duck/Hokkaido/Vac-3/2007	–	<u>128</u>	16	32	4	8	<4
A/chicken/Yamaguchi/7/2004	2.5	128	<u>128</u>	128	32	32	<4
A/whooper swan/Mongolia/3/2005	2.2	128	256	<u>512</u>	128	128	64
A/muscovy duck/Vietnam/OIE-559/2011	1.1	256	64	16	<u>256</u>	16	16
A/whooper swan/Hokkaido/4/2011	2.3.2.1	32	16	64	16	<u>128</u>	<4
A/peregrine falcon/Hong Kong/810/2009	2.3.4	16	8	8	16	16	<u>128</u>

Vac-3, A/duck/Hokkaido/Vac-3/2007; Yama/04, A/chicken/Yamaguchi/7/2004; Mon/05, A/whooper swan/Mongolia/3/2005; VN/11, A/muscovy duck/OIE-559/2011; Hok/11, A/whooper swan/Hokkaido/4/2011; HK/09, A/peregrine falcon/Hong Kong/810/2009.

^a Homologous titers are underlined.

^b “–” indicate lineages not belonging to clade 0–9.

Please cite this article in press as: Shichinohe, S., et al., Potency of an inactivated influenza vaccine prepared from a non-pathogenic H5N1 virus against a challenge with antigenically drifted highly pathogenic avian influenza viruses in chickens. *Vet. Microbiol.* (2013), <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.vetmic.2013.01.041>

Table 2
Antigenic analysis of H5 influenza viruses using monoclonal antibodies.

Virus ^a	Clade ^b	Monoclonal antibodies ^c						
		I (88)	II (145)	III (157)	IV (168)		V (169)	VI (205)
		D101/1	A310/39	64/1	B9/5	B220/1	B59/5	25/2
LPAIV								
A/duck/Pennsylvania/10218/1984 (H5N2)	–	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
A/duck/Hokkaido/Vac-3/2007 (H5N1)	–	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
HPAIV								
A/Vietnam/1194/2004 (H5N1)	1	+	+	+	+	–	–	+
A/chicken/Yamaguchi/7/2004 (H5N1)	2.5	–	+	+	+	–	–	+
A/whooper swan/Mongolia/3/2005 (H5N1)	2.2	+	+	+	+	–	–	+
A/muscovy duck/Vietnam/OIE-559/2011 (H5N1)	1.1	+	–	–	–	–	–	+
A/whooper swan/Hokkaido/4/2011 (H5N1)	2.3.2.1	+	–	–	–	–	–	–
A/peregrine falcon/Hong Kong/810/2009 (H5N1)	2.3.4	–	–	–	–	–	–	–

^a Viruses indicated in bold were used in the challenge study.

^b “–” indicate lineages not belonging to clade 0–9.

^c Reactivity of monoclonal antibodies against the HA of A/duck/Pennsylvania/10218/1984 (H5N2) to the representative H5 viruses was compared using fluorescent antibody methods. Location of amino acid substitutions in antigenic variants selected in the presence of respective monoclonal antibodies is indicated in parentheses.

viruses (LPAIVs) and HPAIVs isolated before 2005, and few MAbs bound to the antigens of Mdk/VN/11, Ws/Hok/11, and Pf/HK/09. It was demonstrated that the epitopes recognized by these MAbs were conserved in LPAIVs and HPAIVs isolated before 2005, but not in recently prevailing HPAIVs (Table 2).

3.2. Efficacy of the Vac-3 vaccine in chickens

Fifty-four vaccinated chickens and 12 non-vaccinated chickens were challenged intranasally with each of the HPAIVs, Mdk/VN/11, Ws/Hok/11, and Pf/HK/09. The serum HI titers of the vaccinated chickens varied with each of the challenge viruses. The survival rates of the chickens challenged with each of the three HPAIVs are shown in Fig. 1. All vaccinated chickens survived without showing any disease signs after challenge either with Mdk/VN/11 or Ws/Hok/11, whereas two vaccinated chickens died after challenge with Pf/HK/09. All non-vaccinated chickens challenged with any of the HPAIVs died within 2 to 4 d.p.c. (Fig. 1A–C).

To evaluate the potential of Vac-3 vaccine to induce immunity for the prevention of virus shedding, we tried to

recover the virus from swabs and tissues of the vaccinated and non-vaccinated chickens after challenge with each of HPAIV, Mdk/VN/11, Ws/Hok/11, and Pf/HK/09 (Table 3). Infectivity titers of the recovered viruses from vaccinated chickens were lower than those of non-vaccinated chickens after challenge with Mdk/VN/11 or Pf/HK/09 3 d.p.c. Infectious viruses were recovered from tracheal swabs and the organs of vaccinated chickens 3 d.p.c. with Ws/Hok/11, although the titers of viruses recovered from these birds were lower than those from non-vaccinated chickens.

3.3. Efficacy of the Vac-3 conc. vaccine against Pf/HK/09 in chickens

In order to enhance the efficacy of Vac-3 vaccine, the antigen concentration of Vac-3 vaccine was increased $\times 2.4$ and designated as Vac-3 conc. vaccine. The Vac-3 conc. vaccine was assessed for efficacy against a challenge with Pf/HK/09. Pf/mut vaccine prepared from Pf/mut (H5N1) (IVPI=0.00) was also assessed for its potency as the homologous control. Thirty-six chickens immunized either with Vac-3 conc. or Pf/mut vaccine and 8 non-vaccinated chickens were challenged intranasally with Pf/HK/09.

Table 3
Virus recovery from chickens vaccinated with Vac-3 vaccine challenged with H5N1 HPAIVs.

Challenge virus	Vaccination	Sampling d.p.c. ^a	No. of chickens	HI titer ^b	Virus recovery						
					Dk/Vac-3/07		Challenge virus				
					No. of chickens from which each virus was recovered [GM value of the virus titer (log 10)]						
					Swab (log EID50/ml)		Tissue (log EID50/g)				
		Tracheal	Cloacal	Trachea	Lungs	Colon	Kidneys				
Mdk/VN/11	Vaccinated	3	6	256	8–64	1 (≤ 0.7)	0	0	0	0	0
	Non-vaccinated	2 [†]	4	<4	<4	4 (5.5)	4 (5.3)	4 (8.6)	4 (9.3)	4 (8.5)	4 (9.4)
Ws/Hok/11	Vaccinated	3	6	256–512	16–64	2 ($\leq 1.0, \leq 1.3$)	0	3 (4.3)	4 (5.1)	5 (4.4)	4 (4.0)
	Non-vaccinated	3–4 [†]	4	<4	<4	4 (4.2)	4 (3.2)	4 (6.4)	4 (8.2)	4 (6.9)	4 (7.9)
Pf/HK/09	Vaccinated	3	6	64–512	<4–16	2 ($\leq 0.7, \leq 1.3$)	0	0	1 (3.5)	0	0
	Non-vaccinated	2 [†]	4	<4	<4	4 (4.9)	4 (5.4)	4 (7.6)	4 (9.1)	4 (8.3)	4 (8.8)

^a Swab and tissue samples were collected on the following days from sacrificed (no mark) or dead (†) chickens.

^b The range of HI titers using either Dk/Vac-3/07 or each challenge virus before challenge is indicated.

Please cite this article in press as: Shichinohe, S., et al., Potency of an inactivated influenza vaccine prepared from a non-pathogenic H5N1 virus against a challenge with antigenically drifted highly pathogenic avian influenza viruses in chickens. *Vet. Microbiol.* (2013), <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.vetmic.2013.01.041>

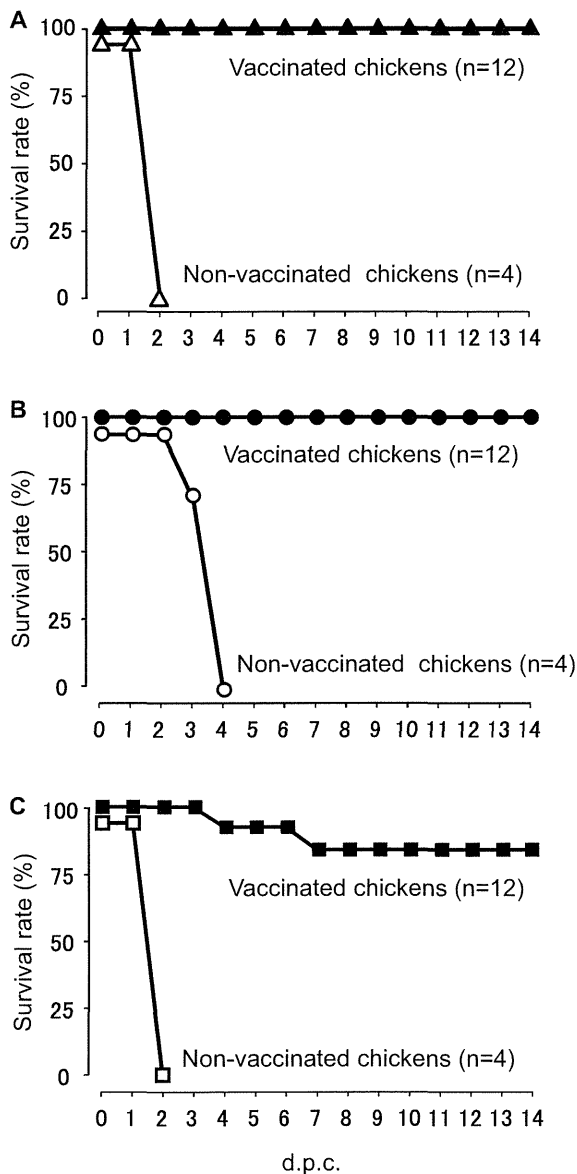


Fig. 1. Survival rates of chickens vaccinated with Vac-3 vaccine after challenge with H5N1 HPAIVs. Twelve four-week-old chickens from each group were immunized intramuscularly with 0.5 ml of Vac-3 vaccine. Three weeks after vaccination, the vaccinated chickens were challenged with 100 CLD₅₀ of Mdk/VN/11(A), Ws/Hok/11(B), and Pf/HK/09 (C), respectively.

HI titer to Pf/HK/09 of the sera of the chickens immunized with Vac-3 conc. vaccine was 4-16 HI, which is similar to those of the chickens immunized with Vac-3 vaccine (Table 4). The survival rates of the chickens challenged with Pf/HK/09 are shown in Fig. 2. All vaccinated chickens survived without showing any disease signs after the challenge with Pf/HK/09 (Fig. 2A and B). All non-vaccinated chickens challenged with Pf/HK/09 died within 3 d.p.c. Viruses were not recovered from swabs or organs of any of the chickens immunized with Pf/mut vaccine after the challenge with Pf/HK/09 (Table 4). Virus was scarcely recovered from the tracheal swab of chicken immunized with Vac-3 conc. vaccine and the viral titer was lower than in non-vaccinated chickens after challenge with Pf/HK/09.

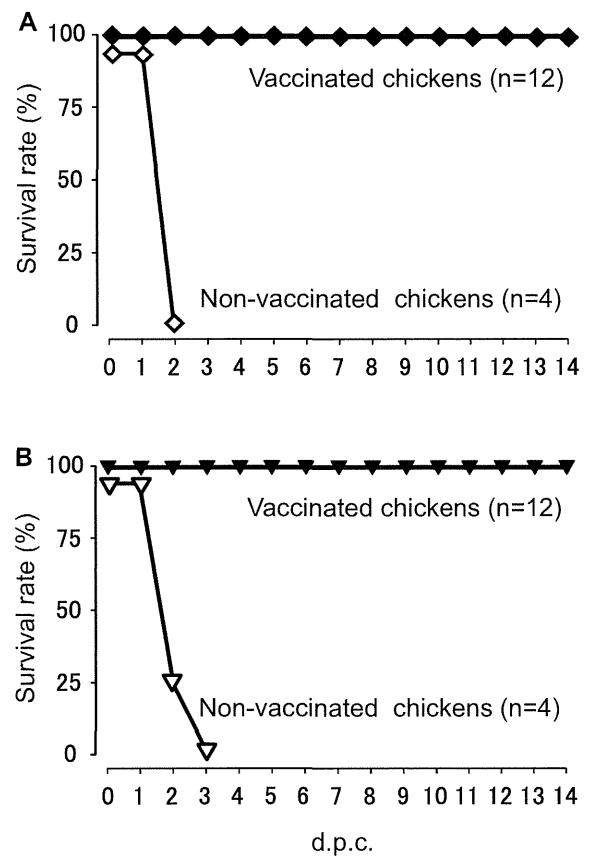


Fig. 2. Survival rates of chickens vaccinated with Pf/mut vaccine (A) and Vac-3 conc. vaccine (B) after challenge with Pf/HK/09. Twelve four-week-old chickens from each group were immunized intramuscularly with 0.5 ml of Pf/mut vaccine or Vac-3 conc. vaccine. Three weeks after vaccination, these vaccinated chickens were challenged with 100 CLD₅₀ of Pf/HK/09.

4. Discussion

Antigenic variants of H5N1 HPAIVs have been selected in poultry under immunological selection pressure (Cattoli et al., 2011; Grund et al., 2011). In the present study, it was demonstrated that H5N1 HPAIVs prevailing recently in Asia were antigenically different from non-pathogenic avian influenza virus and H5N1 HPAIVs isolated before 2005 (Table 1). We previously demonstrated that an inactivated avian influenza vaccine prepared from Dk/Vac-1/04 conferred protective immunity and reduced the amount of virus shedding when chicken was challenged with Ck/Yamaguchi/04, Ws/Mon/05, and Ws/Hok/08 (Isoda et al., 2008; Okamoto et al., 2010). In the present study, we prepared an inactivated influenza vaccine from Dk/Vac-3/07, which is a reassortant generated between non-pathogenic avian influenza viruses isolated from wild water birds. It is assumed that Vac-3 vaccine has similar potency with Vac-1 vaccine against recent H5N1 HPAIVs since Dk/Vac-3/07 is antigenically similar to Dk/Vac-1/04. However, the growth potential of Dk/Vac-3/07 is better than that of Dk/Vac-1/04. It is possible to generate concentrated Vac-3 vaccine using Dk/Vac-3/07. The

Table 4
Virus recovery from chickens challenged with Pf/HK/09.

Vaccination	Sampling d.p.c. ^a	No. of chickens	HI titer ^b		Virus recovery					
			Dk/Vac-3/07	Pf/HK/09	No. of chickens from which each virus was recovered [GM value of the virus titer (log 10)]					
					Swab (log EID50/ml)		Tissue (log EID50/g)			
				Tracheal	Cloacal	Trachea	Lungs	Colon	Kidneys	
Pf/mut	3	6	16–32	128–512	0	0	0	0	0	0
Vac-3 conc.	3	6	256–1024	4–16	1 (1.7)	0	0	0	0	0
Control	2–3 [†]	8	<4	<4	8 (5.1)	8 (5.3)	8 (7.8)	8 (9.0)	8 (8.3)	8 (8.7)

^a Swab and tissue samples were collected on the following days from sacrificed (no mark) or dead (†) chickens.

^b The range of HI titers using either Dk/Vac-3/07 or Pf/HK/09 before challenge is indicated.

potency of Vac-3 vaccine was assessed by challenging with antigenically drifted H5N1 HPAIVs isolated in 2009 and 2011. Vac-3 vaccine conferred protective immunity to suppress the manifestation of clinical signs and virus shedding in chickens challenged with antigenically drifted H5N1 HPAIVs belonging to clades 1.1, 2.3.2.1, and 2.3.4. In order to clarify why the efficacy of Vac-3 vaccine was not sufficient to protect all vaccinated chickens from the challenge with Pf/HK/09, we prepared Pf/mut vaccine, which was antigenically homologous with Pf/HK/09 (data not shown). All chickens immunized with Pf/mut vaccine survived for 14 days without showing any clinical signs and viruses were not detected from the swabs and tissues of the chickens. These results correspond to the findings that Pf/HK/09 is antigenically different from Dk/Vac-3/07 compared with Mdk/VN/11 and Ws/Hok/11. To improve the efficacy of Vac-3 vaccine, antigen concentration was increased for Vac-3 conc. vaccine preparation. HI antibody responses of vaccinated chickens correlated with the antigen concentration in H5N1 (Sasaki et al., 2009a) or H7N7 (Maas et al., 2009) influenza virus vaccine. Inactivated whole particle vaccine confers protective immunity against a challenge with viruses antigenically drifted from the vaccine strain to chickens by increasing the antigen concentration (Hwang et al., 2011). Vac-3 conc. vaccine conferred protective immunity to all vaccinated chickens after the challenge with Pf/HK/09. The vaccine with increased antigen concentration induced sufficient immunity to protect from infection with variant H5N1 HPAIV in chickens.

In the present study, it was demonstrated that the vaccine prepared from non-pathogenic avian influenza virus conferred protective immunity against the challenge with antigenically drifted H5N1 HPAIVs, indicating that Vac-3 vaccine induces sufficient immunity in chickens. The results of the antigenic analysis indicate broad antigenic diversity among H5N1 HPAIVs prevailing recently in Asia (Table 1). The vaccine prepared from recent H5N1 HPAIVs may not be completely effective against HPAIVs belonging to different clades. Since the misuse of vaccines lead to the silent spread of antigenically drifted viruses, it is recommended that avian influenza vaccine should be applied very carefully in addition to the stamping-out policy. There is an urgent need to eradicate H5N1 HPAIV from Asia by stamping-out without misusing vaccines (Table 4).

5. Conclusion

All chickens immunized with the Vac-3 vaccine survived without showing any clinical signs after intranasal challenge either with A/whooper swan/Hokkaido/4/2011 (H5N1) or A/muscovy duck/Vietnam/OIE-559/2011 (H5N1). The Vac-3 conc. vaccine of 2.4-fold antigen concentration conferred complete protective immunity in chickens against challenge with A/peregrine falcon/Hong Kong/810/2009 (H5N1).

Conflict of interest statement

The authors declare that they have no conflict interests.

Acknowledgements

Special thanks are due to Dr. Luk S.M. Geraldine for providing A/peregrine falcon/Hong Kong/810/2009 (H5N1), and its coordinator, Dr. Kenji Sakurai, the avian influenza surveillance project, OIE, Tokyo. The present work was supported by the Global Centers of Excellence Program. The present work was also supported in part by Japan Initiative for Global Research Network on Infectious Diseases (J-GRID), Japan Science and Technology Agency Basic Research Programs, and Japan Veterinary Products Association. We thank Dr. N. Isoda for providing useful advice on the preparation of this manuscript.

References

- Cattoli, G., Milani, A., Temperton, N., Zecchin, B., Buratin, A., Molesti, E., Aly, M.M., Arafa, A., Capua, I., 2011. Antigenic drift in H5N1 avian influenza virus in poultry is driven by mutations in major antigenic sites of the hemagglutinin molecule analogous to those for human influenza virus. *J. Virol.* 85, 8718–8724.
- Desselberger, U., Racaniello, V.R., Zakra, J.J., Palese, P., 1980. The 3' and 5'-terminal sequences of influenza A, B and C virus RNA segments are highly conserved and show partial inverted complementarity. *Gene* 8, 315–328.
- Grund, C., Abdelwhab, S.M., Arafa, A.S., Ziller, M., Hassan, M.K., Aly, M.M., Hafez, H.M., Harder, T.C., Beer, M., 2011. Highly pathogenic avian influenza virus H5N1 from Egypt escapes vaccine-induced immunity but confers clinical protection against a heterologous clade 2.2.1 Egyptian isolate. *Vaccine* 29, 5567–5573.
- Hoffmann, E., Neumann, G., Kawaoka, Y., Hobom, G., Webster, R.G., 2000. A DNA transfection system for generation of influenza A virus from eight plasmids. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* 97, 6108–6113.
- Hoffmann, E., Stech, J., Guan, Y., Webster, R.G., Perez, D.R., 2001. Universal primer set for the full-length amplification of all influenza A viruses. *Arch. Virol.* 146, 2275–2289.

- Hwang, S.D., Kim, H.S., Cho, S.W., Seo, S.H., 2011. Single dose of oil-adjuvanted inactivated vaccine protects chickens from lethal infections of highly pathogenic H5N1 influenza virus. *Vaccine* 29, 2178–2186.
- Isoda, N., Sakoda, Y., Kishida, N., Soda, K., Sakabe, S., Sakamoto, R., Imamura, T., Sakaguchi, M., Sasaki, T., Kokumai, N., Ohgitani, T., Saijo, K., Sawata, A., Hagiwara, J., Lin, Z., Kida, H., 2008. Potency of an inactivated avian influenza vaccine prepared from a non-pathogenic H5N1 reassortant virus generated between isolates from migratory ducks in Asia. *Arch. Virol.* 153, 1685–1692.
- Jiang, W.M., Liu, S., Chen, J., Hou, G.Y., Li, J.P., Cao, Y.F., Zhuang, Q.Y., Li, Y., Huang, B.X., Chen, J.M., 2010. Molecular epidemiological surveys of H5 subtype highly pathogenic avian influenza viruses in poultry in China during 2007–2009. *J. Gen. Virol.* 91, 2491–2496.
- Kajihara, M., Matsuno, K., Simulundu, E., Muramatsu, M., Noyori, O., Manzoor, R., Nakayama, E., Igarashi, M., Tomabeche, D., Yoshida, R., Okamatsu, M., Sakoda, Y., Ito, K., Kida, H., Takada, A., 2011. An H5N1 highly pathogenic avian influenza virus that invaded Japan through waterfowl migration. *Jpn. J. Vet. Res.* 59, 89–100.
- Kou, Z., Li, Y., Yin, Z., Guo, S., Wang, M., Gao, X., Li, P., Tang, L., Jiang, P., Luo, Z., Xin, Z., Ding, C., He, Y., Ren, Z., Cui, P., Zhao, H., Zhang, Z., Tang, S., Yan, B., Lei, F., Li, T., 2009. The survey of H5N1 flu virus in wild birds in 14 Provinces of China from 2004 to 2007. *PLoS ONE* 4, e6926.
- Maas, R., Tacken, M., van Zoelen, D., Oei, H., 2009. Dose response effects of avian influenza (H7N7) vaccination of chickens: serology, clinical protection and reduction of virus excretion. *Vaccine* 27, 3592–3597.
- OIE., 2008. Avian influenza. Manual of Diagnostic Tests and Vaccines For Terrestrial Animals (mammals, birds, and bees), sixth ed., vol. 1. Office Intl Des Epizooties, Paris, 465–481.
- Okamatsu, M., Tanaka, T., Yamamoto, N., Sakoda, Y., Sasaki, T., Tsuda, Y., Isoda, N., Kokumai, N., Takada, A., Umemura, T., Kida, H., 2010. Antigenic, genetic, and pathogenic characterization of H5N1 highly pathogenic avian influenza viruses isolated from dead whooper swans (*Cygnus cygnus*) found in northern Japan in 2008. *Virus Genes* 41, 351–357.
- Reed, L.J., Muench, H., 1938. A simple method for estimating fifty percent endpoints. *Am. J. Hyg.* 37, 493–497.
- Sakoda, Y., Ito, H., Uchida, Y., Okamatsu, M., Yamamoto, N., Soda, K., Nomura, N., Kuribayashi, S., Shichinohe, S., Sunden, Y., Umemura, T., Usui, T., Ozaki, H., Yamaguchi, T., Murase, T., Ito, T., Saito, T., Takada, A., Kida, H., 2012. Reintroduction of H5N1 highly pathogenic avian influenza virus by migratory water birds, causing poultry outbreaks in the 2010–2011 winter season in Japan. *J. Gen. Virol.* 93, 541–550.
- Sasaki, T., Isoda, N., Soda, K., Sakamoto, R., Saijo, K., Hagiwara, J., Kokumai, N., Ohgitani, T., Imamura, T., Sawata, A., Lin, Z., Sakoda, Y., Kida, H., 2009a. Evaluation of the potency, optimal antigen level and lasting immunity of inactivated avian influenza vaccine prepared from H5N1 virus. *Jpn. J. Vet. Res.* 56, 189–198.
- Sasaki, T., Kokumai, N., Ohgitani, T., Sakamoto, R., Takikawa, N., Lin, Z., Okamatsu, M., Sakoda, Y., Kida, H., 2009b. Long lasting immunity in chickens induced by a single shot of influenza vaccine prepared from inactivated non-pathogenic H5N1 virus particles against challenge with a highly pathogenic avian influenza virus. *Vaccine* 27, 5174–5177.
- Smith, G.J., Fan, X.H., Wang, J., Li, K.S., Qin, K., Zhang, J.X., Vijaykrishna, D., Cheung, C.L., Huang, K., Rayner, J.M., Peiris, J.S., Chen, H., Webster, R.G., Guan, Y., 2006. Emergence and predominance of an H5N1 influenza variant in China. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* 103, 16936–16941.
- Smith, G.J., Vijaykrishna, D., Ellis, T.M., Dyrting, K.C., Leung, Y.H., Bahl, J., Wong, C.W., Kai, H., Chow, M.K., Duan, L., Chan, A.S., Zhang, L.J., Chen, H., Luk, G.S., Peiris, J.S., Guan, Y., 2009. Characterization of avian influenza viruses A (H5N1) from wild birds, Hong Kong, 2004–2008. *Emerg. Infect. Dis.* 15, 402–407.
- Soda, K., Ozaki, H., Sakoda, Y., Isoda, N., Haraguchi, Y., Sakabe, S., Kuboki, N., Kishida, N., Takada, A., Kida, H., 2008a. Antigenic and genetic analysis of H5 influenza viruses isolated from water birds for the purpose of vaccine use. *Arch. Virol.* 153, 2041–2048.
- Soda, K., Sakoda, Y., Isoda, N., Kajihara, M., Haraguchi, Y., Shibuya, H., Yoshida, H., Sasaki, T., Sakamoto, R., Saijo, K., Hagiwara, J., Kida, H., 2008b. Development of vaccine strains of H5 and H7 influenza viruses. *Jpn. J. Vet. Res.* 55, 93–98.
- Uchida, Y., Mase, M., Yoneda, K., Kimura, A., Obara, T., Kumagai, S., Saito, T., Yamamoto, Y., Nakamura, K., Tsukamoto, K., Yamaguchi, S., 2008. Highly pathogenic avian influenza virus (H5N1) isolated from whooper swans. Japan. *Emerg. Infect. Dis.* 14, 1427–1429.
- WHO/OIE/FAO H5N1 Evolution Working Group, 2012. Continued evolution of highly pathogenic avian influenza A (H5N1): updated nomenclature. *Influenza Other Respi Viruses* 6, 1–5.
- Xu, X., Subbarao, Cox, N.J., Guo, Y., 1999. Genetic characterization of the pathogenic influenza A/Goose/Guangdong/1/96 (H5N1) virus: similarity of its hemagglutinin gene to those of H5N1 viruses from the 1997 outbreaks in Hong Kong. *Virology* 261, 15–19.



Review

Mucosal IgA responses in influenza virus infections; thoughts for vaccine design

Elly van Riet^a, Akira Ainai^{a,b}, Tadaki Suzuki^b, Hideki Hasegawa^{b,*}^a Influenza Virus Research Centre, National Institute of Infectious Diseases, Musashimurayama, Tokyo, Japan^b Department of Pathology, National Institute of Infectious Diseases, Shinjuku, Tokyo, Japan

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 20 March 2012

Accepted 20 April 2012

Available online 24 July 2012

Keywords:

Influenza

Antibodies

IgA

Mucosa

Vaccine

Cross-protection

ABSTRACT

The current challenge in influenza vaccine design is to induce long-lasting protection not only against the vaccine strain, but also against drifted (point mutations in the surface antigens HA or NA) and even shifted (exchange of genome segments) strains. Several immune mediators that can induce cross-protection have been described, such as CD4 T-cells, CD8 T-cells and antibodies, including IgA. However, most vaccines are now administered intramuscularly or subcutaneously and subsequently relatively little is known on the role of local, mucosal responses. Since local IgA responses have been shown to play an important role in responses to natural infection, and IgA responses in mice were shown to also be involved in cross-protection, the research on mucosal influenza vaccines is currently expanding. However, the functioning of the mucosal immune system, especially in the respiratory tract, is just beginning to be revealed. Here, the current knowledge on the induction of IgA, the role of influenza specific IgA producing B-cells in anti-influenza immunity as well as the role of humoral memory responses induced upon vaccination will be reviewed.

© 2012 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

Contents

1. Introduction	5893
2. The role of IgA in (cross-)protection from influenza infection	5894
3. IgA production	5894
3.1. Mucosal tissue	5895
3.2. Innate sensing	5895
3.3. APC bridging innate and adaptive immunity	5896
3.4. Adaptive CD4 T-cell responses	5896
4. Humoral memory	5896
5. Implications for vaccine design	5897
Acknowledgements	5898
References	5898

1. Introduction

Seasonal influenza A virus infections cause millions of cases each year with the highest risk of complications in very young and very old people as well as immunocompromised patients, all lacking a strong immune response. In addition, also more infectious or pathogenic strains can infect people, such as the 2009 pandemic influenza A virus (A(H1N1)pdm09), or highly pathogenic avian influenza A H5N1 virus, respectively. In contrast to seasonal

influenza viruses, highly pathogenic strains can be more threatening for young, healthy people in whom tissue damage can be the result of overly powerful host inflammatory responses [1].

In the case of both seasonal and newly evolved strains, the most efficient way to fight the disease is preventing it by means of vaccination. However, current influenza vaccines are effective against a single type of influenza only, thus for the seasonal vaccine necessitating the presence of multiple strains, as well as a yearly renewal of the vaccine. In addition to the possibility of a mismatch of the vaccine with the actual circulating influenza strains, newly evolved strains, such as H5N1 and A(H1N1)pdm09, highlighted the need for improved cross-protection. Ideally, a universal influenza vaccine would be developed, that induces a strong and long lasting memory response which is cross-protective to drift variants as well as across subtypes of the influenza virus (Fig. 1). Many factors are

* Corresponding author at: Hideki Hasegawa, Department of Pathology, National Institute of Infectious Diseases, Toyama 1-23-1, Shinjuku-ku, Tokyo 162-8640, Japan. Tel.: +81 3 5285 1111; fax: +81 3 5285 1150.

E-mail address: hasegawa@nih.go.jp (H. Hasegawa).