



UNIVERSITI PUTRA MALAYSIA

***EFFECTS OF ALUM AND ADDAVAX ON IMMUNE RESPONSES AND
PROTECTION INDUCED BY ECTODOMAIN OF INFLUENZA M2
PROTEIN DISPLAYED ON NODAVIRUS CAPSID***

ONG HUI KIAN

FPSK(p) 2022 28



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By

ONG HUI KIAN

Thesis Submitted to the School of Graduate Studies, Universiti Putra Malaysia, in Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

November 2021

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Abstract of thesis presented to the Senate of Universiti Putra Malaysia in fulfilment
of the requirement for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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PROTECTION INDUCED BY ECTODOMAIN OF INFLUENZA M2 PROTEIN
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ONG HUI KIAN

November 2021

Chairman : Ho Kok Lian, PhD
Faculty : Medicine and Health Sciences

Multiple copies of conserved ectodomain of matrix 2 protein (M2e) of influenza A virus (IAV) were genetically fused to the end of the C-terminal region of the capsid protein of *Macrobrachium rosenbergii* nodavirus producing chimeric proteins which assemble into virus-like particle (VLPs) displaying M2e-epitopes (NvC-M2ex3). Immunisation and virus challenges in BALB/c mice suggested that NvC-M2ex3 was indeed immunogenic and protective against lethal mouse-adapted A/PR/8/34 (H1N1) and A/HK/8/68 (H3N2) challenges. Nevertheless, previous studies lack mechanistic data that explain the protective effect of NvC-M2ex3. In addition, the effects of adjuvants on the immune responses and protection induced by NvC-M2ex3 remain elusive to date. Therefore, the objective of this study was to investigate the effects of two adjuvants, Alum and AddaVax on the immune responses and protection elicited by NvC-M2ex3 in BALB/c mice. Following immunisation, NvC-M2ex3 was shown to be well tolerated in animal, particularly when adjuvants were not involved in the formulation. Nevertheless, splenomegaly was observed in animal immunised with NvC-M2ex3 in the presence of Alum. No apparent morbidity was manifested in all mice immunised with NvC-M2ex3. Immunogenicity study indicated that antibody responses induced by NvC-M2ex3 were tailored by the adjuvants. AddaVax was demonstrated to induce a helper T-cell type 1 (Th1) skewed immune responses as supported by a higher IgG2a:IgG1 ratio and stronger Th1 cytokines profile, contrary to Alum. Immunophenotyping via flow cytometry analysis indicated that NvC-M2ex3 and adjuvants induced a CD4⁺ T-cell dominant response, higher macrophage but lower natural killer (NK) cell populations. Gene expression analysis of the mouse spleen via quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) suggested upregulation of T-cell related genes, corresponding to helper T-cell type 2 (Th2) and Th1 immunities induced by NvC-M2ex3 adjuvanted with Alum and AddaVax, respectively. Viral challenges indicated that NvC-M2ex3 conferred 100% protection against mouse-adapted H1N1 and H3N2 infections and reduced viral loads in the lungs and oropharynx of the mice. Co-administration of NvC-M2ex3 with adjuvants was demonstrated to be critical in improving morbidity in H1N1 but not in H3N2

challenges. All mice succumbed to the infection were shown to induce a CD8 T-cell dominant response which might contribute to immunopathology. Depending on the strains of IAV and adjuvants used, NvC-M2ex3 was shown to alter the splenic NK cell and macrophage counts differently. Gene expression study on the spleen of the mice challenged with H1N1 or H3N2 indicated that lower expression of genes associated with T-cell activation and cellular cytotoxicity correspond to improved disease outcomes. As a summary, NvC-M2ex3 induced protective immunity against IAVs and adjuvants were shown to improve protection against H1N1 infection. Although different adjuvants activated distinctive immune responses, both adjuvants contributed to protection against IAV challenges and ameliorated morbidity.

Abstrak tesis yang dikemukakan kepada Senat Universiti Putra Malaysia sebagai memenuhi keperluan untuk Ijazah Doktor Falsafah

KESAN ALUM DAN ADDAVAX TERHADAP TINDAK BALAS DAN PERLINDUNGAN IMUN YANG DITIMBUL OLEH ECTODOMAIN PROTEIN INFLUENZA M2 YANG DIPAPARKAN PADA NODAVIRUS CAPSID

Oleh

ONG HUI KIAN

November 2021

Pengerusi : Ho Kok Lian, PhD
Fakulti : Perubatan dan Sains Kesihatan

Penyambungan beberapa salinan ektodomain protein matriks 2 (M2e) virus influenza A secara genetik ke penghujung C protein kapsid *Macrobrachium rosenbergii* nodavirus dijalankan untuk menghasilkan viral partikel (VLPs) yang memaparkan M2e-epitop (NvC-M2ex3). Kajian jangkitan dan imunisasi pada tikus BALB/c menunjukkan bahawa NvC-M2ex3 adalah imunogenik dan melindungi tikus daripada dijangkiti oleh A/PR/8/34 (H1N1) dan A/HK/8/68 (H3N2). Walaubagaimanapun, kajian terdahulu kekurangan data mekanistik yang menjelaskan kesan perlindungan NvC-M2ex3. Di samping itu, kesan adjuven terhadap tindak balas imun dan perlindungan yang dirangsangkan oleh NvC-M2ex3 masih sukar difahami. Oleh itu, objektif kajian ini adalah untuk mengkaji kesan dua adjuven, Alum dan AddaVax terhadap tindak balas imun dan perlindungan yang ditimbulkan oleh NvC-M2ex3 pada tikus BALB/c. Melalui kajian imunisasi, NvC-M2ex3 terbukti dapat ditoleransi dengan baik pada haiwan, terutama ketika adjuven tidak dimasukkan dalam formulasi. Walaupun begitu, splenomegali telah diperhatikan berlaku pada haiwan yang diimmunisasi dengan NvC-M2ex3 dan Alum. Tidak ada morbiditi yang nyata pada semua tikus yang diimmunisasi dengan NvC-M2ex3. Kajian imunogenisitas juga menunjukkan bahawa tindak balas antibodi yang ditimbulkan oleh NvC-M2ex3 dipengaruhi oleh adjuven yang digunakan. AddaVax didapati mendorong tindakbalas imun sel T-pembantu jenis 1 (Th1) yang disokong oleh nisbah IgG2a: IgG1 yang lebih tinggi dan profil sitokin Th1 yang lebih kuat, bertentangan dengan Alum. Imunofenotaip melalui analisis sitometri aliran menunjukkan bahawa NvC-M2ex3 dan adjuven mendorong tindak balas dominan sel-T CD4+, makrofag yang lebih tinggi dan populasi sel pembunuh semula jadi (NK) yang lebih rendah. Kajian ekspresi gen limpa tikus melalui tindak balas rantai polimerase kuantitatif mencadangkan pengaktifan gen berkaitan sel T, selaras dengan tindak balas imun pembantu sel-T jenis 2 (Th2) dan Th1 yang ditimbulkan oleh NvC-M2ex3 dengan Alum dan AddaVax, masing-masing. Kajian cabaran virus menunjukkan bahawa NvC-M2ex3 memberikan perlindungan 100% terhadap jangkitan H1N1 dan H3N2 dan mengurangkan kandungan virus load pada tikus orofaring dan paru-paru. Pemberian bersama NvC-M2ex3 dengan adjuven terbukti penting dalam mengurangkan tahap morbiditi pada H1N1 tetapi tidak dalam infeksi

H3N2. Semua tikus yang terkena jangkitan terbukti menyebabkan tindak balas dominan sel-T CD8+ yang mungkin menyumbang kepada imunopatologi. Bergantung pada ketegangan IAV dan adjuven yang digunakan, NvC-M2ex3 ditunjukkan untuk mengubah jumlah sel NK splenik dan makrofag secara berbeza. Kajian ekspresi gen pada limpa tikus yang dijangkiti oleh H1N1 atau H3N2 menunjukkan bahawa ekspresi gen yang berkaitan dengan pengaktifan sel-T dan sitotoksitas sel yang lebih rendah selaras dengan penambahbaikan hasil penyakit. Kesimpulannya, NvC-M2ex3 memberikan perlindungan terhadap IAV dan adjuven meningkatkan perlindungan terhadap jangkitan H1N1. Walaupun adjuven yang berlainan mengaktifkan tindak balas imun yang tersendiri, kedua-dua pembantu ini menyumbang kepada perlindungan terhadap cabaran IAV dan penurunan morbiditi.



ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, my deepest gratitude to my supervisor, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ho Kok Lian for his endless support and providing me with funding and materials essential for the project. I would also like to thank Prof. Dr. Tan Wen Siang, Prof. Dr. Abdul Rahman Omar, and Assoc. Prof. Dr. Mariatulqabiah Abdul-Razak for their invaluable advice and guidance throughout the study.

Many thanks to Dr. Yeap Swee Keong for his constructive comments and suggestions in *in vivo* experiment, and Dr. Yong Chean Yeah, who is a good friend and a good mentor that always enlightened me in many aspects. Special thanks to my lab-mates, Beh Poay Ling, Nursyaza Zulkifli, Jackie Chan Hao Ming, Kiven Kumar, and Chia Jyh Yea for their kind support in every aspect.

Last but not least, million thanks to my family and friends, especially my parents and my wife who have supported and tolerated me with love and patience throughout the study.

This thesis was submitted to the Senate of Universiti Putra Malaysia and has been accepted as fulfilment of the requirement for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. The members of the Supervisory Committee were as follow:

Ho Kok Lian, PhD

Associate Professor
Faculty of Medicine and Health Sciences
Universiti Putra Malaysia
(Chairman)

Tan Wen Siang, PhD

Professor
Faculty of Biotechnology and Biomolecular Sciences
Universiti Putra Malaysia
(Member)

Abdul Rahman bin Omar, PhD

Professor
Faculty of Veterinary Medicine
Universiti Putra Malaysia
(Member)

Mariatulqabtiah binti Abdul-Razak, PhD

Associate Professor
Faculty of Biotechnology and Biomolecular Sciences
Universiti Putra Malaysia
(Member)

ZALILAH MOHD SHARIFF, PhD

Professor and Dean
School of Graduate Studies
Universiti Putra Malaysia

Date: 10 February 2022

Declaration by Members of Supervisory Committee

This is to confirm that:

- the research conducted and the writing of this thesis was under our supervision;
- supervision responsibilities as stated in the Universiti Putra Malaysia (Graduate Studies) Rules 2003 (Revision 2012-2013) are adhered to.

Signature: _____
Name of Chairman of
Supervisory
Committee: Ho Kok Lian

Signature: _____
Name of Member of
Supervisory
Committee: Tan Wen Siang

Signature: _____
Name of Member of
Supervisory
Committee: Abdul Rahman bin Omar

Signature: _____
Name of Member of
Supervisory
Committee: Mariatulqabtiah binti Abdul-Razak

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

| | |
|--------------------|---|
| $\rho\gamma$ | picogram (10^{-12} g) |
| μg | microgram (10^{-6} g) |
| μL | microlitre (10^{-6} L) |
| μm | micrometre (10^{-6} m) |
| μM | micromolar (10^{-6} M) |
| ADCC | antibody-dependent cell mediated cytotoxicity |
| ADCP | antibody-dependent cell mediated phagocytosis |
| ANOVA | one-way analysis of variance |
| APC | allophycocyanin |
| AS03 | adjuvant system 03 |
| Baso | basophil. |
| BN | band neutrophil |
| BCIP | 5-bromo-4-chloro-3'-indolylphosphate p-toluidine salt |
| bp | basepair |
| BSA | bovine serum albumin |
| $^{\circ}\text{C}$ | degree Celsius |
| CD | cluster of differentiation |
| CDC | complement-dependent cytotoxicity |
| cDNA | complimentary DNA |
| Ct | cycle threshold |
| C-terminal | carboxyl terminal |
| CTL | cytotoxic T-cells |
| CV | column volume |

| | |
|-------|---|
| DC | dendritic cells |
| DNA | deoxyribonucleic acid |
| EDTA | ethylenediamine tetraacetic acid |
| ELISA | enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay |
| ESCRT | endosomal sorting complex required for transport |
| Fc | fragment crystallisable |
| FITC | fluorescein isothiocyanate |
| FPLC | fast protein liquid chromatography |
| g | gram |
| G | gauge |
| p-NPP | p-nitrophenyl phosphate |
| HA | haemagglutinin |
| Hb | haemoglobin |
| HBV | hepatitis B virus |
| HEPES | 2-[4-(2-hydroxyethyl)piperazin-1-yl]ethanesulfonic acid |
| HPV | human papilloma virus |
| HRP | horseradish peroxidase |
| IAV | influenza A virus |
| IFN | interferon |
| Ig | immunoglobulin |
| IIV | inactivated influenza A vaccine |
| IL | interleukin |
| IMAC | immobilised metal affinity chromatography |
| IPTG | isopropyl β -D-1-thiogalactopyranoside |
| kDa | kilo Dalton |

| | |
|------------------|--|
| kg | kilogram |
| L | litre |
| LB | Luria-Bertani |
| LD ₅₀ | median lethal dose |
| Lymph | lymphocyte |
| M1 | matrix 1 |
| M2 | matrix 2 |
| M2e | extracellular domain of matrix 2 protein |
| mA | milliampere |
| MA | mouse-adapted |
| MCHC | mean corpuscular |
| MCV | mean corpuscular volume haemoglobin concentration; |
| mg | milligram (10 ⁻³ g) |
| MHC | major histocompatibility complex |
| mL | millilitre (10 ⁻³ L) |
| mm | millimetre (10 ⁻³ m) |
| mRNA | messenger RNA |
| MrNV | <i>Macrobrachium rosenbergii</i> nodavirus |
| n | number of biological replicates |
| NA | neuraminidase |
| ng | nanogram (10 ⁻⁹ g) |
| NK | natural killer |
| nm | nanometre (10 ⁻⁹ m) |
| NOD | nucleotide-binding oligomerisation domain |
| NP | nucleoprotein |

| | |
|------------|---|
| NPT | nitro-blue tetrazolium chloride |
| N-terminal | amino terminal |
| NvC | nodavirus capsid |
| NvC-M2ex3 | nodavirus capsid fused with 3 copies of M2e |
| PCV | packed cell volume |
| PAGE | polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis |
| PBS | phosphate buffered saline |
| PCR | polymerase chain reaction |
| PE | phycoerythrin |
| pH | <i>Puissance hydrogen</i> |
| PLT | platelet |
| qPCR | quantitative polymerase chain reaction |
| RBC | red blood cell |
| RNA | ribonucleic acid |
| SDS | sodium dodecyl sulphate |
| TAE | tris-acetate-EDTA |
| TBS | tris-buffered saline |
| TBST | tris-buffered saline supplemented with Tween-20 |
| Th | helper T-cells |
| Th1 | helper T-cell type 1 |
| Th2 | helper T-cell type 2 |
| TLR | toll-like receptors |
| TNF | tumour necrosis factor |
| vRNP | viral ribonucleoproteins |
| V | volt |

| | |
|----------|---------------------------|
| v/v | volume/volume |
| VLPs | virus-like particles |
| w/v | weight/volume |
| WBC | white blood cell |
| WHO | World Health Organization |
| α | alpha |
| β | beta |
| γ | gamma |



CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Research background

Influenza A virus (IAV) is one of the most notorious viruses in the human history. The first reliable documented influenza pandemic could be dated back to about 440 years ago in 1580. The virus first emerged in Asia and Russia, and spread to Europe and Africa followed by Americas. The actual death-toll caused by the pandemic was unknown but 8,000 deaths was reported in Rome alone. Although several studies indicated that influenza pandemics could have been emerged in the early 16th century, consensus among scholars cannot be reached (Potter, 2001). To date, a total of 10 large-scale influenza pandemics were reported. The most notorious pandemic, commonly known as the Spanish flu occurred in 1918, was accounted for the death of at least 50 million worldwide while infecting one-third of the world population (Taubenberger & Morens, 2009). The timeline of the influenza pandemics is summarised in Table 1.1. Despite the occurrence of multiple influenza pandemics since the 16th century, the causative agent of the infections remained unidentified until 1933 when Richard Shope isolated the first IAV from swine (Van Epps, 2006). Soon after successful isolation of IAV, the first inactivated influenza vaccine was produced by Thomas Francis Jr. and Jonas Salk in 1938 for use in military forces during the World War II (Barberis et al., 2016). Despite the presence of the seasonal influenza vaccines today, annual seasonal influenza epidemics remain responsible for 290,000 to 650,000 deaths globally, suggesting potential limitations of the current vaccination strategy (WHO, 2018).

Table 1.1: Timeline of the influenza pandemics from 1580 to present

| Name | Date | Origin | Virus | Mortality | References |
|---------------|-----------|----------------|-------|-------------------|---|
| - | 1580 | Asia | - | - | (Potter, 2001) |
| - | 1729-1733 | Russia | - | - | (Potter, 2001; Taubenberger & Morens, 2009) |
| - | 1761-1762 | Americas | - | - | (Taubenberger & Morens, 2009) |
| - | 1780-1782 | Southeast Asia | - | - | (Potter, 2001; Taubenberger & Morens, 2009) |
| - | 1830-1837 | Southeast Asia | - | - | (Potter, 2001; Taubenberger & Morens, 2009) |
| Russian flu | 1889-1893 | Asia | - | - | (Taubenberger & Morens, 2009) |
| Spanish flu | 1918-1919 | United States | H1N1 | >50 million | (Taubenberger & Morens, 2009) |
| Asian flu | 1957-1958 | Singapore | H2N2 | 1.1 million | (Centre of Disease Control, 2019) |
| Hong Kong flu | 1968-1969 | Hong Kong | H3N2 | 1 million | (Centre of Disease Control, 2019) |
| Swine flu | 2009-2010 | United States | H1N1 | 0.15-0.57 million | (Centre of Disease Control, 2019) |

1.2 Problem statement and justification

In general, influenza vaccines confer protection to the immunised individuals via the induction of the hemagglutinin (HA) and neuraminidase (NA)-specific immune responses. HA and NA are the most prominent, immunogenic surface glycoproteins of IAV. Nevertheless, these glycoproteins are highly mutative via antigenic drift or shift. Therefore, seasonal influenza vaccines have to be reconstituted annually based on the surveillance findings of the previous season to incorporate the most probable mutations of IAVs circulating in the following season (Barberis et al., 2016). Notably, these vaccines are produced based on the “smart guess”, thus the vaccine effectiveness varies significantly depending on the sequence homology of the vaccine strains recruited in vaccine formulation and that of the actual circulating strains. In the cases of vaccine mismatch, the effectiveness of the vaccine is dramatically reduced (Lewnard & Cobey, 2018). In 2017, seasonal influenza epidemic in Australia hit a record-breaking hospitalisation and mortality rates due to vaccine mismatch, and the vaccine effectiveness was indicated to be an unprecedented low of 10% (Sullivan et al., 2017). In addition, current influenza vaccines are not effective against new influenza pandemic caused by new virulent strains of IAV emerged from antigenic shift, as evidenced in the “Swine flu” pandemic in 2009 (Zhang et al., 2014). Variation in vaccine effectiveness from season to season, and the necessity of annual vaccine reformulation remains challenges to be overcome.

Centre of Disease Control recommends annual seasonal influenza vaccination for maximum protection against seasonal flu. Nevertheless, recent reports indicated that vaccine effectiveness of the seasonal influenza vaccines could be dampened following consecutive influenza vaccinations. It was demonstrated that antibody avidity and antibody half-life were significantly blunted following consecutive vaccinations, possibly due to impaired T-cell response, which is also hampered following consecutive immunisations (Khurana et al., 2019; Richards et al., 2020; Zelner et al., 2019). In addition, one study also suggested that high pre-existing antigen-specific antibody titre might induce antigen clearance and epitope masking, thereby inhibiting T-cell-dependent B-cell activation in subsequent vaccination (Stacey & Miller, 2020). Nevertheless, further elucidation is required to explain this scenario from the immunological perspective.

Attributed to the limitations of current seasonal influenza vaccines, major research focus is shifting to the development of universal influenza vaccines. The ectodomain of matrix 2 protein (M2e) of IAV represents an attractive target for the development of universal influenza vaccines due to its extreme conservativity among human IAVs (Fiers et al., 2009). Nevertheless, M2e is poorly immunogenic under natural infection or active immunisation, due to its small size and low copy number on the virion surface (Feng et al., 2006; Hutchinson et al., 2014). Different virus-like particles (VLPs) were previously recruited to enhance the immunogenicity of M2e including the VLPs of hepatitis B virus (HBV) (Ravin et al., 2015), human papilloma virus (HPV) (Ionescu et al., 2006), bacteriophage (Bessa et al., 2008), papaya mosaic virus (Carignan et al., 2015), and norovirus (Tan & Jiang, 2012). These VLPs-based vaccines were demonstrated to be immunogenic, and some were shown to be protective against influenza infections in animal models. VLPs composed of repetitive viral capsid proteins mimic the natural infection pathway of the native virus, priming the host immunity without inducing severe clinical symptoms (Rhee, 2020). VLPs are devoid of viral genome, thus they are not replicative and not infectious, demonstrating superior safety profile compared to live-attenuated vaccines. In addition, some VLPs contain pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs) for innate immune sensing, suggesting potential self-adjunctivity (Ong et al., 2017).

Capsid protein of nodavirus expressed in bacteria was shown to assemble into VLPs of approximately 30 nm in diameter (Goh et al., 2011). Genetic fusion of multiple copies of M2e-epitopes to the C-terminal end of the capsid protein of nodavirus produced chimeric proteins which assemble into VLPs displaying M2e (NvC-M2ex3) (Yong et al., 2015). Immunisation study and virus challenges in BALB/c mice demonstrated that NvC-M2ex3 was indeed immunogenic and protective against lethal mouse-adapted A/PR/8/34 (H1N1) and A/HK/8/68 (H3N2) challenges (Ong et al., 2019; Yong et al., 2015). Although antibody response was evaluated in the past, isotypes of M2e-specific antibodies were not evaluated and T-cell responses were not studied to a great extent. Furthermore, numerous studies have indicated that adjuvants improved vaccine protective efficacy in several M2e-based vaccine (Zhu et al., 2021), thus it would be valuable to evaluate the potential synergistic effects of the adjuvants on NvC-M2ex3 against IAVs. Therefore, the general objective of this study was to investigate the effects of two adjuvants, Alum and AddaVax on the immune responses and protection elicited by NvC-M2ex3 in BALB/c mice. The specific objectives of the study include:

1. To assess the general toxicity of NvC-M2ex3 in BALB/c mice.
2. To evaluate the effects of different adjuvants on the B-cell and T-cell responses induced by NvC-M2ex3 in BALB/c mice.
3. To determine the population of innate immune cells in mice immunised with NvC-M2ex3.
4. To assess the protective effects of NvC-M2ex3 supplemented with different adjuvants against H1N1 and H3N2
5. To elucidate the gene expression profiles of the splenocytes of mice immunised with NvC-M2ex3

1.3 Research hypothesis

NvC-M2ex3 is speculated to be well tolerated in BALB/c mice following immunisations. Inclusion of adjuvants in vaccine formulation is hypothesised to enhance the reactogenicity of NvC-M2ex3 which may cause splenomegaly in mice. NvC-M2ex3 is hypothesised to induce a high level of M2e-specific antibody in BALB/c mice following immunisation. Supplementation of the adjuvants to NvC-M2ex3 is speculated to further enhance the antibody response. Different adjuvants supplemented to NvC-M2ex3 are hypothesised to induce distinct innate immune responses and T-cell profiles. NvC-M2ex3 with or without adjuvants was anticipated to elicit protective response against H1N1 and H3N2. Nevertheless, co-administration of NvC-M2ex3 with adjuvants is hypothesised to further improve the protective immunity.

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