การพัฒนาดีเอ็นเอวัคซีนของยีน lipL32 สำหรับโรคเลปโตสไปโรซิสโดยใช้อนุภาค นาโนไคโทซานดัดแปร

นางสาวฤทัยรัตน์ เกิดแก้ว

วิทยานิพนธ์นี้เป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการศึกษาตามหลักสูตรปริญญาวิทยาศาสตรมหาบัณฑิต สาขาวิชาจุลชีววิทยาทางการแพทย์ (สหสาขาวิชา) บัณฑิตวิทยาลัย จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย ปีการศึกษา 2554 ลิขสิทธิ์ของจุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

บทคัดย่อและแฟ้มข้อมูลฉบับเต็มของวิทยานิพนธ์ตั้งแต่ปีการศึกษา 2554 ที่ให้บริการในคลังปัญญาจุฬาฯ (CUIR) เป็นแฟ้มข้อมูลของนิสิตเจ้าของวิทยานิพนธ์ที่ส่งผ่านทางบัณฑิตวิทยาลัย

The abstract and full text of theses from the academic year 2011 in Chulalongkorn University Intellectual Repository(CUIR) are the thesis authors' files submitted through the Graduate School.

DEVELOPMENT OF *LIPL32* DNA VACCINE FOR LEPTOSPIROSIS USING MODIFIED CHITOSAN NANOPARTICLES

Miss Ruthairat Kerdkaew

A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Science Program in Medical Microbiology (Interdisciplinary Program) Graduate School Chulalongkorn University Academic Year 2011 Copyright of Chulalongkorn University

หัวข้อวิทยานิพนธ์	การพัฒนาดีเอ็นเอวัคซีนของยีน lipL32 สำหรับโรคเลปโต-
	สไปโรซิสโดยใช้อนุภาคนาโนไคโทซานดัดแปร
โดย	นางสาว ฤทัยรัตน์ เกิดแก้ว
สาขาวิชา	จุลชีววิทยาทางการแพทย์
อาจารย์ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์หลัก	ผู้ช่วยศาสตราจารย์ ดร.พญ.กนิษฐา ภัทรกุล
อาจารย์ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์ร่วม	รองศาสตราจารย์ ดร.ธนาภัทร ปาลกะ

บัณฑิตวิทยาลัย จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย อนุมัติให้นับวิทยานิพนธ์ฉบับนี้เป็นส่วน หนึ่งของการศึกษาตามหลักสูตรปริญญามหาบัณฑิต

>คณบดีบัณฑิตวิทยาลัย (รองศาสตราจารย์ ดร.พรพจน์ เปี่ยมสมบูรณ์)

คณะกรรมการสอบวิทยานิพนธ์

.....ประธานกรรมการ

(รองศาสตราจารย์ ดร.อริยา จินดามพร)

..... อาจารย์ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์หลัก

(ผู้ช่วยศาสตราจารย์ ดร.พญ.กนิษฐา ภัทรกุล)

..... อาจารย์ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์ร่วม

(รองศาสตราจารย์ ดร.ธนาภัทร ปาลกะ)

.....กรรมการภายนอกมหาวิทยาลัย

(ผู้ช่วยศาสตราจารย์ ดร. ธารีรัตน์ กะลัมพะเหติ)

Thesis Title	DEVELOPMENT OF LIPL32 DNA VACCINE FOR
	LEPTOSPIROSIS USING MODIFIED CHITOSAN
	NANOPARTICLES
Ву	Miss Ruthairat Kerdkaew
Field of Study	Medical Microbiology
Thesis Advisor	Assistant Professor Kanitha Patarakul, M.D., Ph.D.
Thesis Co-advisor	Associate Professor Tanapat Palaga, Ph.D.

Accepted by the Graduate School, Chulalongkorn University in Partial

Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Master's Degree

..... Dean of the Graduate School

(Associate Professor Pornpote Piumsomboon, Ph.D.)

THESIS COMMITTEE

..... Chairman

(Associate Professor Ariya Chindamporn, Ph.D.)

...... Thesis Advisor

(Assistant Professor Kanitha Patarakul, M.D., Ph.D.)

...... Thesis Co-advisor

(Associate Professor Tanapat Palaga, Ph.D.)

..... External Examiner

(Assistant Professor Thareerat Kalambaheti, Ph.D.)

ฤทัยรัตน์ เกิดแก้ว : การพัฒนาดีเอ็นเอวักซีนของยืน *lipL32* สำหรับโรคเลปโตสไปโร-ซิสโดยใช้อนุภาคนาโนไคโตซานดัดแปร. (DEVELOPMENT OF *LIPL32* DNA VACCINE FOR LEPTOSPIROSIS USING MODIFIED CHITOSAN NANOPARTICLES) อ. ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์หลัก : ผศ.คร.พญ.กนิษฐา ภัทรกุล, อ. ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์ร่วม : รศ.คร.ธนาภัทร ปาลกะ, 129 หน้า.

โรคเลปโตสไปโรซิสเป็นโรคติคเชื้อจากสัตว์สู่คนซึ่งพบได้ทั่วโลกและพบว่าเป็นปัญหา ้สาธารณสุขที่สำคัญของประเทศไทย ในการศึกษานี้จึงได้มีการพัฒนาดีเอ็นเอวัคซีนโดยใช้อนภาค นาโนไคโตซานคัดแปรเชื่อมต่อกับคีเอ็นเอวักซีนของยืน lipL32 ซึ่งเป็นพลาสมิคที่บรรจยืน *lipL32* สมบูรณ์เต็มความยาว และทคสอบคุณสมบัติและประสิทธิภาพของวัคซีนทั้งในหลอค ทคลองและในสัตว์ทคลอง คีเอ็นเอวักซีนของยืน *lipL32* สามารถทรานสเฟคเข้าสู่เซลล์ไลน์ HEK293T ได้ โดยสามารถตรวจพบการแสดงออกของโปรตีน LipL32 ทั้งในเซลล์และที่หลั่ง ้ออกมานอกเซลล์ โดยอนภาคนาโนไกโตซานถกคัดแปรให้เชื่อมต่อกับแมนโนสเพื่อให้สามารถ ้จับอย่างจำเพาะกับเซลล์ที่มีการแสดงออกของตัวรับแมนโนสบนผิวเซลล์ เช่น เซลล์มาโครฟาจ และเซลล์เดนใครติกซึ่งเป็นเซลล์ที่นำเสนอแอนติเจนที่สำคัญ การศึกษานี้พบว่าอนภาคนาโนไค โตซานและนาโนใคโตซานคัดแปรสามารถบรรจุพลาสมิคคีเอ็นเอวักซีนของยีน *lipL32* ได้อย่าง ้สมบูรณ์ เมื่อนำไปทำการทรานสเฟคชันเข้าสู่เซลล์ไลน์ของมาโครฟาจ RAW 264.7 พบว่าไม่เป็น พิษต่อเซลล์ และพบการแสดงออกของโปรตีน LipL32 ในเซลล์ได้ เมื่อทำการทดสอบ ประสิทธิภาพของ CS-pVITRO-lipL32 และ MC-pVITRO-lipL32 ในการกระตุ้นระบบภูมิคุ้มกัน ในสัตว์ทดลอง โดยฉีดดีเอ็นเอวักซีนให้แก่หนูชนิด BALB/c พบว่าในสัปดาห์ที่ 8 กลุ่มที่ได้รับ ้ วักซีน MC-pVITRO-lipL32 มีการเพิ่มขึ้นของระดับแอนติบอดีรวมชนิด IgG ที่จำเพาะต่อโปรตีน LipL32 สูงกว่ากลุ่มที่ได้รับวัคซีน CS-pVITRO-lipL32 และ pVITRO-lipL32 อย่างมีนัยสำคัญทาง สถิติ (p<0.05) นอกจากนี้ หนูที่ได้รับวัคซีน MC-pVITRO-lipL32 มีการตอบสนองทางภูมิคุ้มกัน แบบเซลล์มีแนวโน้มไปในทาง T-helper 1 แต่อยู่ในระดับที่ต่ำกว่ากลุ่มที่ได้รับวัคซีน CSpVITRO-lipL32 จากผลการศึกษานี้ แสดงให้เห็นว่าอนภาคนาโนไคโตซานและอนภาคนาโนไค ์ โตซานคัคแปรสามารถเชื่อมต่อกับคีเอ็นเอวัคซีนของยืน *lipL32* และมีประสิทธิภาพในการนำส่งคื เอ็นเอวัคซีนของยืน lipL32 อย่างจำเพาะและสามารถกระตุ้นระบบภูมิค้มกันได้ทั้งแบบสารน้ำและ แบบเซลล์ซึ่งมีแนวโน้มไปในทาง T-helper 1

สาขาวิชา <u>จุลชีววิทยาทางการแพทย์</u>	_. ลายมือชื่อนิสิต
ปีการศึกษา <u>2554</u>	ุลายมือชื่อ อ.ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์หลัก
	ลายมือชื่อ อ.ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์ร่วม

5287250520 : MAJOR MEDICAL MICROBIOLOGY

KEYWORDS : *lipL32* Vaccine/ Chitosan/ Mannosylated chitosan/ leptospirosis
RUTHAIRAT KERDKAEW : DEVELOPMENT OF *LIPL32* DNA VACCINE FOR
LEPTOSPIROSIS USING MODIFIED CHITOSAN NANOPARTICLES.
ADVISOR : ASST. PROF. KANITHA PATARAKUL, M.D., Ph.D.,
CO-ADVISOR : ASSOC PROF. TANAPAT PALAGA, Ph.D., 129 pp.

Leptospirosis is a global zoonotic disease and public health problem in Thailand. In this study, we have developed a DNA vaccine by using mannosylated chitosan nanoplaticle-encapsulating plasmid carrying lipL32. The efficiency of the system was evaluated in vitro and in vivo. After transfection of plasmid containing full-length lipL32 gene (pVITRO-lipL32) into HEK293T cells, LipL32 was expressed in both the cell lysate and culture supernatant. The chitosan nanoparticles were modified by mannosylation to specifically target antigen presenting cells expressing mannose receptors, such as macrophages and dendritic cells. The chitosan and mannosylated chitosan nanoparticles were able to completely encapsulate the lipL32 DNA vaccine (CS-pVITRO-lipL32 and MC-pVITRO-lipL32, respectively). When RAW 264.7 cells were transfected with CS-pVITRO-lipL32 or MC-pVITRO-lipL32, no cytotoxicity was observed, and expression of LipL32 was detected. To evaluate immunogenicity, BALB/c mice were immunized with CS-pVITRO-lipL32 and MCpVITRO-lipL32. Total IgG level of mice immunized with MC-pVITRO-lipL32 was significantly higher than that of CS-pVITRO-lipL32 and naked plasmid (pVITROlipL32) at 8 week of immunization (p < 0.05). In addition, mice immunized with MCpVITRO-lipL32 vaccine tended to develop toward Th1 response but at the lower extent than that of chitosan-conjugated vaccine. Our results suggest that CS and MC nanoparticles are efficient delivery systems for *lipL32* DNA vaccine to specifically induce humoral and Th1-predilected cell-mediated immune responses.

Field of Study : Medical Microbiology	Student's Signature
Academic Year: 2011	Advisor's Signature
	Co-Advisor's Signature

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my thankfulness to all those who participated in the success of this thesis. I would like to express my most sincere gratitude to my advisor, Assistant Professor Dr. Kanitha Patarakul (Department of Microbiology, Faculty of Medicine, Chulalongkorn University) and my co-advisor, Associate Professor Dr. Tanapat Palaga (Department of Microbiology, Faculty of Science, Chulalongkorn University) for their primary supervision of this work, for critical comments, constructive suggestions, the effective training of my logical ideation and efficient communication skills during the whole research period.

I would like to thank Associate Professor Dr. Alain Jacquet (Recombinant vaccine unit, Department of Medicine, Faculty of Medicine) for his comments, advice and kindness to give a great help.

Particularly, I appreciate Assistant Professor Dr. Thareerat Kalambaheti (Department of Microbiology and Immunology, Faculty of Tropical Medicine, Mahidol University) for her helps to support antibody against Lipl32 and her kindness to accept as my external examiner.

I appreciate Dr. Asada Leelahavanichkul and Mr. Eakachai Prompetchara for their valuable suggestions on animal studies.

I greatly thank Associate Professor Dr. Supason Wanichwecharungruang (Department of Chemistry, Faculty of Science, Chulalongkorn University), Mr. Amornset Tachaprutinun, Dr. Piya Wongyanin, Miss Supranee Buranapraditkun and all members in Chula VRC (Chula Vaccine Research Center) for their excellent instructions and selfless technical support in the experiments.

My special thanks go to all members in Leptospirosis laboratory (Faculty of Medicine, Chulalongkorn University) and Dr. Jomkhwan Meerak (Department of Microbiology, Faculty of Science, Chulalongkorn University) for great lab advice and help in molecular technique.

Finally, I would like thank my family and my best friend, Miss Chattip Sripatumtong, for their love, help, encouragement, understanding and support during this study.

CONTENTS

Р	Δ	G	F
Γ.	н	G	

ABSTRACT (THAI)	iv	
ABSTRACT (ENGLISH)	V	
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	vi	
CONTENTS	vii	
LIST OF TABLES		
LIST OF FIGURES	xi	
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	xiii	
CHAPTER		
I INTRODUCTION	1	
II OBJECTIVES	5	
III REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURES	6	
Leptospira and leptospirosis	6	
Taxonomy and classification	6	
Epidemiology	8	
OMPs of <i>Leptospira</i>	10	
LipL32	13	
Pathogenesis	14	
Laboratory diagnosis	15	
Microscopic demonstration	15	
Cultivation	16	
Serological diagnosis	16	
Molecular diagnosis	17	
Leptospirosis in Thailand	18	

CHAPTER	PAGE
Vaccines of Leptospirosis	20
Killed Vaccine	21
Live attenuated vaccine	22
Subunit vaccine	22
Recombinant protein vaccines	23
DNA vaccine	26
Mechanism of immune in duction from DNA vaccines	31
Strategies for improving the DNA vaccine	32
Nanoparticles for vaccine delivery systems	33
Chitosan nanoparticles for delivery system	39
Mannose receptor (MR) mediated for gene delivery	40
IV MATERIALS AND METHODS	42
Bacterial cultivation	43
Preparation of vaccine	44
Colony screening	47
DNA sequencing	47
Transfection and visualization of expressed antigens	47
Expression and purification of LipL32 proteins	49
Preparation and characterization of chitosan (CS) and mannosylated	
chitosan(MC)	50
CS- and MC-DNA encapsulation	51
Transfection of CS and MC-DNA encapsulation	51
Cytotoxicity assay	52
Evalution of immunogenicity of <i>lipL32</i> DNA vaccine in mice	53
Blood samples collection	54
Determinng total IgG, IgG1, and IgG2a antibody responses to LipL32	54

CHAPTER	PAGE
Lymphoproliferation assay	55
Proliferation assays	55
Cytokine assays	56
Detection of T cell response by Flow cytometry	56
Statistical analysis	57
V RESULTS	58
Cloning of <i>lipL32</i> in mammalian expression vector	58
The expression and secretion of LipL32 in transfected Human	
Embryonic Kidney (HEK293T) cells	60
Protein Extraction and Purification	61
Characterization of chitosan (CS) and mannosylated chitosan (MC)	62
Agarose gel electrophoresis assay for plasmid DNA binding with	
chitosan (CS) and mannosylated chitosan (MC)	63
Morphology of chitosan and mannosylated chitosan	66
In vitro transfection efficiency of chitosan and mannosylated chitosan-	
conjugated plasmid at varying N/P ratios	67
Antibody response to <i>lipL32</i> DNA vaccine immunization	69
Cytokine response to <i>lipL32</i> DNA vaccine immunization	72
Lymphocyte proliferation	74
VI DISCUSSION	77
VII SUMMARY	81
REFERENCES	82
APPENDICES	104
BIOGRAPHY	129

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE		PAGE
1	Saprophytic and pathogenic Leptospira species whose genomes	
	have been sequenced	8
2	Surface-exposed outer membrane proteins of Leptospira	
	interrogans serovar Copenhageni strain L1-130	12
3	List of commercial vaccines for use in animals	21
4	Examples of recombinant protein vaccine formulas for leptospirosis.	24
5	Advantages of DNA vaccination	27
6	Comparative analysis of various vaccine formulations	28
7	Current licensed DNA therapies	29
8	DNA vaccine candidates for leptospirosis	30
9	Sources of chitin and chitosan	36
10	Principal properties of chitosan in relation to its use in biomedical	
	applications	37
11	Principal applications for chitosan	38
12	The mean values of specific total IgG against LipL32 protein in	
	serum of vaccinated mice	70

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURI	Ē	PAGE
1	High-resolution scanning electron micrograph of Leptospira	
	interrogans serovar Copenhageni	6
2	The cycle of <i>Leptospira</i> infection	9
3	Structure of leptospiral cell wall containing the outer membrane,	
	periplasm, peptidoglycan, and inner membrane	10
4	Reported cases of leptospirosis in Thailand during 1990-2010	
5	Reported cases of leoptospirosis per 100,000 populations by region	
	of Thailand	18
6	Reported cases of leptospirosis in Thailand per 100,000 populations	
	by age-group, year 2010	19
7	The results of laboratory confirmed leptospirosis in Thailand between	
	March 2003-November 2004	19
8	Schematic flow chart of reverse vaccinology approach to identify	
	novel vaccine candidates in leptospiral vaccine development	23
9	Pathways of DNA vaccine to induce humoral and cell-mediated	
	immune responses	32
10	DNA vaccine optimization strategies to enhance immunogenicity	32
11	The size ranges of various adjuvant delivery systems and the	
	dimensions of different pathogenic agents are indicated on a	
	nanometre log scale	33
12	Chemical structure of chitin and chitosan	34
13	Schematic representation of DNA or siRNA (left) and drug (right)	
	delivery using nanocarriers	39
14	Receptor-mediated trafficking for ligands and gene delivery vectors	40

FIGURE

15

16

17

18

19

20

21

22

23

24

25

26

27

28

29

Reaction scheme of mannosylated chitosan (MC) production	41
Schedule of vaccination with <i>lipL32</i> DNA vaccine and specimen	
collection after immunization	53
PCR products of <i>lipL32</i> gene and pVITRO expression vector on	
agarose gel	58
PCR amplification of <i>lipL32</i> insert in transformants	59
Expression of <i>lipL32</i> DNA vaccine construct in HEK293T ccells	60
Detection of purified rLipL32 by SDS-PAGE and Western blot	61
Representative 1H NMR spectra	62
The incorporation of pVITRO-lipL32 into chitosan or mannosylated	
chitosan by agarose gel electrophoresis	64
Cytotoxicity of CS-pVITRO- <i>lipL32</i> (A) and MC-pVITRO- <i>lipL32</i> (B)	
copolymer at various concentrations in RAW264.7 cells	65
SEM images of different polymer nanoparticles	66
Immunofluorsent stains of LipL32 in RAW 264.7 cells transfected	
with CS-pVITRO-lipL32 and MC-pVITRO-lipL32 at varying N/P	
ratios	68
The level of LipL32-specific total IgG after vaccination measured by	
ELISA	69
Endpoint titers of LipL32-specific IgG2a isotype (A) and IgG1	
isotype (B) at 8 weeks of vaccination measured by ELISA	71
Cytokine responses after DNA vaccine vaccination were measured	
by ELISA	73
Cell proliferation after <i>lipL32</i> DNA vaccine immunization were	
analyzed by flow cytometry	75

PAGE

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

APS	Ammonium peroxodisulfate
Вр	Base pair
BSA	Bovine serum albumin
°C	Degree celsius
$C_3H_3NaO_3$	Sodium pyruvate
$C_8H_7N_3O_2$	3-Aminophthalhydrazide, 5-amino-2,3-dihydro-1,4-
	phthalazinedione
$C_{24}H_{39}O_4Na$	Sodium deoxycholate
CaCl ₂	Calcium chloride
CH ₃ COONa	Sodium acetate
CuSO ₄	Copper sulfate
DMEM	Dulbecco's modified eagle medium
DMSO	Dimethyl sulfoxide
dNTPs	Deoxynucleotide triphosphates
DTT	Dithiothreitol
EDTA	Ethylenediamine tetraacetate acid
ELISA	Indirect enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay
EMJH	Johnson and Harris modification of the Ellinghausen and
	McCullough medium
et al.	et alii
FBS	Fetal bovine serum
FeSO ₄	Ferrous sulfate
g	Gram
h	Hour
H_2O_2	Hydrogen peroxide
H_2SO_4	Sulfuric acid

HCI	Hydrochloric acid
HEPES	- 4-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1-piperazineethanesulfonic acid
HOC ₆ H ₄ CH=CHCO ₂ H	Trans-4-hydroxycinnamic acid
HRP	Horseradish peroxidase
IgG	Immunoglobulin G
IFA	Immunofluorecence test
IPTG	Isopropyl-D-thiogalactopyranoside
KCI	Potassium chloride
kDa	Kilodalton
$KH_2 PO_4$	Potassium dihydrogen phosphate
LB	Luria-bertani
LipL32	Leptospira lipoprotein 32 kDa
LPS	Lipopolysaccharide
MAT	Microscopic agglutination test
2ME	2-mercapto-ethanol
MgCl ₂	Magnesium chloride
ml	Milliliter
mM	Millimolar
MTT	3-(4,5-Dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium
	bromide
MW	Molecular weight
NaCl	Sodium chloride
Na ₂ CO ₃	Disodium carbonate
NaHCO3	Sodium carbonate
Na ₂ HPO ₄	Disodium hydrogen phosphate
NaN3	Sodium azide
NaOH	Sodium hydroxide
Na ₂ SO ₄	Sodium sulphate
ng	Nanogram

NH ₂ CH ₂ COOH	Glycine
NP-40	Tergitol-type NP-40
OMP	Outer membrane protein
PBS	Phosphate buffer saline
PCR	Polymerase chain reaction
PMA	Phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate
Raw264.7	a mouse monocyte/macrophage cell line
SDS	Sodium lauryl sarcosine
SDS-PAGE	SDS- Polyacrylamide Gel Electrophoresis
TAE	Tris-acetate buffer
TBS	Triethanolamine-buffer-saline
TEMED	N,N,N,N,-Tetramethylethylenediamine
T 00	
Tween 20	Polysorbate 20
Tween 80	Polysorbate 80
μg	Microgram
μΙ	Microliter
Vit B12	Vitamin B12
ZnSO ₄	Zinc Sulfate

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Leptospirosis is a zoonotic disease that becomes an important human and veterinary health problem around the world [1, 2]. It is caused by pathogenic Leptospira species. The spiral shaped bacteria belong to the family Leptospiraceae, order Spirochaetales, genus Leptospira. The genus Leptospira has been separated into two major species, *L. interrogans* which includes all pathogenic strains and *L. biflexa* which are saprophytic strains isolated from environment [1]. Both L. interrogans and L. biflexa have been serologically classified into more than 24 serogroups and 250 serovars [2] based on agglutinating leptospiral lipopolysaccharides (LPS) [3]. It is about 0.1 µm in diameter and 6-20 µm in length. Leptospira are obligate aerobe. The cell walls of leptospires share characteristics of both Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria [4]. They are not stained with Gram staining and should be observed under dark-field microscopy. Leptospires are catalase and oxidase positive. They are slow-growing bacteria. Cultures should be checked for the presence of bacteria after 3-4 days and subcultured after 7–21 days [5]. Optimal growth temperature is between 28°C and 30°C. The minimal growth temperature for pathogenic and saprophytic species is in the range of 13°C-15°C and 5°C-10°C, respectively. The growth ability at 13°C of pathogenic species can be used to differentiate pathogenic from saprophytic species [6]. Leptospires are cultivated in media containing 10% rabbit serum [7] or 1% bovine serum albumin supplemented with long-chain fatty acids at pH 6.8-7.4 such as Ellinghausen-McCullough-Johnson-Harris (EMJH) [8].

Several animal species including pets and livestock such as dogs, bats, cattle, pigs can be reservoir animals, which do not show symptoms but excrete leptospires into urine. Pathogenic leptospires can grow outside the host in soil and water and create a biofilm, helping them to survive in environmental habitats for weeks or months [9]. Human is an accidental host. Leptospirosis is mainly transmitted through skin wounds or mucosa by contact with water or soil contaminated with urine of infected

animals. *Leptospira* can spread into the bloodstream and target organs such as kidneys, liver, heart, causing inflammation of various organs. The disease can cause severe conditions such as pulmonary haemorrhage syndrome, myocarditis, or meningitis with the mortality rate of up to 50% [10-12].

In Thailand, data from disease notification reports show an increase in the incidence rate. In 1996, 398 cases were reported and the number of cases increased to 14,285 cases and 2,868 cases in year 2000 and 2005, respectively [13, 14]. The major endemic area (up to 90% of reported cases) was in the Northeastern region [15]. The dominant serovars reported in Thailand are Autumnalis, Bratislava, Bataviae, Javanica, Hebdomadis, Grippotyphosa, Bangkok, and Pyrogenes [14, 16]. Paddy farmers, rat hunters, and canal dredgers were found to be high risk groups for leptospirosis in Thailand [15]. The prevalence of leptospirosis in the Thai-Myanmar border area was found to be 17% of patients presenting with fever [17]. The main outbreak season of leptospirosis in Thailand corresponds with the rainy season during July to October [15].

Humoral-mediated immunity has been shown to be utmost importance to confer resistance to leptospirosis [18-20]. Antibodies produced during leptospiral infection were agglutinating antibodies [21]. IgG antibodies against *Leptospira* was reported to be detected in patients up to 6 years after initial infection [22]. A monoclonal antibody directed against leptospiral LPS was found to transfer passive protection to newborn guinea pigs [21]. The anti-LPS antibody-mediated immunity was serovar specific [2]. However, cattle infected with *Leptospira borgpetersenii* serovar Hardjo showed high titers of anti-LPS antibody but did not result in protection [23]. Peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMC) from cattle immunized with whole-cell killed vaccine of *L. interrogans* serovar Hardjo were found to proliferate after stimulation with immunized antigens *in vitro* [24]. In addition, CD4+ and TCR $\gamma\delta$ + T cells derived from these vaccinated cattle produced gamma interferon (IFN- γ) suggesting a strong Th1 response [23-27] and possible role of cell-mediated immunity in protection against leptospirosis.

Commercially available vaccines for leptospirosis are heat-killed whole-cell vaccines that confer protection only against homologous serovars [28]. The

disadvantages of the vaccine are adverse side effects such as pain, nausea, fever; short-term immunity; and serovar-specific protection. Current trend in development of vaccine for leptospirosis have focused on subunit vaccine including recombinant protein and DNA vaccine using leptospiral components, such as lipoproteins [48-56] and outer-membrane proteins (OMPs) as vaccine candidates [29]. The ultimate goal for vaccine development is to identify a candidate gene or protein that protects against multiple pathogenic *Leptospira* species, induce long-term protective immunity, and cause no side-effects.

LipL32 is the outer membrane protein found in pathogenic *Leptospira*, accounted for approximately 75% of total OMPs [30-32]. The protein is expressed *in vitro* and during infection [31]. More than 95 % of patients with leptospirosis were shown to have antibody against LipL32 [33]. LipL32 has been used as a vaccine candidate for both recombinant protein and DNA vaccines. For example, immunization with LipL32 and LipL41 have been reported to stimulate partial protection against pathogenic leptospires in animal models [34]. Animals immunized with DNA vaccine construct containing gene *lipL32* in adenovirus vector showed a survival rate of 87% after challenge. However, using virus as a carrier may not be safe for humans [35, 36]. A study on pcDNA 3.1-*lipL32* used as a DNA vaccine demonstrated that it was able to partially prevent cross-serovar infection [36].

Several delivery systems have been utilized to improve efficacy of DNA vaccine. Chitosan is a natural and biodegradable polymer which is a deacetylated form of chitin under alkaline condition. It is found in the shells of crustaceans, such as lobsters, crabs, and shrimp; and many other organisms, including insects and fungi [37]. Chitosan has been used in various applications including medical and pharmaceutical substances, and agriculture. Chitosan is positively charged and can bind to molecules that are negatively charged, such as nucleic acids, mucosal surface, or plasma membrane [37, 38]. It is also able to alter tight junctions, thereby enhancing the cellular uptake of peptides and proteins [39, 40]. Chitosan conjugated with DNA can be used as an effective carrier to introduce DNA into cells [41, 42]. Chitosan micro- and nanoparticles has been reported to exhibit immune-stimulating activity, such as activation of macrophage release of nitric oxide (NO) and polymorphonuclear cells [43]. Chitosan can stimulate humoral as well as cell-mediated immune responses after subcutaneous vaccination [44, 45]. Chitosan nanoparticles were shown to promote both Th1 and Th2 response [46]. The modification of chitosan to mannosylated chitosan (MC) has been reported to have low cytotoxicity and enhance transfection efficiency into RAW 264.7 macrophage cell line [47] and mouse peritoneal macrophages [48]. The objective of mannosylated chitosan-based delivery system is to target vehicle binding to a cellspecific receptor found on antigen presenting cells (APCs) such as macrophages and dendritic cells leading to mannose receptor (MR)-mediated endocytosis to potentially enhance both innate and adaptive immune responses [49-51]. The mannosylation has been reported to enhance MHC class I- and MHC class II-restricted Ag presentation and T cell stimulation by up to 200-fold compared with non-mannosylated proteins [51-53].

Using chitosan nanoparticles for DNA vaccine delivery has never been reported in vaccine for leptospirosis. In this study, we proposed to develop a *lipL32* DNA vaccine using mannosylated chitosan nanoparticles as a delivery system to test its physical properties and to study immune response of mannosylated chitosan-conjugated *lipL32* DNA vaccine in mice.

CHAPTER II OBJECTIVE

Hypothesis

1. Mannosylated chitosan can encapsulate and deliver *lipL32* DNA vaccine to macrophages.

2. Mannosylated chitosan-conjugated *lipL32* DNA vaccine (MC-pVITRO-*lipL32*) can induce better immune response than chitosan-conjugated (CS-pVITRO-*lipL32*) and naked *lipL32* (pVITRO-*lipL32*) DNA vaccines.

Objective

1. To develop *lipL32* DNA vaccine using mannosylated chitosan as a delivery system and to test its physical properties and transfection efficiency in macrophages.

2. To study immune response of mannosylated chitosan-conjugated *lipL32* DNA vaccine (MC-pVITRO-*lipL32*) in mice.

CHAPTER III

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURES

Leptospira and leptospirosis

Taxonomy and classification

Leptospira is a member of the phylum Spirochaetes, class Spirochaetes, order Spirochaetales, family Leptospiraceae and genus *Leptospira* [54]. Leptospires are spirochetes that curled about 6-20 µm in length, 0.1 µm in diameter and the wavelength is approximately 0.5 µm [55]. Leptospires are highly motile, obligate aerobes. The cell wall of leptospires is similar to that of Gram-positive bacteria and Gram-negative bacteria [4]. Either or both end of the spirochetes bends like a hook-shaped (Figure 1). These bacteria are poorly Gram-stained but may be stained with carbon fuchsin solution. The leptospires can be viewed by dark-field or phase-contrast microscopy.

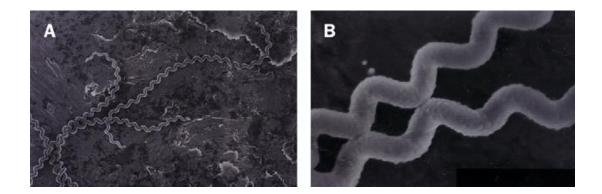


Figure 1. High-resolution scanning electron micrograph of *Leptospira interrogans* serovar Copenhageni. (A) Note characteristic hooked ends (B) At high magnification the surface of the spirochete seems ruffled and beaded [56].

Leptospires have a double membrane structure similar to other spirochetes, in which the cytoplasmic membrane and peptidoglycan layer are closely related and are overlaid by the outer membrane [57]. The outer membrane of leptospires contains phospholipids, outer membrane proteins (OMPs) and lipopolysaccharide (LPS). LPS of leptospires has elements similar to other Gram-negative bacteria, but is less endotoxic [58]. Leptospires have two periplasmic flagella with polar insertions which are responsible for motility [59, 60]. The flagella of 11.3 nm in diameter are surrounded by two sheath layers. In addition, the core and the two sheath layers are composed of two layers of 34 and 36 kDa proteins that are homologous to flagellar proteins of other spirochetes [61]. Leptospires show two forms of movement in the direction of the straight end, and circular motion [10].

Based on serological classification, genus *Leptospira* can be divided into 2 species: pathogenic *Leptospira interrogans* which cause disease in humans and animals, and saprophytic *Leptospira biflexa* found in the environment [1]. More than 60 serovars of *L. biflexa* and over 250 serovars of *L. interrogans* have been reported [2, 10, 55].

Currently, the genomospecies are classified based on DNA hybridization, multilocus enzyme electrophoresis, and 16S rRNA sequences [62]. Pathogenic *Leptospira* genospecies is so far composed of 21 species based on 16S rRNA sequences [63, 64]. However, the genotypic classification of *Leptospira* does not correspond to serological classification since different serovars belong to the same genospecies, and vice versa [56]. Saprophytic and pathogenic *Leptospira* species whose genomes have been sequenced were shown in Table 1.

Leptospira species	Serovar	Strain	Typical	Reference
			reservoir [56]	
Saprophytic				
L. biflexa	Patoc	Patoc1 (strains	Do not survive	[66]
		Paris and Ames)	in hosts	
Pathogenic				
L. interrogans	Lai	56601	Rat	[67]
L. interrogans	Copenhageni	Fiocruz L1-130	Rat	[68]
L. borgpetersenii	Hardjo	L550	Cattle and	[69]
		JB197	sheep	

Table 1.Saprophytic and pathogenic *Leptospira* species whose genomes havebeen sequenced [65].

Epidemiology

Leptospirosis is the most common widespread zoonosis in the world [70]. It can be transmitted to human via either direct or indirect contact with urine of infected animals. The incidence of leptospirosis depends on environmental factors including rainfall and temperature. Leptospirosis is commonly found in the tropics during the rainy season to winter. In the temperate areas, leptospirosis is usually reported in the warm season. However, in tropical region leptospirosis tends to occur throughout the year, and increases when it rains [71].

Leptospires are able to enter through skin abrasion or mucous membrane. The cycle of *Leptospira* infection is shown in Figure 2. Water-born transmission was reported in several outbreaks of leptospirosis [56, 72]. Transmission directly between humans has been rarely reported due to the acidic pH of human urine which does not allow leptospires to survive after excretion. Infection via inhalation or ingestion of contaminated dust, the mucosal membranes of the respiratory and gastrointestinal tract, and animal bites are rare [10, 73-75].

Animals that can transmit the infection include rodents such as rat, followed by dogs, pigs, and cattle. Animals may be asymptomatic carriers of which leptospires colonize the renal tubules and are released into the urine for a long period of time [19]. Leptospires are able to survive in a warm, humid, and neutral or slightly alkaline pH environment. Humans are accidental hosts. The risk factors for infection include exposure to a variety of sources that may be associated with infection or exposure to animals, such as farmers, veterinarians, and slaughterhouse workers [10].

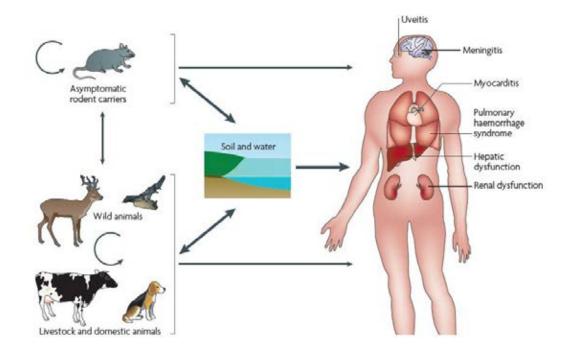


Figure 2. The cycle of *Leptospira* infection. The rodents are asymptomatic carriers or reservoir hosts of *Leptospira*. Leptospires can infect humans, wild animals, domestic and livestock animals by contact with contaminated soil and water [19].

Outer membrane proteins (OMPs) of Leptospira

In contrast to saprophytic species, pathogenic *Leptospira* have been shown to attach cultured mammalian cells indicating the association of their attachment ability and virulence [76, 77]. The initial step of infection requires the interaction of host cells and pathogens. Then, pathogens invade the host tissue and colonize in target organs. Therefore, the host-pathogen interaction is crucial for understanding the mechanisms of pathogenesis. OMPs of *Leptospira* are utilized as a part of the cells in direct contact with the environment and the host tissue including the immune system [78, 79]. Therefore, OMPs play an important role in the pathogenesis of leptospirosis.

Leptospiral OMPs have been categorized into three classes [80]; (i) lipoprotein, the most abundant class, such as LipL32, LipL41 and LipL21. (ii) transmembrane protein, such as OmpL1. (iii) peripheral membrane protein such as LipL45 (Figure 3). Several OMPs are up regulated *in vivo*, expressed only in pathogenic strains, and can stimulate protective host immune responses but their functions in pathogenic *Leptospira* are not well understood.

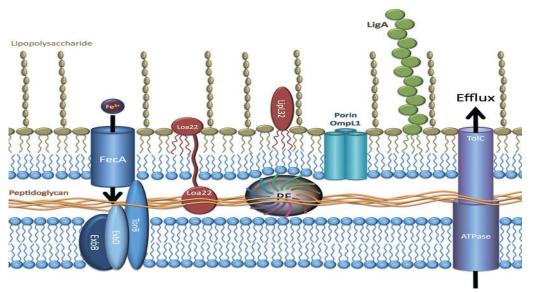


Figure 3.Structure of leptospiral cell wall containing the outer membrane,periplasm, peptidoglycan, and inner membrane [81].

Expression of leptospiral OMPs depends on environmental conditions, such as osmolarity and temperature and can be up or down regulated in the host to render leptospiral survival and pathogenesis. The OMPs of *Leptospira* can induce immune response of the host [82-85]. OMPs on the surface of *L. interrogans* serovar Copenhageni L1-130 strain is shown in Table 2. Proteomic analysis of virulent *L. interrogans* serovar Pomona revealed 86 leptospiral OMPs such as OmpL1, LipL21, LipL31, LipL32/Hap-1, LipL41, LipL 45, LipL46, LruA/LipL71, OmpA-like protein Loa22, and 8 novel hypothetical proteins which were absent in the saprophytic *L. biflexa* [86]. The genetic tool has been employed to reveal the role of putative virulence factors of pathogenic *Leptospira* in pathogenesis. For instance, Loa22 has been defined as a virulence factor using transposon mutagenesis approach since the virulence of *loa22*⁻ mutant was attenuated in hamsters [87]. Hence, genetic tool will provide the essential information to understanding biology of pathogenic *Leptospira* and pathogenesis of leptospirosis.

Name	Locus	Tag	Size	Сору	Knockout	Putative	References
		Туре	(kD)	Number	Virulent?	Function(s)	
LipL32	11352	Lip	32	38,050	Yes	Binds	[88, 89]
						host ligands	
						- fibronectin	
						- collagen IV	
Loa22	10191	Lip	22	30,329	NO	Binds	[90, 91]
						Host ligands	
						- fibronectin	
						- fibrinogen	
LipL41	12966	Lip	41	10,531	-	Binds hemin	
LipL21	10011	Lip	21	8,830	-	-	[92]
OmpL36	13166	ТМ	36	8,021	-	-	[93]
OmpL1	10973	ТМ	33	5,441	-	Porin	[94, 95]
LipL46	11885	Lip	46	5,276	-	-	[96]
LigB	10464	Lip	200	914	YES	Binds	[97, 98]
						host ligands	
						- fibronectin	
						- fibrinogen	
						- collagen I, IV	
						- elastin	
LigA	10465	Lip	130	553	-	Binds	[97]
						host ligands	
						- fibronectin	
						- fibrinogen	
						- collagen I, IV	

Table 2.Surface-exposed outer membrane proteins of *Leptospira interrogans*serovar Copenhageni strain L1-130 [Lip, lipoprotein; TM, transmembrane] [81].

LipL32

Protein LipL32 or haemolysis associated protein 1 (Hap1) is the major outer membrane protein of pathogenic Leptospira, accounted for approximately 75% of total OMPs [30, 31]. The size of this protein is approximately 32 kDa [30, 99]. It is highly conserved in all pathogenic leptospires but is absent in non-pathogenic Leptospira. Therefore, it has been used as one of targets for diagnosis of leptospirosis such as in polymerase chain reaction and enzyme-linked immunosorbent assays [33, 100]. LipL32 was demonstrated to express at a high level in leptospires during acute lethal infection [101]. It is highly immunogenic [31, 102]. Immunohistochemical analysis has shown that LipL32 was expressed on the surface of Leptospira in the proximal tubule and the interstitium of infected hamster kidneys, suggesting its function in tubular colonization [31]. Purified LipL32 induced the expression of Toll-like receptor 2 (TLR2) and stimulated the release of the monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 (MCP-1), RANTES, nitric oxide synthase (iNOS) and tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF- α) in mouse proximal renal tubule cells [103, 104]. In addition, LipL32 has been shown to bind extracellular matrix (ECM) such as laminins, collagens, and fibronectins [89, 105]. The ECM-binding domain of LipL32 was characterized to be in the C-terminal region [106, 107]. LipL32 at amino acid residues 21-272 showed Ca2+ binding activity [108]. Surprisingly, virulence of lipL32 mutant constructed by transposon mutagenesis was not attenuated in hamsters and rats used as a model of acute and chronic infection, respectively. It is possible that function of LipL32 may be redundant and other OMPs may compensate its absence in the *lipL32* mutant [109]. Similarly, potential virulence genes such as *ligB* [110], *ligC, lenB and lenE* were not essential for virulence in animal models [111]. These studies supported that L. interrogans has a high degree of redundancy in virulence mechanisms. However, due to its high expression in acute infection and conservation among pathogenic leptospires, interaction of LipL32 to host proteins as a part of host-microbe interaction cannot be excluded and may play a role in pathogenesis of leptospirosis. However, vaccine construct of lipL32 gene and adenovirus vector showed a survival rate of 87% in mongolian gerbils [35, 36]. In addition, pcDNA 3.1-*lipL32* DNA vaccine showed partial cross-serovar protection [36].

Pathogenesis

The mechanism of leptospirosis remains unclear. Several leptospiral virulence factors that cause disease have been reported. However, the virulence factors remain largely unknown. The initial step of infection is leptospiral adherence to host cells, replication, followed by dissemination to target organs. Leptospires does not cause inflammation at the site of entry [10, 56]. Leptospires can stimulate the innate and adaptive immunity production. Motility of *Leptospira* in the host is probably important in initial infection for invasion and dissemination to target organ such as lung, liver, kidney. The study of whole genome sequencing of pathogenic *L. interrogans* serovar Lai revealed 4,768 predicted genes including about 50 hypothetical genes related to chemotaxis and motility [67, 112, 113].

Endotoxin of leptospires has been reported in numerous studies. Many serovars exhibit endotoxic activity [74, 114, 115]. Leptospiral endotoxin is lipopolysaccharide (LPS) which has been shown to be less toxic than that of other Gram-negative bacteria [74, 114, 115]. Moreover, LPS causes coagulation defects by reducing platelet number that leads to internal bleeding and tissue damage. Previous studies reported that O antigen of leptospiral LPS in target organs of chronically infected rat was higher than O antigen derived from those of acutely infected guinea pigs, indicating that the expression of O antigen is associated with acute or chronic infection of the host [116]. Several hemolysins have been described in pathogenic leptospires such as sphingomyelinase C, sphingomyelinase H and haemolysins-associated protein-1 (Hap-1, or LipL32) [32, 117-122]. Moreover, heamolytic, sphingomyelinase and phospholipase activities have been characterized *in vitro*. On the other hand, sphingomyelinase C and sphingomyelinase H did not show sphingomyelinase activity. They act as a cytotoxic pore-forming protein to many mammalian cells [121]. In serovar Lai, many hemolysins and sphingomyelinase-like proteins have been identified [32].

Pathogenic leptospires show attachment ability to endothelial, fibroblast, kidney epithelial, and monocyte/macrophage cell lines *in vitro* [123-125]. In addition, they adhere to renal epithelial cell *in vitro* [77]. A large number of adhesins of pathogenic *Leptospira* are mostly OMPs. They have been shown ECM binding ability *in vitro* [78]. Pathogenic strains of leptospires are able to adhere to ECM components such as collagen type I, type IV, laminin and fibronectin [85]. For example, LenA (or Lsa24), Lsa21, Lp49, LipL32, Lig proteins were shown to bind to laminin, collagen type IV, collagen type V, fibronectin in a dose-dependent manner [107, 126-129]. The attachment between endostatin-like proteins A (LenA) and human plasminogen was demonstrated [130]. Leptospiral fibronectin binding protein has been described and shown in the process of host infection. LipL32 was also described as an ECM binding protein [89]. All adhesins of pathogenic leptospires are expressed at the appropriate conditions such as temperature, pH, and osmolarity [78].

Laboratory diagnosis

Leptospires can be detected in blood, urine, tissue, cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) and peritoneal dialysis fluid of patients. Diagnosis of leptospirosis is difficult due to a variety of clinical symptoms and depends on laboratory assays.

Microscopic demonstration

Leptospires can be detected under a dark-field and immunofluorescence microscopes. The samples such as blood, urine, CSF and peritoneal dialysis fluid have been used. Minimal requirement of leptospires that is necessary for observation by dark-field microscope is approximately 10⁴ cell/ml. Immunofluorescence and immunoperoxidase staining have been applied to increase sensitivity and specificity of direct microscopic examination. In addition, leptospires can be detected by histophatological examination in tissue by staining with silver staining or immunohistochemical staining [131].

Cultivation

The isolation of leptospries from blood, CSF, and tissue can be achieved during the first week of infection and from the urine and kidney during approximately 2nd and 3rd weeks [132]. This approach requires a long period of incubation, resulting in delayed diagnosis. It also requires a special enriched medium, which make the method complicated and expensive. Thus, culture is rarely used as a routine test for diagnosis.

Serological diagnosis

Serology is the common approach for leptospirosis diagnosis. The antibody can be detected about 5-7 days after the patient begins to show symptoms. Detection of antibody can be done in several ways, such as microscopic agglutination test (MAT) which is the standard method for diagnosis of leptospirosis. The MAT detects agglutinating antibodies in sera of patients. The standard criteria for positive MAT is four-fold antibody titer increase or a high single titer of 1/100 or above. The MAT is read under dark-field microscope. The method is quite complicated and requires experienced personnel.

There are several other serological tests, such as macroscopic slide agglutination test (MSAT) [133, 134], indirect hemagglutination test (IHA), latex agglutination test (LA) [135-138], indirect immunofluorescence test (IFA), complement fixation test (CF), and enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) [139-144].

Molecular diagnosis

DNA of leptospires can be detected in blood, cerebrospinal fluid, and urine by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) method, which is highly sensitive [145-149]. Various primer pairs have been used for PCR detection of specific target genes of leptospires including 16S rRNA or 23S rRNA gene [150-152]. Currently, a real-time quantitative Taqman PCR was utilized to identify 16S rRNA gene of leptospires in patient and environmental samples [153]. Moreover, real-time SYBR green PCR is used to detect *lipl32 gene* of pathogenic strains [100].

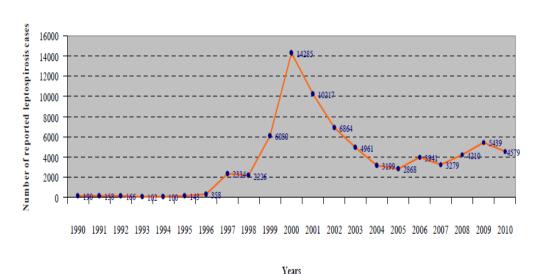
Immune response against leptospirosis.

Protective immune response against leptospirosis is unclear. Humoral-mediated immunity has been shown to be utmost important to protect against *Leptospira* infection [18-20]. The antibodies produced during an infection are agglutinating antibodies [21]. LPS is the immunodominant antigen to stimulate production of protective antibodies against *Leptospira*, but are serovar-specific [2, 154, 155]. The passive transfer of convalescent serum can induce protective immunity [156]. Anti-LPS antibody can prevent infection in animal studies such as hamsters and guinea pigs [21, 157, 158]. LPS of *Leptospira* can stimulate human macrophages through Toll-like receptor (TLR) 2 whereas it can stimulate murine macrophages via both TLR2 and TLR4 [159, 160]. Leptospiral components can stimulate the secretion of pro-inflammatory cytokines and induce production of chemokines, such as inducible nitric oxide (iNOS), tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF- α), and monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 (MCP-1) via NF-kB pathway in renal tubular cells [104, 161].

However, the role of cell-mediated immunity has been reported to be important in preventing the disease as well. For example, killed strain of *L. interrogans* serovar Hardjo was shown to stimulate cell-mediated immunity, particularly Th1 response, as shown by interferon (IFN)- γ secretion by TCR $\gamma\delta$ + T cell and WC1+ gammadelta T cell memory population [23-27].

Leptospirosis in thailand

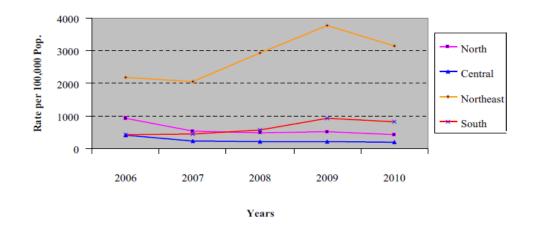
The incidence of leptospirosis in Thailand has been increased from 398 cases in 1996 to 14,285 cases in 2000, and 2,868 cases in 2005 [13]. The increasing number of cases during the year 1990-2010 is shown in Figure 4. Up to 90% of reported cases are in the Northeast region of Thailand. However, more cases have been reported in the southern region (Figure 5). Risk groups of leptospirosis in Thailand include agricultural workers, paddy farmers, and rat hunters [15]. Up to 17% of patients presented with fever in the hospitals at Thai-Myanmar border area was shown to be leptospirosis [17]. Most patients with leptospirosis are usually in the ages of 45-54 (Figure 6). In Thailand the disease usually occurs during the rainy season between June to October as shown in Figure 7 [162]. The most commonly reported serovars in Thailand are Autumnalis, Bratislava, Bataviae, Javanica, Hebdomadis, Grippotyphosa, Bangkok, and Pyrogenes [14, 16].



Number of reported leptospirosis cases in Thailand 1990-2010

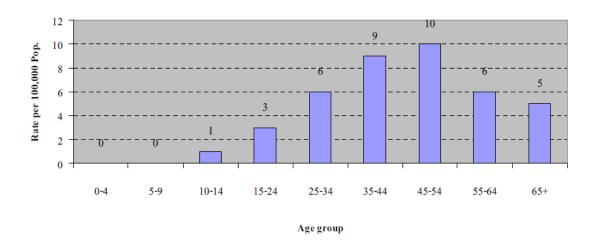
Figure 4. Reported cases of leptospirosis in Thailand during 1990-2010 [162].

Reported Cases of Leptospirosis per 100,000 Population, by Region,

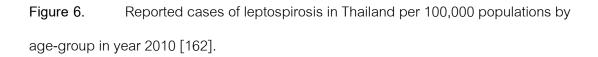


Thailand, 2006 - 2010

Figure 5.Reported cases of leoptospirosis per 100,000 populations by region ofThailand [162].



Reported Cases of Leptospirosis per 100,000 Population, by Age-group, Thailand, 2010



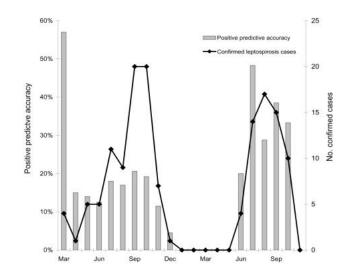


Figure 7.The results of laboratory confirmed leptospirosis in Thailand betweenMarch 2003-November 2004 [14].

Vaccines of Leptospirosis

Vaccine is a biological preparation that establishes or improves immunity to a particular disease. Vaccines can be used for prophylaxis to prevent the disease or for therapeutic purpose to ameliorate or cure the disease. Nevertheless, licensed human vaccines for leptospirosis are currently administered only in a few countries such as Cuba [163] and China [164]. Commercially available vaccines for leptospirosis are whole cell killed vaccine that currently restricted to be used only in animals and can prevent infection by homologous serovars (Table 3). Several types of vaccines for leptospirosis have been developed as follows [28].

1. Killed Vaccine

Killed vaccine is prepared by inactivation of whole-cell microorganisms by various means, such as chemicals, heat, or formalin kill. In addition, hydrostatic pressure-treated leptospires can be used as killed vaccine when treated with 2 kbar for 60 minutes [165, 166]. The vaccine can stimulate antigen-specific proliferation response in peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMC) of cattle after 2-month post-vaccination [167]. The killed whole-cell vaccine has several side effects including pain, nausea, fever; induce short-term immunity and serovar-specific protection; and may induce autoimmune disease, such as uveitis [28, 168, 169].

Name	Manufacturer	Serovars incorporated	Amimal host
Leptavold H	Scherring – plough	Hardjoprajitno and	Cattle
	animal helath, U.K.	Hardjobovis	
Leptpferm - 5	Pfizer animal health	Canicola, Grippotyphosa,	Pigs, Cattle
		Hardjo, Pomona, and	
		Icterohemorrhagiae	
Farrowsure	Pfizer animal health	Pomona, Grippotyphosa,	Pigs
		Icterohemorrhagiae, Hardjo,	
		Canicola, and Porcine	
		parvovirus, Erysipelas	
Suileptovac	Not known	Tarassovi, Canicola, Pomona,	Pigs
TPC1		and Icterohemorrhagiae	
Nobivac	Intervet International	Canicola	Dogs

Table 3.	List of com	imercial va	accines fo	or use in animals.
----------	-------------	-------------	------------	--------------------

2. Live attenuated vaccine

Live attenuated vaccine is prepared from attenuated virulent or non-virulent strains. Leptospires are attenuated by passage through eggs, exposure to gamma irradiation (less than 70,000 rad) or subculture *in vitro* for a long time [170, 171]. The limitation of this vaccine is incomplete inactivation resulting in the risk of reversion to the virulent form and contamination during preparation [172]. Cattle immunized twice with live attenuated *L. interrogans* serovar Pomona was able to neutralize against homologous infection and reduce abortion rate [173]. In addition, live attenuated *L. interrogans* serovar Pomoteted hamsters and swine from death, leptospiruria and renal lesions [174, 175]. Amporn *et al.* showed that live, attenuated LPS mutant derived from *L. interrogans* serovar Manilae was used as a vaccine which was able to induce protection against infection with homologous and heterologous challenges [176].

3. Subunit vaccine

Subunit vaccine has been studied due to limitations of killed whole and live attenuated vaccines. The current development of leptospirosis vaccines have focused on identifying vaccine candidates such as LPS [10,40-47], lipoproteins [48-56], OMPs [52,53,57-62] and potential virulence factors [39,63-68]. The subunit vaccine has the advantage of ability to select only leptospiral components that are specific to and conserved for most pathogenic leptospires and strongly immunogenic as vaccine candidates. The main goal is to develop a vaccine that can prevent infection caused by several pathogenic *Leptospira* species, confer long-term immunity, and has no side effects [29].

3.1. Recombinant protein vaccines

Recombinant protein vaccines have been reported to induce a better immune response and cause fewer side effects than killed whole cell vaccines (Table 4). Reverse vaccinology approach has been utilized to search for novel vaccine candidates from whole genome sequences of *Leptospira* (Figure 8) [177]. So far there are several reports of recombinant protein vaccine formulas using different combination of antigens and adjuvants which yield different success rate of protection (Table 4). For example, LipL32 and LipL41 has been reported to induce partial immunity against leptospirosis in animal models [34]. However, immunization of hamsters with LipL32 and LigA stimulated antibody responses but found no protection after challenge with virulent *L. interrogans* [178].

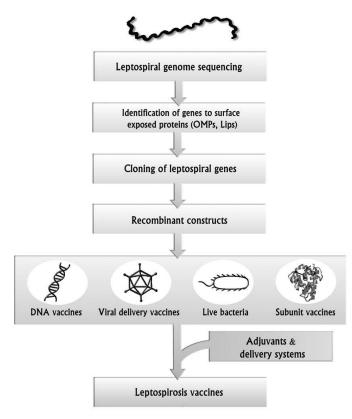


Figure 8. Schematic flow chart of reverse vaccinology approach to identify novel vaccine candidates in leptospiral vaccine development [177].

 Table 4.
 Examples of recombinant protein vaccine formulas for leptospirosis

[177].

Antigen (aa)	Serovar	Adjuvant	Challenge	%Surv	vival	Ref.
		Dose/Via	Serovar/Dose	Tested	Control	
LigA (68–1224)	Manilae	Freund's	Manilae/10 ⁶	90	-	[179]
LigB (68–1191)		3 x 10µg /SC/M		90	-	
LigA + LigB				100	-	
LigA (32–626) +	Pomona	Alum	Pomona/10 ⁸	100	-	[180]
LigA (631–1225)		2 x 50 µg/SC				
LigA (625–224)	Copenhageni	Freund's	Copenhage	60-100	0	[181]
		80 + 40 µg/SC	ni/10 ³			
LigA (631–1225)	Pomona	Alum	Pomona/10 ⁵	50	0	[182]
		2 x 10 µg/SC				
		PLGA		85		
		1 x 20 µg/SC				
		Liposomes		87		
		2 x 10 µg/SC				
LigB (31–630)	Pomona	Alum	Pomona/10 ⁸	62–75	12–	[183]
LigB (630–1418)		2 x 50 µg/SC		50–62	25	
LigB (1418-				25–37		
1890)				75–87		
LigB + LigB +						
LigB						
LigB (307–630) :	Pomona	Oil	Pomona/2.5	50	0	[184]
(1014–1165)		2 x 50 µg/SC	x10 ²			
				50		
LigB (307–403) :						

(1014–1165)				50		
LigB (307–630) :						
(1014–165):				50		
LipL32 (185–				50		
272)						
LigB (307–403):				34		
(1014-						
1165):LipL32						
(185–272)						
LigB (47–630)						
LipL32 (265–	Autumnalis	-	Canicoloa/1	87	51	[185]
271)		2 x 10 ⁹ pfu/	04			
		IM/G				
LipL32 (23–273)	Copenhageni	-	Copenhage	12–56	0-20	[186]
		2 x 106 cfu/IP	ni/102			
LipL41 (53–408)	Grippotyphosa	-	Grippothyph	17-19	0-33	[187]
OmpL1 (1–321)		3 x 50 µg/IP	osa/102	0-100		
LipL41 +				50-100		
OmpL1						
Lp0607 (20–	Pomona	Alum	Pom/10 ⁸	66–100	0–50	[188]
267)		2 x 50 µg/SC		66–75		
Lp1118 (26–				66–71		
317)				87		
Lp1454 (32–						
359)						
Lp0607 +						
Lp1110 ⊥						

Lp1118 +

Lp1454						
Lp0607 +	Pomona	Leptosomes	Pomona/10 ⁸	75	0	[189]
Lp1118 +		2 x 10 µg/SC				
Lp1454						
Lp0607 +	Pomona	Smegmosomes	Pomona/10 ⁸	75	0	[190]
Lp1118 +		2 x 10 µg/SC				
Lp1454						
LIC 10494 (28-	Copenhageni	Alum	Copenhage	29–50	0–20	[191]
100)		3 x 50 µg/SC	ni/2 x 10 ⁵	38–50		
LIC 12730 (19–				29–30		
126)						
LIC 12922 (47–						
166)						
Lp4337 (2–429)	Pomona	Oil	Pomona/10 ⁸	67–83	17	[192]
Lp3685 (7–661)		2 x 50 µg/SC		50–67		
Lp0222 (7–196)				33-50		
[or Loa22]						

3.2. DNA vaccine

DNA vaccines have been studied because of several advantages as shown in Table 5. Activation of immune system by plasmid immunization is a new way to produce vaccines that are convenient, easy to produce and safe since the plasmid is not infectious and does not increase the number of its own in the host that received the vaccine. In addition, DNA vaccine can be modified to induce immune system of both cell-mediated immunity (CMI) and humoral-mediated immunity (HMI). Comparative analysis of DNA vaccine with other vaccine types is shown in Table 6 [193]. Current licensed DNA therapies are shown in Table 7. Several DNA vaccines for leptospirosis have been reported in several studies (Table 8). For example, a *Mycobacterium bovis* BCG vector expressing LipL32 protein protected 56% of immunized hamsters. *LipL32* DNA vaccine in BCG or Adenovirus constructs partially prevented leptospiral infection (38-72%) [185].

commendable qualities	Attributes
Design	 Synthetic and PCR methods allow simple
	engineering design modifications
	 Optimization of plasmids through codon
	 Brings the power of genomics to vaccine
	construction
Time to manufacture	 Rapid production and formulation
	 Reproducible, large-scale production and isolation
Safety	 Unable to revert into virulent forms, unlike live
	vaccines
	 No significant adverse events in any clinical trial any
	thousands vaccinated so far
Stability	 More temperature-stable than conventional
	vaccines
	• Long shelf life
Mobility	• Ease of storage and transport
Immunogenicity	• Induction of antigen-specific T and B cell responses
	similar to those elicited by live attenuated platforms

Table 5.Advantages of DNA vaccination [194, 195].

		Live	Killed/protein	DNA
		attenuated	subunit	vaccine
Immune response				
Humoral	B cells	+++	+++	+++
Cellular	CD4+	+/- Th1	+/- Th1	+++ Th1 ^a
	CD8+	+++	-	++
	Antigen presentation	MHC class	MHC class II	MHC
		&		class
				&
Memory	Humoral	+++	+++	+++
	Cellular	+++	+/-	++
Manufacturing	Ease of development	+	++	++++
	and production			
	Cost	+	+	+++
	Transport/Storage	+	+++	+++
Safety		++ ^c	++++	+++ ^b

Table 6.Comparative analysis of various vaccine formulations [193].

^a Th2 responses can be induced by gene gun immunization in mice.

^b Data available only from Phase 1 trials.

[°] Live/attenuated vaccines may be precluded for use in immunocompromised patients and certain infections such as HIV.

., .		2		- ·
Vaccine	Name	Company	Date licensed	Target
West Nile virus	West Nile	Centers for Disease	2005	Horses
	Innovator	Control and Prevention	USA	
		and Fort Dodge		
		Laboratories		
Infectious	Apex-IHN	Novartis	2005	Salmon
haematopoietic			Canada	
necrosis virus				
Growth	LifeTide-	VGX Animal Health	2007	Swine
hormone	SW5		Australia	and food
Releasing				animals
hormone				
Melanoma	Canine	Merial, Memorial Sloan-	2007 USA,	Dogs
	Melanoma	Kettering Cancer Center	conditional	
	Vaccine	and The Animal Medical	license	
		Center of New York		

Table 7.Current licensed DNA therapies [194].

Table 8.DNA vaccine candidates for leptospirosis [29]].
---	----

Antigen	Adjuvant	Animal	Serovar	Vaccine	References
		model		efficacy	
				(%)	
LipL41 and OmpL1	Escherichia	Hamsters	Grippotyphosa	40–100	[187]
	<i>coli</i> OMVs				
LipL32	Adenovirus	Gerbils	Canicola	73–75	[185]
LigA and LigB	Freunds	Mice	Manilae	90–100	
LipL32	DNA	Gerbils	Canicola	39	[196]
LigA	Alum	Hamsters	Pomona	100	[180]
Carboxyl teminus					
of LigA	Freunds	Hamsters	Copenhageni	67–100	
LipL32	BCG	Hamsters	Copenhageni	50	[186]
LigA	DNA	Hamsters	Pomona	100	[197]
LigB	Alum	Hamsters	Pomona	67–86	[183]
C terminus of LigA	Liposomes	Hamsters	Pomona	88	[182]

The mechanism of immune response induction of DNA vaccines

DNA vaccine is constructed by cloning a gene of interest into the plasmid DNA. The vaccine is injected into the skin or muscle in combination with adjuvant or by technique that improves the efficiency of DNA vaccine delivery. After immunization, the plasmid uses host cellular machinery to stimulate the immune system both humoral and cellular immunity responses as follows (Figure 9).

- i. Plasmid is transported into the nucleus of transfected cells, such as myocytes or keratinocytes as well as antigen presenting cells (APCs). The endogenous antigen will be processed and presented through MHC class I molecules and stimulate cytotoxic lymphocytes (CTLs).
- ii. Plasmid is transported into the nucleus of transfected cells, such as myocytes or keratinocytes as well as antigen presenting cells (APCs). The gene is translated into proteins and excreted outside the cell to become exogenous antigens before it is phagocytosed and go through the endocytic pathway. Then, the antigen is presented as peptides via MHC class II molecules to T-cells leading to activation of cellular immunity, secretion of cytokines from stimulated T cells, and production of memory cells. The cytokines secreted from T cells can further stimulate immune cells, for example, IFN- γ can induce macrophages and IL-4 stimulates antibody production by B cells [194, 198].

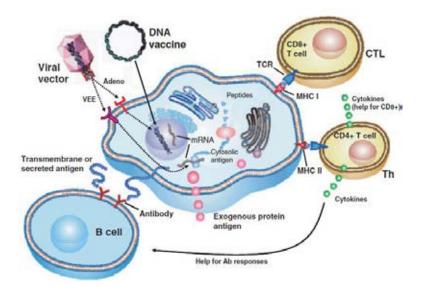


Figure 9.Pathways of DNA vaccine to induce humoral and cell-mediated immuneresponses [199].

Strategies to improve efficacy of DNA vaccine

There are several strategies to improve immunogenicity of DNA vaccine, such as plasmid optimization, gene optimization, improved RNA structural design, novel formulations and immune adjuvants, and more effective delivery approaches as shown in Figure 10 [194].

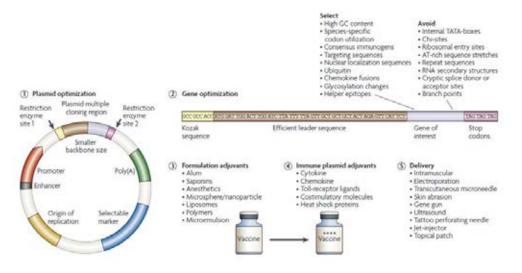


Figure 10. DNA vaccine optimization strategies to enhance immunogenicity [194].

Nanoparticles for vaccine delivery systems

Properties of delivery systems are crucial for its efficacy for vaccine delivery and antigen uptake, such as particle size, shape, surface charge, hydrophobicity and hydrophilicity, as well as receptor [200]. Nanoparticles are solid colloidal particles from 1 to 1000 nm in size which is the size range for efficient uptake of antigens by APCs [201] as shown in Figure 11. The role of particle size in vaccine design affects not only on antigen uptake but also on processing and antigen transport. Due to their small size, mobility of nanoparticles into the cells is enhanced resulting in higher accumulation at the inflammatory site. Uptake of antigens by APCs, particularly B cells and dendritic cells, is the key step in the generation of potent immune responses [202].

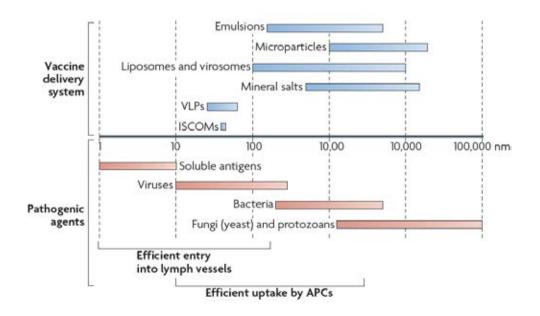


Figure 11. The size ranges of various adjuvant delivery systems and the dimensions of different pathogenic agents are indicated on a nanometre log scale [202].

Chitosan for delivery system

Chitosan is a natural and biodegradable polymer. Chitosan is a deacetylated form of chitin under alkaline condition. It is composed of D-glucosamine and N-acetyl-D-glucosamine containing β -(1-4) glycosidic bonds (Figure 12).

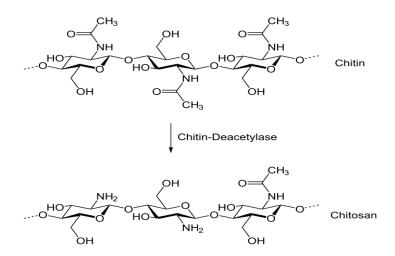


Figure 12. Chemical structure of chitin and chitosan.

Chitosan is found in the shells of crustaceans, such as lobsters, crabs, shrimp, and many other organisms, including insects and fungi as shown in Table 9. It is one of the most abundant biodegradable materials in the world. Chitosan is degraded through enzymatic hydrolysis by chitinases, chitosanases, and other non-specific enzymes such as lysozymes [203]. Chitosan has been used in various applications, such as medical and pharmaceutical substances, treatment of industrial wastewater, beauty products, Industry, agriculture, plants (Table 10 and 11). Chitosan is not toxic and poorly allergenic biological polymers [37, 204]. Chitosan is positive charged due to the weakly basic amino groups of the N-acetyl-D-glucosamine monomers. This is an advantage since it can interact with negatively charged sites on cell surfaces [38]. It is also able to alter tight junctions, thereby enhancing the paracellular uptake of peptides and proteins

[39, 40]. Chitosan can be formulated into micro- or nanoparticles by precipitation [43]. Chitosan suspensions and chitosan micro- and nanoparticles have been reported to exhibit immune-stimulating activity, such as increasing accumulation and activation of macrophages and polymorphonuclear cells, suppressing tumour growth, and enhancing cytotoxic T lymphocyte (CTL) responses and delayed type hypersensitivity (DTH). Chitosan has been used for mucosal delivery due to enhanced binding to the mucosa such as buccal, nasal, intestinal, and vaginal mucosa [205, 206]. Currently safer gene delivery systems including chitosan have been developed to replace viral vectors. Chitosan has positive charges that can bind to negatively charged molecules, such as nucleic acids, mucosal surface or plasma membrane [37]. Chitosan conjugated with DNA is found to be effective in introducing DNA into cells through endocytosis by binding to receptors on the cell surface [41, 42]. Chitosan nanoparticles can promote both Th1 and Th2 responses as shown by in vitro stimulatory effect on both macrophage nitric oxide (NO) production and chemotaxis [46]. Chitosan solution was demonstrated to enhance both humoral and cell-mediated immune responses after subcutaneous vaccination [44, 45]. It has also been used in cancer immunotherapy. MC/plasmid encoding murine IL-12 complex was introduced into BALB/c mice bearing CT-26 carcinoma cells resulting in suppression of tumor growth and angiogenesis, and significant induction of cell cycle arrest and apoptosis [207]. The goal of using mannosylated chitosan complexes is to target vehicle binding to a cell-specific receptor including mannose receptor (MR)-mediated endocytosis potentially leading to enhancement of both innate as well as adaptive immune responses [49]. A variety of approaches involving delivery of antigens to the MR have demonstrated effective induction of potent cellular and humoral immune responses [50].

Table 9.Sources of chitin and chitosan [208].

Source structure	Туре
Chitin	
Insects	
Cuticle	lpha -Chitin
Ovipositors	lpha -Chitin
Beetle cocoon	γ -Chitin
Crustaceans	
Crab shell	lpha -Chitin
Shrimp shell	lpha -Chitin
Squid	
Ommastrephes pen	$oldsymbol{eta}$ -Chitin
Loligo stomach wall	γ-Chitin
Centric Diatoms	
Thalassiosira fluviatilis	β -Chitin (100% N-acetylated)
Algae	$oldsymbol{eta}$ -Chitin
Fungi	
Mucor rouxi	$oldsymbol{eta}$ -Chitin
Aspergillis nidulans	$oldsymbol{eta}$ -Chitin
Fungi	
Mucor rouxi	60–92% deacetylated
Deacetylated chitin	
Shrimp shell	Mw up to 1.6 × 106 Da.

Table 10.Principal properties of chitosan in relation to its use in biomedicalapplications.

Potential Biomedical applications	Principal characteristics
Surgical sutures Biocompatible	Surgical sutures Biocompatible
Dental implants Biodegradable	Dental implants Biodegradable
Artificial skin Renewable	Artificial skin Renewable
Rebuilding of bone Film forming	Rebuilding of bone Film forming
Corneal contact lenses Hydrating agent	Corneal contact lenses Hydrating
	agent
Time release drugs for animals and	 Nontoxic, biological tolerance
humans	
Encapsulating material	 Hydrolyzed by lyzosyme
	 Wound healing properties
	• Efficient against bacteria,
	viruses, fungi

Agriculture	 Defensive mechanism in plants
	 Stimulation of plant growth
	 Seed coating, Frost protection
	• Time release of fertilizers and nutrients into the soil
Water & waste treatment	 Flocculant to clarify water (drinking water, pools)
	 Removal of metal ions
	• Ecological polymer (eliminate synthetic polymers)
	Reduce odors
Food & beverages	 Not digestible by human (dietary fiber)
	Bind lipids (reduce cholesterol)
	Preservative
	• Thickener and stabilizer for sauces
	• Protective, fungistatic, antibacterial coating for fruit
Cosmetics & toiletries	Maintain skin moisture
	• Treat acne
	 Improve suppleness of hair
	• Reduce static electricity in hair
	• Tone skin
	• Oral care (toothpaste, chewing gum)
Biopharmaceutics	 Immunologic, antitumoral
	Hemostatic and anticoagulant
	 Healing, bacteriostatic

Table 11.Principal applications for chitosan.

Chitosan nanoparticles for gene delivery

Chitosan is able to bind to DNA through the electrostatic interactions between positively charged glucosamine of chitosan and negatively charged phosphates of DNA. Bowman et al. showed that chitosan nanoparticles can be used as a carrier for Factor VIII DNA delivery via the oral route in hemophilia A mice [209]. In 2009, Li et al reported that admistration of chitosan-DNA nanoparticles encoding house dust mite allergen (Derp2) via oral delivery was able to induce an immune response against the allergy in BALB/c mice [210]. Chitosan nanoparticles are effective in drug and gene delivery. Their advantages include slow and controlled release of the particles in solution, which allows better and more stable delivery of conjugated particles including DNA vaccine. Due to small particles they can easily pass biological barriers *in vivo* such as blood-brain barrier. In addition, chitosan nanoparticle acts as a gene delivery system by enhancing its movement from intracellular endosomes and then releasing conjugated DNA to its target location in the nucleus or cytoplasm or cell membrane leading to improvement of gene targeting [203, 211] as illustrated in Figure 13.

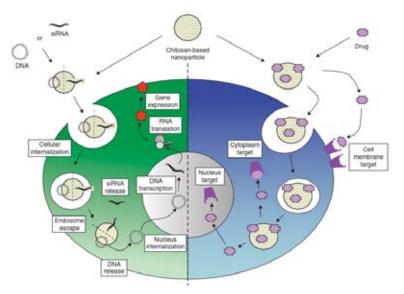


Figure 13. Schematic representation of DNA or siRNA (left) and drug (right) delivery using nanocarriers [203].

Mannose receptor (MR)-mediated gene delivery

Mannose receptor (MR), a C-type lectin, is expressed on the surface of macrophages and dendritic cells [212]. The mannose receptors bind to mannose molecules of a variety of microorganisms such as, LPS of *Escherichia coli*, lipoarabiomannan from *M. tuberculosis* and manan from *Cannida albicans*. It may play a role in innate immunity, such as activation of lectin pathway of the complement system, opsonization and inducing phagocytosis or endocytosis by macrophages (Figure 14) [52, 213, 214]. The mannose receptors are expressed on hepatic and lymphatic sinusoidal endothelial cells, interstitial cells of secretory organs, mucosal sites, and APCs such as tissue macrophages (Kupffer, dermal, peritoneal and alveolar), and macrophages of red pulp of the spleen and subcapsular sinus of lymph nodes [215].

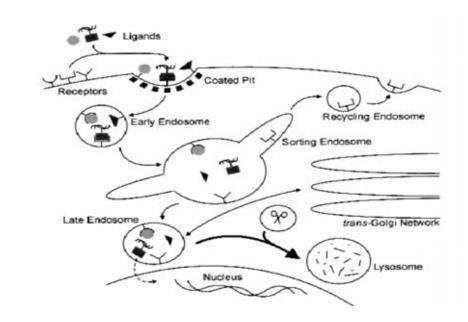


Figure 14.Receptor-mediated trafficking for ligands and gene delivery vectors[216].

New approach to vaccine development is mannose conjugation which helps to target mannose receptors on the cell surface with high affinity and specificity [217]. Mannose conjugation can be achieved by a variety of chemical reactions resulting in the connection between a mannose and a protein or multiple carriers such as chitosan (Figure 15), liposome. Previous report showed that mannosylation of antigen (Ags) helps stimulating Ag presentation by MHC class I and MHC class and enhancing T cell stimulation more than 200-fold compared with the non-mannosylated Ags [51-53]. Mannose-targeted system has been used in the development of vaccines against pathogens and cancer and drug delivery [217]. Mice immunized with mannosylated vaccines were shown to induce Th1 cytokines and stimulate Ag-specific cytotoxic T lymphocytes (CTL) [50]. Moreover, mannosylated chitosan (MC) was shown to have low cytotoxicity and enhance transfection efficiency into the RAW 264.7 macrophage cell line [47] and mouse peritoneal macrophages [48]. Therefore, mannosylated chitosan is a promising delivery system for DNA vaccine.

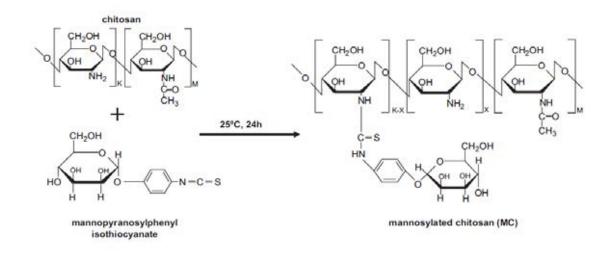
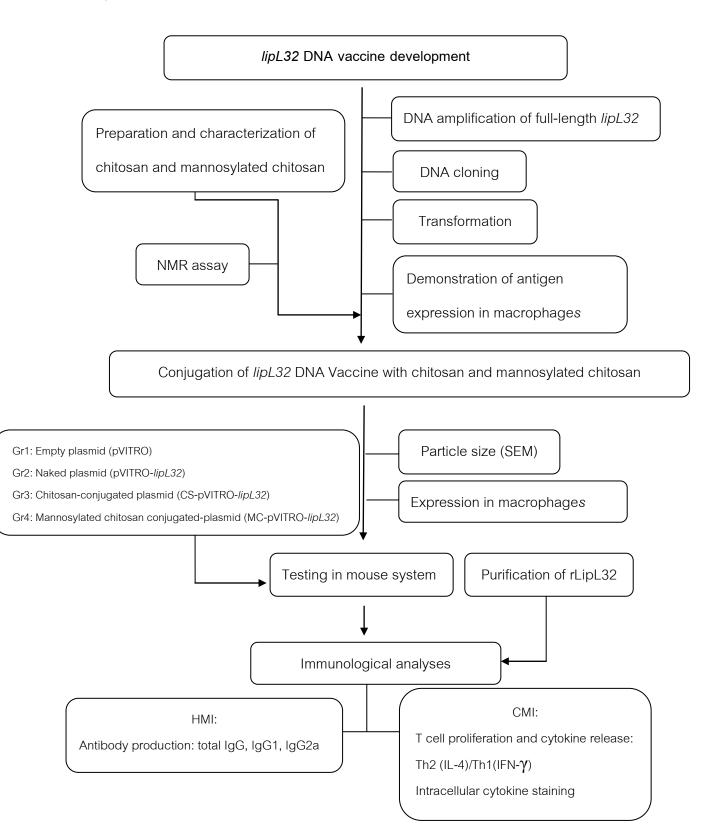


Figure 15. Reaction scheme of mannosylated chitosan (MC) production [218].

CHAPTER IV

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Expermental Flow Chart



Bacterial cultivation

Leptospira cultivation

L. interrogans serovar Pomona was obtained from Khon Kaen University. *Leptospira* was cultivated in Ellinghausen-McCullough-Johnson-Harris (EMJH) enrichment culture media at 30°C for 5 to 7 days until cell density reached approximately 10⁸ cells/ml and then harvested by centrifugation [219]. The cell numbers were counted under dark-filed microscopy.

Escherichia coli

E. coli strain BL21(DE3) pLysS (Novagen), *E. coli* strain DH5 α and *E. coli* strain ER 2925 were cultivated in Luria-Bertani (LB) broth at 37 °C under shaking condition or on LB agar in incubator at 37°C with appropriate antibiotics.

Cell Culture

Human embryonic kidney 293T (HEK293T) cell line (ATCC No. CRL-1573 – LGC) and RAW 264.7 cell line (ATCC No. TIB-71) were cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum (FBS), 100 units/ml penicillin, and 100 μ g/ml streptomycin at 37°C under humidified air containing 5% CO₂.

Animals

Female BALB/c mice (6-8 weeks old) were purchased from the National Laboratory Animal Centre, Mahidol University. They were housed at the Department of Pathology, Chulalongkorn University. All procedures involving manipulations of animals in this project have been approved by Chulalongkorn University Animal Ethics Committee under the protocol 15/54.

Polymers and reagents

Water-soluble chitosan (WSC, average molecular weight of 150-300 kDa and 75-90% deacetylation) was obtained from Kittolife Co. Ltd. (Korea) and Dmannopyranosylphenyl isothiocyanate was purchased from Sigma Aldrich (USA). All other materials were obtained from Sigma Aldrich (USA) and were of analytical reagent grade.

Preparation of vaccine

Preparation of Leptospira genomic DNA

The genomic DNA of *L. interrogans* serovar Pomona was prepared by phenol chloroform method. Ten millimeters of 10^8 cells/ml *L. interrogans* serovar Pomona were harvested by centrifugation at 8,000 x g for 15 minutes. The pellet was resuspended with TE buffer containing 0.5% SDS and proteinase K (100 µg/ml), mixed, and then incubated at 37 °C for 1 hour. After incubation, 0.25 M NaCl was added to the solution followed by vortex mixing. A 500 µl of phenol:chloroform:isoamyl alcohol (25:24:1) was added, mixed by inverting a tube and then centrifuged at 12,000 rpm for 5 minutes. Upper aqueous solution was transferred to a new tube and 2 volumes of chloroform:isoamyl alcohol (24:1) were added and centrifuged at 12,000 rpm for 5 minutes. Upper phase was transferred to a new tube and 2 volumes of ice-cold absolute ethanol were added, followed by incubation at -20°C for 1 hour. After centrifugation at 12,000 rpm for 10 minutes, DNA pellet was washed with 70% ethanol and allowed to dry at 37°C overnight. DNA was resuspended in sterile distilled water.

PCR amplification of *lipL32*

The extracted DNA of *L. interrogans* serovar Pomona was used as a template for amplification of *lipL32* gene encoding mature protein, from amino acid 1 to 272. The primers for gene amplification were designed to include 19 amino-acid signal peptide, using forward primer: 5' GGA<u>TCCGGA</u>ATGAAAAAACTTTCGAT 3' and reverse primer: 5' TAA<u>CGTACG</u>TTACTTAGTCGCGTCAG 3' containing restriction sites of *Bsp*EI and *BsI*WI (underlined sequences) in forward and reverse primers, respectively. The PCR amplification was performed in a total volume of 50 µl using 50 ng of leptospiral DNA under the following conditions: primary denaturation at 94 °C for 5 minutes, followed by 30 cycles of denaturation at 94°C for 1 minute, annealing at 53° C for 1 minute, extension at 72 °C for 1 minute; and final extension at 72 °C for 5 minutes. After the reaction, PCR products were analyzed using 1.5 % agarose gel electrophoresis.

Cloning

The 819-bp PCR product amplified from the genomic DNA of *L. interrogans* serovar Pomona was cloned into the pTZ57R/T TA cloning vector (Fermentas, Germany). pTZ57R/T-*lipL32* was digested, and subcloned into pVITRO plasmid at *Bsp*EI and *Bs*/WI restriction sites. The pTZ57R/T-*lipL32* and pVITRO1 vectors were digested with *Bsp*EI and *Bs*/WI restriction enzymes (New England Biolabs) under the following conditions; 1µg of PCR products and 2 µg of pVITRO1 was separately digested with 10 units of *Bsp*EI in NEB buffer 3 (New England Biolabs) at 37°C for 4 hours and then was heat inactivated at 65°C for 10 minutes. Next, 10 units of *Bs*/WI was added and incubated at 55°C for 4 hours followed by heat inactivation at 65°C for 10 minutes. Digested DNA was purified with Nucleospin[®]Extract II (Macherey-NageI) according to manufacturer's protocol as follows; 2 volume of NT buffer was mixed with 1 volume of digested products and then loaded onto the Nucleospin[®]Extract II column, centrifuged at 11,000xg for 1 minute, and the flow through was discarded. A 700 µl of buffer NT3 was loaded onto the column, centrifuged at 11,000xg for 1 minute, re-spun for 2 minutes, and the flow through was discarded. Finally, the column was placed in a

1.5 ml microcentrifuge tube and 20 µl buffer NE was added, incubated at room temperature for 5 minutes, and then centrifuged at 11,000xg for 2 minutes to collect purified DNA.

Ligation reaction was performed by T4 DNA ligase (Fermentas, Germany) under the following conditions; 5 units of T4 ligase, 0.048 pmole of digested *lipL32* and 1.52 pmole digested pVITRO (1:4) were incubated overnight at 16 °C followed by heat inactivation at 65°C for 10 minutes. After incubation, ligation mixture was transformed into *E. coli* strain DH5**0** by heat shock method as follows; 10 µl of ligation mixture was added to a microcentrifuge tube containing 50 µl of *E. coli* DH5**0** competent cells and then incubated on ice for 30 minutes. Next, the solution was placed in a 42°C water bath for 90 seconds and immediately incubated on ice for 2 minutes. A 450 µl of SOC medium was added to the solution, mixed, and incubated for 1.5 hours at 37°C under shaking condition. The transformants were plated onto LB agar containing 50 µg/ml of kanamycin, and incubated at 37 °C overnight.

Colony screening

Restriction enzyme screening method

To screen for plasmid containing *lipL32* (pVITRO-*lipL32*), transformant colonies were selected by sterile toothpick and transferred onto the master plate (LB agar containing 50 µg/ml kanamycin) and then incubated at 37 °C overnight. The selected colony was cultured in 5 ml of LB broth containing 50 µg/ml of kanamycin. The plasmid DNA was extracted by QIAprep Miniprep (Qiagen, Germany) and digested with *Bsp*EI and *Bsi*WI restriction enzymes (New England Biolabs). The restricted DNA pattern was analyzed by 1.5 % agarose gel electrophoresis.

Colony PCR screening

Alternatively, *E. coli* colonies containing *lipL32* (pVITRO-*lipL32*) were screened by PCR reaction using specific primers for *lipL32*. The colonies from the master plate were picked and resuspended in PCR reaction mixture. The expected PCR products were observed by 1.5 % agarose gel electrophoresis.

Endotoxin-free plasmid preparation

Large-scale extraction of plasmid (pVITRO-*lipL32*) and an empty control vector (pVITRO) was performed with an endotoxin-free giga QIAGEN kit (Qiagen, Germany) according to the manufacture's protocol. The extracted plasmids were used for *in vitro* transfection and vaccination studies in mice. Plasmid stocks were stored at -20°C until use.

DNA sequencing

Colonies containing *lipL32* were cultured in LB broth containing 50 µg/ml of kanamycin at 37°C overnight and then plasmid was extracted using QIAGEN plasmid kit according to the manufacturer's protocol. The plasmid sequences were determined by First BASE Laboratories, Malaysia. DNA sequencing results were compared to *lipL32* sequence of *L. interrogans* serovar Pomona obtained from GenBank database.

Transfection and visualization of expressed antigens

HEK293T cells were transfected with plasmid pVITRO-*lipL32* in 24-well plate using LipofectamineTM2000 (Invitrogen, USA) according to the manufacturer's protocol. First, 1.5 μ L LipofectamineTM 2000 and 36 μ L serum-free medium was mixed and incubated for 5 minutes at room temperature and 500 ng DNA was added to the LipofectamineTM 2000 mixture and incubated for 20 minutes. Then, another 500 μ L serum-free medium was added, and the final mixture was added to a 24-well plate and

incubated at 37°C. After 72 hours, the transfected cells were washed twice with ice-cold PBS and lysed in RIPA buffer [50mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl, 1.0% NP-40, 0.5% $C_{24}H_{39}O_4Na$, 0.1% SDS, protease inhibitor (Roche Diagnostics, Sweden)] and the culture supernatants were collected and stored for 10 minutes on ice. Cell lysates and culture supernatants were boiled and centrifuged at 10,000 g at 4°C for 10 minutes. The transfection efficiency was evaluated by Western blot analysis.

SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) and Western blot analysis

Equal proportion of lysates or supernatants of transfected HEK293T cells was boiled at 95 °C for 10 minutes. Twenty microliters of samples (15 µg of total proteins) was loaded onto a 15% sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS)-polyacrylamide gel. Proteins were then transferred from SDS-PAGE onto polyvinylidene fluoride membrane (PVDF, Millipore) by Semidry system (Bio-RAD, USA) using transfer buffer (48 mM Tris pH 9.2, 39 mM glycine, 1.3 mM SDS, 20% methanol). Next, the membrane was incubated with blocking buffer (1X Tris buffered saline (TBS) + 3 % skim milk) at room temperature for 1 hour followed by washing 3 times, 10 minutes each with washing buffer (1X TBS + 0.1% Tween 20). The membrane was then incubated with polyclonal mouse anti-LipL32 antiserum (generated by immunization of female BALB/c mice with purified 6His tag-LipL32 fusion proteins) (1:10,000 in blocking buffer) at room temperature for 1 hour followed by washing 3 times, 10 minutes each with washing buffer (1X TBS + 0.1% Tween 20). The membrane was incubated in horseradish peroxidase (HRP)-conjugated goat anti-mouse antiserum (KPL, 1:5,000 in blocking buffer) at room temperature for 1 hour and then washed 3 times, 10 minutes each with washing buffer (1X TBS + 0.1% Tween 20). The blot was detected by enhanced chemiluminescence (ECL) system (Amersham Pharmacia Biotech). The membrane was incubated with the ECL reagents for 1 minute and then exposed to ChemiDoc System (Bio-RAD, USA).

Expression and purification of LipL32 proteins

The obtained BL21(DE3)pLysS containing pRSETC-lipL32 with insert of signal sequence-deficient full-length lipL32 was cultivated in LB broth with 35 µg/ml chloramphenicol and 100 µg/ml ampicillin at 250 rpm at 37°C. Next, the overnight culture was added to 25 ml the fresh media 500 ml before incubation until ODenn reached 0.35 at which isopropyl- β -D thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG, Fermentas, USA) was added at a final concentration of 1 mM. The culture was incubated at 37°C with shaking at 200 rpm for 3 hours before centrifugation at 8000xg for 15 minutes. The harvested cells were resuspended, washed, and sonicated using High intensity ultrasonic processor VC/VCX 750 sonicator, 40% amplitude for 12 minutes on ice. After that, the lysate was centrifuged at 16,000xg for 20 minutes at 4°C and the supernatant was transferred to a new tube. Next, the supernatant was directly loaded onto a Hi-Trap chelating column (Amersham Pharmacia Biotech) equilibrated with phosphate buffered saline (PBS). Proteins were eluted with stepwise gradient of 60 to 250 mM imidazole. Then, the solution was centrifuged at 16000xg for 20 minutes at 4°C and the supernatant was transferred to a fresh tube. The supernatant was analyzed by 15% SDS-PAGE, followed by staining with Coomassie brilliant blue, and Western blot analysis [219]. The concentration of purified protein was measured by RC DC protein assay (Bio-RAD, USA) as manufacturer's instruction. First, Reagent A was prepared by adding 5 µl of DC Reagent S to each DC Reagent A which contains 250 µl followed by preparing 7 dilution of BSA; 0.05, 0.1, 0.2, 0.5, 0.75, 1.0 and 1.5 mg/ml for standard curve. Next, each 25 µl of standards or samples was added into microcentrifuge tubes. Then, 125 µl of RC Reagent I was added into each tube, vortexed, and incubated at room temperature for 1 minute. After incubation, 125 µl of RC Reagent II was added into each tube and vortexed. The tubes were centrifuged at 15,000Xg for 5 minutes. After centrifugation, 1 ml of *DC* Reagent B was added into each tube followed by immediate mixing. Afterward, tubes were incubated at room temperature for 15 minutes. The concentration of protein was measured by reading the absorbance at 750 nm. The purified recombinant LipL32 was used for stimulating splenocytes *in vitro* and coating plates for enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA).

Preparation and characterization of chitosan (CS) and mannosylated chitosan(MC)

Preparation of chitosan (CS)

CS was dissolved in milli-Q water and stirred at 25 °C for 1-2 hours. The CS composition was determined by proton Nuclear Magnetic Resonance spectroscopy (NMR; Varian model mercury +400, CA, USA). It was diluted with 5 mM sodium acetate buffer, and filtered through a 0.22-µm filter before use.

Preparation of mannosylated chitosan (MC)

MC was prepared by previously reported method [220] with minor modifications. Fifty milligrams of CS were dissolved in 1 ml of milli-Q water before mixing with fifty milligrams of α -D-Mannopyranosyl-phenyl-isothiocyanate (Sigma Aldrich, USA) in 1 ml of dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO) and stirred for 24 hours at room temperature. MC was precipitated by adding 10 volumes of isopropanol and centrifuged at 10,000 rpm at 4°C for 30 minutes. After repeating this process five times, the pellets were dried in a vacuum oven at 50 °C for 3 hours and kept in desiccators for 1 day. The MC composition was determined by proton NMR spectroscopy (NMR; Varian model mercury +400, CA, USA). It was diluted with 5 mM sodium acetate buffer and filtered through a 0.22 µm-filter before use.

CS- and MC-DNA encapsulation

MC was dissolved in sterile water to a concentration of 1 mg per ml. Preparation of MC/DNA complex at varying charge (N/P) ratios was performed. The N/P ratio is the charge ratio of amine groups of CS or MC and the phosphate moieties of DNA [220]. CS or MC was mixed with plasmid DNA solution at varying N/P ratios in a total volume of 500 µl. Uniform particles were obtained by mixing CS, pH 5.5 at 55°C with plasmid DNA (500 µg/ml in 50 mM sodium acetate) at high-speed vortexing. The complexes were allowed to stand at room temperature for 30 minutes. Complex formation was confirmed by electrophoresis on a 1% agarose gel electrophoresis in Tris-acetate running buffer (1X TAE buffer, 40 mM Tris-acetate, 1 mM EDTA) at 100 V for 40 minutes. DNA was visualized by staining with ethidium bromide (0.2 g/ml) and images were acquired on an UV transilluminator. Protection of encapsulated DNA in the complexes was determined via agarose gel electrophoresis. The morphology and size of CSconjugated plasmid carrying lipL32 (CS-pVITRO-lipL32) and MC-conjugated plasmid (MC-pVITRO-lipL32) were observed by scanning electron microscope (SEM). The complex solution prepared at the N/P ratio of 10:1 for CS and 20:1 for MC was dropped on the opposite charged mica and incubated for 2 minutes. Then, the mica was rinsed with distilled water, and dried at room temperature.

Transfection of CS and MC-DNA encapsulation

RAW264.7 cells were prepared on a glass slide as a monolayer by plating 5×10^4 cells on a glass slide placed at the bottom of each well in 0.5 ml of complete growth medium. The next day, transfection using various formulations of copolymer/DNA complex was performed by treating RAW264.7 cells with each ratio of CS-pVITRO-*lipL32* and MC-pVITRO-*lipL32* followed by incubation at 37°C in a CO₂ incubator for 5 days. Cells transfected with lipofectamine (lipofectamine-pVITRO-*lipL32*) were considered as the positive control and untransfected RAW264.7 cells were acted as the negative control. Next, expression of LipL32 in transfected cells was determined by

indirect immunofluorescence assay (IFA). Transfected cells were fixed with acetone and permeabilized with methanol. Staining was performed with a polyclonal mouse anti-LipL32 (1:10,000) followed by a fluorescein isothiocynate (FITC)-conjugated goat anti-mouse IgG (1:64, Sigma, USA) in PBS with 0.1% bovine serum albumin (BSA; Amresco, USA). The cell preparations were washed with PBS containing 0.1% BSA and mounted with mounting medium (USA). Fluorescent signals and transmitted light was visualized with a Nikon C1si spectral imaging confocal system (Nikon, Tokyo, Japan) fitted with lasers emitting light at 488 nm for FITC excitation.

Cytotoxicity assay

RAW264.7 cells were seeded at a density of 1×10^4 cells per well in 100 µl growth medium in 96-well plates and incubated for 24 hours. Growth medium was replaced by fresh serum-free media containing free polymer. Untreated cells were used as a negative control. After incubation, 10 µl of a 3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2, 5-diphenyl tetrazolium bromide (MTT) solution (5 mg/ml in PBS) was added, and incubated for additional 4 hours at 37 °C for MTT formazan formation. Then, 0.04 N HCl in isopropanol was added to stop the reaction. The plates were mildly shaken for 10 minutes to ensure the dissolution of formazan. The absorbance values were measured by using microplate reader at a wavelength of 450 nm. Three replicates were counted for each sample. The mean value of the three replicates was used as the final result.

% viability = <u>OD test-OD blank x 100</u> OD control -OD blank

Evalution of immunogenicity of *lipL32* DNA vaccine in mice

To evaluate immunogenicity in mouse model after immunization, 18 female BALB/c mice (6–8 weeks old, each weighing 20-25 g) were divided into 4 experimental groups as follows.

Group 1. Empty vector control (pVITRO empty vector)	N=3
Group 2. Naked plasmid (pVITRO- <i>lipL32</i>)	N=5
Group 3. Chitosan-conjugated plasmid (CS/pVITRO-lipL32)	
Group 4. Mannosylated chitosan-conjugated plasmid (MC/pVITRO-lipL32)	

Immunization protocol

One week before commencing the experiments, blood samples were taken from individual mice before the first immunization and serum samples were collected (day 0) by retro-orbital bleeding. Each group of mice was anesthetized with inhalation of anesthetic AERRANE (isoflurane, Baxter, USA). Mice were vaccinated by intramuscular injection (IM) for a total of 4 times at week 0, 2, 4, and 6 (Figure 18). Each mouse was intramuscularly immunized with 50 µg of DNA.

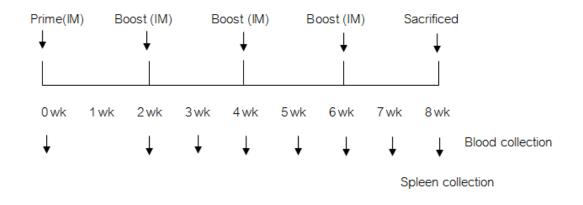


Figure 16. Schedule of vaccination with *lipL32* DNA vaccine and specimen collection after immunization.

Blood sample collection

The blood samples were collected from mice by retro-orbital puncture on day 0 before immunization (pre-immune serum) at day 14, 28 42 and 56 of immunization. After incubation for 30 minutes to 1 hour at room temperature, the clotted blood was centrifuged at 4°C for 25–30 minutes and serum was collected and stored at –20°C until use. The sera were tested for immunogenicity by ELISA assay. Endpoint antibody titers from mice in each group were compared before and after vaccination to detect LipL32-specific IgG1 (Th2 response) and IgG2a (Th1 response).

Determining of total IgG, IgG1, and IgG2a antibody responses to LipL32

The anti-lipL32-specific total IgG, IgG1, and IgG2a antibodies in mouse sera before and after immunization were determined by ELISA assay as described previously [28]. Briefly, 96-well plates (Maxisorp, Nunc, Denmark) were coated with recombinant LipL32 (rLipL32, 500 ng per well) in coating buffer (0.1 M Na₂CO₃, 0.1 M NaHCO₃, pH=9.5) at 4 °C overnight. The wells were washed 5 times with 200 µl of washing buffer (1x PBS, 0.05% Tween-20). After washing, the plates were blotted on the paper towel to remove any residual buffer. The plates were blocked for 1 hour at 37°C with 200 μl blocking buffer (1% BSA, 1x PBS, 0.05% Tween-20). One hundred microliters of fourfold serially diluted sera were added into appropriate wells and incubated for 1 hour at 37 °C. Polyclonal anti-LipL32 (1:10,000) was used as a positive control. After washing for 5 times with 200 µl of washing buffer, one hundred microliters of 1:1,000 dilution of biotinylated rat anti-mouse IgG1 and IgG2a antibody (BD Biosciencers, USA) and 1:1,000 dilution of HRP-conjugated goat anti-mouse IgG (KPL, USA) (for total IgG) was added into appropriate wells. The wells were washed 5 times with 200 µl of washing buffer. One hundred microliters of horseradish peroxidase-conjugated streptavadin (SAv-HRP) (1:1,000, BD Biosciencers, USA) was added to appropriate wells and incubated for 30 minutes at room temperature. After washing, one hundred microliters of 3,3',5,5'-tetramethylbenzidine substrate (TMB substrate) solution (BD Biosciencers,

USA) was added to each well and incubated at room temperature for 15 minutes in the dark. Finally, fifty microliters of stop solution (0.5 M H_2SO_4) was added to each well. The absorbance was read within 30 minutes at 450 nm using microplate manager (Bio-Rad, USA). The specific IgG titers of all samples were assayed in triplicates.

Lymphocyte proliferation assay

Proliferation assays

The animals from each group were sacrificed and spleens were removed aseptically. The spleens were suspended in RPMI2ME (RPMI-1640 medium containing 5% FBS and 2-mercaptoethanol (2-ME, Gibco, Grand Island, NY) by homogenizing spleens using cell strainer to prepare single cell suspension. Splenocytes were washed twice in RPMI and finally suspended in RPMI2ME and cell viability was determined by staining with 0.4% trypan blue. Splenocytes were seeded in 96-well flat bottom plates at a concentration of 5×10^5 cells in 200 µl of RPMI2ME and stimulated with varying concentrations of purified recombinant LipL32 (5, 10, and 20 µg/ml) for 72 hours at 37°C with 5% CO₂. Splenocytes stimulated with Concanavalin A (Con A) at a final concentration of 10 µg/ml (Sigma, USA) were considered as the positive control and those with medium alone were acted as the negative control. DNA synthesis in induced and control cells was measured by staining with cell proliferation dye eFluor® 670 (e-Bioscience). The cells were washed twice, and fixed in 1% paraformaldehyde for FACS analysis. Flow cytomerty was done by FACS CaliburTM (BD Biosciencers, USA) and data were analyzed using Summit version 4.2 software. The percentage of positive cells in the experimental groups was obtained by subtracting percentage of cell control.

Cytokine assays

Splenocytes were seeded in 96-well flat bottom plates at a concentration of 5×10^5 cells in 200 µl of RPMI2ME and stimulated with varying concentrations of purified recombinant LipL32 (5, 10, and 20 µg/ml) for 72 hours at 37°C with 5% CO₂. Splenocytes stimulated with Concanavalin A (Con A) at a final concentration of 10 µg/ml (Sigma, USA) were considered as the positive control and those with medium alone were considered as the negative control. Culture supernatants were collected after 72 hours to determine the cytokine response (IFN- γ and IL-4) by using a capture ELISA kit (BD Biosciences, USA) according to the manufacture's protocol. The specific cytokine response of all samples was assayed in triplicates.

Detection of T cell response by Flow cytometry

For the analysis of specific CD4+T cell proliferation, spleen was aseptically removed and mechanically homogenized with a 3-ml syringe plunger. Complete RPMI 1640 media (RPMI-1640) was used to cultivate the cells. Cell viability was determined by trypan blue staining. Cells with > 95% cell viability were re-suspended in RPMI supplemented with 50 μ M 2 ME, adjusted to 2 x 10⁶ cells/well in 24-well plate, and restimulated in vitro with 20 µg/ml of rLipL32. Cells stimulated with 10 µg/ml concanavalin A (ConA) were used as a positive control. Cells were incubated at 37°C with 5% CO₂ for 72 hours. The cells were stained using Fixation/Permeabilization Kit (Qiagen, Germanyaccording to the manufacturer's instruction and using antibody directed against mouse differentiation markers (e-Bioscience); Alexa Fluor® 488 anti-mouse CD4 (clone GK1.5), Peridinin Chlorophyl Protein (PerCP)/ cyanine dye (Cy5.5™), PerCP/Cy5.5 anti-mouse IFN- γ (clone XMG1.2), Phycoerythrin (PE) anti-mouse IL-2(clone JES6-5H4), and Allophycocyanin (APC) anti-mouse IL-4 (clone 11B11). After 72hour incubation, cells were incubated with BD GolgiPlug™ Protein Transport Inhibitor (Qiagen, Germany) containing Brefeldin A, phorbol myristate acetate (PMA, 50 ng/ml), and ionomycin (1mM) at 37°C with 5% CO₂ for 4 hours. Next, cells were washed with 1

mI staining buffer and ~10⁶ cells were stained in 50 µI of staining buffer (0.09% (w/v) sodium azide, 1% heat inactivated FBS, 1XPBS) containing the appropriate amount of a fluorochrome-conjugated monoclonal antibody specific for a cell surface (Alexa Fluor® 488 anti-mouse CD4), washed twice with staining buffer, and then fixed and permeabilized using fixation/permeabilization solution. Then, cells were stained for intracellular cytokines using PerCP/Cy5.5 anti-mouse IFN- γ , PE anti-mouse IL-2, and APC anti-mouse IL-4. Negative control staining was performed by using isotype controls including APC and PerCP/Cy5.5–rat IgG_{1,k} (clone RTK2071) for APC-conjugated anti-mouse IL-4, PerCP/Cy5.5 anti-mouse IFN- γ , and rat IgG_{2b,k} (clone RTK4530) for both PE-anti-mouse IL-2 and anti-mouse CD4 (e-Bioscience). The cells were washed twice, and fixed in 1% paraformaldehyde for subsequent FACS analysis on a FACSCalibur. Flow cytomerty was done by FACS CaliburTM (BD Biosciencers, USA) and data were analyzed using Summit v 4.2 software. The percentage of positive cells in the experimental groups was obtained by subtracting the result of the isotype control.

Statistical analysis

Results are expressed as means \pm SD. The one-way ANOVA analysis of variance with Tukey–Kramer's post-hoc test was used to determine the statistical significance for all pairwise multiple-comparison procedures. A P-value of *p*<0.05 was considered as statistical significance. All experiments were performed in triplicates. Data were analyzed and plotted as graphs using GraphPad Prism software.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS

Cloning of *lipL32* in mammalian expression vector

The genomic DNA of *L. interrogans* serovar Pomona was used as a template for amplification of the 819 bp insert sequence of full-length *lipL32* gene encoding 272 amino acids of LipL32 (Figure 17, A). The pTZ57R/T-*lipL32* (3,705 bp) and pVITRO of 6,295 bp (Figure 17B lane 1 and 3) were digested with *Bsp*El and *Bs*/Wl, and yielded products of *lipL32* insert (819 bp) as shown on agarose gel (Figure 17B, lane 4).

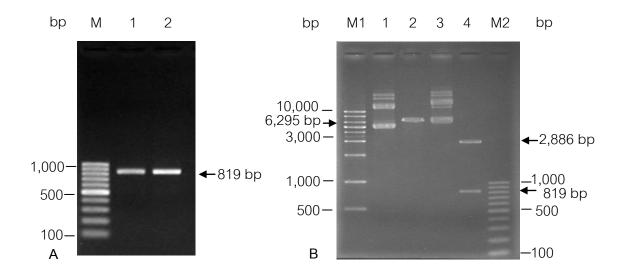


Figure 17. PCR products of *lipL32* gene and pVITRO expression vector on agarose gel. *LipL32* amplicons of *L. interrogans* serovar Pomona (A); lane M, 100 bp DNA ladder; lane 1, and 2 show a single band of PCR products at 819 bp in size. The pTZ57R/T-*lipL32* and pVITRO vector after digestion by *Bsp*El and *Bs*/WI (B); lane M1, 1 kb DNA ladder; lane 1 uncut pVITRO, and 2 digested pVITRO (6,295 bp); lane 3 uncut pTZ57R/T-*lipL32*, and 4, digested pTZ57R/T-*lipL32*, lane M2, 100 bp DNA ladder.

Transformants grown on antibiotic agar plates were screened for *lipL32* gene insertion by PCR amplification (Figure 18). Three positive clones were randomly selected for sequencing of the inserted gene. Two sequences were the same as *lipL32* gene of *L. interrogans* serovar Pomona as reported in GenBank database (EU871716.1). Clones containing *lipL32* with correct sequences and in framed with the expression vector were further used for protein expression in mammalian cells.

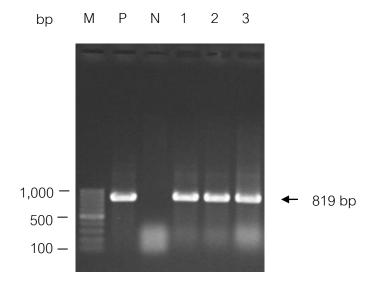


Figure 18. PCR amplification of *lipL32* insert in transformants. Gel electrophoresis shows a single band of PCR products of 819 bp. Lane M, 100 bp DNA ladder; P, positive control (genomic DNA of *L. interrogans* serovar Pomona); N, negative control; lane 1-3, PCR products of selected colonies.

The expression and secretion of LipL32 in transfected Human Embryonic Kidney (HEK293T) cell line

The expression and secretion of LipL32 in HEK293T cells transfected with *lipL32* plasmid construct (pVITRO-*lipL32*) was confirmed by Western blotting. LipL32 was expressed in both the cell lysate and culture supernatant with an apparent molecular weight of about 32 kDa (Figure 19), suggesting that LipL32 was produced in the transfected cells and then secreted outside the cells. In addition, this finding demonstrated that the bacterial or natural leader sequence of LipL32 was functional in mammalian cells. LipL32 was not detected in HEK293T cells transfected with pVITRO control (Figure 19, lane 2) as expected. However, secreted LipL32 (lane 4) has higher molecular weight (MW) than intracellular LipL32 (lane 3) and recombinant LipL32 produced by *E. coli* (lane 5).

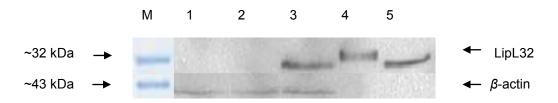


Figure 19. Expression of *lipL32* DNA vaccine construct in HEK293T cells. After 72hour post-transfection, expression of *lipL32* was analyzed by Western blot. Lane M, prestained protein MW marker; lane 1, lysate of untransfected cells; lane 2, lysate of cells transfected with pVITRO; lane 3, lysate of cells transfected with pVITRO-*lipL32*; lane 4, culture supernatant of cells transfected with pVITRO-*lipL32*; lane 5, rLipL32. LipL32 was detected with mouse polyclonal anti-LipL32 antibody.

Protein Extraction and Purification

Expression of LipL32 in *E. coli* strain BL21(DE3)pLysS was induced by 1 mM IPTG at 37°C for 3 hours. The rLipL32 was expressed at a predicted size of 32 kDa in soluble parts and then purified with metal-chelation affinity chromatography as shown on SDS-PAGE and Western blot (Figure 20). The purified rLipL32 was used for ELISA and lymphoproliferation assay

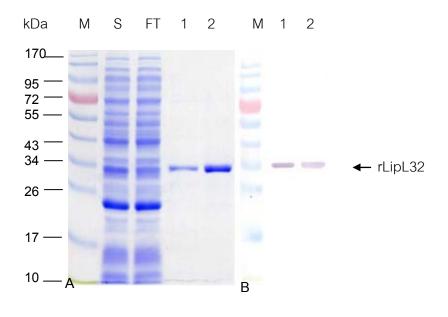


Figure 20. Detection of purified rLipL32 by SDS-PAGE and Western blot. The rLipL32 expression was detected by Coomassie blue staining of SDS-PAGE (A); lane M, pre-stained protein MW marker; S, Proteins from soluble part; FT, flowthrough; the purified rLipL32 eluted fractions from Ni²⁺ column using 100 mM immidazone (lane 1, and 2). Western blotting of purified rLipL32 (B); lane M, pre-stained protein MW marker; lane 1, protein detected by anti-rLipL32 antibody and anti-His antibody (lane 2). Arrow indicates the position of rLipL32 protein.

Characterization of chitosan (CS) and mannosylated chitosan (MC)

The water soluble chitosan was conjugated with mannose by using Dmannopyranosylphenyl isothiocyanate. The products from this step were characterized by nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) analysis and found that 83.33% of mannose was conjugated with chitosan (Figure 21).

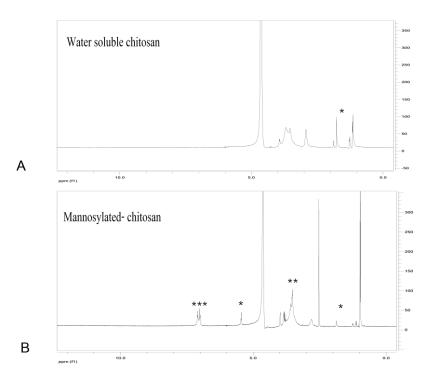


Figure 21. Representative 1H NMR spectra of chitosan (CS) (A) and mannosylated chitosan (MC) (B). * indicates the position of chitosan in D_2O (-CH3- group); ** indicates the position of mannosylated chitosan (MC), *** indicates the position of mannose in D_2O (-CH- group).

Agarose gel electrophoresis assay for plasmid DNA binding with chitosan (CS) and mannosylated chitosan (MC)

The incorporation of pVITRO-lipL32 into chitosan or mannosylated chitosan nanoparticles was monitored by agarose gel electrophoresis assay (Figure 22). Unconjugated plasmid was demonstrated as bands in agarose gel due to the fluorescence emission of ethidium bromide intercalated into the DNA double helix while conjugated DNA remained in the wells. The N/P ratio is the ratio of positive charge (amine group) of CS or MC to negative charge (phosphate group) of DNA. The finding suggested that DNA was able to be encapsulated inside the nanoparticles. Chitosan was able to conjugate with pVITRO-lipL32 at the N/P ratios of 6:1 to 20:1 (Figure 22, A). However, mannosylated chitosan was demonstrated to conjugate with pVITRO-lipL32 at the N/P ratios of 20:1 to 50:1 (Figure 22, B), which are the ratios of total chitosan before mannosylation. After mannosylation, 1.2 amine groups of chitosan were replaced with mannose, resulting in the reduction of positive charges of amine groups in the chitosan, The N/P ratios of chitosan/DNA complexes at 6:1, 8:1, 10:1, 20:1, 30:1, 40:1, and 50:1 are corresponding to 2.4:1, 3.2:1, 4:1, 8:1, 12:1, 16:1, and 20:1 of mannosylated chitosan/DNA complexes, respectively. Therefore, chitosan was able to conjugate with pVITRO-*lipL32* at a lower N/P ratio than mannosylated chitosan.

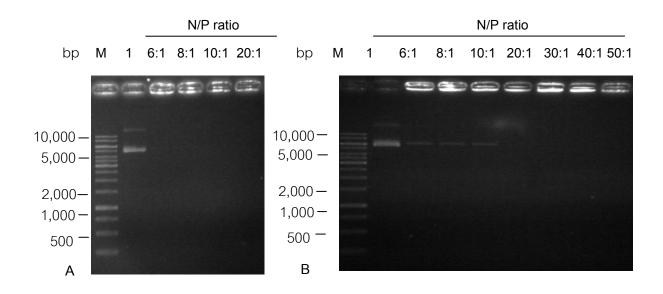


Figure 22. The incorporation of pVITRO-*lipL32* into chitosan or mannosylated chitosan by agarose gel electrophoresis. Chitosan-conjugated plasmid carrying *lipL32* (CS-pVITRO-*lipL32*) at varying N/P ratios (A); lane 1, naked DNA control (pVITRO-*lipL32*); lane 2–5, CS-pVITRO-*lipL32* prepared at N/P ratios of 6:1, to 20:1 respectively. mannosylated chitosan-conjugated plasmid (MC-pVITRO-*lipL32*) at varying N/P ratios(B); lane 1, pVITRO-*lipL32*; lane 2–8, MC-pVITRO-*lipL32* prepared at N/P ratios of 6:1, to 50:1 respectively.

The effect of chitosan-conjugated plasmid carrying *lipL32* (CS-pVITRO-*lipL32*) and mannosylated chitosan-conjugated plasmid (MC-pVITRO-*lipL32*) at varying N/P ratios on the cell viability of murine macrophages cell line (RAW 264.7) was investigated by 3-(4, 5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2, 5-diphenylte-bromide (MTT) assay. As shown in Figure 23, both CS-pVITRO-*lipL32* and MC-pVITRO-*lipL32* showed no significant cytotoxicity at any N/P ratios when compared with unstimulated control.

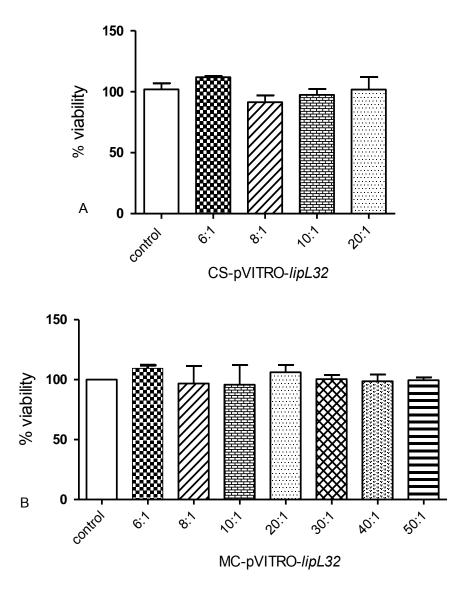


Figure 23. Cytotoxicity of CS-pVITRO-*lipL32* (A) and MC-pVITRO-*lipL32* (B) copolymer at various concentrations in RAW264.7 cells (n=3, error bars represent standard deviation). Results are representative of three independent experiments with similar trends.

Morphology of chitosan and mannosylated chitosan

The nanoparticle morphology of CS, CS-pVITRO-*lipL32* at the N / P ratio of 10:1, MC, and MC-pVITRO-*lipL32* at the N/P ratio of 20:1 was investigated by scanning electron microscopy (SEM). Figure 24 shows that after conjugation with DNA, CS and MC remained nanoparticles in size of approximately 500 nm. Different shapes of CS and MC particles were observed after conjugation with plasmid as shown in Figure 26B and D. The chitosan and mannosylated chitosan particles became more oblong after conjugation with plasmid compared to more spherical morphology of unconjugated chitosan or mannosylated chitosan.

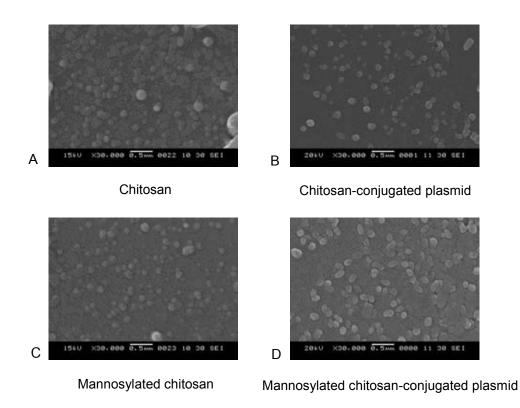


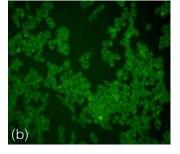
Figure 24. SEM images of different polymer nanoparticles: CS (A), CS-pVITRO*lipL32* at the N/P ratio of 10:1 (B), MC (C), and MC-pVITRO-*lipL32* at the N/P ratio of 20:1 (D). Results are representative of 2 independent experiments with similar trends. In vitro transfection efficiency of chitosan and mannosylated chitosan-conjugated plasmid at varying N/P ratios

Transfection efficiency of RAW264.7 cells by chitosan and mannosylated chitosan-conjugated plasmid containing *lipL32* at varying N/P ratios were analysed by expression of LipL32 using indirect immunofluorescence assay (IFA). Untransfected cells were used as a negative control and cells transfected with pVITRO-lipL32 by lipofectamine were used as a positive control (Figure 25). The transfection efficiency of MC-pVITRO-*lipL32* was comparable to that of CS-pVITRO-*lipL32* but at a lower N/P ratio. The highest LipL32 expression was detected in cells transfected with CS-pVITRO-lipL32 at the N/P ratio of 10:1 (Figure 25A, e) whereas the highest fluorescence intensity was obtained in cells transfected with MC-pVITRO-*lipL32* at the N/P ratio of 20:1 (Figure 25B, f). Therefore, these N/P ratios were utilized for DNA vaccine preparation for immunization in mice. However, transfection efficiency as a result of pVITRO-lipL32 same as untransfected cells (data not shown), CS-pVITRO-lipL32 at the N/P ratio of 10:1 (3.5%) and MC-pVITRO-lipL32 at the N/P ratio of 20:1 (5.5%) was lower than that obtained by lipofectamine (positive control, 58%).

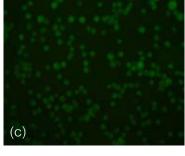


RAW 264.7 (Nagative control)

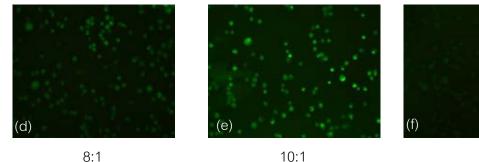
A



Positive control









20:1

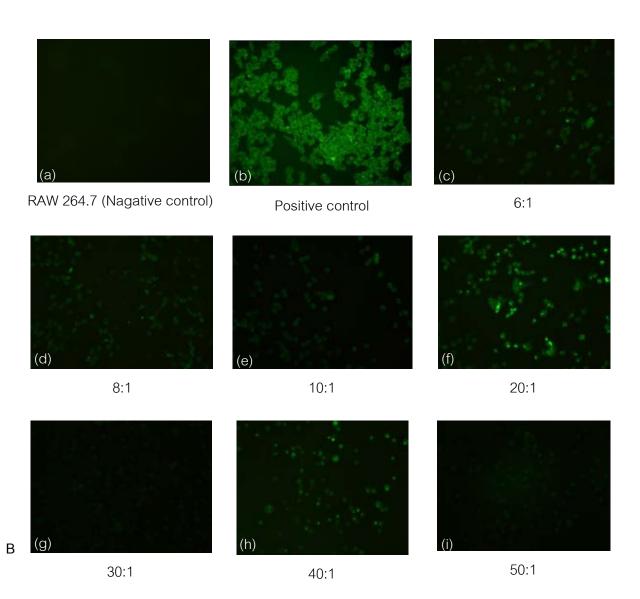


Figure 25. Immunofluorsent stains of LipL32 in RAW 264.7 cells transfected with CS-pVITRO-*lipL32* (A) and MC-pVITRO-*lipL32* (B) at varying N/P ratios was detected with anti-LipL32 and FITC-conjugated rabbit anti-mouse IgG; untrasfected RAW 264.7 (negative control) (a); positive control (b); 6:1 (N/P) (c); 8:1 (N/P) (d); 10:1 (N/P) (e); 20:1 (N/P) (f); 30:1 (N/P) (g); 40:1 (N/P) (h); 50:1 (N/P) (i).

Antibody response to *lipL32* DNA vaccine immunization

At six weeks after immunization, the level of LipL32-specific total IgG was significantly increased (p<0.05) in mice immunized with pVITRO-*lipL32*, CS-pVITRO-*lipL32* at the N/P ratio of 10:1, and MC-pVITRO-*lipL32* at the N/P ratio of 20:1 when compared with pVITRO (Figure 26). However, the antibody level was not significantly different between mice immunized with CS-pVITRO-*lipL32* and MC-pVITRO-*lipL32* (p>0.05) but significantly higher than that of mice immunized with pVITRO-*lipL32* (p<0.05). The antibody response of mice immunized with only pVITRO-*lipL32* tended to develop at a slower rate than that of mice immunized with the CS-pVITRO-*lipL32* at the N/P ratio of 10:1 and MC-pVITRO-*lipL32* at the N/P ratio of 20:1. In addition, this study found that after third boost (8 weeks) LipL32-specific total IgG significantly increased in the group immunized with MC-pVITRO-*lipL32*, and pVITRO (p<0.05). The mean level of anti-LipL32 and pVITRO-*lipL32*, pVITRO-*lipL32*, and pVITRO (p<0.05). The mean level of anti-LipL32 and box of the experiment as shown in Table 12.

Total IgG

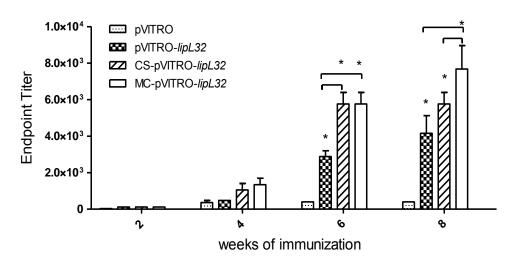


Figure 26. The level of LipL32-specific total IgG after vaccination measured by ELISA. Serum samples from BALB/c mice immunized intramuscularly (IM) with 50 µg of

pVITRO, pVITRO-*lipL32*, CS-pVITRO-*lipL32* at the N/P of 10:1, and MC-pVITRO-*lipL32* at the N/P of 20:1. Data are plotted as a mean of triplicate wells. *P< 0.05 compared to plasmids control.

Week of	Immunized with			
	pVITRO (n=3)	pVITRO- <i>lipL32</i> (n=5)	CS-pVITRO- <i>lipL32</i> (n=5)	MC-pVITRO- <i>lipL32</i> (n=5)
Week 1	nd	nd	nd	nd
Week 2	1:100	1:100	1:100	1:100
Week 3	1:400	1:400	1:400	1:400
Week 4	1:400	1:400	1:960	1:1440
Week 5	1:400	1:200	1:400	1:800
Week 6	1:400	1:2880	1:5760	1:5760
Week 7	1:400	1: 2880	1:4160*	1:4800
Week 8	1:400	1:4160	1:5760	1:7680

Table 12.The mean values of specific total IgG against LipL32 protein in serum ofvaccinated mice.

nd = No determination, * = 1 mouse died during the experiment

At eight weeks of immunization, the level of LipL32-specific IgG isotype (IgG1 or IgG2a) significantly increased in mice immunized with pVITRO-*lipL32*, CS-pVITRO-*lipL32* at the N/P of 10:1, and MC-pVITRO-*lipL32* at the N/P of 20:1 when compared with pVITRO (p<0.05). The LipL32-specific IgG2a isotype production was significantly higher in mice immunized with CS-pVITRO-*lipL32* at the N/P ratio of 10:1 than that immunized with MC-pVITRO-*lipL32* at the N/P ratio of 20:1 (p<0.05, Figure 27A). However, LipL32-specific IgG1 isotype production was not significant difference in mice immunized with pVITRO, CS-pVITRO-*lipL32* at the N/P ratio of 10:1, and MC-pVITRO-*lipL32* at the N/P ratio of 20:1 (Figure 27B). The antibody response of the vaccinated group tended to develop toward Th1 response (IgG2a) rather than Th2 response (IgG1) as shown in Figure 27.

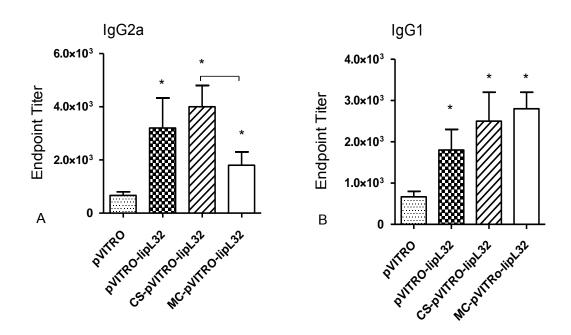
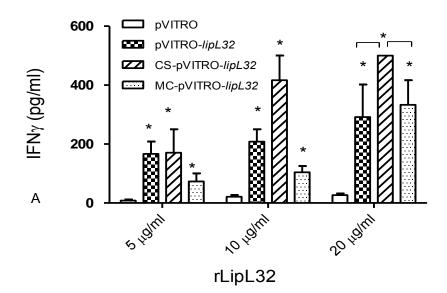


Figure 27. Endpoint titers of LipL32-specific IgG2a isotype (A) and IgG1 isotype (B) at eight weeks of vaccination measured by ELISA. Serum samples from BALB/c mice immunized intramuscularly (IM) with 50 μ g of pVITRO, pVITRO-*lipL32*, CS-pVITRO-*lipL32* at a N/P of 10:1, and MC-pVITRO-*lipL32* at a N/P ratio of 20:1. Data are plotted as a mean of triplicate wells. **P*< 0.05 compared to the plasmid control.

Cytokine response to *lipL32* DNA vaccine immunization

LipL32-specific IFN- γ production significantly increased in mice immunized with pVITRO-*lipL32*, CS-pVITRO-*lipL32* at the N/P ratio of 10:1, and MC-pVITRO-*lipL32* at the N/P ratio of 20:1 when compared with that of mice immunized with pVITRO (*p*<0.05). However, when splenocytes were stimulated with 20 µg/ml of rLipL32 the IFN- γ level was significantly higher in mice immunized with CS-pVITRO-*lipL32* than that of mice immunized with pVITRO-*lipL32*, and MC-pVITRO-*lipL32* (*p*<0.05, Figure 28A). The LipL32-specific IL-4 production significant increased in mice immunized with pVITRO-*lipL32* at a N/P of 10:1, and MC-pVITRO-*lipL32* at a N/P of 20:1 when compared with pVITRO (*p*<0.05). However, in response to rLipL32 the IL-4 level was significantly higher from splenoytes of mice immunized with CS-pVITRO-*lipL32* at the N/P of 10:1 than that of pVITRO-*lipL32*, and MC-pVITRO-*lipL32* at the N/P of 20:1 (*p*<0.05, Figure 28B). The cytokine responses of the vaccinated group tended to develop toward Th1 response (IFN- γ) rather than Th2 response (IL-4) as shown in Figure 28.



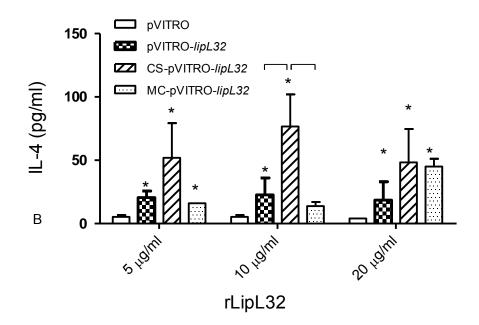
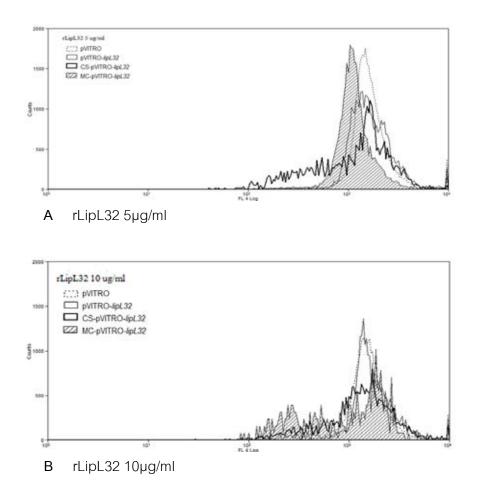


Figure 28. Cytokine responses after DNA vaccine vaccination were measured by ELISA. BALB/c mice were immunized intramuscularly (IM) with pVITRO, pVITRO-*lipL32*, CS-pVITRO-*lipL32* at a N/P of 10:1, and MC-pVITRO-*lipL32* at a N/P of 20:1. The splenocytes were stimulated with rLipL32 (5–20 µg/ml) for 72 hours. The LipL32-specific IFN- γ production (A), and LipL32 specific IL-4 production (B). Results are plotted as mean of triplicate wells. **P* < 0.05 compared to plasmids control.

Lymphocyte proliferation

Lymphocytes were stimulated *in vitro* with varying concentrations of rLipL32 (5–20 µg/ml). Lymphocyte derived from BALB/c mice immunized with CS-pVITRO-*lipL32* at the N/P of 10:1, and MC-pVITRO-*lipL32* at the N/P of 8:1 proliferated in response to 10 and 20 µg/ml of antigen (Figure 29B and C). The CS-pVITRO-*lipL32* at the N/P of 10:1, and MC-pVITRO-*lipL32* at the N/P of 20:1 showed a stronger proliferative response to LipL32 antigen than pVITRO-*lipL32* and pVITRO (Figure 29).



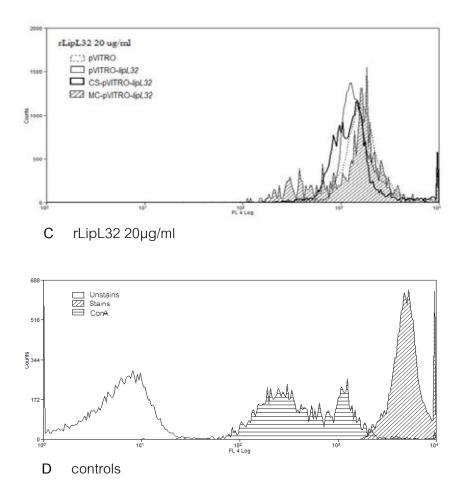


Figure 29. Cell proliferation after *lipL32* DNA vaccine immunization were analyzed by flow cytometry. BALB/c mice were immunized intramuscularly (IM) with pVITRO, pVITRO-*lipL32*, CS-pVITRO-*lipL32* at the N/P of 10:1, and MC-pVITRO-*lipL32* at the N/P of 20:1. The splenocytes were stimulated with rLipL32; (A) 5 μ g/ml, (B) 10 μ g/ml, (C) 20 μ g/ml for 72 hours. (D) unstained cells and unstimulated cells (negative control), and ConA stimulated cells (positive control).

After stimulation with rLipL32 for 72 hours, the CD4+ T cells derived from mice immunized with pVITRO-*lipL32*, CS-pVITRO-*lipL32* at the N/P of 10:1, and MC-pVITRO*lipL32* at the N/P of 20:1 produced cytokines (IFN- γ , IL-2, and IL-4) at a significantly higher level than that of cells derived from mice immunized with pVITRO (*p*<0.05). However, IFN- γ level produced from cells obtained from mice immunized with CSpVITRO-*lipL32* was significantly higher than that of pVITRO-*lipL32*, and MC-pVITRO*lipL32* (*p*<0.05) (Figure 30) suggesting that CS-pVITRO-*lipL32* mediated stronger immune response toward Th1 response.

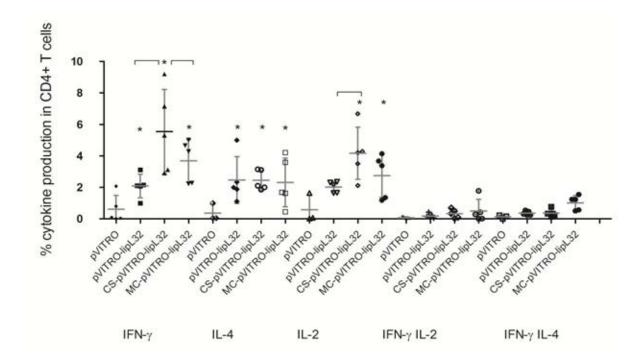


Figure 30. CD4+ T cells produced cytokine in response to *lipL32* DNA vaccine immunization were analyzed by flow cytometry. BALB/c mice were immunized intramuscularly (IM) with pVITRO, pVITRO-*lipL32*, CS-pVITRO-*lipL32* at the N/P of 10:1, and MC-pVITRO-*lipL32* at the N/P of 20:1. The splenocytes were stimulated with 20 μ g/ml of rLipL32, isotype control (negative control), and ConA (positive control) for 72 hours.

CHAPTER VI DISCUSSIONS

Leptospirosis is the most widespread zoonosis in the world. Currently available vaccines for leptospirosis, the heat-killed whole-cell vaccine preparations, stimulate protective immunity only against homologous serovars [28]. This type of vaccine has disadvantages including several side effects such as, pain, nausea, and fever; inducing only short-term immunity and serovar-specific protection. Therefore, the development of new vaccines for leptospirosis has been emphasized on identification of vaccine candidates that are conserved in *Leptospira*, which is expected to be able to prevent infection caused by all pathogenic serovars. Current vaccines are developed in many forms including recombinant protein and DNA vaccines, but so far none has the efficacy to completely prevent the disease and protect against heterologous serovars.

Humoral-mediated immunity (HMI) is important to confer resistance to leptospirosis [18-20]. The monoclonal antibodies directed against leptospiral lipopolysaccharides (LPS) were able to transfer passive protection in neonatal guinea pig [21]. The LPS antibody has been shown to prevent infection caused by only homologous serovar [2]. Cell-mediated immunity (CMI) was demonstrated to be critical for protection of cattle immunized with killed leptospiral vaccine by induction of Th1 response, as demonstrated by interferon (IFN)- γ secretion by CD4+ and TCR $\gamma\delta$ + T cells [23-25]. Therefore, stimulation of appropriate immune response, both humoral-mediated immunity (HMI) and cell-mediated immunity (CMI) possibly in the predilection of Th1 response, may be important for protection against leptospirosis.

LipL32 is the major outer membrane protein found in pathogenic *Leptospira*. Previous studies have evaluated immunization strategies against leptospirosis using LipL32 as a vaccine antigen. For example, combination of LipL32 and LipL41 was reported to stimulate partial immunoprotection against leptospirosis in animal models [34]. Recombinant protein vaccine comprised of LipL32 and LigA was unable to protect hamsters against challenge with virulent leptospires [178]. However, *Mycobacterium bovis* bacille Calmette-Guérin (BCG) and adenovirus vectors expressing LipL32 induced significant protection against pathogenic *Leptospira* challenge [36, 185]. BCG is a strong Th1 stimulator which may be important for protection against leptospiral infection as discussed earlier. These findings indicate that LipL32 can induce protective immunity against leptospiral infection only under certain conditions or formulations.

This study aimed to optimize the leptospirosis vaccine using *lipL32* as a model antigen. DNA vaccine is the type of vaccine of our interest due to its several advantages including easy preparation, stability, and ability to be modified to stimulate both HMI and CMI [193]. We constructed a plasmid containing full-length *lipL32* with natural leader sequence. After transfection, LipL32 was detected in both cell lysate and culture supernatant suggesting that LipL32 was able to be expressed in and secreted outside the mammalian cells. Secreted proteins may act as exogenous antigens and improve the ability to stimulate the immune system for antibody production [193]. LipL32 secreted into the culture supernatant was shown to have higher molecular weight than intracellular LipL32. It is possible that secreted LipL32 was post-translationally modified after transfection since its sequence contains predicted glycosylation site (at amino acid position 44, NET).

Chitosan is a polymer of positively charged N-acetyl-D-glucosamine [37, 204] which can bind to negatively charged DNA [38]. The slow release of DNA from chitosan particle makes it useful for gene delivery [221, 222]. Previous report showed that chitosan particles were effective in induction of local as well as systemic immunity [223]. Chitosan was selected as the delivery system for our lipL32 DNA vaccine due to its low cost, low cell toxicity, and ability to be modified for cell targeting. Chitosan nanoparticles were used to conjugate lipL32 DNA vaccine due to its stability and ability to enter cells through endocytosis or pinocytosis leading to enhancing the rate of transfection [224, 225].

Receptor-mediated endocytosis offers the potential to target specific cells and enhance the uptake. In this study, chitosan nanoparticles were modified by mannosylation for cell targeting. Active targeting using receptor-mediated interactions has been shown to be effective in gene delivery [226-229]. Kawakami et al. showed that mannosylated liposomes exhibited high transfection activity due to recognition by mannose receptors both *in vitro* and *in vivo* [230]. Kim et al. demonstrated that mannosylated chitosan (MC) induced mannose receptor-mediated endocytosis of IL-12 gene directly into dendritic cells resided within the tumor leading to suppression of cancer growth in BALB/c mice bearing CT-26 carcinoma cells [207]. Therefore, mannosylated chitosan nanoparticle should be able to target our DNA vaccine to target cells expressing mannose receptor on their surface, such as macrophages and dendritic cells.

Several studies have shown that nanoparticles are able to induce higher intracellular uptake than that of microparticles [224]. In addition, nanoparticles can induce more inflammatory response than larger particles because the level of inflammatory response depends on the total surface area of particles [231, 232]. After encapsulation with *LipL32*-containing plasmid, chitosan (CS-pVITRO-*lipL32* at the NP ratio of 10:1) and mannosylated chitosan (MC-pVITRO-*lipL32* at the NP ratio of 20:1) remained nanoparticle in size of approximately 500 nm. The chitosan and mannosylated chitosan hanoparticles because the nanoparticles th

Our results showed that both chitosan and mannosylated chitosan was able to completely encapsulate lipL32 DNA vaccine construct but at different N/P ratios. DNAtransfection efficiency conjugated chitosan has been shown to enhance in several cell lines [225, 233]. Our results showed that the highest transfection efficiency of MC-pVITRO-lipL32 was obtained at the higher N/P ratio (20:1) than that of CS-pVITRO-lipL32 (10:1). Hence, the modification of chitosan with mannose enhanced the transfection efficiency in macrophages (RAW 264.7). The result of this study is consistent with those from previous studies showing that mannose receptor-mediated gene delivery enhanced transfection efficiency [230]. Hashimoto et al. showed that CSand MC-conjugated DNA improved transfection of mouse peritoneal macrophages through the process of phagocytosis [48]. Chitosan was previously shown to be relatively low cytotoxic on different cell lines [218, 223]. The present study revealed no cytotoxicity of CS-pVITRO-*lipL32* and MC-pVITRO-*lipL32* since cell viability of transfected cells was similar to that of untransfected control.

After immunization of BALB/c mice, CS-and MC-conjugated plasmid containing *lipL32* significantly increased LipL32-specific total IgG production in comparison to the plasmid control (*p*<0.05). The highest level of total IgG level of mice immunized with MC-pVITRO-*lipL32* was obtained at 8 week of immunization, which was significantly higher than that from mice immunized with CS-pVITRO-*lipL32* and unconjugated plasmid (pVITRO-*lipL32*). The antibody response of the vaccinated group tended to be toward Th1 response (IgG2a) rather than Th2 response (IgG1). In addition, the CS-pVITRO-*lipL32* and MC-pVITRO-*lipL32* was able to stimulate LipL32-specific T cell proliferation and induce mainly IFN- γ cytokine release suggesting a predilection of Th1 stimulation, which is consistent with previous findings of antibody production. The group vaccinated with CS-pVITRO-*lipL32* induced cytokine release and cell proliferation at a higher level than the group immunized with MC-pVITRO-*lipL32* (*p*<0.05).

Our results in this study strongly support the efficacy of chitosan nanoparticles as an adjuvant-carrier system for the effective induction of both humoral and cellmediated immune responses and should be further tested for its protection efficacy in animal models of leptospirosis.

CHAPTER VII SUMMARY

The aim of this study was to develop *lipL32* DNA vaccine using mannosylated chitosan nanoparticles as a vaccine delivery system and determine its properties and ability to stimulate humoral (HMI) and cell-mediated (CMI) immune responses in mice. We found that chitosan and mannosylated chitosan nanoparticles were able to encapsulate *lipL32* DNA vaccine and enhance its transfection efficiency into RAW 264.7 macrophage cell line resulting in expression of LipL32 inside the cells with no cytotoxicity in comparison to naked *lipL32* DNA vaccine. At 8 week of immunization, total IgG level of mice immunized with mannosylated chitosan-conjugated *lipL32* DNA vaccine (MC-pVITRO-*lipL32*) was significantly higher than that of chitosan-conjugated plasmid (CS-pVITRO-*lipL32*) and naked plasmid (pVITRO-*lipL32*) suggesting its ability to induce specific HMI. In addition, mannosylated chitosan-conjugated vaccine was capable to stimulate CMI toward Th1 response but at the lower extent than that of chitosan-conjugated vaccine.

Our results demonstrated that the chitosan or mannosylated chitosan nanoparticles can be used as a DNA delivery system for *lipL32* DNA vaccine and can induce both specific humoral and Th1-predilected cell-mediated immune responses. The chitosan- and mannosylated chitosan-conjugated *lipL32* DNA vaccine will be further investigated for their efficacy to protect leptospirosis in animal models.

REFFRENCES

- [1] R.C. Johnson. *Leptospira*. (1996).
- R.U.M. Palaniappan, *et al.* Leptospirosis: Pathogenesis, immunity, and diagnosis. <u>Current Opinion in Infectious Diseases</u> 20 (2007): 284-292.
- B. Adler, A. de la Pena Moctezuma. *Leptospira* and leptospirosis. <u>Vet Microbiol</u> 140 (2010): 287-296.
- [4] D.A. Haake. Spirochaetal lipoproteins and pathogenesis. <u>Microbiology</u> 146 (Pt
 7) (2000): 1491-1504.
- [5] R.C. Johnson, P. Rogers. METABOLISM OF LEPTOSPIRES: II. THE ACTION OF 8-AZAGUANINE. <u>Canadian Journal of Microbiology</u> 13 (1967): 1621-1629.
- [6] R.C. Johnson, P. Rogers. Differentiation of Pathogenic and Saprophytic
 Leptospires with 8-Azaguanine. <u>J Bacteriol</u> 88 (1964): 1618-1623.
- [7] N.W. Charon, S.F. Goldstein, Genetics of motility and chemotaxis of a fascinating group of bacteria: The spirochetes 36, 2002, pp. 47-73.
- [8] A.R. Bharti, *et al.* Leptospirosis: A zoonotic disease of global importance. <u>Lancet</u> <u>Infectious Diseases</u> 3 (2003): 757-771.
- P. Ristow, *et al.* Biofilm formation by saprophytic and pathogenic leptospires.
 <u>Microbiology</u> 154 (2008): 1309-1317.
- [10] P.N. Levett. Leptospirosis. <u>Clin Microbiol Rev</u> 14 (2001): 296-326.
- [11] C.M. Silverstein. Pulmonary manifestations of leptospirosis. <u>Radiology</u> 61 (1953):
 327-334.
- [12] C. Yersin, et al. Pulmonary haemorrhage as a predominant cause of death in leptospirosis in Seychelles. <u>Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg</u> 94 (2000): 71-76.
- [13] สำนักระบาดวิทยา. สรุปรายงานการเฝ้าระวังโรคเลปโตสไปโรซิส. <u>สำนักระบาดวิทยา.</u> <u>กระทรวงสาธารณสุข</u> (2553).
- [14] V. Wuthiekanun, *et al.* Clinical diagnosis and geographic distribution of leptospirosis, Thailand. <u>Emerg Infect Dis</u> 13 (2007): 124-126.

- [15] W. Tangkanakul, *et al.* Leptospirosis: an emerging health problem in Thailand.
 <u>Southeast Asian J Trop Med Public Health</u> 36 (2005): 281-288.
- K. Laras, *et al.* The importance of leptospirosis in Southeast Asia. <u>Am J Trop</u> <u>Med Hyg</u> 67 (2002): 278-286.
- [17] R.D. Ellis, et al. Causes of fever in adults on the Thai-Myanmar border. <u>American</u> <u>Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene</u> 74 (2006): 108-113.
- [18] P.N. Levett. Leptospirosis. <u>Clinical Microbiology Reviews</u> 14 (2001): 296-326.
- [19] A.I. Ko, et al. Leptospira: the dawn of the molecular genetics era for an emerging zoonotic pathogen. <u>Nat Rev Microbiol</u> 7 (2009): 736-747.
- [20] B. Adler, S. Faine. Host immunological mechanisms in the resistance of mice to leptospiral infections. <u>Infect Immun</u> 17 (1977): 67-72.
- [21] B.H. Jost, et al. A monoclonal antibody reacting with a determinant on leptospiral lipopolysaccharide protects guinea pigs against leptospirosis. <u>J Med Microbiol</u> 22 (1986): 269-275.
- [22] P. Cumberland, et al. Persistence of anti-leptospiral IgM, IgG and agglutinating antibodies in patients presenting with acute febrile illness in Barbados 1979-1989. <u>Eur J Epidemiol</u> 17 (2001): 601-608.
- [23] R.L. Zuerner, et al. A Leptospira borgpetersenii serovar Hardjo vaccine induces a Th1 response, activates NK cells, and reduces renal colonization. <u>Clin</u> <u>Vaccine Immunol</u> 18 (2011): 684-691.
- [24] R.A. Brown, et al. Comparison of three different leptospiral vaccines for induction of a type 1 immune response to *Leptospira borgpetersenii* serovar Hardjo. <u>Vaccine</u> 21 (2003): 4448-4458.
- [25] B.M. Naiman, et al. Protective killed Leptospira borgpetersenii vaccine induces potent Th1 immunity comprising responses by CD4 and gammadelta T lymphocytes. <u>Infect Immun</u> 69 (2001): 7550-7558.
- [26] G.R. Klimpel, *et al. Leptospira interrogans* activation of human peripheral blood mononuclear cells: Preferential expansion of TCR $\gamma\delta$ + T cells vs TCR $\alpha\beta$ + T cells. Journal of Immunology 171 (2003): 1447-1455.

- [27] S.L. Blumerman, et al. WC1+ gammadelta T cell memory population is induced by killed bacterial vaccine. <u>Eur J Immunol</u> 37 (2007): 1204-1216.
- [28] N. Koizumi, H. Watanabe. Leptospirosis vaccines: past, present, and future. J <u>Postgrad Med</u> 51 (2005): 210-214.
- [29] A.I. Ko, et al. Leptospira: The dawn of the molecular genetics era for an emerging zoonotic pathogen. <u>Nature Reviews Microbiology</u> 7 (2009): 736-747.
- [30] P.A. Cullen, et al. Global analysis of outer membrane proteins from Leptospira interrogans serovar Lai. <u>Infect Immun</u> 70 (2002): 2311-2318.
- [31] D.A. Haake, *et al.* The leptospiral major outer membrane protein LipL32 is a lipoprotein expressed during mammalian infection. <u>Infect Immun</u> 68 (2000): 2276-2285.
- [32] S.H. Lee, *et al.* Identification and partial characterization of a novel hemolysin from *Leptospira interrogans* serovar lai. <u>Gene</u> 254 (2000): 19-28.
- [33] B. Flannery, et al. Evaluation of recombinant Leptospira antigen-based enzymelinked immunosorbent assays for the serodiagnosis of leptospirosis. J <u>Clin Microbiol</u> 39 (2001): 3303-3310.
- [34] C.Y. Feng, et al. Immune strategies using single-component LipL32 and multicomponent recombinant LipL32-41-OmpL1 vaccines against *Leptospira*. <u>Brazilian Journal of Medical and Biological Research</u> 42 (2009): 796-803.
- [35] C. Branger, et al. Identification of the hemolysis-associated protein 1 as a crossprotective immunogen of *Leptospira interrogans* by adenovirusmediated vaccination. <u>Infection and Immunity</u> 69 (2001): 6831-6838.
- [36] C. Branger, et al. Protection against Leptospira interrogans sensu lato challenge by DNA immunization with the gene encoding hemolysin-associated protein 1. <u>Infection and Immunity</u> 73 (2005): 4062-4069.
- [37] H.C. Arca, et al. Chitosan-based systems for the delivery of vaccine antigens.
 <u>Expert Review of Vaccines</u> 8 (2009): 937-953.

- [38] Ü. Guliyeva, et al. Chitosan microparticles containing plasmid DNA as potential oral gene delivery system. <u>European Journal of Pharmaceutics and</u> <u>Biopharmaceutics</u> 62 (2006): 17-25.
- [39] M. Amidi, et al. Preparation and characterization of protein-loaded N-trimethyl chitosan nanoparticles as nasal delivery system. <u>J Control Release</u> 111 (2006): 107-116.
- [40] J. Berger, et al. Pseudo-thermosetting chitosan hydrogels for biomedical application. <u>Int J Pharm</u> 288 (2005): 197-206.
- [41] K. Corsi, et al. Mesenchymal stem cells, MG63 and HEK293 transfection using chitosan-DNA nanoparticles. <u>Biomaterials</u> 24 (2003): 1255-1264.
- [42] T. Sato, et al. In vitro gene delivery mediated by chitosan. Effect of pH, serum, and molecular mass of chitosan on the transfection efficiency. <u>Biomaterials</u> 22 (2001): 2075-2080.
- [43] S.A. Agnihotri, *et al.* Recent advances on chitosan-based micro- and nanoparticles in drug delivery. <u>J Control Release</u> 100 (2004): 5-28.
- [44] D.A. Zaharoff, *et al.* Chitosan solution enhances both humoral and cell-mediated immune responses to subcutaneous vaccination. <u>Vaccine</u> 25 (2007): 2085-2094.
- [45] Z.S. Wen, et al. Chitosan nanoparticles act as an adjuvant to promote both Th1 and Th2 immune responses induced by ovalbumin in mice. <u>Marine</u> <u>Drugs</u> 9 (2011): 1038-1055.
- [46] G. Peluso, *et al.* Chitosan-mediated stimulation of macrophage function.<u>Biomaterials</u> 15 (1994): 1215-1220.
- [47] H.L. Jiang, *et al.* Mannosylated chitosan-graft-polyethylenimine as a gene carrier for Raw 264.7 cell targeting. <u>Int J Pharm</u> 375 (2009): 133-139.
- [48] M. Hashimoto, *et al.* Gene transfer by DNA/mannosylated chitosan complexes into mouse peritoneal macrophages. <u>Biotechnol Lett</u> 28 (2006): 815-821.

- [49] C.M. Varga, et al. Receptor-mediated targeting of gene delivery vectors: insights from molecular mechanisms for improved vehicle design. <u>Biotechnol</u> <u>Bioeng</u> 70 (2000): 593-605.
- [50] T. Keler, et al. Mannose receptor-targeted vaccines. <u>Expert Opin Biol Ther</u> 4 (2004): 1953-1962.
- [51] T. Keler, et al. Mannose receptor-targeted vaccines. <u>Expert Opinion on</u> <u>Biological Therapy</u> 4 (2004): 1953-1962.
- [52] A.J. Engering, et al. The mannose receptor functions as a high capacity and broad specificity antigen receptor in human dendritic cells. <u>European</u> <u>Journal of Immunology</u> 27 (1997): 2417-2425.
- [53] Y. Hattori, et al. Enhancement of immune responses by DNA vaccination through targeted gene delivery using mannosylated cationic liposome formulations following intravenous administration in mice. <u>Biochemical</u> <u>and Biophysical Research Communications</u> 317 (2004): 992-999.
- [54] B.J. Paster, *et al.* Phylogenetic analysis of the spirochetes. <u>J Bacteriol</u> 173 (1991): 6101-6109.
- [55] K.V. Evangelista, J. Coburn. *Leptospira* as an emerging pathogen: a review of its biology, pathogenesis and host immune responses. <u>Future Microbiol</u> 5 (2010): 1413-1425.
- [56] A.R. Bharti, et al. Leptospirosis: a zoonotic disease of global importance. <u>Lancet</u> <u>Infect Dis</u> 3 (2003): 757-771.
- [57] P.A. Cullen, *et al.* Outer membrane proteins of pathogenic spirochetes. <u>FEMS</u> <u>Microbiol Rev</u> 28 (2004): 291-318.
- [58] J. Pillot, A. Ryter. [Structure of spirochetes. 1. Study of the genera Treponema, Borrelia and *Leptospira* by the electron microscope]. <u>Ann Inst Pasteur</u> (<u>Paris</u>) 108 (1965): 791-804.
- [59] A.A. Varpholomeeva, E.S. Stanislavsky. [Electron microscopy of Leptospira morphology]. <u>Ann Inst Pasteur (Paris)</u> 94 (1958): 361-366.

- [60] J.W. Czekalowski. Electron microscope study of *Leptospira*. <u>Antonie Van</u> <u>Leeuwenhoek</u> 29 (1963): 29-34.
- [61] G.A. Trueba, et al. Characterization of the periplasmic flagellum proteins of Leptospira interrogans. J Bacteriol 174 (1992): 4761-4768.
- [62] D.J. Brenner, et al. Further determination of DNA relatedness between serogroups and serovars in the family Leptospiraceae with a proposal for *Leptospira alexanderi* sp. nov. and four new *Leptospira* genomospecies. <u>Int J Syst Bacteriol</u> 49 Pt 2 (1999): 839-858.
- [63] P. Ramadass, et al. Genetic characterization of pathogenic *Leptospira* speciesby DNA hybridization. <u>Int J Syst Bacteriol</u> 42 (1992): 215-219.
- [64] G.M. Cerqueira, M. Picardeau. A century of *Leptospira* strain typing. <u>Infect</u> <u>Genet Evol</u> 9 (2009): 760-768.
- [65] T.R. Fraga, et al. Leptospirosis: aspects of innate immunity, immunopathogenesis and immune evasion from the complement system. <u>Scand J Immunol</u> 73 (2011): 408-419.
- [66] M. Picardeau, et al. Genome sequence of the saprophyte Leptospira biflexa provides insights into the evolution of Leptospira and the pathogenesis of leptospirosis. <u>PLoS One</u> 3 (2008): e1607.
- [67] S.X. Ren, et al. Unique physiological and pathogenic features of *Leptospira* interrogans revealed by whole-genome sequencing. <u>Nature</u> 422 (2003): 888-893.
- [68] A.L. Nascimento, et al. Genome features of Leptospira interrogans serovar Copenhageni. <u>Braz J Med Biol Res</u> 37 (2004): 459-477.
- [69] D.M. Bulach, et al. Genome reduction in Leptospira borgpetersenii reflects limited transmission potential. <u>Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A</u> 103 (2006): 14560-14565.
- [70] Leptospirosis worldwide, 1999. <u>Wkly Epidemiol Rec</u> 74 (1999): 237-242.

- [71] A.A. Adesiyun, et al. Human leptospirosis in the Caribbean, 1997-2005: characteristics and serotyping of clinical samples from 14 countries. <u>Rev</u> <u>Panam Salud Publica</u> 29 (2011): 350-357.
- [72] M.A. St John, et al. Leptospirosis occurring in two children after fresh water immersion. <u>West Indian Med J</u> 49 (2000): 340-343.
- [73] R.M. Barkin, *et al.* Infection by *Leptospira ballum*: a laboratory-associated case.
 <u>South Med J</u> 67 (1974): 155 passim.
- [74] L. De-Souza, M.C. Koury. Chemical and biological properties of endotoxin from Leptospira interrogans serovars canicola and icterohaemorrhagiae. <u>Braz</u> <u>J Med Biol Res</u> 25 (1992): 467-475.
- [75] J.H. Gollop, et al. Rat-bite leptospirosis. <u>West J Med</u> 159 (1993): 76-77.
- [76] Y. Liu, et al. Pathogenesis of leptospirosis: interaction of *Leptospira interrogans* with in vitro cultured mammalian cells. <u>Med Microbiol Immunol</u> 196 (2007): 233-239.
- [77] S.A. Ballard, *et al.* Interactions of virulent and avirulent leptospires with primary cultures of renal epithelial cells. <u>J Med Microbiol</u> 21 (1986): 59-67.
- [78] M. Cinco. New insights into the pathogenicity of leptospires: evasion of host defences. <u>New Microbiol</u> 33 (2010): 283-292.
- [79] M.J. Kuehn, N.C. Kesty. Bacterial outer membrane vesicles and the hostpathogen interaction. <u>Genes Dev</u> 19 (2005): 2645-2655.
- [80] C.Y. Feng, et al. Immune strategies using single-component LipL32 and multicomponent recombinant LipL32-41-OmpL1 vaccines against *Leptospira*. <u>Braz J Med Biol Res</u> 42 (2009): 796-803.
- [81] D.A. Haake, J. Matsunaga. *Leptospira*: a spirochaete with a hybrid outer membrane. <u>Mol Microbiol</u> (2010).
- [82] J. Matsunaga, et al. Osmolarity, a key environmental signal controlling expression of leptospiral proteins LigA and LigB and the extracellular release of LigA. <u>Infect Immun</u> 73 (2005): 70-78.

- [83] M. Lo, et al. Effects of temperature on gene expression patterns in Leptospira interrogans serovar Lai as assessed by whole-genome microarrays. <u>Infect Immun</u> 74 (2006): 5848-5859.
- [84] J. Matsunaga, et al. Osmotic regulation of expression of two extracellular matrixbinding proteins and a haemolysin of *Leptospira interrogans*: differential effects on LigA and Sph2 extracellular release. <u>Microbiology</u> 153 (2007): 3390-3398.
- [85] M.V. Atzingen, *et al.* Lsa21, a novel leptospiral protein binding adhesive matrix molecules and present during human infection. <u>BMC Microbiol</u> 8 (2008):
 70.
- [86] M.L. Vieira, et al. Proteome Analysis of Leptospira interrogans Virulent Strain. <u>Open Microbiol J</u> 3 (2009): 69-74.
- [87] P. Ristow, et al. The OmpA-like protein Loa22 is essential for leptospiral virulence. <u>PLoS Pathog</u> 3 (2007): e97.
- [88] P. Hauk, et al. Structure and Calcium-Binding Activity of LipL32, the Major Surface Antigen of Pathogenic Leptospira sp. Journal of Molecular Biology 390 (2009): 722-736.
- [89] D.E. Hoke, et al. LipL32 is an extracellular matrix-interacting protein of Leptospira spp. and Pseudoalteromonas tunicata. Infection and Immunity 76 (2008): 2063-2069.
- [90] N. Koizumi, H. Watanabe. Molecular cloning and characterization of a novel leptospiral lipoprotein with OmpA domain. <u>FEMS Microbiol Lett</u> 226 (2003): 215-219.
- [91] P. Ristow, et al. The OmpA-like protein Loa22 is essential for leptospiral virulence. <u>PLoS pathogens</u> 3 (2007).
- [92] P.A. Cullen, *et al.* LipL21 is a novel surface-exposed lipoprotein of pathogenic *Leptospira* species. Infection and Immunity 71 (2003): 2414-2421.

- [93] M. Pinne, D.A. Haake. A comprehensive approach to identification of surfaceexposed, outer membrane-spanning proteins of *Leptospira interrogans*. <u>PLoS One</u> 4 (2009).
- [94] D.A. Haake, et al. Molecular cloning and sequence analysis of the gene encoding OmpL1, a transmembrane outer membrane protein of pathogenic *Leptospira* spp. <u>Journal of Bacteriology</u> 175 (1993): 4225-4234.
- [95] E.S. Shang, et al. The rare outer membrane protein, OmpL1, of pathogenic
 Leptospira species is a heat-modifiable porin. <u>Infection and Immunity</u> 63 (1995): 3174-3181.
- [96] J. Matsunaga, et al. LipL46 is a novel surface-exposed lipoprotein expressed during leptospiral dissemination in the mammalian host. <u>Microbiology</u> 152 (2006): 3777-3786.
- [97] H.A. Choy, et al. Physiological osmotic induction of Leptospira interrogans adhesion: LigA and LigB bind extracellular matrix proteins and fibrinogen. <u>Infection and Immunity</u> 75 (2007): 2441-2450.
- [98] Y.P. Lin, et al. Calcium binds to leptospiral immunoglobulin-like protein, LigB, and modulates fibronectin binding. <u>Journal of Biological Chemistry</u> 283 (2008): 25140-25149.
- [99] P.A. Cullen, et al. Surfaceome of Leptospira spp. Infect Immun 73 (2005): 4853-4863.
- [100] P.N. Levett, et al. Detection of pathogenic leptospires by real-time quantitative PCR. <u>J Med Microbiol</u> 54 (2005): 45-49.
- [101] J.E. Nally, et al. Characterization of the outer membrane proteome of Leptospira interrogans expressed during acute lethal infection. <u>Infect Immun</u> 75 (2007): 766-773.
- [102] D.A. Haake, et al. Molecular evolution and mosaicism of leptospiral outer membrane proteins involves horizontal DNA transfer. <u>J Bacteriol</u> 186 (2004): 2818-2828.

- [103] C.W. Yang, et al. Toll-like receptor 2 mediates early inflammation by leptospiral outer membrane proteins in proximal tubule cells. <u>Kidney Int</u> 69 (2006): 815-822.
- [104] C.W. Yang, et al. The Leptospira outer membrane protein LipL32 induces tubulointerstitial nephritis-mediated gene expression in mouse proximal tubule cells. J Am Soc Nephrol 13 (2002): 2037-2045.
- [105] P. Hauk, et al. In LipL32, the major leptospiral lipoprotein, the C terminus is the primary immunogenic domain and mediates interaction with collagen IV and plasma fibronectin. <u>Infection and Immunity</u> 76 (2008): 2642-2650.
- [106] P. Hauk, et al. In LipL32, the major leptospiral lipoprotein, the C terminus is the primary immunogenic domain and mediates interaction with collagen IV and plasma fibronectin. <u>Infect Immun</u> 76 (2008): 2642-2650.
- [107] D.E. Hoke, et al. LipL32 is an extracellular matrix-interacting protein of Leptospira spp. and Pseudoalteromonas tunicata. Infect Immun 76 (2008): 2063-2069.
- [108] P. Hauk, et al. Structure and calcium-binding activity of LipL32, the major surface antigen of pathogenic *Leptospira* sp. <u>J Mol Biol</u> 390 (2009): 722-736.
- [109] G.L. Murray, et al. Major surface protein LipL32 is not required for either acute or chronic infection with *Leptospira interrogans*. <u>Infect Immun</u> 77 (2009): 952-958.
- [110] J. Croda, et al. Targeted mutagenesis in pathogenic Leptospira species: disruption of the LigB gene does not affect virulence in animal models of leptospirosis. <u>Infect Immun</u> 76 (2008): 5826-5833.
- [111] G.L. Murray, *et al.* Genome-wide transposon mutagenesis in pathogenic *Leptospira* species. <u>Infect Immun</u> 77 (2009): 810-816.
- [112] R. Lux, et al. Chemotaxis in pathogenic spirochetes: directed movement toward targeting tissues? <u>J Mol Microbiol Biotechnol</u> 2 (2000): 355-364.

- [113] K. Yuri, et al. Chemotaxis of leptospires to hemoglobin in relation to virulence. <u>Infect Immun</u> 61 (1993): 2270-2272.
- [114] E. Isogai, *et al.* Biological activities of leptospiral lipopolysaccharide. <u>Zentralbl</u> <u>Bakteriol Mikrobiol Hyg A</u> 261 (1986): 53-64.
- [115] T. Masuzawa, et al. Biological activities and endotoxic activities of protective antigens (PAgs) of *Leptospira interrogans*. <u>Zentralbl Bakteriol</u> 274 (1990): 109-117.
- [116] J.E. Nally, *et al.* Changes in lipopolysaccharide O antigen distinguish acute versus chronic *Leptospira interrogans* infections. <u>Infect Immun</u> 73 (2005): 3251-3260.
- [117] A.W. Bernheimer, R.F. Bey. Copurification of *Leptospira interrogans* serovar pomona hemolysin and sphingomyelinase C. <u>Infect Immun</u> 54 (1986): 262-264.
- [118] G. del Real, et al. Cloning of a hemolysin gene from Leptospira interrogans serovar hardjo. <u>Infect Immun</u> 57 (1989): 2588-2590.
- [119] Y.X. Zhang, et al. Identification and classification of all potential hemolysin encoding genes and their products from *Leptospira interrogans* serogroup Icterohae-morrhagiae serovar Lai. <u>Acta Pharmacol Sin</u> 26 (2005): 453-461.
- [120] P. Hauk, et al. Expression and characterization of HlyX hemolysin from Leptospira interrogans serovar Copenhageni: potentiation of hemolytic activity by LipL32. <u>Biochem Biophys Res Commun</u> 333 (2005): 1341-1347.
- [121] S.H. Lee, et al. Cytotoxic activities of Leptospira interrogans hemolysin SphH as a pore-forming protein on mammalian cells. <u>Infect Immun</u> 70 (2002): 315-322.
- [122] R.P. Segers, et al. Molecular analysis of a sphingomyelinase C gene from Leptospira interrogans serovar hardjo. <u>Infect Immun</u> 58 (1990): 2177-2185.

- [123] F. Merien, et al. Invasion of Vero cells and induction of apoptosis in macrophages by pathogenic *Leptospira interrogans* are correlated with virulence. <u>Infect Immun</u> 65 (1997): 729-738.
- [124] D.D. Thomas, L.M. Higbie. In vitro association of leptospires with host cells. <u>Infect Immun</u> 58 (1990): 581-585.
- [125] L. Li, et al. Comparison of invasion of fibroblasts and macrophages by high- and low-virulence *Leptospira* strains: colonization of the host-cell nucleus and induction of necrosis by the virulent strain. <u>Arch Microbiol</u> 188 (2007): 591-598.
- [126] A.S. Barbosa, et al. A newly identified leptospiral adhesin mediates attachment to laminin. <u>Infect Immun</u> 74 (2006): 6356-6364.
- [127] B. Stevenson, et al. Leptospira interrogans endostatin-like outer membrane proteins bind host fibronectin, laminin and regulators of complement. <u>PLoS One</u> 2 (2007): e1188.
- [128] Y.P. Lin, Y.F. Chang. A domain of the *Leptospira* LigB contributes to high affinity binding of fibronectin. <u>Biochem Biophys Res Commun</u> 362 (2007): 443-448.
- [129] H.A. Choy, et al. Physiological osmotic induction of Leptospira interrogans adhesion: LigA and LigB bind extracellular matrix proteins and fibrinogen. <u>Infect Immun</u> 75 (2007): 2441-2450.
- [130] A. Verma, et al. Leptospiral endostatin-like protein A is a bacterial cell surface receptor for human plasminogen. <u>Infect Immun</u> 78 (2010): 2053-2059.
- [131] P. Vijayachari, et al. Evaluation of darkground microscopy as a rapid diagnostic procedure in leptospirosis. <u>Indian J Med Res</u> 114 (2001): 54-58.
- [132] P.N. Levett. Usefulness of serologic analysis as a predictor of the infecting serovar in patients with severe leptospirosis. <u>Clin Infect Dis</u> 36 (2003): 447-452.

- [133] N. Andreescu. A new prepatory method of thermically inactivated *Leptospira Patoc* antigen for rapid slide agglutination used as serosurvey test for human leptospiroses. <u>Arch Roum Pathol Exp Microbiol</u> 49 (1990): 223-227.
- [134] W. Lilenbaum, *et al.* Evaluation of a rapid slide agglutination test for the diagnosis of acute canine leptospirosis. <u>Rev Latinoam Microbiol</u> 44 (2002): 124-128.
- [135] T. Senthilkumar, et al. Rapid serodiagnosis of leptospirosis by latex agglutination test and flow-through assay. <u>Indian J Med Microbiol</u> 26 (2008): 45-49.
- [136] S. Dey, et al. Recombinant antigen-based latex agglutination test for rapid serodiagnosis of leptospirosis. <u>Vet Res Commun</u> 31 (2007): 9-15.
- [137] C. Hull-Jackson, et al. Evaluation of a commercial latex agglutination assay for serological diagnosis of leptospirosis. <u>J Clin Microbiol</u> 44 (2006): 1853-1855.
- [138] S. Pradutkanchana, J. Nakarin. The use of latex agglutination for the diagnosis of acute human leptospirosis. <u>J Med Assoc Thai</u> 88 (2005): 1395-1400.
- [139] B. Adler, et al. Detection of specific anti-leptospiral immunoglobulins M and G in human serum by solid-phase enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay. J <u>Clin Microbiol</u> 11 (1980): 452-457.
- [140] M. Mailloux, et al. Application of an immuno-enzyme technique to titration of antibodies in leptospirosis: ELISA (enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay). <u>Zentralbl Bakteriol Mikrobiol Hyg A</u> 257 (1984): 511-513.
- [141] O. Surujballi, C. Elmgren. Monoclonal antibodies suitable for incorporation into a competitive enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) for detection of specific antibodies to *Leptospira interrogans* serovar pomona. <u>Vet</u> <u>Microbiol</u> 71 (2000): 149-159.
- [142] R. Sharma, et al. Application of rapid dot-ELISA for antibody detection of leptospirosis. <u>J Med Microbiol</u> 56 (2007): 873-874.

- [143] G. Vitale, et al. Evaluation of an IgM-ELISA test for the diagnosis of human leptospirosis. <u>New Microbiol</u> 27 (2004): 149-154.
- [144] S. Dey, et al. Recombinant antigen-based dipstick ELISA for the diagnosis of leptospirosis in dogs. <u>Vet Rec</u> 160 (2007): 186-188.
- [145] P. Renesto, et al. rpoB gene analysis as a novel strategy for identification of spirochetes from the genera Borrelia, Treponema, and Leptospira. J Clin <u>Microbiol</u> 38 (2000): 2200-2203.
- [146] M.C. Ooteman, et al. Evaluation of MAT, IgM ELISA and PCR methods for the diagnosis of human leptospirosis. <u>J Microbiol Methods</u> 65 (2006): 247-257.
- [147] M.C. Ooteman, et al. Potential application of low-stringency single specific primer-PCR in the identification of *Leptospira* in the serum of patients with suspected leptospirosis. <u>Can J Microbiol</u> 50 (2004): 1073-1079.
- [148] M.A. Oliveira, et al. Low-stringency single specific primer PCR for identification of Leptospira. J Med Microbiol 52 (2003): 127-135.
- [149] A.E. Bal, et al. Detection of leptospires in urine by PCR for early diagnosis of leptospirosis. <u>J Clin Microbiol</u> 32 (1994): 1894-1898.
- [150] F. Merien, et al. Polymerase chain reaction for detection of *Leptospira* spp. in clinical samples. <u>J Clin Microbiol</u> 30 (1992): 2219-2224.
- [151] J.V. Hookey. Detection of Leptospiraceae by amplification of 16S ribosomal DNA. <u>FEMS Microbiol Lett</u> 69 (1992): 267-274.
- [152] R. Murgia, et al. Oligonucleotides specific for pathogenic and saprophytic leptospira occurring in water. <u>FEMS Microbiol Lett</u> 148 (1997): 27-34.
- [153] L.D. Smythe, et al. A quantitative PCR (TaqMan) assay for pathogenic Leptospira spp. <u>BMC Infect Dis</u> 2 (2002): 13.
- [154] C. Sonrier, et al. Evidence of cross-protection within Leptospira interrogans in an experimental model. <u>Vaccine</u> 19 (2000): 86-94.

- [155] A.J. Chapman, et al. Antigens recognised by the human immune response to infection with *Leptospira interrogans* serovar hardjo. <u>J Med Microbiol</u> 25 (1988): 269-278.
- [156] B. Adler, S. Faine. The antibodies involved in the human immune response to leptospiral infection. <u>J Med Microbiol</u> 11 (1978): 387-400.
- [157] B.H. Jost, et al. Experimental immunisation of hamsters with lipopolysaccharide antigens of *Leptospira interrogans*. <u>J Med Microbiol</u> 29 (1989): 115-120.
- [158] T. Masuzawa, et al. Immunochemical characteristics and localization on cells of protective antigen (PAg) prepared from *Leptospira interrogans* serovar lai. <u>Microbiol Immunol</u> 40 (1996): 237-241.
- [159] C. Werts, et al. Leptospiral lipopolysaccharide activates cells through a TLR2dependent mechanism. <u>Nat Immunol</u> 2 (2001): 346-352.
- [160] M.A. Nahori, *et al.* Differential TLR recognition of leptospiral lipid A and lipopolysaccharide in murine and human cells. <u>J Immunol</u> 175 (2005): 6022-6031.
- [161] C.W. Yang, et al. Leptospira outer membrane protein activates NF-kappaB and downstream genes expressed in medullary thick ascending limb cells. J <u>Am Soc Nephrol</u> 11 (2000): 2017-2026.
- [162] สำนักระบาดวิทยา. สรุปรายงานการเฝ้าระวังโรคเลปโตสไปโรซิส. <u>สำนักระบาดวิทยา,</u> <u>กระทรวงสาธารณสุข</u> (2551).
- [163] R. Martínez, et al. Efficacy and safety of a vaccine against human leptospirosis in Cuba. Eficacia y seguridad de una vacuna contra la leptospirosis <u>humana en Cuba</u> 15 (2004): 249-255.
- [164] Y. Yan, et al. An evaluation of the serological and epidemiological effects of the outer envelope vaccine to *leptospira*. Journal of the Chinese Medical <u>Association</u> 66 (2003): 224-230.
- [165] G.M. Painter, H.C. Ellinghausen, Jr. Immunising potency of *Leptospira interrogans* serotype canicola after heat inactivation at different temperatures. <u>J Med Microbiol</u> 9 (1976): 487-492.

- [166] C.C. Silva, et al. Effects of hydrostatic pressure on the Leptospira interrogans: high immunogenicity of the pressure-inactivated serovar hardjo. <u>Vaccine</u> 19 (2001): 1511-1514.
- [167] B.M. Naiman, et al. Protective killed Leptospira borgpetersenii vaccine induces potent Th1 immunity comprising responses by CD4 and γδ T lymphocytes. Infection and Immunity 69 (2001): 7550-7558.
- [168] E. Shenberg, M. Torten. A new leptospiral vaccine for use in man. I. Development of a vaccine from *Leptospira* grown on a chemically defined medium. <u>J Infect Dis</u> 128 (1973): 642-646.
- [169] S.R. Rathinam. Ocular leptospirosis. <u>Curr Opin Ophthalmol</u> 13 (2002): 381-386.
- [170] W.T. Hubbert, J.N. Miller. Studies on immunity in experimental leptospirosis: the immunogenicity of *Leptospira icterohemorrhagiae* attenuated by gammairradiation. <u>Journal of Immunology</u> 95 (1965): 759-764.
- [171] B. Babudieri, *et al.* Comparative tests with formolized and irradiated vaccines against leptospirosis. <u>Bull World Health Organ</u> 48 (1973): 587-590.
- [172] H.O. Alpar, et al. Strategies for DNA vaccine delivery. <u>Expert Opin Drug Deliv</u> 2 (2005): 829-842.
- [173] S.G. Kenzy, et al. Comparison of Leptospira pomona bacterin and attenuated live culture. Journal of the American Veterinary Medical Association 139 (1961): 452-454.
- [174] N.A. Fish, B. Kingscote. Protection of gilts against leptospirosis by use of a live vaccine. <u>Canadian Veterinary Journal</u> 14 (1973): 12-15.
- [175] O.H. Stalheim. Vaccination against leptospirosis: protection of hamsters and swine against renal leptospirosis by killed but intact gamma-irradiated or dihydrostreptomycin-exposed *Leptospira* pomona. <u>American Journal of</u> <u>Veterinary Research</u> 28 (1967): 1671-1676.
- [176] A. Srikram, et al. Cross-protective immunity against leptospirosis elicited by a live, attenuated lipopolysaccharide mutant. <u>Journal of Infectious</u> <u>Diseases</u> 203 (2011): 870-879.

- [177] A.D. Odir, *et al.* Recombinant vaccines against leptospirosis. <u>Human Vaccines</u> 7 (2011): 1215-1224.
- [178] D.S. Deveson Lucas, et al. Recombinant LipL32 and LigA from Leptospira are unable to stimulate protective immunity against leptospirosis in the hamster model. <u>Vaccine</u> 29 (2011): 3413-3418.
- [179] N. Koizumi, H. Watanabe. Leptospiral immunoglobulin-like proteins elicit protective immunity. <u>Vaccine</u> 22 (2004): 1545-1552.
- [180] R.U. Palaniappan, et al. Immunoprotection of recombinant leptospiral immunoglobulin-like protein A against *Leptospira interrogans* serovar Pomona infection. <u>Infect Immun</u> 74 (2006): 1745-1750.
- [181] E.F. Silva, et al. The terminal portion of leptospiral immunoglobulin-like protein LigA confers protective immunity against lethal infection in the hamster model of leptospirosis. <u>Vaccine</u> 25 (2007): 6277-6286.
- [182] S.M. Faisal, et al. Leptospira immunoglobulin-like protein A variable region (LigAvar) incorporated in liposomes and PLGA microspheres produces a robust immune response correlating to protective immunity. <u>Vaccine</u> 27 (2009): 378-387.
- [183] W. Yan, et al. Immunogenicity and protective efficacy of recombinant Leptospira immunoglobulin-like protein B (rLigB) in a hamster challenge model. <u>Microbes Infect</u> 11 (2009): 230-237.
- [184] Y. Cao, et al. Evaluation of novel fusion proteins derived from extracellular matrix binding domains of LigB as vaccine candidates against leptospirosis in a hamster model. <u>Vaccine</u> 29 (2011): 7379-7386.
- [185] C. Branger, et al. Identification of the hemolysis-associated protein 1 as a crossprotective immunogen of *Leptospira interrogans* by adenovirus-mediated vaccination. <u>Infect Immun</u> 69 (2001): 6831-6838.
- [186] F.K. Seixas, et al. Recombinant Mycobacterium bovis BCG expressing the LipL32 antigen of *Leptospira interrogans* protects hamsters from challenge. <u>Vaccine</u> 26 (2007): 88-95.

- [187] D.A. Haake, et al. Leptospiral outer membrane proteins OmpL1 and LipL41 exhibit synergistic immunoprotection. <u>Infect Immun</u> 67 (1999): 6572-6582.
- [188] Y.F. Chang, et al. Immunogenicity of the recombinant leptospiral putative outer membrane proteins as vaccine candidates. <u>Vaccine</u> 25 (2007): 8190-8197.
- [189] S.M. Faisal, et al. Leptosome-entrapped leptospiral antigens conferred significant higher levels of protection than those entrapped with PCliposomes in a hamster model. <u>Vaccine</u> 27 (2009): 6537-6545.
- [190] S.M. Faisal, *et al.* Immune response and prophylactic efficacy of smegmosomes in a hamster model of leptospirosis. <u>Vaccine</u> 27 (2009): 6129-6136.
- [191] M.V. Atzingen, et al. Characterization of leptospiral proteins that afford partial protection in hamsters against lethal challenge with *Leptospira interrogans*. <u>J Med Microbiol</u> 59 (2010): 1005-1015.
- [192] W. Yan, *et al.* Identification and characterization of OmpA-like proteins as novel vaccine candidates for Leptospirosis. <u>Vaccine</u> 28 (2010): 2277-2283.
- [193] S. Gurunathan, et al. DNA vaccines: immunology, application, and optimization*. <u>Annu Rev Immunol</u> 18 (2000): 927-974.
- [194] M.A. Kutzler, D.B. Weiner. DNA vaccines: ready for prime time? <u>Nat Rev Genet</u> 9 (2008): 776-788.
- [195] D.J. Shedlock, D.B. Weiner. DNA vaccination: antigen presentation and the induction of immunity. <u>J Leukoc Biol</u> 68 (2000): 793-806.
- [196] C. Branger, et al. Protection against Leptospira interrogans sensu lato challenge by DNA immunization with the gene encoding hemolysin-associated protein 1. <u>Infect Immun</u> 73 (2005): 4062-4069.
- [197] S.M. Faisal, et al. Evaluation of protective immunity of Leptospira immunoglobulin like protein A (LigA) DNA vaccine against challenge in hamsters. <u>Vaccine</u> 26 (2008): 277-287.

- [198] D.F. Hoft, *et al.* Optimizing vaccine development. <u>Cell Microbiol</u> 13 (2011): 934-942.
- [199] M.A. Liu. DNA vaccines: an historical perspective and view to the future. <u>Immunol Rev</u> 239 (2011): 62-84.
- [200] F. Ahsan, et al. Targeting to macrophages: Role of physicochemical properties of particulate carriers - Liposomes and microspheres - On the phagocytosis by macrophages. <u>Journal of Controlled Release</u> 79 (2002): 29-40.
- [201] R. Singh, J.W. Lillard Jr. Nanoparticle-based targeted drug delivery. <u>Experimental and Molecular Pathology</u> 86 (2009): 215-223.
- [202] M.F. Bachmann, G.T. Jennings. Vaccine delivery: A matter of size, geometry, kinetics and molecular patterns. <u>Nature Reviews Immunology</u> 10 (2010): 787-796.
- [203] N. Duceppe, M. Tabrizian. Advances in using chitosan-based nanoparticles for in vitro and in vivo drug and gene delivery. <u>Expert Opinion on Drug</u> <u>Delivery</u> 7 (2010): 1191-1207.
- [204] C. Eatmon, A. Loxley. Chitosan: Sources, chemistry, properties & pharmaceutical uses. <u>Drug Delivery Technology</u> 9 (2009): 18-23.
- [205] L. Illum, *et al.* Chitosan as a novel nasal delivery system for vaccines. <u>Advanced</u> <u>Drug Delivery Reviews</u> 51 (2001): 81-96.
- [206] S. Şenel, et al. Enhancing effect of chitosan on peptide drug delivery across buccal mucosa. <u>Biomaterials</u> 21 (2000): 2067-2071.
- [207] T.H. Kim, et al. Mannosylated chitosan nanoparticle-based cytokine gene therapy suppressed cancer growth in BALB/c mice bearing CT-26 carcinoma cells. <u>Mol Cancer Ther</u> 5 (2006): 1723-1732.
- [208] S.M. Hudson, D.W. Jenkins, Chitin and Chitosan, Encyclopedia of Polymer Science and Technology, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 2002.

- [209] K. Bowman, et al. Gene transfer to hemophilia A mice via oral delivery of FVIIIchitosan nanoparticles. <u>Journal of Controlled Release</u> 132 (2008): 252-259.
- [210] G. Li, et al. Induction of Th1-type immune response by chitosan nanoparticles containing plasmid DNA encoding house dust mite allergen der p 2 for oral vaccination in mice. <u>Chinese Journal of Cellular and Molecular</u> <u>Immunology</u> 6 (2009): 45-50.
- [211] J.J. Wang, *et al.* Recent advances of chitosan nanoparticles as drug carriers. International journal of nanomedicine 6 (2011): 765-774.
- [212] J.M. Irache, et al. Mannose-targeted systems for the delivery of therapeutics. <u>Expert Opin Drug Deliv</u> 5 (2008): 703-724.
- [213] A.J. Engering, *et al.*, Mannose receptor mediated antigen uptake and presentation in human dendritic cells 417, 1997, pp. 183-187.
- [214] P.R. Taylor, et al. The mannose receptor: Linking homeostasis and immunity through sugar recognition. <u>Trends in Immunology</u> 26 (2005): 104-110.
- [215] E.J. McKenzie, *et al.* Mannose receptor expression and function define a new population of murine dendritic cells. <u>Journal of Immunology</u> 178 (2007): 4975-4983.
- [216] C.M. Varga, et al. Receptor-mediated targeting of gene delivery vectors: Insights from molecular mechanisms for improved vehicle design. <u>Biotechnology and Bioengineering</u> 70 (2000): 593-605.
- [217] J.M. Irache, et al. Mannose-targeted systems for the delivery of therapeutics. Expert Opinion on Drug Delivery 5 (2008): 703-724.
- [218] H.L. Jiang, et al. The potential of mannosylated chitosan microspheres to target macrophage mannose receptors in an adjuvant-delivery system for intranasal immunization. <u>Biomaterials</u> 29 (2008): 1931-1939.
- [219] S. Chaemchuen, et al. Identification of candidate host proteins that interact with LipL32, the major outer membrane protein of pathogenic *Leptospira*, by random phage display peptide library. <u>Veterinary Microbiology</u>.

- [220] T.H. Kim, et al. Mannosylated chitosan nanoparticle-based cytokine gene therapy suppressed cancer growth in BALB/c mice bearing CT-26 carcinoma cells. <u>Molecular Cancer Therapeutics</u> 5 (2006): 1723-1732.
- [221] K. Romoren, et al. Immersion delivery of plasmid DNA. II. A study of the potentials of a chitosan based delivery system in rainbow trout (Oncorhynchus mykiss) fry. <u>J Control Release</u> 85 (2002): 215-225.
- [222] C. Prego, et al. Efficacy and mechanism of action of chitosan nanocapsules for oral peptide delivery. <u>Pharm Res</u> 23 (2006): 549-556.
- [223] K. Khatri, *et al.* Plasmid DNA loaded chitosan nanoparticles for nasal mucosal immunization against hepatitis B. Int J Pharm 354 (2008): 235-241.
- [224] D. Moinard-Checot, et al. Nanoparticles for drug delivery: review of the formulation and process difficulties illustrated by the emulsion-diffusion process. <u>J Nanosci Nanotechnol</u> 6 (2006): 2664-2681.
- [225] K. Corsi, et al. Mesenchymal stem cells, MG63 and HEK293 transfection using chitosan-DNA nanoparticles. <u>Biomaterials</u> 24 (2003): 1255-1264.
- [226] G.Y. Wu, C.H. Wu. Receptor-mediated in vitro gene transformation by a soluble DNA carrier system. <u>J Biol Chem</u> 262 (1987): 4429-4432.
- [227] J.C. Perales, *et al.* An evaluation of receptor-mediated gene transfer using synthetic DNA-ligand complexes. <u>Eur J Biochem</u> 226 (1994): 255-266.
- [228] P. Stahl, et al. Receptor-mediated pinocytosis of mannose glycoconjugates by macrophages: characterization and evidence for receptor recycling. <u>Cell</u> 19 (1980): 207-215.
- [229] T.C. Gust, M. Zenke. Receptor-mediated gene delivery. <u>ScientificWorldJournal</u> 2 (2002): 224-229.
- [230] S. Kawakami, *et al.* Mannose receptor-mediated gene transfer into macrophages using novel mannosylated cationic liposomes. <u>Gene Ther</u> 7 (2000): 292-299.

- [231] D.M. Brown, et al. Size-dependent proinflammatory effects of ultrafine polystyrene particles: a role for surface area and oxidative stress in the enhanced activity of ultrafines. <u>Toxicol Appl Pharmacol</u> 175 (2001): 191-199.
- [232] K. Inoue, et al. Size effects of latex nanomaterials on lung inflammation in mice. <u>Toxicol Appl Pharmacol</u> 234 (2009): 68-76.
- [233] M. Thanou, et al. Quaternized chitosan oligomers as novel gene delivery vectors in epithelial cell lines. <u>Biomaterials</u> 23 (2002): 153-159.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A BUFFER AND REAGENT

Reagent for EMJH media

1.	Albumin fatty acid supplement stock solution
	3 11

CaCl ₂ + MgCl ₂ .6 H ₂ O	0.076	g	Store at -20 °C
ZnSO ₄ .7H ₂ O	0.04	g	Store at -20 °C
CuSO ₄ . 5H ₂ O	0.03	g	Store at 4 °C
Vit B12	0.002	g	Store at -20 °C
Tween 80	1	g	Store at -20 °C
Glycerol	1	g	Store at -20 °C

Dissolve each reagent by separately in 10 ml of distilled water.

2.	Albumin fatty acid supplement	solution, I	ready to use (50ml)
BSA		5	g
CaCl	₂ + MgCl ₂ .6 H ₂ O	750	μΙ
ZnSC)4.7H2O	500	μΙ
CuSC	D ₄ . 5H2O	50	μΙ
Vit B ²	12	500	μΙ
Twee	n 80	6.25	ml
Glyce	erol	500	μΙ
FeSC)4	0.025	g
Sodiu	um pyruvate	0.02	g

Dissolve in distilled water and adjust pH 7.4-7.6 with HCl (conc.). Adjust volume with distilled water to make 50 ml. Sterilize the solution by filtration. Store at -20 $^{\circ}$ C.

3. Basal Media

Bacto Leptospira Media Base EMJH dehydrated 0.23 g Dissolve in distilled water and adjust volume with distilled water to make 90 ml. Sterilize the solution by autoclaving at 121 °C for 15 minute.

4. EMJH media		
Basal media	90	ml
Albumin fatty acid supplement solution	10	ml
Mix the solution and store at 4 °C.		

Reagent for DNA Extraction

1. 0.5 M EDTA pH 8.0

Disodium ethylenediamine tetraacetate 18.66 g

Dissolve in distilled water and adjust pH 8.0 with HCl(conc.). Adjust volume with distilled water to make 100 ml. Sterilize the solution by autoclaving at 121 °C for 15 minute.

2. TE buffer		
1M Tris-HCl pH 8.0	1	ml
0.5 M EDTA pH 8.0	200	μl

Dissolve in distilled water and adjust volume to 100 ml. Sterilize the solution by autoclaving at 121 °C for 15 minute.

3.	10% Sodium lauryl sarcosine (SDS)		
Sodi	um lauryl sarcosine (SDS)	1	g
Disti	lled water	10	ml
Mix th	ne solution and store at room temperature.		

NaCl

14.61 g

Dissolve in distilled water and adjust volume to 50 ml. Sterilize the solution by autoclaving at 121 °C for 15 minute.

5.	25:24:1(v/v) Phenol:Chloroform:Isoamyl a	alcohol	
Satur	ated phenol	50	ml
Chlor	oform	48	ml
Isoan	nyl alcohol	2	ml
Mix the reagent vigorously, and store at 4 °C in dark.			

6.	24:1 (v/v) chloroform: isoamyl alcohol		
Chlore	oform	48	ml
Isoam	yl alcohol	2	ml
Mix the reagent vigorously, and store at 4 °C in dark.			

Reagent for agarose gel electrophoresis

1. 50X Tris-Acetate buffer (TAE)		
This base	420	g
Glacial acetic acid	57.1	ml
0.5 M EDTA pH 8.0	100	ml

Dissolve in distilled water and adjust volume to 1000 ml. Sterilize the solution by autoclaving at 121 °C for 15 minute.

2. Running buffer for agarose gel electrophoresis

50X TAE was diluted to a final concentration of 1X in 500 ml of deionized water.

3.	1% Agarose gel		
Agar	ose gel	1	%
1X T#	AE	20	ml

The solution was dissolved by heating in microwave oven and occasional mix until on granules of are present.

4.	10 mg/ml Ethidium bromide		
Ethid	ium bromide	1.0	g
Distil	led water	100	ml
Mix tł	ne reagent vigorously, and store at 4 $^{ m oC}$ in	ı dark.	

Reagent for cloning

1.	1 M Glucose (10ml)		
Glucro	ose	1.8	g

Dissolve in distilled water and adjust volume to 10 ml. Sterilize the solution by filtration.

2.	2 M MgCl ₂ (10ml)		
MgCl	2	1.9	g
Dissol	ve in distilled water and adjust volume to	1000 ml.	Sterilize the
autoclaving at	121 °C for 15 minute.		

3.	SOB (100 ml)		
Tryp	tone	2	g
Yeas	t Extract	0.5	g
NaC		0.05	g
KCI		18.6	mg

Dissolve in distilled water and adjust volume to 1000 ml. Sterilize the solution by autoclaving at 121 °C for 15 minute.

solution by

4. SOC (10ml)

SOB	10	ml
2 M MgCl ₂	50	μl
1 M Glucose	200	μl
Mix the solution and store at 4 °C.		
5. Ampiclilin stock (100 mg/ml)		
Ampiclilin	1	g
Dissolve in 10 ml of distilled water. Store at -20	°C.	
6. Choramphinicol stock (35 mg/ml)		
Choramphinicol	140	mg
Dissolve in 10 ml of distilled water. Store at -20 °C.		
7. Kanamycin stock (50 mg/ml)		
Kanamycin	0.5	g
Dissolve in 10 ml of distilled water. Store at -20	°C.	
8. Lauria – Bertani (LB) Medium		
Bacto tryptone	10	g
Yeast extracts	5	g

NaCl 10 g

Dissolve in distilled water and adjust volume to 1000 ml. Sterilize the solution by autoclaving at 121 °C for 15 minute.

9. LB- Ampiclilin plates

Bacto tryptone	10	g
Yeast extracts	5	g
NaCl	10	g
Agar	15	g

Dissolve in distilled water and adjust volume to 1000 ml. Sterilize the solution by autoclaving at 121 °C for 15 minute. After autoclaved, allowed media cool down, added 1ml ampicilin stock, poured and stored plates at 4 °C.

10.	LB- Ampiclilin- Choramphinicol plates		
Bacto	tryptone	10	g
Yeast	extracts	5	g
NaCl		10	g
Agar		15	g

Dissolve in distilled water and adjust volume to 1000 ml. Sterilize the solution by autoclaving at 121 °C for 15 minute. After autoclaved, allowed media cool down, added 1ml ampicilin stock and Choramphinicol stock, poured and stored plates at 4 °C.

11.	LB- Kanamycin plates		
Bact	o tryptone	10	g
Yeas	t extracts	5	g
NaC	l	10	g
Agar		15	g

Dissolve in distilled water and adjust volume to 1,000 ml. Sterilize the solution by autoclaving at 121 °C for 15 minute. After autoclaved, allowed media cool down, added 1ml Kanamycin stock, poured and stored plates at 4 °C.

Reagent for SDS- Polyacrylamide Gel Ectrophoresis (SDS-PAGE)

1. 1 M Tris-HCl pH 8.8

Tris base

Tris base

12.11 g

Dissolve in distilled water and adjust pH to 8.8 with HCl (conc). Adjust volume with distilled water to make 100 ml. Sterilize the solution by autoclaving at 121 °C for 15 minute.

2. 0.5 M Tris-HCl pH 6.8

6.055 g

Dissolve in distilled water and adjust pH to 8.8 with HCl (conc). Adjust volume with distilled water to make 100 ml. Sterilize the solution by autoclaving at 121 °C for 15 minute.

3. 2X Laemmli buffer (SDS-dye) 10 ml

1M Tris-HCl pH 6.8	1	ml(final concentration
		100 mM)
10% SDS	4	ml(4%v/v)
99.5% glycerol	2.01	ml (20% v/v)
HPLC water	2.989	ml
Bromphenol blue	0.001	g

Mix the reagent vigorously, and store at -20 °C.

 4.
 4X Tris HCI/SDS pH 8.8 (100 ml)

 This base
 18.21 g

 SDS
 0.4 g

Dissolve in distilled water and adjust pH to 8.8 with HCl (conc). stored at 4 °C.

5. Running buffer

This base	15.1	g
Glycine	72	g
SDS	5.0	g

Dissolve in distilled water and adjust volume to 10 ml. Store at room temperature.

6.	6X sample buffer with DTT		
4X Ti	ris-HCI pH 8.8	7	ml
Glyc	erol	3	ml
SDS		1	g
DTT		0.93	g
Brom	nphenol Blue	1.2	mg
DIOII		1.2	nıg

Dissolve in distilled water and adjust volume to 10 ml. Store at room temperature.

7.	10% Ammonium Persulfate (APS)		
APS		1	g
Distill	ed water	10	ml
Mix the	e solution and store at -20 °C		
8.	10% Sodium laury sacosine (SDS)		
Sodiu	m laury sacosine (SDS)	1	g
Distill	ed water	10	ml

Mix the solution and store at -20 °C.

9.	30% Acrymide/0.8 % Bisacrylamide	
Acryla	amide	30

Bis-acrylamide	0.8	g

Dissolve in distilled water and adjust volume to 10 ml. Sterilize the solution by filtration. Store in the dark at room temperature.

10.	15% SDS-PAGE		
	Separating gel (15ml)		
Dist	illed water	4	ml
1.5	M Tris-HCl pH 8.8	3.75	ml
40%	Acrylamide and Bis-acrylamide solution	6	ml
10%	SDS	0.15	ml
10%	APS	75	μΙ
TEN	IED	7.5	μΙ
	Stacking gel		
Dist	illed water	2.7	ml
1.5	M Tris-Hcl pH 6.8	0.5	ml
40%	Acrylamide and Bis-acrylamide solution	0.67	ml
10%	SDS	40	μΙ
10%	APS	40	μΙ
TEN	IED	4.0	μΙ

Reagent for Western blot

1.	TBS		
1 M T	Fris base pH 7.5	20	ml
NaCl		29.22	g

Dissolve in distilled water and adjust volume to 1,000 ml. Sterilize the solution by autoclaving at 121 °C for 15 minutes.

g

2. TBS-0.1% (v/v) Tween

TBS	500	ml
Tween-20	500	μΙ
Mix the solution and store at room temperature.		
3. Bloting buffer		
Tris base	2.42	g
Glycine	11.24	g
Distilled water	800	ml

Dissolve in distilled water and add 200 ml methanol. Store at room temperature.

4.	Blocking solution		
PBST		200	ml
Non-fa	at dry milk	3	%
Mix the solution and store at 4 C°.			

5. 5X Running buffer

This-base	15.2	g
Glycine	94	g
SDS	5	g
Deionized water	1000	ml

Mix the solution and store at room temperature.

6. Transfer buffer for Western blot

This-base	5.08	g
Glycine	2.9	g
SDS	0.37	g
Deionized water	800	ml
Absolute methanol	200	ml

7. ECL substrate of HRP

Coumaric acid (90 mM) was dissolved in DMSO in total volume 10 ml. Then, the solution aliquots were keep at -20 $^{\circ}\text{C}.$

Luminol (250mM) was dissolved in DMSO in total volume 10 ml. Then, the solution aliquots were keep at -20 °C.

Solution A		
100 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.5 (stored at 4 °C)	4	ml
90 mM coumaric acid	17.6	μl
250 mM luminal	40	μΙ
Solution B		
100 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.5 (stored at 4 °C)	4	ml
30% H ₂ O ₂	2.4	ml

Reagent for Protein purification

1. Buffer A		
0.5 M NaCl	2.922	g
$20 \text{ mM C}_3\text{H}_4\text{N}_2$	0.136	g
20 mM Na ₂ HPO ₄ -2H ₂ O	0.356	g
20 mM NaH ₂ PO ₄ -H ₂ O	0.276	g

Dissolve in distilled water and add 100 ml. Store at -20 °C.

2.	Buffer B	Vary concentration	of imidazole)
----	----------	--------------------	---------------

60 mM imidazole		
0.5 M NaCl	2.922	g
$60 \text{ mM C}_3 \text{H}_4 \text{N}_2$	0.408	g
20 mM Na ₂ HPO ₄ -2H ₂ O	0.356	g
20 mM NaH ₂ PO ₄ -H ₂ O	0.276	g
100 mM imidazole		
0.5 M NaCl	2.922	g
100 mM C ₂ H,N ₂	0.681	а

100 mW	0.001	9
20 mM Na ₂ HPO ₄ -2H ₂ O	0.356	g
20 mM NaH ₂ PO ₄ -H ₂ O	0.276	g

250 mM imidazole

0.5 M NaCl	2.922	g
250 mM $C_{3}H_{4}N_{2}$	1.7	g
20 mM Na ₂ HPO ₄ -2H ₂ O	0.356	g
20 mM NaH ₂ PO ₄ -H ₂ O	0.276	g

500 mM imidazole

0.5 M NaCl	2.922	g
500 mM $C_{3}H_{4}N_{2}$	3.4	g
20 mM Na ₂ HPO ₄ -2H ₂ O	0.356	g
20 mM NaH ₂ PO ₄ -H ₂ O	0.276	g

Dissolve in distilled water and add 100 ml. Store at -20 $^{\circ}\mathrm{C}.$

1. $25\text{mM} \text{Na}_2 \text{SO}_4$ 0.35g

Dissolve in distilled water and add 100 ml. Sterilize the solution by autoclaving at 121 °C for 15 minute.

2.	5mM Sodium acetate pH 5.5		
Soc	dium acetate	0.04	g
Diss	olve in distilled water and add 100 ml. Ster	ilize the s	olution by autoclaving at

121 °C for 15 minute.

Reagent for cell culture

HEPES

1. Complete RPMI 1640 100 ml		
RPMI 1640	90	%
FBS	10	%
Penicillin	100	U/ml
Streptomycin	0.4	mg/ml
Sodium pyruvate	1	%
HEPES	1	%
2. Complete DMEM 100 ml		
DMEM	90	%
FBS	10	%
Penicillin	100	U/ml
Streptomycin	0.4	mg/ml
Sodium pyruvate	1	%

1

%

Complete media	90	%
DMSO	10	%

4. FBS inactivation

Before using FBS, FBS must be inactivated at 56 °C for 30 minutes using water bath.

5.	RIPA buffer for protein extraction 10 ml		
50mN	1 Tris-HCI, pH 7.4	1	ml
150 n	nM NaCl	1.5	ml
1.0%	NP-40	100	μΙ
0.5%	$C_{24}H_{39}O_4Na$	1	ml
0.1%	SDS	100	μΙ

Adjusted volume to 10 ml using deionized water.

6.	1XPBS pH 7.4		
NaCl		8	g
KCI		0.2	g
Na ₂ HI	PO_4	1.44	g
$\mathrm{KH}_{2}\mathrm{P}$	O_4	0.24	g
Deion	ized water	1000	ml

autoclaved at 121°C and pressure 15 psi for 15 min.

Reagent for Indirect immunofluforsent

1. 4% Paraformaldehyde

Paraformaldehyde (4g) was dissolved in 100 ml of PBS. After addition of a few drops of 1N NaOH, the solution was heated at 65 °C in a chemical hood. Then, the solution was cooled to room temperature and, the pH adjusted to 7.4.

Reagent for MTT assay

1.	MTT 5mg/ml in PBS		
MTT		50	mg
Sterile	PBS	10	ml

MTT was dissolved in sterile PBS and filtered though a 0.22 μ m acrodisc syringe filter. Aliquot in 1.5 ml microcentrifuge tubes and kept at 4 °C.

2.	0.04 N HCl in Isopropanol		
Isopi	ropanol	80	ml
HCI		0.331	ml

Adjust volume to 100 ml using isopropanol in volume metric flask.

Reagent for ELISA (IgG, IgG₁, IgG_{2a})

1.	Coating buffer		
Nał	HCO ₃	7.13	g
Na ₂	CO ₃	1.59	g

Dissolve in distilled water to 1,000 ml and adjust pH to 9.5 with 10N NaOH. Store at room temperature.

2.	Blocking buffer		
1XPE	S	100	ml
Twee	n 20	50	μl
BSA		1	g
Mix th	e solution and store at 4 °C.		
3.	Washing buffer		
1XPE	S	100	ml
Twee	en 20	100	μΙ
Mix th	e solution and store at room temperature.		
4.	Stop reaction solution		

$0.5 \text{ M H}_2 \text{SO}_4$	2.67	ml
DW	97.33	ml

Mix the solution and store at room temperature.

5. 3,3',5,5'-tetramethylbenzidine (TMB) Substrate

Reagent for ELISA (IFN- γ , IL-4)

IL-4	IFN-γ	
1. Capture Antibody	1. Capture Antibody	
Anti-mouse IL-4 monoclonal	Anti-mouse IFN- γ monoclonal antibody	
antibody	(clone AN-18)	
2. Detection Antibody	2. Detection Antibody	
Biotinylated anti-mouse IL-4 Biotinylated anti-mouse IFN- γ		
monoclonal antibody	monoclonal antibody	
3. Enzyme Reagent	3. Enzyme Reagent	
Streptavidin-horseradish peroxidase	se Streptavidin-horseradish peroxidase	

conjugate (SAv-HRP)		conjugate (SAv-HRP)	
4.	Standards Recombinant	4.	Standards Recombinant mouse
mouse	e IL-4, lyophilized (33 ng/ml)	IFN- γ	, lyophilized (26 ng/ml)

5. Coating buffer

NaHCO ₃	7.13	g
Na ₂ CO ₃	1.59	g

Dissolve in distilled water to 1,000 ml and adjust pH to 9.5 with 10N NaOH. Store at room temperature.

6.	Blocking buffer		
1XPE	S	90	ml
Twee	en 20	50	μl
FBS ((heat inactivated)	10	μl

Mix the solution and freshly prepare or use within 3 days of preparation, with 2- $8^\circ C$ storage.

7.	Washing buffer		
1XPE	S	100	ml
Twee	n 20	100	μl
Mix the solution and store at room temperature.			
8.	Stop reaction solution		
0.5 N	H ₂ SO ₄	2.67	ml
DW		97.33	ml

Mix the solution and store at room temperature.

9. 3,3',5,5'-tetramethylbenzidine (TMB) Substrate.

Reagent for cell proliferation and Intracellular cytokines staining (ICS)

1. RPMI2ME		
RPMI 1640	100	ml
2ME	35	μΙ
Mix the solution and store at 4 °C.		
2. 1XPBS		
NaCl	8	g
KCI	0.2	g
Na ₂ HPO ₄	1.44	g
KH ₂ PO ₄	0.24	g
Deionized water	1000	ml
Autoclave at 121°C and pressure for 15 min.		

3.	Staining buffer		
1XPB	S	98	ml
1% h	eat inactivated FBS	1	ml
0.09%	% (w/v) sodium azide	1	ml

Adjust buffer pH 7.4-7.6, filter (0.2 µm pore membrane), and store at 4 °C.

APPENDIX B

1. Complete sequence of *lipL32* gene: *Leptospira interrogans* serovar Pomona major outer membrane protein (LipL32) gene, complete cds GenBank: EU871716.1

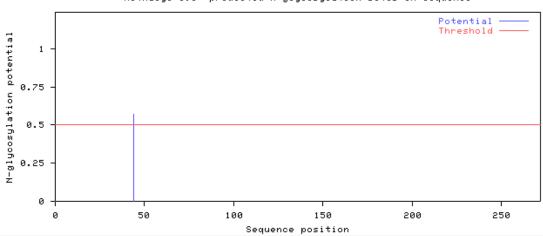
ATGAAAAACTTTCGATTTTGGCTATCTCCGTTGCACTCTTTGCAAGCATTACC GCTTGTGGTGCTTTCGGTGGTCTGCCAAGCCTAAAAAGCTCTTTGTTCTGAGCGAGG ACACAATCCCAGGGACAAACGAAACCGTAAAAACGTTACTTCCCTACGGATCTGTGAT CAACTATTACGGATACGTAAAGCCAGGACAAGCGCCGGACGGTTTAGTCGATGGAAA CAAAAAAGCATACTATCTCTATGTTTGGATTCCTGCCGTAATCGCTGAAATGGGAGTTC GTATGATTTCCCCAACAGGCGAAATCGGTGAACCAGGCGACGGAGACTTAGTAAGCG ACGCTTTCAAAGCGGCTACCCCAGAAGAAAATCAATGCCACATTGGTTTGATACTTG GATCCGTGTAGAAAGAATGTCGGCGATTATGCCTGACCAAATCGTCAAAGCTGCGAA AGCAAAACCAGTTCAAAAATTGGACGATGATGATGGTGACGATACTTATAAAGAA GAGAGACACAACAAGTACCACTCTCTTACTAGAATCAAGATCCCTAATCCTCCAAAAT CTTTTGACGATCTGAAAAACATCGACACTCAAAACTTTTAGTAAGAGGGTCTTTACAGA ATTTCTTTCACTACCTACAAACATCGACAGTGAAGGATCTTTCGTTGCATCTTGTTGG TCTGCTTTTCCCACCAGGTATTCCAGGTGAAGAGGATCTTTGGAACAATCCTGAA GAATTGCAAAAACAACGTATCGCTGCTGAAGAGTCTTTGAAAAAAGCTGCTTCAAAGCTGCTGAA

123

2. Predicted glycosylation sites

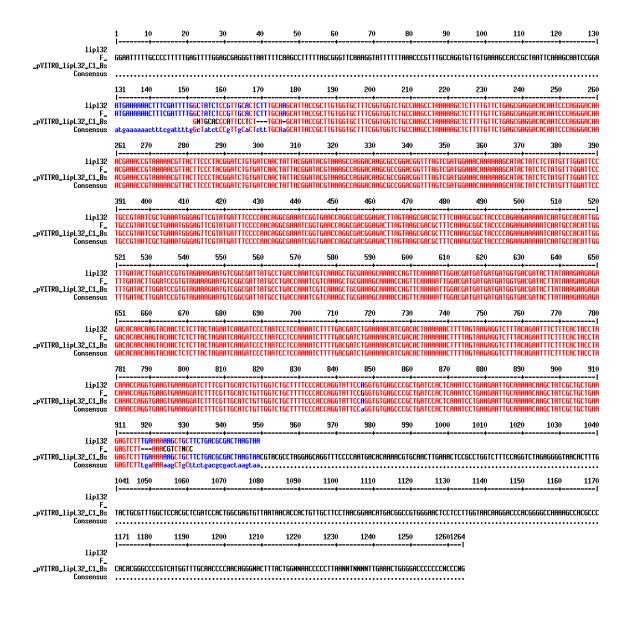
Amino acid sequence of *lipL32* gene: *Leptospira interrogans* serovar Pomona major outer membrane protein (LipL32) gene, complete cds GenBank: EU871716.1 by using NetNGlyc 1.0 Server – prediction program.

Asn-Xaa-Ser/Thr sequons in the sequence output below a Asparagines predicted to be N-glycosylated are highlig	
Name: Sequence Length: 272 MKKLSILAISVALFASITACGAFGGLPSLKSSFVLSEDTIPGT YLYVWIPAVIAEMGVRMISPTGEIGEPGDGDLVSDAFKAA DDDDDGDDTYKEERHNKYNSLTRIKIPNPPKSFDDLKNIDTK VSPLIHSNPEELQKQAIAAEESLKKAASDATK	TPEEKSMPHWFDTWIRVERMSAIMPDQIVKAAKAKPVQKL 160
N	80
	160
	240
	320
(Threshold=0.5)	
SeqName Position Potential Jury N-Glyc agreement result	
Sequence 44 NETV 0.5716 (7/9) +	

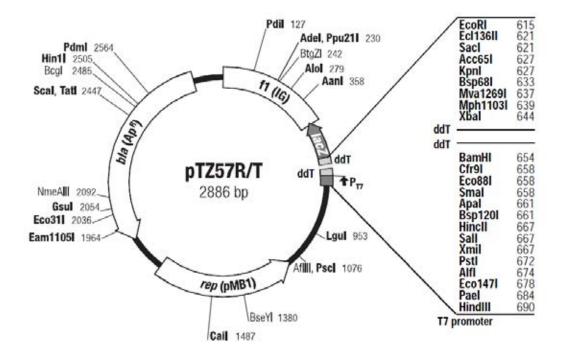


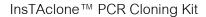
NetNGlyc 1.0: predicted N-glycosylation sites in Sequence

3. pVITRO_lipL32 (Blast sequence of lipL32)

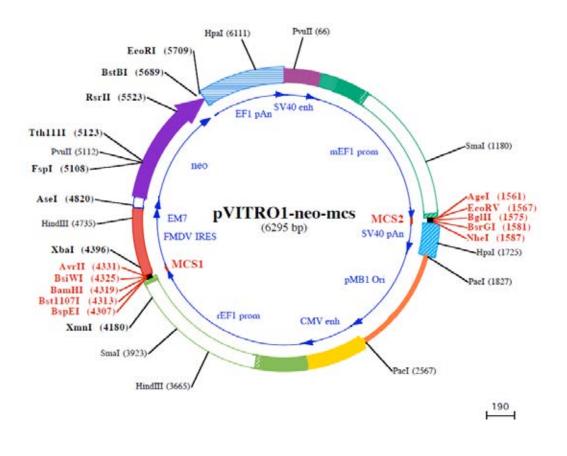


4. Map of pTZ57R/T vector



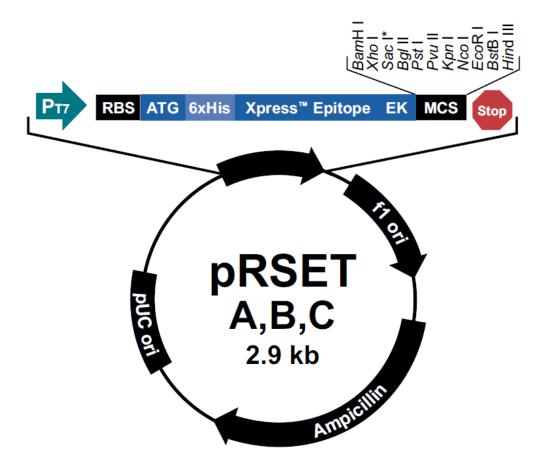


5. Map of pVITRO1- neo-mcs vector





6. Map of pRSETC vector





BIOGRAPHY

NAME :	Miss Ruthairat Kerdkaew
DATE OF BIRTH :	4 th December 1986
PLACE OF BIRTH :	In Chanthaburi, Thailand
INSTITUTION ATTENDED :	Burapha University
	2005-2009
	Bachelor of Sciences (Microbiology)
PRESENTATION :	Preparation of Chitosan for Leptospirosis
	Vaccine. Poster presentation in The Eighth
	Asian Congress for Microcirculation (ACM-
	2011) Bangkok Convention Center,
	Centara Grand, Bangkok, Thailand,
	26-28 October 2011.
PUBLICATION :	Preparation of Chitosan for Leptospirosis
	Vaccine. Poster presentation in The Eighth
	Asian Congress for Microcirculation (ACM-
	2011) Bangkok Convention Center,
	Centara Grand, Bangkok, Thailand,
	October 2011:115-118.