

Title: Construct and Test Recombinant Adenoviruses Vectoring African Swine Fever Virus Genes in Inducing Immune Protection in Pigs -
NPB #15-128

Investigator: James Zhu and Manuel Borca

Institution: USDA-ARS, FADRU, Plum Island Animal Disease Center

Date Submitted: 9-3-2019

Industry Summary:

African swine fever (ASF) is a highly lethal swine viral disease caused by African swine fever virus (ASFV). Despite extensive research, there are currently no commercial vaccines available due to the biological complexity of the virus. Some experimental vaccines using live attenuated ASFV can induce full protection against the challenge of the same or similar wildtype strains, indicating there are antigen-specific immunity involved in the protection; however, these experimental vaccines cannot be immediately commercialized due to some technical issues in terms of vaccine production and/or safety. To develop an alternative vaccine platform that avoids these drawbacks, we adapted a computational approach to select eight ASFV genes as vaccine antigens according to the expression profiles and biological functions of virus and host genes in infected pig macrophages and used a replication-defective adenovirus to vector these selected antigens. Additionally, we applied knowledge learned from published scientific literatures to design the vaccine to specifically induce immunity that is most likely to be protective based on the nature of ASFV, protein structures and known immune mechanisms. Two porcine genes were included in the vaccine design to enhance the immune responses to the vaccination. Four replication defective recombinant adenoviruses inserted with ASFV and/or pig genes were produced according to the design. These viruses have been validated by DNA sequencing and titrated. A vaccine candidate consisting of the four recombinant adenoviruses has been produced for animal testing; however, the animal experiment could not be conducted due to the shutdown of animal facility at PIADC for repair of waste water treatment system. We tried to use the animal facility in Kansas State University but could not find the space for the experiment in the funding period. Currently, the animal facility at PIADC remains close. We plan to conduct the animal experiment in the future when the facility is available.

These research results were submitted in fulfillment of checkoff-funded research projects. This report is published directly as submitted by the project's principal investigator. This report has not been peer-reviewed.

For more information contact:

National Pork Board • PO Box 9114 • Des Moines, IA 50306 USA • 800-456-7675 • Fax: 515-223-2646 • pork.org

Keywords: African swine fever, African swine fever virus, ASF, ASFV, recombinant adenovirus, vaccine, bioinformatics

Scientific Abstract:

African swine fever (ASF) is a highly lethal swine viral disease caused by African swine fever virus (ASFV). Despite extensive research, there are currently no commercial vaccines available due to the biological complexity of this virus. Some experimental vaccines using live attenuated ASFV can induce full protection against the challenge of the same or similar wildtype strains, indicating that antigen-specific immunity is involved in the protection. However, the attenuated ASFV cannot be immediately commercialized mostly due to the safety issues. To develop an alternative vaccine platform that avoids these drawbacks, we adapted a genomic and bioinformatic approach to select eight ASFV genes as vaccine antigens according to the expression profiles and biological functions of virus and host genes in pig macrophages infected with ASFV Georgia strain and used a replication-defective adenovirus to vector the selected antigens. Additionally, we applied knowledge learned from published scientific literatures to design the vaccine to specifically induce immunities that are most likely to be protective based on the nature of ASFV, protein structures, and known immune mechanisms. Two porcine genes were also included in the vaccine design in order to enhance the immune responses to the vaccination. Four replication defective recombinant adenoviruses inserted with ASFV and/or porcine genes were produced according to the design. A vaccine candidate consisting of the four recombinant adenoviruses has been produced for animal testing; however, the animal experiment could not be conducted due to the shutdown of animal facility at PIADC for repair of waste water treatment system. We tried to use the animal facility in Kansas State University but could not find the space for the experiment in the funding period.

Introduction:

African swine fever (ASF) is a highly lethal swine viral disease caused by African swine fever virus (ASFV). Despite extensive research, there are currently no commercial vaccines available. Like classical swine fever (CSF), ASF displays very similar clinical symptoms including the susceptible hosts and infected cells, but it is caused by a very large DNA virus instead of an RNA virus. CSF can be effectively prevented by several platforms of vaccines and commercial vaccines are available. In contrast, only attenuated ASFV can induce full immune protection, but the safety issues prevent the viruses from commercialization. The technical difficulties due to the biological complexity of the virion and its large DNA genome hinder the development of ASF vaccines. ASFV contains 54 different viral proteins in a virus particle compared to only 4 different proteins in a CSF virus (CSFV) particle. ASFV has a DNA genome approximately 180-kbp coding ~190 open reading frames (protein coding genes) in contrast to about a 12-kbp CSFV RNA genome containing a single polyprotein that is processed into 10 proteins. After infecting cells, ASFV genes are transcribed at different time, which are classified into immediate early, early, intermediate and late genes according to the temporal transcription (Rodríguez and Salas, 2013). ASFV is equipped with sophisticated immune evading mechanisms by expressing a large number of proteins that can interfere with the immune response (Alonso et al., 2013; Sánchez et al., 2013). The biological complexity of ASFV probably is the reason why it is a challenge for the host to mount a protective immunity after infection.

Experimental vectored vaccines based on a limited number of mostly virus structural genes or an expression library containing random virus genome restriction fragments provided only partial protection (Argilaguët et al., 2012; Argilaguët et al., 2013; Lacasta et al., 2014). Currently, live attenuated ASFV strains (obtained by genetic manipulation or by serial passages in different cells) are the only effective experimental vaccines that induce full protection against the challenge (King et al., 2011; Oura et al., 2005). However, it is difficult to use these attenuated strains as commercial vaccines. First, these live attenuated strains produce protection only against the homologous parental virus, and most of the protective strains resulted in permanent infections and significant adverse effects (a significant safety issue). Second, deletion of the same gene, such as DP71L, attenuated certain strains but not others. Third, it has been reported that additional deletion of virulent genes in an attenuated strain reduced the adverse effects on pigs but also reduced the protective efficacy (Abrams et al., 2013), and the infection of swine with a fully attenuated ASFV did not confer protection against the challenge of the virulent parental ASFV (Krug et al., 2015).

Research showed that both humoral and cell-mediated immunity contributed to the immune protection against ASFV infection (Escribano et al., 2013; Takamatsu et al., 2013). However, it appears that cell mediated immunity plays a more important role in protecting pigs against ASFV than the humoral immunity. Neutralizing antibodies to African swine fever virus proteins p30, p54, and p72 are not sufficient for antibody-mediated protection (Neilan et al., 2004), whereas the depletion of CD8+ T lymphocytes in pigs abrogates protective immunity to ASFV induced by an attenuated virus (Oura et al., 2005). Based on reported research results, it has been proposed that identifying antigens with the main protective CD8+ T cell epitopes is a critical step to develop an ASF vaccine (Dixon et al., 2013).

To understand the complexity of ASFV infection, we have used functional genomics approaches to measure virus and host gene expression in infected pig macrophages. Our results show that ASFV changes expression profiles at different times post infection (unpublished). The expression percentages of individual viral genes decreased with the increase of time post infection, which could be troublesome for the immune system not only to mount effective immune response against a specific virus protein but also to eliminate the infected cells. On the other hand, the expression of three ASFV proteins, A179L, A224L, and EP153R that can suppress apoptosis (Alonso et al., 2013), increased more than 5 folds after 9 hours of infection. Because cytotoxic T cells kill infected cells via inducing apoptosis, it may be hypothesized that the infected cells may be killed more effectively by cytotoxic T cells during the early infection. Therefore, vaccines containing genes expressed in the early hours of infection may be more effective in inducing protective immunity against ASFV.

On the other hand, the expression profiles of host genes after ASFV infection also suggest that the immune response to ASFV early proteins could be more effective in protecting pigs than the immunity against late proteins. CD8+ cytotoxic T cells use specific chemokine receptors (CXCR1, CXCR2, and CXCR3) to find infected cells by sensing the concentration gradients of CXCL1, 2, 3, 6, 8 and 10 released by infected cells (Griffith et al., 2014). The results of our microarray analysis show that the expression of CXCL1, 2, 6, and 8 in the infected cells were induced mostly at 3 hours post infection but suppressed afterwards, whereas the expression of CXCL3 was

down-regulated at all tested times compared to non-infected cells. In contrast, the expression of CXCL10 was several folds higher in the infected cells than those in non-infected cells from 3 to 18 hours post infection. The expression of CXCL1, 2, 3, 6 and 8 was reported to be regulated by pro-inflammatory cytokines and virus infection (Imaizumi et al., 2014; Koffmann et al., 2002; Maeda et al., 2015; Zhu et al., 2006), whereas CXCL10 expression is mostly under the regulation of interferons (Oslund et al., 2014; Yeruva et al., 2008); therefore, the recruitment of cytotoxic T cells by CXCL10 may be mainly to infected tissues rather than to infected cells.

Interestingly, our result of interferon expression also support the inference. Both the expression of type I and II interferon receptors was down-regulated starting at 6 hours post infection, whereas the interferon expression was induced after infection. In contrast, the expression of these chemokines in CSFV infected macrophages was induced throughout the infection period tested and the expression of the receptors was not down-regulated (data from Gladue et al., 2010). Additionally, the expression of genes involved in antigen processing and MHC antigen presentation in ASFV-infected macrophages decreased as increase of infection times. These results suggest that ASFV-infected macrophages did not express enough of the chemokines to recruit cytotoxic T cells thus their antigen processing and presentation were compromised in the late stage of infection. Therefore, we hypothesize that vaccines containing viral proteins expressed at 3 hours are more likely to induce protective cytotoxic immunity.

In summary, published research suggest that cell-mediated immunity plays a more important role in protecting pig against ASFV than humoral immunity, and our gene expression profiles of ASFV-infected macrophages suggest that vaccines targeting at early ASFV infection would be more likely to induce protective cell mediated immunity. Traditional approaches using virus structural proteins as vaccine antigens might not be as effective as early proteins because ASFV structural proteins are mostly late proteins. Therefore, we designed a vaccine candidate mainly aiming to induce protective cell-mediated immunity based on the nature of ASFV, protein structures, temporal expression of virus and host genes, and known immune mechanisms to be tested in this study.

Objectives:

The objective of the proposed research is to conduct a proof of principle study by constructing and testing adenovirus-vectored ASF vaccine candidates in pigs. The objective will be achieved in four milestones: (1) constructing recombinant adenovirus vectors containing ASFV genes based on the vaccine design, (2) producing and testing recombinant adenoviruses, (3) scale-up production of recombinant adenoviruses for animal trials, and (4) testing recombinant adenoviruses in pigs for protection against ASFV.

Materials & Methods:

1. Selection of ASFV antigens and vaccine design

Six ASFV open reading frames [A151R, CP204L, CP312R and 3 MGF110 (4L, 5L-6L and 7L)] with the highest expression at 3 hours post infection and two structural

membrane ASFV proteins (EP153R and EP402R) were selected as the antigens for the vaccine design. The expression of six highly expressed ASFV genes ranges from 9 to 36 percent of the total ASFV gene expression based on the signal intensity, whereas the expression of the two ASFV membrane protein was less than 0.5% (Table 1). The coding sequence of A151R, CP204L and CP312R were concatenated together and the four MGF110 (3L, 4L, 5L-6L and 7L) open reading frames were connected using linker peptides as single open reading frames. Extracellular domain sequences of EP153R (1-206aa) and EP402R (50-158aa) were identified using SMART program (Letunic et al., 2015) and linked together as a single polypeptide. Porcine XCL1 coding sequence with a peptide linker was inserted into the 5'-end of the concatenated A151R, CP204L and CP312R sequence to be expressed as one polypeptide. To enhance the vaccination response, IRF2 gene was selected as an adjuvant for the vaccine candidate. The DNA fragments of these three open reading frames as shown in Figure 1 and the IRF2 coding sequence were synthesized by Genscript Inc.

Table 1. The percentages of signal intensity of selected ASFV open reading frames in the total signal intensity of all ASFV genes at different time points post infection

ASFV gene	3 hours	6 hours	9 hours	12 hours	15 hours	18 hours	Average
A151R	5.76	2.98	1.86	2.40	2.07	1.93	3.53
CP204L	5.61	2.54	0.98	2.49	2.15	1.71	3.05
CP312R	5.25	3.37	1.92	2.19	2.04	1.94	3.51
MGF_110-4L	7.14	3.19	1.20	2.34	1.94	1.92	2.95
MGF_110-5L-6L	5.73	3.22	1.71	2.33	1.90	1.83	2.79
MGF_110-7L	7.18	3.57	1.43	2.41	2.07	1.85	3.08
EP153R	0.07	0.04	0.04	0.11	0.12	0.10	0.08
EP402R	0.05	0.07	0.24	0.17	0.21	0.29	0.17
Total %	36.80	18.97	9.39	14.44	12.49	11.56	19.17



Figure 1. The design of three fused ASFV polypeptides connected with peptide linkers

2. Construction of recombinant adenoviruses

The four synthesized DNA fragments were inserted into an adenovirus plasmid vector, Ad5-blue (Moraes et al., 2001), individually. The cloned plasmids with the correct inserts were used to transfect HEK293 cells with Lipofectamine 2000 in Opti-MEM after digestion with PacI restriction enzyme (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, MA). The recombinant adenoviruses were plaque-isolated and grown in 6-well tissue culture

plates. Virus DNA samples were purified using a genomic DNA isolation kit. The DNA was used as PCR templates to amplify the sequences inserted in the Ad5 genomes. The amplified DNA fragments were purified with a Qiagen PCR reaction purification kit and sequenced to confirm the virus clones. The validated recombinant adenoviruses were sent to Welgen Inc (Worcester, MA) for scale-up virus production.

3. Titration of adenoviruses

Titers of recombinant adenoviruses were determined based on tissue culture infectious dose (TCID₅₀) using HEK293 cell monolayer in 96 well plates according to Moraes et al. (2002). Briefly, the cells were plated at a density of 1×10^4 cells per well, incubated at 37°C with 5% CO₂ for 3 days or 95-100% confluency. Tenfold serial dilutions starting at 10⁻⁵ to 10⁻¹² in Minimum Essential Medium (MEM, GIBCO) were prepared in 1.7 ml sterile micro-centrifuge tubes. Prior to inoculation, the cell culture media was removed and 100 µl per well of the diluted samples was added. Sixteen replicates per dilution per titration and two independent titrations were performed. The plates were incubated at 37°C, 5% CO₂ and checked for the presence of CPE daily for 10 days. Spearman-Kärber 50% endpoint viral titers were calculated as TCID₅₀ and then the titers were converted to plaque forming unit (pfu).

4. Animal challenge

A composited vaccine consisting of equal amount of the recombinant adenoviruses will be injected s.c. to vaccinate pigs. Four pigs (50-60 lb.) per treatment group will be used in this experiment. After the primary vaccination, a booster injection will be given two weeks after the primary vaccination. Each pig of Group 1 will be injected s.c. with 10⁹ pfu of Ad5-IRF2, Ad5-XCL1-ASFV3P, Ad5-3MGF110 and Ad5-ASFV2EP viruses, and Group 2 will be injected with 10⁹ pfu of Ad5-XCL1-ASFV3P, Ad5-3MGF110 and Ad5-ASFV2EP viruses and 300 µg of poly(I:C). One week after the secondary vaccination, these pigs will be challenged by inoculating intramuscularly with either 10² or 10⁴ HAD50 of wildtype Georgian strain of ASFV as reported by Krug et al. (2015). A control group of pigs will be injected with the same amount (4X10⁹ pfu) of a recombinant adenovirus without DNA insertion and challenged with the same ASFV as the treated groups. Blood samples will be collected to isolate white blood cells for IFN γ ELISPOT assay before and after the challenge. Clinical signs will be recorded for the evaluation of vaccine efficacy.

Results:

1. Construction of recombinant adenovirus vectors containing ASFV genes

The synthesized DNA fragments were inserted into the Ad5-blue plasmid vector. The cloned plasmids were sequenced to validate the inserted open reading frames. After sequence validation, approximately 300 µg of each plasmid were produced with Qiagen Plasmid MidiPrep kits for DNA transfection.

2. Production and testing of recombinant adenoviruses

More than 3 clones of recombinant adenoviruses were produced from each DNA transfection of HEK293 cells using the Ad5 plasmids inserted with the ASFV protein

genes. These recombinant adenoviruses were validated with DNA sequencing. The sequencing results show that amplified PCR fragments contain expected sequences. Four clones of the recombinant adenoviruses named Ad5-IRF2, Ad5-XCL1-ASFV3P, Ad5-3MGF110 and Ad5-ASFV2EP were sent to Welgen Inc. for scale-up production.

3. Scale-up production of recombinant adenoviruses

We have received 3 ml of each recombinant Adenoviruses from Welgen Inc. The aliquots of the recombinant adenoviruses have been validated by DNA sequences and titrated. The sequencing results confirmed the recombinant adenoviruses expected. A recombinant adenovirus made from an empty vector has been purchased from Welgen to be used as a negative control. All titers of the recombinant adenoviruses are higher than 3.5×10^{10} TCID₅₀ per ml.

4. Vaccine trials in pigs for protection against ASFV

A vaccine candidate consisting of the four recombinant adenoviruses has been produced for animal testing; however, the animal experiment could not be conducted due to the shutdown of our animal facility for emergency repair of the waste water treatment system. We tried to use the animal facility in Kansas State University but could not find the space for the experiment in the funding period.

Discussion:

Published researches suggest that cell-mediated immunity plays a more important role in protecting pigs against ASFV than humoral immunity. Therefore, we designed this vaccine candidate with a mind to induce adapted immunity that can kill ASFV-infected cells. To kill infected cells, cytotoxic CD8⁺ T cells must recognize antigen epitopes presented by the MHC class I molecules of infected cells. Additionally, the activation of CD8⁺ T cells by dendritic cells and the killing of infected cells by cytotoxic T cells depend on the density of peptide-MHC recognized by individual T cell receptor cluster in the immunosynapse (Manz et al., 2011). Currently, it is unknown which major antigen epitopes are presented on ASFV-infected cells. We selected a few ASFV genes with the highest expression hoping to induce cytotoxic T cells recognizing the ASFV peptide-MHC with the highest density on ASFV-infected cells. Because (1) the percent of expression of individual ASFV gene decreases, (2) the expression of ASFV genes with anti-apoptotic effect increases, and (3) the ability of antigen presentation of ASFV-infected macrophages decreases (inferred from our results of macrophage gene expression after ASFV infection) as the time post infection increases, selecting genes highly expressed during the early infection might induce immunity that can more effectively kill ASFV infected cells. On the other hand, killing infected cells in the early infection will probably reduce or prevent the production of infectious virus.

After the antigens were selected, we designed how these antigens will be expressed from the adenovirus vector for immune induction. Ad5-XCL1-ASFV3P was designed to produce secreted ASFV proteins and to induce cytotoxic T cell immunity via antigen cross-presentation according to a mechanism described by Hartung et al. (2015). We hypothesize that antigens targeted to secretory pathways could avoid cell death of Ad5

infected cells caused by over-expression of ASFV proteins in order to prolong antigen production. Longer duration of antigen could induce better immune responses. On the other hand, Ad5-3MGF110 is expected to induce cytotoxic T cell immunity via an alternative TAP-independent MHC class I antigen presentation because of their signal peptide sequences and endoplasmic reticulum retention motifs (Netherton et al., 2004) according to a mechanisms described by Oliveira and van Hall (2015). We also included two lowly expressed ASFV membrane proteins (EP153R and EP402R) in the vaccine design. These two ASFV membrane proteins were reported to be expressed on the surface of ASFV infected cell (Galindo et al., 2000; Rodriguez et al., 1993). Based on the predicted protein structures, we selected the extracellular domains to design a fused protein that is more likely to induce antibodies capable of killing ASFV-infected cells via antibody-directed cell cytotoxicity and compliment-mediated cell lysis.

Replication defective recombinant adenovirus has been approved to be used as a vaccine vector by USDA. Ad5 based FMDV vaccine has been approved for commercial production. Besides DIVA capability, this vaccine platform could be safer than attenuated virus vaccines. We selected six highly expressed ASFV genes in order to increase the chance of including the major protective ASFV antigens in this vaccine design. However, the animal experiment could not be conducted due to the shutdown of the animal facility at PIADC for repair of waste water treatment system. The effect of this vaccine candidate remains to be tested in pigs.

Acknowledgement

The gene expression profiling of ASFV-infected macrophages was funded by the Department of Homeland Security (Project Award number: HSHQPM-12-X-00005), which has been used to design an ASF vaccine candidate in this research.

References

Abrams CC, Goatley L, Fishbourne E, Chapman D, Cooke L, Oura CA, Netherton CL, Takamatsu HH, Dixon LK. 2013. Deletion of virulence associated genes from attenuated African swine fever virus isolate OUR T88/3 decreases its ability to protect against challenge with virulent virus. *Virology*. 443(1):99-105.

Alonso C, Galindo I, Cuesta-Geijo MA, Cabezas M, Hernaez B, Muñoz-Moreno R. 2013. African swine fever virus-cell interactions: from virus entry to cell survival. *Virus Res*. 173(1):42-57.

Argilaguuet JM, Pérez-Martín E, López S, Goethe M, Escribano JM, Giesow K, Keil GM, Rodríguez F. 2013. BacMam immunization partially protects pigs against sublethal challenge with African swine fever virus. *Antiviral Res*. 98(1):61-5

Argilaguuet JM, Pérez-Martín E, Nofrarias M, Gallardo C, Accensi F, Lacasta A, Mora M, Ballester M, Galindo-Cardiel I, López-Soria S, Escribano JM, Reche PA, Rodríguez F. 2012. DNA vaccination partially protects against African swine fever virus lethal challenge in the absence of antibodies. *PLoS One*. 7(9):e40942.

- Dixon LK, Abrams CC, Chapman DD, Goatley LC, Netherton CL, Taylor G, Takamatsu HH,ra CA, Netherton CL, Moffat K, Taylor G, Le Potier MF, Dixon LK, Takamatsu HH. 2013. Prospects for development of African swine fever virus vaccines. *Dev Biol (Basel)*. 135:147-57.
- Escribano JM, Galindo I, Alonso C. 2013. Antibody-mediated neutralization of African swine fever virus: myths and facts. *Virus Res*. 173(1):101-9.
- Galindo I, Almazán F, Bustos MJ, Viñuela E, Carrascosa AL. 2000. African swine fever virus EP153R open reading frame encodes a glycoprotein involved in the hemadsorption of infected cells. *Virology*. 266(2):340-51.
- Gladue DP, Zhu J, Holinka LG, Fernandez-Sainz I, Carrillo C, Prarat MV, O'Donnell V, Borca MV. 2010. Patterns of gene expression in swine macrophages infected with classical swine fever virus detected by microarray. *Virus Res*. 151(1):10-8.
- Griffith JW, Sokol CL, Luster AD. 2014. Chemokines and chemokine receptors: positioning cells for host defense and immunity. *Annu Rev Immunol*. 32:659-702.
- Hartung E, Becker M, Bachem A, Reeg N, Jäkel A, Hutloff A, Weber H, Weise C, Giesecke C, Henn V, Gurka S, Anastassiadis K, Mages HW, Kroczeck RA., 2015. Induction of potent CD8 T cell cytotoxicity by specific targeting of antigen to cross-presenting dendritic cells in vivo via murine or human XCR1. *J Immunol*. 194(3):1069-79.
- Hoffmann E, Dittrich-Breiholz O, Holtmann H, Kracht M. 2002. Multiple control of interleukin-8 gene expression. *J Leukoc Biol*. 72(5):847-55.
- Imaizumi T, Aizawa T, Segawa C, Shimada M, Tsuruga K, Kawaguchi S, Matsumiya T, Yoshida H, Joh K, Tanaka H. 2014. Toll-like receptor 3 signaling contributes to the expression of a neutrophil chemoattractant, CXCL1 in human mesangial cells. *Clin Exp Nephrol*. [Epub ahead of print].
- King K, Chapman D, Argilaguet JM, Fishbourne E, Hutet E, Cariolet R, Hutchings G, Oura CA, Netherton CL, Moffat K, Taylor G, Le Potier MF, Dixon LK, Takamatsu HH. 2011. Protection of European domestic pigs from virulent African isolates of African swine fever virus by experimental immunisation. *Vaccine*. 29(28):4593-600.
- Krug PW, Holinka LG, O'Donnell V, Reese B, Sanford B, Fernandez-Sainz I, Gladue DP, Arzt J, Rodriguez L, Risatti GR, Borca MV. 2015. The progressive adaptation of a georgian isolate of african Swine Fever virus to vero cells leads to a gradual attenuation of virulence in Swine corresponding to major modifications of the viral genome. *J Virol*. 89(4):2324-32.
- Lacasta A, Ballester M, Monteagudo PL, Rodríguez JM, Salas ML, Accensi F, Pina-Pedrero S, Bensaid A, Argilaguet J, López-Soria S, Hutet E, Le Potier MF, Rodríguez F. 2014. Expression library immunization can confer protection against lethal challenge with African swine fever virus. *J Virol*. 88(22):13322-32.
- Letunic I, Doerks T, Bork P. 2015. SMART: recent updates, new developments and status in 2015. *Nucleic Acids Res*. 43(Database issue):D257-60.

- Maeda A, Bandow K, Kusuyama J, Kakimoto K, Ohnishi T, Miyawaki S, Matsuguchi T. 2015. Induction of CXCL2 and CCL2 by pressure force requires IL-1 β -MyD88 axis in osteoblasts. *Bone*. 74C:76-82.
- Manz BN, Jackson BL, Petit RS, Dustin ML, Groves J. 2011. T-cell triggering thresholds are modulated by the number of antigen within individual T-cell receptor clusters. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 108(22):9089-94.
- Neilan JG, Zsak L, Lu Z, Burrage TG, Kutish GF, Rock DL. 2004. Neutralizing antibodies to African swine fever virus proteins p30, p54, and p72 are not sufficient for antibody-mediated protection. *Virology*. 319(2):337-42.
- Netherton C, Rouiller I, Wileman T. 2004. The subcellular distribution of multigene family 110 proteins of African swine fever virus is determined by differences in C-terminal KDEL endoplasmic reticulum retention motifs. *J Virol*. 78(7):3710-3721.
- Oliveira CC, van Hall T. 2015. Alternative Antigen Processing for MHC Class I: Multiple Roads Lead to Rome. *Front Immunol*. 6:298.
- Oslund KL, Zhou X, Lee B, Zhu L, Duong T, Shih R, Baumgarth N, Hung LY, Wu R, Chen Y. 2014. Synergistic up-regulation of CXCL10 by virus and IFN γ in human airway epithelial cells. *PLoS One*. 9(7):e100978.
- Oura CA, Denyer MS, Takamatsu H, Parkhouse RM. 2005. In vivo depletion of CD8+ T lymphocytes abrogates protective immunity to African swine fever virus. *J Gen Virol*. 86(Pt 9):2445-50.
- Patch JR, Pedersen LE, Toka FN, Moraes M, Grubman MJ, Nielsen M, Jungersen G, Buus S, Golde WT. 2011. Induction of foot-and-mouth disease virus-specific cytotoxic T cell killing by vaccination. *Clin Vaccine Immunol*. 18(2):280-8.
- Rodríguez JM, Salas ML., 2013. African swine fever virus transcription. *Virus Res*. 173(1):15-28.
- Rodríguez JM, Yáñez RJ, Almazán F, Viñuela E, Rodríguez JF. 1993. African swine fever virus encodes a CD2 homolog responsible for the adhesion of erythrocytes to infected cells. *J Virol*. 67(9):5312-20.
- Ruiz-Gonzalvo F, Rodríguez F, Escribano JM. 1996. Functional and immunological properties of the baculovirus-expressed hemagglutinin of African swine fever virus. *Virology*. 218(1):285-9.
- Salas ML, Andrés G. 2013. African swine fever virus morphogenesis. *Virus Res*. 173(1):29-41.
- Sánchez EG1, Quintas A, Nogal M, Castelló A, Revilla Y. 2013. African swine fever virus controls the host transcription and cellular machinery of protein synthesis. *Virus Res*. 173(1):58-75.

Takamatsu HH, Denyer MS, Lacasta A, Stirling CM, Argilaguet JM, Netherton CL, Oura CA, Martins C, Rodríguez F. 2013. Cellular immunity in ASFV responses. *Virus Res.* 173(1):110-21.

Yeruva S, Ramadori G, Raddatz D. 2008. NF-kappaB-dependent synergistic regulation of CXCL10 gene expression by IL-1beta and IFN-gamma in human intestinal epithelial cell lines. *Int J Colorectal Dis.* 23(3):305-17.

Zhu YM, Bagstaff SM, Woll PJ. 2006. Production and upregulation of granulocyte chemotactic protein-2/CXCL6 by IL-1beta and hypoxia in small cell lung cancer. *Br J Cancer.* 94(12):1936-41.