

1 **Bat influenza vectored NS1-truncated live vaccine protects pigs against heterologous virus**  
2 **challenge**

3 **Running title: Bat influenza vectored live vaccine protects pigs**

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20 **Abstract**

21 Swine influenza is an important disease for the swine industry. Currently used whole  
22 inactivated virus (WIV) vaccines can induce vaccine-associated enhanced respiratory disease  
23 (VAERD) in pigs when the vaccine strains mismatch with the infected viruses. Live attenuated  
24 influenza virus vaccine (LAIV) is effective to protect pigs against homologous and heterologous  
25 swine influenza virus infections without inducing VAERD, but has safety concerns due to  
26 potential reassortment with circulating viruses. Herein, we used a chimeric bat influenza  
27 Bat09:mH3mN2 virus, which contains both surface HA and NA gene open reading frames of the  
28 A/swine/Texas/4199-2/1998 (H3N2) and six internal genes from the novel bat H17N10 virus, to  
29 develop modified live-attenuated viruses (MLVs) as vaccine candidates which cannot reassort  
30 with canonical influenza A viruses by co-infection. Two attenuated MLV vaccine candidates  
31 including the virus that expresses a truncated NS1 (Bat09:mH3mN2-NS1-128, MLV1) or  
32 expresses both a truncated NS1 and the swine IL-18 (Bat09:mH3mN2-NS1-128-IL-18, MLV2)  
33 were generated and evaluated in pigs against a heterologous H3N2 virus using the WIV vaccine  
34 as a control. Compared to the WIV vaccine, both MLV vaccines were able to reduce lesions and  
35 virus replication in lungs and limit nasal virus shedding without VAERD, also induced  
36 significantly higher levels of mucosal IgA response in lungs and significantly increased numbers  
37 of antigen-specific IFN- $\gamma$  secreting cells against the challenge virus. However, no significant  
38 difference was observed in efficacy between the MLV1 and MLV2. These results indicate that  
39 bat influenza vectored MLV vaccines can be used as a safe live vaccine to prevent swine  
40 influenza.

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42 **Key words:** Swine influenza vaccine, bat influenza virus vectored live vaccine, cross-protection,  
43 heterologous virus challenge, safety and efficacy.

#### 44 **Introduction**

45 Influenza A viruses (IAVs) cause an acute respiratory disease ranging from mild  
46 pneumonia to death usually via co-infection with other respiratory pathogens in swine, leading to  
47 substantial economic losses to the swine industry each year. Currently, three major subtypes of  
48 IAVs including H1N1, H1N2 and H3N2 are endemic in US swine herds. However, there is  
49 extensive genetic and antigenic diversity of swine IAVs through antigenic drift, gene  
50 reassortment and introduction of IAVs from other hosts including human seasonal IAV into pigs  
51 [1-4]. Since the dynamic swine influenza viruses (SIVs) continue to evolve and generate novel  
52 IAVs, public health concerns increase with continual spillover of SIVs into human populations  
53 [5, 6]. The rapidly evolving diversity of IAVs hinders effective vaccine-mediated protection due  
54 to a deficiency of antigenic matching between vaccine strains and circulating viruses [7]. It is  
55 necessary and important to develop a new vaccine approach to achieve sufficient protection  
56 against circulating diverse SIVs and reducing the risk of zoonotic transmission to humans.

57 Currently, whole inactivated virus (WIV) vaccines are the most widely used vaccines  
58 with oil-in-water adjuvants in swine herds. The WIV vaccines are bivalent or multivalent  
59 products which contain combination of antigenically distinct H1 and H3 subtypes of viruses and  
60 usually require a two dose vaccination strategy delivered by intramuscular route. The adjuvanted  
61 WIV vaccines can provide sterilizing immunity by inducing robust neutralizing antibodies  
62 against antigenically similar HA strains [8, 9]. However, only partial protection is achieved by  
63 WIV vaccines against heterologous strains [9-11]. Moreover, vaccine associated enhanced  
64 respiratory disease (VAERD), characterized by absence of high avidity, cross-reactive

65 neutralizing antibodies as well as increased lung pathology, has been observed in pigs  
66 immunized with WIV vaccine followed by infection with antigenically distinct IAVs [11-15].

67 Live attenuated influenza virus vaccines (LAIVs) mimic a natural route of infection  
68 through intranasal administration. In contrast to WIV vaccines, LAIVs in swine provide  
69 improved cross-reactive immunity against antigenically distinct IAVs through inducing broader  
70 cell-mediated, humoral and mucosal immune responses without inducing VAERD [9, 16, 17].  
71 Several approaches have been developed to attenuate wild type viruses to produce LAIV  
72 candidates, including elastase- dependent HA cleavage, truncated NS1 gene ( $\Delta$ NS1) which is  
73 associated with suppression of type I interferon system, temperature-sensitive mutations in  
74 polymerase genes and codon-pair biased-deoptimization (CPBD) in HA and NA genes [18-22].  
75 Among these approaches, a LAIV based on  $\Delta$ NS1 was recently licensed as the first LAIV for  
76 swine in the US [23]. However, major concerns regarding the use of LAIVs are the reversion to a  
77 virulent phenotype of the vaccine strain over time by natural mutations or genome reassortment  
78 between vaccine strains and circulating field viruses.

79 Vectored vaccines are alternative approaches to produce IAV vaccines with potential  
80 application in multiple species. Replication-defective or replication-competent vectors infect  
81 cells and transport the recombinant genes and express the antigens of interest in infected cells,  
82 which allows the stimulation of cell mediated immunity. Furthermore, vectored vaccines can  
83 induce local immunity at the site of natural infection of IAVs through intranasal delivery [24, 25].  
84 Human adenovirus type 5- vectored and alphavirus-like replicon particle vectored vaccines have  
85 been reported to provide complete protection against homologous IAV infection and partial  
86 protection against heterologous challenge in pigs [25-28].

87           Recently, two novel influenza A-like virus genome sequences were discovered from bat  
88 specimens and they were classified as H17N10 and H18N11 subtypes [29, 30]. Although the  
89 surface glycoproteins of these new bat influenza viruses are phylogenetically and structurally  
90 related to hemagglutinin (HA) and neuraminidase (NA) of conventional IAVs, they are  
91 functionally different from conventional HA and NA with lacking of hemagglutination and  
92 sialidase activities [30-32]. In addition, unrevealed cell tropism and lacking of suitable  
93 cultivation and replication systems of bat influenza viruses hindered its further characterization.  
94 Recently, we successfully rescued replicative chimeric bat influenza viruses which contain HA  
95 and NA coding regions from a conventional IAV with respective gene packaging signals of bat  
96 influenza viruses [33, 34]. Although the chimeric bat influenza viruses replicated to reasonable  
97 infectious titers in mammalian cells and mice, reassortment between chimeric bat influenza  
98 viruses and conventional IAVs was not observed in co-infection experiments [33-35]. This  
99 indicates that a chimeric bat influenza virus can be a good vaccine vector to overcome the  
100 potential risk of LAIV reassortment with conventional IAVs.

101           In the present study, we developed novel modified live-attenuated virus (MLV) vaccine  
102 candidates using a chimeric bat influenza virus as a vaccine vector containing a truncated NS1  
103 gene. In addition, recombinant porcine IL-18 (rpIL-18) was introduced into this MLV as part of  
104 the MLV vaccine because IL-18 is known to induce strong cell mediated immunity (CMI) by  
105 stimulating T helper 1 (Th1) activation and IFN- $\gamma$  induction [36-38], its effect on MLV vaccine  
106 efficacy was evaluated. The results showed that compared to WIV vaccine both MLV vaccines  
107 are able to reduce virus replication and pathology in lungs and limit virus nasal transmission  
108 without inducing VAERD after heterologous challenge in pigs. Furthermore, both MLV vaccines

109 induced significant mucosal immunity and T-cell response against the challenge virus. However,  
110 a significant immunomodulatory effect of IL-18 after MLV2 vaccination was not observed.

111

## 112 **Materials and methods**

### 113 **Ethical statement**

114 Animal study (IACUC no.3668) was reviewed and approved by the Institutional Animal  
115 Care and Use Committee at Kansas State University and were performed in Biosafety Level 2+  
116 animal facilities under guidance from the Comparative Medicine Group at Kansas State  
117 University.

### 118 **Viruses and vaccine preparation**

119 The MLV with a truncated NS1 protein (Bat09:mH3mN2-NS1-128, MLV1) was  
120 generated via reverse genetics using six internal genes from the H17N10 A/little yellow-  
121 shouldered bat/Guatemala/164/2009 (Bat09) and two surface HA and NA gene coding regions  
122 from the H3N2 A/swine/Texas/4199-2/1998 (TX98) with Bat09 respective gene packaging  
123 signals as described in detail (**Fig. 1A**) [33]. To generate the second MLV with IL-18 expression  
124 (Bat09:mH3mN2-NS1-128-IL-18, MLV2), the recombinant porcine IL-18 (rpIL-18) was  
125 incorporated between the truncated bat NS1 (NS1-128) and NEP proteins as described  
126 previously [39]. Briefly, rpIL-18 was fused to the C-terminal of NS1-128 via a GSGG linker  
127 followed by a GSG linker, 2A autoproteolytic cleavage site and NEP (Fig. 1B). NS1-128-IL-18  
128 and NEP are expressed as a single polyprotein, and 2A autoproteolytic cleavage site allows NEP  
129 to be released from NS1-128-IL-18 protein during translation. Wild type TX98 H3N2 virus  
130 (cluster I) was used as WIV vaccine antigen by UV- inactivation and emulsion in 15%  
131 commercial oil-in-water adjuvant at 64 HA unites/dose (Emulsigen D, MVP Laboratories, Inc.).

132 Recently isolated cluster IV H3N2 virus, A/swine/Kansas/10-91088/2010 (KS-91088), was used  
133 as challenge virus for *in vivo* pig study [40]. All viruses used as vaccine and challenge strains  
134 were propagated in Madin-Darby canine kidney (MDCK) cells.

### 135 **Growth kinetics**

136 To assess the replication kinetics of MLV strains, MDCK cells were cultured in 12-well  
137 plates and infected with each virus at a multiplicity of infection (m.o.i.) of 0.01 in triplicate. At  
138 12, 24, 36 and 48h post-infection (hpi), the supernatants of infected cells were collected and  
139 virus titers were determined by calculating the 50% tissue culture infective dose (TCID<sub>50</sub>/ml) in  
140 MDCK cells using the Reed and Muench method [41].

### 141 **Western blotting**

142 Confluent MDCK cells were infected with MLV1 and MLV2 at an m.o.i. of 0.2. Negative  
143 control was mock-infected with the PBS. At 24 hpi, infected cells were collected and cell lysates  
144 were extracted using CellLytic M cell lysis (Sigma-Aldrich) and extracted cell lysates were  
145 loaded to 4-12% Bis-Tris polyacrylamide gel (Invitrogen). The loaded gel was transferred onto a  
146 polyvinylidene difluoride (PVDF) membrane (Millipore) and the membrane was blocked using 5%  
147 skim milk. The membrane was incubated with a primary mouse anti-pig IL-18 antibody (diluted  
148 1:500, Bio-Rad) or anti- $\beta$ -actin antibody (diluted 1:500, Santa Cruz) overnight at 4°C.  
149 Horseradish peroxidase (HRP)-conjugated polyclonal rabbit anti-mouse immunoglobulins  
150 (diluted 1:1000, room temperature, 1h reaction, Dako) were used as the secondary antibody.  
151 Target protein was detected using SuperSignal West Femto Maximum Sensitivity Substrate  
152 according to the manufacturer's instruction (Thermo Scientific).

### 153 **Experimental design**

154 Twenty-three 3- to 4-week-old pigs, which were confirmed to be seronegative for porcine  
155 reproductive and respiratory syndrome virus and IAVs by hemagglutination inhibition (HI) assay  
156 against currently circulating H3N2 and H1N1 viruses, were used in this study. Pigs were  
157 randomly distributed into 4 groups (MLV1, MLV2, WIV vaccinated groups and non-vaccinated  
158 control group) and each group contained 6 pigs, while MLV2 vaccinated group had 5 pigs  
159 (**Table 1**). The MLV groups were vaccinated with 1.5 ml of  $10^6$  TCID<sub>50</sub>/pig by intranasal route  
160 once. One group of 6 pigs were administered with 2 ml of 64 HA units of adjuvanted WIV  
161 vaccine by intramuscular route and boosted 21 days later with the same dose of the vaccine by  
162 the same route. Six pigs in non-vaccinated group (NV) were served as sham vaccinated controls.  
163 Pigs were monitored daily for clinical signs and body temperature was measured daily for 7 days  
164 post primary vaccination. All pigs were challenged at 28 days post-vaccination (dpv) with  $10^5$   
165 TCID<sub>50</sub>/ml of KS-91088 virus by intra-tracheal inoculation (**Table 1**). Rectal temperature and  
166 clinical sings were monitored daily after vaccination and challenge. Nasal swabs were collected  
167 0, 3, 5, 7 dpv and 0, 1, 3, 5 days post-challenge (dpc) to evaluate virus nasal shedding. At 0, 14,  
168 28 dpv and 3, 5 dpc, blood samples were collected from each pig for serological analysis. Three  
169 pigs from each group were necropsied at 3 and 5 dpc, while two pigs from the MLV2 group were  
170 necropsied at 5 dpc (**Table 1**). Bronchoalveolar lavage fluid (BALF) samples were collected by  
171 flushing each lung with 50 ml of fresh minimal essential medium (MEM). Virus amounts of  
172 nasal swab and BALF samples were determined on MDCK cells by calculating TCID<sub>50</sub>/ml using  
173 the Reed and Muench method [41]. To investigate the gene reassortment between MLVs and  
174 challenge virus in BALF after challenge, MDCK cells were infected with BALF samples and  
175 plaque assay was performed to select a single virus. The purified single virus plaques were  
176 amplified for further analysis to identify the origin of each gene segment using gene specific



177 reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR). RNAs were extracted from each  
178 amplified single virus using the QIAamp Viral RNA Mini Kit (Qiagen). Each gene segment was  
179 synthesized by gene specific primers (primers available upon request) using SuperScript III One-  
180 Step RT-PCR System (Invitrogen).

### 181 **Pathological examination of tissues**

182 At necropsy, lungs were removed *in toto* and a single experienced veterinarian assessed  
183 the percentage of typical IAV infection gross lesions of each lobe (each lung lobe is considered  
184 as 100%) as described previously [42, 43]. The mean of gross lung lesions of seven lung lobes  
185 was calculated and the average lung lesions of each pig were presented. Tissue samples of right  
186 cardiac lung lobe and trachea from each pig were collected and fixed in 10% neutral buffered  
187 formalin immediately after necropsy. They were routinely processed for histopathologic  
188 examination, and stained with hematoxylin and eosin at Kansas State Veterinary Diagnostic  
189 Laboratory. A certified veterinary anatomic pathologist evaluated the microscopic sections for  
190 the presence of lesions. The veterinary anatomic pathologist was blinded to the different  
191 treatment groups. Lung scoring was assessed based on our former publication [44]. Microscopic  
192 lesions were graded for percentage of airway epithelial necrosis and inflammation (0-4 scale),  
193 percentage of airway hyperplasia and regeneration (0-3 scale), percentage of peribronchiolar  
194 infiltration (0-3 scale), and percentage of interstitial pneumonia (0-4 scale). Similarly, lesions in  
195 the trachea were assessed using a 0-4 scale, based on percentage of degeneration and necrosis of  
196 epithelium, and degree of inflammation.

### 197 **Antibody detection and ELISA assay**

198 To perform hemagglutination inhibition (HI) assays, heat inactivated sera at 56°C for 30  
199 min were treated with 20% Kaolin (Sigma-Aldrich) and 0.5% turkey red blood cells (RBCs) to

200 get rid of nonspecific hemagglutination inhibitors and agglutinins. The KS-91088 virus was used  
201 as antigen to conduct the HI assay by following standard techniques [45]. Enzyme-linked  
202 immunosorbent assays (ELISA) were performed to detect total IgG and IgA antibodies in serum  
203 and BLAF against whole virus preparation of KS-91088 as previously described with  
204 modifications [46]. Heat inactivated sera were diluted in 5% Fraction V bovine serum albumin  
205 (BSA) in PBS at 1:1000 for IgG assay and 1:4 for IgA assay. BALF samples were treated in an  
206 equal amount of 10mM dithiothreitol (DTT) solution for 1h at 37°C for mucus dissociation and  
207 dilute in 10% BSA/PBS at 1:1 ratio. All diluted serum and BALF samples were incubated at  
208 37°C for 1h to absorb nonspecific antibody. Plates were coated with 100 HA unit per 50 µl of  
209 KS-91088 virus at room temperature overnight and added 50 µl of each sample per well in  
210 triplicate. After 1h incubation, 50 µl of horseradish peroxidase-conjugated goat anti-pig IgG  
211 (diluted 1:10000, Bio-Rad) or anti-pig IgA (diluted 1:10000, Bio-Rad) were used to detect  
212 antibodies. After 1h incubation with detection antibodies, plates were added with 50 µl of  
213 3,3',5,5'-Tetramethylbenzidine (TMB) Liquid Substrate System (Sigma-Aldrich) for 10 min  
214 followed by adding 50 µl of Stop Reagent for TMB Substrate (Sigma-Aldrich). The optical  
215 density (OD) was measured at 450 nm wavelength and antibody levels were analyzed by average  
216 of each triplicate samples and reported as the mean of OD values of each group.

### 217 **IFN- $\gamma$ ELISPOT assay**

218 To perform ELISPOT assay for detecting IFN- $\gamma$  secreting cells (IFN- $\gamma$  SCs), whole blood  
219 samples were collected at 5 dpc to isolate peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs).  
220 ELISPOT plates (MSIPS4510, Millipore) were pre-wetted with 15 µl of 35% ethanol for 1min  
221 prior to being coated with 50 µl of 10 µg/ml anti-porcine IFN- $\gamma$  antibody (BD Biosciences) at  
222 4°C overnight. Plates were washed 5 times with PBS and blocked with 200 µl of RPMI-1640

223 medium containing 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) and 1% antibiotic/antimycotic (Invitrogen) at  
224 37°C for 2h. The blocked wells were seeded with 100 µl of 10<sup>5</sup> PBMCs and stimulated with 50  
225 µl of 2 x 10<sup>6</sup> TCID<sub>50</sub>/ml of UV-inactivated KS-91088 virus. Concanavalin A at 10 µg/ml was  
226 used as a positive control and uninfected MDCK media was used as a negative control. After 48h  
227 incubation, plates were washed and incubated with 50 µl of 0.5 µg/ml biotinylated-porcine IFN-γ  
228 antibody (Invitrogen) for 2h at room temperature. After washing, plates were added with 50 µl of  
229 HRP-conjugated Streptavidin (diluted 1:2000, Invitrogen) and incubated for 1h at room  
230 temperature. Plates were washed with PBS and added with 100 µl of TMB Membrane  
231 Peroxidase Substrate System (KPL) to develop dark blue spots on the membrane. Dry plates  
232 were scanned and spots were counted using ImmunoSpot (Cellular Technology) machine and  
233 ImmunoCapture (Version 6.3.5) and ImmunoSpot (Version 5.0 Profesional DC) software. The  
234 average numbers of counted spots for triplicates well of individual sample were used to present  
235 the mean numbers of each group.

### 236 **Cytokine and chemokine levels in BALF**

237 Cytokine/Chemokine levels in BALF were quantified by MILLIPLEX MAP Porcine  
238 Cytokine/Chemokine Magnetic Bead Panel using the Luminex technology according to the  
239 manufacturer's instructions (Millipore). Each sample was analyzed in triplicate and results  
240 presented average values of pigs in each treatment group.

### 241 **Statistical analysis**

242 All statistical analysis were conducted using analysis of variance (ANOVA) with a  
243 Tukey's multiple comparison test by GraphPad Prism version 5.0 (GraphPad Software) to  
244 compare multiple treatment groups. A *P*-value of 0.05 or less was considered statistically  
245 significant.

246

## 247 **Results**

### 248 **Generation and characterization of modified live-attenuated vaccines**

249 To generate novel MLVs by reverse genetics, the chimeric bat influenza virus  
250 (Bat09:mH3mN2), which contains coding regions of HA and NA from TX98 H3N2 virus with  
251 Bat09 respective gene packaging signals and six internal genes from the Bat09 virus, was used as  
252 a replicative bat influenza vector (**Fig. 1A**). Since LAIVs with a truncated NS1 protein have been  
253 shown to provide effective protection against SIV infection with attenuated replication feature in  
254 pigs [18, 23], we generated a MLV1 based on Bat09:mH3mN2 virus expressing a truncated NS1  
255 protein of 128 amino acids (Bat09:mH3mN2-NS1-128, MLV1) (**Fig. 1B**). In parallel, MLV2  
256 expressing both a truncated NS1 protein and rpIL-18 was generated (Bat09:mH3mN2-NS1-128-  
257 IL-18, MLV2); as IL-18 is associated with inducing a strong cell-mediated immunity (**Fig. 1B**).  
258 In addition, the recombinant virus expressing full-length NS1 and rpIL-18 was also produced as  
259 a control. Virus replication kinetics of all generated recombinant viruses were evaluated *in vitro*.  
260 All recombinant viruses propagated efficiently in Madin-Darby canine kidney (MDCK) cells. All  
261 three recombinant viruses (Bat09:mH3mN2-NS1-IL18, Bat09:mH3mN2-NS1-128 and  
262 Bat09:mH3mN2-NS1-128-IL-18) were attenuated *in vitro* as a significantly lower titer was  
263 detected at 24, 36 and 48 hours post-infection (hpi) compared to the parental Bat09:mH3mN2  
264 virus (**Fig. 1C**). Interestingly, the viral yield of Bat09:mH3mN2-NS1-128-IL-18 was significantly  
265 lower than the other two recombinant viruses at 24, 36 and 48hpi (**Fig. 1C**). The porcine IL-18  
266 expression of Bat09:mH3mN2-NS1-128-IL-18 was confirmed by Western blotting using cell  
267 lysates from virus infected MDCK cells (**Fig. 1D**). These results indicate that all three

268 recombinant viruses are attenuated compared to the parental Bat09:mH3mN2 virus and can be  
269 used as vaccine candidates. Both MLV1 and MLV2 were selected for further vaccine studies.

### 270 **No clinical signs and limited virus shedding found in pigs post vaccination with MLVs**

271 Pigs were inoculated with either MLV1 or MLV2 vaccine candidate by the intranasal  
272 route with  $10^6$  TCID<sub>50</sub> per pig. No obvious clinical signs were observed in these pigs post  
273 vaccination and prior to challenge. We monitored fever of each pig for 7 days post primary  
274 vaccination and no fever was detected in all experimental pigs. To determine whether the MLV1  
275 and MLV2 vaccine candidates shed from vaccinated pigs, nasal swab samples were collected at  
276 3, 5 and 7 days post-vaccination (dpv). Low titer virus shedding was detected in a few pigs only  
277 at 3 dpv, not at later time points. Virus was found in 2 out of 6 pigs infected with the MLV1 with  
278 a titer of  $10^{1.7}$  or  $10^{2.3}$  TCID<sub>50</sub>/ml, while only 1 out of 5 animals infected with the MLV2  
279 candidate shed virus with a titer of  $10^{1.7}$  TCID<sub>50</sub>/ml. These low amounts of virus detected in a  
280 few pigs could be the residual of the inoculated virus.

### 281 **Serological response following vaccination with MLV vaccine candidates and WIV**

282 Titers of hemagglutination inhibition (HI) antibodies to the heterologous KS-90188  
283 H3N2 virus were evaluated in serum samples from all groups of vaccinated pigs at 14 dpv, 28  
284 dpv, 3 days post-challenge (dpc) and 5 dpc as depicted in **Table 1**. At 14 dpv, both MLVs  
285 induced a low HI antibody titer following a single dose of vaccination, while substantial HI  
286 antibody titers were detected from the WIV vaccinated group after booster vaccination at 28 dpv  
287 (**Fig. 2A**). However, the HI titers in pigs of all vaccinated groups were lower than 1:40 at all  
288 tested time points prior to challenge. Although HI titers from all immunized groups increased to  
289 higher than 1:100 following challenge, no significant difference in titers was observed between  
290 vaccinated groups (**Fig. 2A**). The non-vaccinated control group had no HI titers before challenge,

291 and lower HI antibody titers were detected following challenge compared to the vaccinated  
292 groups. We next investigated IgG levels against KS-91088 H3N2 virus in sera at 28 dpv using a  
293 whole-virus ELISA assay. WIV vaccinated pigs produced significantly higher IgG serum levels  
294 to KS-91088 than those of MLV vaccinated and non-vaccinated pigs (**Fig. 2B**). There was no  
295 significant difference in serum IgG levels between the two MLV vaccinated groups and the non-  
296 vaccinated control group. Together, these data show that the two MLV vaccine candidates  
297 applied as a single dose and the WIV vaccine applied as two doses induced minimal levels of  
298 heterologous HI antibody titers ( $\leq 40$ ) following vaccination, while the WIV vaccine elicited  
299 significantly higher levels of IgG in sera compared to the other groups at 28 dpv.

### 300 **Clinical signs, virus replication and shedding, and lung pathology in MLV and WIV** 301 **vaccinated pigs after challenge**

302 After challenge with heterologous KS-91088 H3N2 virus, all vaccinated pigs as well as  
303 the non-vaccinated controls did not show obvious respiratory clinical signs. However, 3 out of 6  
304 pigs immunized with the WIV vaccine showed fever starting at 1 dpc, and all pigs in this group  
305 displayed fever at 2 dpc which lasted for 2 days, while no pigs in other groups had fever at 1 dpc.  
306 Four or 5 pigs in either the non-vaccinated control group or in the MVL1 group, respectively,  
307 showed fever starting at 2 dpc, while all pigs in both groups had fever at 3 dpc. Interestingly, all  
308 five pigs in the MLV2 group had fever only at 3 dpc, not at any other days. Pigs immunized with  
309 either MLV1 or MLV2 exhibited minimal macroscopic lung lesions with an average of less than  
310 3% (**Fig. 3A and B**). The WIV vaccine group had enhanced macroscopic lung lesions compared  
311 to the two MLV groups and the non-vaccination control group at 3 dpc, and the average  
312 percentage of lung lesions was significantly higher than the lesions observed with the other  
313 groups with an average of more than 50 % (**Fig. 3A and B**). At 5 dpc, no significant differences

314 in lung lesion profiles were observed among the different groups although a higher lung lesion  
315 percentage was found in WIV-immunized pigs and minimal lung lesions were found in both  
316 MLV vaccinated animals (**Fig. 3B**).

317 To investigate whether vaccinations could prevent virus replication in lung tissues and  
318 limit virus shedding in pigs, we determined virus titers in bronchoalveolar lavage fluid (BALF)  
319 and nasal swab samples. At 3 dpc, virus was detected in BALF samples collected from pigs of  
320 each group except for one pig from the MLV1 group. In contrast to WIV-vaccinated pigs, a  
321 lower virus titer was detected in BALF samples of other three groups of pigs. However, a  
322 significant difference in virus titers was only observed between the MLV2-vaccinated and the  
323 WIV-vaccinated groups (**Fig. 4A**). At 5 dpc, virus was not detected in BALF from pigs receiving  
324 either the MLV1 or MLV2 candidate vaccines, whereas virus was detected in one out of three  
325 pigs in the WIV vaccine group and from all 3 pigs in the non-vaccinated control group (**Fig. 4A**).  
326 No virus was detected in nasal samples collected from all pigs at 1 dpc (**Fig. 4B**). At 3 dpc, virus  
327 was detected in nasal swabs collected from 5 out of 6 pigs in the MLV1 group as well as from all  
328 pigs in other 3 groups. A significantly lower titer was found in the MLV1 group compared to  
329 those of the other 3 groups at this time point post challenge. No virus was detected in nasal  
330 swabs of 2 pigs immunized with the MLV2 vaccine candidate at 5 dpc, whereas virus was found  
331 in all pigs in either the WIV or non-vaccinated control groups (**Fig. 4B**). In contrast, significant  
332 less virus was detected in 2 out of 3 nasal swabs collected in the MVL1 immunized pigs at 5 dpc.  
333 In summary, both MLV vaccine candidates reduced virus replication in lungs and nasal shedding  
334 after challenge with a heterologous H3N2 virus; this is in contrast to both the WIV vaccinated  
335 and non-vaccinated groups (**Fig. 4**).

336 Histopathological lesions were examined in lungs and trachea collected from pigs at 5  
337 dpc. Microscopic lung lesion scores were not significantly different between the groups, however,  
338 a lower score trend was observed in pigs immunized with either the MLV1 or MLV2 vaccine  
339 candidates (**Fig. S1 A**). The MLV2 group and the non-vaccinated control group demonstrated the  
340 statistically less microscopic damages to the trachea when compared to the WIV vaccine group  
341 (**Fig. S1 B**). However, there was no significant difference in microscopic trachea lesions between  
342 the two MLV groups and the non-vaccinated control groups. Similar to the above described  
343 enhanced macroscopic lung lesions, the WIV vaccine group exhibited more severe  
344 histopathological lung and trachea damages as characterized by marked peribronchiolar  
345 lymphocytic cuffing, degenerated airway epithelium, extensive infiltration of inflammatory cells  
346 within the lumen of airways, attenuated mucosa of trachea and infiltration of lymphocytes and  
347 plasma cells in the lamina propria of the trachea with transepithelial migration of inflammatory  
348 cells (**Fig. S1 C**). These data suggest that both MLV vaccine candidates can prevent virus  
349 replication in lungs and limit virus transmission more efficiently than the WIV vaccine when  
350 challenged with heterologous virus in the absence of enhanced lung pathology and disease (i.e.,  
351 VAERD).

#### 352 **Assessment of reassortment between MLVs and challenge virus in BALF**

353 Previous studies have shown that chimeric bat influenza viruses fail to reassort with  
354 conventional IAVs by co-infection experiments [33-35]. Herein, we investigated reassortment  
355 events between MLVs and challenge virus in BALF samples post challenge. Sixty and ninety  
356 single virus plaques isolated from BALF of the MLV1 group and MLV2 group, respectively,  
357 were purified and the origin of the gene segments of each isolated virus was determined using  
358 gene specific RT-PCR assays. The results showed that all segments of the 150 tested isolates



359 belong to the KS-91088 challenge virus and no reassortant viruses with the MLV candidate  
360 vaccines were detected.

### 361 **Antigen-specific T-cell response after challenge**

362 To evaluate cell-mediated immune response after challenge, peripheral blood  
363 mononuclear cells (PBMCs) were isolated from blood collected from pigs at 5 dpc. An  
364 ELISPOT assay was performed to detect antigen-specific IFN- $\gamma$  secreting cells (IFN- $\gamma$  SCs) in  
365 response to heterologous KS-91088 antigens. All immunized pigs showed significantly higher  
366 numbers of antigen-specific IFN- $\gamma$  SCs compared to the non-vaccinated control pigs (**Fig. 5A**).  
367 However, both MLV candidate vaccines induced significantly greater antigen-specific IFN- $\gamma$   
368 recall responses to the heterologous KS-91088 antigens when compared to the WIV vaccinated  
369 pigs (**Fig. 5A**).

### 370 **Antibody response to challenge virus in BALF samples**

371 The levels of IgG and IgA antibodies reactive to the KS-91088 challenge virus in BALF  
372 at 5 dpc were measured using an isotype-specific ELISA. The results showed that there were  
373 significantly higher levels of IgG in BALF from all vaccinated pigs compared to non-vaccinated  
374 control pigs (**Fig. 5B**). However, both MLVs and the WIV vaccine elicited similar levels of  
375 cross-reactive IgG antibodies in BALF samples. Similar to the IgG levels in BALF, the KS-  
376 91088 reactive IgA levels of all vaccinated pigs were significantly higher than those of non-  
377 vaccinated pigs (**Fig. 5C**). In contrast, significantly higher levels of IgA antibodies were detected  
378 in BALF from pigs immunized with either MLV1 or MLV2 compared to the WIV vaccine group  
379 (**Fig. 5C**).

### 380 **Cytokine and chemokine levels in BALF following challenge**

381 Pulmonary levels of cytokines and chemokines in BALF collected from pigs at 3 and 5  
382 dpc were assessed using the Luminex technology. All measured cytokine and chemokine levels  
383 in BALF from the WIV vaccine group were significantly higher than those detected from both  
384 the MLV1 and MLV2 groups as well as the non-vaccinated control group at either 3 or 5 dpc  
385 (**Fig. S2**). Significant differences in all tested cytokine and chemokine levels between the MLV  
386 groups and the non-vaccinated control group were not observed except for IL-6 and IL-12 at 3  
387 dpc (**Fig. S2**).

388

## 389 **Discussion**

390 In North America, WIV vaccines are widely used in swine herds to prevent and control  
391 swine influenza. However, the complexity and diverse ecology of SIVs lead to repeated failure  
392 of WIV vaccines even if farm-specific autogenous WIV vaccines are used [7, 47]. Furthermore,  
393 even though WIV vaccines are able to provide adequate protection against homologous influenza  
394 virus infection, ineffective protection together with induction of VAERD are observed when  
395 WIV vaccinated pigs are infected with antigenically mismatched strains [8-11]. Therefore, this  
396 limited efficacy of traditional WIV vaccines is not adequate to provide broad protection against  
397 co-circulating antigenically rather diverse SIVs. LAIVs using a variety of genetic modifications  
398 have been shown to provide superior protection against homologous and heterologous SIV  
399 challenges compared to WIV vaccines, without causing VAERD [17, 25, 46, 48]. However,  
400 there are safety concerns of using LAIVs that potentially reassort with circulating SIV strains. In  
401 the present study, we developed new MLV vaccine candidates for swine influenza using an  
402 attenuated chimeric bat influenza virus as a vaccine vector and assessed their efficacy against  
403 heterologous virus challenge in swine. The novel MLV vaccines conferred better protection than

404 the WIV vaccine against heterologous virus challenge as evidenced by reduced virus replication  
405 in lungs and limiting nasal virus shedding (**Fig. 4**). Although significantly reduced virus  
406 replication and shedding was observed in the MLV vaccinated pigs at 5 dpc, virus was still  
407 present at 3 dpc (**Fig. 4**). The lack of early protection against respiratory virus replication in the  
408 MLV groups may be due to the high, intra-tracheal challenge dose ( $10^5$ TCID<sub>50</sub>/pig) used in this  
409 study and/or the antigenic mismatch between challenge and vaccine strains. Even if the average  
410 macroscopic and microscopic lung lesions were not significantly different between the MLV  
411 groups and the non-vaccinated control group, reduced lung damage was observed in pigs  
412 immunized with MLVs compared to the non-vaccinated control group (**Fig. S1**). Most  
413 importantly, VAERD was only observed in WIV vaccinated pigs but not in pigs immunized with  
414 the MLV candidate vaccines upon heterologous challenge (**Fig. 3 and Fig. S1**). Moreover, no  
415 reassortment was detected between MLVs and the challenge virus in BALF after challenge.  
416 These data indicate that the bat influenza vectored MLV vaccine candidates can provide  
417 protection from heterologous SIV infection without safety concerns compared to traditional WIV  
418 and LAIV vaccines by overcoming the risks of VAERD and virus reassortment.

419 VAERD is a major adverse effect of WIV vaccines when immunized pigs are infected  
420 with heterologous virus, especially HA mismatched virus. The WIV vaccine used in this study  
421 was derived from TX98 (H3N2) virus which is a triple-reassortant cluster I of H3 virus, whereas  
422 the HA of the KS-91088 (H3N2) challenge virus belongs to the cluster IV of H3 virus that has no  
423 or limited cross-reactivity with the vaccine strain. The identity of the HA protein sequences  
424 between the TX98 and KS-91088 viruses is approximately 91% and this high divergence of HA  
425 between the WIV vaccine and the challenge KS-91088 virus most likely resulted in VAERD  
426 with severe and exacerbated lung damages (**Fig. 3 and Fig. S1**). Previous studies demonstrated

427 that VAERD correlated with the presence of high level of non-neutralizing antibodies and the  
428 absence of neutralizing antibodies against antigenically mismatched virus [12, 14, 46, 49]. In  
429 particular, it has been reported that cross-reactive HA2 antibodies which target the HA2 domain  
430 but not the HA1 globular head domain contributed to enhanced IAV infection in cells through  
431 promoting the fusion process between virus and cell membrane, and this infection enhancement  
432 is associated with VAERD [46, 49]. In the present study, all vaccine groups displayed similar  
433 low levels of heterologous HI antibody titers ( $\leq 40$ ) before challenge, even after the WIV vaccine  
434 group was boosted with a second dose (**Fig. 2A**). However, high cross-reactive IgG levels  
435 against the KS-91088 virus were detected in sera from WIV vaccinated pigs while the MLV  
436 vaccinated groups produced minimal levels of serum IgG antibodies similar to those of the non-  
437 vaccinated group at 28 dpv (**Fig. 2B**). Previous studies reported similar results such as limited HI  
438 response to heterologous virus strains in vaccinated groups prior to challenge, and more cross-  
439 reactive serum IgG antibodies elicited in WIV vaccine groups when compared to LAIV groups  
440 [17, 46, 50]. Moreover, previous studies found that sera from WIV vaccinated pigs contained  
441 high titers of cross-reactive antibodies against the HA2 domain of a heterologous challenge virus;  
442 this was consistent with high cross-reactive serum IgG levels and low titers of cross-reactive  
443 HA1 antibodies which corresponded with limited HI antibody response and low serum  
444 neutralizing antibodies to a heterologous challenge virus [46]. This suggests that the high cross-  
445 reactive IgG serum antibodies present in WIV vaccinated pigs prior to challenge observed in this  
446 study could reflect the high level of fusion-enhancing HA2 antibodies against the heterologous  
447 challenge virus; in addition, the low levels of heterologous HI titers may correspond to the low  
448 level of virus-neutralizing antibodies. If this is correct, the high anti-HA2 antibodies in WIV  
449 vaccinated pigs might enhance virus replication in epithelial cells and this might result in longer

450 duration as well as higher titers of lung virus replication and nasal virus shedding in the WIV  
451 vaccine group when compared to the MLV groups (**Fig. 4**). The enhanced lung virus replication  
452 may cause the influx of numerous inflammatory immune cells followed by excessive  
453 inflammatory reactions with high pulmonary cytokine/chemokine levels (**Fig. S2**). This scenario  
454 could be the basis for the severe lung damage and the development of VAERD in WIV  
455 vaccinated animals; in contrast, the MLV groups do not develop elevated fusion-enhancing HA2  
456 antibodies and therefore, did not develop VAERD when challenged with a heterologous virus  
457 (**Fig. 3 and Fig. S1**).

458         Several reports have shown that intranasally administered LAIVs are able to elicit  
459 cross-reactive T-cell responses and robust mucosal antibodies which play an important role in  
460 LAIV efficacy for heterologous challenge protection [9, 23, 25, 48, 51, 52]. In this study, MLV  
461 vaccine candidates induced significantly more antigen-specific IFN- $\gamma$  SCs in the blood in  
462 response to heterologous antigen as well as significantly higher levels of cross-reactive IgA  
463 antibodies in BALF compared to WIV vaccinated pigs after challenge; interestingly post-  
464 challenge heterologous HI titers in sera and IgG levels in BALF were similar among all  
465 vaccinated groups (**Fig. 2A and Fig. 5**). This suggests that significant levels of cross-reactive  
466 cell-mediated and mucosal immune responses which were induced by the MLV vaccines might  
467 contribute to providing better cross-protection for heterologous challenge when compared to a  
468 WIV vaccine. Cell-mediated immunity is mediated by T-cell responses including CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cells  
469 and CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cells. Since the majority of T-cell responses are directed towards epitopes which are  
470 highly conserved between different influenza virus strains, T-cell immunity has the potential to  
471 elicit heterologous cross-protective immune responses [53-55]. In pigs, it has been reported that  
472 T-cell mediated immunity conferred cross-protection to heterologous challenge with reduced

473 disease severity [56, 57]. However, bat influenza viruses have a distant genetic relation to  
474 classical IAVs with sharing only 50-70% genetic identity [29, 30]. Therefore, the degree of  
475 conservation of viral epitopes between bat influenza viruses and conventional IAVs and whether  
476 viral proteins of bat influenza viruses are able to induce cell-mediated immunity as well as cross-  
477 protection to classical IAV infection remains to be investigated. The present study demonstrated  
478 that the novel MLV vaccine candidates were able to elicit robust cross-reactive IgA antibodies in  
479 BALF even with a single intranasal vaccination (**Fig. 5C**). Since IgG antibody levels in BALF  
480 were similar between all vaccine groups, mucosal cross-reactive IgA antibodies were most likely  
481 crucial for the local immunity in lungs to limit virus replication and reduce lung pathology under  
482 heterologous challenge conditions (**Fig. 3 and Fig. 4A**). This is an agreement with other studies  
483 which showed an important role of local IgA immunity induced by intranasally administered  
484 LAIVs for SIV challenge infections [9, 25, 46, 48]. In a previous study, Masic *et al.* described  
485 that a two dose LAIV vaccination was able to induce increased antigen-specific serum HI, IgG  
486 and mucosal IgA antibodies compared to a one dose of intranasal LAIV vaccination [48].  
487 Therefore, further studies will be needed to investigate whether a boosting regimen of bat  
488 influenza vectored MLV vaccine candidates can induce improved immune responses and a better  
489 protection from subsequent SIV infection in pigs when compared to a single dose regimen.

490 IL-18 which is secreted from macrophages, neutrophils, dendritic cells, T cells and  
491 epithelial cells and has been shown to up-regulate IFN- $\gamma$  expression by activating natural killer  
492 (NK) cells as well as T lymphocytes [36, 38]. Previous studies have demonstrated that influenza  
493 virus infection can induce IL-18 expression in human alveolar macrophages and IL-18  
494 expression was necessary for optimal cytokine production and adequate protection against  
495 influenza infections [37, 38, 58-60]. In addition, one recent study reported that mucosal

496 associated invariant T cells (MAITs) were activated and produced antiviral effectors including  
497 IFN- $\gamma$  via a IL-18 dependent mechanism during influenza infection and contributed to antiviral  
498 influenza immunity [61]. However, IL-18 expression in young piglets up to one month old is  
499 significantly reduced at their respiratory mucosal epithelium, which is the major infection site of  
500 IAVs [62]. Therefore, we hypothesized that exogenous IL-18 expression in conjunction with  
501 vaccine administration may help to provide enhanced protective immunity by inducing strong  
502 CMI response to SIV infection and we investigated the immunomodulatory effects of rpIL-18  
503 which was incorporated into the MLV2 vaccine. However, no significant difference was  
504 observed in vaccine efficacy between two MLV vaccine candidates, regardless of rpIL-18  
505 expression. We assume that the MLV2 virus (Bat09:mH3mN2-NS1-128-IL-18) did not replicate  
506 as efficiently as needed to express enough IL-18 to show an obvious functional effect of IL-18  
507 (**Fig. 1C and 1D**). Further studies will be required to investigate the effect of IL-18 on vaccine  
508 efficacy using less attenuated MLVs, a higher dose of vaccine or a booster regimen.

509 In this present study, we developed two new MLV candidate vaccines using attenuated  
510 chimeric bat influenza virus as a vaccine vector and clearly demonstrated their protective  
511 immunity against SIV infection. One advantage of bat influenza vectored MLV vaccines is the  
512 mode of intranasal immunization which mimics natural infection. It induces not only protective  
513 local immunity including IgA production at the site of natural IAV infection but also a broad  
514 cross-protective CMI without causing VAERD. The major concern of LAIV vaccination is the  
515 risk of gene reassortment with circulating strains and the generation of novel IAVs. However,  
516 chimeric bat influenza viruses have not been able to reassort with conventional IAVs by co-  
517 infection experiments and no reassortment of genomic segments between the MLVs used here  
518 and the challenge virus was observed in BALF [33-35]. This indicates that bat influenza vectored

519 MLV vaccines can be used as safe and efficacious vaccine vectors without the potential risk of  
520 gene reassortment with conventional IAVs. Additionally, some internal viral proteins of bat  
521 influenza viruses have been shown to be functionally compatible with conventional IAV proteins  
522 by reverse genetics [33-35, 63]. Thus, we anticipate that some conserved viral epitopes of bat  
523 influenza viruses in the MLV vaccines could induce some degree of cross-reactive immunity;  
524 other vectored vaccines can express only a limited number of viral proteins mainly related to  
525 inducing neutralizing antibodies, such as HA or NA [25]. Taken together, bat influenza vectored  
526 MLV candidate vaccines provided protective immunity against heterologous challenge and can  
527 be used as safe and efficacious live virus vaccines to prevent swine influenza infections in pigs  
528 and might be also used in other species.

529

530 **Conclusions:** Novel MLV vaccines using an attenuated chimeric bat influenza virus were able to  
531 reduce virus replication and pathology in lungs, and nasal shedding following a heterologous  
532 virus challenge and induce robust mucosal and T-cell immune responses in pigs without VAERD.  
533 These results demonstrate that bat influenza vectored MLV vaccines are effective and safe to  
534 protect swine from SIV infection without risks of VAERD and reassortment.

535

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544

545 **Author contribution**

546 WM conceived and designed the experiments. JL, YL, YL, AGC, MD, YL, JM, SS, JAR and  
547 WM performed the experiments. JL, DB, AGC, JAR and WM analyzed the data. JL and WM  
548 wrote the paper with input from all other authors.

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### 753 **Figure Legends**

754 **Fig 1. Generation and characterization of MLVs.** (A) Chimeric bat influenza virus  
755 (Bat09:mH3mH2) which contains six internal genes from the H17N10 A/little yellow-shouldered  
756 bat/Guatemala/164/2009 (Bat09) (black bars) and has coding regions of HA and NA from TX98  
757 H3N2 (A/swine/Texas/4199-2/1998, TX98) with Bat09 packaging signals (white bars) was used  
758 as replicative vaccine vector to generate MLVs. (B) Wild type NS segment of Bat09:mH3mH2  
759 virus was modified to generate attenuated MLVs. Truncated NS1 protein with 128 amino acids is  
760 expressed as a single polyprotein with 2A autoproteolytic cleavage site and NEP. NEP protein is  
761 released from NS1 protein during translation. The rpIL-18 was incorporated between NS1 and  
762 NEP proteins via GSGG, GSG linkers and 2A autoproteolytic cleavage site. Splice acceptor site  
763 was mutated to inhibit splicing. SD: splice donor site, SA: splice acceptor site. (C) Replication  
764 kinetics of recombinant viruses in MDCK cells infected at an MOI of 0.001. Each data point on

765 the curve indicates the means of the results in triplicate, and the error bars indicate standard  
766 errors of the mean (SEM). (D) The expression of rpIL-18 with truncated NS1 protein in MLV2  
767 was determined by western blotting analysis from virus infected MDCK cells. Negative control  
768 was mock infected control.

769 **Fig 2. Serum antibody responses in pigs after vaccination.** (A) Geometric mean reciprocal  
770 titers of hemagglutination inhibition (HI) antibodies to heterologous challenge virus (KS-91088)  
771 were determined in sera from all pigs following vaccination and challenge. The reported HI titers  
772 are the average titers for each group. (B) At 28 dpv, serum samples were collected from all pigs  
773 to evaluate the serum IgG levels against KS-91088 virus using a whole-virus ELISA assay.  
774 Antibody levels were analyzed by average of each triplicate sample and reported as the mean of  
775 OD values of each group. The error bars indicate standard errors of the mean (SEM). The  
776 asterisks (\*) represent a statistically significant difference between groups (\*:  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*:  $p < 0.01$   
777 and \*\*\*:  $p < 0.001$ ).

778 **Fig 3. Macroscopic lung lesions in pigs after challenge.** (A) Ventral surfaces of lungs from  
779 representative pigs in each group at 3 dpc are shown. (B) Macroscopic lung lesions of challenged  
780 pigs are presented as the average percentage  $\pm$  SEM of gross lesions of three pigs in each group  
781 at 3 and 5 dpc. The asterisks (\*) represent a statistically significant difference between groups (\*:  
782  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*:  $p < 0.01$  and \*\*\*:  $p < 0.001$ ).

783 **Fig 4. Virus replication in BALF and nasal shedding in nasal swabs after challenge.** Mean  
784 of virus titers in BALF (A) and in nasal swabs (B) from challenged pigs were evaluated on the  
785 days indicated. Virus titers were determined by calculating the 50% tissue culture infective dose  
786 (TCID<sub>50</sub>)/ml in MDCK cells. The number of pigs with positive virus isolation out of the total

787 number of tested pigs is presented above of each bar. The asterisks (\*) represent a statistically  
788 significant difference between groups (\*:  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*:  $p < 0.01$  and \*\*\*:  $p < 0.001$ ).

789 **Fig 5. Antigen-specific T-cell response in PBMCs and antibody response to heterologous**  
790 **challenge virus in BLAF at 5 dpc.** (A) PBMCs were collected from pigs at 5 dpc and ELISPOT  
791 assay was performed to detect antigen-specific IFN- $\gamma$  secreting cells (IFN- $\gamma$  SCs) which respond  
792 to heterologous KS-91088 antigen. The average numbers of counted spots for triplicates well of  
793 individual sample were used to present the data of the mean numbers of each group. Levels of  
794 KS-91088 specific IgG (B) and IgA (C) antibodies in BALF at 5 dpc were evaluated by ELISA.  
795 Antibody levels were analyzed by average of each triplicate sample and expressed as the mean of  
796 OD values of each group. The error bars indicate standard errors of the mean (SEM). The  
797 asterisks (\*) represent a statistically significant difference between groups (\*:  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*:  $p < 0.01$   
798 and \*\*\*:  $p < 0.001$ ).

#### 799 **Supplemental Figure legends**

800 **Fig S1. Microscopic lesions of lung and trachea in pigs at 5 dpc.** Microscopic scores of lung  
801 (A) and trachea (B) are presented as mean scores  $\pm$  SEM of pig in each group at 5 dpc. The  
802 asterisks (\*) represent a statistically significant difference between groups (\*:  $p < 0.05$ ). (C) Lung  
803 and trachea sections of pigs at 5 dpc were stained with H&E. Lungs from pigs in MLVs groups  
804 are moderately affected and contain few infiltrates of inflammatory cells within the lumen of  
805 airways and mild to moderate lymphocytic and plasmacytic peribronchiolar cuffing (red  
806 asterisks). Lungs from pigs in WIV and NV-control groups are severely affected with infiltrates  
807 of inflammatory cells intermixed with fibrin and edema fluid within the lumen of airways and  
808 marked peribronchiolar cuffing of lymphocytes, plasma cells, and neutrophils (red asterisks) that  
809 are migrating through the epithelium. The airway epithelium is markedly attenuated and

810 degenerated (arrows). Trachea from MLV2 immunized pig is mildly affected with little  
811 perivascular infiltrates of lymphocytes and plasma cells. The mucosa is normal. Tracheal mucosa  
812 of pigs in MLV1 and NV-control groups are moderately hyperplastic (M) and there are moderate  
813 infiltrates of lymphocytes and plasma cells in the lamina propria (red asterisk). In WIV group,  
814 the mucosa of the trachea is severely attenuated (arrow) and there is infiltration of lymphocytes  
815 and plasma cells in the lamina propria which extends deep to the glands (red arrow) with  
816 transepithelial migration of inflammatory cells. Bars = 20  $\mu$ m.

817 **Fig S2. Cytokine and chemokine levels in BALF after challenge.** The expression levels of  
818 porcine cytokine/chemokines in BALF following challenge were quantified using the Luminex  
819 technology. Data represent the average values  $\pm$  SEM of pigs in each group on the days indicated.  
820 The asterisks (\*) indicate a statistically significant difference between virus infected groups (\*:  
821  $p < 0.05$ . \*\*:  $p < 0.01$  and \*\*\*:  $p < 0.001$ ).











