

Surface displayed porcine epidemic diarrhea virus membrane epitopes on *Lactiplantibacillus plantarum* stimulates antibody production in mice

Jong Pyo Chae^{1,2#}, Robie Vasquez^{1#}, Ji Hoon Song¹, Edward A. Pajarillo^{1,3}, In-Chan Hwang^{1,4}, Dae-Kyung Kang^{1*}

¹Department of Animal Biotechnology, Dankook University, Cheonan 31116, Korea

²Application center, CJ Blossom Park, Suwon 16495, Korea

³Department of Pharmaceutical Science, College of Pharmacy and Pharmaceutical Sciences, Florida A&M University, Tallahassee, Florida 32307, USA

⁴Department of Microbiology, Tumor and Cell Biology, Centre for Translational Microbiome Research (CTMR), Karolinska Institutet, Stockholm 17165, Sweden



Received: Apr 30, 2024

Revised: Jul 1, 2024

Accepted: Jul 10, 2024

#These authors contributed equally to this work.

*Corresponding author

Dae-Kyung Kang

Department of Animal Biotechnology, Dankook University, Cheonan, 31116, Korea

Tel: +82-41-550-3655

E-mail: dkkang@dankook.ac.kr

Copyright © 2025 Korean Society of Animal Science and Technology.

This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution Non-Commercial License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/>) which permits unrestricted non-commercial use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

ORCID

Jong Pyo Chae

<https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5823-0894>

Robie Vasquez

<https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2878-9125>

Ji Hoon Song

<https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0027-7416>

Edward A. Pajarillo

Abstract

Porcine epidemic diarrhea virus (PEDV) causes enteric disease in pigs, characterized by vomiting and watery diarrhea, and has a major economic burden on the global pork industry. The objective of this study was to develop a new surface display system for PEDV antigens fused with a cell wall-anchoring domain, using *Lactiplantibacillus plantarum* as a host. The B-cell epitopes of the PEDV membrane (M) protein epitopes, designated as M1, M2, and M3, generated by online prediction tools, were stably expressed and displayed in *Lp. plantarum* SK156 and verified by immunofluorescence microscopy. Stimulation of porcine intestinal epithelial cells (IPEC-J2) with the surface displayed M epitopes resulted in elevated production of interferon (IFN)- γ and interleukin (IL)-10. To investigate the immunogenicity of the M epitopes, 30 female BALB/c mice (n = 6 per group) were orally administered *Lp. plantarum* displaying M1, M2, or M3 epitopes and wild-type *Lp. plantarum*, or phosphate buffered saline (PBS). On days 21 and 35, mice immunized with the M1 epitope showed consistently high levels of antigen-specific secretory immunoglobulin (Ig)-A and serum IgG, demonstrating the induction of both mucosal and humoral immune responses. However, no changes were observed in the cytokine profiles of the immunized mice. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first report of PEDV M epitopes on the surface of lactic acid bacteria (LAB). Our findings highlight the immunogenic potential of the PEDV M protein and the possibility of further research on the development of a *Lactobacillus*-based oral vaccine against PEDV infection.

Keywords: Surface display, Mucosal vaccine, *Lactobacillus*, Porcine epidemic diarrhea virus (PEDV), Membrane protein

<https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5044-7607>
In-Chan Hwang
<https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8268-989X>
Dae-Kyung Kang
<https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9241-1250>

Competing interests

No potential conflict of interest relevant to this article was reported.

Funding sources

This work was supported by Basic Science Research Program through the National Research Foundation of Korea (NRF) funded by the Ministry of Education (NRF-RS-2023-00275307). It was also supported by Korea Institute of Planning and Evaluation for Technology in Food, Agriculture and Forestry (IPET) through Agricultural Microbiome R&D Program for Advancing Innovative Technology Program, funded by Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Rural Affairs (MAFRA) (RS-2024-0040347740982119420101).

Acknowledgements

Not applicable.

Availability of data and material

Upon reasonable request, the datasets of this study can be available from the corresponding author.

Authors' contributions

Conceptualization: Kang DK.
Data curation: Chae JP, Vasquez R.
Formal analysis: Chae JP, Vasquez R.
Methodology: Kang DK.
Investigation: Chae JP, Vasquez R, Song JH, Pajarillo EA, Hwang IC.
Writing - original draft: Chae JP, Vasquez R, Kang DK.
Writing - review & editing: Chae JP, Vasquez R, Song JH, Pajarillo EA, Hwang IC, Kang DK.

Ethics approval and consent to participate

Animal experimental protocols were approved by the Institutional Animal Ethics Committee of Dankook University, Korea (DKU-16-038).

INTRODUCTION

Porcine epidemic diarrhea (PED) is a highly contagious enteric disease characterized by acute symptoms such as watery diarrhea associated with vomiting and dehydration [1,2]. The most severe signs have been reported in piglets less than two weeks old, in which diarrhea leads to severe dehydration and is associated with mortality rates of up to 100% in affected litters [3,4]. PED is mainly caused by the porcine epidemic diarrhea virus (PEDV), a member of the family Coronaviridae, and is characterized by a positive-sense, enveloped single-stranded RNA virus [1,4]. PEDV contains a 28 kb positive-sense single-stranded RNA genome with a 5' cap and 3' polyadenylated tail. The PEDV genome encodes structural and non-structural viral proteins, such as spike (S), membrane (M), and nucleocapsid (N) proteins, which are important for viral infection, replication, and immune response evasion [2,5]. Owing to their ability to mount a sufficient immune response, these proteins are crucial for the development of effective vaccines [5]. Live attenuated and inactivated vaccines are the most common immunization methods for PEDV. In contrast, the use of conserved epitopes of pathogen proteins in subunit vaccine design is gaining interest because of its immunogenicity, safety, and cost-effectiveness compared to traditional vaccines [6].

The PEDV M protein, a prevalent component of the viral envelope, is a triple-spanning structural membrane glycoprotein featuring an exterior short amino-terminal domain and an interior long carboxy-terminal domain [2,7]. This protein interacts with the S and N proteins and plays an important role in the assembly of viral particles [8,9]. In addition, antibodies targeting the M protein of coronaviruses are crucial for controlling the course of the disease and inducing protection against the virus [10,11]. Meanwhile B-cell epitopes have been widely used in the development of antibody-based therapies, peptide-based vaccines, and immunodiagnostic tools [9,12]. Progress in B-cell epitope mapping and computational prediction using bioinformatics tools have provided molecular understandings of bio-recognition process and antigen-antibody complex formation, leading to the development of more accurate algorithms for predicting antigen localization. [13]. Identification of epitopes on the PEDV M protein is also valuable for elucidating its antigenic properties [9].

Lactic acid bacteria (LAB) have attracted attention not only because they are safe to use but also for their capability to colonize the intestines, withstand gastric and bile acids, and produce antimicrobial substances [14–19]. Moreover, LAB are considered attractive candidates for mucosal vaccine delivery vehicles owing to their intrinsic adjuvanticity, long history of use in dairy and other fermented foods, and their inclusion in the Generally Recognized as Safe (GRAS) list [20]. The cell surface display of heterologous proteins on LAB is a growing research field that shows great potential for a variety of applications, including the development of live vaccine delivery system, screening peptide libraries, and developing whole-cell biocatalysts [20–22]. Recent research has shown the promising application of LAB as mucosal vaccine delivery vehicles. Hou et al. [23] successfully displayed the PEDV N protein on the surface of *Lactobacillus acidophilus*. Several studies have demonstrated the ability of the core neutralizing epitopes of the PEDV surface displayed proteins on *Lb. casei* and *Lb. johnsonii* to elicit immune response [24–28]. Zang et al. [29] and Li et al. [30] used the S proteins of PEDV and displayed them in *Lb. acidophilus* and *Lb. casei*, respectively.

Although many studies have reported the application of S and N proteins in PEDV, studies exploring the use of M proteins and their immune properties are limited [5]. Moreover, the immunogenicity of surface-displayed PEDV M epitopes in LAB has not been investigated. In this study, we predicted the B-cell epitopes for the PEDV M protein and developed a surface display

platform utilizing the epitopes of the PEDV M protein in *Lactiplantibacillus plantarum* SK156. Innate responses in porcine intestinal epithelial cells (IPECs) and immune responses elicited following oral vaccine administration in mice have also been described.

MATERIALS AND METHOD

Preparation of PEDV M protein and selection of epitopes

Membrane protein sequences of PEDV isolated in Korea (KOR/KNU-141112/2014; GenBank accession no. ADZ76336), Japan (OKY-1/JPN/2014; GenBank accession no. LC063847), China (CH/JSX/06; GenBank accession no. EU033967), and Belgium (CV777; GenBank accession no. AF353511) were accessed from the National Center for Biotechnology Information (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/>), and conserved regions were compared using ClustalW on MEGA6 (<http://www.megasoftware.net/>). Prediction of protein structure was performed using trRosetta web-based tool [31] and evaluated using ProSA-web [32]. Prediction of linear B-cell epitopes were performed using three tools: IEDB Bepipred Linear Epitope Prediction 2.0 tool [33] and SVMTriP [34]. These three tools employ different models, such as the Hidden Markov and Support Vector Machine models, and consider different amino acid propensities and secondary structures to predict B-cell epitopes [35]. In the IEDB tool, other epitope properties such as surface accessibility (Emini surface accessibility) and antigenic propensity (Kolaskar and Tongaonkar antigenicity), were also used to select the epitopes. The results from each tool were compared and the most conserved immunogenic epitopes were chosen for surface display on *Lp. plantarum*.

Design of surface display system in *Lp. plantarum* SK156

Table 1 provides a summary of the bacterial strains and plasmids utilized in this study. *Escherichia coli* DH5 α was propagated in the Luria-Bertani (LB) broth (Difco, Davenport, IA, USA) supplemented with ampicillin (100 μ g/mL) when applicable under shaking conditions at 37°C. The lactobacilli strains were cultivated in the de Mann, Rogosa, and Sharpe (MRS) broth (Difco) and grown without agitation at 37°C. Erythromycin (3 μ g/mL) was added when applicable.

Primers listed in Table 2 were used to amplify the DNA sequences encoding the signal peptide (SP) and cell wall anchor (CWA) domain of surface layer protein A (SlpA) from *Lb. acidophilus* 4356 [36]. Likewise, PEDV epitopes designated as M1, M2, and M3 were amplified from the PEDV strain KVCC-VR0000187 using the primers listed in Table 2. Purified polymerase chain reaction (PCR) products (SP, CWA, and M epitopes) were used to perform recombinant PCR using the primers listed in Table 2. The DNA fragments obtained were designated as SP-M1 epitope-CWA (M1), SP-M2 epitope-CWA (M2), and SP-M3 epitope-CWA (M3) fusion genes.

Table 1. List of strains and plasmids used in this study

Strain or plasmid	Features or sequence	Source or reference
Strains		
<i>Lactiplantibacillus plantarum</i> SK156	Host for transformation, erythromycin resistance- negative	[72]
<i>Lactobacillus acidophilus</i> ATCC 4356	Source of surface layer protein A	[36]
<i>Escherichia coli</i> DH5 α	Host for transformation	TaKaRa Bio (Japan)
Plasmids		
pULP3:SP:GFP:CWA	pULP2:P _{LDH} with SP+GFP+CWA fusion gene	This study
pULP3:SP:M1:CWA	pULP2:P _{LDH} with SP+PEDV M protein epitope 1+CWA fusion gene	This study
pULP3:SP:M2:CWA	pULP2:P _{LDH} with SP+PEDV M protein epitope 2+CWA fusion gene	This study
pULP3:SP:M3:CWA	pULP2:P _{LDH} with SP+PEDV M protein epitope 3+CWA fusion gene	This study

The fusion genes and pULP3 were digested with *Pst*I and *Hind*III, respectively, and ligated with T4 DNA ligase (TaKaRa Bio) for bacterial transformation. *E. coli* DH5 α transformation was done following previous protocol [21]. *Lactobacillus* transformation was performed using electroporation as described by Chae et al. [37]. Transformants were selectively grown using the appropriate media: LB agar with ampicillin (100 μ g/mL) or erythromycin (150 μ g/mL) for *E. coli*, and MRS agar supplemented with erythromycin (3 μ g/mL) for *Lp. plantarum* strain. The transformants were grown at 37°C for 12–18 h (*E. coli*), or 48–72 h (*Lp. plantarum*).

Overexpression in *E. coli* and western blot

The expression of the PEDV M epitope was determined as previous protocol [21]. Briefly, recombinant *E. coli* BL21 (DE3) cells carrying the M epitope genes (optical density [O.D.₆₀₀] = 0.6) were overexpressed by adding 0.1 mM isopropyl- β -D-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG) and incubated at 25°C for 6 h. Then, the cells were centrifuged at 10,000 \times g for 10 min and resuspended in Tris-Cl buffer (50 mM Tris, pH 8.0). Cells were lysed using a probe-tipped sonicator (Vibra-Cell) set at 30% amplitude 15 times for 10 s each with 10-s interval on ice. The suspension was centrifuged at 13,000 \times g for 20 min and the pellet was collected and washed twice with lysis buffer. The pellets were solubilized in 8 M urea. Protein purification was performed using Ni-NTA agarose-packed columns (Qiagen). For western blotting, the purified proteins were separated on a 12% polyacrylamide gel. Proteins were subsequently transferred to nitrocellulose membranes (Bio-Rad). After blotting, the membrane was washed with 1 \times Tris-buffered saline containing 0.1% Tween 20 (TBST) and blocked with 5% bovine serum albumin (BSA; R&D Systems) in TBST for 1 h at room temperature. Monoclonal anti-His antibody (1:20,000 dilution in TBST with 5% BSA) was added and incubated overnight at 4°C. The membrane was washed with TBST before incubation with horseradish peroxidase (HRP)-conjugated goat anti-mouse IgG (1:20,000 dilution in TBST with 5% BSA) (Thermo Scientific) for 1 h at room temperature. Proteins were detected using the SuperSignal West Pico Chemiluminescent Substrate kit (Thermo Scientific) and observed using ChemiDoc XRS+ and Image Lab software (Bio-Rad).

Table 2. List of primers, their sequences, and restriction sites used in this study

Primers (5' to 3')	Sequence	Restriction site
SPF-PstI-F	GCT CGT CTG CAG ATG AAG AAA AAT TTA AGA AT	<i>Pst</i> I
SP-FM1-R	GTA CAT AAT CCA TGA TGA ACT TGC GTT	
SP-FM2-R	AGC ATC AGT TTC TGA TGA ACT TGC GTT	
SP-FM3-R	AGC ATC AGT TTC TGA TGA ACT TGC GTT	
CWA-FM1-F	CAT TCA TGG TGG AAG TCA GCT ACT TTG CCA	<i>Hind</i> III
CWA-FM2-F	ATT CCA GTT TTA AAG TCA GCT ACT TTG CCA	
CWA-FM3-F	TCA AAC GGT CGT AAG TCA GCT ACT TTG CCA	
CWA-HindIII-R	ACC AAG CTT TTA TCT AAA GTT TGC AAC	
CWAHis-HindIII-R	ACC AAG CTT TTA GTG GTG GTG GTG GTG TCT AAA GTT TGC AAC	<i>Hind</i> III
M1sd-F	GCA AGT TCA TCA TGG ATT ATG TAC TTC	<i>Hind</i> III
M2sd-F	GCA AGT TCA TCA GAA ACT GAT GCT TTA	
M3sd-F	GCA AGT TCA TCA TTA GGT ACT GTT	
M1sd-R	AGT AGC TGA CTT CCA CCA TGA ATG AGT	
M2sd-R	AGT AGC TGA CTT TAA AAC TCC AAT ACG	
M3sd-R	AGT AGC TGA CTT ACG ACC GTT TGA	

These primers were designed exclusively for this study.

Expression of PEDV M epitopes on the surface of *Lp. plantarum* SK156

Recombinant *Lp. plantarum* SK156 was incubated overnight in MRS broth with erythromycin (3 µg/mL). The immunofluorescence assay was performed according to Hwang et al. [38]. Briefly, cells were incubated and grown at 37°C for 12 h and then harvested by centrifugation. Subsequently, the cells were washed with chilled phosphate buffered saline (PBS; pH 7.4) and reconstituted in an equivalent volume of the same buffer. Multi-well glass slides were prepared, and 10 µL poly L-lysine solution (0.1% w/v; Sigma-Aldrich) was added to each well. The mixtures were incubated for 1 h and the liquid was aspirated off. The cells were washed once with sterile distilled water and air dried. The cells were treated and rinsed with PBS containing 0.1% (v/v) Tween-20 (PBST, pH 7.4), then blocked with 2% (w/v) BSA in PBST buffer for 30 min at room temperature. The solution was then aspirated off and 10 µL of diluted (1:200) primary antibody (anti-HisTag antibody; R&D Systems) dissolved in 2% BSA with PBST buffer was added. The slide was incubated overnight at 4°C and washed with PBST. Subsequently, the cells were incubated with secondary antibody in PBST (NorthernLights Anti-mouse IgG-NL557; R&D Systems) with 2% BSA for 1 h at room temperature in the dark. The secondary antibody solution was decanted and washed thrice with PBST for 5 min each in the dark. Finally, the bacterial cells were reconstituted in a mounting solution. The cells were viewed under a fluorescence microscope (ProgRes C10 plus with Intensilight C-HGFI; Nikon) equipped with a 570 nm filter.

Immune response in IPEC-J2 cells

IPEC-J2 was grown using Dulbecco's modified Eagle medium (DMEM; Gibco) in a humidified atmosphere with 5% CO₂ at 37°C [39]. The IPEC-J2 cells were seeded in 24-well plates and allowed to reach at least 90% confluence. Cell concentration was determined using 0.4% trypan blue viability staining. The wild-type and recombinant *Lp. plantarum* SK156 displaying M epitopes on its surface were prepared at approximately 2.5×10^7 CFU/mL and re-suspended in DMEM. Bacterial cells were incubated with IPEC-J2 cells for 2 h. Later, cell culture supernatant was collected and stored at -70°C until assayed.

Oral immunization with surface displayed PEDV M epitopes in mice

The Institutional Animal Ethics Committee of Dankook University in Korea approved all animal experimental procedures (DKU-16-038). Thirty (30) female, specific pathogen-free BALB/c mice (8-weeks old) were purchased (Raonbio, Yongin, Korea) and adapted to the laboratory environment for 1 week (Fig. 5A). The animal room had a 12-h light-dark cycle and kept at 22°C–25°C with 45%–50% relative humidity. Mice were given unrestricted access to a standard pellet diet (Envigo) and sterilized distilled water. After acclimatization, the mice were randomly divided into five groups (six mice per group, three mice per cage). Immunization was performed by oral gavage (0.1 mL) containing PBS only (pH 7.4, control), wild-type *Lp. plantarum* SK156 without M epitopes in PBS (SK156), and 2×10^9 *Lp. plantarum* SK156 cells expressing PEDV M epitopes (M1, M2, or M3). Oral immunization was performed for three consecutive days, on days 0–2, 14–16 (first booster), and 28–30 (second booster). Blood samples were collected from the tail vein on days 0 (pre-immune), 21, and 35. Serum samples from freshly collected blood were prepared by allowing the blood to clot for 15 min at room temperature undisturbed, then centrifuged at 2,000×g for 10 min at 4°C. Feces (200 mg) were collected from the anus of the mice, then suspended in 400 µL of PBS with 0.01 M EDTA-Na₂. The feces suspension was incubated overnight at 4°C, then centrifuged. The pellet was discarded, and the supernatants were stored at -70°C.

Detection of cytokines and antigen-specific antibodies with enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay

The levels of cytokines, including tumor necrosis factor (TNF)- α , interferon (IFN)- γ , and interleukin (IL)-10 in cell culture supernatant, and IL-4, IL-6, and IL-10 in mice sera was detected with enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) kits as per manufacturer's instructions (R&D Systems). A standard curve was created to calculate cytokine concentrations using seven step 2-fold dilutions. The antibody response was evaluated by measuring the production of secretory immunoglobulin (Ig)-A and IgG following our previous protocol [38]. Briefly, wells of a 96-well plate were coated with 100 μ L recombinant PEDV M epitopes expressed in *E. coli* (3 μ g/mL final concentration) and incubated overnight at 4°C. The plates were then blocked with 3% BSA at 37°C for 1 h. After washing with PBST, 100 μ L of immunized mice serum (1:200 diluted) was added to the wells then incubated for 1 h at 37°C. HRP-conjugated goat anti-mouse IgA or IgG antibody (dilution 1:10000 at 37°C, Invitrogen Corporation, Carlsbad, CA, USA) was used to detect titers of IgA and IgG followed by the addition of 3, 3', 5, 5'-tetramethylbenzidine (TMB). Sulfuric acid (0.5 N) was added to each well to stop the reaction. The plate was immediately measured using an ELISA plate reader (SpectraMax M2e; Molecular Devices, San Jose, CA, USA) at an O.D. of 450 nm.

Statistical analysis

Assays were performed in triplicate. All results are reported as mean \pm SD. Statistical significance was calculated using one-way ANOVA followed with Tukey's post-hoc test or Kruskal-Wallis followed with Dunn's post-hoc test in GraphPad Prism (v.8.4.2), whichever is appropriate. Statistical significance was achieved for all analyses with a *p*-value less than 0.05.

RESULTS

Epitope selection and surface display of PEDV M epitopes in *Lp. plantarum* SK156

Alignment of M proteins from different PEDV strains showed that the M protein from PEDV strains from Korea (KOR/KNU-141112/2014) has 98.67% and 97.35% similarity to the PEDV strains from Belgium and China, and Japan, respectively (Fig. 1). Conserved regions among these M proteins were considered for B cell epitope prediction. Using Bepipred 2.0 and SVMTrip, several sequences from the M protein of KOR/KNU-141112/2014 strain were predicted. Surface accessibility and epitope antigenicity were also determined to further select candidate epitopes for the surface display experiment. Among the predicted sequences, three candidates were selected and designated as M1 (WIMWYVNSIRLWRRTHSWW), M2 (ETDALLTTSVMGRQVRIPVL), and M3 (RSVNASSGTGWAFYVRSKHGDYSA) (Fig. 2A). The localization of each predicted epitopes within the M protein are shown in Fig. 2B. The predicted structure of the M protein, along with the epitopes was evaluated using ProSA web tool, shows comparability among other PEDV M proteins (Figs. 2C and 2D). The cell surface display vector using SP and CWA of the SlpA of *Lb. acidophilus* ATCC 4356 as an anchor was constructed by introducing the genes encoding M1, M2, and M3 into the plasmid pULP3, as shown in Fig. 3A, and then transforming *Lp. plantarum* SK156 via electroporation. To confirm the expression of fusion genes containing M epitopes, proteins were overexpressed in *E. coli* and western blotting was performed. As shown in Fig. 3B, SP-M epitope-CWA fusion proteins with a combined size of approximately 20 kDa were successfully expressed in *E. coli* and detected by western blotting. An immunofluorescence assay was performed to determine the cellular localization of M epitopes in the *Lactobacillus* host. Fig. 3C shows the successful expression and display of all the three M epitopes on the surface of



Fig. 1. Multiple sequence alignment (MSA) of M proteins from different PEDV stains isolated from Korea (KOR-KNU-141112/2014), Belgium (CVV777), China (CH/JSX/06) and Japan (OKY-1/JPN/2014). Conserved regions among the strains were considered for prediction of linear B cell epitopes. MSA performed using MEGA 6 and UniProt Align web tool (<https://www.uniprot.org/align>). PEDV, porcine epidemic diarrhea virus.

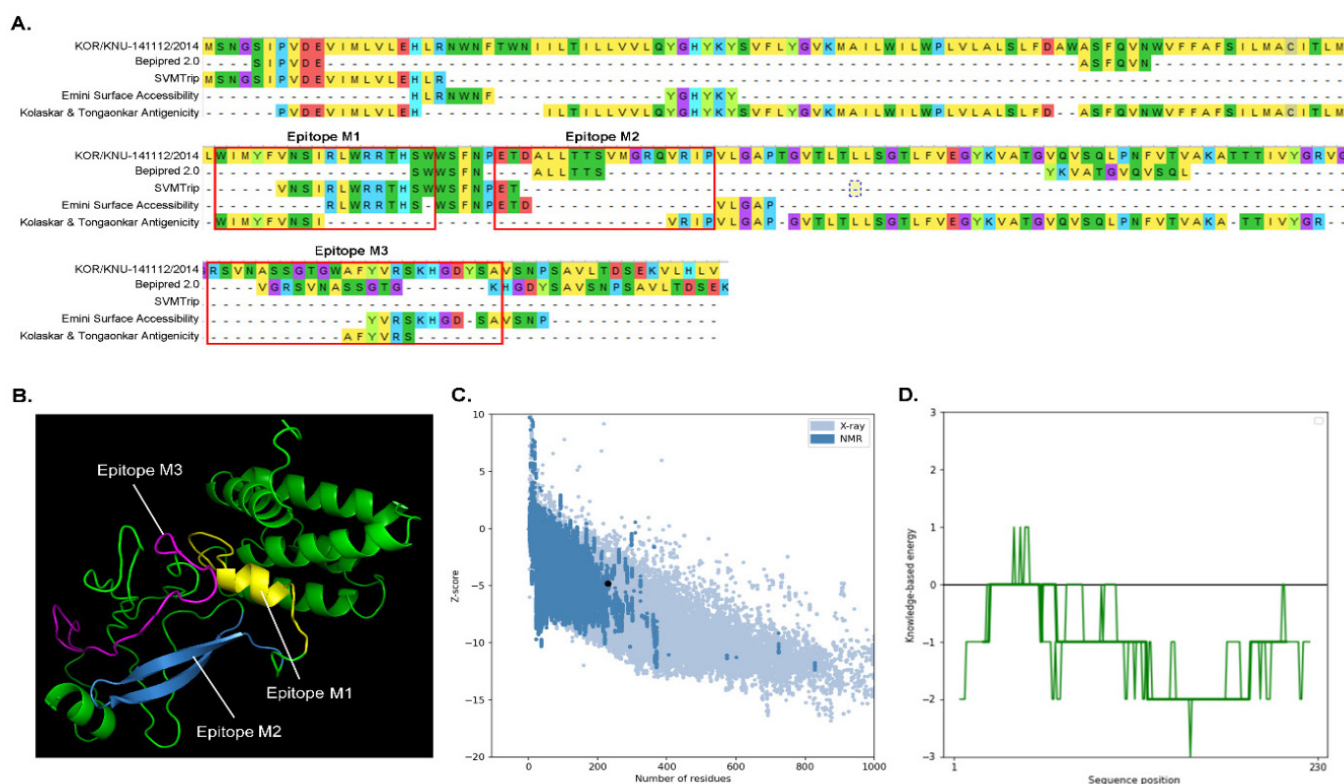


Fig. 2. Selection of linear B-cell epitopes of PEDV M protein. Prediction was performed using Bepipred 2.0 (<http://tools.iedb.org/bcel/>) and SVMTrip (<http://sysbio.unl.edu/SVMTrip/>). (A) Surface accessibility based on Emini scale and epitope antigenicity based on Kolaskar & Tongaonkar prediction were also used to select the epitopes for surface display experiments. (B) 3-D model of PEDV M protein indicating the location of 3 epitopes. (C) Evaluation of the predicted protein structure of PEDV M protein using ProSA-web tool (<https://prosa.services.came.sbg.ac.at/prosa.php>). The overall model quality of the predicted protein structure (black dot) compared with structures from different X-ray and NMR sources (light and dark blue dots, respectively). (D) Residue scores of each amino acid in the sequence (lower values are better).

Lp. plantarum SK156. In contrast, wild-type *Lp. plantarum* SK156 did not exhibit fluorescence, confirming the absence of epitopes of interest on its surface. In addition, brighter fluorescence was observed in *Lp. plantarum* SK156 expressing the M2 epitope compared with the M1 and M3 epitopes, suggesting that the expression efficiency might differ according to the gene of interest.

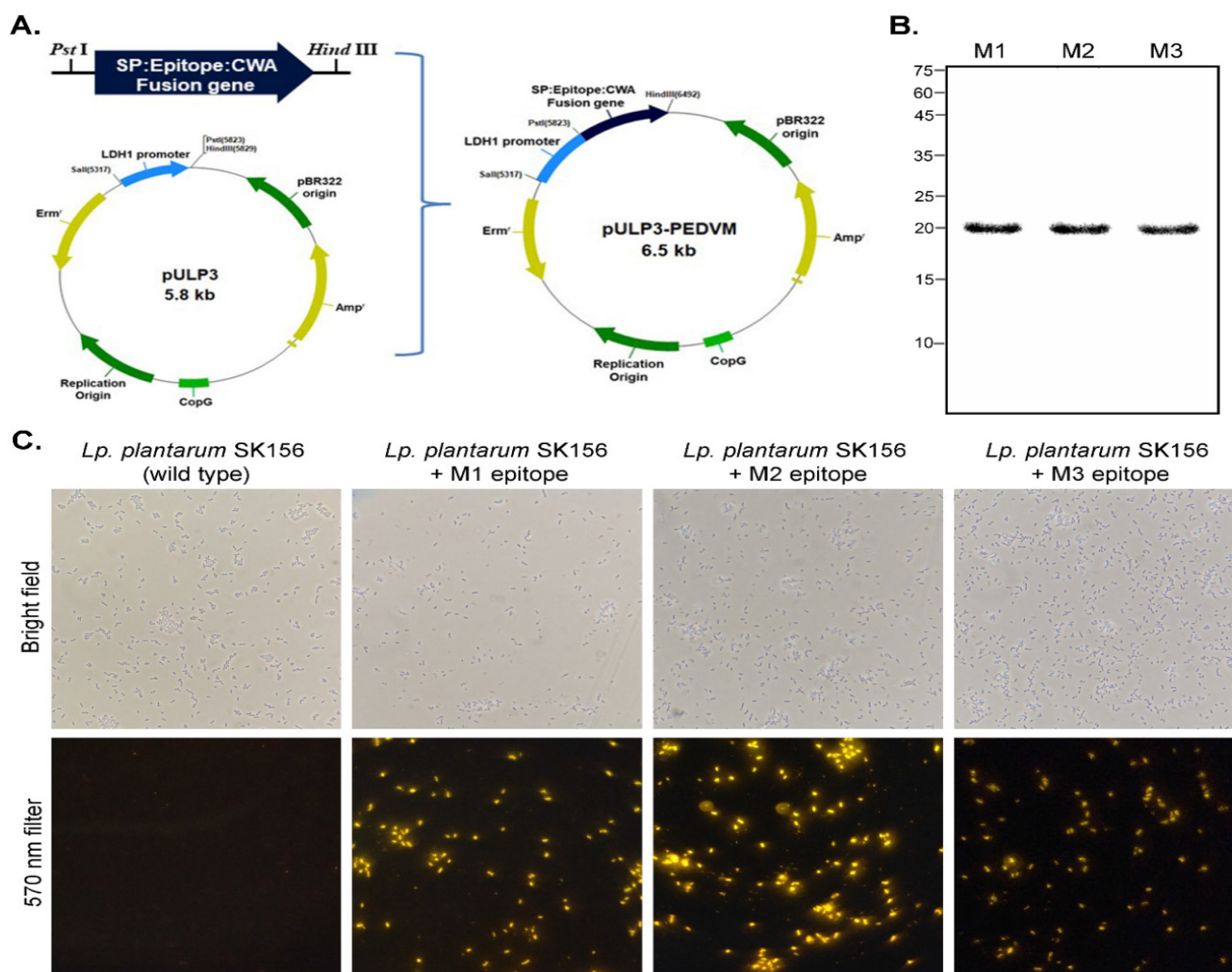


Fig. 3. (A) Vector construction for surface display of PEDV M epitopes in *Lactiplantibacillus plantarum* SK156. (B) Detection of PEDV M epitopes (approximate size: 20 kDa) expressed in *E. coli* using western blotting. (C) Detection of PEDV M epitopes on the surface of *Lp. plantarum* SK156 using immunofluorescence microscopy, indicating successful expression and surface localization of the three epitopes. Erm, erythromycin resistance gene; Amp, ampicillin resistance gene; LDH1, L-lactate dehydrogenase 1; SP, signal peptide; CWA, cell wall-anchoring domain; PEDV, porcine epidemic diarrhea virus.

Immunogenicity of surface-displayed M epitopes in IPEC-J2 cells

Production of pro-inflammatory and anti-inflammatory cytokines following co-incubation of recombinant *Lp. plantarum* displaying M epitopes with IPEC-J2 cells was used to assess the type of immune response elicited by the antigen (Fig. 4). Co-incubation of *Lp. plantarum* displaying M epitopes had no notable effect of the production of TNF- α , regardless of the epitopes. In contrast, *Lp. plantarum* displaying the M1 epitope induced high level production of IFN- γ ($p < 0.05$), whereas M2 or M3 epitopes had no significant effect when compared to the control or the wild-type strain. Interestingly, cells co-incubated with *Lp. plantarum* displaying M epitopes showed a significant increase in IL-10 production compared to cells co-incubated with the control or wild-type *Lp. plantarum* ($p < 0.05$). This indicates that *Lp. plantarum* displaying the M1 phenotype is immunogenic and can elicit both pro- and anti-inflammatory immune responses.

Immunogenicity of surface-displayed M epitopes in mice

The immunogenicity of the PEDV M epitope surface displayed on *Lp. plantarum* SK156 in

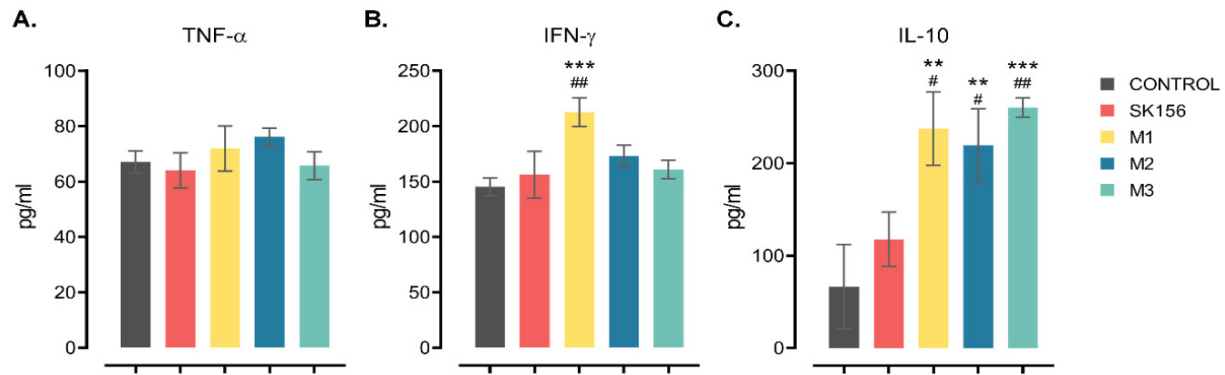


Fig. 4. Cytokine levels in porcine intestinal epithelial cells (IPEC-J2) co-incubated with recombinant *Lactiplantibacillus plantarum* SK156 expressing PEDV M epitopes. (A) TNF- α , (B) IFN- γ , and (C) IL-10 responses in IPEC-J2. Concentrations of TNF- α , IL-10, and IFN- γ in the cell supernatants were detected using ELISA. Data is reported as mean \pm SD. *Significant difference compared to the control. # indicates significant difference compared to the wild-type *Lp. plantarum*. Significant differences were calculated using one-way ANOVA or Kruskal-Wallis with post hoc test, where $p < 0.05$ was considered significant. TNF, tumor necrosis factor; IFN, interferon; IL, interleukin; PEDV, porcine epidemic diarrhea virus; ELISA, enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay.

BALB/c mice was determined by oral immunization (Fig. 5A). The production of antigen-specific antibodies upon immunization was evaluated by ELISA (Figs. 5B and 5C). On day 21, M1 and M2 showed elevated production of fecal sIgA ($p < 0.05$). On day 35, mice immunized with *Lp. plantarum* displaying M1, M2, and M3 epitopes exhibited higher production of sIgA than that of the control and wild-type groups ($p < 0.05$). In contrast, the mice immunized with *Lp. plantarum*, indicated that M1 had higher serum IgG levels ($p < 0.05$) than that of the other groups. On day 35, the M1 and M2 groups had higher serum IgG levels than the control of wild-type group ($p < 0.5$). These results showed that epitope M1 was consistent with mounting significant fecal sIgA and IgG production starting on day 21 and increasing until day 35 post-immunization.

Changes in serum cytokine levels of orally administered recombinant *Lp. plantarum* SK156 expressing M epitopes were analyzed using ELISA (Figs. 5D, 5E, and 5F). Although marginal changes were observed, serum IL-4, IL-6, and IL-10 concentrations were not affected by oral immunization with the surface-displayed M epitopes ($p > 0.05$).

DISCUSSION

PEDV can be transmitted directly through ingestion of contaminated feces or vomit, or indirectly via inhalation of aerosolized PEDV particles [1,2]. Infection is initiated in the mucosal lining of the nasal cavity, where dendritic cells transfer PEDV particles to CD3+ T cells [1,40]. CD3+ T cells carrying viral particles travel to the intestine through the bloodstream [40]. Thereafter, PEDV invades and multiplies in the intestinal mucosa, such as the villous epithelial cells in the small intestine and jejunum, as well as the surface epithelial cells in the cecum and colon [1,2,41]. For the viral attachment and entry into target cells, the S protein recognizes porcine aminopeptidase N (pAPN), a cellular receptor ubiquitous in small intestinal enterocytes, kidneys, and liver cells [42]. Upon infection, villous epithelial cells are destroyed, damaging the intestine and resulting in acute diarrhea and fatalities in piglets [41]. Current vaccination strategies include the use of whole virions, either live-attenuated or inactivated. Subunit vaccines using viral proteins are potential alternatives to whole-virus vaccines. Alternatively, sows can be artificially infected to induce lactogenic immunity if PED vaccines are unavailable [43]. The fate of immunization is also dependent on the route of vaccination; oral vaccination is known to induce enhanced mucosal immunity against

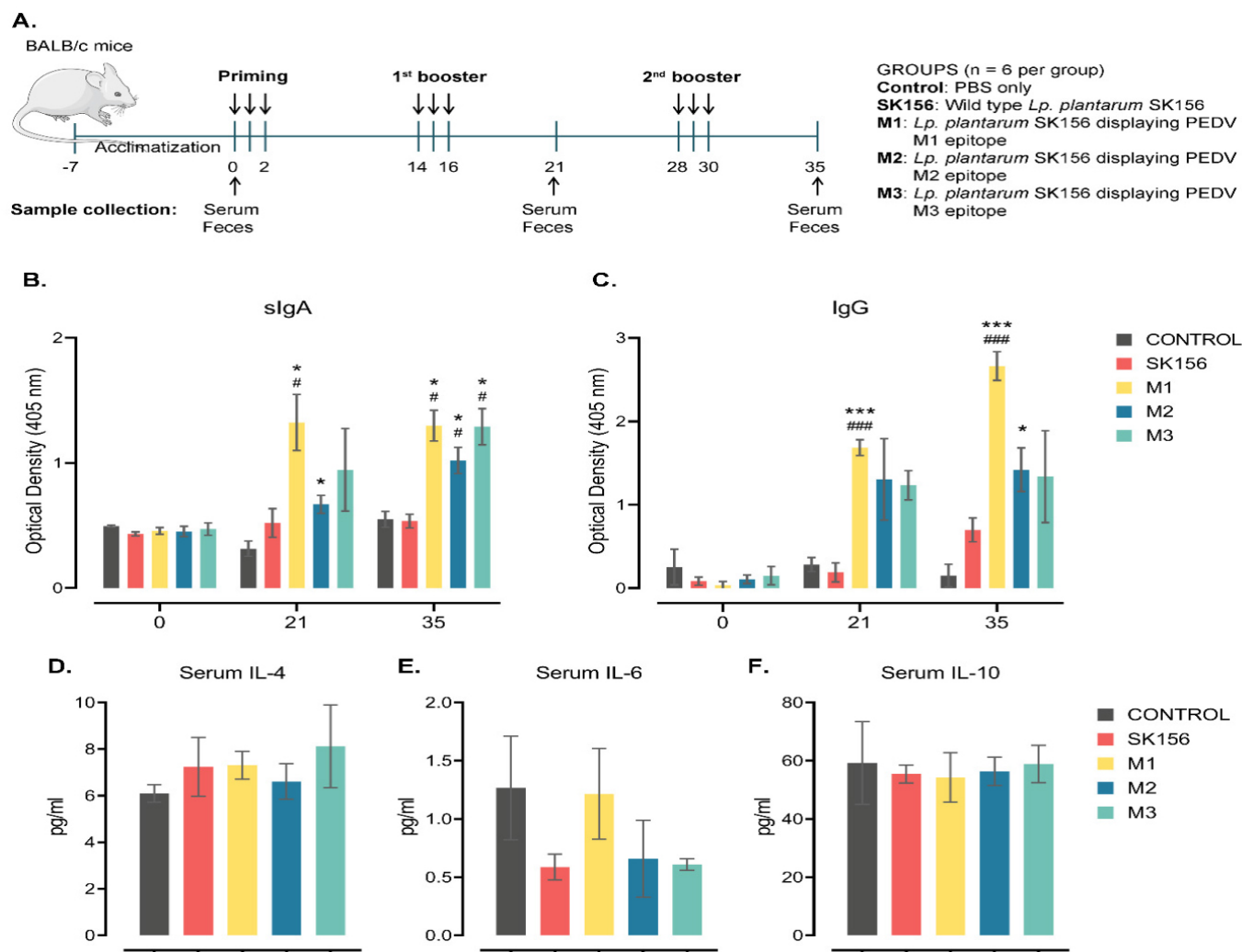


Fig. 5. (A) Schematic diagram for the animal immunization experiment. (B) Secretory IgA and (C) serum IgG responses in mice orally immunized with *Lactiplantibacillus plantarum* SK156 expressing PEDV M antigens. (D) Serum IL-4, (E) IL-6, and (F) IL-10 responses in mice orally immunized with *Lp. plantarum* SK156 expressing PEDV M antigens. Concentrations of secretory IgA, IgG, IL-4, IL-6, IL-10 were detected using ELISA. Data is reported as mean \pm SD. *Significant difference compared to the control. # indicates significant difference compared to the wild-type *Lp. plantarum*. Significant differences were calculated using one-way ANOVA or Kruskal-Wallis with post hoc test, where $p < 0.05$ was considered significant. PEDV, porcine epidemic diarrhea virus; ELISA, enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay; IgA, immunoglobulin A; IgG, immunoglobulin G; IL, interleukin.

enteric viruses compared with systemic injections [44–46]. Regardless of the strategy employed, immunization for PEDV should provide protection against the virus.

The M protein plays an integral role in the viral life cycle. During the viral life cycle, M protein interacts with other structural proteins and is a key protein in the assembly of viral particles and virion budding [47,48]. The M protein also regulates PEDV replication by interacting with various host factors, such as eukaryotic translation initiation factor 3 subunit L (eIF3L), peptidyl-prolyl isomerase D (PPID), and S100 calcium-binding protein A11 (S100A11) [47,49]. The M protein also contributes to the antiviral defense evasion mechanism of PEDV. The host response upon detection of viral particles includes the activation of type I or III IFNs, which act as the first line of defense against viral infection by blocking viral replication and facilitating viral clearance [50]. Porcine enteric viruses, including PEDV, have developed mechanisms to evade and counteract host antiviral responses [51]. The M protein suppresses the production of IFNs, especially IFN- β , thereby interfering with the interferon regulatory factor 3 (IRF3) signaling pathway [2,5,41]. M

protein also exhibits antagonistic activity towards IFN regulatory factor 7 (IRF7), which affects type I IFN production [52]. In addition, the M protein hampers the host immune response by inducing cell cycle arrest at the S phase via the cyclin A pathway [53]. Despite its role in PEDV infection, no subunit vaccine has been developed using the M protein. Nevertheless, because of its conservation among different PEDV strains, M protein is a promising candidate for the development of various detection techniques in diagnostic settings [54,55]. Furthermore, the predicted B-cell epitopes of the PEDV M protein have potential applications in the development of epitope-based vaccines [9,10]. Thus, in this study, three putative B-cell linear epitopes of the PEDV M protein were selected. Using a SP and CWA protein (slpA) from *Lb. acidophilus* ATCC 4356 [36], M epitopes were displayed on *Lp. plantarum* SK156. The surface expression and display of M epitopes were evaluated. Immunofluorescence microscopy confirmed successful surface localization of the PEDV M epitopes on *Lp. plantarum*, verifying the anchorage of the proteins to the cell wall. Hwang et al. [38] successfully displayed SARS-CoV-2 membrane protein epitopes on the surface of *Lp. plantarum* SK156. In addition, the intensity of immunofluorescence on the cell surface showed that the expression levels of PEDV M epitopes exhibited discrepancies among epitopes, suggesting the possibility of differences in expression levels. These results are in line with observations made when the PEDV epitope was displayed in yeast cells [56]. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first report of PEDV M protein epitopes being successfully displayed on the surface of LAB.

To verify whether the expressed putative epitopes were immunoreactive, the cytokine production in IPEC-J2 cells was measured. PEDV epitopes based on M genes induced higher secretion of IFN- γ than that in the control. In addition, IPEC-J2 co-incubated with epitope M1 secreted elevated levels of IL-10. IFN- γ is a proinflammatory cytokine known for its important function in both innate and adaptive immunity against intracellular infections and tumor suppression [57]. IFN- γ enhances antigen processing and presentation, increases leukocyte trafficking, triggers an anti-viral milieu, improves anti-microbial functions, and influences cell growth and cell death. [57–59]. During viral infections, IFN- γ interferes with viral replication and interacts with the viral receptor, resulting in the suppression of virus replication [57,60,61]. It also has been shown that production of IFN- γ after immunization is associated with better immune response against viral infections [62]. Recently, Liu et al. [63] reported that surface-displayed porcine IFN- λ 3 in *Lp. plantarum* inhibits PEDV infection in IPEC-J2 cells. This suggests that a stronger IFN- γ response could correlate with higher survival rates in PEDV-infected pigs, similar to what has been observed in other diseases [58,60,62,64]. In contrast, IL-10 is an anti-inflammatory cytokine, with key immunoregulatory function during viral and microbial infections [65]. IL-10 counteracts the excessive inflammation caused by Th1 and CD8⁺ T cell activities and acts as a signal for hyperinflammation [65,66]. IL-10 plays a crucial role in maintaining a balance between pro-inflammatory and anti-inflammatory immune responses, that is, the efficient eradication of pathogens and avoidance of harmful immune responses to infections [66]. Thus, a balance induction of both IFN- γ and IL-10 is necessary for a more effective immunization.

Vaccination aims to stimulate the generation of neutralizing antibodies. Several studies have highlighted the importance of humoral and mucosal responses to PEDV vaccination [44,45,67,68]. In the current study, we observed high levels of PEDV-specific sIgA and IgG in mice immunized with PEDV M epitopes on days 21 and 35, most notably epitope M1. Secretory IgA is an essential effector molecule that neutralizes exogenous antigens [20]. It is produced mostly in the intestinal mucosa, but has been found to be also dominant in the colostrum and milk [46]. IgG plays an important role in systemic viral clearance and is found in the serum and colostrum [46]. Through the gut-mammary axis, PEDV-specific sIgA produced during immunization can be passed from the sow to the piglets via the sow's milk, supporting the piglet's immunity against PEDV (also

known as lactogenic immunity) [44,46]. Lactogenic immunity is important for inhibiting PEDV replication in the intestines and preventing clinical diseases in piglets. In addition, induction of higher levels of IgA and IgG has been correlated with proper production of neutralizing antibodies [67,69,70]. Although most studies have focused on the S protein of PEDV, the results of the present study are consistent with these data. Oral or intranasal inoculation with recombinant *Lb. casei* expressing PEDV S protein in pregnant sows and mice results in high levels of IgA and IgG [23]. Li et al. [30] have demonstrated that *Lb. casei* expressing PEDV S protein induced higher levels of IgA and IgG production in mice. In another study, mice that were orally administered PEDV S1 and S2 protein-expressing *Lb. acidophilus* had high levels of anti-PEDV-specific IgG and IgA antibodies [29]. Immunization with *Lb. johnsonii* carrying core-neutralizing epitopes of the S protein resulted in high levels of IgA and IgG in pregnant sows and maternal milk, indicating that immunity can be transferred to piglets [25]. This indicates that, similar to other studies, *Lp. plantarum* expressing the PEDV M epitope effectively induces the production of sufficient protective antibodies against PEDV infection.

However, we observed negligible changes in the cytokine profiles of the mice immunized with *Lp. plantarum* expressing the PEDV M epitopes. This is contradictory to the IPEC-J2 results in this study, where high IFN- γ and IL-10 levels were observed. In other studies using PEDV-S protein, immunization led to higher levels of IL-4, IL-6, and IL-10 [25,29,30]. Several factors can be attributed to the observations in this study, such as the type of vaccine or epitope used, dose, timing of measurement, and the specific cytokines being measured [71]. Thus, further careful examination of the effects of immunization using surface-displayed PEDV M epitopes on cellular immune responses is necessary.

CONCLUSION

In this study, a surface display system for the heterologous expression of PEDV M epitopes on *Lp. plantarum* was constructed and the display of the M epitopes was successfully demonstrated. Moreover, *Lp. plantarum* displaying the M1 epitope elicited elevated production of IFN- γ and IL-10 in IPEC-J2 cells and high levels of antigen-specific antibodies in mice. The results of the present study highlight the application of surface display in lactobacilli as a potential antigen delivery vector, and the capability of the PEDV M protein as an immunogen to develop candidate vaccines for PEDV. Understanding the protective capability of this response during a challenge is an interesting approach for future research.

REFERENCES

1. Jung K, Saif LJ, Wang Q. Porcine epidemic diarrhea virus (PEDV): an update on etiology, transmission, pathogenesis, and prevention and control. *Virus Res.* 2020;286:198045. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.virusres.2020.198045>
2. Zhang Y, Chen Y, Zhou J, Wang X, Ma L, Li J, et al. Porcine epidemic diarrhea virus: an updated overview of virus epidemiology, virulence variation patterns and virus–host interactions. *Viruses.* 2022;14:2434. <https://doi.org/10.3390/v14112434>
3. Kim HB, Lee CY, Kim SJ, Han JH, Choi KH. Medicinal herb extracts ameliorate impaired growth performance and intestinal lesion of newborn piglets challenged with the virulent porcine epidemic diarrhea virus. *J Anim Sci Technol.* 2015;57:33. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40781-015-0065-1>
4. Carvajal A, Argüello H, Martínez-Lobo FJ, Costillas S, Miranda R, de Nova PJG, et al.

- Porcine epidemic diarrhoea: new insights into an old disease. *Porc Health Manag.* 2015;1:12. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40813-015-0007-9>
5. Li Z, Ma Z, Li Y, Gao S, Xiao S. Porcine epidemic diarrhea virus: molecular mechanisms of attenuation and vaccines. *Microb Pathog.* 2020;149:104553. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.micpath.2020.104553>
 6. Iurescia S, Fioretti D, Fazio VM, Rinaldi M. Epitope-driven DNA vaccine design employing immunoinformatics against B-cell lymphoma: a biotech's challenge. *Biotechnol Adv.* 2012;30:372-83. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biotechadv.2011.06.020>
 7. Utiger A, Tobler K, Bridgen A, Ackermann M. Identification of the membrane protein of porcine epidemic diarrhea virus. *Virus Genes.* 1995;10:137-48. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF01702594>
 8. Diep NV, Norimine J, Sueyoshi M, Lan NT, Yamaguchi R. Novel porcine epidemic diarrhea virus (PEDV) variants with large deletions in the spike (S) gene coexist with PEDV strains possessing an intact S gene in domestic pigs in Japan: a new disease situation. *PLOS ONE.* 2017;12:e0170126. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0170126>
 9. Rodríguez-Enríquez A, Herrera-Camacho I, Millán-Pérez-Peña L, Reyes-Leyva J, Santos-López G, Rivera-Benítez JF, et al. Predicted 3D model of the M protein of Porcine Epidemic Diarrhea Virus and analysis of its immunogenic potential. *PLOS ONE.* 2022;17:e0263582. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0263582>
 10. Zhang Z, Chen J, Shi H, Chen X, Shi D, Feng L, et al. Identification of a conserved linear B-cell epitope in the M protein of porcine epidemic diarrhea virus. *Virol J.* 2012;9:225. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1743-422X-9-225>
 11. Ren X, Suo S, Jang YS. Development of a porcine epidemic diarrhea virus M protein-based ELISA for virus detection. *Biotechnol Lett.* 2011;33:215-20. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10529-010-0420-8>
 12. Yang HJ, Zhang JY, Wei C, Yang LY, Zuo QF, Zhuang Y, et al. Immunisation with immunodominant linear B cell epitopes vaccine of manganese transport protein C confers protection against *Staphylococcus aureus* infection. *PLOS ONE.* 2016;11:e0149638. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0149638>
 13. Jespersen MC, Mahajan S, Peters B, Nielsen M, Marcatili P. Antibody specific B-cell epitope predictions: leveraging information from antibody-antigen protein complexes. *Front Immunol.* 2019;10:298. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fimmu.2019.00298>
 14. Chen W, Yu L, Shi Y. Safety evaluation of lactic acid bacteria. In: Chen W, editor. *Lactic acid bacteria*. Singapore: Springer; 2019. p. 371-409.
 15. Raman J, Kim JS, Choi KR, Eun H, Yang D, Ko YJ, et al. Application of lactic acid bacteria (LAB) in sustainable agriculture: advantages and limitations. *Int J Mol Sci.* 2022;23:7784. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms23147784>
 16. Yoo JM, Song JH, Vasquez R, Hwang IC, Lee JS, Kang DK. Characterization of novel amylase-sensitive, anti-listerial class IIc bacteriocin, agilicin C7 produced by *Ligilactobacillus agilis* C7. *Food Sci Anim Resour.* 2023;43:625-38. <https://doi.org/10.5851/kosfa.2023.e24>
 17. Lee D, Goh TW, Kang MG, Choi HJ, Yeo SY, Yang J, et al. Perspectives and advances in probiotics and the gut microbiome in companion animals. *J Anim Sci Technol.* 2022;64:197-217. <https://doi.org/10.5187/jast.2022.e8>
 18. Yoo JM, Mendoza RM, Hwang IC, Kang DK. Whole genome sequence analysis of *Ligilactobacillus agilis* C7 isolated from pig feces revealed three bacteriocin gene clusters. *J Anim Sci Technol.* 2022;64:1008-11. <https://doi.org/10.5187/jast.2022.e55>
 19. Kang A, Kwak MJ, Choi HJ, Son SH, Lim SH, Eor JY, et al. Integrative analysis of probiotic-

- mediated remodeling in canine gut microbiota and metabolites using a fermenter for an intestinal microbiota model. *Food Sci Anim Resour.* 2024;44:1080-95. <https://doi.org/10.5851/kosfa.2024.e41>
20. Pereira M, Oh JK, Kang DK, Engstrand L, Valeriano VD. Hacking commensal bacteria to consolidate the adaptive mucosal immune response in the gut-lung axis: future possibilities for SARS-CoV-2 protection. *BioTech.* 2022;11:3. <https://doi.org/10.3390/biotech11010003>
 21. Vasquez R, Bagon BB, Song JH, Han NS, Kang DK. A novel, non-GMO surface display in *Limosilactobacillus fermentum* mediated by cell surface hydrolase without anchor motif. *BMC Microbiol.* 2022;22:190. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12866-022-02608-9>
 22. Lee SY, Choi JH, Xu Z. Microbial cell-surface display. *Trends Biotechnol.* 2003;21:45-52. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0167-7799\(02\)00006-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0167-7799(02)00006-9)
 23. Hou XL, Yu LY, Liu J, Wang GH. Surface-displayed porcine epidemic diarrhea viral (PEDV) antigens on lactic acid bacteria. *Vaccine.* 2007;26:24-31. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vaccine.2007.10.065>
 24. Ma S, Wang L, Huang X, Wang X, Chen S, Shi W, et al. Oral recombinant *Lactobacillus* vaccine targeting the intestinal microfold cells and dendritic cells for delivering the core neutralizing epitope of porcine epidemic diarrhea virus. *Microb Cell Fact.* 2018;17:20. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12934-018-0861-7>
 25. Zheng D, Wang X, Ju N, Wang Z, Sui L, Wang L, et al. Immune responses in pregnant sows induced by recombinant *Lactobacillus johnsonii* expressing the COE protein of porcine epidemic diarrhea virus provide protection for piglets against PEDV infection. *Viruses.* 2021;14:7. <https://doi.org/10.3390/v14010007>
 26. Hou X, Jiang X, Jiang Y, Tang L, Xu Y, Qiao X, et al. Oral immunization against PEDV with recombinant *Lactobacillus casei* expressing dendritic cell-targeting peptide fusing COE protein of PEDV in piglets. *Viruses.* 2018;10:106. <https://doi.org/10.3390/v10030106>
 27. Wang X, Wang L, Huang X, Ma S, Yu M, Shi W, et al. Oral delivery of probiotics expressing dendritic cell-targeting peptide fused with porcine epidemic diarrhea virus COE antigen: a promising vaccine strategy against PEDV. *Viruses.* 2017;9:312. <https://doi.org/10.3390/v9110312>
 28. Wang XN, Wang L, Zheng DZ, Chen S, Shi W, Qiao XY, et al. Oral immunization with a *Lactobacillus casei*-based anti-porcine epidemic diarrhoea virus (PEDV) vaccine expressing microfold cell-targeting peptide Co1 fused with the COE antigen of PEDV. *J Appl Microbiol.* 2018;124:368-78. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jam.13652>
 29. Zang Y, Tian Y, Li Y, Xue R, Hu L, Zhang D, et al. Recombinant *Lactobacillus acidophilus* expressing S1 and S2 domains of porcine epidemic diarrhea virus could improve the humoral and mucosal immune levels in mice and sows inoculated orally. *Vet Microbiol.* 2020;248:108827. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vetmic.2020.108827>
 30. Li X, Zhang B, Zhang D, Liu S, Ren J. The construction of recombinant *Lactobacillus casei* vaccine of PEDV and its immune responses in mice. *BMC Vet Res.* 2021;17:184. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12917-021-02885-y>
 31. Du Z, Su H, Wang W, Ye L, Wei H, Peng Z, et al. The trRosetta server for fast and accurate protein structure prediction. *Nat Protoc.* 2021;16:5634-51. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41596-021-00628-9>
 32. Wiederstein M, Sippl MJ. ProSA-web: interactive web service for the recognition of errors in three-dimensional structures of proteins. *Nucleic Acids Res.* 2007;35:W407-10. <https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkm290>
 33. Jespersen MC, Peters B, Nielsen M, Marcatili P. BepiPred-2.0: improving sequence-based

- B-cell epitope prediction using conformational epitopes. *Nucleic Acids Res.* 2017;45:W24-9. <https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkx346>
34. Yao B, Zhang L, Liang S, Zhang C. SVMTriP: a method to predict antigenic epitopes using support vector machine to integrate tri-peptide similarity and propensity. *PLOS ONE.* 2012;7:e45152. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0045152>
 35. Nadugala MN, Premaratne PH, Goonasekara CL. Systematic bioinformatic approach for prediction of linear B-cell epitopes on dengue E and prM protein. *Adv Bioinformatics.* 2016;2016:1373157. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2016/1373157>
 36. Boot HJ, Kolen CP, Pouwels PH. Identification, cloning, and nucleotide sequence of a silent S-layer protein gene of *Lactobacillus acidophilus* ATCC 4356 which has extensive similarity with the S-layer protein gene of this species. *J Bacteriol.* 1995;177:7222-30. <https://doi.org/10.1128/jb.177.24.7222-7230.1995>
 37. Chae JP, Pajarillo EA, Hwang IC, Kang DK. Construction of a bile-responsive expression system in *Lactobacillus plantarum*. *Food Sci Anim Resour.* 2019;39:13-22. <https://doi.org/10.5851/kosfa.2018.e58>
 38. Hwang IC, Valeriano VD, Song JH, Pereira M, Oh JK, Han K, et al. Mucosal immunization with *Lactiplantibacillus plantarum*-displaying recombinant SARS-CoV-2 epitopes on the surface induces humoral and mucosal immune responses in mice. *Microb Cell Fact.* 2023;22:96. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12934-023-02100-7>
 39. Kim NY, In Lee S. Lauric acid reduces apoptosis by inhibiting FOXO3a-signaling in deoxynivalenol-treated IPEC-J2 cells. *J Anim Sci Technol.* 2023;66:1010-20. <https://doi.org/10.5187/jast.2023.e92>
 40. Yuan C, Li Y, Zhang E, Jin Y, Yang Q. The mechanism of PEDV-carrying CD3+ T cells migrate into the intestinal mucosa of neonatal piglets. *Viruses.* 2021;13:469. <https://doi.org/10.3390/v13030469>
 41. Koonpaew S, Teeravechyan S, Frantz PN, Chailangkarn T, Jongkaewwattana A. PEDV and PDCoV pathogenesis: the interplay between host innate immune responses and porcine enteric coronaviruses. *Front Vet Sci.* 2019;6:34. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fvets.2019.00034>
 42. Cui T, Theuns S, Xie J, Van den Broeck W, Nauwynck HJ. Role of porcine aminopeptidase N and sialic acids in porcine coronavirus infections in primary porcine enterocytes. *Viruses.* 2020;12:402. <https://doi.org/10.3390/v12040402>
 43. Song D, Moon H, Kang B. Porcine epidemic diarrhea: a review of current epidemiology and available vaccines. *Clin Exp Vaccine Res.* 2015;4:166-76. <https://doi.org/10.7774/cevr.2015.4.2.166>
 44. Gerdt V, Zakhartchouk A. Vaccines for porcine epidemic diarrhea virus and other swine coronaviruses. *Vet Microbiol.* 2017;206:45-51. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vetmic.2016.11.029>
 45. Jang G, Won H, Lee DU, Noh YH, Lee SC, Choi HW, et al. Assessment of the safety and efficacy of an attenuated live vaccine based on highly virulent genotype 2b porcine epidemic diarrhea virus in nursing piglets. *Vet Microbiol.* 2019;231:120-8. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vetmic.2019.03.009>
 46. Jang G, Lee D, Shin S, Lim J, Won H, Eo Y, et al. Porcine epidemic diarrhea virus: an update overview of virus epidemiology, vaccines, and control strategies in South Korea. *J Vet Sci.* 2023;24:e58. <https://doi.org/10.4142/jvs.23090>
 47. Hu Y, Xie X, Yang L, Wang A. A comprehensive view on the host factors and viral proteins associated with porcine epidemic diarrhea virus infection. *Front Microbiol.* 2021;12:762358. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2021.762358>
 48. Li S, Yang J, Zhu Z, Zheng H. Porcine epidemic diarrhea virus and the host innate immune

- response. *Pathogens*. 2020;9:367. <https://doi.org/10.3390/pathogens9050367>
49. Wang R, Yu R, Chen B, Si F, Wang J, Xie C, et al. Identification of host cell proteins that interact with the M protein of porcine epidemic diarrhea virus. *Vet Microbiol*. 2020;246:108729. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vetmic.2020.108729>
 50. Katze MG, He Y, Gale M Jr. Viruses and interferon: a fight for supremacy. *Nat Rev Immunol*. 2002;2:675-87. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nri888>
 51. Park SW, Park IB, Kang SJ, Bae J, Chun T. Interaction between host cell proteins and open reading frames of porcine circovirus type 2. *J Anim Sci Technol*. 2023;65:698-719. <https://doi.org/10.5187/JAST.2023.E67>
 52. Li S, Zhu Z, Yang F, Cao W, Yang J, Ma C, et al. Porcine epidemic diarrhea virus membrane protein interacted with IRF7 to inhibit type I IFN production during viral infection. *J Immunol*. 2021;206:2909-23. <https://doi.org/10.4049/jimmunol.2001186>
 53. Xu XG, Zhang HL, Zhang Q, Dong J, Huang Y, Tong DW. Porcine epidemic diarrhea virus M protein blocks cell cycle progression at S-phase and its subcellular localization in the porcine intestinal epithelial cells. *Acta Virol*. 2015;59:265-75. https://doi.org/10.4149/av_2015_03_265
 54. Fan JH, Zuo YZ, Shen XQ, Gu WY, Di JM. Development of an enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay for the monitoring and surveillance of antibodies to porcine epidemic diarrhea virus based on a recombinant membrane protein. *J Virol Methods*. 2015;225:90-4. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jviromet.2015.07.021>
 55. Olech M. Current state of molecular and serological methods for detection of porcine epidemic diarrhea virus. *Pathogens*. 2022;11:1074. <https://doi.org/10.3390/pathogens11101074>
 56. Park SM, Mo AY, Lim JG, Chung HJ, Kim TG, Kim KJ, et al. Surface displayed expression of a neutralizing epitope of spike protein from a Korean strain of porcine epidemic diarrhea virus. *Biotechnol Bioprocess Eng*. 2007;12:690-5. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02931087>
 57. Kak G, Raza M, Tiwari BK. Interferon-gamma (IFN- γ): exploring its implications in infectious diseases. *Biomol Concepts*. 2018;9:64-79. <https://doi.org/10.1515/bmc-2018-0007>
 58. Cordeiro PAS, Assone T, Prates G, Tedeschi MRM, Fonseca LAM, Casseb J. The role of IFN- γ production during retroviral infections: an important cytokine involved in chronic inflammation and pathogenesis. *Rev Inst Med Trop Sao Paulo*. 2022;64:e64. <https://doi.org/10.1590/S1678-9946202264064>
 59. Lee DH, Lee EB, Seo JP, Ko EJ. Evaluation of concurrent vaccinations with recombinant canarypox equine influenza virus and inactivated equine herpesvirus vaccines. *J Anim Sci Technol*. 2022;64:588-98. <https://doi.org/10.5187/jast.2022.e30>
 60. Abdel-Hamed EF, Ibrahim MN, Mostafa NE, Moawad HSF, Elgammal NE, Darwiesh EM, et al. Role of interferon gamma in SARS-CoV-2-positive patients with parasitic infections. *Gut Pathog*. 2021;13:29. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13099-021-00427-3>
 61. Park JW, Ndimukaga M, So J, Kim S, Truong AD, Tran HTT, et al. Molecular analysis of chicken interferon-alpha inducible protein 6 gene and transcriptional regulation. *J Anim Sci Technol*. 2023;65:183-96. <https://doi.org/10.5187/jast.2022.e101>
 62. Neves PCC, Santos JR, Tubarão LN, Bonaldo MC, Galler R. Early IFN-gamma production after YF 17D vaccine virus immunization in mice and its association with adaptive immune responses. *PLOS ONE*. 2013;8:e81953. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0081953>
 63. Liu YS, Liu Q, Jiang YL, Yang WT, Huang HB, Shi CW, et al. Surface-displayed porcine IFN- λ 3 in *Lactobacillus plantarum* inhibits porcine enteric coronavirus infection of porcine intestinal epithelial cells. *J Microbiol Biotechnol*. 2020;30:515-25. <https://doi.org/10.4014/jmb.1909.09041>
 64. Fagundes CT, Costa VV, Cisalpino D, Amaral FA, Souza PRS, Souza RS, et al. IFN- γ

- production depends on IL-12 and IL-18 combined action and mediates host resistance to dengue virus infection in a nitric oxide-dependent manner. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis*. 2011;5:e1449. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0001449>
65. Couper KN, Blount DG, Riley EM. IL-10: the master regulator of immunity to infection. *J Immunol*. 2008;180:5771-7. <https://doi.org/10.4049/jimmunol.180.9.5771>
 66. Carlini V, Noonan DM, Abdalalem E, Goletti D, Sansone C, Calabrone L, et al. The multifaceted nature of IL-10: regulation, role in immunological homeostasis and its relevance to cancer, COVID-19 and post-COVID conditions. *Front Immunol*. 2023;14:1161067. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fimmu.2023.1161067>
 67. Paudel S, Park JE, Jang H, Hyun BH, Yang DG, Shin HJ. Evaluation of antibody response of killed and live vaccines against porcine epidemic diarrhea virus in a field study. *Vet Q*. 2014;34:194-200. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01652176.2014.973999>
 68. Krishna VD, Kim Y, Yang M, Vannucci F, Molitor T, Torremorell M, et al. Immune responses to porcine epidemic diarrhea virus (PEDV) in swine and protection against subsequent infection. *PLOS ONE*. 2020;15:e0231723. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0231723>
 69. Song X, Qian J, Wang C, Wang D, Zhou J, Zhao Y, et al. Correlation between the IgG/IgA antibody response against PEDV structural protein and virus neutralization. *Microbiol Spectr*. 2023;11:e05233-22. <https://doi.org/10.1128/spectrum.05233-22>
 70. de Arriba ML, Carvajal A, Pozo J, Rubio P. Mucosal and systemic isotype-specific antibody responses and protection in conventional pigs exposed to virulent or attenuated porcine epidemic diarrhoea virus. *Vet Immunol Immunopathol*. 2002;85:85-97. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0165-2427\(01\)00417-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0165-2427(01)00417-2)
 71. Hinman AR, Orenstein WA, Mortimer EA Jr. When, where, and how do immunizations fail? *Ann Epidemiol*. 1992;2:805-12. [https://doi.org/10.1016/1047-2797\(92\)90074-Z](https://doi.org/10.1016/1047-2797(92)90074-Z)
 72. Hwang IC, Kim SH, Kang DK. Complete genome sequence of *Lactobacillus plantarum* SK156, a candidate vehicle for mucosal vaccine delivery. *J Anim Sci Technol*. 2020;62:956-8. <https://doi.org/10.5187/jast.2020.62.6.956>