

Establishment of a Murine $\alpha\beta 1$ Transgenic CHO-K1 Cell Line and its Susceptibility to Foot-and-Mouth Disease Virus Type Asia I/HN/2006 in China

Y. Zhang, H.X. Zheng, Z.D. Zhang, Y. Jin, F. Yang, J.J. He, W.J. Cao, D.H. Sun and L. Lv
State Key Laboratory of Veterinary Etiologic Biology,
Key Laboratory of Animal Virology of Ministry of Agriculture,
National Foot-and-Mouth Disease Reference Laboratory of China,
Lanzhou Veterinary Research Institute,
Chinese Academy of Agricultural Sciences, 730046 Lanzhou, China

Abstract: Field isolates of Foot-and-Mouth Disease Virus (FMDV) were found to use four $\alpha\upsilon$ integrins ($\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$, $\alpha\upsilon\beta 3$, $\alpha\upsilon\beta 6$ and $\alpha\upsilon\beta 8$) as cellular receptors. Researchers established a stable Chinese Hamster Ovary clone K1 (CHO-K1) cell line expressing the murine $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$ heterodimer (designated as CHO-K1- $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$) using a highly efficient lentiviral-based gene transfer technology to deliver murine $\alpha\upsilon$, Internal Ribosome Entry Site (IRES) and $\beta 1$ genes into cell chromosomes and the inserted genes were then transcribed from a Cytomegalovirus (CMV) promoter. $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$ expression was stringently regulated by Doxycycline (Dox) and was found to be stable. CHO-K1- $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$ cells were susceptible to FMDV type Asia I/HN/2006. The plaque assay revealed that the virus produced bigger and more plaques in CHO-K1- $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$ cells (1.05×10^4 PFU mL⁻¹) than in CHO-K1 cells. When sodium heparin (1 and 2 mg mL⁻¹) was used as the inhibitor, the number of plaques in CHO-K1 cells were significantly decreased (4.0×10^3 -35 and 20 PFU mL⁻¹), supported by time-course of replication and proliferation. The number and size of plaques on CHO-K1- $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$ cells showed no obvious change, indicating that the $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$ heterodimer expressed on CHO-K1- $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$ can be used as an FMDV receptor.

Key words: Foot-and-mouth disease, foot-and-mouth disease virus, integrin, receptor, cellular

INTRODUCTION

Foot-and-Mouth Disease (FMD) is a highly infectious disease caused by the FMD Virus (FMDV) and it affects domestic and wild cloven-hoofed animals, including cattle, swine, sheep and goats. The disease is characterized by the appearance of vesicles on the feet and in and around the mouth (Pega *et al.*, 2012). The FMDV belongs to genus *Aphthovirus* in the family Picornaviridae and it exists in seven serotypes (O, A, C, Asia 1, SAT1, SAT2 and SAT3) (Rueckert and Wimmer, 1984; Grubman and Baxt, 2004). FMDV particles consist of 60 copies each of four capsid proteins (VP1-VP4) which encapsidate a single, positive-sense RNA genome (Belsham, 1993; Fry *et al.*, 2005). Two families of cellular receptors-integrins and Heparan Sulfate Proteoglycans (HSPG) have been found to mediate FMDV infection (Ruiz-Saenz *et al.*, 2009). The tripeptide Arg-Gly-Asp (RGD) located in the VP1 GH loop is the signature recognition motif for the integrin receptor used by FMDV for cell attachment (Mason *et al.*, 1994). FMDV type Asia I/HN/2006 carries RGD receptor

recognition sites from naturally infected pigs. Its characteristics and the underlying molecular mechanism by which it infects pigs are not yet well understood. Evidence suggests that the Asian-type FMDV generally infects cattle and sheep but it rarely infects pigs (Zhang *et al.*, 2008). The viral receptor plays a major role in both FMDV host and tissue tropism (Duque *et al.*, 2004).

Integrins are α and β heterodimeric adhesion receptors that relay signals bidirectionally across the plasma membrane between the extracellular matrix and cell-surface ligands and cytoskeletal and signaling effectors (Campbell and Humphries, 2011). The physical and chemical signals regulated by integrins are essential for intercellular communication and support all aspects of metazoan existence. To mediate such diverse functions, integrins exhibit structural diversity, flexibility and dynamism. Conformational changes as opposed to surface expression or clustering are central to the regulation of receptor function (Askari *et al.*, 2009). Four integrins ($\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$, $\alpha\upsilon\beta 3$, $\alpha\upsilon\beta 6$ and $\alpha\upsilon\beta 8$) have been identified as FMDV receptors (Ruiz-Saenz *et al.*, 2009).

Integrin $\alpha\upsilon\beta 3$ was originally identified as a cellular receptor for FMDV. The roles of $\alpha\upsilon\beta 3$ and $\alpha\upsilon\beta 6$ as FMDV cellular receptors have been studied in depth and the role of $\alpha\upsilon\beta 8$ has been studied to a satisfactory extent. Studies have reported that virulent FMDV utilizes the $\alpha\upsilon\beta 3$ integrin as a primary receptor to initiate infection of cultured cells and that adaptation of FMDV O1 to cell culture results in the ability of the virus to utilize heparan sulfate as a receptor with concomitant loss of virulence (Neff *et al.*, 2000). Integrin $\alpha\upsilon\beta 6$ which is expressed on epithelial cells was subsequently identified in an *in vivo* study as a major candidate for use as an FMDV receptor (Jackson *et al.*, 2000). The infection of $\alpha\upsilon\beta 6$ -expressing cells (transfected with cDNAs encoding $\alpha\upsilon\beta 6$) by FMDV occurs in association with the integrin in vesicular structures in a clathrin-mediated endocytosis pathway. It followed by acidification within endosomes that facilitates viral replication, causing the breakdown of the viral capsid structure and genome release by a hitherto unidentified mechanism (Berryman *et al.*, 2005; O'Donnell *et al.*, 2005). Integrin $\alpha\upsilon\beta 8$ can also function as a receptor for FMDV (Jackson *et al.*, 2004). The involvement of $\alpha\upsilon\beta 8$ in infection was confirmed by demonstrating that virus attachment to the transfected cells could be inhibited by function-blocking monoclonal antibodies specific for either $\alpha\upsilon\beta 8$ or $\alpha\upsilon$. In contrast, although $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$ has been identified as a receptor for FMDV, very limited data are available for this integrin since its expression appears to be restricted in a cell-specific manner and while several cell types express both subunits of this integrin in excess few cell types express this heterodimer (Vogel *et al.*, 1990; Sheppard *et al.*, 1992; Jackson *et al.*, 2002). Therefore, researchers used a highly efficient lentiviral-based gene transfer technique to deliver murine $\alpha\upsilon$, IRES and $\beta 1$ genes into cell chromosomes so that they can be transcribed from the CMV promoter. Here, researchers attempted to establish a cell line with which we could obtain stable and controlled expression of $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$ and evaluated the susceptibility of this cell line to FMDV type Asia I/HN/2006.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cells and viruses: Chinese Hamster Ovary clone K1 (CHO-K1) cells were cultured in Ham's F12 (HyClone) medium containing 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS; Gibco), 200 U mL⁻¹ penicillin, 0.2 mg mL⁻¹ streptomycin and 100 U mL⁻¹ mycostatin. FMDV type Asia I/HN/2006 was isolated from naturally infected pigs in China during the 2006 outbreak and propagated on baby hamster kidney cell line (BHK-21) cells grown in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Minimal Medium (DMEM) (Invitrogen, USA)

supplemented with 2% FBS, 200 U mL⁻¹ penicillin, 0.2 mg mL⁻¹ streptomycin and 100 U mL⁻¹ mycostatin. Cell culture supernatants were harvested, frozen and thawed 3 times and the cell debris was removed by centrifugation at 500×g for 10 min. The supernatants which contained the virus were stored at -70°C for later use.

Construction of a lentivirus recombinant plasmid: To obtain the coding region of murine integrin subunits $\alpha\upsilon$ and $\beta 1$, genomic RNA was extracted from tongue or lung tissues with an RNeasy Mini kit (Qiagen, Germany) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The tissues had been previously obtained from suckling mice. The cDNAs of murine $\alpha\upsilon$ and $\beta 1$ genes were synthesized using AMV reverse transcriptase (20 U mL⁻¹, Takara, Japan) with the oligo-dT18 primer (20 pmol mL⁻¹) and a random primer (20 pmol mL⁻¹) in a 40 μ L reaction mixture, according to the manufacturer's instructions (Du *et al.*, 2009). These cDNAs were then used as templates for amplification of full lengths of the $\alpha\upsilon$ (3135 bp) and $\beta 1$ (2397 bp) genes with the following PCR parameters: A pre-denaturation step of 95°C for 5 min; 35 cycles of 95°C for 5 min, 58°C for 30 sec, 72°C for 4 min; followed by the final extension step of 72°C for 10 min. The primers used to amplify the $\alpha\upsilon$ and $\beta 1$ genes were $\alpha\upsilon$ F and $\alpha\upsilon$ R, $\beta 1$ F and $\beta 1$ R, respectively. The amplified PCR products were separately cloned into the pGEM-T easy vector (Promega, USA).

As shown in Fig. 1, pOK₁₂ was chosen as the transition carrier and the IRES sequence was used as the bridge connecting $\alpha\upsilon$ and $\beta 1$ in the construction of the lentivirus recombinant plasmid. First, the pOK₁₂ fragment was amplified from the pOK₁₂ plasmid with primers POK-F and POK-R bearing four restriction enzyme sites (XbaI, MluI, NheI and NotI) and the IRES fragment, from pIRES2-EGFP with primers IRES-F and IRES-R. The IRES fragment was then cloned into pOK₁₂ to generate pOK-IRES which was confirmed by PCR and digestion with restriction enzyme. Second, an $\alpha\upsilon$ fragment containing NheI and NotI restriction sites was generated from recombinant pGEM-T containing the $\alpha\upsilon$ coding gene, using primers pL- $\alpha\upsilon$ F and pL- $\alpha\upsilon$ R. Plasmid pOK-IRES was linearized after digestion with NheI and NotI. The earlier mentioned PCR product was also digested with NheI and NotI and cloned into the pOK-IRES plasmid to generate recombinant plasmid pOK- $\alpha\upsilon$ -IRES which was subsequently confirmed by PCR and digestion with restriction enzyme. Third, the recombinant plasmid pOK- $\alpha\upsilon$ -IRES was digested by NotI and XbaI to obtain the $\alpha\upsilon$ -IRES fragment which was subsequently cloned into pLVX-Tight-Puro vector

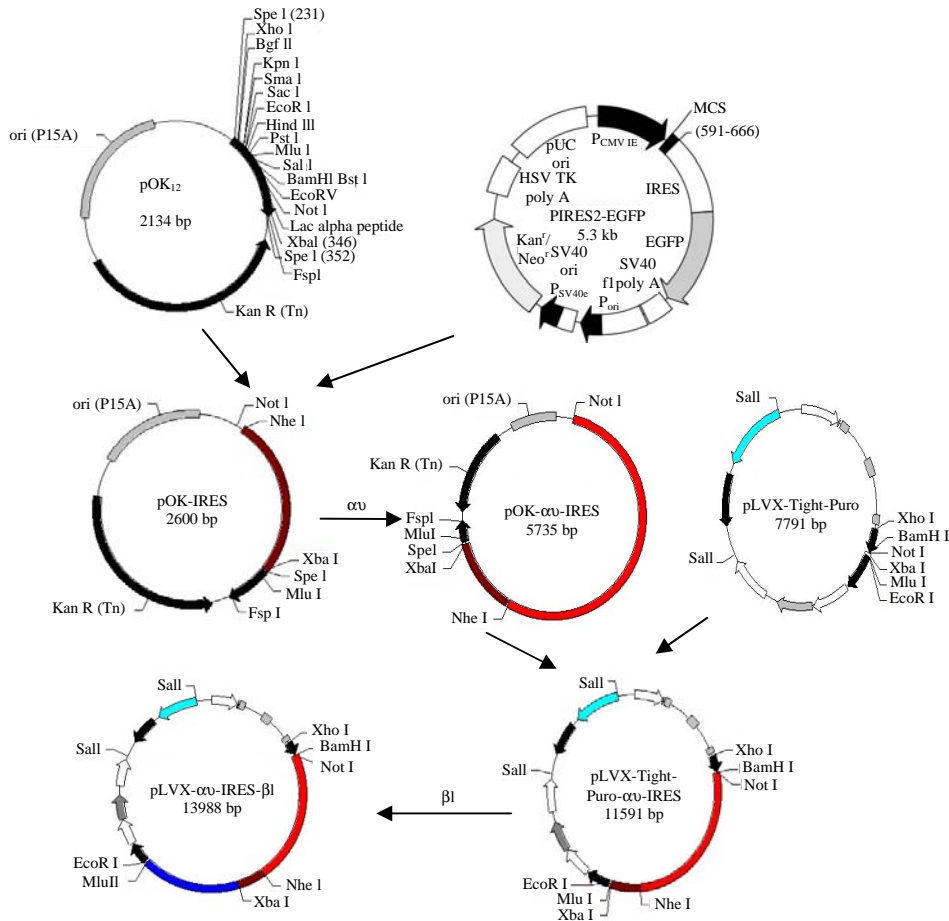


Fig. 1: Schematic diagram of the construction of a lentivirus recombinant plasmid

Table 1: Primer used for RT PCR or PCR amplification

Primer	Sequence (5'-3')	Restriction enzyme
α vF	ATGGCTGCTCCGGGCGC	-
α vR	TCAGGTTTCAGAGTTTCCTTCGCCATT	-
β 1F	ATGAATTTGCAACTGTTTTCTGGA	-
β 1R	TCATTTTCCCTCATACTTCGGATTG	-
pL- α vF	CATTTTATTTGCGGCCGCGCCACCATGGCTGCTCCCGGGCGC	NotI
pL- α vR	CGTCTAGCTAGCTCAGGTTTCAGAGTTTCCTTCGCCATT	NheI
pL- β 1F	CGGTCTAGAGCCACCATGAATTTGCAACTGTTTTCTGGA	XbaI
pL- β 1R	GTTGTCGACGCGTTCATTTTCCCTCATACTTCGGATTG	MluI
IRES-F	CGTCTAGCTAGCGCCCTCTCCCTCCCCCCCCCTAA	NheI
IRES-R	CGGTCTAGATGTGGCCATATTATCATCGTGTITTTCAA	XbaI
POK-F	GCTTGGGCCCTCTAGATTGTGCACTACGCGTGAAGTGGATCGATCCCAATTCCG	XbaI and MluI
POK-R	TTTGGGCCCGCTAGCTTTGTACATGCGGCCGAGTGGCGTAATCATGGTCATAGCTGTT	NheI and NotI

*Letter in italics represent restriction enzyme sites and Kozak sequences

(Clontech, USA) resulting in generation of the recombinant plasmid pLVX- α v-IRES. Finally, the β 1 fragment containing the XbaI and MluI sites was generated from recombinant pGEM-T containing the β 1-coding gene by using primers pL- β 1F and pL- β 1R. The amplified β 1 fragment was digested with XbaI and MluI and cloned into pLVX- α v-IRES to generate the recombinant plasmid pLVX- α v-IRES- β 1. All the products

were sequenced using an ABI-Prism 377 DNA Sequencer (Applied Biosystems, USA). The primers used in this study are listed in Table 1.

Establishing an inducible expression system on CHO-K1 cells: To establish the CHO-K1- α v β 1 cell line, CHO-K1 cells were simultaneously co-transduced with the regulator and response lentivirus vectors (Clontech, USA)

for 12 h according to the manufacturer's instructions. The virus-containing medium was then removed and replaced with DMEM supplemented with 10% "Tet System-Approved FBS" (Clontech, USA). The cells were cultured without Dox for 48 h and harvested for analysis. The expression of the $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$ heterodimer in co-transduced CHO-K1 cells (designated as LV-CHO-K1) was analyzed by indirect Immunofluorescence Assay (IFA), the cells were incubated with a 1:20 dilution of the polyclonal antibody of mice $\beta 1$ protein (it was preserved in the laboratory) for 1 h at RT, FITC-monoclonal rat anti-mouse IgG1 (invitrogen) at a 1:100 dilution was then added for 1 h at RT as described previously (Zheng *et al.*, 2009).

Establishing stable and inducible $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$ expression in CHO-K1 cells: To select a stable $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$ transgenic CHO-K1 cell line, a single clone of LV-CHO-K1 cells were cultured under the selection pressure of 500 $\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ G418 and 2 $\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ puromycin. Cell-cloning islands were observed after approximately 15 days. After continuously cloning for twenty times, stable $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$ transgenic CHO-K1 cell line was obtained (designated as CHO-K1- $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$). After twenty passages of CHO-K1- $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$ cells, the presence of $\alpha\upsilon$ and $\beta 1$ genes in CHO-K1- $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$ cells was analyzed by PCR assay using the primers $\alpha\upsilon\text{F}$ and $\alpha\upsilon\text{R}$ and $\beta 1\text{F}$ and $\beta 1\text{R}$. Furthermore, the expression of $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$ on CHO-K1- $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$ cells was confirmed by IFA as mentioned before. The inducibility of $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$ expression on CHO-K1- $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$ was analyzed by flow cytometry. Briefly, CHO-K1- $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$ cells obtained were seeded in six-well plates at a cell density of 1×10^6 cells/well, each of which contained fresh medium with or without 500 ng mL^{-1} Dox. The cells were incubated for 48 h, harvested with Ethylene Diamine Tetraacetic Acid (EDTA) and resuspended at a concentration of 1×10^7 cells mL^{-1} in Tris-buffered saline (pH 7.4) containing 1 mM CaCl_2 , 0.5 mM MgCl_2 , 2% normal goat serum and 3% bovine serum albumin (buffer A). The cells were incubated with a 1:20 dilution of the polyclonal antibody of $\beta 1$ protein (it was preserved in the laboratory) on ice for 20 min. FITC-monoclonal rat anti-mouse IgG1 (invitrogen) at a 1:100 dilution was then added for 1 h at RT. Background fluorescence was determined in the absence of the primary antibody. The fluorescence staining was assessed by flow cytometry with a FACSCalibur (Becton Dickinson) by counting 10,000 cells per sample.

Infectivity assays: CHO-K1- $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$ and CHO-K1 cells were seeded at $1-2 \times 10^6$ cells/well in six-well plates and incubated for 16 h at 37°C with 5% CO_2 . The monolayers were washed with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS; pH 7.5) containing 2 mM CaCl_2 and 1 mM

MgCl_2 . Subsequently, the FMDV growth curve in CHO-K1- $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$ cells was determined and the results were compared to the corresponding growth curve in CHO-K1 cells. Both cells were prepared as described before and inoculated with the FMDV at 1.0×10^5 TCID₅₀. After adsorption for 1 h, cell monolayers were washed 3 times with PBS and cultured in DMEM supplemented with 2% FBS (500 $\mu\text{L}/\text{well}$) at 37°C in a 5% CO_2 atmosphere. The viral supernatants were harvested at 1, 6, 12, 24, 36, 48 and 60 h after inoculation and sampling at each time point was carried out in triplicate. Total RNA was extracted from the cells using a QIAextractor Kit (Qiagen, Germany), according to the manufacturer's instruction. One-step rRT-PCR was performed on each sample according to the procedure described previously (Shaw *et al.*, 2007). The results from all samples were analyzed using Stratagene® MxPro™ QPCR software and a CT value was assigned to each reaction as described previously (Reid *et al.*, 2002). A standard plaque assay was used to determine the pathogenicity of FMDV on CHO-K1 and CHO-K1- $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$ cells (Pacheco *et al.*, 2003; Li *et al.*, 2011). Both cells were prepared as described earlier and inoculated with 10-fold serial dilutions of 200 μL FMDV in PBS containing 1% calf serum. Infectious centers were visualized as plaques by fixation and crystal violet staining. CHO-K1 cells generally express heparan sulfate but not $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$ (Lawrence *et al.*, 2013). In order to evaluate the relationship between the susceptibility of CHO-K1- $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$ cells to FMDV infection and integrin $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$, 1 and 2 mg mL^{-1} sodium heparin (sigma) was used to inhibit the expression of heparan sulfate.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Analysis and identification of the lentivirus recombinant plasmid: As shown in Fig. 2a, pOK₁₂ fragments (2134 bp) were amplified from the pOK₁₂ plasmid using primers POK-F and POK-R containing four restriction enzyme sites (XbaI, MluI, NheI and NotI) and the 585 bp IRES fragment was amplified from pIRES2-EGFP with primers IRES-F and IRES-R. The IRES fragment was then cloned into pOK₁₂ to generate pOK-IRES which was confirmed by PCR and digestion with restriction enzyme (Fig. 2b). The $\alpha\upsilon$ fragment containing the NheI and NotI restriction enzyme sites was generated from recombinant pGEM-T containing an $\alpha\upsilon$ -coding gene using primers pL- $\alpha\upsilon\text{F}$ and pL- $\alpha\upsilon\text{R}$. Plasmid pOK-IRES was linearized after digestion with NheI and NotI. The PCR product mentioned earlier was digested with NheI and NotI as well and then cloned into plasmid pOK-IRES to generate recombinant plasmid pOK- $\alpha\upsilon$ -IRES which was subsequently confirmed by PCR (Fig. 2c) and digestion with restriction enzyme (Fig. 2d).

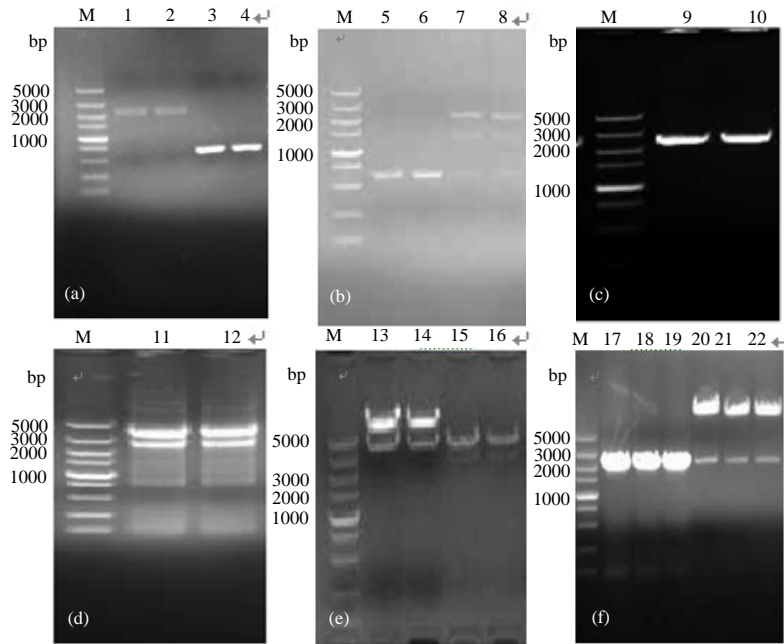


Fig. 2: a) PCR products of the pOK₁₂ (Lane 1-2) and IRES (Lane 3-4) fragments; b) PCR (Lane 5-6) and enzyme (Lane 7-8) identification of the pOK-IRES recombinant plasmid; c) PCR (Lane 9-10) identification of pOK- α v-IRES recombinant plasmid; d) Enzyme (Lane 11-12) identification of pOK- α v-IRES recombinant plasmid; e) enzyme (Lane 13-14) and PCR (Lane 15-16) identification of pLVX- α v-IRES recombinant plasmid; f) PCR (Lane 17-19) and enzyme (Lane 20-22) identification of pLVX- α v-IRES- β 1 recombinant plasmid; Lane M, molecular weight marker fragment (Takara)

The recombinant plasmid pOK- α v-IRES was then digested by NotI and XbaI to obtain the α v-IRES fragment which was subsequently cloned into pLVX-Tight-Puro vector, resulting in the generation of recombinant plasmid pLVX- α v-IRES. Identification of recombinant pLVX- α v-IRES vector (Fig. 2e) confirmed the construction of a lentiviral recombinant vector carrying exogenous α v gene. Finally, the β 1 fragment containing XbaI and MluI restriction enzyme sites was generated from recombinant pGEM-T containing β 1-coding gene, using primers pL- β 1F and pL- β 1R. The amplified β 1 fragment was digested with XbaI and MluI and cloned into pLVX- α v-IRES to generate recombinant plasmid pLVX- α v-IRES- β 1. All the products were sequenced.

Analysis of the inducible expression system: The expression of α v β 1 heterodimer on co-transducing CHO-K1 cells (designated as LV-CHO-K1) was analyzed by IFA. As shown in Fig. 3, LV-CHO-K1 cells were stained (Fig. 3a) while the parental CHO-K1 cells were not (Fig. 3b), indicating that the lentiviral-based gene expression system was successfully constructed in CHO-K1 cells.

Analysis of CHO-K1- α v β 1 cells line: As shown in Fig. 4a and b, the PCR products of the α v (3135 bp) and β 1 (2397 bp) genes were identified by electrophoresis on 1% agarose gel. Sequencing results revealed no mutations in α v and β 1. These data demonstrated that both genes integrated stably into the cellular chromosome of CHO-K1 cells. Furthermore, IFA was used to confirm α v β 1 overexpression in CHO-K1- α v β 1 cells (Fig. 5). The inducibility of α v β 1 expression on CHO-K1- α v β 1 cells was analyzed by flow cytometry. Normal CHO-K1 cells were negative for α v β 1 protein (Fig. 6a). CHO-K1- α v β 1 cells that did not receive Dox treatment were positive for α v β 1 protein (Q2+Q4 = 37.0%; Fig. 6b). However, 500 ng mL⁻¹ Dox-treated CHO-K1- α v β 1 cells showed a dramatic decrease in α v β 1 protein expression (Q2+Q4 = 1.7%; Fig. 6c). These data demonstrated the inducibility of α v β 1 expression in CHO-K1- α v β 1 cells.

Analysis of the infectivity of FMDV type Asia I/HN/2006 on CHO-K1- α v β 1: As shown in Fig. 7a, the FMDV RNA level in CHO-K1- α v β 1 cells peaked at 36 h after inoculation which is considerably higher than that in CHO-K1 cells. After the peak was achieved, both viral RNA level and the virus titers began to decline. The level

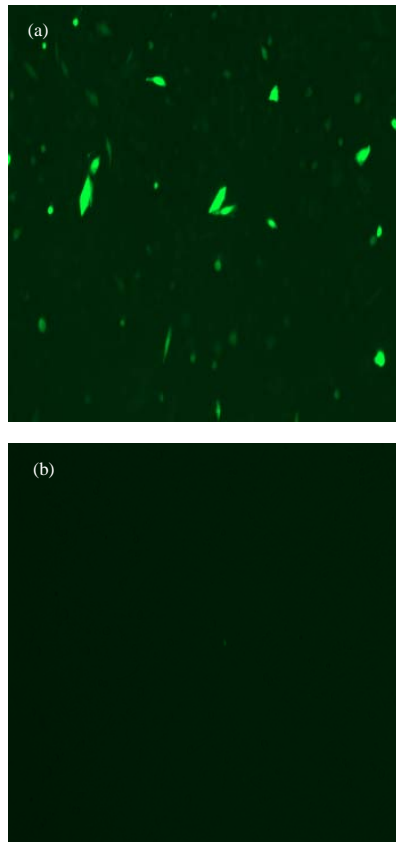


Fig. 3: a) Specific fluorescence of LV-CHO-K1 cell is observed at $\times 200$ magnification; b) No fluorescence detected in parental CHO-K1 cells (control)

of FMDV RNA in CHO-K1 was significantly affected by sodium heparin (Fig. 7b). In addition, a standard plaque assay was used to characterize the pathogenicity of FMDV on CHO-K1 and CHO-K1- $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$ cells. These results indicated that CHO-K1- $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$ cells are susceptible to FMDV infection. CHO-K1- $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$ cells were more susceptible to infection than CHO-K1 cells. As shown in Fig. 8, the virus produced bigger and more plaques in CHO-K1- $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$ cells (1.05×10^4 PFU mL⁻¹) than in CHO-K1 cells. When sodium heparin was used as the inhibitor, there were significantly fewer plaques on CHO-K1 (from 4.0×10^3 -35 and 20 PFU mL⁻¹) while the number and size of plaques on CHO-K1- $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$ cells showed no obvious change, indicating that FMDV can utilize $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$ which is expressed on CHO-K1- $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$ cells as a receptor.

FMDV has been earlier reported to use four $\alpha\upsilon$ integrins $\alpha\upsilon\beta 3$, $\alpha\upsilon\beta 6$, $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$ and $\alpha\upsilon\beta 8$ as cellular receptors (Ruiz-Saenz *et al.*, 2009). Although, the crystal structure of the extracellular segment of integrin $\alpha\upsilon\beta 3$ in complex with an RGD ligand is known, the roles of its binding and

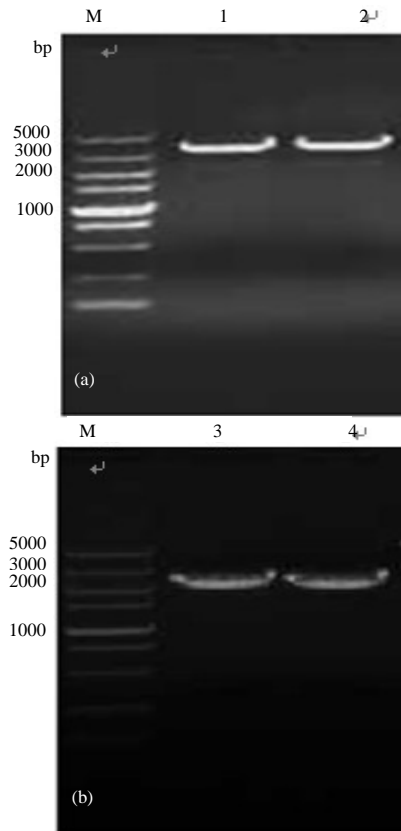


Fig. 4: PCR products from CHO-K1- $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$ cells at the 20th passage were electrophoresed in 0.8% agarose gels; a) PCR products of the $\alpha\upsilon$ (3135 bp) gene; b) PCR products of $\beta 1$ (2397 bp) gene

functional domains in FMDV infection remain not to be fully understood. Since, cells frequently express multiple receptors, the role and function of a single receptor in mediating FMDV infection is unclear. The functional differences among receptors of different hosts cannot be compared. Therefore, it is vital to establish an inducible expression system of a single receptor. In addition, compared integrin $\alpha\upsilon\beta 6$ (Miller *et al.*, 2001; King *et al.*, 2011), $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$ is difficult to study since its expression appears restricted to specific cells and although, several cell types express both subunits in excess, only a few cells express this heterodimer (Vogel *et al.*, 1990; Sheppard *et al.*, 1992; Jackson *et al.*, 2002). Therefore, it would be of considerable significance to construct a cell line that stably expresses integrin $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$ heterodimer.

Nevertheless, previous research has focused on using transient expression of integrin subunits to study receptors and FMDV infection (O'Donnell *et al.*, 2005). Fortunately in the study, we were able to obtain a cell line that could stably expressing integrin $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$ heterodimer and the expression level could be controlled. This cell

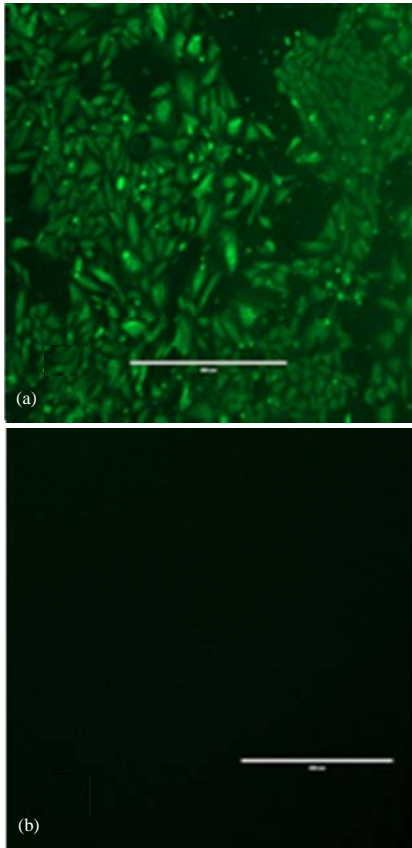


Fig. 5: Expression of the $\alpha\beta 1$ heterodimer detected by immunofluorescence assay; a) Specific fluorescence observed at $\times 200$ magnification; b) No fluorescence detected on parental CHO-K1 cells (controls)

line was established by using a lentivirus-based inducible expression system. The inducible expression system has many advantages. For instance, it includes a novel, more highly developed and refined transactivator (Urlinger *et al.*, 2000) and incorporates an improved inducible promoter, P_{Tight} . P_{Tight} consists of a modified tet-responsive element that is composed of seven direct repeats of an altered tetO sequence joined to a modified minimal CMV promoter. P_{Tight} also lacks binding sites for endogenous mammalian transcription factors, so it is virtually silent in the absence of induction. Upon induction in the absence of Dox, tTA-advanced binds to the P_{Tight} promoter on the response vector, activating transcription of the downstream gene. Another advantage in this cell line is that $\alpha\upsilon$ and $\beta 1$ subunits are connected by the IRES sequence, making both the subunits express within the same cell environment, controlled by the same promoter. This may help form the $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$ heterodimer. Furthermore, researchers could use this newly developed

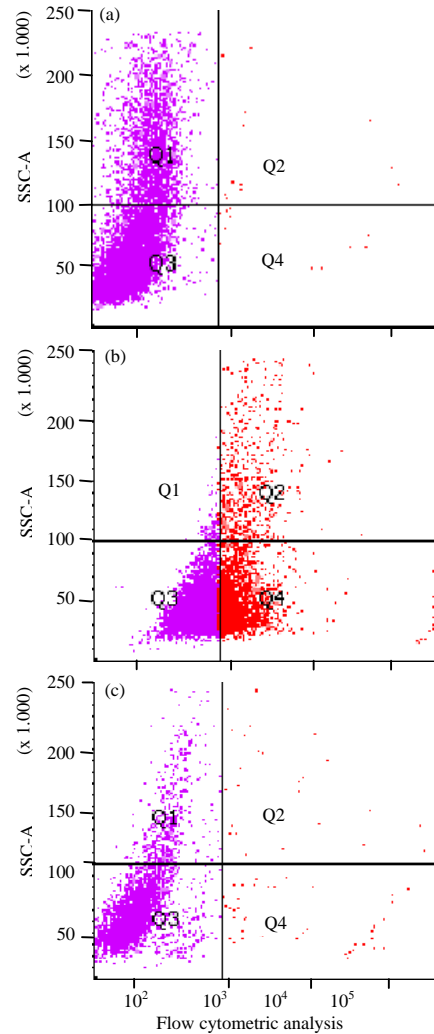


Fig. 6: Flow cytometric analysis of Dox-induced $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$ expression; a) Normal CHO-K1 cells were analyzed as the negative control; b) In CHO-K1- $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$ cells without Dox, $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$ expression was normal; c) In the presence of 500 ng mL^{-1} Dox, there was a sharp decrease in the $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$ expression in CHO-K1- $\alpha\upsilon\beta 1$ cells

cell line and CHO-K1 cells expressing heparan sulfate but not $\alpha\upsilon$ integrins (Lawrence *et al.*, 2013) to study FMDV type Asia I/HN/2006.

FMDV type Asia I/HN/2006 was first isolated from naturally infected pigs. It generally infects cattle and sheep but rarely infects pigs (Zhang *et al.*, 2008). The first recorded instance of FMD virus type Asia 1 infection in pigs was reported in Hong Kong, China in March, 2005 (Valarcher *et al.*, 2005). Subsequently, this type of virus was reported in mainland China in April, 2005 (Guo *et al.*, 2006). There were subsequent reports of this virus in pigs

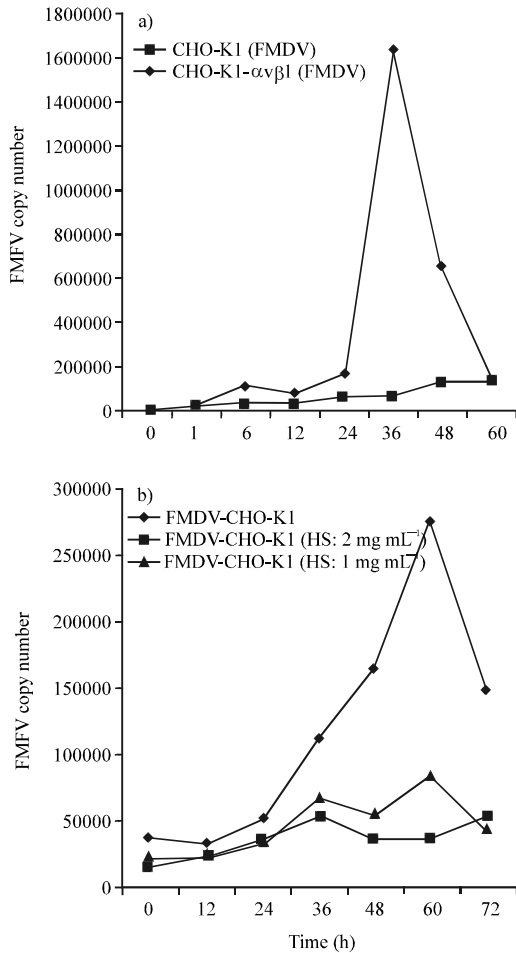


Fig. 7: Time-course of replication and proliferation. The standard curve function ($y = -3.416 \log(x) + 42.85$) was used to calculate copy numbers of FMDV to obtain a virus replication curve: a) Copy numbers on CHO-K1 and CHO-K1- $\alpha\upsilon\beta$ 1 cells inoculated with 1.0×10^5 TCID₅₀ FMDV; b) After adding 1 and 2 mg mL⁻¹ sodium heparin, copy numbers on CHO-K1 were calculated, inoculating FMDV at 5.0×10^6 TCID₅₀

in Russia (2005-2006) and North Korea (July, 2007). By July, 2008, FMD virus type Asia 1 was detected in >15 areas of China and 16 areas of Russia, resulting in severe economic and social consequences and continuing to threaten FMD-free regions (Valarcher *et al.*, 2009). Therefore, the study of this unusual phenomenon is of great importance. In addition, the ability to propagate FMDV type Asia 1/HN/2006 plays an important role in laboratory diagnosis and vaccine production to control the spread of this FMDV. Expression of specific receptors is often an important determinant of a cell's susceptibility

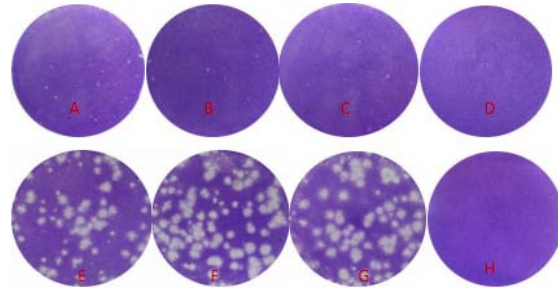


Fig. 8: Differences in plaque formation after inoculation with FMDV: A) Plaques on CHO-K1 cells lacking sodium heparin; B) Plaques on CHO-K1 cells incubated with 1 mg mL⁻¹ sodium heparin; C) Plaques on CHO-K1 cells incubated with 2 mg mL⁻¹ sodium heparin; D) Uninfected CHO-K1 cells showed no plaques; E) Plaques on CHO-K1- $\alpha\upsilon\beta$ 1 cells incubated without sodium heparin; F) Plaques on CHO-K1- $\alpha\upsilon\beta$ 1 cells incubated with 1 mg mL⁻¹ sodium heparin; G) Plaques on CHO-K1- $\alpha\upsilon\beta$ 1 cells incubated with 2 mg mL⁻¹ sodium heparin; H) Uninfected CHO-K1- $\alpha\upsilon\beta$ 1 cells showed no plaques

to viral infection and of virus tropism (Carrillo *et al.*, 1984; Mason *et al.*, 1994; Fry *et al.*, 1999). Field isolates of FMDV initiate infection by attaching to integrin receptors on the surface of a susceptible cell (Jackson *et al.*, 2000). To the best of the knowledge, the expression differs strikingly among species, although the inter-species differences are minor. At present, some researches mainly concentrates on integrins receptor of cattle, porcine, sheep (Du *et al.*, 2010). While very limited data are available for sucking mice integrins. The FMDV is lethal for suckling mice which promotes their use as an animal model of propagating the virus.

CONCLUSION

In this study, researchers successfully established a CHO-K1 cell line stably expressing $\alpha\upsilon\beta$ 1 from suckling mice. CHO-K1- $\alpha\upsilon\beta$ 1 cells were more susceptible to FMDV infection than CHO-K1 cells. FMDV type Asia 1/HN/2006 FMDV displayed an extended receptor range including $\alpha\upsilon\beta$ 1 and heparan sulfate, although integrins were used preferentially in the presence of both heparan sulfate and integrin receptors, indicating the ability of FMDV to use $\alpha\upsilon\beta$ 1 expressed on CHO-K1- $\alpha\upsilon\beta$ 1 cells as a receptor for infection.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This research was supported by grants from the National High Technology Research and Development

Program of China (863 Program, 2011AA10A211-1), the International Atomic Energy Agency (16025/R0), the High-level Technological Talent Program of Gansu Province (1013JHTA008) and EPIZONE Projects (No. FOOD-CT-2006-016236).

REFERENCES

- Askari, J.A., P.A. Buckley, A.P. Mould and M.J. Humphries, 2009. Linking integrin conformation to function. *J. Cell Sci.*, 122: 165-170.
- Belsham, G.J., 1993. Distinctive features of foot-and-mouth disease virus, a member of the picornavirus family: Aspects of virus protein synthesis, protein processing and structure. *Prog. Biophys. Mol. Biol.*, 60: 241-260.
- Berryman, S., S. Clark, P. Monaghan and T. Jackson, 2005. Early events in integrin alphavbeta6-mediated cell entry of foot-and-mouth disease virus. *J. Virol.*, 79: 8519-8534.
- Campbell, I.D. and M.J. Humphries, 2011. Integrin structure, activation and interactions. *Cold Spring Harb Perspect Biol.*
- Carrillo, E.C., C. Giachetti and R.H. Campos, 1984. Effect of lysosomotropic agents on the foot-and-mouth disease virus replication. *Virology*, 135: 542-545.
- Du, J., H. Chang, S. Gao, G. Cong and J. Shao *et al.*, 2009. Sheep (*Ovis aries*) integrins alphavbeta1 and alphavbeta6 related to foot-and-mouth disease virus infection: Molecular cloning, sequence analysis and comparison with homologues. *Mol. Cell Probes.*, 23: 247-257.
- Du, J., H. Chang, S. Gao, S. Xue and G. Cong *et al.*, 2010. Molecular characterization and expression analysis of porcine integrins alpha v beta 3, alpha v beta 6 and alpha v beta 8 that are potentially involved in FMDV infection. *Mol. Cell Probe.*, 24: 256-265.
- Duque, H., M. LaRocco, W.T. Golde and B. Baxt, 2004. Interactions of foot-and-mouth disease virus with soluble bovine alphaVbeta3 and alphaVbeta6 integrins. *J. Virol.*, 78: 9773-9781.
- Fry, E.E., S.M. Lea, T. Jackson, J.W. Newman and F.M. Ellard *et al.*, 1999. The structure and function of a foot-and-mouth disease virus-oligosaccharide receptor complex. *EMBO J.*, 18: 543-554.
- Fry, E.E., D.I. Stuart and D.J. Rowlands, 2005. The structure of foot-and-mouth disease virus. *Curr. Top Microbiol. Immunol.*, 288: 71-101.
- Grubman, M.J. and B. Baxt, 2004. Foot-and-mouth disease. *Clin. Microbiol. Rev.*, 17: 465-493.
- Guo, H., X. Liu, Z. Liu, H. Yin and J. Ma *et al.*, 2006. Recent outbreaks of foot-and-mouth disease type asia 1 in China. *J. Vet. Med. B Infect Dis. Vet. Public Health*, 53: 29-33.
- Jackson, T., D. Sheppard, M. Denyer, W. Blakemore and A.M. King, 2000. The epithelial integrin alphavbeta6 is a receptor for foot-and-mouth disease virus. *J. Virol.*, 74: 4949-4956.
- Jackson, T., A.P. Mould, D. Sheppard and A.M.Q. King, 2002. Integrin $\alpha v \beta 1$ is a receptor for foot-and-mouth disease Virus. *J. Virol.*, 76: 935-941.
- Jackson, T., S. Clark, S. Berryman, A. Burman and S. Cambier *et al.*, 2004. Integrin alphavbeta8 functions as a receptor for foot-and-mouth disease virus: Role of the beta-chain cytodomain in integrin-mediated infection. *J. Virol.*, 78: 4533-4540.
- King, D.P., A. Burman, S. Gold, A.E. Shaw, T. Jackson and N.P. Ferris, 2011. Integrin sub-unit expression in cell cultures used for the diagnosis of foot-and-mouth disease. *Vet. Immunol. Immunopathol.*, 140: 259-265.
- Lawrence, P., M. Larocco, B. Baxt and E. Rieder, 2013. Examination of soluble integrin resistant mutants of foot-and-mouth disease virus. *Virol. J.*, 10, 10.1186/1743-422X-10-2.
- Li, P., Z. Lu, H. Bao, D. Li and D.P. King *et al.*, 2011. *In-vitro* and *in-vivo* phenotype of type Asia 1 foot-and-mouth disease viruses utilizing two non-RGD receptor recognition sites. *BMC Microbiol.*, 11, 10.1186/1471-2180-11-154.
- Mason, P.W., E. Rieder and B. Baxt, 1994. RGD sequence of foot-and-mouth disease virus is essential for infecting cells via the natural receptor but can be bypassed by an antibody-dependent enhancement pathway. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.*, 91: 1932-1936.
- Miller, L.C., W. Blakemore, D. Sheppard, A. Atakilit, A.M. King and T. Jackson, 2001. Role of the cytoplasmic domain of the beta-subunit of integrin alpha(v)beta6 in infection by foot-and-mouth disease virus. *J. Virol.*, 75: 4158-4164.
- Neff, S., P.W. Mason and B. Baxt, 2000. High-efficiency utilization of the bovine integrin $\alpha v \beta 3$ as a receptor for foot-and-mouth disease virus is dependent on the bovine $\beta 3$ subunit. *J. Virol.*, 74: 7298-7306.
- O'Donnell, V., M. LaRocco, H. Duque and B. Baxt, 2005. Analysis of Foot-and-Mouth Disease Virus Internalization Events in Cultured Cells. *J. Virol.*, 79: 8506-8518.
- Pacheco, J.M., T.M. Henry, V.K. O'Donnell, J.B. Gregory and P.W. Mason, 2003. Role of nonstructural proteins 3A and 3B in host range and pathogenicity of foot-and-mouth disease virus. *J. Virol.*, 77: 13017-13027.

- Pega, J., D. Bucafusco, S. Di Giacomo, J. Schammas and D. Malacari *et al.*, 2012. Early adaptive immune responses in the respiratory tract of foot and mouth disease-infected cattle. *J. Virol.*, 87: 2489-2495.
- Reid, S.M., N.P. Ferris, G.H. Hutchings, Z. Zhang, G.J. Belsham and S. Alexandersen, 2002. Detection of all seven serotypes of foot-and-mouth disease virus by real-time, fluorogenic reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction assay. *J. Virol. Methods*, 105: 67-80.
- Rueckert, R.R. and E. Wimmer, 1984. Systematic nomenclature of picornavirus proteins. *J. Virol.*, 50: 957-959.
- Ruiz-Saenz, J., Y. Goetz, W. Tabares and A. Lopez-Herrera, 2009. Cellular receptors for foot and mouth disease virus. *Intervirology*, 52: 201-212.
- Shaw, A.E., S.M. Reid, K. Ebert, G.H. Hutchings, N.P. Ferris and D.P. King, 2007. Implementation of a one-step real-time RT-PCR protocol for diagnosis of foot-and-mouth disease. *J. Virol. Methods*, 143: 81-85.
- Sheppard, D., D.S. Cohen, A. Wang and M. Busk, 1992. Transforming growth factor beta differentially regulates expression of integrin subunits in guinea pig airway epithelial cells. *J. Biol. Chem.*, 267: 17409-17414.
- Urlinger, S., U. Baron, M. Thellmann, M.T. Hasan, H. Bujard and W. Hillen, 2000. Exploring the sequence space for tetracycline-dependent transcriptional activators: Novel mutations yield expanded range and sensitivity. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.*, 97: 7963-7968.
- Valarcher, J.F., N.J. Knowles, N.P. Ferris, D.J. Paton and V. Zakharov *et al.*, 2005. Recent spread of FMD virus serotype Asia 1. *Vet. Rec.*, 157: 30-30.
- Valarcher, J.F., N.J. Knowles, V. Zakharov, A. Scherbakov and Z. Zhang *et al.*, 2009. Multiple origins of foot-and-mouth disease virus serotype Asia 1 outbreaks, 2003-2007. *Emerg. Infect. Dis.*, 15: 1046-1051.
- Vogel, B.E., G. Tarone, F.G. Giancotti, J. Gailit and E. Ruoslahti, 1990. A novel fibronectin receptor with an unexpected subunit composition (alpha v beta 1). *J. Biol. Chem.*, 265: 5934-5937.
- Zhang, Q., D. Li, X. Liu, Z. Liu and X. Cai *et al.*, 2008. Experimental studies with foot-and-mouth disease virus type Asia-1, responsible for the 2005 epidemic in China. *Res. Vet. Sci.*, 85: 368-371.
- Zheng, H., H. Tian, Y. Jin, J. Wu and Y. Shang *et al.*, 2009. Development of a hamster kidney cell line expressing stably T7 RNA polymerase using retroviral gene transfer technology for efficient rescue of infectious foot-and-mouth disease virus. *J. Virol. Methods*, 156: 129-137.