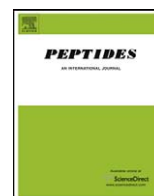




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## Review

# Thymosin alpha 1: Biological activities, applications and genetic engineering production

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## ABSTRACT

Thymosin alpha 1 (T $\alpha$ 1), a 28-amino acid peptide, was first described and characterized from calf thymuses in 1977. This peptide can enhance T-cell, dendritic cell (DC) and antibody responses, modulate cytokines and chemokines production and block steroid-induced apoptosis of thymocytes. Due to its pleiotropic biological activities, T $\alpha$ 1 has gained increasing interest in recent years and has been used for the treatment of various diseases in clinic. Accordingly, there is an increasing need for the production of this peptide. So far, T $\alpha$ 1 used in clinic is synthesized using solid phase peptide synthesis. Here, we summarize the genetic engineering methods to produce T $\alpha$ 1 using prokaryotic or eukaryotic expression systems. The effectiveness of these biological products in increasing the secretion of cytokines and in promoting lymphocyte proliferation were investigated *in vitro* studies. This opens the possibility for biotechnological production of T $\alpha$ 1 for the research and clinical applications.

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## 1. Introduction

Thymosin alpha 1 ( $T\alpha 1$ ), a biologically active peptide consisting of 28 amino acid residues, was first described and characterized by Goldstein et al. [34]. The research process of  $T\alpha 1$  began with the study on the thymus, which is an important vital organ for homeostatic maintenance of peripheral immune system [48]. In 1966, Goldstein et al. [35] first isolated and described a lymphocytopenic factor from calf thymus, which was termed “thymosin”. The multiple action of thymosin on the immune, endocrine and central nervous systems was revised by Goldstein and Badamchian [32]. Further purification of this factor led to the isolation of a heat-stable acetone-insoluble preparation, termed thymosin fraction 5 (TF5), which could induce T cell differentiation, enhance immunological function [36] and induce apoptosis of neuroendocrine tumor cells [72]. The promising results seen with TF5 provided the scientific rationale to further isolate and characterize the molecules in TF5 responsible for the reconstitution of T-cell immunity. Hence,  $T\alpha 1$  was first purified from TF5 in 1977 [34] and has been found to be 10–1000 times as active as TF5 evaluated *in vivo* and *in vitro* [47].

$T\alpha 1$  is the asparaginyl endopeptidase cleavage product of prothymosin  $\alpha$  (Pro $T\alpha$ ), an acidic nuclear protein consisting of 109 amino acid residues [10].  $T\alpha 1$  is a highly conserved acid peptide, ubiquitously existing in lymphoid tissues such as spleen and lymph nodes, non-lymphoid tissues such as lungs, kidneys, and brain, but mainly existing in thymus gland [33], especially in the thymic epithelial cells. Interestingly, the secretion of  $T\alpha 1$  is not modulated by other hormones or releasing factors [54]. As a potent biological response modifier (BRM),  $T\alpha 1$  has intensive clinical applications. In the first randomized double-blind Phase II trial of  $T\alpha 1$  carried out by Schulof et al. [68], administration of synthetic  $T\alpha 1$  to postradiotherapy patients with non-small cell lung cancer exhibited significant improvements in relapse-free and overall survival, which was most pronounced in patients with nonbulky tumors. Now  $T\alpha 1$  is in clinical trials worldwide for the treatment of several types of cancer, hepatitis B virus (HBV) and hepatitis C virus (HCV) infections, which connect closely with hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) [77]. Additionally,  $T\alpha 1$  shows remarkable effects in the treatment of other diseases such as severe sepsis [87,43], acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS) [38], severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) [23], gastrointestinal and systemic infectious disorders [39], and spontaneous peritonitis in individuals with cirrhosis [49].

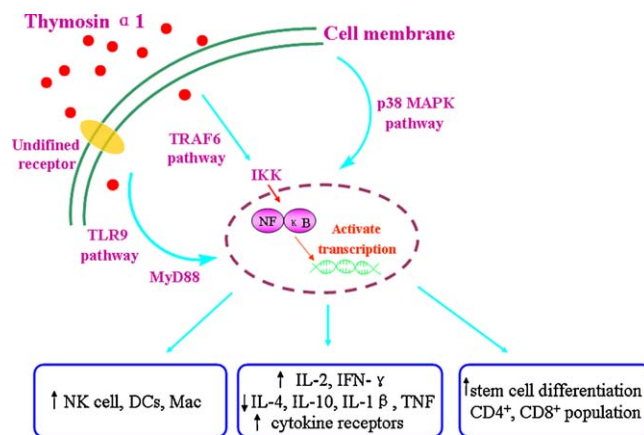
Because of the extensive applications of  $T\alpha 1$ , there is an increasing need to produce  $T\alpha 1$  in larger quantities to keep up with the growing clinical demand. Besides isolated from calf thymus, bioactive  $T\alpha 1$  can be obtained by solid-phase synthesis [78] or genetic engineering [80], but  $T\alpha 1$  currently used in clinic is entirely solid-phase synthesized polypeptide, with chemical features identical to the human  $T\alpha 1$  [40]. Recently, genetic engineering expression of  $T\alpha 1$  in different hosts including *Escherichia coli*, *Pichia pastries* and plants [55,14] has attracted more attention due to its potential for producing low cost and bioactive  $T\alpha 1$ .

In this review, we briefly describe the biological activities of  $T\alpha 1$  and discuss the current applications of  $T\alpha 1$  in cancer and infectious diseases. Furthermore, we summarize ways of genetic engineering production of this peptide, which maybe provide a conceptual framework for future studies to improve the quality and the yield of  $T\alpha 1$  for different fields of research and clinical applications.

## 2. Biological activities of $T\alpha 1$

### 2.1. Immunoregulation

Many studies have been performed to identify the immunoregulatory activity of  $T\alpha 1$  *in vitro* and *in vivo*. Evidence has shown that  $T\alpha 1$  increased the efficiency of T cell maturation [1], stimulated



**Fig. 1.** Immunoregulation of  $T\alpha 1$  and action mechanisms. TRAF: TNF-receptor-associated factor; TLR9: toll-like receptor 9; Mac: macrophage; p38MAPK: p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase; IKK: I-kappa B kinase; MyD88: myeloid differentiation factor 88.

precursor stem cell differentiation into the  $CD4^+/CD8^+$  T cells [57] and balanced  $CD3/CD4^+/CD8^+$  T cells of peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) [84]. By stimulating natural killer (NK) cells and cytotoxic lymphocytes ( $CD8^+$  T cell),  $T\alpha 1$  could directly kill virally infected cells [67]. By activating dendritic cells (DCs),  $T\alpha 1$  was able to protect immunocompromised mice from death caused by aspergillosis [62].  $T\alpha 1$  stimulated a significant increase of IL-2 and led to a decrease in the Th2 cytokines such as IL-4 and IL-10 in patients with chronic HCV [67]. Besides,  $T\alpha 1$  remarkably decreased the severity of severe acute pancreatitis by having a negative effect on serum levels of IL-1 $\beta$  and tumor necrosis factor-alpha (TNF- $\alpha$ ) [84].  $T\alpha 1$  also upregulated specific cytokine receptors such as high-affinity IL-2 cytokine receptors [42].

Not only activating immuno-effector cells or modulating cytokines expression,  $T\alpha 1$  also directly exerted its effects on target cells. It could increase the expression of MHC I [30] and tumor antigens [25], directly depress viral replication [4], and increase expression of viral antigens on the surface of target-infected cells [24], making them more visible to the immune system and less prone to escape from immunosurveillance.

Although the observations of the  $T\alpha 1$  potential immunoregulatory effects are clearly evident, what is not clear is the mechanisms of action on the immune system. It was reported that  $T\alpha 1$  could directly modulate the expression of cytokine genes, MHC class I, MHC class II related genes as well as a significant number of new genes, acting as immune system regulators [26]. Naylor and his colleagues demonstrated that genes of major histocompatibility proteins, costimulatory molecules, chemokines and cytokines, and their receptors were upregulated in both T cells and monocytes exposed to  $T\alpha 1$  [54], indicating that there were multiple targets for its immune-enhancing activity. As illustrated in Fig. 1,  $T\alpha 1$ -mediated stimulation of intracellular signaling pathways included mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) transduction pathways [71] and TNF- $\alpha$  receptor-associated factor 6 (TRAF6) signal pathway by activating I-kappa B kinase (IKK) [88].  $T\alpha 1$  has also been found to induce IL-6, IL-10 and IL-12 expression via IRAK4/1/TRAF6/PKC $\zeta$ /IKK/NF- $\kappa$ B and TRAF6/MAPK/AP-1 pathways [56]. These pathways are shared by many cytokines, which predict potential synergy between  $T\alpha 1$  and cytokines.  $T\alpha 1$  was able to prime DC for antifungal Th1 resistance through Toll-like receptor 9 (TLR9)/myeloid differentiation factor 88 (MyD88)-dependent signaling [62]. Besides, DCs could also be primed by  $T\alpha 1$ -induced activation of p38 MAPK, NF- $\kappa$ B pathways [83]. Activated plasmacytoid DCs (pDC) led to the activation of interferon regulatory factor 7 and the promotion of the IFN- $\alpha$ /IFN- $\gamma$ -dependent effector path-

**Table 1**  
Summary of antitumor activities of T $\alpha$ 1.

Author/reference	Object	Tumor model	Treatment	Dose/route/duration
Qin et al. [60]	HepG2 cells and SPC-A-1 cells	Hepatocarcinoma lung and adenocarcinoma	T $\alpha$ 1	50 $\mu$ g/mL
Beuth et al. [6]	BALB/c-mice	Liver and lung metastases	T $\alpha$ 1	0.01–10 $\mu$ g/subcutaneous injection/7 days
Moody et al. [52]	Fisher rat	Mammary carcinogenesis	T $\alpha$ 1	10 $\mu$ g/subcutaneous injection
Moody [53]	Fisher rat and C3(1)SV40T antigen mouse	Breast adenomas	T $\alpha$ 1	0.4 mg/kg/subcutaneous injection
Moody [53]	A/J mice	Lung adenomas	T $\alpha$ 1	0.4 mg/kg/subcutaneous injection/8 months
Chen et al. [12]	ICR mice	Hep-A-22 liver tumor	Plasmid–liposome complex containing T $\alpha$ 1 gene and IFN $\omega$ <sub>1</sub> gene	40 $\mu$ g plasmid DNA/tail vein injection/7 days
Garaci et al. [26]	BDIX rats	DHD-K12 colorectal cancer	5-Fluorouracil (FU)+ IL-2 + T $\alpha$ 1	Not detailed
Sungarian et al. [73]	Long Evans rats	Glioblastoma	Carmustine (BCNU) + T $\alpha$ 1	45–200 $\mu$ g/kg intraperitoneal injection/3 days

way, which resulted *in vivo* in protection against primary murine cytomegalovirus infection [63]. Moreover, activated indoleamine 2,3-dioxygenase (IDO) could induce transplantation tolerance and reduce inflammation allergy [64]. Recently, Qin et al. found that T $\alpha$ 1 inhibited HepG2 cells proliferation might associated with protein kinase B (Akt) signaling pathway [60].

## 2.2. Antitumor

T $\alpha$ 1 has been shown to decrease tumor cell growth both *in vitro* and *in vivo* and has been demonstrated therapeutic usefulness in several types of cancer (Table 1). T $\alpha$ 1 was observed to exhibit anti-proliferative effects on HepG2 human hepatoma cells and SPC-A-1 lung adenocarcinoma cells *in vitro* assays [60]. To explore the anti-metastatic/antitumor activity of T $\alpha$ 1, it was subcutaneously injected into BALB/c-mice, which significantly reduced liver and lung metastases and decreased local tumor growth [6]. Moody et al. investigated the effects of T $\alpha$ 1 on mammary carcinogenesis in fisher rats and found that T $\alpha$ 1 could reduce mammary carcinoma incidence and prolong survival time [52]. In another breast adenoma model, T $\alpha$ 1 increased the survival time in female C3(1)SV40T antigen transgenic mice and fisher rats, but it remained to be determined whether the immune response also increased or not [53]. The antitumor activity of T $\alpha$ 1 was most effective when the lung adenomas were small, which was based on studies performed by Moody who gave T $\alpha$ 1 daily to A/J mice bearing lung adenoma [53]. T $\alpha$ 1 may fight against tumors through either stimulating the immune system or directly inhibiting the proliferation of tumor cells.

T $\alpha$ 1 in combination with other BRMs or chemotherapy agents also displays good effects in reducing tumor burden and progression. The plasmid–liposome complex containing the cDNA of human T $\alpha$ 1 and IFN  $\omega$ <sub>1</sub> was injected into ICR mice, and the dual-gene plasmid–liposome complex showed stronger inhibitory effect on the growth of tumor than the single gene of T $\alpha$ 1 or IFN  $\omega$ <sub>1</sub>, which might attribute to indirect and additive induction of apoptosis of tumor cells by the increased expression of T $\alpha$ 1 and IFN  $\omega$ <sub>1</sub> [12]. In DHD-K12 colorectal cancer model, combination of 5-FU, IL-2 and T $\alpha$ 1 could dramatically increase survival rates as well as control tumor metastasis [26]. Similarly, compared with Carmustine (BCNU) monotherapy, intraperitoneal injection of T $\alpha$ 1 and BCNU to adult Long Evans rats bearing glioblastoma could significantly lower the tumor burdens and increase the cure rates [73]. Since the cascades and feedback networks of immune responses, the combination of immunoactive

molecules that affected different immune effector cells resulted in a stimulation of the immune response significantly stronger than that evoked by single treatments. This could contribute in helping explain the mechanisms of the significance of combination therapy.

## 2.3. Protection against oxidative damage

Several reports showed that T $\alpha$ 1 had protective effects against oxidative damage. T $\alpha$ 1 had a positive influence on liver superoxide dismutase (SOD) and glutathione peroxidase (GSH-Px) activity and thereby limited free radical damages to hepatic tissue [5]. Similarly, it was reported that T $\alpha$ 1 could ameliorate streptozotocin-induced pancreatic lesions and diabetes by reducing malondialdehyde (MDA), increasing GSH level and enhancing the activities of both SOD and catalase (CAT), suggesting that T $\alpha$ 1 treatment could greatly enhance the overall antioxidative capability of pancreatic tissues [61].

## 2.4. Other functions

T $\alpha$ 1 possesses the ability of influencing the central nervous system [68,70]. Its modulatory effect on the excitatory synaptic transmission in cultured hippocampal neurons was documented [81]. Similarly, when it was combined with chemotherapeutics in treating cancers, T $\alpha$ 1 could prevent patients from chemotherapy-induced neurotoxicities [2]. Moreover, T $\alpha$ 1 has potent effects in promoting endothelial cell migration, angiogenesis as well as wound healing [50].

## 3. Clinical application of T $\alpha$ 1 in treating cancers and infectious diseases

### 3.1. Applications of T $\alpha$ 1 in cancers

Patients with cancer are often accompanied with significant deficiencies in cellular immunity. In addition, standard treatments for cancer usually induce significant depression of the immune response. T $\alpha$ 1 has been demonstrated to decrease tumor cell growth both *in vitro* and *in vivo* and has therapeutic effect in several types of cancer. In advanced lung or advanced breast cancer, T $\alpha$ 1 combined with chemotherapy could prevent patients from chemotherapy-induced neurotoxicities [2]. In a Phase II multicenter, randomized open-label study, different dose levels of T $\alpha$ 1 in combination with Dacarbazine (DTIC) chemotherapy were given

to patients with stage IV melanoma. Reported results show that the combination therapy tripled the overall response rate and extended overall survival by nearly 3 months compared with patients treated with DTIC, combined with IFN- $\alpha$  [8]. More recently, in patients with unresectable HCC, transarterial chemoembolization (TACE) combined with T $\alpha$ 1 resulted in numerically higher rates of survival and tumor response, including transplant candidacy, with fewer bacterial infections, than TACE alone [29].

Obviously, significant tumor growth inhibition and survival rate increase were achieved in different human tumor models when T $\alpha$ 1 was combined with other treatment modalities. It can be concluded that combinatorial therapies, in which T $\alpha$ 1 represents one important mediator, are effective therapeutic strategy against tumors and will be the key focus for the use of T $\alpha$ 1 in treating cancers in the future.

### 3.2. Hepatitis B

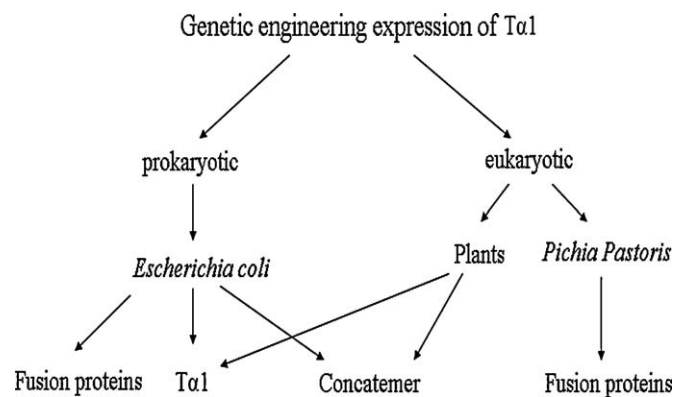
Chronic HBV infection is a serious clinical problem because of its worldwide distribution and potential adverse sequelae, such as cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma [44]. T $\alpha$ 1 has been approved for the treatment of hepatitis B in many countries worldwide with a significantly increasing virological response over time after therapy [58]. Most of the studies have evaluated the efficacy of T $\alpha$ 1 in the treatment of HBeAg-positive and HBeAg-negative chronic hepatitis B. For instance, administering T $\alpha$ 1 either 0.8 mg or 1.6 mg to 316 Japanese patients with HBeAg-positive chronic hepatitis B showed HBeAg seroconversion in 18.8% and 21.5% at 48 weeks after the end of treatment, respectively [37]. Similarly, administering T $\alpha$ 1 1.6 mg to Chinese patients with HBeAg-negative chronic hepatitis B twice weekly showed a complete response, defined as normalization of alanine transaminase (ALT) and undetectable HBV DNA by PCR assay, in 11 of 26 patients (42.3%) at 6 months after the end of treatment [86]. Zhang et al. searched materials from different databases and analyzed eight trials using meta analysis. They found that lamivudine and T $\alpha$ 1 combination treatment was particularly prominent than lamivudine monotherapy in terms of ALT normalization rate, virological response rate and HBeAg seroconversion rate [89]. Conversely, Lee et al. [41] revealed that combining T $\alpha$ 1 and lamivudine did not display a better benefit to virological and biochemical response than the lamivudine monotherapy. Maybe the small trial scale led to the divergent results.

### 3.3. Hepatitis C

As a monotherapy, T $\alpha$ 1 does not seem useful in treating HCV infection, which is confirmed by a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial [3]. However, combination therapy of T $\alpha$ 1 and pegylated interferon  $\alpha$ 2a (peg-IFN- $\alpha$ 2a) could effectively suppress viral replication in difficult-to-treat hepatitis C patients. In addition, T $\alpha$ 1 was well tolerated with no significant adverse effects observed [66]. Approximately 50% of treatment-naïve HCV patients failed to achieve a sustained virologic response (SVP) with standard peg-IFN and ribavirin therapy [21], so a triple combination therapy with peg-IFN- $\alpha$ 2a, ribavirin and T $\alpha$ 1 has been developed and proved to be a safe [7] and effective [59] treatment option for difficult-to-treat HCV patients who are refractory to prior conventional treatment.

### 3.4. AIDS

Human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) specially targets cells that express CD4, such as macrophages, DCs and CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells. When the virus becomes lymphotropic, it begins to infect CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells efficiently followed by significantly declined antibody



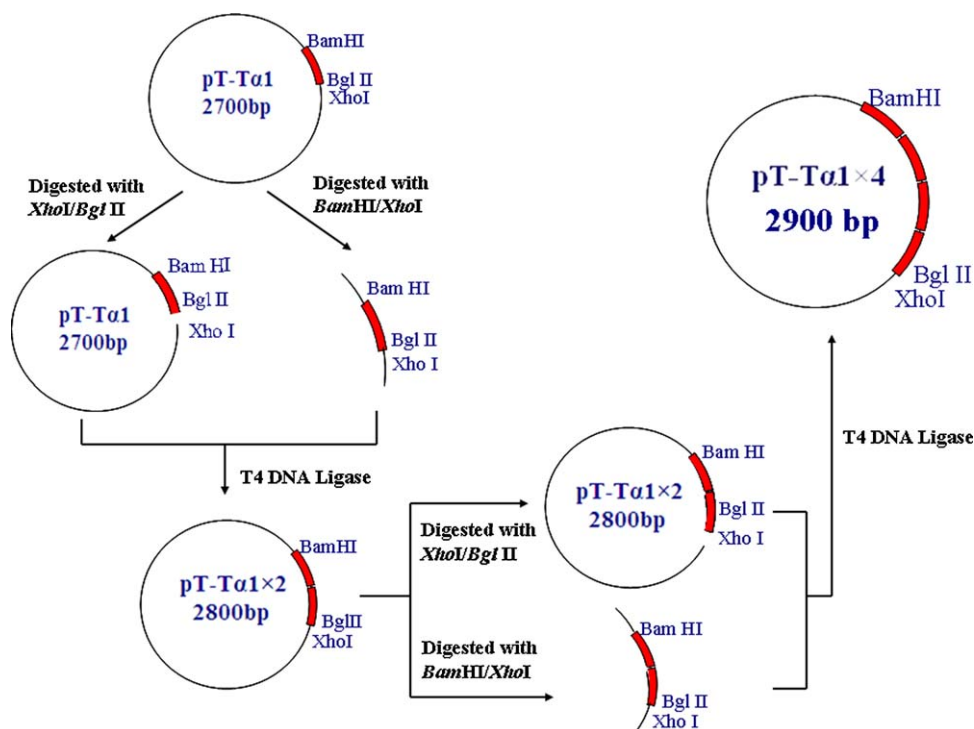
**Fig. 2.** Ways to genetic engineering expression of T $\alpha$ 1. Production of T $\alpha$ 1 in prokaryotic and eukaryotic expression systems is a cost-effective approach. T $\alpha$ 1, T $\alpha$ 1-related fusion proteins and T $\alpha$ 1 concatemer can be expressed in *E. coli*. T $\alpha$ 1 as well as several T $\alpha$ 1-related fusion proteins are expressed in *P. pastoris*. Besides, plants are also used for the production of T $\alpha$ 1 in the form of monomer or concatemer.

class switching. Furthermore, CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells are not stimulated as effectively, facilitating the escape of the virus from immune control and the collapse of the whole immune system [51]. Since significant immune responses play an important role in the prevention of infection with human HIV, it is thought that the induction of strong immune responses especially CTL responses against HIV-1 could be important to prevent the onset of acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS) [74]. One study has suggested that combination of T $\alpha$ 1, zidovudine (AZT) and IFN- $\alpha$  resulted in a significant increase in the number and function of CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells and a reduction in HIV titers [27]. Another interesting finding was provided by Chadwick et al. [9], who studied the safety and efficacy of T $\alpha$ 1 in combination with highly active antiretroviral therapy (HAART) in stimulating immune reconstitution. The results demonstrated that T $\alpha$ 1 appeared to be very well tolerated and could dramatically increase the levels of signal joint T cell receptor excision circles (sjTREC) in patients with advanced HIV disease. However, longer treatment duration of T $\alpha$ 1 in augmenting the immune reconstitution needs further investigation.

## 4. Gene expression of T $\alpha$ 1

From the natural source, T $\alpha$ 1 can only be obtained in tiny quantities. To obtain larger amounts of this peptide, literally tons of fresh frozen calf thymus tissue and acetone are required [31]. Furthermore, heterogeneous allergens introduced by manufacturing process limit its availability for research and medical applications. Solid phase synthesis has permitted scientists to synthesize and purify T $\alpha$ 1 to allow human clinical trials [78,79] with the advantages of simplicity, ease of operation, general efficiency and lack of endotoxins and DNA contaminations. However, difficult sequences T $\alpha$ 1 bears and the high number of protecting groups required to assemble the peptide may give final low yields, insufficient purity and high expenses. A recent report revealed that combination of the side-chain anchoring approach with the hydrophilicity of the totally PEG-based resin facilitated the synthesis of T $\alpha$ 1 in high purity and high yields [28].

With the advancement in genetic engineering, bioactive T $\alpha$ 1 can be expressed in prokaryotic and eukaryotic expression systems, which are cost-effective alternative approaches to produce biotechnical drugs. These products including T $\alpha$ 1, fusion proteins and concatemers produced in *E. coli*, *P. pastoris* and plants were all soluble expressed, which could escape from refolding from inclu-



**Fig. 3.** Construction of the concatemer gene. A T-vector containing the  $T\alpha 1$  gene (in red) was digested with  $BamHI/XhoI$  and  $BglIII/XhoI$  respectively. When digested with  $BglIII$  and  $BamHI$ , the two fragments had identical termini and could be ligated with T4 DNA ligase subsequently forming a new sequence GGATCT, which could not be digested by neither  $BamHI$  nor  $BglIII$ . Therefore, a plasmid containing double  $T\alpha 1$  genes was constructed and could not be destroyed when the concatemer  $T\alpha 1$  gene of 4 repeats was constructed. Thus, the plasmid containing concatemer  $T\alpha 1$  gene of 4 repeats and 6 repeats could also be constructed [90]. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of the article.)

sion bodies (see Fig. 2). But isolation and purification of them with a high purity is difficult and applying them to clinical treatment has not come true. A number of studies of using genetic engineering to gain bioactive  $T\alpha 1$  are summarized as follows.

#### 4.1. Prokaryotic expression of $T\alpha 1$

*E. coli* is one of the earliest and most widely used hosts for the production of heterologous proteins [75]. It has the advantages of rapid growth and expression, easy culture and high yields. However, *E. coli* is not the system of choice for expressing disulfide rich proteins and proteins that require post-translational modifications [17]. With the characteristics of small molecular weight and needless post-translational modifications,  $T\alpha 1$  is suitable to be expressed by *E. coli* system. Several strategies for the expression of  $T\alpha 1$ ,  $T\alpha 1$ -BRMs fusion proteins,  $T\alpha 1$  concatemer and so on using *E. coli* expression system have been reported.

##### 4.1.1. Expression of $T\alpha 1$

Generally, small peptides are difficult to be overexpressed directly in *E. coli* since they can be quickly degraded by cellular proteases. The use of protease-deficient host strains and fusion tags, such as his-tag and thioredoxin can help to avoid non-specific proteolytic degradation and facilitate purification. Following this approach, the synthesized human  $T\alpha 1$  gene was inserted into pET-28a (+) plasmid and then inductively expressed as a soluble form in *E. coli* BL21, which is a protease-deficient host strain. Compared with other expression systems, the BL21/pET-28a system provided the highest expression level of fusion protein, which amounted to 70% of total expressed proteins [13]. Furthermore,  $T\alpha 1$  gene was inserted into pET32b (+) and expressed with thioredoxin in *E. coli* strain ER2566. After proteolytic cleavage and chemical

acetylation, the resultant  $T\alpha 1$  was purified by reversed-phase high-performance liquid chromatography (RP-HPLC) with the yield of 29 mg per litre of bacterial culture. This method is simple, cost-effective and suitable for large-scale production of  $T\alpha 1$  [18].

##### 4.1.2. Expression of $T\alpha 1$ -BRMs fusion proteins

Since improved control of tumor growth can be observed when tumor-bearing mice were treated with  $T\alpha 1$  and high doses of IL-2 [46], combination therapies have performed and have been proved to be effective in inhibiting tumor growth and in controlling infectious diseases especially in the immunocompromised host. Thus, the expression of fused molecules of  $T\alpha 1$  and other BRMs which have synergistic effect with  $T\alpha 1$  was investigated.  $T\alpha 1$  and cBlyS, a soluble B-cell lymphocyte stimulator amplifying the humoral response, were fused with a flexible linker sequence and expressed in *E. coli*. This bifunctional lymphokine was useful in the treatment of various immunodeficiency syndromes and served as an immunomodulator to enhance the host's response to vaccination [69]. The fusion protein of  $T\alpha 1$  and consensus IFN $\alpha$  (IFN $\alpha$ -con), which was soluble and amounted to more than 20% of total proteins of *E. coli*, showed higher antiviral effect than IFN $\alpha$  and the activity in promoting lymphocyte proliferation was similar to commercial  $T\alpha 1$  [45].

##### 4.1.3. Expression of $T\alpha 1$ concatemer

It is difficult to extract and purify  $T\alpha 1$  from the fermentation broth since its molecular weight is small. The concatemer strategy maybe partially solve the problem of low expression and the difficulty of purification by increasing the size of the target molecule. A concatemer  $T\alpha 1$  gene of 6 repeats was constructed according to the *E. coli* codon usage preference, ligated with expression vector pET-22b (+) and transformed into *E. coli* BL21 (DE3) [90]. The  $T\alpha 1$  monomer was successfully released by hydroxylamine inci-

sion after concatemer purification, and its activity in promoting mice splenic lymphocyte proliferation was approximately identical to the natural T $\alpha$ 1. The intimate process of construction of the concatemer *T $\alpha$ 1* gene is described in Fig. 3.

In addition, a concatemer *T $\alpha$ 1* gene of 4 repeats was synthesized and successfully expressed in *E. coli* in a soluble form. Preliminary results demonstrated that the concatemer protein also had the activity in stimulating mouse spleen lymphocyte proliferation [15].

#### 4.1.4. Co-expression of *T $\alpha$ 1* and *RimJ*

It is a common knowledge that *E. coli* lacks efficient post-translational modification systems for modifying exogenous proteins. However, Fang et al. [20] found that the fusion protein of T $\alpha$ 1 and ribosomal protein L12 was partly *N*<sup>α</sup>-acetylated when expressed in *E. coli* and this modification was performed by RimJ, which is the N terminal acetyltransferase that modifies the ribosomal protein S5 [85] and acts as a ribosome assembly factor [65]. This enlightens us that fully acetylated T $\alpha$ 1 can be obtained by co-expressing with RimJ. However, little is known about the pathway by which this fusion protein is *N*<sup>α</sup>-acetylated. The previous reports that the activity of none or partly *N*<sup>α</sup>-acetylated T $\alpha$ 1 is similar to the natural one [80] illustrated that *N*<sup>α</sup>-acetylation of T $\alpha$ 1 could influence the stability of the peptide instead of the bioactivity *in vivo*.

Based on the above research findings, it can be concluded that T $\alpha$ 1 is suitable to be expressed by *E. coli* expression system. To improve the expression efficacy, the following measures may be meaningful: (i) choosing *E. coli* usage preference codons; (ii) using different promoters to regulate expression; (iii) using protease-deficient host strains.

#### 4.2. Eukaryotic expression of *T $\alpha$ 1*

Yeasts are attractive hosts for the production of heterologous proteins for providing post-translational modifications and generating stable cell lines via homologous recombination [16]. Some examples of expressing T $\alpha$ 1 in yeast expression system are presented as follows.

Chen et al. [11] successfully constructed an effective yeast expression system for T $\alpha$ 1 in which pYES2-T $\alpha$ 1 plasmid was transformed into INVSc1 yeast host strain, and T $\alpha$ 1 expressed by this system could improve the level of CD8<sup>+</sup> cells in BALB/c mice treated with cyclophosphamide in advance.

Fusion expression of T $\alpha$ 1 and other BMRs in *P. pastoris* are also reported. IFN $\alpha$ 2b exhibits synergic effects with T $\alpha$ 1 in the treatment of hepatitis B and hepatitis C. The fusion protein of IFN $\alpha$ 2b and T $\alpha$ 1 linked by different lengths of (Gly–Gly–Gly–Ser)*n* (*n* = 1–3) were expressed in *P. pastoris* and exhibited both antiviral activity of IFN $\alpha$ 2b and immunomodulatory activity of T $\alpha$ 1 estimated *in vitro* [82]. Thymopentin (TP5) not only acts as an immunomodulatory factor in cancer chemotherapy, but is also a potential chemotherapeutic agent in the human leukemia therapy [19]. However, extremely short half-life *in vivo* (30 s) [76] greatly restricts its clinical applications. In this sense, a T $\alpha$ 1–TP5 fusion gene was synthesized, inserted into vector pGAPZ $\alpha$ A and expressed in *P. pastries* by our research team [22]. The T $\alpha$ 1–TP5 fusion peptide displayed higher activity than T $\alpha$ 1 and TP5 in promoting the phagocytosis of macrophages and the proliferation of Kunming mouse splenocytes.

Plants are also used for the production of T $\alpha$ 1 in the form of monomer or concatemer [55,14]. Recently, the concatemer *T $\alpha$ 1* gene of 4 repeats was introduced and successfully expressed in transgenic tomatoes. The bioactivity of concatemer protein for stimulating proliferation of mice splenic lymphocytes *in vitro* was stronger than that synthesized artificially or T $\alpha$ 1 concatemer pro-

tein expressed in the *E. coli* system, but the underlying reasons were unclear and required further investigation [14].

These examples demonstrate that bioactive T $\alpha$ 1 can be obtained by genetic engineering. With great efforts are being made, such as improving the quality, functionality, purity and yield of T $\alpha$ 1 products, it can be expected that over the next few years they will find their way into the clinic.

#### 5. Conclusions

In addition to immunomodulatory activity, T $\alpha$ 1 owns the ability of influencing the central nervous system and regulating endocrine system. It is very likely that due to its pleiotropic biological activities, T $\alpha$ 1, either alone or combined with other treatment strategies, will have a broader spectrum of applications for successful treatment of various diseases in clinic. Up to now, chemical synthesis is the only effective way to produce T $\alpha$ 1 for clinical therapy. Genetic engineering is an attractive alternative route of expressing bioactive T $\alpha$ 1, but at present, it offers no higher purity of T $\alpha$ 1 compared with chemical synthesis. Recently, gene expression of T $\alpha$ 1 concatemer and fusion proteins have become a major research focus, which are effective strategies for facilitating purification, increasing production and reducing production costs. It is believed that the rapid development of biotechnology may allow application of T $\alpha$ 1 products obtained by genetic engineering in clinic in the future.

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