# Human Sperm-Specific Peptide Vaccine That Causes Long-Term Reversible Contraception<sup>1</sup>

# Rajesh K. Naz<sup>2</sup> and Subhash C. Chauhan

Division of Research, Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, Medical College of Ohio, Toledo, Ohio 43614

## **ABSTRACT**

A novel dodecamer peptide sequence, YLP<sub>12</sub>, was identified on human sperm that is involved in oocyte binding. We investigated its immunocontraceptive effects in a murine model. A vaccine was prepared by conjugating the synthetic YLP<sub>12</sub> peptide with the binding subunit of recombinant cholera toxin. Vaccination of female mice by i.m. or intranasal routes without any additional adjuvant induced a sperm-specific immune response in serum and the vaginal tract that caused a long-term contraceptive state. Fertility was fully regained when antibody reactivity diminished at 305-322 days. The contraceptive effect was also completely reversed voluntarily by intravaginal administration of the peptide. Antibodies affected fertility at the prefertilization stage by inhibiting sperm capacitation and the acrosome reaction, and sperm-oocyte binding. The peptide sequence is an epitope of a  $50 \pm 5$ -kDa membrane protein localized on the acrosome and tail of spermatozoa. Thus, the sperm-specific YLP<sub>12</sub> is an attractive candidate for contraceptive vaccine.

acrosome reaction, immunology, male reproductive tract, sperm, testis

#### INTRODUCTION

The human world population is growing at a tremendous rate despite the availability of various contraceptive modalities and is now estimated to be greater than 6.2 billion people. Additional safe and less-expensive methods that require infrequent administration and long-lasting but reversible contraceptive effects are urgently needed. Contraceptive vaccines that can fulfill these criteria can provide a valuable alternative to currently available methods of family planning. A vaccine that targets sperm represents a promising prefertilization approach to contraception [1]. The inhibition of fertility after deliberate immunization with spermatozoa [2-4] and the presence of antisperm antibodies associated with involuntary infertility in humans [5-7] indicate a feasibility for the antisperm contraceptive approach. The molecular sequences involved in the spermoocyte zona pellucida interaction constitute attractive candidates for immunocontraception [8]. Several sperm antigens have been characterized; antibodies to some of them also affect fertilization in vitro, but only a few inhibit fertility in vivo [9-12]. The utility of a sperm antigen in the development of a contraceptive vaccine is contingent on its involvement in the fertilization process, its tissue specificity, and raising enough antibody titer in the female genital

<sup>1</sup>Supported by National Institutes of Health grant HD24425 to R.K.N. <sup>2</sup>Correspondence: Rajesh K. Naz, Division of Research, Health Education Building Room 211, Medical College of Ohio, 3055 Arlington Avenue, Toledo, OH 43614-5806. FAX: 419 383 4473; e-mail: rnaz@mco.edu

Received: 14 January 2002. First decision: 11 February 2002. Accepted: 20 March 2002.

© 2002 by the Society for the Study of Reproduction, Inc.

ISSN: 0006-3363. http://www.biolreprod.org

tract to inhibit sperm-oocyte interaction. To obtain Food and Drug Administration approval and to conduct appropriate multicenter fertility trials in a quality-controlled manner, recombinant or synthetic peptide molecules are required.

Recently, using the phage peptide display technique, our laboratory identified a novel dodecamer sequence, YLPVGGLRRIGG, designated as YLP<sub>12</sub>, on human sperm that is involved in oocyte zona pellucida binding [13]. An extensive computer search of GenBank, the National Biomedical Research Foundation, and the Swiss sequence databases did not identify any known protein having a complete 12-amino acid sequence identical with the YLP<sub>12</sub> peptide. The sera and seminal plasma of immunoinfertile men but not of fertile men have antibodies to this peptide, indicating its involvement in involuntary immunoinfertility in humans [14]. In the present study, we prepared a vaccine by conjugating the synthetic YLP<sub>12</sub> peptide with the binding subunit of recombinant cholera toxin (rCTB), and examined its immunocontraceptive effects and tissue-specificity in actively immunized female mice. CTB has been successfully used as a carrier and as an adjuvant in several species of animals for enhancing mucosal immunoglobulin (Ig) A and systemic IgG [15–17].

## **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

Vaccine Preparation

The dodecamer peptide, YLPVGGLRRIGG, designated as YLP12, was synthesized by solid-phase synthesis using Fmoc chemistry supplied by Biosynthesis Inc. (Lewisville, TX). Deprotection was achieved by 20% piperidine in dimethylformamide, and the peptide was cleaved from the resin by 85% trifluoroacetic acid (TFA). The peptide was then precipitated in methyl tert-butyl ether and purified by using reverse-phase high performance liquid chromatography. The fractions eluted with 0.5% TFA in acetonitrile were dried in a speed vacuum, redissolved in water, and lyophilized. The peptide was water-soluble and had >95% purity level. The purified peptide was coupled to the binding subunit of rCTB (List Biological Labs, Campbell, CA) by the two-step glutaraldehyde procedure [15]. Briefly, 10 mg of YLP $_{12}$  peptide was dissolved in 200  $\mu l$  of phosphate buffer (0.1 M pH 6.8) and 10 µl of 25% glutaraldehyde was slowly added. The mixture was incubated overnight at room temperature in the absence of light. Then, 2 mg of rCTB was added, and the mixture was incubated for another 24 h at 4°C. The mixture was dialyzed to remove the unconjugated peptide, and the coupling of peptide to rCTB was examined by the dot blot procedure using YLP<sub>12</sub>-specific antibodies [13].

## Active Immunization and Fertility Trial

Virgin CD-1, 10- to 12-wk-old female mice were immunized (designated as day zero) against the YLP<sub>12</sub>-rCTB vaccine, rCTB alone, or PBS through i.m., intranasal (i.n.), or combined i.m. + i.n. routes (Table 1). Each animal received a total of four injections at 2-wk intervals. Each injection consisted of 30 (i.n.) to 100  $\mu$ l (i.m.) of PBS containing 100  $\mu$ g of vaccine, or rCTB, or PBS alone. In the i.n. group, the vaccine was delivered directly into the nostrils, and in the i.m. + i.n. group, half the vaccine (50  $\mu$ g/30  $\mu$ l) was delivered into nostrils and the other half was injected i.m. (50  $\mu$ g/100  $\mu$ l) (Table 1). Starting 2–3 wk after the last injection, the animals were bled biweekly by retro-orbital puncture to collect the serum, and the vaginas were rinsed with 50  $\mu$ l of PBS to collect the vaginal washings in order to examine the antibody titer, as described be-

Pups Overall Mice born Pups born per animal reduction Group Immunization route\*  $(mean \pm SD)$ in fertility (n) Trial I 12 52 YLP<sub>12</sub>-rCTB vaccine Intramuscular  $4.3 \pm 3.4*$ 70.3% 174  $14.4 \pm 0.82$ rCTB alone 12 Intramuscular PBS control Intramuscular 12 175  $14.6 \pm 0.84$ YLP<sub>12</sub>-rCTB vaccine 12 69  $5.8 \pm 2.8*$ Intranasal 61.4% 170  $14.1 \pm 1.2$ rCTB alone 12 Intranasal PBS control Intranasal 12 174  $14.5 \pm 1.0$ Trial III YLP<sub>12</sub>-rCTB vaccine Intramuscular + intranasal 12 65  $5.4 \pm 2.7*$ 62.2% rCTB alone Intramuscular + intranasal 12 168  $14.0 \pm 1.1$ PBS control Intramuscular + intranasal 12 172  $14.3 \pm 1.3$ 

TABLE 1. Fertility at 100–104 days after immunization with YLP<sub>12</sub>-rCTB vaccine by various routes.

low. When the antibody titers peaked at 100-104 days (44-48 days after the last booster injection), the animals were mated overnight with male animals of proven fertility (two females with one male in each cage). The next morning, the mating was confirmed by the presence of a vaginal plug, and the mated animals were separated until they delivered pups. The number of pups delivered by each mated animal was counted, and pups were killed by  $\rm CO_2$  asphyxiation. Three different trials were conducted 5 mo apart using different batches of  $\rm YLP_{12}\text{-}rCTB}$  vaccine.

Fertility was defined as the mean number of pups born by the YLP<sub>12</sub>-rCTB vaccine group or by the rCTB-immunized group divided by the mean number of pups born by the PBS control group, multiplied by 100.

## Voluntary and Involuntary Regain of Fertility

Some animals showing high antibody titers and maximum effect on fertility were selected to examine the effect of disappearance of antibodies on the regain of fertility. Two approaches were taken. One was to voluntarily neutralize the antibodies by peptide administration. The second was to keep the animals for a longer period to let the antibodies involuntarily disappear with time.

In the first approach, to voluntarily neutralize the antibodies, peptide was administered (200  $\mu g/50~\mu l$  PBS) via i.v. or intravaginal routes daily for 3 days. Peptide administration was conducted 6–7 wk after delivery of pups in the fertility trial (Table 1). Following the third peptide administration, the animals were mated, and the number of pups delivered was recorded. Sera and vaginal washings were collected prior to and at day 30 following the third administration in order to examine, if any, the booster effect of the peptide on the antibody reactivity.

In the second approach, the animals were kept for a longer time and the sera and vaginal washings were collected every 2–3 wk to examine the decline of antibody reactivity. All animals in this group showed a disappearance of antibodies at 305–322 days, compared to control levels (<2 SD units). The animals were then mated, and the number of pups delivered was recorded.

# Analysis of Antibodies

*ELISA*. The presence and reactivity of antibodies (IgA and IgG) in serum and vaginal washings were analyzed against YLP<sub>12</sub> peptide by using ELISA [13]. Each serum (1:50 dilution in PBS) and vaginal wash (1:10 dilution in PBS) was run in duplicate and the uncoated wells treated identically served as controls. IgA and IgG class antibodies were determined by using anti-mouse α- and γ-chain second antibodies (A4937 and A3438, respectively, from Sigma, St. Louis, MO). The absorbance reading was converted to standard deviation (SD) units by the following formula: SD unit = mean (test) — mean (control)/SD of control group [18]. The samples with SD units  $\geq$  + 2 were considered positive.

Western blot procedure. Tissue specificity of peptide antibodies was determined by Western blot procedure. Eleven tissues (testis, kidney, liver, intestine, spleen, muscle, heart, lung, brain, ovary, and uterus) and cauda epididymal sperm were collected from mice (n = 2–3) and then homogenized in 0.1% Triton X-100 containing 10 mM PMSF and centrifuged at  $3000 \times g$  for 30 min. The supernatant was collected and acetone-precipitated, and the precipitates were dissolved in PBS, aliquoted, and kept at  $-70^{\circ}$ C until use. The protein extracts ( $\sim$ 50 µg/lane) were run in nonre-

duced slab SDS-PAGE (5%–15% gradient gel) [19], transferred to nitrocellulose membrane [20], the blot was incubated with YLP $_{12}$  antibodies from vaccinated animals or immunoglobulins from control animals (10  $\mu$ g/ml), and the reacted bands were detected as described elsewhere [13]. The YLP $_{12}$  antibody and control immunoglobulin were purified from sera by using Protein G Plus/Protein A agarose beads (Oncogene Research Products/Calbiochem, Cambridge, MA) and used in this and in subsequent experiments.

Indirect immunofluorescence technique. Indirect immunofluorescence was performed on methanol-fixed noncapacitated and capacitated cauda epididymal murine sperm cells according to the procedure described elsewhere [13].

Immunoscanning electron microscopy. Scanning electron microscopy was performed as described elsewhere [21]. Briefly, cauda epididymal sperm were prefixed in 0.5% glutaraldehyde in PBS for 2–3 min, washed, incubated with BSA/control immunoglobulin/YLP $_{12}$  antibody (10  $\mu g/100$   $\mu l)$  from vaccinated animals, washed, and then incubated with gold-labeled goat anti-mouse antibody (Ted-Pella, Reading, CA). The attachment of gold particles was visualized with a stereoscan scanning electron microscope.

Immunobead binding. Immunobead binding was performed to examine the interaction of YLP $_{12}$  antibody with live cauda epididymal sperm cells [22]. Swim-up cauda epididymal murine sperm (5 × 10 $^6$ /ml; noncapacitated or capacitated for 2 h, as described below) were incubated for 45 min at 37 $^\circ$ C with BSA/control immunoglobulin/YLP $_{12}$  antibody (10  $\mu$ g/100  $\mu$ l) in 5% CO $_2$  and 95% air; washed three times; and suspended in Biggers, Whitten, and Whittingham (BWW) medium containing 1% BSA. An 8- $\mu$ l aliquot of sperm suspension was incubated with 2  $\mu$ l of rabbit anti-mouse IgG beads (Irvine Scientific, Santa Ana, CA) in a humid chamber for 10 min, and the number of the sperm bound to the beads was recorded.

Acrosome reaction assay. Motile sperm cells (~90%-95% motility) were collected by swim-up procedure from cauda epididymides and were capacitated in the presence of various concentrations (2.5-10 µg/100 µl) of BSA/control immunoglobulin/YLP<sub>12</sub> antibody for 2 h at 37°C in 5% CO<sub>2</sub> and 95% air in BWW-BSA medium [23]. The acrosome reaction was induced by incubating with calcium ionophore A23187 (Sigma) in a final concentration of 10 µM for 30 min [23]. The sperm were washed three times, fixed in 7.5% formaldehyde, spread over the poly-L-lysine coated slides, air-dried, and stained with 0.04% (w/v) Coomassie blue G-250 in 3.5% perchloric acid in order to analyze acrosome status [24]. The YLP<sub>12</sub> antibody had no effect on motility percentage at any concentration tested compared to the control antibody or BSA. Greater than 80% motility was maintained throughout the experiment in all groups. After ionophore treatment, ~65%-70% motility was observed in all three groups, and ~70%-80% of sperm demonstrated the acrosome reaction in the BSA control medium. At least 250-300 sperm cells were counted in different fields for each sample. The experiment was repeated at least three times on different days using sperm from five mice.

Sperm-egg binding assay. Virgin CD-1 female mice, 8–10 wk old, were superovulated by i.p. injection of 7 IU of eCG (Sigma), oocytes were collected after 12 h of hCG administration, and cumulus cells were removed by using 0.1% hyaluronidase [25]. Motile sperm cells (~90%–95% motility) were collected by swim-up procedure from cauda epididymides, capacitated for 1.5 h, and then incubated for 1 h at 37°C in micro-

<sup>\*</sup> Significantly (P = 0.001 to 0.007) different versus respective control; others were nonsignificant (P > 0.05).

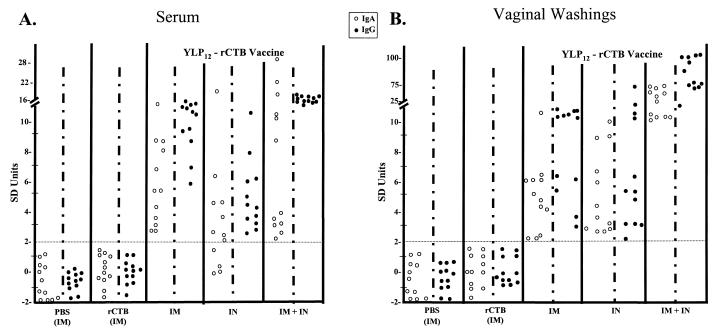


FIG. 1. Antibody reactivity with YLP<sub>12</sub> peptide in serum and vaginal washings of mice immunized with the vaccine, rCTB alone, or PBS. The horizontal dotted line represents two SD units. The samples with SD units  $\geq +2$  were considered positive.

drops of BWW-BSA medium under mineral oil with various concentrations (2.5–10  $\mu g/100~\mu l)$  of BSA/control immunoglobulin/YLP $_{12}$  antibody in a 5% CO $_2$  atmosphere [25]. The eggs (n = 4–10) were then added to the microdrops, the mixture was incubated for 20 min at 37°C in 5% CO $_2$ , the eggs were washed off the loosely bound sperm, and the number of tightly bound sperm in a single plane of view were counted. The experiment was repeated at least three times on different days using eggs and sperm from three to five different mice. Incubation of sperm with YLP $_{12}$  antibody did not affect the percentage of motile sperm at any concentration, compared to the control immunoglobulin or BSA control.

## Statistical Analysis

Significance of difference was analyzed by one-way ANOVA. Post-hoc analysis was performed by using the Bonferroni test. Correlation between the antibody titer (SD units) and fertility (number of pups born) was analyzed by linear regression. A P value of < 0.05 was considered significant.

### **RESULTS**

Vaccination of female mice with YLP<sub>12</sub>-rCTB by various routes induced a contraceptive state resulting in a significant (P=0.001 to 0.007) reduction in litter size. All vaccinated animals (100%) showed some degree of inhibition of fertility, with several animals having high antibody titers showing a complete block (Table 1). No animal in any group showed <38% reduction in fertility, compared with control animals. Vaccination via all routes inhibited fertility, with i.m. immunization showing the greatest reduction. Vaccination via the i.m. route caused an overall 70.3% reduction in litter size, the i.n. route caused a 61.4% reduction, and the i.m. + i.n. route caused a 62.2% reduction. Differences in percent inhibition of litter size among various groups were nonsignificant (P > 0.05).

Antibody reactivity started rising in animals after the last booster injection. Antibody reactivity peaked at 100–104 days after the first injection (44–48 days after the last booster injection), and the animals were mated. At that time, all vaccinated animals (100%) showed positive (>2 SD units) antibody reactivity against the peptide in serum and vaginal washings for the IgG class of antibodies (Fig.

1, A and B). For the IgA class, all animals (100%) in the i.m. group and the combined i.m. + i.n. group demonstrated positive reactivity in serum and vaginal washings. In the i.n. group, 75% (8 of 12) of animals showed positive antibody reactivity in the serum and 100% (12 of 12) of animals had positive titers in vaginal washings. The highest titers were obtained in the i.m. + i.n. group, with many animals showing antibody reactivity in the range of 25–105 SD units (Fig. 1, A and B). Antibody reactivity correlated (r = 0.51–0.74) significantly (P < 0.01) with a reduction in fertility, with vaginal IgA titers showing the highest degree of correlation.

To examine whether one could voluntarily and willingly reverse the contraceptive effect at a particular time, the purified synthetic peptide was administered in two groups of mice that had been previously immunized with the contraceptive vaccine, and which had shown a reduction in litter size. The administration of peptide by i.v. or intravaginal routes showed a regain of fertility, with intravaginal administration causing a complete reversal, with litter sizes in the range of fertile controls (Table 2). Intravenous or intravaginal administration of the peptide in control animals did not affect fertility. Peptide administration by either route did not cause a booster effect on antibody reactivity in either vaccinated or control groups (Table 2).

Animals showing the highest antibody reactivity and greatest reduction in litter size in each group were kept to examine reversibility. Antibody reactivity was monitored biweekly both in the serum and vaginal washings, and by Days 305–322, they had reached <2 SD units, as observed in controls. These animals regained fertility and delivered a litter size that was not significantly different from those of the control group (Table 3).

Antibodies raised after vaccination were tissue-specific and recognized a specific protein band of  $72 \pm 2$  kDa in testis extract and a band of  $50 \pm 5$  kDa in sperm extract. These specific bands were not observed in the protein extracts of 10 murine somatic tissues tested in the Western blot procedure (Fig. 2). Some nonspecific protein bands re-

acted in each tissue; however, the bands were recognized by both the peptide antibodies as well as the control immunoglobulins. Silver-stained SDS-PAGE of these tissue extracts showed several sharp and well-dissolved protein bands without any smear.

The YLP<sub>12</sub> antibody reacted with the acrosome and tail regions of methanol-fixed capacitated or noncapacitated murine sperm with the indirect immunofluorescence and immunoscanning electron microscopic techniques (Fig. 3). With the immunobead binding technique, which used live murine noncapacitated or capacitated caudal sperm, the antibody showed binding to 75%–80% of the sperm membrane in the same regions.

The YLP<sub>12</sub> antibody present in serum of vaccinated animals showing a complete block of fertility caused a significant and concentration-dependent inhibition (65%–70%) of sperm capacitation and acrosome reaction, and a complete block (100%) of sperm-oocyte binding in vitro (Fig. 4). Control immunoglobulin did not cause inhibition of sperm capacitation or acrosome reaction and did not affect sperm-oocyte binding. Immunoadsorption of the YLP<sub>12</sub> antibody with the peptide (1:10 antibody:peptide ratio, w/w) completely abolished the inhibitory effect of the antibodies in both assays (data not shown). The YLP<sub>12</sub> antibody did not affect the percentage of sperm motility in either of these assays, compared to the control immunoglobulin or BSA.

## **DISCUSSION**

Active immunization with the peptide vaccine caused a significant reduction in fertility. Using 100 µg of the vaccine, which consisted of peptide and rCTB conjugated in a 5:1 ratio (w/w), the antibody titers raised were enough to cause an overall 62%-71% reduction in fertility compared to controls. A significant linear correlation between antibody reactivity and reduction in fertility was observed; animals having high antibody reactivity delivered fewer pups. This was especially true for IgA antibody reactivity in the vaginal tract. However, the correlation was not perfectly linear. Some animals had high antibody reactivity both in serum and the vaginal tract, but showed a lower reduction in fertility compared with other animals that had relatively less antibody reactivity. Systemic immunization via the i.m. route and mucosal immunization via the i.n. route raised circulating and local antibodies (both IgG and IgA) in vagina. No additional adjuvant was used for immunization. Recombinant CTB provided T cell carrier help and acted as an adjuvant to enhance the immunogenicity of the peptide.

The immunocontraceptive effect of the vaccine was reversible. The reversibility could be achieved either voluntarily or involuntarily. Voluntary regain of fertility could be achieved by intravaginal administration of the peptide. Involuntary regain of fertility was achieved when the antibody reactivity decreased to prevaccination control levels (<2 SD units), especially in the vaginal tract after 300 days. It appears that peptide administration transiently bioneutralizes the antibodies, which frees the sperm to fertilize the egg. Antibodies inhibited sperm capacitation, the acrosome reaction, and sperm-egg binding in vitro, and the inhibitory effects were abolished after the antibodies had been incubated with peptide (data not shown). Similar neutralization of the antibodies in vivo could abolish the contraceptive effect of vaccination. These findings also indirectly indicate that local antibodies in the genital tract may be more important than circulating antibodies in causing a contraceptive effect because the intravaginal administration, com-

TABLE 2. Effect of peptide administration on reversibility of immunocontraception.

				Anı	tibody reactivity	Antibody reactivity (SD units; mean $\pm$ SD)	: SD)				
Route of peptide	ı		Before administration	ninistration			After administration <sup>t</sup>	istration <sup>b</sup>		Pups born	born
administration	•	Serum	ur	Vaginal wash	wash	Serum	nm	Vaginal wash	wash	(mean ± 5D)	± SD)
(200 $\mu$ g/mouse/day, $\times$ 3)	Mice <sup>a</sup> –	lgG	lgA	Dgl	lgA	Dgl		Dgl	IgA	- Before administration	After administration
Vaccinated											
Intravenous	2	$9.7 \pm 2.7$	$8.5 \pm 2.0$	$12.5 \pm 4.0$	$6.0 \pm 2.5$	$7.0 \pm 5.7$	$5.0 \pm 2.2$	$11.6 \pm 3.7$	$5.3 \pm 3.0$	$5.2 \pm 3.1^{a}$	$8.4 \pm 3.2^{a,b}$
Intravaginal	_	$9.5 \pm 2.0$	$7.8 \pm 2.2$	$13.0 \pm 3.9$	$6.3 \pm 2.6$	$7.15 \pm 2.08$	$6.01 \pm 1.05$	$10.4 \pm 5.1$	$5.0 \pm 2.8$	$6.0 \pm 2.8^{a}$	$12.8 \pm 1.4^{b}$
Control											
Intravenous	5	<2	<2	~	<2	<2	<2	<2	<2	$12.3 \pm 2.2^{b}$	$11.9 \pm 1.7^{b}$
Intravaginal	2	<2	<2	<2	<2	<2	<2	<2	<2	$11.1 \pm 2.6^{\rm b}$	$12.4 \pm 2.1^{b}$
2 V C											

a Vaccinated via i.m. + i.n. routes.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup> Examined 30 days after peptide administration.
<sup>a,b</sup> Vaccines with different superscripts are significantly different (P < 0.05 to < 0.001) and with same superscripts nonsignificant (P > 0.05)

Group	Immunization route	Mice (no.)	Pups born (no.)	Pups born per animal (mean ± SD)
Group I				
YLP <sub>12</sub> -rCTB vaccine	Intramuscular	6	48	$8.0 \pm 3.6^{a}$
rCTB alone	Intramuscular	6	65	$10.8 \pm 1.8^{a}$
PBS control	Intramuscular	6	72	$12.0 \pm 1.4^{b}$
Group II				
YLP <sub>12</sub> -rCTB vaccine	Intranasal	6	66	$11.0 \pm 2.2^{a}$
rCTB alone	Intranasal	6	68	$11.3 \pm 1.6^{a}$
PBS control	Intranasal	6	74	$12.1 \pm 1.3^{b}$
Group III				
YLP <sub>12</sub> -rCTB vaccine	Intramuscular + intranasal	10	119	$11.9 \pm 1.9^{a}$

TABLE 3. Fertilty at 305–322 days after immunization with YLP<sub>12</sub>-rCTB vaccine by various routes.

pared with i.v. administration of the peptide, completely reversed the effect of the vaccine. Peptide administration by either route did not cause a booster effect on antibody titer. This could be expected because the peptide is only 12-mer, probably lacking a T cell epitope, and thus too small to be immunogenic without conjugation to a T cell carrier.

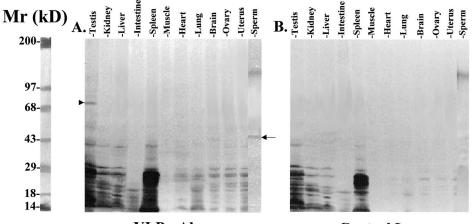
Vaccination was without any side effect. Animals seemed normal and did not lose weight. Also, no abnormality was seen in the pups born after involuntary or voluntary regain of fertility. This was expected because the antibodies raised after vaccination are tissue-specific, and they recognized a specific protein band of 72 ± 2 kDa in testis extract and a band of 50 ± 5 kDa in sperm extract, and no specific band in the protein extracts of 10 murine somatic tissues tested. YLP<sub>12</sub> antibodies demonstrated similar tissue specificity with human tissues [13]. There was a difference in molecular mass between the testis (72  $\pm$  2 kDa) and sperm (50  $\pm$  5 kDa) antigens recognized by the YLP<sub>12</sub> antibody. Similar differences in molecular mass between testis and sperm antigens were observed in humans [13, 14]. These findings suggest that the YLP<sub>12</sub> peptide sequence is a part of a  $72 \pm 5$ -kDa protein that is synthesized during spermatogenesis in the testis, and later modified or cleaved during epididymal transit to form a 50 ± 5-kDa protein in the mature sperm cell.

The 50  $\pm$  5-kDa protein, of which the YLP<sub>12</sub> epitope is a part, was localized on the surface of acrosome and tail regions of spermatozoon. The YLP<sub>12</sub> antibodies present in serum of vaccinated animals caused an inhibition of sperm

capacitation and acrosome reaction, and a complete block of sperm-oocyte binding in vitro, indicating the mechanisms by which the antibodies inhibit fertility in vivo. There was no effect of YLP<sub>12</sub> antibody on the percentage of sperm motility in either of these assays. However, it is possible that the antibodies affect velocity, amplitude of lateral head displacement, and beat frequency. These parameters have been reported to be important contributors to hyperactivation of sperm cells, which is considered an integral part of capacitation that precedes the acrosome reaction and sperm binding to the zona pellucida of the oocyte [26, 27]. This may be one of the mechanisms by which antibodies affect sperm function (i.e., capacitation, acrosome reaction, and sperm-oocyte binding).

Even very high titers of antibodies in both serum and in the vaginal tract caused inhibition of fertility by up to 70.3% after vaccination. In humans, normally, one egg is ovulated every cycle, whereas mice ovulate several eggs in each cycle. It is possible that even higher titers than were achieved in the present study are required for complete inhibition. Antibodies completely inhibited sperm-egg binding in vitro, indicating that high titers could simulate the similar situation in vivo. It is also possible that sperm cells have multiple antigens involved in egg binding. Also, using the whole YLP<sub>12</sub> antigen, instead of a single 12-mer peptide epitope in a vaccine formulation, may further enhance the immunogenicity and efficacy of the vaccine. The hybridomas that secrete monoclonal antibodies (mAbs) against the YLP<sub>12</sub> peptide has been prepared by fusing lymphocytes from vaccinated animals with mouse myeloma cells [28].

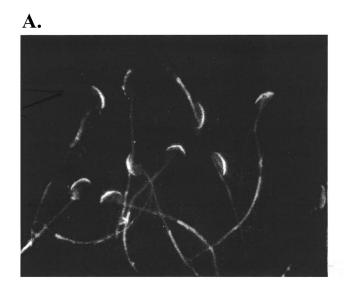
FIG. 2. Western blot indicating the testis/ sperm specificity of peptide antibodies. YLP<sub>12</sub> antibody (**A**) from vaccinated animals but not the immunoglobulin from PBS-control or rCTB-alone animals (**B**) recognized a specific band of  $72 \pm 2$  kDa in the testis extract (arrowhead) and a specific band of  $50 \pm 5$  kDa in the sperm extract (arrow). Antiserum from three different mice immunized with the vaccine was tested against four multiple tissue blots. Each antiserum showed a similar pattern.



YLP<sub>12</sub>Ab

Control Ig

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Versus <sup>b</sup> nonsignificant (P > 0.05).



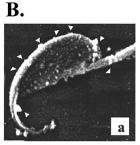




FIG. 3. Immunoreactivity of antibodies from vaccinated animals with sperm cells using indirect immunofluorescence (II) (A) and immunoscanning electron microscopy (IEM) (B). Antibodies showed binding to acrosome and tail regions of sperm cells in both these procedures as seen by fluorescence in II and gold particles in IEM. Gold particles were visible on the acrosome (a) and tail (b) of sperm cells (arrowheads) in IEM. Control immunoglobulins did not react with sperm in either procedure. Magnifications: A ×650; B (a and b) ×10 000.

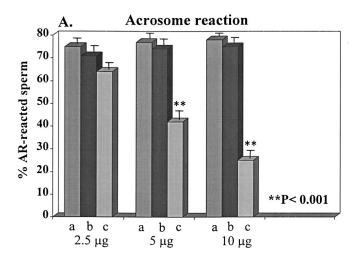
The peptide-specific mAb binds to  $72 \pm 2$  kDa in testis and  $50 \pm 5$ -kDa antigen in sperm extracts, and recognizes acrosome and tail regions of sperm cell in both humans and mice, as observed in the present study and a previous study [13]. These findings indicate that the YLP<sub>12</sub> epitope sequence is evolutionarily conserved between humans and mice, and plays a role in fertilization. Using mAb as a probe, the cDNA encoding for the YLP<sub>12</sub> antigen has been cloned from human testis- $\lambda$ gt11 expression library. It has an insert of  $\sim$ 1.2 kilobases, has been subcloned into p-Bluescript II SK+ at *Sma*1 site, and is presently being sequenced.

In conclusion, our findings indicate that vaccination with YLP<sub>12</sub>-rCTB induces a sperm-specific antibody response in female mice that causes a contraceptive state by one or more mechanisms involving an inhibition of the fertilization process. The immunocontraceptive effect is long-lasting and reversible; with the disappearance of antibodies

there was a complete regain of fertility. Reversibility could also be achieved voluntarily by intravaginal administration of the peptide. The utility of a sperm antigen in the development of a contraceptive vaccine is contingent on its sperm specificity, on involvement in the fertilization process, and on raising an immune response that is capable of inhibiting fertility in a reversible manner. YLP<sub>12</sub> fulfills all these criteria. In addition to these parameters, the involvement of YLP<sub>12</sub> antigen in human immunoinfertility makes it an attractive candidate for immunocontraception.

# **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

We thank William T. Gunning, director of the electron microscopy unit, for providing the EM facility; and Xiaolong Zhu, Elizabeth Herness, Michelle Meadows, and Jennifer LaPlante for editorial and typing assistance.



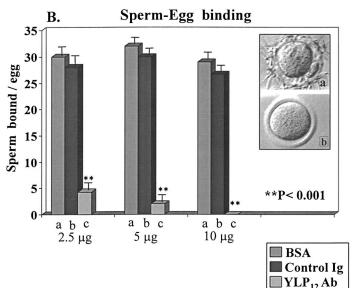


FIG. 4. Effect of antibodies from vaccinated animals on sperm capacitation and the acrosome reaction (**A**) and sperm-egg binding in vitro (**B**).  $YLP_{12}$  antibody caused a concentration-dependent inhibition of the percentage of acrosome-reacted sperm and a total block of sperm-oocyte zona pellucida binding. Incubation of antibodies with peptide (antibody:peptide ratio 1:10, w/w) overnight at 4°C neutralized the inhibitory effect of antibodies in both assays (data not shown). Inset: sperm treated with  $YLP_{12}$  antibody did not show binding to oocyte (**b**), and sperm treated with control immunoglobulin showed binding with >30 sperm binding per oocyte (**a**). Magnifications: **a** and **b** ×250.

### **REFERENCES**

- Naz RK, Sacco A, Singh O, Pal R, Talwar GP. Development of contraceptive vaccines for humans using antigens derived from gametes and hormones: current status. Hum Reprod Update 1995; 1:1–18.
- Baskin MJ. Temporary sterilization by injection of human spermatozoa: a preliminary report. Am J Obstet Gynecol 1932; 24:892–897.
- 3. Edwards RG. Immunological control of fertility in female mice. Nature 1964; 203:50–53.
- Menge AC. Immune reactions and infertility. J Reprod Fertil Suppl 1970; 10:171–185.
- Bronson RA, Cooper GW, Rosenfeld DL. Sperm antibodies: their role in infertility. Fertil Steril 1984; 42:171–182.
- Schulman S. Sperm antibodies and autoantibodies: effects on fertility. Am J Reprod Immunol Microbiol 1986; 10:86–89.
- Ohl DA, Naz RK. Infertility due to antisperm antibodies. Urology 1995; 46:591–602.
- Naz RK. Vaccine for contraception targeting sperm. Immunol Rev 1999; 171:193–202.
- Primakoff P, Lathrop W, Wollman L, Cowan A, Myles D. Fully effective contraception in male and female guinea pigs immunized with the sperm protein PH-20. Nature 1988; 335:543–547.
- Lea IA, van Lierop MJ, Widgren EE, Grootenhuis A, Wen Y, van Duin M, O'Rand MG. A chimeric sperm peptide induces antibodies and strain-specific reversible infertility in mice. Biol Reprod 1998; 59: 527-536
- Hardy CM, Clarke HG, Nixon B, Grigg JA, Hinds LA, Holland MK. Examination of the immunocontraceptive potential of recombinant rabbit fertilin subunits in rabbit. Biol Reprod 1997; 57:879–886.
- Zhu X, Naz RK. Fertilization antigen-1: cDNA cloning, testis-specific expression, and immunocontraceptive effects. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 1997; 94:4704–4709.
- Naz RK, Zhu X, Kadam AL. Identification of human sperm peptide sequence involved in egg binding for immunocontraception. Biol Reprod 2000; 62:318–324.
- Naz RK, Chauhan SC. Presence of antibodies to sperm YLP<sub>12</sub> synthetic peptide in sera and seminal plasma of immunoinfertile men. Mol Hum Reprod 2001; 7:21–26.
- McKenzie SJ, Halsey JF. Cholera toxin B subunit as a carrier protein to stimulate a mucosal immune response. J Immunol 1984; 133:1818– 1824.

- Russel MW, Moldoveanu Z, White PL, Sibert GJ, Mestecky J, Michalek SM. Salivary, nasal, genital, and systemic antibody responses in monkeys immunized intranasally with a bacterial protein antigen and the cholera toxin B subunit. Infect Immunol 1996; 64:1272–1282.
- Wu HY, Russel MW. Induction of mucosal and systemic immune responses by intranasal immunization using recombinant cholera toxin B subunit as an adjuvant. Vaccine 1998; 16:286–292.
- 18. Naz RK. Involvement of fertilization antigen (FA-1) in involuntary immunoinfertility in humans. J Clin Invest 1987; 80:1375–1383.
- Laemmli UK. Cleavage of structural proteins during the assembly of the head of bacteriophage T4. Nature 1970; 220:680–685.
- Towbin H, Stachelin T, Gordon J. Electrophoretic transfer of proteins from polyacrylamide gels to nitrocellulose sheets: procedure and some applications. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 1979; 76:4350–4354.
- Singh MM, Chauhan SC, Trivedi RN, Maitra SC, Kamboj VP. Correlation of pinopod development on uterine luminal epithelial surface with hormonal events and endometrial sensitivity in rat. Eur J Endocrinol 1996; 135:107–117.
- Menge AC, Christman GM, Ohl DA, Naz RK. Fertilization antigen-1 removes antisperm antibodies from spermatozoa of infertile men and results in increased rates of acrosome reaction. Fertil Steril 1999; 61:1426–1430.
- Byrd W, Tsu J, Wolf D. Kinetics of spontaneous and induced acrosomal loss in human sperm incubated under capacitating and noncapacitating conditions. Gamete Res 1989; 22:109–122.
- Thaler CD, Cardullo RA. Biochemical characterization of a glycosylphosphatidylinositol-linked hyaluronidase on mouse sperm. Biochemistry 1995; 34:7788–7795.
- Naz RK, Alexander NJ, Isahakia M, Hamilton MS. Monoclonal antibody to a human sperm membrane glycoprotein that inhibits fertilization. Science 1984; 225:342–344.
- Robertson L, Wolf DP, Tash JS. Temporal changes in motility parameters related to acrosomal status: identification and characterization of populations of hyperactivated human sperm. Biol Reprod 1988; 39: 797–805.
- Mortimer D, Courtot AM, Giovangrandi Y, Jeulin C, David G. Human sperm motility after migration into and incubation in synthetic media. Gamete Res 1984; 9:131–144.
- Naz RK, Chauhan SC, Trivedi RN. Monoclonal antibody against human sperm-specific YLP<sub>12</sub> peptide sequence involved in oocyte binding. Arch Androl 2002; 48:169–175.