



### EDIBLE VACCINE IS A NATURAL WAY OF VACCINATION: A REVIEW ARTICLE

Faizan ul Haque Nagrami<sup>1,\*</sup>, Shweta Sharma<sup>1</sup>, Uma Sharma<sup>1</sup>, Shweta Sharma<sup>1</sup>,  
Akshita Tiwari<sup>1</sup> and Parul Singh<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>College of Biotechnology, DUVASU, Mathura, India (281001)

\*Corresponding authors Email Id:- [faiznagrami@gmail.com](mailto:faiznagrami@gmail.com)

[www.doi.org/10.59436/jsiane.com/archives3/12/72](http://www.doi.org/10.59436/jsiane.com/archives3/12/72)

#### Abstract

Many people have high hopes for edible vaccinations because they are inexpensive, easy to administer, safe, convenient to store, practically impossible to mess up, and socially and culturally sustainable even in developing countries. Instead of painful injections, a vaccine that can be eaten is used. Unlike traditional vaccines, edible vaccines are less expensive, require no needles, don't need to be preserved, are non-offensive, may be stored close to where they'll be used, and provide both mucosal and total protection. Edible vaccinations are being produced for a wide range of infectious diseases, including cholera, measles, foot-and-mouth disease (FMD), and hepatitis B. Autoimmune diseases like type I diabetes are easier to beat with the aid of edible vaccinations. Several diseases in both humans and animals are currently being researched with the goal of creating edible vaccinations. Transgenic crops are gaining popularity in both developed and poor nations. Edible vaccines face an uncertain future in the face of public opposition to transgenic foods. The most significant barriers to a developing vaccination technology have been overcome. There are a number of technical roadblocks, as well as regulatory and non-scientific difficulties, but they all appear to be manageable. In this article, we'll try to discuss where things stand and where they're going with this innovative form of disease prevention. The two main benefits of edible vaccines are generational immunization and the treatment of malnutrition. If the major difficulties can be overcome, it could lead to a windfall of more safe and more effective vaccine.

**Keywords:** Plant Bioreactors; Plant-Based Edible Vaccines; Plant Biotechnology, Comestible vaccine Transgenic Plant; Genetic Engineering,

**Abbreviations:** MIS: Mucosal Immune System; M cells : Microfold cells IBDV: Infectious Bursal Disease Virus; PA: Protective Antigen; RPV: Rinderpest Virus; NDV: Newcastle Disease Virus; eHN: HemagglutininNeuraminidase; HIV: Human Immunodeficiency; VLPs: Virus Like Particle; FMD: Foot and Mouth Disease

Received 11.12.2022

Revised 19.02.2023

Accepted 26.03.2023

#### Introduction

The creation of vaccinations was likely one of the most significant achievements of the nineteenth century. Edward Jenner created the first vaccine in 1796 to protect mankind against the deadly consequences of the smallpox virus. Louis Pasteur later continued research on producing vaccines to treat infectious diseases (Kurup VM, Thomas J 2020). According to Ozdemir M. and Afacan M. (2001), vaccines are "natural medications that stimulate the vulnerable system against any disease agent," which can then "flash back the vulnerable system with a memory factor in case of encountering this agent." By introducing the full microbe (capsule, protein, nucleic acid material, etc.) to the body in a variety of ways (through mouth, injection into the muscle, nose), immunity is created without the risk of contracting the sickness caused by the microorganism or its poison. Vaccination makes it so the host either never gets sick from that germ or just becomes mildly ill because the antibodies are already present in the body before the bacterium is encountered. Vaccination elicits a susceptible response, the duration of which is protective but which varies with vaccine type and manner of delivery (Kaya H, Ozdemir M, 2021)

Disease and infectious disease can be prevented with vaccination, which involves administering antigens to the body to trigger an immune response. Successful vaccination programs have drastically decreased the prevalence of many infectious diseases, and the smallpox virus has been eradicated around the world as a result of vaccines developed in response to widespread vaccination against the disease (Rajna AI 2022). From Jenner's discovery of the smallpox vaccine in 1789 to the present day, researchers have been exploring vaccines in various methods. Scientists are now working on new vaccinations to improve upon existing ones and fight off persistent diseases like infections, malignancies, and HIV/AIDS (Akdeniz, M., & Kavukcu, E., 2016) Corona/Covid19. Vaccine use is low in developing nations because of factors such as the high cost of the vaccine, the lack of refrigeration infrastructure, and the lack of trained medical professionals. The Child's Vaccine Initiative, founded in 1992 with the help of the WHO and a few non-profit organizations to find a solution to this issue, has accepted the development of more cost-effective vaccine product technologies that avoid transportation issues, as well as the establishment of essential immunization programs

around the world. The use of plant tissues in vaccine production is encouraged for several reasons, including the ease of production, the low cost, the availability of posttranslational variations for the production of recombinant viral and bacterial antigens, and the demonstration of similar natural activity with recombinant vaccines attained in microorganisms (Hefferon KL, 2010). Edible vaccines are imagined to be made from the consumable parts of transgenic plants. It was developed as a subunit vaccine manufacturing platform and has been proved to produce a sensitive human immune response without harm. With the advent of edible vaccines, proper refrigeration is no longer required. Due to rising vaccine prices and longer vaccination wait times in developing nations, edible vaccines have also garnered attention (Okay *et al.*, 2021).

Plants undergo applications of genetic engineering technologies to boost product quality, increase resistance to harmful organisms, and boost agronomic qualities (Okay *et al.*, 2021). The production of medications, hormones, and vaccines for humans and animals (take the use of potatoes in cholera vaccines as an example) is a primary motivation for the application of genetic engineering technologies in plants (Topal S., 2004). Plants can function as bioreactors, allowing them to carry out a wide variety of natural processes that are analogous to the production of VLPs (Virus like Particle) or vaccines. Plants can be safely produced without the requirement for storage by being manipulated using foreign DNA, with the added benefit of carrying and utilising medications, vaccinations, and antibodies against various human infections. Herbal vaccines have been proven safe and effective by numerous studies. Important examples of plant-derived vaccines and medicines include monoclonal antibodies used to combat cholera, hepatitis B infection, dengue fever, human immunodeficiency virus (HIV), and Ebola, and glucocerebrosidase used to cure gaucher illness (Mahmood *et al.*, 2021). Third-generation vaccinations are those derived from plants. Cloning the vaccine into a plant expression system allows for the production of an antigenic or defensive protein. Using plants as bioreactors allows for the mass manufacture of vaccines, several productions to take place simultaneously, and continuous production (Guler *et al.*, 2021). Consumption of transgenic plants engineered to produce pathogen antigens results in the construction of immune proteins that protect against a variety of infectious diseases in both people and animals. Sub-unit vaccines, such as those used to create edible vaccines (Rigano MM and Walmsley AM, 2005) use the transfer of a specific gene to a plant in order to have the protein (antigen) it encodes generated.

Vaccines have emerged as a powerful weapon against many infectious illnesses, providing a direct line of defense against preventable illness and death. Millions of individuals in poor and developing countries cannot have their lives safeguarded by vaccination due to factors such as storage and high cost. About 2 million preventable deaths occur each year because not enough babies get immunized, and this is especially true in the world's poorest and most remote regions. Each year, infectious diseases kill more than a million people worldwide. The current difficulty is in developing novel vaccinations that can attack germs and illnesses at different times.

Vaccines are immune system boosters made from biological ingredients. Edward Jenner introduced the concept of vaccination against smallpox in 1796. By receiving a vaccination, the body is prepared to fight off potential pathogens. Vaccines not only make us better equipped to fight off future diseases, but they also provide lifelong protection against those infections. The production process has been the main drawback up to now. Due to their high cost and limited availability in developing countries, vaccines are typically manufactured using industrial procedures. This is why edible vaccines are being considered as viable alternatives to traditional immunizations. Because edible vaccines are often antigen-expressing plants, their production necessitates a fundamental understanding of agriculture and plant cultivation. Edible vaccines are developed to avoid the high costs associated with traditional vaccines due to the elimination of the purification and downstream processing steps (B. Gunasekaran and K. M. Gonthandam 2020).

This study explores the history of edible vaccinations and the bright future it promises as science and medicine advance. New, more effective, and more comprehensive vaccines have been discovered as vaccine research has progressed.

- The first immunizations were live attenuated vaccines. The attenuated form of a live infectious germ is then administered to prevent disease.

Vaccinations that utilise the deceased microbe's discarded parts are called inactivated vaccinations.

In the case of toxoid vaccinations, the organisms own toxin is employed as the medicine. Toxoid vaccines, in contrast, target the disease caused by the infection rather than the virus itself.

- Biosynthetic vaccines, as the name suggests, are manufactured and have a structure and composition very similar to that of the infectious organism.

- Plasmid DNA vaccines, which contain sequences that render the antigen useless. Plasmid DNA can also be delivered directly to the muscle or other tissue in which it will be produced.

- Recombinant vaccines, in which bacteria express a recombinant plasmid encoding a gene that scrambles the antigen. This protein is also utilized as a vaccination after being refined.

- Edible vaccines are a sort of factory-made food that has been engineered genetically to produce antigens, eliciting an immune response in the consumer.

### Concept of edible vaccines

Disease and infectious disease can be prevented with vaccination, which involves administering antigens to the body to trigger an immune response. Successful vaccination programs have drastically decreased the prevalence of many infectious diseases, and the smallpox virus has been eradicated around the world as a result of vaccines developed in response to widespread vaccination against the disease (Rajna AI 2022). From Jenner's discovery of the smallpox vaccine in 1789 to the present day, researchers have been exploring vaccines in various methods. Scientists are now working on new vaccinations to improve upon existing ones and fight off persistent diseases like infections, malignancies, and HIV/AIDS (Akdeniz, M., & Kavukcu, E., 2016)

Corona/Covid19. Vaccine use is low in developing nations because of factors such as the high cost of the vaccine, the lack of refrigeration infrastructure, and the lack of trained medical professionals. The Child's Vaccine Initiative, founded in 1992 with the help of the WHO and a few non-profit organizations to find a solution to this issue, has accepted the development of more cost-effective vaccine product technologies that avoid transportation issues, as well as the establishment of essential immunization programs around the world. The use of plant tissues in vaccine production is encouraged for several reasons, including the ease of production, the low cost, the availability of posttranslational variations for the production of recombinant viral and bacterial antigens, and the demonstration of similar natural activity with recombinant vaccines attained in microorganisms (Hefferon KL, 2010). Edible vaccines are imagined to be made from the consumable parts of transgenic plants. It was developed as a subunit vaccine manufacturing platform and has been proved to produce a sensitive human immune response without harm. With the advent of edible vaccines, proper refrigeration is no longer required. Due to rising vaccine prices and longer vaccination wait times in developing nations, edible vaccines have also garnered attention (Okay *et al.*, 2021).

Plants undergo applications of genetic engineering technologies to boost product quality, increase resistance to harmful organisms, and boost agronomic qualities (Okay *et al.*, 2021). The production of medications, hormones, and vaccines for humans and animals (take the use of potatoes in cholera vaccines as an example) is a primary motivation for the application of genetic engineering technologies in plants (Topal 2004). Plants can function as bioreactors, allowing them to carry out a wide variety of natural processes that are analogous to the production of VLPs (Virus like Particle) or vaccines. Plants can be safely produced without the requirement for storage by being manipulated using foreign DNA, with the added benefit of carrying and utilising medications, vaccinations, and antibodies against various human infections. Herbal vaccines have been proven safe and effective by numerous studies. Important examples of plant-derived vaccines and medicines include monoclonal antibodies used to combat cholera, hepatitis B infection, dengue fever, human immunodeficiency virus (HIV), and Ebola, and glucocerebrosidase used to cure gaucher illness (Mahmood *et al.*, 2021). Third-generation vaccinations are those derived from plants. Cloning the vaccine into a plant expression system allows for the production of an antigenic or defensive protein. Using plants as bioreactors allows for the mass manufacture of vaccines, several productions to take place simultaneously, and continuous production (Guler B *et al.*, 2021). Consumption of transgenic plants engineered to produce pathogen antigens results in the construction of immune proteins that protect against a variety of infectious diseases in both people and animals. Sub-unit vaccines, such as those used to create edible vaccines (Rigano MM and Walmsley AM, 2005) use the transfer of a specific gene to a plant in order to have the protein (antigen) it encodes generated.

Vaccines have emerged as a powerful weapon against many infectious illnesses, providing a direct line of defense against preventable illness and death. Millions of individuals in poor and developing countries cannot have their lives safeguarded by vaccination due to factors such as storage and high cost.

About 2 million preventable deaths occur each year because not enough babies get immunized, and this is especially true in the world's poorest and most remote regions. Each year, infectious diseases kill more than a million people worldwide. The current difficulty is in developing novel vaccinations that can attack germs and illnesses at different times.

Vaccines are immune system boosters made from biological ingredients. Edward Jenner introduced the concept of vaccination against smallpox in 1796. By receiving a vaccination, the body is prepared to fight off potential pathogens. Vaccines not only make us better equipped to fight off future diseases, but they also provide lifelong protection against those infections. The production process has been the main drawback up to now. Due to their high cost and limited availability in developing countries, vaccines are typically manufactured using industrial procedures. This is why edible vaccines are being considered as viable alternatives to traditional immunizations. Because edible vaccines are often antigen-expressing plants, their production necessitates a fundamental understanding of agriculture and plant cultivation. Edible vaccines are developed to avoid the high costs associated with traditional vaccines due to the elimination of the purification and downstream processing steps (B. Gunasekaran and K. M. Gonthandam. 2020).

This study explores the history of edible vaccinations and the bright future it promises as science and medicine advance. New, more effective, and more comprehensive vaccines have been discovered as vaccine research has progressed.

- The first immunizations were live attenuated vaccines. The attenuated form of a live infectious germ is then administered to prevent disease.

Vaccinations that utilise the deceased microbe's discarded parts are called inactivated vaccinations.

In the case of toxoid vaccinations, the organisms own toxin is employed as the medicine. Toxoid vaccines, in contrast, target the disease caused by the infection rather than the virus itself. •Biosynthetic vaccines, as the name suggests, are manufactured and have a structure and composition very similar to that of the infectious organism.

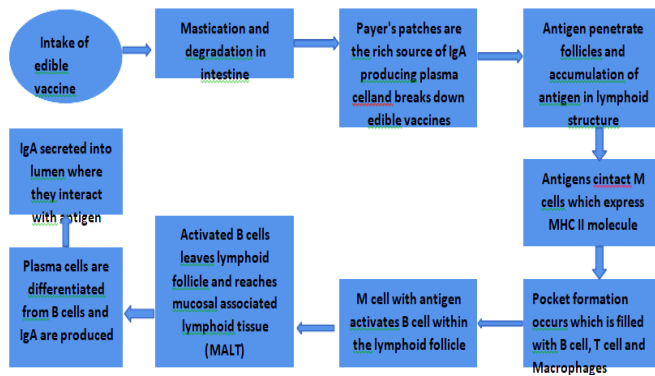
- Plasmid DNA vaccines, which contain sequences that render the antigen useless. Plasmid DNA can also be delivered directly to the muscle or other tissue in which it will be produced.

- Recombinant vaccines, in which bacteria express a recombinant plasmid encoding a gene that scrambles the antigen. This protein is also utilized as a vaccination after being refined.

### **Mechanism of action of edible vaccines**

When entering the human body, pathogens are met by the mucosal immune response system. Edible vaccinations are utilized for the induction of MIS activation. The mucosal lining of the gastrointestinal, respiratory and urogenital systems. M-cells and macrophages function in various ways. Antigen-presenting cells, like macrophages, play a key role in activating Helper T cells through the production of interferon gamma. Antigen-presenting cells are those that take in a pathogen or foreign particle, partially breakdown it, and then release its fragments onto the cell surface as antigens (Johannesen FE *et al.*, 1999). Antigens can also be

transferred to T cells via M cells, also known as microfold cell. Activated B cells migrate to the mesenteric lymph nodes, where they mature into plasma cells, and then to the mucosal membranes, where they secrete immunoglobulin A (IgA). This process is facilitated by an antigenic epitope on the surface of APCs, which is recognized by helper T cells. As shown in Figure 1 (Walmsley AM and Amtzen CJ 2000), IgA is converted into secretory IgA (sIgA), which is then transported into the lumen, where it plays a major role by neutralizing the invading pathogen by reacting with the specific antigenic epitopes.



**Figure 1: Mechanism of edible vaccine**

### Techniques used to develop Edible vaccine

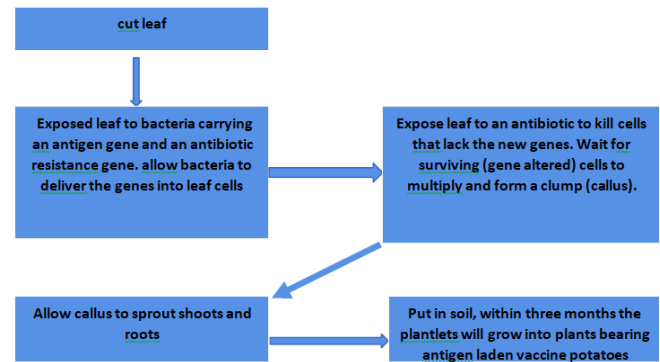
The first step is to pick the plant that will be used to manufacture the peptides and proteins. After recombinant viral integration into the desired plant, numerous plants are grown from which chimeric virions are separated and chosen; yielding an edible plant vaccine that can be employed in immunological settings.

Another strategy involves using a transformation approach to introduce the gene of interest into the plant vector, where it can perform its intended function. There are three main ways for inserting the desired gene into the plant vector: agrobacterium-mediated gene transfer, plasmid/vector mediated, gene gun or biolistic approach, and electroporation (Munshi A and Sharma V 2018, p.

For research purposes exclusively, the idea of an edible vaccination was developed; in this case, the vaccine molecule was inserted into tobacco and other non-food plants. Tobacco has been identified as both a biotechnology role model and a top candidate for use in vaccine manufacturing. Transgenic plant techniques have been applied to the development of edible vaccinations. Antigenic protein should give adequate amounts of immunogenic stimulation, which can only be achieved after identifying the antigenic components of pathogens involved in edible vaccine production. The following step is to transfer the antigen sequence into an appropriate vector. Transformation utilizes plant viral vectors (Concha *et al.* 2017), which entails modifying the viral vector to express the vaccine molecule before transferring the modified virus to the target plants (Shah CP *et al.* 2011). Nonviral processes are another option for converting vaccines into an edible form. Some examples of such traditional approaches are Agrobacterium-mediated techniques and biolistic approaches. The tumor-inducing Ti plasmid is used as a vector in the Agrobacterium-mediated technique. After the t-DNA and oncogenes have been removed, the plasmid is rendered inert. In addition to the replication origin and virulence genes, the left and right *J. Sci. Innov. Nat. Earth*

margins are also preserved. The t-DNA in a cell is replaced by a gene of interest and a marker gene (one that confers resistance to antibiotics). Once the graft sequence has been converted into the Ti plasmid, it can be introduced into plant cells. Transformed plants are selected with antibiotic markers after being co-cultured with the vector. Other strategies for creating edible vaccines involve introducing antigenic genes into the plant by methods like direct and indirect gene transfer technology, electroporation, and transgenic plant screening (Akdeniz M, Kavukcu E, 2016).

### How to make edible vaccine?



### Plants that can be used to develop plant-based vaccine-

#### Banana (*Musa sapientum*)

The delicious fruits that brighten our daily lives are also the agents that will one day function as bioreactors and vehicles for edible vaccinations. Studies with bananas, a widely consumed fruit, have shown promising results in the creation of edible vaccines (Ham M *et al.*, 2006). The highest demand for the vaccination is in places where bananas are plentiful (jelaska S. 2014). Due to its widespread cultivation in the tropics and subtropics (Morton J 1987), banana remains a promising vaccine ingredient. Bananas are a great candidate for an edible vaccination since they are enjoyed by people of all ages, they don't require cooking, and the protein they contain isn't denatured when eaten raw. Studies on bananas have revealed that the plants themselves express HBsAg, and that the leaves, in particular, carry antigens. Another study found that bananas are an effective vaccine candidate for preventing diarrhea (Concha C *et al.*, 2017).

#### Rice (*Oryza sativa*)

Antigen concentrations may be easily increased by separating rice's soluble proteins from the plant, making rice a good vaccination candidate. Because structural and endosperm-specific promoters can be employed to express certain target proteins at high levels (Han M *et al.*, 2006). Vaccines made from rice would have a significant influence on public health in areas where rice is the staple crop. The advantages it has over other plants make it a common ingredient in kid-friendly foods and high-antigen products. *Oryza sativa*, also known as GM rice, was used in a 2007 study that resulted in the production of massive amounts of antibodies against *Escherichia coli*. In 2008, researchers also confirmed that hepatitis B surface antigen expression in rice seeds. Tone-pollinated transgenic rice aids in the depletion of vaccine molecules. In addition, recent research suggests that poisons and immunity against diarrhea-causing bacteria can be obtained by feeding rice grains to mice (Saxena J, Rawat S 2013) because the genome of a rice plant was transferred

from the microbe responsible for producing cholera poison. The rice-based cholera vaccine in Japan (Yuki Y *et al.*, 2013) and studies on *Helicobacter pylori* (Gu *et al.* 2006) and Anti-Amyloid antibodies (26), and infectious bursal disease virus (IBDV) (Wu *et al.* 2007) all describe rice as a potent edible vaccine expectant.

### Potatoes (*Solanum tuberosum*)

Despite contributing only around of the energy given by food, the potato remains the most popular food item in many nations, despite being ranked fourth globally after corn, wheat, and rice (Gumul *et al.*, 2011). Potatoes, typically thought of simply as a carbohydrate source, are actually rich in protein and lysine (among other amino acids) (Dinc *et al.*, 2014). Also, it's an anti-oxidant-rich vegetable with compounds including polyphenols, carotenoids, and vitamins (Evers D, Duesser H, 2012). Because of its lack of gluten, it is often used into gluten-free food formulas for those with celiac disease. When compared to citrus fruits, potatoes fall short in their vitamin C content, but they make up for this shortcoming by being rich in vitamin B6 (Roy S. and Bhattacharya P. 2020) and folic acid (Theodoration E. *et al.*, 2008). Potatoes are seen as not only an appropriate model for an edible vaccination, but also as fast food that we consume in capps. Numerous edible vaccines have been successfully implemented as a consequence of clinical investigations, and potatoes are a prominent ingredient in their creation. Further, it has been demonstrated that capsid proteins from enteric viruses including ETEC LT- B and Norwalk virus can be produced in potato tubers. Both a systemic and mucosal HBV vaccine are now being developed in potatoes, and studies have shown that a low cure vaccine in raw potato tubers can induce considerable numbers of antibodies (Jelaska S *et al.*, 2014).

40

### Corn (*Zea mays L.*)

The ease of refining, grinding, and processing corn, as well as its great yields, makes it a significant candidate, especially for edible vaccine product (Budak N 2002). Numerous biotechnology firms already employ corn as a source of transgenic protein for testing, exploring, and producing certain vaccination campaigners. Research on maize has shown that rabies antigen is expressed in the plant and those humans and animals both have enough levels of rabies antibodies. 2.7% of total phytoproteins make up the vaccine, and they don't degrade through post-harvest processing. Both IgG and IgA antibodies are produced in response to the vaccine (Munshi A and Sharma V 2018, respectively). The benefits of expressing highly developed vaccine molecular configurations in corn kernel grains have also been demonstrated (Rybicki EP, 2010).

### Pea (*Pisum sativum*)

Peas are a wonderful plant that are high in protein and are often enjoyed by both children and adults. Its high protein content and very short life cycle make it an interesting model plant. Pea plants are going to be used to express a protective antigen (PA) against rinderpest virus (RPV) and hemagglutinin protein (H), according to the reports that resulted from the inquiries.

### Neem (*Azadirachta indica*)

Even though Neem (*Azadirachta indica*) isn't actually a food crop, it's often used as a proof-of-concept model type in

edible vaccination experiments and as a model plant in biotechnology. One of the most popular medicinal plants in the ornamental and herbal industries is neem or *Azadirachta indica*. Treatment of ordinary fever and malaria fever with the raw extract of the neem leaf is common in Ayurvedic medicine (Al-hashemi ZSS and Hossain MA 2016, Aryamvalli A *et al.*, 2017). Ingesting a waterless extract of both neem leaves has been shown to alleviate Dengue fever symptoms in rats.

In vivo and in vitro studies have shown that neem leaf extract inhibits the replication of Dengue virus type 2 (Sujarwo W *et al.*, 2016). Diarrhea and other gastrointestinal issues can be treated with neem leaves according to ancient Indian folklore (Parida MM *et al.*, 2002).

### Tobacco (*Nicotiana tabacum*)

To begin, it should be made clear that tobacco is not a factory that produces comestibles; however, tobacco is commonly employed as a model factory in biotechnology and as an evidence- of- conception model strain for research of edible vaccines (Kurup VM, Thomas J 2020). Tobacco has been found to be an ideal plant for recombinant protein production due to its short growth time, ease of transformation, and rapid transformation rates (Thakurta P *et al.*, 2007). The fundamental benefits of tobacco—its high yield and rapid scalability—come from the proteins contained in the plant's leaves, but these proteins are extremely fragile and must be extracted carefully to avoid degrading before further usage. To make the products safe, phenols and toxic alkaloids, which can be found in tobacco tissues (Tregoning JS *et al.*, 2003), must be eliminated. In addition, a study using mice demonstrated that smoke induced a convincingly robust antibody response against diphtheria, tetanus, and pertussis. Tobacco has also been used into plant-derived oral vaccines for a wide variety of infectious diseases, including but not limited to: gaucher, malaria, ebola, acetylcholinesterase, fatal immunodeficiency virus (HIV), bluetongue, rabies, dengue fever, Norwalk, avian flu H5N1 influenza, and *Taenia solium* (Concha C *et al.*, 2017). Furthermore, these researches have shown that tobacco is utilized for purposes other than smoking in cigarettes, pipes, cigars, and hookahs. They also found that tobacco is an effective vaccine candidate against human papillomavirus (Kohl T *et al.*, 2003), Norwalk virus (Varsani A *et al.*, 2003), and Cottontail rabbit papillomavirus (Balfour H 2020).

### Aloe vera (*Aloe barbadensis*)

Although aloe vera is not a food source, the primary polysaccharide Acemannan (ACM) in its gel has immunomodulatory properties, and the gel has been shown to display immunostimulatory conditioning in mice (Santi *et al.*, 2008). One of the most researched therapeutic plants, aloe vera, has been shown to have useful pharmacological and phytochemical qualities (Kumar S, Tiku AB, 2016). The safety of Aloe vera extracts has been demonstrated experimentally, in vitro and in vivo, and it has been observed that these extracts show active conditioning against RNA and DNA viruses, particularly in terms of toxicity. Some antiviral drugs (Lopinavir, ritonavir) are analogous to aloe vera, whereas others (SARSCov-2) are not. It has pharmaceutical targets like the protease 3CLPro and virucidal secondary metabolites like anthraquinones. Aloe vera possesses anti-inflammatory and immunomodulatory properties in addition

to its natural antiviral activities (Zandi *et al.*, 2007, Bamard DL *et al.*, 1992).

### **Carrot (*Daucus carota*)**

Carrots are reportedly being studied in the development of an edible vaccine against ETEC (enterotoxigenic *E. coli*) because they are a delightful and nutritious snack for both children and adults. Carrots, which are often consumed raw, were under consideration because of their high levels of vitamin A and vitamin A precursors, both of which are critical for maintaining healthy white blood cell counts. They have cellulose fibers and lutein in them as well. IgG and IgA levels may be boosted by eating carrots (Semple *et al.*, 2001). Due to its early adoption as a GM crop, the carrot's heritable engineering is relatively far along. Carrot cells expressed vaccine molecules in optimal conditions (Ham *et al.*, 2006). The carrot has been studied as a possible vaccine delivery vehicle for enteric infections that can be eaten. Carrots express the *E. coli* and *Helicobacter pylori* antigen genes. Carrot has been successfully used as an HIV vaccine candidate in rat studies (Munshi A, Sharma V, 2008). Some of the same plants that humans and animals rely on for sustenance are also thought to be useful for making edible vaccinations. These include legumes, maize, and rice, but also include other green and leafy crops like alfalfa, spinach, beans, and lettuce that could be used to create edible vaccines. Both lupine and lettuce have had their hepatitis B antigen levels raised. Alfalfa is a suitable source since it is high in protein and low in secondary metabolites, and they have been shown to be immunogenic in both human and animal test models (Gu *et al.*, 2006). Plants like arabis, cabbage, and cauliflower have also been studied for their potential as food vaccines (Ham *et al.*, 2006).

### **Advantages and Disadvantages of Edible Vaccines** (Bhatia S and Dahiya R 2015)

#### **Advantages of Edible Vaccine**

- Edible vaccines are more effective for vaccination since they do not require adjuvants, which boost the immune response.
  - Unlike conventional vaccines, edible vaccines can stimulate both systemic and mucosal immune responses against pathogens.
- Safely triggering an immune response with edible vaccines that are also readily available, inexpensive to produce, transport, store, and prepare is a reality. Vaccines made with biotechnological techniques have a longer shelf life and can be stored at room temperature. Furthermore, a moderate shift in transgenic plant seeds' moisture content has amplified the substantial impact on storing possibilities. Therefore, compared to an animal system, edible vaccines are simple to make and can be mass-produced with relative ease. The price to produce is competitively low.
- Since they are not injected, edible vaccinations offer less risks of contamination and fewer adverse effects than regular immunizations. Since ingesting the vaccine is preferable to injecting it, this is the case.
  - The idea of an edible vaccination as a second-generation vaccine is intriguing because it permits multiple antigens to concurrently approach M cells (also known as microfold cell).

Because they are subunit preparations and do not use attenuated pathogens, edible vaccines have many advantages over conventional vaccinations.

Vaccines that can be eaten are simple to extract and purify because they are made from plants.

Edible vaccines have several drawbacks.

Immune tolerance or an allergic reaction to the vaccine protein or peptide could occur, and the dosage form and protein concentration could vary from generation to generation and plant to plant.

- The antigen proteins in fruits are likewise influenced by their ripeness.
- Vaccine stability varies by plant type.
- Some foods (like potatoes) must be boiled before consumption, which denatures or weakens the protein content.
- Edible vaccines generated from plants require different storage conditions due to Vaccines in potatoes have a longer shelf life at 4 degrees Celsius than tomato sauce does. Therefore, there is a serious issue with improper storage, which can lead to infection due to microbial deterioration.
- Glycosylation patterns differ between plants and people, which may compromise the efficacy of immunizations.

#### **Applications**

Multiple clinical experiments were performed to verify the vaccines' potential fitness for use in the wild. Edible vaccinations for a wide variety of infectious diseases in both people and animals have been researched. Similarly, research into vaccines for autoimmune diseases such type-I diabetes has been conducted (Semple SJ *et al.*, 2001). U.S. biotech firm Prodigene has patented an edible vaccination against Hepatitis B complaint, and Yale University has patented a vaccine against insects and spiders (Roseles-mendoza S *et al.*, 2008). The viral disease known as foot-and-mouth disease (FMD) is one of the most widespread causes of illness in both wild and domestic animals. The capsid proteins VP1, VP2, VP3, and VP4 make up the virion of FMDV. Edible vaccines that target the VP1 protein might theoretically be used for immunization by inducing the immune system to manufacture VP1-neutralizing antibodies. Vaccines of a similar type have the same efficacy in tobacco, potatoes, and tomatoes as a subunit PMV seeker. Researchers working on a hepatitis B vaccine made entirely from potatoes claim they can produce enough HBsAg in a single potato to treat a single patient. In humans, the number of distinct antibody classes has significantly beyond the protective threshold of 10 mIU/ mL (Prakash C 1996).

#### **Conclusion**

Plants have unique properties that allow them to quickly reach advanced quality product and further different product targets using vibrant advanced technologies like chloroplast expression and viral transfection operations (Waghulkar V. 2010). This is in contrast to traditional expression systems, which are both expensive and limited in their application. Plants can potentially function as bioreactors, carrying out a wide variety of natural processes analogous to those required for the production of VLPs (Virus like Particles) or vaccinations. A safe product system can be developed without the requirement for storage by modifying plants with

foreign DNA and then collecting and using medications, vaccines, and antibodies against various natural infections from these changed plants (Rigano MM, Walmsley AM, 2005). Numerous studies have demonstrated the edible vaccine's versatility in protecting against a wide range of health risks, and this has led to its acceptance as a topic for scientific inquiry. Also, compared to conventional vaccines, the nutritional value of plant-based vaccines is substantial. Edible vaccination has been claimed to be a potential seeker in areas where the world lacks suitable facilities to deliver widespread vaccine coverage (Akdeniz M 2016, Domansky N et al.)

When compared to conventional immunizations, edible vaccines have many advantages. The widespread negative perception of genetically modified crops in many third world countries is a major obstacle to the widespread adoption of edible vaccinations. The safety of genetically modified crops is improving as new technologies are developed. Laboratory-created meat has been reported to be an acceptable substitute for real meat. Similar meat will soon be able to be modified to provide desired immunizations when consumed. Many diseases may be eradicated and millions of lives saved if edible vaccines were widely used and distributed around the world. Edible vaccination fruits serve as a transporter with dual benefits, one in the form of immunization production and another in the form of nutritional provision. It's meant to be used instead of unpleasant injections to prevent disease. Vaccines made from fruit (comestible vaccines) have many

advantages over the conventional kind. There are many advantages of using an edible vaccine, including its low cost, absence of needles, appeal to youngsters, safety, ease of storage, and delivery of both systemic and mucosal immunity. If huge and important obstacles can be overcome, a fruit-derived consumable vaccine could lead to a flood of more secure and less effective inoculation. (Khan A., *et al.*, 2019)

For decades, scientists have been curious in the possibility of developing an edible vaccine. Modern plant biotechnology has progressed to the point where pathogenic antigens can be inserted into plant-based vectors and then expressed in plant tissues. The idea of an edible vaccine has recently been recognized as the most promising strain (Akdeniz M. 2016, Singh Y.P. *et al.* 2022, Mandal-Ghosh I. *et al.* 2007), even though there are currently insufficient infrastructures to distribute the world's total vaccine content. Furthermore, the food goods grown in genuinely broad areas and still genuinely significant for trade are the shops from which comestible vaccinations are obtained. The concept of an edible vaccination is gaining popularity as a means of protecting humans and animals from infectious diseases. Because of this, the concept of an edible vaccination might be taken in a different direction, particularly in the agricultural sector. It is hoped that in the near future, our farmers will be able to cultivate edible vaccinations that can fight off infectious diseases.

### References

- Kurup VM, Thomas J (2020) Edible vaccines: promises and challenges. *Mol Biotechnol* 62(2): 79-90.
- Özdemir M, Afacan M (2001) Chapter 4. Administration of Vaccines and Adjuvants Used in Vaccines, In *Preventive Medicine*, pp: 71.
- Kaya H, Özdemir M (2021) Chapter 2. Vaccine Technologies and Domestic Vaccines, In *Preventive Medicine*, pp: 18
- Razna AI (2022) Progress of edible vaccine development.
- Akdeniz M, Kavukcu E (2016) Aşılama ve aşılama tarihçesi. *Klinik Tıp Aile Hekimliği* 8(2): 11-28.
- Hefferon KL (2010) The mucosal immune response to plant-derived vaccines. *Pharm Res* 27(10): 2040-2042.
- Okay A, Aydın S, Büyük İ, Aras ES (2021) Plant-derived vaccines. *Biological Diversity and Conservation* 14(1): 167-174.
- Hemmer W (2005) Foods Derived from Genetically Modified Organisms and Detection Methods. *BATS*.
- Topal S (2004) Genetik Değiştirme İşlemleri ve Biyogüvenlik. *Buğday* 26.
- Mahmood N, Nasir SB, Hefferon K (2021) Plant-Based Drugs and Vaccines for COVID-19. *Vaccines* 9(1): 15.
- Güler B, Bayraktar M, Gürel A (2021) Cı İle Mücadelede Bitkilerin Olası Rolü. *Nıgde Ömer Halisdemir Üniversitesi Mühendislik Bilimleri Dergisi* 10(2): 866- 880.
- Rigano MM, Walmsley AM (2005) Expression systems and developments in plant-made vaccines. *Immunol Cell Biol* 83(3): 271-277.
- Gunasekaran B, Gothandam KM. (2020). A review on edible vaccines and their prospects. *Braz J Med Biol Res.* 24;53(2): e8749. doi: 10.1590/1414-431X20198749. PMID: 31994600; PMCID: PMC6984374.
- Webster DE, Thomas MC, Strugnell RA, Dry IB, Wesselingh SL. (2002) Appetising solutions: an edible vaccine for measles. *Med J Aust.*; 176:434–437.
- Giddings G, Allison G, Brooks D, Carter A. (2000). Transgenic plants as factories for biopharmaceuticals. *Nat Biotechnol* ; 18:1151–1155. doi: 10.1038/81132.
- Johansen FE, Pekna M, Norderhaug IN, Haneberg B, Hietala MA, Krajci P, et al. (1999). Absence of epithelial immunoglobulin a transport, with increased mucosal leakiness, in polymeric immunoglobulin receptor/secretory component-deficient mice. *J Exp Med*; 190:915–922. doi: 10.1084/jem.190.7.915.
- Walmsley AM, Arntzen CJ. Plants for delivery of edible vaccines. (2000) *Curr Opin Biotechnol*; 11:126–129. doi: 10.1016/S0958-1669(00)00070-7.
- Munshi A, Sharma V (2018) Omics and Edible Vaccines. *Omics Technologies and BioEngineering* 2: 129-141.
- Concha C, Cañas R, Macuer J, Torres MJ, Herrada AA, et al. (2017) Disease prevention: an opportunity to expand edible plant-based vaccines? *Vaccines (Basel)* 5(2): 14.
- Shah CP, Trivedi MN, Vachhani UD, Joshi VJ (2011) Edible Vaccine: a Better Way for Immunization. *Clinical Trials* 3(1): 1-4.

- Han M, Su T, Zu YG, An ZG (2006) Research advances on transgenic plant vaccines. *Yi Chuan Xue Bao* 33(4): 285- 293.
- Jelaska S, Mihaljević S, Bauer N (2014) Production of Biopharmaceuticals, Antibodies and Edible Vaccines in Transgenic Plants. *Current Studies of Biotechnology* 4(5): 121128.
- Morton J (1987) Banana. In: *Fruits of Warm Climates*. JF Morton Miami USA, pp: 29- 46.
- Saxena J, Rawat S (2013) Edible Vaccines. *Advances in Biotechnology* pp: 207-226.
- Gu Q, Han N, Liu J, Zhu M (2006) Expression of *Helicobacter pylori* urease subunit B gene in transgenic rice. *Biotechnol Lett* 28(20): 1661-1666.
- Nojima J, Ishii-Katsuno R, Futai E, Sasagawa N, Watanabe Y, et al. (2011) Production of anti-amyloid  $\beta$  antibodies in mice fed rice expressing amyloid  $\beta$ . *Biosci Biotechnol Biochem* 75(2): 396-400.
- Wu J, Yu L, Li L, Hu J, Zhou J, et al. (2007) Oral immunization with transgenic rice seeds expressing VP2 protein of infectious bursal disease virus induces protective immune responses in chickens. *Plant Biotechnol J* 5(5): 570-578.
- Yuki Y, Mejima M, Kurokawa S, Hiroiwa T, Takahashi Y, et al. (2013) Induction of toxin-specific neutralizing immunity by molecularly uniform rice-based oral cholera toxin B subunit vaccine without plant-associated sugar modification. *Plant Biotechnol J* 11(7): 799-808.
- Gumul D, Ziobro R, Noga M, Sabat R (2011) Characterisation of five potato cultivars according to their nutritional and pro-health components. *Acta Sci Pol Technol Aliment* 10(1): 77-81.
- Dinc S, Kara M, Arslanoglu SF (2014) Patates Ve Sağlık. *Türk Tohumcular Birliği Dergisi* pp: 43-44.
- Evers D, Deusser H (2012) Potato Antioxidant Compounds: Impact of Cultivation Methods and Relevance for Diet and Health. In: Bouayed J, et al. (Eds.), *Nutrition, Well-Being and Health*. Intechopen.
- Theodoratou E, Farrington SM, Tenesa A, McNeill G, Cetnarskyj R, et al. (2008) Dietary vitamin B6 intake and the risk of colorectal cancer. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev* 17(1): 171-182.
- Budak N (2002) The importance of folic acid in woman and child health. *Erciyes Medical Journal* 24(4): 209-214.
- Rybicki EP (2010) Plant-made vaccines for humans and animals. *Plant Biotechnol J* 8(5): 620-637.
- Aryamvally A, Gunasekaran V, Narenthiran KR, Pasupathi R (2017) New strategies toward edible vaccines: an overview. *J Diet Suppl* 14(1): 101-116.
- Roy S, Bhattacharyya P (2020) Possible role of traditional İsmail Karakaş and Fatma Aykut Tonk. *Plants That Can be Used as Plant-Based Edible Vaccines; Current Situation and Recent Developments*. *Virol Immunol J* 2022, 6(3): 000302.
- İsmail Karakaş and Fatma Aykut Tonk. medicinal plant Neem (*Azadirachta indica*) for the management of COVID-19 infection. *Int J Res Pharm Sci* 1(11): 122-125.
- Al-Hashemi ZSS, Hossain MA (2016) Biological activities of different neem leaf crude extracts used locally in Ayurvedic medicine. *Pacific Science Review A: Natural Science and Engineering* 18(2): 128-131.
- Sujarwo W, Keim AP, Caneva G, Toniolo C, Nicoletti M, et al. (2016) Ethnobotanical uses of neem (*Azadirachta indica* A. Juss.; Meliaceae) leaves in Bali (Indonesia) and the Indian subcontinent in relation with historical background and phytochemical properties. *J Ethnopharmacol* 189: 186-193.
- Parida MM, Upadhyay C, Pandya G, Jana AM (2002) Inhibitory potential of neem (*Azadirachta indica* Juss) leaves on dengue virus type-2 replication. *J Ethnopharmacol* 79(2): 273-278.
- Thakurta P, Bhowmik P, Mukherjee S, Hajra TK, Patra A, et al. (2007) Antibacterial, antisecretory and antihemorrhagic activity of *Azadirachta indica* used to treat cholera and diarrhea in India. *J Ethnopharmacol* 111(3): 607-612.
- Tregoning JS, Nixon P, Kuroda H, Svab Z, Clare S, et al. (2003) Expression of tetanus toxin fragment C in tobacco chloroplasts. *Nucleic Acids Res* 31(4): 1174-1179.
- Balfour H (2020) Using plants as bioreactors to produce proteins for therapeutics. *European Pharmaceutical Review*.
- Kohl T, Hitzeroth II, Stewart D, Varsani A, Govan VA, et al. (2006) Plant-produced cottontail'  $\beta$  papillomavirus L1 protein protects age<sup>43</sup> nor challenge: a proof-of-concept study. *Clin Vaccine Immunol* 13(8): 845-853.
- Varsani A, Williamson AL, Rose RC, Jaffer M, Rybicki EP, et al. (2003) Expression of Human papillomavirus type 16 major capsid protein in transgenic *Nicotiana tabacum* cv. Xanthi. *Arch Virol* 148(9): 1771-1786.
- Santi L, Batchelor L, Huang Z, Hjelm B, Kilbourne J, et al. (2008) An efficient plant viral expression system generating orally immunogenic Norwalk virus-like particles. *Vaccine* 26(15): 1846-1854.
- Kumar S, Tiku AB (2016) Immunomodulatory potential of acemannan (polysaccharide from *Aloe vera*) against radiation induced mortality in Swiss albino mice. *Food and Agricultural Immunology* 27(1): 72-86.
- Zandi K, Zadeh MA, Sartavi K, Rastian Z (2007) Antiviral activity of *Aloe vera* against herpes simplex virus type 2: An in vitro study. *African Journal of Biotechnology* 6(15): 1770-1773.
- Mpiana PT, Ngbolua KTN, Tshibangu DST, Kilembe JT, Gbolo BZ, et al. (2020) *Aloe vera* (L.) Burm. F. as a Potential Anti-COVID-19 Plant: A Mini-review of Its Antiviral Activity. *European Journal of Medicinal Plants* 31(8): 86-93.
- Kahlon JB, Kemp MC, Carpenter RH, McAnalley BH, McDaniel HR, et al. (1991). Inhibition of AIDS virus replication by acemannan in vitro. *Mol Biother* 3(3): 127-135.
- Barnard DL, Huffman JH, Morris JL, Wood SG, Hughes BG, et al. (1992) Evaluation of the antiviral activity of anthraquinones, anthrones and anthraquinone derivatives against human cytomegalovirus. *Antiviral Res* 17(1): 63-77.
- Semple SJ, Pyke SM, Reynolds GD, Flower RL (2001) In vitro antiviral activity of the anthraquinone chrysophanic acid against poliovirus. *Antiviral Res* 49(3): 169-178.
- Rosales-Mendoza S, Soria-Guerra RE, López-Revilla R, Moreno-Fierros L, Alpuche-Solís AG, et al. (2008) Ingestion of transgenic carrots expressing the



- Escherichia coli heat-labile enterotoxin B subunit protects mice against cholera toxin challenge. *Plant Cell Rep* 27(1): 79-84.
- Bhatia S and Dahiya R. (2015) Edible Vaccines. *Modern Applications of Plant Biotechnology in Pharmaceutical Sciences*. Pages 333-343, ISBN 9780128022214.
- Prakash C (1996) Edible vaccines and antibody producing plants. *Biotechnol Dev Monit* 27: 10-13.
- Waghulkar V (2010) Fruit derived edible vaccines: Natural way for the vaccination. *Int J PharmTech Res* 2: 2124-2127.
- Dus Santos MJ, Wigdorovitz A, Trono K, Ríos RD, Franzone PM, et al. (2002) A novel methodology to develop a foot and mouth disease virus (FMDV) peptide-based vaccine in transgenic plants. *Vaccine* 20: 1141-1147.
- Domansky N, Ehsani P, Salmanian AH, Medvedeva T (1995) Organ-specific expression of hepatitis B surface antigen in potato. *Biotechnology letters* 17: 863-866.
- Khan A, Khan A, Khan I, Shehzad MA, Ali W, et al. (2019) A review on natural way of vaccination: Plant derived edible vaccines. *J Vaccines Immunol* 5(1): 018-021. DOI: 10.17352/jvi.000025
- Singh YP, Dhangra VK, Chaubey AN, Singh V (2022) Chapter-36. *Genetic Engineering: It's Role in Agriculture*.
- Mandal-Ghosh I, Chattopadhyay U, Baral R (2007) Neem leaf preparation enhances Th1 type immune response and anti-tumor immunity against breast tumor associated antigen. *Cancer Immunity Archive* 7(1): 8.

Cite this article-

Faizan ul Haque Nagrami, Shweta Sharma, Uma Sharma, Shweta Sharma, Akshita Tiwari and Parul Singh, 2023 "Edible Vaccine Is A Natural Way of Vaccination: A Review Article" *Journal of Science Innovations and Nature of Earth*, Vol. 3(1), page- 37-44

[www.doi.org/10.59436/jsiane.com/archives3/12/72](http://www.doi.org/10.59436/jsiane.com/archives3/12/72)