In silico design and analyses of a multi-epitope vaccine against Crimean-Congo hemorrhagic fever virus through reverse vaccinology and immunoinformatics approaches

Akinyemi Ademola Omoniyi¹,⁴,⁵*, Samuel Sunday Adebisi¹, Sunday Abraham Musa¹, James Oliver Nzalak², Zainab Mahmood Bauchi³, Kerkebe William Bako³, Oluwasegun Davis Olatamide¹, Richard Zachariah¹ & Jens Randel Nyengaard⁴,⁵

Crimean Congo Hemorrhagic Fever virus (CCHFV) is a deadly human pathogen that causes an emerging zoonotic disease with a broad geographic spread, especially in Africa, Asia, and Europe, and the second most common viral hemorrhagic fever and widely transmitted tick-borne viral disease. Following infection, the patients are presented with a variety of clinical manifestations and a fatality rate of 40%. Despite the high fatality rate, there are unmet clinical interventions, as no antiviral drugs or vaccines for CCHF have been approved. Immunoinformatics pipeline and reverse vaccinology were used in this study to design a multi-epitope vaccine that may elicit a protective humoral and cellular immune response against Crimean-Congo hemorrhagic fever virus infection. Three essential virulent and antigenic proteins (S, M, and L) were used to predict seven CTL and 18 HTL epitopes that were non-allergenic, antigenic, IFN-γ inducing, and non-toxic. The epitopes were connected using linkers and 50S ribosomal protein L7/L12 was used as an adjuvant and raised a multi-epitope vaccine (MEV) that is 567 amino acids long. Molecular docking and simulation of the predicted 3D structure of the MEV with the toll-like (TLR2, TLR3, and TLR4) receptors and major histocompatibility complex (MHC-I and MHC-II) indicate high interactions and stability of the complexes, MM-GBSA free binding energy calculation revealed a favourable protein–protein complex. Maximum MEV expression was achieved with a CAI value of 0.98 through in silico cloning in the Drosophila melanogaster host. According to the immune simulation, IgG1, T-helper cells, T-cytotoxic cells, INF-γ, and IL-2 were predicted to be significantly elevated. These robust computational analyses demonstrated that the proposed MEV is effective in preventing CCHFV infections. However, it is still necessary to conduct both in vitro and in vivo experiments to validate the potential of the vaccine.

After dengue fever, Crimean-Congo Hemorrhagic Fever (CCHF) is the second most common viral hemorrhagic fever and the world's most widely transmitted tick-borne viral disease¹. It's characterised by high fever, headache, weakness, nausea, vomiting, and diarrhoea, as well as elevated liver enzymes, elevated levels of creatine

¹Department of Human Anatomy, Faculty of Basic Medical Science, College of Medical Sciences, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, Nigeria. ²Department of Veterinary Anatomy, Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, Nigeria. ³Department of Human Anatomy, Faculty of Basic Medical Sciences, Abubakar Tafawa Balewa University, Bauchi, Nigeria. ⁴Department of Clinical Medicine, Core Centre for Molecular Morphology, Section for Stereology and Microscopy, Aarhus University, Aarhus, Denmark. ⁵Department of Pathology, Aarhus University Hospital, Aarhus, Denmark. *email: aaomoniyi@abu.edu.ng
phosphokinase (CPK), and lactate dehydrogenase (LDH), and disturbed haemostasis. Despite presentation as a low fever in the majority of cases, some patients develop severe hemorrhagic disease. CCHF was first described in humans as a disease in the 1940s when soldiers and farmers in the Crimean Peninsula became ill with a hemorrhagic disease.

CCHF is an emerging zoonotic disease with a broad geographic spread (much of Africa, Asia, and Europe) and a 40% fatality rate. It is caused by the Crimean Congo Hemorrhagic Fever virus (CCHFV), a negative-sense RNA arbovirus (Arthropod-borne virus) belonging to the genus Nairovirus and family Bunyaviridae, which is transmitted by ticks. Humans can become infected with CCHFV by tick bites, crushing infected ticks, via inhalation, or through unprotected contact with body fluids of infected animals or humans.

In the late 1960s, the Crimean-Congo hemorrhagic fever virus was named after the discovery that the causative agent of hemorrhagic disease in Zarie (the current Democratic Republic of Congo) was similar to that of the hemorrhagic disease in the Crimea. Based on phylogenetic analysis of the complete genetic sequence of the S RNA segment of the genome and geographical origin, up to nine genetically distinct clades have been reported, suggesting a high genetic diversity. Evidence suggests that the viral gene segments are often reassorted, possibly as a result of animal trade between African and Asian regions.

In a variety of mammalian hosts, the virus induces a temporary viremia. In comparison to humans, immune-competent mammals, do not show symptoms of disease. Animal models and treatment trials against CCHF have been delayed as a result of this. Retinoic acid-inducible gene I (RIG-I), Toll-like receptors (TLRs), and nuclear factor-kappa B may act as innate immune sensors of CCHFV. Reduction in the replication of CCHFV by treatment with interferon in interferon-signalling competent cells and the ability of CCHFV to cause severe disease in mice deficient in the type I interferon system but not wild-type (WT) mice suggests that CCHFV is an interferon sensitive virus. This implies that host innate immune responses in vertebrate species play a substantial role in limiting CCHFV pathogenesis.

The viral genome consists of three RNA segments: small (S) encoding the viral nucleoprotein (NP), medium (M) encoding the glycoprotein precursor (GPC) that yields the structural glycoproteins (GN and GC), and large (L) encoding the RNA-dependent RNA polymerase. Following interaction between its glycoprotein (GN and GC) and the host cell's receptor, CCHFV releases its genome after entering the cell through endocytosis. Once within the cell, genomic fragments are uncoated and transcribed into viral mRNA by the L protein, which is then converted into NP and L proteins used for genomic RNA replication, resulting in genomic ribonucleoprotein complexes (RNP). Within the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) and Golgi bodies, newly synthesized CCHFV particles are processed and matured before being released via exocytosis.

Immunoinformatics in vaccine development provides a quick, reliable, and efficient approach to disease vaccine development. The antigenicity of pathogen secretory proteins makes them an excellent candidate for predicting B and T cell epitopes in vaccine production. Despite the high mortality rate, no antiviral drugs or vaccines for CCHF have been approved. Although efforts have been made in vaccine development with the Bulgarian vaccine, DNA vaccine and viral nucleoprotein, the extensibility and safety issues with this type of vaccine have likely prevented widespread use, necessitating the development of new vaccine platforms for CCHFV. This study aims to use in silico immunoinformatics pipeline and reverse vaccinology to design a multi-epitope vaccine that may elicit a protective humoral and cellular immune response against Crimean-Congo hemorrhagic fever virus infection.

**Methodology**

The reverse vaccinology and immunoinformatics pipeline used included eight major components: CCHFV proteome retrieval, virulence factor screening, epitope prediction (CTL and HTL), multi-epitope vaccine design, 3D structure modelling, molecular docking and dynamic simulation, in-silico expression, and immune simulation (Fig. 1).

**Retrieval of CCHFV proteome.** The complete amino acid sequence of the CCHFV large segment (L) (NC_005301.3), glycoprotein precursor (GPC) (NC_005300.2), and nucleoprotein (NP) (NC_005302.1) were retrieved from Gene Bank Database, NCBI (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/) in standard FASTA format.

**Screening of virulence factor.** Based on manually annotated training data consisting of bacterial and viral protective antigens and an optimised supervised learning model, Vaxign-ML predicts the proteogenicity score that is validated through nested five-fold cross-validation. For the L, GPC, and NP of CCHFV, Vaxign-ML (http://www.violinet.org/vaxign2) was used to compute the protective antigenicity (proteogenicity) score and predict subcellular localization, transmembrane helix, and adhesion probability.

**Prediction of cytotoxic T lymphocytes (CTL) epitope.** CTL epitopes for L, GPC, and NP of CCHFV were predicted at a threshold of 0.75 using an online server NetCTL 1.2 (http://www.cbs.dtu.dk/services/NetCTL/). It predicts CTL epitopes based on MHC-I binding peptide prediction, proteasomal C-terminal degradation activity using an artificial neural network, and Transporter Associated with Antigen Processing (TAP) employing weight matrix. Predicted CTL epitopes were subjected to the Class I immunogenicity server (http://tools.iedb.org/immunogenicity/) using the default setting to select the best epitopes for 9-mer peptides for class I immunogenicity.

**Prediction of helper T-cell epitopes.** HTL epitopes for seven human alleles (HLA-DRB1*03:01, HLA-DRB1*07:01, HLA-DRB1*015:01, HLA-DRB3*01:01, HLA-DRB3*02:02, HLA-DRB4*01:01, and HLA-DRB5*01:01) were predicted for L, GPC, and NP of CCHFV by MHC-II prediction module of the online server.
IEDB (http://tools.iedb.org/mhcii/)^38,39 based on receptor affinity derived from the IC50 value (binding score) given to each epitope. Where IC50 value < 50 nM denotes high binding affinity, IC50 score < 500 nM denotes moderate and IC50 value < 5000 nM signifies low binding affinity of predicted epitopes. The score of binding affinity of the epitope is inversely proportional to the percentile rank, which means that the higher the binding affinity, the lower the percentile rank. Predicted HTL epitopes were further subjected to the IFN epitope server (http://crdd.osdd.net/raghava/ifeptope/index.php)^40 using the SVM hybrid and Motif as the approach and IFN-gamma against other cytokines as the model of prediction. This was done to validate the ability of the predicted HTL epitopes to cause IFN-γ production which has been reported to minimize host damage, protect against infectious diseases and inhibit viral replication after activation of helper T cells^41–43.

Allergenicity prediction. AlgPred (http://www.imtech.res.in/raghava/algpred/)^44 an online server that uses six different approaches for the prediction of allergenicity was used to predict the allergenic score for the predicted CTL epitopes, HTL epitopes and the vaccine construct with high accuracy of 85% at a 0.4 threshold.

Antigenicity prediction. The antigenicity of the predicted CTL epitopes, HTL epitopes, and vaccine construct was done with high accuracy based on the physicochemical properties of a given amino acid sequence using the VaxiJen online server (http://www.ddg-pharmfac.net/vaxijen/VaxiJen/VaxiJen.html)^45 at a threshold of 0.4 (for virus selected as target organism).

Toxicity prediction. ToxinPred an online server (http://crdd.osdd.net/raghava/toxinpred/)^46 that predicts the toxicity of epitopes based on the physicochemical properties was used to screen for non-toxic epitopes.

Population coverage and alignment analysis. The frequencies of different Human Leucocyte Antigens (HLA) alleles vary with ethnicities^47, and CCHFV is widely spread in Africa, Asia, the Middle East, and Eastern Europe. The HLA-alleles distribution among the endemic population is essential for effective multi-epitope vaccine development. In this study, the IEDB (http://tools.iedb.org/population/) population coverage analysis tool^48 was used for population coverage of the potential CTL and HTL epitopes and their MHC binding alleles. The Protein Basic Local Alignment Search Tool (BLASTp)^49 available at https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi? was used to evaluate the sequence similarity of the query sequences to other sequences available in the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) database. Multiple alignments of the sequences was performed using Clustal Omega available at EMBL-EBI web interface (https://ebi.ac.uk/Tools/msa/clustalo/)^50,51 and the results were analysed using Jalview version 2.11^52.

Multi-epitopes vaccine sequence construction. Based on the result of the aforementioned procedures, the sequence of the vaccine construct was derived from the predicted sequences of the CTL, HTL, and linear B cells epitopes. AAY, GPGPG, and KK linkers were used to join the CTL, HTL, and B cells epitopes respectively. EAAAK linker was used to join the adjuvant to the vaccine construct^53 using Notepad++ version 8.1.
B cell epitope prediction. B cell lymphocytes produce antibody molecules that are inserted into the plasma membrane as part of B-cell receptors\(^5\). B-cell epitopes play a large role in host antibody production by binding to the receptors on B cells. B-cell epitopes play a large role in host antibody production by binding to the receptors on B cells. BepiPred-2.0 (http://tools.iedb.org/bcell/)\(^56\) was used to predict these epitopes on an online server that employs a random forest algorithm method trained on epitopes annotated from antibody-antigen protein structures. To further predict the conformational B-cell epitopes, DiscoTope 2.0 (http://tools.iedb.org/discootope/)\(^57\) was used. This is an online server that uses 3D structures to predict discontinuous epitopes based on amino acid statistics, spatial information, and surface accessibility in an accumulated data set of conformational epitopes determined by X-ray crystallography of antibody/antigen protein complexes, as well as contact distances into its potential B-cell epitope prediction along the length of a protein sequence.

Physicochemical parameters and identification of domain. Physicochemical parameters (theoretical PI, the composition of amino acid, in vitro and in vivo half-life, molecular weight, instability index, aliphatic index and grand average of hydropathicity GRAVY) and solubility of the vaccine construct were predicted using an online server ProtParam (http://web.expasy.org/protparam/)\(^58\) and the SOLpro tool in the SCRATCH suite (http://scratch.proteomics.ics.ucl.ac.edu/)\(^59\).

Prediction of secondary structure. PSIPRED (http://bioinf.cs.ucl.ac.uk/psipred/)\(^60\) was used for high accuracy prediction of the secondary structure of the amino acid sequence in the vaccine construct. It is an online tool that uses position-specific prediction Psi-BLAST to identify and select sequences showing significant homology to the vaccine protein.

Tertiary structure prediction. Robetta (http://robeta.bakerlab.org) an automated tool that predicts 3D structure models of protein after parsing the structure into respective domains based on either comparative modelling or de novo structure was used for the prediction of the tertiary structure of the construct. For comparative modelling homologs, sequences were used as templates after identification by BLAST, 3D-Jury or FFAS03, and PSI-BLAST. De novo structures were generated using the Rosetta fragment insertion method if homologs were not found\(^61\).

Tertiary structure refinement. The tertiary structure for the predicted multi-epitope subunit vaccine construct was refined using an online web tool Galaxy Refine (http://galaxy.seoklab.org/)\(^62\) that improves protein structure using the CASP10 method for repacking, protein's side chain reconstruction, as well as MD simulations for relaxation of the global and the local quality of the tertiary structure.

Validation of tertiary structure of vaccine construct. The validation of the tertiary structure of the vaccine construct was done on ProSA-web, SAVES v6.0, and PROCHECK.

Firstly, ProSA-web (https://prosa.services.came.sbg.ac.at/prosa.php) was used to compute the quality score for a specific input structure and displayed it in the context of all known protein structures\(^63\). The 3D molecule viewer in ProSA-web results facilitates the detection of the problematic part that is, scores lying outside a range characteristic for native proteins. Secondly, another validation server ERRAT in the SAVES v6.0 server (https://saves.mbi.ucla.edu) was used to generate the overall quality score of the modelled protein by analyzing non-bonded interactions in comparison to reliable high-resolution crystallography structures\(^64\). Thirdly, analysis and generation of a Ramachandran plot for visualization of allowed and disallowed dihedral angles psi (ψ) and phi (φ) of amino acid-based on the van der Waal radius of the side chains was done using PROCHECK (https://saves.mbi.ucla.edu/)\(^65\).

Molecular docking of the vaccine construct with immune receptors. Interaction of an antigen and a specific receptor is required for the initiation of an appropriate immune response. To evaluate the interaction between the vaccine construct and its receptors, a molecular docking approach was used. A 3D structure of MHC I (PDB ID: 6P2F), MHC II (PDB ID: 1AQD), TLR2 (PDB ID: 2Z7X), TLR3 (PDB ID: 4G8A), and TLR4 (PDB ID: 1ZIW) was retrieved from a protein data bank and used as the receptors. The HDOCK server (http://hdock.phys.hust.edu.cn/)\(^66\) was used to dock the vaccine construct with the receptors. It functions by sampling and calculating the atomic shape portrayal; coordinating surface fixes as well as separating the surface of the putative binding modes between the two proteins using the Fast Fourier Transform-based global search approach\(^67\) and appraising the sampled binding modes with an enhanced iterative template-based scoring function for protein–protein interaction\(^68\). To accurately predict the binding strength of the complexes, the PROtein BinDiNg enerGY (PRODIGY) server (https://bianca.science.uu.nl/prodigy)\(^69\) was utilised to assess binding affinity (ΔG) and the dissociation constant (Kd) in room temperature of the complexes. To visualize the interactions between docked complexes, we used the PDBerPisa (https://www.ebi.ac.uk/msd-srv/prot_int/cgi-bin/piserver)\(^70\) server and Pymol version 2.31.

Molecular dynamics and free binding energy calculation. Molecular dynamics (MD) simulation was done to minimize and evaluate the stability of the 3D structure of the vaccine construct for probing the stability of the protein–protein complex of the vaccine constructs and the MHC I, MHC II, TLR2, TLR3, and TLR4 was done using Assistant Model Building with Energy Refinement (AMBER 20)\(^72\). The recommended protein ff19SB force field\(^73\) with OPC water model\(^74\) was used for the simulation. Octahedron box shape was utilised with the vaccine or resulting complex at least a distance of 12 Å away from the edge of the water-filled box to
achieve at least three-layer of solvation on all sides of the protein surface. Na+ and Cl− counter ions were applied where necessary to neutralize the system using the “tleap” package of Amber. The systems were minimised at 500 cycles of steepest descent and 1000 steps of a conjugate gradient to remove all constraints atoms. The systems were heated for a period of 50 ps to maintain a constant temperature of 300 K using Langevin dynamics and equilibrated for 5 ns at temperature and pressure with isotropic position scaling to achieve conformational stability. All simulation production was carried out for a period of 100 ns in PMEMD.cuda with the SHAKE and Particle-Mesh Ewald (PME) method, and a non-bond contacts cut-off radius of 10 Å was used for long-term interactions.

Visual Molecular Dynamics (VMD) and MMPBSA.py implemented in Amber20 were used for the post-simulation trajectories analysis to evaluate the Root Mean Square Deviation (RMSD)-Eq. (1) and Molecular Mechanics Generalised Born Surface Area (MM-GBSA)-Eq. (2) binding free energy of the complexes. 

$$\text{RMSD} = \frac{\sqrt{\sum_{i=0}^{N} [m_i \times (X_i - Y_i)^2]}}{M}$$

where $N =$ number of atoms, $m_i =$ mass of atom $i$, $X_i =$ coordinate vector for target atom $i$, $Y_i =$ coordinate vector for reference atom $i$, and $M =$ total mass. If the RMSD is not mass-weight, all $m_i = 1$ and $M = N$.

$$\text{Binding free energy (} \Delta G_{\text{bind}} \text{)} = \Delta H - T \Delta S$$

where $\Delta H$ is the enthalpy change as computed as the sum of changes of the gas-phase energy ($\Delta E_{\text{MM}}$) and solvation free energy ($\Delta G_{\text{solv}}$) mean over a conformational ensemble generated by MD simulations. $T \Delta S$ is the entropic contribution.

**Optimization and in-silico cloning of vaccine construct.** For the multi-epitope vaccine construct expression in a selected expression vector, reverse translation and optimization of codons, were conducted in the Java Codon Adaptation Tool (JCat) server (http://www.jcat.de). To ensure expression of the final vaccine structure in host Drosophila melanogaster, codon optimization was performed because the codon usage by Drosophila melanogaster is different from that of the native host. The output of JCat consists of a codon adaptation index (CAI) which gives information on codon usage biases. An ideal CAI score is 1.0 but > 0.8 is considered a good score and the percentage of GC content, ranges between 30–70%. GC content values outside this range suggest unfavourable effects on translation and transcription, which can be used to ascertain the level of protein expression.

**Immune simulation.** In silico immune simulations were conducted using the C-ImmSim server (http://150.146.2.1/C-IMMSIM/index.php) to further validate the immunogenic and immune response profile of the vaccine construct. C-ImmSim simultaneously simulates three compartments that represent three separate localization of immune cells in mammals: the bone marrow, the thymus, and a tertiary lymphatic organ, such as a lymph node. It does this by using a position-specific scoring matrix (PSSM) for immune epitope prediction and machine learning techniques for the prediction of immune interactions. At intervals of four weeks, three injections were given and all simulation parameters were set at default with time steps set at 1, 84, and 168, where each time step is 8 h and time step 1 is injection at time = 0. To probe for clonal selection, additional 12 injections of the designed vaccine construct were given four weeks apart to mimic repeated antigen exposure seen in a typical endemic area.

**Research involving human participants and/or animals.** This article does not contain any studies involved with human participants or animals performed by any of the authors.

**Results**

**Retrieval of protein sequences.** The viral genome of CCHFV which consists of RNA segments encoding the nucleoprotein, glycoprotein precursor, and RNA-dependent RNA polymerase proteins was retrieved from the GenBank and used for the prediction of CTL and HTL epitopes for the multi-epitope subunit vaccine design. Fifty S ribosomal protein L7/L12 was retrieved from the UniProt database (P0A7K2) and used as an adjuvant for the immune interaction based on its ability to induce antiviral immune response.

**Screening of virulence factor.** The encoded segment for NP, GPC, and L proteins of CCHFV was predicted by Vaxign sever as protective antigens with a high protegenicity score. All were predicted to be cytoplasmic proteins and only NP was predicted to have a high adhesive probability among the three proteins (Table 1).

| RNA segments | Protein name          | Protegenicity score | Adhesion probability |
|--------------|-----------------------|---------------------|----------------------|
| S            | Nucleoprotein         | 91.2                | 0.435                |
| M            | Glycoprotein precursor| 89.6                | 0.195                |
| L            | RNA polymerase        | 89.6                | 0.019                |

Table 1. Protegenicity score and adhesion probability score of RNA segments of CCHFV.
Adhesin plays a vital role in the virus adhering to the host cell and enabling the virus entry to the host cell\textsuperscript{90}. All the predicted proteins were not similar to human, mouse, or pig proteins.

Cytotoxic T lymphocyte (CTL) epitope prediction. The CTL epitopes (9-mer) prediction using the NetCTL v2.0 server yielded 146 epitopes out of which 54 epitopes were predicted to be antigenic, immunogenic, and non-toxic. From these, seven non-overlapping (GPC = 6 and NP = 1) epitopes of human MCH-I alleles HLA-B*35:01, HLA-B*30:02, HLA-A*01:01, HLA-A*02:06, and HLA-B*57:01 were selected based on high immunogenicity scores as CTL epitopes for vaccine construction (Table 2).

Helper T lymphocyte (HTL) epitope prediction. The HTL epitopes (15-mer) prediction produced 126 non-allergenic epitopes from the CCHFV proteome, out of which 26 were further predicted to be antigenic, non-toxic, and IFN-γ positive. From these, 18 (GPC = 11, NP = 5, and L = 2) non-overlapping epitopes for human alleles HLA-DRB1*03:01, HLA-DRB1*07:01, HLA-DRB1*15:01, HLA-DRB3*01:01, HLA-DRB3*02:02, HLA-DRB4*01:01 and HLA-DRB5*01:01 were considered for vaccine construction based on high percentile rank scores, non-allergenic, antigenic, and non-toxic as HTL epitopes (Table 3).

Allergenicity and antigenicity prediction of the multi-epitope vaccine construct. The allergenicity of the vaccine construct was predicted by using the AlgPred server, which found the multi-epitope vaccine construct to be non-allergenic (Allergenicity score = −1.028). While an antigenic score of 0.593 was derived as predicted by the VaxiJen server. These results suggest that our multi-epitope vaccine candidate possesses strong antigenic and non-allergenic properties that will provoke the immune response.

Theoretical population coverage and alignment analysis. The HLA allele distribution varies between different geographical and ethnic regions around the globe. Hence, population coverage analysis of

| ID  | Peptide seq | Combine score | Antigenicity | MCH I score | Toxicity   |
|-----|-------------|---------------|--------------|-------------|------------|
| 1   | QSAQIDTAF   | 1.005         | 0.588        | 0.102       | Non-toxic  |
| 2   | FLFWFSFGY   | 1.080         | 1.100        | 0.338       | Non-toxic  |
| 3   | LKDDEETGY   | 0.982         | 0.667        | 0.274       | Non-toxic  |
| 4   | STANIALSW   | 0.929         | 1.314        | 0.067       | Non-toxic  |
| 5   | GLCDDTFFF   | 0.915         | 0.533        | 0.097       | Non-toxic  |
| 6   | YTSCIQLFL   | 0.816         | 0.615        | 0.140       | Non-toxic  |
| 7   | TTMAFLFWEF  | 0.756         | 0.608        | 0.314       | Non-toxic  |

Table 2. Selected cytotoxic T-lymphocyte (CTL) epitopes for multi-epitope vaccine construction.

| S. no | Allele           | Peptide Allergenicity | Antigenicity | Toxicity | IFN-γ |
|-------|------------------|-----------------------|--------------|----------|-------|
| 1     | HLA-DRB1*03:01   | FRATMEVSNSQIRF       | −0.419       | 0.438    | Non-toxic Positive |
| 2     | HLA-DRB1*03:01   | CKLICFRATMEVSNN       | −0.449       | 1.150    | Non-toxic Positive |
| 3     | HLA-DRB3*02:02   | FLYLHVTILGKRLK       | −0.426       | 1.205    | Non-toxic Positive |
| 4     | HLA-DR1*07:01    | APIQGQKTEAYRAR       | −0.502       | 0.698    | Non-toxic Positive |
| 5     | HLA-DRB3*02:02   | FLWFSFGYVTSNCL       | −0.424       | 0.721    | Non-toxic Positive |
| 6     | HLA-DR1*07:01    | AIFLILLIVTGLKRO       | −0.523       | 1.084    | Non-toxic Positive |
| 7     | HLA-DR1*07:01    | EHELPQGTATPGLM       | −0.543       | 0.476    | Non-toxic Positive |
| 8     | HLA-DRB1*01:01   | ELGCYTPQRSFKL        | −0.607       | 0.950    | Non-toxic Positive |
| 9     | HLA-DRB1*01:01   | ESTGVALKWSSLIV       | −1.149       | 1.431    | Non-toxic Positive |
| 10    | HLA-DR1*03:01    | GLQINLRHISTRIV       | −0.468       | 0.853    | Non-toxic Positive |
| 11    | HLA-DRB1*03:01   | GVALKWSSLIV          | −0.487       | 1.362    | Non-toxic Positive |
| 12    | HLA-DRB1*03:01   | FGSGIALVQGLAKL       | −0.512       | 0.850    | Non-toxic Positive |
| 13    | HLA-DRB1*03:01   | MHPATLARISEMG        | −1.438       | 1.133    | Non-toxic Positive |
| 14    | HLA-DRB1*03:01   | RIYHMIPAVLTAGRS       | −1.030       | 0.785    | Non-toxic Positive |
| 15    | HLA-DRB1*03:01   | SFQMNRMIPAVLT         | −0.598       | 0.546    | Non-toxic Positive |
| 16    | HLA-DRB1*07:01   | NKNGRSGIALVATGL       | −0.762       | 1.008    | Non-toxic Positive |
| 17    | HLA-DRB1*15:01   | AEDILMLGRAVGRK       | −0.751       | 0.624    | Non-toxic Positive |
| 18    | HLA-DRB1*15:01   | DLJMLMTGRAVKPSA      | −0.233       | 0.815    | Non-toxic Positive |

Table 3. Selected helper T lymphocyte (CTL) epitopes for multi-epitope vaccine construction. IFN-γ interferon-gamma.
the selected CTL and HTL epitopes with their corresponding HLA alleles used in the construction of the multi-
epitope subunit was considered. The selected HTL and CTL epitopes had widespread coverage of the endemic
population of CCHF. The HTL epitopes cover 58.1%, 58.3%, and 56.3% of the Czech Republic, Saudi Arabia, and
Poland population, while the CTL epitopes cover 53.6% and 54.3% of the Czech Republic and Poland popula-
tion, respectively (Fig. 2).

The BLASTp returned a total of 100 sequences for each of the query sequences [nucleoprotein (NP)
(NC_005302.1), glycoprotein precursor (GPC) (NC_005300.2), large segment (L) (NC_005301.3)] out of which
2 sequences for not being related to CCHFV. Each of the sequences has an average of 99% sequence coverage
and the nucleoprotein has an average of 89.4% identical sequences, glycoprotein was 89.6 and RNA polymerase
sequence was 91.8%. 83.3% of the CTL epitopes selected are conserved and HTL epitopes were 62.5% conserved.

CCHFV multi‑epitope chimeric vaccine construction. The construction of the CCHFV chimeric
vaccine was done in Notepad++ version 8.1 text editor, the adjuvant protein (50S ribosomal protein L7/L12)
retrieved with UniProt ID: P0A7K2 was joined with the first CTL epitope through EAAAK linker. With adju-
vant connected to the first CTL epitope, eight CTL and eighteen HTL epitopes were joined using AAY and
GPGPG linkers. The respective linkers were introduced to generate sequences with minimised junctional immu-
nogenicity, a high level of expression, and improved bioactivity of the fusion protein (Supplementary Fig. 1). The
CCHFV chimeric vaccine is 567 amino acid sequences long.

B‑cell prediction. The BepiPred server predicted twenty linear B‑cell epitopes of varying lengths ranging
from 1 to 28 amino acid sequences long and the DiscoTope server yielded six discontinuous B‑cell epitopes of
varying residue length with propensity and Discotope scores ranging from − 4.07 to 1.96 and − 3.66 to 1.72,
respectively (Supplementary Fig. 2).

Prediction of physiochemical parameters. The result from the ProtParam server showed that the
multi‑epitopes vaccine has a molecular weight of 58.3 kDa and a theoretical protrusion index (PI) of 9.09, which
shows the vaccine construct is basic. The estimated in vitro half-life in human mammalian reticulocytes was
30 h and the instability index was computed to be 32.1 revealing that the vaccine construct is a stable protein.
The aliphatic index was calculated to be 90.1 indicating a thermostable nature at different temperatures, and the
grand average of hydropathicity (GRAVY) was 0.232, thus, indicating that the vaccine construct is hydrophobic
(Table 4).

Prediction of secondary structure. The secondary structure of the vaccine construct as predicted by
the PSIPRED server shows that the multi‑epitopes vaccine is composed of a high percentage of the coil (44.4%) when compared with alpha‑helix (34.4%) and beta‑strand (21.2%). The vaccine construct also contains small polar residues (24.2%), hydrophobic (24.2%), polar (20.1%), and aromatic plus cysteine (9.2%) (Fig. 3).

3D structure modelling, refinement, and validation. Based on a multi‑templates approach, the Rap-
torX server‑generated five 3D structure models of the multi‑epitopes construct with RMSD ranging from 11.1
to 15.5 Å. The best model was selected based on its RMSD for further analysis.

Using the GalaxyRefine server for the refinement of the 3D structure of the chimeric vaccine, five models
were produced. Model 1 was selected based on its model quality score including GDT‑HA (0.917) and RMSD
(0.50 Å) for molecular dynamic (MD) simulation.

The validation of the 3D structure was done to check for quality and potential errors. Following the MD
simulation, the 3D structure analysis by ProSA‑web indicates that the structure had a Z‑score of − 6.1, and SAVES

Figure 2. Theoretical population coverage of selected CTL and HTL epitopes allele distribution.

![Figure 2](https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-022-12651-1)
ERRAT showed the overall quality factor to be 92.6%, and VERIFY 3D reveals that 81.5% of the amino residues have an average score of ≥ 0.2 in the 3D/1D profile. The Ramachandran plot through PROCHECK indicates that 82.2% of the residues are in the most favoured regions, 17.1% are within the additional allowed regions and 0.7% generously allowed regions with no residue in the disallowed regions (Fig. 4).

**Molecular docking of vaccine construct with receptors.** Molecular docking (MD) was performed to study the interaction of the final subunit multi-epitopes vaccine construct, with TLRs and major histocompatibility complexes (MHC I and MHC II). The HDock server yielded hundreds of model complexes and the best were selected based on their docking score.

The complex of the multi-epitope vaccine (MEV) with TLR2, TLR 3, and TLR 4 had a binding affinity of −16.8 kcal/mol, −19.5 kcal/mol, and −16.6 kcal/mol also with a dissociation constant at 25 °C of 4.7 × 10⁻¹³ M, 4.7 × 10⁻¹₃ M, and 6.5 × 10⁻¹₂ M, respectively. Also, the complex of MEV with MHC I and MHC II had a binding affinity of −11.7 kcal/mol and −8.11 kcal/mol with a dissociation constant at 25 °C of 2.5 × 10⁻⁹ M and 1.1 × 10⁻⁶ M.

The interactions between the docked complexes were analysed using the PDBePISA server. It showed 13 hydrogen bonds and two salt bridges within MEV–TLR 2 complex, 13 hydrogen bonds interaction within MEV–TLR 3 complex, and eight hydrogen bond interactions between MEV–TLR 4 complex. The MEV–MHC I complex had 10 hydrogen bond interactions and a salt bridge and the MEV–MHC II complex had six hydrogen bond interactions and a salt bridge.

The structural evaluation is illustrated in Fig. 5 and the hydrogen bond interactions of the MEV with TLR2, TLR3, and TLR4 are shown in Table 5. The hydrogen bond interactions of the MEV with MHC-I and MHC-II are shown in Table 6.

| S. no. | Physiochemical properties | Results |
|-------|---------------------------|---------|
| 1     | Number of amino acids     | 567     |
| 2     | Molecular weight          | 58.3 kDa|
| 3     | Theoretical protrusion index (PI) | 9.09   |
| 4     | Estimated half-life (mammalian reticulocytes, in vitro) | 30 h   |
| 5     | Estimated half-life (yeast, in vivo)                         | >20 h  |
| 6     | Estimated half-life (Escherichia coli, in vivo)              | >10 h  |
| 7     | Instability index        | 32.1    |
| 8     | Aliphatic index          | 90.1    |
| 9     | Grand average of hydropathicity (GRAVY)                      | 0.232   |
| 10    | Solubility upon overexpression                                   | 0.982   |

Table 4. Physiochemical properties of the subunit multi-epitopes vaccine construct.
**Molecular dynamics simulation.** The selected complexes were further subjected to MD simulation to evaluate complex stability and residue fluctuation for the period of 100 ns. The temperature, density, and total energy remained stable for the simulation period. The root means square deviation (RMSD) of the complexes appear to converge by the end of simulation production as presented in Fig. 6. Over the simulation period, the average RMSD of MHC-I and MHC-II in complex with CCHFV chimeric vaccine was $8.70 \pm 2.08 \text{ Å}$ and $8.55 \pm 2.79 \text{ Å}$. The average RMSD of TLR-2, TLR-3, and TLR-4 in complex with CCHFV chimeric vaccine was $5.65 \pm 0.96 \text{ Å}$, $7.79 \pm 1.83 \text{ Å}$ and $6.57 \pm 2.17 \text{ Å}$ (Fig. 6).

The favourable binding free energy as calculated through the MM-GBSA approach reveals that the binding free energy of MHC-I and MHC-II in complex with CCHFV chimeric vaccine $- 87.6 \pm 11.6 \text{ kcal/mol}$ and $- 66.7 \pm 11.6 \text{ kcal/mol}$. The TLR-2, TLR-3, and TLR-4 in complex with CCHFV chimeric vaccine have the binding free energy of $- 82.1 \pm 15.93 \text{ kcal/mol}$, $- 43.7 \pm 8.9 \text{ kcal/mol}$, and $- 32.7 \pm 15.1 \text{ kcal/mol}$.

**Optimization and in-silico cloning of vaccine construct.** The *Drosophila melanogaster*-based expression system was chosen for codon optimization and expression of the vaccine construct because the expression system allows rapid expression and subsequent large-scale, cost-effective transformation and manufacturing of recombinant proteins. The optimization yielded a sequence that is 1701 nucleotides long with a GC-content of 72.4% and CAI of 0.98. The mean GC content of *Drosophila melanogaster* for the adapted vaccine construct sequence was 42.2 suggesting the host is suitable to express the vaccine candidate.

**In silico immune simulation.** The C-ImmuSim server used in simulating the immune profiles of the CCHFV chimeric vaccine revealed that the immune response to the chimeric vaccine was comparable with actual immune responses to the chimeric vaccine. The increased activities of the secondary and tertiary immune responses were noticeable by high levels of IgG1 + IgG2 and IgM and reduced levels of IgG + IgM antibodies (Fig. 7A). The results further reveal the development of immune memory B cells following immunization and increased antigen clearance upon subsequent exposures (Fig. 7B). Consequently, several isotypes of long-lasting B-cell were noticed. This suggests potential switching of the B-cell isotypes and memory formation (Fig. 7C). Similarly, a high response of T-cytotoxic cell populations with respective memory development was observed (Fig. 7D). Following immunization, the continuous proliferation of dendritic cells (Fig. 7E) and elevated levels of IFN-γ and IL-2 with a low Simpson index is apparent (Fig. 7F).

**Discussion**

The difficulty in growing multiple organisms, cost of vaccine production, problems with vaccine attenuation, and adverse effects of these vaccines have led to a shift in the development of subunit vaccines using immunoinformatics. This approach provides a quick, reliable, cost-effective, and efficient approach to disease vaccine development. The immune-competency of model animals to CCHFV and problems with extensibility and safety issues of available vaccines have delayed production and prevented widespread use of available vaccines, necessitating the development of a new vaccine that may be free of these problems. For the development of epitope-based peptide vaccine, the structural proteins are considered as the focus, as they are involved in the interaction between cell receptor and virus particle, its transcription and replication thus playing a significant role in the pathogenesis of the disease.
Figure 5. Hydrogen bond interaction map with the pymol of the CCHFV chimeric vaccine in green while the red colour (A) TLR-2, (B) TLR-3, (C) TRR-4MHC-II, (D) MHC-I, and (E) MHC-II.

| S. no. | TLR2 Â   | MEV     | TLR3 Â   | MEV     | TLR4 Â   | MEV     |
|-------|----------|---------|----------|---------|----------|---------|
| 1     | Arg449   | 2.69    | Ser132   | 3.58    | Leu128   | Gln616  |
| 2     | His426   | 3.02    | Tyr138   | 3.54    | Leu128   | Gln507  |
| 3     | Lys347   | 2.02    | Ser200   | 3.31    | Ser132   | His458  |
| 4     | Lys347   | 2.82    | Ser200   | 3.04    | Ala173   | Lys435  |
| 5     | His318   | 3.14    | Asp204   | 2.86    | Ala173   | Asn339  |
| 6     | Lys347   | 3.29    | Asp204   | 2.54    | Tyr174   | Lys341  |
| 7     | Thr288   | 3.75    | Pro211   | 3.08    | Ala206   | Thr219  |
| 8     | Thr60    | 3.40    | Gly423   | 3.88    | Thr304   | Asn554  |
| 9     | Thr65    | 3.68    | Gly428   | 2.30    | Leu346   |         |
| 10    | Ser185   | 2.77    | Ile506   | 3.49    | Pro389   |         |
| 11    | Phe425   | 3.82    | Tyr135   | 2.26    | Arg285   |         |
| 12    | Arg400   | 3.80    | Tyr138   | 3.30    | Arg285   |         |
| 13    | Asp109   | 2.52    | Tyr395   | 3.56    | Arg393   |         |

Table 5. Hydrogen bond interactions of the MEV with TLR2, TLR3, and TLR4. MEV multi-epitopes vaccine, Â bond distance in angstrom, TLR toll-like receptor.
Table 6. Hydrogen bond interactions of the MEV with MCH-I and MCH-II. MEV multi-epitopes vaccine, Å bond distance in angstrom, MCH major histocompatibility complex.

| S. no. | MCH-I | Å  | MEV | MCH-II | Å  | MEV |
|--------|-------|----|-----|--------|----|-----|
| 1      | Thr134| 2.61| Asn360| Glu4  | 3.81| Ala173|
| 2      | Asn127| 2.85| Asn360| Arg76 | 3.23| Asp56 |
| 3      | Ser88 | 3.46| Tyr395| Arg76 | 3.47| Phe55 |
| 4      | Thr134| 3.58| Arg361| Tyr79 | 3.55| Ala36 |
| 5      | Asp122| 3.62| Arg361| His143| 3.11| Glu50 |
| 6      | Gln115| 2.68| Phe365| Arg76 | 2.91| Val46 |
| 7      | Met98 | 3.30| Lys366|       |     |      |
| 8      | Tyr84 | 3.75| Arg393|       |     |      |
| 9      | Asn86 | 3.23| Arg393|       |     |      |
| 10     | Thr138| 3.72| Arg393|       |     |      |

Figure 6. RMSD plot for 100 ns simulation production of (A) 3D model CCHFV chimeric vaccine, (B) MHC-I in complex with the chimeric vaccine, (C) MHC-II in complex with the chimeric vaccine, (D) TLR-2 chimeric vaccine complex, (E) TLR-3 chimeric vaccine complex and (F) TLR-4 in complex with chimeric vaccine.
Figure 7. C-ImmSim reveals the immune profile of the CCHFV chimeric vaccine antigen. (A) Immunoglobulin production after immunization with sub-type indicated as coloured peaks, (B) Evolution of CD4 T-helper lymphocytes count per entity-state, i.e., active, resting, anergic, and duplicating, (C) Population of B lymphocytes after three injections with the total count, memory cells, and IgM, IgG1, and IgG2 isotypes, (D) CD8 T-cytotoxic lymphocytes count after immunization, (E) Dendritic cell population per state which presents antigenic peptides on both MHC class-I and class-II molecules, and (F) Concentration of cytokines and interleukins after injection with Simpson D.
The physicochemical properties of the retrieved proteins were predicted before antigenic determination of their sequences\(^6\). Using the threshold of 0.4, the viral components were classified into antigens and non-antigens (scores below the threshold) using the Vaxijen server. For accurate component selection, the proteogeneity (protective antigen nature), the localization, and transmembrane helices of the protein sequences were further determined\(^{397}\). This process ascertains the suitability of candidate vaccine selection for experimental validation in the vaccine development process by ensuring that the vaccines do not contain transmembrane helix regions (to ease their expression) and the proteins must not share homology with human proteins to escape the potentiality of causing autoimmune response\(^98–100\). All the proteins (GPC, NP, and L) have high proteogeneity scores and are all localised in the cytoplasm with only NP predicted to have a high adhesive probability among the three proteins with no transmembrane helix. The high adhesive probability predicted for NP would mean it has a high level of adhesion, which has been reported to play a vital role in enabling virus entry and adherence to the host cell\(^{101}\). All the predicted proteins were not similar to human, mouse, or pig proteins.

To develop a good vaccine, it must be able to induce immunity through the antigen with a durable adaptive immunity and it should possess antigenic properties, which are important to elicit the immune response of the host\(^96\).

Using several servers, epitopes for CTL (responsible for developing durable immunity capable of eliminating circulating virus and infected cells) and HTL (associated with the production of both humoral and cellular immune responses by provoking a CD4+ helper T cell response for the generation of protective CD8+ T cell memory and activation of B cells) were selected based on their antigenicity, allergenicity, immunogenicity, and toxicity for the multi-epitope candidate\(^{102,103}\). Since IFN-γ secretion is an important mediator of protection against CCHFV, only HTL epitopes that release interferon-gamma (IFN-γ) were chosen for the multi-epitopes construct. To generate the vaccine construct, short peptides (AAY and GPGPG) shown to provoke minimal functional mammal system components bone marrow, thymus, and lymph node\(^{85}\). Since a potent vaccine must have capabilities with low solubility have been reported to be disadvantageous in the production of large amounts of virus proteins\(^109\). Therefore, constructing vaccines with high solubility is a vital requirement for many biochemical and functional analyses\(^110\). The vaccine construct was predicted to be soluble upon expression signifying easy access to the host. The theoretical pl value of 9.09 and the instability index of 32.1 shows that the vaccine is basic and will remain stable after expression\(^111\). Based on the GRAVY score and aliphatic index, the result on the host immunity and it should possess antigenic properties, which are important to elicit the immune response of the host\(^96\).

I complex when compared to MHC II suggesting that the vaccine may have the probability to produce both of hydrogen bonds. Higher binding affinity was also observed between the vaccine construct and the MHC I complex when compared to MHC II suggesting that the vaccine may have the probability to produce both innate and adaptive immune responses\(^{117}\). An MMGBSA analysis revealed that a very small amount of energy is required to bind stable complexes, and MD simulations exhibited very minor fluctuations. Accordingly, these results strongly suggest that the vaccine construct can efficiently bind to the immune receptors.

Expression of the recombinant protein in Drosophila melanogaster expression systems is important for validation of vaccine by screening for immunoreactivity through serological analysis\(^118\). To ensure the complete expression of the designed vaccine protein, codon usage optimization was performed in Drosophila melanogaster\(^{119}\). The CAI was 0.98 and the GC content was 72.9% in Drosophila melanogaster. C-ImmSim simulates the major functional mammal system components bone marrow, thymus, and lymph node\(^12\). Since a potent vaccine must stimulate an immune response similar to that induced by an antigen with the production of long-lasting adaptive
immunity, the response of the immune cells (HTL, CTL, B-cells, dendritic cells, immunoglobulins, and cytokines) was evaluated against the vaccine construct\(^2\). The immune profiles of the CCHFV chimeric vaccine revealed that the immune response to the chimeric vaccine was comparable with actual immune responses with higher tertiary and secondary responses. Increased activities of the secondary and tertiary immune were noticeable with the production of memory B-cells and T-cells. An increase in levels of IFN-\(\gamma\) and IL-2 following the first injection maintained the peak levels after repeated exposures to the antigen. This indicates high levels of TH cells and thus efficient Ig production, associated with humoral response\(^2\) with a low Simpson index suggesting a possible diverse immune response considering that the constructed chimeric peptide is composed of several B and T epitopes\(^2\).

**Conclusion**

The purpose of this study was to develop a potential vaccine peptide coding for multiple helpers and cytotoxic T-cells that also contain epitopes for B cells. A chimeric vaccine containing these epitopes is likely to have a prophylactic effect, given that the CCHFV proteins contain these epitopes. Based on docking and simulation results, the chimeric vaccine protein had a high affinity and binding potential with immune receptors and remained stable over time. In immune stimulation, models of real-life immune responses were observed. By creating an effective immune memory against CCHFV infections, the chimeric vaccine raised in this study may aid infection control. The next step is to synthesize the peptide in a *Drosophila melanogaster* and proceed with the immunological tests needed to validate the results.

**Data availability**

All data generated or analysed during the study are included in the submitted manuscript. The sequences of the protein analysed can be retrieved from the GenBank and UniProt database using their ID.

**References**

1. Portillo, A., Palomar, A. M., Santibáñez, P. & Oteo, J. A. Epidemiological aspects of Crimean-Congo hemorrhagic fever in Western Europe: What about the future?. *Microorganisms* **9**, 649 (2021).
2. Kazancioğlu, S., Akinci, E. & Bodur, H. Crimean-Congo hemorrhagic fever. *Mediterr. J. Infect. Microbes Antimicrob.* **6**, 12 (2017).
3. Bente, D. A. *et al.* Crimean-Congo hemorrhagic fever: History, epidemiology, pathogenesis, clinical syndrome and genetic diversity. *Antiviral Res.* **100**, 159–181 (2013).
4. Watts, D. M., Ksiazek, T. G., Linthicum, K. J. & Hoogstraal, H. Crimean-Congo hemorrhagic fever. *The Arboviruses Epidemiol. Ecol.* 177–222 (2019).
5. Hawman, D. W. *et al.* Immunocompetent mouse model for Crimean-Congo hemorrhagic fever virus. *Elife* **10**, e63906 (2021).
6. Gargili, A. *et al.* The role of ticks in the maintenance and transmission of Crimean-Congo hemorrhagic fever virus: A review of published field and laboratory studies. *Antiviral Res.* **144**, 93–119 (2017).
7. Zivcec, M., Safonetz, D., Scott, D. P., Robertson, S. & Feldmann, H. Nucleocapsid protein-based vaccine provides protection in mice against lethal Crimean-Congo hemorrhagic fever virus challenge. *PLoS Negl. Trop. Dis.* **12**, e0006628 (2018).
8. Hawman, D. W. & Feldmann, H. Recent advances in understanding Crimean-Congo hemorrhagic fever virus. *FI000Research* 7 (2018).
9. Mertens, M., Schmidt, K., Ozkul, A. & Groshup, M. H. The impact of Crimean-Congo hemorrhagic fever virus on public health. *Antiviral Res.* **98**, 248–260 (2013).
10. Cañas, J. Antigenic similarity between the virus causing Crimean hemorrhagic fever and Congo virus. *Proc. Soc. Exp. Biol. Med.* **131**, 233–236 (1969).
11. Mild, M., Simon, M., Albert, J. & Mirazimi, A. Towards an understanding of the migration of Crimean-Congo hemorrhagic fever virus. *J. Gen. Virol.* **91**, 199–207 (2010).
12. Gruber, C. E. *et al.* Geographical variability affects CCHFV detection by RT-PCR: A tool for in-silico evaluation of molecular assays. *Viruses* **11**, 953 (2019).
13. Camp, J. V. *et al.* Crimean-Congo hemorrhagic fever virus endemicity in United Arab Emirates, 2019. *Emerg. Infect. Dis.* **26**, 1019 (2020).
14. Vorou, R., Pierrottsakos, I. N. & Maltezou, H. C. Crimean-Congo hemorrhagic fever. *Curr. Opin. Infect. Dis.* **20**, 495–500 (2007).
15. Ergönül, Ö. Crimean-Congo haemorrhagic fever. *J. Gen. Virol.* **91**, 199–207 (2010).
16. Papa, A., Mirazimi, A., Koksal, I., Estrade-Pena, A. & Feldmann, H. Recent advances in research on Crimean-Congo hemorrhagic fever virus. *J. Clin. Virol.* **64**, 137–143 (2015).
17. Spengler, J. R. *et al.* RIG-I mediates an antiviral response to Crimean–Congo hemorrhagic fever virus. *J. Virol.* **89**, 10219–10229 (2015).
18. Habjan, M. *et al.* Processing of genome 5′ termini as a strategy of negative-strand RNA viruses to avoid RIG-I-dependent interferon induction. *PloS One* 3, e2032 (2008).
19. Arols, S., Engin, A., Ozbilüm, N. & Bakır, M. Toll-like receptor 7 Gln11Leu, c. 4–151A/G, and + 1817G/T polymorphisms in Crimean-Congo hemorrhagic fever virus. *J. Med. Virol.* **87**, 1090–1095 (2015).
20. Andersson, I. *et al.* Human MXA protein inhibits the replication of Crimean–Congo hemorrhagic fever virus. *J. Virol.* **78**, 4323–4329 (2004).
21. Simon, M., Falk, K. I., Lundkvist, Å. & Mirazimi, A. Exogenous nitric oxide inhibits Crimean Congo hemorrhagic fever virus. *Virus Res.* **120**, 184–190 (2006).
22. Bente, D. A. *et al.* Pathogenesis and immune response of Crimean–Congo hemorrhagic fever virus in a STAT-1 knockout mouse model. *J. Virol.* **84**, 11089–11100 (2010).
23. Zivcec, M. *et al.* Lethal Crimean–Congo hemorrhagic fever virus infection in interferon α/β receptor knockout mice is associated with high viral loads, proinflammatory responses, and coagulopathy. *J. Infect. Dis.* **207**, 1909–1921 (2013).
24. Mirza, M. U. *et al.* In silico structural elucidation of RNA-dependent RNA polymerase towards the identification of potential Crimean-Congo Hemorrhagic Fever Virus inhibitors. *Sci. Rep.* **9**, 1–18 (2019).
25. Carter, S. D. *et al.* Structure, function, and evolution of the Crimean–Congo hemorrhagic fever virus nucleocapsid protein. *J. Virol.* **86**, 10914–10923 (2012).
69. Xue, L. C., Rodrigues, J. P., Kastritis, P. L., Bonvin, A. M. & Vangone, A. PRODIGY: A web server for predicting the binding affinity of protein complexes. *Bioinformatics* 32, 3676–3678 (2016).

70. Krissinel, E. & Henrick, K. Protein interfaces, surfaces and assemblies’ service PISA at the European Bioinformatics Institute. *J. Mol. Biol.* 372, 774–797 (2007).

71. Schrödinger, L. and DeLano, W. PyMOL. PyMOL (2020).

72. Case, D. A. et al. AMBER16 Package (Univ. California, 2016).

73. Tian, C. et al. FF19SR: Amino-acid-specific protein backbone parameters trained against quantum mechanics energy surfaces in solution. *J. Chem. Theory Comput.* 16, 528–552 (2020).

74. Sengupta, A., Li, Z., Song, L. F., Li, P. & Merz, K. M. Parameterization of monovalent ions for the OPC3, OPC, TIP3P-FB, and TIP4P-FB water models. *J. Chem. Inf. Model.* 61, 869–880 (2021).

75. Izadi, S., Anandakrishnan, R. & Onufriev, A. V. Building water models: A different approach. *J. Phys. Chem. Lett.* 5, 3863–3871 (2014).

76. Ebbinghaus, S. et al. An extended dynamical hydration shell around proteins. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* 104, 20749–20752 (2007).

77. Götz, A. W. et al. Routine microscopic protein dynamics simulations with AMBER on GPUs. 1. Generalized born. *J. Chem. Theory Comput.* 8, 1542–1555 (2012).

78. Solomon-Ferrer, R., Grote, A., Stukowski, C. & Onufriev, A. V. An extended dynamical hydration shell around proteins. *J. Chem. Theory Comput.* 8, 2074–2081 (2012).

79. Rapin, N., Lund, O., Bernaschi, M. & Castiglione, F. Computational immunology meets bioinformatics: The use of prediction tools for molecular binding in the simulation of the immune system. *PLoS One.* https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0090862 (2010).

80. Castiglione, F., Mantile, F., De Bernardinis, P. & Prisco, A. How the interval between prime and boost injection affects the immune response in a computational model of the immune system. *Comput. Math. Methods Med.* https://doi.org/10.1155/2012/842329 (2012).

81. Ban, N. et al. A new system for naming ribosomal proteins. *Curr. Opin. Struct. Biol.* 24, 165–169 (2014).

82. Lee, S. J. et al. A potential protein adjuvant derived from *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* Rv0652 enhances dendritic cells-based tumor immunotherapy. *PLoS One.* 9, e104351 (2014).

83. Rübet, D. & Cossart, P. How bacterial pathogens colonize their hosts and invade deeper tissues. *Microbes Infect.* 17, 173–183 (2015).

84. Mora, M., Veggi, D., Santini, L., Pizza, M. & Rappuoli, R. Reverse vaccinology. *Drug Discov. Today* 8, 459–464 (2003).

85. Rappuoli, R., Bottomley, M. J., D’Oro, U., Finco, O. & De Gregorio, E. Reverse vaccinology 2.0: Human immunology instructs vaccine antigen design. *J. Exp. Med.* 213, 469–481 (2014).

86. Moise, L. et al. Ivax: An integrated toolkit for the selection and optimization of antigens and the design of epitope-driven vaccines. *Hum. Vaccines Immunother.* https://doi.org/10.1080/21645515.2015.1061159 (2015).

87. Tilston-Lunel, N. L., Acraani, G. O., Randall, R. E. & Elliott, R. M. Generation of recombinant Oropouche viruses lacking the nonstructural protein NSm or NSs. *J. Virol.* 90, 2616–2627 (2015).

88. Adhikari, U. K., Tayebi, M. & Rahman, M. M. Immunoinformatics approach for epitope-based peptide vaccine design and active site prediction against polyprotein of emerging oropouche virus. *J. Immunol. Res.* 2018 (2018).

89. Fadaka, A. O. et al. Immunoinformatics design of a novel epitope-based vaccine candidate against dengue virus. *Sci. Rep.* 11, 1–22 (2021).

90. Naz, K. et al. PanRV: Pangenome-reverse vaccinology approach for identifications of potential vaccine candidates in microbial pangenome. *BMC Bioinform.* 20, 1–10 (2019).

91. Kumar Jaiswal, A. et al. An in silico identification of common putative vaccine candidates against *Treponema pallidum*: A reverse vaccinology and subtractive genomics based approach. *Int. J. Mol. Sci.* 18, 402 (2017).

92. Ojha, R., Pareek, A., Pandey, R. K., Prusty, D. & Prajapati, V. K. Strategic development of a next-generation multi-epitope vaccine for prevention of Nipah virus zoonotic infection. *ACS Omega* 4, 13069–13079 (2019).

93. Mohamed, S. O., Almofli, Y. A. & Abd Elrahman, K. A. Exploring Crimean Congo hemorrhagic fever virus glycoprotein M to predict multi-epitopes based peptide vaccine using immunoinformatics approach. *Clin. Microbiol.* 10, 122 (2021).

94. Vickers, N. J. Animal communication: When I’m calling you, will you answer too? *Curr. Biol.* 16, 2262–2272 (2018).

95. Grote, A. et al. A candidate multi-epitope vaccine against SARS-CoV-2. *Sci. Rep.* 10, 1–19 (2020).

96. Kochan, N., Pandey, R. K. & Prajapati, V. K. Exploring Leishmania secretory proteins to design B and T cell multi-epitope subunit vaccine using immunoinformatics approach. *Sci. Rep.* https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-017-08842-w (2017).
111. Singh, A., Thakur, M., Sharma, L. K. & Chandra, K. Designing a multi-epitope peptide based vaccine against SARS-CoV-2. Sci. Rep. 10, 1–12 (2020).
112. Bachmann, M. F. & Jennings, G. T. Vaccine delivery: A matter of size, geometry, kinetics and molecular patterns. Nat. Rev. Immunol. 10, 787–796 (2010).
113. Scheibelhofer, S., Laimer, J., Machado, Y., Weiss, R. & Thalhammer, J. Influence of protein fold stability on immunogenicity and its implications for vaccine design. Expert Rev. Vaccines 16, 479–489 (2017).
114. Urrutia-Baca, V. H. et al. Immunoinformatics approach to design a novel epitope-based oral vaccine against Helicobacter pylori. J. Comput. Biol. 26, 1177–1190 (2019).
115. Wlodawer, A. Stereochemistry and validation of macromolecular structures. Methods Mol. Biol. 1607, 595–610 (2017).
116. Compton, T. et al. Human cytomegalovirus activates inflammatory cytokine responses via CD14 and Toll-like receptor 2. J. Virol. 77, 4588–4596 (2003).
117. Bibi, S. et al. In silico analysis of epitope-based vaccine candidate against tuberculosis using reverse vaccinology. Sci. Rep. 11, 1249 (2021).
118. Gori, A., Longhi, R., Peri, C. & Colombo, G. Peptides for immunological purposes: Design, strategies and applications. Amino Acids https://doi.org/10.1007/s00726-013-1526-9 (2013).
119. Akrammedov, A., Geigges, M. & Paro, R. Single vector non-leaky gene expression system for Drosophila melanogaster. Sci. Rep. 7, 1–12 (2017).
120. Devi, A. & Chaitanya, N. S. N. In silico designing of multi-epitope vaccine construct against human coronavirus infections. J. Biomol. Struct. Dyn. 39, 6903–6917 (2021).
121. Chaplin, D. D. Overview of the immune response. J. Allergy Clin. Immunol. 125, S3–S23 (2010).
122. Ismail, S., Ahmad, S. & Azam, S. S. Vaccinomics to design a novel single chimeric subunit vaccine for broad-spectrum immunological applications targeting nosocomial Enterobacteriaceae pathogens. Eur. J. Pharm. Sci. 166, 105258 (2020).
123. Kaplinsky, J. & Arnaout, R. Robust estimates of overall immune-repertoire diversity from high-throughput measurements on samples. Nat. Commun. 11, 11881 (2016).

Author contributions
A.A.O., S.A.M., Z.M.B., and J.R.N. conceived and designed the analysis; A.A.O. and B.K.W. performed immuno-informatic analyses; A.A.O., O.D.O., and Z.R. prepared illustrations and wrote the manuscript; S.S.A., J.O.N., and J.R.N. contributed to the critical revision of the manuscript; J.R.N. supervised the whole work, and all authors approved the final manuscript.

Competing interests
The authors declare no competing interests.

Additional information
Supplementary Information The online version contains supplementary material available at https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-022-12651-1.

Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to A.A.O.

Reprints and permissions information is available at www.nature.com/reprints.

Publisher’s note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

Open Access This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, which permits use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if changes were made. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article’s Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article’s Creative Commons licence and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this licence, visit http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/.

© The Author(s) 2022