

# Molecular cloning and expression of type C and D neurotoxin genes of Clostridium botulinum

by

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# **DECLARATION**

I declare that the dissertation, which I hereby submit for the degree Magister Scientiae at the University of Pretoria, is my own work and has not previously been submitted by me for a degree at another university.



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#### SUMMARY

# MOLECULAR CLONING AND EXPRESSION OF TYPE C AND D NEUROTOXIN GENES OF Clostridium botulinum

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The neuroparalytic syndrome called botulism is caused by the neurotoxins produced by bacteria in the genus Clostridium. There are seven toxigenic types of C. botulinum (A to G) based on antigenically distinct toxins produced by different strains of the organism. Animal botulism is caused by C. botulinum type C and D neurotoxins and has a severe economic impact on cattle farming in South Africa and neighbouring countries. Current treatment regimes include the use of acetylcholine for symptomatic treatment, but this is unfortunately very seldom successful. indications are that there is no cure for this disease and that effective control can only be achieved through development of efficacious vaccines. The botulinum vaccine currently in use in South Africa contains an adjuvanted toxoid form of the type C and D neurotoxins. However, this bivalent vaccine relies on problematic anaerobic cultivation of the Clostridium bacterium followed by isolation, purification and inactivation of the toxin by treatment with formalin. Apart from the fastidious growth requirements of this organism, it has been reported that the production of toxin by these cells declines rapidly and eventually ceases, following laboratory passaging of the bacterial cultures. In addition, improper inactivation of the toxins may also lead to the demise of animals following vaccination. Thus, there exists a great need for a safe, effective and inexpensive vaccine against botulism.



To investigate the potential of types C and D botulinum neurotoxins as efficacious recombinant vaccine candidates against botulism, full-length copies of the genes were obtained by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) amplification from bacteriophage DNA isolated from *Clostridium botulinum* type C (Stockholm) and D (South Africa) cultures. The full-length genes were cloned and subsequently sequenced to verify their integrity. By making use of PCR-based site-directed mutagenesis procedures, three amino acid mutations were introduced in the zinc-binding motif of the respective neurotoxins. Mutation of this domain has previously been reported to successfully detoxify type C neurotoxin. The wild-type and mutant genes were subsequently expressed in insect cells using the BAC-to-BAC<sup>TM</sup> baculovirus system. Although, unique protein bands corresponding to the size of the neurotoxins could not be seen in Coomassie brilliant blue-stained gels, Western blot analysis indicated immunoreactive material for wild-type and mutant type C corresponding to the size of the type C toxin light chain. However, there was no conclusive evidence to support the successful expression of the full-length wild-type and mutant type D genes.



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#### LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

 $\alpha/\beta$  SNAP soluble NSF accessory protein

°C degrees Celsius

μg microgram

μl microliter

ρmol picomoleA/a adenine

aa amino acid

AcNPV Autographa californica nuclear polyhedrosis virus

Ala alanine

Amp<sup>R</sup> ampicillin resistance

Arg arganine
Asn asparagine

ATP adenosine-5'-triphosphate

BoNT botulinum neurotoxin

BoNT/C Botulinum neurotoxin type C

BoNT/D botulinum neurotoxin type D

bp basepair

BSA bovine serum albumin

C/c cytosine

ca. approximately

cm<sup>2</sup> square centimeters ddT dideoxythymidine

DMSO dimethyl sulfoxide

DNA deoxyribonucleic acid

dNTP deoxynucleoside-5'-triphosphate

ds double stranded

DTT dithiothreitol

e.g. exempli gratia (for example)

EDTA ethylenediaminetetra-acetic acid

et al. et alii (and others)

FCS foetal calf serum

Fig. figure
G/g guanine

Glu glutamate



Gly glysine

Gm<sup>R</sup> gentamycin resistance

Н heavy . h

hour

50 kDa carboxyl-terminal half of the heavy chain of BoNT/TeNT Hc

His histidine

50 kDa amino-terminal half of the heavy chain of BoNT/TeNT  $H_N$ 

lle Isoleucine

**IPTG** isopropyl β-D-thiogalactosidase

kb kilobase pairs

kDa kilodalton

**KPTA** potassium phosphate tungstic acid

kV kilovolts

L light

LB-medium Luria-Bertani medium

LD<sub>50</sub> lethal dose to kill 50% of experimental organisms

Leu leucine М molar

mΑ milliampere Met methionine mg milligram

min minute ml millilitre millimolar mM millimetre mm

MOI multiplicity of infection

**mRNA** messenger RNA MW molecular weight

ng nanogram nm nanometer

NMJ neuromuscular junction

**NSF** N-ethyl-maleimide-sensitive protein

nt nucleotide

OD<sub>550</sub> optical density at 550 nanometres  $OD_{600}$ optical density at 600 nanometres **PAGE** polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis

**PBS** protein buffered saline



PCR polymerase chain reaction

PEG polyethylene glycol

pfu plaque forming units

PMSF phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride

pPolh polyhedrin promoter

pro proline

PSB protein solvent buffer

RNA ribonucleic acid

rpm revolutions per minute

s second

SDS sodium dodecyl sulphate

Ser serome

Sf Spidoptera frungiperda

SFM serum free medium

SNAP-25 synaptosomal associated protein of 25 kDa

T/t thymine

TEM transmission electron microscopy

TEMED N,N,N<sup>1</sup>,N<sup>1</sup>-tetramethylethylendiamin

TeNT Tetanus neurotoxin

Thr threonine

Tn7L transposable element 7 left end

Tn7R transposable element 7 right end

Tris tris-hydroxymethyl-aminomethane

U units

UHQ ultra high quality

UV ultraviolet

V volts

v/v volume per volume

Val valine

VAMP vesicle-associated membrane protein

w/v weight per volume

X-gal 5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl β-D-galactopyranoside



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#### **CHAPTER 1**

#### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 1.1 GENERAL INTRODUCTION

"Disease can never be conquered, can never be quelled by emotion's wailful screaming or faith's cymballic prayer. It can only be conquered by the energy of humanity and the cunning in the mind of man. In the patience of a Curie, in the enlightenment of a Faraday, a Rutherford, a Pasteur, a Nightingale, and all other apostles of light and cleanliness, rather than of a woebegone godliness, we shall find final deliverance from plague, pestilence, and famine." (Sean O'Casey (1884-1964), Isnishfallen, Fare Thee Well, vol.1, 1949).

Can disease really be conquered by the energy of humanity and the cunning in the mind of man or will microbes win the battle? In the microbial world, warfare is a constant and the survival of most organisms necessitates the demise of others. Yet there are times of extraordinary collectivity in the microbial world, when the rivalry is abandoned and forces joined to combat a shared enemy, humankind. Microbes are evolving far more rapidly than humans or animals, adapting to changes in their environments by mutating, undergoing high-speed natural selection, or drawing plasmids and transposons from the vast genetic pool in their environments. The most sophisticated of their species have the ability to outwit or manipulate the only microbial sensing system humans and animals possess, their immune system.

Two centuries have past since Edward Jenner first realized that the host immune system could be used to outsmart disease-causing organisms. The cells of the immune system are taught about the possible attack of microbes or their toxins. Immunization is currently one of the most effective and versatile means to combat infectious diseases. The first vaccines were the result of keen observation and experimentation and they consisted of live attenuated, killed inactivated microbes or purified microbial components.



The need for immunization agents against botulism was evident as soon as the economic importance of this fatal intoxication was realized. Botulism is caused by seven serologically distinct botulinum neurotoxins (A to G) produced by several *Clostridium* species. Adsorption of the ingested botulinum neurotoxins from the intestinal tract and transport to central nervous system gives rise to a group of symptoms, which involves digestive disturbances, nausea, vomiting, and partial or complete paralysis of the muscles.

Botulism in livestock, commonly associated with types C and D neurotoxins, has a severe economic impact on cattle farming in southern Africa, Australia and South America. Current treatment regimes include the use of acetylcholine for symptomatic treatment, but this is unfortunately very seldom successful. All indications are that there is no cure for this disease and that effective control can only be achieved through development of efficacious vaccines. The first effective animal toxoid was prepared through the detoxification of type C cultures grown in cooked meat medium by 0.8% formalin and precipitated with 0.6% potassium aluminium sulfate (Smith and Sugiyama, 1988). In southern Africa, botulism in livestock is controlled using a commercially available vaccine produced by Onderstepoort Biological Institute. Despite the efficacy of these vaccines, they are very costly to produce. Botulinum neurotoxins are not produced in high levels in culture and obtaining sufficient amounts of toxin for purification and toxoiding is laborious (Clayton et al., 1995). Another problem commonly experienced is that production of toxin by cell cultures declines rapidly and eventually ceases, following passaging of the bacterial culture.

Recombinant biotechnology may provide solutions to problems regarding botulinum vaccine production. A shift from classic vaccines to recombinant and sub-unit vaccines, with the aim of developing a cheaper and more efficacious botulinum vaccine, is evident. This technology allows for genes to be transferred and expressed as recombinant products in easily grown organisms such as *Escherichia coli*, *Bacillus subtilis*, yeasts, and insect cells.

This chapter reviews several aspects regarding botulism, as well as some of the prokaryotic and eukaryotic expression systems commonly used in biotechnology.



#### 1.2 HISTORY OF BOTULISM

The story of botulism starts as early as 1735 in Germany where the symptoms of botulism were first described (Viljoen, 1965). During the remainder of the eighteenth century cases of botulism were reported sporadically from various parts of Europe, Russia, England and America (Viljoen, 1965 and references therein). It was the well-recorded outbreak of 1793 in Wildbad, Wurttemburg, which really prompted serious study of botulism (Smith and Sugiyama, 1988). At the time two opinions were advanced as to the cause of the illness of thirteen people, and the subsequent death of six. According to the chief medical officer of Wurttemburg, the outbreak was due to belladonna poisoning, but a more widely accepted view was that the outbreak was caused by the consumption of *Bluzen* or *Schweinsmagen*, a type of blood sausage (Smith and Sugiyama, 1988).

During the same period Le Vaillant also recorded cases of a similar disease in cattle, referred to as *Lamsiekte*. He considered *Lamsiekte* to be one of the four most destructive diseases of cattle in the Cape region at the time (Henning, 1949). Commissioner de Mist (1805) and Lichtenstein (1803-6) also recorded the occurrence of *Lamsiekte* in several parts of the Cape (as referenced in Henning, 1949). During the nineteenth century, *Lamsiekte* prevailed and caused great losses of cattle in Southern Africa.

The increase in the number of reported cases of sausage poisoning during the next decades drew the attention of the district medical officer, Justinus Kerner (1786-1862). Kerner made an extensive study of the disease and described botulism as "a special kind of poisoning, quite unlike any other" (Smith and Sugiyama, 1988). However, it was not until 1896 that Emile P.M. van Ermengem isolated the causative organism from the remains of raw, salted ham which had caused neuromuscular paralysis among a group of musicians in the small Belgian village of Ellezelles (Viljoen, 1965; Smith and Sugiyama, 1988). Van Ermengem considered that the Ellezelles patients had the same disease as sausage poisoning and suggested that this spore-forming obligatory anaerobic bacterium be called *Bacillus botulinus* (Smith and Sugiyama, 1988).



Early in the twentieth century an interesting discovery was made from a can of white beans. In 1904 Landmann isolated a second type of organism producing a toxin resembling that of the organism isolated by Van Ermengem (Smith and Sugiyama, 1988). In 1917, the Society of American Bacteriologists' Committee on Classification of Bacterial types recommended the generic term Clostridium as suggested by Zopf for this group of organisms (Viljoen, 1965). Burke established that more than one type of organism is responsible for the disease and that these organisms each produce a different type of toxin. This prompted the designation of the organisms isolated by Van Ermengem and Landmann as type B and A, respectively (Burke, 1919).

Three years later type C was isolated, almost simultaneously in Australia and in the United States. In the US, Ida Bengston isolated strains of clostridia, from green fly larvae (*Lucilia caesar*), which is involved in *Limberneck* among fowls. She found that the toxin they produced was serologically unrelated to that of types A and B (Bengston, 1922). Seddon isolated a related organism from decomposed bone found in a part of Australia where "Tasmanian Midland Disease" occurred (Seddon, 1922). He called the causative organism *Bacillus parabotulinus*. Gunnison and Meyer (1929) later designated the two type C strains as C-alpha (Bengston strain) and C-beta (Seddon strain) (Kriek and Odendaal, 1994).

In 1919, Theiler and his collaborators proved that *Lamsiekte* in cattle was caused by ingestion of carcass material picked from the veld (Kriek and Odendaal, 1994). It was established that the toxin is elaborated by a specific anaerobic bacterium that grows luxuriantly in carcass debris. *C. botulinum* type D was finally isolated in South Africa by Du Toit and Robinson of the Veterinary Research Institute at Onderstepoort, from the carcass of a cow that had died of *Lamsiekte*. Robinson later stated that, although type D toxin is mainly responsible for *Lamsiekte*, type C also exists on farms and should not be excluded as a cause of this hazard in South Africa (Kriek and Odendaal, 1994).

Type E was encountered simultaneously during the mid 1930's in Russia and the United States. Subsequently, Bier isolated type E from spoiled fish that was a source of intoxication (Smith and Sugiyama, 1988). In 1986 another species of *Clostridium* was implicated in causing botulism when McCroskey and co-workers isolated a strain of *C. butyricum* from an infant with type E botulism (McCroskey *et al.*, 1986).



Moller and Scheibel (1960) isolated type F from home-made liver paste that was implicated in an outbreak of botulism on the Danish Island of Langeland. In 1985, Hall and co-workers implicated a strain of *C. barati*, which produce type F botulinum neurotoxin, as the cause of botulism in infants (Hall *et al.*, 1985).

Giménez and Ciccarelli (1970) isolated type G from soil of a cornfield in Mendoza, Argentina. Type G has been associated with sudden unexpected deaths in Argentina (Sonnabend *et al.*, 1981), but has not been clearly implicated as the cause of paralytic illness or death (Suen *et al.*, 1988). Suen and co-workers (1988) proposed that type G be renamed *Clostridium argentinense* on the grounds of its metabolic and cultural differences.

#### 1.3 BOTULISM IN LIVESTOCK

#### 1.3.1 Aetiology

Botulinum neurotoxins of *C. botulinum* types C and D appear to be the exclusive cause of botulism of livestock in countries in the southern hemisphere, such as South Africa, Australia, and certain South American countries. However, neurotoxins from type B are more often the cause of botulism in livestock in the USA and Europe.

The botulinum neurotoxin-producing clostridium is a diverse group of organisms originally grouped together on the basis of the toxin that they produce. However, it has been shown that botulinum toxin production is a poor parameter on which to base species classification and identification (Suen *et al.*, 1988). Currently, these clostridia can be divided into six groups. These groups are very different in their phenotype, but members of two or more groups may share the same toxin. Group one contains proteolytic strains of *C. botulinum* which produce toxin type A, B, or F. Strains from this group is the most able to colonize the digestive tract. Group two contains non-proteolytic strains of *C. botulinum* which produce toxin types B, E or F. The third group is weakly proteolytic or non-proteolytic *C. botulinum* strains that produce toxin types C1, C2, or D. The fourth group contains the proteolytic but non-saccharolytic *C. argentinense* strains that produce type G toxin (Suen *et al.*, 1988). Group five consists



of proteolytic *C. butyricum* that produces type E toxin, while group six contains non-proteolytic *C. barati* that produces type F toxin.

 Table 1.1
 Botulinum neurotoxin-producing Clostridium species

Group	Strain	Toxin type	Cultural characteristic
Group I	C. botulinum	A, B, F	Proteolytic
Group II	C. botulinum	B, E, F	Non-proteolytic
Group III	C. botulinum	C, D	Weak or Non-proteolytic
Group IV	C. argentinense	G	Proteolytic, but Non-saccharolytic
Group V	C. butyricum	E	Proteolytic
Group VI	C. barati	F	Non-proteolytic

The botulinum neurotoxin-producing clostridia are anaerobic, gram-positive, straight to slightly curved rods (2 - 15 x 0.5 - 2  $\mu$ m). They loose their staining ability and old cells tend to stain gram-negative. All the strains produce oval and subterminal spores, except *C. argentinense* for which spores can either be present or absent.

#### 1.3.2 Epidemiology

Botulism has been described in cattle, horses and foals, mules and donkeys, sheep and goat, pigs, water birds, turkeys, ostriches and ducks, and dogs (Kriek and Odendaal, 1994 and references therein). Outbreaks in livestock can generally be subdivided into two main categories, namely those associated with phosphorus deficiency and osteophagia (bone craving), and secondly the form that is associated with the ingestion of toxic feed or water.



Botulism associated with phosphorus deficiency and osteophagia occurs sporadically over a relatively long period of time in mainly cattle, but also to a lesser extent in sheep and goats. Cattle suffering from osteophagia contract the disease by ingesting toxic material lying in pastures. They most commonly develop the subacute to chronic form of the disease that manifest between 7 and 10 days after toxin ingestion. A few may even be so mildly affected that they escape notice.

Botulism in livestock which is caused by the ingestion of toxic feed or water may result in the deaths of large numbers of animals over a short period of time (ca. 24 h) and new clinical cases are detected over a period of days. At the beginning of the outbreak, the cattle usually die acutely and during the outbreak the duration of the clinical symptoms increase.

Toxico-infectious botulism is a rare form of the disease in humans and animals. In this instance, the toxin is produced *in vivo* by *C. botulinum* growing in the body, rather than ingestion of the toxin (Smith and Sugiyama, 1988). It may either follow wound infection or occur after the ingestion of spores and the subsequent germination thereof in the gastrointestinal tract.

#### 1.3.3 Clinical symptoms

The clinical symptoms in cattle vary considerably and depend on the quantity of toxin that has been ingested. The disease can be divided into peracute, acute, subacute and chronic forms, based upon the onset, the sequence of development of paralysis and severity of the clinical signs (Henning, 1949). Affected animals are afebrile and typically manifest partial or complete flaccid paralysis of the muscles of locomotion, mastication and deglutition. Paralysis of muscles usually commences in the hindquarters and then spreads progressively forwards, affecting in turn the forelimbs, the neck and head.

#### 1.3.4 Diagnosis

Diagnosis of botulism is often difficult and a presumptive diagnosis is usually made on the basis of history, clinical signs and negative post-mortem examination. The systems for the detection of botulinum neurotoxin in specimens taken from diseased or dead



animals lack sensitivity and it is often difficult to confirm the diagnosis of botulism. Methods that are used include mouse bioassays, immunodiffusion, radio-immuno-assays, various immunochemical assays, and temperature-induced microcomplement fixation tests (Kriek and Odendaal, 1994 and references therein).

The possibility of other diseases causing similar clinical symptoms should be excluded. In South Africa the two diseases that are most commonly confused with botulism are diplodiosis (mycotoxicosis caused by *Diplodia maydis* poisoning) in cattle and krimpsiekte (plant poisoning caused by members of the Crassulaceae containing bufadienolides) in sheep and goats. In cattle other diseases that mimic some of the clinical signs of botulism include: ingestion of the toxin of the fungus *Aspergillus clavatus*, organophosphate and lead poisoning, and infectious diseases such as rabies, listeriosis, bovine ephemeral fever, sporadic bovine encephalomyeltis, thrombotic meningoencephalitis, cerebral babesiosis and cerebral theileiriosis, as well as non-specific bacterial meningitis and ecephalitides. In sheep the following should also be considered, tick paralysis caused either by *Oxodes rubicundus* or *Rhipicephalus evertsi*, focal symmetrical encephalomalacia, twin lamb disease (domsiekte) and *Coenurus cerebralis* infestation.

#### 1.4 BOTULINUM NEUROTOXIN

Botulinum neurotoxins are a family of seven structurally similar, but antigenically different proteins produced by different strains of *Clostridium botulinum*, *Clostridium barati*, *Clostridium butyricum* and *Clostridium argentinense* (Hall *et al.*, 1985; McCroskey *et al.*, 1986; Suen *et al.*, 1988). These proteins are the most toxic substance known to man ( $LD_{50}$  of 0.1 – 1.0 ng/kg) and specifically function on the neuromuscular junctions to block neurotransmitter release (Montecucco and Schiavo, 1994).

#### 1.4.1 Location and characterization of neurotoxin genes

The location of the respective botulinum neurotoxin genes is not yet clear. Several locations have been investigated, but only the type C and D genes has been experimentally proven to be of an extrachromosomal bacteriophage origin. Other



options investigated is plasmid- (type G) and chromosomally-encoded genes (A, B, E, and F) (Minton, 1995).

The phage origin of the neurotoxin genes was demonstrated when both the BoNT/C1 and BoNT/D genes were cloned from their respective bacteriophages (Binz et al., 1990; Hauser et al., 1990; Kimura et al., 1990). The obtained nucleotide sequences of the genes encoding botulinum neurotoxin type C<sub>1</sub> from C. botulinum type C strains 468 and Stockholm show great sequence similarity (99.9% homology). The gene encoding botulinum neurotoxin type D isolated from type D strains 1873 and CB-16 are also similar in sequence (99.9% homology) (Monishi et al., 1996(b)). However, it was found that the neurotoxin produced by some type C and D strains are not completely consistent with BoNT/C1 and BoNT/D on the basis of antigenicity (Moriishi et al., 1989; Ochanda et al., 1984). The type C neurotoxin isolated from strain 6813 has antigenic structures from the BoNT/C1 light chain and the BoNT/D heavy chain. The aminoterminal region of C6813 (Met-1 to Leu-526) display a 96% sequence homology with type C1 (Met-1 to Leu-526), while the carboxy-terminal region of C6813 (Asn-902 to Glu-1280) display a 96% homology with that of type D (Asn-898 to Glu-1276) (Monishi et al., 1996(b)). On the other hand, the type D neurotoxin isolated from the South African strain has antigenic structures from the BoNT/D light chain and the BoNT/C1 heavy chain. The amino-terminal region of D<sub>SA</sub> (Met-1 to Val-522) displays a 96% homology with type D (Met-1 to Asn-521), while the carboxy-terminal region of D<sub>SA</sub> (Trp-945 to Glu-1285) displays a 74% homology with that of type C1 (Trp-949 to Glu-1291) (Moriishi et al., 1996(a)). This indicates that the type C and D neurotoxins consist of a mosaic-type structure and that at least 4 isoforms can be distinguished (Fig. 1.1).

#### 1.4.2 Neurotoxin structural features

The botulinum neurotoxins are synthesized intracellularly as 150 kDa single-chain polypeptides that are released into the culture supernatant through autolysis of the cells after completion of growth cycles. Endogenous or exogenous proteases nick the chain within an exposed loop to generate the active di-chain neurotoxins composed of a heavy chain (H, 100 kDa) and a light chain (L, 50 kDa) bridged by a disulphide bond.



The botulinum neurotoxins are folded into three functionally distinct domains (L,  $H_N$ , and  $H_C$ ) (Fig. 1.2). The L domain is responsible for zinc-dependent proteolysis of protein components of the neuroexocytosis apparatus. The botulinum neurotoxins bind zinc via two histidines and a glutamic acid located in a zinc-binding motif (His-Glu-aa-aa-His) in the middle of the L domain. The H chain can be divided into two domains ( $H_C$  and  $H_N$ ) corresponding to the carboxy- and amino-terminal halves of the H chain, respectively. The  $H_C$  domain seems to be mainly responsible for neurospecific binding to receptors on the surface of the presynaptic membrane, while the  $H_N$  domain appears to govern internalization and membrane translocation.

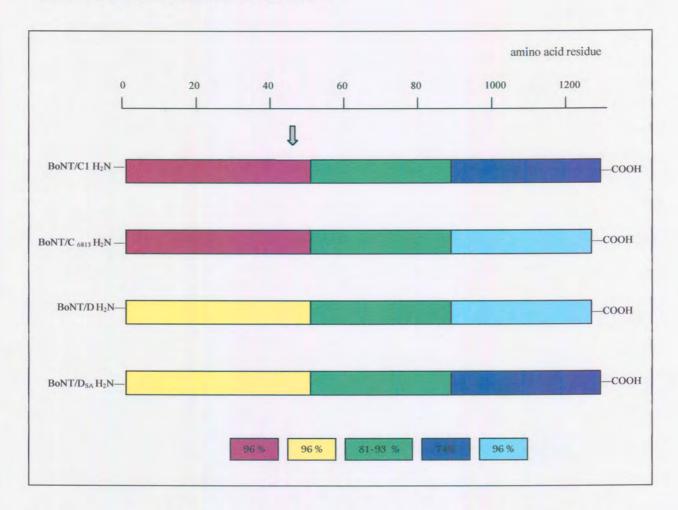


Fig. 1.1 Mosaic-type structure of neurotoxins produced by *C. botulinum* types C and D (Moriishi *et al.*, 1996a,b). Nicking sites for disulfide bond formation are located by the arrow. Highly homologous regions are illustrated in similar colours.

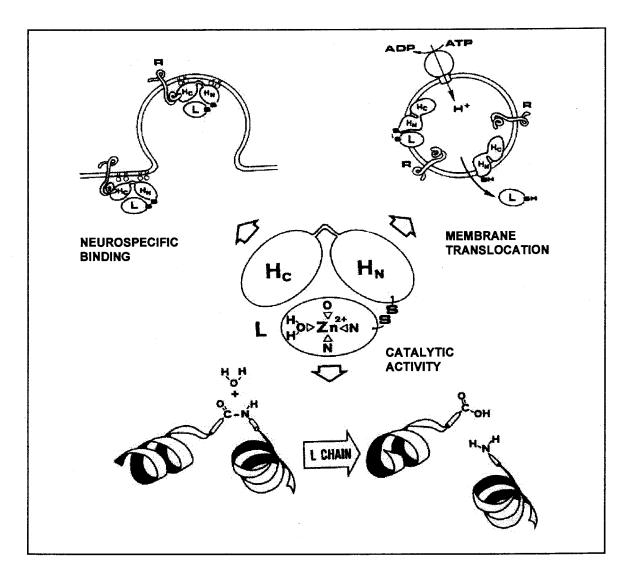


Fig. 1.2 Structure-function relationship of botulinum neurotoxins Montecucco and Schiavo, 1994). The 50 kDa carboxy-terminal domain of the H chain (H<sub>C</sub>) of botulinum neurotoxins is mainly responsible for neurospecific binding to receptors on the surface of the presynaptic membrane (top-left panel). Binding is followed by the internalization of the toxin-receptor complex inside vesicles, which remain within the neuromuscular junction. The amino-terminal domain (H<sub>N</sub>) is suggested to be involved in membrane translocation of the L chain into the nerve-cell cytoplasm (top-nght panel). The L chain is released into the cytosol by reduction of the interchain disulphide bond, where it displays zincendopeptidase activity by the selective cleavage of proteins of the neuroexocytosis machinery (lower panel).



#### 1.4.3 Mechanism of action

Botulism is essentially a flaccid paralysis that results from the toxin acting on the peripheral instead of the central nervous system. The method whereby cell intoxication occurs, consists of four steps: (i) cell binding, (ii) internalization, (iii) membrane translocation, and (iv) target modification in cytosol (Montecucco and Schiavo, 1994).

#### 1.4.3.1 Cell binding

Botulinum neurotoxins bind specifically to receptors on the surface of nerve cells. The receptors to which the neurotoxins bind is unknown at this stage and may not be the same for all the toxin types. However, it is clear that the receptors are located on the motor neuron plasmalemma at the neuromuscular junction. These receptors should display high affinity to bind the minute concentrations of neurotoxins sufficient to cause death. Various reports indicate that clostridial neurotoxin binding to nerve cells are facilitated by a double-receptor model that generates very high affinity binding (Montecucco and Schiavo, 1994). The neurotoxins are supposed to bind first to the large negatively-charged surface of the presynaptic membrane, which consists mainly of polysialogangliosides and other acidic lipids.

#### 1.4.3.2 Internalization

Although binding is rapid, toxins do not immediately cause observable paralysis of the neuromuscular junction (NMJ). During this period, the neurotoxins are internalized inside vesicles of unknown nature in a temperature- and energy-dependent process (Montecucco and Schiavo, 1994). At this stage, specific anti-sera cannot neutralize the toxin any longer.

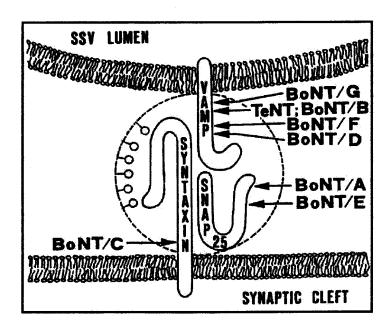
#### 1.4.3.3 Membrane translocation

Membrane translocation follows internalization, but there appears to be no coupling between the two steps. The target of the neurotoxins is cytosolic and it is thus important to translocate at least the L catalytic domain across the vesicle membrane. It has been proposed that translocation is triggered by the acidification of the vesicle lumen by a proton-pumping ATPase which leads to conformational change of the toxin. In its acid conformation, the toxin inserts into the lipid bylayer and H<sub>N</sub> promotes the translocation of the L chain across the vesicular membrane (Montecucco and Schiavo, 1994).



#### 1.4.3.4 Target modification in cytosol

The intracellular activity of clostridial neurotoxins is a zinc-dependent proteolysis of specific components of the neuroexocytosis apparatus (Fig. 1.3) (Montecucco and Schiavo, 1994). Botulinum neurotoxins of types B, D, F and G recognize and cleave a common intraneural target within the neuroexocytosis apparatus known as VAMP/synaptobrevin (VAMP, vesicle-associated membrane protein). BoNT/A and BoNT/E cause the specific hydrolysis of SNAP-25 (synaptosomal associated protein of 25 kDa), while serotype C cleaves syntaxin.



Target and cleavage sites of botulinum neurotoxins within the neuroexocytosis apparatus (from Montecucco and Schiavo, 1994). The L chain displays zinc-endopeptidase activity specific to components of the 20S multi-subunit vesicle docking/fusion complex. Botulinum B, D, F, and G neurotoxins specifically cleave VAMP/synaptobrevin, a protein of the neurotransmitter-containing vesicles. Botulinum neurotoxins types A and E recognize and cleave SNAP-25, a presynaptic membrane component. The type C neurotoxin specifically proteolyses syntaxin which is also localized in the plasma membrane. Arrows indicate the approximate positions of cleavage sites. SSV indicates neurotransmitter containing small synaptic vesicles.



It has been proposed that every cellular event of vesicle docking and fusion with a target membrane is mediated by a complex composed of VAMP, SNAP-25, syntaxin, NSF (Nethyl-maleimide-sensitive protein),  $\alpha/\beta$  SNAP (soluble NSF accessory protein),  $\gamma$ -SNAP, MUNC-18 and a cysteine-string protein (Montecucco and Schiavo, 1994). Cleavage of components within this complex leads to persistent and sustained blocking of neurotransmitter release.

#### 1.4.4 Botulinum toxin complex

Botulinum neurotoxins are commonly found to be complexed with other, non-toxic proteins and are known as progenitor toxins. Three forms are recognised: M toxin (300 kDa), L toxin (500 kDa) and LL toxin (900 kDa). The M toxin is composed of a BoNT (150 kDa) in association with a similarly sized non-toxic protein (NTNH, 150 kDa). The L and LL progenitor toxins contain an additional undefined number of proteins with haemagglutinin (HA) activity. The nature of progenitor toxin varies between the different toxinogenic types, and more than one form may be produced by a single strain.

Progenitor toxins exhibit greater stability to temperature and pH extremes than do purified botulinum neurotoxins. The non-toxic proteins of the botulinum complex aid the neurotoxin in withstanding the acidic and protease-rich environment of the stomach (Minton, 1995).

#### 1.5 BOTULINUM BACTERIOPHAGES

Bacteriophages in *Clostridium botulinum* were first reported by Vinet *et al.* (1968). Large phages with octahedral heads were observed in electron micrographs taken of cells from type C cultures.

Dolman and Chang (1972) divided the botulinum bacteriophages into four groups. These groups are based on the cultural characteristics of the *Clostridium* host and phage morphology. Group one contains the bacteriophages associated with the proteolytic strains from *C. botulinum* types A, B, and F. This group is characterized by the presence of either or both kinds of phages. The first kind of phage has icosahedral



heads (50 - 75 nm) with contractile tails (85 - 165 nm), while the second phage has bullrushy heads (75 - 85 nm) by 35 - 45 nm) with flexible tails (85 - 165 nm).

The second group contains the bacteriophages associated with the non-proteolytic strains of type B and F. Both the type B and F strains contain phages with icosahedral heads (50 - 65 nm) and contractile tails (90 - 110 nm). A different phage associated with type F has octahedral heads (75 - 80 nm) with flexible tails (over 200 nm).

The third group contains the bacteriophages from type C and D that is associated with strikingly large octahedral-headed phages (80 – 100 nm), with long contractile tails (275 420 nm) that is usually sheathed. Even though many different strains of C. botulinum have been shown to carry bacteriophages, only in the case of BoNT/C and BoNT/D has a direct relationship between bacteriophage and toxicogenicity been established. This relationship was first suggested by Inoue and Iida (1970) who treated non-toxigenic type C mutants with a cell-free lysate of a toxigenic strain and restored toxin production to the mutant. Eklund and Poysky (1974) also demonstrated the interconversion of type C and D strains by specific bacteriophages. They indicated that when type C and D cultures are cured from their phages, they cease to produce their dominant toxin. Furthermore, these cured non-toxic strains could be converted to either toxicogenic type depending on the specific phage used for infection. The ease with which the type C and D clostridial cells loose their phages suggests that the prophages are not stably integrated into the host chromosome. The relationship between the phage and the host organism is one of pseudolysogeny, where the phage exists in an extrachromosomal state, somewhere between virulence and lysogeny. Fujii and co-workers (1988) reported that the type C and D bacteriophages contain double stranded DNA with a molecular weight of 70 x 10<sup>6</sup> to  $100 \times 10^6$  (110 - 150 kb).

The fourth group of botulinum bacteriophages from type E has icosahedral heads (50 – 65 nm) with contractile tails (85 – 135 nm) that is occasionally sheathless and often accompanied by surplus tail-like structures.



#### 1.6 EXPRESSION SYSTEMS

The major expression systems that are commercially available to most investigators include *Escherichia coli, Bacillus*, yeasts, mammalian cells and the baculovirus system for expression in insect cells. Each of these systems has its advantages and disadvantages making them suitable for different applications. Recent years have seen an increase in the development of gene expression systems in a variety of other organisms including streptomyces, fungi, pseudomonads, and the industrial gram positive bacteria with low guanine and cytosine content (*Lactobacillus* spp., *Lactococcus* spp., *Stahylococcus* spp., and *Streptococcus* spp.). These expression systems allow for present and future exploitation of these organisms as cell factories for the synthesis of products of medical, agricultural, and food biotechnological importance.

#### 1.6.1 Prokaryotic expression systems

#### 1.6.1.1 Expression in Escherichia coli

Escherichia coli has long been the primary prokaryotic host for the synthesis of heterologous proteins. Advanced knowledge of *E. coli* genetics and physiology has accounted for the preferential use of this organism as a host for gene expression. An important advantage of this system is the rapid generation of biomass due to high rates of cell growth and availability of low-cost culture conditions (Balbas and Bolivar, 1990). An important disadvantage of *E. coli* expression is its limited capacity to secrete proteins and its inability to exert certain posttranslational modifications of proteins (e.g. disulfide bond formation, glycosylation, and acetylation), which usually leads to incorrect protein folding and subsequently difficult purification of proteins.

Transformation of *E. coli* is also easy and a wide range of easy-to-use vectors is available. Vectors used for the expression of heterologous proteins should contain several elements to facilitate the expression process. These vectors should have a well-characterized origin of replication, a selection marker for plasmid maintenance, a strong promoter, a cloning region downstream from the promoter in which to insert foreign genes, a ribosome binding site (Shine-Delgarno), and in some cases a translation initiation ATG codon, to ensure transcription initiation and efficient translation (Old and Primrose, 1994). *E. coli* expression vectors often have multiple cloning sites adjacent to



a fusion protein in order to express heterologous proteins as N-terminal or C-terminal fusion proteins. The advantage of fusions is that it stabilizes the proteins from proteolytic degradation, facilitate purification or can be used as a reporter gene to monitor expression. Native protein can be obtained by *in vitro* cleavage of these fusions.

#### 1.6.1.2 Expression in Bacillus

The gram-positive organism, *Bacillus*, is well known for it's important contributions to medical, agricultural and food biotechnology (e.g. industrial enzymes, antibiotics, and insecticides). *Bacillus* species, which lack an outer membrane offer a simpler path for protein secretion than *E. coli* and could be considered as alternative hosts when secretion is desired. The proteins need only to cross the cytoplasmic membrane to find themselves in the extracellular medium. However, *B. subtilis* produces a range of endogenous proteases which may probe to be problematic in using this host for foreign protein secretion. Protease-deficient strains have subsequently been generated by mutagenesis, but these proved to be autolytic (Simonen and Palva, 1993; Billman-Jacobe, 1996).

Significant progress has been made in the development of *Bacillus brevis* as an alternative *Bacillus* expression system. *Bacillus brevis* offers high levels of efficient expression and secretion of proteins directly into the culture medium in a soluble and biologically active form, without proteolytic degradation of the secreted proteins in the extracellular milieu (Udaka and Yamagata, 1993).

#### 1.6.2 Eukaryotic expression systems

#### 1.6.2.1 Baculovirus expression system

In recent years the baculovirus expression system has gained widespread use for the production of a wide variety of heterologous proteins (O'Reilly *et al.*, 1992 and references therein). This system provide an eukaryotic environment that is generally conducive to the proper folding, disulfide bond formation, oligomerization, and/or post-translational modification (e.g. glycosylation) required for biological activity of some proteins (O'Reilly *et al.*, 1992). In addition, biologically active proteins are synthesized more reliably than in bacterial or yeast expression systems, and the yields generally exceed those from mammalian expression systems (Liebman *et al.*, 1999).



Baculoviruses are classified in the family *Baculoviridae* and belong to a diverse group of large double-stranded DNA viruses that infect many different species of insects as their natural hosts. The baculovirus genome is replicated and transcribed in the nuclei of infected host cells where the large Baculovirus DNA (between 80 and 200 kb) is packaged into rod-shaped nucleocapsids. Recombinant baculovirus particles can accommodate large amounts of foreign DNA, since the size of the nucleocapsids is flexible. *Autographa californica* nuclear polyhedrosis virus (AcNPV) is the most extensively studied baculovirus. Infectious AcNPV particles enter susceptible insect cells by facilitated endocytosis, and viral DNA is uncoated in the nucleus.

The basic principle of this expression system usually involves foreign genes that are placed under the transcriptional control of the promoters of two dispensable viral gene products, p10 and polyhedrin. These proteins are expressed to very high levels in cells infected with wild-type baculovirus, and their replacement by almost any foreign gene of interest results in heterologous expression to similarly high levels (Davies, 1995). Since the baculovirus genome is generally too large to easily insert foreign genes, heterologous genes are cloned into transfer vectors. The genes are cloned downstream of the required viral promoter and is flanked both sides by viral sequences. The gene and promoter is targeted to a particular region in the viral genome and inserted through *in vivo* homologous recombination.

Recombinants can be produced by making use of two methods that differ only in the location at which the gene of interest is incorporated into the baculovirus genome. In the most common method of recombination, a transfer vector containing the cloned gene is co-transfected with viral DNA into insect cells where the recombination event takes place. Linear forms of the viral genome, which is unable to initiate an infection unless rescued to the circular replication-competent form by recombination, are used (Kits and Possee, 1993). The efficiency of this process relies on the construction of a transfer vector in which the gene of interest is positioned under the control of a strong baculoviral promoter and flanked by baculovirus DNA for recombination. The use of high-quality linear viral DNA with the minimum possibility of recircularization via non-desired recombination events is also important.



The second method of recombinant baculovirus formation involves the introduction of genetic material into the viral genome outside of the insect cells. The recombination event can take place in *E. coli* (Luckow *et al.*, 1993), yeast (Patel *et al.*, 1992), and *in vitro* (Ernst *et al.*, 1994). Subsequently, only modified recombinant baculoviral DNA is introduced into insect cell culture. An advantage of these technologies are that there is no need to further isolate a single recombinant virus by plaque assay since recombinant viral DNA is characterized prior to its introduction into cells.

Currently a variety of transfer vectors are available for baculovirus expression. These vectors have largely satisfied the need to ensure high-level synthesis of recombinant proteins (Jones and Morikawa, 1996). Transfer vectors to be used in *E. coli* contains an *E. coli* origin of replication, an ampicillin resistance marker, promoter (polyhedrin, p10, basic protein or pg64), and a cloning region downstream from the promoter in which to insert foreign genes. The purification of proteins from a recombinant source may also be a limiting factor in obtaining sufficient protein for desired structure and function studies. Thus, the inclusion of tags to enable purification of recombinant forms of protein has gained wide spread use. Some of these tags include glutathione S-transferase (GST), histidine amino acids, and cellulose binding domain (CBD<sub>cenD</sub>).

#### 1.6.2.2 Yeast expression systems

Yeast expression systems combine the ease, simplicity and low cost of bacterial expression systems with the authenticity of the far more expensive and less convenient animal tissue culture systems (Sudbery, 1996). The first yeast to be employed for the production of recombinant proteins was *S. cerevisiae*. Despite successes achieved with this organism, *S. cerevisiae* is often limited as an expression system by low yields. The methylotrophic yeast, *Pichia pastoris*, retain the advantages of *S. cerevisiae* but provides a reliable means of achieving greatly elevated expression yields.

In the past few years the *Pichia pastoris* system has gained wide interest since this system displays an extremely high yield of intracellular proteins. Percentage yields of between 5 – 40 % of total cell proteins are achieved routinely (Romanos, 1995). A further advantage of this system is the very efficient secretion of proteins into an almost protein-free extracellular medium. However, reports noting low yields or failure of expression in yeast are on the increase. These reports also indicate the proteolysis of



secreted polypeptides and insufficient secretion of complex foreign proteins since heterologous secretion of proteins is more demanding than intracellular expression. Expression of some genes does not yield any detectable protein, often because yeast transcriptional terminators result in truncated mRNA.

#### 1.7 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

Strains of *Clostridium botulinum* produce neurotoxins which cause fatal intoxication in both humans and animals. There are seven toxigenic types of *C. botulinum* (A to G) based on antigenically distinct toxins produced by different strains of the organism. Botulism of cattle, caused by types C and D neurotoxins, has a severe economic impact on cattle farming in South Africa and neighbouring countries. The currently available commercial vaccine relies on problematic anaerobic cultivation of the *Clostridium* bacterium followed by isolation, purification and inactivation of the toxin by treatment with formalin. Apart from the fastidious growth requirements of this organism, it has been reported that the production of toxin by these cells declines rapidly and eventually ceases, following laboratory passaging of the bacterial cultures. Thus, there exists a great need for a safe, efficacious and inexpensive vaccine against botulism. It is our principle aim to clone the type C and D botulinum neurotoxin genes, mutate the toxin genes, and to use molecular expression technologies for the expression of a possible recombinant vaccine candidate.

#### Specific objectives

- i) To obtain full-length cloned copies of the *Clostridium botulinum* type C and D neurotoxin genes by making use of PCR and cloning methods.
- ii) To obtain mutant versions of the full-length type C and D by making use of PCR-based site-directed mutagenesis.
- iii) To express the wild-type and mutant neurotoxin genes in the BAC-TO-BAC<sup>™</sup> baculovirus expression system.



# **CHAPTER 2**

# CLONING AND SITE-DIRECTED MUTAGENESIS OF NEUROTOXIN GENES OF Clostridium botulinum TYPES C AND D

# 2.1 INTRODUCTION

A century has passed since the neurotoxins produced by clostridia were identified as the causative agent of the syndrome called botulism. Currently, several *Clostridium* species are implicated in the production of seven serologically distinct botulinum neurotoxins (BoNT A to G). These botulinum neurotoxins are among the most toxic substances known to man (LD<sub>50</sub> between 0.1 ng and 1.0 ng/kg)(Montecucco and Schiavo, 1994) and affect humans and animals alike. Ingestion of these neurotoxins result in partial or complete paralysis of the muscles of locomotion, mastication and deglutition (Kriek and Odendaal, 1994). In Southern Africa, Australia and South America serious outbreaks of botulism in livestock are commonly associated with the type C and D neurotoxins. These neurotoxins are a complex group of toxins that display differences in molecular structure and antigenicity within the same type (Monishi *et al.*, 1989).

The understanding of the type C and D botulinum neurotoxin structure was facilitated with the realization that the genes for these toxins are bacteriophage carried. Vinet *et al.* (1968) first observed large phages with an octahedral head, sheath and tail in type C cultures. Since then a direct relationship has been established between the type C and D bacteriophages and toxicogenicity (Eklund *et al.*, 1971). Furthermore, it has been proposed that the phage exists in an extrachromosomal state (pseudolysogeny), somewhere between virulence and lysogeny (Minton, 1994). The above mentioned knowledge facilitated the reconstruction of the BoNT/C and BoNT/D genes from phage DNA libraries with the help of PCR amplification (Kimura *et al.*, 1990; Moriishi *et al.*, 1996a,b). Comparative analysis of the nucleotide sequences and derived amino acid sequences, obtained from these constructs, indicated that the type C and D neurotoxins are composed in a mosaic-like fashion and four isoforms sharing homology to different regions can be distinguished (Moriishi *et al.*, 1996a,b).



Investigation of the molecular structure and function of botulinum neurotoxins proved to be of great importance in the development of recombinant vaccines against botulism. Studies have shown that the botulinum neurotoxins are metallo-proteases that enter nerve cells and inhibit neurotransmitter release via zinc-dependent cleavage of protein components of the neuro-exocytosis apparatus (reviewed by Montecucco and Schiavo, 1994). The zinc-binding motif, which corresponds to typical zinc-endopeptidases (His-Glu-aa-aa-His), are located in the center of the light chain sub-unit. Kiyatkin *et al.* (1997) reported that site-directed mutagenesis of the zinc-binding histidine motif of BoNT/C resulted in the inactivation of this botulinum neurotoxin. The recombinant protein lacked toxicity *in vivo*, failed to block neuromuscular transmission *in vitro* and had no ability to cleave syntaxin in a broken-cell assay.

The aim of this study was to obtain full-length copies of the neurotoxin genes by employing polymerase chain reaction (PCR) amplification from bacteriophage DNA isolated from *Clostridium botulinum* type C (Stockholm) and D (South Africa) cultures. Using PCR-based site-directed mutagenesis procedures three amino acid mutations were introduced into the zinc-binding motif of the respective neurotoxins. The wild-type and mutant genes will subsequently be expressed in the BAC-TO-BAC<sup>TM</sup> baculovirus expression system for the development of a recombinant vaccine candidate.

# 2.2 MATERIALS AND METHODS

# 2.2.1 Materials

Clostridium botulinum type  $C_{ST}$  (Stockholm) and  $D_{SA}$  (South Africa) were used in this study. These Clostridium cultures, obtained from Design Biologix cc, were grown under anaerobic conditions in meat broth.

Primers used in PCR, sequencing and mutagenesis procedures were customsynthesized by GIBCO BRL Life Technologies (Table 2.1). Commercially available primers were used for the sequencing of the 5' and 3' termini of the BoNT genes.



Table 2.1 Sequences of PCR primers used for amplification of BoNT genes

Primer	Polarity	Oligonucleotide sequence*
§botC-F	Sense	5'-GCGGAGCTCATGACAATAACAATTAACAAC-3'
‡botC-R	Anti-sense	5'-GCGGTCGACTTATTCACTTACAGGTAC-3'
§botD-F	Sense	5'-GCGGAGCTCATGACATTGCCAGTAAAAG-3'
†Cmut-F	Sense	5'-TTTggTaccCTTAATAATGCAATGcATAATTTAT-3'
<sup>†</sup> Cmut-R	Anti-sense	5'-TTTggTaccCATTAAAATTAGTATTGGATC-3'
<sup>†</sup> Dmut-F	Sense	5'-TTTggTaccTTAACAAATTCTTTGcATCAATTG-3'
<sup>†</sup> Dmut-R	Anti-sense	5'-TTTggTaccCATTAAAGCTATTACTGGATC-3'

- § Underlined are the unique Sacl restriction enzyme sites included in design of primers.
- ‡ Underlined is the unique Sall restriction enzyme site included in design of primer.
- † Underlined are the unique KpnI restriction enzyme sites included in design of primers.
- \* Mispaired bases are shown in bold lower case letters.

 Table 2.2
 Sequences of primers used for sequencing of full-length BoNT genes

Primer	Sequence	Source
-21M13	5'-TGTAAAACGACGGCCAGT-3'	Perkin-Elmer Biosystems
PUC Rev	5'-TCACACAGGAAACAGCTATGAC-3'	Promega
BNTseqC4	5'-CTAGACAAGGTAACCAACTGGGT-3'	Gibco BRL
BNTseqC13	5'-TCTACCATCTATTGCTTTATGAC-3'	Gibco BRL
BNTseqD4	5'-CGTCATACTACTAATATTGCAG-3'	Gibco BRL
BNTseqD13	5'-AATGCTATCTTTATCAGCTACAT-3'	Gibco BRL
BNTseq18	5'-GCTGATACATCTGATATTTTATC-3'	Gibco BRL
BNTseq23	5'-ATTTAATTCATCAATTACTTTAGG-3'	Gibco BRL
BNTseq28	5'-ATATCCAGGTAAATTACTTACCC-3'	Gibco BRL
BNTseq32	5'-TATCCTTCATTGAAGTCATTATTA-3'	Gibco BRL

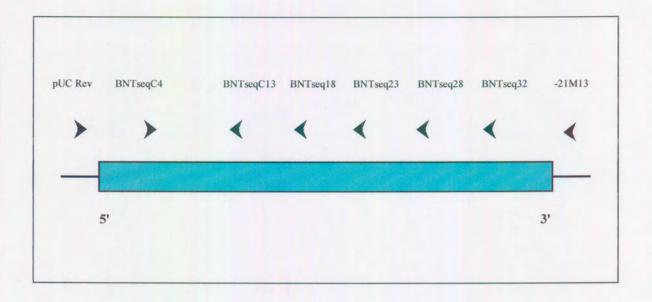


Fig. 2.1 Schematic presentation of specific primer annealing positions and direction of sequencing (</>), in the BoNT/C<sub>ST</sub> gene and adjacent pGEM®-T Easy vector.

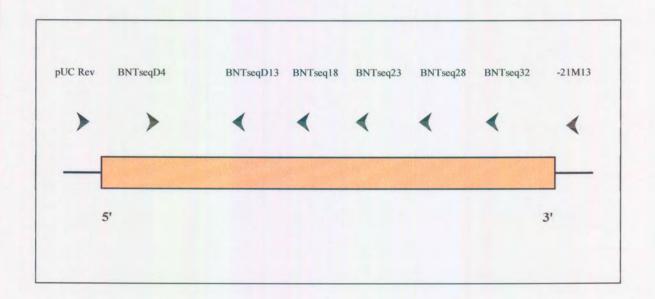


Fig. 2.2 Schematic presentation of specific primer annealing positions and direction of sequencing (</>), in the BoNT/D<sub>SA</sub> gene and adjacent pGEM®-T Easy vector.



# 2.2.2 Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM) of bacteriophages

Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) was used to confirm the presence of the bacteriophages within the *C. botulinum* cultures. Samples were fixed on copper grids and stained with 1% (w/v) potassium phosphate tungstic acid (KPTA) for 1 min after which they were viewed at 60 kV on a Phillips 3000 Transmission Electron Microscope at the Unit for Electron Microscopy, University of Pretoria.

# 2.2.3 Isolation of bacteriophage DNA

Bacteriophage DNA was isolated by phenol/chloroform extractions of the bacterial cultures. An equal volume of phenol was added to *C. botulinum* cultures in meat broth. The samples were centrifuged in a Hettich centrifuge at 13 000 rpm for 5 min after which an equal volume of phenol:chloroform (1:1) was added to the aqueous phase. Following centrifugation at 13 000 rpm for 5 min, the upper aqueous phase was extracted twice with an equal volume of chloroform. The DNA was subsequently precipitated from the supernatant at  $-70^{\circ}$ C for 2 h following the addition of 2 volumes 96% ethanol and sodium acetate (pH 7.0) to a final concentration of 0.3 M. Precipitated DNA was pelleted by centrifugation at 13 000 rpm for 15 min, washed twice with 70% ethanol, dried under vacuum and resuspended in 1x TE buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.4; 1 mM EDTA, pH 8.0).

# 2.2.4 Agarose gel electrophoresis

Anàlysis of DNA was performed on 0.8% (w/v) SeaKem® LE agarose (FMC BioProducts) gels. The agarose gels were electrophoresed at 100 V in 1x TAE buffer (40 mM Tris-HCl; 2 mM EDTA; 20 mM acetic acid; pH 8.5). The gels were supplemented with EtBr (0.5 μg/ml) in order to allow visualization of the DNA on an UVItec transilluminator. Lamda (λ) DNA restricted with both *EcoRI* and *HindIII* (Promega) was used as molecular size marker to verify the size of DNA fragments. DNA concentrations were determined on a transilluminator according to the method described by Sambrook *et al.* (1989).



# 2.2.5 Amplification of botulinum neurotoxin genes

The BoNT/C<sub>ST</sub> and BoNT/D<sub>SA</sub> genes were amplified by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) amplification in a Perkin-Elmer 2400 thermal cycler (Perkin-Elmer, Cetus, Norwalk, CT, USA). The PCR mixture (50 μl) contained 5 μl 10x DNA polymerase buffer, 2 mM MgCl₂, 200 μM of each deoxynucleoside triphosphate (dNTP), 50 ng bacteriophage DNA, 10 ρmol of the sense (botC-F or botD-F) and anti-sense primers (botC-R) (Table 2.1), 2.5 U of TaKaRa ExTaq™ DNA polymerase (TaKaRa Biomedicals), and ultra high quality (UHQ) water. The samples were subjected to 30 of the following cycles: denaturation at 94°C for 10 s, primer annealing at 49.5°C for 30 s, and elongation at 68°C for 3.5 min. In the final cycle an elongation step of 7 min was included in order to obtain full-length products. A negative control for which bacteriophage DNA was omitted was also included to test for contamination of solutions. The amplicons were analyzed on a 0.8% (w/v) agarose gel as described in section 2.2.4.

# 2.2.6 Purification of DNA fragments from agarose gels

The amplicons were purified from a 0.8% (w/v) agarose gel using a silica suspension as described by Boyle and Lew (1995). Bnefly, both amplicons were excised from the agarose gel and mixed with 3 volumes of a 6 M Nal solution. The agarose was dissolved by incubation at 55°C for 5 min after which, 5 -10 μl of the silica suspension was added to each sample. The DNA was allowed to bind to the silica by incubation of the samples on ice for 30 min with intermittent mixing. The DNA-silica complex was pelleted by centrifugation and washed three times with NEW wash buffer (50 mM NaCl; 10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5; 2.5 mM EDTA; 50% (v/v) ethanol). The DNA was eluted from the sillica in a final volume of 10 μl 1x TE buffer by incubation at 55°C for 3 min. The purified fragments were analyzed on a 0.8% (w/v) agarose gel as described previously.

# 2.2.7 Cloning of amplicons into the pGEM®-T Easy vector

# 2.2.7.1 Ligation of amplicons and plasmid vectors

The pGEM®-T Easy vector system (Promega) was used to clone the gel-purified BoNT amplicons. Ligation of the purified amplicons and the linear pGEM®-T Easy vector was



performed overnight (16 h) at 4°C in a total volume of 10  $\mu$ l. The reaction mixture contained 1  $\mu$ l of a 10x DNA ligase buffer (300 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.8; 100 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>; 100 mM DTT; 10 mM ATP), 50 ng of pGEM®-T Easy vector, ca. 190 ng insert DNA, 3 U T4 DNA ligase (Promega, 3 U/ $\mu$ l), and UHQ water. The vector to insert ratio was typically 1:3.

# 2.2.7.2 Preparation of competent cells

Competent *E. coli* cells were prepared according to the CaCl<sub>2</sub> procedure as described by Sambrook *et al.* (1989). An overnight culture was prepared by inoculating 3 ml of LB broth (1% (w/v) tryptone; 0.5% (w/v) yeast extract; 1% (w/v) NaCl; pH 7.4) with a colony from a freshly streaked *E. coli* JM109 plate and shaking overnight at 37°C. One ml of the overnight culture was inoculated into 100 ml pre-heated LB broth (at 37°C) and grown to an OD<sub>550</sub> value of 0.35 (mid-log phase). After incubation of the culture on ice for 30 min to inhibit further cell growth, cells from 35 ml were collected in a Corex tube by centrifugation at 4 000 rpm for 10 min at 4°C in a pre-cooled Sorvall HB4 rotor. The pellet was suspended in 10 ml ice-cold 50 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub>, incubated on ice for 30 min, and pelleted as above. The pellet was finally suspended in 1 ml of the ice-cold 50 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub> solution and incubated on ice for at least 3 h before use in transformation experiments.

# 2.2.7.3 Transformation of competent cells

The competent  $E.\ coli$  JM109 cells were transformed after the addition of the ligation mixture using the heat shock method as described by Sambrook  $et\ al.$  (1989). The competent cells (200  $\mu$ l) and the ligation reaction mixture (5  $\mu$ l) were mixed in a glass transformation tube and maintained on ice for 30 min. The cells were then heat-shocked for 90 s at 42°C and chilled on ice for 2 min before pre-warmed LB broth (800  $\mu$ l) was added. The transformation mixtures were incubated with agitation at 37°C for 1 h to allow the cells to recover and to express the ampicillin resistance gene. The transformed cells were selected by plating the cells onto LB-ampicillin plates (100  $\mu$ g/ml) in the presence of 10  $\mu$ l IPTG (100 mM stock solution) and 40  $\mu$ l X-gal (2% (w/v) stock solution) to allow for blue/white colour selection. The plates were incubated overnight at 37°C and investigated for the presence of recombinant transformants with a Gal phenotype.



pUC18 plasmid DNA (10 ng) was included as a transformation control and to calculate the competency of the cells. A negative control consisting of competent cells only was also included to determine if any contamination occurred.

#### 2.2.8 Plasmid DNA extraction

Plasmid DNA was isolated from selected colonies by the alkaline lysis method (Birnbiom and Doly, 1979) as described by Sambrook et al. (1989), with the following modifications. Colonies were picked from the agar plates with sterile toothpicks, inoculated into 5 ml of LB broth containing ampicillin (100 µg/ml), and then incubated overnight at 37°C with agitation. After incubation, cells from 2 ml of each culture was collected in Eppendorf tubes by centrifugation at 13 000 rpm for 1 min. The supernatant was discarded and the bacterial pellet suspended in 100 μl of Solution I (50 mM glucose; 25 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0; 10 mM EDTA, pH 8.0) before incubation on ice for 5 min. Two hundred microliters (200 μl) of Solution II (1% (w/v) SDS; 0.2 N NaOH) was then added and the tubes were placed on ice for 5 min. The tubes were gently inverted to avoid shearing of the DNA. Following the addition of 150 µl of Solution III (3 M sodium acetate, pH 4.8), the tubes were incubated on ice for 15 min. The genomic DNA, high molecular weight RNA, and cellular proteins were removed by centrifugation at 13 000 rpm for 15 min. The plasmid DNA was precipitated from the supernatant by the addition of 2 volumes of 96% ethanol at -20°C for 1h. Precipitated plasmid DNA was collected by centrifugation at 13 000 rpm for 15 min and washed twice with 70% ethanol to remove residual salts from the DNA. After drying the pellet under vacuum for 5 min to remove the excess ethanol, the pellets were resuspended in 1x TE buffer. The plasmid DNA were analyzed on a 0.8% (w/v) agarose gel.

# 2.2.9 Restriction enzyme digestion

Recombinant plasmid DNA was digested with EcoRI (Promega) and SalI (Roche Diagnostics) to determine the presence and size of DNA inserts. The reaction mixtures (15 – 20  $\mu$ l) containing plasmid DNA (ca. 1  $\mu$ g), 5 U of enzyme and the appropriate restriction buffer were incubated at 37°C for 45 min. Resultant digested products were analyzed on a 0.8% (w/v) agarose gel as described in section 2.2.4.



# 2.2.10 Construction and cloning of mutant botulinum neurotoxin genes

# 2.2.10.1 Inverse PCR

Botulinum mutant neurotoxins, lacking 2 histidine and 1 glutamate residues in the zincbinding region (His-Glu-aa-aa-His), were constructed by inverse PCR as described by Imai et al. (1991). This method utilizes two mutant oligonucleotide primers designed to amplify the target DNA (cloning vector as well as the target BoNT gene) in an inverted tail-to-tail direction, subsequently generating the desired mutation. A unique Kpnl site was included in the design of the primers to generate substitutions of specific amino acids in the zinc-binding domain of the type C and D neurotoxins (Table 2.1). The Inverse PCR reactions were performed in a Perkin-Elmer 2400 thermal cycler. The PCR mixture (50 µl) contained 5 µl of 10x DNA polymerase buffer, 200 µM of each dNTP, 10 ng plasmid DNA, 10 pmol of the sense and anti-sense mutant primers (Table 2.1), 2.5 U of TaKaRa ExTaq™ DNA polymerase (TaKaRa Biomedicals), and ultra high quality (UHQ) water. The samples were subjected to 30 of the following cycles: denaturation at 94°C for 10 s, primer annealing at 49.5°C for 30 s, and elongation at 68°C for 3.5 min. In the final cycle an elongation step of 7 min was included in order to obtain full-length products. A negative control from which plasmid DNA was omitted was included to test for contamination of solutions. The amplicons were then analyzed on a 0.8% (w/v) agarose gel as described in section 2.2.4.

# 2.2.10.2 Construction of clones containing mutated neurotoxin genes

Gel-purified amplicons were digested with *Kpnl* (Roche Diagnostics) to generate compatible 5' and 3' ends for selfligation. Following agarose gel electrophoresis of the restricted DNA, bands were excised and purified with a silica suspension as described previously (section 2.2.6). The respective purified amplicons were self-ligated overnight at 15°C in a total volume of 10 μl. Ligation reaction mixtures were transformed into competent *E. coli* JM109 cells as described previously (section 2.2.7.3).

Recombinant plasmid DNA containing the mutated genes was purified by alkaline lysis method (section 2.2.8). The resultant mutant plasmids, designated pGEMut- $C_{ST}$  and pGEMut- $D_{SA}$ , were first characterized by Kpnl restriction digestion and then by automated sequencing.



# 2.2.11 Automated sequencing of selected clones

# 2.2.11.1 Purification of plasmid DNA

Plasmid DNA for sequencing was purified as follows. Colonies were inoculated into 5 ml of LB broth containing ampicillin (100 μg/ml), and then incubated overnight at 37°C with agitation. After incubation, cells from 3 ml of each culture was collected in Eppendorf tubes by centrifugation at 13 000 rpm for 2 min. The supernatant was discarded and the bacterial pellet suspended in 400 µl of Solution I (50 mM glucose; 25 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0; 10 mM EDTA, pH 8.0; 100 ng RNAse) before incubation at room temperature for 10 min. Four hundred microliters (400 µl) of Solution II (1% (w/v) SDS; 0.2 N NaOH) was then added and the tubes were placed on ice for 10 min. The tubes were gently inverted to avoid shearing of the DNA. Following the addition of 300 µl of 7.5 M ammonium acetate (pH 7.6), the tubes were incubated on ice for 10 min before centrifugation at 13 000 rpm for 10 min. The plasmid DNA was precipitated from 1 ml of supernatant by the addition of 650 µl of isopropanol at room temperature for 10 min. Precipitated plasmid DNA was collected by centrifugation at 13 000 rpm for 10 min and the supernatant discarded before the addition of 100 µl of 2 M ammonium acetate (pH 7.4). The tubes were incubated on ice for 10 min and centrifuged at 13 000 rpm for 10 min. One hundred and ten microliters (110 µl) of isopropanol was added to the supernatant and the tubes were placed at room temperature for 10 min before centrifugation at 13 000 rpm for 10 min. The DNA pellet was washed twice with 70% ethanol to remove residual salts from the DNA. After drying the pellet under vacuum for 10 min to remove the excess ethanol, the pellets were resuspended in 1x TE buffer. The plasmid DNA were analyzed on a 0.8% (w/v) agarose gel as described in section 2.2.4.

# 2.2.11.2 Automated sequencing

The integrity of the full-length BoNT encoding genes and mutated regions were verified by automated sequencing of the clones using the ABI PRISM™ BigDye Terminator Cycle sequencing kit (Perkin-Elmer Biosystems). The sequencing reactions contained terminator Ready Reaction mix (A-dye terminator labeled with dichloro[R6G], C-dye terminator labeled with dichloro[ROX], G-dye terminator labeled with dichloro[R110], T-dye terminator labeled with dichloro[TAMRA]; deoxynucleoside triphosphates; AmpliTaq DNA polymerase FS; MgCl₂; Tris-HCl buffer, pH 9.0), 3.2 pmol sequencing primer (Table



2.2), ca. 500 ng plasmid DNA, and UHQ water. Cycle sequencing reactions were performed in the Perkin-Elmer GeneAmp 2400 thermal cycler with 25 of the following cycles: denaturation at 96°C for 10 s, primer annealing at 50°C for 5 s, and elongation at 60°C for 4 min. Extension products were purified by centrifugation through a Sephadex G-50 (Fine) (Pharmacia) column at 3 000 rpm for 2 min. Samples were dried under vacuum for 30 min and stored at -20°C. Sequencing loading dye (5:1)(deionized formamide: 25 mM EDTA, pH 8.0 with blue dextran (50 mg/ml)) was added prior to electrophoresis of the samples on a Perkin-Elmer ABI 377 cycle sequencer.

# 2.3 RESULTS

# 2.3.1 Construction of clones containing the full-length copies of the C and D neurotoxin genes

The relationship between toxicogenicity and bacteriophage presence in type C and D cultures has long been established (Inoue and Iida, 1968; Eklund *et al.*, 1971) and it has been confirmed that type C and D phages carry the structural genes for the respective neurotoxins (Fujii *et al.*, 1988). In this study, the presence of bacteriophages in the *Clostridium* cultures was verified to ensure that the target DNA for PCR amplification of the full-length genes was available. During experimentation, new type C cultures had to be obtained after bacteriophage loss was demonstrated with TEM. Thereafter, bacteriophages with an octahedral head, sheath and tail (Fig. 2.3(A) and (B)) were observed in both cultures. The observed morphology of the phages corresponds to the type C and D bacteriophages reported by Inoue and Iida (1968) and Dolman and Chang (1972).

Phage DNA was extracted directly from the *C. botulinum* cultures by phenol-chloroform extractions and ethanol precipitation. Electrophoretic analysis on a 0.8% (w/v) agarose gel indicated two DNA bands for each phage DNA preparation. One band was localized in the well of the gel and the other migrated to a position above the 21 kb band of the DNA marker (results not shown). This corresponds to observations made by Fujii *et al.* (1988), which showed that both linear and open-circular DNAs are present in each phage DNA preparation. The type C and D bacteriophage DNA is estimated to be approximately 110 to 150 kb in length (Fujii *et al.*, 1988).

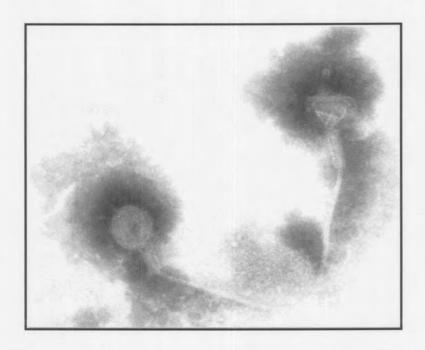


Fig. 2.3 (A) Transmission electron micrographs of bacteriophages from *Clostridium* botulinum type C<sub>ST</sub>(Stockholm) cultures stained with KPTA.



**Fig. 2.3 (B)** Transmission electron micrographs of bacteriophages from *Clostridium botulinum* type D<sub>SA</sub>(South Africa) cultures stained with KPTA.



In order to obtain full-length copies of the respective neurotoxin genes, primers were designed based on published sequences of the type C and D botulinum neurotoxin genes (Binz et al., 1990; Hauser et al., 1990; Kimura et al., 1990; Moriishi et al., 1996a). The type C and D botulinum neurotoxin genes are composed in a mosaic-like fashion and four isoforms sharing homology to different regions can be distinguished. The BoNT/C<sub>ST</sub> and BoNT/D<sub>SA</sub> genes have different 5' terminal ends, but share a homologous 3' terminal end. Primers were subsequently designed based on the sequences of these regions. Each of the primers were extended at their 5' ends by an additional 9 nucleotides of which specified either Sall or Sacl restriction sites (Table 2.1) with an additional 3 nucleotide clamping sequence to facilitate more efficient restriction enzyme digestion. Restriction enzyme sites (Sacl and Sall) were incorporated to facilitate cloning procedures.

Using the isolated bacteriophage DNA preparations as template, PCR amplification was carried out. Primer sets designed according to published sequences of the BoNT/C and BoNT/D genes were used in conjunction with a polymerase enzyme specifically developed for long and accurate (LA) PCR technology. Initial attempts in amplifying the genes using Taq DNA polymerase (Promega) and AmpliTaq Gold (Perkin-Elmer Biosystems) proved to be unsuccessful. However, the use of the long-range TaKaRa Ex Taq™ (TaKaRa Biomedical) polymerase resulted in amplification. A single discreet band of 3.8 kb was observed following agarose gel electrophoresis (Fig. 2.4). No amplification products were observed in the negative control in which template DNA was omitted.

The gel-purified PCR amplicons were cloned into the pGEM®-T Easy vector (Promega) (Fig. 2.5) that contain 3' thymidine overhangs in order to facilitate the cloning of PCR products since a single non-template specific deoxyadenosine is added to the 3'-ends of the amplified fragments during PCR (Clark, 1988). In addition, the pGEM®-T Easy vector also contains two selectable markers, amp<sup>R</sup> and *lacZ'*. These were used for the selection of recombinant transformants. Successful cloning of a gene into this vector disrupts the coding sequence of the  $\alpha$ -peptide region of the enzyme  $\beta$ -galactosidase. This allows for the identification of recombinant clones by colorimetric screening on X-gal containing indicator plates. The isolated plasmid DNA was characterized by agarose gel electrophoresis and restriction enzyme analysis.



Plasmid DNA migrating slower that the parental pGEM®-T Easy vector was selected and digested with *Sall* (Roche Diagnostics) to determine whether the plasmid DNA contained cloned inserts. *Sall* digestion of pGEM-D<sub>SA</sub> resulted in two fragments of ca. 3.8 kb and 3.0 kb, respectively (Fig. 2.6). This corresponds with the expected size of the DNA insert and parental linearized vector. Similarly, *Sall* digestion of pGEM-C<sub>ST</sub> also resulted in two fragments with the above sizes. Recombinant plasmid DNA containing either the C<sub>ST</sub> and D<sub>SA</sub> genes were selected and used for the further DNA manipulations. The clones were designated pGEM-C<sub>ST</sub> and pGEM-D<sub>SA</sub>, respectively.

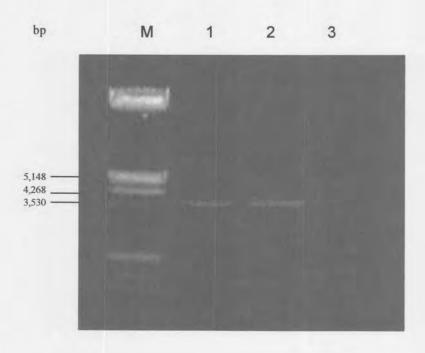


Fig. 2.4 Agarose gel analysis of the 3.8 kb fragment obtained by PCR amplification using bacteriophage DNA as template. Lane: M,  $\lambda$  DNA/EcoRI + HindIII Marker; 1, BoNT/C<sub>ST</sub> amplicon; 2, BoNT/D<sub>SA</sub> amplicon; 3, Negative control.

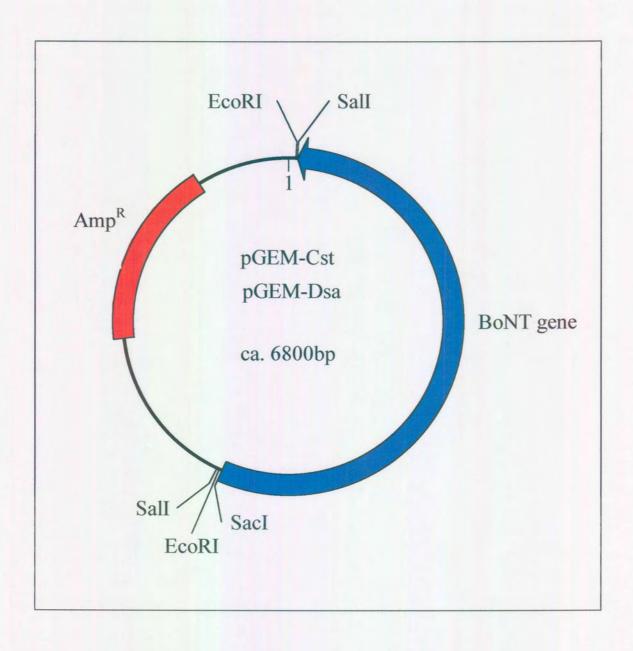


Fig. 2.5 Partial restriction enzyme map of recombinant pGEM®-T Easy vector containing either the BoNT/C<sub>ST</sub> or the BoNT/D<sub>SA</sub> gene.

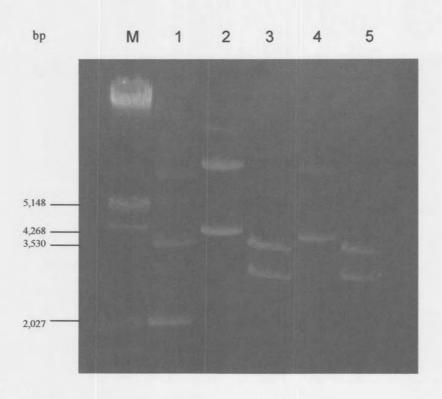


Fig. 2.6 Agarose gel electrophoretic analysis of the recombinant plasmids, pGEM-C<sub>ST</sub> and pGEM-D<sub>SA</sub>, constructed by cloning the respective BoNT amplicons into linearized pGEM®-T Easy vector. Lanes: M, λ DNA/EcoRI + HindIII Marker; 1, Uncut non-recombinant pGEM®-T Easy vector; 2, Uncut pGEM-C<sub>ST</sub> vector; 3, Sall-digested pGEM-C<sub>ST</sub> vector; 4, Uncut pGEM-D<sub>SA</sub> vector; 5, Sall-digested pGEM-D<sub>SA</sub> vector.



# 2.3.2 Sequencing of full-length botulinum neurotoxin genes

The integrity of the full-length botulinum neurotoxin genes was determined by automated sequencing. The strategy used for sequencing of the full-length genes involved the design of internal primers based on published sequences of the type C and D botulinum neurotoxin genes (Binz et al., 1990; Hauser et al., 1990; Kimura et al., 1990; Moriishi et al., 1996(b)). The nucleotide sequences of BoNT/C<sub>ST</sub> and BoNT/D<sub>SA</sub> genes were aligned and a set of four primers (BNTseq18, BNTseq23, BNTseq28, and BNTseq32) was subsequently designed to homologous regions. Furthermore, a set of two primers each (BNTseqC4 and BNTseqC13 / BNTseqD4 and BNTseqD13) was designed for the respective genes.

The obtained nucleotide sequences for the respective clones are shown in Fig. 2.7 and Fig. 2.8. Analysis of the nucleotide sequence indicated the presence of nucleotides specifying *Sacl/Sall* restriction enzyme sites at the 5' and 3' termini of the genes. The nucleotide sequences were compared with the published sequences of the respective genes (Kimura *et al.*, 1990 (GI: 217780); Moriishi *et al.*, 1996a (GI: 1374775)). Sequence homologies of 99.8% (BoNT/C<sub>ST</sub>) and 99.7% (BoNT/D<sub>SA</sub>) were observed between the sequence obtained for the cloned genes and published sequences.

The deduced amino acid sequence of BoNT/C<sub>ST</sub> displayed 5 amino acid dissimilarities with the amino acid sequence of the published sequence (Table 2.3). The charge of three of the dissimilar amino acids differed from the amino acids in the published sequence, while the other two remained the same. The deduced amino acid sequence of BoNT/D<sub>SA</sub> displayed 7 amino acid dissimilarities with the amino acid sequence of the published sequence (Table 2.4). The charge of all of the dissimilar amino acids was the same as the amino acids of the published sequence. Comparison of the amino acid sequences of the four isoforms (BoNT/C<sub>1</sub>, BoNT/C<sub>6813</sub>, BoNT/D and BoNT/D<sub>SA</sub>) (Moriishi et al., 1996a,b) showed that several of the dissimilar amino acids contained in the cloned genes are similar to amino acids in the other isoforms. The Ala<sup>657</sup> of the cloned BoNT/C<sub>ST</sub> gene is similar to that of BoNT/D and BoNT/D<sub>SA</sub>. The Val<sup>362</sup> of the cloned BoNT/D<sub>SA</sub> gene is similar to that of BoNT/D. Furthermore, Val<sup>917</sup> and Val<sup>1283</sup> are similar to BoNT/C<sub>ST</sub>. The substitution of Ala<sup>1283</sup> with Val<sup>1283</sup> was as a result of the botC-R primer



used for amplification of the BoNT/D $_{SA}$  gene. This primer was designed according to the sequence of BoNT/C $_{ST}$ .

**Table 2.3** Amino acid differences between cloned BoNT/C<sub>ST</sub> and published sequence (Kimura *et al.*, 1990).

Kimu	ra e <i>t al.</i> (1990)	Clor	ned C <sub>ST</sub> gene
Amino acid	Charge	Amino acid	Charge
Pro <sup>2</sup>	Non-polar	Thr <sup>2</sup>	Polar
Pro <sup>196</sup>	Non-polar	Leu <sup>196</sup>	Non-polar
Thr <sup>657</sup>	Polar	Ala <sup>657</sup>	Non-polar
lle <sup>686</sup>	Non-polar	Val <sup>686</sup>	Non-polar
Ser <sup>730</sup>	Polar	Pro <sup>730</sup>	Non-polar

**Table 2.4** Amino acid differences between cloned BoNT/D<sub>SA</sub> and published sequence (Moriishi *et al.*, 1996a).

Moriis	hi <i>et al.,</i> 1996a	Cloned D <sub>SA</sub> gene						
Amino acid	Charge	Amino acid	Charge					
Trp <sup>3</sup>	Non-polar	Leu <sup>3</sup>	Non-polar					
Leu <sup>341</sup>	Non-polar	Ala <sup>341</sup>	Non-polar					
lle <sup>362</sup>	Non-polar	Val <sup>362</sup>	Non-polar					
Ser <sup>755</sup>	Polar	Gly <sup>755</sup>	Polar					
lle <sup>917</sup>	Non-polar	Val <sup>917</sup>	Non-polar					
lle <sup>1042</sup>	Non-polar	Val <sup>1042</sup>	Non-polar					
Ala <sup>1283</sup>	Non-polar	Val <sup>1283</sup>	Non-polar					



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Comparison of complete nucleotide and deduced amino acid sequence of cloned BoNT/C<sub>sT</sub> gene with the published sequence (Kimura et al., 1990 (GI: 217780)). \* Substituted bases are shown in capital letters.



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Comparison of complete nucleotide and derived amino acid sequence of cloned BoNT/D<sub>SA</sub> gene with the published sequence (Moriishi et al., 1996(a) (GI: 1374775)). \* Substituted bases are shown in capital letters.

Fig. 2.8



#### 2.3.2 Construction of mutant clones

Inverse PCR was used for the site-directed mutagenesis of the zinc-binding region contained in the botulinum neurotoxin encoding genes. Substitution of six nucleotides resulted in the mutation of three essential amino acids in the unique zinc-binding motif from His-Glu-aa-aa-His to Gly-Thr-aa-aa-Asn. Oligonucleotide primers were designed in an inverted tail-to-tail direction with nucleotides specifying *KpnI* restriction sites at their 5' ends. Using this PCR approach the vector DNA as well as the cloned gene was amplified. The choice of the *KpnI* site was motivated by the observation that neither pGEM®-T Easy nor the two BoNT genes contained such a restriction enzyme site. Following agarose gel electrophoresis, amplicons of ca. 6.8 kb were observed (Fig. 2.9). The size of the amplicons corresponds to the expected size of the plasmid DNA (3 kb) together with the BoNT genes (ca. 3.8 kb).

The purified amplicons were digested with *KpnI* to create compatible cohesive ends. The fragments were subsequently gel-purified and then self-ligated before being transformed into competent *E. coli* JM109 cells. The derived recombinant plasmids were characterized by restriction enzyme analysis. *KpnI* digestion linearized the recombinant plasmids and generated a 6.8 kb restriction fragment (Fig. 2.11), indicating that the respective recombinant plasmids contained the *KpnI* site and that the desired substitutions were indeed generated. Restriction of the recombinant plasmids by *SalI* (Fig. 2.11) resulted in two fragments being observed, namely a fragment corresponding to the 3.8 kb BoNT genes and a fragment corresponding to the size of the 3.0 kb pGEM®-T Easy vector.



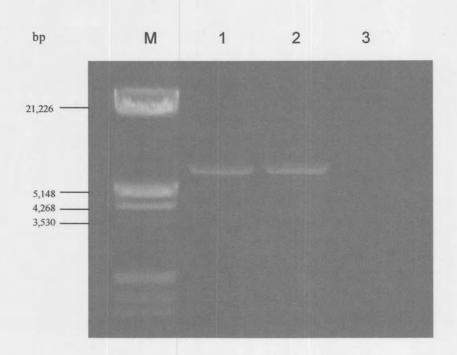


Fig. 2.9 Agarose gel electrophoresis indicating amplification of the pGEM $^{\circ}$ -T Easy vector together with the BoNT/C<sub>ST</sub> and BoNT/D<sub>SA</sub> genes. Lane: M,  $\lambda$  DNA/EcoRI + HindIII Marker; 1, pGEM-BoNT/C<sub>ST</sub> amplicon; 2, pGEM-BoNT/D<sub>SA</sub> amplicon; 3, Negative control.

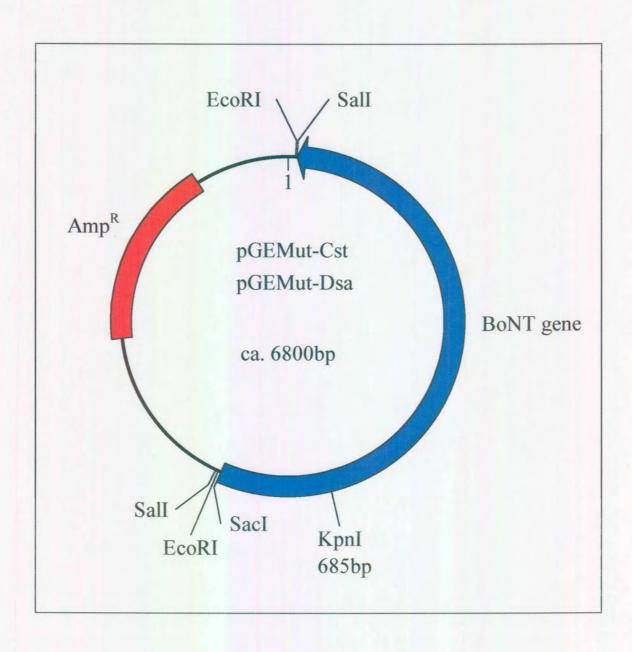


Fig. 2.10 Partial restriction enzyme map of recombinant pGEM®-T Easy vector containing either the mutated BoNT/C<sub>ST</sub> or BoNT/D<sub>SA</sub> gene.

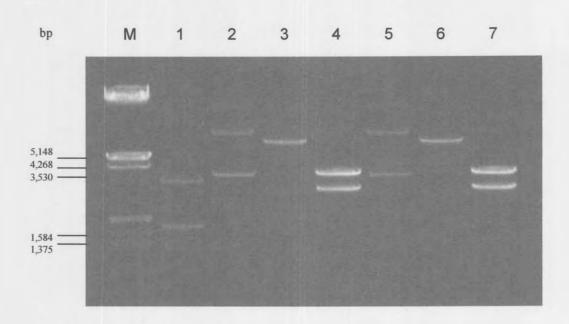


Fig. 2.11 Agarose gel electrophoretic analysis of the recombinant pGEM®-T Easy vector containing either the C<sub>ST</sub> or D<sub>SA</sub> genes, obtained by self-ligation of the mutagenized PCR amplicons prior to transformation of competent cells. Lanes: M, λ DNA/EcoRI + HindIII Marker; 1, Uncut non-recombinant pGEM®-T Easy vector; 2, Uncut recombinant type C<sub>ST</sub> plasmid; 3, KpnI-digested recombinant type C<sub>ST</sub> plasmid; 4, Sall-digested recombinant type C<sub>ST</sub> plasmid; 5, Uncut recombinant type D<sub>SA</sub> plasmid; 6, KpnI-digested recombinant type D<sub>SA</sub> plasmid; 7, Sall-digested recombinant type D<sub>SA</sub> plasmid.



In order to verify the integrity of the desired substitutions, approximately 600 nucleotides were analyzed with automated sequencing using BNTseqC4 and BNTseqD4 primers (Table 2.2) for the respective genes. Analysis of the obtained sequence indicated that the sequence contained in the zinc-binding motif (Table 2.5) was substituted by nucleotides specifying three different amino acid residues (Gly-Thr-aa-aa-Asn). No other differences were observed in the region sequenced. Plasmids containing the desired mutations were therefore designated pGEMut-C<sub>ST</sub> and pGEMut-D<sub>SA</sub>, respectively.

**Table 2.5** Nucleotide and deduced amino acid sequences of zinc-binding motif of wild-type and mutant type C<sub>ST</sub> and D<sub>SA</sub> botulinum neurotoxin genes.

BoNT gene	Nucleotide sequence	Amino acid sequence
Wild-type C <sub>ST</sub>	5'-CATGAACTTAATCAT-3'	His-Glu-Leu-Asn-His
Mutant C <sub>ST</sub>	5'-ggTaccCTTAATaAT-3'*	<i>Gly-Thr</i> -Leu-Asn- <i>Asn</i> <sup>§</sup>
Wild-type D <sub>SA</sub>	5'-CATGAGTTAACACAT-3'	His-Glu-Leu-Thr-His
Mutant D <sub>SA</sub>	5'-ggTaccTTAACAaAT-3'*	<i>Gly-Thr</i> -Leu-Thr- <i>Asn</i> <sup>§</sup>

<sup>\*</sup> Substituted bases are shown in bold lower case letters.

## 2.4 DISCUSSION

In order to express the mutant *Clostridium botulinum* neurotoxin genes in an eukaryotic baculovirus expression system, it was necessary to first clone, sequence and mutate the respective BoNT genes.

In 1968 Indue and lida illustrated that strains of *C. botulinum* carry bacteriophages (Indue and Iida, 1968). The type C and D phages share more similarities than do any of the other *C. botulinum* phages and strains of these types are generally associated with

<sup>§</sup> Amino acid substitutions are shown in bold italics.



large, octahedral headed phages with long contractile tails with sheaths. A direct relationship between the type C and D bacteriophages and toxicogenicity has been established (Eklund *et al.*, 1971). Furthermore, it has been reported that toxin production by these cells declines rapidly and eventually ceases, following laboratory passaging of the bacterial cultures. During experimentation, bacteriophage loss was demonstrated with TEM in the type C<sub>ST</sub> culture and this subsequently resulted in the lack of the appropriate target DNA for PCR amplification. Therefore, new type C<sub>ST</sub> cultures had to be obtained. Thereafter, bacteriophages fitting the description of the type C and D phages were demonstrated with TEM.

The botulinum neurotoxin genes were amplified by using polymerase chain reaction (PCR) amplification. This is the first direct amplification of the full-length BoNT/C<sub>ST</sub> and BoNT/D<sub>SA</sub> genes. Previous reports have described the reconstruction of these genes with PCR fragments generated from culture supernatants and phage DNA libraries (Kimura et al., 1990; Moriishi et al., 1996a,b). One of the problems encountered during the amplification of the full-length genes involved the use of traditional Tag DNA polymerase enzymes. Taq DNA polymerase (Promega) and AmpliTaq Gold (Perkin-Elmer Biosystems) were unable to amplify the full-length botulinum neurotoxin genes. This can possibly be due to the length (ca. 3.8 kb) and high A-T (ca. 72%) content of the BoNT genes. Subsequently, a long-range enzyme specifically adapted for long and accurate amplification of DNA was used. The amplicons were cloned directly into the pGEM<sup>®</sup>-T Easy vector, since most PCR products amplified with TaKaRa Ex Taq™ have one A added at the 3' terminus. A ddT-tailed vector, such as pGEM®-T Easy, can ligate directly to an amplicon that contains a 3' overhanging A by forming a phoshodiester bond between the 5'-phosphate of the vector and the 3'-hydroxyl group from the amplicons' overhanging A (Holton and Graham, 1991).

The integrity of the full-length botulinum neurotoxin genes was subsequently verified by automated sequencing. The nucleotide sequences were compared with the published sequences for the respective genes and homologies of 99.8% (BoNT/C<sub>ST</sub>) and 99.7% (BoNT/D<sub>SA</sub>) were observed. Deduced amino acid sequences showed an open reading frame without fortuitous termination signals. Five amino acid dissimilarities were observed between the cloned BoNT/C<sub>ST</sub> gene and published sequences (Kimura *et al.*,



1990). Similarly, 7 amino acid dissimilarities were observed between the cloned BoNT/D<sub>SA</sub> and the published sequences (Moriishi *et al.*, 1996a).

Botulinum neurotoxins are zinc metallo-proteases with an unique zinc-binding motif (His-Glu-aa-aa-His) in the central region of the light chain sub-unit polypeptide. The zinc-protease activity of these neurotoxins causes the blockage of neurotransmitter release resulting in flaccid paralysis (Fu et al., 1998). Kiyatkin et al. (1997) illustrated that the substitution of the three amino acids essential for zinc binding resulted in the complete detoxification of the modified recombinant type C toxin. The non-toxic modified type C toxin retained the ability to translocate from the gut to the general circulation and to evoke protective antibodies. This molecule may be an ideal vaccine candidate for botulism.

In this study, modified BoNT/C<sub>ST</sub> and BoNT/D<sub>SA</sub> genes were generated with site-directed mutagenesis of the three essential amino acids (His-Glu-aa-aa-His) in the zinc-binding region. The cloned full-length wild-type neurotoxin gene was subsequently used as template DNA in a PCR-based mutagenesis procedure. Mutations was generated by inverse PCR, in which a pair of inverted tail-to-tail primers were designed from the site of the desired mutation and used to amplify the entire double-stranded plasmid containing the desired gene. A unique *KpnI* restriction site was incorporated into the 5' ends of both the primers to introduce base pair substitutions and thus resulting in mutation of two of the three amino acids of importance. The *KpnI* site has the added advantages of creating compatible cohesive ends in the PCR product for increased circularization efficiency and it supports the fast and cost-effective screening of mutants. Restriction enzyme analysis and sequencing data of the mutated region indicated that the zinc binding region was successfully changed from His-Glu-aa-aa-His to Gly-Thr-aa-aa-Asn.

In this part of the project, the full-length wild-type BoNT/C<sub>ST</sub> and BoNT/D<sub>SA</sub> genes were successfully amplified, cloned and mutated. Sequencing analysis verified the integrity of the full-length wild-type genes and newly introduced mutations. These wild-type and mutant genes are of importance in further expression studies towards the development of a recombinant vaccine candidate for botulism.



#### **CHAPTER 3**

# EXPRESSION OF WILD-TYPE AND MUTANT NEUROTOXIN GENES OF Clostridium botulinum TYPE C AND D IN THE BAC-TO-BAC<sup>TM</sup> BACULOVIRUS EXPRESSION SYSTEM

#### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

The botulinum neurotoxins are one of the most toxic substances known to man. They are secreted as a single polypeptide chain with a molecular mass of approximately 150 kDa. The polypeptide is proteolytically cleaved to give rise to a light chain (L, 50 kDa) and a heavy chain (H, 100 kDa) that are linked by a disulfide bond. The L domain is responsible for enzymatic modification of protein components of the neuroexocytosis apparatus. The H chain can be divided into two domains ( $H_C$  and  $H_N$ ) corresponding to the carboxy- and amino-terminal halves of the H chain, respectively. The  $H_C$  domain seems to be mainly responsible for neurospecific binding to the presynaptic membrane, while the  $H_N$  domain appears to govern internalization and membrane translocation.

Despite recent advances in gene expression systems, *E. coli* has remained a popular host organism for the prokaryotic expression of foreign proteins. Important advantages of using *E. coli* in expression studies include, among others, the rapid generation of biomass due to high rates of cell growth and the availability of low-cost culture conditions (Balbas and Bolivar, 1990). However, *E. coli* has a limited capacity to secrete proteins and it is unable to exert certain post-translational modifications on expressed foreign proteins e.g. disulfide bond formation, glycosylation, and acetylation. This usually leads to improper folding and consequently insolubility of the expressed protein.

Various reports have described expression of the botulinum neurotoxin (BoNT) and tetanus neurotoxin (TeNT) genes in *E. coli*. The tetanus neurotoxin closely resembles the botulinum neurotoxins in structure and biological activity. Makoff *et al.* (1989) have reported difficulties in obtaining high expression levels for the native gene fragment encoding the H<sub>C</sub> domain of TeNT in *E. coli*. Their study indicated that this might be due to the presence of rare codons in the native gene of *C. tetani*. Expression of the native



gene fragment encoding BoNT/A(H<sub>c</sub>) in *E. coli* resulted in similar low levels of expression (LePenotiere *et al.*, 1995). In order to overcome these low expression levels in *E. coli*, a synthetic BoNT/A(H<sub>c</sub>) gene fragment was constructed by taking into account the single codon preferences of *E. coli*. Some of the codons were also altered to less preferred triplets in order to reduce the adenosine (A) and thymine (T) base content of the gene fragment, and to incorporate restriction enzyme recognition sites, which enabled construction of the synthetic gene. Expression of this gene construct yielded a low level of immunoreactive material that was largely insoluble (Clayton *et al.*, 1995). Kiyatkin *et al.* (1997) reported the successful expression (1 to 2 mg/l) of a full-length mutant BoNT/C gene in *E. coli*. The mutant BoNT/C gene was generated by site-directed mutagenesis of three amino acids within the zinc-binding motif of the enzymatic domain. The protein was synthesized in a soluble form and protective immunity was evoked by the oral and subcutaneous administration of this non-toxic mutant BoNT/C.

The use of Saccharomyces cerevisiae and Pichia pastoris as a means to express the tetanus and botulinum neurotoxins has also been reported. These eukaryotic gene expression systems are capable of secreting and performing post-translational modifications on expressed proteins. However, expression of the native gene fragment encoding the H<sub>C</sub> domain of TeNT in S. cerevisiae has proved to be even more troublesome than in E. coli. Romanos et al. (1991) reported that the high adenosine and thymine base composition found in the native gene of clostridial DNA gives rise to fortuitous transcriptional termination signals in yeast. This obstacle was overcome by preparing a synthetic gene in which codon usage was altered to reduce the A+T content of the gene fragment (Romanos et al., 1991). Intracellular expression of the synthetic gene fragment encoding TeNT(H<sub>C</sub>) resulted in a soluble immunoreactive protein (50 kDa) with yields of 60 to 90 mg/l. Extracellular expression yielded hyper-glycosylated (75 to 200 kDa) and core-glycosylated (65 kDa) forms of the protein with a much lower yield of 5 to 10 mg/l. The secreted glycosylated proteins failed to elicit protective immunity in mice, but following a deglycosylation step their capacity to elicit an immune response was restored. Romanos et al. (1991) suggested that the added carbohydrates must sterically hinder the generation of neutralizing antibodies to adjacent epitopes. Smith (1998) has reported the successful expression of synthetic gene fragments encoding BoNT/A(H<sub>C</sub>) and BoNT/B(H<sub>C</sub>) in *Pichia pastoris* as both intra- and extracellular proteins. Intracellular expression of both genes yielded immunoreactive products with



the expected molecular weight as judged by SDS-PAGE and Western blot analysis. In contrast, the secreted proteins were found to have a higher molecular weight due to glycosylation of the proteins. However, only the BoNT/A(H<sub>C</sub>) protein proved to be immunogenic, while the glycosylated BoNT/B(H<sub>C</sub>) failed to elicit protective immunity in mice. Similar to TeNT(H<sub>C</sub>), the capacity of BoNT/B(H<sub>C</sub>) to protect mice from challenge with native toxin was restored only after deglycosylation of the protein.

From the preceding sections, it would thus appear that expression of genes derived from BoNT in *E. coli* occurs at variable levels and is generally inefficient. In addition *E. coli* has a disadvantage as a host organism in that it contains toxic cell wall pyrogens that cause fever in humans and animals. Furthermore, expression of synthetic gene fragments encoding the H<sub>C</sub> domain in different yeast expression systems, has also been met with mixed results. Intracellular expression yielded high levels of TeNT(H<sub>C</sub>), BoNT/A(H<sub>C</sub>), and BoNT/B(H<sub>C</sub>) which was shown to be immunogenic. In contrast, extracellular expression yielded glycosylated forms of the proteins at much lower levels and only BoNT/A(H<sub>C</sub>) proved to be immunogenic. In order to obtain immunogenic extracellularly expressed proteins, either a deglycosylation step can be incorporated into the manufacturing process or the potential glycosylation site(s) in the protein can be altered by site-directed mutagenesis. The most cost-effective alternative, however, would be to express the proteins intracellularly in order to avoid the secretory pathway altogether (Smith, 1998).

The baculovirus expression system is an alternative eukaryotic expression system that may prove to be useful for expression of the BoNT genes. Successful expression of genes from various sources by baculovirus recombinants have been reported (O'Reilly et al., 1992 and references therein). Not only does it provide an eukaryotic environment that is generally conducive to the proper folding, disulfide bond formation, oligomerization, and/or post-translational modification required for biological activity of some proteins (O'Reilly et al., 1992), but biologically active proteins are synthesized more reliably than in bacterial or yeast expression systems, and the yields generally exceed those from mammalian expression systems (Liebman et al., 1999).



The aim of this study was thus to express the full-length wild-type and mutant BoNT/C<sub>ST</sub> and BoNT/D<sub>SA</sub> genes in *S. frugiperda* cells using the BAC-TO-BAC<sup>TM</sup> baculovirus system. This will allow for further studies to evaluate the effectiveness of the introduced mutation for the inactivation of the neurotoxins as well as to evaluate the potential of the expressed proteins as recombinant vaccine candidates.

#### 3.2 MATERIALS AND METHODS

#### 3.2.1 Materials

In the previous chapter the construction of plasmids containing the wild-type and mutant type C and D neurotoxin genes was described (pGEM-C<sub>ST</sub>, pGEM-D<sub>SA</sub>, pGEMut-C<sub>ST</sub>, and pGEMut-D<sub>SA</sub>). An *E. coli* strain DH10Bac<sup>™</sup> containing a vendor-supplied baculovirus shuttle vector (bacmid: Life technologies) was used for transformations with the recombinant donor pFASTBAC<sup>™</sup>DUAL plasmids (Life Technologies Ltd., Paisley, UK).

Rabbit anti-sera against the L chain of BoNT/C<sub>ST</sub> (anti- $C_{ST}(L)$ ) and full-length BoNT/D<sub>1873</sub> (anti-D<sub>1873</sub>) were obtained from K. Oguma (Department of Bacteriology, Okayama University Medical School, Okayama, Japan)(Oguma *et al.*, 1980; Oguma *et al.*, 1981). Samples of native BoNT/C, native BoNT/D, and rabbit anti-sera against these toxins (anti- $C_{ST}$  and anti-D<sub>SA</sub>) were kindly provided by C. Ellis (Applied Biotechnology, Onderstepoort Veterinary Institute, South Africa).

#### 3.2.2 Construction and characterization of recombinant donor plasmids

#### 3.2.2.1 Restriction enzyme digestions

The pFASTBAC™DUAL vector was digested with appropriate restriction enzymes to enable the cloning of the respective neurotoxin genes. To enable the cloning of the BoNT/D<sub>SA</sub> and BoNT/MutD<sub>SA</sub> genes, the pFASTBAC™DUAL vector was digested with both *EcoRI* and *Sall*. The pFASTBAC™DUAL vector was digested with *EcoRI* (Roche Diagnostics) in buffer H at 37°C for 30 min before *Sall* (Roche Diagnostics) was added and incubated for a further 45 min at 37°C. To enable the cloning of the BoNT/C<sub>ST</sub> and BoNT/MutC<sub>ST</sub> genes, the vector was digested with *Sall* (Roche Diagnostics) in buffer H



at 37°C for 1 h. The BoNT/C<sub>ST</sub> and BoNT/MutC<sub>ST</sub> genes were obtained from pGEM-C<sub>ST</sub> and pGEMut-C<sub>ST</sub> by *Sal*I restriction enzyme digestion. The BoNT/D<sub>SA</sub> and BoNT/MutD<sub>SA</sub> neurotoxin genes were obtained from pGEM-D<sub>SA</sub> and pGEMut-D<sub>SA</sub> by *Eco*RI and *Sal*I digestion.

# 3.2.2.2 Purification of DNA fragments from agarose gels

The restriction enzyme-digested BoNT genes and pFASTBAC™DUAL vectors were purified from a 0.8% (w/v) agarose gel using a silica suspension as described in section 2.2.6. The concentration of the purified DNA fragments was determined on a 0.8% (w/v) agarose gel as described in section 2.2.4.

## 3.2.2.3 Ligation of DNA fragments

The purified BoNT genes were cloned into the pFASTBAC™DUAL vector to construct donor plasmids. Ligation of the purified BoNT genes and pFASTBAC™DUAL vector was performed overnight (16 h) at 15°C in a total volume of 10 μl. The reaction mixture contained 1 μl of a 10x T4 DNA ligase buffer (660 mM Tris-HCl; 10 mM DTT; 50 mM MgCl₂; 10 mM ATP; pH 7.5), 50 ng of restricted pFastBac™Dual vector, ca. 200 ng insert DNA, 3 U of T4 DNA ligase (Roche Diagnostics, 3 U/μl), and UHQ water. The vector to insert ratio was typically 1:3.

#### 3.2.2.4 Preparation of competent cells

Competent *E. coli* cells were prepared according to the Calcium/Manganese-based (CCMB) method as described by Hanahan *et al.* (1991). This method allows for the long-term storage of the competent cells. A bacterial suspension was prepared by inoculating a colony from a freshly-streaked *E. coli* JM109 plate into 2 ml SOB-Mg (20% (w/v) tryptone; 5% (w/v) yeast extract, 10 mM NaCl; 2.5 mM KCl; pH 7.0). The bacterial suspension was inoculated into 50 ml pre-heated SOB-Mg medium and incubated for 3 h at 30°C until the cells reached an OD<sub>550</sub> value of 0.35 (mid-log phase). After incubation of the cells on ice for 10 min, cells from 30 ml of culture were collected in a Corex tube by centrifugation at 2 000 rpm for 10 min at 4°C in a pre-cooled Sorvall HB4 rotor. The cell pellet was dispersed in 10 ml pre-cooled CCMB80 (10 mM Potassium acetate; 10% (w/v) glyserol; 80 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub>; 20 mM MnCl<sub>2</sub>; 10 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>; pH 6.4) by gentle vortexing, incubated on ice for 20 min and pelleted as above. The pellet was



finally suspended in 2.5 ml pre-cooled CCMB80. The cells were aliquoted into sterile Eppendorf tubes and frozen in liquid nitrogen. The cells were stored at -70°C until use.

#### 3.2.2.5 Transformation of competent cells

The competent *E. coli* JM109 cells were transformed after the addition of the ligation mixture using the heat shock method. The competent cells (100  $\mu$ l) and the ligation mixture (5  $\mu$ l) were mixed in a glass transformation tube and maintained on ice for 30 min. The cells were heat-shocked for 90 s at 42°C and chilled on ice for 2 min before pre-warmed SOC medium (900  $\mu$ l) was added. The transformation mixtures were incubated with agitation at 37°C for 1 h to allow the cells to recover and to express the ampicillin and gentamycin resistance genes. The transformed cells were selected by plating the cells onto LB plates containing antibiotics (100  $\mu$ g/ml ampicillin; 7  $\mu$ g/ml gentamycin) and incubating overnight at 37°C.

pUC18 plasmid DNA (10 ng) was included as a transformation control and to calculate the competency of the cells. A negative control comprising only competent cells was also included to determine if any contamination occurred.

#### 3.2.2.6 Screening of recombinant clones

The pFASTBAC™DUAL vector does not contain a selective marker to screen for recombinants. Recombinant clones were selected according to size with a rapid one-step screening procedure (Beuken *et al.*, 1998). Several colonies were inoculated into 3 ml LB broth containing antibiotics (100 µg/ml ampicillin; 7 µg/ml gentamycin) and incubated overnight at 37°C with shaking. Three hundred microliters (300 µl) of the overnight culture was centrifuged for 15-20 s after which the supernatant was discarded. The cells were lysed by briefly vortexing the pellet in 40 µl of loading dye (40% (w/v) sucrose; 0.25% (w/v) bromophenol blue) and 14 µl of a phenol:chloroform (1:1) mixture. The cell debris was collected by centrifugation at 13 000 rpm for 3 min. The samples were analyzed by loading 10 µl of the aqueous phase onto a 0.8% (w/v) agarose gel. Plasmid DNA migrating slower than the parental vector was selected for further characterization.



Plasmid DNA of putative recombinant clones was isolated by the alkaline lysis method as described by Birnbiom and Doly (1979) with slight modifications (discussed in section 2.2.7.1). DNA analysis of recombinant clones were performed on a 0.8% (w/v) agarose gel stained with EtBr for visualization on a transilluminator.

Recombinant plasmid DNA was digested with EcoRI (Roche Diagnostics) and SaII (Roche Diagnostics) to determine the presence and size of cloned DNA inserts. The reaction mixtures (15 – 20  $\mu$ I) containing plasmid DNA (ca. 1  $\mu$ g), 5 U of enzyme and the appropriate restriction buffer were incubated at 37°C for 45 min. The digestion products were analyzed on a 0.8% (w/v) agarose gel as described in section 2.2.4. Recombinant plasmid DNA was also digested with BamHI (Promega) and EcoRI (Promega) to determine the orientation of the cloned DNA inserts.

#### 3.2.3 Construction of recombinant Bacmid DNA

# 3.2.3.1 Preparation of competent *E. coli* DH10Bac™ cells

Competent *E. coli* DH10Bac<sup>™</sup> cells were prepared by the dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) method, as described by Chung and Miller (1988). An overnight culture was prepared by inoculating *E. coli* DH10Bac<sup>™</sup> cells in 5 ml LB broth containing antibiotics (10 μg/ml tetracycline; 50 μg/ml kanamycin) with overnight shaking at 37°C. The overnight culture was inoculated into 100 ml of the same medium and grown to an OD<sub>600</sub> value of 0.3 to 0.6 (early logarithmic phase). The cells were collected by centrifugation at 4 000 rpm for 5 mln at 4°C. After centrifugation the cells were resuspended in 1/10<sup>th</sup> volume of icecold TSB (1.6% (w/v) peptone; 1% (w/v) yeast extract; 500 mM NaCl; 10% (w/v) PEG, MW 3350; 5% (v/v) DMSO; 10 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>; 10 mM MgS0<sub>4</sub>) and incubated on ice for 20 min before transformation. Cells were also frozen at this stage and stored at −70°C for future use.

# 3.2.3.2 Transformation of competent E. coli DH10Bac™ cells

The donor plasmids (pFastBacDual-C<sub>ST</sub>, pFastBacDual-MutC<sub>ST</sub>, pFastBacDual-D<sub>SA</sub>, and pFastBacDual-MutD<sub>SA</sub>)(500 ng) and the competent DH10Bac<sup>TM</sup> cells (100  $\mu$ l) were gently mixed in glass transformation tubes and maintained on ice for 30 min. The cells were then heat-shocked for 45 s at 42°C and chilled on ice for 2 min before 900  $\mu$ l of



pre-warmed SOC medium (2% (w/v) tryptone; 0.5% (w/v) yeast extract; 10 mM NaCl; 2.5 mM KCl; 10 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>; 20 mM glucose; pH 7.0) was added. The transformation mixtures were incubated with agitation at 37°C for 4 h to allow the cells to recover, to express the antibiotic resistance genes, and to allow for transposition. The transformed cells were selected by plating the cells onto Luria agar (1% (w/v) peptone; 0.5% (w/v) yeast extract; 0.17 M NaCl; pH 7.4) containing antibiotics (10  $\mu$ g/ml tetracycline; 7  $\mu$ g/ml gentamycin; 50  $\mu$ g/ml kanamycin) in the presence of 10  $\mu$ l IPTG (100 mM stock solution), and 40  $\mu$ l X-gal (2% (w/v) stock solution). Plates were incubated for at least 24 h at 37°C. White colonies were selected and re-streaked onto fresh plates containing IPTG and X-gal to verify the phenotype.

Parental pFASTBAC™DUAL (500 ng) was included as a transformation control. A negative control comprising only competent cells was also included to determine if any contamination occurred.

#### 3.2.3.3 Isolation of recombinant Bacmid DNA

The recombinant bacmid DNA was isolated by the following protocol that was developed for isolating large plasmids and adapted for isolating bacmid DNA. Three colonies confirmed as having a white phenotype on plates with IPTG and X-gal were grown in 2 ml of LB-medium containing antibiotics (50 µg/ml kanamycin; 7 µg/ml gentamycin; 10 μg/ml tetracycline) at 37°C with shaking for 24 h. After incubation, cells from 1.5 ml of each culture was collected in Eppendorf tubes by centrifugation at 13 000 rpm for 1 min. The supernatant was discarded and the bacterial pellet suspended in 300  $\mu$ l of Solution I (15 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0; 10 mM EDTA; 100 µg/ml RNAse A). Three hundred microliters (300 µl) of Solution II (0.2 N NaOH; 1% (w/v) SDS) was then added before the tubes were incubated at room temperature for 5 min. Following the very slow addition of 300 µl of 3 M potassium acetate (pH 5.5) the tubes were incubated on ice for 10 min. The white precipitate consisting of protein and *E. coli* genomic DNA was removed by centrifugation at 13 000 rpm for 10 min. The bacmid DNA was precipitated from the supernatant by the addition of 800 µl isopropanol on ice for 5 to 10 min. Precipitated bacmid DNA was collected by centrifugation at 13 000 rpm for 15 min in a Hettich centrifuge. The residual salt was removed by washing the DNA pellet with 500 µl of 70% ethanol. The pellet was air-dried for 10 min at room temperature and suspended



in 40  $\mu$  of 1x TE buffer before storage at -20°C. The DNA was analyzed on a 0.8% (w/v) agarose gel as described in section 2.2.4.

## 3.2.4 Transfection of S. frugiperda cells

Spodoptera frugiperda (Sf9) insect cells were used for the transfection and propagation of the wild-type and recombinant baculoviruses using Graces insect medium (Highveld Biological (Pty) Ltd) or SFII-900 (Life Technologies) containing 5% FCS. Cell concentrations of viable cells were determined using a haemacytometer and staining with trypan blue.

Recombinant bacmid DNA was used to transfect *S. frugiperda* cells in 35 mm wells (1x10<sup>8</sup> cells/well) of a tissue culture dish. The cells were allowed to attach at 27°C for 1 h before the addition of the transfection solution. For each transfection a transfection solution was prepared by combining solution A (5 μl of bacmid DNA in 100 μl serum free medium (SFM) without antibiotics) and solution B (6 μl CellFectin<sup>TM</sup> reagent in 100 μl SFM without antibiotics) by gentle mixing. The solutions were incubated at room temperature for 45 min before the addition of 800 μl of SFM to the lipid-DNA complexes. The attached Sf cells were washed with 2 ml of SFM before being overlaid with 1 ml of the diluted lipid-DNA complexes. The cells were incubated for 5 h at 27°C before the transfection mixtures were removed and replaced with 2 ml SFM containing antibiotics (Penicillin G sodium; streptomycin sulphate 10 mg/ml each; Fungizone 25 μg/ml in DRO water) (Highveld Biological (Pty) Ltd). The dishes were incubated at 27°C for 96 h. Virus stocks were harvested by centrifugation of cell suspensions at 2 000 rpm for 10 min in a Sorval centrifuge and the supernatants were stored at 4°C.

# 3.2.5 Titration and purification of baculovirus stocks

To obtain purified single plaques or to determine virus titer, plaque assays were performed. The Sf9 cells were seeded in 35 mm (1x10<sup>6</sup> cells/well) wells of a tissue culture dishes and allowed to attach at 27°C for 1 h. Senal dilutions of virus stocks (10<sup>-1</sup> to 10<sup>-7</sup>) were added to the Sf9 monolayers and incubated for 1 h to allow virus particles to infect the cells. The virus dilutions were removed and the cells were then overlaid



with an agarose-medium mixture (1.5% (w/v) low melting agarose in Graces medium or 1% (w/v) low melting agarose in SFII-900 medium) to keep cells stable and to limit the spread of virus. Dishes were incubated at 27°C for 4 days before the plaques were stained with 1 ml neutral red (1 mg/ml UHQ diluted 10x with medium) for 5 hours at 27°C. The Neutral red solution was subsequently removed and the dishes were incubated overnight. Single plaques were picked and subjected to three rounds of amplification before the titer of the viral stocks was determined. The recombinant baculoviruses containing the wild-type BoNT/C gene (Baculo-BoNT/C), mutant BoNT/C gene (Baculo-BoNT/MC), wild-type BoNT/D gene (Baculo-BoNT/D), and mutant BoNT/D gene (Baculo-BoNT/MD) were stored at 4°C after filter-sterilization of the viral stocks.

#### 3.2.6 Analysis of recombinant baculoviruses

## 3.2.6.1 Bacmid DNA preparation

Bacmid DNA for PCR analysis was prepared by adding 100  $\mu$ l of the virus stock to 890  $\mu$ l lysis buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.3; 100  $\mu$ g/ml gelatin; 0.45% (v/v) Triton X-100; 50 mM KCl) containing 6  $\mu$ g Proteinase K. The samples were incubated at 60°C for 1 h before the proteinase K was heat inactivated by boiling the samples at 95°C for 10 min. The bacmid DNA was subsequently precipitated at -70°C for 2 h following the addition of 2 volumes 96% ethanol and sodium acetate (pH 7.0) to a final concentration of 0.3 M. Precipitated DNA was pelleted by centrifugation at 13 000 rpm for 15 min, washed twice with 70% ethanol, dried under vacuum and resuspended in 30  $\mu$ l 1x TE buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.4; 1 mM EDTA, pH 8.0).

# 3.2.6.2 Selection of primers

Oligonucleotide primers BNTseqC4, BNTseqD4, BNTseq18, Cmut-F, and Dmut-F (Table 2.1 and 2.2) were used in a heminested PCR in order to verify the presence of the wild-type and mutant BoNT/C and BoNT/D genes in the recombinant bacmid DNA. Primers were designed according to published sequences of the type C and D genes (Kimura *et al.*, 1990; Moriishi *et al.*, 1996a). The primers used for heminested PCR on the wild-type and mutant BoNT/C gene were designed to anneal at the following positions: BNTseqC4 at nt 419 – 440, Cmut-F at nt 685 – 715, and BNTseq18 at nt 1858 – 1880. The primers used for heminested PCR on the wild-type and mutant BoNT/D genes were designed to



anneal at the following positions: BNTseqD4 at nt 391 - 412, Dmut-F at nt 685 - 714, and BNTseq18 at nt 1846 - 1868.

#### 3.2.6.3 Heminested PCR

The reaction mixtures (50  $\mu$ l) used for both PCR steps contained 5  $\mu$ l of 10x Taq DNA polymerase buffer (500 mM KCl; 100 mM Tris-HCl, pH 9.0; 1.0% Triton X-100), 1.5 mM  $MgCl_2$ , 200  $\mu M$  of each dNTP, 1 U of Taq DNA polymerase (Promega), and ultra high quality (UHQ) water. For the first PCR step, 10 pmol of each of the sense (BNTseqC4 or BNTseqD4) and anti-sense (BNTseq18) primers, and 1  $\mu$ l of recombinant bacmid DNA were used. The reaction tubes were placed in a Perkin-Elmer 2400 thermal cycler (Perkin-Elmer, Cetus, Norwalk, CT, USA). The samples were subjected to 30 of the following cycles: denaturation at 94°C for 15 s, primer annealing at 40°C for 30 s, and elongation at 72°C for 2 min. After the last cycle, the samples were kept at 72°C for 6 min to complete synthesis of all strands. The second PCR step was performed using 10 pmol of each of the sense (Cmut-F or Dmut-F) and anti-sense (BNTseq18) primers, and 1 μl of the first PCR product (diluted 1:10) as template. The cycle profile consisted of the same heat denaturation, primer annealing, and DNA extension conditions as those used for the first PCR step. A positive control consisting of plasmid DNA containing the respective genes was included during each amplification step. A control containing wildtype bacmid DNA was included to test for non-specific amplification and a negative control in which DNA was omitted was also included. The amplicons were analyzed on a 1% (w/v) agarose gel as described in section 2.2.4

# 3.2.7 Fractionation of infected S. frugiperda cells

S. frugiperda cells in 75 cm² tissue culture flasks (6 x 10° cells/flask) were infected with either Baculo-BoNT/C, Baculo-BoNT/MC, Baculo-BoNT/D, Baculo-BoNT/MD, or wild-type baculovirus at a MOI of 5 pfu/cell. The infected monolayers were incubated at 27°C for 72 h before the cells were harvested, collected by centrifugation at 3 000 rpm for 10 min in a Beckman Ultra Centrifuge and washed twice with 1x PBS. The cells were resuspended in 600 µl 10 mM STE buffer (10 mM NaCl; 1 mM EDTA; 10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.4) and incubated on ice for 10 min. Following homogenization of the cell suspension by 15 strokes with a Dounce homogenizer, the nuclei were removed by



centrifugation at 2 000 rpm for 2 min. The supernatants (S10 fractions) were collected before the addition of three protease inhibitors (0.5 mM Phenylmethylsulfonyl Fluoride (PMSF); 1  $\mu$ g/ml Leupeptin; 5  $\mu$ g/ml Aprotinin) to limit protease activity. The S10 fractions were stored at  $-20^{\circ}$ C.

# 3.2.8 SDS-PAGE analysis of proteins synthesized in infected S. frugiperda cells

The proteins synthesized in infected S. frugiperda cells were subjected to separation according to size by sodium dodecyl sulfate polyacrylamide-gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE). SDS-PAGE analysis was carried out by using a discontinuous buffer system as described by Laemmli (1970). A bipartite gel was used, comprising a high porosity stacking gel (5% (w/v) acrylamide; 0.17% (w/v) bisacrylamide; 125 mM Tris-HCl, pH 6.8; 0.1% (w/v) SDS; ammonium persulfate; tetramethylethylenediamine (TEMED)) and a low porosity separating gel (10% (w/v) acrylamide; 0.34% (w/v) bisacrylamide; 0.375 M Tris-HCl, pH 8.7; 0.1% (w/v) SDS; ammonium persulfate; TEMED). The proteins were suspended in 2x PSB (125 mM Tris-HCl, pH 6.8; 4% (w/v) SDS; 20% (v/v) glycerol; 0.002% (w/v) bromophenol blue; 10% (v/v) 2-mercaptoethanol) and boiled for 5 min before being loaded onto the gel. The gel was electrophoresed at 125 V for 2 to 3 h in 1x TGS buffer (25 mM Tris; 192 mM glysine, 1% (w/v) SDS). The gels were then stained with Coomassie brilliant blue (0.125% (w/v) Coomassie; 50% (v/v) methanol; 10% (v/v) acetic acid) for 5 min and subsequently destained with destaining solution (10% (v/v) acetic acid; 10% (v/v) methanol). The protein sizes were determined by comparison to a high-range molecular weight marker (Amersham Pharmacia Biotech).

# 3.2.9 Immunological detection of expressed proteins

# 3.2.9.1 Preparation of acetone powders and adsorption of anti-sera

Acetone powders of uninfected *S. frugiperda* cells were prepared as described by Sambrook *et al.* (1989). *S. frugiperda* cells from suspension cultures were collected by centrifugation at 6 000 rpm for 10 min. The cell pellet was suspended in ice-cold 0.1 M NaCl (at 2 ml/g wet weight) and homogenized by 15 strokes with a Dounce homogenizer. Four volumes of acetone at –20°C were added before incubation on ice for 1 h. The precipitate was collected by centrifugation at 7 500 rpm for 10 min at 4°C, resuspended in fresh acetone at –20°C, incubated on ice for 10 min and again collected



by centrifugation. The pellet was lyophilized and stored air-tight at  $-20^{\circ}$ C. Adsorption of the anti-sera against the acetone powder was performed by adding 15 mg acetone powder to 100  $\mu$ l of the anti-sera (anti-C<sub>ST</sub>(L) and anti-D<sub>1873</sub>) and incubation on ice for 30 min. After centrifugation at 7 500 rpm for 10 min at 4°C, the supernatant was retained and stored at  $-20^{\circ}$ C until use.

## 3.2.9.2 Western blot analysis

A duplicate SDS-PAGE gel was subjected to wet blotting onto a Hybond™-C super The gel and nitrocellulose nitrocellulose membrane for Western blot analysis. membrane, cut to the same size as the gel, were soaked in transfer buffer (40 mM glysine; 120 mM Tris) for 10 min before the proteins were transferred onto the membrane at 28 V, 120 mA for 2 h in a TE series Transphor Electrophoresis Unit (Hoefer Scientific Instruments) containing transfer buffer. Following transfer, the gels were recovered and stained with Coomassie Blue to determine the efficiency of the transfer process. The membranes were blocked by immersion in 1x PBS (13.7 mM NaCl; 0.27 mM KCl; 0.43 mM Na<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub>; 0.14 mM KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, pH 7.3) containing 1% (w/v) fat-free milk powder for 16 h at 4°C. Different anti-sera were diluted in fresh blocking solution before their addition to the respective membranes. Anti-C<sub>ST</sub>(L) was diluted 1:30, pre-adsorbed anti-C<sub>ST</sub>(L) was diluted 1:20, anti-D<sub>1873</sub> was diluted 1:40, and pre-adsorbed anti-D<sub>1873</sub> was diluted 1:20. Anti-C<sub>ST</sub> and anti-D<sub>SA</sub> were diluted 1:100 in fresh blocking solution. The membranes were gently agitated at room temperature for 2 h after which the unbound primary antibodies were removed by washing the membranes three times for 5 min each in wash buffer (0.05% (v/v) Tween-20 in 1x PBS). The secondary antibody (Protein A conjugated with horseradish peroxidase, diluted 1:1000 in fresh blocking solution)(Sigma Aldrich) was added to the membrane and incubated with agitation at room temperature for 1 h. The membranes were thoroughly washed as before with wash buffer (0.05% (v/v) Tween-20 in 1x PBS) before visualization of the antigen-antibody complex with peroxidase substrate (60 mg 4-chloro-1-naftol in 20 ml methanol; 60 μl hydrogen peroxide in 100 ml 1x PBS). The membranes were incubated in the substrate until the bands became visible. Positive controls consisting of purified BoNT/C and BoNT/D were included in the respective Western blots.



#### 3.3 RESULTS

# 3.3.1 Construction of donor plasmids containing the wild-type and mutant type C and D neurotoxin genes

Full-length copies of the respective neurotoxin genes were obtained by restriction enzyme digestion of recombinant pGEM®-T Easy vectors previously constructed as described in section 2.2. The BoNT/C and BoNT/MC genes were recovered with *Sall* restriction enzyme digestion from pGEM-C<sub>ST</sub> and pGEMut-C<sub>ST</sub> for cloning into *Sall*-digested pFASTBAC™DUAL vector (Fig. 3.1). The BoNT/D and BoNT/MD genes were recovered from pGEM-D<sub>SA</sub> and pGEMut-D<sub>SA</sub> by digestion with both *EcoRI* and *Sall* to allow for directional cloning into linearized pFASTBAC™DUAL vector (Fig. 3.1).

ligated with linearized The gel-purified DNA fragments were subsequently pFastBac™Dual vector (Life Technologies). Recombinant plasmids were selected according to size following a rapid one-step screening procedure. The isolated plasmid DNA was characterized by agarose and restriction enzyme analysis. Plasmid DNA migrating slower than the parental pFastBac™Dual vector were selected and digested with EcoRI and Sall to determine whether the plasmid DNA contained cloned inserts. Sall digestion of recombinant pFASTBACDUAL-CST and pFASTBACDUAL-MutCST resulted in two fragments of ca. 3.8 kb and 5.2 kb, respectively (Fig. 3.2). This corresponds with the expected size of the DNA insert and parental linearized vector. The recombinant pFastBacDual-Cst and pFastBacDual-MutCst plasmids were also digested with EcoRI to determine the orientation of the cloned inserts. EcoRI digestion resulted in two fragments of ca. 1.6 kb and 7.4 kb, respectively (Fig. 3.2). This corresponds with the The digestion of expected sizes according to partial restriction enzyme maps. recombinant pFastBacDual-Dsa and pFastBacDual-MutDsa with both EcoRI and Sall also resulted in two fragments of ca. 3.8 kb and 5.2 kb, respectively (Fig. 3.4). This corresponds with the expected size of the DNA insert and parental linearized vector (Fig. 3.3). The recombinant pFastBacDual-Dsa and pFastBacDual-MutDsa plasmids were also digested with BamHI to verify the orientation of the directionally cloned inserts. BamHI digestion resulted in two fragments of ca. 660 bp and 8.4 kb, respectively (Fig. 3.4). This corresponds with the expected sizes according to partial restriction enzyme maps (Fig. 3.3).

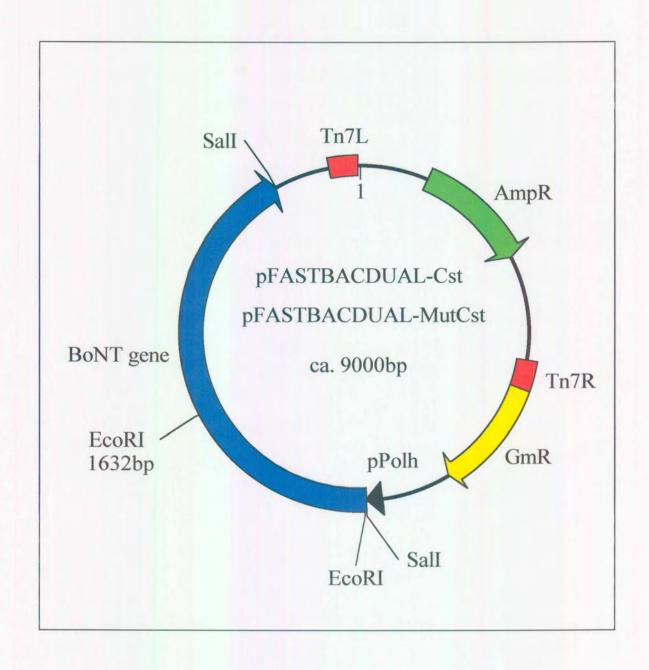
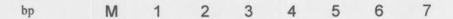


Fig. 3.1 Partial restriction enzyme map of recombinant pFASTBAC™DUAL vector containing either the BoNT/C<sub>ST</sub> or BoNT/MutC<sub>ST</sub> gene.



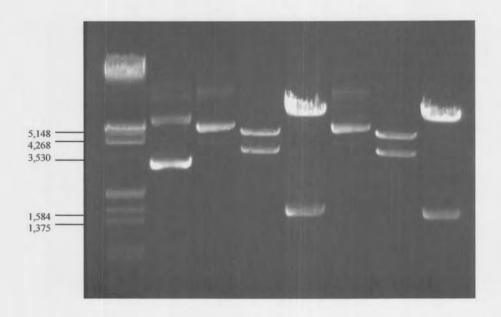


Fig. 3.2 Agarose gel electrophoretic analysis of the recombinant donor plasmids, pFASTBACDUAL-C<sub>ST</sub> and pFASTBACDUAL-MutC<sub>ST</sub>, constructed by cloning of the respective BoNT DNA fragments into linearized pFASTBAC™DUAL vector. Lanes: M, λ DNA/EcoRI + HindIII Marker; 1, Uncut non-recombinant pFASTBAC™DUAL vector; 2, Uncut vector pFASTBACDUAL-C<sub>ST</sub>; 3, Sall-digested pFASTBACDUAL-C<sub>ST</sub> vector; 4, EcoRI-digested pFASTBACDUAL-C<sub>ST</sub> vector; 5, Uncut pFASTBACDUAL-MutC<sub>ST</sub> vector; 6, Sall-digested pFASTBACDUAL-MutC<sub>ST</sub> vector; 7, EcoRI-digested pFASTBACDUAL-MutC<sub>ST</sub>

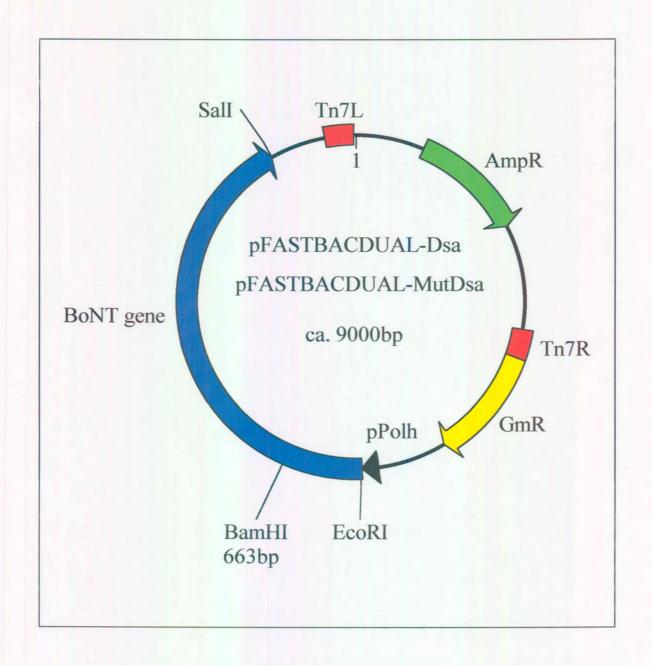


Fig. 3.3 Partial restriction enzyme map of recombinant pFASTBAC™DUAL vector containing either the BoNT/D<sub>SA</sub> or BoNT/MutD<sub>SA</sub> gene.

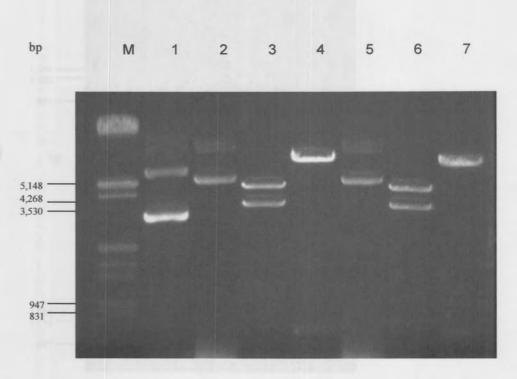


Fig. 3.4 Agarose gel electrophoretic analysis of the recombinant donor plasmids, pFASTBACDUAL-D<sub>SA</sub>, and pFASTBACDUAL-MutD<sub>SA</sub> constructed by cloning of the respective BoNT DNA fragments into linearized pFASTBAC™DUAL vector. Lanes: M, λ DNA/EcoRI + HindIII Marker; 1, Uncut non-recombinant pFASTBAC™DUAL vector; 2, Uncut vector pFASTBACDUAL-D<sub>SA</sub>; 3, Sall and EcoRI-digested pFASTBACDUAL-D<sub>SA</sub> vector; 4, BamHI-digested pFASTBACDUAL-D<sub>SA</sub> vector; 5, Uncut pFASTBACDUAL-MutD<sub>SA</sub> vector; 6, Sall and EcoRI-digested pFASTBACDUAL-MutD<sub>SA</sub> vector; 7, BamHI-digested pFASTBACDUAL-MutD<sub>SA</sub>.



#### 3.3.2 Construction of recombinant baculoviruses

Recombinant plasmid DNA containing the respective wild-type and mutant neurotoxin genes were selected as donor plasmids for transposition to the target bacmid DNA in *E. coli* DH10Bac<sup>TM</sup>. The bacmid DNA contained in *E. coli* DH10Bac<sup>TM</sup>, propagates as a large plasmid that confers resistance to kanamycin and it can complement a *lacZ* deletion present on the *E. coli* chromosome to form colonies that are blue in the presence of X-gal and the inducer IPTG. Insertion of the mini-Tn7 from the donor plasmid into the mini-attTn7 attachment site on the bacmid disrupts expression of the lacZα peptide, so colonies containing the recombinant bacmid are white in a background of blue colonies that harbor the unaltered bacmid. This allowed for the phenotypic selection of recombinant bacmid DNA.

Recombinant bacmid DNA was isolated from *E. coli* DH10Bac™ cells and transfected into insect cells using CELLFECTIN™ Reagent (Life Technologies). Following two rounds of amplification in monolayer cultures, recombinant viruses were plaque-purified and subjected to a further three rounds of amplification in monolayer cultures. The viral titers were determined by plaque assays and these were typically ca. 5.5 x 10<sup>7</sup> pfu/ml.

The presence of BoNT genes in the baculovirus genome was verified by a heminested PCR approach. A discreet band of 1.4 kb was observed for the first PCR step following agarose gel electrophoresis (Fig. 3.5(A) and Fig. 3.6(A)). This corresponds with the distance between the annealing sites of the sense primers (BNTseqC4 or BNTseqD4) and anti-sense primer (BNTseq18) on the type C and D genes, respectively. The obtained amplicons were diluted and used as template in the second PCR step. A discreet band of 1.2 kb was observed following agarose gel electrophoresis (Fig. 3.5(B) and Fig. 3.6(B)). This corresponds with the distance between the annealing sites of the internal sense primers (Cmut-F or Dmut-F) and anti-sense primer (BNTseq18) on the type C and D genes, respectively. In both rounds of PCR, amplicons of expected sizes were observed for the positive control consisting of pGEM<sup>®</sup>-T Easy vectors containing the respective genes. No amplification products were observed in the control in which wild-type bacmid DNA was used as well as the control in which template DNA was omitted.

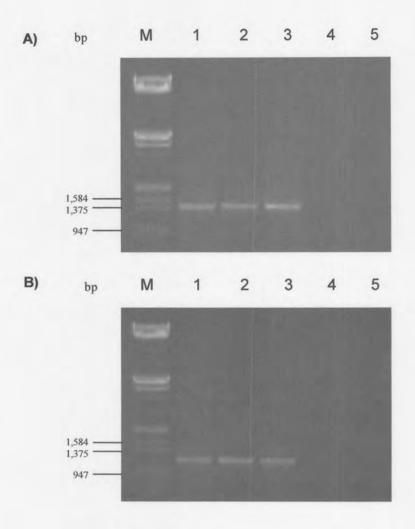


Fig. 3.5 Agarose gel electrophoresis of amplicons obtained by heminested PCR for verification of the presence of BoNT/C and BoNT/MC genes in the recombinant Bacmid DNA. The first PCR step (A) was performed with primer set 1 (BNTseqC4 and BNTseq18) using recombinant bacmid DNA as template. Lanes: M, λ DNA/EcoRI + HindIII Marker; 1, Baculo-BoNT/C bacmid DNA; 2, Baculo-BoNT/MC bacmid DNA; 3, pGEM-CsT plasmid; 4, Wild-type Bacmid DNA control; 5, Water negative control. The second PCR step (B) was performed with primer set 2 (Cmut-F and BNTseq18) using the respective amplicons obtained in the first PCR step as template. Lanes: M, λ DNA/EcoRI + HindIII Marker; 1, Baculo-BoNT/C amplicon; 2, Baculo-BoNT/MC amplicon; 3, pGEM-CsT amplicon; 4, Wild-type Bacmid DNA control; 5, Water negative control.

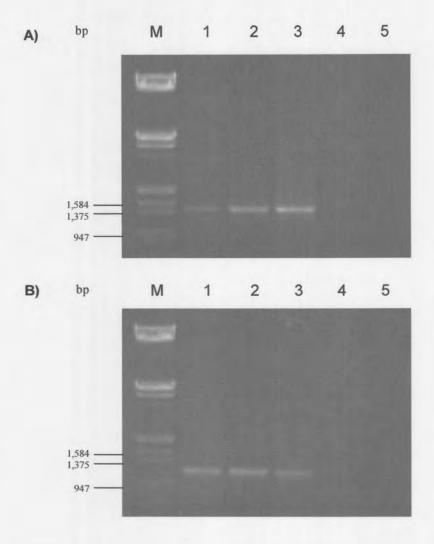


Fig. 3.6 Agarose gel electrophoresis of amplicons obtained by heminested PCR for verification of the presence of BoNT/D and BoNT/MD genes in the recombinant Bacmid DNA. The first PCR step (A) was performed with primer set 1 (BNTseqD4 and BNTseq18) using recombinant bacmid DNA as template. Lanes: M, λ DNA/EcoRI + HindIII Marker; 1, Baculo-BoNT/D bacmid DNA; 2, Baculo-BoNT/MD bacmid DNA; 3, pGEM-D<sub>SA</sub> plasmid; 4, Wild-type Bacmid DNA control; 5, Water negative control. The second PCR step (B) was performed with primer set 2 (Dmut-F and BNTseq18) using the respective amplicons obtained in the first step as template. Lanes: M, λ DNA/EcoRI + HindIII Marker; 1, Baculo-BoNT/D amplicon; 2, Baculo-BoNT/MD amplicon; 3, pGEM-D<sub>SA</sub> amplicon; 4, Wild-type Bacmid DNA control; 5, Water negative control.



# 3.3.3 Analysis of proteins synthesized in infected S. frugiperda cells

Cytoplasmic extracts of mock- and baculovirus-infected *S. frugiperda* cells were subjected to SDS-PAGE analysis under reducing conditions in the presence of 2-mercaptoethanol. Analysis of the Coomassie-stained gels (Fig. 3.7) indicated that no unique proteins could be observed in the recombinant baculovirus-infected cells compared to the mock- or wild-type infected cells.

Western blot analysis of cell extracts prepared from *S. frugiperda* cells infected with Baculo-BoNT/C or Baculo-BoNT/MC was performed using anti-C<sub>ST</sub> and anti-C<sub>ST</sub>(L) sera, respectively. The anti-C<sub>ST</sub> serum was prepared against full-length BoNT/C<sub>ST</sub>, while the anti-C<sub>ST</sub>(L) serum was prepared against only the light chain of the type C<sub>ST</sub> toxin (Oguma et al., 1980). Western blot analysis performed using anti-C<sub>ST</sub> serum indicated the presence of immunoreactive material migrating at positions of 150 kDa, 100 kDa, and 50 kDa in extracts prepared from wild-type baculovirus-infected *S. frugiperda* cells (Fig 3.8(A)). These non-specific bands migrated at the same positions as bands observed for the purified type C toxin (150 kDa) as well as the heavy (100 kDa) and light (50 kDa) chains of the reduced purified type C toxin, respectively. The immunoreactive material migrating at the position of the heavy chain was also detected in extracts prepared from *S. frugiperda* cells infected with Baculo-BoNT/C or Baculo-BoNT/MC. However, no specific immunoreactive material was detected and several non-specific background bands were observed.

Western blot analysis performed with anti- $C_{ST}(L)$  serum indicated immunoreactive material migrating at a position of ca. 60 kDa in extracts prepared from *S. frugiperda* cells infected with Baculo-BoNT/C (Fig 3.8(B)). Immunoreactive material migrating at a position greater than 69 kDa was demonstrated for extracts prepared from *S. frugiperda* cells infected with Baculo-BoNT/MC. The immunoreactive band may correspond to the toxin light chain. The cell extracts prepared from the wild-type baculovirus-infected and mock-infected *S. frugiperda* cells did not exhibit these bands. However, several non-specific bands were observed. Anti- $C_{ST}(L)$  also cross-reacted with the heavy chain of the reduced purified type C toxin. A non-specific immunoreactive band migrating at the same position as the heavy chain (100 kDa) was observed for all the cell extracts.



Western blot analysis of cell extracts prepared from *S. frugiperda* cells infected with Baculo-BoNT/D or Baculo-BoNT/MD was performed using both anti-D<sub>SA</sub> and anti-D<sub>1873</sub> sera. The anti-D<sub>SA</sub> serum was prepared against full-length BoNT/D<sub>SA</sub>, while the anti-D<sub>1873</sub> serum was prepared against full-length BoNT/D<sub>1873</sub> (Oguma *et al.*, 1981). Western blot analysis performed using anti-D<sub>SA</sub> serum indicated immunoreactive material migrating at the same position as the heavy chain (100 kDa) in extracts prepared from *S. frugiperda* cells infected with Baculo-BoNT/D and Baculo-BoNT/MD (Fig. 3.9(A)). However, this band was also present in the mock- infected cells. No specific immunoreactive material was detected in extracts prepared from *S. frugiperda* cells infected with Baculo-BoNT/D or Baculo-BoNT/MD.

Western blot analysis performed using anti-D<sub>1873</sub> serum indicated no specific immunoreactive material in extracts prepared from *S. frugiperda* cells infected with Baculo-BoNT/D or Baculo-BoNT/MD (Fig. 3.9(B)). Anti-D<sub>1873</sub> serum cross-reacted with the light and heavy chains of the reduced purified type D<sub>SA</sub> toxin. Several non-specific bands migrating at a position of between 55 kDa and 80 kDa were observed for all the samples. Pre-adsorped anti-sera were used in order to eliminate the non-specific background. However, results obtained with the pre-adsorbed anti-sera were the same as that for the normal anti-sera (results not shown).

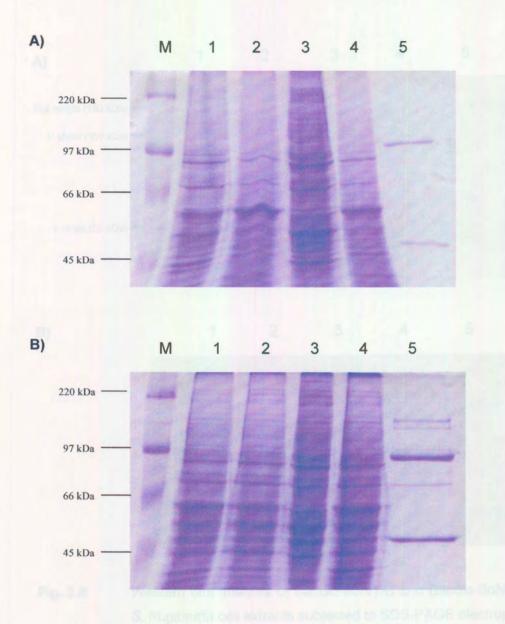


Fig. 3.7 SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis of recombinant baculovirusinfected *S. frugiperda* cells under reducing conditions in the presence of
2-mercaptoethanol. (A) Lanes: M, MW Marker; 1, Baculo-BoNT/C
infected cells; 2, Baculo-BoNT/MC infected cells; 3, Mock infected cells;
4, Wild-type baculovirus infected cells; 5, Purified BoNT/C<sub>ST</sub>. (B) Lanes:
M, MW Marker; 1, Baculo-BoNT/D infected cells; 2, Baculo-BoNT/MD
infected cells; 3, Mock infected cells; 4, Wild-type baculovirus infected
cells; 5, Purified BoNT/D<sub>SA</sub>.

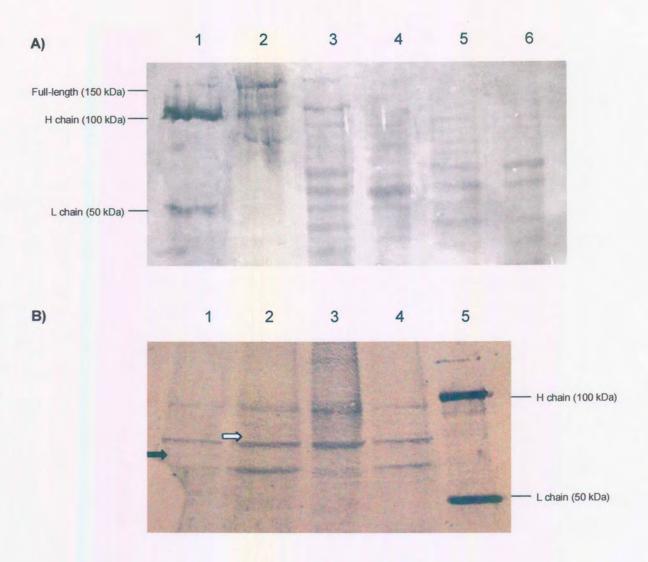


Fig. 3.8 Western blot analysis of Baculo-BoNT/C and Baculo-BoNT/MC infected *S. frugiperda* cell extracts subjected to SDS-PAGE electrophoresis under reducing conditions in the presence of 2-mercaptoethanol. (A) Analysis performed with anti-C<sub>ST</sub>. Lanes: 1, Reduced purified BoNT/C<sub>ST</sub>; 2, Non-reduced purified BoNT/C<sub>ST</sub>; 3, Wild-type baculovirus infected cells; 4, Mock infected cells; 5, Baculo-BoNT/C infected cells; 6, Baculo-BoNT/MC infected cells. (B) Analysis performed with anti-C<sub>ST</sub>(L). Lanes: 1, Baculo-BoNT/C infected cells; 2, Baculo-BoNT/MC infected cells; 3, Mock infected cells; 4, Wild-type baculovirus infected cells; 5, Reduced purified BoNT/C<sub>ST</sub>. Specific immunoreactive material for Baculo-BoNT/C- and Baculo-BoNT/MC-infected cells are indicated by closed and opened arrows, respectively.

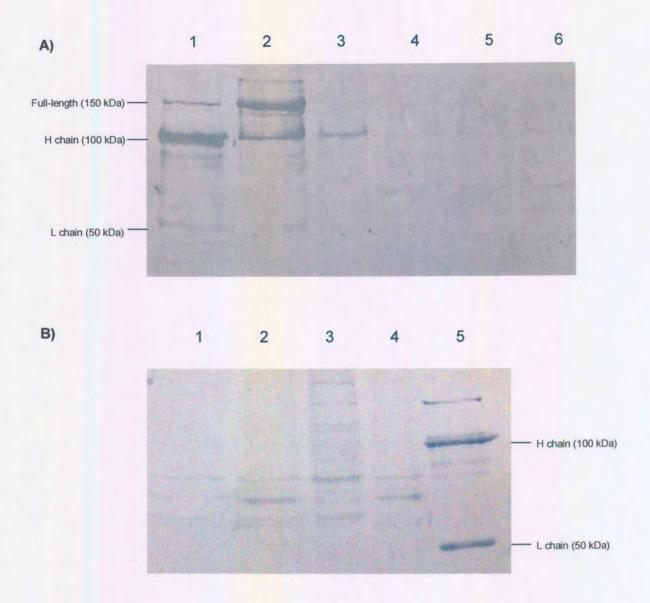


Fig. 3.9 Western blot analysis of Baculo-BoNT/D and Baculo-BoNT/MD infected *S. frugiperda* cell extracts subjected to SDS-PAGE electrophoresis under reducing conditions in the presence of 2-mercaptoethanol. (A) Analysis performed with anti-D<sub>SA</sub>. Lanes: 1, Reduced purified BoNT/D<sub>SA</sub>; 2, Non-reduced purified BoNT/D<sub>SA</sub>; 3, Baculo-BoNT/MD infected cells; 4, Baculo-BoNT/D infected cells; 5, Wild-type baculovirus infected cells; 6, Mock infected cells. (B) Analysis performed with anti-D<sub>1873</sub>. Lanes: 1, Baculo-BoNT/D infected cells; 2, Baculo-BoNT/MD infected cells; 3, Mock infected cells; 4, Wild-type baculovirus infected cells; 5, Reduced purified BoNT/D<sub>SA</sub>.



#### 3.4 DISCUSSION

The past decade has seen various attempts to express the botulinum neurotoxin genes in several different expression systems. The baculovirus expression system has gained widespread use for the production of a wide variety of heterologous proteins (O'Reilly *et al.*, 1992 and references therein). In this chapter the expression of the full-length wild-type and mutant BoNT/C<sub>ST</sub> and BoNT/D<sub>SA</sub> genes in *S. frugiperda* cells using the BAC-to-BAC<sup>TM</sup> baculovirus system was investigated for its usefulness as an alternative expression system for botulinum neurotoxin genes.

The wild-type and mutant full-length botulinum neurotoxin genes were cloned into the baculovirus transfer vector pFastBac™DuaL and used for transposition of the genes into the bacmid DNA following transformation of vendor-supplied *E. coli* DH10Bac™ cells. Recombinant bacmids are constructed by transposition of a mini-Tn7 element from the pFastBac™DuaL donor plasmid to the mini-attTn7 attachment site on the bacmid. The Tn7 transposition functions are provided in trans by a helper plasmid (pMON7124) present in the DH10Bac™ cells. The mini-Tn7 contains an expression cassette consisting of a GmR gene, a baculovirus specific promoter, a multiple cloning site and an SV40 poly(A) signal inserted between the left and right arms of Tn7. The recombinant bacmid DNA was isolated from small scale E. coli DH10Bac™ cultures and used to transfect S. frugiperda cells. This DNA-transfection procedure makes use of a synthetic cationic lipid (CELLFECTIN™ reagent) that interacts spontaneously with DNA to form a lipid-DNA complex with complete entrapment of the DNA. This complex fuses with the cell membrane to facilitate the efficient delivery of its contents to the interior of the cell. Viral stocks harvested from the transfected cells were used to infect S. frugiperda cells following amplification of the viruses through two stages of amplification in monolayer cultures, recombinant viruses were plaque purified and subjected to a further three stages of amplification in monolayer cultures. Viral titers of ca. 5.5 x 10<sup>7</sup> pfu/ml were typically obtained.

The recombinant nature of the resultant baculoviruses was verified using a heminested PCR approach. The primers used were designed according to published sequences (Kimura et al., 1990; Moriishi at al., 1996a) and were previously used in mutagenesis and sequencing procedures (Chapter 2). Amplicons of the expected sizes of 1.4 kb and



1.2 kb were observed for the respective PCR steps. This approach is based on the assumption that any non-specific amplicons produced during the first PCR step should not be able to function as target DNA during the second PCR step due to a lack of complementarity with the inner primer sequence. The internal sense primers (Cmut-F and Dmut-F) used in this study anneal at a position ca. 250 bp from the original sense primers (BNTseqC4 or BNTseqD4) and resulted in the amplification of a 1.2 kb amplicon.

S. frugiperda cells were infected with recombinant and wild-type baculovirus at a MOI of 5 pfu/cell. Fractionated cell extracts were subjected to SDS-PAGE analysis under reducing conditions. Protein samples were first denatured by heating in the presence of a reducing agent and the strong anionic detergent, SDS. The denatured proteins bind SDS and acquire a negative charge. The amount of SDS bound is proportional to the molecular weight of the protein but independent of its amino acid sequence, and thus migration of the SDS-polypeptide complex during electrophoresis is dependent on the size of the polypeptide. However, post-translational modification of a protein, such as glycosylation or phosphorylation may affect its migration, so that the apparent molecular weight is not necessarily a true reflection of the mass of a polypeptide (O'Reilly et al., 1992). During this study, unique protein bands corresponding to the size of the neurotoxins could not be seen in Coomassie brilliant blue-stained gels. These results correspond with those obtained for the expression of botulinum neurotoxin genes in E. coli (Clayton et al., 1995; Kiyatkin et al., 1997).

The botulinum neurotoxins are synthesized as 150 kDa single-chain polypeptides that are proteolytically cleaved to generate di-chain neurotoxins composed of a heavy chain (H, 100 kDa) and a light chain (L, 50 kDa) bridged by a disulfide bond. The disulfide bond can be reduced by 2-marcaptoethanol to result in the dissociation of the botulinum neurotoxins into a heavy and light chain (Oguma *et al.*, 1981; Ochanda *et al.*, 1984; Moriishi *et al.*, 1989). The anti-sera used for the immunoblot detection of the expressed BoNT/CsT and BoNT/MutCsT were prepared against the L chain of BoNT/CsT (anti-CsT(L) (Oguma *et al.*, 1980) and full-length BoNT/CsT (anti-CsT) (C. Ellis), respectively. During this study, anti-CsT(L) cross-reacted with the H chain of reduced BoNT/CsT and it is therefore evident that these two chains share common epitopes. The anti-sera used for the detection of the expressed BoNT/DsA and BoNT/MutDsA were prepared against full-



length BoNT/D<sub>1873</sub> (anti-D<sub>1873</sub>)(Oguma *et al.*, 1981) and full-length BoNT/D<sub>SA</sub> (anti-D<sub>SA</sub>)(C. Ellis). The anti-D<sub>1873</sub> has been shown to cross-neutralize the type D<sub>SA</sub> neurotoxin (Oguma *et al.*, 1981). The type D botulinum neurotoxins display a 96% amino acid homology in their N-terminal regions, 92% amino acid homology in their core regions, and a 30% amino acid homology for their C-terminal regions (Moriishi *et al.*, 1996a).

Western blot analysis of the Baculo-BoNT/C- and Baculo-BoNT/MC- infected *S. frugiperda* cells extracts indicated immunoreactive material migrating at a position that may correspond to the type C toxin light chain. Immunoreactive material migrating at ca. 60 kDa and 69 kDa was detected in fractions of *S. frugiperda* cells infected with Baculo-BoNT/C and Baculo-BoNT/MC, respectively. The difference in migration between the immunoreactive material of BoNT/C<sub>ST</sub> and BoNT/MutC<sub>ST</sub> may be due to the amino acid substitutions made in the L chain in order to obtain the mutant forms of the wild-type gene. However, immunoreactive material migrating at a position of ca. 60 kDa is inconsistent with observations for the L chain from native BoNT/C<sub>ST</sub> migrating at ca. 50 kDa. However, post-translational modifications (e.g. glycosylation or phosphorylation) performed in the eukaryotic environment of the baculovirus expression system has been shown to affect a proteins migration (O'Reilly *et al.*, 1992). These bands were not present in the fractions from the wild-type baculovirus-infected and mock-infected *S. frugiperda* cells.

The Western blot analysis of the Baculo-BoNT/D- and Baculo-BoNT/MD- infected *S. frugiperda* cells were inconclusive due to the high amount of background bands. No specific immunoreactive material was detected for fractions of *S. frugiperda* cells infected with Baculo-BoNT/D or Baculo-BoNT/MD. Pre-adsorbed anti-sera were used in order to eliminate background bands. However, results obtained were similar to those for normal anti-sera. Further serological-based methods (e.g. ELISA and mouse bioassays) will have to be employed in order to prove without doubt the expression of the botulinum neurotoxin genes.

The successful expression of the respective botulinum neurotoxin genes in BAC-to-BAC<sup>TM</sup> baculovirus system would have allowed for the evaluation of these expressed proteins as recombinant botulinum vaccine candidates. However, the baculovirus expression system does not seem to be a suitable alternative for the expression of



botulinum neurotoxin genes. Other expression systems or strategies (e.g. low G+C content gram-positive organisms) should be investigated in order to achieve higher levels of expression. Some of these options will be discussed in the following concluding chapter.



## **CHAPTER 4**

# **CONCLUDING REMARKS**

The need for immunization agents quickly became apparent once the economic importance of botulism in livestock was realized. The botulinum vaccine currently in use in South Africa rely on problematic anaerobic cultivation of the *Clostridium* bacterium followed by isolation, purification and inactivation of the toxin by treatment with formalin. In contrast, recombinant biotechnology may facilitate the development of a cheaper and more efficacious botulinum vaccine. Over the past decade several advances has been made in the development of new generation recombinant botulinum vaccines. In this study, the full-length genes encoding the type C and D botulinum neurotoxins were amplified, cloned, mutated with PCR-based site-directed mutagenesis, sequenced, and finally expressed in the BAC-TO-BAC<sup>TM</sup> baculovirus expression system.

The relationship between toxicogenicity and bacteriophage presence in type C and D cultures has long been established (Inoue and Iida, 1968; Eklund et al., 1971) and it has been confirmed that type C and D phages carry the structural genes for the respective neurotoxins (Fujii et al., 1988). During this study, the presence of these bacteriophages in the C. botulinum cultures was verified by transmission electron microscopy. Isolated bacteriophage DNA was used as template for the amplification of the full-length genes by PCR amplification using a long-range enzyme developed for long and accurate amplification. The gel-purified PCR amplicons were cloned into the pGEM®-T Easy vector (Promega) and the integrity of the cloned full-length botulinum neurotoxin genes was determined by automated sequencing. The nucleotide sequences of the full-length genes were compared to the published sequences for the respective genes and homologies of 99.8% (BoNT/ $C_{ST}$ ) and 99.7% (BoNT/ $D_{SA}$ ) were observed. Deduced amino acid sequences showed an open reading frame without fortuitous termination signals. This is the first report on the direct amplification of the full-length botulinum neurotoxin genes as other approaches have relied on the reconstruction of these genes with PCR fragments generated from culture supernatants and phage DNA libraries (Kimura et al., 1990; Monishi et al., 1996a,b).



The cloned full-length wild-type neurotoxin genes were used as template DNA in a PCR-based site-directed mutagenesis procedure. Mutations were generated in the zinc-binding motif (His-Glu-aa-aa-His) located in the central region of the light chain sub-unit by an inverse PCR approach. A pair of inverted tail-to-tail primers was designed according to the site of the desired mutation and was subsequently used to amplify the entire double-stranded plasmid containing the cloned gene. An unique Kpnl restriction site was incorporated into the 5' ends of both the primers to introduce base pair substitutions and thus resulting in mutation of two of the three targeted amino acids. Sequence analysis of the mutant site indicated that the amino acids in the zinc-binding motif (His-Glu-aa-aa-His) were substituted with three different amino acid residues (Gly-Thr-aa-aa-Asn). The rational for this approach was based on a previous report indicating that the substitution of the three amino acids essential for zinc-binding resulted in the complete detoxification of a modified recombinant type C toxin (Kityatkin et al., 1997). This recombinant mutant protein lacked toxicity in vivo, failed to block neuromuscular transmission in vitro and had no ability to cleave syntaxin in a broken-cell assay. The non-toxic mutant type C toxin retained the ability to translocate from the gut to the general circulation and to evoke protective antibodies (Kityatkin et al., 1997). The development of such a non-toxic botulinum neurotoxin vaccine candidate will eliminate the need for laborious and time-consuming toxoiding Furthermore, the obtained non-toxic material can be produced without highprocedures. containment facilities.

The wild-type and mutant full-length botulinum neurotoxin genes were subsequently cloned into the baculovirus transfer vector pFASTBAC™DUAL and used for transposition of genes into bacmid DNA contained in *E. coli* DH10Bac™ cells. The recombinant bacmid DNA was isolated from *E. coli* DH10Bac™ cultures and transfected into *S. frugiperda* cells. Recombinant viruses were amplified, plaque-purified and subjected to a further three rounds of amplification in monolayer cultures. The presence of the botulinum neurotoxin genes within the bacmid DNA of the recombinant baculoviruses was verified using a semi-nested PCR approach. *S. frugiperda* cells were subsequently infected with the recombinant and wild-type baculoviruses. Cytoplasmic extracts of infected *S. frugiperda* cell lysates were subjected to SDS-PAGE analysis under reducing conditions. Although, no unique proteins corresponding to the size of the botulinum neurotoxins could be observed in Coomassie brilliant blue-stained gels, Western blot analysis, indicated the presence of immunoreactive material for wild-type and mutant type C neurotoxin. This material migrated at a position that may correspond to the type C toxin light chain. The cell extracts prepared from the wild-type baculovirus-infected and mock-infected *S.* 



frugiperda cells did not exhibit these bands. The Western blot analysis of the Baculo-BoNT/D-and Baculo-BoNT/MD- infected *S. frugiperda* cells were inconclusive due to the high amount of background bands. Other serological methods (e.g. ELISA or mouse bioassays) should be used to determine if the botulinum neurotoxins were successfully expressed.

The successful high level expression of the type C and D botulinum neurotoxin is necessary for further studies to evaluate the effectiveness of the introduced mutation for the inactivation of the neurotoxins as well as to evaluate the potential of the expressed proteins as recombinant vaccine candidates. The baculovirus expression system does not seem to be an adequate alternative for the expression of botulinum neurotoxin genes. Other expression systems such as *E. coli* and the low G+C content gram-positive organisms (e.g. *Bacillus*) should be investigated in order to obtain higher expression levels.

E. coli expression offers a low cost alternative, despite variable results obtained for the expression of BoNT genes in this system. The expression of botulinum neurotoxin genes in E. coli has been a challenge because of codon bias of these extremely AT-rich (ca. 73%) genes (LePenotiere et al., 1995). In order to overcome low expression levels in E. coli, a synthetic BoNT/A(Hc) gene fragment was constructed by taking into account the single codon preferences of E. coli. Rare codons have been shown to greatly diminish expression levels of recombinant protein in E. coli because of translational stalling (Kane, 1995; Kurland and Gallant, 1996). An alternative to increase expression levels is the co-transfection of E. coli with a plasmid carrying the gene for the rare codon's cognate tRNA. The "RIG" plasmid contains the genes that encode the three tRNAs (Arg, Ile, Gly) which recognize the codons rarely used by E. coli in highly expressed genes. This plasmid has previously been used for the successful highlevel expression of AT-rich Plasmodium genes (Baca and Hol, 2000). Codon frequency analysis (Nakamura et al., 1998) showed that 8.2% of the codons encoded in the Plasmodium falciparum genome are in fact codons which are rarely used in E. coli. These codons are the rare aga/agg codons for Arg, ata for Ile, and gga for Gly. Similarly, codon frequency analysis (this study) showed that 10.8% (BoNT/Cst) and 9.3% (BoNT/DsA) of the codons used in these neurotoxin genes are rarely recognised in E. coli. The "RIG" plasmid may be applicable for the overexpression of the AT-rich botulinum neurotoxin genes.

E. coli is not considered an ideal host for the expression of vaccine candidates due to toxic cell wall pyrogens. However, these pyrogens should not pose a serious problem if recombinant



botulinum proteins are expressed at high levels. Recombinant botulinum neurotoxin proteins are highly efficacious immunogens (Clayton *et al.*, 1995; Kiyatkin *et al.*, 1997; Smith, 1988) and only a low dose is required to elicit protective immunity against challenges of native toxin as high as 10<sup>6</sup> LD<sub>50</sub> (Smith, 1998). Furthermore, the simplicity and low cost of the *E. coli* expression system allows for additional purification steps in order to remove toxic cell wall pyrogens, if necessary.

In conclusion, I remain convinced that recombinant biotechnology may provide solutions to problems regarding botulinum vaccine production and facilitate the development of a low cost efficacious botulinum vaccine. However, it is imperative that solutions to low expression levels and neurotoxin instability are sought and found, before recombinant botulinum vaccines will become a reality.



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