Viruses

If you had DNA and RNA but could not make more copies of it and

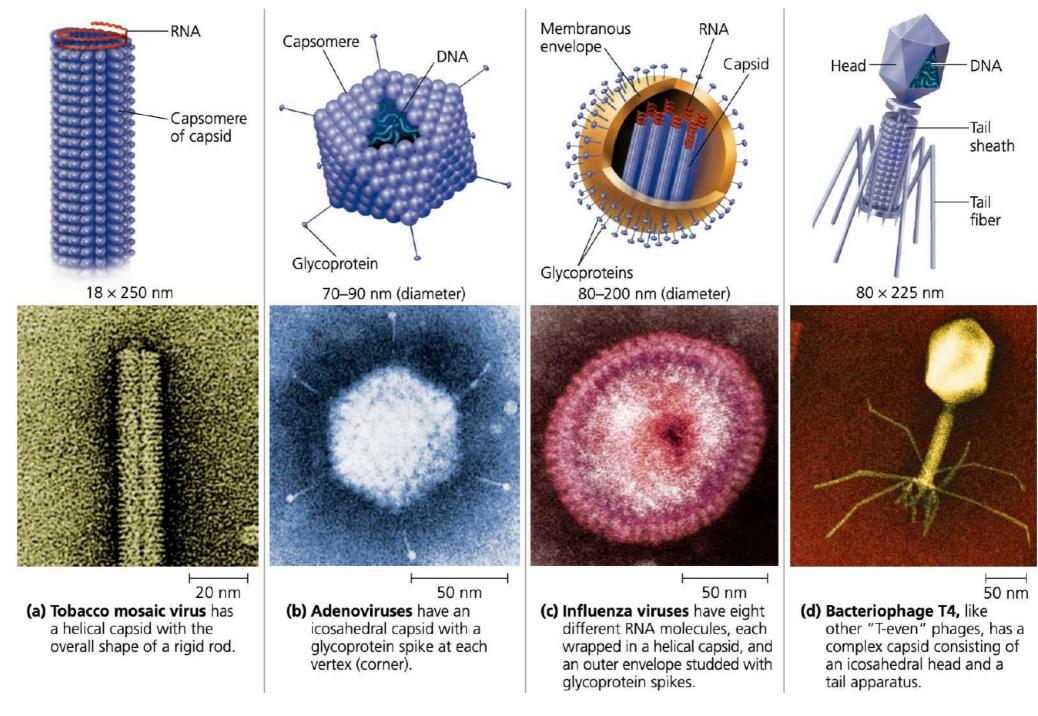
if your DNA and RNA codes for proteins but

you cannot synthesize these encoded proteins

Are you "alive"?

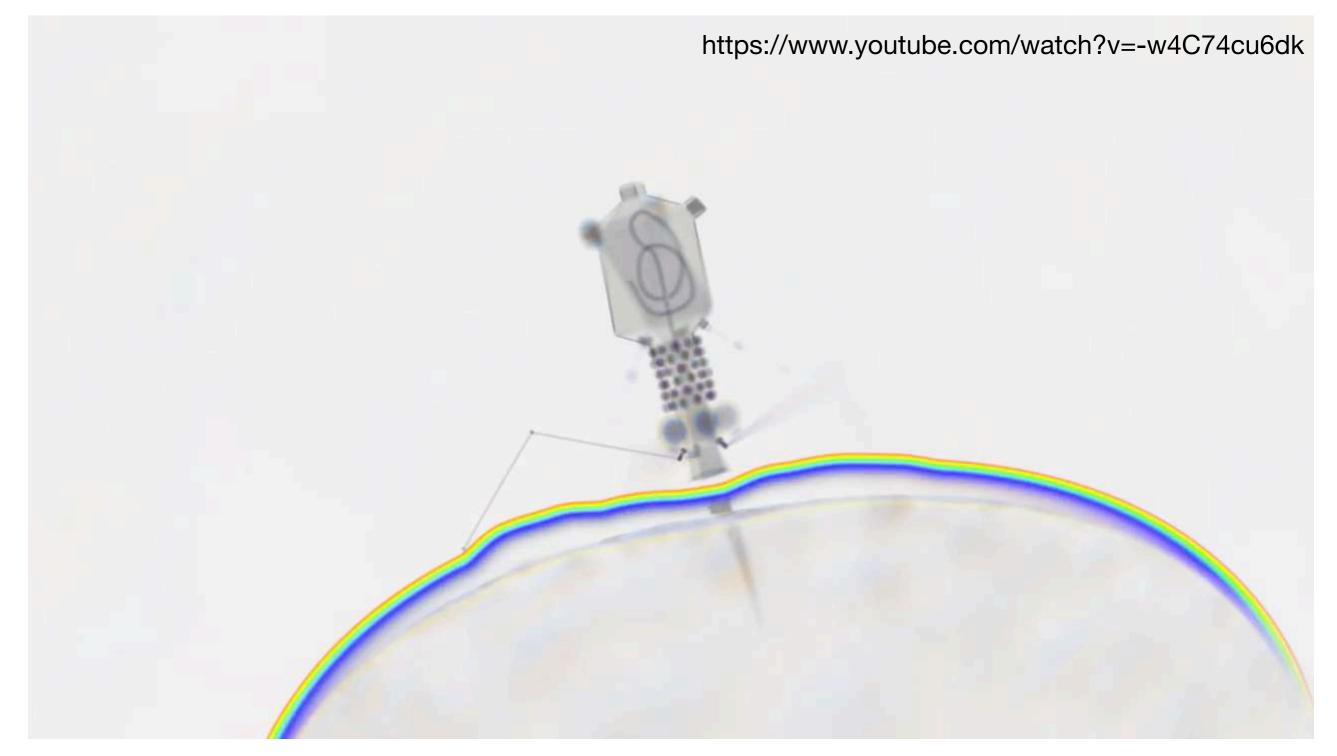
BB101-Spring 2024-2025-Lecture 07

Viruses



- Viruses contain genetic information as DNA or RNA, which is made into proteins by the machinery of the host cell
- If viruses require a host cell to come into existence, which came first, the virus or the host cell?
- · Viruses infect ALL life forms: bacteria, plants, animals

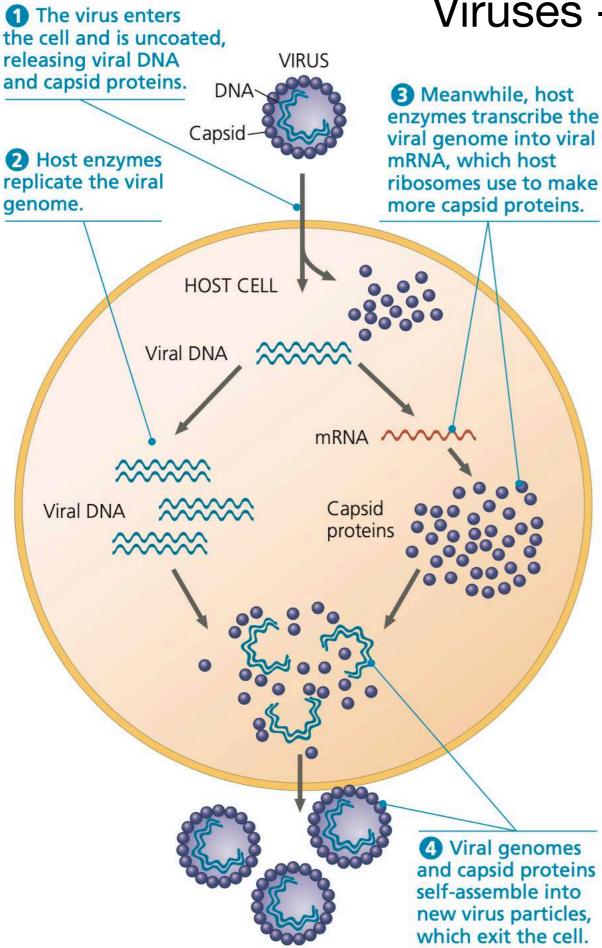
Viruses



The video above is a schematised movie of the infection and lysis process. It is depicted in in a very broad manner to convey the general idea

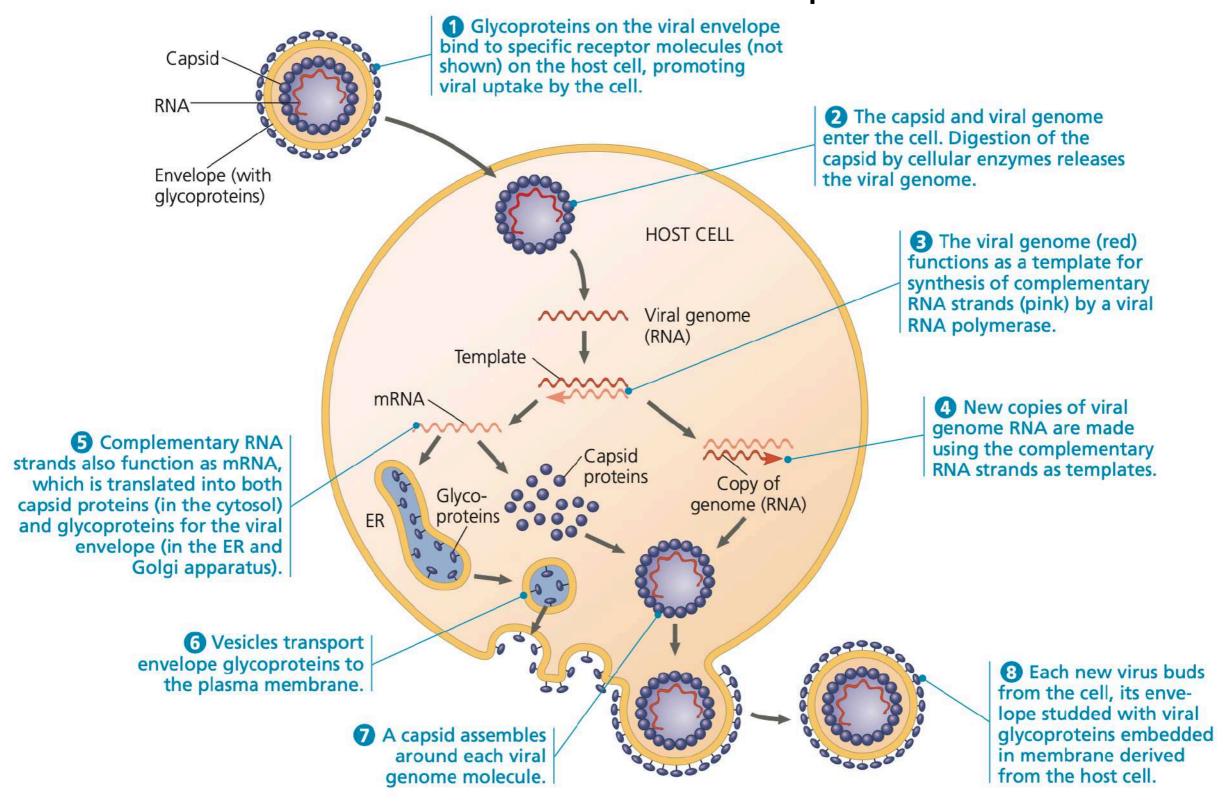
This same process happens when a virus infects any host cell, regardless of whether it is a bacterial, plant or human cell

Viruses - no envelope



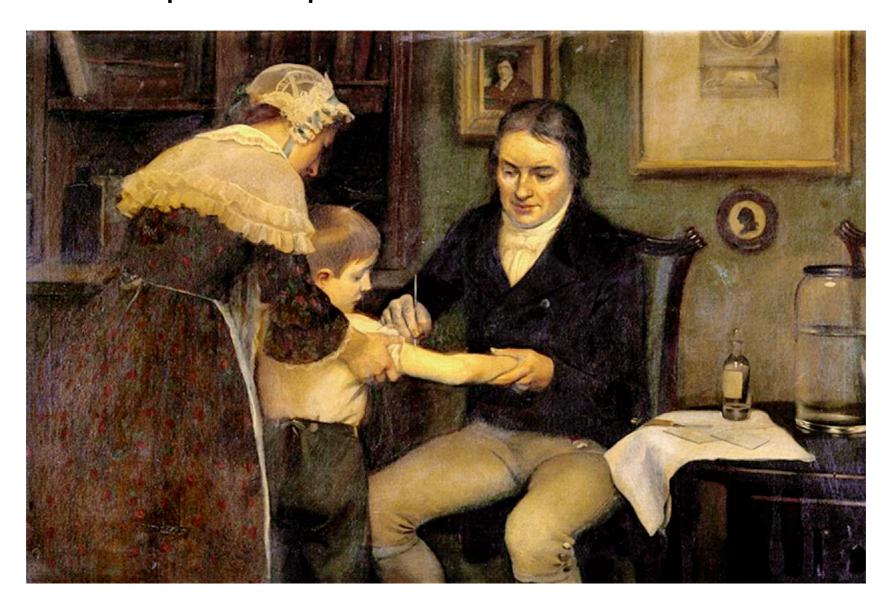
- To make more copies of itself, a virus particle known as a virion, has to enter a cell in which the machinery for genetic material replication and protein synthesis are functional.
- After it "hijacks" the host machinery and duplicates its genetic material, it uses the host machinery to package its genetic material.
- Then it ruptures the host cell and escapes into the host body, to find other cells into which it will enter and repeat the whole process.
- Viruses infect all life forms, but each type of virus can infect only a specific species of animal or a cell type in that animal.
- Excessive intrusion of humans into wild-life environments has caused an increase in the ability of viruses to cross species barriers.

Viruses - with envelope

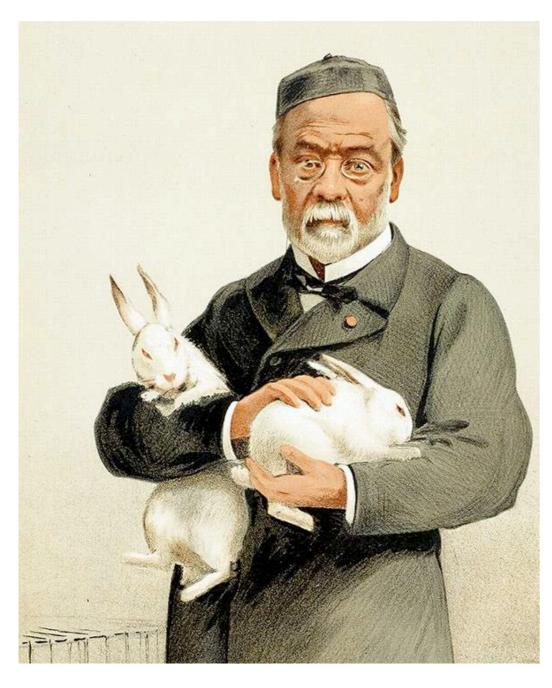


Genetic information in viruses can be DNA or RNA DNA or RNA can be double or single stranded

Prior infection with a milder variant provides immunity against subsequent exposure to more virulent strains

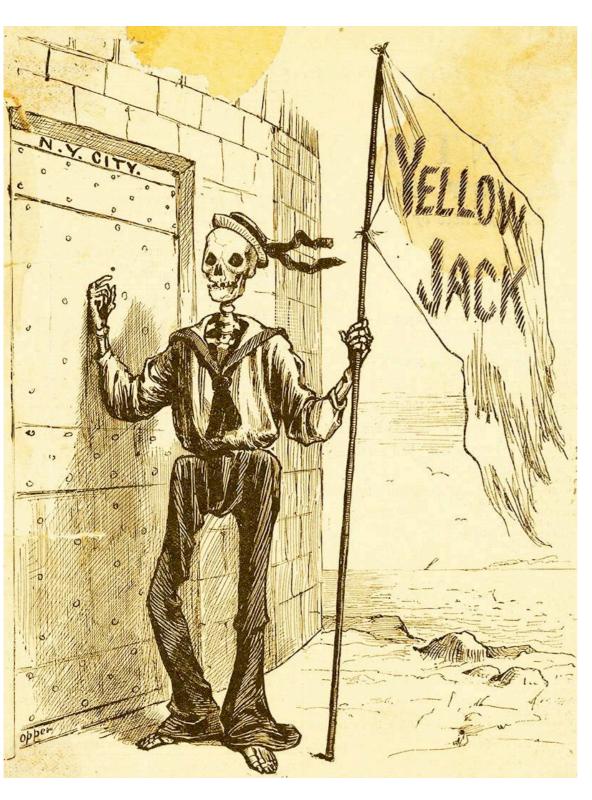


- Vacca = latin for cow
- Dr. Edward Jenner formally demonstrated that prior inoculation with cowpox provided protection from smallpox
- WHO declared smallpox as eradicated in 1980



- Louis Pasteur (1822–1895) initially showed attenuated pathogens provide protection against Cholera and Anthrax (bacteria) for farm animals
- In 1879, Pierre-Victor Galtier, a veterinary professor, serially transmitted rabies to rabbits from dogs
- ~1885, Pasteur used suspensions made from rabies-infected dried rabbit spinal cords to show that dogs could be protected from rabies infection
- Pasteur's rabies strategy was post-exposure vaccine prophylaxis, still used today
- Pasteur found the strategy to vaccinate without ever isolating the causative agent, which would eventually be recognized in the twentieth century to be nonbacterial

Because rabies was 100% fatal, Pasteur went ahead and "vaccinated" humans bitten by rabid dogs without proper animal trials

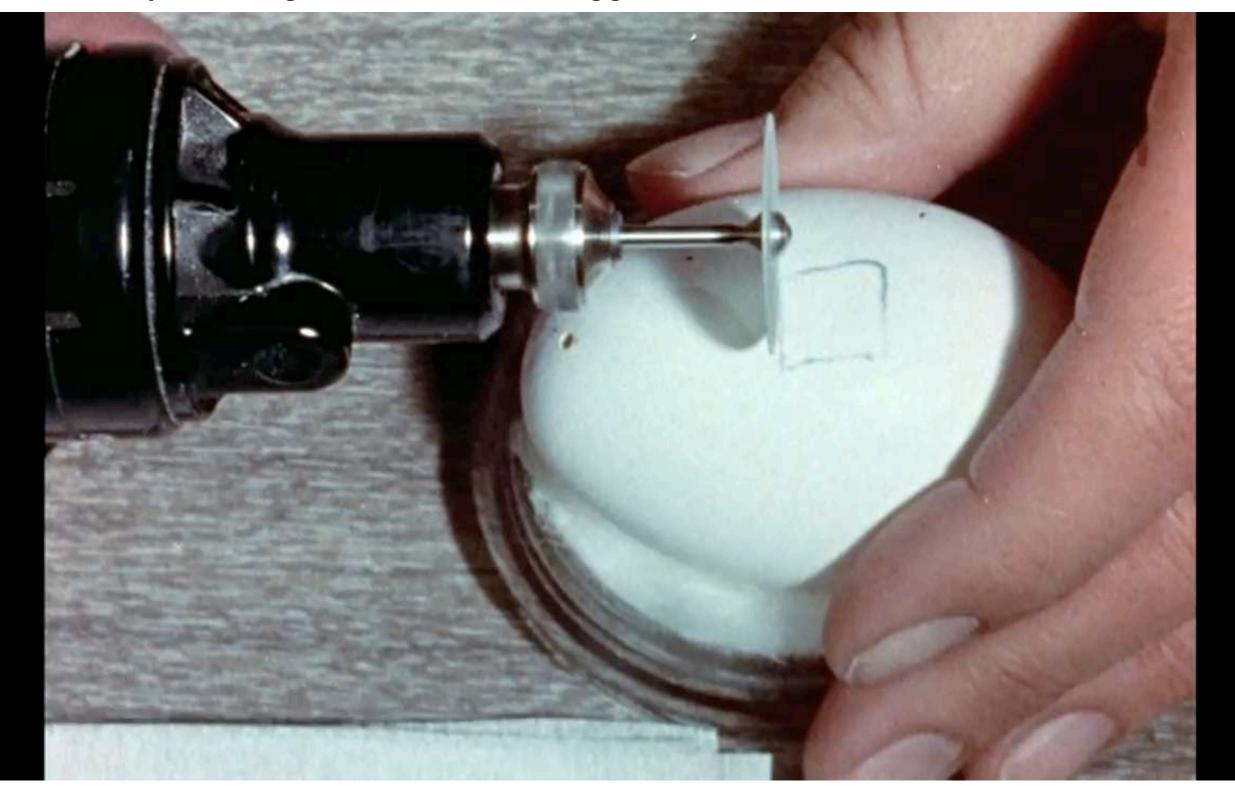


- End of 19th century, yellow fever, caused by a flavivirus spread by infected female Aedes aegypti mosquitoes, had spread around the world due to slave trading and global markets
- Ships were required to fly the yellow quarantine flag - main symptom is jaundice
- South African virologist Max Theiler at the Harvard University School of Tropical Medicine, USA showed that the disease was viral
 - Theiler showed that repeated passage in mouse brain cultures reduced the effect of the virus on most organs, but potentially increased its impact on the central nervous system, which could cause encephalitis
- Individuals could be vaccinated, but with risk of neurotoxicity

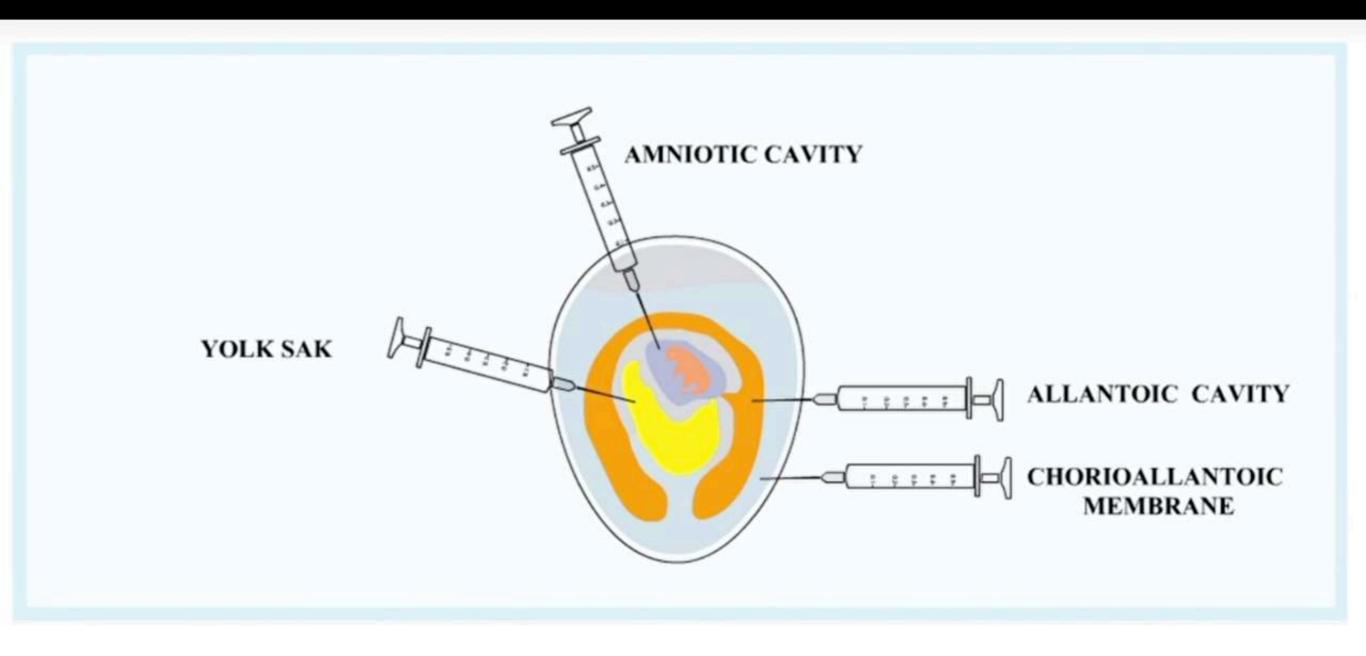
- In 1937, Max Theiler and Hugh Smith developed live attenuated yellow fever vaccine strain 17D: 176 serial passages in mouse embryonic tissue, then monkey serum, then minced whole chick embryo and then in chick embryo from which the brain and spinal cord had been removed.
- After these passages, 17D lost neurotropism, viscerotropism and mosquito competence, but still triggered an immune response in host
- Theiler showed that the Yellow Fever 17D vaccine prepared from infected whole chick embryos was safe and effective for human use without the addition of human serum made it cost-effective and easier to produce in large quantities
- The Yellow Fever 17D vaccine was approved for human use in 1938 and provides lifelong protection with a single vaccine dose
- In 1951, Theiler was awarded the Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine for "discoveries concerning yellow fever and how to combat it", the first and only time the prize has been awarded for a vaccine

- Viruses are obligate intracellular pathogens cannot multiply on their own, need a live host cell and its machinery to proliferate
- In the 1900s, live animals and/or animal embryos were used to culture viruses
- Later viruses were grown using animal cell cultures still the most efficient method

In 1930s, Ernest Goodpasture, a US pathologist and medic, grew pure viruses in culture by infecting fertilized chicken eggs



Virus inoculation into chicken eggs - live embryo culture of viruses



Poliomyelitis - caused by an enterovirus that in rare cases invades the nervous system and damages motor neurons, causing permanent disability, paralysis or death

In 1908, Karl Landsteiner and Irwin Popper showed that polio was spread by a virus:

- Injected monkeys with a suspension of spinal cord from a polio patient
- The suspension was bacteriologically sterile
- However, following inoculation the monkeys exhibited lesions in the spinal cord similar to those seen in humans with poliomyelitis
- Monkeys also developed paralysis of legs

Polio virus could not be grown in Chicken eggs:

- Albert B. Sabin and Peter K. Olitsky grew poliovirus in fragments of human embryonic brain
- Risk of using this for vaccine production was neurological damage in recipients

Thomas H. Weller, John F. Enders and Frederick C. Robbins (1954 Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine)

Not for vaccine development, but "for their discovery of the ability of poliomyelitis viruses to grow in cultures of various types of tissue."

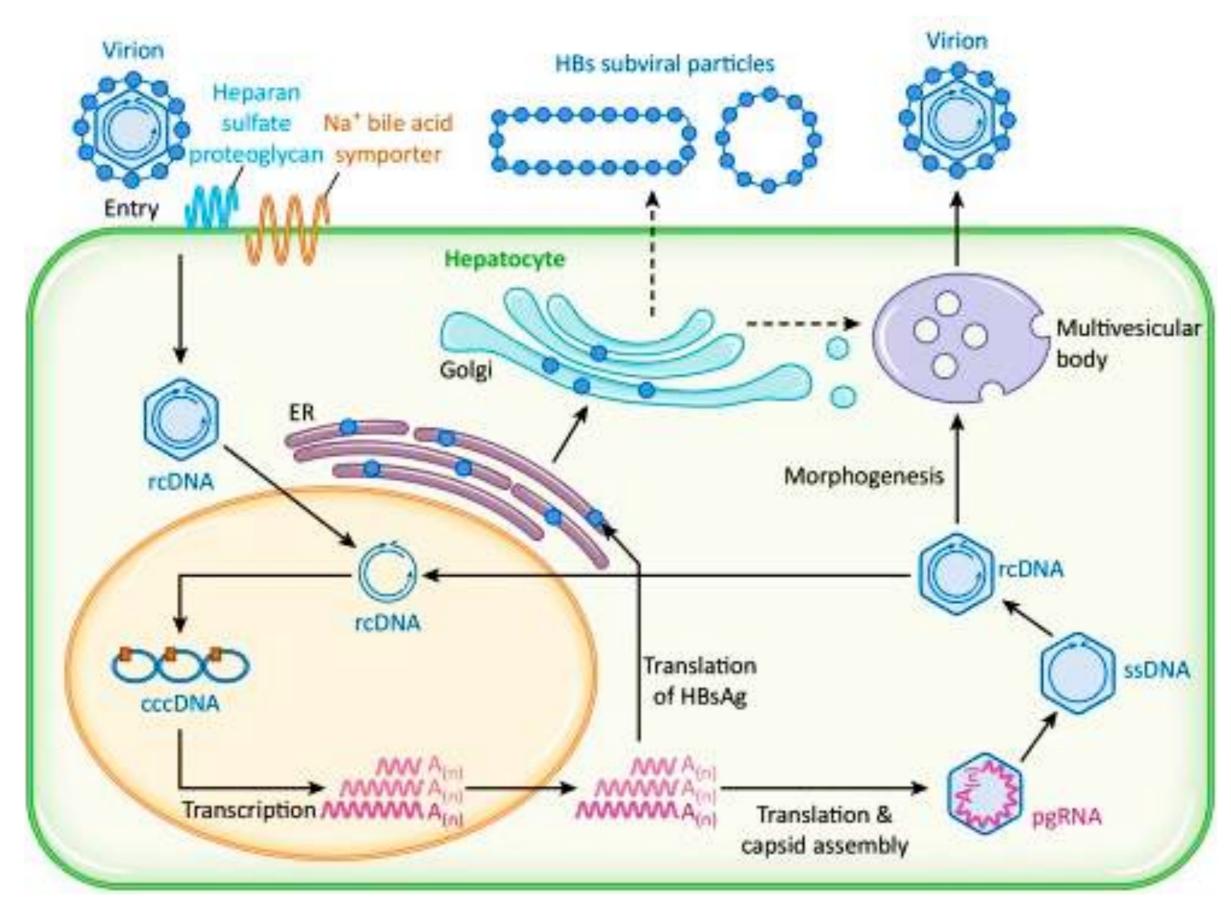
- grew the human Lansing strain of human poliomyelitis virus in skin, muscle and connective tissue from human fetal arms and legs
- also produced large quantities of human polio virus in cultures of fetal intestinal tissue
- succeeded in culturing human poliovirus in cells other than neurons
- ~1950s two polio vaccines developed:
- an injected vaccine containing inactivated virus, originally developed by Jonas Salk
- an oral vaccine containing live attenuated virus developed by Albert Sabin and colleagues

Whole virion, which has "forgotten" its original virulence features is used to trigger an initial immune response

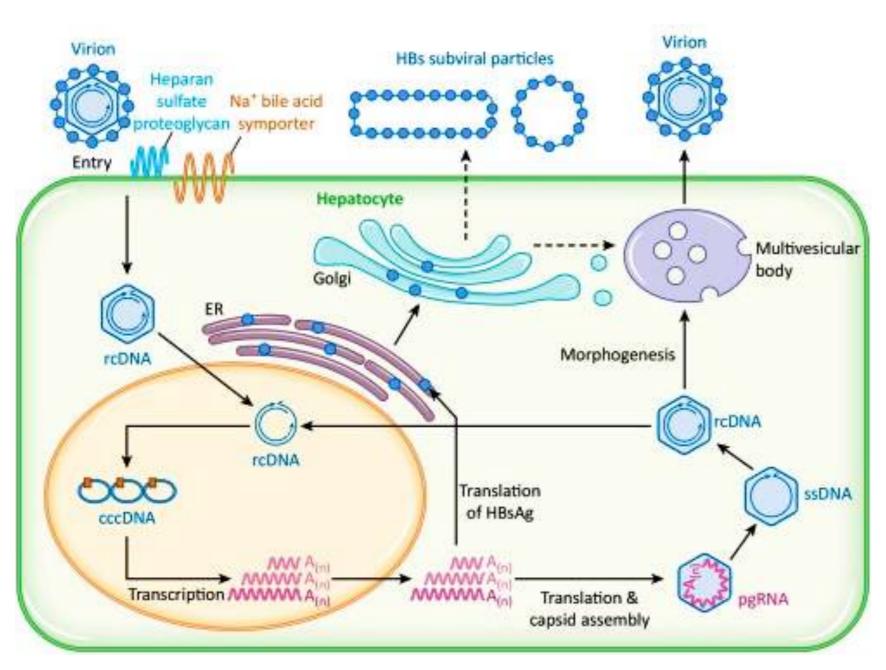
This initial response is remembered by the host body as "immune memory" and stored in a dormant format

The stored, dormant "immune memory" reactivates when a new infection occurs with a virulent strain

Is the whole virion necessary to acquire immunity/ protection against viral infections?



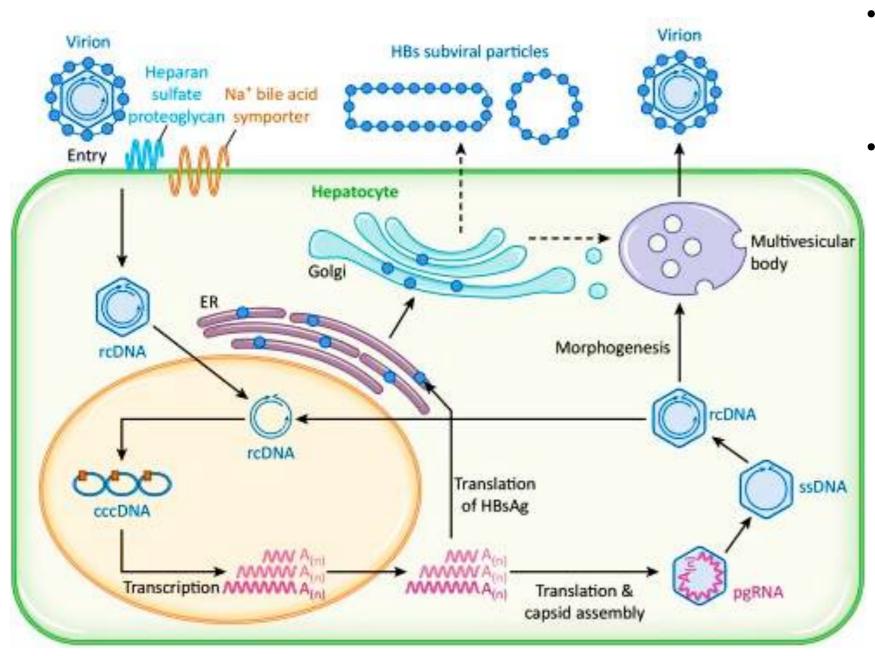
Recombinant DNA technology for vaccine production



- HBV infection results in production of intact spherical virions ~42nm Dane particles, and overproduction of 22nm particles of exclusively HBsAg
- HBsAg is encoded by gene S and the large form of HBsAg protein is the most abundant form found on the surface of infectious viral particles crucial for HBV binding to hepatocytes
- Cell-free production of immunogenic HBsAg in genomefree virus-like particles (VLPs) paved the way for genetic engineering for human health

Empty shell of the virus, can trigger immune response in host, but cannot replicate and cause infection

Recombinant DNA technology for vaccine production



- preventative vaccine made of human Hepatitis B virus capsid protein (HBsAg)
- possible because the gene for HBsAg was sequenced, cloned and protein produced in *E.coli* and Yeast

Empty shell of the virus, can trigger immune response in host, but cannot replicate and cause infection

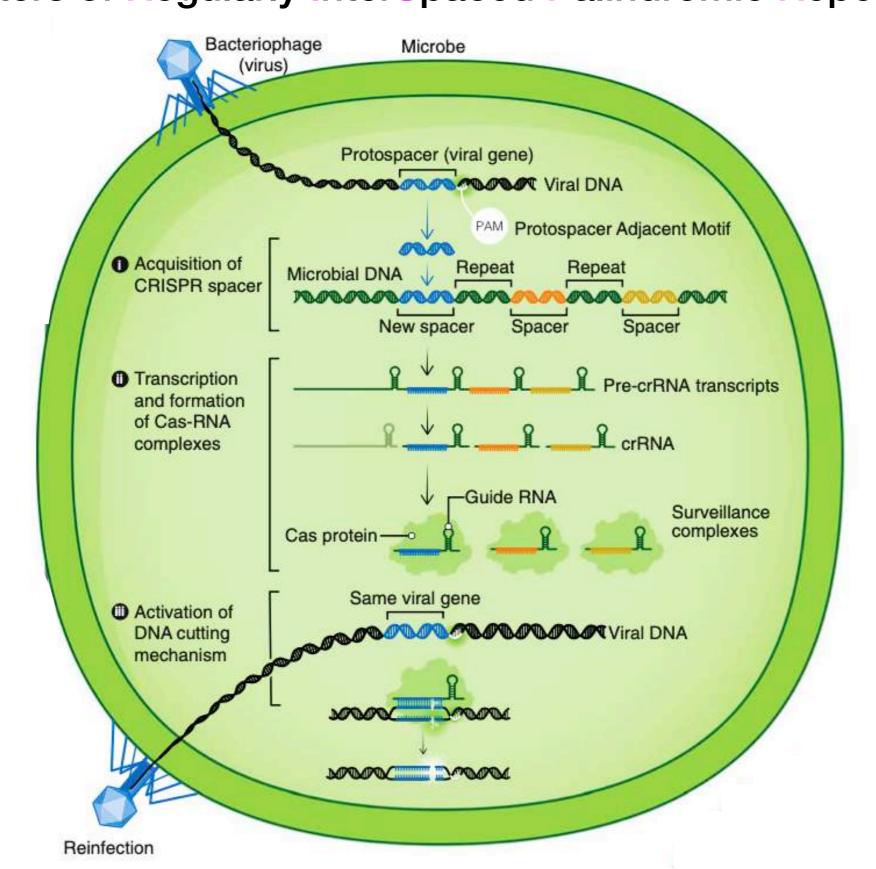
Viruses infect all forms of life

Organisms have evolved strategies to prevent or overcome infections caused by viruses

One such strategy is to trigger an immune response - requires a complex immune system

What about organisms that do not have an "immune system"?

Viruses - how bacteria vaccinate themselves Clusters of Regularly InterSpaced Palindromic Repeats

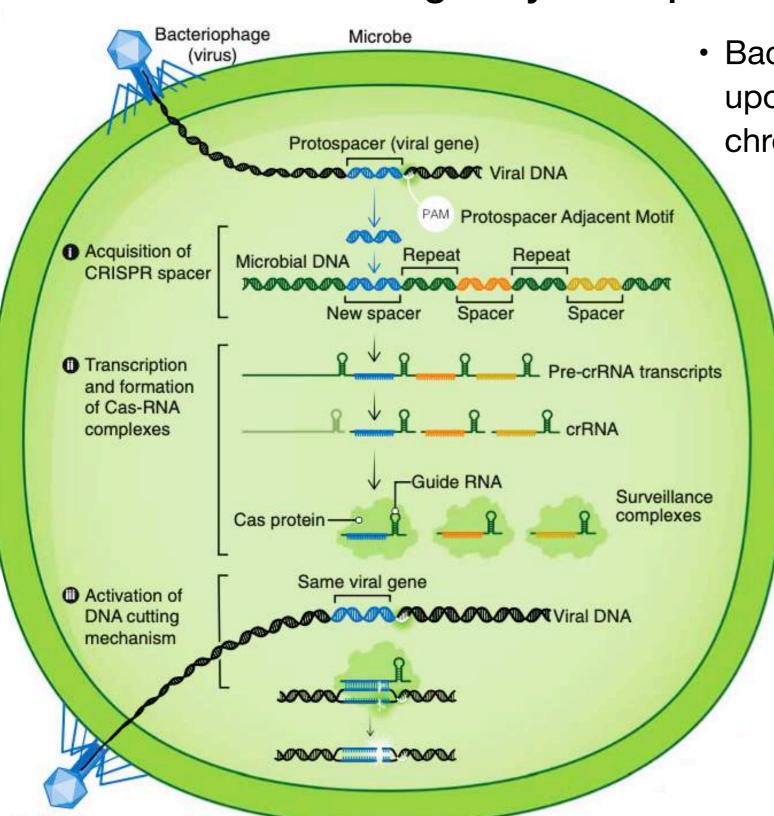


PMID: 36656942

Reinfection

Viruses - how bacteria vaccinate themselves

Clusters of Regularly InterSpaced Palindromic Repeats

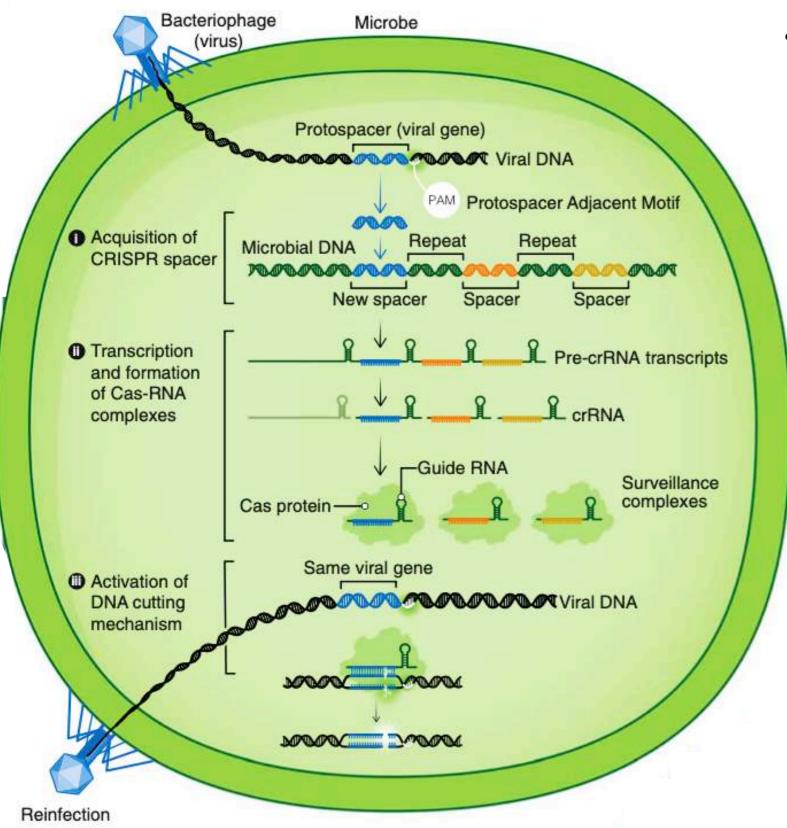


Bacteria acquire viral genome sequences upon infection and insert it into their chromosome as spacer sequences

- Spacer sequences from different viruses are separated by bacterial DNA repeats
- Spacers are the "memory" of a bacteria's encounter with specific viruses - acquired during an unsuccessful infection
- This "memory" enables the recognition and neutralization of the invading genetic material upon subsequent infections

Viruses - how bacteria vaccinate themselves

Clusters of Regularly InterSpaced Palindromic Repeats



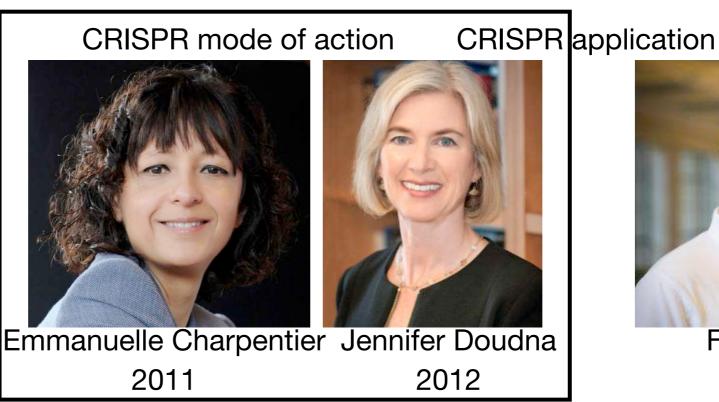
- Bacteria acquire viral genome sequences upon infection and insert it into their chromosome as spacer sequences
 - CRISPR Associated genes (cas genes) convert the spacer+repeat into RNA
 - Also makes cas protein, which is a nuclease (cuts DNA/RNA)
 - The spacer+repeat RNA+cas protein complex "knows" where to target because of base complementarity between RNA sequence and DNA
 - This complementarity recognizes the nucleic acid of the invading virus when encountered again

CRISPR - 2020 Nobel Prize in Chemistry

CRISPR discovery



Francisco Mojica 2005





Feng Zhang 2013

Francisco Mojica originally identified the spacer DNAs from viral genomes in archaea and bacterial genomes when he was a PhD student

Mojica coined the term CRISPR

Why is CRISPR such a big deal?

- DNA can be "broken" in many ways
- Naturally occurring DNA mutations cause human diseases
- DNA mutations made in the lab in animals help mimic human diseases in model organisms
- Chemicals and radiations could "break" DNA and were engineered to be efficient

If DNA were a dart board, till 2012, we could ensure that the dart would hit somewhere on the board

The randomness of the hit meant that one could never target a specific site on the DNA



What makes CRISPR specific to a particular site?

If you know the sequence of DNA

You can predict the sequence of the RNA

You can make that RNA in vitro (guide RNA)

Mix the RNA with cas9 protein

The RNA-cas9 protein complex "knows where to go"

This occurs because of sequence complementarity between RNA and DNA

Allows a particular RNA sequence to target a specific DNA sequence

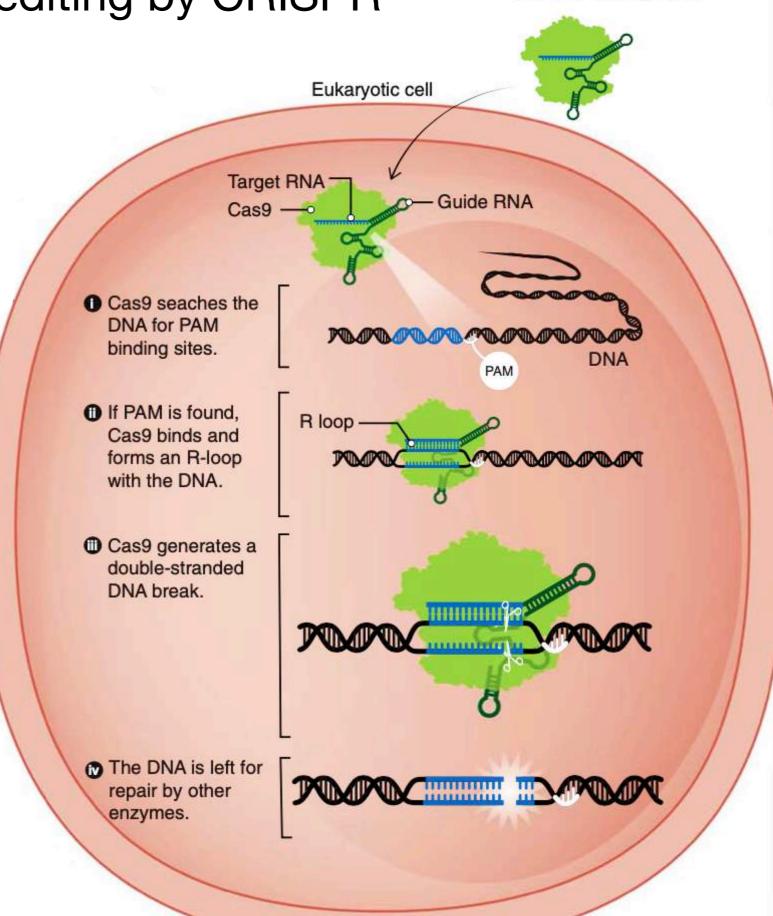
Custom-designed

CRISPR-Cas9 system

Gene editing by CRISPR

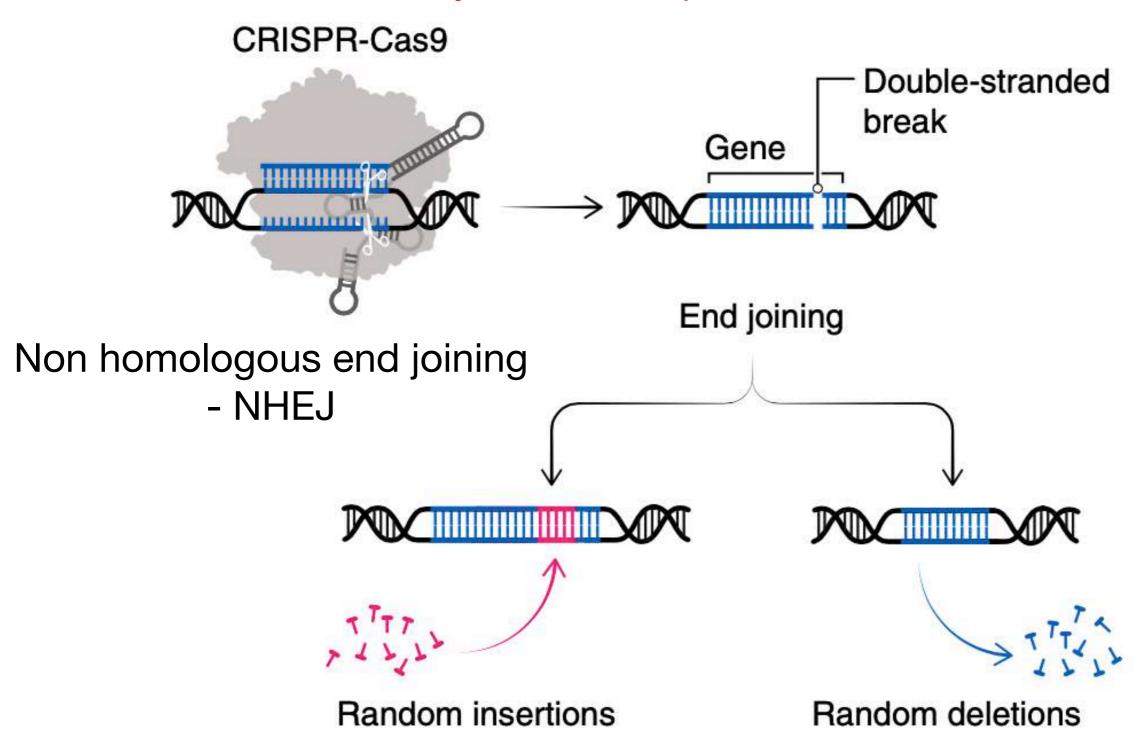
- Genome editing by CRISPR-Cas requires a single guide (sg) RNA to direct the Cas9 endonuclease to a specific region of the genomic DNA
- Requires a PAM sequence (Protospacer Adjacent Motif), next to the site of cleavage
- Once it reaches the site on the DNA, Cas9 cuts the DNA resulting in a double strand break

The cuts caused by cas9 need to be repaired



Gene editing by CRISPR - disrupt the gene

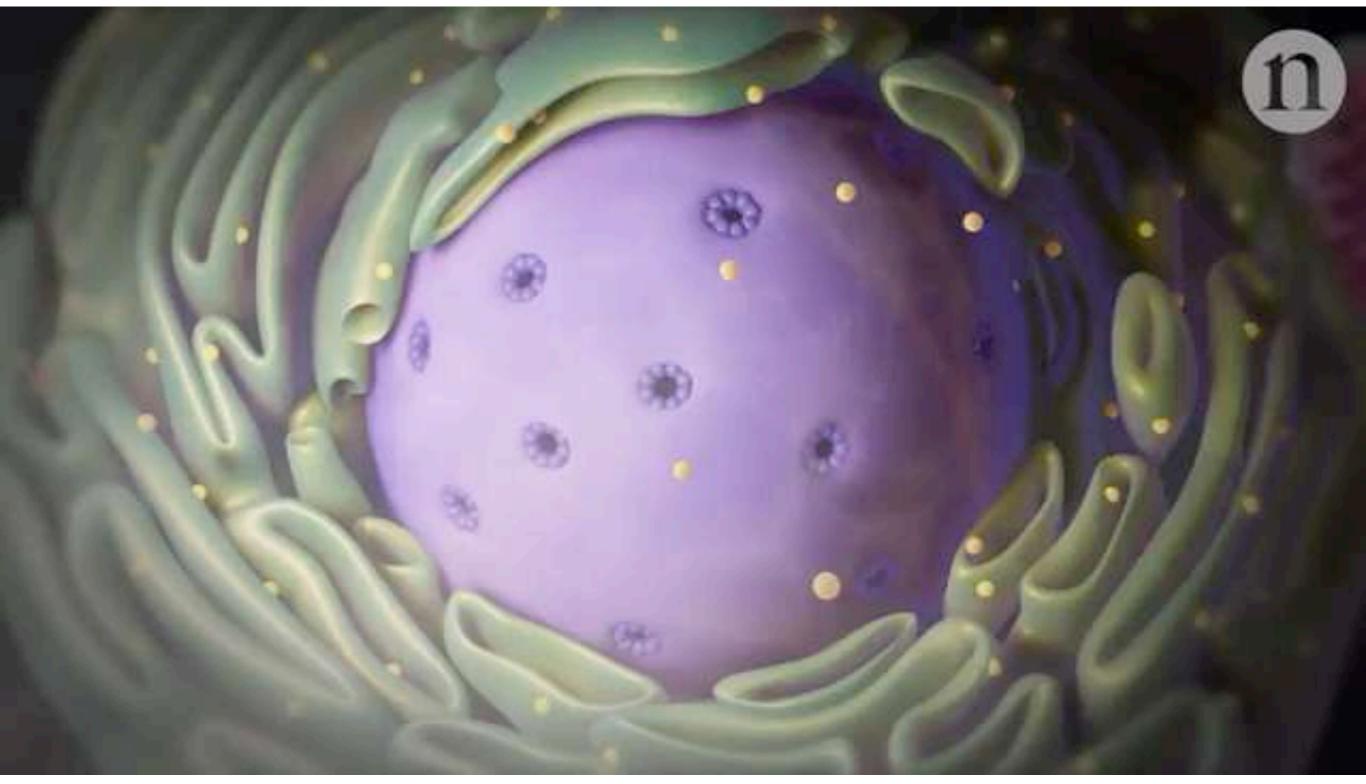
DNA breaks caused by cas9 are repaired without external information



Few bases can get added or removed at the cut site - alters the original information in a disruptive manner

PMID: 36656942

BB101-Spring 2024-2025-Lecture 09

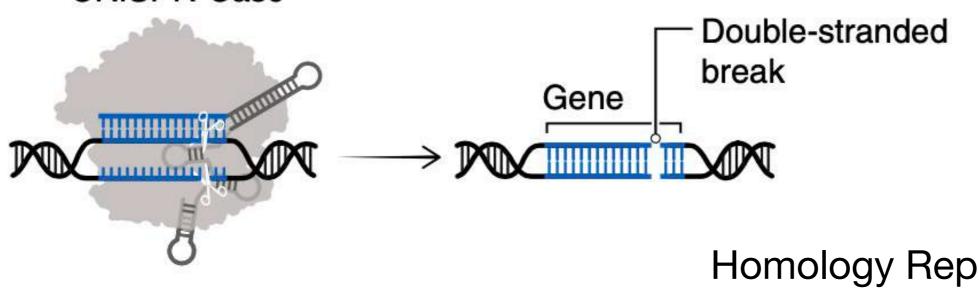


https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=4YKFw2KZA5o

Gene editing by CRISPR - repair the gene

DNA breaks caused by cas9 are repaired with the aid of external information

CRISPR-Cas9



Homology Repair

- Requires a new piece of DNA
- The sequence of this new piece of DNA is the "correct" one
- The new DNA sequence is used as a template to recover the information lost when cas9 cut the DNA
- If cas9 cuts at two places on the DNA, the entire DNA segment in between the cuts can be fully replaced

DS break Template Insertion of DNA sequence

Homology-directed

repair

Allows bad information on the DNA to be corrected

CRISPR is a tool which provides humans an unprecedented power to change the most important data

What does this power enable us to do as a species?

Should we do it?

Pathogens

(such as bacteria,

fungi, and viruses)

The Immune System

- 1. Multiple layers of protection
- 2. Prevent
- 3. Eliminate

Innate immunity = all animals and plants

INNATE IMMUNITY

(all animals)

- Recognition of traits shared by broad ranges of pathogens, using a small set of receptors
- Rapid response

Barrier defenses:

Skin

Mucous membranes Secretions

Internal defenses:

Phagocytic cells
Natural killer cells
Antimicrobial proteins
Inflammatory response

Adaptive immunity = only in vertebrates

ADAPTIVE IMMUNITY

(vertebrates only)

- Recognition of traits specific to particular pathogens, using a vast array of receptors
- Slower response

Humoral response:

Antibodies defend against infection in body fluids.

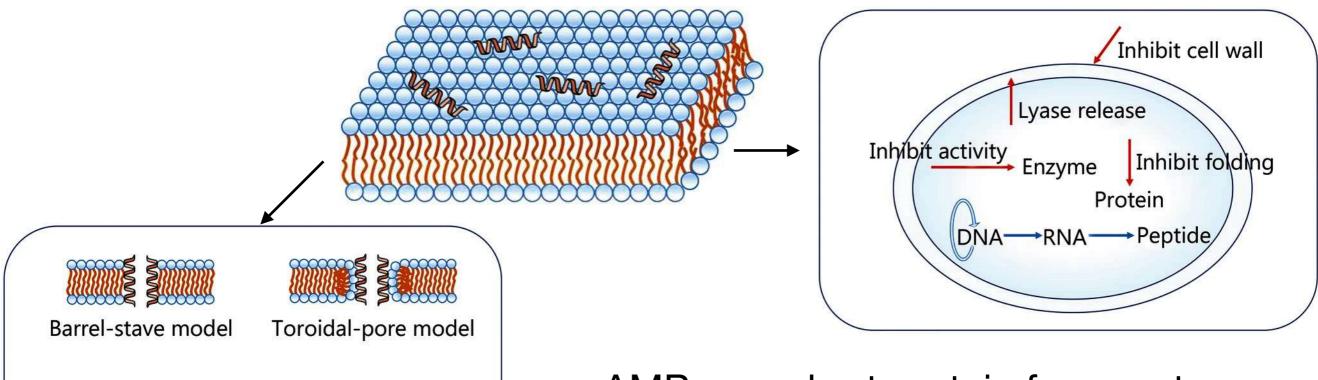
Cell-mediated response:

Cytotoxic cells defend against infection in body cells.

Figure 43.2 of Campbell's Biology: a global approach

Carpet model

Innate Immunity - Antimicrobial peptides (AMPs)



AMPs are short protein fragments -

- made when proteins are degraded
- some are encoded by genes
- Upon infection with a pathogen, AMPs penetrate into the phospholipid membrane and disrupt it by interacting with the lipid bilayer
- This creates holes in the membrane of the pathogen and causes it to lyse
- AMPs can also interact with cellular proteins and nucleic acids inside the pathogen and disrupt their function
- AMPs are also produced by bacteria to eliminate competition for a "niche"
- Bacterial AMPs in human gut are important in our immune system

Aggregate model

Innate Immunity - Antimicrobial peptides (AMPs)

How specific are AMPs to one type of pathogen?

Experimental logic

Infect animals with a pathogen

Detect the AMP produced

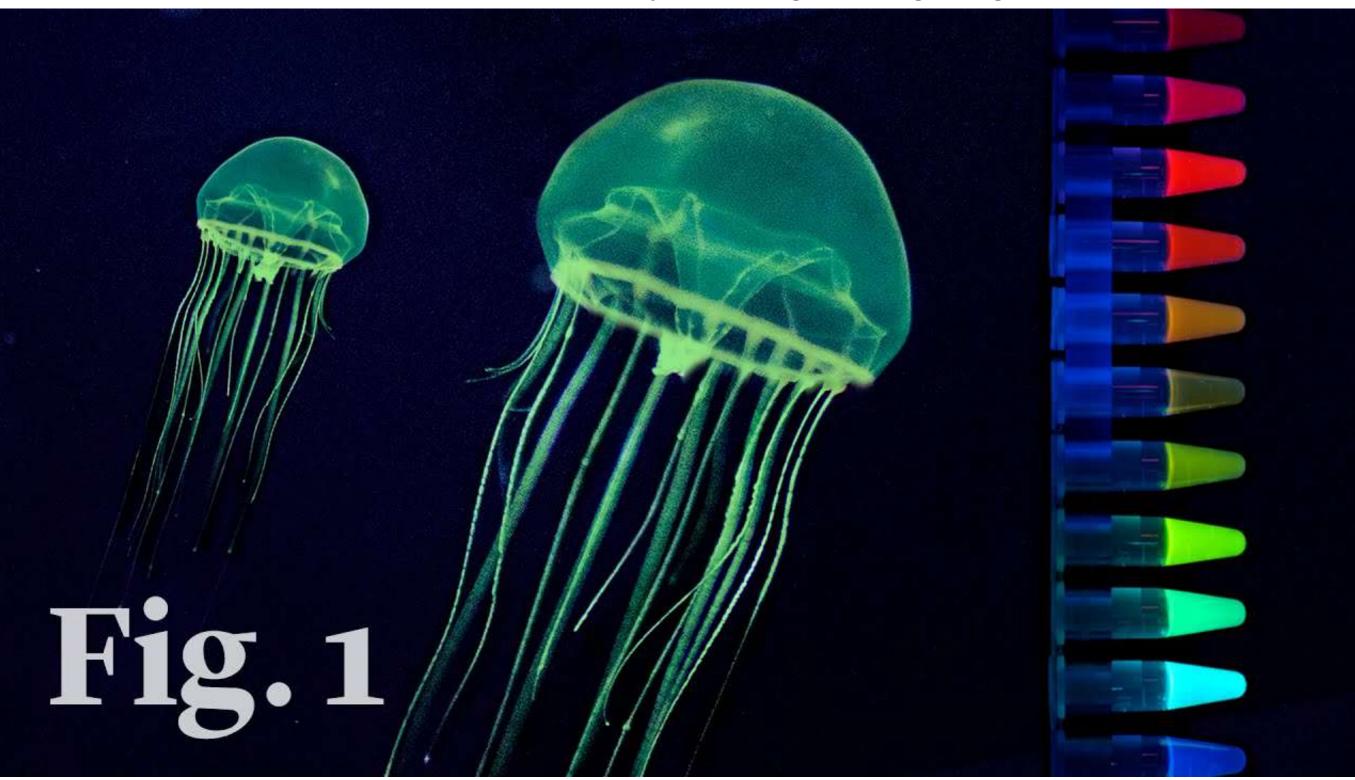
Check that the AMP is able to neutralize that specific pathogen

Need the AMP to be genetically encoded

Allows one to "tag" the resultant AMP and "see" it

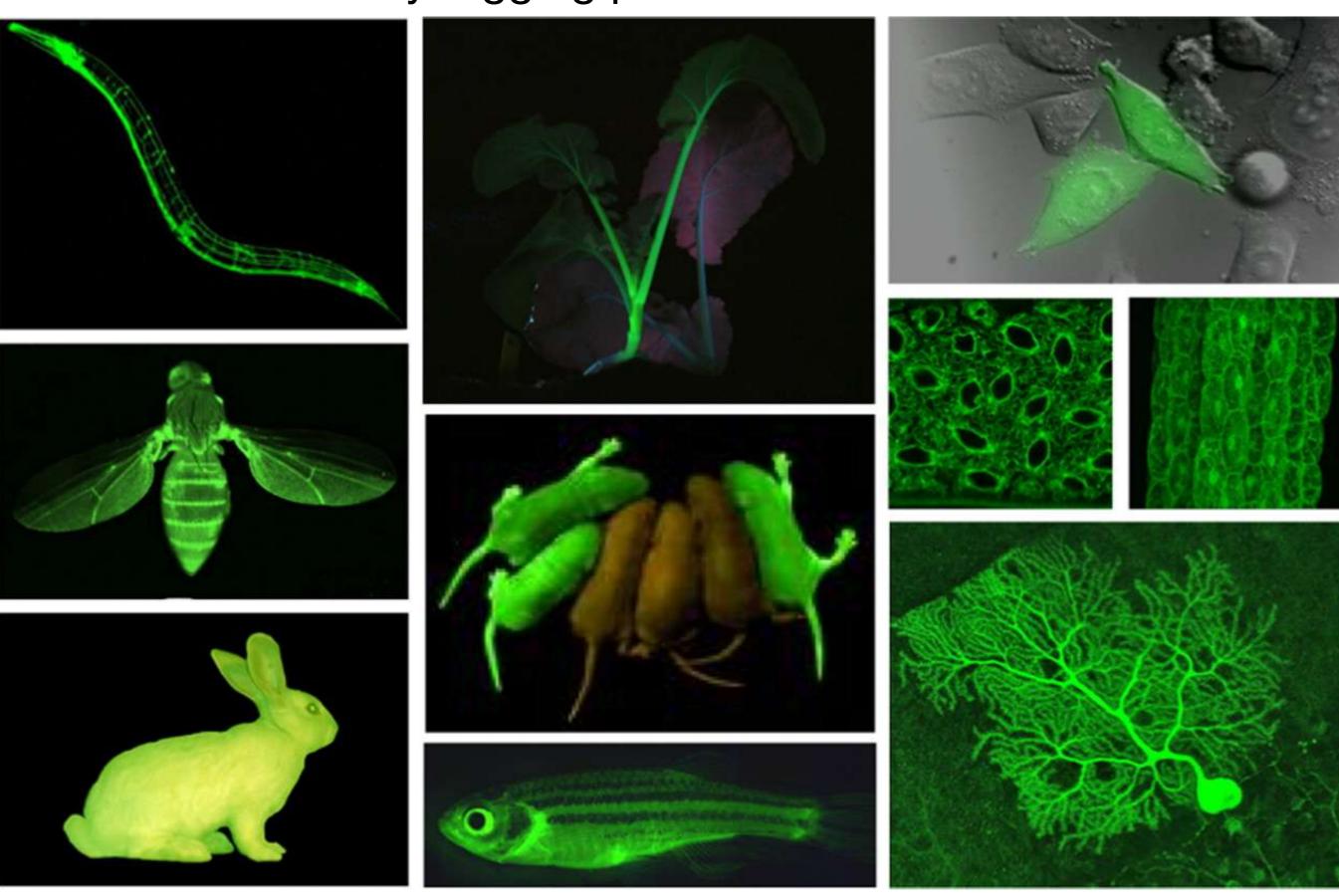
Green Fluorescent Protein and its variants

GFP is a genetically encoded fluorescent protein - has a high quantum yield Variants can be made by mutating the original gene



BB101-Spring 2024-2025-Lecture 10

Fluorescently tagging proteins in cells and animals



PMID: 19553219

Innate Immunity - Antimicrobial peptides (AMPs)

How specific are AMPs to one type of pathogen?

Experimental logic

Infect animals with a pathogen

Fuse the AMP gene with GFP gene and "express" it in the animal

AMP is produced fused with GFP protein and will fluoresce when translated by cells in the animal

Infect the animal with pathogens

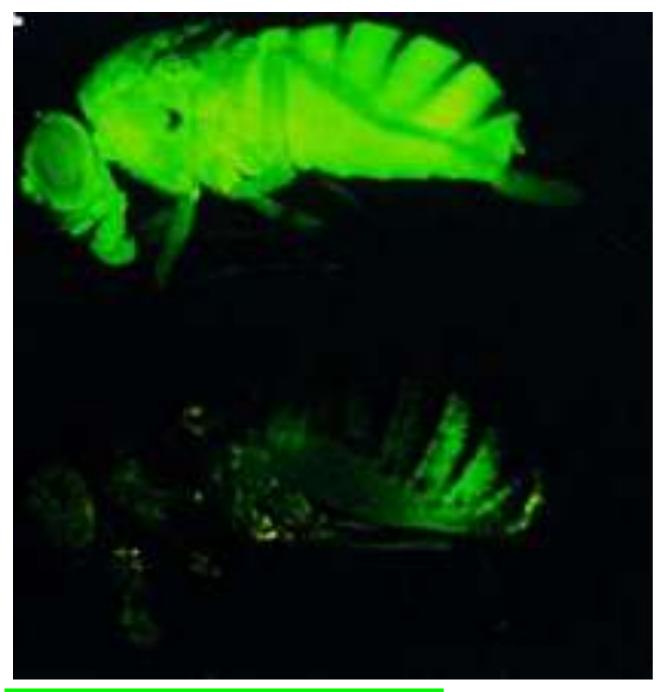
Check if the cells are fluorescing

If fluorescence is detected = cells in the animal produced that AMP against the pathogen it was exposed to

Innate Immunity - Antimicrobial peptides (AMPs)

How specific are AMPs to one type of pathogen?

Done in Drosophila (fruit flies), using two bacteria as pathogens and two AMP genes as "read outs"



Pathogens used fungus Neurospora crassa bacterium Micrococcus Iuteus

AMP genes GFP tagged drosomycin defensin

Figure 43.4 of Campbell's Biology: a global approach

Innate Immunity - Antimicrobial peptides (AMPs) How specific are AMPs to one type of pathogen?

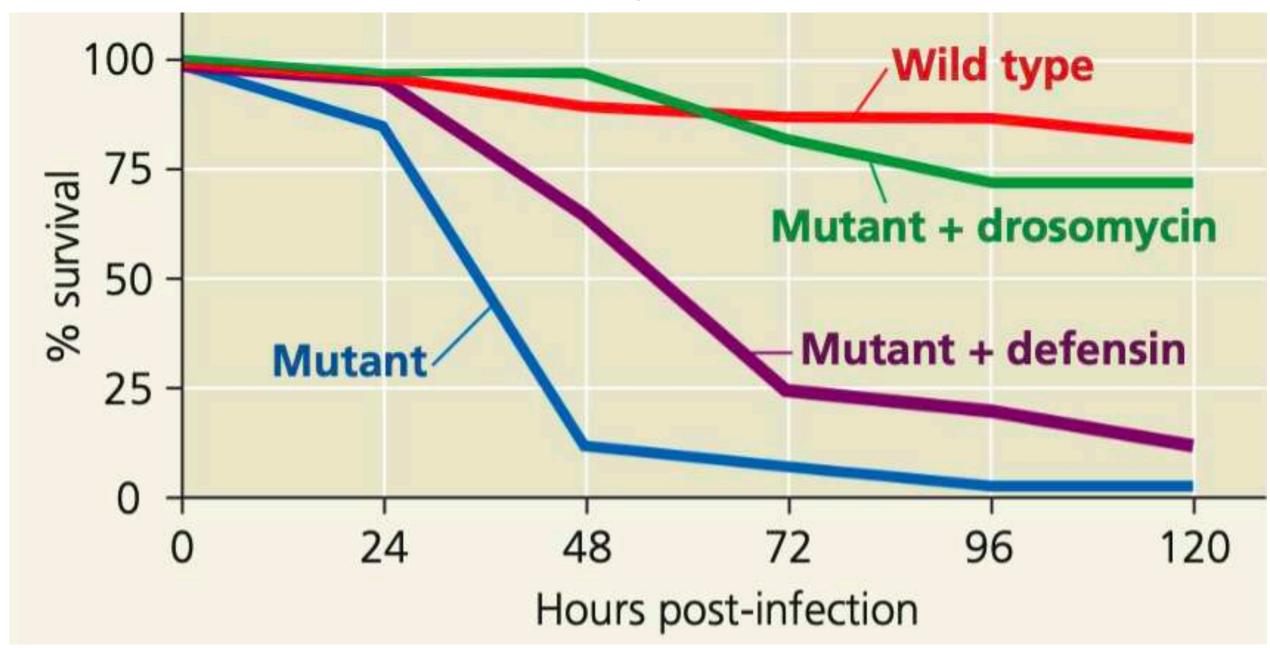
Experimental logic: must test two things - specificity and function

- 1. Generate mutant flies that cannot naturally produce AMPs allows you to create a functional assay
- 2. The mutants will only make the AMPs you "express" in the flies, this will be the AMP::GFP fusion gene you have made allows you to control production of one AMP at a time
- 3. Infect the mutant flies expressing one of the AMP::GFP fusion gene with one type of pathogen
- 4. AMP::GFP made in response to the pathogen can be seen by fluorescence - allows you to check if the AMP made is unique for a pathogen
- 5. Allow the infected flies to live. Survival of the flies will be the assay to test if the AMP produced can kill the pathogen this is the functional assay

Logic loop complete

Innate Immunity - Antimicrobial peptides (AMPs) How specific are AMPs to one type of pathogen?

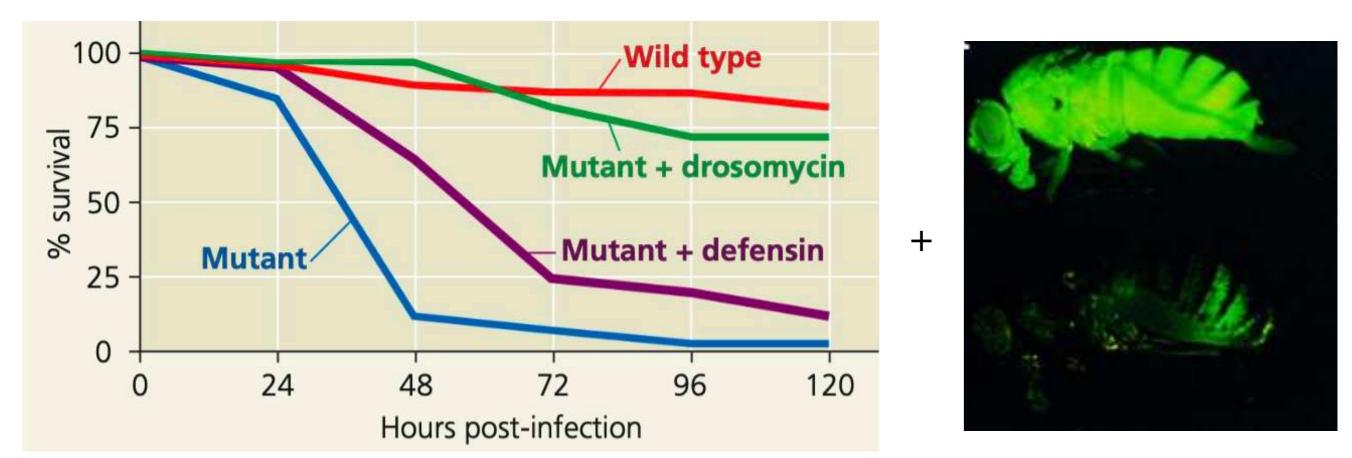
Flies infected with fungus Neurospora crassa



What can you interpret and conclude from the graph?

Innate Immunity - Antimicrobial peptides (AMPs) How specific are AMPs to one type of pathogen?

Mutant flies expressing drosomycin::GFP infected with fungus Neurospora crassa



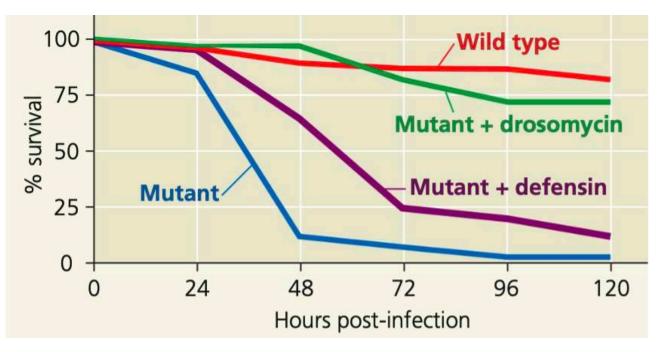
Interpretation for drosomycin:GFP experiment

- 1. ~80% wildtype flies infected with *N. crassa* live 120 hours and beyond
- 2. ~90% mutant flies infected with *N. crassa* begin dying at ~48 hours
- 3. ~75% mutant flies infected with *N. crassa* and expressing drosomycin::GFP survive to 120 hours and beyond
- 4. ~75% mutant flies infected with *N. crassa* and expressing defensin::GFP begin dying at ~72 hours

Innate Immunity - Antimicrobial peptides (AMPs)

How specific are AMPs to one type of pathogen?

Mutant flies expressing drosomycin::GFP infected with fungus Neurospora crassa



Interpretations

- 1. ~80% wildtype flies infected with *N. crassa* live 120 hours and beyond
- 2. ~90% mutant flies infected with *N. crassa* begin dying at ~48 hours
- ~75% mutant flies infected with *N. crassa* and expressing drosomycin::GFP survive to 120 hours and beyond
- ~25% mutant flies infected with N. crassa and expressing defensin::GFP begin dying at ~72 hours

Some relevant conclusions:

- 1. Drosomycin production upon infection with *N. crassa* allows flies to fight the infection and survive fact
- 2. Drosomycin may be produced specifically against *N. crassa* (need the fluorescence data as well) inference subject to additional experiments logical leap based on facts

How will you test this inference?