# Lecture 5 Immunology, Enzyme Inhibitors, Gene Editing

### To do:

- Presentation topic for approval (ASAP)
- Draft slides by Sept 17<sup>th</sup> for feedback (extended deadline).

## B-Cell Biology - From Stem Cells to Pathogen Killing.

- 1. Generation of high diversity of chains during development of stem cells to B-cells in bone marrow.
- DNA rearrangements to generate functional exons for variable segments of both light and heavy chain.
- 2. Molecular & cellular biology of membrane bound antibodies on cell surface = B-cell receptor (BCR)
- Transcriptional enhancers, mRNA splicing
- Light chain and heavy chain exported to surface of B-cells.
- **3.** Self tolerance test to prevent autoimmune diseases, autoreactive B-cells eliminated.
- 4. Encounter and capture of antigen in lymph nodes
- **5.** Activation of B-cells by  $T_{\rm H}$  cells
- Peptides from pathogen presented on major histocompatibility proteins (MHC II).
- T-cell activation by tyrosine kinase receptors (T-cell Receptor, TCR), secretion of signaling molecules.
- 6. Development of
- Plasma cells Production of soluble antibodies of the same specificity as the parent B-cell.
- B-memory cells (basis of immunity)
- T-memory cells (basis of immunity)
- 7. Destruction of Pathogens
- Fc region of antibody binds to Fc Receptor on NK cells, neutrophiles, macrophages
- Pathogen internalized and destroyed.
- **BCR** B-cell receptor = antibody + signaling chains.
- TCR T cell receptor = MHC-peptide recognition + signaling.



9/14/2024

Antibody Genes are Assembled From DNA Segments: Giving many different sequences.



The mRNA coding for antibodies contains 5



### Stem cells -> B-cells

Production of Heavy Chain Gene:

- The exon that codes for the variable region of the heavy chain is generated by the random joining of a V, D, and J DNA segments.
- Each B-cell will generate a unique sequence for its heavy and light chain DNA.
  - This is a permanent change to the DNA (*genome*) of the B-cell. 9/14/2024 Drugs and Disease F2024 - Lecture 5
- 1. If there are 300 possible V-heavy segments, 10 possible D segments, and 6 possible J segments, how many different heavy chains can be made?

## Light-chain Genes are Assembled From DNA Segments: Giving many different sequences.

### **Production of Light Chain Gene**



Light chains have different Vsequences in different B-cells.

Light chains have the same constant sequences in all B-cells.

### Antibody Diversity

1. If there are 100 possible Vheavy segments and 5 possible J segments, how many different light chains can be made?

2. If any possible heavy chain can pair with any possible light chain, how many different antibodies can be generated, assuming there are 10,000 possible heavy chains and 500 different light chains?



Cµ1 Cµ2 Cµ3 Cµ4 C

Vμ

### Stem cells -> B-cells

- In the case of the light chain, the variable region is generated by VJ joining.
- Each B-cell will generate a unique sequence for its heavy and light chain DNA.
- This is a permanent change to the DNA (genome) of the B-cell.

### Antibody Production – From Stem Cells to B-Cells



## Antigen Capture by B-Cells - Endocytic Pathways





- Bacteria labeled with Green fluorescent protein.
- I. Capture of the bacteria
- II. Internalization (endocytosis)
- III. Degradation of the bacterial proteins, producing

Journal of Cell Science doi: 10.1242/jcs.2351peptides.

to T-cells

## Activation of B cells by Antigen - Lymph Node



- $T_H$  Cells
- Mature in thymus
- High diversity of TCR (10<sup>10</sup>)
- Homogenous on one  $T_H$ -cell
- Recognize foreign peptide on class II MHC



### Events:

- Recognition of MHC II-peptide by TCR
- Tyrosine kinase signaling in  $T_H$  cell 2.
- Cytokines (protein messengers) produced. 3.
- Cytokines activate B-cells. 4.
- B-cells develop into antibody secreting *plasma cells*.
- B and T-helper cells develop into **memory** cells, that are long-lived and are quickly activated by the same pathogen. This is the basis of vaccination.
- Soluble antibody from plasma cells has the same light and heavy chains as the original B-cell. ٠
- Membrane anchors are missing, so antibody is secreted outside the cell. ٠ 9/14/2024 Drugs and Disease F2024 - Lecture 5

### Can you:

- Describe how the genes for the heavy and light chain are generated, and how this gives rise to many different antibodies?
- Do you understand the process of B-cell activation, including presentation of foreign peptides on MHC II and the role of the T-helper cell.
- Describe how antibodies inactivate pathogens?



## Cell Based Immunology

### Key Questions:

- 1. How does your immune system fight viruses?
- 2. How does your immune system detect and destroy cancer cells?
- 3. How can the immune response be engineered to fight cancer?

### **Cell Types:**

### Innate

Natural Killer (NK) cell

### Acquired

- Т<sub>Н</sub>
- T<sub>C</sub>, T<sub>CTL</sub>





Activation of Tc cells

- T<sub>C</sub> Memory 1. Recognition of *foreign* peptide on class I MHC.
  - 2. Assistance from Thelper cells.

Activated Tc cell becomes a cytotoxic Tlymphocyte T<sub>CTL</sub>

- Kill virally infected
- Kill cancer cells

Tc memory cells are produced after activation.

## NK: Innate

- Kill virally infected cells
- Kill cancer cells •

## T<sub>c</sub> Detection of Diseased/Cancer Cells - Role of MHC I



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Steps:

Activation of  $T_C$  cells requires stimulation from activated  $T_H$  cells via MHC II pathway.

- Antigen captured by Bcells and other phagocytotic cells (macrophages, dendritic cells.
- Peptides presented on class II – T<sub>H</sub> activated



## T<sub>c</sub> Detection of Diseased/Cancer Cells - Activation



## T<sub>c</sub> Cells: Detection and Killing of Virally Infected or Cancer Cells



### Cytotoxic T-Lymphocyte Killing Target

S James A. Sullivan **Quill Graphics** Charlottesville, VA USA

Cytotoxic T cell recognizes and binds to infected cell.

that form pores and other proteins (black) that pass through the pores into the cytoplasm of the infected cell.

Cancer cell or Infected cell

Granzymes (apoptosis activating proteins) enter through perforin pores and cause cell undergo programmed cell death (apoptosis)

Phagocytic cells consume the fragments, eliminating the intracellular pathogens.

### Cancer Evasion Mechanism - Loss of MHC I on Tumor Cell

Loss of MHC I expression means that  $T_{CTL}$  cells can no longer recognize and kill cancer cells because T-cell activation requires recognition of the MHC-peptide complex.



How to re-establish T<sub>C</sub> contact with tumor cell and activation of the T-cell so that the cancer cell is killed?

## Cancer Treatment with Antibodies - Cancer Evasion - Loss of MHC I on Tumor Cell

Tumor-associated antigen: An antigen that is found only on tumor cells:

- Mis-regulation
- Mutation





- Bispecific antibodies are generated from two separate antibodies:
  - One recognizes CD3, which is part of the T-cell receptor (TCR)
  - Other recognizes a tumor antigen.
- The two variable regions are linked into a single polypeptide chain by construction of a synthetic DNA molecule.
- The dual binding event mimics the original MHC-I TCR interaction.

## Chimeric Antigen Receptor T-cells = CAR T-Cells

- A. Obtain antibodies against cancer antigen, isolate genes that code for light and heavy chains for those antibodies.
- Fuse coding region for variable light and heavy domains to coding region for RTK on T-cells = single CAR-T gene. B.



## Vaccination



Serum immunoglobulin levels

Birth

Conception

Adult

## Primary and Secondary Response & Protection by Vaccines



• Antigen from pathogen prompts acquired immune response.

More rapid & intense secondary response prevents extensive pathogen growth – no symptoms.

More rapid & intense secondary response prevents extensive pathogen growth – no symptoms.

that antigen.

## Vaccine History

- Some diseases still do not have vaccines (Malaria, HIV)
- Many diseases are controlled by vaccination (Typhoid, Meningitis, Whooping cough, polio, chickenpox, measles,...)
- A few diseases have been completely eliminated by vaccination (Smallpox)

https://www.imf.org/en/Publications/fandd/issu es/2021/12/Journey-covid-19-vaccine-Stanley

### From lab to jab

COVID-19 vaccines were developed at a speed never seen before in history.



## Smallpox - A Success Story for Vaccination



10,000 BC Smallpox -20-90% lethality



Variolation (1670) provided protection by exposing people to small amounts of smallpox virus (obtained from blisters on infected people). Practice spread from Istanbul to Europe.

Risky because smallpox was used to vaccinate (2% risk of death)



Cowpox virus:

- Not lethal
- Similar to smallpox virus
- Causes production of *cross-reactive* antibodies that can bind to smallpox 9/14/2024



Jenner was the first to use cowpox to vaccinate against smallpox (1796)

- Vaccinated with cowpox (ill for 9 days)
- Infected with smallpox (2 months later)
- Subject did not develop smallpox

### Decade in which smallpox ceased to be endemic



Vaccinia virus (similar to smallpox) is one form of the current vaccine.

## **Types of Vaccines**

### A. Subunit Vaccine:

A protein from the pathogen is used to induce memory cells, e.g. spike protein from the virus. The protein can be produced by recombinant DNA technology.

### **B. Inactivated Virus**

The virus is chemically inactivated before administration. Peptides from virus activate B and  $T_H$  cells.

### **C. Virus Like Particles:**

Proteins isolated from the virus form viruslike-particles, *without* the genetic material of the virus



### **D. Live Attenuated**

The virus is grown under conditions that select for mutant viruses that:

- i) Induce memory cells in humans
- ii) Do not cause disease symptoms

### E. Recombinant Virus:

A "safe virus" is used (e.g. cold virus) Gene for a protein from a pathogen is inserted into the DNA of the virus.

 When virus grows it produces the protein from the pathogen generating immunity.

Also includes vaccines that are a mixture of genetic material from human and animal viruses (reassortment viruses)

**F. RNA Vaccines** (Pfizer Covid Vaccines) RNA coding for a viral protein is introduced into cells. The RNA is used by the cell to make viral proteins, inducing an immune response.



## B. Inactivated – Salk Polio Vaccine



## D. Attenuated – Sabin Polio Vaccine



Attenuation Process Requires Mutations  $\rightarrow$  Change growth characteristics on human cells.



## C. Attenuated Viruses – Return to Virulence by Reversion

![](_page_23_Figure_1.jpeg)

![](_page_23_Figure_2.jpeg)

## Herd Immunity:

- Vaccinated individuals prevent disease from spreading from sick to unvaccinated.
- At sufficient levels, the "herd" is immune because the virus cannot spread, eventhough some people get sick.

herd

![](_page_24_Figure_3.jpeg)

## Herd Immunity

How Many People need to be vaccinated to achieve herd immunity?

10%?

20% ?

50% ? It depends on the how infectious the virus is

90%?

100% ?

### **Our Experimental Viruses:**

Ebola:Low infectivityPolio:Moderate infectivityMeasles:High infectivity

## Simulation to Determine Infectivity Versus Vaccination Level (Pset)

- 1. Go to the following web site and open both links: http://www.andrew.cmu.edu/~rule/stayin-alive
- 2. Copy the googlesheet.

3. On the **Infection Simulator link**, scroll down (2/3 page) to the image of the plane, and click on it.

![](_page_26_Figure_4.jpeg)

B. Use the slider to select the different vaccination levels. Use 10, 20, 40, 50, 70, 80, 90 %. For each of the vaccination levels do *three* simulations.

C. Enter the value for the % Infection rate at 20s

into the appropriate cell of the google sheet. Your data will be automatically averaged and plotted.

![](_page_26_Figure_8.jpeg)

## Summary Questions for Immunology:

- 1. What are the two major branches of the immune system? Why are both important?
- 2. What are the roles of different cell types in each system, e.g. what would happen if T<sub>H</sub>-cells disappeared?
- 3. What is the quaternary structure of an antibody? Can you sketch an antibody and indicate where the antigen binds?
- 4. What part of the antibody defines the specificity?
- 5. What are the steps in the production of antibody genes, at the molecular level:
  - a) How do DNA rearrangements produce functional heavy and light chain genes
  - b) What is the difference between the heavy chain for B-cells versus plasma cells.
- 6. Can you describe how antibodies kill/inactivate pathogens
- 7. How are virally infected cells and tumor cells recognized by Tc cells?
- 8. How does the Tc cell kill those cells?
- 9. What evasion mechanisms are used by cancer cells and how have these been addressed by antibody therapy?
- 10. What was the origin of the idea for vaccination?
- 11. What was one of the first "safe" vaccines? What disease has now been eradicated due to this vaccine?
- 12. Can you describe one way to generate a vaccine for a pathogen? Do you know the pros and cons for that method?

## **Enzyme Inhibitors as Drugs**

- Types of inhibitors
  - Covalent
  - Competitive
  - Allosteric
- HIV drug therapy
- Antibiotics inhibitors of RNA and protein synthesis

## **Genome Editing – Cas9**

- Discovery & Engineering of CRISPR systems
- Off-target effects

### **Key Points:**

$$(E) + (S) \rightleftharpoons (ES) \xrightarrow{k_{CAT}} (EP) \longrightarrow (E) + (P)$$

![](_page_29_Figure_2.jpeg)

![](_page_29_Figure_3.jpeg)

### **Kinetics**

Rate = dP/dt, proportional to [ES].

 $V_{max}$  = measured velocity at saturating substrate:

$$V_{max} = k_{CAT} \times E_{total}$$

### K<sub>M</sub>:

- Substrate concentration to ½ saturate the enzyme, v = Vmax/2
- Measure of substrate affinity, lower K<sub>M</sub>, better binding.

![](_page_29_Figure_11.jpeg)

## **Enzyme Inhibitors**

### Studies on Inhibitors are useful for:

- 1. Mechanistic studies to learn about how enzymes interact with their substrates.
- 2. Understanding the role of inhibitors in enzyme regulation.
- 3. Drugs if they inhibit aberrant biochemical reactions:
  - penicillin, ampicillin, etc. interfere with the synthesis of bacterial cell walls, acting as suicide inhibitors.
- 4. Understanding the role of biological toxins.
  - Amino acid analogs useful herbicides (i.e. roundup)
  - Insecticides chemicals targeted for insect nervous system.

### Types of Inhibitors:

- 1. Covalent inhibitor *covalently* modifies enzyme, usually in active site, these are generally *irreversible* – the enzyme is dead! Example – Sarin gas (Tokyo subway 1995)
- 2. Competitive inhibitor blocks substrate, binds reversibly to active site with a  $K_D = K_l$ . Enzyme activity returns when drug is removed.
- 3. Allosteric (mixed type) inhibitor causes allosteric change. Binds reversibly to a different location, with two different  $K_D$ s:  $K_I$ and  $K_{l}$ . Enzyme activity returns when drug is removed. 9/14/2024

![](_page_30_Picture_14.jpeg)

![](_page_30_Figure_15.jpeg)

![](_page_30_Figure_16.jpeg)

![](_page_31_Figure_0.jpeg)

## Mechanism of Penicillin

### **Mechanism of Action of Penicillin:**

- Penicillin inhibits the transpeptidase enzyme that is responsible for crosslinking the Gly<sub>5</sub> chain to alanine (circled on diagram).
- The crosslinking of the cell wall is broken, making the bacteria fragile to breakage.
- Inhibition is by formation of a chemical bond between penicillin and the enzyme (covalent inhibitor).

![](_page_32_Figure_5.jpeg)

## **Competitive Inhibitors**

# Succinate dehydrogenase converts succinate to fumarate by removal of two hydrogens.

Malonate is a **competitive inhibitor**, because:

- It is similar in structure to the substrate so it binds in active site substrate cannot bind at the same time.
- Malonate cannot undergo the chemical reaction it is not possible to remove two hydrogens without leaving carbon with too few bonds.

-NH

-NH

(b)

(a)

Enzyme

Enzyme

![](_page_33_Figure_5.jpeg)

![](_page_33_Figure_6.jpeg)

Succinate

Substrate

Malonate

Inhibitor

Malonate-enzyme complex

Quantification of Inhibitor Binding

### **Fractional Saturation of Enzyme by Inhibitor**

![](_page_34_Figure_2.jpeg)

Y=(EI)/[(EI)+(E)]

[I]

 $K_{I}$  = equilibrium constant for dissociation of inhibitor from enzyme

Low  $K_I$  = higher affinity (same principle as  $K_D$ )

 $K_{\rm I}$  can be found from  $1\!\!\!/_2$  point in binding curve

K<sub>I</sub> can be determined by measuring the effect of inhibitor on the enzyme kinetics.

Effect of Competitive Inhibitor on Steady-State Kinetics:

- A competitive inhibitor reduces the amount of [E] by the formation of [EI] complex.
- The inhibitor cannot affect the [ES] complex since the inhibitor can no longer bind.

There are two consequences of a competitive inhibitor binding on the kinetics of the enzyme:

- **1.**  $V_{MAX}$  is unchanged: At high levels of substrate all of the inhibitor is displaced by substrate, so [ES]=E<sub>TOTAL</sub>, and v<sub>MAX</sub> =  $k_{CAT}[E_{TOT}]$ .
- The observed K<sub>M</sub> is increased: It requires more substrate to reach 1/2 maximal velocity because some of the enzyme is complexed with inhibitor.

$$K_M^{OBS} = \alpha K_M$$

The change in  $K_M$  can be used to determine how well the inhibitor binds to the free enzyme, <u>if we know how  $\alpha$  is related to  $K_{\mu}$ </u>.

![](_page_35_Figure_8.jpeg)

## HIV Drug Therapy

### **Retroviruses & Inhibitors - HIV Protease.**

- Identify potential drug targets, based on viral life cycle.
- Measure inhibitor binding to characterize drug efficiency.
- Rational drug design in response to mutations.

### Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV)

- Infects specialized cells in the immune system – *T-helper cells* (T<sub>H</sub>) cells, killing them.
- T<sub>H</sub> cells are required for activation of the immune response to all pathogens (bacteria, virus)
- Killing of T<sub>H</sub> cells by the HIV virus causes AIDS (acquired immunodeficiency), making the individual susceptible to serious infection by many otherwise harmless bacteria as well as developing rare cancers.

![](_page_36_Figure_9.jpeg)

Viral particle contains enzymes required for the replication of the virus:

- Reverse Transcriptase: Copies viral RNA to DNA
- Integrase: Integrates viral DNA into host chromosome.
- *HIV Protease:* Cleaves immature viral protein to produce smaller mature proteins.

### The HIV virus is a *retrovirus*:

The genetic information is stored in RNA (viral RNA, vRNA) which must be first be copied into DNA: vRNA  $\rightarrow$  DNA  $\rightarrow$  mRNA  $\rightarrow$  viral protein

### **HIV Viral Infection of T-Helper Cells:**

- 1. Viruses bind to molecules displayed on the  $T_H$  cell surface.
- 2. The virus then fuses with the cell membrane and releases its RNA genome from its lipid envelope.
- 3. The HIV enzyme **reverse transcriptase** first makes a double-stranded DNA copy of the viral RNA molecule. This process is error prone, leading to mutations in the virus. *These mutations cause drug resistant strains of the virus to arise.*
- 4. The DNA is integrated into the host cell's DNA by an enzyme called **integrase**, **also from the HIV virus**.
- 5. Integrated DNA produces vRNA, the genetic material for new virus particles. mRNA is also made from this DNA, to produce proteins for new particles.
- 6. **HIV protease** required for maturation of viral proteins, by cleaving them into smaller proteins that form the mature virus.
- 7. Mature virus buds out of cell.

![](_page_37_Figure_10.jpeg)

### Drug Targets to Combat the HIV Virus –

- a) Viral fusion
- b) Reverse transcriptase
- c) Integrase
- d) HIV Protease

These are good drug targets because:

- Required for viral replication
- Activities are not found in humans

## **HIV Protease (Aspartyl protease)**

![](_page_38_Figure_1.jpeg)

### HIV Protease:

- 1. An essential enzyme in the maturation of the HIV virus. If inhibited, the virus cannot replicate.
- 2. Prefers hydrophobic substrates (e.g. Phe) due to Val82 plus other non-polar residues in its active site (Pro81, Leu23).

### Inhibition of HIV Protease (HIV Drugs):

 Most drugs are small peptide-like analogs with non-cleavable bonds that resemble peptide bonds.

Where will they bind on the enzyme?

What will happen to them after they bind?

![](_page_39_Figure_4.jpeg)

![](_page_39_Figure_5.jpeg)

Inhibitor

**Drug Design:** Compounds A (Isobutyl) and B (cyclohexane) are candidates for HIV protease inhibitors. Which of the two drugs will be more effective at inhibiting the wild-type protease?

![](_page_39_Figure_7.jpeg)

**Answer**: We will assume that these are competitive inhibitors. Therefore, we need to compare the  $K_1$  values for each inhibitor binding to the protease.

Measuring K<sub>I</sub> for both Drugs:

a) Acquire velocity versus substrate, no inhibitor.b) Acquire velocity versus substrate, fixed inhibitor.Analysis:

i) Plot velocity versus [S]

ii) Obtain  $\alpha$  from the observed Km values

[S]	no inh	Α	В
0	0	0	0
1	17	9	2
2	29	17	4
3	38	23	5
4	44	29	7
5	50	33	8
10	67	50	15
20	80	67	27
40	89	80	42
60	92	86	52
100	95	91	65

The units of velocity are  $\mu$ moles product/sec.

Once the  $\alpha$  values are found, we can calculate the K<sub>I</sub> for each inhibitor using the formula: K<sub>I</sub>=[I]/( $\alpha$ -1).

![](_page_40_Figure_7.jpeg)

Data	Km	Alpha (K <sub>M</sub> <sup>obs</sup> /K <sub>M</sub> )	K <sub>I</sub> =[I]/(α-1) ([I]= 10 nM)
No Inh	5		
Inh A	10	2	K <sub>I</sub> = 10/(2-1) = 10 nM
Inh B	54	10.8	K <sub>I</sub> = 10/(10.8-1)=1.1 nM

Explain the difference in K<sub>1</sub> based on the molecular interactions between each inhibitor

![](_page_41_Figure_1.jpeg)

![](_page_41_Figure_2.jpeg)

Potential Interaction	Drug A (K <sub>i</sub> = 10 nM)	Drug B (K <sub>l</sub> = 1.1 nM)
Van der Waals		
Hydrophobic effect		

## Drugs that inhibit Transcription and Translation

![](_page_43_Figure_0.jpeg)

## Protein Synthesis – tRNA & Ribosomes

#### Amino acid attached to CCA Role of different Ribosomal subunits Ser (reading 5' to 3') at 3' end tRNAs 30S (Small) – RBS & mRNA codon/anticodon CC 50S (Large) – Peptide bond synthesis Exit tunnel – new protein emerges Single-• stranded loops Double-A – aminoacyl – next tRNA-AA binds stranded P – 1<sup>st</sup> tRNA-Met & growing peptide stems E – empty tRNA leave from here 1. Ribosome binding site & rRNA interaction Anticodon binds (Proks)/AUG scanning (Euks). Anticodon. to mRNA codon AGU 2. fMet-tRNA (Proks) or Met (Euks) in P site 3 mRNA 5' UCA Codon 1. New AA-tRNA in A site The P site holds 2. Peptide bond formation (amino acid in A the tRNA with growing site added to C-term of peptide in P site) polypeptide Translocation (tRNA-peptide moves to P attached The E site 4. tRNA exits holds a tRNA that will exit 1. Stop codon at A site 2. Termination factor (protein) adds water to cleave peptide from last tRNA mRNA

- The adapter molecules are called transfer RNAs or tRNAs.
- Contain a CCA sequence at 3' end where the amino acid is attached
- a triplet anticodon to form base pairs with the appropriate mRNA codon

![](_page_44_Figure_5.jpeg)

site)

**Termination:** 

tRNA sites:

Initiation:

**Elongation:** 

![](_page_45_Figure_0.jpeg)

## Step 2 - Elongation

![](_page_46_Figure_1.jpeg)

4. Incoming aminoacyl tRNA arrives and binds in A site

![](_page_47_Figure_0.jpeg)

5. Peptide bond formation

![](_page_48_Figure_0.jpeg)

6. Translocation

![](_page_49_Figure_0.jpeg)

7. Incoming aminoacyl tRNA arrives and binds in A site

![](_page_50_Figure_0.jpeg)

### 8. Peptide bond formation

![](_page_51_Figure_0.jpeg)

![](_page_52_Figure_0.jpeg)

When translocation opens the A site and exposes a stop codons, a protein called release factor fills the A site. This hydrolyzes the bond linking the tRNA in the P site to the polypeptide chain, releasing the protein.

### 10. Release factor binds to stop codon

![](_page_53_Figure_0.jpeg)

11. Polypeptide is released

## Antibiotics that Inhibit Protein Synthesis

![](_page_54_Figure_1.jpeg)

## Genome Editing

## Genome Editing – CRISPR Cas9

## A Programmable Dual-RNA–Guided DNA Endonuclease in Adaptive Bacterial Immunity

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Clustered regularly interspaced short palindromic repeats (CRISPR)/CRISPR-associated (Cas) systems provide bacteria and archaea with adaptive immunity against viruses and plasmids by using CRISPR RNAs (crRNAs) to guide the silencing of invading nucleic acids. We show here that in a subset of these systems, the mature crRNA that is base-paired to trans-activating crRNA (tracrRNA) forms a two-RNA structure that directs the CRISPR-associated protein Cas9 to introduce double-stranded (ds) breaks in target DNA. At sites complementary to the crRNA-guide sequence, the Cas9 HNH nuclease domain cleaves the complementary strand, whereas the Cas9 RuvC-like domain cleaves the noncomplementary strand. The dual-tracrRNA:crRNA, when engineered as a single RNA chimera, also directs sequence-specific Cas9 dsDNA cleavage. Our study reveals a family of endonucleases that use dual-RNAs for site-specific DNA cleavage and highlights the potential to exploit the system for RNA-programmable genome editing.

#### 17 AUGUST 2012 VOL 337 SCIENCE www.sciencemag.org

# The Nobel Prize in Chemistry 2020

![](_page_56_Picture_6.jpeg)

![](_page_56_Picture_7.jpeg)

© Nobel Prize Outreach. Photo: Bernhard Ludewig Emmanuelle Charpentier Prize share: 1/2

© Nobel Prize Outreach. Photo: Brittany Hosea-Small Jennifer A. Doudna Prize share: 1/2

The Nobel Prize in Chemistry 2020 was awarded jointly to Emmanuelle Charpentier and Jennifer A. Doudna "for the development of a method for genome editing"

## Key Concepts in Genome Editing

### Repair of a targeted double strand break = modification of the genome at a defined location.

![](_page_57_Figure_2.jpeg)

## Key Concepts in Genome Editing

### **Repair method II – replacement of a segment of DNA**

![](_page_58_Figure_2.jpeg)

## How to Cut at a Defined Location - Cas9 + Guide RNA

Cas9-RNA complex

- Cas9 nuclease that cuts DNA after activation
- Guide RNA:
  - 5' end complementary to target sequence
  - 3' end required for Cas9 activity (tracrRNA)

- After PAM recognition by Cas9, guide RNA unwinds DNA, by pairing with one DNA strand.
- 3. Cas9 cleaves both strands near site, generating a double strand break.
- 4. Double stranded break triggers DNA repair, using injected replacement DNA for homologous repair

![](_page_59_Figure_9.jpeg)

Double stranded break

1. Cas9 Binds to PAM, then checks if RNA is complimentary to DNA sequence 5' to PAM.

## Altering the Genome Sequence with Cas9-CRISPR

Components to microinject:

- 1. Cas9 enzyme (nuclease)
- 2. Guide RNA, specific for site of cleavage, bound to the Cas9 protein
   3. Copy of replacement DNA sequence

(dsDNA)

![](_page_60_Picture_5.jpeg)

- 1. Guide RNA directs Cas9 to desired site, by pairing with one DNA strand.
- 2. CRISPR cleaves both strands near site, generating a double strand break.
- 3. Double stranded break triggers DNA repair, using injected replacement DNA for homologous repair

![](_page_60_Picture_9.jpeg)

### (Video originally from Nature)

### Also view:

https://wyss.harvard.edu/media-post/gene-editing-mechanism-of-crispr-cas9/

### Using CRISPR-Cas9 to Correct Genetic Diseases Human growth hormone (hGH)

### **Pituitary Dwarfism**

(a) GH1 codes for a pituitary growth hormone.

![](_page_61_Figure_3.jpeg)

Between one in 14,000 and one in 27,000 babies born each year have some form of dwarfism.

(b) Normal versus GH1-deficient

![](_page_61_Picture_6.jpeg)

1860 William Harrison and Charles Stratton - comedians and performers.

Components to microinject:

1. Cas9 enzyme

(nuclease)

 2. Guide RNA, specific for site of cleavage, bound to the Cas9 protein
 3. Copy of replacement DNA sequence (dsDNA)

![](_page_61_Picture_12.jpeg)

![](_page_62_Figure_0.jpeg)

-GAAACGTCTCCGACCTTCTACCGTCGGGGGGCCTGACCCGTCTTGAAGTTCGTCTGGATGTCGTT-

## CRISPR Repair of Grown Hormone Gene

- The PAM site closest to the mutation was selected so that the cut site is close to mutation site.
- The targeting section of the guide RNA should have the same sequence as 5' to the XGG, 18 bases are required:

5'AGAUGGCAGCCCCCGGAC------ plus additional RNA needed for Cas9 function

- This RNA would cause cleavage of both the wild-type or mutant sequence since they are identical in this region. This is
  OK since the repair DNA will contain the wild-type sequence.
- The site of Cas9 cleavage is between the PAM and the guide RNA sequence.
- The injected DNA contains sequences on both sides of the ds break, causing the replacement of the sequences at the double stranded break due to repair.
   Injected dsDNA for Homologous Repair

![](_page_63_Figure_7.jpeg)

![](_page_64_Figure_0.jpeg)