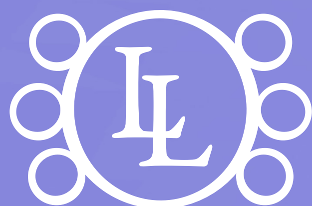

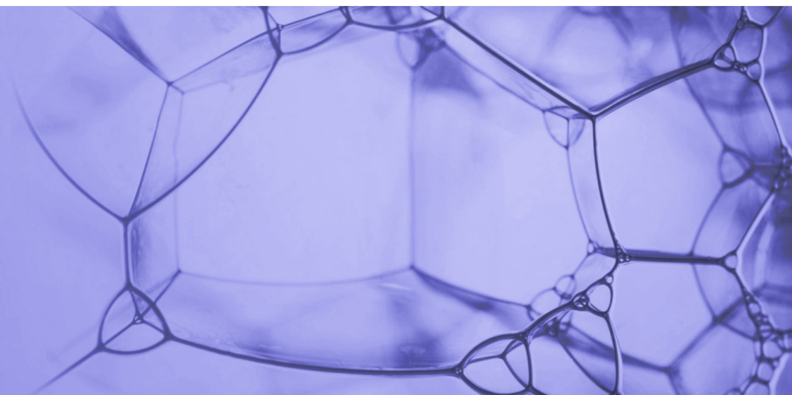

Protein nanomachines

Synthetic large macromolecular assemblies, virus-based vehicles and artificial signalling networks

Creating synthetic protein complexes and supramolecular assemblies for biotechnology, biomedicine and basic research

Dr. Martin Marek
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Faculty of Science, MUNI
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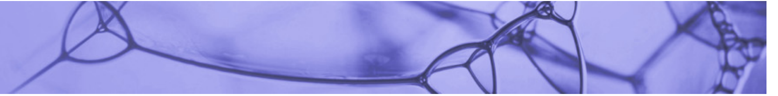


Short recapitulation of previous lesson

- What is directed evolution?
- Directed evolution: pros and cons
- How to generate gene diversification and library creation?
- How to screen your gene library?
- What is continuous directed evolution? Examples…
- What is semi-rational protein engineering approach?

Recapitulation: directed evolution workflow

1 Wild-type gene coding for Taq DNA Polymerase.

2 Mutagenesis creates large gene library of 1 x 10^8 random variants.

3 Gene variants are compartmentalized and expressed in emulsion followed by high-throughput screening in the presence of selection pressure.

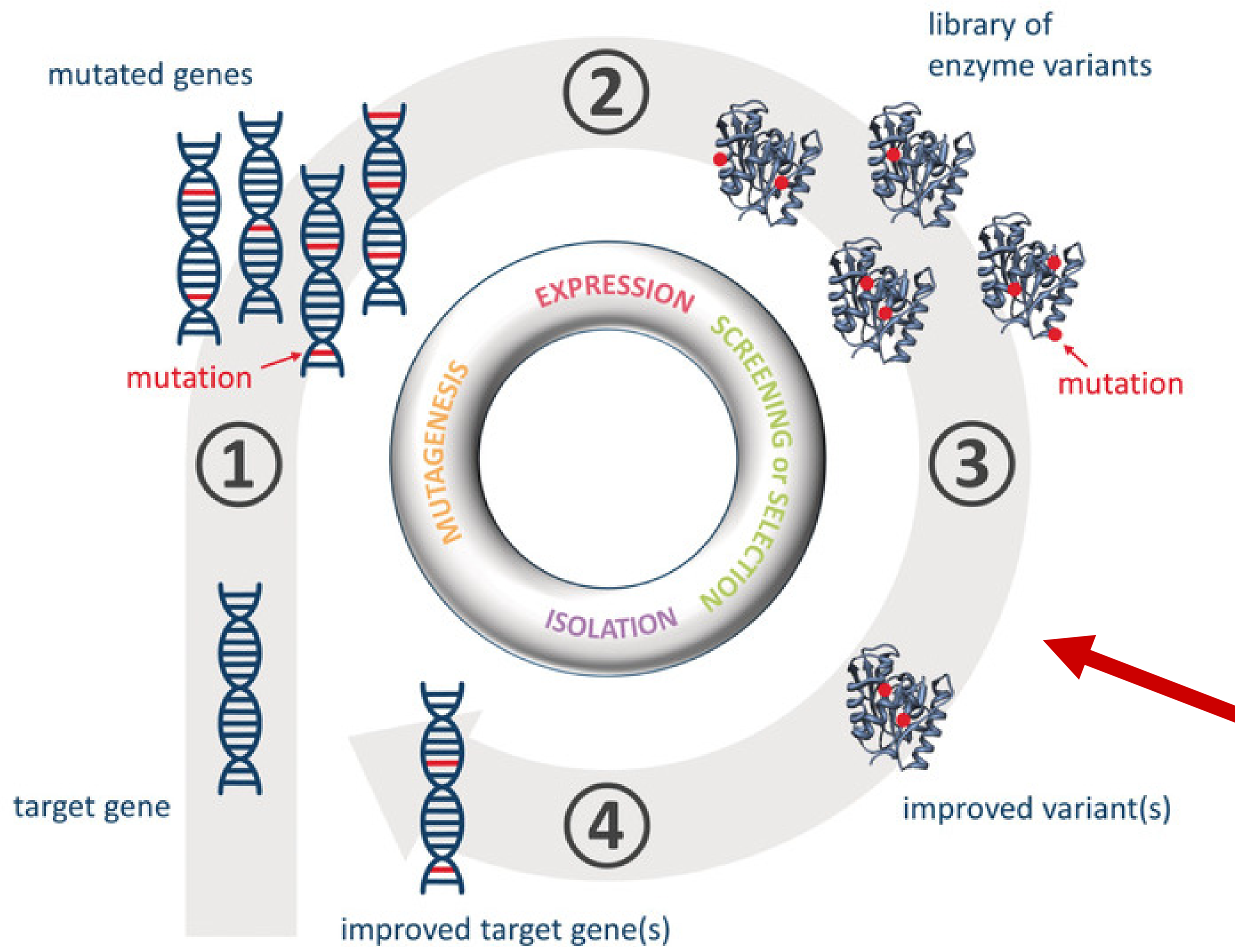
4 Only improved variants survive the selection. KAPA SYBR® DNA Polymerase was evolved specifically for real-time PCR and outperforms wild-type Taq.

Amplification Plot

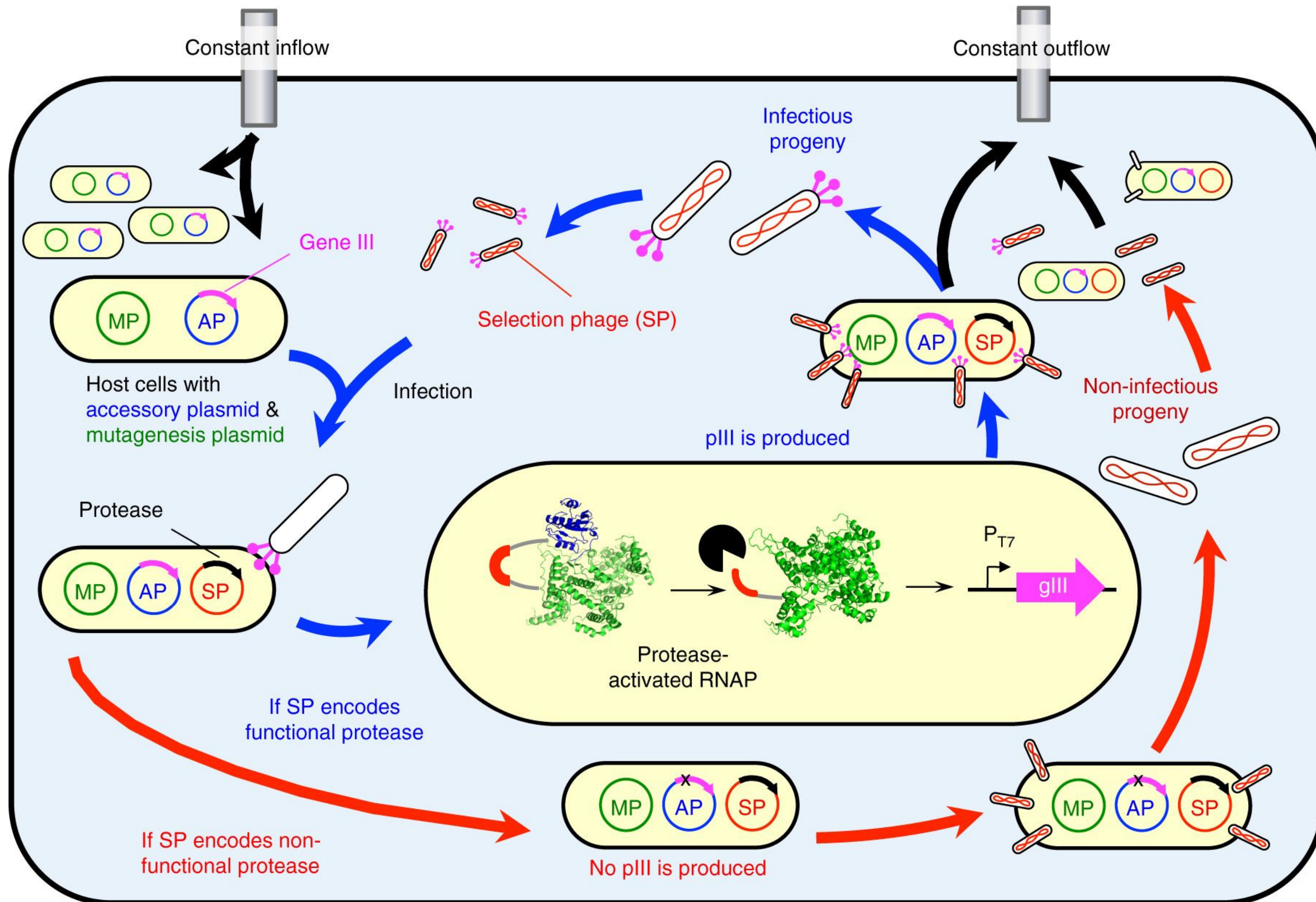
Cycle

https://www.kapabiosystems.com/technology/overview

Recapitulation: screening is important part of DE cycle

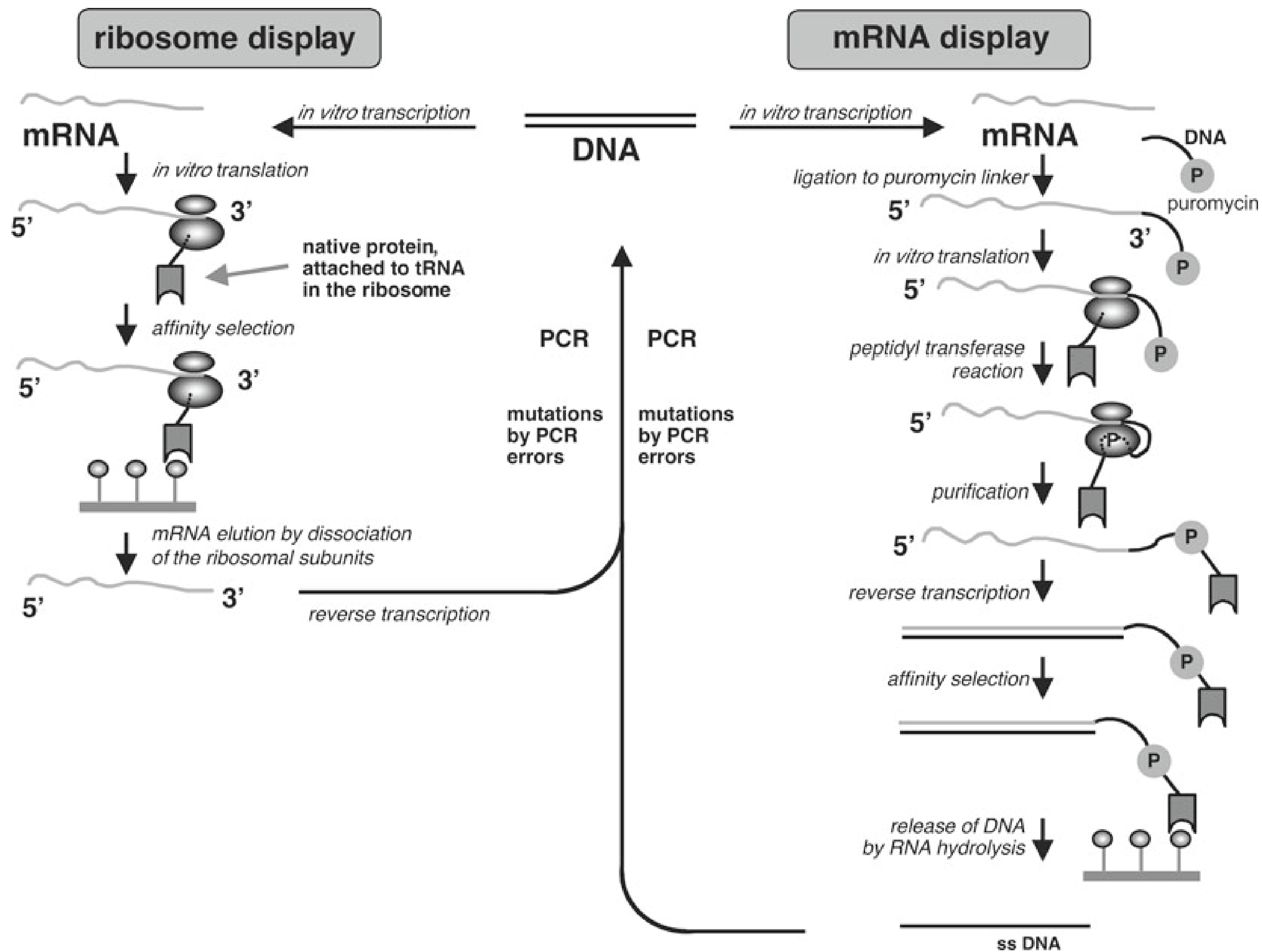


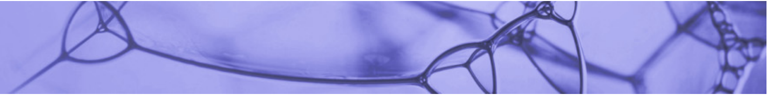
Recapitulation: phage-assisted continuous evolution (PACE)



Packer *et al.*, Nature Communications, 8: 956 (2017)

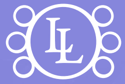
Recapitulation: ribosome display vs. mRNA display

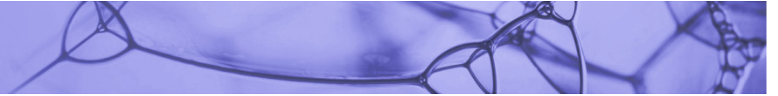




What will we talk about

- Introduction to protein nanomachines
  - Macromolecular protein assemblies
- Synergy between synthetic biology and structural biology
  - Resolution revolution, mutual benefits
- Multi-expression technologies
  - Strategies, methodology, success stories
- Synthetic virology
  - Construction of synthetic virus-based vehicles, examples
- Immunotherapy and gene therapy
  - Concepts and applications



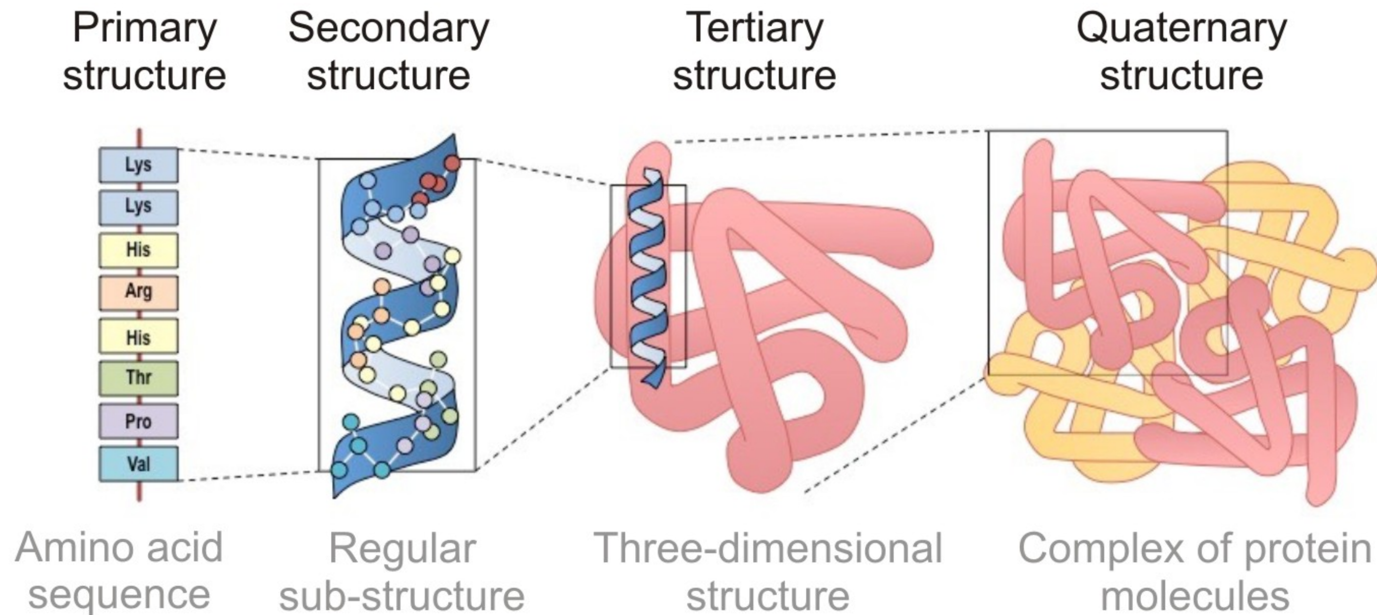


Design of large protein nanomachines

Concepts
Methods
Applications

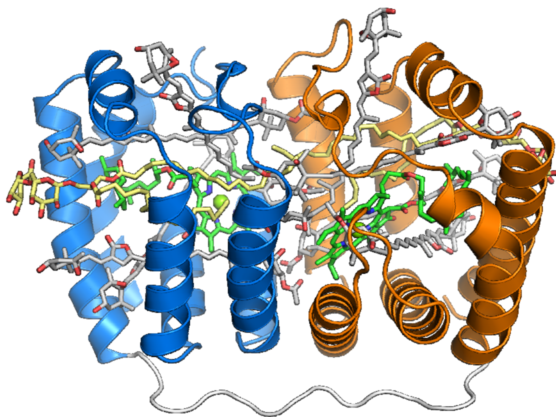
The anatomy of protein structure

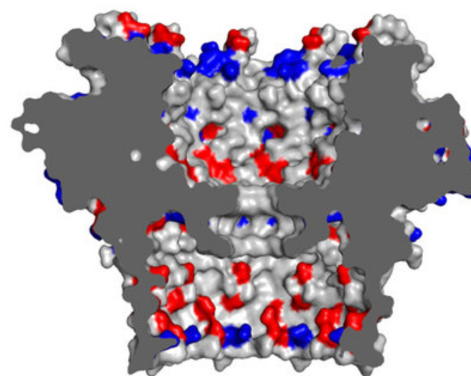
- Proteins are an important class of biological macromolecules which are polymers of amino acids
- Biochemists have distinguished several levels of structural organization of proteins

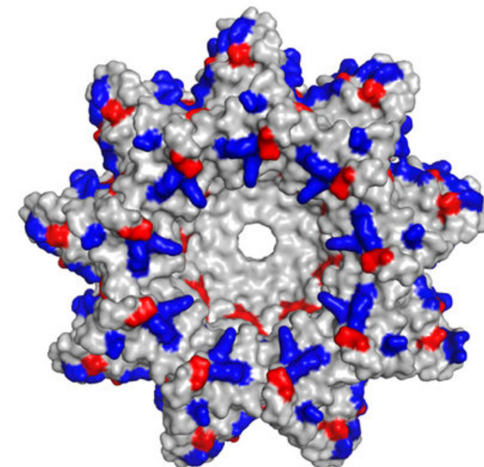


Most proteins work in multi-subunit protein complexes

- Protein function and activity are highly regulated within living cells
- To become functional, proteins commonly depend on their interactions with other molecules. These molecules are known to include other proteins, which readily interact to form **protein complexes**
- The majority of cellular processes are dependent on **protein-protein interactions** (**PPI's**)
- An additional layer of complexity is added by the interaction of different protein complexes in so called **super-complexes** or **metabolons**
- A protein complex or multi-protein complex is a group of two or more associated polypeptide chains. Different polypeptide chains may have different functions

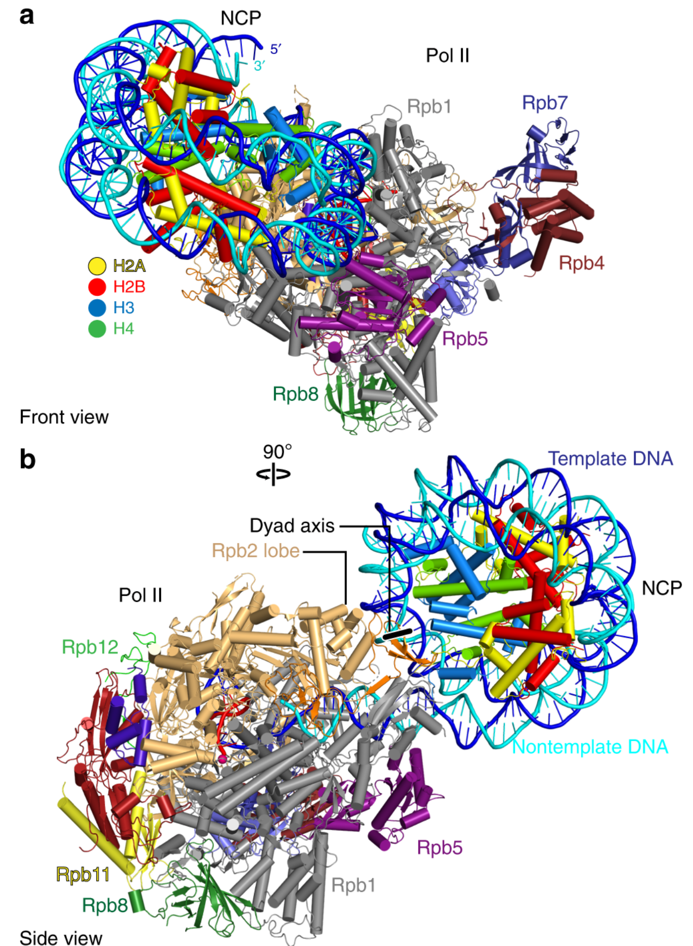


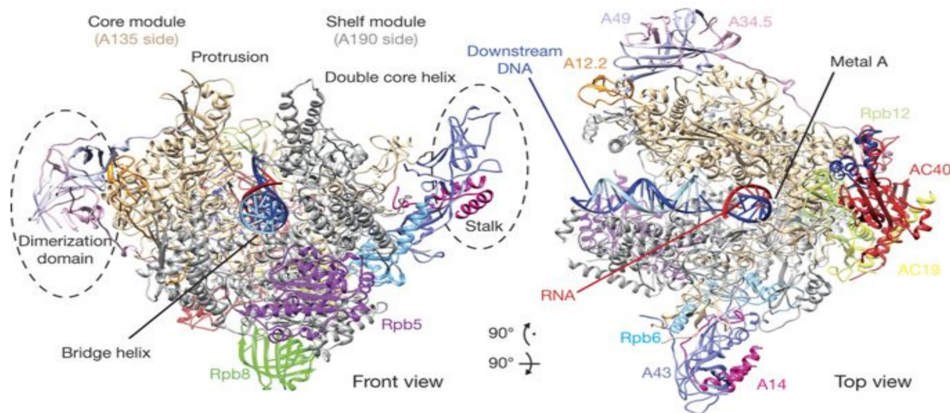




A movie of RNA polymerase II transcription

Prof. Patrick Cramer
Director at the Max Planck Institute for Biophysical Chemistry, Gottingen, DE

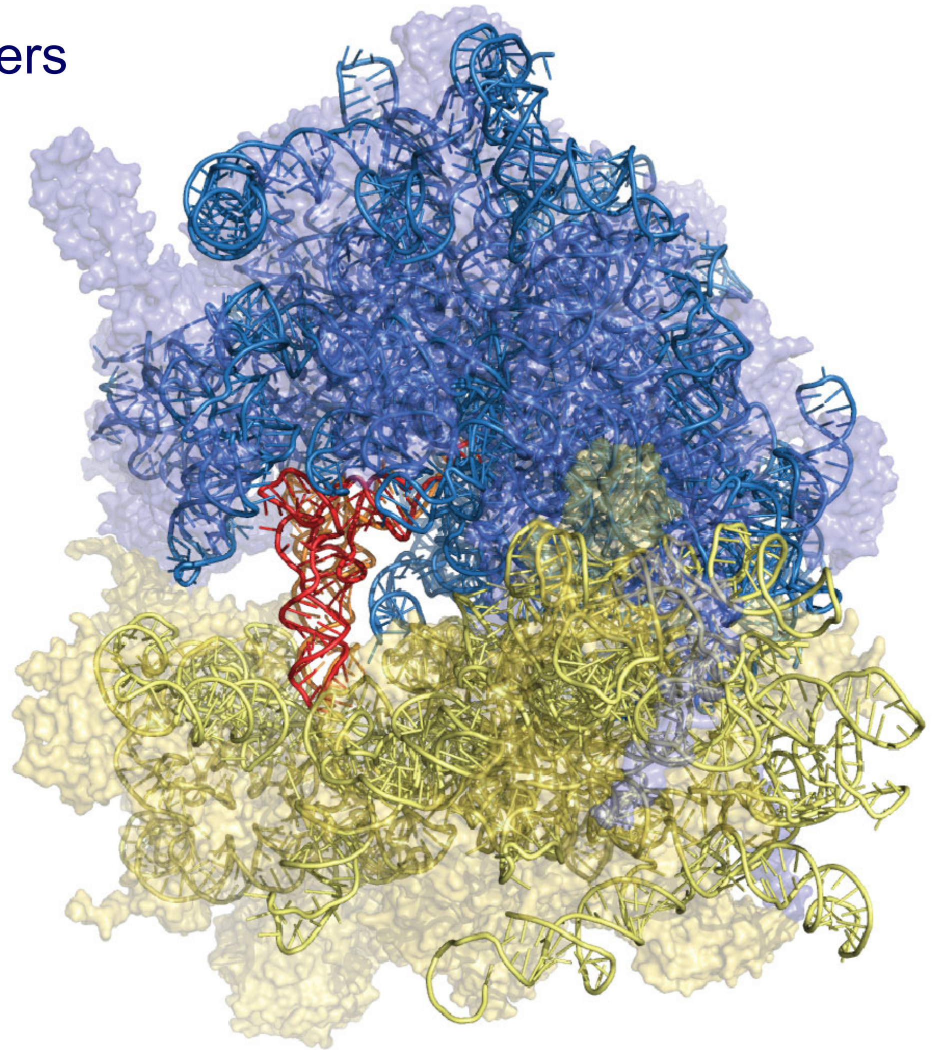




https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=WIMV_I88Lus

The ribosome, a large multi-subunit protein-RNA complex

- The ribosomes are protein synthesizers of the cell
- Made up of rRNAs and distinct ribosomal proteins
- Arranged into two pieces:
  - Small ribosomal subunit
  - Large ribosomal subunit



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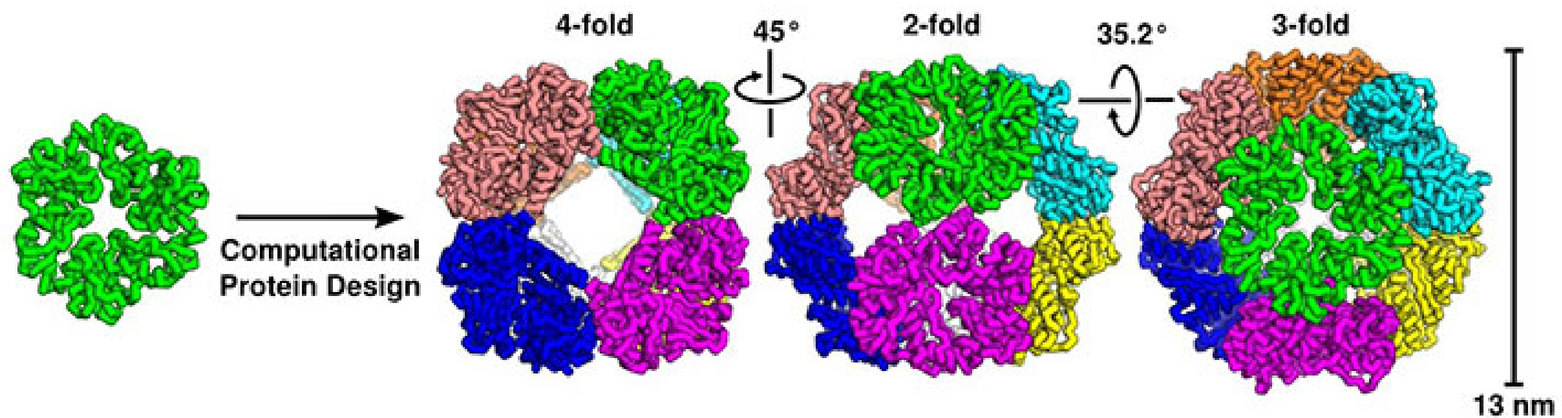
RESEARCH ARTICLE

The Structure of the Eukaryotic Ribosome at 3.0 Å Resolution

Adam Ben-Shem*,†, Nicolas Garreau de Loubresse*, Sergey Melnikov*, Lasse Jenner, Gulnara Yusupova, Marat Yusupov†

+ See all authors and affiliations

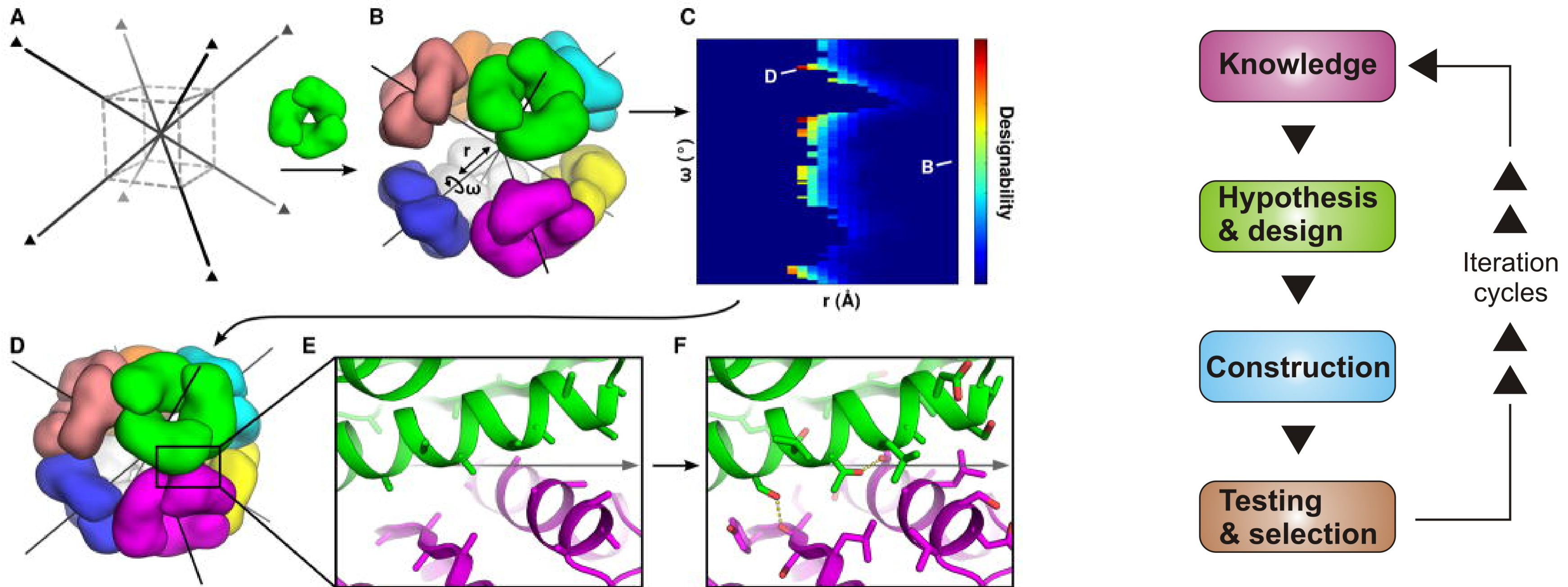
Computational design of large protein assemblies



- Self assembling protein materials play critical roles in biology.
- Proteins have many features that make them attractive as building blocks for the development of completely new classes of advanced functional materials.
- There are efforts to develop general approaches for creating new self assembling nanostructures, and using these approaches to develop a next generation of synthetic biology solutions (nanoreactors, nanocages, vaccines and drug delivery vehicles).

Science 2012 336 (6085):1171-4. doi: 10.1126/science.1219364

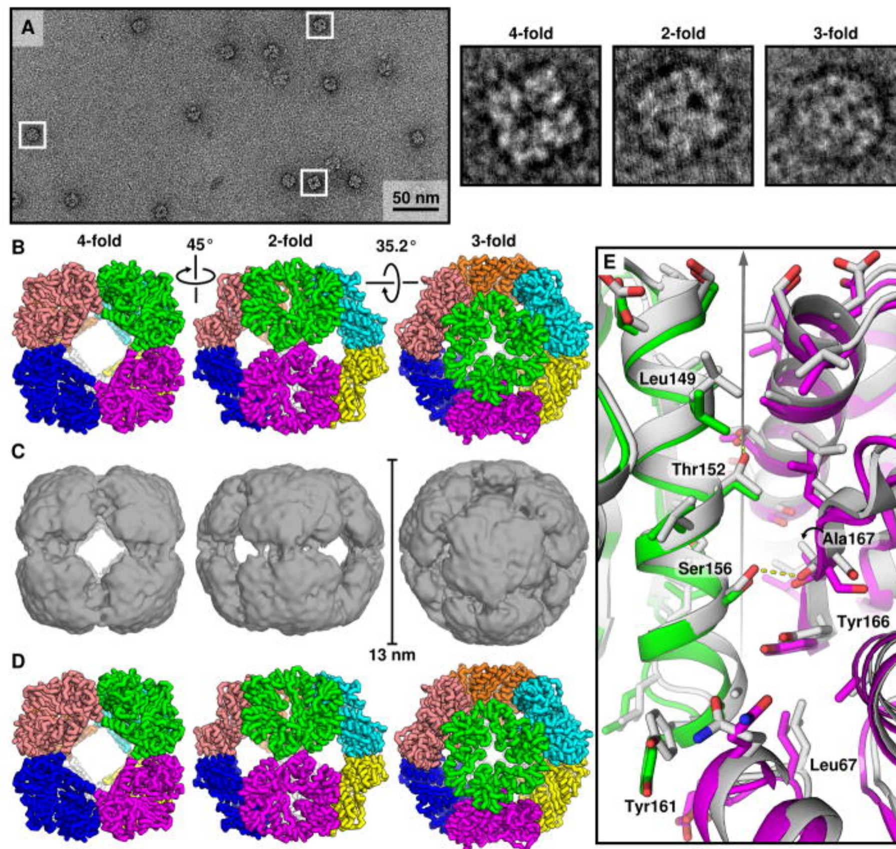
General approach to designing self-assembling protein nanomaterials



(**A**) First, a target symmetric architecture is chosen. Octahedral point group symmetry is used in this example; the threefold rotational axes are marked here by triangles and shown as black lines throughout. The dashed cube is shown to orient the viewer. (**B**) Multiple copies of the building block are symmetrically arranged in the target architecture by aligning their shared symmetry axes. The pre-existing organization of the oligomeric building block fixes several (in this case four) rigid body degrees of freedom (DOFs). (**C**) Symmetrical docking is performed by systematically varying the two DOFs (moves are applied symmetrically to all subunits) and computing the suitability of each configuration for interface design (red: more suitable; blue: less suitable). Points corresponding to the docked configurations in panels (B), in which the building blocks are not in contact, and (**D**), a highly complementary interface, are indicated (**E**, **F**).

Science 2012 336 (6085):1171-4. doi: 10.1126/science.1219364

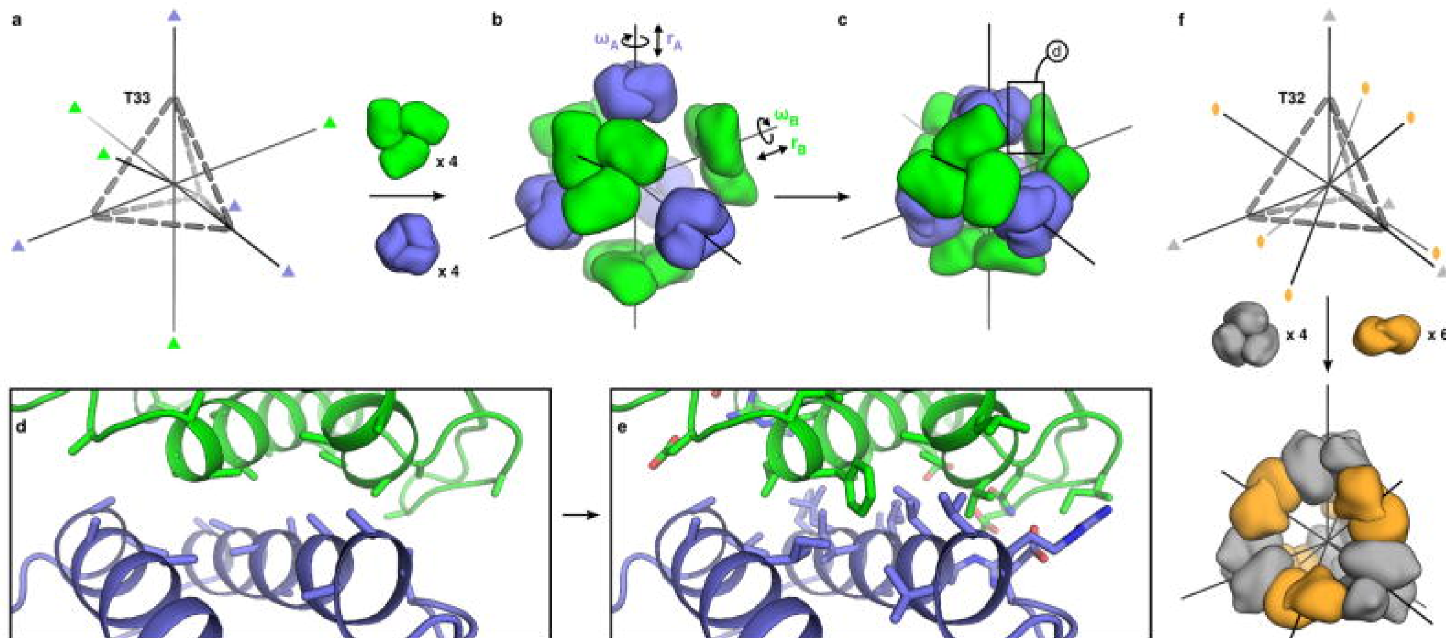
Computational design of self-assembling protein nanomaterials: experimental validation



(**A**) A representative negative stain electron micrograph of O3-33. Selected particles (boxed in white) that resemble views of the design model along its 4-fold, 2-fold, and 3-fold rotational axes, shown in (B), are enlarged at right. (**B**) The O3-33 design model, depicted in ribbon format. Each trimeric building block is shown in a different color. (**C**) The density map from a 20 Å resolution cryo-EM reconstruction of O3-33 clearly recapitulates the architecture of the design model. (**D**) The crystal structure of O3-33 (R32 crystal form). Images in (B) to (D) are shown to scale along the three types of symmetry axes present in point group O. (**E**) The designed interface in O3-33, highlighting the close agreement between the crystal structure (green and magenta) and the design model (white). Oxygen atoms are red; nitrogens, blue. Hydrogen bonds between the building blocks are shown as yellow dashes, and an octahedral 2-fold rotational axis that passes through the interface is shown as a gray line. Residues in which substitution disrupted self-assembly are labeled.

Science 2012 336 (6085):1171-4. doi: 10.1126/science.1219364

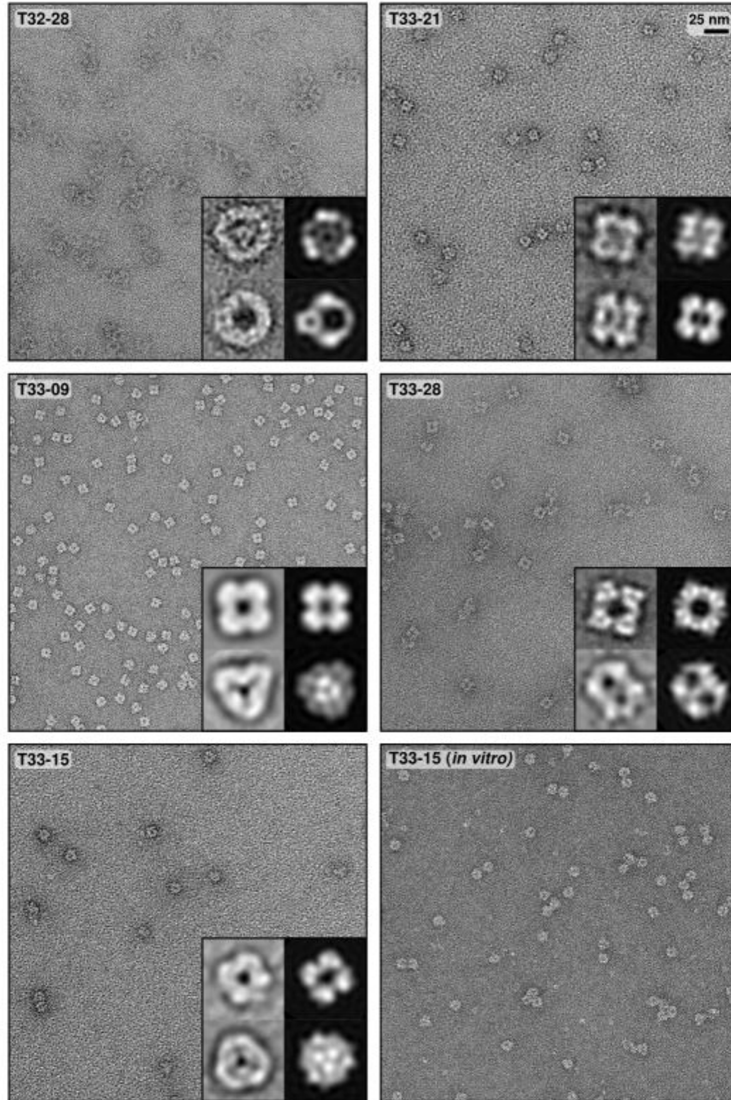
Design of multi-component protein materials: overview

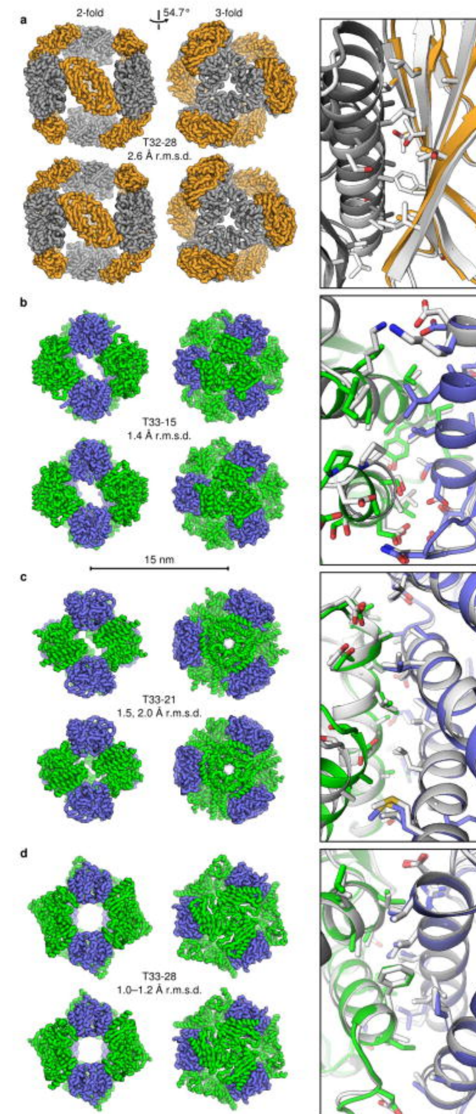


a, The T33 architecture comprises four copies each of two distinct trimeric building blocks (green and blue) arranged with tetrahedral point group symmetry (24 total subunits; triangles indicate three-fold symmetry axes). **b,** Each building block has two rigid body degrees of freedom, one translational (r) and one rotational (ω), that are systematically explored during docking. **c–d,** The docking procedure, which is independent of the amino acid sequence of the building blocks, identifies large interfaces with high densities of contacting residues formed by well-anchored regions of the protein structure. **e,** Amino acid sequences are designed at the new interface to stabilize the modeled configuration and drive coassembly of the two components. **f,** In the T32 architecture, four trimeric (grey) and six dimeric (orange) building blocks are aligned along the three-fold and two-fold symmetry axes passing through the vertices and edges of a tetrahedron, respectively.

Nature. 2014 Jun 5; 510(7503): 103–108

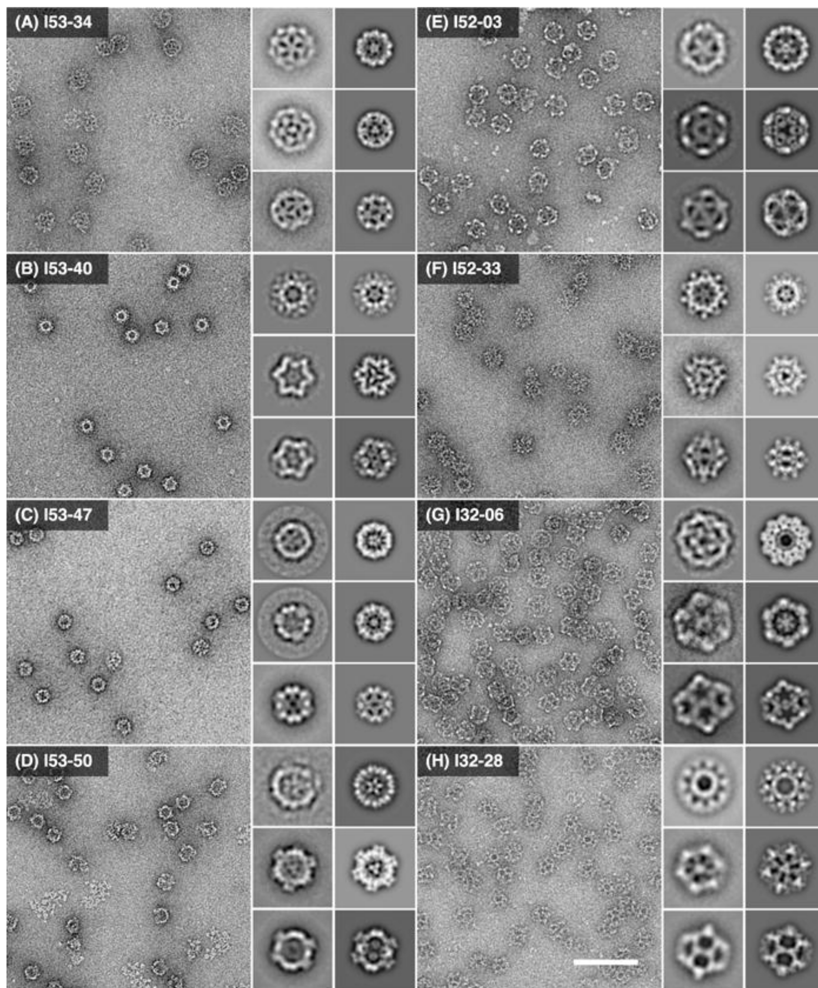
Structures of designed two-component protein nanomaterials

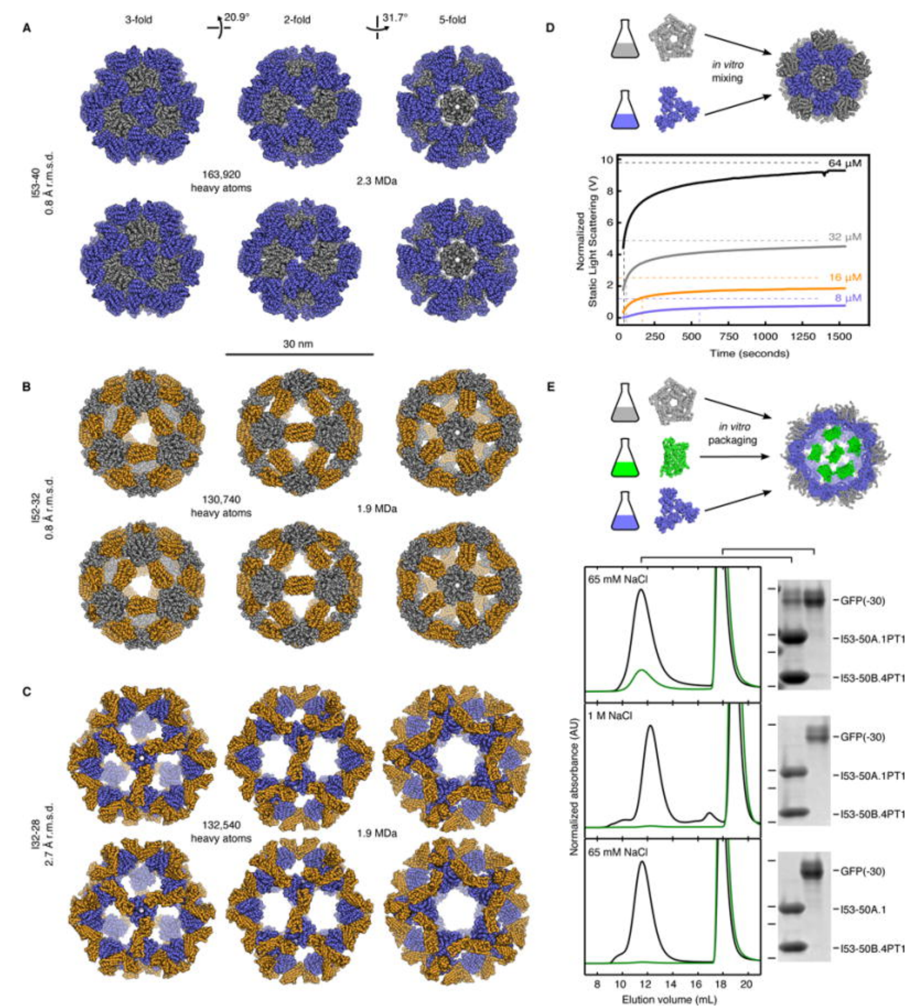




Nature. 2014 Jun 5; 510(7503): 103–108

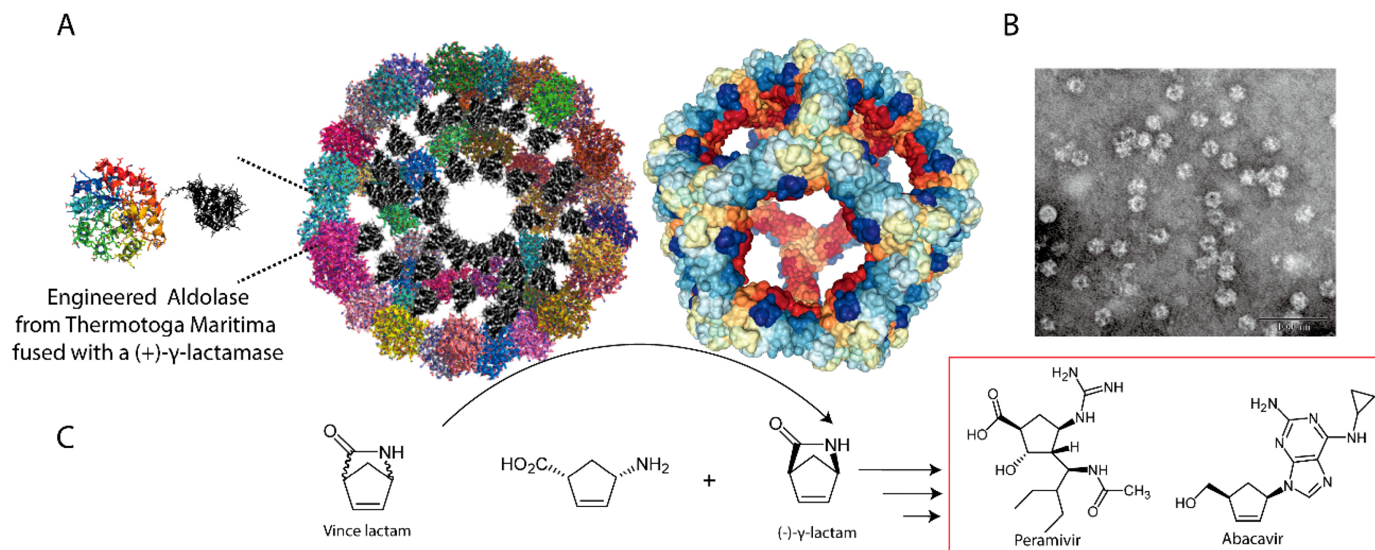
Accurate design of megadalton-scale two-component icosahedral protein complexes





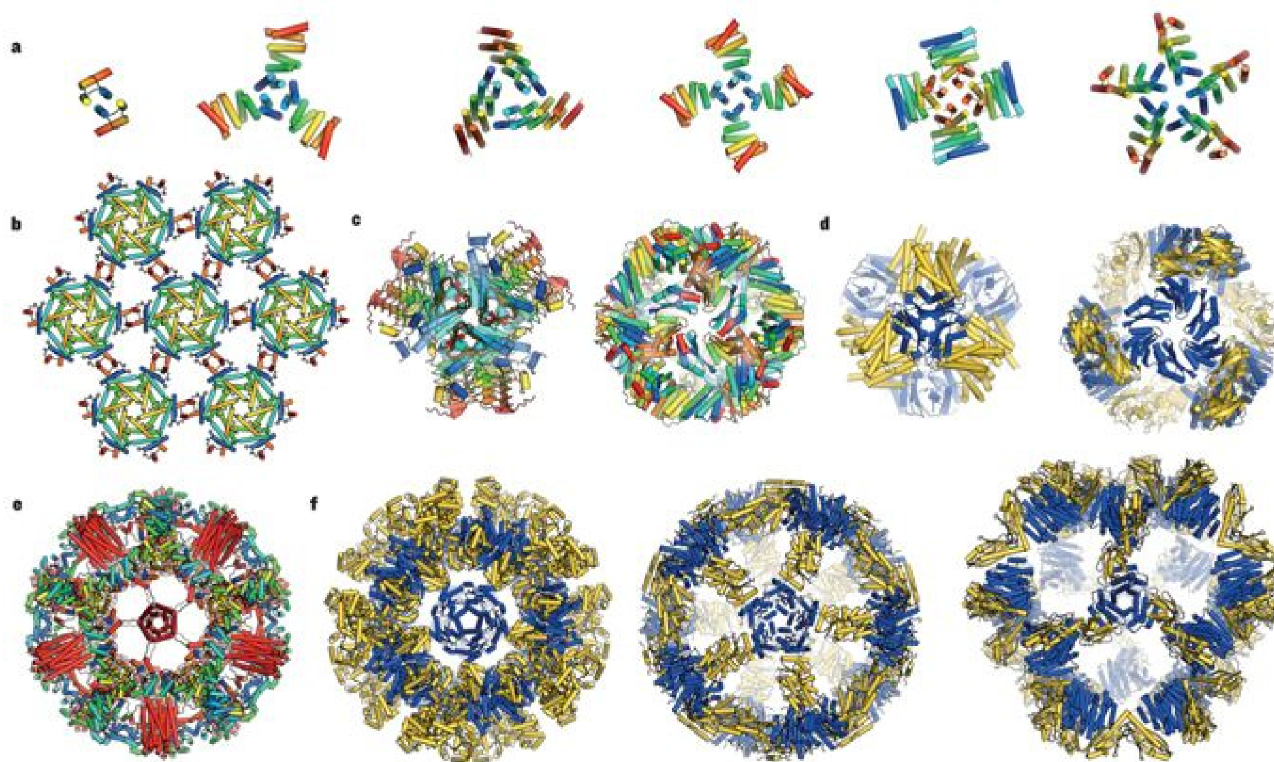
Science 2016; 353(6297): 389–394, doi: 10.1126/science.aaf8818

Artificial protein dodecahedrons



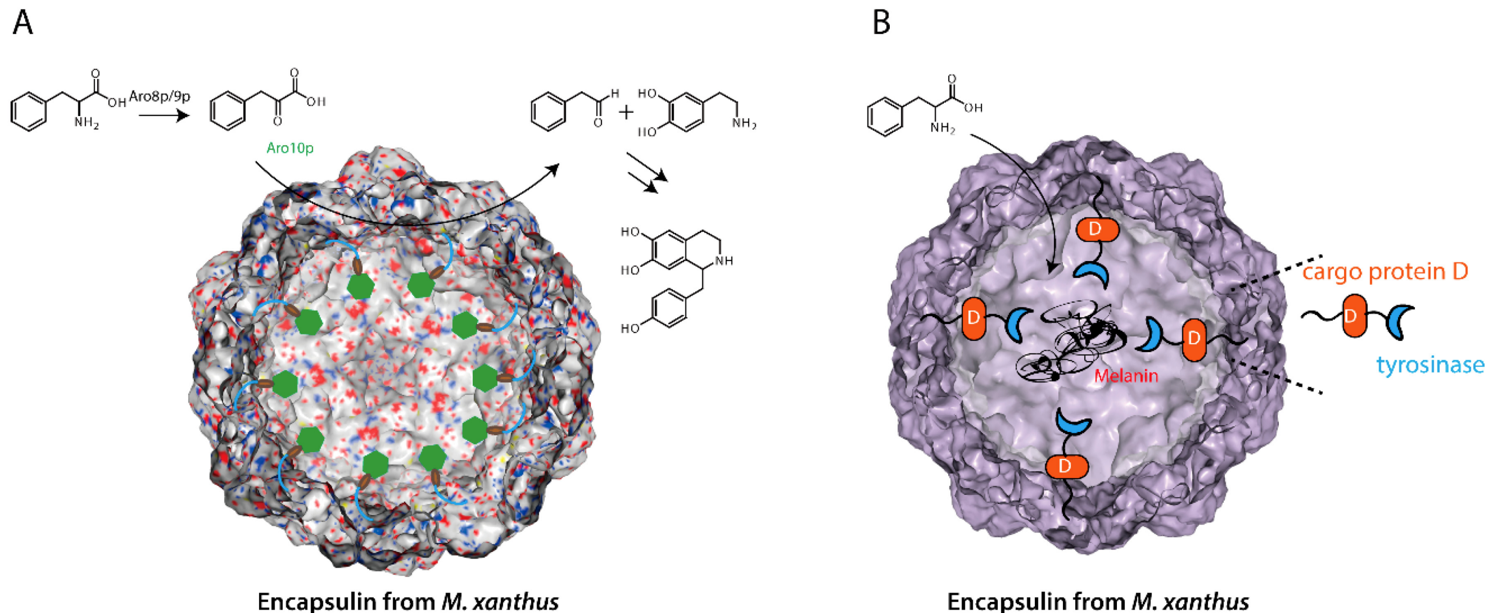
- The engineered trimeric aldolase from *Thermotoga maritima* with a modified interface was fused with an industrial biocatalyst (+)-γ-lactamase from *Microbacterium hydrocarbonoxydans* and the hybridized protein could be self-assembled into an organelle-like nanodevice.
- The constructed nanoreactor is readily used for enzymatic resolution of Vince lactam, an important intermediate for synthesis of carbocyclic nucleoside medicines. Notably, the designed nanoreactors could confer a significant benefit to the biocatalyst cargo. The encapsulated (+)-γ-lactamase exhibits significantly improved stabilities with respect to heat, organic solvent, and protease degradation. Moreover, it shows better substrate tolerance than the free enzyme.
- This research demonstrates that bio-designed artificial protein nanocages are an effective way to improve the stability and strength of biocatalysts and might have broader applications in sustainable catalysis and synthetic biology.

Synthetic large protein nanocages to improve drug delivery



Computational models of the 10 successful designs are shown via molecular surface representations (design names are shown above each model). Each design comprises a pairwise combination of pentameric (grey), trimeric (blue), or dimeric (orange) building blocks aligned along icosahedral fivefold, threefold, and twofold symmetry axes, respectively. All models are shown to scale relative to the 30 nanometer scale bar.

Encapsulins as nanocontainers for nanoreactor design



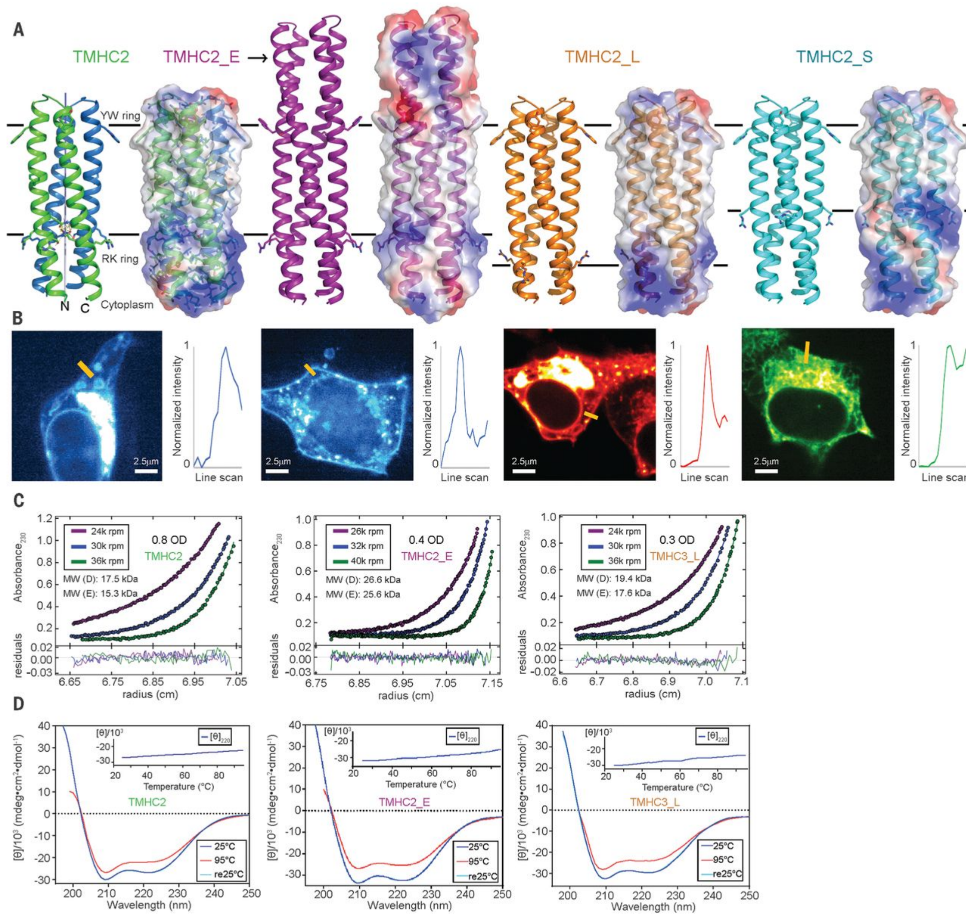
Encapsulin from *M. xanthus*

Encapsulin from *M. xanthus*

- Encapsulins are a new family of microbial proteinaceous compartments that have been engineered for nanoreactor construction. Typically, encapsulin has an overall size of about 20–40 nm (diameter), which is very similar to virus
- In fact, encapsulins are naturally occurring nanoreactors that encapsulate specific cargo proteins and are involved in diverse cell processes including iron mineralization, oxidative and nitrosative stress resistance, and anaerobic ammonium oxidation
- This example demonstrates that encapsulin compartments could be selected as a general platform for organelle construction in eukaryotes and has potential for wide application in synthetic biology

Membrane protein oligomers by design

Design and characterization of proteins with four transmembrane helices

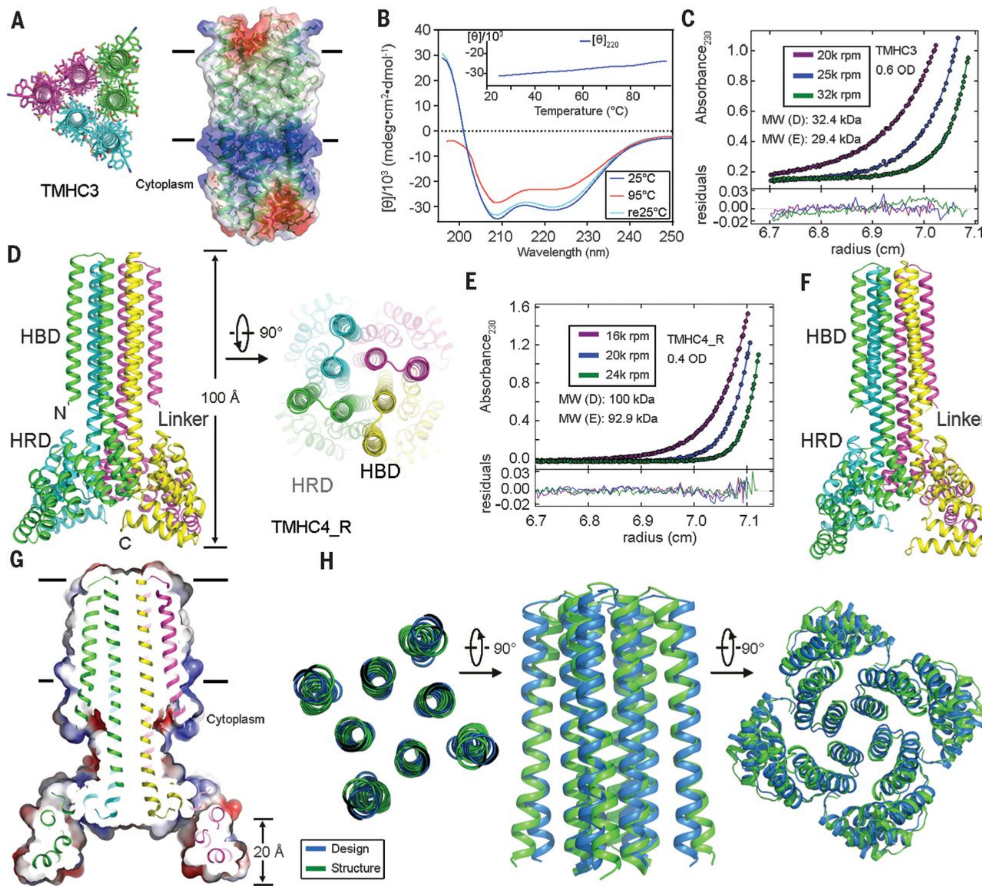


Science 2018: 359(6379):1042-1046, doi: 10.1126/science.aaq1739

A and **B**) From left to right, designs and data for TMHC2 (transmembrane hairpin C2), TMHC2_E (elongated), TMHC2_L (long span), and TMHC2_S (short span). (A) Design models with intra- and extramembrane regions with different lengths. Horizontal lines demarcate the hydrophobic membrane regions. Ribbon diagrams are at left, electrostatic surfaces are at right, and the neutral transmembrane regions are in gray. (B) Confocal microscopy images for HEK293T cells transfected with TMHC2 fused to mTagBFP, TMHC2_E fused to mTagBFP, TMHC2_L fused to mCherry, and TMHC2_S fused to enhanced green fluorescent protein. Line scans (yellow lines) across the membranes show substantial increase in fluorescence across the plasma membranes for TMHC2, TMHC2_E, and TMHC2_L, but less substantial increase for TMHC2_S. (**C**) Representative AUC sedimentation-equilibrium curves at three different rotor speeds. Each data set is globally well fit as a single ideal species in solution corresponding to the dimer molecular weight. “MW (D)” and “MW (E)” indicate the molecular weight of the oligomer design and that determined from experiment, respectively. (**D**) CD spectra and (inset) temperature melt. No apparent unfolding transitions are observed up to 95°C.

Membrane protein oligomers by design

Characterization of designs with six and eight membrane-spanning helices



Science 2018: 359(6379):1042-1046, doi: 10.1126/science.aaq1739

(**A**) Model of designed transmembrane trimer TMHC3 with six transmembrane helices. Stick representation from periplasmic side (left) and lateral surface view (right) are shown. (**B**) CD characterization of TMHC3. The design is stable up to 95°C. (**C**) Representative AUC sedimentation-equilibrium curves at three different rotor speeds for TMHC3. The data fit to a single ideal species in solution with molecular weight close to that of the designed trimer. (**D**) Model of designed transmembrane tetramer TMHC4_R with eight transmembrane helices. The four protomers are colored green, yellow, magenta, and blue, respectively. (**E**) AUC sedimentation-equilibrium curves at three different rotor speeds for TMHC4_R fit well to a single species, with a measured molecular weight of ~94 kDa. (**F**) Crystal structure of TMHC4_R. The overall tetramer structure is very similar to the design model, with a helical bundle body and helical repeat fins. The outer helices of the transmembrane hairpins tilt off the axis by ~10°. (**G**) Cross section through the TMHC4_R crystal structure and electrostatic surface. The HRD forms a bowl at the base of the overall structure with a depth of ~20 Å. The transmembrane region is indicated in lines. (**H**) Three views of the backbone superposition of TMHC4_R crystal structure and design model.

Design of protein nanomachines is enabled by advances in structural biology

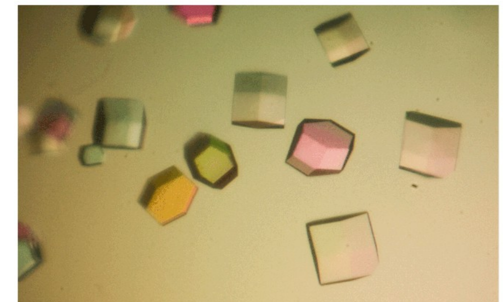
Concepts
Methods
Applications

Structural biology of large macromolecular assemblies

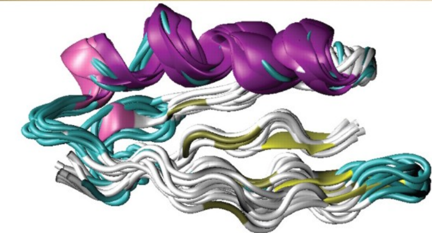
- Determining 3D structure of proteins help protein engineers to understand molecular mechanism of protein action and its biological function.

Structural biology techniques

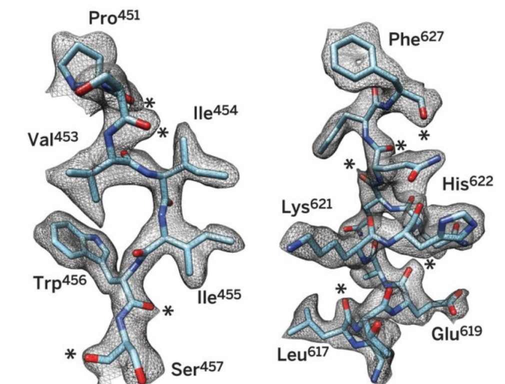
- **X-ray crystallography**
  Crystallization required, no size limits, challenging for highly flexible proteins

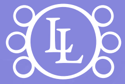


- Nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy
  Labelling required, suitable for smaller proteins, capturing protein motions



- **Cryo-electron microscopy**
  Automation, direct electron detectors, image processing suitable for large protein complexes

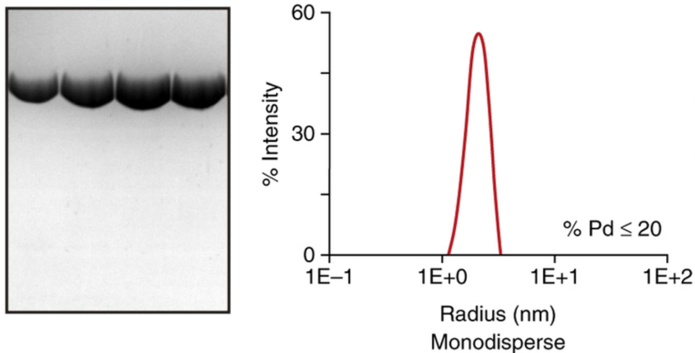


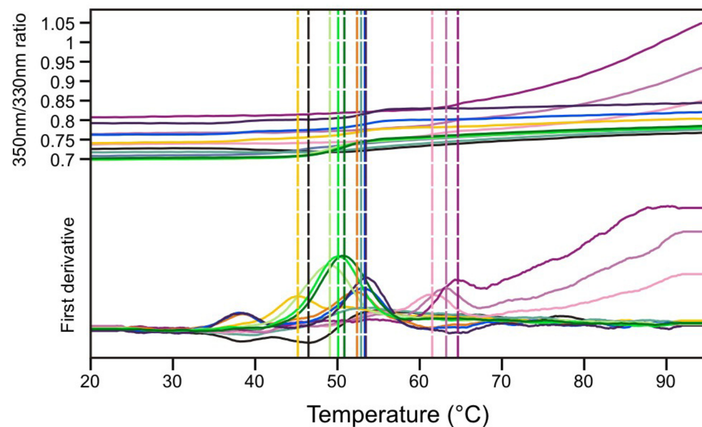


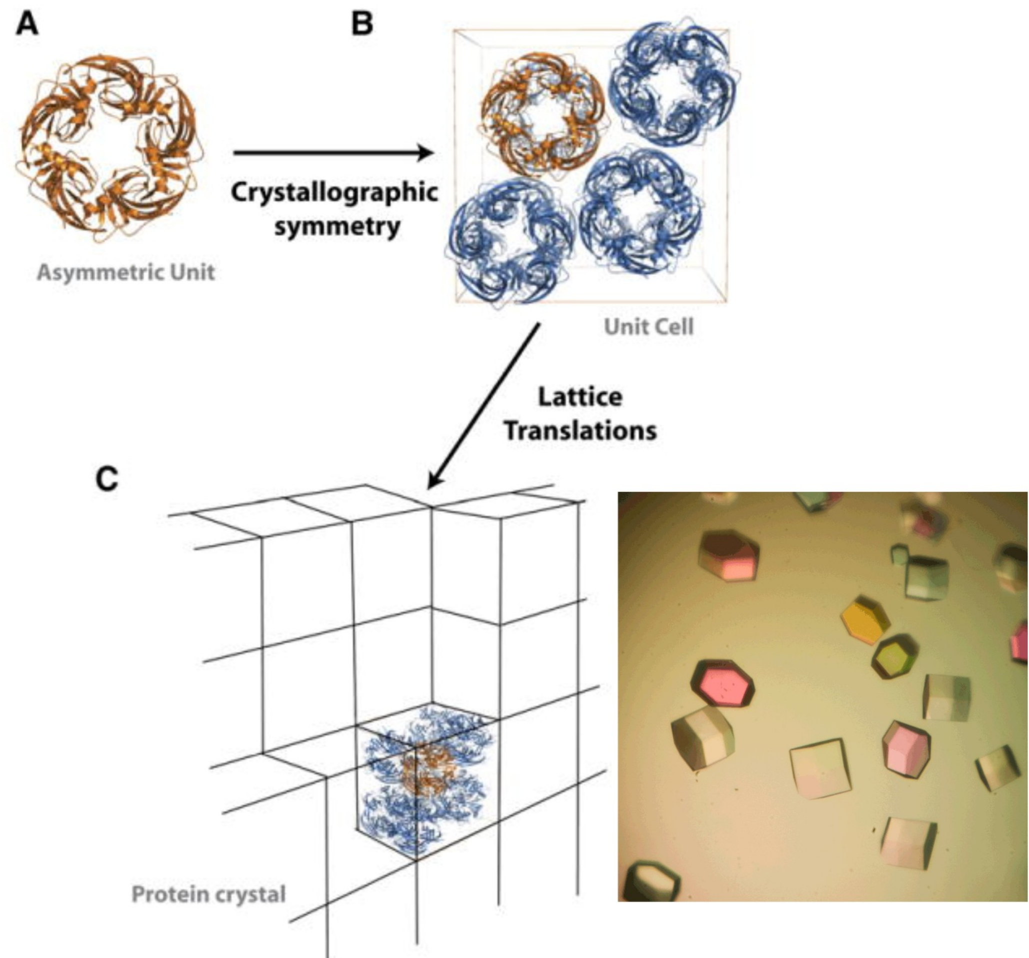
Macromolecular crystallography

Prerequisite for successful protein crystallization

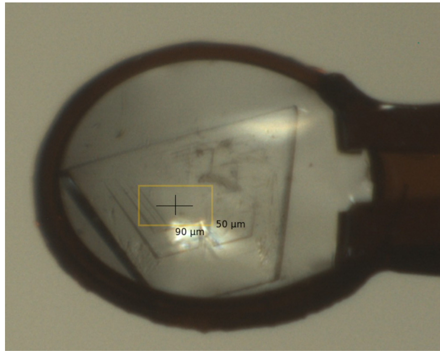
- Large quantities (few mgs)
- High purity
- Homogeneity
- Stability

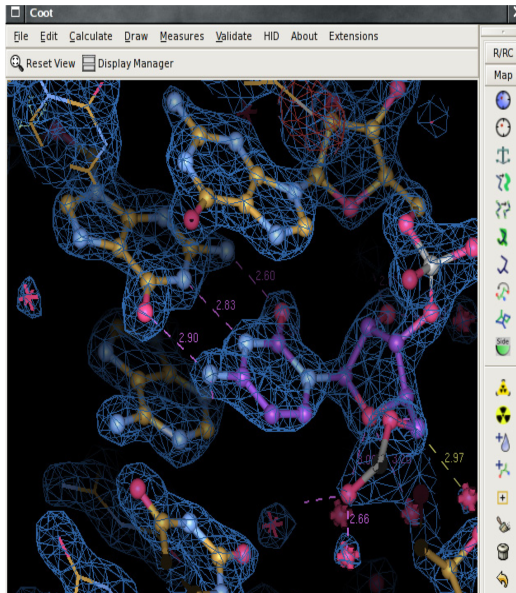


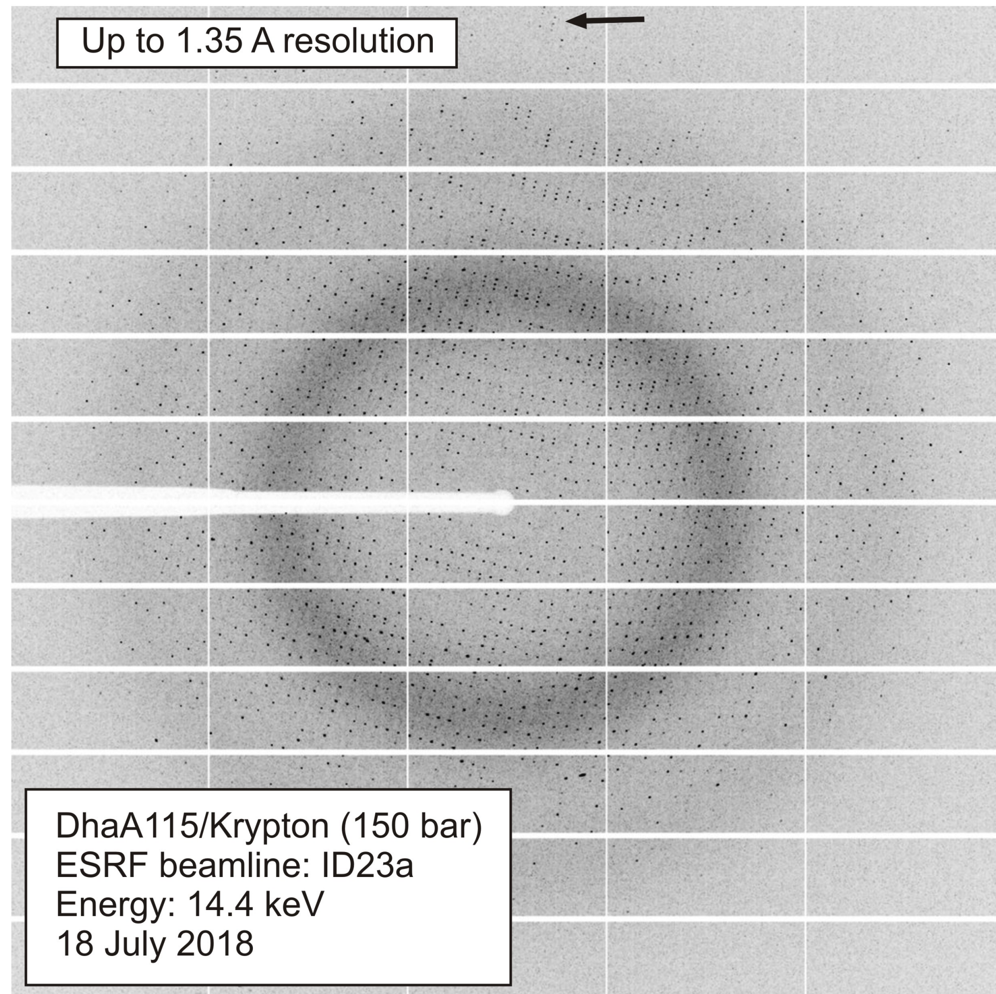




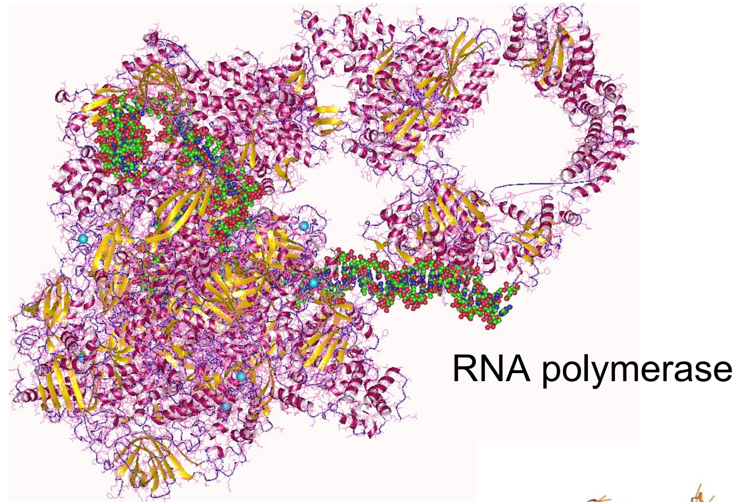
Crystal freezing, data collection, processing & model building



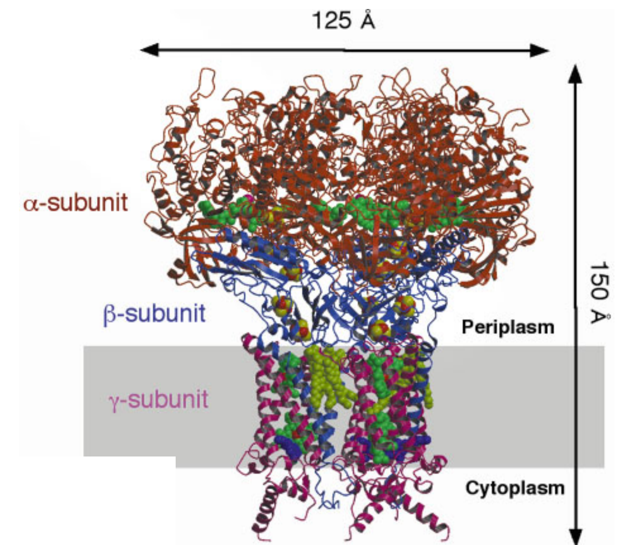




Examples of macromolecular X-ray structures



RNA polymerase



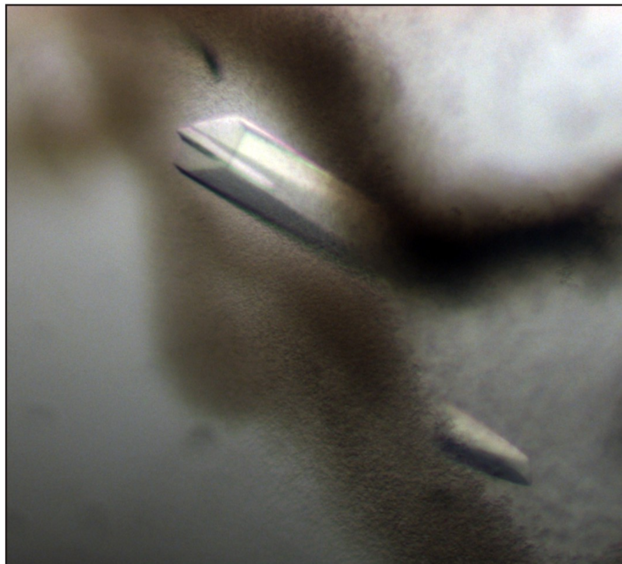
Membrane protein

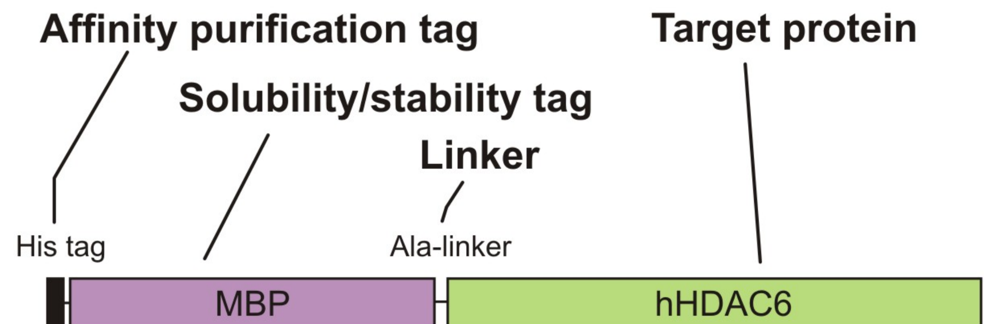
Ribosome

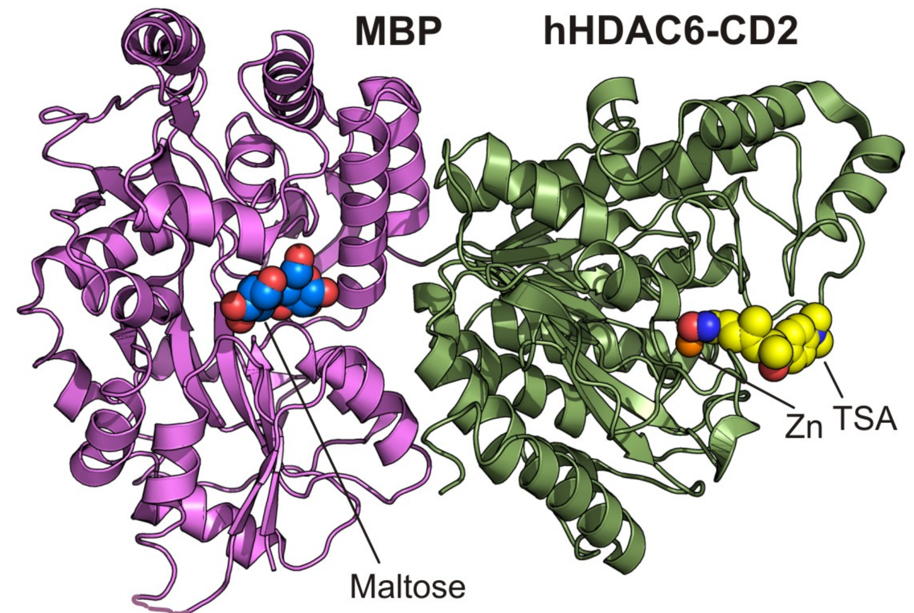
Engineered fusion proteins help protein crystallographers

Fusion tags used:

- Thioredoxin (Thx)
- Maltose-binding protein (MBP)
- Glutathione S-transferase (GST)
- Small ubiquitin-like modifier (SUMO)
- Polyhistidenes (6xHis, 12xHis)







Hai & Christianson, Nat. Chem. Biol. 12:741-747 (2016)

Cryo-electron microscopy: overview

The Nobel Prize in Chemistry 2017

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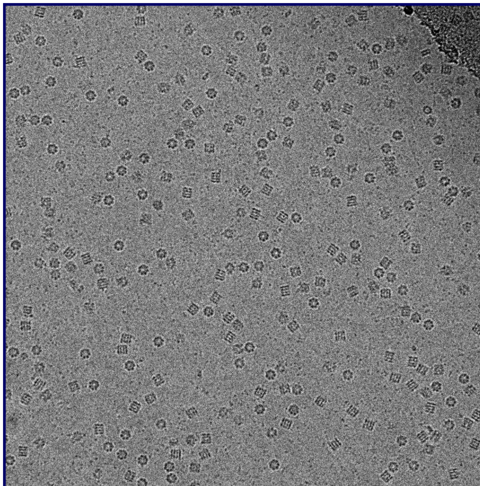
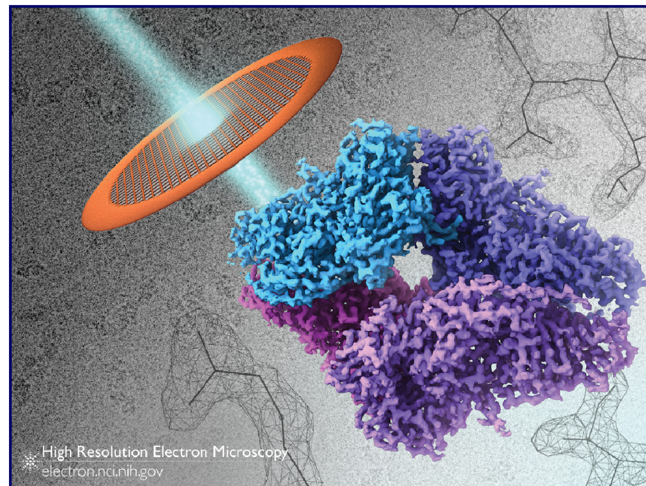
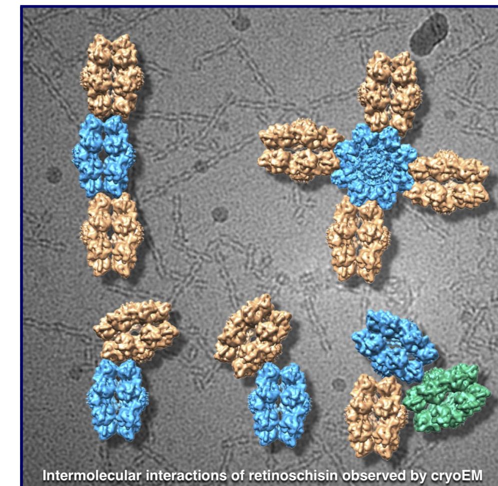
Richard Henderson
Prize share: 1/3

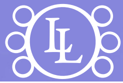
- **Cryo-electron microscopy** (**cryo-EM**) is an electron microscopy (EM) technique applied on samples cooled to cryogenic temperatures and embedded in an environment of vitreous water. An aqueous sample solution is applied to a grid-mesh and plunge-frozen in liquid ethane. While development of the technique began in the 1970s, recent advances in detector technology and software algorithms have allowed for the determination of biomolecular structures at near-atomic resolution.







Intermolecular interactions of retinoschisin observed by cryoEM



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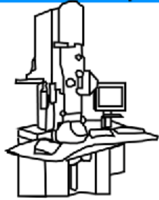
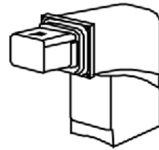
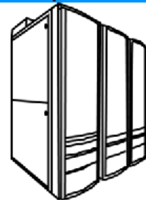
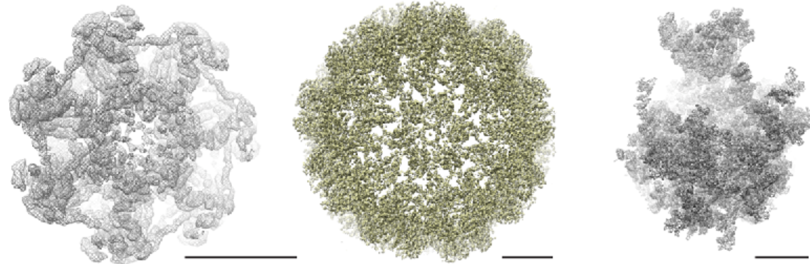
Recent major technical advances in cryo-EM

Microscopes	Imaging	Computation
		
Higher acceleration voltages Field emission gun Automation	CMOS cameras for direct electron detection Super resolution imaging Dose fractionated movies	Large computer clusters Motion correction of DED movies Improved alignment algorithms



near-atomic resolution 3D structures

THE REVOLUTION WILL NOT BE CRYSTALLIZED

MOVE OVER X-RAY CRYSTALLOGRAPHY. CRYO-ELECTRON MICROSCOPY IS KICKING UP A STORM IN STRUCTURAL BIOLOGY BY REVEALING THE HIDDEN MACHINERY OF THE CELL.

BY EWEN CALLAWAY

In a basement room, deep in the bowels of a steel-clad building in Cambridge, a major insurgency is under way.

A hulking metal box, some three metres tall, is quietly beaming terabytes' worth of data through thick orange cables that disappear off through the ceiling. It is one of the world's most advanced cryo-electron microscopes: a device that uses electron beams to photograph frozen biological molecules and lay bare their molecular shapes. The microscope is so sensitive that a shout can ruin an experiment, says Sjors Scheres, a structural biologist at the UK Medical Research Council Laboratory of Molecular Biology (LMB), as he stands dwarfed beside the £5-million (US$7.7-million) piece of equipment. "The UK needs many more of these, because there's going to be a boom," he predicts.

In labs around the world, cryo-electron microscopes such as this one are sending tremors through the field of structural biology. In the past three years, they have revealed exquisite details of protein-making ribosomes, quivering membrane proteins and other key cell molecules,

ILLUSTRATION BY VIKTOR KOEN

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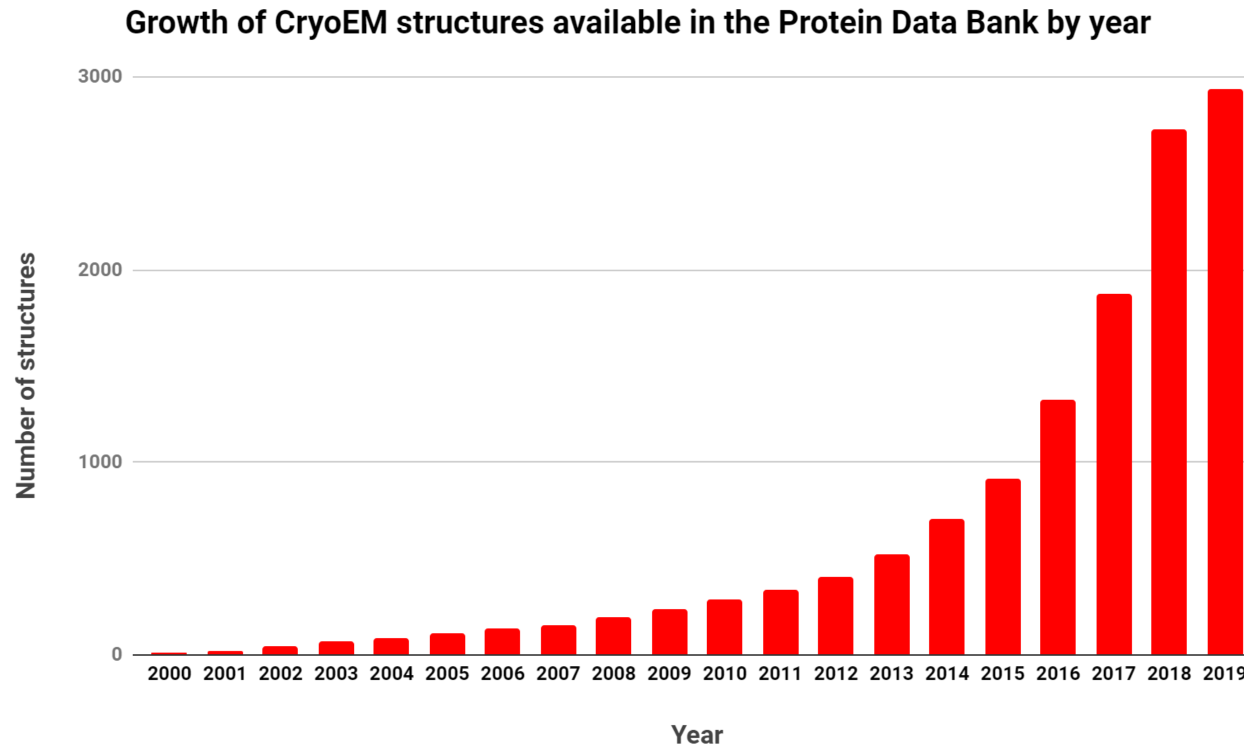
Cryo-EM structures in PDB database

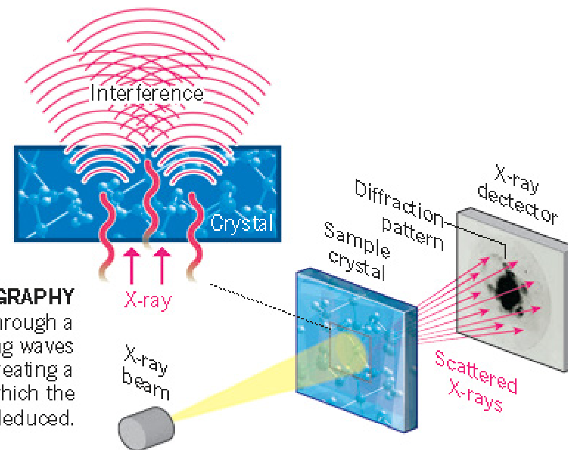


- The number of structures determined by cryo-EM is continuing to grow rapidly
- Computational methods are helping resolve conformational heterogeneity
- Improved biochemical methods are driving advances in cryo-EM of membrane proteins
- Novel approaches for cryo-EM specimen preparation are being explored

X-ray crystallography versus cryo-EM

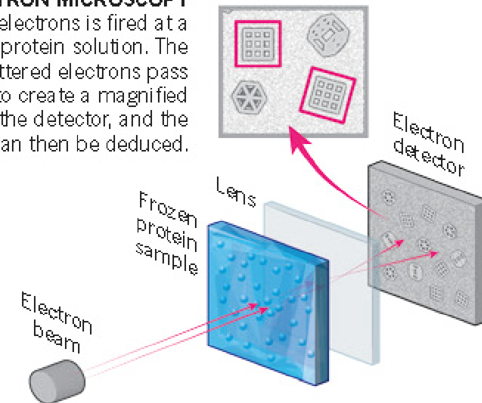
STRUCTURE SOLVERS

X-ray crystallography has long been the dominant method for deducing high-resolution protein structures, but cryo-electron microscopy is catching up.



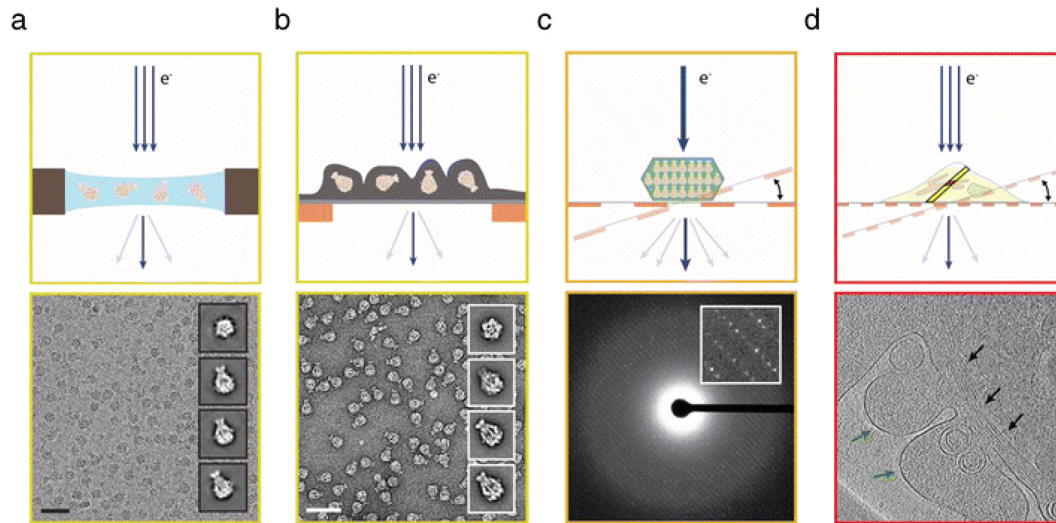
X-RAY CRYSTALLOGRAPHY
X-rays scatter as they pass through a crystallized protein; the resulting waves interfere with each other, creating a diffraction pattern from which the position of atoms is deduced.

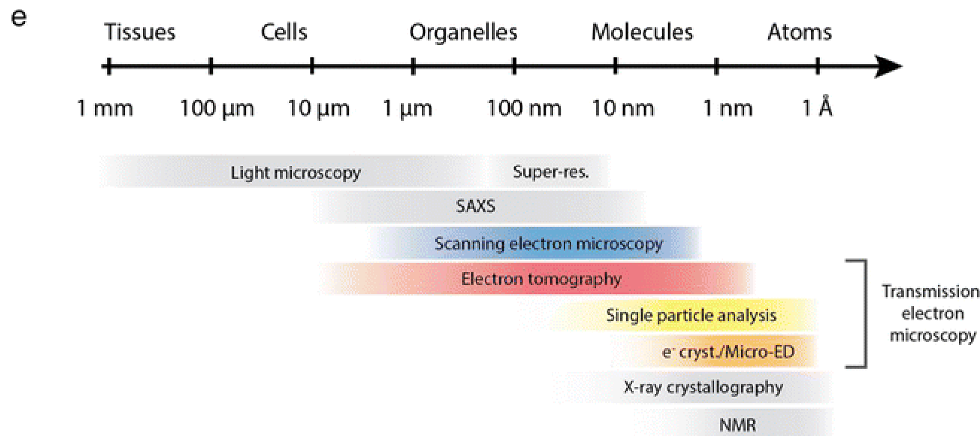
CRYO-ELECTRON MICROSCOPY
A beam of electrons is fired at a frozen protein solution. The emerging scattered electrons pass through a lens to create a magnified image on the detector, and the structure can then be deduced.



X-RAY IMAGE: SPL

The most used cryo-EM techniques





(**a**) **Single-particle cryo-EM**: particles are embedded in a thin layer of amorphous ice. Resulting representative class averages are shown as insets on the right. Scale bar, 50 nm. (**b**) **Single-particle negative-stain EM**: particles are embedded in a layer of heavy metal salts to increase the weak contrast of biological materials. Resulting representative class averages are shown as insets on the right. Scale bar, 50 nm. (**c**) **Micro-ED**: small 3-D crystals are hit with a focused electron beam and diffraction patterns are recorded at different tilt angles. Inset shows a small section of the diffraction image with individual diffraction spots at higher magnification. (**d**) **Cryo-ET**: the specimen is tilted within the microscope and images at different angles are recorded. A tomographic slice shows the cellular periphery with microtubule bundles (black arrows) and plasma membrane (green arrows). (**e**) Resolution range coverage of various methods in structural biology. Color code used for the TEM-based methods corresponds to (**a**)–(**d**). Yellow: single-particle analysis; orange: electron crystallography/micro-ED; red: electron tomography

Visualizing proteins by cryo-EM

Thin carbon film

Grid

Carbon film grid

The sample solution

Frozen in
liquid nitrogen

Frozen hydrated
specimen

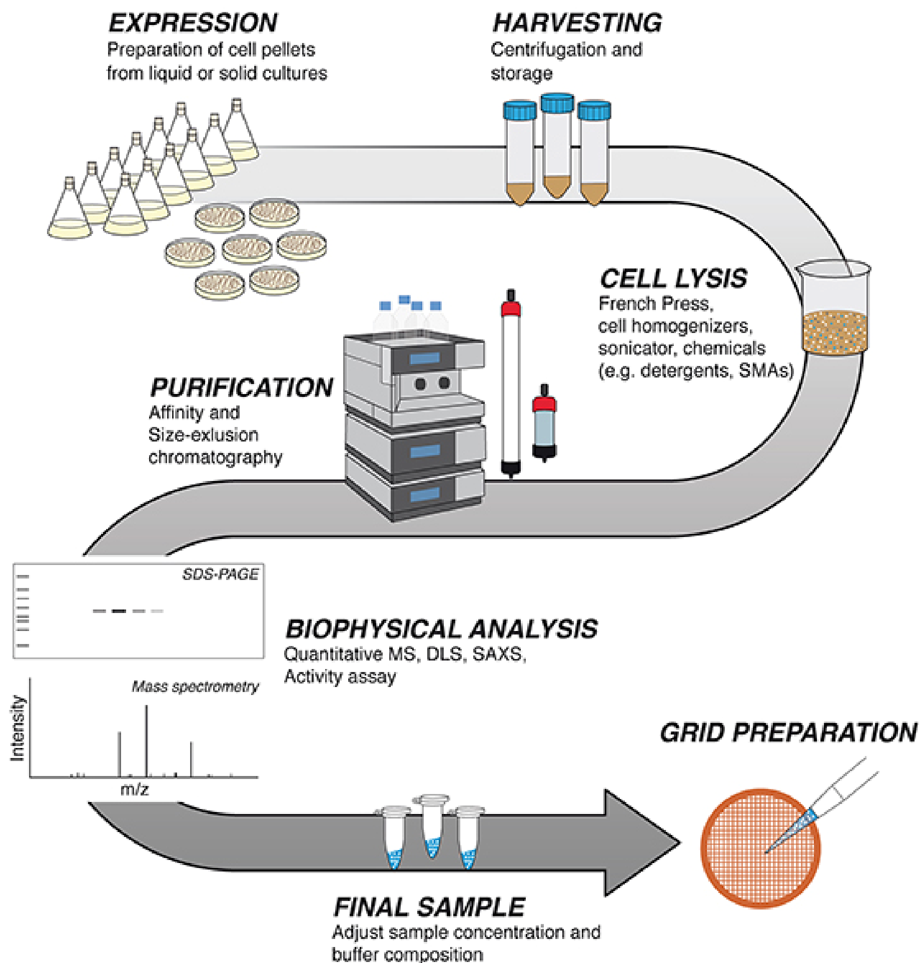
Cryo-EM
observation

Collect electron micrographs

Digital electron micrographs

Image processing by computer
and three-dimensional reconstruction

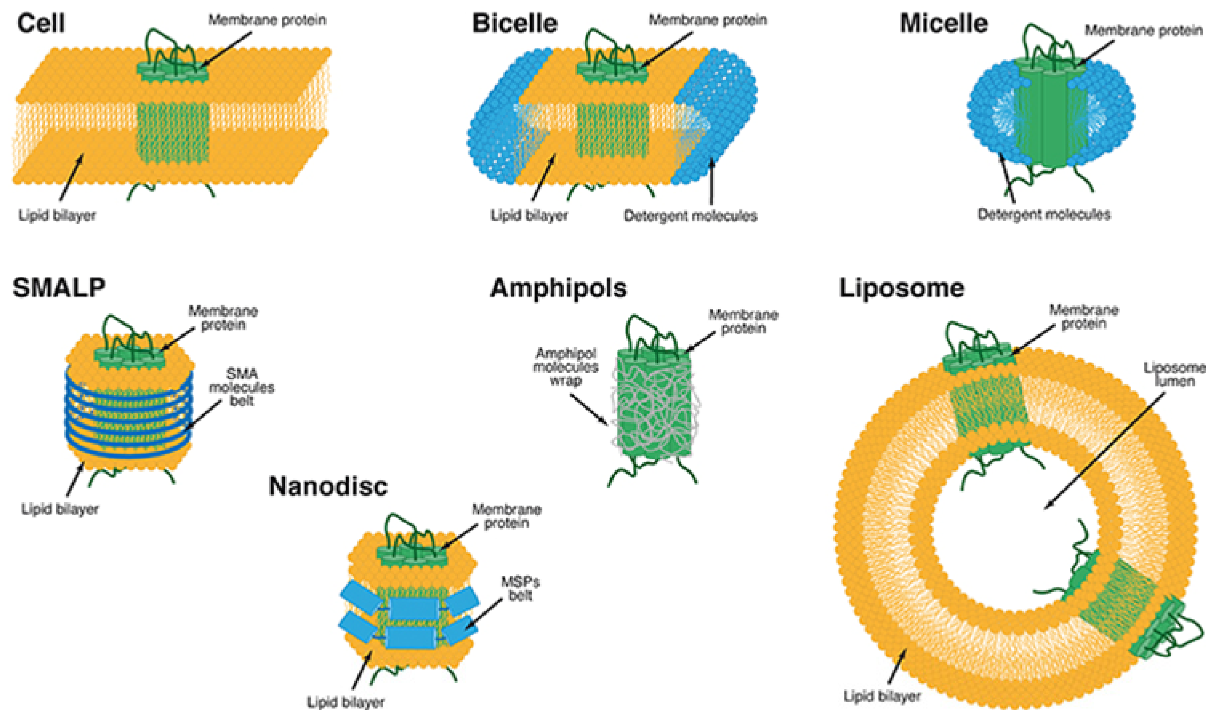
Protein sample preparation for cryo-EM



- Cytoplasmic or membrane proteins are initially expressed in liquid or solid cultures, and pellets are stored after harvesting by centrifugation.
- Different physical or chemical cell disruption methods are utilized for releasing cytoplasmic proteins into solution or to obtain cell membrane extracts.
- Impure cytoplasmic proteins or solubilized cell membranes containing the protein of interest are purified by combination of different fast protein liquid chromatography (FPLC) methods.
- After protein stability, integrity and activity is verified by various biophysical techniques.
- The final sample concentration and buffer composition are adjusted before EM grid preparation.

https://doi.org/10.3389/fmolb.2018.00074

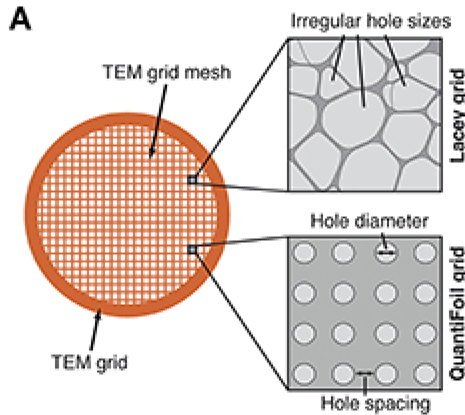
Membrane protein sample preparation and stabilisation

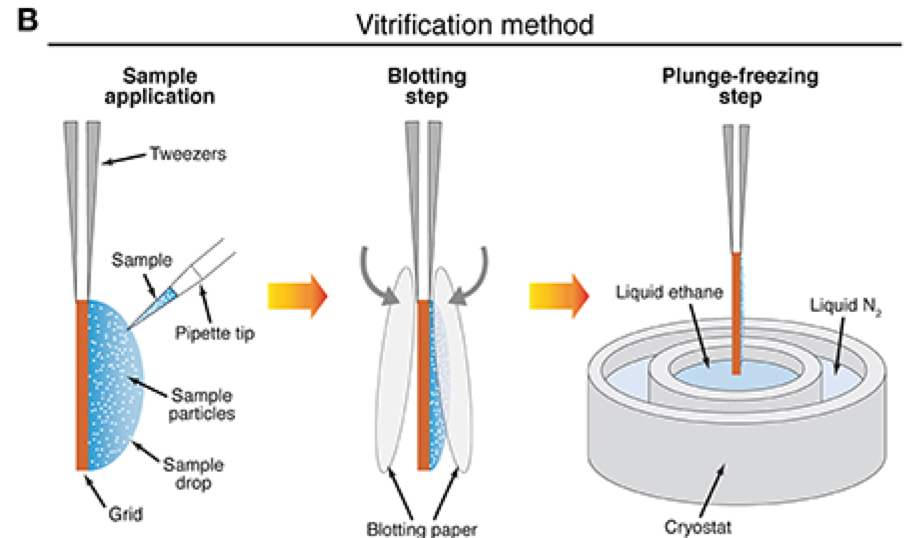


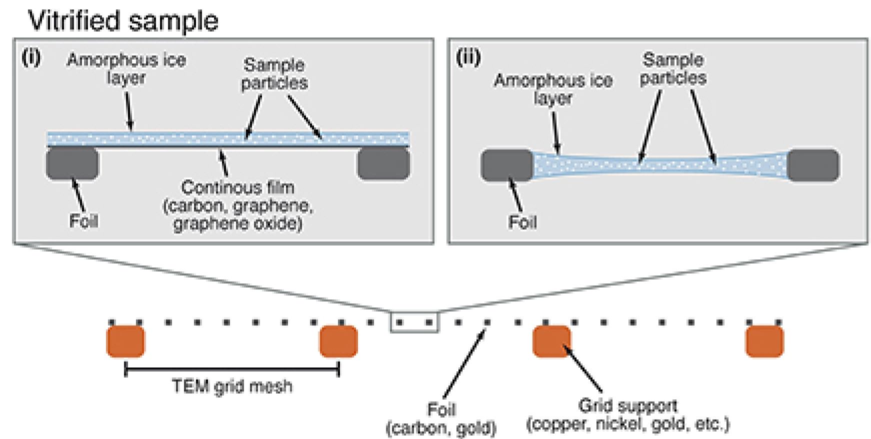
https://doi.org/10.3389/fmolb.2018.00074

Protein transmembrane domains are protected by the hydrophobic cell membrane phospholipid acyl chains. **Micelles** are spherical vesicles in which the detergent hydrophobic chains face inward and the hydrophilic polar heads face outward. **Bicelles** are obtained by a mixture of lipids and short chain detergents. The lipids will interact with the protein to form a lipid bilayer and the detergent will form the rim of the bicelle. Micelles will form after the solubilization of the membrane protein by detergents. **SMALP** (styrene-maleic acid lipid particles) are polymeric nanoparticles that protect the acyl chain of the lipid bilayer. **Nanodiscs** are lipid bilayers stabilized by wrapping a belt of amphipathic helix-rich membrane scaffold proteins (MSPs) around the detergent-solubilized membrane proteins. **Amphipol** polymers wrap around the hydrophobic patches of the membrane protein to form a stable complex in solution. **Liposomes** are artificial spherical lipid membranes where membrane proteins can assemble.

Cryo-EM grid preparation



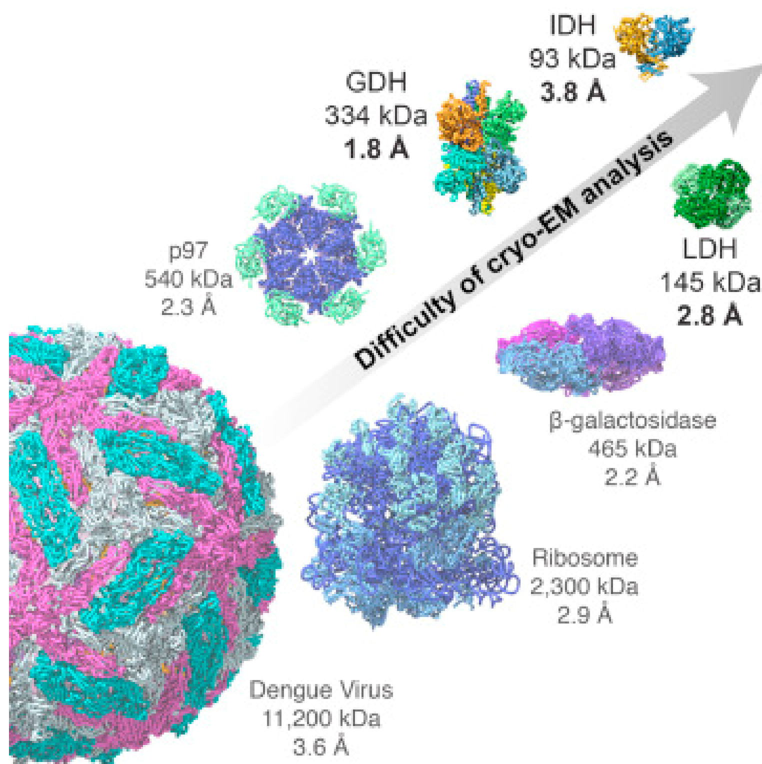


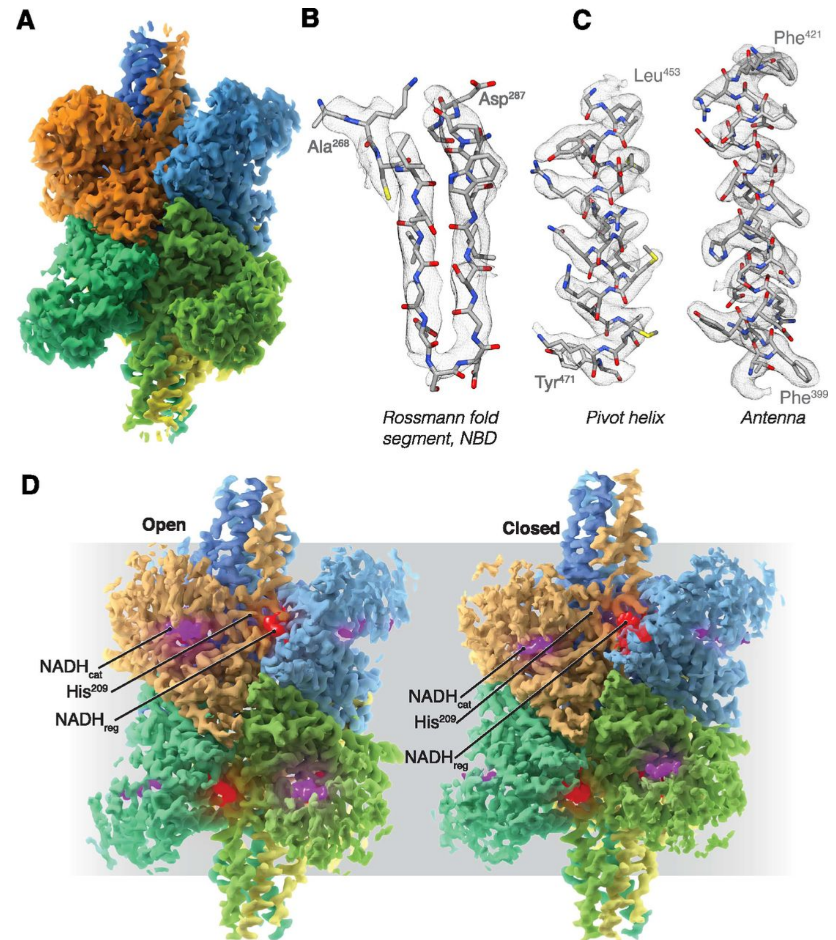


- **(A)** Examples of a TEM grid with irregular hole size foil (Lacey) or with defined hole diameter and spacing (Quantifoil).
- **(B)** An automated plunge-freezing device is commonly used for specimen vitrification. Sample is applied with a pipette at the surface of the cryo-EM grid and sample excess is removed by blotting with filter paper, followed by immediate freezing in liquid ethane. The specimen can be frozen on a grid with (i) or without (ii) a thin continuous film made of different materials. TEM grids with different grid mesh, foil and grid support materials can be used during specimen freezing.

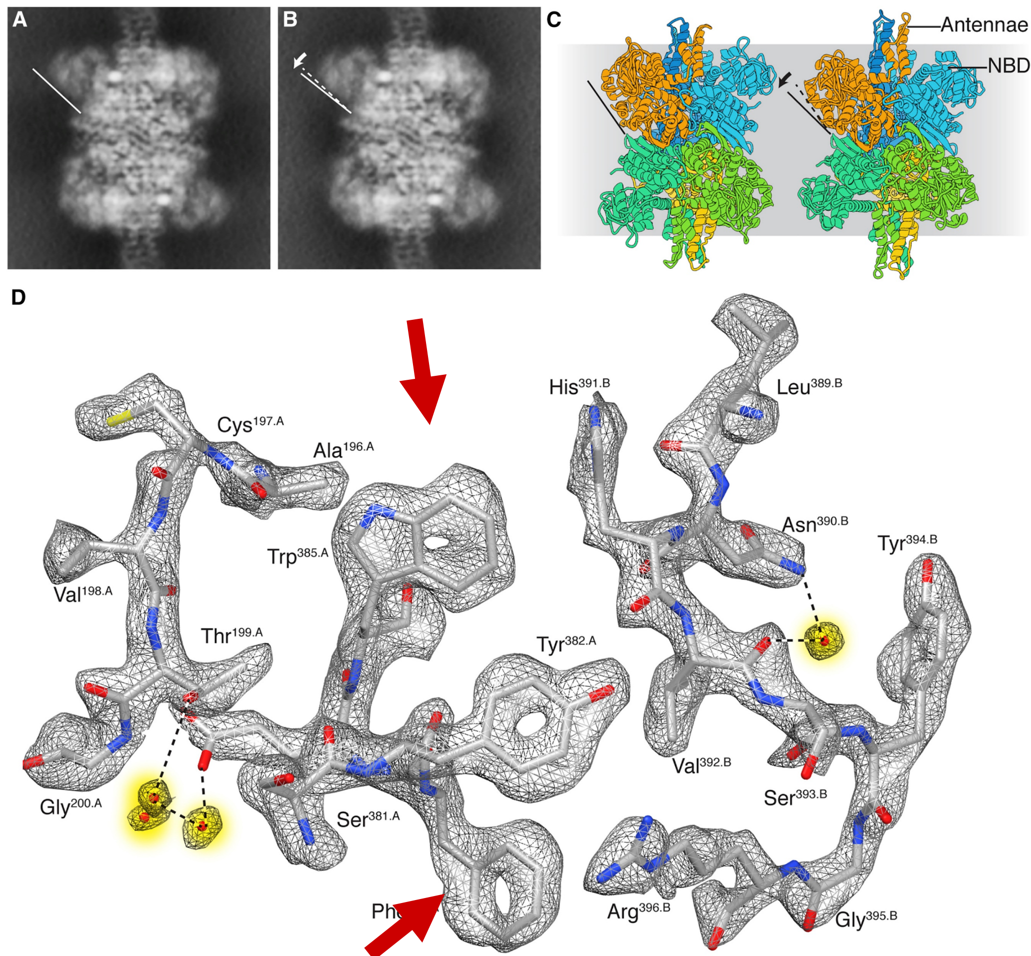
https://doi.org/10.3389/fmolb.2018.00074

Breaking cryo-EM resolution barriers





Cryo-EM structure of glutamate dehydrogenase (GDH) at 1.8 Å resolution

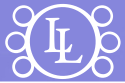


(A and B) Projection views of two 3D classes from cryo-EM analysis of GDH (glutamate dehydrogenase). In both classes, there is well-defined density at the core, but it is weakly defined at the peripheral nucleotide binding domain (NBD). The two classes display similar structures in the interior but differ slightly in the peripheral NBD. The two classes are likely to be subsets of a continuum of states with varying orientations for the outer domain relative to the core.

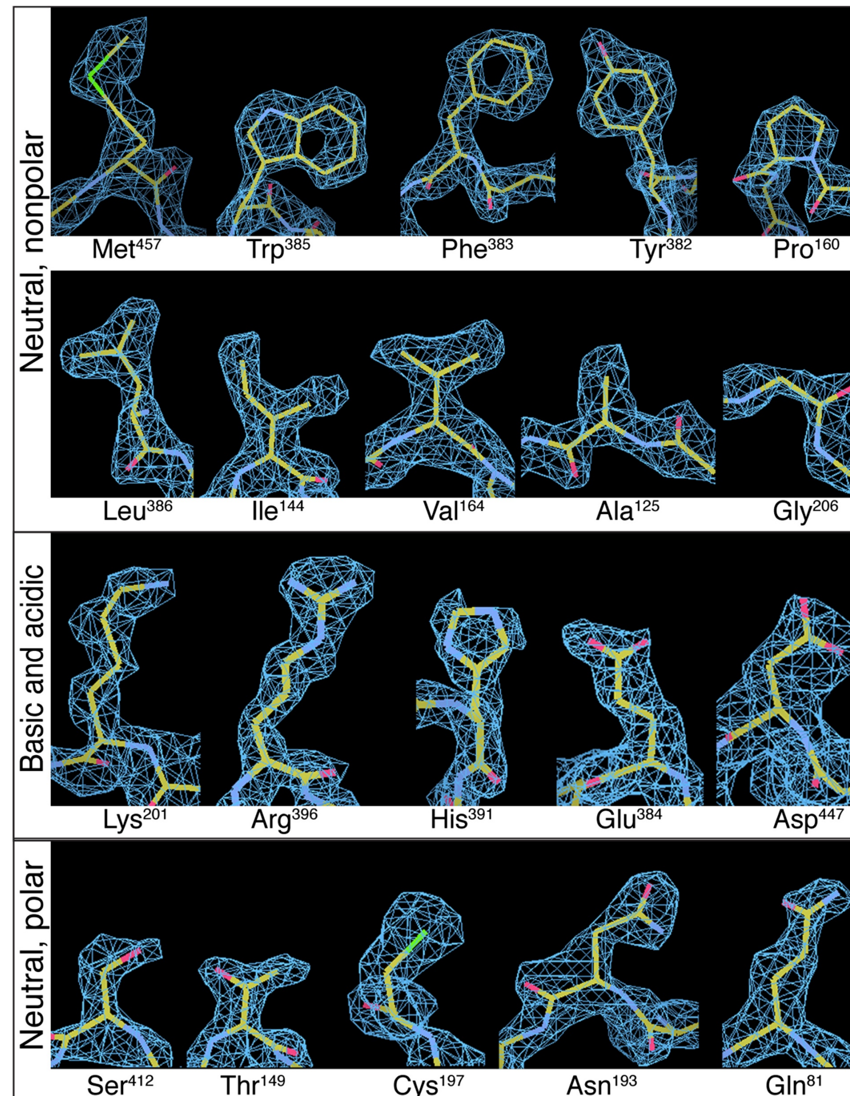
(C) Ribbon diagrams of the open and closed structures demonstrating the more extensive NBD movement associated with substrate binding and catalytic cleft closure.

(D) A selected region of the cryo-EM map of the GDH structure, highlighting high-resolution features such as "holes" in the aromatic rings of Tyr382, Phe383, and Trp385, water molecules (shaded yellow), and well-resolved densities for carbonyl bonds.

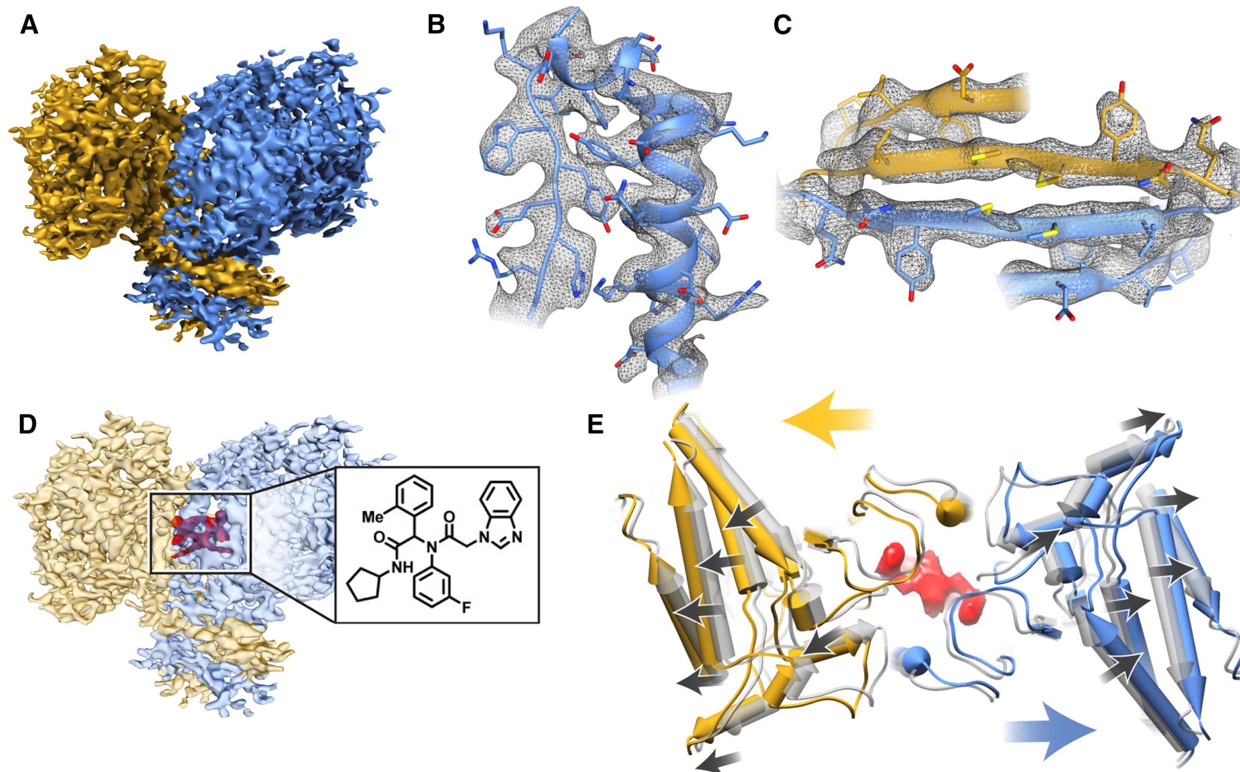
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2016.05.040



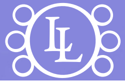
Density representations for each of the 20 amino acid types from the 1.8 Å resolution cryo-EM structure of apo-GDH



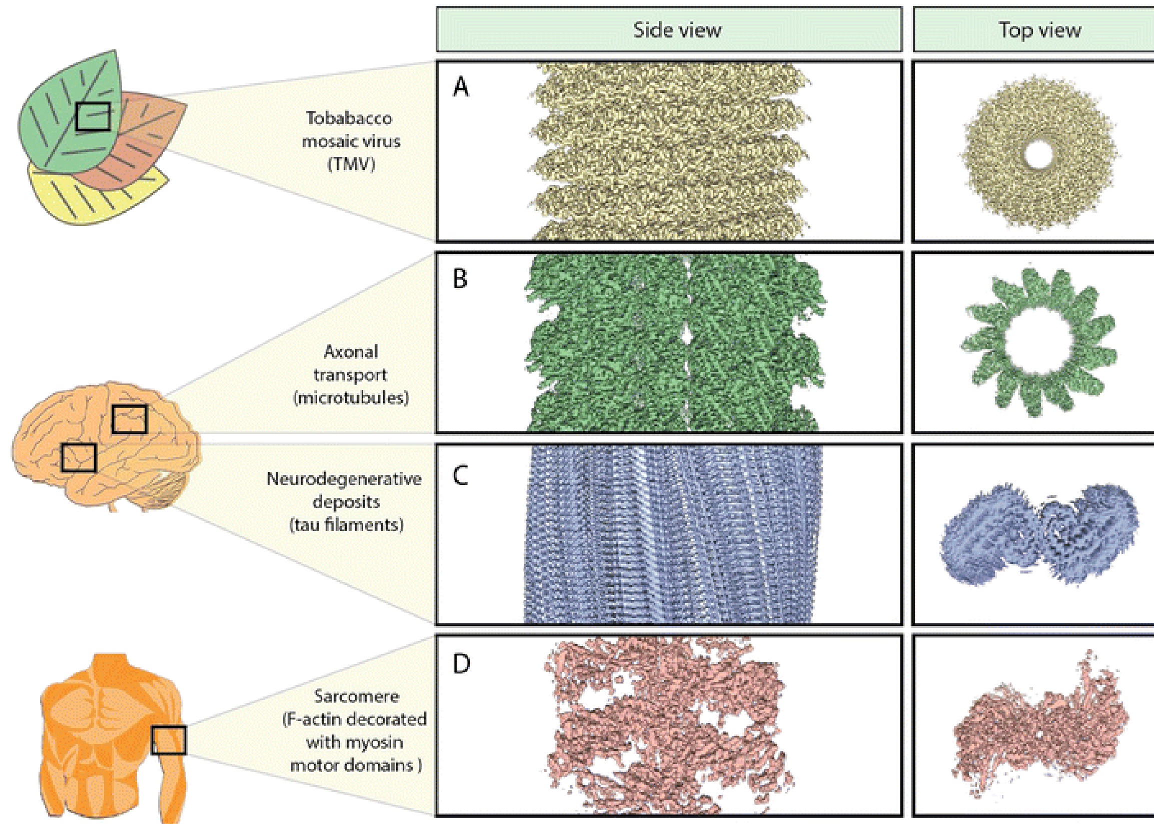
Cryo-EM analysis of isocitrate dehydrogenase (IDH1) in the absence and presence of the inhibitor ML309



(A) Cryo-EM map of the apo-IDH1 (isocitrate dehydrogenase) dimer, colored by subunit.
(B and C) Selected regions of the IDH1 map demonstrating density for side-chains in an α-helical region (B) and a β sheet region (C).
(D) Cryo-EM map of IDH1 in complex with ML309 showing density (red) for the inhibitor (inset) close to the dimer interface.
(E) Superposition of the apo- (gray) and ML309-bound (yellow/blue) IDH1 structures shows the outward movement of the subunits with ML309 binding (density shown in red). The black arrows indicate the direction of the changes in tertiary structure while the yellow and blue arrows show the overall movements at the level of quaternary structure.



Cryo-EM of filamentous proteins

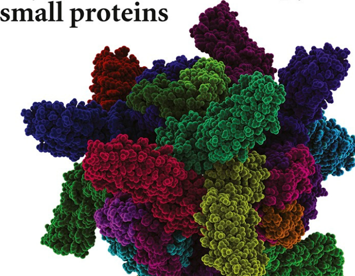


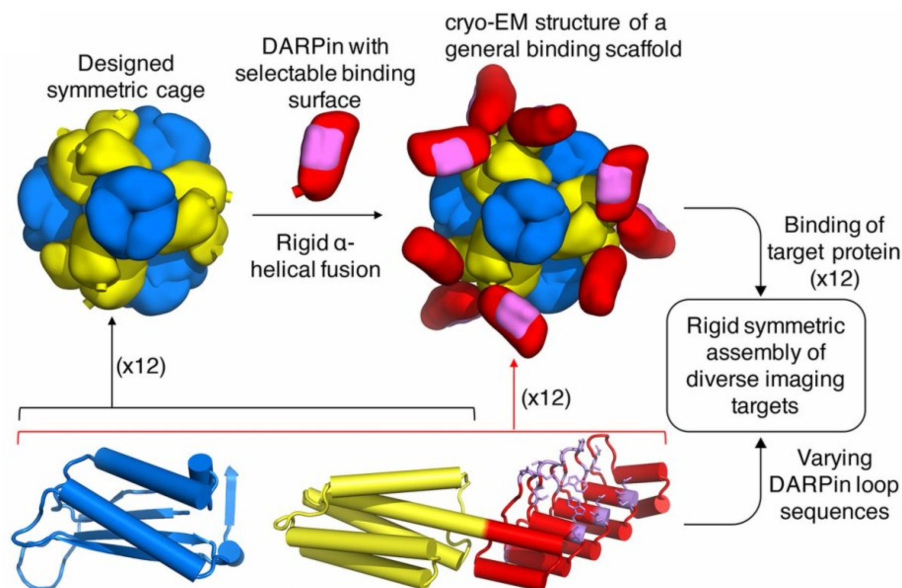
(A) Tobacco mosaic virus is one of the most widespread viruses around the world, being a prime example for plant pathogens that can have far-reaching consequences for the economy as well as food supply. (B) Microtubules are not only core components of the cytoskeleton, but are also essential in axonal transport along neurons, constituting the track for cargo-transporting motor proteins. (C) Tau filaments are neurodegenerative deposits that are found in the brains of AD patients. (D) The interaction of F-actin and myosin filaments is responsible for muscle contraction. Malfunctions can cause myopathies.

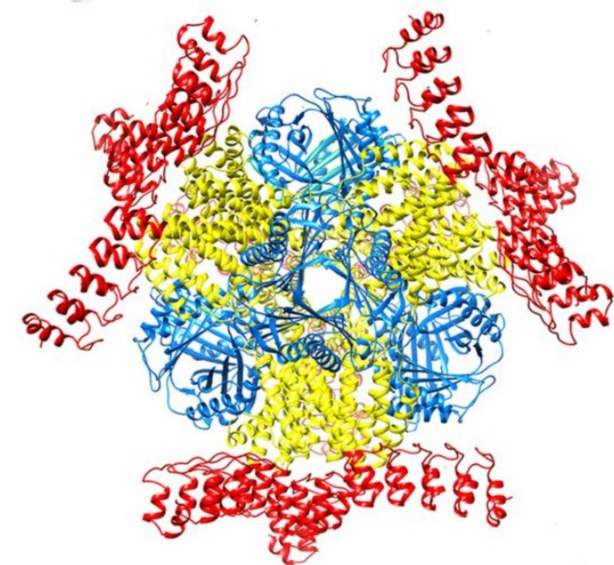
Imaging of small proteins displayed on protein scaffolds

- New electron microscopy (EM) methods are making it possible to view the structures of large proteins and nucleic acid complexes at atomic detail, but the methods are difficult to apply to molecules smaller than approximately 50 kDa.
- This limit can be successfully visualized when it is attached to a large protein scaffold designed to hold 12 copies of the attached protein in symmetric and rigidly defined orientations.

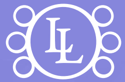
Cryo-electron microscopy of small proteins







Liu *et al.*, PNAS 115: 3362-3367 (2018)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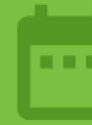
Booking systems
Direct access to booking system for registered users



Registration
Registration to booking system for unregistered users

Head of Core Facility

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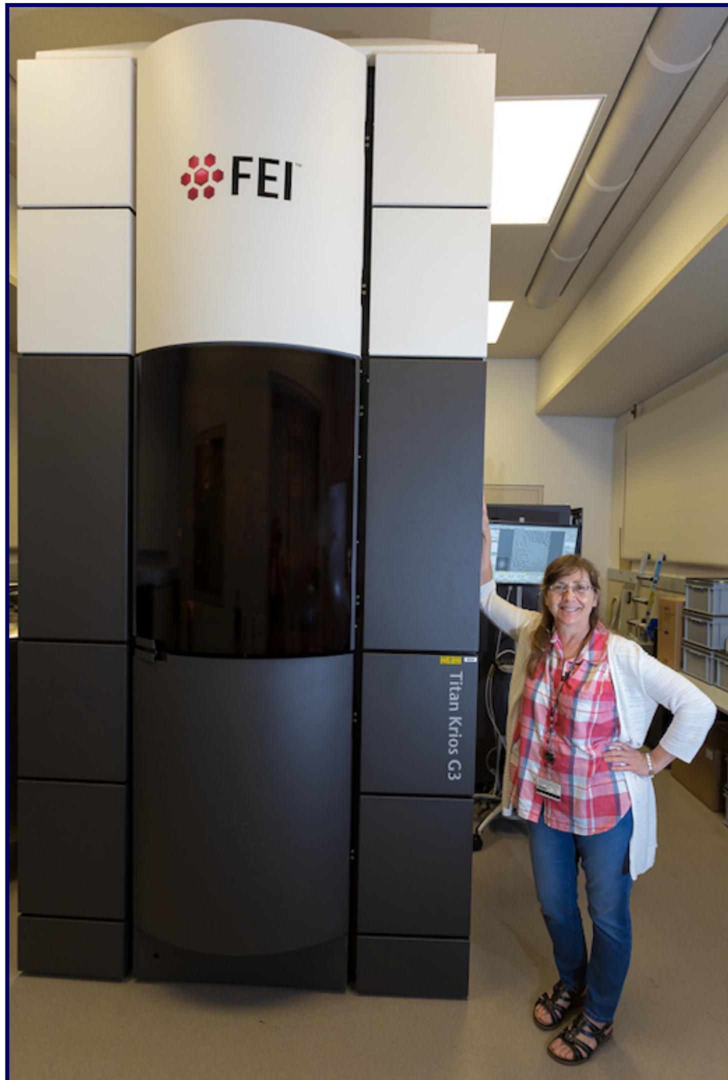
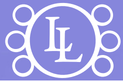
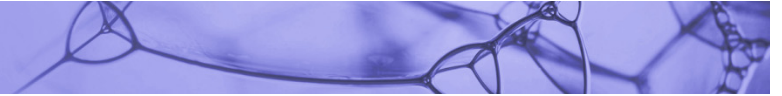
Main Activity

A high-end single particle cryo-EM microscope (3 metres tall)



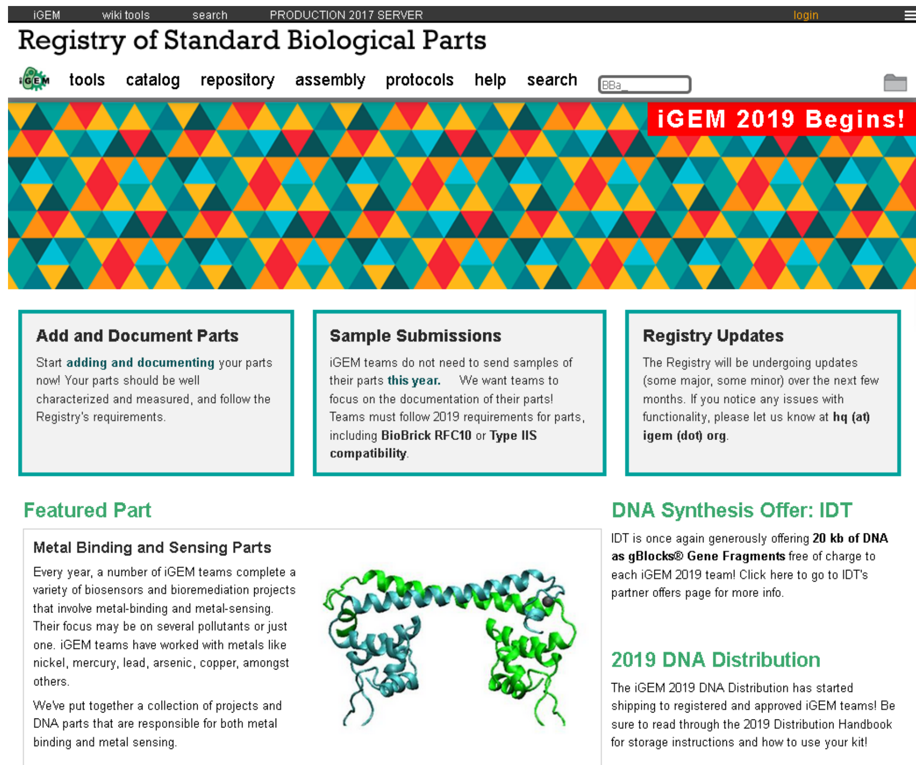




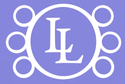
Cryo-EM: take home message

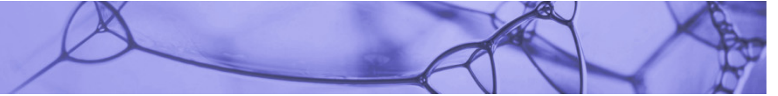
- Cryo-EM can be used to determine structures at native state
- Prepare best sample possible before EM
- Use negative staining: initial screening, homogeneity assessment
- Use the high-tech technologies (microscope, camera & software)
- Be patient! And you will get your high-resolution structure with cryo-EM

Structure-based engineering and design of parts



- Until now, structural biology has been mainly used in synthetic biology approaches to design new parts/components and tools
- Many of the characterized components can be found in the Registry of Standard Biological Parts (http://partsregistry.org/)
- Of special importance is the recently developed "SYNZIP protein toolbox" because it contains a complete biophysical quantitative description (i.e., affinities) of synthetic domains



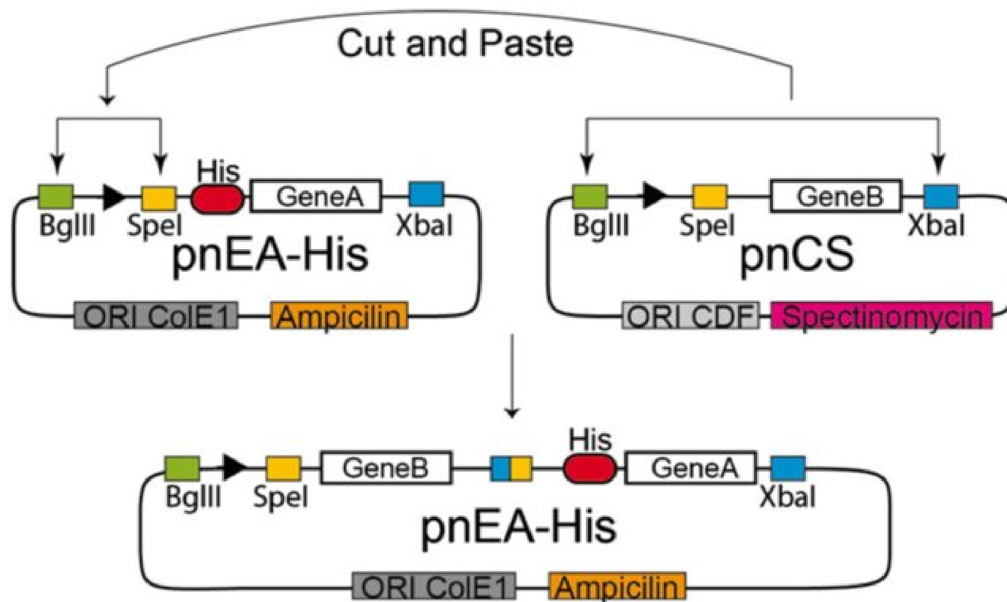


Multi-expression technologies

Concepts
Methods
Applications

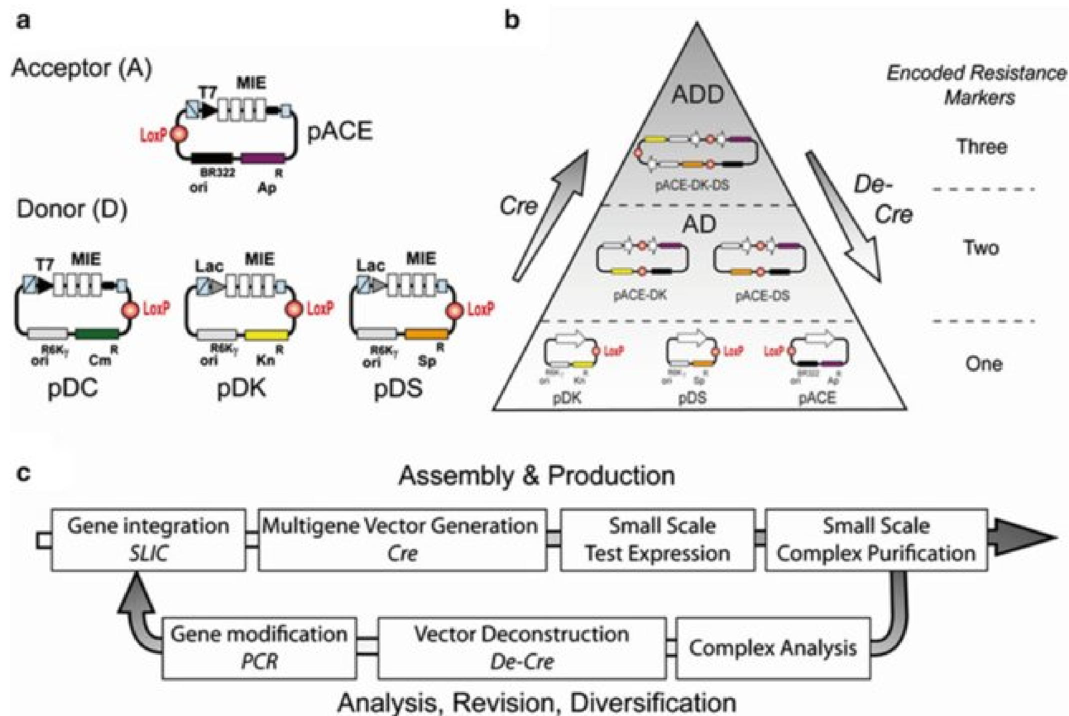
Co-expression of protein complexes in *E. coli*

The functional units within cells are often macromolecular complexes rather than single species. Production of these complexes as assembled homogenous samples is a prerequisite for their biophysical and structural characterization and hence an understanding of their function in molecular terms. Co-expression in *Escherichia coli* can decipher the subunit composition, assembly, and production of whole protein complexes.



- Example of the concatenation of two vectors of the pET-MCN vector series: pnEA-His (vector encoding an N-terminal poly-histidine tag in front of protein A) and pnCS (vector expressing the native protein B).
- The pnEA-His (acceptor vector) is linearized by removing with the restriction enzymes BglII and SpeI part of its promoter (T7 promoter and lacO).
- The full promoter of the pnCS (donor vector) is cut out with the restriction enzymes BglII and XbaI. After ligation of the pnCS promoter with the linearized pnEA-His vector, a new vector is obtained based on the backbone of the pnEA-His vector and whose promoter controls the genes of proteins A and B.

ACEMBL system for multiprotein production in *E. coli*

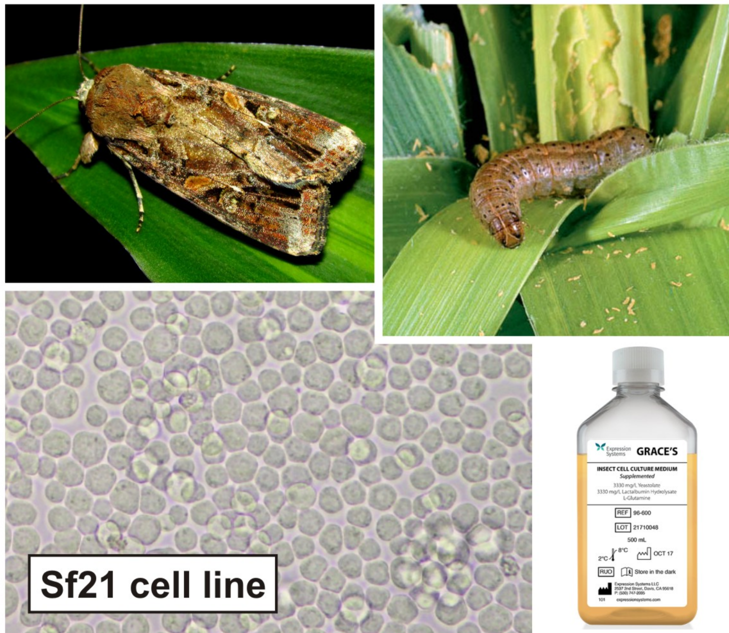


- (a) Donor and acceptor vectors contain LoxP sequences and a multiple insertion elements (MIE) for inserting one or several genes of interest. Acceptors have regular replicons (BR322). Donors have a conditional origin of replication derived from R6Kγ phage. Antibiotic resistance makers are as follows: Ap ampicillin, Cm chloramphenicol, Kn kanamycin, and Sp spectinomycin. Genes of interest are inserted into acceptor or donor vectors into the MIEs by SLIC.
- (b) Incubation of acceptor and donor constructs with Cre recombinase results in all combinations of fusions including acceptor-donor (AD) and acceptor-donor-donor (ADD) fusions.
- (c) The ACEMBL HT pipeline. Genes are integrated by ligation-independent methods (SLIC) followed by combinatorial multi-gene vector generation using Cre-LoxP fusion (tandem recombineering, TR), followed by protein expression and analysis of purified complex.

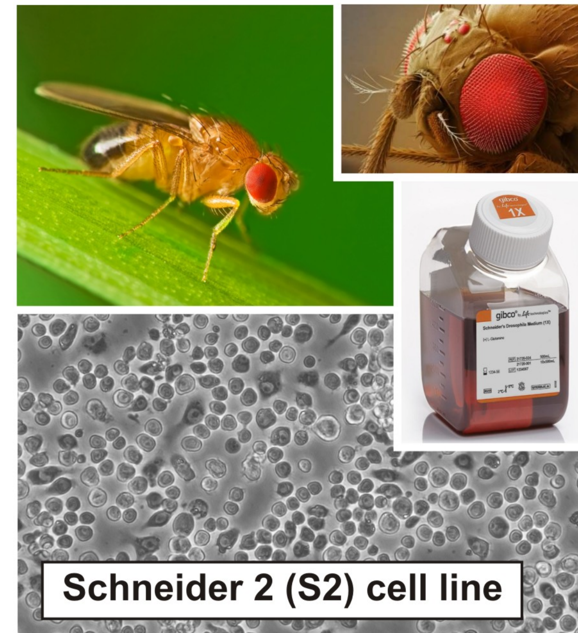
Production of protein complexes in insect cells

- Insect cells can efficiently express recombinant biologically active proteins and are mostly used for the development of virus-like particles and vaccines. It has been proven that insect cells are excellent platforms for the production of recombinant antibodies
- There are mainly three insect expression systems: baculovirus expression vector system (BEVS), InsectSelect (IS) system and *Drosophila* expression system (DES)

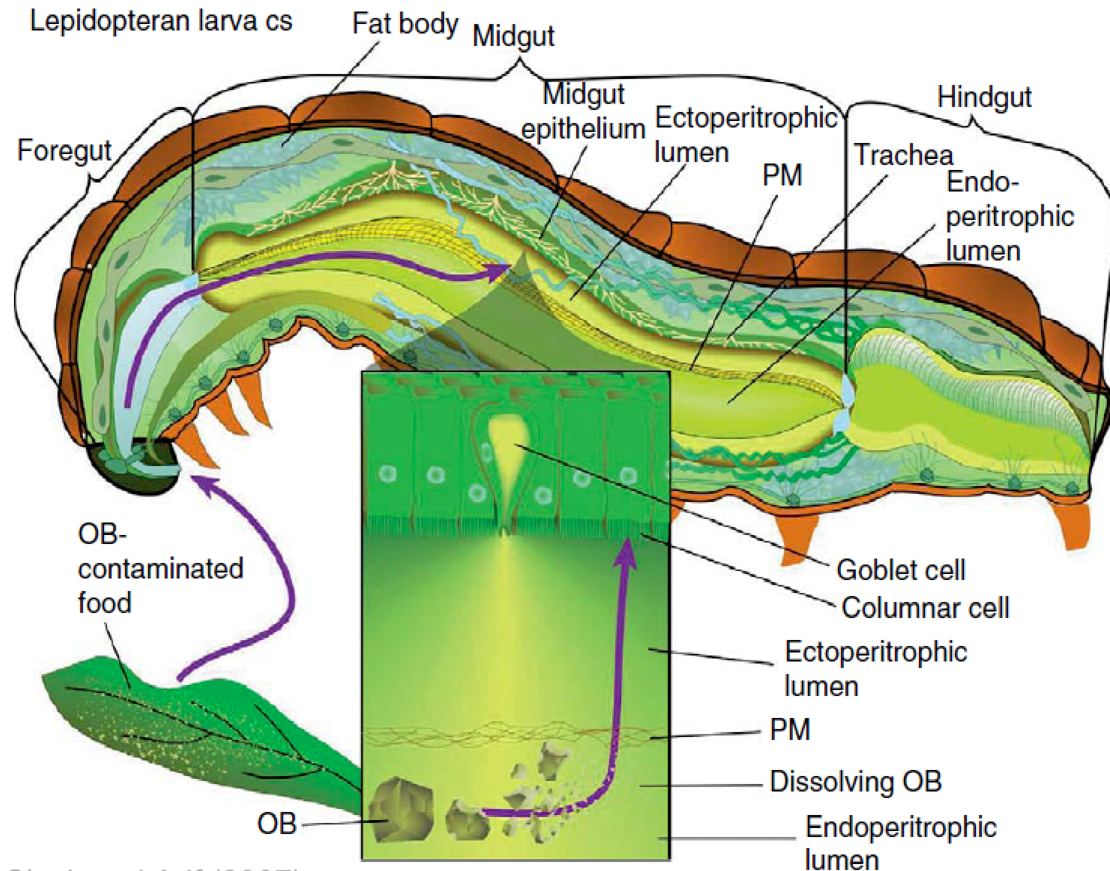
***Spodoptera frugiperda*, a fall army worm**



Drosophila melanogaster



Introduction to baculovirus biology

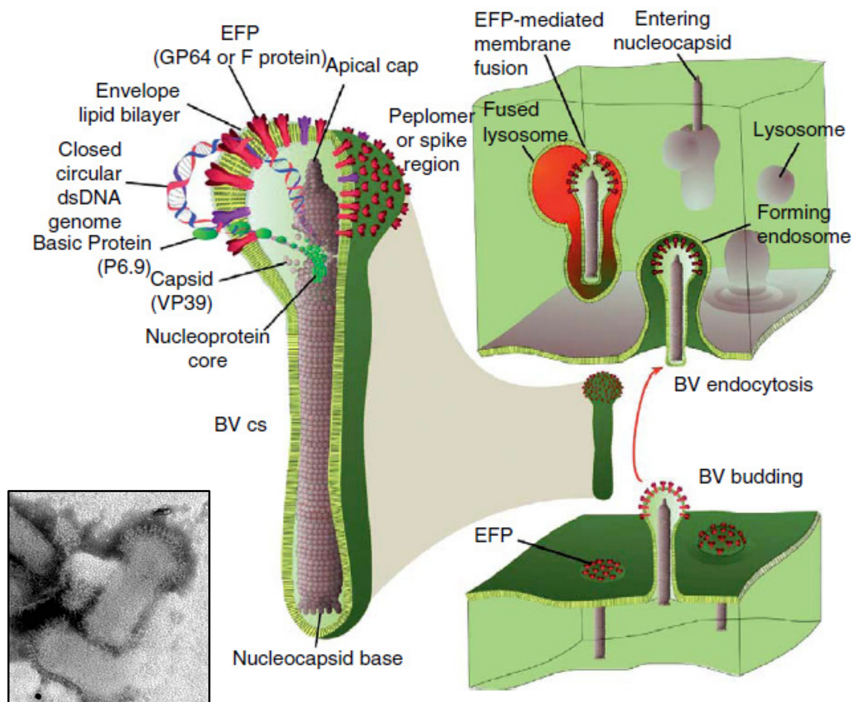


Slack and Arif (2007)

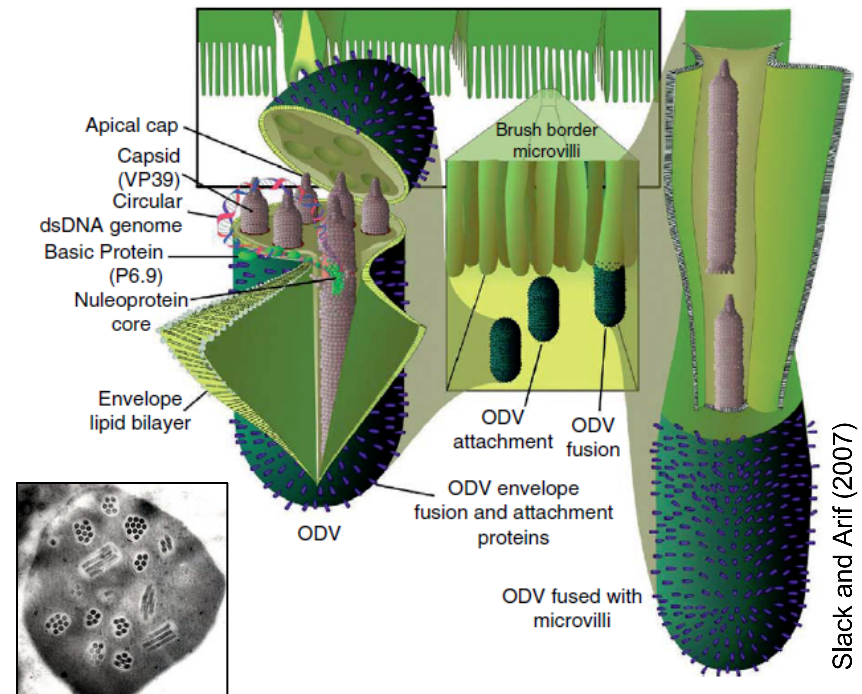
- Insect-infecting enveloped DNA viruses
- Baculoviruses are a very diverse group of viruses with double-stranded, circular, supercoiled genomes, with sizes varying from about 80 to over 180 kb, that encode between 90 and 180 genes
- The genome is packaged in rod-shaped nucleocapsids that are 230-385 nm in length and 40–60 nm in diameter
- In the most well characterized baculoviruses, the virions are present as two types, occluded virions (ODV) and budded virions (BV).
- Although these two types of virions are similar in their nucleocapsid structure, they differ in the origin and composition of their envelopes and their roles in the virus life cycle

Baculovirus morphogenesis: two types of virions

Budded virus (BV)

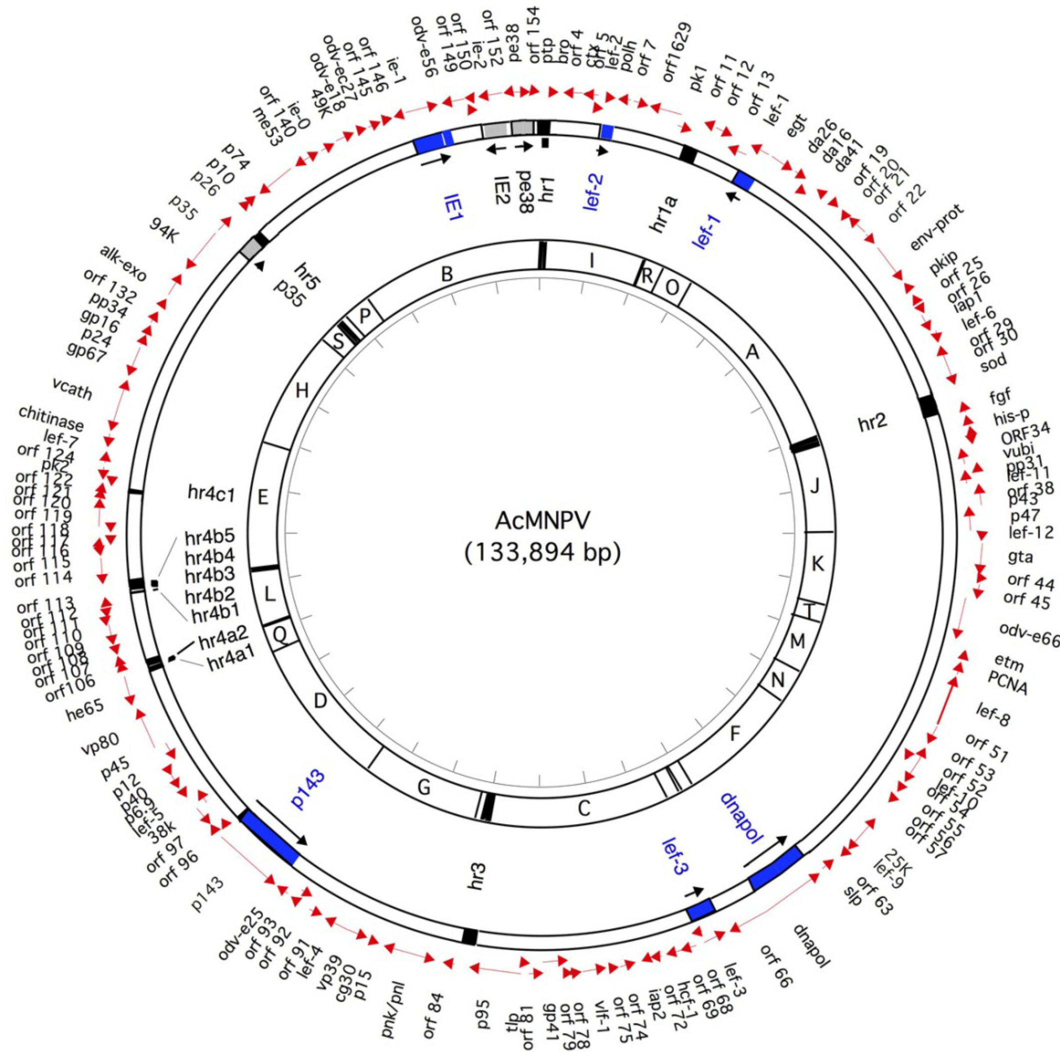


Occlusion-derived virus (ODV)



Budded virus (BV)	Occlusion-derived virus (ODV)
Circular dsDNA genome and associated proteins Capsid shell (VP39, etc.)	Circular dsDNA genome and associated proteins Capsid shell (VP39, etc.)
BV envelope (GP64, F)	ODV envelope (P74, ODV-E66, PIFs etc)
	Tegument (GP41), occlusion body (Polyhedrin)

The baculovirus genome



- Circular, supercoiled dsDNA genomes, with sizes varying from about 80 to over 180 kb, that encode between 90 and 180 genes
- The genome is packaged in rod-shaped nucleocapsids that are 230-385 nm in length and 40–60 nm in diameter

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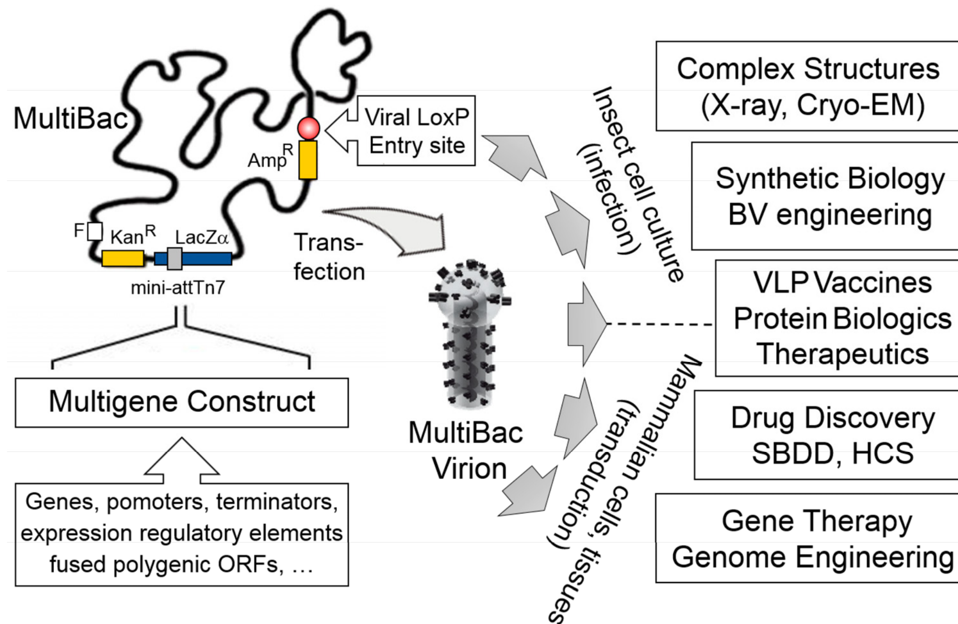
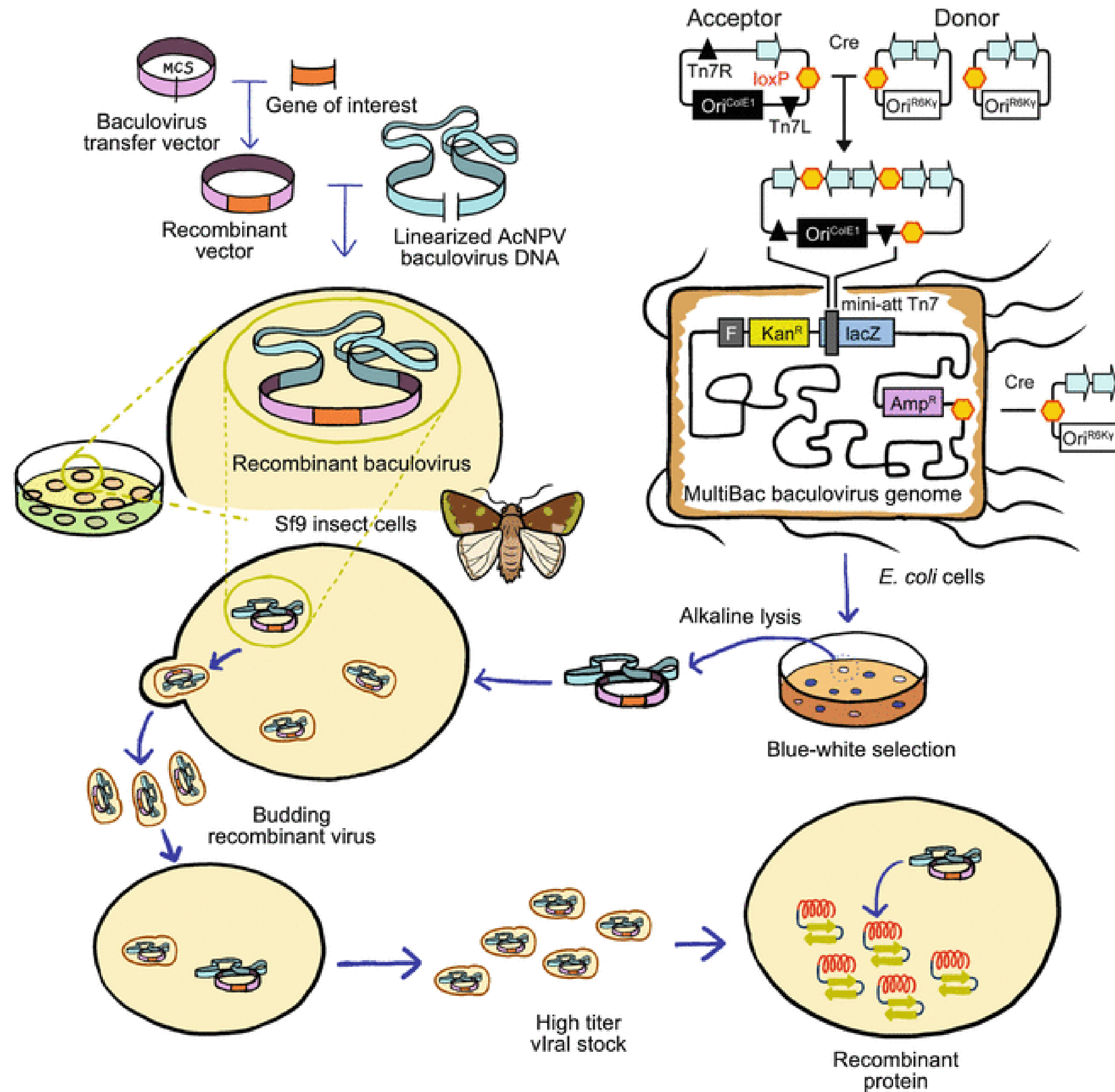
The MultiBac system



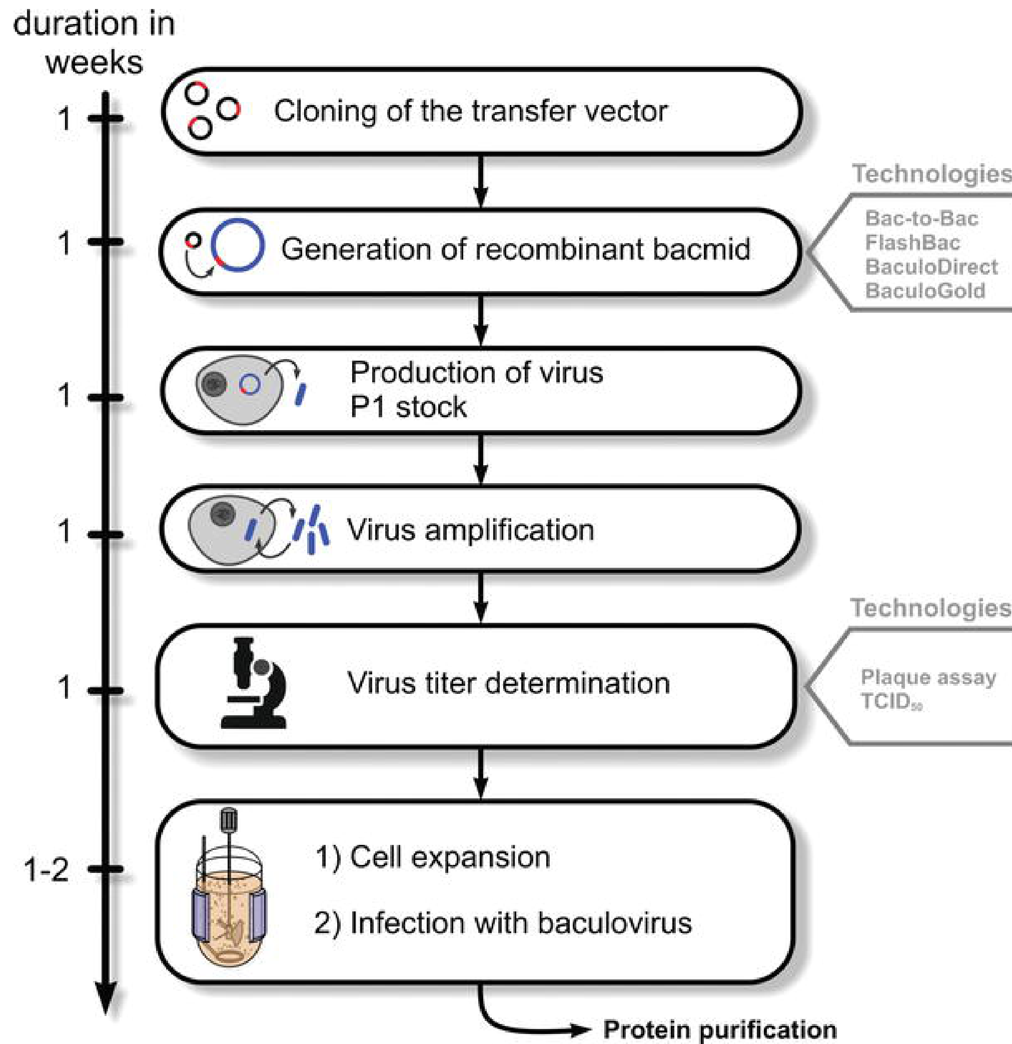
- MultiBac consists of a baculoviral genome optimized for multigene delivery and protein complex expression (left).
- The genome is present as a bacterial artificial chromosome (BAC) in *E. coli* cells supplying the Tn7 transposase.
- Expression cassettes are assembled into the multi-gene expression constructs and inserted into the MultiBac genome by Tn7 transposition.
- A second entry option into the viral backbone is provided distal from the Tn7 site, relying on Cre recombinase catalysed site-specific integration into a LoxP sequence (circle filled in red).
- Composite MultiBac baculoviral DNA containing all DNA elements of choice is extracted from *E. coli* cultures, followed by transfection into insect cell cultures to manufacture functional MultiBac virions.
- These are then used for a wide range of applications (right), by the infection of insect cell cultures or transduction of mammalian cells, tissues and organisms.

Prof. Imre Berger
School of Biochemistry & Bristol Synthetic Biology Centre, University of Bristol, UK

Application of MultiBac system to large complexes

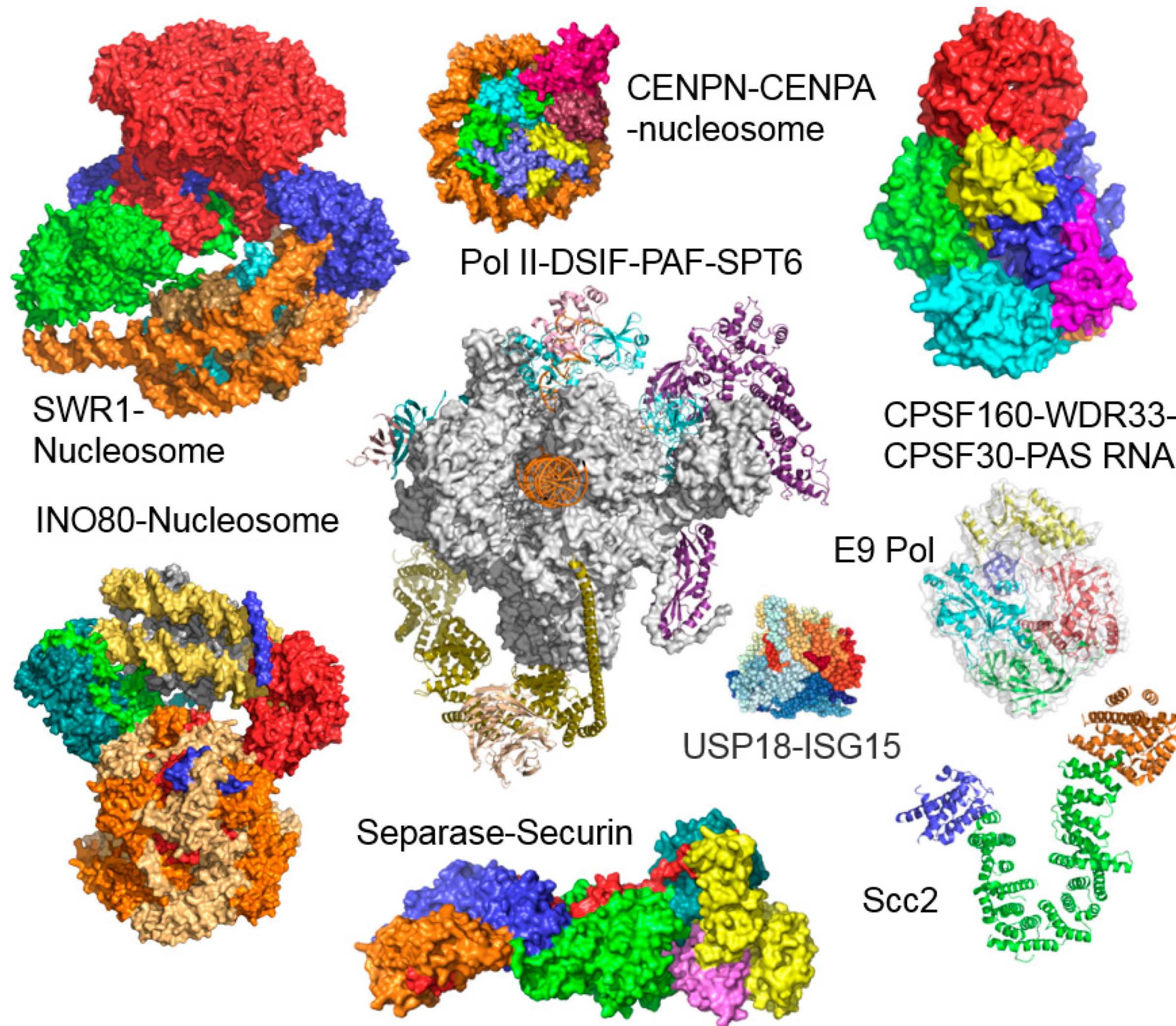


Workflow of protein production using BEVS



https://www.intechopen.com/books/new-insights-into-cell-culture-technology/process-optimization-for-recombinant-protein-expression-in-insect-cells

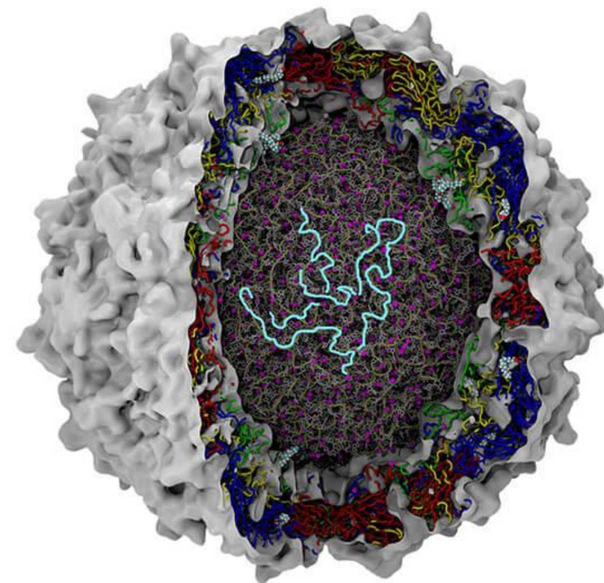
The MultiBac system: successful stories



- Chromatin remodeling enzymes SWR1 (14 subunits) and INO80 (11 subunits)
- The yeast polII DSIF-PAF-Spt6 cryo-EM structure
- The CENPN-CENPA-nucleosome complex
- The human CPSF-160–WDR33–CPSF-30–PAS RNA quaternary complex
- The E9 polymerase
- The USP18-ISG15 complex
- The Separase-Securin complex
- The cohesion loader Scc

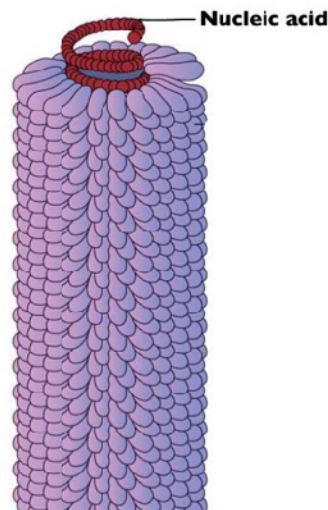
Synthetic virology, immunotherapy & gene therapy

Concepts
Methods
Applications

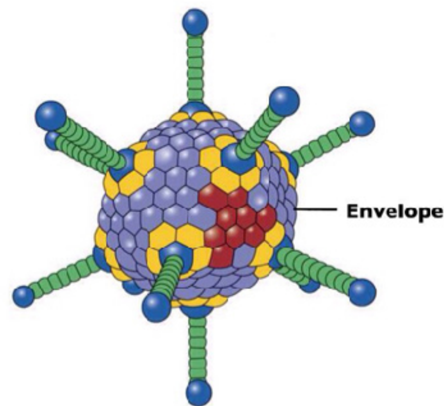


What are viruses?

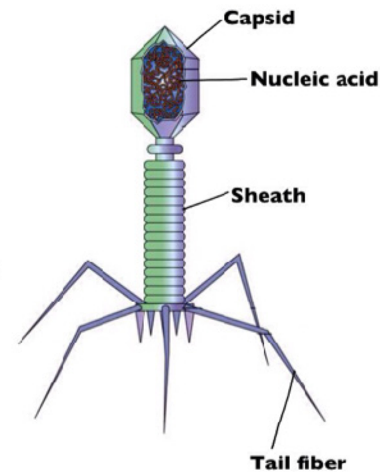
- A **virus** is an infectious particle that reproduces by "commandeering" a host cell and using its machinery to make progeny viruses
- A virus is made up of a RNA or DNA genome inside a protein shell called a **capsid**. Some viruses have an external membrane **envelope**
- Viruses are very diverse. They come in different shapes and structures, have different kinds of genomes, and infect different hosts
- Viruses reproduce by **infecting** their host cells and reprogramming them to become virus-making "factories"



helical virus



polyhedral virus

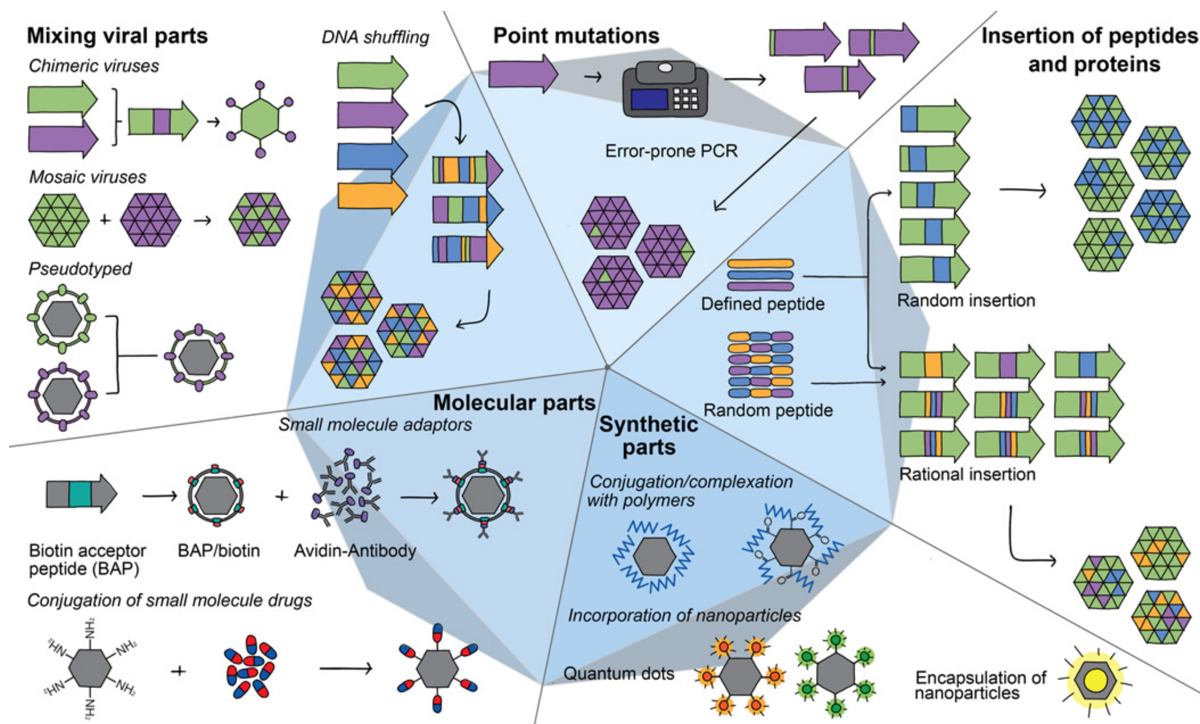


complex virus

Constructing *de novo* synthetic viruses for biomedicine

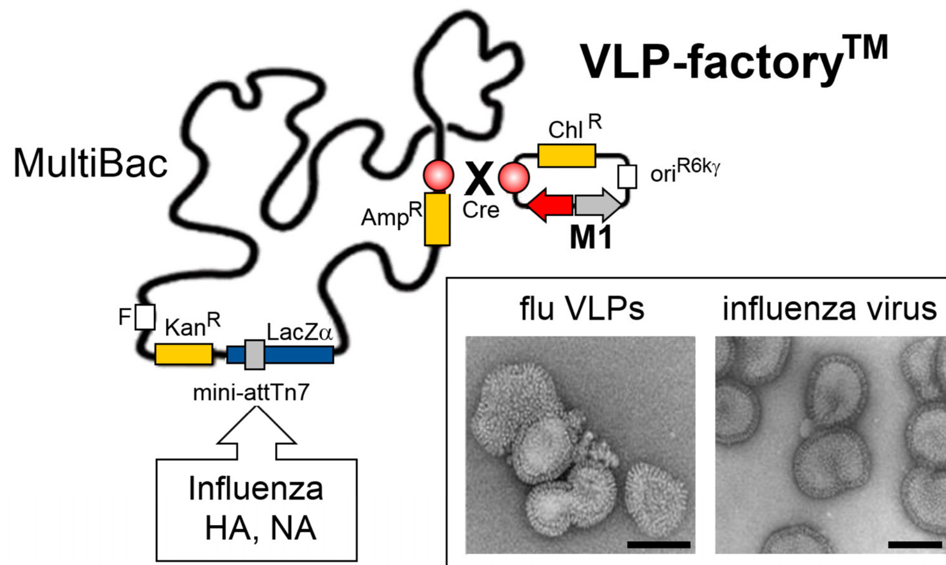
- Synthetic virology aims to reprogram naturally occurring viruses into controllable and predictable devices
- The field can be divided into two main endeavours:

  1) engineering of the virus capsid (immunotherapy, vaccines)
  2) engineering of the genetic programs encoded by the viral genome (gene therapy)

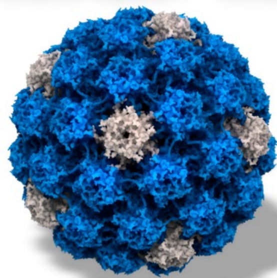


Synthetic viruses can be created by mixing pre-existing viral parts, resulting in formation of chimeric or mosaic capsids. Molecular parts, such as biotin or small molecule drugs, can be attached to virus capsids to act as adaptors or to carry out therapeutic action, respectively. Synthetic parts, such as man-made polymers and inorganic nanoparticles, can be incorporated into viruses to endow functionalities new to viruses in general. Genetically encoded peptides and proteins can be inserted into viruses, either in rationally chosen sites or randomly throughout the capsid, to impart new functions. Finally, viral properties can be altered through introduction of point mutations scattered throughout the capsid or concentrated in specific capsid domains.

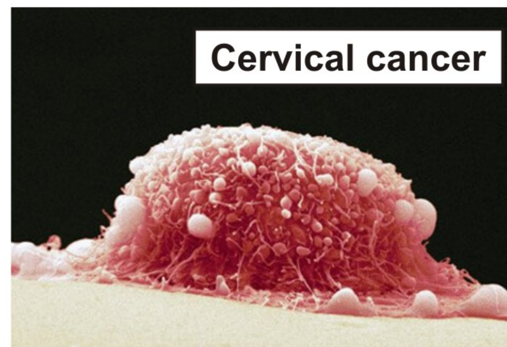
The MultiBac: a factory for synthetic virus-like particles



- A plasmid module comprising expression cassettes for the capsid-forming influenza H1N1 M1 protein (colored in grey) and a fluorescent protein marker, mCherry (colored in red), was introduced into the MultiBac baculoviral genome by Cre recombinase enzyme mediated plasmid fusion into the LoxP site (circle filled in red, gradient)
- Co-expression of HA, NA and M1 yields synthetic influenza virus-like particles (VLPs) resembling live influenza virus



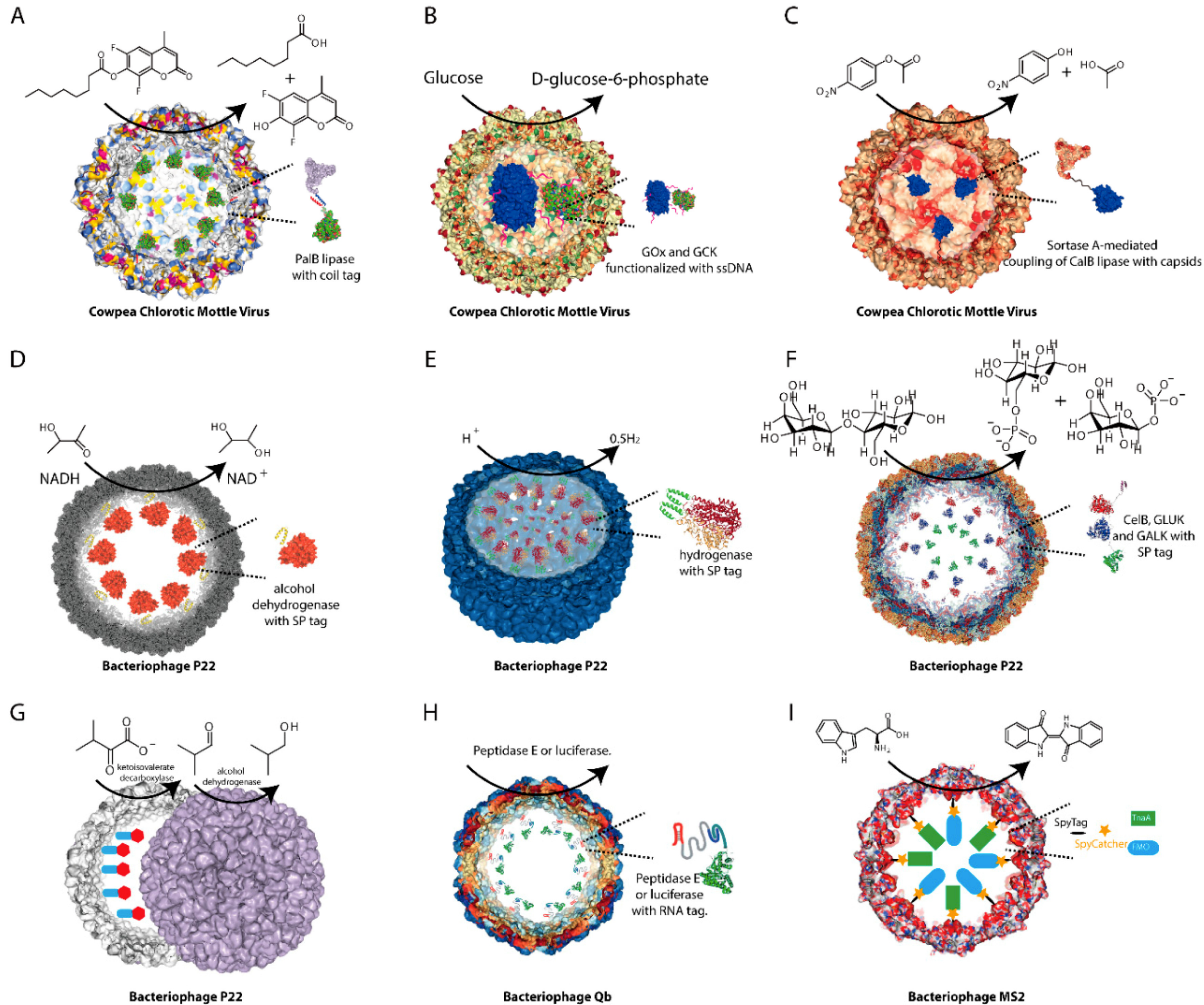
Human papillomavirus-based vaccine produded by baculovirus expression system



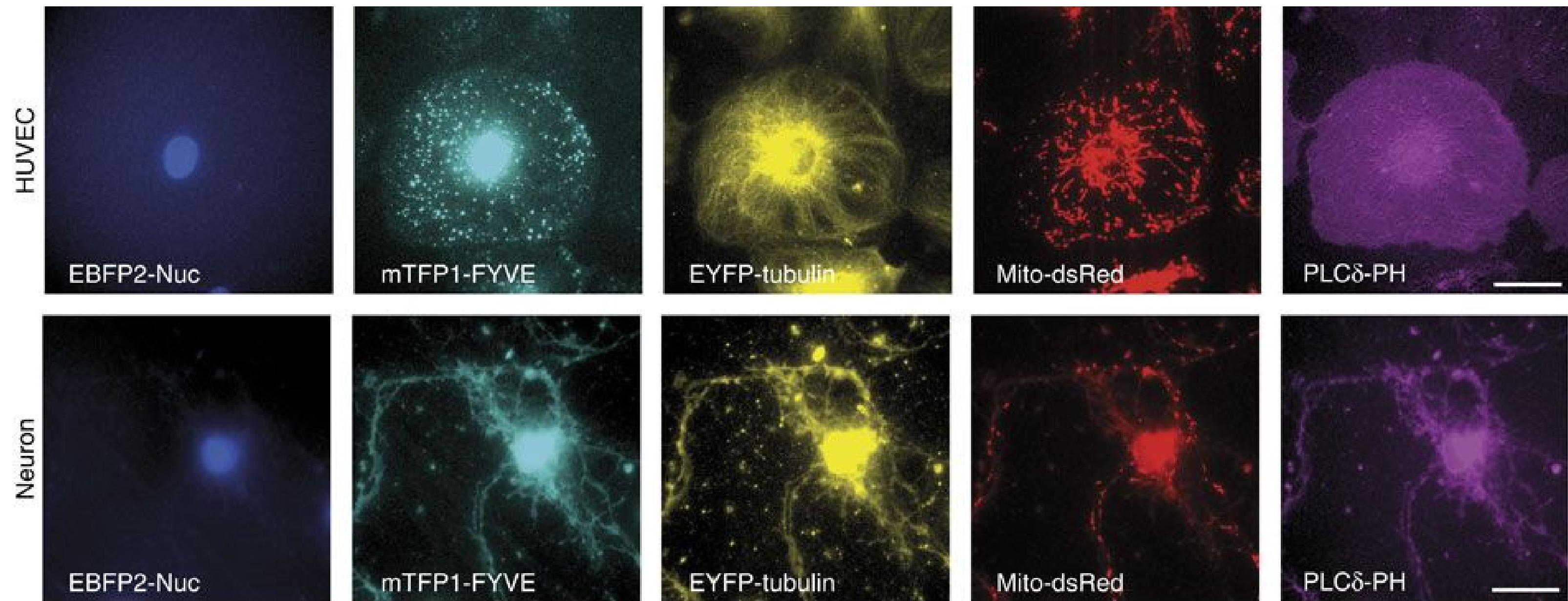
Selected vaccines produced by BEVS

Application	Product name	Company	Stage	References
For human use				
Cervical cancer	CERVARIX®	GSK	Approved	[27]
Prostate cancer	PROVENGE®	Dendreon	Approved	[28]
Influenza	FluBlok®	Protein Sciences	Approved	[29, 30]
Influenza	A/H5N1 Virus-like particle	Novavax	Phase I (NCT01596725)	[31]
For veterinary use				
Procrine circovirus 2 (PCV2)	Porcilis® PCV	Merck	Approved	[32]
PCV2	CircoFLEX®	Boehringer Ingelheim	Approved	[33]
Swine fever	Porcilis Pesti®	Merck	Approved	[34]

Viral capsid-based nanocontainers as nanoreactors



Baculovirus-mediated multigene delivery in cells



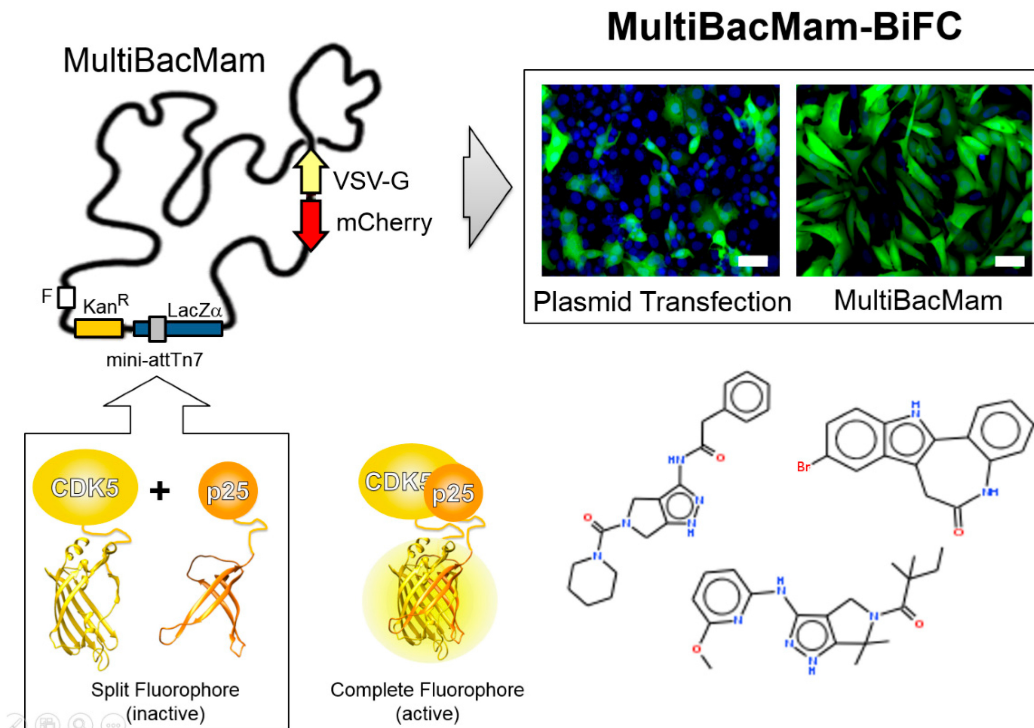
CMVP10

CMVintP10

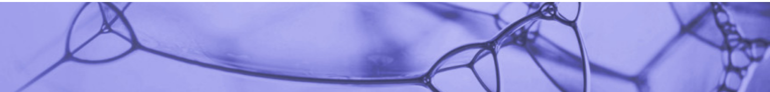
- HUVEC and REF cells were infected with a MultiPrime baculovirus encoding EBFP2-Nuc (labelling the nucleus), mTFP1-FYVE (PI-3-P containing endosomes), tubulin-EYFP (cytoskeleton), Mito-dsRed (mitochondria) and PLCδ-PH (PI-4,5-P2; plasma membrane)
- Structure of the tested dual promoters. In CMVP10, the baculoviral very late promoter p10 was inserted downstream of the CMV promoter. In CMVintP10, the p10 promoter was placed within an intron and is spliced out from the transcript of the CMV promoter

Application of MultiBac in drug discovery

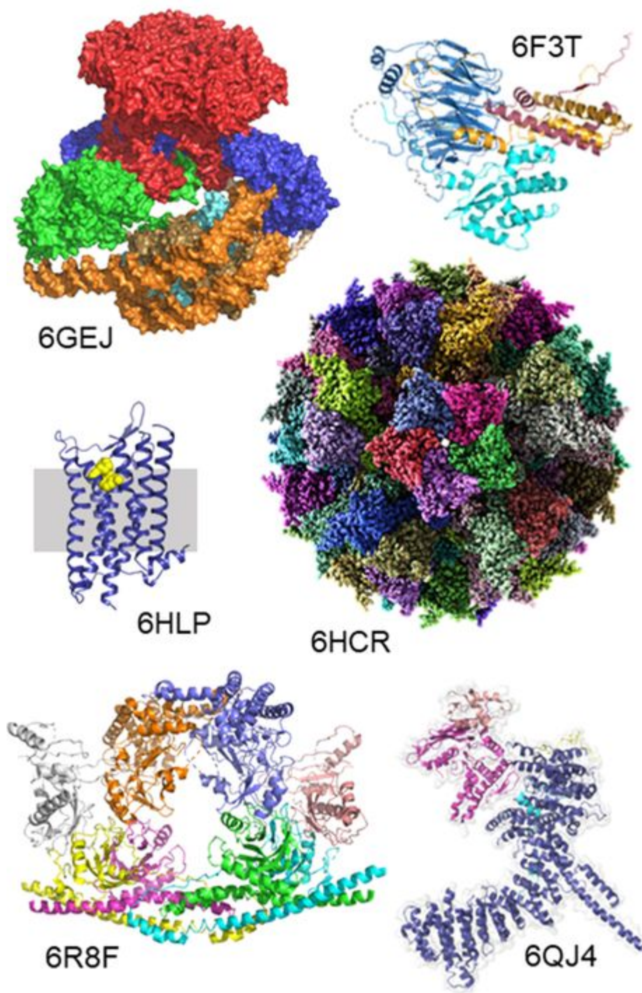
MultiBacMam-BiFC for compound screening

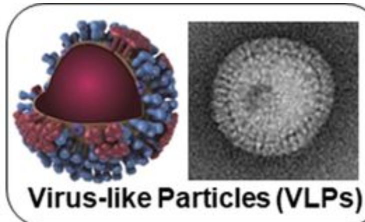


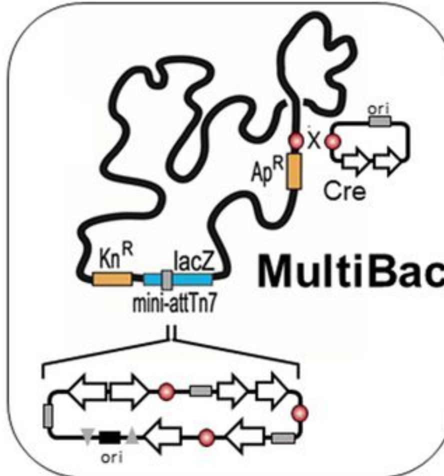
- The MultiBacMam baculovirus is shown (top left). Genes encoding for vesicular stomatitis virus glycoprotein (VSV-G) and mCherry to track virus performance during manufacturing have been integrated into the baculoviral backbone, each controlled by baculoviral late promoters
- MultiBacMam was outfitted in the Tn7 site with genes encoding for CDK5 and p25, each fused to complementary fragments of a split fluorescent protein, which, upon CDK5-p25 complex formation reconstitute complete, active fluorophore (bottom left)
- Composite MultiBacMam baculovirus is produced in insect cells and then used to transduce mammalian cells with superior efficacy as compared to plasmid transfection (top right)
- A selection of chemical compounds inhibiting the CDK5-p25 PPI is depicted (bottom right), identified by using our MultiBac-BiFC cell-based screening assay.

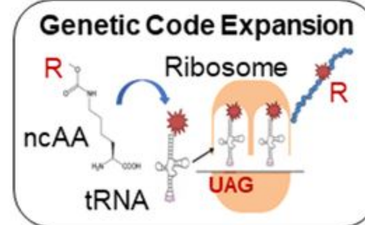


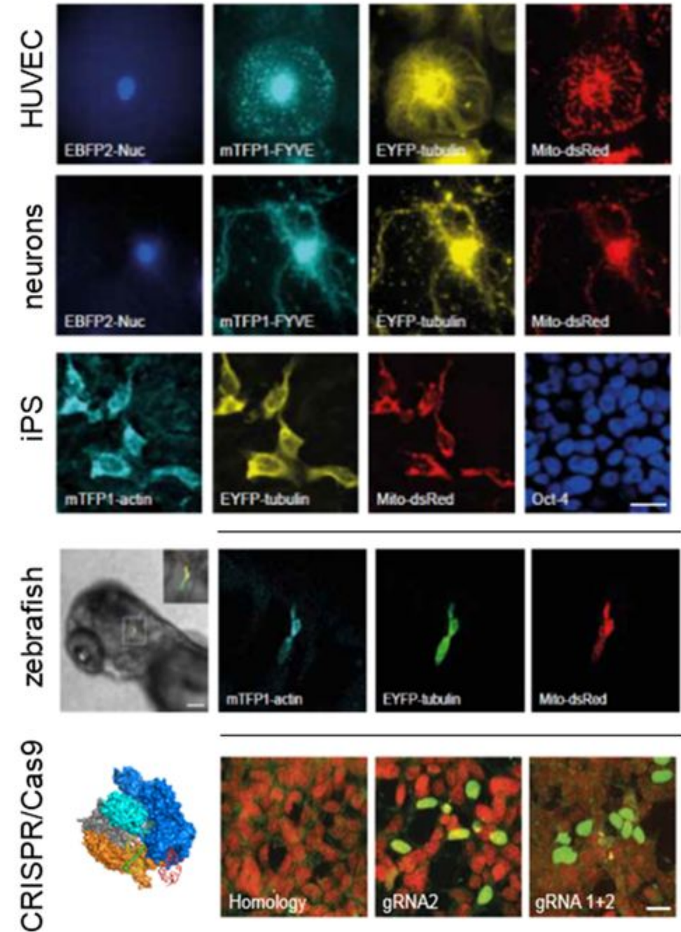
The MultiBac system: a perspective



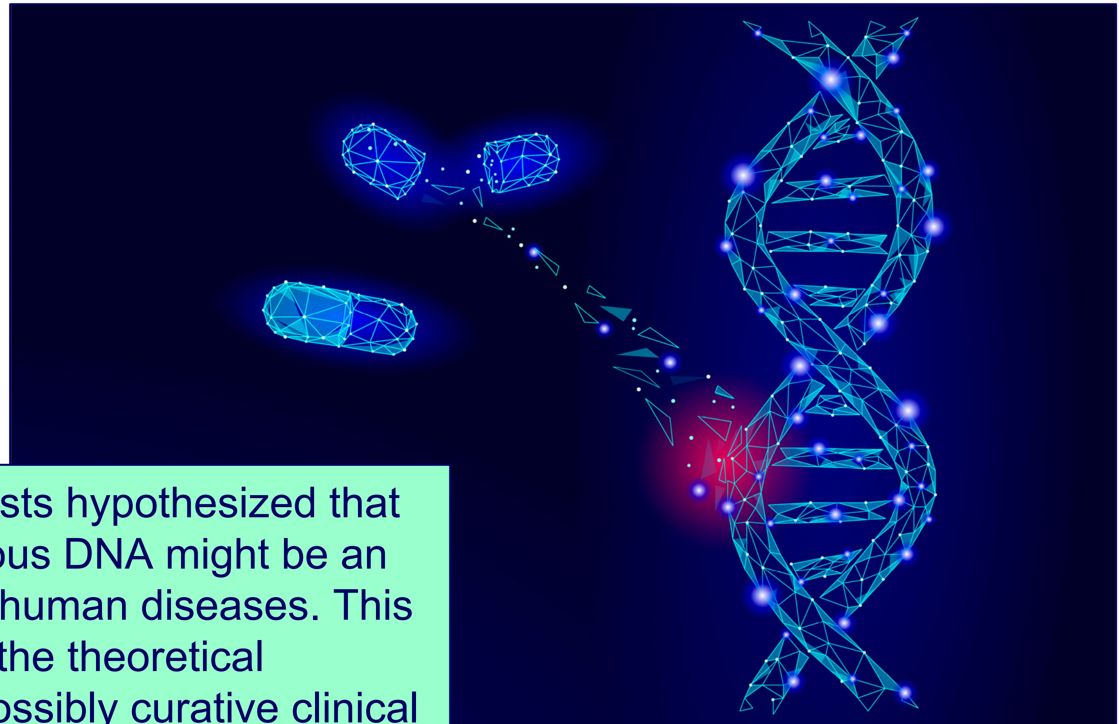








Gene therapy comes of age

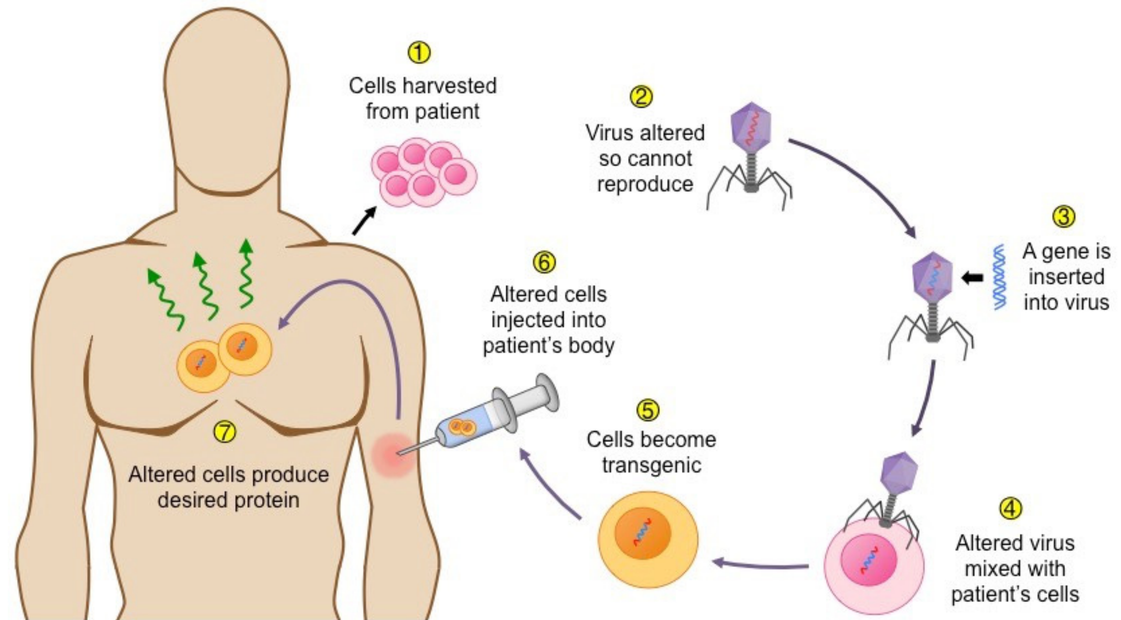


Nearly five decades ago, scientists hypothesized that genetic modification by exogenous DNA might be an effective treatment for inherited human diseases. This "gene therapy" strategy offered the theoretical advantage that a durable and possibly curative clinical benefit would be achieved by a single treatment. Although the journey from concept to clinical application has been long, gene therapy is now bringing new treatment options to multiple fields of medicine.

Dunbar *et al.*,Science 359: eaan4672 (2018), DOI: 10.1126/science.aan4672

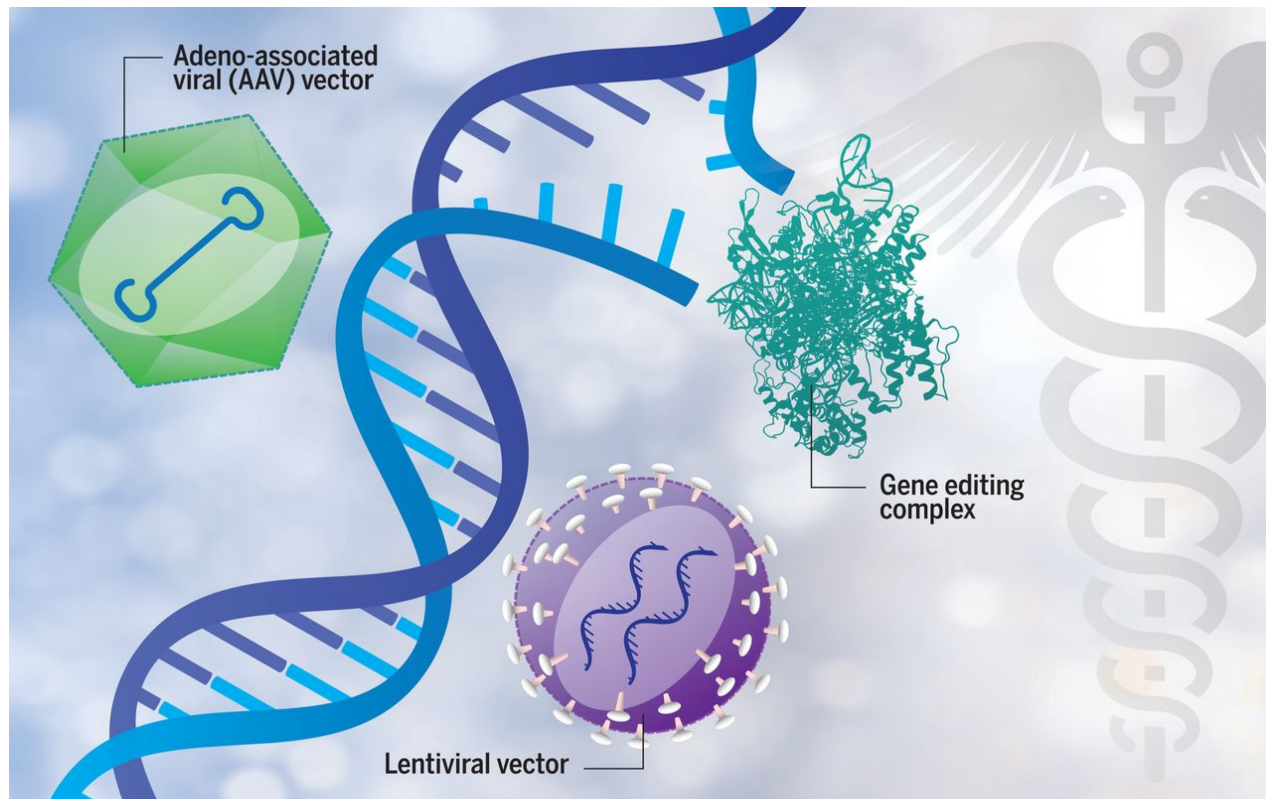
Overview of gene therapy

Gene therapy is the insertion of genes into an individual's cells to treat hereditary diseases by replacing defective alleles



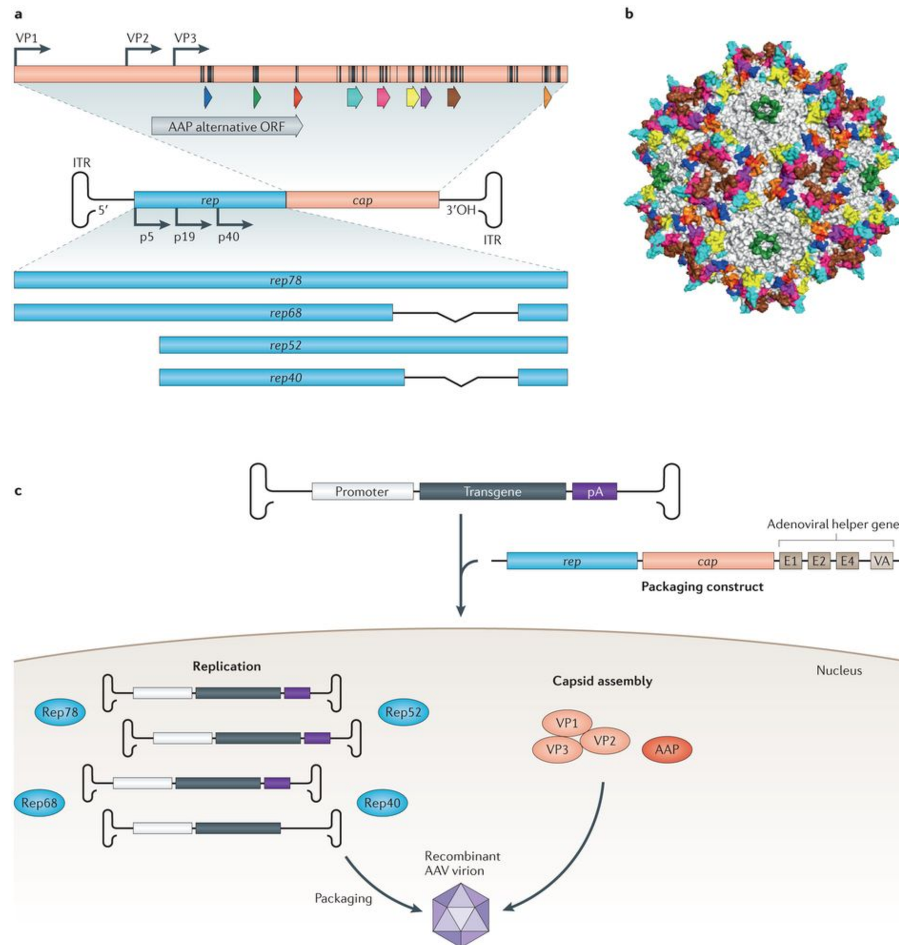
- Viral vectors are typically used, due to their ability to integrate DNA into the host's genome
- The process involves removing cells from a patient and using a viral vector to introduce a functional copy of the defective gene
- When the cells are transplanted back into the patient, they should begin expressing the missing protein to restore normal health

Three essential tools for human gene therapy



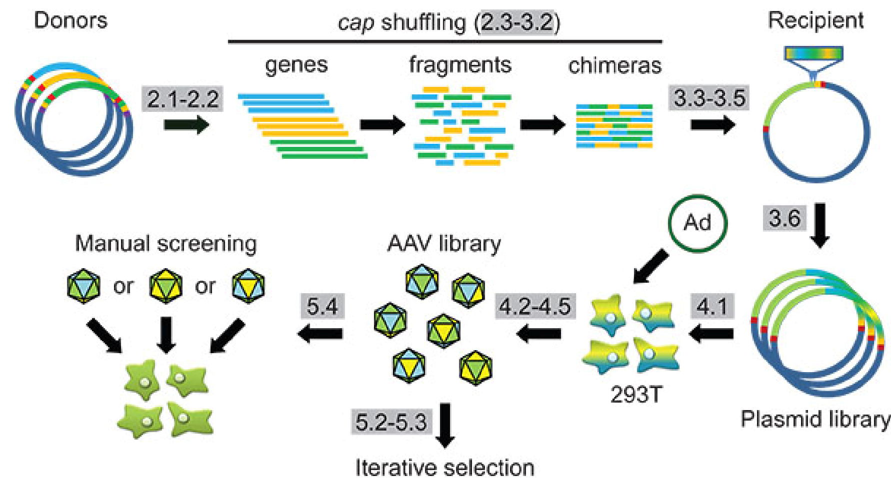
- AAV and lentiviral vectors are the basis of several recently approved gene therapies.
- Gene editing technologies (CRISPR/Cas9, TALENs etc.) are in their translational and clinical infancy but are expected to play an increasing role in the field.

AAV biology and vector manufacturing

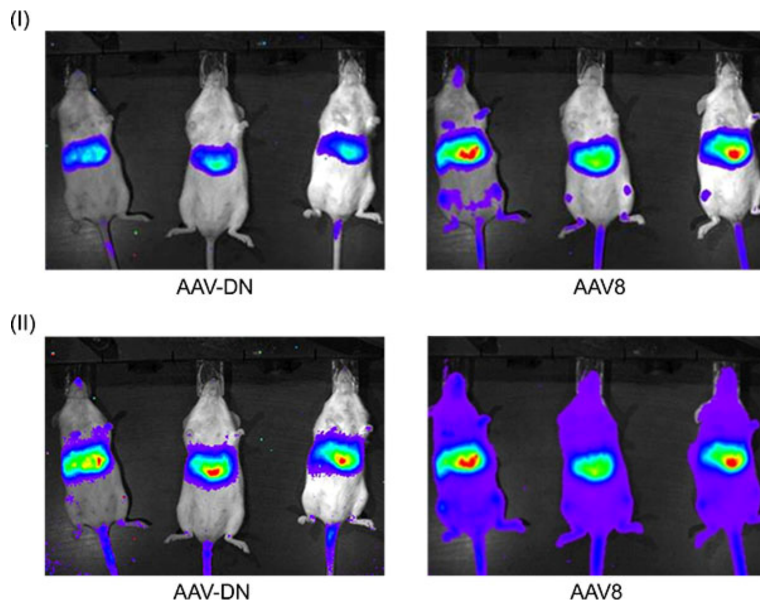


- Adeno-associated virus (AAV) is a small (25-nm) virus
- It is composed of a non-enveloped icosahedral capsid (protein shell) that contains a linear single-stranded DNA genome of about 4.7 kb
- The AAV genome encodes for several protein products, namely, four non-structural Rep proteins, three capsid proteins (VP1–3), and the recently discovered assembly-activating protein (AAP)
- The AAV genes are required for its biological cycle and are flanked by two AAV-specific palindromic inverted terminal repeats (ITRs; 145 bp)
- AAV viruses infect both dividing and non-dividing cells, and remain latent in the host cell DNA by integration into specific chromosomic loci (AAVS) unless a helper virus activates its replication
- AAV viruses naturally infect humans; an exposure to the wild-type virus occurs at around 1–3 years of age, and is not associated with any known disease
- Importantly, the timing of human exposure to AAV viruses determines the host immunological response to the recombinant AAV vectors

Engineering and evolution of AAV vectors by DNA shuffling



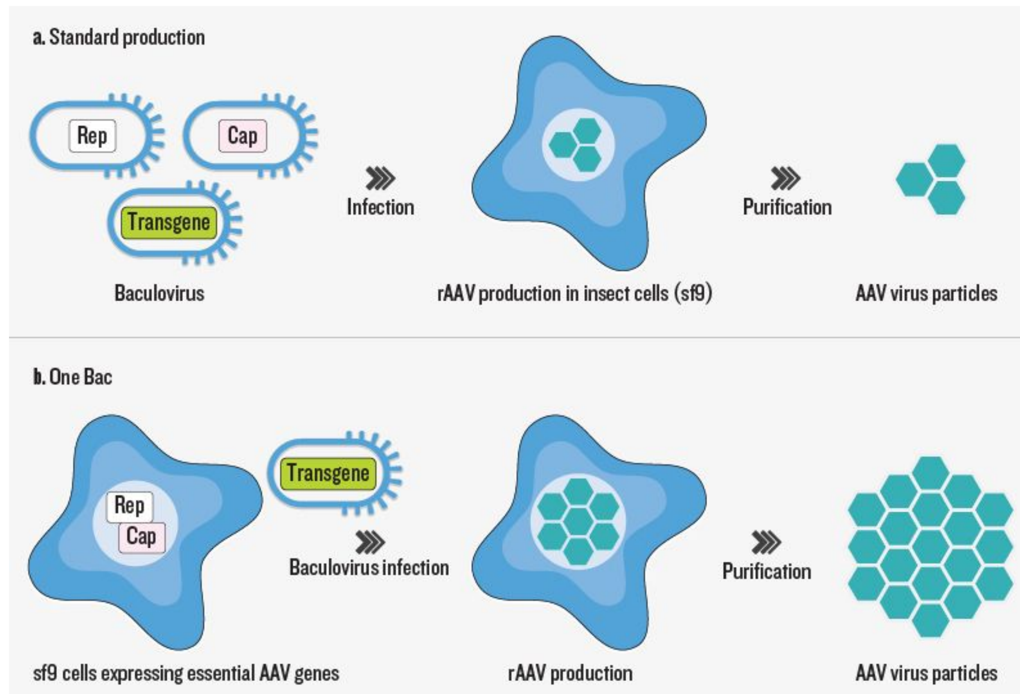
Synthetic AAV capsid engineering via DNA family shuffling and subsequent selection in cells or in animals.

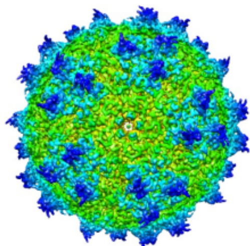


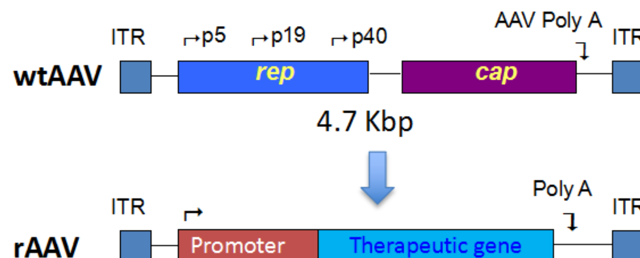
Example for analysis of a selected AAV chimera in mouse liver. Clone AAV-DN was selected on murine hepatoma cells and then used to produce *luciferase*-expressing recombinant vectors. Note that while the AAV-DN clone gives slightly less overall expression in the liver (panel **I**), it is more specific for this organ since it exhibits substantially less off-targeting in non-hepatic tissues (panel **II**).

Baculovirus-mediated production of gene therapy vectors

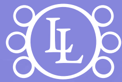
Baculovirus-mediated production of adeno-associated viral (AAV) vectors as gene therapy vehicles





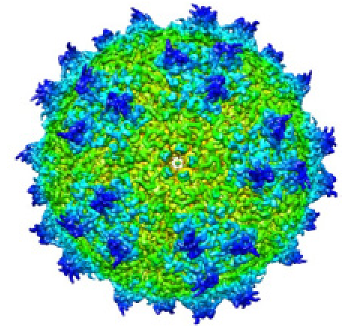


- In 2002, Prof. Robert Kotin and colleagues at the US National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute first demonstrated its suitability for AAV manufacturing
- They infected Sf9 cell lines — derived from the fall armyworm — with three different baculoviruses: two containing essential genes for AAV particle production (rep and cap), and one containing the transgene sequence intended for delivery
- In this manufacturing process, the baculoviruses play a dual role, functioning as the ‘helper’ virus normally required for replication, as well as the vehicle for AAV genetic material
- In their initial demonstration, Kotin’s team achieved levels of productivity comparable with existing AAV manufacturing approaches — on the order of 50,000 functional viral particles per cell



Development of AAV-based gene therapy products

- In 2017, FDA-approval of the first gene therapy product targeting a disease caused by mutations in a single gene
- This product, LUXTURNA™ (voretigene neparvovec-rzyl; Spark Therapeutics, Inc., Philadelphia, PA), delivers a normal copy of the *RPE65* gene to retinal cells for the treatment of *RPE65* mutation–associated retinal dystrophy, a blinding disease
- Many additional gene therapy programs targeting both inherited retinal diseases and other ocular diseases are in development



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With LUXTURNA®,

Imagine where you can go

LUXTURNA is the first FDA-approved gene therapy for a genetic disease

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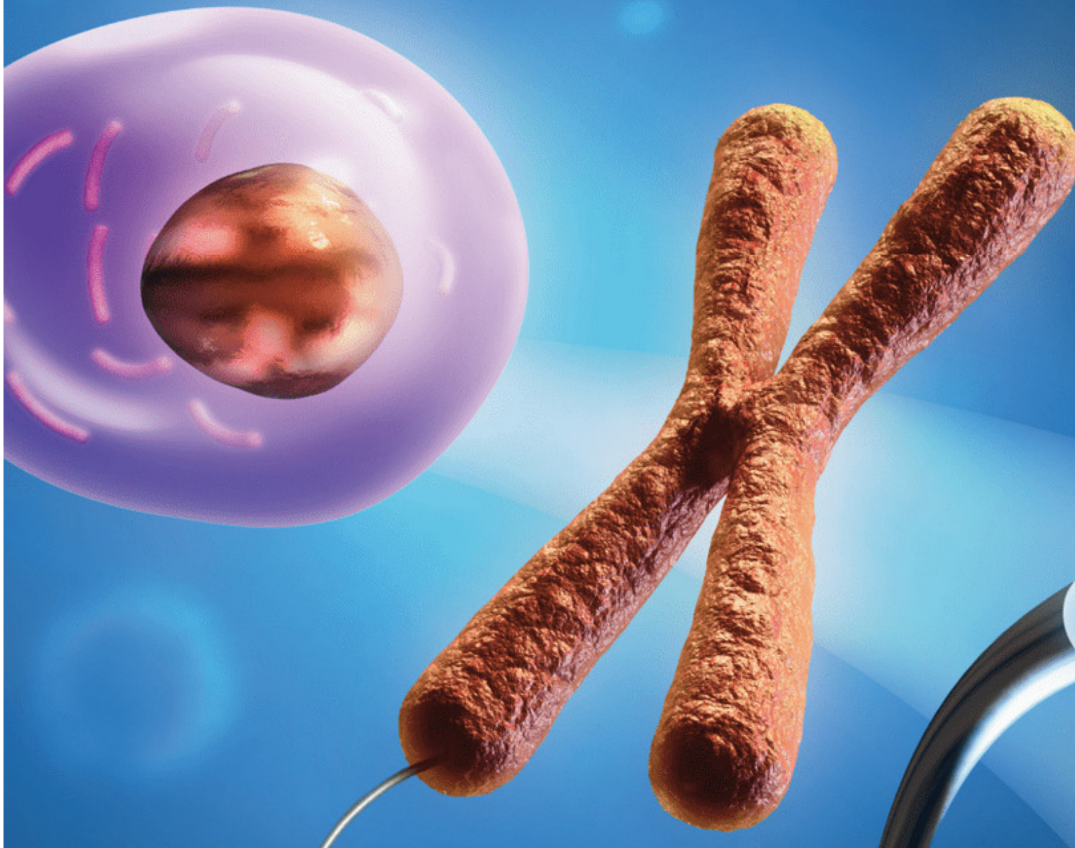
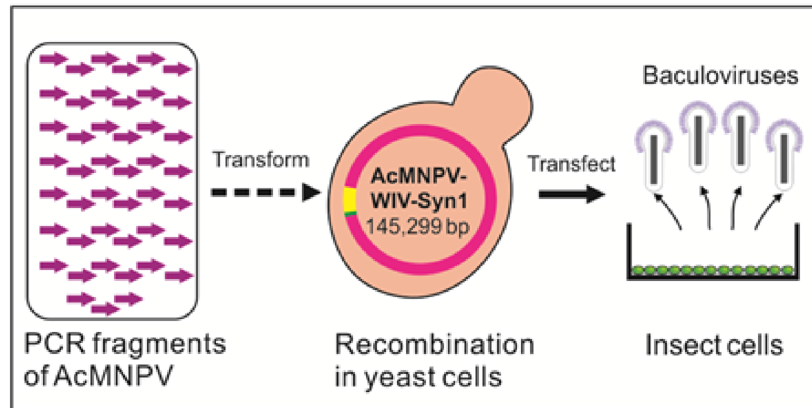
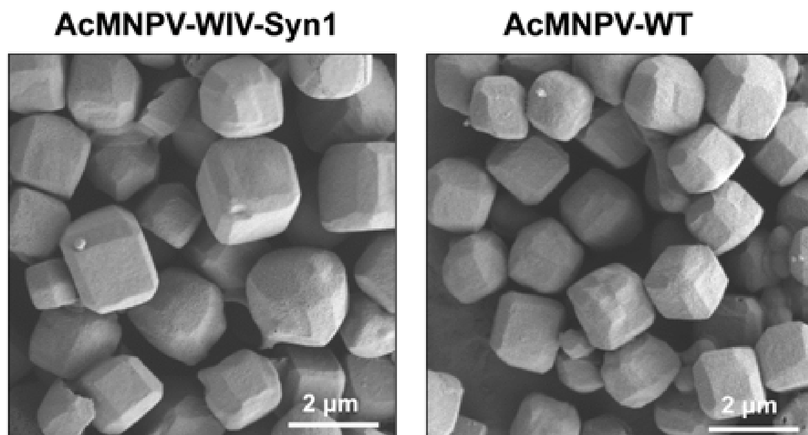
World's most efficient large-scale AAV manufacturing

- Virovek has developed a patented BAC-to-AAV technology that utilizes the baculovirus expression system to produce AAV vectors in insect cells under serum-free condition
- The capability to generate over 3e+16vg of AAV vectors with a single production run, which is unmatched by any other AAV production system



Synthesis of a functional baculovirus reported in 2017



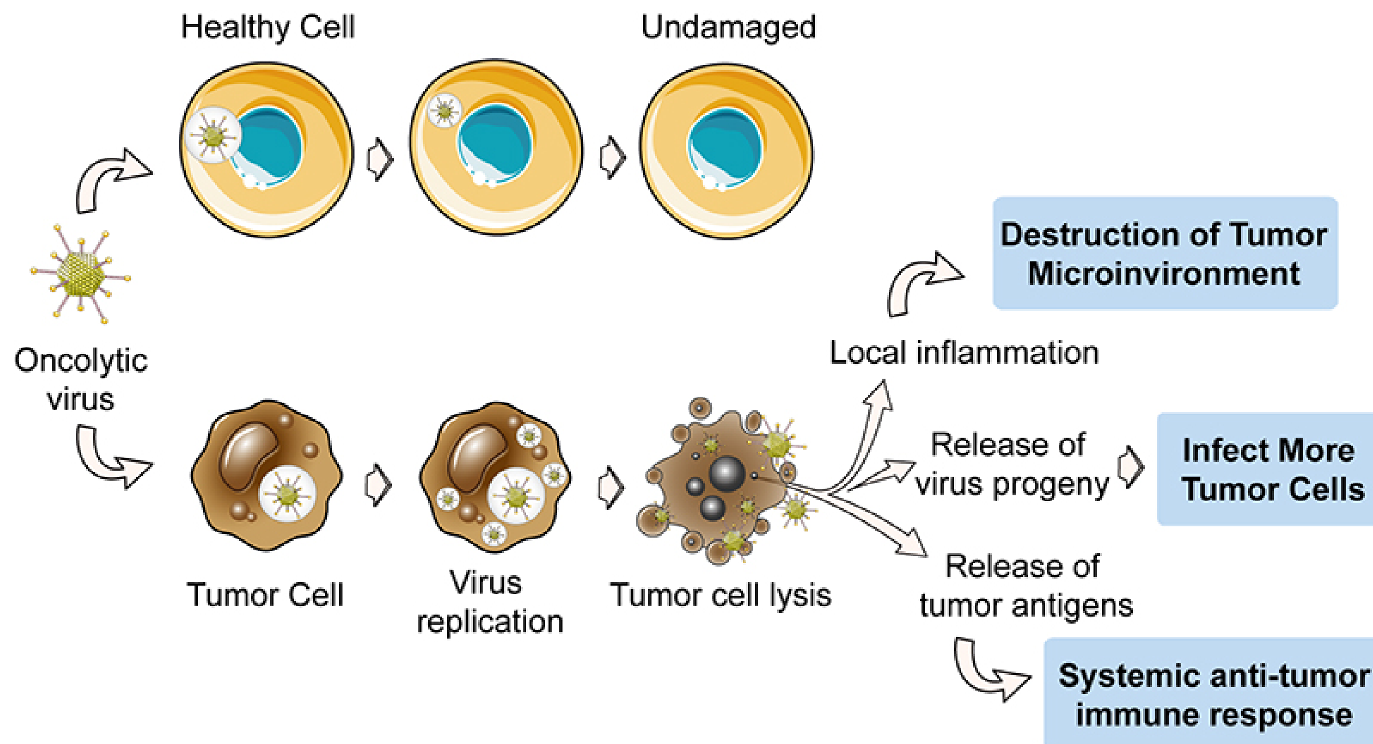


- So far, most synthetic viruses have been RNA viruses (<30 kb) and small DNA viruses
- Baculoviruses contain a large circular dsDNA genome of 80–180 kb and have been used as biocontrol agents and protein expression vectors
- First synthesis of a baculovirus genome by a combination of PCR and transformation-associated recombination in yeast
- The synthetic genome (145,299 bp) comprising the complete genome of AcMNPV except for the *hr4a* locus that was replaced with an 11.5 kb cassette of bacterial and yeast artificial chromosomal elements and an *egfp* gene
- Insect cells were transfected with the synthetic baculovirus genome and progeny virus was examined by electron microscopy
- The results showed that the rescued virus had structural and biological properties comparable to the parental virus
- This is the largest DNA virus synthesized so far, and its success will stimulate the fields of other large DNA viruses such as herpesviruses and poxviruses

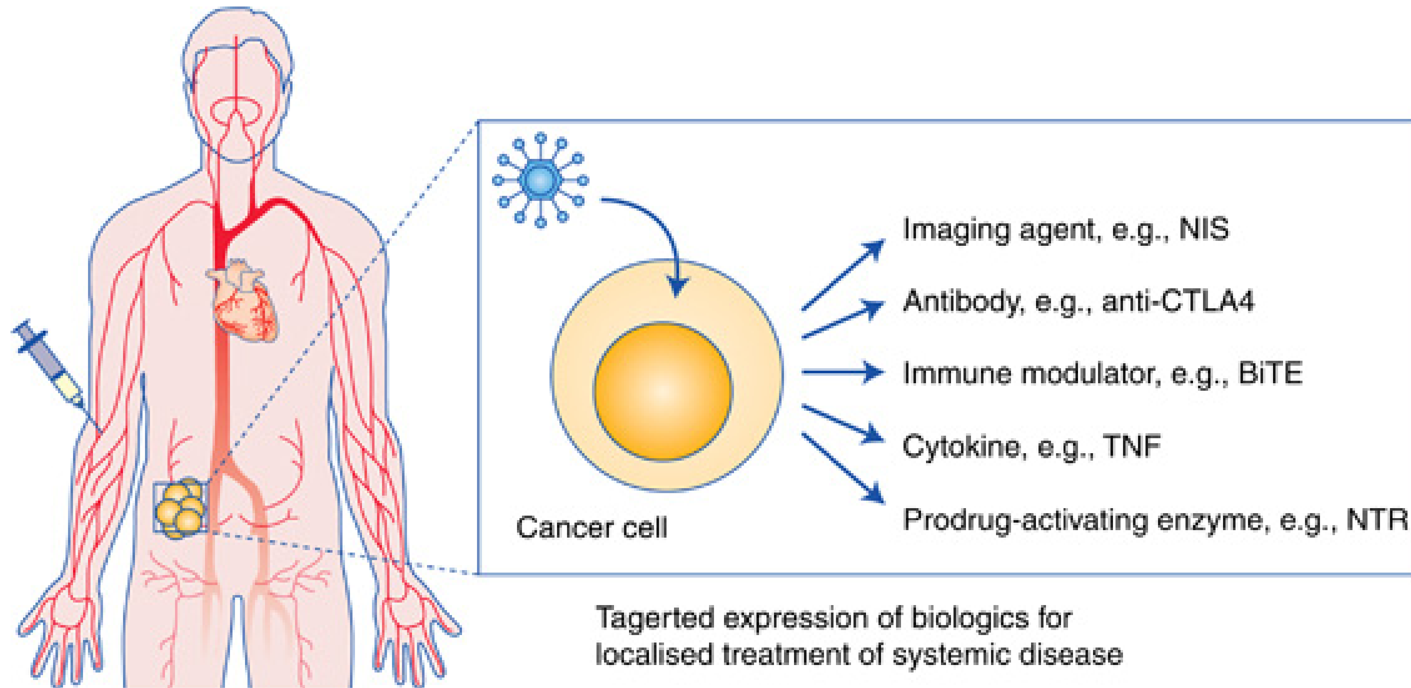
https://pubs.acs.org/doi/abs/10.1021/acssynbio.7b00028?journalCode=asbcd6

Oncolytic viruses as synthetic platforms for cancer therapy

- Oncolytic viruses (OVs) selectively replicate in and kill cancer cells, and spread within the tumor, while not harming normal tissue
- In addition to this direct oncolytic activity, OVs are also very effective at inducing immune responses to themselves and to the infected tumor cells
- OVs encompass a broad diversity of DNA and RNA viruses that are naturally cancer-selective or can be genetically-engineered



Cancer therapy: armed oncolytic viruses



Oncolytic viruses can be 'armed' to express therapeutic proteins within infected tumour cells, and secrete them into the tumour microenvironment. This can provide high-level tumour-selective expression of biologics, maximising local activity and minimising systemic toxicities. If the virus is suitable for systemic delivery, this provides the intriguing concept of localised therapy in disseminated tumours following intravenous delivery. AntiCTLA4=checkpoint inhibitor antibody; BiTE=Bi-specific T-cell engager, for modulating activity and tropism of T cells; NIS=sodium iodide symporter (for SPECT imaging of virus activity); NTR=nitroreductase TNF=tumour necrosis factor.

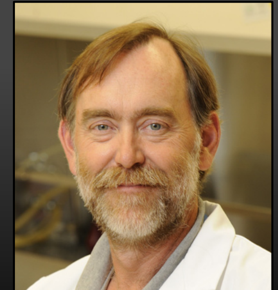
Seymour and Fisher
British Journal of Cancer (2016) 114, 357-361 doi:10.1038/bjc.2015.481

News | Synthetic Biology | DNA Synthesis | Cancer | OMICs | DNA | Genome Editing | Drug Discovery | Translational Medicine | Therapeutics | Oncologics | Precision Medicine

Artificial Cancer-Killing Virus the Longest Yet Synthesized

November 2, 2016 0

Prof. Bruce F. Smith
Auburn University Research Initiative in Cancer



- A collaborative effort involving Auburn University, Gen9 and Autodesk has developed a synthetic viral genome for bone cancer research and one which may prove revolutionary in the battle against cancer overall

- The sCAV2 virus, which is the longest functional virus created in oncology research, targets and destroys selected tumour cells while not impacting healthy cells

- "This could change the way we fight cancer. It is that revolutionary," states Dr. Bruce Smith, a professor in the department of pathobiology and director of the Auburn University Research Initiative in Cancer, in the announcement. "*Our concept is taking personalized medicine to precision medicine. The technology to create a new virus by synthesizing it is a huge leap, but the ability to then make a customized virus tailored to the specific needs of each patient will be transformative.*"

https://www.fiercebiotech.com/it/synthetic-virus-may-drive-personalized-medicine-into-precision-medicine

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ABOUT

Andrew Hessel is the CEO of Humane Genomics Inc., a seed-stage company developing virus-based therapies for cancer, starting with dogs. He is a co-founder of the Genome Project-write, the international scientific effort working to engineer large genomes, including the human genome. From 2012-2017 Andrew was the Distinguished Researcher at Autodesk Life Sciences. He has been Singularity University faculty since 2009. His goal is to help people better understand and use living systems to meet the needs of society.

https://andrewhessel.com/

Industrial large-scale production of oncolytic viruses

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Vector and Vaccines

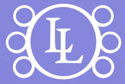
HALIX offers GMP production of vaccines, vectors and oncolytic viruses in our BSL2 cleanroom production plant

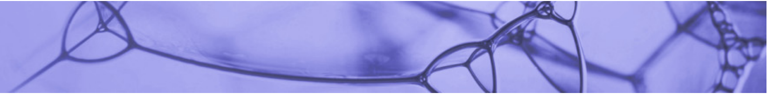
Vectors, Vaccines and Therapeutics

Viruses are broadly used in modern medicine with prophylactic vaccines as the best proven technology. Most recently, viruses have been used as gene therapy vectors to cure patients with genetic deficiencies or mutations. This kind of virus can also be used to train our immune system to recognize and clear up cancerous cells using for example CAR-T technology. In a more direct approach to treating cancer, oncolytic viruses have been modified in such a way that they selectively infect and eliminate tumor cells, without affecting healthy cells.

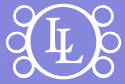
https://www.halix.nl/vectors-and-vaccines/?gclid=EAIaIQobChMIsJvE_6Wc5QIVRrTtCh174QBIEAAYASAAEgKpFPD_BwE

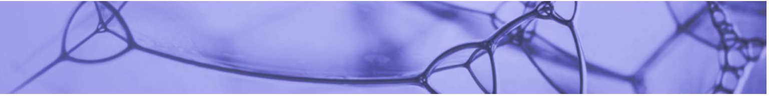
Questions





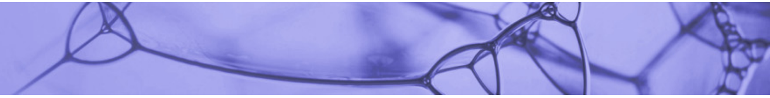
Supplementary materials





Design of cellular signalling modules

Concepts
Methods
Applications



Structural data help to design cellular signalling circuits

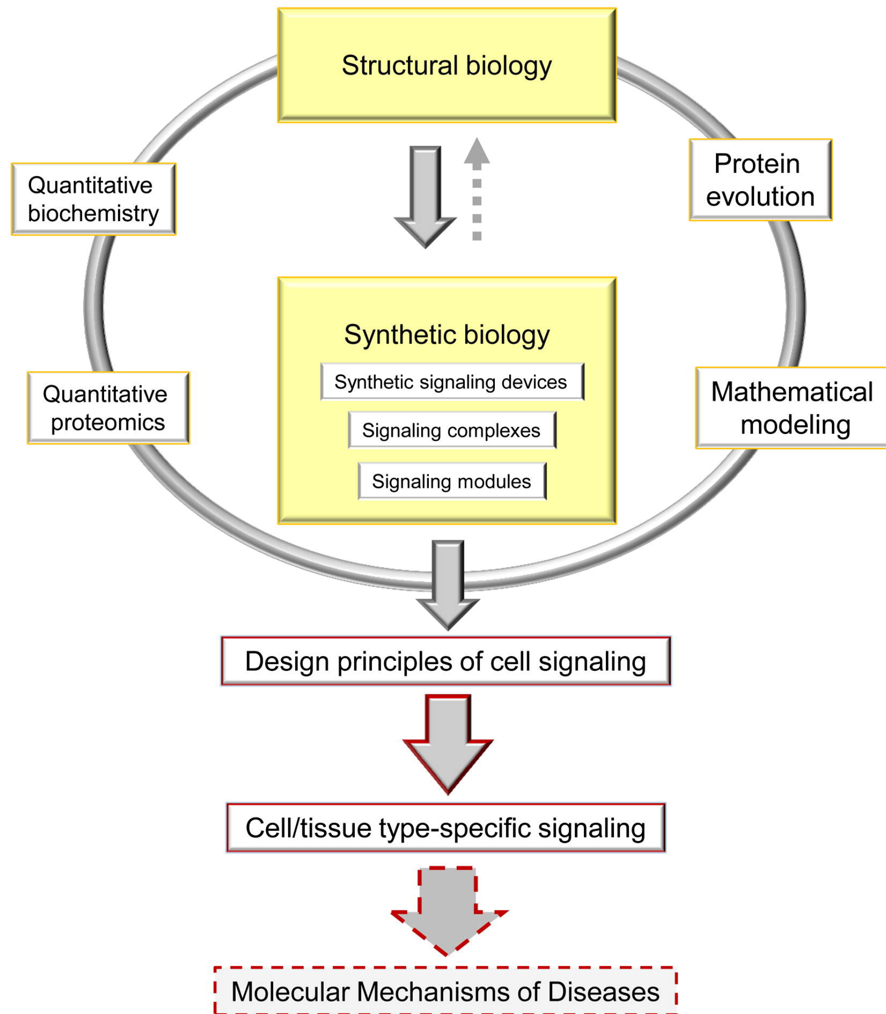
- Over last decades, discovery of macromolecular protein structures and complexes has played a major role in advancing a more systems-oriented view of protein interaction and signalling networks
- The design of biological systems often employs structural information or structure-based protein design to successfully implement synthetic signalling circuits or for rewiring signalling flows

- There are two ways of using structural information and protein design to analyze and engineer signalling networks:
  - One is to modify existing proteins to either eliminate interactions or to change kinetic or binding constants, with the aim of probing the network behaviour

    For example, the structure-based design of mutations with altered binding or kinetic constants
  - The other way is to design and engineer new parts that can be directed and therefore perturb a signal transduction pathway in a controlled way

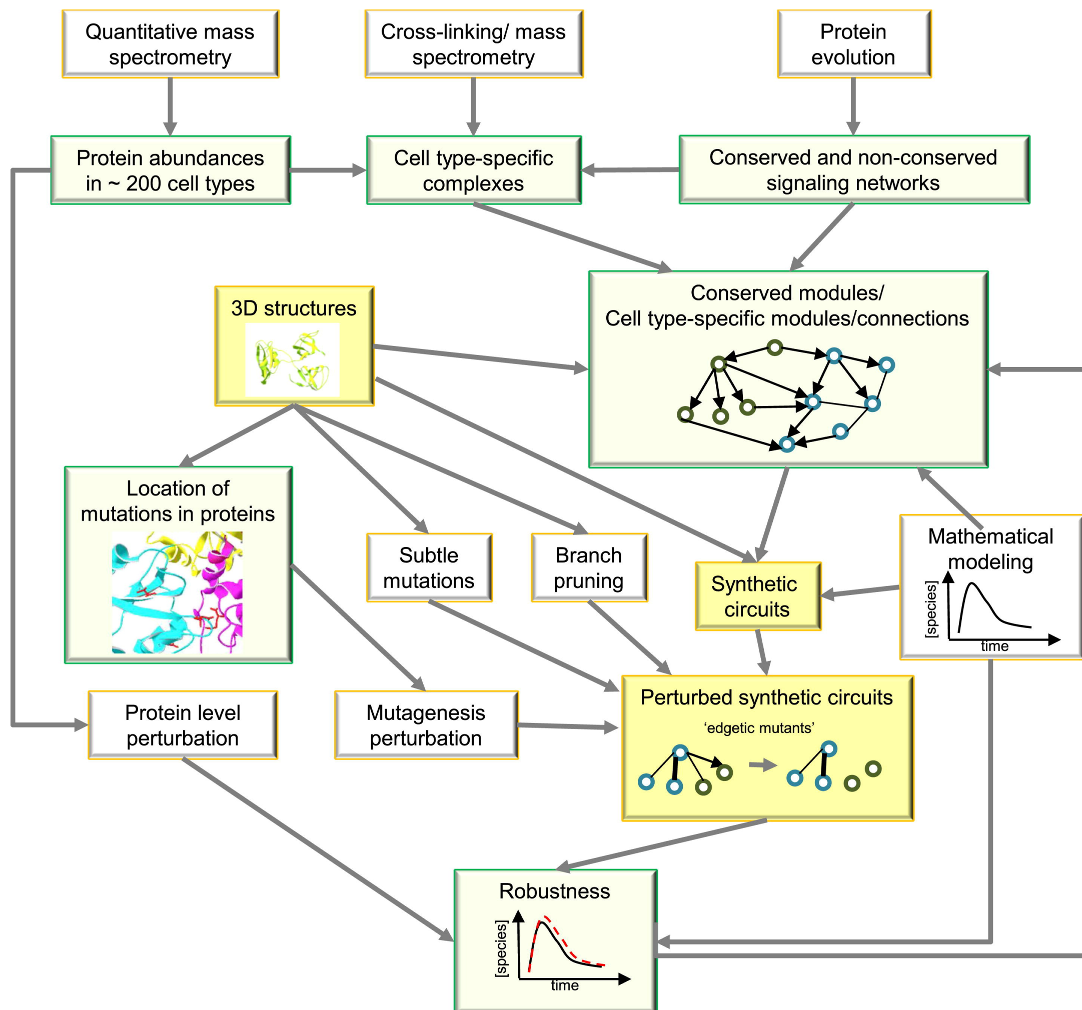
    For example, structure-based engineering and design of new interchangeable parts and signalling modules

Combining structural biology with synthetic biology to provide insights into cell signalling



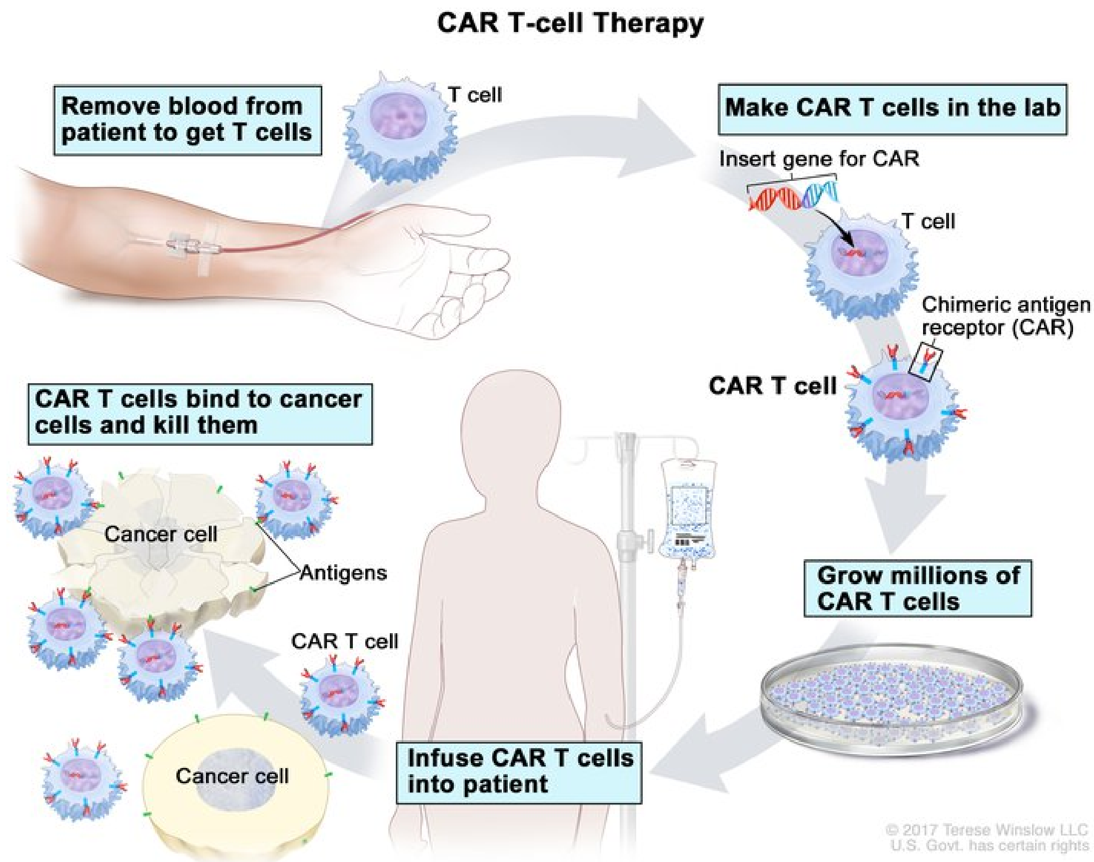
- Structural information provides a valuable tool in engineering synthetic signalling devices
- Combined with additional information from quantitative biochemistry and proteomics, gene evolution, and mathematical modelling, this can provide insights into signalling modules and the general design principles of cell signalling
- Altogether, this will improve our understanding of cell- and tissue-type-specific signal transduction
- In the future, this knowledge can be the basis for understanding the molecular mechanisms of disease by predicting the effect of disease mutation using mathematical modelling

Flow chart of combining different disciplines to study cellular design principles and cell-type-specific signalling



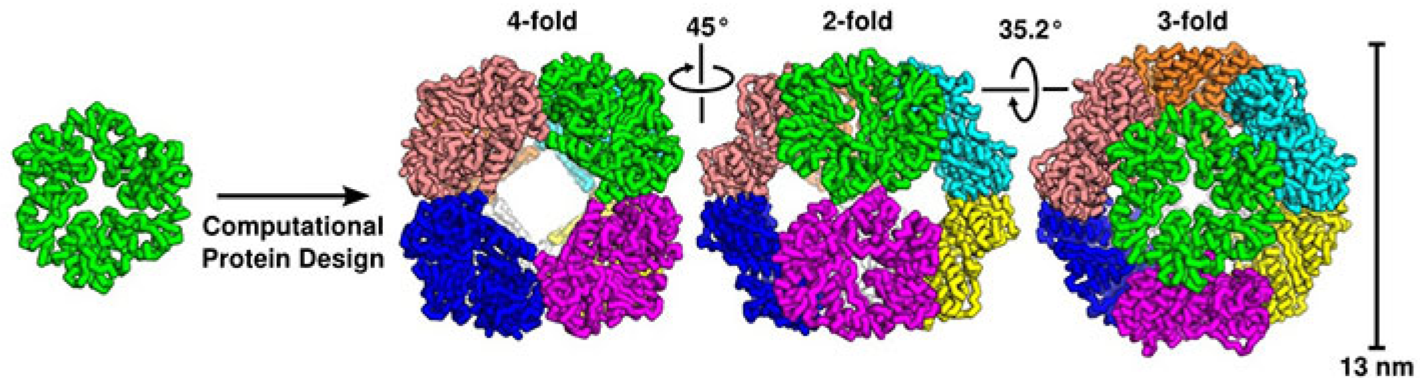
- Structural information is a key component in proposing network modules, predicting the localization and effect of disease mutations, and designing perturbed protein complexes to be used in synthetic biology approaches

Synthetic biology approaches to improving immunotherapy



- One of the major drivers of cancer immunotherapy interest is CAR-T (CAR stands for Chimeric Antigen Receptor and T is for T-cells) cell therapy.
- This is a cell-based therapy in which T-cells are taken from the patient and then modified to have specific receptors that help it recognize and attack the cancer.
- The chimeric antigen receptor works by fusing a target-binding domain that recognizes the cancer and an activation domain that turns on the T-cell into attack mode against the cancer.
- Plenty of these modified cells are then grown up in the lab and returned to the patient.
- The first CAR-T treatment was approved by FDA in 2017 and many more are in clinical trials.

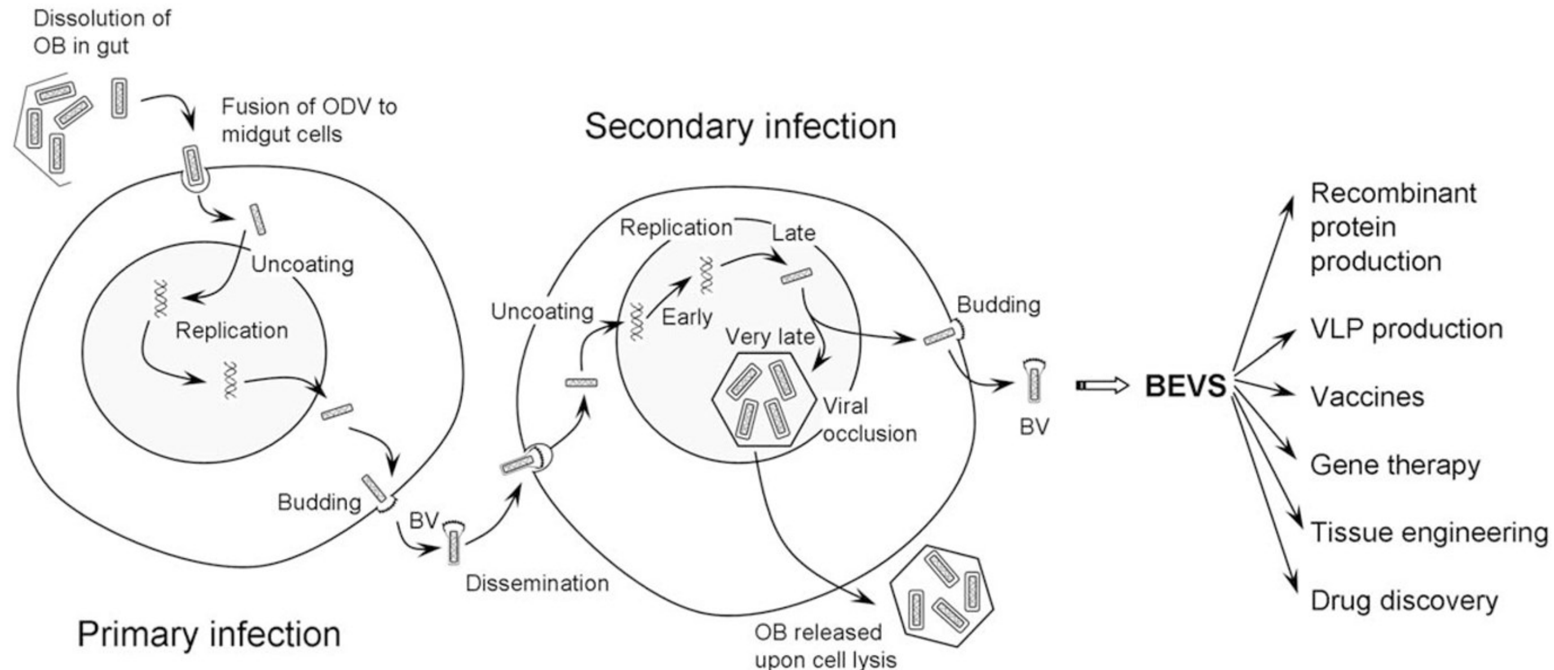
Computational design of self-assembling protein nanomaterials with atomic level accuracy



- Protein building blocks are docked together symmetrically to identify complementary packing arrangements, and low-energy protein-protein interfaces are then designed between the building blocks in order to drive self-assembly.
- Trimeric protein building blocks were used to design a 24-subunit, 13-nm diameter complex with octahedral symmetry and a 12-subunit, 11-nm diameter complex with tetrahedral symmetry.
- The designed proteins assembled to the desired oligomeric states in solution, and the crystal structures of the complexes revealed that the resulting materials closely match the design models.
- The method can be used to design a wide variety of self-assembling protein nanomaterials.

Science 2012 336 (6085):1171-4. doi: 10.1126/science.1219364

The replication cycle of baculovirus

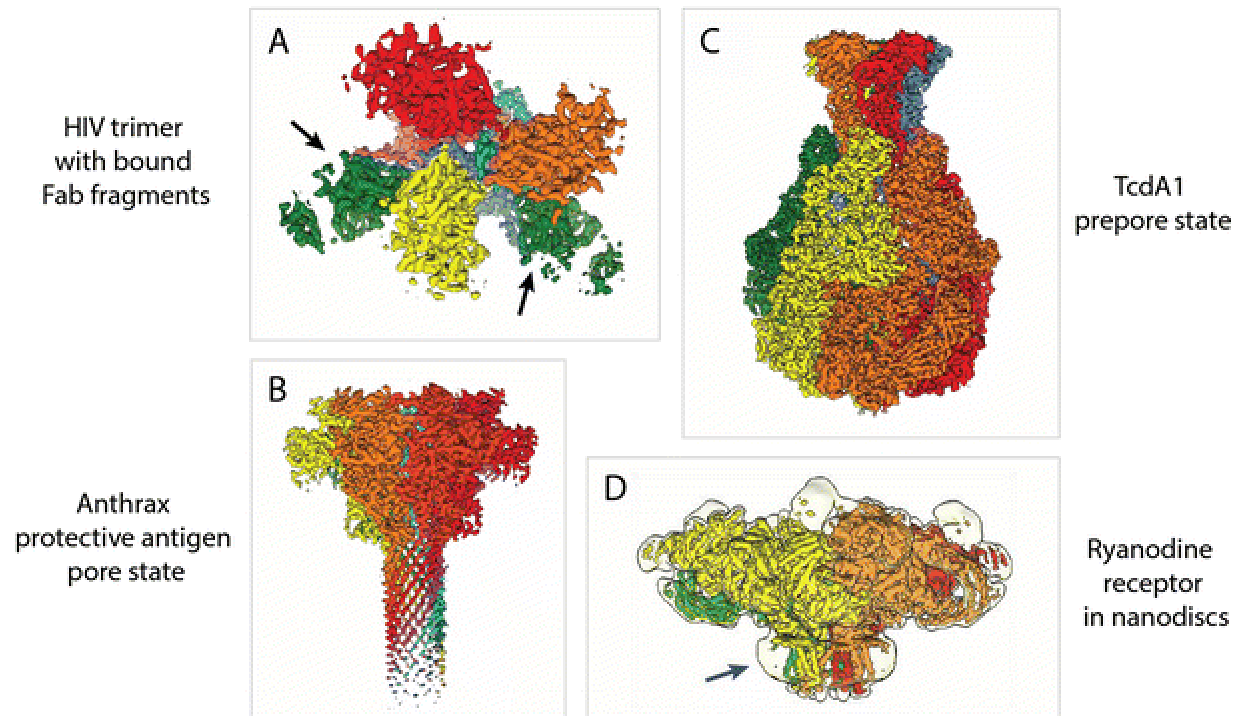


- Baculovirus is a member of the insect-borne virus family and was originally used as a biopesticide with a large double-stranded circular DNA genome. The virus is enveloped, rod-shaped particles, ranging from 30 to 60 nm in diameter and from 250 to 300 nm in length.
- The natural hosts for these viruses are insects, and Autographa californica (AcMNPV) is the most studied member of the family, which was developed into a recombinant baculovirus vector and is still under application today.
- AcMNPV and other baculoviruses are able to generate “polyhedra” or “occlusion bodies” in the infected cells of insects. In the late phase of infection, dozens of polyhedra are formed in the host cell nuclei, which accommodate progeny virions encased by a protective paracrystalline array comprised of virus-encoded protein-polyhedrin.

In 1959 Richard Feynman delivered what many consider the first lecture on nanotechnology. This lecture, presented to the American Physical Society at the California Institute of Technology, prompted intense discussion about the possibilities, or impossibilities, of manipulating materials at the molecular level. Although at the time of his presentation, the manipulation of single molecules and single atoms seemed improbable, if not impossible, Feynman challenged his audience to consider a new field of physics, one in which individual molecules and atoms would be manipulated and controlled at the molecular level (Feynman 1960). As an example of highly successful machines at the "small scale," Feynman prompted his audience to consider the inherent properties of biological cells. He colorfully noted that although cells are "very tiny," they are "very active, they manufacture various substances, they walk around, they wiggle, and they do all kinds of wonderful things on a very small scale" (Feynman 1960). Of course, many of these "wonderful things" that he was referring to are a result of the activities of proteins and protein complexes within each cell.

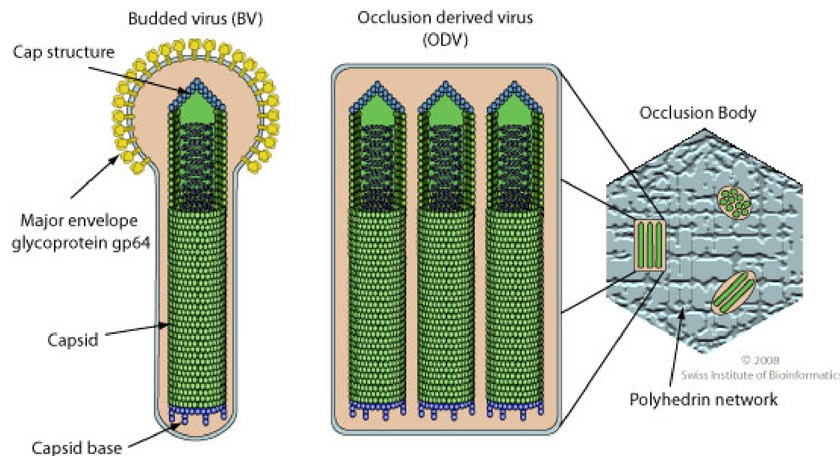
The field of nanotechnology has indeed emerged and blossomed since Feynman's 1959 lecture, and scientists from many disciplines are now taking a careful look at the protein "machines" that power biological cells (Drexler 1986). These "machines" are inherently nanoscale, ranging in width from a few nanometers (nm) to over 20 nm, and have been carefully refined by millions of years of evolution.

Examples of biomedically relevant cryo-EM structures



(A) Cryo-EM structure of the trimeric envelope glycoprotein of HIV. It was solved in complex with two neutralizing antibody Fab fragments. [EMD-3308]. (B) Cryo-EM structure of the anthrax protective antigen pore from *Bacillus anthracis.* [EMD-6224]. (C) Cryo-EM structure of TcdA1 from *Photorhabdus luminescens* in its prepore state. [EMD-3645]. (D) Cryo-EM structure of the ryanodine receptor RyR1. Map at low threshold (transparent) is shown to visualize the nanodisc (blue arrow), which stabilizes the transmembrane helices of RyR1. [EMD-2751]. Individual subunits are depicted in various colors. The hetero-trimeric HIV envelope glycoprotein in A can be divided into the gp120 trimer (yellow, orange, and red) and gp41 trimer (pink, blue, and cyan). Bound Fab fragments (green) are indicated by black arrows. Heptameric anthrax protective antigen pore (yellow, orange, light red, dark red, magenta, cyan, and green) in (B), pentameric TcdA1 (yellow, orange, red, green and blue) in (C), and tetrameric RyR1 (yellow, orange, red, and green) in D.

Baculovirus biology



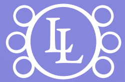
- Extracellular enveloped baculovirus virions can be found in two forms: OV (occluded virus) and BV (budded virus). The nucleocapsid is about 21 nm x 260 nm.
- Circular dsDNA genome , 80-180 kb in length, encoding for 100 to 180 proteins.

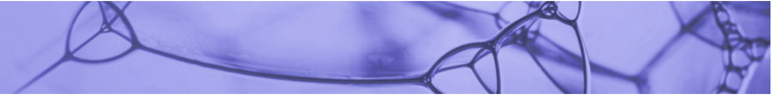
BACULOVIRUS INFECTION CYCLE

- Attachment of the viral glycoproteins to host receptors mediates endocytosis of the virus into the host cell.
- Fusion with the plasma membrane.
- The DNA genome is released into the host nucleus.
- Immediate early phase: host RNA polymerase transcribes viral genes involved in the regulation of the replication cascade, prevention of host responses and viral DNA synthesis.
- Late phase: The virally encoded RNA polymerase expresses late genes.
- Replication of the genome by rolling circle in nuclear viral factories.
- Nucleocapsids are formed which can either bud out through the cellular membrane and disseminate the infection or be occluded for horizontal transmission.
- Occlusion phase: the virus becomes occluded in the protein polyhedrin and the polyhedral envelope (calyx) is produced.
- Lysis of the cell releases the occluded virus.

Engineering and evolution of AAV vectors by DNA shuffling

- Adeno-associated viral (AAV) vectors represent some of the most potent and promising vehicles for therapeutic human gene transfer due to a unique combination of beneficial properties.
- These include the apathogenicity of the underlying wildtype viruses and the highly advanced methodologies for production of high-titer, high-purity and clinical-grade recombinant vectors.
- A further particular advantage of the AAV system over other viruses is the availability of a wealth of naturally occurring serotypes which differ in essential properties yet can all be easily engineered as vectors using a common protocol.
- Development of strategies to use these natural viruses as templates for the creation of synthetic vectors which either combine the assets of multiple input serotypes, or which enhance the properties of a single isolate.
- The respective technologies to achieve these goals are either DNA family shuffling, *i.e.* fragmentation of various AAV capsid genes followed by their re-assembly based on partial homologies (typically >80% for most AAV serotypes), or peptide display, *i.e.* insertion of usually seven amino acids into an exposed loop of the viral capsid where the peptide ideally mediates re-targeting to a desired cell type.
- For maximum success, both methods are applied in a high-throughput fashion whereby the protocols are up-scaled to yield libraries of around one million distinct capsid variants. Each clone is then comprised of a unique combination of numerous parental viruses (DNA shuffling approach) or contains a distinctive peptide within the same viral backbone (peptide display approach).
- The subsequent final step is iterative selection of such a library on target cells in order to enrich for individual capsids fulfilling most or ideally all requirements of the selection process. The latter preferably combines positive pressure, such as growth on a certain cell type of interest, with negative selection, for instance elimination of all capsids reacting with anti-AAV antibodies.
- This combination increases chances that synthetic capsids surviving the selection match the needs of the given application in a manner that would probably not have been found in any naturally occurring AAV isolate.

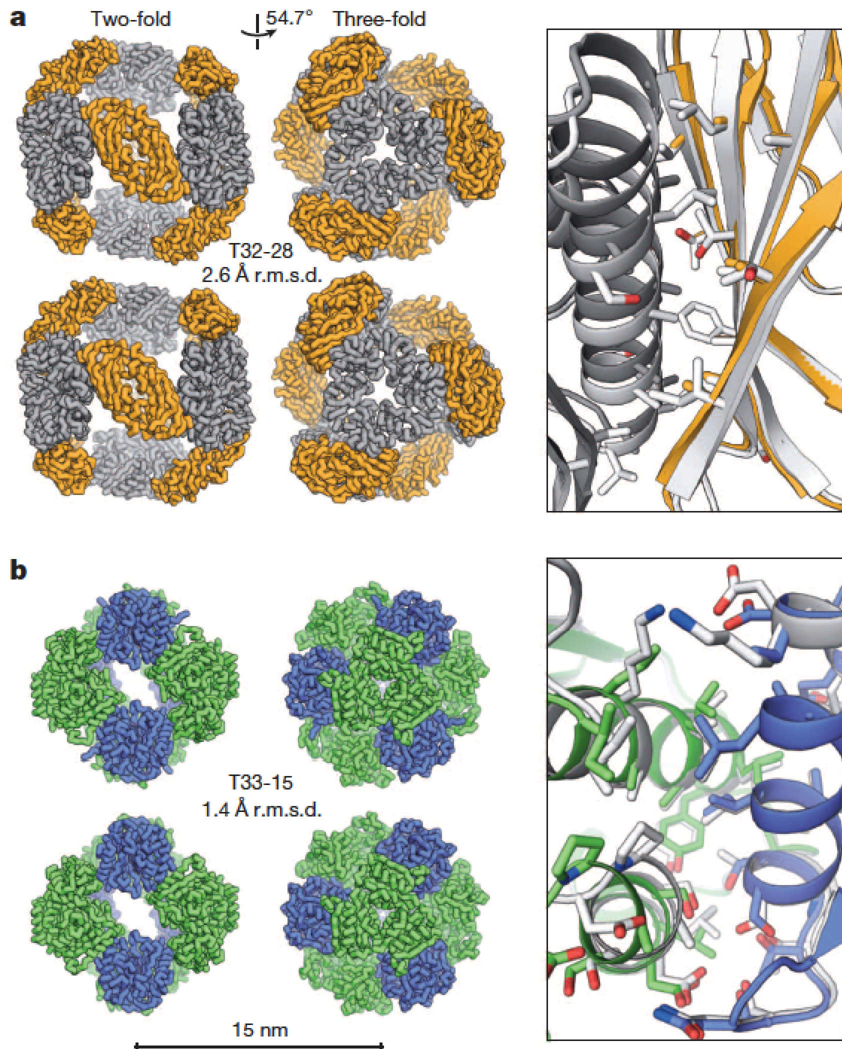




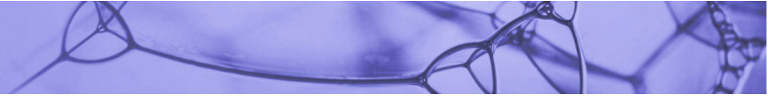
The MultiBac: a factory for synthetic virus-like particles

- A plasmid module comprising expression cassettes for the capsid-forming influenza H1N1 M1 protein (colored in grey) and a fluorescent protein marker, mCherry (colored in red), was introduced into the MultiBac baculoviral genome by Cre recombinase enzyme mediated plasmid fusion into the LoxP site (circle filled in red, gradient)
- Co-expression of HA, NA and M1 yields synthetic influenza virus-like particles (VLPs) resembling live influenza virus

Design of multi-component materials



The computational design models (top) and X-ray crystal structures (bottom) are shown at left for **a,** T32-28, **b,** T33-15, **c,** T33-21, and **d,** T33-28. Views of each material are shown to scale along the 2-fold and 3-fold tetrahedral symmetry axes (scale bar: 15 nm). The r.m.s.d. values given are those between the backbone atoms in all 24 chains of the design models and crystal structures. For T33-21, r.m.s.d. values are shown for both crystal forms (images are shown for the higher resolution crystal form with backbone r.m.s.d. 2.0 Å), while the r.m.s.d. range for T33-28 derives from the four copies of the fully assembled material in the crystallographic asymmetric unit. At right, overlays of the designed interfaces in the design models (white) and crystal structures (grey, orange, green, and blue) are shown. Due to the limited resolution of the T32-28 structure, the amino acid side chains were not modeled beyond the beta carbon. For the interface overlays, the crystal structures were aligned to the design models using the backbone atoms of two subunits, one of each component.



Genetic circuits for signal processing

Genetic circuits are commonly built by synthetic biologists to enable cells to take some input and compute what to do. Beyond a cell being activated by a single input, cells could be engineered to respond to multiple signals and to make decisions based on both its neighbouring cells and environment.

One published example of mammalian genetic circuits is ‘Boolean logic and arithmetic through DNA excision’ (BLADE) and it was able to build 113 different circuits in embryonic kidney and Jurkat T cells. The BLADE system uses recombinases to create logic gates but can also interface with CRISPR–Cas9 to regulate host cell genes. Large circuits like the ones demonstrated with BLADE could be combined with synthetic receptors so cells can make decisions based on what combination of signals they see.

Receptor engineering

New types of receptors can be engineered to detect different types of molecules and turn on some cellular output function. The more receptors that can be readily engineered the more molecules that can be used as inputs to a therapeutic cell. It has been shown that synthetic notch receptors can be made for use with different recognition domains as well as different transcription factors as activation domains. That means that a researcher can decide both what the receptor responds to and what it turns on after it binds its target. Typical CAR-Ts only change the input of the receptor, but this kind of receptor can swap out either the input or output or both. Having several independent receptors would allow much more complex programming of therapeutic cells to respond to signals within the human body.

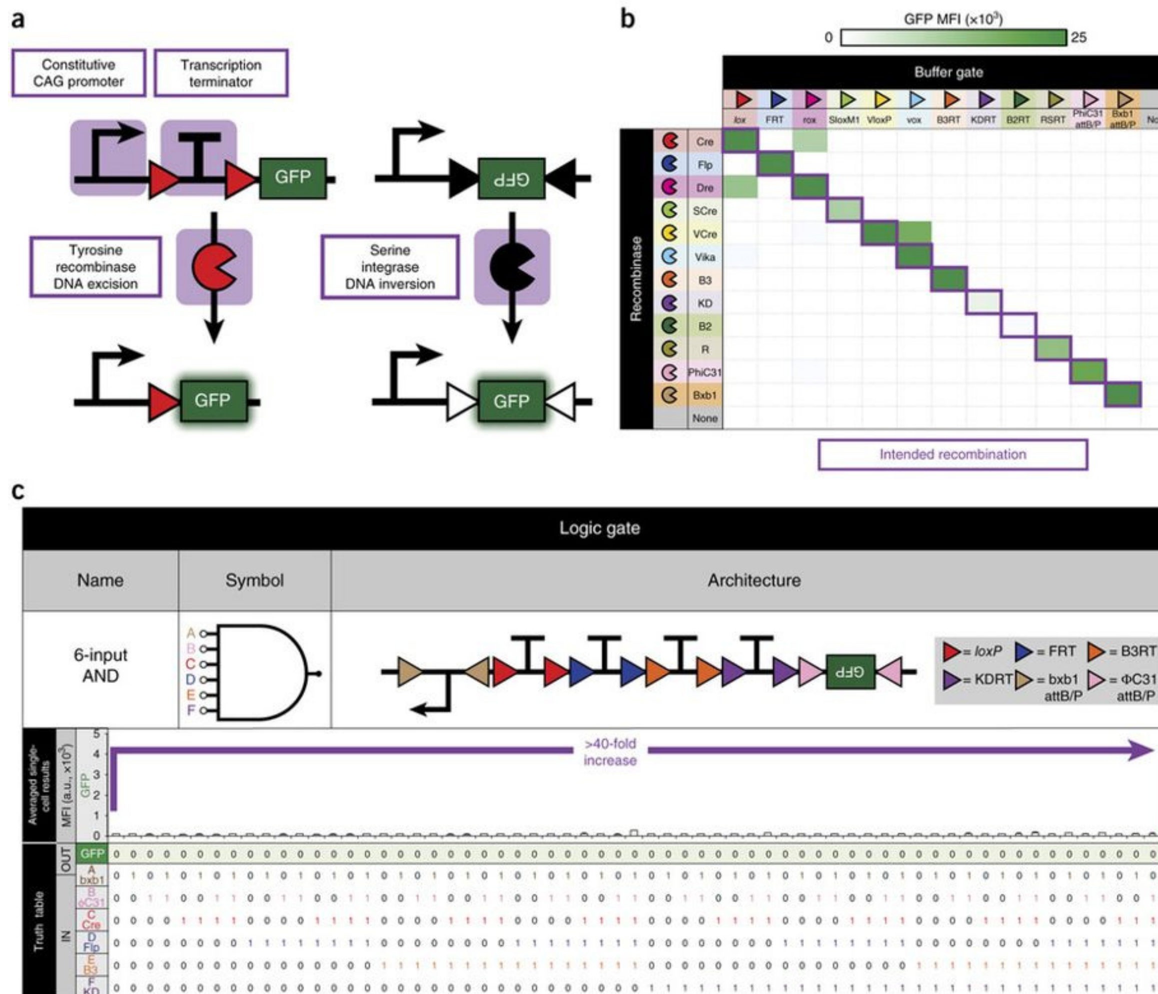
Safety kill switch

Since toxicity can be an issue, it would be good to have an off switch in the event of a problem. One form of toxicity that can happen with CAR-T is called “Cytokine Release Syndrome” or “Cytokine Storm” for especially severe cases. This can happen when the immune system has such a strong response that many inflammatory cytokines are released triggering mild to severe symptoms including fever, headache, rash, rapid heartbeat, low blood pressure, and trouble breathing.

Synthetic biologists have already worked on a number of “kill switches” in different organisms. A kill switch could be applied to CAR-T by having a drug-inducible kill-switch in the the T-cells that would give the medical team a way to kill off the modified cells as soon as a bad side effect starts to show up. Researchers and companies are also seeking multiple ways to either switch off or kill the T-cells when they’re not needed. These variations on a kill switch can help to make sure CAR-T cell therapy has extra safety measures in place.

There are many types of cancer and many ways in which a cancer can avoid successful treatment. Hopefully mammalian synthetic biology can add something to the immunotherapy toolkit by improving CAR-T or other approaches to enlist the immune against cancer.

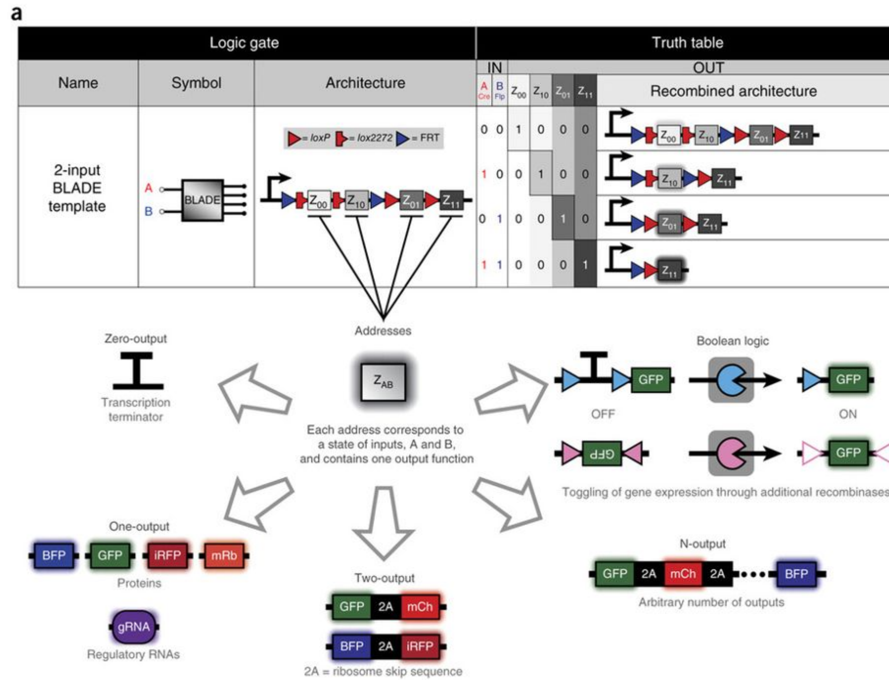
Implementation of multi-input gates in mammalian cells

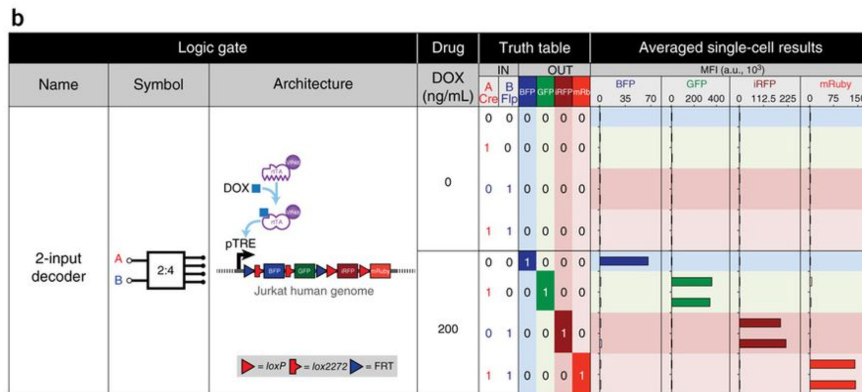


(a) Recombinases can perform simple BUF logic operations, either by tyrosine-recombinase-mediated excision (left) or serine-integrase-mediated inversion (right).
(b) Recombinases are tested for their recombination efficiency and orthogonality on all BUF logic reporters.
(c) A 6-input AND-gate that produces GFP when all inputs are present. MFI, mean fluorescence intensity from *n* = 3 transfected cell cultures; a.u., arbitrary units. Error bars, s.e.m.

Weinberg *et al.*, Nature Biotechnology 35: 453-462 (2017)

Four distinct output functions based on two inputs





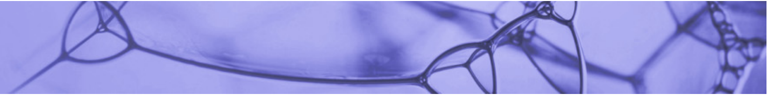
(a) 2-input BLADE template on one plasmid with a single transcriptional unit. This template contains four distinct regions of DNA (addresses) downstream of a promoter. Each address corresponds to an output function and is accessed or deleted via site-specific DNA recombination. Each address can be programmed from different configurations ranging from zero-inputs to Boolean functions. The first address (Z00), which is the closest to the promoter, corresponds to a state where no recombinase is expressed (A = 0, B = 0). If the Z00 address contains a protein coding sequence, then that gene will be expressed. Gene expression from the other addresses downstream of Z00 will be blocked by the presence of the Z00 protein coding region. In the presence of recombinase A, which corresponds to state (A = 1, B = 0), addresses Z00 and Z01 will be removed, thus moving address Z10 directly downstream of the promoter and allowing gene expression of address Z10 only to occur. Similarly, when only recombinase B is present (A = 0, B = 1), addresses Z00 and Z10 are excised, allowing Z01 to be moved directly downstream of the promoter. Finally, when both recombinases are expressed (A = 1, B = 1), addresses Z00, Z01, Z10 are all excised, thus placing Z11 downstream of the promoter unobstructed by the other addresses.

(a) Integrated 2-input BLADE decoder with tagBFP, EGFP, iRFP720, and mRuby2 as addresses Z00, Z10, Z01, and Z11 respectively. Plasmids constitutively expressing Cre and/or Flp are then stably integrated. Three days of doxycycline (DOX) treatment is used to permit the rtTA-VP48 protein to bind to the tetracycline response elements promoter (pTRE) to activate gene expression. Mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) is plotted of either n = 1 or n = 2 independent integrations. a.u., arbitrary units.

Baculovirus-mediated production of AAV vectors

Gene transfer and gene therapy are powerful approaches for many biological research applications and promising avenues for the treatment of many genetic or cancer diseases. The most efficient gene transfer tools are currently derived from viruses. Among them, the recombinant **adeno-associated viruses (AAVs)** are vectors of choice for many fundamental and therapeutic applications. The increasing number of clinical trials involving AAVs demonstrates the need to implement production and purification processes to meet the quantitative and qualitative demands of regulatory agencies for the use of these vectors in clinical trials. In this context, the rise of production levels on an industrial scale appeared essential. The introduction, in 2002, of an AAV process using a baculovirus expression vector system (BEVS) has circumvented this technological lock. The advantage of BEVS in expanding the AAV production in insect cells has been to switch the process to bioreactor systems, which are the ideal equipment for scaling up. We describe here a method for producing AAV vectors using the BEVS which can be easily used by research laboratories wishing to overcome the difficulties associated with the scaling up of production levels. The method provides sufficient quantities of AAV vectors to initiate preclinical projects in large animal models or for research projects where a single batch of vectors will consolidate the repeatability and reproducibility of in vitro and especially in vivo experimental approaches.

Methods Mol. Biol. 2019; 1937: 91-99. doi: 10.1007/978-1-4939-9065-8_5



Baculovirus-mediated multigene delivery in cells

- Multigene delivery and subsequent cellular expression is emerging as a key technology required in diverse research fields including synthetic and structural biology, cellular reprogramming and functional pharmaceutical screening.
- Current viral delivery systems such as retro- and adenoviruses suffer from limited DNA cargo capacity, thus impeding unrestricted multigene expression.
- The MultiPrime, a modular, non-cytotoxic, non-integrating, baculovirus-based vector system expediting highly efficient transient multigene expression from a variety of promoters.
- MultiPrime viruses efficiently transduce a wide range of cell types, including non-dividing primary neurons and induced-pluripotent stem cells (iPS).
- The MultiPrime can be used for reprogramming, and for genome editing and engineering by CRISPR/Cas9.
- Implementation of dual-host-specific cassettes enabling multiprotein expression in insect and mammalian cells using a single reagent.
- The MultiPrime as a powerful and highly efficient tool, to deliver multiple genes for a wide range of applications in primary and established mammalian cells.

Applications of MultiBac system

The MultiBac system is depicted schematically in the centre. It consists of an engineered baculoviral genome which exists as a BAC in specialized bacterial cells. Foreign DNA can be introduced into this BAC using a set of helper plasmids comprising the multigene circuitry of choice, by a variety of means including Tn7 mediated transposition and/or site-directed insertion by Cre recombinase. Originally, we designed the MultiBac system for expressing heterologous multiprotein complexes in insect cells. A selection of recent high-impact structures of samples produced using MultiBac is shown on the left, marked by their Protein Data Bank identifier (PDB-ID). 6GEJ, SWR1-nucleosome complex; 6F3T, human TFIID subcomplex TAF5–TAF6–TAF9; 6HLP, human neurokinin 1 receptor GPCR [36]; 6R8F, human BRISC–SHMT2 complex; 6QJ4, Ycs4–Brn1/Smc4hd–Brn1C complex; 6HCR, ADDomer virus-like particle (VLP). MultiBac is successfully used for a range of applications beyond producing protein complexes for structural and mechanistic studies. For example, customized MultiBac baculoviral genomes were prepared to express virus-like particles (VLPs), which are promising vaccine candidates as they resemble live viruses but do not contain genetic material and are thus safe. A different example is MultiBacTAG, a customized MultiBac baculovirus capable of genetic code expansion. MultiBacTag exploits an orthogonal tRNA/tRNA synthetase pair to insert artificial amino acids (ncAA) into polypeptide chains at defined sites by means of AMBER codon (UAG) suppression. By altering the tropism of the baculovirion, MultiBac can be turned into a powerful high-capacity DNA delivery device into mammalian cells, tissues and even organisms (right), to faithfully deliver multicomponent DNA circuitry transiently or stably by genomic insertion using CRISPR/Cas technology. For a more detailed conspectus of MultiBac applications see recent review articles by our group.

Baculovirus-mediated production of AAV vectors

Gene transfer and gene therapy are powerful approaches for many biological research applications and promising avenues for the treatment of many genetic or cancer diseases. The most efficient gene transfer tools are currently derived from viruses. Among them, the recombinant **adeno-associated viruses (AAVs)** are vectors of choice for many fundamental and therapeutic applications. The increasing number of clinical trials involving AAVs demonstrates the need to implement production and purification processes to meet the quantitative and qualitative demands of regulatory agencies for the use of these vectors in clinical trials. In this context, the rise of production levels on an industrial scale appeared essential. The introduction, in 2002, of an AAV process using a baculovirus expression vector system (BEVS) has circumvented this technological lock. The advantage of BEVS in expanding the AAV production in insect cells has been to switch the process to bioreactor systems, which are the ideal equipment for scaling up. We describe here a method for producing AAV vectors using the BEVS which can be easily used by research laboratories wishing to overcome the difficulties associated with the scaling up of production levels. The method provides sufficient quantities of AAV vectors to initiate preclinical projects in large animal models or for research projects where a single batch of vectors will consolidate the repeatability and reproducibility of in vitro and especially in vivo experimental approaches.

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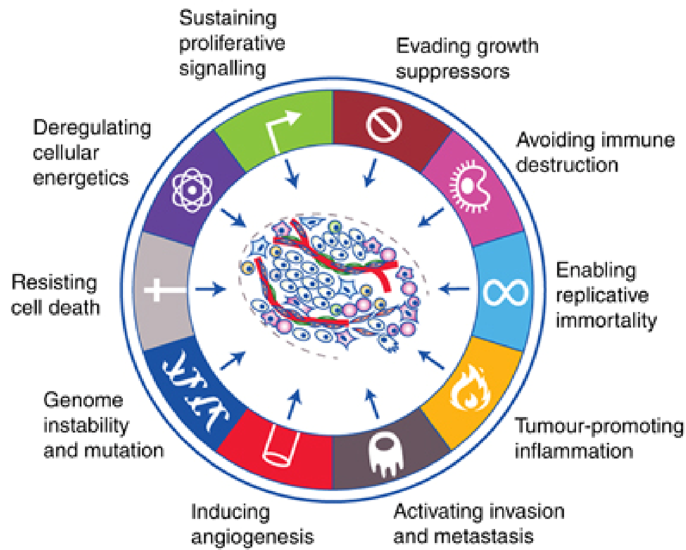
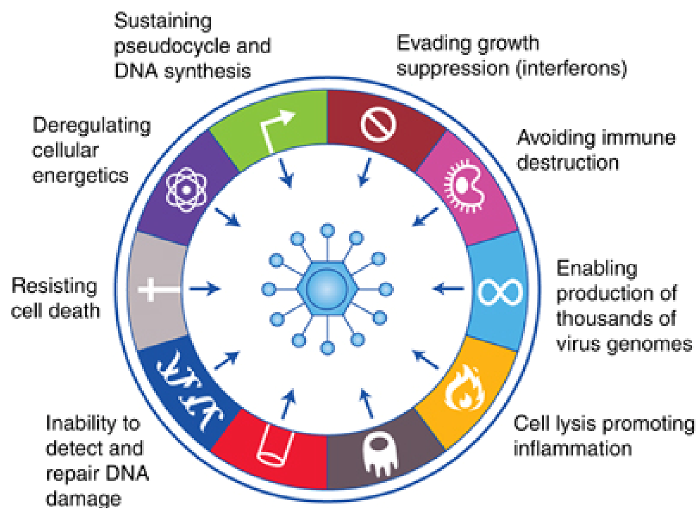
Oncolytic viruses

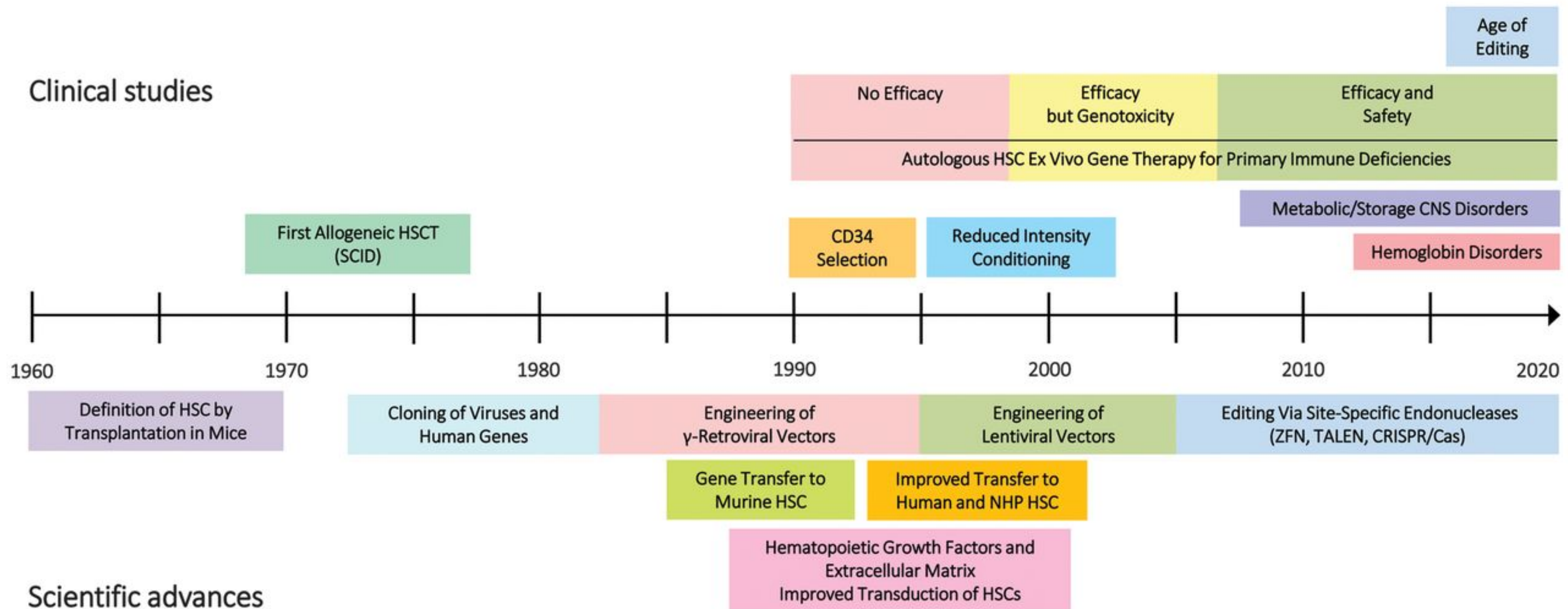




Seymour and Fisher
British Journal of Cancer (2016) 114, 357-361 doi:10.1038/bjc.2015.481

BJC British Journal of Cancer
Multidisciplinary Journal of Cancer Research

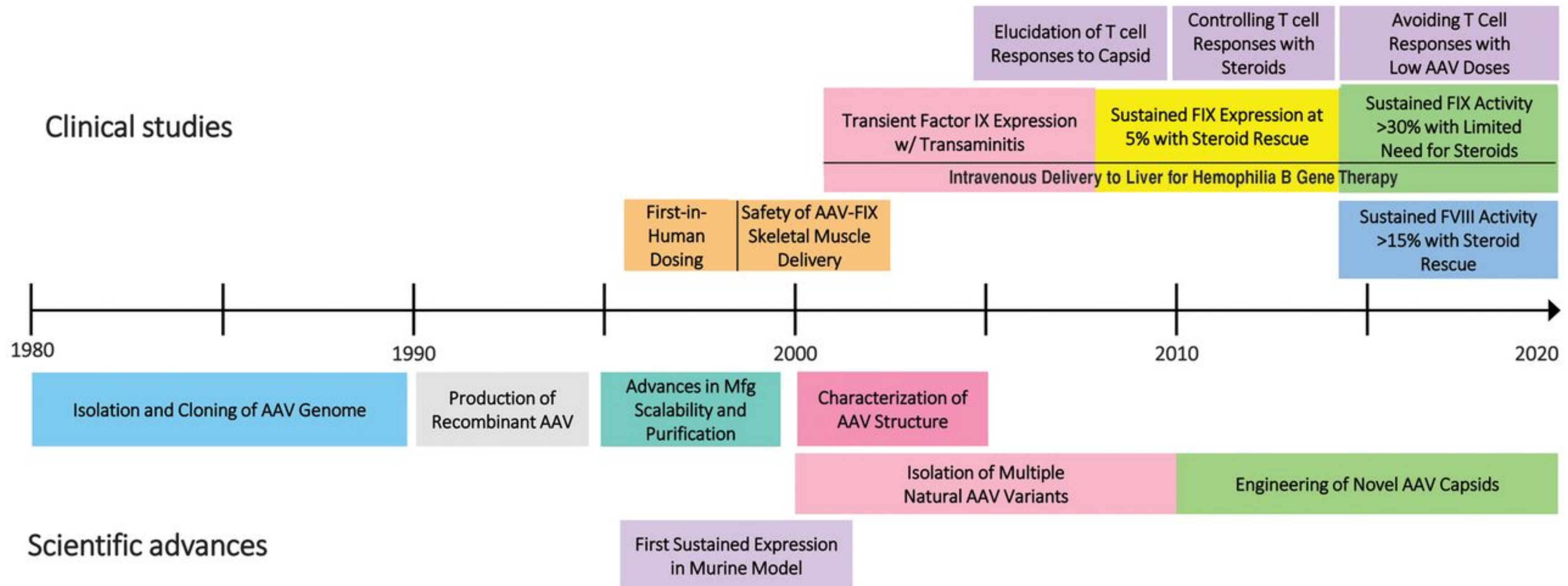
Historical overview of gene therapy



Abbreviations: HSCT: hematopoietic stem cell transplantation; HSC: Hematopoietic stem cell; SCID: severe combined immunodeficiency; NHP: nonhuman primate; ZFN: zinc finger nuclease; TALEN: transcription activator–like effector nuclease; CRISPR/Cas9: clustered regularly interspaced short palindromic repeat (CRISPR)–CRISPR-associated 9 (Cas9) nucleases.

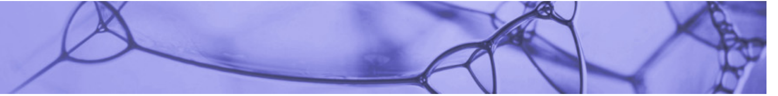
Dunbar *et al.*,Science 359: eaan4672 (2018), DOI: 10.1126/science.aan4672

Historical overview of AAV gene therapy for hemophilia



Abbreviations: AAV: adeno-associated viral vector; FVIII: factor VIII; FIX: factor IX; Mfg: Manufacturing.

Dunbar *et al.*,Science 359: eaan4672 (2018), DOI: 10.1126/science.aan4672



Oncolytic viruses

- The activity of OVs is very much a reflection of the underlying biology of the viruses from which they are derived and the host-virus interactions that have evolved in the battle between pathogenesis and immunity
- Typically, OVs fall into 2 classes:

  (i) viruses that naturally replicate preferentially in cancer cells and are non-pathogenic in humans often due to elevated sensitivity to innate antiviral signalling or dependence on oncogenic signalling pathways (parvoviruses, poxviruses, paramyxoviruses, reoviruses, picornaviruses)

  (ii) viruses that are genetically-engineered with mutations/deletions in genes required for replication in normal, but not cancer cells (adenoviruses, herpesviruses, rhabdoviruses)

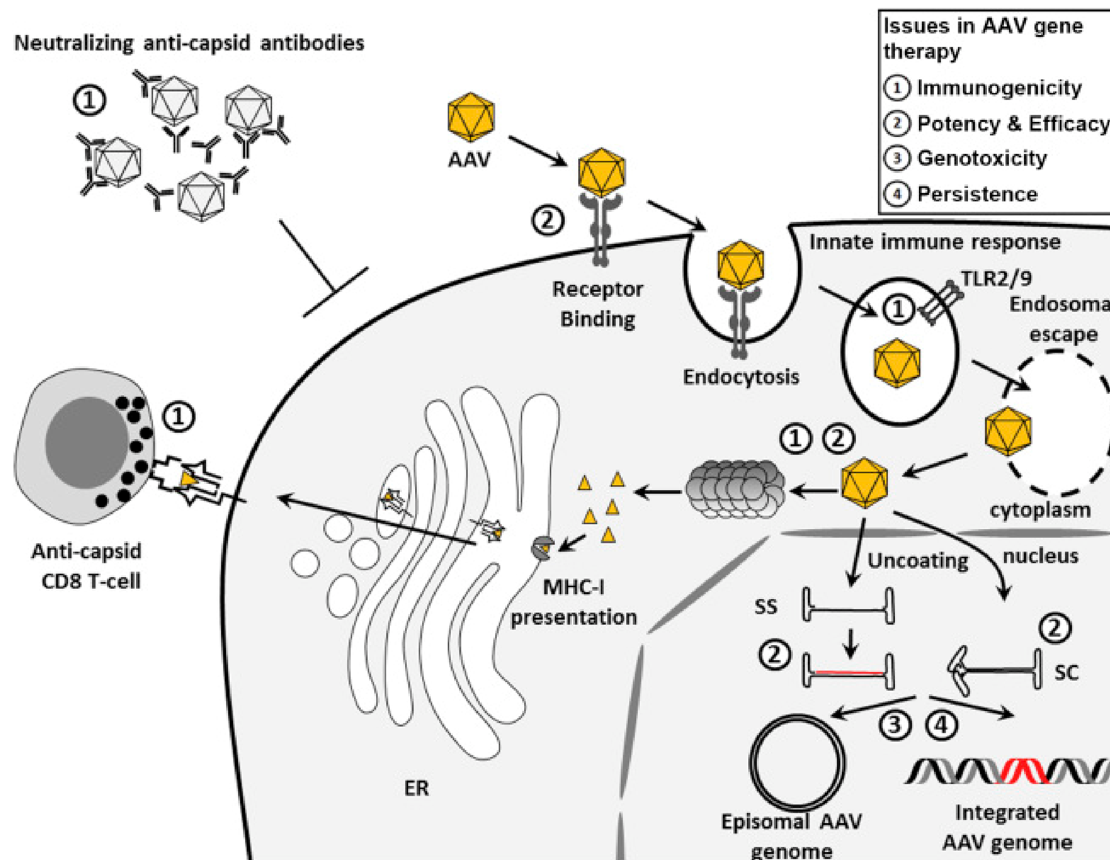
Oncolytic viruses offer several important advantages

- Amplification of the active agent (infectious virus particles) within the tumour. This avoids unnecessary exposure to normal tissues experienced during delivery of traditional stoichiometric chemotherapy and maximises the therapeutic index
- The active cell-killing mechanisms, often independent of programmed death mechanisms, should decrease the emergence of acquired drug resistance
- Lytic death of cancer cells provides a pro-inflammatory microenvironment and the potential for induction of an anticancer vaccine response
- Tumour-selective expression and secretion of encoded anticancer biologics, providing a new realm of potent and cost-effective-targeted therapeutics

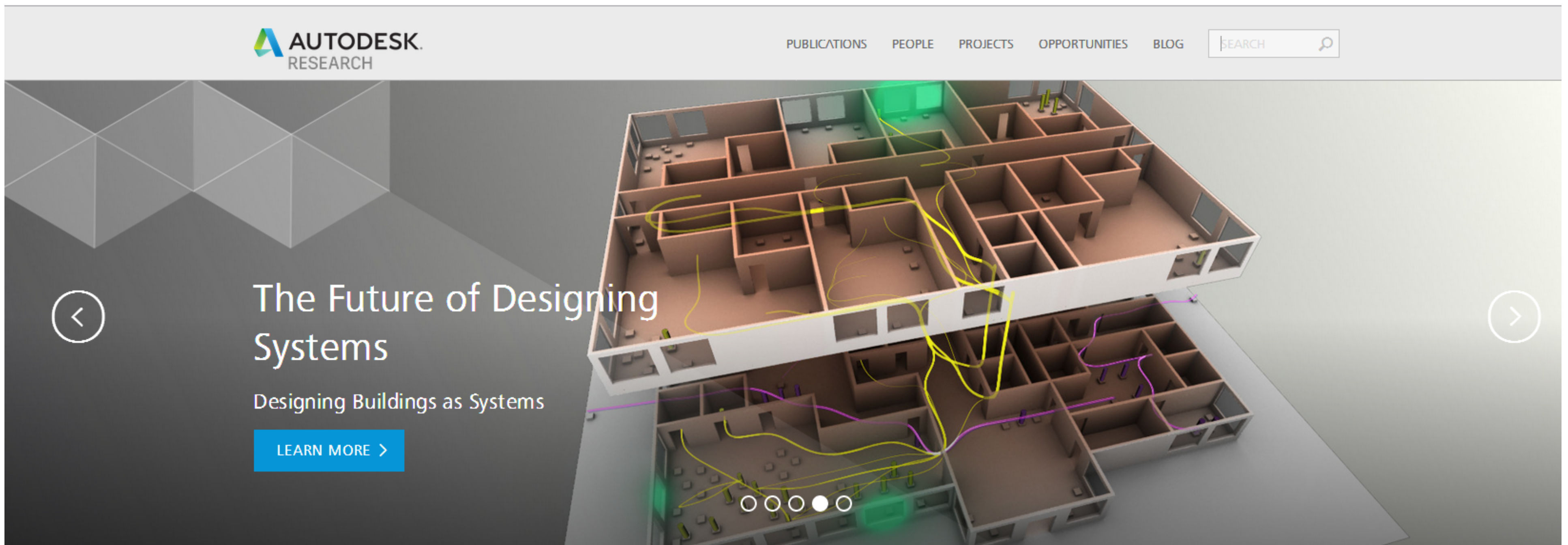
Seymour and Fisher
British Journal of Cancer (2016) 114, 357-361 doi:10.1038/bjc.2015.481

BJC
British Journal of Cancer
Multidisciplinary Journal of Cancer Research

Emerging issues in AAV-mediated *in vivo* gene therapy



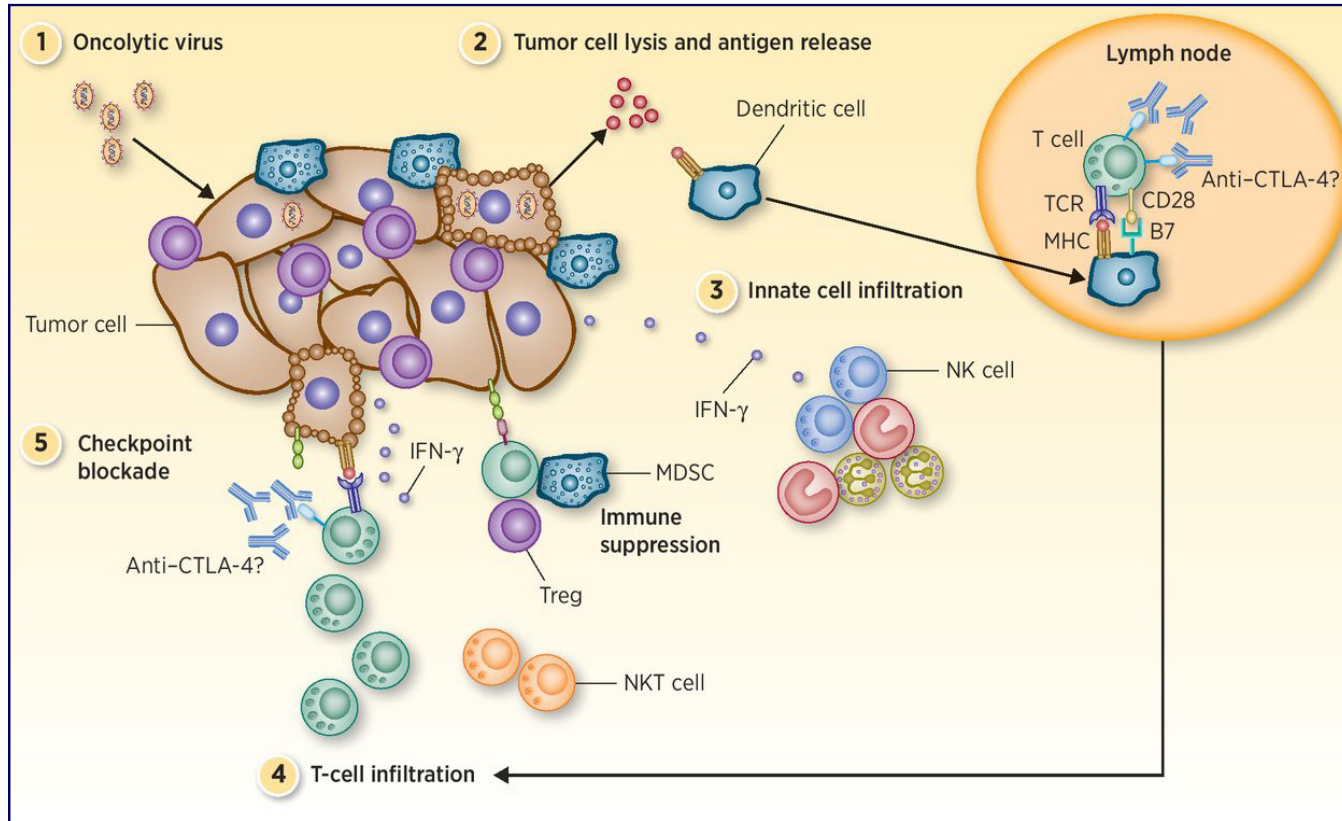
- In recent years, the number of clinical trials in which adeno-associated virus (AAV) vectors have been used for *in vivo* gene transfer has steadily increased
- The excellent safety profile, together with the high efficiency of transduction of a broad range of target tissues, has established AAV vectors as the platform of choice for *in vivo* gene therapy
- Successful application of the AAV technology has also been achieved in the clinic for a variety of conditions, including coagulation disorders, inherited blindness, and neurodegenerative diseases, among others
- Clinical translation of novel and effective “therapeutic products” is, however, a long process that involves several cycles of iterations from bench to bedside that are required to address issues encountered during drug development



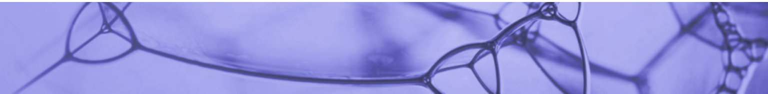
A The Bio/Nano/Programmable Matter group at Autodesk Research is working with biology at the nanoscale level, to programatically define new matter. This is called synthetic biology and they envision this science being applied to designing products, buildings and cities.

https://www.autodeskresearch.com/

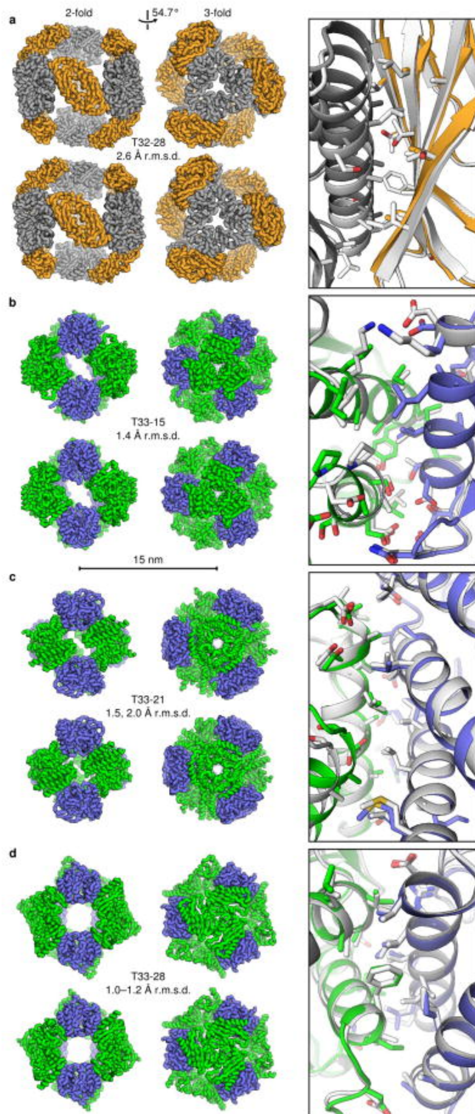
Combined oncolytic virus and checkpoint blockade therapy



1: The delivery of oncolytic virus leads to specific infection and replication within the tumor. **2:** Some of the infected tumor cells undergo cell lysis and release antigen. Antigen-presenting cells, such as dendritic cells, are activated and migrate to lymph nodes to present antigen to T cells, where the administration of anti–CTLA-4 mAb may increase the amplitude of T-cell activation. **3:** Concurrently, innate cells, including natural killer (NK) and natural killer T (NKT) cells, are recruited to the inflammatory tumor bed that may further contribute to antitumor immune responses, through secretion of cytokines such as IFNγ. **4:** The activated T cells traffic to the tumor site and react against cancer cells through recognition of MHC/peptide complexes **5:** Administration of CTLA-4 antibody may further contribute to increasing T-cell activity at the tumor site. MDSC, myeloid-derived suppressor cell; TCR, T-cell receptor.

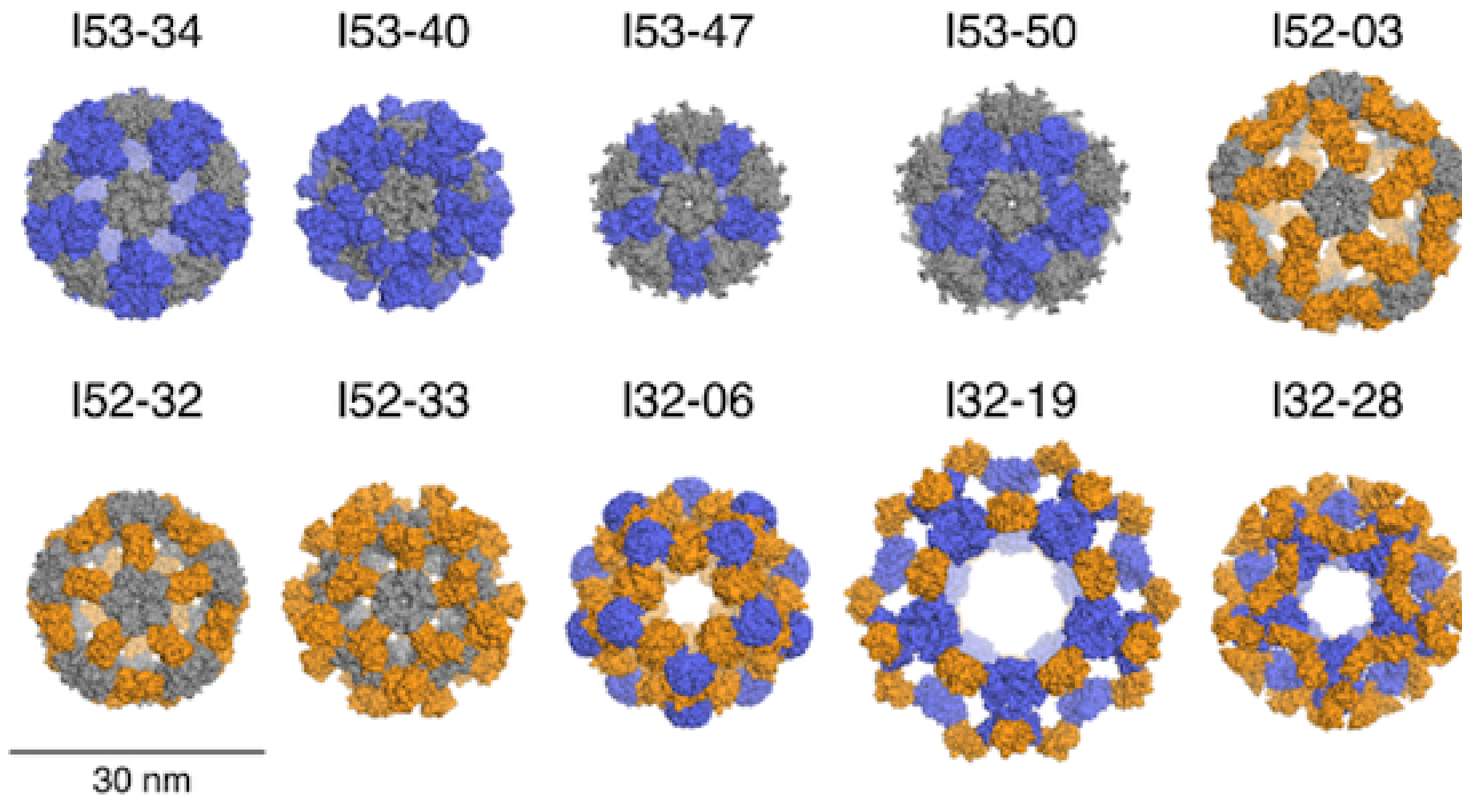


Structures of designed two-component protein nanomaterials



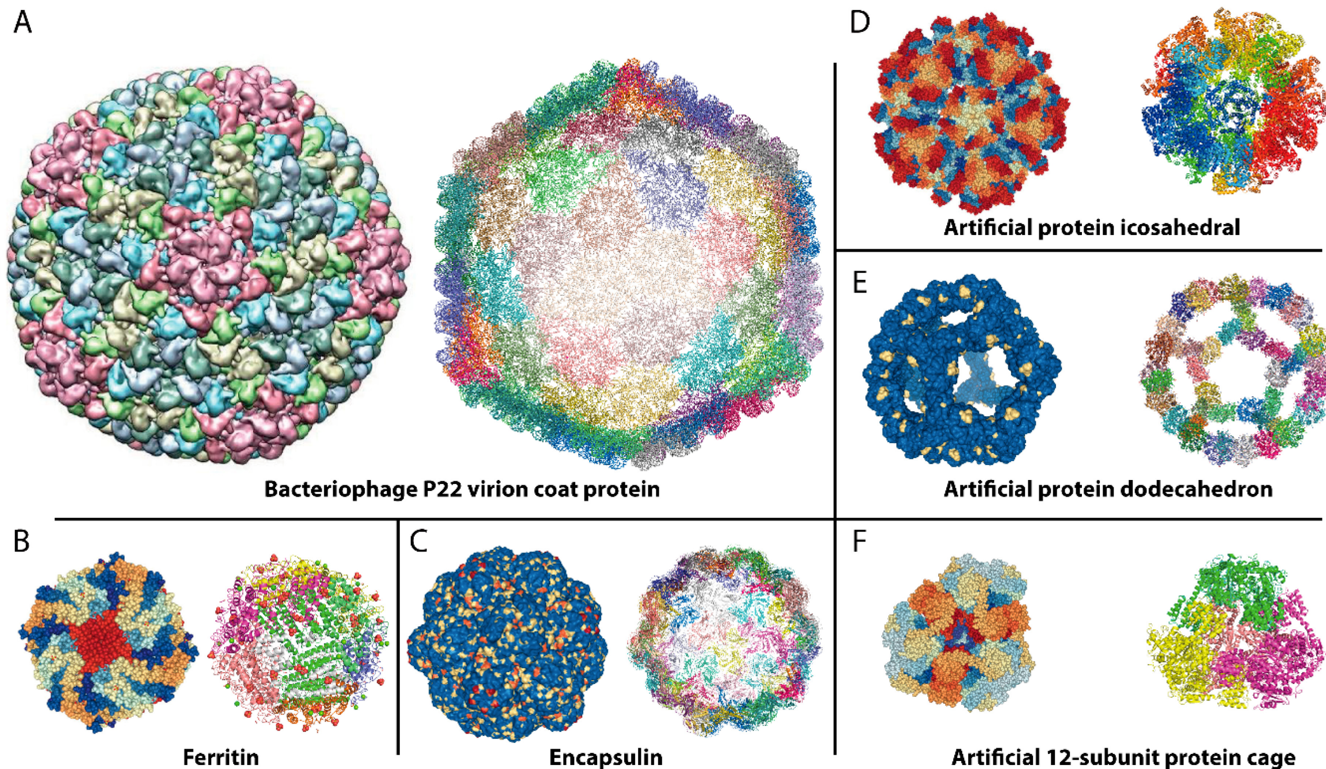
The computational design models (top) and X-ray crystal structures (bottom) are shown at left for **a,** T32-28, **b,** T33-15, **c,** T33-21, and **d,** T33-28. Views of each material are shown to scale along the 2-fold and 3-fold tetrahedral symmetry axes (scale bar: 15 nm). The r.m.s.d. values given are those between the backbone atoms in all 24 chains of the design models and crystal structures. For T33-21, r.m.s.d. values are shown for both crystal forms (images are shown for the higher resolution crystal form with backbone r.m.s.d. 2.0 Å), while the r.m.s.d. range for T33-28 derives from the four copies of the fully assembled material in the crystallographic asymmetric unit. At right, overlays of the designed interfaces in the design models (white) and crystal structures (grey, orange, green, and blue) are shown. Due to the limited resolution of the T32-28 structure, the amino acid side chains were not modeled beyond the beta carbon. For the interface overlays, the crystal structures were aligned to the design models using the backbone atoms of two subunits, one of each component.

Synthetic large protein nanocages to improve drug delivery



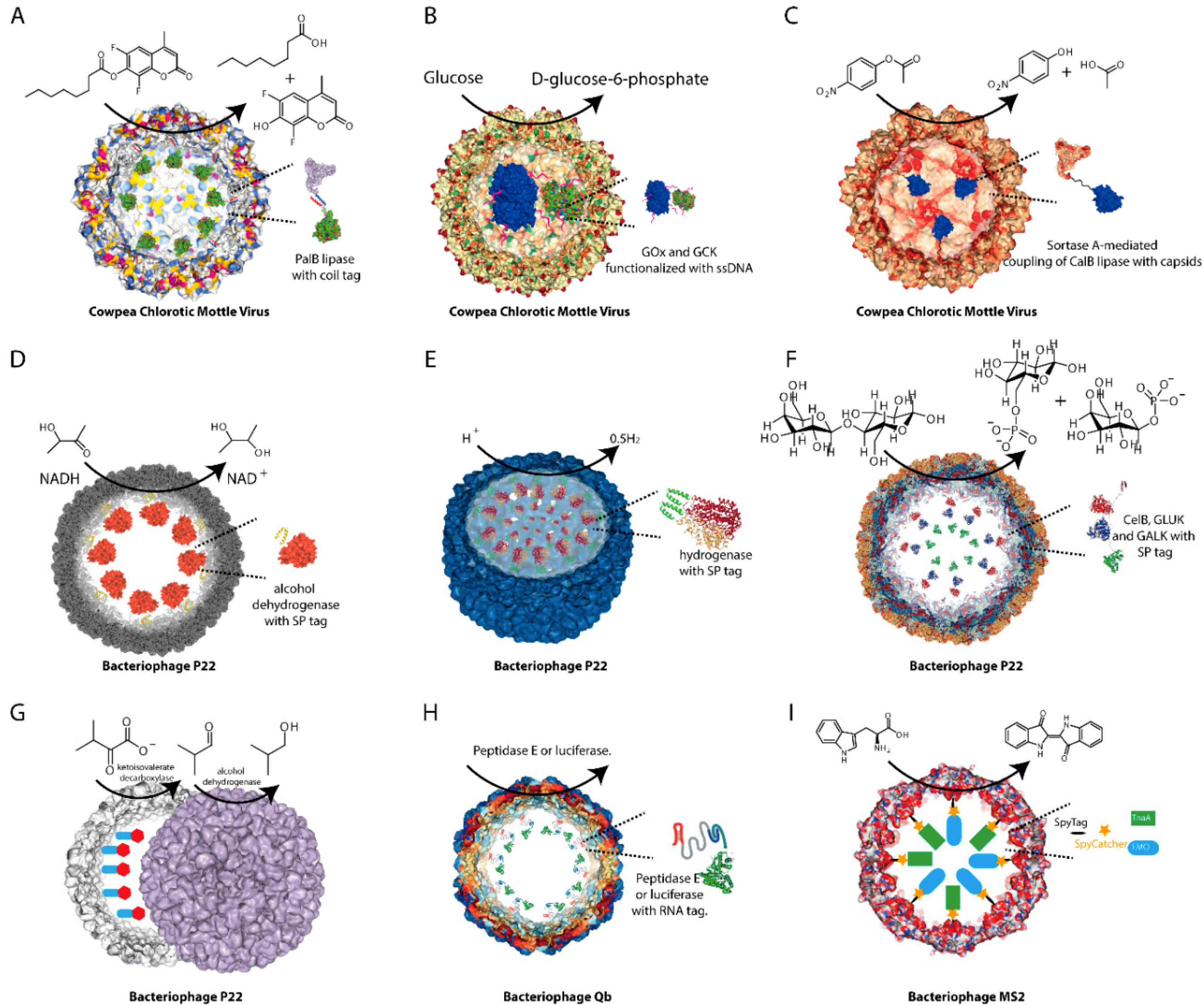
Cor
(design names are shown above each model). Each design comprises a pairwise combination of pentameric (grey), trimeric (blue), or dimeric (orange) building blocks aligned along icosahedral fivefold, threefold, and twofold symmetry axes, respectively. All models are shown to scale relative to the 30 nanometer scale bar.

Examples of natural and non-natural protein compartments



(**A**), Bacteriophage P22, (PDB: 2XYZ); (**B**), Ferritin, (PDB: 6A4U); (**C**), Encapsulins, (PDB: 4PT2); (**D**), Artificial protein icosahedral, (PDB: 5KP9); (**E**), Artificial protein dodecahedron, (PDB: 5IM5); (**F**), Artificial 12-subunit protein cage, (PDB: 3VDX).

Viral capsid-based nanocontainers as nanoreactors



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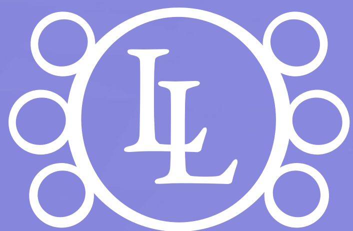

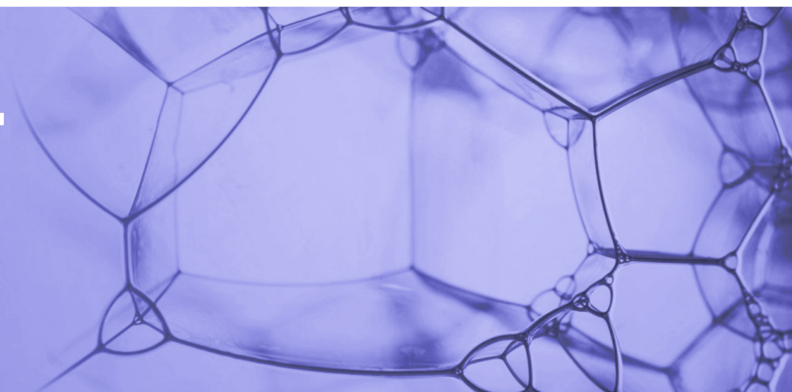

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