Cloning and Characterization of *Schistosoma mansoni*Glucose Phosphate Isomerase gene

Thesis

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By

Samah Mamdouh Mohamed
Assistant Researcher (M.Sc.)
Theodore Bilharz Research Institute

Chemistry Department, Faculty of Science
Cairo University
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APPROVAL SHEET FOR SUBMISSION

Title of the (PhD) thesis: Cloning and Characterization of *Schistosoma mansoni* Glucose Phosphate Isomerase gene.

Name of the candidate: Samah Mamdouh Mohamed.

This thesis has been approved for submission by the supervisors:

Prof. Dr. Fathy Mohamed Abd El-Gelil

Professor of Organic Chemistry

Faculty of Science

Cairo University

Signature:

Prof. Dr. Mohamed Ali Saber

Professor of Biochemistry

Theodore Bilharz Research Institute

Signature:

Prof. Dr. Mohamed Mohamed Shukry

Chairman of Chemistry Department Faculty of Science-Cairo University

ABSTRACT

Name: Samah Mamdouh Abd El – Hafiz

Title of thesis: Cloning and Characterization of *Schistosoma mansoni* glucose phosphate isomerase gene.

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This work has been carried out to investigate that: Schistosomes are blood—dwelling flukes that infect 200 million people worldwide and are responsible for hundreds of thousands of deaths annually. There is no vaccine available for this disease. This parasite is heavily dependent on energy generated from glucose metabolism. In this study, we report the isolation and characterization of the full-length coding sequence of *Schistosoma mansoni* glucose phosphate isomerase (SMGPI). The complete DNA sequencing of SMGPI cDNA consists of 2204 nucleotides encoded a 554-amino-acid protein. The deduced amino acids of SMGPI and GPI of different organisms showed a high degree of similarity (55-80%). Recombinant SMGPI protein (62 KDa) was produced in *E. coli* BL21 cells. The SMGPI could be a candidate for schistosomiasis vaccine

Key words: Schistosoma mansoni, Glucose phosphate isomerase, Complete DNA sequence, Recombinant SMGPI protein.

Supervisors: 1- Prof. Dr / Fathy Mohamed Abd El – Gilil

2- Prof . Dr / Mohamed Ali Saber

Prof . Dr. Mohamed Mohamed Shukry

Chairman of Chemistry Department Faculty of Science – Cairo University

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Samah Mamdouh Mohamed

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Ab Antibody

Ag Antigen

AGPC Acid guanidinium phenol chloroform

Amp Ampicillin

AMV Avian myeloblastosis virus reverse transcriptase

AP Alkaline phosphatase

BCIP 5-Bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl-1-phosphatase

BLAST Basic local alignment search tool

BSA Bovine serum albumin

cDNA Complementary deoxyribonucleic acid

CIAP Calf intestinal alkaline phosphatase

CMV Cytomegalovirus

DEPC Diethylpyrocarbonate

DNA Deoxyribonucleic acid

dNTP 2'-Deoxyribonucleoside 5'-tri-phosphate

E. coli Escherichia coli

EDTA Ethylene diamine tetraacetic acid

ESTs Expressed sequence tags

F6P Fructose-6-phosphate

G3PDH Glyceraldehydes-3-phosphate dehydrogenase

GPI Glucose phosphate isomeras

G6P Glucose-6-phosphate

gm Gram hr Hour

Ig Immunoglobulin

Il Interleukin

IPTG Isopropyl-β-thiogalactoside

Kb Kilobase

KDa Kilodalton

λDNA lambda DNA

LB medium Lauria-Bertani medium

LB ampicillin Lauria-Bertani medium / ampicillin

M Molar

μg Microgram

μl Microliter

mg Milligram

mg/ml Milligram/milliliter

Min Minute

mRNA Messenger RNA

NBT Nitro blue tetrazolium

NCBI National center for biotechnology information

NHMRC National health and medical research council of Australia

OD Optical density

ORF Open reading frame

PAGE Polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis

Pbs Phosphate buffered saline

PCR Polymerase chain reaction

PGI Phospho glucose isomerase

PH Hydrogen ion concentration

P mole Picomole

RACE Rapid amplification of cDNA ends

RNA Ribonucleic acid

rpm Rotations per minute

rGPI Recombinant glucose phosphate isomerase

RT-PCR Reverse transcription- polymerase chain reaction

S. hematobium Schistosoma hematobium

S. japonicum Schistosoma japonicum

S. mansoni Schistosoma mansoni

SDS Sodium dodecyle suphate

SDS-PAGE SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis

ssDNA Single stranded DNA

SGN Schistosoma genome network

SINEs Short repetitive elements

SWAP Soluble worm antigen protein

TAE Tris acetate EDTA

Taq Thermus Aquaticus

TBRI Theodore Bilharz research institute

TE Tris EDTA buffer

TEMED N,N,N',N'-tetramethylenediamine

TPI Triose phosphate isomerase

Tris [hydroxymethyl] aminoethane

UV Ultraviolet

WHO World health organization

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INTRODUCTION

Human infection with the parasitic helminthes of the family Schistosomatidae represents a significant segment of the global burden of illness. Members of this family are estimated to infect 200 – 300 million people and to be endemic in more than 70 countries (**Fulford**, **1998** and **Fenwick** *et al.*, **2006**).

Drug treatment and other existing control measures have failed to eliminate the incidence of infection, morbidity and mortality due to schistosomiasis infection (Mitchell et al., 1999); therefore development of an effective vaccine is a research priority, to complement existing control measures (Bergquist, 1995; Bergquist and Colly, 1998; Capron, 1998; Wilson and Coulson, 1998).

There is good evidence that humans can acquire immunity against Schistosome (**Butterworth** *et al.*, **1988**). Furthermore, high levels of protective immunity have been achieved by using DNA-based vaccination (**Watts and Kennedy**, **1999**; **Boyle and Robinson**, **2000**).

The use of recombinant DNA technology and computer database have led to a greater understanding of the structure of many genes of the Schistosoma genome and the mechanisms involved in the regulation of gene expression (**Reis** *et al.*, **1989** and **Mutapi** *et al.*, **2006**). This knowledge is significant in that it provides the potential to formulate a rational pharmacological attack and to develop a vaccine for the treatment and control of schistosomiasis.

AIM OF THE WORK

The control of schistosomiasis is still an urgent task that requires improved diagnosis and treatment as well as effective prevention.

In spite of the development of active drugs, prevention of reinfection has remained a problem, requiring repeated drug applications after infection. There is a clear need for an effective vaccine inducing significant level of protection against the parasite.

One of the genes coding for a key enzyme in carbohydrate metabolism has been studied in details. *Schistosoma mansoni* glucose phosphate isomerase (SmGPI) was the gene of choice, because this parasite is heavily dependent on energy generated from glucose metabolism. SmGPI characteristics may be different from human GPI and could be a target enzyme for specific drugs or may be a candidate vaccine for schistosomiasis.

In this study, we report the isolation and characterization of the full-length coding sequence of *S. mansoni* GPI that extends the EST cDNA sequence than was previously reported. The cDNA sequence encodes the complete sequence of the gene has been isolated, expressed in *E. coli* cells, characterized and proposed as a candidate vaccine for schistosomiasis.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

I- SCHISTOSOMIASIS

Schistosomiasis, also known as Bilharziasis, is a parasitic disease that leads to chronic ill health. It is the major health risk in the rural areas of central China and Egypt and continues to rank high in other developing countries (**Curtale** *et al.*, **2006**).

Schistosomiasis has been recognized since the time of the Egyptian pharaohs. The worms responsible for the disease were eventually discovered in 1851 by Theodor Bilharz, a young German pathologist, from whom the disease took its original name, Bilharziasis.

The disease is indicated either by the presence of blood in urine or in the case of intestinal schistosomiasis, by initially atypical symptoms which can lead to serious complications involving the liver and spleen (**Tsuboi** *et al.*, 2006).

A World Health Organization expert committee (WHO, Geneva, 2002), concluded that yearly deaths could be as high as 200,000, compared with 15,000 as had been reported before. An analysis of these discrepancies indicates that there is underestimation, making schistosomiasis second only to malaria among tropical diseases as a cause of morbidity.

II- SCHISTOSOMES:

Schistosomes are eukaryotic intravascular parasites that cause of schistosomiasis, a chronic and debilitating disease (Engels et al., 2002).

Even though extensive research into the control of schistosomiasis has been ongoing for the past four decades, with some success, this disease remains an endemic problem in many regions worldwide (Bergquist et al., 2002; Todd et al., 2002).

The main forms of human schistosomiasis are caused by five species of the flatworm, or blood flukes, known as schistosomes:

-Schistosoma mansoni: causes intestinal schistosomiasis and is prevalent in 52 countries and territories of Africa, Caribbean, the Eastern Mediterranean and South America (**Kabatereine** *et al.*, **2006**).

-Schistosoma japonicum / Schistosoma mekongi: cause intestinal schistosomiasis and are prevalent in 7 African countries and the Pacific region (Blas et al., 2006 and Chigusa et al., 2006).

-Schistosoma intercalatun: is found in 10 African countries.

-Schistosoma haematobium: causes urinary schistosomiasis and affects 54 countries in Africa and the Eastern Mediterranean.

People are infected by contact with water used in normal daily activities such as personal domestic hygiene and swimming, or by professional activities such as fishing, rice cultivation and irrigation (Steinmann et al., 2006).

Due to lack of information or insufficient attention to hygiene, infected individuals may contaminate their water supply with feces or urine. The eggs of the Schistosomes in the excreta of an infected person open on contact with water and release a parasite, the miracidium. To survive, this motile form must find a fresh water snail.

Once it has found its snail host, the miracidium divides, producing thousands of new parasites; cercariae. The cercariae are then excreted by the snail into the surrounding water. They can penetrate an individual's skin within a few seconds, continuing their biological cycle once they have made their way to the victim's vessels. Within 30 to 45 days, the parasite is transformed into a long worm that is either male or female. The female lays from 200 to 2000 eggs per day over an average of 5 years, according to the species.

In case of intestinal schistosomiasis, the worms reside in the blood vessels lining the intestine. In urinary schistosomiasis, they live in the blood vessels of the bladder.

Only about a half of the eggs are excreted in the feces (intestinal Schistosomiasis), or in the urine (urinary Schistosomiasis). The rest stay in the body, damaging other vital organs. It is the eggs and not the worm itself which cause damage to the intestine, the bladder and other organs.

Chronic infection with schistosomiasis has been clearly associated with the development of bladder cancer and infestation is associated with a high incidence of colorectal cancer in endemic populations (Madbouly et al., 2006).

Although infection of the hepatic and urogenital systems commonly occurs, central nervous system involvement is rare (**Kim** *et al.*, 2006). When presenting in the spinal cord, schistosomiasis can be difficult to diagnose because it can present as a mass lesion or a transverse mellitus.

Currently available methods for the diagnosis of human schistosomiasis often lack enough sensitivity and specificity. Recently, **Sandoval** *et al.*, (2006) developed more specific and sensitive diagnostic methods, based on the polymerase chain reaction (PCR) technique.

III- SCHISTOSOMIASIS CONTROL

Schistosomiasis control is far more effective when placed in the context of a general health system. The integration process is slow, but this "horizontal" approach is now becoming an integral part of health care at village level. Schistosomiasis prevention and control measures should be implemented before dam construction work begins. Control approaches for each form of schistosomiasis varies and must be adapted to the epidemiological situation, available financial resources and the particular local culture (Engels et al., 2002). This strategy has produced excellent results; in some regions it has met the planned objectives within 2 years. It is nevertheless essential to plan surveillance and maintenance over periods of 10 to 20 years (Capron et al., 2001).

Campaigns in the Egyptian mass media have proved particularly successful in increasing awareness of the need for diagnosis and treatment (El-Khoby et al., 2000). Health education on schistosomiasis has greater importance than ever before. The introduction into schools of diagnosis and treatment has made children and parents much more aware of the problem connected with disease. School teachers and local health workers are effective in explaining the role played by people in the transmission of schistosomiasis (Satayathum et al., 2006).

- SCHISTOSOMIASIS TREATMENT

Until 1970s, treatment of schistosomiasis was nearly as dangerous as the disease itself. Modern treatment is effective and without risk.

Three new drugs have revolutionized treatment:

- 1. Metrifonate -effective for the treatment of urinary Schistosomiasis.
- 2. Oxamniquine -used exclusively to treat intestinal Schistosomiasis in Africa and South America (Chan et al., 1997).
- **3.** Praziquantel- effective in the treatment of all forms of Schistosomes, with virtually no side effects (Cioli, 2000 and Chigusa *et al.*, 2006).

To be effective, Schistosomiasis control strategies should be adapted to the local epidemiological situation. Caution must be taken when destroying freshwater snails using chemicals, particularly in terms of impact on the environment.

III.2- SCHISTOSOMIASIS VACCINE:

Control programs based on chemotherapy are complicated by the rapidity and frequency of reinfection and the difficulties and expense involved in maintaining these programs over a long term (Butterworth, 1992). The possibility that the parasite may develop drug resistance is a concern that also needs to be addressed (Bennett et al., 1997; Glading et al., 2002).

In regions of Egypt and Kenya where there has been heavy exposure to Praziquantel, there are reports of *S. mansoni* and *S. haematobium* infections that are not responsive to multiple courses of treatment. There is some laboratory evidence suggesting that these drug-