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Cloning, sequencing and expression of the S protein gene from two geographically distinct strains of canine coronavirus

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Abstract

The gene encoding the spike (S) protein from two geographically distinct strains (American and British) of canine coronavirus (CCV) was cloned and sequenced. The nucleotide sequence revealed open reading frames of 1443 or 1453 amino acids, respectively. Structural features include an N-terminal hydrophobic signal sequence, a hydrophilic cysteine-rich cluster near the C-terminus, two heptad repeats and 29 or 33 potential N-glycosylation sites. Pairwise comparisons of S amino acid sequences from these isolates with other CCV strains (Insavc1 and K378) revealed that heterogeneity, found mostly in the form of conservative substitutions, is distributed throughout the canine sequences. However, 5 variable regions could be identified. Similar analysis with feline, porcine, murine, chicken and human coronavirus sequences revealed that the canine sequences are much more closely related to the feline S protein sequence than to the porcine S protein sequences even though they are all from the same antigenic group. Moreover, the sequence similarity between CCV isolates and the feline coronavirus, feline infectious peritonitis virus (FIPV) was comparable. Expression of the CCV or the transmissible gastroenteritis virus (TGEV) S gene using the vaccinia virus system produced a protein of the expected size which could induce extensive syncytia formation in infected canine A72 cells.

Keywords: Coronavirus; S protein; Syncytium

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The nucleotide sequence data reported in this paper have been submitted to GenBank and EMBL.

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Canine coronavirus (CCV) belongs to one of the major antigenic groups of coronaviruses (Siddell et al., 1983; Spaan et al., 1988) and is serologically and genetically related to feline infectious peritonitis virus (FIPV), feline enteric coronavirus (FeCV), transmissible gastroenteritis virus (TGEV) and porcine respiratory coronavirus (PRCV) (Sanchez et al., 1990, Horsburgh et al., 1992; Wesseling et al., 1994). This close genetic relationship indicates that these viruses may have a common ancestor (Horzinek et al., 1982).

The CCV virion is known to contain at least 4 protein species: the 50K nucleocapsid protein, N, the 32K integral membrane protein, M, the 9K small membrane protein, SM, and the spike glycoprotein, S (Garwes and Reynolds, 1981; Godet et al., 1992; Horsburgh et al., 1992). The 160K S protein, which forms the projecting spike on the surface of the virion (Tyrrell et al., 1968; Spaan et al., 1988), is synthesized on ribosomes bound to the rough endoplasmic reticulum (RER) where it is co-translationally glycosylated (Holmes et al., 1981; Niemann et al., 1982; Sturman and Holmes, 1985). After glycosylation, the majority of the S proteins are oligomerized into trimeric structures (Cavanagh 1983a,b; Delmas and Laude, 1990) and transported to the Golgi where a large number become incorporated into virions. The S glycoprotein mediates binding of virions to the host cell receptor (Williams et al., 1991), is the major target for neutralizing antibodies (Spaan et al., 1988), is recognized by T-cell lymphocytes (Korner et al., 1991) and induces polykaryocyte formation by cell fusion in cultured cells (Collins et al., 1982; Sturman and Holmes, 1985).

Clearly, to understand the biological and pathogenic properties of CCV at the molecular level, the primary structure of CCV S genes and data on their processing are essential. Indeed, the S protein gene has been cloned for two strains of CCV (Horsburgh et al., 1992; Wesseling et al., 1994). However, coronavirus genomes are dynamic, subject to recombination, insertion and deletion and it appears that deletions do occur at a higher frequency within S; the polymorphism of S found in MHV strains accounting for differences in their biological activities is well documented (Spaan et al., 1988; Parker et al., 1989; Gallagher et al., 1990). We expected that cloning and sequencing of two geographically distinct isolates of CCV, CCV-6 (American) and CCV-C54 (British), would help to build a consensus picture of this virus within a region where deletions do occur at a higher frequency with respect to background mutation.

Oligo(dT) selected CCV genomic RNA from either CCV-6 or CCV-C54 was used to generate cDNA libraries (Horsburgh et al., 1992) using oligonucleotides 10 and 1690 as primers (Fig. 1). It was hoped that using two cDNA libraries would increase the likelihood of finding clones that covered the S gene. Inserts from recombinant clones of 1 kb or greater were retained for further analyses. Sequencing the ends of these clones permitted initial alignment of the CCV-6 and CCV-54 clones with respect to the CCV-Insavcl genome (Horsburgh et al., 1992). This approach proved fruitful in that 5 clones were identified which spanned the S coding gene of both CCV-6 and CCV-C54 (see Fig. 1). The relationships between putative overlapping clones were confirmed by Southern hybridization. The nucleotide sequence of the overlapping cDNA clones was determined using the
Fig. 1. Alignment of CCV-6 and CCV-C54 cDNA clones with respect to the CCV-Insavc1 genome (Horsburgh et al., 1992) using partial sequence information. Overlaps were confirmed by Southern blotting. Libraries of cDNA clones were generated from poly(A)-containing infected cell RNA using primers 10 and 1690 (GACCTGTAATGACTCAT and TAGGTAGTAAACAACA, respectively) and cloned into pUC118 as described by Horsburgh et al. (1992). Restriction enzymes sites used for cloning are indicated. B, BamHI; A, AfIIIII; H, HindIII (see text). The BamHI site was introduced by site-directed mutagenesis using primer 17 (TAATCACTGGATCTTAATGTGCC) as described by Brierley et al. (1987).

Sanger dideoxy chain termination method and analysed using the SAP programs of Staden (1986). The deduced S gene amino acid sequence from CCV-6 and CCV-C54 and the results of comparisons with other S gene protein sequences is presented in Fig. 2 and summarized in Table 1.

Thirty-two nucleotides (nts) upstream of the ATG start codon of either CCV-6 or CCV-C54 is the sequence CTAAAC. This motif, which is believed to be the signal for transcription of subgenomic messenger RNA species (Spaan et al., 1988) is found upstream of nearly every coronavirus S gene sequenced so far (DeGroot et al., 1987; Luytjes et al., 1987; Schmidt et al., 1987; Britton and Page, 1990; Parker et al., 1990; Rasschaert et al., 1990; Britton et al., 1991; Horsburgh et al., 1992; Mounir and Talbot, 1993; Wesseling et al., 1994). The exceptions are IBV-Beaudette, HCV-229E and PEDV which are CTGAAC, CTCAAC and GTAAAC, respectively (Binns et al., 1985; Raabe et al., 1990; Duartre and Laude, 1994). It would appear that the consensus sequence XTXAAC, is conserved throughout this family of viruses; however, it is likely that this motif alone is only a component of a larger transcription initiation signal as the surrounding sequences are quite different in these viruses. This may in part explain the different ratios of subgenomic mRNAs found in infected cells.

Analysis of the CCV S gene sequences revealed features common to all coronavirus S proteins; namely, signal sequence, transmembrane anchor, hydrophobic profile, the presence of 2 heptad repeats, the C-terminal cysteine rich cluster, the KWPWY(W)VWL motif and a large number of potential N-glycosylation sites (Fig. 2 and Table 1). The homology that these canine proteins share is
Fig. 2.
Fig. 2. Alignment of the spike protein amino acid sequences of CCV-6, CCV-C54, CCV-Insavel (Horsburgh et al., 1992) CCV-K378 (Wesseling et al., 1994), FIPV (DeGroot et al., 1987), TGEV (Rasschaert and Laude, 1987) and PRCV (Britton et al., 1991) using the CLUSTAL program of Higgins and Sharp (1989). Spaces indicate positions for which the amino acid is identical to that of CCV-6 and minuses represent putative deletions. The presumed signal sequence (Heijne, 1986) is underlined and the conserved motif, KWPWY(W)VWL, is shown in bold. Asterisks indicate regions where the canine sequences vary by more than 3 residues.
Table 1
Summary of results

| Coronavirus  | Transcription signal motif | Cleavage sequence | No. of N-glycosylation sites | Apoprotein (kDa) | Length (amino acids) | Similarity (%) |
|--------------|-----------------------------|------------------|------------------------------|-----------------|----------------------|----------------|
| CCV-Insavcl  | CTAAAC                      | n.a.             | 30                           | 160             | 1452                 | 100            |
| CCV-6        | CTAAAC                      | n.a.             | 29                           | 158             | 1443                 | 92.7           |
| CCV-C54      | CTAAAC                      | n.a.             | 33                           | 160             | 1453                 | 94.7           |
| CCV-K378     | CTAAAC                      | n.a.             | 31                           | 160             | 1453                 | 93.3           |
| FIPV 79-1146 | CTAAAC                      | n.a.             | 35                           | 160             | 1452                 | 91.1           |
| TGEV FS772   | CTAAAC                      | n.a.             | 32                           | 158             | 1447                 | 78.5           |
| PRCV 86      | CTAAAC                      | n.a.             | 29                           | 135             | 1225                 | 74.5           |
| HCV-229E     | CTCAAC                      | n.a.             | 30                           | 129             | 1173                 | 39.3           |
| BCV-Que      | CTAAAC                      | RRSRR            | 20                           | 150             | 1363                 | 23.9           |
| MHV-A59      | CTAAAC                      | RRARR            | 20                           | 146             | 1324                 | 23.3           |
| MHV-JHM      | CTAAAC                      | RRARR            | 21                           | 136             | 1360                 | 22.1           |
| IBV-Bea      | CTGAAAC                     | RRRRR            | 28                           | 127             | 1162                 | 22.1           |

* The strains are as described in the text.
* The potential number of sites.
* Similarity relative to CCV-Insavcl.
* n.a., not applicable.

approximately 93% (Table 1) although the British isolates are more related to each other (Insavcl and C54) than to the American isolates (6 and K378). The majority of these sequence changes are conservative, however there are 5 regions of variability (changes of 4 or more residues (shown in bold in Fig. 2). Interestingly, there is some heterogeneity in the length of the canine S protein genes (CCV-6 = 1443 residues, whereas CCV-C54 = 1453 residues; Table 1). This is not unusual as the plasticity of the coronavirus genome, especially within and around the S gene, is well documented (Keck et al., 1988; Kusters et al., 1989; Parker et al., 1990; Horsburgh et al., 1992). Indeed, the S protein genes from different isolates of TGEV and especially MHV may differ in length by as much as 159 amino acids (Rasschaert and Laude, 1987; Britton and Page, 1990; Parker et al., 1990).

Computer-aided analysis of the canine sequences with those of FIPV (DeGroot et al., 1987), TGEV (Britton and Page, 1990), PRCV (Britton et al., 1991), HCV-229E (Raabe et al., 1990), HCV-OC43 (Mounir and Talbot, 1993), BCV (Parker et al., 1990), PEDV (Duatre and Laude, 1994), MHV-A59 (Luytjes et al., 1987), MHV-JHM (Schmidt et al., 1987) and IBV-Beaudette (Binns et al., 1985) revealed that the canine sequences are much more closely related to FIPV than to the TGEV and PRCV sequences even though they are all from the same antigenic group (Table 1). This observation is highlighted by the finding that CCV and FIPV have near identical subgenomic mRNA patterns in infected cells and that both CCV and FIPV possess an extra ORF, 7b/6b, which is not present in TGEV or PRCV (DeGroot et al., 1988; Horsburgh et al., 1992). Furthermore, it is interesting to note that CCV-Insavcl is almost as related to CCV-6 (92.7% identity) as it is to FIPV-791146 (91.1% identity), suggesting a very close evolutionary relationship between the canine and feline coronaviruses.
In an attempt to characterize their biological properties, the canine S glycoproteins were expressed using recombinant vaccinia viruses. Briefly, the full length coding region of the S gene of CCV-6 was reconstructed from two overlapping cDNA clones, BH1 and BH2 (Fig. 1). The 3.0-kb insert from pBH1 contains sequences from S and the polymerase sequence, 1b. In order to express S, the polymerase coding sequence had to be removed. A BamHI site was introduced immediately 5' of the initiating methionine by site-directed mutagenesis, described by Brierley et al. (1987). Mutants were screened by restriction enzyme digestion. Positive clones were sequenced across this site. A mutant which had the introduced BamHI site was selected and designated pBH1-bam. This plasmid overlapped pBH2 by approximately 300 bp. A unique AflII site was located in this region of overlap. The proximal S coding sequence was isolated from pBH1-bam as a 1.5-kb AflII–SphI fragment and ligated into AflII–SphI digested pBH2 generating pCCV6. The full length S coding sequence was isolated as a 4.4-kb BamHI fragment then ligated into the BamHI site of the transfer vector pRK19 to form pRKCCV6. pRK19, a gift from Dr. G.L. Smith, contains vaccinia virus TK flanking sequences and the 4b late promoter. (A late promoter was utilized as the cis signals for termination of early transcription in vaccinia, (T)₃NT are found several times within the S gene coding sequences). The C54 S gene coding sequence was assembled from the 3 overlapping clones pBH3, pBH4 and pBH11 (Fig. 1). A unique BamHI site was created 10 bp upstream of the peplomer ATG start codon by site-directed mutagenesis (in the proximal clone), pBH3, generating pBH3-bam. A 2.0-kb AflII–EcoRI fragment was isolated from this plasmid and ligated to AflII–EcoRI digested pBH4 forming pBHS'MS. This plasmid was cleaved with HindIII, phosphatased and gel eluted. The 3' coding sequence was excised as a 1.1-kb HindIII fragment from pBH11, then ligated to the HindIII digested pBHS'MS generating pBHC54. Plasmid TGEVS, which contains the TGEV strain FS772/70 S gene coding sequence was a gift from Dr. Paul Britton, AFRC Compton. The gene was excised as a 4.5-kb BamHI fragment and subcloned into the BamHI digested transfer vector pRK19 to form pRK19TG. Correct orientation of the coronavirus S genes was confirmed by restriction enzyme digestion. Recombinant vaccinia viruses were constructed by established procedures (Mackett and Smith, 1986). Vaccinia virus infected HeLa cells were transfected with either pRKCCV6, pBHC54 or pRK19TG and recombinant viruses selected for as described (Mackett and Smith, 1986). Stocks were prepared after 3 rounds of plaque purification. The recombinant viruses were called VAc4b-C6, VAc4b-C54 and VAc4b-TG respectively. The control recombinant vaccinia virus, VAc4b-gB, expressing the CMV glycoprotein gB under the control of the 4b promoter, was a gift from Dr. Helena Browne, University of Cambridge.

In vitro characterization revealed that VAc4b-C6, VAc4b-C54 and VAc4b-TG all expressed a polypeptide which co-migrated with the CCV (Insavc1) S protein on SDS–PAGE gels (data not shown). As expected, sera from either FIPV infected cats or CCV infected dogs could immunoprecipitate the recombinant CCV and TGEV S proteins (Enjuanes et al., 1990; Sanchez et al., 1990).

As one of the prominent biological features of coronavirus S proteins in
Fig. 3. Biological activity of the recombinant S proteins. A72 cells, used for propagation of CCV, were infected (m.o.i. of 0.01) with the recombinant vaccinia viruses Vac4b-C6 (A), Vac4b-C54 (B), Vac4b-gB (C), or mock infected (D). Infected cells were stained with 0.1% crystal violet in 20% ethanol and photographed under light microscopy. Arrows indicate multinucleated cells.
cultured cells is the induction of polykaryocyte formation, canine A72 cells were infected with the recombinant vaccinia viruses or CCV, both at an m.o.i. of 0.05 or mock infected. The infection was allowed to proceed for 24 h and the cells were then fixed with 20% ethanol and stained with 0.1% crystal violet. Syncytia were evident in Vac4b-C6, Vac4b-C54 (Fig. 3), Vac4b-TG and CCV infected cells (data not shown). Multinucleated cells were not observed in Vac4b-gB and mock infected cells (Fig. 3). Syncytia were not evident upon repetition of these experiments in other cell types, e.g. BHK, RK, HeLa and TK~143 cells. These data show that the recombinant CCV-6, CCV-C54 and TGEV S proteins are expressed on the cell surface and that they retain their biological activity.

The S genes of FIPV, MHV, IBV and TGEV have been expressed using the vaccinia virus system (Tomley et al. 1987; Pulford et al., 1990; Vennema et al., 1990). Induction of cell–cell fusion by these recombinant viruses was observed but was type-specific. In other words, the recombinant FIPV S protein could only induce fusion in cells of feline origin; likewise, polykaryocytosis due to the recombinant MHV S protein was restricted to murine cells (Daya et al., 1989; Vennema et al., 1990). Similarly, the recombinant CCV-6 and CCV-C54 S proteins could induce cell fusion in canine A72 cells. The observation that the recombinant porcine S glycoprotein expressed from Vac4b-TG could induce polykaryocytosis in canine A72 cells is not surprising as TGEV, as well as FIPV and CCV can replicate in this cell type (S. Chalmers; personal communication). Therefore, it is likely that S will induce syncytia only in cells that support replication of the parental coronavirus. Fusion may conceivably be mediated by the interaction of S with its respective coronavirus cell receptor as cell lines expressing the envelope glycoprotein of HIV will only induce syncytia in cells bearing the CD4 receptor (Sodroski et al., 1986). As expected, the CCV S protein, like its counterparts from FIPV, FeCV, TGEV and PRCV, is probably not cleaved as it lacks the basic amino acid motif, RRXRR, at which MHV and IBV are proteolytically cleaved. Furthermore, cleavage products have not been detected by immunoprecipitation studies from this work and those reported by Wesseling et al. (1994).

In conclusion, this work has gone some way towards the elucidation of aspects relative to phylogenetic relationships within the coronavirus genus and the reagents produced will serve as useful tools in understanding its molecular pathogenesis.

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