Microbial Toxins

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VOLUME I

BACTERIAL PROTEIN TOXINS

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Preface

The first major attempt to compile and critically evaluate most of the knowledge that had been accumulated concerning all or a large portion of the toxins elaborated by microorganisms within a single volume was made by Professor W. E. van Heyningen in 1951 and resulted in the publication of "Bacterial Toxins." During the past two decades, however, research on microbial toxins has expanded at a rapid rate, and much new and exciting information has been obtained. Not only has the number of known isolatable toxins increased but we now have more profound insights into the structure, mode of action, and role played in disease by a number of toxin molecules that have been discussed in the literature since the early part of this century. This, of course, is not to imply that the bulk of the problems has been solved. On the contrary, much remains to be learned about the major aspects of microbial toxin research. Nevertheless, the stage is now set to reexamine our previous concepts about these microbial toxic products in the light of our current findings and to clear pathways for the future. Consequently, the purpose of this multivolume treatise is to fill the need for a comprehensive treatment of microbial toxins with an emphasis on contemporary work. Although stress must be placed on recent achievements, primary consideration will be given to covering all aspects so that new material can be synthesized from and integrated with previous investigations. Stimulating critical evaluations of current views and suggestions for productive lines of research have been encouraged. These volumes are intended for professional scientists, including graduate students, in microbiology, biochemistry, immunology, and related fields.

The toxins to be included in this treatise can be placed into four primary categories: (1) bacterial protein toxins, (2) bacterial lipopolysaccharide endotoxins, (3) algal toxins, and (4) fungal toxins. The aim has been to discuss each, wherever feasible, in terms of a number of general topics applicable to the group as a whole as well as by giving a detailed account of each individual toxin. The present plan calls for six volumes. The first one covers some of the general problems and approaches in the area of bacterial protein toxins, whereas Volumes II and III are concerned with considerations of specific toxins. Since it is commonly accepted that all of the lipopolysaccharide endotoxins produced by gramnegative bacteria are quite similar in structure, function, and mode of biosynthesis, no attempt will be made to cover each toxin separately.

viii PREFACE

Consequently, Volume IV will refer primarily to the biochemistry of endotoxins as a whole as related to their structure and biosynthesis and Volume V will deal with their physiology, pharmacology, and immunology. The algal and fungal toxins will be covered in Volume VI.

The editors are convinced that these volumes should be as inclusive as possible but they are aware that in this respect they have not been completely successful. This is due in part at least to the above outlined, perhaps arbitrary, classification of the toxins. Some bacterial toxins, for example, which are not proteins or lipopolysaccharides have not been included (e.g., Pseudomonas tabaci, Rhizobium japonicum, and the nucleotide exotoxin of Bacillus thuringiensis). For any omissions, typographical errors, inconsistencies in the references, etc., the editors take full responsibility.

This undertaking has been made much easier by the excellent cooperation of all of the contributors and by the advice and practical assistance rendered by the staff of Academic Press. Particular thanks and gratitude go to Miss Loretta Battista who has been the focal point of all of the complexities involved with the administration of this effort and without whose help this treatise could not have been readily achieved. We hope that this work will aid in stimulating and accelerating future research in the overall area of microbial toxins.

November, 1969

SAMUEL J. AJL SOLOMON KADIS THOMAS C. MONTIE

Contents of Future Volumes

Volume II: Bacterial Protein Toxins Edited by S. Kadis, T. C. Montie, and S. J. Ajl

Diphtheria Toxin Masahiko Yoneda

Botulinum Toxin
Daniel A. Boroff and Bibhuti R. Das Gupta

Tetanus Toxin
W. E. van Heyningen and Jane Mellanby

Perfringens Toxins—Type A M. V. Ispolatovskaya

Perfringens Toxins – Types B, C, D, and E Andreas H. W. Hauschild

Cholera Toxins
John P. Craig

The Exotoxin of Shigella dysenteriae W. E. van Heyningen

Protein Toxins from Bordetella pertussis
John J. Munoz

Salmonella typhimurium and Escherichia coli Neurotoxins Lydia Mesrobeanu

Toxins of *Proteus mirabilus*Krystyna Izdebska-Szymona

Listeria monocytogenes Toxin
C. P. Sword and G. Charles Kingdon

AUTHOR INDEX-SUBJECT INDEX

Volume III: Bacterial Protein Toxins Edited by T. C. Montie, S. Kadis, and S. J. Ail

Plague Murine Toxins

A. Nature and Synthesis of Murine Toxins of Pasteurella pestis Thomas C. Montie and Samuel J. Ajl

B. Site and Mode of Action of Murine Toxin of Pasteurella pestis Solomon Kadis and Samuel J. Ajl

Streptolysin O
Seymour P. Halbert

Streptolysin S Isaac Ginsburg

Erythrogenic Toxins
Dennis W. Watson and Yoon Berm Kim

Staphylococcal α -Toxin John P. Arbuthnott

The Beta and Delta Toxins of Staphylococcus aureus Gordon M. Wiseman

Staphylococcal Enterotoxins Merlin S. Bergdoll

Staphylococcal Leucocidin A. M. Woodin

Addendum - Production of Test Toxin of P-V Leucocidin R. Elsworth and K. Sargeant

Anthrax Toxin

Ralph E. Lincoln and Donald C. Fish

Bacillus cereus Toxin

Peter F. Bonventre and Charles E. Johnson

Bacillus thuringiensis Toxin
Marie-Marguerite Lecadet

Toxins of *Pseudomonas*Robert J. Heckly

The Toxins of Mycoplasma

Lewis Thomas and Evangelia Kaklamanis

AUTHOR INDEX-SUBJECT INDEX

Volume IV: Bacterial Endotoxins Edited by G. Weinbaum, S. Kadis, and S. J. Ajl

General Characteristics

Kelsey C. Milner, Jon A. Rudbach, and Edgar Ribi

The Anatomy and Chemistry of Gram-Negative Cell Envelopes Milton R. J. Salton and John Freer

The Physical Structure of Bacterial Lipopolysaccharides Joseph W. Shands, Jr.

Isolation, Chemical and Immunological Characterization of

Bacterial Lipopolysaccharides

Otto Lüderitz, Otto Westphal, Anne-Marie Staub, and Hiroshi Nikaido

The Chemistry of the Unique Carbohydrates of Bacterial Lipopolysaccharides

Gilbert Ashwell and Jean Hickman

The Relation of Bacteriophage Attachment to Lipopolysaccharide Structure

Annette M. C. Rapin and Herman Kalckar

Chemical and Biological Heterogeneity of Endotoxins Alois Nowotny

Biosynthesis of the "Core" Region of Lipopolysaccharide Mary Jane Osborn and Lawrence I. Rothfield

Biosynthesis of O-Antigens

Phillips W. Robbins and Andrew Wright

Genetic Aspects of Biosynthesis and Structure of Salmonella Lipopolysaccharide

Bruce Stocker and P. Helena Mäkelä

AUTHOR INDEX-SUBJECT INDEX

Volume V: Bacterial Endotoxins Edited by

S. Kadis, G. Weinbaum, and S. J. Ajl

The Relationship of Lipopolysaccharide Structure to Bacterial Virulence Robert J. Roantree

Relations between Bacterial Lipopolysaccharide Structures and Blood Group Specific Substances of Human Cells

Georg F. Springer

Chemical Modification of Lipopolysaccharide and Inactivation of Its Biological Properties

Barnet M. Sultzer

In Vitro Interactions of Lipopolysaccharides with Components of the Immune System

Henry Gewurz, Stephan E. Mergenhagen, and Ralph Snyderman

Host-Dependent Neutralization and Detoxification of Endotoxin Robert C. Skarnes and Fred S. Rosen

Metabolic Effects of Bacterial Endotoxins
L. Joe Berry

Release of Vasoactive Agents and the Vascular Effects of Endotoxin Lerner B. Hinshaw

Endotoxin and the Pathogenesis of Fever F. S. Snell

The Mechanism of Action of Endotoxin in Shock Stanley M. Levenson and Arnold Nagler

Effects of Lipopolysaccharide (Endotoxins) on Susceptibility to Infections Leighton E. Cluff

Role of Hypersensitivity and Tolerance in Reactions to Endotoxin Louis Chedid

AUTHOR INDEX-SUBJECT INDEX

Volume VI: Algal and Fungal Toxins Edited by S. Kadis, A. Ciegler, and S. J. Ajl

Algal Toxins

The Dinoflagellate Poisons
Edward J. Schantz
Blue-Green and Green Algal Toxins
John H. Gentile
Phytoflagellate Toxins
Moshe Shilo

Fungal Toxins

Section A Aspergillus Toxins

Aflatoxins and Related Compounds R. W. Detroy, E. B. Lillehoj, and A. Ciegler

Ochratoxin and Other Dihydroisocoumarins

P. S. Steyn

Miscellaneous Aspergillus Toxins Benjamin J. Wilson

Section B Penicillium Toxins

Yellowed Rice Toxins

- a. Luteoskylin and related compounds (rugulosin etc.)

 Penicillium islandicum; P. rugulosum, P. tardum, and
 P. brunneum, P. variabile, etc.
- b. Chlorine-containing peptide

P. islandicum

c. Citrinin

P. citrinum, etc.

Mamoru Saito, Makoto Enomoto, and Takashi Tatsuno P. citreo-viride, P. ochrosalmoneum

Kenji Uraguchi

The Rubratoxins, Toxic Metabolites of *Penicillium rubrum* Stoll M. O. Moss

Patulin, Penicillic Acid and Other Carcinogenic Lactones

A. Ciegler, R. W. Detroy, and E. B. Lillehoj

Cyclopiazonic Acid and Related Toxins

C. W. Holzapfel

Miscellaneous Penicillium Toxins

a. Decumbin

b. Puberulum

c. β-Nitropropionic acid

Benjamin J. Wilson

Section C Fusarium Toxins

F-2 (Zearalenone) Estrogenic Mylotoxin from Fusarium C. J. Mirocha, C. M. Christensen, and G. H. Nelson

Alimentary Toxic Aleukia

A. Z. Joffe

Toxin-Producing Fungi from Fescue Pasture

Shelly G. Yates

Spiroepoxy Trichothecenes
James R. Bamburg and Frank M. Strong

Toxins of Fusarium nivale

Mamoru Saito and Takashi Tatsuno

Section D

Rhizoctonia Toxin (Slaframine)

H. P. Broquist

Section E

The Toxicology of Sporidesmins and Other Epipolythiadioxopiperazines

Alan Taylor

Section F Sclerotinia Toxins and Other Toxic Coumarins

The Isolation and Identification of the Toxic Coumarins
Donald E. Richards

The Biological Action and Metabolism of the Toxic Coumarins Lester D. Scheel

The Natural Occurrence and Uses of the Toxic Coumarins Vernon B. Perone

Section G

Stachybotrys Toxin Joseph Forgacs

Section H Phytotoxins

Phytopathogenic Toxins

H. H. Luke and V. E. Gracen, Jr.

Helminthosporium Toxins

H. H. Luke and V. E. Gracen, Jr.

Alternaria Toxins Related to Pathogenesis in Plants

G. E. Templeton

Didymella Toxin

C. A. Salemink

Compounds Accumulating in Plants after Infection Joseph Kúc

Section I Mushroom and Related Toxins

Amanita Toxins

Theodor Wieland and Otto Wieland

Mushroom Toxins other than Amanita

Robert G. Benedict

Ergot

D. Gröger

AUTHOR INDEX-SUBJECT INDEX

Introductory Remarks

Roux and Yersin (1) more than 80 years ago demonstrated that sterile filtrates from cultures of the diphtheria bacillus contained a poison or toxin that upon injection into guinea pigs, rabbits, and pigeons was capable of mimicking the symptoms and type of death produced by infection with living organisms. In their initial experiment, no less than 35 ml of culture filtrate injected intraperitoneally was required in order to kill a guinea pig. Nevertheless, in their first paper they noted that low doses of the filtrate caused a type of paralysis in guinea pigs and rabbits that was reminiscent of post-diphtheritic paralysis in man and that injection of a concentrated preparation in an amount sufficient to kill 100 guinea pigs produced no ill effects in a 10-g mouse. Roux and Yersin even demonstrated that the urine of children taken shortly before death from diphtheria may contain sufficient toxin to kill guinea pigs with symptoms similar to those produced by culture filtrates. Thus, for the first time, the mechanism of pathogenicity of a microorganism for man became clarified and could be explained in terms of a soluble toxic substance released by the bacteria. The earlier prediction of Loeffler (2) was thus verified. In his experiments establishing the etiology of the disease, Loeffler had observed that, although in fatal cases of diphtheria, characteristic lesions could be found widely distributed in organs throughout the body, these lesions were invariably found to be sterile and the diphtheria bacillus itself could only be isolated from the primary local lesion ("false membrane") in the throat.

The search for other toxin-producing bacteria began without delay and tetanus toxin was discovered in 1890 independently by Knut Faber (3) and by Briegel and Fränkel (4). The latter authors injected culture filtrates from many bacteria into animals and obtained some evidence for extracellular toxins produced by cholera vibrios and staphylococci as well as by the tetanus bacillus. Proof of the vital importance of microbial toxins as disease-producing agents was finally furnished by von Behring and Kitasato (5) who, in 1890, first prepared diphtheria and tetanus antitoxins and demonstrated their ability to specifically protect against the lethal action of the homologous toxin.

But any hopes that a specific antitoxic immunity could be developed for protection against each infectious disease of bacterial etiology or that a characteristic toxin would be found which could explain the mechanism of microbial pathogenicity in each case were short-lived. Many invasive bacteria, such as the pneumococcus, are capable of causing fatal diseases in man and in animals. Yet, even though physicians refer to patients critically ill with pneumococcal lobar pneumonia as being in a highly "toxic" condition, the pneumococcus has not been shown to produce a toxin either in vivo or in vitro. In other bacterial or mycotic diseases the characteristic toxic symptoms may be attributed to development of hypersensitivity to microbial products which in normal persons or animals may show little or no primary toxicity. The role of hypersensitivity as compared with primary toxicity may be particularly hard to assess in the case of endotoxins of gram-negative bacteria. Finally, many human and animal pathogens have been shown to produce toxins and extracellular enzymes whose role in the actual disease process is far less clear than is the case with tetanus and diphtheria.

Since the discovery of diphtheria toxin, isolation and partial characterization of many toxins has been accomplished and the list of crystalline protein toxins is becoming quite long so that the present treatise is expected to run to six volumes. Despite the fact that our knowledge has expanded sufficiently to make such a treatise possible. I suspect that most of our contributors would agree that we still know very little about how most bacterial toxins cause damage to host cells; nor in many cases do we know their role in bacterial metabolism. However, it does not seem farfetched to suppose that the extracellular lecithinases produced by Clostridium welchii and phospholipases of other bacterial species or the extracellular nucleases, proteinases, hyaluronidases, carbohydrases, etc. released by pathogenic species such as hemolytic streptococci and staphylocci are used by these organisms to obtain assimilable nutrients. Indeed, the production of extracellular enzymes that break down large molecules to small assimilable units was obviously an important step in the evolution of parasitism by certain microorganisms.* It is far less clear to what extent such extracellular enzymes are actually responsible for the symptoms of disease. In a few instances, such as tetanus, botulism, diphtheria, and scarlet fever, the role of toxins in producing lesions or symptoms has been established without question. But only in the case of diphtheria toxin has the mechanism been established beyond reasonable doubt at the cellular level in molecular terms.

26

^{*}Extracellular proteins are rarely elaborated by those species of gram-negative bacteria normally found in the intestinal tract of man and animals. Presumably in this case assimilable nutrients become available as a result of breakdown of large molecules by host enzymes of the digestive tract.

"Quelle est la nature du poison diphtérique? Est-ce un alcaloïde ou une diastase?" Roux and Yersin (1) asked these questions in 1888 and suggested that because of its heat lability, the toxin resembled an enzyme ("diastase") more than an alkaloid. But 80 years intervened before it was finally proved independently in two laboratories (6,7) that diphtheria toxin is, in fact, a highly active enzyme of a novel and unique type. A few molecules of this toxin fixed at the periphery of susceptible mammalian cells (perhaps no more than one molecule per cell is required) suffice to inhibit cell protein synthesis within a few hours or less (8). The mechanism of this inhibition has now been elucidated. It has been shown that diphtheria toxin catalyzes the splitting of NAD (nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide) with release of free nicotinamide and transfer of its ADP-ribose moiety to a point at or near the active site of transferase II(6-11). This enzyme is a translocase (12) which in the presence of GTP and Mg2+ brings about the translocation of the growing peptide chain on the ribosome so as to be in position to accept the next amino acid from aminoacyl-tRNA. Transferase II appears to be the unique acceptor for the toxin-catalyzed transfer of the ADP-ribose group. It has been shown that addition of a "saturating" dose to HeLa cell cultures (25-50 toxin molecules fixed per cell) brings about the complete conversion of all the free cellular transferase II to its inactive ADP-ribose derivative within minutes (7). Dialyzed ribosome-free extracts from intoxicated cells show no translocase activity but their transferase II activity may be restored to its normal level by addition of both the toxin and an excess of nicotinamide (7). Recently, Baseman and Gill (13) have found protein synthesis reduced in certain tissues of intoxicated guinea pigs because of the specific inactivation of transferase II. Thus, at least in the case of diphtheria toxin at the cellular level, its primary mode of action can be explained in molecular terms even though the complex series of events leading ultimately to death of animals from intoxication remains to be worked out.

Research into the biology of infectious disease has greatly declined during the past decade. This lapse of interest can be attributed, at least in part, to the fact that successful solution of the practical problems of prevention and chemotherapy of most infectious diseases has virtually eliminated them as leading causes of death in civilized countries. Yet the fundamental biological questions that ask by what mechanisms microorganisms are able to cause disease have remained largely unanswered, even though from a theoretical point of view these problems have retained all of their original fascination. A vast amount of knowledge on the production, the isolation, and the properties of microbial toxins has accumulated over the years. It is hoped that the assembly of this information within a single series of volumes and its critical analysis by a dis-

tinguished group of experts will provide a stimulating source of reference for many years to come for those interested in host-parasite interaction and in the biology of infectious disease.

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Contents

List of Contributors	V
Preface	
CONTENTS OF FUTURE VOLUMES	ciii
Introductory Remarks	ζix
1. General Characteristics	
W. E. van Heyningen	
V. Activity	13 18 23
2. The Nomenclature of Microbial Toxins: Problems and Recommendations	
Peter F. Bonventre	
I. Statement of the Problem	30
Nomenclatural Commitment	57
3. Intracellular Versus Extracellular Toxins	
MARCEL RAYNAUD AND JOSEPH E. ALOUF	
I. Introduction	69
Gram-Negative Bacteria	
of Gram-Negative Bacteria	81