

# Molecular Biological and Biochemical Studies on Avian Influenza Virus Receptors in Different Avian Species

Hussein I. El-Belbasi\* ; Mohamed F. Dowidar and Safaa I. Khater

Department of Biochemistry, Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, Zagazig University, Egypt  
[h\\_elbelbasi2003@yahoo.com](mailto:h_elbelbasi2003@yahoo.com)

**Abstract:** Avian influenza viruses are considered to be the key contributors to the emergence of human influenza pandemics. A major determinant of infection is the presence of virus receptors on susceptible cells to which the viral haemagglutinin is able to bind. Avian viruses preferentially bind to sialic acid  $\alpha$  2,3-galactose (SA  $\alpha$  2,3-Gal) linked receptors, whereas human strains bind to sialic acid  $\alpha$  2,6-galactose (SA  $\alpha$  2,6-Gal) linked receptors. Although ducks are the major reservoir for influenza viruses, they are typically resistant to the effects of viral infection, in contrast to the frequently severe disease observed in chickens. In order to understand whether differences in receptors might contribute to this observation, we studied the expression of influenza receptors in upper and lower respiratory organs of ducks and chickens (expression of ST3Gal-III sialyltransferase and ST6Gal-I sialyltransferase genes) using semi quantitative RT-PCR. There was a marked difference in the expression of primary receptor type in the trachea of chickens and ducks. In chicken trachea, SA  $\alpha$  2,6-Gal was the dominant receptor type whereas in ducks SA  $\alpha$  2,3-Gal receptors were most abundant. This suggests that chickens could be more important as an intermediate host for the generation of influenza viruses with increased ability to bind to SA  $\alpha$  2,6-Gal receptors and thus greater potential for infection of humans. Chicken tracheal and intestinal epithelial cells also expressed a broader range of SA  $\alpha$  2,3-Gal receptors in contrast to ducks, which suggests that they may be able to support infection with a broader range of avian influenza viruses.

[Hussein I. El-Belbasi; Mohamed F. Dowidar and Safaa I. Khater. **Molecular Biological and Biochemical Studies on Avian Influenza Virus Receptors in Different Avian Species**. Life Science Journal. 2011; 8(1):44-51] (ISSN: 1097-8135).

**Keywords:** Host receptors, influenza, chicken, duck, ST3Gal-III sialyltransferase, ST6Gal-I sialyltransferase, gene expression.

## 1. Introduction

The influenza viruses are medium-sized, comprising enveloped and negative sense RNA viruses with a segmented genome. Taxonomically, they belong to the virus family Orthomyxoviridae. There are three genetically and antigenically distinct types of influenza viruses called A, B, and C. Type A viruses are further divided into subtypes according to the combination of two main envelope glycoproteins the hemagglutinin (HA) and neuraminidase (NA). To date, 16 HA subtype (H1-H16) and 9 NA subtypes (N1-N9) have been found (Ghaleb, 2009). Influenza A virus infects several hosts, including humans, birds, swine, and horses, but individual viruses are usually adapted to sustained infection in only one species. Viruses isolated from these different species bind sialic acid through their surface glycoprotein, hemagglutinin, and require this interaction for productive infection (Gambaryan et al., 2005). The first step in the virus infection process is the recognition of cellular structures that act as specific receptors. This determines the virus tissue tropism and is performed by viral adhesion proteins (Tardieu et al., 1982). The viral attachment to the host cell is critical for tissue and species specificity of virus

infections (Debby et al., 2007). Influenza virus initiates infection by binding of the viral hemagglutinin (HA) to sialic acid on the cell surface. (Stray and Air, 2001). The receptors for influenza viruses are sialic acids (SAs), which are usually formed 2,3 or 2,6 configuration linked to the cell-surface glycoproteins and glycolipids (Harduin-Lepers et al., 2005). Sialic acid is an essential component of cell surface receptors for a variety of microorganisms and microbial toxins (Mouricout, 1997). Sialic acid is added to the terminal sugar of glycoproteins and glycolipids by enzymes called sialyl transferases (Harduin-lepers et al., 2005).

Sialyl transferases (SiaTs) are required to synthesize all known sialyloligosaccharides (Shuichi, 1995). The ST3Gal III, preferentially transfers sialic acid in  $\alpha$  2,3 linkage to the Gal $\beta$ 1-3GlcNAc disaccharidic sequence (Catherine et al., 1999). While ST6Gal-I generates an  $\alpha$  2-6 linkage of sialic acid to underlying N-acetyllactosamine (Weinstein et al., 1982). The differential expression of sialic acids in the mammalian respiratory tract may help to explain the low infectivity but high pathogenicity of some avian strains (Gambotto et al., 2008).

Influenza infection is initiated by virus attachment to sialic acid-containing cell-surface molecules traditionally called viral receptors. The spectrum of sialylglycoconjugates varies substantially between viral host species as well as target tissues and cell types of the same species leading to variations in the receptor-binding specificity of viruses circulating in these hosts. It is believed that a poor fit of avian viruses to receptors in humans limits the emergence of new pandemic strains (Matrosovich et al., 2008). Influenza A viruses attach to host cells by binding of the hemagglutinin (HA) protein to sialosaccharides on the host cell surface. The HAs of influenza A viruses from different host species differ in their specificity of binding. For example, HAs of human influenza A viruses preferentially recognize sialic acid (SA)  $\alpha$  2,6-Gal-terminated saccharides ( $\alpha$  2,6-SA), whereas HAs of avian influenza viruses preferentially recognize SA  $\alpha$  2,3-Gal-terminated saccharides ( $\alpha$  2,3-SA) (Connor et al., 1994). These differences generally correspond with the variation in the type of SAs expressed at important sites for influenza A virus replication in the respective host species. For example, human tracheal epithelium expresses mainly  $\alpha$  2,6-SA, whereas duck intestinal epithelium expresses mainly  $\alpha$  2,3-SA. Therefore, the type and distribution of SA is considered to be an important factor in the susceptibility of different host species to influenza A viruses (Suzuki et al., 2000). The SA recognized by influenza A virus is not only important in the host species range but also in its transmissibility (Tumpey et al., 2007). The HA protein mediates virus binding to sialic acid (SA)-containing host cell surface molecules and promotes the release of viral ribonucleoprotein complexes through membrane fusion.

Influenza virus infectivity is influenced by 2 entities:-

- 1- SA species (N-acetylneuraminic acid [NeuAc] and N-glycolylneuramic acid [NeuG]).
- 2- The type of linkage to galactose (sialyloligosaccharides terminated by SA linked to galactose by an  $\alpha$  2,6 linkage [Ac  $\alpha$  2,6Gal] or an  $\alpha$  2,3 linkage [Ac  $\alpha$  2,3Gal]) on the host cell surface (Rogers et al., 1985).

The host range selection of the receptor binding specificity of the influenza virus hemagglutinin occurs during maintenance of the virus in different host cells that express different receptor sialo-sugar chains (Yasuo, 2005). Ducks and chickens are important hosts of avian influenza virus (AIV) with distinctive responses to infection. Frequently, AIV infections in ducks are asymptomatic and long-lasting in contrast to the clinically apparent and transient infections observed

in chickens. These differences may be due to the host response to AIV infection (Sean et al., 2009).

## 2. Materials and methods.

Bird selection and grouping:

Four groups of healthy, four weeks aged birds are classified as follow:

1. group 1 : 5 chicken (Baladi).
2. group 2 : 5 chicken (Hubber).
3. group 3 : 5 duck (Baladi).
4. group 4 : 5 duck (Pekeni).

Tissue preparation:

- Birds were sacrificed using highly sterilized scissors (180°C for 6 hours) to avoid RNA degradation by RNases and latex gloves were worn to minimize RNase contamination.
- After excision of trachea and lung of tested birds, they were wrapped in aluminium foil and put immediately in liquid nitrogen container to make snap-freezing of tissue and minimize action of endogenous RNase.
- Samples were taken to detect the level of gene expression of ST3Gal-III (Gal $\beta$ 1-3(4)GlcNAc $\alpha$ 2,3-sialyltransferase) and ST6Gal-I (Gal $\beta$ 1-4GlcNAc $\alpha$ 2,6-sialyltransferase) in that organs.

Reverse transcriptase polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR):

Using a semi-quantitative RT-PCR according to (Mallet et al., 1995).

**A-Protocol of RNA extraction from tissue:** total RNA was extracted with RNeasy Mini Kit (QIAGEN).

B-Protocol of reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction: (one step RT-PCR) by using Robus T 1 RT-PCR kit (FINNZYMES)

The protocol was as follow:-

All components, reaction mixes and samples were kept on ice. And the following reaction component were added to a nuclease free tube placed on ice.

**Table (1): Reaction set up:**

RT-PCR mix component	volume
10x Robus T reaction buffer	5 $\mu$ l
50 mM MgCl <sub>2</sub>	1.5 $\mu$ l
dNTP mix (10mM each)	1 $\mu$ l
Template RNA	5 $\mu$ l
Down stream primer	10 pmol
Up stream primer	10 pmol
AMV RT 5 U/ $\mu$ l	1 $\mu$ l
DyNAzyme EXT DNA polymerase 1U/ $\mu$ l	2 $\mu$ l
RNase free water	Add to 50 $\mu$ l

Gently mix the components, cycling conditions have to be optimized for each amplicon. and was transferred to the thermal cycler.(2720 thermal cycler Applied Biosystems).

Cycling instructions:

1-For ST3Gal III gene: the primer for ST3Gal III was synthesized to amplify PCR products

that cross introns to avoid confusion between mRNA transcript and genomic DNA.

The primers used to amplify this gene are:

Forward: 5- CGGATGGCTTCTGGAAATCTGT- 3

Reverse: 3- AGTTTCTCAGGACCTGCGTGTT-5  
the product size was 300 bp.

**Table (2)**

Cycle step	Temp	time	Number of cycle
cDNA synthesis	48 °C	30 min	1
Inactivation of AMV reverse transcriptase and denaturation of the cDNA-RNA hybrid	94 °C	2 min	1
PCR amplification			
Denaturation	94 °C	30 sec	36 cycles
Annealing	63 °C	1 min	
extention	72 °C	1.5 min	
Final extention	72 °C	7 min	

2-For ST6 Gal I gene:- the primer for ST6 Gal I were synthesized to amplify PCR products that cross introns to avoid confusion between mRNA transcript and genomic DNA.

The primers used to amplify this gene are:

Forward: 5-TGGGCCTTGGCAGGTGTGCTGTTG- 3

Reverse: 3- AGGCGAATGGTAGTTTTTGTAGCCACATC-5  
the product size was 150 bp.

using (2720 thermal cycler Applied Biosystems). Each cycle consist of :

Denaturation 94°C for 45 second  
Annealing 62 °C for 30 second  
Extention 72°C for 45 second

The PCR products were separated by agarose gel electrophoresis.

**Table (3)**

Cycle step	Temp	time	Number of cycle
cDNA synthesis	48 °C	30 min	1
Inactivation of AMV reverse transcriptase and denaturation of the cDNA-RNA hybrid	94 °C	2 min	1
PCR amplification			
Denaturation	94 °C	45sec	35 cycles
Annealing	50 °C	1 min	
extention	72 °C	1 min	
Final extention	72 °C	7 min	

Glyceraldehyde 3 phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) were amplified paralely as internal control (481bp) and its sequence:

Forward: 5- ACTTGTGATCAATGGGCACGCCATC - 3

Reverse: 3-CTTCCCATTACAGCACAGGGATGAC- 5

For the Glyceraldehyde 3 phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) amplified by 35 cycle

C-Agarose gel electrophoresis (Sambrook and Maniatis., 1989)

1- Run parameters :

- Use 1-5 volts/ cm of the tank lenth.
  - Allow bromophenol blue to run 2/3 of the gel lenth before terminating the run.
- 2- stop the run and transfere the gel to a transilluminator, observe and photograph. Photographing using polarized camera and parameters are preferably 302 nm wave lengthth, 2500 uW / cm<sup>2</sup>, or more, and using 22 A filter.

10- Using 100 bp- DNA ladder for electrophoresis of PCR product of GAPDH,ST3Gal-III and ST6Gal-I (100, 200, 300, 400, 500, 600, 700, 800, 900 and 1000bp) from Quiagen.

11-Analysis of PCR product using GEL pro-software to detect quantitation of bands for GAPDH, ST3Gal-III and ST6Gal-I genes.

### 3. Results and Discussion:

The host receptor distribution pattern in the chicken and duck upper and lower respiratory tract may be functionally significant for the evolution of viruses with a human like receptor specificity and thus for the transmission of influenza from birds and

mammals. In this work, we conducted an extensive examination on the level of expression of influenza virus Receptors in trachea and lung of two different breeds of each chickens and ducks. There was no difference in the reported results observed due to the breed of animals, and the receptor expression was consistent between individual animals within each species. Using RT-PCR in the gene expression of ST3GAL III and ST6GAL I which add sialic acids to the terminal sugar of glycoproteins and glycolipids, we found that the trachea of ducks (Baladi, Pekeni) show high expression level of ST3GAL III while trachea of chickens (Baladi, Hubber) show low expression level. (Figure:1) but Chickens trachea (Baladi, Hubber) show very high expression level of ST6GAL I in comparison to that of ducks trachea (Baladi, Pekeni) that show lower expression level of ST6GAL I. (Figure:3). These results were in agreement with (Suresh et al., 2009) who reported that The major species difference that they observed between chickens and ducks in the relative distribution of SA  $\alpha$  2-3 Gal and SA  $\alpha$  2-6 Gal receptors was along the tracheal epithelium. In chicken tracheal epithelium, SA  $\alpha$  2-6 Gal was the dominant receptor type, whereas in ducks the SA  $\alpha$  2-3 Gal receptor was more abundant in the ciliated cells of the tracheal epithelium, it was found that the ratio of SA  $\alpha$  2-6 Gal to SA  $\alpha$  2-3 Gal in chickens trachea was approximately 10:1 whereas in duck the ratio was 1:20. The tracheal mucous glands of both chickens and ducks predominantly expressed SA  $\alpha$  2-6 Gal receptor type. The observed difference in dominant receptor type between chickens and ducks was confined to the upper airway (trachea). While the dominant SA  $\alpha$  2-6 Gal receptor expression pattern in chickens trachea was in contrast to a previous study (Wan and Perez, 2006) which, using lectin binding, found that 85% of the epithelial cells in chicken trachea were positive for SA  $\alpha$  2-3 Gal receptors, while only 10% were positive for SA  $\alpha$  2-6 Gal receptors.

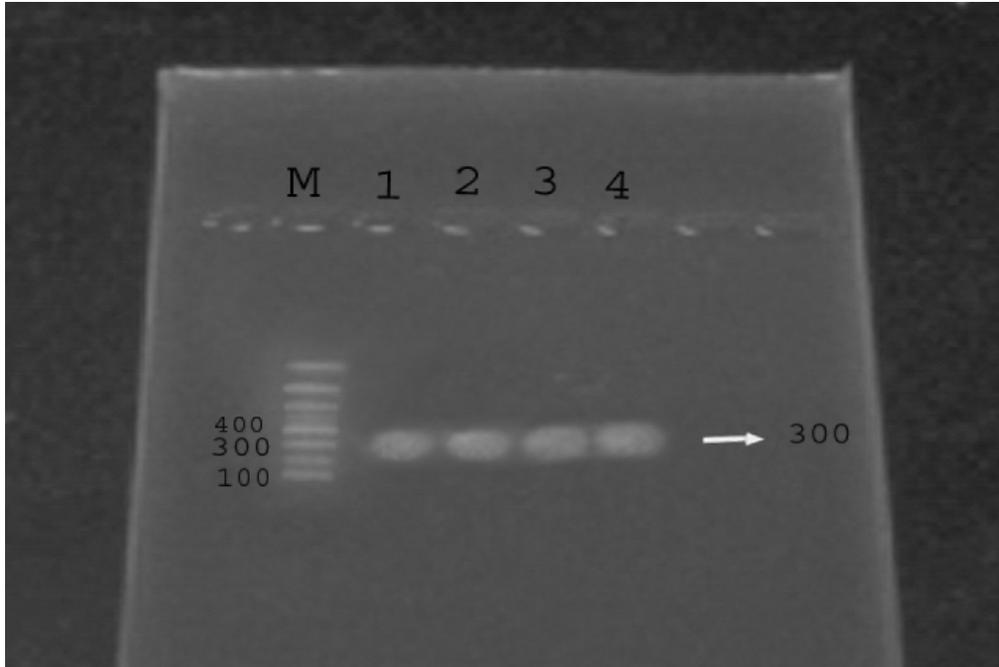
Also we found that the lung of ducks (Baladi, Pekeni) showed high expression level of ST3GAL III while lung of chickens (Baladi, Hubber) showed low expression level. but the difference between expression level of ducks trachea and lung tissues is high in case of trachea more than the lung tissue, but the expression level of chicken trachea is lower than that of lung tissue. (Figure:2). And Chickens lung (Baladi, Hubber) showed very high expression level of ST6GAL I in comparison to that of duck lung (Baladi, Pekeni) that show lower expression level of ST6GAL I.

But the difference between expression level of ducks trachea and lung tissues is high in case of lung more than the trachea tissue, while the

expression level of chickens lung is lower than that of trachea tissue. (Figure:4). The present results were also in agreement with the findings of Gambaryan et al (2002), who reported that human influenza viruses with SA  $\alpha$  2,6-Gal specificity bound to cell membranes isolated from chickens (but not ducks) tracheal cell membranes. Chicken alveolar cells expressed both receptor types. The difference in the predominant receptor across the tracheal epithelial lining in chickens and ducks could be an important contributing factor to influenza virus entry via the upper respiratory tract. In particular, such differences could impact on the susceptibility of each species to avian H5N1 influenza with its preferential tropism for infection of the respiratory tract rather than the intestines. The differences in receptor expression reported in the present study suggest that they may be responsible, at least in part, for some of the differences between ducks and chickens in the pattern of disease following influenza infection. While the presence of a virus receptor is clearly not sufficient to confirm that cells or tissue support efficient virus replication or transmission, the widespread replication of influenza virus in multiple organs has been reported in both chickens (Swayne, 1997) and ducks (Londt et al., 2008) following infection with highly pathogenic viruses.

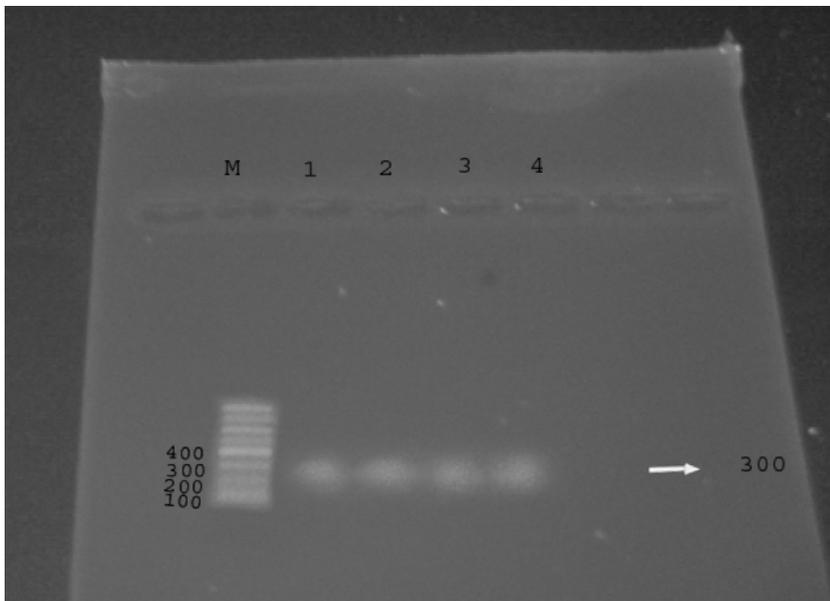
This study suggests that some chickens and ducks tissues may facilitate entry of both human and avian viruses, with the ensuing danger of virus reassortment. However, further work is required to confirm that the tissues expressing both receptor types are able to support virus replication. The dominant presence of SA  $\alpha$  2-6 Gal receptor along the chicken tracheal epithelium shows some similarities to the prevalence of the receptor in mammals such as human and pig. This suggests that chickens may be important intermediate hosts for the transmission of influenza to humans, in particular for influenza viruses such as H5N1, which show a respiratory tropism in birds. Whilst much attention has been placed on the role of pigs as "mixing vessels", the potential importance of chickens for the evolution of humanised influenza viruses should not be overlooked and, as such, warrants further studies. Previous studies on role of sialic acid linkage (SA  $\alpha$  2,3 or SA  $\alpha$  2,6) during influenza virus infection have shown the importance of expression of these glycans in restricting infection by viruses in different hosts.

In this work, we found the presence of both SA  $\alpha$  2-3 Gal receptor and SA  $\alpha$  2-6 Gal receptor in chickens trachea and lung due to the expression of the two genes suggest that they may be susceptible to infection with wider range of avian influenza viruses with broader receptor specificity.



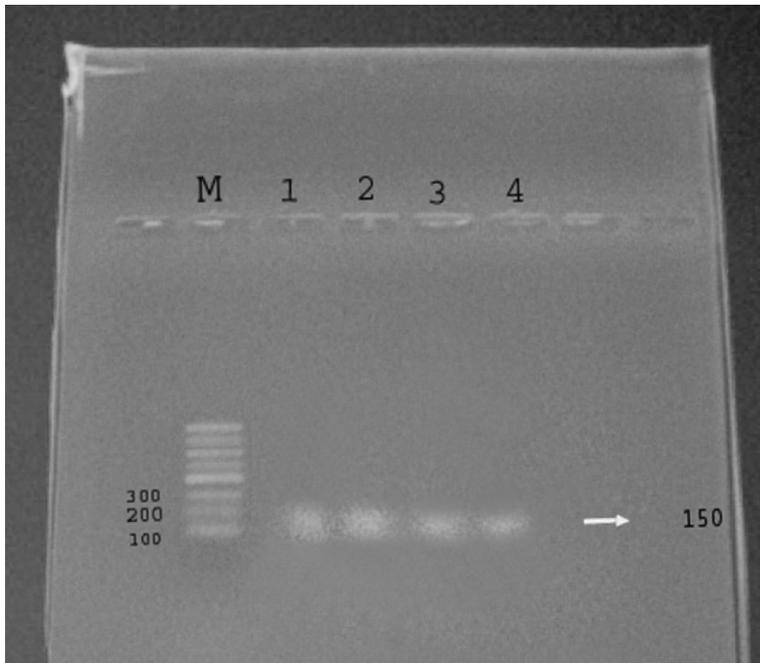
**Figure (1): The electrophoretic photograph showing the pattern of ST3GALIII mRNA expression in trachea of different birds**

M: DNA ladder                      Lane 1: chicken Baladi trachea                      Lane 2: chicken Hubber trachea  
Lane 3: Duck Baladi trachea                      Lane 4: Duck Peken trachea



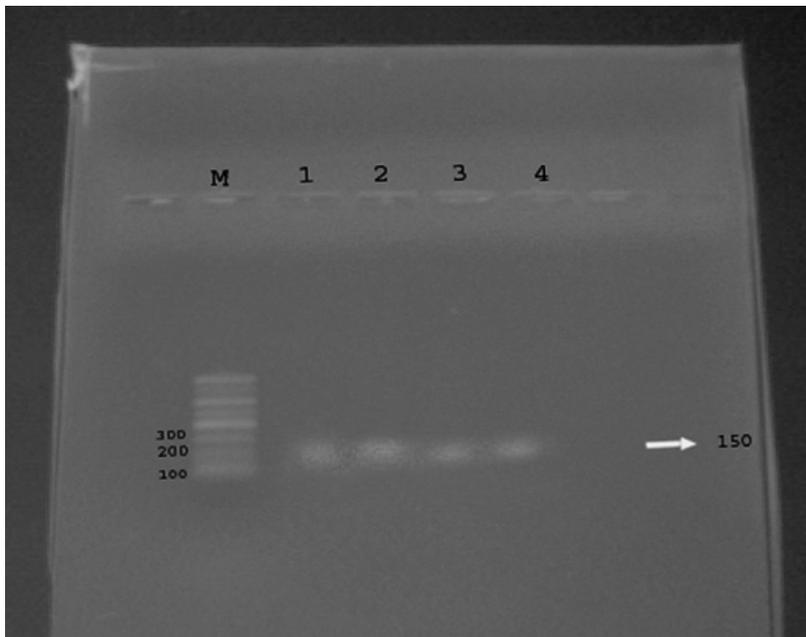
**Figure (2): The electrophoretic photograph showing the pattern of ST3GAL III mRNA expression in lung of different birds**

M: DNA ladder                      Lane 1: chicken Baladi trachea                      Lane 2: chicken Hubber trachea  
Lane 3: Duck Baladi trachea                      Lane 4: Duck Peken trachea



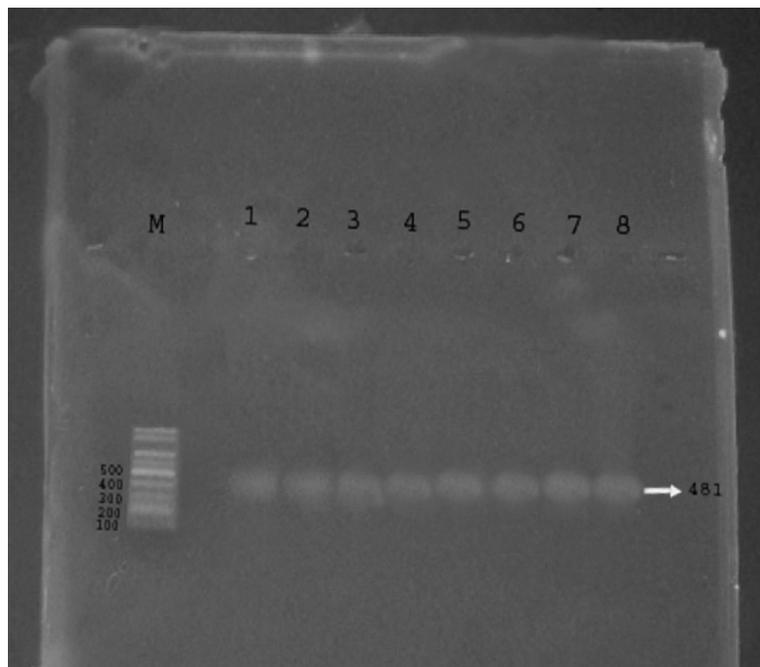
**Figure (3):**The electrophoretic photograph showing the pattern of ST6GALI mRNA expression in trachea of different birds

M: DNA ladder                      Lane 1: chicken Baladi trachea      Lane 2: chicken Hubber trachea  
Lane 3: Duck Baladi trachea      Lane 4: Duck Peken trachea



**Figure(4):** The electrophoretic photograph showing the pattern of ST6GAL I mRNA expression in lung of different birds.

M: DNA ladder                      Lane 1: chicken Baladi trachea      Lane 2: chicken Hubber trachea  
Lane 3: Duck Baladi trachea      Lane 4: Duck Peken trachea



Figure(5): The electrophoretic photograph showing the pattern of glyceraldehyde 3 phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) mRNA expression in trachea and lung of different birds.

M : DNA ladder                      Lane 1: chicken Baladi trachea                      Lane 2: chicken Hubber trachea  
Lane 3: Duck Baladi trachea        Lane 4: Duck Pekeni trachea                      Lane 5: chicken Baladi lung  
Lane 6: chicken Hubber lung        Lane 7: Duck Baladi lung                      Lane 8: in Duck Pekeni lung

#### Corresponding Author:

Hussein I. El-Belbasi  
Department of Biochemistry, Faculty of Veterinary  
Medicine, Zagazig University, Egypt  
[h\\_elbelbasi2003@yahoo.com](mailto:h_elbelbasi2003@yahoo.com)

#### 4. References

1. Catherine, C.G.; Vincent, G.; Mahfoud, A.; Alain, M. B.; Philippe, D. and Jacques, B. (1999): Alteration of Sialyl Lewis Epitope Expression in Pterygium. *Investigative Ophthalmology and Visual Science*.40:1631-1636.
2. Connor, R.J.; Kawaoka, Y.; Webster, R.G. and Paulson, J.C. (1994): Receptor specificity in human, avian, and equine H2 and H3 influenza virus isolates. *Virology*. 205 (1): 17–23.
3. Debby, v. R.; Vincent, J.M.; Emmie, D.W.; Guus, F. R.; Ron. A.M. F; Albert, O. and Thijs K.(2007): Human and Avian Influenza Viruses Target Different Cells in the Lower Respiratory Tract of Humans and Other Mammals (*Am J Pathol*. 171:1215-1223.
4. Gambaryan, A.S.; Webster, R. and Matrosovich, M. (2002): Differences between influenza virus receptors on target cells of duck and chicken. *Arch Virol* 147: 1197–1208.
5. Gambaryan,A.S.; Yamnikova, S.; Lvov, D.; Tuzikov, A.; Chinarev, A.; Pazynina, G.; Webster, R.; Matrosovich, M. and Bovin, N. (2005): Receptor specificity of influenza viruses from birds and mammals: new data on involvement of the inner fragments of the carbohydrate chain. *Virology*. 334 (2): 276-283.
6. Gambotto, A.S.; Barratt-Boyes, S.M.; de Jong,M.D.; Neumann, G. and Kawaoka, Y.( 2008): Human infection with highly pathogenic H5N1 influenza virus. *Lancet*. 371, (9622):1464–75.
7. Ghaleb, M. A.(2009): Characterization of H5 Hemagglutinin of H5N1 Avian Influenza Virus in the Middle East. *The Islamic University Journal (Series of Natural Studies and Engineering)*. 17: 47- 60.
8. Harduin-Lepers,A.; Rosella, M.; Philippe, D. and Rafael, O. (2005): The animal

- sialyltransferases and sialyltransferase-related genes: a phylogenetic approach. *Glycobiology*. 15: 805–817.
9. Londt, B.Z.; Nunez, A. and Banks, J. (2008) : Pathogenesis of highly pathogenic avian influenza A/turkey/Turkey/1/2005 H5N1 in Pekin ducks (*Anas platyrhynchos*) infected experimentally. *Avian Pathol* . 37: 619-27.
  10. Mallet, F.; Oriol, G.; Mary,C.; Verrier, B. and Mandrand, B. (1995): Continuous RT-PCR using AMV-RT and taq DNA polymerase: characterization and comparison to uncoupled procedures. *Biotechniques*. 18: 678-687.
  11. Matrosovich, M.; Gambaryan, A. and Klenk, H.( 2008): Receptor Specificity of Influenza Viruses and Its Alteration during Interspecies Transmission. *Viol. Basel, Karger*. 27: 134-155.
  12. Mouricout, M.(1997): Interactions between the enteric pathogen and the host. An assortment of bacterial lectins and a set of glycoconjugate receptors. *Adv. Exp. Med. Biol*. 412:109-123.
  13. Rogers, G.N.; Daniels, R.S.; Skehel, J.J.; Wiley, D.C., Wang, X.F.; Higa, H.H. and Paulson J.C. (1985): Host-mediated selection of influenza virus receptor variants. Sialic acid- $\alpha$  2,6Gal-specific clones of A/duck/Ukraine/1/63 revert to sialic acid- $\alpha$  2,3Gal-specific wild type in vivo, *J. Biol. Chem*. 260: 7362–7367.
  14. Sambrook, F. and Maniatis.(1989): *Molecular cloning (laboratory manual)*. Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory Press.USA.pp: 6.9-6.13.
  15. Sean, C.A.; Zheng, X.; Jinling, L. and Carol, J.C. (2009): Immune-related gene expression in response to H1N9 low pathogenic avian influenza virus infection in chicken and Pekin duck peripheral blood mononuclear cells. *Molecular Immunology*. 46: 1744–1749.
  16. Shuichi,T.(1995): structural and functional analysis of sialyltransferases. *glycobiology and glycotecnology*. 8: 5-6.
  17. Stray, S.J. and Air, G.M. (2001): Evaluation of influenza A virus receptors. In: Osterhaus, A.D., Hampson, A.W., Cox, N. (Eds.), *World Congress on Options for the Control of Influenza IV*. Elsevier, Amsterdam. 487– 502.
  18. Suresh, V. K.; Rahul, N.;Gavin, A. W.; Maureen, B.; Kin, C. C. and Stephen D.(2009): Differences in influenza virus receptors in chickens and ducks: Implications for interspecies transmission. *J Mol Genet Med*. 3(1): 143-151.
  19. Suzuki, Y.; Ito, T.; Suzuki, T.; Holland, J. R.E.; Chambers, T.M.; Kiso, M.; Ishida, H. and Kawaka, Y. (2000): Sialic acid species as a determinant of the host range of influenza A viruses. *J Virol*. 74:11825-11831.
  20. Swayne, D. E. (1997): Pathobiology of H5N2 Mexican avian influenza viruses for chickens. *Veterinary Pathology*. 34: 557–567.
  21. Tardieu, M.; Epstein, R.L.; Weiner, H.L. (1982): Interaction of viruses with cell surface receptors. *Int. Rev. Cytol*. 80: 27–61.
  22. Tumpey, T.M.; Maines, T.R.; Van Hoeven, N.; Glaser, L.; Solorzano, A.; Pappas, C.; Cox, N.J.; Swayne, D.E.; Palese, P.; Katz, J.M. and Garcia-Sastre, A. (2007): A two-amino acid change in the hemagglutinin of the 1918 influenza virus abolishes transmission. *Science*. 315: 655–659.
  23. Wan, H. and Perez,D.R.(2006): Quail carry sialic acid receptors compatible with binding of avian and human influenza viruses. *Virology*. 346: 278- 286.
  24. Weinstein, J., de Souza, E. S. U. and Paulson, J. C. (1982): Purification of a Gal beta 1 to 4GlcNAc alpha 2 to 6 sialyltransferase and a Gal beta 1 to 3(4)GlcNAc alpha 2 to 3 sialyltransferase to homogeneity from rat liver. *J. Biol. Chem*. 257: 13835- 13844.
  25. Yasuo, S. (2005): Sialobiology of Influenza Molecular Mechanism of Host Range Variation of Influenza Viruses. *Biol. Pharm. Bull*. 28(3): 399-408.

10/19/2010