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An empirical method for the prediction of T-cell epitopes

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Abstract Identification of T-cell epitopes from foreign proteins is the current focus of much research. Methods using simple two or three position motifs have proved useful in epitope prediction for major histocompatibility complex (MHC) class I, but to date not for MHC class II molecules. We utilized data from pool sequence analysis of peptides eluted from two *HLA-DR13* alleles to construct a computer algorithm for predicting the probability that a given sequence will be naturally processed and presented on these alleles. We assessed the ability of this method to predict known self-peptides from these *DR-13* alleles, *DRBI*1301* and *"1302,* as well as an immunodominant T-cell epitope. We also compared the predictions of this scoring procedure with the measured binding affinities of a panel of overlapping peptides from hepatitis B virus surface antigen. We concluded that this method may have wide application for the prediction of T-cell epitopes for both MHC class I and class II molecules.

Introduction

The recognition of pathogen-derived peptide in the context of host major histocompatibility complex (MHC) molecules is crucial to the induction and maintenance of an effective antigen-specific immune response. Recent work has shown that MHC molecules bind peptides of approximately $8-10$ amino acids in length for class I, and $12-20$ amino acids in length for class II. In addition, analysis of the allele specificity of peptide binding has shown that key 'anchor residues' are important in determining the ability of peptides to bind to MHC molecules (Falk et al. 1991; Rudensky

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et al. 1991). Peptide binding motifs based on a knowledge of these anchor positions have now been determined for MHC class I and class II alleles. These motifs have been used to accurately predict T-cell epitopes for MHC class I in *Listeria monocytogenes* (Pamer et al. 1991), *Plasmodium faIciparum* (Hill et al. 1992), and other pathogens.

MHC class II restricted T-cell epitopes have traditionally been mapped using recombinant fragments of proteins and/ or overlapping peptides in T-cell proliferation assays. Early attempts at predicting T-cell epitopes directly from protein sequences relied on theoretical concepts of peptide binding (Rothbard et al. 1988). The peptide binding motifs so far identified for MHC class II molecules are generally more degenerate than MHC class I motifs (Chicz et al. 1993), perhaps due to the relatively strong interactions between the MHC molecule and the backbone carbon atoms of the peptide (Brown et al. 1993). Thus these simple motifs have been of less use in the prediction of T-cell epitopes for MHC class II than they have been in the case of MHC class I.

More recently an empirical approach to epitope prediction has utilized peptide binding assays to compare the affinities of short peptides where each sequence position is sequentially mutated to all possible amino acids (Reay et al. 1994; Hammer et al. 1994b). This binding information is then used in a computer program to scan proteins for candidate epitopes. This method has the advantage that, unlike the simple motifs employed in MHC class I, it may provide information about small preferences for particular amino acids and also about the negative effects on binding of some residues. We describe here a novel method for Tcell epitope prediction which relies on the use of pool sequence data from eluted self-peptides and a computer program to iteratively scan proteins for candidate epitopes. We test the ability of this program to accurately predict known self-peptides and T-cell epitopes for two *HLA-DR13* alleles and also compare the predictions of this program with in vitro measurements of peptide binding.

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Materials and methods

Peptide scoring matrix

Pool sequencing of self peptides was performed as previously described (Davenport et al. 1995). Briefly, homozygous B-cell lines HHKB *(DRBl*1301;* Gorski et al. 1986) and WT-47 *(DRBI*1302;* Tiercy et al. 1989) were grown and their pellets lysed in phosphate buffered saline with 2% nonidet-P40 (NP-40), $2 \mu g/ml$ leupeptin, $2 \mu g/d$ ml pepstatin, and 5 mM ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA). After centrifugation at 100000 \times g for 90 min at 4 °C, lysates were loaded onto an L-243 affinity column. After washing, HLA-DR molecules were eluted with 0.05 M diethylamine, 150 mM NaC1, 0.1% NP-40 $(pH = 11.5)$ and then concentrated on a CENTRICON-10 column (Amicon, Beverly, MA) followed by elution of peptides with 0.1% trifluoroacetic acid. Eluted peptides were separated by reverse phase HPLC and any large peptide peaks (representing largely invariant chain and MHC class I-derived peptides) removed before pool sequencing on a liquid protein sequencer (473A; Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA; Falk et al. 1994). Sequencing was performed for 15 cycles. Cysteine was not quantitated. Data were not corrected for variations in the yield of individual amino acids arising from, for example, carryover from the previous sequencing cycle. We performed pool sequences on three independent preparations from each cell line.

Data were analyzed as previously described (Kubo et al. 1994). Briefly, we expressed the concentration of each amino acid at each position as the percentage of the total amino acids detected at that 393

position. We then averaged these values for the three data sets for each allele. We then took the average value for each amino acid over the length of the peptide by averaging the values at all positions except the first. Finally, each amino acid at each position was expressed as a deviation from the average value for that amino acid over the whole run (Fig. 1).

Computer analysis

We then developed a computer program in visual basic under Microsoft Excel 5 for windows, which iteratively scanned proteins one amino acid at a time and calculated a score for each amino acid at each position based on the scoring matrix derived from pool sequencing. The only alteration to this empirical data was to adjust the scores for all amino acids to equal 1 at the first position. This was performed because we believe that the strong bias in favor of small amino acids and against charged amino acids is an artefact of the methodology used, since **it** is also seen when pool sequences of random synthetic peptides are performed (M. Davenport, unpublished observations). Thus, for example, a peptide commencing Leu-Ile-Gly-Ala-...analyzed for *DRBl*1301* would score 1.0 for position 1, 0.73 for 2, 1.39 for position 3, 0.82 for position 4, and so on. The sum of the scores for all 15 amino acids is then divided by 15 to get an average score for the whole peptide. Thus each position of a protein is allocated a score, which we term PPP (the Probability of being Processed and Presented),

Fig. 1 Scoring matrix for pep-

Eluted peptide/T-cell epitope	Restriction	score	rank	centile
Invariant chain(97-120)	DRB1*1301	1.227	1/232	99.6
Beta-2-microglobulin(4-20)	DRB1*1301	1.402	1/99	99.0
HLA-B*0701(104-123)	DRB1*1301	1.254	2/338	99.4
HLA-DQB1*0603(21-36)	DRB1*1301	1.172	11/244	95.5
Invariant chain(97-120)	DRB1*1302	1.257	1/232	99.6
Invariant chain(66-80)	DRB1*1302	1.211	2/232	99.1
Transferin receptor(215-232)	DRB1*1302	1.236	4/760	99.5
Apolipoprotein-B-100(43-58)*	DRB1*1302	1.149	164/4560	96.4
Apolipoprotein-B-100(3342-61)*	DRB1*1302	1.232	25/4560	99.5
Cathepsin-S(21-42)	DRB1*1302	1.109	16/331	95.2
HLA-C*0501	DRB1*1302	1.269	1/342	99.7
Flu Haemaglutinin(309-320)	DRB1*1302	1.190	3/329	99.1

Fig. 2 Ability of algorithm to predict self-peptides and T-cell epitopes. The program scanned the entire sequence of the proteins from which the peptides were derived and then the score for the observed peptide binding to the appropriate restriction element was compared with that of other peptides within the protein. The ranking and the centile band of the observed peptide are listed. * Apoliprotein peptides are believed to be derived from cattle sources, due to similarity to human apolipoprotein sequence. The human sequence was used in this analysis, since the cattle sequence is unknown. The protein sequence was modified to conform with the observed sequence from the eluted peptides

representing the predicted probability that a 15' mer peptide commencing at that position may be processed and presented on that MHC.

Peptide binding assays

Peptide binding assays were performed as previously described (Davenport et al. 1995) using overlapping 15' mer peptides from the hepatitis B virus surface antigen. Briefly, 0.1 μ g of MHC class II was incubated with 0.02 μ g biotinylated invariant chain (97-117) peptide and various concentrations of inhibitor peptide overnight at 37 °C at $pH = 5$. These solutions were then neutralized with 1 M tris $(pH = 7.5)$ before transfer to wells precoated with L-243 antibody. Binding of biotinylated peptide was detected with ExtrAvidin-horseradish peroxidase conjugate (Sigma, St Louis, MO) and biotinylated avidin-specific monoclonal antibody (Sigma) and developed with o-phenylenediamine. The concentration of cold inhibitor required to produce 50% inhibition of the binding of the labeled invariant chain peptide (IC-50) was calculated, and the relative binding affinity of each peptide expressed as the reciprocal of the IC-50.

Results

Computer calculations of the PPP for self-peptides eluted from *DRBI*1301* and *DRBI*1302* were performed to determine whether this method was able to correctly predict that these peptides would be likely to be processed from the endogenous source proteins. Figure 2 shows that most selfpeptides were in the top 1% of peptides in the source protein (i. e., $> 99'$ th centile). The peptide which performed worst was the Cathepsin-S-derived peptide, which scored only in the top 5% of peptides. It is interesting to speculate whether peptides derived from proteases involved in processing may be processed slightly differently due to their relative resistance to the degradative machinery in the class II processing pathway.

The success of these results must be tempered by consideration of the fact that the sequencing was performed on a pool which may have contained these peptides. However, we consider this is unlikely to play a major role in biasing the predictions because: 1) any large peaks on HPLC were removed prior to sequencing. The invariant chain and class I peptides formed part of the large peaks consistently removed and yet these still score highly; 2) analysis by mass spectrometry of multiple individual peptide peak from HPLC showed that there was a great abundance of peptides present even in apparently homogeneous HPLC peaks, making it unlikely that a few peptides contributed greatly to the pool; 3) a large number of different peptides were analyzed (seven in the case of *DRBl*1302)* which show no obvious sequence similarities except where they conform to a simple binding motif (Davenport et al. 1995). Therefore it is hard to see how each of these could sufficiently bias the pool enough to affect results.

Nonetheless we considered it important to assess the ability of this program to predict epitopes from pathogenderived proteins. We did this by two independent means. First we looked at the ability of the program to predict the presentation of a known epitope. Few well-defined DR13 restricted T-cell epitopes are currently known for which the molecular HLA type is known. The influenza haemagglutinin protein peptide HA306-319 is the dominant epitope for the *DRBl*1302-restricted* response to this protein (C. Gelder, personal communication), and scored highly on the program (see Figure 2).

The other method we chose to analyze the efficacy of the program was to compare the binding of synthetic peptides with their calculated PPP (Fig. 3). In this case the PPP shown is the maximum value from the [N-terminal minus three] position to the [C-terminal minus 8] position. This was to take into account the fact that we were measuring only binding here, and that: 1) the first three amino acids of eluted peptides rarely if ever contain key anchor residues for MHC binding; 2) the score for the last amino acid of a peptide represents the score for the subsequent 15 amino acids. Therefore we considered that the [C-teminus minus 8] position is the last one which would allow sufficient length of the peptide to interact with the MHC molecule efficiently. Comparison of the observed binding and predicted PPP shows significant correlation (Fig. 3), indicating that the program is of value in predicting the binding efficiency of peptides independent of processing.

Fig. 3 Comparison of predicted 1.2 scores with observed binding. The concentration of synthetic peptide required to inhibit 50% of the binding of a biotinylated peptide $(IC-50)$ 1 to *HLA-DRB1 "1302* in vitro was measured. The reciprocal of this $(1/IC-50)$ allows a comparison of the IC-50) allows a comparison of the **0,8** relative affinity of the peptides. Here the maximum PPP score for each peptide is plotted against the ob-
served 1/IC-50 and shows a correla-
tion between these two factors served $1/\overline{1C}$ -50 and shows a correla- \overline{Q} 0.6 tion between these two factors $(r = 0.388, P < 0.05$ (one-tailed p-value))

Discussion

The identification of allele-specific motifs for peptide binding to MHC molecules by analysis of individual and pool sequences of eluted peptides has allowed the prediction of MHC class I-restricted epitopes from pathogenderived proteins. More recent evidence has suggested that binding motifs for MHC class I may be more complex than these simple motifs would suggest (Chen et al. 1994). In particular, the importance placed on 'anchor' residues is reliant on observations of an enrichment for one or a few related amino acids at certain positions. More subtle trends such as small preferences for amino acids or dominant negative effects of some amino acids at some positions may be missed by these methods. Motifs for MHC class II molecules have tended to be somewhat less specific than for MHC class I. In part this arises from the variable Nterminal extensions of the naturally processed peptides, which has hampered alignment studies of individual peptides and reduces the usefulness of pool sequencing (Chicz et al. 1992; Falk et al. 1994). The ability of class II molecules to exchange peptides has permitted the extensive use of binding assays (O'Sullivan et al. 1991) and even phage display libraries (Hammer et al. 1992). However, the use of multiple methods for motif determination has complicated interpretation of class II motifs. HLA-DR1 has been analyzed using pool sequencing (Falk et al. 1994) and individual peptide sequencing (Chicz et al. 1992) of eluted peptides, peptide binding (O'Sullivan et al. 1991), and phage display (Hammer et al. 1992), and the results of these have not always been consistent.

Two groups have recently described a method for analyzing the relative contributions of each amino acid at each position of peptides binding to MHC class II (Reay et al. 1994; Hammer et al. 1994b). Using peptides substituted

with each amino acid at each position they were able to construct a hierarchy of peptide binding for each position. A computer algorithm was then used to score regions of a protein for their predicted binding ability. However, the use of peptide binding assays to derive the data used for epitope prediction in these systems raises some potential problems. On a purely practical level, large numbers of synthetic peptides and relatively large amounts of purified MHC are required for the binding assays. Moreover, these studies measure the ability of a peptide to bind in vitro. They cannot directly address whether this peptide will be presented in vivo for the following reasons: 1) this method can only address the question of binding and not processing, despite evidence that endogenous peptides seem to have a strong preference for some amino acids at positions thought to be outside the binding groove (most notably proline at position 2; Falk et al. 1994); 2) binding is performed in vitro in artificial solutions in which the MHC-peptide interactions may differ from those in vivo. In particular, pH may have unpredictable and inconsistent effects on the binding of different peptides (Sette et al. 1992); 3) only equilibrium binding is measured in these competition assays, therefore the ability of peptides to form long-lived stable complexes with MHC and remain on the cell surface for extended periods at neutral pH is not able to be assessed; 4) only 9 amino acid positions were analyzed, despite evidence that the MHC molecule may interact with more residues than this (Stern et al. 1994).

The method we used utilizes information concerning what is naturally bound to the MHC class II molecule. Thus it reflects what has been naturally processed, bound to MHC class II in the appropriate compartment, and exists as a stable complex on the cell surface. This method is purely empirical and does not rely on theoretical concepts of what should bind or the conditions under which binding may occur. Thus, for example, the presence of proline at

position 2 receives a score of approximately 3 in each of our matrices, reflecting the natural abundance of proline at this position without requiring any assumptions as to why this occurs. In addition, whereas others have insisted on the necessity for a fixed spacing of putative MHC anchor residues (Hammer et al. 1994a), our method does not rely on this feature.

The *HLA-DR13* alleles analyzed have been associated with protection from chronic hepatitis B virus infection (Thursz et al. 1995) and from cervical cancer associated with human papilloma-virus infection (Apple et al. 1994). In addition, *DRBl*1302* but not *DRBl*1301* has been associated with protection from severe malaria in studies in West Africa (Hill et al. 1991). We are currently using this program to predict candidate epitopes from known hepatitis B virus and *Plasmodium falciparum* proteins. We believe this method should be easily generalizable for use with other MHC class II alleles and will be useful in identifying T-cell epitopes for these alleles without requiring the synthesis of large numbers of synthetic peptides. For example, if the top 1% of peptides were synthesized this would lead to the identification of peptides which are naturally processed and presented in approximately 75% (9/12) of the cases we observed. This methodology could also easily be applied to MHC class I using similar information from pool sequencing. As in the case for class II, this information would reflect not only MHC binding, but also any possible constraints on processing and transport of peptides for MHC class I. The key to our approach is that it does not rely on any theoretical concepts regarding which residues are important for binding or what is required for processing. Using this method we believe an empirical analysis of data from eluted peptides should lead to more rapid and efficient identification of T-cell epitopes in antigenic proteins.

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