

## Review

# Viral peptide immunogens: current challenges and opportunities

ALI AZIZI<sup>a,b,c</sup> and FRANCISCO DIAZ-MITOMA<sup>a,b,c\*</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Variation Biotechnologies Inc., 22 de Varennes, Suite 210, Gatineau, QC J8T 8R1, Canada

<sup>b</sup> Vaccine Research Centre, Research Institute, Children's Hospital of Eastern Ontario, 401 Smyth, Ottawa, ON, K1H 8L1, Canada

<sup>c</sup> Department of Pathology and Laboratory Medicine, University of Ottawa, Ottawa, ON, K1H 8M2, Canada

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**Abstract:** Synthetic peptide vaccines have potential to control viral infections. Successful experimental models using this approach include the protection of mice against the lethal Sendai virus infection by MHC class I binding CTL peptide epitope. The main benefit of vaccination with peptide epitopes is the ability to minimize the amount and complexity of a well-defined antigen. An appropriate peptide immunogen would also decrease the chance of stimulating a response against self-antigens, thereby providing a safer vaccine by avoiding autoimmunity. In general, the peptide vaccine strategy needs to dissect the specificity of antigen processing, the presence of B- and T-cell epitopes and the MHC restriction of the T-cell responses. This article briefly reviews the implications in the design of peptide vaccines and discusses the various approaches that are applied to improve their immunogenicity. Copyright © 2007 European Peptide Society and John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

**Keywords:** vaccine; immune response; viral infection; peptide epitopes

## INTRODUCTION

Despite the success rate of human vaccines (inactivated or attenuated) to control viral infections such as smallpox, polio, measles and hepatitis B, their effectiveness is limited against hypervariable viruses. The antigens contained in inoculated human vaccines are frequently processed by endosomal proteases and not cytosolic proteasomes. Therefore, antigens are presented via MHC class II and not MHC class I, resulting in a lack of cytotoxic CD8 + T cell immune responses [1–4]. The expression of MHC class II molecules are limited to APCs, while MHC class I molecules are presented on the surface of all nucleated cells. As a result, CD8 + T cells are able to eradicate a variety of infected cells [5–9]. Attenuated viruses such as the Varicella–Zoster OKA strain or the attenuated measles virus are likely to induce immune responses through the MHC class I pathway [10–12]. MHC class I-peptide binding with their capability in the induction of a repertoire specific immune responses initiated a new era in vaccine design. The idea of peptide epitopes was conceived from the scrutiny of hundreds of overlapping synthetic peptides. This analysis revealed that only a small number

of regions in a protein are immunogenic and capable of provoking humoral and cellular immune responses. B cells recognize epitopes exposed on the surface of antigens, while T cells distinguish specific amino acid sequences that are first recognized by MHC class I and II molecules on the surface of APCs [13–15]. Over the past few years, the specific T- and B-cell epitopes have been characterized in tumor and viral antigens, which has advanced the design and testing of peptide vaccines in animal models. However, only a limited number of these vaccine candidates moved to human clinical trials. Although peptide vaccines are considered generally safe, they suffer from low immunogenicity. This article briefly reviews the current trends and challenges in the design of peptide epitopes and discusses the various approaches that are applied to improve peptide immunogenicity.

## PITFALLS IN DEVELOPMENT OF PEPTIDE IMMUNOGENS

Synthesis of peptides for use in vaccines requires an understanding of T- and B-cell immunodominant epitopes in the protein structure and their interaction with MHC or HLA complexes [16–19]. Previous experiments indicate that only a small number of predicted peptides are able to bind to MHC motifs with a high affinity but even these epitopes do not necessarily induce protective immunity [20–22]. On the other hand, induction of the

Abbreviations: DCs: dendritic cells; APCs: antigen presenting cells; CTL: cytotoxic T lymphocyte; Th: T helper; TCR: T-cell receptor; MHC: major histocompatibility complex; HLA: human leukocyte antigen; HCV: hepatitis C; CM: central memory; EM: effector memory; TLR: toll-like receptor; ER: endoplasmic reticulum; Nabs: neutralizing antibodies.

\* Correspondence to: Francisco Diaz-Mitoma, Vaccine Research Centre, Research Institute, Children's Hospital of Eastern Ontario, 401 Smyth, Ottawa, ON, K1H 8L1, Canada; e-mail: diaz@cheo.on.ca

## BIOGRAPHIES

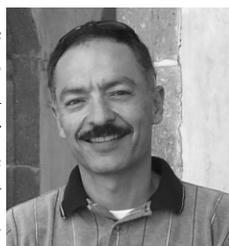
### Ali Azizi – Biography

Ali Azizi received his Ph.D. in Immunology from the University of Ottawa. After a postdoctoral fellowship at the National Research Council of Canada, he advanced his career by working as a Research Scientist in the Variation Biotechnologies Inc. Recently, he was appointed as a Research Investigator and an Adjunct Professor at the Children's Hospital of Eastern Ontario and the Department of Pathology and Laboratory Medicine at the University of Ottawa, respectively. Ali has been focusing his research on the induction of protective immunity against hypervariable viruses such as HIV-1, hepatitis C and influenza.



### Francisco Diaz-Mitoma – Biography

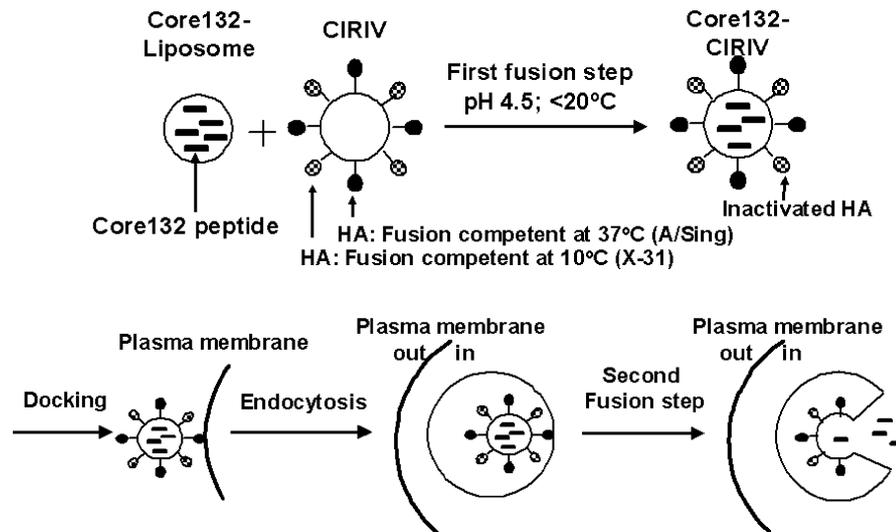
Francisco Diaz-Mitoma has served as an infectious disease and clinical virology consultant for the Ottawa Hospital and the Children's Hospital of Eastern Ontario and is a member of the American Society for Microbiology; Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, University of Ottawa; and a Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians and Surgeons of Canada. He holds numerous externally funded, peer-reviewed grants, industry grants and contracts. His main areas of research include antivirals and diagnosis of viral infections, pathogenesis of Hepatitis C and HIV and the development of vaccines for these viral infections. His research work has been published in more than 100 peer-reviewed international journals. Francisco is also a founder of the Herridge Health Research Center which conducts clinical trials for the pharmaceutical industry in collaboration with major North American academic centers. Repeat clients have included Merck, GSK and Chiron.



protective immune response depends on more essential factors that can ultimately affect the immunogenicity of peptides. For example, T-cell immune responses may not be generated due to immunoregulatory phenomena, deficiency in transportation of peptides to the ER, thymic deletion or peripheral tolerance [23,24]. In the past few years, several algorithms to epitope mapping have been developed; however, the epitopes of

many viral antigens are still unknown. The immunodominance hierarchies that exist in human antiviral responses by peptides are more immunodemocratic and less predictable compared to mouse models. However, most viral epitopes have been described on the basis of mouse studies. For instance, while many mouse B-cell epitopes are known, there is only one known human B-cell epitope for influenza A [25]. It has been shown that less than 1% of predicted peptides are able to bind with high affinity to a given MHC class I, form a stable complex and activate naïve CD8 T cells [26,27]. The representation of MHC diversity and TCR variability are also obdurate tasks in peptide vaccine design. HLA have a very polymorphic structure even within the same animal species and therefore the level of T-cell responses to peptides could be highly variable between individuals [28–30]. More than 100 MHC variants have been identified in humans, and therefore selecting peptides with MHC-binding specificities is a complicated issue in the designing of peptide vaccines [31,32]. Computational algorithms such as EpiMatrix, ClusiMer (EpiVax) and Epicover predict the MHC-binding potential of peptides to the number of various HLA molecules; but these approaches need improvement [33–35].

Heterogeneity among viruses such as HIV-1 and HCV circulating throughout the world poses a significant challenge to vaccine development [36–38]. For instance, HIV-1 has eight subtypes, with a high degree of diversity within each subtype [39]. In addition, recombinant hybrid subtypes have emerged recently in regions where HIV has high endemicity. Thus, multiple variants of HIV-1 are usually encountered even within the HIV viruses infecting an individual. The epitope sequence differences between viral strains pose an interesting challenge for vaccine development. This dilemma may be partially solved by utilizing multiple epitopes corresponding to diverse HLA types in each population [40,41]. This strategy may be desirable to thwart viral variants existing at the population level. The other major drawback in the design of peptide vaccines is the swift degradation by extracellular proteases present on the surface of DCs. The endo- and exo-peptidases incise peptide epitopes, resulting in a decreased presentation of the correct epitopes to MHC molecules [42–44]. To overcome the proteolytic effects of proteases, peptides may be encapsulated into chimeric unilamellar vesicles such as liposomes, virus-like particles, virosomes or particles made of biomaterials. These hollow structures may be fusogenic and deliver encapsulated peptide immunogens to APCs without any degradation. In an interesting study by Amacker *et al.*, a strong anti-HCV CTL response was detected in HLA-A2.1 mice that received the HCV-core peptide incorporated into influenza virosomes compared to mice immunized with peptide alone (Figure 1) [45].



**Figure 1** Schematic representation of the preparation of chimeric virosomes containing the Core132 peptide with the two fusion steps. In a first fusion step, chimeric virosomes with HA from the A/Sing and the X-31 strains were fused with homogenized liposomes of a diameter of 200 nm containing the Core132 peptide inside the particle. Fusion takes place at a pH  $\sim$ 4.5 and at a temperature  $< 20^\circ\text{C}$  and is mediated by the HA derived from X-31. The resulting, neutralized fusion products were used for vaccination of mice. After receptor-mediated endocytosis, a second fusion step triggered by the low pH within endosomes and mediated by A/Sing HA takes place, releasing the Core132 peptide into the cytosol [45].

There are also some manufacturing and chemistry issues that need to be addressed before a peptide vaccine formulation is taken to clinical testing. Although peptide vaccines may be more stable than other vaccine approaches, the existence of cysteine residues at the end of peptide chains could cause dimerization in the presence of oxygen, changes in the peptide conformation and a decrease in the stability in the peptides [46]. Peptide aggregation or insolubility at physiologic pH range may also represent difficulties in peptide vaccine formulation.

## DECISIVE APPRAISALS IN CELLULAR IMMUNITY

The induction of long-lived specific cellular and humoral immune responses is a critical aspect in the development of an effective vaccine [47–50]. The role of neutralizing antibodies (Nabs) in control of hypervariable viruses like HIV or HCV is not deniable, but to date, only a limited number of antibodies with neutralization capabilities have been identified [51–54]. Predicaments in the induction of Nabs against diverse virus variants have encouraged scientists to focus on cell-mediated immune responses [55,56]. CD8 + T cells are frequently referred to as cytotoxic T lymphocytes (CTLs), which recognize and destroy infected cells by different mechanisms, including perforin-mediated killing as well as secreting antiviral cytokines. CD4 + T cells are referred to as the helper cells (Th) and secrete cytokines, which provide support for the generation and preservation of CD8 + T cells and B cells. T cells recognize epitopes derived from viral proteins that are

presented by the MHC antigens. CD4 + T cells recognize endosome-derived antigens on MHC class II molecules, and CD8 + T cells recognize peptides in association with MHC class I, which usually present antigens derived from the cytosolic compartment [57–59].

Central memory (CM) and effector memory (EM) T cells are recognized as two main populations of memory T cells. In particular, CM T cells express CD28, CD95, CCR7 and L-selectin which home in the lymph nodes, whereas EM T cells do not express CD28 or CCR7 and home in on the peripheral tissues [60–63]. The generation of memory T cells is not clear; however, the type and potency of antigens may have influences in the quantity and differentiation of memory T cells [64].

The antigenic variation, lack of immune correlates of protection and scarcity of animal models has thwarted vaccine development in hypervariable viruses [65–67]. In an impressive study, Jones *et al.* showed the presence of a high frequency of CD8 + T cells in HIV-resistant prostitutes in Nairobi [68]. These results concluded that CD8 + T cell function is inversely correlated with HIV-1 viral load and may be associated with protection from this disease [69–72]. The question arises whether a peptide-based vaccine is able to provoke broad cellular immunity against hypervariable viral variants. Several studies have been performed on conserved epitopes of HIV-1 but only a limited breadth of reactivity was raised against HIV-1 variants [73–76]. It may be that not all CD8 + T cells are identical in terms of their ability to eliminate virus-infected cells. Essential factors such as avidity between TCR-MHC and peptide, frequency of effective CTL activity and vigor constraints on the epitope region play crucial

roles in cellular immunity [77,78]. One of the most important, yet least studied, areas in peptide-based vaccines are the hypervariable regions of viruses such as HIV-1. These regions, unlike the conserved domains, contain immunogenic regions encompassing decisive B- and T-cell epitopes, which are under constant selective pressure. Although the highly variable HIV regions allow the virus to escape from the immune response, targeting the immunodominant multiple epitopes in the hypervariable regions may prove to be more effective in the induction of immunity with greater depth compared to the vaccines targeting conserved regions [79–81]. While some amino acid positions within an epitope are quite variable, limits exist in their variation. For example, five or fewer amino acids comprise the majority of amino acids present at any given variable position, and there is little evidence for the presence of all 20 amino acids at any single position within an epitope [82].

### MODIFICATION OF PEPTIDE EPITOPES TO ENHANCE IMMUNOGENICITY

Over the past decade, tremendous progress has been made in the understanding of T-cell immunodominant epitopes and their interaction with MHC molecules [83–86]. However, many questions pertaining to bear on the feasibility of designing an effective peptide immunogen still remain unclear, including characterization of appropriate epitopes in eliciting a broad, specific immune response. To increase the immunogenicity of peptide epitopes, a number of parameters could be considered. Previous experiences show that the existence of spacer sequences between individual epitopes might enhance immune response on the specific epitopes. Velders *et al.* showed that addition of the AAY spacer sequence between human papillomavirus (HPV) epitopes was critical in the induction of protective immunity [87]. Some programs such as EpiSort have been developed that are able to optimize spacer sequences between two epitopes [88]. Previous studies showed that the presence of costimulatory molecules and APC signals mediated via CD28 is vital for T-cell activation [89–91]. The choice of cytokines and chemokines to peptide immunogens could activate innate immunity and increase costimulatory molecules on the surface of T cells [92–94].

It has been shown that adjuvants play an important role in designing an effective peptide vaccine candidate. Adjuvants increase the breadth and depth of the immune response of weakly immunogenic peptides [95–100]. Many different types of adjuvants such as lipidation of peptides, MPL, cholera toxin and Freund's incomplete have been used in peptide vaccine studies [101–103]. The oil-based adjuvants such as Montanide and TiterMax have recently been studied

in phase I and II human clinical trials and showed an increase in the half-life of peptide immunogens at the site of immunization [104–106]. However, one of the struggles is the paucity of adjuvants for human use. So far, the only FDA-approved adjuvants are alum and monophosphoryl lipid A (MPL). However, alum is not able to activate APCs such as DCs and consequently induce a low amount of IL-12 [107,108]. Furthermore, alum may aggregate with a range of peptide immunogens, which could change epitope conformation [109–111]. MPL is a TLR-4 agonist and has been used in several vaccine studies, but its efficacy in combination with viral peptide immunogens has not been studied in clinical trials [112,113]. Encapsulation of the peptide immunogens by polymer microspheres is another approach to increase the immunogenicity of peptides. With this approach, antigens are released slowly and antigen encapsulation may promote phagocytosis. The slow release of antigen by microspheres averts the need for a vaccination boost [114–116].

One interesting strategy to promote cell-mediated immune response is by targeting the epitope immunogens to the proteasome of APCs. Ubiquitination of proteins lead target proteins to the proteasomes and therefore augment the proteolytic degradation of the epitopes inside the host cells [117,118]. Likewise, targeting the epitopes with the same strategy may boost cellular immunity. Previous studies showed that ligation of lysosome-associated membrane proteins (LAMPs) to epitopes can pilot them to lysosomes and increase presentation of MHC II molecules [119].

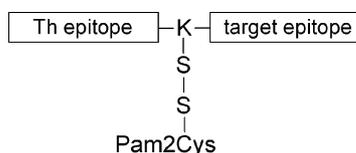
Most MHC class I molecules on the surface of APCs express inconsistent antigens and only a limited number of these molecules are accessible [120–123]. Therefore, binding between short peptide epitopes and MHC molecules on the surface of APCs happens infrequently. These peptides occasionally bind to MHC molecules on the surface of nonprofessional antigens, which leads to tolerance and immune response down regulation [124,125]. Vice versa, longer peptide immunogens enter DCs, and get internalized into phagosomes and transferred into the cytosol where they pursue the classical endogenous MHC class I pathway [126]. Alternatively, immunogenicity of short peptides could be increased by chemical conjugation to a carrier protein such as the keyhole limpet haemocyanin (KLH) [127]. Furthermore, previous experiences point out that small peptides (9–11mer) are more sensitive to enzymes compared to long peptides. Thus, small peptides may be truncated non-naturally and form cryptic epitopes, resulting in immunodominant irregular epitopes that are not recognized by specific T cells [128–130]. Progress in the manufacture of longer synthetic peptides may increase the immunogenicity of peptide vaccines. For instance, Lopez *et al.* demonstrated an increase in the frequency of specific CTLs by a 102mer

malaria polypeptide representing the C-terminal region of the circumsporozoite (CS) protein of plasmodium [131].

One option to enhance immune response and induce protection by peptide immunogens against viral infections is the fusion between Th and CTL or B-cell epitopes. In fact, the appearance of Th/CTL or Th/B peptide epitopes on a single APC is more competent than two epitopes on diverse APCs, which may happen with injection of multiple peptides [132]. This could be due to upregulation of CD40L on the surface of Th cells, which subsequently augment the production of IL-12 by APCs [133,134]. This phenomenon skews Th cells toward a Th1 bias, which leads to stimulation of CTL responses. Linkage between Th and CTL epitopes and extension in the length of the peptide may be another vindication in the context of protective immunity.

Using the lipidated form of peptide immunogens is another scheme in the improvement of immunogenicity. The presences of lipidated peptide variants serve to elicit both humoral and cellular immune responses [135,136]. Langhans *et al.* showed that HCV lipidated peptides are more immunogenic than nonlipidated peptides and can initiate specific HCV humoral immune responses from HCV-naïve blood donors. [137] Jackson *et al.* has shown that the lipid moiety present on the peptides prolongs the duration of antigen presentation, enhances cytosolic uptake of peptide immunogens, activates innate immunity due to TLR2 recognition and differentiates nonactivated B cells into immunoglobulin-secreting plasma cells [138]. They found that a synthetic peptide vaccine composed of a Th epitope, target epitope (CTL or B-cell epitope) plus a lipid moiety (Pam2Cys) could increase adaptive immune responses compared to other peptide vaccines (Figure 2).

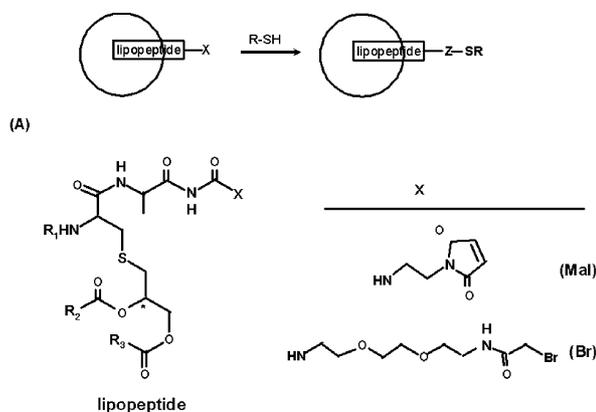
These studies indicated that the lipid moiety in peptide epitopes is a crucial issue in the design of peptide vaccines. In an interesting study, Espuelas *et al.* studied the characterization of different lipopeptide analogs incorporated into liposomes on the maturation



**Figure 2** Schematic representation of the epitope-based vaccine candidates examined during this study. Each vaccine contains a Th epitope and a target epitope that is either a CTL-inducing epitope or an antibody-inducing epitope. In all cases, the Th epitope occupies the N-terminal position and is separated from the target epitope by a single lysine (K) residue. Where the lipid is attached, this was done through the  $\epsilon$ -amino group of the lysine residue such that the self-adjuvant lipid, linked through two serine residues (S), forms a branch between the Th and target epitopes [138].

of human DCs (Figure 3). They found that slight modifications in the peptide moiety of lipopeptides have an immense impact on upregulation of cell-surface markers such as CD80, CD83, CD86 and HLA-DR on the surface of human DCs [139]. The presentation of peptide immunogens to DCs and the processing of epitopes via the endosomal compartment play a crucial role in the activation of antiviral immunity [140,141].

The dose and route of peptide immunogens play an important role in the maturity of the immune response. A few studies compared different routes of administration but dosage, volume and nature of immunogen, and choice of adjuvants varied in each study. In one study, Johansen *et al.* showed that intralymphatic administration of a peptide epitope from lymphocytic choriomeningitis virus augments the frequency of CD8 + T cells compared to subcutaneous and intradermal vaccination [142]. A number of studies also have been performed on peptide dosages but drawing a clear conclusion from these studies is complicated. A few studies show that high peptide concentration could change the direction of immune



Compound	Abbreviation	R <sub>1</sub>	R <sub>2</sub>	R <sub>3</sub>	X
1	Pam <sub>3</sub> CAG	C <sub>16</sub> H <sub>31</sub> CO	C <sub>16</sub> H <sub>31</sub>	C <sub>16</sub> H <sub>31</sub>	OH
2	Pam <sub>3</sub> CAG - Mal	C <sub>16</sub> H <sub>31</sub> CO	C <sub>16</sub> H <sub>31</sub>	C <sub>16</sub> H <sub>31</sub>	Mal
3	Pam <sub>2</sub> CAG-Mal	H	C <sub>16</sub> H <sub>31</sub>	C <sub>16</sub> H <sub>31</sub>	Mal
4	Ol <sub>3</sub> CAG-Mal	Z-C <sub>17</sub> H <sub>33</sub> .CO	Z-C <sub>17</sub> H <sub>33</sub>	Z-C <sub>17</sub> H <sub>33</sub>	Mal
5	Ol <sub>3</sub> CAG-Br	Z-C <sub>17</sub> H <sub>33</sub> .CO	Z-C <sub>17</sub> H <sub>33</sub>	Z-C <sub>17</sub> H <sub>33</sub>	Br

(B)

**Figure 3** (A) Liposomal formulation of functionalized di- or triacylated lipopeptides. Preformed liposomes (SUV) composed of PC/PG/Chol (75/20/50 molar ratio) containing lipopeptides (5 mol%) functionalized with thiol-reactive groups (X: maleimide or bromoacetyl) (**2–5**) were reacted with 2-mercaptoethanol or coupled to HA 307-319-C peptide (R-SH). These constructs were then tested for their capacity to stimulate DC maturation. (B) Structure of the synthetic lipopeptides used in this work. Pam: palmitoyl chain; Ol: oleoyl chain (contains a Z-unsaturation at position 9, 10). The nonfunctionalized lipopeptide Pam<sub>3</sub>CAG (compound **1**) is terminated by a carboxylic group (X = OH); compound **3** was synthesized with the R-configuration at position 2 of the glycerol chain (marked with a star), the triacylated lipopeptides were racemates [139].

response into T-cell tolerance. It appeared that the administration of peptides with higher concentrations was less effective than lower doses [143,144].

## CONCLUDING REMARKS

In creating the next generation of vaccines against hypervariable viruses, we must learn from our past experiences, rather than ignore them. Viruses including influenza, HIV-1 and HCV, have the ability to mutate and avoid the specific immunity directed against them. Genetic variation of these viruses result from transcription errors, rearrangement or recombination which may negate the efficacy of existing vaccines [145–147]. One of the problems facing traditional vaccines is the lack of a broad cell-mediated immune response against variable pathogens [148–151]. Humoral immunity may prevent infection; however, induction of cell-mediated immune responses with a large repertoire of immune specificities has emerged as an essential characteristic for the clearance or control of viral infections such as HCV and HIV [152–155]. The risk of reversion to the wild-type phenotype is another risk factor with attenuated viral vaccines [156,157]. A number of approaches have been developed as an alternative for traditional vaccines. One of the promising technologies in the induction of broad and potent antiviral CD8 + T cell responses is based on the binding between synthetic peptide epitopes and MHC molecules. The peptide immunogens also offer several advantages such as simple antigenic composition, low cost, control of production at scale, absence of risk of reversion to the wild-type form and better stability compared to other vaccine technologies [64,158,160–162]. Advances in the design of synthetic peptide can be applied to increase the breadth and magnitude of immune responses, including increased peptide length, incorporation into microspheres or vesicles, inclusion of more potent adjuvants in peptide vaccine formulation, ubiquitination and fusion between immunodominant epitopes and lipidated moieties. Over the past decade, peptide immunogens have been directed against various viral infections to evaluate relevant specific immune responses. Although some studies demonstrate a strong immunogenicity with both breadth (humoral and cellular immunity) and depth against hypervariable viruses, most of these studies have been directed in animal models and only a limited number of them have moved to human clinical trials. The results in animal models may not be always predictive of human clinical utility. Future studies may elucidate whether synthetic peptide vaccines are able to protect against infectious diseases that have a major public health impact.

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