# Immunodominance

The Choice of the Immune System

Edited by Jeffrey A. Frelinger



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#### Cover

Shifts in repertoire and immunodominance following primary and secondary exposures to antigen. For further details see Figure 6.6 on page XXII. All books published by Wiley-VCH are carefully produced. Nevertheless, authors, editors, and publisher do not warrant the information contained in these books, including this book, to be free of errors. Readers are advised to keep in mind that statements, data, illustrations, procedural details or other items may inadvertently be inaccurate.

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#### Contents

Preface XIII

List of Contributors XV

Color Plates XIX

I Mechanics of Antigen Processing 1

#### 1 Class I MHC Antigen Processing 3 Peter J. Miller and Edward J. Collins

- 1.1 Introduction 3
- 1.2 Properties of MHC 3
- 1.2.1 Structure of MHC 3
- 1.2.2 Polymorphic Residues Generate Specificity Pockets 5

٧

- 1.3 Properties of Peptides 6
- 1.3.1 Peptides That Bind Are Not Random Sequences 6
- 1.3.2 Peptide-binding Motifs 6
- 1.3.3 Peptide Length Is Limited in Class I MHC Peptides 7
- 1.3.4 Binding Affinity 7
- 1.3.5 Molecular Recognition 9
- 1.3.6 Epitope Prediction 9
- 1.4 Cytosolic Processing 10
- 1.4.1 The Proteasome 10
- 1.4.2 The Immunoproteasome 12
- 1.4.3 Opening the Immunoproteasome 13
- 1.4.4 Peptide Trimming 14
- 1.4.5 Association of the Proteasome with the Endoplasmic Reticulum 15
- 1.5 Peptide Transport 15
- 1.5.1 Transport via TAP 16
- 1.5.2 TAP Selectivity 16
- 1.5.3 TAP-independent Peptide Transport 17

- Contents
  - Endogenous Peptides 17 1.5.3.1
  - 1.5.3.2 Exogenous Peptides 18
  - Class I MHC Maturation and Peptide Loading 19 1.6
  - ER Chaperones: Calnexin, Calreticulin, ERp57, and Tapasin 19 1.6.1
  - 1.6.1.1 Calnexin 19
  - 1.6.1.2 Tapasin 19
  - 1.6.1.3 ERp57 21
  - 1.6.1.4 Calreticulin 21
  - 1.6.2 Peptide Loading 21
  - 1.7 Immunodominance and Class I MHC Peptide Processing 22

#### 2 The Mechanics of Class II Processing: Establishment of a Peptide Class II Hierarchy 31 James R. Drake and Andrea J. Sant

- 2.1 General Overview 31
- 2.1.1 Immunodominance and Crypticity 31
- 2.1.2 The Impact of T-Cell Repertoire in the Experimental Analysis of Immunodominance 33
- 2.1.3 Different Antigen-presenting Cells Have Different Functions 34
- 2.1.4 The Phases of Antigen Processing 35
- 2.2 Phase I: MHC Class II Biosynthesis and Delivery to Peptide-loading Compartments 36
- 2.2.1 Invariant Chain Isoforms 36
- 2.2.2 Effects of Cell Signaling on MHC Class II Transport 37
- 2.3 Phase II: Antigen Internalization and Processing 38
- 2.3.1 BCR-mediated Antigen Internalization 39
- 2.3.2 Dendritic Cells and Macrophages 40
- 2.4 Phase III: Formation and Expression of Antigenic Peptide by MHC Class II Molecules 41
- 2.4.1 Proteolytic Antigen Processing 41
- 2.4.2 Class II Peptide Loading 43
- 2.4.2.1 DM 44
- 2.4.2.2 DO 45
- 2.4.2.3 DO-, DM-, and BCR-Mediated Antigen Processing 46
- 2.4.2.4 The Distribution of MHC Class II and Other Proteins Within MIIC 46
- 2.4.3 Cell-surface Delivery of Peptide-Class II Complexes 47
- Exosomes 2.4.3.1 48
- 2.4.3.2 Signaling Properties of Peptide–Class II Complexes 49
- 2.5 Conclusions 50 Acknowledgments 50

- 3 The Phenomenon of Immunodomination: Speculations on the Nature of Immunodominance 57 Alessandro Sette and Roshni Sundaram
- 3.1 Introduction 57
- 3.2 MHC Binding, Cellular Processing, and T-Cell Repertoire are Major Determinants of Immunodominance 58
- 3.3 Previous Systematic Analysis of Immunodominance by Our Group 59
- 3.4 Cellular and Molecular Events in Immunodomination 62
- 3.5 Speculations on the Mechanism of Immunodomination 63
- 3.5.1 Involvement of APCs 63
- 3.5.2 Possible Involvement of the Immune Synapse in Immunodomination 65
- 3.5.3 The Potential Role of MTOC in Immunodomination 67
- 3.6 Significance of Studying Immunodominance for Vaccine Development 67
- 3.7 Conclusions 68

#### II Proteosome Specificity and Immuno-Proteosomes 73

- 4 Endogenous Antigen Processing 75 Jonathan W. Yewdell
- 4.1 Unbottling the Genie 75
- 4.2 DRiPs to the Rescue 76
- 4.3 The Ubiquitin–Proteasome Pathway 77
- 4.4 Pressing TDH Questions 80
- 4.4.1 Answer to Question 1 80
- 4.4.2 The Real World 81
- 4.4.3 Answer to Question 2 82
- 4.5 What Does This Have to Do With Immunodominance? 84

#### III Effect of the T Cell Repertoire on Dominance 89

- 5 **Regulation of Early T-Cell Development in the Thymus** 91 Thomas M. Schmitt and Juan Carlos Zúñiga-Pflücker
- 5.1 Introduction 91
- 5.2 T-Cell Development in the Thymus 92
- 5.2.1 Early T-Cell Progenitors 95
- 5.2.2 Thymocyte Migration 96
- 5.2.3 Factors Regulating T-cell Development 97
- 5.2.4 Notch and T-cell Development 98

- Contents
  - 5.3 In Vitro T-cell Development 100
  - 5.4 Concluding Remarks 101
  - CD8 T-cell Immunodominance, Repertoire, and Memory 109 6 Dalia E. Gaddis, Michael J. Fuller, and Allan J. Zajac
  - 6.1 Introduction 109
  - 6.2 CD8 T-Cell Responses and Memory 111
  - 6.3 Analyzing the Memory Repertoire 114
  - 6.4 Immunodominance 116
  - Antigen-related Factors 117 6.4.1
  - 6.4.2 T Cell–related Factors 119
  - 6.5 Epitope-dependent Skewing of the Repertoire During Primary, Memory, and Recall Responses 120
  - 6.6 Heterologous Infections and Immunodominance 125
  - Chronic Infections and T-cell Heterogeneity 6.7 127
  - Repertoire Limitation and Immunodominance 131 6.8
  - 6.9 Impact of Epitope Variation 133
  - 6.10 Concluding Remarks 135
  - IV Effects of Pathogens on the Immune Response 147
  - 7 Listeria monocytogenes Infection and the CD8<sup>+</sup> T-Cell Hierarchy 149 Brandon B. Porter and John T. Harty
  - 7.1 Introduction 149
  - 7.2 Innate Immune Response to LM 150
  - Adaptive Immune Response to LM and Ag Presentation 7.3 151
  - 7.4 Secreted Versus Non-secreted Ag 152
  - The Hierarchy of the CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell Responses to LM Epitopes 7.5 153
  - 7.6 IFN- $\gamma$  and the CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell Hierarchy 156
  - Timing of Ag Presentation and the CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell response 158 7.7
  - Conclusions 160 7.8 Acknowledgments 161

#### 8 Immunodominance in Tuberculosis 163

David M. Lewinsohn and JoAnne L. Flynn

- 8.1 Immune Responses to *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* 163
- 8.2 B Cells 164
- CD4 T Cells 8.3 164
- 8.4 CD8 T Cells 165
- 8.5 Antigen Processing and Presentation of Mtb Antigens 166
- 8.6 How Does Infection with Mtb Differ from Other Acute or Chronic Infections? 168

VIII

- 8.7 Immunodominance in the CD4 T-cell Response 169
- 8.7.1 Human 169
- 8.7.2 Mouse 170
- 8.8 Immunodominance in the CD8 T-cell Response 171
- 8.8.1 Human 171
- 8.8.2 Mouse 174
- 8.9 Non-classically Restricted T Cells in TB 176
- 8.10 Conclusions and Implications for Future Research 177 Acknowledgments 178
- **9 T-Cell Specificity and Respiratory Virus Infections** 189 Sherry R. Crowe and David L. Woodland
- 9.1 Introduction 189
- 9.2 Primary Immune Responses to Respiratory Virus Infections 190
- 9.3 Specificity of the Primary Immune Response 191
- 9.4 T-Cell Memory to Respiratory Virus Infections 195
- 9.5 The Specificity of Memory T Cells 197
- 9.6 Recall Responses to Secondary Infections 198
- 9.7 Immunodominance Patterns in Recall Responses 199
- 9.8 Modification of Immunodominance Hierarchies by Vaccination 201
- 9.9 Conclusions 202 Acknowledgments 203
- 10 Effects of Pathogens on the Immune Response: HIV 209 Masafumi Takiguchi
- 10.1 Introduction 209
- 10.2 Identification of HIV-1 CTL Epitopes 211
- 10.2.1 Identification of HIV-1 CTL Epitopes by a Strategy Using Overlapping Peptides *212*
- 10.2.2 Identification of HIV-1 CTL Epitopes by the Strategy of Reverse Immunogenetics 215
- 10.3 Immunodominant HIV-1 Epitopes Presented by HLA Alleles Associated With Slow Progression to AIDS and Their Escape Mutants 216
- 10.3.1 HLA-B\*57-restricted Immunodominant Epitopes and Their Escape Mutants 216
- 10.3.2 HLA-B\*27-restricted Immunodominant Epitopes 218
- 10.3.3 HLA-B\*51-restricted Immunodominant Epitopes 218
- 10.4 Immunodominant HIV-1 Epitopes Presented by HLA Alleles Associated With Rapid Progression to AIDS 219
- 10.5 Immunodominant HIV-1 Epitopes Presented by Other HLA Alleles 219
- 10.5.1 HLA-A\*02-restricted Immunodominant Epitopes 219
- 10.5.2 HLA-B\*08-restricted Immunodominant Epitopes 220

X Contents

10.6	Escape Mutations and Viral Fitness 220
10.7	Effect of Net-mediated HLA Class I Downregulation
	On Recognition of HIV-I-Infected CD4 I Cells by
10.8	Skewed Maturation of HIV-1-specific $CD8^+$ T Cells 224
11	The Effects of Pathogens on the Immune System:Viral Hepatitis233Mala Maini and Antonio Bertoletti
11 1	Introduction 233
11.1	The Viruses and the Disease 233
11.2.1	Genomic Organization 233
11.2.2	Prevalence 233
11.2.3	Hepatic Disease and Chronicity After Infection 235
11.3	Importance of CD4 and CD8 T Cells in HBV and HCV Control 235
11.4	Limitations of Existing Data 236
11.4.1	Low Frequency of HBV- and HCV-specific T Cells 237
11.4.2	Pre-selection of Epitopes 237
11.4.3	Stage of Infection 238
11.4.4	Variations in Viral Inoculum 238
11.5	Hierarchy of T-cell Responses During HBV Infection: Helper CD4 T-cell
	Response 238
11.6	Hierarchy of T-cell Responses During HBV Infection: Cytotoxic T-cell
	Response 240
11.7	Hierarchy of HCV Proteins 243
11.8	Hierarchy of HCV Epitopes 244
11.9	Immunodominance and Liver Pathology 248
11.10	Concluding Remarks 249
12	Immunodominance in the T-Cell Response to Herpesviruses 255 Michael W. Munks and Ann B. Hill
12.1	Introduction 255
12.2	General Considerations 256
12.2.1	Herpesviruses: A Brief Virological Primer 256
12.2.2	A General Framework for Thinking About Immunodominance in the T-Cell Response to Herpesvirus Infections 258
12.3	Immunodominance in the CD8 T-Cell Response to the Three Classes of Herpesvirus 260
12.3.1	Alphaherpesviruses 260
12.3.1.1	Human Studies: Immunodominance of Structural
	Virion Proteins that can be Presented in the Face of Immune
	Evasion 260
12.3.1.2	Mouse Studies of HSV 261
12.3.1.3	The Remarkable Immunodominance of gB-SSIEFARL in B6 Mice 262

- 12.3.2 Betaherpesviruses 263
- 12.3.2.1 The Acute CD8 T-Cell Response to MCMV 263
- 12.3.2.2 The Memory CD8 T-Cell Response to MCMV Becomes More Focused Over Time 264
- 12.3.2.3 The Impact of Interference With Antigen Presentation by MCMV's Viprs on the CD8 T-Cell Response 265
- 12.3.2.4 The Memory T-Cell Response to HCMV 267
- 12.3.2.5 Increasing Size and Oligoclonality of the CD8 T-cell Response to HCMV With Age 268
- 12.3.2.6 What Accounts for Memory "Inflation" and TCR V $\beta$  Focusing? 268
- 12.3.3 HCMV and Immunosenescence 271
- 12.3.4 T-Cell Cross-reactivity Between Betaherpesviruses 272
- 12.3.5 Gammaherpresviruses 272
- 12.3.6 Epstein-Barr Virus 273
- 12.3.6.1 Interference with the MHC Class I Pathway by EBV 273
- 12.3.6.2 Overview of the Response to Lytic and Latent Proteins 274
- 12.3.6.3 Immunodominance Hierarchy for the Acute Response to Lytic Cycle Proteins 274
- 12.3.6.4 Kinetics of the Response to Lytic Proteins 276
- 12.3.6.5 Immunodominance Hierarchy of the Response to Latent Proteins 276
- 12.3.6.6 Kinetics of the Response to Latent Proteins 277
- 12.3.6.7 Immunodominance of the LC13 TCR in Responding to HLA-B8/ FLRGRAYGL: An Extreme Example of TCR Immunodominance 278
- 12.4 Concluding Remarks 279

Index 285

### Preface

The normal, intact immune system does not have equal probability of responding to every potential part of a protein. It has been known for more than 50 years that only parts of the protein that are "outside" are available for antibody binding. Yet, with the advent of Western blotting techniques, antibodies that react with the interior of the protein have been routinely produced. Although not all epitopes are equally easy to produce, or are equally protective in infection, nearly any structure can be an antibody epitope.

In contrast to antibodies, T cells must recognize fragments of proteins bound to MHC molecules. In T-cell responses against viruses, very few epitopes are easily identified. In the case of LCMV, the immune response in BALB/c mice uses only a single MHC class I protein: L. K and D are not used at all. This is not because there are no suitable peptides that can bind K and D proteins, as BALB/c mice that lack L make an excellent response to LCMV. Furthermore, only a single peptide from the LCMV genome accounts for more than 90% of the CD8 T cells responding to infection. Because LCMV has a coding size of approximately 3500 amino acids, the immune system fix-ates 9 of 3500 amino acids, or about 0.2% of the coding capacity.

This fixation on a small part of the potential antigenic space is not unique to LCMV in BALB/c mice. Most pathogens in inbred mice show similar immunodominance. Even in response to bacteria, where the pathogen genome size is much larger, dominance is observed. The CD8 T-cell response to Listeria monocytogenes infection is dominated by very few epitopes in both C57Bl/6 and BALB/c mice. With a genome size of almost three million base pairs, the majority of the response is restricted to two or three epitopes. The immune system is choosing only about 0.002% of the coding sequence to recognize.

Why is this so? Clearly, there are many mechanisms at work. In this volume we cover topics including (1) the mechanisms of antigen processing, i.e., how pathogen molecules are converted to molecules that are targets for cell-mediated immunity; (2) binding of processed peptides to MHC molecules, a critical step in their expression on the cell surface; and (3) the role of the pathogen itself in modifying the immune response by interfering with antigen processing and the downstream immune responses.

## XIV Preface

We have not yet completed the puzzle of immunodominance, but the chapters here represent our current understanding of its pieces.

I thank Andreas Sendtko for encouragement and enthusiasm for this book.

Jeffrey A. Frelinger

Chapel Hill, October 2005

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#### **Color Plates**



**Figure 1.3** Production of peptide-loaded class I MHC. Class I MHC heavy chain and  $\beta_2$ m are translocated separately into the ER. Immediately when accessible, Asn86 of the heavy chain is glycosylated, allowing for recognition by the chaperone calnexin. (1) Calnexin also recruits Erp57, which mediates disulfide bond formation in  $\alpha$ 3 and  $\alpha$ 2 of class I heavy chain. (2) Once the heavy chain is folded and the disulfide bond in  $\alpha$ 3 is formed, soluble  $\beta_2$ m binds to class I heavy chain. While the MHC class I molecule is being formed (cycling on and off calnexin), newly translated tapasin associates with calnexin and ERp57, both of which facilitate its folding and disulfide bond formation. Tapasin with calnexin–ERp57 then binds and stabilizes the TAP1/2 dimer. (3) Upon binding of  $\beta_2$ m, calnexin dissociates and is replaced by calreticulin. The class I heavy chain– $\beta_2$ m–calreticulin–ERp57 heterocomplex then associates with the tapasin–TAP– calnexin–ERp57 heterocomplex. ERp57 remains part of the peptide-loading complex (PLC) until peptide has been loaded, but it is not known whether ERp57 comes with tapasin or the class I molecule. (4) The PLC now consists of TAP, tapasin, heavy chain,  $\beta_2$ m,

#### **XX** Color Plates

#### Figure 1.3 (continued)

calreticulin, and ERp57. (5) Proteasomes in the cytosol degrade substrates, generating peptides of varying length. (6) Large proteasomal products can be further cleaved in the cytosol by aminopeptidases such as TPPII. (7) Peptides with affinity for TAP will bind, and ATP-induced conformational changes in TAP will transport it through the ER membrane. (8) ERAP1 performs amino-terminal trimming in the ER. (9) These peptides may go directly into the PLC, or they may be retrotranslocated back into the cytosol through SEC61 and have to enter the ER again via TAP. (10) If the amino acid motif of the peptide matches the class I MHC molecule, it will then bind in the peptide groove, inducing a conformational change that stabilizes peptide binding. ERp57 will mediate the disulfide formation in  $\alpha 2$ , "locking" the peptide in. (11) If the correct conformational change is induced, all chaperone molecules will dissociate. (12) The trimer of class I heavy chain- $\beta_2$ m-peptide is shuttled from the ER to the Golgi apparatus and subsequently to the plasma membrane of the cell. (This figure also appears on page 20.)



**Figure 2.1** General pathway of exogenous antigen processing. Depicted is the general pathway of exogenous antigen processing and presentation. Numbered yellow circles indicate steps of the pathway at which variations can occur that will alter the hierarchy of peptide–class II complexes expressed by the APC (see text for details). (1) Relative levels of li isoforms (i.e., p31li vs. p41li, Section 2.2.1); (2) Effects of cell signaling (Sections 2.2.2 and 2.3); (3) Receptor-mediated antigen internalization and intracellular trafficking (Section 2.3); (4) Proteolytic processing of internalized antigen (Section 2.4.1); (5) Role of DM and DO in class II peptide loading (Section 2.4.2), (6) Intravesicular distribution of processing proteins (Section 2.4.2.4); (7) Exosomes and the cell-surface delivery of peptide–class II complexes (Section 2.4.3) (8) MHC class II signaling and partitioning of peptide–class II complexes into membrane microdomains (Section 2.4.3.2). PM: plasma membrane; EE: early endosome (This figure also appears on page 32.).



Figure 3.1 Possible mechanisms involved in immunodomination (a) Preemption of critical elements of the synapse by the dominant T cell. (b) Engagement of inhibitory receptors by the submissive T cell. (c) Lack of adequate directed secretion of APC factors.  $T_D = dominate dominate$ 

nant T cell;  $T_s$  = submissive T cell TCR/MHC molecules are shown in red, costimulator ligands and receptors in blue, inhibitory receptors in orange, APC factors in white. (This figure also appears on page 20.)



**Figure 6.6** Shifts in repertoire and immunodominance following primary and secondary exposures to antigen. As primary immune responses are initiated, antigen-specific T cells become activated and expand in number. This results in a discernable shift in the T-cell repertoire as antigen-specific cells, indicated here in red, green, and blue, increase in frequency. A contraction phase ensues, following clearance of the inducing antigen; however, this downsizing is typically proportional. Consequently, the skewing of the repertoire and - the hierarchy of immunodominance that develops during the expansion phase are imprinted on the memory pool. This phenomenon is sometimes referred to as immunological scarring. Although the repertoire and hierarchies of the primary effector and memory pools are usually similar, marked differences can arise following rechallenges. In this illustration, the red responders become most dominant. (This figure also appears on page 120.)



**Figure 6.8** Continuous antigenic stimulation can drive responding CD8 T cells to deletion. Certain foreign antigens are not rapidly removed by the actions of the host's immune response. This is perhaps best exemplified by persistent viral infections. In these instances an initial response becomes detectable, resulting in repertoire shifts and the development of immunodominance. If the infection is not cleared by the overall immune response, then the responding cells may be subject to repetitive antigenic stimulation. Under these conditions certain clones and specificities of CD8 T cells may succumb to deletion, resulting in further changes in repertoire and epitope hierarchies. Notably, the deletion of CD8 T cells is exacerbated by the absence of CD4 T-cell help. (This figure also appears on page 128.)



**Figure 9.1** Antigen specificity in the lung airways following influenza virus infection. Three dominant epitopes and seven subdominant epitopes account for approximately 78% of the total CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell response to influenza virus infection in the lung airways. The remaining 22% of the CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell response is undetermined at this time. Two dominant and at least seven subdominant epitopes account for approximately 60% of the total  $CD4^+$  T-cell response to influenza virus infection in the lung airways. The remaining 40% of the  $CD4^+$  T-cell response is undetermined at this time. Some of the  $CD4^+$  T-cell epitopes are listed as putative because detailed characterization of the epitopes has not yet been performed. (This figure also appears on page 192.)



◄ Figure 10.4 Identification of HLA-B\*3501restricted HIV-1 CTL epitopes by a method using reverse immunogenetics. (1) HLA-B\*3501 molecules are isolated from HLAnegative cell lines transfected with the HLA-B\*3501 gene. Peptides are eluted from isolated HLA-B\*3501 molecules, and then the eluted peptides are sequenced to determine Immunodominant HIV-1 Epitopes Presented by HLA Allelesthe motif of HLA-B\*3501-binding peptides. HLA-B\*3501-binding peptide possessed Pro at position 2 and hydrophobic residues Tyr, Phe, Met, Leu, and Ile at the Cterminus. (2) 8-mer to 11-mer HIV-1 sequences carrying the HLA-B\*3501 anchor residues at position 2 and the C-terminus are selected and synthesized. (3) Synthesized HIV-1 peptides are tested for binding to HLA-B\*3501 by a peptide-binding assay such as the HLA class I stabilization assay. (4) HLA-B\*3501-binding peptides are further used to induce peptide-specific CTLs from PBMCs of HLA-B\*3501-positive, HIV-1-infected individuals. The PBMCs are stimulated with each

HLA-B\*3501-binding peptide or cocktails of the peptides. Peptide-stimulated PBMCs are cultured for approximately 14 days. Peptidespecific CTLs or CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells are identified by measuring the cytotoxic activity of cultured PBMCs toward peptide-pulsed cells or by measuring the production of IFN- $\gamma$  by CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells in cultured PBMCs stimulated with peptide-pulsed cells. The peptides showing a positive response are considered epitope candidates. (5) To clarify whether the peptides are recognized as naturally occurring peptides by specific CTLs or CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells, cells infected with HIV-1 or HIV-1 recombinant vaccinia virus are used to stimulate IFN- $\gamma$  production or for CTL activity. When peptide-specific Tcell clones or lines kill target cells infected with HIV-1 or HIV-1 recombinant vaccinia virus or produce IFN- $\gamma$  after being stimulated with cells infected with HIV-1 or HIV-1 recombinant vaccinia virus, the peptides that these T cells recognize are concluded to be naturally occurring HIV-1 epitope peptides. (This figure also appears on page 214.)

l Mechanics of Antigen Processing י|