

# Solution conformation of an immunodominant epitope in the hepatitis B virus preS2 surface antigen

Seung-Wook Chi<sup>a</sup>, Do-Hyoung Kim<sup>a</sup>, Jae-Sung Kim<sup>a</sup>,  
Myung Kyu Lee<sup>b</sup>, Kyou-Hoon Han<sup>a,\*</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Molecular Cancer Research Center, Division of Molecular Therapeutics, Korea Research Institute of Bioscience and Biotechnology, Yusong P.O. Box 115, Daejeon, Korea

<sup>b</sup> Systemic Proteomics Research Center, Korea Research Institute of Bioscience and Biotechnology, Yusong P.O. Box 115, Daejeon, Korea

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## Abstract

We have determined the solution conformation of the major B cell epitope (residues 123–145, adr123 hereafter) in the preS2 region of hepatitis B virus known to be associated with infection neutralization. The adr123 shows an “L” shaped helix-turn-helix topology with two  $\beta$ -turns formed by residues Ala<sup>130</sup>-Asp<sup>133</sup> and Asp<sup>133</sup>-Val<sup>136</sup> intervening the N- and C-terminal helices. The N-terminal  $\alpha$ -helix consists of residues Ser<sup>124</sup>-Gln<sup>129</sup> whereas the C-terminal  $3_{10}$  helix is formed by residues Val<sup>136</sup>-Tyr<sup>140</sup>. The  $\beta$ -turns overlap partially with the putative “conformational” epitope. The overall topology of adr123 is primarily maintained by hydrophobic interactions involving Phe<sup>127</sup>, Leu<sup>131</sup>, Leu<sup>132</sup>, Val<sup>136</sup>, and Tyr<sup>140</sup> that are clustered on one side of the molecule. An additional hydrophobic stabilization comes from Phe<sup>141</sup> that is buried inside the concave side of the molecule. A network of hydrogen bonds formed among Thr<sup>125</sup>, His<sup>128</sup>, and Arg<sup>137</sup> further contribute to the “boomerang-shaped” architecture of adr123. The N-terminus of adr123 is immobile due to a hydrogen bond between the N-terminal amide proton of Asn<sup>123</sup> and the hydroxyl oxygen of Thr<sup>126</sup>. The side chains of Asp<sup>133</sup>, Arg<sup>135</sup>, Val<sup>136</sup>, Leu<sup>139</sup>, and Tyr<sup>140</sup> that were shown to be important for binding to a monoclonal antibody H8 mAb are surface exposed.

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**Keywords:** Hepatitis B virus; Surface antigen; PreS2; Monoclonal antibody; NMR

## 1. Introduction

Hepatitis B is a major disease affecting more than 300 million people worldwide and is a particularly serious health threat in Asia and the third-world countries (Blumberg and London, 1982; Stephenne, 1990). Hepatitis B virus (HBV) is a prototype of the family of Hepadnaviridae (Chisari et al., 1989) and the symptom of HBV infection is highly polymorphic ranging from asymptomatic infection to acute hepatitis and chronic liver diseases (Dreesman et al., 1982; Ganem and Varmus, 1987). Prolonged hepatitis B infection often develops into cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma (Beasley et al., 1981). During HBV

infection, two forms of particles, a 22-nm spherical or filamentous particle and a 42-nm virion or Dane particle, circulate in the serum of the HBV carriers. Each of these particles possesses the hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg) on its surface, the known classical marker for chronic infection by HBV (Alexander et al., 1984; Dubois et al., 1980). The entire HBsAg is composed of three proteins that are derived from three or four open reading frames (ORFs) of the HBV surface gene (Heerman et al., 1984). The first is the major S protein (designated as SI-226) which is encoded by the S gene and exists in two forms, one with a single glycosylation at Asn<sup>146</sup> (gp27) and the other with no glycosylation. The second, called middle or M protein, is composed of the S protein plus a 55 amino acid N-terminal extension called preS2. This protein exists as two glycosylated forms, gp33 and gp36 with Asn<sup>123</sup> being 100% glycosylated in both forms. Finally, the third protein is termed large or L protein and is encoded by *preS1*, *preS2* and the S gene of the HBV (Heerman et al., 1984; Stibbe and Gerlich, 1983). This protein is also present either in a single glycosylated form (gp42) or in a

**Abbreviations:** HBV, hepatitis B virus; mAb, monoclonal antibody; NMR, nuclear magnetic resonance; RMSD, root mean square deviation; COSY, shift correlation spectroscopy; TOCSY, total COSY; NOESY, nuclear Overhauser enhancement spectroscopy; CSI, chemical shift index

\* Corresponding author. Tel.: +82 42 860 4250; fax: +82 42 860 4259.

E-mail address: [khhan600@kribb.re.kr](mailto:khhan600@kribb.re.kr) (K.-H. Han).

non-glycosylated form (p39). The amino acid sequences of *adr*, *ayw*, and *adw2* serotypes are homologous even though the preS1 region of the *ayw* serotype is 108 amino acids long whereas that in the *adr* serotype has 119 amino acids (Heerman et al., 1984).

The preS2 antigen exists in relatively low abundance in the sera of HBV but was shown to be highly immunogenic both to B and T cells (Milich et al., 1985; Milich, 1987) and is capable of binding to several human and animal anti-HBV antibodies (Neurath et al., 1986a). It also binds to human and chimpanzee albumin treated with glutaraldehyde (Itoh et al., 1992; Pontisso et al., 1989; Sobotta et al., 2000) and contains an epitope that elicits protective immunity in experimentally challenged chimpanzees (Itoh et al., 1986; Neurath et al., 1987a). A recent study has established an interesting correlation between naturally occurring deletions in preS2 region and hepatocellular carcinoma (Tai et al., 2002). A preS2 fragment (residues 120–145 when named from the N-terminus of L protein) is the most effective immunogen for production of antisera (Neurath et al., 1986a) and was proposed to contain a conformational epitope that would be important for infection neutralization (Neurath et al., 1986b; Lee et al., 1997). A 23-residue fragment of the preS2 region from the *adr* serotype HBV, named *adr123*, with a sequence of NSTTFHQALLDPRVRGLYFPAGG (residues 123–145) forms a highly helical structure under hydrophobic solvents, some features of which appeared to be closely associated in an unexplained fashion with its binding to an *adr* serotype specific monoclonal antibody (H8 mAb) (Lee et al., 1994). Even though there are ample data dealing with functional aspects of both preS1 and preS2 proteins of HBV there is a paucity of structural information on these surface antigens (Lee et al., 1994; Saul et al., 1996; Maeng et al., 2001). Useful insights into the initial HBV infection step of hepatocytes can be gained by first understanding protein–protein or protein–antibody interactions associated with these surface antigens of HBV. Here, we describe the high-resolution solution structure of the major B cell epitopic domain in the preS2 from *adr* serotype HBV determined by  $^1\text{H}$  two-dimensional nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) methods and restrained molecular dynamics calculation. Results provide useful explanations for its binding profile to an *adr* serotype specific monoclonal antibody.

## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Peptide preparation

Peptide synthesis was performed by the standard solid phase method using Fmoc as the  $\text{N}\alpha$ -amino protecting group. The peptide was purified by HPLC on a reverse phase C18 column (>95%) and its integrity was confirmed by a mass spectral analysis.

### 2.2. NMR experiments

Samples for the NMR studies were prepared in 95%  $\text{CD}_3\text{OH}/5\% \text{H}_2\text{O}$  or in 100%  $\text{D}_2\text{O}$  with a final concentration of approximately 5 mM at pH 3.85. The pH was measured as a direct reading from a combination microelectrode calibrated

at two reference pHs. All NMR experiments were performed using a Varian UNITY 500 spectrometer at two temperatures, 15 °C and 25 °C, in order to obtain unambiguous resonance assignment. Solvent suppression was carried out using selective, low-power (approximately 60 Hz field strength) irradiation of the water resonance during the relaxation delay of 1.5 s. Solvent suppression was also applied during the mixing period in the case of the NOESY or ROESY experiments. Mixing times of 80–300 ms for NOESY and ROESY were used. For TOCSY experiments, mixing times of 57–82 ms were applied.

In addition, the coupling constants for the backbone torsion angle were measured from phase-sensitive DQF-COSY experiments. In order to obtain  $^3J_{\alpha\beta}$  coupling constants for  $\chi^1$  torsion angles the P.E. COSY experiment was performed in 100%  $\text{D}_2\text{O}$ . Spectral widths were 5 kHz in both dimensions. Typical 2D data 2048 complex points in  $t_2$  dimension with 512 complex  $t_1$  increments except for the DQF-COSY and P.E. COSY experiments where these numbers were doubled to give a final digital resolution of 1.2 Hz in the F2 dimension after a zero-filling. In order to monitor the H–D exchange of labile protons such as backbone amide protons and side chain amide protons a series of  $^1\text{H}$  spectra were obtained after the fully protonated protein was dissolved in 100%  $\text{D}_2\text{O}$ .

### 2.3. Structure calculations

Interproton distance restraints were derived primarily from NOESY spectra recorded with a mixing time of 150 ms obtained at 15 °C and were supplemented with 80 ms and 300 ms mixing times. The FELIX program in the NMR Refine module of Biosym 95.0 software (Molecular Simulation, Inc., San Diego, CA) was used for quantification of the NOE cross peak volumes and for converting them into upper bounds of interproton distances similar to the published procedure (Davis et al., 1993). As a distance reference, the NOE volumes of five non-overlapping geminal  $\beta$ -proton cross peaks were averaged and correlated with the appropriate geminal distance of 1.8 Å. Volume integration errors and influence of possible conformational averaging were taken into consideration by adding 0.5 Å and 1.0 Å to distance restraints involving only backbone protons and to those containing at least one side chain proton, respectively. In addition to the interproton distance restraints, dihedral angle restraints were derived from  $^3J_{\text{HNH}\alpha}$  coupling constants, with centered on  $-120^\circ (\pm 30^\circ)$  for  $^3J_{\text{HNH}\alpha} > 8 \text{ Hz}$  and  $-60^\circ (\pm 30^\circ)$  for  $^3J_{\text{HNH}\alpha} < 6 \text{ Hz}$ . The  $\chi^1$  torsion angle restraints were also obtained from  $^3J_{\alpha\beta}$  coupling constants in combination with the  $d_{\text{NH}}$ .

The 50 low-resolution structures were generated using DGII calculation based on the metric matrix (Molecular Simulation, Inc.). Automatic pseudo-atom constraint corrections and floating chirality for non-stereospecifically assigned protons are implemented in DGII. In order to refine the initial distance restraints and to obtain more accurate distance restraints, BKALC (Banks et al., 1989) was run for the structures generated by DGII. The final restraint set included a total of 298 distance restraints which consisted of 133 intraresidue distances, 87 sequential, 52 medium range ( $|i - j| < 4$ ) and 26 long range

( $|i - j| \geq 4$ ) inter-residue distances. Also included in the restraint file were 14  $\phi$  backbone dihedral angles restraints derived from  $^3J_{\text{HNH}\alpha}$  and 11  $\chi^1$  side chain torsion angle restraints derived from  $^3J_{\alpha\beta}$ . Next, the DGII-generated structures were refined by restrained molecular dynamics (Clare et al., 1987). The dynamics run lasted for 52 ps at 1000 K and 25 ps of annealing period down to 100 K, finally followed by a short energy minimization using a conjugate gradient method. The force constants for the NOE interproton distances and the torsion angle restraints were all set to 30.0 kcal/mol/Å<sup>2</sup>. The atomic coordinates of adr123 have been deposited in the Protein Data Bank (accession code 1WZ4).

### 3. Results

#### 3.1. NMR spectroscopy and structure determination

Complete  $^1\text{H}$  resonance assignment for the adr123 was achieved by a combined use of DQF-COSY, TOCSY, and NOESY/ROESY followed by a sequential resonance assignment procedure (Billeter et al., 1982). Initial assignment of the spin systems to individual amino acids was done along the amide NH resonances. At this point unambiguous assignment of several amino acids such as His<sup>128</sup>, Arg<sup>135</sup>, and Arg<sup>137</sup> were already possible by taking the advantage of their back-transfer

cross peaks. Once the individual spin systems were classified according to the characteristic spin systems, sequential NOE cross peaks were used to finalize the assignment procedure. At 15 °C, all of the sequential  $d_{\alpha\text{N}}$  type cross peaks were clearly visible allowing sequential resonance assignment. Data obtained at 25 °C were used in completing the resonance assignment for residues, His<sup>128</sup>, Arg<sup>135</sup>, and Arg<sup>137</sup>. Fig. 1 shows the amide-aliphatic region of a NOESY spectrum obtained with a mixing time of 150 ms. Fig. 2 is the summary of sequential and medium range NOEs used for resonance assignment along with  $^3J_{\text{HNH}\alpha}$ . Small minor cross peaks (approximately 10% of the major cross peaks) were present in the spectra, which seem to originate from a *cis*-isomer due to the two prolines (Pro<sup>134</sup> and Pro<sup>142</sup>) in the peptide. Resonance assignment and subsequent structure calculations we report here are for the major form (*trans*-isomer) of adr123 where all the prolines show sequential  $d_{\alpha\delta}$  type cross peaks in the NOESY spectrum.

In addition to NOE-derived interproton distances, a total of 23  $^3J_{\text{HNH}\alpha}$  coupling constants for the backbone torsion angles were obtained from phase-sensitive DQF-COSY experiments. In addition, a P.E. COSY experiment was performed in 100% D<sub>2</sub>O in order to obtain  $^3J_{\alpha\beta}$  coupling constants for  $\chi^1$  torsion angles. A total of 11  $\chi^1$  torsion angles were obtained from the measured  $^3J_{\alpha\beta}$  values in conjunction with the  $d_{\text{NB}}$ . Some slowly exchanging protons were observable even at 400 min after the

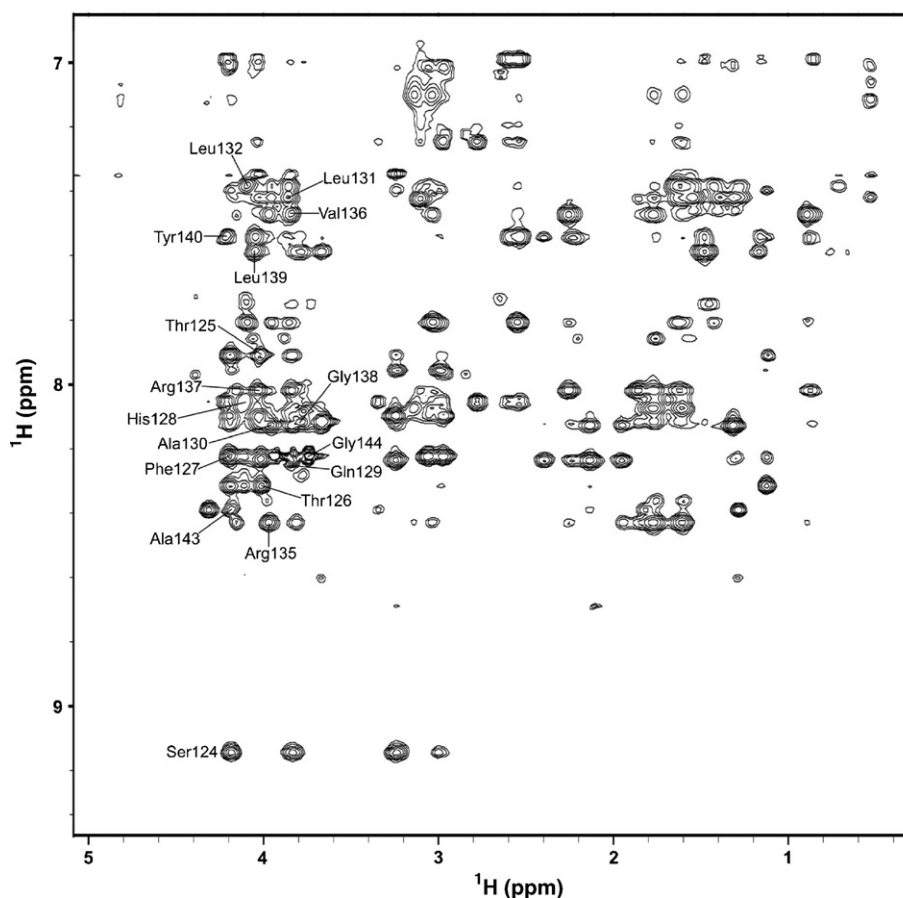


Fig. 1. A fingerprint region of a NOESY spectrum for adr123 obtained at 15 °C. The sample is made up of 5 mM peptide 95% CD<sub>3</sub>OH and 5% H<sub>2</sub>O at pH 3.9. Assigned amino acid residues are labeled.

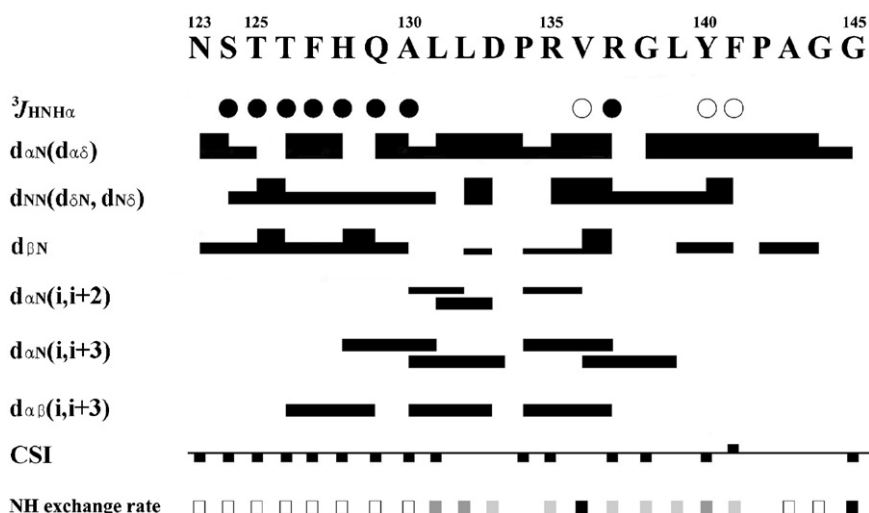


Fig. 2. A summary of short- and medium-range NOEs,  $^3J_{\text{HNH}\alpha}$ , and  $\text{H}\alpha$  proton chemical shift index (CSI) for adr123. Thickness of bar represents relative strength (strong, medium, and weak) of NOEs. Filled circles are drawn when  $^3J_{\text{HNH}\alpha} < 6$  Hz and open circles when  $^3J_{\text{HNH}\alpha} > 8$  Hz. The filled squares above and below the horizontal line represent CSI values of +1 and -1, respectively. At the bottom shown are the exchange rates of NH protons when the peptide is dissolved in 100%  $\text{D}_2\text{O}$ . The white squares indicate the disappearance of NH proton signals within 78 min after deuteration and the black squares indicate the existence of NH proton signals in 490 min after deuteration. The squares are colored with a spectrum in which white to black represents fast to slow exchange rates, respectively.

addition of 100%  $\text{D}_2\text{O}$  as shown in Fig. 2. A summary of the distribution of the NOE restraints as a function of residue number is shown in Fig. 3A. Structure determination statistics are summarized in Table 1 and Fig. 3B–E. The structure of adr123 is well-defined as reflected in the backbone and heavy atom root mean square deviations (RMSDs) of the final structures (over residues 2–21) that are  $0.52 (\pm 0.15) \text{ \AA}$  and  $1.11 (\pm 0.19) \text{ \AA}$ , respectively. All the backbone conformations are well defined except for the two C-terminal glycines. A unique result is

that the N-terminus of adr123 is quite immobile (see following sections).

### 3.2. Description of the three-dimensional structure

A stereoview of the 20 final converged structures of adr123 is shown in Fig. 4A. The adr123, albeit a short peptide, forms a highly ordered structure under a hydrophobic condition used. The overall conformation of adr123 is a helix-turn-helix, similar to that of melittin in a structural sense. A prominent feature of adr123 is presence of two amphipathic helices that are intervened by two  $\beta$ -turns in the middle of the molecule near Pro<sup>134</sup> (Fig. 4B). The helical nature of adr123 was noted in previous CD studies that used hydrophobic solvents. In Fig. 2 presence of two helices in adr123 is well supported by strong sequential  $d_{\text{NN}}$  as well as  $d_{\alpha\text{N}(i,i+3)}$  type NOE cross peaks. In addition, chemical shift indices (CSI) (Wishart et al., 1992) of  $\alpha$ -protons and the small  $^3J_{\text{HNH}\alpha}$  values of less than 6 Hz point to location of the helices. This observation is consistent with a theoretical prediction made by STRIDE (Frishman and Argos, 1995).

The first helix at the N-terminus of adr123 is a highly stable  $\alpha$ -helix and consists of residues Ser<sup>124</sup>–Gln<sup>129</sup> while the second at the C-terminus is a somewhat loose  $3_{10}$  helix formed by residues Val<sup>136</sup>–Tyr<sup>140</sup>. Two type IV  $\beta$ -turns are found at residues Ala<sup>130</sup>–Asp<sup>133</sup> and Asp<sup>133</sup>–Val<sup>136</sup>, respectively. These turns are able to form because specific backbone torsion angles of Asp<sup>133</sup> and Pro<sup>135</sup> are allowed due to the hydrogen bond between the guanidyl group of Arg<sup>137</sup> and the imidazole ring N $\delta$ H proton in His<sup>128</sup>. Presence of this hydrogen bond is reflected in the slow H–D exchange rate of the guanidyl NH protons in Arg<sup>137</sup> (data not shown). Formation of two stable turns in the middle of adr123 is also augmented by the intramolecular hydrophobic interactions among the side chains of Leu<sup>131</sup>, Leu<sup>132</sup>, and Val<sup>136</sup>. An extremely slow H–D exchange rate of the backbone amide proton of Val<sup>136</sup> (Fig. 2) is due to a hydrogen bond between the

Table 1  
NMR structural determination statistics of adr123 for an ensemble of 20 structures

Number of NOE distance restraints	298
Intraresidue	133
Sequential	87
Medium range (<4)	52
Long range ( $\geq 4$ )	26
Number of backbone dihedral angle restraints	14
Number of $\chi^1$ torsional angle	11
Ramachandran plot regions (%) <sup>a</sup>	
Residues in most favored region	55.6
Residues in additional allowed region	43.2
Residues in generously allowed region	1.2
Residues in disallowed region	0.0
Angular order parameters (residues 2–21) <sup>b</sup>	
$\phi$	$0.996 \pm 0.004$
$\psi$	$0.986 \pm 0.026$
$\chi^1$	$0.895 \pm 0.198$
RMSDs from NOE distance restraints ( $\text{\AA}$ )	$0.107 \pm 0.003$
RMSDs from the average structure (residues 2–21)	
Backbone atoms <sup>c</sup> ( $\text{\AA}$ )	$0.52 \pm 0.15$
Heavy atoms ( $\text{\AA}$ )	$1.11 \pm 0.19$

<sup>a</sup> The values are obtained by PROCHECK analysis (Laskowski et al., 1996).

<sup>b</sup> Values where applicable are the means  $\pm$  standard deviations.

<sup>c</sup> C $^\alpha$ , C $>$ C $^\alpha$ , C $^\gamma$ .



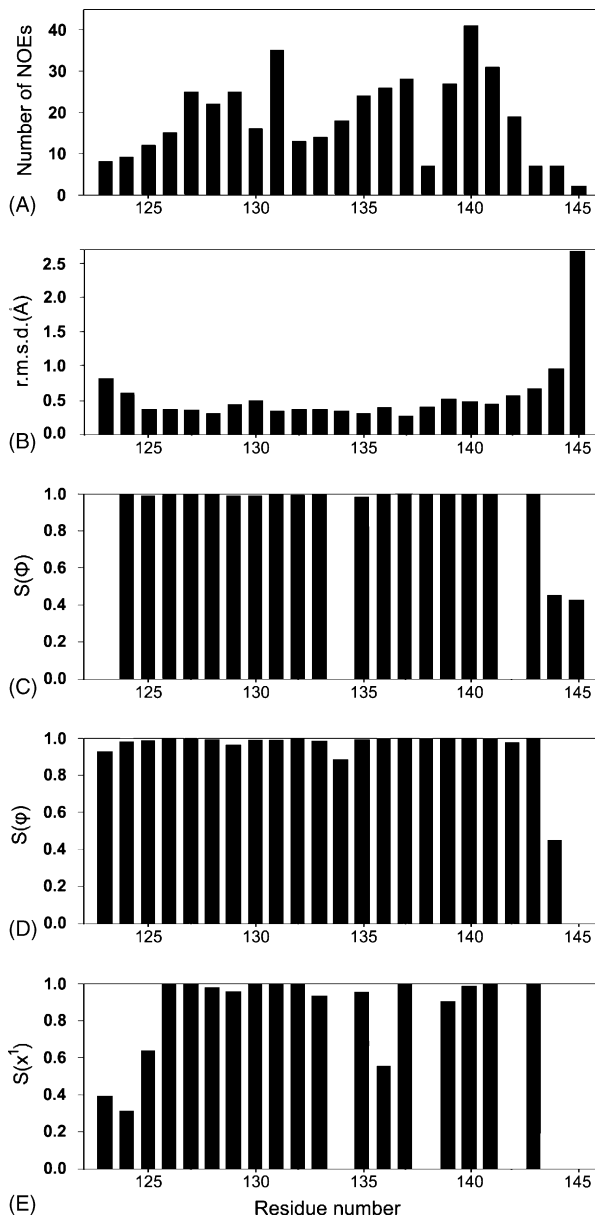


Fig. 3. NMR statistics of adr123 for an ensemble of 20 structures. Plots as a function of the residue number of (A) the number of NOE constraints used in the structure refinement, (B) the average RMSD for the backbone heavy atoms, and (C–E) the angular order parameters for the backbone and first side chain dihedral angles.

backbone amide proton of Val<sup>136</sup> and the carbonyl oxygen of Asp<sup>133</sup>. A similarly slow exchange rate is observed for the backbone amide proton of Gly<sup>145</sup> as this proton forms a hydrogen bond with its own carboxylate moiety and the carbonyl oxygen of Gly<sup>144</sup>. Such an overall disposition of two helices connected by two turns exposes the side chains of Asp<sup>133</sup>, Arg<sup>135</sup>, Val<sup>136</sup>, Leu<sup>139</sup>, and Tyr<sup>140</sup>, which may interact with target molecules.

The surface representation of adr123 described in Fig. 5 shows that the molecule is amphipathic. The adr123 resembles a “boomerang” whose large top side (front side in Fig. 5A) is covered with several hydrophobic residues (Phe<sup>127</sup>, Leu<sup>131</sup>, Leu<sup>132</sup>, Val<sup>136</sup>, Leu<sup>139</sup>, and Tyr<sup>140</sup>) and the other side with two hydrophilic residues (Asp<sup>133</sup> and Arg<sup>135</sup>). The benzene ring of

Phe<sup>141</sup> is mostly buried in the concave side and makes hydrophobic contacts with the methylene groups of His<sup>128</sup> and Arg<sup>137</sup>. The isopropyl group of Val<sup>136</sup> is also partially buried (located behind Leu<sup>132</sup> in Fig. 4B). An atypical structural feature in adr123 is its immobile N-terminus (Fig. 4) unlike typically disordered termini of proteins or peptides in solution. Such a rigidity is conferred by a hydrogen bond between the N-terminal amide proton of Asn<sup>123</sup> and the hydroxyl group of the Thr<sup>126</sup>. Deep down in the molecular core of adr123 lie a network of hydrogen bonds formed among the hydroxyl group of Thr<sup>125</sup>, the imidazol ring N<sub>δ</sub>H of His<sup>128</sup>, and the guanidyl group of Arg<sup>137</sup>. This hydrogen bonded hydrophilic core is concealed underneath a large hydrophobic surface created by Phe<sup>127</sup>, Leu<sup>131</sup>, and Phe<sup>141</sup>.

#### 4. Discussion

Even though the full preS2 region of HBV is composed of 55 residues, earlier works demonstrated that only its N-terminal domain near residues 120–145 is particularly immunogenic and infection-neutralizing (Neurath et al., 1986a; Neurath et al., 1987b). In a more recent competitive ELISA study it was shown that binding of a full preS2 to an *adr* serotype specific H8 mAb could be inhibited by various preS2 peptides, among which adr123 exhibited the highest inhibitory activity (Lee et al., 1994). The adr123 peptide studied here, being a short peptide, is not much structured in water, but becomes ordered in hydrophobic solvents (Lee et al., 1994). NMR structural studies of proteins and peptides are typically carried out at slightly acidic conditions (pH 3–6), which enable one to better observe the resonances from labile protons such as backbone amide NHs by minimizing their exchange rates (Wüthrich, 1986). The structures of peptides including that of adr123 determined under such conditions are well known to be invariant regardless of pH (Wüthrich, 1995). Hydrophobic solvents are often used as they are believed to reasonably mimic the hydrophobic ligand-binding pocket in target proteins. Bulky aromatic hydrophobic residues such as Trp, Tyr, and Phe are often found in the antigen binding pocket of antibodies (Davies and Cohen, 1996; Padlan, 1994; Stites, 1997). Many short antigenic peptides have in fact been found to undergo a structural transition from an unstructured state into a  $\beta$ -turn (Nair et al., 2002) or an  $\alpha$ -helix upon binding to an antibody (Stanfield and Wilson, 1995; Tsang et al., 1992). When a preS2 fragment (residues 134–140) is inserted into maltodextrin binding protein, its residues 134–140 form a two-turn helix, one turn of which is an  $\alpha$ -helix and the other is a  $3_{10}$  helix (Saul et al., 1996). This two-turn helix is very similar to the C-terminal two-turn  $3_{10}$  helix present in the adr123 structure described here.

Extensive mutation studies on adr123 have been carried out and shown that binding of adr123 to H8 mAb is governed mainly by residues Phe<sup>127</sup>, Leu<sup>131</sup>, Asp<sup>133</sup>, Val<sup>136</sup>, Arg<sup>137</sup>, Tyr<sup>140</sup>, and Phe<sup>141</sup> (Lee et al., 1996; Lee et al., 1997). Yet no succinct explanation was given how the binding is controlled by these residues. The reduced antibody binding may arise from removal of direct antibody contacts or could be due to structural disruption that misplaces residues that otherwise would contact H8 mAb. A fragment of adr123 (residues 130–145) that con-

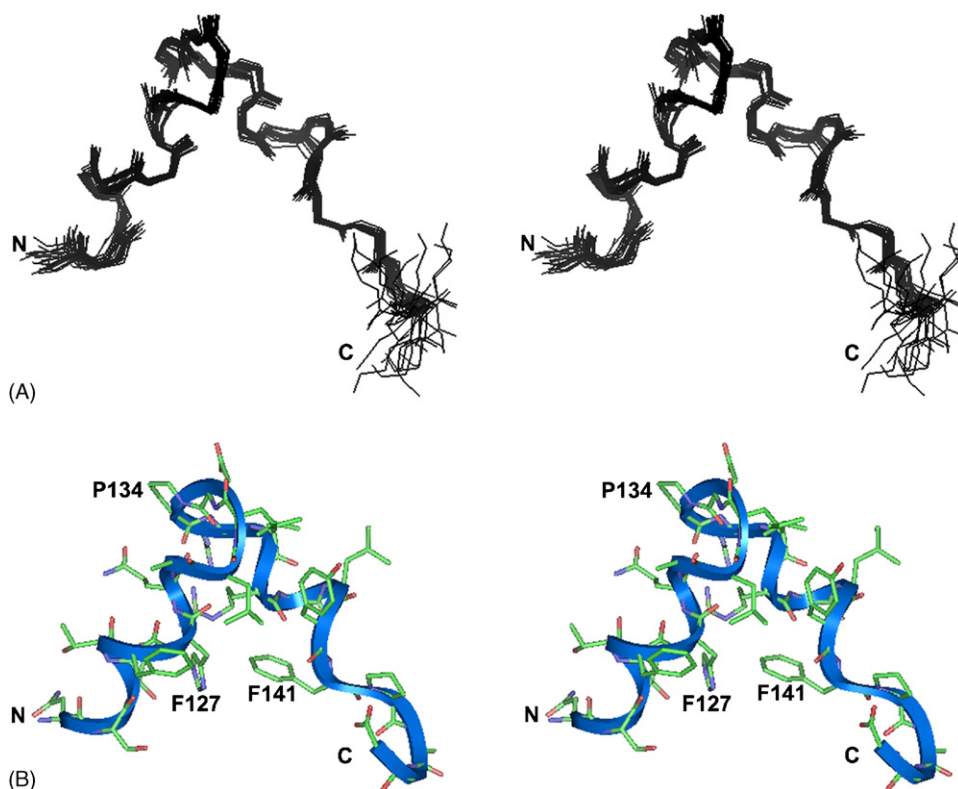


Fig. 4. A stereoview of the final 20 structures for adr123. (A) Backbone superposition of the 20 converged structures of adr123. The N- and C-terminus are labeled with capital letters N and C, respectively. (B) Ribbon diagram of a representative structure of adr123. The ribbon traces the molecular backbone and selected residues are labeled.

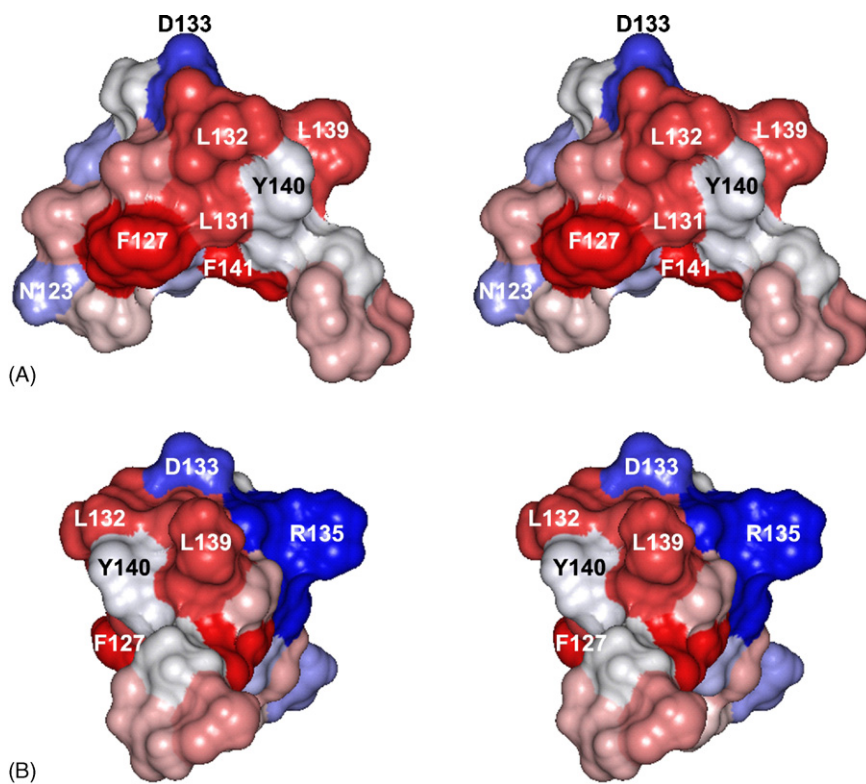


Fig. 5. Connolly surface representation of adr123. The stereoviews of Connolly surface (Connolly, 1983) on adr123 are shown with the hydropathy property with a color spectrum in which red to blue stands for hydrophobic to charged, respectively. Note the amphipathic distribution of residues in the adr123 surface. (A) The view is the same as that of Fig. 4B. (B) The 90° rotated view from (A) in y-axis.

tains the putative conformational epitope does not bind H8 mAb (Lee et al., 1994; Lee et al., 1997), suggesting that the whole adr123 is required to bind to the antibody. The structure of adr123 presented here provides reasonable explanations for such observations. For example, adr123 structure predicts that replacing any of four residues (Phe<sup>127</sup>, Leu<sup>131</sup>, Arg<sup>137</sup>, and Phe<sup>141</sup>) should significantly disrupt antibody binding as these residues are critical for maintenance of the overall architecture of adr123. And, that is precisely what has been observed (Lee et al., 1996; Lee et al., 1997). In addition, the structure suggests that unless Asp<sup>133</sup>, Val<sup>136</sup>, and Tyr<sup>140</sup> make direct contacts with H8 mAb mutating any of these residues would not affect antibody binding as they are not critically involved in maintaining the overall structure of adr123. Any single mutation of these residues was shown to completely abolish (<5%) binding of adr123 to H8 mAb, strongly arguing that they must be direct contact residues to H8 mAb. Interestingly, Arg<sup>135</sup> and Leu<sup>139</sup> did not influence the binding of adr123 to H8 mAb at all (Lee et al., 1996) even though their side chains are prominently surface exposed. Thus, these two residues neither are likely to be direct antibody contacting residues nor to serve as “structural maintenance” residues. One cannot exclude the possibility that, being surface exposed, they might be important for binding to another antibody. These results are consistent with the claim that the putative conformational B cell epitope consists of residues 130–145 (Lee et al., 1997).

Both Phe<sup>127</sup> and Leu<sup>131</sup> are crucial for H8 mAb binding (Lee et al., 1996; Lee et al., 1997). These two residues stabilize the structure of adr123 by strong hydrophobic interactions (Fig. 5), in particular, the integrity of the N-terminal  $\alpha$ -helix and the first  $\beta$ -turn. However, as both residues are surface exposed as well it is not clear how, due to loss of direct antibody contacts or because of structural disruption, antibody binding becomes reduced (<3%) upon mutating either of these residues. It was postulated that binding of adr123 to H8 mAb is closely associated with the structural integrity of the N-terminal helix based upon the fact that mutations that strengthen the helicity of this helix increase the affinity of adr123 to H8 mAb while those that lower the helicity weaken the binding with H8 mAb (Lee et al., 1994). For example, mutating Thr<sup>125</sup> by a glutamate was shown to increase the affinity. In the structure of adr123 one finds that the side chain carboxylate of a glutamate would make a stronger hydrogen bond to the imidazole group of His<sup>128</sup> than a hydroxyl group of a threonine, enhancing the stability of the N-terminal helix. Likewise, replacing His<sup>128</sup> with a glutamate would favor binding of adr123 to H8 mAb as the guanidino group of Arg<sup>137</sup> would form stronger hydrogen bonds with the side chain carboxylate of a glutamate than with the imidazole moiety of His<sup>128</sup>, which ends up stabilizing both the N-terminal helix and the overall structure of adr123. Introducing a positively charged residue such as a lysine into the N-terminal helix greatly reduced antibody binding (Lee et al., 1994). The adr123 structure predicts that such a mutation would not only break hydrogen bonding but also place steric hindrance that severely disturb the overall topology of adr123.

Our structure of adr123 also suggests that the observed differences in H8 mAb binding among different serotypes be related to conformational differences of various preS2 peptides. The

adr123 analog fragment in an ayw serotype preS2 (ayw123 hereafter) and that in an adw2 serotype preS2 (adw2–123 hereafter) binds to H8 mAb with a reduced affinity (–34% of adr123) and exhibits no binding, respectively (Lee et al., 1994). The amino acid sequence of ayw123 differs only in two positions (Ala<sup>130</sup>  $\rightarrow$  Thr<sup>130</sup> and Leu<sup>132</sup>  $\rightarrow$  Gln<sup>132</sup>) from that of adr123. These substitutions must disturb the turn region to some extent. However, since neither of these residues are so much structurally crucial as the other residues mentioned above ayw123 should still be able to bind H8 mAb, albeit with a reduced affinity as was shown (Lee et al., 1994). On the other hand, the corresponding preS2 domain in adw2 serotype (adw2–123 hereafter) has four residues (Thr<sup>126</sup>  $\rightarrow$  Ala<sup>126</sup>, Ala<sup>130</sup>  $\rightarrow$  Thr<sup>130</sup>, Leu<sup>132</sup>  $\rightarrow$  Gln<sup>132</sup>, and Phe<sup>141</sup>  $\rightarrow$  Leu<sup>141</sup>) that differ from adr123. Replacing Thr<sup>126</sup> in adr123 by an alanine may mobilize the N-terminus of the peptide since the hydroxyl group of Thr<sup>126</sup> forms a hydrogen bond with the N-terminal amide proton. Otherwise, substitution at this position would not significantly disrupt the structure as Thr<sup>126</sup> is facing outside and is not a part of the conformational epitope, which is located beyond Phe<sup>127</sup> (Lee et al., 1997; Neurath et al., 1986b). The Phe<sup>141</sup>  $\rightarrow$  Leu<sup>141</sup> substitution, unlike the Thr<sup>126</sup>  $\rightarrow$  Ala<sup>126</sup>, is likely to significantly disturb the hydrophobic core of adr123 at the concave side as a leucine may not be as effective as a phenylalanine in making hydrophobic interactions. There is also a possibility that the Phe<sup>141</sup>  $\rightarrow$  Leu<sup>141</sup> substitution might nullify potential  $\pi$ -cation interactions between the benzene ring and the imidazole group of His<sup>128</sup> or the guanidyl group of Arg<sup>137</sup>. Thus, combined effects of Phe<sup>141</sup>  $\rightarrow$  Leu<sup>141</sup> substitution on top of Ala<sup>130</sup>  $\rightarrow$

Thr<sup>130</sup> and Leu<sup>132</sup>  $\rightarrow$  Gln<sup>132</sup> replacements along with the increased mobility at the N-terminus of adr123 must be sufficient to abolish its ability to bind H8 mAb. Preliminary NMR studies, secondary structure prediction and CD results on ayw123 and adw2–123 indicate that their structures are indeed different from that of adr123, the former slightly and the latter significantly (K. Han, unpublished results). The Asn<sup>123</sup> in the M protein is always N-glycosylated in nature. Such a modification may mobilize the N-terminus of adr123 since the hydrogen bonding between Asn<sup>123</sup> and Thr<sup>126</sup> could be sterically hampered. Nevertheless, it is unlikely that the glycosylation at Asn<sup>123</sup> affects binding of H8 mAb to adr123 since the actual antibody contacts appear to be located near the turn regions in adr123.

Despite continued efforts to unambiguously identify a hepatocyte receptor for HBV (De Falco et al., 2001; Neurath et al., 1992; Ryu et al., 2000), it is not clear whether one of the reported proteins may represent a true hepatocyte receptor. While HBV vaccines are available and successful for the most part there is still a problem associated with non-responding individuals. Anti-HBV drugs based on polymerase inhibition are also commercially available (Jilg, 1998; Mahoney and Kane, 1999; West et al., 1990) yet one has to cope with development of drug resistance after a long-term use. One may use a strategy of blocking viral attachment to hepatocytes at an early stage of infection as has been demonstrated in the case of human immunodeficiency virus-1 against which a peptide inhibitor “Pentafuside” has been developed (Chan and Kim, 1998). It remains to be seen if adr123 can be applied against HBV infection as Pentafuside since both

adrl23 and the N-terminal domain of preS2 (residues 120–145) are highly immunogenic and infection-neutralizing (Lee et al., 1994; Neurath et al., 1986a, 1987b).

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