

Genetic diversity of hemagglutinin gene of A(H1N1)pdm09 influenza strains isolated in 1 2Taiwan and its potential impact on HA-neutralizing epitope interaction

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Running title: HA mutation in Ab-binding interface 4

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Abbreviations and acronyms

- Ab antibody
- 3CDC Centers for Disease Control
- HA hemagglutinin
- MSSCP Multitemperature Single Strand Conformation Polymorphism
- 6PCR Polymerase Chain Reaction

Abstract 1

Pandemic influenza A(H1N1)pdm09 virus is a global health threat and between 2009- 2011 it became the predominant influenza virus subtype circulating in the world. We describe 3 the MSSCP (Multitemperature Single Strand Conformation Polymorphism) analysis of the 4 5hemagglutinin (HA) region encompassing major neutralizing epitope in pandemic influenza 6isolates from Taiwan. In isolates obtained in 2010 and 2011, several genetically distinct 7 changes have appeared. The majority of changes in HA protein, have not resulted in significant modifications, however three modifications were localized in epitope E of H1 and 8 9one was part of interface binding antibodies BH151 and HC45, which might make the current 10 vaccine less effective. Taking into account the possibility of the emergence of influenza A 11 with antibody evading potential, the MSSCP method provides an alternative approach for 12 detection of minor variants which escape detection by conventional Sanger sequencing. 2

Introduction 1

Influenza A is a serious disease causing recurring outbreaks with significant negative 3effects on the general health status globally as well as on the economy of affected populations. 4In April of 2009 a novel strain of (H1N1) swine-origin influenza A was reported in Mexico 5 and the United States.¹⁻³ The rapid spread of this virus to over 70 countries of the world urged 6the WHO to raise its pandemic alert level to the highest phase 6 by June 11, 2009. This new 7A(H1N1)pdm09 virus was found to be a triple reassortant containing a combination of gene 8segments of swine, human and avian origin. $^{4-6}$ The 2009 pandemic influenza A turned out to be relatively mild in its symptoms when compared to other strains responsible for previous 9 10pandemics. Most individuals infected with the 2009 pandemic H1N1 strain usually developed 11 uncomplicated illness with full recovery within a week. However, this may be a transient 12 situation because influenza viruses are constantly undergoing changes, both by antigenic drift 13(mutations due to the error-prone genomic RNA amplification) as well as by antigenic shift 14 (exchange of genomic segments during co-infection by two different strains). The best 15 example of these phenomena was the 1918 Spanish flu pandemic virus. The initial outbreak 16 was relatively mild in terms of clinical impact, but had acquired higher virulence when it 17 returned in the next season. Changes are in some cases gradual and more predictable. Despite 18this fact the rate of genome mutation is high enough to cause the replacement of circulating 19 strains every 3-5 years with variants that underwent antigenic changes sufficient for 20 substantial or complete evasion of existing antibody response. Therefore, it is crucial to 21 monitor, not only the mutations leading to resistance against antiviral drugs, but also those 22that modify the most important viral epitopes. The latter lead to gradual weakening of the 23antigen-antibody interactions and therefore reduce the efficacy of existing vaccine. 2

The viral surface protein hemagglutinin (HA) is the primary target for neutralizing 25 antibodies in natural infections.⁷ The antigenic variation of HA is the main mechanism 24

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1employed by the influenza virus to escape the response of the host immunological system. 2The HA of the pandemic A(H1N1)pdm09 strain has changed relatively little in its genetic and 3antigenic characteristics since it emerged in 2009. In 2010 a genetically distinct variant 4 containing several amino acid changes in hemagglutinin and neuraminidase has emerged in 5Singapore, Australia and New Zealand. It was a dominant strain in the second and third 6quarters of 2010 in these countries, although it did not represent a significant antigenic change 7of the virus.⁸

In this study we present an analysis of the HA region encompassing the main neutralizing epitope of HA from Taiwan isolates of flu seasons 2009-2011. Isolates of 2010 9 10 and 2011 from these samples show significant changes in HA amino acid composition. Three 11of the detected mutations are likely to affect the virus-antibody interaction. 8

1**Results**

 Nineteen clinical specimens (throat or nasal swabs) from outpatients with influenzalike illnesses, who developed severe complications, were collected in Taiwan during the 2009- 3 2011 flu season (Table 1). To determine viral genotype, partial nucleotide sequences 4 5(positions 393-1182) of the *HA* gene were first analyzed by RT-PCR using primers published by WHO. All the isolates in this study were characterized as A/California/07/2009-like 6 7 viruses. To verify whether the observed clinical diversity could be correlated with genetic 8alterations or the presence of minor genetic variants, the isolates were further analyzed. Bearing in mind the crucial role of hemagglutinin mutations for influenza virus virulence, 9 10 representative HA gene fragments encompassing nucleotides 125 to 302 were amplified from 11cDNAs as described in Materials and Methods. This region corresponds to a fragment of 12influenza virus HA1 polypeptide starting 25 amino acids (H1 numbering is used throughout 13this paper) after the N-terminal signal peptide of hemagglutinin. A crucial part of the influenza 14A/H1N1 epitope reacting with neutralizing antibodies is located within this region. To check 15 for the presence of minor genetic variants of the $A(H1N1)$ pdm09 pandemic strains within the 16 obtained amplicones, we performed MSSCP (Multitemperature Single Strand Conformation 17Polymorphism) analysis. 2

MSSCP is a native electrophoretic separation performed under sequentially changed 19gel temperature. This improves the sensitivity of mutation detection and reduces time of 20 analysis. The temperature changes increase the probability for the PCR products to adopt 21 different ssDNA conformations during the electrophoretic run if they contain nucleotide 22 substitutions All the amplified HA fragments, including corresponding fragments of the 23 reference seasonal (s) (A/Brisbane/59/2007) and pandemic (p) (A/Mexico/4486/09) strains, 24 were denatured and the resulting ssDNA fragments were subjected to the native 25 electrophores is in optimal conditions for the MSSCP analysis (15-10-5 \degree C, 450 Vxh/per 18

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phase, 10% PA). Results of this experiment (after visualization with silver stain) are shown in 1 2Fig. 1. According to the electrophoretic profiles (Fig. 1), none of the samples contains 3fragments corresponding to the predominant influenza A seasonal strain (s) which excludes the possibility of co-infection with seasonal and pandemic strains. Samples designated as 4 2009-02626, 2009-00940, 2009-08542, 2010-00842, 2010-06031, 2011-02054, 2011-00623, 5 2009-06078, 2009-04909, 2009-00937, 2009-08575, 2011-04512, 2011-02068 and 2011- 6 704611 exhibited MSSCP profiles identical to the reference pandemic strain, while the 8electrophoretic profiles of five samples: 2010-03994, 2011-01219, 2010-01164, 2010-05270 9and 2010-05347 were different from that of the pandemic reference strain. For further 10analysis, if profiles reflected distinct DNA sequences, ssDNA bands from the samples 11 indicated by arrows in Fig. 1 were extracted from the gel, re-amplified as described in 12Materials and Methods, and the PCR products were Sanger sequenced. Additionally, the 13 reference pandemic ssDNA bands were analyzed in the same manner.

Sanger sequencing of the ssDNA bands confirmed that fourteen out of the nineteen 15analyzed samples, were identical with the A(H1N1)pdm09 pandemic strain reference 16 sequence (Table 2). For the five samples with electrophoretic profiles different from the 17 reference strain, Sanger sequencing revealed the presence of many point mutations. Schematic 18 representation of all detected mutations and their localization within analyzed HA amplicone 19 are presented in Fig. 2. Sample 2010-03994 contained two point mutations, 2011 -01219 – 20 eight, $2010 - 01164 -$ three, $2010 - 05270 -$ seven and $2010 - 05347 -$ five. Six mutations were 21 present in more than one sample (Fig. 2), and nine were unique to single isolates. It seems 22unlikely that mutations arose during the short passages of the original virus from swabs in 23MDCK cells. 14

DNA codons containing detected point mutations were translated to amino acids and 25 compared with the pandemic reference sequence. Furthermore, their physico-chemical 24

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properties and localization within HA protein structure were also determined. All detected 1 2 point mutations as well as corresponding changes of amino acids, in comparison to reference sequence, are summarized in Table 2. Two mutations (TAC>AAC, GTA>ATA) close to the 3 4vicinity of 3' end of the amplicones, were not analyzed as they were localized within the 5 primer binding region. Five mutations were synonymous substitutions (Table 2), that did not affect the HA protein sequence. In three cases the mutations led to substitutions preserving the 6 physico-chemical properties of the encoded amino acids. However, some of the non-7 synonymous substitutions affected the physico-chemical properties of amino acids (Table 2). 8 Three point mutations (GTA>GGA, GCC>GAC, GAG>AAG), leading to amino acid changes 9 10(valine (V)>glycine (G), alanine (A)>aspartic acid (D), glutamic acid (E)>lysine (K) 11 respectively), were localized in a region presumed to be part of epitope E of H1. To check if 12these changes could affect HA-Ab binding and modulate the potential immune response 13against A(H1N1)v, we analyzed this region by molecular modeling and estimated the possible 14 impact on vaccine effectiveness.

Using sequence based structural alignment method we have matched the HA1 16 structure of H1 hemagglutinin (3ZTN) with the neutralizing antibody directed to H3 17hemagglutinin from 1QFU, the 3-D structures were processed and aligned to obtain maximum 18 resemblance of their HA-Ab binding interfaces. According to Figure 3, one of the detected 19 mutations - E66K was localized in an HA-Ab binding interface. 15

Substitutions in the amino acid sequence, that distinguish a circulating strain from a 21 vaccine strain, can be characterized by antigenic distance measured by values like P-value or $22p_{\text{epitope}}$ ⁹ and then used for determination of how these substitutions may influence the vaccine 23 effectiveness level predicted by a previously established mathematical model. We provide 24 such quantification based on five substitutions. All calculations are described in detail in 25Materials and Methods. The calculated p_{epitope} value based on substituted amino acids located 20

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in epitope E, shows that these substitutions can result in 17.5% decrease of the predicted 1 2vaccine efficacy.

The mutated fragments listed in Table 2 were compared with available *HA* sequences 4of Taiwan pandemic influenza isolates deposited in the NCBI and EpiFlu data banks. The 5phylogenetic tree constructed for the 935 nt HA gene fragment, showed that the isolates may be divided into several clusters (Fig. 4). The isolates described in this work form a 6 7 distinguishable cluster except isolate 2010-01164 which shares the V47G mutation with a 8group represented by isolate EPI382342. It should be pointed out that the A48D and E66K 9 mutations identified here were not found in any other group of isolates that were subjected to 10 comparative analysis. They may therefore represent novel changes in HA which appeared in 11the 2010/2011 flu season and suggest a short-term or geographically limited emergence of 12influenza A virus strains with a high antibody evading potential 3

Discussion 1

Over four years have passed since the emergence of a novel H1N1 influenza A virus 3(A(H1N1)v) which caused the first global pandemic in the 21st century. The virus is still 4circulating in many countries, though at a much lower level than in its peak season of 2009- $52010.^{10}$ The impact of A(H1N1)v during the upcoming seasons will be directly correlated with 6the immunity of the population provided the virus does not undergo significant antigenic 7 *So, as long as the virus is genetically stable and the percentage of population* 8 resistant to infection is high (immunity being attained either by vaccinations or prior 9exposures to cross-reacting strains), it should not pose a major risk to public health. However, 10the influenza virus is a master of immune evasion and the possibility of an explosive 11 emergence of new mutants of A(H1N1) v cannot be excluded. 2

The evasion of the host immune response by an influenza virus can be accomplished 13by at least three ways. Firstly, by sequential changes in *HA* (and other influenza virus genes) 14 owing to the error-prone copying of the RNA genome by the viral RNA polymerase; this 15 phenomenon is called as antigenic drift. Second, by much more abrupt changes due to 16 antigenic shift during co-infection with different HA subtypes; it can be described as 17 importation by reassortment of a gene encoding a different *HA* subtype concurrently with or 18 without other viral gene segments. The third mode is a special case of the antigenic shift 19 involving intrasubtypic reassortment which may occur during co-infection with two different 20 strains of the same serotype. The HA serotype in the progeny virus which underwent 21 reaasortment remains the same, though the *HA* sequence may differ significantly from the *HA* 22 sequences of the parental viruses. 12

The intrasubtypic reassorment may be particularly dangerous when two major strains 24 of the same serotype co-circulate in an area, as was the case with the seasonal and pandemic 25A(H1N1) viruses. We showed previously that among patients in Polish hospitals co-infection 23

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1 with these two strains was observed at a fairly high frequency.¹² In contrast, in the selected 2 samples diagnosed as pandemic $A(H1N1)$ pdm09 in Taiwan, mixed infections with seasonal 3and pandemic strains were not detected, but instead some samples exhibited unique, specific 4electrophoretic profiles, different from the A/Mexico/4486/09 reference pandemic strain. Five 5out of nineteen samples contained point mutations. Notably, all samples isolated in 2009 were 6identical to the reference sequence, even though originating from Mexico and the mutations 7were observed only in samples isolated in 2010 and 2011, suggesting geographically limited 8 virus evolution.

 To assess the potential impact of the detected genetic changes on the virus fitness, we 10analyzed them more closely. We based our conclusions on the epitope mapping done by Deem 11 and Pan 13 in which epitopes A-E of H3 hemagglutinin were aligned with the corresponding 12amino acids in H1 hemagglutinin. After sequence alignment, similarity of the epitopes was 13 verified by 3-D structure alignment of H1 and H3 hemagglutinins. Therefore we refer to this 14bioinformatically mapped regions of H1 as epitopes A-E of H1 hemagglutinin. Three amino 15 acid substitutions affecting their physico-chemical properties: (GTA>GGA, GCC>GAC and 16GAG>AAG), detected in three Taiwanese isolates localized to the HA region presumed to be 17a part of the epitope E of $H1¹³$ It is also worthy to point out that residue 66 (E) of H1 18hemagglutinin is also a part of nine amino acid sequence (ILGNPECEL) listed among 19 $predicted$ epitopes for A2 supertype of MHC Class I molecule¹⁴ by Influenza Research 20 Database 15 9

Hemagglutinin is a homo-trimer with each of the subunits comprising two 22 polypeptides: HA1 and HA2. They fold into an α -helical stem and a globular domain, both of 23which can interact with the host cell membrane. Also neutralizing antibodies can bind to the 24both structures, as seen in crystallographic studies e.g, 3ZTN or 1EO8, but primarily they 25target the globular domain, where the HA receptor binding site is also located.^{16,17} Based on 21

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1the approach proposed by Deem and Pan 13 we used data for H3 hemagglutinin from the 1QFU 2complex and matched its structure with that of H1 hemagglutinin (3ZTN) to predict their 3interaction interface. The HA-Ab interface with the BH151 antibody is formed by 14 residues (50-54, 65-70 and 81-85 of HA1). The E66K mutation (Fig. 3) is within this interface and 4 5 could affect it as it changes both the charge and size of the amino acid. Single mutations 6within HA-AB interface, or even those located in its close vicinity, have already been shown 7to allow viruses to escape neutralization.¹⁸ Mutations of the interface residue D54 to N or to Y 8 make the influenza virus immune to the HC45 and BH151 antibodies.^{19,20} This effect may be 9 caused by introducing a new glycosylation site.²¹ It is noteworthy that the mutation $E66K$ 10may create a new glycosylation site and residue 66 is in close contact with D54, forming a 11 hydrogen bond with its main chain in the crystal structure 1EO8.

On the other hand, although mutations at a protein-protein interface may be a strong 13indication of structural hindrances hampering complex formation, there are also studies 14 showing the ability of antibodies to bind protein variants with one or a few amino acids 15 changed.^{20, 22} The close proximity to a known escape mutation residue, exposure and interface 16location suggest the major role of residue 66 in modulating HA-Ab affinity. Nevertheless, this 17hypothesis needs further studies. 12

It is also worth mentioning that the observed substitutions present in epitope E of H1 19 may affect vaccine effectiveness when they become widespread. The vaccine effectiveness 20undergoes annual changes, partially due to antigenic distances between the recommended 21 vaccine strain and the circulating strain.¹³ One of factors to quantify such antigenic distance is $22p_{\text{eptope}}$ value which describes the highest fraction of substituted amino acids in all epitopes.^{23, 24} 23 Recent studies showed that vaccine effectiveness correlates with the p_{epitope} value, thus one can 24 quantify the impact of substituted amino acids on the predicted level of vaccine effectiveness 25 for influenza-like illnesses, which is 52.7% ²⁴ According to our p_{epitope} and vaccine 18

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1effectiveness calculations, the five substitutions found in epitope E of HA can decrease the 2predicted vaccine effectiveness from 52.7% to 35.2%. Obviously, there are many other factors 3that can alter the vaccine effectiveness. Although the presented calculations are only based on available epidemiological data, conclusions derived from such mathematical models may be 4 5useful in future understanding of influenza virus diversity.²⁴

Materials and Methods 1

Sample collection and virus propagation 2

Clinical specimens (throat or nasal swabs) from outpatients (southern, eastern, northern and central Taiwan communities) with influenza-like illnesses and from hospitalized 4 patients who developed severe complications, were collected and transported to the 5 laboratories of the influenza surveillance network in Taiwan, which is coordinated by the 6 7 Centers for Disease Control (Taiwan CDC), for influenza diagnosis using virus culture or/and 8real-time RT-PCR. All influenza isolates from positive cases were transported to the Taiwan 9 CDC where they were shortly passaged in MDCK cells at 34 ^oC in serum free DMEM 10medium (Life Technologies, cat no. 21855-025) with TPCK-trypsin (Thermo Scientific, cat 11no. 20-233) and further characterized by analyzing the viral antigenicity and sequences of HA 12 genes. Sample information with clinical features of A(H1N1)pdm09 infection is summarized 13in Table 1. 3

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Total RNA extraction and cDNA synthesis 15

Viral RNA was extracted from cultured viral isolates using QIAamp Viral RNA Mini 17Kits (Qiagen, cat. no. 52904). In brief, 140 µl of a clinical specimen was mixed with AVL 18buffer, followed by 560 µl of ethanol. The resultant suspensions were applied on a QIAamp 19 Mini column for RNA binding. After washing with wash buffers and eluting with TE buffer, 20the eluted viral RNA was used in the reverse transcription assay. Alternatively, automated 21 extraction was conducted using a MagNa Pure LC extraction system (Roche). For cDNA 22 preparation, BluePrint(TM) 1st Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit (Takara BIO Inc, cat. no. 6110) 23 was used. Template viral RNA and random primers were mixed in a total volume of 10 μ l. 24 After incubating at 65° C for 5 minutes followed by cooling on ice, reaction buffer, reverse 25transcriptase and water were added. The resultant mixture was incubated at 30° C for 10 16

1minutes, then at 42°C for 30 minutes. The obtained cDNA was used in PCR assays. To 2determine the viral genotype, partial nucleotide sequences (position 393-1182) of the HA 3genes were first analyzed by RT-PCR using primers published by WHO. Genotypes of the 4isolated viruses were then determined by blasting the sequences through the NCBI database. 5All of the A(H1N1)pdm09 isolates in this study were identified as A/California/07/2009-like 6viruses.

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Hemagglutinin gene fragment amplification by PCR 8

The primers specific for a fragment of HA gene of both pandemic A(H1N1)v and 10seasonal A(H1N1)v strain were as follows: H1msscp1 (5'-AGTAACACACTCTGT-3') and 11H1msscp2 (5'-ACAATGTAGGACCATGA-3'). The primers were synthesized by IBB PAN 12(Warsaw, Poland). PCR was performed in a 25 µl reaction volume with standard reagents, 0.4 13µM each primer and 1 µl of cDNA solution. The assay was performed in a GeneAmp PCR 14System 2700 (Applied Biosystems Inc., USA) according to the following procedure: 7 min. at 1594°C for initial denaturation, then 45 cycles of denaturation at 94 °C for 10 s, annealing at 1646°C for 30 s and extension at 68° C for 35 s. After the last cycle the reaction was completed 17by a final extension at 68° C for 7 min. 9

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MSSCP-based minor genetic variants enrichment procedure 19

The PCR products were analyzed by the MSSCP method at strictly controlled $(±$ 210.2°C) gel temperature in a dedicated apparatus: DNAPointer[®] System/BioVectis (Warsaw, 22Poland) as described by Kaczanowski et al.²⁵ Briefly, the PCR products were heat denatured 23 and ssDNA conformers were resolved on a 9% polyacrylamide gel in native conditions (TBE 24buffer), the gel temperature decreasing during the run from the initial 15 $\rm{°C}$ to 10 $\rm{°C}$ to 5 $\rm{°C}$. 25Electrophoretic profiles of analyzed amplicones were compared to reference samples 20

1 representing seasonal: A/Brisbane/59/2007 and pandemic: A/Mexico/4486/09 A(H1N1) 2strains. Subsequently, DNA bands were visualized by silver nitrate staining (SilverStain DNA 3Kit, BioVectis, cat. no. 200-101). Fragments of the MSSCP gel containing bands of interest 4(for samples with electrophoretic profile in accordance with pandemic reference sample: the first ssDNA band from the bottom of the gel; for samples with electrophoretic profile distinct 5 from pandemic reference sample: the first ssDNA band from the top of the gel) were cut out, 6 7ssDNA was eluted and re-amplified using primers and PCR conditions as described above. For subsequent DNA Sanger sequencing (3730xl DNA Analyzer, Applied Biosystems, 8 9Carlsbad, CA, USA) 1/10 vol. of obtained PCR products, purified with exonuclease I (Exo) 10 and shrimp alkaline phosphatase (Sap) enzymes (Fermentas, cat. no. EN0581 and EF0511) 11 was used. 26

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Bioinformatic analysis of HA structures 13

14HA structures were downloaded from the RCSB website http://www.rcsb.org (PDB accession 15 codes: 3ZTN and 1QFU) and subjected to a short 200 step minimization procedure with the 16backbone atoms fixed. Minimization was done with Tripos SybylX and AMBER force field to 17relax crystalographic constrains imposed especially on the surface exposed amino acid side 18 chains. Next, structures where superimposed using the Matchmaker software²⁷, by first 19 creating a pairwise sequence alignment with the Needleman and Wunsch algorithm and 20BLOSUM-62 matrix, and then fitting the aligned residue pairs. RMSD between 165 aligned 21 atom pairs was 1.111 A, yielding a highly matched structural alignment. The aligned 22crystallographic structures were analyzed with the emphasis on the interface between HA 23 protein and neutralizing antibody chains: H and L chains from 1QFU. Volume analysis was 24 conducted with VolSurf as implemented in Tripos SybylX (Tripos Inc., St. Louis, MO, USA) 25 packages. UCSF Chimera was used for hydrogen bond network analysis, contact/clash

1estimation and electrostatic surface generation.

Calculation of *p***epitope value and vaccine effectiveness** 3

All calculations were based on data shown in Pan *et al.*²⁴ The *P*-value which is used to 5 measure antigenic distance between circulating and vaccine strain²¹ was calculated for every 6epitope of H1 $(A-E)$ using equation 8 in reference $[24]$: 4

7P-value= Number of substitutions in the epitope / Number of amino acids in the epitope. The calculation was based on the assumption that the only difference between the 8 hypothetical strain and vaccine strain are the five amino acid substitutions present in epitope 9 10E of H1. The P_{epitope} value is the highest of all P -values²⁴. The P-value for epitope E was taken 11as the p_{epitope} value for further calculations. As shown in chart on Figure 2 in reference [24] 12based on epidemiological data for various circulating and vaccine strains from 1982 to 2008 13taken from Table II in reference [24], vaccine effectiveness is a decreasing linear function 14(R^2 =0.68) of p_{epitope} described as:

15 vaccine effectiveness = $-1.19p_{\text{epitope}} + 0.53$.

16The predicted value of vaccine effectiveness calculated by Pan *et al*²⁴ was 52.7%, for $p_{\text{epitope}} =$ 170.

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Phylogenetic analysis of A(H1N1)pdm09 isolates 19

20Two hundred and twenty one Taiwan origin A(H1N1) hemagglutinin nucleotide sequences 21 deposited from 2009 through 2011 were downloaded from EpiFlu database. The sequences 22were aligned in Geneious Alignment Tool and duplicated sequences were removed. The 12 23 unique sequences were then aligned with the five sequences from our study. After extraction, 24 merged regions comprising nucleotides 183 - 291 and 364-1189 were used to create a

phylogenetic tree based on Neighbor-joining method with Tamura Nei genetic distance model 2using Geneious Tree Builder.

Acknowledgements 1

2We acknowledge the authors and laboratories originating and submitting the sequences from 3GISAID's EpiFlu™ Database, on which this research is based. The list is detailed in Table 3. 4KL and BS were supported by a PBS grant of NCBiR (National Center for Research and Development) 5

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Figure Legends 1

2**Figure 1**

3New genetic variants among A(H1N1)pdm09 isolates collected at Taiwan between 2009-2011 detected by MSSCP genotyping. 4

5RT-PCR products of hemagglutinin gene obtained from pandemic Taiwan A(H1N1)pdm09 6 virus isolates, as well as reference seasonal (s) and pandemic (p) strains of influenza virus 7A(H1N1)pdm09 were denatured and ssDNA's were separated on a 9 % polyacrylamide gel 8using MSSCP method under optimum electrophoretic conditions. DNA bands were visualized 9with silver stain. Strains are indicated as follows: s – reference seasonal strain, p – reference 10 pandemic strains. Taiwan isolates are described with symbols listed in Table 1. Note the 11 presence of five distinct MSSCP electrophoretic profiles (arrows at the bottom of the figure) 12(samples number: 2010-03994, 2011-01219, 2010-01164, 2010-05270, 2010-05347) among 13 samples, which based on RT-PCR assay, were classified as A(H1N1)pdm09 strain. Dividing 14lines indicate grouping of images from different parts of the same gel.

15

16Figure 2

17Schematic representation of genetic diversity of hemagglutinin (HA) sequence in five Taiwan 18 isolates of A(H1N1) v pan09 strain.

19Black arrows above and below A(H1N1) v pdm09 reference sequence indicate modified DNA 20 codons. Red letters show nucleotide changes. Altered amino acids in HA protein sequence are 21 also shown. Blue star over the description indicates amino acids localized in the epitope E of 22HA. Additionally, red arrows underline three point mutations, which are translated to amino 23 acids in the epitope E of HA.

24

Figure 3 1

2Structure of HA-Ab complex.

3Hemagglutinin protein monomer (blue color) interacting which neutralizing antibody (red 4color). Amino acid 66, localized on the HA-Ab interface is marked in green.

5

Figure 4 6

Phylogenetic tree of nucleotide sequences of hemagglutinin gene of Taiwan isolates of 7 8influenza A(H1N1)pdm09 virus.

All sequences included in phylogenetic analysis were 935 nucleotides long. All Taiwan 9 10isolates deposited from 2009 through 2011 were retrieved from the EpiFlu Database. Each isolate (EPI210250 HA, EPI382332 HA, EPI382342 HA, EPI382415 HA, EPI190807 HA, 11 EPI382397 HA, EPI382345 HA, EPI382352 HA, EPI382407 HA, EPI382412 HA, 12 13EPI382365 HA, EPI382375 HA) represents a number of identical sequences used in 14 alignment. Isolates studied in this paper are described in Table 2. Numbers on branches 15indicate number of nucleotide substitutions per site.

Table 1 1

2Sample information and clinical symptoms of flu infection among A(H1N1)pdm09 Taiwan 3 patients.

Table 2 1

2Genetic diversity of HA gene fragment in Taiwan A(H1N1)pdm09 isolates. Red indicates 3 mutations localized in epitope E of HA protein. Blue indicates amino acids substitutions preserving physico-chemical properties. Bold black font indicates synonymous amino acid 4 substitutions. 5

1We acknowledge the authors, originating and submitting laboratories of the sequences from GISAID's EpiFlu™ Database on which this research is based. The list is detailed below.

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