1

Novel Epitopic Region of Glucosyltransferase B from Streptococcus mutans

Tomonori Hoshino, 1\* Yoshio Kondo, 1 Kan Saito, 1 Yutaka Terao, 2 Nobuo Okahashi, 3 Shigetada

Kawabata,<sup>2</sup> and Taku Fujiwara<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Pediatric Dentistry, Nagasaki University Graduate School of Biomedical

Sciences, Nagasaki, Japan; <sup>2</sup>Department of Oral and Molecular Microbiology, Osaka

University Graduate School of Dentistry, Osaka, Japan; <sup>3</sup>Department of Oral Frontier Biology,

Graduate School of Dentistry, Osaka University, Osaka, Japan

\*Corresponding author

Mailing address: Department of Pediatric Dentistry, Nagasaki University Graduate School of

Biomedical Sciences, 1-7-1 Sakamoto, Nagasaki 852-8588, Japan. Phone: 81-819-7674; Fax:

81-819-7675; E-mail: thoshino@nagasaki-u.ac.jp

**Running title:** Reevaluation of the epitope from GtfB

**Key words:** glucosyltransferase B, dental caries, antigenicity, DNA vaccine, adenovirus

#### **Abstract**

In the development of a component vaccine against caries, the catalytic region (CAT) and glucan-binding domain (GBD) of glucosyltransferase B (GtfB) from Streptococcus mutans have been employed as target antigens. These regions were adopted as primary targets because they theoretically include epitopes associated with enzyme function. However, their antigenicity has not been fully evaluated. Although there are many reports about successful vaccination using these components, the principle has not yet been put to practical use. For these reasons, we came to doubt the effectiveness of the epitopes in vaccine production and reevaluated the antigenic region of GtfB using in silico analyses combined with in vitro and in vivo experiments. The results suggest that the ca. 360-amino-acid variable region (VR) in the N-terminus of GtfB would be more reactive than CAT and GBD. This region is S. mutansand/or GtfB-specific, non-conserved among other streptococcal Gtfs, and of unknown function. Immunization using an adenovirus vector-borne DNA vaccine confirmed that VR is an epitope that shows promise for the development of a caries vaccine.

# Introduction

In spite of some success with preventive measures, dental caries continue to be prevalent and costly in many populations, and the development of a vaccine to prevent dental caries is still a desirable goal. Attempts to develop a vaccine against dental caries began with immunization using whole cells of the primary etiologic agent *Streptococcus mutans* in rhesus monkeys (23, 24). Although dental caries were successfully prevented in these studies, it was reported that the induced antibodies showed cross-reactivity with the human heart muscle (10, 48). Thereafter, components derived from *S. mutans* were investigated to avoid induction of antibodies that cross-reacted with human tissue. The molecules primarily focused as target antigens are glucosyltransferase B (GtfB) (46) and antigen I/II (Ag I/II) (34).

GtfB was further truncated and the catalytic region (CAT) (37) and the glucan-binding domain (GBD) (20) were employed as effective antigenic components. These components were combined with the cholera toxin B subunit (22), the saliva-binding region derived from Ag I/II (50), or both (30) to further enhance immunogenicity.

Despite these successful results reported more than 10 years ago, a GtfB-based vaccine against caries has not yet been put to practical use. One reason may be that induction of mucosal immunity is needed to produce the effective secretory IgA (S-IgA) antibodies that

can prevent dental caries. Although encouraging results have been reported (3-6, 30, 38, 39), salivary S-IgA responses of are often variable, transient, and of low magnitude compared with serum IgG responses. Another cause for the delay of the anti-caries vaccine may be the antigenicity of the target antigens CAT and GBD, which were selected due to their association with enzyme function (40, 41). No study has addressed the immunogenicity of CAT and GBD by immunological, biochemical, or bioinformatic methods. It was recently suggested that effective screening for candidate vaccine antigens should include *in silico* analysis followed by *in vitro* and *in vivo* evaluation of antigenicity to reduce time and cost (29).

In this study, we reevaluated the immunogenicity of GtfB using *in silico* approaches followed by *in vitro* and *in vivo* experiments to identify antigenic regions that may be employed in an effective anti-caries vaccine. On the basis of our findings, we constructed a DNA vaccine using an adenovirus vector and confirmed its ability to induce specific antibodies contributing to immunity in mice.

#### MATERALS AND METHODS

Bacterial strains and growth media. *S. mutans* MT8148 (serotype *c*) was routinely cultured in brain-heart infusion (BHI) broth (Difco Laboratories, Detroit, MI, USA) or on Mitis-Salivarius (MS) agar (Difco) at 37 °C in air. *Escherichia coli* XL-2 (Stratagene Ltd., Cambridge, UK) was cultured aerobically in Luria-Bertani (LB) medium. When appropriate, erythromycin, kanamycin, and ampicillin (Wako Pure Chemicals, Osaka, Japan) were added to the LB medium to final concentrations of 500, 30, and 100 μg/mL, respectively.

Preparation of GtfB. *S. mutans* MT8148 was cultured in 5 L of TTY medium (composed of Trypticase, tryptone, yeast extract, salts, and 1% glucose) instead of BHI broth, because of increased yield of bacterial cells (16) at 37 °C, to an optical density of 0.8 at 550 nm. The bacteria were collected by centrifugation, and cell-associated Gtf (CA-Gtf) was extracted by treatment with 50 mL of 8 M urea at 25 °C for 1 h. The extract was dialyzed against 10 mM sodium phosphate buffer (NaPB, pH 6.5) and adjusted to 60% saturation with ammonium sulfate. After centrifugation, the precipitate was dissolved in 10 mM NaPB (pH 7.5) and then dialyzed against the same buffer. The crude CA-Gtf sample was applied to a diethylaminoethyl (DEAE) Sepharose FF (GE Healthcare UK Ltd., Buckinghamshire, UK) column (bed vol., 10 mL) and eluted with a linear gradient of 0–1.0 M NaCl in the same

buffer. Active fractions measured as described below were pooled, concentrated by ammonium sulfate precipitation, dialyzed against 10 mM NaPB (pH 7.5), applied to a Bio-Scale CHT10-I column (bed vol., 10 mL; BioRad Laboratories, Hercules, CA, USA), and then eluted with a linear gradient of 10–500 mM potassium phosphate buffer (KPB) (15). To select the GtfB fractions, we performed a glucan synthesis assay (15), an enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) using anti-CA-Gtf antibody, and a western blot using anti-Gtf-I (GtfB) and anti-Gtf-SI (GtfC) monoclonal antibodies (47).

**Glucan synthesis assay.** Glucan-synthesizing activity was determined using [ $^{14}$ C-glucose]-sucrose as described previously (15). In brief, reaction mixtures composed of Gtf and 10 mM [ $^{14}$ C-glucose] sucrose (11.47 GBq/mmol) in 20  $\mu$ L of 50 mM KPB (pH 6.0) were incubated for 1 h at 37 °C, spotted on a filter paper (1.0 × 1.5 cm), and air-dried. The filters were washed with methanol to remove non-incorporated [ $^{14}$ C-glucose]-sucrose and then immersed in scintillation fluid to estimate the amount of *de novo*-synthesized

Generation of anti-CA-Gtf antiserum. Antisera were prepared by repeatedly injecting rabbits intramuscularly with the emulsion made by mixing Gtf-active fractions that were purified using a DEAE Sepharose FF column and Freund's complete adjuvant (Difco) once,

followed by Freund's incomplete adjuvant (Difco) twice. The antibodies were purified from rabbit antiserum by 3× precipitation with 33% ammonium sulfate.

**Sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) and Western blotting.** Conventional SDS-PAGE and western blot analyses were carried out as described previously (12). In brief, Gtf samples and *E. coli* cells carrying the recombinant plasmid were suspended in SDS gel-loading buffer and boiled for 5 min. Proteins separated by SDS-PAGE were transferred onto a polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) membrane (Immobilon; Millipore, Billerica, MA, USA). After blocking with 5% bovine serum albumin (BSA), the membrane was reacted with a primary antibody at 37 °C for 1 h, and the bound antibody was subsequently detected using a solid-phase immunoassay employing goat anti-rabbit IgG antibody conjugated with alkaline phosphatase (AP), or goat anti-mouse IgG antibody conjugated with horseradish peroxidase (HRP).

When NuPAGE<sup>®</sup> 4–12% Bis-Tris gels (Invitrogen by Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA, USA) were used, the samples were suspended in NuPAGE<sup>®</sup> LDS sample buffer and NuPAGE<sup>®</sup> Sample Reducing Agent (Invitrogen) and incubated at 70 °C for 10 min.

Coomassie brilliant blue (CBB) staining of the gels was performed using SimplyBlue SafeStain<sup>TM</sup> (Invitrogen). For immunoblotting, the proteins were transferred onto 0.2-μm

PVDF membranes (Invitrogen) for 30 min at a constant voltage of 200 V. After blocking with 5% nonfat dry milk and 0.2% Tween 20 in Tris borate saline (TBS) at 4 °C overnight, the membranes were incubated with primary antibody in TBS containing 1% BSA at room temperature for 1 h. The membranes were washed 5 times with TBS containing 0.2% Tween and then incubated with secondary antibodies conjugated with HRP at a dilution of 1:3000 in TBS with 1% BSA at room temperature for 1 h. The membranes were then washed 5 times with TBS, and the signals were detected using a conventional solid-phase immunoassay.

ELISA. The ELISA was used to measure the amounts of GtfB or titers of antibody. The GtfB samples were applied to a 96-well plate, incubated at 37 °C for 1 h, and washed 5 times with phosphate buffered saline (PBS) containing 0.2% Tween 20 (PBST). The primary antibody at a dilution of 1:1000 in PBST was applied onto each well, and the plates were incubated at 37 °C for 1 h and then washed 5 times. The appropriate secondary antibody conjugated with AP at a dilution of 1:1000 was applied to each well and allowed to react at 37 °C for 1 h, and the plates were then washed 5 times. Subsequently, the GtfB amount or antibody titer was assessed using an Alkaline Phosphatase Substrate Kit according to the manufacturer's instructions (BioRad).

Protein assay. The amounts of GtfB or protein in antiserum were estimated using a Pierce® BCA Protein Assay Kit according to the supplier's manual (Takara Bio Inc., Shiga, Japan).

Polymerase chain reaction (PCR). All PCR analyses in this study were performed using TaKaRa EX Taq® Hot Start version (Takara) according to the manufacturer's instructions as described previously (18). In brief, PCR was performed using 30 cycles of a denaturing step at 98 °C for 10 s and a primer-annealing and extension step at 60 °C for 30 s or 1 min according to the amplicon size.

Prediction of antigenic regions of GtfB in silico. The antigenic regions of GtfB were predicted using Kolaskar's method (21) (available at http://imed.med.ucm.es/Tools/antigenic.pl) or Parker's method (33) and Welling's method (49) using ANTHEPROT 2000 version 6.0 software (7) (http://antheprot-pbil.ibcp.fr/index.php).

**Preparation of recombinant CAT and GBD and generation of anti-CAT and anti-GBD antisera.** Based on the result of Kolaskar's method, PCR primers to amplify DNA fragments encoding CAT and GBD were designed (Table 1). The pSK6 plasmid that harbors the *gtfB* gene from *S. mutans* MT8148 (13) was used as a PCR template. Each amplified fragment was digested using the restriction enzymes that were added to the PCR primers and cloned into pGEX-6P-1 (GE Healthcare). The recombinant CAT and GBD were expressed as glutathione

S-transferase (GST) fusion proteins. These recombinant proteins were digested by passing through PreScission Protease (GE Healthcare), and their GST regions were removed using a GSTrap FF column (GE Healthcare). Recombinant proteins and the adjuvant were used to immunize the rabbits, and anti-CAT and anti-GBD antisera were obtained as described above.

Construction of DNA vaccine plasmid and variable region (VR) adenovirus. The VR region containing the antigenic regions predicted by Parker's method was amplified by PCR using the pSK6 plasmid as a template and the primers shown in Table 1. The amplicon digested by KpnI and PstI was cloned into pSecTag2B (Invitrogen), and pSecTag2B-VRGB was constructed as the DNA vaccine plasmid for VR (Fig. 1 A). The expression cassette was cleaved by NruI and SphI from pSecTag2B-VRGB, blunted, and used to construct the recombined adenovirus according to a previous report (44). In brief, the blunted expression cassette was ligated with SwaI-digested pALC3 vector and introduced into E. coli DH10B using an *in vitro*  $\lambda$  phage packaging kit (Nippon Gene). The structure of the resulting cosmid, pALC3-VRGB, is illustrated in Figure 1B. To generate infectious recombinant adenoviral vectors, the pALC3-VRGB cosmid and pOG44 plasmid (Invitrogen) for the expression of FLP recombinase were cotransfected into HEK 293 cells (293 cell) seeded on a gelatin-coated well using Lipofectamine (GIBCO-BRL) according to the supplier's instructions, and the

recombinant adenovirus AdV-VRGB was harvested after 15 days from wells in which bacteriolysis complement was observed (Figs. 1C and D). The titer of the harvested adenoviral suspension was measured using an Adeno-X<sup>TM</sup> Rapid Titer Kit (Takara).

Detecting the expression of AdV-VRGB-mediated gene and protein in 293 cells. Total RNA was extracted using TRIZOL® reagent (Invitrogen) from the 293 cells 3 days after they were infected with AdV-VRGB, and reverse transcription was performed using SuperScript III (Invitrogen) and Oligo (dT)<sub>20</sub> primer (Invitrogen). To detect the mRNA of AdV-VRGB-mediated genes, we used primers to amplify the VR region (Table 1) and  $\beta$ -actin primers (Invitrogen) as an internal control. In addition, total protein was extracted from the 293 cells 3 days after AdV-VRGB infection and was assessed by western blotting and enhanced chemiluminescence.

Immunization with DNA vaccine for VR and generation of anti-VR antiserum. The DNA vaccine for VR was used to immunize 6 week old female mice (BALB/c AnNcrlCrlj; Charles River Laboratory Japan, Inc.) 4 times every night using retrograde intra-common ductal injections (43). The mice were injected with AdV-VRGB suspension ( $1 \times 10^9$  pfu in 200  $\mu$ L of lactated Ringer's solution) the first time according to a previous report (43), and with 50  $\mu$ g of pSecTag2B-VRGB plasmid in lactated Ringer's solution the other 3 times. The

antiserum titer was measured by ELISA using 10 ng of the purified GtfB as an antigen, and serum was harvested from ascites 2 weeks after the last immunization.

Inhibition assay of GtfB activity by anti-VR antiserum. The effect of anti-VR antiserum on the GtfB was analyzed according to a previous method (11). A solution of purified GtfB (conc.,  $1.5 \mu g/\mu L$ ) was incubated with an equal volume of anti-VR antiserum, anti-CA-Gtf antiserum, or sham serum undiluted or diluted 1:3 in PBS. The reaction mixtures of GtfB and serum were then incubated with [ $^{14}$ C-glucose]-sucrose at 37 °C for 1 h, and the amount of [ $^{14}$ C]-glucan was measured as described above. Triplicate samples were analyzed in this experiment. Significant differences were determined using Student's *t*-test (p < 0.05).

## **RESULTS**

Purification of GtfB. The cell-associated GtfB and GtfC enzymes were extracted from *S. mutans* MT8148 cells using 8 M urea, and were purified by DEAE-anion exchange chromatography and the following hydroxyapatite column chromatography (Fig. 2A and B). In DEAE-anion exchange chromatography, Gtf activity was observed in fractions 6–17, which were recovered as active fractions. During hydroxyapatite column chromatography, GtfB and GtfC were eluted in fractions 29 and 24, respectively. SDS-PAGE of GtfB and GtfC gave a single protein band with molecular masses of approximately 165 and 163 kDa, respectively (Fig. 2C). Anti-CA-Gtf antiserum reacted with both GtfB and GtfC (Fig. 2D), and anti-Gtf-I and anti-Gtf-SI antisera reacted with GtfB and GtfC, respectively (Figs. 2E and F). The anti-Gtf-I antiserum cross-reacted slightly with GtfC. The purified GtfB was used in further experiments.

Predicting antigenicity using Kolaskar's method and the practical antigenicity of CAT and GBD derived from GtfB. As shown in Figure 3, primary catalytic and glucan-binding sites were included in the group of highly antigenic candidates. On the basis of this prediction, we designed PCR primers for CAT, such that the primer could amplify the region including primary and secondary catalytic sites. Likewise, the PCR primers for GBD

that could amplify the region including the 6 repeating units of GBD were designed. The CAT and GBD region fragments amplified by these PCR primers were ligated into pGEX-6P-1 to form pGEX-6P-1-CAT and pGEX-6P-1-GBD, respectively. The recombinant CAT and GBD were expressed as GST fusion protein, and the GST regions were removed from them by PreScission protease (Invitrogen). The recombinant CAT and GBD proteins were then used to immunize rabbits from which anti-CAT and anti-GBD antisera were obtained. The lysates from E. coli recombined with pGEX-6P-1, GEX-6P-1-CAT, and pGEX-6P-1-GBD were electrophoresed by SDS-PAGE and observed as 26, 38, and 72 kDa of GST fusion protein, respectively (Fig. 4A). In the western blot analyses used to evaluate the antigenicity of CAT and GBD, it was observed that anti-CA-Gtf antibody did not react with the CAT or GBD proteins (Fig. 4B) while anti-CAT and anti-GBD antisera reacted with the corresponding recombinant proteins, and the native GtfB served as a positive control (Figs. 4C and D). In the inhibition assays of these antibodies (Fig. 5), anti-CAT and anti-GBD antibody were less able to inhibit GtfB activity than was anti-CA-Gtf antibody, although there was significant difference between the glucan synthesis inhibited by the anti-GBD antibody and the sham serum. Thus, it was suggested that CAT and GBD regions were not immunodominant compared with the other antigenic regions that reacted with anti-CA-Gtf

antibodies, although they were antigenic in rabbits.

Reevaluation of the antigenic region in GtfB using ANTHEPROT software. As it was suggested that CAT and GBD were non-immunodominant, we reevaluated the antigenic region of GtfB by the other *in silico* predictions identified by the Parker and Welling methods using the ANTHEPROT software (Fig. 6).

According to these analyses, the antigenicity of the primary catalytic site was predicted to be low by both methods as this region was highly hydrophobic, lowly hydrophilic, and lowly solvent-accessible. On the other hand, the GBD region was also predicted to have relatively low antigenicity by both methods, although the 6 periodic antigenic peaks corresponding to the 6 repeating structures were identified as antigenic epitopes in Parker's prediction.

When GtfB was roughly divided into 3 parts, VR, CAT, and GBD, Parker's prediction indicated that the N-terminal VR had more antigenic peaks and was more solvent-accessible than the other 2 parts. No report has evaluated the antigenicity of VR from GtfB. Thus, this region was adopted in the following experiments.

**Expression of AdV-VRGB-mediated gene and protein in 293 cells.** In the RT-PCR analysis used to confirm AdV-VRGB-mediated mRNA expression, appropriately 1.1-kbp fragment was amplified in the sample from the Adv-VRGB-infected 293 cells (Fig. 7A).

Western blot analysis was then used to confirm that the protein derived from AdV-VRGB was produced; an appropriate protein band with a molecular mass of approximately 46 kDa, including myc epitope and histidine tag derived from pSecTag2B was observed in the AdV-VRGB-infected 293 cells (Fig. 7C).

Immunization of mice with AdV-VRGB and pSecTag2B-VRGB. To induce the development of antibodies against VR, AdV-VRGB and pSecTag2B-VRGB were injected at the back of the hind legs of mice once and thrice, respectively. The reason why AdV-VRGB was not used for all 4 immunizations was to prevent the mice from dying due to the injection of adenovirus. To measure the titer of anti-VR IgG, ELISA using the purified GtfB as the antigen and goat anti-mouse IgG antibody as the secondary antibody was performed. It was observed that the titer of anti-VR IgG increased in 2 of 5 mice (Fig. 8). Thus, it was revealed that immunization with AdV-VRGB and pSecTag2B-VRGB could induce the development of antibody against VR. The antiserum against VR recovered from these 2 mice was pooled and used in further experiments.

**Evaluation of the antiserum induced by DNA vaccine against VR.** Reactivity of the antiserum induced by DNA vaccines against VR was evaluated by western blot analysis using crude CA-Gtf extracted from *S. mutans* cells using urea as an antigen (Fig. 9). The results

showed that the antiserum induced by DNA vaccines against VR reacted with natural GtfB.

Thus, it was suggested that the VR of GtfB is the antigenic region and is more reactive than CAT and GBD.

Inhibition of GtfB activity by anti-VR antiserum. We carried out an inhibition assay to prove that the anti-VR antiserum from mice contains antibodies reacted with a native protein such as anti-CA-Gtf, and to evaluate the effect of anti-VR antiserum on the glucan synthesis of GtfB (Fig. 10). In this experiment, the protein concentration of each non-diluted anti-VR antiserum, anti-CA-Gtf antiserum, and sham serum was 60 µg/µL. When the ELISA using equal volumes of GtfB (conc., 1.5 µg/µL) was performed, the absorbance at 405 nm of the non-diluted anti-VR antiserum, anti-CA-Gtf antiserum, and sham serum was 1.2, 1.6, and 0, respectively. These results revealed that the anti-VR antiserum significantly inhibited GtfB activity compared with the sham serum. The anti-VR antiserum inhibited GtfB activity almost to the same degree, as did the anti-CA-GtfB antiserum when 60 µg protein of the antiserum was used. Thus, these results suggested that the anti-VR antiserum induced by AdV-VRGB and pSecTag2B-VRGB effectively inhibited GtfB activity.

## **DISCUSSION**

In the present study, we reevaluated the effectiveness of the CAT and GBD as epitopes in vaccine production and also found that the ca. 360-amino-acid VR, which exists at the N-terminus of GtfB, is a more reactive vaccine target.

The large Gtf molecules hamper complete functional domain mapping. However, studies comparing the amino acid sequences of Gtf from various oral streptococci (Figure 6) have revealed that Gtf consists of 4 regions: an ca. 40-amino-acid conserved signal sequence; an ca. 360-amino-acid VR with unknown function that is species-specific and not conserved among the other Gtfs; an ca. 500-amino-acid catalytic domain, which contains conserved amino acids that are necessary for sucrose hydrolysis (14, 25, 27); and a series of 6 direct repeats that function in glucan binding (1, 9, 28). The latter 2 functional domains were employed as potential vaccine target regions in previous attempts to develop a component vaccine against GtfB, owing to their association with enzyme function and the high degree of sequence conservation among streptococci. However, the antigenicity of those 2 regions was confirmed only by western blot analyses using antibodies induced by synthetic peptides corresponding to the CAT or GBD regions derived from GtfI of S. downei (40, 41). Thereafter, to make up for antigenicity, the diepitopic antigen consisting of both the CAT and GBD (45), the chimera of

CAT and the B subunit of cholera toxin (22), and the chimera of GBD and the saliva-binding region of Ag I/II (50) were applied. On the basis of these successful reports, we also tried to develop a DNA vaccine against CAT and GBD, but did not obtain the expected results. One result was that the recombinant CAT and GBD did not react with the antiserum induced by native Gtf from *S. mutans* (Fig. 4), although these recombinant proteins did induce antibodies that reacted with native GtfB and the corresponding recombinant proteins. In addition, the DNA vaccine plasmid for CAT and GBD using pcDNA3 did not mediate sufficient amounts of the recombinant proteins to induce specific antibodies, although expression of the objective mRNA was confirmed by RT-PCR in an *in vitro* experiment (data not shown). Thus, we began to doubt the antigenicity of these regions as a way to express antigenic protein and decided to focus on alternative domains.

Secondary structure predictions suggest that the Gtfs are members of the  $\alpha$ -amylase superfamily and contain a circularly permuted ( $\alpha/\beta$ )<sub>8</sub>-barrel motif (8, 19, 26). Our results in Figure 6 revealed that the primary CAT site (FDSIRVDAVDN) of GtfB was highly hydrophobic and its solvent accessibility was very low. Since these observations suggested that the primary CAT site would exist on the inside of the ( $\alpha/\beta$ )<sub>8</sub>-barrel structure, it was thought that this region may be difficult to recognize as an antigen for the immune system,

although low-molecular-weight sucrose is able to pass through this structure as an enzyme substrate. Thus, it was suggested that the antigenicity of CAT would be low as shown by Parker's prediction.

In our previous study of glucosyltransferase from *S. oralis* (GtfR; 11), the incomplete recombinant GtfR without GBD reacted with the antiserum induced by native GTFR from *S. oralis*. An antiserum preliminarily prepared by immunization with the recombinant GtfR without GBD not only reacted with native GtfR in western blot analysis but also inhibited glucan synthesis by GtfR (data not shown). On the other hand, GbpA and GBD are homologous, and it was reported that immunization with the entire GbpA protein did not elicit a protective immune response (2, 36). Taken together, these observations indirectly suggested that GBD antigenicity would be lower than that of the other Gtf regions. Practically, our results suggested that GBD would not be immunodominant because few antigenic peaks were seen compared with the other GtfB regions according to analysis using Parker's method (Figure 6).

In this study, we reevaluated the antigenic GtfB region and tried to find a more potent antigenic component. Results of the *in silico* analysis using Parker's method suggested that the VR derived from GtfB was immunodominant, as evidenced by its many antigenic peaks

compared with those of CAT and GBD (Fig. 6). As it was reported that the VR is specific to the Gtf of individual *Streptococcus* species (17, 18), our DNA vaccines would induce GtfB-specific antibodies that would have an effect only on *S. mutans* glucan synthesis and colonization, and would not interfere with Gtf-expressing members of the oral commensal microbiota.

It was recently reported that non-immunodominant regions are effective as building blocks in a streptococcal fusion protein vaccine (42). Although CAT and GBD were suggested to be non-immunodominant in this study, they nevertheless may be attractive vaccine targets. Thus, fusion protein of VR and CAT or GBD may induce more effective antibodies to inhibit glucan synthesis of GtfB.

We adopted the adenovirus vector that possesses an intensive promoter and a high infectious ability as a way to deliver recombinant antigen protein sufficient for mucosal immunization as well. Since it was demonstrated that AdV-VRGB expressed sufficient recombinant antigen protein to induce the development of antibodies that could inhibit GtfB activity in murine *in vivo* experiments, use of AdV-VRGB may also be effective in mucosal route immunization. As a natural consequence, AdV-VRGB ought to be applied to oral experiments in animals to test whether dental caries can be prevented. We realize that there is

a safety problem when it comes to application of this DNA vaccine virus. Even if it were safe, its use would not be permitted in the human oral cavity for dental caries prevention. Because of safety issues, we hesitated to use only DNA vaccine virus in all immunization steps; instead, we used DNA vaccine plasmid in the last 3 immunizations to reduce stress in the mice. We plan to use AdV-VRGB to make a hybridoma that produces anti-VR antibody to clone the gene encoding anti-VR antibody by phage display (35), and to transform this gene into a rice plant using *Agrobacterium*-mediated transformation (31, 32). Rice harvested in this planned study may be evaluated for passive immunization to prevent dental caries.

# **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

We thank T. Mitsu and K. Kinugasa of the Oriental Yeast Co., Ltd. for their technical support concerning the adenoviral experiments. This work was supported by KAKENHI (Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research) from the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science (no. 21659477).

## **REFERENCES**

- 1. **Abo, H., T. Matsumura, T. Kodama, H. Ohta, K. Fukui, K. Kato, and H. Kagawa.**1991. Peptide sequences for sucrose splitting and glucan binding within *Streptococcus sobrinus* glucosyltransferase (water-insoluble glucan synthetase). J Bacteriol

  173:989-996.
- Banas, J. A. and M. M. Vickerman. 2003. Glucan-binding proteins of the oral streptococci. Crit Rev Oral Biol Med 14:89-99.
- 3. Childers, N. K., S. M. Michalek, D. G. Pritchard, and J. R. McGhee. 1990.

  Mucosal and systemic responses to an oral liposome-*Streptococcus mutans*carbohydrate vaccine in humans. Reg Immunol **3:**289-296.
- 4. Childers, N. K., G. Tong, F. Li, A. P. Dasanayake, K. Kirk, and S. M. Michalek.

  2002. Humans immunized with *Streptococcus mutans* antigens by mucosal routes. J

  Dent Res **81:**48-52.
- Childers, N. K., G. Tong, and S. M. Michalek. 1997. Nasal immunization of humans with dehydrated liposomes containing *Streptococcus mutans* antigen. Oral Microbiol Immunol 12:329-335.
- 6. Childers, N. K., S. S. Zhang, and S. M. Michalek. 1994. Oral immunization of

humans with dehydrated liposomes containing *Streptococcus mutans* glucosyltransferase induces salivary immunoglobulin A2 antibody responses. Oral Microbiol Immunol **9:**146-153.

- 7. **Deleage, G., C. Combet, C. Blanchet, and C. Geourjon.** 2001. ANTHEPROT: an integrated protein sequence analysis software with client/server capabilities. Comput Biol Med **31:**259-267.
- 8. **Devulapalle, K. S., S. D. Goodman, Q. Gao, A. Hemsley, and G. Mooser.** 1997. Knowledge-based model of a glucosyltransferase from the oral bacterial group of mutans streptococci. Protein Sci **6:**2489-2493.
- 9. **Ferretti, J. J., M. L. Gilpin, and R. R. Russell.** 1987. Nucleotide sequence of a glucosyltransferase gene from *Streptococcus sobrinus* MFe28. J Bacteriol **169:**4271-4278.
- Ferretti, J. J., C. Shea, and M. W. Humphrey. 1980. Cross-reactivity of *Streptococcus mutans* antigens and human heart tissue. Infect Immun 30:69-73.
- 11. **Fujiwara, T., T. Hoshino, T. Ooshima, S. Sobue, and S. Hamada.** 2000. Purification, characterization, and molecular analysis of the gene encoding glucosyltransferase from *Streptococcus oralis*. Infect Immun **68:**2475-2483.

- 12. **Fujiwara, T., M. Tamesada, Z. Bian, S. Kawabata, S. Kimura, and S. Hamada.**1996. Deletion and reintroduction of glucosyltransferase genes of *Streptococcus mutans* and role of their gene products in sucrose dependent cellular adherence.

  Microb Pathog **20:**225-233.
- 13. Fujiwara, T., Y. Terao, T. Hoshino, S. Kawabata, T. Ooshima, S. Sobue, S. Kimura, and S. Hamada. 1998. Molecular analyses of glucosyltransferase genes among strains of *Streptococcus mutans*. FEMS Microbiol Lett 161:331-336.
- 14. Funane, K., M. Shiraiwa, K. Hashimoto, E. Ichishima, and M. Kobayashi. 1993.
  An active-site peptide containing the second essential carboxyl group of dextransucrase from *Leuconostoc mesenteroides* by chemical modifications.
  Biochemistry 32:13696-13702.
- 15. Hamada, S., T. Horikoshi, T. Minami, N. Okahashi, and T. Koga. 1989.
  Purification and characterization of cell-associated glucosyltransferase synthesizing water-insoluble glucan from serotype c *Streptococcus mutans*. J Gen Microbiol 135:335-344.
- 16. **Hamada, S. and M. Torii.** 1978. Effect of sucrose in culture media on the location of glucosyltransferase of *Streptococcus mutans* and cell adherence to glass surfaces.

- Infect Immun 20:592-599.
- 17. **Hoshino, T., T. Fujiwara, and M. Kilian.** 2005. Use of phylogenetic and phenotypic analyses to identify nonhemolytic streptococci isolated from bacteremic patients. J Clin Microbiol **43:**6073-6085.
- 18. Hoshino, T., M. Kawaguchi, N. Shimizu, N. Hoshino, T. Ooshima, and T. Fujiwara. 2004. PCR detection and identification of oral streptococci in saliva samples using gtf genes. Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis 48:195-199.
- 19. Ito, K., S. Ito, T. Shimamura, S. Weyand, Y. Kawarasaki, T. Misaka, K. Abe, T. Kobayashi, A. D. Cameron, and S. Iwata. 2011. Crystal Structure of Glucansucrase from the Dental Caries Pathogen Streptococcus mutans. J Mol Biol in press.
- 20. Jespersgaard, C., G. Hajishengallis, Y. Huang, M. W. Russell, D. J. Smith, and S. M. Michalek. 1999. Protective immunity against *Streptococcus mutans* infection in mice after intranasal immunization with the glucan-binding region of S. mutans glucosyltransferase. Infect Immun 67:6543-6549.
- 21. **Kolaskar, A. S. and P. C. Tongaonkar.** 1990. A semi-empirical method for prediction of antigenic determinants on protein antigens. FEBS Lett **276:**172-174.
- 22. Laloi, P., C. L. Munro, K. R. Jones, and F. L. Macrina. 1996. Immunologic

- characteristics of a *Streptococcus mutans* glucosyltransferase B sucrose-binding site peptide-cholera toxin B-subunit chimeric protein. Infect Immun **64:**28-36.
- 23. Lehner, T., S. J. Challacombe, and J. Caldwell. 1976. Immunologic basis for vaccination against dental caries in rhesus monkeys. J Dent Res 55 Spec
  No:C166-180.
- 24. Lehner, T., S. J. Challacombe, and J. Caldwell. 1975. Immunological and bacteriological basis for vaccination against dental caries in rhesus monkeys. Nature 254:517-520.
- 25. **MacGregor, E. A., S. Janecek, and B. Svensson.** 2001. Relationship of sequence and structure to specificity in the alpha-amylase family of enzymes. Biochim Biophys Acta **1546:**1-20.
- 26. **MacGregor, E. A., H. M. Jespersen, and B. Svensson.** 1996. A circularly permuted alpha-amylase-type alpha/beta-barrel structure in glucan-synthesizing glucosyltransferases. FEBS Lett **378**:263-266.
- 27. **Mooser, G., S. A. Hefta, R. J. Paxton, J. E. Shively, and T. D. Lee.** 1991. Isolation and sequence of an active-site peptide containing a catalytic aspartic acid from two *Streptococcus sobrinus* alpha-glucosyltransferases. J Biol Chem **266:**8916-8922.

- 28. **Mooser, G. and C. Wong.** 1988. Isolation of a glucan-binding domain of glucosyltransferase (1,6-alpha-glucan synthase) from *Streptococcus sobrinus*. Infect Immun **56:**880-884.
- 29. **Mora, M. and J. L. Telford.** 2010. Genome-based approaches to vaccine development. J Mol Med **88:**143-147.
- 30. Niu, Y., J. Sun, M. Fan, Q. A. Xu, J. Guo, R. Jia, and Y. Li. 2009. Construction of a new fusion anti-caries DNA vaccine. J Dent Res 88:455-460.
- Nochi, T., H. Takagi, Y. Yuki, L. Yang, T. Masumura, M. Mejima, U. Nakanishi, A. Matsumura, A. Uozumi, T. Hiroi, S. Morita, K. Tanaka, F. Takaiwa, and H. Kiyono. 2007. Rice-based mucosal vaccine as a global strategy for cold-chain- and needle-free vaccination. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 104:10986-10991.
- Nochi, T., Y. Yuki, Y. Katakai, H. Shibata, D. Tokuhara, M. Mejima, S.
  Kurokawa, Y. Takahashi, U. Nakanishi, F. Ono, H. Mimuro, C. Sasakawa, F.
  Takaiwa, K. Terao, and H. Kiyono. 2009. A rice-based oral cholera vaccine induces
  macaque-specific systemic neutralizing antibodies but does not influence pre-existing
  intestinal immunity. J Immunol 183:6538-6544.
- 33. Parker, J. M., D. Guo, and R. S. Hodges. 1986. New hydrophilicity scale derived

from high-performance liquid chromatography peptide retention data: correlation of predicted surface residues with antigenicity and X-ray-derived accessible sites.

Biochemistry **25:**5425-5432.

- 34. **Russell, M. W., L. A. Bergmeier, E. D. Zanders, and T. Lehner.** 1980. Protein antigens of *Streptococcus mutans*: purification and properties of a double antigen and its protease-resistant component. Infect Immun **28:**486-493.
- 35. Singh, P. K., R. Agrawal, D. V. Kamboj, G. Gupta, M. Boopathi, A. K. Goel, and L. Singh. 2010. Construction of a single-chain variable-fragment antibody against the superantigen *Staphylococcal enterotoxin* B. Appl Environ Microbiol 76:8184-8191.
- 36. Smith, D. J., R. L. Heschel, J. Melvin, W. F. King, M. B. B. Pereira, and M. A. Taubman. 1997. *Streptococcus mutans* glucan binding proteins as dental caries vaccines, p. 367-377. *In A. J. Husband, K. W. Beagley, R. L. Clancy, A. M. Collins, A. W. Cripps, and D. L. Emery (ed.), Mucosal solutions. University of Sydney Press, Sydney.*
- 37. Smith, D. J., B. Shoushtari, R. L. Heschel, W. F. King, and M. A. Taubman. 1997.

  Immunogenicity and protective immunity induced by synthetic peptides associated with a catalytic subdomain of mutans group streptococcal glucosyltransferase. Infect

- Immun **65:**4424-4430.
- 38. **Smith, D. J. and M. A. Taubman.** 1990. Effect of local deposition of antigen on salivary immune responses and reaccumulation of mutans streptococci. J Clin Immunol **10:**273-281.
- 39. **Smith, D. J. and M. A. Taubman.** 1987. Oral immunization of humans with *Streptococcus sobrinus* glucosyltransferase. Infect Immun **55:**2562-2569.
- 40. Smith, D. J., M. A. Taubman, C. F. Holmberg, J. Eastcott, W. F. King, and P. Ali-Salaam. 1993. Antigenicity and immunogenicity of a synthetic peptide derived from a glucan-binding domain of mutans streptococcal glucosyltransferase. Infect Immun 61:2899-2905.
- 41. Smith, D. J., M. A. Taubman, W. F. King, S. Eida, J. R. Powell, and J. Eastcott.

  1994. Immunological characteristics of a synthetic peptide associated with a catalytic domain of mutans streptococcal glucosyltransferase. Infect Immun 62:5470-5476.
- 42. **Stalhammar-Carlemalm, M., J. Waldemarsson, E. Johnsson, T. Areschoug, and G. Lindahl.** 2007. Nonimmunodominant regions are effective as building blocks in a streptococcal fusion protein vaccine. Cell Host Microbe **2:**427-434.
- 43. Taniguchi, H., E. Yamato, F. Tashiro, H. Ikegami, T. Ogihara, and J. Miyazaki.

- 2003. beta-cell neogenesis induced by adenovirus-mediated gene delivery of transcription factor pdx-1 into mouse pancreas. Gene Ther **10:**15-23.
- 44. **Tashiro, F., H. Niwa, and J. Miyazaki.** 1999. Constructing adenoviral vectors by using the circular form of the adenoviral genome cloned in a cosmid and the Cre-loxP recombination system. Hum Gene Ther **10:**1845-1852.
- 45. **Taubman, M. A., C. J. Holmberg, and D. J. Smith.** 2001. Diepitopic construct of functionally and epitopically complementary peptides enhances immunogenicity, reactivity with glucosyltransferase, and protection from dental caries. Infect Immun **69:**4210-4216.
- 46. **Taubman, M. A. and D. J. Smith.** 1977. Effects of local immunization with glucosyltransferase fractions from *Streptococcus mutans* on dental caries in rats and hamsters. J Immunol **118:**710-720.
- 47. Tomita, Y., X. Zhu, K. Ochiai, Y. Namiki, T. Okada, T. Ikemi, and K.
  Fukushima. 1996. Evaluation of three individual glucosyltransferases produced by
  Streptococcus mutans using monoclonal antibodies. FEMS Microbiol Lett
  145:427-432.
- 48. Van de Rijn, I., A. S. Bleiweis, and J. B. Zabriskie. 1976. Antigens in *Streptococcus*

- mutans cross reactive with human heart muscle. J Dent Res 55 Spec No:C59-64.
- Welling, G. W., W. J. Weijer, R. van der Zee, and S. Welling-Wester. 1985.Prediction of sequential antigenic regions in proteins. FEBS Lett 188:215-218.
- 50. Zhang, P., C. Jespersgaard, L. Lamberty-Mallory, J. Katz, Y. Huang, G. Hajishengallis, and S. M. Michalek. 2002. Enhanced immunogenicity of a genetic chimeric protein consisting of two virulence antigens of *Streptococcus mutans* and protection against infection. Infect Immun 70:6779-6787.

## FIGURE LEGENDS

FIG. 1. Construction of DNA vaccine plasmid and adenovirus. The gene coding the variable region of *gtfB* was cloned into pSecTag2B and pSecTag2B-VRGB was constructed as a DNA vaccine plasmid for VRGB (A). The expression cassette of VRGB elicited from pSecTag2B-VRGB and pALC3 cosmid vector was ligated, packaged in λ phage, and introduced into *Escherichia coli*. The cosmid obtained was pALC3-VRGB (B).

pALC3-VRGB and pOG44, FLP recombinase expression plasmid, were cotransfected into 293 cells and the infectious recombined adenovirus AdV-VRGB was harvested (C).

Non-cotransfected 293 cells (NC) and cotransfected 293 cells 8 and 15 days after pALC3-VRGB and pOG44 cotransfection are shown (D).

FIG. 2. Glucosyltransferase B (GtfB) purification from *Streptococcus mutans* MT8148. The 8 M urea extraction from *S. mutans* cells was precipitated with 60% saturated ammonium sulfate and was applied onto a DEAE Sepharose FF column. Fractions 6–17 were collected as Gtf-active fractions (A). Gtf-active fractions were concentrated with ammonium sulfate precipitation and applied to a Bio-Scale CHT10-I column. The purified GtfB and GtfC were

eluted in fractions 29 and 24, respectively (B). Samples at each purification step were separated by sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (C) and assessed with western blotting analyses using anti-CA-Gtf (D), anti-Gtf-I (E), and anti-Gtf-SI (F) antisera. Lane M, molecular weight marker; 1, 8 M urea extraction; 2, precipitant of 1 by ammonium sulfate; 3, Gtf-active fraction eluted using a DEAE Sepharose column; 4, fraction 29 eluted using a CHT10-I column; and 5, fraction 24 eluted using a CHT10-I column.

FIG. 3. Glucosyltransferase B (GtfB) antigenicity prediction using Kolaskar's method.

Average antigenic propensity of the deduced GtfB amino acid sequence (1475 amino acid residues) was estimated (A), and the antigenic region sequences using Kolaskar's methods are listed (B). The asterisks and brackets indicate the primary GtfB catalytic site and glucan-binding domain region, respectively.

FIG. 4. Antigenicity evaluation of the recombinant catalytic region (CAT) and the glucan-binding domain (GBD). The recombinant CAT and GBD proteins were separated by sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (A), and their antigenicity was evaluated by western blotting analyses using anti-CA-Gtf (B), anti-CAT (C), and anti-GBD

(D) antisera. Lane M, molecular weight marker; 1, *Escherichia coli* lysate from pGEX-6P-1-CAT; 2, *E. coli* lysate from pGEX-6P-1-GBD; 3, recombinant glutathione S-transferase protein; and 4, Gtf-active fraction eluted using a DEAE Sepharose column.

FIG. 5. Effect of anti-catalytic region (CAT) and anti-glucan binding domain (GBD) antisera on glucosyltransferase B (GtfB) activity. Purified GtfB (1.5  $\mu$ g protein) reacted with 0, 20, or 60  $\mu$ g of protein of anti-CAT, anti-GBD, or anti-CA-Gtf antisera or sham serum at 37 °C for 1 h was incubated with [<sup>14</sup>C-glucose]-sucrose at 37 °C for 1 h, and the amount of [<sup>14</sup>C]-glucan was measured. GtfB activity in non-serum was defined as 100%. Triplicate samples were analyzed in this experiment, and the asterisks indicate statistical significance by Student's *t*-test (\*, p < 0.01).

FIG. 6. Glucosyltransferase B (GtfB) antigenicity prediction using ANTHEPROT software.

The deduced GtfB amino acid sequence was evaluated for antigenicity using Parker's method

(A), hydrophobicity (B), Welling's method (C), hydrophilicity (D), helical membranous

regions (E), and solvent accessibility (F).

FIG. 7. Adv-VRGB-mediated mRNA and recombinant protein expression. Total RNA from AdV-VRGB-infected 293 cells was analyzed by reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction using the variable region (VR) primers shown in TABLE 1 (A) and β-actin primer (B). Objective recombinant protein expression by the Adv-VRGB-infected 293 cells was assessed using western blotting analysis using anti-CA-Gtf antiserum (C). Lane M, molecular weight or DNA size marker; B, purified GtfB in Figure 2; 1, sample of 293 cells; 2, sample of 293 cells transfected with pSecTag2B; 3, sample of 293 cells transfected with pSecTag2B; 4, sample of 293 cells infected with non-combined adenovirus; and 5, sample of 293 cells infected with AdV-VRGB. The arrowheads indicate the band that reacted with anti-CA-Gtf antiserum.

FIG. 8. Immunization of DNA vaccine for the variable region (VR). The DNA vaccine for VR, AdV-VRGB, and pSecTag2B-VRGB was intramuscularly injected into 5 mice according to the immunization schedule in the Materials and Methods section. Serum was obtained before 4 immunizations and every 2 weeks after the last immunization. The serum titer was evaluated by measuring the absorbance at 405 nm in an enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay using purified glucosyltransferase B as an antigen.

FIG. 9. DNA vaccine-induced antiserum reactivity against the variable region (VR). The crude CA-Gtf that contained glucosyltransferase B (GtfB) was separated by sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (A), and western blotting analyses with anti-CA-Gtf antiserum (B) and DNA vaccine-induced VR antiserum (C). Lane M, molecular weight marker and G, Gtf-active fraction eluted using a DEAE Sepharose column.

FIG. 10. Effect of anti-variable region (VR) antiserum on glucosyltransferase B (GtfB) activity. Purified GtfB (1.5  $\mu$ g protein) reacted with 0, 20, or 60  $\mu$ g protein of anti-VR antiserum, anti-CA-Gtf antiserum, or sham serum at 37 °C for 1 h was incubated with [ $^{14}$ C-glucose]-sucrose at 37 °C for 1 h, and the amount of [ $^{14}$ C]-glucan was measured. The GtfB activity in the non-serum was defined as 100%. Triplicate samples were analyzed in this experiment, and the asterisks indicated statistical significance by Student's *t*-test (\*, p < 0.01; \*\*, p < 0.05).

TABLE 1. The polymerase chain reaction primers used in this study.

Amplified region	Drimar gaguanga	Restriction	
Primer name	Primer sequence	enzyme site	
CAT (1223–1521)			
GtfB/CAT-F	5'-TTAG <b>GAATTC</b> CTTATGGCTAACGATGTGG-3'	EcoRI	
GtfB/CAT-R	5'-CCGCTCGAGATCATATTGTCGCCATCATC-3'	XhoI	
GBD (3238–4431)			
GtfB/GBD-F	5'-GGTCGC <b>GGATCC</b> GTTTATTATCAACGAGTGG-3'	BamHI	
GtfB/GBD-R	5'-AGCGG <b>GAATTC</b> CATTAGTTAATCCGAAC-3'	EcoRI	
VR (115–1216)			
GtfB/VR-F	5'-GTT <b>GGTACC</b> GATTCTAATGAATCGAAATC-3'	KpnI	
GtfB/VR-R	5'-AACTGCAGTTCGTAACCGCCGATAG-3'	PstI	

The numbers in parentheses indicate the amplified nucleic acid position from the 5' start of *gtfB*. The bold characters in the primer sequences indicate the added restriction enzyme site. CAT, catalytic region; GtfB, glucosyltransferase B; GBD, glucan-binding domain; and VR, variable region.

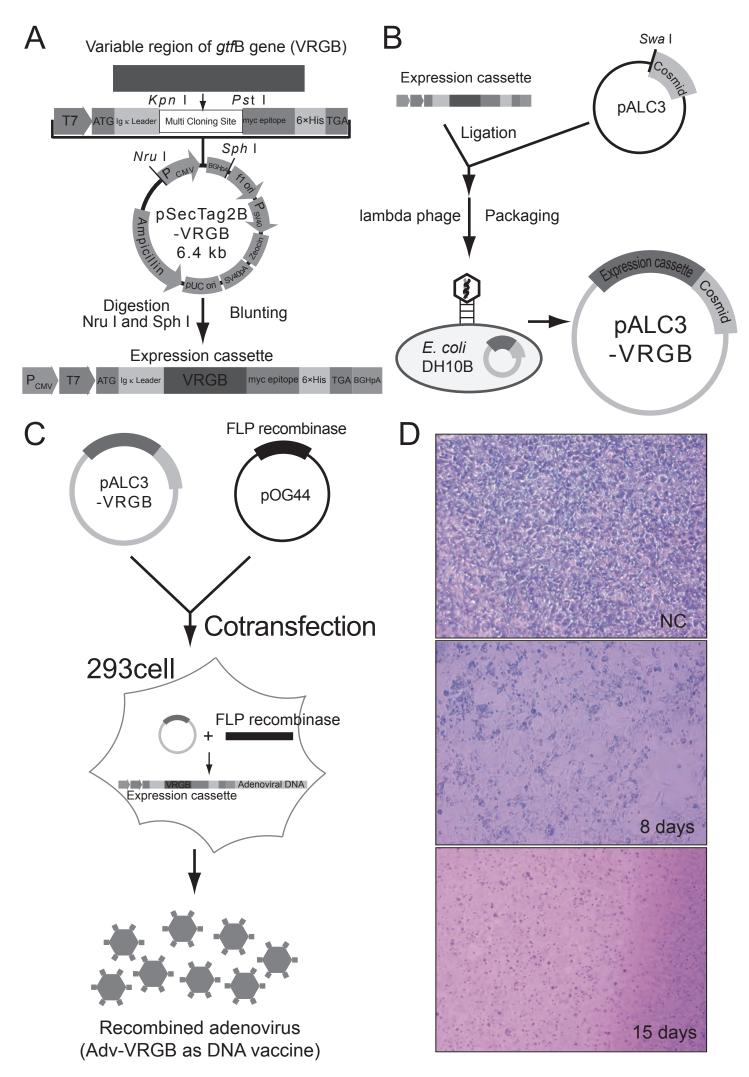


Figure 1. Hoshino et al.

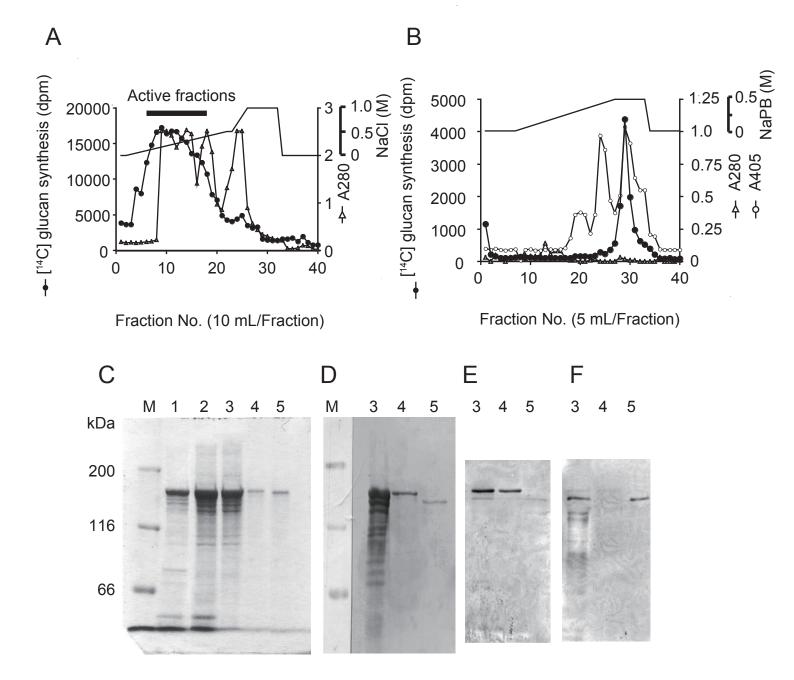
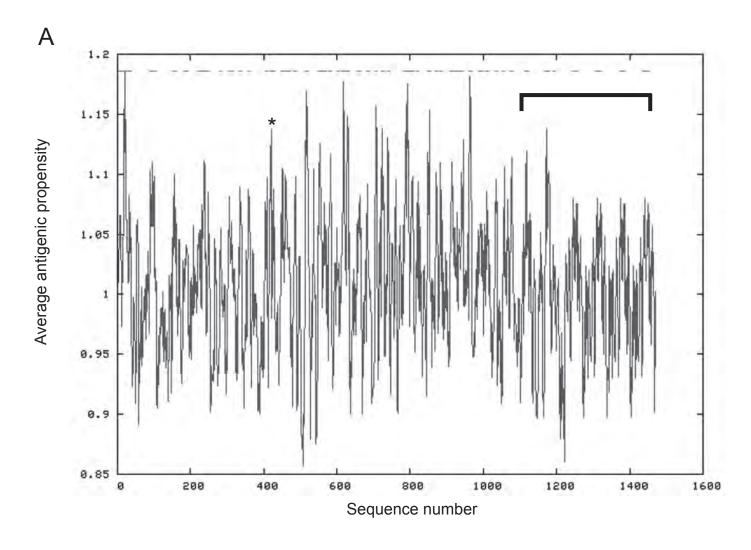


Figure 2. Hoshino et al.



n	Start Position	Sequence	End Position	25	681	IITSVRYGK	689
1	4	KVRYKLRK	11	26	703	RTSGVVVI	710
2	13	KKRWVTVSVASAVMTLTTLSGGLVK	37	27	721	ASDRVVVNM	729
3	88	SSTSVVNPKEVVSNPYTVG	106	28	737	AYRPLLL	743
4	151	ANLQILEKLPNV	162	29	782	ANPQVSGYLGVWVPVGA	798
5	182	FTLIADGKILH	192	30	800	ADQDVRVAAST	810
6	220	KKYNQVYDR	228	31	816	GKSVHQNA	823
7	231	QSFEHVDHYLTA	242	32	847	YTNVVIAKNV	856
8	246	YRPKYIL	252	33	869	MAPQYVSS	876
9	280	QRQYVNY	286	34	881	FLDSVIQN	888
10	302	NQLQLNIAAATIQAKI	317	35	909	ADDLVKAIKALHSKGIKVMA	928
11	331	RQTISAFVKT	340	36	932	PDQMYALPEKEVVTA	946
12	357	QNGAVLY	363	37	960	QIKSVLYVAD	969
13	403	GYEFLLA	409	38	985	FLEELQAKYPELFAR	999
14	414	NSNPVVQA	421	39	1007	PMDPSVKI	101
15	423	QLNWLHFL	430	40	1031	GAGYVLK	103
16	446	DSIRVDAVDNVDADLLQIAGDYLKAAK	472	41	1053	INFLPKT	105
17	481	ANDHLSILE	489	42	1073	GKGYVYYSTS	108
18	513	LRLSLLYSLAK	523	43	1114	NGVNYYFLSNG	112
19	548	ETAAVPSYSFIR	559	44	1169	MSVGLTVIDGQVQC	118
20	561	HDSEVQDLIRD	571	45	1190	AKGKFVT	119
21	577	INPNVVGY	584	46	1242	NGQHLYFRANGVQVKG	125
22	599	NKDLLAT	605	47	1307	NGQHLYFRANGVQVKG	132
23	611	HYNTALSYALLLTNKSSVPRVYY	633	48	1372	NGQHLYFRANGVQVKG	138
24	653	AIETLLKARIKYVSG	667	49	1437	NGQHLYFRANGVQVKG	145

Figure 3. Hoshino et al.

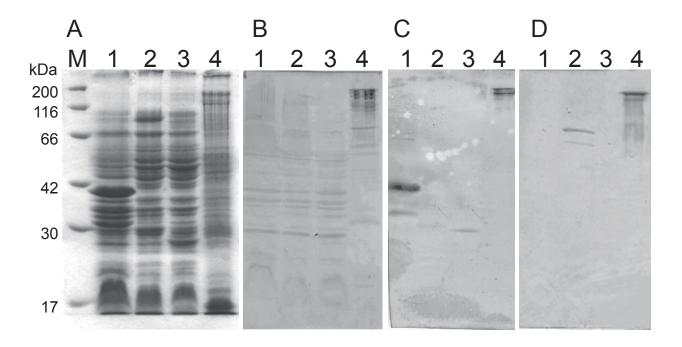


Figure 4. Hoshino et al.

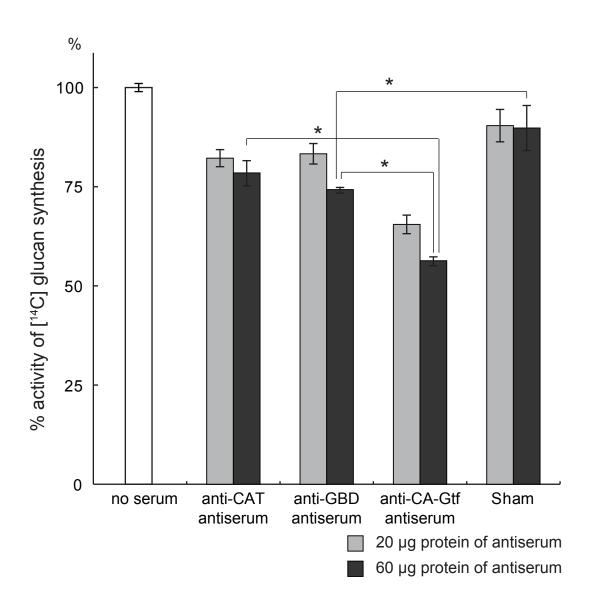


Figure 5. Hoshino et al.

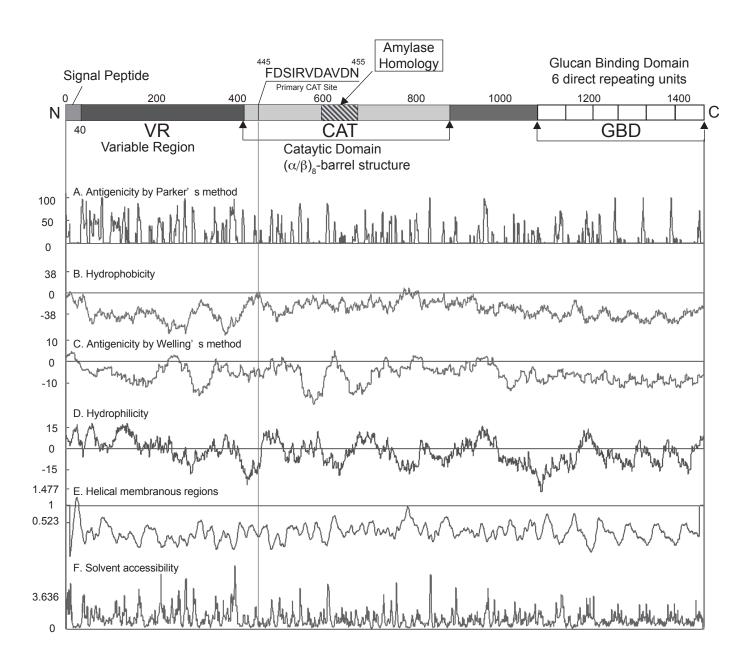


Figure 6. Hoshino et al.

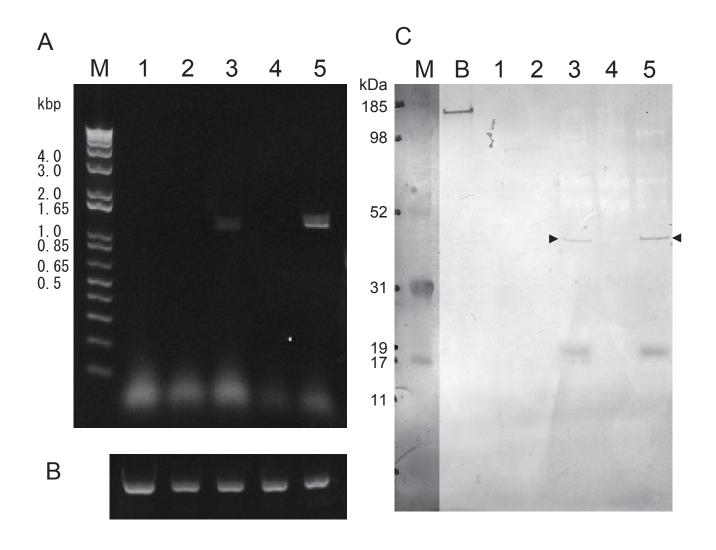


Figure 7. Hoshino et al.

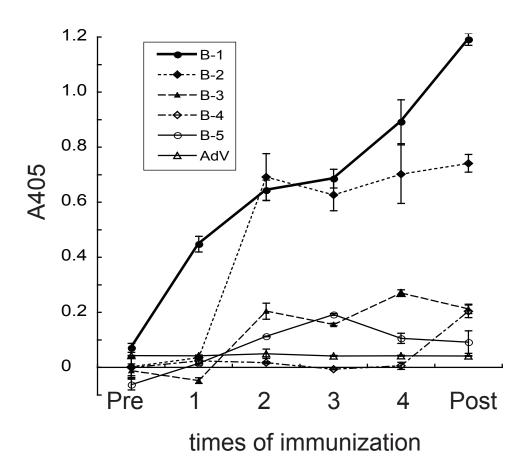


Figure 8. Hoshino et al.

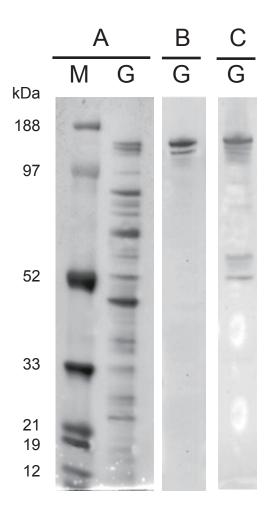


Figure 9. Hoshino et al.

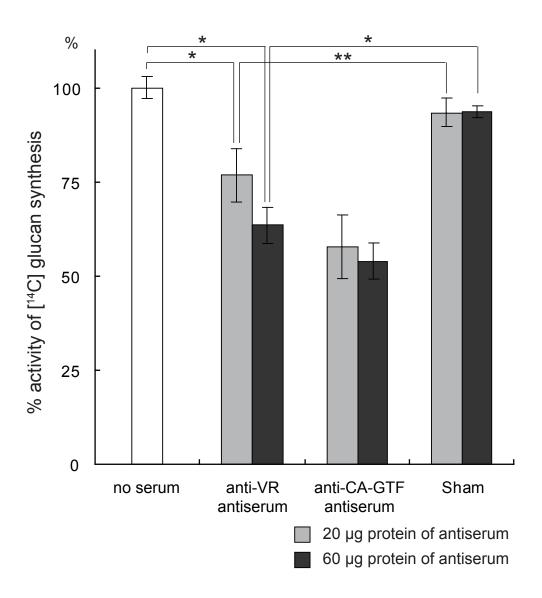


Figure 10. Hoshino et al.