How genetic sequence data can guide vaccine design

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Vaccines have saved more lives than any other medical intervention throughout human history by preventing the spread of infectious diseases. Experts credit vaccines with preventing an estimated 6 million annual deaths worldwide. Perhaps the greatest vaccine success story is that of the eradication of the smallpox disease, which is believed to have killed approximately 300 million people between 1900 and 1977, while disfiguring and blinding millions more. For perspective, that is more lives lost than the combined death toll of both world wars.

Standard vaccine design strategies aim to create an inactivated or weakened virus, administered orally or intramuscularly, for eliciting immune responses that mount a lethal attack against the virus. This strategy has been successfully used to develop vaccines against many disease-causing viruses like polio, measles, mumps, rubella, chickenpox, and rotavirus, among others. However, despite several decades of research, there is no effective vaccine against fast-evolving viruses such as the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) and hepatitis C virus (HCV). Vaccines can also be important for controlling the spread of novel viruses like the severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) virus, which has caused the ongoing outbreak of the infectious coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19). Analysis of the genetic data of fast-evolving viruses, as well as emerging ones, can reveal novel insights that can guide the experimental efforts toward designing potent vaccines. Many efforts in this direction are currently underway for SARS-CoV-2.

In this article, we focus on how data analytics can help guide vaccine design against fast-evolving viruses by revealing potential vulnerabilities in these viruses that are difficult, if not impossible, to find using traditional methods. Fast-evolving viruses like HIV and HCV infect millions of individuals worldwide, and there is an urgent need of a vaccine against them. A confounding factor in the development of an HIV or HCV vaccine is the fact that these viruses have the unique ability to make many mutations in their genetic codes. This enables them to evade the human immune system while retaining their ability to propagate infection. To develop a vaccine against such fast-evolving viruses, scientists have been rethinking the vaccine design process and considering novel strategies.

For example, instead of the standard procedure of using the complete inactivated or weakened virus, “subunit” vaccines are being explored that seek to target specific
parts of the virus that are most vulnerable (i.e., where it is difficult for the virus to survive mutations) to induce a focused and potentially effective immune response. Such vaccines have been successful in preventing hepatitis B and human papillomavirus infections.

To determine the existence and location of potentially vulnerable parts of HIV and HCV, initial studies have leveraged recently available sequence data for these viruses and looked for those positions in the genome for which the frequency of mutation was lowest. Unfortunately, vaccines based on such first-order statistics have not had much success. There is increasing evidence suggesting that the interactions between mutations are also important and must be considered when designing an effective vaccine against HIV and HCV.

It is almost impossible to determine the effects of interactions between all mutations experimentally because it requires performing billions of experiments. In this article, we explain how, by leveraging virus sequence data, mutational interactions can be estimated using statistical techniques and incorporated in designing novel and potentially effective vaccine strategies against such fast-evolving viruses.

**Virus, proteins, and amino acid sequences**

Before we discuss how to design vaccines against viruses by using sequence data, we first need to understand what a virus is, what information the sequence data carries, and how a virus leads to infection. Viruses are infectious agents comprising multiple proteins, as shown in Fig. 1. They contain the genetic material (viral genome) that is used as a template to make viral proteins during replication. Proteins are 3D biomolecules made of organic compounds called *amino acids*. A protein sequence is just the 1D representation of a protein comprising a sequence of amino acids.

Viruses lack the ability to replicate on their own and, thus, require the cells of other organisms to survive. Figure 2 shows the simplified series of steps a virus generally takes to replicate within a host organism, eventually leading to infection. Viruses enter a host cell, hijack the cell’s replication machinery, and force it to make multiple copies of the virus. The infected cell continues producing virus particles until all of the resources of that cell are exhausted. The generated virus particles then go on to infect other cells. This cycle continues until the host organism dies due to the infection or the host’s immune system either clears the virus or, in some rare cases (e.g., in HIV and herpesvirus), keeps it under control without clearing it.

**How the human immune system combats invading viruses**

To understand how data may aid in the design of vaccines, it is important to first comprehend how the body naturally fights infections. The immune system is the body’s defense against invading pathogens (disease-causing microorganisms, e.g., viruses or bacteria). It consists of a vast network of cells and biological...
subsystems that can be broadly divided into two interlinked systems: the innate and adaptive immune systems.

The innate immune system provides a generic rapid response and can clear common pathogens. Some viruses, however, have evolved strategies to evade the innate immune system and go on to infect host cells. This is when the adaptive immune system is spurred into action and, guided by the innate immune system, mounts a highly specific response against the invading virus to clear the infection. Importantly, the adaptive immune system has a unique ability to remember a virus it has encountered in the past, enabling it to mount an immediate and robust response upon reinfection with the same virus.

In this article, we focus on one of the key players in the adaptive immune system: T cells. This emphasis is naturally motivated by numerous studies that have reported the protective role of T-cell responses against HIV and HCV. T cells are a type of white blood cell that have special receptors on their surface called T-cell receptors (TCRs), which can recognize specific short fragments of proteins called peptides. They can distinguish between foreign peptides originating from virus proteins and self-peptides originating from proteins naturally found in the body. Although an adult human has billions of T cells, they are very diverse, with almost none having similar TCRs.

Figure 3 shows the typical sequence of events involved in T-cell-based clearance of a viral infection. All nucleated human cells have certain molecules on their surface called major histocompatibility complex molecules (MHCs). These molecules serve as billboards that display peptides extracted from the proteins being synthesized inside the cell. When a cell is infected by a virus, its cellular machinery is hijacked to produce copies of viral proteins, and the MHCs of that cell are loaded with viral peptides.

If the TCRs of a nearby T-cell recognize a displayed viral peptide, a series of chemical reactions takes place that results in the activation of the T cell and subsequent proliferation to produce a large number of T cells with the same specificity (i.e., the same TCRs). This army of activated T cells then moves to the infected area and kills all similarly infected cells, thereby also killing the viral particles within those cells. Once the infection is cleared, most of the proliferated T cells die off, while a few remain in the body as long-lived memory cells so that a fast and robust response can be mounted if the same virus is encountered in the future.

This memory of the adaptive immune system is the basis of vaccines. By introducing a controlled quantity of a weakened virus (conventional vaccines) or some specific parts of a virus (subunit vaccines) into the body, a vaccine aims to elicit an immune response for recognizing this particular virus. Then, if the body is infected by the same virus in the future, the immune memory generated by the vaccine would enable the memory T cells to mount a strong response and, consequently, fend off the infection.

**The big challenge to vaccine design:** Genetic mutations

An ideal T-cell-based subunit vaccine should comprise viral peptides that elicit an immune response capable of clearing the virus. However, mutations that occur in the genetic code of a virus during replication present a challenge. Mutations are random copying errors during replication, and they may result in an amino acid change in the genetic code of the virus. Due to the high specificity of T cells, a mutant virus may be able to abrogate recognition of vaccine-induced T cells and evade them if it carries a mutation in the part of its genetic code corresponding to the peptide employed in the vaccine.

Such an escape mutation may either be harmful, beneficial, or harmless for the virus, depending on whether it strengthens, weakens, or does not affect its fitness (i.e., the ability of the virus to survive, replicate, and pass its genetic material to the next generation), respectively, as shown in Fig. 4. From a vaccine-design perspective, it is important to

![FIG3](image-url) **FIG3** The pathway taken by the human immune system to clear an infection using T cells.
identify peptides in which mutations are harmful to the virus so that the chance of escaping the vaccine-induced T-cell response is as low as possible. However, it is laborious and difficult to identify the effect of each individual mutation on viral fitness experimentally because this involves running billions of experiments. This is precisely where data analytics can step in and, potentially, guide vaccine design without the need for so many experiments.

Increasing amounts of viral protein sequence data have become available in recent years thanks to the rapid advances in high-throughput sequencing techniques. These sequences are obtained from blood samples collected from infected patients, and they can be leveraged to identify the effect of mutations by examining their statistical patterns in the data. For example, recent vaccine designs try to identify parts of the genetic code of a virus that are “conserved,” i.e., where mutations are not generally observed. The idea is that a higher level of conservation is an indication that mutations in these parts are generally harmful (and, hence, are not seen). In this way, the vaccine elicits T-cell response against the critical parts of the viral genetic code (conserved parts) where a mutation would be potentially harmful for the virus.

As mentioned, the vaccine strategy based on conservation of positions in the genetic code has not been effective against fast-evolving viruses, such as HIV and HCV. These viruses pose unique challenges for vaccine design because they have been reported to evade the immune system by exploiting pairwise interactions between different positions in the genetic code of the virus. That is, these viruses can escape by acquiring an individually harmful mutation in the parts of the viral genetic code targeted by the immune system but with its harmful effect diffused by a compensatory interaction elsewhere in the genetic code.

Moreover, for HIV and HCV, many virus particles containing multiple different mutations can arise very rapidly due to the high

![Diagram](image-url)

**FIG4** The immune system evasion strategy taken by fast-evolving viruses: (a) beneficial/harmless mutation, (b) harmful mutation, and (c) harmful mutation along with compensatory mutation.
mutation rates and short replication cycles of these viruses. This also makes the pairwise effects of mutations important because it opens up new compensatory pathways for the virus to evade the immune system as shown in Fig. 4. Thus, considering only conservation of individual positions may not be sufficient for designing an effective vaccine against such fast-evolving viruses.

Rather, it seems important to account for the pairwise effects between mutations to minimize the pathways that such viruses can employ for evading the immune system. It is unfeasible to experimentally determine all pairwise effects because, due to the large sizes of viral proteins, it would require running billions of experiments. Here, the role of data analytics becomes crucial for devising novel strategies to design vaccines against scourges like HIV and HCV.

**Possible solution using data analytics—Move beyond conservation!**

To combat fast-evolving viruses, it is necessary to move beyond the conservation-based strategy employed in recent vaccine designs. In this regard,

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**FIG5** Correlations can be exploited to guide rational vaccine design against fast-evolving viruses. (a) Mutations at these positions are positively correlated, implying that these are observed together in the sequence data more frequently than if the mutations were to occur independently. (b) Mutations at these positions are negatively correlated, implying that these are observed together in the sequence data less frequently than if the mutations were to occur independently.
Statistical correlations can be useful for designing potentially effective vaccines.

Researchers at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (Dahirel et al.) pioneered a study of second-order statistics, that is, correlations between mutations at pairs of amino acid positions, of sequence data to develop robust vaccine designs.

To understand the basic idea of how mutational correlations can be useful, we present a simplistic example in Fig. 5, where two (unmutated) viral peptides are considered for eliciting T cells. For illustration purposes, let us assume that a mutation is observed at only one amino acid position in each peptide. In this case, there can be two possibilities with respect to the correlation observed between mutations at these positions in the sequence data.

If the mutations at these positions are positively correlated, it implies that these are observed together in the sequence data more frequently than if the mutations were to occur independently. Thus, one of these mutations may be compensating for the individual harmful effect of the other. If a vaccine elicits T cells to target such peptides, the virus can seemingly mutate both of these positions and escape from both T cells while still retaining its fitness. As a result, peptides with positively correlated mutations would not appear to be good targets from a vaccine-design perspective.

If the mutations at these positions are negatively correlated, it implies that these are observed together in the sequence data less frequently than if the mutations were to occur independently. This would suggest that the combined effect of these mutations may have a harmful effect on the virus (and, therefore, they are not seen together). If a vaccine elicits T cells to target such peptides, the virus would either 1) mutate one of these positions and resist mutation at the other, resulting in the virus being recognized by one of the two T cells and getting killed or 2) mutate both positions, most likely resulting in an unfit virus incapable of causing infection. Thus, targeting peptides with negatively correlated mutations would appear to be a good vaccine-design strategy.

This example demonstrates that statistical correlations can be useful for designing potentially effective vaccines. However, inferring these from available viral sequence data presents a new statistical challenge. The sequence data of viral proteins is high dimensional: these sequences are hundreds of amino acids long, and, despite having thousands of sequence samples available, it is very difficult to reliably estimate pairwise correlations from such data. This is because, for such high-dimensional data, the number of correlations to be estimated is often comparable to, or even larger than, the number of available samples, thereby corrupting the estimates with a large amount of statistical noise.

Classical statistical methods fail to provide accurate estimates of correlations for such high-dimensional data. For example, although the classical sample correlation matrix is a good estimator of the true correlation matrix when the number of variables is small and the associated number of samples is very large, it fails to estimate the true correlation matrix in such high-dimensional scenarios, even in the simplest case, when all involved variables are independent.

![FIG6](A vaccine design based on statistical estimation of mutational correlations from the sequence data.)
Such scenarios are not restricted to viral sequence data but are, in fact, quite common in many fields, including wireless communications, signal processing, and finance. Recently, advanced statistical techniques rooted in large-dimensional random matrix theory (RMT) have been attracting increased attention for addressing this problem. These RMT-based methods specifically aim to provide reliable estimates of correlations in cases for which the number of variables is comparable to or even larger than the number of samples. Although there has been much progress, estimating correlations from high-dimensional data is currently an active area of research in statistics, with much room for improvement in the accuracy of the available techniques.

### Robust vaccine-design strategies using mutational correlations

In Fig. 5, we describe a simple example of a single mutation in two viral peptides to show the potentially useful role mutational correlations can play in the design of potentially effective vaccines. In reality, there are numerous peptides in a virus, with each comprising multiple positions where a mutation can occur. To induce an effective immune response by a vaccine to ward off the virus, one would like to elicit T cells against a combination of peptides that is enriched in amino acid positions where a large proportion of combinations of mutations is harmful for the virus.

As a result, we would like to select peptides such that the proportion of both the fully conserved positions, where no mutations are observed in the sequence data, and the negatively correlated interpeptide mutation pairs is maximized, as shown in Fig. 6. Moreover, we also aim to minimize the possibility of immune escape pathways available to the virus; this would imply that we must also minimize the proportion of positively correlated interpeptide mutation pairs in the selected peptides.

Another important factor that must considered when selecting peptides for a T-cell-based vaccine is the population coverage. The idea here is to select peptides that can be presented by the MHC molecules of a large proportion of the population. By using statistical information computed from sequence data—conservation and mutational correlations—one can formulate a mathematical optimization problem to determine an optimal vaccine design (i.e., an optimal set of peptides against which to elicit T cells).

This strategy has been used by Dahirel et al. and Ahmed et al. to propose robust T-cell vaccine designs against HIV. A similar approach is employed by Quadeer et al. to recommend robust HCV vaccine designs. All of these studies use RMT-based techniques to infer mutational correlations from the available viral sequence data. Notably, these studies have shown that parts of viral proteins enriched in negative correlations are seemingly important for the virus to maintain its fitness. Moreover, such parts have also been shown to carry immunological importance, i.e., these are targeted by the T cells of patients who either keep the virus under control (in the case of HIV) or spontaneously clear the virus (in the case of HCV). Thus, these results support the importance of targeting negatively correlated positions in vaccine design, as described previously.

Although these recent results are promising, there is a large scope for research in developing and further improving the statistical methods for inferring correlations from high-dimensional sequence data, which can thereby improve the design of vaccines. The ultimate effectiveness of such data-inspired, robust vaccine designs hinges on their experimental and clinical outcomes. Testing this will require extensive collaborative efforts between clinicians, experimental biologists, and data scientists.

### Read more about it

- L. Sompayrac, *How the Immune System Works*, 4th ed. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley, 2012.
- V. Dahirel et al., “Coordinate linkage of HIV evolution reveals regions of immunological vulnerabili-

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