

Highlights

Modelling the assembly and flexibility of antibody structures

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- Conformational flexibility of antibodies affects their function.
- Currently available experimental data pose challenges to the modelling of full-length antibody assemblies.
- Integrative modelling combining experiments and computational methods can address this challenge.

Modelling the assembly and flexibility of antibody structures

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Abstract

Antibodies are large protein assemblies capable of both specifically recognising antigens and engaging with other proteins and receptors to coordinate immune action. Traditionally, structural studies have been dedicated to antibody variable regions, but efforts to determine and model full-length antibody structures are emerging. Here we review the current knowledge on modelling the structures of antibody assemblies, focusing on their conformational flexibility and the challenge this poses to obtaining and evaluating structural models. Integrative modelling approaches, combining experiments (cryo-electron microscopy, mass spectrometry etc.) and computational methods (molecular dynamics simulations, deep-learning based approaches etc.), hold the promise to map the complex conformational landscape of full-length antibody structures.

Keywords: Antibody structures, Antibody isotypes, Conformational sampling, Antibody flexibility

1. Introduction

2 Antibodies are large protein assemblies secreted by B cells in response to
3 immune challenges. They are considered as one of the most promising ther-
4 apeutics, due to their ability to specifically recognise antigens and interact

5 with receptors on different effector cells in the immune system to orches-
6 trate immune response. Understanding the structural assembly of antibod-
7 ies is important to dissect the mechanisms of immune response and improve
8 the design of therapeutic biologics. Antibodies are typically depicted as Y-
9 shaped protein assemblies of two heavy (H) and two light (L) chains. Two
10 H-L pairs form the variable (V) region, which contains antigen-binding sur-
11 faces specific to an antigen [1] (Figure 1A). The rest of the molecule forms
12 the constant (C) region, harbouring binding sites for receptors and a number
13 of features which govern the flexibility and integrity of this protein assem-
14 bly: (i) disulphide bonds bind disparate H and L chains together to form the
15 assembly; (ii) some antibody isotypes contain a long, flexible hinge linking
16 the antigen binding fragment (Fab) and the crystallisable fragment (Fc), and
17 allow large movements of the antibody arms; (iii) post-translational modifi-
18 cations (PTM), such as glycosylation, can be found decorating the antibody
19 molecule, adding further complexity to study these protein assemblies. In
20 humans, there are a total of nine isotypes, each with variable hinge lengths
21 (or an extra immunoglobulin domain in place of the hinge), disulphide bond
22 and glycosylation patterns (Figure 1B). An additional tailpiece allows these
23 assemblies to be anchored on cell surfaces in the form of B cell receptors
24 (BCR). B cells can switch between isotypes, in a process called Class-Switch
25 Recombination (CSR), to adapt themselves in different biological contexts
26 (reviewed in [2]).

27
28 A large number of structural studies is dedicated to antibodies, but we
29 are only beginning to address and understand the principles of assembly and
30 functional stability of full-length antibody structures. The solution of com-
31 plex structures covering both Fab and Fc is important to understand the
32 multifunctional properties of antibody assemblies: techniques such as cryo-
33 electron microscopy (cryo-EM) are beginning to fill in the gap for a com-
34 plete picture of these large macromolecular assemblies (Table 1). Existing
35 full-length antibody structures capture a variety of complex assemblies that
36 antibody can form, at times coupled with other proteins, one example being
37 the joining chain (encoded by the gene *JCHAIN*) which binds monomers of
38 IgM and IgA to form secretory antibodies [27]. These high-order assemblies
39 (e.g. secretory IgM are typically pentameric, comprising a total of 20 anti-
40 body protein chains and 1 joining chain) are complex, and pose significant
41 challenges to computational approaches such as AlphaFold-Multimer [28].
42 Currently, the available 3D structural information is still heavily skewed to-

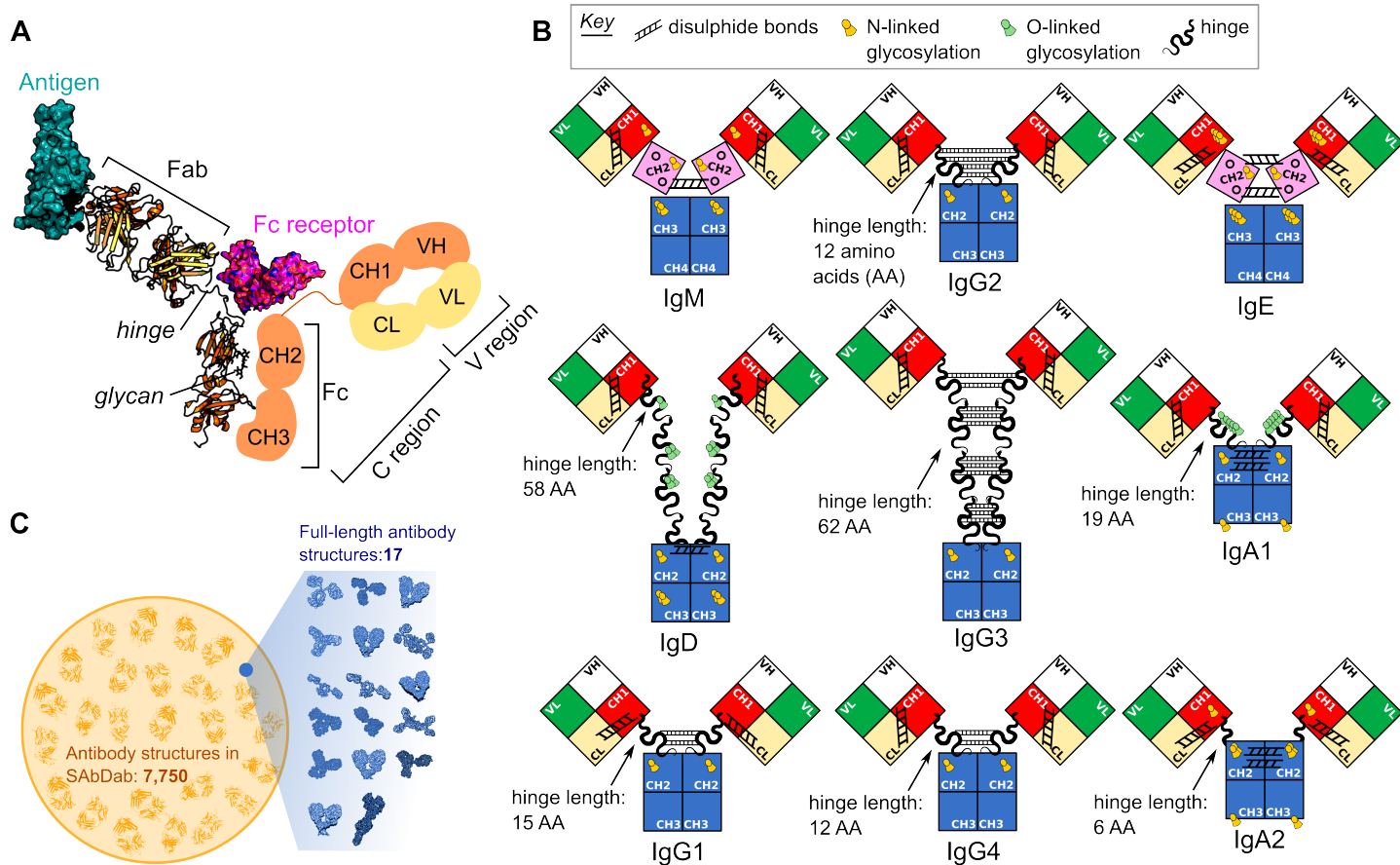


Figure 1: Human antibody structures. (A) Schematic of human IgG1 in complex with the antigen (SARS-CoV-2 Spike Receptor Binding Domain [RBD] [PDB 6zlr] illustrated here as an example) and the Fc receptor $Fc\gamma RIII-B$ (PDB 1t83). One half of the full-length IgG1 was depicted with cartoon illustration (PDB 1hzh) and another half was depicted with a simplified domain illustration. (B) Schematic of all nine human isotypes with labels of the hinge length [3], number of inter-chain disulphide bonds [4, 5, 6, 7, 8] and glycosylation sites [9, 10, 11, 12]. (C) The number of human antibody structures available in the SAbDab database [13] (accessed 5 October, 2023) and the number of full-length human antibody structures available on the Protein Data Bank (PDB, accessed 5 October, 2023).

PDB ID	Description	Species	Isotype	Experimental methods	Resolution	Publication
1mco	An antibody harbouring hinge deletion	Human	IgG1	X-ray crystallography	3.20 Å	[14]
1iga	X-ray scattering analysis of serum IgA1	Human	IgA1	Solution scattering	N/A	[15]
1hzh	Antibody recognising HIV-1 gp120	Human	IgG1	X-ray crystallography	2.70 Å	[16]
1r70	Recombinant hapten-binding monomeric IgA2	Human	IgA2	Solution scattering	N/A	[17]
2esg	IgA1 complexed with human serum albumin	Human	IgA1	Solution scattering	N/A	[18]
2qtj	Dimeric IgA1 isolated from myeloma serum	Human	IgA1	Solution scattering	N/A	[19]
3chn	Secretory IgA1 isolated from colostrum samples	Human	IgA1	Solution scattering	N/A	[20]
3cm9	Secretory IgA2 isolated from colostrum samples	Human	IgA2	Solution scattering	N/A	[21]
5dk3	Pembrolizumab structure	Human	IgG4	X-ray crystallography	2.28 Å	[22]
6gfe	Therapeutic anti-NPRA antibody	Human	IgG4	X-ray crystallography	1.80 Å	[23]
7xq8	IgM BCR with Fab from HIV-1 neutralising antibody VRC-01	Human	IgM	cryo-EM	3.30 Å	[24]
8ady, 8adz, 8ae0, 8ae3, 8ae2	Human IgM of different conformations	Human	IgM	cryo-EM	5.20 Å, 6.70 Å, 7.10 Å, 6.80 Å, 8.50 Å	[25]
1igt	Anti-canine lymphoma monoclonal antibody	Mouse	IgG2a	X-ray crystallography	2.80 Å	[26]

Table 1: Current available full-length antibody structures available in the Protein Data Bank (PDB). Human structures are organised in chronological order of the associated publications. HIV-1, human immunodeficiency virus-1; NPRA, natriuretic peptide receptor A; BCR, B cell receptor; cryo-EM, cryo-electron microscopy.

43 wards Fab structures (Figure 1C). Given the advancement of single-cell se-
44 quencing methods to generate antibody sequence data comprising both the
45 V and C regions [29], full-length sequences are increasingly accessible in an-
46 tibody discovery programs and basic research in B cell immune response *in*
47 *vivo*. These data motivate antibody structural studies beyond the V region,
48 to investigate the structural and functional implication of biological processes
49 such as CSR in changing the antibody C region.

50

51 Nowadays, a wide array of approaches can complement experimental
52 structure determination under the umbrella of integrative structural biology.
53 In this review, we survey existing efforts to apply and adapt such approaches
54 to study full-length antibody structures. The inherent conformational flexi-
55 bility of the Fab arms is one of the major factors posing challenges to accurate
56 structure determination and modelling of antibody assemblies. Following the
57 rise of deep learning models such as AlphaFold2 [30] in generating accurate
58 models of protein structures, we discuss how these techniques, in combination
59 with molecular simulations, can be integrated with experimental approaches
60 to probe the structural landscape of antibodies and understand the principles
61 of antibody assembly.

62 2. Conformational flexibility of antibodies

63 In the last decade, thanks to the increased availability of single particle
64 electron microscopy, the vastness of the possible conformational landscapes
65 of antibodies has been addressed [23, 25, 31]. Relative orientation of the
66 subdomains is guided by the flexibility, which is affected by the hinge length
67 and the number of disulphide bonds in the same region (Figure 1). As these
68 are the main discriminators of IgG subclasses, different isotypes are charac-
69 terized by varying conformational minima, speculated to correlate with their
70 biological functions [32]. Considering the flexibility of the Fab arms [33],
71 the presence of two additional disulphide bonds in the hinge makes IgG2
72 the most rigid among IgG isotypes. Although IgG4 has the same number of
73 disulphide bonds, the slightly shorter hinge (12 residues vs 15) with respect
74 to IgG1, leads to reduced inter-domain flexibility [23, 32]. Interestingly, the
75 flexibility order (IgG3 > IgG1 > IgG4 > IgG2) seems to reflect quite well
76 the ability to bind the receptor Fc γ R [32, 33]. IgG4 and IgG2 are generally
77 less potent [32]; IgG2, in particular, has lost the ability to simultaneously
78 bind two antigens [34, 35]. IgG3, containing the longest hinge, was proposed

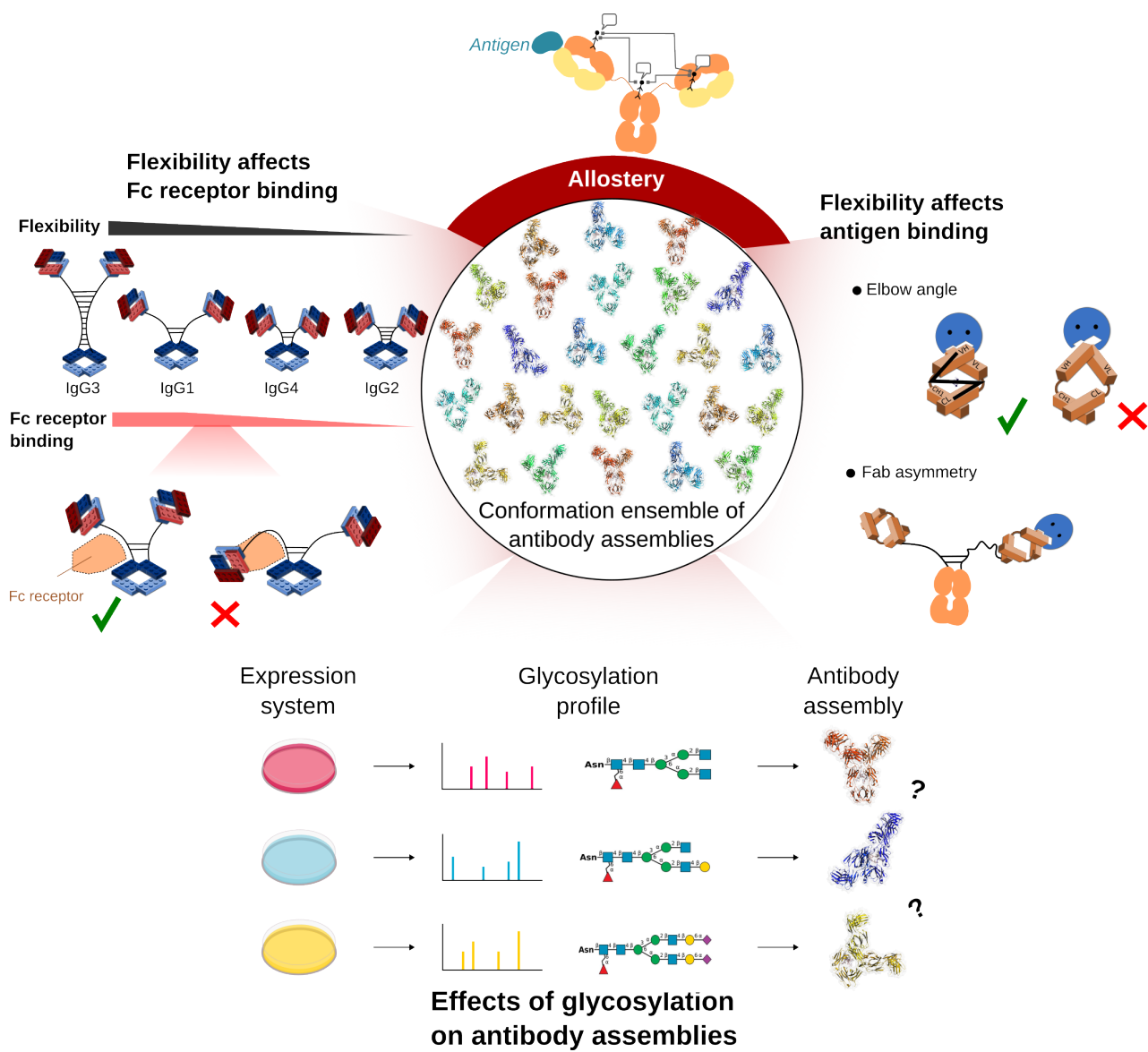


Figure 2: Schematic summary of the role of inherent flexibility and glycosylation in defining conformational ensembles of antibody assemblies.

79 to allow binding to antigens less targetable by other isotypes [32]. A longer
80 hinge was also shown to improve antibody-mediated effector functions [36].
81 Furthermore, the amino acid composition in the N-terminal end of the hinge
82 has been shown to affect Fc flexibility, in terms of the extent of CH2-CH2
83 bending, as well as exhibiting different motions, which may selectively dis-
84 rupt the binding to Fc γ R receptor [37].

85
86 Binding to Fc receptors is further modulated by post-translational modi-
87 fications (PTMs) such as glycosylation. Glycans covalently linked to the IgG
88 CH2 domain (position Asn297, EU numbering) are known to affect Fc stabil-
89 ity and modulate the interaction with Fc γ R and FcN receptors, via specific
90 glycan-glycan interactions [34, 38, 39]. Thus, modifications of even a single
91 sugar unit can affect and alter Fc protein binding [40]. Even though N-linked
92 glycosylation sites are fairly conserved among the isotypes, the diversity of
93 glycan structures can lead to 36 functional states (for IgG1), depending on
94 the expression systems used (Figure 2), which differ in terms of enzyme
95 expression patterns [41]. Glycosylation can also appear elsewhere in the an-
96 tibody: it is worth noting that IgG4 Fabs tend to be more glycosylated while
97 IgG3 shows an unique O-linked glycosylation pattern in the hinge region, a
98 feature shared with human IgD and IgA1 [32, 42]. Differences in glycosyla-
99 tion states were reflected in distinct conformational minima being sampled in
100 molecular dynamics simulations [38, 43]. Whether Fab or hinge glycosylation
101 can alter the structure and biological functions is still under investigation.
102 Fab glycosylation may reduce antibody half-life, due to steric clashes in FcR
103 binding, while hinge O-linked glycosylation could improve resistance towards
104 proteolysis [32, 42].

105
106 For the Fab, flexibility can conceivably affect antigen binding. The mutual
107 orientation of the two Fab arms may affect the shape of the paratope, i.e. the
108 antigen binding site. The six hyper-variable loops composing the paratope
109 are characterized by conformational rearrangement in the microsecond-to-
110 millisecond timescale while the elbow angle (angle between variable and con-
111 stant Fab regions, Figure 2), the VH-VL and CH1-CL motions is in the low
112 nanosecond timescale [44], with a higher degree of freedom in λ rather than
113 κ L chains [45]. Recent *in silico* mutagenesis data highlighted VH-VL angle
114 sensitivity, and the consequential change in solvent-accessible surface area
115 even at distal positions of the structure [46]. Bound and unbound Fab states
116 are characterized by different patterns of interaction. Upon antigen bind-

117 ing, an allosteric signal propagates across L and H chains and reaches the
118 CH1 domain [47, 48]. Mutations distal to the antigen-binding site (e.g., in
119 the VH-VL interface) can influence binding by modulating the interdomain
120 conformations as well as by allosterically perturbing the paratope [49]. The
121 hinge adds further to the effects of flexibility on antigen binding: interest-
122 ingly, it has been recently proposed to act not just a flexible linker but to
123 be able to take part in intradomain/intrachain communication [50], raising
124 the possibility of stabilising antigen binding through mutations beyond the
125 Fab. Hinge disulphide cross-over was shown to enhance receptor binding in
126 agonistic antibodies [51]. Furthermore, due to the nature of the hinge, the
127 two Fabs are now recognised to be asymmetrical in terms of intradomain ge-
128 ometries and motions [52, 53]. A comparison of the dynamics of full-length
129 IgG1 (PDB 1hzh) with one of its Fab in isolation showed that Fabs internal
130 motions are negligible with respect to Fabs moieties fluctuations in the full
131 structure [52], suggesting overall dynamical communication via the hinge and
132 the constant region.

133

134 It is thus important to understand how hinge flexibility can be controlled
135 to fine-tune antibody function. It has been shown via mutagenesis experi-
136 ment and treatment with thioredoxin that enhanced flexibility of IgG1, par-
137 ticularly in the hinge region, could lead to reduction of Fc-mediated activity.
138 The authors suggests that the enhanced flexibility of Fabs can limit interac-
139 tions by steric hinderance of Fc-FcR interactions [54]. In light of the role of
140 Fabs in Fc-FcR interactions, enhanced hinge flexibility could also allow the
141 Fabs to move far away from the Fc, abrogating antibody-dependent cellular
142 cytotoxicity (ADCC). Furthermore, increase in flexibility will also result in
143 an increased exposure of buried proteolysis binding site and PTMs hotspot
144 leading to aggregation and degradation [38, 54].

145

146 Recently, biophysical experiments using Hydrogen-Deuterium Exchange
147 Mass Spectrometry (HDX-MS), Surface Plasmon Resonance (SPR), Hydroxyl
148 Radical Footprint (HRF-MS) and high-speed Atomic Force Microscopy (AFM)
149 proved that ADCC, through Fc γ IIIR-IgG1 interactions, is stronger when full-
150 length antibodies were used in the experiments, in comparison to Fc-only
151 constructs. 3D structural modelling based on these experimental results cor-
152 roborated the hypothesis of the need of the Fab to improve binding of Fc γ R,
153 through which ADCC is exerted [55, 56]. Consequently, this limits the rela-
154 tive orientation between Fc and Fab to accommodate Fc γ R. Such conforma-

155 tions seem to be preferred if the antibody is bound to the antigen, suggesting
156 allosteric conformational cooperativity between Fab and Fc [57, 58].

157 **3. Modelling the assembly of antibodies**

158 The sheer complexity and the highly flexible nature of antibodies ~~calls~~
159 call for specialised methods and considerations in modelling these protein
160 assemblies. ~~AlphaFold2 [30] and AlphaFold-multimer[28] were designed for~~
161 ~~general-use protein structural modelling. It has been shown that AlphaFold2~~
162 ~~is not aware of antibody-specific structural features, such as the conformation~~
163 ~~of CDR loops [59]. Several Antibody-specific pipelines (ABodyBuilder [60],~~
164 RosettaAntibody [61], RepertoireBuilder [62], etc.) have made significant
165 progress in improving the prediction of V region using structural modelling.
166 With respect to the more challenging task of modelling CDR3 loops, comparison
167 of those tools against AlphaFold2 [30] and AlphaFold-multimer[28], which
168 were designed for general-use protein structural modelling, suggested that
169 the AlphaFold methods achieved comparable performance for antibodies
170 and nanobodies [59]. The advent of deep learning techniques further im-
171 proved V region modelling: for example, ABodyBuilder2 [63] was trained
172 with antibody structures using a similar architecture as AlphaFold2. A
173 more comprehensive benchmark will ascertain the differences between these
174 methods in modelling antibodies. Recent advancements in antibody language
175 models represent another attempt to improve antibody structural modelling;
176 specifically, these models often return attention scores, which denote rela-
177 tionships between residues in the input sequence that can be interpreted as
178 spatial proximity in antibody structures. IgFold [59] was built upon the anti-
179 body language model AntiBERTy [64] and incorporated structural templates
180 to capture correct location of residues during structural modelling.

181 These approaches focused nevertheless on modelling the V region, and
182 better methods are still needed to study and model full-length antibody
183 structures, taking into account antibody-specific considerations. A num-
184 ber of recent methods aim to model the structures of large protein com-
185 plexes, for example by first dividing the complex into subunits, and then
186 re-assemble models of these subcomponents using Monte Carlo tree search
187 methods [65]. Elsewhere, AlphaFold-multimer [28] has made encouraging
188 progresses on multimer assembly, and thus could hold promise in modelling
189 large antibody assemblies, but problems still exist on inter-domain orienta-
190 tion [66]. This is a well-recognised issue in antibody structural modelling,

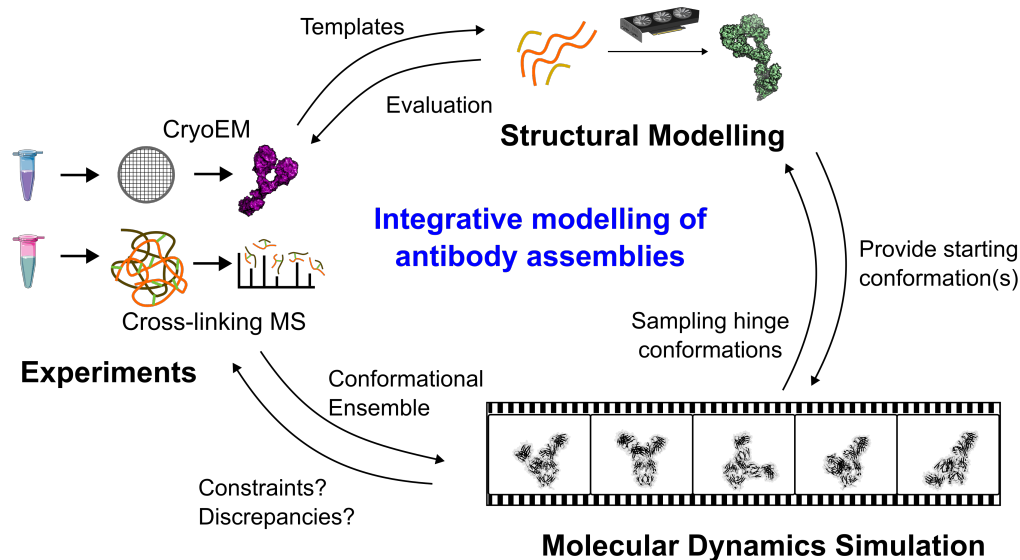


Figure 3: Integrative modelling approach, combining experimental data and computational modelling, can be adopted to model the flexibility of antibody assemblies. See the main text for further details.

191 mostly on specifying the angle between the VH and VL domains, as this has
 192 been shown to be an important factor affecting the geometry of the antigen-
 193 binding pocket [67]. Similarly, the positioning and packing angles of the C
 194 domains should be considered during the modelling of the complete antibody
 195 assembly. Here, the presence of the hinge for some isotypes, and the diversity
 196 in its length, further complicates the assembly of immunoglobulin domains
 197 during modelling using tools such as AlphaFold. This is most notable for hu-
 198 man IgG3, which contains a hinge of over 60 residues, representing a major
 199 challenge to predict domain orientation in full-length antibody structures.

200 4. Future direction

201 Recently, successes in the solution of intact antibody structures have been
 202 reported [24, 25], though some of them still miss parts of the full-length an-
 203 tibody assembly [68], illustrating existing experimental difficulties in acquir-
 204 ing the intact antibody structure. Computational routes offer an alternative
 205 which complements experimental studies. Integrative modelling combining
 206 experimental data and computational methods hold the promise of consid-

207 ering the conformational flexibility of antibodies whilst incorporating exper-
208 imental measurements to constrain computational predictions (Figure 3).
209 For example, cross-linking mass spectrometry provides distance restraints
210 between protein domains [69], and methods such as cryo-EM captures di-
211 verse structural snapshots indicating various conformations of large protein
212 assemblies [70]. Such experimental information can serve either as structural
213 templates or as ground-truths for evaluating the predicted models. Here,
214 considering the inherent flexibility of antibodies, it remains a question on
215 how best to evaluate models of antibody structures. Traditionally, models
216 are compared against X-ray crystal structures. Modelling antibody struc-
217 tures as an ensemble of possible conformations will perhaps reflect better the
218 diversity of conformations that antibodies can adopt.

219 3D structural modelling, using either (or a combination of) homology
220 modelling or deep-learning approaches, can model full-length antibody struc-
221 tures. Here, different conformations provided by these modelling pipelines
222 can serve as different starting conformations for molecular dynamics simu-
223 lations. Recent works have been taken to explore multiple conformational
224 states of predicted protein models by modifying the multiple sequence align-
225 ment (MSA) input of AlphaFold [71]. Simulations using different starting
226 conformations allow a more extensive sampling of possible conformational
227 states, as done in a number of simulation studies [52, 57, 72]. In return, the
228 inter-domain conformation sampled in MD simulation facilitates the mod-
229 elling of the flexible linker between domains (such as hinge) in antibody
230 structural modelling process. Again, experimental data provide constraints
231 to restrict the sampling of conformations to reflect *in vitro* behaviours of the
232 antibody; on the other hand, insights from simulations can inform further
233 experimental investigations to deeply characterise the dynamical behaviours
234 of antibodies (Figure 3). Such integrative modelling paradigm shows promise
235 in modelling other large protein complexes [73]; on modelling antibodies, col-
236 laborative efforts between computational modellers and various experimental
237 communities will facilitate the adoption of these combinations of techniques
238 to map the complexity of the antibody structural landscape. Not only will
239 this enable rational design of therapeutic antibodies to optimise their func-
240 tion, efficient modelling of antibody structures beyond the V region will en-
241 able studies on the structural implication of biological processes such as CSR
242 in naturally occurring antibody response *in vivo*.

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