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Characterization of the chicken T cell receptor γ repertoire by high-throughput sequencing



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Abstract

Background: As one of “ $\gamma\delta$ -high” species, chicken is an excellent model for the study of $\gamma\delta$ T cells in non-mammalian animals. However, a comprehensive characterization of the *TCR $\gamma\delta$* repertoire is still missing in chicken. The objective of this study was to characterize the expressed *TCR γ* repertoire in chicken thymus using high-throughput sequencing.

Methods: In this study, we first obtained the detailed genomic organization of the *TCR γ* locus of chicken based on the latest assembly of the red jungle fowl genome sequences (GRCg6a) and then characterized the *TCR γ* repertoire in the thymus of four chickens by using 5' Rapid Amplification of cDNA Ends (5' RACE) along with high-throughput sequencing (HTS).

Results: The chicken *TCR γ* locus contains a single *C γ* gene, three functional *J γ* segments and 44 *V γ* segments that could be classified into six subgroups, each containing six, nineteen, nine, four, three and three members. Dot-plot analysis of the chicken *TCR γ* locus against itself showed that almost all the entire zone containing *V γ* segments had arisen through tandem duplication events, and the main homology unit, containing 9 or 10 *V γ* gene segments, has tandemly duplicated for four times. For the analysis of chicken *TCR γ* repertoire, more than 100,000 unique *V γ* -region nucleotide sequences were obtained from the thymus of each chicken. After alignment to the germline *V γ* and *J γ* segments identified above, we found that the four chickens had similar repertoire profile of *TCR γ* . In brief, four *V γ* segments (including *V γ 3.7*, *V γ 2.13*, *V γ 1.6* and *V γ 1.3*) and six *V γ -J γ* pairs (including *V γ 3.7-J γ 3*, *V γ 2.13-J γ 1*, *V γ 2.13-J γ 3*, *V γ 1.6-J γ 3*, *V γ 3.7-J γ 1* and *V γ 1.6-J γ 1*) were preferentially utilized by all four individuals, and vast majority of the unique CDR3 γ sequences encoded 4 to 22 amino acids with mean 12.90 amino acids, which exhibits a wider length distribution and/or a longer mean length than CDR3 γ of human, mice and other animal species.

Conclusions: In this study, we present the first in-depth characterization of the *TCR γ* repertoire in chicken thymus. We believe that these data will facilitate the studies of adaptive immunology in birds.

Keywords: Chicken, *TCR γ* locus, High-throughput sequencing, CDR3 γ

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Background

T cells are the central component of the adaptive immune system that is present in all studied jawed vertebrates. The cellular immune system which mediated by T cells visualizes the world of pathogens largely through its T cell immune receptors [1]. Conventional T cell receptors (TCRs) are disulfide-linked heterodimers that are composed by either α and β chains or γ and δ chains, which are co-expressed on the surface of two T cell subpopulations, $\alpha\beta$ and $\gamma\delta$ T cells, respectively [2]. Each T cell receptor polypeptide is composed of two functional domains: variable region which is capable of recognizing foreign molecular patterns and constant regions which can anchor the receptors in the T cell membrane. During the intrathymic T cell development, the variable region that is unique to each T cell is assembled via somatic recombination of variable (V), diversity (D) and joining (J) gene segments for β and δ chains, and of V and J gene segments for α and γ chains. The antigen specificity of each TCR is largely determined by the complementarity determining region 3 (CDR3) loop, which is encoded by the junctional site of V(D)J rearrangement and is the most varied portion of the TCR molecule [3, 4].

Although $\gamma\delta$ T cells represent only a small proportion of the CD3⁺ lymphocytes in the circulation and most tissues in human and mice (“ $\gamma\delta$ -low” species), they play vital roles as a bridge to connect innate and adaptive immune function. Unlike the antigen recognition by $\alpha\beta$ T cells, $\gamma\delta$ T cells seem to bind antigens in non-MHC-restricted manners, and the CDR3 length distributions of the TCR γ and δ indicated that the $\gamma\delta$ TCRs may recognize antigen in ways similar to that of antibodies. Therefore, $\gamma\delta$ T cells may be more flexible than the classical $\alpha\beta$ T cells in mediating cellular immunity [5]. As “ $\gamma\delta$ -high” species, chicken, rabbit and artiodactyls have high proportion of $\gamma\delta$ T cells among circulating lymphocytes. In chickens, the percentage of $\gamma\delta$ T cells can reach up to 50% of isolated lymphocytes of peripheral blood and organs [6]. However, the functions of $\gamma\delta$ T cells have not been well studied in these “ $\gamma\delta$ -high” species. As one of “ $\gamma\delta$ -high” species and the best-studied non-mammalian model for immunological research, chicken is an excellent candidate for further study of $\gamma\delta$ T cells. Elucidating the repertoire diversity of chicken TCR genes will surely provide fundamental information for further understanding the functions of $\gamma\delta$ T cells in “ $\gamma\delta$ -high” species.

At present, the reference germline sequences for the V, D and J gene segments of chicken TCR γ locus is not found in the international ImMunoGeneTics information system (IMGT, <http://www.imgt.org>) [7]. Previous studies reported that the chicken TCR γ locus has three J γ gene segments, a single C γ gene and three V γ

subgroups, each of which includes approximately 8–10 members [8]. Recently, Liu et al. re-sequenced a bacterial artificial chromosome (BAC) clone 174P24 (~ 205 kb) that covers the red jungle fowl (*Gallus gallus*) TCR γ locus by using cross-reference error-correction sequencing approach, Illumina and single-molecule real-time sequencing technology and analyzed the genomic organization of the chicken TCR γ locus; however, they did not provide the complete sequence of this BAC clone as well as the detailed germline sequences or locations of each V γ and J γ fragments [9].

To obtain a relative complete germline gene database as the basis for downstream repertoire analysis of the chicken TCR γ , we focused on the latest assembly of the red jungle fowl genome sequences (GRCg6a, released on Apr 2018, GCA_000002315.5), which was sequenced and assembled with single molecule real time (SMRT) sequencing technology to a depth of approximately 80 \times . Fortunately, the chromosome region containing TCR γ locus possesses few gaps. Therefore, in this study, we first obtained the detailed genomic organization of the red jungle fowl TCR γ locus based on these high-quality genome sequences, and then characterized the TCR γ repertoire in chicken thymus by using 5' Rapid Amplification of cDNA Ends (5' RACE) along with high-throughput sequencing (HTS).

Methods

Identification of germline V γ and J γ gene segments

Chicken germline C γ sequence (GenBank accession numbers AB092341) was used as query to retrieve the latest chicken genomic sequences (GRCg6a) by a tBLASTn approach in the GenBank database (www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/assembly/GCF_000002315.5/) [10]. To determine the location of the V γ gene segments, the genomic sequence (~ 100 kb length) located upstream of the C γ gene was screened using IgBLAST (www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/igblast/) [11]. Sequences that matched mouse (or human) V γ segments with an E-value < 10⁻³ were further analyzed for chicken V γ genes.

Nomenclature of germline V γ and J γ gene segments

Since the previous studies have identified three V γ subgroups [8], in this study we numbered the germline V γ subgroups according to the previous studies, that is, the V γ 1, V γ 2 and V γ 3 subgroups numbered in this study is one-by-one corresponding to the V γ 1, V γ 2 and V γ 3 subgroups numbered in previous studies. Within each subgroup, V γ segments are named sequentially in directions from 3' to 5' with the subgroup number followed by the gene segment number. Potentially functional, ORF and pseudo-V segments were identified according to the IMGT standards [12]. The V gene domains (framework regions or complementarity-determining regions, FRs or

CDRs) were classified using the IMGT numbering system [13]. The alignment and comparison of DNA (and protein) sequences of V γ segments were performed with DNASTAR lasergene software suite [14] and GeneDoc [15].

Phylogenetic analyses of germline V γ gene segments

Phylogenetic tree of V γ and J γ segments was constructed in MEGA version X [16] using the maximum likelihood method with 1,000 bootstrap replicates, and phylogenetic trees of chicken V γ 2 segments were constructed using neighbor joining method with 1,000 bootstrap replicates. Only the FR1 through 3 regions (as defined by the IMGT numbering system) of each V sequence were utilized to construct the phylogenetic tree. Multiple nucleotide alignments for the tree construction were performed using ClustalW. Each V subgroup is represented by one sequence per species chosen at random from the functional genes. The accession numbers of V sequences used in this study (except for chicken sequences) are listed in Additional file 1. Chicken sequences were derived from this study.

Dot plot analyses

Dot plot analyses of red jungle fowl against itself or duck *TCR γ* loci were conducted with dotmatcher (<http://emboss.bioinformatics.nl/cgi-bin/emboss/dotmatcher/>) [17]. The window size is 300 bp and the identity threshold is 70 %.

Sample collection, RNA isolation, reverse transcription and quantitative real-time polymerase chain reaction (qRT-PCR)

Four healthy Hy-line Brown commercial hens at the ages of 30 days and 300 days each were purchased from a local chicken farm in Taian city and utilized for isolating total RNA from 13 (30-days-old chicken) or 15 (300-days-old chicken) tissues to analyze the expression pattern of the chicken *TCR γ* gene.

Total RNA was extracted from various tissues using RNAsimple Total RNA Kit (Tiangen Biotech, Beijing, China). Reverse transcription was conducted using PrimeScript RT reagent kit with a gDNA Eraser (TaKaRa, Dalian, China). The mRNA expression level of *TCR γ* was measured by qRT-PCR with primers (C γ F and C γ R, see Additional file 2) designed according to the mRNA sequence of chicken C γ segment. The chicken *GAPDH* gene was used as the internal control with primers GAPDHF and GAPDHR (see Additional file 2). qRT-PCR was performed using SYBR Premix Ex Taq (TaKaRa, Dalian, China) on an MX3000p instrument (Stratagene, La Jolla, CA, USA) according to the following conditions: 95 °C for 30 s; 40 cycles of 95 °C for 5 s, 53 °C for 30 s, and 72 °C for 15 s; and a final stage 95 °C for 1 min, 58 °C for 30 s, and 95 °C for 30 s. The relative

expression levels of a sample were determined using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta C_t}$ method by comparing the values with the internal control. Each sample was amplified in triplicate.

5' rapid amplification of cDNA ends (5' RACE)

To get the expression diversity of *TCR γ* , total RNA was isolated from the thymus of Hy-line Brown commercial hens at the ages of 30 days using a TRIzol Reagent (Ambion, CA, USA) according to the manufacturer's instruction. The expressed VJ repertoire of *TCR γ* was obtained by the 5' RACE method using the SMARTer RACE 5'/3' Kit (Takara, CA, USA). RACE semi-nested PCR was performed with the forward universal UPM primer and a C γ -specific reverse primer within the first exon of C γ (GSP1, see Additional file 2). A unique sequence barcode of 12 nt length was placed at the 5' end of each GSP1 in order to identify reads that originate from a particular sample (see Additional file 2). All PCR amplifications were performed using two high fidelity enzymes, TransStart FastPfu DNA polymerase (TransGen Biotech, Beijing, China) and PrimeSTAR HS DNA Polymerase (Takara, CA, USA). The detailed protocol for preparation of unbiased TCR cDNA libraries for HTS could refer to the reference [18].

Library preparation, HTS and data analysis

Library preparation, HTS and data analysis were performed by Beijing Tangtang Tianxia Biotechnology Co., Ltd. Briefly, the 5' RACE PCR products were detected using agarose gel electrophoresis, and the major DNA bands with the length of 500 ~ 600 bp were recovered and purified. PCR amplicons were then subjected to end-repair and phosphorylation using T4 DNA polymerase, Klenow DNA polymerase and T4 polynucleotide kinase (PNK). These repaired PCR amplicons were 3' adenylated using Klenow Exo- (3' to 5' exo minus, Illumina, CA, USA) and then ligated to the paired-end adapters using T4 DNA ligase (Illumina, CA, USA). Adaptor-ligated products were purified by AMPure XP beads and quantified on an Agilent Technologies 2100 Bioanalyzer. Cluster generation was performed on the cBOT using the TruSeq PE Cluster Kit v3-cBot-HS kit (Illumina, CA, USA) followed by sequencing on Illumina Novaseq 6000 in paired-end mode with a read length of 250 bp.

All of raw reads were treated with a quality control procedure to remove poor quality sequences and adaptor sequences using Cutadapt (version 1.2.1) [19]. Overlapping paired-end reads from the 5' RACE-based library were merged with FLASH [20], and these merged sequences were aligned to the germline V γ and J γ segments identified above using a local BLAST program (version 2.2.30) and each sequence was assigned an optimal germline V γ and J γ segments. Those sequences that

aligned with a pseudo- or ORF- germline V γ segment and redundant sequences that have identical CDR3 nucleotide sequence and use the same V γ and J γ segments were filtered. According to the IMGT numbering system, the CDR3 of a rearranged TCR gene was defined as the region between the 2nd-conserved cysteine encoded by V γ region and the Phe-Gly-X-Gly motif encoded by J γ region [13]. In all potentially functional V γ segments identified above, the 2nd-conserved cysteine was located in a Tyr(Tyr/His)Cys motif, so DNA sequence between TAC (T/C)A(T/C) TG(T/C) (encoding Tyr(Tyr/His)Cys motif) and TT(C/T) GG(C/A) (A/T)(C/G)(A/T) GG(A/T) (encoding Phe-Gly-X-Gly motif) was extracted from each V γ -J γ rearranged sequences using Cutadapt (version 1.2.1) [19]. Putatively non-functional CDR3 γ sequences (containing frameshift indels and termination codons) were filtered and the remaining sequences were used to analyze the length distribution and amino acid (AA) composition of the CDR3 γ .

Statistical analysis

Microsoft Excel was used for the HTS data statistics and analysis. Diagrams were conducted using GraphPad Prism version 8.0.2 for windows.

Results

Genomic organization of the chicken *TCR γ* locus

By annotating the latest assembly of the red jungle fowl genome sequences, we identified the *TCR γ* locus that is mapped on chromosome 2 and spans approximately 100 kb from the most 5' V γ gene segment to the 3' untranslated region (3' UTR) of the single C γ region (Fig. 1). The red jungle fowl *TCR γ* locus has a classical translocon organization, similar to opossum (*Monodelphis domestica*), duck, rabbit, Chinese alligator (*Alligator*

sinensis) and dolphin (*Tursiops truncate*), but different from human, mouse, Rhesus monkey (*Macaca mulatta*), dromedary (*Camelus dromedarius*), bovine, sheep, cat, dog and Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*) [21–34]. As reported previously [8, 35], the locus contains three functional J γ gene segments with conserved 12-bp RSS at their 5' end, followed by a single C γ gene which is encoded by three exons (Fig. 1). A total of 44 V γ gene segments were identified upstream of the J γ gene segments. 28 of them are potentially functional; 13 were pseudogenes and three were defined as ORF because of lacking some conserved AA (e.g., 1st-CYS 23, TRP 41 and 2nd-CYS 104) or RSSs compared with potentially functional V γ genes (Fig. 1).

Based on the criterion that the V segments belonging to the same subgroup should share at least 70 % nucleotide identity, 44 V γ segments could be classified into six distinct subgroups (Table 1). Interestingly, there is no intron between the sequence encoding the leader peptide and the extracellular V domain in the members of V γ 1 subgroup but not in the members of the other five V γ subgroups. This unusual characteristic is also found in the members of chicken V α 1 subgroup, whereas the V gene segments in chicken *TCR β* and mammalian *TCR γ* loci exhibit a typical two-exon structure [36, 37]. Subgroup V γ 4, V γ 5 and V γ 6 are only identified in germline sequences but not in cDNA sequences cloned in previous studies [8]. Subgroup V γ 4 contains three potentially functional V γ segments and one pseudogene, but subgroup V γ 5 and V γ 6 merely contain three pseudogenes, respectively (Table 1). Sequence similarity between the six subgroups showed less than 55 % nucleotide identity (data not shown). There are relatively higher sequences similarity within V γ 1, V γ 3 and V γ 4 subgroups, shared more than 91.1 and 84.0 % identity at

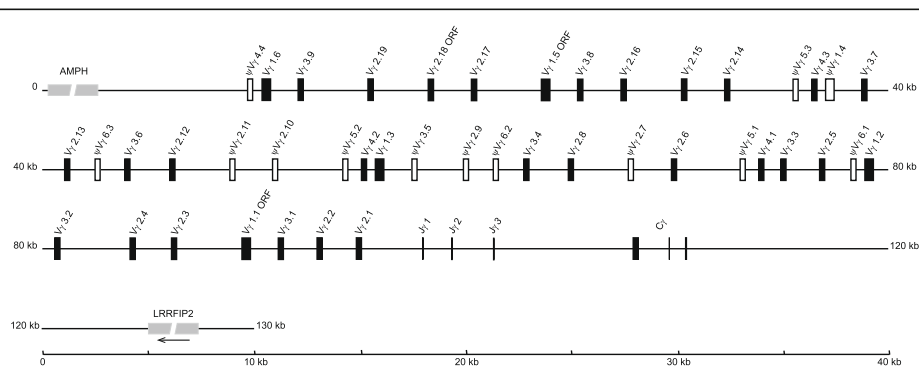


Fig. 1 Genomic organization of the red jungle fowl *TCR γ* gene locus. V γ : potentially functional V γ gene segment; V γ ORF: V γ gene segment with an intact open reading frame but containing defect in RSS or regulatory elements, and/or absence of the conserved amino acids which are necessary for the correct folding of the V-region; J γ : joining gene segment; C γ : constant gene segment. Potentially functional V γ segments and V γ ORFs are represented with black boxes. Pseudo V γ segments are represented with hollow boxes and marked with the letter “ ψ ”. Non-TCR genes located flanking *TCR γ* locus are shown in light grey. The arrow indicates that the transcriptional orientation of *LRRFIP2* gene is opposite to the C γ gene segment

Table 1 Summary of the germline Vγ subgroups retrieved from genomic sequences of red jungle fowl (GRC6a)

Vγ subgroup	Vγ gene	Functional	Total
Vγ1	Vγ1.1ORF ^a , Vγ1.2, Vγ1.3, ψVγ1.4 ^b , Vγ1.5ORF, Vγ1.6	3	6
Vγ2	Vγ2.1, Vγ2.2, Vγ2.3, Vγ2.4, Vγ2.5, Vγ2.6, ψVγ2.7, Vγ2.8, ψVγ2.9, ψVγ2.10, ψVγ2.11, Vγ2.12, Vγ2.13, Vγ2.14, Vγ2.15, Vγ2.16, Vγ2.17, Vγ2.18ORF, Vγ2.19	14	19
Vγ3	Vγ3.1, Vγ3.2, Vγ3.3, Vγ3.4, ψVγ3.5, Vγ3.6, Vγ3.7, Vγ3.8, Vγ3.9	8	9
Vγ4	Vγ4.1, Vγ4.2, Vγ4.3, ψVγ4.4	3	4
Vγ5	ψVγ5.1, ψVγ5.2, ψVγ5.3	0	3
Vγ6	ψVγ6.1, ψVγ6.2, ψVγ6.3	0	3
Total		28	44

^{a,b}The marks "ORF" and "ψ" are interpreted as Fig. 1

the nucleotide and amino acid levels, respectively (data not shown, Fig. 2), but members from Vγ2 subgroup are more diverse than those from other subgroups (Fig. 2 and Additional file 3). Detailed information of each Vγ segment retrieved from the latest chicken genome assembly, including position, transcriptional orientation, nucleotide and amino acid sequence of Vγ, Jγ and Cγ segments, signal peptide sequence, as well as RSS sequence are listed in Additional file 4.

Phylogenetic analysis of chicken Vγ gene segments

The evolutionary relationship of chicken Vγ genes was investigated by constructing a phylogenetic tree with maximum likelihood method using the nucleotide sequences containing FR1 to FR3 region from different tetrapods (Fig. 3). The result shows that there are clear corresponding relationships between chicken and duck Vγ subgroups. The chicken Vγ2 subgroup first clustered with the Vγ1 and Vγ2 subgroups of duck [22], and then clustered with some Vγ

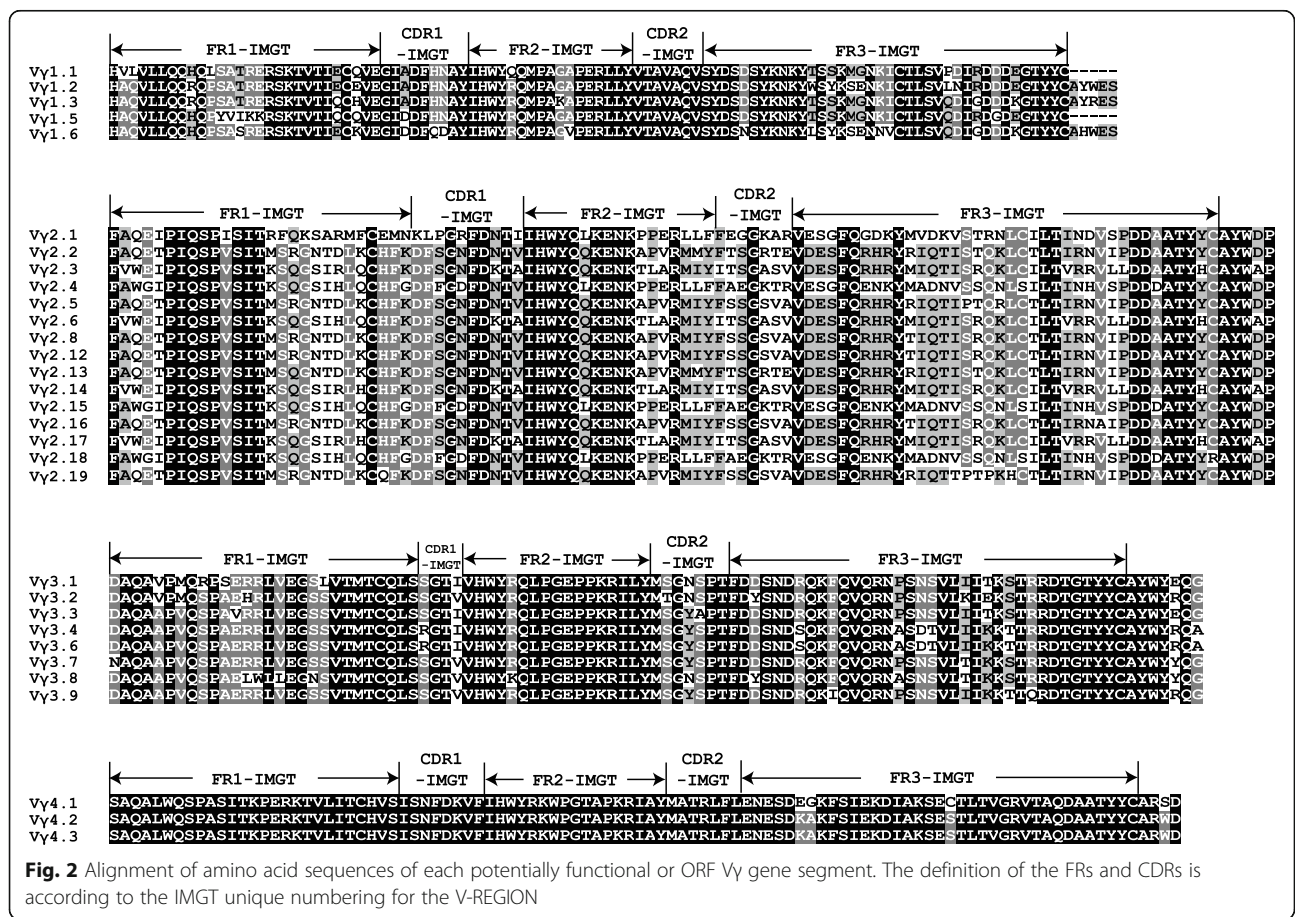


Fig. 2 Alignment of amino acid sequences of each potentially functional or ORF Vγ gene segment. The definition of the FRs and CDRs is according to the IMGT unique numbering for the V-REGION

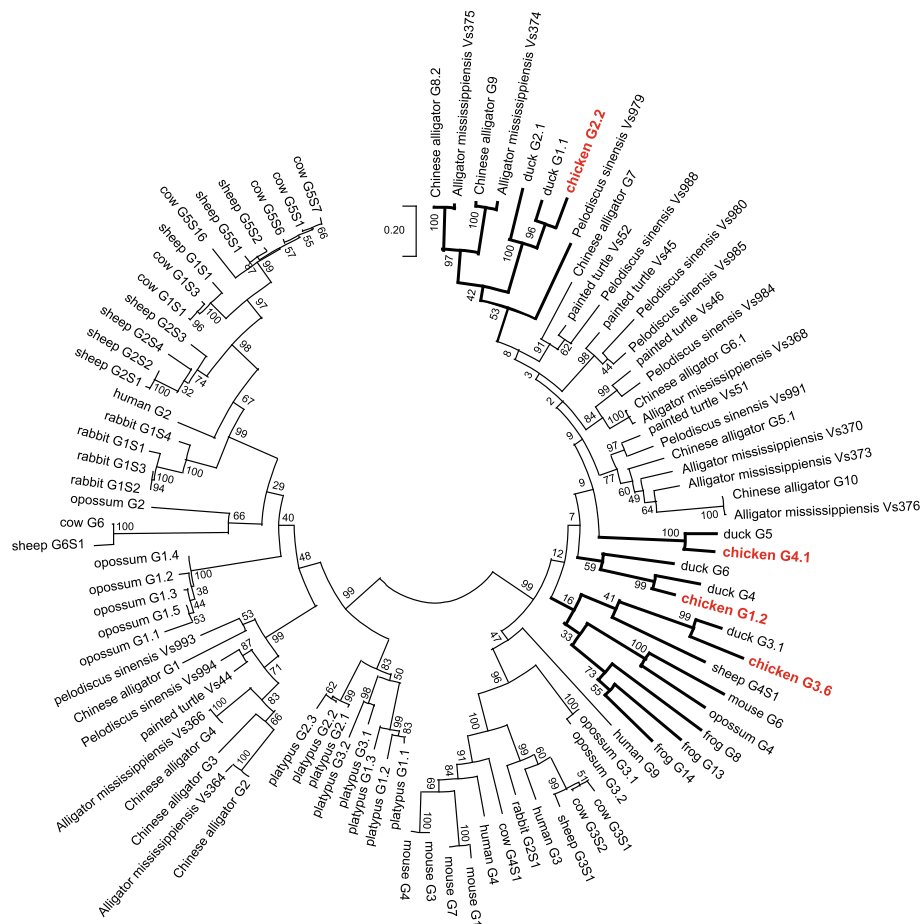
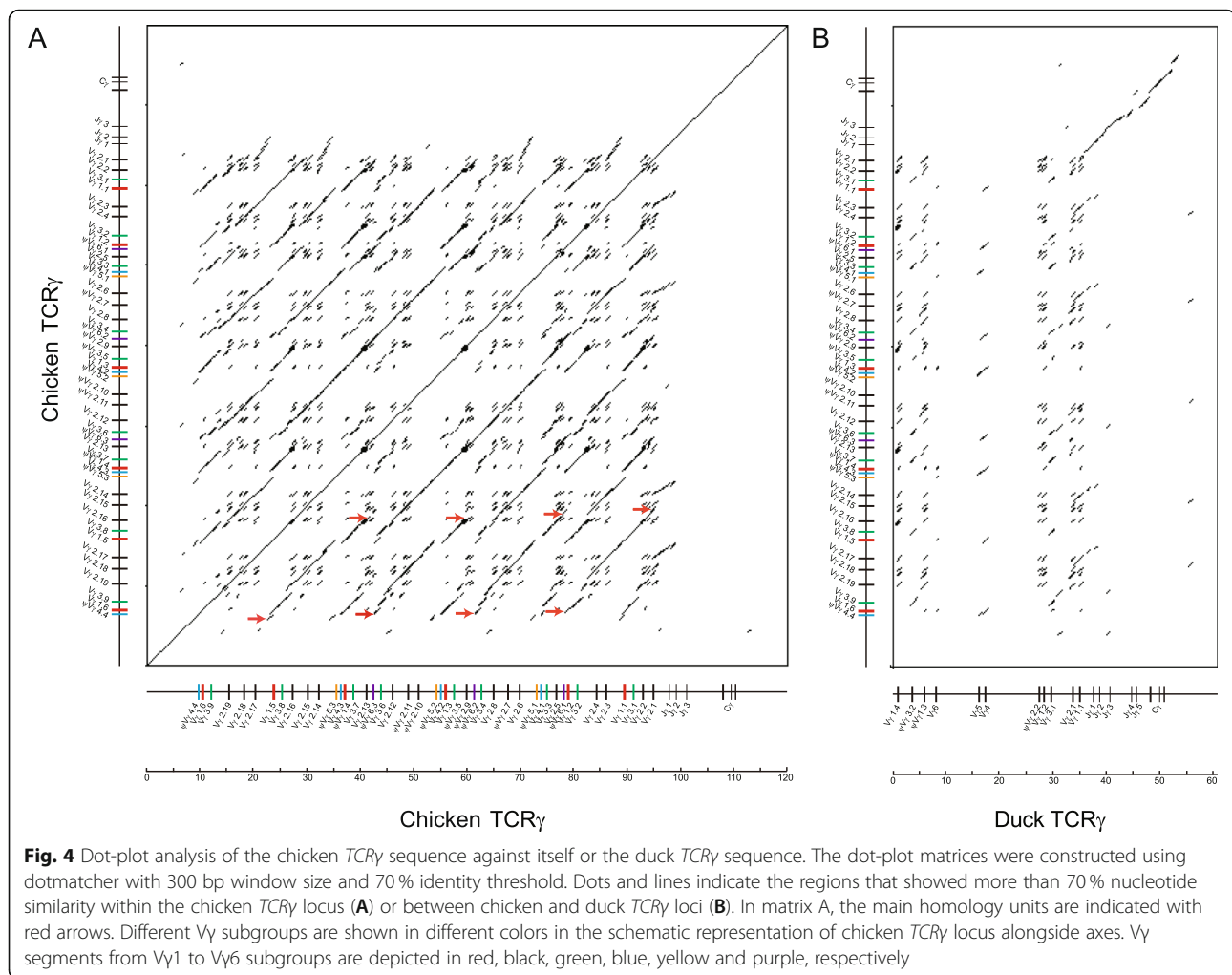


Fig. 3 Phylogenetic analysis of the $V\gamma$ gene segments in representative tetrapod species. The phylogenetic tree was constructed using the maximum likelihood method in MEGA X with nucleotide sequences corresponding to FR1 through FR3. Branches containing chicken $V\gamma$ are indicated in bold, and the chicken $V\gamma$ gene segments are marked in red. Bootstrap percentage values based on 1000 replicates are shown at the interior branch nodes. The “G” in the name of each sequence means “ $V\gamma$ ”

subgroups from crocodiles, suggesting that these $V\gamma$ subgroups may be evolved from an ancestral $V\gamma$ gene that was present in the common ancestor of both birds and crocodiles. Conversely, the chicken $V\gamma 1$, $V\gamma 3$ and $V\gamma 4$ subgroups only clustered with duck $V\gamma 4$ (and $V\gamma 6$), $V\gamma 3$ and $V\gamma 5$ subgroups with more than 50 % bootstrap percentage, respectively [22], but clustered with $V\gamma$ genes from other tetrapods with lower bootstrap percentage, suggesting that these $V\gamma$ subgroups probably emerged after the separation of birds. In general, the phylogenetic analysis of $V\gamma$ segments showed that most avian $V\gamma$ subgroups have a closer relationship with reptiles rather than mammals. But in some previous studies, chicken $V\gamma 3$ first fell in the same phylogenetic clade with $V\gamma$ of sheep and cow and then clustered with other mammals, amphibians and/or reptiles [21–23, 38]. The discrepancy between our result and these reports, at least in part, is due to distinct sequences and methods used in phylogenetic tree construction.

Dot plot analysis of the chicken $TCR\gamma$ locus

To clarify the genomic structure and possible evolution mode of the chicken $TCR\gamma$ locus, the red jungle fowl $TCR\gamma$ genomic sequence was aligned against itself by dot-plot analysis (Fig. 4A). The dot-plot matrix clearly shows that a series of tandem duplication events had led to a substantial increase in the number of germline $V\gamma$ genes. The main homology unit, containing 9 or 10 $V\gamma$ gene segments, has tandemly duplicated for four times, which covers almost the entire zone of $V\gamma$ genes. All four repeats are nearly identical in length (16 ~ 18 kb) and share more than 83.3 % nucleotide identity (see Additional file 5), suggesting that they might be produced by recent duplication events. Our previous study showed that the 5' part of the chicken $TCR\beta$ locus also generated from tandem duplication occurred recently [37], so tandem duplication may be a common mechanism used to construct the TCR loci in chicken.



In the dot-plot matrix obtained from the comparison between the red jungle fowl and duck *TCR γ* loci (Fig. 4B), we can clearly find that there was no region longer than 5 kb with high level of pairwise identity in the 5' part of the *TCR γ* loci between chicken and duck, but the J γ -C γ regions of chicken and duck show higher nucleotide identity, indicating that the J γ -C γ region remains conserved in *Anas* and *Gallus* during birds evolution. However, this homology portion is interrupted due to insertion of a fragment containing J γ 4 and J γ 5 segments in duck. Phylogenetic analysis of the chicken and duck J γ segments shows that the chicken J γ 1, J γ 2 and J γ 3 segments are tightly clustered with the duck J γ 1, J γ 2 and J γ 3 segments, respectively (see Additional file 6), but the duck J γ 4 and J γ 5 segments which have nearly identical nucleotide sequences seem to have no corresponding J γ segment in chicken but are clustered with chicken/duck J γ 3 with a relatively low bootstrap percentage (53 %), suggesting that either J γ 4 or J γ 5 might first evolve from a duplication of the J γ 3 occurred earlier

after the speciation of *Anas* and *Gallus*, and this J γ duplicated again to form current J γ 4 and J γ 5 segments in duck *TCR γ* locus.

Expression of chicken *TCR γ* gene in various tissues

The expression profile of chicken *TCR γ* genes in different tissues, which were sampled from Hy-line Brown hens at the ages of 30 days and 300 days, was assessed by qRT-PCR. In 30-days-old chickens (Fig. 5A), *TCR γ* was highly expressed in the thymus and spleen, and relatively weakly in the lung and gut. In 300-days-old chickens (Fig. 5B), *TCR γ* was also highly expressed in the thymus and spleen, and the expression in the lung and gut seemed to be higher than that in the 30-days-old chickens. The relatively lower expression of *TCR γ* in gut may probably be attributed to the tissue for RNA extraction is the gut wall but not the gut epithelium where the chicken $\gamma\delta$ T cells are mainly found [39]. Unexpectedly, in 300-days-old laying hens, *TCR γ* was still expressed at the highest level in the thymus. The *TCR γ* expression

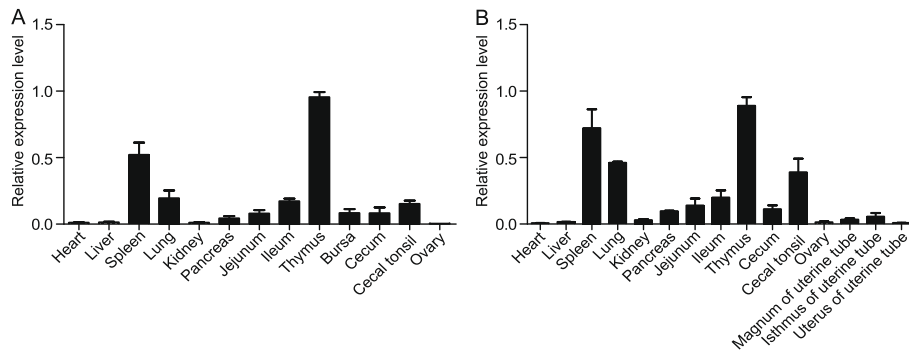


Fig. 5 The relative expression levels of *TCRγ* gene in different tissues. qRT-PCR analysis of the relative expression levels of *TCRγ* gene in different tissues of Hy-line Brown hens aged 30 days (A) and 300 days (B). The chicken *GAPDH* gene was selected as an internal control. The vertical axis indicates the normalized fold changes in expression calculated using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ method, and the tissues are listed below the horizontal axis. Data are representative of four independent samples, and the error bar represents the standard deviation of the mean

level did not decrease due to thymic degeneration as expected, and the reason of this phenomenon need to be further explored.

Diversity of *TCRγ* transcripts in chicken thymus

Based on 5' RACE assay and HTS, we analyzed the *TCRγ* repertoire from thymus of four 30-days old Hy-line Brown hen. A total of 200,114, 121,916, 105,939 and

170,315 unique V-region nucleotide sequences were obtained from four samples, respectively. By alignment of each unique V-region sequence with the germline *Vγ* and *Jγ* sequences identified in red jungle fowl *TCRγ* locus, 369, 222, 235 and 324 sequences that utilized pseudo- or ORF- germline *Vγ* segments were filtered from four samples, respectively, and the rest *TCRγ* transcripts (199,745, 121,694, 105,704 and 169,991

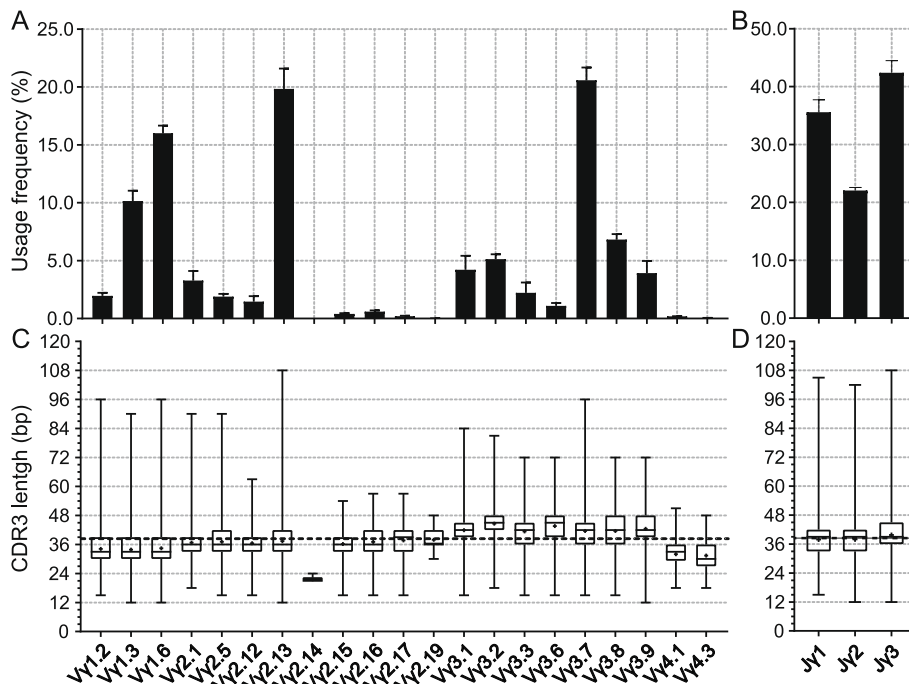
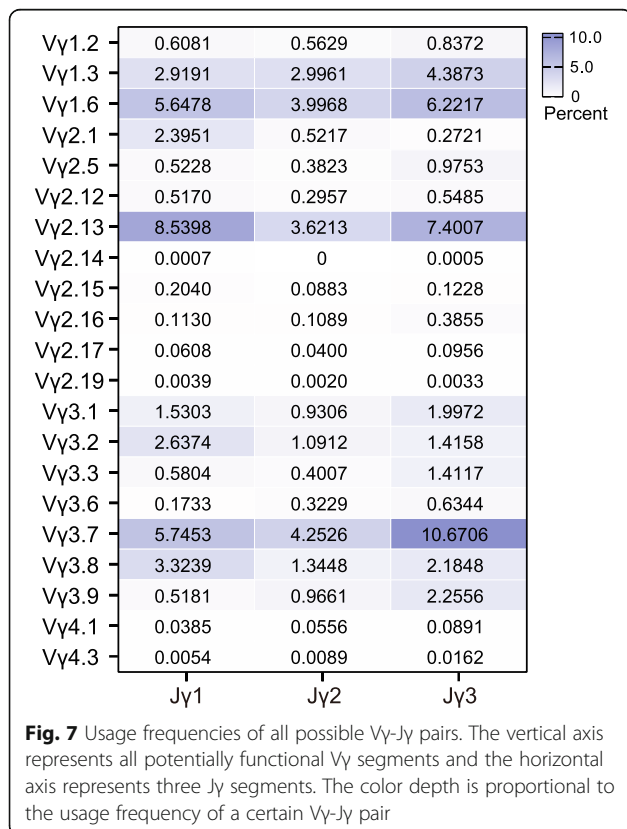


Fig. 6 Usage frequency of each *Vγ* and *Jγ* segment and their corresponding mean CDR3γ length. The usage frequencies of each *Vγ* and *Jγ* segment are shown in figure A and B, and the mean nucleotide length of CDR3γ corresponding to each *Vγ* and *Jγ* segment are shown in figure C and D. In figure C and D, the boxplots represent the nucleotide length distribution of CDR3γ (including the sum of all functional CDR3γ sequences from four individuals) for each *Vγ* and *Jγ* segment. The upper and lower ends of a rectangular box represent the third quartile and first quartile of the CDR3γ length, respectively. The horizontal line and the plus sign inside the box indicate the median and the mean of the CDR3γ length, respectively. The black dotted line represents the mean length of CDR3γ (38.68 bp) calculated from all functional CDR3γ sequences

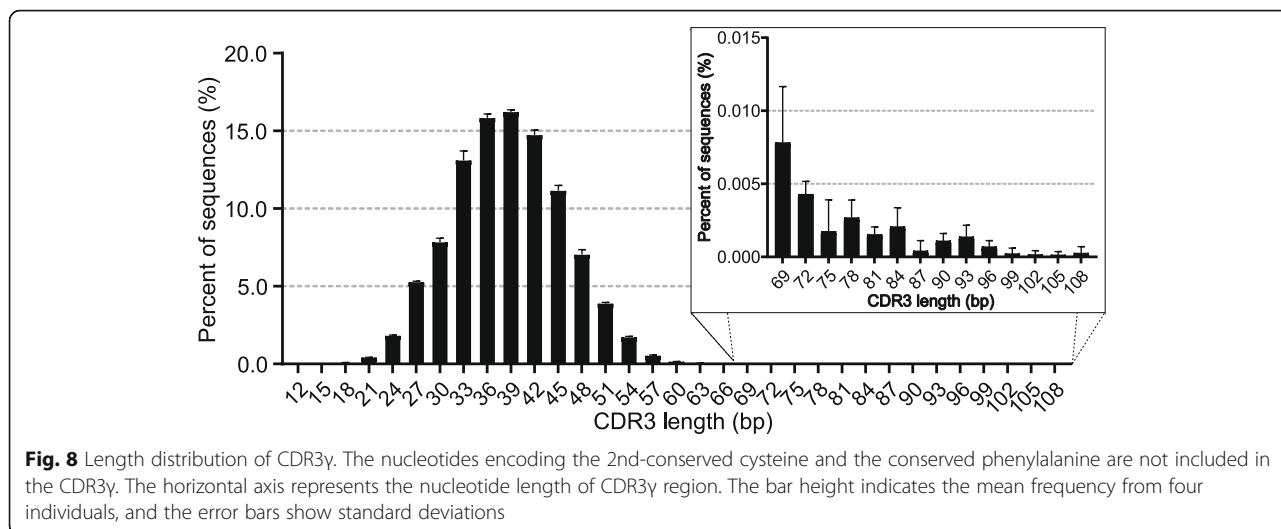
sequences) were analyzed the combinational diversity. In general, all four V γ subgroups containing potentially functional V γ segments participated in V γ -J γ rearrangement (Fig. 6A). Members of V γ 3 subgroup (43.98 %) appeared to be more frequently utilized than those of V γ 1 (28.12 %) and V γ 2 (27.68 %) subgroups (data not shown). There was also a usage preference of several V γ segments, including V γ 3.7, V γ 2.13, V γ 1.6 and V γ 1.3, which account for 20.58 %, 19.84 %, 16.00 and 10.15 % of the expressed V γ repertoire, respectively. The two functional members of V γ 4 subgroup, V γ 4.1 and V γ 4.3, took part in V-J rearrangement but with very low frequencies (0.19 and 0.03 %), which is probably the reason why this subgroup has not been identified by traditional cloning and sequencing methods. All three J γ gene segments were utilized in V γ -J γ rearrangement, with a little biased usage of J γ 3 segment (42.38 %) compared with J γ 1 (35.58 %) and J γ 2 (22.04 %) segments (Fig. 6B). Combinations of the above dominantly expressed V γ and J γ segments formed several favoured V γ -J γ pairs (Fig. 7). The V γ 3.7-J γ 3 was most frequently used pair with 10.67 % percent in all combinations, and the top six pairs, including V γ 2.13-J γ 1, V γ 2.13-J γ 3, V γ 1.6-J γ 3, V γ 3.7-J γ 1 and V γ 1.6-J γ 1, totally accounted for more than 44 % of the entire repertoire. No dominantly deviation was observed in comparison of preferred V γ -J γ pairs between individuals (see Additional file 7).

To identify the junctional diversity of the rearranged *TCR γ* transcripts, we first filtered the sequences containing putatively non-functional CDR3 region. After filtering, 183,476, 112,860, 97,203 and 156,224 sequences containing functional CDR3 region were retained from four samples, respectively, which account for 91.86 %~92.74 % of the unique V-region sequences rearranged from functional V γ and J γ (data not shown). These sequences were used to analyze the length distribution and AA composition of the CDR3 γ . The diversity of *TCR γ* CDR3 is generated not only by V γ -J γ rearrangement but also by the insertions of non-templated (N) and palindromic (P) nucleotides during the recombination process. N and P nucleotides as well as the exonuclease removals at the 3' end of V segments and 5' end of J segments were very common. For the potentially functional clones, the mean length of CDR3 was 38.69 \pm 7.06 bp that encoded 4 to 36 (mean 12.90) AA (Fig. 8). Among them, more than 99.97 % of the unique CDR3 γ sequences encoded 4 to 22 AA, which forms a typical Gaussian distribution. The lengths of CDR3 γ formed by different V-J combinations showed marked differences (Fig. 6C, D). For V γ segments, members of subgroup V γ 3 tended to form longer CDR3 γ (mean 42.45 bp) than the other three subgroups (mean 34.13, 35.39 and 31.67 bp, for V γ 1, V γ 2 and V γ 4, respectively), probably because the germline CDR3 of V γ 3 (23 bp) is longer than those of V γ 1 (15 bp), V γ 2 (15 bp) and V γ 4 (13 bp). For the same reason, J γ 3 formed longer CDR3s (mean 39.76 bp) than J γ 1 (mean 37.84 bp) and J γ 2 (mean 37.93 bp). Furthermore, V γ 3 segments prefer to combine with J γ 3 (46.34 %) than the V γ 1 and V γ 2 segments (32.69 and 20.97 %) (see Additional file 8), also leading to form longer CDR3s.



Discussion

The *TCR γ* locus is the smallest and least complex of the three conventional *TCR* loci and most considerably differ across species. By annotating the latest assembly of the red jungle fowl genome sequences, we found that chicken *TCR γ* locus spans about 100 kb, which is similar with opossum (90 kb), dromedary (105 kb), Chinese alligator (115 kb) and Rhesus monkey (120 kb), larger than dolphin (60 kb) and rabbit (70 kb) but smaller than human (160 kb), mouse (205 kb), sheep (250 kb, two loci), cat (260 kb), Atlantic salmon (270 kb, two loci), bovine (316 kb, two loci) and dog (460 kb) [21, 23–34]. As is reported in a previous study by Liu and colleagues [9], the immediately flanking the 3' terminal of the *TCR γ* locus is a *LRRFIP2* (LRR binding FLII interacting protein 2) gene. However, the immediately flanking the 5' terminal of this locus is an *AMPH* (amphiphysin) gene in the current genome sequence but a *PRKDC* (protein kinase



DNA-activated catalytic polypeptide) gene in the previous study [9]. It is unclear which gene is correct, but a conserved *AMPH* gene was also identified at the same location flanking the *TCR γ* loci of many other species, such as human, mouse, opossum, rabbit, Chinese alligator, Rhesus monkey, dromedary, dolphin, cat and dog [21, 23, 25–27, 31–33, 40]. Although the chicken *TCR γ* locus is relatively smaller, it contains most (44) germline V γ segments compared with species which have definite genomic maps of *TCR γ* loci [21–34]. Interestingly, the percentage of potentially functional V γ genes in chicken is 63.64% (28 of the 44 V γ), which seems to be similar to human (6 of 14 V γ , 42.86%), cat (6 of 12 V γ , 50%), dog (8 of 16 V γ , 50%), duck (8 of 15 V γ , 53.33%), Atlantic salmon (7 of 11 V γ , 63.64%) and rabbit (8 of 11 V γ , 72.73%) and lower than sheep (11 of 13 V γ , 84.62%), dromedary (6 of 7 V γ , 85.71%), Chinese alligator (16 of 18 V γ , 88.89%), bovine (16 of 17 V γ , 94.12%), mouse (7 of 7 V γ , 100%) and opossum (9 of 9 V γ , 100%) [21–31, 33, 34, 41]. Liu and colleagues previously identified 37 V γ segments in chicken *TCR γ* locus, which could be divided into 11 subgroups [9]. Due to absence of the germline sequence of each V γ in that study, we cannot establish the one-to-one correspondence between the V γ segments identified in the present and previous studies. However, according to the mallard V γ sequences used in phylogenetic tree in that study, we can speculate the possible corresponding relationship between the six V γ subgroups identified now and the 11 V γ subgroups identified previously (designated as preV γ 1 to preV γ 11) [9]. In detail, V γ 1 and V γ 5 probably corresponds to preV γ 1; V γ 2 probably corresponds to preV γ 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 9, 10 and 11; V γ 3 probably corresponds to preV γ 2; and V γ 4 and V γ 6 probably corresponds to preV γ 8.

Unlike $\alpha\beta$ T cells that require peripheral activation for differentiation into different effector cells, $\gamma\delta$ T cells can

be “developmentally programmed” in the thymus to generate different effector subsets. The thymic commitment to a $\gamma\delta$ T cell fate at least in part requires the signal delivered by its $\gamma\delta$ TCR [42]. In mice and humans, functionally distinct $\gamma\delta$ T cell subsets can be defined by certain V γ region (in mice) or V δ region (in humans) that each subset expresses, [42–44]. During ontogeny of mice, waves of $\gamma\delta$ T cell subsets possessing subset-characteristic V γ (and sometimes pairing with certain V δ) regions are successively generated in the thymus. Especially during fetal and early newborn life, several $\gamma\delta$ T cell subsets containing invariant (or semi-invariant) $\gamma\delta$ TCRs develop and acquire programmed effector functions in the thymus. After leaving the thymus, each $\gamma\delta$ T cell subset migrates to distinct anatomical locations and performs particular functions [42–44]. Of note, in comparison with chicken, the germline repertoire of V γ segments available for rearrangement is quite restricted in both humans and mice. In humans, only six to eight functional V γ segments from two V γ subgroups can be utilized in productively rearrangement [28, 41]. Although mice V γ segments can be divided into five subgroups, except V γ 1 subgroup which has three functional V γ segments, only one functional V γ segment has been identified in each subgroup from V γ 2 to V γ 5 [29]. From this point view, the potentially combinational diversity of *TCR γ* is lower in humans and mice than in chickens, in which at least 21 V γ segments from four V γ subgroups are available for rearrangement in the present study. Furthermore, a preference of V γ 3.7, V γ 2.13, V γ 1.6 and V γ 1.3 segments is also a notable feature of the combinational diversity of *TCR γ* in chicken thymus. This feature was observed in all four 30-day-old individuals, indicating that this preference may be “developmentally programmed” in the thymus. Perhaps similarly to mice, certain chicken V γ -specific TCRs

(maybe also pairing with certain V δ) might induce the acquisition of particular effector phenotypes at particular anatomical locations in the chicken, which is worthy of further study.

The length distribution of the CDR3 has been used as a metric in assessments of the possible range of binding paratope generated by a given TCR type. By either traditional cloning and sequencing (hereafter called low-throughput sequencing, LTS) or HTS, the length distribution of the CDR3 γ (AA numbers) has been analyzed in the following species, including humans: 4 to 15 (mean 10.2) AA by LTS and 6 to 20 AA by HTS [45–48]; mice: 7 to 14 (mean 11.8) AA by LTS and 6 to 16 AA by HTS [45, 49]; ducks: 5 to 19 (mean 11.0) AA by LTS [22]; platypus (*Ornithorhynchus anatinus*): 9 to 15 AA by LTS [38]; Chinese alligator: 4 to 17 (mean 11.3) AA by LTS [23]; Florida manatee (*Trichechus manatus latirostris*): 5 to 21 (mean 10.6) AA by HTS [50]; nurse shark (*Ginglymostoma cirratum*): 9 to 15 (mean 12.1) AA by LTS [51] and Japanese flounder (*Paralichthys olivaceus*): 8 to 13 (mean 11.5) AA by LTS [52]. In this study, we obtained a more accurate length distribution of the chicken CDR3 γ based on HTS. The vast majority of the chicken CDR3 γ sequences encoded 4 to 22 with mean 12.90 AA, which exhibits a wider length distribution and/or a longer mean length than the data from most other species mentioned above, indicating that this vast length variability would markedly increase the sequence/structural diversity of chicken *TCR γ* chains, which could presumably affect pairing with the TCR δ chain and downstream signaling or effector functions. By HTS, we also found 138 “ultralong CDR3 γ (23 to 36 AA), though they just account for less than 0.025 % of the total CDR3 γ sequences. The AA composition of the normal CDR3 γ (4 to 22 AA) and ultralong CDR3 γ were analyzed separately (Fig. 9). Compared with normal

CDR3 γ , ultralong CDR3 γ tended to use less hydrophobic AA (42.20 % vs. 39.96 %), but more hydrophilic AA (57.80 % vs. 60.04 %). The tyrosine content of ultralong CDR3 γ (14.50 %) was significantly lower than that of normal CDR3 γ (24.46 %), but the usage of other neutral and hydrophilic AA (including serine, threonine, asparagine and glutamine) in ultralong CDR3 γ was higher than that in normal CDR3 γ (Fig. 9). These results indicated that the ultralong CDR3 γ might form unusual architecture for antigen binding. We also found that the cysteine residue was strongly preferred in ultralong CDR3 γ than normal CDR3 γ (1.76 % vs. 0.33 %), suggesting that the ultralong CDR3 γ might use interloop disulfide bond to maintain the structural stability of the long CDR3 γ loop.

Finally, earlier studies of chicken T cell development indicated that the chicken thymus is colonized with thymocyte precursors in three discrete waves during embryogenesis [53]. The $\gamma\delta$ T cells produced from each wave exit rapidly from the thymus without undergoing clonal expansion and colonize peripheral organs such as spleen and intestine [39]. By using semiquantitative PCR and LTS of the *TCR γ* transcripts, subsequent studies showed that although the precursors of each wave rearranged all three subgroups (subgroup V γ 1 to V γ 3) identified then, each wave displayed a variable repertoire, indicating that the repertoire diversities of *TCR γ* in the thymus are likely to change with ontogeny of chicken [54]. In this study, we only focused on the *TCR γ* repertoire acquired from the thymus of 30-days-old hens, and future research can use HTS to survey the repertoire diversities of *TCR γ* in both thymus and peripheral lymphoid tissues during the ontogeny of chicken, which may contribute to discover the similarities and differences in development of the gd T cells between birds and mammals or between “ $\gamma\delta$ -low” and “ $\gamma\delta$ -high” species.

Conclusions

In this study, we analyzed the chicken thymus *TCR γ* repertoire based on the germline V γ and J γ segments identified in the latest assembly of the red jungle fowl genome sequences (GRCg6a). The notable features of chicken thymus *TCR γ* repertoire include a biased usage of several V γ segments and V γ -J γ pairs, as well as a wider length distribution of the CDR3 γ . We hope that our characterization of chicken *TCR γ* repertoire can widen the understanding of adaptive immunology in birds and benefit future research on adaptive immune responses of chicken in health and disease.

Abbreviations

TCR: T cell receptor; RACE: Rapid Amplification of cDNA Ends; HTS: High-throughput sequencing; CDR3: Complementarity-determining region 3; CD3: Cluster of differentiation 3; MHC: Major histocompatibility complex; IMGT: The international ImMunoGeneTics information system; BAC: Bacterial artificial chromosome; SMRT: Single molecule real time sequencing technology; RSS: Recombination signal sequence; ORF: Open reading

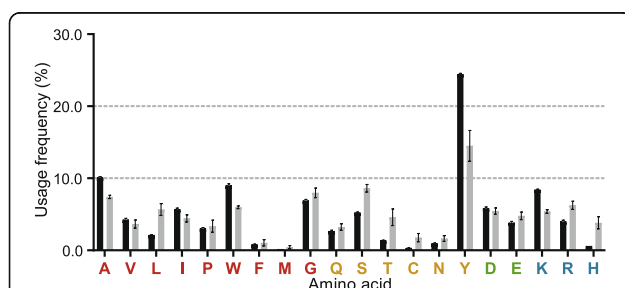


Fig. 9 Composition of twenty essential amino acids in the CDR3 γ . Hydrophobic, neutral-hydrophilic, acidic and basic amino acids are depicted below the horizontal axis in red, yellow, green and blue, respectively. Black and gray columns represent the mean frequency of certain amino acid calculated from normal CDR3 γ (4 to 22 AA) and ultralong CDR3 γ (23 to 36 AA), respectively. The mean frequency was calculated from four individuals, and the error bars show standard deviations

framework; Phe: Phenylalanine; Gly: Glycine; Tyr: Tyrosine; His: Histidine; CYS: Cysteine; TRP: Tryptophan; FR: Framework region; qRT-PCR: Quantitative real-time polymerase chain reaction; AA: Amino acids; 3' UTR: 3' untranslated region

Supplementary Information

The online version contains supplementary material available at <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12864-021-07975-7>.

Additional file 1. The accession numbers of V γ segments used in phylogenetic analysis.

Additional file 2. Primers used in this study.

Additional file 3. Phylogenetic analysis of members from V γ 2 subgroup. The phylogenetic tree was constructed using the Neighbor Joining method in MEGA X with nucleotide sequences corresponding to FR1 through FR3. Bootstrap percentage values based on 1000 replicates are shown at the interior branch nodes.

Additional file 4. Detailed information of the germline V γ , J γ , and C γ gene segments retrieved from genomic sequences of red jungle fowl (GRCg6a).

Additional file 5. Nucleotide sequence similarities between homology units by pairwise alignment.

Additional file 6. Phylogenetic analysis of J γ segments from chicken and duck. The phylogenetic tree was constructed using the Maximum likelihood method in MEGA X with nucleotide sequences of J γ segments. Bootstrap percentage values based on 1000 replicates are shown at the interior branch nodes. Chicken J γ segments are shown in bold.

Additional file 7. Usage frequencies of all possible V γ -J γ pairs in each individual. The vertical axis represents all potentially functional V γ segments and the horizontal axis represents three J γ segments. The color depth is proportional to the usage frequency of a certain V γ -J γ pair.

Additional file 8. Usage frequencies of three J γ segments paired with different V γ subgroups.

Acknowledgements

Not applicable.

Authors' contributions

TZ, QL and XL performed research; YS designed research; TZ analyzed data; YS and TZ wrote the paper; YJ improved the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Funding

This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China [grant number 31501943].

Availability of data and materials

The raw sequence reads generated from HTS were submitted to Sequence Read Archive (SRA) database (accession number: PRJNA714701, <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sra/PRJNA714701>).

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

All animal experiments in the present study were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Ethics Committee of Shandong Agricultural University (Permit Number: NO. 2007005). The animal experiments were performed in accordance with the Guidelines for Experimental Animals of the Ministry of Science and Technology (Beijing, China), and in compliance with ARRIVE 2.0 Essential 10 guidelines [55].

Consent for publication

Not applicable.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Received: 24 March 2021 Accepted: 1 September 2021

Published online: 21 September 2021

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