

The Genomic Structure of Human V β 6 T Cell Antigen Receptor Genes

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Summary

Six genomic clones were characterized containing members of the human V β 6 subfamily of T cell antigen receptor genes. There were four major findings. (a) New V β genes were discovered, including V β 6.10, V β 13.4, V β 13.5, and V β 5.5. (b) Members of the V β 13, V β 6, and V β 5 subfamilies cluster together in the V β locus and may have evolved through multiple duplication events of an ancestral cassette containing V β 13-V β 6-V β 5 genes. These V β subfamilies are used by an estimated one-third of T cells in humans and probably represent a highly useful component of the V β repertoire. (c) The promoters of V β 13, V β 6, and V β 5 genes contain conserved decamer motifs, but discrete differences were observed between promoters of different V β subfamilies, raising the question of different transcriptional control depending on V β subfamily usage. (d) The new V β 6.10 gene is probably a pseudogene, which may have been inactivated due to retrotransposition of Alu elements into its promoter region, a mutation affecting a highly conserved cysteine residue or mutations of the 3' recombinase signal sequence.

The α/β TCR is responsible for recognition of the antigen/MHC complex of APC and is expressed by \sim 95% of human peripheral blood T cells. To create sufficient diversity for recognition of a huge number of different antigenic specificities, several mechanisms are used (1). First, two sets of genomic gene segments are available to each T cell encoding V β , D β , J β , C β , V α , J α , and C α segments. The V gene loci contain approximately >50 V α and >57 V β gene segments (2–9). Second, V-D-J gene rearrangement mediated by recombinase provides considerable combinatorial diversity. Third, junctions at which gene segments are joined are characterized by nucleotide loss and addition of nucleotides by terminal deoxy-transferase, thus creating what is termed “N-region” diversity.

Because most TCR gene sequences are obtained from rearranged cDNA clones, very little is known about the germ-line structures of V gene segments. These are of particular interest because each V gene is preceded by its own individual promoter, which will control the expression of the mature, functionally rearranged, β chain (10–12). In contrast, TCR α and β enhancers are located 3' to the respective C regions (13–17) and can therefore be used by every T cell. Moreover, genomic sequences of V gene segments can provide useful information on the existence of possible pseudogenes, on introns, on signal sequences for recombinase, and on allelic forms of V genes. The latter question is of some importance, since allelic variations of V gene segments are apparently a common finding (18–21), and could possibly be related to disease sus-

ceptibility, although there are no conclusively established examples yet (18).

Materials and Methods

Probes. The following probes were used for screening a genomic library, for restriction mapping, and for Southern blot analyses: (a) a 108-bp EcoRI/BstXI fragment derived from the cDNA clone OT-1 (20), designated OT-V, which represents the 3' end of the V β 6.7a gene sequence; (b) probe Vph79 derived from the cDNA clone ph79 (4), containing 249 bp of V β 6.7a 5' to the internal BamHI site of V β 6.7a (20); (c) an intron probe derived from clone GL-PA (20) containing a 149-bp HinflI fragment corresponding to the intron sequences of V β 6.7b; (d) probe Vph5 derived from the cDNA clone ph5 (4), covering 276 bp of the coding sequence of V β 6.3, from the ATG codon to the internal BamHI site; (e) two additional V β probes derived from the cDNA clone pCEM-1 (22) (V β 13.2) and from the clone p12A1 (23) (V β 5.3), kindly provided by Drs. A. Duby and J. Leiden, respectively; (f) the UAS-2 clone, kindly provided by A. E. Hinkkanen and J. T. Epplen (Max-Planck-Institute for Immunology, Freiburg, Germany), containing a rearranged V β 6.7a gene segment (24).

Southern Blotting. Human genomic DNA was isolated from EBV-transformed B lymphoblastoid cell lines, digested with BamHI or other restriction enzymes, separated by 0.7% agarose gel electrophoresis, and then transferred to charge-modified nylon-66 filters (Gelman Sciences, Inc., Ann Arbor). After baking in a vacuum oven for 2 h, the blot was prewashed at 65°C 0.1 \times SSC in 0.5% SDS for 1 h, and prehybridized at 42°C in 5 \times SSPE, 5 \times Denhardt's, 50% formamide, 100 μ g/ml denatured salmon sperm DNA,

and 0.1% SDS. Specific probes for hybridization were labeled with ^{32}P , using a random primer extension labeling kit (Boehringer Mannheim Biochemicals, Indianapolis, IN). Hybridization was performed in the prehybridization buffer with labeled probes at 10^6 cpm/ml. After hybridization, blots were washed twice with $2\times$ SSC, 0.5% SDS for 20 min each, followed by two washes with $0.1\times$ SSC, 0.5% SDS for 20 min each at 68°C . The filters were then exposed to Kodak XAR-5 film at -70°C with an intensifying screen. Blots were rehybridized, after removing the original signal, by incubating the blot in the prehybridization buffer at 65°C for 30 min followed by prehybridization at 42°C overnight.

Screening of the Human Genomic Library. A human genomic library consisting of placental DNA, partially digested with *Sau3A*, and ligated into the *Bam*HI site of λ -EMBL3 (Clontech Laboratories, Inc., Palo Alto, CA) was obtained. The titer of the library was 3×10^9 /ml. Approximately 10^7 phage were screened on 150-mm plates at a density of 5×10^5 plaques per plate. Replicate nitrocellulose filters (Schleicher & Schuell, Inc., Keene, NH) were baked under vacuum at 80°C for 2 h, prewashed with $0.1\times$ SSC, 0.5% SDS at 65°C for 30 min, prehybridized with $5\times$ SSPE, $5\times$ Denhart's, 50% formamide, 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ denatured salmon sperm DNA, 0.1% SDS at 42°C for 6 h, then hybridized overnight with ^{32}P -labeled *V β* probes (at 5×10^5 to 1×10^6 cpm/ml). The filters were washed first at room temperature with $2\times$ SSC, 0.5% of SDS, and then twice at 65°C , followed by two washes in $0.1\times$ SSC 0.5% SDS at 65°C , for 20 min each. After washing, filters were dried and exposed to Kodak XAR-5 film at -70°C with an intensifying screen. After the first round of screening, positive phages were selected and soaked out of the agar gel plugs into SM buffer (100 mM NaCl, 80 mM MgSO_4 , 50 mM Tris-Cl, pH 7.5). These phages were further purified until homogeneous. λ DNA was prepared from the positive clones by liquid culture and the cesium chloride banding method (25).

Subcloning and Restriction Mapping of Genomic Clones. Purified λ DNA samples from positive clones were digested first by *Sall* and run on a 0.6% agarose gel. The average length of inserts in *V β 6*-positive clones was ~ 15 kb. Each insert was subcloned into the *Sall* site of a plasmid vector PIBI31. After transformation into the host bacteria DH5 α , the plasmid DNA was isolated from 25–50 ml bacterial culture suspension by the boiling method (25). For restriction mapping, the enzymes *Bam*HI, *Eco*RI, *Kpn*I, and *Sac*I were used in single or double digestion reactions. The restriction maps were constructed and confirmed by Southern blot analysis using the probes as described above.

The transcriptional orientations of the *V β* genes were determined by Southern blotting and sequences analysis. For instance, specific probes corresponding to the 5' and 3' portions of *V β 6.7a* or *V β 13.2* were used to delineate the location and orientation of the *V β 6.7a* and *V β 13.2* gene segments in clone 5-2. In clone 11, a 3.9-kb *Kpn*I fragment spans the *V β 6.10* and *V β 13.3* genes. By subcloning and sequencing this fragment the orientation of both genes could be determined. The same strategy was used for *V β 6.1* and *V β 5.5* in clone 9. For clone 4-1, a *Pvu*II site located in the coding region of *V β 13.4* (not shown) was used to determine the orientation of *V β 13.4*.

Sequencing. Relevant restriction fragments were subcloned into PIBI31. The plasmid DNA was isolated from transformed DH5 α and the sequence determined by the dideoxy chain termination sequencing method of Sanger et al. (26), using the universal T3 and T7 primers, as well as specifically synthesized oligonucleotide primers. Both strands were completely sequenced. The computer program used to align sequences and compute homologies was "genalign" using the "clustered pair-wise region method" (27). Pro-

motor sequences were analyzed by D. Ghosh (National Center for Biotechnology Information, NIH, Bethesda, MD) with "SITES, table of release 3.0 of TFD" (28). The identical match (IM) probability is the probability that the SITES data base sequence would match with 100% identity somewhere in a random sequence with equivalent length to the sequence being analyzed.

Results

Genomic Organization of *V β 6* Genes. Six genomic clones were isolated from a human placental DNA library using *V β 6.7a* and *V β 6.3* cDNA probes. The restriction enzyme maps of these clones are shown in Fig. 1. From these data it is clear that three clones (clones 9, 3, and 13) represent overlapping clones of the same locus. All three clones contain the *V β 6.1* gene, which was confirmed by sequence analysis of subcloned coding and flanking regions. Moreover, the *V β 6.1* gene is adjacent to two new *V β* genes, termed *V β 13.5* and *V β 5.5*, which were found ~ 3 kb upstream and ~ 4 kb downstream, respectively (Fig. 1). The other three genomic clones each represent a separate locus: clone 4-1 contains the *V β 6.3* gene, clone 5-2 contains the *V β 6.7a* gene, and clone 11 contains a new *V β* gene, termed *V β 6.10*. Each of these *V β 6* genes is associated with a *V β 13* gene located at variable distances upstream. Two of these *V β 13* genes are newly described genes, termed *V β 13.3* and *13.4*. Analysis of large restriction enzyme fragments by pulsed field gel electrophoresis, analysis of deletion variants of the TCR β locus, and analysis of cosmid clones have indicated that *V β 13*, *V β 6*, and *V β 5* genes are often found in close proximity to each other (29). Fig. 1 demonstrates that members of these three subfamilies are probably contained within a cassette with a conserved order of *V* genes (5' *V β 13-V β 6-V β 5* 3'). At all four loci, *V β 6* genes are preceded by an upstream *V β 13* gene. Our data are consistent with those of Lai et al. (29), and the combined data suggest that multiple duplication events of such a cassette characterize the evolution of the TCR β locus. Clones 4-1, 5-2, and 11 (Fig. 1) lack a *V β 5* gene by Southern blotting (with a *V β 5.3* and a *V β 5.5* probe) and by PCR with primers common to all known *V β 5* sequences. However, clones 4-1 and 5-2 may not extend far enough downstream to include a putative *V β 5* gene. It is therefore not possible to absolutely exclude a *V β 5* gene associated with these loci. Moreover, the cassette alluded to above may not necessarily be complete in every instance. This would explain the variable total number of *V* genes in each of these subfamilies, estimated at five *V β 13* genes, 8–10 *V β 6* genes, and five *V β 5* genes (8).

Nucleotide Sequences of *V β 6*, *V β 13*, and *V β 5* Genes. *V β 6* is the largest human *V β* subfamily. At least 12 different sequences are known (2, 20) (Li, Y., and D. Posnett, unpublished data). Differences between some sequences are minor. For instance, there is only one silent nucleotide difference between the coding regions of *V β 6.6* and *V β 6.7a* (2). Such minor differences may represent allelic forms of the same gene rather than two different genes. Two allelic forms of *V β 6.7* (*V β 6.7a* and *V β 6.7b*) have been described in detail and encode expressed β chains that differ at two amino acid posi-

tions (18, 20). It remains possible that there are additional alleles of Vβ6.7. The Vβ6.7 gene contained in clone 5-2 has an identical coding region sequence to the prototypic UAS2 (Vβ6.7a) sequence, but differs in the intron (Fig. 2). Both sequences are also identical over ~200 bp of promoter sequence upstream of the ATG codon (see Fig. 8). Thus, the sole difference between the two sequences is the number of GT repeats found in the intron: (GT)₂₁ for UAS2 and (GT)₂₄ for the Vβ6.7a gene of clone 5-2. Previous analysis of (GT)_n repeats has shown that these sequences can be very polymorphic (30, 31). Since the two alleles do not differ in peptide sequence, we have opted not to distinguish the new

5-2-derived sequence by a lower case letter and consider it another allele encoding the Vβ6.7a peptide sequence.

The genomic sequences shown in Figs. 2-4 demonstrate that the Vβ6, Vβ13, and Vβ5 genes have a similar structure. The first exon encodes NH₂-terminal leader peptide residues and the second exon encodes the rest of the leader and the V segment sequences. The introns reveal the most conspicuous differences between these three V gene subfamilies. Vβ6 subfamily members all contain (GT)_n repeats in the intron, while these repeats are lacking in the Vβ13 and the Vβ5.5 genes. In each case, the (GT)_n sequence appears at almost the same position in the intron, beginning at position 28-31

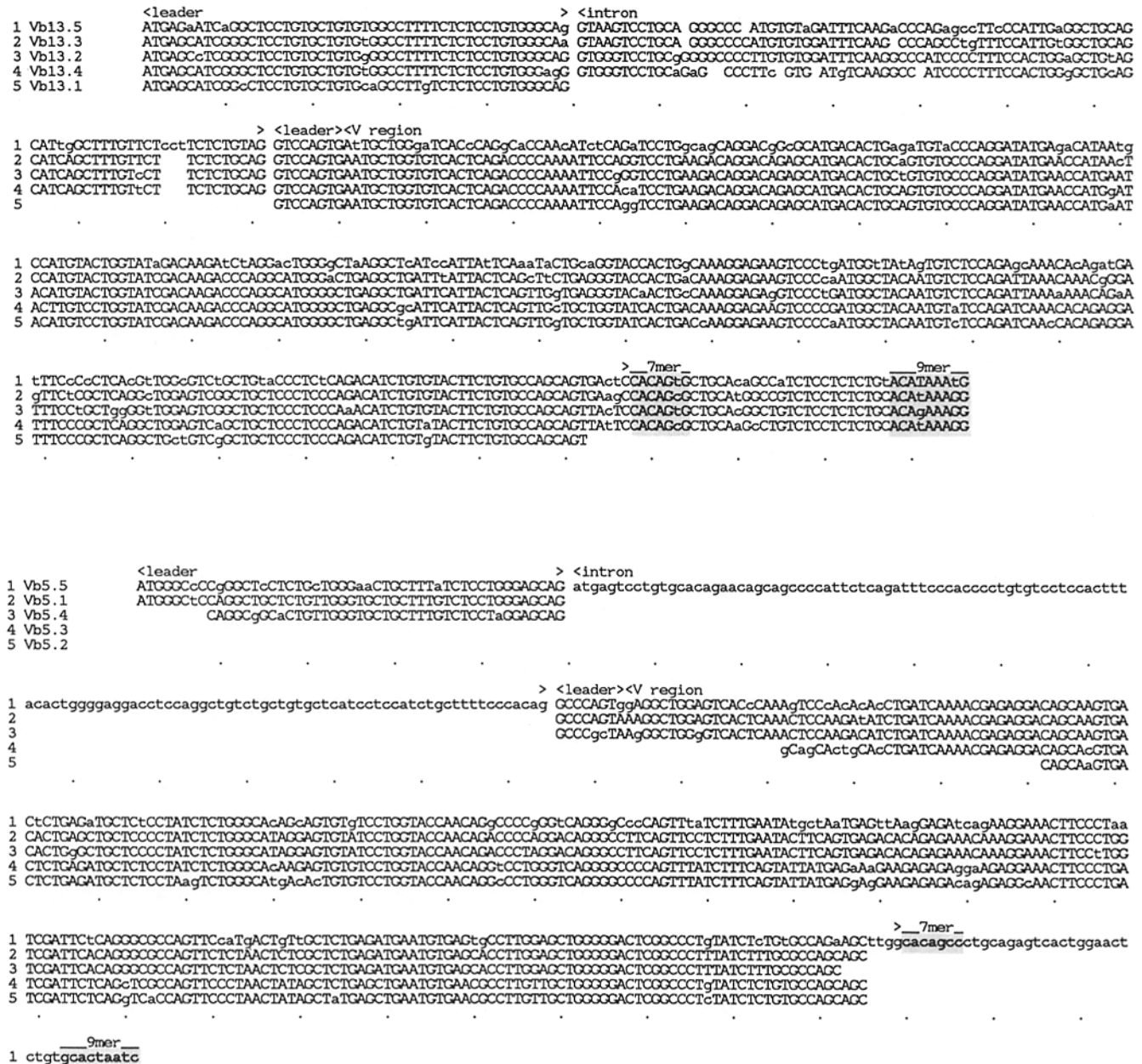


Figure 4. Genomic sequences of the Vβ5.5 gene. This sequence was obtained from clone 9 (Fig. 1) and is compared to cDNA sequences from the literature: Vβ5.1, clone HBP51 (2, 7); Vβ5.2, clone PL2.5 (6); Vβ5.3, clone 12A1 (58); Vβ5.4, clone Ph24 (4). See also legend to Fig. 2.

from the 5' end on the intron (Fig. 2). In the three V β 6.7 sequences shown in Fig. 2, the (GT)_n repeat differs each time by a multiple of two nucleotides (*n* = 24 for V β 6.7a from 5-2; *n* = 21 for V β 6.7a from UAS2; *n* = 15 for V β 6.7b). Similar simple repeats capable of assuming non-B secondary DNA configurations are observed in the introns of several human and murine TCR V gene segments (18). Such minisatellite repeat sequences may serve to promote recombination events such as homologous recombination and gene conversion. Alternatively, they may serve as enhancer elements and play a role in gene expression (32-35), but their exact function remains unknown.

The 3' flanking sequences of V β 6, V β 13, and V β 5.5 gene segments contain the conserved heptamer and nonamer signal sequences for recombinase-mediated VDJ recombination separated by 23 bp of nonconserved sequence (Figs. 2-4) (36).

However, the nonamer sequence was absent in V β 6.10 (Fig. 2), while the heptamer was found at the expected position. These data suggest that the V β 6.10 gene may not be able to recombine into a functional β chain gene.

The V β 5.5 gene (Fig. 4) represents the sole example of a genomic sequence from this V β subfamily. The intron begins with an AT rather than the more usual GT dinucleotide. However, the intron ends with the typical AG sequence.

All V β sequences from the genomic clones were compared for homology by considering exon sequences, intron sequences, and promoter sequences (see Fig. 8) separately. Homology matrices expressed in percentages are shown in Table 1. Overall, homology is highest in the coding region. Homologies were lower among the intron sequences and the promoter sequences. As expected, homologies were greatest within a V β subfamily. The new V β 6.10 gene is most closely related to V β 6.7a. The

Table 1. Scoring Matrices for Exon, Intron, and Promoter Sequences

		Vb6.1	Vb6.7a	Vbuas2	Vb6.10	Vb6.3	Vb5.5	Vb13.2	Vb13.3	Vb13.4	Vb13.5
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
A. Exon	1		89.3	89.5	85.6	81.0	46.4	43.6	45.1	42.2	43.6
	2			100.0	88.5	83.9	46.1	45.6	47.1	44.2	45.3
	3				88.5	83.9	46.1	45.6	47.1	44.2	45.3
	4					81.8	44.9	44.2	45.1	41.6	43.3
	5						53.1	45.3	46.2	44.8	44.8
	6							52.0	52.5	49.9	49.1
	7								91.0	89.8	79.4
	8									90.4	80.5
	9										80.8
			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
B. Intron	1		58.2	62.7	32.7	50.9	31.8	35.2	30.2	26.5	32.6
	2			96.1	42.9	47.4	28.2	33.0	33.7	31.3	30.3
	3				42.9	46.7	31.5	29.5	30.2	28.9	32.6
	4					29.2	25.0	27.3	29.1	30.1	32.6
	5						36.3	30.7	30.3	34.9	32.6
	6							34.1	25.6	28.9	24.7
	7								76.7	65.1	33.0
	8									69.9	69.8
	9										42.2
			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
C. Promoter	1		69.5	69.5	79.7	62.7	25.8	31.4	33.9	30.1	26.7
	2			100.0	64.0	61.0	20.8	25.1	28.8	30.1	27.5
	3				64.0	61.0	20.8	25.1	28.8	30.1	27.5
	4					57.6	25.8	28.7	31.8	29.7	29.7
	5						25.0	24.6	19.5	26.7	24.6
	6							23.1	22.9	24.2	23.7
	7								79.1	60.7	60.2
	8									59.5	58.9
	9										64.0

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Vb6.5      MALCLLGADhadtGVsQnPRHKITKRQNVTPFRCDPISEHNRLYWRQtlGQGPEFLTYFQNEAQLEKSFLLSDRfSAERPkgS1STLEIQRTEQGDsAMYLCASS
Vb6.8      MGTsLLCWALCLLGADqeisGVShNPRHKITKRQNVTPFRCDPISEHNRLYWRQnppCGQPEFLTYFQNEAQLEKSGLLSDRiSAERPkgSfSTLEIQRTEQGDsAMYLCASS
Vb6.3      MGTRLLCWvvlGfLgtdHTGAGVsqSPryKvAKRGQdVaLRCDPIsGHvsLfiwyqQaLcQGPEFLTYFQNEAQLDKSGLPsDRFFAERPEGSVSTLkIQRTqkeDSAVYLCASS
Vb6.1      MGTLLCWaALCLLGADHTGAGVsqSPsNKVTEKkyVELRCDPIsGHtALYWRQSLcQGPEFLTYFQGTgAAdDsgLPnDRFFAvRPEGSVSTLkIQRTergDSAVYLCASS
Vb6.7a     MGTLLfWvAfCLLGADHTGAGVsqSPsNKVTEKkDVELRCDPIsGHtALYWRQSLGQGLEFLTYFQGsApDKSGLPsDRFSAertgSVSTLTlIQRTQqeDSAVYLCASS
Vb6.10    MGTRLLcWaiCLLGADHTGAGVsqSrlrhKvAKKGDVAlRyDPiSGhNALYWRQSLGQGLEFPiYFQKdaADKSGLPsDRFSAqrseGSiSTLkIQRTQqDlAVYLCASS
-----leader-----1      10      20      30      40      50      60      70      80      90

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Percent homology matrix

	Vb6.5	Vb6.8	Vb6.3	Vb6.1	Vb6.7a	Vb6.10
Vb6.5		90.6	70.8	66.0	65.1	62.3
Vb6.8			68.4	62.3	61.4	62.3
Vb6.3				72.8	73.7	71.1
Vb6.1					83.3	78.1
Vb6.7a						78.9

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Vb13.2     MSIGLLCCgAFsLLWAgPvNAGVtQTPkFrVlKtGQsMTLlCaQdMNHhMYWYRQDPGMGLRLlHYSvgEGTtAKGEVp dGYNVSRlKkqnFlLgLESAAPsQTSVYFCASS
Vb13.3     MSIGLLCCvAFsLLWAsPvNAGVtQTPkFQvLkTgQsMTLQCaQdMNHhMYWYRQDPGMGLRLlYsAsEGTtDKGEVp NGYNVSRlnKreFsLRLESAAPsQTSVYFCASS
Vb13.1     MSIGLLCCaAlSLLWAGPvNAGVtQTPkFQvLkTgQsMTLQCaQdMNHhYMSWYRQDPGMGLRLlHYSvgAGITdQGEVp NGYNVSRStTEDPPLRLlSAAPsQTSVYFCASS
Vb13.4     MSIGLLCCvAFsLLWAgPvNAGVtQTPkFhILkTgQsMTLQCaQdMNHgYlSWYRQDPGMGLRLlHYSvAgITdKGEVp dGYNVSRnTEdFPPLRLeSAAPsQTSVYFCASS
Vb13.5     MrIrLLCCvAFsLLWAGPvIAGtQaPtSqILaaGrrMTLrCtQdMrHnaMYWYRQDlGlGLRLlHYSntAGTtGKGEVp DGYSvSRaNTdDPPLtLaSAvPsQTSVYFCASS
-----leader-----1      10      20      30      40      50      60      70      80      90

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Percent homology matrix

	Vb13.2	Vb13.3	Vb13.1	Vb13.4	Vb13.5
Vb13.2		85.0	82.3	81.4	68.1
Vb13.3			83.2	82.3	69.9
Vb13.1				88.5	69.0
Vb13.4					70.8

Figure 6. Vβ13 protein sequences. Sequences are derived from the genomic clones in Fig. 1 except for Vβ13.1 (22). See legend of Fig. 5 for symbols.

Vβ13 genes examined are closely related to one another, with the exception of Vβ13.5, which shows least homology with the other Vβ13 members (Table 1).

Translated Sequences of Vβ6, Vβ13, and Vβ5 Genes. In Figs. 5–7, the peptide sequences of the V genes encoded by our genomic clones are aligned with some reference sequences from the same Vβ subfamilies. The location of the CDR1 and CDR2 loops is based upon comparisons of V gene sequences with Ig V gene sequences and modeling of the TCR structure on the known Ig three-dimensional structure (37, 38). CDR1 and CDR2 are thought to interact with MHC antigen-presenting molecules (1). Vβ6 peptides are one amino acid longer than Vβ13 and Vβ5 peptides as described previously (37, 38). This is probably due to differences in the size of the CDR2 loop. Amino acid residues that are highly con-

served and contribute to the Ig domain structure (37, 38) are indicated by an asterisk in Figs. 5–7, and residues that define Vβ subgroups (8, 37, 38) are identified by the pound sign. All these residues are conserved within the new Vβ sequences reported herein. There is one significant exception in the Vβ6.10 gene sequence where C²³ is replaced by Y²³. Thus, the disulfide bond between C²³ and C⁹², which is essential for an Ig domain structure, cannot be formed by the Vβ6.10 gene product.

Peptide homology matrices (Figs. 5–7) indicate that within the Vβ6 subfamily, Vβ6.1, Vβ6.7a, and Vβ6.10 are closely related to one another. Vβ6.5 and Vβ6.8 represent a different example of closely related Vβ6 genes. Vβ6.3 is least homologous with the tested sequences. Within the Vβ13 subfamily, Vβ13.1 and Vβ13.4 are most homologous, while Vβ13.2

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Vb5.2      QqVTLRCSPKSGHdEVSWYQqALGQGPQFIPOYYEeEERqRGNFP DRFSghQFPNYSyELNVNALLLGDsALYLcASS
Vb5.3      GVTQSPthLIkTRGQhVTLRCSPISGHhSVSWYQqVlGQGPQFIPOYYEeEERqRGNFP DRFSaRQFPNYSSELNVNALLLGDsALYLcASS
Vb5.5      MCGpLLCWELlyLLGAGPveAGVTQSPthLIkTRGQqVTLRCSPISGHhSVSWYQqAPGQGPQFIPEYanElrRseGNFP nRFSGRQFhdccSEMNVSALELGDsALYLcAS
Vb5.1      MGSrLLCWVLLCLLgAGPvKAGVTQTPRyLlKTRGQqVTLcSPISGHrSVSWYQqTPGQGLQFLPEYFSETQRNKGnFP GRFSGRQFSNSRSEMNVSTLELGDsALYLcASS
Vb5.4      RrhCWVLLCLLgAGPlrAGVTQTPRhlKTRGQqVTLgCSPISGHrSVSWYQqTLGQGLQFLPEYFSETQRNKGnF1 GRFSGRQFSNSRSEMNVSTLELGDsALYLcASa
-----leader-----1      10      20      30      40      50      60      70      80      90

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Percent homology matrix

	Vb5.2	Vb5.3	Vb5.5	Vb5.1	Vb5.4
Vb5.2		85.9	71.8	67.9	66.6
Vb5.3			76.1	70.7	70.7
Vb5.5				77.0	71.8
Vb5.1					90.9

Figure 7. Vβ5 protein sequences. The Vβ5.5 sequence is from clone 9 (Fig. 1). Other sequences are as described in Fig. 4. See legend of Fig. 5 for symbols.

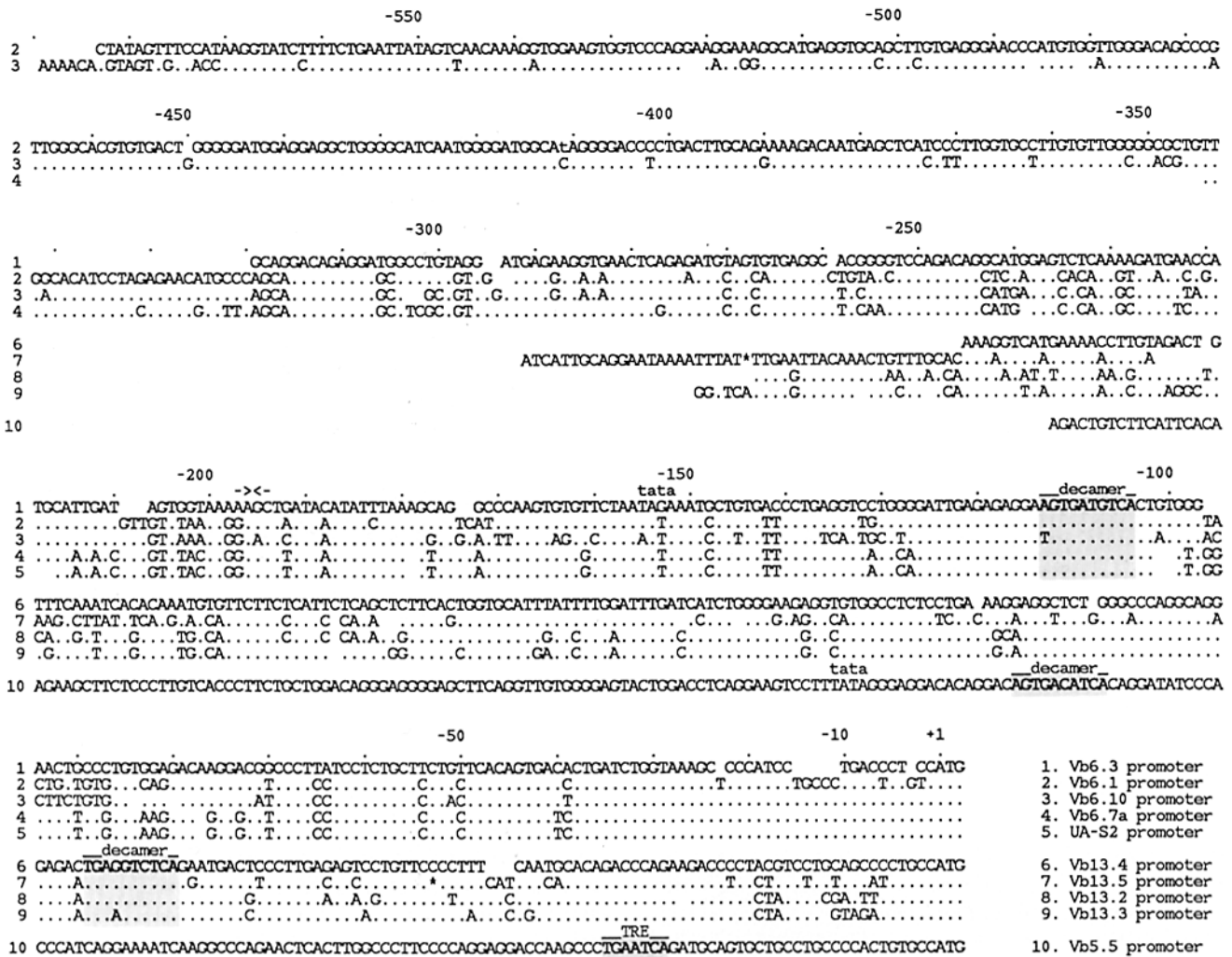


Figure 8. Vβ promoter sequences. Promoter areas were sequenced from the clones shown in Fig. 1. The promoter of the rearranged clone UAS2 (Vβ6.7a) was also sequenced. Sequences are arranged by V gene subfamily and dots indicate sequence identity with the top sequence of the respective subfamily. Within a V gene subfamily, the entire promoter region is conserved. The locations of the consensus decamer and a TRE motif in the Vβ5.5 promoter are indicated, as are possible locations of TATA sequences. The site of the transposon insertion within the Vβ6.10 promoter sequence (sequence no. 3) is indicated by two arrows. There are two variants of the Vβ13.5 promoter, which differ at marked residues (*). One is represented by genomic clones 3 and 9 and contains G at -268 and C at -53. The other is represented by clone 13 and contains A at -268 and G at -53. Thus, the genomic clones 3, 9, and 13 may represent different alleles.

and Vβ13.3 are more similar to one another. Vβ13.5 has least homology with the other Vβ13 sequences. Within the Vβ5 subfamily, Vβ5.2 and Vβ5.3 are closely related, as are Vβ5.1 and Vβ5.4. The new gene, Vβ5.5, is similarly related to both of these subgroups of Vβ genes (Fig. 8).

Promoter Sequences. Fig. 8 shows the 5' flanking sequences for the Vβ genes described in Fig. 1. Approximately 200 bp of 5' flanking sequence obtained in our laboratory from the clone UAS2 (Vβ6.7a) are also included for comparison. Promoter sequences were analyzed with the SITES program described by Ghosh (28). A previously described TCR decamer motif and a TRE-like motif were observed (Fig. 8) with identical match probabilities ranging between 1.74 and 7.04 × 10⁻³. The conserved decanucleotide consensus sequence, 5' AGTGATGTCA 3', was found at variable positions (-80 to

-106) in reference to the ATG codon. A similar decamer was observed in the 5' flanking region of the human Vβ8.1 and several murine Vβ genes (12). This decamer sequence displays a degree of dyad symmetry reminiscent of the common features of other regulatory factor binding sites. Usually these begin with TGA and end with TCA. The numbers of nucleotides inserted between TGA and TCA are variable. For example, TGACTCA has been identified as a TRE-like motif, and may represent the binding site for Ap-1 (39). Another example is TGACGTCA, a palindromic sequence that has been associated with the cAMP response element (40, 41). Both motifs can be recognized by members of the fos/jun family (42). The decamers in Fig. 8 show a two-nucleotide insertion mode, NNTGATGTCA in the Vβ6 gene subfamily, and NNTGACATCA in the Vβ5.5 gene segment. An addi-

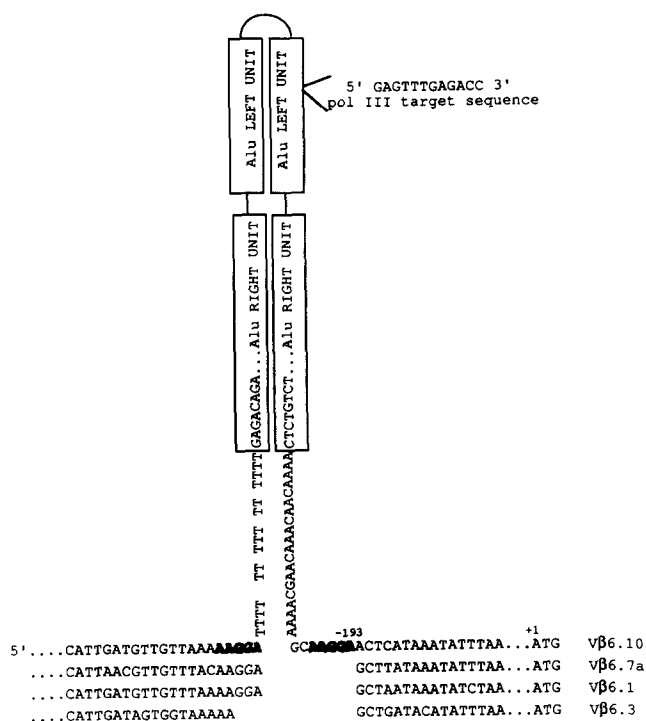


Figure 9. Transposon in the V β 6.10 promoter. The flanking direct repeats are shaded. The 3' Alu sequence represents a sense sequence, while the 5' Alu element is a reverse complement sequence. Both are homologous to consensus Alu sequences.

tional TRE-like motif is present in the V β 5.5 promoter with a single nucleotide insertion sequence, TGAATCA. In contrast, a novel four-nucleotide insertion decamer sequence, TGAAGTCTCA or TGAGGTCTCA, was found in all V β 13 genes. Extensive homology surrounding these consensus decamer sequences was observed. Each decamer is preceded by a purine-rich sequence 10–20 bp long. DNase footprint analysis in the promoter region of human V β 8.1 (11) indicated that one of the protected areas contains the decamer motif, suggesting that this conserved motif represents a protein binding site.

A typical transposon-like insertion element was found in the 5' flanking region of the V β 6.10 gene segment (Fig. 9). This is a 549-bp insertion at position -193 (Figs. 8 and 9). Homology between V β 6.10 and V β 6.1 is maintained (at 84% over 200 bp) both upstream and downstream of this insertion. The features of this insertion element include the following. A 5-bp direct repeat (AAGGA) flanks the insertion on either side. The entire insertion is characterized by two imperfect inverted repeats. The stem origin of the insertion contains a 5' run of poly(T)₁₅ and a 3' run of poly(A)₁₅ interrupted by some nucleotides (Fig. 9). Finally, the insertion element contains two Alu sequences head to tail. Although unusual, similar head-to-tail Alu sequences have previously been described (43). The 3' Alu sequence contains a perfect polIII target sequence, 5' GAGTTTGAGACC 3', in its shorter (L-handed) monomer unit (Fig. 9). Thus, this insertion element contains all the characteristics of Alu sequences (44, 45).

Discussion

Six genomic clones are described, each containing a V β 6 gene segment. Several findings were made with these clones. (a) Several new human V β genes were discovered, including V β 6.10, V β 13.4, V β 13.5, and V β 5.5. (b) Members of the V β 6, V β 13, and V β 5 subfamilies cluster together in the V β locus. These three subfamilies probably evolved by repeated duplications of a cassette containing V β 13-V β 6-V β 5 genes. (c) The promoter regions of all the genes belonging to these three subfamilies contain conserved motifs, such as the decamer motif, probably representing binding sites for *trans*-acting regulators. The promoter regions were conserved within subfamilies but less so between subfamilies. (d) The V β 6.10 gene is most likely a pseudogene, since it lacks a conserved recombinase signal sequence, it contains a mutation of the highly conserved Cys²³ necessary for formation of an Ig-like domain, and it contains a 549-bp insertion of Alu sequences in its promoter, which may interfere with promoter activity.

In a recent reevaluation of the total number of V β gene segments (8), minimal estimates were made of five V β 5 genes, eight V β 6 genes, and five V β 13 genes. These estimates are based on counting bands on Southern blots, which is unreliable because the results depend strongly on the probe used. These estimates were also based on counts of genes on available cosmid clones (29), but they remain minimal estimates, since the entire V β locus has not been characterized. With this caveat in mind, it seems never the less likely that the newly described V β 5.5 gene represents the last member of the V β 5 subfamily. The V β 5.5 peptide sequence is only 70.7–76.1% homologous to other V β 5 sequences (Fig. 7). It is thus unlikely that it represents an allelic form of a previously described V β 5 sequence, in particular since these have each been cloned from different sources and the sequences are usually identical for each V β 5 gene (2,3).

The same argument applies to the V β 13.3, V β 13.4, and V β 13.5 genes (Fig. 6). Moreover, these gene products, which are 68.1–88.5% homologous to the previously known V β 13.1 and V β 13.2 gene products, are clearly derived from distinct genes at different loci (Fig. 1). Thus, the V β 13 subfamily now contains five known members as previously predicted (8). A recent publication describes a PCR-derived V β 13 cDNA clone called IGRb14, which is 100% homologous to our V β 13.3 coding sequence (9). It is still unclear whether other new sequences described in this paper represent new loci or allelic variants of known V β genes.

V β 6 is the largest human V β subfamily. There are >10 previously published sequences, of which two are definitely allelic forms of the same gene and are named V β 6.7a and V β 6.7b (20). The V β 6.6 sequence differs only by a single silent nucleotide change in the coding region from the V β 6.7a sequence and probably represents another allele, although this has not been formally proven. Also, shown herein is the sequence of V β 6.7a derived from the clone UAS2. This sequence differs from the 5-2-derived V β 6.7a nucleotide sequence in the intron, where the former contains a (GT)₂₁ repeat and the latter a (GT)₂₄ repeat. All coding sequences and promoter sequences are alike. Thus, we chose to refer to both clones as encoding V β 6.7a genes. These data imply

that V genes with (GT)_n repeats (or similar repeats) in their introns will be characterized by numerous allelic forms (18, 30, 31). The majority of these alleles will be distinguished only by the number of dinucleotide repeat units. Occasionally, other mutations will be associated with a given allele, and a fraction of these will result in different peptides, as is the case for Vβ6.7a and Vβ6.7b (20), but not for Vβ6.6. The availability of genomic clones of Vβ6.7, such as clone 5-2, will facilitate a more extensive analysis of the allelic polymorphisms associated with this gene. It will be of interest to compare this polymorphism with that of the adjacent upstream gene, Vβ13.2, since Vβ6 introns all contain (GT)_n repeats and Vβ13 introns do not.

The new Vβ6 gene, Vβ6.10, has greatest homology with Vβ6.7a and Vβ6.1 (Table 1). Yet, all three sequences represent separate genes (Fig. 1). Vβ6.10 is probably a pseudogene. The conserved nonamer in the 3' UT region, which is considered a recombinase signal sequence, is missing. Since Vβ6.10 has not been isolated from cDNA libraries, it is probable that this V gene cannot undergo V-D-J recombination. Moreover, the highly conserved Cys²³ residue, which is necessary for formation of an Ig-like domain and forms a disulfide bond with Cys⁹², is changed to a Tyr²³ in Vβ6.10. Thus, it is questionable whether a Vβ6.10-encoded β chain could fold into an Ig-like domain. Lastly, the Vβ6.10 promoter contains a 549-bp insertion element at position -193 (Fig. 9) consisting of two head-to-tail Alu sequences. Such sequences are classified as nonviral retroposons and are thought to derive from processed 7SL RNA (44-46). These elements are transcribed by RNA polymerase III initiating at the 5' end of the left unit and transcribing through the 3' terminal poly(A) tract. Reverse transcription is then primed on the poly(A) tract, providing a mechanism for retrotransposition (44, 45).

Little is known about the significance of mobile genetic elements in humans, and Alu sequences in particular, which frequently insert in introns or flanking sequences of genes, but generally not in exons. In certain cases, retrotransposons may have acted as insertional mutagens, resulting in inactivation (47) or activation (48) of a cellular gene. In fact, retrotransposition has been directly demonstrated in human lung carcinoma cells transfected with a target gene. These cells were screened for insertion mutations, resulting in inactivation

of the gene. A newly transposed Alu sequence was identified by these means (49). In other instances, retrotransposons have inactivated genes relevant to human disease, such as the factor VIII gene in hemophilia A (50) or the *c-myc* gene in breast carcinoma cells (51). Retrotransposons have been associated with a high percentage of murine actin pseudogenes (52) and with homologous recombination in humans (53). The Alu sequences inserted in the Vβ6.10 promoter may have resulted in inactivation of this gene by interference with promoter function. The resultant Vβ6.10 pseudogene would then have undergone further mutation for lack of selective evolutionary pressures. It remains possible that the inserted Alu sequences upstream of Vβ6.10 are not present in all haplotypes and that Vβ6.10 may be a functional gene in some individuals.

The significance of a genomic cassette containing members of the Vβ13-Vβ6-Vβ5 subfamilies remains hypothetical. Clearly, these three Vβ subfamilies represent the largest Vβ subfamilies and together account for at least 18 Vβ genes, i.e., ~32% of the Vβ repertoire assuming a total of ~57 Vβ genes (8). One may estimate the usage of certain Vβ genes with mAbs specific for Vβ gene products. Thus, the mean frequencies of Vβ usage are 3.2% for Vβ5.1/5.4, 2.8% for Vβ5.2/5.3, and 4.5% for Vβ6.7 (54-56, and our unpublished results). Moreover, Vβ13 gene usage has been estimated by quantitative PCR at 9.0% for Vβ13.1, 2.7% for Vβ13.2, and 7.8% for Vβ6.1-3. Thus, a minimal estimate of expression of Vβ13, Vβ6, and Vβ5 genes is 30%, and these data are incomplete because of the absence of data for several genes in these three subfamilies. Therefore, we would propose that the Vβ genes encoded by the three Vβ subfamilies represent particularly useful Vβ genes to humans, and probably arose through multiple gene duplications of the basic cassette structure.

Lastly, the promoter sequences shown herein demonstrate strong conservation within a Vβ subfamily, but not between subfamilies (Table 1 C). Moreover, the consensus decamer discussed above demonstrates some discrete differences in location and sequence between Vβ subfamilies. Thus, one could postulate that control of transcription may differ in T cells depending on what Vβ subfamily is used. This could have relevance to observed differences of Vβ usage at different developmental stages of T cells (57).

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Note added in proof: The new sequences described herein can be retrieved from EMBL with the following accession numbers: X61439 (TCR Vβ5.5); X61440 (TCR Vβ6.1); X61441 (TCR Vβ6.3); X61442 (TCR Vβ6.7a); X61443 (TCR Vβ6.7b); X61444 (TCR Vβ6.10); X61445 (TCR Vβ13.2); X61446 (TCR Vβ13.3); X61447 (TCR Vβ13.4); X61653 (TCR Vβ13.5).

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