

The dynamic TCR δ : TCR δ chains in the amphibian *Xenopus tropicalis* utilize antibody-like V genes

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The content and organization of the *Xenopus tropicalis* TCR α/δ locus was determined. This locus is highly conserved among tetrapods, with the genes encoding the TCR δ chains embedded with those encoding TCR α . However, the frog TCR α/δ is unusual in that it contains V genes that appear indistinguishable from those in the IgH locus (VH). These V genes, termed VH δ , make up 70% of the V genes at the TCR δ locus and are expressed exclusively in TCR δ chains. Finding TCR δ chains that use antibody-like V domains in frogs is similar to the situation in shark TCR δ variants and TCR μ in marsupials. These results suggest that such unconventional TCR may be more widespread across vertebrate lineages than originally thought and raise the possibility of previously unrealized subsets of T cells. We also revealed close linkage of TCR α/δ , IgH, and Ig λ in *Xenopus* which, in combination with linkage analyses in other species, is consistent with the previous models for the emergence of these antigen receptor loci.

Key words: Amphibian · Evolution · Immunoglobulin · TCR δ



Supporting Information available online

Introduction

B and T lymphocytes using somatically diversified antigen-binding receptors mediate the adaptive immune responses in all jawed vertebrates [1]. These receptors contain antigen-binding V domains encoded by exons that normally exist in a segmented form in the germ-line DNA and are assembled by DNA recombination during development. In B cells this recombination takes place at the Ig loci-encoding molecules that serve both as cell-surface BCR as well as secreted antibodies. In the case of T cells, recombination occurs at the genes encoding the TCR α , β ,

γ , and δ chains, which form part of the cell surface $\alpha\beta$ or $\gamma\delta$ TCR complexes [2]. The genes encoding the Ig and TCR chains share similar organization and structural features consistent with their common ancestry [3]. The genes encoding the IgH, TCR β , and TCR δ chains use V, D, and J gene segments to assemble and encode the V domain, whereas the IgL, TCR α , and TCR γ chains use just V and J. In all cases, these gene segments are flanked by conserved recombination signal sequences (RSS) that are site-specific targets of the endonuclease activity of RAG [4].

The genes encoding the TCR α and δ chains are unique among the loci undergoing V(D)J recombination in several ways. In all tetrapods examined so far, they are interspersed at a single TCR α/δ locus [5–9]. This single locus encodes two chains whose tightly regulated expression is mutually exclusive resulting in distinct T-cell lineages, the $\alpha\beta$ and $\gamma\delta$ T cells [10, 11]. In most

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cases, TCR α and δ chains share a common pool of V that, depending on the chain, are recombined to either a DJ δ or directly to a J α segment.

In addition to the complex genetics of the *TCR α/δ* locus, TCR δ appears to have a high degree of evolutionary plasticity. Approximately one quarter of the shark TCR δ chains are expressed in an alternative isoform called New Antigen Receptor (NAR)-TCR that contains a double V structure [12]. Interestingly, each of the two V domains require V(D)J rearrangement, and the N-terminal V is more similar to the V region of an antibody discovered in the nurse shark called the IgNAR than it is to TCR V. More recently, a novel TCR locus, *TCR μ* , was discovered in marsupials that shares an evolutionary history with TCR δ [13]. TCR μ also encodes a double V structure and both V genes are also more similar to VH than to TCR V. Marsupials also have a conventional *TCR α/δ* locus with a prototypic mammalian organization and, therefore, TCR μ is not a substitute for TCR δ in these mammals [9]. However, the C regions of TCR μ do share greatest sequence similarity to C δ and appear to have been derived from TCR δ , perhaps during the early evolution of amniotes [13]. TCR μ is also found in the duckbill platypus, consistent with its ancient origins and presence in the common ancestor of all living mammals, and thus an orthologue could still be present in some eutherian (placental) mammals, although so far none have been found [9].

The presence of atypical TCR δ forms with similar features in distantly related species such as cartilaginous fish and non-eutherian mammals suggests that they may be found in other vertebrate lineages. So far, surveys of the chicken, lizard, and frog genomes failed to uncover any gene sequences bearing homology to TCR μ [9] (ZEP and RDM personal observations). However, when investigating the genome of an amphibian, *Xenopus tropicalis*, for evidence of TCR resembling either TCR μ or NAR-TCR, evidence for a third alternative, a variant of TCR δ , was obtained that may give insight into both the emergence and the evolution of Ig and TCR in general and the origins of TCR μ .

Results

Conserved synteny at the *X. tropicalis* TCR α/δ locus

As in all tetrapod species analyzed so far, the genes encoding the *X. tropicalis* TCR α and TCR δ chains are tightly linked, with some TCR δ genes nested among the TCR α (Fig. 1). This genomic region appears stable in tetrapods since the genes flanking the *X. tropicalis* TCR α/δ locus are the same as in birds and mammals, including the olfactory receptors interspersed among the V α genes (Fig. 1) [5, 7, 9]. Individual V, D, and J gene segments in the *X. tropicalis* TCR α/δ locus were annotated using the convention established by the International ImMunoGeneTics database (<http://www.imgt.org>) and the recommendations of Koop et al. [14]. A total of 71 V gene segments were identified within the TCR α/δ locus, many of which share a high degree of sequence identity to those previously reported in *Xenopus* [15]

(Supporting Information Table 1). Fifty-two V gene segments, in the same transcriptional orientation as the most 3' C region (C α 1) are V α based on nucleotide identity (Figs. 1 and 2). All V α appeared to be functional based on open reading frames (ORF), an upstream exon encoding a leader sequence, and a canonical RSS. They segregate into 28 subgroups designated V α 3 through V α 30 based on nucleotide identity and phylogenetic relationships (Fig. 2). Also present is a large number of J α gene segments upstream of C α 1 similar to all mammalian species investigated (75 in the frog compared with 61 in humans, 60 in mice and 53 in the opossum) (Fig. 1 and Supporting Information Fig. 1) [9, 16].

To be consistent with the published *Xenopus* TCR α sequences, the 3' most C α was designated as C α 1 and corresponds to a sequence described previously [15] (Supporting Information Fig. 2). Upstream, within the V α genes, is a second C α (C α 2) that shares only 51% nucleotide identity with C α 1. C α 2 appears functional by having an ORF and canonical cysteine residues necessary to form the intra-chain disulfide bond, however it has two, three codon insertions located 5' of each cysteine and two extra cysteines in the β -strand, all of which could affect protein folding (Supporting Information Fig. 2). Attempts to isolate TCR α transcripts containing C α 2 using either 5' RACE or targeted RT-PCR were unsuccessful using either the cDNA library or the RT-PCR on small intestine, spleen or thymus RNA (data not shown). Furthermore, neither of the two J α gene (J α 2.1 and 2.2) upstream of C α 2 was identified in transcripts (data not shown).

Within the V α gene segments is a C δ (C δ 2) in the same orientation as both C α (Figs. 1 and 3, and Supporting Information Fig. 2). Transcripts containing C δ 2 were not detectable by Northern blot analysis of various tissues including thymus RNA, but could be amplified by 5' RACE using thymus cDNA (data not shown). All C δ 2 transcripts amplified contained either V α 4 or V α 5, which are the two of the four V genes located immediately upstream of C δ 2 and in the same orientation (Fig. 1, GenBank accession numbers GQ262036–GQ262039). A comparison of the CDR3 sequences from these clones to the germ-line sequence failed to identify sequences corresponding to D segments (data not shown). In addition, all clones amplified contained the same J segment (J δ 2.1). However, searching the genomic sequence for conserved FR4 (e.g. FGXG) and RSS motifs identified the second J δ (J δ 2.2) (Fig. 1 and Supporting Information Fig. 1). Although C δ 2 and C α 2 were found expressed at low levels or not at all they constitute a mini-locus (from V α 3 to C α 2) resembling the organization found in conventional mammalian TCR α/δ loci with V segments upstream of a J δ -C δ -J α -C α cluster. Whether this mini-locus represents an ancient or derived TCR α/δ organization remains to be determined.

An unconventional TCR δ

At the 5' end of the *Xenopus* TCR α/δ locus is a cluster of gene segments in reverse transcriptional orientation, encoding a TCR δ

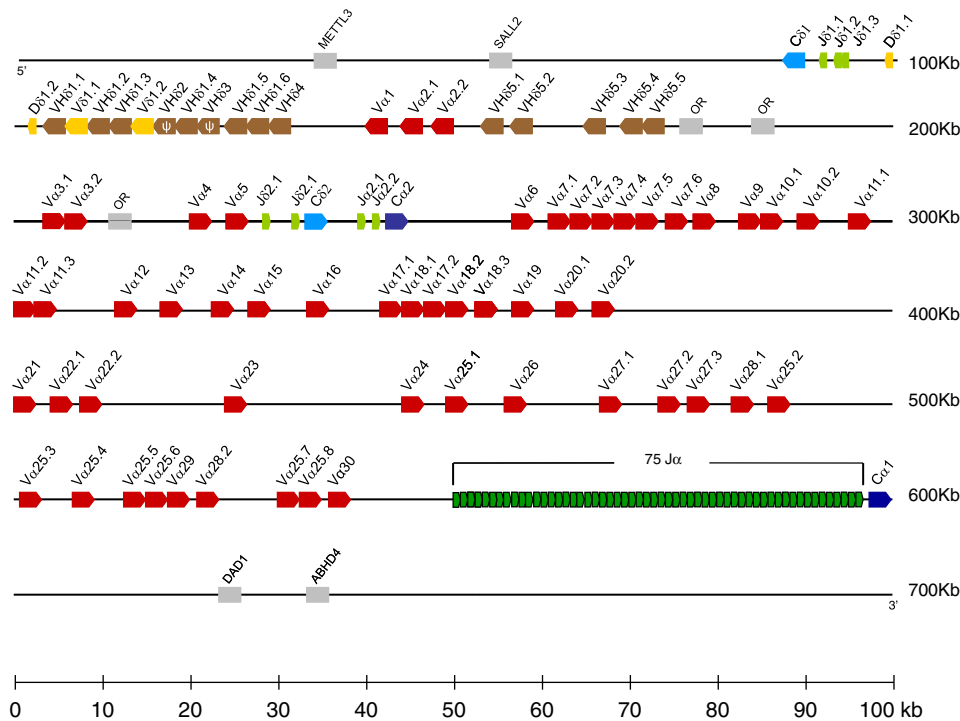


Figure 1. Representation of the *X. tropicalis* TCR α/δ locus. TCR V α (red), V δ (yellow), VH δ (brown), J δ (light green), J α (dark green), and D δ (orange) gene segments and two C α (dark blue) and two C δ (light blue) were numbered according to their position in the locus or to prior description. Transcriptional orientation is demonstrated by the direction of the arrow in each segment. Syntenic genes shown in gray are those conserved with mammalian TCR α/δ locus: methyl-transferase like 3 (METTL3), zinc finger protein (SALL2), olfactory receptors (OR), defender against cell death gene 1 (DAD1), and abhydrolase domain-containing protein 4 gene (ABHD4).

chain (Fig. 1). A single C δ (C δ 1), the most 5' TCR gene in the locus, shares 61% nucleotide identity with C δ 2 (Figs. 1 and 3 and Supporting Information Fig. 2). Present are 19 V genes of which three are V α (V α 1, V α 2.1, and 2.2) and two are V δ (V δ 1.1 and 1.2) (Figs. 1 and 2). The three V α genes belong to two subgroups (V α 1 and V α 2) sharing 63% nucleotide identity and fall into the same phylogenetic clade as *X. tropicalis* V α subgroups 10 and 11 (group I, Fig. 2). Phylogenetic analyses revealed that the V δ fall within a well-supported clade with opossum V δ 2 and V δ 3, human V δ 2 and mouse V δ 4 (group F, Fig. 2). *X. tropicalis* V δ gene segments share the highest similarity with opossum V δ 3 (45.9%) when compared with mammalian and avian V α/δ sequences. *X. tropicalis* V δ genes also have an unpaired cysteine residue located in the e-strand of FR3 (Fig. 4). Some of the V δ gene segments encoding supporting V domains in shark NAR-TCR also contain a cysteine in the e-strand (GenBank accession no. DQ022688 and DQ022691) [12].

The 14 remaining V genes were compared with Ig and TCR V genes from other vertebrates and found to be most similar to VH based on nucleotide identity and phylogenetic analyses. These genes have been designated VH δ due to their similarity to VH but their location in the TCR α/δ locus and exclusive expression with C δ 1 (Figs. 1, 5, 6). VH δ genes segregated into five sub-groups based on 80% or greater nucleotide identity (Fig. 1 and Supporting Information Table 2). Two VH δ (VH δ 2 and VH δ 3) are pseudo-genes due to in-frame stop codons; however, the rest appear functional. In

phylogenetic analyses, the *Xenopus* VH δ all clustered with clan II VH gene segments (Fig. 5). The VH δ genes form two distinct clades, one containing VH δ 1 through 4 and the other VH δ 5 only (Fig. 5). VH δ 1 through 4 share less than 60% nucleotide identity with the *Xenopus* clan II VH subgroups, VH5, 9 and 11 [17, 18]. In contrast, the clade that includes VH δ 5 also contains VH genes from *X. laevis* and *X. tropicalis* (i.e. V that have been identified in IgH transcripts). Indeed, VH δ 5 genes in the TCR α/δ locus share a surprisingly high degree of identity (91–96%) with VH5 genes in the IgH locus, consistent with the VH δ 5 genes being paralogous to VH5 genes.

Upstream of C δ 1 are three J δ genes identified by first searching the TCR α/δ genomic region for conserved RSS and investigating flanking regions for sequences encoding conserved TCR J δ motifs (Fig. 1). Both the J δ were confirmed in transcripts containing C δ 1 (Fig. 6).

Expression of C δ 1 with V α , V δ , and VH δ

To determine which V genes are used in C δ 1 transcripts, 5' RACE was performed. As expected, the V α and V δ genes oriented upstream of C δ 1 were recombined and transcribed with C δ 1 (Fig. 6, Table 1). Transcripts containing V δ 1 genes could be amplified from the cDNA library, as well as small intestine, spleen, and thymus RNA individually (Table 1, Fig. 6). C δ 1 transcripts containing V α 2 were amplified from the cDNA library, small

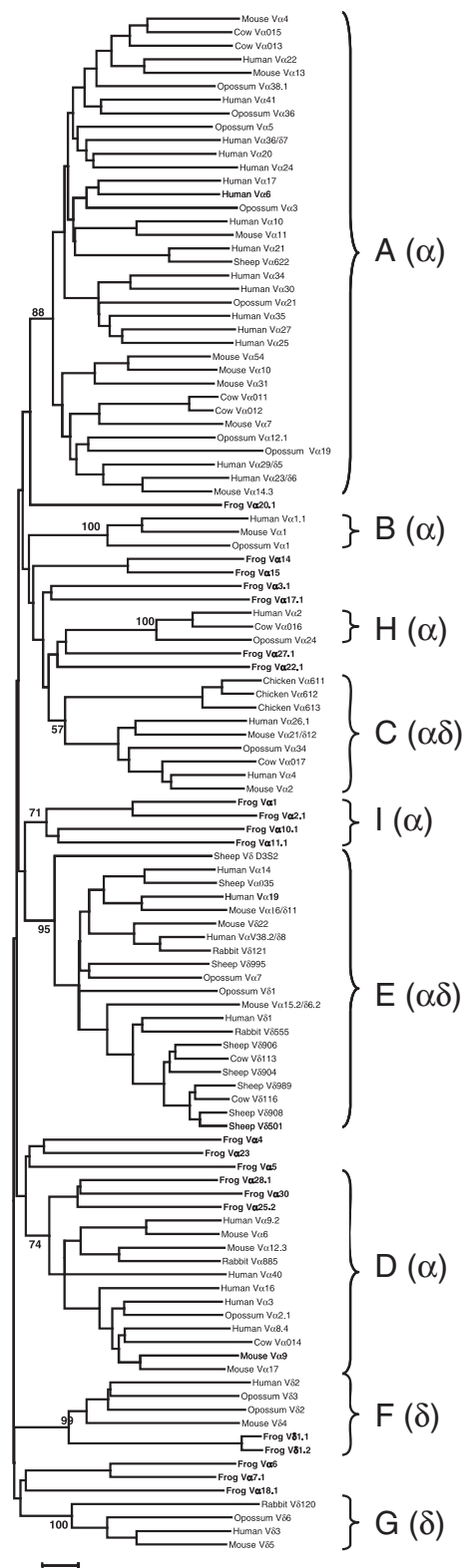


Figure 2. Phylogenetic tree of *X. tropicalis* $V\alpha$ and $V\delta$ compared with mammalian and avian genes using the neighbor joining method. Similar results were found using the minimum evolution method. *X. tropicalis* sequences are shown in bold. $V\alpha$ and $V\delta$ genes fall into nine groups that are indicated by brackets. Bootstrap values shown are based on 1000 replicates. A distance bar is shown below the tree.

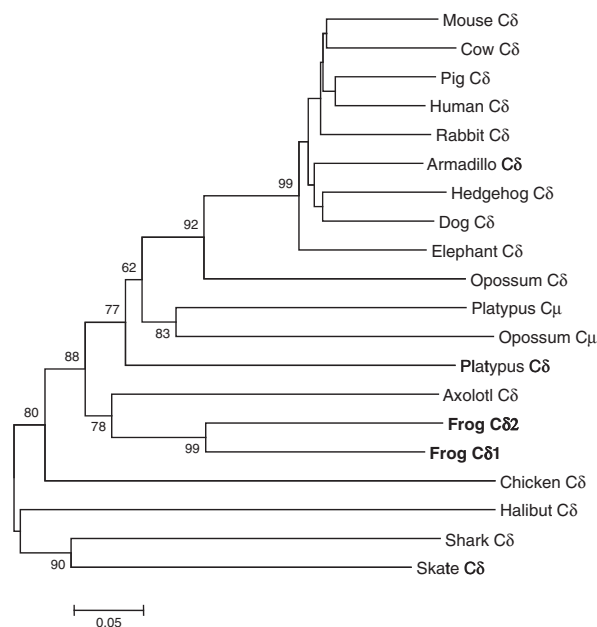


Figure 3. Phylogenetic analyses of *X. tropicalis* TCR δ constant regions. The tree shown includes TCR μ sequences from platypus and opossum. Alignments were analyzed using the minimum evolution distance method. Similar results were found using the neighbor joining method. Bootstrap values shown are based on 1000 replicate samples. The distance bar is shown under the tree.

intestine, spleen, and thymus, whereas $V\alpha 1$ transcripts were found only in the cDNA library and small intestine (Table 1).

Significantly, C $\delta 1$ transcripts containing recombined VH δ genes were also amplified by 5' RACE from all tissues (Fig. 6, Table 1). Only VH $\delta 1$, 4 and 5 were amplified, consistent with these three being functional (Fig. 1, Table 1). These results confirm that *Xenopus* TCR δ chains can be expressed with VH-like V genes, as well as $V\alpha$ and $V\delta$.

Using nucleotide sequences corresponding to CDR3 from C $\delta 1$ transcripts, two D δ (D $\delta 1.1$ and D $\delta 1.2$) genes were identified (Fig. 1). Transcripts containing $V\alpha$, $V\delta$, and VH δ all used these same two D δ , which are similar in length (12 and 11 bp, respectively) and share a region of micro-homology, three nucleotides in length (Fig. 6 and 7). This micro-homology appears to facilitate recombination in clones lacking P or N nucleotides in the junction between D segments (Fig. 6). Both D δ have ORF in all three reading frames and all three are used (Fig. 7 and data not shown). However, there was a slight bias toward the first reading frame of D $\delta 1.1$ (12 out of 26 clones) and third reading frame D $\delta 1.2$ (10 out of 25 clones) both of which encode a tyrosine and two hydrophobic amino acids (Fig. 7). The D δ are flanked by RSS with 12 bp spacers on the 5' side and 23 bp on the 3' side, as is typical of TCR D (Fig. 7) [19]. However, the RSS are not well conserved, having four different heptamer sequences (Fig. 7). This asymmetrical RSS organization facilitates the use of multiple D in individual recombinants, as has been described previously for TCR δ chains [13, 19]. The majority of C $\delta 1$ transcripts (24 out of 32) encoded CDR3 using both D δ genes irrespective of the V or J genes being used (Fig. 6). The remaining eight clones contained only a single D δ . Four were D $\delta 1.1$, three were D $\delta 1.2$, and one was

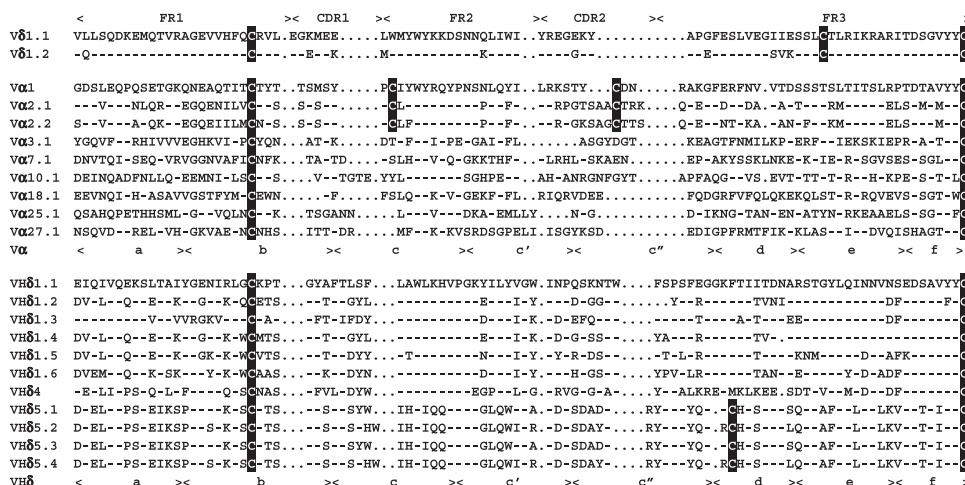


Figure 4. Alignment of predicted amino acid sequences of *X. tropicalis* Vδ, representative Vα, and VHδ regions. Canonical cysteine residues involved in intrachain disulfide bonds and extra cysteine residues potentially used for interchain interactions are highlighted in black. Frameworks and complementarity determining regions are indicated above the alignment. β-Strands are indicated under the alignment.

indeterminate due to excessive trimming. Therefore, when single Dδ are used there does not seem to be a preference.

It is noteworthy that all of the *X. tropicalis* TCRδ clones characterized encoded single V and C domains, irrespective of the type of V being used. There is no evidence for *X. tropicalis* TCRδ chains having three extracellular Ig domains, two V and one C, as has been found for shark NAR-TCR and mammalian TCRμ [12, 13].

The TCRα/δ and IgH loci are linked in *Xenopus*

The evidence for *Xenopus* TCRδ using VH-like genes raises questions regarding linkage between TCRα/δ and IgH in frogs. This was investigated by RFLP analysis for Cδ2, VH, and Cλ genes using pedigreed *X. laevis*. All loci analyzed in *X. tropicalis* share the same linkage patterns as *X. laevis*, making the latter a suitable proxy for this analysis [20]. Complete co-segregation was found for Cδ and VH in all offspring, suggesting a very tight linkage between TCRα/δ and IgH (Fig. 8). This result was confirmed using a housekeeping gene, *SLC7A7*, adjacent to IgF on scaffold 972 from the *X. tropicalis* genome, which also co-segregated with TCRδ (Fig. 8). Although IgF is not present on the same scaffold as the other four IgH isotypes in version 4.1 of the *X. tropicalis*, it is located directly downstream of IgY (YO and MFF personal observation). Co-segregation with Igλ was also detected with the exception of two (10%) recombinants, consistent with Igλ also being linked to IgH/TCRα/δ. These results are consistent with the linkage map at <http://tropmap.biology.uh.edu> where Igλ, TCRδ, and IgH, in that order, are on linkage group 1, corresponding to *X. tropicalis* chromosome 1.

No evidence for trans-locus somatic recombination between IgH and TCRδ in *X. tropicalis*

Linkage between *Xenopus* IgH and TCRα/δ raised the possibility of the use of a common pool of V genes. To investigate this, VHδ

were used to search *Xenopus* expressed sequence tag (EST) databases for evidence of their expression with different C genes. A single Cδ1 *X. laevis* EST (EB475751) containing a VHδ1 was identified (VHδ751 in Fig. 5). All other EST from both *X. tropicalis* and *X. laevis* containing V sequence with greater than 90% nucleotide identity to VHδ5 contained FR4 with the WGXXG motif conserved in JH genes, and several contained sufficient C region sequence to confirm that they were frog IgM or IgX transcripts, not TCRδ (Supporting Information Table 2). These EST also shared greater nucleotide identity with VH genes located on scaffold 1168 in the *X. tropicalis* genome assembly. For example, EST CF592362 is 100% identical to a V on scaffold 1168, but only 95.6% identical to VHδ5.1. A detailed analysis of scaffold 1168 revealed that it contains at least 20 VH genes and, along with scaffold 928, represents part of the IgH locus [21, 22]. Therefore, it appeared that these EST are not TCRδ, but rather are IgH transcripts.

To directly test whether VHδ are used in IgH transcripts, primers specific for VHδ1 and five genes were paired with a primer specific for *X. tropicalis* IgM C region and PCR was performed using the spleen cDNA library as a target. Products were obtained only when primers specific for VHδ5 subgroup were used and were found to encode V sequences more related to the VH5 genes on scaffold 1168 (96–99% nucleotide identity) than to VHδ5 genes (91–94% nucleotide identity). The products also contained FR4 sequence more similar to JH (encoding the conserved WGXXG motif) than to J genes in the TCRα/δ locus. In conclusion, although the *Xenopus* IgH and TCRα/δ loci are linked and contain related V genes, there is no evidence for somatic trans-rearrangements between the loci.

Discussion

For much of the past two decades, the story of TCR structure and genetics has been one of conservation. This was recently

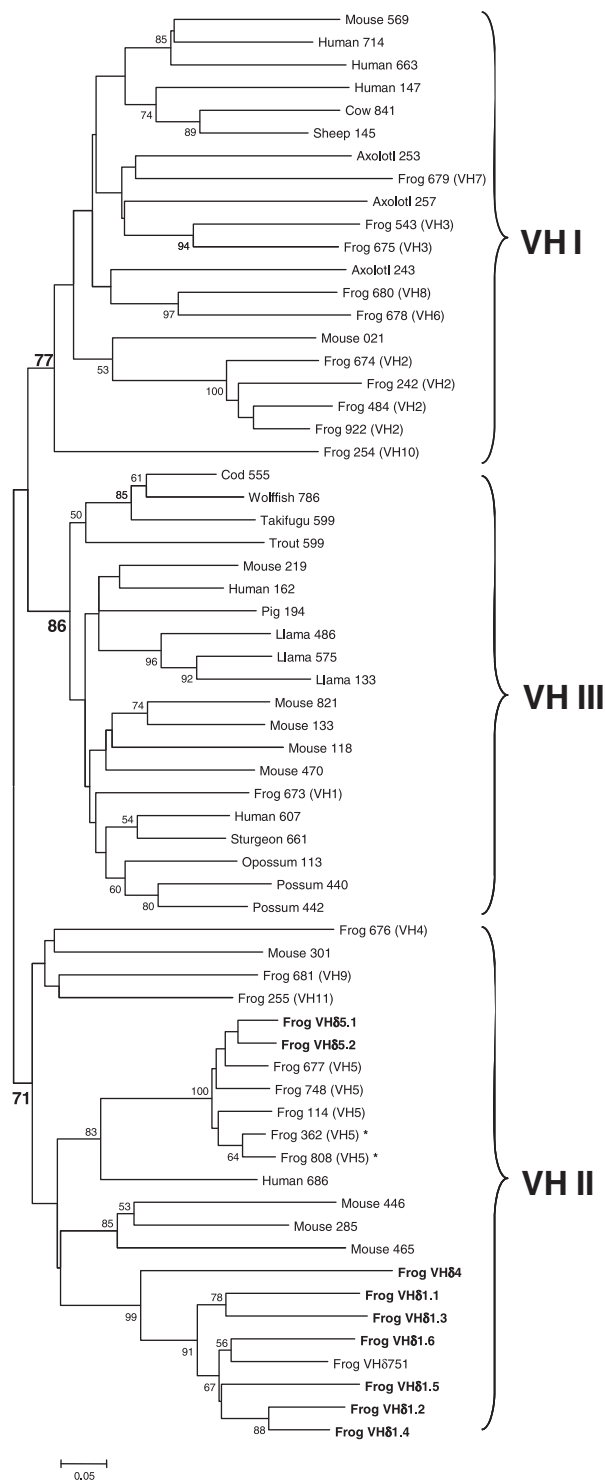


Figure 5. Phylogenetic tree showing the *X. tropicalis* VHδ gene segments compared with Ig VH gene segments from different species. *X. tropicalis* VHδ gene segments are indicated in bold. The VHδ pseudogenes, VHδ2 and VHδ3, are not included in this tree but cluster with VHδ1 and VHδ4 subgroups when included. Frog VH sequences indicated with an asterisk are those from *X. tropicalis*, with the remaining being from *X. laevis*. Three distinct VH clans are indicated by brackets. The tree was generated using the minimum evolution method. Similar results were found using the neighbor joining method. Numbers at the nodes are bootstrap values based on 1000 replicates. A distance bar is shown at the bottom of the tree.

illustrated when the genomic organization of the sandbar shark *TCRγ* locus was found to have the translocon organization similar to that of mammals [23]. Furthermore, the genomic region containing *TCRα/δ* has been relatively stable over the 340 million years of evolution separating amniotes from amphibians [7, 9, 24]. This made all the more surprising the discovery of VH-related genes within the *Xenopus TCRα/δ* locus, a characteristic not found previously in any tetrapod. It should be stressed that the VHδ genes are not orthologues of VH genes in the *IgH* locus [17, 18]. Rather, the results support that they are paralogues of VH genes expressed exclusively in TCRδ chains.

The discovery of NAR-TCR in sharks and TCRμ in marsupials provides precedence for TCR chains using antibody-like V genes [12, 13]. One question is whether the characteristics of mammalian TCRμ, frog TCRδ and shark NAR-TCR are the result of convergent evolution or homology by descent. This can be addressed by considering the likely origins of VH-like genes in the *TCRδ* locus. It is noteworthy that *Xenopus* is one of the genera with a diverse pool of VH genes at their *IgH* locus. *Xenopus* has retained all three ancient VH clans (I, II, and III) and these VH genes segregate into eleven subgroups [17, 18]. This level of diversity is in contrast to many species such as chicken, platypus, opossum, and rabbit that have only single VH subgroup, most often clan III [25–27]. The *X. tropicalis* VHδ are most related to clan II VH. Platypus TCRμ V genes, on the other hand, are related to VH clan III. In contrast, the V genes used in marsupial TCRμ fall outside the clan I, II, or III designations, and are from a sister clade to the VH [13]. Alternatively, shark NAR-TCR create the N-terminal V domain using V genes related to IgNAR, a type of antibody unique to cartilaginous fish [12, 13]. Therefore, the V genes being used in each case appear independently derived, consistent with the convergent mode of evolution.

The biological significance of *Xenopus* TCRδ using VH-like genes related to clan II VH (VH5, 9 and 11) is unknown. The VH clans appear to evolve at different rates with clan III being more conserved and widespread [28]. However, it is noteworthy that, in *Xenopus*, B cells expressing clan II VH appear later in ontogeny [29]. A question to be addressed is whether there is a similar late expression of VHδ genes in developing *Xenopus* γδT cells. This would seem unlikely since VH and VHδ are distinct sets of V genes in separate loci and expressed in distinctly different lymphocyte lineages. Furthermore, the majority of V genes available for rearrangement and expression of TCRδ chains are VHδ. Whether they ultimately comprise the majority of γδT cells and the order of their appearance in frog ontogeny both remain to be determined.

If the V genes used in shark NAR-TCR, frog TCRδ, and marsupial TCRμ represent convergent evolution then the origin of VHδ genes in the *X. tropicalis TCRα/δ* locus needs to be considered. The relationship between *X. tropicalis* VHδ and clan II VH is consistent with a block duplication inserting multiple VH into the *TCRα/δ* locus. VHδ5 genes in particular share a high degree of similarity with VH5 genes in the *IgH* locus, consistent with either a recent introgression into the *TCRα/δ* locus or a more ancient duplication that has been subject to

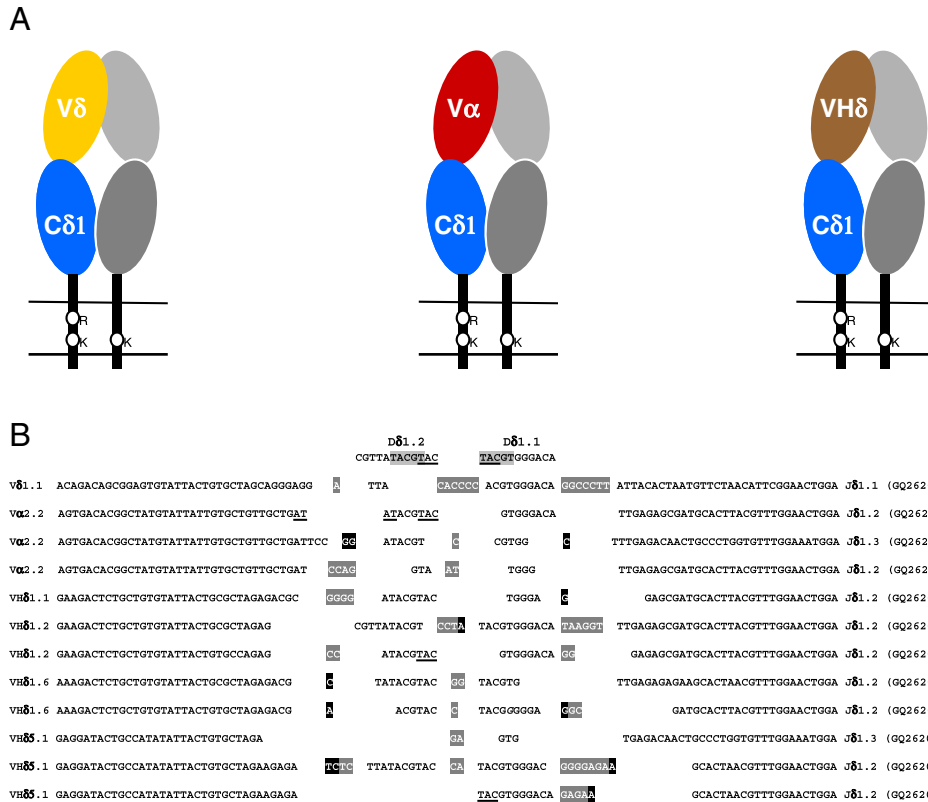


Figure 6. (A) Diagram of expressed isoforms of *X. tropicalis* Cδ1. (B) CDR3 nucleotide alignment of representative sequences. Germline D sequences are labeled on top of the alignment. Vα, Vδ and VHδ gene segments are indicated on the left-hand side and J gene segments on the right. Highlighted in gray is a 5 bp sequence present in both Dδ segments. Microhomologies in the germline and CDR3 regions are underlined; P and N nucleotides (shown in white letters) are highlighted in black and gray, respectively. GenBank accession numbers are shown in parenthesis on the right.

Table 1. Cδ1 transcripts amplified from different *X. tropicalis* tissues

Tissue/subgroup	Vα		Vδ		VHδ	
	Vα1	Vα2	Vδ1	VHδ1	VHδ4	VHδ5
cDNA library	+	+	+	+	NF ^{a)}	+
Small intestine	+	+	+	+	NF	+
Spleen	NF	+	+	+	NF	+
Thymus	NF	+	+	+	+	+

^{a)}Not found.

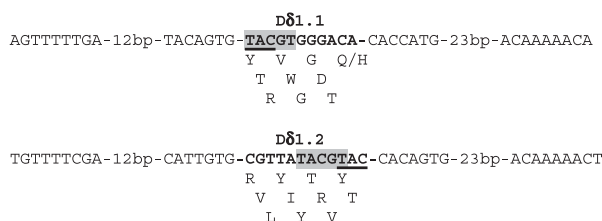


Figure 7. The germline *X. tropicalis* Dδ gene segments. Highlighted in gray is a 5 bp sequence present in both Dδ segments. Reading frames and RSS of the two Dδ gene segments found recombined with Vα, Vδ, and VHδ.

X. laevis family

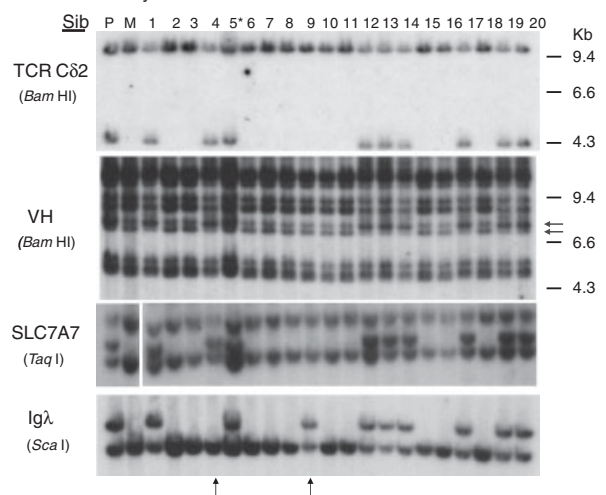


Figure 8. Close linkage of TCRα/δ, IgH, and Igλ loci in the *Xenopus* genome. Probes and restriction enzyme giving the RFLP are indicated on the left. Arrows on the right indicate polymorphic bands with VH that segregate with the bottom band of TCRδ. Arrows below indicate recombinants (siblings #4 and 9) between TCRδ and Igλ. Size markers are indicated on the right. The bands for SLC7A7 and Igλ are found between 2.3 and 4.3 kb marker bands. Sibling #5 (asterisk) is a natural triploid. P, paternal; M, maternal.

ongoing nonhomologous recombination or gene-conversion that preserved the high-sequence similarity. Given the close linkage between *IgH* and *TCR α/δ* in *Xenopus*, such nonhomologous recombination is highly likely. The similarity between VH δ 5 and VH5 genes and their designation as the respective “fifth” subgroup in each locus is purely coincidental. VH5 were identified as the fifth new subgroup among a collection of *Xenopus* *IgH* transcripts [18]. VH δ 5, on the other hand, was annotated as the fifth subgroup in linear order in the *TCR α/δ* genomic sequence using conventional TCR nomenclature (*Materials and Methods*). In contrast to VH δ 5, the VH δ 1 through four subgroups are less similar to any of the known *Xenopus* VH subgroups, sharing less than 60% nucleotide identity with the latter. This suggests that either these VH δ are older introgressions of VH genes into the *TCR α/δ* locus and were later lost in the *IgH* locus, or are genes that have diverged at a higher rate than VH δ 5.

These results also bear on the link between $\gamma\delta$ TCR and *IgH* noted previously, including recent evidence that TCR γ genes in sharks may undergo somatic mutation similar to that of *Ig* [23]. In mice and humans, V δ are more similar to VH in CDR3 length [30]. *Ig* VH and TCR V δ both have CDR3 heterogeneous in size and associated with partners (*IgL* and TCR γ , respectively) with generally shorter CDR3. In contrast, the CDR3 of both V β and V α are relatively similar, presumably due to the constraints of MHC restriction. These observations led to proposals that $\gamma\delta$ T cells recognize antigens differently than $\alpha\beta$ T cells, such as recognizing free, unprocessed antigens [30]. Indeed, while conventional $\alpha\beta$ T cells are MHC restricted, some $\gamma\delta$ T cells have been shown to respond in an MHC un-restricted manner to unprocessed viral antigens [31]. Furthermore, so-called “innate” $\gamma\delta$ T cells with limited TCR diversity in mice and humans can recognize self-molecules such as the MHC-class I chain-related MICA (in humans) and RAE-1 (in mice) or metabolic by-products such as isoprenyl-phosphate [32]. If TCR with antibody-like V domains are products of convergence, it is likely antigen recognition is driving this evolution. We predict that such T cells, including *Xenopus* $\gamma\delta$ T cells using VH δ , may bind microbial or other pathogen-associated epitopes in a manner more like B cells. In the case of $\gamma\delta$ TCR, the δ chain would be performing the role similar to H chain in antibodies, where the H chain often takes a predominant role in antigen recognition [33]. It seems unlikely that shark NAR-TCR⁺ T cells or mammalian TCR μ ⁺ T cells would be the equivalent of the “innate” $\gamma\delta$ T cells in eutherians, given the diversity of their receptors. Rather, this model provides some explanation for the consistent finding that, over evolutionary time, the *TCR δ* locus has demonstrated extraordinary plasticity, and we predict that the unusual TCR δ chains in sharks and frogs, and TCR μ in marsupials and monotremes, are involved in adaptive immunity.

The capacity to bind free antigen in solution may have provided a strong pressure for rapid evolution of the VH repertoire, resulting in the clans and families that emerged early in the *Ig*. Perhaps what is being observed in sharks, frogs, and non-eutherian mammals has been the TCR δ taking advantage of this unique VH diversity and incorporating gene segments into its own repertoire, which in mammals resulted in the evolution of a

separate locus, TCR μ . Why this has not been found in any eutherian mammal, such as humans and mice, is not clear [9]. It is possible that $\gamma\delta$ T cells entirely satisfy the role of direct antigen recognition in eutherians.

An atypical feature shared by NAR-TCR and TCR μ is the expression of an extracellular form containing three *Ig*-superfamily domains [12, 13]. There was no evidence for *Xenopus* TCR δ chains expressed in a double V form, nor does it appear that the *Xenopus* *TCR α/δ* locus could encode such a form. Double Vs require tandem array of rearranging V, D, and J segments as has been found in shark NAR-TCR and the platypus TCR μ homologue or, alternatively, the presence of a second germ-line joined V, as is the case for marsupial TCR μ [12, 13]. Although transcripts encoding double V were not found for *X. tropicalis* TCR δ , many of the V segments expressed with C δ 1 encode un-paired cysteine residues in positions similar to that of VNAR and the supporting V δ that are used in the NAR-TCR (Fig. 4). These cysteines are presumed to form inter-domain disulfide bonds that help to stabilize the double V structure. What role they may play in *Xenopus* TCR δ chains remains to be determined. None of the other V genes in the locus contained unpaired cysteines, although the majority of the V α expressed with C α 1 and are not used in the TCR δ chain. In addition, such unusual V genes also raise the obvious question of whether all of the *Xenopus* TCR δ chains are associated with TCR γ or are found in other complexes. This is a question that remains to be answered for NAR-TCR and TCR μ as well.

The common origin of *Ig* and TCR is beyond doubt when considering gene organization, conserved RSS, and common enzymatic machinery mediating somatic recombination [34]. Although many of the characteristics in *Xenopus* TCR δ , NAR-TCR, and TCR μ appear to be the result of convergent evolution, the structure of *Xenopus* *TCR α/δ* locus, and the linkage analyses are consistent with prevailing models of the origin and evolution of *Ig* and TCR genes [35, 36]. For example, the inverted genomic region containing VH δ and C δ 1 is reminiscent of the duplication and inversion event predicted to give rise to the current *TCR α/δ* locus configuration in mammals [9, 35]. The tight linkage of *IgH*, *TCR α/δ* , and *IgL* in *Xenopus* is consistent with what is found in many species, arguing for a common ancestral arrangement [35]. This synteny is consistent with a model where the genes encoding both chains of an ancestral antigen receptor heterodimer were linked and then duplicated *en bloc* to create two gene complexes [35]. If the original antigen receptor was TCR-like, then the two complexes, $\beta\gamma$ and $\alpha\delta$, may have been derived from the second genome-wide duplication believed to have occurred early in vertebrate history [37]. The $\alpha\delta$ complex has remained linked in the tetrapods and some fish species, whereas $\beta\gamma$ has been separated [35, 38, 39]. The presence of an ancestral *IgL* chain in the original complex is parsimonious, since it shares the RSS with a 23 bp spacer type with all other antigen receptor V genes. Different lineages of receptor genes would have been free to independently evolve their own RSS configurations, most likely through inversions, resulting in the symmetrical 12 bp spacer RSS flanking DH genes

and the 12 bp spacer RSS flanking V genes in the *Igκ* and *Igσ* loci [36, 40].

In conclusion, NAR-TCR in sharks, TCR μ in noneutherian mammals, and now TCR δ in *Xenopus* comprise what appears to be a growing list of TCR δ or δ -like chains utilizing antibody-like V domains. How long this list of species will become is unknown; however, these observations may reveal a new mechanism for antigen recognition by T cells that has remained undiscovered because of its absence in commonly studied eutherian mammals.

Materials and methods

Genome screening and identification of V–D–J gene segments

Version 4.1 of the *X. tropicalis* genome assembly was analyzed using the BLAST algorithm at www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/BLAST along with the *Xenopus* EST BLAST server at <http://www.sanger.ac.uk/> and ENSEMBL at www.ensembl.org. Known *V α* and *J α* gene segments and the *C α 1* genes were located using available sequences [15, 41]. Novel *V α* , *J α* , and *C α* genes and all *V δ* , *D δ* , *J δ* , and *C δ* genes were identified by similarity to homologues from other species. Conserved RSS were also used to identify V, D, and J gene segments. The location for all *TCR α/δ* genes in version 4.1 of the *X. tropicalis* assembly is provided in Supporting Information Tables 1 and 2.

Annotation of the *X. tropicalis* TCR α/δ and VH regions

The *TCR α/δ* locus is located on scaffold number 539 (length 791252 bp). V and D gene subgroups and individual gene segments were annotated in 5'–3' order in the genomic sequence in accordance with the International ImMunoGeneTics nomenclature (<http://imgt.cines.fr/>). For example, *V α 2.1* refers to the most 5' *V α* in subgroup 2. J genes were numbered 3'–5' also according to the established nomenclature [14]. *C α 1* was identified as being identical to *C α* genes identified previously in *X. laevis* [15]. *C α 2* and both *C δ* were identified in the genomic sequence as being a C region gene with similarity to homologues in other species. The two *C δ* were numbered based on *C δ 1* being more frequently isolated among TCR δ transcripts (data not shown). Scaffold 1168 containing VH genes most closely resembling the *VH δ* found on scaffold 539 was also characterized. The V genes found on this scaffold are utilized in *IgH* transcripts and this genomic sequence is likely part of the *IgH* locus in *X. tropicalis* (see *Results* section).

RNA extraction, cDNA synthesis, and RT-PCR

The combination intestine, liver, spleen, and thymus cDNA library used was constructed using the Orient Express Oligo(dT)

cDNA library kit (Novagen, Madison, WI) [42]. Total RNA was extracted from small intestine, spleen, and thymus from *X. tropicalis* as described previously and under the approval of animal protocol number 1009003 to MFF [42]. Total RNA was treated to remove DNA contamination using the TURBO DNA-free kit (Ambion, Austin, TX) and then used for RT-PCR. RT-PCR were performed using GeneAmp RNA PCR core kit (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA). PCR were performed using the AdvantageTM-HF-2 kit using manufacturer-recommended conditions (BD Biosciences, CLONTECH Laboratories, Palo Alto, CA). PCR products were cloned using the TopoTA cloning[®] kit (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) and sequenced using the BigDye Terminator Cycle Sequencing kit v3 (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA). Sequencing reactions were analyzed on the ABI Prism 3100 DNA automated sequencer (PerkinElmer Life and Analytical Sciences, Wellesley, MA). Chromatograms were analyzed using the SequencherTM 4.3 program (Gene Codes, Ann Arbor, MI).

Primers for *C δ 1* and *C δ 2* semi-nested PCR and 5' RACE were *C δ 1* outside primer, 5'-GCGCTGTACGTTCCATTCAGGGAG-3'; *C δ 1*-nested primer: 5'-CCAGACAGGCAGTGGGAGAGTCACC-3'; *C δ 2* outside primer: 5'-GAAAGTACTGGGGTAACATCTCCC-3'; *C δ 1*-nested primer: 5'-CAGGCAGCAGGAGACAGACCCTC-3'.

To investigate whether *VH δ* genes are utilized in *IgH* chains, *VH δ 1* and *VH δ 5* primers were paired in PCR with a primer specific for *Xenopus* *IgM* C region using the spleen cDNA as target. *IgM* C region primer: 5'-AATGGCCAGAATGCTGATTTGAG-3'; *VH δ 1.2* and *VH δ 1.3* primer: 5'-GTTCTGGAAAAGAGATTCTGTAC-3'; *VH δ 1.5* and *VH δ 1.6* primer: 5'-CTTGGCTGAAACATGTTCTGG-3'; *VH δ 5.1*, *VH δ 5.2*, *VH δ 5.3*, *VH δ 5.4*, and *VH δ 5.5* primer: 5'-GTCCTGCAAGACATCAGGGTATTC-3'.

Phylogenetic analyses

The GenBank accession numbers of all sequences used are in Supporting Information Table 3. Nucleotides corresponding to FR1 through FR3 of all V genes and exon 1 of all C genes were aligned using BioEdit [43, 44]. Phylogenetic trees were constructed using the neighbor joining and minimum evolution methods with 1000 bootstrap replicates using MEGA version 3.0 [45].

Linkage analyses

Erythrocyte genomic DNA from 20 *X. laevis* siblings was digested with various restriction enzymes and blotted onto nitrocellulose membranes (Whatman, ME). Blots were hybridized under high stringency conditions with ³²P-dCTP radiolabeled probes and exposed to the X-ray film [46]. Probes used for the experiments include the exons encoding the *C δ 2* domain and 3' UTR, the C domain of *Ig λ* , and a V domain from the *VH1* subgroup in the *IgH* locus (GenBank NM_001086404) [17, 18]. *VH1* was chosen to type the *IgH* locus since it shares less than 60% nucleotide identity to any *VH δ* and, therefore would not

cross-hybridize. To further confirm Ig-TCR linkage, the SLC7A7 gene near IgF in scaffold-972 was used as probe, specifically nucleotide position 140–1537 of *X. laevis* SLC7A7 (BC072040) [21, 22]. Tetraploid *X. laevis* was used for this analysis due to the availability of pedigreed families for this species [47].

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Abbreviations: EST: expressed sequence tag · NAR: New Antigen Receptor · ORF: open reading frame · RSS: recombination signal sequences · VH: V genes that are indistinguishable from VH but found in the TCR locus

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