# Diversity, Development, Ligands, and Probable Functions of $\gamma\delta$ T Cells

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The most critical step in the vertebrate immune response is the recognition of antigens by lymphocytes. This task is accomplished by two sets of glycoproteins, immunoglobulins (Igs), and T-cell antigen receptors (TCRs). The most extraordinary feature of these proteins is their structural variability, much of which originates from the ability of the encoding gene segments to undergo somatic rearrangement (Tonegawa 1983). All TCRs were initially thought to be composed of a heterodimeric protein composed of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  subunits. However, the search for the genes encoding these polypeptides led to the identification of a third rearranging gene (Saito et al. 1984; Hayday et al. 1985) that was later shown to code for one of the two subunits of another heterodimeric, TCRyδ (Bank et al. 1986; Brenner et al. 1986; Weiss et al. 1986).

Despite the striking similarities in the overall structure of their genes and polypeptide chains, TCRγδ and the T cells that express it are significantly different from their  $\alpha\beta$  counterparts. For instance,  $\gamma\delta$  T cells are detected in both the thymus (Bank et al. 1986; Lew et al. 1986; Nakanishi et al. 1987) and peripheral lymphoid organs (Brenner et al. 1986; Maeda et al. 1987) in relatively low numbers (<5% of T cells) but predominate (50-100%) within epithelia such as epidermis (Kuziel et al. 1987; Stingl et al. 1987) and the small intestine (Bonneville et al. 1988; Goodman and Lefrancois 1988). In contrast with most αβ T cells, the majority of  $\gamma\delta$  T cells in the thymus and spleen do not express either CD4 or CD8 (Bank et al. 1986; Brenner et al. 1986; Lew et al. 1986; Maeda et al. 1987; Nakanishi et al. 1987). Neither the specificity of TCRγδ recognition nor γδ T-cell function in immune defense is understood. In this paper, we summarize results of our recent studies on the diversity, development, and specificity of  $\gamma\delta$  T cells, and we discuss possible functions of these cells.

#### RESULTS

#### Anti-mouse TCRγδ MAbs

To study the nature of the TCR  $\gamma\delta$  and the role of  $\gamma\delta$  T cells, monoclonal antibodies (MAbs) directed against the native receptor are useful. To generate such antibodies, we immunized Armenian hamsters with the anti-CD3 immunoprecipitate of a lysate of  $\gamma\delta$  T hybridoma KN6 (Ito et al. 1989) and prepared three anti- $\gamma\delta$ -TCR MAbs (Itohara et al. 1989): MAb 3A10, specific for a C<sub> $\delta$ </sub> (constant) region determinant, MAb 8D6, specific for (variable)  $V_{\gamma}$ 4- and  $V_{\delta}$ 5-encoded TCR  $\gamma\delta$ , and MAb 5C10, specific for a KN6 TCR idiotope.

#### Appearance of $\alpha\beta$ and $\gamma\delta$ T Cells in the Developing and Mature Thymus

Using appropriate MAbs, we determined the number of thymocytes bearing TCRγδ (abbreviated hereafter as  $\gamma\delta$  thymocytes) or TCR $\alpha\beta$  ( $\alpha\beta$  thymocytes) as a function of age (Fig. 1). γδ Thymocytes were detected at day 14.5 of gestation (E14.5), the earliest time point analyzed. Their number increased until E17.5, remained at this level until birth, dipped, and then gradually increased to the adult level of 1 million cells per thymus. In relative terms, only 0.4-0.6% of total thymocytes at E14.5 are γδ thymocytes, increasing rapidly to its highest value (5%) at E16.5, then gradually decreasing through embryonic life and the first postnatal week until it reaches a stationary adult level of 0.3-0.5% at about 10 days after birth. αβ Thymocytes are rare (<100 cells/thymus) at E14.5 but outnumber  $\gamma\delta$  thymocytes after E16.5. By E18.5, they are the dominant thymocyte population.

Two-color analysis of thymocytes from E16, E18.5, and adult mice showed that  $TCR\alpha\beta$  and  $TCR\gamma\delta$ 

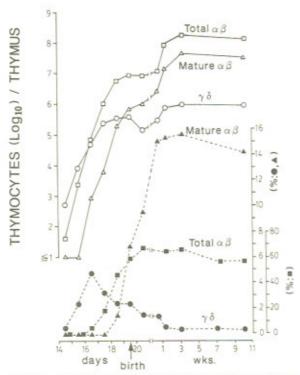


Figure 1. Ontogeny of TCR  $\gamma\delta$  and  $\alpha\beta$  thymocytes in C57BL/6 mice. Thymocytes of mice at different ages were stained with anti- $\gamma\delta$  (3A10) or anti- $\alpha\beta$  (H57-597) biotin conjugates followed by a streptavidin phycocerythrin conjugate together with an anti-CD3 (2C11) fluorescein isothiocyanate conjugate. The samples were analyzed with FACScan (Becton-Dickinson) using FACScan software.

double-positive cells must be extremely rare or do not exist at all. Thus, a mechanism appears to exist that restricts the surface expression of TCRs to only one of the two types.

# γδ T Cells Compose Minor T-cell Subpopulations in Peripheral Lymphoid Organs

We determined the frequency of yδ T cells in peripheral lymphoid organs (i.e., spleen, lymph node, and blood) as well as their CD4 CD8 phenotype. The results are summarized in Table 1. In adult mice (7-13 weeks old), the fraction of γδ T cells among CD3 T cells is no more than 3% in any of the three sites studied although it is as high as 10% in the spleen of 4-day-old mice. This γδ +/CD3+ ratio is much lower than that reported for the chicken (Sowder et al. 1988) but is similar to that in humans (1-15%) (Borst et al. 1988; Chen et al. 1989). As suggested in the original report on γδ T cells (Brenner et al. 1986), the majority of peripheral γδ T cells do not express CD4 or CD8 (Table 1). However, a significant fraction of γδ T cells is either CD4 or CD8 in all three peripheral lymphoid organs studied, and high CD8 expression can be induced in vitro in peripheral γδ T cells with the MAb 3A10 (Y. Utsunomiya et al., unpubl.).

### Intrathymic Distribution of $\gamma\delta$ T Cells Alters Drastically during the First Postnatal Week

To relate the spatial distribution of γδ thymocytes to the organization of the thymic environment, we analyzed sections of fetal and adult thymuses using immunohistochemical technique. Adjacent sections of thymus tissue were alternatively labeled with the MAb 3A10 or with the Ulex europeus agglutinin (UEA), which we have previously shown to be a reliable marker for medullary thymic epithelial cells in the adult murine thymus (Farr and Anderson 1985). We observed a striking colocalization of γδ thymocytes and UEA\* medullary epithelial cells during late fetal and neonatal periods of development (Fig. 2a,b). In contrast, γδ thymocytes were scattered throughout cortical and medullary areas of the thymus (Fig. 2c,d) and most concentrated in the subcapsular areas of the thymus in the thymuses of adult mice. Results of ultrastructural immunohistochemistry confirmed the close association between medullary thymic epithelial cells and  $\gamma\delta$ thymocytes in the neonatal thymus and also showed that some TCRγδ molecules were patched to areas of contact with medullary epithelial cells. As shown below, the pattern of TCRγδ expression in the thymus is limited in diversity and is developmentally ordered. Thus, these histochemical results indicate that changes in receptor repertoire correlate with the changes in the intrathymic distribution of  $\gamma\delta$  thymocytes.

# γδ T Cells Are Present in Many Organs Containing Epithelia

Since  $\gamma\delta$  T cells are relatively scant in peripheral lymphoid organs (Table 1), we searched for these cells in sections of various organs and tissues. The results are summarized in Table 2. The  $\gamma\delta$  T cells were most abundant in the small intestine, moderately abundant in the tongue, stomach, and large intestine, and very scarce in the esophagus. In the tongue and stomach, the vast majority of  $\gamma\delta$  T cells were associated with the basal layer of stratified squamous epithelium (Fig. 3a,b). Consistent with previous studies of human and chicken tissues (Bucy et al. 1988; Groh et al. 1989),  $\gamma\delta$  T cells were observed in mouse intestines within the columnar epithelium of the villi (Fig. 3c) but not in intestinal crypts nor in the lamina propria.

A substantial number of  $\gamma\delta$  T cells was also found to be associated with the columnar luminal epithelium of the uterus (Fig. 3d), the stratified squamous epithelium of the vagina (Fig. 3e), and the transitional epithelium of the bladder. In contrast, no  $\gamma\delta$  T cells were found in the liver, pancreas, kidney, or brain.

Unlike the human and chicken epidermis (Bucy et al. 1988; Groh et al. 1989), the mouse epidermis is the site of a major  $\gamma\delta$  T-cell subset. About  $5\times10^6$   $\gamma\delta$  T cells are present within epidermis and hair follicles of each mouse (Fig. 3f) (Bergstresser et al. 1983; Tschachler et

Table 1. Frequency and Surface Phenotype of  $\gamma\delta$  Cells in Periphery

Organ	Age No. of No. of cells bearing <sup>c</sup> of animals (10 <sup>-5</sup> /animal)					γδ Cells among	γδ Cells bearing <sup>c</sup> (%)		
	animals	examined	CD3	$TCR\gamma\delta$	$TCR\alpha\beta$	CD3 '(%)	CD4*	CD8 <sup>+</sup>	CD4 CD8
Spleen	4 days 7–13 wk	7° 12	0.74 $300 \pm 73$	0.07 $8.2 \pm 2.0$	0.67 279 ± 70	$10$ $2.8 \pm 0.5$	5.5 10 ± 0.6	63 15 ± 4.8	32 75 ± 5.4
Mesenteric lymph node	7–13 wk	12	51 ± 23	$1.2 \pm 0.5$	50 ± 22	$2.3 \pm 0.3$	$7.6 \pm 2.6$	32 ± 14	60 ± 16
Blood	7-13 wk	17° -	25 <sup>b</sup>	0.6	24	2.4	10	18	72

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Cells from the indicated number of animals were pooled.
<sup>b</sup> Estimated from the data of Green (1966).
<sup>c</sup> Mean ± S.D.

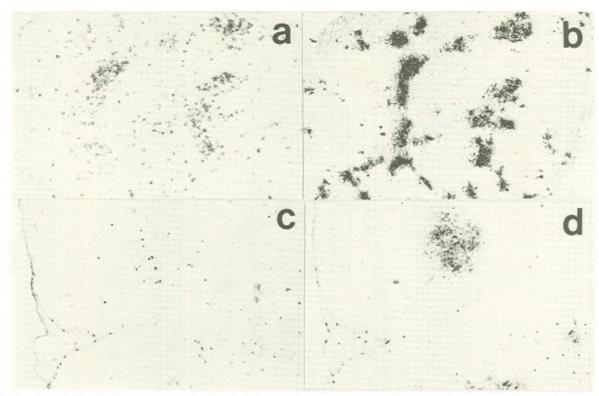


Figure 2. Intrathymic distribution of  $\gamma\delta$  cells in fetal and adult thymus tissues. Adjacent serial sections of thymus tissue were labeled with anti- $\gamma\delta$  MAb 3A10 (a and c) or with UEA (b and d). (a and b) Day 18; (c and d) adult.

Table 2. Distribution of  $\gamma\delta$  T Cells in Mice

	Presence of yδ T cells in mice		Contact with epithelial	No. of cells per	Major V, gene	Diversity
Organs	normal	nude	cells	animal	segments used	of TCRy
Digestive system						
tongue	+		+		6	
esophagus	+/-		+			
stomach	+		+			
small intestine	+	+	+	$1 \times 10^{6}$	7	+
large intestine	+	+	+	$1 \times 10^{5}$	7,4	
liver	_					
pancreas	-					
Reproductive system						
ovary	+/-					
uterus	+	_	+	$1 \times 10^{5}$	6	
vagina	+	_	+	$1 \times 10^{5}$	6	_
testis	_			220		
epididymis	+/-					
seminal vesicle					7, 5	
Urinary system						
kidney	_					
bladder	+	77	+			
Others						
skin	+	20	+	$5 \times 10^{6}$	5	220
lung				2 10	7, 4, 6	
brain	_				7, 4, 0	
heart	-					
Lymphoid organs						
thymus	+			$1 \times 10^{6}$	4, 7	4
spleen	+	- 22		8 × 10 <sup>5</sup>	4.7.	- T
lymph node	+			8 × 10	4, 7, 6	+
blood	+	-		1 × 10 <sup>5</sup>	4, 7, 6	++
DIOOG				$6 \times 10^{4}$	4, 7, 6	+

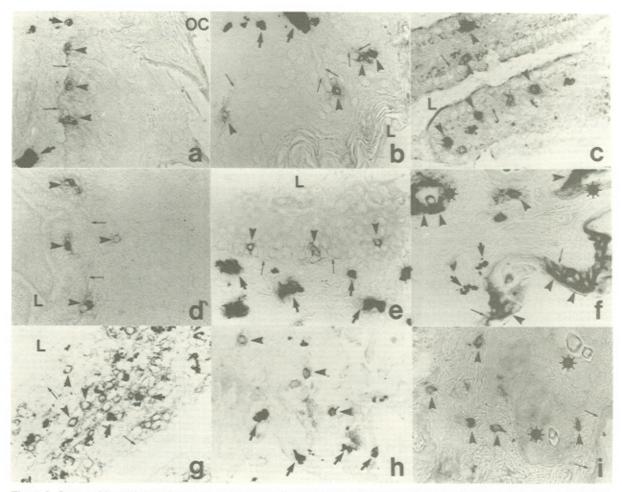


Figure 3. Immunohistostaining of various epithelium-containing organs with anti- $\gamma\delta$  and anti- $\alpha\beta$  MAbs. Fresh tissues from 8- to 10-week-old BALB/c mice were snap frozen, and 6  $\mu$ m sections were fixed with cold acetone, stained with a MAb anti- $\gamma\delta$  (3A10) (a-f) or anti- $\alpha\beta$  (H57-597) (g-i) followed by affinity-purified goat anti-hamster IgG biotin (Caltag Lab., California) and avidin-horseradish peroxidase conjugates. (a) Tongue; (b) stomach; (c and g) small intestine; (d and h) uterus; (e) vagina; and (f and i) skin. Arrowheads indicate some of the stained TCR cells. Endogenous peroxidase activity is indicated by large arrows. Small arrows indicate basal lamina. Asterisks indicate hair follicles. (OC) Oral cavity; (L) lumen. Magnification, 220 × .

al. 1983). In some areas, these cells tended to form clusters (Fig. 3f).

For comparison, adjacent sections were stained with the MAb against  $TCR\alpha\beta$  (Fig. 3g,h,i). These T cells were preferentially localized in the lamina propria of the intestines (Fig. 3g), the endometrium and myometrium of the uterus (Fig. 3h), the dermis of the skin (Fig. and the connective tissue of the vagina. Occasionally, some  $\alpha\beta$  T cells were observed in association with the epithelia of the intestine, vagina, and uterus. However, the majority of CD3+ intraepithelial lymphocytes are clearly γδ T cells. In light of these observations, we propose to refer to these T cells as intraepithelial lymphocytes (IEL) as a generic term and to attach the initial of each organ to designate various IEL subpopulations such as i-IEL, s-IEL, r-IEL, and t-IEL for the IELs in the intestine, skin, reproductive organs, and tongue, respectively.

We extended our immunohistological analyses to 8week-old athymic nude mice. As expected, no  $\alpha\beta$  or  $\gamma\delta$ T cells were detectable in most organs analyzed, suggesting a thymus dependency of these T cells. However,  $\gamma\delta$  T cells were observed in the small intestines of these nude mice in about half the number present in the strain- and age-matched normal mice (Table 2). These  $\gamma\delta$  T cells were, as were those of normal mice, IELs.

#### $\gamma\delta$ T Cells of Different Peripheral Sites Use Different V<sub> $\gamma$ </sub> Gene Segments to Encode Their TCR

Previous studies have demonstrated that s-IEL (DEC) and i-IEL use distinct  $V_{\gamma}$  gene segments, V5 (Asarnow et al. 1988) and V7 (Takagaki et al. 1989a), respectively, to encode the  $\gamma$  subunits of their TCR. To determine whether there was a similar preferential usage of specific  $V_{\gamma}$  gene segments by  $\gamma\delta$  T cells present in other sites, DNA extracted from crude lymphocyte preparations from these sites was amplified by the polymerase chain reaction (PCR) technique (Saiki et al. 1988) using a  $V_{\gamma}$  ( $V_{\gamma}4$ ,  $V_{\gamma}5$ ,  $V_{\gamma}6$ , or  $V_{\gamma}7$ )-specific primer in combination with a (joining)  $J_{\gamma}1$ -specific primer. The PCR products were then analyzed by

Southern blot analysis using a J<sub>1</sub> oligonucleotide probe. The results are summarized in Table 2. As in adult thymuses (Ito et al. 1989), the V\_4/J\_1 rearrangements were most abundant in peripheral lymphoid organs (blood, spleen, and lymph nodes) but bands corresponding to V\_6/J\_1 and V\_7/J\_1 rearrangements were also detected in these organs. In agreement with previous studies (Asarnow et al. 1988; Takagaki et al. 1989a), strong V,5/J,1 and V,7/J,1 bands were observed in the skin and small intestine, respectively. Apart from these sites, the most conspicuous were the vagina, uterus, and tongue in which V. 6/ V 1 rearrangement was abundant. Cloning and sequencing of the PCR products indicated that most (12 of 14) V\_6/J\_1 clones isolated from vaginas and uteruses contained in-frame junctions with an identical nucleotide sequence (S. Itohara et al. in prep.). These results strongly suggest that most γδ T cells in female reproductive organs use the single V6J1C1 (constant [C]) y gene to encode the y subunits of their TCR. Interestingly, γδ T cells associated with the tongue (t-IEL) also use the same γ gene (S. Itohara et al., in prep.).

# γδ T Cells Associated with Some Epithelial Organs Are Primarily Derived from Fetal Thymocytes and Carry an Entirely Homogeneous TCRγδ

It was previously shown that the use of  $\gamma$  and  $\delta$  V gene segments is developmentally ordered in thymocytes (Havran and Allison 1988; Ito et al. 1989; Itohara et al. 1989). γδ Thymocytes from early fetuses (i.e., at around day 15 of the embryonic life) preferentially express TCR encoded by V5J1C1 γ and V1D2J2C δ genes (Havran and Allison 1988; Ito et al. 1989). We found that these TCRs are entirely homogeneous (J.J. Lafaille et al., in prep.) and that they are identical to the TCRγδ expressed on s-IEL (Asarnow et al. 1988). Thus, s-IEL probably originates from this first wave of fetal yδ thymocytes. At late fetal and newborn stages, most γδ thymocytes bear TCR encoded by another pair of  $\gamma$  and  $\delta$  genes, V6J1C1  $\gamma$  and V1D2J2C  $\delta$  (Ito et al. 1989), which are also structurally homogeneous (J.J. Lafaille et al., in prep.). Since the nucleotide sequence of this V6J1C1 γ gene is identical to the sequence of the sole in-frame joined V6J1C1 y gene present in r-IEL and t-IEL (S. Itohara et al., in prep.), we suspected that these cells are derived from the second wave of fetal  $\gamma\delta$  thymocytes. If this were the case, the  $\delta$  chains of these T-cell populations also should be identical. We therefore cloned and sequenced the PCR products of V1DJ2C  $\delta$  genes from r-IEL preparations and found indeed that these genes are also homogeneous in their junctional sequences (S. Itohara et al., in prep.) and that the r-IEL  $\delta$  gene sequence corresponds exactly to the sequence of the  $\delta$  gene expressed on the surface of the late fetal thymocyte population (J.J. Lafaille et al., in prep.). We conclude from these results that r-IELs are derived from the late fetal wave of thymocytes.

#### TCRγδ Expressed in Adult Thymus and Peripheral Lymphoid Organs Are Diverse

Unlike the early and late fetal thymocytes or s-IEL, r-IEL, and t-IEL, adult γδ thymocytes and γδ T cells of peripheral lymphoid organs use various combinations of V, and V8 gene segments to encode their TCR. Furthermore, abundant V-(D)-J junctional diversity occurs among the TCR of these adult γδ T cells (Korman et al. 1988; Lacy et al. 1989; Takagaki et al. 1989b). Taken together, these results indicate that in addition to the difference in the gene segments utilized for surface expression, there is a drastic fetal versus adult shift in the extent of the junctional diversity in the TCRγδ. Since i-IELs preferentially use the V. 7 gene segment (Takagaki et al. 1989a), which is rarely utilized by fetal thymocytes but is used by some adult thymocytes, and since the TCR gene assembled in adult thymocytes and i-IEL show similar extensive deletions and insertions in the junctions (Takagaki et al. 1989a,b), some adult thymocytes may home to intestinal epithelia. The probable developmental relationship between the various γδ T cell subpopulations is shown in Figure 4.

### Developmental Relationship between $\alpha\beta$ and $\gamma\delta$ T-cell Lineages

One interesting issue raised by the discovery of  $\gamma\delta$  T cells is their developmental relationship with  $\alpha\beta$  T cells. Several observations relevant to this issue can be summarized. First, during thymic ontogeny, rearrangement

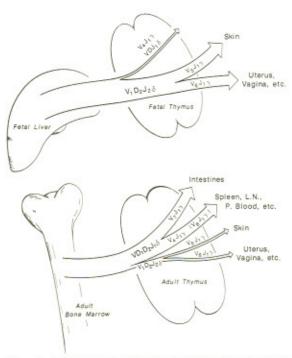


Figure 4. Development of various  $\gamma\delta$  T-cell subsets. The arrows indicate the proposed pathways followed by  $\gamma\delta$  T lymphocytes expressing the C<sub>2</sub>1 region in fetal and adult mice.

and cell-surface expression of at least some  $\gamma$  and  $\delta$ genes precede that of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  genes (Raulet et al. 1985; Pardoll et al. 1987; Havran and Allison 1988; Itohara et al. 1989). Second, in peripheral  $\alpha\beta$  T cells, some  $\gamma$ genes are almost always rearranged, often in a nonfunctional (i.e., out-of-frame) form (Reilly et al. 1986; Rupp et al. 1986; Heilig and Tonegawa 1987). In contrast, in  $\gamma\delta$  thymocytes or peripheral  $\gamma\delta$  T cells,  $\beta$  genes are almost always rearranged only incompletely with a diversity (D) gene segment joined to a J gene segment and no V gene segment attached, whereas α genes are never rearranged (Korman et al. 1988; Ito et al. 1989; Takagaki et al. 1989b). Finally, cells bearing both αβ and γδ TCRs or "hybrid" TCRs such as βδ or αγ heterodimers do not seem to exist (Pardoll et al. 1987; and see above). On the basis of these observations, Pardoll et al. (1987) and Allison and Lanier (1987) proposed that if  $\gamma$  and  $\delta$  genes rearrange productively (i.e., by in-frame joining), the cell proceeds to surface expression of TCRγδ, which in analogy with the Ig system (Alt et al. 1987) inhibits further rearrangement of any other TCR gene.  $\alpha\beta$  T cells are generated only from those cells that failed to rearrange productively both  $\gamma$  and  $\delta$  genes. We tested this model by constructing and analyzing three different sets of transgenic mice all carrying in their germ line productively rearranged TCR $\gamma\delta$  or TCR $\gamma$  genes.

#### Normal Numbers of $\alpha\beta$ T Cells Are Generated in TCR $\gamma$ and $\delta$ Double Transgenic Mice

The first set of transgenic mice (called KN6 transgenic mice) were made by injecting into oocytes a mixture of relatively long  $\gamma$  (40 kb) and  $\delta$  (43 kb) genomic DNA fragments cloned from the γδ T-cell hybridoma KN6 (Fig. 5). According to the Pardoll-Allison model, generation of  $\alpha\beta$  T cells will be disrupted because all T-cell precursors in these mice should have productively rearranged transgenic  $\gamma$  and  $\delta$ genes. However, contrary to this prediction neither the absolute number nor the proportion of  $\alpha\beta$  T cells is significantly altered in the thymus and spleen of the transgenic mice (Table 3). Furthermore, the thymocytes and splenocytes of these mice exhibit a normal expression pattern of CD4 and CD8 glycoproteins, suggesting that their maturation is normal. The apparently normal generation of  $\alpha\beta$  T cells is not due to a failure of the expression of the transgenes in these mice: These mice do contain an elevated level of γδ T cells, and nearly all of their TCRs are encoded by the transgenes (Table 3).

As in normal mice (see above),  $\gamma\delta/\alpha\beta$  double producers are not detectable in these transgenic mice (I. Ishida et al., in prep.). We conclude that there must be a mechanism restricting the expression of TCR to one

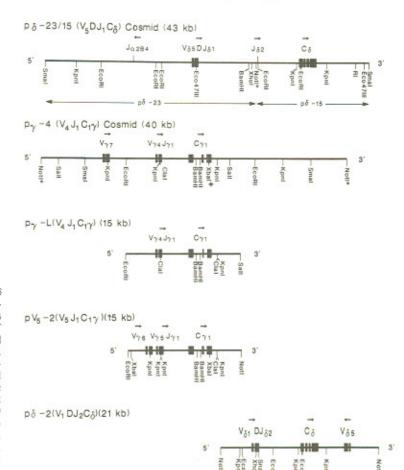


Figure 5. Restriction maps of  $\gamma$  and  $\delta$ genomic DNA clones used for the construction of transgenic mice. The cosmid clones pδ-23/15 and pγ-4 were cloned from a γδ T hybridoma KN6 (C57BL/6) and were used to prepare KN6 transgenic mice. Phage \(\lambda\) clone py-L was cloned from a T-cell hybridoma 3D10 (C3H, Nakauchi et al. 1984) and was used to prepare the y-only transgenic mice. The cosmid clones pV5-2 and pδ-2 were cloned from a γδ T hybridoma KI-129 (C57BL/6) (Ito et al. 1989) and were used to prepare the DEC transgenic mice. (1) Exons or gene segments; (→) their transcriptional orientation. The XbaI (+) site was destroyed deliberately in clone pγ-L.

Mice	Age	Total	Thymocytes ( × 10 <sup>-6</sup> ) stained with			Total	Splenocytes ( × 10 <sup>-6</sup> ) stained with		
	(wk)	cells	anti-γδ	anti-KN6	anti-αβ	cells	anti-γδ	anti-KN6	anti-αβ
γδ 1313	9	79	1.26 (1.6)	1.02 (1.3)	56.8 (71.9)	153	6.32 (4.1)	6.27 (4.1)	43.0 (28.1)
LM	9	78	0.16 (0.2)	0.00	55.9 (71.7)	167	0.66 (0.4)	0.00	43.6 (26.1)
γδ 1355	8	100	2.66 (2.7)	2.66 (2.7)	72.7 (72.7)	161	4.96 (3.1)	4.83 (3.0)	36.1 (22.4)
LM	8	99	0.10 (0.1)	0.00	74.2 (74.9)	152	0.89 (0.6)	0.00 (0.0)	39.7 (26.1)

Table 3. Surface Expression of TCR $\gamma\delta$  and TCR $\alpha\beta$  on Thymocytes and Splenocytes of  $\gamma\delta$  Transgenic Mice

Thymocytes and splenocytes were stained with anti- $\gamma\delta$ , anti-KN6, or anti- $\alpha\beta$  MAb. Proportion (%) of TCR $\gamma\delta$ - or TCR $\alpha\beta$ -bearing T cells among total thymocytes or splenocytes is also shown in parentheses. LM designates nontransgenic littermates.

of the two types in a given T-cell precursor that is active before either of the two types of TCR is expressed on the cell surface.

#### A Transcriptional Silencer in the Flanking Region of the γ Gene

We investigated the reason why the  $y\delta$  transgene products are not expressed on the surface of the  $\alpha\beta$  T cells in the KN6 transgenic mice by analyzing DNA and RNA of these cells. First, Southern blot analysis of DNA isolated from a T-cell population enriched with  $TCR\alpha\beta^+$  cells as well as from T-cell hybridomas prepared from TCR  $\alpha\beta$  \* cells showed that both the  $\gamma$  and  $\delta$ transgenes are retained by the  $\alpha\beta$  T cells. Second, the analysis of the RNA extracted from the  $\alpha\beta$  T-cell population or from the  $\alpha\beta$  T hybridomas demonstrated that no transcripts derived from the transgenes accumulate in the  $\alpha\beta$  T cells. These results suggest that there exists a cis-acting DNA element(s) that mediates the repression of  $\gamma$  and  $\delta$  RNA accumulation in  $\alpha\beta$  T cells. This putative element(s) must be contained within the 40-kb y and/or 43-kb δ genomic DNA fragments used for the construction of the transgenic mice.

To test this possibility, we constructed a second set of transgenic mice (called "short y" transgenic mice) using a y gene clone containing very limited flanking sequences (Fig. 5, clone py-L.). We found that  $\alpha\beta$  T cells in this set of transgenic mice, in contrast with those in the KN6 transgenic mice, did harbor abundant RNA transcribed from the y transgene but not from the endogenous y genes (I. Ishida et al., in prep.). Since these results were obtained with three transgenic founder mice, it is very unlikely that the differential expression of the transgenes and endogenous y genes is caused by the specific sequence context in which transgenes are integrated. We conclude that the y gene carries in its flanking regions a cis-acting DNA element that down-regulates  $\gamma$  transcription in  $\alpha\beta$  T cells. This "silencer" element must be in the 5'- or 3'-flanking regions present on the py-4 clone but absent on the py-L clone.

#### Silencer Model of $\alpha\beta$ and $\gamma\delta$ T-cell Lineages

In view of these findings, we propose a model for the differentiation of  $\alpha\beta$  and  $\gamma\delta$  T-cell lineages (Fig. 6).  $\gamma$ and  $\delta$  gene rearrangements occur prior to the completion (i.e., V to DJ joining) of  $\beta$  gene rearrangement and the initiation of  $\alpha$  gene rearrangement. In-frame rearrangements of both  $\gamma$  and  $\delta$  genes are, of course, a prerequisite for the generation of γδ thymocytes. However, we propose on the basis of the normal appearance of  $\alpha\beta$  T eells in the  $\gamma\delta$  transgenic mice that the failure to rearrange both  $\gamma$  and  $\delta$  genes in-frame is not a requirement for the generation of  $\alpha\beta$  thymocytes. This implies that some  $\alpha\beta$  thymocytes could be generated from cells that harbor both in-frame rearranged  $\gamma$  and  $\delta$  genes, and therefore precursors of some aB T cells may express TCRγδ on their surface. Although this possibility cannot be ruled out, any TCRγδ expression in these cells is likely to be transient because we detected no thymocytes coexpressing both  $TCR\alpha\beta$  and  $TCR\gamma\delta$ either in the  $\gamma\delta$  transgenic mice (I. Ishida et al., in prep.) or normal mice (Itohara et al. 1989).

We propose that the putative machinery acting upon the  $\gamma$  silencer is activated in a fraction of immature thymocytes and that it is from these cells that  $\alpha\beta$  thymocytes are generated. The activation of the silencer machinery could occur prior to  $\gamma$  and  $\delta$  gene rearrangements. In this case,  $\alpha\beta$  and  $\gamma\delta$  T-cell lineages are completely separate, and no  $\alpha\beta$  thymocyte precursors will ever express TCR $\gamma\delta$ . The activation of the machinery, however, could occur between the completion of  $\gamma$  and  $\delta$  gene rearrangements and that of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  gene rearrangements. In this case, precursors of some  $\alpha\beta$  T cells may express TCR $\gamma\delta$  transiently.

One may argue, in support of the Pardoll-Allison model, that the expression of the transgenes in our  $\gamma\delta$  transgenic mice is abnormally delayed for an unknown reason during the thymocyte differentiation and that this is the reason why rearrangements of the endogenous  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  genes and subsequent generation of  $\alpha\beta$  T cells are not disrupted in these mice. We argue that this is unlikely for the following two reasons. First, when we examined the cell-surface expression of the transgene-

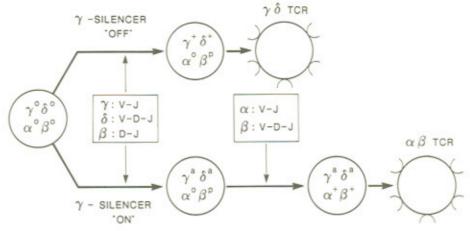


Figure 6. The silencer model of  $\alpha\beta$  and  $\gamma\delta$  T-cell differentiation. The various states of rearrangement of four TCR genes are indicated by superscripts. (0 and +) The gene is in the germ-line configuration and productively rearranged, respectively; (a and p) gene is in any state (i.e., in germ-line configuration, productively or nonproductively rearranged or deleted); (p) partially rearranged (i.e., D-J joined). The  $\gamma$  gene associated silencer is inactive in the  $\gamma\delta$  T-cell lineage (top) and is activated in the  $\alpha\beta$  T-cell lineage (bottom). The activation may occur either before any TCR gene is rearranged or after  $\gamma$  and  $\delta$  genes are rearranged but before  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  gene rearrangements are completed. See text for more details.

coded TCRγδ on fetal thymocytes, we found that the transgene-coded TCRs are expressed earlier than  $TCR\alpha\beta$  (data not shown). Second, in the  $\gamma\delta$  1355 transgenic mice, we observed a near complete inhibition of rearrangement of the endogenous  $\gamma$  and  $\delta$  genes. This inhibition most probably occurred by a mechanism analogous to the one known to form the basis for "allelic exclusion" of Ig and  $TCR\alpha\beta$  genes. According to the widely accepted model of allelic exclusion (Alt et al. 1987), Ig or TCR feed back as soon as they are expressed on the cell surface to corresponding genes and inhibit their rearrangement. Thus, if the surface expression of the γδ-transgene-coded TCRγδ had been abnormally delayed in the  $\gamma\delta$  transgenic mice, we would have expected rearrangement of endogenous  $\gamma$  and  $\delta$ genes and the surface expression of their products. Contrary to this prediction, we detected virtually no rearrangement and no cell-surface expression (Table 3) of the endogenous  $\gamma$  or  $\delta$  genes in the transgenic mouse γδ 1355. We therefore conclude that the transgene expression is not abnormally delayed in this mouse.

#### A Third Set of Transgenic Mice Support the Silencer Model

One prediction that could be made by the silencer model of T-cell development is that the generation of  $\alpha\beta$  T cells would be hampered in a transgenic mouse constructed with  $\gamma$  and  $\delta$  genes carrying no silencer element. We tested this prediction by constructing the third set of  $\gamma/\delta$  double transgenic mice using "short"  $\gamma$  and  $\delta$  gene clones (Fig. 5, clones pV5-2 and p $\delta$ 2). As in the KN6 transgenic mice constructed with the "long"  $\gamma$  and  $\delta$  gene clones, an overwhelming majority of the TCR  $\gamma\delta$  in these transgenic mice (called DEC transgenic mice) is encoded by the transgenes (Fig. 7A).

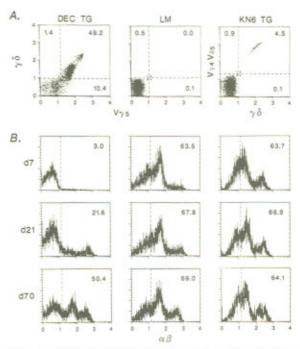


Figure 7. TCR  $\gamma\delta$  and TCR  $\alpha\beta$  surface expression by thymocytes from DEC transgenic, KN6 transgenic, and nontransgenic mice. (A) Thymocytes from 10-week-old DEC transgenic (left) and nontransgenic (middle) littermate and KN6 transgenic mice (right) were analyzed by two-color flow cytometry using anti-V, 5 MAb F536, anti- $\gamma\delta$  MAb 3A10, and anti-V, 4V<sub>5</sub>5 MAb 8D6. The number in each quadrant is the percentage of cells stained by one or both MAbs. Fluorescence intensity is expressed in log<sub>10</sub> units. For comparison, an analysis of age-matched KNG transgenic mice is shown. (B) Thymocytes from 7-, 21-, and 70-day-old DEC transgenic (left), nontransgenic (middle), and KN6 transgenic (right) mice were stained with anti-αβ MAb H57-597. The percentages of positive cells are indicated to the right of each histogram. Fluorescence intensity is expressed in log<sub>10</sub> units.

Although the number of TCR  $\gamma\delta^+$  thymocytes is 10- to 100-fold higher in the transgenic mice than in the non-transgenic littermates, the total number of thymocytes is greatly reduced because the development of  $\alpha\beta$  T cells is severely hampered (Fig. 7B). In older transgenic mice, some  $\alpha\beta$  T cells become detectable, most of which coexpress TCR  $\gamma\delta$ . Southern blot analysis of DNA extracted from the total thymocytes indicated that  $\beta$  gene rearrangement is blocked in these mice (M. Bonneville et al., in prep.).

# Recognition of a Self Histocompatibility Complex TL Region Product by $TCR\gamma\delta$

To understand the function of γδ T cells, it is essential to identify the putative ligand of the TCR. For this purpose, we prepared a number of γδ T-cell hybridomas from fetal and adult thymocytes and screened them for specificity using a growth-inhibition assay. It was previously shown that cross-linking the  $TCR\alpha\beta$ , which usually promotes growth of normal T cells, results in growth inhibition of T-cell hybridomas (Ashwell et al. 1987). Assuming a similar effect of TCRγδ cross-linking by a ligand, we cocultivated the γδ T-cell hybridomas with a variety of irradiated (6000 rads) test cells, and we measured the effect of these cells on the incorporation of [3H]thymidine into the DNA of the hybridomas. We identified one γδ T hybridoma, KN6, whose growth was inhibited by syngeneic (C57BL/6) but not allogeneic (BALB/c, CBA/J, and AKR/J) spleen cells (Bonneville et al. 1989). KN6 hybridoma growth was inhibited efficiently by thymocytes, peritoneal macrophages, splenocytes, cells from the Abelson transformed B6 T-cell line 2052C, and by PCC3 embryonal carcinoma cells. The response to syngeneic spleen cells was observed in three different CD3\* subclones of the KN6 hybridoma (KN6-7, KN6-12, and KN6-10) but not with TCR<sup>-</sup> variants of KN6 (KN6-19 and KN6-2), which indicated that growth inhibition was mediated by the TCR. This conclusion was further supported by the finding that the KN6 growth inhibition was blocked in a dose-dependent fashion by the anti-TCRγδ MAb 3A10 as well as by the anti-KN6 TCR clonotypic MAb 5C10 (Bonneville et al. 1989).

Since the KN6 hybridoma responds to syngeneic but not to allogeneic cells, the gene encoding or controlling the KN6 ligand must be polymorphic. To confirm this and to map the gene, the KN6 hybridoma was screened for reactivity with a panel of spleen cells from various mouse strains (Table 4). Linkage to the major histocompatibility complex (MHC) was demonstrated by results with congenic strains that differ only at H-2. Thus, KN6 cell proliferation was strongly inhibited by cells from H-2b strains, partially inhibited by cells from H-21 strains, and not affected by cells from H-24, H-2k, H-2°, or H-2° mice. Most importantly, the analysis of recombinant strains showed that the gene controlling the KN6 ligand is located in or distal to the TL region. This conclusion is based on the observation that the hybridoma responds to B6/Boy (KbDbQabTlb) and A.Tlab/Boy cells (KaDaQaa/TLb) but not to A/Boy (KaDaQaTLa) or B6.Tla/Boy (KDDQab/TLa) cells (Table 4).

Table 4. The Ligand Recognized by KN6 is Controlled by MHC Genes
Telomeric to the Q Region

	Region <sup>b</sup>				Percentage		
Strain*	K	D	Q	TL	phenotype	proliferation	
A.BY/SnJ	ь	ь	b	ь	+	-75	
C57BL/6J (B6)	b	b	b	b	+	$-76 \pm 12$	
C57BL/10SnJ (B10)	b	b	b	b	+	$-89 \pm 6$	
A.CA/Sn	f	f	f	f	±?	$-37 \pm 19$	
B10.M/Sn	f	f	f	f	±?	$-36 \pm 29$	
B10.D2/nSnJ	d	d	d	d	2	$+30 \pm 17$	
B10.BR/SgSnJ	k	k	k	k	-	$-5 \pm 12$	
P/J	p	p	p	p		$+31 \pm 27$	
B10.G/Sg	q	q	q	q	_	$+8 \pm 6$	
B10.RIII(7INS)/SnJ	r	г	T	г		$+11 \pm 2$	
B10.S/Sg	5	5	5	5	-	$+8 \pm 23$	
A/Boy	a	a	a	a	_	$+4 \pm 8$	
B6/Boy	b	b	b	b	+	$-85 \pm 4$	
A-Tla <sup>b</sup> /Boy	а	а	а	b	+	$-66 \pm 14$	
B6-Tla*/Boy	b	b	b	a		$-2 \pm 13$	

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Other + strains include BALB.B/Li, B10.A(2R)SgSnJ, B10.A(R149)-Tla<sup>b</sup>/Mrp, B10.A(R410)-Tla<sup>b</sup>/Mrp, B10.P(13R)/Sg, B10.SM(70NS)/Sn, and TBR2. Other - strains include AKR/J, A/WySnJ, BALB/c, B6-H-2<sup>k</sup>/Boy, B6.K1/Fla, B6.K2/Fla, B10.A/SgSnJ, B10.PL(73NS)/Sn, B10(R297)-Tla<sup>b</sup>/Mrp, B10(R310)-Tla<sup>b</sup>/Mrp, C3H/HeJ, and MA/MyJ.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup> Haplotype origin of region.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> + indicates strong inhibition. ± indicates possible intermediate inhibition. Results variable and not consistent. – indicated no inhibition.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>d</sup> Data shown are with a single clone, KN6-7. All experiments done at least twice, except with A.BY, which also tested + with the original KN6 line.

Table 5. Percentage of Homology of the cDNAs Encoding the Putative KN6 Ligand with Known Class I Molecules

	Gene	Exon							
Region		I	II	III	IV	V	VI		
H-2	H2-K <sup>d</sup>	55	71	62	92	43	52		
Qa-2, 3	Q10	52	72	60	95	36	49		
Tla	T3	48	66	56	92	41	46		
	37	52	71	65	95	39	39		

#### TL Gene That May Encode the Class I Molecule Recognized by KN6 TCRγδ

The embryonic carcinoma line PCC3 does not express class I H-2K, D, or L or class II I-A or I-E MHC molecules on their surface (Maher and Dove 1984; Stern et al. 1986), and yet it is specifically recognized by KN6 TCR. To determine the structure of the molecule recognized by KN6 TCRyδ, we made a cDNA library from this cell line and screened the library with a probe composed of the exon 4 region (Weiss et al. 1984), which is conserved among all MHC class I genes known to date. This led to the isolation of 12 cDNA clones that fell into 7 kinds on the basis of their nucleotide sequences. The gene represented by one and only one of these 7 kinds of clones was distinct from all known MHC class I genes and appears to belong to the TL gene family on the basis of the pattern of sequence homology in the various exons (Table 5). Thus, the product of this gene is a good candidate for the TLmapped ligand recognized by the KN6 TCRγδ.

# Fate of Self-reactive γδ Thymocytes in the KN6 Transgenic Mice

Recent studies suggest that T-cell tolerance is accomplished, at least in part, by intrathymic deletion of self-reactive  $\alpha\beta$  T cells (Kappler et al. 1987; Kisielow et al. 1988; MacDonald et al. 1988). We have begun studies to determine whether or not a similar deletion of self-reactive  $\gamma\delta$  T cells occurs. Since the KN6 TCR  $\gamma\delta$  recognizes syngeneic (TL<sup>b</sup>) thymocytes and splenocytes, we analyzed thymocytes and splenic T cells from the KN6  $\gamma\delta$  transgenic mice expressing MHC<sup>b</sup> or MHC<sup>k/d</sup> haplotypes. As shown in Table 6, nearly all  $\gamma\delta$  T cells bear TCR encoded by the transgenes regardless of the MHC haplotype of the host (i.e., MHC<sup>b</sup> or

MHCk/d). Furthermore, the number of γδ T cells present in either thymus or spleen is not lower in the MHCb mice than in MHCk/d mice. Thus, there was no obvious deletion of self-reactive γδ T cells. γδ Thymocytes isolated from MHCb hosts but not from MHCk/d hosts propagate rapidly in vitro in the presence of concanavalin A supernatant or recombinant interleukin-2. γδ Thymocytes derived from MHCk/d transgenic mice require, in addition to the lymphokine, stimulation by TLb ligand-bearing cells. The average density of TCRyδ is lower in the MHCb thymocytes than in MHCk/d thymocytes, suggesting the occurrence of receptor modulation in the former transgenic mice. These results indicate that the  $\gamma\delta$  thymocytes recognize and respond to the putative TLb ligand in vivo in the thymus of the KN6 transgenic mice.

#### DISCUSSION

Our study sheds considerable light on the characteristics of TCR $\gamma\delta$  and T cells bearing this receptor. Except for some yδ T cells associated with intestinal epithelia, the majority of γδ T cells develops in the thymus as  $\alpha\beta$  T cells do. However, there are a number of features that distinguish the two types of T cells. First, in mouse, γδ T cells constitute a relatively minor T-cell subpopulation in peripheral lymphoid organs, and they preferentially home to a variety of epithelial tissues. Second, whereas the TCR γδ expressed in the peripheral lymphoid organs are diverse, those expressed in some epithelia such as those of the epidermis (DEC or s-IEL) and reproductive organs (r-IEL) are encoded by specific  $\gamma$  and  $\delta$  genes and exhibit no structural diversity. Third,  $\gamma\delta$  thymocyte subsets having the same TCR as those of various peripheral T-cell subsets appear in ontogeny in ordered waves: Thymocytes corresponding to s-IEL and r-IEL appear in early and late

Table 6. Surface Expression of TCRγδ in KN6 γδ Transgenic Mice

Mice	H-2		Thymocytes (	$\times 10^{-6}$ )	Splenocytes ( × 10 <sup>-6</sup> )			
		total cells	γδ <sup>+</sup>	KN6 <sup>+</sup>	total cells	yδ *	KN6	
LM	b/k	99	0.1	0	152	0.89	0	
yδ	k/d	100	2.66	2.66	161	4.96	4.83	
y8	b/k	44	3.35	3.13	148	4.18	4.02	
γδ	b/b	24	1.83	1.79	106	4.16	4.18	

Thymus and spleen cell suspensions were stained with anti-δ (3A10) or anticlonotypic KN6 (5C10) MAbs. The H-2 haplotypes of nontransgenic and transgenic mice were determined by using anti-H-2<sup>K</sup> MAbs.

embryos, respectively, and thymocytes corresponding to spleen, lymph node, and peripheral blood T cells appear in postnatal animals. Fourth, there is a drastic shift in the diversity of TCRγδ expressed in fetal and postnatal thymuses: Fetal TCRγδ are virtually of two primary structures (those for s-IEL and those for r-IEL), whereas postnatal TCRγδ exhibit both combinatorial and junctional diversity. Fifth, in accordance with the fetal versus postnatal shift in the usage of  $\gamma$  and  $\delta$ gene segments and the receptor diversity, the intrathymic localization of γδ T cells changes drastically during the first few postnatal days: Fetal and neonatal γδ thymocytes are closely associated with medullary epithelial cells, whereas adult γδ thymocytes are scattered throughout the thymus and are most concentrated in the subcapsular areas. Sixth, although  $\gamma\delta$  and αβ T cells share common precursor cells, the two cell lineages seem to separate from each other early in differentiation with no coexpression stage. A transcriptional silencer element associated with the y gene seems to play a critical role in the branching of the two cell lineages. Seventh, at least some γδ T cells recognize a determinant encoded by a self-MHC gene mapped in or distal to the TL region. Preliminary data indicate that this gene encodes a new MHC class I molecule that is not known to present peptides to  $\alpha\beta$  T cells. Finally, at least some self-reactive γδ T cells, although activated in the thymus, are not deleted in the syngeneic thymus or spleen in contrast with the intrathymic deletion of some self-reactive  $\alpha\beta$  T cells.

Despite the considerable information that has accumulated during the past few years on  $TCR\gamma\delta$  and  $\gamma\delta$  T cells, the biological functions of these cells remain to be determined. Below, we wish to present some thoughts on this issue.

There is considerable evidence indicating that  $\gamma\delta$  T cells recognize molecules similar to but distinct from the MHC class I molecules that are used to present antigen-derived peptides to  $\alpha\beta$  T cells (this paper; Bluestone et al. 1988; Bonneville et al. 1989). Although there also are reports that some  $\gamma\delta$  T cells recognize allogeneic K or D region class I molecules or the I region class II molecules, these specificities may have resulted from cross-reactivity, since strong selective pressure was applied to detect them (Matis et al.

1987; Bluestone et al. 1988). Indeed, the recent finding (Y. Utsunomiya et al., unpubl.) that the subunit structure of CD8 molecules expressed on activated i-IEL and splenic  $\gamma\delta$  T cells is different from that expressed on  $\alpha\beta$  T cells supports the hypothesis that  $\gamma\delta$  and  $\alpha\beta$  T cells recognize distinct sets of class I (or class-I-like) molecules (Fig. 8).

If  $\gamma\delta$  T cells generally recognize distinct class I (or class-I-like) molecules, the next question is whether or not these class I molecules present peptides to  $TCR\gamma\delta$ , as do the MHC class I, K, D, and L molecules to  $TCR\alpha\beta$ . Although no direct evidence is available at the moment, the structural similarities both between the  $TCR\alpha\beta$  and  $TCR\gamma\delta$  and between the class I (or class-I-like) molecules recognized by the two types of TCR suggest that the ligands for  $TCR\gamma\delta$  generally include antigen-derived peptides (Fig. 8).

Are  $\gamma\delta$  T cells, then, specific to a variety of antigens as are  $\alpha\beta$  T cells and is the repertoire of the antigens recognized by TCRγδ more or less identical with that of the antigens recognized by  $TCR\alpha\beta$ ? Here, it would be useful to consider separately the two types of  $\gamma\delta$ T-cell subsets: one with a high degree of TCR diversity such as i-IEL and splenic γδ T cells and the other with invariant TCR such as s-IEL and r-IEL. In the former case, it is likely that the antigens (hence, the peptides derived from them) recognized by γδ T cells are structurally diverse. However, the antigenic repertoire for  $\gamma\delta$  T cells may be different from that for  $\alpha\beta$  T cells. Perhaps the class I molecules recognized by TCRγδ (hereafter, abbreviated as REγδ, antigen-restriction elements for TCRγδ) have evolved to present a special set of antigens to the immune system. The selectivity of REγδ for a particular set of antigens might be explained by postulating a special intracellular pathway of peptide loading for REγδ and/or common structural features of the presented peptides. A hint as to which set of proteins may be presented efficiently by REγδ has come from recent experiments that have shown the recognition of mycobacterial heat-shock-like proteins by some yδ T cells (Holoshitz et al. 1989; Janis et al. 1989; Modlin et al. 1989; O'Brien et al. 1989). It may be that γδ T cells with diverse TCR are primarily directed to a variety of mycobacteria and parasitical protozoa known to produce constitutively structurally

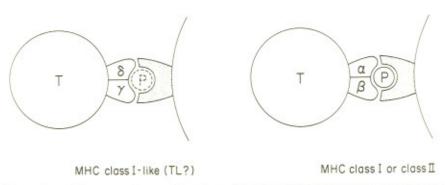


Figure 8. Comparison of the proposed recognition by a  $\gamma\delta$  T cell with the established recognition by a  $\alpha\beta$  T cell.

related but distinct heat-shock-like proteins. The effector function of the  $\gamma\delta$  T cells is unknown, but one might speculate that these cells play a role in the initiation or regulation of defense reactions by lymphokine secretion or elimination of undesirable cells such as persistent antigen-presenting cells.

In contrast with a γδ T-cell subset capable of recognizing structurally diverse ligands, a γδ T-cell subset with an invariable TCR must recognize an equally invariable ligand. Despite this important difference in the diversity of the ligands, it is likely that the basic composition (i.e., a peptide/RE complex) of the ligand recognized by the invariant TCR  $\gamma\delta$  is the same as that of the ligands recognized by diverse TCRγδ. Assuming that this is indeed the case, the key issue is again the origin of the peptide. Because it does not make sense for an organism to secure an entire subset of T cells localized in an organ for the protection against just a single foreign antigen, we should consider an alternative role and/or mechanism for the undiversified γδ T cells. Perhaps these γδ T cells recognize a tissue-specific host antigen whose synthesis may be induced in the epithelial cells by a variety of unfavorable stimuli, such as viral infections, toxic chemicals, radiation, heat shock, and malignancy (Janeway et al. 1988). One candidate of such a host antigen is a stress protein whose synthesis may be induced in tissue-specific fashion. Since at least some of these proteins are known to be structurally related to mycobacterial heat-shock-like proteins, it is conceivable that the peptides derived from them could also effectively bind to and be presented by REγδ. Since the postulated antigen is induced only under specific conditions, autoreactivity of these γδ T cells may not have any hazardous consequences but rather play an important regulatory and/or effector role. The peculiar specificity of γδ T cells envisaged in our model is somewhat reminiscent of the specificity of another class of lymphocytes, those called CD5 B cells. These B cells also appear to preferentially recognize common bacterial antigens as well as self-antigens.

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