

MINIREVIEW

The T-Cell Receptor as Immunoglobulin: Paradigm Regained (44181)

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Abstract. The quest to determine the molecular nature of T-lymphocyte receptors for antigen was a "holy grail" to immunologists for over 25 years. This paper updates a review written 15 years ago (Marchalonis JJ, Hunt JC. *Proc Soc Exp Biol Med* 171:127-145, 1982), which proposed that "these molecules apparently do not bear determinants specified by the major histocompatibility complex, but express Ig-related variable regions and constant regions unique to T-cell products." We review subsequent contributions from molecular biology, protein chemistry, peptide immunochemistry, and structural biology establishing that T-cell receptors (TCRs) are members of the immunoglobulin family restricted to T cells that share 3-dimensional structural features, sequence homology, antigenic cross-reactivity, and common mechanisms of diversification with conventional immunoglobulins. These molecules and their light and heavy-chain siblings appeared contemporaneously in vertebrate evolution with the emergence of sharks. We illustrate how extrapolation of concepts from immunoglobulin to T-cell receptors has aided in the understanding of these often enigmatic molecules, and, conversely, how concepts derived for T-cell receptors such as the role of "superantigens" can be directly applied to conventional immunoglobulins. A second precept that follows from the symmetry of the combining sites of Igs and TCRs is that MHC-restricted antibodies should exist. Such molecules have in fact been reported, and the x-ray crystallography for T-cell receptors suggests that the combining sites recognizing simultaneously MHC and peptide epitopes resemble the combining sites of antibodies directed against protein determinants. Additional immunoglobulin molecules of nonmammalian species have been detected and characterized based upon conserved homology to TCR and Igs, and it is anticipated that further study will enable the identification of more antigen-specific members of the family in mammals as well.

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It was established more than 25 years ago that two separate universes of antigen-specific lymphocytes existed (1). The first set, termed B cells for bone marrow-derived lymphocytes, were the precursors of antibody-forming cells and expressed membrane-associated forms of immunoglobulin on their surfaces as receptors for antigen (2, 3). The second lymphocyte type was termed T cells for "thymus derived" and was responsible for cellular immunity and collaborative interaction with B cells. Although T cells, like B cells, showed exquisite specificity in the recognition of antigen, they had the apparently unique and

provocative feature of recognizing antigen in the context of products of the major histocompatibility complex (4, 5). The quest to determine the molecular nature and functional properties of the T-lymphocyte receptor for antigen was “a search for the holy grail” and “a great controversy” challenging immunologists for over 20 years.

In 1982, Marchalonis and Hunt (6) reviewed progress in the characterization of the antigen receptor of thymus-derived lymphocytes and proposed that “these molecules apparently do not bear determinants specified by the major histocompatibility complex (MHC), but express Ig-related variable regions and constant regions unique to T-cell products.” This conclusion was based upon serological and biochemical analyses, which in general were limited in comparison to those for B cells because immunoglobulin-secreting plasmacytomas can produce large quantities of monoclonal Ig for study but T-cells express only membrane receptors and have not shown any capacity to secrete them in quantity. Consequently, a generally accepted solution to the T-cell receptor problem required the application of recombinant DNA technology. In 1984, two groups independently used subtractive hybridization approaches to generate cDNA clones from human (7) or mouse (8) T cells that were not expressed by B cells but showed clear homology to immunoglobulin λ light chains. Other workers rapidly joined the fray, and it was quickly established that humans and mice express two types of heterodimeric T-cell receptors with the predominant one consisting of α - and β -chains (9) and a minor one expressing γ - and δ -chains (10). It was then possible to use the derived amino acid sequences to construct computer models for the secondary and tertiary structure of these molecules and their interactive heterodimer (11–17). All of the approaches predicted an immunoglobulin Fab-like structure for the α/β heterodimer, with Novotny *et al.*, (12) stating that “a T-cell α/β receptor molecule probably has an antigen-specific binding site that is fundamentally no different than the conventional binding site of an antibody.” Although T-cell receptors (TCRs) are firmly anchored to the cell membrane *via* a transmembrane structure, and have not yet been found to be secreted in any appreciable quantity by living cells, numerous workers have now produced recombinant constructs of T-cell receptor Fv fragments (18–23), free α - or β -chains (24–26), intact glycosylated constructs (27) in quantity for studies of antigen specificity (19), mapping of functional epitope determinants (16, 20, 22), and determination of 3-dimensional structure by x-ray crystallography (24–29). The conclusions of the crystallographic studies confirm the fundamental immunoglobulin-like nature of the T-cell receptor; for one: “The TCR resembles an antibody in the variable $V\alpha$ and $V\beta$ domains but deviates in the constant $C\alpha$ domain and in the inter-domain pairing of $C\alpha$ with $C\beta$ ” (27).

This minireview updates that of 1982 (6) in the light of recent discoveries in molecular biology and protein chemistry. There are many excellent recent reviews of T-cell receptor genetics and function. Here, we focus on the Ig

characteristics of TCR and address four questions: (i) What is the relationship in an evolutionary sense to immunoglobulin light chains and heavy chains? (ii) How does the immunoglobulin structure of T-cell receptors contribute to our understanding of their unique recognition functions? Conversely, how does a knowledge of apparent T-cell properties such as reactivity with superantigens impact upon our understanding of recognition of B-cell superantigens by antibodies? (iii) How can products of different gene loci share antigenic markers such as idiotypes? (iv) Is there an expectation of further discoveries?

Gene Sequence Establishes TCRs as Immunoglobulin

A particularly vehement attack on the concept of the TCR as Ig, which was written in 1982 and entitled “The T lymphocyte antigen receptor—paradigm lost” (30), summarily dismissed all evidence for Ig, including idiotypic markers, on T cells. The authors argued that, because they had disqualified antibodies as the antigen-specific receptors on T cells and a larger family of possible cell-surface recognition molecules termed the Ig superfamily had recently been discovered, the T-cell receptors must be part of this superfamily. This group includes bona fide Igs and also marginally related molecules such as the Thy-1 alloantigen and cell adhesion molecules. Characterization of the genes specifying TCR, however, established immediately their similarities to Igs, particularly λ light chains (8, 9), and furthermore showed that they used the same mechanisms for the generation of diversity (GOD) that were used in the rearrangement of IgG segments (9, 10). The TCR segments, like those of Ig light and heavy chains, consisted of V, J, and sometimes D segments associated in translocon type organization with exons specifying constant domains. The recombination signal sequences and associated recombination activating genes were required for rearrangement of both immunoglobulin and TCR segments. Following the original characterization of TCR of humans and mice, explosive progress occurred with the extension of the studies to other mammals (31, 32), birds (33), and, most recently, amphibians (34, 35), bony fishes (36), and sharks (37, 38). In general, the combinatorial immune response that consists of bona fide rearranging immunoglobulins and the genetic mechanisms for V/D/J rearrangement is present in all jawed vertebrates from sharks to humans (39, 40). The phylogenetically early appearance of TCR coincident with that of Ig light and heavy chains establishes the fundamental importance to the system of both humoral immunity as represented by antibodies and cellular recognition as represented by TCR to the immune system. TCRs meet the rigorous definition for inclusion in the family of combinatorial Igs (40). Figure 1 is a dendrogram constructed using the program CLUSTALW that illustrates the evolutionary clustering of variable domains of TCR α -, β -, γ -, and δ -chains and Ig κ - and λ -light chains and V_H domains. Firstly, the TCR V domains cluster with Ig V domains, particularly with light

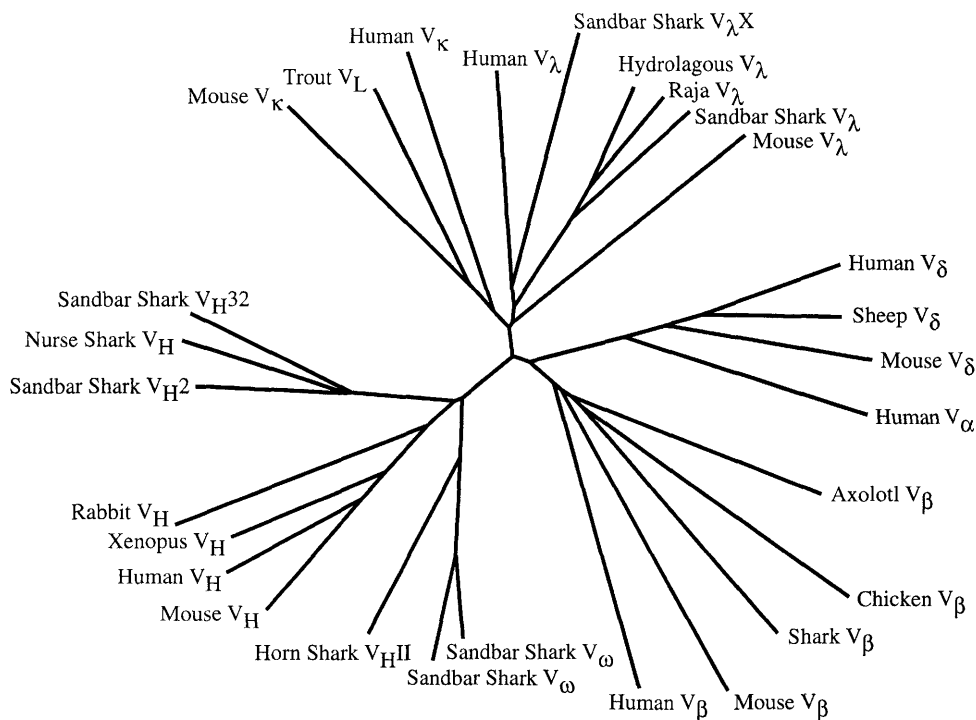


Figure 1. Diagram showing the relationships of immunoglobulin and T-cell receptor derived variable region domains. A phylogenetic analysis was performed using the computer program CLUSTALW (41), which uses the neighbor joining method (42). The radial tree was constructed from these results using the DRAWTREE program (43). Analyses were performed on amino acid sequences derived from gene sequence and are available from the Genbank database.

chains in accordance with previous cladistic analyses (39, 44) and general conclusions (7, 8, 12, 14). In the second place, the V β segments of diverse vertebrate species give a pattern consistent with phylogeny.

Figure 2 presents a similar analysis comparing constant (C) domains of TCRs and Igs with the outgroups here being the closely related membrane proximal domains of MHC molecules and β_2 -microglobulin and the distantly related superfamily molecule of moths, hemolin (46). This molecule, which appears in hemolymph following bacterial infection, consists of Ig C-like domains. In several comparisons of this nature, using various methods for the construc-

tion of dendograms (39, 40, 44), the C β domains cluster rather closely with C λ , but the quantitative similarity of C α to the other immunoglobulin C domains is not so clear. The identification of the V α domain with the other Ig V regions (see above) is unambiguous. The 3-dimensional models of C α constructed from sequence data indicate a compact Ig C domain structure (16) and crystallography indicates some deviation from the canonical Ig fold (27).

The TCR V α , V β , V γ , and V δ domains of humans and mice have been analyzed in great detail and found to be highly orthologous structures both in sequence and in arrangement of gene segments (48, 49). Figure 1, above, gen-

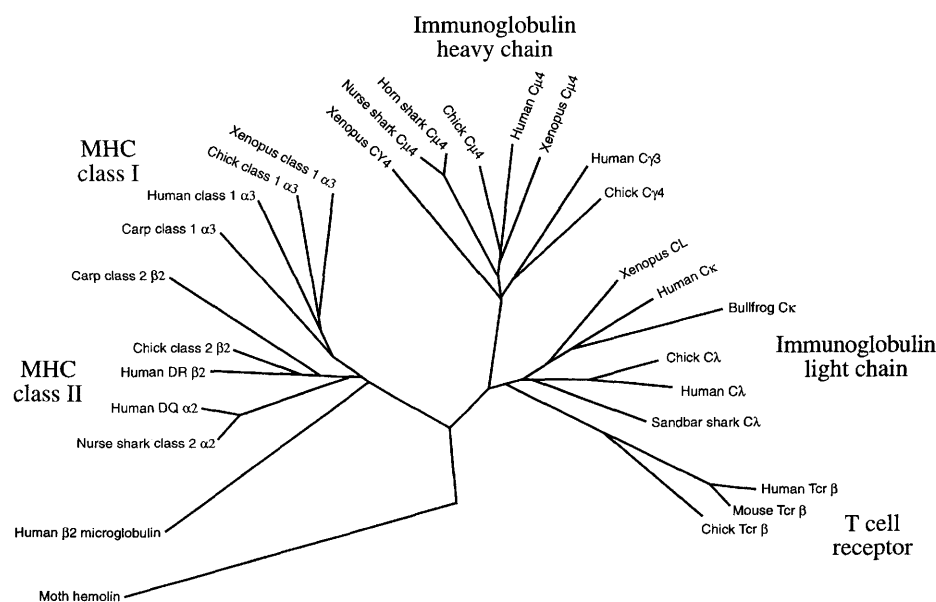


Figure 2. A rooted phylogenetic tree depicting the relationships of immunoglobulin constant type domains among family and superfamily members. The single constant domain of T-cell receptors and light chains was compared with the ultimate carboxyl terminal domain of heavy chains (e.g. C μ 4 for IgM, C γ 3 for IgG). Analyses of MHC products (39, 45) and hemolin (46) were restricted to the constant domain-like segments of these molecules. The tree was constructed using the progressive alignment procedure of Feng and Doolittle (47). Amino acid sequences derived from gene sequence were used in the analysis, and are available from the Genbank database.

eralizes the pattern of relationships for representatives of all gnathostomes. Figure 3 gives comparative alignments of representative Ig and TCR V β regions of mammals and sharks to emphasize maximum difference (or conservation) by comparing the two most distant living groups of jawed vertebrates. This figure illustrates the common features of Ig homology in evolution: (i) the molecules show >30% identity in sequence even though the ancestral divergence of humans and sharks was more than 450 million years ago (39), (ii) framework (Fr) and hypervariable (CDR) segments are readily apparent, (iii) strong conservation of sequence is maintained in segments forming β bands involved in inter- and intradomain contacts (27, 56), (iv) the fourth framework (Fr4), which is defined by the joining segment minigenes, is

highly conserved and discriminates between TCR/light chain and V_H domain sets (57, 58). The general opening Fr4 motif of the TCR/light chain set is FGXGT(R/or/K)T, whereas that of V_H , including the recently described IgW heavy chain of sharks (59), is WGXGT (uncharged). The positioning of CDRs as loops between β bands is similar in TCR, light chains, and heavy chains, although there is individual variation within the length of the hypervariable loops. Moreover, the HV4 (fourth hypervariable) or CDR4 that lies in the Fr3 of $V\beta$ has been identified as a major contributor to the binding site for superantigens (60). Furthermore, excess statistical variability and the formation of protuberances capable of binding superantigens also occur in comparable regions of Ig V_H domains (61–63) and V_L .

Figure 3. Comparative alignment of representative immunoglobulin and TCR β variable regions of mammals and sharks, assignment of framework (Fr) and complementarity determining regions (CDRs) is based upon Kabat *et al.* (50), as defined for V_H and V_L. HuV β 8.1 (I), human V β 8.1, subgroup I (7, 50, 51); rat V β 8.2 (II), rat V β 8.2 subgroup II (52); HnSV β , horned shark V β (37, 38); HuV λ V, human λ -chain subgroup V (53); SbSV λ , sandbar shark λ -chain V region (54); MuV κ , murine V κ subgroup V (50); HuVHIII, human V μ subgroup III (50); and SbSV ω , sandbar shark V region of IgW chain (55). Shading indicates residues identical in Ig and TCR β V domains.

domains (see below). This is an example of where we have learned about Igs from TCRS as opposed to the more common mode, where we have predicted TCR properties from those of Igs.

A comparative alignment of C_L -type domains including $C\lambda$ and $C\beta$ of humans and sharks is given in Figure 4. This illustration includes the location of the β bands defined by x-ray crystallography of the human $C\lambda$ molecule Mcg (64). Ig and TCR constant domains consist of two β -pleated sheets, one made up of four β bands and the other comprising three. Both variable and constant domains have this basic structure, but the V domains often have two extra β bands defining CDR2. There is substantial homology within the β bands of the constant domains compared here. This is particularly evident in the 4-2(B) band that is involved in forming the contact surface with either CH or $C\alpha$ respectively. In addition, the sentinel tryptophan (W) that is 14 residues distal to the first cysteine (C) is uniformly conserved. The constant domains of human and shark λ chains form extremely similar predicted 3-dimensional structures as illustrated by the similarity in β band size and sequence and length of intervening loops. Differences in length between the TCRs and $C\lambda$, and also in comparison between the human and murine $C\beta$ domains, are apparent in structures separating the β bands. The two most obvious are the extra length of the loops between β -bands 3-2(F) and 3-3(G) with much longer segments being present in the $C\beta$ with respect to the light chains. An additional excess length occurs between β bands 4-4(D) and 4-3(E) where the human and horned shark $C\beta$ have considerably longer stretches than do the $C\lambda$ domains. Furthermore, this segment distinguishes the human and murine $C\beta$, because the murine molecule is shorter in this region, and is more like

the light chains in this regard. It is of interest that the peptide sequence in this human loop forms an autoantigenic epitope (15, 16). Thus, the sequences of TCR V and C domains predicted from gene sequence are consistent with the "IgT" concept where TCR were hypothesized to have Ig variable domains, but constant regions distinct from those of classical immunoglobulins (6, 65). Thus, it would be proper to conclude that TCRs are new Ig isotypes that are expressed by T cells, but not by B cells.

Three-Dimensional Structure of the TCR and Peptide-MHC Binding

Restriction in T-cell recognition by the MHC presented a formidable theoretical barrier to the early acceptance of Ig as the antigen-specific TCR (4, 5). The dichotomy between recognition of "nominal" antigen and self MHC led to the formulation of competing hypotheses of "dual receptors" for each molecule on T cells as opposed to a "single receptor" that bound both simultaneously as a "neoantigen" (4). Molecular modeling based upon sequence analysis and, most recently, the direct determination of the 3-dimensional structure of TCR showing MHC-restricted binding established that the combining site is very similar to that of Ig Fab and recognizes peptide bound to MHC using a combination of CDRs contributed by the $V\alpha$ and $V\beta$ domains (27, 28). Characterization of a human peptide MHC-specific molecule (27, 28) and a murine MHC-restricted molecule (28) indicated that the contact regions resembled the undulating surfaces of antibodies directed against protein antigens (66).

Garcia *et al.* (27), in their analysis of the recombinant murine TCR 2C ($V\alpha 3$, $J\alpha 58$, $C\alpha$; $V\beta 8.2$, $D\beta 2$, $J\beta 2.4$, $C\beta 2$) molecule binding to the dEV8 peptide presented by MHC

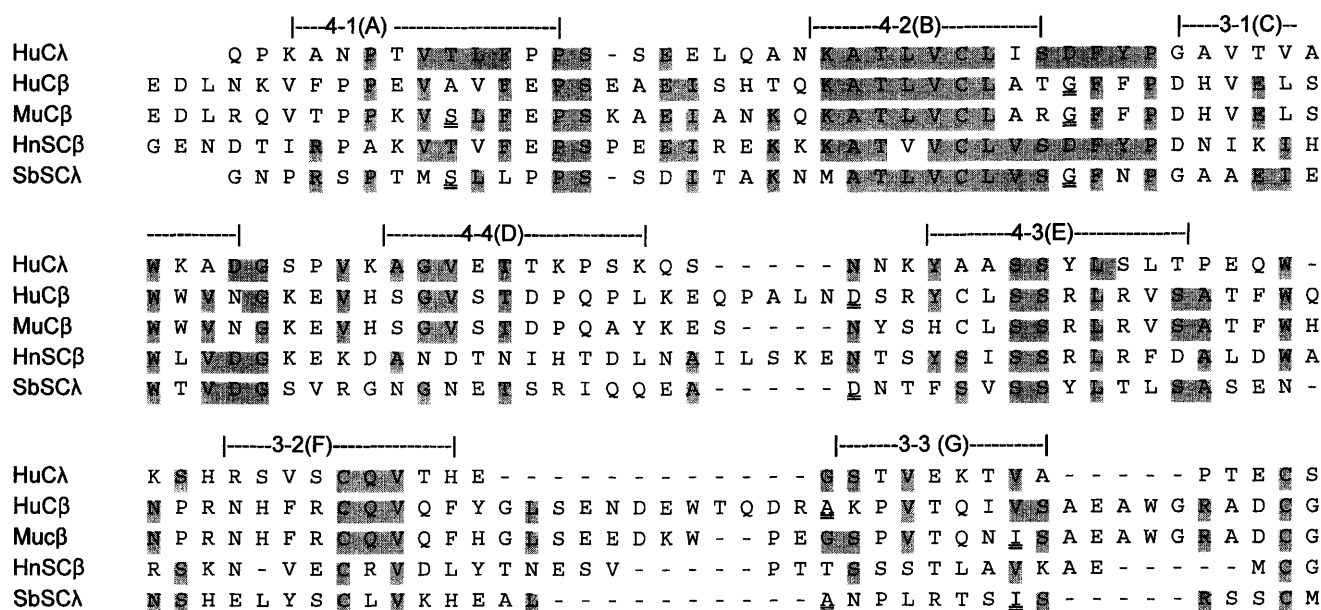


Figure 4. Comparative alignments of $C\lambda$ and $C\beta$ domains of mammals and sharks. HuCλ, human $C\lambda$ of Mcg (53); HuCβ of YT35 (7, 50, 51); MuCβ, murine $C\beta$ (50); HuS $C\beta$, horned shark $C\beta$ (37, 38); SbSCλ sandbar shark $C\lambda$ (54). β bands are those established by x-ray crystallography for Mcgλ chain (53). Shading indicates residues shared between $C\beta$ and $C\lambda$.

class I, showed that the TCR covered the MHC binding groove with V α CDR1 and CDR2 loops located over the N-terminal region of the bound peptide, and with the V β CDR1 and CDR2 positioned over the C-terminal segment of the peptide. The V α and V β CDR3 segments straddled the central region of the peptide within the MHC α 1 and α 2 helices. The HV4 (CDR4) segments of both V α and V β did not appear to be sufficiently close to the peptide MHC surface to participate in significant interatomic contacts.

In their crystallographic analysis at 2.5 Å resolution of the complex formed between the recombinant human $\alpha\beta$ TCR (A6), the HTLV-1 tax peptide and HLA-A. Garboczi (28) reported that the TCR-binding surface fits diagonally across the MHC peptide binding groove and covers nearly all of the exposed nonimeric peptide and a much larger area of the MHC surface. The CDR3s of both V α and V β chains meet at the center of the binding site over the central tyrosyl residue (Y). The CDR1 of V α extends from the peptide N terminus to Y5. The V β CDR1 lies over the C-terminal segment of the peptide close to Y8. The CDR2 loops of both chains lie over the MHC molecule, with the V α CDR2 above the α 2 domain α helix and the V β CDR2 above the α 1 MHC domain α helix. Overall, the A6 TCR like that of the 2C TCR above, has a flat contact surface formed by the CDR loops with a central pocket where the CDR3 loops converge. The structure resembles the contact surface of Fabs specific for protein antigens. Thus, the MHC restricted TCRs resemble a subset of antibodies in their combining sites. In the human A6 TCR, CDR1 loops 1 and 3 of both V α and V β contact the target peptide (nominal antigen) with all three V α CDRs in contact with HLA-A2 α helices. Only the CDR1 loop of V β contacts the MHC α helices. Thus, substantial agreement was found in the complexes formed by both human and murine MHC-restricted peptide-binding TCRs, but individual differences consistent with sequence and specificity distinctions were also apparent.

The mature TCR recognition repertoire is generated in the thymus during development by negative elimination of T cells that react strongly to self, and positive selection for T cells that show low affinity or avidity for self MHC (67). This process most probably results in the loss of the vast majority of potential α/β TCR, but enhances the probability of protective responses to viruses and other microbial pathogens located within cells. One would predict that the unselected TCR repertoire should resemble that of antibodies in having representatives that respond to conformational epitopes in the absence of MHC restriction. Consistent with this, examples of $\gamma\delta$ TCR reactive with nonpeptide ligands (68), as well as non-MHC-restricted recognition (69) have been reported. Conversely, since $\alpha\beta$ TCR that recognize peptide MHC complexes have structures resembling those of antibodies directed against proteins, it is legitimate to ask whether there are subsets of traditional antibodies that show MHC-restricted binding. The existence of antibodies recognizing antigen in the context of MHC was first shown by Ohno *et al.* (70) for antibodies directed against the H-Y

antigen in mice. Klinman *et al.* (71) subsequently developed monoclonal antibodies specific for viral antigens presented in the context of either H-2b or d haplotypes. They estimated that the frequency of responding MHC restricted B cells is approximately $1/10^5$, and that MHC-restricted antibody responses can constitute a significant portion of the repertoire to influenza virus. Stryhn *et al.* (72) used recombinant phage display techniques to generate a monoclonal antibody Fab that binds an influenza hemagglutinin peptide in association with a K^k MHC. Comparison with two MHC-restricted T-cell hybridomas established that the antibody and the T cells showed similar fine specificity profiles. Furthermore, monoclonal antibodies specific to HLA/myelin basic protein complexes have been generated in multiple sclerosis (73–76). These will be considered in more detail below. Such antibody constructs may serve as useful additional models for understanding the contribution of CDR loops to MHC-restricted recognition of antigen.

Recognition of Superantigens

The concept of superantigens (SAg) developed from the finding of selective mitogens that could stimulate subsets of T cells expressing particular V β gene products (77). Studies involving site directed mutagenesis demonstrated that critical residues involved in the recognition of SAg lay outside of the CDR loops required for binding of nominal antigen. These residues were proposed to be located in segments lateral to the solvent-exposed face of the V β domain (60). In particular, amino acid residues in V β -Fr1 and Fr3 segments including the HV4 region were identified. A more recent study using site-directed mutagenesis of the V β 10 domain in responses to Staphylococcal enterotoxins determined that residues in the CDR1 segment also were critical for recognition of SAg/MHC II complexes (78). Consistent with the involvement of CDR1, elimination of the glycosylation site at murine V β 2Asn24 (N24) by mutation to Gln(Q) or His(H) confers reactivity to the MIs-1 retrovirus-derived endogenous SAg. Determination of the crystal structure of the mouse TCR β -chain 14.3d (V β 8.2, J β 2.1, C β 1) complexed with either *Staphylococcus aureus* enterotoxins CII (SEC2) or C3 (SEC3) establish directly that residues in CDR2, and, to a lesser extent, in CDR1 and Fr3 (Hv4) bind in a cleft between the two domains of the SAg. Model building including V α indicated that the V α domain would make no direct contacts with the SAg, a conclusion that was expected since β -chain alone can bind these SAg (29). These results indicate that there can be considerable overlap between the SAg-binding and the peptide MHC-binding sites on TCRs. It is possible that SAg can act as a wedge between TCR and MHC to displace the antigenic peptide from the TCR-combining site (28), thereby eliminating specific peptide recognition.

The CDR1 loop is the least variable of the classical CDRs and has been considered a “public idotype” serving as a marker for a particular gene product (16, 79). Likewise, the FR3 segment which includes the HV4 of TCR and V_H

domains is a marker for the product of an individual variable domain gene. These conclusions can be applied to TCR and Ig light and heavy chains, but are particularly appropriate for TCR, which show little, if any, capacity for somatic mutation (9). Virally specified SAg such as MIs-1 are endogenously incorporated into the mouse genome, but recent evidence indicates the existence of other endogenous SAgS. Kazatchkine's group (80), for example, reported recently that polyclonal human IgG immunoglobulin can synergize with bacterial SAgS in proliferation assays. Consistent with superantigen-type activity of endogenous antibodies, we found that monoclonal murine autoantibodies selected on synthetic V β CDR1 peptide epitopes that also reacted with intact TCR acted synergistically with appropriate *S. aureus* SAgS (81). Such autoantibodies may function in immunoregulation by modulating the relative numbers of T cells expressing particular V β gene products during normal immunity (15, 82), autoimmunity (16, 82, 83), and retroviral infections (83–86).

Serological Cross-Reactions between Immunoglobulins and TCRs

Characterization of TCR genes showed that the molecules were members of the Ig family, but represented new chains or isotypes that had not been found previously in serum or on B cells. This would not be a surprising finding today because unusual Igs or new isotypes are frequently discovered using recombinant DNA technology. For example, heavy chains having novel properties such as an inability to combine with light chains because of deletion of needed residues have been found in mammals such as the camel (87) and in sharks (88). Furthermore, a new class of potential B-cell receptors incorporating a distinct subset of V_H segments (59, 89) and a heavy chain with six constant domains distinct from those of μ -chain has been reported (59). However, at the height of the controversy (30, 90) the emphasis was placed on disputing the production of conventional rearranged Igs, particularly V_H and V_H-defined idiotypic markers by T cells. Scientific disputes invariably reflect the state of knowledge or ignorance at the particular time. Serological approaches were considered confusing because only some antisera against Igs reacted with T-cell products. Our analysis indicated that the successful antisera reacted with T-cell receptors because of minor cross-reactions associated with the V domains (6). Rigorously specific antisera for C domains of κ and λ light chains and γ and μ heavy chains did not react with T cells or their products in our hands. A molecule isolated from a monoclonal T lymphoma by affinity chromatography had an N-terminal sequence consistent with that of TCR V β (91), but it was not practical to isolate sufficient protein from monoclonal T cells grown *in vitro* to obtain extensive physical chemical characterization.

However, on the basis of gene sequence, TCR chains showed extensive sequence homology to Ig chains. The homology (see above) was clearly recognizable in V and C

domains and was of the same order of magnitude as the identities found in comparing immunoglobulins of diverse vertebrate species with one another (39, 40). For example, it has long been known that antisera raised in rabbits will detect serological cross-reactions among Ig chains of many mammals (92) and even between homologous molecules of chickens and humans (93). TCR β -chains of humans and mice show extensive serological cross-reactions (94) consistent with high degrees of sequence identity, particularly in the constant domains and in direct comparison of orthologous variable domains. Certain human and shark λ -light chains show greater than 40% identity in sequence (95) and the μ -chains of the two show comparable identity (96). Consistent with this degree of sequence identity, serological cross-reactions mapping to defined peptide epitopes have been reported (97, 98). Thus, in retrospect it is not surprising for molecules such as T-cell receptor β -chains and light chains to cross-react serologically, because these molecules show on average greater than 30% identity to one another. We addressed this hypothesis directly by synthesizing nested hexadecameric peptides overlapping by five residues that duplicated the complete covalent sequence of the T-cell receptor β -chain specified by the *YT35* gene (14). As a calibration, we carried out a comparable synthesis duplicating the human $\lambda 5$ light chain Mcg (99). The cross-reactivity between TCR β -chains and Ig light chains was assessed by determining the capacity of rabbit antisera to human or murine Igs to react with these peptides. The antisera were a large panel that included commercial diagnostic reagents as well as antibodies used in previously published studies. The reactivities observed were consistent with homologies to λ and κ light chains as illustrated in Figures 3 and 4 above. The strongest reactivity in enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) binding and competitive inhibition was with a peptide that corresponds to the "switch peptide" of light chains. The sequence is encoded by the C-terminal region of J segment (Fr4) and the N-terminus of the constant domain. Other regions reactive with anti-light chain sera corresponded respectively to CDR1 and Fr3 segments of the V region. In the overall evolutionary context, it is noteworthy that the peptide segments modeling Fr3 and the joining segment were also major epitopes shared between light chains of sharks and humans. A C β epitope corresponding to a segment predicted to loop out of the tight globular structure between β bands 4-4(D) and 4-3(E) was also observed.

Possibly the most striking example of a shared epitope between TCR and light chain is that defined by the sequence of the joining segment of the TCR β -chain (57, 58, 100, 101) because antibodies raised against this segment bind to intact T and B cells in immunocytofluorescence (102), and react with appropriate intact immunoglobulins, light chains, and T-cell receptor in ELISA and Western blot assays. The peptide sequence used in immunization was ANYGYT-FGSGTRLTVV, which is shown in Table I aligned with a panel of synthetic peptides and corresponding sequences of

Table I. Summary Comparison of J Segment Sequences of Synthetic Peptides and Proteins Tested for Binding of Rabbit Antibodies to the Synthetic HuJ β 1.2 Peptide

																	Binding of anti-J β^a
Synthetic peptide	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	
	... CDR3 ...										----- Fr4 -----						
HuJ β 1.2	A	N	Y	G	Y	T	F	G	S	G	T	R	L	T	V	V	--- strong
J β 1.2 (12 κ)	A	N	Y	G	Y	T	F	G	S	G	T	K	L	T	V	V	--- strong
J β 1.2 (12T)	A	N	Y	G	Y	T	F	G	S	G	T	T	L	T	V	V	--- negative
J λ (Mcg)						V	F	G	T	G	T	K	V	T	V	L	--- moderate
J α (PY14)	S	A	S	K	I	I	F	G	S	G	T	R	L	S	I	R	--- moderate
Representative sequence																	
Chicken J λ					G	I	F	G	A	G	T	T	L	T	V	L	G --- negative
Mouse J κ (S107)					L	T	F	G	A	G	T	K	L	E	—	L	K --- moderate
SbS J λ (Ic5.1)					S	I	F	G	S	G	T	K	L	N	—	L	G --- moderate
Hu J κ (κ III)					R	T	F	G	Q	G	T	K	V	E	—	I	K --- moderate
Mouse J β 1.1	N	T	E	V	F	F	G	K	G	T	R	L	T	V	V		--- strong

^a Binding to synthetic peptides and proteins was assessed by ELISA and Western blot analysis. Binding was specifically inhibitable by appropriate peptides. Based upon data of references 14, 20, 45, 57, 58, 98, 101. Hu, human; SbS, sandbar shark.

light chains and TCR that either react with rabbit antibody to the synthetic J β sequence or do not bind. Analysis of the reactions of affinity purified rabbit antibody raised against the J β peptide on various purified immunoglobulins and T-cell receptors as assessed by Western blot analysis is shown in Figure 5. The anti-J β antibodies were analyzed extensively using synthetic epitopes as well as immunoglobulin (101) and were found to show extremely high specificity for an epitope defined by the conserved Fr4 signature sequence FGXGT(RorK)VL. Substitutions at the variable position X had little effect on the reactivity. However, the nature of the residue at position six is critical and must be either of the two positively charged amino acids arginine (R) or lysine (K). Substitution with neutral or negatively charged residues drastically reduces reactivity with antibodies, even with peptides identical at all other positions to the immunizing J β synthetic peptide. Rabbits, the species that produce the most useful antibodies tend to have a negatively charged residue (glutamic acid [E]) at the homologous position. Consistent with the sequence dependency for antigenicity, immunoglobulins of chickens and turkey fail to react with antibody. The anti-J β bound the synthetic J α peptide illustrated here, and reacted, as expected, with murine TCR β -chains as well as with light chains of humans and a variety of other species. In addition, a cross-reaction with immunoglobulin heavy chain of humans was observed and this is consistent with the crucial J β sequence being found in some human J H segments. Since the preponderance of recent studies is carried out using molecular biology, it is essential to establish that the gene products are actually synthesized and expressed. We were able to use this antibody in Western blot analysis of a detergent extract of sandbar shark spleen cells (Fig. 5B) to show that the TCR β -chain as well as Ig light chain were actually generated.

Sharing of Idiotypic Markers between Immunoglobulins and TCR

An ingenious approach to characterizing the antigen specific T-cell receptor was to produce antibodies against V region defined idiotypes of immunoglobulins and use these reagents in functional studies and isolation of T-cell molecules (103). A good deal of success was reported initially in this area by McKern *et al.* (104), Eichman and Rajewsky (105), and Binz and Wigzell (103, 106). Although idiotypes requiring interaction between V H and V L such as the anti-arsenate idiootype were reported to be associated with T cells (107), the most extensively described studies involved V H -linked (108–110) cross-reactive idiotypes (105, 106). These studies fell out of favor when it was established that V H genes are not rearranged in functional T cells (111). This finding cannot refute the "IgT hypothesis" because gene clusters encoding distinct Ig chains are, in general, unlinked. However, in its simplest form this finding was taken as definitive evidence that conventional V H structures could not form TCRs. Furthermore, its relevance to antigenic cross-reactivity was even less persuasive because peptide epitopes can be shared by products of unlinked genes that share a common evolutionary history as illustrated above. The question to be asked here is whether the recognition sites of distinct molecules, encoded by unlinked genes, can share antigenic cross-reactivity. This is an essential element of the internal image concept as recently reviewed by Bona (79). There are numerous examples of anti-idiotypic antibodies raised against high-affinity antibodies directed against hormone ligands that subsequently act as the ligand in physiological assays (112–114). A noteworthy example of idiootype cross-reactivity between the combining sites of two totally unrelated molecules was found by Volanakis and

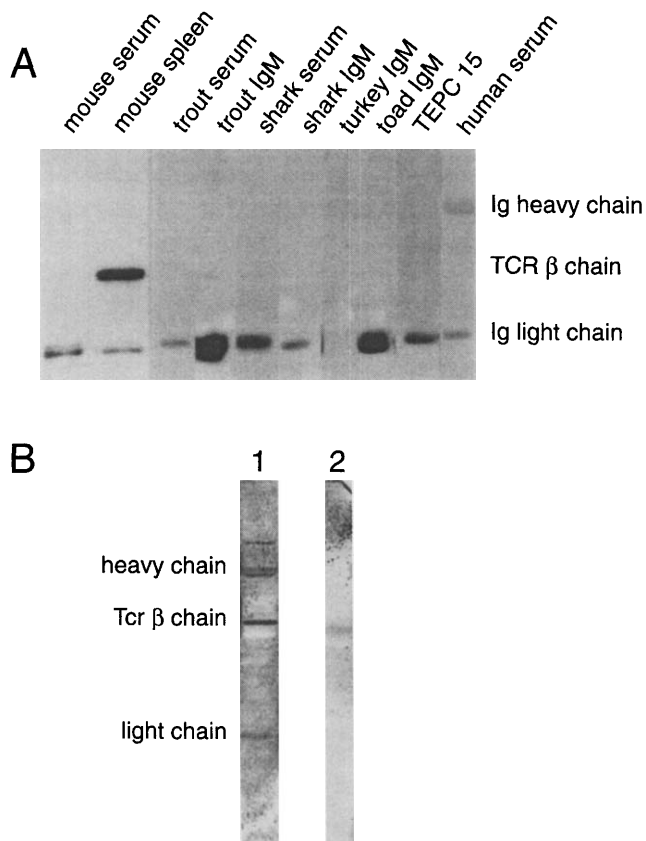


Figure 5. Immunoglobulin J segment cross-reactive epitopes are found on immunoglobulins and T-cell receptors throughout phylogeny. This is demonstrated here by the reactions of affinity purified rabbit antibody against the human J β peptide in Western blot analysis. (A) Reactions of whole serum, purified immunoglobulins, and tissue extracts as indicated. The mouse spleen sample was a Triton X-100 detergent extract of mouse spleen tissue. TEPC15 is a murine IgA/ κ monoclonal. Although many components are visualized by a protein staining (not shown) in the serum and tissue samples, the affinity purified antibody to J β peptide reacts with either few components which correspond to immunoglobulin or TCR chains or does not react at all (e.g., turkey IgM). (B) Identification of a candidate TCR β -chain in shark spleen. Lane 1 shows the reactivity of anti-J β antibodies with a Triton X-100 detergent extract of spleen tissue. The Ig heavy and light chains were identified with specific rabbit anti-shark Ig sera which did not stain the putative TCR β band. Lane 2 shows that all the reactivities are specifically inhibited with the free J β peptide.

Kearny (115), who showed that C-reactive protein, an acute phase protein that binds phosphoryl choline, possesses a determinant which is cross-reactive with the V_H-defined idio type of the phosphorylcholine binding myeloma protein TEPC-15. The conservation of the binding site geometry and idio type was found to be even more impressive because a lectin from the horseshoe crab *Limulus polyphemus*, which also binds phosphoryl choline, has definite sequence homology to C-reactive protein (116) and cross-reacts serologically with the human molecule (117, 118). Furthermore, certain monoclonal antibodies specific for TEPC-15 idio types show clear reactivity with both limulus lectin and C-reactive protein and will block the binding of the hapten. The cross-reactive idio type was defined by peptide se-

quence corresponding to the juncture of the CDR2 and Fr3 segments of the TEPC-15 V_H domain. A more recent example in which a sequence correlation was found between a T-cell receptor and a monoclonal antibody followed from the discovery by Zhou and Whittaker that monoclonal anti-idiotypic antibodies directed against murine monoclonal antibodies specific for a myelin basic protein peptide (MBP)(acetyl-19) could modulate T cells and the development of murine experimental allergic encephalomyelitis (72). A monoclonal antibody (F28C4) was found that binds the MBP acetyl peptide in an extended confirmation with the central residues more tightly bound than the terminal residues in a situation resembling that for the binding of MBP to T-cell receptors (74). The mAb used an unusual V λ light chain, V λ X, that showed 75% overall sequence homology between the regions that contain the CDR3 of the light chain V_L and V_H and the VDJ junction of a TCR β -specific for myelin basic protein. Interestingly, a panel of V λ X-containing monoclonal and polyclonal antibodies bound myelin basic protein, but were not polyreactive with other potential self antigens (75). The V_H domain apparently did not contribute to the cross-reactive Id because Igs containing the same heavy chain but distinct V_L usage were unreactive. Thus, both theoretical and biochemical data exist supporting combining site-related Ids shared among different molecules and between TCR and conventional Ig-V domains.

Modeling of T-Cell Receptors Based upon Immunoglobulin Homology

Igs usually consist of disulfide bonded heterodimers (and multiples thereof) comprising a short subunit containing one V- and one C-domain (light chains or TCR chains) and a longer segment containing one V- and two to six C-domains (the heavy chain). In the case of conventional Igs, the class or isotype is defined by the heavy chain involved. TCRs are heterodimers of short subunits α/β or γ/δ and have not been formally given isotypic designation, although they are Igs restricted in expression to T cells. It is noteworthy that the short V-C subunits show much greater diversity in evolution than do the heavy chains (40), although all meet the criterion of showing 30% or better identity to immunoglobulin domain prototypes (39). All are products of rearranging gene segments, V, J, and sometimes D in the formation of the intact variable domain. Another feature of the Ig family, as opposed to the superfamily, is that non-Ig domains are not covalently incorporated into either classical Igs or TCRs. A number of investigators have utilized the homology between TCR and immunoglobulin domains to construct models of secondary (11) and tertiary structures (12–14). Such models have been constructed based upon detailed comparisons with individual characterized immunoglobulin light chains (14–16) and also by alignments against a large panel of known light chain structures (13). In principle, the results are the same in providing

tentative models that T-cell receptor V regions are conventional V regions and that the constant domains of β -chains and α -chains resemble immunoglobulin C domains in sandwich β -pleated sheet structure, but show differences such as the presence of extra long loops directed towards the variable domain (14, 16, 119) and predicted compact size (α -chain). The crystallographic data for murine β -chains (120) confirms directly the presence of one of these loops, but the structure of $C\alpha$ has not yet been determined because it is "disordered" in the recombinant Fab structure analyzed (28). Here, we will focus on the Ig structure of the TCR β -chain and its comparison with light chains because of its clear-cut nature and the larger amount of evidence presently available.

Figure 6 illustrates salient features of T-cell receptor structure based upon direct comparison with characterized λ light chains (A), a schematic alignment of a universal TCR/Ig V_H and V_L domain (B), and depicts a three dimensional representation of V_L and $V\beta$ domains illustrating the relative positions of CDRs 1, 2, 3, and 4 (C). The overlap of the derived structure of the YT35 human β -chain ($V\beta 8.1/D\beta 1.1/J\beta 1.2/C\beta 1$) on the 3-dimensional structure of the human λ light chain Mcg ($V\lambda 5$) based upon x-ray crystallography (53) illustrates that the V domains both have the typical immunoglobulin domain structure consisting of one sheet of four β -pleated strands and the second containing three. The region corresponding to CDR2 lies between two structures which have certain characteristics of β bands in light chains, but are not completely characteristic. However, in heavy chains these tend to be the extra clearly defined β bands termed C' and C'' . The conventional CDRs are in the same relative positions in $V\lambda$ and $V\beta$, but there are differences in length in comparison of individual molecules. Overall, the CDR1 $V\beta$ domains tend to be shorter than those of $V\lambda$ domains; for instance, fourteen residues in Mcg as opposed to ten in the YT35 β -chain. The CDR1 is the least variable in T-cell receptors (7-9). The location of HV4 (CDR4) is in the loop connecting β bands 4-3 (E) and 3-2 (F). The location expanded in Figure 6C is indicated here by shading. $C\beta$ and $C\lambda$ domains have the characteristic immunoglobulin constant domain 4-3 β -banded structure but differ in the size of the loops connecting the β bands. In particular, the large loop connecting bands 3-3 (G) and 3-2 (F) is considerably larger in the $C\beta$ than it is in the $C\lambda$ and is large enough to interfere structurally with the rotation of the $V\beta$ domain. A second extra large loop that can interfere with rotation of the $V\beta$ connects β 4-4 (D) and 4-3 (E) in the human structure. This loop in the mouse would be roughly the size of that found in the light chain domain. This $C\beta$ loop segment in humans is a site for N-linked glycosylation and is also a target for autoantibodies (16).

The line diagram in Figure 6B is a schematic representation of an intact variable segment formed by recombination of the germline V segment with appropriate D and J minigenes. It represents the position of frameworks and the four hypervariable segments in their relative positions in

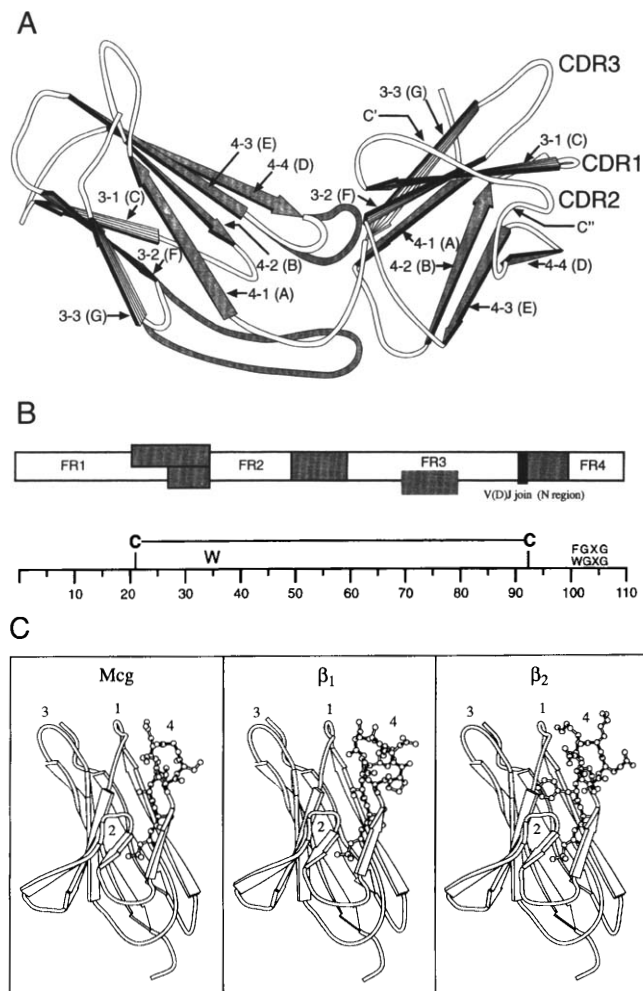


Figure 6. Models of TCR structure based upon comparison with Ig light chains. (A) Three-dimensional model of Ig domains of human TCR β superimposed onto the structure of the human λ light chain Mcg. Excess loops of the β -chain are indicated. (Based upon Refs. 14, 16, and 53.) (B) Schematic line diagram for a universal TCR, light-chain, and heavy-chain variable domain illustrating locations of framework segments (Frs), classical complementarity domains (CDRs), and the HV4 or CDR4 involved in binding of superantigens. (C) Left, MolScript model (121) of the V domain of the Mcg λ -type immunoglobulin light chains (53). Complementarity-determining regions (CDR) which contribute to an antigen-combining site of an antibody are labeled 1, 2, and 3. The loop labeled 4 is a ball-and-stick model of both polypeptide backbone (black) and side chain (white) atoms representing the sequence marked CDR4 in Table I. Middle, model of the Mcg V domain with the CDR4 sequence of a human $\beta 1$ T-cell receptor grafted onto loop 4. This model was slightly altered by interactive model building and positional refinement to optimize the positioning of side chains. Right, Mcg V domain model with loop 4 modified to accommodate the CDR4 sequence of a human $\beta 2$ T-cell receptor.

V_L , V_H , and $V\beta$ structures. The alignments given in Figure 7 compare the framework 3 regions of TCR β -chains and immunoglobulin κ and λ light chains. The type 1 β -chains have many common structural features shared with the light chains; in particular, a recognizable Asp-Arg-Phe-Ser-Ser (DRFSS) motif four or five residues distal to the initial Gly, and an Asp 6 residues N-terminal from the Cys residues at the carboxyl terminus. This region contains regulatory idiotopes of light chains (122, 123) and superantigen binding

FR3 AMINO ACID SEQUENCES

		---4-4(D)---	---4-3-(E)---	---3-2-(F)---
HuVβ8.1 (I)	G	- M P E D R F S A K M P N - A S F S T L K I Q P S E P R D S A V Y L C A		
MuVβ11 (I)	G	- M P K E R F S A Q M P N - Q S H S T L K I Q S T Q P Q D S A V Y L C A		
HuVβ3.1 (II)	G	D I P E G - Y S V S R E K K E - F S - L I L E S A S T N Q T S M Y L C A		
MuVβ8.2(II)	G	D I P D G - Y K A S R P S Q E N F S - L I L E L A T P S Q T S V Y F C A		
HuVλ V	G	- V P - D R F S G S K S G - - N T A S L T V S G L Q A E D E A I Y Y C S		
MuVλ	G	- V P - A R F S G S L I G - - D K A A L T I T G A C T E D E A I Y F C A		
HuVκI	G	- V P = S R F S G S G S G - - T D Y T F T I S S L Q P E D I A T Y Y C Q		
MuVκV	G	- V P - S R F S G S G S G - - T D Y S L T I S N L E O E D I A T Y F C Q		
HuV _H III	G	- - - - R F T I S R D N S K N T L Y L Q M N S L R A E D T A V Y Y C A		

Figure 7. Comparative alignment of Fr3 segments of human and mouse TCR β-chains, κ and λ light chains, and a human V_H sequence (18/2 from Kabat *et al.* [50]). TCR β Type I and II chains are as defined by Kabat *et al.* HuVλ V is the human λ light chain Mcg, MuVλ is MOPC315, HuVκI is REI, and MuVκV is a Vκ10 sequence (122). The location of β bands 4-4 (D), 4-3 (E), and 3-2 (F) are based upon crystallographic studies of Mcg (53). The residues EN in the mouse Vβ8.2 sequence are those identified by Pullen *et al.* (60) as involved in recognition of Staphylococcal superantigen. The underlined residues in the MuVκV sequence are implicated in the formation of the A48 regulatory idiotope (122). The underlined residues in the HuV_H III sequence are those identified by Hillson *et al.* (61) as implicated in the binding of Staphylococcal protein A. In the numbering system of Kabat *et al.* (50), the conserved RF sequence corresponds to residues 64 and 65 in the Vβ, 61 and 62 in the light chains, and 66 and 67 in the V_H. The universally conserved CYS corresponds to position 92 in Vβ, 88 in the light chains, and 92 in the V_H.

sites in Vβ chains (29, 60) and in V_H domains (124). Except for the human VκI (Rei) used in this comparison, all of the sequences have a leucyl residue (L) 15 residues N-terminal to the Cys. This highly conserved residue lies in β band 4-3 (D) and is buried within the 3-dimensional structure of the domain. The assumption of a common root for Ig light chains and TCR chains can readily be tested by comparisons of both CDR and Fr segments within the V domains. One of the most interesting sets includes the residues between CDR2 and CDR3, referred to as Fr3 in immunoglobulin terminology (50).

Note that the carboxyl-terminal segments of Fr3 are extremely conserved around the cys residue participating in the intra-domain disulfide bond as illustrated here. At the beginning of Fr3, TCR molecules of the β1, but not the β2, subgroup, also share the canonical λ-chain sequence of DRFSS. These residues complete the turn leading to the outer strand (4-4) of the 4-chain β-pleated sheet. A conserved aspartic acid residue nine positions from the end of the Fr3 of the Bβ1 chain is repeatedly seen in immunoglobulin chains as part of a distorted helical turn at the distal end of the V domain. However, no specific functional role for this residue has been identified in a typical λ light chain like Mcg (53).

Within the boundaries assigned originally to Fr3 in light chains, a fourth hypervariable region was later defined for immunoglobulin heavy chains (125) and subsequently for TCR chains. This region corresponds to the last two residues of β strand 4-4 (D), the first five residues of β strand 4-3 (E), and the segment bridging the two. In the model of the polypeptide backbone shown for the Mcg backbone in Figure 6B (left panel), this region is the most lateral of the 4 CDR loops at the tip of the V domain. It is located well away from the conventional antigen combining sites of an antibody. In the latter, CDRs 1, 2, and 3 of the light chain are arranged around a pseudo 2-fold axis of

rotation with their counterparts from a heavy-chain V domain to form active sites of highly diverse shapes and sizes. Two segments listed in Figure 2A illustrate the range of the diversity found in CDR4. In the human Vβ8.1 (type I), the CD4 nonapeptide has no formal electrical charges, while human Vβ3.1 (type II) contains three positively charged residues (Arg, Lys) and two negatively charged Glu residues. In the middle and right panels of Figure 6B, the side chains of representative β1 and β2 CDR4 segments are grafted onto a MOLScript model (121) of the V domain of the Mcg λ-chain (53). This model has been given an orientation to provide clear views of the CDR4 side chains. It is evident that the key side chains protrude into the solvent space and are readily accessible for binding to superantigen molecules. In the examples presented, the cognate antigens are likely to be polar but uncharged when attracted to the type I receptor. For interactions with the type II receptor, the antigen determinants are expected to include oppositely charged groups arranged in a pattern compatible with the distribution of the long side chains of the CDR4 loop. Most murine studies have involved the Vβ type II structure because products of Vβ8 genes dominate in expression in inbred mice (126). A similar protruding structure has been proposed for the superantigen binding site of V_H3 heavy-chain domains (62).

On the teleological principle that Nature would be loathe to waste a good design, we often wondered in the early days of the x-ray analysis of Igs why the prominent and accessible lateral loop now called CDR4 was retained in the evolution of these molecules. That question was decisively answered when the CDR4 residues in T-cell receptors were identified as constituents of putative binding sites for superantigens (29, 60) and for microbial proteins in the case of V_H domains (61, 63). As Figure 6C clearly shows, it is straightforward to place β-chain sequences onto λ-chain scaffolding. One of the best markers to illustrate the simi-

larities in the three models is the Leu side chain which terminates the CDR4 loop just below and to the right of the CDR2 loop. Thus, the well-established crystal structure of immunoglobulin domains (53, 66) coupled with the sequence homologies to immunoglobulin provided very useful means of predicting general structural features and active sites in the products of T-cell receptor genes. Conversely, findings of reactivity to superantigens by products of individual V β genes provided a guidepost for reinterpreting immunoglobulin structures in defining a fourth hypervariable region that has proven to be functional as an idiotypic marker for products of particular V $_L$ genes (123) and a recognition site for microbial proteins in heavy chains.

Conclusions and Unresolved Issues

The concept of a specific antigen receptor on lymphocytes was fundamental to Burnet's clonal selection theory (127) and to early theories of the regulation of specific immunity (128, 129), but this receptor could not be characterized in more detail than to consider it to be "antibody-like." This was essentially the "minimal hypothesis" (2), which became more sharply focused as knowledge of immunoglobulins grew to include the precept that distinct isotypes defined by individual heavy-chain constant domains could bear the same combining sites for antigen in terms of specificity and idiotypic cross-reactivity. A critical conceptual stumbling block facing the concept of the TCR as immunoglobulin was the propensity for TCR to recognize peptide antigens presented by the MHC. This property was not considered a defining characteristic of the antibody combining site. Moreover, some investigators found that antisera and isolation conditions eminently suitable for study of B cells surface Ig did not allow the isolation of the Ig-like product of T cells (3, 130). Furthermore, the association of combining sites with V $_H$ -defined idiotypes was questioned when it was established that the V $_H$ segments did not rearrange within T cells. A further complication was that T cells do not secrete large quantities of T-cell receptor and the few molecules associated with the plasma membrane (approximately 10⁴ per cell) rendered it practically impossible to obtain enough material to carry out detailed studies. However, it was possible to obtain microgram quantities for immunization and partial sequence characterization (131–134). The isolation of cDNA products specifying TCR α , β , γ , and δ genes allowed direct comparison with the sequences of Ig chains and, through recombinant DNA technology, enabled the construction of TCR domains and intact structures for functional, serological and physicochemical analysis.

All of the latter approaches supported the hypothesis that the TCR was a novel form of Ig restricted to T-cells. This novel Ig showed characteristic features of members of the Ig "family" sequence homology, the requirement for the same rearrangement mechanisms found for other Ig chains, and the early evolutionary appearance coincident with that of Ig light and heavy chains. Furthermore, TCRs

do not form covalent association with non-Ig domains which is a frequent occurrence among members of the broader "superfamily." Recent crystallographic studies, moreover, establish that the representative MHC-restricted $\alpha\beta$ TCR of humans and mice have combining site surfaces resembling those of antibodies specific for protein antigens. The ability to recognize nominal antigen, here a peptide, as well as the surface α -helices of the MHC did not require the addition of special combining sites, but were carried out using traditional CDR1, CDR2 and CDR3 segments. Furthermore, crystallographic analysis of the binding of a murine TCR β chain to Staphylococcal superantigens indicates that the traditional CDRs 1 and 2 as well as the CDR4 located in Fr3 on the lateral face of the V domain participate in binding of these molecules reactive with individual germline gene products. It is worthwhile to note here that the concept of a fourth hypervariable region in this segment was first proposed by Capra and Kehoe in 1974 (125) based upon analysis of heavy chain variable region sequences. In this case, the concept of superantigens developed for T cells was directly applicable to understanding exposed loops in both Ig V $_H$ and V $_L$ domains with a number of recent studies demonstrating the existence of superantigen binding sites in V $_H$ 3 (61, 62) and V $_H$ 4 (63) domains. Consistent with the role of Fr3 segments in defining SA-reactive sites of V $_H$ and V β , the segment of light chains is responsible for the definition of public idiotopes found in rheumatoid diseases (123).

The recent crystallographic studies of a few TCR have proven to be extremely encouraging to our understanding of TCR structures. However, parallels to the situation with conventional B-cell-derived Igs will no doubt hold. Foremost among these is the expectation that the individual monoclonal receptors generated by recombinant DNA technology will show considerable variation from one to another in combining site structure and possibly in other regions as a result of significant mutations elsewhere in the framework or CDR regions. This is the situation which has been found in detailed structural analyses of individual monoclonal Igs derived originally from multiple myeloma or subsequently, by forming hybridomas secreting monoclonal antibodies of defined specificity.

The breakthrough that enabled the isolation of cDNA copies of T-cell receptor genes was the application of subtractive hybridization (7, 8) in which mRNA specifying B-cell products were removed and message specifying proteins in a size range under 60 kDa were selected. Might it be possible that other receptors were missed because of these two considerations? It is probable that larger molecules would not be found, and this is a worthwhile consideration because products of approximately 90,000 that are serologically related to T-cell receptor α -chains have been reported (136). Do the Ig properties of T-cell receptors provide a means for isolating the TCR genes and proteins? Without rehashing early experiments, it can be concluded that antibodies cross-reactive between TCR and immunoglobulins

could be readily produced following alignment of sequences and synthesis of peptides corresponding to regions of strong identity. One of the most clear-cut of these is the joining segment peptide of light chains and TCR β -chains that show strong homology including the characteristic presence of a large positively charged arginine or lysine such that immunization leads to the production of antibodies reactive with light chains and TCR β -chains in vertebrate species ranging from sharks to humans. This segment was not suitable for the generation of DNA oligomers because of considerable degeneracy. However, a highly conserved stretch of sequence around the initial cys in the disulfide loop of the C β domain had a sequence also shared by λ -light chains and some heavy-chain constant domains (137). Construction of polymerase chain reaction primers from this region allowed the isolation of TCR β -chains and immunoglobulin light chains, and also the discovery of a new heavy chain consisting of one variable and six constant domains (55).

Thus, we suggest that the antigen-specific TCRs are ancient and well-established members of the family of rearranging Igs and that their binding and functional properties can now be analyzed in great detail. Some surprises may still be found in the discovery of new antigen receptors built according to this general design plan.

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