

Crucial role of the pre-T-cell receptor α gene in development of ap but not $\gamma\delta$ T cells

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ment resumed. In this sense, it is important to note that after the zeugopodal defect, limb development does proceed in the double-mutant mouse, albeit with some dysmorphology. But clearly the autopod is less affected than the zeugopod. The autopodal phenotypes distal to the major zeugopodal defects are likely to be the result of a coupling between proximodistal and anteroposterior patterning^{24–28}. This coupling may be genetic, with group 11 genes directly influencing the timing of activation of group 12 and group 13 genes. Alternatively, morphological coupling may account for these defects. The elimination of both hoxa-11 and hoxd-11 gene products may reduce the overall mesenchymal cell population available to form the zeugopod and posterior carpals. A deficiency of cells may also alter the timing ('heterochrony') of formation of the rest of the limb. The second crisis would therefore be revealed at the end of autopod formation, when cartilaginous elements are competing to recruit the few remaining cells. This heterochrony would explain the delay in digit condensation seen during embryogenesis of the double mutant and account for the more severe phalangeal defects seen in digits II and V, which are the last elements formed in the last digits specified.

It is interesting that in the double mutants the forelimbs are more affected than the hindlimbs. Also, whereas (aa; Dd) and (Aa; dd) mice show an intermediate forelimb phenotype, the presence of a third mutant allele does not alter the hindlimb phenotype beyond what is seen in (aa; DD) or (AA; dd) mice. These differences may be a consequence of a third paralogue, hoxc-11, which is expressed more strongly in the hindlimbs² and could provide a compensatory function. This hypothesis would predict that in (hoxa-11, hoxc-11, hoxd-11) triple mutants, the tibia and fibula would be completely eliminated and show quantitative dependence on the dosage of mutant alleles. Also, the last vestige of the forelimb radius and ulna observed in the double mutant would be predicted to be absent.

Our model is supported by the hoxd-13 mutant mouse in which the mutant limb phenotype is restricted to the autopod¹³, and predicts that in a (hoxa-13, hoxd-13) double mutant the forepaw should be absent. hoxd-12 has no paralogue in the Hox A family and may therefore act on its own (or in conjunction with hoxc-12) to influence formation of the carpals and tarsals. Alternatively, hoxd-12 may recruit its closest Hox A paralogue (hoxa-11 or hoxa-13) to help specify this region. Single-mutant mice for hoxa-10, hoxc-10 and hoxd-10 should show subtle defects in the humerus and femur, but double and triple mutants should affect strongly the entire stylopod and initiate a cascade of less severe phenotypes downstream through the zeugopod and autopod. Consistent with the model, individual hoxd-10 and hoxc-10 mutant homozygotes show mild malformations of the humerus and femur (E. M. Carpenter, J. M. Goddard and M.R.C., unpublished results; S. L. Hostikka and M.R.C., unpublished results). From this model, the appendicular ground state would be achieved in an animal lacking all of the Hox 10-13 cognate genes. This should be a limbless mouse.

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Crucial role of the pre-T-cell receptor α gene in development of $\alpha\beta$ but not $\gamma\delta$ T cells

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In T-cell precursors, the T-cell-receptor β chain is expressed before the T-cell-receptor α chain^{1,2} and is sufficient to advance T-cell development in the absence of T-cell receptor α chains³⁻⁷. In immature T cells, the T-cell-receptor B protein can form disulphidelinked heterodimers with the pre-T-cell-receptor α chain^{8,9} and associate with signal-transducing CD3 molecules⁵. The recently cloned pre-T-cell-receptor a gene encodes a transmembrane protein that is expressed in immature but not mature T cells^{9,10}. Here we show that $\alpha\beta$, but not $\gamma\delta$, cell development is severely hampered in pre-T-cell-receptor a-gene-deficient mice, which establishes a crucial role for the pre-T-cell receptor in early thymocyte

Intrathymic T-cell development proceeds from CD4⁻8⁻ precursors through CD4+8+ intermediates into CD4+8-CD4⁻⁸⁺ mature thymocytes^{3,11}. In rearrangement-deficient mice, thymocyte development is arrested at the CD4⁻⁸-3^{low}25⁺ stage 6,7,12 . Productive T-cell-receptor (TCR)- β transgenes can partly relieve the developmental block, allowing the accumulation of immature CD4⁺8⁺ thymocytes but not mature CD4⁺8⁻ and CD4⁻8⁺ T cells³⁻⁷ that require positive selection by TCRαβ (ref. 13). In T-cell precursors the TCR-β chain forms disulphidelinked heterodimers with the pre-TCR α (pT α) chain, and can associate with signal-transducing CD3 molecules^{5,8,9}.

Here we report on the role of the TCR β -pT α heterodimer in development, based on experiments with pTα-deficient mice. These animals were generated by gene targeting in embryonic stem (ES) cells using a deletion-type targeting vector. On homologous recombination, this construct eliminated exons 3 and 4 of the pTa gene encoding the connecting peptide, which contains the cysteine required for heterodimer formation, the transmembrane region, the cytoplasmic tail and most of the 3' untranslated region (Fig. 1). Homologous recombination in ES cells and the absence of the deleted gene segment in $pT\alpha^{-/-}$ mice was verified by Southern blotting with appropriate probes (Fig. 1, and results not shown). Offspring from intercrosses of $pT\alpha^+$

TABLE 1 Absolute number of thymocytes with different phenotypes $pT\alpha^{+} (\times 10^{-6})$ $pT\alpha^{-/-}$ (×10⁻⁶) Phenotypes CD4-8-310w25+ 25.6 540 22.0 40.4 CD4-8 δ⁴ 12.4 55.1 14.6 32.0 CD4 '8 'δ' 10.0 6.5 14.5 11.0 CD4+8+ 34.54 1.19 34.62 1.13 CD4+8+TCRBint. 14.50 0.24 13.75 0.23 CD4⁺8⁻TCRB^{high} 3.51 0.13 3.05 0.13 CD4⁻⁸⁺TCRBhigh 0.81 0.09 1.39 0.13

Numbers were obtained from two different mice of each genotype from a 5-day-old litter.

mice were killed, thymus and bone marrow removed, and single cell suspensions prepared and analysed by cytofluorometry. There were no significant differences between numbers of marrow cells from age-matched mice and thymocytes from $pT\alpha^{+/+}$ and $pT\alpha^{+/-}$ age-matched mice, whereas the number of thymocytes in pT α -deficient animals was reduced to less than 10%.

Figure 2 shows subsets from thymus of $pT\alpha^+$ and $pT\alpha^{-/-}$ mice only, because there was no difference in subsets of bone marrow and because lymphoid organs from $pT\alpha^{+/-}$ and $pT\alpha^{+/-}$ mice did not differ. Both $pT\alpha^+$ and $pT\alpha^{-/-}$ mice contain CD4⁻8⁻, CD4⁺8⁺ and single-positive CD4⁺8⁻ and CD4⁻8⁺ thymocytes, but cells with CD4 and CD8 co-receptors are proportionally under-represented in $pT\alpha^{-/-}$ mice whereas the proportion of CD4⁻8⁻25⁺ cells is drastically increased (Fig. 2). Both types of mice contain CD4 and CD8 co-receptor expressing cells with low, intermediate and high levels of TCR- β chain on

TABLE 2	Subsets among CD4 ⁻ 8 ⁻ 3 ^{low} thymocytes	
Phenotypes	ρTα ⁺ (%)	pΤα ^{-/-} (%)
CD44 ⁺ 25	12.1	11.0
CD44 25	2.20	2.30
CD44 25	40.7	86.6
CD44 ⁻ 25 ⁻	45.0	0.10

Percentages were calculated from the same litter as described in Fig. 2 and Table 1.

the cell surface. The fraction of CD4⁻8⁻ thymocytes with TCRδ chains on the cell surface was more prominent in $pT\alpha^{-/-}$ mice, and both TCRβ and TCRδ chains were stoichiometrically associated with CD3 molecules. The data also show that the TCRβ chains were associated with TCRa chains, as revealed by doublestaining with TCR \(\beta \) and TCR V\(\alpha \)2, 3.2, 8 and 11 antibodies (Fig. 2, lower right). From triple stainings with various antibodies listed in Fig. 2 and thymocyte numbers, we calculated the absolute number of cells belonging to various thymocyte subsets as shown in Table 1; the data show that the pre-TCR is not required to generate normal numbers of CD4⁻⁸-3^{low}25⁺ precursors of $\alpha\beta$ T cells. In fact, their number is increased in $pT\alpha^{-1}$ mice, probably because of the developmental arrest in these mice (see below). There is likewise no decrease in the number of CD4⁻8⁻ or CD4 and CD8 co-receptor expressing γδ T cells (Table 1). Table 2 shows that among CD4⁻⁸⁻³low cells, $pT\alpha^{-1}$ mice have normal or increased numbers of CD44+25-, CD44+25+ and CD44-25+ cells, but no CD44-25- cells, which represent 45% in $pT\alpha^+$ mice. As most thymocyte expansion occurs in this subset11, it is not surprising that the absolute number of $CD4^+8^+$ cells as well as mature TCR $\alpha\beta^{high}$ $CD4^+8^-$ and CD4⁻⁸⁺ cells is much lower in $pT\alpha^{-/-}$ than in $pT\alpha^+$ mice. Also, the proportion of TCR-αβ-positive cells among CD4⁺8⁺ cells is lower in $pT\alpha^{-/-}$ than in $pT\alpha^{+}$ mice. Lymph-node cells from 28day-old $pT\alpha^{-/-}$ mice contain mature single positive CD4 and CD8 cells representing about 5% of numbers found in $pT\alpha^+$ littermates (results not shown).

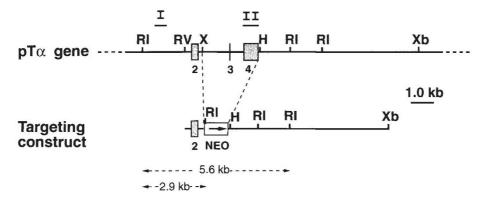


FIG. 1 Disruption of the pTα gene by homologous recombination: partial organization of the $pT\alpha$ locus²² and structure of the targeting vector. The $pT\alpha$ gene was cloned from a 129/Ola-derived genomic library (kind gift of A. Berns, Amsterdam). The targeting vector was constructed by replacing approximately 2.6 kilobases (kb) of the $pT\alpha$ sequence between the unique Xhol site in intron 2 and a Bg/II site ~60 base pairs (bp) upstream of the AATAAATAAA polyadenylation site with a 1.2kb Xhol-BamHI fragment of pMC1neopA (Stratagene) carrying the neomycin resistance gene (neo). The isogenic targeting construct was electroporated into E14.1 embryonic stem cells as described 18. ES colonies surviving G418 selection were analysed by the polymerase chain reaction (PCR) in pools of 12 using primers specific for the neo cassette within the tk promotor (ATTCGCCAATGACAAGACGCTGC) and for the pT α gene just upstream of the EcoRV site (GTTGGATGTTATTGGTTAC-TACTCCTGA), respectively. Colonies within positive pools were rescreened individually by PCR and eventually by Southern analysis using

EcoRI-digested DNA and probe I (a 470-bp PCR fragment specific for pTα sequences outside the targeting construct, ~1.3 kb upstream of exon 2 (primers: TAGGTTTGAACTCAGAT; TGATTTCTCTGTAGC)). Out of ~1,600 colonies screened, 3 had undergone homologous recombination, and one of these clones (pT355) gave rise to chimaeric mice. Chimaeric males were backcrossed with (C57BL/6 × DBA/2)F₁ females and heterozygous offspring carrying a mutant pTα allele were intercrossed to obtain mice deficient in pTα. The absence of the deleted pTα sequences in homozygous knockout mice was confirmed by Southern blotting of EcoRI-digested genomic tail DNA and hybridization with a 310-bp Apal/BspEl complementary DNA fragment spanning the region of exon 4 that encodes the transmembrane portion, the cytoplasmic tail and 120 nucleotides of 3′ untranslated sequence. Abbreviations for restriction sites: RI, EcoRI; RV, EcoRV; X, XHoI; H, HindIII; Xb, XbaI.

The above data indicate that $pT\alpha$ has no role in the development of most $\gamma\delta$ T cells for one of three reasons: (1) because it is not expressed in the $\gamma\delta$ lineage; (2) it cannot pair with the γ chain; or (3) because there is no need for a putative $TCR\gamma-pT\alpha$ heterodimer in $\gamma\delta$ T-cell development. Although this issue requires further investigation, we have been unable to detect RNA for $pT\alpha$ in thymocytes of $TCR\delta$ surface-positive thymocytes. The increase in the number of $\gamma\delta$ cells could depend on the availability of space, and/or the possibility that ongoing $\gamma\delta$ rearrangement is not terminated by the pre-TCR. The fact that a few $TCR\alpha\beta$ -positive CD4/8-co-receptor-expressing thymocytes can be generated in the absence of the pre-TCR is consistent with an earlier finding of $TCR\alpha$ rearrange-

ments in $TCR\beta^{-/-}$ mice deficient in pre-T-cell-receptors⁶. The authors argued that $CD4^+,8^+$ cells in $TCR\beta^{-/-}$ mice (which are often claimed erroneously not to contain $CD4^+8^+$ cells) could be of the δ lineage because they were absent in $TCR\beta^{-/-} \times TCR\delta^{-/-}$ mice. We find that in $pT\alpha^{-/-}$ mice $CD4^-8^-3^{low}25^+$ precursors of $\alpha\beta$ T cells can differentiate, albeit inefficiently, into $CD4^+8^+$ cells with $TCR\alpha\beta$ on the surface. We therefore propose that the pre-TCR is sufficient and necessary for the generation of $CD4^+8^+$ precursors when no other TCR-expressing cells are present, and that in the presence of TCR-positive cells, the pre-TCR is required for the transition of $CD4^+8^+25^+$ $\alpha\beta$ T-cell precursors, through rapidly dividing $CD4^-8^-25^-$ cells into $TCR\alpha\beta$ -expressing $CD4^+8^+$ thymocytes.

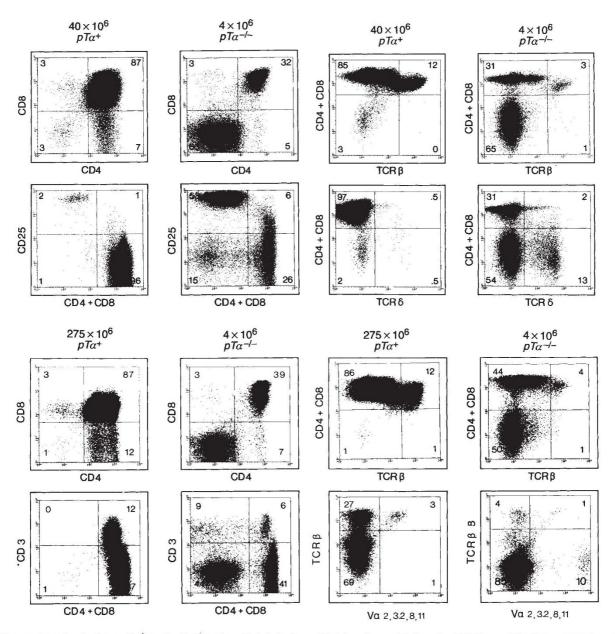


FIG. 2 Thymocyte subsets from $pT\alpha^+$ and $pT\alpha^{-/-}$ mice. Staining of thymocytes from 5-day-old (top two rows) and 28-day-old (bottom two rows) litters with CD4, CD8, TCR β , TCR δ and TCR-V $_\alpha$ antibodies. All stainings were three-colour stainings with the following antibody-conjugates: anti-CD3-biotin and anti-CD3-FITC conjugates (500 A2 (ref. 19)), anti-TCR β -biotin and anti-TCR β -FITC (H57 (ref. 20)), anti-CD4-phyco-rythrin (H129.19 Gibco), anti-CD8-biotin and anti-CD8-phycoerythrin (53-6.7 Pharmingen, San Diego), Anti-CD25-biotin (Pharmingen, San Diego), anti-CD44-phycoerythrin (ATCC collection KM81), anti-HSA-biotin (M1169 (ref. 21)), and anti-TCR δ -FITC (G3, Pharmingen, San

Diego). A cocktail of TCR- V_{α} antibodies, namely anti- $V_{\alpha}2$ (B20.1),anti- $V_{\alpha}3.2$ (RR3.16), anti- $V_{\alpha}8$ (KT50) and anti- $V_{\alpha}11$ (RR8.1) was obtained from D. Mathis, Strasbourg. The biotin conjugates were revealed by streptavidin–Tricolor, (Caltag, San Francisco). For each of the three colour stainings $\sim\!\!4\times\!10^5$ cells were incubated with various reagents. In each case, 10^5 events were acquired for fluorescence-activated cell sorting by FACScan. The bright staining in the thymus (lower right) is due to thymic B cells that stain brightly with sheep anti-mouse lg–FITC reagent, which was used to reveal the V_{α} antibodies.

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This view is consistent with data showing that TCR-positive thymocytes can induce the development of CD4⁺8⁺ cells when injected into rearrangement-deficient mice14,15 and explains the absence of CD4⁺8⁺ thymocytes in rearrangement-deficient^{6,7}, TCR-negative⁶ as well as CD3-negative mice (B. Malissen, personal communication). Differentiation through the CD4⁻⁸-25⁻ subset requires cell-autonomous signals delivered by the pre-TCR, and for that reason in normal mice almost all CD4⁺8⁺ T cells contain productive TCR-\beta genes 16, whereas in the absence of the pre-TCR, only ~2% of TCRαβ-positive CD4⁺8⁺ precursors are generated by some aberrant differentiation. Nevertheless, positive selection will operate on these cells and generate mature αβ T cells whose number is regulated by homeostasis independent of the pre-TCR17.

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The small heat-shock protein αB-crystallin as candidate autoantigen in multiple sclerosis

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THE identification of key antigens in human autoimmune diseases is a crucial step towards the development of specific intervention. The autoantigen(s) relevant to multiple sclerosis (MS) probably reside in myelin of the central nervous system, the target of the disease¹. Here we examine proliferative responses of human peripheral blood T cells to the complete collection of myelin proteins fractionated by reversed-phase high-performance liquid chromatography. Myelin isolated from MS-affected brain contained a single protein fraction to which T cells from MS patients and from healthy controls showed dominant responses. This highly immunogenic protein was identified as a B-crystallin, a small heat-shock protein. Immunohistochemical examination of MS lesions revealed the presence of oligodendrocytes and astrocytes with raised aBcrystallin expression, which were not found in unaffected myelin. Our findings indicate that αB -crystallin serves as immunodominant myelin antigen to human T cells when expressed at the elevated levels found in active MS lesions.

To examine responses of human T cells to the complete collection of myelin proteins from the central nervous system (CNS), short-term cultures were raised in vitro by priming peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMC) from 24 HLA-typed donors with total myelin protein. Proteins used for this purpose were

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prepared from either healthy control myelin or from myelin purified from MS-affected white matter. Five PBMC donors were clinically defined MS patients and the other nineteen were healthy control subjects. After one cycle of restimulation with total myelin protein, T cells were collected and tested for proliferative responses to each of the forty reversed-phase high-performance liquid chromatography (RP-HPLC) fractions prepared from the same protein preparation as that used for priming. Figure 1a shows the RP-HPLC profile of fractionated total myelin protein from MS-affected brain, which is virtually identical to that from control material. Data from the proliferation assays were essentially the same in all cases, irrespective of HLA-type or clinical status of the donor. A representative set of data from five donors is shown in Fig. 1b.

The data in Fig. 1 illustrate two points. First, bulk T-cell responses after priming with all CNS myelin proteins were always directed primarily at the various minor myelin proteins contained in HPLC fractions 7-20. In contrast, responses to the major components proteolipid protein or myelin basic protein were barely significant. These findings extend our previous observations that the relative immunogenicity of individual CNS myelin proteins to human T cells bears no apparent relationship to their relative abundance in myelin². Second, the data in Fig. 1 reveal a distinct difference between responses to proteins derived from either healthy myelin or MS-affected tissue. In the latter case, a consistently predominant response was detected against the contents of RP-HPLC fraction 8. SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) showed that this fraction contained only one detectable protein, with an apparent relative molecular mass (M_r) of about 23K (Fig. 2). The same protein was detected as the single component in the corresponding fraction derived from the control preparation but in smaller

To identify the 23K protein in fraction 8, the protein was purified from MS-affected white matter by RP-HPLC. Direct amino-acid sequencing of the purified preparation was unproductive, indicative of an N-terminal modification. Thus, the 23K protein was trypsinized and a selection of the resulting fragments was purified by RP-HPLC and sequenced. As a result, four internal sequences were identified that were identical to sequences of human αB-crystallin. The amino-acid composition of the purified 23K protein was consistent with the full sequence of human αB-crystallin. In line with this the behaviour of purified human 23K protein and bovine αB-crystallin was identical in RP-HPLC and in SDS-PAGE. Furthermore, polyclonal rabbit antibodies