

RESEARCH HIGHLIGHT

Peripheral clonal selection shapes the human $\gamma\delta$ T-cell repertoire

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$\gamma\delta$ T cells are often placed at the interface between innate and adaptive immunity. These cells share T-cell receptor (TCR) rearrangements and memory functions¹ in common with their $\alpha\beta$ T-cell counterparts but differ in terms of their response kinetics and mechanisms of target recognition (Figure 1). Indeed, $\gamma\delta$ T cells provide fast responses against infected or transformed cells in a major histocompatibility complex-independent manner, thus participating in the first line of defense, which gives the organism time to mount antigen-specific $\alpha\beta$ T-cell responses.² Although the four TCR loci were discovered and characterized almost simultaneously,³ our knowledge of the mechanisms underlying $\gamma\delta$ T-cell responses remains insufficient. However, an increasing amount of evidence has

demonstrated that $\gamma\delta$ T cells recognize self-antigens on the surface of target cells; the expression of these self-antigens is known or expected to increase upon stress, infection or transformation in a TCR-dependent manner, making them an attractive source for cell-based immunotherapies.⁴ This response is noted in the case of BTN3A associated with phosphoantigens,⁵ lipid-presenting CD1 molecules,⁶ endothelial protein C receptor⁷ and Annexin A2.⁸ However, these molecules constitute only a small fraction of the ligands recognized by $\gamma\delta$ T cells. In addition, the mechanism by which the $\gamma\delta$ TCR repertoire is shaped under physiological conditions and how (much) it changes in response to pathogenic challenge remain poorly understood.

In a recent issue of *Nature Immunology*,⁹ Ravens and colleagues analyzed the largest available cohort of $\gamma\delta$ T-cell repertoires, including more than 2×10^7 rearranged TCR sequences. This prospective longitudinal cohort study was possible thanks to recent technical advances in the comprehensive analysis of TCR repertoires using next-generation sequencing. Moreover, this study was designed to monitor the regeneration of T cell receptor gamma and delta repertoires in allogeneic hematopoietic stem cell transplantation (alloHSCT) patients over 180 days. The study also included not only blood samples from alloHSCT patients who experienced cytomegalovirus (CMV) reactivation, which is a

major complication of transplantation associated with $\gamma\delta$ T-cell expansion,¹⁰ but also cord blood samples as important controls to provide information on the ontogeny and dynamics of the $\gamma\delta$ T-cell repertoire.

The newly published data confirmed that the human adult blood $\gamma\delta$ TCR repertoire is dominated by the usage of V γ 9 and V δ 2 TCR chains with high prevalence of the V γ 9–J γ 1.2 V δ 2 rearrangement.¹¹ However, the cord blood control group exhibited a less pronounced bias toward V γ 9 and V δ 2 and an increase in V γ 2, V γ 3, V γ 4, V γ 5, V δ 1, V δ 3 and V δ 5 chain usage, confirming the previously reported preponderance of V γ 9-negative $\gamma\delta$ T cells in neonates.¹ This finding indicates that the bias toward V γ 9V δ 2 rearrangements is driven by postnatal proliferation likely in response to pathogen-derived phosphoantigens, which are well established and specific agonists of V γ 9V δ 2 TCR.¹²

Consistent with these findings, the 20 most abundant clones of the analyzed adult samples constituted ~40% of the repertoire. Conversely, the 20 most abundant clones in cord blood represented only ~10–20% of the entire repertoire. In addition to the reduction in diversity observed with age, Ravens and colleagues pinpointed clear differences between the γ and δ chain repertoires. Greater clonal diversity was observed in rearranged T cell receptor delta genes in both cord blood and adult samples.

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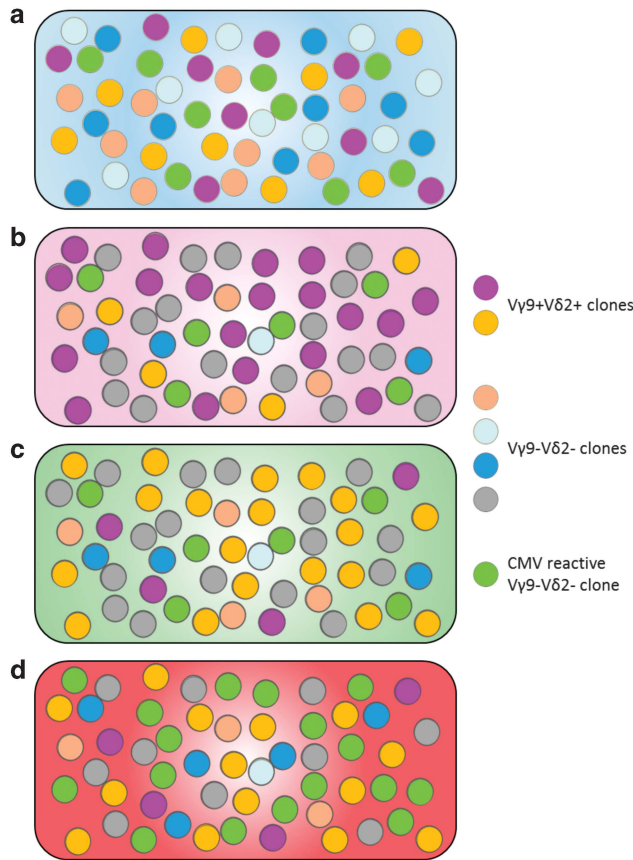


Figure 1 Graphical representation of the dynamics of the human $\gamma\delta$ T-cell repertoire. (a) Prenatal generation of $\gamma\delta$ T cells is unfocused and unbiased. At birth, the human $\gamma\delta$ repertoire in blood is variable, exhibiting $V\gamma 2$, $V\gamma 3$, $V\gamma 4$, $V\gamma 5$, $V\delta 1$, $V\delta 3$ and $V\delta 5$ chain usage and no bias toward $V\gamma 9$ and $V\delta 2$. (b) Up to 40% of the adult repertoire is composed of the 20 most abundant clones. The focus toward the $V\gamma 9V\delta 2$ chain rearrangement (purple circles) is driven by postnatal proliferation in response to pathogen- or tumor-derived phosphoantigens. (c) AlloHSCT strongly perturbs the adult $\gamma\delta$ repertoire. However, 60 days after alloHSCT, the repertoire is fully reconstituted and qualitatively comparable to the host repertoires before transplantation but displays very different clonotypes compared with the donor. (d) CMV reactivation occurs 25–60 days after alloHSCT. The $\gamma\delta$ T-cell repertoire recovery observed in alloHSCT is perturbed by the proliferation of a few, mainly $V\gamma 9$ – $V\delta 2$, clones that comprise 20–75% of the repertoire.

Moreover, unrelated donors (cord blood or adult) shared TCR γ chain sequences (interestingly only $V\gamma 9J\text{P}$ sequences in adults), making them ‘public’. By contrast, TCR δ chain repertoires were mostly ‘private’, especially in the $V\delta 2^-$ T-cell compartment. These results are consistent with the long, variable lengths of TCR δ CDR3 compared with the short, constrained TCR γ CDR3, in addition to the presence of three D gene segments in the TCR δ locus that are absent from the TCR γ locus.¹³ Beyond these insights into the $\gamma\delta$ TCR repertoire ontogeny, Ravens and colleagues also documented that

established adult $\gamma\delta$ T-cell repertoires are stable over time (within a window of 90 days) if no major immunological events, such as alloHSCT or CMV reactivation, occur. Strikingly, even after alloHSCT, stable $\gamma\delta$ T-cell repertoires were rapidly reconstituted between 30 and 60 days after transplantation in the absence of CMV reactivation. The new repertoires after transplantation were qualitatively comparable to the host repertoires before transplantation but displayed very different clonotypes compared with both the donor and host repertoires, indicating that the new repertoires were successfully generated

from the donor stem cells and differentiated *de novo* in the host thymus. Whether the $\gamma\delta$ T-cell population either recognizes the same ligands and thus restores functionally similar clones or the clones are randomly selected remains to be established.

In the examined cohort, CMV reactivation occurred between 25 and 60 days after transplantation. The $\gamma\delta$ T-cell repertoire recovery observed in 10 alloHSCT patients undergoing CMV reactivation was perturbed by a massive proliferation of a few individual clones that comprised 20–75% of the repertoire, with an important variability among patients. These results hence provide interesting details of the previously reported oligoclonal expansion of non- $V\gamma 9V\delta 2$ $\gamma\delta$ T cells responding to CMV in humans^{10,14} and mice.^{15,16} These clones expressed different $V\delta$ and $V\gamma$ chains of diverse clonotypes; thus, their nucleotide (and amino acid) sequences were not shared among different donors, indicating that CMV reactivation did not induce the clonal expansion of public clones. Nevertheless, several $V\delta 1^+$ clones shared substantial homology in the CDR3 region, including a common amino-acid sequence composed of a tryptophan, glycine and isoleucine (WGI) preceded by one or more tyrosine(s). Interestingly, a similar amino-acid sequence was found in the CDR3 of $V\delta 1^+$ $\gamma\delta$ T cells responding to CMV in kidney transplant recipients,¹⁰ suggesting structural constraints for recognition of CMV-related antigens by these TCRs. Single-cell analysis of TCRs further allowed studies of $V\gamma$ and $V\delta$ chain pairing and confirmed clonal expansion of non- $V\gamma 9V\delta 2$ $\gamma\delta$ T cells of different clonotypes that can express diverse $V\gamma$ and $V\delta$ pairings.

These findings strengthen the idea that non- $V\gamma 9V\delta 2$ $\gamma\delta$ T cells undergo continuous and extra-thymic selection of a few TCR clonotypes, thus making their repertoire oligoclonal. Similar to $V\gamma 9V\delta 2^+$ $\gamma\delta$ T cells, the presence of ligands for some specific non- $V\gamma 9V\delta 2$ $\gamma\delta$ T cells in the periphery would be responsible for this selection and skewing. Unfortunately, the majority of these ligands remain unknown, but

this study raises the interesting issue of the diversity of the antigens recognized by such impressively selected and expanded non-V γ 9V δ 2 $\gamma\delta$ T cell clones. Does CMV infection generate as many antigens as the different private $\gamma\delta$ TCRs or are a limited number of antigens recognized by many different $\gamma\delta$ TCRs, as is the case for CMV-derived peptides recognized by $\alpha\beta$ TCRs? The localization of these antigens is also an important issue to address for these populations of non-V γ 9V δ 2 $\gamma\delta$ T cells normally residing in tissues. Nevertheless, this study demonstrated that less numerous clones undergo strong clonal selection and expansion when challenged, as in the case of CMV reactivation, which aligns human non-V γ 9V δ 2 $\gamma\delta$ T cells with adaptive immunity. Previous data supporting peripheral selection and oligoclonal expansion were derived from the recognition of endothelial protein C receptor by a $\gamma\delta$ T cell clone (named LES) bearing a V γ 4V δ 5 TCR.⁷ This LES clone represented ~25% of the circulating T cells in the patient in which it was found.

This evidence highlights how the $\gamma\delta$ T-cell subset mounts an adaptive-like immune response that is independent of canonical major histocompatibility complex presentation but relies on clonal expansion of reactive clones. However, what these reactive clones recognize remains unclear. Some reports suggest that these targets are self-proteins (related or not to major histocompatibility complex) whose expression, membrane localization or tertiary structure is modified in response to cellular stress, such as transformation and bacterial or viral infection. These clones arise from an unfocused repertoire that becomes more focused and more public

throughout life (for V γ 9V δ 2 $\gamma\delta$ T cells). Adult $\gamma\delta$ T-cell repertoires contained variable numbers of highly proliferative oligoclonal sequences, whereas neonatal $\gamma\delta$ T-cell repertoires were more diverse and less focused. Each individual $\gamma\delta$ T-cell repertoire thus represents a singular individual immunological history. This TCR repertoire skewing allows $\gamma\delta$ T cells to be rapidly, but specifically, generated, thereby blurring the boundaries between innate and adaptive immunity.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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