

AN ANALYSIS OF PATTERNS  
OF DIVERSITY IN ANTIBODIES  
WITH DEFINED SPECIFICITY

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To my parents, for their support,  
and to Mariel, for hers.

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**Abstract**

Antibodies can recognize a large number of molecular determinants (antigens) because of the diversity present in antibody combining sites. This diversity resides in regions of extensive amino acid variability termed variable (V) regions. Variable region diversity is encoded in multiple germline variable region genes and can also arise from somatic modification of these genes. An important class of somatic modifications is the rearrangement of gene segments to form complete variable region genes. In this way complete  $V_L$  genes arise from the joining of  $V_L$  and  $J_L$  gene segments while  $V_H$  genes arise from  $V_H$ , D, and  $J_H$  gene segment joining.

Studies of the V region protein sequences of hybridoma and myeloma immunoglobulins which bind phosphorylcholine show that IgM antibody V regions are considerably less diverse than IgG and IgA V regions. A comparison of protein sequence data with experiments on germline DNA suggests that at least some V segment diversity in IgG and IgA antibodies is the result of somatic mutations. D segments from phosphorylcholine-binding IgM antibodies as well as from IgG and IgA antibodies show extensive amino acid interchanges and size differences. In addition, diversity in the antibody response to phosphorylcholine is generated by associating a single  $V_H$  region with at least two different  $V_L$  regions.

The complete sequences of the  $V_L$  and  $V_H$  regions from two antibodies binding  $\beta(2 \rightarrow 1)$  levan have also been determined. A comparison of these sequences to protein sequence data from other  $\beta(2 \rightarrow 1)$  levan-binding proteins and to a germline DNA sequence suggests that the levan-binding proteins may arise from multiple germline genes differing at the protein level by only a few amino acids. Unlike the D segments of the phosphorylcholine binding proteins, the levan-binding immunoglobulin D segments show very little diversity. In addition, the protein sequences of levan-binding immunoglobulins can be compared to published V region idotype and antigen binding studies. These

comparisons show that idiotypes may focus on certain sections of antibody V regions, and hence be of limited value as a probe of antibody V region fine structure.

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## Introduction

Short-lived organisms can avoid many pathogens by virtue of their abbreviated life spans (1). This is possible whenever the time required for pathogenic discovery and invasion is of the same order as or longer than a complete life cycle of the invaded organism. Long-lived organisms, on the other hand, are far more apparent to potential pathogenic invaders. A highly developed immune system is required to preserve the integrity of these organisms in the face of repeated invasion by a wide variety of disease-causing agents.

The vertebrate immune system has several features which are appropriate for long-lived organisms. It can learn to recognize common environmental pathogens and to respond to them in an enhanced, or secondary, fashion (2). This ability to launch a secondary immune response would be important only to an organism likely to live long enough to encounter a pathogen more than once in its lifetime. In addition, the vertebrate immune system has the ability to recognize a virtually unlimited array of molecular determinants (2). An organism which relies on a long life span for reproductive success must be prepared for encounters with pathogens which can rapidly change their physical appearance. It is this property of the vertebrate immune system, the ability to recognize a tremendous array of molecular determinants, which is the primary focus of this dissertation.

Vertebrate immune systems seem to have evolved a set of effector mechanisms based on fundamental properties of invading pathogens. These effector mechanisms include complement fixation, phagocytosis, and various lymphocyte and leukocyte cytotoxicities (2). Because of the fundamental nature of these effector mechanisms, it is apparently very difficult for pathogens to evolve ways to circumvent them. Thus the limited diversity of effector mechanisms is adequate to insure the destruction of most invading organisms. The ability to recognize and attack a large variety

of different molecular determinants, however, relies on a strategy directly contrasting with that used for immune effector functions. Rather than using a few receptors with broad specificity for invading pathogens, the immune recognition system has millions (or more) of recognition units capable of binding to multiple molecular structures (antigens) on virtually any pathogenic invader.

The immune system of the laboratory mouse has been studied more extensively than that of any other animal. The following discussion, while generally true for most vertebrates, refers specifically to observations made on laboratory mice.

### Basic antibody structure (2)

Antigen recognition structures are present on the products of both bone marrow-derived (B) cells and thymus-derived (T) cells. The most abundant immune system antigen-recognition structure, the B-cell antibody, has several molecular forms based on a fundamental four-chain antibody unit. The antibody unit has two identical heavy (H) and two identical light (L) chains each containing variable (V) and constant (C) regions. There are two major classes of light chain C regions ( $\lambda$  and  $\kappa$ ) and five classes of heavy chain C regions ( $\mu$ ,  $\gamma$ ,  $\alpha$ ,  $\delta$ , and  $\epsilon$ ). In the mouse, the  $\gamma$  and  $\lambda$  classes each include several related C regions designated  $\gamma 1$ ,  $\gamma 2a$ ,  $\gamma 2b$  and  $\gamma 3$ , and  $\lambda 1$  and  $\lambda 2$  (3). Immunoglobulin classes derive their names from their heavy chain C regions; i.e., IgM has a  $C_{\mu}$  region, IgG has a  $C_{\gamma}$  region, etc. The IgG, IgD, IgE, and cell surface IgM molecules are monomeric antibody units, the serum IgM molecule is constructed from five antibody units joined by a J polypeptide, and the IgA molecule can be monomeric or in oligomeric form with a J polypeptide and the polypeptide secretory piece.

Immunoglobulin polypeptides are made up of repeating regions of homology of about 110 residues in length. Heavy chains have four (IgG, IgD, IgA) or five (IgM, IgE) such units and light chains have two. Antibody V regions are the N-terminal-most heavy and light chain homology units and each  $V_H$  region interacts with a single

$V_L$  region to form an antigen-binding site. Regions of exceptional variability, termed hypervariable regions, provide the residues which interact with antigen (4-7). Thus the position and amino acid sequence of the  $V_L$  and  $V_H$  hypervariable regions determine the antigen-binding specificities of antibodies. The ability of the vertebrate immune system to recognize a vast array of antigenic determinants is directly related to its ability to produce a large number of antibody variable regions and, especially, hypervariable regions.

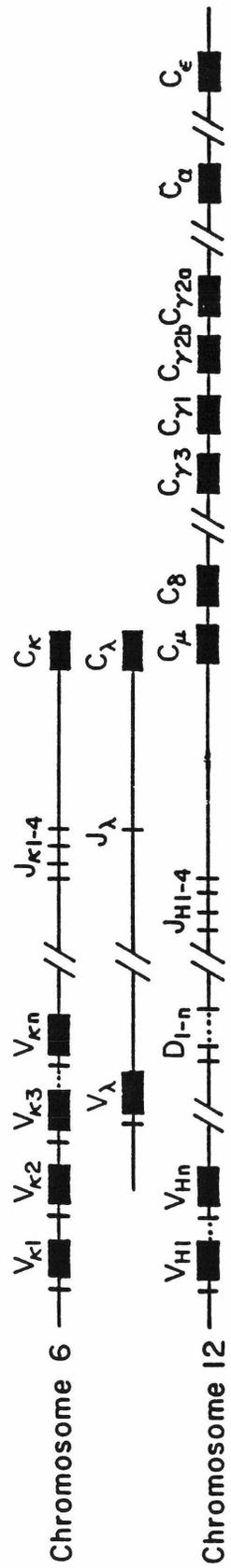
### Basic antibody genetics

Antibody heavy and light polypeptides are encoded by three unlinked families of genes: H,  $\lambda$ , and  $\kappa$ . The organization of genes within these families is shown in the figure. The light and heavy chain families each have V and J (joining) gene segments and C region genes. In addition, the heavy chain gene family contains gene segments termed D (diversity) segments. Though D segments are included in the figure, the essential facts of their organization are unknown. V and J gene segments (light chain) or V, D, and J gene segments (heavy chain) are joined together to form complete V genes before transcription occurs (8-10). The rearranged V genes are separated from the C genes by an intervening piece of DNA which is part of the transcription unit. The V and C coding regions are joined by RNA processing to give rise to a completed antibody mRNA (9, 11, 12).

Heavy chain V regions can be expressed with any of the  $C_H$  regions by the deletion of intervening DNA (13, 14). Thus in order to express a  $V_H$  gene with the  $C_{\gamma 1}$  gene, the stretch of DNA containing the  $C_{\mu}$ ,  $C_{\delta}$ , and  $C_{\gamma 3}$  genes would have to be deleted (see figure). Each antibody  $C_H$  region mediates different immune functions. Monomeric IgM and IgD molecules are cell surface receptors for early B-cells, IgA molecules are the primary antibodies in body secretions, IgG molecules cross the placenta, and IgE molecules cause histamine release from mast cells. In addition, IgG and pentameric IgM are the major serum antibodies and can participate

**Figure Legend**

The organization of antibody genes in BALB/c mice. H,  $\lambda$ , and  $\kappa$  gene families are each located on different chromosomes with linkage relationships as shown. Gene segments with unknown linkage relationships are separated by slash marks. Intergenic distances are not drawn to scale.



in the classic complement pathway. Thus the immune system can use  $C_H$  switching as a way to associate several different effector functions with a single antigen recognition unit (2).

### The generation of antibody diversity

The extensive sequence diversity seen in antibody V regions is, as noted above, directly responsible for the ability of the immune system to bind a large number of determinants. Investigations into the molecular aspects of this diversity have given rise to the following ideas about its generation.

### Germline diversity

Many antibody gene segments are directly encoded in the germline. There appear to be approximately 200 to 500 light chain V gene segments (15) and possibly the same number of heavy chain V gene segments. There are four  $J_L$  (16, 17) and four  $J_H$  gene segments (8, 10) and an unknown number of D segments (possibly five to ten) (18).

### Combinatorial joining

Since the  $V_H$  and  $V_L$  gene segments end inside the third hypervariable region, third hypervariable region diversity can be created by combining  $V_L$  gene segments with different  $J_L$  gene segments or  $V_H$  gene segments with different D and  $J_H$  gene segments (8, 10, 19, 20). Thus 200  $V_L$  gene segments and 4  $J_L$  gene segments can produce 800 complete  $V_L$  genes. In addition, gene segment joining gives rise to diversity at the  $V_H$ -D, D- $J_H$ , and  $V_L$ - $J_L$  junctions (16, 17, 20-22). This diversity arises in part because gene segments can be joined at any of several nucleotides in their junction regions (21). For example, particular  $V_L$  and  $J_L$  gene segments can give rise to multiple  $V_L$ - $J_L$  junction sequences by varying the  $V_L$ - $J_L$  junction point one to three nucleotides towards one or the other gene segment. Junctional diversity is seen as amino acid substitutions, deletions, and insertions (16, 17, 20-22). Because of D segment and D segment junctional diversity, the third hypervariable

region of the heavy chain is far more diverse than any other antibody hypervariable region. There may well be a greater number of third hypervariable region sequences than sequences in all other hypervariable regions combined.

#### V<sub>H</sub>-V<sub>L</sub> combinatorial association

This is possibly the most powerful step in antibody diversity amplification. If an animal produces 200 (V segment) x 10 (D segment) x 4 (J segment) V<sub>H</sub> regions and 200 (V segment) x 4 (J segment) V<sub>L</sub> regions, then combinatorial association of heavy and light chains increases the potential diversity to 8000 x 800 = 6.4 x 10<sup>6</sup> antibodies. Probably no other step produces an amplification of this magnitude. If junctional diversity is taken into account in the above calculation (see Summary), the amplification due to combinatorial association is even larger.

#### Somatic mutation

Somatic mutation is, mechanistically, a difficult subject to discuss because it refers to a broad class of mechanisms of immunoglobulin gene alteration. Somatic mutation mechanisms include somatic recombination (23), hypermutation (24-26), and normal somatic mutation (27). In general, however, somatic mutation processes are pictured as changing germline sequences through the alteration, rather than rearrangement, of germline information. Thus processes which randomly introduce base changes, either as a result of normal DNA replication or through special mechanisms, comprise a broad class of postulated somatic mutational processes. Somatic mutation may provide the largest single incremental increase in V region sequences. If an organism makes 10<sup>7</sup> antibodies and each undergoes only one somatic mutation, then somatic mutations contribute an additional 10<sup>7</sup> antibodies to the immune system. An important question about somatic mutation is, how frequent and dependable is it? If an organism can rely on generating certain sequences or a certain number of sequences somatically, then there will be no selective advantage to the maintenance

of these sequences in the germline. Thus the reliability of somatic mutation will determine the extent to which it is important in the immune system.

### V region sequencing experiments

Antibody V region amino acid sequences are relevant to a number of problems in immunology. V region sequencing studies have played important roles in the determination of the three dimensional structure of antibody V regions (7, 28), the molecular basis of antibody-antigen interactions (6, 29), the structure of V region genes (8-10), and the mechanisms of antibody diversity generation (30). Hence the antibodies selected for sequencing studies are determined by the problems being addressed. The following criteria were important in my selection of antibodies for the study of V region diversity. (i) It is most useful to study antibody V regions which are similar in sequence to one another. My study is primarily concerned with the diversity arising from somatic alterations and rearrangements of germline information. Thus it is important to minimize the contribution of germline V segment variability. (ii) Patterns of antibody diversity only become apparent after the comparison of a number of closely related V region sequences. Determining V region sequences similar to sequences already available facilitates the accumulation of large numbers of closely related V region sequences. (iii) A detailed understanding of the origin and function of V region diversity requires an understanding of the function of individual amino acid residues. Studies of antibody three dimensional structure and antigen binding are necessary for such structure-function correlations. (iv) With the advent of recombinant DNA technology, V regions can be studied at the germline as well as at the somatic level. Germline DNA sequencing studies provide information vital to the study of antibody diversity. Thus it is important to select antibodies which are being studied at the DNA level as well as at the protein level.

Using the above criteria, I selected the antibodies binding phosphorylcholine and  $\beta(2 \rightarrow 1)$  levan for V region sequence analysis. Levan-binding and phosphorylcholine-

binding V regions have been previously studied by protein sequence analysis (31-36). These V regions have been found to fall into closely related groups which differ from one another by less than six amino acids over their N-terminal 35 residues. Phosphorylcholine-binding and levan-binding antibodies have also been studied by three dimensional structure analysis (7, 37), antigen binding (29, 38), and recombinant DNA techniques (8; S. Crews, unpublished observations). The antibodies binding these two antigens provide an interesting comparison with one another in that the small phosphorylcholine seems to bind to a more heterogeneous collection of antibodies than does the larger levan determinant.

My sequencing studies were done on homogeneous immunoglobulins derived by two procedures: myeloma induction (39) and the hybridoma technique (40). Each, as used in these studies, has its own advantages and faults. Myeloma tumors arise from antibody-secreting B cells in the peritoneal cavity of mice injected intra-peritoneally with mineral oil (39). Myeloma sequence data must be examined with the following reservations: (i) Myeloma tumors have been passed through many generations of mice and may have accumulated mutations in their immunoglobulin genes unrelated to normal diversification mechanisms. (ii) Myeloma proteins may contain a different set of phosphorylcholine-specific immunoglobulins than does the normal serum. The C regions of myeloma proteins are predominantly  $\alpha$  (37), as compared to the  $\gamma$  and  $\mu$  found in normal serum. In addition, the set of variable regions expressed in the myeloma population is not identical to that expressed in the serum immunoglobulin population (41). On the other hand, hybridomas are recently derived from normal B cells, and, accordingly, there is less chance that variants arose during hybridoma passaging. Hybridoma immunoglobulins complement those from myeloma tumors in that hybridomas are splenic in origin and produce primarily IgG and IgM immunoglobulins.

The hybridomas which we studied were raised in mice immunized with

phosphorylcholine, while the myelomas came from unimmunized mice. If V region diversity is influenced by the route of antigenic exposure, myeloma proteins may reflect natural V region diversity more accurately than hybridoma proteins. Except as noted above, the diversity in myeloma proteins is probably a result of normal routes of antigenic exposure.

I chose phosphorylcholine-binding antibodies for my sequencing studies partly because of experiments on phosphorylcholine-binding myeloma proteins already under way. These experiments resulted in the six complete myeloma  $V_H$  sequences described in chapter one (32). Chapters two and three discuss the data in chapter one in conjunction with sequence data from hybridoma proteins.

The results of a preliminary screening study on the N-terminal 35 residues of 16 phosphorylcholine-binding hybridoma  $V_L$  and  $V_H$  regions are reported in chapter two (42). It is clear from these sequences that the IgG hybridoma antibodies have significantly more N-terminal diversity than the IgM hybridoma antibodies. The additional diversity seen in IgG antibodies probably results from the selective expansion of both germline and somatically-generated clones initially present at very low levels. This expansion of rare clones may be mediated by antigen and by V region sequence-specific regulation. Such sequence-specific regulation can occur through V region antigenic determinants called idiotypes (43).

Chapter three describes the complete  $V_H$  sequences of seven phosphorylcholine-binding hybridoma proteins and the  $V_H$  segment sequences of two additional proteins (44). These sequences, along with the sequences from chapter one, define more precisely the differences in diversity between IgM antibodies and IgG and IgA antibodies. The  $V_H$  segment diversity of  $\mu$  chains is seen to be less than that in  $\gamma$  and  $\alpha$  chains. even though  $\mu$ ,  $\gamma$ , and  $\alpha$  chains have comparably diverse D segments. If these diversity differences between the V regions of different antibody classes

are the result of selection, then it should be possible to identify residues which are involved in such selection. The sequences reported in chapters one and three allow the identification of amino acid substitutions which may reflect this selection process.

Phosphorylcholine-binding antibody D segments are relatively long and contain large numbers of amino acid substitutions, insertions, and deletions. Current studies in our lab of the DNA sequences of germline gene segments will allow an appraisal of the mechanisms necessary to generate this D segment diversity. In addition, a comparison of the sequences of germline phosphorylcholine-binding  $V_H$  gene segments to protein  $V_H$  sequences will hopefully provide a measure of the contribution of somatic mutation to  $V_H$  region diversity.

The second set of antigen-binding proteins, those binding  $\beta$  (2 $\rightarrow$ 1) levan, is discussed in chapter four (45). These proteins have  $V_L$  and  $V_H$  regions which differ by only four or less amino acids from prototype sequences, and which have only one amino acid interchange in their D segments. Despite this high degree of sequence homology, however, the  $V_H$  and  $V_L$  segments may each be encoded by at least two germline genes.

The complete characterization of these levan-binding  $V_H$  and  $V_L$  regions allows idotype analysis and structure-function correlations to be carried out using well-defined proteins. Such analyses are basic to an understanding of antibody diversity as they provide information on the roles of individual sequence differences. Knowledge of the function of individual residues is essential if the reasons underlying the selective expansion of germline and somatically generated genes are to be understood. In addition, antibody idiotypes have played a central role in many studies of antibody structure and genetics (see Ref. 46 for reviews). An understanding of the molecular basis of antibody idiotypes is central to the interpretation of such studies.

The appendix contains a technical paper describing the high performance liquid chromatography of phenylthiohydantoin amino acids (47). Phenylthiohydantoin identi-

fication by high performance liquid chromatography is one of the most significant improvements in protein sequence analysis of the past decade. It allows rapid identification and quantitation of all protein amino acids without additional time-consuming and error-prone chemical modifications.

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**Chapter 1**

The complete amino acid sequences of six  $V_H$  regions from  
myeloma proteins binding phosphorylcholine

This manuscript will be submitted to Molecular Immunology

## Introduction

The enormous diversity available in the normal antibody repertoire remains one of immunology's most fascinating aspects. The search for the mechanisms responsible for this diversity has been pursued for well over a decade and many important features of antibody variability have been described. Antibody molecules are composed of heavy (H) and light (L) chains, each containing variable (V) and constant (C) regions. V regions are constructed from several gene segments encoded separately in the germline. Complete  $V_L$  regions are created by the joining of  $V_L$  and  $J_L$  (joining) gene segments while  $V_H$ , D (diversity) and  $J_H$  segments are joined to form complete  $V_H$  regions (1, 2).

Antibody V segments are encoded by multiple germline genes (3) as are J segments (1, 4, 5) and, presumably, D segments (1). The  $V_L$ - $J_L$  junction and the  $V_H$ -D- $J_H$  junctions occur in the  $V_L$  and  $V_H$  third hypervariable regions. Thus, third hypervariable region diversity can be generated through the combinatorial joining of  $V_L$  and  $J_L$  gene segments (6, 7) and  $V_H$ , D and  $J_H$  gene segments (1, 8). Additional diversity may arise through somatic mutations in germline genes (9).

In this paper we describe the complete sequences of six  $V_H$  regions from phosphorylcholine-binding myeloma proteins. The diversity seen in these sequences, and in sequences from phosphorylcholine-binding  $V_H$  regions reported elsewhere (10-13), provide an assessment of the  $V_H$  phenotype of the antibody response to phosphorylcholine. Studies at the DNA level currently under way in our laboratory will determine the germline genotype of the phosphorylcholine-binding myeloma  $V_H$  regions. A comparison of protein sequence phenotypic information to germline DNA sequences will provide a measure of the contribution of somatic mutation mechanisms to diversity. In addition, the D regions from phosphorylcholine-binding myeloma  $V_H$  regions are quite variable and provide examples of the kinds of diversity which can arise from  $V_H$ -D- $J_H$  joining.

## Materials and Methods

### Myeloma heavy chain isolation

Myeloma tumors were obtained from the Salk Institute and grown in ascites form in BALB/c and CDF1 mice primed one month previously with 0.5 ml mineral oil. Ascites fluid was obtained from myeloma-bearing mice, filtered through Miracloth to remove macroscopic lipid complexes, and precipitated in 40% saturated  $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$  at 4°C. The precipitate was mildly reduced in 0.2 M Tris buffer, 2 mM EDTA, 10 mM dithiothreitol, pH 8.2, for 1 hr at room temperature and then alkylated for 1 hr at 4°C by the addition of iodoacetamide to 25 mM. The reduced and alkylated protein was applied to a phosphorylcholine-sepharose 4B column (14), eluted with  $10^{-3}$  M phosphorylcholine, desalted over G-25 in 0.2 M  $\text{NH}_3$  and lyophilized. These affinity column preparations contained purified myeloma proteins and were loaded on an LKB Ultragel AcA34 column equilibrated in 3 M guanidine, 0.2 M  $\text{NH}_5\text{CO}_3$ . The heavy and light chain peaks were pooled separately and desalted on G-25, 0.2 M  $\text{NH}_3$ .

### Cyanogen bromide digests

Purified heavy chains were digested with 2.5% cyanogen bromide in 70%  $\text{HCO}_2\text{H}$  for 24 hr at 4°C. These digests were then diluted, lyophilized twice and applied to a G-100 column equilibrated in 5 M guanidine, 0.2 M  $\text{NH}_5\text{CO}_3$ . Column peaks were desalted in 0.2 M  $\text{NH}_2\text{OH}$  or 5%  $\text{HCO}_2\text{H}$ . In some cases heavy chains were fully reduced and alkylated in the presence of 5 M guanidine before the CNBr digests. These heavy chains were chromatographed on Ultragel AcA54 in 3 M guanidine, 0.2 M  $\text{NH}_5\text{CO}_3$ .

### Automated sequence analysis

Automatic sequence analysis was done using Beckman 890C and modified 890C sequenators (15), and a home-made solid phase sequenator. A Durrum D-500 Automatic

Amino Acid Analyzer, Hewlett-Packard Gas Chromatograph, and Waters Associates High Performance Liquid Chromatograph (HPLC) were used to analyze sequencer samples (16, 17). Heavy chain variable regions are numbered as in Kabat et al. (18).

### Peptide map analyses

Trypsin or chymotrypsin digests were performed at an enzyme:substrate ratio of 1:100 in 1%  $\text{NH}_5\text{CO}_3$  for 1 hr at 37°C. Two-dimensional peptide paper maps at pH 3.5 were done using the procedure of Katz et al. (19). Analytical maps were dipped in 80:20:8 ethanol:acetic acid:collidine, 0.1% ninhydrin and developed for 12 min at 100°C. Preparatory maps were sprayed lightly with 0.1% ninhydrin in ethanol, developed at 100°C, and the spots cut out and eluted immediately upon visualization. Acidic peptides were eluted in 0.5 M  $\text{NH}_4\text{OH}$  while basic peptides were eluted in 10%  $\text{HCO}_2\text{H}$ . Electrophoresis at pH 6.5 was done in some cases to verify the assignment of amide residues on Eastman chromatogram cellulose plates in 10:0.4:90 pyridine:acetic acid:water. After electrophoresis at 1000 volts for 30 min on a Desaga flat plate electrophoresis apparatus, spots were visualized with 0.1% ninhydrin in acetone. Spots staying near the origin contain amide residues while those migrating towards the anode contain acids. Amino acid analysis was done on a Durrum D-500 amino acid analyzer after 18 hr hydrolysis of the peptides at 108°C in 6 N HCl.

### Cyanogen bromide fragment precipitation

CN2 (see **Results**) cyanogen bromide fragments were desalted on P2 in 5%  $\text{HCO}_2\text{H}$ , lyophilized, and redissolved in 10% acetic acid. Concentrated  $\text{NH}_4\text{OH}$  was added until a white precipitate formed and the precipitate was spun out and lyophilized. This procedure is from Rudikoff and Potter (10).

## **Results**

### Isolation of cyanogen bromide fragments

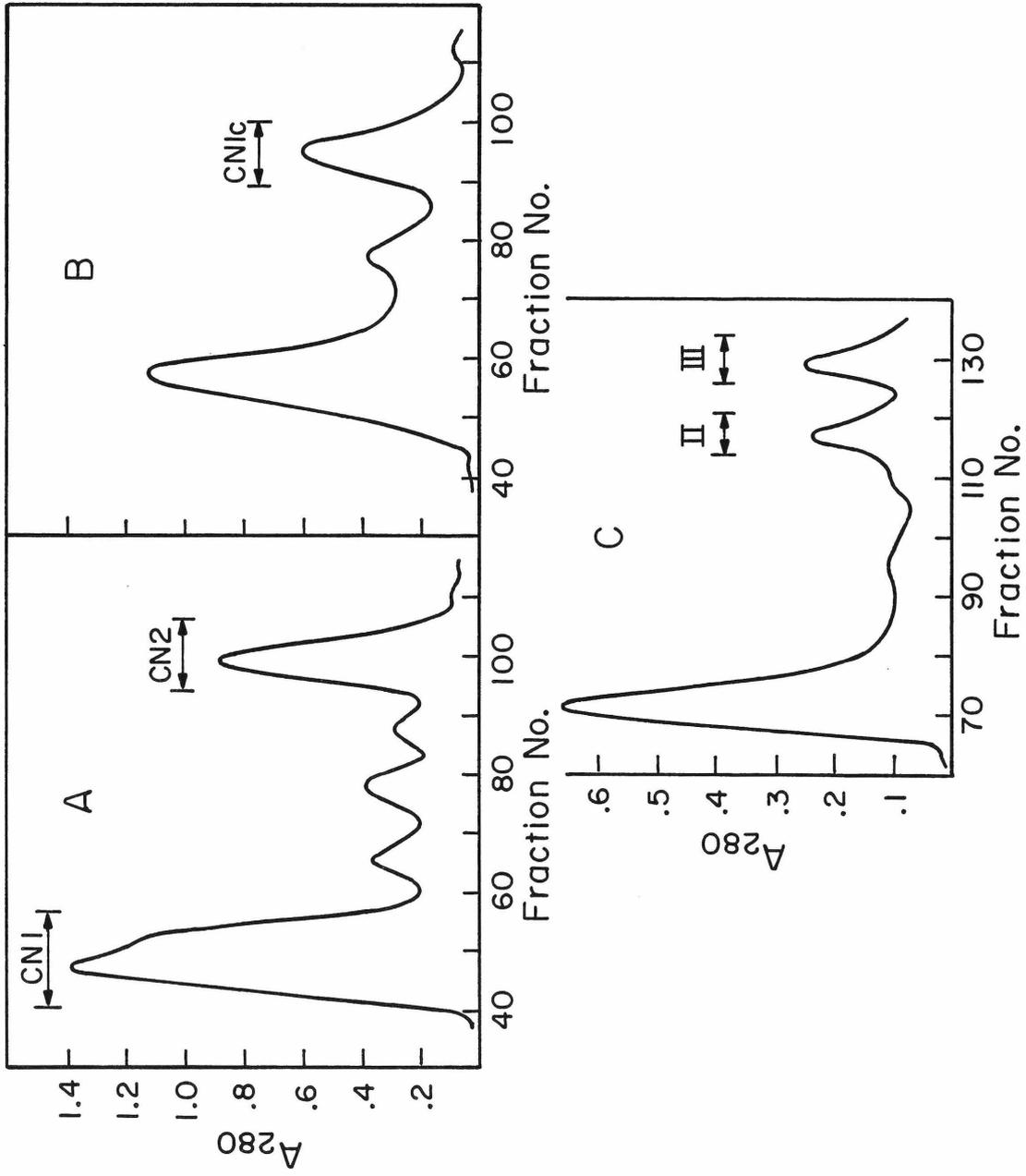
Figure 1a shows a typical G-100 profile of a mildly reduced and alkylated

Figure 1. Gel chromatography of CNBr fragments.

(a) CNBr digest of a mildly reduced and alkylated heavy chain chromatographed on G-100 in 5 M guanidine, 0.2 M  $\text{NH}_5\text{CO}_3$ .

(b) CN1 peak from (a) fully reduced and alkylated and rechromatographed on G-100 in 5 M guanidine, 0.2 M  $\text{NH}_5\text{CO}_3$ .

(c) CNBr digest of a fully reduced and alkylated heavy chain chromatographed on AcA54 in 3 M guanidine, 0.2 M  $\text{NH}_5\text{CO}_3$ .



heavy chain CNBr digest. The first peak, CN1, contains a mixture of peptides including the peptide from 82a into the C region. This peak was desalted in 0.2 M  $\text{NH}_4\text{OH}$ , lyophilized, and reduced and alkylated in the presence of 5 M guanidine HCl. Figure 1b shows a profile of CN1 fully reduced and alkylated and rerun on G-100. The peak labeled CN1c contains only the peptide from 82a into the C region.

The CN2 peak (Fig. 1a) was desalted in 5%  $\text{HCO}_2\text{H}$  due to its insolubility in dilute base and precipitated as in **Materials and Methods**. The precipitate contained only the fragment from 35 to 82 and will be referred to as CN2p. This CNBr fractionation procedure is the same as that in Rudikoff and Potter (10).

In some cases the intact heavy chains were fully reduced and alkylated prior to CNBr digestion and run on an AcA54 column in 3 M guanidine, 0.2 M  $\text{NH}_5\text{CO}_3$ . A column profile is shown in Fig. 1c. The V region fragment from 82a into the C region can be isolated cleanly as CNII while the fragment from 35 to 82 is contained as a mixture in CNIII.

### Sequence determination

The sequencing strategies discussed below are outlined in Fig. 2 for the S107  $V_H$  region.

Purified myeloma heavy chains were degraded 35 cycles by automatic sequenator to determine the N-terminal portion of the molecule. A plot of PTH-amino acid yield vs. cycle number is shown in Fig. 3 for the protein M511H. Ser' and Thr' refer to derivatives of serine and threonine resulting from secondary reactions during sequencing. While data condensed and presented as in Fig. 3 are more difficult to interpret than actual HPLC chromatograms, the M511H sequence is clearly visible. The average repetitive yield calculated using leucines at cycles 4, 11, and 20 is 93%.

The CN2p fragments (positions 32 to 82) were usually sequenced for at least 46 steps with the remainder of the fragment being determined from peptides. Compositions were obtained from CN2p tryptic or chymotryptic peptides and the ultimate

Figure 2. The sequencing strategy for the S107 V<sub>H</sub> region. All myeloma V<sub>H</sub> regions were sequenced in an identical fashion with the exception of certain regions depicted in Figure 4.

————> Sequence determined by 890C automatic sequenator

-----> Sequence determined by solid phase sequenator

[ ] Tryptic peptide

<—> Peptide compositional data.

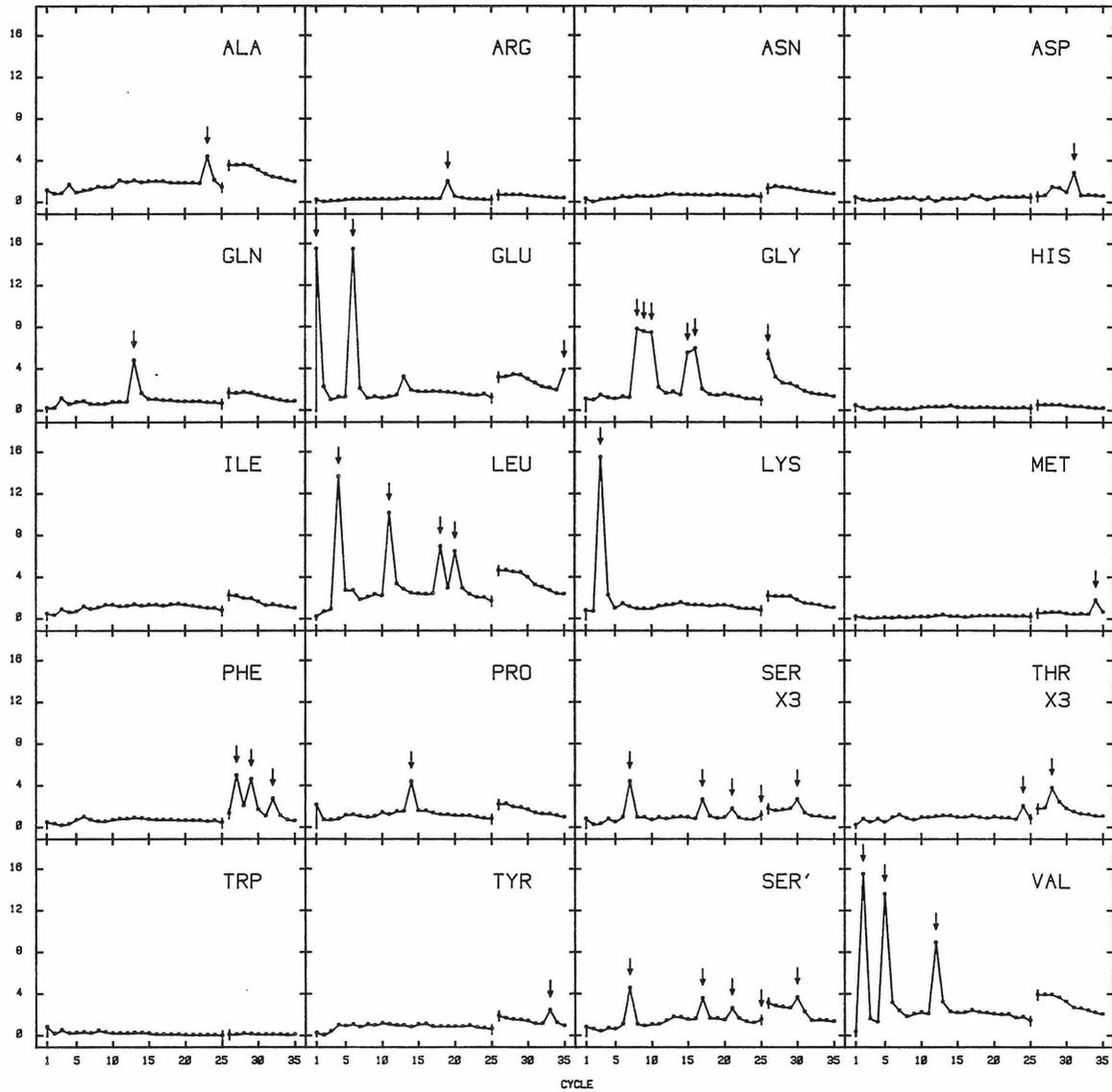
# S107

1 5 10 15 20 25 30 35 40 45 50 55  
 EVKLVESGGGLVQPGGSLRLSCLATSGFTFSDFYMEWVVRQPPGKRLEWIAASRNKANDYTTEY  
 60 65 70 75 80 85 90 95 100 105 110  
 SASVKGRFIVSRDTSQSIYLQMNALRAEDTAIYYCARDYYGSSYWFVDVWGAGTTTVSS

The diagram shows two lines of amino acid sequences. The first line is: EVKLVESGGGLVQPGGSLRLSCLATSGFTFSDFYMEWVVRQPPGKRLEWIAASRNKANDYTTEY. The second line is: SASVKGRFIVSRDTSQSIYLQMNALRAEDTAIYYCARDYYGSSYWFVDVWGAGTTTVSS. Arrows and brackets are used to indicate specific relationships:
 

- A vertical arrow points from residue 35 of the first line to residue 70 of the second line.
- Horizontal arrows connect residues in the first line to residues in the second line: 36 to 71, 37 to 72, 38 to 73, 39 to 74, 40 to 75, 41 to 76, 42 to 77, 43 to 78, 44 to 79, 45 to 80, 46 to 81, 47 to 82, 48 to 83, 49 to 84, 50 to 85, 51 to 86, 52 to 87, 53 to 88, 54 to 89, 55 to 90.
- Vertical arrows point from residues 70, 71, 72, 73, 74, 75, 76, 77, 78, 79, 80, 81, 82, 83, 84, 85, 86, 87, 88, 89, 90 of the second line to residues 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49, 50, 51, 52, 53, 54, 55 of the first line.
- Horizontal arrows connect residues in the second line to residues in the first line: 70 to 36, 71 to 37, 72 to 38, 73 to 39, 74 to 40, 75 to 41, 76 to 42, 77 to 43, 78 to 44, 79 to 45, 80 to 46, 81 to 47, 82 to 48, 83 to 49, 84 to 50, 85 to 51, 86 to 52, 87 to 53, 88 to 54, 89 to 55.
- Vertical arrows point from residues 70, 71, 72, 73, 74, 75, 76, 77, 78, 79, 80, 81, 82, 83, 84, 85, 86, 87, 88, 89, 90 of the second line to residues 60, 61, 62, 63, 64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 71, 72, 73, 74, 75, 76, 77, 78, 79, 80 of the first line.
- Horizontal arrows connect residues in the first line to residues in the second line: 60 to 70, 61 to 71, 62 to 72, 63 to 73, 64 to 74, 65 to 75, 66 to 76, 67 to 77, 68 to 78, 69 to 79, 70 to 80, 71 to 81, 72 to 82, 73 to 83, 74 to 84, 75 to 85, 76 to 86, 77 to 87, 78 to 88, 79 to 89, 80 to 90.
- Vertical arrows point from residues 60, 61, 62, 63, 64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 71, 72, 73, 74, 75, 76, 77, 78, 79, 80 of the first line to residues 60, 61, 62, 63, 64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 71, 72, 73, 74, 75, 76, 77, 78, 79, 80 of the second line.
- Horizontal arrows connect residues in the second line to residues in the first line: 60 to 60, 61 to 61, 62 to 62, 63 to 63, 64 to 64, 65 to 65, 66 to 66, 67 to 67, 68 to 68, 69 to 69, 70 to 70, 71 to 71, 72 to 72, 73 to 73, 74 to 74, 75 to 75, 76 to 76, 77 to 77, 78 to 78, 79 to 79, 80 to 80.

Figure 3. The N-terminal sequence of M511H. Ordinate values are proportional to the absorbance at 254 nanometers of the phenylthiohydantoin-amino acids at each sequenator cycle. Cycle number is plotted on the abscissa. Arrows indicate the M511H N-terminal amino acid sequence. SER' is a secondary reaction product of serine, and serine and threonine <sup>254</sup>A values are multiplied X3. The M511 heavy chain used in this sequenator run was mildly reduced and alkylated, and as a result no cystine was seen at position 22. Cystine is not plotted in this figure.



tryptic peptides were analyzed by automatic sequenator. In most cases the penultimate glutamine was verified by pH 6.5 electrophoresis. A summary of the CN2p sequencing strategies is shown in Fig. 4.

CN1c fragments (residues 82a into the C region) were analyzed for 37 cycles by automatic sequenator. Figure 5 shows a plot of the HPLC data for H8 CN1c. The alanines at residues 5, 14, and 29 give an average repetitive yield of 94%.

### **Discussion\***

Figure 6 presents the complete  $V_H$  sequence data from the phosphorylcholine-binding myeloma proteins reported here and elsewhere (10, 11). These sequences have played an important role in the development of ideas about antibody diversity (20). These myeloma  $V_H$  sequences exhibit two kinds of diversity: scattered amino acid substitutions in the V segment and extensive substitutions and size changes in the D segment. As germline T15  $V_H$  group gene sequences become available, it will be possible to determine the extent of somatic sequence variation within this set of proteins. In addition, the D segment changes provide important insight into the kinds of DNA rearrangements that must occur to generate D segment diversity. Together with other antiphosphorylcholine  $V_H$  sequences (12, 13), the myeloma data presented in Figure 6 provide one of the primary models for the study of antibody diversity.

### **Summary**

Closely related sets of proteins play a crucial role in the study of V region diversity. In this paper, we describe six complete  $V_H$  region sequences from myeloma proteins with specificity for phosphorylcholine.

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\* These data are discussed more completely in Chapters 2 and 3 in conjunction with sequences presented there.

Figure 4. The sequencing strategies for the myeloma CNB4 fragments from 35 to 82 (CN2p fragments).

\* indicates amide verification by pH 6.5 electrophoresis (see **Materials and Methods**).

( ) Chymotryptic peptide.

Solid lines indicate identity to S63, and amino acid differences are designated by the one-letter code of Dayhoff (22).

All other symbols are as in Figure 2.



Figure 5. The sequence of the N-terminal 37 residues of the H8 CNBr peptide beginning at residue 83. Ordinate, abscissa, and arrows are as in Figure 3. SER' and THR' are secondary reaction products of serine and threonine, and serine, threonine, SER', THR', and tryptophane are all multiplied by the indicated scale factors. AMC stands for amidomethylcystine, the cystine derivative formed by complete reduction and alkylation of disulfide bonds. No methionine is present in this sequence and methionine is not plotted in Figure 5.

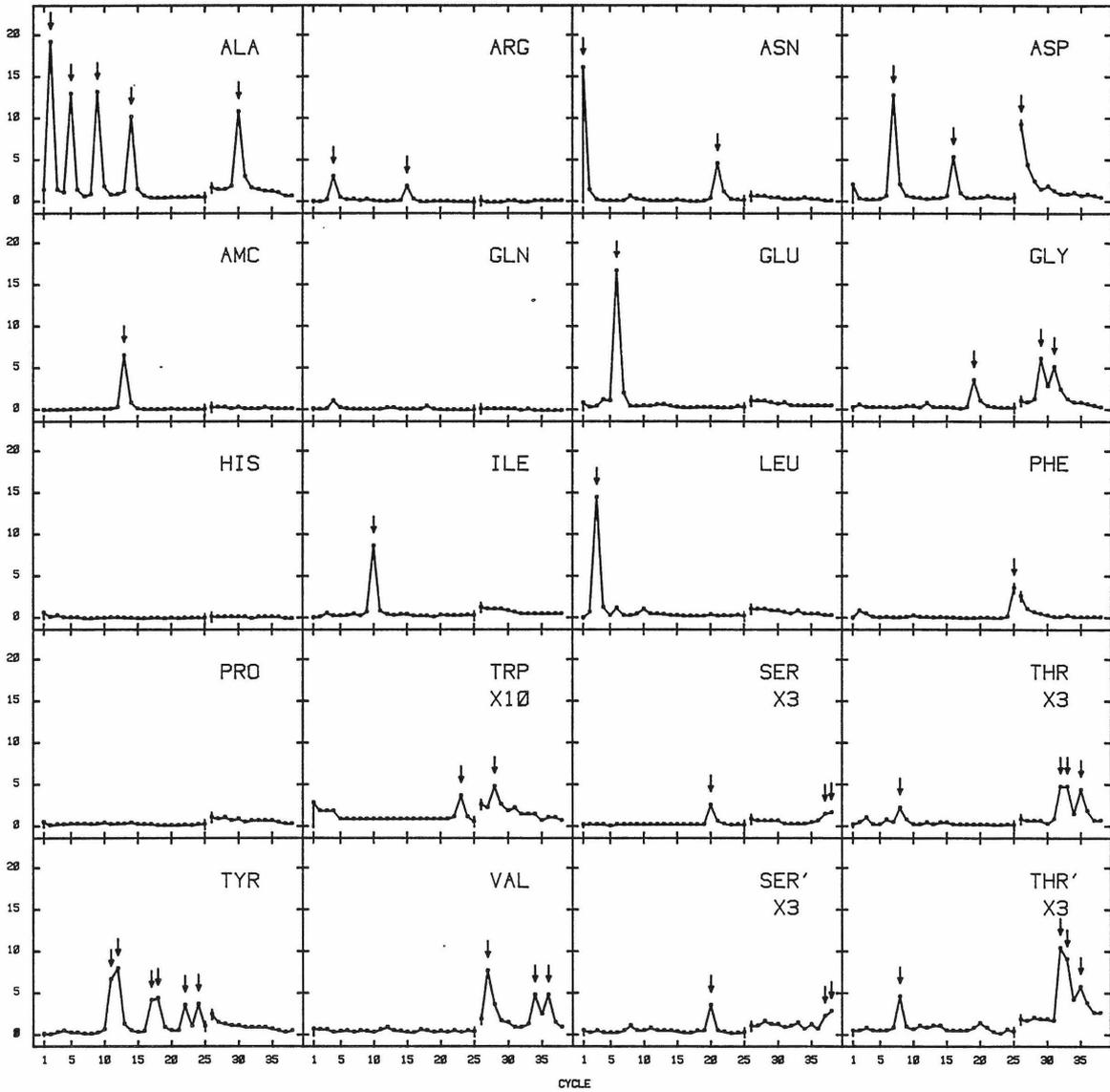


Figure 6. A schematic representation of the complete  $V_H$  sequence data from phosphorylcholine-binding myeloma proteins. Straight lines indicate identity to the T15 prototype sequence; a vertical bar indicates an insertion; ( ) indicates a deletion; and substitutions are designated by the one-letter code of Dayhoff (22). The position of each amino acid difference is shown at the bottom of the figure except in the third hypervariable region where every other position is numbered. Hypervariable regions are shown at the top of the figure ( $HV_I$ ,  $HV_{II}$ ,  $HV_{III}$ ) and V, D and J segment boundaries are shown at the bottom. M603 is from ref. 10 and T15 and M167 are from ref. 11.



**Acknowledgements**

We thank Richard Douglas and Tim Hunkapiller for computer graphics. Note added in proof: Since the completion of this work, the  $V_H$  region sequence of M511 has been published in a separate study (21). This M511  $V_H$  sequence agrees with the sequence reported here.

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## Chapter 2

IgG antibodies to phosphorylcholine exhibit more diversity  
than their IgM counterparts

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IgG ANTIBODIES TO PHOSPHORYLCHOLINE EXHIBIT MORE DIVERSITY  
THAN THEIR IgM COUNTERPARTS\*

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Running Title: Hybridoma Antibodies Binding Phosphorylcholine

**Footnotes**

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<sup>1</sup>Abbreviations used in this paper: L, light; H, heavy; V, variable; C, constant.

## Introduction

One goal in molecular immunology is to understand the mechanisms responsible for antibody gene diversification. The antibody molecule is composed of two light (L)<sup>1</sup> and two heavy (H) polypeptides, both of which have a variable (V) and a constant (C) region. Antibodies binding to the simple hapten phosphorylcholine have served as a model for the cellular and molecular analyses of the immune response for several reasons. First, a closely related set of eleven myeloma proteins that bind phosphorylcholine have been isolated from BALB/c mice (1). Complete amino acid sequence analyses of the V<sub>H</sub> regions from nine of the proteins reveal that four V<sub>H</sub> regions are identical, and the remainder differ from these by one to 13 amino acid substitutions and occasional sequence insertions or deletions (2, 3). Approximately two-thirds of the substitutions fall within the third hypervariable region. The phosphorylcholine V<sub>H</sub> regions and other sets of closely related variable regions have permitted us to place important constraints on mechanisms of antibody diversification (4-7). Second, anti-idiotypic sera have been raised against several of the myeloma proteins binding phosphorylcholine. These antisera have revealed that the majority of anti-phosphorylcholine antibodies from BALB/c mice have the idiotype of the myeloma protein T15 (8-11). A variety of interesting analyses have subsequently been carried out on the developmental expression (12), genetic mapping (13, 14), and regulation (15-18) of this predominant idiotype.

Because the initial amino acid sequence analyses were carried out on myeloma V regions, several concerns arise about the generality of the observed diversity patterns. 1) Myeloma tumors have been passed through many generations of mice and may have accumulated somatic mutations in their antibody genes unrelated to normal diversification mechanisms. 2) Myeloma proteins contain a different subset of phosphorylcholine-specific immunoglobulins than does the normal serum. The constant

regions of myeloma proteins are predominantly  $\alpha$  (1), as compared to the  $\gamma$  and  $\mu$  found in normal serum. In addition, the set of variable regions expressed in the myeloma population is not identical to that expressed in the normal serum immunoglobulin population (19). In order to circumvent these limitations of the myeloma system, we have employed the hybridoma technique of Köhler and Milstein (20) to obtain homogeneous antibodies from normal spleen cells in BALB/c mice immunized against phosphorylcholine. We reasoned that hybridoma cells are recently derived from normal B cells, and, accordingly, there would be less chance for somatic variants to arise during the more limited number of passages of the hybridoma cell lines. In addition, the hybridoma technique appears to accurately reflect the class distribution of splenic B cells. We report here the N-terminal amino acid sequences for the  $V_H$  and  $V_L$  regions of 16 hybridoma antibodies which bind phosphorylcholine. The most striking observation is that the IgG antibodies exhibit far more diversity than their IgM counterparts. The data also suggest that somatic variation may play a role in V region diversification.

## **Materials and Methods**

### Mice and immunizations

BALB/cJ mice were purchased from the Jackson Laboratory, Bar Harbor, Maine. Mice at eight weeks of age were immunized intraperitoneally with 0.1 mg of phosphorylcholine-hemocyanin (11) in complete Freund's adjuvant. One to two months later (four days prior to cell fusion), they were injected intraperitoneally with 0.1 mg of phosphorylcholine-hemocyanin in complete Freund's adjuvant.

### Cell fusion

The cells from individual spleens were added to  $10\text{-}20 \times 10^6$  SP2/0-Ag14 cells, which do not secrete immunoglobulin (21), and then were fused according to Kennett

et al. (22). Hybrid cells were cloned in agar. Hybrid cell lines producing antibody to phosphorylcholine were produced by the same procedure in two other laboratories. The M8(1F8), G5(1B6), G6(2F5), G8(2B4), G9(1G9), G10(2C5), G14(1B10), G15(24B5), and G16(1D8) hybridomas were obtained from J. Hurwitz (23). The M3(63b4) and M4(64a5) hybridomas were obtained from B. Clevinger and J. Davie, Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri, and were generated from adult mice which were suppressed for expression of the T15 idiotype by treatment with anti-T15 serum at birth. The numbers in parentheses refer to the nomenclature of the donor laboratory.

#### Radioimmunoassays for C<sub>H</sub> region and idiotype

Antibodies against phosphorylcholine from hybridoma culture fluids were bound to phosphorylcholine-bovine serum albumin-coated plastic microtiter plates. The microtiter plates were then rinsed and <sup>125</sup>I rabbit anti-murine Fab, anti-μ, anti-γ1, or anti-γ3 antibody was added to determine the class of the phosphorylcholine-specific hybridoma immunoglobulins (24). Antibody with the T15 idiotype was detected by the inhibition of the binding of <sup>125</sup>I-T15 to plastic tubes coated with A/He anti-T15 serum (11).

#### Antibody purification

Hybridoma cells were grown as ascites in BALB/c mice, and the ascites fluids were precipitated at 50% saturation with ammonium sulfate and resuspended in 0.017 M boric acid, 0.03 M sodium borate, 0.15 M sodium chloride, pH 8.0. The antibody was then absorbed to a phosphorylcholine-glycyltyrosine-Sepharose column (25), and eluted with 10<sup>-2</sup> M phosphorylcholine.

#### Equilibrium dialysis

Phosphoryl(methyl-<sup>14</sup>C)choline was purchased from New England Nuclear, Boston, Massachusetts. Antibodies were exhaustively dialyzed against 0.17 M boric

acid, 0.03 M sodium borate, 0.15 M sodium chloride, pH 8.0 with 2% sodium azide to remove phosphorylcholine bound during affinity chromatography. Equilibrium dialysis was performed at 25°C in 0.1 ml compartments at an antibody concentration of 1.5-3.5 mg/ml. Protein molarity was determined by absorbance at 280 nm using  $E_{1\text{ cm}}^{0.1\%} = 1.37$ , and a molecular weight of 150,000 for IgG and IgA, and 170,000 for IgM. The data were plotted by the method of Scatchard (26) to calculate number of sites and by the Sips distribution function (27) to calculate  $K_a$ . A least squares fit was used to obtain the best line.

#### Protein sequence determination

The N-terminal amino acid sequences of light and heavy chains were determined by two different procedures. 1) Individual antibodies were dialyzed against 0.1 M ammonium chloride and the light and heavy chains were sequenced simultaneously. The residue assignments to light and heavy chains were made based on homology considerations. Because of the high degree of sequence conservation among these immunoglobulins, and because of our ability to quantify precisely the phenylthiohydantoin derivatives (28), we are confident of the data obtained using this rapid approach to N-terminal sequence analysis. Immunoglobulins G8 and G15 were analyzed in this manner. 2) Antibodies were reduced in 8 M guanidine, 50 mM dithiothreitol, and 0.5 M Tris at pH 8.2 at 37°C for 1 h, and alkylated for 1 h at 4°C by the addition of 110 mM recrystallized iodoacetamide. The heavy and light chains were then separated on Ultrogel AcA34 (LKB Instruments, Inc., Rockville, Maryland) in 3 M guanidine-0.2 M ammonium bicarbonate, and the protein fractions were desalted on Sephadex G-25 in 0.2 M ammonium hydroxide. The desalted heavy and light chain pools were lyophilized and individually subjected to automatic amino

acid sequence analysis on a modified 890B Beckman sequencer (29) or, in some cases, only the heavy chain was sequenced. If the heavy chain alone was sequenced, the light chain sequence was obtained by subtraction from the alternatives determined as described in procedure 1). The M1, M2, M3, M4, M5, M6, M8, G3, G6, G9, G10, G14 and G16 immunoglobulins were analyzed in this fashion.

## Results

### The $V_H$ regions from phosphorylcholine-binding immunoglobulins fall into one $V_H$ group

The N-terminal amino acid sequences of the  $V_H$  regions from eleven IgM hybridomas, nine IgG hybridomas and nine IgA myeloma proteins that bind phosphorylcholine are shown in Figure 1. Immunoglobulin  $V_H$  regions which differ by two or less amino acids over their N-terminal 27 residues are classified as members of a single group (1). As seen in Figure 1, all 29  $V_H$  regions fall within a single  $V_H$  group. Twenty-two of the  $V_H$  sequences are identical, and six of the remaining seven  $V_H$  regions differ by a single residue from the prototype T15 sequence. The remaining  $V_H$  region G14, differs by six residues. The 12 differences from T15 in these  $V_H$  regions occur at 10 different positions with two identical substitutions seen at position 28 and two nonidentical substitutions at position 29. Eleven of 12 substitutions can be explained by single nucleotide substitutions, and eight of 12 substitutions lie outside the first hypervariable region as defined by Kabat et al. (30).

### The $V_L$ regions from phosphorylcholine-binding immunoglobulins fall into three $V_L$ groups

The N-terminal amino acid sequences of 30  $V_L$  regions from immunoglobulins binding phosphorylcholine are given in Figure 2. The data indicate that the 30  $V_L$  regions fall into three groups. These three groups are the same as those initially

**Figure 1.**  $V_H$  regions of phosphorylcholine-binding antibodies. Amino acids are noted by the one-letter code of Dayhoff (46). HV1 designates the first hypervariable region. All \* proteins come from one mouse, while the † proteins come from a second mouse. Other proteins each come from a different individual. The sequences of HPC16, HPC35, HPC42, and HPC26 are from ref. 18, M603 is from ref. 45, M167 and W3207 are from ref. 2, and W3207, M511, S63, Y5236, H8, and S107 are from ref. 3.

	10	20	30	Source	Class	T15 Idiotypic	V <sub>L</sub> Group
M1	EVKLVESGGGLVQPGGSLRLSCATSGFTFSDFYMEW			hybridoma	IgM	+	T15
M2	_____			"	IgM	+	T15
M3	_____			"	IgM	-	M603
M4	_____			"	IgM	-	M603
M5*	_____			"	IgM	+	T15
M6*†	_____			"	IgM	-	T15
M8	_____			"	IgM	-	T15
HPC16	_____			"	IgM	-	M167
HPC35	_____			"	IgM	-	M21
HPC52	_____			"	IgM	+	T15
HPC126	_____			"	IgM	-	M603
G3*†	_____			"	IgG3	+	T15
G8†	_____			"	IgG3	-	T15
G5†	_____			"	IgG3	-	M167
G9	_____		I	"	IgG3	+	M167
G16†	_____	I	I	"	IgG3	+	T15
G6†	_____	I	I	"	IgG1	+	M167
G10†	_____	L	L	"	IgG1	-	T15
G14	_____		A	"	IgG1	-	M603
G15	_____	EI	ST-Y-S	"	IgG1	-	M167
M603	_____			myeloma	IgA	-	M603
W3207	_____			"	IgA	-	M603
M167	_____			"	IgA	-	M167
M511	_____			"	IgA	-	M167
S63	_____			"	IgA	+	T15
Y5236	_____			"	IgA	+	T15
H8	_____			"	IgA	+	T15
S107	_____			"	IgA	+	T15

**Figure 2.**  $V_L$  regions of phosphorylcholine-binding antibodies.  $V_L$  sequences are categorized according to T15, M603 and M167  $V_L$  groups with the most typical protein of each group used as the prototype. The sequence of HPC16 is written assuming Asx residues are identical to prototype asparagine or aspartic acid residues. Parentheses ( ) indicate probable assignments. HV1, \*, †, as in Figure 1. The sequences of HPC19, HPC104, HPC52, HPC126, and HPC16 are from ref. 18, M167, S63, W3207, and M511 are from ref. 47, and T15, H8, S107, and M603 are from ref. 48.

	10	20	30		Class	Idiotype
M2	DIVMTQSP	FLAVT	ASKKVTISCT	ASESLYSSKHKVHY	IgM	+
M1					IgM	+
M5*					IgM	+
M6*					IgM	-
M8†					IgM	-
HPC52					IgM	+
G3*†					IgG3	+
G9†					IgG3	+
G16†					IgG3	+
G10†					IgG1	-
S63					IgA	+
Y5236					IgA	+
H8					IgA	+
S107					IgA	+
T15					IgA	+
M4	DIVMTQSP	SSLVSA	GEKVTMSCKSSQ	LLNSGNQKNY	IgM	-
M3					IgM	-
HPC126					IgM	-
G14					IgG1	-
W3207					IgA	-
M603					IgA	-
HPC19	DIVTQDELSNP	VTSGESV	SISCRSSK	SLLYKDGKTYL	IgM	-
HPC104					IgM	-
HPC16					IgM	-
G8†					IgG3	-
G5†					IgG3	-
G6†					IgG1	-
G15					IgG1	-
M511					IgA	-
M167					IgA	-

delineated by analysis of light chains from myeloma proteins binding phosphorylcholine, and are known as the T15, M603, and M167 groups (31). Light chains derived from antibodies to phosphorylcholine generated in mouse strains other than BALB/c also fall into these same three  $V_L$  groups (32). Fourteen of 15  $V_L$  regions in the T15 group are identical, and the 15th differs by a single residue substitution which can be explained by a single nucleotide change. Three of six  $V_L$  regions in the M603 group are identical and the other three differ by two, two and five residues. All of these substitutions can be accounted for by single nucleotide changes. Four of nine  $V_L$  regions in the M167 group are identical and the others differ by a single residue. Three of these substitutions require two nucleotide changes (G5, G8 and HPC16). Seven of the 15 substitutions noted in these groups fall outside the first hypervariable region as defined by Kabat et al. (30). There appears to be more diversity in the M603 and M167  $V_L$  groups than in the T15 group.

The T15 idiotype is present on immunoglobulins with sequence heterogeneity in  $V_H$  and  $V_L$  regions

Antisera recognizing the T15 idiotype have been used as a probe to identify a restricted group of antibodies that bind to phosphorylcholine. The immunoglobulin class and idiotype classification of antibodies are given in Figures 1 and 2 and Table I, and show that antibodies with the T15 idiotype are found among proteins of the IgM, IgG3, and IgA classes. The data in Figures 1 and 2 also show that antibodies with the T15 idiotype can have different amino acid sequences in their V regions. Four hybridoma antibodies (M1, M2, M5, and HPC52) and five myeloma proteins (S63, Y5236, H8, S107 and T15) exhibit the T15 idiotype and have identical N-terminal  $V_H$  and  $V_L$  sequences. However, hybridomas G3, G9, and G16 express the T15 idiotype but differ from the proteins described above by one residue either in the  $V_H$  (G9 and G16) or the  $V_L$  (G3) region. These data clearly indicate that antibodies with

**TABLE I**  
Affinity of Antibodies for Phosphorylcholine

Antibodies	Class	T15 idiotype	$K_a \times 10^5 \text{ M}^{-1}$
<u>T15-V<sub>H</sub>, T15-V<sub>L</sub> groups</u>			
M2	IgM	+	3.5
M5	IgM	+	2.4
M8	IgM	-	3.2
G3	IgG3	+	1.3
G10	IgG1	-	4.4
T15	IgA	+	4.3
<u>T15-V<sub>H</sub>, M603-V<sub>L</sub> groups</u>			
M3	IgM	-	0.34
G14	IgG1	-	0.13
W3207	IgA	-	2.5
<u>T15-V<sub>H</sub>, M167-V<sub>L</sub> groups</u>			
G5	IgG3	-	0.25
G6	IgG1	-	1.8
G15	IgG1	-	1.0
M167	IgA	-	1.9

\*Equilibrium dialysis experiments were performed at 25°C. Binding constants were accurate to ±10%.

The T15 idiotype comprise a family of closely related but distinct V regions, and, in this regard, are similar to immunoglobulins which bind dextran (33).

#### Affinity for phosphorylcholine does not correlate with heavy chain class

The affinity constants for various phosphorylcholine-binding immunoglobulins are given in Table 1. The Scatchard plots were linear, and the number of binding sites ranged from 1.7 to 2.0 for monomeric forms. Values of  $\alpha$ , the heterogeneity index, were calculated by the Sips distribution function and ranged from 0.9 to 1.06, indicating homogeneity of binding sites. The association constants cover a 30-fold range from 0.13 to  $4.4 \times 10^5 \text{ M}^{-1}$ . There is no significant difference in the average affinity of IgM versus IgG antibodies.

### **Discussion**

#### The hybridoma technique permits an examination of the normal antibody repertoire in the spleen

The myeloma and hybridoma immunoglobulins binding phosphorylcholine differ in one striking feature - their class distribution. Hybridoma antibodies are of the IgM and IgG heavy chain classes, whereas the myeloma proteins are of the IgA class (Fig. 1). This nonoverlapping distribution of classes is probably due to the different origins of hybridoma and myeloma cells. The hybridoma antibodies were obtained from immunized spleen cells, whereas the myeloma proteins were synthesized by B cells in the peritoneal cavity. It has been previously shown that B cells specific for phosphorylcholine from gut-associated lymphoid tissues primarily give rise to IgA-producing clones, whereas clones derived from splenic B cells produce mainly IgM, IgG, and IgA (34). The fact that the gut-associated lymphoid tissues receive different antigenic exposures than the spleen suggests that different repertoires of V regions will be selectively expressed in the corresponding populations of B cells.

Thus the hybridoma process may transform a different population of B cells than the myeloma process:

The hybridoma technique also allows one to analyze many B cells from an individual mouse, whereas each myeloma tumor comes from a different mouse. For example, four of the seven nonprototype  $V_H$  sequences and three of the nine nonprototype  $V_L$  regions come from hybridomas generated in a single mouse (Figures 1 and 2). This observation underscores the fact that extensive antibody heterogeneity is a property of individual mice and not just of the population of BALB/c mice.

Another important advantage of the hybridoma technique is the possibility for experimental manipulation of the animal's immune response prior to cell fusion. For example, the idiotypic characterization and N-terminal sequence analysis of five hybridoma IgM antibodies to phosphorylcholine from mice suppressed for the T15 idiotype have recently been examined (HPC104, HPC126, HPC19, HPC16, HPC35) (17, 18) in addition to the two reported here (M3, M4). Five  $V_H$  regions fall into the T15 group and the remaining two are derived from a new  $V_H$  group (HPC19 and HPC104, not shown). Three  $V_L$  regions are of the M167 group, three are of the M603 group, and one is derived from a different  $V_L$  group (HPC35, not shown). No light chains of the T15  $V_L$  group were noted. The suppression of the T15 idiotype clearly selects against B cells expressing the T15  $V_L$  group.

Does somatic variation occur in the  $V_H$  segments derived from immunoglobulins binding phosphorylcholine?

The  $V_H$  region is encoded by three distinct gene segments—V(variable), D (diversity), and J (joining) (33, 35). The  $V_H$  gene segment encodes approximately residues 1-99. The question arises as to whether V segment (that portion of the V region encoded by the V gene segment) diversity arises entirely from multiple germline genes, or whether some of the diversity must occur by somatic variation. A cloned  $V_H$  probe derived from a full length cDNA copy of the heavy chain mRNA derived from the

S107 myeloma tumor (36) has been used to analyze undifferentiated (embryo) DNA by Southern blot analysis (37). [The S107 and T15  $V_H$  regions are identical in sequence (3).] Approximately eight to nine restriction fragments hybridize with this probe. Experiments have demonstrated that the S107  $V_H$  probe cross-reacts with mRNAs from M167 and M603 (36). Because these are among the most different  $V_H$  regions from phosphorylcholine-binding immunoglobulins (3), the S107 cDNA probe should detect most, if not all, of the  $V_H$  genes in the T15 group. If each fragment hybridizing with the S107 cDNA probe contains one  $V_H$  gene segment belonging to the T15  $V_H$  group, then there appear to be eight or nine  $V_H$  germline genes of the T15  $V_H$  group. One can next ask, how many different  $V_H$  gene segments are present among the phosphorylcholine-specific myeloma and hybridoma proteins sequenced to date? Among the nine myeloma  $V_H$  regions that are completely sequenced, four differ in their V segments from the T15  $V_H$  region by one to seven residues (3). Among the 20 hybridoma  $V_H$  regions that have been examined over their N-terminus, five differ from the T15  $V_H$  region and from the myeloma  $V_H$  variants. Additional sequence data on the  $V_H$  region of G3 also demonstrate that it differs from the T15  $V_H$  sequences (38). Thus, in the 29  $V_H$  regions derived from immunoglobulins binding phosphorylcholine, 11 different  $V_H$  segments are present. This is more than the expected number of phosphorylcholine-specific  $V_H$  gene segments. Additional sequence analysis of the hybridomas now available, as well as the analysis of new examples, will almost certainly increase the number of  $V_H$  segment variants well beyond the number of germline  $V_H$  gene segments encoding the T15  $V_H$  group. Accordingly, even if nine somewhat underestimates the number of T15  $V_H$ -like gene segments, the observed phenotypic variation suggests that a portion of the V segment diversity arises by somatic variation. It is interesting to note, as judged by the data in Figure 1, that variation occurs as frequently outside as within the hypervariable region (8 or 12  $V_H$  substitutions are outside the first

hypervariable region). Accordingly, either the framework variants arise from distinct germline  $V_H$  gene segments or the presumptive mechanism for somatic variation is not confined to the hypervariable segments.

An alternative explanation for the V region diversity that we have noted above is the possibility of genetic polymorphism in V gene segments among mice of the BALB/c strain. Although we cannot rule this possibility out, we feel it is unlikely for several reasons. First, BALB/c mice have been inbred for hundreds of generations and mice obtained from a single source should be greater than 99% homozygous (39). Second, restriction digests of the DNAs from individuals and pools of mice have never shown any polymorphisms in C genes from BALB/c mice. Finally, the polymorphism would presumably have to be far more extensive than that known for other well-studied systems (e.g., globins and haptoglobins) in order to explain the extensive V region diversity that we have noted here. Admittedly, comparisons between multigene families such as the immunoglobulin V genes and the genes coding for C regions, globins, and haptoglobins are not entirely valid. Nonetheless, we feel that the above observations are relevant. Therefore it appears likely that the V region variation arises from multiple germline V gene segments and possibly some mechanism for somatic variation.

IgG antibodies binding phosphorylcholine exhibit more diversity than their IgM counterparts

The  $V_H$  regions from 11 IgM hybridomas do not show any diversity in their N-terminal 37 residues (Fig. 1). In contrast, the corresponding portions of the  $V_H$  regions from IgG hybridomas vary in six of the nine examples studied. The same pattern is seen in the corresponding  $V_L$  regions (Fig. 2). Eleven of 12 IgM light chains are identical in sequence to the prototype sequence of their respective groups while five of nine IgG  $V_L$  regions vary. Thus eight out of nine of the IgG antibodies vary

from the V group prototype sequences in either their  $V_H$  or  $V_L$  regions, whereas only one of the 10 IgM antibodies varies. Only 10 IgM antibodies are used in this comparison because the heavy chains of HPC19 and HPC104 do not belong to the T15  $V_H$  group, and the light chain of HPC35 does not belong to the T15, M603, or M167  $V_L$  group (18).

One possible explanation for these differences between IgG and IgM proteins is that both arise from the same population and the differences are due to sampling errors. We used Fisher's exact method to demonstrate that it is very unlikely that these differences arise by sampling error. The probability that  $V_L$  regions of the IgM molecules and the  $V_L$  regions of the IgG molecules were selected from the same population is less than 0.05; likewise, the probability that the  $V_H$  regions from the IgM and IgG molecules were drawn from the same pool is 0.01; finally, the probability that both the  $V_L$  and  $V_H$  regions of these molecules were drawn from common populations is less than 0.005. Thus the IgG polypeptides are significantly more diverse than their IgM counterparts.

Recombinant DNA studies have suggested that IgG- and IgA-producing cells are generally derived from B cells initially producing IgM (40-43). Thus the greater diversity of the IgG hybridomas must arise from infrequent variants, either in IgM- or IgG-producing B cells, which are selectively expanded and expressed in IgG-producing cells. (In this discussion the word variant refers to a nonprototype sequence of either somatic or germline origin.) Two important questions arise. First, how and when are the infrequent variants generated? Second, what selective pressures give rise to the differences between IgM and IgG diversity?

The infrequent variant clones which undergo expansion to create IgG diversity may arise either by somatic variation or may be encoded by germline V gene segments. Our data suggest that both of these sources may contribute such variant clones. For example, the M167  $V_L$  group, while encoded in the germline separately from

M603  $V_L$  and T15  $V_L$  groups, is not seen in the six IgM light chain sequences from unsuppressed mice. In mice suppressed with anti-T15 sera, however, three out of seven IgM antibodies express the M167  $V_L$  group (only one IgM expresses both the T15  $V_H$  and the M167  $V_L$ ). Four out of nine IgG antibodies from unsuppressed mice also express the M167  $V_L$  group. Thus it appears that the T15  $V_L$  group is dominant in the IgM pool in normal mice but that suppression allows infrequent IgM M167  $V_L$  group clones to be observed. These IgM M167  $V_L$  group clones increase in frequency in the IgG pool. As discussed earlier, somatic diversification also may account for some of the observed sequence differences in the IgG pool.

The time at which variants are first expressed cannot be determined from these data. Some variants are probably encoded in the germline and arise early in differentiation. Somatic variants may be created as a result of normal somatic mutation or by special mutational mechanisms. Such somatic mutation processes could operate in IgM- or IgG-producing cells, in cells switching from IgM to IgG, or in cells triggered by antigen.

One may envision two types of selection operating on germline or somatic variants which could result in the observed IgM-IgG diversity difference. i) Antigen-driven selection. Variant B-cell clones may be expanded as the result of increased affinity for antigen. As IgG-producing cell populations have undergone more antigen-driven selection than IgM populations, IgG antibodies should show more variability than IgM antibodies (44). On the surface, the data present in Table I would appear to argue against this possibility. The range of affinity constants seen in the IgM and IgG antibodies are not significantly different. However, these data do not exclude the possibility that the in vitro affinity of soluble antibody for free hapten could be significantly different than the affinity of cell surface antibodies for the hapten-carrier conjugate in vivo. Selection for variants in nonbinding site regions may occur whenever framework residues modify the positions of binding-site residues. ii) Idiotypic selection. Selection

of infrequent variants may be accomplished by idiotype-specific regulation. For example, if idiotype-specific suppression helps control the level of predominant clones, then mutation away from such suppressed idiotypes would be a major selective advantage. As IgG-producing cells have undergone more somatic generations than IgM-producing cells, selection will have had more opportunity to generate diversity in IgG molecules. Alternatively, IgM and IgG molecules may have unknown qualitative and quantitative differences in their idiotypic regulation.

IgA antibodies, like IgG antibodies, are produced by secondary cells and have presumably undergone many rounds of antigen and idiotype-specific selection. This similarity would suggest that the diversity patterns of IgA antibodies should resemble those of IgG antibodies. However, only four out of nine IgA proteins differ from the prototype sequences shown in Figure 1, and there is only one amino acid difference in nine IgA  $V_H$  N-termini. The IgA diversity appears intermediate between that of the IgG and IgM molecules.

An analysis of the complete  $V_H$  segments from five  $\mu$  chains and four  $\gamma$  chains from hybridomas binding phosphorylcholine has been carried out (38). A comparison of IgM  $V_H$  segments with their nine IgA myeloma counterparts (2, 3, 45) suggests that the  $V_H$  regions from  $\alpha$  chains are significantly more diverse than those from  $\mu$  chains. Thus, the N-terminal 36 residues of the IgA  $V_H$  regions give a misleading picture of the diversity in the remainder of the  $V_H$  segment. The IgA as well as the IgG  $V_H$  regions exhibit significantly more diversity than their IgM counterparts.

### Summary

An amino acid sequence analysis of the N-terminal  $V_H$  and  $V_L$  regions from 20 hybridoma and nine myeloma proteins directed against phosphorylcholine raises several interesting points. First, the  $V_H$  segments of these immunoglobulins demonstrate sufficient variability to raise the possibility of somatic diversification. Second,

the IgG antibodies exhibit significantly more variability than their IgM counterparts. These data suggest that the selection of infrequent germline or somatically-generated clones gives rise to greater heterogeneity in the IgG pool than in the IgM pool. Lastly, the T15 idiotype represents a population of closely related but distinct  $V_H$  and  $V_L$  regions.

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**Chapter 3**

The amino acid sequence of nine V<sub>H</sub> regions from  
hybridomas binding phosphorylcholine

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THE AMINO ACID SEQUENCE OF NINE  $V_H$  REGIONS FROM  
HYBRIDOMAS BINDING PHOSPHORYLCHOLINE

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Running title: 9  $V_H$  Sequences

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An understanding of the mechanisms responsible for antibody diversity has been a goal that has intrigued biologists for the past 80 years. In the last few years, as a result of recombinant DNA techniques and protein sequence analyses, immunologists have been able to directly compare sequence information obtained from antibody genes and proteins and thereby have gained important insights into at least some of the mechanisms responsible for antibody diversity (1-4).

Antibody molecules are composed of heavy (H) and light (L) chains which in turn are both divided into variable (V) and constant (C) regions. Comparative analyses of many variable regions demonstrate two important patterns. First, amino acid sequence variability is unevenly distributed throughout the V region. The antigen-binding site is lined with extremely variable sections termed hypervariable regions, while nonbinding site, or framework, regions are more highly conserved (5-8). The existence of hypervariable regions has suggested that somatic mechanisms may play a role in diversity generation (9, 10). Second, V regions fall into sets or groups of closely related sequences (formerly termed subgroups) (11, 12). The minor variation within the V regions of a particular group has afforded special insights into mechanisms of diversity (4, 12, 13).

The antibody molecules are encoded by three unlinked families of genes--two light chain families, lambda ( $\lambda$ ) and kappa ( $\kappa$ ), and a heavy chain family. The  $V_L$  regions are encoded by two distinct gene segments,  $V_L$  and  $J_L$  (joining), whereas the  $V_H$  regions appear to be encoded by three distinct gene segments,  $V_H$ , D (diversity), and  $J_H$ . The  $J_L$  gene segments encode a small portion of the L chain third hypervariable region, whereas the D and  $J_H$  gene segments encode most of the H chain third hypervariable region. The C regions for both light and heavy chains are encoded by C genes separate from the V genes (1, 14).

Analyses at the protein and in certain cases the DNA level for several sets of closely related antibody V regions have provided important insights about mechanisms

for antibody diversity. i) There appear to be several hundred germline  $V_{\kappa}$  and  $V_H$  gene segments. Thus germline diversity in these gene families is extensive (15). ii) There are four functional  $J_H$  and  $J_{\kappa}$  gene segments (1, 16, 17). It appears that any  $J_H$  gene segment may be joined with any  $V_H$  gene segment and likewise any  $J_{\kappa}$  gene segment with any  $V_{\kappa}$  gene segment. This combinatorial joining is an important mechanism for amplifying diversity (18). iii) The site-specific recombination mechanism which joins the  $V_L$  and  $J_L$  or  $V_H$ , D, and  $J_H$  gene segments may unite particular gene segments at different nucleotides and, accordingly, generate somatic variation at these junctions during the act of joining (16-18). iv) V regions appear to exhibit somatic variation beyond that which can be explained by the germline V gene repertoire and gene segment junctional diversity. In the  $V_{\lambda}$  system this diversity appears exclusively in the hypervariable regions (10), but in several others it may be present in framework regions as well (19, 20).

The first paper in this series described the N-terminal  $V_H$  and  $V_L$  sequences for 16 hybridoma antibodies binding the simple hapten phosphorylcholine (21). Two interesting observations were made. First, somatic variation appears to be necessary to account for the diversity noted in the N-termini of the  $V_H$  regions in these immunoglobulins. Second, the  $V_H$  regions from  $\gamma$  chains are significantly more diverse than their  $\mu$  counterparts. We report here the complete  $V_H$  region sequences from seven hybridomas binding phosphorylcholine and the complete  $V_H$  segment sequences of two additional hybridomas. These studies delineate in more detail the nature of diversity in the  $V_H$ , D, and  $J_H$  gene segments of phosphorylcholine antibodies and support the earlier observation that the  $V_H$  regions from  $\gamma$  chains are more diverse than their  $\mu$  counterparts.

## Materials and Methods

Isolation of Hybridoma Proteins. Hybridoma proteins were isolated as previously

described (21).

Chain Separation. Hybridoma proteins were mildly reduced in 0.4 M Tris, pH 8.2, 0.15 M NaCl, 2 mM EDTA, 30 mM DTT at room temperature for 1.5 h and alkylated at 4°C for 2 h in 65 mM recrystallized iodoacetamide. The reduced and alkylated proteins were precipitated by the dropwise addition of an equal volume of saturated  $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$  at 4°C for at least 2 h and the precipitate collected by centrifugation. The precipitate was then dissolved in 8 M guanidine HCl and diluted to either 3 M or 5 M guanidine for chain separation. IgM and IgG1 hybridomas were fractionated on LKB Ultrogel AcA34 in 3 M guanidine HCl, 0.2 M  $\text{NH}_5\text{CO}_3$  while the IgG3 proteins, because of their tendency to aggregate, were fractionated on Pharmacia Sephacryl S-200 equilibrated in 5 M guanidine, 0.2 M  $\text{NH}_5\text{CO}_3$ . Heavy chain peaks were desalted on Sephadex G-25 in 0.2 M  $\text{NH}_3$ .

Cyanogen Bromide Digests and Treatment of Cyanogen Bromide Fragments.

Desalted and lyophilized heavy chains were digested with 2.5% cyanogen bromide in 70%  $\text{HCO}_2\text{H}$  for 24 h at 4°C. The digest was then diluted 12-fold, lyophilized twice, and applied to an LKB Ultrogel AcA54 column equilibrated in 3 M guanidine 0.2 M  $\text{NH}_4\text{CO}_3$ . After chromatography in guanidine, cyanogen bromide fragments were desalted on G-25 either in 0.2 M  $\text{NH}_3$  or 0.5 M  $\text{NH}_3$ . All fragments from V region position 35 to 82 were desalted in 0.5 M  $\text{NH}_3$ .

Precipitation of the 35 to 82 fragment was adapted from Rudikoff and Potter (22). Briefly, the fragment was dissolved in 10% acetic acid and the pH was raised by the addition of concentrated  $\text{NH}_4\text{OH}$  until a precipitate formed. This precipitate was spun out in the cold and contained only the 35-82 fragment.

Other Chemical Modifications. Complete reduction and alkylation was as above but performed in the presence of 8 M guanidine.

Succinylation was performed in 0.2 M Tris, 8 M guanidine, pH 9.5 using a 20:1

weight ratio of succinic anhydride to protein. The pH was maintained with 2 N NaOH and an automatic titrator. Succinylated fragments were desalted on G-25 in 0.2 M  $\text{NH}_3$ , lyophilized, and cleaved at tryptophane residues in 35% cyanogen bromide, 1:1 heptafluorobutyric acid:88% formic acid for 18 h at room temperature (23). This cleavage mixture was dried, redissolved in trifluoroacetic acid, and applied to the sequenator.

Amino Acid Sequence Determination. Automated sequence analysis was done on an extensively modified Beckman 890B protein sequenator (24) and the phenylthiohydantoin amino acids determined using high performance liquid chromatography (25).

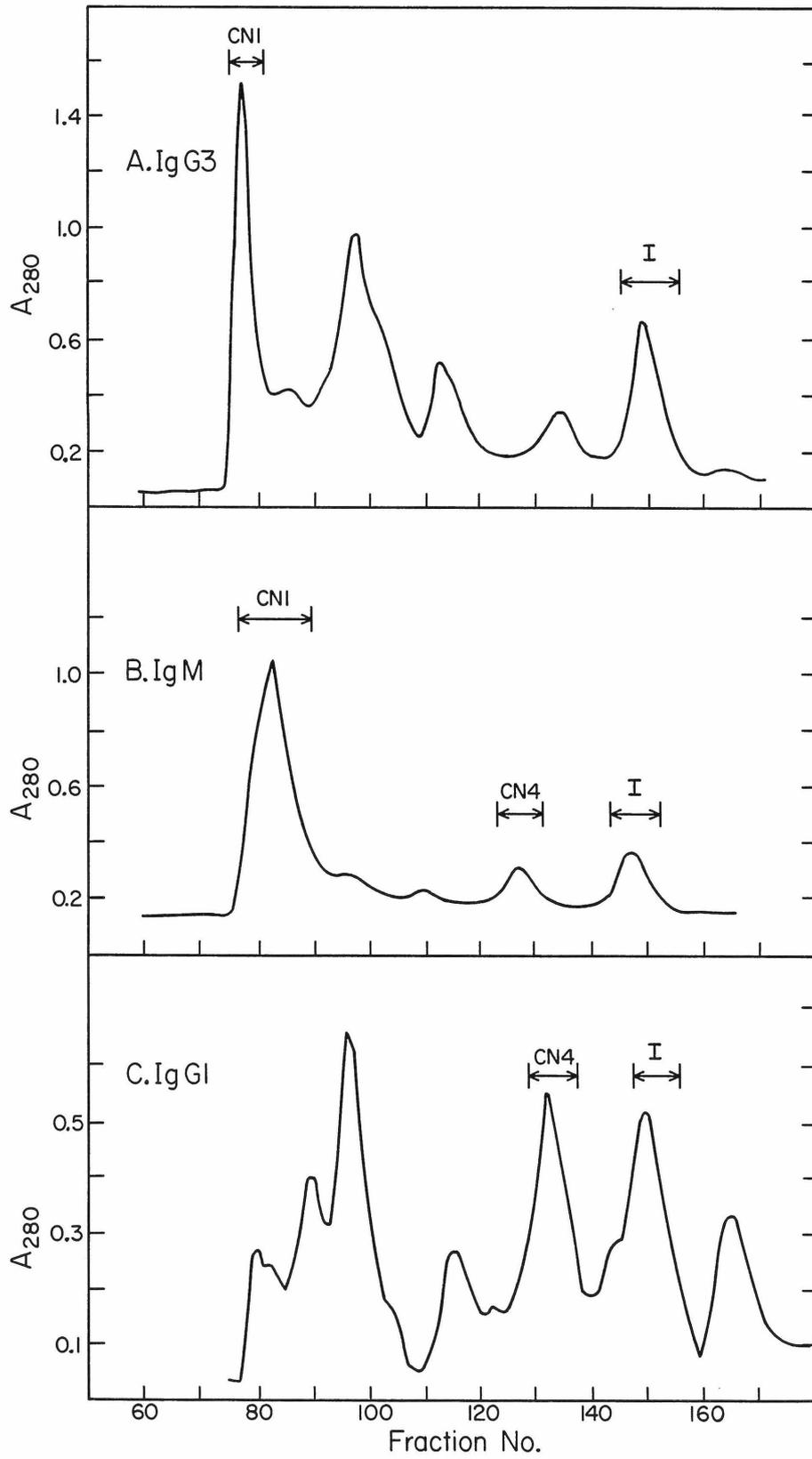
Trypsin Digests and 2-Dimensional Paper Maps. Trypsin digests were done at a 1:100 w/w enzyme:substrate ratio. The digests were subjected to chromatography and electrophoresis on paper (26) and then lightly sprayed with 0.1% ninhydrin in ethanol. Colors were developed for 6 min at 100°C and the spots cut out and extracted with 1 M  $\text{NH}_3$  (acidic peptides) or 5%  $\text{HCO}_2\text{H}$  (basic peptides).

## Results

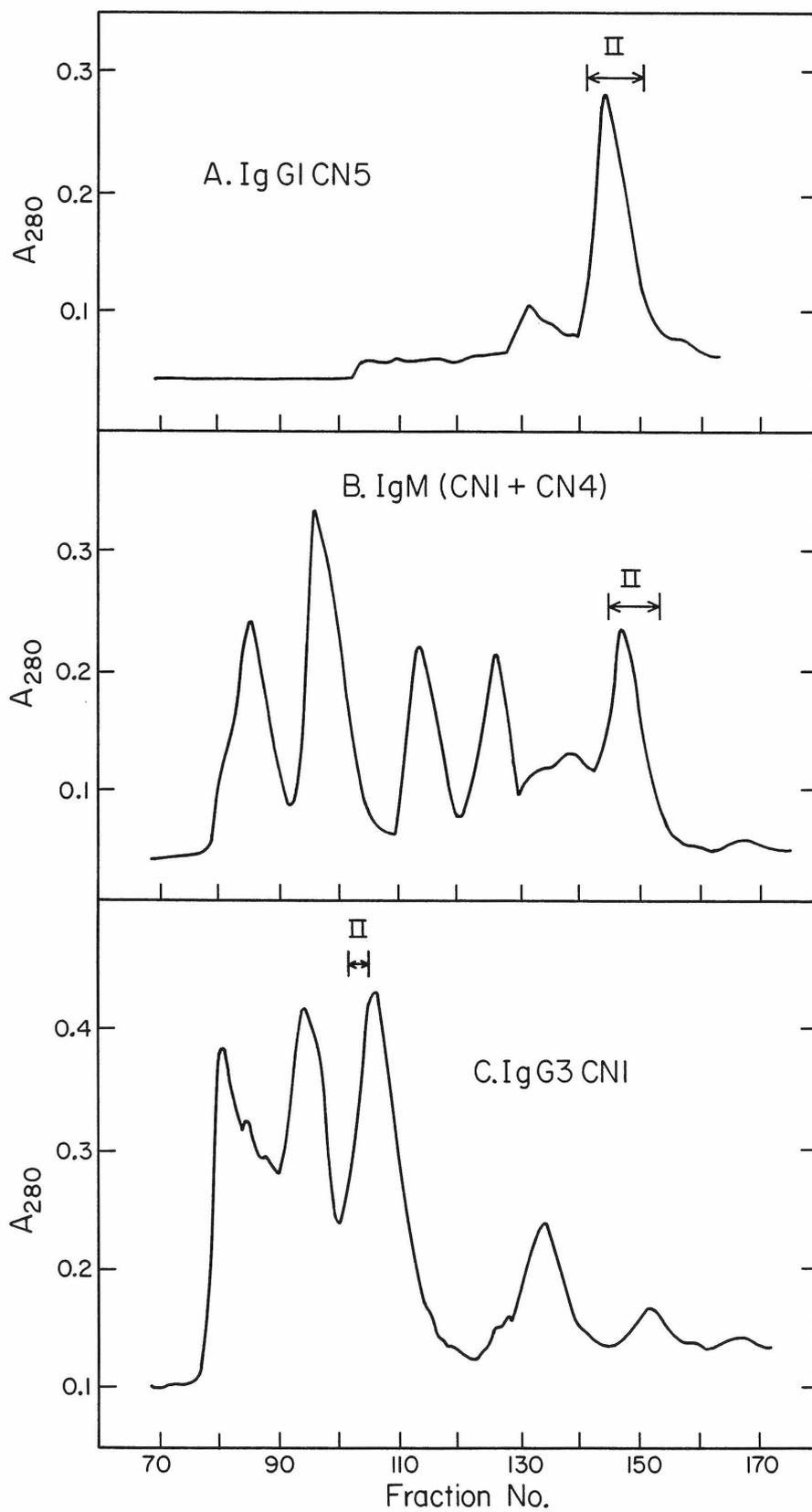
Isolation of Cyanogen Bromide Fragments from the  $V_H$  Region. Figs. 1 and 2 show the cyanogen bromide gel filtration patterns of  $\mu$ ,  $\gamma 1$ , and  $\gamma 3$  heavy chains. In each case the V region contains two methionines, Met 34 and Met 82. The cyanogen bromide fragment extending from positions 35 to Met 82 is labeled with the numeral I followed by the heavy chain class ( $I\mu$ ,  $I\gamma 1$ ,  $I\gamma 3$ ), and the fragment from position 83 into the C region is labeled with the numeral II followed by the heavy chain class ( $II\mu$ ,  $II\gamma 1$ ,  $II\gamma 3$ ).

The procedures for the isolation of the I peptides are shown in Fig. 1. The peptides  $I\gamma 3$  and  $I\mu$  can be isolated cleanly by a single dimension of gel filtration as shown in Figs. 1A and 1B. The  $I\gamma 1$  peptide can be isolated either by precipitation

**Figure 1.** CNBr profiles of hybridoma heavy chains. Heavy chains were isolated, CNBr digested, and chromatographed on AcA54 in 3 M guanidine, 0.2 M  $\text{NH}_5\text{CO}_3$ .  
a) IgG3 (G3 heavy chain). b) IgM (M3 heavy chain). c) IgG1 (G6 heavy chain).



**Figure 2.** Profiles of fully reduced and alkylated heavy chain CNBr fragments. Fragments were obtained as in Figure 1 and were fully reduced and alkylated and rechromatographed on AcA54 (in 3 M guanidine, 0.2 M  $\text{NH}_5\text{CO}_3$ ). a) IgG1 CN4, from Figure 1c. b) IgM (CN1 + CN4), from Figure 1b. c) IgG3 CN1, from Figure 1a.



away from contaminating peptides as described in Materials and Methods or by using only the low molecular weight component of the I $\gamma$ 1 peak as shown in Fig. 1C.

The II peptides are contained as mixtures in CN1  $\gamma$ 3 (Fig. 1A), CN4 $\mu$  (Fig. 1B), and CN4  $\gamma$ 1 (Fig. 1C). Each of these peptide mixtures was fully reduced and alkylated and was refractionated on AcA54. In the case of the  $\mu$  chains, the CN1 peptide also was included to avoid losses due to disulfide interchange. The profiles of these chromatographic runs are shown in Fig. 2. The II $\gamma$ 1 and II $\mu$  peptides can be isolated by pooling the designated peaks in Figs. 2A and 2B, while II $\gamma$ 3 can be isolated cleanly by pooling only the first 40% of the appropriate peak in Fig. 2C.

Heavy Chain Sequence Determination. A summary of the strategies for amino acid sequence analysis are shown schematically in Fig. 3. The N-terminal 38 residues of each heavy chain was determined by a single run on an intact chain.

The I peptides were all sequenced for at least 36 cycles. In some cases the entire peptide was sequenced including the C-terminal homoserine, whereas in other cases residues 67 through 82 were determined by the complete sequence analysis of two smaller tryptic peptides isolated from paper (i.e., peptides including positions 67 to 71 and 72 to 82).

The II peptides were generally sequenced for 40 cycles to determine the remainder of the V region sequence. However, in some cases the II $\mu$  peptides washed out of the sequenator cup before the completion of the run. When this occurred, intact II peptides were succinylated, cleaved at the tryptophane residue, and sequenced. The tryptophane cleavage of succinylated II $\mu$  peptides yields two peptides with unblocked N termini: one five residue peptide of known sequence (100C to 103) and one longer peptide of partially unknown sequence (104 to the C terminus of II $\mu$ ). A sequenator run on this mixture permitted the unambiguous determination of the remainder of the V region sequence.

**Figure 3.**  $V_H$  region sequencing strategy. All of the hybridoma  $V_H$  regions were sequenced in the same general way as outlined for the M3 protein in this figure. In some cases it was necessary to generate peptides from tryptic and tryptophane cleavages. These peptides are indicated in the figure.

—→	amino acids determined by automatic sequenator
( )	tryptic peptide
[ ]	peptide sequenced after succinylation and tryptophane cleavage

Amino acid residues are numbered as in Ref. 30.

1    5    10    15    20    25    30    35    40    45    50    55  
 EVKLVESGGGLVQPPGGLRLSCATSGFTFSDFYMEWVRQPPGKRLIEWIAASRNKANDYTTEY

---

60    65    70    75    80    abc    85    90    95    100    abc    105    110  
 SASVKGRFIVSRDTSQSILYLQMNALRAEDTAIYYCARDYYGSSYWFYFDVWGAGTTVTVSS

↔ X ↔ )    [ ↔ ] [ ↔ ]

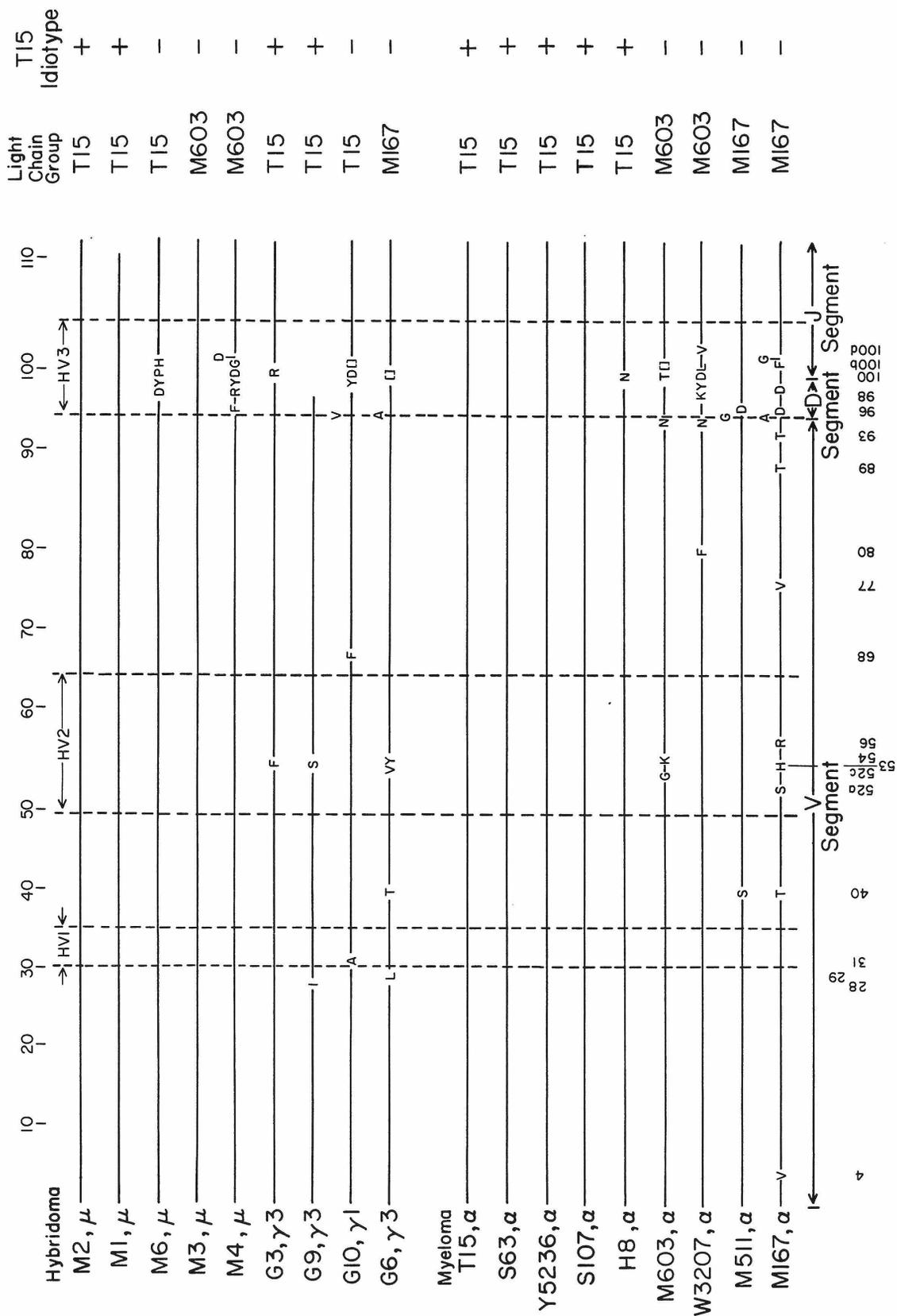
## Discussion

The Hybridoma and Myeloma  $V_H$  Regions Show Similar Patterns of Diversity.

The  $V_H$  regions from nine hybridoma antibodies to phosphorylcholine are compared to their nine myeloma counterparts in Fig. 4. M4 is sequenced to the end of the D segment and G9 is sequenced up to the end of the V segment. Three hybridoma and four myeloma  $V_H$  regions are identical to the T15 prototype  $V_H$  sequence. The variant hybridoma  $V_H$  sequences differ by one to six residues from T15 and the variant myeloma  $V_H$  sequences differ by one to 11 residues. In both the hybridoma and myeloma  $V_H$  regions, insertions and deletions occur only in the third hypervariable region. In the hybridoma  $V_H$  regions 16 of 21 (76%) variant residues are found in hypervariable regions, and similarly 22 of 29 (76%) variant residues in the myeloma  $V_H$  regions are located in the hypervariable regions. Both hybridoma and myeloma  $V_H$  regions are expressed with three V groups of light chains--the T15  $V_L$  group, the M603  $V_L$  group, and the M167  $V_L$  group. Since the basic patterns in the hybridoma and myeloma  $V_H$  regions appear similar, we will consider both sets of data together in analyzing the diversity patterns in the V segments (residues 1-95), the D segments (residues 96-100a) and in the J segments (100b-113) which are encoded, respectively, by the  $V_H$ , D, and  $J_H$  gene segments.

The  $V_H$  Segments Demonstrate Diversity in the Framework as well as Hypervariable Regions. Nine  $V_H$  segments are identical and 9 others differ by one to eight substitutions. Generally the variant V segments differ by two or more widely scattered substitutions. Twenty-two variant residues are present at 15 different positions. Single base changes can account for 20 of 22 amino acid substitutions, and two substitutions require two base changes. Four positions show variation in more than one  $V_H$  region: position 53 has four amino acid substitutions, position 52c has two substitutions, position 28 has an identical substitution in two  $V_H$  regions, and two different

**Figure 4.** The  $V_H$  regions from phosphorylcholine binding proteins. Hyper-variable regions are shown at the top of the figure (HV1, HV2, and HV3) and V, D, and J segment boundaries are shown at the bottom. A solid line indicates identity to the T15 prototype, insertions and deletions are shown by residues above the solid line and by [ ], and amino acid substitutions are labeled using the one-letter code by Dayhoff (31). Positions of amino acid substitutions are labeled at the bottom of the figure except in HV3 where every other residue is labeled.  $V_L$  group, heavy chain class, and presence (+) or absence (-) of the T15 idio type are shown for each sequence. The T15 and M167 sequences are from Ref. 3, the M603 sequence is from Ref. 22, and the S63, Y5236, S107, H8, W3207, and M511 sequences are from Ref. 32.



amino acids occur in the three  $V_H$  regions with variability at position 40. It is important to stress that no two of the variant V segments are identical.

As was discussed in the preceding paper, the  $V_H$  regions from immunoglobulins binding phosphorylcholine appear to be encoded by perhaps 8-9  $V_H$  gene segments. Accordingly, the V segment diversity noted in these heavy chains might arise from one of several sources: germline  $V_H$  gene segments (15), ordinary somatic mutation (10), a special hypermutation mechanism (9), or by somatic recombination, presumably among related  $V_H$  gene segments (15).

D Segment Diversity is Extensive. If we count each insertion or deletion as well as amino acid substitutions, the D segment has 23 variant positions over 102 residues analyzed. This D region variation tends to be clustered, since the ten variant proteins each average over two D segment substitutions. Fig. 4 demonstrates that the D segment diversity is of three types: i) isolated single base changes (e.g., position 99 in M167 and 100 in H8 and G3); ii) insertions or deletions at either end of the D segment (e.g., M4, G6, G10, M603, M511, and M167); and iii) blocks of amino acid substitutions (e.g., W3207, M4, M6, and G10). The single base substitutions could arise from the presence of multiple germline D gene segments or from somatic variation. The insertions or deletions of codons associated with either end of the D segment probably arise from the site-specific recombinational mechanism that joins the  $V_H$  and D or the D and  $J_H$  gene segments. This diversity arises because the actual DNA splice points may occur at different sites on each of these three gene segments, as has been well documented (16-19). The blocks of substitutions may arise from multiple germline D segments, from the splicing together of two germline D gene segments, or from a variety of other possibly somatic diversification mechanisms.

D gene segments have not yet been isolated from germline DNA. Accordingly, we can only guess as to the number and diversity of germline D gene segments.

As a result of D segment variability, the heavy chain third hypervariable region is the most diverse V region segment. This can be clearly seen in the  $V_H$  regions of immunoglobulins binding phosphorylcholine as well as those binding dextran (4).

The  $J_H$  Segments from Immunoglobulins Binding Phosphorylcholine are Encoded by One Germline  $J_H$  Gene Segment. Mouse heavy chains are encoded by four different  $J_H$  gene segments. In the 16  $V_H$  regions from hybridoma antibodies binding phosphorylcholine that can be compared, all appear to have J segments derived from the  $J_{H1}$  gene segment. Five J segments have N-terminal substitutions and one  $J_H$  segment has an additional single base substitution. The N-terminal residue from the  $J_H$  segments of M6, G10, M603, and W3207 is different than that of T15. The N-terminal two residues of the  $J_H$  segment from M167 also differ from their T15 counterpart. Three of these five  $J_H$  segment changes are compatible with two base substitutions. Once, again, we feel this diversity can be explained by variability in the DNA splice point for joining the D and  $J_H$  gene segments (16-18). The  $J_H$  segment conservation seen in the phosphorylcholine-binding heavy chains provides a counterexample to the  $J_H$  segment diversity seen in antibodies which bind dextran. In the 19  $V_H$  regions derived from hybridoma antibodies binding dextran, all four  $J_H$  gene segments are expressed (4).

The  $V_H$  Segments from IgG Hybridoma and IgA Myeloma Immunoglobulins Binding Phosphorylcholine Show More Diversity than Their IgM Counterparts. An analysis of the N-terminal portions of these  $V_H$  regions discussed in the first paper in this series suggested that IgM  $V_H$  regions were considerably less diverse than their IgG counterparts (21). For example, ten  $V_H$  and  $V_L$  N-termini from IgM hybridoma immunoglobulins showed only one one-base substitution when compared to prototype sequences of the corresponding  $V_H$  groups. On the other hand, eight of nine IgG antibodies had from one to 11 differences. Using Fisher's exact method, the diversity

differences between IgM and IgG molecules are highly significant ( $p < .005$ ). The extensive sequence data presented in this paper allow a more detailed comparison to be made between IgG, IgA, and IgM  $V_H$  segments. Five of five  $V_H$  segments from  $\mu$  chains are identical to the T15 prototype sequences (Fig. 4). Four of four  $V_H$  segments from  $\gamma$  chains differ from the T15 prototype. Four of nine  $V_H$  segments from  $\alpha$  chains differ from the T15 prototype. These data reinforce the early supposition that the  $\gamma$   $V_H$  segments are more diverse than their  $\mu$  counterparts. Moreover, the  $\alpha$  chains also appear to be significantly more diverse than their  $\mu$  counterparts ( $p < 0.05$ ), although they may be somewhat less diverse than their  $\gamma$  counterparts. Possible explanations for these diversity differences have been discussed in the first paper of this series (21).

Selection Imposes Several Constraints on the Immunoglobulins Binding Phosphorylcholine. The contact residues for phosphorylcholine binding are highly conserved. Padlan *et al.* have proposed that the heavy chain tyrosine 33 and arginine 52 are the principal hapten-contact residues for heavy chains. In addition, there are probably charge interactions with lysine 52b and glutamic acid 35 and van der Waals interactions with residues 98 and 99 (27). While residues 98 and 99 vary somewhat in the sample of proteins analyzed here, the  $V_H$  regions in the T15  $V_H$  group from proteins which bind phosphorylcholine show considerable conservation of the other contact residues. In all of these  $V_H$  regions sequenced to date, there are no substitutions at tyrosine 33, arginine 52, and lysine 52b and only one glutamic acid-serine interchange at position 35. (The glutamic acid-serine interchange is from Ref. 21.) This conservation is consistent with the importance of these residues in the binding of phosphorylcholine.

IgG and IgA antibodies show special diversity at residues 40 and 53. We have previously postulated that the diversity differences between IgM antibodies and IgG and IgA antibodies are the result of selection. Hence it is important to try to answer the question, is there any pattern to the amino acid variability in IgG

and IgM  $V_H$  segments? We feel that Figure 4 includes at least two such patterns of sequence variability, even though the limited number of non-T15 sequences makes these patterns difficult to detect. D segment variability is excluded from this discussion because of its possible special diversification mechanisms.

Ten out of 23  $V_H$  segment substitutions occur at five positions in the second hypervariable region. Four of these substitutions occur at residue 53. We feel that this increased sequence variability at and around residue 53 is significant. It may result from some form of selection or from an unknown site-specific hypermutational mechanism.

A second position with an unusual pattern of sequence variability is position 40. M511, M167, and G6 have a hydroxyamino acid at position 40 while all other  $V_H$  regions have proline. Position 40 is five residues outside of the first hypervariable region and is part of a loop that interacts strongly with the light chain (27). M511, M167, and G6 all have M167 L group light chains, while all but one of the other  $V_H$  regions associate with T15 or M603 L group light chains. Thus the presence of a hydroxyamino acid at position 40 directly correlates with L chain group. The only exception to this is an IgM protein sequenced elsewhere which has a proline at residue 40 and a M167 L group light chain. Thus the sequence variation at residue 40 appears to be present in IgG and IgA proteins though possibly absent or at low levels in IgM proteins. This difference in the variability of residue 40 between IgM antibodies and IgG and IgA antibodies is consistent with our previous observations about the lack of variability in IgM V segments (21). It suggests that some of the diversity present in IgG and IgA populations may result from selective pressures on amino acids involved in heavy-light chain interactions.

Antibodies Binding Phosphorylcholine Demonstrate Combinatorial Association Between Light and Heavy Chains. Among the IgM immunoglobulins binding

phosphorylcholine, some employ the same heavy chain in conjunction with two very different light chains (e.g., M2 and M3 in Fig. 4). The T15- and M603-like  $V_L$  regions differ by more than 50% of their amino acid sequence over their N-terminal 38 residues (28). This is the first formal demonstration of the combinatorial association of light and heavy chains. The assumption has long been held that one heavy chain may pair with all the different light chains in a combinatorial manner (27). Indeed, if 1000 light and 1000 heavy chains can be associated combinatorially,  $10^6$  different antibodies could be produced. Thus these data support the hypothesis that combinatorial association is a fundamental mechanism for information amplification in the immune system. It is interesting that this first example of combinatorial association generates antigen-binding sites which interact with the same hapten.

The T15 Idiotype is Found on a Closely Related Set of Immunoglobulins. The M1 ( $\mu$ ), M2 ( $\mu$ ), G3 ( $\gamma 3$ ), and G6 ( $\gamma 3$ ) immunoglobulins express the T15 idiotype (21). Claflin and Cubberly have suggested, from idiotypic and isoelectric focusing data, that antibodies bearing the T15 idiotype on IgG1, IgG2 and IgG3 heavy chains in individual BALB/c mice are identical (29). While the  $V_H$  regions of M1 and M2 are identical to the  $V_H$  region of T15, the  $V_H$  regions of the G3 and G9 immunoglobulins are not identical to that of T15. The G3 light chain also has at least one difference from T15 light chain. Our data suggest that among IgG immunoglobulins binding phosphorylcholine, sequence variation will occur within T15 idiotype-positive clones.

### Summary

The hybridoma antibodies binding phosphorylcholine have provided important insights into the nature of diversity patterns in the  $V_H$ , the D, and the  $J_H$  segments. A striking feature of these antibodies is that the diversity in  $V_H$  segments derived from IgG and IgA antibodies is significantly greater than that seen in the  $V_H$  segments from IgM antibodies. Certain positions in IgG  $V_H$  segments have a relatively high

probability of accumulating amino acid substitutions. Finally, these data provide formal proof of the first unequivocal example of the combinatorial association of light and heavy chains and are consistent with the hypothesis that combinatorial association is a fundamental mechanism of information amplification in the antibody system.

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## Chapter 4

The complete V domain amino acid sequences  
of two myeloma levan-binding proteins

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The complete V domain amino acid sequences of  
two myeloma proteins binding levan

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Running title: Levan antibodies

The amino acid sequence analysis of groups of myeloma proteins binding various haptens has provided insights into the structure (1-5), function (6, 7), genetics (8-10), and evolution (11) of antibody molecules. The myeloma proteins binding levan are appropriate in several regards for the study of the properties of antibody V domains. First, the amino acid sequence analysis of the variable regions of light ( $V_L$ ) and heavy ( $V_H$ ) chains from myeloma proteins binding levan demonstrate that their diversity is limited in extent. The nearly complete  $V_L$  sequences from three such myeloma proteins demonstrate that they differ from one another by four to seven residues (3). Likewise, the  $V_H$  regions from four myeloma proteins binding levan differ from one another by one to three residues (4). This limited diversity facilitates structure-function correlations, since critical amino acid interchanges are not obscured by other V region variability. Second, the affinities of the levan-binding myeloma proteins for oligosaccharides of different lengths have been studied (12-14). As a result, amino acid substitutions can be correlated with antigen specificity. Lastly, Lieberman *et al.* (15) have extensively studied the cross-reacting idiotypes of levan-binding myeloma proteins. The structure of these proteins provides an important basis for a more detailed understanding of the molecular nature of V region idiotypes (3).

In this report, we present the complete V domain sequences ( $V_L$  and  $V_H$ ) of two additional immunoglobulins with specificity for levan. An analysis of these V domain sequences and sequences reported elsewhere reveals interesting patterns of V region diversity, and allows correlations to be drawn between V region structure, cross-reacting idiotypes, and antigen binding.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

Myeloma protein isolation. The BALB/c plasmacytomas W3082 (IgA,  $\kappa$ ) and J606 (IgG3,  $\kappa$ ) were obtained from the Salk Institute for Biological Sciences. Ascites was collected from these tumors and ammonium sulfate precipitations carried out

at 4°C for 2 hr in 40% saturated ammonium sulfate. Ammonium sulfate-precipitated protein was dissolved in 0.3 M  $\text{NH}_5\text{CO}_3$  and immunoprecipitated with inulin (Nutritional Biochemicals Corporation). Optimal amounts of inulin were determined separately for each precipitation. Two hundred ml of ascites typically required 100 mg of inulin.

Chain separation. Myeloma protein-inulin precipitates were suspended in 0.5 M Tris-HCl, 2 mM EDTA, pH 8.2, and a 10% inulin solution was added dropwise until the precipitate dissolved. Dithiothreitol was added to a concentration of 50 mM and allowed to react for 2 hr at room temperature. The solution was then cooled to 0°C and iodoacetamide added to 110 mM. After 2 hr, guanidine-HCl was added to a concentration of 3 M or 5 M. The light and heavy chains of the W3082 protein were routinely separated in 3 M guanidine-HCl, 0.2 M  $\text{NH}_5\text{CO}_3$  on LKB Ultrogel AcA34. Because of the relative insolubility of the IgG3 heavy chain, the J606 immunoglobulin chains were separated in 5 M guanidine-HCl, 0.2 M  $\text{NH}_5\text{CO}_3$  on Sephadex G-150.

Cyanogen bromide digests. Cyanogen bromide digests were done in 70% formic acid, 2.5% cyanogen bromide at a protein concentration of 10 mg/ml for 24 hr at 4°C. The digests were lyophilized twice and chromatographed on Ultrogel AcA34, AcA44, or AcA54 in 3 M guanidine-HCl, 0.2 M  $\text{NH}_5\text{CO}_3$ . In some cases cyanogen bromide fragments were reduced and alkylated as above, except that guanidine-HCl was added to the reduction-alkylation buffer to 5 M.

Desalting. All column pools were desalted in 0.2 M  $\text{NH}_4\text{OH}$  on Sephadex G-10 with the exceptions of W3082H CN2 and J606HCN4 (see Results for identification of CNBr fragments). These were desalted in 5%  $\text{HCO}_2$  on Biogel P-2 due to their insolubility in 0.2 M  $\text{NH}_4\text{OH}$ .

Enzyme digests. Trypsin, chymotrypsin, thermolysin, and  $\alpha$  lytic protease digests were done at a 1:100 (w:w) enzyme:substrate concentration in 0.1 M  $\text{NH}_5\text{CO}_3$  at 37°C with four hourly aliquots of enzyme. Carboxypeptidase A was used at 1:100 enzyme:substrate ratio at room temperature in 0.2 M  $\text{NH}_5\text{CO}_3$  and aliquots were

removed from the reaction mixture at 2.5 min intervals for the first 10 min followed by ten 5 min and four 15 min intervals. Carboxypeptidase A was inactivated by boiling and all aliquots were analyzed on a Durrum D-500 amino acid analyzer. Norleucine was added to the enzyme digest as an internal standard.

Chromatography and electrophoresis. Two-dimensional paper chromatography and electrophoresis was performed as described previously (16). Analytical maps were dipped in 0.1% ninhydrin, 60:20:8 ethanol:acetic acid:collidine and heated at 100°C for 12 min to develop the colors. Preparatory maps were sprayed with 0.1% ninhydrin in ethanol, heated at 100°C to develop the colors, and the spots cut out and eluted as soon as they were visible. Acidic spots were eluted with 0.5 M ammonia and basic spots with 10% formic acid.

Succinylation. Succinylation reactions were performed in 5 M guanidine, 0.2 M Tris buffer using a 20-fold weight excess of succinic anhydride. The succinic anhydride was added in six aliquots over 30 min, while the pH was regulated at 9.5 using 3 M NaOH and an automatic titrater.

Tryptophan cleavage. Tryptophan cleavages were performed at room temperature in 35% cyanogen bromide, 1:1 88% formic acid:heptafluorobutyric acid as described in ref. 17. Tryptophan cleavage products were fractionated on Sephadex G-50 in 0.2 M  $\text{NH}_5\text{CO}_3$ .

Ion exchange chromatography. Peptides were fractionated on an ion exchange column of carboxymethylglycophase-controlled pore glass (Corning) using a concave gradient from 0.01 M sodium citrate, 8 M urea, pH 6.0 to 0.2 M sodium citrate, 1.5 M NaCl, 8 M urea, pH 6.0.

Automated sequence analysis. Automated sequential degradation was performed on a Beckman 890B sequenator and on a modified 890B (18). Amino acid analysis, gas chromatography (19), and high performance liquid chromatography (18) were

used to analyze the PTH amino acid derivatives. Variable regions are numbered according to Kabat, Wu and Bilofsky (20).

Isolation of heavy chain peptide 35-82. The CN2 fragment of W3082 was dissolved in 5% formic acid and 10% concentrated  $\text{NH}_4\text{OH}$  was added dropwise until a precipitate formed. After standing at  $0^\circ\text{C}$  for several hours, the precipitates were spun down and lyophilized. This technique is adapted from ref. 1.

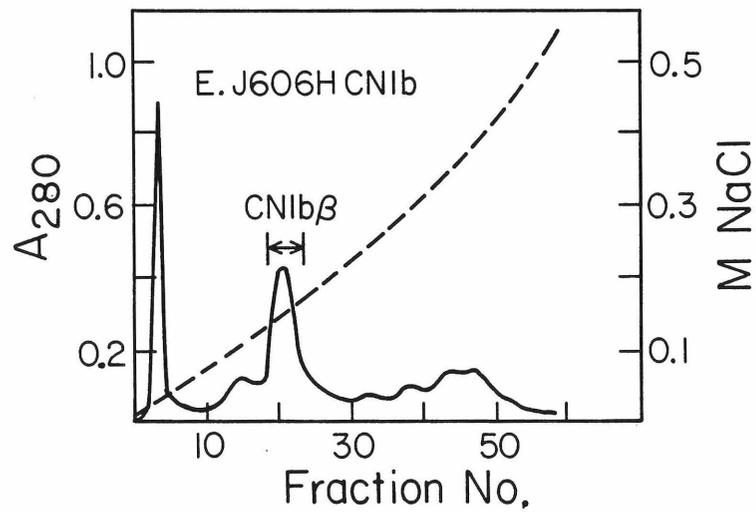
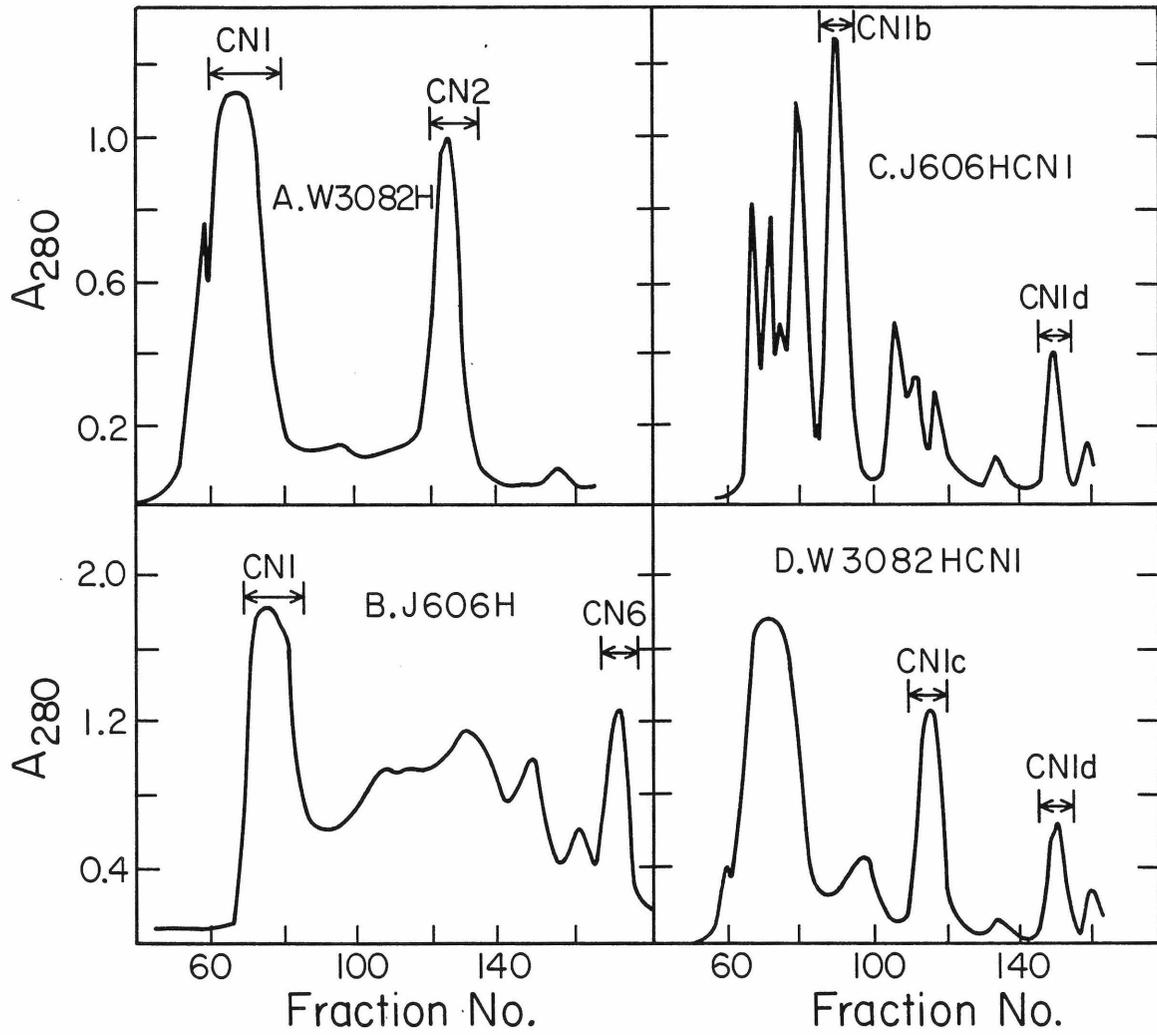
Subtractive Edman degradations. Subtractive Edman degradation was done as in ref. 21.

## RESULTS

Isolation of heavy chain cyanogen bromide fragments. Purified W3082 and J606 heavy chains were digested with cyanogen bromide and fractionated by column chromatography as shown in Figure 1. The heavy chain from W3082 was run on Utrogel AcA44 and yielded two peaks, W3082H CN1 and W3082H CN2 (Fig. 1A). This fragmentation pattern is similar to that of Vrana *et al.* (4). The W3082H CN1 fragment contained the V region sequence from positions 19 to 34 and from 82a into the C region. This fragment was desalted, lyophilized, fully reduced and alkylated, and then rechromatographed on AcA44 (Fig. 1C) to yield the 82a to C region fragment as W3082H CN1c and the 19 to 34 peptide as W3082H CN1d. The W3082H CN2 fragment (Fig. 1A), containing the sequence from positions 35 to 82, was further purified by precipitation as described in Materials and Methods.

The J606 heavy chain was digested with cyanogen bromide and run on AcA34 (Fig. 1B). The J606H CN4 fragment contained only the peptide from positions 35 to 82 while the J606H CN1 peak was a mixture of several peptides. The J606H CN1 fragment was fully reduced and alkylated, run on AcA44, and the CN1b and CN1e peaks collected (Fig. 1D). Ion exchange chromatography on CN1b was used to isolate the peptide CN1b $\beta$ , which extended from 82a into the C region (Fig. 1E). The CN1e fragment is the peptide extending from positions 19 to 34.

**Figure 1.** The cyanogen bromide fragmentation patterns of the heavy chains from J606 and W3082. All of the column chromatography was done in 3 M guanidine, 0.2 M  $\text{NH}_5\text{CO}_3$ . A. Mildly reduced and alkylated W3082H digested with cyanogen bromide and chromatographed on AcA44. B. Mildly reduced and alkylated J606H digested with cyanogen bromide and chromatographed on AcA34. C. Fully reduced and alkylated J606H CN1 chromatographed on AcA44. D. Fully reduced and alkylated W3082H CN1 chromatographed on AcA44. E. The J606H CN1b peak from C. run on carboxymethyl-glycophase-controlled pore glass. Peaks were eluted with increasing concentrations of NaCl in citrate-buffered 8 M urea, pH 6.0 (see Materials and Methods).



Heavy chain sequence determination. Sequencing strategies for the  $V_H$  regions from W3082 and J606 are summarized in Figure 2. The N-terminal 34 residues of the  $V_H$  region from W3082 were determined from sequenator runs on the intact W3082 heavy chain and on the CN1d fragment. The residues between 35 and 82 were identified by a single sequencer run on W3082H CN2p with the exception of certain serines and the C-terminal two amino acids. These missing residues were determined by compositional data and sequence analyses of peptides produced by tryptic, alpha-lytic protease, and simultaneous tryptic plus chymotryptic digestions. A single sequenator run on the CN1c fragment identified the remaining  $V_H$  region residues.

The heavy chain from J606 was sequenced in much the same way as the W3082 heavy chain. The N-terminal 34 residues were identified with N-terminal sequence analyses of the intact heavy chain and the CN1h fragment. Residues 35-82 were mostly identified with an N-terminal sequenator run on the CN4 fragment. Trypsin, chymotrypsin, alpha-lytic protease, and carboxypeptidase A were used to identify the C-terminal residues of the CN4 fragment. A single run on the CN1b $\beta$  fragment was adequate to determine the remainder of the  $V_H$  region sequence.

Isolation of cyanogen bromide fragments from light chains. Purified light chains from W3082 and J606 yield identical patterns when cleaved with cyanogen bromide and chromatographed on Ultrogel AcA54 (Fig. 3A). The CN2 fragment corresponds to a peptide extending from positions 82-214 and the CN4 fragment is a partially separated mixture of peptides extending from positions 5-83 and 84-175. This chromatographic fractionation pattern is similar to that in ref. 3. The CN4 fragment was isolated, succinylated, cleaved at tryptophane with cyanogen bromide and fractionated on Sephadex G-50 (Fig. 3B). The second peak (CN3b) showed a single sequence starting at 35. Intact light chains also were digested with thermolysin to yield the peptide extending from positions 78-86.

**Figure 2.** Sequencing strategies for the heavy chain from J606 and W3082.

A. W3082H; B. J606H.

- residues determined by automatic sequenator
- residues determined by subtractive Edman degradation
- ← residues determined by carboxy peptidase A
- ↔ residues analyzed using amino acid compositional data
- ( ) peptide from an  $\alpha$  lytic protease digest
- [ ] peptide from a trypsin digest
- { } peptide from a simultaneous digest with trypsin and chymotrypsin

1 5 10 15 20 25 30 35 40  
 EVKLEESGGGLVQPGGSMKLSCVASGFTFSNYWMNWVRQSPEKG  
 (←→) (←→) (←→) (←→) (←→) (←→) (←→) (←→)

A. W3082H

45 50 abc 55 60 65 70 75 80 abc  
 LEWVAEIRLKSHNYATHYAESVKGRFTISRDDSKSSVYLRMNNL  
 (←→) (←→) (←→) (←→) (←→) (←→) (←→) (←→) (←→) (←→)

85 90 95-96-101 105 110  
 RPE DTG IY YCTTGFA YWGGTLVTVSA

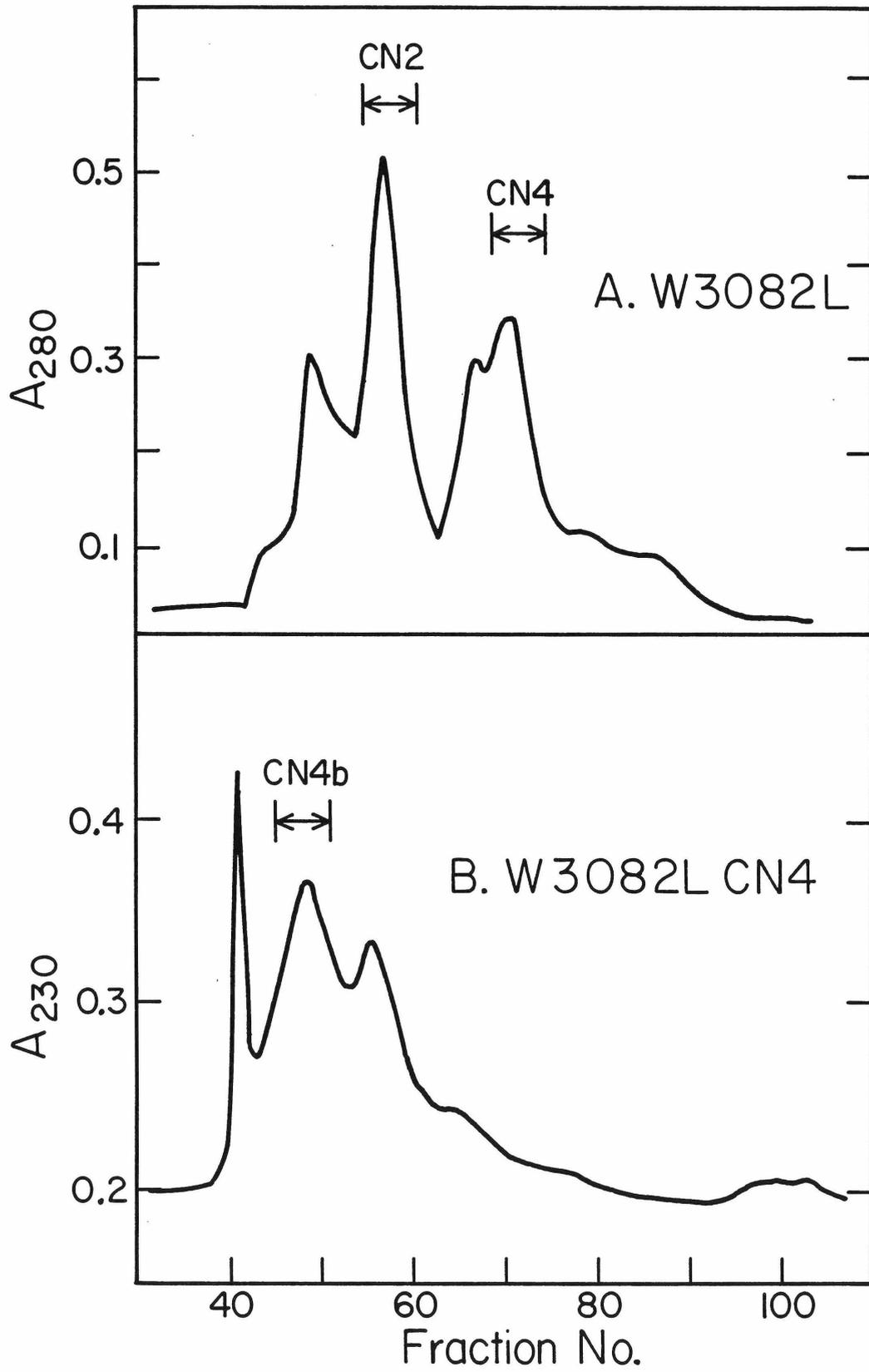
1 5 10 15 20 25 30 35 40  
 EVKLEESGGGLVQPGGSMKLSCVASGFTFSNYWMNWVRQSPEKG  
 (←→) (←→) (←→) (←→) (←→) (←→) (←→) (←→)

B. J606H

45 50 abc 55 60 65 70 75 80 abc  
 LEWVAEIRLKSNNYATHYAESVKGRFTISRDDSKSSVYLQMNLL  
 (←→) (←→) (←→) (←→) (←→) (←→) (←→) (←→)

85 90 95-96-101 105 110  
 RAEDTGIY YCTTGFA YWGGTLVTVSA

**Figure 3.** The cyanogen bromide fragmentation patterns of the light chains from J606 and W3082. Light chains from W3082 and J606 gave identical cyanogen bromide fragmentation patterns. A. A cyanogen bromide digest of fully reduced and alkylated W3082L chromatographed on AcA54 in 3 M guanidine, 0.2 M  $\text{NH}_5\text{CO}_3$ . B. The CN4 peak from A. succinylated, cleaved at tryptophane residues, and chromatographed on Sephadex G-50 in 0.2 M  $\text{NH}_5\text{CO}_3$ .



Light chain sequence determination. The J606 and W3082 light chains were sequenced by the strategies shown in Figure 4 for W3082L. The N-terminal 38 residues were determined by sequenator runs on intact light chains. Sequenator runs on the CN4 peptides (residues 84-214, Fig. 3a) identified the residues from 84 into the C region. The residues from 35-81 were identified by sequenator runs on the CN4b peptides (residues 35-83, Fig. 3b), and residues 82 and 83 were determined by sequence analysis of the thermolysin overlap peptide from 78-86.

## DISCUSSION

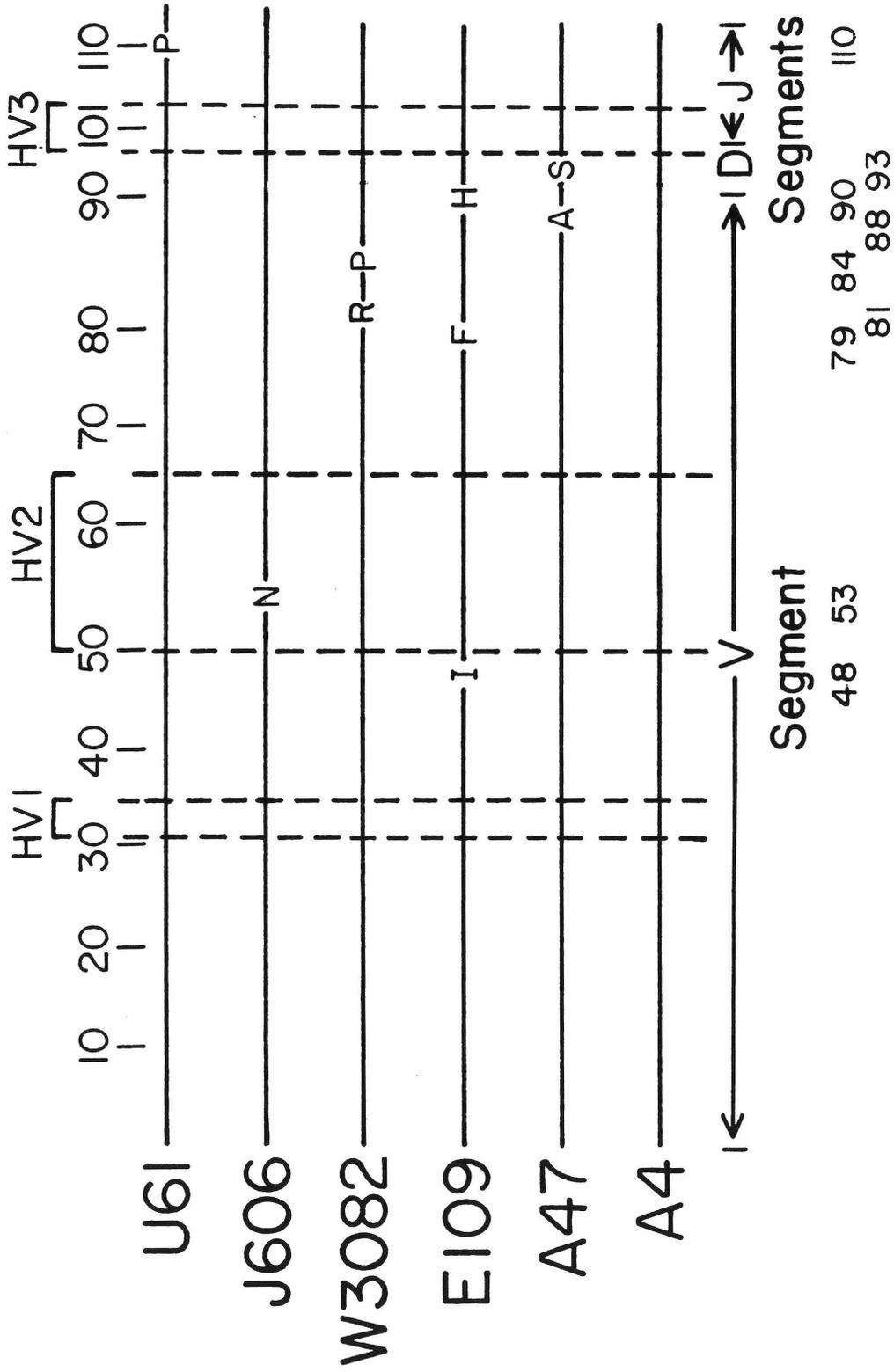
V<sub>H</sub> regions from myeloma immunoglobulins binding levan show variability primarily in framework positions. Figure 5 shows the complete sequences of six heavy chains from myeloma proteins with specificity for levan. These six heavy chain sequences differ from the A4 prototype sequence by one to three substitutions, only one of which occurs in a hypervariable region. Each of the nine amino acid interchanges requires only a one-base substitution and each occurs at a different V region position. This pattern of substitutions in the levan V<sub>H</sub> regions differs in a striking manner from those noted for the V<sub>H</sub> regions from immunoglobulins binding phosphorylcholine (1, 22-24), dextran (9), and galactan (25). In each of these latter examples, a substantial fraction of the variant residues lie within the hypervariable regions. Sixteen V<sub>H</sub> regions from myeloma and hybridoma immunoglobulins binding phosphorylcholine differ in 47 positions, 36 of which are in hypervariable regions. Twenty-one V<sub>H</sub> regions from myeloma and hybridoma proteins binding dextran differ by only 24 framework residues out of a total of 78 amino acid substitutions. Four galactan-binding myeloma V<sub>H</sub> regions differ by eight hypervariable residues and 12 framework residues. Thus the V<sub>H</sub> regions from myeloma proteins binding levan have more conserved hypervariable regions than any other well-studied set of immunoglobulin heavy chains with specific antigen-binding properties.

**Figure 4.** Sequencing strategies for the light chains from J606 and W3082. The sequencing strategies were the same for both J606L and W3082L. Symbols are as in Figure 2 with the exception of ( ), which indicates a peptide from a thermolysin digest.



**Figure 5.** The complete sequences of six  $V_H$  regions from myeloma proteins with specificity for levan. Unbroken lines indicate identity to the prototype sequence from the A4 protein. Substitutions are designated using the one-letter code of Dayhoff (29), and their positions are labeled at the bottom of the figure. Hypervariable regions (HV1, HV2, HV3) and the V, D, and J segments are as shown. The  $V_H$  sequences of U61, A4, A47, and E109 are from Ref. 4.

### Heavy Chains



The conservation of heavy chain hypervariable regions from myeloma proteins binding levan may reflect fairly strict structural constraints imposed by antigen binding. The framework regions, while more diverse than the corresponding hypervariable regions, are not more diverse than framework regions of other  $V_H$  regions with identified antigen-binding specificities.

The  $V_H$  segments from myeloma proteins binding levan are probably encoded by at least two closely related germline genes. Antibody  $V_H$  regions are encoded by three distinct gene segments,  $V_H$ , D, and  $J_H$ . DNA analyses demonstrate that the  $V_H$  gene segment from myeloma proteins binding levan extends from codons 1-92; the D gene segment codes for positions 93, 94, and the first nucleotide of 95; and the J gene segment extends from the second nucleotide of codon 95 to codon 113 (26). Antibody V gene segments which differ by one or a few single base substitutions (such as those seen in Fig. 5) are frequently thought to arise as somatic variants from a single germline V gene segment (25, 27).

This traditional view would suggest that the  $V_H$  segments from myeloma proteins binding levan arise from a single germline  $V_H$  gene segment encoding the prototype A4 and E109 sequences. A  $V_H$  gene segment that codes for the J606  $V_H$  segment has recently been isolated and sequenced (S. Crews, personal communication). Since this  $V_H$  gene segment was isolated from a BALB/c sperm genomic library, the J606  $V_H$  segment must represent a germline sequence. Traditionally, however, the A4  $V_H$  segment would be considered to be the germline sequence for this group of proteins. This paradox can be resolved in one of three ways. i) The J606 germline gene gave rise to the other five  $V_H$  segments by somatic mutation. This would require parallel substitutions in all of the  $V_H$  segments but J606. ii) The  $V_H$  regions from levan binding proteins may be encoded by two extremely closely-related  $V_H$  segments, J606 and A4. iii) The J606 and A4  $V_H$  gene segments may represent polymorphic forms of a single genetic locus.

Levan-binding heavy chains have only one D segment substitution. As a result of D segment diversity, the third hypervariable region is the most variable part of an immunoglobulin heavy chain. This is clearly true of the  $V_H$  regions from myeloma proteins binding phosphorylcholine (1, 22-24) and dextran (9), where, respectively, 57% and 62% of the total  $V_H$  diversity lie in the D segment. In the galactan-binding  $V_H$  regions, the D segment is somewhat less diverse, accounting for 35% of the total diversity (25).

In contrast to the D segments from proteins binding phosphorylcholine, dextran, and galactan, there is only one D segment substitution in the heavy chains from proteins binding levan. This lack of D segment variability corresponds to the lack of variability in other  $V_H$  hypervariable regions, and may be due to selection by antigen. Alternatively, it may reflect an unknown restriction in the association of certain  $V_H$  and D gene segments.

The  $V_L$  regions from myeloma proteins binding levan show diversity in the framework as well as in the hypervariable regions. The six  $V_L$  regions from myeloma proteins binding levan are each different from one another, varying from the prototype sequence (U61) by one to four residues (Fig. 6). These  $V_L$  regions differ by 12 substitutions, 11 of which can be explained by one-base changes and one by a two-base change. Eight of these substitutions are in hypervariable regions. Unlike the  $V_H$  regions, several substitutions in the  $V_L$  regions occur at the same position. There are three  $V_L$  regions with identical substitutions at position 30, two identical substitutions at position 92, and two proteins each with nonidentical substitutions at positions 53 and 65. Thus nine out of 12 substitutions occur at four positions.

Light chains from myeloma proteins binding levan have parallel substitutions which show no correlation with one another. Positions 30 and 92 each have substitutions that appear two times in five examples. The residue alternatives at positions 30 and 92 assort in such a way that all four possible combinations of residues at these

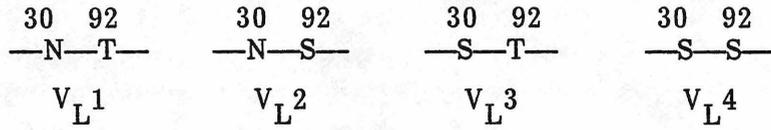
**Figure 6.** The sequences of five  $V_L$  regions from myeloma proteins with specificity for levan. Sequences are diagrammed and labeled as in Figure 5. ( ) indicates a probable residue assignment and the gap in the A47  $V_L$  region is an area of unknown sequence. The  $V_L$  sequences U61, A4, A47, and E109 are from Ref. 3.



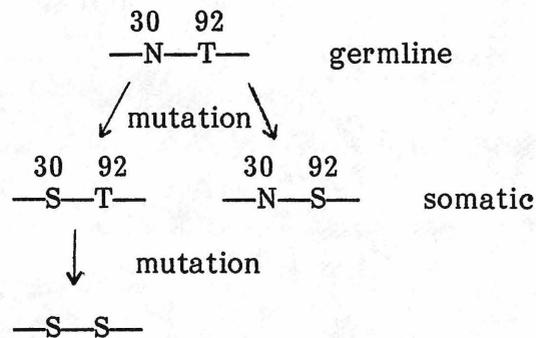
two positions occur. Thus both serine and asparagine at position 30 occur in chains having both threonine and serine at position 92. The variability at positions 30 and 92 could arise in one of three ways as illustrated in Figure 7. i) The four  $V_L$  segments may be directly encoded in the germline (Fig. 7A). This possibility is unattractive because of the close similarity of the  $V_K$  gene segments. ii) These variants could arise by the somatic mutation of germline genes. If there are one, two, or three germline  $V_L$  segments, then this somatic mutation would require either mutation to a preexisting germline sequence or to a preexisting somatic sequence (parallel mutation). Figure 7B shows a somatic mutation pathway which could generate the observed sequences from one germline  $V_L$  gene segment. In the case of the residues at  $V_L$  position 30, somatic mutation must create identical substitutions in three different individuals. iii) Somatic recombination between two closely related  $V_L$  gene segments could generate the four possibilities (Fig. 7C). The first possibility could be distinguished from the other two possibilities by sequence analysis of germline  $V_H$  gene segments. Unless one postulates parallel somatic mutations (Fig. 7B), these theories require at least two very closely related germline  $V_L$  gene segments encoding the  $V_L$  segments of myeloma proteins with specificity for levan.

Sequence correlates of antigen binding. The data presented here provide an example of how sequence data and antigen-binding studies can complement each other in making structure-function correlations. The hypervariable region sequence correlates of antigen binding are presented in Table 1 along with the length of oligofructosan bound with maximum affinity by each myeloma proteins (12-14). The heavy chain hypervariable regions without sequence diversity are not shown. The only obvious correlation between the length of oligofructosan bound with maximum affinity and hypervariable-region sequence occurs in the second hypervariable region of the light chain. Here the presence of a residue other than isoleucine at position 53 is associated with maximum affinity for a tetrasaccharide, while isoleucine at position

**Figure 7.** Mechanisms for the generation of diversity at residues 30 and 92 in the  $V_L$  regions of myeloma proteins with specificity for levan. The amino acid residues at positions 30 and 92 encoded by the  $V_L$  gene segments are labeled using the one-letter code of Dayhoff. N = asparagine, S = serine, T = threonine (29).

A. Four germline  $V_L$  gene segments

## B. Somatic mutation



## C. Somatic recombination

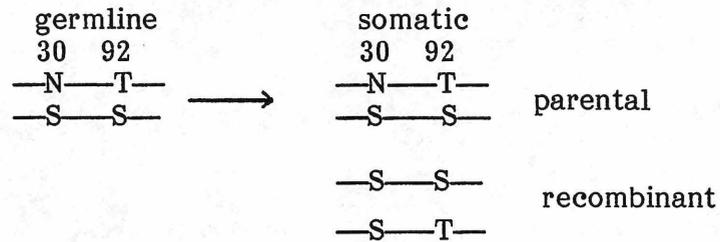


Figure 7

**Table 1**

Hypervariable region comparisons among levan-binding myeloma proteins. The  $V_L$  (HV1, HV2, HV3) and  $V_H$  (HV2) hypervariable region differences are depicted for each myeloma protein. Substitution positions are shown above the amino acid interchanges. The oligosaccharide-binding affinity of W3082 is from ref. 12, the affinity of J606 is from ref. 13, and the affinities of A47, A4, U61, and E109 are from ref. 14. Binding affinities are discussed in ref. 5.

		$V_L$ region			$V_H$ region
		HV1	HV2	HV3	HV2
		-30-	-53-56-	-92-	-53-
Proteins with maximum affinity for tetrasaccharide	J606	-Ser-	-Asn-Asp-	-Ser-	-Asn-
	A47	-Ser-	-Thr-Asp-	-Thr-	-His-
	A4	-Asn-	?	?	-His-
Proteins with maximum affinity for pentasaccharide	U61	-Ser-	-Ile-Asp-	-Ser-	-His-
	E109	-Asn-	-Ile-Ala-	-Ser-	-His-
	W3082	-Asn-	-Ile-Asp-	-Thr-	-His-

53 is associated with maximum affinity for pentasaccharide. The asparagine-serine interchange at  $V_L$  position 30 and the threonine-serine interchange at  $V_L$  position 92 do not cause a reduction in the length of oligosaccharide required for maximum affinity. However, it is possible that the asparagine-histidine interchange at  $V_H$  position 53 limits the size of the J606 levan-binding site. Thus, antigen-binding data can be used to determine the possible effects of amino acid substitutions. Amino acid substitutions which correlate with antigen binding are possible sites of selection by antigen. Such selection might operate if an antigen stimulated only those clones with certain antigen-binding specificities to divide.

The structures of the V domains from myeloma proteins binding levan provide fundamental insights into the nature of idiotypic determinants. The V domains of the levan-binding myeloma proteins afford a unique opportunity to make correlations between idio type specificities and primary amino acid sequence because i) the complete  $V_H$  sequences are known for six myeloma proteins and the complete  $V_L$  sequences are known for four and part of a fifth protein; ii) the idiotypic specificities of these proteins have been extensively analyzed (Table 2) (15); and iii) these proteins generally differ in their V domains by only a few residues from one another (Figs. 5 and 6; Table 2). Accordingly, it is possible to determine some of the molecular properties of the crossreacting idiotypes shown in Table 2.

Lieberman et al. have reported a comprehensive study of the idiotypes of myeloma proteins which bind levan, including the six proteins shown in Figures 5 and 6 (15). Using antisera raised against these levan-binding myeloma proteins, they have defined 10 crossreacting idiotypes (IdX) and determined the hapten inhibitability of each IdX specificity. Their IdX specificity assignments are shown in Table 2. IdX specificities are determined by the ability of myeloma proteins to inhibit the hemagglutination of red blood cells coated with levan-binding myeloma proteins. For example, IdXA is defined by the hemagglutination of A4-coated red blood cells

Table 2

Cross-reactive idiotypes and V region sequences of levan-binding myeloma proteins. Myeloma protein hemagglutination inhibition titers are given under each IdX specificity (see text for explanation of hemagglutination inhibition assay). The hapten inhibibility of each IdX specificity is given at the bottom of the table. V region sequence differences are shown schematically to the right, and the position of each substitution is indicated at the top. IdX specificities and hapten inhibition data are from ref. 15.

Myeloma proteins	IdX specificities										V region sequence differences			
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	V <sub>H</sub>		V <sub>L</sub>	
											Substitution positions -48-53-79-81-84-88-90-93-110-	Substitution positions -30-53-56-65-66-92-106-		
U61	7	8	8	7	10	6	12	5	7	0	_____P-	_____	_____	_____
A4	9	0	5	0	3	0	10	6	2	0	_____	_____	-N-	_____
J606	0	0	0	2	5	2	4	0	2	0	_____N	_____	_____N	_____
A47	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	6	_____A_____S	_____	_____T_____V-G- -T	_____
W3082	8	9	8	5	10	8	12	0	6	6	_____R-P	_____	_____N	_____T
E109	6	0	6	5	11	0	9	0	4	0	-I_____F_____H	_____	_____N	_____A-R_____K-
Hapten inhibition	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-				

with antisera raised against W3082. Levan-binding myeloma proteins which inhibit this hemagglutination are typed as carrying the IdXA determinant. The numbers in Table 2 refer to the  $-\log_2$  of the dilution of a 1 mg/ml solution of myeloma protein necessary for the inhibition of hemagglutination of an IdX typing assay. Table 2 also contains a schematic representation of the amino acid interchanges in the levan-binding myeloma proteins. In the following section, we discuss correlations between IdX determinants and V domain amino acid interchanges.

The IdXA and IdXC idiotypes. The IdXA and IdXC specificities have identical distributions and are hapten-inhibitable (Table 2). They are present on the myeloma proteins U61, A4, W3082, and E109. The only residue shared exclusively by these molecules is the isoleucine at position 53 in the  $V_L$  region (the residue in A4 is unknown). It is tempting to postulate a structural correlation between  $V_L$  residue 53 and IdXA; however, it has been shown that IdXA is dependent only on the heavy chain (28). Since the A47 protein (IdXA<sup>-</sup>, IdXC<sup>-</sup>) and the W3082, E109, U61, and A4 proteins (IdXA<sup>+</sup>, IdXC<sup>+</sup>) have identical  $V_H$  hypervariable regions, the hapten-inhibitable IdXA and IdXC determinants must include framework as well as hypervariable region residues.

The IdXB and IdXF idiotypes. The IdXB and IdXF specificities have identical distributions (Table 2). The IdXB specificity is situated primarily on the light chain (28) and is hapten-inhibitable. These idiotypes correlate best with residues 53 and 56 in the C-terminal part of the second  $V_L$  hypervariable region. Our data contradict the conclusions of Vrana et al. who suggested that the IdXB idotype correlated with serine residues at  $V_L$  positions 30 and 92 (3). The W3082 protein has the IdXB idotype and has asparagine at position 30 and threonine at position 92.

The IdXE and IdXG idiotypes. The IdXE and IdXG specificities are difficult to assign in that they are present on all of the myeloma proteins but the A47 protein, which is not completely sequenced.

The IdXH idiootype. The IDxH idiootype is hapten-inhibitable and present only on the A4 and U61 proteins. The U61 and A4 proteins share their  $V_H$  hypervariable regions with all of the levan-binding myeloma proteins except for the second hypervariable region of the J606 protein. Each of the  $V_L$  hypervariable regions of the U61 and A4 proteins are shared with at least three other  $V_L$  regions (only the first  $V_L$  hypervariable region from A4 has been sequenced). The U61 protein does not, however, share all of its  $V_L$  hypervariable regions with any one  $V_L$  region and thus the IdXH specificity could be dependent on all three hypervariable regions. Alternatively, the IdXH idiootype could be determined by framework as well as hypervariable regions.

The IdXI idiootype. The IdXI specificity is present on all the myelomas. It is impossible to correlate it with particular V region residues.

The IdXJ idiootype. The IdXJ specificity is not hapten-inhibitable even though it is correlated with the threonine residue at position 92 in the  $V_L$  third hypervariable region. Hence, either the threonine at position 92 does not participate in antigen binding, or the IdXJ specificity is dependent on residues in other parts of the V domain.

This discussion correlating idiotypic specificities with V domain structure for the myeloma proteins binding levan is admittedly incomplete. It does, however, emphasize some general ideas about idiootype which are important in using idiotypes as an assay for antibody V region structure. These ideas are the following: i) Distinct idiotypes can arise from the same amino acid interchange. The J606 and U61 proteins differ by four hapten-inhibitable idiotypes and at the same time differ by only three amino acid substitutions of which only two are in hypervariable regions. Thus, single amino acid residues can be involved in determining multiple idiotypic sites. One possible mechanism for this is that certain amino acid interchanges may cause major conformational alterations in the V domain, thus generating new idiotypic sites. Alternatively, idiotypic sites may overlap so that several idiotypes encompass the same amino acid residue. ii) Hapten-inhibitable idiotypes may depend on residues

both within and outside the hypervariable regions. For example, the IdXA idio­type is present on the heavy chains of the W3082, U61, A4, and E109 proteins. These heavy chains have identical  $V_H$  hypervariable regions to the A47 protein, which lacks the IdXA specificity. Thus, the hapten-inhibitable IdXA idio­type must be dependent on residues outside as well as residues inside the antigen-binding site. iii) Anti-idiotypic antisera may concentrate on certain portions of the antibody V domain. It is possible to make correlations between idio­type and structure for seven of the ten IdX determinants (all but IdXE, IdXG, and IdXI). Three of the seven idio­types correlate with the C-terminal portion of the  $V_L$  second hypervariable region. Hence, several IdX determinants may be concentrated in a particular region of the V domain and fail to identify variation in other areas. For example, the J606 and E109 proteins share more idio­types than the J606 and U61 proteins. The J606 and U61 proteins differ by four idio­types while the J606 and E109 proteins differ by only three. The J606 protein, however, differs by only three amino acid substitu­tions from the U61 protein and by nine substitu­tions from the E109 protein. Idiotypic similarity does not always accurately predict sequence similarity.

## SUMMARY

The myeloma proteins binding levan afford a unique opportunity to study the V region patterns of variation because of the similarity in their  $V_L$  as well as their  $V_H$  regions. The diversity patterns in both the  $V_L$  and  $V_H$  regions suggest that these proteins are encoded by multiple, very similar V gene segments or that somatic mutation to preexisting sequences can occur. Because of the close similarity in the V domains of these proteins and the extensive idiotypic analyses that have been previously carried out, several interesting conclusions can be drawn about the nature of idiotypic determinants. First, distinct idiotypes can arise from the same amino acid interchange. Second, hapten-inhibitable idiotypes may depend on residues within and outside the hypervariable regions. Third, idiotypic similarity does not always predict a corresponding sequence similarity. In addition, antigen binding studies allow the roles of amino acid interchanges in antibody-antigen interactions to be investigated.

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**Summary**

This dissertation is primarily a discussion of antibody diversity as seen in sets of immunoglobulin V regions with similar amino acid sequences. As a summary, I would like to describe my personal view of antibody diversity. This description will combine experimental observations with a large dose of speculation, and will be concluded with several ideas about future directions of research.

The diversity of IgM antibodies is less than that of IgG and IgA antibodies (1-3). Because of this, and because IgM antibodies precede IgG and IgA antibodies in ontogeny (4), I will discuss IgM diversity first. The experiments reported in this dissertation were designed to allow the analysis of patterns of antibody V region diversity. The kinds of V region diversity which are observed are necessarily restricted by the relatively small numbers of closely related V regions available for analysis (partial sequences from 29 phosphorylcholine-binding antibodies are included in Chapter 2).

An initial consideration in a discussion of antibody diversity is, what is the nature of the diversity in newly formed B cells in the bone marrow? I feel that this diversity has the following properties: (i) first, heavy chain-light chain combinatorial association leads to nearly complete mixing of  $V_L$  and  $V_H$  regions. (ii) In addition, gene segment joining mechanisms will lead to the assortment of all  $V_L$  gene segments with all  $J_L$  gene segments and all  $V_H$  gene segments with all D and  $J_H$  gene segments (5-8). Thus the immature cells arising from the bone marrow will express all possible  $V_L$  and  $J_L$  gene segment combinations with all possible  $V_H$ , D, and  $J_H$  gene segment combinations. (iii) Finally, somatic mutation other than the junctional diversity discussed below does not generate significant V gene variability in new B cells.

It has been estimated that the number of germline  $V_L$  gene segments may be around 200 (9), and  $V_H$  gene segments may number about the same. There seem to be four functional  $J_L$  gene segments (10, 11) and four  $J_H$  gene segments (7, 12),

and I will guess that the number of D gene segments is five.  $V_L$ - $J_L$  junctions seem to give rise to six junctional sequences as a result of DNA joining mechanisms (8), but no estimate of comparable quality is possible for  $V_H$ -D- $J_H$  junctions. In the phosphorylcholine-binding antibody system there are five  $V_H$ -D junctional sequences and perhaps five D- $J_H$  junctional sequences which seem to arise as strictly "junctional" diversity (not as a result of D segment combinatorial joining) (1-3). Using the above speculations about gene segment combinatorial joining and numbers of gene segments, one can estimate the total germline antibody  $V_L$  region repertoire to be:  $200 (V_L) \times 6 (V_L$ - $J_L$  junction)  $\times 4 (J_L) = 4.8 \times 10^3 V_L$  regions. Likewise, there would be  $200 (V_H) \times 5 (V_H$ -D junction)  $\times 5 (D) \times 5 (D$ - $J_H$  junction)  $\times 4 (J_H) = 10^5 V_H$  regions. Heavy-light chain combinatorial joining would then create  $4.8 \times 10^3 (V_L) \times 10^5 (V_H) = 4.8 \times 10^8$  antibodies.

The B cells that leave the bone marrow circulate through the body and, after elimination or paralysis (13, 14) of self-reactive clones, mature into IgM-secreting cells (4). These IgM-secreting cells can then further differentiate to express different antibody constant regions (4, 15). What is the nature of the diversity in this pool of IgM producers? There are four important considerations. 1) A substantial amount of diversity is presumably eliminated because of self-reactivity, though it is impossible to guess how much. 2) During ontogeny, some clones will leave the bone marrow earlier than others. These clones will have a chance to undergo early clonal expansion and, in the absence of balancing influences, may retain a numerical advantage over later clones. 3) Antigen can selectively expand antigen-reactive clones. Cells leaving the bone marrow early will acquire an additional numerical advantage if they encounter antigen before other clones with similar specificity appear. 4) Antibody production has been postulated to be controlled by idiotype-antiidiotype networks (16-18). Antiidiotypic antibodies or T cells may routinely enhance or depress antibody responses. Thus I envision the IgM-producing B cell

pool as a collection of clones present at widely differing clonal frequencies. Clones which left the bone marrow early and were quickly triggered by antigen will be present at high frequencies, while unstimulated clones which arose relatively late will be present at very low frequencies (perhaps one or a few cells per mouse). If antibody  $V_L$  and  $V_H$  regions are expressed in a programmed order, cells producing specific heavy-light chain combinations may be present at similar frequencies in different individuals (19, 20).

IgA- and IgG-producing cells show greater V region diversity than IgM-producing cells (1). There are two major considerations in the generation of this increased IgG and IgA diversity. First, when and how is the additional variability in IgG and IgA antibodies created? And second, what is the mechanism by which this additional diversity reaches a relatively high frequency in IgG and IgA antibodies? These questions are discussed in Chapter 2, and so I will use this section to just emphasize those points which I feel are important. I feel that a great deal of the additional IgG V segment variability in the antiphosphorylcholine response is due to somatic mutation. Most importantly, I feel that the V segment variability arising repeatedly at  $V_H$  positions 40 and 53 in phosphorylcholine binding proteins (3) is due to somatic mutation. Thus somatic mutation seems to give rise to certain  $V_H$  segment variants in a reproducible manner. Additionally, I feel that somatic mutations are created initially in a single cell. Their detection in my study of phosphorylcholine-binding  $V_H$  regions suggests that such somatic mutants have been expanded, either clonally or as a population, to a level where they play a significant role in immunity. This expansion has presumably occurred in the face of a strong, germline response to phosphorylcholine. Therefore it is conceivable that even somatic mutants at low frequencies could expand in response to antigen at a fast enough rate to increase the effective available antibody diversity.

The kinds of selection which may operate to generate IgG and IgA diversity

are also discussed in Chapter 2 (1). I will add that I feel that both antigen binding and antiidiotypic network regulation of antibody are important selective forces. Selection by antigen is probably on the basis of antibody affinity, though this assumption is difficult to test experimentally. Antibody affinity measurements performed with free antibody and hapten in vitro may bear little relationship to the affinity of cell surface antibodies for hapten-protein antigens in vivo. Artificially induced selection by antiidiotypic antibodies is well documented in experimental animals (17, 18, 21). A particularly simple selection model postulates that antiidiotypic inhibits the growth of high frequency clones. Thus infrequent clones would always be at an advantage, tending to maintain antibody heterogeneity. A high level of antibody heterogeneity would in turn give an organism versatility in responding to new antigens. IgG and IgA V regions would be more diverse than IgM V regions either because they have undergone more generations of selection, or because idiotypic regulation is specific for IgG and IgA producing cells.

This, then, is an overview of my thoughts on antibody diversity. In the following section I will deal specifically with each major category of antibody diversity generation mechanisms.

#### The germline V segment contribution to diversity.

I feel that the germline contribution to antibody diversity perhaps plays the most critical role of all antibody diversity generation mechanisms. Using the numbers mentioned previously, loss of all but one  $V_L$  or  $V_H$  gene segment would reduce the antibody diversity by a factor of 200. V segments can be divided into groups differing by no more than three residues over their N-terminal 30 amino acids (22). These groups may differ by over 50% among each other. If there are approximately 30  $V_L$  groups and 30  $V_H$  groups (9), then there are only 900 V group sets of germline antibody molecules. The differences among these 900 V group sets will be much greater than those within a set, and the inter-V group set differences will extend

throughout the V segment. Thus germline V segment diversity and the diversity arising from somatic gene segment joining are not equivalent. An increase in D segment diversity probably would not compensate for a loss of V segment diversity.

$V_L$  and  $V_H$  third hypervariable region diversity.

$V_H$ -D- $J_H$  and  $V_L$ - $J_L$  junctional diversity and combinatorial joining creates a considerable amount of heavy and light chain third hypervariable region variability (2, 3, 5-8, 11). In fact, there is probably well over ten times the number of  $V_L$  plus  $V_H$  third hypervariable regions than all other hypervariable regions combined. Without  $V_L$ - $J_L$  and  $V_H$ -D- $J_H$  diversity, the total antibody diversity would be reduced by a factor of  $4 (J_L) \times 6 (V_L-J_L) \times 5 (V_H-D) \times 5 (D) \times 5 (D-J_H) \times 4 (J_H) = 1.2 \times 10^4$ .

Combinatorial association.

Combinatorial association of heavy and light chains is a particularly powerful mechanism for diversity generation.  $10^5$   $V_H$  regions and  $4.8 \times 10^3$   $V_L$  regions (see above) can generate at most  $10^5$  antibodies without combinatorial association, a reduction by a factor of  $4.8 \times 10^3$  of the number of antibodies otherwise possible.

Somatic mutation.

The most difficult factor to assess is somatic mutation. In Chapter 3, it is suggested that certain patterns of variation arise repeatedly in the IgG and IgA pool (3). If these patterns of variation arise as a result of somatic mutation, then somatic mutation may well be quite reproducible. In addition, it has been suggested earlier in this summary that low level somatic variants may be effective at expanding the usable antibody diversity. Thus, organisms may be able to rely on generating a certain amount of functional antibody diversity by somatic mutation, eliminating the need to retain such diversity in the germline. Special mutational processes might well evolve to enhance the creation of such somatic diversity (23, 24).

In the above discussion I have emphasized the factors by which each mechanism

of diversity generation increases the antibody repertoire. In the cases of germline segment diversity, gene segment combinatorial joining and junctional diversity, and heavy-light chain combinatorial association, I feel that the factor by which each mechanism increases diversity is too large to be an evolutionary artifact. These mechanisms must make important contributions to immunity.

Somatic mutation, on the other hand, may increase immunity by a much smaller factor. Somatic mutations may only be present in clones which are repeatedly stimulated by antigen and hence undergo many rounds of division and clonal expansion and reduction. Thus somatic mutation is possibly the least important of all mechanisms of antibody diversity generation, even though it may be quite visible in the antibodies binding certain antigens.

In the next section I will briefly discuss experimental approaches which address some of the points raised in this summary.

Studies at the DNA level will eventually allow reasonable estimates of the number of germline V segments to be made. These estimates will permit a fairly accurate assessment of the germline V gene segment contribution to antibody diversity. Isolation and sequencing of germline D gene segments will probably also occur in the near future. It is important, however, to determine the extent to which D region combinatorial joining and D region junctional diversity actually occur during differentiation. This question could be investigated in a fairly straightforward way at the subgroup level using cDNA library of splenic H chain mRNA. This library could be screened with an appropriate probe and the resultant clones analyzed by restriction digests and DNA sequencing. By screening with a  $V_H$  segment probe only (no D segment) a broad collection of  $V_H$ -D- $J_H$  cDNA combinations should be obtained allowing one to determine the extent of the D diversity associated with V gene segments from a particular group.

In addition, such a splenic heavy chain cDNA library could be used for an

extensive study of D segment variability. DNA complementary to C region sequences at the  $V_H$ - $C_H$  junction could be used as a primer for DNA sequencing studies of D segments from cloned cDNAs.

Combinatorial association of light and heavy chains is an old idea which has never been satisfactorily investigated.  $\lambda$ I light chains are encoded by only one or a few  $V_{\lambda I}$  genes (25, 26) and presumably undergo combinatorial association to the same degree as  $\kappa$  light chains. Thus determination of the  $V_H$  sequences associating with  $\lambda$ I chains would provide a measure of heavy-light chain combinatorial association. Partial  $V_H$  cDNA sequences from  $\lambda$ I-producing hybridomas could be determined using the dideoxy nucleotide DNA sequencing technique and primers complementary to immunoglobulin C regions (7). This experiment would provide information on D segment variability as well as on combinatorial association.

A final question, and one which will be very difficult to answer, concerns the importance of each component of antibody diversity generation to immunity. The ideal experimental model would be a mouse lacking particular diversity mechanisms, e.g., mice with only a few  $V_L$  or  $V_H$  segments, one  $J_L$  or  $J_H$  segment, or one D segment. Unfortunately, no such mice have ever been found. The new awareness of the roles of D and J segments, however, may eventually lead to the discovery of their involvement in immunodeficiencies. Until then, the value of different mechanisms for generating antibody variability will continue to be judged on the basis of calculations such as those presented earlier. It is hard to imagine a way (short of stumbling across fortuitous mutants) of ever answering the fundamental question, "What are the contributions of the various mechanisms of antibody diversity generation to immunity?"

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**Appendix**

Analysis of phenylthiohydantoin amino acids by  
high performance liquid chromatography on  
DuPont Zorbax cyanopropylsilane columns

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## Analysis of Phenylthiohydantoin Amino Acids by High-Performance Liquid Chromatography on DuPont Zorbax Cyanopropylsilane Columns<sup>1</sup>

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The phenylthiohydantoin (Pth) of the common amino acids can be resolved in a single analysis using a 25 × 0.46-cm DuPont Zorbax cyanopropylsilane (CN) column developed with a gradient of methanol/acetonitrile (17:3) in sodium acetate buffer, pH 5.4. The Zorbax CN columns exhibit greater durability, reproducibility, and sensitivity than do columns with an octadecylsilane (C<sub>18</sub>) support when used for Pth amino acid analysis in automated polypeptide sequencing.

In the last few years, reverse-phase high-performance liquid chromatography (hplc)<sup>2</sup> has revolutionized protein sequencing analytical procedures (1-4). It provides rapid, sensitive, quantitative analysis of the Pth amino acids formed from the amino acids released during automated Edman degradation. Unlike the other techniques—thin-layer chromatography (5), gas chromatography (6), and back-hydrolysis to the parent amino acids (7,8)—commonly used for this analysis, hplc can resolve all the commonly encountered Pth derivatives in a single chromatographic run. In this report, we describe an hplc system for the Pth amino acid analysis using DuPont Zorbax CN columns rather than the more commonly used C<sub>18</sub> columns. It provides greater column lifetime, higher sensitivity, increased column-to-column reproducibility, and more reliable resolution of Pth-Arg and Pth-His than previously reported hplc analyses of these derivatives.

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<sup>2</sup> Abbreviations used: hplc, high-performance liquid chromatography; Pth, phenylthiohydantoin; CN, cyanopropylsilane; ODS and C<sub>18</sub>, octadecylsilane.

### MATERIALS AND METHODS

**Reagents.** Acetonitrile and methanol were Burdick and Jackson distilled-in-glass solvents. Sodium hydroxide and acetic acid were Baker analyzed reagents. Water was first deionized and then distilled. Pth amino acid standards were obtained from Pierce Chemical Company.

**Chromatography equipment.** The hplc unit consists of two Waters Associates Model 6000A solvent delivery systems, a Waters model 710 autosampler, a Waters Model 440 dual-channel (254 and 313 nm) absorbance detector, a Houston Instruments Omniscrite dual-channel chart recorder, a Caltech-constructed multilinear programmable gradient maker that controls the two Waters pumps, and a simple constant temperature oven. The oven houses a DuPont Permaphase ETH guard column (5 × 0.46 cm) and a DuPont Zorbax CN analytical column (25 × 0.46 cm) at 31 ± 1°C. The factory-installed sample loading loop of the Waters autosampler has been replaced with a 25-μl loop constructed of 0.0625-in.-o.d. × 0.009-in.-i.d. 316 stainless-steel tubing, and the line between the pump and the autosampler has been replaced

with 0.0625-in.-o.d.  $\times$  0.020-in.-i.d. 316 stainless-steel tubing.

**Pth amino acid analysis.** The columns are equilibrated initially with pH 5.4 sodium acetate buffer (0.015–0.040 M) at a flow rate of 1.0 ml/min. The samples are dissolved in acetonitrile, loaded into the low-volume sample inserts for the autosampler, and injected into the flow to the column. The Pth amino acids are eluted with an increasing concentration of a methanol/acetonitrile (17:3) mixture with the total buffer plus solvent flow rate held constant at 1.0 ml/min. The acetate buffer is made up fresh daily by diluting a 0.10 M stock solution and degassing it by boiling for 5 min.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### *Pth Amino Acid Fractionation*

Figure 1 shows a typical elution profile of a mixture of 19 Pth amino acids from a Zorbax CN column. All 19 of the derivatives can be resolved (>90%) with a 35-min column recycle time. In addition, several other Pth amino acids can be resolved with the same gradient. These include the Pth derivatives of carboxymethylcysteine (elutes 20 s before Pth-Glu), succinyllysine (elutes 60 s before Pth-Asn), and carboxamidomethylcysteine (elutes 30 s after Pth-Glu).

Although Pth-Asn, -Ser, and -Thr elute within a 45-s period, they are >90% resolved because the peaks are very sharp. We have never experienced difficulty from their similar elution times in assigning a sequencer residue to these amino acids because (a) serine and threonine residues give multiple peaks in addition to Pth-Ser and -Thr and asparagine residues give some Pth-Asp in addition to Pth-Asn, and (b) there is always a background of most Pth amino acids in a sequencer sample that allows assignment of any large peak (such as Pth-Thr) relative to the background of smaller ones (the nearby Pth-Asn, -Ser, -Gln, and -Gly). Although the absolute retention times do vary by as much as 20 s from one run to another, the spacing

between nearby peaks is nearly constant. Moreover, one can always cochromatograph a small amount of the authentic Pth derivative with the sample to confirm identification should there be no observable background.

This resolution is in several respects superior to that attainable with DuPont Zorbax ODS columns, the only other columns with which single-step resolution of all common Pth amino acids has been reported (1,4).

(i) The resolution of Pth-His and Pth-Arg from the other Pth amino acids is more easily maintained with the CN than with the ODS column. With the latter, Pth-His and Pth-Arg often elute as broad peaks that overlap with those of other Pth amino acids. The peak broadening increases rapidly with column use, and although the effects of column aging can be compensated for somewhat by increasing the starting buffer concentration, these derivatives frequently are resolved only by using a much steeper eluting gradient. With the CN columns, they elute as sharp peaks throughout the usable lifetime of the columns. Although they tend to elute later at a given buffer concentration as the columns age, this effect can be compensated for by increasing the buffer concentration from ~0.015 M for a new column to ~0.040 M for a column that has been used steadily for 2–3 months.

(ii) The usable lifetime (3 months with 2500–3000 injections) of the CN columns is considerably longer than that of the ODS columns (3–6 weeks with 750–1500 injections) if resolution similar to that shown in Fig. 1 is required. Although we have not examined the cause of this difference systematically, we feel it is most likely due to the high column temperature (55–60°C) required for comparable resolution of all the Pth amino acids on the ODS columns.

(iii) The sensitivity of the Zorbax CN columns as an analytical tool for quantitative analysis of Pth amino acid mixtures in automated protein sequencing experiments is superior to that of C<sub>18</sub> columns that have

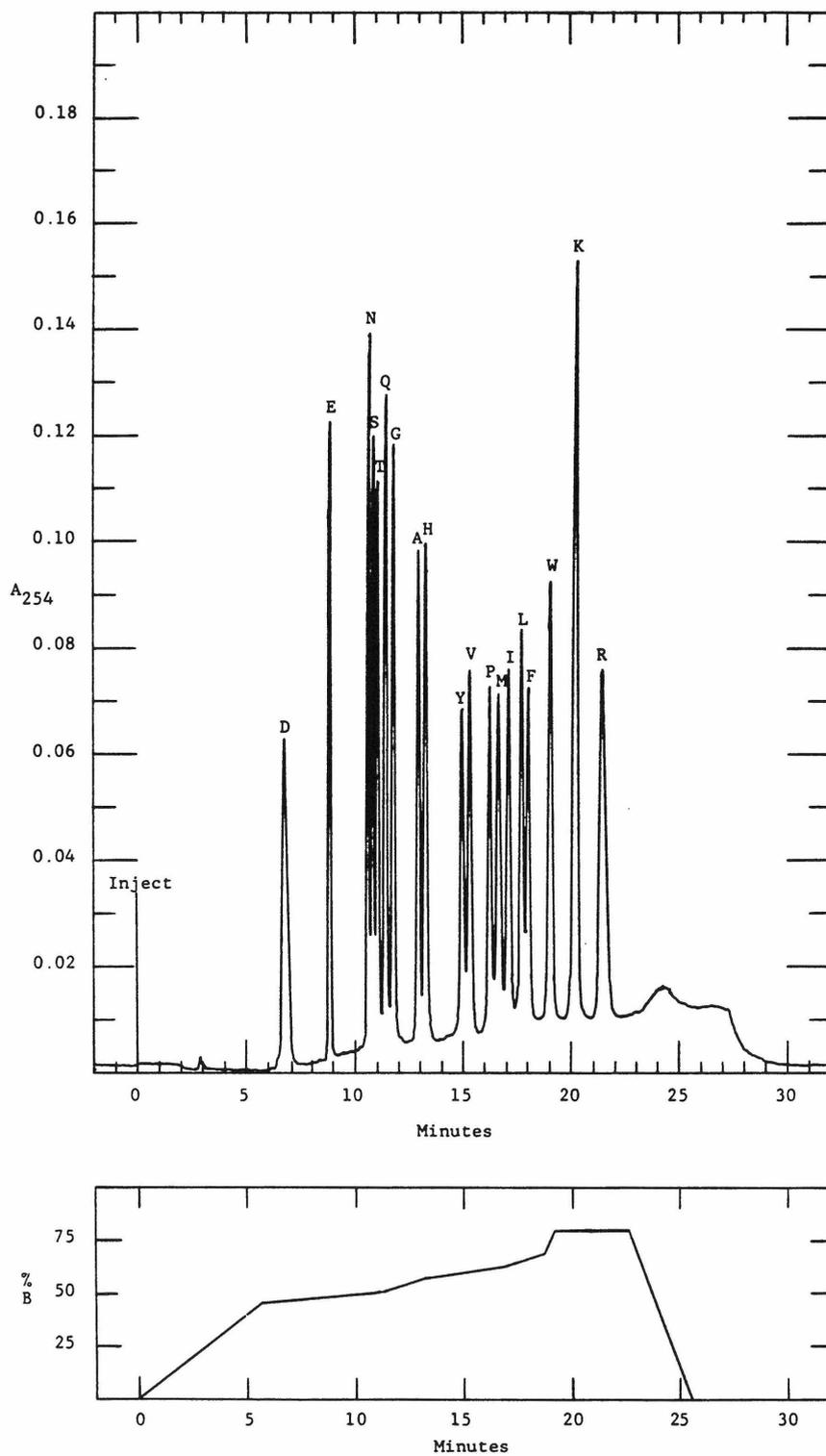


FIG. 1. High-performance liquid chromatographic separation of Pth amino acids on DuPont Zorbax CN. The initial solvent (A) was 0.024 M sodium acetate buffer, pH 5.4, and the secondary solvent (B) was methanol/acetonitrile (17:3). The sample consisted of 10  $\mu$ l of acetonitrile containing 1 nmol of each of the Pth amino acids. Flow rate was 1.0 ml/min, and column temperature was 31°C.

been reported (1-4). The maximum peak absorbance per nanomole ranges from 0.06-0.15  $A_{254}^{1\text{cm}}$  for the Zorbax CN columns compared to 0.03-0.09  $A_{254}^{1\text{cm}}$  for  $C_{18}$  columns. This is due to the higher theoretical plate count of the CN columns and the gradient required for the Pth analysis.

(iv) The Zorbax CN columns give reproducible elution patterns for the Pth amino acids from one column to another. We have not had to change the gradient, solvent, buffer composition (other than concentration for Pth-His and Pth-Arg resolution), flow rate, or column temperature to achieve the resolution shown in Fig. 1 for the CN columns we have used over a period of 18 months. Nonreproducibility of the column-to-column performance of Zorbax ODS for Pth-His and Pth-Arg often forced us to devise separate gradients solely for their determination (4).

The chief disadvantage of using the Zorbax CN rather than the  $C_{18}$  columns is the higher baseline absorbance rise during the gradient development due to impurities in most batches of hplc-grade methanol. Investigators who need to use the higher sensitivity photometer scales should either ask their supplier for lots with an ultraviolet wavelength cutoff of 204 nm (or less) or should repurify the methanol before use. Treatment of hplc-grade methanol by boiling for 10 min with activated charcoal, filtration, and distillation through a 40-cm Widmer column under argon has proven effective in our laboratory. With the 254-nm photometer in

our hplc system, the gradient baseline rise can be as low as 0.002 with the redistilled methanol compared to 0.005-0.020 for various batches of Burdick and Jackson methanol. The acetonitrile-buffer system used for Zorbax ODS columns (1,4) or the methanol-buffer systems used for Waters  $\mu$ Bondapak  $C_{18}$  columns (2,3) typically show an absorbance rise of 0.005. Addition of acetone to the initial buffer to raise its 254-nm absorbance to the level of the eluting solvent (and hence minimize baseline rise during the gradient), although successful with the  $\mu$ -Bondapak  $C_{18}$  columns (2,3), is impractical with the Zorbax CN columns because of retention of acetone on the column during the initial equilibration with buffer and subsequent elution of the adsorbed acetone during the gradient.

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