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The Cyclin D3 Protein Enforces Monogenic TCRβ Expression by Mediating TCRβ Protein–Signaled Feedback Inhibition of Vβ Recombination

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In jawed vertebrates, adaptive immunity depends on the process of V(D)J recombination creating vast numbers of T and B lymphocytes that each expresses unique Ag receptors of uniform specificity. The asynchronous initiation of V-to-(D)J rearrangement between alleles and the resulting protein from one allele signaling feedback inhibition of V recombination on the other allele ensures homogeneous receptor specificity of individual cells. Upon productive V β -to-D β J β rearrangements in noncycling double-negative thymocytes, TCR β protein signals induction of the cyclin D3 protein to accelerate cell cycle entry, thereby driving proliferative expansion of developing $\alpha\beta$ T cells. Through undetermined mechanisms, the inactivation of cyclin D3 in mice causes an increased frequency of $\alpha\beta$ T cells that express TCR β proteins from both alleles, producing lymphocytes of heterogeneous specificities. To determine how cyclin D3 enforces monogenic TCR β expression, we used our mouse lines with enhanced rearrangement of specific V β segments due to replacement of their poor-quality recombination signal sequence (RSS) DNA elements with a better RSS. We show that cyclin D3 inactivation in these mice elevates the frequencies of $\alpha\beta$ T cells that display proteins from RSS-augmented V β segments on both alleles. By assaying mature $\alpha\beta$ T cells, we find that cyclin D3 deficiency increases the levels of V β rearrangements that occur within developing thymocytes. Our data demonstrate that a component of the cell cycle machinery mediates TCR β protein–signaled feedback inhibition in thymocytes to achieve monogenic TCR β expression and resulting uniform specificity of individual $\alpha\beta$ T cells. *The Journal of Immunology*, 2024, 212: 534–540.

he ability of jawed vertebrates to produce enormous numbers of T and B lymphocytes that each expresses distinct Ag receptors (AgRs) of unique specificity provides adaptive immunity against a broad range of foreign pathogens and malignant host cells. These protein receptors consist of heterodimeric $\alpha\beta$ or $\gamma\delta$ TCRs or heterotetrameric IgH/IgK or IgH/Ig λ BCRs with unique Ag-binding V regions and shared effector C regions. Germline TCR and Ig loci are comprised of many V, J, and in some cases D gene segments located upstream of C region exons. In developing T and B lymphocytes, the RAG1/RAG2 (RAG) endonuclease recombines gene segments to assemble the second exons of TCR or Ig genes, respectively (1). Gene segments are flanked by recombination signal sequence (RSS) elements consisting of heptamers and nonamers separated by 12 or 23 nt (2). To conduct V(D)J recombination, RAG binds one RSS, captures a second RSS of different length (synapsis), and simultaneously cleaves between each RSS and the coding segment (2). Subsequently, RAG functions with DNA double-strand break repair proteins to ligate RSS ends into a signal join and process/ligate-coding ends into a coding join (2). The combination of joining events and imprecision of coding join formation cooperate to generate a vast repertoire of different AgR genes distributed across T and B cells. The importance of AgR gene assembly is demonstrated by the fact that genetic mutations that diminish RAG endonuclease activity

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result in reduced numbers of T and B cells, diminished AgR diversity, and SCID (3).

The lymphocyte lineage-, developmental stage-, and allele-specific regulation of the assembly and expression of AgR genes ensures that most individual $\alpha\beta$ T and IgH/IgK B cells exhibit homogeneous specificity. Common lymphoid progenitors differentiate into double-negative thymocytes or pro-B cells that arrest within the G₁ cell cycle phase, induce RAG expression, and transcriptionally activate TCRB or IgH loci, respectively (4-8). This allows RAG to bind TCRB or IgH D-J segments and form a recombination center that mediates D-to-J recombination (9). Independent changes in threedimensional structures of TCRB or IgH loci juxtapose their recombination center and V segments across large linear genomic distances to drive V-to-DJ recombination, which occurs asynchronously between alleles of each participating locus (6, 10, 11). The assembly of in-frame VDJ coding joins generates expression of TCRB or IgH proteins that activate intracellular signaling pathways to silence RAG expression and promote cellular survival, proliferation, and differentiation into G_1 -arrested double-positive (DP) thymocytes or pre-B cells, respectively (5-7). These AgR protein signals also feedback inhibit V rearrangements to ensure the assembly and expression of TCRB or IgH genes from one allele, a phenomenon referred to as allelic exclusion (6, 10, 11). In DP thymocytes and pre-B cells, re-expression of RAG and activation

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Abbreviations used in this article: AgR, Ag receptor; DN, double-negative; DP, double-positive; RAG, RAG1/RAG2; RSS, recombination signal sequence; SP, single-positive.

of TCR α or Ig κ loci promote V-to-J recombination, which for Ig κ happens on one allele at a time (12, 13). RAG cleavage on one Ig κ allele activates intracellular signals that feedback inhibit Ig κ recombination on the other allele to help orchestrate Ig κ allelic exclusion (14, 15). The assembly of in-frame VJ coding joins leads to expression of TCR α or Ig κ proteins that form TCRs or BCRs, respectively, which are subject to selection based on their Ag specificity (7). The positive selection of these receptors signals feedback inhibition of V rearrangements and maturation of $\alpha\beta$ T or κ^+ B cells. Although TCR α V-to-J recombination is not regulated between alleles, positive selection often enforces TCR α allelic exclusion via posttranslational mechanisms (16). The interdependent regulation of lymphocyte development and V(D)J recombination produces $\alpha\beta$ T and κ^+ B cell populations wherein 90–95% of cells express AgRs of one type and uniform specificity (6).

Despite being investigated since 1965, the molecular mechanisms that govern AgR allelic exclusion are largely undetermined but thought to involve epigenetic changes that silence chromatin over germline V gene segments and spatially segregate these elements from distal (D)J gene segments (6). To elucidate precise mechanisms underlying this fundamental aspect of adaptive immunity, we study the mouse TCR β locus (*Tcrb*) that has 22 V β segments 250-735 kb upstream of two DB-JB-CB clusters (DB1-JB1-CB1 and D β 2-J β 2-C β 2) and the immediately downstream V31 V β that lies in the opposite genomic orientation of all other *Tcrb* coding segments (Fig. 1A) (5). Any V β segment can rearrange to D β J β complexes assembled in or between each DB-JB-CB cluster, and each Tcrb allele can support as many as two different VB-to-DBJB rearrangements. Following rearrangement of an upstream VB segment to a D β 1J β 1 complex, one of the remaining upstream V β segments can recombine to a D β 2J β 2 complex, deleting the VBDB1JB1 coding join to prevent the expression of two different TCR β proteins from the same allele (17). However, after the rearrangement of V31 to a DB1JB1 or DB2JB2 complex by inversion, an upstream V β segment can rearrange through inversion to a D β 2J β 2 complex or deletion to a D β 1J β 1 complex, generating a Tcrb allele capable of expressing two distinct TCRB proteins (18–20). Thus, to ensure expression of only one type of TCR β protein on an individual $\alpha\beta$ T cell, mechanisms must inhibit assembly of two in-frame Tcrb genes on the same allele and on both alleles. The intrinsic poor qualities of VB RSSs stochastically curtail the frequency of initiation of VB segment rearrangements to inhibit the assembly and expression of two different TCRB proteins from a single allele (18, 19). This genetic mechanism for inefficient VB recombination also limits the fraction of DN thymocytes that initiates V β recombination on both alleles before TCR β protein emanating from one allele can enforce permanent feedback inhibition of V β rearrangement on the other allele (19).

Although permanent feedback inhibition almost certainly is mediated through both silencing of VB chromatin and changes in Tcrb topology that spatially segregate VB and DBJB segments in DP thymocytes (21-25), the potential contributions of changes in DN thymocytes remain elusive (26). One consequence of TCRB signaling in DN thymocytes is transcriptional activation of cyclin D3 protein expression, which accelerates cells through the G1 and into the S phase to drive proliferation and expansion as cells differentiate into DP thymocytes concomitant with silencing of cyclin D3 and arrest in the G_1 phase of the cell cycle (27). The genetic inactivation of cyclin D3 in mice increases the frequency of mature $\alpha\beta$ T cells that express TCRB proteins from both alleles and thus display Ag receptors of nonuniform specificity (28, 29). This cyclin D3 deficiency has no discernable effects on silencing of VB chromatin or spatial segregation of VB and DBJB segments in DP thymocytes (21, 30), implying that the inability of TCRB-selected DN thymocytes to

express cyclin D3 leads to increased levels of V β rearrangements before these cells become DP thymocytes. However, an alternative possibility is that cyclin D3 deficiency favors the selection of DN thymocytes that express TCR β proteins from in-frame rearrangements on both alleles. Although cyclin D3 inactivation elevates the frequency of $\alpha\beta$ T cells displaying biallelic TCR β protein expression, the rare incidence of these dual-TCR β cells precluded determining whether they arise from an increased level of V β rearrangement in DN thymocytes, greater survival, proliferation, and differentiation of dual-TCR β DN thymocytes, or both means.

We previously reported that cyclin D3 deficiency in mice increases the frequency of individual $\alpha\beta$ T cells that express V2⁺ and V31⁺ TCRB proteins (28). Thus, to determine whether TCRB proteinsignaled induction of cyclin D3 expression mediates feedback inhibition of V β recombination, we leveraged our mouse strains with enhanced frequency of rearrangement of the V2 and/or V31 VB segments. These mice carry replacement of the poor-quality RSS of these V β segments with the same stronger RSS (18, 19, 31). This genetic engineering raises the incidences that V2 and V31 initiate recombination in DN thymocytes before enforcement of TCRB protein-signaled feedback inhibition, thereby increasing the percentages of $\alpha\beta$ T cells that express V2⁺, V31⁺, or both $V2^+$ and $V31^+$ TCR β proteins (18, 19, 31). We now show in this study that genetic inactivation of cyclin D3 in our RSS-enhanced mice further raises the frequencies of both $V2^+$ and $V2^+V31^+$ naive $\alpha\beta$ T cells, but unexpectedly lowers the fraction of V31^+ naive $\alpha\beta$ T cells. By quantifying nonselected, out-of-frame TCR β rearrangements in bulk populations of naive $\alpha\beta$ T cells, we find that cyclin D3 deficiency increases the level of V2 rearrangement that occurs within developing thymocytes. Our data indicate that a component of the cell cycle machinery mediates TCRB proteinsignaled feedback inhibition to help mice achieve monogenic TCRB expression and resulting uniform specificity of individual $\alpha\beta$ T cells.

Materials and Methods

Mice

All mice assayed were 4–6 wk old, on the C57BL/6 background, of each sex, and housed under specific pathogen-free conditions. All husbandry, breeding, and studies were performed in accordance with national guide-lines and regulations and approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of the Children's Hospital of Philadelphia. Mice carrying the $V2^R$, $V31^R$, $V2^RV31^R$, $V31^{NT}$, or $Ccnd3^{-/-}$ alleles and genotyping strategies for these alleles were reported previously (18, 19, 27, 32).

Flow cytometry

Single-cell suspensions were prepared from the thymuses and spleens of mice, depleted of RBCs, and Fc receptors were blocked using anti-CD16/CD32. Cells were stained in PBS containing 2% FCS and 1 mM EDTA with the following Abs: anti-CD4 allophycocyanin–eFluor 780 (clone RM4-5, Invitrogen, catalog no. 47-0042-82), anti-CD8a Pacific Blue (clone 53-6.7, BD Pharmingen, catalog no. 558106), anti-TCR β allophycocyanin (clone H57-597, BD Pharmingen, catalog no. 553366), and anti-Trbv31 FITC (clone 14-2, BD Pharmingen, catalog no. 55326), and anti-Trbv31 FITC (clone 14-2, BD Pharmingen, catalog no. 553258). Single cells were gated based on forward and side scatter and assayed for expression of other proteins using indicated gates. Data were collected on an LSRFortessa and analyzed with FlowJo software (Tree Star).

Adaptive immunosequencing

We performed Adaptive immunosequencing on sort-purified V2⁺V31⁻ or V2⁻V31⁺ single-positive (SP) thymocytes. For each of the two experiments, we pooled equal numbers of cells from 2 *Ccnd3*^{+/+} or 10 *Ccnd3*^{-/-} back-ground mice. Genomic DNA was isolated using a DNeasy blood and tissue kit (Qiagen, catalog no. 69506) and submitted to Adaptive Biotechnologies for their mouse TCR β assay at the survey resolution. For statistical analyses, we performed multiple unpaired *t* tests.

Statistical analysis

Data are reported as mean \pm SD. Statistical analyses were conducted as indicated in the figure legends using Prism 9.

Results

Cyclin D3 deficiency changes the representation and dual expression of RSS-augmented V2 and V31 segments on $\alpha\beta$ T cells

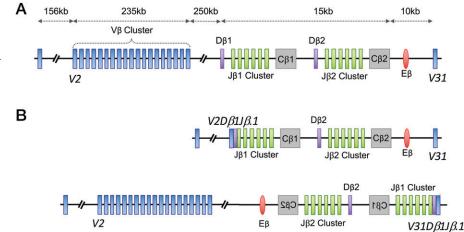
We first assayed effects of cyclin D3 deficiency on TCRB protein expression in our mice containing V2 and V31 RSSs replaced with the better 3'DB1 RSS on both Tcrb alleles (Fig. 1) (18). In these $V2^{R}V31^{R}/V2^{R}V31^{R}$ mice, the fractions of $\alpha\beta$ T cells that express $V2^+$, $V31^+$, or both $V2^+$ and $V31^+$ TCR β proteins within their AgRs are greater than normal due to the increased frequency of initiation of V2 and V31 recombination before TCRB proteinmediated feedback inhibition (19). We reasoned that the higher frequencies of biallelic Tcrb gene assembly and dual-TCRB-expressing cells would provide a more sensitive in vivo system to determine the consequences of cyclin D3 deficiency on VB recombination. Therefore, we bred $V2^{R}V31^{R}/V2^{R}V31^{R}$ mice with mice carrying inactivation of the Ccnd3 gene that encodes cyclin D3 protein to ultimately create and study $V2^{R}V31^{R}/V2^{R}V31^{R}$ and $V2^{R}V31^{R}/V2^{R}$ $V31^{R}$: Ccnd3^{-/-} mice. We first analyzed these mouse lines by flow cytometry to determine their fractions of naive mature $\alpha\beta$ T cells that express $V2^+$, $V31^+$, or $V2^+$ and $V31^+$ TCR β proteins. We studied thymic $\alpha\beta$ T cells to avoid influences from potential differential expansion and/or localization of peripheral cells with an altered TCRB repertoire, bigenic TCRB expression, or both. This approach also assists comparison between genotypes because cyclin D3 loss lowers the numbers of $\alpha\beta$ T lineage cells beyond the DN thymocyte stage due to decreased cellular expansion during DNto-DP thymocyte differentiation (27). Reflecting our prior study (18), we found V2⁺ or V31⁺ TCR β proteins on 26 or 64%, respectively, of thymic $\alpha\beta$ T cells (SP thymocytes) in $V2^{R}V31^{R}/V2^{R}V31^{R}$ mice (Fig. 2; gating strategy shown in Supplemental Fig. 1). However, in $V2^{R}V31^{R}/V2^{R}V31^{R}$: Ccnd3^{-/-} mice, we detected V2⁺ or V31⁺ TCR β proteins on 32 or 58%, respectively, of thymic $\alpha\beta$ T cells (Fig. 2), revealing that cyclin D3 deficiency increases representation of V2 and decreases representation of V31 on $\alpha\beta$ T cells in the $V2^{R}V31^{R}/V2^{R}V31^{R}$ genetic background. Notably, the magnitudes in the loss of $V2^+$ cells and gain of $V31^+$ cells were equal, with each $\sim 6\%$ of $\alpha\beta$ T cells. Despite cyclin D3 inactivation reducing the fraction of V31⁺ cells, we detected a greater percentage of $\alpha\beta$ T cells expressing both V2⁺ and V31⁺ TCR β proteins in $V2^{R}V31^{R}$ $/V2^{R}V31^{R}$: Ccnd3^{-/-} mice (2.9%) relative to $V2^{R}V31^{R}/V2^{R}V31^{R}$

mice (2.3%) (Fig. 2). We compared the fractions of V2⁺ or V31⁺ cells that also express V31 or V2, respectively, between $V2^{R}V3I^{R}/V2^{R}$ $V3I^{R}:Cend3^{-/-}$ and $V2^{R}V3I^{R}/V2^{R}V3I^{R}$ mice (Supplemental Fig. 2). These calculations demonstrate that cyclin D3 inactivation has no effect on the fraction of V2⁺ cells that express V31 but causes a 1.4-fold increase in the percentage of V31⁺ cells that express V2 (Supplemental Fig. 2). Collectively, our flow cytometry analysis indicates that cyclin D3 deficiency changes the representation of V2 and V31 and the frequency that both V β segments are expressed on individual $\alpha\beta$ T cells when a strong RSS controls their rearrangement.

There are several potential reasons for why cyclin D3 deficiency in the $V2^{R}V31^{R}/V2^{R}V31^{R}$ background elevates the frequencies of $V2^+$ and $V2^+V31^+$ cells and diminishes the frequency of $V31^+$ cells. One is that cyclin D3 loss elevates the incidence of V2 rearrangement while TCRB protein expressed from another VB rearrangement is driving G₁-arrested DN thymocytes into the S phase. Another is that the lack of cyclin D3 expression alters the survival, expansion, and differentiation of DN thymocytes by bolstering V2⁺ cells and/or hindering V31⁺ cells, which could occur on top of cyclin D3 loss increasing rearrangement of V2 and/or V31 as signals from TCRB proteins are initially driving DN cells into the S phase. An additional explanation for the diminished frequency of V31⁺ $\alpha\beta$ T cells is a higher incidence of V2 recombination with D β 2J β 2 complexes on Tcrb alleles that harbor in-frame V31-to-DB1JB1 rearrangement as V31⁺ TCR_β proteins expressed from the latter are pushing DN cells into the S phase. Such dual inversional VB rearrangements would position the Tcrb enhancer (EB) within a 10-kb linear genomic distance of the $V2^+$ gene, but ~500 kb away from the $V31^+$ gene (20). As E β is required for expression of an assembled Tcrb transgene beyond the DN thymocyte stage (33), alleles with in-frame inversional recombination of both V2 and V31 might express only V2⁺ TCRβ protein. Any combination of the above-mentioned scenarios could account for the altered repertoire and elevated bigenic expression of TCRB proteins on $\alpha\beta$ T cells of $V2^{R}V31^{R}/V2^{R}V31^{R}$: Ccnd3^{-/-} mice as compared with $V2^R V31^R / V2^R V31^R$ mice.

To gain insights into which possibilities contribute to the phenotypic differences between $V2^R V3I^R/V2^R V3I^R$ and $V2^R V3I^R/V2^R$ $V3I^R:Ccnd3^{-/-}$ mice, we leveraged our mice carrying *Tcrb* alleles with only the weak *V2* or *V31* RSS replaced with the better 3'D β 1 RSS (19). In $V2^R/V3I^R$ mice where the RSS-augmented V β segments are on opposite alleles, the frequency for inversional rearrangement of both *V31* and *V2* on the same allele is much lower than in $V2^R V3I^R/V2^R V3I^R$ mice (18, 19). Thus, we reasoned that if cyclin D3 deficiency lowers the representation of V31⁺ $\alpha\beta$ T cells

FIGURE 1. Schematic representations of germline, *V2*-rearranged, or *V31*-rearranged *Tcrb* alleles. (**A**) Schematic of the *Tcrb* locus and relative positions of V, D, and J gene segments, C exons, and the E β enhancer. The locations of the *Trbv2* (*V2*) and *Trbv31* (*V31*) segments are indicated. (**B**) Schematics of the *Tcrb* locus carrying rearrangement of *V2* (top) or *V31* (bottom) to a D β 1J β 1.1 complex.



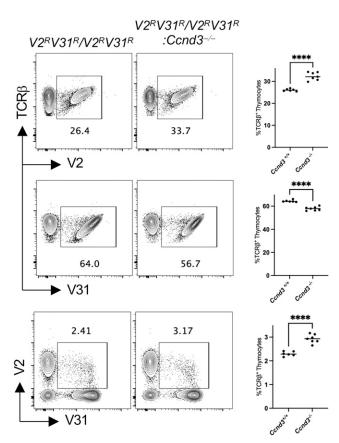


FIGURE 2. Cyclin D3 deficiency alters the representation and dual expression of V2 and V31 on T cells in $V2^RV31^R/V2^RV31^R$ mice. Flow cytometry analysis for effects of cyclin D3 deficiency on the representation of RSS-enhanced V β segments in TCR β protein on thymic $\alpha\beta$ T cells. Shown are representative and quantified data for the frequency of V2⁺, V31⁺, or V2⁺V31⁺ cells in $V2^RV31^R/V2^RV31^R$ (n = 6) or $V2^R$ $V31^R/V2^RV31^R$: *Ccnd3^{-/-}* (n = 7) mice. Graphed data are from three or more independent experiments, each with at least one mouse of each genotype, showing the mean. One-way ANOVA with Tukey multiple posttests of each V β RSS-enhanced genotype compared with the wild-type. ****p < 0.0001.

by elevating the incidence of upstream inversional VB rearrangement on V31⁺ alleles, cyclin D3 inactivation in $V2^R/V31^R$ mice would decrease the frequency of $V31^+$ cells to a lesser extent than in $V2^{R}V31^{R}/V2^{R}V31^{R}$ mice. To test this, we bred our $V2^{R}/V2^{R}$ and $V31^R/V31^R$ mice with $Ccnd3^{-/-}$ mice to ultimately create and analyze $V2^R/V31^R$ and $V2^R/V31^R$: Ccnd3^{-/-} mice. Mirroring our previous reports (18, 19), we observed V2⁺ or V31⁺ TCR β proteins on 32.4 or 40.2%, respectively, of thymic $\alpha\beta$ T cells in $V2^R/V31^R$ mice (Fig. 3). However, in $V2^R/V31^R$: Ccnd3^{-/-} mice, we found $V2^+$ or $V31^+$ TCR β proteins on 37 or 36.3%, respectively, of thymic $\alpha\beta$ T cells (Fig. 3). Importantly, the magnitudes in the loss of $V2^+$ cells and gain of $V31^+$ cells were similar, with each ~4% of $\alpha\beta$ T cells, providing evidence against the scenario that cyclin D3 deficiency elevates upstream VB rearrangement through inversion on $V31^+$ alleles. We also found that cyclin D3 inactivation on the $V2^R/V31^R$ background increases the frequency of $\alpha\beta$ T cells that express both $V2^+$ and $V31^+$ TCR β proteins, from 2.3 to 2.7% (Fig. 3). As the RSS-enhanced V2 and V31 segments are on opposite alleles, this observation provides support that cyclin D3 inhibits biallelic assembly and expression of Tcrb genes. In this context, cyclin D3 expression resulting from TCRB signaling following an in-frame VB rearrangement on one allele might mediate feedback inhibition of V β rearrangement on the other allele.

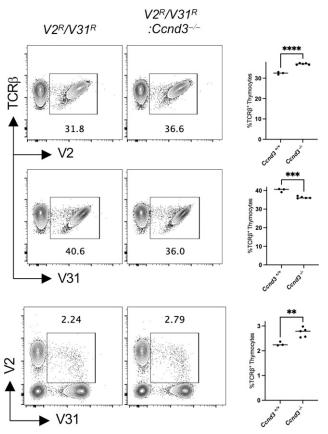
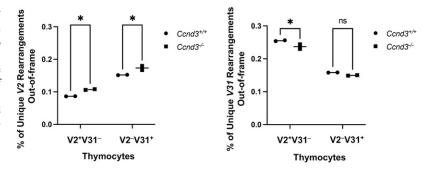


FIGURE 3. Cyclin D3 deficiency alters the representation and dual expression of *V*2 and *V*31 on T cells in *V*2^{*R}/<i>V*31^{*R*} mice. Flow cytometry analysis for effects of cyclin D3 deficiency on the representation of RSS-enhanced V β segments in TCR β protein on thymic $\alpha\beta$ T cells. Shown are representative and quantified data for the frequency of V2⁺, V31⁺, or V2⁺V31⁺ cells in *V*2^{*R*}/*V*31^{*R*} (*n* = 3) or *V*2^{*R*}/*V*31^{*R*}:*Ccnd*3^{-/-} (*n* = 5) mice. Graphed data are from three or more independent experiments, each with at least one mouse of each genotype, showing the mean. One-way ANOVA with Tukey multiple posttests of each V β RSS-enhanced genotype compared with the wild-type. **p < 0.01, ****p < 0.0001.</sup>

Cyclin D3 deficiency increases rearrangements of the RSS-augmented V2 segment

We next sought to determine the consequences of cyclin D3 inactivation on the incidences of rearrangement of the RSS-augmented V β segments. Measuring rearrangement levels of V2 or V31 in $V31^+V2^-$ or $V2^+V31^-$ DN thymocytes, respectively, would be the ideal and most direct means to determine whether cyclin D3 deficiency raises the incidence that V2 or V31 rearrange on nonexpressing alleles in these cells before their proliferation and further differentiation. However, the tiny numbers of DN thymocytes that express TCRB protein and have not entered the S phase proved an insurmountable technical obstacle for isolating enough DNA to measure levels of V2 or V31 rearrangements in these cells. We considered single-cell analyses but determined that this was neither feasible nor affordable because of the very large numbers of cells needed for PCR/sequencing to yield statistical meaningful analysis of the small difference in the fractions of dual-TCR β cells between mice capable or incapable of expressing cyclin D3 protein. We also did not conduct intracellular VB staining, as this does not provide a rigorous analysis of VB rearrangement because of posttranscriptional silencing of in-frame TCRB rearrangements (34). Therefore, we assayed out-of-frame VB rearrangements in thymic $\alpha\beta$ T cells because such nonfunctional *Tcrb*

FIGURE 4. Cyclin D3 deficiency in $V2^{R}V3I^{R}/V2^{R}V3I^{R}$ mice increases rearrangements of V2 but not V31. Graphical quantification of the percentage of total unique *Tcrb* genes involving out-of-frame rearrangements of V2 or V31 from Adaptive immunosequencing performed on genomic DNA isolated from V2⁺V31⁻ or V2⁻V31⁺ SP thymocytes of $V2^{R}V3I^{R}/V2^{R}V3I^{R}$ (n = 2) or $V2^{R}V3I^{R}/V2^{R}V3I^{R}$:*Ccnd3^{-/-}* mice. This experiment involved analysis of DNA isolated from two different mice of each genotype. *p < 0.05 by twoway ANOVA followed by a Šídák multiple comparison test. ns, not significant.



genes are not selected for or against in cells expressing TCRB protein from an in-frame V β rearrangement. We employed Adaptive's immunosequencing platform, a next-generation sequencing approached that provides an accurate and comprehensive analysis of assembled Tcrb genes. We conducted our experiment on V2⁺V31⁻ or V2⁻ V31⁺ thymocytes sorted from $V2^{R}V31^{R}/V2^{R}V31^{R}$ or $V2^{R}V31^{R}/V2^{R}$ $V31^{R}$: Ccnd3^{-/-} mice because they have greater incidences and numbers of V2⁺, V31⁺, and V2⁺V31⁺ $\alpha\beta$ T cells than do $V2^{R}/V31^{R}$ or $V2^R/V31^R$: Ccnd3^{-/-} mice. We determined the frequencies of unique out-of-frame V2 or V31 rearrangements within the total population of unique *Tcrb* gene sequences from each genotype of SP thymocytes. For V2⁺V31⁻ thymocytes, we detected a reduced frequency of out-of-frame V31 rearrangements in $V2^{R}V31^{R}/V2^{R}$ $V31^{R}$: Ccnd3^{-/-} mice (23.73%) versus $V2^{R}V31^{R}/V2^{R}V31^{R}$ mice (25.5%) and a greater frequency of out-of-frame V2 rearrangements in $V2^R V31^R / V2^R V31^R : Ccnd3^{-/-}$ mice (10.7%) relative to $V2^{R}V31^{R}/V2^{R}V31^{R}$ mice (8.64%) (Fig. 4). For V2⁻V31⁺ thymocytes, we observed similar frequencies of out-of-frame V31 rearrangements in $V2^{R}V31^{R}/V2^{R}V31^{R}$ mice (15.84%) and $V2^{R}V31^{R}/V2^{R}$ $V31^{R}$: Ccnd3^{-/-} mice (14.96%) and an elevated frequency of outof-frame V2 rearrangements in $V2^{R}V31^{R}/V2^{R}V31^{R}$: Ccnd3^{-/-} mice (18.34%) as compared with $V2^{R}V31^{R}/V2^{R}V31^{R}$ mice (15.2%) (Fig. 4). Collectively, these data demonstrate that cyclin D3 deficiency in $V2^{R}$ $V3I^R/V2^RV3I^R$ mice increases the incidence for rearrangements of V2 but not V31, providing a molecular basis for how cyclin D3 normally suppresses the development of $\alpha\beta$ T cells expressing both V2⁺ and V31⁺ TCRβ proteins and thus AgRs of heterogeneous specificity.

Discussion

Our results offer novel mechanistic insights into how jawed vertebrates generate vast numbers of T and B cells that individually display unique AgRs of distinct uniform specificity, which is the elemental basis for adaptive immunity. We previously reported that inactivation of the cyclin D3 protein in mice elevates the percentage of individual $\alpha\beta$ T cells that express two types of TCR β proteins, and thus AgRs of heterogeneous specificity. However, we were unable to determine whether cyclin D3 deficiency increased VB rearrangement levels in DN thymocytes because of the tiny numbers of these cells that rearrange and express two V β segments. In the current study, we employed a genetic approach with V β RSS-enhanced mice that assemble both V2⁺ and V31⁺ genes in a greater-than-normal number of DN thymocytes, producing a much larger-than-normal fraction of $\alpha\beta$ T cells that display both $V2^+$ and $V31^+$ TCR β proteins within their AgRs. The substantially increased efficiency of recombination and representation of V2 and/ or V31 in $\alpha\beta$ T lineage cells of these mice facilitates experimental approaches to determine whether cyclin D3 deficiency raises the incidence of dual-TCR β^+ cells through increasing levels of V β rearrangements in thymocytes. By analyzing these mice when they can or cannot express cyclin D3 to stimulate proliferation of DN thymocytes that assemble and express an in-frame Tcrb gene, we show that cyclin D3 loss raises the fractions of $V2^+$ and $V2^+$ $V31^+ \alpha\beta$ T cells and lowers the fraction of $V31^+ \alpha\beta$ T cells. We also show that the inactivation of cyclin D3 increases levels of rearrangement of V2 but not V31, indicating a mechanism for how cyclin D3 deficiency raises the frequencies of $V2^+$ and $V2^+V31^+$ $\alpha\beta$ T cells. The fact that cyclin D3 loss does not change the level of V31 rearrangement but lowers the frequency of V31⁺ $\alpha\beta$ T cells shows that cyclin D3 deficiency biases against development of thymocytes that assemble $V31^+$ Tcrb genes, at least when the 3'D β 1 RSS controls V31 rearrangement. This strong RSS targets Vβ rearrangements directly to J β gene segments (35, 36), which generates shorter-than-normal TCRB proteins (37). As Adaptive immunosequencing reveals the lack of D β nucleotides in ~50% of Tcrb genes assembled by V31 rearrangement in $V2^{R}V31^{R}/V2^{R}V31^{R}$ mice, it possible that cyclin D3-driven cellular proliferation masks that this pool of truncated V31⁺ TCR β proteins is less efficient than normal for signaling survival and maturation of thymocytes. Moreover, as discussed below, differences between the mechanisms or regulation of V2 and V31 rearrangements could explain why cyclin D3 deficiency differentially influences recombination of these two Vβ segments.

In normal developing $\alpha\beta$ T cells, V β rearrangements occur only in G₁ phase DN thymocytes due to genetic and epigenetic regulation of RAG accessibility and RAG-mediated synapsis of VB and DBJB segments, whereas cyclin D3 protein is detectable in thymocytes only during TCRB-dependent DN-to-DP development (5, 27). In DP thymocytes, the downregulation of V β chromatin accessibility and spatial segregation of VB and DBJB gene segments correlate with feedback inhibition of V β rearrangements (21, 22, 24, 38). The inability of mice to express cyclin D3 protein has no effect on the epigenetic mechanisms thought to silence VB rearrangements in DP thymocytes (21, 30). Accordingly, our finding that cyclin D3 deficiency causes a higher level of nonselected out-of-frame V2 rearrangements in $\alpha\beta$ T cells provides strong evidence that cyclin D3 enforces TCRB allelic exclusion by inhibiting VB rearrangements in DN thymocytes. However, our data do not rule out an unexpected contribution for cyclin D3 protein-mediated feedback inhibition in DP thymocytes. Nevertheless, we conclude that cyclin D3 mediates TCR β protein-signaled feedback inhibition of V β rearrangement in DN thymocytes to help achieve monogenic TCRB expression and resulting uniform specificity of individual $\alpha\beta$ T cells.

Cyclin D3 could mediate TCR β -mediated feedback inhibition of V β recombination in DN thymocytes through its documented roles in promoting cellular proliferation, repressing gene transcription, or both. This cell cycle protein stimulates cellular proliferation by binding and activating the Cdk4/Ckd6 cyclin-dependent kinases to accelerate cells through the G₁ phase (39). Following in-frame *Tcrb* gene assembly on one allele in G₁ phase–arrested DN thymocytes, TCR β protein–signaled activation of cyclin D3 moves these cells into the

S phase (27), where RAG2 proteolysis inactivates RAG expression and V(D)J recombination (40, 41). Accordingly, cyclin D3 might enforce feedback inhibition of VB recombination in DN thymocytes by shortening the time window for further V β rearrangement on the second allele. Developing B cells, but not fibroblasts, harbor a pool of cyclin D3 protein that associates with the nuclear matrix and inhibits transcription of some germline V segments in Ig loci and numerous monoallelically expressed genes (42, 43). This fraction of cyclin D3 is thought to coordinate monoallelic gene activation and cellular proliferation (43). We previously suggested the notion that cyclin D3 could mediate IgH protein-signaled feedback inhibition of V_H recombination in pro-B cells by both driving S phase entry and repressing RAG endonuclease accessibility of V_H segments (28). Likewise, cyclin D3 might facilitate TCRB feedback inhibition in DN thymocytes by suppressing transcription and RAG accessibility of germline VB segments.

Our data are consistent with cyclin D3 protein mediating feedback inhibition of V2 but not V31 rearrangement in DN thymocytes. In the germline genomic configuration, V2 resides ~500 kb upstream of DB-JB segments and rearranges via deletion of intervening sequences, whereas V31 lies ~10-15 kb downstream of DB-JB segments and rearranges by inversion (Fig. 1B). Additional differences between these two $V\beta$ segments include that rearrangement of V2 but not V31 requires locus contraction through genome folding for synapsis with DB-JB segments, and downregulation of chromatin accessibility in DP thymocytes is more dramatic for V2 compared with V31 (38). Accordingly, there are several reasons for why V31 inversion rearrangements and V2 deletion rearrangements are differentially influenced by cyclin D3 deficiency. One is that cyclin D3 protein binds over V2 but not V31 to repress transcription and chromatin accessibility and thus rearrangement. Another is that the chromosome folding mechanisms that direct V2rearrangement across large genomic distances might gain an advantage over diffusion-based collisions that mediate short-range V31 recombination during the longer time that DN cells remain in the G_1 phase when cyclin D3 cannot be expressed.

The assembly of *Tcrb* genes must be coordinated to not only ensure uniform Ag specificity of individual $\alpha\beta$ T cells, but also to suppress Tcrb locus translocations and resulting T lineage lymphoid malignancies. We propose the following model for regulation of *Tcrb* recombination during $\alpha\beta$ T cell development. In G₁ phase-arrested DN thymocytes, both Tcrb alleles become transcriptionally active, simultaneously in some cells (44), but epigenetic mechanisms including stochastic association of Tcrb alleles with the nuclear lamina repress biallelic V β recombination (45). Moreover, poor-quality VB RSSs stochastically restrict initiation of V β recombination to a single V β segment on either allele (18, 19). RAG-mediated DNA cleavage activates the ATM protein kinase to signal rapid transient feedback inhibition of VB recombination, likely involving transcriptional repression of RAG expression (46), providing time for the initial Tcrb gene to be transcribed and tested for making protein. If this gene is assembled out of frame, the DN thymocyte stays in the G_1 phase and can reinitiate V β recombination after cessation of ATM signaling and re-expression of RAG. In these cells, epigenetic mechanisms, and weak VB RSSs, again cooperate to ensure that only one VB segment on either allele starts recombination, triggering another round of transient feedback inhibition. Whenever an in-frame Tcrb gene is assembled, the resulting TCRB proteins signal transcriptional activation of cyclin D3 to accelerate cells into the S phase (27), prompting RAG2 proteolysis (40). As cells are first moving into the S phase, weak V β RSSs and epigenetic mechanisms, possibly including cyclin D3-mediated repression of RAG accessibility of VB segments, collaborate to decrease the opportunity for additional VB recombination. However,

if another $V\beta$ segment initiates recombination during this time interval, the resulting activation of ATM would signal posttranscriptional inactivation of cyclin D3 to inhibit cells with a broken Tcrb locus from entering the S phase, where DNA breaks are prone to generate translocations (47). Although this halting of the cell cycle would increase the chance for assembly of two in-frame Tcrb genes within the same cell, the inherent risk of bigenic TCRB protein expression before $\alpha\beta$ TCR selection of DP thymocytes likely would be less than of forming a Tcrb locus translocation during the proliferative expansion and differentiation of DN thymocytes. Finally, TCRβmediated signals that promote DN-to-DP thymocyte development activate genetic changes and epigenetic mechanisms that prevent Vβ rearrangement during Tcra gene assembly (21-23, 25). Importantly, most aspects of this model could apply to controlling Igh gene assembly during B cell development to ensure IgH allelic exclusion and suppress oncogenic Igh locus translocations.

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Disclosures

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