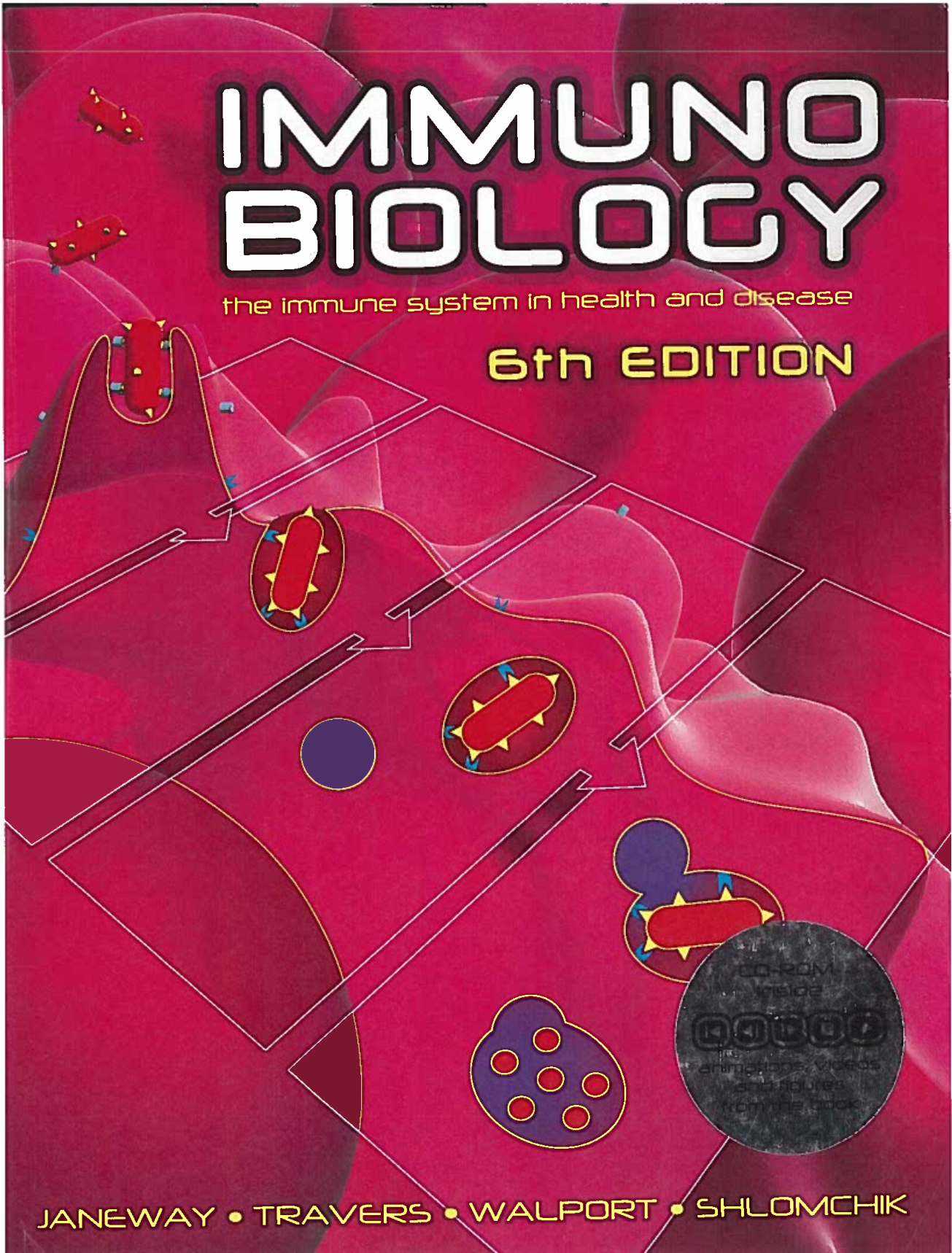


IMMUNO BIOLOGY

the immune system in health and disease

6th EDITION



JANEWAY • TRAVERS • WALPORT • SHLOMCHIK

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Antigen Recognition by B-cell and T-cell Receptors

3

We have learned in Chapter 2 that the body is defended by innate immune responses, but these only work to control pathogens that have certain molecular patterns or that induce interferons and other secreted yet nonspecific defenses. Most crucially, they do not allow memory to form because they operate through receptors that are coded in the genome. Thus, innate immunity is good for preventing pathogens from growing freely in the body, but it does not lead to the most important feature of adaptive immunity, which is long-lasting memory of a specific pathogen.

To fight the wide range of pathogens an individual will encounter, the lymphocytes of the adaptive immune system have evolved to recognize a great variety of different antigens from bacteria, viruses, and other disease-causing organisms. The antigen-recognition molecules of B cells are the **immunoglobulins**, or **Ig**. These proteins are produced by B cells in a vast range of antigen specificities, each B cell producing immunoglobulin of a single specificity (see Sections 1-8 to 1-10). Membrane-bound immunoglobulin on the B-cell surface serves as the cell's receptor for antigen, and is known as the **B-cell receptor (BCR)**. Immunoglobulin of the same antigen specificity is secreted as **antibody** by terminally differentiated B cells—the plasma cells. The secretion of antibodies, which bind pathogens or their toxic products in the extracellular spaces of the body, is the main effector function of B cells in adaptive immunity.

Antibodies were the first molecules involved in specific immune recognition to be characterized, and are still the best understood. The antibody molecule has two separate functions: one is to bind specifically to molecules from the pathogen that elicited the immune response; the other is to recruit other cells and molecules to destroy the pathogen once the antibody is bound to it. For example, binding by antibody neutralizes viruses and marks pathogens for destruction by phagocytes and complement, as described in Section 1-15. These functions are structurally separated in the antibody molecule, one part of which specifically recognizes and binds to the pathogen or antigen whereas the other engages different effector mechanisms. The antigen-binding region varies extensively between antibody molecules and is thus known as the **variable region** or **V region**. The variability of antibody molecules allows each antibody to bind a different specific antigen, and the total repertoire of antibodies made by a single individual is large enough to ensure that virtually any structure can be recognized. The region of the antibody molecule that engages the effector functions of the immune system does not vary in the same way and is thus known as the **constant region** or **C region**. It comes in five main forms, which are each specialized for activating different effector mechanisms. The membrane-bound B-cell receptor does not have these effector functions, because the C region remains inserted in the membrane of the

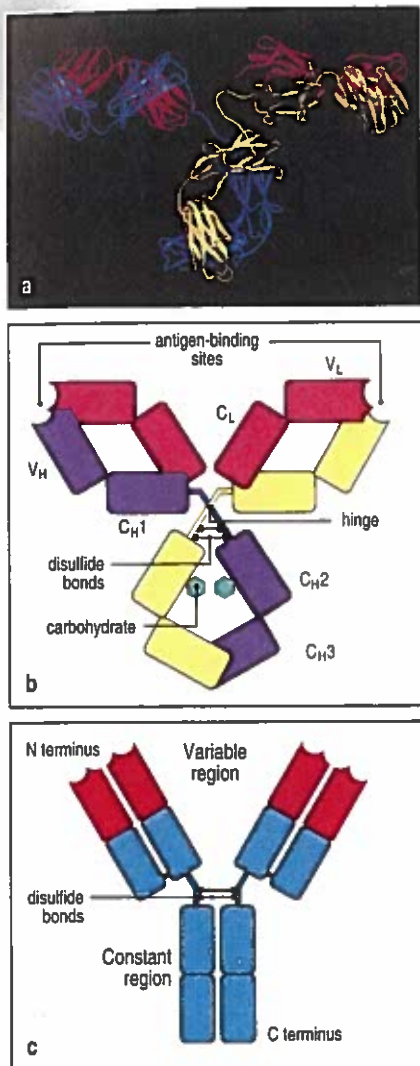


Fig. 3.1 Structure of an antibody molecule. Panel a illustrates a ribbon diagram based on the X-ray crystallographic structure of an IgG antibody, showing the course of the backbones of the polypeptide chains. Three globular regions form a Y shape. The two antigen-binding sites are at the tips of the arms, which are tethered to the trunk of the Y by a flexible hinge region. A schematic representation of the structure in a is given in panel b, illustrating the four-chain composition and the separate domains comprising each chain. Panel c shows a simplified schematic representation of an antibody molecule that will be used throughout this book. C terminus, carboxy terminus; N terminus, amino terminus. Panel a courtesy of A. McPherson and L. Harris.

B cell. Its function is as a receptor that recognizes and binds antigen by the V regions exposed on the surface of the cell, thus transmitting a signal that causes B-cell activation, leading to clonal expansion and specific antibody production.

The antigen-recognition molecules of T cells are made solely as membrane-bound proteins and function only to signal T cells for activation. These T-cell receptors (TCRs) are related to immunoglobulins both in their protein structure—having both V and C regions—and in the genetic mechanism that produces their great variability (see Section 1-11 and Chapter 4). However, the T-cell receptor differs from the B-cell receptor in an important way: it does not recognize and bind antigen directly, but instead recognizes short peptide fragments of pathogens' protein antigens, which are bound to MHC molecules on the surfaces of other cells.

The MHC molecules are glycoproteins encoded in the large cluster of genes known as the **major histocompatibility complex (MHC)** (see Sections 1-17 and 1-18). Their most striking structural feature is a cleft running across their outermost surface, in which a variety of peptides can be bound. As we shall discuss further in Chapter 5, MHC molecules show great genetic variation in the population. Most people are heterozygous for the MHC molecules: they express two allelic forms of each MHC locus, which increases the range of pathogen-derived peptides that can be bound. T-cell receptors recognize features of both the peptide antigen and the MHC molecule to which it is bound. This introduces an extra dimension to antigen recognition by T cells, known as **MHC restriction**, because any given T-cell receptor is specific not simply for a foreign peptide antigen but for a unique combination of a peptide and a particular MHC molecule. The ability of T-cell receptors to recognize MHC molecules, and their selection during T-cell development for the ability to recognize the particular MHC molecules expressed by an individual, are topics we shall return to in Chapters 5 and 7.

In this chapter we focus on the structure and antigen-binding properties of immunoglobulins and T-cell receptors. Although B cells and T cells recognize foreign molecules in two distinct fashions, the receptor molecules they use for this task are very similar in structure. We will see how this basic structure can accommodate great variability in antigen specificity, and how it enables immunoglobulins and T-cell receptors to perform their functions as the antigen-recognition molecules of the adaptive immune response.

The structure of a typical antibody molecule.

Antibodies are the secreted form of the B-cell receptor. An antibody is identical to the B-cell receptor of the cell that secretes it except for a small portion of the carboxy terminus of the heavy-chain C region. In the case of the B-cell receptor the carboxy terminus is a hydrophobic membrane-anchoring sequence, and in the case of antibody it is a hydrophilic sequence that allows secretion. As they are soluble, and secreted in large quantities, antibodies are easily obtainable and easily studied. For this reason, most of what we know about the B-cell receptor comes from the study of antibodies.

Antibody molecules are roughly Y-shaped molecules consisting of three equal-sized portions, connected by a flexible tether. Three schematic representations of antibody structure, which has been determined by X-ray crystallography, are shown in Fig. 3.1. The aim of this part of the chapter is to

explain how this structure is formed and how it allows antibody molecules to perform their dual tasks—binding on the one hand to a wide variety of antigens, and on the other hand to a limited number of effector molecules and cells. As we will see, each of these tasks is performed by separable parts of the molecule. The two arms of the Y end in regions that vary between different antibody molecules—the V regions. These are involved in antigen binding, whereas the stem of the Y, or the C region, is far less variable and is the part that interacts with effector cells and molecules.

All antibodies are constructed in the same way from paired heavy and light polypeptide chains, and the generic term immunoglobulin is used for all such proteins. Within this general category, however, five different classes of immunoglobulins—IgM, IgD, IgG, IgA, and IgE—can be distinguished by their C regions, which will be described more fully in Chapter 4. More subtle differences confined to the V region account for the specificity of antigen binding. We will use the IgG antibody molecule as an example to describe the general structural features of immunoglobulins.

3-1 IgG antibodies consist of four polypeptide chains.

IgG antibodies are large molecules with a molecular weight of approximately 150 kDa and are composed of two different kinds of polypeptide chain. One, of approximately 50 kDa, is termed the heavy or H chain, and the other, of 25 kDa, is termed the light or L chain (Fig. 3.2). Each IgG molecule consists of two heavy chains and two light chains. The two heavy chains are linked to each other by disulfide bonds and each heavy chain is linked to a light chain by a disulfide bond. In any given immunoglobulin molecule, the two heavy chains and the two light chains are identical, giving an antibody molecule two identical antigen-binding sites (see Fig. 3.1), and thus the ability to bind simultaneously to two identical structures.

Two types of light chain, termed lambda (λ) and kappa (κ), are found in antibodies. A given immunoglobulin has either κ chains or λ chains, never one of each. No functional difference has been found between antibodies having λ or κ light chains, and either type of light chain can be found in antibodies of any of the five major classes. The ratio of the two types of light chain varies from species to species. In mice, the average κ to λ ratio is 20:1, whereas in humans it is 2:1 and in cattle it is 1:20. The reason for this variation is unknown. Distortions of this ratio can sometimes be used to detect the abnormal proliferation of a clone of B cells. These would all express the identical light chain, and thus an excess of λ light chains in a person might indicate the presence of a B-cell tumor producing λ chains.

By contrast, the class, and thus the effector function, of an antibody is defined by the structure of its heavy chain. There are five main heavy-chain classes or isotypes, some of which have several subtypes, and these determine the functional activity of an antibody molecule. The five major classes of immunoglobulin are immunoglobulin M (IgM), immunoglobulin D (IgD), immunoglobulin G (IgG), immunoglobulin A (IgA), and immunoglobulin E (IgE). Their heavy chains are denoted by the corresponding lower-case Greek letter (μ , δ , γ , α , and ϵ , respectively). IgG is by far the most abundant immunoglobulin and has several subclasses (IgG1, 2, 3, and 4 in humans). Their distinctive functional properties are conferred by the carboxy-terminal part of the heavy chain, where it is not associated with the light chain. We will describe the structure and functions of the different heavy-chain isotypes in Chapter 4. The general structural features of all the isotypes are similar, and we will consider IgG, the most abundant isotype in plasma, as a typical antibody molecule.

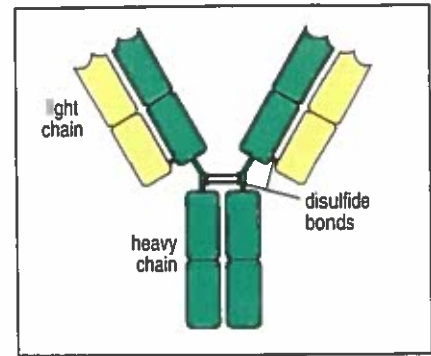


Fig. 3.2 Immunoglobulin molecules are composed of two types of protein chain: heavy chains and light chains. Each immunoglobulin molecule is made up of two heavy chains (green) and two light chains (yellow) joined by disulfide bonds so that each heavy chain is linked to a light chain and the two heavy chains are linked together.

3-2 Immunoglobulin heavy and light chains are composed of constant and variable regions.

The amino acid sequences of many immunoglobulin heavy and light chains have been determined and reveal two important features of antibody molecules. First, each chain consists of a series of similar, although not identical, sequences, each about 110 amino acids long. Each of these repeats corresponds to a discrete, compactly folded region of protein structure known as a protein domain. The light chain is made up of two such immunoglobulin domains, whereas the heavy chain of the IgG antibody contains four (see Fig. 3.1a). This suggests that the immunoglobulin chains have evolved by repeated duplication of an ancestral gene corresponding to a single domain.

The second important feature revealed by comparisons of amino acid sequences is that the amino-terminal sequences of both the heavy and light chains vary greatly between different antibodies. The variability in sequence is limited to approximately the first 110 amino acids, corresponding to the first domain, whereas the remaining domains are constant between immunoglobulin chains of the same isotype. The amino-terminal variable domains (V domains) of the heavy and light chains (V_H and V_L , respectively) together make up the V region of the antibody and confer on it the ability to bind specific antigen, whereas the constant domains (C domains) of the heavy and light chains (C_H and C_L , respectively) make up the C region (see Fig. 3.1b, c). The multiple heavy-chain C domains are numbered from the amino-terminal end to the carboxy terminus, for example C_{H1} , C_{H2} , and so on.

3-3 The antibody molecule can readily be cleaved into functionally distinct fragments.

The protein domains described above associate to form larger globular domains. Thus, when fully folded and assembled, an antibody molecule comprises three equal-sized globular portions joined by a flexible stretch of polypeptide chain known as the hinge region (see Fig. 3.1b). Each arm of this Y-shaped structure is formed by the association of a light chain with the amino-terminal half of a heavy chain, whereas the trunk of the Y is formed by the pairing of the carboxy-terminal halves of the two heavy chains. The association of the heavy and light chains is such that the V_H and V_L domains are paired, as are the C_{H1} and C_L domains. The C_{H3} domains pair with each other but the C_{H2} domains do not interact; carbohydrate side chains attached to the C_{H2} domains lie between the two heavy chains. The two antigen-binding sites are formed by the paired V_H and V_L domains at the ends of the two arms of the Y (see Fig. 3.1b).

Proteolytic enzymes (proteases) that cleave polypeptide sequences have been used to dissect the structure of antibody molecules and to determine which parts of the molecule are responsible for its various functions. Limited digestion with the protease papain cleaves antibody molecules into three fragments (Fig. 3.3). Two fragments are identical and contain the antigen-binding activity. These are termed the Fab fragments, for Fragment antigen binding. The Fab fragments correspond to the two identical arms of the antibody molecule, each of which consists of a complete light chain paired with the V_H and C_{H1} domains of a heavy chain. The other fragment contains no antigen-binding activity but was originally observed to crystallize readily, and for this reason was named the Fc fragment, for Fragment crystallizable. This fragment corresponds to the paired C_{H2} and C_{H3} domains and is the part of the antibody molecule that interacts with effector molecules and cells. The functional differences between heavy-chain isotypes lie mainly in the Fc fragment.

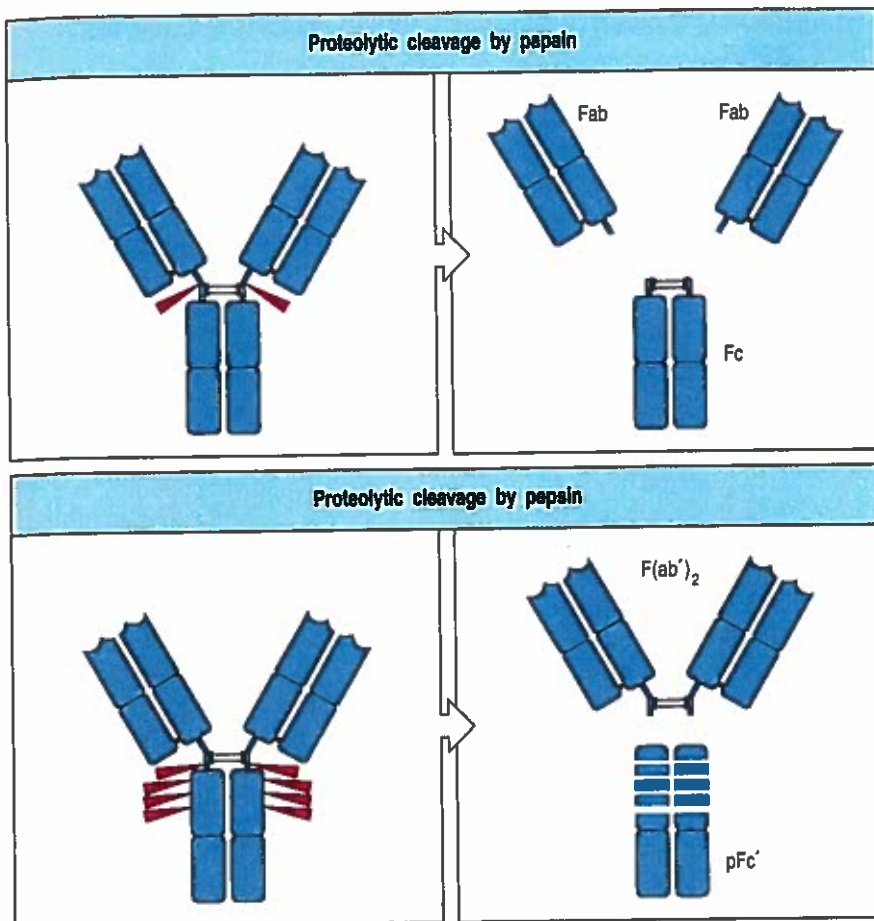


Fig. 3.3 The Y-shaped immunoglobulin molecule can be dissected by partial digestion with proteases. Upper panels: papain cleaves the immunoglobulin molecule into three pieces, two Fab fragments and one Fc fragment. The Fab fragment contains the V regions and binds antigen. The Fc fragment is crystallizable and contains C regions. Lower panels: pepsin cleaves immunoglobulin to yield one F(ab')₂ fragment and many small pieces of the Fc fragment, the largest of which is called the pFc' fragment. F(ab')₂ is written with a prime because it contains a few more amino acids than Fab, including the cysteines that form the disulfide bonds.

The protein fragments obtained after proteolysis are determined by where the protease cuts the antibody molecule in relation to the disulfide bonds that link the two heavy chains. These lie in the hinge region between the C_H1 and C_H2 domains and, as illustrated in Fig. 3.3, papain cleaves the antibody molecule on the amino-terminal side of the disulfide bonds. This releases the two arms of the antibody as separate Fab fragments, whereas in the Fc fragment the carboxy-terminal halves of the heavy chains remain linked.

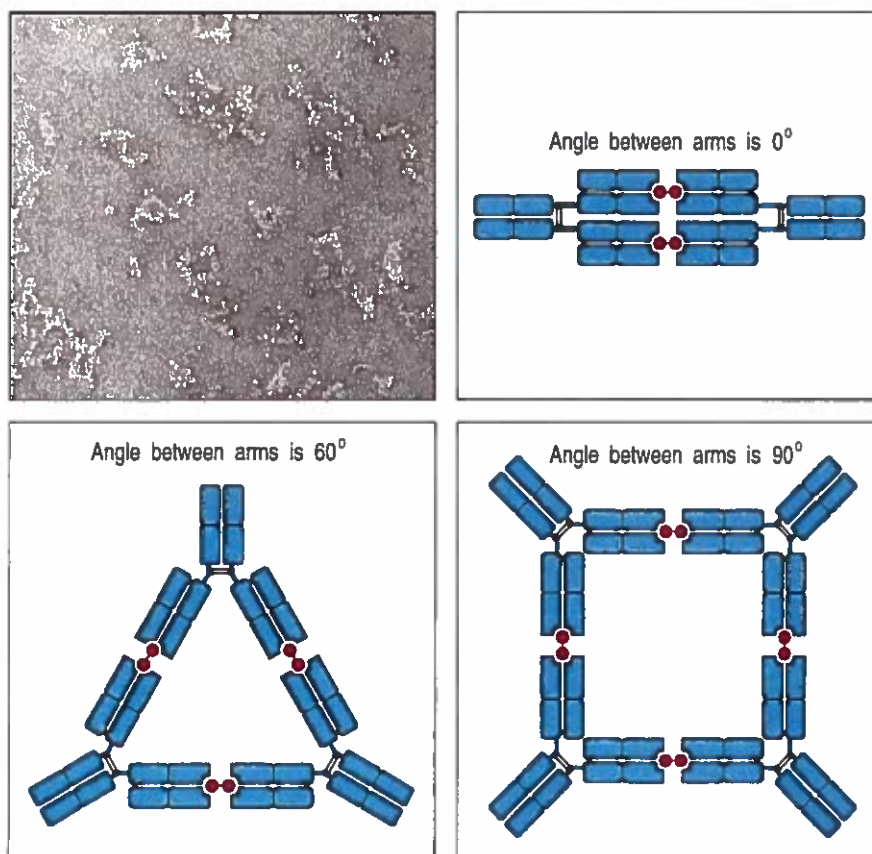
Another protease, pepsin, cuts in the same general region of the antibody molecule as papain but on the carboxy-terminal side of the disulfide bonds (see Fig. 3.3). This produces a fragment, the F(ab')₂ fragment, in which the two antigen-binding arms of the antibody molecule remain linked. In this case the remaining part of the heavy chain is cut into several small fragments. The F(ab')₂ fragment has exactly the same antigen-binding characteristics as the original antibody but is unable to interact with any effector molecule. It is thus of potential value in therapeutic applications of antibodies as well as in research into the functional role of the Fc portion.

Genetic engineering techniques also now permit the construction of many different antibody-related molecules. One important type is a truncated Fab comprising only the V domain of a heavy chain linked by a stretch of synthetic peptide to a V domain of a light chain. This is called **single-chain Fv**, named from **Fragment variable**. Fv molecules may become valuable therapeutic agents because of their small size, which allows them to penetrate tissues readily. They can be coupled to protein toxins to yield immunotoxins with potential application, for example, in tumor therapy in the case of a Fv specific for a tumor antigen (see Chapter 14).

3-4 The immunoglobulin molecule is flexible, especially at the hinge region.

The hinge region that links the Fc and Fab portions of the antibody molecule is in reality a flexible tether, allowing independent movement of the two Fab arms, rather than a rigid hinge. This has been demonstrated by electron microscopy of antibodies bound to haptens. These are small molecules of various sorts, typically about the size of a tyrosine side chain. They can be recognized by antibody but are able to stimulate the production of anti-hapten antibodies only when linked to a larger protein carrier (see Appendix I, Section A-1). An antigen made of two identical hapten molecules joined by a short flexible region can link two or more anti-hapten antibodies, forming dimers, trimers, tetramers, and so on, which can be seen by electron microscopy (Fig. 3.4). The shapes formed by these complexes demonstrate that antibody molecules are flexible at the hinge region. Some flexibility is also found at the junction between the V and C domains, allowing bending and rotation of the V domain relative to the C domain. For example, in the antibody molecule shown in Fig. 3.1a, not only are the two hinge regions clearly bent differently, but the angle between the V and C domains in each of the two Fab arms is also different. This range of motion has led to the junction between the V and C domains being referred to as a 'molecular ball-and-socket joint.' Flexibility at both the hinge and the V-C junction enables the binding of both arms of an antibody molecule to sites that are various distances apart, for example, sites on bacterial cell-wall polysaccharides. Flexibility at the hinge also enables the antibodies to interact with the antibody-binding proteins that mediate immune effector mechanisms.

Fig. 3.4 Antibody arms are joined by a flexible hinge. An antigen consisting of two hapten molecules (red balls in diagrams) that can cross-link two antigen-binding sites is used to create antigen:antibody complexes, which can be seen in the electron micrograph. Linear, triangular, and square forms are seen, with short projections or spikes. Limited pepsin digestion removes these spikes (not shown in the figure), which therefore correspond to the Fc portion of the antibody; the $F(ab')_2$ pieces remain cross-linked by antigen. The interpretation of the complexes is shown in the diagrams. The angle between the arms of the antibody molecules varies, from 0° in the antibody dimers, through 60° in the triangular forms, to 90° in the square forms, showing that the connections between the arms are flexible. Photograph ($\times 300,000$) courtesy of N.M. Green.



3-5 The domains of an immunoglobulin molecule have similar structures.

As we saw in Section 3-2, immunoglobulin heavy and light chains are composed of a series of discrete protein domains, all of which have a similar folded structure. Within this basic three-dimensional structure there are distinct differences between V and C domains. The structural similarities and differences can be seen in the diagram of a light chain in Fig. 3.5. Each domain is constructed from two β sheets, which are elements of protein structure made up of strands of the polypeptide chain (β strands) packed together; the sheets are linked by a disulfide bridge and together form a roughly barrel-shaped structure, known as a β barrel. The distinctive folded structure of the immunoglobulin protein domain is known as the **immunoglobulin fold**.

Both the essential similarity of V and C domains and the critical difference between them are most clearly seen in the bottom panels of Fig. 3.5, where the cylindrical domains are opened out to reveal how the polypeptide chain folds to create each of the β sheets and how it forms flexible loops as it changes direction. The main difference between the V and C domains is that the V domain is larger, with an extra loop. We will see in Section 3-6 that the flexible loops of the V domains form the antigen-binding site of the immunoglobulin molecule.

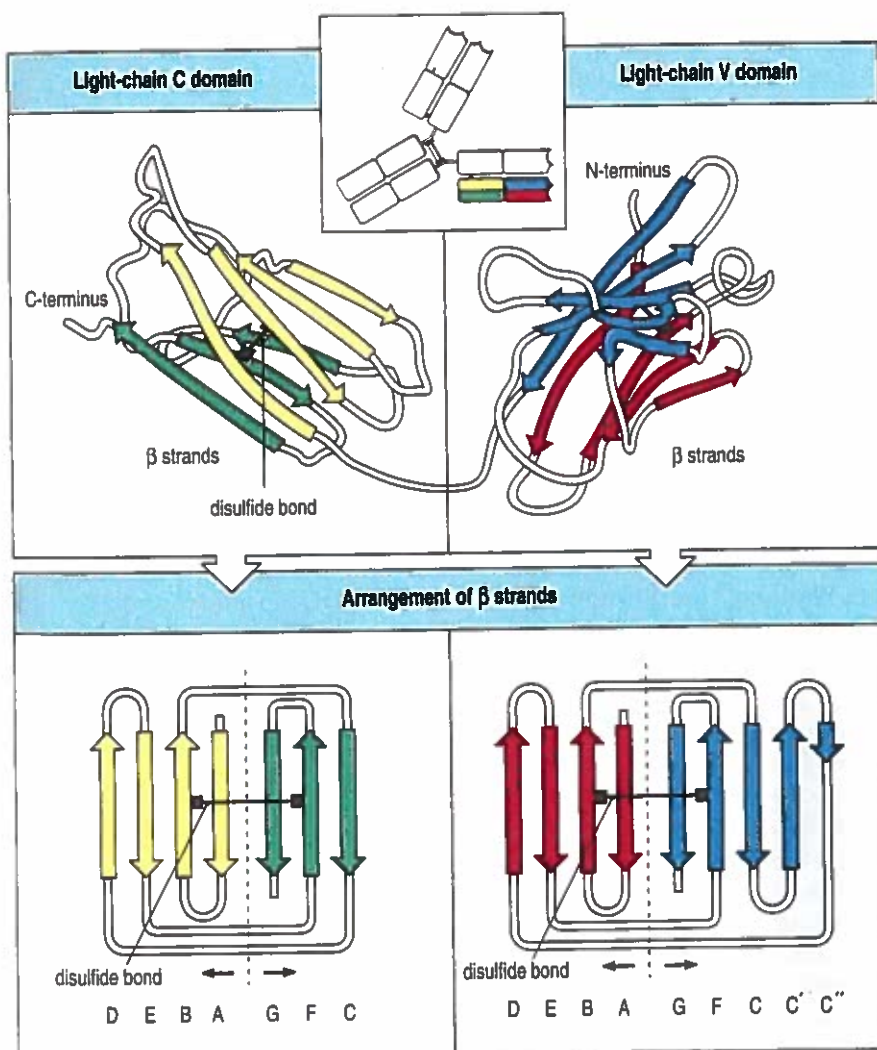


Fig. 3.5 The structure of immunoglobulin constant and variable domains. The upper panels show schematically the folding pattern of the constant (C) and variable (V) domains of an immunoglobulin light chain. Each domain is a barrel-shaped structure in which strands of polypeptide chain (β strands) running in opposite directions (antiparallel) pack together to form two β sheets (shown in yellow and green in the diagram of the C domain), which are held together by a disulfide bond. The way the polypeptide chain folds to give the final structure can be seen more clearly when the sheets are opened out, as shown in the lower panels. The β strands are lettered sequentially with respect to the order of their occurrence in the amino acid sequence of the domains; the order in each β sheet is characteristic of immunoglobulin domains. The β strands C' and C'' that are found in the V domains but not in the C domains are indicated by a blue shaded background. The characteristic four-strand plus three-strand (C-region type domain) or four-strand plus five-strand (V-region type domain) arrangements are typical immunoglobulin superfamily domain building blocks, found in a whole range of other proteins as well as antibodies and T-cell receptors.

Many of the amino acids that are common to C and V domains of immunoglobulin chains lie in the core of the immunoglobulin fold and are essential for its stability. For that reason, other proteins having sequences similar to those of immunoglobulins are believed to form domains of similar structure, and in many cases this has been demonstrated by crystallography. These **immunoglobulin-like domains** are present in many other proteins of the immune system, and in proteins involved in cell–cell recognition in the nervous system and other tissues. Together with the immunoglobulins and the T-cell receptors, they make up the extensive **immunoglobulin superfamily**.

Summary.

The IgG antibody molecule is made up of four polypeptide chains, comprising two identical light chains and two identical heavy chains, and can be thought of as forming a flexible Y-shaped structure. Each of the four chains has a variable (V) region at its amino terminus, which contributes to the antigen-binding site, and a constant (C) region, which determines the isotype. The isotype of the heavy chain determines the functional properties of the antibody. The light chains are bound to the heavy chains by many noncovalent interactions and by disulfide bonds, and the V regions of the heavy and light chains pair in each arm of the Y to generate two identical antigen-binding sites, which lie at the tips of the arms of the Y. The possession of two antigen-binding sites allows antibody molecules to cross-link antigens and to bind them much more stably. The trunk of the Y, called the Fc fragment, is composed of the carboxy-terminal domains of the heavy chains. Joining the arms of the Y to the trunk are the flexible hinge regions. The Fc fragment and hinge regions differ in antibodies of different isotypes, thus determining their functional properties. However, the overall organization of the domains is similar in all isotypes.

The interaction of the antibody molecule with specific antigen.

We have described the structure of the antibody molecule and how the V regions of the heavy and light chains fold and pair to form the antigen-binding site. In this part of the chapter we look at the antigen-binding site in more detail. We discuss the different ways in which antigens can bind to antibody and address the question of how variation in the sequences of the antibody V domains determines the specificity for antigen.

3-6 Localized regions of hypervariable sequence form the antigen-binding site.

The V regions of any given antibody molecule differ from those of every other. Sequence variability is not, however, distributed evenly throughout the V region but is concentrated in certain segments. The distribution of variable amino acids can be seen clearly in what is termed a **variability plot** (Fig. 3.6), in which the amino acid sequences of many different antibody V regions are compared. Three particularly variable segments can be identified in both the V_H and V_L domains. They are designated **hypervariable regions** and are denoted HV1, HV2, and HV3. In the heavy chains these are