nels, in a manner analogous to those in CNG channels, will be responsible for their proton sensitivity.

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- 13. Microscopic reversibility would require that  $\alpha\beta'K_{aB}$  $\alpha'\beta$ . The rate constant magnitudes indicate that the system is out of equilibrium because of a "thermodynamic force" of about 1  $k_{\rm B}T$ , where  $k_{\rm B}$  is the Boltzmann constant and T is absolute temperature. The observation is explicable because the membrane is held at -80mV, and some protons exit to the inside. We discuss the results as if the system is at equilibrium, because our conclusions about the channel do not depend on the equilibrium condition. There is a twofold discrepancy between the  $K_{\rm a}$  determined from the amplitude histogram analysis and that determined from the kinetic rate constants. We attribute this discrepancy to different systematic errors in the two measurements
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- 21. The DNA construct for the olfactory CNG channel in the high-expression pGemHE vector was kindly provided by E. Goulding and S. Siegelbaum of Columbia University (7). RNA was synthesized from Sph 1-lin-

earized DNA (New England Biolabs) with T7 polymerase (Promega). Xenopus oocytes (Xenopus One, Ann Arbor, MI) were prepared and injected with RNA as previously described [R. MacKinnon, P. H. Reinhart, M. M. White, Neuron 1, 997 (1988)]. Insideout patches were obtained with glass electrodes (Drummond, Broomall, PA) coated with either beeswax or Sylgard and firepolished to a resistance of 1 to 5 megohm. Single-channel currents were recorded with an Axopatch 200 (Axon Instruments) amplifier. The output of the amplifier was filtered at 1 or 2 kHz (3 dB corner frequency, 4-pole Bessel) and sampled (Indec Systems, Model IDA12120) at a frequency 7.15 times greater than the filter frequency.

- 22. For most electrophysiological experiments, both internal (bath) and external (pipette) solutions contained 130 mM NaCl, 3 mM Hepes, and 0.5 mM Na<sub>2</sub>EDTA dissolved in either H<sub>2</sub>O or <sup>2</sup>H<sub>2</sub>O (99.9% atom D). To activate the channels, 1 mM Na · cvclic guanosine 3'.5' monophosphate (Sigma) was added to the internal solution. The internal and external solutions were titrated to the indicated pH with NaOH or HCl. For <sup>2</sup>H<sub>2</sub>O solutions, the fraction of contaminating hydrogens from Hepes, NaOH, and HCI did not exceed 0.05% of the total hydrogen and deuterium. The solution pH was measured with an Orion pH meter (Model 720) with a Corning electrode (no. 476540) that was routinely calibrated with pH 4, pH 7, and pH 10 H<sub>2</sub>O buffers.
- 23. Our ability to measure the calculated protonation and deprotonation rates was tested by computer simulation of the open state of a single olfactory channel. Assuming scheme 6 with time constants comparable to measured values, a current template with Gaussian noise was generated, digitally filtered, and sampled. and then run through the same analysis programs. The simulation results showed that the time resolution of the recording system was sufficient to give the values of the rates reported here. Missed events and noise do cause minor deviations in the simulated rates: these deviations are qualitatively similar to deviations of the real data from the theoretical curves in Fig. 3, C through E.
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# **RPS2** of Arabidopsis thaliana: A Leucine-Rich **Repeat Class of Plant Disease Resistance Genes**

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Plant disease resistance genes function in highly specific pathogen recognition pathways. RPS2 is a resistance gene of Arabidopsis thaliana that confers resistance against Pseudomonas syringae bacteria that express avirulence gene avrRpt2. RPS2 was isolated by the use of a positional cloning strategy. The derived amino acid sequence of RPS2 contains leucine-rich repeat, membrane-spanning, leucine zipper, and P loop domains. The function of the RPS2 gene product in defense signal transduction is postulated to involve nucleotide triphosphate binding and protein-protein interactions and may also involve the reception of an elicitor produced by the avirulent pathogen.

Disease resistance genes control recognition of invading pathogens and subsequent activation of defense responses (1, 2). Individual resistance genes are highly specific in function, being effective only against particular strains of a viral, bacterial, fungal, or nematode pathogen. For more than 80 years, crop breeding programs have used disease resistance genes because of their

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effectiveness in preventing disease and their ease of handling as single Mendelian loci. However, the molecular basis for resistance gene function is only starting to be elucidated.

Many plant pathogens produce specific elicitor compounds that are recognized by resistant plants, thereby triggering active defense responses that curtail pathogen growth (1-3). The pathogen genes that control production of these elicitors are known as avirulence genes, and the activity of a plant resistance gene is dependent on the presence of the specific, corresponding avirulence gene in the pathogen. Defense responses observed in infected tissue include production of antimicrobial compounds and cell wall-reinforcing proteins and a localized cell death response known as the hypersensitive response (4). The physiological mechanism by which these processes are activated is not clear, al-

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though a number of studies indicate that activated oxygen production, the gating of ion channels, and protein phosphorylation may be involved (5). Plant resistance genes have been postulated to encode receptors for the elicitors produced by avirulent pathogens (1, 3), but to date no such receptors have been identified.

Two resistance genes have been characterized at the molecular level. Hm1 from maize was isolated by the use of a transposon tagging strategy (6). This gene encodes a reductase that confers resistance against specific strains of the fungal pathogen Cochliobolus carbonum by degrading the fungal HC toxin, a resistance strategy that is mechanistically distinct from avirulence gene-dependent resistance. The Pto gene from tomato, which confers resistance against Pseudomonas syringae pv. tomato bacteria that express the avrPto avirulence gene, was recently isolated by positional cloning (7). The predicted Pto gene product resembles a serine-threonine protein kinase, which suggests (at least for this particular plant-pathogen interaction) that specific protein kinases play a critical role in the induction of host defenses. The cloning of additional resistance genes should greatly facilitate efforts both to understand the molecular basis of resistance and to use biotechnological strategies to improve field crop resistance (1, 2).

The RPS2 resistance gene of Arabidopsis

Fig. 1. Genetic and physical map of the Arabidopsis genomic region containing RPS2, showing location of expressed sequences and rps2complementing plasmids. (A) RFLP analysis of a population segregating for RPS2 and rps2-201 localized RPS2 to the region bounded by markers 4-11 $\Delta$ E and 7-30 $\Delta$ E. Identification of a set of YAC clones and cosmid clones spanning this region allowed high-resolution RFLP analvsis and subsequent subcloning of RPS2 region DNA (12, 38). (B) Five expressed sequences encoded by the region denoted with brackets in (A) were identified (13). The location of the genomic region corresponding to each cDNA clone is indicated by thick bars: arrowheads indicate the direction of transcription for cDNA 4 and cDNA 6. Vertical marks denote the Eco RI recognition sites of this genomic region. Genetic transformation of an Arabidopsis Col-0 rps2-201/rps2-201 mutant line with genomic DNAs carried in the pD series binary cosmids (16) produced plants with the avrRpt2specific disease resistance phenotype indicated (R, resistant; S, susceptible). Transformation with the cosmid subclones pAD431 and p4104 (20, 21) indicated that cDNA 4 corresponds to RPS2

thaliana confers resistance against P. syringae pv. tomato strains that express avirulence gene avrRpt2 (8, 9). Resistance against P. syringae pathogens expressing avrRpt2 exists not only in Arabidopsis, but also in plant species such as soybean and bean (10, 11). Prior genetic mapping had placed RPS2 in the interval between restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP) markers  $\lambda$ At600 and  $\lambda$ At557 on Arabidopsis chromosome four, approximately 0.5 centimorgan (cM) from  $\lambda$ At600 (8, 9). To proceed with map-based isolation of the RPS2 gene, we used  $\lambda$ At600 as a hybridization probe to identify sets of yeast artificial chromosome (YAC) and cosmid clones that carry contiguous, overlapping inserts of Arabidopsis ecotype Col-0 genomic DNA (Fig. 1A) (12). Tightly linked RFLP markers generated from ends of insert DNA from the YAC and cosmid clones (Fig. 1A) were then used to localize RPS2 to a 0.3-cM interval that corresponds to a region of approximately 200 kb (Fig. 1A).

To identify expressed sequences from the RPS2 region, we used the cosmid clones 4-6, 4-4, and 7-26 (Fig. 1A) to probe an *Arabidopsis* complementary DNA (cDNA) library (13). Eight different classes of cDNAs were isolated. The inferred gene location for five of these cDNAs is shown in Fig. 1B; three additional cDNAs mapped



just outside this region. These eight cDNAs were used to screen for altered transcript production in rps2 mutants in an effort to determine correspondence between one of the cDNAs and RPS2 (14). However, no alterations were detected (15).

Further efforts to identify RPS2 used functional complementation of Arabidopsis Col-0 rps2-201/rps2-201 plants. An additional set of overlapping clones from the RPS2 region was constructed with a cosmid vector suitable for Agrobacterium-mediated transformation (16). Three separate transformation methods were used (17-19), including a modified vacuum infiltration procedure that greatly expedited these efforts (20). RPS2 activity was initially observed in Col-0 rps2-201/rps2-201 plants transformed with the 18-kb genomic region carried on cosmid pD4 (Fig. 1B). These plants displayed a strong hypersensitive resistance response (HR) when inoculated with P. syringae expressing avrRpt2 but did not develop an HR after inoculation with strains not carrying avrRpt2. Disease resistance assays and DNA blots performed on the self-progeny of one pD4 transformant confirmed cosegregation between the resistant phenotype and the introduced DNA (15). Col-0 rps2-201/rps2-201 plants carrying the wildtype genomic region from cosmid pD4 did not display disease symptoms (Fig. 2). Growth of P. syringae expressing avrRpt2 was restricted in the leaf tissue of Col-0



Fig. 2. Complementation of the Arabidopsis Col-0 rps2-201/rps2-201 disease-susceptible phenotype with the cloned RPS2 locus. Arabidopsis leaves were inoculated with P. syringae pv. tomato strain DC3000 (left column, DC3000 containing plasmid pVSP61 with no insert) or with the same strain expressing avrRpt2 (right column, avrRpt2 on plasmid pV288) (8). Inoculation was by dipping in bacteria resuspended at an optical density at 600 nm of 0.3 in 10 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub> with 0.02% Silwet L-77 (10). Top: ecotype Col-0 (RPS2/RPS2); middle: Col-0 rps2-201/rps2-201; bottom: T<sub>3</sub> individuals from a Col-0 rps2-201/ rps2-201 plant transformed with RPS2 carried on pD4 (this T<sub>3</sub> family was derived from a T<sub>2</sub> individual plant homozygous for the kanamycin resistance marker adjacent to RPS2 on pD4).

rps2-201/rps2-201 plants carrying this introduced DNA ( $T_3$ -146 of Fig. 3). The resistant phenotype resembled wild-type Col-0. Resistance was dependent on the presence of *avrRpt2* in the pathogen, because all plants used were susceptible to infection by *P. syringae* strains lacking *avrRpt2* (Fig. 2) (15). These results indicate that *RPS2* is encoded within the 18-kb *Arabidopsis* genomic region carried on cosmid pD4.

The insert in cosmid pD4 is derived from a region of the genome with a high density of expressed sequences (five in 21 kb) (Fig. 1B). To identify RPS2, we used a set of binary cosmids that contain partially overlapping inserts from this region in additional transformation experiments (Fig. 1B) (20). The resistance phenotypes of these transformants (Fig. 1B) suggested that RPS2 activity was contained within cDNA 4 (21). Plants homozygous for other susceptible alleles of RPS2 (rps2-101N, rps2-101C, rbs2-301, and ecotype Wü-0) (8, 9), when transformed with p4104, also displayed resistance against P. syringae expressing avr-Rpt2 (15). The gene corresponding to cDNA 4 was therefore designated RPS2.

The DNA sequence of RPS2 was determined for both cDNA 4 and the corresponding genomic region from wild-type Col-0 (22). No introns were detected. The



Fig. 3. Growth of P. syringae pv. tomato strain DC3000 (avrRpt2) within an Arabidopsis rps2 mutant complemented with the cloned RPS2 gene. "T3" plant lines were established by selfing the progeny of a single Col-0 rps2-201/rps2-201 transformant heterozygous for RPS2 introduced with pD4 (Fig. 1B).  $T_3$ -146 plants are from a plant homozygous for the pD4 kanamycin resistance (Km<sup>R</sup>) marker (presumably homozygous for the introduced RPS2), whereas control plants (T<sub>3</sub>-104) are from a kanamycin-susceptible seqregant (Km<sup>s</sup>). "Wild-type" are Arabidopsis Col-0. Plants were inoculated by vacuum infiltration, and bacterial growth in leaves was monitored as described (10), except that NYGA (45) was used instead of King's B medium. Similar results were obtained in two independent experiments. Sample means and standard errors are depicted for one of these experiments.

RPS2 sequence predicts a 909-amino acid, 105-kD gene product (Fig. 4). Support for designation of this open reading frame as RPS2 came both from the complementation experiments-discussed above and from sequence analysis of the mutant allele rps2-201. The rps2-201 sequence deviates from that of wild-type RPS2 by a single-nucleotide change that converts Thr<sup>668</sup> of this open reading frame to Pro. No other open reading frames are present at the site of the rps2-201 mutation. Additional evidence supporting designation of this gene as RPS2 has been obtained by DNA sequence analysis of mutant alleles rps2-101C, rps2-102C, and rps2-101N (23): No additional sequences with strong similarity to RPS2 were observed when blots of genomic DNA from Arabidopsis, bean, soybean, tomato, green pepper, tobacco, rice, barley, and maize were probed with a 2.8-kb probe encompassing the RPS2 open reading frame (22).

Analysis of the derived amino acid sequence for RPS2 revealed several regions with similarity to known polypeptide motifs (24). Most prominent among these is a region of leucine-rich repeats (LRRs) (25). The LRR motif has been implicated in protein-protein interactions and ligand binding in a diverse array of proteins (25-29). LRRs, for example, form the hormonebinding sites of mammalian gonadotropin hormone receptors (28) and a domain of yeast adenylate cyclase that interacts with the RAS2 protein (26). In RPS2, the LRR domain spans amino acids 503 to 809 and contains 13 repeat units of 22 to 26 amino acids in length; a portion of each repeat resembles the consensus (I/L/V)XXLXX-LXX(I/L)XL (30). Six sequences matching the N-glycosylation consensus [NX(S/T)] (31) were observed in RPS2, and five of these are within the LRR region (Fig. 4). The single-nucleotide difference between functional RPS2 and mutant allele rps2-201 is within the LRR coding region, and this mutation disrupts one of the potential glycosylation sites.

The deduced amino acid sequence for RPS2 carries a second potential proteinprotein interaction domain, a leucine zipper (32), at amino acids 30 to 57. This region contains four contiguous heptad repeats that match the consensus sequence (I/R)X-DLXXX (30). Leucine zippers facilitate the dimerization of transcription factors by formation of a coiled-coil structure, but no sequences suggestive of an adjacent DNA binding domain (such as a strongly basic region or a potential zinc finger) were detected in RPS2. Coiled-coil regions also promote specific interactions between proteins that are not transcription factors (33), and computer database similarity searches with the region spanning amino acids 30 to 57 of RPS2 revealed the greatest similarity to the coiled-coil regions of numerous myosin and paramyosin proteins.

The sequence GPGGVGKT (30) at deduced amino acids 182 to 189 of RPS2 precisely matches the generalized consensus for the phosphate-binding loop (P loop) of numerous adenosine triphosphate (ATP)– and guanosine triphosphate (GTP)–binding proteins (34). The postulated RPS2 nucleotide binding site is similar to those found in RAS proteins and ATP synthase  $\beta$ subunits (34), but surprisingly is most similar to the published P loop of the *chvD* gene from plant-colonizing *Agrobacterium* (35). The presence of this P loop sequence strongly suggests nucleotide triphosphate binding as one aspect of RPS2 function.

A potential membrane-spanning domain is located at amino acids 340 to 360 of the RPS2 gene product, which raises the possibility of membrane localization with the  $NH_2$ -terminal leucine zipper and P loop domains residing together on the opposite side of the membrane from the LRR region. An orientation in which the COOH-terminal LRR domain is extracellular is suggested

Leucine zipper 60 MDFISSLIVG CAQVLCESMN MAERRGHKTD LRQAITDLET AIGDLKAIRD DLTLRIQQDG 120 LEGRSCSNRA REWLSAVQVT ETKTALLLVR FRRREQRTRM RRRYLSCFGC ADYKLCKKVS 180 AILKSIGELR ERSEAIKTDG GSIQVTCREI PIKSVVGNTT MMEQVLEFLS EEEERGIIGV YGPGGVGKTT LMQSINNELI TKGHQYDVLI WVQMSREFGE CTIQQAVGAR LGLSWDEKET GENRALKIYR ALROKRFLLL LDDVWEEIDL EKTGVPRPDR ENKCKVMFTT RSIALCNN Membrane-spanning 360 AEYKLRVEFL EKKHAWELFC SKVWRKDLLE SSSIRRLAEI IVSKCGGLPL ALITLGGAMA HRETEEEWIH ASEVLTRFPA EMKGMNYVFA LLKFSYDNLE SDLLRSCFLY CALFPEEHSI 44 EIEQLVEYWV GEGFLTSSHG VNTIYKGYFL IGDLKAACLL ETGDEKTQVK MHNVVRS AT. MASEQGTYK ELILVEPSMG HTEAPKAENW RQALVISLLD NRIQTLPEKL ICPKITIML ← Laucine-rich repeats → 600 QONSSLKKIP TGFFMHMPVL RVLDLSFTSI TEIPLSIKYL VELYHLSMSG TKISVLPQEL 660 GNLRKLKHLD LQRTQFLQTI PRDAICWLSK LEVLNLYYSY AGWELQSFGE DEAEELGFAD • \* 720 LEYLENLTTL GITVLSLETL KTLFEFGALH KHIQHLHVEE CNELLYFNLP SLTNHGRNLR RLSIKSCHDL EYLVTPADFE NDWLPSLEVL TLHSLHNLTR VWGNSVSQDC LRNIRCINIS
 (end leucine-rich repeats) HCNKLKNVSW VQKLPKLEVI ELFDCREIEE LISEHESPSV EDPTLFPSLK TLRTRDL NSILPSRFSF QKVETLVITN CPRVKKLPFQ ERRTQMNLPT VYCEEKWWKA LEKDQPNEEL 909 CYLPRFVPN\*

**Fig. 4.** Derived amino acid sequence of *RPS2* (30). Regions with similarity to previously defined functional domains are indicated with a line over the relevant amino acids. Potential N-glycosylation sequences are marked with a dot, and the location of the *rps2-201* Thr to Pro mutation at amino acid 668 is marked with an asterisk.

by the fact that five of six potential Nlinked glycosylation sites occur COOH-terminal to the proposed membrane-spanning domain and by the overall more positive charge of the NH<sub>2</sub>-terminal amino acid residues (31, 36). A number of proteins that contain LRRs are postulated or known to be membrane-spanning receptors in which the LRRs are displayed extracellularly as a ligand-binding domain (27-29).

The plant kingdom contains hundreds of resistance genes that are necessarily divergent because they control different resistance specificities. However, plant defense responses such as production of activated oxygen species, pathogen-response (PR) protein gene expression, and the hypersensitive response are common to diverse plant-pathogen interactions (4). This implies that there are points of convergence in the defense signal transduction pathways downstream of initial pathogen recognition and suggests that similar functional motifs will exist among diverse resistance gene products. In support of this hypothesis, RPS2 has been found to share regions of similarity (including the P loop and leucine-rich repeats) with the recently cloned N gene of tobacco (37). RPS2 and N represent a new class of disease resistance genes, as they are not similar to the previously described Hm1 or Pto genes (6, 7). It is particularly intriguing to note that whereas RPS2 confers resistance against bacterial pathogens, N encodes resistance against isolates of tobacco mosaic virus (3, 37).

Although the molecular function of RPS2 in defense signal transduction remains to be elucidated, the RPS2 sequence predicts a number of testable models. Pathogen avirulence genes have been shown to control the production of resistance gene-specific elicitors of plant defense responses, and resistance genes have long been postulated to encode the receptors for these elicitors (1, 2). Given that LRRs form the extracellular ligand-binding domain of proteins such as the gonadotropin hormone receptors (28), the presence of LRRs and a possible transmembrane domain suggest that the RPS2 gene product may be the receptor of the avrRpt2-controlled elicitor. Alternatively, the LRR of RPS2 may function as an intracellular domain that mediates protein-protein interaction in a downstream step of the signal transduction pathway, as is the case for yeast adenylate cyclase (26). The presence of a P loop suggests testing of the RPS2 gene product for nucleotide triphosphate binding activity. Given that leucine zipper and LRR regions are present in the RPS2 sequence, it is highly probable that protein-protein interactions are a key component of RPS2

function. Experiments that examine these models are anticipated to be informative not only regarding RPS2 function, but more generally regarding the molecular nature of plant defense signal transduction.

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- 12. YAC clones with overlapping insert DNA were isolated from three separate YAC libraries of Arabidopsis ecotype Col-0 genomic DNA (38, 39). The contig was extended in both directions from RFLP marker At600 and spans approximately 900 kb in the RPS2 region. Cosmids 4-4, 4-6, 4-11, 7-26, and 7-30 were derived from YACs EW11E4 and EW3H7, which carry Arabidopsis ecotype Col-0 genomic DNA (40). Genetic mapping used segregating populations from crosses between RPS2/ RPS2 (No-0 ecotype) and rps2-201/rps2-201 (Col-0 background) plants. For high-resolution mapping, prescreens for recombinant chromosomes were carried out by genotyping a population of at least 413 individuals [including 294 from (8)] with the use of markers 17B7LE or RN23 (8) and markers PG11 (41) or  $\lambda$ At600 (42). For F<sub>2</sub> plants carrying recombinant chromosomes, the *RPS2* genotype was then determined by scoring F<sub>3</sub> families for disease resistance against P. syringae strains expressing avrRpt2 (8). DNA blot analysis revealed that the closest recombination breakpoints flanking RPS2 included two independent crossovers between markers 4-11 $\Delta$ E and 4-6 $\Delta$ E and one crossover between markers 7-30∆E and 17B7RE (Fig. 1A)
- 13. To allow identification of pathogen-induced as well as constitutive messages, we isolated cDNA clones from a library made with polyadenylated RNA from Arabidopsis Col-0 leaf tissue harvested 2.5 to 3.5 hours after inoculation with *P. syringae* pv. tomato strain DC3000 expressing *avrRpt2*. *RPS2* region cDNA clones were grouped into eight separate classes with restriction enzyme fingerprinting, and we identified the genomic Eco RI restriction fragments with homology to each cDNA class by probing blots of restricted cosmid DNA (Fig. 1A) with the largest cDNA clone from each class. The genes corresponding to cDNAs 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 were judged to be single-copy on the basis of blots of restricted Arabidopsis genomic DNA probed at moderately high stringency [2× saline sodium citrate (SSC) wash at 65°C] with the largest cDNA clone from each

class. The DNA sequence of similar cDNA clones has been determined and deposited with GenBank (23).

- 14. In screens for altered transcript production, blots of total RNA from wild-type Col-0, from rps2-201, rps2-202, rps2-203, and rps2-301 mutants (8), from rps2-101C and rps2-101N mutants (9), and from susceptible ecotypes Wü-0 (8) and Po-1 (10) were probed with the largest clone from each cDNA class , shown in Fig. 1B.
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- 16. To construct pD series plasmids for plant transformation, we made libraries (average insert size  $\sim$ 20kb) in binary vector pCLD0451 with size-fractionated yeast DNA from strains carrying the *RPS2* region YAC clones EW11E9, EW9C3, and YUP11F11. Vector pCLD04541 was made by inserting a cos site and the Bluescript polylinker into pSLJ1261 (43). pCLD04541 clones carrying Arabidopsis DNA were isolated by probing this library with insert DNA from the cosmids 4-4, 4-6, 4-11, 7-26, and 7-30. Fortyfive of the resulting pD-series clones were organized into a highly overlapping contig.
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- For plant transformation by vacuum infiltration, the 20. procedure of Bechtold et al. (17) was modified such that plants were grown in peat-based potting soil covered with a screen, primary inflorescences were removed, and plants with secondary inflores-cences (approximately 3 to 15 cm in length) were inverted directly into infiltration medium, infiltrated, and then grown to seed harvest without removal from soil [detailed protocol available on the AAtDB computer database (44) or from A.F.B.]. The presence of introduced sequences in the initial pD4 transformant was verified by DNA blot analysis with pD4 vector and insert sequences (separately) probes. The presence of the expected as pCLD04541 sequences in transformants obtained with the vacuum infiltration protocol was also confirmed by DNA blot analysis. Root transformation experiments (19) were performed with an easily regenerable rps2-201/rps2-201 plant derived from the Col-0 rps2-201 × No-0 mapping population. Transformants were obtained for pD4 with in planta transformation (20), for pD2, 14, 15, 39, and 49 with root transformation (19), and for pD2 4, 14, 15, 27, and 47 with vacuum infiltration (17) as modified above
- 21. We constructed pAD431 using pCLD04541 and a genomic 4.0-kb Xba I-Bam HI fragment that contains all of the transcribed cDNA 6 sequence along with 1.1 kb of upstream and 0.1 kb of downstream sequence. We constructed p4104 using pCLD04541 and contiguous genomic 2.4-kb Eco RI and 2.7-kb Eco RI-Cla I fragments that contain all of the transcribed cDNA 4 sequence along with 1.7 kb of upstream and 0.1 kb of downstream sequence. Transformants for pAD431 and p4104 were obtained with the modified vacuum infiltration procedure. For pAD431 (Fig. 1B), 0 out of 19 transformants obtained in three independent experiments displayed disease resistance against P. syringae expressing avrRpt2. In contrast, 18 transformants obtained in three independent transformation experiments with p4104 (Fig. 1B) developed a clear hypersensitive resistance response after inoculation with P. syringae expressing avrRpt2.
- 22. The DNA sequence was determined completely for both strands by the primer walk method, with the use of DyeDeoxy terminator cycle sequencing and the Model 373 DNA sequencing system (Applied Biosystems, La Jolla, CA) as well as  $^{35}\mathrm{S}\text{-}$ labeled deoxy-ATP and Sequenase (U.S. Biochemical, Cleveland, OH). To determine if additional plant sequences with similarity to RPS2 could be observed, we probed blots of total genomic plant DNA with a 2.8-kb probe encompassing RPS2 and washed them  $0.5 \times SSC$  at 65°C.
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# Thymus-Neuroendocrine Interactions in Extrathymic T Cell Development

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Studies of the development of murine intestinal intraepithelial lymphocytes (IELs) have yielded markedly different results depending on the experimental system used. In athymic radiation chimeras, IELs consist of all subsets found in euthymic mice; adult mice that were athymic at birth have only IELs that are positive for T cell receptor  $\gamma\delta$  and CD8 $\alpha\alpha$ . These differences are resolved by the finding that administration of the neuropeptide thyrotropin-releasing hormone to adult mice thymectomized as neonates leads to the development of all IEL T cells. Thus, a neuroendocrine signal initiated by the thymus during fetal or neonatal life appears to be required for subsequent extrathymic maturation of gut  $\alpha\beta$  T cells.

 ${f T}$ here now is considerable evidence that some, or possibly all, murine intestinal IELs are T cells that have matured independent of the thymus (1-4), thereby constituting the largest group of peripheral extrathymic T cells. Yet, opinions differ sharply as to which IELs are thymus-dependent and which are thymus-independent (5, 6); those differences primarily reflect the particular experimental system used-that is, whether mice were made athymic as adults (athymic radiation chimeras) (2, 3) or whether they were athymic from birth (4, 6). Understanding the basis for those differences is essential for determining which IELs are truly extrathymic T cells and for understanding which experimental system most accurately reflects the biology of the IELs in normal mice. In that context, several studies have recently reported that engraftment into neonatally athymic mice with fetal thymus or with thymus tissues contained in diffusion chambers (6) leads to the appearance of  $\alpha\beta$  T cells in the gut. Because in the latter experiments lymphocytes could not

Department of Biological Science and Mervin Bovaird Center for Studies in Molecular Biology and Biotechnology, University of Tulsa, Tulsa, OK 74104, USA. enter the engrafted thymus tissue, it was concluded that the thymus stroma directly influences the development of  $\alpha\beta$  T cells within the gut. As reported here, however, a similar outcome can be achieved by neurohormone supplementation in the absence of thymus engraftment, which suggests that although the thymus is involved in some stage of that process, it is not directly responsible for the development of gut  $\alpha\beta$  T cells.

We isolated IELs from adult athymic radiation chimeras and from adult neonatally thymectomized (NTX) mice (7) and compared them for expression of lymphocyte markers by flow cytometric analyses (8) to IELs from normal euthymic mice



**Fig. 1.** Expression of Thy-1.1 and Thy-1.2 on IELs from CBA athymic radiation chimeras injected with AKR bone marrow (7).

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(that is, mice with normal thymuses). Because most TCR $\alpha\beta$ , CD8 $\alpha\beta$ , and CD5 IELs express Thy-1 (9, 10) and because those populations were of particular interest in our study, the hematopoietic origins of IELs in athymic chimeras were determined with irradiated CBA (Thy-1.2) congenic mice injected with bone marrow from AKR (Thy-1.1) mice. More than 90% of Thy-1<sup>+</sup> IELs in athymic chimeras expressed the Thy-1.1 allele, which indicates that they were donor-derived lymphocytes and that they were not residual host cells (Fig. 1). IELs from athymic chimeras (Fig. 2B) expressed all subsets that existed in euthymic mice (Fig. 2A). In those mice, IELs consisted of both TCR $\alpha\beta^+$ CD5<sup>+</sup> cells and TCR $\gamma\delta^+$ CD5<sup>-</sup> cells. Virtually all CD8 $\beta^+$ IELs were Thy-1<sup>+</sup> cells, and both CD8 $\alpha\alpha$ and CD8 $\alpha\beta$  IELs were present. CD5 was expressed on some, though not all,  $TCR\alpha\beta^+$  IELs;  $TCR\gamma\delta^+$  IELs were primarily CD5<sup>-</sup>. Consistent with findings from this (2) and other laboratories (3), T cells were absent in peripheral immune compartments outside the intestine. These findings indicate that despite a reduction in the proportion of some types of IELs in athymic chimeras (for example,  $CD8\alpha\beta^+$  and Thy-1<sup>+</sup>CD8<sup>+</sup> cells) (Fig. 2B), all IEL subsets nonetheless developed in the absence of the thymus.

In contrast to IELs in euthymic mice and athymic chimeras, IELs in NTX mice consisted of only TCR $\gamma\delta^+$ CD8 $\alpha\alpha^+$  cells (Fig. 2C). Additionally, more than half of the IELs in NTX mice were devoid of markers of mature lymphocytes and, even among the TCR $\gamma\delta^+$ IELs, there was a reduction in the proportion of TCR  $\!\gamma\delta$  IELs in NTX mice compared to the number of IELs from athymic chimeras (Fig. 2). However, the most striking difference between IELs in athymic chimeras and those in NTX mice was the absence of TCR $\alpha\beta$ , CD8 $\alpha\beta$ , Thy-1, and CD5 cells, a finding that was consistent in several IEL isolates from NTX mice. Thus, IELs in mice that are athymic at birth lack  $\alpha\beta$  T cells.

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