

Sequence diversity of MHC class II DRB genes in the bank vole *Myodes glareolus*

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Babik W. and Radwan J. 2007. Sequence diversity of MHC class II DRB genes in the bank vole *Myodes glareolus*. Acta Theriologica 52: 227–235.

In recent years, the bank vole *Myodes glareolus* (Schreber, 1780) has emerged as a model system for parasitological, behavioural and ecological studies and seems ideally suited to address questions concerning the importance of MHC variation at individual and population levels. Here, we provide the first extensive survey of sequence variation in the MHC class II DRB genes in this species. Among 34 analysed voles we found 15 unique sequences, representing most likely two loci, at least one of them expressed. Despite very high overall sequence divergence, particularly in the Antigen Binding Sites (ABS), we detected signatures of positive selection that has been acting on DRB in the bank vole. Phylogenetic analysis demonstrated that the bank vole DRB alleles do not form a monophyletic group but are intermingled with other rodent alleles that is consistent with long-term persistence of ancient allelic lineages maintained through balancing selection. Our sequence data will forward the design of efficient genotyping methods, which will permit testing hypotheses pertaining to the ecological causes and consequences of MHC variation in the bank vole.

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Key words: Major Histocompatibility Complex, polymorphism, rodents, selection, recombination

Introduction

The Major Histocompatibility Complex (MHC) contains the most polymorphic genes described in vertebrates (Garrigan and Hedrick 2003). Polymorphism is concentrated in genes coding for proteins that present antigens from intracellular (MHC I) and extracellular (MHC II) pathogens to lymphocytes (Janeway *et al.* 1999,

Sommer 2005). High numbers of alleles are thought to be maintained in natural populations because of the selective pressure induced by fast evolving pathogens. Pathogens readily adapt to common host genotypes, triggering frequency-dependent selection which may prevent the loss of rare alleles (Snell 1968, Borghans *et al.* 2004). Heterozygote advantage, enabling heterozygous individuals to recognise a wider range of pathogen-derived antigens, is another mechanism that

can contribute to the maintenance of high polymorphism at MHC loci (Doherty and Zinkernagel 1975). The benefits of rare alleles and heterozygosity at MHC loci have been shown in recent research on humans and other species (eg Thursz *et al.* 1997, Paterson *et al.* 1998, Penn *et al.* 2002, Trachtenberg *et al.* 2003). Relative significance of mechanisms maintaining extremely high MHC variation remains a matter of debate (reviewed in Sommer 2005, Milinski 2006).

However, both mechanisms will provide an advantage to rare and new alleles, as well as favor non-synonymous mutations thus generating the signal of positive selection. Indeed, such signal is often detected in MHC sequences, especially in the antigen-binding sites (ABS) (reviewed in Garrigan and Hedrick 2003, Sommer 2005, Piertney and Oliver 2006). Selection on MHC genes seems to be able to maintain polymorphism for a very long time, resulting in trans-species polymorphism (Klein 1987, Edwards *et al.* 1997).

At the intra-individual level, MHC variation can be increased by duplication of MHC loci; for example, more than one DRB locus is present in several mammalian species, and haplotypes may differ in the number of DRB loci (Fraser and Bailey 1996, Khazand *et al.* 1999, Kennedy *et al.* 2002). While gene duplication may be expected to facilitate recognition of pathogen-derived antigens by expression of a wider range of MHC proteins, other processes, such as increased risk of auto-immunoaggression, may limit the optimal number of MHC proteins expressed by individuals (Borghans *et al.* 2004, Milinski 2006).

In recent years, the bank vole *Myodes glareolus* (Schreber, 1780), until recently known as *Clethrionomys glareolus*, has emerged as a model system for parasitological, behavioural and ecological studies (Bajer *et al.* 2001, Behnke *et al.* 2001, Koskela *et al.* 2004, Labocha *et al.* 2004, Radwan *et al.* 2004, Karbowiak *et al.* 2005). As the species is extensively studied both in nature and in the lab, correlational data collected in the field can be further scrutinized in controlled laboratory settings. Thus, the species seems ideally suited to address questions concerning the importance of MHC variation at individual and

population levels. So far, only MHC DQA sequences have been described in the bank vole. Bryja *et al.* (2006) found 7 unique MHC DQA sequences, distributed among 2 expressed loci, in 7 individuals. Here, we provide the first extensive survey of sequence variation in another class II MHC gene, the DRB. It is the most polymorphic and most widely studied class II gene in mammals (Garrigan and Hedrick 2003, Piertney and Oliver 2006). Sequence variation was tested for signs of positive selection acting in the past and was used to determine the phylogenetic relationship with DRB genes of other species. Characterisation of the sequences will facilitate the design of genotyping methods permitting the interpretation of the extensive data on extracellular parasites that this species abundantly hosts (Bajer *et al.* 2001, Behnke *et al.* 2001, Karbowiak *et al.* 2005).

Material and methods

We analysed variation in the DRB second exon in 34 bank voles. The samples came from three populations: Mazury Lake district (NE Poland, $n = 15$), Bieszczady Foothills (SE Poland, $n = 9$) and Puszcza Niepołomska (S Poland, $n = 10$). Distances between populations ranged from ca 200 (Bieszczady – Puszcza Niepołomska) to ca 600 km (Puszcza Niepołomska – Mazury).

DNA was extracted using the Genomic Mini kit (A & A Biotechnology) from fresh, frozen, or alcohol-preserved tissues. We used the forward (5'GAGTGTTCATTTCTACAACGGGA3') and reverse (5'CTCTCCGCGGCACAAAGGAA3') primers described by Smulders *et al.* (2003), to amplify a 203 bp (excluding primers) fragment of the 2nd exon of the DRB gene. Amplifications were carried out in 20 µl volumes, the reaction mixtures consisted of: 2 µl of 10 × PCR buffer with (NH₄)₂SO₄ (Fermentas), 1.5 mM MgCl₂, 1 µM of each the forward and reverse primers, 0.2 mM of each dNTP and 1 U of *Taq* polymerase (Fermentas). The cycling scheme was as follows: 94°C for 3 min, followed by 35 cycles at 94°C for 30 s, 55°C for 30 s, 72°C for 30 s and a final extension step at 72°C for 3 min. PCR products were cloned using the pGEM T-Easy vector system (Promega). Recombinant clones were detected by blue/white screening and plasmid DNA minipreps were prepared with the Plasmid Mini kit (A & A Biotechnology). Multiple clones (7.3 per individual on average) containing inserts were sequenced using standard T7 or SP6 primers. Sequencing reactions were performed with the Big Dye 3.1 sequencing kit (ABI) and their products were separated on an ABI 3100 Genetic Analyser. Sequences were checked and aligned in SeqScape 2.1.1 (ABI). Some individuals with putative rare alleles were also cloned from a second, independent PCR. As PCR-

and cloning-generated (resulting from bacterial mismatch repair of cloned PCR-generated heteroduplexes) artefacts are common in analyses of polymorphic genes, particularly in the case of MHC genes (for a discussion see Jarvi *et al.* (2004)) we employed conservative criteria for allele identification. Throughout the text we use the term 'allele' to designate unique sequences, however it should be kept in mind that these unique sequences represent more than one locus. We treated sequences obtained in clones derived from at least two independent PCR reactions as confirmed alleles. Clones containing unconfirmed, according to the above rule, sequences differing by single substitutions from a known allele were regarded as representing this allele. Other sequence variants, which may have represented polymerase errors and PCR- or cloning-generated recombinants, were excluded from the analyses. In designating allele names we followed the nomenclatural rules set by Klein *et al.* (1990).

In order to confirm the expression of the assayed loci, mRNA was obtained from spleens of two voles. The samples of the spleen were preserved in RNeasy RNA stabilization reagent (Qiagen). RNA was extracted with the RNeasy kit (Qiagen) from about 20 mg of homogenized tissue sample. The samples were digested on columns with DNase (Qiagen) for 20 minutes. cDNA was obtained using Omniscript Reverse Transcriptase (Qiagen) in 20 μ l reaction containing 6 μ l template RNA, 2 μ l Oligo(dT) 12–18 primer (0.5 μ g/ μ l, Invitrogen), 1 μ l RNase inhibitor (10 u/ μ l) and 1 μ l RT and 6 μ l of RNase-free water. The reaction was incubated at 37°C for 60 min. DRB was amplified from cDNA as described above for genomic DNA with DNase-treated RNA used as negative control. PCR products were cloned and sequenced as described above.

The average pairwise nucleotide distances (Kimura 2-parameter model, K2P), Poisson-corrected amino acid distances as well as the average rates of synonymous (dS) and nonsynonymous (dN) substitutions per site, using the Nei–Gojobori method with the Jukes–Cantor correction for multiple substitutions, were computed in MEGA3 (Kumar *et al.* 2004). Standard errors of the estimates were obtained through 1000 bootstrap replicates.

We tested for signs of recombination in our dataset with three methods. The software RDP (Martin and Rybicki 2000) was applied for the analysis using GENECONV (Padidam *et al.* 1999) and MaxChi2 (Maynard Smith 1992) methods. These two methods performed best in an assessment of fourteen recombination detection methods (Posada 2002). In the third method, Genetic Algorithm Recombination Detection (GARD) (Pond *et al.* 2006), a web-based routine (<http://www.datamonkey.org/GARD/>) was used for computations.

We tested if positive selection shaped the evolution of the assayed fragment of the DRB second exon using two approaches. First, the one-tailed Z-test of positive selection, as implemented in MEGA3, compared the rates of synonymous vs. nonsynonymous substitutions at all amino acid positions, antigen binding sites (ABS) and non-ABS. The location of the putative ABS and non-ABS was inferred from the human MHC II molecule structure (Brown *et al.* 1993). Additionally, we compared ABS vs. non-ABS sites with respect to rates of non-synonymous and synonymous substitutions using two-tailed Z-test.

Second, we tested for positive selection by comparing likelihoods of three codon-based models of sequence evolution available in PAML 3.15 (Yang 1997): (1) M0: one ω (dN/dS) ratio, (2) M1a: nearly neutral, p_0 sites under purifying selection ($\omega_0 < 1$) and the rest neutral ($\omega_1 = 1$), (3) M2a positive selection, p_0 sites under purifying selection ($\omega_0 < 1$), p_1 neutral ($\omega_1 = 1$) and the rest under positive selection ($\omega_2 > 1$). The best fitting model was chosen on the basis of the likelihood-ratio test (Yang 1997) and the lowest value of the Akaike Information Criterion (Posada and Buckley 2004). Positively selected codons under M2a model were identified through the Bayes empirical Bayes procedure (Zhang *et al.* 2005).

We constructed phylogenetic trees in order to elucidate the position of the bank vole DRB alleles among the alleles of other rodent species and to test if the transspecific mode of sequence evolution applies to the bank vole alleles. The most similar (closest BLAST matches) non rodent sequences, *Alces alces* and *Macaca mulatta* were used to root the trees. The best fitting model of sequence evolution was chosen using ModelTest 3.5 (Posada and Crandall 1998). The Akaike Information Criterion revealed the best fit of the Transversal Model, a simplified variant of the GTR model (see Tavaré 1986), with non-zero proportion of invariable sites and gamma-distributed rate variation (TVM + I + Γ) with the following parameter values: nucleotide frequencies 0.200 (A) 0.295 (C) 0.324 (G) 0.181 (T), proportion of invariable sites I = 0.238 and gamma shape parameter α = 1.060. A neighbor joining tree was constructed in PAUP from the matrix of distances computed according to the model. The robustness of the tree topology was tested with 1000 bootstrap replicates. Another tree was constructed under the Bayesian approach with MRBAYES 3.1 (Ronquist and Huelsenbeck 2003). The likelihood settings corresponded to the general time-reversible (GTR) model + I + Γ with the parameter values to be estimated from the data; priors were set to default values. Four Metropolis Coupled Monte Carlo Markov Chains (three of them "heated", temperature = 0.20) were run in two runs for 1×10^6 generations each and sampled every 1000 generations. The first ten percent of trees were discarded as burn-in, resulting in 1800 sampled trees. To calculate the posterior probability of each bipartition, the majority-rule consensus tree was computed from these 1800 sampled trees.

Results

We detected fifteen DRB alleles among 34 assayed bank voles. Sequences of all alleles were deposited in GenBank (Accession Numbers EF469837–51). Three unique DRB sequences per individual were found in nine individuals and four sequences were found in two voles. This indicates the presence of at least two DRB loci. Analysis of PCR products obtained from spleen mRNA confirmed that at least one locus is

[illegible]

Table 2. Frequencies of individuals with particular DRB alleles detected in the three populations sampled. Maz – Mazury Lake District, Bie – Bieszczady Foothills, Nie – Puszcza Niepołomska.

Allele	Total sample (<i>n</i> = 34)	Maz (<i>n</i> = 15)	Bie (<i>n</i> = 9)	Nie (<i>n</i> = 10)
<i>Mygl-DRB*01</i>	0.19	0.23	0.06	0.26
<i>Mygl-DRB*02</i>	0.16	0.19	0.33	0.00
<i>Mygl-DRB*03</i>	0.15	0.15	0.06	0.22
<i>Mygl-DRB*04</i>	0.08	0.08	0.00	0.13
<i>Mygl-DRB*05</i>	0.06	0.08	0.00	0.09
<i>Mygl-DRB*06</i>	0.04	0.00	0.00	0.13
<i>Mygl-DRB*07</i>	0.04	0.04	0.06	0.04
<i>Mygl-DRB*08</i>	0.04	0.00	0.17	0.00
<i>Mygl-DRB*09</i>	0.04	0.12	0.00	0.00
<i>Mygl-DRB*10</i>	0.04	0.00	0.11	0.04
<i>Mygl-DRB*11</i>	0.04	0.04	0.11	0.00
<i>Mygl-DRB*12</i>	0.03	0.04	0.06	0.00
<i>Mygl-DRB*13</i>	0.03	0.04	0.00	0.04
<i>Mygl-DRB*14</i>	0.02	0.00	0.00	0.04
<i>Mygl-DRB*15</i>	0.02	0.00	0.06	0.00

Table 3. The average rates of nonsynonymous substitutions per nonsynonymous site (d_N), synonymous substitutions per synonymous sites (d_S), with standard errors obtained through 1000 bootstrap replicates in parentheses, and the results of the Z-test of positive selection. d_S and d_N values are given as percentages per site.

Sites	d_N	d_S	<i>Z</i>	<i>p</i>
All	14.3 (2.3)	19.9 (4.6)	1.162	1.000
ABS	30.1 (7.0)	20.0 (9.3)	1.869	1.000
non-ABS	8.9 (1.9)	20.1 (5.4)	1.038	0.151

sites ($Z = 2.92$, $p = 0.004$), with d_S being very similar ($Z = 0.01$, $p = 0.99$). Also, the average K2P nucleotide distances and Poisson-corrected amino acid distances between alleles were about three times higher at ABS than at non-ABS sites. The model of codon evolution assuming that a fraction of codons has been affected by positive selection fitted the data substantially better than the uniform ω and nearly neutral models ($\chi^2 = 11.4$, $df = 2$, $p = 0.0033$ and $\delta AIC = 7.4$ in comparison between models M1a and M2a). However, only a small fraction of codons were identified as evolving under positive selection. Accordingly, the Bayes empirical procedure identified only two codons as positively selected (posterior probability > 95%), both at ABS sites.

Both the NJ and Bayesian trees were poorly resolved, with only several well supported groupings. General relationships among rodent alleles remain unresolved with several notable exceptions (Fig. 1). Three well supported groups were distinguished among the bank vole alleles, one, clustering seven similar alleles, received 100% bootstrap support (BS) and Bayesian posterior probability (PP), the others grouped two bank vole alleles each: *Mygl-DRB*03* and *Mygl-DRB*11* with 100% BS and PP, and *Mygl-DRB*07* and *Mygl-DRB*14* with 86% BS and 99% PP. It is evident from the phylogenetic analysis that the bank vole alleles do not form a monophyletic group, but are intermingled with other rodent alleles.

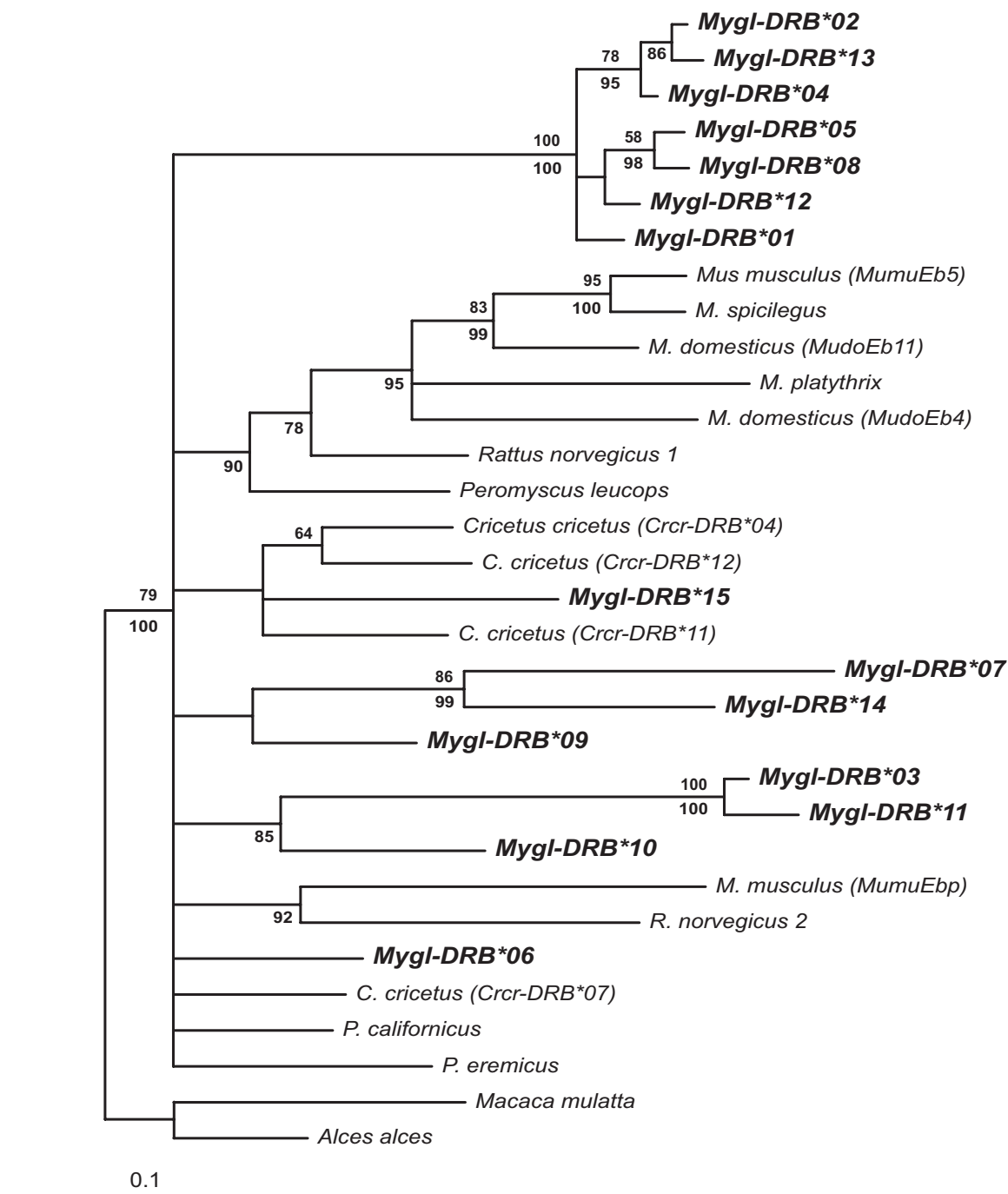


Fig 1. Phylogenetic relationships of the bank vole MHC II DRB alleles (bold) with a representative set of other rodent alleles. 50% majority rule tree from the Bayesian analysis is shown. Bootstrap values above 50% are shown above respective branches, Bayesian posterior probability above 70% are shown below branches. Other rodent sequences included, with Gen Bank Accession Numbers in parentheses: *Cricetus cricetus*: *Crcr-DRB*04* (AJ490314), *Crcr-DRB*07* (AJ490317), *Crcr-DRB*11* (AJ490321), *Crcr-DRB*12* (AJ490322); *Mus musculus musculus*: *MumuEb5* (U88933) *MumuEbp* (AY740480); *M. m. domesticus*: *MudoEb4* (U88913) *MudoEb11* (U88920); *Mus platythrix* (U88949); *Mus spicilegus* (AJ634272); *Peromyscus californicus* (AY219808), *Peromyscus eremicus* (AY219815), *Peromyscus leucopus* (AY219804), *Rattus norvegicus*: 1 (AJ003232) 2 (M57819). Tree was rooted using *Macaca mulatta* (AY487258) and *Alces alces* (X82398) DRB sequences.

Discussion

Our primers amplified alleles from at least two loci, as shown by the detection of three or four alleles in several individuals. The presence of more than one DRB locus is a common phenomenon among mammals (eg Khazand *et al.* 1999, Kennedy *et al.* 2002, Harf and Sommer 2005). However, in the only other investigated member of subfamily Arvicolinae, the water vole *Arvicola terrestris* there seems to be only a single DRB locus (Oliver and Piertney 2006). We have found that at least one of DRB loci is expressed in the bank vole. The lack of indels or stop codons in any of the sequences suggests that we have not amplified a pseudogene, although one of the loci may be expressed at a lower level and thus be difficult to detect in a limited number of clones.

Inconclusive outcomes of the tests of recombination indicate that, even if present, recombination has not been a major force in the evolution of the assayed DRB fragment in the bank vole. A similar conclusion was reached by Bryja *et al.* (2006) for DQA.

We have found evidence that positive selection has contributed to the evolution of the bank vole DRB genes, and explicitly identified two codons, located at putative ABS, as being under positive selection. This indicates that the polymorphism of DRB genes in the bank vole has been driven by the peptide-binding properties of their products, and thus, most likely, by their ability to bind pathogen-derived antigens. However, unlike a number of other species (reviewed in Bernatchez and Landry 2003, Sommer 2005, Piertney and Oliver 2006), we have not found a significant excess of non-synonymous substitutions at ABS sites. This is an exception rather than a rule (Bernatchez and Landry 2003), but could be partly accounted for by the high divergence of allelic sequences and saturation of non-synonymous sites (Richman *et al.* 2001). Indeed, whereas synonymous substitution rates were high and similar at ABS and non-ABS sites, the non-synonymous substitution rate was about three times higher at ABS sites. Additionally, we cannot exclude the possibility of differ-

ences in ABS location between rodent and human MHC II molecules. Overall, our results indicate that codons associated with the specificity of binding antigens have been under positive selection.

The high sequence divergence is consistent with the long persistence of allelic lineages, as supported by trans-species polymorphisms observed in our phylogenetic analysis. Trans-species polymorphisms were found in other rodents as well (Edwards *et al.* 1997, Smulders *et al.* 2003, Musolf *et al.* 2004). Bank voles also share DQA allelic lineages with other vole species (Bryja *et al.* 2006). Relatively short sequence length together with very high sequence variation obviously affected robustness of the trees obtained in our phylogenetic analyses as evidenced by generally low bootstrap and posterior values. This is however the result of a "natural" limitation – the length of the DRB 2nd exon.

The frequencies of even the three most common alleles differed substantially between assayed populations. Some rarer alleles were detected in only a single population (*Mygl-DRB*06,*08,*09,*14,*15*). This differentiation may reflect sampling error, differences in local selective pressures or may have historical reasons. The present-day area of Poland was colonized from at least two refugial areas after the last glacial maximum (Deffontaine *et al.* 2005, Kotlik *et al.* 2006). The differences in MHC allelic composition that may have emerged during period(s) of isolation in refugial populations, probably contribute both to the differentiation between populations and to overall high DRB diversity in bank voles from Poland.

Our sequence data will forward the design of efficient genotyping methods, such as Single Strand Conformational Polymorphism (SSCP) or Reference Strand Conformational Analysis (RSCA), which can first be tested using clones containing MHC DRB inserts of known sequences. This will permit testing hypotheses pertaining to the ecological causes and consequences of MHC variation in this thoroughly studied species. For example, it has been found that bank vole populations inhabiting neighbouring locations differ in composition of para-

sites (Bajer *et al.* 2001, Behnke *et al.* 2001). It would now be possible to examine if this differences are reflected in MHC variation and allelic composition.

Acknowledgements: We thank A. Kloch and Z. Boratyński for samples, B. Matuła for technical assistance and M. Pabijan for his comments. This work was supported by a grant from Polish Ministry of Science and Higher Education (0494/P04/2005/28) and European Community Centre of Excellence IBAES.

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Received 10 January 2007, accepted 26 March 2007.

Associate editors were Maarit Jaarola and Krzysztof Schmidt.