Natural Killer Cells Recognize Friend Retrovirus-Infected Erythroid Progenitor Cells through NKG2D–RAE-1 Interactions *In Vivo*

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Natural killer (NK) cells function as early effector cells in the innate immune defense against viral infections and also participate in the regulation of normal and malignant hematopoiesis. NK cell activities have been associated with early clearance of viremia in experimental simian immunodeficiency virus and clinical human immunodefi**ciency virus type 1 (HIV-1) infections. We have previously shown that NK cells function as major cytotoxic effector cells in vaccine-induced immune protection against Friend virus (FV)-induced leukemia, and NK cell depletion totally abrogates the above protective immunity. However, how NK cells recognize retrovirus-infected cells remains largely unclear. The present study demonstrates a correlation between the expression of the products of retinoic acid early transcript-1 (RAE-1) genes in target cells and their susceptibility to killing by NK cells isolated from FV-infected animals. This killing was abrogated by antibodies blocking the NKG2D receptor** *in vitro***. Further, the expression of RAE-1 proteins on erythroblast surfaces increased early after FV inoculation, and administration of an RAE-1-blocking antibody resulted in increased spleen infectious centers and exaggerated pathology, indicating that FV-infected erythroid cells are recognized by NK cells mainly through the NKG2D–RAE-1 interactions** *in vivo***. Enhanced retroviral replication due to host gene-targeting resulted in markedly increased RAE-1 expression in the absence of massive erythroid cell proliferation, indicating a direct role of retroviral replication in RAE-1 upregulation.**

Natural killer (NK) cells play an important role in eliminating virus-infected cells via both direct killing and antibodydependent cell-mediated cytotoxicity mechanisms (15, 49). NK cells also control adaptive immune responses through the production of key cytokines in the early stages of viral infection. In addition, NK cells have been implicated in the growth regulation of hematopoietic cells (6, 39). Thus, viruses that infect hematopoietic cells are prime targets of NK cells. In fact, NK cells are expanded and activated during acute human immunodeficiency virus type 1 (HIV-1) infection prior to seroconversion (1), and NK cell activity parallels changes in plasma viral load both in experimental infection of rhesus macaques with a pathogenic simian immunodeficiency virus isolate (10) and in clinical HIV-1 infection (21). Increased NK cell activities in high-risk HIV-1-exposed uninfected individuals (34, 38) also indicate a possible role of NK cells in resistance against HIV-1 acquisition. Genetic analyses of large cohorts have provided compelling evidence for correlations between certain haplotypes of the killer cell immunoglobulin-like receptor

(KIR) loci and slow progression to AIDS after HIV-1 seroconversion (9, 23, 24), connecting NK cell activities with restricted HIV-1 replication. NK cells are also reduced in patients with human T-lymphotropic virus type 1 (HTLV-1)-associated disorders (3), indicating possible disease progression in the absence of NK cell-mediated virus control. However, little is known about the molecular mechanisms through which retrovirus-infected cells are recognized by NK cells.

Friend virus (FV) is a highly leukemogenic and immunosuppressive mouse retrovirus complex composed of replicationcompetent Friend murine leukemia virus (F-MuLV) and replication-defective but acutely transforming Friend spleen focus-forming virus (SFFV). The product of the SFFV *env* gene, gp55, forms a complex with the erythropoietin receptor and the short form of the hematopoietic cell-specific receptor tyrosine kinase (STK), and this interaction induces the growth and terminal differentiation of erythroid progenitor cells, causing polycythemia and massive splenomegaly (18, 28). The resultant increase in targets of FV integration consequently causes the emergence of mono- or oligoclonal erythroleukemia through insertional activation of transcription factors or disruption of a tumor suppressor gene. Since the above early splenomegaly and late erythroleukemogenesis can be induced by inoculating the virus into immunocompetent adult mice of susceptible strains, FV has contributed to the analysis of host immune responses that influence retrovirus replication and disease development (5, 12, 25, 27).

We previously showed that the majority of cytotoxic effector cells detected early after FV infection were NK rather than

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FIG. 1. Changes in NK cell activities and numbers in CB6F₁ mice after FV infection. (A) Killing activities of NK cells purified from CB6F₁ mice at various time points after FV infection on target cells of different origin. CB6F₁ mice were inoculated with 150 SFFU of LDV-free FV. CD4⁻, CD8⁻, B220⁻, and DX5⁺ NK cells were purified from the spleens, confirmed to be 85 to 95% positive for DX5 and 76 to 86% positive for both DX5 and NK-1.1 (arrow in the inset), and used as effector cells without an *in vitro* stimulation as described previously (16). Specific lysis of 4 different lines of target cells at each indicated effector-to-target ratio was measured by ⁵¹Cr release assays (16, 45). Each data point here represents a mean calculated from triplicate wells with the SEM being <10% of the average throughout the present study. Experiments were repeated 3 times with essentially the same results. (B) Percentages and absolute numbers of NK and $\overline{CD8}^+$ T cells expressing NKG2D at various time points after FV infection. CB6F₁ mice were inoculated with FV, and spleen cells were analyzed by multicolor flow cytometry. Absolute numbers of each cell population were calculated by (total number of nucleated spleen cells \times percentage of the population in question)/100. Each data point here represents mean \pm SEM calculated from 4 animals. \ast , $P < 0.05$ in comparison with the corresponding values at PID 0 (prior to infection) by *t* test; \dagger , $P < 0.005$.

 $CD8⁺$ T cells (16). Further, protective anti-FV immunity induced by a single immunization of susceptible mice with a synthetic peptide that harbored a T-helper (Th) cell epitope (26) was totally abrogated by the depletion of NK cells, without affecting the numbers and proliferative and killing functions of $CD4⁺$ and $CD8⁺$ T cells (16). On the other hand, mice lacking $CD8⁺$ T cells were nevertheless protected against FV infection by the above immunization with the single-epitope peptide (19). Our recent study (45) has revealed rapidly induced terminal exhaustion of $CD8⁺$ effector cells in FV-infected animals; thus, although activated, FV -specific $CD8⁺$ T cells become unable to exert cytotoxic effector functions upon cognate binding to infected target cells by as early as 14 days after infection. These results collectively indicate that NK cells, instead of $CD8⁺$ T cells, may play essential roles in controlling the proliferation of erythroid progenitor cells in acute FV infection. In fact, enhanced NK cell activities were associated with delayed development of FV-induced leukemia in mice overexpressing vascular endothelial growth factor A (VEGF-A) (4). Here we utilized the above FV model to elucidate how retrovirus-infected cells are recognized by NK cells.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Mice and virus. C57BL/6 (B6; $Fv2^r H2^b$) and (BALB/c \times C57BL/6)F₁ (CB6F₁; *Fv2s/r H2d/b*) mice were purchased from Japan SLC, Inc. (Hamamatsu, Japan). Breeding pairs of B6(Cg)-*Tnfrsf13c*^{tmMass}/J (B6-BAFF-R^{-/-}) mice homozygously carrying a targeted disruption of the receptor for B-cell activating factor belonging to the tumor necrosis factor family (*BAFF-R*) gene (37) were purchased from The Jackson Laboratory (Bar Harbor, ME). The apolipoprotein B mRNA editing enzyme catalytic polypeptide 3 (APOBEC3)-deficient mice on a B6 background (B6-*APOBEC3^{-/-})* have been described previously (46, 47). Mice 8 to 12 weeks in age at the time of FV infection were used throughout the present study. The stocks of B-tropic FV without contamination of lactate dehydrogenase-elevating virus (LDV) and the infectious molecular clone of F-MuLV, FB-29, have been described previously (27, 45–47). Mice were inoculated with an indicated dose of FV or F-MuLV by intravenous injection into the tail vein. All animal experiments described here have been approved by the Animal Experiment Committee of Kinki University and performed according to the relevant laws and regulations of the Japanese government.

Purification of NK cells and cytotoxicity assays. Purification of NK cells was performed by using antibody (Ab)-conjugated micromagnetic beads as described previously (16), except that an automated magnetic cell sorting separator (autoMACS; Miltenyi Biotech GmbH, Bergisch Gladbach, Germany) was used in the present study. In brief, nucleated spleen cells in phosphate-buffered balanced salt solution (PBBS) were first mixed with a mixture of anti-mouse CD4, anti-mouse CD8, and anti-mouse B220 Ab-conjugated microbeads solution, and $CD4^+$, $CD8^+$, and $B220^+$ cells were depleted by using the Depletes program. The resultant CD4⁻, CD8⁻, and B220⁻ cells were then mixed with anti-DX5 Ab-conjugated microbeads, and positive selection was performed by using the Posselds program. The resultant CD4⁻, CD8⁻, B220⁻, and DX5⁺ cells were confirmed to be 85 to 95% positive for DX5 (Fig. 1A, inset) and were used as effector cells without any *in vitro* stimulation throughout the present study. The target cells used were as follows: an F-MuLV-induced leukemia cell line, FBL-3, established from a B6 mouse; a line of FV-induced leukemia cells, Y57-2C, established from a $(C57BL/10 \times A.BY)F_1$ $(H2^{b/b})$ mouse; a chemically induced

T-cell lymphoma line, EL-4, established from a B6 mouse; and an A/Sn mousederived Moloney murine leukemia virus (M-MuLV)-induced lymphoma line, YAC-1 ($H2^a$). Y57-2C cells were originally provided by Bruce Chesebro, Laboratory of Persistent Viral Diseases, NIH, NIAID, Rocky Mountain Laboratories, Hamilton, MT, and FBL-3, EL-4, and YAC-1 cells were provided by Kagemasa Kuribayashi, Mie University School of Medicine, Tsu, Japan. Cytotoxicity assays were performed by using ⁵¹Cr-labeled target cells as described elsewhere (16, 45).

For the possible blocking of NK-mediated killing, low-endotoxin and azidefree functional-grade anti-mouse NKG2D Ab (clone CX5, rat IgG1 [29], and clone C7, Armenian hamster IgG [13]) were purchased from eBioscience (San Diego, CA) and added to the assay cultures at 30 μ g/ml according to a previously described procedure (13). Control IgG1 purified from unimmunized rat sera and monoclonal Ab A19-3 (Armenian hamster IgG) specific for trinitrophenyl hapten were purchased from eBioscience and BD Biosciences PharMingen (San Diego, CA), respectively.

Flow cytometry. Flow cytometric analyses were performed as described elsewhere (44–47). Abs used were the following: fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC) conjugated anti-mouse $CD8\alpha$ and phycoerythrin (PE)-conjugated anti-mouse NKG2D (clone CX5) (eBioscience); FITC-conjugated anti-NK1.1, biotin-conjugated anti-mouse Pan-NK (DX5), biotin-conjugated anti-mouse Qa-1^b, and allophycocyanin (APC)-conjugated anti-mouse TER-119 (BD Biosciences PharMingen); and PE-conjugated anti-mouse Pan–RAE-1 (R&D Systems, Inc., Minneapolis, MN). B6 mice express the alloantigen NK-1.1, and DX5 recognizes CD49b (2). TER-119 reacts with a molecule associated with glycophorin A (20) and marks late erythroblasts as well as mature red cells (50). Monoclonal Ab 720 reactive with F-MuLV gp70, but not with any other mouse retrovirus (36), was purified and conjugated with biotin as described previously (45–47). PE-conjugated (BD Biosciences PharMingen) and FITC-conjugated (DakoCytomation, Glostrup, Denmark) streptavidin were used for staining with the biotin-conjugated antibodies. All staining reactions were performed in the presence of 0.25 g/106 cells of anti-mouse CD16/CD32 (BD Biosciences PharMingen). Cells were also incubated with the appropriate isotype-matched control Ab to draw demarcation lines that separate cells positively stained from those not stained. Multicolor flow cytometric analyses were performed with a Becton-Dickinson FACSCalibur and CellQuest software (BD Biosciences, Franklin Lakes, NJ).

Depletion of NK cells and blocking of NKG2D–RAE-1 interactions *in vivo***.** Rabbit antiserum specific for mouse asialo ganglio-*N*-tetraosylceramide (asialo-GM1) and control normal rabbit serum were purchased from Wako Pure Chemicals (Osaka, Japan), and the IgG fraction was concentrated by precipitation with 45% (final) ammonium sulfate. Mice were injected intravenously with 60 μ g/dose of the anti-asialoGM1 Ab at 1 day prior to FV inoculation and 2, 5, 8, and 11 days after the virus infection as performed previously (16). For *in vivo* blocking of NKG2D, 100 µg/dose anti-NKG2D Ab (CX5) or control rat IgG was administered 2 days prior to, the day of, and 2 days after FV inoculation. The lack of a detectable level of NKG2D on DX5⁺ NK cells was confirmed 5 days after infection by flow cytometry essentially as described previously (45). Monoclonal anti-mouse RAE-1 Ab that blocks the binding of mouse NKG2D to β and δ isoforms of mouse RAE-1 (clone 199205, rat IgG2b) (51) was purchased from R&D Systems, Inc., and 100 µg/dose of this Ab or the above control rat IgG was administered the day of and 2 days after FV inoculation.

FV-induced disease development was monitored by following the survival of each representative group of infected mice for 60 days and by measuring spleen weights at 13 days after infection as described previously (16, 19). Infectious center assays were performed as described previously (19, 26). Three-fold dilutions of nucleated spleen cells between 30 and 3×10^6 /well were prepared from each animal and were added in triplicate into a well of 24-well tissue culture plates that had been seeded with 1×10^4 *Mus dunni* cells on the previous day. Spots of F-MuLV gp70-expressing *Mus dunni* cells in each well were counted under a magnifier after 2 days of coculturing followed by fixation and immunoenzymatic staining with monoclonal Ab 720 (36). The numbers of spleen infectious centers were calculated as averages of triplicate samples which gave close to but less than 150 spots of the infected indicator cells per well. As up to 3×10^6 nucleated spleen cells can be seeded and up to 150 spots of infected *Mus dunni* cells can be distinguished per well, the results shown in the present study represent absolute numbers of infectious centers among 10⁵ nucleated spleen cells.

Quantitative real-time PCR assays. For the induction of NK receptor ligands, the indicated leukemia and lymphoma cells maintained in an exponential growth phase were reseeded at 2.5×10^6 cells/5 ml/well in 6-well tissue culture plates with 5 U/ml (final) of recombinant mouse gamma interferon (IFN- γ) (BD Biosciences PharMingen). After the indicated hours of incubation, cells were harvested and total cellular RNA was extracted by using the TRIzol solution (Invitrogen Japan, K. K., Tokyo, Japan). Poly- A^+ RNA was purified from total RNA for each sample by the use of the MicroFast Track 2.0 system (Invitrogen).

Quantitative real-time PCRs were performed as described previously (46, 47). The sequence-specific primers and probes used are as follows: *Raet1* forward, CGCCATCATTTTATGATTCAGAAG, reverse, TGGTCAAGTTGCACCTA AGAGAGT, and probe, 6-carboxyfluorescein (FAM)-TACTGAGCTATGGAT ACACCAACGGGCTZ-6-carboxytetramethylrhodamine (TAMRA); *Qa-1^b* forward, AGATCTCTAAGCACAAGTCAGAGGC, reverse, TCATTTCCCAGC CGTAGGTATC, and probe, FAM-TGAGGCCCACCAACAGAGGGCATZ-TAMRA; and F-MuLV *env* forward, GCTGCGAGACAACCGGTAGA, reverse, GCATACCTGAACAGCCTGGTTA, and probe, FAM-TTCTTGGGA CTACATCACAGTZ-TAMRA. The above primer/probe set used for the detection of the *Raet1* messages reacts with all known isoforms $(\alpha - \varepsilon)$ of mouse *Raet1*. Specificities of the probes were confirmed by cloning and sequencing the amplified cDNA fragments as described previously (46). TaqMan rodent *GAPDH* control (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) was added to each reaction mixture as a normalizer. The levels of expression of each gene tested were expressed by the threshold cycle $(2^{-\Delta CT})$, where an average value and SEM were calculated for each sample.

Statistical analyses. Two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Bonferroni *post hoc* tests and Mantel-Cox tests of survival curves were performed by using Prism software (GraphPad Software, Inc., San Diego, CA). Average values were compared by Student's or Welch's *t* test, depending on whether the variances of the compared samples were estimated to be equal or not, and Bonferroni's correction was applied for multiple comparisons when required. Paired *t* tests were performed when two parameters within a single experimental group were compared.

RESULTS

Changes in NK cell activities upon FV infection of susceptible mice. Mice possessing at least a single dominant *Fv2s* allele develop polycythemia and splenomegaly early after FV inoculation. $CB6F_1$ mice are highly susceptible to FV and develop massive splenomegaly within 2 weeks after infection, and all die within 60 days upon inoculation, with as low as 15 spleen focus-forming units (SFFU) of FV (16, 19, 26, 27). NK cell activities were previously demonstrated with the spleens of $CB6F₁$ mice at 7 to 11 days after FV infection (16); however, the *in vivo*-passaged FV stocks used in the above and other experiments performed prior to 2007 had been contaminated unintentionally with LDV, which is known to activate NK cells soon after inoculation (27). It is possible, therefore, that the previously detected NK cell activities were evoked by LDV, rather than by FV infection. Thus, we first tested the killing activities exerted by NK cells purified from $CB6F_1$ mice at various time points after infection with LDV-free FV.

High-level killing activities were detectable against YAC-1 target cells even before FV inoculation of $CB6F_1$ mice. Killing activities against F-MuLV-induced FBL-3 tumor cells were also detected prior to FV infection, increased following FV infection, and peaked at postinoculation day (PID) 8 (Fig. 1A). Both activities, however, decreased at PID 12. The above kinetics were essentially not different from those observed by inoculating the same strain of mice with an LDV-contaminated stock of FV (data not shown). Thus, FV infection without LDV contamination enhanced constitutively detectable NK-mediated killing activities against F-MuLV-induced FBL-3 leukemia cells in $CB6F_1$ mice.

Different levels of NK-receptor ligand expression in correlation with susceptibility to NK-mediated lysis among retrovirus-induced leukemia cell lines. In the previously (16) and the above-described (Fig. 1A) experiments, the FV-induced leukemia line Y57-2C cells were almost as resistant to NK-mediated killing as EL-4 lymphoma cells were, while F-MuLV-

induced FBL-3 leukemia cells were killed almost as efficiently as positive control YAC-1 cells by NK cells purified from FV-infected mice at around PID 8. The above different susceptibilities to NK killing between FBL-3 and Y57-2C cells were observed regardless of the days after FV infection and whether FV stocks used were contaminated with LDV (16) or not (Fig. 1A), indicating that the differences in NK susceptibility were determined mainly by the intrinsic nature of each target cell line, not by the possibly different activation statuses or subsets of the effector cells.

We therefore analyzed the expression of various ligand molecules that are recognized by inhibitory and activating NK receptors: RAE-1 family proteins, the product of the murine ULBP-like transcript-1 (MULT1) gene, and H60 molecules, all of which interact with the major activating NK receptor NKG2D; and MHC class Ib Qa-1 molecules, encoded by the *H2-T23* locus, that are recognized by both inhibitory NKG2A/ CD94 and activating NKG2C/CD94 and NKG2E/CD94 receptor complexes (30, 49). As mouse genes encoding RAE-1 molecules (*Raet1*) are polymorphic and B6 mice express the RAE-1δ and -1ε isoforms while other strains, such as BALB/c and NOD, express RAE-1 α , -1 β , and -1 γ (22, 30), we utilized the anti-Pan–RAE-1 Ab that reacted with all 5 isoforms.

NK-susceptible YAC-1 and FBL-3 cells both expressed RAE-1 molecules on their surfaces at high levels, while NKresistant Y57-2C and EL-4 cells lacked the expression of RAE-1 (Fig. 2A). In addition, the most highly NK-susceptible YAC-1 cells expressed other NKG2D ligands, MULT1 and H60, while only low-level expression of MULT1, but not H60, was detectable on FBL-3 cells. As YAC-1 cells were established from an A/Sn mouse and FBL-3 from a B6 mouse, the above results are consistent with the fact that B6 mice lack the expression of H60 (22). All three cell lines (FBL-3, Y57-2C, and EL-4) established from an $H2^b$ -possessing strain of mice constitutively expressed the product of the *H2-T23d* (*Qa-1b*) allele, while YAC-1 cells homozygous for the $H2^a$ haplotype lacked the expression of $Qa-1^b$.

As the expression of RAE-1 family molecules, as well as Qa-1, is inducible and *Raet1* genes are induced by IFN- γ (8), which plays a crucial role in immune protection against FV infection (7, 31, 32, 42), we also examined the possible changes in the expression levels of genes encoding these ligands after IFN- γ stimulation. As predicted, only the F-MuLV-infected leukemia cells, FBL-3 and Y57-2C, expressed transcripts from the viral *env* gene, and their expression levels were markedly enhanced after stimulation with IFN- γ (Fig. 2B). Stimulation

of the two NK-susceptible lines of cells with $IFN-\gamma$ resulted in a rapid rise in the levels of the *Raet1* messages; however, no significant expression of the *Raet1* messages was detected in Y57-2C and EL-4 cells even after IFN- γ stimulation, confirming the lack of expression of RAE-1 in these NK-resistant cell lines. The expression levels of the *Qa-1^b* allele in FBL-3 and Y57-2C cells increased after IFN- γ stimulation, as has been reported previously (14), but YAC-1 cells again lacked the expression of the $Qa-1^b$ message.

NK killing of FBL-3 target cells was mediated via the NKG2D receptor. To directly assess the above-indicated putative correlation between the expression of NKG2D ligand RAE-1 molecules and susceptibility to killing by NK cells, two monoclonal Abs that block the interaction between NKG2D and its ligands (13, 29) were added separately to the wells of killing assays. The lysis of FBL-3 target cells by NK cells purified from FV-infected $CB6F_1$ mice was abrogated to the levels of that against NK-resistant EL-4 cells by the addition of either of the blocking Abs in repeated experiments (Fig. 2C). The killing of YAC-1 cells was also blocked, at least partially, by the anti-NKG2D Ab, but significant lytic activities were detectable at higher effector-to-target ratios even in the presence of the anti-NKG2D Ab, consistent with the previous finding that YAC-1 cells are killed by NK cells through both NKG2D-dependent and -independent signaling pathways (17). Thus, the results shown in Fig. 1A and 2 collectively indicate that NK cells purified from FV-infected $CB6F₁$ mice recognize F-MuLV-induced FBL-3 target cells mainly through the NKG2D–RAE-1 interactions.

Expansion of NKG2D⁺ cells and induction of NKG2D li**gand expression on infected erythroid progenitor cells in the spleens of FV-inoculated mice.** We next examined the possible changes in percentages and absolute numbers of NKG2D cells in the spleens of FV-infected mice. Since NKG2D is known to be expressed by NK as well as a population of CD8 effector cells (17), the percentages of $NKG2D⁺$ cells among $CD8⁺$ T cells were also analyzed. The percentages of $CD3⁺$ $CD8⁺$ T cells in the spleen significantly decreased by 12 days after FV infection (Fig. 1B); however, as total numbers of spleen cells increased following FV infection, absolute numbers of $CD3^+$ $CD8^+$ T cells did not change significantly during the 12-day period of acute FV infection. On the other hand, absolute numbers of $DX5^+$ NKG2D⁺ cells started to increase by PID 8 and became significantly higher than those prior to infection at PID 12. Thus, NK cells expanded upon FV infection. Interestingly, significant percentages and numbers of

FIG. 2. Correlation between the expression of different NK receptor ligands and susceptibility to NK killing of 4 different cell lines. (A) Cell surface expression of NK receptor ligands and F-MuLV gp70 on the 4 lines of cells were analyzed by flow cytometry. Shown here are histograms, with each horizontal axis showing fluorescence intensity observed with the indicated Ab. Dotted lines indicate reactivity of isotype control Ab. (B) Real-time PCR quantification of the expression levels of NK receptor ligand genes. Indicated cells were cultured in the presence of 5 U/ml IFN- , and total RNA was extracted at the indicated time points after the stimulation. Specificity of each of the primer sets was confirmed by separate plasmid cloning and sequencing of the amplified DNA fragments. The levels of expression of each tested gene are shown by $2^{-\Delta CT}$ values by using *GAPDH* as a normalizer. Results shown here are mean \pm SEM calculated with data from 2 or 4 reaction wells for each sample dilution. The experiments were repeated 4 times with essentially the same results. (C) Blocking of NK-mediated killing by the anti-NKG2D Ab. Effector NK cells were purified from CB6F₁ mice at 8 days after inoculation with FV and confirmed to be $>85\%$ positive for both NK-1.1 and DX5. Blocking CX5 (top) or C7 (bottom) Ab (filled symbols) and each corresponding isotype control Ab (open symbols) were added at a final concentration of 30 μ /ml according to the previous report (13). The optimality of the above working concentration was confirmed in preliminary experiments. Each data point here represents a mean calculated from quadruplicated wells, with the SEM being <10% of the average throughout the present study. The blocking experiments were repeated 4 times with each Ab and showed essentially the same results.

 $DX5^+$ NKG2D⁺ NK cells were present in the spleens of $CB6F₁$ mice even before FV infection, consistent with the high baseline NK activities detectable in $CB6F_1$ mice (Fig. 1A). The proportion of $NKG2D^+$ cells among $CD8^+$ T cells remained low until PID 8, but the absolute numbers of NKG2D⁺ $CD8$ ⁺ cells abruptly increased by PID 12.

As to the expression of NKG2D ligands on FV-infected cells *in vivo*, flow cytometric analyses revealed increased expression of RAE-1 and MULT1, but not H60, on the surfaces of $gp70^+$ and TER-119^{$+$} erythroid progenitor cells in the spleens of FV-infected $CB6F_1$ mice (Fig. 3A). As shown in Fig. 3A, $gp70⁺$ cells were only slightly increased in the spleen until PID 8. Nevertheless, $>1/5$ of the gp70⁺ cells expressed RAE-1 above the level of the demarcation line, while a large majority of gp70⁻ cells were also negative for RAE-1. By PID 12, gp70⁺ populations increased drastically, and a significant proportion of them expressed RAE-1 above the level of the demarcation line. At the same time point, three distinctive populations of $gp70⁺$ cells with undetectable levels of TER-119 expression (TER-119⁻ gp70⁺ cells), low levels of TER-119 and high gp70 expression (TER-119^{Lo} gp70^{Hi} cells, purple dots, Fig. 3A), and TER-119^{Hi} gp70⁺ erythroblasts (red dots, Fig. 3A) appeared in the spleen. Based on a previous report (50), these three populations of $gp70⁺$ cells most likely represent distinctive stages of erythroid cell differentiation from FV-infected progenitor cells, including primitive erythroid progenitor cells and proerythroblasts (TER-119⁻), proerythroblasts and early basophilic erythroblasts (TER-119^{Lo}), and maturing benzidinepositive erythroblasts (TER-119^{Hi}). Importantly, the TER-119Lo population that showed higher levels of gp70 expression than the two other populations also showed higher levels of RAE-1 and MULT1 expression on their surfaces, but their levels of H60 expression were below the detection limit (Fig. 3A).

When mean fluorescence intensities were compared between different populations of spleen cells, the average levels of RAE-1 expression on the surfaces of $gp70^+$ cells were significantly higher than those on $gp70^-$ cells in CB6F₁ mice at all time points tested (Fig. 4). Further, TER-119^{Lo} proerythroblasts and early basophilic erythroblasts expressed significantly higher levels of RAE-1 on their surfaces than $TER-119$ ⁻ cells at PID 12, indicating that FV-infected erythroid cells can become susceptible to NK killing due to RAE-1 upregulation.

Decreased MHC class I and class Ib antigen expression on terminally differentiating erythroid cells. The target-killing activities of NK cells are regulated not only by the above positive signals but also by negative signals generated by receptors binding to MHC molecules, and the MHC class Ib Qa-1^b molecule is a strong inhibitor of NK activities in mice (49). Thus, FV-infected erythroid cells might also become susceptible to NK killing due to their possibly reduced expression of class I and/or class Ib molecules. As shown in Fig. 3B, the TER-119⁻ population of spleen cells retained high levels of MHC class I K^b and lower levels of D^b molecules, as well as class Ib Qa-1^b, on their surfaces until PID 12; however, decreased expression of Qa-1^b, as well as K^b and D^b , was discernible in a small population of TER-119⁺ erythroid cells at PID 4 and 8 (data not shown). At PID 12, TER-119^{Hi} terminally differentiating erythroid cells (Fig. 3B, pink dots) showed markedly diminished expression of the class I molecules, and

 $Qa-1^b$ expression on the majority of TER-119^{Hi} cells became barely detectable. It is notable, however, that the TER-119Lo cells that showed increased expression of RAE-1 (Fig. 3A) retained unchanged levels of class I and $Qa-1^b$ expression, and the lack of $Qa-1^b$ expression was observed only with the TER-119Hi population. As levels of RAE-1 and MULT1 expression, as well as those of viral gp70, on the surfaces of TER-119Hi cells were also reduced in comparison with those on TER- 119^{Lo} cells at PID 12 (Fig. 3A), these observations may reflect the global downregulation of gene expression in terminally differentiating erythroid cells $(33, 40)$. Thus, $gp70^{Hi} TER-$ 119Lo erythroblasts that are massively increased in the spleen by PID 12 express higher levels of RAE-1 and MULT1 but retain the expression of Qa-1^b.

In vivo **role of NKG2D–RAE-1 interactions in controlling early expansion of FV-infected cells and the development of virus-induced pathologies.** Although the above experiments have shown significant expansion of $NKG2D⁺ NK$ cells and increased expression of RAE-1 proteins on infected erythroid cells upon FV inoculation, the sufficiency of the levels of RAE-1 expression induced in TER-119^{Lo} erythroid cells to evoke NK-mediated killing in the presence of $Qa-1^b$ can be questioned. In this regard, the Ab-mediated depletion of NK cells from mice immunized with a single-epitope peptide vaccine totally abrogated the protective efficacy of Th cell priming, and NK-depleted mice died as rapidly as unimmunized control mice after FV infection in the previous experiments (16). However, the possible physiological role of NK cells in regulating the early proliferation of FV-infected erythroid cells in unimmunized mice of a susceptible strain has not been analyzed. To address this, we administered anti-asialoGM1 Ab to unimmunized CB6F₁ mice and reduced the percentages of $DX5^+$ NK- $1.1⁺$ NK cells in the spleen to \leq 1.2 through PID 4 to 12. In the above NK-depleted mice, the number of FV infectious centers in the spleen drastically increased at as early as PID 6 (Fig. 5A), indicating that NK cells are actually restricting early expansion of FV-infected cells in the spleen. The percentages of $gp70⁺$ cells in the spleen at 6 days after FV infection also increased significantly in the NK-depleted mice and became 3 times higher than those in the control mice infected without NK depletion (Fig. 5B). As $CB6F_1$ mice are highly susceptible to FV-induced disease development, the percentages of $gp70⁺$ cells in the spleen increased toward PID 12 in both groups; however, the proportions of $gp70⁺$ cells further increased in the absence of asialoGM1⁺ cells in comparison with those in the control animals given unimmunized sera. Importantly, NK cell depletion also affected the survival of FV-infected mice: when inoculated with a slightly reduced dose of 50 SFFU, highly susceptible $CB6F_1$ mice still developed the fatal disease and most died by 60 days after FV infection, while NK-depleted $CB6F₁$ mice died significantly more rapidly, with an average survival period that was 9 days shorter than that of the control mice (Fig. 5C). These results indicate that NK cells are not only involved in confining the early expansion of FV-infected erythroid cells, but are contributing to natural resistance to FV-induced disease development in unimmunized animals.

Although the administration of anti-asialoGM1 Ab did not affect $CD4^+$ and $CD8^+$ T-cell numbers and their functionalities in the previous experiments (16), it is possible that FVreactive T cells, along with NK cells, might have been affected

FIG. 3. Representative dot plots showing the expression of NK receptor ligand proteins (A) and MHC class I and class Ib molecules (B) on the surfaces of spleen cells in FV-infected $CB6F_1$ mice. $CB6F_1$ mice were inoculated with 150 SFFU FV, and at least 4 mice were killed at PID 4, 8, and 12 to remove the spleen. Multicolor flow cytometric analyses were performed with each indicated Ab. Uninfected mice were similarly analyzed as controls. Mature erythrocytes and dead cells were excluded by setting a polygonal gate in the dot plots showing intensities of forward scatter and the fluorescence for 7-aminoactinomycin D. Demarcation lines were set based on the fluorescence levels observed by incubating the cells with isotype control Ab. Data on PID 4 are omitted from this figure, as they are essentially similar to those on PID 8, except that $gp70^+$ populations are much smaller. In the middle and right panels of the second row of dot plots in panel A, the number in each quadrant represents the percentage of cells that expressed the indicated markers above or below the level of the corresponding demarcation line. Patterns observed with all 4 mice at each time point were consistent with those shown here. In panel A, purple dots, TER-119Lo gp70^{Hi} cells; red dots, TER-119^{Hi} gp70⁺ erythroblasts. In panel B, red dots, TER-119^{Lo} gp70^{Hi} cells; pink dots, TER-119^{Hi} gp70⁺ erythroblasts.

FIG. 4. Different levels of RAE-1 expression between viral gp70-positive and -negative spleen cells in mice infected with FV. CB6F₁ mice were inoculated with 150 SFFU of LDV-free FV, and multicolor flow cytometric analyses were performed on nucleated cells as described for Fig. 3. Representative dot plots and histograms on the left show different levels of RAE-1 expression on pairs of $gp70^-$ and $gp70^+$ or TER-119⁻ and TER-119^{Lo} populations at PID 12. TER-119⁻ and TER-119^{Lo} populations are those shown with black and purple dots, respectively, in Fig. 3A. Changes in averages of geometric mean fluorescence intensity (GMFI) for RAE-1 among $gp70^-$ and $gp70^+$ cells after FV infection are shown in the middle panel. GMFI were calculated by using the region statistics function of the CellQuest software. Each datum shown here is the mean \pm SEM. calculated with GMFI data obtained from 4 mice. Differences between $gp70^+$ and $gp70^-$ populations were examined by two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni *post hoc* tests: *, $P < 0.05$; \dagger , $P < 0.01$; **, $P < 0.001$. The right panel shows averages of GMFI for RAE-1 compared between the TER-119⁻ and TER-119^{Lo} populations at PID 12. Each bar shows mean \pm SEM calculated with GMFI data obtained from 4 or 5 mice. *, $P < 0.02$, by paired *t* test.

by the Ab injections in the above depletion experiments, as activated T cells are known to express asialoGM1 in some viral infections (41). To further demonstrate the direct involvement of the RAE-1 ligand and NKG2D receptor in confining the early expansion of FV-infected cells, blocking Abs were administered to infected $CB6F_1$ mice. The numbers of FV-producing cells in the spleen significantly increased in the animals that were given either NKG2D- or RAE-1-blocking Ab in comparison with those in the control mice (Fig. 5A and D). Further, in the presence of the RAE-1-blocking Ab, FV-infected $CB6F_1$ mice showed significantly larger spleen sizes than control mice (Fig. 5E), confirming that FV-infected erythroid progenitor cells are recognized and their expansion is regulated through NKG2D–RAE-1 interactions *in vivo*. As the effects of the NKG2D or RAE-1 blockade were observed at as early as PID 6, prior to the expansion of $NKG2D^+$ CD8⁺ T cells (Fig. 1B), it is most likely that mainly $NKG2D⁺ NK$ cells were responsible for the above early confinement of FV-induced erythroid cell proliferation.

Increased expression of RAE-1 depends on retroviral replication rather than on erythroid cell proliferation. As the FV complex induces massive proliferation and terminal differentiation of erythroid progenitor cells in mice possessing the *Fv2s* allele, the above-described increase in RAE-1 expression on TER-119^{Lo} cells may depend on the specific differentiation stage (proerythroblasts and early basophilic erythroblasts) or activated status of red cell precursors, rather than on FV infection. To examine this, we first induced an increased erythropoiesis by administering phenylhydrazine (PHZ) instead of FV infection. After administration of PHZ, both the TER-119^{Lo} and TER-119^{Hi} populations became discernible in the spleens of $CB6F_1$ mice; however, neither population in PHZtreated mice showed increased expression of RAE-1, unlike the gp70⁺ TER-119^{Lo} population in FV-infected mice (Fig. 6A). Similar results were also obtained for MULT1. Thus, the

increase in RAE-1 and MULT1 expression on the TER-119^{Lo} population was likely caused by FV infection, not by induced erythropoiesis.

To further elucidate putative relationships between FV replication and RAE-1 expression on target cells of FV infection, mice deficient of either of the FV resistance factors APOBEC3 and BAFF-R, which show markedly enhanced FV replication and exaggerated pathology (46, 47), were examined. Mice of the $Fv2^{r/r}$ background were utilized so that the effects of FV replication on RAE-1 expression could be further separated from those of SFFV-induced erythroid cell proliferation. Both APOBEC3- and BAFF-R-deficient mice showed markedly increased numbers of gp70-expressing cells in the spleen in comparison with those in the wild-type (WT) animals (Fig. 6B). Importantly, RAE-1-positive cells increased in association with the increased numbers of $gp70⁺$ cells in APOBEC3- and BAFF-R-deficient animals. In APOBEC3-deficient mice, most of the gp70⁺ cells were TER-119⁺ and B220⁻, and these cells showed increased expression of RAE-1 proteins on their surfaces (Fig. 6B, arrows). In mice deficient of BAFF-R, even larger numbers of both TER-119 $^+$ (Fig. 6B, orange dots) and TER-119 $^-$ cells (Fig. 6B, red dots) were infected with FV, and these gp70⁺ cells expressed higher levels of RAE-1 than gp70⁻ cells. Interestingly, in FV-infected $BAFF-R^{-/-}$ mice a significant proportion of $B220⁺$ B lymphocytes were also infected with FV, and they expressed higher levels of RAE-1 than uninfected B cells (Fig. 6B, blue dots).

As SFFV-induced growth potentiation of erythroid cells is limited in the above-described *Fv2r* B6-background mice and as $gp70⁺$ B cells, as well as erythroid cells, expressed higher levels of RAE-1 proteins than $gp70^-$ cells, the above results suggested that the replication of F-MuLV alone in the absence of SFFV might induce increased RAE-1 expression on target cells. Thus, we next infected the same gene-targeted animals with an infectious molecular clone of F-MuLV. In APOBEC3-

and the development of FV-induced pathologies. (A) CB6F₁ mice were injected with either the anti-asialoGM1 or the blocking anti-NKG2D Ab and inoculated with 150 SFFU of FV. Control mice were injected with a mixture of normal rabbit and normal rat sera (control sera), and similarly infected. F-MuLV infectious centers in the spleen were enumerated by fluorescent focus assays as described previously (19, 44–47). Each symbol represents a datum from an individual mouse. As the anti-asialoGM1 and anti-NKG2D Ab-injected groups were compared with the common control group given the mixture of unimmunized sera, Bonferroni's correction was performed for multiple comparisons: \dot{x} , $P = 0.0028 < \alpha(0.05)$ $0.0253; \frac{1}{3}$, $P < 0.0005 < \alpha(0.05) = 0.0253$ by Welch's *t* test. (B) CB6F₁ mice were injected with the anti-asialoGM1 Ab as described previously (16) and inoculated with 150 SFFU of FV. Percentages of NK cells expressing both DX5 and NK-1.1 markers among spleen cells were monitored by multicolor flow cytometry as shown in Fig. 1, inset, and percentages of $gp70⁺$ cells were determined by the specific binding of Ab 720 at the indicated time points. Data shown here are mean \pm SEM calculated with values obtained from 5 to 12 animals per group at each time point. Comparisons were made between the anti-asialoGM1-treated and control groups: *, $P < 0.03$; $\ddot{\uparrow}$, $P < 0.005$ by Welch's *t* test. (C) Survival of anti-asialoGM1-treated animals ($n = 6$) after FV infection compared with that of control mice given normal rabbit serum ($n = 6$). As CB6F₁ mice are highly susceptible to FV and most died within 60 days after inoculation with as low as 15 SFFU in a previous experiment (16), a slightly lower dose of 50 SFFU was selected here in an attempt to detect the possibly increased susceptibility in NK-depleted mice. Two survival curves were compared by Mantel-Cox log-rank test: $P = 0.026$. (D and E) Groups of CB6F₁ mice were injected with either the RAE-1-bloking Ab (49) or control rat IgG and inoculated with 150 (D) or 50 SFFU (E) of FV. Spleen infectious centers were enumerated at PID 6 as described previously (19, 44–47), separate groups were killed at PID 13, and their spleen weights measured. The slightly reduced dose was utilized for the experiment shown in panel E, for the sake of consistency with the survival experiment described in the legend to panel C. Each symbol represents a datum from an individual mouse. \dagger , $P < 0.0005$ by Welch's t test; **, $P = 0.0028$ by Student's t test.

deficient mice, a large proportion of $TER-119⁺$ cells were infected and expressed gp70; however, unlike the TER-119⁺ $gp70⁺$ cells in the same gene-targeted mice infected with FV complex, these cells showed only a slight increase in RAE-1 expression (Fig. 7A, arrows). Similar effects of the absence of the SFFV component on the expression of RAE-1 in erythroid cells were more evidently observed with BAFF-R-deficient mice: $TER-119⁺$ cells were infected with F-MuLV and expressed gp70, but unlike the same population of erythroid cells in FV-infected mice, these cells did not show a marked increase in the expression of RAE-1 proteins on their surfaces (Fig. 7A, orange dots). On the other hand, $B220⁺$ B cells in F-MuLV-infected $BAFF-R^{-/-}$ mice (Fig. 7A, blue dots) showed increased expression of RAE-1 as observed upon FV infection.

To further confirm the above differences in RAE-1 expression levels between erythroid cells and B lymphocytes upon FV and F-MuLV infections, TER-119⁺ and B220⁺ cells were gated and their expression levels of RAE-1 proteins were compared between $gp70^+$ and $gp70^-$ populations. When infected with the FV complex, the $gp70⁺$ populations of both TER- $119⁺$ and B220⁺ cells expressed significantly higher levels of RAE-1 than the corresponding $gp70^-$ cells in both APOBEC3and BAFF-R-deficient animals (Fig. 7B). The average levels of

RAE-1 expression on gp70⁺ cells were 2.69 \pm 0.12 and 3.28 \pm 0.26 times higher than those on $gp70^-$ cells among TER-119⁺ and $B220⁺$ cell populations, respectively, in FV-infected BAFF-R-deficient mice. On the other hand, although levels of RAE-1 expression between $gp70^+$ and $gp70^-$ populations were significantly different, $gp70^+$ cells among TER-119⁺ erythroid cells in F-MuLV-infected BAFF-R-deficient mice expressed on their surfaces a level of RAE-1 proteins only 1.47 \pm 0.06 times higher than that of $gp70^-$ cells, while RAE-1 expression in the gp70⁺ population of B220⁺ B lymphocytes became even higher than that observed with FV-infected mice. In fact, the average level of RAE-1 expression on $gp70⁺$ cells among B220⁺ cells was 4.54 ± 0.13 times higher than that on $gp70^-$ cells. Thus, these results indicate that SFFV is required for highly increased expression of RAE-1 on TER-119⁺ erythroid cells, while replication of F-MuLV alone induces increased RAE-1 expression in B220⁺ B cells.

DISCUSSION

As we have shown here, $NKG2D⁺ NK$ cells expanded in the spleen and the levels of RAE-1 expression became preferentially higher on the surfaces of viral gp70-expressing cells in FV-infected mice. Although we have not tested all known

FIG. 6. RAE-1 expression on erythroid progenitor cells is induced by FV infection, not by erythropoiesis. (A) Representative dot plots showing the expression of NK receptor ligand proteins on the surfaces of nucleated spleen cells in phenylhydrazine-treated $CB6F_1$ mice. $CB6F₁$ mice were either injected with 1.2 mg/mouse PHZ on days 0 and 1 or inoculated with 150 SFFU FV on day 0, and at least 4 mice were killed on day 5 or day 12, respectively, to remove the spleen. Multicolor flow cytometric analyses were performed on nucleated cells with each indicated Ab. Demarcation lines were set based on the fluorescence levels observed by incubating the cells with isotype control Ab. Patterns observed with all 4 mice for each experimental group were consistent with those shown here. (B) Representative dot plots showing the expression of viral gp70, RAE-1, erythroid marker TER-119, and B-cell marker B220 on the surfaces of nucleated spleen cells in FV-infected B6 mice lacking an FV-resistance factor. As *Fv2r/r* mice were utilized, they were infected with 5×10^4 SFFU of FV complex, and 4 to 5 mice for each group were killed to remove the spleen. Flow cytometric analyses were performed as described in the legend to Fig. 3. Representative data obtained at PID 10 are shown here. In panel A, red dots, TER-119^{Lo} gp70^{Hi} cells. In panel B, red dots, TER-119⁻ $gp70^+$ cells; orange dots, TER-119⁺ $gp70^+$ cells; purple dots, B220⁻ g p70⁺ cells; blue dots, B220⁺ gp70⁺ cells in FV-infected *BAFF-R^{-/-}* mice.

ligands for NK cell receptors, the nearly complete abrogation of the killing activities against F-MuLV-induced FBL-3 target cells exerted by $DX5^+$ cells purified from FV-infected CB6F₁ mice *in vitro* and the significant increase in the number of FV infectious centers *in vivo* in the presence of the NKG2D-blocking Ab clearly indicate that the NKG2D receptor is involved primarily in the recognition and elimination of infected erythroid cells in FV-inoculated animals. Further, although the levels of induction of RAE-1 proteins on the surfaces of $gp70^+$ erythroid cells were relatively low, as detectable by flow cytometry with the currently utilized Ab, and the same $gp70^+$ TER- 119^{Lo} cells retained Qa-1^b molecules on their surfaces, the induced RAE-1 proteins are apparently sufficient to induce the elimination of FV-infected erythroid cells *in vivo*, as the administration of the RAE-1-blocking Ab resulted in significantly increased numbers of infectious centers and more pronounced splenomegaly after FV inoculation. In this regard, FBL-3 cells were killed efficiently by purified NK cells despite their expression of Qa-1^b on the surfaces. Thus, NKG2D–RAE-1 interactions are involved in the elimination of virus-infected cells in the early stages of FV infection *in vivo*. These results are consistent with the previous finding that overexpression of VEGF-A paradoxically resulted in delayed development of FV-induced leukemia, probably due partly to enhanced NK cell activities in the transgenic mice (4).

The mechanisms by which FV infection upregulates the expression of RAE-1 molecules in erythroid progenitor cells and B lymphocytes are currently unknown. Several cytokines, including IFN- , have been shown to upregulate the expression of these retinoid-inducible genes (8, 49), and we have demonstrated in the present study that IFN- γ augments the expression of *Raet1* genes in F-MuLV-induced leukemia cells. As the production of IFN- γ in the spleens of FV-infected mice has been detected at as early as 5 days after virus inoculation (31), the induction of *Raet1* gene expression in FV-infected cells might be mediated by IFN- γ . However, as higher levels of RAE-1 proteins were expressed preferentially on $gp70^+$ cells, it is unlikely that cytokine-mediated induction, which should work on both FV-infected and uninfected cells in the spleen, is responsible mainly for the increased levels of RAE-1 protein expression on FV-infected cells. The lack of increased RAE-1 expression on TER-119^{Lo} cells in PHZ-injected mice also indicates the presence of a virus-specific, rather than a differentiation- or growth-associated, mechanism of RAE-1 induction. In this regard, infection of mouse primary B lymphocytes with highly leukemogenic Abelson MuLV induces the expression of activation-induced cytidine deaminase (AID), and the genotoxic action of AID leads to upregulation of NKG2D ligands on infected cell surfaces (11). HIV-1 Vpr is also known to upregulate the expression of NKG2D ligands on cell surfaces (35), and the above Vpr-induced upregulation of NKG2D ligand expression has been shown to be mediated through the DNA damage response (48). Thus, it is tempting to speculate that repeated proviral integrations into the erythroid progenitor cells that are facilitated in the presence of SFFV-induced growth potentiation may cause DNA damage and the resultant upregulation of RAE-1 expression in FV-infected erythroid cells.

Taking advantage of known FV-resistant host factors (5, 12, 25, 27, 46, 47), we successfully dissected here the effect of A

FIG. 7. RAE-1 expression on spleen cells upon infection with F-MuLV alone. (A) Representative dot plots showing the expression of viral gp70, RAE-1 proteins, TER-119, and B220 on the surfaces of nucleated spleen cells in F-MuLV-infected B6 mice lacking an FV resistance factor. Mice were infected with 5×10^4 fluorescent focus units of F-MuLV (FB-29), and 4 or 5 mice for each group were killed to remove the spleen. Flow cytometric analyses were performed as described for Fig. 3. Representative data obtained at PID 10 are shown here. Arrows, slight increase in RAE-1 expression on the surfaces of TER-119⁺ gp70⁺ cells in F-MuLV-infected *APOBEC3^{-/-}* mice. Red dots, TER-119⁻ gp70⁺ cells; orange dots, TER-119⁺ gp70⁺ cells; purple dots, B220⁻ gp70⁺ cells; blue dots, B220⁺ gp70⁺ cells in F-MuLV-infected *BAFF-R^{-/ *}* mice. (B) Representative histograms on the left show different levels of RAE-1 expression on $gp70^-$ and $gp70^+$ populations of TER-119⁺ erythroid and B220⁺ B cells. Averages of GMFI for RAE-1 compared between the gp70⁻ and gp70⁺ populations of TER-119⁺ erythroid cells and B220⁺ B lymphocytes are shown on the right. Each bar shows mean \pm SEM calculated with GMFI data obtained from 4 or 5 mice. $P < 0.02$; $*$, $P < 0.004$ by paired *t* test.

SFFV-induced erythroid cell growth potentiation from that of FV replication on RAE-1 induction in target cells. In fact, FV infection in the absence of massive erythroid cell proliferation still resulted in highly increased RAE-1 expression on TER-

 $119⁺$ erythroid cells in $Fv2^r$ B6 mice lacking either APOBEC3 or BAFF-R. Highly increased expression of RAE-1 on infected erythroid as well as B cells in the gene-targeted B6 mice indicates a close correlation between high levels of retroviral replication and induction of RAE-1 expression on target cells. It should be noted, however, that although B cells expressed similarly increased levels of RAE-1 proteins upon infection with FV complex or with F-MuLV alone, levels of RAE-1 induction on erythroid cells became much higher in the presence of the SFFV component. Thus, in the above conditions of nonrestricted retroviral replication, F-MuLV alone can induce RAE-1 expression in B cells, while SFFV is also required for the induction of high levels of RAE-1 in erythroid cells. In fact, SFFV-induced growth potentiation of infected erythroid cells in the $Fv2^s$ -possessing CB6F₁ mice further enhanced RAE-1 expression on gp70⁺ erythroblasts, as RAE-1 levels on gp70⁺ cells in $CB6F_1$ mice were apparently higher than those in the gene-targeted B6 mice (compare fluorescence intensities between Fig. 4 and 7). Nevertheless, the above cell type-associated differences in RAE-1 expression in F-MuLV-infected B6 mice may facilitate further dissection of viral and cellular factors that are involved in retrovirus-induced RAE-1 upregulation.

In the present study, we observed a lag in the increase of TER-119⁺ erythroblasts until PID 8, followed by an abrupt and massive increase of $gp70⁺$ cells in the spleen by PID 12. An abrupt increase in the number of $TER-119⁺$ cells in the spleen starting around PID 8 has repeatedly been observed with $Fv2^s$ -possessing mice (16, 19, 26), which is consistent with a recent finding of two distinctive populations of target cells for FV infection (43). Thus, one population expresses the shortform STK and generates erythropoietin-independent erythroid burst-forming units (BFU-E) in the bone marrow soon after FV infection, while cells of the other population migrate into the spleen as infectious centers, interact with the stromal cells to express bone morphogenic protein 4, and cause the expansion of stress BFU-E. It is tempting to speculate that the cells expressing increased levels of RAE-1 and MULT1 are FVinfected stress BFU-E and that they are susceptible to NK killing. As the depletion of NK cells or the blockade of either NKG2D or RAE-1 resulted in significantly increased FV infectious centers in the spleen at as early as PID 6, followed by significantly more pronounced splenomegaly and earlier death, it is also possible that NK cells are restricting the migration of $CD31⁺$ Kit⁺ CD41⁺ Sca1⁻ Lin⁻ infectious center cells into the spleen. In fact, immunization of mice with the gp70-derived Th-cell epitope suppressed the above abrupt expansion of TER-119 $^+$ cells in the spleen that otherwise started from PID 8 (16, 19, and 26), and this vaccine effect was abrogated by depletion of NK cells (16), indicating that Th cell-mediated activation of NK cells may have suppressed the migration of FV infectious centers from bone marrow. Thus, this model may also shed light on basic mechanisms through which the migration of committed erythroid progenitor cells from bone marrow to the spleen might be regulated by NK cell functions.

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