Differential Effects of Cytolytic T Cell Subsets on Intracellular Infection

Steffen Stenger; Richard J. Mazzaccaro; Koichi Uyemura; Sungae Cho; Peter F. Barnes; Jean-Pierre Rosat; Alessandro Sette; Michael B. Brenner; Steven A. Porcelli; Barry R. Bloom; Robert L. Modlin


Stable URL: http://links.jstor.org/sici?sici=0036-8075%2819970613%293%3A276%3A5319%3C1684%3ADEOCTC%3E2.0.CO%3B2-8

*Science* is currently published by American Association for the Advancement of Science.
ICl and eject an I atom back to the gas phase (Cl-selective abstraction) despite the much larger exothermicity for the formation of Si–Cl(s) + I than Si–I(s) + Cl.

The reorientation by the surface would also explain the higher abstraction ratio for ICI over that for Br2. An end-on geometry has been calculated to favor abstraction over dissociation for halogens on semiconductor and metal surfaces because this geometry places the terminal halogen far from the surface in an optimal position for abstraction (2, 11). Although molecules in the molecular beam usually have a nearly side-on or tilted orientation, reorientation by the surface should place a large fraction of the ICI into an end-on geometry and thus increase abstraction.

We propose that the orientation of ICI into I-end–first configuration results from the higher polarizability of I compared to Cl and the asymmetric molecular bonding associated with ICI. Because Cl is much more electronegative than I, the bonding πv and πsπ orbitals predominantly consist of Cl 3p orbitals, whereas the antibonding σ*, σv, and πsπ orbitals predominantly consist of I 5p orbitals. The highest occupied molecular orbital (HOMO) is mainly concentrated at the I atom of an ICI molecule; thus, the I end is both more polarizable and more reactive than the Cl end. This difference was confirmed by Hartree-Fock molecular orbital calculations made using the SpartanPlus program (12) which show that the effective radius of the π*-orbital wave function is 70% greater on the I atom than on the Cl atom. Conversely, there is only 10% difference in the effective radius of the probability density of the entire valence shell between the I and the Cl atoms. Therefore, we suggest that when an ICI molecule approaches a Si adatom on the Si(111)-(7×7) surface, the interaction of an ICI πsπ antibond (HOMO) with the partially filled Si dangling bond results in greater attraction to the I end than to the Cl end of the ICI molecule. This selection is the driving force for the I-end–first orientation of ICI before reaction and ultimately causes chemical selectivity for the reaction of ICI with the Si(111)-(7×7) surface. This same molecular-orbital argument was used to explain the chemical selectivity of the D + ICI → DI + Cl gas-phase reaction (1). Reorientation of NO (13) by Ag(111) or Pt(111) and of H2 by W(100) (14) or Pd(100) (15) is denoted as rotational steering and has been observed in theoretical simulations. Therefore, the reorientation of molecules by surfaces may be a general phenomenon and is probably the dynamic mechanism responsible for this example of atomically selective chemisorption, the selective abstraction of I from ICI by Si(111)-(7×7).

REFERENCES AND NOTES
16. We thank NSF (grant DMR-9307259) and the U.S. Air Force Office of Scientific Research (grant 94-10075) for funding this work, A. Korovlev and K. Pettke for helpful assistance in the experiments, and P. Taylor of the Univ. of California at San Diego Supercomputer Center for performing the molecular orbital calculations.

19 February 1997; accepted 11 April 1997

Differential Effects of Cytolytic T Cell Subsets on Intracellular Infection

Steffen Stenger, Richard J. Mazzaccaro, Koichi Uyemura, Sungae Cho, Peter F. Barnes, Jean-Pierre Rosat, Alessandro Sette, Michael B. Brenner, Steven A. Porcelli, Barry R. Bloom, Robert L. Modlin*

In analyzing mechanisms of protection against intracellular infections, a series of human CD1-restricted T cell lines of two distinct phenotypes were derived. Both CD4+ CD8– (double-negative) T cells and CD8+ T cells efficiently lysed macrophages infected with Mycobacterium tuberculosis. The cytotoxicity of CD4+ CD8– T cells was mediated by Fas-FasL interaction and had no effect on the viability of the mycobacteria. The CD8+ T cells lysed infected macrophages by a Fas-independent, granule-dependent mechanism that resulted in killing of bacteria. These data indicate that two phenotypically distinct subsets of human cytolytic T lymphocytes use different mechanisms to kill infected cells and contribute in different ways to host defense against intracellular infection.

Effective immunity to intracellular bacterial infection often requires the lysis of infected cells as well as killing of the invading pathogen. A possible role for cytolytic T lymphocytes (CTLs) in protection against M. tuberculosis has been suggested by experiments in mice bearing a disruption in the β2-microglobulin gene. These mice are unable to express major histocompatibility complex (MHC) class I or class I-like molecules or to generate CTLs and were shown to be highly susceptible to infection (1). Despite numerous studies of CD4+ T cell responses and cytokine production in tuberculosis, there remain only a few reports of CD8+ CTLs that recognize mycobacterial antigens (2). This paradox led us to investigate whether other antigen-presenting systems could be essential for generation of M. tuberculosis–specific CTLs. CD1 is an MHC-like surface molecule with a unique ability to process and present nonpeptide antigens to T cells, including mycobacterial lipids (3, 4). We examined whether CD1-restricted CTLs have the capacity to recognize and lyse M. tuberculosis–infected macrophages.

CD1-restricted T cells were derived from patients with active tuberculosis as well as healthy donors (5). All of these T cell lines recognized M. tuberculosis lipid and lipoglycan antigens in a CD1b-restricted manner as assessed by antigen-
specific T cell proliferation and interferon-γ (IFN-γ) secretion. T cells were either CD4+CD8− (double negative, DN) or CD8+ and expressed αβ T cell receptors, consistent with our previous findings (3, 4, 6). We investigated whether CD1-restricted T cells recognized antigen-presenting cells (APCs) harboring live mycobacteria. CD1+ macrophages were infected with virulent M. tuberculosis with 90% efficiency, such that there were approximately three bacteria per macrophage (7). All DN and CD8+ T cell lines examined efficiently lysed infected macrophages in a dose-dependent manner (Fig. 1A). The restriction and specificity were shown by the inhibition of CTL-mediated lysis of infected targets and release of IFN-γ by antibody to CD1b (Fig. 1B). CTLs did not lyse uninfected CD1+ macrophages.

CTLs lyse targets by two pathways, the exocytosis of granules containing perforin and granzymes and the interaction of Fas ligand on the CTL with Fas on the target cell (8). The mechanisms operate independently: For example, mice with a disease state M. tuberculosis-infected macrophages were killed by two phenotypic subtypes, with CD8+ and expressed CD4-CD8- (double negative, DN) and CD8+ CTLs. Perforin and CD36, specific for FasL (28) and perforin (29), was amplified by PCR and used to determine the extent to which the cytotoxicity of three CD8+ CTL lines examined, but not DN, CD1-restricted CTLs (Fig. 2, A and B). In contrast, the cytotoxicity of three CD8+ CD1-restricted CTL lines was not affected by blocking perforin or FasL (Fig. 2B). We also determined the contribution of the granule-dependent pathway to the target cell lysis. Strontium ions (Sr2+), which release histamine from mast cells by inducing granular degranulation, also induce degranulation of cytotoxic lymphocytes (9), thereby transiently inhibiting lytic activity. This effect was used to determine the extent to which the granule-dependent pathway participated in killing M. tuberculosis–infected macrophages (10). Preincubation with Sr2+ selectively inhibited the cytotoxicity of the CD8+, but not DN, CD1-restricted CTLs (Fig. 2, A and B). Granzyme A, characteristic of cytotoxic granules, was detected in Sr2+-induced supernatants of CD8+ cells, but not DN, T cells (Fig. 2C). The capacity of lymphocytes to proliferate and release IFN-γ upon antigen-specific activation was not affected by treatment with Sr2+ (11). The differential ability of antibodies to Fas-FasL or Sr2+ to inhibit CTL activity was not dependent on the level of killing (Fig. 2, A and B).

A critical component of lymphocyte cytotoxic granules is perforin, which polymerizes on the target cell membrane after antigen activation and induces a nonselective pore that may be responsible for target cell lysis (12). Using reverse transcriptase–polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR), we detected induction of perforin mRNA in all three CD8+ CTL lines examined, but not in three DN CTL lines (Fig. 2D). In contrast, mRNA for FasL was detected in stimulated DN CTL lines but not in the CD8+ lines.

The existence of two populations of human CTLs, differentiated by phenotype and by mechanism of cytotoxicity, was confirmed in a larger group of CTLs. Five DN CTL lines independently derived from different donors, all CD1-restricted, killed targets by the Fas-FasL pathway, with little contribution from the granule-dependent mechanism (Fig. 3). Conversely, the cytotoxicity of three CD8+ CD1-restricted CTL lines was granule-dependent. In addition, the killing by two classical CD8+ MHC class I–restricted CTL lines specific for influenza peptide was almost identical to that of DN CTLs.

![Fig. 1. Cytotoxicity of CD1-restricted CTLs against macrophages infected with virulent M. tuberculosis. The cytotoxic response of (A) CD6+ line (CD8.TX) and (B) DN line (DN.PT, E:T = 10:1) against infected macrophages was measured in a 51Cr-release assay in the presence or absence of blocking antibodies to CD1 (anti-CD1) (24). The results shown are representative of one out of three independent experiments, each performed in triplicate. Error bars correspond to the SEM.](image-url)
completely dependent on cytotoxic granules (13).

The question remains as to why the immune response has two virtually independent modes of cytotoxic responses. Lysis of infected macrophages will release intracellular bacteria, thus reducing the reservoir of infected cells. The bacteria will be dispersed and taken up at low multiplicities of infection (MOIs) by activated infiltrating macrophages, which can kill them (14). In addition, the process of lysing the infected target cell may directly or indirectly result in the death of the bacteria. To determine whether CD1-restricted T cell activation results in killing of intracellular mycobacteria, we cocultured CTL lines with M. tuberculosis-infected CD1+ cells and measured bacterial viability after 18 hours. Whereas four DN, CD1-restricted T cell lines had no effect on the number of colony-forming units (CFUs) of virulent M. tuberculosis, both CD8+ CD1-restricted T cell lines examined reduced the number of CFUs by 35 to 50% (Fig. 4). In addition, two human influenza peptide-specific CD8+ CTL lines that cause lysis solely by a granule-dependent mechanism reduced the number of viable mycobacteria by lysing infected macrophages that had been simultaneously pulsed with influenza peptide. Although the percentage reduction of CFUs was within an order of magnitude, M. tuberculosis infection in vivo is slow and protracted, and the time of in vitro assay was only 18 hours, so that a cumulative antimicrobial effect mediated by these T cells over time could have a profound effect on the number of bacilli during the course of infection.

These data and a recent study of a murine model (15) suggest that the two defined mechanisms of cytotoxicity are associated with distinct phenotypic T cell subsets, yet have differential effects on microbial immunity. Consistent with the findings that Fas-FasL interactions appear to be most relevant to lysis of cells of the immune system itself, this mechanism may function primarily in immune regulation in vivo, particularly in eliminating antigen-expressing APCs, thereby down-regulating immune-mediated tissue injury (16). In contrast, the ability of CD8+ CTLs both to lyse infected cells by the granule-dependent mechanism and to kill intracellular M. tuberculosis suggests that they may have a special role in resistance to infectious pathogens. The finding in gene-disrupted mouse models that perforin is itself not essential for resolution of mycobacterial infection in vivo (17) raises the possibility that the antimicrobial activity of those T cells may not be dependent on the lytic process or that there may be additional mediators in the cytotoxic granules, such as granzymes, defensins, or granulysin (18). Delineation of the mechanism whereby CD1-restricted CTLs kill intracellular mycobacteria may provide useful insights into mechanisms whereby other types of CTLs contribute to protection against microbial pathogens.

REFERENCES AND NOTES

5. CD1-restricted T cell lines were derived from the peripheral blood as follows: CD4, Vβ T cells and, in some instances, CD8 T cells were subjected to immunomagnetic depletion and culture with M. tuberculosis extract (10 μg/ml) (supernatant of ultracentrifuged probe-sonicate of the virulent M. tuberculosis-strain H37Rv) in the presence of peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) treated with granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor (GM-CSF) (200 μU/ml); gift of Genetics Institute, Cambridge, MA) and interleukin-4 (IL-4, 100 U/ml; gift of Schering-Plough, Kenilworth, NJ) to induce CD4 expression (8). All lines exclusively expressed the Vβ T cell receptor (TCR). Cell lines were maintained by biweekly stimulation with M. tuberculosis extract in the presence of heterologous CD1+ APCs. Mononuclear antibodies used for flow cytometry and blocking experiments were as follows (4): OKT6, which blocks CD1a; WM-25, which blocks CD1b; 10G8, which blocks CD1c; OKT4a, which recognizes CD4; and OKT8, which recognizes CD8αβ; antibodies to Vβ TCR (Becton-Dickinson, San Jose, CA) and to Vβ TCR, LNK16, and CD16 (BD, San Diego, CA). S. Porcelli, C. T. Morta, M. P. Brenner, E. Turell et al., Nature 360, 592 (1992); J. P. Rosati, S. Porcelli, M. Brenner, unpublished results.
7. PBMCs from healthy donors were treated with GM-CSF (200 μU/ml) and IL-4 (100 U/ml) for 72 hours. Nonadherent cells were discarded and the adherent fraction, which was enriched for CD1+ cells (50 to 60% of the cells expressed CD1α, CD1b, and CD1c, as determined by flow cytometry), was detached by treatment with 1 mM EDTA (Sigma) and replated in six-well plates at a density of 3 x 10⁵ per well. Adherent monolayers were infected with live M. tuberculosis (virulent strain H37Rv) for 4 hours at a MOI of 5:1. Comparison of microscope counts of mycobacteria and their growth on Middlebrook 7H11 agar plates revealed a viability of the bacteria above 90%. After extensive washing, macrophages were detached, and the efficiency of infection was determined by staining a sample with auramine-rhodamine B, 0.02 bacteria per cell, 85 ± 4% of cells infected.
10. S is chosen as a selective inhibitor of granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor (GM-CSF) (200 U/ml); gift of Genetics Institute, Cambridge, MA) and interleukin-4 (IL-4, 100 U/ml; gift of Schering-Plough, Kenilworth, NJ) to induce CD4 expression (8). All lines exclusively expressed the Vβ T cell receptor (TCR). Cell lines were maintained by biweekly stimulation with M. tuberculosis extract in the presence of heterologous CD1+ APCs. Mononuclear antibodies used for flow cytometry and blocking experiments were as follows (4): OKT6, which blocks CD1a; WM-25, which blocks CD1b; 10G8, which blocks CD1c; OKT4a, which recognizes CD4; and OKT8, which recognizes CD8αβ; antibodies to Vβ TCR (Becton-Dickinson, San Jose, CA) and to Vβ TCR, LNK16, and CD16 (BD, San Diego, CA). S. Porcelli, C. T. Morta, M. P. Brenner, E. Turell et al., Nature 360, 592 (1992); J. P. Rosati, S. Porcelli, M. Brenner, unpublished results.
dependent lysis, because the calcium chelator EGTA, which blocks the perforin pathway, also inhibits up-regulation of Fas-L, as required in our studies with primary human T cells.

11. Tumor necrosis factor-α (TNF-α) induces lysis of a murine fibroblasts cell line independent of perforin. The Fas-L and TNF-α failed to contribute to lysis of the CTLs used in this study because addition of blocking antibody to TNF-α did not inhibit the cytotoxicity.


13. The MHC class I-restricted CD8+ T cells that specifically recognize a defined influenza virus matrix protein expressed on human leukocyte antigen (HLA) A2 (CD8.FP1, CD8.FP2) were generated from the blood of healthy HLA A2+ donors by stimulation of PBMCs with the peptide (10 μg/ml) (gift of Cytel, San Diego, CA) (20). Lines were maintained by weekly stimulation with the peptide, with irradiated autologous PBMCs as feeder cells. Before the experiments, CD8+ cells were enriched by immunomagnetic depletion of CD4+ T cells and natural killer cells.


24. CD1+ macrophages, which were infected with live M. tuberculosis, were labeled with 100 μCi of 35Cr (Cova Costa Mesa, CA) for 1 hour and plated in a 96-well V-bottom plate at a final concentration of 4000 cells per 100 μl. Appropriate samples were incubated without antibiotics, CD4+, CD8+, or CD1+ for 50 min before addition of the T cells. After a 2-hr incubation, target cell lysis was calculated by measuring 35Cr release in a gamma-counter. The data are given as percent specific release and were corrected as [(cpm released from experimental – cpm spontaneous release) / (maximal release – cpm spontaneous release)] × 100.

25. CD1+ macrophages were pulsed with soluble M. tuberculosis extract (5 μg/ml) overnight, detached with 1 mM EDTA, and labeled with 100 μCi of 35Cr for 1 hour. For inhibition of the interaction between Fas and FasL, the assay was done in the presence of blocking antibodies to FasL (21) (Pharminigen, San Diego, CA) or Fas (22) (Immunotech, Westbrook, ME). Cytotoxicity of the CD1+ cell lines was induced by initial treatment of T cells with 25 mM SrCl2 (+adrich, Milwaukee, WI) for 10 hours. FasL release was determined after a 4-hour incubation, as described previously (23). Expression of Fas on the target cells was confirmed by S. D. Glaser, T. J. Postuma, and J. L. Strominger, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 85, 19193 (1988).

26. CTLs × 105 were incubated in the presence of 25 mM SrCl2 for 10 hours in a final volume of 1.5 ml. The amount of Ca2+ (5 mM) was added to the assay mixture and the supernatant was determined by the BTE (εmax, 25). The supernatants (20 μl) were added to a 96-well plate and overlaid with 100 μl of a 1% Triton X-100 solution (Sigma). After a 50 min incubation at 37°C, the absorbance at 405 nm was determined.


28. Fas-L, primer and probe sequences were designed as follows: Fas-L: 5′- CAGCTTCTTACCCGCAGAAGG-3′, Fas-L: 5′- AGATTTCGCAAAATGTAOAGAGAG-3′, Fas-L: 5′- GAGGCAGCGGATGTGGCAGGTCAT-3′, Fas-L: 5′- GAGGCAGCGGATGTGGCAGGTCAT-3′. PCR products were resolved by agarose gel electrophoresis and transferred to nylon membranes (Amersham, Arlington Heights, IL). The membranes were then probed with a labeled oligo-nucleotide probe labeled at the 5′ end with ±-32P and polyadenylate kinase (Boehringer Mannheim, Germany) and visualized by autoradiography.


30. We are indebted to M. Horvitz for use of his P3 labatory and P. Siegel for continuous support and helpful discussions. Supported by the AIDS Stiden; Deutsches Krebsforschungszentrum, Heidelberg (S.S.); NIH (R.L.M., S.A.P., B.R.B., M.B.B.); the Arthritis Foundation (S.A.P.); the Howard Hughes Medical Institute (B.R.B.); the Swiss Foundation for Grants in Medicine and Biology (J.-P.R.); and the United Nations Development Programming World Bank-World Health Organization Special Program for Research and Training in Tropical Diseases (M.M.L.E.F.) and the Dermatologic Research Foundation of California.

30 January 1997; accepted 14 April 1997

Multiple and Ancient Origins of the Domestic Dog

Carles Vilà, Peter Savolainen, Jesús E. Maldonado, Isabel R. Amorim, John E. Rice, Rodney L. Honeycutt, Keith A. Crandall, Joakim Lundeberg, Robert K. Wayne*

Mitochondrial DNA control region sequences were analyzed by 162 wolves at 27 localities worldwide and from 140 dog breeds representing 67 breeds. Sequences from both dogs and wolves showed considerable diversity and supported the hypothesis that wolves were the ancestors of dogs. Most dog sequences belonged to a divergent monophyletic clade sharing no sequences with wolves. The sequence divergence within this clade suggested that dogs originated more than 100,000 years before the present. Associations of dog haplotypes with other wolf lineages indicated episodes of admixture between wolves and dogs. Repeated genetic exchange between dog and wolf populations may have been an important source of variation for artificial selection.

The archaeological record cannot resolve whether domestic dogs originated from a single wolf population or arose from multiple populations at different times (1, 2). However, circumstantial evidence suggests that dogs may have diverse origins (3). During most of the late Pleistocene, humans and wolves coexisted over a wide geographic area (1), providing ample opportunity for independent domestication events and continued genetic exchange between wolves and dogs. The extreme phenotypic diversity of dogs, even during the early stages of domestication (1, 3, 4), also suggests a varied genetic heritage. Consequently, the genetic diversity of dogs may have been enriched by multiple founding events, possibly followed by occasional interbreeding with wild wolf populations.

We sequenced portions of the mitochondrial DNA of wolves and domestic dogs. Initially, 261 base pairs (bp) of the left domain of the mitochondrial control region (5) were sequenced from 140 dogs representing 67 breeds and five cross-breeds and 162 wolves representing 27 populations from throughout Europe, Asia, and North America (Fig. 1) (6). Because all wild species of the genus Canis can interbreed (7) and thus are potential ancestors of the domestic dog, five coyotes (Canis latrans) and two golden, two blackbacked, and eight Smien jackals (C. au-reus, C. mesomelas, and C. simensis, respectively) were also sequenced.

The control region of wolves and dogs was highly polymorphic (Fig. 1). We found 27 wolf haplotypes that differed on average by 5.31 ± 0.11 (±SE) substitutions (2.10 ± 0.04%), with a maximum of 10 substitutions (3.95%). The distribution of wolf haplotypes demonstrated geographic specificity, with most localities containing haplotypes unique to a particular region (Fig. 1). Four haplotypes (W2, W7, W14, and W22) had a widespread distribution. In dogs, 26 haplotypes were found. Only haplotype D6 also occurred in

www.sciencemag.org • SCIENCE • VOL. 276 • 13 JUNE 1997 1887