

MATERNALLY TRANSMITTED ANTIGENS ARE
CODOMINANTLY EXPRESSED BY MOUSE CELLS
CONTAINING TWO KINDS OF MITOCHONDRIAL DNA

BY JOHN R. RODGERS, ROGER SMITH III, AND ROBERT R. RICH

*From the Howard Hughes Medical Institute Laboratory and the Department of Microbiology
and Immunology, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, Texas 77030*

A maternally transmitted factor, *Mtf*, determines the antigenic polymorphism of the major histocompatibility complex (MHC) class I-like maternally transmitted antigen (Mta) (1, 2). Most inbred strains of mice express Mta^a (*Mtf*^{a+}), while NZB/BINJ is Mta^{b+} (*Mtf*^{b+}). NZB mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) is also unique (3, 4). Somatic cell hybridizations using *Mtf*^{a+} and NZB cells (5, 6) supported the idea that *Mtf* may be an mtDNA gene; cloned hybrids carried a single form of mtDNA and expressed the concordant form of Mta, while treatment of the donor with the mitochondrial-specific dye rhodamine 6G (R6G) inhibited the transmission of both mtDNA and Mta. *Mtf* may modify the expression of nuclear MHC class I-like genes (2).

To test whether *Mtf* uses positive or negative genetic mechanisms, we assayed *Mtf* dominance in hybrid cells carrying mtDNA from *Mtf*^{a+} cells and from NZB. Such cells were Mta^{a+}, Mta^{b+}, showing *Mtf* codominantly controls antigen polymorphisms via positive genetic mechanisms, and that this mechanism cannot be construed simply as induction of nuclear gene activity via defects in conventional metabolic mtDNA functions.

Materials and Methods

Generation of Heteroplasmic¹ Cell Lines. NZB-2 derived from an NZB/BINJ (H-2^d, Mta^b) tumor. Primary cells were transformed with simian virus 40 (SV40), selected for pyruvate-independent resistance to 50 µg/ml chloramphenicol (CAP^R) (7, 8) and fused using 40% polyethylene glycol 1450 to the 2-heptyl-4-hydroxyquinoline-*N*-oxide resistant (HQNO^R) L cell derivative LA9HQNR11 (7) (mouse strain C3H, H-2^k, Mta^a). Hybrids were selected in pyruvate-free DMEM-based HAT medium with 25 µg/ml CAP and 5 µg/ml HQNO.

CTL Lines and Cytotoxicity Assays. CTL clones and ⁵¹Cr-release assays were described (5, 6). CBA/J mice injected with 200 µg of poly(I-C) provided splenic natural killer (NK) cells. Lysis of adherent cells was also assayed by absorbance (A) (9); 15,000 cells were exposed to CTL for 18 h; survivors were stained with crystal violet and quantitated at

This work was supported in part by U.S. Public Health Service Grant AI18882. Computational assistance was provided by the CLINFO project, funded by the Division of Research Resources of the National Institutes of Health, Bethesda MD, under grant RR00350. Present address of R. Smith is Department of Veterinary Pathology, Texas A & M University, College Station, Texas 77843-4463.

¹ The terms mono- and heteroplasmons refer to cells in which the specific cytoplasmic factors are derived from one or both parents. An *Mtf* heteroplasmon is *Mtf*^{a+}, *Mtf*^{b+}.

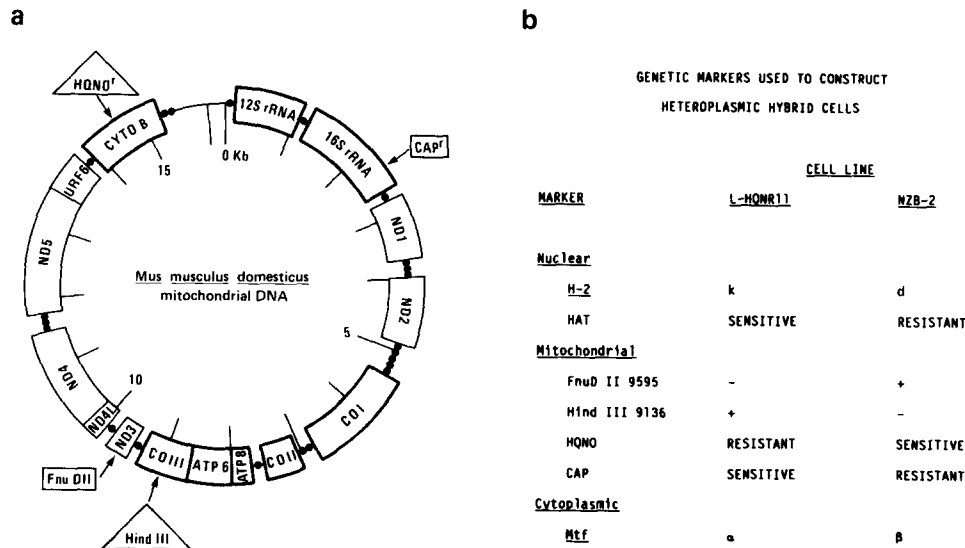


FIGURE 1. Genetic markers used to construct heteroplasms. (a) Map of mouse mtDNA genome. tRNAs (●) and open reading frames are indicated on the circle: ND, NADH dehydrogenase; CO, cytochrome oxidase; ATP, ATPase; and CYTO B, cytochrome *b* (12, 16). Markers in triangles, LA9HQNR11; in rectangles, NZB-2. (b) LA9HQNR11 and NZB-2 genetic markers.

600 nm in a Bio-rad model 2550 EIA reader. Results were expressed as: percent specific lysis = $100 \times [1 - (A_{\text{experimental}} - A_{\text{background}}) / (A_{\text{no CTL}} - A_{\text{background}})]$.

Southern Analysis. mtDNA from sucrose-gradient purified mitochondria (10) was probed (11) with ^{32}P -labeled DNA from plasmid pMM4 (a gift of Don Robberson, M. D. Anderson Hospital, Houston, TX), containing the 3812 bp Pst I fragment of L cell mtDNA (12).

Results

We selected heteroplasms from fusions of NZB-2 (CAP^R, HQNO^S, Mta^b, HAT^R) and LA9HQNR11 (CAP^S, HQNO^R, Mta^a, HAT^S) in HAT/CAP/HQNO medium (25 μg/ml CAP + 5 μg/ml HQNO) (Fig. 1). Initial selection required HAT. The independent clones F60 and F62 thrived with either or both mitochondrial poisons, carried both mtDNA types, and expressed both Mta forms (see below). The mtDNA and *Mtf* heteroplasmic condition was stable throughout cloning, subcloning, and maintenance for over 58 passages. The data presented refer to the F62 subclone Cl B2/G6.

We probed restricted F62 mtDNA with plasmid pMM4, which reacts with *FnuD* II fragments of 6434 and 1,638 bp (from L cell mtDNA [12]) and of 4,623, 1,638, and 1,811 bp (from NZB mtDNA) (Fig. 2a). Hind III (Fig. 2b) yielded bands of 15,407 and 888 bp (from NZB) and of 13,462 and 1,945 bp (L cell). Thus, as expected, F62 was heteroplasmic for mtDNA.

We phenotyped Mta with cloned CTL lines. In a ^{51}Cr -release assay, the Mta^a- and Mta^b-specific CTL lines 5F3 and 6G3, respectively, appropriately lysed Mta^a (BALB/c♀ × NZB♂)F₁ or Mta^b (NZB♀ × BALB/c♂)F₁ target lymphoblasts (Fig. 3a); both CTL lines lysed F62. In the crystal violet assay (Fig. 3b), CTL lines 5F3 and 6G3 appropriately lysed LA9HQNR11 (Mta^a) or NZB-2 (Mta^b) parental

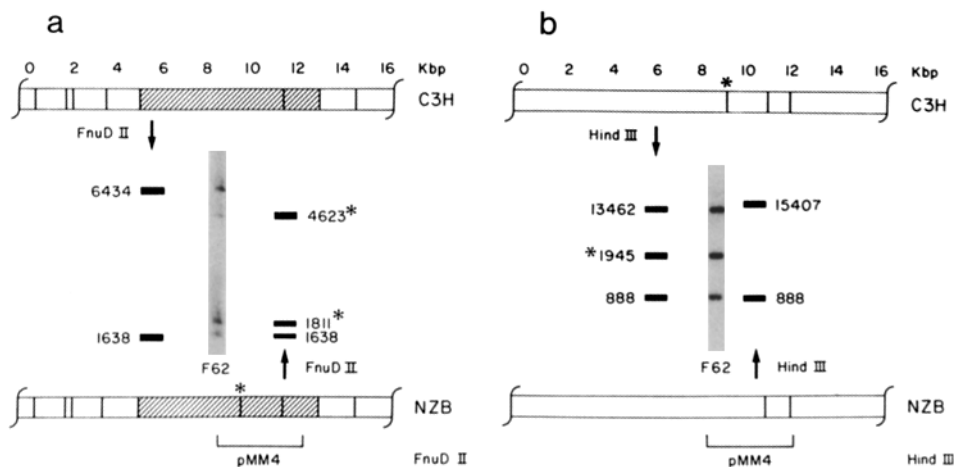


FIGURE 2. Biparental restriction patterns of mtDNA in heteroplasms. (a) FnuD II pattern. Above, L cell mtDNA. Below, NZB mtDNA. Arrows, patterns expected for L cell (descending) and NZB (ascending) mtDNA. Hatched areas: sequences detected by pMM4. (b) Hind III pattern. In these gels, the 13,642 and 15,407 bands were not resolved.

cells, while both lysed F62 (as well as seven additional heteroplasmic clones and a dozen subclones).

Since some CTL lines express NK-like activity (2), we tested our CTL for NK activity (Fig. 3c) and the heteroplasms for NK sensitivity. NK cells lyse cell lines Y1 and F9 (Fig. 3c and data not shown) (13), which do not express *Mta* (2). The CTL lines 5F3 and 6G3 lysed neither F9 (not shown) nor Y1 NK targets, but did lyse F62 heteroplasms. As expected, CTL line 5F3, but not 6G3, lysed the *Mta*⁺ NK target line YAC-1 (not shown).

Discussion

The genetic issues we address required dual selection for mtDNA markers (see below). We note, however, that we were unable to generate *Mtf*⁺, *Mtf*^{β+} heteroplasms in the absence of mtDNA selection. Previous fusions between BALB/c (*Mta*^a) myeloma and NZB spleen cells with no mtDNA selection (5, 6) yielded mtDNA monoplasmic hybrids only. Of 11 clones, one carried NZB mtDNA; the rest carried BALB/c mtDNA. Poisoning BALB/c donors with R6G increased the frequency of hybrids with NZB mtDNA but all were monoplasmic. Failure to recover heteroplasms may reflect rapid segregation of mtDNA after fusion, or subtle incompatibility of NZB and BALB/c mtDNAs. Once formed, heteroplasms containing both forms of mtDNA are very stable, resisting straightforward protocols designed to select mtDNA segregants.

mtDNA heteroplasmic hybrids of *Mtf*-disparate parents were *Mta*⁺/*Mta*^{β+}; they were also *Mtf* heteroplasmic. This implies our mtDNA monoplasmic hybrids, expressing a single form of *Mta* (5, 6), were *Mtf* monoplasmic, and that both transmission and R6G-sensitivity of *Mtf* and mtDNA are concordant.

Codominance of *Mtf* distinguishes between negative and positive genetic mechanisms: the former repress antigen expression while the latter activate expression of, or encode the antigen. Negative regulatory models predict alternative antigen

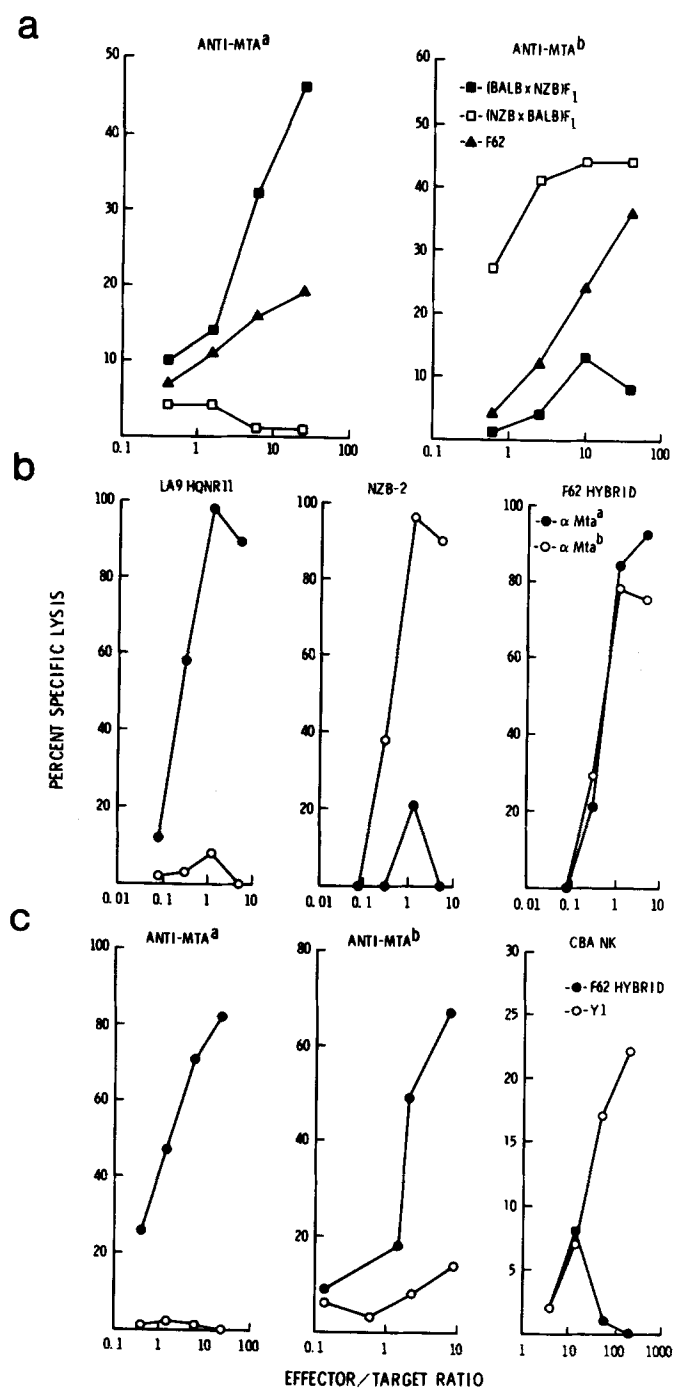


FIGURE 3. Detection of Mta using antigen-specific cloned CTL. (a) Maternal restriction of Mta-specific CTL lines. Mta specificities of the CTL clones 5F3 (left) and 6G3 (right) were assayed on lymphoblasts derived from offspring of BALB/c \times NZB/B1NJ δ (■) or NZB/B1NJ δ \times BALB/c δ (□) matings and on F62 heteroplasmic (▲). (b) Specific lysis of heteroplasmic (right) and parental (left and middle) cell lines was assayed using CTL clones 5F3 (anti-Mta^a, ●) and 6G3 (anti-Mta^b, ○). (c) Y1 cells (○) but not F62 heteroplasmic (●) are targets for NK cells (right). The CTL lines 5F3 (left) and 6G3 (middle) did not lyse Y1 (○) but did lyse F62 (●).

expression should be dominant, or codominant but unstable (14), leading to stable expression of one form. In contrast, active mechanisms predict stable codominant expression, as we observed.

Mtf codominance can also help exclude certain models of indirect regulation of nuclear genes by mtDNA defects. If *Mtf* defects in mtDNA functions induced nuclear gene compensation, converting one Mta antigen into the other, the nondefective form of *Mtf* would be dominant. Elimination of nuclear compensation by mtDNA complementation should restore the dominant Mta. Testing this idea required demonstration of genetic complementation between distinct mtDNAs, as has been shown for human mitochondria (15). Our mtDNA heteroplasmons thrived in the presence of both CAP and HQNO, a resistance demanding *trans*-complementation between the two mtDNA species, because HQNO^R cytochrome *b* mRNA from LA9HQNR11 mtDNA must be translated using CAP^R rRNA from NZB-2 mtDNA. Because the two mtDNAs complemented their mutual defects, the putative demand for nuclear compensation should have been removed and a single form of Mta expressed, contrary to observation.

Demonstration of *Mtf* codominance implies *Mtf* itself shares transmission and R6G sensitivity properties with mtDNA. Codominance also rules out models based on repressors or nuclear compensation of mtDNA defects. Instead, *Mtf* must encode or activate the expression of Mta determinants. Most simply, *Mtf* may be an mtDNA locus encoding Mta determinants. Synthesis of *Mtf* heteroplasmons may permit experimental tests of this idea. Thus, if *Mtf* resides within mtDNA, then *Mtf* and mtDNA should cosegregate among mtDNA monoplastic segregants. Ultimately, isolation of recombinant segregants would allow mapping of *Mtf* within mtDNA.

Summary

Mtf, a cytoplasmic, probably mitochondrial factor, controls Mta polymorphism. We tested for dominance between two forms of *Mtf* to determine whether Mta is controlled by positive or negative genetic mechanisms. We fused *Mtf*-disparate cells containing distinct mtDNA markers and selected for hybrids containing both. Such mtDNA heteroplasmons codominantly and stably express alternative Mta antigens. Stable codominance excludes negative genetic mechanisms as well as a model of induced nuclear compensation, and implies *Mtf* controls Mta expression through a positive genetic mechanism.

We thank Neil Howell for LA9HQNR11, Don Robberson for pMM4, Jerry Shay for Y1, Janet Butel and Connie Wong for SV40, Neil Howell, Marilyn Huston, Don Robberson, Lindsay Schwarz, and Jerry Shay for useful discussions, Meg Guenther, Henry Juguilon, and Chris Arhelger for expert technical assistance, and Sue Floyd for processing the manuscript.

Received for publication 9 September 1986 and in revised form 11 November 1986.

References

1. Fischer Lindahl, K., M. Bocchieri, and R. Riblet. 1980. Maternally transmitted antigen for unrestricted killing by NZB T lymphocytes. *J. Exp. Med.* 152:1583.

2. Rodgers, J. R., R. Smith III, M. M. Huston, and R. R. Rich. 1986. Maternally transmitted antigen. *Adv. Immunol.* 38:313.
3. Ferris, S. D., U. Ritte, K. Fischer Lindahl, E. M. Prager, and A. C. Wilson. 1983. Unusual type of mitochondrial DNA in mice lacking a maternally transmitted antigen. *Nucleic Acids Res.* 11:2917.
4. Huston, M. M., R. Smith III, D. P. Huston, and R. R. Rich. 1983. Differences in maternal lineages of New Zealand black mice defined by restriction endonuclease analysis of mitochondrial DNA and by expression of maternally transmitted antigen. *J. Exp. Med.* 157:2154.
5. Smith III, R., M. M. Huston, R. N. Jenkins, D. P. Huston, and R. R. Rich. 1983. Mitochondria control expression of a murine cell surface antigen. *Nature (Lond.)* 306:599.
6. Hudson, M. M., R. Smith III, R. Hull, D. P. Huston, and R. R. Rich. 1985. Mitochondrial modulation of maternally transmitted antigen: analysis of cell hybrids. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA.* 82:3286.
7. Howell, N., A. Bantel, and P. Huang. 1983. Mammalian mitochondrial mutants selected for resistance to the cytochrome *b* inhibitors HQNO or myxothiazol. *Somatic Cell Genet.* 9:721.
8. Howell, N. 1983. Origin, cellular expression and cybrid transmission of mitochondrial CAP-R, PYR-IND, and OLI-R mutant phenotypes. *Somatic Cell Genet.* 9:1.
9. Fisch, H., and G. E. Gifford. 1983. A photometric and plaque assay for macrophage mediated tumor cell cytotoxicity. *J. Immunol. Methods.* 57:311.
10. Bogenhagen, D., and D. A. Clayton. 1974. The number of mitochondrial deoxyribonucleic acid genomes in mouse L and human HeLa cells. *J. Biol. Chem.* 249:7991.
11. Maniatis, T., E. F. Fritsch, and J. Sambrook. 1982. Molecular Cloning, A Laboratory Manual. Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, Cold Spring Harbor, NY. 382-390.
12. Bibb, M. J., R. A. Van Etten, C. T. Wright, M. W. Walberg, and D. Clayton. 1981. Sequence and gene organization of mouse mitochondrial DNA. *Cell.* 26:167.
13. Stern, P., M. Gidlund, A. Orn, and H. Wigzell. 1980. Natural killer cells mediate lysis of embryonal carcinoma cells lacking MHC. *Nature (Lond.)* 285:341.
14. Delbrück, M. 1948. In *Unites Biologiques Douees de Continuite Genetique*, Vol. VIII. Colloques Internationaux du Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique, Paris. 33-35.
15. Oliver, N. A., and D. C. Wallace. 1982. Assignment of two mitochondrially synthesized polypeptides to human mitochondrial DNA and their use in the study of intracellular mitochondrial interaction. *Mol. Cell. Biol.* 2:30.
16. Chomyn, A., P. Mariottini, M. Cleeter, C. Ragan, A. Matsuno-Yagi, Y. Hatefi, R. Doolittle, and G. Attardi. 1985. Six unidentified reading frames of human mitochondrial DNA encode components of the respiratory-chain NADH dehydrogenase. *Nature (Lond.)* 314:592.