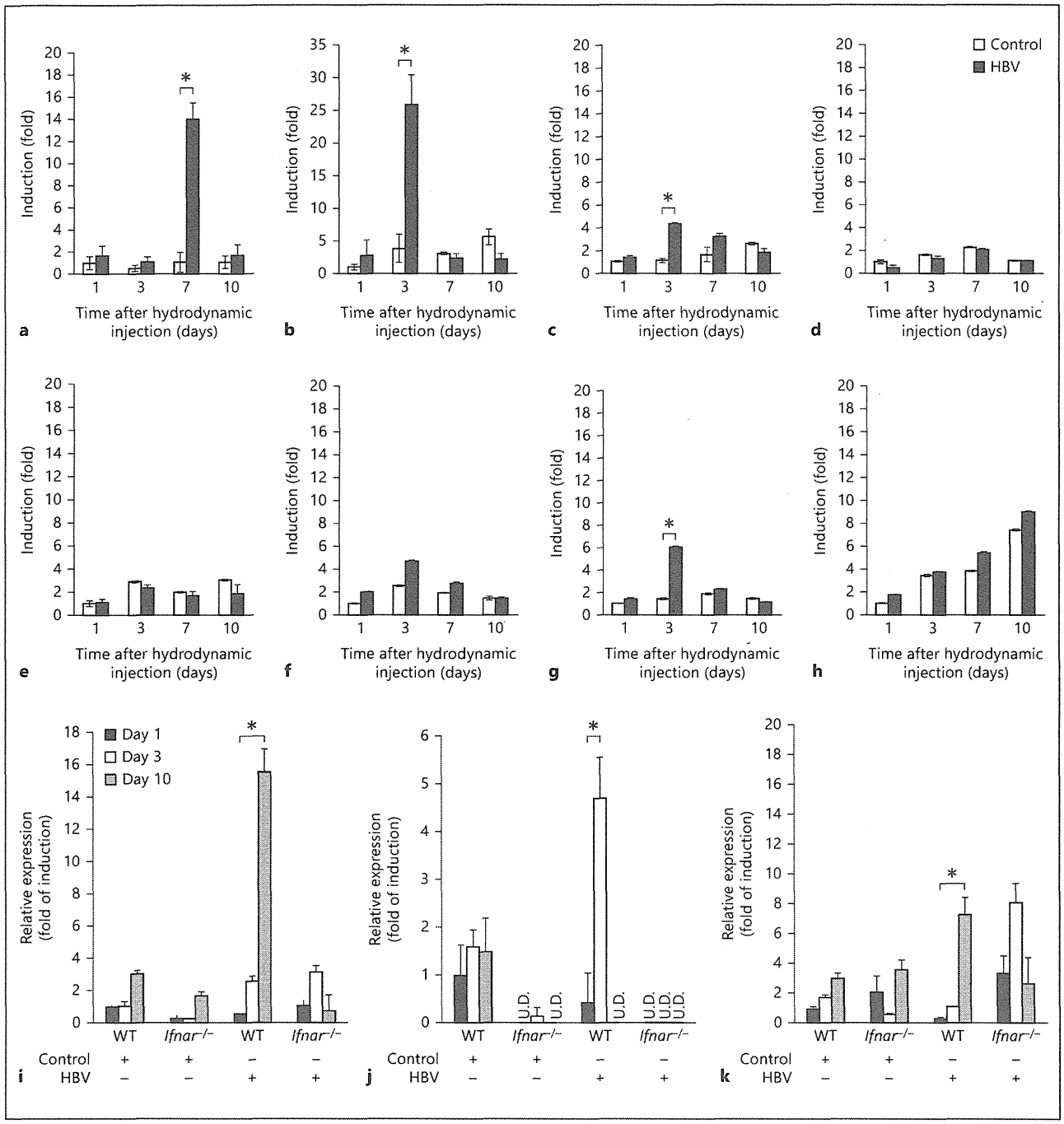

Fig. 3. Type I and II IFN expression is induced by HBV replication, and lacking the type I IFN receptor (IFNAR) causes failure of these inductions. WT mice were hydrodynamically injected with 50 μg of the pTER-1.4xHBV or control plasmid as described, and livers were isolated on days 1, 3, 7, and 10 after injection. The expression of IFN-α (**a**), IFN-β (**b**), IFN-γ (**c**), IL-7 (**d**), IL-12p40 (**e**), CXCL-9 (**f**), CXCL-10 (**g**), and CXCL-11 (**h**) mRNA was determined by reverse transcription followed by real-time PCR, and was expressed as the fold of induction relative to the WT mice receiving the control plasmid. Induction of IFNs and CXCL-10 was observed in the mice receiving the HBV plasmid. Similar studies were conducted in the WT and *Ifnar*$^{-/-}$ mice: IFN-α (**i**), IFN-β (**j**), and IFN-γ (**k**). *Ifnar*$^{-/-}$ mice show reduced expression of the IFNs compared to the WT. Data represent the mean of 3 mice on each strain and time point mentioned. * $p < 0.05$. U.D. = Undetected.

replication early. However, the reason for the lag in the induction of IFN-γ between the WT and *Ifnar*$^{-/-}$ mice remains unclear.

Taken together, these results suggest that type I IFN was indispensable for suppressing HBV replication in the early stage after viral genome entry. Type I IFN binds to its receptor to induce intracellular antiviral proteins to disrupt HBV replication. The results, however, infer that intrahepatic HBV clearance at the later stage is independent of IFN.

HBV Clearance in a Later Stage by Acquired Immunity

Previous studies by Yang et al. [23] and other groups showed that HBV replication persists indefinitely in globally immunodeficient mice such as NOD/Scid mice hydrodynamically injected with the replication-competent plasmid carrying the full genome of HBV. To investigate whether the elevated viral titer in *Ifnar*$^{-/-}$ and *Irf-3*$^{-/-}$/*Irf-7*$^{-/-}$ mice on day 4 after hydrodynamic injection and intrahepatic HBV clearance were related to immune effectors including T and B cells, HBV clearance was examined in *Rag-2*$^{-/-}$ mice. The lack of V(D)J recombination in this strain resulted in failure to produce mature B or T lymphocytes. As shown in figure 4, the absence of mature T and B cells in the *Rag-2*$^{-/-}$ mice did not result in elevated viral titer immediately after transfection, unlike in *Ifnar*$^{-/-}$ and *Irf-3*$^{-/-}$/*Irf-7*$^{-/-}$ mice. However, *Rag-2*$^{-/-}$ mice failed to clear the input plasmid and HBV products, as sera HBsAg and HBV DNA were detected up to day 15 (fig. 4a), by the time viral replication was terminated in all the other strains tested (fig. 4c, d). In other words, activation of the immune effectors such as the B and T cells is responsible for the intrahepatic HBV clearance, their activation being independent of IFN and IRF-3/IRF-7.

MyD88 Deficiency Leads to Slower HBV Clearance

The MyD88-dependent pathway has been known to lead to the production of inflammatory cytokines and is common to all TLRs, except TLR3 [22]. To examine whether a MyD88-dependent pathway is required in the intrahepatic clearance of the HBV, we monitored the serum HBsAg in MyD88-deficient mice. As shown in figure 4b, an increase in sera HBsAg in *Myd88*$^{-/-}$ mice was observed, although without particular antigenemia peaks at the early stage of transfection in *Ifnar*$^{-/-}$ and *Irf-3*$^{-/-}$/*Irf-7*$^{-/-}$ mice (fig. 4b, c). Instead, a delay in the elimination of the HBV was observed (fig. 4b, d). Typically, WT mice or other mouse strains lose serum HBsAg from day 11 after injection. However, serum antigen was detectable on day 15 in *Myd88*$^{-/-}$ mice. Delayed elimination of HBV plasmid and single-strand DNA in the liver was observed in Southern analysis of the liver from *Myd88*$^{-/-}$ mice compared with WT, *Mavs*$^{-/-}$, and *Ticam-1*$^{-/-}$ mice (online suppl. fig. 1).

Additionally, ELISA to determine anti-HBsAg antibody production in mouse sera after hydrodynamic injection revealed that anti-HBs antibody was produced in WT mice from day 7 and peaked at day 15 (fig. 4e). RAG2-deficient mice lacking mature T and B cells failed to produce any antibody, and *Myd88*$^{-/-}$ mice also had lower or nearly undetectable anti-HBs antibody in serum in comparison to the typical response of WT mice at later transfection stages. These results suggested that MyD88 and RAG2 were crucial for triggering acquired immunity against HBV in vivo.

Discussion

In the present study, several different knockout mice were analyzed in an attempt to define the mechanism of innate immunity against HBV in vivo. The evidence we obtained indicated that viral replication was not affected by MAVS or TICAM-1 knockout, but absence of IRF-3 or IRF-7 transcription factors, as well as the IFN receptor, had an adverse effect on the inhibition of HBV replication. The results herein demonstrated that the TICAM-1 and MAVS pathways were not required in either suppressing the virus replication or intrahepatic clearance of HBV replicative plasmid in vivo.

Although a DNA virus, HBV has the unique feature of replicating via an RNA proviral intermediate that is copied into DNA. Thus, defining the virus component, either HBV DNA or RNA that triggers the antiviral response is crucial to understand the immune mechanisms that are responsible for eliminating HBV during infection. HBV RNA has been suggested as the putative pathogen-associated molecular pattern of HBV in a few reports [16–18, 26]. HBx or HBs inhibits IFN-β induction followed by activation of TLR3 or RIG-I pathways with poly(I:C) or SeV, respectively. However, these findings must be interpreted with caution, as poly(I:C) and SeV are heterologous inducers for evaluating either the TLR3 or RIG-I pathway [16, 17]. No definitive conclusion on activation of the TLR3 or RIG-I pathway by HBV RNA in vivo has been reported yet.

Viral RNA is recognized largely by RIG-I or MDA5 in the cytosol of infected cells [27, 28] and by TLR3 or

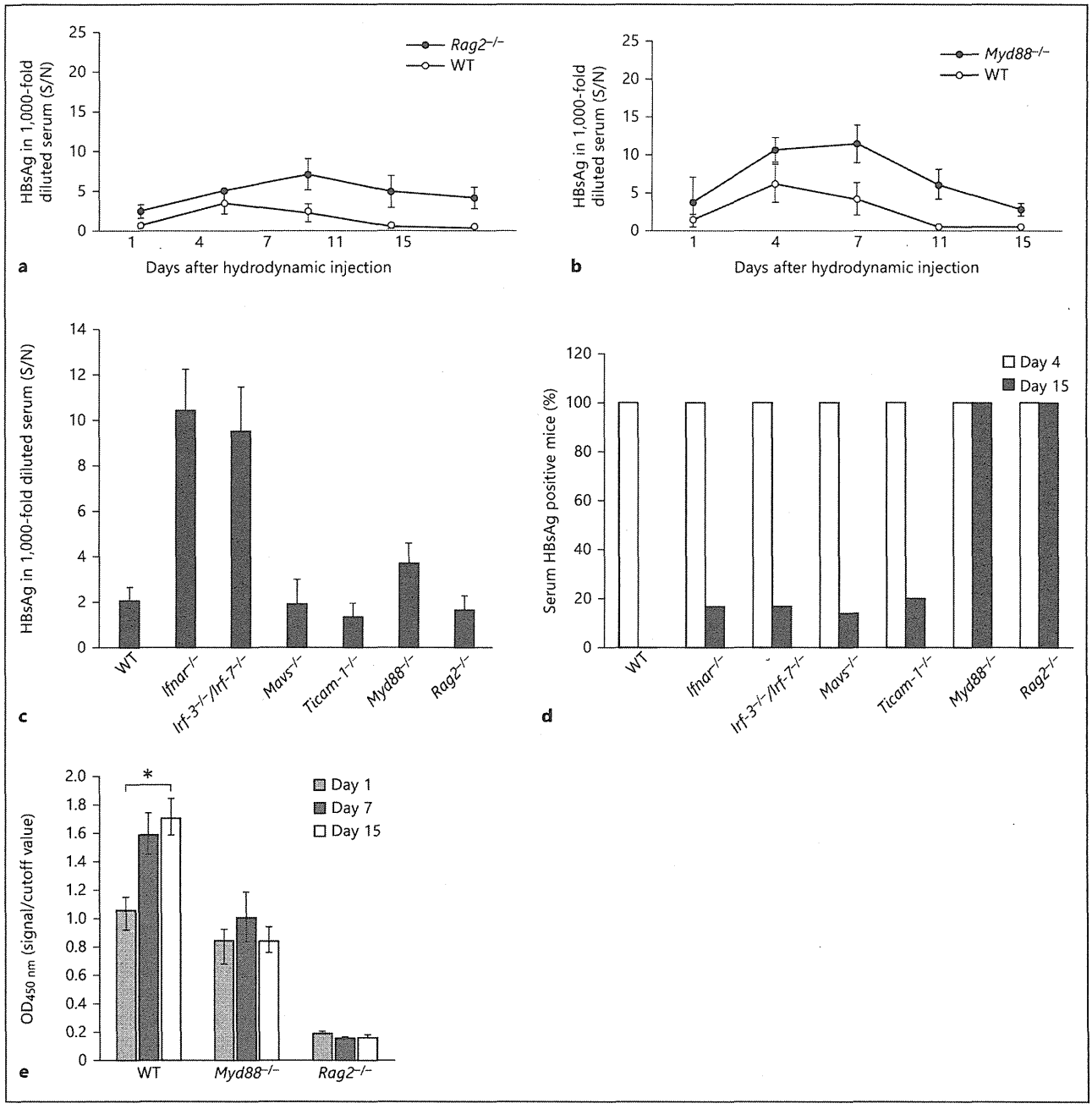

Fig. 4. Mice lacking RAG2 and MyD88 show insufficient clearance of HBV. **a**, **b** The *Rag2*$^{-/-}$, *Myd88*$^{-/-}$, and WT mice were hydrodynamically injected with 50 μg of pTER-1.4xHBV and HBsAg in the mouse sera at the time points indicated and analyzed with ELISA as described. **c** HBsAg in 1,000-fold diluted serum from all the mice strains including WT, *Ifnar*$^{-/-}$, *Irf-3*$^{-/-}$/*Irf-7*$^{-/-}$, *Mavs*$^{-/-}$, *Ticam-1*$^{-/-}$, *Myd88*$^{-/-}$, and *Rag2*$^{-/-}$ at day 4 after the hydrodynamic injections. Only *Ifnar*$^{-/-}$ and *Irf-3*$^{-/-}$/*Irf-7*$^{-/-}$ mice show a remarkable increase, while a moderate increase of sera HBsAg was seen in *Myd88*$^{-/-}$ mice. **d** HBsAg persistence rates in all the mice strains receiving pTER1.4HBV were determined by the percentage of serum HBsAg-positive mice on day 4 (□) and day 15 (■) after the hydrodynamic injections. Serum HBsAg was found to be persistent only in mice deficient in MyD88 and RAG2 on day 15 as 100% of the mice from these two strains were HBsAg positive (n = 8 for each mice strain). **e** Lacking MyD88 and RAG2 leads to the failure of the knockout mice to produce anti-HBs IgG compared to the WT mice on day 15 after injection as determined by ELISA using antigen of HBs (n = 3 for each mice strain). * $p < 0.05$. S/N = Signal-over-noise ratio.

TLR7/8 in the endosome of other noninfected cells [29, 30]. These RNA sensors require MAVS, TICAM-1, or MyD88 as adaptor proteins to induce type I IFN [28]. On the other hand, cytoplasmic DNA is recognized by DNA sensors including DAI, IFI16, RIG-I, DHX9 (helicase), and cGAS [31]. STING is the only adaptor for all IFN-inducing DNA sensors in mouse cells reported so far [30, 32, 33], although some of these sensors are reported to induce type I IFN via MAVS in human cells. These adaptors, TICAM-1, MAVS, and STING, are all linked to activation of IRF-3/IRF-7 which act as transcription factors that induce activation of the type I IFN promoter during viral infections. Involvement of different pathways in the induction of type I IFN is critically dependent on the virus species and cell type. Cell type-specific contributions of other sensors, including DEAD box helicases, might occur in some cases of infection. However, in hepatocytes, the control plasmid per se exhibited no IFN-inducing response, suggesting that the HBV replication is a critical step for IFN induction. Actually, no contribution of other sensors except RIG-I/MDA5 and TLR3 has been reported so far.

Using the murine hydrodynamic injection model, we found that mice deficient in IRF-3 and IRF-7 or IFNAR do not inhibit HBV replication as effectively as their WT counterparts and result in elevated HBV titers in mice sera and livers. These findings imply that type I IFN acting on IFNAR is indispensable for evoking anti-HBV protective responses although such a hypothesis is in disagreement with previous findings that HBV does not induce detectable changes in type I IFN expression during the early weeks of infection [34]. There are a few possibilities of how type I IFN is produced in mice receiving HBV template plasmid. One of them is that HBV could be recognized by pathways that do not link to MAVS or TICAM-1 and facilitate IFN production in the cytoplasm. For instance, STING-dependent signaling leads to type I IFN induction, and it has been shown that this can be MAVS and TICAM-1 independent. Notably, STING-dependent signaling is especially associated with DNA-mediated induction of type I IFN via IRF-3/IRF-7, and genomic DNA is an important part of HBV replication. It would be interesting to clarify such hypotheses using *Sting*$^{-/-}$ mice in the near future.

To elucidate the molecular pattern which triggers type I IFN induction, we transfected either HBV DNA or RNA into immortalized hepatocytes. To our surprise, we were unable to detect significant IFN-β induction with either HBV replicative DNA or HBV RNA. As we looked into the possible reasons to account for the lack of innate immune responses against HBV in hepatocytes, we found that the endogenous expression of STING in hepatocyte cell lines including HepG2 and immortalized mouse hepatocytes is extremely low compared to other cell lines like macrophages or dendritic cells, thus suggesting that STING-dependent signaling might play a crucial role in inducing type I IFN in response to HBV. The produced IFN in turn activates the IFNAR pathway. There are various cells populations in the liver that express IFNAR and therefore subsequently initiate a natural signaling cascade for amplification of IFN production via the Jak-STAT pathway.

Another possible way for HBV to induce IFN is via the HBV-stimulated nonparenchymal or resident myeloid cells. Even though there has been no report suggesting that HBV substantially infects pDCs, Isogawa et al. [5], demonstrated that freshly isolated CD11c^{+} cells of intrahepatic myeloid cells rather than the hepatocytes expressed TLRs including TLR2, 3, and 9. Therefore, resident myeloid cells might induce IFN to further prevent the spread of HBV by activating the IFNAR pathway in bystander cells or hepatocytes.

Although *Myd88*$^{-/-}$ mice receiving an HBV-DNA injection did not exhibit significantly high virus titers in the early phase unlike those observed in *Ifnar*$^{-/-}$ and *Irf-3*$^{-/-}$/*Irf-7*$^{-/-}$ mice, interestingly MyD88 is required for the intrahepatic clearance of the HBV replicative template. The fact that the transcriptional template persists in the absence of MyD88 suggests that MyD88 may play a pivotal role in intrahepatic HBV clearance in the mouse model. Notably, MyD88 is the adaptor molecule for TLR7 and 9 in pDCs [35, 36]. Deficiency of MyD88 in pDCs may result in failure to induce acquired immunity for HBV. Our findings show that HBV-specific antibodies are efficiently produced in WT, but not in *Myd88*$^{-/-}$ mice. In addition, the number of pDCs has been previously reported to be reduced in vivo during several systemic viral infections including HBV [37]. In one of the most recent reports, Lv et al. [38], showed that HBV-derived CpG induces potent IFN-α production by human pDCs, which may partially explain how pDCs interact with HBV in infection. However, the cause of weak participation in the early response of IFN induction in *Myd88*$^{-/-}$ mice remains to be determined.

Recombinant IFN-α is a standard treatment for chronic HBV patients. Nevertheless, direct treatment with IFN yields only about 30% improvement in HBV patients and little is known about why most chronic HBV patients do not respond to IFN therapy [39]. As demonstrated in our study, virus persistency can be independent of the type I

IFN-inducing system. This observation leads to the suggestion that type I IFN is indispensable for inducing antiviral molecules to control viral replication and spread before the onset of more specific and powerful adaptive immune responses. This appeared to be factual at least in our knockout mouse models as virus titers were highly elevated in *Ifnar*$^{-/-}$ mice in the initial days after injection. Conversely, type I IFN did not have any influential effects on clearance of the HBV template in the later stages. Such observations coincide with the latest study conducted in patients with chronic HBV infection by Tan et al. [40], in which IFN-α treatment was shown to modulate innate immune parameters in the patients, but without any detectable effect on HBV-specific adaptive immunity. The missing link between the induction of type I IFN and anti-HBV cellular effectors needs to be further investigated in mouse models, including the mechanism of MyD88 participation in activation of the cellular immune response during infection. Elucidating molecular mechanisms between innate pattern sensing and evoking cellular effectors may provide a reasonable explanation for the failure of IFN-treatment in HBV infection.

Collectively, our study validates the use of the hydrodynamic transfection method in mimicking acute HBV infection in mouse models and demonstrated the host-virus relationship during HBV infection in many aspects. Since HBV infectious models with immunologically well-defined laboratory animals do not exist, the result presented in this study herein provides an insight into the dispensability of RNA sensors for induction of IFN by HBV RNA and the complexity of innate and adaptive immunity during HBV clearance.

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Disclosure Statement

The authors declare no financial or commercial conflict of interest.

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INAM Plays a Critical Role in IFN-γ Production by NK Cells Interacting with Polyinosinic-Polycytidylic Acid–Stimulated Accessory Cells

Jun Kasamatsu,* Masahiro Azuma,*,[1] Hiroyuki Oshiumi,* Yuka Morioka,[†] Masaru Okabe,[‡] Takashi Ebihara,*,[2] Misako Matsumoto,* and Tsukasa Seya*

Polyinosinic-polycytidylic acid strongly promotes the antitumor activity of NK cells via TLR3/Toll/IL-1R domain–containing adaptor molecule 1 and melanoma differentiation-associated protein-5/mitochondrial antiviral signaling protein pathways. Polyinosinic-polycytidylic acid acts on accessory cells such as dendritic cells (DCs) and macrophages (Mφs) to secondarily activate NK cells. In a previous study in this context, we identified a novel NK-activating molecule, named IFN regulatory factor 3–dependent NK-activating molecule (INAM), a tetraspanin-like membrane glycoprotein (also called Fam26F). In the current study, we generated INAM-deficient mice and investigated the in vivo function of INAM. We found that cytotoxicity against NK cell–sensitive tumor cell lines was barely decreased in *Inam*$^{-/-}$ mice, whereas the number of IFN-γ–producing cells was markedly decreased in the early phase. Notably, deficiency of INAM in NK and accessory cells, such as CD8α$^+$ conventional DCs and Mφs, led to a robust decrease in IFN-γ production. In conformity with this phenotype, INAM effectively suppressed lung metastasis of B16F10 melanoma cells, which is controlled by NK1.1$^+$ cells and IFN-γ. These results suggest that INAM plays a critical role in NK-CD8α$^+$ conventional DC (and Mφ) interaction leading to IFN-γ production from NK cells in vivo. INAM could therefore be a novel target molecule for cancer immunotherapy against IFN-γ–suppressible metastasis. ***The Journal of Immunology*****, 2014, 193: 5199–5207.**

Microbial components play a major role in activating innate and adaptive immune responses by triggering pattern recognition receptors. Nucleic acid adjuvants, including polyinosinic-polycytidylic acid (polyI:C) and unmethylated CpG dinucleotides, strongly promote Th1 immune responses against cancer and infected cells and induce type I IFN and other inflammatory cytokines (1, 2). PolyI:C strongly enhances priming and expansion of Ag-specific T cells and NK cells with dramatic regression of syngeneic implant tumors in mice (3–6). NK cells belong to group 1 innate lymphocytes (ILC1s) and control progression of several types of tumors and microbial infections (7). Although polyI:C (an analog of viral dsRNA) is a ligand for multiple receptors, including dsRNA-dependent protein kinase, retinoic acid–inducible gene-I, melanoma differentiation–associated protein-5 (MDA5), and TLR3, both of the pathways initiated by TLR3/Toll/IL-1R domain–containing adaptor molecule 1 (TICAM-1) and MDA5/mitochondrial antiviral signaling protein confer antitumor activity on NK cells in vivo (8, 9).

PolyI:C also directly and indirectly activates human NK cells and other ILC1s (10, 11). PolyI:C participates in secondary activation of murine NK cells through stimulation of accessory cells such as dendritic cells (DCs) and other myeloid cells (12–14). In these interactions, previous studies have shown that type I IFN and cell contact via IL-15 receptors play a critical role in accessory cell activation followed by NK activation (15). In contrast, our previous studies showed that polyI:C induced bone marrow–derived DC (BMDC)–mediated NK cell activation through the TLR3/TICAM-1/IFN regulatory factor 3 (IRF3) pathway, which promoted antitumor immunity by adoptive transfer in a type I IFN- and IL-15–independent manner (8, 16). As the key molecule for this NK–DC interaction, we identified a novel IRF3-inducible tetraspanin-like membrane glycoprotein, named IRF3-dependent NK-activating molecule (INAM). INAM expression was induced not only in myeloid DCs but also in NK cells by polyI:C stimulation in vivo. Transfection of INAM in both BMDC and NK cells cooperated in inducing IFN-γ production and cytotoxicity against the NK-sensitive B16D8 cell line.

To investigate the role of INAM in vivo, we generated INAM-deficient mice by the standard gene-targeting method. INAM expression was induced not only in NK cells and conventional DC

*Department of Microbiology and Immunology, Graduate School of Medicine, Hokkaido University, Sapporo 060-8638, Japan; [†]Division of Disease Model Innovation, Institute for Genetic Medicine, Hokkaido University, Sapporo 060-8638, Japan; [‡]Research Institute for Microbial Disease, Osaka University, Osaka 565-0871, Japan

[1]Current address: Department of Pathology and Cellular Biology, Faculty of Medicine, University of Montreal, Montreal, QC, Canada.

[2]Current address: Department of Medicine, Howard Hughes Medical Institute, Washington University School of Medicine, St. Louis, MO.

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Address correspondence and reprint requests to Prof. Tsukasa Seya, Department of Microbiology and Immunology, Graduate School of Medicine, Hokkaido University, Kita 15, Nishi 7, Kita-ku, Sapporo 060-8638, Japan. E-mail address: seya-tu@pop.med.hokudai.ac.jp

The online version of this article contains supplemental material.

Abbreviations used in this article: BMDC, bone marrow–derived DC; BST2, bone marrow stromal cell Ag 2; cDC, conventional DC; DC, dendritic cell; IFNAR1, IFN (α and β) receptor 1; ILC1, group 1 innate lymphocyte; INAM, IFN regulatory factor 3–dependent NK-activating molecule; IRF, IFN regulatory factor; Mφ, macrophage; MDA5, melanoma differentiation–associated protein-5; pDC, plasmacytoid DC; polyI:C, polyinosinic-polycytidylic acid; qPCR, quantitative real-time PCR; TICAM-1, Toll/IL-1R domain–containing adaptor molecule 1; WT, wild-type.

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(cDC) subsets but also in other immune cells including macrophages (Mφs) and plasmacytoid DCs (pDCs) by polyI:C stimulation. Cytotoxicity against NK cell–sensitive tumor cell lines was barely decreased in *Inam*$^{-/-}$ mice, whereas the number of IFN-γ–producing cells markedly decreased in the early phase. We also showed that CD8α^{+} cDCs and Mφs facilitate secretion of IFN-γ from NK cells in response to polyI:C stimulation in vitro and in vivo. Notably, deficiency of INAM on NK and their accessory cells led to a robust decrease in IFN-γ production. Therefore, these results infer that INAM plays a critical role in the interaction of NK-CD8α^{+} cDCs (and Mφs) leading to IFN-γ production from NK cells. In agreement with this suggested phenotype, INAM effectively suppressed lung metastasis of B16F10 melanoma cells by controlling activation of NK1.1^{+} cells and IFN-γ. Taken together, these results provide the first demonstration, to our knowledge, that INAM plays a critical role in the interaction of NK–CD8α^{+} cDCs, which allows NK cells to produce IFN-γ. We propose in this study that INAM is a novel target molecule for immunotherapy against IFN-γ–suppressible tumors.

Materials and Methods

Mice

All mice were backcrossed with C57BL/6 mice more than seven times before use. A C57BL/6 background *Inam* (*Fam26f*)–targeted embryonic stem cell line, JM8A3.N1 of FAM26F tm2a (European Conditional Mouse Mutagenesis Program) Wtsi, was purchased from the European Conditional Mouse Mutagenesis Program. Chimeric mice were generated by aggregation of the mutated embryonic stem cells at the 8 cell stage. To remove exon 2 of *Inam*, the *Inam* heterozygous mutants were crossed with Cre-transgenic mice. The *Inam* heterozygous mutants obtained were intercrossed to obtain *Inam* homozygous mutants. *Ticam-1*$^{-/-}$ and *Mavs*$^{-/-}$ mice were generated in our laboratory (8, 16). *Irf-3*$^{-/-}$ and *Ifnar1*$^{-/-}$ mice were provided by Dr. T. Taniguchi (17). *Batf3*$^{-/-}$ C57BL/6 mice were purchased from The Jackson Laboratory (Bar Harbor, ME) (18). The *Batf3*$^{-/-}$ mice of C57BL/6 background [unlike 129 and BALB/c background (19)] lacked splenic CD8a^{+} DCs as described previously (18) and evoked insufficient T cell functional response against extrinsic Ag and adjuvant (Azuma et al., submitted for publication). C57BL/6 background were purchased from CLEA Japan (Shizuoka, Japan). Experiments were performed with sex-matched mice at 8–14 wk of age. All mice were bred and maintained under specific pathogen-free conditions in the animal facility of the Hokkaido University Graduate School of Medicine. Animal experimental protocols and guidelines were approved by the Animal Safety Center, Hokkaido University.

Semiquantitative RT-PCR and quantitative real-time PCR

Total RNA was extracted using TRIzol according to the manufacturer's instructions (Invitrogen). cDNA was generated by using the High Capacity cDNA Transcription Kit (ABI) with random primers according to the manufacturer's instructions. Quantitative real-time PCR (qPCR) was performed using the Step One Real-Time PCR system (ABI). The primer sequences for qPCR analysis were 5′-CAACTGCAATGCCACGCTA-3′ and 5′-TCCAACCGAACACCTGAGACT-3′ for *Inam*; 5′-TTAACTGAGGCTGGCATTCATG-3′ and 5′-ACCTACACTGACACAGCCCAAA-3′ for *Il15*; 5′-GACAAAGAAAGCCGCCTCAA-3′ and 5′-ATGGCAGCCATTGTTCCTG-3′ for *Il18*; 5′-ACCGTGTTTACGAGGAACCCTA-3′ and 5′-GGTGAGAGCTGGCTGTTGAG-3′ for *Irf7*; 5′-GCCGAGACACAGGCAAAC-3′ and 5′-CCAGGGCTTGAGACACCTTC-3′ for bone marrow stromal cell Ag 2 (*Bst2*); and 5′-GCCTGGAGAAACCTGCCA-3′ and 5′-CCCTCAGATGCCTGCTTCA-3′ for *Gapdh*. The primer sequences for semi-qPCR analysis were 5′-CAACTGCAATGCCACGCTA-3′ and 5′-TCCAACCGAACACCTGAGACT-3′ for *Gapdh*.

Mφ depletion and stimulation using TLR agonists in vivo

To generate Mφ-depleted mice, mice were injected i.p. with 150 μl Clophosome-Clodronate Liposomes (FormuMax). For qPCR analysis of *Inam* induction using some TLR antagonists in Fig. 1E, mice were injected i.p. with 50 μg polyI:C (GE Bioscience), 50 μg Pam3CSK4 (Boehringer Ingelheim), 10 μg LPS (Sigma-Aldrich), 50 μg R837 (InvivoGen), and 50 μg CpG ODN1826 (InvivoGen). In other experiments, polyI:C was injected i.p. at a dose of 200 μg/mouse.

Cells

For isolation of DC subsets, Mφs and NK cells, spleens were treated with 400 Mandle U/ml collagenase D (Roche) at 37°C for 25 min in HBSS (Sigma-Aldrich). EDTA was added, and the cell suspension was incubated for an additional 5 min at 37°C. NK cells were purified from spleens by positive selection of DX5-positive cells with DX5 MACS beads (Miltenyi Biotec). CD8α^{+} cDCs were purified using a CD8α^{+} DC isolation kit and CD11c MACS beads (Miltenyi Biotec). CD8α^{-} cDCs were purified with CD11c MACS beads (Miltenyi Biotec) from the negative fraction after CD8α^{+} cDC separation. F4/80^{+} Mφs were isolated using MACS-positive selection beads (Miltenyi Biotec) as described previously (13). pDC Ag-1^{+} pDCs were isolated with pDC Ag-1 MACS beads (Miltenyi Biotec). All immune cells were purified from spleens by repeated positive selection to achieve high purity (90%). Leukocytes from the lung were prepared as previously reported (18). Mouse immune cells were cultured in RPMI 1640/10% FCS/55 μM 2-ME/10 mM HEPES. B16D8, B16F10, YAC-1, and RMA-S were cultured in RPMI 1640/10% FCS.

Cell culture

To investigate potential interactions with NK–accessory cells, MACS-sorted accessory cells were cocultured with freshly isolated NK cells (accessory cells /NK = 1:2) with or without 20 μg/ml polyI:C for 24 h. In some coculture experiments using the transwell system, NK cells were added to 0.4-μm pore transwells (Corning) in the presence of polyI:C. Activation of NK cells was assessed by measuring the concentration of IFN-γ (ELISA; GE Healthcare) in the medium. For the IFN (α and β) receptor 1 (IFNAR1) blocking experiment, anti-IFNAR Ab at a final concentration of 10 μg/ml was added to the cultures before addition of polyI:C. For measurement of IL-12p40 and type I IFNs, we used ELISA kits purchased from BioLegend and PBL Biomedical Laboratories, respectively.

FACS analysis

For intracellular cytokine staining of NK cells, we isolated spleen or lung from polyI:C- or PBS-injected mice at each time point and harvested their leukocytes as described previously (18, 19). The leukocytes were incubated in medium with 10 μg/ml brefeldin A for 4 h. Cells were fixed and stained with a combination of anti-NK1.1 (PK136) and anti-CD3ε (145-2C11) Abs (BioLegend), followed by permeabilization and staining with anti-IFN-γ (XMG1.2) Ab (BioLegend), anti–granzyme B (NGZB) Ab (eBioscience), anti–TNF-α (MP6-XT22) Ab (BioLegend), anti–GM-CSF (MP1-22E9) Ab (BioLegend), or anti–IL-2 (JES6-5H4) Ab (BioLegend) using a BD Cytofix/Cytoperm Kit (BD Biosciences). For staining of the C terminus of INAM of each immune cell type, after treatment of anti-CD16/32 (no. 93), cell-surface molecules of splenocytes were stained with anti-CD3ε (145-2C11), anti-CD8α (53-6.7), anti-CD11c (N418), anti-NK1.1, anti-F4/80 (BM8), anti-Gr1 (RB6-8C5), anti-CD11b (M1/70), or anti-CD19 (MB19-1) Abs (BioLegend) or with anti-B220 (RA3-6B2) or anti-CD4 (L3T4) Abs (eBioscience). After staining of the cell surface, cells were fixed and permeabilized using a BD Cytofix/Cytoperm Kit (BD Biosciences) and then stained with an anti-INAM polyclonal Ab as described previously (16). To detect activating markers, NK receptors, and developmental markers, splenocytes were stained with anti-CD27 (LG.3A10), anti-CD25 (PC61), anti-NKp46 (29A1.4), anti-NKG2D (C7), anti-DNAM-1 (10E5), and anti-TRAIL (N2B2) Abs from BioLegend or anti-Fas (Jo2) from BD Biosciences. For detection of dead cells, samples were stained with ViaProbe from BD Biosciences. Samples were processed on an FACSCalibur flow cytometer and analyzed with FlowJo software (Tree Star).

Tumor inoculation and polyI:C treatment

PolyI:C therapy against mice with B16D8 tumor burden was described previously (8). B16F10 melanoma cells (2×10^5) were injected into wild-type (WT) or *Inam*$^{-/-}$ mice via the tail vein on day 0. PolyI:C was injected i.p. on days 1, 4, 7, and 10 at a dose of 200 μg/mouse. The control group was treated with PBS. All mice were killed 12 d after tumor inoculation. The lungs were excised and fixed in Mildform (Wako) for counting of surface colonies under a dissection microscope.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were made with the Student *t* test for paired data. Statistical analyses were made with ANOVA in multiple comparisons. The *p* value of significant differences is reported.

Results

Generation of INAM-deficient mice

We designed a targeting vector to disrupt exon 2, which encodes the C-terminal transmembrane and cytoplasmic regions of INAM

(Fig. 1A). The heterozygosity and homozygosity of siblings were verified by Southern blot analysis (Fig. 1B). Mutant mice were born at the expected Mendelian ratio from *Inam*$^{-/-}$ and *Inam*$^{+/-}$ parents and showed normal healthy development under specific pathogen-free conditions (Fig. 1C). We also examined the composition of immune cells in the spleen and found no clear difference between WT and *Inam*$^{-/-}$ mice (Table I). Murine NK cells are divided into four subsets in their maturation stage based on the surface density of CD27 and CD11b: CD11b^{low}/CD27^{low}, CD11b^{low}/CD27^{high}, CD11b^{high}/CD27^{high}, and CD11b^{high} /CD27^{low} (20). We examined the composition of splenic NK cells in each maturation stage and found no clear difference between WT and *Inam*$^{-/-}$ mice (Supplemental Fig. 1A). A previous study showed that *Inam* mRNA is highly expressed in spleen and thymus under steady-state conditions

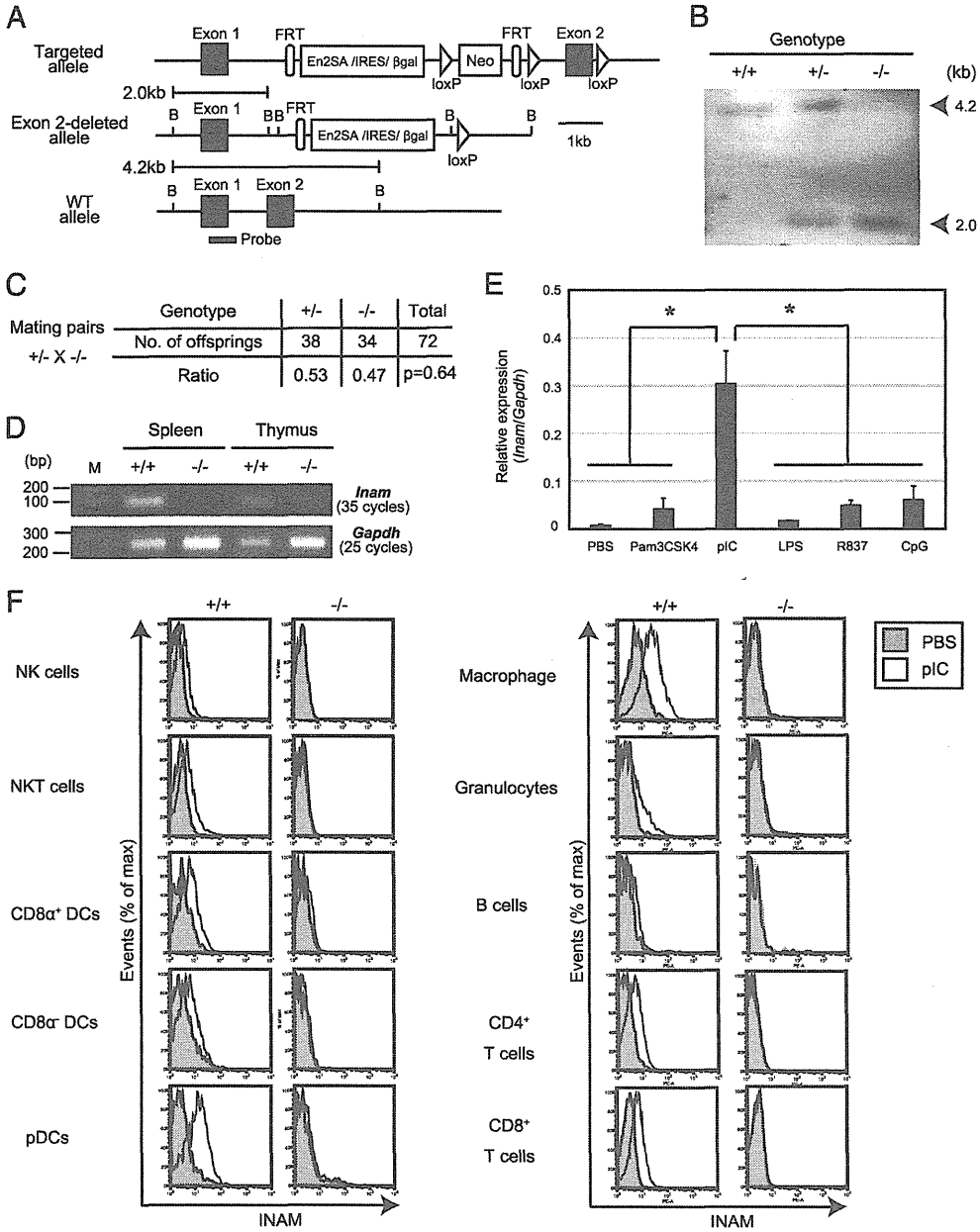

FIGURE 1. Generation of INAM-deficient mice. (**A**) Structure of the mouse *Inam*-targeted, *Inam*-disrupted, and WT allele. Closed boxes indicate the coding exon of Inam. A probe (602 bp) for Southern blot analysis was designed in exon 1. (**B**) Southern blot analysis of BamHI-digested genomic DNA isolated from WT (+/+), heterozygous mutant (+/−), and homozygous mutant (−/−) mice. (**C**) Genotype analyses of offspring from heterozygote intercrosses. The χ^2 goodness-of-fit test indicated that deviation from the Mendelian ratio was not statistically significant ($p > 0.1$). (**D**) RT-PCR analysis of spleen and thymus. Total RNA sets from spleen and thymus in WT (+/+) and *Inam*$^{-/-}$ (−/−) mice were extracted and subjected to RT-PCR to determine *Inam* expression. (**E**) *Inam* mRNA expression in response to TLR agonists. Total RNA were isolated from the spleens of mice in each group ($n = 3$) at 3 h after TLR agonist stimulation and subjected to quantitative PCR to determine to determine *Inam* expression. *$p < 0.05$ (**F**) INAM expression of immune cells. WT (+/+) and *Inam*$^{-/-}$ (−/−) mice were i.p. injected with 200 μg polyI:C (pIC) or PBS ($n = 2$). After 12 h, INAM expression of each immune cell type was analyzed by flow cytometry. Open histograms and shaded histograms indicate immune cells derived from the mice. Immune cells were classified as NK cells (CD3ε$^-$/NK1.1$^+$), NKT cells (CD3ε$^-$/NK1.1^{int}), B cells (CD19c$^+$/B220$^+$), CD8$^+$ T cells (CD3ε$^+$/CD8α$^+$), CD4$^+$ T cells (CD3ε$^+$/CD4α$^+$), classic CD8α$^-$ cDCs (CD11c^{high}/CD8α$^-$), classic CD8α$^+$ cDCs (CD11c^{high}/CD8α$^+$), pDCs (CD11c^{int}/B220$^+$), Mφs (CD11c$^{low\text{-}dim}$/CD11b$^{low\text{-}dim}$/F4/80$^+$), and granulocytes (CD11b^{high}/Gr-1$^+$). The data shown are representative of at least two independent experiments.

Table I. Development of hematopoietic cells in INAM-deficient mice

Cells	WT	*Inam*$^{-/-}$	Student *t* Test
CD4$^+$ T cells	16.9 ± 0.3	16.2 ± 2.2	$p = 0.69$
CD8$^+$ T cells	8.6 ± 0.5	8.0 ± 1.0	$p = 0.27$
B cells	55.6 ± 1.9	56.4 ± 3.5	$p = 0.65$
NK cells	1.2 ± 0.4	2.3 ± 0.7	$p = 0.22$
NKT cells	0.9 ± 0.1	0.76 ± 0.2	$p = 0.27$
pDCs	1.0 ± 0.1	1.0 ± 0.1	$p = 0.91$
CD8α$^+$ DCs	0.2 ± 0.01	0.3 ± 0.02	$p = 0.03$
CD8α$^-$ DCs	0.49 ± 0.03	0.8 ± 0.2	$p = 0.09$
Granulocytes	0.3 ± 0.04	1.0 ± 1.2	$p = 0.43$
Mφ	1.8 ± 0.6	2.2 ± 0.8	$p = 0.45$
Resident monocytes	0.4 ± 0.1	0.4 ± 0.1	$p = 0.96$
Inflammatory monocytes	0.2 ± 0.03	0.2 ± 0.2	$p = 0.82$

Data are percentages unless otherwise indicated.

(16). In our study, mRNA expression of *Inam* in these tissues was clearly absent in the *Inam*-null mouse (Fig. 1D). To assess the induction of *Inam* mRNA expression in response to TLR agonists in vivo, we performed qPCR analysis using spleens at 3 h after i.p. administration of those agonists or PBS. The levels of *Inam* mRNA expression was strongly induced by polyI:C, but not other TLR agonists (Fig. 1E). Hence, these data indicate that polyI:C is the strongest TLR agonist to induce *Inam* expression of the TLR agonists tested in vivo. To investigate the cellular distribution of INAM protein expression, we performed flow cytometric analysis using polyclonal Abs to mouse INAM after i.p. administration of polyI:C. The levels of INAM protein expression in these cells clearly reflected the absence of the mRNA (Fig. 1F). Flow cytometric analysis of spleen cells demonstrated that INAM expression was induced in all myeloid lineage cells, including DC subsets and NK cells. In particular, INAM expression was highly induced in pDCs and F4/80$^+$ Mφs.

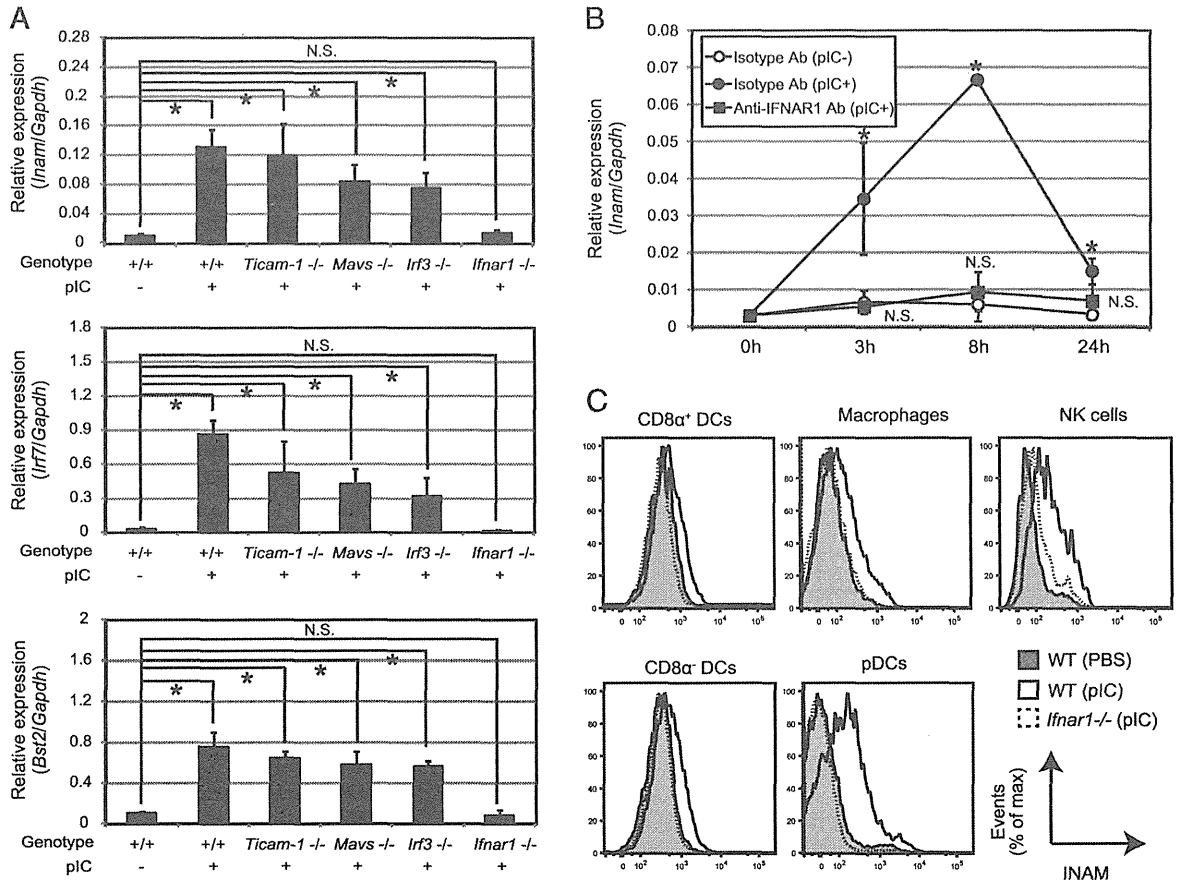

FIGURE 2. Signaling pathway of INAM induction in vivo. (**A**) *Inam* expression in splenocytes derived from various gene-manipulated mice. After 3 h, total RNA were isolated from the spleens of mice in each group ($n = 3$) and subjected to quantitative PCR to determine *Inam*, *Irf7*, and *Bst2* expression. (**B**) Type I IFN signaling is required for *Inam* expression of splenocytes derived from WT mice. Splenocytes ($n = 3$) were treated with polyI:C (pIC), IFNAR1-blocking Ab, or isotype control Ab for 0, 3, 8, and 24 h. (**C**) Type I IFN signaling is required for INAM expression of DC subsets, NK cells, and Mφs. WT and *Ifnar1*$^{-/-}$ mice were i.p. injected with 200 μg polyI:C or PBS ($n = 2$). After 12 h, INAM expression of each immune cell type was analyzed by flow cytometry. The data shown are representative of at least two independent experiments. Data are means ± SD of three independent samples. *$p < 0.05$.

Type I IFN signaling is required for INAM induction in vivo

The TLR3/TICAM-1 and MDA5/mitochondrial antiviral signaling protein pathways activate the transcription factor IRF3 in response to viral RNA. In BMDC, polyI:C (an analog of virus dsRNA) directly induces INAM expression via the TICAM-1/IRF3 pathway (16). Moreover, in the absence of pattern recognition receptor signals, IFN-α stimulation triggers INAM expression in BMDC. However, it is unclear which innate signal is required for its up-regulation in vivo. To understand the inducible pathway of *Inam* expression, we investigated its expression in spleen cells derived from various genetically manipulated mice. After polyI:C stimulation, *Inam* expression was completely undetectable in IFN (α and β) receptor 1 $(Ifnar1)^{-/-}$ mice, but not in $Ticam\text{-}1^{-/-}$ mice, a similar pattern of expression to that seen in type I IFN–inducible genes including *Irf7* and *Bst2* (Fig. 2A). Additionally, *Inam* expression was partially reduced in mice deficient in *Mavs* or *Irf3*, factors that are critical for producing type I IFN in response to polyI:C (3, 16). To assess the effect of type I IFN in WT mice, splenocytes were stimulated with polyI:C in the presence of anti-IFNAR1 Ab or isotype control Ab. Expression of *Inam* was transient, peaking at 8 h in the stimulated group in the presence of isotype control Ab (Fig. 2B). In contrast, blocking of the type I IFN receptor led to abrogation of *Inam* induction. In agreement with these results, INAM protein expression was completely undetectable in DC subsets, NK cells, and Mφs derived from IFNAR1-deficient mice (Fig. 2C). Hence, these data indicate that INAM expression depends on the IFNAR1 signaling pathway in vivo.

INAM is required for IFN-γ production through NK–accessory interaction

To identify the accessory cells directly responding to polyI:C and leading to IFN-γ production from NK cells, we performed an experiment on a coculture consisting of MACS-sorted splenic NK cells and myeloid immune cells including DC subsets and Mφs. Purified NK cells cultured in medium with or without polyI:C did not produce IFN-γ (Fig. 3A). In contrast, a high level of IFN-γ production was observed in the supernatant of NK cells cocultured with $CD8\alpha^+$ cDCs and Mφs in the presence of polyI:C, but not in pDCs and $CD8\alpha^-$ cDCs. In our reports, cell-to-cell contact is required for the interaction between NK cells and BMDC (8, 16). To confirm that the cell-to-cell contact is a prerequisite for the interaction between NK cells and splenic accessory cells, we performed coculture experiments using transwell system. As

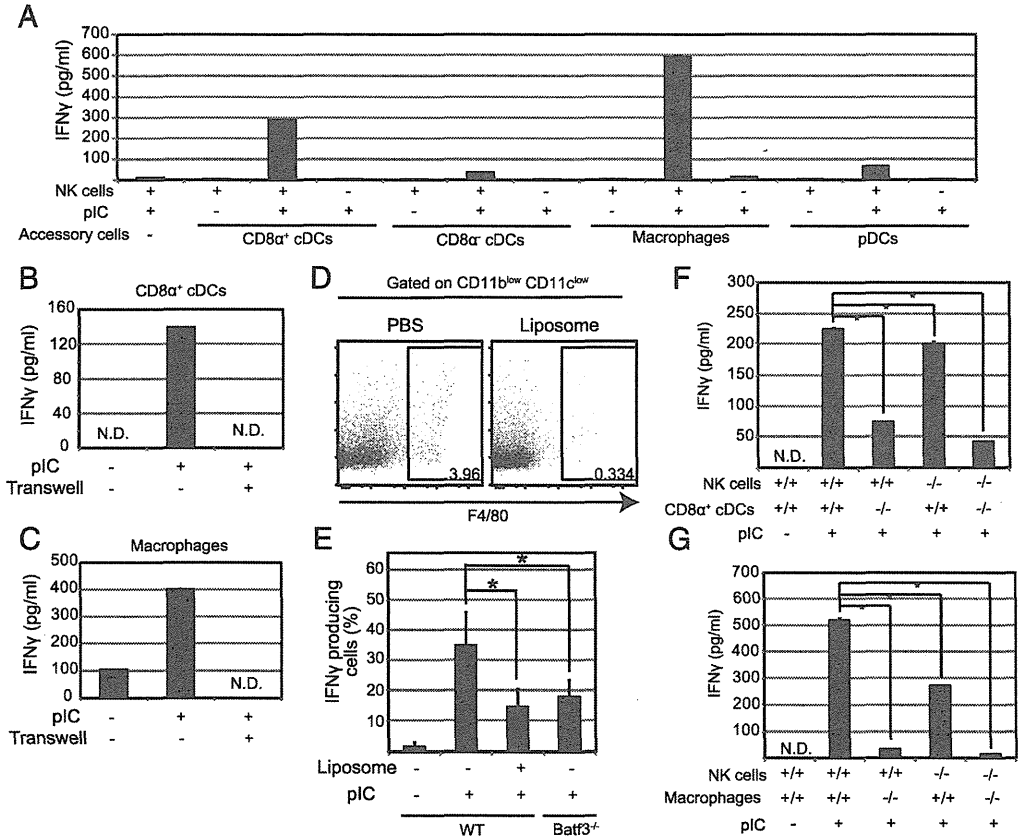

FIGURE 3. INAM-dependent NK cell activation in vitro. (**A**) IFN-γ production of NK cells via polyI:C (pIC)-stimulated DC subsets and Mφs. NK cells, DC subsets, and Mφs were enriched by MACS separation from WT and $Inam^{-/-}$ mice. (**B**) Cell-to-cell contact-dependent NK cell activation via $CD8\alpha^+$ cDCs. (**C**) Cell-to-cell contact-dependent NK cell activation via Mφs. NK cells were cocultured with DC subsets and Mφs in the presence of polyI:C (20 μg/ml) for 24 h. The concentrations of IFN-γ in the culture supernatants were measured by ELISA. (**D**) Mφ depletion with clodronate liposomes. WT mice were i.p. injected with clodronate liposomes (150 μl/mouse) to remove Mφs. After 24 h, the efficiency of Mφ depletion was measured by FACS analysis. (**E**) Production of IFN-γ by NK cells in WT, Mφ-depleted WT, and $Batf3^{-/-}$ mice. WT, Mφ-depleted WT, and $Batf3^{-/-}$ mice were i.p. injected with 200 μg polyI:C ($n = 3$). After 3 h, splenocytes were isolated, cultured with brefeldin A for an additional 4 h, and analyzed for intracellular content of IFN-γ by FACS, gating on $CD3\varepsilon^-/NK1.1^+$ cells. (**F**) INAM-dependent NK cell activation via $CD8\alpha^+$ cDCs. (**G**) INAM-dependent NK cell activation via Mφs. NK cells, $CD8\alpha^+$ cDCs, and Mφs were enriched via MACS separation from WT and $Inam^{-/-}$ mice. NK cells were cocultured with $CD8\alpha^+$ cDCs or Mφs in the presence of polyI:C (20 μg/ml) for 24 h. The concentrations of IFN-γ in the culture supernatants were measured by ELISA. The data shown are representative of at least two independent experiments. Data are means ± SD of three independent samples. $*p < 0.05$.

a result, IFN-γ production was completely blocked under transwell conditions (Fig. 3B, 3C). Therefore, NK cells are primed through contact with CD8α$^+$ cDCs and Mφs independent of soluble mediators. To directly test the contribution of CD8α$^+$ cDCs and Mφs to polyI:C-mediated NK cell activation in vivo, we analyzed *Batf3*$^{-/-}$ mice, which largely lack the CD8α$^+$ cDC population in the spleen of C57BL/6 mice (21), and Mφ-depleted mice generated by clodronate liposome injection (22, 23). Approximately 85% of Mφs were depleted at 24 h after clodronate liposome injection (Fig. 3D). Three hours after polyI:C stimulation, NK cell secretion of IFN-γ was partially decreased in *Batf3*$^{-/-}$ and Mφ-depleted mice (Fig. 3E). These results indicate that CD8α$^+$ cDCs and Mφs are responsible for secretion of IFN-γ from NK cells in response to polyI:C stimulation.

INAM acts on NK cells and BMDC to orchestrate NK–DC interaction triggered by polyI:C stimulation (16). To investigate the role of INAM in the interaction of NK-CD8α$^+$ cDC and NK-Mφ, we performed an experiment on a coculture of MACS-sorted splenic NK cells with their accessory cells isolated from WT and *Inam*$^{-/-}$ mice. Cocultures of NK cells and accessory cells lacking INAM showed that IFN-γ production from NK cells required INAM expression in either NK cells or accessory cells (Fig. 3F, 3G). Notably, deficiency of INAM in both NK and accessory cells led to a marked decrease in IFN-γ production. Taken together, these results suggest that INAM is required for cell–cell contact in both NK cells and accessory cells and early IFN-γ production by NK cells.

INAM plays a critical role in rapid IFN-γ production by NK cells in response to polyI:C in vivo

To investigate the role of INAM in polyI:C-mediated cytotoxicity of NK cells, we injected WT and *Inam*$^{-/-}$ mice with polyI:C. After 0, 3, and 24 h, we isolated splenic NK cells and measured cytotoxicity ex vivo. In the four NK-sensitive cell lines B16D8, RMA-S, B16F10, and YAC-1, we found no difference between WT and *Inam*$^{-/-}$ mice in the cytotoxic effect of NK cells against these cell lines (data not shown). Consistent with these results, cell numbers expressing granzyme B, known as a cytotoxic lymphocyte protease, barely differed between splenocytes of WT and *Inam*$^{-/-}$ mice (Fig. 4A). To determine the role of INAM in NK cell production of IFN-γ in response to polyI:C, we isolated splenocytes 0, 1, and 3 h after injecting WT and *Inam*$^{-/-}$ mice with polyI:C and determined the intracellular content of IFN-γ in NK cells. After 3 h, NK cells isolated from *Inam*$^{-/-}$ mice produced less IFN-γ than WT NK cells (Fig. 4B). Additionally, we also measured the numbers of other cytokine-producing cells, including GM-CSF, IL-2, and TNF-α, from NK cells at 3 h after polyI:C stimulation in WT and *Inam*$^{-/-}$ mice and confirmed no INAM dependence of the production of these cytokines (Supplemental Fig. 2A). Therefore, INAM specifically regulates IFN-γ through CD8α DC at least within this time frame. We also measured CD69 expression, known as an NK-activating marker at 0, 3, and 24 h after polyI:C stimulation. CD69 upregulation in response to polyI:C was partially impaired in NK cells from *Inam*$^{-/-}$ mice in comparison with those from WT mice 24 h after polyI:C stimulation (Fig. 4C). We found no clear difference between WT and *Inam*$^{-/-}$ mice in expression of CD27 or NK1.1, both of which evoke IFN-γ production through their interaction with the ligands, or in any other NK receptors at 0, 3, and 24 h after polyI:C injection (24) (Supplemental Fig. 1B). These results indicate that INAM-mediated NK activation is independent of incremental expression of these receptors. Previous reports suggested that proinflammatory cytokines including IL-12, IL-15, IL-18, and type I IFN play critical roles in the cytotoxicity and IFN-γ production of NK cells (15, 25, 26). To determine their expression at 0, 3, and 24 h

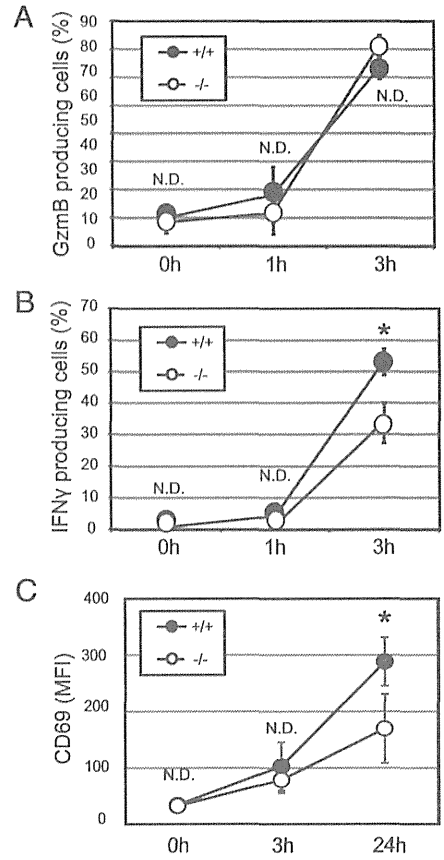

FIGURE 4. INAM-dependent NK cell activation in vivo. (**A**) Production of granzyme B (GzmB) by NK cells. (**B**) Production of IFN-γ by NK cells. WT (+/+) and *Inam*$^{-/-}$ (−/−) mice were i.p. injected with 200 μg polyI:C. After 0, 1, and 3 h, splenocytes were isolated, cultured with brefeldin A for an additional 4 h, and analyzed for intracellular content of IFN-γ and granzyme B by FACS, gating on CD3ε$^-$/NK1.1$^+$ cells (n = 3 or 4). (**C**) Expression of CD69 on the surface of NK cells. WT (+/+) and *Inam*$^{-/-}$ (−/−) mice were i.p. injected with 200 μg polyI:C or PBS. After 0, 3, and 24 h, CD69 expression was assayed by FACS, and the data were quantitatively analyzed using mean fluorescence intensity (MFI), gating on CD3ε$^-$/NK1.1$^+$ cells (n = 3). The data shown are representative of at least two independent experiments. Data are means ± SD of three independent samples. *$p < 0.05$.

after polyI:C stimulation, we performed ELISA and qPCR analysis of serum and spleen cells from WT and *Inam*$^{-/-}$ mice. However, protein levels of IL12p40, IFN-α, and IFN-β were not affected by *Inam* disruption in mice (Supplemental Fig. 2B). Additionally, mRNA expression of *Il-15* and *Il-18* genes was not decreased in *Inam*$^{-/-}$ mice (Supplemental Fig. 2C). These results suggest that INAM plays a critical role in the CD69 expression and rapid IFN-γ production, but not the cytotoxicity, of NK cells in response to polyI:C in a cytokine-independent manner.

INAM is required for the antimetastatic effect by polyI:C-based cancer immunotherapy

Malignant melanomas are one of the most important targets of NK-mediated cancer immunotherapy (27). In this study, we tested two types of polyI:C-based cancer immunotherapy model using B16D8 and B16F10 cell lines. NK cells show high cytotoxicity activity against B16D8 cells established in our laboratory as a subline of the B16 melanoma cell line (28). This subline was characterized by its low or virtually absent metastatic properties when injected s.c. into syngeneic C57BL/6 mice. In contrast, the B16F10 subline was characterized by its high metastatic capacity

especially into the lung (29). In this model, NK1.1$^+$ cells and IFN-γ have a critical role in the suppression of pulmonary metastases (30).

A mouse model with s.c.-implanted B16D8 and polyI:C therapy has been established in our laboratory (8). To investigate the function of INAM involved in tumor growth retardation mediated by polyI:C, we challenged WT and *Inam*$^{-/-}$ mice with B16D8 implantation and then treated the mice with i.p. injection of polyI:C. The rate of B16D8 growth retardation was indistinguishable between WT and *Inam*$^{-/-}$ mice (Supplemental Fig. 3), which was largely dependent on the antitumor effect of polyI:C. This result is consistent with the observation that there is no difference in tumoricidal activity against B16D8 between WT and *Inam*$^{-/-}$ mice. To determine the role of INAM in the production of IFN-γ by lung NK cells in response to polyI:C, we isolated leukocytes from the lung at 0, 3, and 6 h after administration of polyI:C to B16F10-injected WT and *Inam*$^{-/-}$ mice and determined the intracellular content of IFN-γ in NK cells (Fig. 5A). After 6 h, NK cells isolated from *Inam*$^{-/-}$ mice produced less IFN-γ than WT NK cells (Fig. 5B). To investigate the function of INAM involved in pulmonary metastases induced by polyI:C, we i.v. challenged WT and *Inam*$^{-/-}$ mice with B16F10 cells and then treated the mice by i.p. injection of polyI:C. After four rounds of polyI:C treatment, we counted tumor foci in the lung. Under unstimulated conditions, there was no difference in the number and size of tumor foci in the lungs between WT and *Inam*$^{-/-}$ mice (Fig. 5C). In WT mice, i.p. injection of polyI:C exerted a significant inhibition in the growth of pulmonary metastases in tumor-bearing mice compared with PBS controls (Fig. 5D). In contrast, the effect of polyI:C therapy for pulmonary metastases was partially abrogated in *Inam*$^{-/-}$ mice. These results demonstrate that INAM plays a critical role in IFN-γ production by lung NK cells in response to polyI:C and unequivocally exhibits antitumor function in polyI:C-based cancer immunotherapy against IFN-γ–sensitive tumors metastasized to the lung.

BMDC confer direct cytotoxic activity on NK cells by stimulation with RNA via INAM-dependent cell–cell contact (16). Then, NK cells kill tumor cells via effectors, such as TRAIL and granzyme B, secondary to upregulation of INAM. However, splenic DCs hardly induce direct NK cytotoxicity as shown in this study. In this study, *Inam*$^{-/-}$ mice studies revealed that DC/Mφ primed NK cells in vivo to induce IFN-γ that was a major effector for NK antimetastatic activity. Thus, taken together with the previous results that BMDCs induce NK cytotoxicity via INAM (16), INAM-involved DC–NK contact induces two arrays of NK tumoricidal activities, killer effector and IFN-γ producer, depending on the properties of DC subsets. The role of INAM in ILC activation will be a matter of future interest in this context.

Discussion

In this study, we provide the first demonstration, to our knowledge, that INAM plays a critical role in the interactions of NK-CD8α$^+$ cDCs and Mφs leading to IFN-γ production from NK cells in vivo. Additionally, we also propose that INAM is a novel target molecule for cancer immunotherapy against IFN-γ–suppressible metastasis.

IFN-γ coordinates a diverse array of cellular programs via STAT1 activation, such as antimicrobial response, anti- or protumor response, production of proinflammatory cytokines, and induction of IRF1 (31). IRF1 activates a large number of secondary response genes, which carry out a range of immunomodulatory functions (32, 33). In secondary lymphoid organs including spleen and lymph nodes, NK cells are a dominant IFN-γ producer responding to polyI:C (5). IFN-γ primes Ag-specific CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$ T cells and also activates other innate immune cells including Mφs (34–36). The TLR3-dependent IFN-γ signaling pathway is important in protecting the host from pathogenesis induced by Coxsackievirus group B serotype 3 infection, which leads to IFN-γ production from NK cells (37, 38). Hence, IFN-γ

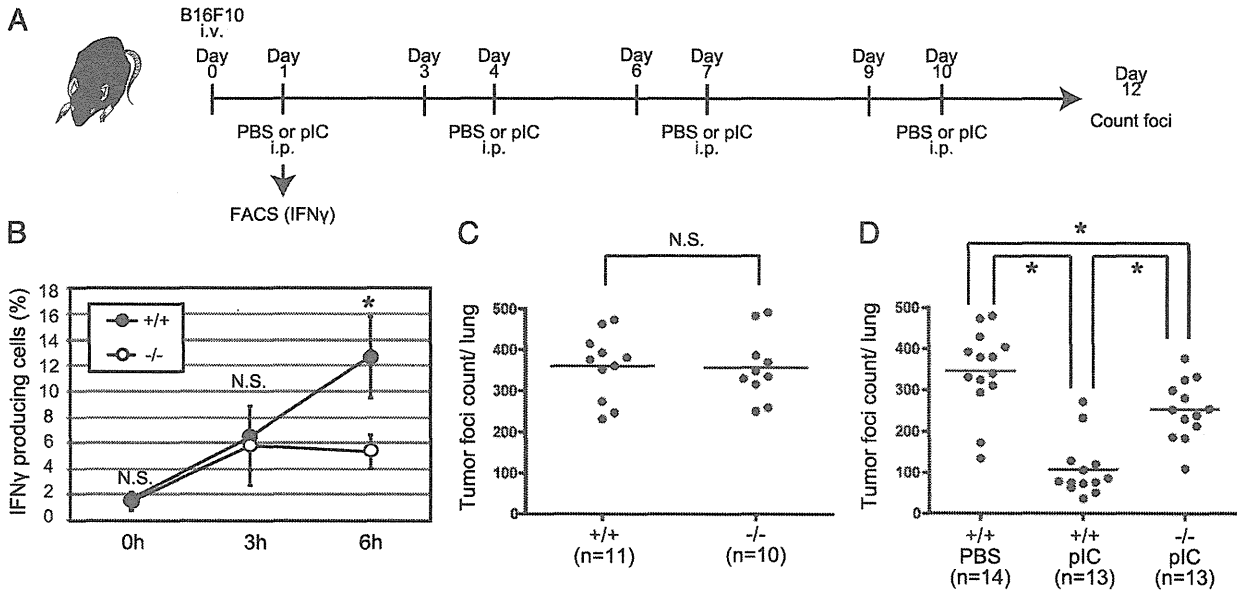

FIGURE 5. Antimetastatic activity of INAM against B16F10 melanoma. (**A**) The time schedule of polyI:C (pIC) treatment. (**B**) Production of IFN-γ by NK cells in the lung. After 24 h, WT and *Inam*$^{-/-}$ mice were i.p. injected with 200 μg polyI:C. Lung leukocytes were isolated and cultured with brefeldin A for an additional 4 h, and analyzed for frequency of NK cells and production of IFN-γ/granzyme B by FACS, gating on CD3ε$^-$/NK1.1$^+$ cells ($n = 3$ or 4). (**C**) Tumor foci counts in the lung of WT (+/+) and *Inam*$^{-/-}$ (−/−) mice under unstimulated conditions at day 12. (**D**) Tumor foci in the lung of WT (+/+) and *Inam*$^{-/-}$ (−/−) mice. WT (+/+) and *Inam*$^{-/-}$ (−/−) mice were i.v. injected with 2×10^5 B16F10 melanoma cells at day 0. At days 1, 4, 7, and 10, WT and *Inam*$^{-/-}$ mice were i.p. injected with 200 μg polyI:C. At day 12, the mice were sacrificed, and lungs were removed and fixed in 10% formalin solution to count surface colonies under a dissection microscope. The data shown are representative of at least two independent experiments. Data are means ± SD of three independent samples. *$p < 0.05$.

derived from NK cells controls innate and adaptive immunity, leading to a Th1 response.

In this study, we show that INAM evokes IFN-γ production by NK cells in the early phase by polyI:C stimulation (Figs. 4B, 5B). In a murine CMV infection model, IFN-γ is induced in NK cells by IL-12 and IL-18 produced by murine CMV–infected $CD11b^+$ cDCs, whereas these cytokines barely evoke any cytotoxic response in NK cells (39). In addition, IFN-γ production from NK cells is induced by anti-CD27 Ab stimulation, but again no cytotoxic response is triggered (24). Therefore, these reports indicate that NK cell cytotoxicity and IFN-γ production are independently controlled by different mechanisms. We found no clear difference between WT and *Inam*$^{-/-}$ mice in expression of these cell surface molecules and cytokines. Hence, the INAM-dependent IFN-γ production from NK cells is based on an as-yet-unknown mechanism(s) acting in a manner independent of these molecules.

CpG DNA is known to induce IFN-γ from NK cells, which is mediated through pDCs. TLR9 in pDCs responds to CpG, and the pDCs liberate IFN-α and TNF-α that participate in the induction of IFN-γ from NK cells (40). We checked induction of the Inam mRNA in spleen after stimulation with CpG in WT and *Inam*$^{-/-}$ mice (Fig. 1E). The levels of *Inam* mRNA as well as numbers of IFN-γ–producing cells were hardly increased in response to i.p. administration of CpG in WT as well as *Inam*$^{-/-}$ mice, suggesting no participation of INAM in CpG-induced NK cell IFN-γ production (data not shown). CpG participates in the activation of the TLR9 pathway in pDCs, but INAM in splenic cDCs and Mφs does not participate in CpG-mediated NK priming. The result is consistent with the fact that polyI:C is an agonist for TLR3 (but not for TLR9 predominantly expressed in pDCs), which is mainly expressed in $CD8\alpha^+$ DCs, especially professional Ag-presenting $CD141^+$ and $CD103^+$ DCs in mice (41).

$CD8\alpha^+$ cDCs directly recognize polyI:C via the TLR3/TICAM-1 pathway and promote IFN-γ production from NK cells in vitro (9). However, previous analysis of *Batf3*$^{-/-}$ mice indicated that absence of $CD8\alpha^+$ cDCs resulted in weak NK cell activation, in agreement with our data (19). We also found that NK cell secretion of IFN-γ was partially decreased in mice depleted of Mφs by injection of clodronate liposomes (Fig. 3E). Notably, expression of INAM by both NK cells and accessory cells is required for early IFN-γ production through NK-$CD8\alpha^+$ cDC and/or NK–Mφ interactions (Fig. 3F, 3G). The physiological role of these accessory cells in NK activation is poorly understood. However, our results indicate that $CD8\alpha^+$ cDCs and Mφs facilitate early secretion of IFN-γ from NK cells in response to polyI:C and INAM plays a critical role in the interaction between NK cells and $CD8\alpha^+$ cDCs and/or Mφs, leading to IFN-γ production.

IFN-γ exhibits both anti- and protumor activities (42). Systemic administration of polyI:C exerted a significant inhibitory effect on the growth of lung metastases in B16F10 melanoma-bearing mice (30, 42). Using this model, a previous study reported that $NK1.1^+$ cells and IFN-γ have a critical role in the protection of lung metastases (30). Previous studies demonstrated that the IFN-γ receptor expressed on host cells, but not on melanoma cells, is important for development of lung metastases (43–45). Hence, lung metastases are prevented by the IFN-γ–inducible immune response following NK cell activation. We show that INAM is involved in the IFN-γ production of lung NK cells in response to polyI:C stimulation and unequivocally exhibits antitumor functions in polyI:C-based cancer immunotherapy against IFN-γ–sensitive tumor foci in the lung (Fig. 5D). Therefore, we propose that INAM is a novel target molecule for cancer immunotherapy against IFN-γ–suppressible metastasis.

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Disclosures

The authors have no financial conflicts of interest.

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Cells in focus

Dendritic cell subsets involved in type I IFN induction in mouse measles virus infection models

Hiromi Takaki*, Hiroyuki Oshiumi, Misako Matsumoto, Tsukasa Seya*

Department of Microbiology and Immunology, Hokkaido University Graduate School of Medicine, Kita-ku, Sapporo 060-8638, Japan

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ABSTRACT

Measles caused by measles virus (MV) infection remains important in child mortality. Although the natural host of MV is human, mouse models expressing MV entry receptors (human CD46, CD150) and disrupting the interferon (IFN) pathways work for investigating immune responses during early MV infection *in vivo*. Dendritic cells (DCs) are primary targets for MV in the mouse models and are efficiently infected with several MV strains in the respiratory tract *in vivo*. However, questions remain about what kind of DC in a variety of DC subsets is involved in initial MV infection and how the RNA sensors evoke circumventing signals against MV in infected DCs. Since type I IFN-inducing pathways are a pivotal defense system that leads to the restriction of systemic viral infection, we have generated CD150-transgenic mice with disrupting each of the IFN-inducing pathway, and clarified that DC subsets had subset-specific IFN-inducing systems, which critically determined the DC's differential susceptibility to MV.

1. Introduction

The pathogenic measles virus (MV) causes measles in infants. The MV genome is a nonsegmented negative single-stranded RNA consisting of six genes that encode the nucleocapsid (N), phosphoprotein (P), matrix (M), fusion (F), hemagglutinin (H), and large (L) proteins. The P gene encodes P protein and the nonstructural V and C proteins. Although the nonstructural V and C proteins of wild type (WT) strains of MV are important in suppressing the host interferon (IFN) response in human cells (Gerlier and Valentin, 2009), WT strains of MV are less able to suppress type I IFN production in murine cells than in human cells (Shingai et al., 2005), suggesting that V and C proteins are relatively ineffective suppressors for IFN response in murine cells.

CD46 (also called MCP) was first identified as an MV entry receptor for laboratory-adapted and vaccine strains of MV. CD46 is expressed in all human nucleated cells including epithelial cells (Gerlier and Valentin, 2009). In 2000, human CD150, a signaling lymphocyte activation molecule (SLAM), was identified as the second MV entry receptor for all MV strains including WT (Tatsuo et al., 2000). Expression of CD150 is restricted to activated lymphocytes, dendritic cells (DCs), and macrophages (Delpeut et al., 2012), consistent with the lymphotropism of MV. However, the expression pattern of CD150 does not explain why WT strains of MV infect epithelial cells that do not express CD150. Recently, human nectin-4 (also called poliovirus receptor-related 4, PVRL4) was identified as the third entry receptor for WT strains of MV (Mühlebach et al., 2011; Noyce et al., 2011). Expression of nectin-4 is restricted to the basolateral surface of epithelial cells (Delpeut et al., 2012). Thus, laboratory-adapted and vaccine strains of MV use CD46 and CD150 as entry receptors, and WT strains of MV use CD150 and nectin-4. Initial infection with WT stains of MV *via* CD150 occurs in DCs and alveolar macrophages (AMs) and secondary spreading of MV infection is established in lymphocytes through infected DCs and AMs. Ultimately, MV-infected lymphocytes systemically spread to distal sites including the respiratory tract and then MV infects epithelial cells *via* nectin-4, resulting in release of MV into the airway lumen of the infected lung (Delpeut et al., 2012). C-type lectin DC-SIGN (also called CD209) has an important role for infection of DCs by laboratory-adapted and WT strains of MV (de Witte et al., 2006), although DC-SIGN is dispensable for MV entry. Both attachment and infection of immature DCs with MV are blocked by DC-SIGN inhibitors, suggesting that DC-SIGN is critical for enhancement of CD46/CD150-mediated infection of DCs (de Witte et al., 2006).

Human CD150 transgenic (Tg) and CD150 knock-in mice were generated as MV infection models to study receptor tropism and the immune dynamics of MV (Hahm et al., 2003, 2004; Ohno et al., 2007; Sellin et al., 2006; Shingai et al., 2005; Welstead et al., 2005) and these mice were somehow permissive to MV *in vivo*.

* Corresponding authors at: Department of Microbiology and Immunology, Hokkaido University Graduate School of Medicine, Kita 15, Nishi 7, Kita-ku, Sapporo 060-8638, Japan. Tel.: +81 11 706 7866; fax: +81 11 706 7866.
E-mail addresses: tahiromi@sci.hokudai.ac.jp (H. Takaki), seya-tu@pop.med.hokudai.ac.jp (T. Seya).

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Systemic infection by WT strains of MV *in vivo* was observed in CD150Tg/*Ifnar*$^{-/-}$ mice, generated by crossing CD150Tg mice with mice having the disrupted IFN receptor 1 (*Ifnar*) gene; the other is CD150Tg/*Stat1*$^{-/-}$ mice, generated by crossing CD150Tg mice with mice knocked out for the signal transduction and activator of transcription 1 (*Stat1*) gene, which is a major signaling molecule for the IFN receptor (Shingai et al., 2005; Welstead et al., 2005). Both models indicate the importance of the IFNAR pathway for restricting MV *in vivo* infection in mice. DCs and AMs are primary targets for MV intranasally inoculated into CD150Tg models (Ferreira et al., 2010), since these cells express CD150 and are located in the lung where host cells firstly encounter MV. Results from mouse models for MV *in vivo* infection reflect *in vitro* high susceptibility of human monocyte-derived DCs (moDCs) to MV. DCs and AMs are the first target cells during early MV infection in monkeys (de Swart et al., 2007; Lemon et al., 2011). All these data indicate that type I IFN produced by DCs and AMs primarily protects hosts from systemic MV infection.

In this review, we summarized the mouse model studies on the host antiviral response to MV infection, which involves both toll-like receptors (TLRs) and retinoic acid-inducible gene (RIG)-I-like receptors (RLRs) in specific DC subsets.

2. Type I IFN-inducing pathways respond to viral RNA

The IFN response, which is the induction of type I IFN-α/β is a major antiviral defense pathway that confers virus resistance to neighboring cells. Previous reports showed that viral RNA is detected by cytoplasmic pattern recognition receptors (PRRs) such as RIG-I and the melanoma differentiation-associated gene 5 (MDA5) (Kawai and Akira, 2009). MDA5 and RIG-I detect long and short dsRNA, respectively (Kato et al., 2008). TLR3 recognizes extracellular double-stranded RNA (dsRNA) in the endosome whereas RIG-I and MDA5 sense cytoplasmic dsRNA (Fig. 1). TLR3 recruits the adaptor, Toll/interleukin-1 receptor (TIR) homology domain-containing adaptor molecule 1 (TICAM-1, also called TRIF) in response to dsRNA and induces type I IFN production. Activation of RLRs is regulated by multiple consecutive processes including dephosphorylation, ubiquitination and oligomerization of RLR (Gack et al., 2007; Wies et al., 2013). The CARD domain of RLRs is phosphorylated by unknown kinases in steady state, prohibiting RLR activation (Wies et al., 2013). Viral infection activates RLRs *via* dephosphorylation by serine–threonine phosphatases PP1α and PP1γ (Wies et al., 2013). The dephosphorylated RLRs provide signals through the mitochondrial antiviral signaling protein (MAVS; also called VISA, Cardif, or IPS-1) to induce type I IFN. Disrupting these adaptor genes results in failure to activate IFN regulatory factor (IRF)-3 and IRF-7, abrogating type I IFN production and antiviral host defense. Virus-derived single-stranded RNA (ssRNA) is recognized by TLR7 and TLR8 which are in the endosome. MyD88-dependent signaling is activated upon viral RNA recognition by TLR7 to induce type I IFNs (Kawai and Akira, 2009). Unlike ubiquitous RLRs, TLR expression is restricted to particular cell types with a different set of TLRs (Table 1) (Edwards et al., 2003). This differential expression pattern of TLRs directs specific sets of cells to respond to particular TLR ligands, which enhance a variety of immune responses.

3. Type I IFN induction in MV-infected murine DCs

Studies in mice with targeted gene deletions provide insight into the mechanisms of type I IFN induction in response to MV infection *in vivo* and *in vitro*. Bone marrow-derived DCs (BMDCs) were used to study MV permissiveness of DCs, initially in CD150Tg mice (Ohno et al., 2007; Shingai et al., 2005; Welstead et al., 2005). Studies using BMDCs from CD150Tg mice in combination with *Mavs*$^{-/-}$, *Irf3*$^{-/-}$/*Irf7*$^{-/-}$, *Ticam1*$^{-/-}$ and *Myd88*$^{-/-}$ mice showed that type I IFN expression in BMDCs completely relied on MAVS but not TICAM-1 and MyD88 (Takaki et al., 2014). Surprisingly, BMDCs derived from CD150Tg/*Irf3*$^{-/-}$/*Irf7*$^{-/-}$ mice produce a detectable IFN-β in response to MV infection, which confers nonpermissiveness to CD150Tg/*Irf3*$^{-/-}$/*Irf7*$^{-/-}$ BMDCs (Takaki et al., 2014). A pharmacological study indicated that MV-derived IFN-β expression partially depended on NF-κB (Takaki et al., 2014). A recent study using West Nile virus showed that IRF3/IRF7 and IRF5 coordinately regulate the type I IFN response in DCs (Lazear et al., 2013). For MV, IRF5 might be a transcription factor for MAVS-dependent and IRF3/IRF7-independent type I IFN induction in BMDCs (Fig. 2).

An *in vivo* MV infection study using a CD150Tg mouse model revealed that MAVS disruption scarcely led MV permissiveness or type I IFN gene expression in the spleen compared to CD150Tg mice (Takaki et al., 2013). *In vitro* infection assays showed that isolated cell subsets of CD11c^{+} DCs, but not T or B cells, mainly produced type I IFN in response to MV infection through a MAVS-independent pathway. Various types of DCs have been identified in mouse secondary lymphoid tissues, including three CD11c^{high} subsets of conventional DCs (cDCs): CD8α^{+}, CD4^{+} and CD4^{-} CD8α^{-} double negative (DN) DCs (Vremec et al., 2000), and one subset of CD11c^{low} plasmacytoid DCs (pDCs) (Asselin-Paturel et al., 2001). These DC subsets express different sets of TLR genes and have distinct functions (Table 1) (Edwards et al., 2003; Luber et al., 2010). Mouse pDCs express most TLRs except TLR3 and therefore respond to a wide range of pathogen-associated molecular patterns including TLR7 ligand (Boonstra et al., 2003; Edwards et al., 2003). CD8α^{+} DCs express high amounts of TLR3, but not TLR7 (Edwards et al., 2003) and mainly participate in poly I:C-induced cross-presentation. Although a CD4^{+} and DN DCs have a similar TLR expression pattern (Edwards et al., 2003), CD4^{+} DCs but not DN DCs express TLR7 protein at low levels (Takaki et al., 2013). Type I IFN expression is induced in CD4^{+} DCs and pDCs, but not CD8α^{+} and DN DCs that are isolated from MAVS-disrupted mice during *in vitro* MV infection (Takaki et al., 2013). This result indicates that type I IFN-inducing pathways in pDC and CD4^{+} DCs are independent of the MAVS pathway. A pharmacological study showed that the MyD88 pathway is involved in a MAVS-independent type I IFN-inducing pathway (Takaki et al., 2013). This result was confirmed using CD150Tg/*Myd88*$^{-/-}$ pDCs, suggesting that TLR7 is responsible for recognition of MV RNA in CD4^{+} and pDCs. Since the RLR-MAVS pathway usually senses endogenous viral RNA in CD4^{+} DCs (Luber et al., 2010), MAVS disruption highlights that the MyD88 pathway participates in initial type I IFN induction in CD4^{+} DCs in MV infection (Fig. 2). However, CD150Tg/*Myd88*$^{-/-}$ mice are not permissive to MV infection *in vivo*, both MyD88 in pDCs and CD4^{+} DCs and MAVS in other cells contribute to protection against systemic MV infection.

Since TLR7 is in the endosome, viral RNA transport to the endosome is required to activate the TLR7/MyD88 pathway. Autophagy is required for the recognition of vesicular stomatitis virus by TLR7 to transport cytosolic viral replication intermediates into the lysosome, leading to type I IFN production in pDCs (Lee et al., 2007) IFN-β mRNA expression is induced in UV-irradiated MV-infected CD150Tg/*Mavs*$^{-/-}$ DCs; however, treatment with an autophagy inhibitor prevented this IFN-β induction (unpublished data). These data suggest that autophagy but not viral replication is required for MV-mediated type I IFN induction *via* TLR7 in MAVS-disrupted murine DCs.

In contrast to BMDCs, type I IFN gene expression is observed in DCs and splenocytes derived from MV-infected CD150Tg/*Mavs*$^{-/-}$ mice, which prevents DCs from MV infection *in vivo* in these mice (Takaki et al., 2013, 2014). RIG-I/MAVS but not TLR7/MyD88 mediates the antiviral response to RNA virus in conventional DCs. The

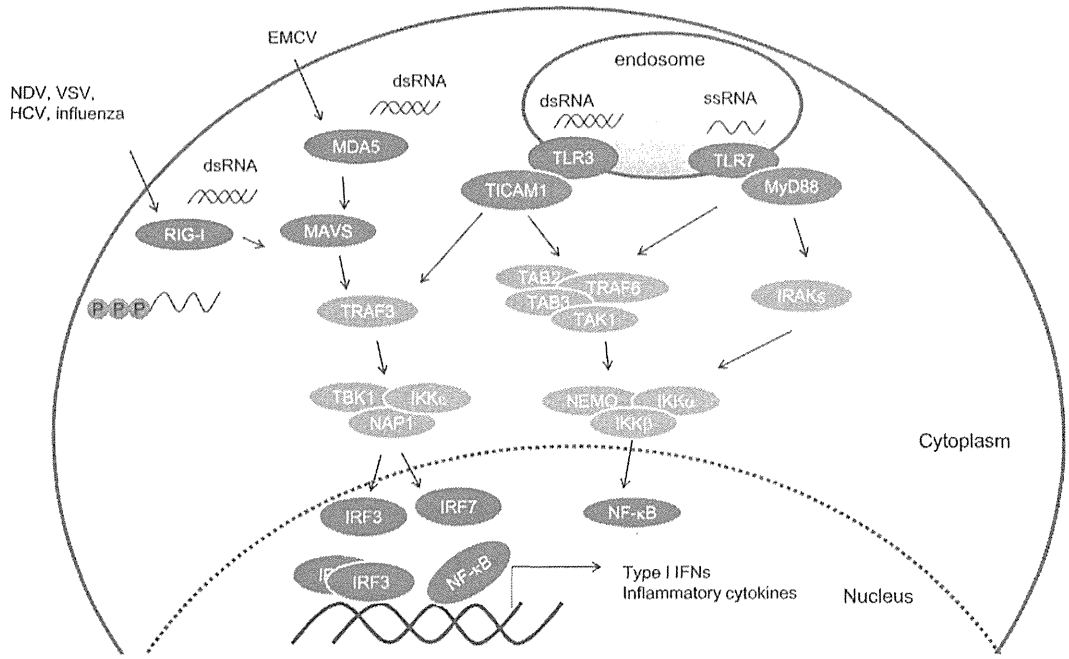

Fig. 1. Recognition of RNA by RLRs and TLRs. Double-stranded RNA (dsRNA) synthesized by RNA virus replication in infected cells is recognized by endosomal TLR3 and cytosolic RIG-I like receptors (RLRs), RIG-I and MDA5. They differentially recognize viral dsRNA products such that long dsRNA chains fit in MDA5, 5′-triphosphates short dsRNA couple with RIG-I and structured RNA activate TLR3 (Tatematsu et al., 2013). The outline of their signaling cascades that lead to the activation of IRF3 and NF-κB is overviewed (Kawai and Akira, 2009). Single-stranded RNA (ssRNA) is recognized by endosomal TLR7, leading to the activation of NF-κB and IKK α/β *via* adaptor protein MyD88. Transcription factor activation resuls in expression of type I IFN and inflammatory cytokines. NDV, newcastle disease virus; SeV, sendai virus; HCV, hepatitis C; EMCV, encephalomyocarditis virus

Table 1
Expression of TLRs in murine and human DC subset.

			TLR1	TLR2	TLR3	TLR4	TLR5	TLR6	TLR7	TLR8	TLR9	TLR10
Mouse	Conventional DCs ($CD11c^{high}$ $B220^-$)	$CD4^+$	+	+	–	+	+	+	+	–	+	–
		$CD4^-CD8\alpha^-$	+	+	+/–	+	+	+	+/–	–	+	–
		$CD4^-$	+	+	+	+	–	+	–	–	+	–
	Plasmacytoid DCs ($CD11c^{low}$ $B220^+$ $PDCA-1^+$)		+	+	–	+	+/–	+	+	–	+	–
Human	Myeloid DCs ($CD11c^+$)		+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+/–	–	+
	Monocyte-derived DCs (moDCs)		+	+	+	+	+	+/–	+/–	+	–	–
	Plasmacytoid DCs ($CD11c^-$ $BDCA2^+$ $BDCA4^+$)		+/–	–	–	–	–	–	+	–	+	+

TLR expression in murine and human DC subset is described in refs (Jarrossay et al., 2001; Kadowaki et al., 2001; Edwards et al., 2003; Luber et al., 2010).

studies using reporter mouse that expresses green fluorescence protein (GFP) under the control of the *Ifn-α6* promoter show that intranasal infection with newcastle disease virus (NDV) induces GFP expression in AMs and cDCs in lung as an initial defense *via* the RLR pathway (Kumagai et al., 2007). Although systemic NDV infection leads to GFP expression in not only pDCs but also cDCs and AMs, the frequency of GFP positive cells is higher in pDCs than in other cells. Thus, the activation of different subsets of DCs would be important to produce type I IFNs in systemic and local RNA virus infection.

Similar to murine DCs, PRRs expression differs with subsets of human DCs (Table 1) (Jarrossay et al., 2001; Kadowaki et al., 2001). In cDCs, MV transcription is required to activate type I IFN response, since UV-irradiated MV is unable to promote IFN-β production (Duhen et al., 2010). Type I IFN induction by pDCs depends on the recognition of MV RNA *via* the endosomal pathway, since UV-irradiated MV infection induces IFN-α production and this induction is cancelled by an endosomal acidification inhibitor in pDCs (Duhen et al., 2010). Although MV can inhibit TLR7 and TLR9-mediated type I IFN induction by MV-V and MV-C proteins in human pDCs (Pfaller and Conzelmann, 2008; Schlender et al., 2005; Yamaguchi et al., 2014), it remains unknown whether MV proteins act as suppressors in murine DCs. Moreover, MV interacts with human DC-SIGN to enhance infection of human DCs (de Witte et al., 2006). However, how MV-H protein binds murine CIRE/DC-SIGN is unknown. The findings in murine DCs may differ from those in human DCs when infected with MV.

4. Type I IFN and cytokines in the context of MV immunosuppression

DCs contribute to MV-induced immunosuppression, including downregulation of costimulatory molecules and inhibition of IL-12 production following lipopolysaccharide stimulation (Coughlin et al., 2013; Hahm et al., 2004, 2007). MV infection suppressed BMDCs development *via* type I IFN that acts through STAT2-dependent signaling but independent of the STAT1 signaling (Hahm et al., 2005). Furthermore, *in vivo* MV infection induces a T helper type 2 response, enhances apoptosis, and induces regulatory T cells (Koga et al., 2010; Sellin et al., 2009). Blocking IL-10 signaling prevents MV-induced immunosuppression in CD150 knock-in mice, indicating that IL-10 participates in immunosuppression (Koga et al., 2010). In addition, high amounts of IL-10 are produced in $CD4^+$ T cells obtained from MV-infected CD150Tg mice (Takaki

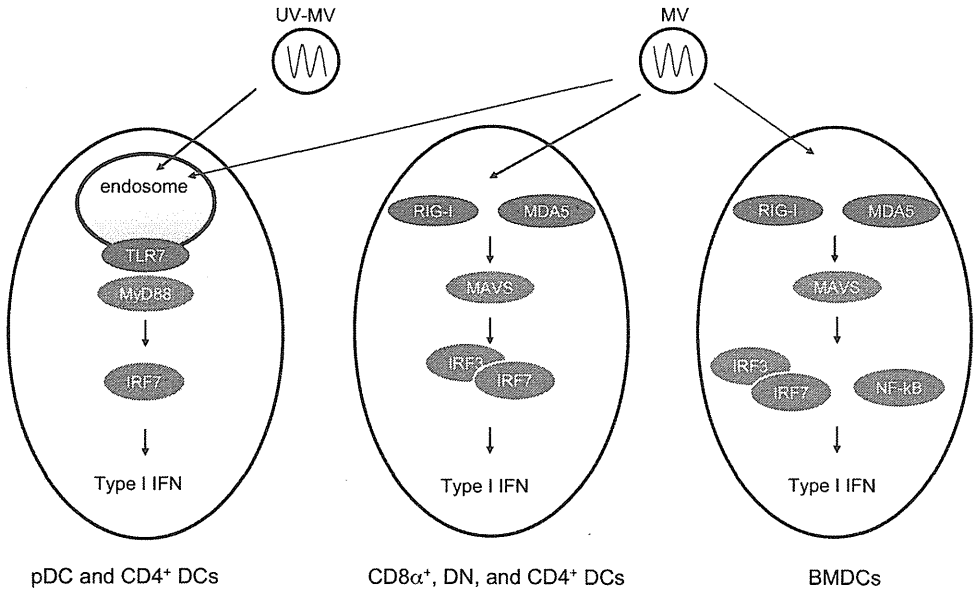

Fig. 2. Recognition of MV RNA in mouse DC subsets. DC subsets have their own viral RNA sensors to induce type I IFN. MV specifically infects these DC subsets. The ways for IFN induction in each DC subset are shown schematically. UV-MV; UV-irradiated MV

et al., 2014). In early infection by lymphocytic choriomeningitis virus (LCMV), type I IFN is produced *via* the TLR7/MyD88 pathway in pDCs. MDA5/MAVS-mediated type I IFN induction in other cells is required for sustained type I IFN responses to acute and chronic LCMV infection (Wang et al., 2012). Thus, different sources of type I IFN and signaling pathways affect immune responses to viral infection. Besides IL-10, IL-12 and type I IFN, other cytokines and signaling molecules affect MV-mediated immunomodulation. Further analysis is needed to clarify the function of DCs that modulate MV-induced immunosuppression.

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