Common and Distinct Roles of DFos and DJun During Drosophila Development

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The *Drosophila* homolog of c-Jun regulates epithelial cell shape changes during the process of dorsal closure in mid-embryogenesis. Here, mutations in the *DFos* gene are described. In dorsal closure, DFos cooperates with DJun by regulating the expression of *dpp*; Dpp acts as a relay signal that triggers cell shape changes and *DFos* expression in neighboring cells. In addition to the joint requirement of DFos and DJun during dorsal closure, DFos functions independently of DJun during early stages of embryogenesis. These findings demonstrate common and distinct roles of DFos and DJun during embryogenesis and suggest a conserved link between AP-1 (activating protein-1) and TGF- β (transforming growth factor- β) signaling during epithelial cell shape changes.

The AP-1 transcription factor complex is activated in response to various stimuli, including cytokines, growth factors, and cellular stresses like ultraviolet irradiation or heat shock. Active AP-1 complexes are dimers of basic-region leucine zipper (bZip) transcription factors, formed predominantly by members of the Jun and Fos gene families (1). In vertebrates, the number of related Jun and Fos family members has complicated analysis of AP-1 function in vivo. c-fos mutant mice are viable and possess defects in bone formation, whereas c-jun mutant mice die at mid-gestation with liver defects (2). In Drosophila, single homologs of c-Jun and c-Fos, DJun and DFra (here referred to as DFos), have been identified (3, 4). Like c-Jun, DJun forms homodimers and heterodimers with DFos and binds to AP-1 DNA binding sites. In contrast to mammalian c-Fos, however, DFos also forms homodimers, suggesting DJun-independent functions (3). DJun mutant embryos die as a result of failed dorsal closure (5-7). Dorsal closure occurs during mid-embryogenesis and results in stretching of the lateral epithelia over the extraembryonic membrane and fusion at the dorsal mid-line. In addition to DJun, mutations in genes encoding Jun NH₂-terminal kinase kinase (DJNKK), hep, and Jun NH₂-terminal kinase (DJNK), bsk, also block this cell shape change, and thus, dorsal closure (8-10). Expression of dpp in the most dorsal row of cells, the leading edge, is dependent on DJun, DJNK, and DJNKK function (5, 6, 11). Mutations in genes encoding the Dpp receptors Tkv and Put result in a similar phenotype (12). Expression of activated Tkv receptors in the embryonic ectoderm partially rescues the dorsal closure defect of DINK mutants. We proposed that activation of the DJNK pathway by an unknown signal results in stretching of the leading edge cells and that Dpp acts as a relay signal to induce stretching of more ventrally located ectodermal cells (8).

We identified a genetic locus, kayak

Fig. 1. DFos is encoded by the kay locus. (A) Southern blot analysis of kay1/TM3 balancer (lane 1) and control (lane 2) genomic DNA digested with Hinc II. The probe used was the DFos cDNA. (B) Depiction of the mutation in kay¹ resulting in the change of a Leu to a stop codon within a Hinc II site at position 1045 of the published sequence (3). The mutation is a T to A transition in the following sequence: CCC ACG TT(A)G ACG (mutant in parentheses). Polymerase chain reaction amplification of mutant and control DNA and sequencing were done as in (5). Control DNA was from the kay² mutation, because it was induced in the same background and recovered in the same mutagenesis. In the regions sequenced, the kay2 sequences coded for the same amino acids as the published DFos sequence (3). (C) Embryonic cuticular phenotype of a kay1/kay2 trans-heterozygote. The dorsal cuticle is partially missing (white arrowheads),

(kay), that has an embryonic lethal phenotype similar to DJun mutants (13). The kay^1 allele contains a restriction-site polymorphism in the DFos coding region caused by a single point mutation resulting in an inframe stop codon at position 1045 of the DFos sequence (Fig. 1, A and B). Expression of the DFos cDNA in the ectoderm completely rescued the dorsal closure defect of homozygous kay¹ and kay¹/kay² mutants (Fig. 1D) (14). Thus, DFos is encoded by kay, and loss of DFos function results in a phenotype similar to that of DJun mutants. A fraction of rescued kay^{1}/kay^{2} mutants survived to become adults with split thoraxes (Fig. 1E). The dorsal thorax is made during metamorphosis from the proximal portions of the left and right wing imaginal discs by fusion of these primordia on the dorsal side. The split-thorax phenotype is reminiscent of phenotypes described for rare homozygous hep mutant flies (9). This similarity suggested that DJNKK and DFos are not only required for



and the embryo is open dorsally. In this and subsequent figures, dorsal is up and anterior is to the left unless otherwise noted; in all cuticle preparations, white arrowheads mark the extent of the dorsal hole in the cuticle. All embryos are shown at the same magnification. Cuticle preparations were done as in (8). (D) The embryonic phenotype of kay mutants is rescued by ectodermal expression of DFos. Mutant transheterozygous kay embryos are completely closed dorsally when DFos is expressed in the ectoderm under the control of the 69B Gal4 line. (E) Expression of DFos can partially rescue kay mutants to pharate adults. Dorsal aspect of a rescued kay mutant heteroallelic combination. All rescued adults had a split thorax (arrow), indicating a failure of the dorsal portion of the imaginal epithelia to fuse properly, and frequently lacked one wing because of improper eversion of the wing blade (large arrowhead). (F) DFos is required in lateral ectodermal cells ventral to the leading edge cells during closure. Transheterozygous mutant kay embryos where DFos was expressed in the leading edge cells and three to four rows of lateral ectodermal cells ventral to the leading edge cells by means of the pannier MD237 Gal4 line (17) were not rescued. (G) kay1 behaves genetically as a null allele: The kay1/Df (3R)01215 embryo is completely open dorsally [compare with the partially closed embryo in (C) and the kay¹ homozygote in Fig. 2A]. (H) The kay locus shows transvection: kay²/Df (3R)01215 fails to complement only in a In(1)z^{ae(bx)} homozygous mutant background, known to inhibit transvection. The noncomplementing embryos show mild dorsal-open phenotypes. All mutants and Drosophila stocks not described in (5) are described in (16).

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dorsal closure of embryonic epithelia but also for the dorsal joining of imaginal epithelia during pupal development.

The similarity of the DJun and DFos mutant phenotypes and the genetic interactions between DFos, DJun, and DJNK mutants suggested that these factors cooperate in vivo. Like DJun mutations, DFos null alleles completely blocked shape changes that normally occur in the leading edge cells and in more ventrally located epithelial cells during dorsal closure (Fig. 2, A and B) (5). Furthermore, the DFos mutant phenotype (Fig. 2, A through E) was enhanced by removal of one copy of DJNK (Fig. 2G) or DJun (Fig. 2F). DFos mutations also dominantly enhanced DJNK mutants



way during dorsal closure. (A) A kay1 homozygous mutant embryo, and (B) an anti-Coracle antibody staining of a kay1 homozygote. The lateral epithelial cells fail to stretch; the leading edge cells are marked by an arrow. Coracle is a band 4.1 homolog and marks the cell membranes (25). The antibody staining were done as in (5). (C) kay² homozygotes show partial dorsal closure; (D) the corresponding Coracle antibody staining shows partial stretching of leading edge cells (marked by an arrow). (E) kay heteroallelic mutant combination. (F) Mutations in DJun act as a dominant enhancer of a hypomorphic kay mutant. The embryo is completely open dorsally [compare with (C)] (26). (G) DJNK, basket (bsk), acts as a dominant enhancer of kay. The embryo is also completely open dorsally [compare with (E)]. (H) kay mutations dominantly enhance a DJNK (bsk) hypomorphic mutant. (I and J) dpp is expressed in the leading edge cells but is missing in kay¹ mutants: (I) wild-type control embryo; (J) kay1 mutant embryos. The arrows point to the leading edge cells. The embryo in (I) is at stage 13; the middle one in (J), at stage 11; and the right one, at stage 12. Stages according to (27).

(Fig. 2H). As in *DJun*, *DJNK*, and *DJNKK* mutant embryos, *dpp* expression in the leading edge but not in other tissues at this stage was abolished in *DFos* mutant embryos (Fig. 2, I and J). Therefore, *DJun* and *DFos* control, probably as heterodimers, *dpp* expression in the leading edge cells.

In vertebrates, c-Jun and c-Fos activities are regulated at various levels. Whereas c-Jun is widely expressed at low levels and activated primarily by NH₂-terminal phosphorylation by JNKs, c-fos expression is dynamic and activated in response to various extracellular stimuli (1). A similar dichotomy of DJun and DFos regulation occurs in Drosophila: DJun is widely expressed during embryogenesis and is phosphorylated by DJNK (3–5, 10), whereas DFos expression is dynamic (Fig. 3, A through H) (3). There is strong expression of DFos in leading edge cells and cells of the lateral epithelium (Fig. 3, E and F).

Expression of DFos in the lateral epithelia is reduced in Tkv and Put mutant embryos but is still detectable in the leading edge (Fig. 31) (15). Therefore, not only does DFos control expression of dpp in the leading edge, but in a reciprocal manner, DFos expression is dependent on Dpp function in cells of the lateral epithelium. Similarly in late embryos, DFos expression in the endoderm depends on dpp expression in the overlaying visceral mesoderm. In dpp^{S4} mutant embryos, where dpp is expressed in the ectoderm but not in the visceral mesoderm (16), DFos expression in the underlying endoderm is greatly reduced (Fig. 3]). Activation of the Dpp signaling pathway is indeed sufficient to activate DFos expression. Expression of an activated Dpp receptor, TkvQD, in 14 stripes in the ectoderm of developing em-



Fig. 3. *DF*os is expressed dynamically during embryogenesis. DFos RNA in situ hybridization of wildtype embryos. Part of the pattern of *DF*os expression has been described in (3). The RNA hybridizations were done as in (8). (A) Stage 2 embryo, showing homogeneous maternally deposited DFos RNA. (B) Stage 6 embryo show-

ing *DFos* expression in the most dorsal cells, the anlagen of the amnioserosa, and lateral epithelial cells. Residual maternal mRNA is still present at this stage. (**C**) Stage 7 embryo, showing *DFos* expression in the amnioserosa anlagen and lateral epithelial cells. (**D**) Stage 10 embryo showing DFos staining in the amnioserosa (arrow) and head region. (**E**) Stage 11 embryo (germband extended stage) showing strong *DFos* expression in the leading edge cells (arrow) and weaker expression in lateral epithelial cells (arrowhead), but no ex-

pression in the amnioserosa, as well as the head region and muscle attachment sites. Some cells of the peripheral nervous system are also labeled. (F) Stage 12 embryo (germband retraction stage) showing prominent leading edge and strong lateral epithelial cells staining (arrow); rest of the pattern as in (E). DFos staining in lateral epithelial cells develops from stage 10 [compare (D) with (F)]. (G) Stage 15 embryo showing staining in a portion of the endoderm (arrow). (H) Stage 16/17 embryo, showing prominent perinuclear staining in the hindgut (arrow) and the Malpighian tubules (one of them is in the plane of focus, arrowhead). (I) DFos expression in lateral epithelial cells ventral to the leading edge cells is reduced in the tkvstrll mutant embryo. A stage 12 embryo [compare with (F)], showing staining only in the leading edge cells and very little, if any, in the lateral epithelial cells (24). Similar results were also obtained with another dpp receptor mutant, put135, tkvstrll is a loss of function mutation in tkv, and put^{135} is an amorphic allele of put (16). (J) DFos expression is reduced in late embryos in the endoderm of dpp^{S4} mutants. Arrow points to residual expression; compare with (G). Mutant dpp^{S4} embryos lack dpp expression in the visceral mesoderm (16) and were recognized by the lack of the second midgut constriction. (K) race expression in the amnioserosa is missing in kay mutants. The embryo in (K) is heterozygous for the null kay1 mutation and shows race expression in the anterior and posterior midgut and in the cells of the amnioserosa (arrow). The homozygous kay¹ mutant embryo in (L) is at a slightly later stage (note the position of the anterior and posterior gut endoderm, stained positive for race in both embryos). This embryo completely lacks expression in the amnioserosa cells (small arrow). This lack of amnioserosa race expression has also been documented for dpp mutant embryos (18, 19). DJun and bsk mutant embryos, including embryos deprived of maternal and zygotic expression, show wild-type race expression (21). (M) labial expression in kay mutants is normal. The embryo is homozygous for kay1; note cuticule formation in the ventral part of the embryo, as evidenced by nonspecific cuticular staining in a striped-like pattern (and its absence dorsally), and the graded nuclear Labial expression in the midgut (arrow). Antibody stainings were done with a Labial polyclonal antibody as in (28). (N) DFos is also downstream of the dpp pathway. The embryo shows strong ectopic DFos expression in stripes in the engrailed (en) expression domain. We expressed the activated Dpp receptor Tkv^{QD} in an en pattern by means of an en Gal4 driver. The ectopic expression of DFos is superimposed on the normal DFos expression pattern [compare with (D)].

bryos with the use of an *engrailed* Gal4 driver (16) results in a corresponding pattern of *DFos* expression (Fig. 3N). During dorsal closure, *DFos* appears to be required in all epithelial cells, because restricted expression of *DFos* in the dorsal-most lateral ectoderm with a *pannier* GAL4 line (17) was not sufficient to rescue the dorsal-open phenotype of kay^1/kay^2 mutant embryos (Fig. 1F). Thus, *DFos* may be required in all ectodermal cells in order to activate target genes required for cell



Fig. 4. Model of DFos function during dorsal closure. DFos is required both upstream and downstream of dpp during dorsal closure. Upon activation of the DJNK cascade in the leading edge cells by an unknown signal, activated DJNK translocates to the nucleus, where it phosphorylates the E26-specific (ETS) domain repressor Aop (the gene aop, or anterior open, is also known as yan and also acts in the rl/MAPK pathway) and DJun (5). Aop is inactivated by phosphorylation, whereas phosphorylation of DJun activates DJun. Both activated DJun and DFos are required for target gene expression. dpp is one of these target genes in the leading edge cells. Dpp then diffuses to ectodermal cells ventral to the leading edge cells, where it signals by means of its receptors Tkv and Put. This action then results in DFos transcription, upon which these lateral epithelial cells change shape. AP-1 activity is required for this last process, because DFos is also required in these cells for the change in cell shape. Thus, DFos is required in all lateral epithelial cells for stretching.

shape changes (Fig. 4).

In the endoderm of late embryos, Dppinduced expression of *DFos* correlates with induction of the homeotic gene *labial* (*lab*) in endodermal cells underlying *dpp*-expressing cells (15). Although ubiquitous expression of a dominant negative form of *DFos*, *DFos*^{bZip}, blocked *lab* expression in the endoderm (15), we observed normal levels of *lab* expression in *kay* mutants (Fig. 3L). This result indicates that in the endoderm DFos is not essential for Dppinduced *lab* expression.

Independent of DJun, DFos also controls the expression of Dpp target genes during early embryonic development. Early dpp expression on the dorsal side of embryos induces expression of several genes, including race, which encodes a protein with homology to angiotensinconverting enzyme in the amnioserosa (18–20) (Fig. 3K). The race cis-acting sequences required for *dpp*-mediated expression contain AP-1 binding sites (18). Consistent with DFos-mediated direct activation of race through these AP-1 sites, race expression in the amnioserosa was abolished in kay mutant embryos (Fig. 3L). In contrast, race expression was normal in DJun or bsk mutant embryos (21). Thus, in addition to its role in controlling dpp expression in the leading edge, DFos also performs an essential function as mediator of Dpp during dorsal closure and during early embryogenesis, controlling Dpp target genes such as race. This early DJun-independent function of DFos may be mediated by DFos homodimers.

The joint requirement of DJun and DFos during dorsal closure provides the first genetic evidence for cooperation of these transcription factors during development. Defects in the dorsal joining of embryonic and adult epidermis observed in DFos and hep mutants suggest a common role of the DJNK pathway in joining of epithelial sheets. Control by AP-1 of epithelial cell morphology and possibly the composition of the extracellular matrix may be a universal phenomenon: During wound healing in vertebrates, a process that exhibits parallels with dorsal closure (5), TGF- β induces c-fos expression and AP-1 activity. The reciprocal regulatory relation between DFos and dpp in Drosophila appears to be conserved in mammalian cells. In mammalian myeloid cells, induction of c-jun and c-fos by serum or oncogenic v-src results in expression of TGF- β 1 by direct activation of TFG- β 1 transcription by AP-1 (22). Furthermore, TGF-β induces AP-1 activity in keratinocytes during wound healing (23). The parallels between TGF- β and AP-1 signaling in mammalian cells and Dpp signaling and DFos and DJun signaling in Drosophila provide a striking example of evolutionary conservation of a complex regulatory pathway in epithelial cell morphogenesis.

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counted. Of the 98 cuticles examined for Fig. 2F, 44 were completely open dorsally (like the example in Fig. 2F), whereas 54 were only partially open dorsally (like Fig. 2C). This distribution corresponds statistically to a 1:1 ratio, consistent with half of the mutant kay^2 embryos having received a mutant DJun allele and the other half having received a balancer chromosome, wild type for *DJun*. For Fig. 2G, 311 cuticles were examined; 151 were completely open dorsally (like Fig. 2G), and 160 were only partially dorsal open (like Fig. 2E). The distribution statistically conforms to a 1:1 ratio, as expected from half of the mutant embryos having received a mutant *bsk*¹ allele, and half a

balancer chromosome, wild type for *bsk*. All mutant *kay*² or *kay*¹/*kay*² cuticles examined were always only partially open dorsally. For Fig. 2H, 47 embryos were examined: 21 were three-quarters or more open dorsally (like Fig. 2H), and 26 were half or less open dorsally (see (*B*) for examples). This distribution also corresponds statistically to a 1:1 ratio, as expected from half of the mutant *bsk*¹/*Dt*(*2L*)*flp*^{147E} having received a mutant *kay*² allele, and half a balancer chromosome. In all tests here and in (*24*), significance was assayed by a chi-squared test and was found in all cases to be *P* < 0.05.

27. J. Campos-Ortega and V. Hartenstein, The Embry-

Requirement for CD44 in Activated T Cell Extravasation into an Inflammatory Site

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Leukocytes extravasate from the blood into inflammatory sites through complementary ligand interactions between leukocytes and endothelial cells. Activation of T cells increases their binding to hyaluronate (HA) and enables CD44-mediated primary adhesion (rolling). This rolling could be induced in vivo in murine V_β8⁺ T cells in response to specific superantigen stimulation; it was initially found in lymph nodes, then in peripheral blood, and finally within the peritoneum, the original inflamed site. The migration of V_β8⁺ cells into the peritoneal cavity was dependent on CD44 and HA, as shown by inhibition studies. Thus, CD44-HA interactions can target lymphocytes to specific extralymphoid effector sites.

The compartmentalization, organization, and function of the immune system has engendered the development of specialized trafficking and recirculation patterns for subsets of lymphocytes that differ from those of other leukocytes. In particular, tissue-specific migration pathways of effector and memory lymphocyte subsets have been shown to be distinct and in part attributable to adhesion receptors they express (1-4). Since the inception of the model of sequential receptor engagement leading to leukocyte extravasation, only the selectin and integrin families of proteins have been implicated in primary (rolling) and secondary (firm) adhesion (5, 6). The principal ligand for CD44, a marker of effector and memory lymphocytes, is HA (7), on which activated T cells can roll under physiologic shear stress conditions (8). In vivo activation of T cells and direct stimulation through the T cell receptor (TCR) results in CD44 capable of binding HA (9, 10). Together, these findings suggest that CD44-HA interactions may be important for lymphocyte extravasation at inflammatory sites. We investigated whether T cell sensitization to antigen, occurring primarily within secondary lymphoid tissues, resulted in the induction of the "activated" HA-binding form of

CD44 on antigen-specific cells; whether the stimulated cells bearing activated CD44 were mobilized into the peripheral circulation; and whether the activated CD44 on these cells then facilitated their extravasation into an inflammatory site.

Staphylococcal enterotoxin B (SEB) preferentially stimulates $V_{\beta}8^+$ T cells (11), which initially accumulate in the periphery and then are lost by 2 to 4 days after injection of SEB (12, 13). We used intraperitoneal (ip) SEB injection of mice as an approach to obtain in vivo activated T cells, which we then examined by laminar flow and flow cytofluorometric analysis during the course of the response. For direct comparison of $V_{B}8$ composition and rolling activity, mesenteric lymph nodes (MLNs), peripheral blood, and peritoneal exudate leukocytes (PELs) were harvested at 4-hour intervals. The proportion of $V_{B}8^{+}$ cells in draining MLNs remained stable (at 15%) throughout this time course (Fig. 1A). Almost all $V_B 8^+$ cells disappeared from peripheral blood by 4 hours after SEB injection, consistent with previous reports of sequestration of antigen-specific lymphocytes in secondary lymphoid organs at early time points after antigen injection (14-16). This drop was followed by a rapid rise of $V_{B}8^{+}$ T cells over the next 4 to 8 hours, followed by a gradual decline. In PELs, the percentage of $V_{B}8^{+}$ cells also initially decreased by 4 hours but then rose over the next 12 hours. The beginning of an accuonic Development of Drosophila melanogaster (Springer Verlag, New York, 1985).

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mulation of $V_{\beta}8^+$ cells in the peritoneal cavity was coincident with the peak of $V_{\beta}8^+$ cells in peripheral blood (Fig. 1A).

The HA-binding population in draining nodes after SEB injection was examined by flow cytometric analysis. After SEB treatment, 4% of all MLN lymphocytes bound fluoresceinated HA (Fl-HA), whereas binding was barely detectable in cells from control animals (Fig. 1B). This binding was inhibited by preincubation with monoclonal antibody (mAb) KM81, which inhibits the binding of activated CD44 to soluble HA (17). Of the total $V_{\beta}8^+$ lymph node population, 8.5% were CD44⁺ and bound HA, whereas 17% of the CD69⁺ and 28% of the lymphoblast populations were CD44⁺ and bound HA. No HA binding was seen in CD69⁻ cells, which suggested that CD44dependent HA binding is a feature of activated but not resting cells. Thus, in vivo stimulation with SEB resulted in the activation of the specific $V_{\beta}8^+$ T cell subset within draining lymph nodes, which increased its HA binding and the potential for CD44mediated primary adhesion.

The pattern of appearance of cells able to engage in CD44- and HA-dependent rolling interactions also showed sequential appearance in each anatomic compartment (Fig. 1C). MLN cells showed an early increase in rolling, which appeared 4 hours later in peripheral blood lymphocytes and not until 8 hours later in the peritoneal cavity. Although the timing of the appearance of rolling activity varied between experiments, the sequential appearance of both $V_{B}8$ cells and rolling activity in the three compartments in all experiments was maintained. Thus, the accumulation of rolling cells in peripheral blood and peritoneum paralleled the appearance of $V_B 8^+$ lymphocytes in these sites, and it was consistent with the origination of CD44-mediated rolling cells within lymph nodes, with subsequent release into peripheral blood followed by extravasation into the inflamed peritoneum.

Cell populations were fractionated to identify which cells rolled after SEB injection (18). In all three compartments, the preponderance of the rolling activity was found in T cells, particularly the $V_{B}8^+$ sub-

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