1

Clonal stochasticity in early NK cell response to mouse cytomegalovirus is generated by

mature subsets of varying proliferative ability

Darren Wethington[1,2,*], Saeed Ahmad[1], Marc Potempa[6], Giuseppe Giuliani[1,5], Oscar A. Aguilar[6],

Maheshwor Poudel[1], Simon Grassmann[7], William Stewart[8], Nicholas M. Adams[7,9], Joseph C.

Sun[7], Lewis L. Lanier[6,*], Jayajit Das[1,2,3,4,*]

[1]Steve and Cindy Rasmussen Institute for Genomic Medicine, Nationwide Children's Hospital,

Columbus OH

[2]Biomedical Sciences Graduate Program, [3]Department of Pediatrics, [4]Pelotonia Institute for

Immuno-Oncology, College of Medicine, The Ohio State University, Columbus OH

[5]Department of Physics, The Ohio State University, Columbus OH

[6]Department of Microbiology and Immunology and the Parker Institute for Cancer

Immunotherapy, University of California, San Francisco CA

[7]Immunology Program, Memorial Sloan Kettering Cancer Center, New York, NY

[8]GIG Statistical Consulting, LLC, Columbus OH

[9]Department of Pathology, New York University Grossman School of Medicine, New York, NY

*Corresponding Authors, wethington.8@osu.edu, Lewis.Lanier@ucsf.edu, jayajit@gmail.com

Abstract

Natural killer (NK) cells are classically defined as innate immune cells, but experiments show

that mouse cytomegalovirus (MCMV) infection in C57BL/6 mice can cause NK cells to undergo

antigen-specific proliferation and memory formation, similar to adaptive CD8+ T cells. One

shared behavior between CD8+ T cells and NK cells is clonal expansion, where a single

stimulated cell proliferates rapidly to form a diverse population of cells. For example, clones

derived from single cells are most abundant during expansion when they are primarily CD27- for

NK cells and CD62L- for T cells, phenotypes derived from precursor CD27+ and CD62L+ cells,

respectively. Here we determined the mechanistic rules involving proliferation, cell death, and

differentiation of endogenous and adoptively transferred NK cells in the expansion phase of the

response to MCMV infection. We found that the interplay between cell proliferation and cell

death of mature CD27- NK cells and a highly proliferative CD27-Ly6C- mature subtype and

intrinsic stochastic fluctuations in these processes play key roles in regulating the heterogeneity

and population of the NK cell subtypes. Furthermore, we estimate rates for maturation of

endogenous NK cells in homeostasis and in MCMV infection and found that only NK cell

growth rates, and not differentiation rates, are appreciably increased by MCMV. Taken together,

these results quantify the differences between the kinetics of NK cell antigen-specific expansion

from that of CD8+ T cells and unique mechanisms that give rise to the observed heterogeneity in

NK cell clones generated from single NK cells in the expansion phase.

Introduction

Natural Killer (NK) cells are lymphocytes of the innate immune system and provide important

protection against viral infections and tumors (Caligiuri, 2008; Vivier et al., 2008). NK cells

develop in the bone marrow and express a diverse set of germline-encoded activating and

inhibitory receptors (Abel et al., 2018; Biassoni, 2008; Huntington et al., 2007). Mouse

cytomegalovirus (MCMV) infection induces antigen-specific expansion of naïve Ly49H+ NK

cells in mice, followed by a contraction phase, and then the formation of long-lived adaptive NK

cells displaying recall responses to the same antigen (Cerwenka and Lanier, 2016; Robbins et al.,

2004; Schlub et al., 2011; Sun et al., 2009). The activating Ly49H receptor, encoded by *Klra8*,

recognizes the MCMV-encoded m157 glycoprotein and leads to activation of Ly49H+ NK cells

(Orr et al., 2009; Voigt et al., 2003). In humans, a similar activation of NK cells by human

cytomegalovirus is observed with the preferential expansion of NKG2C+ NK cells (Guma et al.,

2004; Hendricks et al., 2014; Ishiyama et al., 2022; Kim et al., 2019; Lopez-Verges et al., 2011).

The expansion, contraction, and memory formation of Ly49H+ NK cells during MCMV

infection bears similarity to antigen-specific responses of adaptive CD8+ T cells that generate

memory CD8+ T cells (Adams et al., 2020; Buchholz et al., 2013; Kaech et al., 2002; Schlub et

al., 2011).

A range of experiments investigated epigenetic changes, RNA transcription, and surface

protein expression in single and bulk Ly49H+ NK cells undergoing expansion and contraction in

mice responding to MCMV infection (Flommersfeld et al., 2021; Grassmann et al., 2019; Lau et

al., 2018; Martinet et al., 2015; Min-Oo et al., 2014; Nabekura et al., 2014; Potempa et al., 2022;

Riggan et al., 2022). These observations show that the NK cell compartment undergoes

phenotypic changes, resulting in changes in the abundances of varying subpopulations of cells.

The development of these subpopulations depends on the three main signal inputs, antigen

simulation of a specific receptor (e.g., Ly49H), co-stimulation, and cytokine signaling (Ni et al.,

2012; Peng and Tian, 2017; Romee et al., 2016). These subpopulations express distinct

epigenetic, transcriptomic, and protein markers imprinted by signaling and gene regulatory

processes. Observations of clonal expansion of barcoded single Ly49H+ NK cells adoptively

transferred into $Rag2^{-/-}Il2rg^{-/-}$ mice revealed another layer of heterogeneity where sizes and

compositions of NK cell clones originating from single naïve Ly49H+ NK cells vary widely

(Flommersfeld et al., 2021; Grassmann et al., 2019). This heterogeneity in the NK cell

population is regulated by the stochastic kinetics of cell proliferation, cell death, and

differentiation involving the subpopulations that emerge as the NK cells respond to the infection.

Analysis of similar heterogeneities in clonal CD8+ T cell populations have shown generation of

a highly proliferative short-lived effector phenotype and intrinsic stochastic fluctuations in the

differentiation and proliferation processes, which account for heterogeneity of the CD8+ T cell

clones (Buchholz et al., 2013). These effector CD8+ T cells are CD62L- and differentiate during

the expansion phase from upstream memory precursors that are CD62L+(Schlub et al., 2010;

Yang et al., 2011).

Despite the qualitative similarities between the antigen-specific responses of NK cells

and CD8+ T cells there are several marked differences. Single-cell NK clones typically undergo

a relatively smaller 1000× increase in number compared to the 40,000× increase in CD8+ T cell

populations (Adams et al., 2020). Additionally, mature CD27- NK cells grow more slowly than

their immature CD27+ counterparts (Buchholz et al., 2013; Hayakawa and Smyth, 2006; Paul et

al., 2016), whereas effector CD62L- CD8+ T cells proliferate faster than precursor CD62L+

subsets (Adams et al., 2020; Kretschmer et al., 2020). These data suggest there may be

mechanistic differences in antigen-specific NK and CD8+ T cell responses.

Here, we addressed whether distinct mechanisms underlie the expansion of NK cells and

CD8+ T cells during antigen-specific responses by performing stochastic population dynamic

modeling on published bulk and single-cell NK cell data collected during the expansion phase

following MCMV infection in C57BL/6 mice. Our analysis and modeling show that the

mechanistic rules that describe the expansion of CD8+ T cells are inadequate for describing the

development of MCMV-specific NK cells. We found that mature CD27-Ly6C- NK cells

undergo a greater rate of cell proliferation compared to immature CD27+ NK cells and mature

CD27-Ly6C+ NK cells, and mature CD27- NK cells undergo increased death relative to the

CD27+ immature cells. The variations in the timescales of proliferation and death processes

coupled with the intrinsic stochastic fluctuations within these processes among the NK cell

subsets regulate the heterogeneity in the sizes of the NK cell clones originated from individual

immature NK cells during MCMV infection. Quantification of the population kinetics of

Ly49H+ NK cells in MCMV infection in the expansion phase shows a 10-fold increase in the

cell growth rate compared to that in homeostatic conditions, whereas the effect of the infection

on the maturation rate appears to be negligible. We also find that growth rates of adoptive NK

cells in transfer experiments during MCMV infection in the expansion phase are higher than

those of endogenous NK cells.

Results

A progressive two-state immature to mature differentiation model cannot capture the

heterogeneity of the NK cell clones in the expansion phase

We began our investigations by studying whether a minimal two-state progressive differentiation

model (Fig. 1a) could describe the size and composition of NK cell clones that originated from

single immature Ly49H+ CD27+ NK cells at day 8 post-infection with MCMV, a time typically

at the peak of expansion. The differentiation of immature CD27+ to mature CD27- NK cells

during MCMV infection and in homeostasis has been widely documented and established in

previous experiments (Chiossone et al., 2009; Grassmann et al., 2019; Min-Oo et al., 2014;

Mitrovic et al., 2012). We used data collected by Flommersfeld *et al.(Flommersfeld et al., 2021)*,

in which they adoptively transferred single genetic marker barcoded Ly49H+ NK cells to a host

that is subsequently infected with MCMV. We characterized the NK cell clones by the means

and variances of the populations of CD27+ or CD27- NK cells and the co-variance between the

two cell types in the clones. The NK cell clones reported by Flommersfeld *et al.* contained

mixtures of CD27+ and CD27- NK cells. We evaluated the percentage of CD27+ NK cells in

each clone and computed the correlation ($C_{size-CD27+}$) of the size of the clone with the percentage

of CD27+ NK cells in the clones. The larger size NK cell clones contained a greater proportion

of the CD27- NK cells and thus produced a negative correlation between the clone size and the

percentage of CD27+ NK cells in individual clones (Fig. 1b). This finding is in line with that

found in a similar experiment by Grassmann *et al. (Grassmann et al., 2019).* These authors also

transferred congenically-marked CD27- and CD27+ Ly49H+ NK cells in 1:1 ratio at day 0 and

then assayed the expanded CD27+/- NK cells at day 8 post infection, showing a higher

proportion of mature CD27- NK cells compared to the immature CD27+ NK cells (Figure S2E in

Grassmann *et al. (Grassmann et al., 2019)*). This result is supported by other experiments

(Hayakawa and Smyth, 2006; Paul et al., 2016), and we used this observation to constrain our

model parameter space. Heterogeneity of clones of CD8+ T cells generated by antigenic

SIINFEKL stimulation showed a similar pattern where the largest clones in the expansion phase

(day 7 post-stimulation) are composed of higher fractions of the mature CD62L- CD8+ T cells

(Buchholz et al., 2013). Because mature CD62L- CD8+ T cells proliferate faster than the

immature CD62L+ CD8+ T cells (Buchholz et al., 2013; Kretschmer et al., 2020), it is intuitive

that a larger size of a clone can be attributed to the larger proportion of the mature CD8+ T cells

in the clone (Fig. 1c). In contrast, NK cells proliferate slower when they differentiate to the

mature CD27- phenotype. Thus, it is unclear how the similar relationship between the clone size

and the composition of the clones can be understood. In order to probe this question further we

used a stochastic model (Fig. 1a) that describes the proliferation and differentiation processes in

single Ly49H+ NK cells in response to MCMV infection. We do not model the MCMV infection

explicitly and assume that the parameters of the model capture the effects of antigen, co-receptor,

and cytokine stimulation and signaling and epigenetic modifications on the rates of

differentiation and the proliferation of the cell types. In this model, immature CD27+ NK cells

differentiate with a rate r to mature CD27- NK cells, and each cell type proliferates with rates, k_I

and k_M, respectively. The proliferation and differentiation processes are modeled as stochastic

events occurring with the above rates. We start our simulations with a single CD27+ NK cell and

evaluated the number of CD27+ and CD27- NK cells at 8 days, which represent the size and the

composition of a single NK cell clone. Repetitions of the stochastic simulations with the same

initial configuration and rates will produce clones of different sizes and compositions due to

intrinsic noise fluctuations in the stochastic simulations. We computed the correlation ($C_{size\text{-}}$

$_{CD27+}$) between the clone sizes and the percentages of the CD27+ NK cells in each clone from our

simulations. Our parameter scan of randomly sampled values of k_I, k_M, and r revealed that $C_{size\text{-}}$

$_{CD27+}$ is negative *only* when $k_I < k_M$ (Fig. 1d). However, the observations that CD27+ cells should

grow faster than CD27- cells imply $k_I > k_M$ for the NK cells. Therefore, the two-state model

cannot capture the heterogeneity of the NK cell clones.

Next, we investigated if inclusion of death of NK cells can make the model consistent

with the negative correlation between the clone size and the percentage of CD27+ NK cells in

each clone. We updated our proposed model to include both proliferation and death of each cell

population (Fig. 1e). In such a model, each cell has a probability of proliferating according to

birth rate b and probability of dying indicated by the death rate d. Cells can go through many

proliferation events before undergoing death, which would indicate a positive growth rate. The

net growth of the CD27+ and CD27- NK cell populations are determined by $k_I=b_I-d_I$ and $k_M=b_M-$

d_M, respectively, where b_I and d_I (or b_M and d_M) are the proliferation and death rates of the

immature CD27+ (or mature CD27-) NK cells. Repeating a parameter scan by randomly

sampling the 5 parameters (b_I, d_I, b_M, d_M, and r) from uniform distributions and evaluating the

correlation $C_{size-CD27+}$ shows that some parameter configurations can generate the negative values

at the parameter values, $k_I > k_M$ (Fig. 1f). Further inspection shows that parameter values in the

regime $k_I > k_M$ that produce the negative correlation share a common trait: mature CD27- cells

proliferate *and* die faster than immature CD27+ cells. To gain further insight into this behavior

we investigated the dependence of $C_{size-CD27+}$ on the parameter values and stochastic fluctuations

analytically and found that larger proliferation and death rates of the CD27- NK cells produce

large stochastic fluctuations in the sizes of the CD27- cell populations. Thus, mature CD27- NK

cells in a clone could undergo many proliferation events before encountering death, creating

larger clones with higher proportion of mature CD27- NK cells. Conversely, the CD27- cells

could go through many death events before a proliferation event causing the clone size to shrink

(details in Supplementary Text 1).

We investigated whether this model could accurately fit the first (means) and second

(variances and covariance) moments of the measured CD27+ and CD27- NK cell populations at

8 days post-infection. We fit the model by minimizing the sum of square errors (SSE) subject to

the constraints $C_{size-CD27+} < -0.2$ and $k_I > k_M$. This parameter configuration cannot accurately

185 capture the moments of the clonal burst data (Fig. 1g). Thus, although the model that

186 incorporates both NK cell proliferation and death is able produce the negative correlation

187 between the clone size and the percentage of CD27+ NK cells in each clone, it poorly describes

188 the distributions of the immature and mature NK cells in the clones.

189   To further investigate the role of NK cell death in explaining the clone size distribution

190 we compared the above two-state models without or with NK cell death based on the theory of

191 model selection using modified Akkaike Information Criterion (AIC_c) (Burnham et al., 2011).

192 We computed the probability distribution function of the number of immature CD27+ (N_I) and

193 mature CD27- (N_M) cells at any time obtained from our stochastic model by solving the

194 corresponding Master equation numerically and computed the Likelihood function for the

195 available clone size distribution data (details in the Materials and Methods section), and then

196 evaluated modified-AIC (AIC_c) for the two models. To keep the computation in a feasible range

197 we used a part (38 out of 56 clone sizes) of the available data where the maximum clone size is ~

198 1000. The subset of clone size data used here also shows a negative value of $C_{size\text{-}CD27+}$. The

199 AICc value for the two-state model with death is over 50 points lower than that for the two state

200 model without death, which clearly show that the data favor the model with NK cell death.

201 Although this approach only models a subset of the data, it also finds that birth and death rates

202 for mature cells are greater than that of immature cells, and that the growth rate of immature cells

203 is greater than that of mature cells. Further details regarding the analysis are provided in the

204 Materials and Methods section and the Supplementary Material. Because of the computational

205 intensive nature of this approach and its agreement with the simpler method of fitting moments

206 with a constraint, we continue with the later approach for subsequent models.

Figure 1: Two-stage linear models cannot capture desired properties of experimental clonal

m burst data. (a) Schematic representation of the two-stage model. The model describes

immature (CD27+) cells and mature (CD27-) cells. Each cell type has a distinct growth rate (k_I

for immature, k_M for mature), and immature cells differentiate to mature cells at rate *r*. **(b)**

Experimental data from Flommersfeld *et al.* display negative value for the correlation $C_{size\text{-}CD27+}$

between clonal burst size and %CD27+ cells. **(c)** Schematic description of antigen specific clonal

proliferation and differentiation in CD8+ T cells. Because mature CD62L- cells proliferate more

rapidly compared to the immature CD62L+ cells, initial clones made primarily of CD62L- cells

can grow to generate the larger size clones. **(d)** A parameter scan of all possible combinations of

k_I, k_M, and r shows that negative correlations ($C_{size\text{-}CD27+} < 0$) are not realized when $k_I > k_M$. Each

point represents a value of $C_{size\text{-}CD27+}$ obtained from the model at a unique value of set of model

parameters. The parameter configurations that populate the bottom-right quadrant satisfy our two

constraints imposed by experimental observations regarding the negative values of $C_{size\text{-}CD27+}$ and

higher growth rate of immature NK cells compared to their mature counterparts. **(e)** Schematic

representation of the three-state model including cell death. The model has separate parameters

for birth of immature (CD27+) cells (b_I), death of immature cells (d_I), birth of mature (CD27-)

cells (b_M), death of mature cells (d_M), and differentiation of immature cells to mature (r). In this

model, the growth rates are defined as $k_I = b_I - d_I$ and $k_M = b_M - d_M$. **(f)** A parameter scan for this

model shows that some parameter configurations can meet the two constraints where $k_I > k_M$ and

the parameters result in negative values for $C_{size\text{-}CD27+}$. Each point represents a unique parameter

configuration. Red points denote parameter configurations where $b_M > b_I$ <u>and</u> $d_M > d_I$. **(g)** Shows

the best fit of the model in (e) to the moments with the constraints $k_I > k_M$ and $C_{size\text{-}CD27+} < -0.2$.

Circles represent the fitted values of the first and second moments for the distribution of the NK

cell clones obtained from the model. Blue and red circles represent mean populations of CD27+,

and CD27- NK cells, respectively. The variances of the CD27+ and CD27- NK cells are shown

in cyan and pink circles, and the covariance between the CD27+ and CD27- NK cells is shown in

purple. Horizontal lines around the circles show the standard deviations of bootstrapped

moments. The solid line is the line $y=x$, which demonstrates where values would lie if we had a

perfect fit.

A progressive three-stage differentiation model can quantitatively recreate clonal burst

dynamics

We modified our two-state model to include an intermediate state (Fig. 2a) in the model. This

reflects many investigations probing NK cell maturation, which show NK cell development goes

through several maturation states and some of those states can potentially represent the proposed

intermediate state in the model. A well-established NK cell maturation scheme is CD27+CD11b-

→ CD27+CD11b+ → CD27-CD11b+ (Chiossone et al., 2009). However, the clonal burst data

show a negligible proportion of CD11b- NK cells at 8 days post-infection. Another potential

maturation scheme could be CD27+KLRG1- → CD27+KLRG1+ → CD27-KLRG1+

(Kamimura and Lanier, 2015). In addition, recent single cell RNA-seq experiments show the

presence of CD27-Ly6C+ and CD27-Ly6C- cells at 8 days post-MCMV infection (Riggan et al.,

2022), thus the intermediate state could represent a CD27-Ly6C- state as well. Here we present

results for the model where the intermediate state represents a mature CD27- state, the other

variations of the model are shown in the Supplementary Material (Fig. S3-S5). In order to

determine parameter ranges that give rise to higher growth of immature NK cells compared to

their immature counterparts, we computed the average size of a clone that originates from either

a single CD27+ NK cell or single CD27- NK cell by solving ODEs describing the kinetics of the

average NK cell populations. We constructed an effective growth difference metric Δ_k, which

describes the difference between the average NK cell populations at day 8 that originate from a

single CD27+ or CD27- NK cell at t=0. If Δ_k is positive, then CD27+ cells grow faster than

CD27- cells (Materials and Methods). We performed a parameter scan on this three-stage model

and find that some parameter configurations with $\Delta_k > 0$ can capture the negative values of C_{size-}

CD27+ (Fig. 2b). We then evaluated whether this three-stage model can accurately describe the

distributions of the immature and mature NK cells in clones. We fitted the means, variances, and

the covariance of the NK subpopulations in the clones by varying the model parameters with

constraints $\Delta_k > 0$ and $C_{\text{size-CD27+}} < -0.2$ and found that the best-fit three-stage model shows an

excellent fit to the data (Fig. 2c, Table 1). Thus, adding an intermediate CD27- stage to the

model can capture all the key features of the heterogeneity in the NK cell clonal populations.

Table 1: Best fit parameters to 3-stage model describing NK clonal bursts given in Fig. 2a.

Parameter	Estimate (confidence interval)
b_I	1.064 day^{-1} (1.051 - 1.215)
b_{INT}	1.613 day^{-1} (1.561 - 1.996)
b_M	0.700 day^{-1} (0.001 - 0.727)
d_I	0.054 day^{-1} (0.052 - 0.232)
d_{INT}	0.285 day^{-1} (0.261 - 0.433)
d_M	1.370 day^{-1} (1.330 – 2.000)
r_1	0.126 day^{-1} (0.088 - 0.172)
r_2	0.164 day^{-1} (0.151 - 0.330)

The three-stage model above makes no assumptions about the identities of the differing

phenotypes of the CD27- cell subsets. However, the best fit parameters indicate that the first

CD27- subset has a high proliferation rate, and the final CD27- subset has a high death rate.

Riggan *et al.* (Riggan et al., 2022) previously determined that, in the contraction phase, Ly6C+

NK cells differentiate from Ly6C- cells, and that Ly6C+ cells die more rapidly than Ly6C- cells.

Our model shows that similar activity may be observed during the expansion phase as well, as

we show higher death of Ly6C+ cells and a unidirectional maturation from Ly6C- → Ly6C+

cells. Because our analysis pertains to the expansion phase of the NK cell response to MCMV

we thus aimed to validate if the mature states proposed in the model can be identified with

CD27-Ly6C- and CD27-Ly6C+ NK cells. We found that our best fit parameters correctly

recreate the experimentally observed strong negative correlation between the %CD27+ and

%Ly6C+ NK cells across clones (Grassmann et al., 2019), and correctly estimate that most

clones have <20% Ly6C+ cells at day 8 post-infection (Fig. 2d-e). This independent validation

gives evidence that our parameter estimates can be meaningfully interpreted for a model where

NK cells differentiate along a trajectory from CD27+Ly6C- → CD27-Ly6C- → CD27-Ly6C+.

We sought to understand the mechanism by which the three-stage model can generate

negative values for the correlation $C_{\text{size-CD27+}}$ as well as quantitatively describe the heterogeneity

in the NK cell populations in the clones. The two-stage model predictions for the first and the

second moments for the NK cell populations are substantially less than the actual values,

indicating that our best-fit parameters are not producing enough NK cells (Fig. 1g). The presence

of the intermediate state in the three-stage model alleviates this issue, which can rapidly grow

and increase the number of CD27-Ly6C+ NK cells while the rapidly dying CD27-Ly6C- NK

cells can help meet the constraint that a population of CD27- cells grows slower than one of

CD27+ cells. This variation increases stochastic fluctuations in the observed numbers of CD27-

cells, as some clones will have many CD27- cells from high growth of the intermediate Ly6C-

subset, while other clones will have few CD27- cells from low growth of the Ly6C+ subset.

Furthermore, the presence of the CD27-Ly6C+ NK cells expand the range of the model

parameters that can give rise to negative values of $C_{\text{size-CD27+}}$.

Figure 2: A three-stage linear model can capture experimental observations of NK cell

clones if intermediate double-positive NK cells are the fastest growing subset. (a) Schematic

representation of the three-stage model. In this model there are three stages of NK cell

maturation: an immature (CD27+), intermediate (CD27-), and terminally mature (CD27-) subset.

Each subset has a distinct proliferation and death rate, and cells progress from immature to

intermediate maturity according to rate r_1 and from intermediate to terminal maturity according

to rate r_2. **(b)** A parameter scan for the model in (a) shows that adding a third stage of maturation

can account for the negative values in $C_{size\text{-}CD27+}$. Each point represents a unique parameter

configuration. Positive values of Δ_k indicate that immature CD27+ cells grow faster than mature

CD27- cells and vice versa. See the Materials and Methods for further details. **(c)** Best fit of this

model to the moments with the constraints $\Delta_k > 0$ and $C_{size\text{-}CD27+} < -0.2$. Circles represent the

fitted values of the moments to the model. Blue and red circles represent mean populations of

CD27+, and CD27- NK cells, respectively. The variances of the CD27+ and CD27- NK cells are

shown in cyan and pink circles, and the covariance between the CD27+ and CD27- NK cells is

shown in purple. Horizontal lines around the circles show the standard deviations of

bootstrapped moments. The solid line is the line $y=x$, which demonstrates where values would lie

if we had a perfect fit. **(d)** Simulated clones from the three-stage model in (a) at the best fit

parameter values shown in (c) when the three stages are taken as immature CD27+Ly6C-,

mature CD27-LyC- and the terminally mature CD27-Ly6C+, respectively. Each point is a

simulated clone resulting from a single NK cell.

Comparison of kinetics between endogenous NK cells, adoptively transferred cells, and

homeostatic cells identifies potential identical maturation rates in all conditions

Here we compare the kinetics of NK cell maturation occurring in response to MCMV infection

and in homeostasis. In particular, we investigated the changes in the rates of cell growth and

differentiation induced by MCMV infection. First, we quantified the growth and the

differentiation rates using time-stamped flow cytometry data on homeostatic NK cells with a

one-time treatment of tamoxifen in fluorescent NK cell reporter mice reported by Adams *et*

al.(Adams et al., 2021). Treating the mice with tamoxifen determines whether observed NK cells

are newly populated from bone marrow or existed in peripheral blood at the onset of the

infection. We fitted a two-state CD27+ → CD27- maturation model described by ordinary

differential equations (see Materials and Methods) to the data collected at days 3, 7, 14, 23, 29,

and 35 to estimate the growth rates of the immature CD27+ (k_{CD27+}) and the mature CD27-

(k_{CD27-}) NK cells, the rate of differentiation (r) of the CD27+ to CD27- NK cells, and the rate (λ)

with which CD27+ NK cells are populated from bone marrow. We estimated these rates both for

Ly49H+ and Ly49H- NK cells. The estimated rates for Ly49H+ cells (Table 2, Fig. 3a) show

that a CD27+ cell population would double every 6.9 days if there were no differentiation,

whereas CD27- cells have a negative growth rate with a half-life of 5.6 days. This implies that

the death rate of a population of CD27- cells is greater than their proliferation rate. The

differentiation rate from CD27+ → CD27- phenotypes is similar to that of the death rate of

Ly49H+ CD27- cells. Approximately 1.37% of the Ly49H+ NK pool is replenished from bone

marrow every day. Comparing these rates to those of the Ly49H- NK pool reveals that Ly49H-

NK cells are repopulated from bone marrow at almost twice the rate (~2.4%/day). All other

estimated rates for Ly49H- NK cells are within the confidence bounds of the Ly49H+ estimated

rates (Table 2, Fig. 3b). Given the constraint governing λ which dictates

345                                     $$\lambda \propto N_{CD27-}$$

(Materials and Methods) the difference in estimated λ values can be attributed to a higher

percentage of CD27- cells. Next, we compared these rates with corresponding rates estimated in

our three-state model using the clonal burst data. The estimate for CD27+ → CD27-

differentiation rate is equivalent between Ly49H+ NK cells in homeostasis and in MCMV

infection. Our estimations for the clonal burst data (Table 1) show that varying subsets of CD27-

cells have varying growth rates ranging -0.7 day^{-1} to 1.3 day^{-1} in MCMV infection, a wide range

not in disagreement with the estimate for homeostatic data. Ly49H+ CD27+ cells grow ~10×

faster in MCMV infection than in homeostatic conditions.

Table 2: Best fit parameters to homeostatic Ly49H+ and Ly49H- NK cells.

Parameter	Ly49H+ Estimate (confidence interval)	Ly49H- Estimate (confidence interval)
λ	1.366 percent/day (1.117– 1.594)	2.412 percent/day (2.028 – 2.915)
r	0.125 day^{-1} (0.095 – 0.159)	0.147 day^{-1} (0.118 – 0.173)
k_{CD27+}	0.097 day^{-1} (0.064 – 0.135)	0.088 day^{-1} (0.053 – 0.119)
k_{CD27-}	-0.120 day^{-1} (-0.152 – -0.091)	-0.107 day^{-1} (-0.126 – -0.086)

We investigated whether the kinetics of NK cell maturation in the expansion phase during

MCMV infection in single-cell adoptive transfer experiments is quantitatively similar to that of

an endogenous population of NK cells. To this end, we collected time-stamped mass cytometry

data on C57BL/6 mice splenocytes at days 0, 4, and 7 post-MCMV infection (Potempa et al.,

2022). We then gated Ly49H+ NK cells from each mouse and determined the mean relative

abundances across mice of CD27+Ly6C-, CD27-Ly6C-, and CD27-Ly6C+ subsets among the

NK cell population (Fig. S6). We multiplied these relative abundances by mean absolute

numbers of Ly49H+ endogenous NK cells during MCMV infection from Robbins *et al.*(Robbins

et al., 2004) to obtain time-stamped population sizes of NK cell subsets. We then modeled these

data with the ordinary differential equation (ODE) solution in Equations S17-S25 using the

parameters from Table 1 and an initial condition of the mean uninfected *in vivo* abundances of

endogenous NK cells. The ODE result is multiple orders of magnitude above the measured

Figure 3: Kinetics of homeostatic NK cells and endogenous NK cells responding to MCMV

infection. (a-b) Best fit to **(a)** Ly49H+ and **(b)** Ly49H- homeostatic NK cells. Y axis refers to

percentage of the total Ly49H+ or Ly49H- population occupied by that NK subset. Circles and

Xs represent the mean values of tamoxifen-induced td-Tomato positive and negative NK cells

observed in the data, respectively. Solid and dashed error bars represent standard deviations

around the means of tamoxifen-induced positive and negative NK abundances respectively.

Smooth curves represent model fits for tamoxifen-induced positive (solid) and negative (dashed)

NK cells. **(c)** Best fit to profiled endogenous NK cells responding to MCMV infection. Points

represent mean cell abundances, and error bars represent standard deviations of bootstrapped

means. Smooth curves represent model fit.

abundances (Fig. S7a). This indicates that the kinetics of endogenous NK cells differ

significantly from that of NK cells in adoptive transfer experiments.

To further quantify the differences in the kinetic rates between the adoptively transferred

and endogenous NK cells, we then fit the 3-stage model with 2 mature stages to the endogenous

cell population. We used the gated Ly49H+ populations of CD27+/Ly6C-, CD27-/Ly6C-, and

CD27-/Ly6C+ NK cells and fit to a system of ODEs that describe the net growth rates of each

population and the differentiation rates between them (Materials and Methods). The best fit to

this data has unrealistic estimates for the death rate of CD27-/Ly6C+ NK cells and the

differentiation rate from CD27+ → CD27- cells (Table S5, Fig. S7b). We then attempted to

constrain the fitting procedure by setting the CD27+ → CD27- differentiation rate to those of the

previous estimations for the clonal burst kinetics and homeostatic conditions (Tables 1 and 2).

Under this constraint, the only rate estimated to be within the confidence interval for the

equivalent rate in adoptive transfer experiments is the differentiation rate from Ly6C- → Ly6C+

(Table 3, Fig. 3c). The growth rate of CD27+Ly6C- cells is ~4× faster for adoptively transferred

cells, the growth rate of CD27-Ly6C- cells is 2-3× faster, and the death rate of mature cells is

~1.5× faster. However, the resulting best fit to the endogenous NK cell population does show

that the intermediate CD27-/Ly6C- cell population has the fastest growth rate, and the mature

CD27-/Ly6C+ cells have a large death rate, confirming the qualitative results from the adoptive

transfer experiments. Thus, although the growth kinetics are different between endogenous and

adoptive transfer experiments, both systems have the intermediate population proliferating

rapidly and the terminally mature population dying rapidly.

Table 3: Best fit parameters to endogenous NK cells responding to MCMV infection with constrained r_1.

Parameter	Estimate (confidence interval)
k_I	0.236 day^{-1} (0.153 - 0.350)
k_{INT}	0.537 day^{-1} (0.065 - 0.874)
k_M	-0.484 day^{-1} (-1.194 - 0.371)
r_1	0.126 day^{-1} (fixed)
r_2	0.447 day^{-1} (0.000 - 0.874)

Both the adoptively transferred cells and endogenous population are estimated to have a large death rate for CD27- cells. To test this result, we analyzed NK cell viability in mice that were infected with MCMV at different times post-infection (Fig. 4a). Surprisingly, mature (CD27-) cells indeed had a greater fraction of dead cells than immature (CD27+) cells during expansion (days 4 and 7 post-infection) (Fig. 4b). To determine if the higher rates of cell death in the CD27- NK cell population in the three-state model give rise to a higher fraction of dead NK cells we extended our three-state model to evaluate the number of dead mature and immature NK cells (Fig. S8c) which showed that the best fit parameters for the adoptive transfer experiments are consistent with the results reported above (Fig. 4c). Because we only have best fit growth rates of the endogenous NK cells and not separate proliferation and death rates, we tested a variety of birth and death rates consistent with the best fit parameters such that *b-d=k* for each cell subset.

Many of the possible configurations agree with the higher percentage of live CD27+ cells. This gives additional confirmation that CD27- cells may in fact be dying at faster rates than CD27+ cells.

Figure 4: Mature CD27- NK cells undergo rapid death during the expansion phase. (a) Schematic of experimental setup. **(b)** Relative abundances of dead cells for CD27+ (blue) and CD27- (red) *ex vivo* NK cell subsets as measured by flow cytometry experiment. Data are representative of experiments with n = 4-5 mice per timepoint. Graph shows means ± SEM; *P <0.033, and ***P <0.001 represent statistically significant difference between CD27$^+$ and CD27$^-$ NK cells as determined by 2-way ANOVA. **(c)** Parameter scans for determining percentage of live cells for CD27+ and CD27- subsets using the model shown in Fig. S8c. Blue points represent a parameter scan where birth and death rates were varied by random sampling such that the growth rates $k_I = b_I-d_I$, $k_{INT} = b_{INT}-d_{INT}$, and $k_M = b_M-d_M$ are equivalent to the kinetic estimates for endogenous NK cells shown in Table 3. Red points represent randomly sampled

dead cell clearance rates with other rates set to those describing adoptive transfer kinetics in

Table 1. Black dotted line is *y=x*, and points below this line show a higher percentage of live

cells for immature CD27+ cells than for mature CD27- cells.

Figure 5: Proposed mechanism of NK clonal expansion in response to MCMV infection.

Three distinct subsets of NK cells are necessary to generate full NK response to infection. The

first is CD27+, Ly6C-, and moderately proliferative, with a doubling time of ~0.3 days and

negligible cell death. The second is CD27-, Ly6C-, and highly proliferative, with a doubling time

of ~0.2 days. The last is CD27-, Ly6C-, and prone to rapid cell death with a half-life of ~0.45

days. This picture paints CD27-Ly6C- NK cells as having a highly proliferative and highly

effective phenotype, similar to effector CD8+ T cells, and CD27+Ly6C- cells as long-lived,

similar to memory precursor CD8+ T cells.

Discussion

We employed stochastic minimal mechanistic *in silico* models to investigate mechanisms that underlie development of MCMV-specific NK cells at early times (0 – 8 days post-infection). We found Ly49H+ NK cells undergoing antigen-specific expansion follow a maturation scheme from (immature) CD27+Ly6C- → (mature I) CD27-Ly6C- → (mature II) CD27-Ly6C+, characterized by a highly proliferative mature CD27-Ly6C- phenotype and a more mature CD27-Ly6C+ phenotype with higher rates of cell death (Fig. 5). The differences in the rates of proliferation and cell death are crucial to give rise to the heterogeneous clones that originate from single immature CD27+ NK cells, in particular, the presence of larger sized NK cell clones composed of mature CD27- NK cells at 8 days post-infection. Similar heterogeneity in the clones of CD8+ T cells generated in the expansion phase (<8 days post-infection) from an acute antigen-specific expansion of single immature CD62L+ cells in C57BL/6 mice has been observed (Buchholz et al., 2013); however, the larger CD8+ T cell clones composed of effector CD62L- arise from the higher rate of proliferation of the CD62L- CD8+ T cells. This is in contrast with the NK cell maturation program where the larger sized clones of mature NK cell populations arise due to the interplay of uneven increase in the proliferation rates and increase in the rates of cell death as the NK cells mature, and intrinsic stochastic fluctuations occurring in these processes. Innate heterogeneity in adoptively transferred single NK cell phenotypes may also contribute to observed stochasticity. In CD8+ T cells, precursor CD62L+ cells are deemed memory precursors, matching their lowly proliferative phenotype (Kretschmer et al., 2020). An equivalent population of memory precursor NK cells has not been identified. CD27-Ly6C+ cells match previously defined phenotypes for memory NK cells and could potentially be memory

precursors. However, our model shows that these cells experience rapid cell death. Therefore, for

these cells to live longer to become memory cells additional processes such as a change in

environmental conditions or an epigenetic change that promotes survival in these cells at later

times during the contraction phase could become relevant. This differentiation trajectory is also

in contrast with CD8+ T cells, as NK cell memory precursors would be formed downstream of

effector (Ly6C-) NK cells, whereas CD8+ effectors (CD62L-) are formed downstream of CD8+

T cell memory precursors (CD62L+) in acute infection. Alternately, another mature NK subset

such as Ly6C-KLRG1- that is lowly proliferative and long-lived could give rise to the adaptive

NK cell phenotype. Inclusion of these processes as well as the later time kinetics could be a

future extension of our approach. We note a similarity of our three state NK cell maturation

model with maturation of T cells in persistent (13-140 days) *T. gondi* infection in genetically

resistant mice reported by Robey and colleagues (Chu et al., 2016) where the infection gave rise

to a continuous production of CXCR3-KLRG1+ terminally differentiated effector T cells from a

quiescent memory CXCR3+KLRG1- T cells via an intermediate CXCR3+KLRG1+ state. The

intermediate T cell state showed higher proliferation and increased death compared to the

memory and effector T cells. However, these T cells were uniformly CD62L- in contrast to the

memory and effector T cells that are produced in response to acute antigenic SIINFEKL

infection.

NK cell clones in MCMV infection go through a smaller (~1000×) fold increase in the

expansion phase compared that (~40,000×) of antigen-specific expansion of CD8+ T cells. This

could be because CD8+ T cells can generate autocrine cytokines such as IL-2 that help the cells

to proliferate (Kalia and Sarkar, 2018), whereas NK cells rely on other cells to make the

necessary cytokines for proliferation (such as IL-2 and IL-15) and survival (such IL-21) (Fauriat

et al., 2010). Furthermore, NK cells are more dependent on cytokines such as IL-15 compared to

the CD8+ T cells (DeGottardi et al., 2016). Therefore, cytokine competition for IL-15 and IL-2

might also explain increased death of mature NK cells in the expansion phase. A test of this

hypothesis could be investigation of MCMV-induced NK cell maturation in *Il15+/-* mice.

We quantified the population kinetics of antigen-specific Ly49H+ NK cells during the

expansion phase of MCMV infection (<8 days post-infection) using both endogenous and

adoptively transferred NK cells. This antigen-specific response was further compared with the

kinetics of NK cell maturation in the absence of MCMV infection. Adoptively transferred

Ly49H+ NK cells grow at an increased rate compared to the endogenous Ly49H+ NK cells (~3×

faster for Ly6C- cells). A possible explanation of this phenomenon is the stronger competition

for resources (e.g. antigens and/or cytokines) that would occur in endogenous NK cells could

prevent them from growing as quickly as the less dense population of adoptively transferred NK

cells. Interestingly, our estimate of the differentiation rate of the immature CD27+ to mature

CD27- NK cells showed negligible effect of MCMV infection on this process. This shows that

the signaling processes governing NK cell antigen-specific expansion and cytotoxicity are not

impacting transcription and translation of CD27, but rather preferential expansion of certain

subsets is creating altered phenotype abundances observed in MCMV infection.

Our stochastic modeling of heterogeneous NK cell clones showed that larger stochastic

variations in the mature NK cell populations arising due to higher intrinsic noise fluctuations

generated by the interplay between the higher proliferation and cell death processes are

important for producing large clones of mature NK cells at 8 days post-infection. This is in

contrast with stochastic kinetics of CD8+ T cells where the larger clones of effector CD62L-

CD8+ T cells can arise due to a higher rate of proliferation of these cells even in the absence of

any cell death (Buchholz et al., 2013). Our effort to use different models to quantitatively

describe the heterogeneity of NK cell clones demonstrate the critical role of the correlation

between the clone size and the proportion of the mature NK cells in the clones, $C_{\text{size-CD27+}}$, in

screening out mechanisms that are unable to give rise to the observed heterogeneity.

Materials and Methods

NK cell development model

We modeled the NK cell proliferation, death, and maturation as a continuous time Markov

processes where a proliferation or a death event in a NK cell population increases or decreases

the population number, respectively, by one cell. A differentiation event changing a NK cell

from immature (*I*) to mature (*M*) decreases the NK cell population in state *I* and increases the

population in state *M* simultaneously by a single NK cell. The kinetics of the system are given by

the Master equation describing the time evolution of the conditional probability for the system to

be in a particular state containing different numbers of immature and mature NK cells at any

time *t* given a specific state at *t=0*. The ODEs describing the kinetics of first and second

moments can be derived from the Master equation. The solutions are shown in the

Supplementary Materials. The first and second moments for the clone size distributions for all

our models were calculated by solving the corresponding ODEs.

Stochastic simulations

We use the Gillespie algorithm(Gillespie, 1977) for all our stochastic simulations. For two-stage and three-stage models, we initialized the simulation with a single CD27+ NK cell. We evolved the system until 8 days and numbers of CD27+ and CD27- cells in the NK cell clones were recorded. We calculated the correlation $C_{\text{size-CD27+}}$ for the clones by averaging over 10^4 stochastic trajectories.

Fitting model to moments

The first and second moments $f(\vec{\theta})$ for the clone size distributions obtained for two- and three-stage models were computed by solving ODEs (Eqs. S2-S6 in Supplementary Text 1 and the ODEs in Supplementary Text 2). The parameter vector $\vec{\theta}$ represents the rates for proliferation, differentiation, and death in the models. To compare the predicted moments $f(\vec{\theta})$ from the model with the actual moments y computed from the data, we used the cost function below:

$$\chi^2 = \sum_i \left(\frac{f_i(\vec{\theta}) - y_i}{\sigma_i}\right)^2 + g(\vec{\theta})$$

where, σ_i is the standard deviation corresponding to the data used for computing y_i. A penalty function, $g(\vec{\theta})$ is introduced to implement the constrained imposed by sign of the correlation $C_{size-CD27+}$. We set $g(\vec{\theta})$ to a high value (= 10^4) when $C_{size-CD27+} > -0.2$ at any value of Δ_k or $C_{size-CD27+} < 0$ and $\Delta_k < 0$, otherwise $g(\vec{\theta})$=0. This constraint describes the experimental observation that immature CD27- NK cells grow faster than mature CD27+ NK cells in the expansion phase. σ_i is calculated by taking the standard deviation of each moment across 10,000

bootstrapped samples of the clones. Minimization of the cost function was performed with the

lmfit python package, using the 'least_squares' Trust Region Reflective algorithm. Parameter

search space was confined from 0.0 to 2.0 day^{-1} for all parameters.

Effective Growth Rate for 3-stage system

We developed a metric to quantify the difference in the growth rate of immature CD27- and

mature CD27+ NK cells for the three-stage model. We computed mean populations of the NK

cell subsets at day 8 by solving Eqs. S17-S25 in Supplementary Text 2 for two different initial

conditions. In one case we initialized with the immature CD27+Ly6C- cells, and in the other

case we initialized with equal proportions of mature CD27-Ly6C- and mature CD27-Ly6C+

cells. We then computed the "effective growth difference" (Δ_k) by evaluating the difference in

the mean populations of the immature CD27+ and the mature CD27- NK cells at day 8. We

performed an asinh(Δ_k) transformation to help visualization of the data in the graphs shown in

the manuscript.

Parameter scans

For parameter scans showing the relationship between growth rates and the correlation between

clone size and %CD27+ cells, each parameter is randomly selected from a uniform distribution

from 0 to 1.6 day^{-1}. For each parameter set, 10^4 Gillespie simulations were carried out to

compute the correlation $C_{\text{size-CD27+}}$ for the NK cell clones at day 8. We performed scans for 10^5

different parameter sets.

Ordinary differential equation fits to homeostatic data

The growth and differentiation kinetics of populations of CD27+Tom+ (n_1), CD27-Tom+ (n_2), CD27+Tom- (n_3), and CD27-Tom- (n_4) cells in the periphery in homeostasis are given by the ODEs below:

$$\frac{dn_1}{dt} = k_{CD27+}n_1 - rn_1$$

$$\frac{dn_2}{dt} = k_{CD27-}n_2 + rn_1$$

$$\frac{dn_3}{dt} = k_{CD27+}n_3 - rn_3 + \alpha$$

$$\frac{dn_4}{dt} = k_{CD27-}n_4 + rn_3$$

The CD27+ and CD27- cells grow with rates k_{CD27+} and k_{CD27-}, respectively, and the differentiation CD27+ → CD27- occurs at a rate, r. The influx of immature CD27- cells from the bone marrow to the periphery occurs at a rate α. At homeostasis it is reasonable to assume that the sum of all Ly49H+ and the sum of all Ly49H- NK cells were assumed to be constant through time, *i.e.*,

$$n_{TOT}(t = 0) = n_{TOT}(t) = \sum_i n_i(t)$$

The kinetics of the percentages ($N_i = 100 \times (n_i/n_{TOT})$) of each cell type follow the ODEs below:

$$\frac{dN_1}{dt} = k_{CD27+}N_1 - rN_1$$

$$\frac{dN_2}{dt} = k_{CD27-}N_2 + rN_1$$

$$\frac{dN_3}{dt} = k_{CD27+}N_3 - rN_3 + \frac{\alpha}{n_{TOT}}$$

$$\frac{dN_4}{dt} = k_{CD27-}N_4 + rN_3$$

600   We define $\lambda = \frac{\alpha}{n_{TOT}}$, which describes the influx rate of either the total Ly49H+ or total Ly49H-

601   population as a percentage of the given population. This makes the ODEs which we fit:

$$\frac{dN_1}{dt} = k_{CD27+}N_1 - rN_1$$

$$\frac{dN_2}{dt} = k_{CD27-}N_2 + rN_1$$

$$\frac{dN_3}{dt} = k_{CD27+}N_3 - rN_3 + \lambda$$

$$\frac{dN_4}{dt} = k_{CD27-}N_4 + rN_3$$

606   We assume the total number of NK cells and the relative abundances of varying subsets do not

607   change with time in homeostasis, therefore,

$$\frac{d(N_1 + N_2 + N_3 + N_4)}{dt} = k_{CD27+}(N_1 + N_3) + k_{CD27-}(N_2 + N_4) + \lambda = 0$$

$$\frac{d(N_1 + N_3)}{dt} = k_{CD27+}(N_1 + N_3) - r(N_1 + N_3) + \lambda = 0$$

$$\frac{d(N_2 + N_4)}{dt} = k_{CD27-}(N_2 + N_4) + r(N_1 + N_3) = 0$$

611   These constraints lead to equalities between parameters,

$$r = -\frac{k_{CD27-}N_{CD27-}}{N_{CD27+}}$$

$$\lambda = -(k_{CD27-}N_{CD27-} + k_{CD27+}N_{CD27+})$$

Thus, by estimating only k_{CD27+} and k_{CD27-}, and using the mean relative abundances of CD27+

and CD27- cells across mice and time, we can solve all four rate parameters in the homeostatic

state.

Ordinary differential equation fits to mass cytometry data

We gated Ly49H+ NK cells in the CyTOF studies into three subsets: CD27+Ly6C-, CD27-

Ly6C-, and CD27-Ly6C+. Details of the gating are described in the Supplementary Material. We

describe the growth and differentiation kinetics of the populations the immature CD27+Ly6C-

(N_I), mature CD27-Ly6C- (N_{INT}), and mature CD27-Ly6C+ (N_M) by the ODEs below,

625
$$\frac{dN_I}{dt} = k_I N_I - r_1 N_I$$

626
$$\frac{dN_{INT}}{dt} = k_{INT} N_{INT} + r_1 N_I - r_2 N_{INT}$$

627
$$\frac{dN_M}{dt} = k_M N_M + r_2 N_{INT}$$

Where, k_I, k_{INT}, and k_M denote the rates of growth for N_I, N_{INT}, and N_M, respectively. The rates of

differentiation for CD27+Ly6C- $\rightarrow$ CD27-Ly6C- and CD27-Ly6C- $\rightarrow$ CD27-Ly6C+ are given

by r_1 and r_2, respectively. Since the above system of ODEs is autonomous and linear, we can

obtain the time dependent solutions analytically and exactly. The analytical solution was

numerically evaluated for different values of the rate parameters represented by $\vec{\theta}$. The analytical

solutions were evaluated numerically for specific rate constants and initial conditions. We used

the estimated population sizes (details in the main text) for the above NK cell subsets in the

CyTOF data at t=0 as the initial conditions and computed the population sizes at day 4

($\{N_i(\vec{\theta},t=4d)\}$) and day 7 ($\{N_i(\vec{\theta},t=7d)\}$) by solving the above ODEs for a parameter set $\vec{\theta}$. We

then estimated the parameters by $\vec{\theta}$ by fitting the population sizes at day 4($\{y_i(\vec{\theta},t=4d)\}$) and day

7 ($\{y_i(\vec{\theta},t=7d)\}$) using the cost function below.

$$\chi^2 = \sum_i \left(\frac{N_i(\vec{\theta}, t = 4d) - y_i(t = 4d)}{\sigma_i}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{N_i(\vec{\theta}, t = 7d) - y_i(t = 7d)}{\sigma_i}\right)^2$$

Bootstrapping confidence intervals for parameter estimates

To assess the confidence intervals for parameter estimates, we randomly sampled the clones with

replacement with equal probability, calculated each moment and its standard deviation, and fit

the moments as described above. We repeated the process 1,000 times, yielding 1,000 estimates

for the parameters θ. We then sorted the parameter estimates by magnitude and took the 2.5[th] and

97.5[th] percentile for each. These estimates made up the 95% confidence intervals reported here.

For estimations of the homeostatic and endogenous NK populations, we sampled a

population of mice before sampling errors in measurements for each bootstrap estimate.

Animals and MCMV infection

C57BL/6 (B6) B6 mice were purchased from the National Cancer Institute at 6 weeks of age and

housed in the specific pathogen-free animal facility at the University of California San Francisco

(UCSF) in accordance with the guidelines of the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee.

Experiments used mice of both genders, aged 8-12 weeks.

B6 mice were infected with 1000 plaque-forming units (PFU) of Smith strain MCMV via

intraperitoneal injection. Spleens were acquired different time point following MCMV infection

and examined by flow cytometry.

Flow Cytometry

Splenocytes from uninfected or infected mice were processed into single cell suspensions, RBC

lysed, and then stained for flow cytometry. Surface staining was performed using pre-conjugated

antibodies in the presence of the viability marker ZombieRed (BioLegend) and were then analyzed

on an LSR II cytometer (BD Biosciences). The antibodies used for flow cytometry were: CD3ε

(145-2C11), CD19 (6D5), CD49b (DX5), NK1.1 (PK136), KLRG1 (2F1), Ly6C (HK1.4), CD27

(LG.3A10), and Ly49H (3D10). All antibodies were purchased from BioLegend, BD Biosciences,

or ThermoFisher Scientific. An unconjugated anti-CD16/CD32 antibody (clone 2.4G2, UCSF

Antibody Core) was used to block non-specific binding.

Mass cytometry

Samples were prepared for mass cytometry as previously described (Potempa et al., 2022).

Briefly, splenocytes from each mouse were obtained by mechanical dissociation through a 40-

μm filter, treated with ACK lysis buffer, and resuspended in PBS + 5 mM EDTA (PBS/EDTA).

Cells were stained for viability by mixing 1:1 with PBS/EDTA + 100 mM cisplatin (Enzo Life

Sciences) for 1 minute before quenching with PBS/EDTA + 0.5% BSA (Staining Media). One

million splenocytes from each mouse was stained with metal-conjugated antibodies against

CD16 (Nd144) and CD32 (Eu153) for 15 minutes at room temperature in Staining Media before

supplementation with an Fc blocking Ab (clone 2.4G2). After washing in Staining Media, cells

were stained with a master mix of 35 additional metal-conjugated antibodies (Table S6) for 30

minutes at room temperature. At the conclusion of the staining period, cells were washed in

PBS/EDTA before fixation with PBS/EDTA + 3.2% paraformaldehyde and stored at 4º C for 3-5

days. One day prior to data acquisition, samples were barcoded using a 20-plex Pd barcoding kit

(Fluidigm) per manufacturer protocol, pooled, and fixed again, overnight at 4º C, in a

PBS/EDTA + 3.2% paraformaldehyde solution supplemented with a 1:1000 dilution of a

191/193 DNA intercalator (Fluidigm). Just prior to acquisition, barcoded samples were pelleted,

washed in double-deionized water, and resuspended in double-deionized water with a 1:20

dilution of EQ four Element Calibration Beads (Fluidigm). Data were acquired using a CyTOF2-

Helios mass cytometer (Fluidigm), which were then normalized and debarcoded prior to

analysis.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by NIH grant R01AI146581 to J.D. N.M.A. was supported by a

Medical Scientist Training Program grant from the National Institute of General Medical

Sciences (T32GM007739 to the Weill Cornell/Rockefeller/Sloan Kettering Tri-Institutional MD-

PhD Program) and by an F30 Predoctoral Fellowship from the National Institute of Allergy and

Infectious Diseases (F30 AI136239). We would like to thank the Ohio Supercomputer Center for

computational resources.

Abel, A.M., Yang, C., Thakar, M.S., and Malarkannan, S. (2018). Natural Killer Cells: Development, Maturation, and Clinical Utilization. Front Immunol *9*, 1869.

Adams, N.M., Diaz-Salazar, C., Dang, C., Lanier, L.L., and Sun, J.C. (2021). Cutting Edge: Heterogeneity in Cell Age Contributes to Functional Diversity of NK Cells. J Immunol *206*, 465-470.

Adams, N.M., Grassmann, S., and Sun, J.C. (2020). Clonal expansion of innate and adaptive lymphocytes. Nat Rev Immunol *20*, 694-707.

Biassoni, R. (2008). Natural killer cell receptors. Adv Exp Med Biol *640*, 35-52.

Buchholz, V.R., Flossdorf, M., Hensel, I., Kretschmer, L., Weissbrich, B., Graf, P., Verschoor, A., Schiemann, M., Hofer, T., and Busch, D.H. (2013). Disparate individual fates compose robust CD8+ T cell immunity. Science *340*, 630-635.

Burnham, K.P., Anderson, D.R., and Huyvaert, K.P. (2011). AIC model selection and multimodel inference in behavioral ecology: some background, observations, and comparisons. Behavioral ecology and sociobiology *65*, 23-35.

Caligiuri, M.A. (2008). Human natural killer cells. Blood *112*, 461-469.

Cerwenka, A., and Lanier, L.L. (2016). Natural killer cell memory in infection, inflammation and cancer. Nat Rev Immunol *16*, 112-123.

Chiossone, L., Chaix, J., Fuseri, N., Roth, C., Vivier, E., and Walzer, T. (2009). Maturation of mouse NK cells is a 4-stage developmental program. Blood *113*, 5488-5496.

Chu, H.H., Chan, S.-W., Gosling, J.P., Blanchard, N., Tsitsiklis, A., Lythe, G., Shastri, N., Molina-París, C., and Robey, E.A. (2016). Continuous effector CD8+ T cell production in a controlled persistent infection is sustained by a proliferative intermediate population. Immunity *45*, 159-171.

DeGottardi, M.Q., Okoye, A.A., Vaidya, M., Talla, A., Konfe, A.L., Reyes, M.D., Clock, J.A., Duell, D.M., Legasse, A.W., Sabnis, A.*, et al.* (2016). Effect of Anti-IL-15 Administration on T Cell and NK Cell Homeostasis in Rhesus Macaques. J Immunol *197*, 1183-1198.

Fauriat, C., Long, E.O., Ljunggren, H.G., and Bryceson, Y.T. (2010). Regulation of human NK-cell cytokine and chemokine production by target cell recognition. Blood *115*, 2167-2176.

Flommersfeld, S., Bottcher, J.P., Ersching, J., Flossdorf, M., Meiser, P., Pachmayr, L.O., Leube, J., Hensel, I., Jarosch, S., Zhang, Q.*, et al.* (2021). Fate mapping of single NK cells identifies a type 1 innate lymphoid-like lineage that bridges innate and adaptive recognition of viral infection. Immunity *54*, 2288-2304 e2287.

Gillespie, D.T. (1977). Exact Stochastic Simulation of Coupled Chemical Reactions. The Journal of Physical Chemistry *81*, 2340-2361.

Grassmann, S., Pachmayr, L.O., Leube, J., Mihatsch, L., Andrae, I., Flommersfeld, S., Oduro, J., Cicin-Sain, L., Schiemann, M., Flossdorf, M.*, et al.* (2019). Distinct Surface Expression of Activating Receptor Ly49H Drives Differential Expansion of NK Cell Clones upon Murine Cytomegalovirus Infection. Immunity *50*, 1391-1400 e1394.

Guma, M., Angulo, A., Vilches, C., Gomez-Lozano, N., Malats, N., and Lopez-Botet, M. (2004). Imprint of human cytomegalovirus infection on the NK cell receptor repertoire. Blood *104*, 3664-3671.

Hayakawa, Y., and Smyth, M.J. (2006). CD27 dissects mature NK cells into two subsets with distinct responsiveness and migratory capacity. J Immunol *176*, 1517-1524.

Hendricks, D.W., Balfour, H.H., Jr., Dunmire, S.K., Schmeling, D.O., Hogquist, K.A., and Lanier, L.L. (2014). Cutting edge: NKG2C(hi)CD57+ NK cells respond specifically to acute infection with cytomegalovirus and not Epstein-Barr virus. J Immunol *192*, 4492-4496.

Huntington, N.D., Vosshenrich, C.A., and Di Santo, J.P. (2007). Developmental pathways that
generate natural-killer-cell diversity in mice and humans. Nat Rev Immunol *7*, 703-714.
Ishiyama, K., Arakawa-Hoyt, J., Aguilar, O.A., Damm, I., Towfighi, P., Sigdel, T., Tamaki, S.,
Babdor, J., Spitzer, M.H., Reed, E.F*., et al.* (2022). Mass cytometry reveals single-cell kinetics
of cytotoxic lymphocyte evolution in CMV-infected renal transplant patients. Proc Natl Acad Sci
U S A *119*.
Kaech, S.M., Wherry, E.J., and Ahmed, R. (2002). Effector and memory T-cell differentiation:
implications for vaccine development. Nat Rev Immunol *2*, 251-262.
Kalia, V., and Sarkar, S. (2018). Regulation of Effector and Memory CD8 T Cell Differentiation
by IL-2-A Balancing Act. Front Immunol *9*, 2987.
Kamimura, Y., and Lanier, L.L. (2015). Homeostatic control of memory cell progenitors in the
natural killer cell lineage. Cell Rep *10*, 280-291.
Kim, K.H., Yu, H.T., Hwang, I., Park, S., Park, S.H., Kim, S., and Shin, E.C. (2019). Phenotypic
and Functional Analysis of Human NK Cell Subpopulations According to the Expression of
FcepsilonRIgamma and NKG2C. Front Immunol *10*, 2865.
Kretschmer, L., Flossdorf, M., Mir, J., Cho, Y.L., Plambeck, M., Treise, I., Toska, A., Heinzel,
S., Schiemann, M., Busch, D.H*., et al.* (2020). Differential expansion of T central memory
precursor and effector subsets is regulated by division speed. Nat Commun *11*, 113.
Lau, C.M., Adams, N.M., Geary, C.D., Weizman, O.E., Rapp, M., Pritykin, Y., Leslie, C.S., and
Sun, J.C. (2018). Epigenetic control of innate and adaptive immune memory. Nat Immunol *19*,
963-972.
Lopez-Verges, S., Milush, J.M., Schwartz, B.S., Pando, M.J., Jarjoura, J., York, V.A., Houchins,
J.P., Miller, S., Kang, S.M., Norris, P.J*., et al.* (2011). Expansion of a unique CD57(+)NKG2Chi
natural killer cell subset during acute human cytomegalovirus infection. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S
A *108*, 14725-14732.
Martinet, L., Ferrari De Andrade, L., Guillerey, C., Lee, J.S., Liu, J., Souza-Fonseca-Guimaraes,
F., Hutchinson, D.S., Kolesnik, T.B., Nicholson, S.E., Huntington, N.D*., et al.* (2015). DNAM-1
expression marks an alternative program of NK cell maturation. Cell Rep *11*, 85-97.
Min-Oo, G., Bezman, N.A., Madera, S., Sun, J.C., and Lanier, L.L. (2014). Proapoptotic Bim
regulates antigen-specific NK cell contraction and the generation of the memory NK cell pool
after cytomegalovirus infection. J Exp Med *211*, 1289-1296.
Mitrovic, M., Arapovic, J., Jordan, S., Fodil-Cornu, N., Ebert, S., Vidal, S.M., Krmpotic, A.,
Reddehase, M.J., and Jonjic, S. (2012). The NK cell response to mouse cytomegalovirus
infection affects the level and kinetics of the early CD8(+) T-cell response. J Virol *86*, 2165-
2175.
Nabekura, T., Kanaya, M., Shibuya, A., Fu, G., Gascoigne, N.R., and Lanier, L.L. (2014).
Costimulatory molecule DNAM-1 is essential for optimal differentiation of memory natural
killer cells during mouse cytomegalovirus infection. Immunity *40*, 225-234.
Ni, J., Miller, M., Stojanovic, A., Garbi, N., and Cerwenka, A. (2012). Sustained effector
function of IL-12/15/18-preactivated NK cells against established tumors. J Exp Med *209*, 2351-
2365.
Orr, M.T., Sun, J.C., Hesslein, D.G., Arase, H., Phillips, J.H., Takai, T., and Lanier, L.L. (2009).
Ly49H signaling through DAP10 is essential for optimal natural killer cell responses to mouse
cytomegalovirus infection. J Exp Med *206*, 807-817.

Paul, S., Kulkarni, N., Shilpi, and Lal, G. (2016). Intratumoral natural killer cells show reduced
effector and cytolytic properties and control the differentiation of effector Th1 cells.
Oncoimmunology *5*, e1235106.
Peng, H., and Tian, Z. (2017). Natural Killer Cell Memory: Progress and Implications. Front
Immunol *8*, 1143.
Potempa, M., Aguilar, O.A., Gonzalez-Hinojosa, M.D.R., Tenvooren, I., Marquez, D.M.,
Spitzer, M.H., and Lanier, L.L. (2022). Influence of Self-MHC Class I Recognition on the
Dynamics of NK Cell Responses to Cytomegalovirus Infection. J Immunol *208*, 1742-1754.
Riggan, L., Ma, F., Li, J.H., Fernandez, E., Nathanson, D.A., Pellegrini, M., and O'Sullivan, T.E.
(2022). The transcription factor Fli1 restricts the formation of memory precursor NK cells during
viral infection. Nat Immunol *23*, 556-567.
Robbins, S.H., Tessmer, M.S., Mikayama, T., and Brossay, L. (2004). Expansion and contraction
of the NK cell compartment in response to murine cytomegalovirus infection. J Immunol *173*,
259-266.
Romee, R., Rosario, M., Berrien-Elliott, M.M., Wagner, J.A., Jewell, B.A., Schappe, T., Leong,
J.W., Abdel-Latif, S., Schneider, S.E., Willey, S.*, et al.* (2016). Cytokine-induced memory-like
natural killer cells exhibit enhanced responses against myeloid leukemia. Sci Transl Med *8*,
357ra123.
Schlub, T.E., Badovinac, V.P., Sabel, J.T., Harty, J.T., and Davenport, M.P. (2010). Predicting
CD62L expression during the CD8+ T-cell response in vivo. Immunol Cell Biol *88*, 157-164.
Schlub, T.E., Sun, J.C., Walton, S.M., Robbins, S.H., Pinto, A.K., Munks, M.W., Hill, A.B.,
Brossay, L., Oxenius, A., and Davenport, M.P. (2011). Comparing the kinetics of NK cells, CD4,
and CD8 T cells in murine cytomegalovirus infection. J Immunol *187*, 1385-1392.
Sun, J.C., Beilke, J.N., and Lanier, L.L. (2009). Adaptive immune features of natural killer cells.
Nature *457*, 557-561.
Vivier, E., Tomasello, E., Baratin, M., Walzer, T., and Ugolini, S. (2008). Functions of natural
killer cells. Nat Immunol *9*, 503-510.
Voigt, V., Forbes, C.A., Tonkin, J.N., Degli-Esposti, M.A., Smith, H.R., Yokoyama, W.M., and
Scalzo, A.A. (2003). Murine cytomegalovirus m157 mutation and variation leads to immune
evasion of natural killer cells. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A *100*, 13483-13488.
Yang, S., Liu, F., Wang, Q.J., Rosenberg, S.A., and Morgan, R.A. (2011). The shedding of
CD62L (L-selectin) regulates the acquisition of lytic activity in human tumor reactive T
lymphocytes. PLoS One *6*, e22560.
826