

Functional Distinction between CXC Chemokines, Interleukin-8 (IL-8), and Growth Related Oncogene (GRO) α in Neutrophil Infiltration

Kazunori Fujiwara, Akihiro Matsukawa, Susumu Ohkawara, Katsumasa Takagi, and Masaru Yoshinaga

Departments of Pathology (KF, AM, SO, MY) and Orthopedics (KF, KT), Kumamoto University School of Medicine, Honjo, Kumamoto, Japan

SUMMARY: Interleukin-8 (IL-8: CXCL8) and growth related oncogene α (GRO α : CXCL1) are members of the CXC chemokines. In the present study, we explored the functional distinction between these CXC chemokines in the regulation of neutrophil infiltration. Injection of either rabbit IL-8 or GRO α (10 μ g each) into rabbit knee joints resulted in a massive neutrophil infiltration in the joints. At their peak time point (6 hours), the number of neutrophils induced by IL-8 was more than that induced by GRO α . Each chemokine induced the other chemokine in the joints. TNF α activity was induced in the joints after administration of GRO α , but not IL-8. Treatment with anti-GRO α mAb and/or anti-TNF α mAb failed to inhibit IL-8-induced neutrophil infiltration. In contrast, either anti-IL-8 IgG or anti-TNF α mAb decreased GRO α -induced response, and the inhibition was further enhanced by coadministration of these antibodies. Thus, it appears that IL-8 acts directly, whereas GRO α acts indirectly, in part, on neutrophil infiltration. The distinct difference in TNF α production between IL-8 and GRO α was further investigated. In vitro, GRO α induced TNF α activity in cultured synovial cells, the cells producing TNF α in the joints after GRO α -injection. However, IL-8 failed to produce TNF α activity from the cells, although equivalent levels of the mRNA expression were induced by IL-8 as compared with GRO α . When recombinant rabbit TNF α was incubated with synovial fluids obtained at 2 hours after IL-8 injection, the resultant TNF α activity was significantly decreased, an event that was completely restored by a serine protease inhibitor, phenylmethylsulphonyl fluoride (PMSF). Furthermore, TNF α activity was unveiled in the joints when IL-8 was intra-articularly injected with PMSF. These data suggest that TNF α is degraded by serine protease(s) in the case of IL-8. Taken together, the data clearly demonstrate the functional distinction between IL-8 and GRO α , which may influence the inflammatory responses. (*Lab Invest* 2002, 82:15-23).

Neutrophil is the first cell population to migrate into inflammatory foci. Mediators regulating neutrophil recruitment have been extensively studied, and accumulating evidence suggests that the CXC chemokines play critical roles in this process (Baggiolini et al, 1995; Rollins, 1997). The CXC chemokines are a structurally related and functionally redundant family of proteins with specific leukocyte chemotactic activity that can be mainly divided into two subsets based on the presence or absence of specific amino acid residues, Glu-Leu-Arg (ELR) (Baggiolini et al, 1997; Zlotnik and Yoshie, 2000). The ELR CXC chemokines attract neutrophils, whereas non-ELR CXC chemokines are chemotactic for T lymphocytes and NK cells.

Interleukin-8 (IL-8: CXCL8) and growth-related oncogene α (GRO α : CXCL1) are members of ELR CXC chemokines. These chemokines have been detected in a variety of clinical diseases that are characterized

by a massive focal neutrophil infiltration, including acute respiratory distress syndrome, bacterial pneumonia, bacterial meningitis, and rheumatoid arthritis (Kunkel et al, 1995; Luster, 1998). We have recently shown that IL-8 and GRO α are essential in the recruitment of neutrophils at the site of inflammation. Equivalent levels of IL-8 and GRO α were detected in animal models of inflammation where neutralization of IL-8 or GRO α with their specific antibodies resulted in decreased number of infiltrating neutrophils (Fukumoto et al, 1998; Matsukawa et al, 1998, 1999; Mo et al, 1999, 2000). The inhibition was further enhanced when both IL-8 and GRO α were neutralized (Matsukawa et al, 1999). In vitro, IL-8 and GRO α have been shown to be equally chemotactic for neutrophils (Baltenien et al, 1990). Thus, it appears that IL-8 and GRO α are equipotent neutrophil chemoattractants.

Questions remain about the relationship and the functional distinction between these CXC chemokines. To address these points, we injected either rabbit IL-8 or GRO α into rabbit knee joints and analyzed the subsequent inflammatory responses in the joints. Our data suggest substantial differences between these closely related CXC chemokines, especially with respect to endogenously produced cytokines and their participation in the recruitment of neutrophils.

Received August 15, 2001.

This work was supported in part by grants from the Ministry of Education, Science, Sports, and Culture, Japan.

Address reprint requests to: Dr. K. Fujiwara, Department of Pathology, Kumamoto University School of Medicine, 2-2-1, Honjo, Kumamoto 860-0811, Japan. E-mail: 981m9054@med.stud.kumamoto-u.ac.jp

Results

Kinetics of IL-8- or GRO α -Induced Leukocyte Infiltration

Injection of either IL-8 or GRO α into rabbit knee joints induced a massive neutrophil infiltration into the joints. In either case, the number of neutrophils peaked at 6 hours, decreased gradually, and subsided at 36 hours after the injection (Fig. 1). When compared at their peak (6 hours after the injection), the number of infiltrating neutrophils induced by IL-8 was more than that induced by GRO α ($p < 0.05$). The number of mononuclear cells (>94% macrophages) induced by each chemokine was much less than that of neutrophils. The accumulation of mononuclear cells was first noted at 6 hours and peaked at 24 hours after the injection (Fig. 1).

Cytokine Production after Injection of IL-8 or GRO α

To examine if IL-8 and GRO α could induce other cytokines, levels of endogenously produced cytokines were measured after the injection of these chemokines. Intra-articular injection of IL-8 resulted in an increase in the synovial level of GRO α . The GRO α level peaked at 2 hours, decreased gradually, and then increased again at 12 hours after the injection (Fig. 2). Injection of GRO α induced the production of IL-8, the level of which peaked at 2 and 12 hours after the injection (Fig. 2).

Tumor necrosis factor (TNF) α is regarded as the first cytokine-triggering inflammatory response (Driscoll et al, 1995). We next examined TNF α activity in the joints after the injection of either IL-8 or GRO α . As shown in Figure 3A, no TNF α activity was detected after IL-8 injection. However, injection of GRO α induced a significant level of TNF α activity in the joints. TNF α activity was measurable even at 1 hour, increased rapidly and peaked at 2 hours after the injection (Fig.

3A). When anti-TNF α mAb was coinjected with GRO α , the GRO α -induced IL-8 level at 12 hours, but not 2 hours, was inhibited by 50% (Fig. 3B). Thus, IL-8 and GRO α are each capable of producing the other chemokine when they are injected into the joints. GRO α , but not IL-8, induces TNF α activity, which in turn contributes to the production of IL-8 in a late phase. There were no detectable levels of IL-8, GRO α , and TNF α in saline-treated controls (data not shown).

Neutrophil Infiltration after Neutralization of the Endogenous Cytokines

To investigate the involvement of endogenously produced cytokines in the neutrophil influx, anti-IL-8 IgG, anti-GRO α mAb, or anti-TNF α mAb were injected together with IL-8 or GRO α . IL-8- or GRO α -induced neutrophil infiltration was completely blocked by the coadministration of anti-IL-8 IgG or anti-GRO α mAb, respectively (not shown). The data in Figure 4A show that IL-8-induced neutrophil infiltration was not altered by the administration of anti-GRO α mAb and/or anti-TNF α mAb at any time point examined. In contrast, GRO α -induced neutrophil infiltration after 9 hours was significantly inhibited by the treatment with anti-IL-8 IgG, although there were no changes at 2 to 6 hours after the injection (Fig. 4B). When anti-TNF α mAb was injected with GRO α , the neutrophil infiltration after 4 hours was significantly inhibited by 30% to 50%. Coadministration of anti-IL-8 IgG and anti-TNF α mAb further enhanced the inhibition (Fig. 4B). These data indicate that IL-8 acts directly on neutrophils, whereas GRO α attracts neutrophils, in part, via the production of TNF α and IL-8. IL-8-induced GRO α does not appear to be effective for attracting neutrophils.

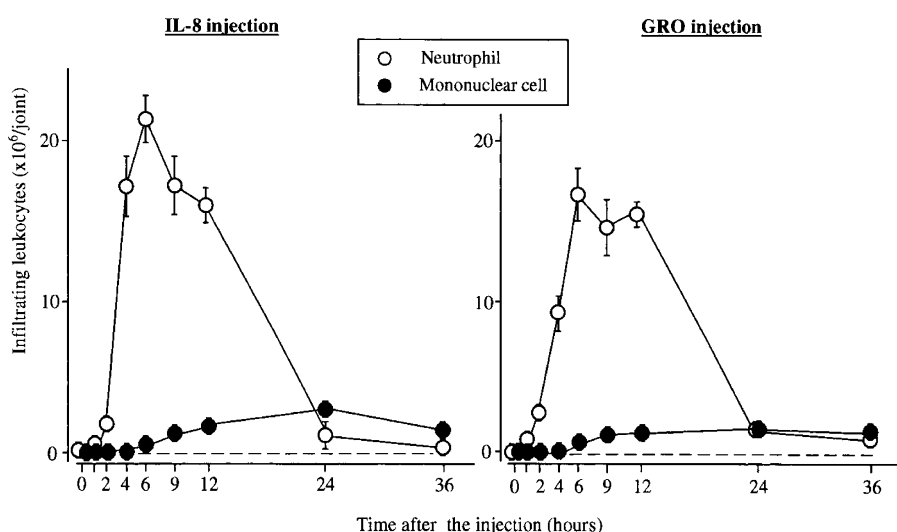


Figure 1.

Kinetics of IL-8- or GRO α -induced leukocyte infiltration. At indicated intervals after intra-articular injection of IL-8 (left panel) or GRO α (right panel) (10 μ g each), the numbers of infiltrating neutrophils (\circ) and mononuclear cells (\bullet) in the joints were recorded. Values represent the mean \pm SE of 9–14 estimations from separate joints. The dotted line shows the background for vehicle-treated joints.

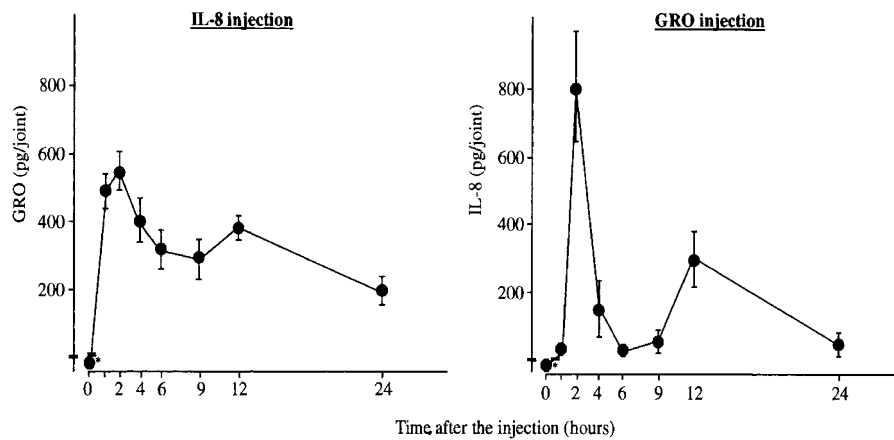


Figure 2.

Production of endogenous chemokines after the injection of either IL-8 or GRO α . IL-8 or GRO α (10 μ g each) was injected into knee joints. At indicated intervals after the injection, synovial fluids were harvested and concentrations of endogenous GRO α or IL-8 in the joints were measured, respectively. Values represent the mean \pm SE of 9–14 estimations from separate joints. *Below detection level.

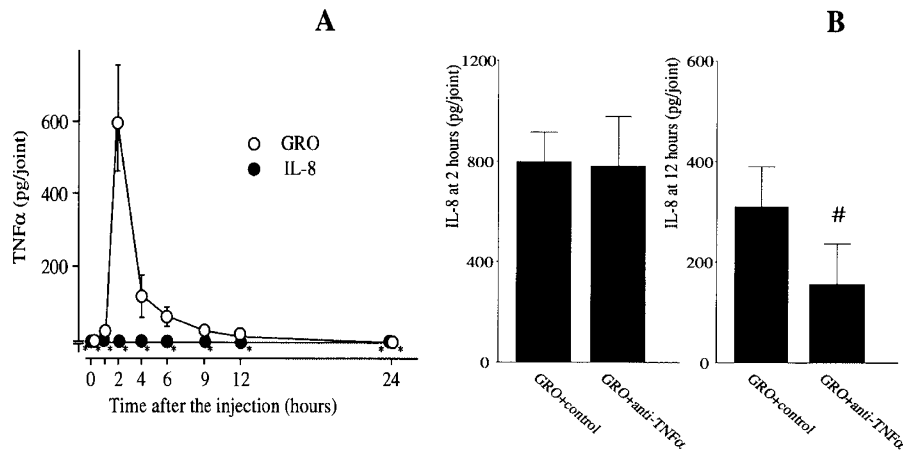


Figure 3.

TNF α activity after injection of either IL-8 or GRO α . A, IL-8 or GRO α (10 μ g each) was injected into knee joints. At indicated intervals after the injection, synovial fluids were harvested and TNF α activity in the joints was measured. Values represent the mean \pm SE of 9–14 estimations from separate joints. *Below detection level. B, GRO α (10 μ g) was injected into knee joints with anti-TNF α mAb (10 μ g). Normal mouse IgG1 was used as a control. At 2 and 12 hours after the injection, synovial fluids were harvested and the concentration of IL-8 was measured. Values represent the mean \pm SE of 8–10 estimations from separate joints. # p < 0.05, when compared with control.

mRNA Expression for TNF α by IL-8 and GRO α

To further examine whether IL-8 is incapable of inducing TNF α , a cellular source of TNF α was next examined in vivo and the TNF α -producing capability by the cells was investigated in vitro. As shown in Figure 5A, TNF α activity in the joints after GRO α injection was similar in normal and in neutrophil-depleted rabbits, suggesting that resident cells in the joints were responsible for TNF α production. Immunohistochemistry demonstrated that synovial cells were stained positively for TNF α (Fig. 5B). Therefore, synovial cells harvested from healthy rabbits were cultured and stimulated with either IL-8 or GRO α .

The data shown in Figure 6 indicated that IL-8 failed to induce TNF α activity in cultured synovial cells even at a concentration as high as 1 μ g/ml. On the other hand, GRO α dose-dependently induced TNF α activity (Fig. 6). Heat-inactivated GRO α (1 μ g/ml, 100° C for 5

minutes) did not induce the activity (not shown). mRNA expression for TNF α in synovial cells was next examined by semiquantitated RT-PCR, which showed that IL-8 induced equivalent levels of the mRNA expression in synovial cells as compared with GRO α (Fig. 7, A and B), despite the absence of TNF α activity in the culture supernatants. Thus, it is likely that TNF α may be inactivated in case of IL-8 stimulation.

Inactivation of TNF α by Serine Proteases

Many types of proteases exist in inflammatory foci that could inactivate TNF α . We next attempted to examine the possibility that coexisting proteases might inactivate TNF α in the joints. For this purpose, a known concentration of recombinant rabbit TNF α was added to synovial fluids obtained at 2 hours after IL-8 injection. The mixture was incubated for 1 hour at 37° C and the resultant TNF α activity was then assessed.

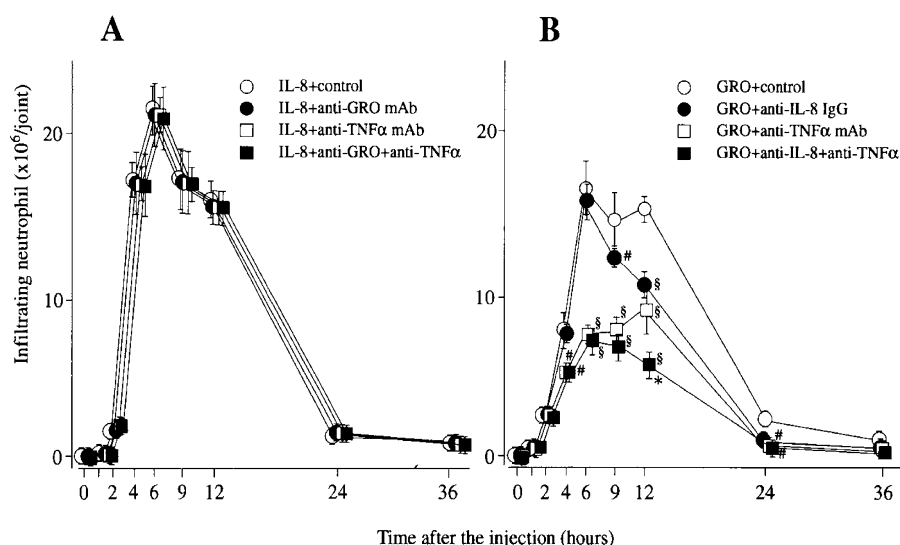


Figure 4.

Effects of anti-GRO α mAb, anti-IL-8 IgG, and anti-TNF α mAb on IL-8- or GRO α -induced neutrophil infiltration. Either IL-8 (A) or GRO α (B) (10 μ g each) was injected into knee joints with 10 μ g of anti-TNF α mAb, anti-GRO α mAb, or anti-IL-8 IgG, alone or in combination. At indicated intervals after the injection, the numbers of infiltrating neutrophils were counted. Values represent the mean \pm SE of 8–12 estimations from separate joints. # p < 0.05, § p < 0.01, when compared with control. * p < 0.01, when compared with anti-IL-8 IgG or anti-TNF α mAb alone.

Phenylmethylsulphonyl fluoride (PMSF) alone did not affect the assay system (Fig. 8A, column 2). As a result, addition of synovial fluids significantly decreased TNF α activity in the mixture (Fig. 8A, column 4), as compared with control (Fig. 8A, column 3). When PMSF, a serine protease inhibitor, was added to the mixture, the diminished TNF α activity was completely restored to control level (Fig. 8A, column 5). These findings suggest that serine protease(s) existing in the synovial fluids after IL-8 injection may be responsible for TNF α inactivation. Experiments were further carried out by injecting PMSF into knee joints together with IL-8. Synovial fluids were harvested at 2 hours after the injection at a time when TNF α activity induced by GRO α reached its peak (Fig. 3A). As shown in Figure 8B, injection of IL-8 or PMSF alone did not induce any appreciable level of TNF α activity. However, TNF α activity emerged when IL-8 was injected with PMSF. When PMSF was coinjected with GRO α , there was no increase in the level of TNF α activity (not shown). These findings suggest that both IL-8 and GRO α are capable of inducing TNF α , but the activity is abolished in case of IL-8 by serine protease(s).

Discussion

IL-8 and GRO α are ELR CXC chemokines that have equivalent neutrophil chemotactic activities (Balentien et al, 1990). In the present study, we attempted to explore the functional difference between IL-8 and GRO α in inflammation. Rabbits are a suitable animal to use to explore the role(s) of these chemokines *in vivo*, because rabbits, like humans, possess both IL-8 and GRO α . These chemokines have not been identified in other experimental animals such as mice and rats (Jose et al, 1991; Yoshimura and Yuhki, 1991). Our results showed that IL-8 and GRO α induced a

massive neutrophil infiltration in joints. However, the number of infiltrating neutrophils induced by IL-8 was significantly higher than that induced by GRO α , although the same molar concentrations of chemokines were injected, suggesting a potential difference(s) between these chemokines.

We here showed that each chemokine induced the production of the other chemokine when it was injected into the joints. Interestingly, IL-8-induced neutrophil infiltration was not inhibited by anti-GRO α mAb despite the presence of GRO α in the joints, whereas the GRO α -induced response after 9 hours was significantly inhibited by anti-IL-8 IgG. These data indicate that endogenous GRO α induced by IL-8 is not effective for the neutrophil influx, whereas GRO α induces neutrophil infiltration in part via the action of IL-8. This conclusion appears to be reasonable, because IL-8 binds two CXC receptors, CXCR1 and CXCR2, whereas GRO α binds only CXCR2 (Hall et al, 1999; Richardson et al, 2000; Wuyts et al, 1998). In the case of IL-8 injection, both CXCR1 and CXCR2 on neutrophils are likely to be already occupied by IL-8, providing no binding site for GRO α . In the case of GRO α injection, CXCR1 on neutrophils is expected to be vacant. Endogenous IL-8 can bind the receptor, enabling further neutrophil influx in a later phase of inflammation. Thus, the difference appears to be based on the distinct receptors corresponding to each chemokine.

The other interesting observation in the present study is that TNF α activity was not detected after IL-8 injection, whereas GRO α induced a significant level of TNF α activity. Neutralization of TNF α did not affect neutrophil influx induced by IL-8, whereas GRO α -induced neutrophil influx was significantly inhibited by the treatment. *In vitro*, GRO α dose-dependently in-

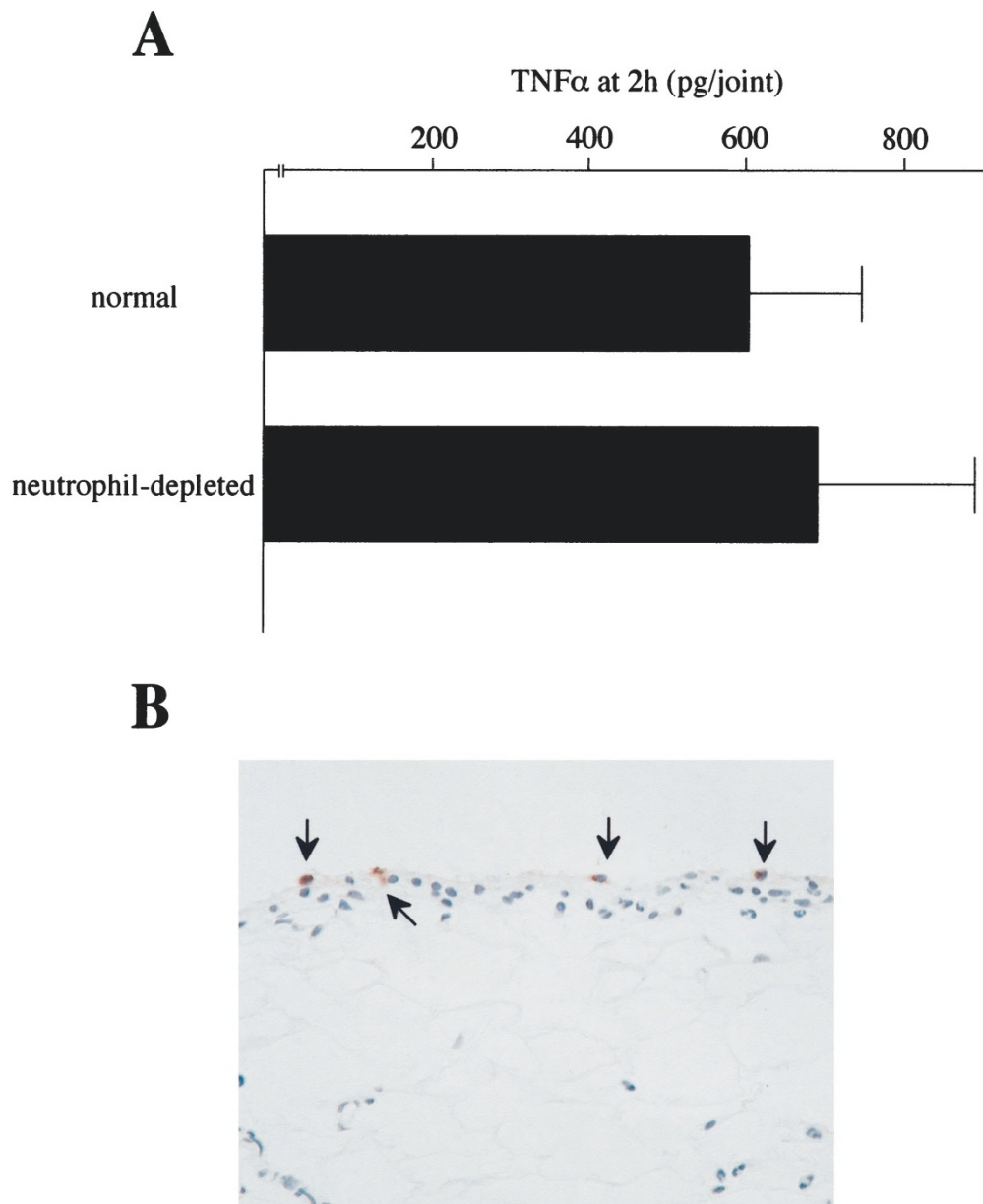


Figure 5.

Cellular source of TNF α after injection of GRO α . A, GRO α (10 μ g) was injected into knee joints of normal or neutrophil-depleted rabbits. At 2 hours after the injection, synovial fluids were harvested and TNF α activity was measured. Values represent the mean \pm SE of 9–14 estimations from separate joints. B, Synovial tissues obtained at 2 hours after GRO α injection (10 μ g) were stained with anti-TNF α IgG. Preimmune goat serum was used as a control. Original magnification \times 1,000.

duced TNF α activity from synovial cells, the cells producing TNF α in joints after GRO α injection, whereas IL-8 failed to induce the activity from the cells. When mRNA expression for TNF α was examined, synovial cells expressed equivalent levels of the mRNA after stimulation with either IL-8 or GRO α . These data suggest that TNF α is likely to be inactivated in case of IL-8.

Previous reports have demonstrated that serine proteases that include trypsin, chymotrypsin, cathepsin G, and elastase degrade TNF α , resulting in a loss of TNF α bioactivity (Bauvois and Sanceau, 1992; Scuderi et al, 1991; van Kessel and van Strijp, 1991). The importance of CXCR1 in chemokine-mediated

elastase release from neutrophils has also been reported (Jones et al, 1996). Thus, it is possible that IL-8, but not GRO α , activates serine proteases, leading to an inactivation of TNF α . This appears to be a mechanism underlying the absence of TNF α activity after IL-8 injection, because synovial fluids obtained after IL-8 injection decreased exogenously added TNF α activity, and the activity was completely restored by PMSF. Likewise, TNF α activity was unveiled when IL-8 was injected with PMSF. Synovial cells are likely to be responsible for the source of proteases, because culture supernatants of synovial cells contained serine proteases that could inactivate TNF α . In addition, IL-8 failed to induce TNF α activity in neutrophil-depleted

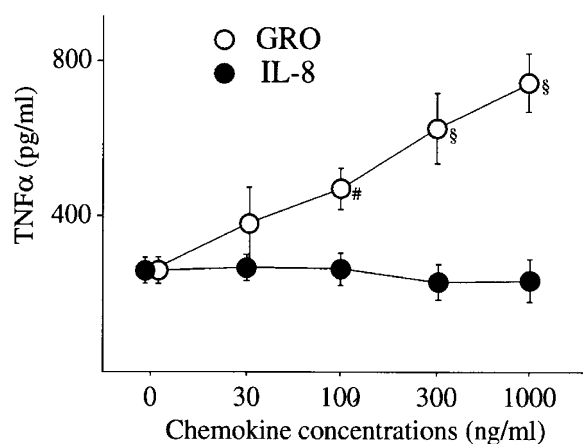


Figure 6.

TNF α activity in culture supernatants of synovial cells after the stimulation with IL-8 or GRO α . Synovial cells harvested from knee joints of a healthy rabbit were stimulated with various concentrations of IL-8 or GRO α . At 24 hours after the stimulation, culture supernatants were harvested and TNF α activity in the samples was measured. Values represent the mean \pm se of 8–10 estimations from culture supernatants. # p < 0.05, § p < 0.01, when compared with medium alone. Shown are representative data of three individual experiments.

rabbits (not shown). These results suggest that IL-8 is capable of inducing TNF α , but the activity is abolished by serine protease(s). The difference appears to be ascribable to the distinct receptors for IL-8 and GRO α . Further study is required using antagonist/antibody against CXCR1 or specific CXCR1 agonist in this model. It should be noted that the restored TNF α activity by PMSF was not the same level as GRO α , suggesting that other possibilities may exist. There may be a change in the transcription of TNF α . An up-regulation of TNF α receptor and soluble TNF α receptor may be responsible for the difference.

In conclusion, there appear to be functional differences between IL-8 and GRO α in inflammation. Both chemokines induced a massive neutrophil influx, but the IL-8-induced response was more than that induced by GRO α . IL-8 directly attracts neutrophils, whereas GRO α attracts indirectly, in part via IL-8 and TNF α . TNF α activity was diminished in case of IL-8 injection due to serine protease(s). This is the first report showing in vivo functional distinction between closely similar CXC chemokines, IL-8 and GRO α , which may influence the inflammatory responses.

Materials and Methods

Cytokines and Their Antibodies

Recombinant rabbit IL-8, GRO α , and TNF α were purified, as described elsewhere (Matsukawa et al, 1995, 1997, 1999). Neutralizing anti-rabbit IL-8 IgG and anti-rabbit GRO α IgG were raised in a goat, and purified with affinity column coupled with each chemokine (Matsukawa et al, 1997, 1999). Neutralizing anti-rabbit TNF α mAb was kindly provided by Dr. H. Nariuchi (The University of Tokyo, Japan) (Haranaka et al, 1985). Neutralizing anti-rabbit GRO α mAb (IgG1) was developed as described previously (Matsukawa

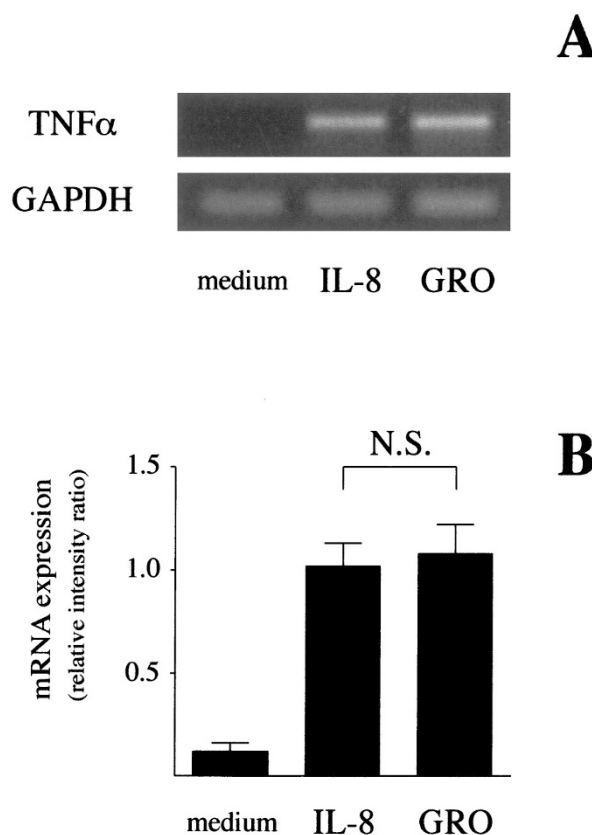


Figure 7.

TNF α mRNA expression in synovial cells after the stimulation with IL-8 or GRO α . A, Synovial cells harvested from knee joints of a healthy rabbit were stimulated with 1 μ g/ml IL-8 or GRO α for 1 hour at 37 $^{\circ}$ C. RNA was extracted from the cells and mRNA expression for TNF α was examined by RT-PCR. Expression of GAPDH was used as a control. Shown are representative photographs of three individual experiments. B, Ethidium bromide stained PCR products were photographed, and then the images were digitized and analyzed. Results are expressed as a ratio of each PCR product/GAPDH band density. Values represent the mean \pm se of six different estimations of PCR data. PCR was performed in duplicate for each experiment.

et al, 1999). Polyclonal antibodies and mAb used in this study did not cross-react with other rabbit cytokines available (not shown). Endotoxin contamination in these reagents was removed by Kurimover II (Kurita Kogyo Co., Tokyo). Endotoxin contents in the resultant samples were less than 0.02 ng/mg protein (QCL-1000; Daiichi Pure Chemicals, Tokyo, Japan).

Induction of Arthritis

Female New Zealand white rabbits (weight 2.2 to 2.5 kg) were anesthetized by giving pentobarbital sodium (30 mg/kg) intravenously, and then either IL-8 or GRO α (10 μ g each in 500 μ l of endotoxin-free saline) was injected into the knee joints through the suprapatellar ligament in the presence of 10 U/ml polymyxin B (Pfizer Pharmaceutical Co., Tokyo, Japan). At various intervals after the injection, rabbit were anesthetized, bled, and killed. The knee joints were washed with 1 ml saline and the joint fluids were harvested and centrifuged at 6,000g for 1 minute at 4 $^{\circ}$ C. The cell-free synovial fluids were harvested and stored at

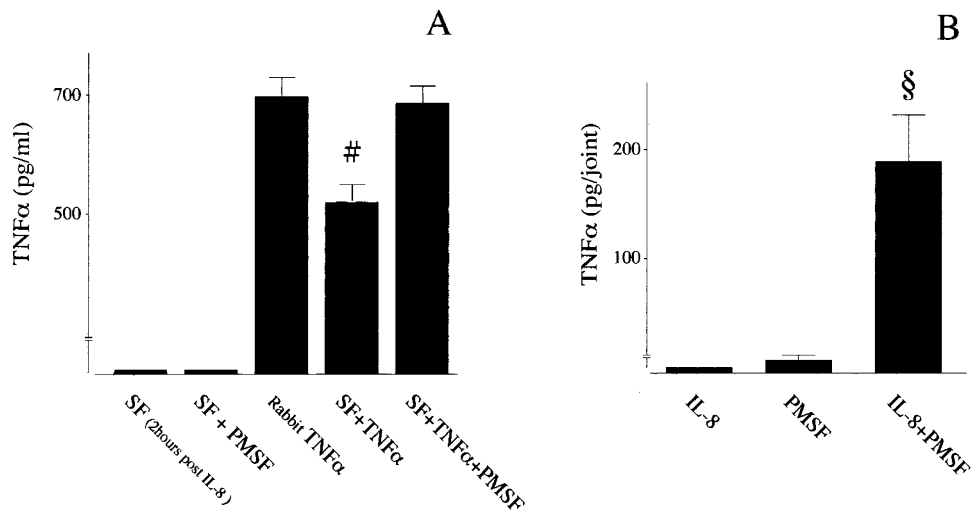


Figure 8.

Inactivation of TNF α by serine proteases. A, Rabbit TNF α was added to synovial fluids (SF) obtained at 2 hours after the injection of IL-8, and the mixture was incubated for 1 hour at 37° C in the presence or absence of phenylmethylsulphonyl fluoride (PMSF; final concentration, TNF α , 1 ng/ml; PMSF, 0.1 mM). TNF α activity in the cultured samples was then measured. Values represent the mean \pm SE of 8–10 estimations from culture supernatants. # p < 0.05, when compared with rabbit TNF α alone (column 3). Shown are representatives of three individual experiments. B, IL-8 (10 μ g) was injected into knee joints with or without 1 mM PMSF. At 2 hours after the injection, synovial fluids were harvested and TNF α activity was measured. Values represent the mean \pm SE of 9–14 estimations from separate joints. § p < 0.01, when compared with IL-8 or PMSF alone.

–80° C until analysis. Cell pellets were resuspended in saline and the numbers were counted with hemocytometer. Differential cell analysis was made with Wright-Giemsa staining. The Animal Care Committee of Kumamoto University School of Medicine approved the animal experiments.

In Vivo Experimental Protocol

To neutralize GRO α , IL-8, or TNF α activity in knee joints, 10 μ g of anti- GRO α mAb, anti-IL-8 IgG, or anti-TNF α mAb was injected into knee joints, respectively, together with IL-8 or GRO α in a total volume of 500 μ l. Ten micrograms were regarded as sufficient, because higher doses (30 to 100 μ g) did not further reduce leukocyte infiltration (not shown). Ten micrograms of mouse IgG1 (Sigma Chemical, St. Louis, Missouri) and preimmune goat IgG were used as controls, which did not induce leukocyte infiltration and cytokine production (not shown). In different experiments, 1 mM of PMSF (Sigma) was injected into knee joints together with IL-8 or GRO α (total 500 μ l). These reagents were randomly chosen and injected into bilateral knee joints. Injection of reagents into one side of the knee joints did not affect the leukocyte infiltration and cytokine production induced in the contralateral knee joints. At various intervals after the injection, rabbits were anesthetized, bled, and killed. Samples were harvested and treated as described above.

Measurement of Cytokines

IL-8 and GRO α were quantitated by ELISA and time-resolved fluoroimmunoassay, respectively, as described previously (Matsukawa et al, 1997, 1999). The detection limit was 30 and 3 pg/ml, respectively. TNF α

level was determined by L929 cell cytotoxic assay, as previously described (Flick and Gifford, 1984). Concentrations of TNF α were determined from known concentrations of recombinant TNF α used in the same assay. The specificity was confirmed by preincubating samples with neutralizing anti-TNF α mAb. The detection limit was 30 pg/ml. Synovial fluids were digested with 10 U/ml hyaluronidase (Sigma) for 1 hour at 37° C, before assays.

Preparation of Neutrophil-Depleted Rabbits

Neutrophil-depleted rabbits were prepared by intravenous injection of 0.75 mg/kg vinblastine (Sigma) 3 days before the experiments (Rosenshein et al, 1979). The number of peripheral leukocytes before and after vinblastine treatment were $12.7 \pm 0.7 \times 10^6$ /ml and $3.4 \pm 0.8 \times 10^6$ /ml, respectively. The majority of leukocytes in neutrophil-depleted rabbits were mononuclear cells, whereas 30% to 50% of the leukocytes in normal rabbits were neutrophils.

Immunohistochemistry

Freshly isolated synovial tissues were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde, dehydrated, embedded in paraffin, and 4- μ m-thick sections were made. After blocking endogenous peroxidase with 0.3% H₂O₂ in methanol, the tissue sections were treated with 5% normal rabbit serum and incubated overnight at 4° C with goat polyclonal anti-rabbit TNF α IgG. Preimmune goat IgG was used as a control. The sections were then incubated for 30 minutes with 5 μ g/ml biotinylated rabbit anti-goat IgG (Vector Laboratories, Burlingame, California), rinsed, and incubated for 30 minutes with avidin-biotin-peroxidase complex (Vector). As a chromogen, diaminobenzidine (DAB; Wako Chemical In-

dustries, Osaka, Japan) was used. Counter-staining was performed with hematoxylin.

Cell Culture

Synovial tissues were harvested from bilateral knee joints of healthy rabbits, minced, and digested with collagenase (4 mg/ml; Worthington Biochemical, Freehold, New Jersey) for 30 minutes at 37° C. The cell suspension was washed, resuspended in DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS and antibiotics, and plated in 24-well culture plates. One hour later, medium was changed and adherent cells were then cultured for 4 to 6 days. Upon confluence, cells were stimulated with various concentrations of IL-8 or GRO α , and the cell-free culture supernatants were harvested at appropriate intervals after the stimulation. Total RNA in adherent synovial cells was extracted with RNeasy Mini Kit (QIAGEN Co., Tokyo, Japan).

Reverse Transcriptase Polymerase Chain Reaction (RT-PCR)

RT-PCR was performed using the ThermoScript RT-PCR System (GIBCO-BRL, Gaithersburg, Maryland), according to the manufacturer's instructions. The primers were designed to amplify rabbit TNF α and glyceraldehydes-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) referred to the cDNA sequence. The primers were as follows: TNF α , sense primer: 5'-TCAGCTTCTCGGGCCCTGAGTGAC-3'; anti-sense primer: 5'-TCACAGGGCAATGATCCCAAAGTAGAC-3'. GAPDH, sense primer: 5'-GATCCATTCATTGACCTCC-3'; anti-sense primer: 5'-GATCTCGCTCCTGGAAGATG-3'. PCR was carried out at 35 cycles of 94° C for 1 minute, 55° C for 1 minute, and 72° C for 2 minutes. Ten microliters of PCR products were subjected to electrophoresis on a 2% agarose gel in the presence of ethidium bromide, photographed, digitized, and the band densities were measured with NIH image. Results are expressed as a ratio of each PCR product/GAPDH band density; this represents semiquantitative analysis.

Culture of Synovial Fluids with Reagents

Rabbit TNF α (1 μ l of 100 ng/ml) was added to synovial fluids (100 μ l) obtained at 2 hours after the injection of IL-8, and the mixture was incubated for 1 hour at 37° C in the presence or absence of PMSF (final concentration, TNF α , 1 ng/ml; PMSF, 0.1 mM). TNF α activity in the cultured samples was then measured. The dose of PMSF was predetermined, based on the maximum effects achievable. PMSF at this dose did not affect the TNF α assay.

Statistics

Statistical significance was evaluated by two-tailed unpaired Student's *t* test. *P* < 0.05 was regarded as statistically significant. All data were expressed as mean \pm SE.

Acknowledgements

We thank Mr. S. Kudo, Ms. M. Kagayama, and Ms. T. Maeda for their technical assistance.

References

- Baggiolini M, Dewald B, and Moser B (1997). Human chemokines: An update. *Annu Rev Immunol* 15:675-705.
- Baggiolini M, Loetscher P, and Moser B (1995). Interleukin-8 and the chemokine family. *Int J Immunopharmacol* 17:103-108.
- Balentien E, Han JH, Thomas HG, Wen DZ, Samantha AK, Zachariae CO, Griffin PR, Brachmann R, Wong WL, and Matsushima K (1990). Recombinant expression, biochemical characterization, and biological activities of the human MGSA/gro protein. *Biochemistry* 29:10225-10233.
- Bauvois B and Sanceau J (1992). Human U937 cell surface peptidase activities: Characterization and degradative effect on tumor necrosis factor- α . *Eur J Immunol* 22:923-930.
- Driscoll KE, Hassenbein DG, Carter JM, Kunkel SL, Quinlan TR, and Mossman BT (1995). TNF α and increased chemokine expression in rat lung after particle exposure. *Toxicol Lett* 82-83:483-489.
- Flick DA and Gifford GE (1984). Comparison of in vitro cell cytotoxic assays for tumor necrosis factor. *J Immunol Methods* 68:167-175.
- Fukamoto T, Matsukawa A, Yoshimura T, Edamitsu S, Ohkawara S, Takagi K, and Yoshinaga M (1998). IL-8 is an essential mediator of the increased delayed-phase vascular permeability in LPS-induced rabbit pleurisy. *J Leukoc Biol* 63:584-590.
- Hall DA, Beresford IJ, Browning C, and Giles H (1999). Signaling by CXC-chemokine receptors 1 and 2 expressed in CHO cells: A comparison of calcium mobilization, inhibition of adenylyl cyclase and stimulation of GTPgammaS binding induced by IL-8 and GRO α . *Br J Pharmacol* 126:810-818.
- Haranaka K, Satomi N, Sakurai A, and Nariuchi H (1985). Purification and partial amino acid sequence of rabbit tumor necrosis factor. *Int J Cancer* 36:395-400.
- Jones SA, Wolf M, Qin S, Mackay CR, and Baggiolini M (1996). Different functions for the interleukin 8 receptors (IL-8R) of human neutrophil leukocytes: NADPH oxidase and phospholipase D are activated through IL-8R1 but not IL-8R2. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 93:6682-6686.
- Jose PJ, Collins PD, Perkins JA, Beaubien BC, Totty NF, Waterfield MD, Hsuan J, and Williams TJ (1991). Identification of a second neutrophil-chemoattractant cytokine generated during an inflammatory reaction in the rabbit peritoneal cavity in vivo: Purification, partial amino acid sequence and structural relationship to melanoma-growth-stimulatory activity. *Biochem J* 278:493-497.
- Kunkel SL, Lukacs N, and Strieter RM (1995). Chemokines and their role in human disease. *Agents Actions Suppl* 46:11-22.
- Luster AD (1998). Chemokines: Chemotactic cytokines that mediate inflammation. *N Engl J Med* 338:436-445.
- Matsukawa A, Yoshimura T, Fujiwara K, Maeda T, Ohkawara S, and Yoshinaga M (1999). Involvement of growth-related protein in lipopolysaccharide-induced rabbit arthritis: Coop-

eration between growth-related protein and IL-8, and inter-related regulation among TNF α , IL-1, IL-1 receptor antagonist, IL-8, and growth-related protein. *Lab Invest* 79:591–600.

Matsukawa A, Yoshimura T, Maeda T, Ohkawara S, Takagi K, and Yoshinaga M (1995). Neutrophil accumulation and activation by homologous IL-8 in rabbits: IL-8 induces destruction of cartilage and production of IL-1 and IL-1 receptor antagonist *in vivo*. *J Immunol* 154:5418–5425.

Matsukawa A, Yoshimura T, Maeda T, Takahashi T, Ohkawara S, and Yoshinaga M (1998). Analysis of the cytokine network among tumor necrosis factor alpha, interleukin-1beta, interleukin-8, and interleukin-1 receptor antagonist in monosodium urate crystal-induced rabbit arthritis. *Lab Invest* 78:559–569.

Matsukawa A, Yoshimura T, Miyamoto K, Ohkawara S, and Yoshinaga M (1997). Analysis of the inflammatory cytokine network among TNF α , IL-1 β , IL-1 receptor antagonist, and IL-8 in LPS-induced rabbit arthritis. *Lab Invest* 76:629–638.

Mo JS, Matsukawa A, Ohkawara S, and Yoshinaga M (1999). Role and regulation of IL-8 and MCP-1 in LPS-induced uveitis in rabbits. *Exp Eye Res* 68:333–340.

Mo JS, Matsukawa A, Ohkawara S, and Yoshinaga M (2000). CXC chemokine GRO is essential for neutrophil infiltration in LPS-induced uveitis in rabbits. *Exp Eye Res* 70:221–226.

Richardson RM, Pridgen BC, Haribabu B, and Snyderman R (2000). Regulation of the human chemokine receptor CCR1: Cross-regulation by CXCR1 and CXCR2. *J Biol Chem* 275: 9201–9208.

Rollins BJ (1997). Chemokines. *Blood* 90:909–928.

Rosenshein MS, Price TH, and Dale DC (1979). Neutropenia, inflammation, and the kinetics of transfused neutrophils in rabbits. *J Clin Invest* 64:580–585.

Scuderi P, Nez PA, Duerr ML, Wong BJ, and Valdez CM (1991). Cathepsin-G and leukocyte elastase inactivate human tumor necrosis factor and lymphotoxin. *Cell Immunol* 135:299–313.

van Kessel KP and van Strijp JA (1991). Inactivation of recombinant human tumor necrosis factor-alpha by proteolytic enzymes released from stimulated human neutrophils. *J Immunol* 147:3862–3868.

Wuyts A, Proost P, Lenaerts JP, Ben-Baruch A, Van Damme J, and Wang JM (1998). Differential usage of the CXC chemokine receptors 1 and 2 by interleukin-8, granulocyte chemoattractant protein-2 and epithelial-cell-derived neutrophil attractant-78. *Eur J Biochem* 255:67–73.

Yoshimura T and Yuhki N (1991). Neutrophil attractant/activation protein-1 and monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 in rabbit: cDNA cloning and their expression in spleen cells. *J Immunol* 146:3483–3488.

Zlotnik A and Yoshie O (2000). Chemokines: A new classification system and their role in immunity. *Immunity* 12:121–127.