

Alveolar Macrophage Priming by Intravenous Administration of Chitin Particles, Polymers of *N*-Acetyl-D-Glucosamine, in Mice

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Intravenous (i.v.) administration of phagocytosable chitin particles (1 to 10 μ m) in C57BL/6 mice and SCID mice primed alveolar macrophages (M ϕ) within 3 days to yield up to a 50-fold increase in their oxidative burst when elicited in vitro with phorbol myristate acetate (PMA). C57BL/6 mice pretreated with monoclonal antibodies (MAbs) against mouse gamma interferon (IFN- γ) or NK1.1 showed a markedly decreased level of alveolar M ϕ priming following injection of chitin particles. To confirm IFN- γ production in vitro, spleen cells isolated from normal C57BL/6 mice and SCID mice were cultured with chitin particles. Significant IFN- γ production was observed following stimulation with chitin but not with chitosan or latex beads. When spleen cells were treated with anti-NK1.1 MAb, IFN- γ production was significantly inhibited. Another set of experiments showed that when C57BL/6 mice were pretreated i.v. with a small dose IFN- γ , a higher level of priming was induced with not only phagocytosable chitin particles but also phagocytosable chitosan and even latex beads. Likewise, the spleen cell cultures preconditioned with IFN- γ provided an up-regulation of IFN- γ production by these phagocytosable particles. Taken together, the in vivo and in vitro results suggest that (i) the alveolar M ϕ priming mechanism is due, at least in part, to direct activation of M ϕ by IFN- γ , which is produced by NK1.1⁺ CD4⁻ cells; (ii) IFN- γ would have an autocrine-like effect on M ϕ and make them more responsive to particle priming; and (iii) phagocytosis of particulates, probably by a postmembrane event such as interiorization, appears to be important for the up-regulation of alveolar M ϕ priming and IFN- γ production.

It is well established that endogenous gamma interferon (IFN- γ) produced by natural killer (NK) cells and activated T cells is an essential cytokine involved in protective cell-mediated immunity (CMI) against facultative intracellular bacteria, including *Listeria monocytogenes* and *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (7, 9, 13), fungi (19), and parasites (31). IFN- γ -primed macrophages (M ϕ) are known to become microbicidal by massively releasing toxic agents including reactive oxygen intermediates (ROI) and reactive nitrogen intermediates. It is also known that IFN- γ up-modulates the early development of cell-mediated immune (Th1) responses and down-modulates humoral immune (Th2) responses in these infectious models (31).

Myrvik et al. have observed recently that the intravenous (i.v.) administration of phagocytosable-size particles in New Zealand White rabbits primes alveolar M ϕ within 1 to 3 days to yield up to a 100-fold increase in their oxidative burst in vitro when elicited with phorbol myristate acetate (PMA) or opsonized zymosan (21). In this up-regulation, it appears that bacteria (heat-killed [HK] *Mycobacterium bovis* BCG) and microbial particulate components (zymosan) are more effective than phagocytosable-size polystyrene latex beads (21). The magnitude of the elicited oxidative responses of alveolar M ϕ primed nonspecifically with HK BCG was comparable to the maximum priming achieved (up to 100-fold) 2 to 3 weeks after specific immunization with HK BCG in oil (8, 14).

Alveolar M ϕ phagocytosing these particles in vitro, however, do not express such up-regulation of superoxide anion release,

which suggests that additional cell populations or immunoregulatory mediators are involved in the in vivo particle-priming response (21). In this regard, current publications (17, 31, 32, 40) indicate that the initial phagocytosis of bacteria such as *L. monocytogenes* results in the production of mediators such as interleukin-12 (IL-12) and tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF- α) which induce the maturation of NK and Th1 cells and their production of IFN- γ . This CMI response appears to be highly regulated by various additional immunoregulatory mediators, including IL-4, IL-10, transforming growth factor (TGF- β), and prostaglandin E₂ (PGE₂).

Based on this information, we hypothesized that (i) appropriate biodegradable and nontoxic particles induce local M ϕ to become bactericidal, which could be beneficial in the prophylaxis and treatment of infection; (ii) the selected particles administered initiate CMI responses along with IFN- γ production, which primes M ϕ ; and (iii) endogenous IFN- γ , as an endogenous adjuvant, further amplifies the particle-induced M ϕ priming.

Chitin and chitosan, polymers of *N*-acetyl-D-glucosamine and deacetylated glucosamine, respectively, are essential components of fungal cell walls and have been the targets of antifungal drugs (11, 22). Chitin and chitosan are similar in structure to cellulose and are the second most abundant polysaccharides in nature, comprising the horny substance in the exoskeletons of crabs, shrimp, and insects as well as fungi. Because some of their derivatives are proved to be nontoxic, biodegradable, and biocompatible, prostheses (artificial skin [matrix], contact lens, and surgical stitch) produced from the chitin derivatives have been developed and widely used in medical practice. In addition, a series of studies by Azuma and colleagues suggest that some chitin/chitosan derivatives are

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able to up-regulate M ϕ functions (measured by TNF, IL-1, and colony-stimulating factor production) and induce immunologic adjuvant effects (2, 24–26). This information has led us to test the effects of chitin/chitosan particles (mimetic microbes) on alveolar M ϕ activation and to further determine the mechanisms of the particle-induced M ϕ priming.

The specific aims of this study were to (i) establish mouse models for alveolar M ϕ priming induced by phagocytosable-size chitin/chitosan particles, using C57BL/6 and SCID mice; (ii) determine the roles of NK cells and endogenous IFN- γ in the chitin/chitosan-induced alveolar M ϕ priming in C57BL/6 mice, using selective inactivation of IFN- γ and depletion of NK1.1⁺ cells by the administration of monoclonal antibodies (MAbs) specific for IFN- γ and NK1.1, respectively; (iii) examine chitin/chitosan particle-induced IFN- γ production in vitro by selected spleen cell populations; and (iv) assess the effects of exogenous IFN- γ on the in vivo chitin/chitosan-induced alveolar M ϕ priming response and on the in vitro pattern of IFN- γ production.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Mice. Nonpregnant, 7- to 9-week-old female C57BL/6 and CB-17/IRC (SCID) mice (both from Charles River Laboratories, Wilmington, Mass.) were maintained in barrier-filtered cages and fed Purina Laboratory Chow and tap water ad libitum.

Preparations of chitin/chitosan particles. Chitin powders (Sigma Chemical Co., St. Louis, Mo.) and chitosan powders (Kyowa Technos, Chiba, Japan) were suspended at 10 mg/ml in saline and sonicated at 25% output power two times for 5 min each with a Branson sonicator (Sonifier 450; Branson Ultrasonics, Danbury, Conn.). Following a light centrifugation ($50 \times g$, 10 min), the supernatants mainly contained small particles (1 to 10 μ m in diameter) which were removed, filtered through a 400/2,800 stainless steel mesh, and further centrifuged to collect the particles at $1,400 \times g$ for 10 min. One milligram of chitin/chitosan particles (1 to 10 μ m) contained 2×10^8 to 3×10^8 particles (data not shown). On the other hand, the ($50 \times g$)-centrifuged pellets containing large particles (50 to 100 μ m) were resuspended in saline, filtered through a 200/600 stainless steel mesh, and centrifuged at $1,400 \times g$ for 10 min to obtain the large particles. Chitin oligosaccharides and chitosan oligosaccharides were kindly provided by Aihara, Kyowa Technos. Particle sizes and size distribution were flow cytometrically determined by using several sizes of latex bead controls (1.1, 10.0, and 47.8 μ m in diameter; Polysciences, Warrington, Pa.). Figure 1 shows chitin particles with typical size distributions of the particles.

In vivo neutralization of IFN- γ . Endogenously produced IFN- γ was neutralized by injecting mice intraperitoneally (i.p.) with 2×10^5 neutralizing units of anti-IFN- γ MAbs R4-6A2 (specific activity, 2×10^5 neutralizing units per mg of immunoglobulin G [IgG]; a generous gift from E. A. Havell, Trudeau Institute, Saranac Lake, N.Y.) 1 day before the chitin injection. An equivalent amount of normal rat IgG (Sigma) was used to control for the nonspecific effects of injecting foreign immunoglobulin.

In vivo NK1.1⁺ cell depletion. In vivo depletion of NK1.1⁺ cells was achieved 1 day before chitin particle administration by i.p. injection of 5 mg of anti-NK1.1 (IgG2a; clone PK 136 from the American Type Culture Collection [ATCC], Rockville, Md.) which was purified from mouse ascites fluid by ammonium sulfate precipitation with a 50% saturated solution. The extent of NK1.1⁺ cell depletion was determined by flow cytometry as described below. Control mice received saline.

Alveolar M ϕ and spleen cells. Alveolar M ϕ were obtained by repeated pulmonary lavage with a total 5 ml of sterile Hanks' balanced salt solution (pH 7.2). M ϕ enrichment was done by the plastic adherence method (37°C, 1 h) in the presence of 10% heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum (FBS). Spleens were gently minced with scissors and filtered through a stainless steel sieve. Removal of adherent M ϕ from spleen cell suspensions was done by passage through a Sephadex G-10 column (33). Plastic-adherent spleen M ϕ were prepared as described previously (33). In certain experiments, NK1.1⁺ cells and CD4⁺ cells in the spleen cells were eliminated with MAbs against NK1.1 (clone PK 136; ATCC) and CD4 (clone GK 1.5; ATCC), respectively, followed by treatment with rabbit serum (1:10; Sigma) as a source of complement. The effect of the treatment was confirmed by indirect immunofluorescence staining with the MAbs against F4/80, NK1.1, and CD4 as described below.

Cell enumeration. Plasma membranes of spleen cells and alveolar M ϕ which were freshly isolated and cultured were lysed with Zapoglobin (Coulter Diagnostics, Hialeah, Fla.). Nuclei were counted with an electronic particle counter (Coulter Counter model D2). Viable cell counts were performed by trypan blue dye exclusion. Differential cell counts were made on cytocentrifuged preparations and stained with May-Gruenwald-Giemsa stain.

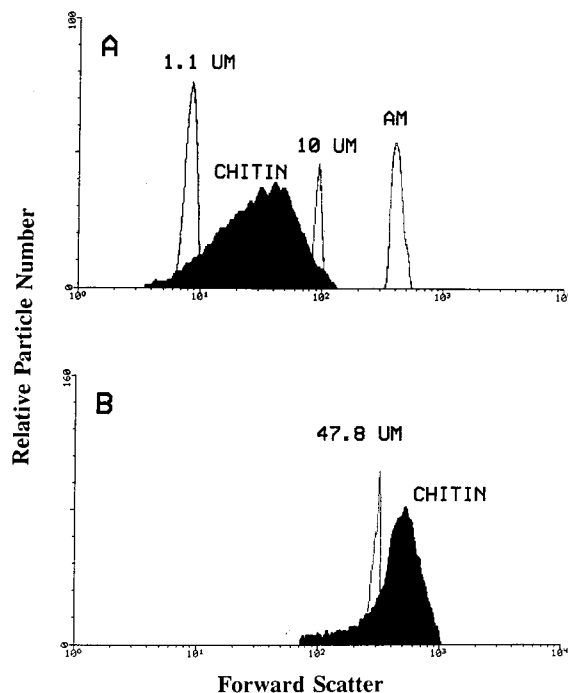


FIG. 1. Determination of size distribution of chitin particles. The size distributions of two different preparations of chitin particles (1- to 10- μ m [phagocytosable-size] [A] and 50- to 100- μ m [nonphagocytosable size] [B] particles) as described in Materials and Methods were determined by a FACScan cell sorter. Alveolar M ϕ (AM) and latex beads at diameters of 1.1, 10.0, and 47.8 μ m were used as comparison controls. The x and y axes indicate particle sizes defined by forward scatter and particle numbers, respectively.

Flow cytometric cell characterization. The expression of surface antigens on the M ϕ , T cells, and NK cells was determined by indirect immunofluorescence in the presence of 5% heat-inactivated newborn calf serum (GIBCO, Grand Island, N.Y.), pH 7.2 (34). Serum-free culture supernatants containing MAbs against F4/80, NK1.1, and CD4 were prepared from hybridoma cell lines F4/80, PK 136, and GK 1.5, respectively (all from ATCC). MAbs in the culture supernatants were purified by an ammonium sulfate precipitation with a 50% saturated solution. Fluorescein isothiocyanate-conjugated donkey anti-mouse IgG and donkey anti-rat IgG (both from Jackson ImmunoResearch, West Grove, Pa.) were used as secondary antibodies for indirect immunofluorescence. Fluorescence of 10⁴ stained cells was quantitated with a FACScan flow cytometer using the FACScan research program (Becton Dickinson, Mountain View, Calif.). All tested cells as defined by forward and sideward scatter pattern were gated; only debris was excluded from analysis. Cells stained with the second antibody alone were used as negative controls in all experiments.

Protocol for in vivo priming of mice. To prime alveolar M ϕ in vivo, mice were injected i.v. with 0.1 or 1 mg of chitin/chitosan particles suspended in 0.2 ml of endotoxin-free saline. The alveolar M ϕ were harvested 1 to 7 days postinjection. In comparison controls, mice received i.v. 1 mg of HK *Corynebacterium parvum* vaccine (33) or 1.1- μ m latex beads.

Superoxide anion release assay. Superoxide dismutase (SOD)-inhibitable superoxide anion levels released by alveolar M ϕ were measured by a cytochrome c reduction assay. Adherent M ϕ were placed in a 24-well plate (Corning, Corning, N.Y.) with HEPES-bicarbonate buffer containing 50 μ M ferricytochrome c (Sigma). M ϕ were incubated at 37°C for 1 h in the presence or absence of PMA (10^{-6} M). SOD (700 U/ml; Sigma) was also added as a negative control. The amount of reduced ferricytochrome c was measured by using a molecular extinction coefficient of 21.1 mM⁻¹ cm⁻¹ from the change in absorbance at 550 nm against a cell-free blank (3, 18). Superoxide formation was expressed as nanomoles/10⁶ cells.

Production of IFN- γ by spleen cell cultures stimulated with chitin. Spleen cells isolated from normal C57BL/6 and SCID mice were resuspended (2×10^6 cells/ml) in RPMI 1640 plus 10% heat-inactivated FBS and incubated with chitin/chitosan particles at various doses at 37°C. After 24 h of incubation, the culture supernatants were harvested, filtered (0.22- μ m-pore-size filter), and stored at -80°C for later assays for IFN- γ . In some experiments, chitin particle-stimulated spleen cell cultures were further treated with cytokines (recombinant mouse IFN- γ [Sigma], recombinant mouse IL-4 [Pepro Tech, Rocky Hill, N.J.], recombinant mouse IL-10 [Pepro Tech], and natural human TGF- β 1 [Genzyme,

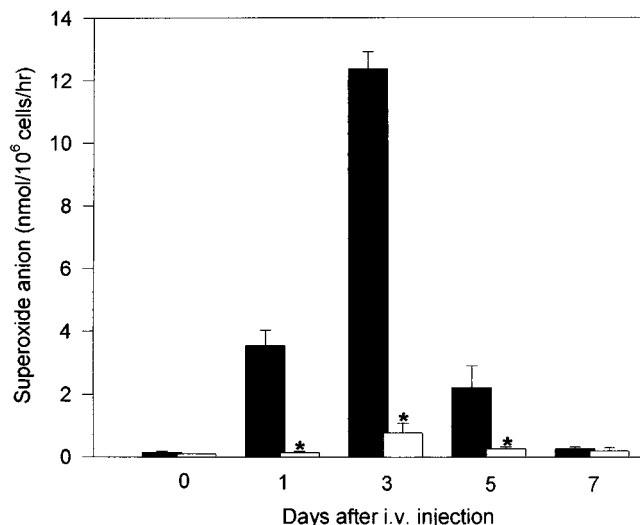


FIG. 2. Kinetics of superoxide anion release by alveolar M ϕ in C57BL/6 mice given chitin particles i.v. C57BL/6 mice (three/group) received 1 mg of chitin particles (1 to 10 μ m) i.v. After the indicated days, alveolar M ϕ in each mouse were assayed in vitro for PMA-elicited superoxide anion release in the presence (open bars) or absence (solid bars) of 700 U of SOD. Results are expressed as means \pm SD ($n = 3$). *, $P < 0.05$ compared with groups without SOD treatment.

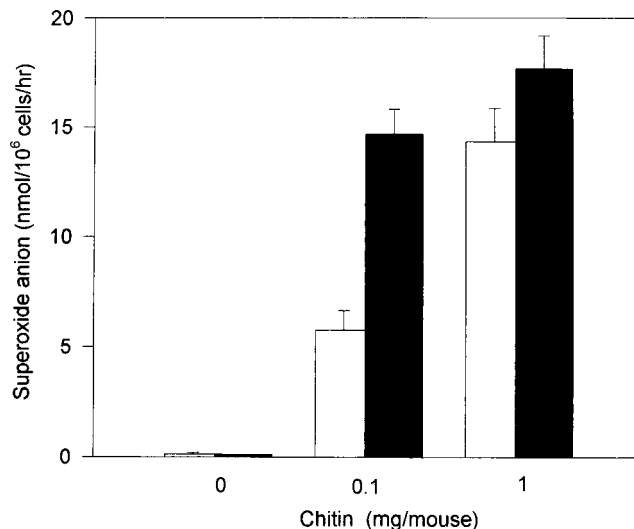


FIG. 3. Superoxide anion release by alveolar M ϕ in C57BL/6 mice and SCID mice given chitin particles i.v. at different doses. Groups of C57BL/6 mice (open bars) and SCID mice (solid bars) received chitin particles (1 to 10 μ m) at 0 (saline), 0.1, and 1 mg per mouse (three mice/group). After 3 days, alveolar M ϕ in each mouse were assayed in vitro for PMA-elicited superoxide anion release. Results are expressed as means \pm SD ($n = 3$).

Cambridge, Mass.), PGE₂ (Sigma), and antibodies (rat anti-mouse IL-12 [clone 17.8; Genzyme] and polyclonal rabbit anti-mouse TNF- α [Genzyme]). To remove possibly contaminated endotoxin, all tissue culture media and soluble reagents were passed through a polymyxin B column (Sigma), followed by concurrent filtration and sterilization through 0.22- μ m-pore-size Zetapore filters (Cuno, Meriden, Conn.) manufactured for this purpose (34, 35).

IFN- γ assay. The levels of mouse IFN- γ in the spleen cell cultures were measured with specific two-site enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) using monoclonal anti-mouse/rat IFN- γ (clone DB-1; Biosource, Camarillo, Calif.) as a capture antibody and rabbit polyclonal anti-mouse IFN- γ (Biosource) as a detector antibody. Briefly, Immunlon II plates (Nunc) were coated with the MAb overnight. The following day, the plates were blocked with 5% heat-inactivated newborn calf serum for 1 h and then washed. Samples from in vitro spleen cell cultures were added to the wells. The plates were incubated overnight at 4°C and then washed four times with 0.05% Tween-Tris buffer (pH 7.2). The secondary antibodies were added for 1 h, followed by extensive washing. Finally, horseradish peroxidase conjugates were added for 30 min and washed, and the peroxide substrates were mixed with *o*-phenylenediamine dihydrochloride (Sigma). After the reaction was stopped with 3 N HCl, the plates were read spectrophotometrically at 492 nm. IFN- γ levels were quantitated based on a standard curve obtained by using recombinant mouse IFN- γ (Sigma).

Statistics. Difference between mean values were analyzed by Student's *t* test. *P* values of less than 0.05 were considered statistically significant.

RESULTS

Enhancement of superoxide anion release by alveolar M ϕ following i.v. administration of chitin/chitosan particles. A 1-mg dose of chitin particles (1 to 10 μ m [Fig. 1], 2×10^8 to 3×10^8 particles) was administered i.v. to C57BL/6 mice. After selected periods, alveolar lavage cells were collected and incubated in the presence of 10% FBS for 1 h. The adherent cells (>90% of M ϕ determined morphologically [data not shown]) were isolated. ROI release by PMA-elicited alveolar M ϕ was detected as described in Materials and Methods. As shown in Fig. 2, normal alveolar M ϕ generated superoxide anion at a level less than 0.2 nmol/10⁶ cells/h when elicited with PMA. In contrast, the ROI levels were greatly enhanced 1 to 3 days after the injection of chitin particles; the levels returned to normal by day 7. SOD at 700 U/ml completely inhibited the ROI release by alveolar M ϕ (Fig. 2).

As shown in Fig. 3, SCID mice receiving chitin particles also showed a massive ROI release by alveolar M ϕ in vitro equal to

or greater than that of C57BL/6 mice. These data suggest that neither T nor B lymphocytes appear to be essential for particle-induced M ϕ activation.

In contrast, chitosan particles (1 to 10 μ m) at the same dose (1 mg/mouse) showed significantly less capacity to prime alveolar M ϕ to release superoxide anion (Table 1). There was no effect of chitin oligosaccharides and chitosan oligosaccharides (Table 1).

Effect of treatments with anti-NK1.1 or anti-IFN- γ in C57BL/6 mice. To further assess the obligatory role of NK cells for M ϕ priming, C57BL/6 mice were pretreated with anti-NK1.1 MAb i.p. 1 day before chitin particle injection. The MAb treatment resulted in a significant reduction of splenic NK1.1⁺ cells but not CD4⁺ cells detected by flow cytometric monitoring (Fig. 4) as well as the priming effect on alveolar M ϕ as determined by PMA-elicited ROI release (Fig. 5).

It has been reported that neutralization of IFN- γ in mice

TABLE 1. Alveolar M ϕ priming by i.v. injection of chitin particles at selected sizes in C57BL/6 mice^a

Particle	Size	Dose (mg)	O ₂ ⁻ (nmol/10 ⁶ cells/h)
Expt 1			
Saline			0.5
Chitin	1-10 μ m	1	20.3*
Chitosan	1-10 μ m	1	7.2*
Chitin	Oligosaccharide	1	0.5
Chitosan	Oligosaccharide	1	0.5
Expt 2			
Saline			0.5
Chitin	1-10 μ m	1	17.9*
HK <i>C. parvum</i>		1	24.5*
Latex beads	1.1 μ m	1	0.7

^a Groups of 3 C57BL/6 mice were injected i.v. with the particle preparations indicated. Bronchoalveolar lavage cells were collected day 3. Superoxide anion released by alveolar M ϕ was determined as described in Materials and Methods. Results are expressed as means ($n = 3$). *, $P < 0.05$ compared with the control (saline) group.

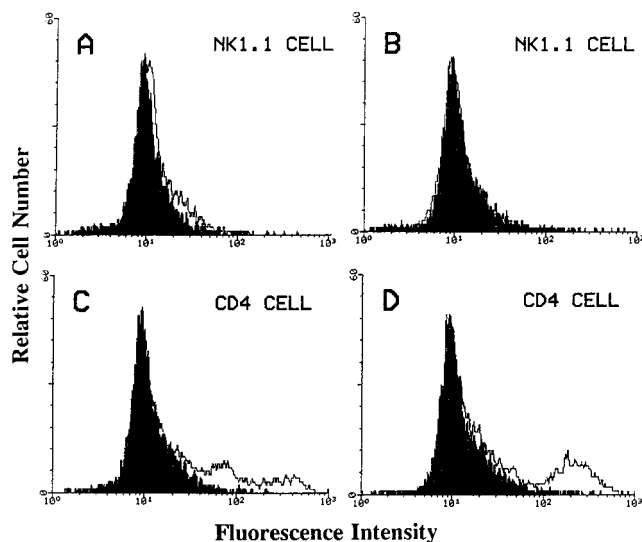


FIG. 4. Splenic NK1.1⁺ cells and CD4⁺ cells in C57BL/6 mice treated with anti-NK1.1 MAb. C57BL/6 mice were treated with anti-NK1.1 MAb (B and D) or with saline (A and C) as described for Fig. 5, and NK1.1⁺ cells (A and B) and CD4⁺ cells (C and D) in the spleen cells were determined cytometrically. The histogram obtained by staining with either anti-NK1.1 or anti-CD4 was shown by a solid line which was superimposed with a shaded background (NSB) obtained by staining with the second antibody alone.

infected with *L. monocytogenes* by using anti-murine IFN- γ MABs causes a lethal exacerbation of a sublethal infection (12, 40). To determine whether endogenous IFN- γ was produced during the particle priming, we treated C57BL/6 mice with 2×10^5 neutralizing units of rat anti-IFN- γ MAB 1 day before inoculating chitin particles. Figure 5 shows that the treatments with the MAB resulted in a significant reduction of the priming effect on alveolar M ϕ , while there was little or no effect of control IgG.

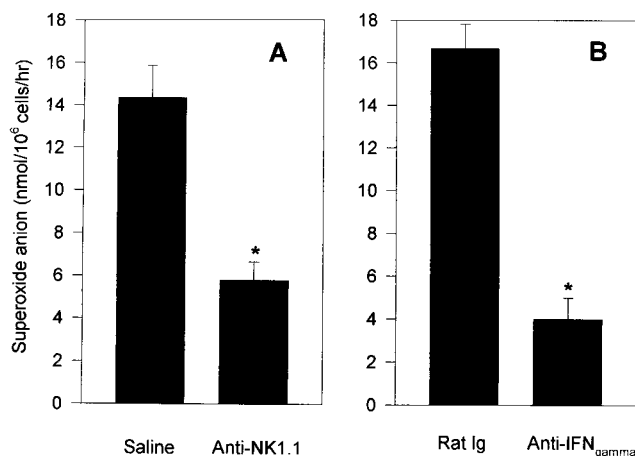


FIG. 5. In vivo priming of mouse alveolar M ϕ induced by i.v. injection of chitin particles in C57BL/6 mice pretreated with MABs against IFN- γ or NK1.1. C57BL/6 mice (three mice per group) were injected i.p. with anti-NK1.1 mouse IgG at 5 mg (A) or anti-IFN γ rat IgG at 1 mg (B) 1 day before i.v. injection of chitin particles at 1 mg/mouse. Control mice in panels A and B received saline and rat IgG (1 mg), respectively, before the chitin particle (1 to 10 μ m) injection. Three days after the particle injection, alveolar lavage M ϕ in each mouse were assayed in vitro for superoxide anion release with PMA (1 μ M) as the eliciting agent. Results are expressed as means \pm SD ($n = 3$). *, $P < 0.05$ compared with the control (saline) or (rat Ig) group.

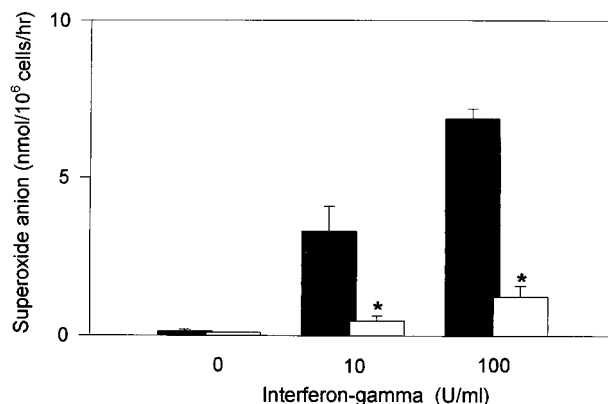


FIG. 6. In vitro alveolar M ϕ primed with IFN- γ . Alveolar M ϕ isolated from normal C57BL/6 mice were incubated with IFN- γ at 0 (medium alone), 10, and 100 U/ml for 24 h at 37°C. Superoxide anion levels released by the IFN- γ -primed M ϕ were measured in the presence (open bars) or absence (solid bars) of SOD at 700 U/ml following PMA elicitation. Results are expressed as means \pm SD ($n = 3$). *, $P < 0.05$ compared with groups without SOD treatment.

Figure 6 shows that when alveolar M ϕ isolated from normal C57BL/6 mice were treated with exogenous IFN- γ (10 and 100 U/ml) in vitro for 24 h, IFN- γ primed alveolar M ϕ in a dose-dependent manner.

Preadministration of IFN- γ in C57BL/6 mice modulates particle-induced alveolar M ϕ priming. To further assess the role of IFN- γ in particle-induced alveolar M ϕ priming, we injected mouse recombinant IFN- γ (10,000 U) i.v. in C57BL/6 mice 4 h before the particle priming with chitin and chitosan. Although IFN- γ alone at this dose did not prime alveolar M ϕ at day 3, the additional injection of chitin particles (1 to 10 μ m) primed alveolar M ϕ to a level in which they released significantly more ROI release when elicited by PMA in vitro (Table 2) compared to mice that did not receive an injection of IFN- γ . Surprisingly, chitosan particles and even 1.1- μ m latex beads also induced significant alveolar M ϕ priming in mice that were treated with exogenous IFN- γ (Table 2). Oligosaccharides of chitin and chitosan, however, did not show any priming effects (Table 2).

In vitro chitin/chitosan particle-induced IFN- γ production in spleen cell cultures. It has been reported that mouse spleen cells incubated with HK bacteria (for example, *L. monocytogenes*, BCG, and *C. parvum*) produce IFN- γ (16, 17, 39, 40).

TABLE 2. Effect of administration of IFN- γ before the injection of chitin/chitosan particles on the alveolar M ϕ priming in C57BL/6 mice^a

Particle	Size	Dose (mg)	O ₂ ⁻ (nmol/10 ⁶ cells/h)	
			No treatment	IFN- γ treatment
Saline			0.5	0.5
Chitin	1–10 μ m	1	14	20*
Chitosan	1–10 μ m	1	4.3	14*
Chitin	Oligosaccharide	1	0.5	0.5
Chitosan	Oligosaccharide	1	0.5	0.5
Latex beads	1.1 μ m	1	0.7	12*

^a C57BL/6 female mice (three per group) were injected i.v. with recombinant mouse IFN- γ (10,000 U; Sigma) or saline (control) 4 h before i.v. injection of chitin particles, chitosan particles, or 1.1- μ m latex beads at 1 mg/mouse. Alveolar lavage M ϕ in each mouse were assayed in vitro for superoxide anion release with 1 μ M PMA as the eliciting agent. Results are expressed as means ($n = 3$). *, $P < 0.05$ compared with the control (no treatment) groups.

TABLE 3. IFN- γ production by mouse spleen cells cultured with chitin or chitosan^a

Particle	Size	Dose (mg/ml)	IFN- γ (U/ml)	
			C57BL/6	SCID
Saline			<5	<5
Chitin	1–10 μ m	0.1	54*	65*
Chitosan	1–10 μ m	0.1	<5	<5
Chitin	50–100 μ m	0.1	<5	8
Chitosan	50–100 μ m	0.1	<5	<5
Chitin	Oligosaccharide	0.1	<5	<5
Chitosan	Oligosaccharide	0.1	<5	<5
HK <i>C. parvum</i>		0.1	110*	127*
Latex beads	1.1 μ m	0.1	<5	<5
	47.8 μ m	0.1	<5	<5

^a Spleen cells isolated from C57BL/6 mice or SCID mice were suspended in RPMI 1640 plus 10% FBS (4×10^6 cells/ml) and incubated with the particles indicated. After 24 h of incubation, the culture supernatants were filtered with a 0.22- μ m-diameter filter, and IFN- γ levels in the filtrates were measured by ELISA. Results are expressed as means ($n = 3$). *, $P < 0.05$ compared with the control (saline) group.

Based on this information, we incubated normal spleen cells isolated from C57BL/6 and SCID mice in the presence of various forms of chitin and chitosan.

Our initial studies using C57BL/6 mouse spleen cells showed that IFN- γ production was detected (7 ± 3 U/ml [mean \pm standard deviation {SD}, $n = 3$]) 4 h after 1- to 10- μ m chitin particle stimulation (100 μ g/ml), became maximum (64 ± 10 U/ml) at 24 h, and declined slightly (49 ± 8 U/ml) after 48 h (data not shown). Table 3 shows that the chitin particles induced significant amounts of IFN- γ production 24 h after the stimulation, at a level approximately 50% of the level induced by HK *C. parvum* in spleen cells isolated from both the strains of normal mice. Unlike HK *C. parvum*, either 1.1- μ m or 47.8- μ m latex beads as comparison controls did not induce IFN- γ production (Table 3). Neither the large chitin particles (50 to 100 μ m) nor chitin oligosaccharides induced IFN- γ production. Furthermore, it is notable that none of the chitosan preparations used in this study induced detectable amounts of IFN- γ production in either C57BL/6 or SCID mouse spleen cells.

IFN- γ production by the C57BL/6 mouse spleen cells depleted of NK1.1⁺ cells or adherent cells. To determine the key cell populations in the spleen cell cultures that were responsible for IFN- γ production, several spleen cell subpopulations were fractionated and incubated with chitin particles (1 to 10 μ m). As shown in Table 4, neither nonadherent spleen cells prepared by passing cell suspensions through Sephadex G-10 columns nor plastic-adherent spleen cells produced significant amounts of IFN- γ . When the two cell populations were mixed, chitin particle-induced IFN- γ production was restored (Table 4). F4/80⁺ M ϕ in the nonadherent cell and adherent cell populations amounted to 0.5 and 84%, respectively (data not shown).

Furthermore, spleen cells depleted of NK1.1⁺ cells showed a significant reduction of chitin particle-induced IFN- γ levels, whereas the elimination of CD4⁺ cells resulted in a slight enhancement of IFN- γ production (Table 4).

Effects of neutralizing antibodies against IL-12 and TNF- α on chitin particle-induced IFN- γ production. To test a role of selected IFN- γ -inducing cytokines (IL-12 and TNF- α) for chitin particle-induced IFN- γ production, spleen cell cultures (C57BL/6 mice) stimulated with 1- to 10- μ m chitin particles were pretreated with neutralizing antibodies against IL-12

TABLE 4. Effects of C57BL/6 mouse spleen cells depleted of NK cells or CD4⁺ cells on the production of IFN- γ ^a

Treatment	IFN- γ (U/ml)
Spleen cells	78
Nonadherent spleen cells	7*
Adherent spleen cells	8*
Nonadherent spleen cells + adherent cells	85
Spleen cells treated with:	
Rabbit serum	74
Anti-NK1.1 + rabbit serum	9**
Anti-CD4 + rabbit serum	83

^a C57BL/6 mouse spleen cells, nonadherent spleen cells, adherent spleen cells, and spleen cells pretreated with either anti-NK1.1 (PK 136) plus rabbit serum (1:10 dilution; Sigma), anti-CD4 (GK 1.5) plus rabbit serum, or rabbit serum alone were suspended in RPMI 1640 plus 10% FBS at 4×10^6 cells/ml and incubated with chitin particles (1 to 10 μ m) at 0.1 mg/ml for 24 h. In some experiments, nonadherent spleen cells (2×10^6 cells/ml) and nonadherent spleen cells (2×10^6 cells/ml) were mixed before chitin particle stimulation. The culture supernatants were filtered, and IFN- γ levels in the filtrates were measured by ELISA. Data are presented as means ($n = 3$). Without chitin, IFN- γ levels in the six groups were <5 U/ml. * and **, $P < 0.05$ compared with spleen cell group and rabbit serum-treatment group, respectively.

(bioactive IL-12p70) and TNF- α . As shown in Fig. 7, both treatments resulted in significantly blocking IFN- γ production, suggesting that the two cytokines play obligatory roles in chitin particle-induced IFN- γ production.

Exogenous inflammatory mediators (IFN- γ , IL-4, IL-10, TGF- β 1, and PGE₂) modulate chitin particle-induced IFN- γ production in C57BL/6 mouse spleen cell cultures. To assess the effect of exogenous IFN- γ on particle-induced IFN- γ production, the spleen cells were preincubated with IFN- γ at 100 U/ml for 12 h before particle stimulation. Table 5 showed that phagocytosable-size particles (chitin, chitosan, latex beads, and HK *C. parvum*) but not large (50- to 100- μ m) particles (chitin, chitosan, and latex beads) or oligosaccharides (chitin and chitosan) further induced significantly higher levels of IFN- γ in the exogenous IFN- γ -treated spleen cells than in control

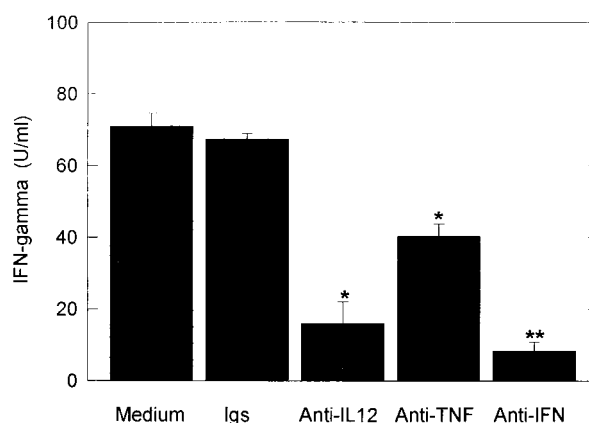


FIG. 7. Effects of neutralizing antibodies against IL-12 and TNF- α on chitin particle-induced IFN- γ production. Spleen cells isolated from C57BL/6 mice were incubated with 1- to 10- μ m chitin particles at 100 μ g/ml in the presence of either rat anti-IL-12 (40 μ g/ml; clone 17.8), polyclonal rabbit anti-mouse TNF- α (40 μ g/ml), or rat anti-IFN- γ (40 μ g/ml; clone R4-6A2, as a comparison control) for 24 h at 37°C. Control group had a mixture of rat immunoglobulin (40 μ g/ml; Sigma) and rabbit immunoglobulin (40 μ g/ml; Sigma). The levels of IFN- γ in the culture supernatants were measured as described in Materials and Methods. Results are expressed as means \pm SD ($n = 3$). * and **, $P < 0.005$ and $P < 0.001$, respectively, compared with the immunoglobulin control group.

TABLE 5. Particle-induced IFN- γ production by mouse spleen cells pretreated with exogenous IFN- γ^a

Particle	Size	Dose (mg/ml)	IFN- γ (U/ml)	
			C57BL/6	SCID
Saline			<5	<5
Chitin	1–10 μ m	0.1	102*	116*
Chitosan	1–10 μ m	0.1	45*	53*
Chitin	50–100 μ m	0.1	9	12
Chitosan	50–100 μ m	0.1	6	8
Chitin	Oligosaccharide	0.1	<5	<5
Chitosan	Oligosaccharide	0.1	<5	<5
HK <i>C. parvum</i>		0.1	142*	163*
Latex beads	1.1 μ m	0.1	84*	88*
	47.8 μ m	0.1	<5	<5

^a Spleen cells isolated from C57BL/6 mice and SCID mice were suspended in RPMI 1640 plus 10% FBS (4×10^6 cells/ml) and incubated with mouse IFN- γ at 100 U/ml for 12 h. Following washing, cells were further incubated with the particles indicated. After another 24 h of incubation, the culture supernatants were filtered with a 0.22- μ m-diameter filter, and IFN- γ levels in the filtrates were measured by ELISA. These procedures except for the IFN- γ pretreatment were comparable to those for Table 3. Results are expressed as means ($n = 3$). *, $P < 0.05$ compared with the control (saline) group.

spleen cells. In sharp contrast, the chitin particle-induced IFN- γ production was significantly inhibited by the presence of selected inflammatory mediators (IL-4, IL-10, and TGF- β 1, and PGE₂) (Table 6).

To determine whether chitin/chitosan preparations used in this study induce such factors which could inhibit IFN- γ production, the culture supernatants of particle-induced spleen cells were added to the chitin particle-induced spleen cell cultures. As shown in Table 6, the supernatants which did not

TABLE 6. Modulation of chitin particle-induced IFN- γ production in C57BL/6 spleen cells^a

Treatment	Dose	IFN- γ (U/ml)	
		No chitin particle	Chitin particle
Saline		<5	88
IL-4	5 ng/ml	<5	7**
IL-10	5 ng/ml	<5	15**
TGF- β 1	5 ng/ml	<5	18**
PGE ₂	1 μ M	<5	25**
24-h culture supernatants of spleen cells stimulated with:			
Chitin (1–10 μ m)	50%	88*	160**
Chitosan (1–10 μ m)	50%	<5	83
Chitin (50–100 μ m)	50%	<5	91
Chitosan (50–100 μ m)	50%	<5	81
Chitin (Oligo)	50%	<5	87
Chitosan (Oligo)	50%	<5	92
HK <i>C. parvum</i>	50%	103*	166**
Latex beads (1.1 μ m)	50%	<5	93
Latex beads (40 μ m)	50%	<5	88

^a Spleen cells isolated from C57BL/6 mice were suspended in RPMI 1640 plus 10% FBS (4×10^6 cells/ml) and incubated with selected cytokines (IL-4, IL-10, and TGF- β 1) all at 5 ng/ml and PGE₂ at 1 μ M. In some experiments, spleen cell suspensions were mixed with an equal volume of the culture supernatant of particle-stimulated spleen cells (C57BL/6) prepared as for Table 3 (50% dose). These exogenous mediator-treated spleen cell suspensions were incubated in the presence or absence of chitin particles (1 to 10 μ m) at 0.1 mg/ml. After 24 h of incubation, the culture supernatants were filtered through a 0.22- μ m-diameter filter, and IFN- γ levels in the filtrates were measured by ELISA. Results are expressed as means ($n = 3$). *, $P < 0.05$ compared with control (saline) treatment in the no-chitin particle treatment groups; **, $P < 0.05$ compared with control (saline) treatment in the chitin particle treatment groups.

contain IFN- γ (Table 3) failed to inhibit IFN- γ production. Our data suggest that the failure of IFN- γ production by chitin/chitosan preparations other than 1- to 10- μ m chitin particle preparations is not due to the presence of factors which are known to down-modulate IFN- γ production. Our preliminary study, in addition, indicated that there was no detectable level of IL-4 (<20 pg/ml, determined by ELISA [Genzyme]) in any particle-stimulated spleen cell cultures used in this study (data not shown).

It is of special interest that control spleen cell cultures incubated in the absence of chitin particles produced IFN- γ when costimulated with the culture supernatants of chitin particle-stimulated spleen cells (Table 6). These data suggest that, in addition to IFN- γ , chitin particles induce other factors, including IL-12 and TNF- α , which augment IFN- γ production.

DISCUSSION

When chitin/chitosan particles, structures with no mammalian counterpart, are administered i.v. to mice, they become bound to M ϕ plasma membrane mannose/fucose receptors (19, 28, 38, 41) that mediate the interiorization of the chitin/chitosan particles if they are in the phagocytosable range. These particles are eventually degraded by lysozyme and *N*-acetyl- β -D-glucosaminidase, which are present in the phagocytic M ϕ and sera in human and experimental animals (6, 15). The present study clearly indicates that the i.v. injection of C57BL/6 mice with phagocytosable chitin particles primes alveolar M ϕ within 3 days to give a large oxidative burst when elicited in vitro with PMA. Phagocytosable chitosan also primes alveolar M ϕ but at a significantly lower level of the elicited oxidative response than the phagocytosable chitin. Soluble chitin oligosaccharides and chitosan oligosaccharides, in sharp contrast, are unable to prime alveolar M ϕ . The magnitude of the elicited oxidative responses of alveolar M ϕ primed by i.v. injection of chitin particles is comparable to the maximum priming achieved by HK *C. parvum*. Our data strongly suggest that initial phagocytosis of chitin particles or bacteria but not latex beads is the key event for alveolar M ϕ priming.

Another important finding is that the mechanism for alveolar M ϕ priming by the chitin particle involves, at least in part, the production of endogenous IFN- γ . We also found that a comparable level of alveolar M ϕ priming is induced in SCID mice receiving chitin particles i.v., indicating that neither T nor B lymphocytes are required for the particle priming response in this animal model. We also established that the administration of monoclonal anti-NK1.1 antibodies to C57BL/6 mice caused depletion of their NK1.1⁺ cells as well as the priming response of alveolar M ϕ . It has been reported that the resistance of mice to *L. monocytogenes* infection involves an early, (1 to 2 days) nonspecific phase of resistance, mediated by IFN- γ produced by NK cells, which appears to be an essential immune mechanism to eliminate bacteria in SCID mice as well as in immunocompetent mice (12, 40). In our study, the injection of C57BL/6 mice and SCID mice with chitin particles also induced this nonspecific host defense system, which is generally seen at the early stages of the microbial infections.

To further dissect the mechanisms of IFN- γ production during the chitin particle treatment, we have modified the spleen cell culture models established by Tripp et al. (39, 40). Our data clearly show that phagocytosable-size chitin particles induce significant amounts of IFN- γ production and strongly suggest that the chitin particle-induced IFN- γ production appears to be due to cell-to-cell interactions, especially M ϕ -to-NK1.1⁺ cell interaction. CD4⁺ helper T cells or other T cells (CD8⁺) known as IFN- γ producers in various immune re-

sponses are not involved. Since other bacterial particles such as HK *C. parvum*, but not 1.1- μm latex beads, also induced comparable levels of IFN- γ , these responses might be common with microbial particulate components (30, 44). Taken together, the capacities of particles to prime alveolar M ϕ in vivo closely parallel the responses of our in vitro cell system.

Recent publications suggest that various steps of CMI responses (measured by IFN- γ production and microbicidal M ϕ formation) are regulated by a variety of cells and their inflammatory mediators (31), including IL-4 (16, 29, 42), IL-10 (16, 29), TGF- β 1 (43), and PGE $_2$ (4). We confirmed here that the chitin particle-induced IFN- γ production in vitro is significantly inhibited when costimulated with IL-4, IL-10, TGF- β 1, or PGE $_2$. One could speculate, therefore, that low levels of IFN- γ production by the particles and oligosaccharides other than the phagocytosable-size chitin particles indicated in Table 3 are due to the production of some negative mediators. However, our results (Table 6) suggest that there are no such inhibitory activities produced by these particles. It is more likely that the particle priming of alveolar M ϕ is dependent on the production of interdependent factors up-regulating IFN- γ production, such as IL-12 (17, 32, 40), TNF- α (40), and an 18-kDa IFN- γ -inducing factor (IGIF) (27). Our results clearly demonstrated obligatory roles of IL-12 and TNF- α in this mechanism. In this regard, it has been reported that TNF- α alone does not induce IFN- γ production but enhances IL-12-induced IFN- γ production (40). The contribution of IGIF, however, remains to be elucidated.

Consistent with earlier observations (5, 20, 23), in vitro, exogenous IFN- γ can prime normal mouse alveolar M ϕ which release massive amounts of SOD-sensitive reactive oxygen intermediates. In addition to direct M ϕ activation by IFN- γ , our present study made a surprising discovery that if C57BL/6 mice are preconditioned with a small dose of IFN- γ , a higher level of priming is induced by not only phagocytosable chitin particles but also phagocytosable chitosan and even latex beads. Furthermore, the in vitro study using spleen cell cultures preconditioned with IFN- γ provides an up-regulation of IFN- γ production by these phagocytosable particles, suggesting increases in endogenous IFN- γ (nonspecific CMI) in vivo by the particles. However, nonphagocytosable chitin/chitosan/latex particles or soluble oligosaccharides of chitin and chitosan fail to induce significant IFN- γ production in these cultures. Phagocytosis of particulates, probably by a postmembrane event such as interiorization, appears to be important for the up-regulation of nonspecific CMI.

Because the chitin particles do not induce detectable levels of IL-4 in the spleen cell cultures, the inhibition of Th2-derived cytokine production, unlike in Scott's *Leishmania* infectious models (31), may not be major mechanisms for the effects of exogenous IFN- γ treatment. We speculate that the formation of M ϕ -derived immunoregulatory mediators such as IL-12, IGIF, and TNF- α , which up-regulate CMI (IFN- γ production), is enhanced transcriptionally and translationally when M ϕ are exposed to IFN- γ and elicited by phagocytosis (36, 37). Although the exact mechanisms remain to be elucidated, circumstantial evidence for the phagocytosis-mediated elicitation of inflammatory mediators has been reported in various M ϕ activation studies (1, 10, 35).

Finally, this observation provides many new avenues of study that could lead to new methodologies for the up-regulation of nonspecific CMI that might have important clinical utility. It is a particularly intriguing idea that IFN- γ might have an auto-crine-like effect on M ϕ and make them more responsive to particle priming.

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