

Group V Phospholipase A₂ Induces Leukotriene Biosynthesis in Human Neutrophils through the Activation of Group IVA Phospholipase A₂*

Received for publication, May 31, 2002, and in revised form, July 16, 2002
Published, JBC Papers in Press, July 17, 2002, DOI 10.1074/jbc.M205399200

Young Jun Kim‡, Kwang Pyo Kim‡, Sang Kyou Han‡§, Nilda M. Munoz¶, Xiangdong Zhu¶, Hiroyuki Sano¶, Alan R. Leff¶, and Wonhwa Cho‡¶

From the ‡Department of Chemistry, University of Illinois at Chicago, Chicago, Illinois 60607 and the ¶Department of Medicine, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois 60307

We reported previously that exogenously added human group V phospholipase A₂ (hVPLA₂) could elicit leukotriene B₄ (LTB₄) biosynthesis in human neutrophils (Han, S. K., Kim, K. P., Koduri, R., Bittova, L., Munoz, N. M., Leff, A. R., Wilton, D. C., Gelb, M. H., and Cho, W. (1999) *J. Biol. Chem.* 274, 11881–11888). To determine the mechanism of the hVPLA₂-induced LTB₄ biosynthesis in neutrophils, we thoroughly examined the effects of hVPLA₂ and their lipid products on the activity of group IVA cytosolic PLA₂ (cPLA₂) and LTB₄ biosynthesis under different conditions. As low as 1 nM exogenous hVPLA₂ was able to induce the release of arachidonic acid (AA) and LTB₄. Typically, AA and LTB₄ were released in two phases, which were synchronized with a rise in intracellular calcium concentration ([Ca²⁺]_i) near the perinuclear region and cPLA₂ phosphorylation. A cellular PLA₂ assay showed that hVPLA₂ acted primarily on the outer plasma membrane, liberating fatty acids and lysophosphatidylcholine (lyso-PC), whereas cPLA₂ acted on the perinuclear membrane. Lyso-PC and polyunsaturated fatty acids including AA activated cPLA₂ and 5-lipoxygenase by increasing [Ca²⁺]_i and inducing cPLA₂ phosphorylation, which then led to LTB₄ biosynthesis. The delayed phase was triggered by the binding of secreted LTB₄ to the cell surface LTB₄ receptor, which resulted in a rise in [Ca²⁺]_i and cPLA₂ phosphorylation through the activation of mitogen-activated protein kinase, extracellular signal-regulated kinase 1/2. These results indicate that a main role of exogenous hVPLA₂ in neutrophil activation and LTB₄ biosynthesis is to activate cPLA₂ and 5-lipoxygenase primarily by liberating from the outer plasma membrane lyso-PC that induces [Ca²⁺]_i increase and cPLA₂ phosphorylation and that hVPLA₂-induced LTB₄ production is augmented by the positive feedback activation of cPLA₂ by LTB₄.

Phospholipase A₂ (PLA₂)¹ catalyzes the release from the *sn*-2 position of certain membrane phospholipids of arachidonic acid (AA) that can be transformed into potent inflammatory lipid mediators, including prostaglandins, leukotrienes, and thromboxanes. Multiple forms of mammalian PLA₂ have been identified from mammalian tissues, which include several forms of secretory PLA₂ (sPLA₂) (1), group IVA Ca²⁺-dependent cytosolic PLA₂ (cPLA₂) (2), and group VI Ca²⁺-independent PLA₂ (iPLA₂) (3). Recent studies have indicated that sPLA₂s work in concert with cPLA₂ to induce eicosanoid formation in different cells (4–6). Neutrophils are inflammatory cells that release AA and 5-lipoxygenase products, most notably leukotriene B₄ (LTB₄), upon activation by various agonists, including a bacterial peptide, formyl-Met-Leu-Phe (fMLP). It was reported that human neutrophils contain several forms of endogenous PLA₂s, including cPLA₂, iPLA₂, and group V and group X sPLA₂s (7). However, roles of these PLA₂s in inflammatory actions of neutrophils, biosynthesis and release of LTB₄ in particular, have not been elucidated fully. Based on the effects of exogenously added sPLA₂, AA, and 5-lipoxygenase (5-LO) products on cPLA₂ activity, it was postulated earlier that stimulus-induced AA release or exocytosis of sPLA₂ activates cPLA₂ by initiating the formation of LTB₄ which leads to the phosphorylation of cPLA₂ (8). Similarly, both sPLA₂ and cPLA₂ were shown to be involved in the fMLP-stimulated AA release from human neutrophils (9). Recently, however, it was reported that fMLP-induced secretion of group V sPLA₂ from human neutrophils did not lead to LTB₄ biosynthesis (7). Instead, cPLA₂ was reported to be entirely responsible for the fMLP-stimulated LTB₄ release from human neutrophils (7). Independently, we showed that exogenously added human group V PLA₂ (hVPLA₂) could induce AA and LTB₄ release from unprimed human neutrophils half as effectively as fMLP (10)

¹ The abbreviation used are: PLA₂, phospholipase A₂; AA, arachidonic acid; AACOCF₃, arachidonyltrifluoromethyl ketone; BSA, bovine serum albumin; cPLA₂, group IVA cytosolic PLA₂; DiIC12, 1,1'-didodecyl-3,3',3'-tetramethylindocarbocyanine perchlorate; ERK, extracellular signal-regulated kinase; fMLP, formyl-Met-Leu-Phe; FRET, fluorescence resonance energy transfer; HBSS, Hanks' balanced salt solution; hIIaPLA₂, human group IIa PLA₂; hVPLA₂, human group V PLA₂; HPLC, high performance liquid chromatography; iPLA₂, group VI Ca²⁺-independent PLA₂; 5-LO, 5-lipoxygenase; LTB₄, leukotriene B₄; LTB₄DMA, LTB₄ dimethyl amide; lyso-PC, 1-palmitoyl-2-hydroxy-*sn*-glycero-3-phosphocholine; MAP kinase, mitogen-activated protein kinase; MEK, mitogen-activated protein kinase/extracellular signal-regulated kinase kinase; OA, oleic acid; PED6, *N*-((6-(2,4-dinitrophenyl)amino)hexanoyl)-2-(4,4-difluoro-5,7-dimethyl-4-bora-3a,4a-diaza-*s*-indacene-3-pentanoyl)-1-hexadecanoyl-*sn*-glycero-3-phosphoethanolamine triethylammonium salt; PGB₂, prostaglandin B₂; SAPC, 1-stearoyl-2-arachidonoyl-*sn*-glycero-3-phosphocholine; sPLA₂, secretory PLA₂.

* This work was supported by National Institutes of Health Grants GM52598 (to W. C.) and HL46368 and HL56399 (to A. R. L.). The costs of publication of this article were defrayed in part by the payment of page charges. This article must therefore be hereby marked "advertisement" in accordance with 18 U.S.C. Section 1734 solely to indicate this fact.

§ Present address: Division of Biology, California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, CA 91125.

¶ Established investigator of American Heart Association. To whom correspondence should be addressed: Dept. of Chemistry (M/C 111), University of Illinois at Chicago, 845 West Taylor St., Chicago, IL 60607-7061. Tel.: 312-996-4883; Fax: 312-996-2183; E-mail: wcho@uic.edu.

and that hVPLA₂ bound to cell surface heparan sulfate proteoglycans was eventually internalized and degraded (11). To understand better the interplay between sPLA₂ and cPLA₂ in leukotriene biosynthesis in neutrophils, we thoroughly examined the effects of sPLA₂s and their lipid products on cPLA₂ activity and leukotriene biosynthesis under different conditions. Results not only account for the discrepancy in previous reports but also provide new insights into the mechanism by which sPLA₂ and cPLA₂ work in concert to achieve effective and controlled leukotriene biosynthesis in neutrophils.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Materials—Arachidonyltrifluoromethyl ketone (AACOCF₃) was purchased from Biomol (Plymouth Meeting, PA). Surfactin was a generous gift from Dr. C. H. Lee of CheilJedang Co. (Incheon, Korea). The p38 mitogen-activated (MAP) kinase inhibitor SB203580 was purchased from Upstate Biotechnology (Lake Placid, NY). Anti-cPLA₂ monoclonal antibody was generously provided by Dr. James Clark of the Genetics Institute (Cambridge, MA). [³H]AA and [¹⁴C]-labeled oleic acid (OA) were purchased from American Radiochemical Co. (St. Louis, MO). 1-Stearoyl-2-[¹⁴C]arachidonoyl-*sn*-glycero-3-phosphatidylcholine ([¹⁴C]SAPC), goat anti-rabbit immunoglobulin conjugated with horseradish peroxidase, goat anti-mouse immunoglobulin conjugated with horseradish peroxidase, enhanced chemiluminescence and molecular weight markers were purchased from Amersham Biosciences. Anti-ActivTM-extracellular signal-regulated kinase (ERK)1/2 antibody, Anti-ActiveTM-p38 MAP kinase antibody, and a mitogen-activated protein kinase/extracellular signal-regulated kinase (MEK) inhibitor, U0126, were purchased from Promega Co. LTB₄, LTB₄ dimethyl amide (LTB₄DMA) and iPLA₂ inhibitor (*E*)-6-(bromoethylene)tetrahydro-3-(1-naphthalenyl)-2H-pyran-2-one (bromo-enol lactone) were from Cayman Chemical Co. (Ann Arbor, MI). *N*-((6-(2,4-dinitrophenyl)amino)hexanoyl)-2-(4,4-difluoro-5,7-dimethyl-4-bora-3a,4a-diazas-indacene-3-pentanoyl)-1-hexadecanoyl-*sn*-glycero-3-phosphoethanolamine triethylammonium salt (PED6), Fluo-4 AM and 1,1'-didodecyl-3,3',3'-tetramethylindocarbocyanine perchlorate (DiIC12) were purchased from Molecular probes (Eugene, OR). 1-Palmitoyl-2-hydroxyl-*sn*-glycero-3-phosphocholine (lyso-PC) was purchased from Avanti Polar Lipids (Alabaster, AL). AA and ionomycin were purchased from Sigma.

Expression and Purification of sPLA₂—Recombinant human group IIa PLA₂ (hIIaPLA₂) was prepared as described (12). Recombinant hVPLA₂ and mutants were expressed in *Escherichia coli*, refolded, and purified as described previously (10, 13). The purity of enzymes assessed by SDS-PAGE was consistently higher than 90%.

Isolation of Human Neutrophils—Human neutrophils were prepared from heparinized venous blood collected from healthy medication-free donors by dextran sedimentation, followed by isolymp centrifugation and removal of remaining red blood cells by hypotonic lysis (14). The resultant cell population consisted of >95% neutrophils with >98% viability as judged by trypan blue exclusion.

Fatty Acid and LTB₄ Release from Human Neutrophils—Dual radiolabeling of neutrophils was achieved by incubating 10⁷ cells with [³H]AA and [¹⁴C]OA (0.1 μCi/ml each) in calcium-free Hanks' balanced salt solution (HBSS) for 3 h. [³H]AA and [¹⁴C]OA that had not been incorporated into cellular lipids were removed by washing the cells three times with HBSS containing 0.2% bovine serum albumin (BSA). Radiolabeled cells (10⁶) were resuspended in 160 μl of HBSS containing 1.2 mM CaCl₂ and 0.2% BSA, preincubated with a selected inhibitor for 20 min at 37 °C if necessary, and then were stimulated with hVPLA₂. The reaction was quenched by centrifugation, and the radioactivity in the cell pellet and the medium was measured separately by a two-channel liquid scintillation counter. LTB₄ levels were determined using a LTB₄ enzyme immunoassay kit from Cayman and then corrected for background signals from control cells that were not treated with hVPLA₂.

Measurement of cPLA₂ Activity—Neutrophils (2 × 10⁶ cells) were stimulated with varying concentrations of hVPLA₂. The reaction was quenched by adding 1 ml of ice-cold water, and the reaction mixture was centrifuged. The pellet was resuspended in 70 μl of lysis buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, containing 2.5 mM EDTA, 10 μg/ml leupeptin, 5 μg/ml aprotinin, 1 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride, 2 mM VO₄, 50 mM NaF, and 5 μg/ml pepstatin) and sonicated briefly. The resulting cell lysate was pretreated with 10 μl of dithiothreitol (final concentration 10 mM) on ice for 5 min to inactivate sPLA₂, and 10 μl of 1 mM CaCl₂ (final concentration 0.1 mM) was then added to each sample. The cPLA₂ substrate solution was prepared by drying a chloroform solution of

[¹⁴C]SAPC under a stream of N₂ and suspending the film in 100 μl of 10% aqueous ethanol by vortexing. The reaction was initiated by adding a 10 μl-portion of the substrate solution (final concentration 9 μM) to each cell lysate. The reaction was carried out for 30 min at 37 °C and was quenched by adding 560 μl of Dole's reagent (heptane, 2-propanol, 1 N H₂SO₄, 400:390:10 (v/v)), followed by 110 μl of H₂O, vortexed for 20 s, and then centrifuged at 13,000 × *g*. The 180-μl upper layer was transferred to 800 μl of hexane containing 25 mg of silica gel. The 800-μl samples was then mixed with 2 ml of scintillation fluids, and the radioactivity was counted in a liquid scintillation counter.

Immunoblotting—Aliquots of neutrophils (2 × 10⁶ cells/sample) were centrifuged at 13,000 × *g* for 20 s, and cell pellets were lysed by the addition of the ice-cold lysis buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, containing 5 mM EDTA, 40 mM NaCl, 30 mM Na₄P₂O₇, 10 μg/ml leupeptin, 5 μg/ml aprotinin, 5 μg/ml chymostatin, 2 mM diisopropylfluorophosphate, 1 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride, 2 mM Na₃VO₄, 50 mM NaF, and 5 μg/ml pepstatin, 1% Nonidet P-40, and 0.5% deoxycholic acid). After 20 min on ice, the samples were centrifuged (13,000 × *g*, 10 min) to remove nuclear and cellular debris. Supernatants were mixed with the gel loading buffer (0.125 M Tris-HCl, pH 6.8, 20% (v/v) glycerol, 4% SDS, 0.005% bromophenol blue), and boiled for 5 min. Equivalent amounts of protein (~50 μg) were loaded onto SDS-polyacrylamide gels (10% of cPLA₂ and 12% for p38 and ERK1/2 MAP kinases). Electrotransfer of protein from the gel to the polyvinylidene difluoride membrane was achieved using a semidry system (400 mA, 60 min). The membrane was blocked with 1% BSA for 60 min, then incubated with primary antibodies (anti-cPLA₂, Anti-ActiveTM-ERK1/2, or Anti-ActiveTM-p38 antibody).

Measurement of [Ca²⁺]_i—Measurement of intracellular calcium concentration ([Ca²⁺]_i) was performed with a Zeiss LSM 510 laser scanning confocal microscope using Fluo-4 AM as the indicator. Neutrophils (10⁷ cells/ml) were incubated in HBSS containing 1.2 mM Ca²⁺, 1% BSA, and 2 μM Fluo-4 for 30 min at 37 °C. Labeled cells were seeded into each of eight wells on a sterile Nunc Lak-TeKIITM chambered cover glass filled with 400 μl of HBSS containing 1.2 mM Ca²⁺, and incubated at 37 °C with 5% CO₂ for 10 min. After washing once with HBSS containing 1.2 mM Ca²⁺, 10 nM hVPLA₂ (or 3 μM lyso-PC, 3 μM AA, 0.3 μM LTB₄) was added, and the fluorescence intensity of Fluo-4 was monitored with a 488 nm argon/krypton laser and a 530 nm linepass filter. A 63× (1.2 numerical aperture) water immersion objective was used for all experiments. Images were analyzed using the analysis tools provided in the Zeiss biophysical software package. [Ca²⁺]_i was calibrated as described previously using the reported calcium dissociation constant value (*i.e.* 345 nM) of Fluo-4 (15).

Confocal Microscopy Imaging of PLA₂ Activity—Neutrophils (10⁶ cells/ml) were seeded into each of eight wells on a sterile Nunc Lak-TeKIITM chambered cover glass filled with 400 μl of HBSS and incubated at 37 °C with 5% CO₂ for 10 min. After the cells were washed once with HBSS, they were overlaid with 10 μl of PED6 vesicle solution (0.75 mM POPS/cholesterol/POPG/PED6/DiIC12 (107:31:20:1:1 in a mol ratio) mixed vesicles in HBSS) and incubated for 50 min at 37 °C with 5% CO₂. After rinsing the labeled cells six times with HBSS containing 1.2 mM Ca²⁺, 10 nM hVPLA₂ was added to cells. Imaging was done with a Zeiss LSM 510 laser scanning confocal microscope with the detector gain adjusted to eliminate the background autofluorescence. The fluorescence resonance energy transfer (FRET) from the BODIPYTM group of the hydrolyzed PED6 to DiIC12 was monitored with a 488 nm argon/krypton laser and a 585 nm linepass filter. A 63× (1.2 numerical aperture) water immersion objective was used for all experiments.

Leukotriene Analysis by HPLC-Electrospray Ionization-Mass Spectrometry—The analysis of leukotriene composition secreted to the growth medium was performed as reported previously (16, 17). After neutrophils (10⁸ cells) were incubated with 1 or 10 nM hVPLA₂, they were treated with 2 volumes of ice-cold methanol containing 5 ng of internal standard, prostaglandin B₂ (PGB₂). The samples were diluted with water to a final methanol concentration lower than 20%, and extraction was quickly carried out using a Supelclean LC-18 solid phase cartridge (Supelco, Bellefonte, PA). The retained material was eluted using 90% aqueous methanol. After evaporation of solvent, the dried extract was solubilized in 100 μl of solvent A (methanol/acetonitrile/water/acetic acid, 10:10:80:0.02, v/v/v/v, pH 5.5, adjusted with ammonium hydroxide), injected into a C18 reverse phase HPLC column (5 × 150 mm; Waters, Milford, MA) that was interfaced directly with the electrospray source of a triple quadrupole mass spectrometer (Micro-mass Quatrol II). The column was eluted with a linear gradient of solvent B (acetonitrile/methanol, 65:35) from 40 to 100% at a flow rate of 100 μl/min over 30 min. Each leukotriene peak was analyzed by mass spectrometry measuring the ion abundance for the following collision-induced transformation at the corresponding retention times: LTB₄ and

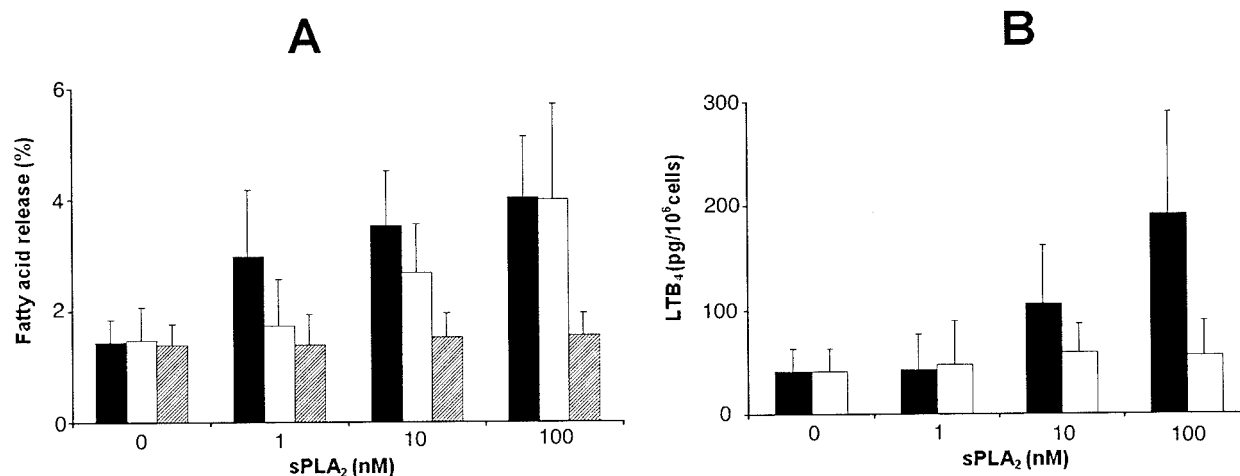


FIG. 1. **Dependence of fatty acid and LTB₄ release on hVPLA₂ concentration.** A, human neutrophils were labeled for 3 h with [³H]AA and [¹⁴C]OA and incubated for 20 min at 37 °C with different concentrations (1–100 nM) of hVPLA₂ or hIIaPLA₂ in HBSS containing 1.2 mM Ca²⁺ and 0.2% BSA. Black and white bars indicate [³H]AA and [¹⁴C]OA release, respectively, by hVPLA₂. Gray bars indicate [³H]AA release by hIIaPLA₂. B, human neutrophils were incubated for 30 min at 37 °C with different concentrations (1–100 nM) of hIIaPLA₂ or hVPLA₂ in HBSS containing 1.2 mM Ca²⁺. The supernatants were collected, and the LTB₄ level was assayed as described under “Experimental Procedures.” Black and white bars indicate LTB₄ secretion by hVPLA₂ and hIIaPLA₂, respectively. Data represent the mean ± S.E. from triplicate measurements.

6-*trans*-LTB₄ isomers (*m/z* 335 → 195), 20-hydroxy-LTB₄ (*m/z* 351 → 195), 20-carboxy-LTB₄ (*m/z* 365 → 195). Quantitation of individual peaks was carried out using their mass ion abundance relative to that of PGB₂.

RESULTS

hVPLA₂-induced Fatty Acid and LTB₄ Release from Neutrophils—We showed previously that exogenously added hVPLA₂ triggers AA release and LTB₄ secretion from unprimed human neutrophils (10). To understand better the mechanism of hVPLA₂-induced LTB₄ biosynthesis, we carefully examined the time course of the fatty acid and LTB₄ release from neutrophils in the presence of varying concentrations of exogenously added hVPLA₂. First, we measured the hVPLA₂ concentration dependence of fatty acid release from neutrophils double labeled with [³H]AA and [¹⁴C]OA. Because of the high AA specificity of cPLA₂ and lack of fatty acid selectivity of sPLA₂s, the [³H]AA release in this system would reflect both sPLA₂ and cPLA₂ activities, whereas the [¹⁴C]OA release would largely represent sPLA₂ activity. As illustrated in Fig. 1A, the [³H]AA release was detected at a lower hVPLA₂ concentration than was [¹⁴C]OA release. For instance, at 1 nM hVPLA₂ the [³H]AA release was twice larger than the control, whereas the [¹⁴C]OA release was essentially the same as the control. At 100 nM hVPLA₂, however, both [³H]AA and [¹⁴C]OA releases were about three times higher than the control. This suggests that at lower concentrations of exogenously added hVPLA₂, cPLA₂ is mainly responsible for the AA release, whereas at higher concentrations (*i.e.* ≥10 nM) hVPLA₂ also contributes to the overall AA release. Although it is difficult to monitor the secretion of endogenous hVPLA₂ in response to the exogenously added hVPLA₂, the contribution of the former to the AA release should be insignificant under our experimental conditions. This is because at lower concentrations of exogenously added hVPLA₂, cPLA₂ plays a predominant role in overall AA release, whereas at higher concentrations (*i.e.* >10 nM) of exogenously added hVPLA₂, the amount of secreted endogenous hVPLA₂ (~1.5 nM) (7) should be much smaller than that of exogenous hVPLA₂. As reported previously (10, 11), hIIaPLA₂ up to 100 nM had little effect on fatty acid release under the same conditions, underscoring the unique ability of hVPLA₂ to release fatty acid from unprimed neutrophils. We then measured the LTB₄ release from neutrophils as a function of hVPLA₂ concentration (Fig. 1B). Unlike the AA release that occurred with

as low as 1 nM exogenously added hVPLA₂, the LTB₄ release was not detectable at 1 nM hVPLA₂. However, the LTB₄ release was clearly seen with ≥10 nM hVPLA₂. As reported earlier (10, 11), 100 nM hVPLA₂ was about half as effective as 1 μM fMLP + 5 μg/ml cytochalasin B in inducing the LTB₄ release. As a negative control, hIIaPLA₂ up to 100 nM was shown to have little effect on LTB₄ release. Together, these data suggest that the release of AA and LTB₄ biosynthesis in human neutrophils have disparate dependence on hVPLA₂ concentration acting on their cell surfaces.

We then monitored the kinetics of fatty acid release from dual labeled neutrophils by 10 nM hVPLA₂. As shown in Fig. 2A, the [¹⁴C]OA release showed simple saturation kinetics, whereas the [³H]AA release exhibited more complex two-phase kinetics under the same conditions, suggesting that at least two distinct pathways are involved in the latter case. The early phase of [³H]AA release reached a plateau in 10–20 min, as was the case with the [¹⁴C]OA release; however, the delayed phase of [³H]AA release followed after ~20 min and extended for about 1 h. When neutrophils were incubated with a cPLA₂ inhibitor, AACOCF₃ (25 μM) (18) or surfactin (10 μM) (19), prior to the addition of hVPLA₂, the delayed phase AA release was abrogated, whereas the early phase AA release was modestly (about 30%) reduced. On the other hand, OA release remained essentially unchanged after treatment with cPLA₂ inhibitors. An iPLA₂ inhibitor, bromoenol lactone (10 μM) had little effect on the time course of fatty acid release (data not shown). In conjunction with the data shown in Fig. 1, these data suggest that in the presence of 10 nM exogenous hVPLA₂, both hVPLA₂ and cPLA₂ are involved in the early phase of [³H]AA release, whereas cPLA₂ is primarily responsible for the delayed phase of [³H]AA release. The involvement of hVPLA₂ only in the early phase of AA release is also consistent with our previous finding that the exogenously added hVPLA₂ is internalized and degraded in neutrophils within the first 10 min under similar experimental conditions (11).

We also monitored the time course of LTB₄ release by 1–100 nM exogenous hVPLA₂ under the same experimental conditions (Fig. 2B). With 10 nM hVPLA₂, the LTB₄ release reached a saturation in 5–10 min, consistent with the early phase AA release curve, and started to decline until it increased again at 15–20 min, which is approximately synchronized with the delayed phase AA release. The delayed phase LTB₄ release was

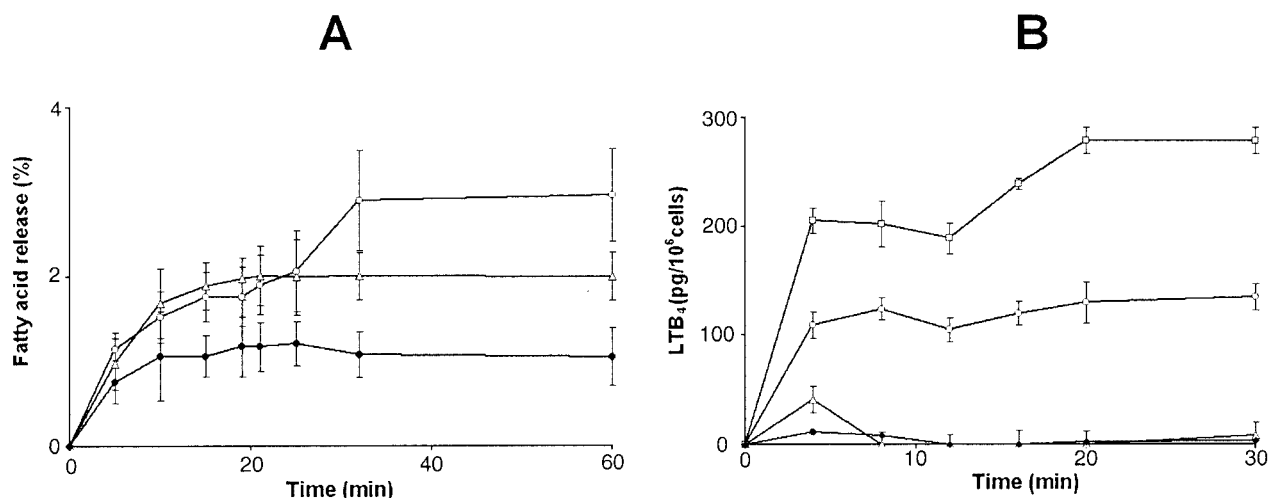


FIG. 2. Time courses of hVPLA₂-induced fatty acid and LTB₄ release from neutrophils. A, dual radiolabeled neutrophils were incubated with 10 nM hVPLA₂, and the time courses of [³H]AA (○) and [¹⁴C]OA (△) releases were monitored. Also, the [³H]AA release was monitored for neutrophils preincubated for 30 min with 25 μM AACOCF₃ before the addition of 10 nM hVPLA₂ (●). B, time courses of LTB₄ secretion were measured in the presence of 1 nM (△), 10 nM (○), and 100 nM (□) hVPLA₂. Also, the LTB₄ release from neutrophils preincubated for 30 min with 25 μM AACOCF₃ before the addition of 10 nM hVPLA₂ was measured (●). Data represent the mean ± S.E. from triplicate measurements.

much more pronounced with 100 nM hVPLA₂. Importantly, treatment of neutrophils with AACOCF₃ abrogated the LTB₄ release, indicating that cPLA₂ is mainly responsible for LTB₄ biosynthesis under these conditions. With 1 nM hVPLA₂, the LTB₄ release rapidly reached a maximal point at 5 min and then decreased to a basal level after 10 min, which is consistent with the lack of LTB₄ release at 10 min shown in Fig. 1B. These data indicate, however, that as low as 1 nM exogenous hVPLA₂ can stimulate the LTB₄ biosynthesis.

In neutrophils AA is transformed into several different 5-LO products including LTB₄ (16). Also, LTB₄ is known to be degraded and inactivated by microsomal ω-oxidation and peroxisomal β-oxidation in myeloid cells (16). To understand better the fate of AA liberated in neutrophils, we analyzed the composition of lipid products that neutrophils released to the medium when they were challenged with 1 and 10 nM exogenous hVPLA₂, respectively. The chromatogram in Fig. 3A shows that at 1 nM hVPLA₂ two main leukotriene products are 20-carboxy-LTB₄ and 20-hydroxy-LTB₄, which are produced as a consequence of LTB₄ oxidation (16). These data thus confirm that even 1 nM exogenous hVPLA₂ can induce the biosynthesis of a considerable amount of LTB₄. It appears, however, that LTB₄ is degraded relatively rapidly to oxidation products that do not cross-react with the LTB₄ antibody used in the commercial LTB₄ detection kit, hence there is no LTB₄ signal with 1 nM hVPLA₂ in Fig. 1B. With 10 nM hVPLA₂, LTB₄ was clearly seen along with other leukotrienes. As was the case with 1 nM hVPLA₂, 20-carboxy-LTB₄ was the most abundant component.

hVPLA₂-induced Activation of cPLA₂ in Neutrophils—Accumulating evidence has indicated that cPLA₂ plays a pivotal role in the receptor-mediated mobilization of AA and eicosanoid biosynthesis in neutrophils (7, 9, 20). Furthermore, several reports have indicated that exogenously added sPLA₂s activate cPLA₂ in neutrophils (8) and other mammalian cells (21, 22). Also, the occurrence of the delayed phase AA release in our studies implies that cPLA₂ is activated during or after the early phase of AA release. We therefore measured the effect of hVPLA₂ on cPLA₂ activities in neutrophils. It has been established that cPLA₂ can be activated by a rise in [Ca²⁺]_i (23) and the phosphorylation of Ser residues, most notably Ser⁵⁰⁵ (24). In neutrophils, it was shown previously that exogenously added pancreatic sPLA₂ phosphorylated and activated cPLA₂ through the formation of 5-LO products, including LTB₄ (8). To

elucidate the mechanism by which hVPLA₂ activates cPLA₂, we monitored the time-dependent changes in cPLA₂ activity and the phosphorylation by enzyme assay and electrophoretic mobility assay, respectively, upon incubating neutrophils with 10 nM hVPLA₂. First, we measured the time course of cPLA₂ activity from neutrophil lysates. To eliminate residual sPLA₂ activities in the cell lysates, the lysates were incubated with 10 mM dithiothreitol before the addition of a cPLA₂ substrate, [¹⁴C]SAPC. As shown in Fig. 4A, the cPLA₂ activity of neutrophils was enhanced by exogenously added hVPLA₂, but the time course of activation was rather complex. The cPLA₂ activity increased about 2.3-fold in first 5 min but then started to decrease until it rose again at ~10 min and reached a plateau in 20 min. As was the case with AA and LTB₄ release, it thus appears that cPLA₂ activation also occurs in two phases. Interestingly, preincubation of neutrophils with a LTB₄ receptor antagonist, LTB₄DMA (0.3 μM) abrogated the delayed phase activation of cPLA₂, suggesting that it is mediated through the binding of LTB₄ to its cell surface receptor. Because the cPLA₂ assay of the lysates was done in the presence of a saturating concentration of calcium for cPLA₂ (0.1 mM), the activity enhancement should reflect mainly the protein phosphorylation. Indeed, Fig. 4B shows that the extent of cPLA₂ phosphorylation is synchronized with the change in cPLA₂ activity shown in Fig. 4A.

We then measured the effect of exogenously added hVPLA₂ on [Ca²⁺]_i. We monitored the fluctuation of [Ca²⁺]_i with a fluorescence indicator, Fluo-4. Although UV-excitable Ca²⁺ indicators, such as Indo-1 and Fura-2, allow more accurate [Ca²⁺]_i measurement by a ratiometric analysis, we used Fluo-4 in our studies because the UV irradiation severely damages human neutrophils. We monitored the fluorescence intensity changes of Fluo-4 in the perinuclear region by confocal microscopy. As shown in Fig. 5, the addition of 10 nM hVPLA₂ evoked an immediate increase in [Ca²⁺]_i (to ~500 nM) in the perinuclear region. Interestingly, a second [Ca²⁺]_i spike was seen in the perinuclear region, which was about 50% of the first one in magnitude. The timing of the second spike varied between 10 and 15 min among different cells. As seen with the progress curve of cPLA₂ activation (see Fig. 4A), the second [Ca²⁺]_i peak was completely abrogated when the cells were pretreated with a LTB₄ receptor antagonist, LTB₄DMA. In conjunction with cPLA₂ phosphorylation data, these data suggest that the addi-

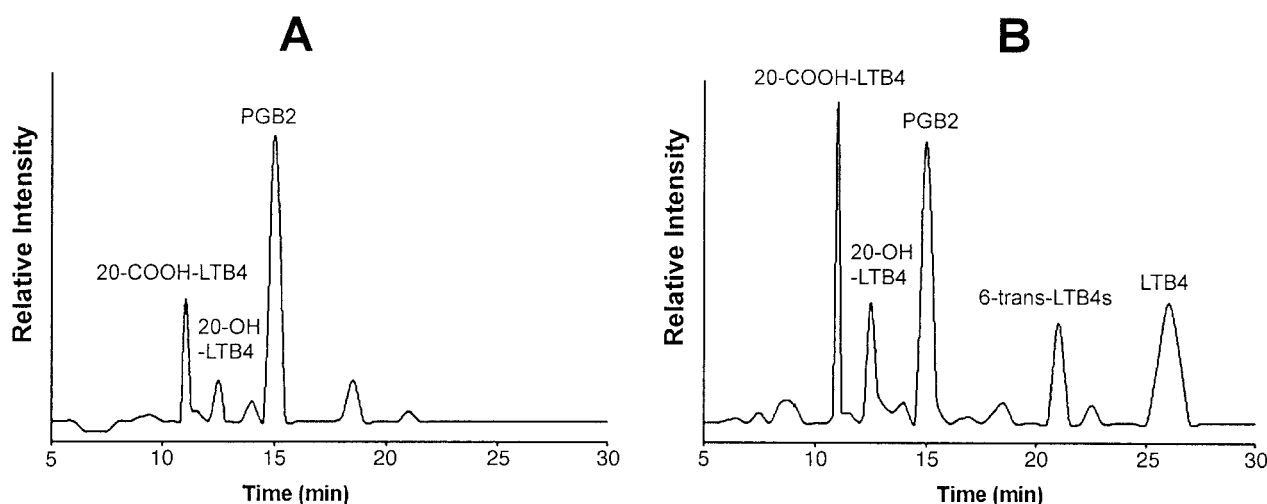
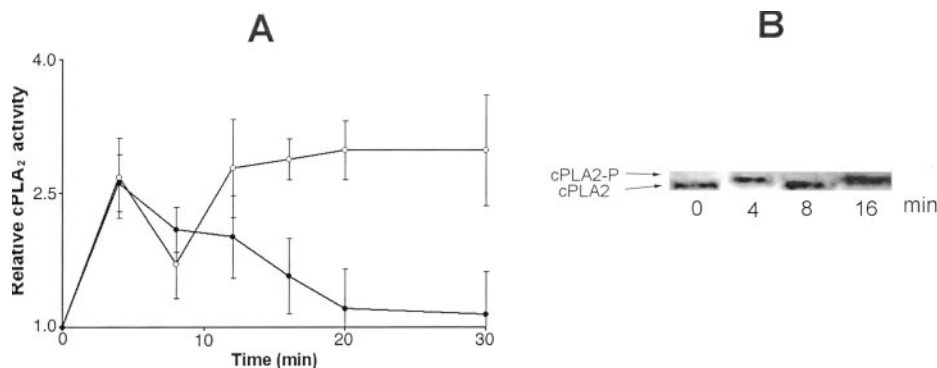


FIG. 3. HPLC-MS analysis of LTB₄ derivatives secreted from human neutrophils. Representative chromatograms are shown for neutrophils treated with 1 nM (A) and 10 nM (B) hVPLA₂. Extracts of growth medium dissolved in 10:10:80:0.02 methanol/acetonitrile/water/acetic acid (pH 5.5) with the internal standard PGB₂ were injected into a C18 reverse phase HPLC column (5 × 150 mm) that was directly interfaced with the electrospray source of a triple quadrupole mass spectrometer. The column was eluted using a linear gradient of acetonitrile/methanol (65:35) from 40 to 100%. Quantitation of individual peaks was carried out using their mass ion abundance relative to that of PGB₂.

FIG. 4. Time-dependent activation of neutrophil cPLA₂ by exogenous hVPLA₂. A, neutrophils (2 × 10⁵ cells) suspended in 200 μl of HBSS containing 1.2 mM CaCl₂ were incubated with 10 nM hVPLA₂ in the absence (●) or presence (○) of 0.3 μM LTB₄DMA for a given period and were pelleted and lysed. The cPLA₂ activity of the cell lysate was measured using [¹⁴C]SAPC as substrate in the presence of 10 mM dithiothreitol and 0.1 mM CaCl₂. Data represent the mean ± S.E. from triplicate measurements. B, immunoblotting of the cell lysates using an anti-cPLA₂ antibody after incubation with 10 nM hVPLA₂ for different periods.



tion of hVPLA₂ activates cPLA₂ by increasing the [Ca²⁺]_i and inducing cPLA₂ phosphorylation in both the early and the delayed phases and that the delayed phase activation is mediated through the binding of LTB₄ to its cell surface receptor.

Sites of hVPLA₂ and cPLA₂ Actions in Neutrophils—To determine the exact site of actions for hVPLA₂ and cPLA₂ in neutrophils, we performed a cellular PLA₂ activity assay using a fluorescent phospholipid, PED6. We recently reported the use of PED6 in the real time activity assay for hVPLA₂ internalized into human embryonic kidney 293 cells (25). Because cPLA₂ has much lower specific activity than sPLA₂ for this phospholipid (25, 26), the cellular cPLA₂ activity would yield only a low fluorescence signal from PED6 hydrolysis. To improve the sensitivity of assay for cPLA₂, we double labeled neutrophil membranes with DiIC12 and PED6. DiIC12 is a nonhydrolyzable fluorescent lipid that shows a greatly enhanced fluorescent intensity at 585 nm by FRET from hydrolyzed PED6. Indeed, the *in vitro* FRET assay using POPS/cholesterol/POPG/PED6/DiIC12 (107:31:20:1) vesicles yielded a three times larger fluorescence change than the assay using POPS/cholesterol/POPG/PED6 (107:31:20:1) vesicles in the presence of the same concentration of cPLA₂ (10 nM) (data not shown). When neutrophils double labeled with DiIC12 and PED6 were incubated with 10 nM exogenous hVPLA₂, prominent signals appeared at the plasma membrane and the perinuclear region after 5 min (Fig. 6). Because of the high laser power necessary for visualization of the signal change, real time monitoring was not attempted in this case because it would lead to serious photobleaching. Most importantly, the perinuclear signal was abro-

gated when the labeled neutrophils were pretreated with 25 μM AACOCF₃ before the addition of hVPLA₂. No change was observed, however, when the cells were treated with 10 μM bromoenol lactone. This clearly indicates that the perinuclear signal is the result of cPLA₂ activity and that hVPLA₂ primarily acts on the plasma membrane in neutrophils. Taken together, these results indicate that hVPLA₂-induced activation of cPLA₂ by calcium increase and phosphorylation results in the lipolytic action of cPLA₂ in the perinuclear region.

Effects of hVPLA₂ Products and LTB₄ on cPLA₂ Activity—To determine the mechanism by which hVPLA₂ activates cPLA₂, we first measured the effect of exogenously added lipid products of hVPLA₂, fatty acids (AA and OA) and lysophospholipids (lyso-PC) on the [³H]AA and LTB₄ release from neutrophils. Lyso-PC was selected as a representative lysophospholipid because the main phospholipid component of the outer plasma membrane of mammalian cells is phosphatidylcholine. As illustrated in Fig. 7A, 3 μM lyso-PC had the same potency as 10 nM hVPLA₂ in eliciting [³H]AA release from labeled neutrophils. Even 1 μM lyso-PC was able to induce significant [³H]AA release (data not shown). Although less potent than lyso-PC, AA was also able to induce [³H]AA release. In this case, 10 μM exogenous AA was as effective as 10 nM hVPLA₂. In contrast, OA up to 30 μM showed negligible effects on [³H]AA release. Lyso-PC and AA showed an additive effect when used in combination. A similar trend was seen with the LTB₄ release. Lyso-PC (3 μM) was nearly twice as effective as 10 nM hVPLA₂ in net LTB₄ release activity (see Fig. 7B), whereas the same concentration of AA was about 30% active. OA up to 30 μM

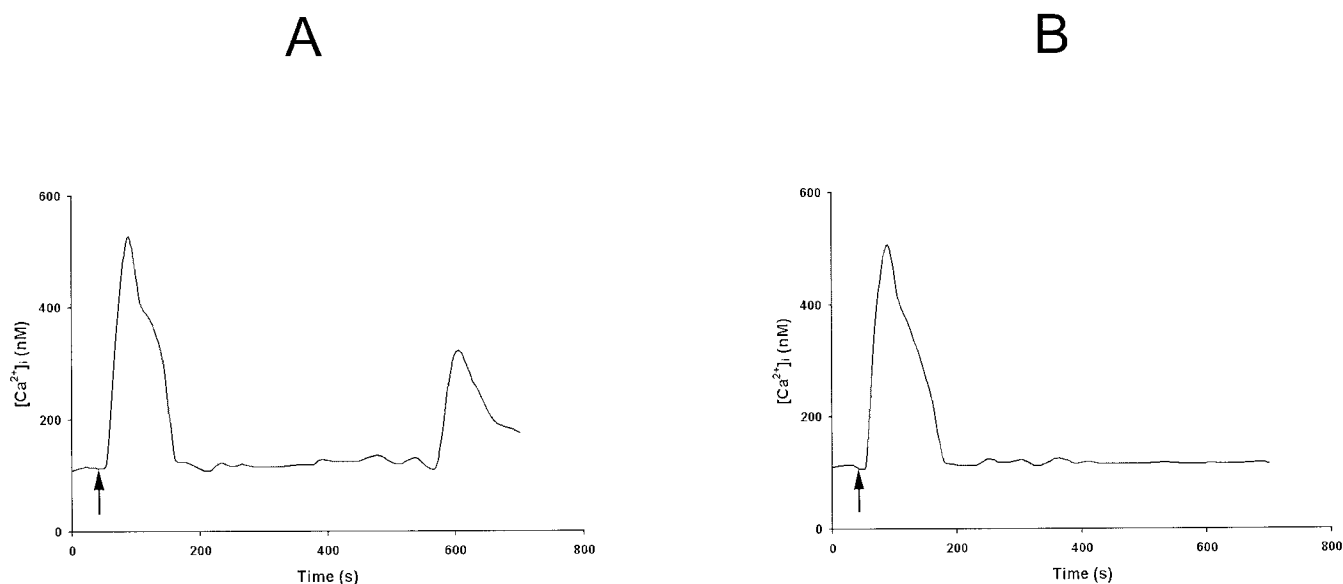


FIG. 5. Time lapse changes in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ of human neutrophils caused by exogenous hVPLA₂. The fluorescence intensity of Fluo-4 near the perinuclear region of neutrophils was monitored upon adding 10 nM hVPLA₂ (arrows), and $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ values were calculated from the intensity values using a calibration curve (see "Experimental Procedures"). $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ changes are shown for a single representative cell in the absence (A) and presence (B) of 0.3 μ M LTB₄DMA (total number of cells = 12).

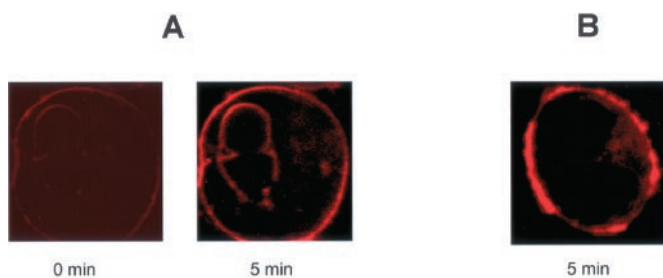


FIG. 6. Confocal microscopic imaging of PLA₂ activities in human neutrophils. A, imaging was performed after adding 10 nM hVPLA₂ to human neutrophils that were incubated with POPS/cholesterol/POPG/PED6/DiIC12 (107:31:20:1:1 in mol ratio) for 50 min at 37 °C. B, neutrophils were treated with 25 μ M AACOCF₃ before the addition of hVPLA₂.

failed to induce LTB₄ release. Given that AA constitutes only a small fraction (~5%) of fatty acids incorporated into the phospholipids in the outer plasma membrane, these data indicate that the cellular effect of hVPLA₂ is mediated largely through the formation of lyso-PC.

Interestingly, the exogenous addition of 0.3 μ M LTB₄ enhanced the [³H]AA release as much as 10 nM hVPLA₂ (Fig. 7A). Furthermore, preincubation of labeled neutrophils with 0.3 μ M LTB₄DMA significantly reduced the positive effects of hVPLA₂, lyso-PC, and AA on [³H]AA release, suggesting that a large part of their effects is mediated through the activation of LTB₄ receptors on the neutrophil surfaces. To investigate this aspect further, we measured the time course of cPLA₂ activation by lyso-PC in the presence and absence of LTB₄DMA. As described above, the cPLA₂ activity assay of the lysates was performed in the presence of 0.1 mM calcium and 10 mM dithiothreitol, and the activity enhancement should mainly reflect cPLA₂ phosphorylation. Fig. 8 shows that lyso-PC increased the cPLA₂ activity (and phosphorylation) in two phases, which is reminiscent of two-phase cPLA₂ activation and phosphorylation by exogenous hVPLA₂. Again, the delayed phase activation was abrogated by preincubation of neutrophils with LTB₄DMA. This indicates that lyso-PC induces the phosphorylation of cPLA₂ in both phases of cPLA₂ activation and that the delayed

phase phosphorylation takes place via LTB₄ formation and its receptor binding.

We also measured the effects of lyso-PC, fatty acids, and LTB₄ on the change of $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ in the perinuclear region. It has been reported that AA (27) and LTB₄ (28) can increase $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ in human neutrophils. We also observed that 3 μ M AA or 0.3 μ M LTB₄ rapidly enhanced $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ in the perinuclear region to 400–600 nM. Similarly, 3 μ M lyso-PC spontaneously raised $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ to 500 nM in the perinuclear region as shown in Fig. 9. These effects on $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ are reminiscent of the effect of hVPLA₂ illustrated in Fig. 5. Finally, OA up to 10 μ M had no effect on $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ (data not shown).

MAP Kinases Involved in cPLA₂ Phosphorylation—It has been reported that cPLA₂ is phosphorylated and activated by different kinases in mammalian cells (29–35). In neutrophils, cPLA₂ was shown to be phosphorylated by p38 MAP kinase, ERK1/2 MAP kinase, or both, depending on how neutrophils are activated (20, 36). To determine how these MAP kinases are involved in the hVPLA₂-induced cPLA₂ activation and LTB₄ biosynthesis in neutrophils, we first measured the effect of hVPLA₂ on p38 and ERK1/2 MAP kinase activation. Phosphorylation of these MAP kinases is commonly used as an indicator of their activation. As shown in Fig. 10A, hVPLA₂ caused a time-dependent phosphorylation of p38 and ERK1/2 MAP kinases. The phosphorylation of ERK1/2 exhibited a biphasic pattern, peaking at 5 and 20 min, respectively, but the delayed phase phosphorylation was more pronounced. In contrast, p38 phosphorylation peaked at 10 min and declined thereafter. This suggests that both p38 and ERK1/2 MAP kinases are involved in the early phase cPLA₂ phosphorylation, whereas ERK1/2 plays a predominant role in the delayed phase cPLA₂ phosphorylation. To test this notion, we measured the effects on the time course of cPLA₂ activation of specific inhibitors of two MAP kinase pathways: SB203580, which specifically inhibits p38 MAP kinase (37), and U0126, which specifically inhibits MEK, which is an upstream kinase of ERK1/2 (38). As shown in Fig. 10B, 30 μ M SB203580 significantly inhibited the early phase cPLA₂ activation with a lesser effect on the delayed phase. 10 μ M U0126, however, had a much more pronounced effect on the delayed phase cPLA₂ activation while also showing a significant effect on the early phase. Together,

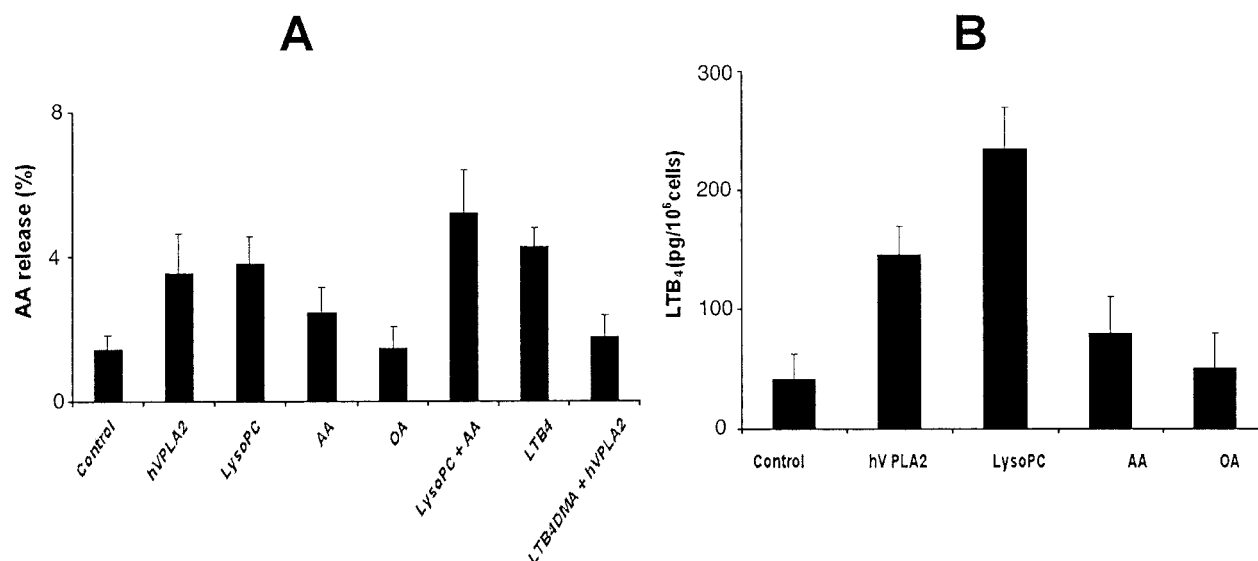


FIG. 7. Effects of hVPLA₂ hydrolysis products and LTB₄ on neutrophil activation. AA (A) and LTB₄ (B) release was measured after neutrophils were treated with each agonist (10 nM hVPLA₂, 3 μ M AA, 3 μ M OA, 3 μ M lyso-PC, 0.3 μ M LTB₄, or 0.3 μ M LTB₄DMA) for 20 min. Data represent the mean \pm S.E. from triplicate measurements.

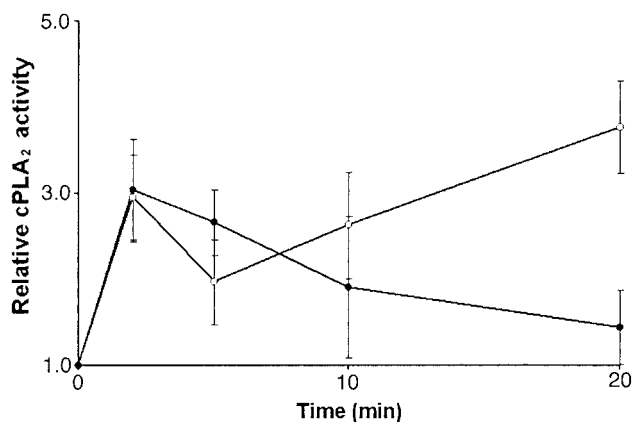


FIG. 8. Time-dependent activation of neutrophil cPLA₂ by exogenous lyso-PC. The effect of 3 μ M lyso-PC was measured in the absence (○) and presence (●) of 0.3 μ M LTB₄DMA. Experimental conditions were the same as described for Fig. 4. Data represent the mean \pm S.E. from triplicate measurements.

these results indicate that both ERK1/2 and p38 MAP kinases are involved in the early phase of the hVPLA₂-induced cPLA₂ activation in neutrophils, whereas ERK1/2 is involved primarily in the delayed phase.

DISCUSSION

Neutrophils that play a key role in defense against microbial infection release AA, LTB₄, and other 5-LO products in response to various stimuli, including bacterial peptides. Recent studies on fMLP-induced activation of human neutrophils have indicated that both sPLA₂ and cPLA₂ are involved in AA release (9), whereas cPLA₂ is responsible primarily for LTB₄ release (7). We showed previously that exogenously added hVPLA₂ could also elicit the release of AA and LTB₄ from unprimed human neutrophils almost as effectively as fMLP (10). This neutrophil activation involves the direct binding of hVPLA₂ to the outer plasma membrane and the hydrolysis of phosphatidylcholine (10) and is terminated by the internalization and degradation of cell surface-bound hVPLA₂ in a heparan sulfate proteoglycan-dependent manner (11). The present study shows that exogenous hVPLA₂ as low as 1 nM is able to induce AA and LTB₄ release from unprimed human neutrophils. Furthermore, the study reveals that the hVPLA₂-in-

duced formation of AA and leukotrienes in human neutrophils is a complex and dynamic process that involves cPLA₂ activation by [Ca²⁺]_i increase and phosphorylation. The most salient feature of hVPLA₂-induced neutrophil activation is the two-phase kinetics. All phenomena associated with neutrophil activation, AA and LTB₄ release, [Ca²⁺]_i increase, and cPLA₂ phosphorylation, follow similar two-phase kinetic patterns.

The time course of hVPLA₂-induced OA release as well as the effect of cPLA₂ inhibition on the time course of hVPLA₂-induced AA release indicate that both hVPLA₂ and cPLA₂ contribute to the early phase AA release, whereas cPLA₂ is responsible primarily for the delayed phase. Also, the primary sites of action for hVPLA₂ and cPLA₂ are the outer plasma membrane and the perinuclear region, respectively (see Fig. 6). Given that the AA composition of neutrophil plasma membrane is less than 5% (39) and that cell surface-bound hVPLA₂ is readily internalized and degraded (11), a relatively high concentration of exogenous hVPLA₂ would be necessary to liberate a significant amount of AA from the outer plasma membrane. Indeed, direct AA production by hVPLA₂ becomes significant only when its concentration reaches 10 nM (see Fig. 1A). Importantly, the abrogation of LTB₄ release in the presence of cPLA₂ inhibitors points to the predominant role of cPLA₂ in LTB₄ biosynthesis under our experimental conditions. This in turn indicates that the AA liberated from the outer plasma membrane of neutrophils by direct lipolytic action of hVPLA₂ in the early phase is not conducive to LTB₄ biosynthesis by 5-LO. Thus, it would seem that the primary role of this hVPLA₂-produced AA is to activate cPLA₂. In fact, AA and other polyunsaturated fatty acids have been shown to activate cPLA₂ in neutrophils (40). In this regard, it is noteworthy that lyso-PC is about three times more potent than AA in inducing LTB₄ biosynthesis in neutrophils. Also, lyso-PC should be produced in a much larger amount than AA and polyunsaturated fatty acids from the outer plasma membrane of neutrophils because of the abundance of phosphatidylcholine. This and other results presented herein support the notion that hVPLA₂-induced activation of neutrophils is largely mediated by lyso-PC. Lyso-PC species containing a saturated acyl chain in the sn-1 position, including the palmitoyl derivative employed in this study, have been shown to activate a cell surface G protein-coupled receptor (41) and thereby regulate a broad range of cell processes, including increases in cAMP (42) and [Ca²⁺]_i (41) and the activation of

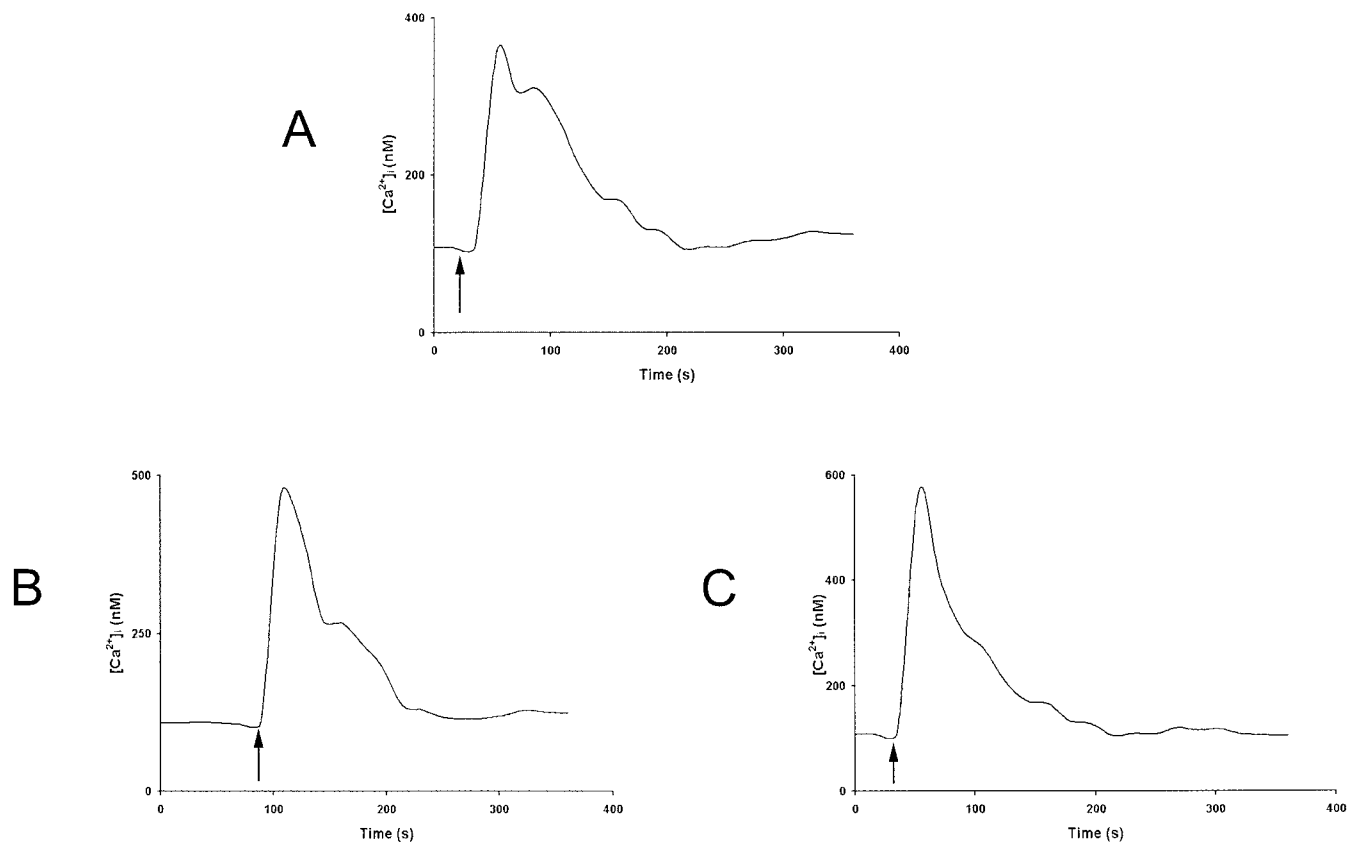
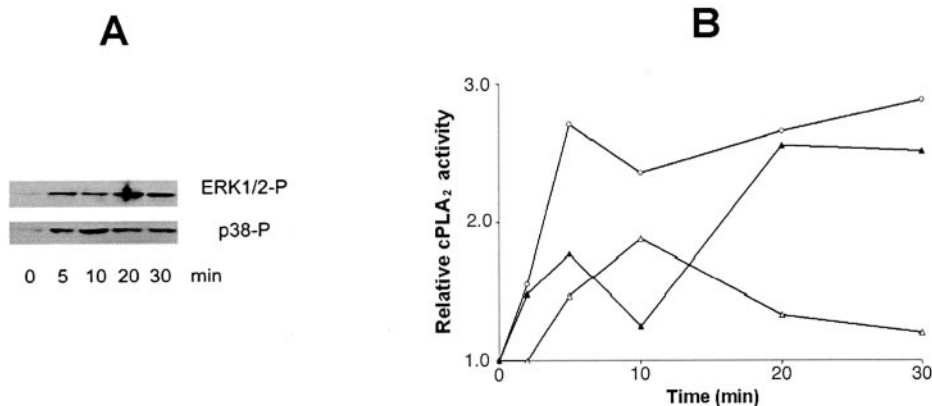


FIG. 9. Time lapse changes in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ of human neutrophils caused by AA (A), lyso-PC (B), and LTB_4 (C). Experimental conditions were the same as described for Fig. 5.

FIG. 10. MAP kinase activation in hVPLA₂-induced neutrophil activation. A, time lapse phosphorylation of ERK1/2 and p38 MAP kinases in human neutrophils treated with 10 nM hVPLA₂. B, effect of the p38 inhibitor SB203580 and MEK inhibitor U0126 on neutrophil cPLA₂ activation. Untreated neutrophils (○) and neutrophils pretreated with 30 μ M SB203580 (▲) and 10 μ M U0126 (△), respectively, were incubated with 10 nM hVPLA₂ and the cPLA₂ activity measured. Experimental conditions were the same as described for Fig. 4. Data represent an average of duplicate measurements.



MAP kinase (41) and protein kinase C (43). In particular, 100 μ M lyso-PC was shown to induce AA release and increase $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ in rat heart myoblastic H9c2 cells (43). In our study, a few micromolar lyso-PC effectively simulated all activities of hVPLA₂ on human neutrophils, including AA and LTB_4 release, a rise in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$, and cPLA₂ phosphorylation. In particular, lyso-PC activates cPLA₂ by inducing both $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ increase and cPLA₂ phosphorylation in both early and delayed phases. A rise in Ca^{2+} by lyso-PC would also activate 5-LO by inducing its translocation to the nuclear envelope (44), thereby promoting LTB_4 synthesis.

It has been shown that LTB_4 can activate neutrophils by an autocrine, positive feedback mechanism (49). Neutrophils contain a cell surface G protein-coupled LTB_4 receptor (50), and the binding of LTB_4 to the receptor leads to various cells activation, including a rise in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ and the MAP kinase activation (50). It was shown previously that the agonist-induced biosynthesis of LTB_4 in neutrophils leads to cPLA₂ phospho-

rylation (8). Our results clearly show that the biosynthesis of LTB_4 and its binding to the cell surface receptor play a pivotal role in the delayed phase of hVPLA₂-induced cPLA₂ activation by causing both a rise in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ and cPLA₂ phosphorylation. Because blocking the LTB_4 receptor with LTB_4 DMA abrogates the $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ increase and the cPLA₂ phosphorylation only in the delayed phase, it is unlikely that LTB_4 is involved in the early phase cPLA₂ activation that is mediated primarily by lyso-PC (and polyunsaturated fatty acids). Our results also indicate that a certain threshold concentration of LTB_4 is required for its positive feedback effect because of the relatively rapid oxidative degradation of LTB_4 in neutrophils. In the case of neutrophil activation by exogenous hVPLA₂, this threshold concentration of LTB_4 is achieved by \sim 10 nM hVPLA₂. The threshold LTB_4 concentration was not determined directly in this study because of difficulties involved in distinguishing between exogenous and endogenous LTB_4 .

In neutrophils, cPLA₂ is phosphorylated by p38 MAP kinase,

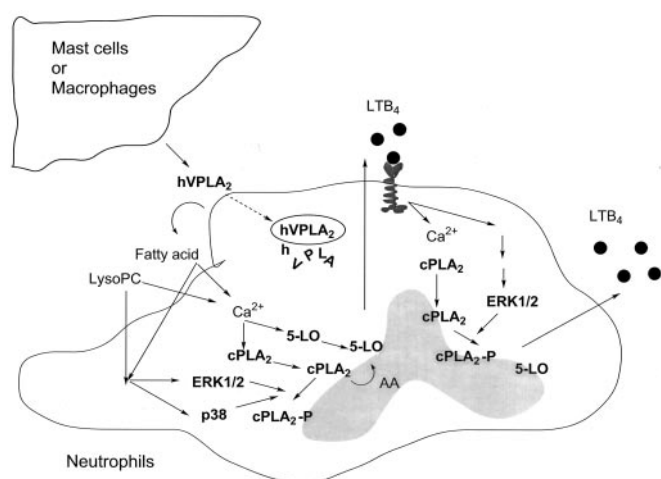


FIG. 11. A proposed mechanism of hvPLA₂-induced LTB₄ biosynthesis in human neutrophils. Arrows indicate the flow of signaling pathways, and the broken arrow indicates the internalization. The secreted hvPLA₂ acts directly on the outer cell membranes of neutrophils to release fatty acids (including AA) and lyso-PC, both of which can induce the immediate membrane translocation of 5-LO and cPLA₂ by increasing [Ca²⁺]. They also activate cPLA₂ via phosphorylation. At the same time, activated 5-LO produces and releases LTB₄, which binds the cell surface LTB₄ receptor in an autocrine manner and triggers a MAP kinase cascade to phosphorylate and activate cPLA₂ in the delayed phase. This delayed phase phosphorylation of cPLA₂ will then lead to amplified and prolonged production of AA, LTB₄, and other eicosanoids.

ERK1/2, or both, depending on the nature of agonists (20). Although the identification of the network of protein kinases involved in hvPLA₂-induced cPLA₂ phosphorylation and the site of cPLA₂ phosphorylation are beyond the scope of this investigation, our results indicate that both ERK1/2 and p38 MAP kinases are involved in the early phase cPLA₂ activation, whereas ERK1/2 is involved primarily in the delayed phase. The direct role of ERK1/2 in cPLA₂ phosphorylation in neutrophils has been well documented. In particular, LTB₄ was shown to activate ERK1/2 (45) but not p38 MAP kinase (46). This is consistent with our finding that ERK1/2 is involved mainly in the delayed phase cPLA₂ phosphorylation that is mediated by the binding of LTB₄ to its receptor. It has been shown that lyso-PC (43) and AA (and other polyunsaturated fatty acids) (47) can activate protein kinase C. Furthermore, the phorbol ester-induced activation of protein kinase C in neutrophils was shown to phosphorylate cPLA₂ via ERK1/2 activation (20). Thus, it appears that at least one signaling pathway to cPLA₂ phosphorylation in the early phase involves the protein kinase C activation that leads to ERK1/2 activation. A previous study reported that AA stimulated p38 phosphorylation in neutrophils (48). Thus, AA and polyunsaturated fatty acids released by hvPLA₂ might be responsible for the p38 phosphorylation in the early phase of neutrophil activation by hvPLA₂. It is not clear, however, whether the activated p38 is directly or indirectly involved in cPLA₂ phosphorylation. Further studies are necessary to sort out the effects of different protein kinases in the activation of cPLA₂ in neutrophils.

On the basis of our present and previous studies, we propose a mechanism by which hvPLA₂ induces the LTB₄ biosynthesis in human neutrophils as shown in Fig. 11. In this model, hvPLA₂ directly acts on the outer cell membranes of neutrophils to release fatty acids (including AA) and lysophospholipids, most likely lyso-PC. Both polyunsaturated fatty acids (including AA) and lyso-PC induce the immediate membrane translocation of 5-LO and cPLA₂ with transient Ca²⁺ influx. Also, they activate cPLA₂ via phosphorylation, which leads to

the liberation of AA at the perinuclear region. cPLA₂ activated by hvPLA₂ products then returns to the resting state as cells internalize hvPLA₂ via heparan sulfate proteoglycan binding and degrade them to avoid extensive lipolytic damage of the outer plasma membrane. In the meantime, activated 5-LO produces LTB₄, which binds the cell surface LTB₄ receptor in an autocrine manner and triggers a MAP kinase cascade to rephosphorylate and reactivate cPLA₂ in the delayed phase. This delayed phase phosphorylation of cPLA₂ will then lead to amplified and prolonged production of AA, LTB₄, and other eicosanoids.

It should be noted that this model focuses mainly on the action of exogenous hvPLA₂ on neutrophils but not on the role of endogenous hvPLA₂ in neutrophil activation. Based on the lack of LTB₄ release from human neutrophils stimulated with fMLP and cytochalasin B, it was postulated that the endogenous hvPLA₂ in neutrophils is not involved in LTB₄ biosynthesis (7). In this report, the concentration of hvPLA₂ released from neutrophils by fMLP and cytochalasin B was estimated to be in the low nanomolar range (7). Our study shows that even this concentration of hvPLA₂ can induce the formation of a significant amount of LTB₄ but cannot trigger the receptor-mediated positive feedback effect because of rapid oxidative degradation. However, the amount of hvPLA₂ in human neutrophils seems to vary to a large extent depending on the allergic state of donors (52),² suggesting that higher concentrations of endogenous hvPLA₂ could be secreted by activated neutrophils. Furthermore, the sPLA₂ concentration in serum and inflammatory exudates was reported to be much higher (51). In particular, mast cells and macrophages release a significant amount of group V PLA₂ in response to different stimuli.² It is therefore likely that exogenous hvPLA₂ is able to trigger LTB₄ biosynthesis in neutrophils, either alone or in combination with other stimuli, under pathophysiological conditions. Undoubtedly, further studies are necessary to address this important question.

REFERENCES

- Valentin, E., and Lambeau, G. (2000) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* **1488**, 59–70
- Leslie, C. C. (1997) *J. Biol. Chem.* **272**, 16709–16712
- Balsinde, J., and Dennis, E. A. (1997) *J. Biol. Chem.* **272**, 16069–16072
- Balsinde, J., Balboa, M. A., and Dennis, E. A. (1998) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* **95**, 7951–7956
- Murakami, M., Shimbara, S., Kambe, T., Kuwata, H., Winstead, M. V., Tischfield, J. A., and Kudo, I. (1998) *J. Biol. Chem.* **273**, 14411–14423
- Murakami, M., Kambe, T., Shimbara, S., and Kudo, I. (1999) *J. Biol. Chem.* **274**, 3103–3115
- Degouee, N., Ghomashchi, F., Stefanski, E., Singer, A., Smart, B. P., Borregaard, N., Reithmeier, R., Lindsay, T. F., Lichtenberger, C., Reinisch, W., Lambeau, G., Arm, J., Tischfield, J., Gelb, M. H., and Rubin, B. B. (2002) *J. Biol. Chem.* **277**, 5061–5073
- Wijkander, J., O'Flaherty, J. T., Nixon, A. B., and Wykle, R. L. (1995) *J. Biol. Chem.* **270**, 26543–26549
- Marshall, J., Krump, E., Lindsay, T., Downey, G., Ford, D. A., Zhu, P., Walker, P., and Rubin, B. (2000) *J. Immunol.* **164**, 2084–2091
- Han, S. K., Kim, K. P., Koduri, R., Bittova, L., Munoz, N. M., Leff, A. R., Wilton, D. C., Gelb, M. H., and Cho, W. (1999) *J. Biol. Chem.* **274**, 11881–11888
- Kim, K. P., Rafter, J. D., Bittova, L., Han, S. K., Snitko, Y., Munoz, N. M., Leff, A. R., and Cho, W. (2001) *J. Biol. Chem.* **276**, 11126–11134
- Snitko, Y., Koduri, R., Han, S.-K., Othman, R., Baker, S. F., Molini, B. J., Wilton, D. C., Gelb, M. H., and Cho, W. (1997) *Biochemistry* **36**, 14325–14333
- Han, S.-K., Yoon, E. T., and Cho, W. (1998) *Biochem. J.* **331**, 353–357
- Hansel, T. T., de Vries, I. J. M., Iff, T., Rihs, S., Wandzilak, M., Betz, S., Blaser, K., and Walker, C. (1992) *J. Immunol. Methods* **145**, 105–110
- Gee, K. R., Brown, K. A., Chen, W. N., Bishop-Stewart, J., Gray, D., and Johnson, I. (2000) *Cell Calcium* **27**, 97–106
- Sala, A., Bolla, M., Zarini, S., Muller-Peddinghaus, R., and Folco, G. (1996) *J. Biol. Chem.* **271**, 17944–17948
- Sala, A., Zarini, S., Folco, G., Murphy, R. C., and Henson, P. M. (1999) *J. Biol. Chem.* **274**, 28264–28269
- Street, I. P., Lin, H. K., Laliberte, F., Ghomashchi, F., Wang, Z., Perrier, H., Tremblay, N. M., Huang, Z., Weech, P. K., and Gelb, M. H. (1993) *Biochemistry* **32**, 5935–5940

² N. Munoz, A. Leff, and W. Cho, unpublished observation.

19. Kim, K., Jung, S. Y., Lee, D. K., Jung, J. K., Park, J. K., Kim, D. K., and Lee, C. H. (1998) *Biochem. Pharmacol.* **55**, 975–985
20. Syrbu, S. I., Waterman, W. H., Molski, T. F., Nagarkatti, D., Hajjar, J. J., and Sha'afi, R. I. (1999) *J. Immunol.* **162**, 2334–2340
21. Hernandez, M., Burillo, S. L., Crespo, M. S., and Nieto, M. L. (1998) *J. Biol. Chem.* **273**, 606–612
22. Anthonen, M. W., Solhaug, A., and Johansen, B. (2001) *J. Biol. Chem.* **276**, 30527–30536
23. Clark, J. D., Lin, L. L., Kriz, R. W., Ramesha, C. S., Sultzman, L. A., Lin, A. Y., Milona, N., and Knopf, J. L. (1991) *Cell* **65**, 1043–1051
24. Lin, L. L., Lin, A. Y., and Knopf, J. L. (1992) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* **89**, 6147–6151
25. Kim, Y. J., Kim, K. P., Rhee, H. J., Das, S., Rafter, J. D., Oh, Y. S., and Cho, W. (2002) *J. Biol. Chem.* **277**, 9358–9365
26. Hendrickson, H. S., Hendrickson, E. K., Johnson, I. D., and Farber, S. A. (1999) *Anal. Biochem.* **276**, 27–35
27. Naccache, P. H., McColl, S. R., Caon, A. C., and Borgeat, P. (1989) *Br. J. Pharmacol.* **97**, 461–468
28. Goldman, D. W., Gifford, L. A., Olson, D. M., and Goetzl, E. J. (1985) *J. Immunol.* **135**, 525–530
29. Lin, L. L., Wartmann, M., Lin, A. Y., Knopf, J. L., Seth, A., and Davis, R. J. (1993) *Cell* **72**, 269–278
30. Qiu, Z. H., and Leslie, C. C. (1994) *J. Biol. Chem.* **269**, 19480–19487
31. Borsch-Haubold, A. G., Kramer, R. M., and Watson, S. P. (1995) *J. Biol. Chem.* **270**, 25885–25892
32. Kramer, R. M., Roberts, E. F., Hyslop, P. A., Utterback, B. G., Hui, K. Y., and Jakubowski, J. A. (1995) *J. Biol. Chem.* **270**, 14816–14823
33. de Carvalho, M. G., McCormack, A. L., Olson, E., Ghomashchi, F., Gelb, M. H., Yates, J. R., III, and Leslie, C. C. (1996) *J. Biol. Chem.* **271**, 6987–6997
34. Hefner, Y., Borsch-Haubold, A. G., Murakami, M., Wilde, J. I., Pasquet, S., Schieltz, D., Ghomashchi, F., Yates, J. R., III, Armstrong, C. G., Paterson, A., Cohen, P., Fukunaga, R., Hunter, T., Kudo, I., Watson, S. P., and Gelb, M. H. (2000) *J. Biol. Chem.* **275**, 37542–37551
35. Muthalif, M. M., Hefner, Y., Canaan, S., Harper, J., Zhou, H., Parmentier, J. H., Aebbersold, R., Gelb, M. H., and Malik, K. U. (2001) *J. Biol. Chem.* **276**, 39653–39660
36. Nahas, N., Waterman, W. H., and Sha'afi, R. I. (1996) *Biochem. J.* **313**, 503–508
37. Cuenda, A., Rouse, J., Doza, Y. N., Meier, R., Cohen, P., Gallagher, T. F., Young, P. R., and Lee, J. C. (1995) *FEBS Lett.* **364**, 229–233
38. Favata, M. F., Horiuchi, K. Y., Manos, E. J., Daulerio, A. J., Stradley, D. A., Feeser, W. S., Van Dyk, D. E., Pitts, W. J., Earl, R. A., Hobbs, F., Copeland, R. A., Magolda, R. L., Scherle, P. A., and Trzaskos, J. M. (1998) *J. Biol. Chem.* **273**, 18623–18632
39. MacDonald, J. I., and Sprecher, H. (1989) *J. Biol. Chem.* **264**, 17718–17726
40. Robinson, B. S., Hii, C. S., and Ferrante, A. (1998) *Biochem. J.* **336**, 611–617
41. Kabarowski, J. H., Zhu, K., Le, L. Q., Witte, O. N., and Xu, Y. (2001) *Science* **293**, 702–705
42. Yuan, Y., Schoenwaelder, S. M., Salem, H. H., and Jackson, S. P. (1996) *J. Biol. Chem.* **271**, 27090–27098
43. Golfman, L. S., Haughey, N. J., Wong, J. T., Jiang, J. Y., Lee, D., Geiger, J. D., and Choy, P. C. (1999) *J. Lipid Res.* **40**, 1818–1826
44. Brock, T. G., McNish, R. W., Bailie, M. B., and Peters-Golden, M. (1997) *J. Biol. Chem.* **272**, 8276–8280
45. Thompson, H. L., Marshall, C. J., and Saklatvala, J. (1994) *J. Biol. Chem.* **269**, 9486–9492
46. Huang, R., Lian, J. P., Robinson, D., and Badwey, J. A. (1998) *Mol. Cell. Biol.* **18**, 7130–7138
47. McPhail, L. C., Clayton, C. C., and Snyderman, R. (1984) *Science* **224**, 622–625
48. Hii, C. S., Huang, Z. H., Bilney, A., Costabile, M., Murray, A. W., Rathjen, D. A., Der, C. J., and Ferrante, A. (1998) *J. Biol. Chem.* **273**, 19277–19282
49. McDonald, P. P., McColl, S. R., Braquet, P., and Borgeat, P. (1994) *Br. J. Pharmacol.* **111**, 852–860
50. Yokomizo, T., Izumi, T., Chang, K., Takuwa, Y., and Shimizu, T. (1997) *Nature* **387**, 620–624
51. Nevalainen, T. J., Haapamaki, M. M., and Gronroos, J. M. (2000) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* **1488**, 83–90
52. Cho, W. (2000) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* **1488**, 48–58