Cell, Vol. 81, 641-650, May 19, 1995, Copyright © 1995 by Cell Press

Altered Responses to Bacterial Infection and Endotoxic Shock in Mice Lacking Inducible Nitric Oxide Synthase

John D. MacMicking, *† Carl Nathan, † Gary Hom, ‡ Nicole Chartrain,[‡] Daniel S. Fletcher,[‡] Myrna Trumbauer,[‡] Karia Stevens,[‡] Qiao-wen Xie,[†] Karen Sokol,§ Nancy Hutchinson,[‡] Howard Chen,[‡] and John S. Mudgett*‡ [†]Beatrice and Samuel A. Seaver Laboratory Department of Medicine **Cornell University Medical College** New York, New York 10021 [‡]Departments of Immunology and Inflammation **Basic Animal Sciences Research** and Laboratory Animal Resources Merck Research Laboratories Rahway, New Jersey 07065 §Laboratory Animal Research Center The Rockefeller University New York, New York 10021

Summary

Mice deficient in inducible nitric oxide synthase (iNOS) were generated to test the idea that iNOS defends the host against infectious agents and tumor cells at the risk of contributing to tissue damage and shock. iNOS^{-/-} mice failed to restrain the replication of Listeria monocytogenes in vivo or lymphoma cells in vitro. Bacterial endotoxic lipopolysaccharide (LPS) caused shock and death in anesthetized wild-type mice, but in iNOS-/- mice, the fall in central arterial blood pressure was markedly attenuated and early death averted. However, unanesthetized iNOS^{-/-} mice suffered as much LPS-induced liver damage as wild type, and when primed with Propionobacterium acnes and challenged with LPS, they succumbed at the same rate as wild type. Thus, there exist both iNOS-dependent and iNOS-independent routes to LPS-induced hypotension and death.

Introduction

Nitric oxide (NO) participates in the physiologic and pathophysiologic regulation of every mammalian organ system (Moncada et al., 1991; Nathan and Xie, 1994b). Three known NO synthases (NOSs) encoded by distinct genes are activated by binding calmodulin, but one of them, NOS2, does so without requiring an agonist-induced elevation of the intracellular Ca²⁺ concentration (Nathan and Xie, 1994b). Instead, the chief means of activation of NOS2 is its transcriptional induction by cytokines and microbial products (Xie et al., 1992). The independence of NOS2 from reliance on elevated Ca²⁺ led to the designation iNOS (Xie et al., 1992) and confers the capacity for sustained production of NO. High-output NO production by macrophages, hepatocytes, chondrocytes, endothelial cells, fibroblasts, smooth myocytes, cardiac myocytes, and other cells appears to restrict the replication of helminths, protozoa, bacteria, viruses, and tumor cells at the potential cost of inflammatory damage to host cells and tissues (Hibbs et al., 1987; Stuehr and Nathan, 1989; Nathan and Hibbs, 1991; Karupiah et al., 1993; Nathan and Xie, 1994a, 1994b).

Functions unique to iNOS have not been adequately defined with pharmacologic inhibitors. To varying degrees, inhibitors of iNOS activity also affect NOS1 (constitutively expressed in neurons, skeletal muscle, renal mesangial cells, and pancreatic islets) and NOS3 (constitutive in endothelium, neurons, and epithelial cells) and, like all drugs, do or may have side effects. Further, the diversity of the molecular origins, targets, and actions of NO makes it difficult to anticipate the consequences of inhibiting its production in disease. Animals genetically deficient in NOSs bypass these issues; mice lacking NOS1 or NOS3 have been generated (Huang et al., 1993; P. Huang, personal communication). Herein are described mice (iNOS^{-/-}) whose NOS2 gene has been inactivated through homologous recombination. These mice allowed us to test the concept that iNOS is a two-edged sword, an enzyme that defends the host against infection, but at substantial risk.

Results

Generation of iNOS-Deficient Mice

Overlapping cosmid clones were isolated comprising a 72 kb mouse genomic contig that contained ~36 kb of the NOS2 locus plus 36 kb of upstream sequences. The gene replacement vector pINOS-RV1 was designed to delete the proximal 585 bases of the iNOS promoter, a region required for iNOS expression in macrophages (Xie et al., 1993), plus exons 1-4, including the ATG translational start site in exon 2 (Figure 1A). The targeting vector was electroporated into mouse embryonic stem (ES) cells. Two karyotypically normal targeted clones were isolated at frequencies of 1:937 with coelectroporation of herpes simplex virus thymidine kinase (HSV-tk) and ~ 1:4000 without HSV-tk (Figures 1B-1D). Only the latter clone gave germline transmission from coat color chimeric mice generated by blastocyst injection. From these we derived viable, homozygous knockout mice (Figure 1E).

Southern blot hybridization analysis of wild-type mice using iNOS cDNA fragments as probes, including the region described as duplicated in rat based on reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (PCR) (Mohaupt et al., 1994), detected only single hybridizing genomic fragments in the mouse, and these mapped to the *NOS2* allele contained in the overlapping cosmids of Figure 1A. In iNOS^{-/-} mice, Southern blot hybridization was negative with sequences from exons 1, 2, and 4 (data not shown). Thus, mice have only one *NOS2* allele, and in iNOS^{-/-} mice its, 5' sequences are deleted.

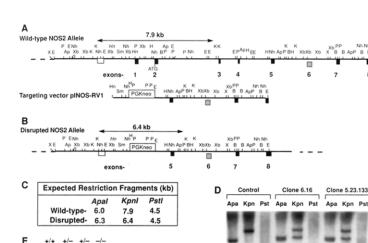


Figure 1. Targeted Disruption of the Murine NOS2 Gene

(A) Map of the 5' end of NOS2 locus and the targeting vector pINOS-RV1. Closed boxes denote exons 1–8. Location of exon 6 (stippled box) is approximate. Exon 2 contains the translation start site ATG. Restriction enzyme abbreviations: Ap, Apal; B, BamHI; E, EcoRI; H, HindIII; Hn, HincII; K, KpnI; Nh, Nhel; P, PstI; Xb, XbaI; X, XhoI. Open box indicates position of the 5' KpnI–EcoRI probe used for Southern blot hybridization in (C)–(E); arrows mark diagnostic KpnI fragments.

(B) Predicted map of the disrupted allele.

(C) Expected sizes for Apal, Kpnl, and Pstl restriction fragments.

(D) Southern blot hybridization analysis of genomic DNA from control ES cells (129/Sv ES cell line D3) and NOS2-targeted clones 6.16 and 5.23,133.

(E) Southern blot hybridization of Kpnldigested genomic DNA from tail biopsies of F1 intercross progeny.

Extent and Selectivity of iNOS Deficiency

Wild-type

The extent and selectivity of iNOS deficiency in vivo were evaluated by organ Northern blots. After wild-type mice were injected with endotoxic bacterial lipopolysaccharide (LPS), their hearts, kidneys, lungs, and spleens contained iNOS mRNA, but none was detected in iNOS^{-/-} mice using a cDNA probe for exons 2–8 (Figure 2). In contrast, mRNAs for *NOS1* (in brain) and *NOS3* (in most organs) were neither diminished along with nor increased in compensation for iNOS deficiency (Figure 2). Expression of *NOS3* decreased in heart following injection of LPS, similar to observations with endothelial cells in vitro (Nishida et al., 1992; MacNaul and Hutchinson, 1993). *NOS3* mRNA in heart from untreated mice cross-hybridized faintly with iNOS probes (nucleotides 200–1017 and 1595–2468) (Figure 2; data not shown).

At the cellular level, the analysis focused on peritoneal macrophages, in which mammalian production of inorganic oxides of nitrogen was initially demonstrated in vitro (Stuehr and Marletta, 1985), in which a function of NO production was discerned (Hibbs et al., 1987) and from which iNOS was purified (Stuehr et al., 1991) and cloned (Lyons et al., 1992; Xie et al., 1992; Lowenstein et al., 1992). Peritoneal macrophages of iNOS-/- mice lacked iNOS mRNA (Figure 3A), protein (Figure 3B), and enzyme activity (Figure 3C) with every inductive regimen tested that led to iNOS expression in wild-type mice. Thus, macrophages from iNOS-/- mice were deficient in producing NO not only in response to the combination of interferon-y $(IFN\gamma)$ plus LPS, but also with an inductive regimen that was independent of IFN γ (namely, IFN α/β plus LPS), even though the primary IFNy response element in the NOS2 promoter, IRF-E (Kamijo et al., 1994; Martin et al., 1994), was not deleted. Likewise, these cells were deficient in producing NO in response to inductive regimens independent of LPS (namely, IFNy alone or together with tumor necrosis factor α [TNF α]).

The respiratory burst of activated macrophages closely

resembles the high-output NO pathway in that it is a major IFNy-enhanced antimicrobial mechanism that consists of NADPH-, O2-, FAD-, and cytochrome-dependent generation of a cytotoxic, inorganic radical gas (superoxide). Macrophages from iNOS^{-/-} mice activated in vivo with IFN γ plus LPS preserved their respiratory burst capacity. This was assessed by release of the dismutation product of superoxide, H₂O₂, following triggering by phorbol myristate acetate, bacillus Calmette-Guérin, or Listeria monocytogenes (Figure 3D). The modest increase in respiratory burst of macrophages from iNOS-/- compared with wildtype mice is consistent with the enhancement in H₂O₂ release from wild-type macrophages seen with a NOS inhibitor (Ding et al., 1988) and suggests that NO may normally damage the respiratory burst oxidase (Clancy et al., 1992), compete for NADPH, or react with some of the superoxide,

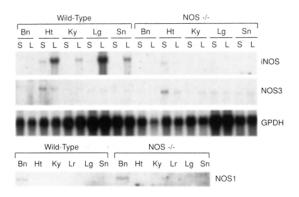
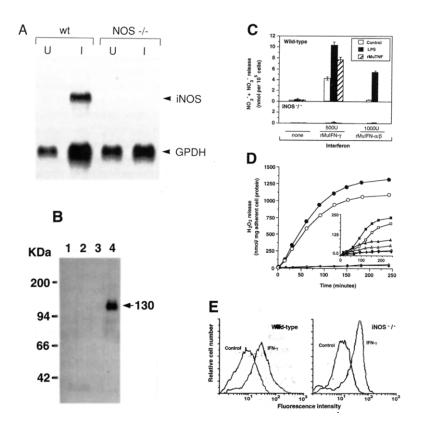


Figure 2. Comparative Expression of NOS Isoforms in Vivo

(Top) Total RNAs from brain (Bn), heart (Ht), kidney (Ky), lung (Lg), and spleen (Sn) from mice injected 5.5 hr earlier with saline (S) or LPS (L) were probed with an iNOS cDNA fragment (nucleotides 200– 1017; exons 2-8) and additionally with a rat NOS3 cDNA fragment. Blots were stripped and reprobed for glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GPDH).

(Bottom) Total RNAs from the same organs as above plus liver (Lr) from LPS-treated mice were probed with a rat NOS1 cDNA fragment.



diverting it to peroxynitrite (Carreras et al., 1994). That iNOS^{-/-} macrophages remained directly responsive to IFN γ was demonstrated by the in vitro induction of major histocompatibility complex (MHC) class II antigen expression (Figure 3E).

Phenotype of Uninfected iNOS-Deficient Mice

Under specific pathogen-free conditions, iNOS^{-/-} mice survived weaning at the expected Mendelian ratio: genotyping of 353 F2 mice, as shown in Figure 1E, revealed 26% knockout, 26% wild-type, and 48% heterozygous animals. From 4–11 weeks of life, iNOS^{-/-} mice weighed the same as wild type and gained weight at the same rate (data not shown). Mature iNOS^{-/-} mice produced litters at a normal frequency and size.

The following tissues were examined grossly and microscopically in six iNOS^{-/-} mice (three males) and four wildtype mice (two males) aged 9–10 weeks in the F2 generation (129/SvEv × C57BL/6) and were found to be histologically normal: brain, pituitary, spinal cord, peripheral nerve, eye, Harderian gland, nose, tongue, salivary gland, thyroid, parathyroid, heart, aorta, lung, thymus, lymph node, skeletal muscle, skin, mammary gland, stomach, small and large intestine, liver, gall bladder, pancreas, spleen, adrenal, kidney, urinary bladder, uterus, ovaries, vagina, brown fat, bone/joints, and bone marrow. In the same mice, the following were normal: erythrocyte Figure 3. Selective Inability of iNOS^{-/-} Macrophages to Express iNOS mRNA, Protein, or Enzyme Activity

(A) Northern blot analysis. Total RNA from thioglycollate broth-elicited peritoneal exudate macrophages unstimulated (U) or activated (I) in vitro for 20 hr with LPS and rMuIFNy was probed for iNOS and GPDH. wt, wild type. (B) Western blot analysis. Peritoneal exudate macrophages from iNOS--- (lanes 1 and 2) or wild-type (lanes 3 and 4) mice were activated in vitro without (lanes 1 and 3) or with (lanes 2 and 4) LPS and rMuIFNy and their lysates immunoblotted with rabbit anti-holo-iNOS IgG. (C) NO generation. Thioglycollate broth-elicited macrophages were exposed in vitro for 48 hr to buffer alone, LPS, rMuIEN₂, rMuTNFα, natural mouse IFNa/β, or some combination of these

(D) Respiratory burst. H_2O_2 release from peritoneal macrophages from iNOS^{-/-} (closed symbols) or wild-type (open symbols) mice activated in vivo by intraperitoneal injection of LPS plus rMuIFNy 24 hr before harvest. In vitro, cells were untreated (open diamonds) or triggered with phorbol myristate acetate (open circles), bacille Calmette-Guérin (open squares), or human serum-coated L. monocytogenes (open triangles). Values are means for triplicates; SEM fall within the symbols.

(E) IFNγ-induced expression of MHC class II antigen. Thioglycollate broth–elicited peritoneal macrophages were incubated 48 hr with or without rMuIFNγ and then stained with rat antimouse MHC class II MAb followed by fluorescein isothiocyanate–conjugated goat F(ab²)₂ anti-rat IgG for analysis by flow microfluorimetry.

count, hemoglobin, hematocrit, mean corpuscular volume, platelet count, leukocyte count, proportion and morphology of neutrophils, eosinophils, monocytes and lymphocytes, blood glucose, urea nitrogen, creatinine, total protein, albumin, globulin, total bilirubin, alkaline phosphatase, alanine aminotransferase (ALT), aspartate aminotransferase (AST), cholesterol, triglycerides, sodium, potassium, chloride, bicarbonate, calcium, phosphorus, magnesium, and osmolality.

Suspensions of thymus and spleen cells from iNOS^{-/-} and wild-type mice were indistinguishable when analyzed by flow microfluorimetry to enumerate lymphocytes positive for immunoglobulin, CD3, CD4, CD8, or MHC class II antigens. Moreover, inflammatory responses were normal in iNOS^{-/-} mice, in that the same types and numbers of leukocytes accumulated in the peritoneal cavity as in wild-type mice in response to intraperitoneal injection of thioglycollate broth, sodium periodate, or IFN_Y plus LPS (data not shown).

Host Defense Functions of iNOS

The iNOS^{-/-} mice were used to test the importance of iNOS in host defense against bacteria and tumor cells. L. monocytogenes, a gram-positive opportunistic pathogen, enters Kupffer cells, hepatocytes, and splenic macrophages, eliciting a neutrophilic followed by a monocytic infiltrate (Conlan and North, 1994). Each of these host

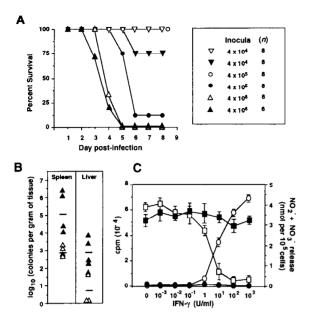


Figure 4. Role of iNOS in Host Defense

(A) Survival after intravenous infection of iNOS-/- (closed symbols) or wild-type (open symbols) mice with the indicated inocula of L. monocytogenes

(B) Bacterial burden in liver and spleen. iNOS-/- (closed symbols) or wild-type (open symbols) mice were inoculated intraperitoneally with 4 x 10⁵ cfu of Listeria and sacrificed 3 days later. Values are means for individual organs; SEM fall within the symbols. Horizontal bars show group means.

(C) Restriction of tumor cell growth. Thioglycollate broth-elicited peritoneal exudate macrophages from iNOS-1- (closed symbols) or wildtype (open symbols) mice were exposed to LPS (10 ng/ml) and the indicated concentrations of rMuIFNy at the same time as they were admixed with lymphoma cells. Tumor cell proliferation (open squares) and NO3⁻ plus NO2⁻ (open circles) were measured. Values are means ± SEM for triplicate experiments.

cells is capable of expressing iNOS (Xie et al., 1992; Geller et al., 1993; Nathan and Xie, 1994a), often under the influence of IFNy produced by natural killer cells and antigenspecific T cells, and IFNy confers antilisterial activity (Far-

20 0 MAP (% change from baseline) -20 -40 -60 -80 0 50 100 150 200 250 300 Time (min)

rar and Schreiber, 1993). Studies with NOS inhibitors have been conflicting, suggesting both that iNOS is protective in listeriosis, perhaps because it is bacteriostatic (Beckerman et al., 1993; Boockvar et al., 1994), and that iNOS is counterproductive, possibly because it suppresses T cells (Gregory et al., 1993). Mice deficient in iNOS succumbed to inocula of Listeria at least 10-fold lower than those lethal to wild-type mice (Figure 4A), in association with ~100-fold greater bacterial burdens in liver and spleen (Figure 4B). Likewise, activated macrophages from iNOS^{-/-} mice failed to restrict the replication of lymphoma cells in vitro (Figure 4C), confirming the interpretation of pharmacologic evidence for the importance of NO in the same system (Stuehr and Nathan, 1989).

Role of iNOS in Septic Shock

The role of iNOS in septic shock is controversial. Accordingly, we wished to measure both arterial blood pressure and survival in iNOS-/- and wild-type mice. Given the increased susceptibility of iNOS-/- mice to some bacterial infections, demonstrated above, we used models of septic shock that did not involve injection of live bacteria.

To measure blood pressure, mice were anesthetized and a carotid artery cannulated. Wild-type mice injected with LPS (1 mg/kg) experienced a progressive, severe drop in arterial pressure. By 3.5 hr, the decline averaged 64% (Figure 5); shortly thereafter, all wild-type mice had expired. When mice were given normal saline in place of LPS, arterial pressure remained stable for the 5 hr period of observation. In contrast, LPS-treated iNOS-/- mice all survived the experiment; their blood pressure fell only 15% by 2 hr and thereafter was stable. The LPS-induced hypotensive response of heterozygotes (iNOS+/-) was intermediate between that of wild-type and iNOS^{-/-} mice. All survived; by 5 hr, however, their blood pressure had declined 30% (Figure 5). Heart rate, monitored from the electrocardiogram, was not altered in any treatment group.

Unanesthetized wild-type mice injected with LPS (10 mg/kg) accumulated high serum levels of nitrate plus ni-

> Figure 5. Role of iNOS in Endotoxic Shock iNOS^{-/-} mice (closed symbols), wild-type mice (open symbols), or iNOS+/- heterozygotes (symbols with central dot) were matched in each experiment for gender and age (8-12 weeks). Changes in mean arterial blood pressure (MAP) (means ± SEM) were monitored for 5 hr or until death following the intraperitoneal injection of saline (circles) or LPS (squares). Baseline blood pressure averaged 61 ± 3, 70 ± 4, and 53 ± 4 mm Hg and basal heart rate 431 ± 35, 526 ± 42, and 320 ± 20 beats/min in seven iNOS-/- mice (three given saline; four given LPS), seven iNOS+/- heterozygotes (three given saline; four given LPS), and six wild-type mice (two given saline; four given LPS), respectively.

trite (Figure 6A) and lactate dehydrogenase (LDH), ALT, and AST (Figure 6B). Elevation in the serum enzymes indicated damage to hepatocytes. In iNOS^{-/-} mice, LPS caused no increase in serum nitrate (Figure 6A). Nonetheless, levels of LDH, ALT, and AST were elevated (Figure 6B), as in LPS-injected wild-type mice treated with a NOS inhibitor (Harbrecht et al., 1994). Serum cytokines were measured in LPS challenged mice both without (data not shown) and with (Figure 6C) an ongoing inflammatory response engendered by prior injection of heat-killed Propionobacterium acnes, a granuloma-forming bacterium. Levels of interleukin-1 α (IL-1 α) (data not shown), IL-1 β , TNF α , and IL-6 were similar in both genotypes (Figure 6C).

Unanesthetized wild-type mice of the strain in which most knockouts have been generated (129/SvEv × C57BL/6) are relatively resistant to the lethal action of LPS as a sole agent; their LPS responses are usually tested after sensitization by prior injection of bacteria, carrageenan, or the hepatotoxin D-galactosamine (Pfeffer et al., 1993; Rothe et al., 1993; Kamijo et al., 1993; Xu et al., 1994). We tested survival of unanesthetized, uninstrumented mice both without (Figure 7A) and with (Figure 7B) prior injection with heat-killed P. acnes. In untreated mice (Figure 7A), iNOS deficiency conferred partial resistance to lethality induced by high-dose LPS (30 mg/kg), although not at the lower doses tested. In contrast, in the

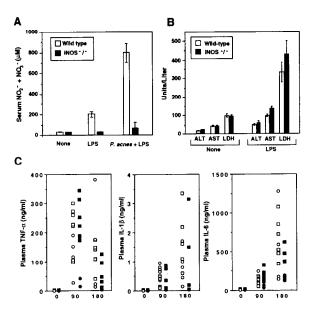


Figure 6. Serum Markers in LPS-Challenged Mice

(A) NO_3^- plus NO_2^- in sera of 11 mice per group injected with saline or LPS and sacrificed 5.5 hr later or in six mice per group injected with heat-killed P. acnes followed 6 days later by LPS. Sera were collected from the latter mice after they died naturally 9–10.5 hr after administration of LPS.

(B) ALT, AST, and LDH (see text) activities in the sera of the mice in (A) not given P. acnes.

(C) Levels of IL-1 β , TNF α , and IL-6 determined by ELISA in plasma of iNOS^{-/-} mice (closed symbols) and wild-type mice (open symbols) (circles for females; squares for males) injected with heat-killed P. acnes (1 mg) followed 6 days later by LPS (100 µg). Blood was collected 0, 90, or 180 min after injection of LPS. Results for IL-1 α closely resembled those for IL-1 β .

context of P. acnes-induced inflammation, LPS-treated $iNOS^{-t-}$ mice died at the same rate as wild type (Figure 7B), without the increase of the latter in serum nitrate (see Figure 6A).

Necropsies of three iNOS^{-/-} and two wild-type mice that died after LPS administration revealed pyogranulomata infiltrating liver, lymph nodes, and mesentery, consistent with injection of heat-killed P. acnes 6 days earlier. The acute changes attributable to endotoxemia were marked margination of leukocytes, primarily polymorphonuclear cells, along the endothelia of arteries, veins, arterioles, venules, and capillaries, especially in lung and liver; multifocal hepatocellular necrosis and hepatic endothelial cell injury; and disseminated intravascular coagulation. The histopathology in wild-type and iNOS^{-/-} mice was indistinguishable (data not shown).

Discussion

Protean roles ascribed to iNOS include participation in the dilatation of the gravid uterus, with rapid disappearance of the enzyme marking the onset of parturition (Sladek et al., 1993; Yallampalli et al., 1994). Thus, it was doubtful whether mice lacking iNOS could bring pregnancies to term, just as the role of NOS1 in penile erection (Rajfer et al., 1992; Burnett et al., 1992) raised the possibility that NOS1^{-/-} mice would fail to reproduce. However, as for NOS1 (Huang et al., 1993), the generation of enzyme-

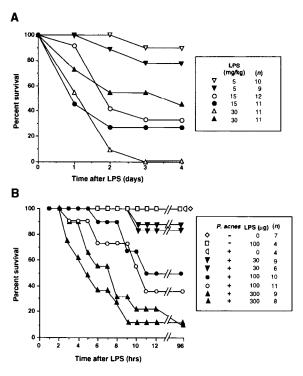


Figure 7. Survival of Unanesthetized Mice Challenged with LPS (A) Mice were injected with the indicated doses of LPS. (B) Mice were injected with saline or heat-killed P. acnes followed 6 days later by vehicle alone or vehicle containing the indicated doses of LPS. In both panels, open symbols denote wild-type mice and closed symbols, $iNOS^{-/-}$ mice.

deficient mice by homologous recombination has proved that iNOS is dispensable in the development and reproduction of the mouse.

The normality of uninfected iNOS^{-/-} mice extended to the accumulation of leukocytes in the irritated peritoneal cavity; the formation of granulomas in the bacteria-laden liver, spleen, lymph nodes, and mesentery; and the margination of neutrophils in the LPS-challenged lung. These normal inflammatory responses were surprising, given evidence implicating iNOS in leukocyte adhesion, migration, and accumulation (Mulligan et al., 1991; Belenky et al., 1993). Nor did iNOS appear to block the production of inflammatory cytokines in endotoxin-treated mice, as it was inferred to do in mice provoked with enterotoxin (Florquin et al., 1994).

Studies in iNOS-/- mice strongly supported the role of iNOS in host defense against Listeria in vivo and lymphoma in vitro. Macrophages from NF-IL6-deficient mice resembled those from iNOS-/- mice in their poor antibacterial and antitumor activity (Tanaka et al., 1995). NF-IL6-/- macrophages expressed iNOS normally, yet the cytotoxic activities of wild-type macrophages in the same assays were NO dependent. Tanaka et al. (1995) concluded that macrophage-mediated cytotoxicity requires two different mechanisms, one unidentified but depending on NF-IL6, the other involving iNOS. Our results are consistent with this formulation. Many other models of infectious and malignant disease deserve to be tested in iNOS deficiency. Given the redundancy of host defense systems and the diverse countermechanisms of pathogens, it can be anticipated that the relative role of iNOS will range from minimal to critical.

The most controversial issue addressed through the use of iNOS^{-/-} mice is the pathogenesis of septic shock. This complex syndrome, the leading cause of death in intensive care units, claims >100,000 lives per year in the United States alone (Parrillo, 1993; Natanson et al., 1994). Septic shock is a systemic inflammatory process that erupts when LPS or other microbial products trigger production of TNF, IL-1, IL-12, IFNy, leukemia inhibitory factor, migration inhibitory factor, platelet-activating factor, eicosanoids, and products of the complement and clotting cascades (Beutler et al., 1985; Taylor et al., 1987; Ohlsson et al., 1990; Bone, 1992; Kohler et al., 1993; Block et al., 1993; Creasey et al., 1993; Pfeffer et al., 1993; Rothe et al., 1993; Kamijo et al., 1993; Bernhagen et al., 1993; Xu et al., 1994). On the presumed final common path to death, central blood pressure falls and becomes refractory to pressors, blood flow maldistributes, the myocardium is depressed, tissues extract oxygen poorly, and organs fail.

NO can lower blood pressure (Moncada et al., 1991), block response to pressors (Thiemermann, 1994), influence the distribution of the circulation (Moncada et al., 1991), suppress cardiac myocytes (Roberts et al., 1992; Finkel et al., 1992; Balligand et al., 1993), and interfere with cellular respiration (Stuehr and Nathan, 1989; Hibbs et al., 1990). NO is produced in large amounts during infection (Stuehr and Marletta, 1987; Granger et al., 1991; Ochoa et al., 1991; Lai and Komarov, 1994). Infection and LPS induce iNOS (Xie et al., 1992; Lowenstein et al., 1992;

Evans et al., 1993; Thiemermann, 1994), but LPS can also activate constitutively expressed NOSs (Salvemini et al., 1990; Finkel et al., 1992; Thiemermann, 1994), and it is not known which NOS(s) generates the excess NO. NOS inhibitors reversed hypotension in septic patients (Petros et al., 1991, 1994; Schilling et al., 1993; Lorente et al., 1993) and in dogs and rats given LPS or TNF (Kilbourn et al., 1990a, 1990b; Thiemermann and Vane, 1990) and improved survival in infected or LPS-treated mice (Teale and Atkinson, 1992; Szabó et al., 1994). However, in other studies, such drugs worsened outcome (Nava et al., 1991; Harbrecht et al., 1992; Cobb et al., 1992; Minnard et al., 1994; Florquin et al., 1994; Pastor et al., 1994), perhaps by blocking the ability of endothelium to generate NO needed to forestall thrombosis and dilate small vessels perfusing vital organs (Harbrecht et al., 1992). Thus, it has been proposed that iNOS sits astride the final common path to death in septic shock. The implication for therapy is that the septic host might be helped by an inhibitor that targets iNOS but spares NOS3 in endothelium. The advent of iNOS-/- mice afforded the opportunity to test the validity of this concept.

A major finding of this study was that anesthetized mice deficient in iNOS were substantially protected from cardiovascular collapse induced by LPS, a cardinal feature of septic shock, and survived for the duration of the experiment. In contrast, wild-type mice became profoundly hypotensive and died. Heterozygotes (iNOS+/-) had an intermediate degree of LPS-induced hypotension, and, like iNOS-/- mice, they survived. The gene-dosage effect implies that pharmacologic inhibitors specific for iNOS might provide a clinically significant degree of protection against LPS-induced hypotension even if they did not inhibit iNOS completely. At the same time, iNOS-/- mice provided proof not based on pharmacologic agents that there exist other, quantitatively less important but still significant contributor(s) to LPS-induced hypotension. The possible relevance of these findings to septic shock in humans is not readily dismissed. Blood nitrate was high in septic patients (Ochoa et al., 1991), and at least 15 types of human cells can express iNOS, including vascular smooth muscle cells, cardiac myocytes, hepatocytes, and macrophages (Nathan and Xie, 1994b).

Like anesthetized mice, conscious mice that were otherwise untreated appear to be protected by iNOS deficiency from death associated with high-dose LPS. Nonetheless, iNOS^{-/-} mice injected with LPS had the same biochemical evidence of liver damage as wild type, and iNOS^{-/-} mice primed with P. acnes and then challenged with LPS died as quickly as wild type. The latter model may approach clinical relevance insofar as it mimics localized, indolent, or partially controlled infections from which microbes or their products spill abruptly into the blood. The vulnerability of iNOS^{-/-} mice in this setting suggests that there may be redundant routes to endotoxic death.

In animals, numerous candidate mediators of septic shock have been neutralized prophylactically by injection of inhibitors or generation of mice deficient in the mediators or their receptors (Beutler et al., 1985; Taylor et al., 1987; Ohlsson et al., 1990; Bone, 1992; Kohler et al., 1993; Block et al., 1993; Creasey et al., 1993; Pfeffer et al., 1993; Rothe et al., 1993; Kamijo et al., 1993; Bernhagen et al., 1993; Xu et al., 1994). Leaving aside differences in experimental models, the efficacy of all these interventions tested singly suggests that early on, each such factor is necessary and none sufficient for endotoxic or septic death. These findings led to extensive clinical testing of single agents designed to neutralize either LPS itself or one of its mediators (TNFa or IL-1). Such trials have not yet been successful. Their outcome was foretold by studies in experimental animals in which, once shock had begun, no such intervention consistently reversed it. Indeed, pharmacologic inhibition of NOS has been one of the very few interventions to restore blood pressure when endotoxic or septic shock was underway. The lethality of LPS in P. acnes-primed iNOS-/- mice underscores that salvage from ongoing septic shock may require simultaneous interruption of more than one final common path, each being sufficient and none necessary for death of the host. In this view, the paradigm shifts as the syndrome unfolds.

How did LPS kill iNOS^{-/-} mice, if not by making them severely hypotensive? Necropsy evidence directs attention to iNOS-independent mechanisms of hepatotoxicity and neutrophil-mediated endothelial injury. iNOS-independent causes of LPS-induced lethality may be amenable to analysis in iNOS^{-/-} mice and in mice deficient in other candidate mediator systems with which iNOS^{-/-} mice are interbred. Likewise, backcrossing of iNOS deficiency to disease-susceptible backgrounds will allow investigation of the role of iNOS in other inflammatory states.

Experimental Procedures

Studies at each institution are performed according to its guidelines for animal use and care.

Generation of iNOS-Deficient Mice

A cosmid library was constructed using J1 ES cell genomic DNA as described elsewhere (Mudgett and MacInnes, 1990), from which overlapping cosmid clones were isolated using a probe from iNOS cDNA (HincII-EcoRI) containing exons 2-8. Only one genomic locus was isolated. This genomic contig contained the 5' 36 kb of mouse NOS2 (~75% of the coding region) and contributed to construction of pINOS-RV1 as follows. A 5' 1034 bp arm was subcloned from a murine iNOS promoter fragment (Xie et al., 1993) isolated from the same ES cell library. A neo' marker gene driven by the PGK promoter (PGK-neo) was inserted in the antisense orientation, and a 3'6.7 kb arm containing exon 5 and downstream sequences was subcloned from a cosmid and inserted. AB2.1 ES cells (4 × 10^e) maintained as described elsewhere (Mudgett and Livelli, 1995) were electroporated in buffer (Specialty Media) with 5 µg of linearized pINOS-RV1 with or without a 6-fold molar excess of nonlinearized vector containing the HSV-tk gene driven by the PGK promoter. Transformants were selected in 200 µg/ml geneticin (GIBCO BRL) and 0.2 µM FIAU as single clones in 100 mm diameter plates or in pools of 15-25 clones in 13 mm diameter wells. Cotransfection with PGK-tk yielded an ~3-fold enrichment. Genomic DNAs from clones or pools were isolated and screened by PCR using a 5' primer flanking the NOS2 gene (5'-GAGCAATGTGACAAAGCTCCTT-CAGACTAGG-3') and a 3' primer specific to the PGK-neo marker (5'-GCCTGAAGAACGAGATCAGCAGCCTCTG-3'). PCR-positive clones (6.16, isolated as a single clone; 5.23.133, isolated from a pool) were shown by Southern blot hybridization to have a targeted iNOS allele.

Northern and Western Blot Hybridizations

Total RNA was prepared from organs of two or three mice of each genotype, matched for age and gender, 5.5 hr following injection of

saline or LPS (10 mg/kg), and from thioglycollate broth-elicited peritoneal exudate macrophages that had been left unstimulated or had been activated in vitro for 20 hr with LPS (100 ng/ml; from Escherichia coli 011:B4; Sigma) and recombinant murine INFy (rMuIFNy) (50 U/ml; Genzyme). The RNA (5 µg) was separated on formaldehyde agarose gels, bound to Duralon membranes (Stratagene), and probed with a ³²P-labeled cDNA fragment (nucleotides 200–1017) from mouse iNOS (Xie et al., 1992). For organ blots, filters were additionally probed with a rat *NOS3* cDNA; Genbank accession number U02534) and with a rat *NOS3* cDNA; Genbank accession number U02534) and with a rat *NOS1* cDNA fragment (nucleotides 1546–1942) from D. Bredt (Bredt et al., 1991).

For immunoblots, thioglycollate broth-elicited peritoneal exudate macrophages were activated in vitro for 42 hr as described elsewhere (Ding et al., 1988) with or without LPS (100 ng/ml) and rMuIFN γ (50 U/ml). Lysates (60 μ g of protein per lane) were subjected to SDS-PAGE, electrophoretic transfer to nitrocellulose, and blotting with rabbit anti-holo-iNOS immunoglobulin G (IgG) as detailed (Xie et al., 1992).

Macrophage NO Generation, Respiratory Burst, and MHC Class II Expression

NOS activity was assessed in macrophages elicited as above and exposed in vitro for 48 hr to buffer alone, LPS (100 ng/ml), rMuIFN_Y (500 U/ml; Genentech), rMuTNF α (1000 U/ml; Genzyme), natural mouse IFN α/β (1000 U/ml; Lee Biomolecular), or some combination of these. NO₃⁻ in the medium was >90% converted to NO₂⁻ with aspergillus nitrate reductase (0.05 U/ml; Boehringer) and NO₃⁻ plus NO₂⁻ in triplicate cultures quantified by Griess's assay as detailed elsewhere (Ding et al., 1988).

The respiratory burst was measured by the H₂O₂-dependent oxidation of fluorescent scopoletin as in Ding et al. (1988) using peritoneal macrophages activated in vivo by intraperitoneal injection of LPS (5 μ g) plus rMuIFN_Y (10⁴ U) 24 hr before harvest. Cells were cultured 3.5 hr to allow demise of the <4% contaminating neutrophils and then either left untreated or triggered with phorbol myristate acetate (100 ng/ml; Sigma), bacille Calmette-Guérin (6 × 10⁶ cfu/ml; Pasteur strain; Trudeau Institute), or human serum-coated L. monocytogenes (2 × 10⁷ cfu/ml; clinical isolate; New York Hospital).

Thioglycollate broth-elicited peritoneal macrophages were incubated 48 hr with or without rMuIFN γ (50 U/ml), then stained with rat anti-mouse IA^{bd} monoclonal antibody (MAb) B21.2 (1 µg/ml; Steinman et al., 1980) followed by fluorescein isothiocyanate-conjugated goat F(ab')₂ anti-rat IgG (Chemicon International). Cells (10⁴ in each group) were analyzed by flow microfluorimetry (FACScan; Becton Dickinson).

Listeria Infection and Tumor Cytostasis

Mice matched for gender and age (8–10 weeks) were inoculated intraperitoneally with L. monocytogenes (4×10^5 cfu; EGD strain; Trudeau Institute) and sacrificed 3 days later, and the number of colony-forming units was determined in triplicate 10-fold serial dilutions of homogenates of liver and spleen (Conlan and North, 1994).

Thioglycollate broth–elicited peritoneal exudate macrophages (1 \times 10⁵ per well) were exposed to LPS (10 ng/ml) and the indicated concentrations of rMuIFN₇ at the same time as they were admixed with L1210 mouse lymphoma cells (5 \times 10⁴ per well). Tumor cell proliferation was measured over 12 hr by the incorporation of [³H]thymidine as described elsewhere (Stuehr and Nathan, 1989), and NO₃⁻ plus NO₂⁻ was measured as above.

Blood Pressure, Serum Factors, and Survival in Endotoxic Shock

Mice matched in each experiment for gender and age (8–12 weeks) were anesthetized with pentobarbital (60 mg/kg). Cannulas (30 gauge) were placed in the right carotid artery and connected to a pressure transducer (Gould). Blood pressure was monitored on a TA4000 Gould polygraph for 5 hr or until death following the intraperitoneal injection of saline (0.2 ml) or LPS (1 mg/kg in 0.2 ml of saline). The experimenter was not blinded, but administered no therapy.

Levels of NO₃⁻ plus NO₂⁻ were measured in triplicate by the method described above in sera of 11 mice per group injected intravenously with 0.2 ml of saline or LPS (10 mg/kg in 0.2 ml of saline) and sacrificed 5.5 hr later or in six mice per group injected intraperitoneally with autoclaved P. acnes (1 mg) followed 6 days later by LPS injection

intraperitoneally (100 μ g). The autoclaved bacteria were shown by culture to be nonviable. Sera were collected from the latter mice after they died naturally 9–10.5 hr after administration of LPS.

Levels of IL-1 α and IL-1 β , TNF α , and IL-6 were determined by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) (Fletcher et al., 1995). Serum ALT, AST, and LDH activities were measured spectrophotometrically on a Hitachi 911 automated clinical chemistry analyzer.

Survival studies in unanesthetized mice followed two protocols. First, previously untreated mice were injected intraperitoneally with 0.1 ml of saline or 0.1 ml of saline containing the indicated amounts of LPS. Second, 0.1 ml of saline or heat-killed P. acnes (1 mg in 0.1 ml of saline) was injected intraperitoneally. Mice were injected 6 days later with 0.1 ml of vehicle alone (5% normal mouse serum in saline) or 0.1 ml of vehicle containing the indicated amounts of LPS. Survival was monitored every 2–4 hr over 4 days and daily thereafter. There were no deaths after 4 days.

Acknowledgments

Correspondence should be addressed to J. S. M. We thank P. Davies, M. Tocci, M. Forrest, and D. E. MacIntyre (Merck) for superb project leadership, scientific advice, and logistical support; A. Ding and W. W. Jin (Cornell University) and N. Sitrin, A. Woods, and S. Gopal (Merck) for help with experiments; R. Jaenisch (Whitehead Institute) for J1 cells; D. Bredt and S. Snyder (Johns Hopkins University) for rat *NOS1* cDNA; J.-L. Balligand and T. Michel (Harvard University) for a *NOS3* probe; R. North (Trudeau Institute) for Listeria and guidance in their use; R. Steinman (Rockefeller University) for MAb B21.2; and Genentech for rMulFNy. This work was supported in part by National Institutes of Health grants HL51967 and Al34543.

Received March 14, 1995; revised April 25, 1995.

References

Balligand, J. L., Ungureanu, D., Kelly, R. A., Kobzik, L., Pimental, D., Michel, T., and Smith, T. W. (1993). Abnormal contractile function due to induction of nitric oxide synthesis in rat cardiac myocytes follows exposure to activated macrophage-conditioned medium. J. Clin. Invest. *91*, 2314–2319.

Beckerman, K. P., Rogers, H. W., Corbett, J. A., Schreiber, R. D., McDaniel, M. L., and Unanue, E. R. (1993). Release of nitric oxide during the T cell-independent pathway of macrophage activation: its role in resistance to *Listeria monocytogenes*. J. Immunol. *150*, 888– 895.

Belenky, S. N., Robbins, R. A., and Rubinstein, I. (1993). Nitric oxide synthase inhibitors attenuate human monocyte chemotaxis *in vitro*. J. Leuk. Biol. 53, 498–503.

Bernhagen, J., Calandra, T., Mitchell, R. A., Martin, S. B., Tracey, K. J., Voelter, W., Manogue, K. R., Cerami, A., and Bucala, R. (1993). MIF is a pituitary-derived cytokine that potentiates lethal endotoxaemia. Nature *365*, 756–759.

Beutler, B., Milsark, I. W., and Cerami, A. C. (1985). Passive immunization against cachectin/tumor necrosis factor protects mice from lethal effect of endotoxin. Science 229, 869–871.

Block, M. I., Berg, M., McNamara, M. J., Norton, J. A., Fraker, D. L., and Alexander, H. R. (1993). Passive immunization of mice against D factor blocks lethality and cytokine release during endotoxemia. J. Exp. Med. *178*, 1085–1090.

Bone, R. C. (1992). Phospholipids and their inhibitors: a critical evaluation of their role in the treatment of sepsis. Crit. Care Med. 20, 884– 890.

Boockvar, K. S., Granger, D. L., Poston, R. M., Maybodi, M., Washington, M. K., Hibbs, J., Jr., and Kurlander, R. L. (1994). Nitric oxide produced during murine listeriosis is protective. Infect. Immunol. *62*, 1089–1100.

Bredt, D. S., Hwang, P. M., Glatt, C. E., Lowenstein, C., Reed, R. R., and Snyder, S. H. (1991). Cloned and expressed nitric oxide synthase structurally resembles cytochrome P-450 reductase. Nature 351, 714– 718.

Burnett, A. L., Lowenstein, C. J., Bredt, D. S., Chang, T. S., and Sny-

der, S. H. (1992). Nitric oxide: a physiologic mediator of penile erection. Science 257, 401–403.

Carreras, M. C., Pargament, G. A., Catz, S. D., Poderoso, J. J., and Boveris, A. (1994). Kinetics of nitric oxide and hydrogen peroxide production and formation of peroxynitrite during the respiratory burst of human neutrophils. FEBS Lett. *341*, 65–68.

Clancy, R. M., Leszczynska-Piziak, J., and Abramson, S. B. (1992). Nitric oxide, an endothelial cell relaxation factor, inhibits neutrophil superoxide anion production via a direct action on the NADPH oxidase. J. Clin. Invest. 90, 1116–1121.

Cobb, J. P., Natanson, C., Hoffman, W. D., Lodato, R. F., Banks, S., Koev, C. A., Solomon, M. A., Elin, R. J., Hosseini, J. M., and Danner, R. L. (1992). N- ω -amino-L-arginine, an inhibitor of nitric oxide synthase, raises vascular resistance but increases mortality rates in awake canines challenged with endotoxin. J. Exp. Med. *176*, 1175–1182.

Conlan, J. W., and North, R. J. (1994). Neutrophils are essential for early anti-listeria defense in the liver, but not in the spleen or peritoneal cavity, as revealed by a granulocyte-depleting monoclonal antibody. J. Exp. Med. *179*, 259–268.

Creasey, A. A., Chang, A. C., Feigen, L., Wun, T. C., Taylor, F., Jr., and Hinshaw, L. B. (1993). Tissue factor pathway inhibitor reduces mortality from *Escherichia coli* septic shock. J. Clin. Invest. *91*, 2850– 2856.

Ding, A. H., Nathan, C. F., and Stuehr, D. J. (1988). Release of reactive nitrogen intermediates and reactive oxygen intermediates from mouse peritoneal macrophages: comparison of activating cytokines and evidence for independent production. J. Immunol. *141*, 2407–2412.

Evans, T. G., Thai, L., Granger, D. L., and Hibbs, J., Jr. (1993). Effect of *in vivo* inhibition of nitric oxide production in murine leishmaniasis. J. Immunol. *151*, 907–915.

Farrar, M. A., and Schreiber, R. D. (1993). The molecular cell biology of interferon-y and its receptor. Annu. Rev. Immunol. 11, 571–611.

Finkel, M. S., Oddis, C. V., Jacob, T. D., Watkins, S. C., Hattler, B. G., and Simmons, R. L. (1992). Negative inotropic effects of cytokines on the heart mediated by nitric oxide. Science 257, 387–389.

Fletcher, D. S., Agarwal, L., Chapman, K. T., Chin, J., Egger, L. A., Limjuco, G., Luell, S., MacIntyre, D. E., Peterson, E. P., Thornberry, N. A., and Kostura, M. J. (1995). A synthetic inhibitor of interleukin-1β converting enzyme prevents endotoxin-induced interleukin-1β production *in vitro* and *in vivo*. J. Interferon Cytokine Res. *15*, 243–248.

Florquin, S., Amraoui, Z., Dubois, C., Decuyper, J., and Goldman, M. (1994). The protective role of endogenously synthesized nitric oxide in staphylococcal enterotoxin B-induced shock in mice. J. Exp. Med. *180*, 1153–1158.

Geller, D. A., Lowenstein, C. J., Shapiro, R. A., Nussler, A. K., Di Silvio, M., Wang, S. C., Nakayama, D. K., Simmons, R. L., Snyder, S. H., and Billiar, T. R. (1993). Molecular cloning and expression of inducible nitric oxide synthase from human hepatocytes. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 90, 3491–3495.

Granger, D. L., Hibbs, J., Jr., and Broadnax, L. M. (1991). Urinary nitrate excretion in relation to murine macrophage activation: influence of dietary L-arginine and oral NG-monomethyl-L-arginine. J. Immunol. *146*, 1294–1302.

Gregory, S. H., Wing, E. J., Hoffman, R. A., and Simmons, R. L. (1993). Reactive nitrogen intermediates suppress the primary immunologic response to listeria. J. Immunol. *150*, 2901–2909.

Harbrecht, B. G., Billiar, T. R., Stadler, J., Demetris, A. J., Ochoa, J., Curran, R. D., and Simmons, R. L. (1992). Inhibition of nitric oxide synthesis during endotoxemia promotes intrahepatic thrombosis and an oxygen radical-mediated hepatic injury. J. Leuk. Biol. 52, 390–394.

Harbrecht, B. G., Di Silvio, M., Demetris, A. J., Simmons, R. L., and Billiar, T. R. (1994). Tumor necrosis factor- α regulates *in vivo* nitric oxide synthesis and induces liver injury during endotoxemia. Hepatology 20, 1055–1060.

Hibbs, J., Jr., Taintor, R. R., and Vavrin, Z. (1987). Macrophage cytotoxicity: role for L-arginine deiminase and imino nitrogen oxidation to nitrite. Science 235, 473–476.

Hibbs, J. B. Jr., Taintor, R. R., Vavrin, V., Granger, D. L., Drapier, J.-C., Amber, I., and Lancaster, J. R., Jr. (1990). Synthesis of nitric

oxide from a guanidino nitrogen of L-arginine: a molecular mechanism that targets intracellular iron. In Nitric Oxide from L-Arginine: A Bioregulatory System, S. Moncada and E. A. Higgs, eds. (Amsterdam: Elsevier), pp. 189–223.

Huang, P. L., Dawson, T. M., Bredt, D. S., Snyder, S. H., and Fishman, M. C. (1993). Targeted disruption of the neuronal nitric oxide synthase gene. Cell *75*, 1273–1286.

Kamijo, R., Le, J., Shapiro, D., Havell, E. A., Huang, S., Aguet, M., Bosland, M., and Vilček, J. (1993). Mice that lack the interferon-y receptor have profoundly altered responses to infection with bacillus Calmette-Guérin and subsequent challenge with lipopolysaccharide. J. Exp. Med. *178*, 1435–1440.

Kamijo, R., Harada, H., Matsuyama, T., Bosland, M., Gerecitano, J., Shapiro, D., Le, J., Koh, S. I., Kimura, T., Green, S. J., Mak, T. W., Taniguchi, T., and Vilček, J. (1994). Requirement for transcription factor IRF-1 in NO synthase induction in macrophages. Science 263, 1612–1615.

Karupiah, G., Xie, Q.-w., Buller, R. M., Nathan, C., Duarte, C., and MacMicking, J. D. (1993). Inhibition of viral replication by interferon- γ -induced nitric oxide synthase. Science 261, 1445–1448.

Kilbourn, R. G., Gross, S. S., Jubran, A., Adams, J., Griffith, O. W., Levi, R., and Lodato, R. F. (1990a). NG-methyl-L-arginine inhibits tumor necrosis factor-induced hypotension: implications for the involvement of nitric oxide. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 87, 3629–3632.

Kilbourn, R. G., Jubran, A., Gross, S. S., Griffith, O. W., Levi, R., Adams, J., and Lodato, R. F. (1990b). Reversal of endotoxin-mediated shock by NG-methyl-L-arginine, an inhibitor of nitric oxide synthesis. Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun. *172*, 1132–1138.

Kohler, J., Heumann, D., Garotta, G., Le Roy, D., Bailat, S., Barras, C., Baumgartner, J. D., and Glauser, M. P. (1993). IFN- γ involvement in the severity of gram-negative infections in mice. J. Immunol. *151*, 916–921.

Lai, C. S., and Komarov, A. M. (1994). Spin trapping of nitric oxide produced *in vivo* in septic-shock mice. FEBS Lett. 345, 120-124.

Lorente, J. A., Landin, L., De Pablo, R., Renes, E., and Liste, D. (1993). L-arginine pathway in the sepsis syndrome. Crit. Care Med. 21, 1287– 1295.

Lowenstein, C. J., Glatt, C. S., Bredt, D. S., and Snyder, S. H. (1992). Cloned and expressed macrophage nitric oxide synthase contrasts with the brain enzyme. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 89, 6711–6715.

Lyons, C. R., Orloff, G. J., and Cunningham, J. M. (1992). Molecular cloning and functional expression of an inducible nitric oxide synthase from a murine macrophage cell line. J. Biol. Chem. 267, 6370–6374.

MacNaul, K. L., and Hutchinson, N. I. (1993). Differential expression of iNOS and cNOS mRNA in human vascular smooth muscle cells and endothelial cells under normal and inflammatory conditions. Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun. *196*, 1330–1334.

Martin, E., Nathan, C., and Xie, Q.-w. (1994). Role of interferon regulatory factor 1 in induction of nitric oxide synthase. J. Exp. Med. 180, 977–984.

Minnard, E. A., Shou, J., Naama, H., Cech, A., Gallagher, H., and Daly, J. M. (1994). Inhibition of nitric oxide synthesis is detrimental during endotoxemia. Arch. Surg. *129*, 142–147.

Mohaupt, M. G., Elzie, J. L., Ahn, K. Y., Clapp, W. L., Wilcox, C. S., and Kone, B. C. (1994). Differential expression and induction of mRNAs encoding two inducible nitric oxide synthases in rat kidney. Kidney Int. 46, 653–665.

Moncada, S., Palmer, R. M., and Higgs, E. A. (1991). Nitric oxide: physiology, pathophysiology, and pharmacology. Pharmacol. Rev. 43, 109–142.

Mudgett, J. S., and Livelli, T. J. (1995). Electroporation of embryonic stem cells for generating transgenic mice and studying *in vitro* differentiation. In Electroporation Protocols: Plant and Animal Cells, J. A. Nickoloff, ed. (Totowa, New Jersey: Humana), in press.

Mudgett, J. S., and MacInnes, M. A. (1990). Isolation of the functional human excision repair gene *ERCC5* by intercosmid recombination. Genomics θ , 623–633.

Mulligan, M. S., Hevel, J. M., Marletta, M. A., and Ward, P. A. (1991).

Tissue injury caused by deposition of immune complexes is L-arginine dependent. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 88, 6338–6342.

Natanson, C., Hoffman, W. D., Suffredini, A. F., Eichacker, P. Q., and Danner, R. L. (1994). Selected treatment strategies for septic shock based on proposed mechanisms of pathogenesis. Annu. Intern. Med. *120*, 771–783.

Nathan, C., and Hibbs, J., Jr. (1991). Role of nitric oxide synthesis in macrophage antimicrobial activity. Curr. Opin. Immunol. 3, 65–70.

Nathan, C., and Xie, Q.-w. (1994a). Regulation of biosynthesis of nitric oxide. J. Biol. Chem. 269, 13725–13728.

Nathan, C., and Xie, Q.-w. (1994b). Nitric oxide synthases: roles, tolls, and controls. Cell 78, 915–918.

Nava, E., Palmer, R. M., and Moncada, S. (1991). Inhibition of nitric oxide synthesis in septic shock: how much is beneficial? Lancet *338*, 1555–1557.

Nishida, K., Harrison, D. G., Navas, J. P., Fisher, A. A., Dockery, S. P., Uematsu, M., Nerem, R. M., Alexander, R. W., and Murphy, T. J. (1992). Molecular cloning and characterization of the constitutive bovine aortic endothelial cell nitric oxide synthase. J. Clin. Invest. 90, 2092–2096.

Ochoa, J. B., Udekwu, A. O., Billiar, T. R., Curran, R. D., Cerra, F. B., Simmons, R. L., and Peitzman, A. B. (1991). Nitrogen oxide levels in patients after trauma and during sepsis. Ann. Surg. 214, 621–626.

Ohlsson, K., Bjork, P., Bergenfeldt, M., Hageman, R., and Thompson, R. C. (1990). Interleukin-1 receptor antagonist reduces mortality from endotoxin shock. Nature 348, 550–552.

Parrillo, J. E. (1993). Pathogenetic mechanisms of septic shock. N. Engl. J. Med. 328, 1471-1477.

Pastor, C., Teisseire, B., Vicaut, E., and Payen, D. (1994). Effects of L-arginine and L-nitro-arginine treatment on blood pressure and cardiac output in a rabbit endotoxin shock model. Crit. Care Med. 22, 465–469.

Petros, A., Bennett, D., and Vallance, P. (1991). Effect of nitric oxide synthase inhibitors on hypotension in patients with septic shock. Lancet 338, 1557–1558.

Petros, A., Lamb, G., Leone, A., Moncada, S., Bennett, D., and Vallance, P. (1994). Effects of a nitric oxide synthase inhibitor in humans with septic shock. Cardiovasc. Res. 28, 34–39.

Pfeffer, K., Matsuyama, T., Kundig, T. M., Wakeham, A., Kishihara, K., Shahinian, A., Wiegmann, K., Ohashi, P. S., Kronke, M., and Mak, T. W. (1993). Mice deficient for the 55 kd tumor necrosis factor receptor are resistant to endotoxic shock, yet succumb to L. monocytogenes infection. Cell 73, 457–467.

Rajfer, J., Aronson, W. J., Bush, P. A., Dorey, F. J., and Ignarro, L. J. (1992). Nitric oxide as a mediator of relaxation of the corpus cavernosum in response to nonadrenergic, noncholinergic neurotransmission. N. Engl. J. Med. 326, 90–94.

Roberts, A. B., Vodovotz, Y., Roche, N. S., Sporn, M. B., and Nathan, C. F. (1992). Role of nitric oxide in antagonistic effects of transforming growth factor- β and interleukin-1 β on the beating rate of cultured cardiac myocytes. Mol. Endocrinol. *6*, 1921–1930.

Rothe, J., Lesslauer, W., Lotscher, H., Lang, Y., Koebel, P., Kontgen, F., Althage, A., Zinkernagel, R., Steinmetz, M., and Bluethmann, H. (1993). Mice lacking the tumour necrosis factor receptor 1 are resistant to TNF-mediated toxicity but highly susceptible to infection by *Listeria monocytogenes*. Nature *364*, 798–802.

Salvemini, D., Korbut, R., Anggard, E., and Vane, J. (1990). Immediate release of a nitric oxide-like factor from bovine aortic endothelial cells by *Escherichia coli* lipopolysaccharide. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA *87*, 2593–2597. Erratum: Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA *87*, 6007.

Schilling, J., Cakmakci, M., Battig, U., and Geroulanos, S. (1993). A new approach in the treatment of hypotension in human septic shock by NG-monomethyl-L-arginine, an inhibitor of the nitric oxide synthetase. Intensive Care Med. *19*, 227–231.

Sladek, S. M., Regenstein, A. C., Lykins, D., and Roberts, J. M. (1993). Nitric oxide synthase activity in pregnant rabbit uterus decreases on the last day of pregnancy. Am. J. Obstet. Gynecol. *169*, 1285–1291. Steinman, R. M., Nogueira, N., Witmer, M. D., Tydings, J. D., and Mellman, I. S. (1980). Lymphokine enhances the expression and synthesis of Ia antigens on cultured mouse peritoneal macrophages. J. Exp. Med. *152*, 1248–1261.

Stuehr, D. J., and Marletta, M. A. (1985). Mammalian nitrate biosynthesis: mouse macrophages produce nitrite and nitrate in response to *Escherichia coli* lipopolysaccharide. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA *82*, 7738–7742.

Stuehr, D. J., and Marletta, M. A. (1987). Induction of nitrite/nitrate synthesis in murine macrophages by BCG infection, lymphokines, or interferon- γ . J. Immunol. *139*, 518–525.

Stuehr, D. J., and Nathan, C. F. (1989). Nitric oxide: a macrophage product responsible for cytostasis and respiratory inhibition in tumor target cells. J. Exp. Med. *169*, 1543–1555.

Stuehr, D. J., Cho, H. J., Kwon, N. S., Weise, M. F., and Nathan, C. F. (1991). Purification and characterization of the cytokine-induced macrophage nitric oxide synthase: an FAD- and FMN-containing flavo-protein. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA *88*, 7773–7777.

Szabó, C., Southan, G. J., and Thiemermann, C. (1994). Beneficial effect and improved survival in rodent models of septic shock with S-methylisothiourea sulfate, a potent and selective inhibitor of inducible nitric oxide synthase. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 91, 12472–12476.

Tanaka, T., Akira, S., Yoshida, K., Umemote, M., Yoneda, Y., Shirafuji, N., Fujiwara, H., Suematsu, S., Yoshia, N., and Kishimoto, T. (1995). Targeted disruption of the NF-IL6 gene discloses its essential role in bacteria killing and tumor cytoxicity by macrophages. Cell *80*, 353–361.

Taylor, F., Jr., Chang, A., Esmon, C. T., D'Angelo, A., Vigano-D'Angelo, S., and Blick, K. E. (1987). Protein C prevents the coagulopathic and lethal effects of *Escherichia coli* infusion in the baboon. J. Clin. Invest. 79, 918–925.

Teale, D. M., and Atkinson, A. M. (1992). Inhibition of nitric oxide synthesis improves survival in a murine peritonitis model of sepsis that is not cured by antibiotics alone. J. Antimicrob. Chemother. *30*, 839–842.

Thiemermann, C. (1994). The role of the L-arginine:nitric oxide pathway in circulatory shock. Adv. Pharmacol. 28, 45-79.

Thiemermann, C., and Vane, J. (1990). Inhibition of nitric oxide synthesis reduces the hypotension induced by bacterial lipopolysaccharides in the rat *in vivo*. Eur. J. Pharmacol. *182*, 591–595.

Xie, Q.-w., Cho, H. J., Calaycay, J., Mumford, R. A., Swiderek, K. M., Lee, T. D., Ding, A., Troso, T., and Nathan, C. (1992). Cloning and characterization of inducible nitric oxide synthase from mouse macrophages. Science *256*, 225–228.

Xie, Q.-w., Whisnant, R., and Nathan, C. (1993). Promoter of the mouse gene encoding calcium-independent nitric oxide synthase confers inducibility by interferon γ and bacterial lipopolysaccharide. J. Exp. Med. 177, 1779–1784.

Xu, H., Gonzalo, J. A., St. Pierre, Y., Williams, I. R., Kupper, T. S., Cotran, R. S., Springer, T. A., and Gutierrez-Ramos, J. C. (1994). Leukocytosis and resistance to septic shock in intercellular adhesion molecule 1-deficient mice. J. Exp. Med. *180*, 95–109.

Yallampalli, C., Izumi, H., Byam-Smith, M., and Garfield, F. E. (1994). An L-arginine-nitric oxide-cyclic guanosine monophosphate system exists in the uterus and inhibits contractility during pregnancy. Am. J. Obstet. Gynecol. *170*, 175-185.