

Cytosolic PLA₂ is required for CTL-mediated immunopathology of celiac disease via NKG2D and IL-15

Fangming Tang,¹ Zhangguo Chen,¹ Cezary Ciszewski,¹ Mala Setty,² Jason Solus,¹ Maria Tretiakova,¹ Ellen Ebert,⁵ Jin Han,¹ Anning Lin,³ Stefano Guandalini,² Veronika Groh,⁶ Thomas Spies,⁶ Peter Green,⁷ and Bana Jabri^{1,2,4}

¹Department of Pathology, ²Department of Pediatrics, ³Ben May Institute for Cancer Research, and ⁴Department of Medicine, University of Chicago, Chicago, IL 60637

⁵Department of Medicine, University of Medicine and Dentistry of New Jersey, New Brunswick, NJ 08903

⁶Clinical Research Division, Fred Hutchinson Cancer Research Center, Seattle, WA 98109

⁷Department of Medicine, College of Physicians and Surgeons, Columbia University, New York, NY 10032

IL-15 and NKG2D promote autoimmunity and celiac disease by arming cytotoxic T lymphocytes (CTLs) to cause tissue destruction. However, the downstream signaling events underlying these functional properties remain unclear. Here, we identify cytosolic phospholipase A₂ (cPLA₂) as a central molecule in NKG2D-mediated cytolysis in CTLs. Furthermore, we report that NKG2D induces, upon recognition of MIC⁺ target cells, the release of arachidonic acid (AA) by CTLs to promote tissue inflammation in association with target killing. Interestingly, IL-15, which licenses NKG2D-mediated lymphokine killer activity in CTLs, cooperates with NKG2D to induce cPLA₂ activation and AA release. Finally, cPLA₂ activation in intraepithelial CTLs of celiac patients provides an *in vivo* pathophysiological dimension to cPLA₂ activation in CTLs. These results reveal an unrecognized link between NKG2D and tissue inflammation, which may underlie the emerging role of NKG2D in various immunopathological conditions and define new therapeutic targets.

CORRESPONDENCE

Bana Jabri:
bjabri@bsd.uchicago.edu

Abbreviations used: AA, arachidonic acid; BLT, benzoyloxycarbonyl lysine thiobenzyl; COX, cyclooxygenase; cPLA₂, cytosolic phospholipase A₂; ERK, extracellular signal-regulated kinase; IE-CTL, intraepithelial CTL; ITAM, immunoreceptor tyrosine-based activation motifs; JNK, c-Jun N-terminal kinase; LA, linoleic acid; MIC, MHC class I-related chain; PI3-K, phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase; PB-CTL, peripheral blood CTL; siRNA, small interfering RNA; ULPB, UL-16-binding protein.

NKG2D is a NK cell receptor expressed by all human CTLs (1) that recognizes MHC class I-related chain (MIC) and UL-16-binding protein (ULPB) molecules expressed on stressed and transformed target cells (1–3). NKG2D has been implicated in antitumor immunity mediated by both NK cells and CTLs (4, 5) and in T cell-mediated immune disorders such as celiac disease (6, 7), rheumatoid arthritis (8), and NOD mouse model for juvenile type 1 diabetes (9). In humans, NKG2D associates exclusively with DAP10 (6, 10–12), an adaptor with a YINM cytoplasmic tail motif that activates phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase (PI3-K) (10), but not the syk/ZAP-70 kinase family. Because of these similarities with the CD28 signaling pathway, NKG2D–DAP10 was initially thought to function mainly as a co-stimulator (1) and to play a role in autoimmunity by promoting activation of autoreactive T cells. However, several studies indicate that NKG2D–DAP10 in

human can also mediate cytolysis independently of TCR engagement in effector CTLs exposed to IL-15 or high doses of IL-2 (6, 13, 14). This layer of effector T cell regulation by NKG2D at the level of cytolysis may serve to effectively and rapidly eliminate infected or transformed target tissue cells independently of antigen specificity, and may participate in aberrant tissue destruction in diseases in which IL-15 expression is dysregulated (for review see reference [15]).

The downstream co-stimulatory and cytolytic signaling pathways recruited by NKG2D in CTLs remain incompletely characterized. Intriguingly, several studies suggest that cPLA₂ may be involved in inflammatory and autoimmune diseases (16–18). However, how cPLA₂ drives immunopathological processes and whether it involves CTLs is poorly understood.

© 2009 Tang et al. This article is distributed under the terms of an Attribution-Noncommercial-Share Alike-No Mirror Sites license for the first six months after the publication date (see <http://www.jem.org/misc/terms.shtml>). After six months it is available under a Creative Commons License (Attribution-Noncommercial-Share Alike 3.0 Unported license, as described at <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-sa/3.0/>).

F. Tang and Z. Chen contributed equally to this paper.

Interestingly, several reports point to a potential role of cPLA₂ in T cell proliferation (19, 20). Furthermore, cPLA₂ was shown to be involved in granule exocytosis by neuronal cells (21, 22), hormonal cells (23), and granulocytes (24–27), suggesting that it might also be implicated in granular release occurring in the context of cytosis and cytokine secretion in T cells. Finally, cPLA₂ activation by surface receptors is dependent on phosphorylation at Ser⁵⁰⁵ by MAP kinases (28), and NKG2D induces c-Jun N-terminal kinase (JNK) and extracellular signal-regulated kinase (ERK) activation in CTLs (6). Together, these observations prompted us to examine a potential link between cPLA₂ and NKG2D effector function in CTLs and its relevance in celiac disease.

RESULTS

cPLA₂ plays a critical role in direct NKG2D-mediated cytosis

NKG2D is licensed to mediate cytosis independently of TCR activation in CTLs when they are in an effector stage and in the presence of IL-15 or high doses of IL-2 (6). Importantly, under these conditions it is possible to assess how cPLA₂ affects NKG2D effector functions independently from other receptors. To determine that our findings were not restricted to a particular subset of effector CTLs, we analyzed the effect of cPLA₂ inhibition in a variety of effector CTLs. Specifically, we studied freshly isolated effector intestinal intraepithelial CTLs (IE-CTLs) that were prestimulated *in vitro* with IL-15, normal IE-CTL clones, IE-CTL clones derived from celiac patients, peripheral blood effector CTL (PB-CTL) clones, and the leukemia TALL-104 CD8 T cell line. This latter cell line was previously used as a model to study the NKG2D cytolytic signaling pathway (6). All clones and cell lines were grown in the presence of a high concentration of IL-2, which is known to substitute for IL-15.

The cPLA₂ inhibitor AACOCF3 (CF3) impaired NKG2D-mediated cytosis in antibody-directed cytolytic assays (Fig. 1 A, left). Importantly, this finding could be extended to cytolytic assays using MIC-transfected C1R cells as targets (Fig. 1 A, right). Furthermore, arachidonic acid (AA) significantly restored cytosis, strongly arguing against a non-specific effect of the cPLA₂ inhibitor AACOCF3 (Fig. 1 A, right). Finally, AACOCF3 and AA had a dose-dependent effect on NKG2D-mediated cytosis in freshly isolated IE-CTLs (Fig. S1, available at <http://www.jem.org/cgi/content/full/jem.20071887/DC1>).

To further assess the critical role of cPLA₂ in NKG2D-mediated cytosis and granule release, cPLA₂ was “knocked down” in TALL-104 (Fig. 1, B and C) and PB-CTLs (Fig. 1 B, right) using cPLA₂ small interfering (si)RNA. Importantly, cPLA₂ siRNA specifically targeted cPLA₂ expression, as it affected neither ERK nor JNK expression (not depicted) and activation (Fig. 1 B, left), nor 5-lipoxygenase (5-LO) expression (Fig. 1 C, left). The effect of cPLA₂ knock down on NKG2D-mediated cytosis was assessed in two ways. First, in redirected cytolytic assays, as expected, NKG2D-mediated cytosis was inhibited by up to 50% in the presence of cPLA₂ siRNA, but

not control siRNA. In contrast, TCR-mediated cytosis remained essentially intact for this level of specific cytosis (Fig. 1 B, middle). The level of inhibition observed for NKG2D-mediated cytosis was highly significant considering that some residual cPLA₂ could be detected (Fig. 1 B, left). Second, similar results were obtained when using MIC⁺C1R target cells (Fig. 1 D). Importantly, addition of AA (Fig. 1 D), but not a control polyunsaturated fatty acid, linoleic acid (LA), rescued NKG2D-mediated cytosis (Fig. 1 D, right). The assays were performed either with global unsorted siRNA-transfected CTLs (Fig. 1, B and D, right), or with CTLs sorted into GFP⁺-transfected and GFP⁻-untransfected CTLs (Fig. 1 D, middle).

Having shown that cPLA₂ played a role in NKG2D-mediated cytosis, we wanted to more specifically demonstrate its role in the release of cytolytic granules. We previously reported, that ligation of NKG2D receptors expressed on CTLs with monoclonal anti-NKG2D mAb triggered granule release using a BLT esterase assay (6). As anticipated, knock down of cPLA₂ by siRNA (Fig. 1 C) blocked degranulation. Similar results were obtained in the presence of the pharmacological inhibitor CF3 (unpublished data). Importantly, cPLA₂ inhibition did not affect the level of granzyme and perforin expression in CTLs (Fig. S2, available at <http://www.jem.org/cgi/content/full/jem.20071887/DC1>), further suggesting that cPLA₂ plays a role in NKG2D-mediated degranulation.

Interestingly, cPLA₂ inhibition by AACOCF3 or knock down by siRNA affected only marginally TCR-mediated cytosis (Figs. 1 and 2).

Altogether, these results demonstrate that cPLA₂ and AA play a critical role in NKG2D-mediated, but not TCR-mediated, cytolytic granule exocytosis in effector CTLs.

cPLA₂ plays a critical role in NKG2D-mediated cytolytic co-stimulatory functions

NKG2D was shown to function as a co-stimulatory receptor that enhances TCR-dependent cytolytic responses (13, 29). We therefore investigated whether cPLA₂ was also implicated in NKG2D cytolytic co-stimulatory functions. This study had to be performed in CTLs grown in medium with low IL-2, in which NKG2D was not licensed to mediate direct killing. As previously reported (29), NKG2D significantly increased TCR-mediated cytosis in two distinct PB-CTL clones (Fig. 2). Importantly, cPLA₂ inhibition prevented NKG2D enhancement of TCR-mediated cytosis, and AA significantly rescued NKG2D co-stimulation (Fig. 2). In contrast, cPLA₂ inhibition had little or no significant effect on TCR-mediated cytosis (Fig. 2).

In summary, these observations also support a role for cPLA₂ in NKG2D cytolytic co-stimulatory functions.

NKG2D induces cPLA₂ activation and AA release in effector CTLs

To establish a biochemical basis for cPLA₂ functions in CTLs, we determined NKG2D-induced cPLA₂ phosphorylation and AA release in several different CTL subsets, including in IE-CTL clones derived from celiac patients. Expression of cPLA₂ in

mature T cells has been controversial (19, 30). However, using Western blot analysis, we demonstrated cPLA₂ expression in different effector CTLs (Fig. 3, left). Furthermore, as shown in Fig. 3, NKG2D cross-linking induced cPLA₂ phosphorylation in a dose-dependent manner (Fig. 3, left).

To further assess the ability of NKG2D to activate cPLA₂, we studied perinuclear translocation of cPLA₂ and cPLA₂ activity in IE- and PB-CTLs. As anticipated, NKG2D engagement induced perinuclear translocation of cPLA₂ (Fig. S3 A, available at <http://www.jem.org/cgi/content/full/jem.20071887/DC1>)

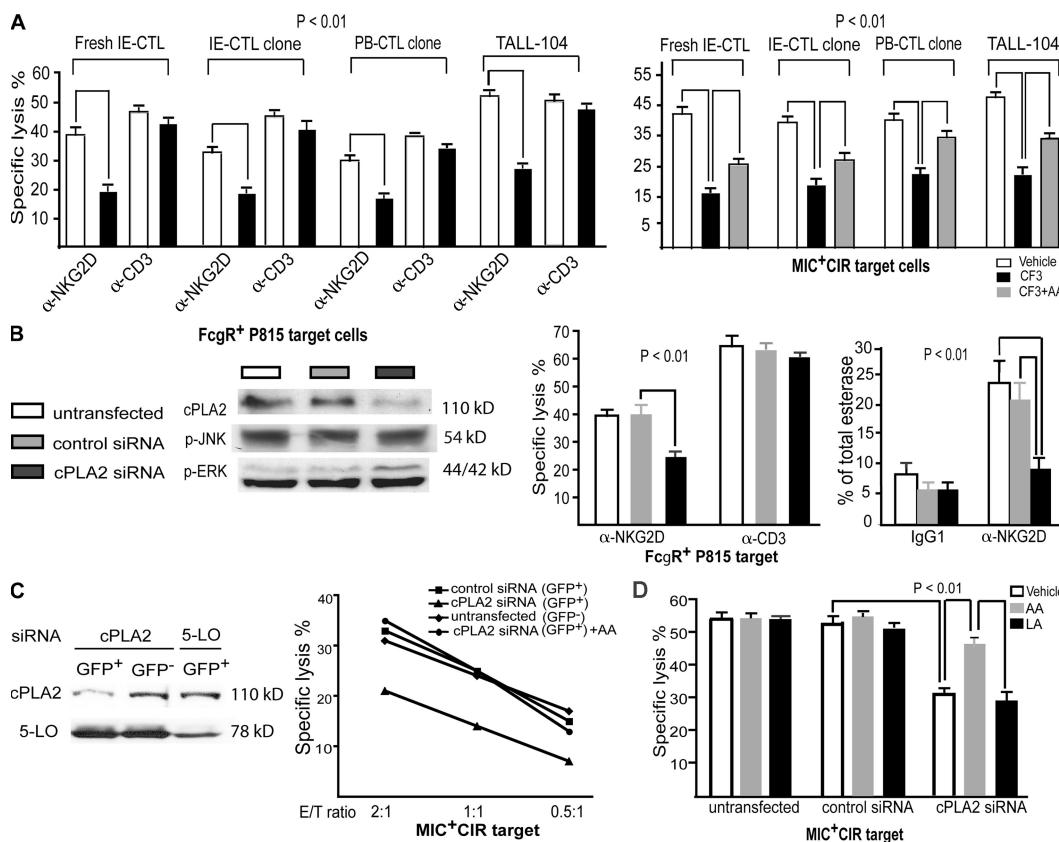


Figure 1. NKG2D-mediated cytotoxicity in CTL is cPLA₂ dependent. (A) cPLA₂ inhibition by the pharmacological inhibitor AACOCF3 (CF3) blocks NKG2D-mediated cytotoxicity. Fresh IE-CTL prestimulated with IL-15 for 48 h, celiac IE-CTL clones, PB-CTL clones, and TALL-104 leukemia CTLs were pretreated for 30 min with vehicle control or CF3 before the cytotoxicity assay. Depending on the nature of the CTLs studied, distinct E/T ratios were used to achieve similar levels of specific lysis (50:1 for fresh IE-CTLs and PB-CTLs, 15:1 for celiac IE-CTLs, and 5:1 for TALL-104 leukemia CTLs). Data are means \pm SD of three independent experiments for each cell line. P values reported are from a Tukey-adjusted pairwise comparison. (left) Cytotoxicity of Fc γ R⁺ P815 cells was significantly blocked by 20 μ M CF3 in the presence of anti-NKG2D, but not anti-CD3, antibody. (right) Cytotoxicity of C1R/MIC transfectants was blocked upon pretreatment of CTLs with 20 μ M CF3 and restored when 100 μ M AA was added 1 h after the beginning of the cytotoxicity assay. Importantly, CF3 did not affect the level of intracellular granzyme and perforin expression (Fig. S2). (B) Knockdown of cPLA₂ in TALL-104 CTLs significantly impairs NKG2D-mediated cytotoxicity, but not TCR-mediated cytotoxicity under optimal conditions of stimulation. Untransfected cPLA₂ and control siRNA-transfected TALL-104 CTLs were studied 72 h after transfection. (left) cPLA₂ siRNA significantly decreases cPLA₂ expression without affecting JNK and ERK activation. Untransfected and transfected TALL-104 were cultured for 72 h, serum-starved overnight, and stimulated for 5 min (p-ERK) or 15 min (p-JNK), respectively, with anti-NKG2D. Cell lysates were analyzed by Western blot with anti-cPLA₂, then stripped and blotted with anti-phospho-ERK (p-ERK) or -JNK (p-JNK) mAbs. Right panel: cPLA₂ siRNA inhibited significantly NKG2D-mediated cytotoxicity in a redirected cytolytic assay using 51 Cr-labeled Fc γ R⁺ P815 targets. (C) cPLA₂ knocked down in PB-CTLs blocked the release of cytolytic granule. An esterase assay was performed 36 h after transfection. Data are means \pm SD of six experimental points from two independent experiments. P values are from a Tukey-adjusted pairwise comparison. (D) AA reconstitutes NKG2D cytolytic function against C1R/MIC⁺ target cells in TALL-104 transfected with cPLA₂ siRNA. Rescue experiments were performed by adding 50 μ M of AA or a control polyunsaturated fatty acid LA after 1 h co-culture with target cells. (left) Knock-down of cPLA₂ did not affect 5-LO expression, whereas 5-LO siRNA decreased significantly 5-LO expression without affecting cPLA₂ expression. Cells were sorted into transfected (GFP⁺) and untransfected cells (GFP⁻) cell populations 24 h after transfection with cPLA₂ siRNA, control siRNA or 5-LO siRNA in addition to GFP plasmids. Cell lysates were analyzed 12 h later by Western blot with anti-cPLA₂ antibody, then stripped and immunoblotted with anti-5-LO antibody. (middle) Cytotoxicity assays were performed 36 h after transfection at the indicated E:T ratios in transfected (GFP⁺) and untransfected (GFP⁻) cells. One representative experiment out of two independent experiments is shown. (right) Cells were cultured for 72 h after transfection with cPLA₂ or control siRNA and cytotoxicity assays were performed in absence of cell sorting on the total cell population. The transfection efficiency, determined by GFP expression, was \sim 60%. Data are means \pm SD of six experimental points from two independent experiments. P values are from a Tukey-adjusted pairwise comparison.

and up-regulated cPLA₂ activity (Fig. S3 B), which were blocked in the presence of the pharmacological inhibitor CF3 (Fig. S3).

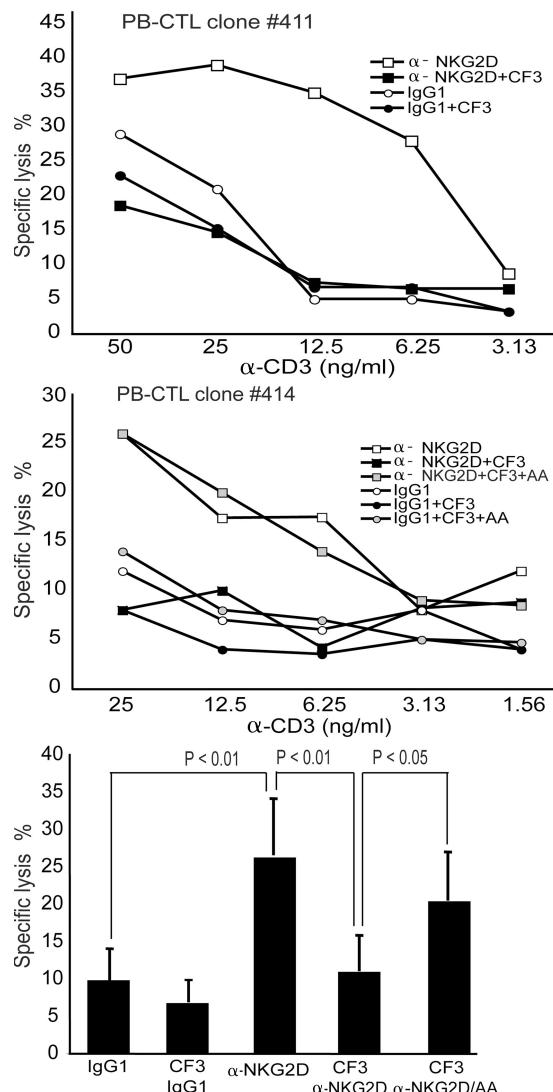


Figure 2. cPLA₂ activation is necessary for NKG2D cytolytic co-stimulatory functions. Inhibition of cPLA₂ blocks NKG2D augmentation of cytolytic T cell functions and AA reverses this blockage. Co-stimulation of cytolytic T cell functions by NKG2D was studied using three different PB-CTL clones (#411, #414, and #348) that were generated and cultured with low IL-2 (5 U/ml), in which NKG2D does not mediate direct cytotoxicity. Representative experiments of clone 411 (top) and 414 (middle) are shown. PB-CTLs were pretreated with vehicle or CF3. Redirected cytotoxicity was performed against ⁵¹Cr-labeled FcgR⁺ P815 targets (E/T ratio of 50:1) in the presence of anti-CD3 mAbs at the indicated concentration in combination with either anti-NKG2D mAbs or isotype control IgG1 at fixed concentration (1 μ g/ml). (bottom) A rescue experiment was performed by adding AA to CF3-pretreated cells 1 h after co-culture with target cells. A summary of three independent experiments for an anti-CD3 mAb concentration of 12.5 ng/ml with means \pm SD is shown. P values are from a Tukey-adjusted pairwise comparison.

To determine whether the capacity of NKG2D to induce cPLA₂ phosphorylation in CTLs was dependent on their activation status, we sorted freshly purified resting CD8 β^+ peripheral blood T cells that were used either immediately for biochemical studies or to establish a short-term effector CTL line by allogenic stimulation, as previously described (31). Interestingly, NKG2D and IL-15 failed to induce cPLA₂ phosphorylation in resting CD8 β^+ peripheral blood lymphocytes, but not in the short-term derived effector CTL line (Fig. S4, available at <http://www.jem.org/cgi/content/full/jem.20071887/DC1>). These findings are in accordance with previously reported data (6) showing that licensing of NKG2D by IL-15 to mediate cytotoxicity was restricted to CTLs in the effector stage.

Finally, we investigated whether induction of cPLA₂ phosphorylation was associated with AA release (Fig. 3, right). This was investigated under conditions of stimulation resulting in

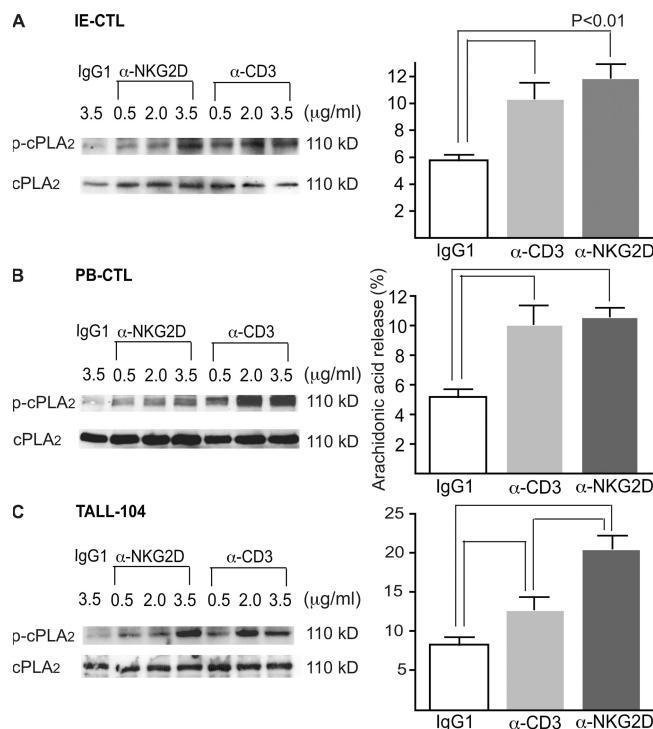


Figure 3. NKG2D and TCR engagement induce cPLA₂ phosphorylation and AA release in CTLs. Celiac IE-CTL clone (A), PB-CTL clone (B), and TALL-104 CTLs (C) were studied. (left) Concentration-dependent cPLA₂ phosphorylation upon NKG2D and TCR engagement. CTLs were serum starved for 16 h, and then stimulated for 15 min as indicated. Cell lysates were analyzed by Western blot using anti-phospho-cPLA₂ (p-cPLA₂)-specific antibody. The membrane was stripped and reblotted with anti-cPLA₂ antibody to assess equal loading. (right) AA release upon NKG2D and TCR engagement. CTLs were incubated with ³H-AA for 10 h, washed to remove free ³H-AA, and stimulated with the indicated antibody or isotype control for 1 h. Supernatants and cell pellets were separately harvested. Total and released ³H-AA were measured to determine the percentage of released ³H-AA. Mean value of triplicates was used for each of the three experiments. P values are from a Tukey-adjusted pairwise comparison.

maximal levels of cPLA₂ phosphorylation. TCR stimulation induced AA release. However, importantly, NKG2D could induce AA release independently of TCR engagement.

Collectively, these results demonstrate that NKG2D can induce cPLA₂ activation and mediate AA release independently of TCR stimulation. This unexpected function of NKG2D suggests that in tissues expressing stress-induced ligands, CTLs could participate in the activation of granulocytes sensitive to the presence of AA.

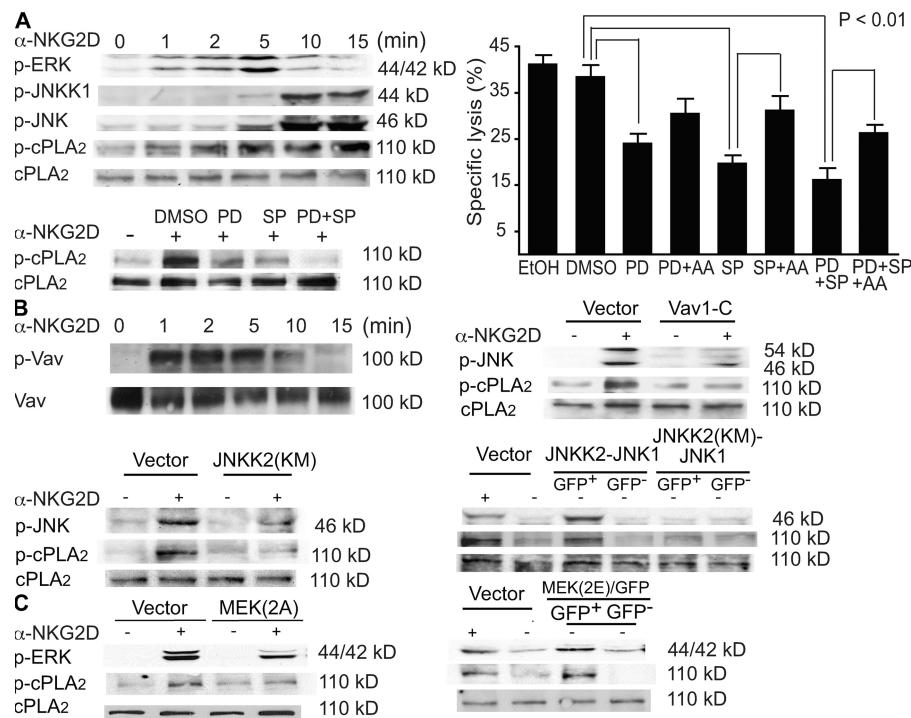


Figure 4. ERK and JNK control cPLA₂ activation and NKG2D-mediated cytosis. (A) JNK and ERK both regulate cPLA₂ phosphorylation and cytosis. Results shown were obtained with TALL-104 CTLs. Similar results were obtained with IE-CTLs. (top left) Phosphorylation time course. TALL-104 CTLs were serum-starved for 16 h before stimulation with anti-NKG2D antibodies for the indicated time. Cell lysates were subjected to Western blot analysis by anti-phospho-ERK, -JNK, -JNK, and -cPLA₂-specific antibodies. (bottom left) ERK and JNK inhibitors block, in an additive manner, cPLA₂ phosphorylation. TALL-104 CTLs were pretreated with vehicle or suboptimal doses (10 μ M) of specific kinase inhibitors. PD 98059 (PD) and SP600125 (SP) are MEK1/2 and JNK inhibitors, respectively. cPLA₂ phosphorylation was determined by immunoblot with anti-phospho cPLA₂ after 15 min of stimulation with anti-NKG2D mAbs. Total cPLA₂ is shown as loading control. (right) AA significantly restored NKG2D-mediated cytosis against C1R/MIC transfectants upon JNK, but not ERK, inhibition. TALL-104 CTLs were pretreated with vehicle and inhibitors as indicated in the top right graph. The rescue assay was done by addition of AA 1 h after co-culture of TALL-104 with ⁵¹Cr-labeled C1R/MIC transfectants. Data are means \pm SD of three independent cytolytic assays. (B) The Vav \rightarrow JNK1/2 \rightarrow JNK pathway controls cPLA₂ phosphorylation. Phosphorylation experiments were performed on cells starved overnight and stimulated for the indicated time with anti-NKG2D antibodies. Western blots for phospho-JNK and -cPLA₂ were performed on total cell lysates using anti-phospho-JNK and -cPLA₂ antibodies. Vav phosphorylation was evaluated after immunoprecipitation with anti-Vav1 mAb and immunoblotting with anti-phosphotyrosine mAb. Equal loading for total lysates and for Vav 1 immunoprecipitation were assessed using anti-cPLA₂ and -Vav antibody, respectively. (top left) Time course of anti-NKG2D-induced Vav phosphorylation. (top right) Dominant-negative Vav-1 (Vav 1- Δ C) blocked JNK and cPLA₂ activation. TALL-104 CTLs were transfected with control vector and Vav- Δ C and cultured for 48 h. Cells were then analyzed by Western blot as indicated. (bottom left) Dominant-negative JNK2 blocks cPLA₂ phosphorylation. TALL-104 CTLs transfected with control vector and dominant-negative JNK2(KM) were cultured for 48 h and analyzed by Western blot. (bottom right) Constitutive JNK activation induced cPLA₂ phosphorylation. TALL-104 CTLs were transfected with JNK2-JNK1 (which encodes a constitutively active form of JNK) or with JNK2(KM)-JNK1 (which encodes a kinase-deficient mutant), in addition to GFP plasmids. After 40 h of transfection, cells were sorted by flow cytometry into GFP⁺ and GFP⁻ cells. Presence of p-cPLA₂ was evaluated by immunoblot in the absence of NKG2D stimulation. NKG2D-stimulated and nonstimulated TALL-104 CTLs, transfected with a control vector, served as positive and negative control for JNK and cPLA₂ phosphorylation. Equal loading was assessed by immunoblotting with total cPLA₂. (C) ERK pathway regulates cPLA₂ phosphorylation. Dominant-negative and overexpression experiments were performed as in B. ERK and cPLA₂ phosphorylation were determined by Western blot. (left) Dominant-negative MEK-1 (MEK2A) significantly blocked cPLA₂ phosphorylation. (right) Constitutively active MEK-1 (MEK2E) induced cPLA₂ phosphorylation in the absence of NKG2D stimulation.

to investigate whether there was a link between ERK, JNK, and cPLA₂ activation, and NKG2D-mediated cytosis.

We first determined the kinetic of ERK, JNK, and cPLA₂ phosphorylation upon NKG2D stimulation. The peak of cPLA₂ phosphorylation occurred at 10–15 min after ERK and concomitant with JNKK1 and JNK phosphorylation (Fig. 4 A, top left). These results suggested that cPLA₂ phosphorylation was downstream of ERK and JNK.

To further evaluate the function of JNK and ERK in cPLA₂ activation and NKG2D-mediated cytosis, we performed studies with pharmacological inhibitors targeting specific MAP kinases. As anticipated, cPLA₂ phosphorylation (Fig. 4 A, bottom left) and AA release (not depicted) were blocked in an additive manner upon ERK (PD98059) and JNK (SP600125) inhibition. In contrast, the p38 inhibitor SB 203580 had no effect (unpublished data), a result that is in agreement with its lack of function in NKG2D-mediated cytosis (6). Finally, addition of AA reversed JNK inhibition, more significantly than ERK inhibition of NKG2D-mediated cytosis (Fig. 4 A, right).

We next dissected the signaling pathway leading to JNK activation and further assessed its critical role in cPLA₂ activation using a dominant-negative and overexpression approach. Vav1, which regulates JNK activation through a Rho/Rac1→MAPK kinase kinase 1 pathway (32), was also reported to play an essential role in the NKG2D cytolytic pathway in NK cells (33, 34). These observations suggested that Vav1 could control JNK activation. In agreement, our kinetic analysis indicated that Vav1 activation preceded JNKK1 and JNK phosphorylation (compare Fig. 4, A and B, top left). In addition, a dominant-negative of Vav1, Vav1-C (33), blocked both JNK and cPLA₂ activation after NKG2D cross-linking in CTLs (Fig. 4 B, top right). To further assess the role of JNK in cPLA₂ phosphorylation, TALL-104 CTLs were transfected with a dominant-negative JNKK2, which was shown to prevent JNK activation. As anticipated, blocking JNK activation resulted in inhibition of cPLA₂ phosphorylation upon NKG2D engagement (Fig. 4 B, bottom left). Conversely, simple overexpression of constitutive active JNK (JNKK2-JNK1), but not inactive JNK (JNKK2[KM]-JNK1) (35), induced similar levels of cPLA₂ phosphorylation than NKG2D stimulation in CTLs (Fig. 4 B, bottom right).

Finally, because the upstream events leading to ERK activation were defined by a previous study (6) (see also Fig. 7), we focused on assessing the role of ERK in cPLA₂ activation. As predicted by the pharmacological studies, the dominant-negative of MEK-1 (MEK-2A) (36, 37), which is located upstream of ERK, blocked ERK and cPLA₂ phosphorylation (Fig. 4 C, left), whereas overexpression of constitutive active MEK-1 (MEK-2E) (36, 37), induced cPLA₂ phosphorylation (Fig. 4 C, right).

Altogether, these observations suggest that Vav is upstream of JNK, and that JNK and ERK control NKG2D-mediated cPLA₂ activation in CTLs in an independent and additive manner.

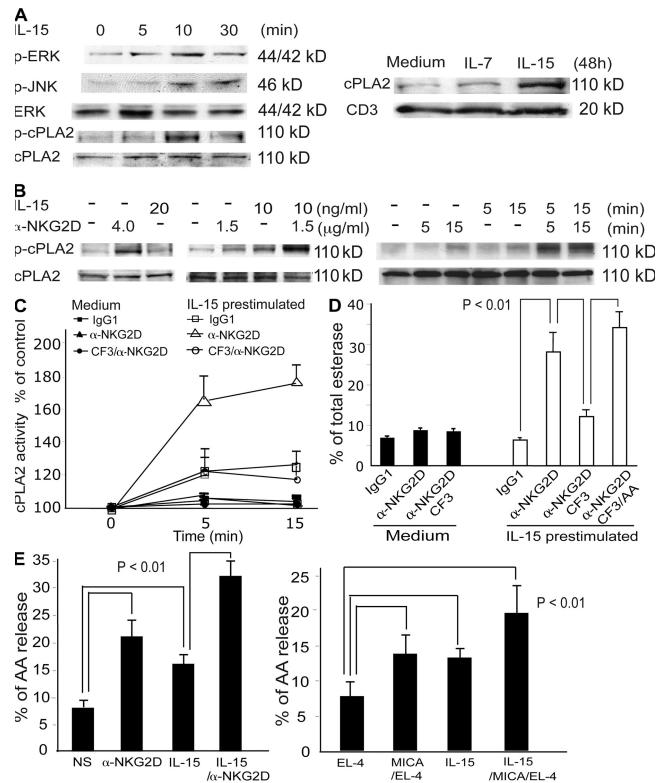


Figure 5. IL-15 promotes NKG2D-mediated cytolytic degranulation, cPLA₂ activation, and AA release in primary IE-CTLs. (A) IL-15 up-regulates cPLA₂ expression, and induces ERK, JNK, and cPLA₂ phosphorylation in a time-dependent manner. Fresh IE-CTLs were starved overnight and stimulated with 20 ng/ml IL-15 for indicated time periods. Cell lysates were immunoblotted with anti-p-ERK, -p-cPLA, and -p-cPLA₂ antibodies. Total ERK and total cPLA₂ are shown to assess equal loading. (right) Fresh IE-CTLs were cultured with IL-15 or IL-7 for 48 h. cPLA₂ expression was determined by Western blot. Equal loading was assessed using an anti-CD3 ζ mAb. (B) IL-15 synergizes with NKG2D to induce cPLA₂ phosphorylation in a dose- (left) and time-dependent (right) manner. Fresh IE-CTLs (left) or TALL-104 CTLs (right) were stimulated with IL-15 alone, anti-NKG2D mAb alone, or IL-15 in combination with anti-NKG2D mAb for 15 min at the indicated concentration (4 μ g/ml anti-NKG2D mAb and 20 ng/ml IL-15) (right). For each panel one out of 2 representative experiments is shown. (C and D) IL-15 stimulation plays a critical role in NKG2D-mediated cPLA₂ activity (C) and cytolytic granule release (D) in primary IE-CTLs. Freshly purified IE-CTLs were cultured with or without IL-15 (20 ng/ml) for 24–48 h and pretreated for 30 min with vehicle control or CF3 before stimulation with anti-NKG2D mAb or IgG1 isotype control. Rescue experiments were performed by adding 50 μ M of AA after 1 h of stimulation. Data are means \pm SD of six experimental points from two independent experiments. P values are from a Tukey-adjusted pairwise comparison. (E) IL-15 enhances NKG2D-mediated AA release. Fresh IE-CTLs were cultured with or without IL-15 (10 ng/ml) for 24 h and analyzed for AA release upon 1 h stimulation. (left) IE-CTLs were not stimulated (NS) or stimulated with plate-bound anti-NKG2D mAb (4 μ g/ml). (right) IE-CTLs were stimulated with control EL-4 cells or MICA-transfected EL4 cells (MICA/EL-4) at a 1:1 ratio to target cell ratio of 1:0.5. Data are means \pm SD of three independent experiments. P values are from a Tukey-adjusted pairwise comparison.

IL-15 arms NKG2D to mediate cytosis and AA release in primary IE-CTLs by up-regulating cPLA₂ expression and activation

We had previously demonstrated that IL-15 or high levels of IL-2 (which can substitute for IL-15) licensed NKG2D to mediate cytosis independently of TCR activation in effector CTLs (6, 13). Furthermore, we showed that IE-CTLs exposed in vivo to IL-15 in active celiac disease killed MIC⁺ target cells (6). Here, we investigated whether the licensing of NKG2D to mediate direct cytosis in freshly purified IE-CTLs involved cPLA₂ activation by IL-15. We first determined whether IL-15 could activate cPLA₂. Interestingly, IL-15 induced not only ERK and JNK phosphorylation, as previously shown (6, 38), but also cPLA₂ phosphorylation (Fig. 5 A, left). The time course was similar to that of NKG2D (compare Fig. 5 A, left, and Fig. 4 A, left). In addition, cPLA₂ expression was increased in primary IE-CTLs stimulated for 48 h with IL-15, but not with IL-7 (Fig. 5 A, right). Furthermore, IL-15 synergized with NKG2D to induce cPLA₂ phosphorylation in a dose- (Fig. 5 B, left) and time-dependent manner (Fig. 5 B, right). cPLA₂ activity was significantly up-regulated only in freshly isolated IE-CTLs that were prestimulated with IL-15 for 48 h. Importantly, induction of cPLA₂ activity paralleled the ability of NKG2D to mediate degranulation (compare Fig. 5, C and D). Conversely, cPLA₂ inhibition blocked cPLA₂ activity (Fig. 5 C) and degranulation (Fig. 5 D), which was restored in the presence of AA (Fig. 5 D).

We next investigated whether NKG2D could induce AA release in primary effector IE-CTLs. As shown in Fig. 5 E, IL-15 and NKG2D independently induced AA release. The release was maximal when IE-CTLs were stimulated simultaneously by IL-15 and NKG2D. Importantly, AA release was also observed upon engagement of NKG2D by plate-coated monoclonal anti-NKG2D mAb (Fig. 5 E, left) and MIC-expressing EL4 fibroblasts (Fig. 5 E, right).

Altogether, these observations suggest that priming of the NKG2D cytolytic pathway by IL-15 in primary effector CTLs entails up-regulation of cPLA₂ expression and activation. Furthermore, IL-15 and NKG2D can induce AA release.

Expression of phosphorylated cPLA₂ in IE-CTLs of celiac patients

NKG2D and IL-15 were shown to play a critical role in celiac disease by licensing IE-CTLs to kill enterocytes (6). Furthermore, previous studies in active celiac patients reported that ERK (6) and JNK (38) phosphorylation were induced in IE-CTLs of active celiac patients. Together, these observations suggested that cPLA₂ might be activated in IE-CTLs of celiac patients.

In situ analysis of immunohistochemical staining with anti-CD3 antibody in combination with anti-phospho-cPLA₂ antibody or control antibody revealed that the frequency of IE-CTL-expressing phospho-cPLA₂ was highly increased in celiac patients ($n = 6$; $79 \pm 8\%$) compared with controls ($n = 4$; $13 \pm 4.6\%$; $P = 0.001$) (Fig. 6 B). In addition, to control for evaluation bias inherent to subjective morphological

inspection and background staining, automatic image analysis was performed using the ACIS software (see Materials and methods) as previously described (39, 40). Specific cPLA₂ staining appears in red when staining is above background threshold values after overlay (Fig. 6 A). Importantly, the

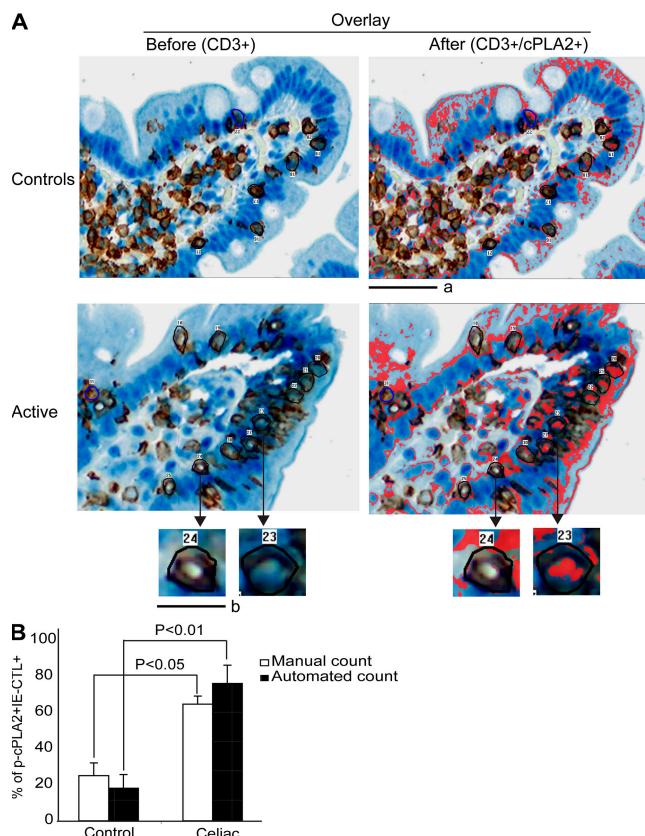


Figure 6. Phospho-cPLA₂ expression in IE-CTLs of active celiac patients. (A) Representative examples of double staining immunohistochemistry of CD3 (brown)/phospho-cPLA₂ (blue) in duodenal biopsies from patients with active celiac disease and controls (magnification $\times 200$). Intraepithelial lymphocytes were randomly selected from the pool of CD3⁺ cells and automatically numbered as shown. Expression of phospho-cPLA₂ was measured within each outlined CD3⁺ IE-CTLs. In the left images, before overlay, phospho-cPLA₂-positive appears in blue. After overlay, in the right images, specific phospho-cPLA₂ staining as determined by threshold values is highlighted in red. (insets) IE-CTL #23 and #24 before and after applying the overlay tool. Note that double-positive IE-CTL #23 falls within the threshold values for phospho-cPLA₂-positive staining and thus is covered with solid red in overlaid image. In contrast, IE-CTL #24 falls below the threshold values for phospho-cPLA₂-positive staining and thus remains covered with white in overlaid image. Finally, increased phospho-cPLA₂-positive epithelial cells (colored in red after overlay) are present in active celiac patients compared with controls. Bars: (a) 40 μ m; (b) 10 μ m. (B) A summary with mean percentage of phospho-cPLA₂⁺ IE-CTLs \pm SD is presented after manual and automated count. For manual count, four control and six celiac patients were analyzed. For automated count, >100 IE-CTLs in two control and two celiac slides were analyzed. P value was determined with the exact Wilcoxon rank sum test. Note that manual and automated count give similar percentage of phospho-cPLA₂⁺IE-CTLs.

automatic count confirmed the manual count by showing a similar significant increase in the percentage of cPLA₂-positive IE-CTLs (Fig. 6 B). This result is even more striking in regard to the augmentation in the number of IE-CTLs in celiac disease, reaching classically up to 10 times the value of that observed in normal controls (41). The total number of IE-CTL-expressing phospho-cPLA₂ in celiac patients can therefore be estimated to be 40–60-fold higher than in controls. This finding is particularly relevant in the context of our observations that cPLA₂ plays a critical role in NKG2D cytolytic functions of celiac and IL-15-stimulated IE-CTLs (Figs. 1 and 5).

Furthermore, phospho-cPLA₂, similar to phospho-ERK and JNK (6, 38), was also highly up-regulated in enterocytes of celiac patients (Fig. 6 A), especially in the nuclear compartment (not depicted) where accumulation correlates with activation (for review see reference [28]).

Altogether, these results illustrate that cPLA₂ is activated in IE-CTLs of active celiac patients and support, in association with other present (Figs. 1 and 5) and past (6) observations, an in vivo role for cPLA₂ in celiac disease pathogenesis.

DISCUSSION

Our study establishes an unexpected connection between IL-15- and CTL-mediated immunopathology in celiac disease and inflammatory lipid biology. Our observations also suggest that NKG2D effector functions, particularly cytosis, are critically regulated by cPLA₂ in CTLs. Furthermore, we identify an unexpected role for Vav, JNK, and ERK in NKG2D-mediated cytosis by showing that they mediate cPLA₂ activation. Finally, our study suggests that NKG2D and IL-15 could contribute to tissue inflammation and granulocyte activation by promoting the release of AA in CTLs (Fig. 7).

The molecular basis for exocytosis is a field of high investigation. It involves trafficking of granules to the plasma membrane and membrane fusion events. There is increasing evidence that exocytosis can be triggered, either under conditions of high-level calcium mobilization sufficient to activate snare-mediated membrane fusion (for review see references [42]), or under conditions of low levels of calcium mobilization (43) involving AA and its eicosanoids metabolites, which are known as fusogens (44). This latter mechanism is thought to play a role in neutrophil and neuroendocrine cell degranulation (45, 46). It may be particularly relevant for surface receptors that, similar to NKG2D, signal through an adaptor molecule lacking an ITAM motif (10), and induce relatively low levels of calcium (34, 47) (Fig. S5, available at <http://www.jem.org/cgi/content/full/jem.20071887/DC1>). Pharmacological studies performed in the 1980s (48–52) suggested that inflammatory lipid mediators may play a role in NK cell-mediated lysis in human and rodents without defining the receptors involved (48–52). More recently, cPLA₂ was proposed to contribute to NKR-P1A-induced cytosis in rat NK cells (53). However, recent findings in human indicate that engagement of NKR-P1A by its ligand LLT1 (54, 55) inhibited rather than induced NK cell-mediated lysis (54). Furthermore, the nature of the adaptor mole-

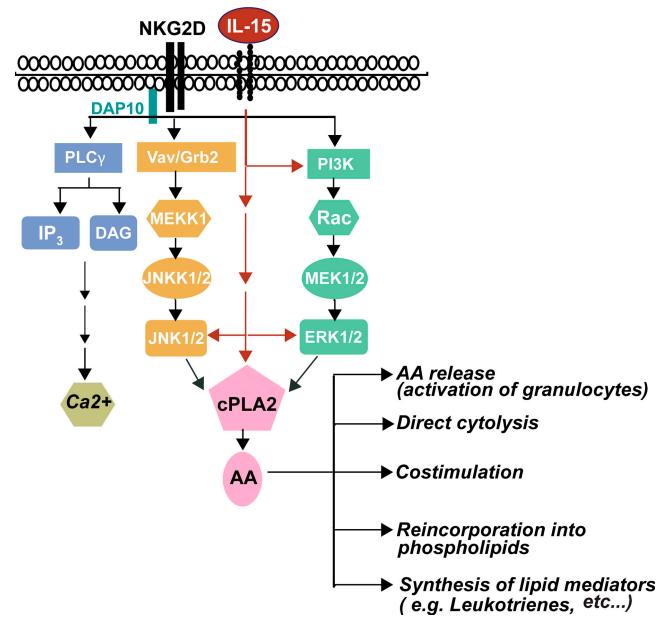


Figure 7. Model of the NKG2D signaling pathway in CTLs. The NKG2D cytolytic signaling pathway involves PLC- γ 2, Vav1, and PI3-K activation (60). How these upstream signaling events are interconnected in CTLs remains to be determined. NKG2D-mediated cytosis requires activation of cPLA₂ and AA release, suggesting that the level of calcium mobilization achieved upon NKG2D cross-linking is insufficient to allow membrane fusion events and exocytosis. Cytosolic PLA₂ activation itself is mediated through two independent pathways, Vav-1 \rightarrow JNKK1/2 \rightarrow JNK1/2 \rightarrow cPLA₂ and PI3-K \rightarrow MEK1/2 \rightarrow ERK \rightarrow cPLA₂. It is likely that these pathways also promote granule polarization (62, 63, 67). In addition, cPLA₂ activation is also required for NKG2D cytolytic co-stimulatory functions. Interestingly, IL-15, which licenses NKG2D killing in CTLs (6), enhances NKG2D-mediated JNK, ERK and cPLA₂ phosphorylation, and AA release. Once released, AA can potentially be reincorporated into phospholipids, mediate the biosynthesis of eicosanoids and induce granulocyte activation.

cule associated with NKR-P1A remains undefined. Thus, the role of cPLA₂ could not be ascribed to particular cytolytic signaling pathways and to individual NK receptors in human. Our study unambiguously identifies the NKG2D-DAP10 in human CTLs as an immunoreceptor complex that requires cPLA₂ activation and AA release as integral components of its cytolytic machinery. In addition, our preliminary data indicate that this finding is not limited to CTLs, because the NKG2D cytolytic pathway in NK cells also involves cPLA₂ activation (unpublished data). Interestingly, our data suggest that cPLA₂ is not significantly involved in TCR-mediated cytosis. Future studies will determine whether, more generally, ITAM-signaling receptors mobilizing high levels of calcium mediate granule exocytosis independently of cPLA₂. In agreement, NK cell receptors associated with ITAM-bearing adaptor molecules induce high levels of calcium flux (47) and cPLA₂-independent cytosis (56). Importantly, however, even though cPLA₂ is not directly involved in TCR-mediated cytosis, it plays a critical role in the co-stimulation of cytolytic T cell responses. Notably,

NKG2D was unsuccessful to induce cPLA₂ phosphorylation in resting CD8⁺TCR $\alpha\beta^+$ peripheral blood lymphocytes. This finding may explain why NKG2D fails to exert co-stimulatory function in resting noneffector CD8 T cells (57). Together, these observations are in agreement with the general concept, reported by Bryceson et al. (58, 59) that receptors using different adapters and signaling pathways contribute distinctively and synergistically to cytotoxicity.

Studies had identified PLC- γ 2, PI3-K, and Grb2/Vav1 as key upstream signaling molecules of the NKG2D cytolytic pathway (Fig. 7) (33, 60, 61). Our previous analysis of the human NKG2D-DAP10 cytolytic signaling pathway suggested that ERK and JNK, activated through independent pathways, played critical roles in NKG2D- but not TCR-mediated cytotoxicity (Fig. 7) (6). The role of PI3K in cytotoxicity is complex and remains incompletely understood; among its potential roles, PI3K is thought to be involved in ERK activation (6, 62, 63). A critical role for Vav in natural killer signaling and cytotoxicity has been reported in mouse and human by several groups (33, 64–68). Vav is thought to play a role similar to that of ERK (62, 63) in cytotoxicity by promoting granule polarization (67). This study reveals that Vav1 is upstream of JNK in the NKG2D cytolytic pathway (Fig. 7). More importantly, it sheds a new light on the role of the PI3K–ERK and Vav–JNK pathways in NKG2D-mediated cytotoxicity by showing that ERK and JNK critically regulate cPLA₂ activation, which in turn critically regulates NKG2D-mediated degranulation and cytotoxicity (Fig. 7). Whether AA, which is released upon cPLA₂ activation, plays a role in granule exocytosis as fusogen (22, 44, 45) or indirectly through its role in the biosynthesis of eicosanoids remains to be determined. AA serves as a substrate to 5-LO and cyclooxygenase (COX), which drive the leukotriene and prostaglandin synthesis pathways, respectively (28). Interestingly, although NKG2D engagement induces 5-LO and COX activation, only 5-LO is involved in NKG2D-mediated cytotoxicity (unpublished data). These observations are in agreement with reports suggesting that leukotrienes, but not prostaglandins, play a role in lymphokine-activated killer activity (51, 52) and NK-mediated cytotoxicity (69, 70).

Convergent observations suggest that IL-15 and NKG2D may coordinately regulate CTL effector functions and mediate organ-specific immunopathology (for review see reference [15]). For instance, the role of NKG2D as a direct mediator of cytotoxicity was shown in celiac disease (6). Celiac disease is an inflammatory intestinal disorder with an autoimmune component triggered by dietary gluten in genetically susceptible individuals (71, 72). Although the role of gluten-specific, DQ2- or DQ8-restricted CD4 T cells in the lamina propria was accepted early on (73), the role of IE-CTLs was questioned because no gluten-specific IE-CTLs could be identified (for review see reference [71]). Our finding that IL-15 primed NKG2D in CTLs to kill MIC-expressing enterocytes in celiac disease (6, 13) provided an explanation as to how IE-CTLs could cause intestinal damage and malabsorption, despite their inability to recognize gluten. Licensing by IL-15 was shown to involve up-regulation of NKG2D and DAP-10

expression, and activation of the PI3-K→ERK signaling pathway (6). We now show that IL-15 is also involved in the activation of JNK. More importantly, we demonstrate that IL-15-mediated licensing of the NKG2D cytolytic pathway requires cPLA₂ activation, and that cPLA₂ is highly activated in IE-CTLs of active celiac patients. Interestingly, cPLA₂ is concomitantly activated in the intestinal epithelial cells. This activation of cPLA₂ may be secondary to the activation of enterocytes by IL-15 (74) and/or AA released by IE-CTLs.

Finally, our study reveals that NKG2D and IL-15 signaling in effector CTLs causes CTLs to release AA and potentially eicosanoids, such as leukotrienes and prostaglandins. Eicosanoid synthesis by CTLs is supported by our findings that NKG2D induces AA production and activates 5-LO and COX (unpublished data). Interestingly, AA and eicosanoids favor granulocyte recruitment and activation (75–79). These findings establish an unrecognized link between CTLs, NKG2D, IL-15, and inflammation, which may have as of yet unrecognized pathological implications. In particular, it may be relevant in immune-mediated diseases, such as rheumatoid arthritis and celiac disease, where NKG2D and IL-15 play a pathogenic role (for review see reference [15]) and where granulocytes are activated (80–84).

Collectively, our findings invite us to reexamine the role of IL-15 and NKG2D in inflammation and autoimmunity, and develop therapeutic strategies aimed at blocking cPLA₂ in diseases associated with dysregulated IL-15 expression and NKG2D activation. Future studies will determine whether 5-LO and COX should also be targeted. Our preliminary observations suggest that 5-LO, but not COX, is involved in NKG2D-mediated immunopathology. In addition, in view of observations suggesting that prostaglandins inhibit NK cell cytotoxic responses (85, 86), blocking COX activation may even be deleterious.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Human subjects. For immunohistochemical studies, six adult patients with active celiac disease and four control aged-matched individuals undergoing biopsies for functional intestinal disorders of nonceliac origin were studied. Diagnosis of celiac disease was based on detection of antitransglutaminase antibodies, the presence of HLA DQ2 or DQ8, villous atrophy, and clinical and histological response to a gluten-free diet. In addition, IE-CTLs were isolated from surgical specimens of individuals undergoing gastric bypass for morbid obesity, as previously described (6). All subjects gave written informed consent and research was approved by the University of Chicago Institutional Review board.

CTL isolation and cell culture. IE-CTLs were purified from jejunal biopsies and surgical specimens, as previously described (31). Intraepithelial and peripheral blood NKG2D⁺TCR⁺CD8⁺ CTL lines and clones were obtained and cultured as previously described (31). PB-CTL clone #348 and #414 (cultured with 5 U/ml of IL-2) in which NKG2D exerts co-stimulatory cytolytic functions but cannot induce direct cytotoxicity were obtained and cultured, as previously described (1, 8). Resting peripheral blood CD8⁺TCR $\alpha\beta^+$ T lymphocytes were purified and an effector CTL line was generated according to a previously described protocol (6, 31). In brief, peripheral blood lymphocytes were isolated from whole blood of healthy volunteers after Ficoll density gradient centrifugation (GE Healthcare). Cells were stained with anti-CD8 β APC-conjugated mAb (BD) and purified by AutoMACS (Miltenyi

Biotecl using anti-APC magnetic beads (Miltenyi Biotecl). Purity (>95%) of isolation was confirmed by flow cytometry. Purified CD8⁺TCR $\alpha\beta^+$ T cells were divided into two parts. One part was directly used for cPLA₂ signal transduction experiments. The other part was used to generate a short-term effector CTL line by allogenic stimulation, as previously described (31), to investigate whether the effector status impacted on the ability of NKG2D to induce cPLA₂ phosphorylation.

MICA-transfected (C1R-MIC) or control vector-transfected (C1R-Neo) C1R cells and CD8⁺TCR $\alpha\beta^+$ cytotoxic leukemia TALL-104 cell line (American Type Culture Collection) were cultured, as previously described (6). EL4 (American Type Culture Collection TIB-39) are a murine T lymphoma cell line. MICA-transfected EL4 (EL4-MICA) and control EL4 cells were grown in RPMI 1640 supplemented with 10% FCS, glutamine, antibiotics, and G 418.

Reagents, antibodies, and recombinant cytokines. cPLA₂ inhibitor AACOCF3, MEK1/2 inhibitor PD98059, and JNK inhibitor SP600125 were obtained from Calbiochem. AA and LA were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich. Anti-CD3 (clone UCHT1, IgG1) and anti-NKG2D mAbs (clone 1D11, IgG1) and isotype-matched control IgG1 were purchased from BD; PE-conjugated anti-NKG2D 1D11 was purchased from eBioscience; and anti-Vav1, -cPLA₂, -ERK, -JNK-phospho-cPLA₂, -phospho-JNKK1, -phospho-PLC γ 2, -phospho-ERK, and -phospho-JNK antibodies were purchased from Cell Signaling Technology. Antiphosphotyrosine mAb 4G10 was obtained from Millipore. Antiactin mAb was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Anti-5-LO mAb was obtained from Fitzgerald Industries Int. F(ab')₂ goat anti-mouse antibodies were obtained from Jackson ImmunoResearch Laboratories. Human IL-15 and IL-2 were purchased from BD.

Plasmids, siRNA, and transfection. Dominant-negative mutant Vav1 plasmid (pcDNA3.flag.h.Vav1-C) that contains only the C-terminal portion of Vav1 was a gift from P. Leibson and D. Billadeau (Mayo Clinic College of Medicine, Rochester, MN) (33). Dominant-negative MEK1(S218a, S222a, MEK[2A]), and constitutively activated MEK1(MEK[2E]) expression plasmid were gifts from M.R. Rosner (University of Chicago, Chicago, IL) (36, 37). Expression vectors encoding JNKK2-JNK1 (which encodes a constitutively active form of JNK), JNKK2(K149M)-JNK1 (a kinase-deficient mutant), and JNKK2(KM) have been previously described (35). cPLA₂, 5-LO, and control synthesized siRNA oligonucleotides were purchased from Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Inc. TALL-104 CTL cells were electroporated with the Amaxa Nucleofector (Amaxa, Inc.), using Amaxa Cell Line nucleofection solution V and program T-20. Cells were cultured for 24–72 h before being used for experiments. For overexpression experiments involving HA-tagged JNKK2-JNK1, HA-tagged JNKK2(KM)-JNK1, or MEK(2E), TALL-104 CTLs were cotransfected with the indicated plasmids and GFP plasmid at a 5:1 ratio. 40 h after transfection, cells were sorted by flow cytometry into GFP⁺ and GFP⁻ cells with FACSaria (BD) before being analyzed for p-cPLA₂, p-JNK, and p-ERK expressions by Western blot. For siRNA experiments, 4 × 10⁶ cells were transfected with 120 pmol siRNA and 30 pmol GFP plasmid. On average, 40% of cells were transfected based on GFP expression. Efficiency and specificity of protein knock-down was assessed by Western blot with the appropriate antibodies.

Cell signaling. To look at cPLA₂, JNK, and ERK phosphorylation, cells were serum-starved for 30 h. To test the effects of kinase inhibitors, cells were preincubated for 30 min at 37°C with the indicated inhibitors before stimulation. To cross-link immunoreceptors, cells were incubated for 4 min at 4°C with the indicated monoclonal antibody before adding F(ab')₂ GAM for the indicated duration at 37°C. Cells were lysed for 20 min in ice-cold lysis buffer containing fresh protease and phosphatase inhibitors (50 mM Tris-HCl [pH 7.5]; 150 mM NaCl; 1% Triton-X100; 1 mM EDTA; 1 mM Na₃VO₄; 1 mM NaF; and protease inhibitor cocktail tablets). Cellular debris was removed by centrifugation at 15,000 rpm for 20 min at 4°C. Total lysates were subjected to SDS-PAGE electrophoresis and transferred to PVDF membranes (Bio-Rad Laboratories). Proteins were then detected by using

the indicated antibodies, followed by HRP-conjugated goat anti-mouse (HRP-GAM) or donkey anti-rabbit (HRP-DAR) antibodies (Jackson Immunoresearch Laboratories) using the enhanced chemiluminescence (ECL) kit from GE Healthcare. Tyrosine-phosphorylated Vav1 was revealed by anti-phosphotyrosine (4G10) antibody after immunoprecipitation of the cell lysates with rabbit polyclonal anti-Vav1 antibody.

Cytotoxicity assay. Chromium release assays were performed as previously described using P815 cells (a Fc γ ⁺ mouse mastocytoma; American Type Culture Collection), C1R-MICA1, EL4-MICA1, control C1R transfectants, and control EL4 cells at the indicated E:T ratio in triplicate wells (6). For Fc-dependent redirected cytotoxicity, effectors and targets were incubated in the presence of soluble anti-NKG2D or anti-CD3 mAbs at the indicated concentration. Chromium release was measured using a scintillation counter (Packard). Maximum release was determined by the addition of detergent (10% SDS) and spontaneous release ranged from 5–10% of the maximum. The percentage of specific cytotoxicity was calculated using the formula $100 \times (cpm_{\text{experimental}} - cpm_{\text{spontaneous}}) / (cpm_{\text{maximum}} - cpm_{\text{spontaneous}})$. When indicated, effector cells were treated for 30 min before and during the cytotoxic assay with different inhibitors, lipid mediators, or equivalent concentrations of the DMSO or ethanol vehicles.

AA release assay. 10⁶ cells/ml IE-CTLs, PB-CTLs, and TALL-104 CTLs were labeled with 0.2 μ Ci ³H AA (specific activity 62.5 Ci/mmol; Perkin-Elmer) in RPMI 1640 or IMDM with 0.2% fetal bovine serum at 37°C 5% CO₂ for 1 or 8 h. After labeling, cells were washed at least three times to remove free ³H AA and, when indicated, pretreated with inhibitors or vehicles for 30 min in medium with 0.2% bovine serum albumin (BSA). Cells were then incubated with anti-NKG2D, anti-CD3 mAbs, or mouse IgG1 control at 37°C for 4 min followed by F(ab')₂ goat anti-mouse IgG for 1 h in medium with 0.2% BSA. Supernatants and cell pellets were separately collected by centrifugation. ³H AA was measured with a scintillation counter. Percentage of ³H AA release was calculated as supernatant ³H / (supernatant ³H + pellet ³H) × 100.

Flow cytometric analysis. For surface staining, cells were incubated with fluorochrome-conjugated antibodies according to standard protocols. Fluorescence was analyzed on a six-color FACSCanto (Becton Dickinson) with quadrants set to score as negative >99% of control Ig-stained cells.

Measurement of granule release by BLT esterase assay. Granule release was evaluated as previously described (6). In brief, CTLs were suspended in RPMI medium containing 2% FCS, incubated in 96-well with 4 μ g/100 μ l of anti-NKG2D mAb or isotype control for 4 min, and then stimulated for 4 h with goat anti-mouse IgG F(ab')₂ at 37°C. Maximum granule release was determined using 1% Triton X-100. The supernatants were evaluated for esterase secretion using a standard N-benzyloxycarbonyl lysine thiobenzyl ester (BLT; Calbiochem). The percentage of BLT esterase activity was calculated using the following equation: (experimental BLT esterase release – spontaneous BLT esterase release) / (maximum BLT esterase release – spontaneous BLT esterase release) × 100.

cPLA₂ enzyme activity assay. cPLA₂ activity was assessed in lysates of primary IE-CTL, PB, and IE-CTL lines according to the manufacturer's procedure (Cayman Chemical), as reported (87), using arachidonoyl thio-PC as a synthetic substrate. In brief, 4 × 10⁶ cells were stimulated with anti-NKG2D or isotype control, and the pellets were lysed by three cycles of freeze thawing in lysis buffer (50 mM Hepes, pH 7.4, containing 1 mM EDTA, 1 μ g/ml leupeptin, 5 μ g/ml aprotinin, 1 mM PMSF, 2 mM Na₃VO₄, 2.5 mM NaF, and 1 mM DTT). 10 μ l sample supernatant and 5 μ l assay buffer were well mixed and the reaction was initiated by adding 200 μ l substrate solution to the wells. After 1 h incubation at room temperature, 10 μ l of DTNB/EGTA was added to each well to stop the reaction. Absorbance was measured at 414 nm. cPLA₂ activity was expressed as the percentage of

nonstimulated control (absorbance of stimulated cells/absorbance of non-stimulated cells) $\times 100$.

Immunohistochemistry and image analysis. Immunohistochemical double staining for CD3 and phospho-cPLA₂ was performed on 4 μ M 10% formalin-fixed paraffin sections using the double staining blocking kit (DAKO). Monoclonal anti-CD3 antibody was used at 1:200 dilution (Bio-Genex), and rabbit polyclonal anti-p-cPLA₂ and isotype antibody were used at 1:50 dilution.

To control for evaluation bias inherent to subjective morphological inspection and background staining, automatic image analysis with the pixel and cell/object-based image analysis was performed using ACIS software from Clariant, as previously described (39, 40). For each slide, 5–6 areas were scanned at 200 \times magnification to yield high-resolution digital images. The ACIS software applies the color-specific thresholds configured by an experienced user-pathologist (MT) to differentiate specific blue phospho-cPLA₂ staining within lymphocytes and epithelial cells from the surrounding blue background staining. The same threshold values for specific blue staining were applied to both control and active celiac biopsy sections. The overlay tool was used to highlight phospho-cPLA₂-positive areas (defined by blue staining above background) in red color within the CD3⁺ (brown) intraepithelial lymphocyte population (Fig. 6). From each digital image, at least 100 IE-CTLs were selected and numbered for analysis of phospho-cPLA₂ staining. All cells were classified as either double positive or only CD3 positive (phospho-cPLA₂ negative). Results obtained by software analysis were compared with cell counts obtained by manual morphological inspection.

Statistical analysis. Mixed effects models were constructed for all bar graphs in the figures. The treatment variable was included as a fixed predictor. Experimental plate was included as a random predictor in the model. The outcome variable (specific lysis) was log transformed after checking normality of the residuals from the mixed model. Tukey-adjusted pairwise comparisons are reported unless otherwise noted. The main effect of treatment was statistically significant for all conditions tested ($P < 0.001$).

For analysis of immunohistochemical data, celiac cases were compared with controls using exact Wilcoxon rank sum tests.

Online supplemental material. Fig. S1 shows dose-dependent inhibition by AACOCF3 (CF3) and rescue by AA of NKG2D-mediated cytotoxicity. Fig. S2 shows the effect of cPLA2 inhibition by AACOCF3 (CF3) on granzyme and perforin expression in IE- and PB-CTLs. Fig. S3 shows that NKG2D stimulation induces perinuclear cPLA2 translocation and cPLA2 activity in IE- and PB-CTLs in a time-dependent manner. Fig. S4 shows that NKG2D and IL-15 induce cPLA2 phosphorylation in effector, but not resting, peripheral blood CTL. Fig. S5 shows that NKG2D induces notably lower levels of calcium release than the TCR in CTLs. A supplemental materials and methods is also provided. Online supplemental material is available at <http://www.jem.org/cgi/content/full/jem.20071887/DC1>.

This paper is dedicated to the memory of Paul J. Leibson who pioneered the field of NK cell signaling. His work, in particular on NKG2D, has been a source of inspiration.

The authors would also like to thank Jean-Pierre Kinet, Mark Musch, William De Paolo, and Albert Bendelac for critical reading of the manuscript, Daniel D Billadeau for providing the Vav1 dominant-negative construct, Emily Kistner for help with statistical analysis, Ryan Duggan for cell sorting, and Terry Li for help in the execution of the immunohistochemistry studies. We would also like to thank the University of Chicago Celiac Disease Center and the Columbia Presbyterian Hospital Celiac Disease Center.

The work was supported by R01 DK063158, R01 DK58727, A130581 (TS), and University of Chicago DDRCC P30DK42086.

The authors have no conflicting financial interests.

Submitted: 4 September 2007

Accepted: 22 January 2009

REFERENCES

- Bauer, S., V. Groh, J. Wu, A. Steinle, J.H. Phillips, L.L. Lanier, and T. Spies. 1999. Activation of NK cells and T cells by NKG2D, a receptor for stress-inducible MICA. *Science*. 285:727–729.
- Cosman, D., J. Mullberg, C.L. Sutherland, W. Chin, R. Armitage, W. Fanslow, M. Kubin, and N.J. Chalupny. 2001. ULBPs, Novel MHC Class I-Related Molecules, Bind to CMV Glycoprotein UL16 and Stimulate NK Cytotoxicity through the NKG2D Receptor. *Immunity*. 14:123–133.
- Chalupny, N.J., C.L. Sutherland, W.A. Lawrence, A. Rein-Weston, and D. Cosman. 2003. ULBP4 is a novel ligand for human NKG2D. *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.* 305:129–135.
- Diefenbach, A., E.R. Jensen, A.M. Jamieson, and D.H. Raulet. 2001. Rae1 and H60 ligands of the NKG2D receptor stimulate tumour immunity. *Nature*. 413:165–171.
- Groh, V., J. Wu, C. Yee, and T. Spies. 2002. Tumour-derived soluble MIC ligands impair expression of NKG2D and T-cell activation. *Nature*. 419:734–738.
- Meresse, B., Z. Chen, C. Ciszewski, M. Tretiakova, G. Bhagat, T.N. Krausz, D.H. Raulet, L.L. Lanier, V. Groh, T. Spies, et al. 2004. Coordinated induction by IL15 of a TCR-independent NKG2D signaling pathway converts CTL into lymphokine-activated killer cells in celiac disease. *Immunity*. 21:357–366.
- Hue, S., J.J. Mention, R.C. Monteiro, S. Zhang, C. Cellier, J. Schmitz, V. Verkarre, N. Fodil, S. Bahram, N. Cerf-Bensussan, and S. Caillat-Zucman. 2004. A direct role for NKG2D/MICA interaction in villous atrophy during celiac disease. *Immunity*. 21:367–377.
- Groh, V., A. Bruhl, H. El-Gabalawy, J.L. Nelson, and T. Spies. 2003. Stimulation of T cell autoreactivity by anomalous expression of NKG2D and its MIC ligands in rheumatoid arthritis. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*. 100:9452–9457.
- Ogasawara, K., J.A. Hamerman, L.R. Ehrlich, H. Bour-Jordan, P. Santamaría, J.A. Bluestone, and L.L. Lanier. 2004. NKG2D blockade prevents autoimmune diabetes in NOD mice. *Immunity*. 20:757–767.
- Wu, J., Y. Song, A.B. Bakker, S. Bauer, T. Spies, L.L. Lanier, and J.H. Phillips. 1999. An activating immunoreceptor complex formed by NKG2D and DAP10. *Science*. 285:730–732.
- Rosen, D.B., M. Araki, J.A. Hamerman, T. Chen, T. Yamamura, and L.L. Lanier. 2004. A Structural basis for the association of DAP12 with mouse, but not human, NKG2D. *J. Immunol.* 173:2470–2478.
- Andre, P., R. Castriconi, M. Espeli, N. Anfossi, T. Juarez, S. Hue, H. Conway, F. Romagne, A. Dondero, M. Nanni, et al. 2004. Comparative analysis of human NK cell activation induced by NKG2D and natural cytotoxicity receptors. *Eur. J. Immunol.* 34:961–971.
- Roberts, A.I., L. Lee, E. Schwarz, V. Groh, T. Spies, E.C. Ebert, and B. Jabri. 2001. NKG2D receptors induced by IL-15 costimulate CD28-negative effector CTL in the tissue microenvironment. *J. Immunol.* 167:5527–5530.
- Verneris, M.R., M. Karami, J. Baker, A. Jayaswal, and R.S. Negrin. 2004. Role of NKG2D signaling in the cytotoxicity of activated and expanded CD8⁺ T cells. *Blood*. 103:3065–3072.
- Jabri, B., and B. Meresse. 2006. NKG2 receptor-mediated regulation of effector CTL functions in the human tissue microenvironment. *Curr. Top. Microbiol. Immunol.* 298:139–156.
- Bonventre, J. 2004. Cytosolic phospholipase A2alpha reigns supreme in arthritis and bone resorption. *Trends Immunol.* 25:116–119.
- Marusic, S., M.W. Leach, J.W. Pelker, M.L. Azoitei, N. Uozumi, J. Cui, M.W. Shen, C.M. DeClercq, J.S. Miyashiro, B.A. Carito, et al. 2005. Cytosolic phospholipase A2 alpha-deficient mice are resistant to experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis. *J. Exp. Med.* 202:841–851.
- Werz, O. 2002. 5-lipoxygenase: cellular biology and molecular pharmacology. *Curr. Drug Targets Inflamm. Allergy*. 1:23–44.
- Burgermeister, E., J. Endl, and W.V. Scheuer. 2003. Activation of cytosolic phospholipase A2 in human T-lymphocytes involves inhibitor-kappaB and mitogen-activated protein kinases. *Eur. J. Pharmacol.* 466:169–180.
- Tessier, C., A. Hichami, and N.A. Khan. 2002. Implication of three isoforms of PLA(2) in human T-cell proliferation. *FEBS Lett.* 520:111–116.

21. Farooqui, A.A., L.A. Horrocks, and T. Farooqui. 2000. Deacylation and reacylation of neural membrane glycerophospholipids. *J. Mol. Neurosci.* 14:123–135.

22. Ray, P., H. Ishida, C.B. Millard, J.P. Petrali, and R. Ray. 1999. Phospholipase A2 and arachidonic acid-mediated mechanism of neuroexocytosis: a possible target of botulinum neurotoxin A other than SNAP-25. *J. Appl. Toxicol.* 19(Suppl 1):S27–S28.

23. Juhl, K., A.M. Efano, H.L. Olsen, and J. Gromada. 2003. Secretory phospholipase A2 is released from pancreatic beta-cells and stimulates insulin secretion via inhibition of ATP-dependent K⁺ channels. *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.* 310:274–279.

24. Nakatani, N., N. Uozumi, K. Kume, M. Murakami, I. Kudo, and T. Shimizu. 2000. Role of cytosolic phospholipase A2 in the production of lipid mediators and histamine release in mouse bone-marrow-derived mast cells. *Biochem. J.* 352(Pt 2):311–317.

25. Veien, M., F. Szlam, J.T. Holden, K. Yamaguchi, D.D. Denson, and J.H. Levy. 2000. Mechanisms of nonimmunological histamine and tryptase release from human cutaneous mast cells. *Anesthesiology*. 92:1074–1081.

26. Henderson, L.M., S.K. Moule, and J.B. Chappell. 1993. The immediate activator of the NADPH oxidase is arachidonate not phosphorylation. *Eur. J. Biochem.* 211:157–162.

27. White, S.R., M.E. Strek, G.V. Kulp, S.M. Spaethe, R.A. Burch, S.P. Neely, and A.R. Leff. 1993. Regulation of human eosinophil degranulation and activation by endogenous phospholipase A2. *J. Clin. Invest.* 91:2118–2125.

28. Chakraborti, S. 2003. Phospholipase A2 isoforms: a perspective. *Cell. Signal.* 15:637–665.

29. Groh, V., R. Rhinehart, J. Randolph-Habecker, M.S. Topp, S.R. Riddell, and T. Spies. 2001. Costimulation of CD8⁺alpha/beta T cells by NKG2D via engagement by MIC induced on virus-infected cells. *Nat. Immunol.* 2:255–260.

30. Gilbert, J.J., A. Stewart, C.A. Courtney, M.C. Fleming, P. Reid, C.G. Jackson, A. Wise, M.J. Wakelam, and M.M. Harnett. 1996. Antigen receptors on immature, but not mature, B and T cells are coupled to cytosolic phospholipase A2 activation: expression and activation of cytosolic phospholipase A2 correlate with lymphocyte maturation. *J. Immunol.* 156:2054–2061.

31. Jabri, B., J.M. Selby, H. Negulescu, L. Lee, A.I. Roberts, A. Beavis, M. Lopez-Botet, E.C. Ebert, and R.J. Winchester. 2002. TCR specificity dictates CD94/NKG2A expression by human CTL. *Immunity*. 17:487–499.

32. Crespo, P., X.R. Bustelo, D.S. Aaronson, O.A. Coso, M. Lopez-Barahona, M. Barbacid, and J.S. Gutkind. 1996. Rac-1 dependent stimulation of the JNK/SAPK signaling pathway by Vav. *Oncogene*. 13:455–460.

33. Billadeau, D.D., J.L. Upshaw, R.A. Schoon, C.J. Dick, and P.J. Leibson. 2003. NKG2D-DAP10 triggers human NK cell-mediated killing via a Syk-independent regulatory pathway. *Nat. Immunol.* 4:557–564.

34. Upshaw, J.L., L.N. Arneson, R.A. Schoon, C.J. Dick, D.D. Billadeau, and P.J. Leibson. 2006. NKG2D-mediated signaling requires a DAP10-bound Grb2-Vav1 intermediate and phosphatidylinositol-3-kinase in human natural killer cells. *Nat. Immunol.* 7:524–532.

35. Tang, F., G. Tang, J. Xiang, Q. Dai, M.R. Rosner, and A. Lin. 2002. The absence of NF-κB-mediated inhibition of c-Jun N-terminal kinase activation contributes to tumor necrosis factor alpha-induced apoptosis. *Mol. Cell. Biol.* 22:8571–8579.

36. Kuo, W.L., M. Abe, J. Rhee, E.M. Eves, S.A. McCarthy, M. Yan, D.J. Templeton, M. McMahon, and M.R. Rosner. 1996. Raf, but not MEK or ERK, is sufficient for differentiation of hippocampal neuronal cells. *Mol. Cell. Biol.* 16:1458–1470.

37. Yan, M., and D.J. Templeton. 1994. Identification of 2 serine residues of MEK-1 that are differentially phosphorylated during activation by Raf and MEK kinase. *J. Biol. Chem.* 269:19067–19073.

38. Benahmed, M., B. Meresse, B. Arnulf, U. Barbe, J.J. Mention, V. Verkarre, M. Allez, C. Cellier, O. Hermine, and N. Cerf-Bensussan. 2007. Inhibition of TGF-β signaling by IL-15: a new role for IL-15 in the loss of immune homeostasis in celiac disease. *Gastroenterology*. 132:994–1008.

39. Gao, Z.H., M.S. Tretiakova, W.H. Liu, C. Gong, P.D. Farris, and J. Hart. 2006. Association of E-cadherin, matrix metalloproteinases, and tissue inhibitors of metalloproteinases with the progression and metastasis of hepatocellular carcinoma. *Mod. Pathol.* 19:533–540.

40. Cregger, M., A.J. Berger, and D.L. Rimm. 2006. Immunohistochemistry and quantitative analysis of protein expression. *Arch. Pathol. Lab. Med.* 130:1026–1030.

41. Jabri, B., N.P. de Serre, C. Cellier, K. Evans, C. Gache, C. Carvalho, J.F. Mougenot, M. Allez, R. Jian, P. Desreumaux, et al. 2000. Selective expansion of intraepithelial lymphocytes expressing the HLA-E-specific natural killer receptor CD94 in celiac disease. *Gastroenterology*. 118:867–879.

42. Jackson, M.B., and E.R. Chapman. 2006. Fusion pores and fusion machines in Ca²⁺-triggered exocytosis. *Annu. Rev. Biophys. Biomol. Struct.* 35:135–160.

43. Hille, B., J. Billiard, D.F. Babcock, T. Nguyen, and D.S. Koh. 1999. Stimulation of exocytosis without a calcium signal. *J. Physiol.* 520(Pt 1):23–31.

44. Creutz, C.E. 1981. cis-Unsaturated fatty acids induce the fusion of chromaffin granules aggregated by synexin. *J. Cell Biol.* 91:247–256.

45. Blackwood, R.A., A.T. Transue, D.M. Harsh, R.C. Brower, S.J. Zacharek, J.E. Smolen, and R.J. Hessler. 1996. PLA2 promotes fusion between PMN-specific granules and complex liposomes. *J. Leukoc. Biol.* 59:663–670.

46. Ong, W.L., B. Jiang, N. Tang, S.F. Ling, J.F. Yeo, S. Wei, A.A. Farooqui, and W.Y. Ong. 2006. Differential effects of polyunsaturated fatty acids on membrane capacitance and exocytosis in rat pheochromocytoma-12 cells. *Neurochem. Res.* 31:41–48.

47. Khurana, D., L.N. Arneson, R.A. Schoon, C.J. Dick, and P.J. Leibson. 2007. Differential regulation of human NK cell-mediated cytotoxicity by the tyrosine kinase Itk. *J. Immunol.* 178:3575–3582.

48. Hoffman, T., F. Hirata, P. Bougnoux, B.A. Fraser, R.H. Goldfarb, R.B. Herberman, and J. Axelrod. 1981. Phospholipid methylation and phospholipase A2 activation in cytotoxicity by human natural killer cells. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*. 78:3839–3843.

49. Jondal, M., C. Kullman, P. Rossi, and J.A. Lindgren. 1985. Second messenger function of arachidonic acid lipoxygenation products in human natural killer cell lysis? *Scand. J. Immunol.* 22:285–293.

50. Carine, K., and D. Hudig. 1984. Assessment of a role for phospholipase A2 and arachidonic acid metabolism in human lymphocyte natural cytotoxicity. *Cell. Immunol.* 87:270–283.

51. Leung, K.H., M.M. Ip, and H.S. Koren. 1986. Regulation of human natural killing. IV. Role of lipoxygenase in regulation of natural killing activity. *Scand. J. Immunol.* 24:371–380.

52. Sibbitt, W.L. Jr., T. Imir, and A.D. Bankhurst. 1986. Reversible inhibition of lymphokine-activated killer cell activity by lipoxygenase-pathway inhibitors. *Int. J. Cancer*. 38:517–521.

53. Grazia Cifone, M., P. Roncaoli, L. Cironi, C. Festuccia, A. Meccia, S. D'Alo, D. Botti, and A. Santoni. 1997. NKR-P1A stimulation of arachidonate-generating enzymes in rat NK cells is associated with granule release and cytotoxic activity. *J. Immunol.* 159:309–317.

54. Aldemir, H., V. Prod'homme, M.J. Dumaury, C. Retiere, G. Poupon, J. Cazareth, F. Bihl, and V.M. Braud. 2005. Cutting edge: lectin-like transcript 1 is a ligand for the CD161 receptor. *J. Immunol.* 175:7791–7795.

55. Rosen, D.B., J. Bettadapura, M. Alsharifi, P.A. Mathew, H.S. Warren, and L.L. Lanier. 2005. Cutting edge: lectin-like transcript-1 is a ligand for the inhibitory human NKR-P1A receptor. *J. Immunol.* 175:7796–7799.

56. Milella, M., A. Gismondi, P. Roncaoli, L. Bisogno, G. Palmieri, L. Frati, M.G. Cifone, and A. Santoni. 1997. CD16 cross-linking induces both secretory and extracellular signal-regulated kinase (ERK)-dependent cytosolic phospholipase A2 (PLA2) activity in human natural killer cells: involvement of ERK, but not PLA2, in CD16-triggered granule exocytosis. *J. Immunol.* 158:3148–3154.

57. Ehrlich, L.I., K. Ogasawara, J.A. Hamerman, R. Takaki, A. Zingoni, J.P. Allison, and L.L. Lanier. 2005. Engagement of NKG2D by cognate ligand or antibody alone is insufficient to mediate costimulation of human and mouse CD8⁺ T cells. *J. Immunol.* 174:1922–1931.

58. Bryceson, Y.T., M.E. March, D.F. Barber, H.G. Ljunggren, and E.O. Long. 2005. Cytolytic granule polarization and degranulation controlled by different receptors in resting NK cells. *J. Exp. Med.* 202:1001–1012.

59. Bryceson, Y.T., M.E. March, H.G. Ljunggren, and E.O. Long. 2006. Synergy among receptors on resting NK cells for the activation of natural cytotoxicity and cytokine secretion. *Blood*. 107:159–166.

60. Upshaw, J.L., and P.J. Leibson. 2006. NKG2D-mediated activation of cytotoxic lymphocytes: unique signaling pathways and distinct functional outcomes. *Semin. Immunol.* 18:167–175.

61. Upshaw, J.L., R.A. Schoon, C.J. Dick, D.D. Billadeau, and P.J. Leibson. 2005. The isoforms of phospholipase C-gamma are differentially used by distinct human NK activating receptors. *J. Immunol.* 175:213–218.

62. Jiang, K., B. Zhong, D.L. Gilvary, B.C. Corliss, E. Hong-Geller, S. Wei, and J.Y. Djeu. 2000. Pivotal role of phosphoinositide-3 kinase in regulation of cytotoxicity in natural killer cells. *Nat. Immunol.* 1:419–425.

63. Chen, X., P.P. Trivedi, B. Ge, K. Krzewski, and J.L. Strominger. 2007. Many NK cell receptors activate ERK2 and JNK1 to trigger microtubule organizing center and granule polarization and cytotoxicity. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*. 104:6329–6334.

64. Cella, M., K. Fujikawa, I. Tassi, S. Kim, K. Latinis, S. Nishi, W. Yokoyama, M. Colonna, and W. Swat. 2004. Differential requirements for Vav proteins in DAP10- and ITAM-mediated NK cell cytotoxicity. *J. Exp. Med.* 200:817–823.

65. Chan, G., T. Hanke, and K.D. Fischer. 2001. Vav-1 regulates NK T cell development and NK cell cytotoxicity. *Eur. J. Immunol.* 31: 2403–2410.

66. Galandrini, R., G. Palmieri, M. Piccoli, L. Frati, and A. Santoni. 1999. Role for the Rac1 exchange factor Vav in the signaling pathways leading to NK cell cytotoxicity. *J. Immunol.* 162:3148–3152.

67. Graham, D.B., M. Cella, E. Giurisato, K. Fujikawa, A.V. Miletic, T. Kloeppe, K. Brim, T. Takai, A.S. Shaw, M. Colonna, and W. Swat. 2006. Vav1 controls DAP10-mediated natural cytotoxicity by regulating actin and microtubule dynamics. *J. Immunol.* 177:2349–2355.

68. Colucci, F., E. Rosmarakis, S. Bregenholt, S.I. Samson, V. Di Bartolo, M. Turner, L. Vanes, V. Tybulewicz, and J.P. Di Santo. 2001. Functional dichotomy in natural killer cell signaling: Vav1-dependent and -independent mechanisms. *J. Exp. Med.* 193:1413–1424.

69. Gagnon, L., M. Girard, A.K. Sullivan, and M. Rola-Pleszczynski. 1987. Augmentation of human natural cytotoxic cell activity by leukotriene B4 mediated by enhanced effector-target cell binding and increased lytic efficiency. *Cell. Immunol.* 110:243–252.

70. Rossi, P., J.A. Lindgren, C. Kullman, and M. Jondal. 1985. Products of the lipoxygenase pathway in human natural killer cell cytotoxicity. *Cell. Immunol.* 93:1–8.

71. Green, P.H., and B. Jabri. 2003. Coeliac disease. *Lancet*. 362:383–391.

72. Sollid, L.M., and B. Jabri. 2005. Is celiac disease an autoimmune disorder? *Curr. Opin. Immunol.* 17:595–600.

73. Sollid, L.M. 2002. Coeliac disease: dissecting a complex inflammatory disorder. *Nat. Rev. Immunol.* 2:647–655.

74. Reinecker, H.C., R.P. MacDermott, S. Mirau, A. Dignass, and D.K. Podolsky. 1996. Intestinal epithelial cells both express and respond to interleukin 15. *Gastroenterology*. 111:1706–1713.

75. Kim, N.D., R.C. Chou, E. Seung, A.M. Tager, and A.D. Luster. 2006. A unique requirement for the leukotriene B₄ receptor BLT1 for neutrophil recruitment in inflammatory arthritis. *J. Exp. Med.* 203:829–835.

76. Cherny, V.V., L.M. Henderson, W. Xu, L.L. Thomas, and T.E. DeCoursey. 2001. Activation of NADPH oxidase-related proton and electron currents in human eosinophils by arachidonic acid. *J. Physiol.* 535:783–794.

77. Louis, N.A., K.E. Hamilton, and S.P. Colgan. 2005. Lipid mediator networks and leukocyte transmigration. *Prostaglandins Leukot. Essent. Fatty Acids*. 73:197–202.

78. Nakano, N., A. Nakao, T. Uchida, N. Shirasaka, H. Yoshizumi, K. Okumura, R. Tsuboi, and H. Ogawa. 2005. Effects of arachidonic acid analogs on FcεRI-mediated activation of mast cells. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta*. 1738:19–28.

79. Valone, F.H. 1984. Regulation of human leukocyte function by lipoxygenase products of arachidonic acid. *Contemp. Top. Immunobiol.* 14:155–170.

80. Kasama, T., Y. Miwa, T. Isozaki, T. Odai, M. Adachi, and S.L. Kunkel. 2005. Neutrophil-derived cytokines: potential therapeutic targets in inflammation. *Curr. Drug Targets Inflamm. Allergy*. 4:273–279.

81. Chen, M., B.K. Lam, Y. Kanaoka, P.A. Nigrovic, L.P. Audoly, K.F. Austen, and D.M. Lee. 2006. Neutrophil-derived leukotriene B4 is required for inflammatory arthritis. *J. Exp. Med.* 203:837–842.

82. Colombel, J.F., A. Janin, and G. Torpier. 1990. Activated eosinophils in coeliac disease. *Gut*. 31:583–584.

83. Hallgren, R., J.F. Colombel, R. Dahl, K. Fredens, A. Kruse, N.O. Jacobsen, P. Venge, and J.C. Rambaud. 1989. Neutrophil and eosinophil involvement of the small bowel in patients with celiac disease and Crohn's disease: studies on the secretion rate and immunohistochemical localization of granulocyte granule constituents. *Am. J. Med.* 86:56–64.

84. Horvath, K., K. Simon, G. Horn, and H. Bodanszky. 1986. Mast cell degranulation after a single dose of gliadin in the jejunum of patients with coeliac disease. *Acta Paediatr. Hung.* 27:311–316.

85. Roder, J.C., and M. Klein. 1979. Target-effector interaction in the natural killer cell system. IV. Modulation by cyclic nucleotides. *J. Immunol.* 123:2785–2790.

86. Bankhurst, A.D. 1982. The modulation of human natural killer cell activity by prostaglandins. *J. Clin. Lab. Immunol.* 7:85–91.

87. Bosetti, F., R. Langenbach, and G.R. Weersinghe. 2004. Prostaglandin E2 and microsomal prostaglandin E synthase-2 expression are decreased in the cyclooxygenase-2-deficient mouse brain despite compensatory induction of cyclooxygenase-1 and Ca²⁺-dependent phospholipase A2. *J. Neurochem.* 91:1389–1397.

88. McGargill, M.A., B.G. Wen, C.M. Walsh, and S.M. Hedrick. 2004. A deficiency in Drak2 results in a T cell hypersensitivity and an unexpected resistance to autoimmunity. *Immunity*. 21:781–791.