Serum amyloid A (SAA) protein enhances formation of cyclooxygenase metabolites of activated human monocytes

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Abstract As serum amyloid A (SAA), an apolipoprotein associated with HDL during the acute-phase reaction may induce Ca2+ mobilization in human monocytes we raised the question whether SAA₁ the predominant isoform of human acutephase SAA is able to alter eicosanoid formation. In resting monocytes SAA1 was without effect on the secretion of cyclooxygenase metabolites while in calcium ionophore A23187-(0.5 and 2.5 μM) stimulated cells SAA₁ led to a pronounced dose-dependent increase of TXA_2 , PGE_2 , and $PGF_{2\alpha}$. In addition a time-dependent increase of cyclooxygenase metabolites in between 1.5- and 3-fold in the presence of SAA1 was observed; apo A-I, the main HDL-apolipoprotein under nonacute-phase conditions, had no effect. Using sequence-specific anti-human SAA₁ peptide (40–63) F(ab)₂ fragments we could show that the proposed Ca²⁺-binding tetrapeptide Gly⁴⁸-Pro⁴⁹-Gly⁵⁰-Gly⁵¹ of SAA₁ is not responsible for enhanced biosynthesis of cyclooxygenase metabolites. Finally, we could demonstrate that human SAA_1 is unable to bind Ca^{2+} -ions, suggesting that SAA₁ does not directly enhance eicosanoid biosynthesis via Ca² mobilization leading to enhanced phospholipase A2 activity.

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Key words: Acute-phase reaction; Atherosclerosis; Calcium-binding property; Cyclooxygenase; Eicosanoid; Gas chromatography/mass spectrometry

1. Introduction

Mammalian liver responds to various systemic injuries, such as acute inflammation, infection, or burns with profound changes in plasma concentrations of a group of proteins, termed acute-phase proteins [1]. In humans serum amyloid A (SAA) protein is expressed during the acute-phase reaction in response to cytokines released by activated monocytes/macrophages. SAA may reach plasma levels up to 1000-fold greater than that found in the non-inflammatory state (2–5 μ g/ml), thus representing an ideal marker for clinical use [2,3]. Serum

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Abbreviations: AA, arachidonic acid; apo A-I, apolipoprotein A-I; HDL, high density lipoproteins; NICI-GC/MS, negative ion chemical ionization-gas chromatography/mass spectrometry; PGE₂, prostaglandin E₂; PGF_{2 α}, prostaglandin F_{2 α}; PLA₂, phospholipase A₂; PKC, protein kinase C; rSAA, recombinant SAA; SAA, serum amyloid A protein; TXB₂, thromboxane B₂

levels of SAA are increased during bacterial and viral infections and a number of chronic inflammatory and neoplastic diseases which may predispose to amyloidosis [3]. In amyloidosis, SAA (104 amino acids, 12 kDa) is usually processed by cleavage between residues 76 and 77, and the N-terminal residue, the amyloid A protein, is incorporated into the bulk of fibrils in secondary reactive amyloidosis [4].

Upon release into the circulation SAA is mainly complexed with lipoproteins of the high density range [5] by displacing apolipoprotein A-I (apo A-I) the major protein component of native high density lipoproteins (HDL) [6]. While remodeling its physiological carrier during the acute-phase reaction, SAA may significantly impede the protective function of HDL in reverse cholesterol transport in humans [7]. Displacement of HDL-associated apo A-I by SAA was demonstrated to reduce the binding properties of SAA-enriched HDL to hepatocytes which was accompanied with a 3- to 4-fold higher binding affinity to macrophages resulting in a significant shift in HDL-cholesterol carrying capacity towards the macrophage [8].

Besides its principal role as acute-phase protein, amyloidegenic protein, and apolipoprotein, some specific functions have been proposed for SAA. Among these are anti-tumor growth properties [9], platelet activation [10], inhibition of lymphocyte antibody response [11], induction of T-lymphocyte migration and adhesion [12], directional migration of monocytes and polymorphonuclear leukocytes as well as expression of adhesion proteins and adhesion molecules [13]. Recent results suggested that recombinant SAA (rSAA) may be effective in chemoattracting monocytes resulting in transient elevation of cytoplasmic Ca²⁺ concentrations [14] and that SAA might even enhance the activity of secretory non-pancreatic phospholipase A₂ (PLA₂) [15].

After activation the PLA₂ hydrolyses the glyceryl-fatty-acid ester bond at the *sn*-2 position of phospholipid molecules where arachidonic acid (AA) is most frequently found. AA is the precursor to a broad array of structurally diverse and potent bioactive lipids that include prostaglandins, thromboxanes, leukotrienes, lipoxins, as well as other oxygenated fatty acids [16,17]; collectively, these molecules are termed eicosanoids. In human tissues, prostaglandins and thromboxanes, both cyclooxygenase metabolites, are potent mediators of inflammation involved in the regulation of platelet-vessel wall interactions and in the regulation of blood vessel tone and hemostasis [18]. The fact that SAA contains a highly conserved tetrapeptide Gly⁴⁸-Pro⁴⁹-Gly⁵⁰-Gly⁵¹ a sequence homologous to Gly³⁰-Xaa³¹-Gly³²-Gly³³, the main Ca²⁺- and

lipid-binding site in PLA₂ molecules [19,20], suggested that properties of altered eicosanoid balance in resting or activated cells might be due to the proposed Ca²⁺-sensitive epitope present in SAA.

As SAA contributes to enhanced migration of monocytes and polymorphonuclear leukocytes to inflamed tissues [13] and the fact that both SAA and secretory PLA_2 are rapidly induced during inflammatory events [15], the present study was aimed at investigating whether SAA might alter the secretion of biologically active AA-metabolites, i.e. TXA_2 , PGE_2 , and $PGF_{2\alpha}$. As in humans the predominant SAA isoform is SAA_1 (>95% of total SAA); all experiments were performed with this protein.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Isolation and purification of apolipoproteins

Crude SAA₁ was prepared directly from human plasma (obtained from patients with rheumatoid arthritis or patients undergoing plasmapheresis for therapeutic purposes) by hydrophobic interaction chromatography on Octylsepharose CL 4B followed by gel permeation-fast protein liquid chromatography on Superdex 75 prep grade as described [21]. Subsequently SAA₁ was purified from remaining SAA isoforms and other apolipoproteins (apo A-I, apo A-II, and apo Cms) by preparative IEF using the Rotofor system (Bio-Rad) and buffers containing 6 M urea, 10% (w/v) glycerol and 6.4% (w/v) carrier ampholytes [21]. Non-acute-phase HDL subclass 3 (d = 1.125-1.21 g/ml), isolated by density gradient ultracentrifugation, was incubated with 6 M guanidine/HCl for 3 h at 37°C. After recentrifugation at a density of 1.21 g/ml, apo A-I was isolated from the lipid-free bottom fraction by gel permeation chromatography as described above. Aliquots of SAA1 and apo A-I tested were negative for endotoxin in Limulus amebocyte lysate (BioWhittaker, sensitivity 0.06 EU/ml).

2.2. Preparation of sequence-specific $F(ab)_2$ fragments

Sequence-specific antibodies to humans SAA₁ were raised in rabbits using Freud's complete adjuvant (Sigma). The immunogen was a synthetic peptide (corresponding to amino acid residues 40–63 of human SAA₁) coupled via its C-terminal residue to *N*-maleimido-butyryl-*N*-hydroxysuccinimide ester-activated keyhole-limpet haemocyanin [22]. To obtain F(ab)₂ fragments cleavage of both, the sequence-specific anti-SAA₁ peptide IgGs and a non-immune rabbit IgG fraction was performed by enzymatic digestion with pepsin [23]. The F(ab)₂ fragments were then purified by gel permeations chromatography to ensure the absence of residual IgG or Fc fragments. Both, intact anti-SAA₁ peptide IgGs [22] and corresponding F(ab)₂ fragments did immunochemically react with either SAA₁ or the corresponding peptide (40–63).

2.3. Preparation of human monocytes and culture conditions

The mononuclear cell fraction of buffy coats from healthy blood donors was obtained by Ficoll-Hypaque separation as described [24]. The mononuclear cell fraction was washed in phosphate buffered saline (pH 7.4, without Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺), separated from platelets by overnight settlement at 4°C, and resuspended in RPMI 1640 medium supplemented with 5% heat-inactivated (56°C, 30 min) AB serum, penicillin (100 U/ml), streptomycin (100 µg/ml), L-glutamine (2 mM), pyruvate (2 mM), and HEPES buffer (50 mM). Mononuclear cells were seeded into 24-well culture plates (Falcon, Germany), and after 2 h of incubation at 37°C in a humidified 5% CO2, 95% air atmosphere, the non-adherent leukocytes were removed be several extensive washing procedures. Platelet-depleted monocyte cultures $(5\times10^5/\text{ml RPMI medium plus supplements without the addition of})$ serum) were then incubated with different concentrations of SAA₁ or apo A-I (3.2 to 200 µg/ml) up to 12 h. Stimulation of cells was performed with calcium ionophore A₂₃₁₈₇ (final concentration: 0.5 and 2.5 µM) up to 4 h in the presence/absence of the corresponding apolipoprotein or in the presence of a 10- to 20-fold molar excess of sequence-specific anti-SAA₁ peptide F(ab)₂ or non-immune rabbit F(ab)₂ fragments. At the end of the incubation the culture supernatants were removed, rendered cell-free by centrifugation (3500 rpm, 4°C), and stored at −70°C until eicosanoid analysis.

2.4. Quantification of cyclooxygenase metabolites

After acidification to pH 3.2 and addition of $^{18}O_2$ -labelled TXB₂ (prepared as described [25]), D_4 -PGF_{2 α}, and D_4 -PGE₂, respectively, eicosanoids were extracted from cell supernatants with diethyl ether and separated by silicic acid column chromatography [26]. TXB₂ (the stable hydrolysis product of TXA₂), PGE₂, and PGF_{2 α} were analyzed as trimethyl silyl ether pentafluorobenzyl ester methoxime derivative by negative ion chemical ionization-gas chromatography/mass spectrometry chromatography (NICI-GC/MS) as described [27]. A Finnigan gas chromatograph 9619 coupled to a Finnigan 4500 mass spectrometer and an INCOS data system was used. Values for detection limits (5 to 20 pg of AA-metabolites measured by NICI-GC/MS) are based on a signal to noise ratio of 4:1. Interassay and intraassay coefficients of variations were 2.0 to 2.4 and 1.1 to 2.2%, respectively [26].

2.5. Electrophoresis, transfer to nitrocellulose and Ca²⁺-binding properties

SDS-PAGE under non-reducing or reducing conditions was performed on 3.5–15% gradient slab gels at 180 V for 60 min using minigels (Bio-Rad) [23]. Analytical IEF was carried out as described previously [21]. Proteins were electrophoretically transferred to nitrocellulose membrane in 20 mM Tris-HCl (0.15 M glycine buffer, pH 8.4) for 90 min at 200 mA. Detection of Ca²⁺-binding proteins/peptides on nitrocellulose membranes after SDS-PAGE and IEF or dot blot experiments were performed by washing membranes in imidazole buffer (10 mM imidazole/HCl, 60 mM KCl, 5 mM MgCl₂, pH 6.8) exactly as described [28]. Membranes were incubated in the same buffer containing 15–20 μCi ⁴⁵Ca²⁺ (Du Pont NEN)/ml prior to autoradiography.

3. Results

As rSAA might induce calcium mobilization in resting human monocytes [14] we initially analyzed whether the addition of SAA₁ to resting and stimulated monocytes affects eicosanoid production. Coincubation of resting cells with SAA₁ (3.15 to 200 µg/ml, 2–12 h) was without effects on secretion of TXB₂, PGE₂, and PGF_{2 α}. We therefore studied a possible involvement of SAA₁ during eicosanoid biosynthesis by stimulated cells. The major cyclooxygenase metabolite released from calcium ionophore-stimulated, platelet-depleted monocyte cultures after 4 h was TXB₂ (66.3±28.2 ng/ 5×10^5 cells, n = 12). Analysis of prostaglandins secreted into the cell medium revealed 0.83 ± 0.5 ng/ 5×10^5 cells and

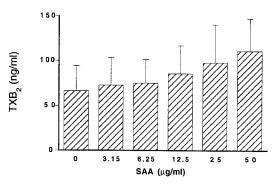


Fig. 1. Effects of SAA₁ on TXB₂ production by A₂₃₁₈₇-stimulated human monocytes. Adherent human monocytes (5×10^5 cells) were incubated with increasing SAA₁ concentrations and stimulated with 2.5 μ M calcium ionophore A₂₃₁₈₇ for 4 h in RPMI medium at 37°C. The cell supernatant was then harvested on ice, centrifuged at 3500 rpm and acidified to pH 3.2. After addition of stable isotope-labelled internal standards (50 ng/ml) eicosanoids were extracted, separated by silicic acid chromatography and TXB₂ was analyzed by NICI-GC/MS. Values represent mean \pm S.D. of three experiments performed in triplicate determinations.

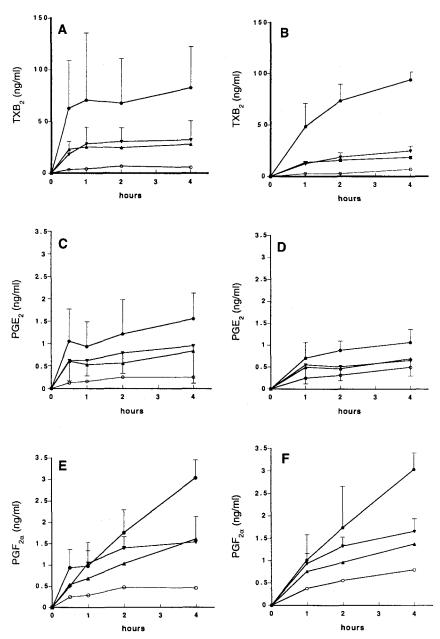


Fig. 2. Formation of cyclooxygenase metabolites by A_{23187} -stimulated monocytes in the presence of apolipoproteins. Adherent monocytes $(5\times10^5/\text{ml})$ were stimulated with either 2.5 μ M (A, C, E) or 0.5 μ M (B, D, F) calcium ionophore A_{23187} (\blacktriangle) in the presence of 25 μ g SAA₁ (\spadesuit) or apo A-I (\blacktriangledown) at 37°C for the indicated time intervals. Quantification of TXB₂ (A, B), PGE₂ (C, D), and PGF_{2 α} (E, F) was performed by NICI-GC/MS. Values represent mean \pm S.D. of four experiments performed in triplicate determinations. (\bigcirc) refers to blank values, i.e. without stimulation by A_{23187} . For more clarity S.D. values are shown only for eicosanoid secretion in the presence of SAA₁ and apo A-I.

 $1.6\pm0.3~\text{ng/5}\times10^5$ cells for PGE $_2$ and PGF $_{2\alpha}$, respectively. When monocytes were stimulated by 2.5 μ M A $_{23187}$ in the presence of SAA $_1$ (3.15 to 50 μ g/ml) a dose-dependent formation of TXB $_2$ reaching levels from 60 ± 29 (3.15 μ g/ml) to $110\pm36~\text{ng}$ (50 μ g/ml) after 4 h was estimated (Fig. 1). Similar effects were observed at SAA $_1$ concentrations up to 200 μ g/ml and when lower concentrations of A $_{23187}$ (0.5 μ M) were used under the same assay conditions. In addition to TXB $_2$, also PGE $_2$ and PGF $_{2\alpha}$ concentrations were increased to a similar extent in A $_{23187}$ -stimulated monocytes in the presence of SAA $_1$ (data not shown). SAA $_1$ concentrations higher than 200 μ g/ml did not lead to a further increase of cyclooxygenase metabolites released.

In the next set of experiments the time-dependent formation of cyclooxygenase metabolites in the presence of either SAA₁ or apo A-I was investigated. From Fig. 2A it is evident that the formation of TXB₂ in activated cells reached a plateau value 1 h after activation (25.5 \pm 9.6 ng/5 \times 10⁵ cells, 2.5 μ M A₂₃₁₈₇). Incubation of stimulated cells with SAA₁ led to a pronounced increase in TXB₂ release in between 2- and 3-fold (82.6 \pm 39.9 ng/5 \times 10⁵ cells) after 4 h. To verify that the effect is specific for SAA, the same experiments were performed with purified apo A-I (a negative acute-phase reactant [29]) present almost exclusively on native HDL. From Fig. 2A it is evident that apo A-I was without any effect on the formation of TXB₂ under these experimental conditions. Stimu-

lation of monocytes with 0.5 μ M A_{23187} led to almost identical results as observed with 2.5 μ M A_{23187} (Fig. 2B).

In addition to TXB2, we have also analyzed the time-dependent formation of PGE₂ (Fig. 2C and D) and PGF_{2 α} (Fig. 2E and F) in A₂₃₁₈₇- (2.5 and 0.5 μM) stimulated monocytes incubated in the presence of SAA₁ or apo A-I. Again, apo A-I was without effect on eicosanoid release, similar to data presented in Fig. 2A and B. PGE2 release was, however, stimulated by SAA₁ (almost 3-fold, 0.6 vs. 1.6 ng/5 \times 10⁵ monocytes) (Fig. 2C and D). Finally, also $PGF_{2\alpha}$ secretion was enhanced in the presence of SAA₁. While we have observed $PGF_{2\alpha}$ concentrations of about 1.5 ng/5×10⁵ in cells stimulated with A₂₃₁₈₇ or A₂₃₁₈₇ in the presence of apo A-I (Fig. 2E and F) PGF_{2α} concentrations secreted in the presence of SAA_1 were 3.0 ± 0.4 ng/5×10⁵ cells. It is noteworthy that the secretion of cyclooxygenase metabolites was very similar during experiments when cells were stimulated with either 0.5 or 2.5 μ M A₂₃₁₈₇ (compare Fig. 2A–F).

We further addressed the question whether the tetrapeptide Gly^{48} -Pro 49 -Gly 50 -Gly 51 of human SAA₁ [19] might be the reason for enhanced formation of cyclooxygenase metabolites by activated monocytes. Therefore, A_{23187} -activated cells were coincubated with SAA₁ in the presence of F(ab)₂ fragments (raised against position 40–63 of human SAA₁) to block the proposed Ca^{2+} site in the molecule. Irrespective whether A_{23187} - (0.5 or 2.5 μ M) activated cells were incubated in the presence of SAA₁ and F(ab)₂ fragments from either anti-SAA₁ peptide IgGs or non-immune IgGs (as a negative control) TXB₂ formation was nearly identical (Fig. 3). These data strongly suggest that the proposed Ca^{2+} -binding region is either not exposed on the protein surface or not responsible for enhanced formation of cyclooxygenase metabolites in the presence of SAA₁.

To clarify whether isolated SAA₁ is able to bind Ca²⁺ (either via the proposed Ca²⁺-binding domain or another non-identified epitope) increasing SAA₁ concentrations were dotted on nitrocellulose and incubated with ⁴⁵Ca²⁺. It is evident from the autoradiograph (Fig. 4) that neither SAA₁ nor the corresponding peptide carrying the putative Ca²⁺-binding domain did bind ⁴⁵Ca²⁺ even at highest protein/peptide concentrations used. As expected PLA₂ effectively bound ⁴⁵Ca²⁺ in a dose-dependent manner. The same results were obtained when purified SAA₁ or PLA₂ (1 to 20 μg) were subjected to SDS-

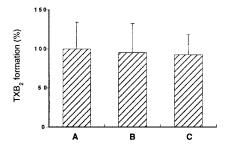


Fig. 3. Synthesis of TXB_2 by A_{23187} -stimulated monocytes in the presence of $F(ab)_2$ fragments. 5×10^5 monocytes/ml were stimulated with 2.5 μ M calcium ionophore A_{23187} in the presence of 50 μ g SAA₁ (A). SAA was coincubated with either a 10-fold molar excess of rabbit anti-SAA₁ peptide (40–63) $F(ab)_2$ (B) or non-immune rabbit $F(ab)_2$ fragments (C). Values represent mean \pm S.D. of three experiments performed in duplicate determinations. TXB_2 concentrations in the presence of SAA₁ and A_{23187} are given as 100%.

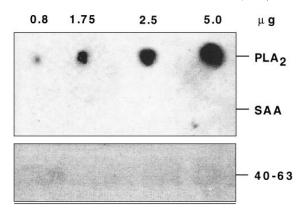


Fig. 4. 45 Ca²⁺-binding properties by dotted proteins/peptide. PLA₂, human SAA₁, and synthetic peptide (corresponding to amino acid residues 40–63 of human SAA₁) were dotted to nitrocellulose membranes at the indicated concentrations and incubated with radioactive Ca²⁺ as described in Section 2. Membrane bound ligands were visualized by autoradiography at -70°C.

PAGE (under reducing or non-reducing conditions) or IEF and then electrophoretically transferred to nitrocellulose prior to incubating membranes with ⁴⁵Ca²⁺.

4. Discussion

The presence of a-SAA mRNA in cells, e.g. endothelial cells, smooth muscle cells, and monocyte-derived macrophages [30,31], ultimately involved in the development of atherosclerosis, suggest a proinflammatory role of SAA in tissues. The major findings of the present study are that SAA₁ did not spontaneously induce eicosanoid secretion in resting monocytes. However, SAA₁ very efficiently enhanced biosynthesis of cyclooxygenase metabolites in stimulated monocytes up to 3-fold. Although a proposed Ca²⁺-binding epitope (Gly⁴⁸-Pro⁴⁹-Gly⁵⁰-Gly⁵¹) is present on all SAA isoforms in mammals [2], we presented two lines of evidence that SAA₁, the main representative of human acute-phase SAA, is not able to bind and/or transport Ca2+-ions. First, the use of sequence-specific antibodies raised against the proposed Ca²⁺binding domain of SAA₁ failed to impair formation of cyclooxygenase metabolites; secondly, as demonstrated by autoradiography, human SAA₁ is not able to bind Ca²⁺-ions.

Previous investigations by Badolato and coworkers [14] reported the rSAA (a protein homologous to the primary structure of human SAA1 except for the addition of a methionine at the N-terminus) might induce Ca2+ mobilization in human monocytes. rSAA (at concentrations between 0.4 and 4 µM) caused an increase in cytoplasmic calcium concentrations in a dose-dependent manner similar to that when cells were activated by either FMLP or MCP-1, both chemoattractants. Findings that rSAA apparently does not induce Ca²⁺ mobilization from intracellular stores but more likely stimulates influx of extracellular Ca2+ present in the medium have prompted us to investigate the combined effects of A23187 and SAA1 on eicosanoid biosynthesis by monocytes. During the present study we have observed enhanced formation of cyclooxygenase metabolites by activated monocytes in the presence of SAA₁ concentrations similar to those mentioned in [14] and corresponding to in vivo concentrations about 50to 100-fold higher than baseline levels; levels reflecting acutephase conditions in various inflammatory disorders which are observed particularly early after the onset of the inflammatory event.

When occurring in vivo, enhanced TXA₂ biosynthesis by activated monocytes must be considered a potent mediator of inflammation involved in the regulation of platelet-vessel wall interactions and in the regulation of blood vessel tone and hemostasis [18,32]. Observations that apo A-I does not exert proinflammatory properties under the same conditions described for SAA₁ (Fig. 2) could be seen in context of apo A-I as an antiatherogenic apolipoprotein [33]. The inhibitory effect of HDL, recently reported to block the chemotactic effect of rSAA on monocytes in a dose-dependent manner [13], is currently being examined.

The mechanism of how SAA₁ may alter intracellular Ca²⁺ concentrations [14] and eicosanoid biosynthesis in further consequence (Figs. 1 and 2) is presently not clear. It is important to note that the acute-phase response and activation of protein kinase C (PKC) in neutrophils and lymphocytes, cells involved in the inflammatory response, are concurrent events. In a previous paper [34] it was reported that SAA₁ but not apo A-I could serve as a substrate for PKC in vitro; maximum phosphorylation required the presence of Ca²⁺-ions. In addition, the inhibition of rSAA-induced chemotaxis of monocytes by staurosporine and H-7 seems to strengthen PKC-dependent mechanisms delivering chemotactic signals [14]. SAA₁ apparently induces calcium mobilization by activating a pertussis toxin-sensitive signalling pathway suggesting that SAA1 could bind to transmembrane G proteincoupled cell surface receptors on monocytes. These receptors, however, appear to belong to a different class of chemotactic receptors known to bind RANTES, MIP-1α, or MCP-1 [14]. If SAA₁ activates a receptor that impairs adenylate cyclase and prevents the rise in cAMP via an inhibitory G protein [14], one could speculate that the low cAMP concentrations in resting/activated cells would not induce monocyte function per se but more likely enhance signal generation via PLC or PLA₂. From our studies we may hypothesize that SAA has an additive effect on calcium ionophore A₂₃₁₈₇, which can activate also membrane bound PKC [35]. However, identification of a possible SAA-receptor on monocytes will clarify the underlying mechanisms of enhanced eicosanoid biosynthesis. As demonstrated by Walker and coworkers [36] the binding of intact HDL to a non-identified receptor on human fibroblasts very efficiently stimulated the activities of PLC and PLD, both enzymes involved in the intracellular signalling cascade.

In conclusion we have shown that SAA₁, a proinflammatory apolipoprotein present on acute-phase HDL in vivo, is able to enhance the formation and secretion of TXA₂, PGE₂, and PGF_{2 α} from activated monocytes. However, enhanced biosynthesis and secretion of cyclooxygenase metabolites mediating cell-cell interaction in vivo is not mediated via Ca²⁺-binding properties of SAA₁ but more likely the result of intracellular signalling pathways and requires further elucidation.

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