

Allergy-Associated FcR β Is a Molecular Amplifier of IgE- and IgG-Mediated In Vivo Responses

David Dombrowicz,*[§] Siqi Lin,* Veronique Flamand,*
Anna T. Brini,* Beverly H. Koller,[†]
and Jean-Pierre Kinet**[†]

*Laboratory of Allergy and Immunology
Beth Israel Deaconess Medical Center, and
Department of Pathology
Harvard Medical School
Boston, Massachusetts 02215

[†]Pulmonary Medicine
University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill
Chapel Hill, North Carolina 27514

Summary

A role for the Fc receptor β chain (FcR β) in the pathogenesis of allergy has been suggested by genetic studies. FcR β is a subunit common to the high-affinity IgE (Fc ϵ RI) and low-affinity IgG (Fc γ RIII) receptors, both of which contribute to the initiation of allergic reactions. Current *in vitro* data suggest that FcR β can function as either a positive or negative regulator, leaving a mechanistic explanation for its association with the development of atopy unclear. To address this controversy, we have generated novel mouse models relevant to human Fc receptor function. Analysis of Fc ϵ RI- and Fc γ RIII-dependent responses in these mice provides unequivocal genetic evidence that FcR β functions as an amplifier of early and late mast cell responses and, remarkably, *in vivo* anaphylactic responses.

Introduction

A role of the Fc receptor β chain (FcR β) gene in the pathogenesis of human allergic diseases has been suggested by two types of genetic studies. First, a genetic linkage was demonstrated between various atopic phenotypes and a region of human chromosome 11 encompassing the human (h) FcR β gene (Cookson et al., 1989; Colee et al., 1993; Sandford et al., 1993; Shirakawa et al., 1994a). Second, an association was found between these atopic phenotypes and various polymorphisms located in the coding region of the FcR β gene (Shirakawa et al., 1994b; Hill et al., 1995, 1996). However, whether and how FcR β could significantly contribute to these allergic phenotypes remains unclear.

FcR β participates in the function of receptors involved in initiating allergic reactions. FcR β is a subunit of two related multisubunit receptor complexes, the high-affinity receptor for immunoglobulin E (IgE), Fc ϵ RI, (Kinet et al., 1988; Blank et al., 1989; Küster et al., 1992) and the low-affinity receptor for immunoglobulin G, Fc γ RIII (Kurosaki et al., 1992; Dombrowicz et al., 1997). Allergic

reactions can be initiated through both of these receptors. Clustering of Fc ϵ RI-bound IgE by multivalent allergens results in cellular degranulation and the release of mediators of allergic reactions, including histamine, leukotrienes, and various cytokines (Costa et al., 1997). Similarly, clustering of Fc γ RIII with IgG-containing immune complexes activates mast cells and basophils to produce anaphylactic reactions very similar to those induced through Fc ϵ RI (Hazenbos et al., 1996; Dombrowicz et al., 1997; Miyajima et al., 1997). However, the level of impact of FcR β on the function of these receptors is unknown. Thus far, FcR β has only been consistently detected in cells of mast cell or basophil lineage, while in humans both Fc ϵ RI and Fc γ RIII are also found without FcR β on many other cell types. Therefore, whether the contribution of the subset of receptors that contain FcR β could significantly impact an individual's overall allergic response is an open question.

Current studies provide directly opposing conclusions as to how alterations of FcR β function might translate into altered FcR-mediated responses. *In vitro* data comparing the signaling capacity of Fc ϵ RI $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$ and $\alpha\gamma_2$ receptor complexes show that $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$ complexes induce lyn-dependent tyrosine phosphorylation of FcR γ chains, activation of the syk tyrosine kinase, and calcium mobilization at a much higher level than their $\alpha\gamma_2$ counterparts (Scharenberg et al., 1995; Lin et al., 1996). In addition, mutational analysis indicates that the immunoreceptor tyrosine-based activation motifs (ITAM) (Cambier, 1995) of the FcR β and FcR γ chains have different functions (Lin et al., 1996): the FcR γ ITAM does the actual signal transduction while the FcR β ITAM does not itself signal but instead amplifies the FcR γ signal. However, the tyrosine-phosphorylated ITAM of FcR β , but not that of FcR γ , binds to Src homology domain (SH2)-containing tyrosine phosphatases (SHP-1 and SHP-2) and SH2-containing inositol-5'-phosphatase (SHIP) *in vitro*, and SHP-2 can be coprecipitated with Fc ϵ RI after receptor engagement (Kimura et al., 1997a, 1997b). As SHP-1, SHP-2, and SHIP are phosphatases that participate in negative signaling by receptors containing an immunoreceptor tyrosine-based inhibitory motif (ITIM) (Scharenberg and Kinet, 1996), these data would suggest that FcR β might have negative regulatory functions. The positive signaling role of FcR β can be rationalized with its association with phosphatases by taking into account the different cellular contexts in which the respective data were produced, and by the fact that the lyn tyrosine kinase (Jouvin et al., 1994; Kimura et al., 1996; Lin et al., 1996) and SHIP/SHP-1 and SHP-2 phosphatases (Kimura et al., 1997a, 1997b) appear to compete for binding to the FcR β ITAM. In this rationale, the respective amounts of lyn kinase/phosphatases in a particular context would play a major role in setting the level, positive or negative, at which FcR β functions. This rationale, however, leaves open a critical question: what type of signaling function does an *in vivo* context produce for FcR β ?

Unequivocally addressing the function of FcR β *in vivo* requires models in which FcR β is present or absent from

[†]To whom correspondence should be addressed (e-mail: jkinet@mercury.bidmc.harvard.edu).

[§]Present Address: Institut Pasteur de Lille, INSERM, U167 Lille, France.

Table 1. Structure and Cellular Distribution of FcεRI

	Mice	Humans	FcεRIαβγ ₂ Mice	FcεRIαγ ₂ Mice
Mast cells	αβγ ₂	αβγ ₂ /αγ ₂	αβγ ₂ /αγ ₂	αγ ₂
Basophils	αβγ ₂	αβγ ₂ /αγ ₂	αβγ ₂ /αγ ₂	αγ ₂
Monocytes	—	αγ ₂	αγ ₂	αγ ₂
Eosinophils	—	αγ ₂	αγ ₂	αγ ₂
Langerhans cells	—	αγ ₂	αγ ₂	αγ ₂
Dendritic cells	—	αγ ₂	?	?

its natural mast cell/basophil context and that otherwise reflect hFcR function. Since allergic reactions can be initiated by either FcεRI or FcγRIII, it is further desirable to study FcRβ function in both FcεRI and FcγRIII contexts. The construction of such models for FcεRI is complicated by two differences between mouse and human FcεRI systems. First, the structure of FcεRI varies according to the species. In mice, FcRβ is required for cell surface expression of FcεRI so that FcεRI is only expressed as αβγ₂ tetramers on mast cells and basophils where both FcRβ and FcRγ are available (Ra et al., 1989), while in humans FcRβ is dispensable for FcεRI cell surface expression and FcεRI can be expressed as αβγ₂ or αγ₂ complexes (Miller et al., 1989; Küster et al., 1992). One consequence of the murine (m) requirement for FcRβ is that gene targeting of FcRβ in mice would result in no FcεRI expression, and would therefore not be a suitable approach for *in vivo* studies of how FcεRI functions in the absence of FcRβ. The second difference between the species is cell specificity of expression of FcεRI. In mice, FcεRI is exclusively expressed on mast cells and basophils. In contrast, in humans FcεRI expression is less restricted and is expressed in the mast cell and basophilic lineages as a mixture of αβγ₂ or αγ₂ complexes and as αγ₂ complexes on other hematopoietic cells, such as monocytes (Maurer et al., 1994), dendritic cells (Maurer et al., 1996), Langerhans cells (Bieber et al., 1992; Wang et al., 1992), and eosinophils (Gounni et al., 1994) (Table 1). An important consequence of these differences in expression specificity is that the proportion of FcRβ-expressing FcεRI in humans is much smaller than in mice and, therefore, available mouse models do not accurately reflect hlgE/FcεRI physiology.

In this manuscript, we describe the construction and phenotypic characterization of mice with humanized expression of both FcεRI αβγ₂ and αγ₂ receptors or only FcεRIαγ₂ receptors, along with a complementary set of mice that express both FcγRIIIαβγ₂ and αγ₂ receptors or only FcγRIIIαγ₂ receptors. Using these mice, we performed both an *in vitro* analysis of the signaling role of FcRβ in its natural cellular context and an *in vivo* analysis of the function of FcRβ during FcεRI- or FcγRIII-mediated inflammatory responses. The results of these analyses demonstrate that FcRβ has the capacity to substantially affect the allergic responses of an individual animal, and that it achieves this effect by functioning as a net amplifier of *in vivo* responses in both FcεRI and FcγRIII contexts. This strongly supports the concept that the level of effector cell responsiveness determined by FcRβ can be an important determinant of human allergic responses.

Results

Reconstitution of the Structural Characteristics and Cell-Specific Expression of hFcεRI in Transgenic Mice

To reconstitute FcεRI with both its human cell-specific distribution and its alternative structures, we took advantage of two characteristics of the hFcεRI system, one related to the promoter of the hFcεRIα gene and the other to the subunit assembly. First, a 2.9 kb fragment 5' of the initiation codon from the hFcεRIα gene was active in a reporter gene assay in mouse monocytic cells and, as expected, in mast cells and basophils but not in fibroblasts or T cells (data not shown), suggesting that the 2.9 kb sequence contained the information necessary to achieve the cell-specific expression of hFcεRI. Based on these results, we anticipated that a transgenic mouse expressing the hFcεRIα gene including the 2.9 kb promoter sequence would reconstitute the cell-specific pattern of expression observed in humans. Second, as discussed above, the subunit assembly characteristics of human and murine FcεRI are different. Thus, it was further anticipated that a transgene of the complete hFcεRIα gene would result in assembly of hFcεRIα with endogenous mouse FcRβ and FcRγ in mast cells and basophils and in expression of a mixture of αβγ₂ and αγ₂ complexes on those cells and that in the other hFcεRIα-expressing hematopoietic cells where FcRγ but not FcRβ is expressed, such as monocytes, hFcεRIα chain would assemble with FcRγ and be expressed as αγ₂ complexes.

We generated transgenic mice using the complete hFcεRIα gene under the control of the 2.9 kb promoter. The initial characterization of these mice was published recently (Dombrowicz et al., 1996) and included the demonstration that the hFcεRIα protein is expressed in bone marrow-derived cultured mast cells (BMMC), assembles with endogenous mouse FcRβ and FcRγ, and promotes surface expression of αβγ₂ complexes. In addition, these mice were shown to undergo hFcεRI-mediated anaphylactic reactions, demonstrating the functionality of the reconstituted receptors. As a further characterization of these mice (hFcεRIα-transgenic, designated hFcεRIαTg), we have analyzed the tissue specificity of expression of the hFcεRIα transgene by measuring hFcεRIα expression on monocytes/macrophages, Langerhans cells, and eosinophils. Figure 1A shows that hlgE binds to the surface of BMMC and that this binding is inhibited by monoclonal anti-hFcεRIα (15-1). Because stainings are performed with hlgE, which does not bind to mFcεRI, only hFcεRIα are detected. No hlgE binding was observed on neutrophils obtained 2 hr after thioglycolate elicitation (Figure 1B) or on thymocytes and splenocytes

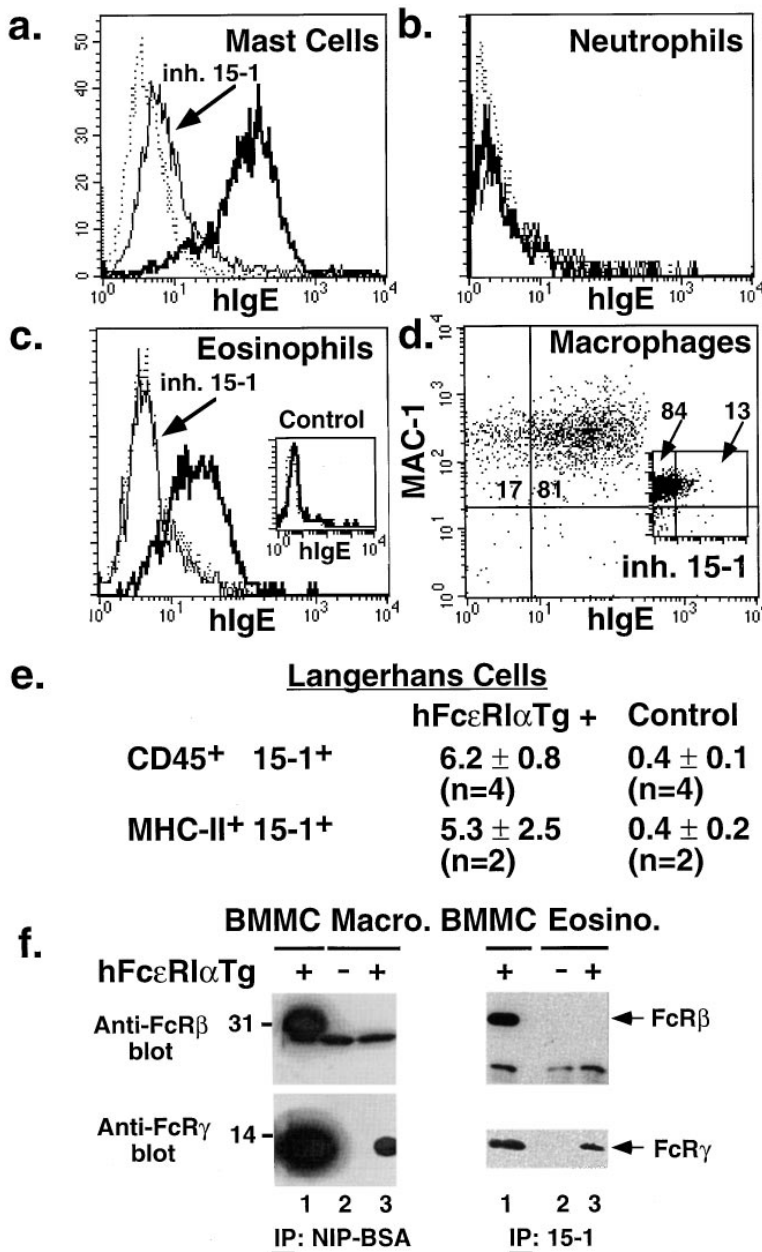


Figure 1. Tissue Distribution and Structure of hFc ϵ RI in hFc ϵ RI α Tg Mice

(A-E) Flow cytometric analysis of surface expression of hFc ϵ RI on BMDC (A), neutrophils (B), eosinophils (C), thioglycolate-elicited macrophages (D), and Langerhans cells (E) from hFc ϵ RI α Tg and Fc ϵ RI $\alpha^{-/-}$ (control) (C, inset) animals. Cells were stained with biotinylated hIgE and SA-PE (A-D). Inhibition of hIgE binding by an excess of 15-1, thin line (A and C), or inset (D). Dotted line (A-C), unstained cells. (E) Double staining was performed with FITC-15-1 and PE-labeled anti-CD45 or anti-MHC-II (I-A^{b,d}). Values (percentages) are mean fluorescence \pm standard error of the mean (SEM). (F) Subunit structure of hFc ϵ RI at the surface of thioglycolate-elicited macrophages, eosinophils, and BMDC from hFc ϵ RI α Tg animals. Macrophages and eosinophils from Fc ϵ RI $\alpha^{-/-}$ (hFc ϵ RI α Tg) mice were used as controls (lane 2). Macrophages and BMDC were incubated with hIgE and then lysed with digitonin. hIgE-receptor complexes were immunoprecipitated with NIP-BSA sepharose beads. Eosinophils and BMDC were incubated with 15-1, washed, and then lysed, and antibody-receptor complexes were immunoprecipitated with Gammabind Plus sepharose beads. The immunoprecipitated material was blotted with anti-FcR β and anti-FcR γ antibodies after SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis and transferred onto polyvinylidene difluoride membranes. Note that the bands migrating below the 31 kDa marker on the anti-FcR β immunoblot correspond to the light chain of hIgE anti-NIP used in this experiment.

(data not shown). The hIgE binding capacity of eosinophils from the peritoneal cavity of mice infected with *Schistosoma mansoni* cercariae for 8-10 weeks (uninfected mice have very few eosinophils) is shown in Figure 1C. Binding of hIgE was also detected on bone marrow and circulating eosinophils (data not shown). This binding was inhibited by preincubation with an excess of 15-1 demonstrating the specificity of hFc ϵ RI-hIgE interaction. The same population of peritoneal eosinophils obtained from nontransgenic animals was devoid of hIgE binding (Figure 1C, inset) and of mIgE binding (data not shown). Thioglycolate-elicited peritoneal macrophages also expressed hFc ϵ RI (Figure 1D). Epidermal Langerhans cells isolated from trunk skin of hFc ϵ RI α Tg mice also expressed hFc ϵ RI. Although murine Langerhans cells do not express a specific marker, they can be identified by a group of cell surface markers.

Murine Langerhans cells express CD45 (leukocyte common antigen) and major histocompatibility complex class II (MHC-II) (I-A) but not T cell receptor (TCR) $\gamma\delta$. Langerhans cells and TCR $\alpha\delta^+$ cells are the only two CD45⁺ cell populations found in normal epidermis (Elbe et al., 1989). We performed multicolor flow cytometric analysis using phycoerythrin (PE)-labeled anti-CD45, anti-I-A, anti- $\gamma\delta$, or anti-c-Kit antibodies and fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC)-labeled 15-1. Double positive cells CD45⁺15-1⁺ and MHC-II⁺15-1⁺ were identified in transgenic animals but not in control mice (Figure 1E). The percentages of Langerhans cells (CD45⁺MHC-II⁺) recovered from the epidermis of both hFc ϵ RI α Tg and control mice were similar (data not shown). In hFc ϵ RI α Tg mice, 15-1⁺ cells were $\gamma\delta^-$ and c-Kit⁻ (data not shown). This binding pattern indicates that cells identifiable as skin Langerhans cells from transgenic animals express

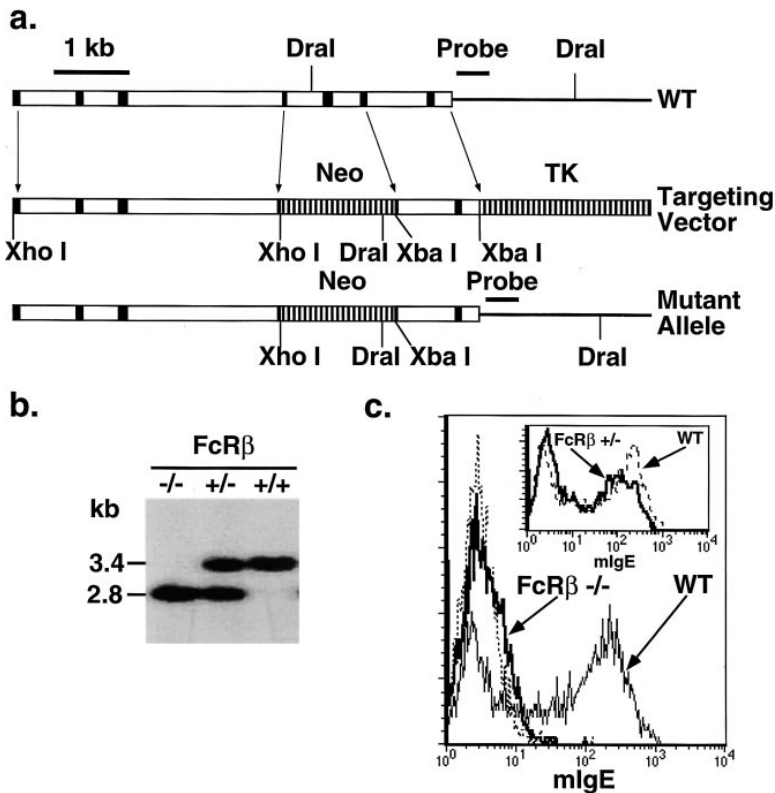


Figure 2. Gene Targeting of FcR β
(A) Organization of the FcR β gene. Map of the WT gene, the targeting construct, and the recombinant allele. Exons, closed boxes; introns, open boxes; *neo* and *tk* cassettes, striped boxes. Intron sizes were deduced from the human gene sequence (Küster et al., 1992) (GenBank accession number M89796). Locations of the cloning sites (XhoI and XbaI) and of the Dral restriction sites are indicated. (B) Southern blot analysis of genomic DNA from FcR $\beta^{+/+}$, FcR $\beta^{+/-}$, and FcR $\beta^{-/-}$ mice. DNA was digested with Dral. The probe used is shown in (A). (C) Fc ϵ RI expression on BMMC from FcR $\beta^{+/+}$, FcR $\beta^{+/-}$, and FcR $\beta^{-/-}$ mice. BMMC were stained with FITC-labeled mlgE and analyzed by flow cytometry.

Fc ϵ RI. Taken together, the above data indicate that the hFc ϵ RI α Tg mice have a cell expression pattern of hFc ϵ RI α that is indistinguishable from that seen in humans.

We next assessed the subunit structure of Fc ϵ RI found in various cell types from these mice. hIgE (anti-NIP [4-hydroxy-3-nitrophenyl-acetyl]) was bound to thioglycolate-elicited peritoneal macrophages and BMMC from hFc ϵ RI α Tg and control animals. After washing, the cells were lysed and the surface hFc ϵ RI receptors were immunoprecipitated. The precipitates were then immunoblotted with monoclonal anti-FcR β (JRK) or polyclonal anti-FcR γ antibodies, both of which react with the corresponding murine subunits. mFcR β and mFcR γ were immunoprecipitated with hIgE in BMMC from hFc ϵ RI α Tg mice (Figure 1F, left, lane 1). By contrast, in macrophages from hFc ϵ RI α Tg mice, only FcR γ was associated with hFc ϵ RI α (Figure 1F, left, lane 3). The amount of FcR γ associated with hFc ϵ RI α was clearly less abundant in macrophages than in BMMC despite the higher number of macrophages used in this experiment. Two factors contributed to this result. The first is the lower number of Fc ϵ RI receptors expressed on macrophages when compared to mast cells. The second is the lower detergent stability of the $\alpha\gamma_2$ receptor complex resulting in dissociation of the FcR γ_2 homodimer from the hFc ϵ RI α chain, as previously described (Lin et al., 1996). Analysis of eosinophil Fc ϵ RI subunit structure was conducted in a similar way. Eosinophils and control BMMC were first saturated with 15-1, washed, and lysed, and the surface receptors were immunoprecipitated. As in macrophages, mFcR γ but not mFcR β was found associated with

hFc ϵ RI α on eosinophils from hFc ϵ RI α Tg mice (Figure 1F, lane 3). In nontransgenic mice, neither FcR β nor FcR γ was detected in macrophages and eosinophils (Fig 1F, lane 2). Thus, these data demonstrate that the hFc ϵ RI α transgene not only recapitulates the appropriate cell specificity of expression of hFc ϵ RI but also the appropriate cell type/structure pattern observed in human cells (Table 1).

Generation of Fc ϵ RI $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$ and Fc ϵ RI $\alpha\gamma_2$ Mice

To analyze the function of FcR β in a physiological context, we chose to compare hFc ϵ RI α Tg mice to corresponding mice with the same hFc ϵ RI α cell distribution but expressing only $\alpha\gamma_2$ receptors. We reasoned that a targeted disruption of the mFcR β gene in these hFc ϵ RI α Tg mice should result in Fc ϵ RI expressed only as $\alpha\gamma_2$ complexes. We first inactivated one mFcR β gene allele in embryonic stem (ES) cells and proceeded to generate mice homozygous for this targeted mutation (Figures 2A and 2B). Surface expression of mFc ϵ RI on BMMC was similar in FcR $\beta^{+/-}$ and wild-type (WT) mice (Figure 2C, inset) but as expected from previous studies (Ra et al., 1989) was abolished in FcR $\beta^{-/-}$ mice (Figure 2C), demonstrating the requirement of FcR β for surface expression of mFc ϵ RI α . FcR $\beta^{-/-}$ mice were then crossed with hFc ϵ RI α Tg mice. Progeny of the second generation thus contained animals expressing the hFc ϵ RI α transgene in the FcR $\beta^{-/-}$ or FcR $\beta^{+/-}$ background. For the purpose of clarity, hFc ϵ RI α Tg/FcR $\beta^{+/-}$ and hFc ϵ RI α Tg/FcR $\beta^{-/-}$ mice will be referred to as Fc ϵ RI $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$ and Fc ϵ RI $\alpha\gamma_2$, respectively.

A prerequisite for the analysis of the FcR β function

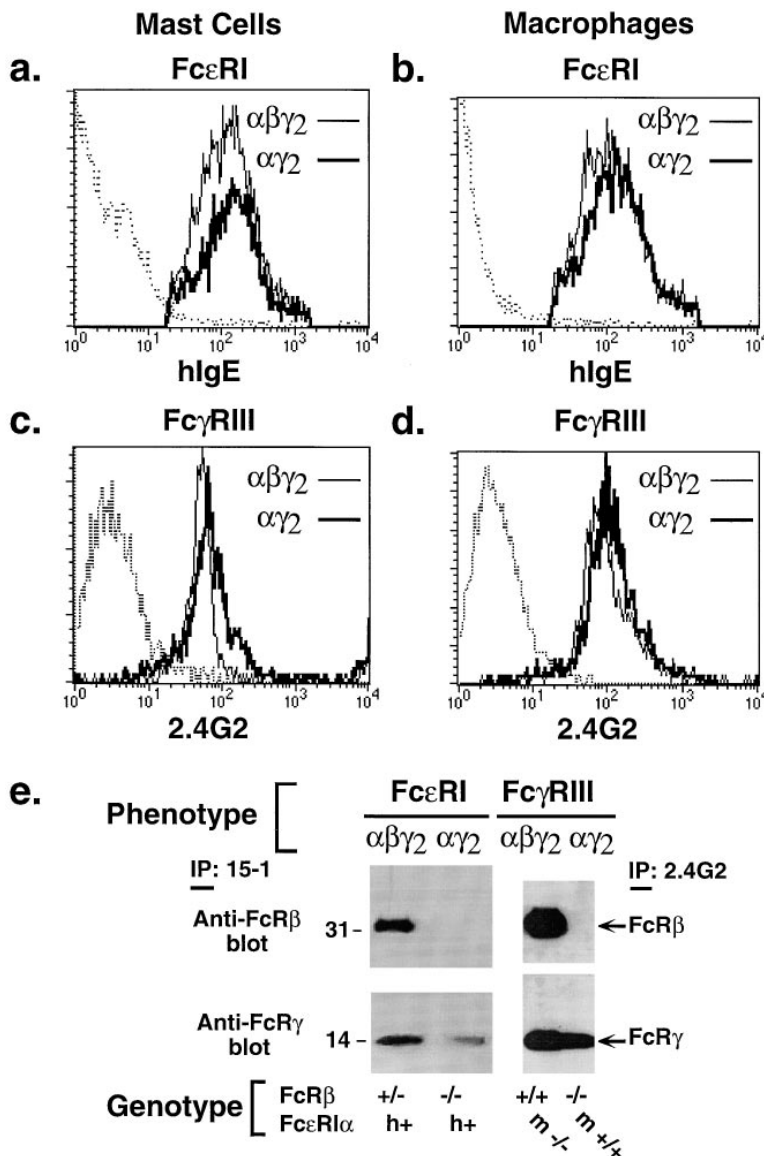


Figure 3. Expression and Structure of Fc ϵ RI and Fc γ RIII on Peritoneal Cells and BMMC (A–D) Fc ϵ RI and Fc γ RIII expression on peritoneal mast cells and macrophages from $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$ and $\alpha\gamma_2$ mice. Flow cytometry analysis on gated c-Kit $^+$ (A and C) and MAC-1 $^+$ (B and D) cells after hIgE and 2.4G2 staining. Dotted lines, unstained cells. (E) Subunit structure of Fc ϵ RI and Fc γ RIII expressed on the surface of BMMC. Fc ϵ RI structure was analyzed as described in Figure 1F (right), and Fc γ RIII structure was analyzed similarly except that 2.4G2 was substituted for 15-1 prior to immunoprecipitation with protein A sepharose-bound anti-rat IgG.

by comparing the two types of mice is to insure that hFc ϵ RI expression levels are equivalent on cells freshly isolated from each strain. These levels were measured after staining freshly isolated peritoneal mast cells and macrophages from both types of mice with hIgE. Both Fc ϵ RI $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$ and Fc ϵ RI $\alpha\gamma_2$ mice bind identical amounts of hIgE, indicating that they express identical amounts of surface hFc ϵ RI on their peritoneal mast cells and macrophages (Figures 3A and 3B). Note that mast cells of Fc ϵ RI $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$ mice still express mFc ϵ RI while the Fc ϵ RI $\alpha\gamma_2$ mice do not, because mFc ϵ RI α is not expressed on the cell surface in the absence of FcR β . In hFc ϵ RI α Tg mice in the Fc ϵ RI α $^{-/-}$ background (Dombrowicz et al., 1996), mast cells do not express mFc ϵ RI, and these mice express higher levels of hFc ϵ RI on their mast cells when compared to the corresponding FcR β $^{-/-}$ mice (data not shown). Thus, it seems that hFc ϵ RI α associates with endogenous FcR β and FcR γ more efficiently than it does

with FcR γ alone. For the purpose of the desired comparison of Fc ϵ RI function in the presence or absence of FcR β , it is therefore fortuitous that the presence of endogenous mFc ϵ RI α as a competitor compensates for the presence of FcR β as a facilitator of Fc ϵ RI surface expression.

A second prerequisite for the analysis of the FcR β function is to confirm that Fc ϵ RI $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$ mice expressed tetrameric Fc ϵ RI and that Fc ϵ RI $\alpha\gamma_2$ mice expressed trimeric Fc ϵ RI. Primary cultures of BMMC were generated and equal numbers of BMMC from each strain were incubated with 15-1, washed, and lysed. The surface receptors bound to 15-1 were then immunoprecipitated and analyzed by Western immunoblotting for the presence of FcR β and FcR γ subunits (Figure 3E, left). As predicted, the Fc ϵ RI $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$ mice have detectable FcR β and FcR γ in anti-hFc ϵ RI α immunoprecipitates, while Fc ϵ RI $\alpha\gamma_2$ mice only have FcR γ and no FcR β .

These results demonstrate that the mast cells of FcεRIαβγ₂ and FcεRIαγ₂ mice bind hIgE equivalently. In addition, these mice express FcεRI on the same cell types as in humans. They therefore represent an *in vivo* model system with a human pattern of FcεRI expression in which the effect of FcRβ on FcεRI-mediated inflammatory reactions can be studied.

Generation of FcγRIIIαβγ₂ and FcγRIIIαγ₂ Mice

A second focus of this work was to examine whether FcRβ might affect immune complex-mediated allergic responses, since it is able to associate with FcγRIII as well as FcεRI. Therefore, we chose to create murine models in which FcγR-mediated responses could be compared in the presence or absence of FcRβ. As with FcεRI, the difference in complexity between mouse and human FcγR systems was important to consider prior to choosing a strategy for construction of these models. Two types of low-affinity receptors, FcγRII and FcγRIII, bind IgG-containing complexes in mice, and both are involved in the initiation of inflammatory responses mediated by these immune complexes. While FcγRII in mice mediate solely inhibitory signals through its ITIM, in humans FcγRII can mediate either inhibitory (FcγRIIB) or activating signals (FcγRIIA) depending on the presence of an ITIM or an ITAM in its cytoplasmic tail (Cambier et al., 1995; Daeron et al., 1997). However, when FcγRII and FcγRIII are viewed together as a low-affinity IgG receptor class, the overall distribution of inhibitory and activating subtypes is conserved such that distinct effector cell types in the two species respond to immune complexes in very similar ways. Unlike FcεRI, both mouse and human FcγRIIIα can be expressed as either αγ₂ or αβγ₂ receptors depending on whether FcRβ is present. Therefore, a full FcγRIIIαγ₂ phenotype is generated simply via elimination of FcRβ expression, and FcRβ^{-/-} mice can be used as a model of solely FcγRIIIαγ₂-initiated responses. However, these mice show an up-regulation of FcγRIII surface expression relative to WT mice, presumably because mFcεRIα, which requires FcRβ for surface expression, is then no longer available to compete with FcγRIIIα for available FcRγ chains (Dombrowicz et al., 1997). To compensate for this, we chose to use mFcεRIα^{-/-} mice as our primary comparative model of FcγRIIIαβγ₂-mediated responses because mFcεRIα is then also no longer available to compete with mFcγRIIIα for FcRβ, and these mice have an up-regulation of FcγRIII surface expression that is similar to that of the FcRβ^{-/-} mice (see results below). Note that our analyses below also included WT mice in parallel for comparison purposes although their lower level of FcγRIII expression precludes unambiguous interpretation of their responses. As above, for the purpose of clarity the FcεRIα^{-/-} mice (which express mFcγRIIIαβγ₂ receptors) and the FcRβ^{-/-} mice (which express FcγRIIIαβ₂ receptors) will be referred to as FcγRIIIαβγ₂ and FcγRIIIαγ₂ mice, respectively.

Documentation of receptor expression and composition are also prerequisites for experimental analysis of the FcγRIII mice. Analysis of the surface expression of FcγR on peritoneal mast cells and macrophages from the FcγRIIIαβγ₂ and FcγRIIIαγ₂ mice is shown in Figures

3C and 3D. The 2.4G2 antibody recognizes both FcγRII and FcγRIII, so that this analysis can only give an approximate idea of the uniformity of FcγRIII expression. However, studies of FcRγ^{-/-} mice in which surface expression of FcγRIII is abolished suggest that between 50%–80% of 2.4G2 staining is due to FcγRIII (Takai et al., 1994). As can be seen, surface FcγR expression is quite similar in the two strains, implying that FcγRIII expression is also quite similar. Analysis of peritoneal mast cells and macrophages from WT mice in parallel with the above showed that 2.4G2 staining was weaker than on either of the above (data not shown).

The subunit composition of the FcγR was characterized on 2.4G2 immunoprecipitates of BMMC from both FcγRIIIαβγ₂ and FcγRIIIαγ₂ strains of mice (Figure 3E, right). As illustrated, 2.4G2 immunoprecipitates from FcγRIIIαβγ₂ mice contain both FcRβ and FcRγ, while those from FcγRIIIαγ₂ mice contain only FcRγ. The lower levels of FcRγ seen in the lane for the FcγRIIIαγ₂ strain is probably due to the lower detergent stability of the FcγRIIIαγ₂ complexes, as expected based on what is seen for analogous FcεRI complexes. Since 2.4G2 does not discriminate between mouse FcγRIII and FcγRII, the association between FcRβ and FcγRIII was confirmed by immunoprecipitation with antibodies specific for the FcγRIII and FcγRII cytoplasmic tails followed by Western immunoblotting for FcRβ, which revealed an association only between FcRβ and FcγRIII (Dombrowicz et al., 1997). Taken together, the results demonstrate that these mice are appropriate models in which to analyze the role of FcRβ in the regulation of *in vivo* allergic reactions initiated through FcγRIII.

Role of FcRβ in Early Signaling Mediated through FcεRI

As discussed above, data on FcRβ function in the FcεRI context suggest directly opposing functions for FcRβ as either a positive or negative regulator of signaling. As a first step to address this apparent discrepancy, we examined how the presence of FcRβ affected signaling in its natural mast cell context by comparing FcεRI signaling in normal mast cells obtained from FcεRIαβγ₂ and FcεRIαγ₂ mice, focusing on the role of FcRβ for the generation of early intracellular signals mediated through FcεRI. BMMC were stimulated in such a way that the number of receptors engaged with hIgE and antigen on cells from FcεRIαγ₂ animals was equal or greater than the ones on cells from corresponding FcεRIαβγ₂ mice (Figure 4A). After stimulation with hIgE and its cognate antigen, cells were lysed and tyrosine phosphorylation of the FcRγ chain and Syk was analyzed by anti-FcRγ and anti-Syk immunoprecipitation, and the respective immunoprecipitates were immunoblotted with an anti-phosphotyrosine antibody. The tyrosine phosphorylation state of Syk is known to closely parallel its activation state. Engagement of FcεRIαβγ₂ induces much greater FcRγ and Syk tyrosine phosphorylation than does engagement of FcεRIαγ₂ (Figure 4B). We then compared calcium mobilization in BMMC derived from these mice (Figure 5A). Calcium mobilization in the BMMC that expressed FcεRIαβγ₂ was enhanced relative to that in the BMMC expressing FcεRIαγ₂. Both of these results paralleled observations in the reconstitution and cultured cell

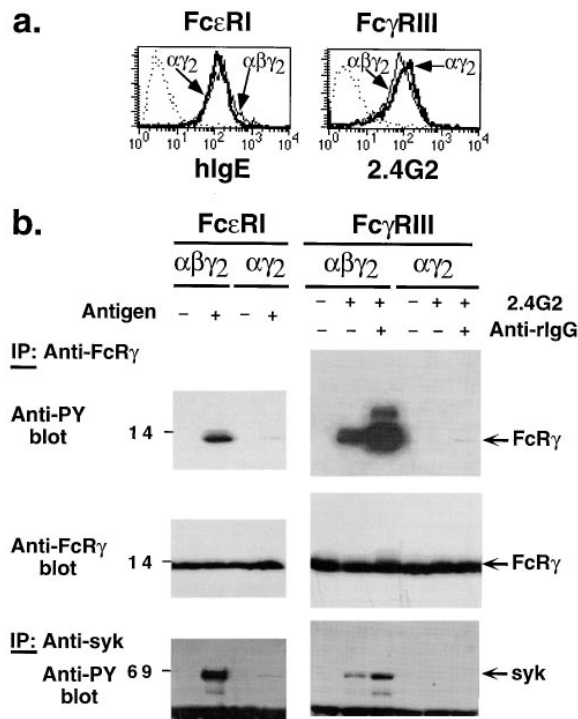


Figure 4. FcR β Amplifies Phosphorylation of Fc ϵ RI and Fc γ RIII on BMMC

(A) Flow cytometric analysis of Fc ϵ RI and Fc γ RIII ligand occupancy at the time of BMMC stimulation. BMMC from Fc ϵ RI $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$ and $\alpha\gamma_2$ mice were incubated with 50 ng/ml per 10^6 cells IgE; BMMC from Fc γ RIII $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$ and $\alpha\gamma_2$ mice were incubated with 100 ng/ml per 10^6 cells and 1 μ g/ml per 10^6 cells of the 2.4G2 antibody, respectively, to insure that the number of receptors engaged on cells from $\alpha\gamma_2$ mice was equal or higher than the ones from $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$ animals.

(B) FcR β amplifies FcR γ and Syk tyrosine phosphorylation in BMMC through Fc ϵ RI and Fc γ RIII. BMMC were incubated with IgE and triggered or not with antigen; BMMC were triggered with 2.4G2 alone or not and further stimulated or not by cross-linking with anti-rat IgG. Lysates were immunoprecipitated with anti-FcR γ or anti-Syk antibodies, and the products were analyzed by immunoblotting with anti-phosphotyrosine antibodies.

models. Estimation of the extent of enhancement seen for each of these early parameters suggests that the FcR β gain in these systems is around 5- to 10-fold, nearly identical to our previous results from transfected cultured cell models. These results substantiate the FcR β amplifier concept for early signaling events mediated by Fc ϵ RI in a natural mast cell context.

Role of FcR β in Early Signaling Mediated through Fc γ RIII

Although previous studies have not detected differences in signaling between Fc γ RIII $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$ versus $\alpha\gamma_2$, the substantial homology between Fc ϵ RI α and Fc γ RIII α and the clear amplifying effect of FcR β on Fc ϵ RI α signaling led us to reexamine the effect of FcR β on Fc γ RIII early signaling using BMMC from the Fc γ RIII $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$ and Fc γ RIII $\alpha\gamma_2$ mice. Fc γ RIII-dependent signaling was analyzed by comparing FcR γ tyrosine phosphorylation and Syk tyrosine phosphorylation induced through Fc γ RIII cross-linking with the rat monoclonal antibody 2.4G2 or 2.4G3

plus a secondary cross-linker (Figure 4B). In these experiments, the number of receptors engaged with 2.4G2 on BMMC from Fc γ RIII $\alpha\gamma_2$ mice was equal or greater than the one on cells from Fc γ RIII $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$ animals (Figure 4A). Since both inhibitory (Fc γ RII) and stimulatory (Fc γ RIII) Fc γ R are expressed on mast cells (Alber et al., 1992; Dairon et al., 1997), and 2.4G2 binds to both Fc γ RII and Fc γ RIII, this antibody provides a stimulus that is somewhat analogous to that induced by immune complexes that engage both receptors. Tyrosine phosphorylation of FcR γ and Syk was detected in Fc γ RIII $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$ BMMC when stimulated with 2.4G2 alone, while neither tyrosine-phosphorylated FcR γ nor syk was detectable after stimulation of Fc γ RIII $\alpha\gamma_2$ BMMC (Figure 4B). If a secondary cross-linker was added, the FcR γ /syk tyrosine phosphorylation signals were further enhanced in the Fc γ RIII $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$ BMMC and became detectable in the Fc γ RIII $\alpha\gamma_2$ BMMC. Consistent with these results, no calcium mobilization was observed in Fc γ RIII $\alpha\gamma_2$ BMMC stimulated with low (data not shown) or high doses (1 μ g/ 10^6 cells) of 2.4G2 antibodies. In contrast, Fc γ RIII $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$ cells exhibited a strong calcium response even with a low-dose stimulus (10 ng/ 10^6 cells). However, subsequent addition of anti-rat IgG was able to induce calcium mobilization in Fc γ RIII $\alpha\gamma_2$ BMMC, although the flux was still weaker than in Fc γ RIII $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$ cells despite prior depletion of calcium stores by 2.4G2 alone (Figure 5B). The latter results demonstrate that stimuli producing small Fc γ RIII clusters (dimers with 2.4G2) are sufficient to trigger Fc γ RIII $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$ but not Fc γ RIII $\alpha\gamma_2$ BMMC. Conversely, in the absence of FcR β larger clusters (obtained after secondary cross-linking) were required to induce signaling. Therefore, these data indicate that FcR β is able to amplify signaling through Fc γ RIII.

FcR β Function in Late Effector Responses

We next investigated whether the differences observed in these early intracellular signaling events (occurring within 1–5 min after the initial stimulus) could be translated into meaningful differences in mast cell degranulation and cytokine release, two responses that are observed after long periods of stimulation (several minutes to 6 hr) and are directly relevant to the pathogenesis of allergic diseases. Degranulation of BMMC expressing Fc ϵ RI $\alpha\gamma_2$ or $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$ was induced by cross-linking receptor-bound IgE with multivalent antigen. An antigen dose-response experiment (Figure 5C) demonstrates that FcR β 's presence amplifies the cell degranulation response through Fc ϵ RI with a gain factor of 3- to 5-fold. Similar results were obtained when BMMC were triggered using 15–1 with further cross-linking (Figure 5D). However, cross-linking with 15–1 alone did not induce a measurable response. We also analyzed the degranulation response of BMMC after stimulation with 2.4G2. Initiation of degranulation responses of BMMC via Fc γ RIII followed the same general pattern as via Fc ϵ RI. Very little degranulation was seen after Fc γ RIII $\alpha\gamma_2$ engagement with 2.4G2 alone, while identically stimulated Fc γ RIII $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$ cells released 35% (maximum) of their total content (Figure 5E). Analysis of the effect of FcR β on cytokine release was performed by measuring interleukin (IL)-6 production after cell triggering via Fc ϵ RI or

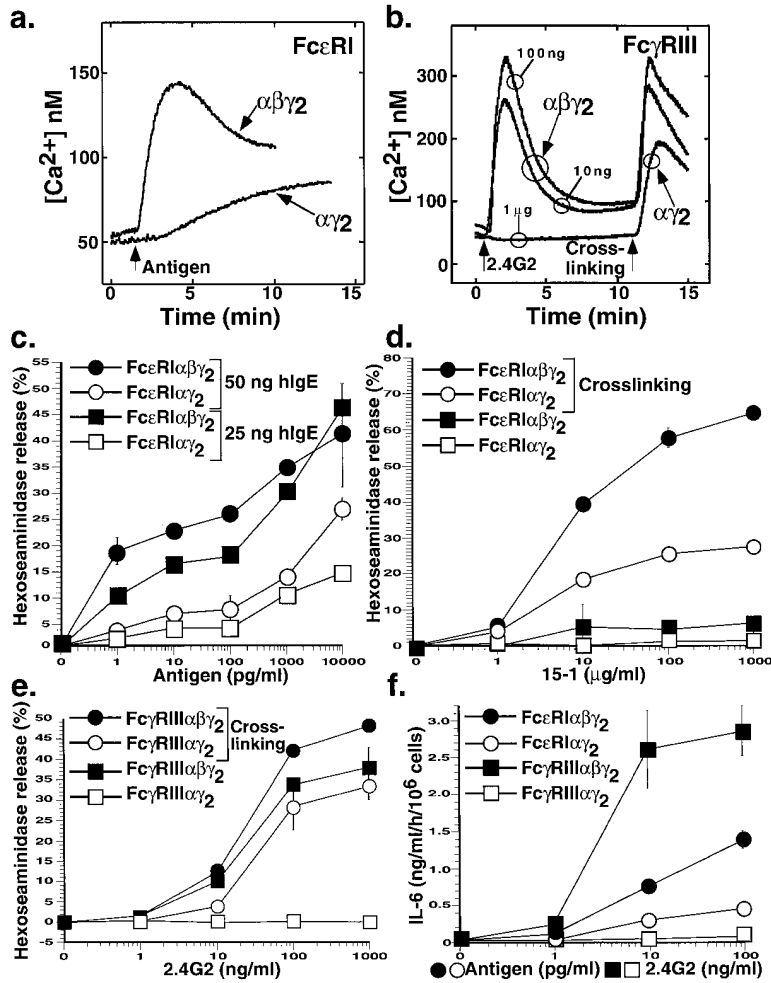


Figure 5. FcRβ Amplifies BMMC Calcium Mobilization, Degranulation, and IL-6 Release through FcεRI and FcγRIII

(A) FcεRI-induced calcium mobilization. BMMC from FcεRIαβγ₂ and αγ₂ mice were loaded with Fura-2 and 50 ng/ml per 10⁶ cells anti-NIP hlgE before being stimulated with NIP-BSA (12 ng/ml per 10⁶ cells).

(B) FcγRIII-induced calcium mobilization. Fura-2-loaded BMMC from FcγRIIIαβγ₂ and αγ₂ mice were stimulated with 10 or 100 ng or 1 mg/ml per 10⁶ cells of 2.4G2 and further cross-linked with 10 μg/ml of anti-rat IgG.

(C and D) FcεRI-induced degranulation as measured by β-hexoseaminidase release. (C) BMMC from FcεRIαβγ₂ and αγ₂ mice were incubated with 25 or 50 ng/ml per 10⁶ cells hlgE and stimulated with NIP-BSA antigen. (D) BMMC from FcεRIαβγ₂ and αγ₂ mice were triggered with increasing doses of anti-hFcεRIα (15.1) antibody and further cross-linked or not with 10 μg/ml of anti-mouse IgG F(ab')₂ fragments. Values are means ± SEM; when not visible, error bars are within the symbols.

(E) FcγRIII-induced degranulation as measured by β-hexoseaminidase release. BMMC from FcγRIIIαβγ₂ and αγ₂ mice were stimulated with increasing doses of 2.4G2 antibody and further cross-linked or not with 10 μg/ml anti-rat IgG. Values are means ± SEM; when not visible, error bars are within the symbols. (F) IL-6 production; BMMC from FcεRIαβγ₂ and αγ₂ mice were loaded with 50 ng/ml per 10⁶ cells anti-NIP hlgE and then stimulated with NIP-BSA; BMMC from FcγRIIIαβγ₂ and αγ₂ mice were triggered with 1, 10, and 100 ng/ml per 10⁶ cells of 2.4G2 antibody. Culture medium samples were removed after 6 hr stimulation. Values are means ± SEM; when not visible, error bars are within the symbols.

FcγRIII (Figure 5F). IL-6 production in αβγ₂ BMMC was higher than in αγ₂ BMMC after stimulation with either FcεRI or FcγRIII. Thus, FcRβ is not only able to amplify early intracellular signaling events in mast cells but also later effector responses. In addition, the amplification effect of FcRβ on these effector responses is of sufficient magnitude that its presence produces large responses to stimuli that would otherwise produce little or no response (as in the case of degranulation and cytokine production induced by stimulation with 2.4G2 alone).

Role of FcRβ in IgE-Mediated Allergic Responses

We have demonstrated that FcRβ amplifies IgE- and IgG-mediated early and late mast cell responses in vitro. The next step was to determine whether the amplifying function observed in vitro would translate into measurable differences in in vivo responses. Since FcRβ expression is restricted to mast cells and basophils and the majority of the FcεRI receptors in the humanized mouse model are, as in humans, in the form of αγ₂ complexes, it was not a priori obvious that the FcRβ amplification effect would have a significant impact on in vivo responses in these mice. In addition, the broadened expression range of hFcεRI produces a large number of nonmast cell-expressing FcεRIαγ₂, raising the possibility that it might be difficult to adequately load mast cell

FcεRI to produce significant anaphylactic responses. Therefore, to verify that our IgE sensitization protocol would produce loading of both mast cells and nonmast cells, we first examined in situ hlgE binding on peritoneal mast cells and macrophages 24 hr after the injection of 100 μg of anti-NIP hlgE. The data presented in Figures 3A and 3B show that the peritoneal mast cells and macrophages of FcεRIαβγ₂ and FcεRIαγ₂ mice express similar levels of hFcεRI as assessed by exposure ex vivo to a saturating amount of ligand. After in situ exposure to hlgE, there is detectable bound hlgE that is equal in both the FcεRIαβγ₂ and FcεRIαγ₂ mice, although the level of receptor occupancy is much lower than saturation (compare Figure 6A with the level of cell fluorescence produced when the receptors are saturated [Figures 3A and 3B]). When using this injection protocol followed by administration of antigen to promote systemic anaphylaxis, only small anaphylactic responses were elicited (as measured by rectal temperature drop) (data not shown), and we were unable to detect any difference between the FcεRIαβγ₂ and FcεRIαγ₂ mice. Since the in situ data indicated that at best only one tenth of hFcεRI receptors were bound with hlgE using this protocol, we inferred that the overall IgE binding capacity of these mice is such that 100 μg of IgE is not adequate to produce a high enough receptor saturation level to produce a robust in vivo anaphylactic response.

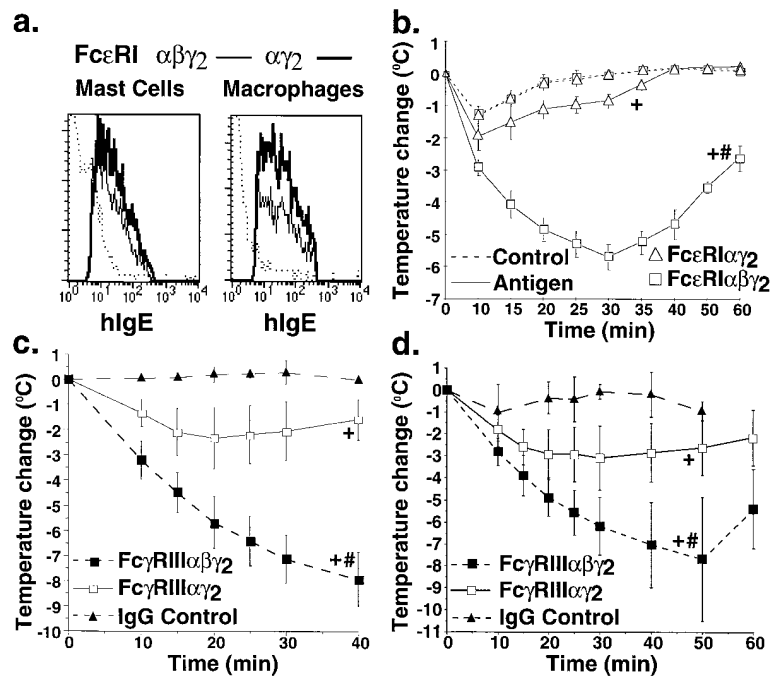


Figure 6. FcR β Amplifies Systemic Anaphylaxis through Fc ϵ RI and Fc γ RIII

(A) Fc ϵ RI ligand occupancy on peritoneal mast cells and macrophages 24 hr after intravenous injection of 100 μ g hlgE. Flow cytometric analysis of gated c-Kit⁺ (left) and MAC-1⁺ (right) cells showed that receptor engagement was similar in Fc ϵ RI $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$ and $\alpha\gamma_2$ mice. Dotted line, unstained cells.

(B) Rectal temperature changes in Fc ϵ RI $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$ and $\alpha\gamma_2$ mice (n = 4) after 3 intravenous injections at 12 hr intervals of 50 ng of anti-NIP hlgE and intravenous challenge, 4 hr after the last injection, with 1 mg of NIP-BSA. Controls (Fc ϵ RI $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$, n = 3; Fc ϵ RI $\alpha\gamma_2$, n = 2) received NIP-BSA only. Data show mean values \pm SEM; p < 0.001 by ANOVA versus data from control mice (+) or versus Fc ϵ RI $\alpha\gamma_2$ mice (#).

(C) Rectal temperature changes in Fc γ RIII- $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$ (n = 9) and Fc γ RIII $\alpha\gamma_2$ (n = 7) mice after intravenous injection of 100 μ g 2.4G2. Control animals (n = 3) received an equal amount of nonspecific rat IgG. Values are means \pm SD; p < 0.005 by ANOVA versus control mice (+) or versus Fc γ RIII $\alpha\gamma_2$ (#).

(D) Rectal temperature changes in Fc γ RIII $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$ (n = 23) and Fc γ RIII $\alpha\gamma_2$ (n = 9) mice after iv injection of 400 μ g anti-DNP IgG₁ and challenge with 1 mg DNP-HSA 24 hr later. Control

animals (n = 15) received an equal amount of nonspecific mouse IgG and were challenged as described. Values are means \pm SD; p < 0.005 by ANOVA versus control mice (+) or versus Fc γ RIII $\alpha\gamma_2$ (#).

(C and D) Note that the Fc γ RIII $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$ and control temperature curves were from a large contemporaneously generated data set that included control, WT, and Fc γ R^{-/-} together with Fc γ RIII $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$ (Dombrowicz et al., 1997), and Fc γ RIII $\alpha\gamma_2$ (unpublished data); the data on Fc γ RIII $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$ mice and hlgE that have been previously published (Dombrowicz et al., 1997) are therefore shown with a dotted line.

Based on the above data, we designed a new protocol of three consecutive injections of IgE with the intention of producing a higher receptor saturation level prior to antigenic challenge. Fc ϵ RI $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$ and Fc ϵ RI $\alpha\gamma_2$ mice were injected three times at 12 hr intervals with 50 μ g of anti-NIP hlgE before being challenged intravenously with the corresponding antigen (NIP-BSA [bovine serum albumin]). In these conditions, Fc ϵ RI $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$ mice displayed a strong temperature drop (5.7°C) after 30 min. In contrast, Fc ϵ RI $\alpha\gamma_2$ mice had a much weaker response (2.0°C drop after 10 min) and completely recovered after 40 min (Figure 6B), a response reminiscent of the one described above for both types of mice after a single 100 μ g loading with IgE. Taken together these data demonstrate that FcR β displays an amplifier effect on IgE-mediated responses in vivo with a gain of about 5-fold and suggest that the manifestation of this amplifier effect in an in vivo response depends at least in part on an adequate level of saturation of mast cell Fc ϵ RI $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$ receptors.

Role of FcR β in IgG-Mediated Allergic Responses In Vivo

To determine whether FcR β could also play a role in Fc γ RIII-mediated systemic anaphylactic responses, the Fc γ RIII $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$ and Fc γ RIII $\alpha\gamma_2$ mice were injected either with 2.4G2 antibodies or with IgG-containing immune complexes and monitored for anaphylactic responses by body temperature measurements. We verified that the in situ loading of mast cells and macrophages was equivalent or lower in Fc γ RIII $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$ animals compared to Fc γ RIII $\alpha\gamma_2$ mice (data not shown). A single intravenous injection with 100 μ g of 2.4G2 results in a maximal drop in body temperature of 8°C in Fc γ RIII $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$ mice relative

to control values (Figure 6C). By comparison, the temperature drop induced by 2.4G2 injection in the Fc γ RIII $\alpha\gamma_2$ mice was reduced to only 2°C relative to control values. Preformed immune complexes composed of anti-DNP (dinitrophenyl) IgG₁ and the corresponding antigen (DNP-HSA [human serum albumin]) duplicated almost perfectly the results obtained with the 2.4G2 stimulus in Fc γ RIII $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$ and $\alpha\gamma_2$ mice (Figure 6D). Analysis of the level of amplification indicates that FcR β provides a gain factor of around 3. In addition, we performed a parallel analysis of WT mice, which express a lower level of surface Fc γ RIII (a subset of which contains FcR β) than do the Fc γ RIII $\alpha\gamma_2$ mice. While responding less robustly than the Fc γ RIII $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$ mice, the WT mice showed a temperature drop (approximately 4 degrees) (data not shown) that was statistically significantly larger than the Fc γ RIII $\alpha\gamma_2$ mice in spite of the lower level of Fc γ RIII expressed in the WT mice, implying that the FcR β amplification effect is responsible for a substantial proportion of the anaphylactic responses under normal conditions. Therefore, the ability of FcR β to amplify mast cell effector responses in vitro translates into a marked enhancement in anaphylactic responses mediated via either Fc ϵ RI or Fc γ RIII.

Discussion

In this paper, we have generated mice with distinct Fc ϵ RI and Fc γ RIII structural phenotypes and used them to compare cellular and whole animal responses mediated by the two receptors functioning with or without FcR β . The data presented are unequivocal genetic evidence that FcR β has the capacity to substantially modulate

an individual animal's allergic response, and that this capacity is due to its function as a net amplifier of effector cell responses.

As discussed in the introduction, FcR β has been suggested to play a role in the development of atopy. However, the idea that effector cell responses could vary significantly enough among different individuals to have an important impact on the development of allergic responses has been very controversial. In fact, while atopy is widely regarded as a multifactorial disease, most models of atopy focus on the dysregulation of cellular (e.g., T helper type 1 or T helper type 2) and humoral responses that are responsible for the initial production of high levels of allergen-specific IgE. However, our data directly demonstrate the importance of FcR β in the manifestation of allergic responses: animals that lack FcR β have such substantially reduced responses that no degree of dysregulation of humoral responses would be able to produce a sufficient level of sensitization to allow them to manifest as atopic. The large effect that FcR β has on allergic responses in both Fc ϵ RI and Fc γ RIII receptor contexts is a formal demonstration of the capacity of FcR β to contribute to allergic responses. In addition, we present biochemical data, *in vitro* cell activation data, and *in vivo* inflammatory response data that show that FcR β functions as a net amplifier of Fc ϵ RI and Fc γ RIII effector cell responses. Together, these demonstrations strongly support the concept that atopy-associated isoforms of FcR β may contribute to the manifestation of atopy through some modulation of FcR β 's ability to promote effector responses *in vivo* and provide a strong rationale for proceeding with the investigation of the functional effect of FcR β polymorphisms on the gain provided by FcR β .

Given that FcR β is able to have an important influence on the manifestation of atopy via its role in setting the level of effector cell responses, what types of polymorphisms would one logically expect to find? Obvious possibilities that would result in a gain of function include polymorphisms in the promoter or regulatory regions resulting in increasing FcR β expression, polymorphisms in the transmembrane domains capable of increasing assembly and the proportion of $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$ complexes expressed on effector cells, and polymorphisms around the ITAM that could stabilize association with kinases or destabilize association with phosphatases. However, polymorphisms that would be dominant in the nonallergic population should also be considered. For example, it is conceivable that alleles of inactive or less active FcR β (for example ITAM-less or ITAM-mutant FcR β) have been overlooked in nonallergics. When a particular polymorphism has shown a potential functional effect *in vitro*, the animal model developed and used here should be adaptable for testing the function of polymorphisms *in vivo*.

Our analyses of these mice also provide an intriguing insight into hFcR biology. The large differences in magnitude of response between the Fc γ RIII $\alpha\gamma_2$ and Fc γ RIII $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$ mice after exposure to the weak 2.4G2 stimulus demonstrates that the FcR β amplifier may be particularly important for immune responses to weak stimuli, such as might be encountered in the earliest stages of inflammatory responses to invading pathogens. It is tempting

to speculate that enhanced IgE- or IgG/Fc ϵ RI immune complex-mediated activation of mast cells and basophils in response to invading pathogens (Zhang et al., 1992; Echtenacher et al., 1996; Malaviya et al., 1996) via increased expression or qualitatively more active FcR β has provided a selective advantage that has driven the accumulation of atopy-associated forms of FcR β in modern human populations.

In summary, we have created and characterized two novel murine models that are relevant to hFcR function. Using these mice as a model system, we have shown that FcR β functions in its natural context as a net amplifier of Fc ϵ RI- and Fc γ RIII-mediated mast cell activation and *in vivo* responses and have formally demonstrated the importance of the level of effector cell responsiveness in the manifestation of an allergic response. This information provides an important conceptual basis for understanding how polymorphic forms of FcR β might contribute to or retard the development of human atopy.

Experimental Procedures

Targeting of the FcR β Gene

The mouse FcR β gene was isolated from a 129 λ DASH library (a gift from P. Love, National Institutes of Health [NIH], Bethesda, MD). Targeted disruption of the gene was achieved by replacement of exons IV–VI (corresponding to base pairs [bp] 344–577 of the mFcR β cDNA sequence) (Ra et al., 1989) with a *neo* cassette. A 4 kb fragment encompassing exons I–IV (bp 38–343 of the mouse FcR β cDNA sequence) and a 1.4 kb fragment encompassing exons VI–VII (bp 578–1007) were amplified by polymerase chain reaction using appropriate primers and cloned respectively into the XhoI and XbaI of the pJNS2 vector (Dombrowicz et al., 1993). The construct was linearized by NotI and electroporated into D3 or E14 TG2a ES cells. ES cells were grown and selected as previously described (Koller and Smithies, 1989). Genomic DNA was extracted from clonal ES cells, digested with DraI, and hybridized by Southern blot to a 440 bp fragment located 16 bp downstream of exon VII. The hybridizing bands were 3.4 kb for the WT and 2.8 kb for the disrupted allele. Two of 109 G418-resistant, ganciclovir-sensitive clones were found positive for homologous recombination.

Animals

Chimeric, heterozygous (+/-), and homozygous (-/-) animals for the disrupted FcR β allele were generated as previously described (Koller and Smithies, 1989); FcR β ^{-/-} animals were on a BALB/c F₂ background. Fc ϵ RI α ^{-/-} animals have been previously described (Dombrowicz et al., 1993) and were on a BALB/c F₆ background. FcR β ^{-/-} animals were compared to age-matched Fc ϵ RI α ^{-/-} for all relevant experiments. FcR β ^{-/-} were also crossed with the previously described transgenic mice for the hFc ϵ RI α gene (hFc ϵ RI α Tg) (Dombrowicz et al., 1996). Progeny of the second generation thus contained hFc ϵ RI α Tg/FcR β ^{-/-} or hFc ϵ RI α Tg/FcR β ^{+/-} animals. Littermates were used in all appropriate experiments. hFc ϵ RI α Tg mice used for these crosses were in a BALB/c WT background, so that hFc ϵ RI α Tg/FcR β ^{+/-} animals were expressing both human and murine Fc ϵ RI on their mast cells. Animals used for the study of hFc ϵ RI cellular distribution were on a Fc ϵ RI α ^{-/-} background and thus were expressing only hFc ϵ RI.

Cells

Peritoneal Cells

Peritoneal cells were obtained by flushing the peritoneal cavity with 2 × 10 ml of ice-cold Hanks' balanced salt solution containing 1% fetal calf serum and 10 IU/ml heparin. Cells were collected on ice and the clumps removed by filtration on nylon filters. Thioglycollate-elicited macrophages were obtained 72 hr after intraperitoneal injection with 1 ml of 5% thioglycollate. After overnight cultures, adherent cells were used for flow cytometry analysis. For Western blotting experiments, peritoneal cells were incubated at 10⁶ cells/ml with 10

mg/ml collagen-coated dextran beads (Cytodex 3, Pharmacia) for 8 hr and adherent macrophages harvested by collagenase treatment (500 μ g/ml).

Neutrophils

Neutrophils were collected 2 hr after thioglycolate injection as non-adherent cells.

Eosinophils

Eosinophils were obtained from mice (6–12 weeks old) that had been infected with 80 cercariae of *S. mansoni* and sacrificed 8 weeks after infection (Williams et al., 1993). Peritoneal, bone marrow, and blood eosinophils were harvested and cultured overnight in complete RPMI containing 2.5 ng/ml murine IL-5 for removal of adhering macrophages. Nonadherent cells were collected for analysis. Percentage of eosinophils was determined after staining with Phloxine B (Unopette, Becton Dickinson). Eosinophils represented 55% and 45% of the peritoneal cells from transgenic and control animals, respectively.

Langerhans Cells

Epidermal cell suspensions were obtained as described (Schuler and Steinmann, 1985; Borkowski et al., 1996).

BMMC

BMMC were obtained as previously described (Dombrowicz et al., 1993, 1996).

Flow Cytometry

Flow cytometric analyses were performed on 3×10^6 cells as follows. All of the incubation steps were on ice for 30 min in 100 μ l of phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) with 0.1% BSA and 0.05% sodium azide. Unless specified otherwise, all of the antibody final concentrations were 10 μ g/ml. hFc ϵ R1 expression was analyzed using three different methods after saturation of Fc γ RII/III receptors with an excess of unlabeled 2.4G2, a rat IgG2b κ (Unkeless, 1979). A chimeric hIgE molecule (Schwarzbaum et al., 1989), composed of an Fc portion of hIgE and of an anti-NIP F(ab) portion of mIgE and referred to as hIgE for the purpose of clarity, was used. After washing, hIgE was revealed with a biotinylated anti-mouse $\lambda 1^+ \lambda 2$ light chains (Pharmingen) and streptavidin-phycoerythrin (SA-PE) (1:2500). Alternatively, hFc ϵ R1 was detected with biotinylated hIgE followed by SA-PE or with FITC-labeled anti-Fc ϵ R1 α (15–1) (Wang et al., 1992). Fc γ RIII expression was examined using FITC-labeled 2.4G2 (Pharmingen). Neutrophils and eosinophils were identified on the basis of their forward and side scatters. After saturation of Fc γ RI with normal mouse IgG and of Fc ϵ RII with an anti-CD23 (Pharmingen), peritoneal cells (mast cells and macrophages) were identified by additional staining with PE- or FITC-labeled anti-c-Kit (Pharmingen) and anti-MAC-1 antibodies (Boehringer), respectively. Langerhans cells were identified by staining with either PE-labeled anti-CD45, anti-MHC-II (I-A^b), anti-TCR $\gamma\delta$ T cells, or anti-c-Kit antibodies (Pharmingen). Langerhans cells are characterized by their CD45⁺, MHC-II (I-A)⁺, TCR $\gamma\delta$ ⁻ phenotype. Dead cells were excluded by propidium iodide.

Subunit Analysis of Fc ϵ R1 and Fc γ RIII Complexes

Western blot experiments on BMMC and eosinophils were performed as previously described (Dombrowicz et al., 1996, 1997). Cells were saturated with 10 μ g/ml 15–1 or 2.4G2 for 2 hr at 4°C, washed, and lysed in 1% digitonin. Surface-expressed receptors were immunoprecipitated with Gamma Bind Plus sepharose beads (Pharmacia) or with rabbit anti-rat IgG bound to protein-A sepharose (Pharmacia). After SDS–polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis and electrotransfer on polyvinylidene difluoride membrane, immunoprecipitates were immunoblotted with anti-Fc ϵ R β (JRK) (Rivera et al., 1988) and anti-Fc ϵ R γ (934) (Letourneur et al., 1991) antibodies. Macrophages were loaded with 10 μ g/ml hIgE at 5×10^6 cells/ml. Cells were lysed at 5×10^7 cells/ml in 1% digitonin. Lysates were immunoprecipitated with 20 μ l of NIP-BSA agarose beads for 2 hr at 4°C. All of the subsequent steps were performed as described above.

Receptor Phosphorylation and Calcium Mobilization

To determine the amount of hIgE required for engagement of equal numbers of receptors on BMMC from Fc ϵ R1 $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$ and $\alpha\gamma_2$ mice, overnight incubation of cells with different doses of hIgE ranging from 4–100 ng/ml per 10^6 cells was performed. Flow cytometry analysis

of hIgE binding was performed as described above. A dose of 50 ng/ml per 10^6 cells resulted in a similar loading of cells from both Fc ϵ R1 $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$ and $\alpha\gamma_2$ animals. Likewise, to determine the dose of 2.4G2 necessary for engagement of the same number of receptors on BMMC from Fc γ RIII $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$ and $\alpha\gamma_2$ mice, cells were incubated for 20 min at 37°C with 2.4G2 doses ranging from 10 ng to 1 μ g/ml per 10^6 cells. Binding of 2.4G2 was revealed using FITC-labeled anti-rat IgG. Similar and almost saturating loading was achieved with 100 ng and 1 μ g/ml per 10^6 cells of 2.4G2 for cells from Fc γ RIII $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$ and $\alpha\gamma_2$ mice, respectively.

Experiments of phosphorylation and calcium mobilization were performed as previously described, except that Fc ϵ R1 was triggered with 12 ng/ml NIP-BSA (Dombrowicz et al., 1996; Lin et al., 1996).

Degranulation

Cellular degranulation was measured by the release of β -hexoseaminidase as described before, with minor modifications (Hirasawa et al., 1995). Cells were incubated overnight with 50 ng/ml per 10^6 cells hIgE or with various doses of anti-Fc ϵ R1 α (15–1) for 2 hr, washed twice, and stimulated with NIP-BSA or with 10 μ g/ml goat anti-mouse IgG F(ab')₂ for 20 min. Stimulation with 2.4G2 antibodies was performed for 25 min and, when appropriate, 10 μ g/ml anti-rat IgG was added without prior washing, after 10 min incubation.

IL-6 Production

IL-6 production was measured by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (Endogen) on 50 μ l of culture medium according to the manufacturer's instructions, after 6 hr stimulation with 50 ng/ml per 10^6 cells hIgE and 1, 10, and 100 pg/ml per 10^6 cells of NIP-BSA or with 1, 10, and 100 ng/ml per 10^6 cells 2.4G2.

Anaphylaxis

Anaphylactic reactions were induced and measured as before (Dombrowicz et al., 1997) except that hIgE-induced systemic anaphylaxis was achieved by 3 iv injections of 50 μ g of anti-NIP hIgE in 200 μ l of PBS at 12 hr intervals followed 4 hr later by an iv challenge with 1 mg of NIP-BSA in 200 μ l of PBS.

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