Abstract

Previously, we have shown that systemically administered radiolabeled interleukin 1α (IL-1α) accumulates preferentially in inflammatory foci in mice. Since inflammation is characterized by influx of leukocytes, which represent IL-1 receptor (IL-1R) positive cells, radiolabeled IL-1 may specifically localize in inflammation by binding to its receptors on infiltrated leukocytes. This hypothesis was tested in a series of studies in mice with acute focal inflammations. Evidence for specific IL-1-IL-1R interaction in induced inflammation was found: microscopic autoradiography revealed that 125I-IL-1α localized at the site of inflammatory cells with time; 125I-myoglobin, a similar-sized protein with no known interactions in vivo, was not retained in the inflammation. Furthermore, the uptake 125I-IL-1α in inflammatory tissue was significantly lower in neutropenic mice than in immunocompetent mice (0.05±0.004 vs. 0.65±0.06% ID/g at 48 h after injection, P < 0.0007). Moreover, the uptake 125I-IL-1α at the inflammatory site could be blocked with the anti-IL-1R type II antibody 4E2. At 48 h after injection, the uptake with and without blocking the type II IL-1R was 0.13±0.01 and 0.65±0.05% ID/g, respectively (P < 0.0001). These in vivo studies provide evidence that systemically administered radiolabeled IL-1α localizes in inflammatory tissue by specific receptor binding, predominantly by binding to the type II IL-1R. (J. Clin. Invest. 1997. 100:2970-2976.)

Key words: leukocytic infiltration • mice • microscopic autoradiography • neutropenia • receptor blockade

Introduction

IL-1 is a 17-kD protein, produced by monocytes as a response to endotoxin. Two forms of IL-1, IL-1α and IL-1β, have been discovered, binding to two types of receptors on a wide variety of cells. The type I IL-1 receptor (IL-1R), a 80-kD glycoprotein, is found on T cells, fibroblasts, hepatocytes, and endothelial cells, whereas B cells, macrophages, monocytes, and neutrophils express the 68-kD type II IL-1R (1). IL-1 binds to both receptors with affinity in the picomolar range (2).

Since infection and inflammation are characterized by influx of predominantly IL-1R positive leukocytes, systemically administered IL-1 may preferentially localize in inflammatory tissue by means of specific receptor binding. Recently, localization of radiolabeled IL-1α in Staphylococcus aureus–induced infections in mice was demonstrated (3). It cleared rapidly from noninflamed tissues.

Receptor binding of IL-1 to murine leukocytes has been well characterized both in vitro and ex vivo (2, 4, 5). However, in vivo in mice, receptor binding has not been demonstrated directly but only indirectly via inhibition of IL-1–induced biologic activity by blockade of type I IL-1Rs (6-10). In vivo binding to type II IL-1Rs could not be shown due to lack of effect of type II IL-1R blockade on biologic activity (10). The present paper describes a series of studies conducted to validate the hypothesis of specific receptor binding of IL-1α in inflammation in mice. Binding of systemically administered IL-1α to type I as well as type II IL-1Rs was investigated by antibody-blocking studies. Our studies demonstrate localization of IL-1α in inflammatory tissue by specific binding to type II IL-1Rs on locally present infiltrated leukocytes.

Methods

Mice. Female Swiss mice weighing 20-25 g (Harlan Netherlands B.V., Zeist, The Netherlands) were kept in cages (5-15 mice per cage) and fed standard laboratory chow and water ad libitum.

Reagents. Human recombinant IL-1α (specific activity of 3 × 108 U/mg) was kindly provided by Dr. P. Lomedico (Hoffmann-La Roche, Nutley, NJ). Myoglobin was purchased from Sigma Chemical Co. (St. Louis, MO). The anti–IL-1R type I antibody (35F5) and the anti–IL-1R type II antibody (4E2) (both monoclonal rat IgG) were prepared at Hoffmann-LaRoche.

Radioiodination. IL-1α and IL-1β were radiolabeled using the iodo-gen method (11). In brief, for microscopic autoradiography studies, 10 μg IL-1α (0.68 mg/ml) in 10 μl 0.5 M and 80 μl 50 mM phosphate buffer, pH 7.2, and 111 MBq Na125I (Amersham International, Arlington Heights, IL) were added to glass tubes, precoated with 25 μl of 1,3,4,6-tetrachloro-3a,6a-diphenylglycouril (Pierce, Rockford, IL). For all other studies, 3 μg IL-1α (0.68 mg/ml) or 3 μg IL-1β (1 mg/ml) was labeled with 15-20 MBq Na125I. The reaction was allowed to proceed for 10 min at room temperature, after which the reaction mixture was eluted with 0.5% BSA in PBS on a Sephadex column (PD-10; Pharmacia, Uppsala, Sweden) to separate labeled IL-1α and IL-1β from free 125I. The void fractions were pooled and sterilized through a 0.2-μm filter.

Analogously, 10 μg myoglobin (1 mg/ml), a protein with a molecular mass (18 kD) similar to IL-1α and IL-1β without any known interactions in vivo, was labeled with Na125I.

The labeling efficiency of IL-1α, IL-1β, and myoglobin was between 50 and 80%. For the microscopic autoradiography studies,
Systemically Administered IL-1α Localizes in Inflammation

Results

The uptake of 125I-IL-1α in inflammation in the course of time.

The blood clearance and uptake in inflammation of 125I-IL-1α and free 125I was determined in mice with S. aureus–induced inflammation at various time points (n = 5 for each preparation per time point) after intravenous injection of 0.4 MBq 120 μg of 125I-IL-1α or 0.4 MBq of free 125I. Despite rapid clearance from the blood, 125I-IL-1α accumulated in the inflammation, reaching maximum values of uptake within 2 h after injection. 125I-IL-1α was retained in the inflammatory tissue up to 48 h after injection (0.8% ID/g). In contrast, 125I-IL-1α levels in the blood continuously decreased to a level < 0.05% ID/g at 48 h after injection. 12 h after injection, the uptake of 125I-IL-1α in inflammation was significantly higher than the blood levels (P < 0.005). The retention of activity in inflammation with time was due to uptake of 125I-IL-1α and not of free 125I; free 125I rapidly cleared from the inflammation in a similar fashion as from the blood (Fig. 1 B). To be able to study the specific receptor-binding mechanism of 125I-IL-1 in inflammation, the following studies focused on the time span of 12–48 h after injection because of high background activity levels at early time points.

![Figure 1](image_url)

Figure 1. The blood clearance (open circles) and uptake in S. aureus–induced inflammation (closed circles) of 125I-IL-1α (A) and free 125I (B) at various time points after injection (p.i.). The results are expressed as percentages of injected radioactivity per gram of tissue (% ID/g). The error bars indicate SEM. The blood levels of both 125I-IL-1α and free 125I determined at 3 min after injection, 6.6 ± 0.2 and 8.8 ± 0.3% ID/g, respectively, were left out of the figure for clarity.
Comparison of uptake of $^{125}$I-IL-1$\alpha$ and $^{125}$I-IL-1$\beta$ in inflammation. The biodistribution of both $^{125}$I-IL-1$\alpha$ and $^{125}$I-IL-1$\beta$ was determined in mice with S. aureus-induced inflammation at various time points ($n = 5$ for each radiolabeled preparation per time point) after intravenous injection of 0.4 MBq 120 ng of the radiolabeled preparation. The uptake of $^{125}$I-IL-1$\alpha$ in inflammation was higher than of $^{125}$I-IL-1$\beta$ (Fig. 2). At 48 h after injection, 0.76±0.11 % ID/g of $^{125}$I-IL-1$\alpha$ was still found in the inflammation, while levels of $^{125}$I-IL-1$\beta$ decreased to 0.15±0.01 % ID/g at 48 h after injection. From 12 h after injection onwards the uptake of $^{125}$I-IL-1$\alpha$ at the site of inflammation was significantly higher than of $^{125}$I-IL-1$\beta$ ($P < 0.05$). Due to the significantly higher uptake of $^{125}$I-IL-1$\alpha$ in inflammation as compared with $^{125}$I-IL-1$\beta$, further studies exploring the receptor-binding mechanism at the inflammatory site were performed with IL-1$\alpha$.

Microscopic autoradiography. Microscopic autoradiography was applied to study whether systemically administered radiolabeled IL-1$\alpha$ localizes at the site of infiltrated leukocytes in induced inflammation in mice. As early as 2 h after injection, uptake of $^{125}$I-IL-1$\alpha$ in the inflammation was observed. At this time point, most of $^{125}$I-IL-1$\alpha$, found in areas of cellular infiltration, was localized around the blood vessels. The radiolabel was also found in the unaffected muscular tissue. With time, $^{125}$I-IL-1$\alpha$ was retained within the cellular infiltration, while the uptake in the unaffected muscle tissue decreased. After 24 h, nearly all $^{125}$I-IL-1$\alpha$ was clearly associated with the site of inflammatory cells, as demonstrated in Fig. 3, A and B. In contrast, no specific retention of $^{125}$I-IL-1$\alpha$ was found in the contralateral muscle (Fig. 3 C). The size-matched control protein $^{125}$I-myoglobin did not localize at the site of the inflammatory cells (Fig. 3 D).

The above observations were analyzed quantitatively. The results are shown in Fig. 4. As early as 2 h after injection, most $^{125}$I-IL-1$\alpha$ was found in the area of the cellular infiltration at 2 h after injection. The number of grains in the contralateral muscle and in areas of unaffected muscular tissue in the inflammation decreased during the time course of the experiment. Thus, with time, $^{125}$I-IL-1$\alpha$ migrated from the unaffected muscle tissue to the inflammatory cells within the inflammation. After 24 h, nearly all grains in the infection were found in the area of cellular infiltration. At all time points, the number of grains in the cellular infiltration was significantly higher than the number of grains in the adjacent unaffected muscle and the contralateral muscle ($P < 0.0001$). Furthermore, the uptake of $^{125}$I-IL-1$\alpha$ in the area of the cellular inflammation was significantly higher than of $^{125}$I-myoglobin at 24 h after injection ($P < 0.0001$).

Comparison of biodistribution of $^{125}$I-IL-1$\alpha$ in immunocompetent and neutropic mice. To study whether the presence of cellular infiltration is crucial to localization of radiolabeled IL-1$\alpha$ in inflammation, effects of neutropenia were investigated and compared with observations in immunocompetent mice. Zymosan, instead of S. aureus, was used for induction of inflammation in these studies to prevent mortality due to sepsis in neutropic mice. Histology demonstrated that the massive infiltration of leukocytes, predominantly PMNs, as observed in immunocompetent mice was absent in neutropic mice (data not shown). The biodistribution of $^{125}$I-IL-1$\alpha$ in immunocompetent ($n = 25$) and neutropic mice ($n = 25$), determined at various times after intravenous injection of 0.4 MBq 120 ng of the radiolabeled preparation, was similar (Table I). $^{125}$I-IL-1$\alpha$ rapidly cleared from most organs. However, one major difference was observed: $^{125}$I-IL-1$\alpha$ was retained at the site of inflammation in immunocompetent mice, while virtually no retention of $^{125}$I-IL-1$\alpha$ in the inflammation was found in neutropic mice (Fig. 5). At all time points, the uptake of $^{125}$I-IL-1$\alpha$ at the site of inflammation was significantly higher in immunocompetent mice than in neutropic mice ($P < 0.001$). Maximum differences were obtained at 48 h after injection; the uptake of $^{125}$I-IL-1$\alpha$ in inflammation was > 12 times higher in immunocompetent mice compared with neutropic mice, 0.65±0.06 and 0.05±0.004 % ID/g, respectively.

Effect of in vivo blockade of IL-1Rs on localization of $^{125}$I-IL-1$\alpha$ in inflammation. To elucidate whether type I and/or type II IL-1R is/are involved in entrapment of radiolabeled IL-1$\alpha$ in inflammation, groups of five mice with S. aureus-induced inflammations were injected intravenously with 200 µg anti–type I IL-1R antibody 35F5, 200 µg anti–type II IL-1R antibody 4E2, or a mixture of both antibodies (200 µg of each antibody) in 100 µl sterile saline at 6 h and 5 min before intravenous injection of 0.4 MBq 120 ng $^{125}$I-IL-1$\alpha$. Control mice ($n = 5$) were injected intravenously with 100 µl sterile saline before injection of $^{125}$I-IL-1$\alpha$. As depicted in Fig. 6, mice with type I IL-1R blockade displayed significantly higher uptake of $^{125}$I-IL-1$\alpha$ in the inflammation than the control group, i.e., 2.26±0.12 vs. 0.65±0.05 % ID/g at 48 h after injection ($P < 0.0001$). In contrast, the uptake of $^{125}$I-IL-1$\alpha$ at the site of inflammation in mice with blockade of type II IL-1Rs (0.13±0.009) was significantly lower than the value obtained in control mice ($P < 0.0001$). A similar low uptake of 0.14±0.009 % ID/g in inflammation was found in mice with both type I and type II IL-1R blockade. The $^{125}$I-IL-1$\alpha$ levels in the blood and all other organs were similar for all studied groups (data not shown).

**Discussion**

This study confirms the hypothesis that systemically administered radiolabeled IL-1$\alpha$ localizes in acute inflammatory foci by specific receptor binding. As demonstrated by microscopic autoradiography, IL-1$\alpha$ localized within the inflammation at the site of the infiltrated leukocytes, which were predomi-
nant PMNs. The studies with neutropenic mice corroborated these findings, since low uptake of IL-1α in inflammation was found in the absence of cellular infiltration. Moreover, the IL-1 receptor blockade studies showed that the retention of IL-1α in inflammatory tissue was inhibited by blockade of type II IL-1Rs.

The binding of human recombinant IL-1 to murine leukocytes, predominantly PMNs, has also been described by Parker et al. (4). In their studies in mice, PMNs were removed from peritoneal exudate to test the binding of radiolabeled IL-1 to these cells ex vivo. Our results show binding of systemically administered radiolabeled IL-1 to murine infiltrated leukocytes in acute inflammation in vivo. The receptor binding capacity of IL-1 after radiolabeling was tested in vitro on murine thymoma cells. The affinity was as high as reported in earlier studies (2, 5). It was not possible to isolate leukocytes from the inflammatory tissue in mice to test the binding to these cells ex vivo. Therefore, microscopic autoradiography was used to visualize the localization of 125I-IL-1α in the cellular infiltration of inflammatory tissue. This method has also been used by others to identify IL-1 receptors in various noninflamed murine tissues (14, 15). To exclude nonspecific accumulation in inflammatory foci by locally increased vascular permeability (16–18), inflammatory tissue of mice injected with the control agent 125I-myoglobin was also subjected to microscopic autoradiography, showing no localization in the cellular infiltration. This indicates that IL-1α is retained in inflammatory foci by specific binding to its receptors.

For most of our studies, S. aureus–induced focal infections were used. These infections are characterized by massive inflammatory cell infiltration. Mice with a focal S. aureus infection do not show general signs of illness. However, neutropenic mice with such infections become severely ill and die within 1–3 d, most likely due to sepsis. To allow comparison of uptake of radiolabeled IL-1α in inflammation in neutropenic and immunocompetent mice, the sterile zymosan model was chosen, which in immunocompetent mice induces a massive focal infiltration of PMNs and monocytes (19, 20). Neutropenic mice with zymosan-induced inflammations did not show any signs of illness. No cellular infiltration was found in the induced inflammations of these mice. Despite similar biodistribution in both groups of mice, the uptake of 125I-IL-1α at the site of inflammation was significantly higher in immunocompetent mice, again stressing the fact that radiolabeled IL-1α accu-
mulates in inflammatory tissue by means of binding to its receptors on infiltrated leukocytes.

The IL-1R blockade studies showed that the binding of radiolabeled IL-1α to infiltrated leukocytes was mainly due to binding to type II IL-1Rs. The inflammation uptake of IL-1α was significantly lower in case of blockade of type II IL-1Rs. Surprisingly, increased uptake of radiolabeled IL-1α in the inflammation was found when type I IL-1Rs were blocked. Blockade of type I IL-1Rs, expressed on a wide range of cells in the body, may have increased levels of free IL-1α, available for binding to type II IL-1Rs, expressed on infiltrated neutrophils and monocytes in the inflammation. When both type I and type II IL-1Rs were blocked, inflammation uptake of IL-1α was as low as that found with type II IL-1R blockade only. This indicates that the increased uptake of IL-1α in inflammatory tissue (obtained by blockade of type I IL-1Rs) could be completely inhibited by blockade of type II IL-1Rs. Therefore, aspecific increased uptake of IL-1α in inflammation in case of type I IL-1R blockade could be ruled out. Binding to soluble type II IL-1Rs, increased during various inflammatory conditions (21–23), could also be excluded since the used anti-type II antibody 4E2 also binds and neutralizes these receptors.

Although blockade of binding of radiolabeled IL-1α to type II IL-1Rs with the antibody 4E2 has been demonstrated in vitro on cell lines (24), in vivo, blockade of type II IL-1Rs did not affect particular studied biologic effects of IL-1α (7, 10). Since it is now generally accepted that the type II IL-1R acts as a decoy receptor for IL-1 (25–28), no direct effects of type II IL-1R blockade on IL-1 induced biologic activity are to be expected. Indirectly, type II IL-1R blockade may enhance

![Figure 4](image1.png)

**Figure 4.** The quantitative analysis of microscopic autoradiography of inflammation (infiltration, open bars, and adjacent muscle, heavily striped bars) and contralateral muscle (striped bars) sections of mice injected with either $^{125}$I-IL-1α or $^{125}$I-myoglobin (at 24 h after injection only), expressed as mean number of grains per field ±SEM.

![Figure 5](image2.png)

**Figure 5.** The uptake of $^{125}$I-IL-1α in zymosan-induced inflammation in neutropenic and immunocompetent mice at 24 (striped bars) and 48 h (open bars) after injection. The results are expressed as percentages of injected radioactivity dose per gram of tissue (% ID/g). The error bars indicate SEM.

### Table 1. Biodistribution of $^{125}$I-IL-1α in Neutropenic and Immunocompetent Mice with Zymosan-induced Inflammation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organ</th>
<th>Neutropenia</th>
<th>2 h.p.i.*</th>
<th>6 h.p.i.</th>
<th>12 h.p.i.</th>
<th>24 h.p.i.</th>
<th>48 h.p.i.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Blood</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>4.79±0.19</td>
<td>2.12±0.12</td>
<td>0.52±0.12</td>
<td>0.18±0.01</td>
<td>0.04±0.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>−</td>
<td>4.10±0.33</td>
<td>1.49±0.13</td>
<td>0.28±0.009</td>
<td>0.13±0.01</td>
<td>0.08±0.009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inflammation</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>1.67±0.14</td>
<td>0.96±0.06</td>
<td>0.36±0.04</td>
<td>0.24±0.06</td>
<td>0.05±0.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>−</td>
<td>2.90±0.17</td>
<td>2.20±0.05</td>
<td>1.33±0.14</td>
<td>0.96±0.02</td>
<td>0.65±0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muscle</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>0.77±0.04</td>
<td>0.36±0.04</td>
<td>0.08±0.02</td>
<td>0.04±0.006</td>
<td>0.01±0.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>−</td>
<td>1.18±0.40</td>
<td>0.25±0.02</td>
<td>0.08±0.004</td>
<td>0.04±0.002</td>
<td>0.02±0.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thymus</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>2.35±0.28</td>
<td>1.46±0.23</td>
<td>0.35±0.10</td>
<td>0.14±0.01</td>
<td>0.07±0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>−</td>
<td>1.38±0.22</td>
<td>0.85±0.21</td>
<td>0.24±0.03</td>
<td>0.12±0.02</td>
<td>0.06±0.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lung</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>3.89±0.23</td>
<td>1.86±0.06</td>
<td>0.49±0.14</td>
<td>0.18±0.01</td>
<td>0.06±0.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>−</td>
<td>5.32±0.70</td>
<td>1.43±0.02</td>
<td>0.31±0.02</td>
<td>0.14±0.006</td>
<td>0.11±0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spleen</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>4.70±0.25</td>
<td>1.44±0.10</td>
<td>0.38±0.10</td>
<td>0.15±0.006</td>
<td>0.06±0.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>−</td>
<td>4.68±0.64</td>
<td>1.36±0.11</td>
<td>0.35±0.05</td>
<td>0.14±0.03</td>
<td>0.07±0.009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liver</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>4.67±0.25</td>
<td>1.26±0.06</td>
<td>0.38±0.06</td>
<td>0.19±0.02</td>
<td>0.10±0.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>−</td>
<td>3.26±0.28</td>
<td>0.91±0.10</td>
<td>0.32±0.01</td>
<td>0.19±0.01</td>
<td>0.16±0.009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kidney</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>5.27±0.26</td>
<td>1.79±0.09</td>
<td>0.58±0.10</td>
<td>0.27±0.01</td>
<td>0.16±0.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>−</td>
<td>4.67±0.45</td>
<td>1.25±0.14</td>
<td>0.41±0.02</td>
<td>0.26±0.006</td>
<td>0.18±0.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*All values are expressed as percentage of injected dose per gram of tissue. p.i., postinjection.
the models of inflammation studied, these observations may reflect the fact that these areas form the minority of the total inflammation. Despite the latter, the uptake in areas of cellular infiltration increased total amount of radiolabeled IL-1α in the inflammation, resulting in a decrease of IL-1α-degraded IL-1α is cleared from the tissue, resulting in a decrease of IL-1α.

Some IL-1α molecules will bind easily accessible receptors on infiltrated leukocytes during the next 24—48 h. In the meantime, most of the unbound and/or undegraded IL-1α is cleared from the tissue, resulting in a decreasing total amount of radiolabeled IL-1α in the inflammation.

After 24 h, radiolabeled IL-1α, retained in the inflammation, could almost only be found in areas of cellular infiltration. In the meantime, most of the unbound and/or degraded IL-1α is cleared from the tissue, resulting in a decreasing total amount of radiolabeled IL-1α in the inflammation.

Although the total amount of radiolabeled IL-1α in the inflammation decreased with time, retention was still found at 48 h after injection. Most likely, as demonstrated by the microscopic autoradiography results, IL-1α accumulates in inflammatory tissue shortly after injection and migrates toward the binding sites on infiltrated leukocytes during the next 24—48 h. Some IL-1α molecules will bind easily accessible receptors early after injection and others reach binding sites several hours thereafter. After 24 h, radiolabeled IL-1α, retained in the inflammation, could almost only be found in areas of cellular infiltration. In the meantime, most of the unbound and/or degraded IL-1α is cleared from the tissue, resulting in a decreasing total amount of radiolabeled IL-1α in the inflammation.

Despite the latter, the uptake in areas of cellular infiltration even increased with time, which could be explained by the fact that these areas form the minority of the total inflammation. Since IL-1α seemed to bind mainly to type II IL-1Rs in the models of inflammation studied, these observations may be conflicting with data suggesting poor internalization of receptor-bound IL-1 (31) and a fast turnover of the receptor (2 h) (32). However, these characteristics were observed in vitro using the Raji human B lymphoma cell line. In vivo, IL-1 binding to type II receptors on activated leukocytes in inflammatory tissue may be different.

This study supports first indications that systematically administered radiolabeled IL-1α localizes in inflammation by specific receptor binding. The type II IL-1R appeared to be the predominant binding site in acute inflammation models. Actual binding of IL-1α to type II IL-1R in inflammatory tissue could be demonstrated. Future studies will focus on the in vivo behavior of IL-1α and the correlation with IL-1R expression in various other inflammation models.

Acknowledgments
The authors thank C. Diepenbroek and L. Schalkwijk (University of Nijmegen, Department of Pathology) for technical assistance in the microscopic autoradiography studies. P. Maat for determination of the leukocyte counts to establish neutropenia (University of Nijmegen, Department of Hematology), and G. Grutters, H. Eijkhoff, and Y. Brum (University of Nijmegen, Central Animal Laboratory) for technical assistance in all the studies with mice.

References


