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G α i2 and G α i3 Differentially Regulate Arrest from Flow and Chemotaxis in Mouse Neutrophils

Yoshihiro Kuwano,* Micha Adler,[†] Hong Zhang,* Alex Groisman,[†] and Klaus Ley*[‡]

Leukocyte recruitment to inflammation sites progresses in a multistep cascade. Chemokines regulate multiple steps of the cascade, including arrest, transmigration, and chemotaxis. The most important chemokine receptor in mouse neutrophils is CXCR2, which couples through G α i2- and G α i3-containing heterotrimeric G proteins. Neutrophils arrest in response to CXCR2 stimulation. This is defective in G α i2-deficient neutrophils. In this study, we show that G α i3-deficient neutrophils showed reduced transmigration but normal arrest in mice. We also tested G α i2- or G α i3-deficient neutrophils in a CXCL1 gradient generated by a microfluidic device. G α i3-, but not G α i2-, deficient neutrophils showed significantly reduced migration and directionality. This was confirmed in a model of sterile inflammation in vivo. G α i2-, but not G α i3-, deficient neutrophils showed decreased Ca²⁺ flux in response to CXCR2 stimulation. Conversely, G α i3-, but not G α i2-, deficient neutrophils exhibited reduced AKT phosphorylation upon CXCR2 stimulation. We conclude that G α i2 controls arrest and G α i3 controls transmigration and chemotaxis in response to chemokine stimulation of neutrophils. *The Journal of Immunology*, 2016, 196: 3828–3833.

Leukocyte recruitment to inflammation sites progresses in a multistep cascade, including capture, slow rolling, rolling, arrest, adhesion strengthening, transmigration, and chemotaxis (1–3). Those processes occur as a consequence of the interaction between leukocytes and endothelial cells and the stimulation of the leukocytes. Among various stimuli, including selectins (2, 4–9), chemokines are the best known and probably most significant activators of arrest, transmigration, and chemotaxis (2, 10, 11). The interaction of CXCL1 with its receptor CXCR2 on leukocytes induces neutrophil arrest (12, 13) and chemotaxis (14) in vitro and in vivo.

When rolling neutrophils encounter immobilized or soluble CXCL1, they rapidly arrest (15). Arrest is dependent on activation of the α _L β ₂ integrin LFA-1 (2, 5). When CXCL1 is injected into mice, the number of rolling neutrophils drops precipitously to almost zero, but rolling recovers within a few minutes (15). Conversely, the number of adherent neutrophils increases. For stable neutrophil adhesion, additional signaling steps are needed that depend on integrin outside-in signaling (16, 17), provided by both α _M β ₂ (Mac-1) and α _L β ₂ (LFA-1).

CXCR2 is a G α i-coupled receptor (18). The activation of CXCR2 causes the dissociation of the G α i subunit from β and γ subunits of the heterotrimeric G protein. This leads to the activation of subsequent downstream signaling pathways, including phospholipase C (PLC)- β and PI3K γ . The $\beta\gamma$ subunits released from G α i protein rapidly activate PLC β , and the activation of

PLC β elicits calcium mobilization and diacylglycerol production, leading to the activation of the Rap1 guanine nucleotide exchange factor CalDAG-GEFI (19–21). Rap1-GTP mediates rapid integrin activation via talin-1 and kindlin-3 (11, 22, 23). The $\beta\gamma$ subunits also activate PI3K γ (24). The interaction of the PI3K subunits p101 and p84 with G $\beta\gamma$ subunits induces phosphatidylinositol 3,4,5-trisphosphate production by p110 γ . This signaling pathway is required for chemotaxis. Neutrophils, macrophages, and T cells of mice that lack PI3K γ respond poorly to chemokines (21, 25, 26).

The G α i family consists of G α 0, G α i1, G α i2, and G α i3, which are blocked by pertussis toxin, and G α z, which is not (27). G α i2 and G α i3 are abundantly expressed in leukocytes, and G α i1 is expressed at low levels (15). Although G α i2 and G α i3 share ~85% protein sequence identity, the requirement for G α i2 and G α i3 is different among chemokine receptors and cells (28). G α i2 is required for transendothelial migration of B cells in response to CXCL12, CXCL13, and CCL19 (29). Thymocyte emigration is controlled by both G α i2 and G α i3 (28, 30, 31). In neutrophils, G α i2 is required for the arrest with CXCL1 (15). G α i2 signaling in lung cells is necessary for eosinophil recruitment in a model of allergic airway inflammation (32). These data may reflect each chemokine receptor's preferences for G α i subunits. However, CXCR2 can clearly couple to G α i2 and G α i3 (18, 33). It is not known whether the same CXCR2 molecules can associate with G α i2 and G α i3, or whether subsets of G α i2-coupled and G α i3-coupled CXCR2 exist in neutrophils. Because the roles of G α i subunits in downstream signaling have not been resolved, the functional consequences of chemokine receptors having a preference for G α i subunits are poorly understood.

In this study, we tested whether G α i subunits have preferential downstream signaling pathways and preferential functional consequences. We focused on arrest and chemotaxis of neutrophils of G α i2- or G α i3-deficient mice in vitro and in vivo.

Materials and Methods

Animals and cells

We used 8- to 12-wk-old *Gnai2*-deficient mice, *Gnai3*-deficient mice, and littermate control mice on the 129/Sv background (34). Mice were housed in a barrier facility under specific pathogen-free conditions. Mice were

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Abbreviations used in this article: PLC, phospholipase C; PMN, polymorphonuclear neutrophil.

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handled according to the guidelines set by the Department of Laboratory Animal Care at the La Jolla Institute for Allergy and Immunology, and all surgical procedures were done as per the guidelines in the protocol approved by the Animal Care Committee of the La Jolla Institute for Allergy and Immunology. Mouse bone marrow polymorphonuclear neutrophils (PMNs) were isolated from femurs and tibias. Marrow cells were flushed from the bones using HBSS (137 mM NaCl, 0.53 mM KCl, 0.033 mM Na_2HPO_4 , 0.4 mM NaHCO_3 , 0.044 mM KH_2PO_4 , and 2 mM HEPES [pH 7.4]) without Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} , and containing 0.1% BSA. Cells were centrifuged and, after hypotonic lysis of erythrocytes, mixed with Abs of a neutrophil negative selection kit (Stemcell Technologies, Vancouver, BC, Canada). After 30 min, the cells were washed with PBS and neutrophils were negatively selected with RoboSep (Stemcell Technologies). After an additional wash, PMNs were resuspended in HBSS.

Transwell migration assays

Transwell migration assays were performed as described previously with minor modification (35). PMN migration was assessed using Transwell filters (3- μm pores, Corning, Corning, NY) inserted in 24-well plates. The bottom chamber was filled with 0.7 ml RPMI 1640 containing different concentrations of recombinant mouse CXCL1 (PeproTech, Rocky Hill, NJ) (see *Results*), and the top chamber was filled with 10^5 neutrophils in 0.2 ml RPMI 1640. The plates were incubated at $37^\circ\text{C}/5\%$ CO_2 for 60 min. The number of migrated cells was counted using a hemocytometer.

Calcium flux in suspension assay

Calcium flux assays were performed as described previously (36). Isolated neutrophils were suspended at 5×10^6 cells/ml in RPMI 1640/5% FCS/5 mM HEPES (pH 7.4) and then incubated with $5 \mu\text{M}$ fluo-3 (Molecular Probes, Eugene, OR) in the presence of F-127 detergent (0.02%; Molecular Probes) in the dark at 37°C for 30 min with intermittent mixing every 5 min. The cells were washed twice with Ca^{2+} - and Mg^{2+} -free HBSS supplemented with 20 mM HEPES (pH 7.4) and then diluted to 5×10^6 cells/ml and kept at 4°C in the dark until used. Prior to analysis, the cells were aliquoted into FACS tubes, warmed to room temperature, and then analyzed by flow cytometry (FACSscan, Becton Dickinson, San Jose, CA) for 40 s to establish a baseline reading. Chemokines were then added and the samples analyzed continuously for 3 min. The data were analyzed by averaging fluorescence per 20-s interval. Peak Ca^{2+} flux values were calculated by subtracting baseline readings.

Immunoblotting

Immunoprecipitations and immunoblotting were performed as described previously (37). Cells were lysed in a buffer containing 1% Nonidet P-40, 150 mM NaCl, 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 1 mM sodium orthovanadate, 2 mM EDTA, 50 mM NaF, and protease inhibitors (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO). Cell lysates were subjected to SDS-PAGE and transferred onto nitrocellulose membranes for immunoblotting. The membranes were then incubated with anti-phospho-AKT Abs (Cell Signaling Technology, Danvers, MA), followed by incubation with HRP-conjugated anti-rabbit IgG Abs (Jackson ImmunoResearch Laboratories, West Grove, PA). The blots were developed using GE Healthcare's ECL system. They were stripped and reprobed with anti-AKT Abs (Cell Signaling Technology) to verify equivalent amounts of protein in each lane. Band intensity was quantified using ImageJ (National Institutes of Health).

Gradient maker assay

The microfluidic gradient maker was made and assembled as previously described (38). Gradient maker devices were coated with mouse recombinant ICAM-1-Fc (R&D Systems, Minneapolis, MN) (20 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$) for 20 min and blocked with 1% casein in PBS (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Rockford, IL) for 20 min. Bone marrow neutrophils were then loaded into the gradient maker. After 10 min, CXCL1 gradients were established (concentration 62.5–0.24 nM; exponential). Cell migrations were recorded for 40 min using a digital camera (Sensicam QE; Cooke Corporation, Kelheim, Germany).

Intravital microscopy

Mice were anesthetized with an i.p. injection of 125 mg/kg ketamine hydrochloride (Pfizer, New York, NY), 0.025 mg/kg atropine sulfate (American Regent, Shirley, NY), and 12.5 mg/kg xylazine (TranquiVed; Phoenix Scientific, St. Joseph, MO) and placed on a heating pad. The cremaster muscle was prepared as previously described (39). Microinjections of CXCL1 were performed as previously described (40). Cell migration was recorded using an intravital microscope (Axioskop, Carl Zeiss) through the lens of a digital camera (Sensicam QE).

Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed with Prism and included one-way ANOVA and a *t* test where appropriate. All data are presented as means \pm SEM. A *p* value <0.05 was considered significant.

Results

Gai3 is important for transmigration to CXCL1

To examine whether *Gai2* and *Gai3* are necessary for leukocyte transmigration, *Gai2*- and *Gai3*-deficient neutrophils were tested in transwell migration assays. In transmigration to 0.5, 5, or 50 nM CXCL1, *Gai2*-deficient neutrophils did not show any difference compared with wild-type neutrophils (Fig. 1A). In contrast, *Gai3*-deficient neutrophils showed significantly decreased migration (Fig. 1A). To test whether transmigration was chemotactic, we performed a checkerboard assay (Fig. 1B). The chemotaxis of *Gai3*-deficient neutrophils was reduced by almost 50% ($p < 0.01$ compared with wild-type), whereas random migration did not show significant differences between *Gai3*-deficient neutrophils and wild-type neutrophils.

Gai3 is dispensable for neutrophil arrest in vivo

To investigate the role of *Gai3* deficiency on neutrophil arrest, we examined rolling neutrophils in venules of the cremaster muscle using intravital microscopy. When the mouse cremaster muscle is exteriorized, neutrophils roll along the endothelium of venules mediated by P-selectin (39). As expected, injection of CXCL1 evoked an immediate drop in rolling (Fig. 2A) and immediate arrest of wild-type neutrophils (Fig. 2B). There was no significant difference between *Gai3*-deficient and wild-type neutrophils in rolling or arrest (Fig. 2).

Gai3 is required for chemotactic directionality

Because the transwell assay suggested a defect in chemotaxis, we tested migration of *Gai3*-deficient neutrophils in an array that allows single-cell assessment of migration and directionality. We

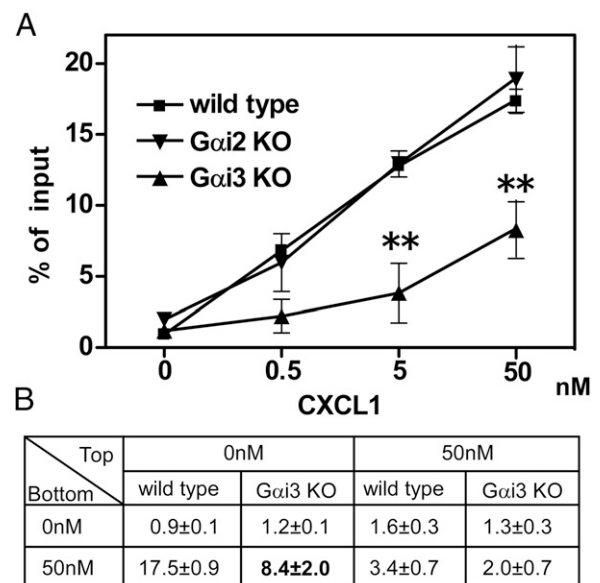


FIGURE 1. Role of *Gai2* and *Gai3* in transmigration. **(A)** Transmigration of *Gai2*-deficient or *Gai3*-deficient neutrophils in response to CXCL1 was measured by transwell migration assays. CXCL1 was added to the lower chamber only. Data are presented as means \pm SEM. $**p < 0.01$. **(B)** Checkerboard transwell migration assays of neutrophil chemotaxis to CXCL1. Bold indicates significant difference ($p < 0.05$) from wild-type. Data are representative of at least three independent experiments.

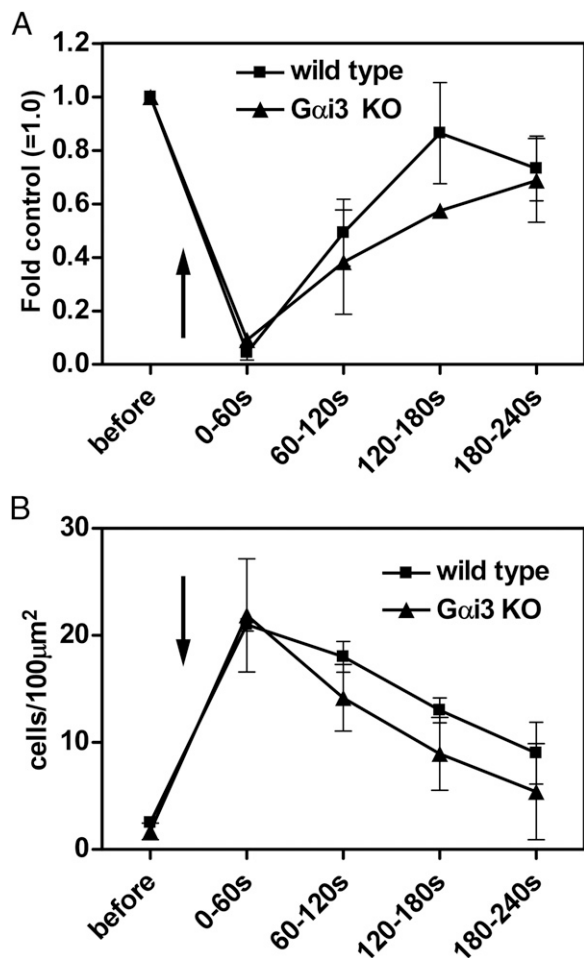


FIGURE 2. Rolling flux and neutrophil arrest analyzed by intravital microscopy. CXCL1 (600 ng) was injected and (A) rolling flux and (B) number of adherent cells were measured by intravital microscopy in cremaster venules. Arrow indicates injection of CXCL1. Data are presented as mean \pm SEM. Data are representative of at least three independent experiments.

adapted the microfluidic gradient maker device originally developed for HL-60 cells (38). For neutrophils, we coated the glass surface with ICAM-1 and blocked with casein. After the neutrophils were loaded and attached to the ICAM-1-coated glass surface in the gradient maker, they were exposed to an exponential CXCL1 gradient and migration was observed by CCD camera for 40 min (Fig. 3A, 3B). Gαi2- or Gαi3-deficient neutrophils attached to the ICAM-1 polarized and spread normally. Path length and tortuosity by wild-type, Gαi2-deficient, and Gαi3-deficient neutrophils were then measured (Fig. 3C). Although Gαi2-deficient neutrophils did not show any defects compared with wild-type neutrophils, Gαi3-deficient neutrophils migrated a shorter way (Fig. 3D). The directionality of migration was eliminated in Gαi3-deficient neutrophils (chemotactic index was not significantly different from 0) (Fig. 3E). These data show that Gαi3 deficiency leads to a loss of chemotaxis and a decrease in migration.

Calcium signaling upon CXCL1 stimulation requires Gαi2 in neutrophils

Because Gαi2 deficiency inhibited arrest and Gαi3 deficiency abolished chemotaxis, respectively, we speculated that after CXCR2 stimulation, Gαi2 activation may induce PLCβ2/PLCβ3 activation and calcium flux. To investigate this hypothesis further,

we examined intracellular calcium concentration over time. Whereas Gαi3-deficient neutrophils did not show any difference compared with wild-type neutrophils, Gαi2-deficient neutrophils exhibited decreased upregulation of intracellular calcium concentration after CXCR2 stimulation (Fig. 4).

Decreased AKT phosphorylation in response to CXCL1 in Gαi3-deficient neutrophils

Chemotaxis is known to require PI3Kγ (21, 25, 26). To examine PI3Kγ activation, we investigated phosphorylation of AKT, a substrate of PI3Kγ (41), in response to CXCL1. After stimulation with CXCL1, neutrophils were lysed and AKT phosphorylation was detected with Western blotting using a phospho-AKT-specific Ab. AKT phosphorylation after CXCL1 showed a significant decrease in Gαi3-deficient neutrophils (Fig. 5). In contrast to Gαi3, AKT phosphorylation was increased in Gαi2-deficient neutrophils compared with wild-type neutrophils. The data suggest that Gαi3 is necessary for PI3K activation that leads to chemotaxis.

Reduced chemotaxis to CXCL1 in Gαi3-deficient neutrophils in vivo

To analyze the net effect of Gαi3 deficiency on neutrophil recruitment, we tested neutrophil accumulation in vivo. We harvested the bone marrow from LysM-GFP wild-type mice and Gαi3-deficient mice. Bone marrow cells were mixed at a ratio of 1:1 and injected into lethally irradiated wild-type mice. After reconstitution, the cremaster muscle in each of the mixed chimeric mice was exteriorized and CXCL1 was microinjected into the cremaster muscle. After 2 h, neutrophils migrated to the injection site and the number of migrated cells was counted. The numbers of GFP⁺ cells (Gαi3^{+/+}) and GFP⁻ cells (Gαi3^{-/-}) were then compared. Significantly fewer Gαi3-deficient neutrophils migrated compared with Gαi3 wild-type neutrophils (Fig. 6A). Because the arrest in response to CXCL1 was normal in Gαi3-deficient neutrophils in vivo (Fig. 1C, 1D), the data suggest that transendothelial migration and chemotaxis to CXCL1 are defective in Gαi3-deficient neutrophils, and that these defects lead to relevant accumulation defects in vivo.

Discussion

The present data demonstrate that Gαi2 and Gαi3 differentially regulate arrest and chemotaxis in response to CXCR2 in mouse neutrophils. The transmigration, chemotaxis, and AKT phosphorylation of Gαi3-deficient neutrophils were inhibited without defects in the arrest. Conversely, Gαi2-deficient neutrophils have a severe defect in arrest (15) and intracellular calcium mobilization without defects in transmigration and chemotaxis. Because the PLCβ signaling pathway is reflected by intracellular calcium, and PI3Kγ signaling is reflected by AKT phosphorylation (11, 21, 22, 25, 26), our data indicate that Gαi2 specifically regulates neutrophil arrest by PLCβ signaling and Gαi3 specifically regulates neutrophil chemotaxis by PI3Kγ signaling.

After dissociation, Gαi proteins inhibit adenylylase (42). Adenylylase is not highly active in resting neutrophils, so we think it is unlikely that inhibition of adenylylase would have major effects on migration, chemotaxis, and arrest. Rather, the free βγ heterodimers are thought to differentially activate PLCβ2 and PLCβ3 on the one hand and PI3Kγ on the other hand (43). It is known that βγ subunits are sufficient to mediate directional neutrophil chemotaxis (44). The specificity of βγ subunits for downstream effectors is an emerging field for investigation (45, 46). Because it is known that different βγ sub-

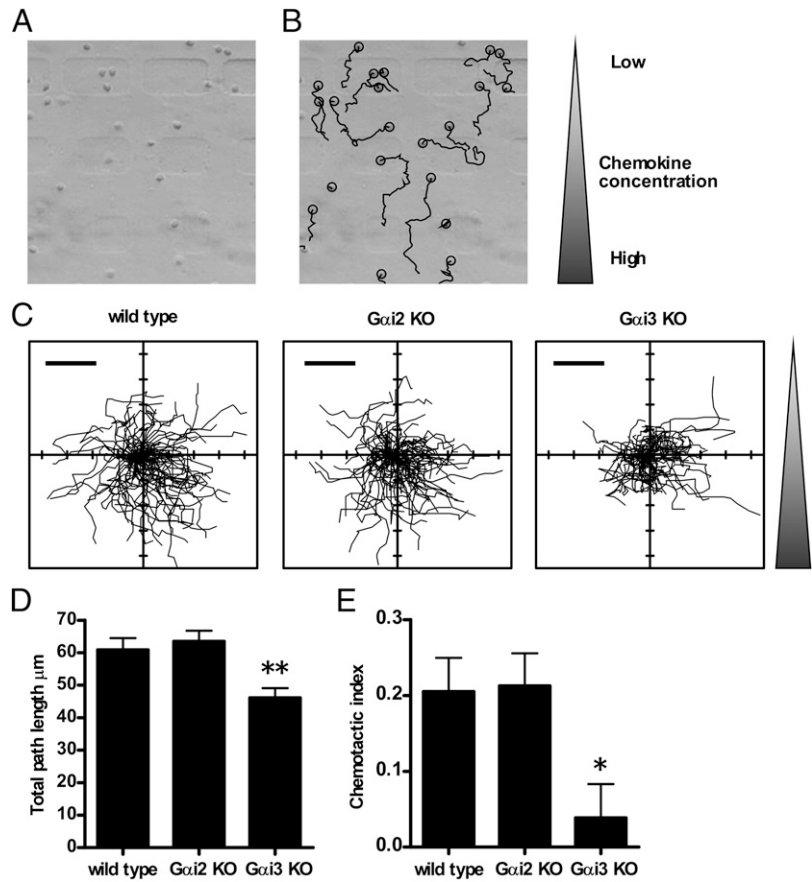


FIGURE 3. Neutrophil chemotaxis. **(A)** Neutrophils were injected into the gradient maker coated with ICAM-1 and **(B)** tracked (black lines) chemotaxis of the neutrophils was observed by CCD camera. Original magnification $\times 20$. **(C)** Migration paths of 80–110 wild-type, $G\alpha i2$ -deficient, or $G\alpha i3$ -deficient neutrophils in the gradient maker. Scale bars, 40 μm . **(D)** The total path length migrated by wild-type, $G\alpha i2$ -deficient, or $G\alpha i3$ -deficient neutrophils in the gradient maker during 40 min. **(E)** The chemotactic index (upgradient/total path length) of wild-type, $G\alpha i2$ -deficient, or $G\alpha i3$ -deficient neutrophils. Data are presented as means \pm SEM. Data are representative of at least three independent experiments. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$ from wild-type neutrophils.

units associate with $G\alpha i2$ and $G\alpha i3$ subunits, and the ability of effectors to be activated by $\beta\gamma$ subunits depends on the nature of the dimer, association with the different $\beta\gamma$ subunits might be a possible mechanism of the different roles between $G\alpha i2$ and $G\alpha i3$ subunits (42, 47–49). G protein-coupled receptors have other signaling pathways, including those initiated by β arrestin and by the various G protein-coupled receptor kinases. Indeed, β arrestin 2 is required for CXCR2-dependent arrest (50). However, it is not known whether β arrestin is bound to the same CXCR2 receptor that provides the $\beta\gamma$ for PLC β activation. Whereas the inhibition of adenylyl cyclase by $G\alpha i$ proteins does not seem to have major effects on migration, chemotaxis, and arrest, a role of adenylyl cyclase in the regulation of neutrophil arrest still cannot be ruled out. Calcium flux, which is $G\alpha i2$ -dependent, activates calcium-dependent soluble adenylyl cyclase, resulting in cAMP production, which can lead to activation of Rap1a (51). Rap1

can activate LFA-1, which is important for arrest (52). Clearly, much more work is needed to fully elucidate the signaling pathways downstream of G protein-coupled receptors that differentially regulate LFA-1 activation and arrest on the one hand and chemotaxis on the other hand. The present study provides support for the concept that different $G\alpha$ subunits have different effectors.

It has been reported that $G\alpha i2$ deficiency can inhibit transmigration in B lymphocytes (29). However, in neutrophils, $G\alpha i2$ did not show any effect in the transmigration assay. This cell context-dependent difference might be explained by the existence of neutrophil- or B cell-specific scaffold proteins for $G\alpha i2$ and downstream molecules. This is supported by the fact that scaffold proteins are important for the function of CXCR2 in neutrophils (53). Alternatively, there may be different expression levels of the $G\alpha i$ subunits among these cell types. Although $G\alpha i3$ was detected in lymphocytes, protein levels of

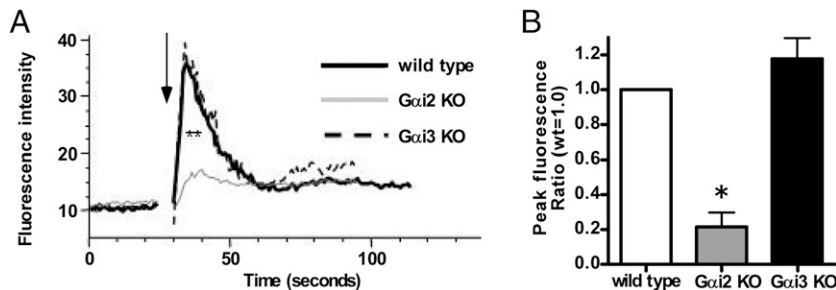


FIGURE 4. $G\alpha i2$ regulates intracellular Ca^{2+} in response to CXCL1. **(A)** Wild-type, $G\alpha i2$ -deficient, or $G\alpha i3$ -deficient neutrophils were loaded with the Ca^{2+} -sensitive dye fluo-3 and stimulated with CXCL1 (arrow). Fluorescence reflecting calcium flux was measured by flow cytometry and the signal was analyzed for 3 min. **(B)** Peak levels of intracellular Ca^{2+} flux were determined by flow cytometry. Each bar shows the peak fluorescence level of intracellular Ca^{2+} minus the baseline fluorescence. Data are representative of at least two independent experiments. * $p < 0.05$.

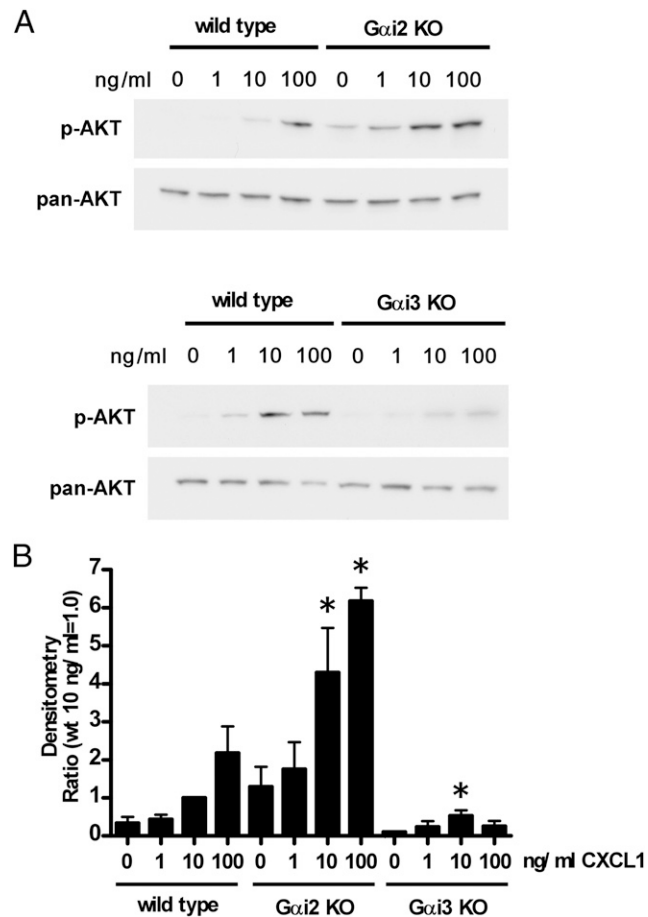


FIGURE 5. G α i3 regulates PI3K activation after CXCL1 stimulation in neutrophils. **(A)** G α i2- or G α i3-deficient neutrophils were stimulated with the indicated concentrations of CXCL1 and lysates were immunoblotted with an Ab to p-AKT. The membranes were stripped and immunoblotted with pan-AKT as a loading control. **(B)** The values in the bar graph represent means \pm SEM relative intensities as determined by densitometry (wild-type neutrophils with 10 ng/ml CXCL1 stimulation = 1). Data are representative of at least three independent experiments. * p < 0.05 from wild-type neutrophils.

G α i3 were not compared between lymphocytes and neutrophils (54). In B cells, p110 δ PI3K, rather than p110 γ PI3K, is more important for chemotaxis (55, 56). This difference could be

another possible reason for the difference of the G α i2 requirement in chemotaxis between B cells and neutrophils.

p-AKT levels are significantly increased in the G α i2-deficient mice (Fig. 5). A study by Thompson et al. (28) showed that G α i3-mediated blockade of G α i2 activation in lymphocytes was evoked by the competition or steric hindrance of G α i2 interaction with the CXCR3 receptor. Therefore, the increase of p-AKT in the G α i2-deficient neutrophils could be caused by the increased activation of G α i3 signaling by the loss of the blockade by G α i2 competition or steric hindrance. Additionally, because Wiege et al. (57) showed compensatory upregulation of G α i subunits or G β subunits in the absence of the other G α i protein in neutrophils, the compensatory upregulation might also be the cause of increased p-AKT. This suggests that G α i2 and G α i3 have different roles in chemokine signaling.

Whereas p-AKT was increased in the G α i2-deficient neutrophils compared with wild-type neutrophils (Fig. 5), transmigration and chemotaxis were not significantly increased (Figs. 1, 3). More activation of p-AKT than is necessary might show no significant results. Alternatively, the compensatory regulation by other molecules might mask a possible effect.

In earlier studies of thioglycollate peritonitis and LPS-induced lung inflammation, G α i2-deficient mice showed defective accumulation of neutrophils in vivo, presumably because of the arrest defect (15). Our new data suggest that whereas G α i2 and G α i3 subunits have different roles, both can play important roles in the neutrophil recruitment in vivo (Fig. 6B). Differential roles of different G α i subunits suggest that these molecules could be specifically targeted pharmacologically to achieve differential effects. It might be expected that differential inhibition of chemotaxis but not arrest would lead to accumulation of neutrophils on the vessel wall, adherent but unable to transmigrate. This would be expected to induce inflammation and thrombosis (58). Alternatively, selective blockade of chemotaxis may have better anti-inflammatory effects, for instance, after ischemia and reperfusion.

In conclusion, we demonstrate differential function of G α i2 and G α i3 in CXCR2-induced arrest and migration of neutrophils. G α i2 is required for PLC β activation, calcium flux, and LFA-1 activation (15), whereas G α i3 is required for transmigration and chemotaxis.

Disclosures

The authors have no financial conflicts of interest.

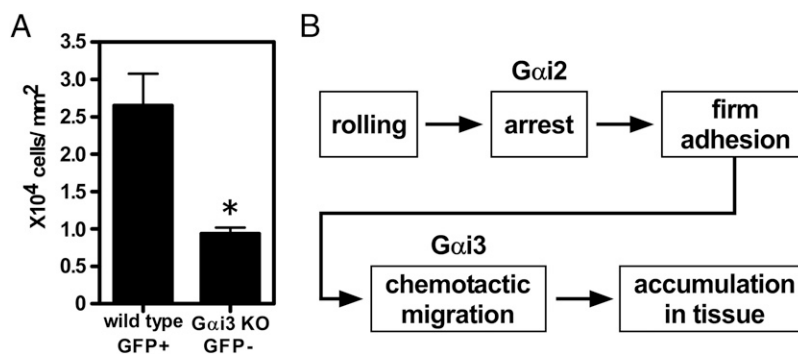


FIGURE 6. Defective migration of G α i3-deficient neutrophils in vivo. **(A)** The cremaster muscle of mice reconstituted with wild-type neutrophils (GFP⁺) and G α i3-deficient neutrophils (GFP⁻) was exteriorized. CXCL1 was injected into the cremaster muscle by micropipette. Two hours later, migrated neutrophils were observed. GFP images were recorded as grayscale by CCD camera and then digitally converted into green color. Number of migrated wild-type GFP⁺ and G α i3 KO GFP⁻ neutrophils were counted. Data are presented as means \pm SEM. Data are representative of at least two independent experiments. * p < 0.05. **(B)** In inflammation, neutrophils proceed from rolling to firm adhesion. This arrest process is G α i2-dependent. Adherent neutrophils show chemotactic migration, which we show to be G α i3-dependent. Hence, knocking out G α i2 or G α i3 leads to reduced neutrophil accumulation in the tissue.

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