

# Endogenous regulation of the acute inflammatory response

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## Abstract

The acute inflammatory response has been triggered in rat lungs by deposition of IgG immune complexes. The inflammatory reaction triggered is highly tissue damaging and requires activation of NF- $\kappa$ B with ensuing generation of chemokines and cytokines. Endogenous generation of IL-10 and IL-13 as well as secretory leukocyte protease inhibitor (SLPI), significantly regulates this inflammatory response. IL-10 and IL-13 attenuate NF- $\kappa$ B activation by interfering with breakdown of I $\kappa$ B $\alpha$ , while SLPI likewise suppresses NF- $\kappa$ B activation, but by interfering with breakdown of I $\kappa$ B $\beta$ . Antibody induced blockade of IL-10, IL-13 or SLPI enhances NF- $\kappa$ B activation in lung and exacerbates the lung inflammatory response and injury. These data indicate that endogenous IL-10, IL-13 and SLPI are important regulators of the inflammatory response by reducing gene activation with resultant generation of peptide mediators/cytokines and chemokines. (Mol Cell Biochem 234/235: 225–228, 2002)

*Key words:* NF- $\kappa$ B, inflammation, lung injury, neutrophils

## Introduction

The inflammatory response in lungs of rodents has been extensively studied and the pathways leading to critical production of inflammatory mediators elucidated. The intrapulmonary deposition of IgG immune complexes in rats induces an intense inflammatory response that is characterized by alveolar edema and hemorrhage and an intense accumulation of neutrophils [1]. Tissue injury is attributable to products of both neutrophils and lung macrophages and involving the generation of toxic oxygen products and release of proteases. These inflammatory reactions are known to be neutrophil and complement dependent and also require the participation of cytokines (IL-1, TNF $\alpha$ ) and chemokines (the CXC chemokines, MIP-2 and CINC and the CC chemokines, MIP-1 $\alpha$  and MIP-1 $\beta$ ) [1–6]. The pathways by which products of stimulated alveolar macrophages and alveolar epithelial cells activate vascular endothelial cells are shown in Fig. 1. TNF $\alpha$  generated by each type of cell can activate nearby vascular endothelial cells, causing upregulation of adhesion molecules (ICAM-1 and E-selectin), while other products (MIP-2) can cause chemoattraction of blood neutrophils into the interstitial and alveolar spaces. These inflammatory reactions are

tightly regulated. In fact, the influx of neutrophils and the vascular leak peak at 4 h and then promptly diminish. This review will discuss some of the endogenous mediators that regulate these acute inflammatory responses.

### *Regulation of activation of NF- $\kappa$ B and IL-10 and IL-13*

The dimeric (chiefly heterodimeric) complex of NF- $\kappa$ B is well-known to be important in bringing about gene activation and generation of the cytokines and chemokines mentioned above [7, 8]. NF- $\kappa$ B is located in the cytoplasm of a variety of cell types and is linked to the inhibitor, I $\kappa$ B, which prevents the translocation of NF- $\kappa$ B to the nucleus where it has access to DNA promoter sites. When I $\kappa$ B undergoes hydrolysis by the 26S proteasome, NF- $\kappa$ B is then free to translocate to the nucleus and initiate gene activation.

In the IgG immune complex model of acute lung injury, two waves of NF- $\kappa$ B activation occur, one at 0.5 h involving lung macrophages, and a second wave peaking at 4 h and involving other lung cell types [9, 10]. While it is well established that *in vitro* incubation of macrophages with TNF $\alpha$  or airway instillation of TNF $\alpha$  involves activation (nuclear

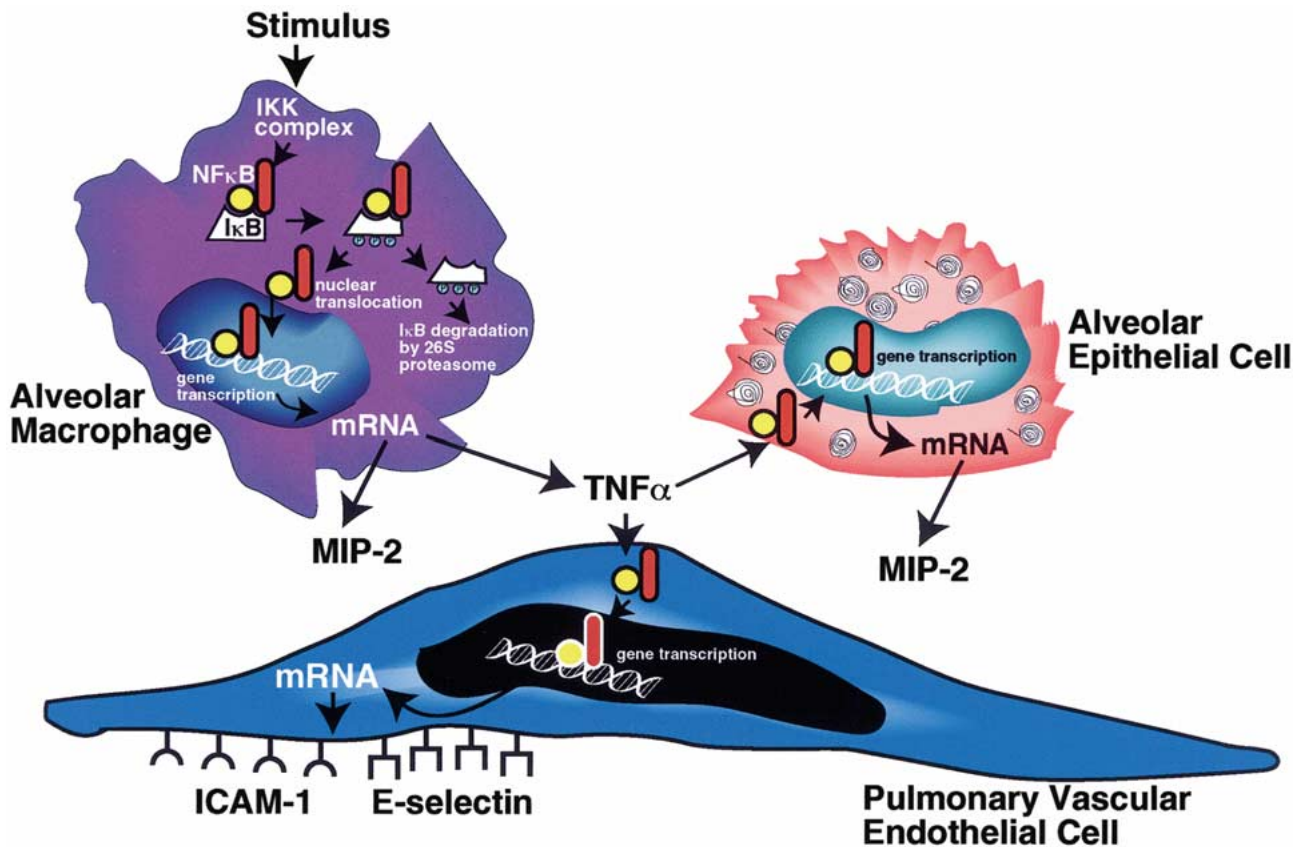


Fig. 1. Possible pathways by which products of activated alveolar macrophages and alveolar epithelial cells activate endothelial cells and cause neutrophil accumulation.

translocation) of NF- $\kappa$ B, we have found that IL-10 and IL-13, which are produced during the induction of lung injury as described above, induce powerful inhibition of NF- $\kappa$ B activation [9, 10]. The mechanism of this inhibition has been linked to the preservation of I $\kappa$ B $\alpha$ , which fails to undergo hydrolysis in the presence of either IL-10 or IL-13. Conversely, if either IL-10 or IL-13 is blocked *in vivo* by the airway instillation of antibody, NF- $\kappa$ B activation is intensified, and lung levels of mediators such as TNF $\alpha$  and MIP-2 are elevated above those found in otherwise unmanipulated lungs undergoing IgG immune complex damage [11, 12]. The precise mechanisms by which IL-10 and IL-13 are able to suppress hydrolysis of I $\kappa$ B $\alpha$  are under intense investigation. Both IL-10 and IL-13 have been shown to prevent the DNA-binding of NF- $\kappa$ B [13, 14]. In addition, IL-10 is thought to prevent I $\kappa$ B $\alpha$  degradation by suppressing activation of I $\kappa$ B kinase (IKK) activity [13]. Utilizing these mechanisms, endogenous production of IL-10 and IL-13 powerfully regulates the inflammatory process, preventing excessive tissue damage and providing a balance that allows lung repair after this intense inflammatory response.

#### *Role of secreted leukocyte protease inhibitor (SLPI) in lung inflammatory responses*

SLPI was originally identified as a serine protease inhibitor secreted by cervical epithelium, but it is now evident that this inhibitor can be produced in a variety of tissues and by a variety of cell types [15–20]. SLPI is a 12 kDa single chain protein containing two domains, one of which contains Leu<sup>72</sup> which is a critical binding site for susceptible serine proteases (chymotrypsin, elastase and trypsin) [21, 22].

When exogenous human recombinant SLPI is instilled into the airways of rats undergoing immune complex-induced injury, there is inhibition of the inflammatory response as defined by increases in the lung permeability index, in numbers of neutrophils recruited into lung, and by levels in bronchoalveolar (BAL) fluids of TNF $\alpha$ , MIP-2 and CINC [23]. This inhibition is dose-dependent on the amount of SLPI used. Most importantly, the presence of exogenous SLPI markedly reduces the level of NF- $\kappa$ B activation, whereas another endogenous protease inhibitor, tissue inhibitor of metalloproteases-2, has no protective effects [24]. In addi-

tion, these studies demonstrated that the exogenous addition of SLPI in amounts that are protective in the animal model employed fail to demonstrate any inhibition of p42/p44 isoforms of mitogen activate protein kinases (MAPK). In the inflammatory lung model employed, SLPI is endogenously produced and can be detected by Western blot analysis in BAL fluids [25]. Under these experimental conditions, immunostaining has revealed the induction of SLPI in alveolar epithelial cells, in lung macrophages and in vascular endothelial cells. Thus, in the activated lung, there appear to be many sources of SLPI. If antibody to SLPI is instilled into the airways of rats undergoing inflammatory injury, NF- $\kappa$ B activation is intensified, in concert with enhanced injury of lung [24, 25]. Thus, endogenous SLPI also appears to be an important natural regulator of the inflammatory response.

The mechanism by which SLPI impairs NF- $\kappa$ B activation in the lung is distinctly different from the manner by which IL-10 and IL-13 inhibit NF- $\kappa$ B activation. SLPI does not affect the breakdown of I $\kappa$ B $\alpha$  in these lung inflammatory reactions; rather, SLPI prevents by an unknown mechanism the breakdown of I $\kappa$ B $\beta$ , another important regulator of NF- $\kappa$ B activation [24]. As might be expected, TIMP-2 fails to show similar functionality.

The availability of mutant forms of human SLPI has provided additional structure-function information related to SLPI. The substitution of Leu<sup>72</sup> of SLPI with Gly or Phe attenuates the protective effects of SLPI in the lung injury model (as defined by the vascular permeability index or by BAL neutrophil numbers), while Lys<sup>72</sup> SLPI is at least as protective as Leu<sup>72</sup> SLPI (the wild-type form of SLPI) [26]. In parallel, Phe<sup>72</sup> SLPI suppresses NF- $\kappa$ B activation in lung, similar to wild-type SLPI. Precisely what serine protease in the inflamed lung is being inhibited by SLPI is unclear, and it is also uncertain if SLPI is interacting with an extracellular or intracellular serine protease. Another serine protease inhibitor (PI),  $\alpha_1$ PI, which is known to be abundantly present in both serum and in lung BAL fluids, does not when instilled into lungs similar to the use of SLPI lead to inhibition of NF- $\kappa$ B activation or protection from immune complex-induced acute lung injury. Why under these circumstances  $\alpha_1$ PI is not protective is unknown. It is possible that  $\alpha_1$ PI, which is considerably larger (53 kDa), may not have access to the intracellular compartment of cells, if this is indeed the manner by which SLPI is functional. These data indicate that SLPI is another important endogenous regulator of NF- $\kappa$ B activation during the acute inflammatory response.

In summary, regulation of the acute inflammatory response in lung occurs in part by increased endogenous production of IL-10, IL-13 and SLPI. Each of these mediators function as inhibitors of NF- $\kappa$ B activation. Thus, NF- $\kappa$ B appears to be critical for the induction of the acute inflammatory response in the lung and the expression of IL-10,

IL-13 and SLPI is necessary for intrinsic control of this response.

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