



Published in final edited form as:

Pediatr Res. 2017 December ; 82(6): 1064–1072. doi:10.1038/pr.2017.182.

Inhibition of $I\kappa B\beta$ / $NF\kappa B$ signaling prevents LPS-induced IL1 β expression without increasing apoptosis in the developing mouse lung

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Abstract

Background—The pro-inflammatory consequences of IL1 β expression contribute to the pathogenesis of BPD. Selectively targeting LPS-induced $I\kappa B\beta$ / $NF\kappa B$ signaling attenuates IL1 β mRNA expression in macrophages. Whether targeting $I\kappa B\beta$ / $NF\kappa B$ signaling affects anti-apoptotic gene expression, a known consequence of global LPS-induced $NF\kappa B$ inhibition, is unknown.

Methods—Macrophages (RAW 264.7, BMDM) were assessed for LPS-induced IL1 β mRNA/protein expression, anti-apoptotic gene expression, cell viability (trypan blue exclusion) and activation of apoptosis (caspase-3 and PARP cleavage) following pharmacologic and genetic attenuation of $I\kappa B\beta$ / $NF\kappa B$ signaling. Expression of IL1 β and anti-apoptotic genes were assessed in endotoxemic newborn mice (P0) with intact (WT), absent ($I\kappa B\beta$ KO) and attenuated ($I\kappa B\beta$ overexpressing) $I\kappa B\beta$ / $NF\kappa B$ signaling.

Results—In cultured macrophages, pharmacologic and genetic inhibition of LPS-induced $I\kappa B\beta$ / $NF\kappa B$ signaling significantly attenuated IL1 β mRNA and protein expression. Importantly, targeting $I\kappa B\beta$ / $NF\kappa B$ signaling did not attenuate LPS-induced expression of anti-apoptotic genes or result in cell death. In endotoxemic neonatal mice, targeting LPS-induced $I\kappa B\beta$ / $NF\kappa B$ signaling significantly attenuated pulmonary IL1 β expression without affecting anti-apoptotic gene expression.

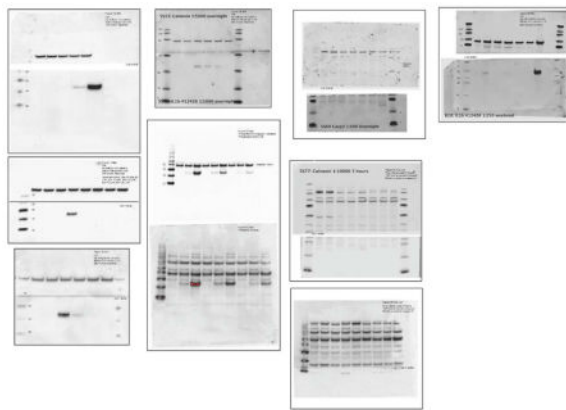
Conclusion—Targeting $I\kappa B\beta$ / $NF\kappa B$ signaling prevents LPS-induced IL1 β expression without inducing apoptosis in cultured macrophages and in the lungs of endotoxemic newborn mice. Inhibiting this pathway may prevent inflammatory injury without affecting the protective role of $NF\kappa B$ activity in the developing lung.

Graphical Abstract

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Disclosure Statement: The authors declare no relevant financial disclosures.



Introduction

Bronchopulmonary dysplasia (BPD) is a leading cause of mortality in extremely preterm infants that survive past one month of age, and is an independent risk factor for long-term neurodevelopmental impairment (1). Evidence of an active, pro-inflammatory innate immune response can be measured in the amniotic fluid, serum, and tracheal aspirates of infants that go on to develop BPD (2, 3). Similar to observations made in humans, inflammation is a central finding in every animal model of BPD (4–7). These clinical and laboratory findings support the hypothesis that inflammation is central to the pathogenesis of BPD.

Despite these associations, no safe and effective anti-inflammatory therapies are currently available to prevent BPD in at-risk infants. Understanding the mechanisms that link the innate immune response to neonatal lung injury is key to developing targeted anti-inflammatory therapies that minimize detrimental off-target effects. Multiple clinical and pre-clinical studies implicate the pro-inflammatory cytokine IL1 β in the pathogenesis of BPD (2, 3, 8–12). To date, interventions to attenuate the pro-inflammatory effects of IL1 β have targeted events downstream of increased gene expression. These include IL1 receptor antagonists, decoy IL1 receptors, and neutralizing IL1 antibodies (13). Pre-clinical studies demonstrate that IL1 receptor antagonists attenuate hyperoxia-induced lung injury in neonatal mice and rats (14–16). While promising, these therapies may have unintended consequences in the developing lung. With IL1 receptor blockade, the effects of both IL1 α and IL1 β are inhibited. Importantly, IL1 α is constitutively expressed in the developing lung, and is known to directly stimulate surfactant synthesis (17). Thus, inhibiting the activity of constitutively expressed IL1 α through IL1 receptor blockade may be uniquely detrimental in the neonatal period.

Inflammasome mediated post-translational processing is the penultimate step in IL1 β activity; however, NF κ B mediated transcription is the rate-limiting step of IL1 β release (13). Thus, targeting NF κ B activity could attenuate stimulus-induced IL1 β production and inflammatory-stress induced neonatal lung injury. However, NF κ B activity responsible for the expression of multiple proteins responsible for normal growth and development, as well as anti-apoptotic factors that prevent cell death following exposure to LPS (18, 19). This

finding likely explains the lack of an apoptotic response in the developing lung of sheep, rabbits and mice exposed to LPS (20–22). Therefore, it is not surprising that pre-clinical studies show that *complete NFκB inhibition* exacerbates neonatal lung injury induced by endotoxemia (20, 23). It remains unknown whether NFκB activity can be manipulated to attenuate the pro-inflammatory response and IL1β expression, while leaving protective anti-apoptotic signals intact.

Unique characteristics of the NFκB inhibitory proteins IκBα and IκBβ mediate inflammatory stress-induced IL1β expression. In quiescent cells, the NFκB inhibitory proteins IκBα and IκBβ sequester NFκB in the cytoplasm. Following exposure to LPS, these proteins are phosphorylated by IKK and degraded, allowing NFκB nuclear translocation. Following degradation, newly synthesized IκBα and IκBβ enter the nucleus. A nuclear export sequence found on IκBα allows it to remove DNA-bound NFκB complexes from the nucleus (24). In contrast, IκBβ lacks a nuclear export sequence, and remains in the nucleus to facilitate NFκB-DNA binding (25). Thus, the *unique nuclear activity of IκBβ dictates sustained expression of select target genes*, including IL1β (25, 26).

Recently, we have demonstrated that IκBβ/NFκB signaling can be pharmacologically targeted *in vitro*, while leaving IκBα/NFκB signaling intact (27–30). By preventing the nuclear activity of IκBβ, the sustained expression of key pro-inflammatory target genes (COX-2, ET-1, IL1β) is significantly reduced (27–30). In contrast, by allowing IκBα/NFκB signaling to proceed, the expression of key antioxidant (MnSOD) and anti-inflammatory (A20) target genes that are not dependent upon nuclear IκBβ activity is unimpaired (28). We undertook this study to determine whether IκBβ/NFκB signaling could be targeted to prevent the expression of IL1β without increasing apoptosis in macrophages and the newborn lung.

Material and Methods

Murine Model of Endotoxemia

Newborn (P0) ICR (WT) and IκBβ-overexpressing (AKBI) were exposed to 0–50 mg/kg LPS (IP) and survival was monitored to identify lethal and sublethal endotoxemia. Newborn ICR (WT; background strain of AKBI) and IκBβ-overexpressing (AKBI), and C57B6 (WT; background strain of KO) and IκBβ-knockout (KO) mice were exposed to sub-lethal endotoxemia [LPS (Sigma L2630); 5 mg/kg IP]. Both AKBI and IκBβ^{-/-} have normal litter sizes are phenotypically indistinct from their WT controls.(25, 31) Mice were sacrificed and normal saline was perfused through the right ventricle, and liver and lung samples were collected and processed as described below. All procedures were approved by the IACUC at the University of Colorado (Aurora, CO).

Cell Culture, LPS exposure and pharmacologic NFκB inhibition

RAW 264.7 murine macrophages (ATCC) were cultured according to the manufacturer's instructions. Cells were exposed to LPS (1 μg/ml, Sigma L6529). To pharmacologically

inhibit NF κ B activation, cells were exposed to Bay 11-7085 (0.5–20 μ M, Sigma) for 1 hour prior to LPS exposure.

WT (ICR and C57B6), AKBI, and KO Bone marrow-derived macrophages (BMDM) were cultured as previously described (Zhang 2008) and exposed to LPS (1 μ g/ml) for 1–24 hours.

Evaluation of Cell Death using trypan blue exclusion

Trypan blue exclusion was used to determine cell viability as previously described (32).

Whole Cell Lysate from cultured cells

Whole cell lysates were collected from cultured cells, and protein concentration determined as previously described (32).

Immunoblot Analysis

Lysates were electrophoresed on a 4–12% polyacrylamide gel (Invitrogen) and proteins were transferred to an Immobilon membrane (Millipore). Membranes were blotted with anti-IL1 β (Cell Signaling Technology #12426), anti-I κ B β (Santa Cruz Biotechnologies #9130), anti-PARP (Cell Signaling Technology #9542), anti-Caspase-3 (Cell Signaling Technology #9665) and anti-Calnexin (Enzo Life Sciences ADI-SPA-860). Densitometric analysis was performed using Image Studio (LiCor).

Analysis of relative mRNA levels by RT-qPCR

Pulmonary mRNA was collected using the RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer's instructions. RNA was assessed for purity and concentration using the NanoDrop (ThermoFisher Scientific), and cDNA synthesized using the Verso cDNA synthesis Kit (Thermo Scientific). Relative mRNA levels were evaluated by quantitative real-time PCR using the TaqMan gene expression system (Applied Biosystems). Gene expression of BCL2A1, BCL-XL, XIAP, BIRC3, PAI2, and IL1 β was assessed with predesigned exon-spanning primers (Mm03646861_mH, Mm00437783_m1, Mm01248390_m1, Mm01168413_m1, Mm00440905_m1, Mm01336189_m1) using the StepOnePlus Real Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems). Relative quantitation was performed via normalization to the endogenous control 18S using the cycle threshold (Ct) method.

Statistical Analysis

For comparison between treatment groups, the null hypothesis that no difference existed between treatment means was tested by Student's *t*-test for two groups and two-way ANOVA for multiple groups with potentially interacting variables (genotype, LPS exposure), with statistical significance between and within groups determined by means of Bonferroni method of multiple comparisons (InStat, GraphPad Software, Inc). Statistical significance was defined as $p < 0.05$.

Results

Inhibiting $\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\beta/\text{NF}\kappa\text{B}$ signaling attenuates LPS-induced IL1 β mRNA and protein expression

We have previously demonstrated that low doses of the IKK inhibitor BAY 11-7085 (1 micromolar) selectively targets $\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\beta/\text{NF}\kappa\text{B}$ signaling and attenuates the expression of select proinflammatory target genes (27–30). Extending that dose-response experiment, we determined that a minimum of BAY 11-7085 0.5 micromolar is necessary to significantly attenuate LPS-induced IL1 β mRNA expression in RAW 264.7 cells (Fig. 1A). Previous studies have demonstrated that RAW 264.7 cells do not secrete active IL1 β due to absent expression of the inflammasome component ASC (apoptosis-associated speck-like protein containing a C-terminal caspase-activating recruiting domain) (33). Despite this, LPS-exposed RAW 264.7 cells actively produce pro-IL1 β starting at 2 hours of exposure (Fig. 1B). Consistent with inhibition of LPS-induced IL1 β mRNA expression, we found that pretreatment with high dose BAY 11-7085 (10–20 micromolar) completely inhibited LPS-induced pro-IL1 β protein expression (Fig 1C). Additionally, significant dose-dependent inhibition of LPS-induced pro-IL-1 β expression could be achieved with low-dose BAY 11-7085 (.5–1 micromolar) (Fig. 1D and E). As pharmacologic agents may have unanticipated off target effects, we assessed LPS-induced IL1 β expression following transfection with siRNA targeting either $\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\alpha$ or $\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\beta$. Through this approach we reasoned that we could dissect the *nuclear roles* of $\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\alpha$ or $\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\beta$ in mediating IL1 β expression. Specifically, we hypothesized that silencing $\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\alpha$ expression would lead to ineffective termination of NF κB activity, thus increasing LPS-induced IL1 β expression (Fig. 1F). In contrast, silencing $\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\beta$ expression would attenuate sustained NF κB activity, thus decreasing LPS-induced IL1 β expression (Fig. 1F). Macrophages transfected with $\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\alpha$ siRNA demonstrated a 70% increase in LPS-induced IL1 β expression compared to controls. In contrast, macrophages transfected with $\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\beta$ siRNA demonstrated a 50% decrease in LPS-induced IL1 β expression compared to controls. Thus, targeting $\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\beta/\text{NF}\kappa\text{B}$ signaling attenuates LPS-induced IL1 β mRNA and protein expression.

LPS-induced IL1 β expression is attenuated in AKBI and $\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\beta^{-/-}$ macrophages

As RAW 264.7 murine macrophages are immortalized and may demonstrate unexpected aberrations in NF κB signaling, we sought to demonstrate a role of $\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\beta/\text{NF}\kappa\text{B}$ signaling in LPS-induced IL1 β expression in BMDM. First, we confirmed that similar to RAW 264.7 cells, low-dose BAY 11-7085 significantly inhibits LPS-induced pro-IL1 β expression in WT BMDM (Fig. 2A). To further validate a mechanistic link between $\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\beta/\text{NF}\kappa\text{B}$ signaling and IL1 β expression following exposure to LPS, we used BMDM isolated from mice genetically modified to have either abbreviated or absent $\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\beta/\text{NF}\kappa\text{B}$ signaling. Due to overexpression of the NF κB inhibitory protein $\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\beta$, AKBI BMDM demonstrate attenuated LPS-induced $\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\beta/\text{NF}\kappa\text{B}$ signaling (28). We have previously demonstrated that LPS-induced IL1 β mRNA expression is attenuated at early time points (1–5 hrs), but protein expression was not evaluated (28). Due to absence of $\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\beta$, $\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\beta^{-/-}$ BMDM are devoid of $\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\beta/\text{NF}\kappa\text{B}$ signaling (25). It has previously been observed that LPS-induced IL1 β mRNA and protein expression is attenuated in BMDM isolated from $\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\beta^{-/-}$ BMDM at early time points (1–6 hrs) (25, 26). However, it has also been reported that LPS-induced IL1 β mRNA expression is not attenuated in $\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\beta^{-/-}$ BMDM at later time points (24 hrs) (25).

Thus, we sought to evaluate the effect of impaired and absent LPS-induced $\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\beta/\text{NF}\kappa\text{B}$ signaling on $\text{IL1}\beta$ protein expression at later time points. Here, we demonstrate that in both AKBI and $\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\beta^{-/-}$ BMDM, LPS-induced pro- $\text{IL1}\beta$ protein production was significantly attenuated at later time points (24 hrs, Fig. 2B). Our results demonstrated that similar to absent $\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\beta/\text{NF}\kappa\text{B}$ signaling, abbreviated $\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\beta/\text{NF}\kappa\text{B}$ signaling is associated with attenuated expression of $\text{IL1}\beta$. These results strongly implicate a mechanistic role played by $\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\beta/\text{NF}\kappa\text{B}$ signaling in LPS-induced $\text{IL1}\beta$ expression.

Intact $\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\beta/\text{NF}\kappa\text{B}$ signaling is not necessary for LPS-induced expression of key anti-apoptotic factors

Completely inhibiting $\text{NF}\kappa\text{B}$ activity increases macrophage sensitivity to apoptosis induced by LPS (18) and increases apoptosis in the developing lung (34). Whether selectively targeting $\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\beta/\text{NF}\kappa\text{B}$ signaling to attenuate LPS-induced $\text{IL1}\beta$ expression increases apoptosis in isolated macrophages or the developing lung is unknown. The anti-apoptotic $\text{NF}\kappa\text{B}$ target genes BCL2A1 (35), BCL-XL (36), XIAP (37), BIRC3 (38) and PAI-2 (35) are critical in preventing LPS-induced apoptosis in macrophages. Thus, we sought to determine the effect of low-dose pharmacologic $\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\beta/\text{NF}\kappa\text{B}$ inhibition on the LPS-induced expression of these genes. In LPS-exposed RAW 264.7 cells, pretreatment with low dose BAY 11-7085 (between 0.5–1 μM) did not significantly attenuate the expression of BCL2A1 , BCL-XL , XIAP , BIRC3 (Fig. 3A). Higher doses of BAY 11-7085 (5–20 μM) significantly attenuated LPS-induced expression of these antiapoptotic genes (Fig. 3A). Importantly, RAW 264.7 cells did not reliably express PAI-2 mRNA at baseline, so LPS-induced fold increase in expression over unexposed cells could not be determined. Thus, we normalized PAI-2 expression to LPS-induced levels. All doses of BAY 11-7085 significantly attenuated LPS-induced PAI-2 expression, however the level of inhibition was significantly greater at doses of BAY 11-7085 10–20 μM where PAI-2 expression could not reliably be detected (Fig. 3A).

Next, we assessed LPS-induced expression of BCL2A1 , BCL-XL , XIAP , BIRC3 and PAI-2 in AKBI and $\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\beta^{-/-}$ BMDM. There was very little difference in the mRNA expression of these important anti-apoptotic between WT, AKBI and $\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\beta^{-/-}$ BMDM at baseline (Fig. 3B and D). Furthermore, there were no significant differences in the LPS-induced expression of these genes between WT (ICR) and AKBI BMDM (Fig. 3C), or between WT (C57B6) and $\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\beta^{-/-}$ BMDM (Fig. 3D), in LPS-induced expression of BCL2A1 , BCL-XL , XIAP , BIRC3 or PAI-2 . These results demonstrate that LPS-induced $\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\beta/\text{NF}\kappa\text{B}$ signaling is not necessary for the expression of antiapoptotic genes.

Inhibiting $\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\beta/\text{NF}\kappa\text{B}$ signaling does not increase macrophage sensitivity to apoptosis induced by LPS

To assess whether RAW 264.7 pretreated with low-dose BAY 11-7085 experienced increased cell death and apoptosis following exposure to LPS, we performed trypan blue exclusion assay and assessed for cleaved PARP and caspase-3 using Western blot. No significant difference in cell viability at 24 hours was seen between control, BAY 11-7085 treatment alone, LPS alone, or LPS pre-treated with low-dose (1 μM) BAY 11-7085 (Fig. 4A). In contrast, LPS exposed RAW 264.7 cells experience >90% death when pretreated with high-dose (10–20 μM) BAY 11-7085 (Fig. 4A). Furthermore, after 8 hours of LPS

exposure, cleaved PARP and caspase 3 were detected only in RAW 264.7 cells pretreated with high dose (10 μ M) BAY 11-7085 (Fig. 4B). This finding was consistent following exposure to LPS for 24 hours, where cleaved caspase could be detected in cells pre-treated with high-dose (10 μ M) BAY 11-7085 (Fig. 4C). These results demonstrate that in contrast to complete inhibition of LPS-induced NF κ B activity, inhibiting I κ B β /NF κ B signaling does not increase macrophage sensitivity to apoptosis induced by LPS.

Additionally, we assessed WT, AKBI, and KO BMDM for cleaved caspase-3 following exposure to LPS (Fig. 4D). There was no demonstrable difference in the amount of cleaved caspase-3 in LPS-exposed WT, AKBI, or I κ B β ^{-/-} BMDM at 24 hours of exposure (Fig. 4D, lanes 2, 4, 6). These results indicate that AKBI and I κ B β ^{-/-} BMDM are not more sensitive than WT controls to apoptosis following exposure to LPS.

Endotoxemia-induced pulmonary IL1 β expression is attenuated in newborn AKBI and I κ B β ^{-/-} mice

We next assessed the effect of selectively targeting LPS-induced I κ B β /NF κ B signaling on expression of IL1 β and antiapoptotic genes in the developing lung. Furthermore, to ensure that our results were not skewed by high mortality in exposed pups, we titrated the LPS exposure to determine a point of “sublethal endotoxemia,” defined as >80% survival in exposed pups (Fig. 5A). Based on these results, we exposed newborn (P0) mice to LPS (5 mg/kg, IP). Similar to what was observed in BMDM, LPS-induced pro-IL1 β protein (Fig. 5B) and mRNA (Fig. 5C and F) expression was significantly attenuated in the lungs of AKBI and I κ B β ^{-/-} neonatal mice. However, LPS-induced pulmonary expression of the anti-apoptotic factors of BCL2A1, BCL-XL, XIAP, BIRC3 and PAI-2 was not attenuated in either AKBI or I κ B β ^{-/-} mice compared to control (Fig. 5D and G). Importantly, we could find no evidence of apoptosis in lungs of endotoxemic WT, AKBI or I κ B β ^{-/-} neonatal mice as assessed by caspase-3 cleavage (Figure 5E and H). These results demonstrate that LPS-induced I κ B β /NF κ B in the developing lung to regulates IL1 β expression, but does not appear necessary for the expression of key anti-apoptotic genes.

Discussion

Our data clearly demonstrate that LPS-induced I κ B β /NF κ B signaling can be targeted to prevent pro-inflammatory IL1 β expression. We now show that LPS-induced IL1 β expression is significantly inhibited in macrophages when I κ B β /NF κ B signaling has been pharmacologically targeted using the IKK inhibitor BAY 11-7085, and in cells with abbreviated or absent I κ B β /NF κ B signaling secondary to genetic manipulation of I κ B β expression (AKBI and I κ B β ^{-/-}). Importantly, selective inhibition of I κ B β /NF κ B signaling leaves LPS-induced expression of important anti-apoptotic proteins intact. Thus, LPS-induced IL1 β expression can be attenuated without increasing susceptibility to LPS in the form of increased apoptosis. We have shown that this is true for macrophages in culture, as well as in the lung of endotoxemic neonatal animals. These findings support further study of therapeutic approaches that selectively target I κ B β /NF κ B pro-inflammatory signaling, while leaving the protective component of the innate immune response intact.

It is well accepted that inflammatory injury contributes to the pathogenesis of BPD. Exposure to chorioamnionitis, early-onset, and late-onset sepsis increase the risk of developing BPD (39–41). While postnatal steroids confer a protective anti-inflammatory effect against developing BPD, multiple detrimental off-target effects limit their clinical use. Pre-clinical studies demonstrate that global inhibition of the innate immune response has unanticipated and unwanted effects. Specifically, completely inhibiting NF κ B activity exacerbates lung injury in endotoxemic neonatal mice (20, 23), and increases apoptosis in LPS-exposed macrophages (18). It has recently been recognized that the nuclear activity of I κ B β contributes to sustained NF κ B activity and pro-inflammatory target gene expression (25, 26). Furthermore, we have published that I κ B β /NF κ B signaling can be pharmacologically targeted to attenuate the sustained expression of pro-inflammatory genes (27–30). Here, we report that pulmonary expression of IL1 β is reduced in endotoxemic neonatal mice with attenuated/absent I κ B β /NF κ B signaling in I κ B β overexpressing (AKBI) and I κ B β ^{-/-} mice, while NF κ B regulated expression of key antiapoptotic proteins remained intact.

Elevated levels of IL1 β have been implicated in the pathogenesis of many chronic inflammatory conditions (13). Furthermore, targeting elevated IL1 β has been shown to attenuate inflammation and improve outcomes in some chronic disease states (13). Multiple risk factors associated with BPD, including exposure to chorioamnionitis, sepsis (early and late onset), supplemental oxygen, mechanical ventilation, induce a chronic inflammatory state in the premature, developing lung. Importantly, multiple clinical studies have associated elevated IL1 β with an increased risk of developing BPD (2, 3). While pre-clinical studies suggest that IL1 β contributes to abnormal lung development after inflammatory insult, including hyperoxia, endotoxemia and the combination of hyperoxia and endotoxemia (8–12, 14–16). Furthermore, blocking IL1 β activity with IL1 receptor antagonists prevents lung injury and preserves lung development after inflammatory insult (14–16). Interestingly, Liao and colleagues demonstrated that following exposure to hyperoxia, the effect of attenuating the activity of IL1 β at the level of inflammasome activity provides a greater protection than treatment with the IL1 receptor antagonist.(16) Thus, there may be important differences between preventing the pro-inflammatory effects of IL1 β expression through blocking its transcription or inhibiting inflammasome activity, and antagonizing the IL1 receptor. Together, these results support further study of the effects of attenuating the pro-inflammatory effects of IL1 β in the developing lung.

In pre-clinical studies, attenuating IL1 β activity in the developing lung has been achieved through the use of IL1 receptor antagonists (14–16). Of note, IL1 α and IL1 β are two distinct gene products that bind to the IL1 receptor (13). In contrast to IL1 β , the effects of IL1 α in the developing lung have been less well studied. However, previous studies have shown that IL1 α induces surfactant production (17, 42). The effect of IL1 α on surfactant production appears to wane as the lung develops, suggesting that IL1 α may have a unique as yet unspecified role in the developing lung (42). In contrast to the constitutive expression of IL1 α , under normal conditions IL1 β is not present intracellularly. Following stimulation, NF κ B regulated transcription must occur and this is the rate-limiting step of IL1 β release (13). Given this critical step, NF κ B-regulated IL1 β transcription is one potential therapeutic target to prevent inflammatory injury in the developing lung.

It is well recognized that NF κ B dependent gene expression is stimulus- and cell-type-specific. Multiple layers of transcriptional control explain this observation. The I κ B family of NF κ B inhibitory proteins is critical in determining the selectivity of the NF κ B transcriptome. While cytoplasmic I κ Bs inhibit NF κ B activation, their distinct nuclear activity dictates the magnitude and duration of target gene expression. Following degradation, resynthesized I κ B α and I κ B β enter the nucleus and act divergently. A nuclear export sequence (NES) found on I κ B α allows it to export NF κ B complexes from the nucleus, thus terminating NF κ B activity (24). In contrast, I κ B β lacks a NES, and remains in the nucleus to stabilize NF κ B-DNA binding and sustain target gene expression (25). Thus, I κ B degradation is a necessary and sufficient step regulating NF κ B transcriptional activity, and the I κ B isoforms play important roles in determining the profile and kinetics of the NF κ B transcriptome. By understanding the key differences between I κ B α and I κ B β we may be able to identify a therapeutic target to attenuate the expression of pro-inflammatory NF κ B target genes, leaving the expression of anti-inflammatory and antiapoptotic genes intact.

The current report has a number of limitations. We have shown that *in vitro* low-dose pharmacologic IKK inhibition prevents I κ B β /NF κ B degradation. In contrast, at these low doses, LPS-induced I κ B α degradation occurs. We were not able to pharmacologically inhibit I κ B β /NF κ B signaling *in vivo*. Further studies are necessary to determine if I κ B β /NF κ B signaling can be specifically targeted at the IKK-I κ B β interface *in vivo*. Previous groups have demonstrated that I κ B β ^{-/-} have abbreviated LPS-induced NF κ B activity, due to absence of nuclear I κ B β activity (25, 26). Similarly, we have previously demonstrated that sustained LPS-induced NF κ B activity is prevented by I κ B β overexpression (28). However, in addition to I κ B β overexpression, the AKBI mice express no I κ B α . (28) Thus, in these mice, findings may be explained by absence of I κ B α /NF κ B signaling, rather than attenuated I κ B β /NF κ B signaling. The current report focused on the transcriptional regulation of LPS-induced IL1 β expression. We did not evaluate inflammasome activation/activity, or assess systemic levels of mature IL1 β . Further studies are necessary to determine if targeting I κ B β /NF κ B transcriptional regulation of IL1 β affects inflammasome activity and levels of mature IL1 β , and to determine how this affects the response to endotoxemia and lung development in neonatal animals. Furthermore, we evaluated the pulmonary expression of key NF κ B regulated apoptotic genes. Undoubtedly, the LPS-induced expression of other genes differs between WT, I κ B β ^{-/-} and AKBI mice. Further studies are necessary to determine the ultimate effect of altering the LPS-induced NF κ B transcriptome on the developing lung, and perhaps more importantly, and whether these changes affect neonatal mortality following endotoxemia.

We conclude that it may be reasonable to identify methods to specifically target LPS-induced I κ B β /NF κ B signaling while leaving I κ B α /NF κ B signaling intact. Targeting this signaling in the developing lung attenuates the expression of IL1 β , and may prevent lung injury associated with early inflammatory insult. We speculate that further study of I κ B β /NF κ B signaling may reveal therapeutic targets to prevent the chronic inflammatory injury that contributes to the pathogenesis of BPD.

Acknowledgments

Statement of Financial Support: This work was supported by NIH grant R01HL132941 to CJW.

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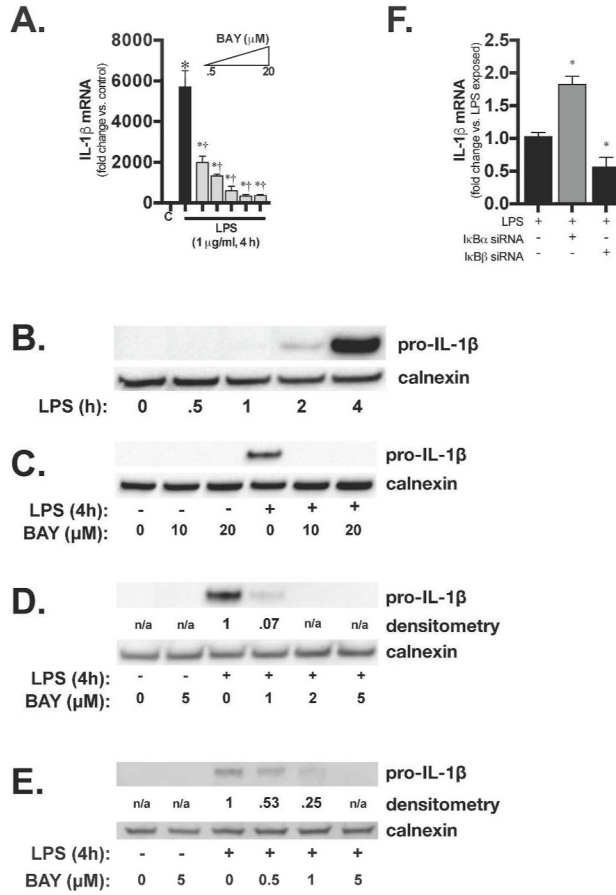


Fig.1. Inhibition of LPS-induced IκBβ/NFκB signaling attenuates IL1β expression in RAW 264.7 macrophages

(A) Fold-increase in IL1β expression following LPS exposure (1 μg/ml, 4h) or pretreatment with BAY 11-7085 (0.5–20 μM, 1h) and LPS exposure (1 μg/ml, 4h). Values are means + SEM (n=4–6/time point); h, hours; *, p < 0.05 vs. unexposed control; †, p < 0.05 vs. LPS exposed. Representative Western blots showing (B) pro-IL1β protein expression following LPS exposure (1 μg/ml, 0.5–4 h), (C) pro-IL1β expression following LPS exposure (1 μg/ml, 4h) or pretreatment with high-dose BAY-11-7085 (10–20 μM, 1h) and LPS exposure (1 μg/ml, 4h), and (D, E) pro-IL1β expression following LPS exposure or pretreatment with low-dose BAY 11-7085 (0.5–5 μM, 1h) and LPS exposure (1 μg/ml, 4h). Calnexin shown as loading control. Densitometry ratio to control is provided. (F) Percent-change in LPS-induced (1 μg/ml, 4h) IL1β expression following transfection with either IκBα or IκBβ siRNA. Values are expressed as a ratio to LPS-induced levels and are means + SEM (n=4–6/time point); *, p < 0.05 vs. LPS exposed.

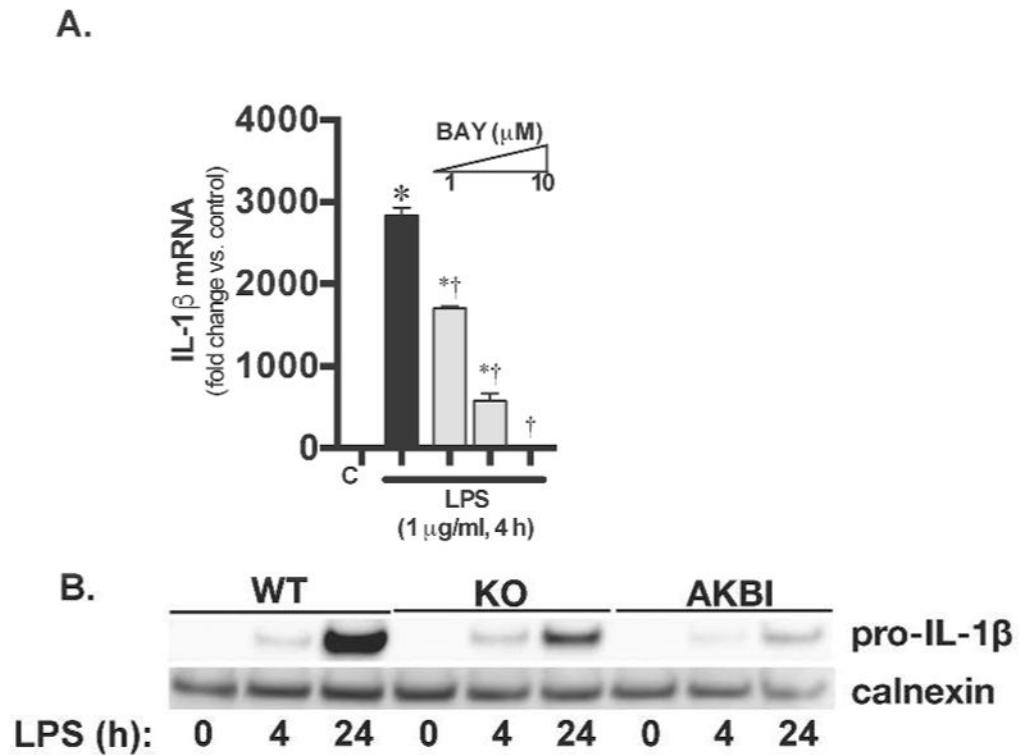


Fig. 2. Both abbreviated and absent LPS-induced $I\kappa B\beta$ /NF κB signaling attenuates IL1 β expression in BMDM

(A) Fold-increase in IL1 β expression following LPS exposure (1 μ g/ml, 4h) or pretreatment with BAY 11-7085 (1–10 μ M) and LPS exposure (1 μ g/ml, 4h). Values are means + SEM (n=6/time point); h, hours; *, p < 0.05 vs. unexposed control; †, p < 0.05 vs. LPS exposed. (B) Representative Western blots showing pro-IL1 β expression following LPS exposure (1 μ g/ml, 0–24 h) in WT, $I\kappa B\beta$ -overexpressing (AKBI), or $I\kappa B\beta$ -knockout (KO) BMDM.

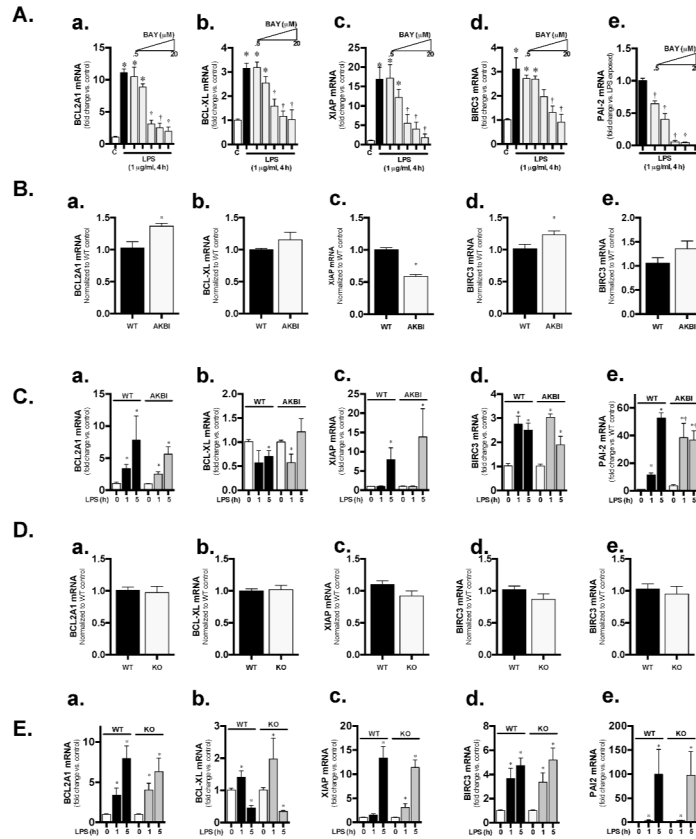


Fig. 3. Targeting $I\kappa B\beta/NF\kappa B$ signaling does not attenuate LPS-induced expression of antiapoptotic genes

Expression of (a) BCL2A1, (b) BCL-XL, (c) XIAP, (d) BIRC3 and (e) PAI2 in (A) RAW 264.7 macrophages following LPS exposure (1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$, 4h) or pretreatment with BAY 11-7085 (0.5–20 μM , 1h) and LPS exposure (1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$, 4h). Values are means + SEM (n=6/time point); h, hours; *, p < 0.05 vs. unexposed control; †, p < 0.05 vs. LPS exposed (B–C) WT or AKBI BMDM at (B) baseline or (C) following LPS exposure (1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$, 4h). Values are means + SEM (n=6/time point); h, hours; *, p < 0.05 vs. unexposed control; †, p < 0.05 vs. time-matched WT LPS exposed (D–E) WT or KO BMDM at (D) baseline or (E) following LPS exposure (1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$, 4h). Values are means + SEM (n=6/time point); h, hours; *, p < 0.05 vs. unexposed control; †, p < 0.05 vs. time-matched WT LPS exposed.

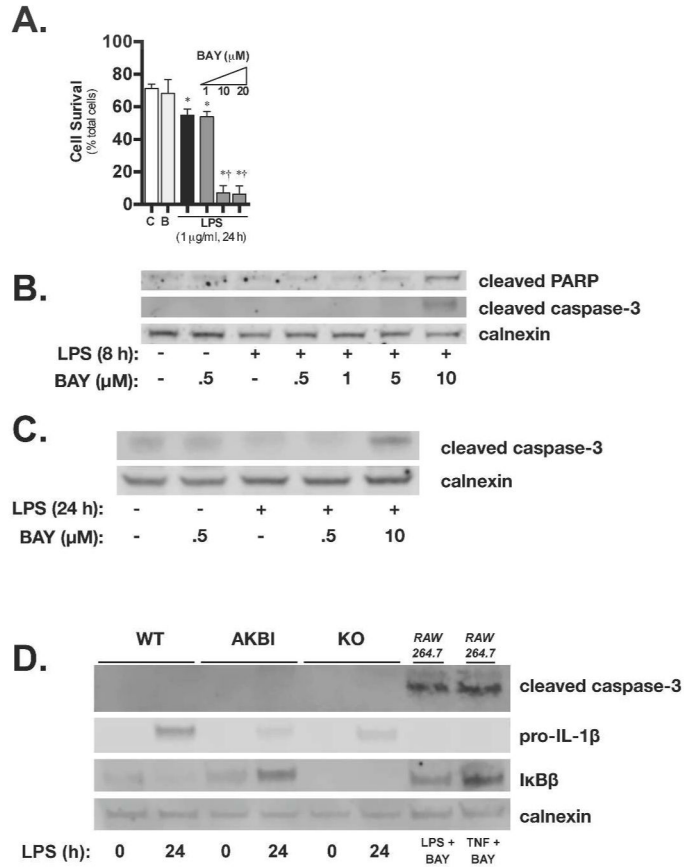


Fig. 4. Targeting LPS-induced IκBβ/NFκB signaling does not cause apoptosis in macrophages (A) Cell survival assessed by trypan blue exclusion in RAW 264.7 macrophages following LPS exposure (1 μg/ml, 24h) or pretreatment with BAY 11-7085 (1–20 μM, 1h) and LPS exposure (1 μg/ml, 24h). Values are means + SEM from three separate experiments; h, hours; *, p <0.05 vs. unexposed control; †, p<0.05 vs. LPS exposed. (B) Representative Western blot showing cleaved PARP and cleaved caspase-3 in RAW 264.7 macrophages following LPS exposure (1 μg/ml, 8h) or pretreatment with BAY 11-7085 (0.5–10 μM, 1h) and LPS exposure (1 μg/ml, 8h) with calnexin shown as loading control. (C) Representative Western blot showing cleaved caspase-3 in RAW 264.7 macrophages following LPS exposure (1 μg/ml, 24h) or pretreatment with BAY 11-7085 (0.5 μM or 10 μM, 1h) and LPS exposure (1 μg/ml, 24h) with calnexin shown as loading control. (D) Representative Western blot showing cleaved caspase-3 and pro-IL-1β in WT, AKBI, and KO BMDM following LPS exposure (1 μg/ml, 0–24h) with calnexin shown as loading control. RAW 264.7 pretreated with BAY 11-7085 (10 μM) followed by LPS or TNF-α exposure were used as positive control for cleaved caspase-3 and lack of IL1β induction. Blot is representative of three separate experiments.

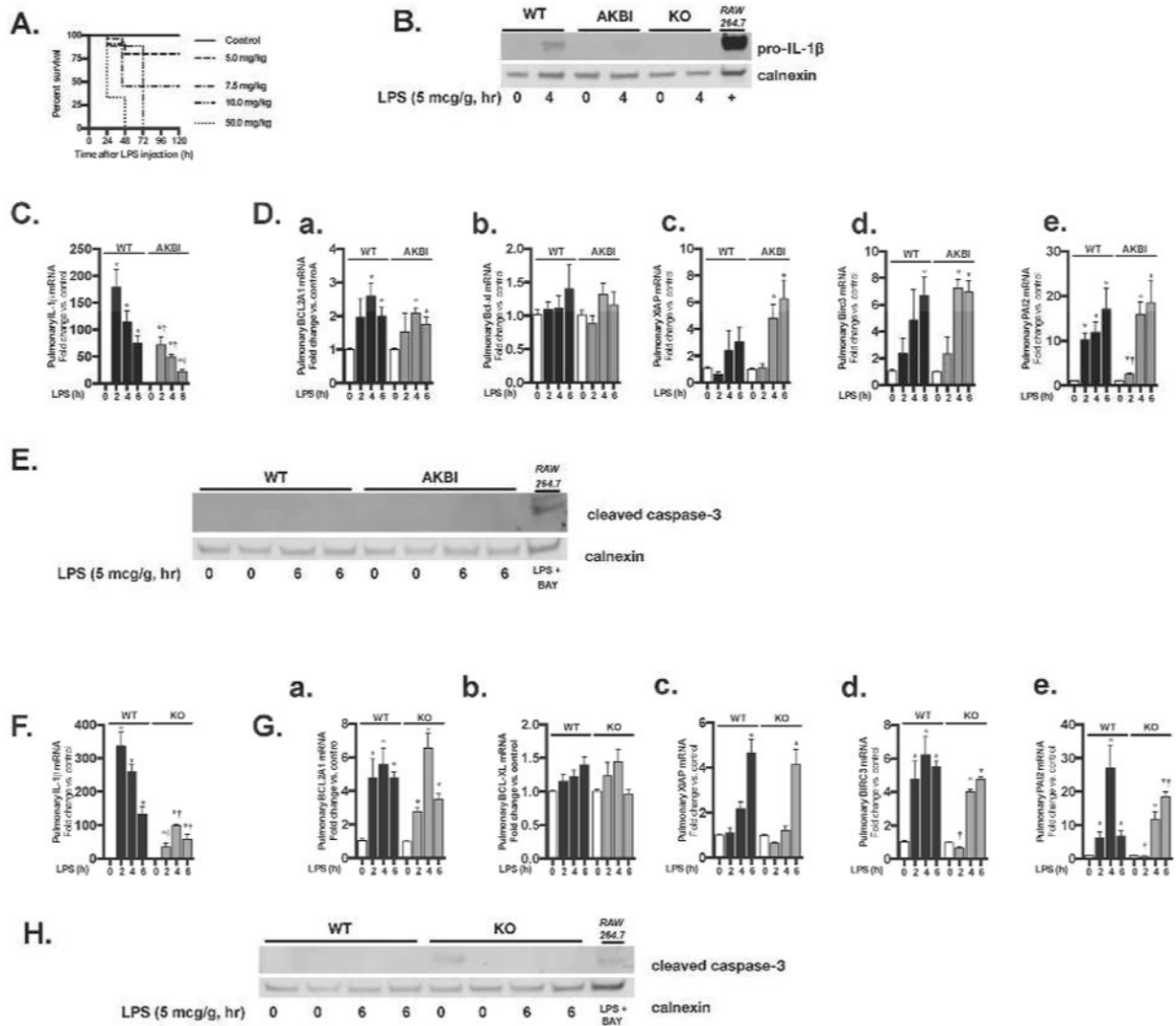


Fig. 5. Targeting $I\kappa B\beta$ /NF κB signaling does not attenuate LPS-induced expression of anti-apoptotic genes in the neonatal lung

(A) Percent survival of WT (ICR) mice exposed to LPS on the day of birth (0–50 mg/kg, IP). (B) Representative Western blot showing pro-IL1 β expression in WT, AKBI, and KO neonatal lung homogenate following LPS exposure (5 μ g/g, 4h). LPS-exposed RAW 264.7 cell lysate shown as positive control for IL1 β . Calnexin shown as loading control. (C–D; F–G) Fold-increase in pulmonary gene expression of (C, F) IL1 β and (D, G) (a) BCL2A1, (b) BCL-XL, (c) XIAP, (d) BIRC3 and (e) PAI2 in neonatal WT (ICR) and AKBI mice (top panels), or WT (C57B6) and KO mice (bottom panels) following LPS exposure (0–6h, 5 mg/kg IP). Values are means + SEM (n=6–8/time point, taken from 3 separate experiments); h, hours; *, p < 0.05 vs. unexposed control; †, p < 0.05 vs. time-matched WT LPS exposed. (E, H) Representative Western blot showing cleaved caspase-3 expression in WT, AKBI, and KO neonatal lung homogenate following LPS exposure (5 μ g/g, 6h). BAY 11-7085 pretreated, LPS-exposed RAW 264.7 cell lysate shown as positive control for caspase-3

cleavage. Calnexin shown as loading control. Images are representative of 3 separate experiments.

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