1	Dexamethasone induces ω 3-derived immunoresolvents driving
2	resolution of allergic airway inflammation
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37 Capsule Summary

38 Dexamethasone induces the production of DHA-derived specialized proresolving lipids

39 and the resolution of allergic airway inflammation. This adds glucocorticosteroids to

40 the short list of drugs that are known to possess direct pro-resolving functions.

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To the Editor

Resolution of inflammation has long been considered to be a passive process 43 that ensues in an inflammatory response following the dilution of pro-inflammatory 44 cues. However, this paradigm is shifting as it is becoming increasingly evident that 45 resolution is an active reaction that employs a complex molecular machinery that 46 orderly terminates inflammation. Among the multiple mechanisms involved, 47 48 specialized proresolving lipid mediators (SPMs) such as resolvins, protectins and lipoxins have taken center stage¹. These are derived from ω 3 and ω 6 polyunsaturated 49 50 fatty acids through complex intra- and trans-cellular biosynthetic pathways, and promote resolution of inflammation by their manifold and concerted functions 51 inhibiting leukocyte trafficking, dampening pro-inflammatory signaling, inducing 52 apoptosis, and promoting anti-inflammatory M2-like macrophage phenotypes 53 efferocytosis and tissue restitution¹. 54

Impaired induction of SPMs has been associated with defective resolution of 55 56 inflammation and chronic diseases including asthma. Thus, reduced Lipoxin A4 (LXA4) levels have been detected in blood, bronchoalveolar lavage fluid (BAL), sputum and 57 exhaled breath condensates of severe asthma patients, correlating with disease 58 severity²⁻⁴. Moreover, impaired protectin D1 (PD1) production has been described in 59 asthma patients compared to healthy individuals^{5,6}. These observations are 60 61 functionally relevant since administration of synthetic forms of SPMs in animal models of asthma have been notably effective in resolving inflammation⁷. Still, little is known 62 about the effect of known drugs in the production of proresolving lipids, hampering 63 the exploitation of this emerging new knowledge for therapy. 64

Here, we have investigated the role of dexamethasone (DXM), a prototype 65 prototypical glucocorticosteroid, in the generation of SPMs and the resolution of 66 67 inflammation. We employed an established model of allergic airway disease based on ovalbumin (OVA) sensitization and challenge (Fig E1, A) which triggers a Th2-driven 68 inflammatory response in the airways peaking at day 1 post-challenge and gradually 69 70 resolving thereafter (Fig E1, B-D)⁷. This is accompanied by the production of DHA-71 derived protectins such as PD1 and PDX, and their intermediate metabolite 17-HDHA, 72 in the lung which starts at day 1 and peaks at day 4 post-challenge (Fig E1, E), in line with their proresolving activity. By contrast, vehicle control (PBS) challenge does not 73 74 trigger any SPMs (Fig E1, E). Prostaglandins PGD2 and PGE2 which are required for the activation of SPM pathways⁸ are also induced, while the EPA-derived metabolite RvE1 75 is not detectable (data not shown). The induction of SPMs is topical as none of these 76 77 mediators is up-regulated in serum (Fig E2).

78 Using this setting, we administered DXM therapeutically, at days 1, 2 and 3 post-challenge, and assessed its effects (Fig 1, A). Surprisingly, we observed rapid and 79 80 robust activation of the DHA•17-HDHA pathway within 6h of DXM administration (day 1 post-challenge), resulting in over <u>103</u>-fold higher concentrations of PD1 and PDX 81 compared to <u>naïve animals</u> whereas vehicle (PBS)-treated controls exhibited no 82 83 difference (Fig 1, B). This may even be an underestimation as in naïve and most vehicle-control treated animals PD1 and PDX are completely undetectable but an 84 arbitrary value of half the limit of quantification was still used for fold calculations. 85 RvE1 and LXA4 were not detected while PGD2 and PGE2, although present, were not 86 87 differentially altered (data not shown). This early boost in SPM production was not anymore detectable 24h or 72h after DXM administration (day 2 or 4 post-challenge), 88

as levels in vehicle-control treated animals were also increased, while at 144h (day 7 post-challenge) higher, yet not significant, levels of PD1 and PDX were observed in the control group (**Fig 1, B**). These findings demonstrate that DXM acutely induces the mobilization of the DHA•17-HDHA•PD1/PDX pathway during allergic airway disease in mice.

94 We then examined whether the ability of DXM to up-regulate PD1 and PDX 95 could also modulate resolution of allergic airway disease. DXM was unable to generate a notable anti-inflammatory or proresolving effect within 6h of treatment, a very short 96 time interval (Fig 1, C-D). However, at 24h (day 2 post-challenge) and onwards DXM 97 98 reduced total leukocyte and eosinophil numbers in the BAL more rapidly than vehicle control, and decreased OVA-specific IL-5 and IL-13 levels in mediastinal lymph nodes 99 (MLNs). Accordingly, DXM shortened the resolution interval (Ri), the time interval 100 101 from the peak of inflammation at day 1 post-challenge to the 50% reduction point, by 102 2 days, a very significant effect for this model (Fig 1, E-F). To confirm that DXM accelerates the resolution of inflammation through the induction of DHA-derived 103 SPMs, rather than other effects on the immune system, we employed 12,15-104 lipoxygenase deficient (*Alox15^{-/-}*) mice which cannot metabolize DHA to downstream 105 bioactive mediators such as protectins (Fig 2, A-B). Abrogation of PD1 and PDX 106 generation completely reversed DXM-mediated resolution of allergic airway 107 108 inflammation including total leukocyte and eosinophil infiltration in the BAL, and Th2 109 cytokine production in MLNs (Fig 2, C-D and E3, A-B). Although this does not exclude the involvement of other bioactive lipids requiring 12,15-lipoxygenase for their 110 111 generation, the potent proresolving activity of syntheric PD1 administration in similar

settings^{5, 7} indicates that at least PD1 and its functionally similar isomer PDX are
 principally involved.

In conclusion, our study describes a novel function of DXM, a prototype 114 prototypical glucocorticosteroid, in the activation of SPM networks. It reveals that 115 116 DXM enhances the catabolism metabolism of DHA to its bioactive derivatives PD1 and PDX. This effect is rapid, inducing at 103-fold higher levels than background-vehicle 117 118 within 6h of treatment, providing an early boost to the process of resolution, markedly 119 reducing both the duration and magnitude of inflammation. This effect is also transient as no differences between DXM and vehicle-treated animals were observed 120 later on, possibly reflecting the induction of counter-regulatory pathways suppressing 121 SPM networks, and lack of need for additional SPMs in an effectively resolving 122 situation. Notably, the effect of DXM is specific for the D-series SPMs since there was 123 124 no observed mobilization of other proresolving pathways such as lipoxin A4 or E-series 125 resolvins nor PGD2 and PGE2.

At present, very few pharmaceutical substances have a documented ability to 126 127 activate SPM networks. Aspirin and statins provoke conformational changes on cyclooxygenases altering their enzymatic activity and leading to the production of 128 epimeric forms of lipoxins, resolvins and protectins, depending on the substrate⁹. 129 Resiguimod, a TLR7/8 agonist, induces in turn DHA-derived SPMs in human 130 macrophages and experimental settings of airway disease⁷. Synthetic forms of SPMs 131 such as RvE1 and LXA4 are also being explored although their short half-life and 132 chemical stability constitute major hurdles towards their clinical application. Our 133 134 study therefore adds DXM as a new agonist of resolution, expanding the short list of 135 clinically used drugs that are able to actively induce SPM pathways. It also provides

136	novel insight into the mechanism of action of DXM, a well-known and widely-used
137	drug, with important implications for glucocorticosteroid use in the clinic.
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197 Keywords

Allergic asthma, allergic airway disease, anti-inflammation, resolution of
 inflammation, glucocorticosteroids, dexamethasone, protectins, Alox15

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201 Abbreviations

202	SPMs = specialized pro-resolving lipid mediators, DHA = docosahexaenoic acid, PUFAs
203	= polyunsaturated fatty acids, PD1 = protectin D1, PDX = protectin DX, LM = lipid
204	mediators, LXA4 = lipoxin A4, LTB4 = leukotriene B4, BAL = bronchoalveolar lavage
205	fluid, LOX = lipoxygenases, COX = cyclooxygenases, NSAIDs = non-steroidal anti-
206	inflammatory drugs, PGs = prostaglandins, LTs = leukotrienes, GCs =
207	glucocorticosteroids, GR = glucocorticoid receptor, DXM = dexamethasone, OVA =
208	ovalbumin, EXC4 = eoxin C4, RvE1 = resolvin E1, RvD1 = resolvin D1, 17-HDHA = 17-
209	hydroxy-docosahexaenoic acid, 7-HDHA = 7-hydroxy-docosahexaenoic acid, EPA =
210	eicosapentaenoic acid, LC-MS/MS = liquid chromatography tandem mass
211	spectrometry, R <i>i</i> = resolution interval, IL = interleukin

212 Figure Legends

Figure 1. Effect of DXM on the biosynthesis of DHA-derived proresolving lipid 213 mediators and the resolution of allergic airway inflammation. (A) Schematic of the 214 215 experimental protocol. DXM treatment is depicted in red. (B) Tissue lipidomic profiling over a time-course of 7 days post-challenge showing early activation of the DHA-17-216 217 HDHA-PD1/PDX pathway triggered by DXM. Data are expressed as fold induction 218 relative to naïve non-inflamed mice. (C) Total leukocyte, eosinophil and lymphocyte 219 numbers in BAL. (**D**) T_{H2} cytokine responses in mediastinal lymph nodes. (**E**) Resolution 220 curves for total leukocyte and eosinophil numbers in BAL. (F) Calculated resolution intervals (Ri) based on total leukocyte and eosinophil resolution curves. Data 221 222 represent mean±SEM of n=9-23 mice/group pooled from at least three independent experiments. In fold calculations half the limit of quantification (LOQ) was used for 223 samples beyond detection. ***P<0.001, **P<0.01 and *P<0.05 compared to PBS-224 treated controls. 225

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Figure 2. Dependence of DXM pro-resolving capacity on the activation of the DHA-17-227 HDHA-PD1/PDX pathway. (A) Schematic of the experimental protocol employing wild 228 229 type (WT) and Alox15-deficient (*Alox15^{-/-}*) mice depicted in red. Data are expressed as fold induction relative to naïve WT mice. (B) Tissue lipidomics analysis in-of non-230 treated Alox15^{-/-} mice compared to WT mice. (C) Effect of DXM administration on total 231 232 leukocyte, eosinophil and lymphocyte numbers in BAL at day 4 post-challenge. (D) Effect of DXM administration on T_H2 cell responses at day 4 post-challenge. Data 233 represent mean±SEM of n=6-23 mice/group pooled from at least three independent 234

experiments. BLQ: Below the Limit of Quantification. ***P<0.001, **P<0.01 and

²³⁶ **P*<0.05 compared to WT mice.