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1	Vasoactive intestinal peptide (VIP) differentially affects inflammatory immune		
2	responses in human monocytes infected with viable Salmonella or stimulated with LPS		
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Summary

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We compared the effect of VIP on human blood monocytes infected with Salmonella Typhimurium 4/74 or stimulated with LPS. VIP (10⁻⁷ M) increased monocyte viability by 24% and 9% when cultured for 24h with 4/74 or Salmonella LPS (100 ng/ml) respectively. Significantly increased (P< 0.05) numbers of 4/74 were also recovered from monocytes cocultured with VIP after 6h post-infection (pi) and this remained high after 24h pi. Both 4/74 and LPS increased (P <0.05) the concentration of TNF-α, IL-1β and IL-6 measured in monocyte supernatants. However, LPS induced this effect more rapidly while, with the exception of IL-6, 4/74 induced higher concentrations (P< 0.05). VIP significantly decreased (P < 0.05) TNF- α and IL-1 β production by 4/74-infected monocytes after 6 pi, but only after 24h in LPS-cultured monocytes. This trend was reversed for IL-6 production. However, TNF-α and IL-1β production by 4/74-infected monocytes, cultured with VIP, still remained higher (P< 0.05) than concentrations measured in supernatants cultured only with LPS. VIP also increased (P< 0.05) production of anti-inflammatory IL-10 in both 4/74 and LPS cultures after 24h. We also show a differential effect of VIP on the expression of TNFα and IL-6 receptors, since VIP was only able to decreased expression in LPS-stimulated monocytes but not in 4/74-infected monocytes.

In conclusion, we show a differential effect of VIP on human monocytes infected with

virulent Salmonella or stimulated with LPS. Our study suggests that the use of VIP in

bacteraemia and/or sepsis may be limited to an adjunctive therapy to antibiotic treatment.

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Introduction

To date, most models of human sepsis involve murine studies or immortalised human immune cells, such as monocytic THP1 cells, stimulated with Lipopolysaccharide (LPS). However, the dynamic interaction of primary human blood monocyte with virulent Gram negative bacteria is likely to be different to that observed in these models, which essentially investigate endotoxaemia rather than bacteraemia. The general model of disease progression in sepsis proposes two phases. The first phase is characterised by uncontrolled production of inflammatory mediators leading to systemic inflammatory response syndrome (SIRS) (1-3) which leads to acute sepsis and may lead to hypoperfusion and organ collapse (termed septic shock). The second phase of disease is characterised by the production of a compensatory anti-inflammatory response syndrome (CARS), required to restore homeostasis but which can lead to secondary, nosocomial, infection (4-5, 3). The SIRS (acute) phase of sepsis is associated with high systemic concentrations of pro-inflammatory cytokines released by monocytes and macrophages, such as TNF-α, IL-1 and IL-6 (6) and acute sepsis is associated with uncontrolled systemic inflammation. Thus, intervention which reduces the inflammatory immune response has been proposed as a rational therapeutic avenue. However, clinical trials in which this has been attempted have largely failed. One reason is that some agents used may be neutralised by the immune system or degraded by enzymes (7). Trials investigating inhibition of Tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF-α) and interleukin 1β (IL-1β) were also disappointing, probably due to high systemic concentrations of other cytokines and in some cases it seems that the cytokine status of patients was not measured prior to administration of specific cytokine inhibitors (8). Broad ranging anti-inflammatories such as glucocorticoids are also widely used in the treatment of sepsis but their effect is debateable probably due to

timing of therapy, dosage and the development of 'steroid resistance' by glucocorticoid receptors (9).

Studies, to date, have suggested that VIP is an excellent therapeutic candidate against sepsis because (i) it is a natural product which does not induce an immune response, (ii) it is identical in all mammals apart from guinea pigs (10), (iii) it is easily synthesised in large quantities, (iv) in murine models of LPS-induced sepsis, low concentrations of VIP (<5 nmol) prevent mortality (11) and (v) VIP inhibits LPS-induced cytokine production in human THP-1 cells (12-14) indicating that results from animal models may translate into human medicine. VIP therefore has great potential as a cost effective therapeutic against Gram negative sepsis. Monocytes respond quickly to bacterial infection via inflammatory chemokines released in infected peripheral tissues (15). After recruitment into infected tissue, monocytes are subjected to signals from Th1 cells that respond to pathogen in tissues. This encounter results in the conversion of the monocytes to activated macrophages that are more competent in killing the pathogen and to initiate the systemic inflammatory response in order to clear the infection (16). Monocytes were used extensively in the past to study sepsis (17) and LPSinduced disease (18). However, nothing has been reported on the effect of VIP on the production of inflammatory mediators by human monocytes (rather than monocyte-like THP-1 cells) infected with virulent Gram negative bacteria, nor how this may compare to the effect of VIP when these monocytes are stimulated with LPS, since a discrepancy between the effect of VIP on these may have a significant impact on the use of VIP as a therapeutic. The aim of the work we describe was to compare the effect of VIP on the production of inflammatory mediators produced by human monocytes infected with Salmonella

Typhimurium 4/74 or stimulated by LPS.

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Materials and methods

Salmonella and LPS

- 96 S. Typhimurium 4/74 and LPS from S. Typhimurium SL1181 (Sigma-Aldrich, Poole, Dorset
- 97 UK) were used to stimulate human monocytes in the study. In all experiments, S.
- 98 Typhimurium 4/74 was cultured with monocytes at a multiplicity of infection of 10:1 (MOI
- =10). Monocytes were cultured with LPS at a concentration of 100 ng/ml, unless otherwise
- stated. Porcine VIP (95 % purity by HPLC) was obtained from Sigma-Aldrich, UK.

Isolation of peripheral blood monocytes (PBM)

Human blood was purchased from the blood transfusion service (Sheffield, UK). The blood was diluted with sterile PBS then gently poured onto Histopaque-1077 (Sigm-Aldrich, UK) prior to isolation of the buffer coat, as standard procedure. After appropriate washing steps, buffy coat supernatants were resuspended with appropriate amounts of cold MACS buffer and anti-CD14 antibody coated micromagnetic beads (Miltenyi Biotech, Bisley, Surrey UK) according to manufacturer's instructions. The viability of isolated monocytes was assessed using Trypan blue (10% v/v) (Sigma) and was found to be > 90 % prior to use.

Salmonella invasion and LPS stimulation assays

The cultured monocytes were firstly washed with sterile PBS then the bacteria were added to the cultured monocytes at MOI of 10:1 at 37°C and 5% Co₂ for 60 min. The cells were then washed and co-cultured with RPMI media contained 100μg/ml of gentamycin (Sigma-Aldrich, UK) with or without VIP (Sigma-Aldrich, UK) and placed in the incubator for a further 60 minutes. The cultured cells were washed again and the media was substituted with RPMI containing 25μg/ml of gentamycin with or without VIP (10⁻⁷ M) for a further 6 or 24h.

The cells were then washed three times with PBS at room temperature and then lysed using 118 1% Triton X (Fisher Scientific LTD, Loughborough, UK) for 15 minutes at 37 °C. 119 Intracellular bacterial counts were determined by serial dilution at different time points 2, 6, 120 121 24 hours post infection. Viable bacterial cells counts were measured as colony forming units per ml (CFU/ml). 122 In other experiments monocytes were cultured with LPS, with or without VIP (10⁻⁷ M), prior 123 to isolation of supernatants for cytokine measurement or cell harvesting, for analysis of 124 receptor expression. The dose effect of VIP on production of TNF-α and IL-10 by LPS-125 126 cultured monocytes was also measured in monocyte supernatants following co-culture of monocytes with LPS and different VIP concentrations ranging from 10⁻⁶-10⁻⁸ M. 127

Monocyte survival assay

The uptake of the fluorescent restriction dye Propidium iodide (PI) was used to measure the viability of cells under the experimental procedures described above. After 24h post-culture monocytes were incubated in PBS containing PI (10µg/ml) for 10 min. The number of non-viable cells (PI +) was assessed uaing FACSCanto II analyser (Becton Dickinson, USA). Samples were acquired using BD FACSDivaTM (BD Biosciences, USA) and analysed using CyFlogic 2.8 software, licensed to Nottingham University. Monocytes which had been immersed in ice cold (-20 0C) methanol for 30 min were used as a positive control and monocytes cultured in media only for 24h were used as a negative control. All experiments were performed in triplicate on 3 separate occasions.

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Measurement of cytokine concentration in monocyte supernatants

- ELISA kits (R&D Systems Abingdon, Oxford, UK) were used to measure TNFα, IL-1β, IL-
- 6, IL-10 and IL-4 in the supernatants isolated from monocytes (2, 6 and 24h post-culture

infected with *S*. Typhimurium 4/74 or cultured with LPS, with or without co-culture with VIP (10⁻⁷ M). Supernatants isolated from monocytes cultured in media only were used as a negative control. All experiments were performed in triplicate on 3 separate occasions.

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Expression of cytokine receptors on monocyte membranes

FACS analyses were performed to determine the effect of S. Typhimurium 4/74 infection or LPS culture on the expression of monocyte cytokine receptors and to determine whether, or not, this was affected by VIP (10⁻⁷ M). After 24h post-treatment, 1x10⁶ monocytes, from each group, were washed 3 times in FACS buffer (EDTA 2mM; BSA 1% w/v) at 300g for 10 min per wash step. The cell pellets were then incubated with human Trustain FcX (Biolegend, San Diego, CA, USA) for 15 min to block FC receptors. After washing 3 times in FACS buffer, the cell pellets were re-suspended in FACS buffer containing relevant cytokine receptor antibodies for 45 min on ice in the dark. The antibodies used were as follows; Mouse antihuman TNF-α receptor (anti-TNFR.1/CD120) and isotype control (Mouse IgG2b.FITC) (eBioscience, Santa Clara, CA, USA), Rat anti-human IL-6 receptor (IL-6R/CD126) and isotype control (Rat IgG2a.PE) (eBioscience, USA) and mouse anti-human IL-10 receptor (IL-10R/CD210) and isotype control (Mouse IgG1.FITC) (Biolegend, USA). In addition to this, some groups of monocytes were incubated with mouse anti-Human TLR4 antibody (or mouse IgG1.FITC isotype control antibody) to ascertain the effect of bacteria and VIP on a non-cytokine (but highly relevant) monocyte receptor. The concentration of all antibodies and FC blocking reagent are shown in Table 1. After antibody incubation, the cells were washed 3 times in FACS buffer and then re-suspended in 0.2 ml of FACS buffer prior to analysis. on a FACSCanto II analyser (BD, USA). Samples were acquired using the BD FACSDivaTM (BD Biosciences, USA) and analysed using the CyFlogic 2.8 software.

Statistical analysis

ANOVA analyses with one way classification were performed to determine significance between experimental groups. Tukey's post-hoc test was used to determine significant differences between groups at the 95% confidence limit (P = 0.05).

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Results

Our results show that after 24h post infection (pi) of human monocytes with S. Typhimurium 4/74, only 44% of cells remained viable, as measured by uptake of propidium iodide (Fig 1A) but this was significantly increased to 68% when co-cultured with VIP (10-7 M). In comparison, when monocytes were stimulated with Salmonella LPS (100 ng/ml) for 24h, viability remained high at 79% but was further increased to 88% when co-cultured with VIP (Fig 1A). VIP also significantly (P < 0.05) increased the numbers of bacteria recovered from monocytes at 6h pi by about 1.5 log and more were also recovered after 24h, but the difference was not significant (Fig 1B). We next compared the effect of VIP on the secretion of pro and anti-inflammatory cytokines by monocytes infected with 4/74 or cultured with LPS. S. Typhimurium 4/74 and LPS both significantly (P < 0.05) increased the concentration of pro-inflammatory cytokines (TNF- α , IL-1β and IL-6) measured in monocyte supernatants. LPS had a much more rapid effect on monocytes and significantly increased cytokine levels within 2h, whereas similar increases were not measured in supernatants isolated from 4/74-infected monocytes at this time point (Fig 2A-E). TNF-α and IL-1β concentrations induced by Salmonella infection (Fig 2A and C) were much greater than those induced by LPS culture (Fig 2B and D). Addition of VIP to 4/74-infected monocytes induced a significant decrease (P < 0.05) in TNF- α production (Fig 2A) and IL-1 β production (Fig 2C) at 6 and 24h pi but VIP only significantly decreased (P < 0.05) TNF- α and IL-1β production after 24h pi in LPS-cultured monocytes (Fig 2B and D respectively). However even when 4/74-infected monocytes were cultured with VIP, the concentration of TNF- α or IL-1 β remained at levels significantly greater (P <0.05) than those measured in supernatants from monocytes stimulated with LPS which were not co-cultured in VIP. However, LPS induced a greater and much more rapid IL-6 response after 6h (Fig 2F) compared to IL-6 production by 4/74-infected monocytes, although this was equivalent after 24h (Fig 2E). Conversely, VIP induced a significant decrease in IL-6 production by monocytes cultured with LPS after 6 and 24h (Fig 2F) but a significant reduction in IL-6 produced by 4/74-infected monocytes was only measured after 24h post-culture in (Fig 2E). 4/74 and LPS both significantly (P < 0.05) increased the concentration of IL-4 produced by monocytes and this concentration was not significantly changed by the addition of VIP to the culture media (Fig 3A and B). Similarly, and LPS both significantly (P < 0.05) increased the concentration of IL-10 produced by monocytes. However, the addition of VIP to the media in this case slightly increased IL-10 production by monocytes infected with 4/74, or cultured with LPS, after 6h but after 24h the increase was significant (P < 0.05) with 4/74 inducing much higher levels of IL-10 than that measured in the supernatants of LPS stimulated monocytes (Fig 3C and D). Since VIP had little effect on either LPS-induced TNF-α or IL-10 production after 6h, we investigated whether a dose effect of VIP could be measured at this time point. VIP did have a dose-dependent effect on LPS-stimulated production of inflammatory (TNF-α) and antiinflammatory (IL-10) cytokines. When added at concentration ranges from 10⁻⁶, 10⁻⁷ and 10⁻⁸ M, VIP increased the concentration of LPS-induced TNF-α (Fig 4B) but VIP only

significantly inhibited (P < 0.05) LPS-induced TNF- α production by monocytes when added

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at a concentration of 10⁻⁶ M (Fig 4A). We also observed a dose effect of VIP on IL-10 production but the dynamics of this were very different to those measured for TNF- α . In this case, VIP at 10⁻⁷ or 10⁻⁸ M increased IL-10 concentration in the supernatants of LPSstimulated monocytes above that measured in supernatants isolated from monocytes cultured only with LPS (Fig 4B) and at 10^{-8} M, this increase was significant (P <0.05). Finally we compared the effect of VIP on expression of cytokine receptor proteins on the surface of monocytes infected with 4/74, or cultured with LPS for 6h. Our results show that both TNFR.1 (Fig 5A) and IL-6R (Fig 5B) were increased on the surface of monocytes infected with 4/74, or cultured with LPS for 6h. VIP had no effect on this expression by Salmonella-infected monocytes but did decrease expression of both receptors on the surface of monocytes cultured with LPS (Fig 5A and B). Expression of IL-10R did not increase above isotype control levels on the surface of monocytes infected with S. Typhimurium 4/74 and this was not altered by VIP. However, LPS stimulated an increase in IL-10R expression on the surface of monocytes and this upregulation of receptor was inhibited by VIP (Fig 5C). We then investigated the effect of VIP on expression of TLR4 which is critical receptor in LPS detection and innate immune response but is involved in LPS (rather than cytokine) detection. In these experiments we found that both Salmonella infection or LPS culture upregulated TLR4 expression by monocytes and in both cases this was reduced when the cells were co-cultured with VIP (Fig 5D).

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Discussion

To date, most studies which have investigated the effect of VIP on bacterial-induced inflammatory pathways have involved LPS and either murine macrophages (19,20), murine

models of disease (11) or immortalised human THP-1 monocytes (12-14). Although LPS is a very strong immunogen it lacks the genetic complexity of intact bacteria. For example, bacteria express a number of other substances such as flagellin, CpG oligodeoxynucleotides, peptidoglycans and lipoproteins which also initiate an inflammatory response. They also utilse sophisticated secretion systems to invade and survive in cells and which encode proteins that may down-regulate host immune responses. There are very few reported studies which have investigated the effect of whole viable bacteria on human monocytes and the role of VIP in this system as a potential therapeutic in sepsis.

In this current study we show that VIP increased the viability of monocytes infected with S. Typhimurium 4/74 or exposed to LPS. The greatest effect of VIP on viability was when monocytes were infected with Salmonella, with less than half remaining viable when cultured with 4/74 for 24h, but in co-culture with VIP viability increased by >20%. VIP has previously been reported to prevent LPS-induced cell death in rat neuronal mesenteric cells (21) and our study is therefore in accordance with this. S. Typhimurium SL1344 has been previously reported to induce apoptosis in human monocyte-derived macrophages (22) and also in the human monocytic cell line, U937 (23). However, a positive correlation between increased apoptosis of blood monocytes and increased survival of sepsis patients has been previously reported (24) and elevated monocyte numbers has also been reported to correlate with sepsis (25). It is possible, therefore, that the physiological response to sepsis is to reduce some of the capacity of the immune system (monocytes) to produce inflammatory mediators by inducing apoptosis in these cells. If this is the case, then administration of VIP to patients who have Gram negative bacteraemia may have a detrimental effect. It is probably also the case that the increase in Salmonella survival associated with VIP that we have shown is due to the increased survival of monocytes. However, addition of VIP to culture media was

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associated with decreased production of inflammatory cytokines (TNFα, IL-1β and IL-6) and an increase in anti-inflammatory IL-10. Early studies have shown that TNFα, IL-1β were upregulated in the blood of volunteers in which LPS was intravenously administered (26-27). Following meta-analysis, Lv et al., (28) reported that TNFα may be a useful biomarker of neontal sepsis. Meta-analyses have also indicated that TNF-α therapy may reduce mortality if administered prior to shock and may also have therapeutic benefit in patients with high IL-6 titres (29) and that in paediatric sepsis, TNFα levels could be used as a biomarker as it strongly correlates with Gram negative culture from patients (30). This latter study may be highly relevant to ours since we show that VIP reduces TNF α production by 4/74-infected monocytes, although it would also suggest that TNFα production is a double-edged sword in that it probably is needed to kill bacteria also. As such, VIP may be a useful adjunctive therapy to antiobiotic treatment. A study by Gogos et al., (31) reported that IL-10 concentration was postively correlated with the onset of sepsis and that high IL-10/TNF- α ratio indicated a poor prognosis. High circulating levels of IL-6 and IL-10 have also been associated with mortaility in other studies (32, 25). Since we show that VIP inhibits IL-6 but increases IL-10 production by monocytes it is difficult to say what effect this may have in *vivo* and it is also possible that this could be beneficial or detrimental depending on the phase of disease (SIRS or CARS). In a study of 178 biomarkers for sepsis, it was reported that only 5 had a specificity and sensitivity > 90% (33) and none of these biomarkers were cytokines we report here. However, the cytokines we have studied are known to stimulate production of most of these biomarkers and so inhibiting cytokines during ongoing bacterial infection may have a therapeutic, down-stream, effect.

We also studied the effect of VIP on the expression of important monocyte receptors.

Surprisingly, we found that VIP was unable to suppress the increased expression of TNFR.1,

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or IL-6R on the surface of monocytes infected with 4/74 but was able to do so when monocytes were stimulated with LPS. We also show a very different response in expression of IL-10R, on the surface of monocytes, when comparing S. Typhimurium 4/74 infection with LPS culture. In this case, 4/74-infected monocytes were unable to upregulate IL-10R and this was not altered by co-culture with VIP. However, LPS increased IL-10R expression and this was decreased by co-culture with VIP. Therefore, the effect of VIP differs greatly in respect to expression of cytokine receptors depending on whether human monocytes are infected with virulent Gram negative bacteria or stimulated with LPS. This suggests that bacterial factors, other than LPS, may prevent the inhibitory effect of VIP on expression of these receptors and may indicate that administration of VIP, during sepsis, could be less effective if the patient has ongoing Gram negative infection. TLR4 activation of NFKB has long been associated with the development of sepsis (34-35) and it is perhaps significant that we show that VIP inhibits TLR4 expression in monocytes stimulated with LPS but also following infection by 4/74. Previously this effect has only been reported in human monocytic THP-1 cells stimulated with LPS from Escherichia Coli or Porphyromonas Gingivalis (14), While VIP also inhibits TLR4 mRNA (although surface protein was not measured) in murine macrophages stimulated with LPS (36). Therefore, we show that VIP inhibits the initial detection and down-stream transcriptional response to both virulent Salmonella and LPS and is most likely the reason why VIP inhibits production of the inflammatory cytokines we have measured in this study.

In conclusion our study suggests that VIP may have therapeutic value in human sepsis by inhibiting the production of inflammatory cytokines and cytokine receptors by blood monocytes during endotoxaemia, although the timing of VIP intervention (during the SIRS or CARS phase of disease) may be critical. However, we show that VIP does not down-regulate

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some important cytokine receptors when monocytes are infected with virulent Salmonella and, although it decreases the production of inflammatory cytokines by these cells, the level of cytokines still remain higher than that induced by LPS alone. Furthermore, VIP increases the viability of infected monocytes which may have an overall detrimental effect during bacteraemia/sepsis. Therefore, we suggest that VIP would probably need to be administered as an adjunctive therapy to antibiotic treatment rather than a 'stand-alone' therapy as suggested by earlier murine studies using LPS.

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430	Figure Legends		
431			
432	Figure 1. VIP increases the viability of both human monocytes and S. Typhimurium		
433	4/74 after 24h post-infection		
434	(A); FACS analysis was performed to show that VIP (10-7 M) increased monocyte survival		
435	after 24 pi with S . Typhimurium $4/74$ (MOI = 10) or following culture with Salmonella LPS		
436	(100 ng/ml) for 24h. * = significant increase ($P < 0.05$) in the numbers of viable monocytes		
437	co-cultured with VIP and S. Typhimurium or LPS. Positive control = monocytes cultured		
438	with methanol. Negative control = monocytes cultured in media only over the same time		
439	period and , as an additional control VIP (10-7M) alone was added to monocytes cultures but		
440	this had no effect on monocytes survival (data not shown). Monocytes were cultured with the		
441	fluorescent restriction dye Propidium iodide (1 $\mu g/ml$) to assess cell death.		
442	(B); Shows the number of viable S. Typhimurium 4/74 recovered from monocytes after 2-24h		
443	pi, with or without VIP (10^{-7} M). * = significant increase ($P < 0.05$) in the number of S.		
444	Typhimurium 4/74 recovered from infected monocytes co-cultured with VIP after 24h.		
445	Histograms show data of mean values calculated from triplicate experiments performed on		
446	three separate occasions. Error bars show standard deviation (SD) from the mean.		
447			
448	Figure 2. VIP inhibits the production of TNF- α and IL- β by human monocytes infected		
449	with S . Typhimurium $4/74$ but the concentration of both remain significantly higher		
450	than TNF- α and IL- β stimulated by LPS		
451	ELISA analyses showing that VIP (10^{-7} M) significantly inhibited ($P < 0.05$) TNF- α (A) and		
452	IL-1 β (C) production by human monocytes infected with S. Typhimurium 4/74 (MOI =10) at		

6 and 24h pi. VIP also significantly inhibited (P < 0.05) TNF- α (B) and IL-1 β (D) production by human monocytes following culture with LPS (100 ng/ml) for 24h. VIP significantly (P < 0.05) inhibited production of IL-6 by monocytes infected with S. Typhimurium 4/74 at 24h pi (E) but VIP inhibited IL-6 production by monocytes cultured with LPS for both 6 and 24h (F). In 4/74-infected monocytes cultured with VIP, TNF- α and IL-1 β (A and C) concentrations remain significantly higher (P < 0.05) than those measured in monocyte supernatants cultured only with LPS (B and D). Negative controls = monocytes cultured in media only over the same time periods and, as an additional control, VIP (10-7M) alone was added to monocytes cultures but this had no effect on cytokine production (data not shown). * = significant decrease (P < 0.05). Histograms show data of mean values calculated from triplicate experiments performed on three separate occasions. Error bars show standard deviation (SD) from the mean.

Figure 3. VIP has no effect on IL-4 production by human monocytes infected with S. Typhimurium 4/74 or cultured with LPS but increases production of IL-10 following

468 either treatment.

ELISA analyses showing that VIP (10^{-7} M) had no effect on IL-4 production by human monocytes infected with S. Typhimurium 4/74 (MOI =10) (A) or following culture with Salmonella LPS (100 ng/ml) (B) for 2-24h. VIP significantly increased (P < 0.05) IL-10 production by monocytes infected with S. Typhimurium 4/74 after 24h pi. (C). VIP also increased IL-10 production by monocytes cultured with LPS for 6 and 24h and after 24h this increase was significant (P < 0.05) (D). Negative controls = monocytes cultured in media only over the same time periods and, as an additional control, VIP (10-7M) alone was added to monocytes cultures but this had no effect on cytokine production (data not shown). *=

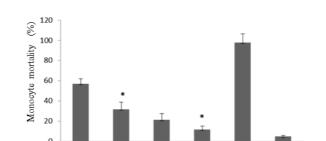
477 significant decrease (P < 0.05). Histograms show data of mean values calculated from triplicate experiments performed on three separate occasions. Error bars show standard 478 deviation (SD) from the mean. 479 480 Figure 4. VIP dose dependently changes TNF-α and IL-10 production by LPS-cultured 481 cells. 482 ((A); ELISA analyses showing that decreased TNFα production by monocytes, infected with 483 S. Typhimurium 4/74 for 6h pi, was correlated with increased VIP concentration (10⁻⁶-10⁻⁸ 484 M). * = significant decrease in TNF α (P < 0.05) compared with TNF α production by 485 monocytes cultured with LPS alone. (B); Decreased IL-10 production by monocytes infected 486 with S. Typhimurium 4/74 for 6h pi was correlated with increased VIP concentration (10^{-6} -487 10^{-8} M). * = significant increase in IL-10 (P < 0.05) compared with IL-10 production by 488 monocytes cultured with LPS alone. Negative controls = monocytes cultured in media only 489 over the same time periods and, as an additional control, VIP (10-7M) alone was added to 490 monocytes cultures but this had no effect on cytokine production (data not shown). 491 Histograms show data of mean values calculated from triplicate experiments performed on 492 493 three separate occasions. Error bars show standard deviation (SD) from the mean. 494 495

496

498	Figure 5. VIP inhibits expression of cytokine receptors on the surface of human		
499	monocytes cultured with LPS but not following infection with S. Typhimurium 4/74.		
500	FACS analyses showed that VIP (10-7 M) had no effect on the expression of TNFR.1 (A);		
501	IL-6R (C) or IL-10R (E) on the surface of human monocytes infected with S. Typhimurium		
502	4/74 (MOI =10) after 6h pi. However, VIP inhibited expression of TNFR.1 (B); IL-6R (D) or		
503	IL-10R (F) on the surface of human monocytes cultured with Salmonella LPS (100 ng/ml)		
504	after 6h pi. Conversely VIP (10-7 M) inhibited expression of TLR4 on the surface of		
505	monocytes infected with S. Typhimurium 4/74 (G) or following culture with LPS (H) for 6h.		
506	= Isotype control; = Monocytes cultured with <i>S</i> . Typhimurium 4/74 or LPS;		
507	■ ■ ■ ■ ■ ■ ■ ■ ■ ■ ■ ■ ■ ■ ■ ■ ■ ■ ■		
508	are representative of data obtained from triplicate experiments performed on three separate		
509	occasions.		
510			
511	Table 1. The concentration of antibodies and isotype controls used in cytokine receptor		
512	FACS analyses.		
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Figure 1 Askar et al

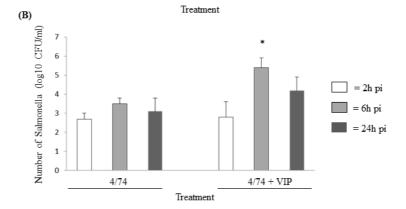
(A)



LPS

4/74 + VIP

4/74



LPS +

VIP

Negative control

Positive

control

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523524

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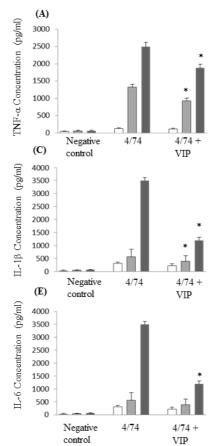
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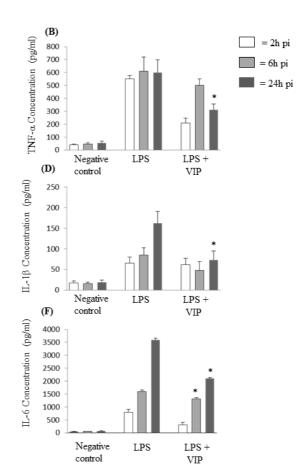
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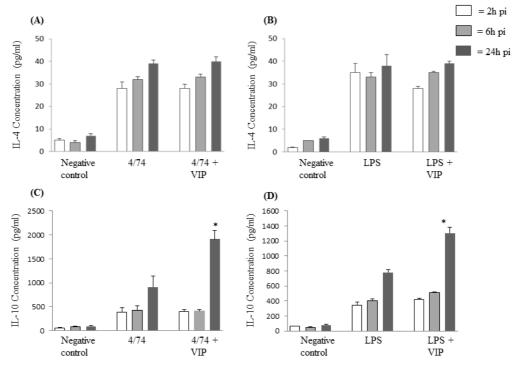
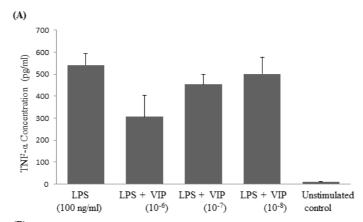
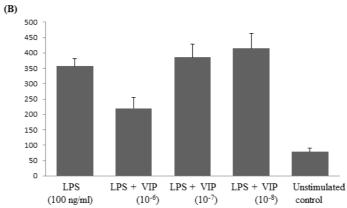
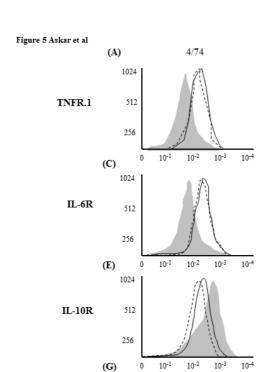


Figure 4 Askar et al



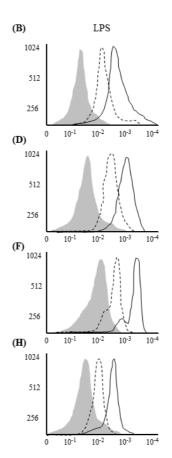




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10-2

TLR4



Antibodies	Concentration	Isotype control antibodies
Mouse anti-human TFN-R clone H398. FITC.	0.5 µg	Anti-Mouse IgG2b.FITC.
Rat anti-human CD210 (IL-10R) PE.	0.5 μg	Anti-rat IgG2a. PE.
Mouse anti-human CD126 /IL-6 receptor alpha. PerCP.	0.06 µg (5µl)	Anti-mouse IgG1.PerCP.
Human Trustain FcX (FcReceptor Blocking solution.	0.5 µg	N/A.
Mouse anti-human TLR4.FITC	0.5 µg	Anti-Mouse IgG1.FITC

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