

The Interleukin-1 Axis and Cutaneous Inflammation

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Since the discovery that epidermal cell-derived thymocyte-activating factor was identical to interleukin (IL)-1 α and - β in 1986, these molecules have been implicated in the pathogenesis of skin diseases. In 1995, it has become clear that a group of gene products function to regulate the activity of IL-1. IL-1 α and mature 17-kD IL-1 β (cleaved from precursor by IL-1 β -converting enzyme) bind to the type 1 IL-1 receptor to transduce a signal. This process can be antagonized at the level of the receptor by two distinct forms of the IL-1 receptor antagonist, which bind to the type I receptor but do not transduce a

signal. The process can also be antagonized at the level of the ligand by either cell-bound or soluble type 2 IL-1 receptor. This type 2 IL-1 receptor binds ligand but does not transduce a signal. Keratinocytes can make each of these variables *in vitro*, and the balance between agonists and antagonists dictates the biologic outcome of a putative IL-1-mediated event. Transgenic mice that overexpress each of these factors individually in epidermis will be useful for enhancing our understanding of the cutaneous biology of IL-1. *J Invest Dermatol* 105:62S-66S, 1995

Interleukin (IL)-1 is a pleiotropic proinflammatory cytokine that was defined as a "primary" cytokine based upon the prediction that its release, as an isolated event, would be sufficient to induce inflammation. In the past several years, it has become clear that there are multiple ligands for IL-1 receptors, some of which are agonists and others of which are antagonists. In addition, a non-signal-transducing receptor that efficiently binds IL-1 agonists has been identified (Table I). These multiple molecules form the IL-1 family of agonists and antagonists. Much of this report will detail the *in vitro* and *in vivo* regulation of IL-1 family members that are believed to influence the outcome of a putative IL-1-mediated event. For the purposes of this discussion, an IL-1-mediated event is defined as a consequence of the interaction of an active IL-1 species (defined below) with its signal-transducing (type I) receptor. Before these issues are analyzed in detail, it is instructive to discuss precisely how IL-1 so efficiently localizes inflammation. The putative sequence of events following the release of keratinocyte IL-1 into the epidermis and dermis has been discussed in detail previously and is outlined below.

IL-1 is a potent inducer of endothelial adhesion-molecule expression [1-4], leading to endothelial cell surface expression of P-selectin, E-selectin, intercellular adhesion molecule-1 (ICAM-1), and vascular cell adhesion molecule 1 (VCAM-1). The *de novo* expression of endothelial selectins, and their interaction with counter-receptors on leukocytes, are now accepted as important initial requirements for leukocyte extravasation [5]. Several groups have now demonstrated that neutrophils and myelomonocytic cell lines can bind and roll on monolayers of selectin-expressing endothelial cells at flow rates that approximate flow through post-capillary venules [6]. Very recently, we have demonstrated that T cells can roll on endothelial selectins [7]. Whether T cells (or other cells expressing very late activation antigen 4 [VLA-4]) can

bypass the requirement for selectins is unclear, as recent reports have suggested that certain integrin/CAM interactions may be sufficient for initial selectin-independent tethering interactions [8]. This process would, however, involve VLA-4/VCAM-1 interactions and thus is still influenced by IL-1.

The attachment and rolling under conditions of flow are required for subsequent events leading to extravasation [5]. The first of these events involves activation of the leukocyte, which is achieved *via* the interaction of chemokines produced locally in tissue with their receptors on leukocytes. These chemokines (e.g., monocyte chemoattractant factor 1 [MCP-1], IL-8, gro- α ; reviewed in [9]), all of which are induced by IL-1 *in vitro*, can both activate the leukocyte at the vessel wall [5] and provide a chemotactic gradient such that when the leukocyte extravasates, it will be guided toward the original site of injury (i.e., the original site of IL-1 release). It now appears that chemokines bind avidly to glycosaminoglycans [5,10], such that immobilized chemokines can decorate the luminal aspect of the endothelium in a perfect position to activate leukocytes rolling on endothelial selectins. The gradient formed in the dermis can be fixed in place *in situ* by virtue of chemokine binding to dermal glycosaminoglycans, and this gradient can persist in the absence of continued chemokine production by injured cells.

After the leukocyte has slowed to a roll on endothelial selectins and has been activated by locally produced chemokines, it will bind *via* VLA-4 or leukocyte-function associated antigen-1 (depending on cell type and circumstances) to endothelial VCAM-1 and ICAM-1 or -2, respectively [5]. The cytoplasmic domains of these integrins are linked to the actin cytoskeleton of the leukocyte [11], and in response to chemokine-mediated gradients, the leukocyte will insinuate itself between endothelial cells, cross the endothelial basement membrane, and emerge into the dermis on the abluminal side of the vessel. Given that IL-1 can orchestrate these events, it would appear potentially dangerous for nature to place constitutively high levels of IL-1 α in the epidermis at all times. Recent advances in understanding the regulation of IL-1 activity underscore that this is one of the most highly regulated cytokine systems known (Fig 1).

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Table I. Agonists and Antagonists of IL-1-Mediated Biologic Events

Agonists	Antagonists
IL-1 α (17 kD, 31 kD) IL-1 β (17 kD)	IL-1 receptor antagonist Intracellular (icIL-1ra) Secreted (sIL-1ra)
IL-1 receptor (type 1)	IL-1 receptor (type 2) Cell surface Soluble

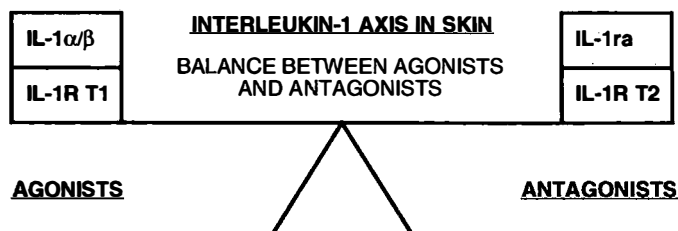
BIOLOGIC FORMS OF IL-1

IL-1 α and - β are both transcribed from genes on chromosome 2 in man and in mouse [12,13] and are translated as 31-kD proteins lacking a leader sequence and signal peptide [14,15]. It appears that they are not glycosylated (clearly they do not enter the Golgi complex or the rough endoplasmic reticulum; see [15,16]), and post-translational modification appears to consist largely of myristoylation for IL-1 α [17] and proteolytic cleavage with subsequent activation for IL-1 β [18,19]. Although both 31-kD and processed 17-kD IL-1 α bind to the IL-1 receptor 1 (IL-1R1) and transduce signal [20], only 17-kD (and not 31-kD) IL-1 β binds and transduces a signal [20]. The proteolytic cleavage of IL-1 β is cell-type specific [19,21]; monocytes contain an enzyme (IL-1 β -converting enzyme) that cleaves 31-kD IL-1 β to form an N-terminal Ala-117 IL-1 β [21]. Although keratinocytes do not contain this enzyme activity and thus cannot process 31-kD IL-1 intracellularly [22], release of 31-kD IL-1 β into a milieu containing proteases with chymotryptic specificities (e.g., mast cell chymase or cathepsin G) leads to generation of an active N-terminal Val-114 species of IL-1 β [22].

The precise mechanism of release of IL-1 from cells remains enigmatic and has been incompletely explained [16,23]. Like basic fibroblast growth factor, IL-1 is released most completely from cells that are physically disrupted. However, there is growing evidence for the existence of alternative secretion mechanisms for molecules like IL-1 α , IL-1 β , and basic fibroblast growth factor that lack a signal peptide [24-26]. These are phylogenetically ancient transport pathways, and homologues of the pathways can be found in bacteria. Thus, the hypothesis that IL-1 will only exit cells as a result of cell death may no longer be tenable [12-14]. Under certain circumstances, IL-1 α may be localized to the cell membrane by protein myristoylation [17,27], although whether the membrane-associated product is oriented in such a way that it can interact with the IL-1R1 on adjacent cells is speculative. Cells that contain the IL-1 β -converting enzyme (e.g., monocytes) appear to be able to release the 17-kD form of IL-1 β readily, although the precise transport mechanism has not been identified [16]. A recent report suggested that cells undergoing apoptosis acquire the capacity to release IL-1 more efficiently before cell death [28]. The precise transport pathway that permits IL-1 "secretion" from cells is the subject of intensive study, but there is no longer serious doubt that such a pathway exists [23].

THE IL-1 RECEPTOR ANTAGONIST (IL-1ra)

A unique molecule first cloned and characterized in 1990 functions as a pure antagonist of biologically active IL-1 [29,30]. The IL-1ra gene resides near genes encoding for IL-1 α and - β on chromosome 2 in man [31] and bears certain homology to these molecules. However, the IL-1ra binds to the IL-1R1 nearly irreversibly without triggering signal transduction [32,33], thus temporarily removing the bound receptor from subsequent participation in IL-1-mediated signal transduction. The form of the IL-1ra first described was a product of monocytes [34], and it is the only ligand for the IL-1R1 that can be efficiently secreted from cells. This secreted IL-1ra, or sIL-1ra, contains a leader sequence and signal peptide, is post-translationally modified in the Golgi complex, and is released by cells through a classic secretion pathway [34,35]. It does not require post-translational proteolytic modification to

**Figure 1. Interleukin 1 axis in skin.**

acquire binding activity [31]. This is the only "cytokine" known to function as a pure antagonist without any identifiable partial agonist function [31].

After the discovery of the sIL-1ra, it was noted that keratinocytes and other epithelial cells contained an 18-kD intracellular IL-1 inhibitory activity that was not efficiently secreted [36,37]. This activity was later identified as an alternatively spliced product of the same IL-1ra gene that generates sIL-1ra [37]. Called intracellular IL-1ra, the 5' end of mature mRNA from this species arises from the 3' end of exon 1, several kilobase pairs upstream from the exon 2 start site of sIL-1ra [38]. This alternative splicing of the parent transcript ultimately generates a protein that contains an additional seven N-terminal amino acids and lacks the signal peptide and leader sequence intrinsic to sIL-1ra [37]. Thus, this 18-kD molecule resembles IL-1 α and - β in that it resides in a cell-associated compartment, lacks a leader sequence and signal peptide, and cannot be secreted by conventional pathways. In addition, it is not glycosylated or otherwise post-translationally modified [38]. It is likely to be released by the same nonclassic transport pathway as IL-1 α and - β [16,23].

The presence of both IL-1 α and the intracellular IL-1ra inside keratinocytes seems to represent a paradox; after all, when a keratinocyte is either induced to secrete or is lysed, it releases both agonist and antagonist, and the biologic consequences are unpredictable. Indeed, the wisdom of this arrangement remains elusive. However, the very fact that epidermal cell-derived thymocyte-activating factor/IL-1 activity was discovered at all in keratinocyte cultures, where antagonist is more abundant than agonist, and the multiple demonstrations that epidermis contains measurable bioactive IL-1 α , indicate that regardless of the outcomes predicted by molar ratios, the agonist effect of IL-1 clearly dominates. In some systems, the ratio of antagonist to agonist (or IL-1/IL-1ra) must be greater than 100:1 for complete blockade of IL-1-inducible events [39], but partial inhibition is seen at lower ratios [39,40]. It is likely that although biologically available quantities of the IL-1ra may be insufficient to block completely IL-1-inducible events *in vivo*, the presence of IL-1 and IL-1ra may modify the strength of IL-1-inducible responses. There is no doubt, however, that pharmacologic doses of the IL-1ra can strongly inhibit IL-1 activity [41,42], and it is difficult to imagine that the physiologic role of IL-1ra does not involve homeostasis of the IL-1 axis [39,43].

THE IL-1 RECEPTORS

The IL-1R1 is the sole known signal-transducing receptor for IL-1 [44,45]. It is a variably glycosylated 80-kD molecule with a cytoplasmic domain of 215 amino acids [44]. It appears that all cells that respond to IL-1 express the IL-1R1, based on blocking experiments performed with neutralizing IL-1R1 and IL-1R2 antibodies [44-46]. The mechanism of IL-1-mediated signaling is currently the subject of intense study.

In general, ligand activation of receptors is assumed to occur either by induced receptor aggregation or by ligand-binding-related conformational changes transmitted by the extracellular and transmembrane parts of the receptor to the cytoplasmic domain. A considerable body of evidence suggests that IL-1-induced signal transduction occurs by the second mechanism. Cross-linking experiments have not demonstrated receptor aggregation such as that

seen with epidermal growth factor or platelet-derived growth factor receptors in similar studies [47,48]. Furthermore, anti-IL-1R1 antibodies showed no capacity to induce responses in cells sensitive to IL-1. Finally, as few as one to 10 IL-1 molecules bound per cell are required to trigger signaling [49–51], an unusually efficient mechanism that would be unlikely to result from aggregation of widely spaced receptors. The structure of the receptor itself [46,52,53] gives little clue as to the mechanism of action. For example, the cytoplasmic domain bears no resemblance to known protein kinases [54], and immunoprecipitated receptor shows no protein kinase activity [55]. Transfection experiments have demonstrated that the cytoplasmic domain is required for receptor function [56], and the IL-1R2, which has a truncated cytoplasmic domain, does not transduce a signal. A variety of signaling pathways have been implicated in the IL-1 response, including arachidonic acid [57–61], protein kinase C [62,63], cyclic adenosine monophosphate [64,65], and ceramide [66], but in many cases the evidence is conflicting.

Very recent data have suggested that the IL-1R1 activates a novel protein kinase cascade that results in the phosphorylation of a variety of proteins, including the 27-kD heat shock protein HSP27 [67–69]. The mechanism underlying this has now been studied in some detail, and it is apparent that three enzymes of MW 35, 40, and 50 kD are sequentially phosphorylated; the latter two have been purified to near homogeneity. The system closely resembles, but is molecularly distinct from, the microtubule assembly protein kinase cascade [70], and the amplification that likely results from sequential activation of these kinases is likely to contribute to the exquisite sensitivity of the IL-1 response.

The IL-1R2 encodes a 68-kD molecule that was initially cloned and characterized on B cells and hematopoietic cells [71–74]. It binds to IL-1 β but does not appear to transduce a signal [44,45]. It is now clear that this receptor is much more widely distributed and is present on epithelial cells, including keratinocytes [75,76]. The most revealing feature of this receptor is its short cytoplasmic tail (29 amino acids) and the lack of any evidence that it transduces a signal [44,45]. Unlike the IL-1R1, which cannot be regulated efficiently [75–77], the IL-1R2 can be regulated dramatically by various stimuli [78,79]. Its function appears to be to antagonize the biologic effects of IL-1. Of note, it can be shed very efficiently from cells including keratinocytes [76,80]. Intuitively, it would seem that this shed receptor would be significantly inhibitory to IL-1-mediated responses. Additional evidence supporting this notion derives from observations that vaccinia and cowpox viruses produce factors homologous to the IL-1R2 [81,82]. These soluble receptor-like molecules effectively bind to human IL-1 β and inhibit IL-1-mediated inflammation [82]. It was proposed that viruses have exploited this product to reduce host defenses after their initial infection, thus favoring establishment [82].

Although much work has been done on the regulation of ¹²⁵I-IL-1 ligand binding to cells, including keratinocytes, many of these studies were performed before it became clear that there were two distinct IL-1 receptors, and the vast majority were not interpreted against the background of recent evidence that IL-1R2s are nonfunctional [44,45,83–85]. It is clear from multiple experiments, however, that enhanced expression of IL-1R1 can lead to increased sensitivity to extracellular IL-1 [86,87]. One study in particular indicated that transfection of IL-1R1 into cells deficient in this receptor rendered them responsive to quantities of IL-1 three orders of magnitude lower than quantities of IL-1 to which the wild-type cells responded [86]. Many cells in which large increases of IL-1R were demonstrated after stimuli showed up-regulation of IL-1R2s, or at least a combination of IL-1R1 and IL-1R2 [75,76]. One exception is the illustration that platelet-derived growth factor can up-regulate IL-1R levels fivefold on fibroblasts [87]; these cells probably do not express IL-1R2s [88,89] and thus this variation can be reliably attributed to IL-1R1. Very recently, cloning and analysis of the promoter region of the IL-1R1 were accomplished [77]. Surprisingly, the promoter resembled that of a number of so-called "housekeeping" genes, suggesting that regulation of this receptor is

likely to be limited. Indeed, we have found that stimuli that up-regulate specific ¹²⁵I-IL-1 binding to human keratinocytes change IL-1R2 expression dramatically and IL-1R1 expression less so [76]. It appears that much more energy is spent preventing responses to IL-1 at the level of the receptor than allowing them to occur more efficiently. Thus, antagonists of IL-1 and non-signal-transducing receptors (IL-1R2) are both produced most abundantly by cells that also produce IL-1 [91].

A primary function of IL-1R2s is to be shed from cells to serve as a soluble scavenger of active IL-1 as well as pro-IL-1 β molecules [76,80,82]. It is not difficult to understand the relevance of this factor to the epidermal microenvironment [2,90]. It would seem intuitively correct that, if cell surface IL-1R1 remained constant, concurrent high-level expression of IL-1R2 on the same cells would make them less sensitive to activation by a constant level of extracellular IL-1. Preliminary studies have shown that antibodies that block IL-1R2 binding do enhance the responsiveness of keratinocytes to IL-1. A working hypothesis, then, is that whether shed or retained on the cell surface, IL-1R2s have a generally inhibitory activity.

Since the discovery of keratinocyte-derived IL-1 [91,92], hypotheses about the role of IL-1 in skin disease have abounded. Increased or decreased levels of different members of the IL-1 axis have been reported in cutaneous T-cell lymphoma [93], contact hypersensitivity [94,95], acne vulgaris [96], scleroderma [97], human immunodeficiency virus-1-associated skin diseases [98], graft versus host disease [99,100], Kawasaki disease [101], melanoma [102], epidermal carcinogenesis [103,104], and psoriasis vulgaris [75,105–107]. It is important to stress that these studies report correlations between levels of individual IL-1 family molecules and clinical/histopathologic diagnoses. The relation of IL-1 and related molecules (or other cytokines, for that matter) to the pathogenesis of any of these diseases remains hypothetical.

TESTING THE PRIMARY CYTOKINE HYPOTHESIS USING TRANSGENIC MICE

The advantages of using transgenic mice to prove hypotheses about the authentic role of proinflammatory molecules in skin are substantial. Using promoters that direct the expression of transgenes in a tissue-specific fashion, it is possible to overexpress individual molecules in particular tissues. A series of transgenic mice from our laboratories have been made using the keratin-14 promoter. These studies have shown that expression of adhesion molecules such as ICAM-1 [108] or costimulatory molecules such as B7-1 [109] are not sufficient to induce inflammation. Similarly, overexpression of the chemokines MCP-1 and gro- α in basal epidermis does not provoke spontaneous inflammation [110], though such chemokines can alter the course of elicited inflammation in a predictable fashion. However, transgenic mice that overexpress the primary cytokines IL-1 α and tumor necrosis factor- α in basal epidermis do develop inflammation and skin disease, thus providing *in vivo* proof that primary cytokines are sufficient to induce inflammation. A series of additional transgenic mice have been constructed that overexpress each member of the IL-1 axis in basal epidermis. We predict that mice that overexpress the IL-1 α and the IL-1R2 in basal epidermis will resist IL-1-mediated inflammation, whereas mice that overexpress the IL-1R1 will be more sensitive to IL-1. Although preliminary results suggest that these predictions are correct, these transgenic lines must be analyzed much more extensively before definitive statements can be made about IL-1 family members in the epidermis.

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