

# I $\kappa$ BNS Inhibits Induction of a Subset of Toll-like Receptor-Dependent Genes and Limits Inflammation

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## Summary

Toll-like receptor (TLR)-mediated immune responses are downregulated by several mechanisms that affect signaling pathways. However, it remains elusive how TLR-mediated gene expression is differentially modulated. Here, we show that I $\kappa$ BNS, a TLR-inducible nuclear I $\kappa$ B protein, negatively regulates induction of a subset of TLR-dependent genes through inhibition of NF- $\kappa$ B activity. I $\kappa$ BNS-deficient macrophages and dendritic cells show increased TLR-mediated expression of genes such as IL-6 and IL-12p40, which are induced late after TLR stimulation. In contrast, I $\kappa$ BNS-deficient cells showed normal induction of genes that are induced early or induced via IRF-3 activation. LPS stimulation of I $\kappa$ BNS-deficient macrophages prolonged NF- $\kappa$ B activity at the specific promoters, indicating that I $\kappa$ BNS mediates termination of NF- $\kappa$ B activity at selective gene promoters. Moreover, I $\kappa$ BNS-deficient mice are highly susceptible to LPS-induced endotoxin shock and intestinal inflammation. Thus, I $\kappa$ BNS regulates inflammatory responses by inhibiting the induction of a subset of TLR-dependent genes through modulation of NF- $\kappa$ B activity.

## Introduction

Toll-like receptors (TLRs) are implicated in the recognition of specific patterns of microbial components and subsequent induction of gene expression. TLR-dependent gene expression is induced through activation of two distinct signaling pathways mediated by the Toll/IL-1 receptor (TIR) domain-containing adaptors MyD88 and TRIF. These signaling pathways finally culminate in the activation of several transcription factors, such as NF- $\kappa$ B and IRF families (Akira and Takeda, 2004). The MyD88-dependent gene induction is achieved by an early phase of NF- $\kappa$ B and IRF-5 activation in macrophages (Kawai et al., 1999; Takaoka

et al., 2005). The TRIF-dependent gene induction is mainly regulated by IRF-3 (Sakaguchi et al., 2003; Yamamoto et al., 2003).

TLR-mediated gene expression regulates activation of not only innate immunity but also adaptive immunity, which provides antigen-specific responses against harmful pathogens (Iwasaki and Medzhitov, 2004; Pasare and Medzhitov, 2004). However, TLR-mediated activation of innate immunity, when in excess, triggers development of autoimmune disorders and inflammatory diseases, such as SLE, cardiomyopathy, atherosclerosis, diabetes mellitus, and inflammatory bowel diseases (Bjorkbacka et al., 2004; Eriksson et al., 2003; Kobayashi et al., 2003; Lang et al., 2005; Leadbetter et al., 2002; Michelsen et al., 2004). Excessive activation of TLR4 by LPS induces endotoxin shock, a serious systemic disorder with a high mortality rate. Therefore, TLR-dependent innate immune responses must be finely regulated, and underlying mechanisms are now being examined extensively (Liew et al., 2005). Several negative regulators of TLR-mediated signaling pathways have been proposed. Cytoplasmic molecules, such as an alternatively spliced short form of MyD88 (MyD88s), IRAK-M, SOCS1, A20, PI3-kinase, and TRIAD3A, are all involved in negative regulation of TLR pathways (Boone et al., 2004; Burns et al., 2003; Chuang and Ulevitch, 2004; Fukao et al., 2002; Kinjyo et al., 2002; Kobayashi et al., 2002; Nakagawa et al., 2002). Membrane bound SIGIRR, ST2, TRAILR, and RP105 are also implicated in these processes (Brint et al., 2004; Diehl et al., 2004; Divanovic et al., 2005; Wald et al., 2003).

TLR-dependent gene induction is also regulated by nuclear I $\kappa$ B proteins, such as I $\kappa$ B $\zeta$ , Bcl-3, and I $\kappa$ BNS. I $\kappa$ B $\zeta$  is indispensable for positive regulation of a subset of TLR-dependent genes, such as IL-6 and IL-12p40 (Yamamoto et al., 2004). In contrast, Bcl-3 and I $\kappa$ BNS seem to be involved in negative regulation of TLR-dependent gene induction. Bcl-3 was shown to be involved in selective inhibition of TLR-dependent TNF- $\alpha$  production (Kuwata et al., 2003; Wessells et al., 2004). An in vitro study indicated that I $\kappa$ BNS is induced by IL-10 or LPS and selectively inhibits IL-6 production in macrophages (Hirotsu et al., 2005). Thus, nuclear I $\kappa$ B proteins differentially regulate TLR-dependent gene expression. However, the physiological role of I $\kappa$ BNS is still unclear.

In this study, we analyzed TLR-dependent inflammatory responses in I $\kappa$ BNS-deficient mice. We found that I $\kappa$ BNS is involved in selective inhibition of a subset of MyD88-dependent genes, including IL-6, IL-12p40, and IL-18. In I $\kappa$ BNS-deficient macrophages, LPS-induced activation of NF- $\kappa$ B was prolonged. Accordingly, I $\kappa$ BNS-deficient mice showed increased production of these cytokines accompanied by high sensitivity to LPS-induced endotoxin shock. Furthermore, I $\kappa$ BNS-deficient mice were highly susceptible to intestinal inflammation caused by disruption of the epithelial barrier. These findings indicate that I $\kappa$ BNS inhibits the induction of a group of TLR-dependent genes, thereby preventing excessive inflammation.

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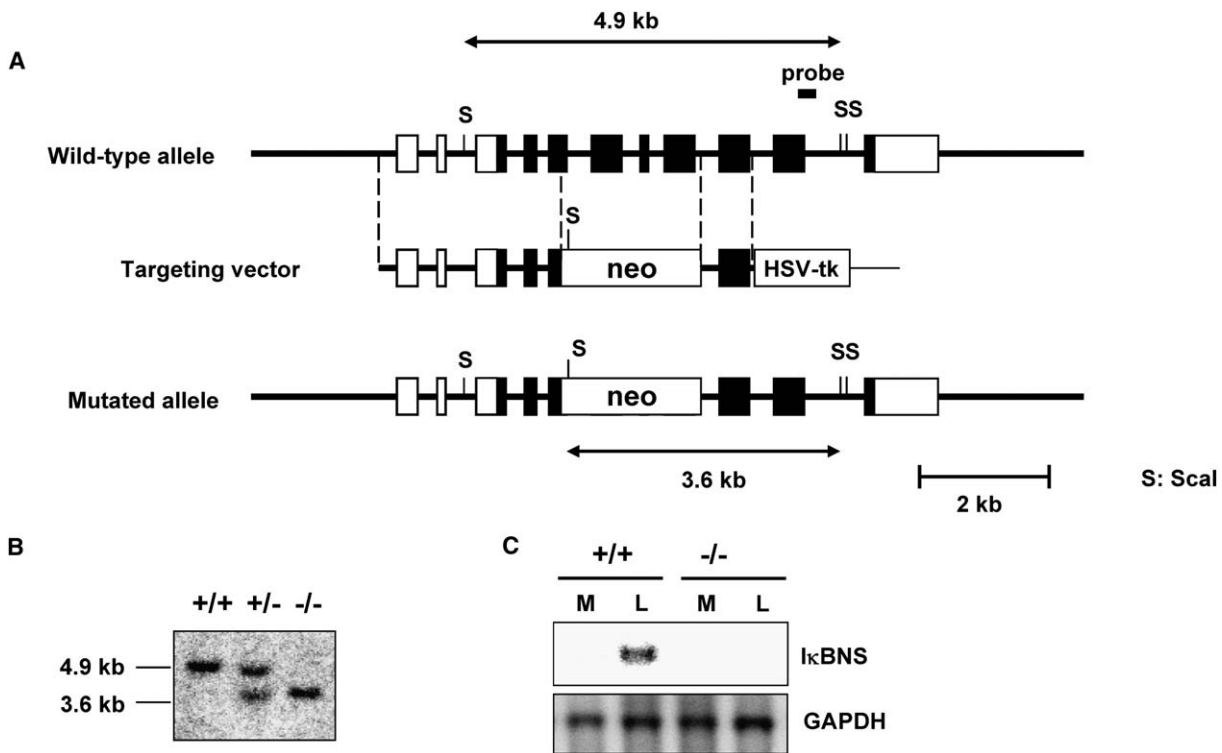


Figure 1. Targeted Disruption of the Mouse *Iκbns* Gene

(A) Maps of the  $I\kappa BNS$  wild-type genome, targeting vector, and predicted targeted gene. Open and closed boxes denote the noncoding and coding exons, respectively. Restriction enzymes: S, *Scal*.

(B) Southern blot analysis of offspring from the heterozygote intercrosses. Genomic DNA was extracted from mouse tails, digested with *Scal*, electrophoresed, and hybridized with the probe indicated in (A). The approximate size of the wild-type band is 4.9 kb, and the mutated band is 3.6 kb.

(C) Peritoneal macrophages were cultured with or without 100 ng/ml LPS for 1 hr (L and M, respectively), and total RNA was extracted, electrophoresed, transferred to nylon membrane, and hybridized with the mouse  $I\kappa BNS$  full-length cDNA probe. The same membrane was rehybridized with a GAPDH probe.

## Results

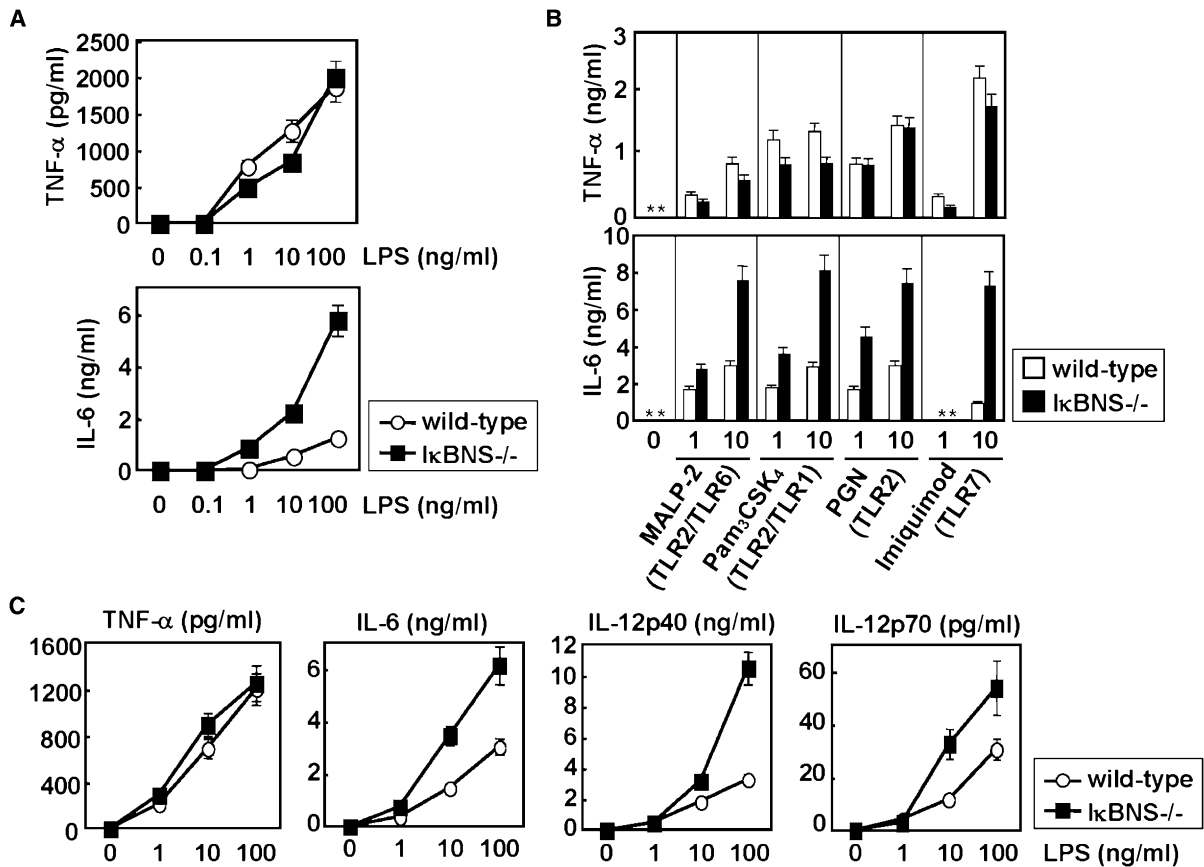
### Targeted Disruption of the $I\kappa BNS$ Gene

To study the functional role of  $I\kappa BNS$  in TLR-dependent responses, a null mutation in the *Iκbns* allele was introduced through homologous recombination in embryonic stem (ES) cells (Figures 1A and 1B).  $I\kappa BNS^{-/-}$  mice were born alive and grew healthy until 20 weeks of age. We performed Northern blot analysis to confirm that the mutation causes inactivation of the *Iκbns* gene. LPS robustly induced  $I\kappa BNS$  mRNA in wild-type macrophages, but not in  $I\kappa BNS^{-/-}$  macrophages (Figure 1C).

A previous report indicated that  $I\kappa BNS$  is involved in negative selection of thymocytes (Fiorini et al., 2002). Therefore, we first analyzed lymphocyte composition in lymphoid organs such as thymus and spleen by flow cytometry (Figures S1A and S1B). Total cell number and CD4/CD8 or CD3/B220 populations in thymus and spleen were not altered in  $I\kappa BNS^{-/-}$  mice. Splenic T cells from  $I\kappa BNS^{-/-}$  mice showed similar levels of proliferative responses to IL-2 and IL-7 as did wild-type T cells. Moreover,  $I\kappa BNS^{-/-}$  T cells proliferated to almost equal degrees in response to anti-CD3 antibody compared to wild-type T cells (Figure S1C). These results indicate that T cell development and functions were generally unaffected in  $I\kappa BNS^{-/-}$  mice.

### Increased IL-6 and IL-12p40 Production in $I\kappa BNS$ -Deficient Cells

Since  $I\kappa BNS$  expression was induced within 1 hr of LPS stimulation in macrophages (Figure 1B), we stimulated peritoneal macrophages with various concentrations of LPS and analyzed for production of TNF- $\alpha$  and IL-6 (Figure 2A). In macrophages from  $I\kappa BNS^{-/-}$  mice, LPS-induced TNF- $\alpha$  production was comparable to wild-type cells, but IL-6 production was significantly increased. We then analyzed whether  $I\kappa BNS^{-/-}$  macrophages produce increased amounts of IL-6 in response to other TLR ligands, since  $I\kappa BNS$  mRNA was induced by several TLR ligands as well as the TLR4 ligand LPS in a MyD88-dependent manner (Figure S2A). Peritoneal macrophages were stimulated with mycoplasma lipopeptides (TLR6 ligand), Pam<sub>3</sub>CSK<sub>4</sub> (TLR1 ligand), peptidoglycan (TLR2 ligand), and imiquimod (TLR7 ligand), and analyzed for production of TNF- $\alpha$  and IL-6 (Figure 2B). In response to these TLR ligands, the production of IL-6, but not TNF- $\alpha$ , was increased in  $I\kappa BNS^{-/-}$  mice. We next analyzed the response of bone marrow-derived dendritic cells (DCs). DCs from  $I\kappa BNS^{-/-}$  mice produced similar amounts of TNF- $\alpha$  and increased amounts of IL-6 in response to LPS compared to wild-type DCs (Figure 2C). In addition, DCs showed LPS-induced production of IL-12p40 and IL-12p70, and production of these



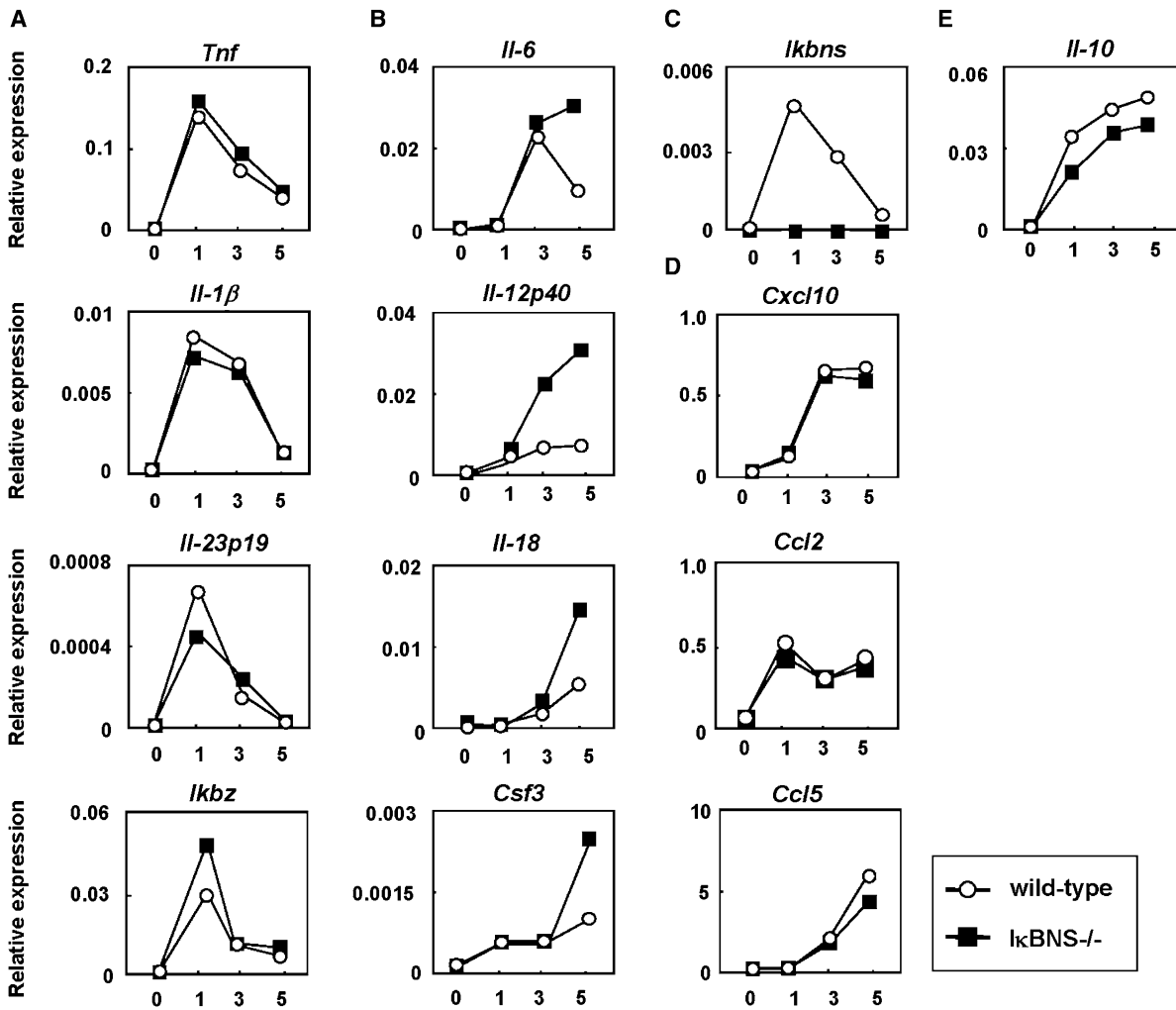
**Figure 2. Increased Production of IL-6 and IL-12p40 in I $\kappa$ BNS $^{-/-}$  Macrophages and Dendritic Cells**  
 (A) Peritoneal macrophages were stimulated with the indicated concentration of LPS for 24 hr. Concentrations of TNF- $\alpha$  and IL-6 in the culture supernatants were analyzed by ELISA. Data are mean  $\pm$  SD of triplicate cultures in a single experiment, representative of three independent experiments.  
 (B) Peritoneal macrophages were cultured with 1 or 10 ng/ml of TLR6 ligand (MALP-2), 1 or 10 ng/ml TLR1 ligand (Pam<sub>3</sub>CSK<sub>4</sub>), 1 or 10  $\mu$ g/ml TLR2 ligand (peptidoglycan; PGN), or 1 or 10  $\mu$ g/ml TLR7 ligand (imiquimod) for 24 hr. Concentrations of TNF- $\alpha$  and IL-6 in the culture supernatants were analyzed by ELISA. \*; not detected.  
 (C) Bone marrow-derived DCs were stimulated with the indicated concentration of LPS for 24 hr. Concentrations of TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-6, IL-12p40, and IL-12p70 in the culture supernatants were analyzed by ELISA. Data are mean  $\pm$  SD of triplicate cultures in a single experiment, representative of three independent experiments.

cytokines was significantly increased in I $\kappa$ BNS $^{-/-}$  DCs. Bone marrow-derived DCs and splenic B cells were analyzed for LPS-induced surface expression of CD86 or MHC class II (Figure S2B). LPS-induced augmentation of surface expression of these molecules was not altered in I $\kappa$ BNS $^{-/-}$  mice. Thus, macrophages and DCs from I $\kappa$ BNS $^{-/-}$  mice showed selective increases in TLR-dependent production of IL-6 and IL-12p40.

#### Enhanced Induction of a Subset of TLR-Dependent Genes in I $\kappa$ BNS-Deficient Macrophages

We further analyzed LPS-induced mRNA expression of TLR-dependent genes in I $\kappa$ BNS $^{-/-}$  macrophages. Peritoneal macrophages were stimulated with LPS for 1, 3, or 5 hr, and total RNA was extracted. Then, mRNA expression of TNF- $\alpha$  and IL-6 was first analyzed by quantitative real-time RT-PCR (Figures 3A and 3B). LPS-induced TNF- $\alpha$  mRNA expression in I $\kappa$ BNS $^{-/-}$  macrophages was similar to wild-type cells. In the case of IL-6 mRNA, expression levels were comparable between wild-type and I $\kappa$ BNS $^{-/-}$  macrophages until 3 hr of LPS stimulation. After 3 hr, IL-6 mRNA levels de-

creased in wild-type cells. However, I $\kappa$ BNS $^{-/-}$  cells displayed further enhanced expression of IL-6 mRNA. TNF- $\alpha$  mRNA was robustly induced within 1 hr of LPS stimulation, and its expression promptly ceased in wild-type cells. In contrast, IL-6 mRNA expression was induced late compared to TNF- $\alpha$ . Because LPS-induced I $\kappa$ BNS mRNA expression showed similar patterns as TNF- $\alpha$  mRNA, we hypothesized that LPS-inducible I $\kappa$ BNS blocks mRNA expression of genes that are induced late (Figure 3C). Accordingly, we analyzed mRNA expression of other genes that are induced early (*Il-1 $\beta$* , *Il-23p19*, or *Ikbz*) or late (*Il-12p40*, *Il-18*, or *Csf3*) in response to LPS. LPS-induced mRNA expression of *Il-1 $\beta$*  (*Il-1 $\beta$* ), *Il-23p19* (*Il-23p19*), and *Ikbz* (*I $\kappa$ B $\zeta$* ) was similarly observed between wild-type and I $\kappa$ BNS $^{-/-}$  macrophages (Figure 3A). LPS-induced expression of *Il-12p40* (*Il-12p40*), *Il-18* (*Il-18*) and *Csf3* (*G-CSF*) was observed at normal levels in I $\kappa$ BNS $^{-/-}$  macrophages at the early phase of LPS stimulation (within 3 hr of LPS stimulation) (Figure 3B). However, at the late phase of LPS stimulation (after 3 hr of LPS stimulation), mRNA expression of these genes was significantly enhanced in

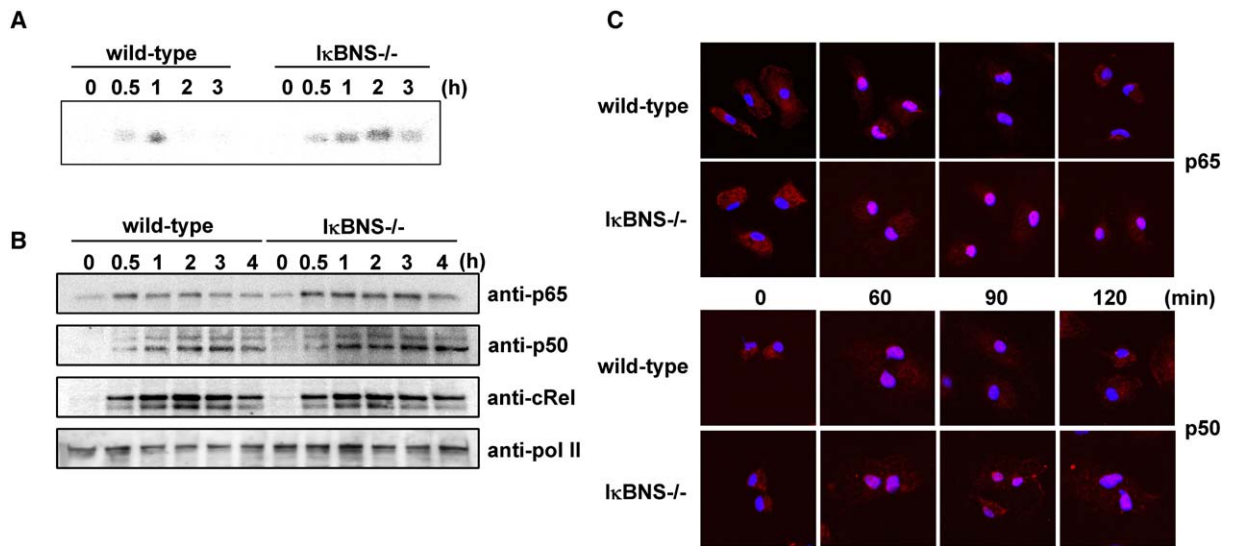


**Figure 3. LPS-Induced Expression of Several TLR-Dependent Genes in  $I\kappa BNS^{-/-}$  Macrophages**  
 Peritoneal macrophages from wild-type and  $I\kappa BNS^{-/-}$  mice were stimulated with 100 ng/ml LPS for the indicated periods. Total RNA was extracted, and then subjected to quantitative real-time RT-PCR analysis using primers specific for *Tnf*, *Il-1 $\beta$* , *Il-23p19*, *Ikbz* (A), *Il-6*, *Il-12p40*, *Il-18*, *Csf3* (B), *Ikbns* (C), *Cxcl10*, *Ccl2*, *Ccl5* (D), and *Il-10* (E). The fold difference of each sample relative to EF-1 $\alpha$  levels is shown. Representative of three independent experiments.

$I\kappa BNS^{-/-}$  cells. We also analyzed LPS-induced expression of *Cxcl10* (IP-10), *Ccl2* (MCP-1), and *Ccl5* (RANTES), which are induced by the TRIF-dependent activation of IRF-3 (Figure 3D). LPS-induced expression of these genes was not altered in  $I\kappa BNS^{-/-}$  macrophages. An anti-inflammatory cytokine IL-10 is induced by TLR stimulation and thereby inhibits TLR-dependent gene induction (Moore et al., 2001). Therefore, we next addressed LPS-induced IL-10 mRNA expression (Figure 3E). LPS-induced IL-10 mRNA expression was comparable between wild-type and  $I\kappa BNS^{-/-}$  macrophages. In addition, LPS-induced production of IL-10 protein was not compromised in  $I\kappa BNS^{-/-}$  DCs (Figure S2C). These findings indicate that the enhanced LPS-induced expression of a subset of TLR-dependent genes was not due to the impaired IL-10 production in  $I\kappa BNS^{-/-}$  mice.

**Prolonged NF- $\kappa$ B Activity in  $I\kappa BNS$ -Deficient Cells**  
 Gene expression of *Cxcl10* (IP-10), *Ccl2* (MCP-1), and *Ccl5* (RANTES) was mainly regulated by the transcription

factor IRF-3 in the TRIF-dependent pathway, whereas TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-6, and IL-12p40 gene expression was mainly regulated by the MyD88-dependent activation of NF- $\kappa$ B (Akira and Takeda, 2004; Yamamoto et al., 2003). In addition, previous in vitro studies indicated that overexpression of  $I\kappa BNS$  leads to compromised NF- $\kappa$ B activity through selective association of  $I\kappa BNS$  with p50 subunit of NF- $\kappa$ B (Fiorini et al., 2002; Hirovani et al., 2005). Therefore, we next analyzed LPS-induced activation of NF- $\kappa$ B. LPS-induced degradation of  $I\kappa B\alpha$  was not compromised in  $I\kappa BNS^{-/-}$  macrophages (Figure S3A). Next, peritoneal macrophages or bone marrow-derived macrophages were stimulated with LPS and DNA binding activity was analyzed by EMSA (Figure 4A; Figure S3B). LPS stimulation resulted in enhanced DNA binding activity of NF- $\kappa$ B in both wild-type and  $I\kappa BNS^{-/-}$  macrophages to similar extents within 1 hr. After 1 hr of LPS stimulation, NF- $\kappa$ B activity decreased in wild-type cells. However, NF- $\kappa$ B activity sustained and even at 3 hr of LPS stimulation significant DNA binding activity was still observed in



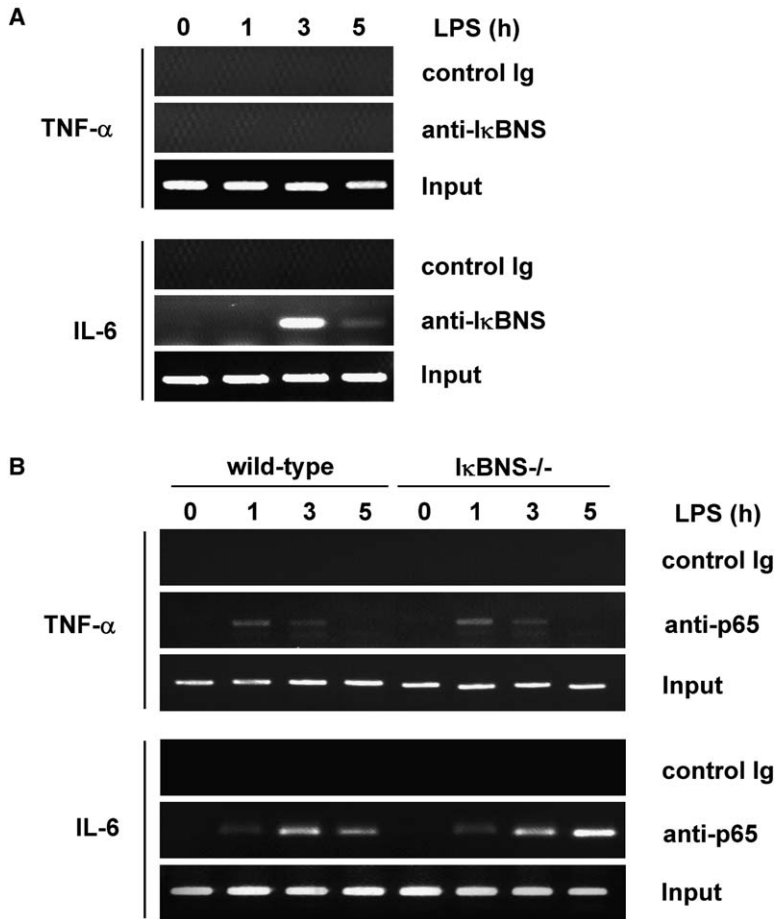
**Figure 4. Persistent LPS-Induced Activation of NF- $\kappa$ B in I $\kappa$ BNS $^{-/-}$  Macrophages**  
(A) Peritoneal macrophages from wild-type and I $\kappa$ BNS $^{-/-}$  mice were stimulated with 100 ng/ml LPS. At the indicated time points, nuclear extracts were prepared, and NF- $\kappa$ B activation was analyzed by EMSA using a NF- $\kappa$ B specific probe.  
(B) Peritoneal macrophages were stimulated with LPS. At the indicated time points, nuclear fractions were isolated and subjected to Western blotting using anti-p65 Ab, anti-p50 Ab, anti-cRel Ab, or anti-polII Ab.  
(C) Macrophages were stimulated with LPS for the indicated periods. Then, cells were stained with anti-p65 Ab or anti-p50 Ab (red) as well as DAPI (blue), and analyzed by confocal microscopy. Merged images are shown.

I $\kappa$ BNS $^{-/-}$  cells. We next analyzed nuclear localization of NF- $\kappa$ B subunits. Peritoneal macrophages were stimulated with LPS for the indicated periods, and nuclear fractions were analyzed for expression of p65, p50, and c-Rel by immunoblotting (Figure 4B). In wild-type macrophages, nuclear translocation of p65 was observed within 30 min of LPS stimulation, and nuclear localized p65 gradually decreased thereafter. In contrast, nuclear localized p65 was still significantly observed even at 3 hr of LPS stimulation in I $\kappa$ BNS $^{-/-}$  cells. In addition, sustained nuclear localization of p50, but not c-Rel, was observed in I $\kappa$ BNS $^{-/-}$  macrophages (Figure 4B). Nuclear localization of NF- $\kappa$ B subunits was also analyzed by immunofluorescent staining of macrophages (Figure 4C). Without stimulation, p65 and p50 were localized in the cytoplasm, but not in the nucleus, in both wild-type and I $\kappa$ BNS $^{-/-}$  macrophages. LPS stimulation resulted in nuclear staining of both p65 and p50 at 1 hr. Nuclear staining of p65 and p50 gradually decreased after 1 hr of LPS stimulation and was only faintly observed at 2 hr of stimulation in wild-type cells. However, nuclear localization of p65 and p50 was still evident at 2 hr of LPS stimulation in I $\kappa$ BNS $^{-/-}$  cells. These findings indicate that LPS-induced NF- $\kappa$ B activity was prolonged in I $\kappa$ BNS $^{-/-}$  macrophages. NF- $\kappa$ B activity is terminated by degradation of promoter-bound p65 (Natoli et al., 2005; Sacconi et al., 2004). We used RAW264.7 macrophage cell line and performed pulse-chase experiments with  $^{35}$ S-labeled amino acids to analyze p65 turnover (Figure S3C). In these cells, labeled p65 was accumulated into the nucleus until 2 hr of LPS stimulation, and then p65 was degraded. In RAW cells constitutively expressing I $\kappa$ BNS, nuclear accumulation of labeled p65 was similarly observed until 1 hr of LPS stimulation. However, the p65 turnover was observed more rapidly and labeled p65

disappeared at 2 hr after LPS stimulation (Figure S3C). These findings indicate that I $\kappa$ BNS mediates the degradation of p65. The MyD88-dependent pathway mediates activation of MAP kinase cascades as well as NF- $\kappa$ B activation. Therefore, LPS-induced phosphorylation of p38, ERK1, ERK2, and JNK was analyzed by Western blotting (Figure S3D). LPS-induced activation of these MAP kinases was not compromised in I $\kappa$ BNS $^{-/-}$  macrophages.

#### Regulation of p65 Activity at the IL-6 Promoter by I $\kappa$ BNS

We next addressed how I $\kappa$ BNS selectively downregulates induction of genes that are induced late. We utilized the IL-6 and TNF- $\alpha$  promoters, which are representatives of genes activated late and early, respectively. Wild-type macrophages were stimulated with LPS and analyzed for recruitment of endogenous I $\kappa$ BNS to the promoters by chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) assay (Figure 5A). Consistent with previous findings using I $\kappa$ BNS overexpressing macrophage cell lines (Hirotsani et al., 2005), endogenous I $\kappa$ BNS was recruited to the IL-6 promoter, but not the TNF- $\alpha$  promoter, in LPS-stimulated macrophages. We next addressed LPS-induced recruitment of p65 to the promoters in wild-type and I $\kappa$ BNS $^{-/-}$  macrophages (Figure 5B). Recruitment of p65 to the TNF- $\alpha$  promoter peaked at 1 hr of LPS stimulation and gradually decreased thereafter in a similar manner in both wild-type and I $\kappa$ BNS $^{-/-}$  cells. Recruitment of p65 to the IL-6 promoter was observed to similar extents until 3 hr of LPS stimulation in wild-type and I $\kappa$ BNS $^{-/-}$  macrophages. After that, it decreased in wild-type macrophages. In contrast, p65 recruitment was still evident, rather enhanced, even after 5 hr of LPS stimulation in I $\kappa$ BNS $^{-/-}$  macrophages. Thus, p65 activity at



**Figure 5. I $\kappa$ BNS Regulation of p65 Activity at the IL-6 Promoter**

(A) Wild-type bone marrow-derived macrophages were stimulated with 100 ng/ml of LPS for the indicated periods, and chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) assay was performed with anti-I $\kappa$ BNS Ab or control Ig. The immunoprecipitated TNF- $\alpha$  promoter (upper panel) or IL-6 promoter (lower panel) was analyzed by PCR with promoter-specific primers. PCR amplification of the total input DNA in each sample is shown (Input). Representative of three independent experiments. The same result was obtained when peritoneal macrophages were used.

(B) Macrophages from wild-type or I $\kappa$ BNS<sup>-/-</sup> mice were stimulated with LPS for the indicated periods. Then, ChIP assay was performed with anti-p65 Ab or control Ig. The immunoprecipitated TNF- $\alpha$  promoter (upper panel) or IL-6 promoter (lower panel) was analyzed by PCR with promoter-specific primers. Representative of three independent experiments.

the IL-6 promoter, but not at the TNF- $\alpha$  promoter, was prolonged in LPS-stimulated I $\kappa$ BNS<sup>-/-</sup> macrophages. Taken together, these findings indicate that TLR-inducible I $\kappa$ BNS is responsible for termination of NF- $\kappa$ B activity through its recruitment to specific promoters.

#### High Sensitivity to LPS-Induced Endotoxin Shock in I $\kappa$ BNS-Deficient Mice

To study the in vivo role of I $\kappa$ BNS, we examined LPS-induced endotoxin shock. Intraperitoneal injection of LPS resulted in marked increases in serum concentrations of TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-6, and IL-12p40 (Figure 6A). TNF- $\alpha$  level was comparable between wild-type and I $\kappa$ BNS<sup>-/-</sup> mice, which rapidly peaked at around 1.5 hr of LPS administration. In the case of IL-6 and IL-12p40 levels, concentrations of both cytokines were almost equally elevated within 3 hr of LPS injection. After 3 hr, levels of both cytokines gradually decreased in wild-type mice. However, concentrations of IL-6 and IL-12p40 sustained, rather enhanced, in I $\kappa$ BNS<sup>-/-</sup> mice after 3 hr. Thus, persistently high concentrations of LPS-induced serum IL-6 and IL-12p40 were observed in I $\kappa$ BNS<sup>-/-</sup> mice. Furthermore, high sensitivity to LPS-induced lethality was observed in I $\kappa$ BNS<sup>-/-</sup> mice (Figure 6B). All I $\kappa$ BNS<sup>-/-</sup> mice died within 4 days of LPS challenge at a dose of which almost all wild-type mice survived over 4 days. These findings indicate that I $\kappa$ BNS<sup>-/-</sup> mice are highly sensitive to LPS-induced endotoxin shock.

#### High Susceptibility to DSS-Induced Colitis in I $\kappa$ BNS<sup>-/-</sup> Mice

In a previous report, I $\kappa$ BNS was shown to be constitutively expressed in macrophages residing in the colonic lamina propria, which explains one of the mechanisms for hyporesponsiveness to TLR stimulation in these cells (Hirotsani et al., 2005). Therefore, we next stimulated CD11b<sup>+</sup> cells isolated from the colonic lamina propria with LPS and analyzed for production of TNF- $\alpha$  and IL-6 (Figure S4). In CD11b<sup>+</sup> cells from wild-type mice, LPS-induced production of these cytokines was not significantly observed. In cells from I $\kappa$ BNS<sup>-/-</sup> mice, IL-6 production was increased even in the absence of stimulation, and LPS stimulation led to markedly enhanced production of IL-6, but not TNF- $\alpha$ . In the next experiment, in order to expose these cells to microflora and cause intestinal inflammation, mice were orally administered with dextran sodium sulfate (DSS), which is toxic to colonic epithelial cells and therefore disrupts the epithelial cell barrier (Kitajima et al., 1999). I $\kappa$ BNS<sup>-/-</sup> mice showed more severe weight loss compared with wild-type mice (Figure 7A). Histological analyses of the colon indicated that the inflammatory lesions were more severe and more extensive in I $\kappa$ BNS<sup>-/-</sup> mice (Figures 7B and 7C). Thus, I $\kappa$ BNS<sup>-/-</sup> mice are highly susceptible to intestinal inflammation. Th1-oriented CD4<sup>+</sup> T cell response was shown to be associated with DSS colitis (Strober et al., 2002). Therefore, we analyzed IFN- $\gamma$

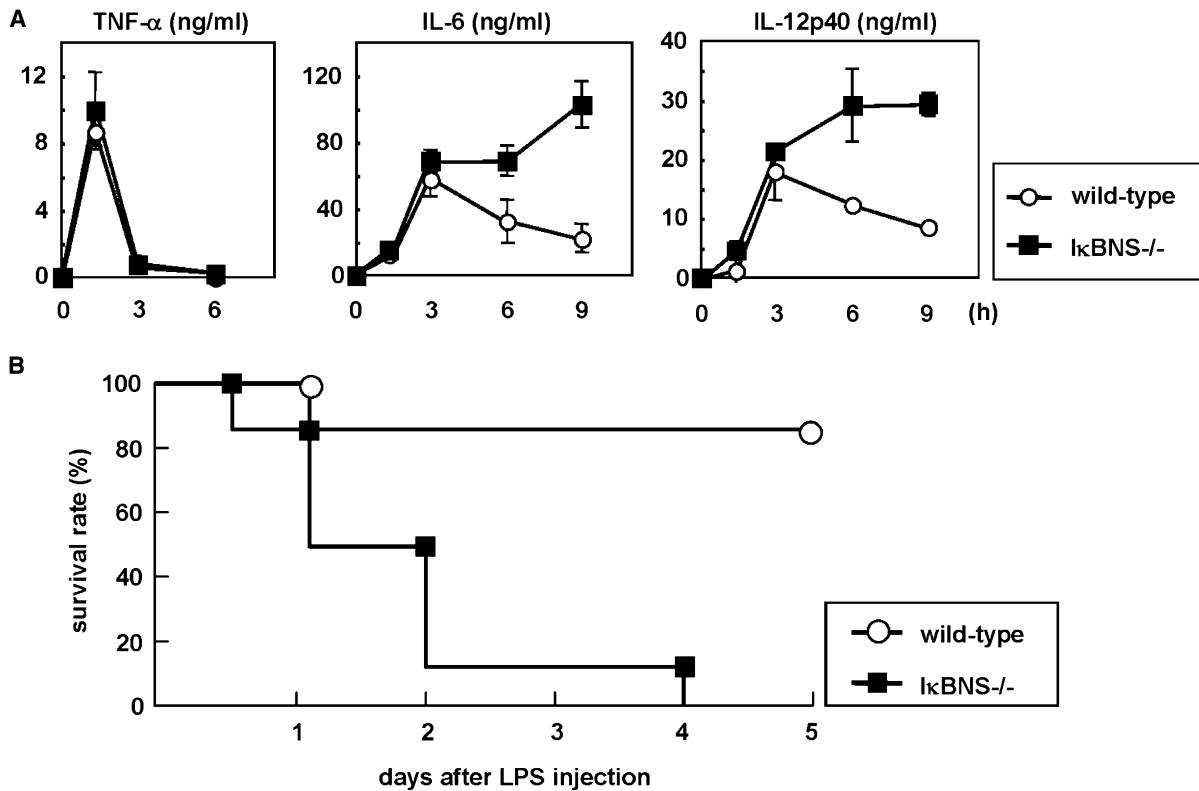


Figure 6. High Susceptibility to LPS-Induced Endotoxin Shock in I $\kappa$ BNS<sup>-/-</sup> Mice  
Age-matched wild-type (n = 6) and I $\kappa$ BNS<sup>-/-</sup> (n = 6) mice were intraperitoneally injected with LPS (1 mg). (A) Sera were taken at 1.5, 3, 6, and 9 hr after LPS injection. Serum concentrations of TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-6, and IL-12p40 were determined by ELISA. Results are shown as mean  $\pm$  SD of serum samples from six mice. (B) Survival was monitored for 5 days.

production from splenic CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells of wild-type and I $\kappa$ BNS<sup>-/-</sup> mice before and after DSS administration (Figure 7D). DSS administration led to a mild increase in IFN- $\gamma$  production in wild-type mice. In nontreated I $\kappa$ BNS<sup>-/-</sup> mice, IFN- $\gamma$  production was slightly increased compared with nontreated wild-type mice. In DSS-fed I $\kappa$ BNS<sup>-/-</sup> mice, a significant increase in IFN- $\gamma$  production was observed compared to DSS-fed wild-type mice. These results indicate that I $\kappa$ BNS<sup>-/-</sup> mice are susceptible to intestinal inflammation caused by exposure to microflora.

### Discussion

In the present study, we characterized the physiological function of I $\kappa$ BNS. Induced by TLR stimulation, I $\kappa$ BNS is involved in termination of NF- $\kappa$ B activity and thereby inhibits a subset of TLR-dependent genes that are induced late through MyD88-dependent NF- $\kappa$ B activation. Accordingly, I $\kappa$ BNS<sup>-/-</sup> mice show sustained production of IL-6 and IL-12p40, resulting in high susceptibility to LPS-induced endotoxin shock. Furthermore, I $\kappa$ BNS<sup>-/-</sup> mice are susceptible to intestinal inflammation accompanied by enhanced Th1 responses.

I $\kappa$ BNS was originally identified as a molecule that mediates negative selection of thymocytes (Fiorini et al., 2002). However, I $\kappa$ BNS<sup>-/-</sup> mice did not show any defect in T cell development. Requirement of I $\kappa$ BNS in negative selection of thymocytes should be analyzed precisely

using peptide-specific TCR transgenic mice, such as mice bearing the H-Y TCR, in the future (Kisielow et al., 1988).

Recent studies have established that TLR-dependent gene induction is regulated mainly by NF- $\kappa$ B and IRF families of transcription factors (Akira and Takeda, 2004; Honda et al., 2005; Takaoka et al., 2005). In TLR4 signaling, the TRIF-dependent pathway is responsible for induction of IFN- $\beta$  and IFN-inducible genes through activation of IRF-3, whereas the MyD88-dependent pathway mediates induction of several NF- $\kappa$ B dependent genes (Beutler, 2004). A study with mice lacking I $\kappa$ B $\zeta$ , another member of nuclear I $\kappa$ B proteins, has demonstrated that the MyD88-dependent genes are divided into at least two types; one is induced early and independent of I $\kappa$ B $\zeta$ , and another is induced late and dependent on I $\kappa$ B $\zeta$  (Yamamoto et al., 2004). The I $\kappa$ B $\zeta$ -regulated genes include IL-6, IL-12p40, IL-18, and G-CSF, which are all upregulated in LPS-stimulated I $\kappa$ BNS<sup>-/-</sup> macrophages. Thus, I $\kappa$ BNS seems to possess a function quite opposite to I $\kappa$ B $\zeta$ . I $\kappa$ BNS is most structurally related to I $\kappa$ B $\zeta$  (Fiorini et al., 2002; Hirotsani et al., 2005). But, I $\kappa$ B $\zeta$  has an additional N-terminal structure, which seemingly mediates the induction of target genes (Motoyama et al., 2005). Thus, nuclear I $\kappa$ B proteins I $\kappa$ B $\zeta$  and I $\kappa$ BNS positively and negatively regulate a subset of TLR-induced NF- $\kappa$ B-dependent genes, respectively.

Recently, negative regulation of TLR-dependent gene induction was extensively analyzed (Liew et al., 2005).

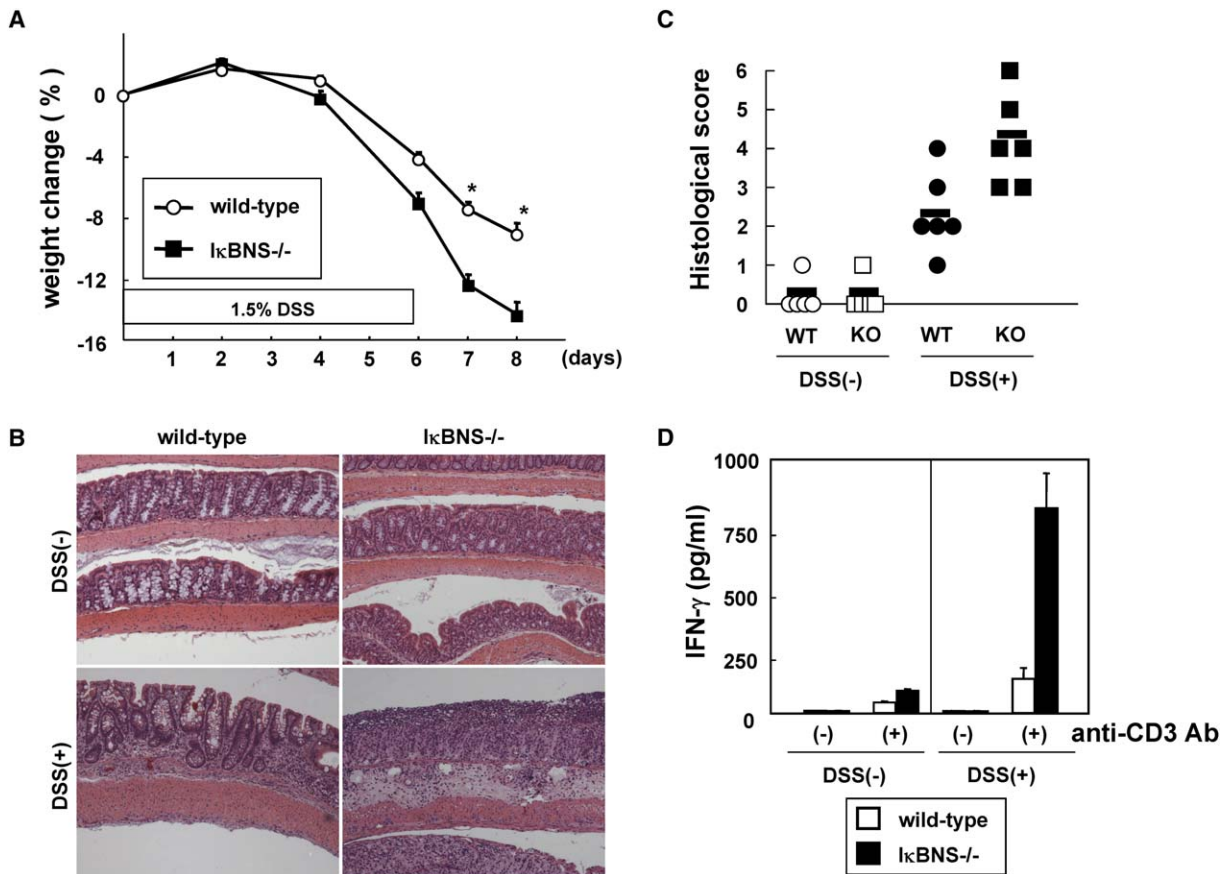


Figure 7. High Susceptibility to DSS Colitis in IκBNS<sup>-/-</sup> Mice

(A) Wild-type (n = 15) and IκBNS<sup>-/-</sup> mice (n = 15) were given 1.5% DSS in drinking water for 6 days and weighed everyday. Data are mean ± SD. \*, p < 0.05. (B) Histologic examination of the colons of wild-type and IκBNS<sup>-/-</sup> mice before or 9 days after initiation of DSS administration. H&E staining is shown. Representative of six mice examined. Magnification, 20×. (C) The colitis scores shown for individual wild-type (circle) and IκBNS<sup>-/-</sup> mice (square) before (open) and after (closed) DSS treatment were total scores for individual sections as described in the Experimental Procedures section. Mean score for each group is also shown (black bar). (D) CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells were purified from spleen of wild-type or IκBNS<sup>-/-</sup> mice either treated or nontreated with DSS. Then, CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells were cultured in the presence or absence of plate bound anti-CD3 Ab for 24 hr. Concentration of IFN-γ in the culture supernatants was measured by ELISA.

So far, characterized negative regulators are mainly involved in blockade of TLR signaling pathways in the cytoplasm or on the cell membrane. Accordingly, these negative regulators globally inhibit TLR-dependent gene induction. The nuclear IκB protein IκBNS is unique in that this molecule negatively regulates induction of a set of TLR-dependent genes by directly affecting NF-κB activity in the nucleus. Thus, TLR-dependent innate immune responses are regulated through a variety of mechanisms.

IκBNS-mediated inhibition of a set of TLR-dependent genes is probably explained by recruitment of IκBNS to the specific promoters. IκBNS was recruited to the IL-6 promoter, but not to the TNF-α promoter. In addition, LPS-induced recruitment of p65 to the TNF-α promoter was observed within 1 hr, whereas p65 recruitment to the IL-6 promoter was observed late, indicating that NF-κB activity was differentially regulated at both promoters. NF-κB activity at the TNF-α promoter is regulated in an IκBNS-independent manner, whereas the activity at the IL-6 promoter was IκBNS-dependent. Indeed, p65 recruitment to the TNF-α promoter was ob-

served similarly in wild-type and IκBNS<sup>-/-</sup> macrophages, but the recruitment to the IL-6 promoter was sustained in IκBNS<sup>-/-</sup> cells. Previous reports indicate that IκBNS selectively associates with p50 subunit of NF-κB and affects NF-κB DNA binding activity (Fiorini et al., 2002; Hirotsu et al., 2005). Consistent with these observations, IκBNS<sup>-/-</sup> macrophages showed prolonged LPS-induced NF-κB DNA binding activity and nuclear localization of p65. Taken together, these findings indicate that IκBNS, which is rapidly induced by TLR stimulation, might be recruited to gene promoters through association with p50, and contribute to termination of NF-κB activity. Termination of NF-κB activity has been shown to be induced by IKKα-mediated degradation of promoter-bound p65 (Lawrence et al., 2005). However, consistent with a recent report, we were not able to detect LPS-induced degradation of p65 in peritoneal macrophages and bone marrow-derived macrophages (Li et al., 2005). However, we could detect LPS-induced p65 degradation in the RAW264.7 macrophage cell line. In these cells, when constitutively expressed IκBNS, LPS-induced p65 turnover was



accelerated, indicating that I $\kappa$ BNS is involved in the degradation of promoter-bound p65. In the case of the TNF- $\alpha$  promoter, it is possible that NF- $\kappa$ B activity is already terminated when I $\kappa$ BNS expression is induced, and therefore I $\kappa$ BNS is no longer recruited to the TNF- $\alpha$  promoter. Alternatively, an unidentified mechanism that regulates selective recruitment of I $\kappa$ BNS to gene promoters might exist. The mechanisms by which I $\kappa$ BNS is recruited to the specific promoters through association with p50 remain unclear and would be a subject of further investigation.

Analyses of I $\kappa$ BNS<sup>-/-</sup> mice further highlighted the in vivo functions of I $\kappa$ BNS in limiting systemic and intestinal inflammation. I $\kappa$ BNS<sup>-/-</sup> mice succumbed to systemic LPS-induced endotoxin shock possibly due to sustained production of several TLR-dependent gene products such as IL-6 and IL-12p40. Furthermore, I $\kappa$ BNS<sup>-/-</sup> mice are more susceptible to intestinal inflammation induced by disruption of the epithelial barrier. Abnormal activation of innate immune cells caused by deficiency of IL-10 or Stat3 leads to spontaneous development of colonic inflammation (Kobayashi et al., 2003; Kuhn et al., 1993; Takeda et al., 1999). I $\kappa$ BNS<sup>-/-</sup> mice did not develop chronic colitis spontaneously until 20 week-old of age (our unpublished data). In Stat3 mutant mice, TLR-dependent production of proinflammatory cytokines increased over 10-fold compared to wild-type cells, which might contribute to the spontaneous intestinal inflammation (Takeda et al., 1999). In I $\kappa$ BNS<sup>-/-</sup> mice, increase in TLR-dependent production of proinflammatory cytokines such as IL-6 and IL-12p40 was mild compared to Stat3 mutant mice. In this case, the colonic epithelial barrier might contribute to prevention of excessive inflammatory responses in I $\kappa$ BNS<sup>-/-</sup> mice. However, when the barrier function of epithelial cells was disrupted by administration of DSS, I $\kappa$ BNS<sup>-/-</sup> mice suffered from severe intestinal inflammation accompanied by enhanced Th1 responses. I $\kappa$ BNS was shown to be expressed in CD11b<sup>+</sup> cells residing in the colonic lamina propria (Hirota et al., 2005). Therefore, in the absence of I $\kappa$ BNS, exposure of innate immune cells to intestinal microflora might result in increased or sustained production of proinflammatory cytokines such as IL-12p40, which induces exaggerated intestinal inflammation and Th1 cell development. Thus, I $\kappa$ BNS is responsible for the prevention of uncontrolled inflammatory responses in vivo.

In this study, we have shown that I $\kappa$ BNS is a selective inhibitor of TLR-dependent genes possibly through termination of NF- $\kappa$ B activity. Furthermore, I $\kappa$ BNS was responsible for prevention of inflammation through inhibition of persistent proinflammatory cytokine production. Future study that discloses the precise molecular mechanisms by which the nuclear I $\kappa$ B protein selectively inhibits TLR-dependent genes will provide basis for the development of new therapeutic strategies to a variety of inflammatory diseases.

#### Experimental Procedures

##### Generation of I $\kappa$ BNS-Deficient Mice

The *Ikbns* gene consists of eight exons (Figure 1A). The targeting vector was designed to replace a 1.8 kb fragment containing exons 5–8 of the *Ikbns* gene with a neomycin-resistance gene (*neo*). A short

arm and a long arm of the homology region from the E14.1 ES genome were amplified by PCR. A herpes simplex virus thymidine kinase gene (HSV-TK) was inserted into the 3' end of the vector. After the targeting vector was electroporated into ES cells, G418 and gancyclovir doubly resistant clones were selected and screened for homologous recombination by PCR and verified by Southern blot analysis using the probe indicated in Figure 1A. Two independently identified targeted ES clones were microinjected into C57BL/6 blastocysts. Chimeric mice were mated with C57BL/6 female mice, and heterozygous F1 progenies were intercrossed to obtain I $\kappa$ BNS<sup>-/-</sup> mice. Mice from these independent ES clones displayed identical phenotypes. All animal experiments were conducted according to guidelines of Animal Care and Use Committee at Kyushu University.

##### Reagents

LPS (*E. coli* 055:B5) was purchased from Sigma. Peptidoglycan was from Fluca. Pam<sub>3</sub>CSK<sub>4</sub>, MALP-2, and imiquimod were from InvivoGen. Antibodies against p65 (C-20; sc-372), p50 (H-119; sc-7178 or NLS; sc-114), c-Rel (C; sc-71), and RNA polymerase II (H-224; sc-9001) were purchased from Santa Cruz. Rabbit anti-I $\kappa$ BNS Ab was generated against synthetic peptide (1-MEDSLDTRLYPEPSLSQVC-18) corresponding to N-terminal region of mouse I $\kappa$ BNS (MBL, Nagoya, Japan), and anti-I $\kappa$ BNS serum was affinity-purified using a column containing peptide-conjugated Sepharose 4B.

##### Preparation of Macrophages and Dendritic Cells

For isolation of peritoneal macrophages, mice were intraperitoneally injected with 2 ml of 4% thioglycollate medium (Sigma). Peritoneal exudate cells were isolated from the peritoneal cavity 3 days post injection. Cells were incubated for 2 hr and washed three times with HBSS. Remaining adherent cells were used as peritoneal macrophages for the experiments. To prepare bone marrow-derived macrophages, bone marrow cells were prepared from femora and tibia and passed through nylon mesh. Then cells were cultured in RPMI 1640 medium supplemented with 10% FCS, 100  $\mu$ M 2-ME, and 10 ng/ml M-CSF (GenzymeTechne). After 6–8 days, the cells were used as macrophages for the experiments. Bone marrow-derived DCs were prepared by culturing bone marrow cells in RPMI 1640 medium supplemented with 10% FCS, 100  $\mu$ M 2-ME, and 10 ng/ml GM-CSF (GenzymeTechne). After 6 days, the cells were used as DCs.

##### Measurement of Cytokine Production

Peritoneal macrophages or DCs were stimulated with various TLR ligands for 24 hr. Culture supernatants were collected and analyzed for TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-6, IL-12p40, IL-12p70, or IL-10 production with enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA). Mice were intravenously injected with 1 mg of LPS and bled at the indicated intervals. Serum concentrations of TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-6, and IL-12p40 were determined by ELISA. ELISA kits were purchased from GenzymeTechne and R&D Systems. For measurement of IFN- $\gamma$ , CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells were purified from spleen cells using CD4 microbeads (Miltenyi Biotec) and stimulated by plate bound anti-CD3 $\epsilon$  antibody (145-2C11, BD Pharmingen) for 24 hr. Concentrations of IFN- $\gamma$  in the supernatants were determined by ELISA (GenzymeTechne).

##### Quantitative Real-Time RT-PCR

Total RNA was isolated with TRIzol reagent (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA), and 2  $\mu$ g of RNA was reverse transcribed using M-MLV reverse transcriptase (Promega, Madison, WI) and oligo (dT) primers (Toyobo, Osaka, Japan) after treatment with RQ1 DNase I (Promega). Quantitative real-time PCR was performed on an ABI 7700 (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) using TaqMan Universal PCR Master Mix (Applied Biosystems). All data were normalized to the corresponding elongation factor-1 $\alpha$  (EF-1 $\alpha$ ) expression, and the fold difference relative to the EF-1 $\alpha$  level was shown. Amplification conditions were: 50°C (2 min), 95°C (10 min), 40 cycles of 95°C (15 s), and 60°C (60 s). Each experiment was performed independently at least three times, and the results of one representative experiment are shown. All primers were purchased from Assay on Demand (Applied Biosystems).

### Electrophoretic Mobility Shift Assay

Macrophages were stimulated with 100 ng/ml LPS for the indicated periods. Then, nuclear proteins were extracted, and incubated with an end-labeled, double-stranded oligonucleotide containing an NF- $\kappa$ B binding site of the IL-6 promoter in 25  $\mu$ l of binding buffer (10 mM HEPES-KOH, [pH 7.8], 50 mM KCl, 1 mM EDTA [pH 8.0], 5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub> and 10% glycerol) for 20 min at room temperature and loaded on a native 5% polyacrylamide gel. The DNA-protein complexes were visualized by autoradiography.

### Western Blotting

Cells were lysed with RIPA buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl [pH 7.5], 150 mM NaCl, 1% Triton X-100, 0.5% Na-deoxycholate) containing protease inhibitors (Complete Mini; Roche). The lysates were separated on SDS-PAGE and transferred to PVDF membrane. The membranes were incubated with anti- $\kappa$ B $\alpha$  Ab, anti-ERK Ab, anti-p38 Ab, anti-JNK Ab (Santa Cruz Biotechnology), anti-phospho-p38 Ab, anti-phospho-ERK Ab, or anti-phospho-JNK Ab (Cell Signaling Technology). Bound Abs were detected with SuperSignal West Pico Chemiluminescent Substrate (Pierce).

### Immunofluorescence Staining

Macrophages were stimulated with 100 ng/ml LPS for the indicated periods, washed with Tris-buffered saline (TBS), and fixed with 3.7% formaldehyde in TBS for 15 min at room temperature. After permeabilization with 0.2% Triton X-100, cells were washed with TBS and incubated with 10 ng/ml of a rabbit anti-p50 or anti-p65 Ab (Santa Cruz Biotechnology) in TBS containing 1% bovine serum albumin, followed by incubation with Alexa Fluor 594-conjugated goat anti-rabbit immunoglobulin G (IgG; Molecular Probes, Eugene, OR). To stain the nucleus, cells were cultured with 0.5  $\mu$ g/ml 4, 6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI; Wako, Osaka, Japan). Stained cells were analyzed using an LSM510 model confocal microscope (Carl Zeiss, Oberkochen, Germany).

### Chromatin Immunoprecipitation

Chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) was performed essentially with a described protocol (Upstate Biotechnology, Lake Placid, NY). In brief, peritoneal macrophages from wild-type and  $\kappa$ BNS<sup>-/-</sup> mice were stimulated with 100 ng/ml LPS for 1, 3, or 5 hr, and then fixed with formaldehyde for 10 min. The cells were lysed, sheared by sonication using Bioruptor (CosmoBio), and incubated overnight with specific antibody followed by incubation with protein A-agarose saturated with salmon sperm DNA (Upstate Biotechnology). Precipitated DNA was analyzed by quantitative PCR (35 cycles) using primers 5'-CCCCAGATTGCCACAGAATC-3' and 5'-CCAGT GAGTGAAAGGGACAG-3' for the TNF- $\alpha$  promoter and 5'-TGTTGTG TCGTCTGTATGCG-3' and 5'-AGCTACAGACATCCCCAGTCTC-3' for the IL-6 promoter.

### Induction of DSS Colitis

Mice received 1.5% (wt/vol) DSS (40,000 kDa; ICN Biochemicals), ad libitum, in their drinking water for 6 days, then switched to regular drinking water. The amount of DSS water drunk per animal was recorded and no differences in intake between strains were observed. Mice were weighed for the determination of percent weight change. This was calculated as: percentage weight change = (weight at day X-day 0/weight at day 0)  $\times$  100. Statistical significance was determined by paired Student's t test. Differences were considered to be statistically significant at  $p < 0.05$ .

### Histological Analysis

Colon tissues were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde, rolled up, and embedded in paraffin in a Swiss roll orientation such that the entire length of the intestinal tract could be identified on single sections. After sectioning, the tissues were dewaxed in ethanol, rehydrated, and stained hematoxylin and eosin to study histological changes after DSS-induced damage. Histological scoring was performed in a blinded fashion by a pathologist, with a combined score for inflammatory cell infiltration (score, 0–3) and tissue damage (score, 0–3) (Araki et al., 2005). The presence of occasional inflammatory cells in the lamina propria was assigned a value of 0; increased numbers of inflammatory cells in the lamina propria as 1; confluence of inflammatory cells, extending into the submucosa, as 2; and transmural

extension of the infiltrate as 3. For tissue damage, no mucosal damage was scored as 0; discrete lymphoepithelial lesions were scored as 1; surface mucosal erosion or focal ulceration was scored as 2; and extensive mucosal damage and extension into deeper structures of the bowel wall were scored as 3. The combined histological score ranged from 0 (no changes) to 6 (extensive cell infiltration and tissue damage).

### Supplemental Data

Supplemental Data include four figures and are available with this article online at <http://www.immunity.com/cgi/content/full/24/1/41/DC1/>.

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