

Bactericidal/Permeability-Increasing Protein Inhibits Induction of Macrophage Nitric Oxide Production by Lipopolysaccharide

Sally Betz Corradin, Didier Heumann, Philippe Gallay,
Josiane Smith, Jacques Mauël,
and Michel Pierre Glauser

*Institute of Biochemistry, University of Lausanne, Epalinges, and
Division of Infectious Diseases, Department of Medicine, CHUV,
Lausanne, Switzerland*

A recombinant (r) NH₂-terminal fragment of bactericidal/permeability-increasing protein, rBPI₂₃, was shown to inhibit murine macrophage nitric oxide (NO) production elicited by lipopolysaccharide (LPS) plus interferon- γ (IFN- γ). Normal mouse plasma amplified NO synthesis (measured as NO₂⁻ release) at LPS concentrations of 1–10 ng/mL, and antibody to the plasma LPS-binding protein (LBP) partially inhibited NO₂⁻ release in the presence of normal mouse plasma. rBPI₂₃ (1 μ g/mL) effectively inhibited LPS-dependent NO₂⁻ release in the presence or absence of normal mouse plasma. Fifty percent inhibition of IFN- γ /LPS-elicited NO₂⁻ production or of binding of fluoresceinated LPS was obtained with \sim 0.2 μ g/mL rBPI₂₃. These results provide a basis for studies of rBPI₂₃ effects on NO synthase activity in murine models of gram-negative sepsis.

Lipopolysaccharide (LPS), either as part of the outer membrane of gram-negative bacteria or when released into the circulation upon bacterial lysis, is a potent stimulus of macrophage cytokine production and mediator release [1, 2]. Despite extensive investigation, the precise mechanism(s) by which LPS stimulates macrophage function is still unknown. Recently, a plasma protein, LPS-binding protein (LBP), was shown to bind to smooth and rough LPS [3–5]. Macrophage cell surface protein CD14 was subsequently shown to recognize the LBP-LPS complex [6], and several studies have now demonstrated dramatic enhancement of both binding of and functional responses to LPS by purified LBP [6–11]. Furthermore, transfection of cDNA encoding CD14 into a murine pre-B lymphocyte cell line, which does not normally express this gene, strongly increased the sensitivity of those cells to low concentrations of LPS in the presence of LBP [12]. Although such results do not imply that CD14 alone can initiate signal transduction, they provide evidence for an important role of LBP in modifying host responses to LPS.

Another LPS-binding protein, the neutrophil granule bactericidal/permeability-increasing protein (BPI), binds to LPS in the outer membrane of gram-negative bacteria, causing permeability and cell death [13–16]. Although BPI shows striking sequence homology to LBP [7, 17], the two proteins exert different effects on LPS activity. BPI, its NH₂-terminal

fragment, and recombinant (r) BPI inhibit LPS activity in various in vitro systems, including activation of limulus amoebocyte lysate [18], priming for neutrophil leukotriene release [18] or LPS-elicited complement receptor expression [19], and induction of tumor necrosis factor (TNF) secretion by human monocytes [18, 20]. Recently, a recombinant protein, rBPI₂₃, corresponding to the amino-terminal region of human BPI was produced and purified [21]. rBPI₂₃ showed high affinity binding to lipid A and various types of LPS and LPS-neutralizing activity [16, 22]. We have recently demonstrated that rBPI₂₃ inhibits the plasma-mediated binding of LPS to human monocytes in a dose-dependent manner [23]. Moreover, antibody to murine LBP inhibited LPS binding in normal mouse plasma (NMP) [11, 23], suggesting that binding occurs through the CD14/LBP pathway and that rBPI₂₃ must compete with LBP to be an efficient inhibitor of LPS.

Although certain macrophage responses such as TNF α secretion occur with LPS alone, other activities, including the induction of cytotoxic activity toward tumor cells or intracellular pathogens and synthesis of nitric oxide (NO), are greatly enhanced by costimulation of LPS with interferon- γ (IFN- γ) [24–27]. NO and its stable derivatives NO₂⁻ and NO₃⁻ are derived from L-arginine via the action of a group of enzymes termed NO synthases [28, 29]. The constitutive isoenzyme present in endothelial and neuronal cells is reversibly regulated by free calcium ions and can rapidly generate small amounts of NO. Moreover, a cytokine-inducible NO synthase, most extensively studied in murine macrophages, is a calcium-independent enzyme capable of producing much higher levels of NO over a prolonged period. Although constitutive production of NO is believed to play a role in the maintenance of vascular tone, increased production or indiscriminate release occurring on activation of inducible NO synthase could contribute to the hypotension observed during septic shock [28, 30].

Received 13 April 1993; revised 7 September 1993.

Grant support: Swiss National Fund for Scientific Research (31-30857.91 and 32-30265.90) and XOMA (Berkeley, CA). S.B.C. is a Max Cloetta fellowship recipient.

Reprints or correspondence: Dr. Sally Betz Corradin, Institute of Biochemistry, University of Lausanne, Chemin des Boveresses 155, 1066 Epalinges, Switzerland.

The Journal of Infectious Diseases 1994;169:105–11
© 1994 by The University of Chicago. All rights reserved.
0022-1899/94/6901-0015\$01.00

We recently reported that purified rabbit LBP significantly enhanced NO production by murine bone marrow–derived macrophages stimulated with LPS plus IFN- γ [9]. We have now examined the effects of rBPI₂₃ on NO production (measured as NO₂⁻) using a homologous system in which murine macrophages were stimulated in the presence of NMP as a source of LBP and other plasma factors that might modulate LPS function.

Materials and Methods

Animals. CBA female mice were obtained from IFFA-CREDO (Saint Germain-sur-l'Arbresle, France) and used at 5–10 weeks of age.

Reagents. A recombinant NH₂-terminal fragment of BPI (rBPI₂₃) was obtained from XOMA (Berkeley, CA). rIFN- γ (lot no. 2309-24, produced by Genentech, South San Francisco) was supplied by Boehringer Ingelheim (Vienna). Polymyxin B, phenol-extracted LPS, and fluorescein-labeled LPS (FITC-LPS) from *Escherichia coli* O111 were purchased from Sigma (St. Louis). Recombinant human TNF α was a gift from BASF/Knoll (Ludwigshafen, Germany). Polyclonal antibody to purified murine LBP was raised in rabbits and purified by protein A affinity chromatography as previously described [11]. High-titered rabbit polyclonal antibody to *E. coli* O111 LPS was obtained by intravenous injection of heat-killed stationary phase bacteria (5×10^9 three times weekly for 2 weeks). Pooled heat-inactivated (56°C, 30 min) serum was stored at -20°C until use. Preimmune normal rabbit serum and purified IgG served as control antibodies.

Macrophage cultures. Macrophages were obtained by *in vitro* differentiation of bone marrow precursor cells [31]. Day 10 or 11 macrophages were detached by pipetting, suspended in Dulbecco's MEM (DMEM; Seromed, Munich) supplemented with 10% fetal calf serum (FCS; Seromed), and distributed in 96-well microculture plates (75,000/well).

Infection of macrophage cultures. Macrophages were infected with *Leishmania enriettii* promastigotes as previously described [32] at a parasite-to-macrophage ratio of 16:1.

Macrophage activation. Infected or noninfected macrophages were washed with Hanks' balanced salt solution to remove serum and then cultured overnight with IFN- γ plus LPS or TNF α in the presence or absence of rBPI₂₃ or 1% pooled NMP or both. Alternatively, macrophages were primed with 10 units/mL IFN- γ for 24 h prior to stimulation with LPS (with or without rBPI₂₃) for an additional 24 h.

TNF assay. Secretion of TNF was determined by biologic assay of supernatants collected 4 h after addition of LPS [33]. WEHI 164 clone 13 cells in 10% FCS-supplemented RPMI medium (10,000 cells/90 μ L) were added to microtiter wells containing 90 μ L of serial dilutions of test supernatant or standard rTNF α . Plates were incubated at 37°C for 48 h; 20 μ L of 3-(1,4-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyl tetrazolium bromide (MTT; United States Biochemicals, Cleveland; 5 mg/mL in RPMI medium) was then added. After 4 h at 37°C, supernatants were removed, and reduced dye was solubilized with 0.2 mL of 20 mM HCl in isopropanol containing 3% SDS. Optical density was

Table 1. Inhibition of lipopolysaccharide (LPS)-elicited tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF α) production by recombinant (r) BPI₂₃.

LPS (ng/mL)	TNF units/mL		
	Control	BPI	PB
3	2	0*	0
10	8	0	0
30	20	5	0
500	12	10	5

NOTE. BPI₂₃ or polymyxin B (PB), 1 μ g/mL. 50% inhibition was obtained with 0.08 units/mL TNF α . Results are average of duplicate supernatants and represent 4 independent experiments.

* Undetectable in 1:5 dilutions of macrophage supernatant (<0.4 units/mL).

determined at 570 nm using a microELISA reader fitted with a 620-nm reference filter. Preliminary experiments demonstrated that rBPI₂₃ at the concentrations added to macrophage cultures had no effect on WEHI target cell viability either in the presence or absence of TNF α (data not shown).

NO₂⁻ release. Twenty-four-hour macrophage supernatants (100 μ L) were assayed for NO₂⁻ by the Griess reaction according to a recently described microassay [34]. Briefly, an equal volume of Griess reagent (1% sulphanilamide/0.1% naphthylethylenediamine dihydrochloride/2.5% H₃PO₄) was incubated with macrophage supernatants for 10 min at room temperature, and absorbance was measured at 550 nm in a microELISA reader using a 620-nm reference filter. NO₂⁻ concentration (nmol/well) was determined using NaNO₂ as a standard. The SE of replicate determinations was <10%.

Measurement of intracellular parasite killing. After a 24-h incubation in the presence or absence of various activators, macrophages were lysed by exposure to 0.01% SDS as described [32]. The wells were then supplemented with DMEM plus FCS and hemin, and parasite growth was recorded by measuring [³H]-thymidine incorporation [32].

Fluorescence-activated cell sorting analysis of LPS binding. Binding of fluoresceinated LPS was determined as previously described [8]. Macrophages (10⁶/mL of RPMI containing 4% bovine serum albumin and 1% NMP) were incubated with 10 or 100 ng of FITC-LPS in the presence or absence of rBPI₂₃ for 60 min at 37°C. Cells were then washed twice with cold PBS and resuspended in RPMI (10⁶/mL). Macrophage fluorescence was analyzed using FACScan (Becton Dickinson, Mountain View, CA) flow cytometry.

Results

Inhibition of LPS-elicited TNF production by rBPI₂₃. Previous studies showed that purified or recombinant BPI inhibits LPS-elicited TNF production by human peripheral blood mononuclear cells or whole blood cultures [18, 20]. We therefore examined the ability of rBPI₂₃ to inhibit TNF production by the murine bone marrow–derived cultures to be used in studies of NO induction. As shown in table 1, 1

Table 2. Inhibition of macrophage NO₂⁻ production by recombinant (r) BPI₂₃ is specific for lipopolysaccharide (LPS)-induced activation.

	NO ₂ ⁻ (nmol/well)	
	Alone	Plus rBPI ₂₃
1% NMP		
IFN-γ		
3 units/mL + LPS, 10 ng/mL	3.3	0.7
100 units/mL + LPS, 1 ng/mL	5.9	0.4
TNFα, 1000 units/mL	2.1	2.0
No NMP		
IFN-γ		
3 units/mL + LPS, 10 ng/mL	0.6	0
100 units/mL + LPS, 1 ng/mL	0.4	0
TNFα, 1000 units/mL	2.0	1.9

NOTE. rBPI₂₃, 1 μg/mL. Nitrite (NO₂⁻) represents mean of triplicate wells (SE, ≤0.1 nmol/well). Interferon-γ (IFN-γ) alone, <0.1 nmol of NO₂⁻/well. Data are from a typical experiment and represent 4 independent experiments. NMP, normal mouse plasma; TNFα, tumor necrosis factor-α.

μg/mL rBPI₂₃ effectively inhibited TNF secretion induced by 3 or 10 ng/mL LPS in the presence of 1% NMP. This inhibition was overcome at higher LPS concentrations. LPS activity was also inhibited by polymyxin B at 1 μg/mL. TNF was undetectable in control untreated cultures (not shown).

Inhibition of nitrite production in response to IFN-γ and LPS. We then determined if rBPI₂₃ could inhibit NO synthesis (measured as NO₂⁻) by murine macrophages under conditions similar to those described above for TNF production. Since LPS alone is a relatively poor stimulus for NO₂⁻ production, macrophages were cultured with LPS plus IFN-γ as a priming signal. NO₂⁻ release elicited by IFN-γ plus LPS was much higher in the presence of 1% NMP than in the plasma-free cultures (table 2). Increasing the concentration of NMP did not further promote NO₂⁻ production under these conditions (data not shown). Addition of 1 μg/mL rBPI₂₃ effectively inhibited NO₂⁻ production in the presence or absence of plasma. To ensure that the inhibitory effect of rBPI₂₃ was specific, macrophages were alternatively stimulated with IFN-γ plus TNFα. NO₂⁻ release elicited by IFN-γ plus TNFα was independent of the presence of plasma and was not inhibited by rBPI₂₃ (table 2). These results demonstrate that rBPI₂₃ did not exert nonspecific toxicity or inhibitory effects on murine bone marrow-derived macrophages resulting in failure to induce NO synthetic capacity. Moreover, no differences were seen in the amount of cell-associated protein in each well at the end of the incubation (not shown), further evidence that rBPI₂₃ was not toxic for these cultures.

Figure 1 presents the dose-dependency of the rBPI₂₃ effect. For these experiments, macrophages were primed with IFN-

γ for 24 h, extensively washed, and then stimulated with LPS in the presence of 1% NMP with or without rBPI₂₃. Half-maximal inhibition was obtained with 0.1–0.3 μg/mL rBPI₂₃ and nearly complete inhibition with 0.5 μg/mL. With a 10-fold higher concentration of LPS (100 ng/mL), 1 μg/mL rBPI₂₃ still inhibited NO₂⁻ production by >50% (not shown).

Inhibition of NO₂⁻ production by antibody to LBP. The ability of rBPI₂₃ to inhibit macrophage activation by LPS may depend in part upon its capacity to compete with plasma LBP. NMP contains ~2 μg/mL LBP as determined

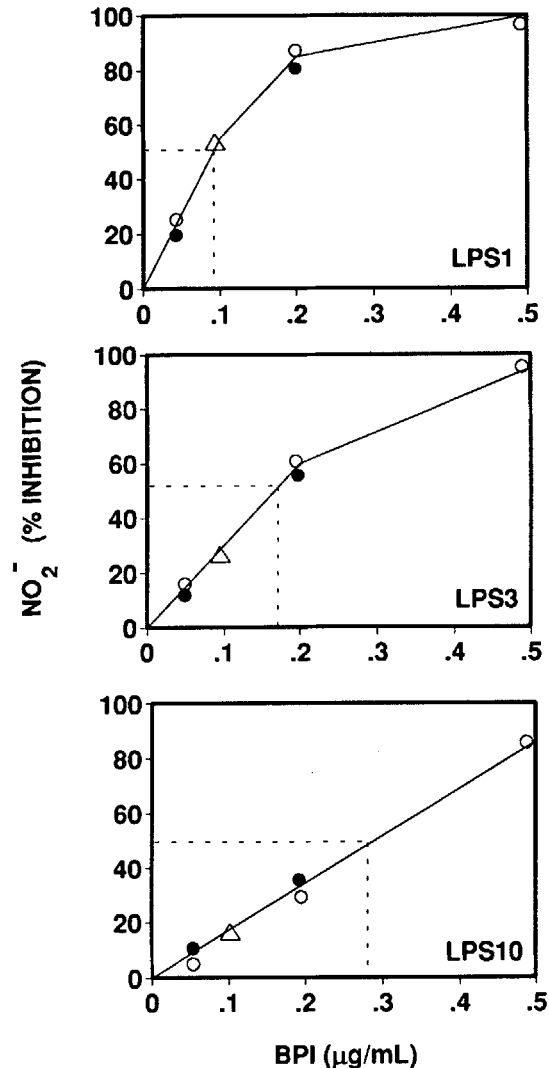


Figure 1. Dose-dependent inhibition by recombinant (r) BPI₂₃ of lipopolysaccharide (LPS)-elicited nitrite (NO₂⁻) production. Interferon-γ-primed macrophages were washed and stimulated with 1, 3, or 10 ng/mL LPS and 1% normal mouse plasma immediately after addition of various concentrations of rBPI₂₃. Each point represents % inhibition of control NO₂⁻ release in absence of rBPI₂₃ calculated as mean of three determinations. Data are from three independent experiments (O, ●, Δ). Absolute nmol/well NO₂⁻ release in control cultures (mean of three experiments ± SE): 1 ng/mL LPS, 1.0 ± 0.1; 3 ng/mL LPS, 2.0 ± 0.2; 10 ng/mL LPS, 4.0 ± 0.7.

Table 3. Inhibition of lipopolysaccharide (LPS)-dependent NO₂⁻ production by anti-LPS-binding protein (LBP) and anti-LPS.

	% inhibition of NO ₂ ⁻ production			TNF α
	LPS 1	LPS 3	LPS 10	
Anti-LPS	100	ND	89	7
	ND	100	87	0
	100	97	83	0
Anti-LBP	88	27	ND	0
	79	32	ND	0

NOTE. LPS, 1–10 ng/mL; tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF α), 1000 units/mL in the presence of 100 units/mL interferon- γ (IFN- γ); anti-LPS (1:500 dilution), anti-LBP (400 μ g IgG/mL). Absolute nmol/well nitrite (NO₂⁻) in control cultures (mean \pm SE): LPS 1, 0.7 \pm 0.1; LPS 3, 2.1 \pm 0.2; LPS 10, 3.8 \pm 0.1; IFN- γ /TNF α , 1.9 \pm 0.3. ND, not determined.

by RIA (unpublished data). The recent availability of purified polyclonal antibody directed against murine LBP [11] allowed us to examine its effect on NO₂⁻ production stimulated by LPS in the presence of 1% NMP using IFN- γ -primed macrophages.

Macrophages were alternatively stimulated with TNF α plus IFN- γ , and rabbit polyclonal antiserum directed against *E. coli* O111 LPS was used as a positive control for inhibition of LPS-dependent stimulation. Anti-LPS (three experiments) inhibited NO₂⁻ production elicited by LPS but not by IFN- γ /TNF α (table 3). In two experiments, anti-LBP similarly inhibited only LPS-induced NO₂⁻ release. No inhibition was observed with normal rabbit serum or purified preimmune rabbit IgG (data not shown). These results are consistent with the NMP-dependent enhancement of NO₂⁻ release as well as with results from a previous study [9], demonstrating that purified rabbit LBP enhances NO₂⁻ production by LPS-stimulated murine macrophages.

Inhibition of LPS-mediated NO₂⁻ production as a function of time of rBPI₂₃ addition. The effect of time of rBPI₂₃ addition on its inhibition of NO production was examined using IFN- γ -primed macrophages. rBPI₂₃ strongly inhibited NO₂⁻ release when added up to 1 h after 1 or 3 ng/mL LPS plus 1% NMP (figure 2). Moreover, rBPI₂₃ consistently inhibited the response to 1 ng/mL LPS even when added as late as 4 h. Induction of NO synthesis appeared to be an even slower process in the absence of plasma since inhibition of 3 ng/mL LPS was obtained when rBPI₂₃ was added 8 h after LPS (data not shown). When the concentration of LPS was increased to 10 ng/mL (1% NMP), rBPI₂₃ did not inhibit NO₂⁻ release when added 30 min after stimulation (figure 2). We therefore examined the effects of delaying the addition of inhibitor for shorter periods. In three experiments, addition of rBPI₂₃ 10 min after 10 ng/mL LPS inhibited NO₂⁻ release by 40.7% \pm 4.2% (mean \pm SE).

Inhibition of LPS binding to murine macrophages by rBPI₂₃. We previously reported that purified LBP or acute-

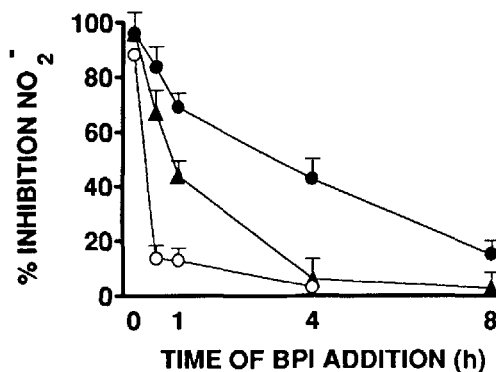


Figure 2. Inhibition of macrophage nitrite (NO₂⁻) production by recombinant (r)BPI₂₃ added at various times after lipopolysaccharide (LPS) exposure. rBPI₂₃ (1 μ g/mL) was added to primed macrophages at various times relative to addition of LPS at 1 (●), 3 (▲), or 10 ng/mL (○). Data are % inhibition of NO₂⁻ production; each point represents mean \pm SE of at least three independent experiments. Absolute nmol/well NO₂⁻ release in control cultures (mean of 3 or 4 experiments \pm SE): 1 ng/mL LPS, 0.7 \pm 0.1; 3 ng/mL LPS, 2.2 \pm 0.3; 10 ng/mL LPS, 3.2 \pm 0.2.

phase rabbit serum enhanced the binding of 1 μ g/mL FITC-LPS to bone marrow-derived macrophages [9]. Furthermore, anti-LBP inhibited LPS binding in the presence of rabbit or murine sera [9, 11]. Since NO₂⁻ production is induced by much lower levels of LPS than those used in the binding experiments, we have now examined the binding of 10 or 100 ng/mL FITC-LPS to bone marrow-derived macrophages using 1% NMP. In addition, primed and unprimed macrophages were compared since both populations were used to study the effects of rBPI₂₃ on NO production, and it was possible that IFN- γ pretreatment might modify the expression of macrophage CD14 or other putative LPS receptor molecules. As shown in table 4, 1 μ g/mL rBPI₂₃ strongly inhibited binding at either LPS concentration. Furthermore, virtually no differences were detectable between the primed and unprimed populations. Inasmuch as low but reproducible binding of 10 ng/mL LPS was detectable in these experi-

Table 4. Recombinant (r) BPI₂₃ inhibition of lipopolysaccharide (LPS) binding by primed or unprimed murine macrophages.

Macrophage status, LPS concentration (ng/mL)	Mean fluorescence (arbitrary units)	
	Without rBPI ₂₃	With rBPI ₂₃
Unprimed		
10	5.2	2.6
100	17.6	3.5
Primed		
10	5.2	2.6
100	13.2	3.3

NOTE. Binding in 4% albumin (negative control) was 2.5–2.6 fluorescence units.

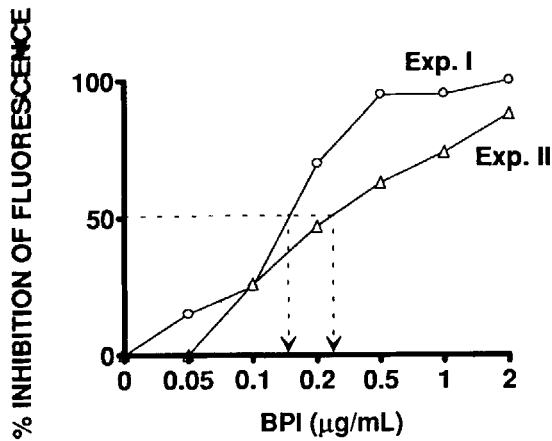


Figure 3. Dose-dependent inhibition of lipopolysaccharide (LPS) binding to murine macrophages by recombinant (r)BPI₂₃. Interferon- γ -primed macrophages (10 units/mL, 24 h) were incubated with 10 ng/mL fluorescein isothiocyanate-LPS (FITC-LPS) and 1% normal mouse plasma with or without increasing concentrations of rBPI₂₃ for 1 h at 37°C. LPS binding measured as FITC-LPS fluorescence is presented as % of control binding in absence of rBPI₂₃. Mean fluorescence (arbitrary units) of 10,000 cells in control: experiment (exp) I (O), 4.8; exp II (Δ), 4.7.

ments, we could directly compare the capacity of rBPI₂₃ to inhibit binding with its effect on NO₂⁻ release. When binding of 10 ng/mL FITC-LPS was examined in the presence of 1% NMP (figure 3), half-maximal inhibition of macrophage fluorescence was obtained with ~0.2 µg/mL rBPI₂₃ (i.e., concentrations similar to those for NO₂⁻ production). To further examine the relationship between LPS binding and NO production, rBPI₂₃ was added 10 min after 10 ng/mL FITC-LPS. In three experiments, delaying the addition of rBPI₂₃ decreased the inhibition of macrophage fluorescence from 95.3% ± 3.8% (rBPI₂₃ at time 0) to 29.0% ± 4.4% (rBPI₂₃ at 10 min).

Inhibition of intracellular leishmanicidal activity. Since rBPI₂₃ could inhibit the induction of NO₂⁻ release, it was of interest to examine its effects on an in vitro system in which NO is known to have biologic activity. An excellent correlation exists between murine macrophage activation for NO production and the ability to kill intracellular *Leishmania* species [35–37]. We therefore examined the effects of rBPI₂₃ on leishmanicidal activity stimulated by LPS. Macrophages infected with *Leishmania* species 24 h before stimulation generally produce higher levels of NO₂⁻ than do uninfected cells (unpublished data). Addition of IFN- γ plus LPS or IFN- γ plus TNF α induced NO₂⁻ secretion and leishmanicidal activity (table 5). In cultures stimulated with IFN- γ and LPS, BPI inhibited NO₂⁻ production and abolished intracellular killing. rBPI₂₃ did not inhibit cytotoxic activity nonspecifically since intracellular killing induced by IFN- γ plus TNF α was unaffected by rBPI₂₃. Furthermore, the ability of control macrophages (DMEM or IFN- γ alone) to support *Leish-*

mania infection in the presence of rBPI₂₃ is further evidence for the lack of toxicity of this molecule under the in vitro conditions used in this study.

Discussion

Production of a large array of cytokines and inflammatory mediators by LPS-activated macrophages undoubtedly contributes to the pathologic manifestations of gram-negative sepsis. In particular, current evidence suggests that rapid release of TNF α in response to picogram concentrations of LPS is responsible for many of the clinical symptoms associated with lethal endotoxemia [38]. However, high levels of serum TNF are not necessarily associated with mortality [39]. Circulating levels of IFN- γ are also detectable in patients and in experimental models of endotoxic shock and, recently, we [40] and others [41, 42] have demonstrated that monoclonal antibodies to IFN- γ can significantly decrease lethality in vivo.

As previously shown for macrophage cytolytic activity, efficient induction of NO production by either LPS or TNF α requires costimulation by IFN- γ [26, 34]. Although it has been suggested that induction of the Ca²⁺-independent NO synthase pathway is important in the pathogenesis of endotoxic shock, recent attempts to correlate toxicity of bacterial products with enzyme induction in vivo have been unsuccessful [43, 44]. Since in vivo models designed to test the

Table 5. Recombinant (r) BPI₂₃ inhibits intracellular leishmanicidal activity of bone marrow-derived macrophages stimulated by interferon (IFN)- γ plus lipopolysaccharide (LPS).

Experiment no., conditions	rBPI ₂₃	Parasite survival (cpm ± SE)	NO ₂ ⁻ (nmol/well)
Experiment I			
DMEM	-	53,646 ± 827	0.1
	+	55,066 ± 130	0.1
IFN- γ , 10 units/mL +	-	61,392 ± 2652	0.4
	+	57,426 ± 573	0.2
LPS, 1 ng/mL	-	374 ± 95	4.3
	+	58,953 ± 943	0.2
LPS, 3 ng/mL	-	498 ± 142	6.5
	+	57,060 ± 40	0.8
Experiment II			
DMEM	-	39,222 ± 725	0
	+	42,940 ± 522	0
IFN- γ , 100 units/mL	-	36,988 ± 717	0
	+	42,623 ± 630	0
IFN- γ , 10 units/mL + LPS, 3 ng/mL	-	70 ± 5	6.5
	+	47,351 ± 992	0.2
IFN- γ , 100 units/mL + TNF α , 1000 units/mL	-	5456 ± 176	2.4
	+	2647 ± 302	2.5

NOTE. Data are from 2 independent experiments and represent 5 experiments. DMEM, Dulbecco's MEM; IFN- γ , interferon- γ ; TNF α , tumor necrosis factor- α . rBPI₂₃, 1 µg/mL. Nitrite (NO₂⁻). SE ≤0.3 nmol/well (n = 3).

efficiency of BPI in inhibiting the lethal consequences of endotoxic shock should consider possible effects on NO production, we first assessed the capacity of rBPI₂₃ to inhibit NO₂⁻ release by macrophages stimulated in vitro by IFN- γ plus LPS or by IFN- γ plus TNF α .

Preliminary studies on LPS-elicited TNF secretion by bone marrow-derived macrophages demonstrated that rBPI₂₃ inhibited release of this mediator at concentrations equivalent to those previously reported by Marra et al. [20] for human monocytes. In those studies, LPS was preincubated with purified BPI. In our experiments, LPS was added to cell cultures containing rBPI₂₃ and 1% NMP was immediately added. Using a similar protocol with IFN- γ -primed macrophages, we found that rBPI₂₃ inhibited LPS-triggered NO production with an approximate IC₅₀ of 0.1–0.3 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ (4–12 nM). These concentrations are nearly identical to those reported by Ooi et al. [18] for the inhibition by an NH₂-terminal BPI fragment of TNF secretion in whole blood elicited by 1 ng/mL LPS. Furthermore, on a molar basis, rBPI₂₃ was at least as effective as polymyxin B (data not shown), in agreement with results of Marra et al. [20] on effects of polymyxin B and soluble BPI on in vivo induction of TNF α secretion. When we later examined the effect of rBPI₂₃ on macrophage binding of FITC-LPS, half-maximal inhibition was observed at concentrations similar to those obtained for inhibition of NO production. These concentrations are also similar to the reported K_d of rBPI₂₃ for various LPS [21].

As shown in control experiments, NO₂⁻ production elicited by IFN- γ plus TNF α is unaffected by rBPI₂₃, demonstrating specificity for LPS-activated macrophages. Of note, under the conditions used in these studies (i.e., low IFN- γ and LPS concentrations and assay of NO₂⁻ at 24 h), TNF is not an important cofactor for LPS-induced NO production. The amount of bone marrow macrophage TNF secreted is much less than the concentrations used here to trigger NO production (these studies and [9]). Furthermore, antibody to murine TNF α did not inhibit NO₂⁻ production by cultures stimulated with IFN- γ plus LPS [45].

Interestingly, rBPI₂₃ inhibited NO₂⁻ production when added several hours after LPS. Similar results were obtained with polymyxin B or rabbit anti-O111 LPS (not shown). Elicitation of NO production is a relatively slow process, with NO₂⁻ release first detectable 4–8 h after stimulation. Our results demonstrate that induction occurs more quickly at 10 ng/mL LPS than at a 10-fold lower concentration, suggesting that low concentrations of LPS stimulate certain macrophage responses such as NO synthase activity by a slow accumulation of multiple signal-transducing events. The ability of rBPI₂₃ to inhibit NO production when added after LPS contrasts with our previous results on inhibition of TNF production by human monocytes [23]. It remains to be seen whether LPS recognition and signal-transduction events leading to NO production and TNF α secretion are significantly different.

Alternatively, plasma or cellular components involved in LPS-dependent macrophage activation may vary between the human and murine systems. As shown here, antibody to murine plasma LBP inhibited NO₂⁻ release, consistent with our previous results using purified LBP [9]. However, it is also clear that NO production elicited by higher LPS concentrations can occur in the absence of plasma or plasma LBP. Furthermore, rBPI₂₃ inhibits NO₂⁻ release in the presence or absence of NMP, and thus of LBP.

rBPI₂₃ also inhibited macrophage leishmanicidal activity induced by IFN- γ plus LPS but not by IFN- γ plus TNF α . These experiments underline the specificity of rBPI₂₃ for LPS and provide a sensitive in vitro model to demonstrate lack of toxicity for macrophages since control unstimulated cells support an intracellular microbial infection equally well in the presence or absence of rBPI₂₃.

Taken together, these results suggest that rBPI₂₃ might be an effective inhibitor of NO production in vivo where concentrations of LPS rarely exceed picogram per milliliter levels [46, 47]. Moreover, inhibition of LPS-elicited TNF production by rBPI₂₃ could provide a further level of control of inducible NO synthase activity in gram-negative shock. The relative role of this pathway in patients or in murine models of endotoxemia remains a controversial issue that deserves further study.

References

1. Glauser MP, Zanetti G, Baumgartner JD, Cohen J. Septic shock: pathogenesis. *Lancet* 1991;338:732–9.
2. Morrison DC, Ryan JL. Bacterial endotoxins and host immune responses. *Adv Immunol* 1979;28:293–450.
3. Tobias PS, Mathison JC, Ulevitch RJ. A family of lipopolysaccharide binding proteins involved in responses to gram-negative sepsis. *J Biol Chem* 1988;263:13479–81.
4. Tobias PS, Soldau K, Ulevitch RJ. Isolation of a lipopolysaccharide-binding acute phase reactant from rabbit serum. *J Exp Med* 1986;164:777–93.
5. Tobias PS, Soldau K, Ulevitch RJ. Identification of a lipid A binding site in the acute phase reactant lipopolysaccharide binding protein. *J Biol Chem* 1989;264:10867–71.
6. Wright SD, Ramos RA, Tobias PS, Ulevitch RJ, Mathison JC. CD14, a receptor for complexes of lipopolysaccharide (LPS) and LPS binding protein. *Science* 1990;249:1431–3.
7. Schumann RR, Leong SR, Flagg GW, et al. Structure and function of lipopolysaccharide binding protein. *Science* 1990;249:1429–31.
8. Heumann D, Gally P, Barras C, et al. Control of lipopolysaccharide (LPS) binding and LPS-induced tumor necrosis factor secretion in human peripheral blood monocytes. *J Immunol* 1992;148:3505–12.
9. Betz Corradin S, Mauel J, Gally P, Heumann D, Ulevitch RJ, Tobias PS. Enhancement of murine macrophage binding of and response to bacterial lipopolysaccharide (LPS) by LPS-binding protein. *J Leukoc Biol* 1992;52:363–8.
10. Mathison JC, Tobias PS, Wolfson E, Ulevitch RJ. Plasma lipopolysaccharide binding protein: a key component in macrophage recognition of gram-negative lipopolysaccharide (LPS). *J Immunol* 1992;149:200–6.
11. Gally P, Carrel S, Glauser MP, et al. Purification and characterization of murine LPS-binding protein. *Infect Immun* 1993;61:378–83.
12. Lee JD, Kato K, Tobias PS, Kirkland TN, Ulevitch RJ. Transfection of

- CD14 into 70Z/3 cells dramatically enhances the sensitivity to complexes of lipopolysaccharide (LPS) and LPS binding protein. *J Exp Med* **1992**;175:1697-705.
13. Weiss J, Elsbach P, Olson I, Odeberg H. Purification and characterization of a potent bactericidal and membrane active protein from the granules of human polymorphonuclear leukocytes. *J Biol Chem* **1978**;253:2664-72.
 14. Weiss J, Olsson I. Cellular and subcellular localization of the bacterial/permeability-increasing protein of neutrophils. *Blood* **1987**;69:652-9.
 15. Mannion BA, Kalatzis ES, Weiss J, Elsbach P. Preferential binding of the neutrophil cytoplasmic granule-derived bactericidal/permeability increasing protein to target bacteria. Implications and use as a means of purification. *J Immunol* **1989**;42:2807-12.
 16. Weiss J, Elsbach P, Shu C, et al. Human bactericidal/permeability-increasing protein and a recombinant NH₂-terminal fragment cause killing of serum-resistant gram-negative bacteria in whole blood and inhibit tumor necrosis factor release induced by the bacteria. *J Clin Invest* **1992**;90:1122-30.
 17. Gray PW, Flagg G, Leong SR, et al. Cloning of the cDNA of a human neutrophil bactericidal protein. Structural and functional correlations. *J Biol Chem* **1989**;264:9505-9.
 18. Ooi CE, Weiss J, Doerfler ME, Elsbach P. Endotoxin-neutralizing properties of the 25 kD bactericidal/permeability increasing protein of human neutrophils. *J Exp Med* **1991**;174:649-55.
 19. Marra MN, Wilde CG, Griffith JE, Snable JL, Scott RW. Bactericidal/permeability-increasing protein has endotoxin-neutralizing activity. *J Immunol* **1990**;144:662-6.
 20. Marra MN, Wilde CG, Collins MS, Snable JL, Thornton MB, Scott RW. The role of bactericidal/permeability-increasing protein as a natural inhibitor of bacterial endotoxin. *J Immunol* **1992**;148:532-7.
 21. Gazzano-Santoro H, Parent JB, Grinna L, et al. High-affinity binding of the bactericidal/permeability-increasing protein and a recombinant amino-terminal fragment to the lipid A region of lipopolysaccharide. *Infect Immun* **1992**;60:4754-61.
 22. Mézaros K, Parent JB, Gazzano-Santoro H, et al. A recombinant amino terminal fragment of bactericidal/permeability increasing protein inhibits the induction of leukocyte responses by LPS. *J Leukoc Biol* (in press).
 23. Heumann D, Gally P, Betz Corradin S, Barras C, Baumgartner JD, Glauser MP. Competition between bactericidal/permeability-increasing protein and lipopolysaccharide-binding protein for lipopolysaccharide binding to monocytes. *J Infect Dis* **1993**;167:1351-7.
 24. Pace JL, Russell SW. Activation of mouse macrophages for tumor cell killing. I. Quantitative analysis of interactions between lymphokine and lipopolysaccharide. *J Immunol* **1981**;126:1863-7.
 25. Nacy CA, Oster CN, James SL, Meltzer MS. Activation of macrophages to kill rickettsiae and leishmania: dissociation of intracellular microbicidal activities and extracellular destruction of neoplastic and helminth targets. *Contemp Top Immunobiol* **1984**;13:147-70.
 26. Stuehr DJ, Marletta MA. Induction of nitrite/nitrate synthesis in murine macrophages by BCG infection, lymphokines, or interferon- γ . *J Immunol* **1987**;139:518-25.
 27. Mauël J, Buchmüller-Rouiller Y. Effect of lipopolysaccharide on intracellular killing of *Leishmania enriettii* and correlation with macrophage oxidative metabolism. *Eur J Immunol* **1987**;17:203-8.
 28. Moncada S, Palmer RMJ, Higgs EA. Nitric oxide: physiology, pathophysiology, and pharmacology. *Pharmacol Rev* **1991**;43:109-42.
 29. Nathan C. Nitric oxide as a secretory product of mammalian cells. *FASEB J* **1992**;6:3051-64.
 30. Petros A, Bennett D, Vallance P. Effect of nitric oxide synthase inhibitors on hypotension in patients with septic shock. *Lancet* **1991**;338:1557-8.
 31. Kelso A, Glasebrook AL, Kanagawa O, Brunner KT. Production of macrophage-activating factor by T lymphocyte clones and correlation with other lymphokine activities. *J Immunol* **1982**;129:550-6.
 32. Mauël J. Intracellular parasite killing induced by electron carriers. I. Effect of electron carriers on intracellular *Leishmania* spp. in macrophages from different genetic backgrounds. *Mol Biochem Parasitol* **1984**;13:83-96.
 33. Espevik T, Nissen-Meyer J. A highly sensitive cell line, WEHI 164 clone 13, for measuring cytotoxic factor/tumor necrosis factor from human monocytes. *J Immunol Methods* **1986**;95:99-105.
 34. Ding AH, Nathan CF, Stuehr DJ. Release of reactive nitrogen intermediates and reactive oxygen intermediates from mouse peritoneal macrophages. Comparison of activating cytokines and evidence for independent production. *J Immunol* **1988**;141:2407-12.
 35. Liew FY, Li Y, Millott SJ. TNF α synergizes with IFN γ in mediating killing of *Leishmania major* through the induction of nitric oxide. *J Immunol* **1990**;145:4306-11.
 36. Green SJ, Crawford RM, Hockmeyer JT, Meltzer MS, Nacy CA. Activated macrophages destroy intracellular *Leishmania major* amastigotes by an L-arginine-dependent killing mechanism. *J Immunol* **1990**;144:278-83.
 37. Mauël J, Ransijn A, Buchmüller-Rouiller Y. Killing of *Leishmania* parasites in activated murine macrophages is based on an L-arginine-dependent process that produces nitrogen derivatives. *J Leukoc Biol* **1991**;49:73-82.
 38. Tracey KJ, Lowry S. The role of cytokine mediators in septic shock. *Adv Surg* **1990**;23:21-56.
 39. Zanetti G, Heumann D, Gérard J, et al. Cytokine production after intravenous or peritoneal gram-negative bacterial challenge in mice. Comparative protective efficacy of antibodies to tumor necrosis factor- α and to lipopolysaccharide. *J Immunol* **1992**;148:1890-7.
 40. Kohler J, Heumann D, Garotta G, et al. IFN γ involvement in the severity of gram-negative infections in mice. *J Immunol* **1993**;151:916-21.
 41. Billau A. Gamma-interferon: the match that lights the fire? *Immunol Today* **1988**;9:37-40.
 42. Doherty JA, Lange JR, Langstein HN, Alexander HR, Buresh CM, Norton JA. Evidence for IFN- γ as a mediator of the lethality of endotoxin and tumor necrosis factor- α . *J Immunol* **1992**;149:1666-70.
 43. Evans T, Carpenter A, Silva A, Cohen J. Differential effects of monoclonal antibodies to tumor necrosis factor alpha and gamma interferon on induction of hepatic nitric oxide synthase in experimental gram-negative sepsis. *Infect Immun* **1992**;60:4133-9.
 44. Palacios M, Knowles RG, Moncada S. Enhancers of nonspecific immunity induce nitric oxide synthase: induction does not correlate with toxicity or adjuvancy. *Eur J Immunol* **1992**;22:2303-7.
 45. Betz Corradin S, Buchmüller-Rouiller Y, Mauël J. Phagocytosis enhances murine macrophage activation by interferon- γ and tumor necrosis factor- α . *Eur J Immunol* **1991**;21:2552-8.
 46. Brandtzaeg P, Kierulf P, Gaustad P, Dobloug J, Molines TE, Sirnes K. Systemic meningococcal disease: a model infection to study acute endotoxemia in man. In: Levin J, Büller HR, ten Cate JW, van Deventer SJH, Sturk A, eds. *Bacterial endotoxins: pathophysiological effects, clinical significance, and pharmacological control*. New York: Alan R Liss, **1988**:263-71.
 47. van Deventer SJH, de Vries I, Statius LW, et al. Endotoxemia, bacteremia and urosepsis. In: Levin J, Büller HR, ten Cate JW, van Deventer SJH, Sturk A, eds. *Bacterial endotoxins: pathophysiological effects, clinical significance, and pharmacological control*. New York: Alan R Liss, **1988**:213-24.