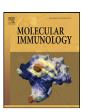
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Involvement of intracellular signaling cascades in inflammatory responses in human intestinal epithelial cells following *Vibrio cholerae* infection

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ABSTRACT

Vibrio cholerae, the etiological agent of cholera, leads to the induction of host cell nuclear responses and the activation of proinflammatory cytokines in the cultured intestinal epithelial cells. However, the host cell signaling pathway leading to proinflammatory response is not explored. In this study, we demonstrated that V. cholerae infection on intestinal epithelial cells results in the activation of extracellular signalregulated kinases1/2(ERK1/2) and p38 of the mitogen activated protein kinase (MAPK) family. V. cholerae induced intracellular pathways in Int407 cells leading to the activation of protein kinase A (PKA) and protein tyrosin kinase (PTK) in upstream of MAPK and nuclear factor-kappaB (NF-κB) pathway. Inhibitor study of Ca²⁺ and phospholipase-gamma (PLC-γ) pathway suggested the possible involvement of Ca²⁺ signaling in the V. cholerae pathogenesis. V. cholerae culture supernatants as also insertional mutants of ctxA, toxR and toxT genes modulate the activation of MAPK and NF-κB signaling pathways. MAPK and NF-kB signaling pathway activation were also modulated by adherence and motility of V. cholerae. Studies with inhibitor of NF-kB, MAPK, PTK, PKA, PKC, Ca²⁺ and PLC pathways showed differential cytokine secretion in Int407 following V. cholerae infection. Therefore V. cholerae mediated induction of nuclear responses through signal transduction pathway and subsequent activation of proinflammatory cytokines in Int407 modulated by V. cholerae secretory factors, virulence, adhesion/motility which might explain some of its reactogenic mechanisms.

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1. Introduction

The etiologic agent of the cholera is a highly motile non-invasive Gram-negative organism *Vibrio cholerae*, which colonizes the small intestine and produces a potent enterotoxin called cholera toxin (CT)—a major virulence determinant that is primarily responsible for the diarrheal syndrome (Kaper et al., 1995). At the molecular level, the pathogenesis of cholera is a multifactorial process and involves several genes encoding virulence factors that aid the pathogen in its colonization, coordinated expression of virulence factors, and toxin action. *V. cholerae* ToxR, the master regulator controlling the expression of several virulence factors, acts synergistically with TcpP on the ToxT promoter which then activates the genes encoding CT, TCP and accessory colonization factors (Childers and Klose, 2007). Several studies have established association of motility and adhesion with virulence in *V. cholerae* (Gardel and Mekalanos, 1996; Postnova et al., 1996).

A characteristic feature of *V. cholerae* induced pathology is the induction of an early inflammatory response in the intestinal epithelial cells which could be evidenced by the infiltration of polymorphonuclear leukocytes (PMN) in the lamina propria (Oadri et al., 2002), lymphocytes (Pastore et al., 1976), mononuclear cells (Gangarosa et al., 1960), as well as elevated level of LTB₄ and myeloperoxidase (Silva et al., 1996). The major enterotoxin CT has been demonstrated to strongly promote the production of IL-6 by rat IEC-6 epithelial cells (McGee et al., 1993). In the search for effective vaccines, adaptive immunity against V. cholerae and CT has been investigated intensely (Flach et al., 2005). Much less is known about the innate defense mechanisms during cholera that may be involved in the early defense against the infection and also in initiation of the adaptive immune response. Cholera has long been considered a classic paradigm of non-inflammatory toxigenic diarrhoea (Farthing, 1997) until observations showed that V. cholerae infection induces an increase in inflammatory components (Saha et al., 2000). Fullner et al. (2002) showed evidence of inflammation including infiltration of PMN, tissue damage, localized release of tumor necrosis factor (TNF- α), high serum titers of interlukin (IL)-6 and the neutrophil chemoattractant protein macropahge inhibitory protein (MIP)-2 by accessory toxins of V. cholerae in a mouse pulmonary model of infection. A few recent reports have also documented the release of IL-8 upon V. cholerae infection in the intestinal epithelial cells (Rodriguez et al., 2001; Sarkar and Chaudhuri, 2004; Zhou et al., 2004). Besides IL-8, our recent

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reports have shown the induction of proinflammatory cytokines IL-1α, IL-1β, IL-6, monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 (MCP-1), granulocyte macrophage colony-stimulating factor (GM-CSF), TNF- α and epithelial neutrophil-activating peptide-78 (ENA-78) with concomitant reduction of anti-inflammatory cytokines transforming growth factor-beta (TGF-β) in intestinal epithelial cells upon V. cholerae infection (Bandyopadhaya et al., 2007b). Recently Holmgren et al. established the involvement of innate defense molecules against V. cholerae infection (Flach et al., 2007). V. cholerae activates the transcription factor NF-kB and subsequently upregulate the transcription of genes encoding proinflammatory cytokines/chemokines in intestinal epithelial cells (Bandyopadhaya et al., 2007a,b). Indeed, the adherence and motility of V. cholerae induces the translocation of NF-κB (Bandyopadhaya et al., 2007a) and the transcription of target genes in Int407 following Toll-like receptor (TLR) engagement (Bandyopadhaya et al., 2008) as well as activation of IL-1 β , IL-6 and TNF- α was attenuated in TLR4^{-/-} mice (Haines et al., 2005). The extracellular signal-regulated kinases (ERK1/2 or p44/42 mitogen-activated protein kinases (MAPK)), the c-Jun NH2-terminal kinases/stress activated protein kinase (SAPK/JNKs) and p38 MAPK are extremely conserved signaling components involved in the response to stress and immunity also in lower organisms as well as macrophages and neutrophil activation (Caffrey et al., 1999) and recently we have shown that V. cholerae flagellin could activate ERK1/2 and p38 MAPK in intestinal epithelial cells (Bandyopadhaya et al., 2008). However, the signaling cascade as well as the specific V. cholerae components involved in the induction and regulatory mechanisms of mucosal inflammatory responses to infection by *V. cholerae* are still largely unknown.

Therefore we attempted to investigate the mechanisms by which V. cholerae induces nuclear responses and produce proinflammatory cytokines in human intestinal epithelial cells. We could demonstrate that activation of MAPK and NF-kB mediated signaling pathways in V. cholerae infected intestinal epithelial cells required viable pathogen which results in the activation of the transcription factors. We speculate these transcription factors mediate the production of proinflammatory cytokines which may be important in inducing V. cholerae induced pathology. By inhibitor study, we were able to identify the upstream protein kinases of the MAPK and NF-κB pathway involved in the inflammatory response in human intestinal epithelial cells following V. cholerae infection. This is, to our knowledge, the first report providing an initial insight into the events to determine whether the host intracellular signaling pathways are modulated by secreted factors, cell surface components, virulence or the adhesion process itself and further delineates the role of signaling pathways in the V. cholerae mediated cytokine induction.

2. Experimental procedures

2.1. Bacterial strains and growth conditions

The bacterial strains used in this study are listed in Table 1. All V. cholerae O395 and $Escherichia\ coli$ strains were maintained at $-70\,^{\circ}$ C in Luria–Bertani (LB) medium containing 20% (v/v) glycerol. $E.\ coli$ and $V.\ cholerae$ cells were grown in LB medium. Streptomycin and ampicillin concentration were 1 mg/ml and 15 μ g/ml respectively for $V.\ cholerae$ wherever appropriate. $V.\ cholerae$ gene-specific insertional mutant O395Y3N was constructed as described previously (Sarkar et al., 2005).

2.2. Construction of V. cholerae mutant strains

Internal fragments of the gene of interest (*cheY-3*) *V. cholerae* 0395 were amplified from genomic DNA using the oligonucleotide pairs cheY-3F5'-CTTCGAGATCTGGGGTTCAA-3' and *cheY-3R* 5'-

Table 1Bacterial strains used in this study.

Strains	Relevant genotype or phenotype	Source/reference
Vibrio cholerae		
O395	O1 serotype Ogawa, biotype classical, streptomycin resistant, CT+	Laboratory collection
O395Y3N	O395 insertion cheY-3 gene	Present study
O395Y4N/O395YN	O395 insertion in cheY-4 gene	Sarkar et al. (2005)
O395FLAN	O395 insertion in flaA gene	Sarkar et al. (2005)
O395OMPUN	O395 insertion in ompU gene	Do
O395TOXTN	O395 insertion in toxT gene	Do
O395TOXRN	O395 insertion in toxR gene	Do
O395CTXAN	O395 insertion in ctxA gene	Do
Escherichia coli		
DH5α	F-f80d/lacZ DM15 D(lacZYA arg F) U169 rec A1 end A1 hsdR17(r _k ,m _k -) supE441- thi-1 gyrA relA1	Bethesda research laboratories USA
SM10	thi-1 thr,leu,tonA,LacY,SupE,recA::RP4- 2-Tc::Mu,\(\lambda\)-pir	Miller and Mekalanos (1988)
Plasmids	2 renmant ph	
pTAdv	3.9 kb, Km ^r ,Amp ^r , with 3'T overhang	Clontech
pTZ57R/T	2.886 kb, Amp ^r , with 3'T overhang	MBI Fermentas
pGP704	Amp ^r oriR6K mob RP4 MCS of M13 tg 131	Miller and Mekalanos (1988)

GGCAGGTGCTTCAGTTCTTC-3′. The fragments were then cloned into a T-vector-pTZ57R/T of InsT/AcloneTM PCR Product Cloning Kit (MBI-Fermentus, Hanover, MD, USA) to obtain the recombinant plasmids, which were then restriction digested with appropriate enzymes and the inserts cloned into pGP704 to get the respective recombinant plasmid. These recombinant plasmids were then transformed into a λ pir lysogen of *E. coli* SM10 (Miller and Mekalanos, 1988). Ampicillin-resistant transformants containing recombinant plasmids were selected and were then conjugally transferred from *E. coli* SM10 to *V. cholerae* O395 (Sm^r). Transconjugants resistant to both ampicillin and streptomycin were selected. The mutant was verified either by PCR or Southern blotting (data not shown).

2.3. Cell culture, infection and stimulation

Human intestinal epithelial cell line Int407 from National Center for Cell Sciences, Pune, India, was grown and maintained in minimal essential medium (MEM, GIBCO-BRL, Gaithersburg, MD, USA) while T84 cell line (a gift from Dr. S Visyeswariah, IISc, Bangalore) was grown in Dulbecco Modified Eagle medium and Ham's F-12 medium (DMEM/F-12, GIBCO-BRL) at pH 7.4, supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (GIBCO-BRL) containing penicillin/streptomycin and gentamycin in the presence of 5% CO $_2$ at 37 °C. Cells were seeded in T-75 tissue culture flasks (Falcon, USA). Bacteria from overnight culture suspended in fresh MEM medium without antibiotic were added to each flask at an MOI \sim 100. The infected and non-infected T-75 flasks were incubated for different time periods at 37 °C under 5% CO $_2$.

For stimulation by supernatant, bacterial culture supernatants (equivalent to an MOI of 100 bacteria/cell and 5×100 MOI) were centrifuged; filter (0.2 μ m) sterilized, added to Int407 cells and incubated at 37 °C under 5% CO₂ for 3.5 h. In some experiments, supernatant was heat-treated (30 min, 95 °C), trypsin treated (2 h, 40 μ g/ml, Invitrogen, Life Technologies, USA) or proteinaseK treated (2 h, 200 μ g/ml, Invitrogen) before incubation. Stimulation with commercial CT (Sigma–Aldrich, USA) was done at concentrations of 4.5 ng/ml (equivalent to that obtained in the culture supernatant

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