

Forum Original Research Communication

Rosiglitazone and 15-Deoxy- $\Delta^{12,14}$ -Prostaglandin J₂, PPAR γ Agonists, Differentially Regulate Cigarette Smoke-Mediated Pro-Inflammatory Cytokine Release in Monocytes/Macrophages

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ABSTRACT

Peroxisome Proliferator-Activated Receptor gamma (PPAR γ) ligands have the potential for use as anti-inflammatory agents in chronic airway diseases. We hypothesized that cigarette smoke (CS)-mediated pro-inflammatory cytokine release would be downregulated in the monocyte-macrophage cell line (MonoMac6) by synthetic and natural PPAR γ ligands. Surprisingly, treatment of MonoMac6 cells with the natural PPAR γ ligand 15-deoxy- $\Delta^{12,14}$ -prostaglandin J₂ led to increased cytokine (IL-8) release in response to either TNF- α or CS extract (CSE). However, exposure to rosiglitazone, a synthetic agonist, led to decreased TNF- α , but not CSE, mediated cytokine release. Cytokine release correlated with nuclear PPAR γ localization; CSE reduced the amount of activated PPAR γ located in the nucleus and formed aldehyde adducts as PPAR γ protein carbonyls. Furthermore, it was shown that PPAR γ interacts with the RelA/p65 subunit of NF- κ B under TNF- α exposure conditions, but this interaction was disrupted by CS exposure, suggesting that CS blocks this important anti-inflammatory pathway involving PPAR γ . Thus, these new data show that activation of PPAR γ with natural or synthetic ligands have differential inhibitory effects on CS-mediated pro-inflammatory mediator release. These data have implications in designing therapies for treatment of COPD and pulmonary fibrosis. *Antioxid. Redox Signal.* 10, 253–260.

INTRODUCTION

PEROXISOME PROLIFERATOR-ACTIVATED RECEPTOR GAMMA (PPAR γ) is a member of the ligand-activated nuclear receptor superfamily. PPAR γ is located in the cytoplasm under basal conditions; however, when bound to ligand, it is translocated into the nucleus and regulates several metabolic pathways by binding to sequence-specific PPAR response elements in the promoter region of target genes (2, 5, 36). Studies have shown that endogenous 15-deoxy- $\Delta^{12,14}$ -prostaglandin J₂ (15d-PGJ₂), which is generated through the cyclooxygenase-2 (COX-2) pathway, blocks inflammation (3, 20) and, being an elec-

trophilic compound, can also induce phase II antioxidant genes through the nuclear factor E2-related factor 2 (Nrf2) mediated pathway (13). In addition to natural ligands, a wide range of synthetic PPAR γ agonists such as rosiglitazone, ciglitazone, and pioglitazone have been produced. Synthetic PPAR γ agonists are well-known “insulin sensitizers” and are used in the treatment of type II diabetes. Amongst those, rosiglitazone is the most potent and selective agent which binds PPAR γ with high affinity. PPAR γ also has the ability to physically interact with NF- κ B, resulting in trans-repression of NF- κ B signaling, which could contribute to the anti-inflammatory effects of PPAR γ agonists (36). Recently PPAR γ ligands have also been

proposed as anti-inflammatory agents in the treatment of a wide range of inflammatory diseases, including chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) and pulmonary fibrosis (5, 6, 31).

Cigarette smoke (CS)-triggered inflammation plays a central role in the development of COPD by a mechanism that involves enhanced pro-inflammatory gene transcription (26). In addition, it has been observed in heavy smokers that both emphysema and pulmonary fibrosis coexist, with fibrotic lesions in the lower zones/parenchyma and emphysema present in the upper zones of the lung (11). Moreover, exposure to CS has also been shown to associate with the development of several interstitial lung diseases and pulmonary fibrosis (11). It is therefore critical to understand the role of CS-induced lung inflammation in the development of these chronic inflammatory lung diseases. Cigarette smoke contains an estimated 10^{15-17} oxidants/free radicals and ~4,700 different chemical compounds per puff, including reactive aldehydes and quinones (9). Macrophages are proposed as a key inflammatory cell which orchestrates the inflammatory response in the lungs of COPD patients (29). Recently, our laboratory demonstrated that CS extract (CSE) activates NF- κ B and pro-inflammatory cytokine release in macrophages and rat lungs (19, 32). In addition, IKK-kinase β (IKK β) and/or MAP kinase inhibitors were unable to completely block the CSE-induced cytokine release from macrophages (32), suggesting the involvement of an alternative pathway in CS-mediated inflammation. This is supported by the fact that current therapies for COPD are not effective (1, 5, 26, 31). For example, corticosteroid treatment, which alleviates inflammation in asthma, is ineffective in COPD (1). Similarly, IKK2 (NF- κ B) inhibitors are ineffective and have immunosuppressive side effects (26). Since corticosteroids and IKK2 inhibitors are not effective in controlling CS-induced lung inflammation, it was hypothesized that PPAR γ agonists, that possess anti-inflammatory activity, would inhibit CS-induced pro-inflammatory cytokine release in macrophages. To test this hypothesis, the effect of selected synthetic (rosiglitazone) and natural (15-deoxy- $\Delta^{12,14}$ -prostaglandin J₂) PPAR γ agonists on CS and TNF- α -induced pro-inflammatory cytokine release (IL-8) was investigated in the monocyte-macrophage MonoMac6 cell line. The interactions of PPAR γ and the RelA/p65 subunit of NF- κ B in response to PPAR γ ligands was also studied to determine the mechanism of anti-inflammatory effect of certain PPAR γ agonists in CS-induced pro-inflammatory cytokine release in MonoMac6 cells.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Unless otherwise stated, all biochemical reagents used in this study were purchased from Sigma Chemicals Co., St. Louis, MO.

Materials

Penicillin, streptomycin, and RPMI 1640 were obtained from Life Technologies (Gaithersburg, MD). Fetal bovine serum (FBS) was obtained from HyClone Laboratories (Logan, UT). Rosiglitazone and 15-deoxy- $\Delta^{12,14}$ -prostaglandin J₂ were ob-

tained from Cayman (Ann Arbor, MI). Mouse monoclonal antibodies to PPAR γ (sc-7273), mouse monoclonal antibodies to α -tubulin (sc-5286), rabbit polyclonal antibodies to NF- κ B RelA/p65 (sc-372), and goat polyclonal antibodies to Lamin B (sc-6216) were purchased from Santa Cruz Biotechnology Inc., (Santa Cruz, CA). Rabbit polyclonal antibodies to PPAR (SA-206) were also purchased from Biomol International (Plymouth Meeting, PA), and mouse monoclonal antibodies to 4-hydroxy-2-nonenal (4-HNE) were purchased from Oxis International (Foster City, CA).

MonoMac6 cell culture

The human monocyte-macrophage cell line (mature monocyte-macrophage) MonoMac6, which was established from peripheral blood of a patient with monoclastic leukemia (21, 35), were grown in RPMI 1640 medium supplemented with 10% FBS, 2 mM L-glutamine, 100 μ g/ml penicillin, 100 unit/ml streptomycin, 1% nonessential amino acids, 1% sodium pyruvate, 1 μ g/ml human holo-transferrin, 1 mM oxaloacetic acid, and 9 μ g/ml bovine insulin. These cells do not require phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate (PMA) or 1,2,5-dihydroxyvitamin D₃ to differentiate into macrophages, thus avoiding any stress to the cells. The cells were cultured at 37°C in a humidified atmosphere containing 7.5% CO₂.

Preparation of aqueous cigarette smoke extract

Research grade cigarettes (1R3F) were obtained from the Kentucky Tobacco Research and Development Center at the University of Kentucky, Lexington, KY. The total particulate matter (TPM) content of 1R3F was 17.1 mg/cigarette, tar (15 mg/cigarette) and nicotine (1.16 mg/cigarette). 10% CSE was prepared by bubbling smoke from one cigarette into 10 ml of culture media supplemented with 1% FBS at a rate of one cigarette/2 min, as described previously (16, 22, 32), using a modification of the method described by Carp and Janoff (7). The pH of the CSE was adjusted to 7.4 and was sterile filtered through a 0.45 μ m filter (25 mm Acrodisc; Pall Corporation, Ann Arbor, MI). The CSE preparation was standardized by monitoring the absorbance at 320 nm (OD 0.74 ± 0.05). The spectral variations observed between different CSE preparations at λ 320 were minimal. CSE was freshly prepared for each experiment and diluted with culture media containing 1% FBS immediately before use. Control medium was prepared by bubbling air through 10 ml of culture media supplemented with 1% FBS, adjusting pH adjusted to 7.4, and sterile filtered as described for 10% CSE.

Treatments

MonoMac6 cells were seeded at a density of 4.5×10^6 cells/well (final volume 10 ml) and grown to ~80–90% confluency in 100 mm dishes containing RPMI media with 1% FBS and treatment media contained 1% serum as well. All treatments were performed in duplicate. The cells were treated with CSE (0.5%) or TNF- α (10 ng/ml) for 4 h in the presence or absence of a 2 h pretreatment with rosiglitazone (10 μ M), or for 24 h with CSE (1% and 5%) or TNF- α (10 ng/ml) with a co-treatment of 15d-PGJ₂ (1 and 5 μ M) at 37°C with 7.5% CO₂.

At the end of treatment, the cells were washed with cold sterile Ca²⁺/Mg²⁺-free PBS and were lysed before being used to assay PPAR γ and its interaction with RelA/p65. Culture media from these cells were collected and stored at -80°C until analyzed for IL-8 release.

Western blot analysis

MonoMac6 cells were exposed to CSE or TNF- α , with or without PPAR γ ligands, as described above. Nuclear proteins were extracted from MonoMac6 cells with 10% Nonidet P-40 (NP-40) lysis buffer supplemented with a protease inhibitor cocktail [leupeptin, aprotinin, pepstatin, and phenylmethylsulfonylfluoride (PMSF)]. For PPAR γ assays, 20 μg of isolated nuclear proteins were subjected to electrophoresis on 7.5% PAGE gels and transferred onto nitrocellulose membranes (Amersham, Arlington Heights, IL) using an electro-blotting technique. The nitrocellulose membrane was blocked with 10% nonfat milk and subsequently incubated with mouse polyclonal anti-human PPAR γ antibody (1:1000 dilution, Santa Cruz). After three washing steps (10 min each), the levels of protein were detected using goat anti-mouse antibody (1:20,000 dilution) linked to horseradish peroxidase (Dako, Santa Barbara, CA), and bound complexes were detected using enhanced chemiluminescence method (ECL, Jackson Immunology Research, West Grove, PA).

RelA/p65 immunoprecipitation and its interaction with PPAR γ

MonoMac6 cells were treated with CSE (0.5%) or TNF- α (10 ng/ml), with or without PPAR γ ligands for 4 h at 37°C . The nuclear fraction was then isolated and RelA/p65 immunoprecipitated: RelA/p65 antibody (1:80 dilution, Santa Cruz) was added to 100 μg of protein in a final volume of 400 μl and incubated for 1 h. Protein-A/G agarose beads (20 μl ; Santa Cruz) were added to each sample and incubated overnight at 4°C on a rotator. The samples were then centrifuged at 13,000 rpm at 4°C for 5 min. The supernatant was discarded and the beads were washed three times and then resuspended in 50 μl lysis buffer. For Western blots, 100 μg of the immunoprecipitated RelA/p65 agarose bead suspension was added to 20 μl of 5 \times sample buffer, boiled, and resolved using SDS-PAGE as described above. Agarose beads alone were used as negative control. To demonstrate the interaction of PPAR γ with RelA/p65 subunit of NF- κB , immunoprecipitated RelA/p65 was blotted against PPAR γ .

Post-translational modification of PPAR γ

MonoMac6 cells were treated with CSE for 4 h at 37°C , nuclear fraction was isolated, and PPAR γ was immunoprecipitated: PPAR γ antibody (1:80 dilution, Biomol) was added to 100 μg of protein in a final volume of 400 μl and incubated for 1 h. Protein-A/G agarose beads (20 μl ; Santa Cruz) were added to each sample and left overnight at 4°C on a rotator. The samples were then centrifuged at 13,000 rpm at 4°C for 5 min. The supernatant was discarded and the beads were washed three times and then resuspended in 50 μl lysis buffer. For Western blots, 100 μg of the immunoprecipitated PPAR γ agarose bead suspension was added to 20 μl of 5 \times sample

buffer, boiled, and resolved using SDS-PAGE as described above. Agarose beads alone were used as negative control. To determine the post-translational modification of PPAR γ , blots were probed with mouse monoclonal anti-4-hydroxy-2-nonenal (4-HNE) antibody (Oxis International) and followed by anti-PPAR γ antibody (Biomol).

Enzyme-linked immunosorbant assay (ELISA) for IL-8

The culture medium was collected following treatment and centrifuged at 2,500 for 5 min to pellet the cells. The supernatant was then removed and stored at -80°C prior to analysis. The levels of IL-8 in the supernatants were determined by ELISA using the duo antibody kit from R&D Systems Inc. (Minneapolis, MN) according to the manufacture's instructions.

Protein assay

Protein levels were measured using the bicinchoninic acid (BCA) kit (Pierce, Rockford, IL). Protein standards were obtained by diluting a stock solution of bovine serum albumin (BSA). Linear regression was used to determine the actual protein concentration of the samples.

Statistical analysis

The results are shown as the mean \pm SEM of four to six experiments. Statistical analysis of significance was calculated using one-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) using STATVIEW; p values > 0.05 considered nonsignificant, and $*/\dagger p < 0.05$; $*/\dagger\dagger p < 0.01$; and $*/\dagger\dagger\dagger p < 0.001$ as significant.

RESULTS

Cigarette smoke induces IL-8 release in MonoMac6 cells at 4 h

The earliest time at which MonoMac6 cells would release IL-8, an NF- κB -dependent pro-inflammatory cytokine, in response to CSE, was determined. There was no differential IL-8 release prior to 2 h (data not shown). However, at 4 h, MonoMac6 cells had significantly increased IL-8 release by 280% above control in response to 0.5% CSE ($p < 0.001$) (Fig. 1). MonoMac6 cells were then treated for the remainder of this study using 4 h as a standard time point for cigarette smoke-mediated IL-8 release.

15d-PGJ₂ enhances both TNF- α - and cigarette smoke extract-mediated IL-8 release

The effects of activating PPAR γ with the endogenous ligand 15d-PGJ₂ on IL-8 release were next examined. MonoMac6 cells were co-treated with 15d-PGJ₂ and either TNF- α or CSE for 24 h, as there was no effect of 15d-PGJ₂ observed at earlier time points. Alone, 15d-PGJ₂ significantly increased IL-8 release above untreated control cells by 278% ($p < 0.001$) at both 1 and 5 μM (Fig. 2). Surprisingly, IL-8 levels were also sig-

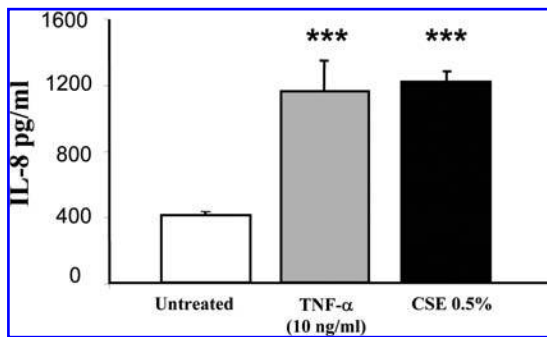


FIG. 1. Cigarette smoke extract (CSE) induces IL-8 release from MonoMac6 cells at 4 h. MonoMac6 cells were treated for 4 h with freshly prepared CSE (0.5%) or TNF- α (10 ng/ml) as a positive control. Cells were harvested, and supernatants were collected for measuring IL-8 levels by ELISA. 0.5% CSE showed increased levels of IL-8. Each histogram represents the mean of four experiments; *** p < 0.001 compared to control values.

nificantly higher when MonoMac6 cells were treated in combination with TNF- α and 15d-PGJ₂, and CSE (1 and 5%) and 15d-PGJ₂. These data suggest pro-inflammatory, rather than anti-inflammatory, effects of 15d-PGJ₂ on MonoMac6 cells.

Activation of PPAR γ with rosiglitazone downregulates TNF- α -, but not cigarette smoke extract, mediated IL-8 release

To determine the anti-inflammatory effects of synthetic PPAR γ ligand rosiglitazone on IL-8 release in MonoMac6 cells, the cells were pretreated with rosiglitazone for 2 h, followed by treatment with either TNF- α or CSE. Rosiglitazone treatment decreased TNF- α mediated IL-8 release by 57%, how-

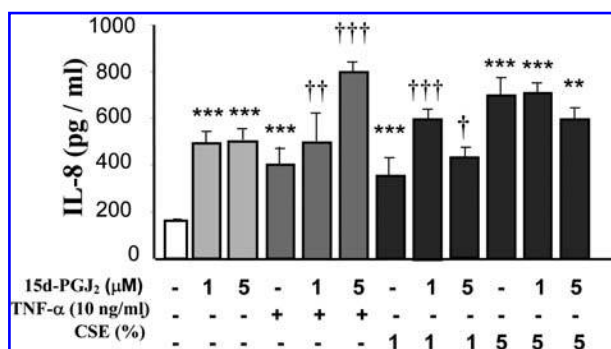


FIG. 2. Exposure to 15d-PGJ₂ enhanced both TNF- α and cigarette smoke extract (CSE) mediated IL-8 release in MonoMac6 cells. MonoMac6 cells were co-treated with 15-deoxy-PGJ₂ (1 and 5 μ M) and either TNF- α (10 ng/ml) or CSE (1 and 5%) for 24 h, and cell culture media was used for IL-8 analysis by ELISA. The results are presented as an average of six separate experiments performed in duplicate; *** p < 0.001 compared to control values and † p < 0.05, †† p < 0.01 and ††† p < 0.001 compared to relevant treatment.

ever, it had no effect on CSE mediated IL-8 release (Fig. 3). This observation suggested that CSE-derived free radicals may interfere in PPAR γ agonist mediated anti-inflammatory effects in macrophages.

Cigarette smoke extract decreased the levels of nuclear PPAR γ

It was next evaluated whether the reduction in IL-8 release by rosiglitazone was due to PPAR γ translocating to the nucleus and whether this translocation was impaired by CSE. Treatment with rosiglitazone alone showed increased PPAR γ levels in the nucleus (Fig. 4). Increased nuclear PPAR γ levels were also associated with cells treated with rosiglitazone plus TNF- α . Cells treated only with CSE treatment had low levels of PPAR γ in the nucleus, and pretreatment with rosiglitazone did not further increase nuclear PPAR γ levels compared to control value (100%). These data suggest that CSE interferes with PPAR γ signaling in macrophages.

PPAR γ possesses an active sulfhydryl group in its active site pocket (16). This sulfhydryl group is subject to modifications by reactive aldehydes and free radicals present in CS. In order to determine whether PPAR γ is modified post-translationally by reactive aldehydes present in CS, PPAR γ from MonoMac6 cells treated with CSE was immunoprecipitated and immunoblotted for 4-hydroxy-2-nonenol (4-HNE) (Fig. 5). CSE treatment increased the formation of 4-HNE-protein carbonyl adducts with PPAR γ , suggesting that PPAR γ was modified post-translationally by CS-derived aldehydes, and this modification may be the reason for inefficacy of PPAR γ in ameliorating the CS-induced release of IL-8 from macrophages.

Cigarette smoke extract disrupts the association between PPAR γ and RelA/p65 of NF- κ B

PPAR γ interacts with RelA/p65, and this is postulated to be responsible for its anti-inflammatory effects (36). In light of our data showing no inhibitory effect of PPAR γ ligands

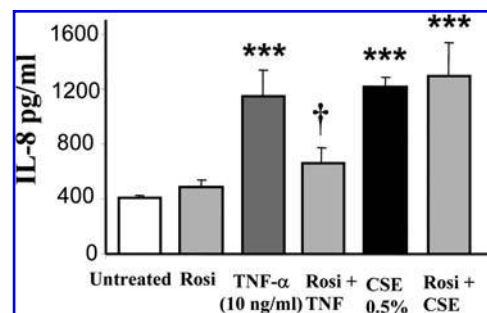
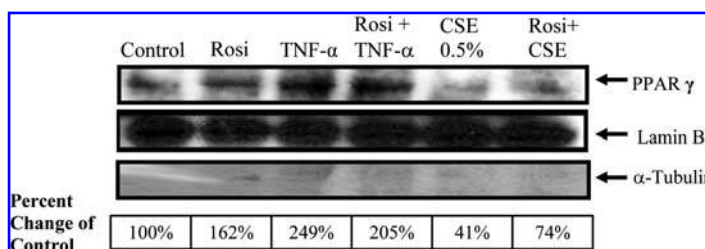


FIG. 3. Exposure to rosiglitazone downregulates TNF- α -, but not cigarette smoke extract (CSE), mediated IL-8 release in MonoMac6 cells. MonoMac6 cells were pretreated with rosiglitazone (10 μ M) for 2 h, and then incubated with freshly prepared CSE (0.5%) or TNF- α (10 ng/ml) for 4 h. IL-8 release was measured by ELISA. The results are presented as an average of four separate experiments performed in duplicate; *** p < 0.001 compared to control values and † p < 0.05 compared to TNF- α .

FIG. 4. Cigarette smoke extract (CSE) decreased the levels of nuclear PPAR γ protein at 4 h in MonoMac6 cells pretreated with rosiglitazone. MonoMac6 cells were pretreated with rosiglitazone (10 μ M) for 2 h, and then incubated with freshly prepared CSE (0.5%) or TNF- α (10 ng/ml) for 4 h. Western blots of soluble nuclear proteins (20 μ g) extracted from treated MonoMac6 cells were electrophoresed on 7.5% PAGE gels and electroblotted onto nitrocellulose membranes using anti-PPAR γ antibody. PPAR γ band size was the same as predicted (68 kDa). Lamin B was used as both a loading control and for determining nuclear purity. Lamin B band size was the same as predicted (67 kDa). α -Tubulin was used to show lack of cytoplasmic proteins in the nuclear extracts. α -Tubulin band size was the same as predicted (55 kDa). Data are shown as % change versus control value set at 100%.



on CSE-induced IL-8 release and low levels of nuclear PPAR γ in MonoMac6 cells, it was hypothesized that CSE, which activates NF- κ B (32), would disrupt PPAR γ -RelA/p65 interactions due to low levels of nuclear PPAR γ in MonoMac6 cells. This hypothesis was tested by determining the possible interactions between PPAR γ and RelA/p65 subunit of NF- κ B in the nucleus in response to rosiglitazone and TNF- α and CSE treatment. RelA/p65 was immunoprecipitated from nuclear extracts of MonoMac6 cells and Western blotting was performed for PPAR γ . There was increased association between PPAR γ and RelA/p65 in cells treated with both TNF- α and rosiglitazone, compared to cells treated with TNF- α alone (Fig. 6). In contrast, there was no association between RelA/p65 and PPAR γ in cells treated with both rosiglitazone and CSE; suggesting that this association was disrupted by CSE. These results suggested that the association between RelA/p65 and PPAR γ is important for lowering cytokine release, as reduction in IL-8 was only seen in rosiglitazone and TNF- α treated cells; suggesting that CS disrupts this essential interaction.

DISCUSSION

Alveolar macrophages are important cells in perpetuating the inflammatory response to CS (29), particularly by their release of pro-inflammatory mediators. It has been shown previously that CS induces pro-inflammatory cytokine release via activation of NF- κ B in monocyte-macrophage cell line (MonoMac6) (32). Herein, IL-8 release from MonoMac6 cells was continued to be examined, finding that the earliest these cells differentially respond to increasing doses of CSE was at 4 h, and that a dose of cigarette smoke as low as 0.5% could induce IL-8 release. Using 4 h as a time point for early events induced by smoke, MonoMac6 cells were treated with two types of PPAR γ agonists to determine if these agents could decrease CSE-induced IL-8 release. Several studies have suggested that PPAR γ agonists are potential therapeutic agents for patients suffering from COPD for whom glucocorticoid therapy is ineffective (4, 5, 25, 31). However, this is the first report of the effect of PPAR γ agonists on macrophages in response to CSE-induced cytokine release. We focused our study on two types of PPAR γ agonists; the most potent thiazolidinedione, rosiglitazone, and a natural agonist, 15d-PGJ₂.

15d-PGJ₂ is a natural product of arachidonic acid metabo-

lism, metabolized from prostaglandin D₂, and a known endogenous PPAR γ ligand. Since 15d-PGJ₂ is generated during inflammation (30) and can inhibit macrophage functions (2, 3), we determined whether 15d-PGJ₂ could decrease CSE induced cytokine release in MonoMac6 cells. Surprisingly, when the cells were treated with 15d-PGJ₂ alone, IL-8 release was increased, rather than decreased, compared to the basal levels. Furthermore, when the cells were treated in combination with either CSE or TNF- α , 15d-PGJ₂ augmented IL-8 release. Our data corroborate the recent findings that 15d-PGJ₂ can increase IL-8 expression in THP-1 macrophages (10), and when given in combination with lipopolysaccharide (LPS), 15d-PGJ₂ further increased IL-8 expression in human monocytes (34). 15d-PGJ₂, being an electrophilic molecule, may be increasing IL-8 release in MonoMac6 cells through a PPAR γ -independent mechanism. It has been shown that in blood macrophages 15d-PGJ₂ can exert both anti-inflammatory (12) and pro-inflammatory effects by inducing IL-8 synthesis (14) without binding to PPAR γ . Furthermore, it is known that certain PPAR γ -independent pro-inflammatory effects of 15d-PGJ₂ are mediated by a ROS-dependent mechanism (17, 27). It remains to be determined whether 15d-PGJ₂ can cause ROS production in MonoMac6 cells. However, our preliminary data (not shown) revealed that 15d-PGJ₂ can in fact trigger both cytosolic (increased DCF-DA staining) and mitochondrial (increased Mitosox Red staining) ROS release in MonoMac6 cells.

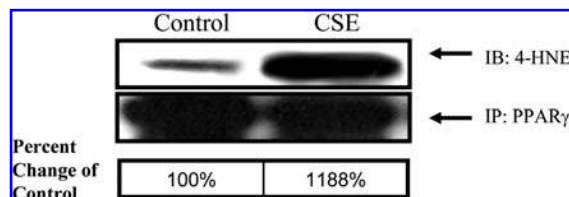


FIG. 5. Cigarette smoke extract (CSE) causes post-translational modification of PPAR γ . 4-hydroxy-2-nonenol (4-HNE) modification of PPAR is increased after CSE treatment in MonoMac6 cells compared with control. PPAR γ was immunoprecipitated (IP) from MonoMac6 cells treated for 4 h with CSE (5%). Equal amount (100 μ g) of immunoprecipitated PPAR γ protein was used for Western blots. Levels of 4-HNE were analyzed by immunoblotting (IB). Data are shown as % change versus control value set at 100%.

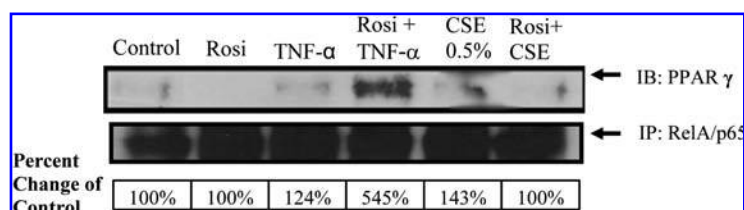


FIG. 6. TNF- α , but not cigarette smoke extract (CSE), induced IL-8 release was associated with increased interactions between PPAR γ and RelA/p65 subunit of NF- κ B. RelA/p65 was immunoprecipitated (IP) from MonoMac6 cells pretreated for 2 h with rosiglitazone (10 μ M), followed by CSE (0.5%) or TNF- α (10 ng/ml) treatment for 4 h. Equal amount (100 μ g) of immunoprecipitated RelA/p65 protein was used for Western blots. Levels of PPAR γ were analyzed by immunoblotting (IB). Pretreatment with rosiglitazone increased nuclear localization of a PPAR γ -RelA/p65 complex in TNF- α , but not CSE (0.5%) treated MonoMac6 cells. Data are shown as % change versus control value set at 100%.

The effects of rosiglitazone on cytokine release from MonoMac6 cells were then examined. Thiazolidinediones can decrease LPS-induced cytokine release from human alveolar macrophages (2) and also decrease CS-induced mucin secretion from human airway epithelial (NCI-H292) cells (18). Therefore, it seemed possible that these compounds would inhibit CSE-induced cytokine release. However, our data show that rosiglitazone could only reduce TNF- α -mediated IL-8 release, but not CSE-induced IL-8 release, in MonoMac6 cells. Treatment of cells with rosiglitazone alone increased nuclear PPAR γ levels, as did treatment with both rosiglitazone and TNF- α , suggesting that the decrease in IL-8 release was due to a PPAR γ -dependent mechanism. Whether PPAR γ ligands use PPAR γ -independent and/or -dependent mechanisms to exert anti-inflammatory effects remains the subject of much debate (8). It has been observed that PPAR γ ligands do not inhibit basal TNF- α release from THP-1 macrophages (23). However, our result showing rosiglitazone-mediated reduction in IL-8 release from MonoMac6 cells was contradictory to the above finding possibly due to the use of different cell lines (PMA activated THP-1 cells vs. non-PMA treated MonoMac6 cells). Furthermore, we observed lower levels of PPAR γ protein in the nucleus of cells exposed to CS with or without rosiglitazone treatment. This suggests that CS interferes with PPAR γ signaling due to direct binding of reactive aldehydes present in CSE with cysteine residue in the active site of PPAR γ binding pocket (15) and thus retaining PPAR γ in the cytoplasm. Indeed, our results show that PPAR γ was modified by 4-HNE forming carbonyl adducts.

It was also investigated whether rosiglitazone-activated PPAR γ had any effects on NF- κ B signaling. Ligand-activated PPAR γ can play a negative regulatory role in macrophage activation, resulting in less NF- κ B activity (28), and that PPAR γ and the RelA/p65 subunit of NF- κ B can interact, dampening pro-inflammatory signals (36). Our data show that when cells were treated with rosiglitazone plus TNF- α , PPAR γ and RelA/p65 associated together in the nucleus. However, there was less association between the two nuclear proteins when cells were treated with CSE, with or without rosiglitazone. This observation suggests that when macrophages were treated with rosiglitazone, PPAR γ translocated to the nucleus and interacted with NF- κ B to decrease IL-8 release. Cigarette smoke disrupts this complex and diminishes PPAR γ 's anti-inflammatory capabilities. The mechanism for CS-mediated disruption of this complex is not known, but our data suggests that CS-derived reactive aldehydes interact with the cysteine pocket in PPAR γ (15), thereby forming protein carbonyl adducts and interfering in the protein-protein interactions between PPAR γ and

RelA/p65. An alternative explanation of this protein-protein disruption comes from the observation that CSE activates RelA/p65 subunit of NF- κ B by phosphoacetylation of the lysine 310 residue, which can not be reversed by I κ B α (33), and this phosphoacetylation impairs the interactions between RelA/p65 and agonist-activated PPAR γ . Our finding of CS-mediated interference of PPAR γ action is interesting in light of recent research showing that PPAR γ can also interact with the glucocorticoid receptor (24), whose signaling is also disrupted by smoke (1).

Overall, our data show that two PPAR γ ligands have very different effects (Fig. 7). Although a naturally occurring compound, 15d-PGJ₂ increased both TNF- α and CSE-induced IL-8 release, whereas the synthetic rosiglitazone could only decrease TNF- α -, but not CSE-, induced cytokine release. 15d-PGJ₂ can increase cellular ROS (27) which could further drive inflammation, while rosiglitazone bound to PPAR γ allowed for complex formation with RelA/p65 to decrease pro-inflammatory cytokine release. Our study provides insight into a class of compounds that are proposed to have the potential to help patients with COPD and fibrosis/interstitial lung diseases. However, our data suggest that for chronic smokers and for patients with COPD, PPAR γ agonists may not decrease CS-induced release of pro-inflammatory mediators. Additionally, it

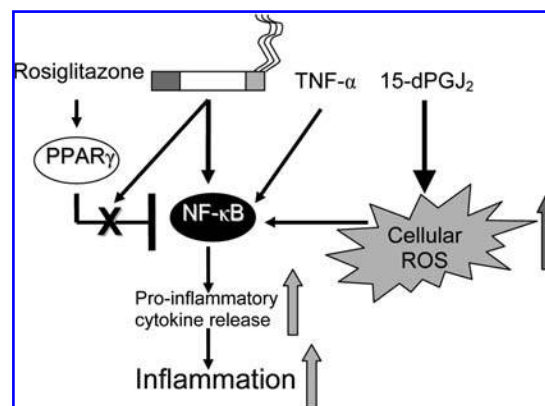


FIG. 7. Model for PPAR γ -dependent and -independent mechanism of action of PPAR γ ligands. Rosiglitazone-activated PPAR γ forms a complex with the RelA/p65 subunit of NF- κ B in response to TNF- α treatment, decreasing NF- κ B dependent gene transcription. Cigarette smoke extract (CSE) disrupts this complex allowing for pro-inflammatory gene transcription. 15d-PGJ₂ works through a PPAR γ -independent mechanism to increase ROS and pro-inflammatory mediators.

has been shown that PPAR γ agonists inhibit TGF- α -induced pulmonary myofibroblast differentiation and collagen production (6). However, these agonists may not decrease the underlying CS-induced inflammation which is seen in patients with COPD, pulmonary fibrosis, and other interstitial lung diseases. Further work is required to confirm these *in vitro* findings using preclinical animal models of CS exposure and primary monocytes/macrophages obtained from patients with COPD, pulmonary fibrosis, and various interstitial lung diseases.

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ABBREVIATIONS

COPD, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease; COX-2, cyclooxygenase 2; CS, cigarette smoke; CSE, cigarette smoke extract; 15d-PGJ₂, 15-Deoxy- $\Delta^{12,14}$ -prostaglandin J₂; FBS, fetal bovine serum; 4-HNE, 4-hydroxy-2-nonenal; IkB α , inhibitor of kappaB α ; IKK β , IkB-kinase β ; IL-8, interleukin 8; LPS, lipopolysaccharide; PMSF, phenylmethylsulphonylfluoride; PPAR γ , peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma; NF- κ B, nuclear factor-kappaB; Nrf2, nuclear factor E2 related factor 2; ROS, reactive oxygen species; TNF- α , tumor necrosis factor-alpha; TGF- β , transforming growth factor-beta.

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