

Lactoferrin and host defence: an overview of its immuno-modulating and anti-inflammatory properties

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Key words: immunity, inflammation, lactoferrin

Abstract

Lactoferrin is a member of the transferrin family of iron-binding glycoproteins that is abundantly expressed and secreted from glandular epithelial cells. In secretions, such as milk and fluids of the intestinal tract, lactoferrin is an important component of the first line of host defence. During the inflammatory process, lactoferrin, a prominent component of the secondary granules of neutrophils (PMNs), is released in infected tissues and in blood and then it is rapidly cleared by the liver. In addition to the antimicrobial properties of lactoferrin, a set of studies has focused on its ability to modulate the inflammatory process and the overall immune response. Though many *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies report clear regulation of the immune response and protective effect against infection and septic shock by lactoferrin, elucidation of all the cellular and molecular mechanisms of action is far from being achieved. At the cellular level, lactoferrin modulates the migration, maturation and function of immune cells. At the molecular level and in addition to iron binding, interactions of lactoferrin with a plethora of compounds, either soluble or membrane molecules, account for its modulatory properties. This paper reviews our current understanding of the cellular and molecular mechanisms that explain the regulatory properties of lactoferrin in host defence.

Introduction

Recent sequencing of the entire human genome has revealed that the number of genes is considerably inferior to the number of cell functions. Hence, while some proteins have very pronounced specificity and activity, others are multifunctional molecules. Lactoferrin (Lf), a widespread iron-binding glycoprotein, is definitely one of the latter. When it was first discovered in milk (Montreuil *et al.* 1960), Lf was called lactotransferrin, as it was formerly considered to be a functionally-related transferrin variant. Iron binding is, without any doubt, a key property of Lf and accounts for some of its many biological roles in host defence such as bacteriostasis and protection against oxygen radicals catalyzed by free iron. The possibility of Lf having other functions than just simple

iron sequestration emerged immediately it was reported that Lf binds to cells and components of the immune system. *In vivo* and *in vitro* studies further confirmed the ability of Lf to modulate the immune response. This paper reviews our current knowledge of the still controversial mechanisms governing the regulatory functions of Lf in the immune system.

Lf is in the front line of the innate immune system

Lf is widely distributed all over the entire body. It is indeed found in large amounts in most secretions, particularly in milk where its concentration in humans may vary from 1 g/l (mature milk) to 7 g/l (colostrum) (Houghton *et al.* 1985), and in the secondary granules of neutrophils (PMNs) (Masson *et al.* 1969). During inflammation and in some pathologies, Lf levels of

biological fluids may greatly increase. This is particularly noticeable in plasma where Lf concentration can be as low as 0.4–2 mg/l under normal conditions but increases to up 200 mg/l in septicemia (Bennett & Kokocinski 1978, Maaks *et al.* 1989). Furthermore, since maximal Lf release from PMNs occurs in inflamed tissues, plasma Lf only represents the tip of the iceberg. Lastly, cationic Lf can bind in large quantities to glycosaminoglycans (Mann *et al.* 1994), so that cells may provide high local concentrations of still functional Lf on their surfaces. Interestingly, Lf immobilized to airway epithelium, but not soluble Lf, may activate eosinophils (Thomas *et al.* 2002), thus underlining the importance of Lf bound to epithelia.

***In vivo* evidence for lactoferrin regulation of the immune system**

Evidence for lactoferrin regulation of the immune system has been provided by a number of *in vivo* experiments on Lf-supplemented models revealing host-protecting effects, not only against microbial infections (review: van Hooijdonk *et al.* 2000), but also lactoferrin itself, thus preventing septic shock, allergy or cancer. In particular, a protective effect during lethal bacteraemia in mice was reported (Zagulski *et al.* 1989) and orally-administered Lf was shown to protect piglets against septic shock (Lee *et al.* 1998). On a molecular basis, altered expressions of cytokines, mostly pro-inflammatory interleukin-1 β (IL-1 β), IL-6 and tumor necrosis factor α (TNF- α), and granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor were detected (Sawatzki & Rich 1989, Broxmeyer *et al.* 1987, Machnicki *et al.* 1993, Kruzel *et al.* 2002). Additionally, up-regulation of anti-inflammatory IL-4 and IL-10 was found after oral Lf administration in rats with colitis (Togawa *et al.* 2002). On a cellular basis, there seems to be an increased number of NK cells (Shimizu *et al.* 1996, Yamauchi *et al.* 1998), increased phagocytosis-enhancing effect (Szuster-Ciesielska *et al.* 1995, Wakabayashi *et al.* 2003) and modulation of myelopoiesis (Broxmeyer *et al.* 1987). Lastly, a recent study on human Lf-transgenic mice showed enhanced Th1 response to *Staphylococcus aureus* (*S. aureus*) infection (Guillen *et al.* 2002).

Mechanisms accounting for up-regulation of the immune system by lactoferrin

In a few instances, the iron-binding Lf capacity was shown to promote *in vitro* cell proliferation and maturation, as it could act as an alternative iron donor for T-cells (Mincheva-Nilsson *et al.* 1997, Mazurier *et al.* 1989) and enhance Th1 response by modulating iron supply to the spleen (Guillen *et al.* 2002). In fact, most mechanisms through which Lf up-regulates the immune system involve direct Lf interactions with cells. It is assumed that more or less specific receptors bind Lf and are key effectors for cell signalling, casual endocytosis and/or nuclear targeting (review: Suzuki & Lönnnerdal 2002). Unfortunately, data on these putative receptors and pathways is disparate and sometimes contradictory.

Firstly, Lf is likely to regulate lymphocyte maturation and activation. In T-lymphocytes, a 105 kDa receptor was described (Mazurier *et al.* 1989) and it was shown that Lf interactions with Jurkat T-cells up-regulate the expression of CD4 antigen through the stimulation of the mitogen-activated protein kinase (Dhennin-Duthille *et al.* 2000). In this connection, Lf differentiation effects were previously described on isolated thymocytes and splenic B-cells (Zimecki *et al.* 1995, 1991). Furthermore, in cervical cancer patients, a recent finding indicates that Lf can regulate the expression of the zeta chain of the T-cell receptor (Frydecka *et al.* 2002).

Promotion of lytic cell activity seems another important aspect of the Lf function. Lf is already expressed on resting PMNs where it could participate in the binding of micro-organisms (Deriy *et al.* 2000). It is then massively released from PMNs upon TNF- α and phorbols stimuli and binds to PMN membrane (Maneva *et al.* 1983, Afeltra *et al.* 1997). It was shown *in vitro* that both release and cell binding promote the activation and phagocytosis of PMNs and monocytes/macrophages. Lf was reported as a promoter of motility, superoxide production and release of pro-inflammatory molecules such as NO, TNF- α and IL-8 (Gahr *et al.* 1991, Shinoda *et al.* 1996, Sorimachi *et al.* 1997) and a recent study indeed demonstrates enhanced phagocytosis against *S. aureus* (Kai *et al.* 2002). The molecular mechanisms explaining these activities are however highly controversial. Phagocytosis by PMNs is enhanced by the interaction of complement activation products, particularly complement factor C3. Nevertheless, it is unclear whether Lf activity is related to complement activation since

Lf was shown either to inhibit (Kijlstra & Jeurissen 1982) or to activate (Kai *et al.* 2002, Rainard 1993) the classical and alternate pathways of complement. Direct Lf binding to PMNs and opsonin-like activity could also be involved (Miyachi *et al.* 1998). Lastly, an increased number and activity of natural killer (NK) cells by Lf was reported *in vitro* (Shau *et al.* 1992) and *in vivo* in mice infected by cytomegalovirus (Shimizu *et al.* 1996) and in humans (Yamauchi *et al.*, 1998). We demonstrated in the laboratory that the Lf activating effect is due both to the modulation of NK cell cytotoxicity and an increased sensitivity of target cells to lysis (Damiens *et al.* 1998).

The latest data supporting the immunotropic activity of Lf is a recent report showing its adjuvant effect in the generation of delayed-type hypersensitivity in mice due to Lf binding on the mannose receptor of immature antigen-presenting skin cells (Zimecki *et al.* 2002).

Mechanisms governing the anti-inflammatory properties of Lf

Lf is described as a potent molecule in the treatment of common inflammatory diseases. A major anti-inflammatory activity of Lf is related to the scavenging of free iron which accumulates in inflamed tissues and catalyses the production of tissue-toxic hydroxyl radicals. Apo-Lf is released from PMNs at inflammatory sites and, owing to iron-binding stability at low pH participates in iron homeostasis and detoxification. Interestingly, in neurodegenerative diseases where iron deposits contribute to oxidative stress and neuronal death, an overexpression of Lf was reported in some specific areas of the brain (Fillebeen *et al.* 2001). This event, together with transcytosis of plasma Lf through the blood-brain barrier during inflammation (Fillebeen *et al.* 1999), could contribute to limit oxidative stress in the brain.

The last decade has shed light on several molecular mechanisms governing the iron-independent anti-inflammatory properties of Lf. As pointed out before, altered expressions of pro-inflammatory cytokines, mainly TNF- α , IL-1 β , IL-6 and IL-8, were reported through *in vivo* studies and confirmed *in vitro*. It is freely admitted now that this unpaired cytokine production is mostly mediated by the neutralizing effect of Lf against exogenous pro-inflammatory molecules such as bacterial lipopolysaccharides (LPS) (Miyazawa *et al.* 1991) but also bacterial unmethyl-

ated CpG-containing oligonucleotides (Britigan *et al.* 2001). Lf was indeed found to bind to the lipid-A of bacterial lipopolysaccharides (LPS) with high affinity through the lactoferricin domain of Lf (Appelmelk *et al.* 1994, Ellass-Rochard *et al.* 1995). *In vivo* and *in vitro* neutralization of LPS by lactoferricin itself was also demonstrated (Zhang *et al.* 1999). This interaction prevents LPS from binding to the main actors of LPS signalling, such as the serum LPS-binding protein (LBP) and soluble CD14 (sCD14), membrane CD14 (mCD14) on monocytes and L-selectin on PMNs (Elass-Rochard *et al.* 1998, Baveye *et al.* 2000b). Other mechanisms of inhibition of LPS-induced cytokine release have also been described. We have indeed reported high-affinity interactions between Lf and sCD14 and the sCD14-LPS complex abolishing their activating functions (Baveye *et al.* 2000a). Furthermore, it was recently demonstrated that Lf may down-regulate LPS-induced cytokines in THP1 through a mechanism involving Lf internalization, nuclear localization and interference with NF-kappaB activation (Haversen *et al.* 2002).

Interestingly, the LPS-neutralizing effect of Lf could have consequences not only for the activation of immune cells but also for endothelial cells. In fact, endothelial cells induced by LPS and the sCD14-LPS complex express adhesion molecules, selectins and integrin ligands, and IL-8 necessary for the local recruitment of immune cell at inflammatory sites. We demonstrated that Lf inhibits the LPS-induced expression of E-selectin, ICAM-1 and IL-8 by endothelial cells (Baveye *et al.* 2000a, Ellass *et al.* 2002). These studies also pointed out the ability of Lf to compete with chemokines such as IL-8 for their binding to proteoglycans and their further presentation to leukocytes.

In vivo studies showed Lf protection against skin and lung allergies (Elrod *et al.* 1997, Griffiths *et al.* 2001). Lf is overexpressed in patients with allergies (Zweiman *et al.* 1990), a process which involves the activation of mast cells and basophils and IL-1 β and TNF- α -triggered migration of antigen-presenting cells. In skin allergies, a mechanism by which Lf binds to keratinocytes and inhibits the release of TNF- α from these cells has been proposed (Kimber *et al.* 2002). Another explanation has been found in the ability of Lf to destabilize tryptase, a potent pro-inflammatory protease released from mast cells (Elrod *et al.* 1997). Lf apparently displaces tryptase from heparin which is known to maintain enzymatic activity. It was recently shown that inhibition occurs following Lf uptake by mast cells and interaction not only

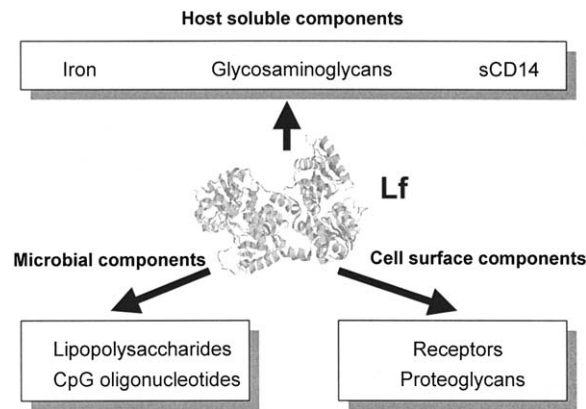


Fig. 1. Known microbial and host components that interact with Lf and account for its regulatory effect on the immune system.

with tryptase but also with chymase and cathepsin G (He *et al.* 2003).

Conclusions

Prophylactic and therapeutic effects of exogenous Lf have aroused keen interest from the scientific community, thus prompting the elucidation of the mechanisms accounting, in addition to iron sequestration, for the immune regulatory properties of Lf. It has to be recognized that, in the last decade, important breakthroughs have been made in the field of 'lactobiology', in particular the evidence for neutralizing effects of exogenous pro-inflammatory molecules. As summarized in Figure 1, most of these clearly depend upon the great ability of Lf to bind endotoxins and glycosaminoglycans. Others involve direct Lf interactions with immune cells and receptors through pathways whose understanding, still patchy at the moment, represents a true and exciting challenge for the future.

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