



Review

Neuropeptides as Modulators of Macrophage Functions. Regulation of Cytokine Production and Antigen Presentation by VIP and PACAP

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Abstract. Vasoactive intestinal peptide (VIP) and the structurally related neuropeptide pituitary adenylate cyclase activating polypeptide (PACAP), present in the microenvironment of lymphoid organs, modulate the function of inflammatory cells through specific receptors. VIP and PACAP inhibit the production of pro-inflammatory agents and stimulate the production of anti-inflammatory cytokines in activated macrophages. The effect is mediated through specific receptors and involves shedding of the CD14 lipopolysaccharide (LPS) receptor and the transcriptional regulation of cytokine genes through effects on *de novo* expression or nuclear translocation of NF κ B, cAMP-element binding protein (CREB), c-Jun, and interferon regulatory factor 1 (IRF-1). The *in vivo* administration of VIP/PACAP results in a similar pattern of cytokine modulation which, presumably, mediates the protective effect of VIP/PACAP in a high-endotoxic murine model for septic shock. VIP/PACAP reduce the expression of the costimulatory B7.1/B7.2 molecules and the subsequent stimulatory activity for T helper (Th) cells in stimulated macrophages. In contrast, in unstimulated macrophages, VIP/PACAP induce specific B7.2 expression and promote Th2 cell differentiation. We propose that VIP/PACAP act as endogenous factors that regulate immune homeostasis and that the physiological consequences of VIP/PACAP presence in the immune microenvironment depend on the timing of the neuropeptide release and the activation stage of the neighboring immune cells.

Key words: neuropeptides; macrophages; cytokines; B7 molecules; Th1/Th2 cells; VIP/PACAP.

Introduction

The functional interactions between the nervous and immune systems depend on anatomical connections and mediators released and recognized by one or both

systems. Both primary and secondary lymphoid organs and tissues possess an extensive peptidergic innervation in close proximity to the immune cells, with vasoactive intestinal peptide (VIP), neuropeptide Y (NPY), somatostatin (SOM) and galanin (Gal) as prevalent neuro-

Abbreviations used: cAMP – cyclic adenosine monophosphate, ConA – concanavalin A, CREB – cAMP-element binding protein, iNOS – inducible nitric oxide synthase, IRF-1 – interferon regulatory factor 1, LPS – lipopolysaccharide, NO – nitric oxide, PACAP – pituitary adenylate cyclase activating polypeptide, PAC1 – PACAP-preferring receptor, PKC – protein kinase C, TCR – T cell receptor, Th – T helper cells, VIP – vasoactive intestinal peptide, VPAC1 – VIP/PACAP receptor 1, VPAC2 – VIP/PACAP receptor 2, PKA – protein kinase A, TGF- β – transforming growth factor β .

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peptides in the noradrenergic autonomic and cholinergic nerves, and substance P (SP), neurokinin A (NKA) and calcitonin gene-related peptide (CGRP) in the sensory innervation^{3, 26–28, 40, 60, 71}. Some of these neuropeptides were shown to be locally released in functionally relevant amounts during an immune response, both in patients and in animal experimental models^{44, 57, 59}.

The biological activity of neuropeptides is mediated through specific receptors. The presence of specific receptors for SP, VIP, SOM and CGRP has been reported in immune cells through binding studies, cloning, RT-PCR, and/or characterization at the protein level^{6, 14, 34, 39, 54, 55, 64, 74, 75}. In most cases, however, the nature and the physiological roles of the specific receptor subtypes expressed during the activation and differentiation of immune cells are currently unknown.

The presence and release of neuropeptides within the lymphoid microenvironment and the existence of specific neuropeptide receptors on immune cells represent the framework for neuropeptides functioning as mediators of neuroimmune interactions. Although the list of neuropeptides/neurotransmitters affecting immune functions grows at a steady pace, here we review only the effects of VIP and PACAP, two structurally related neuropeptides with major immunomodulatory functions. We focus on the most recent developments regarding the effects of VIP/PACAP on macrophage functions both in innate and acquired immunity.

VIP/PACAP Sources in the Immune Organs

Increased levels of VIP have been reported in lymphoid organs, serum and peritoneal fluid following an inflammatory response *in vivo*^{4, 5, 15, 44}. However, the exact cellular source of VIP remains to be defined. Although VIP-ergic nerve fibers are found in most lymphoid organs, particularly in the respiratory and gastrointestinal tract^{3, 24, 61}, the nature of the signal leading to VIP release during an inflammatory reaction is not known. A reasonable assumption is that nitric oxide (NO), which functions as a particularly potent signal for the VIP release from enteric ganglia^{2, 36} and is produced at high levels during an inflammatory process, represents at least one of the relevant signals. In addition, immune cells themselves express VIP at both mRNA and protein level^{32, 33, 35, 72} and stimulators of the immune response, such as lipopolysaccharide (LPS), cytokines, concavalin A (ConA), or anti-T cell receptor (TCR) antibodies, were recently shown to act as inducers of VIP release⁵¹.

Much less is known about the distribution and release of PACAP in the lymphoid organs. PACAP38 was immuno-localized in lymphocyte-like cells in the mesenteric lymph nodes and duodenal mucosa³¹, and PACAP gene expression was shown to be induced in the hypothalamic paraventricular nucleus following i.p. injection of LPS or IL-1 β ³⁷. These results suggest that, similar to VIP, PACAP might be released from both innervation and immune cells during an inflammatory response.

VIP/PACAP Receptors in Macrophages

Three types of VIP/PACAP receptors have been cloned recently: VPAC1 and VPAC2 bind both VIP and PACAP with equal affinity and activate primarily the adenylate cyclase pathway and PAC1, the PACAP-preferring receptor, binds PACAP with a 300–1000 fold higher affinity than VIP and activates both adenylate cyclase and phospholipase C^{38, 62}. Recent studies indicate that unstimulated murine macrophages and macrophage cell lines express VPAC1 and PAC1 mRNA, with VPAC2 being coexpressed following LPS stimulation^{16, 19}. In contrast, T lymphocytes express only VPAC1 and VPAC2, with differentiated Th1 and Th2 cell lines expressing only VPAC2^{10, 43, 75}. The differential regulation of these receptors during immune cell activation and differentiation suggests different physiological roles. A similar conclusion has been reached for the VIP/PACAP receptors in the CNS, based on their complimentary distribution⁶⁷. However, whether the three receptor subtypes indeed play different physiological roles in the CNS and/or in the periphery remains to be established.

Effects of VIP/PACAP on Macrophage Phagocytosis, Adherence, Migration and Superoxide Ion Production

Previous studies reported contradictory results regarding the effect of VIP/PACAP on the biological functions of macrophages. For example, some authors reported an inhibitory effect on phagocytosis^{41, 50}, whereas others observed a stimulatory effect^{8, 11}. SEGURA et al.⁶³ reported that VIP inhibits macrophage adherence, whereas other authors reported increases in macrophage adherence and migration by VIP and PACAP^{1, 7, 30}. Similarly, DE LA FUENTE et al.⁸ reported

a stimulatory effect of VIP on superoxide ion production, whereas others reported inhibitory effects^{42, 47, 73}. A common denominator in these studies is that the stimulatory effects of VIP (whether phagocytosis, adherence and migration, or reactive oxygen production) appear to be associated with protein kinase C (PKC) activity, whereas the inhibitory effects appear to be mediated through cyclic adenosine monophosphate (cAMP). Therefore, the differences in the reported studies could be due to the predominant expression of one or the other of the macrophage VIP/PACAP receptors, depending on the differentiation stage.

The differential use of VIP/PACAP receptors in resting versus LPS-activated macrophages is also supported by the opposite effect of VIP/PACAP on IL-6 production. The two neuropeptides enhance IL-6 release and mRNA in unstimulated macrophages in a process that is predominantly VPAC1-mediated and cAMP-dependent⁵². In contrast, VIP and PACAP inhibit IL-6 production in LPS-stimulated macrophages in a PAC1-mediated and PKC-dependent process⁵³.

Effects of VIP/PACAP on the Production of Macrophage-Derived Cytokines

Macrophages, major participants in innate immunity, contribute to the initiation of the inflammatory response through the secretion of inflammatory cytokines and production of reactive oxygen and nitrogen intermediates. Following stimulation with microbial products like LPS, macrophages secrete several pro-inflammatory products, such as TNF- α , IL-12, IL-1, IL-6 and NO, followed later by the secretion of the anti-inflammatory cytokines IL-10 and transforming growth factor β (TGF- β)⁴⁸. Despite the beneficial role of pro-inflammatory cytokines and NO in host defense, their sustained production can lead to serious pathological conditions^{25, 69, 70}. The control of an inflammatory state depends on the local balance between pro- and anti-inflammatory factors. In this respect, a number of regulatory molecules called “macrophage deactivating fac-

tors” have received considerable interest lately. In addition to the anti-inflammatory cytokines IL-10, IL-11, TGF- β and IL-13^{29, 58, 65, 66}, neuropeptides such as VIP and PACAP also function as macrophage deactivating factors. VIP/PACAP inhibit the *in vitro* and *in vivo* production of the pro-inflammatory cytokines TNF- α , IL-6, IL-12 and of NO, and stimulate the production of the anti-inflammatory cytokine IL-10 (Table 1)^{16–18, 21, 23, 53, 76}. In addition, VIP/PACAP exert a protective effect *in vivo* in a high-endotoxic model for septic shock, presumably by inhibiting the production of endogenous pro-inflammatory cytokines¹⁵.

The modulatory effects of VIP/PACAP are dose-dependent and are exerted over a large range of LPS concentrations. The use of specific VIP/PACAP receptor agonists and antagonists established that the effects on TNF- α , IL-12, IL-10 and NO were mediated primarily through VPAC1 and, to a lesser degree, also through VPAC2. The inhibition of IL-6, on the other hand, was mediated primarily through PAC1 (Table 1).

As expected, the cAMP-dependent pathway plays a major role in the inhibition of TNF- α , IL-12 and NO^{16, 18, 21} and in the stimulation of IL-10¹⁷, whereas the inhibitory effect on IL-6 is mediated by PKC⁵². However, except for IL-10, two pathways, a cAMP-dependent and a cAMP-independent pathway, appear to be involved in the inhibitory effects of VIP/PACAP^{9, 18, 19} (Table 1).

Several molecular mechanisms operate in the modulatory effects of VIP/PACAP on macrophage-derived cytokines and NO. One of the mechanisms involves the down-regulation of CD14, the membrane-bound LPS receptor, by inducing its rapid shedding from macrophages¹². In addition, VIP or PACAP induce significant reductions in the steady-state levels of TNF- α , IL-12 p40, IL-6 and inducible nitric oxide synthase (iNOS) mRNA, and a significant increase in IL-10 mRNA. The effects of VIP/PACAP on cytokine and iNOS transcription are mediated through the regulation of several transcriptional factors. The reduction in TNF- α gene transcription is due to the inhibition in NF κ B binding, mediated by the cAMP-independent pathway, and

Table 1. Receptors, intracellular pathways and transcriptional factors involved in the VIP/PACAP inactivation of LPS-stimulated macrophages

Factor	Action	Receptor	Intracellular pathways	Transcriptional factors	Reference
IL-6	inhibition	PAC1	PKC	ND	53
IL-10	stimulation	VPAC1	cAMP	CREB	17
IL-12	inhibition	VPAC1>>VPAC2	cAMP/cAMP-independent	IRF-1/NF κ B	9, 16
TNF- α	inhibition	VPAC1>>VPAC2	cAMP/cAMP-independent	CREB/NF κ B	19, 21, 23, 76
iNOS	inhibition	VPAC1	cAMP/cAMP-independent	IRF-1/NF κ B	18
B7.1/B7.2	inhibition	VPAC1	cAMP	ND	13

ND – not determined.

changes in the CRE-binding complex from $^{high}c-Jun/^{low}CREB$ to $^{low}c-Jun/^{high}CREB$, mediated by the cAMP-dependent pathway¹⁹. The increase in IL-10 gene transcription is mediated entirely through an increase in cAMP-dependent CREB binding¹⁷. The decrease in iNOS gene transcription is mediated through a cAMP-independent reduction in NF κ B binding and the cAMP-dependent inhibition of IRF-1¹⁸. Finally, the decrease in p40 IL-12 gene transcription is mediated through a cAMP-independent reduction in NF κ B binding and a cAMP-dependent alteration of the Ets-2-binding complex⁹. The effects of VIP/PACAP on NF κ B binding are due to the inhibition of p65 and c-Rel nuclear translocation. This is, in turn, due to the inhibition of

cytoplasmic I κ B phosphorylation, leading to its stabilization and retention of p65/c-Rel in the cytoplasmic compartment⁹. The alterations in Ets-binding complexes are due in part to the inhibition of c-Rel nuclear translocation and also to the inhibition of IRF-1 synthesis⁹. The effects of VIP/PACAP on NF κ B, CREB and IRF-1 in relationship to the expression of TNF- α , IL-10, iNOS and IL-12 p40 genes are illustrated in Fig. 1.

Protective Effect of VIP/PACAP in Lethal Endotoxemia

The severe pathological consequences of the septic shock syndrome result from a hyperactive and out-of-

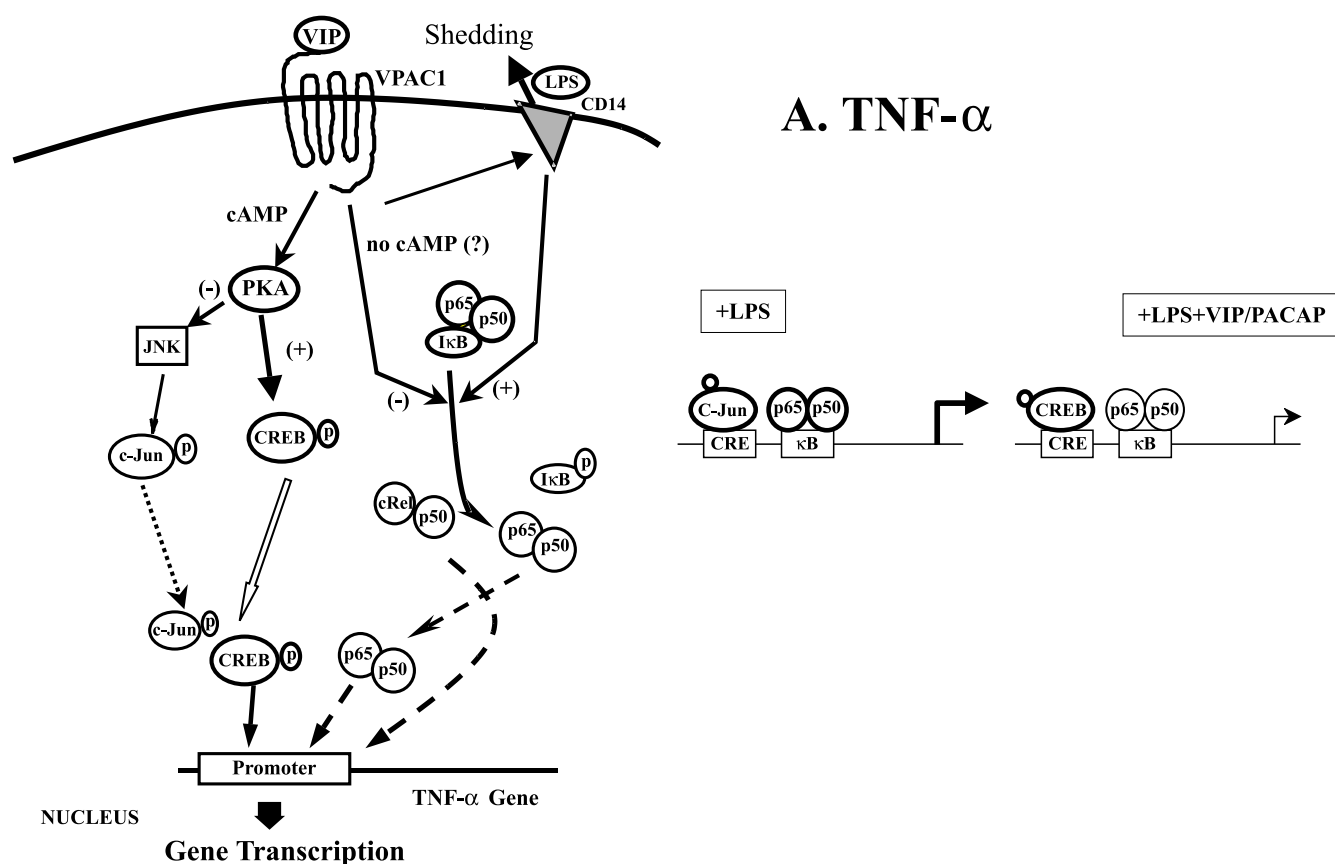
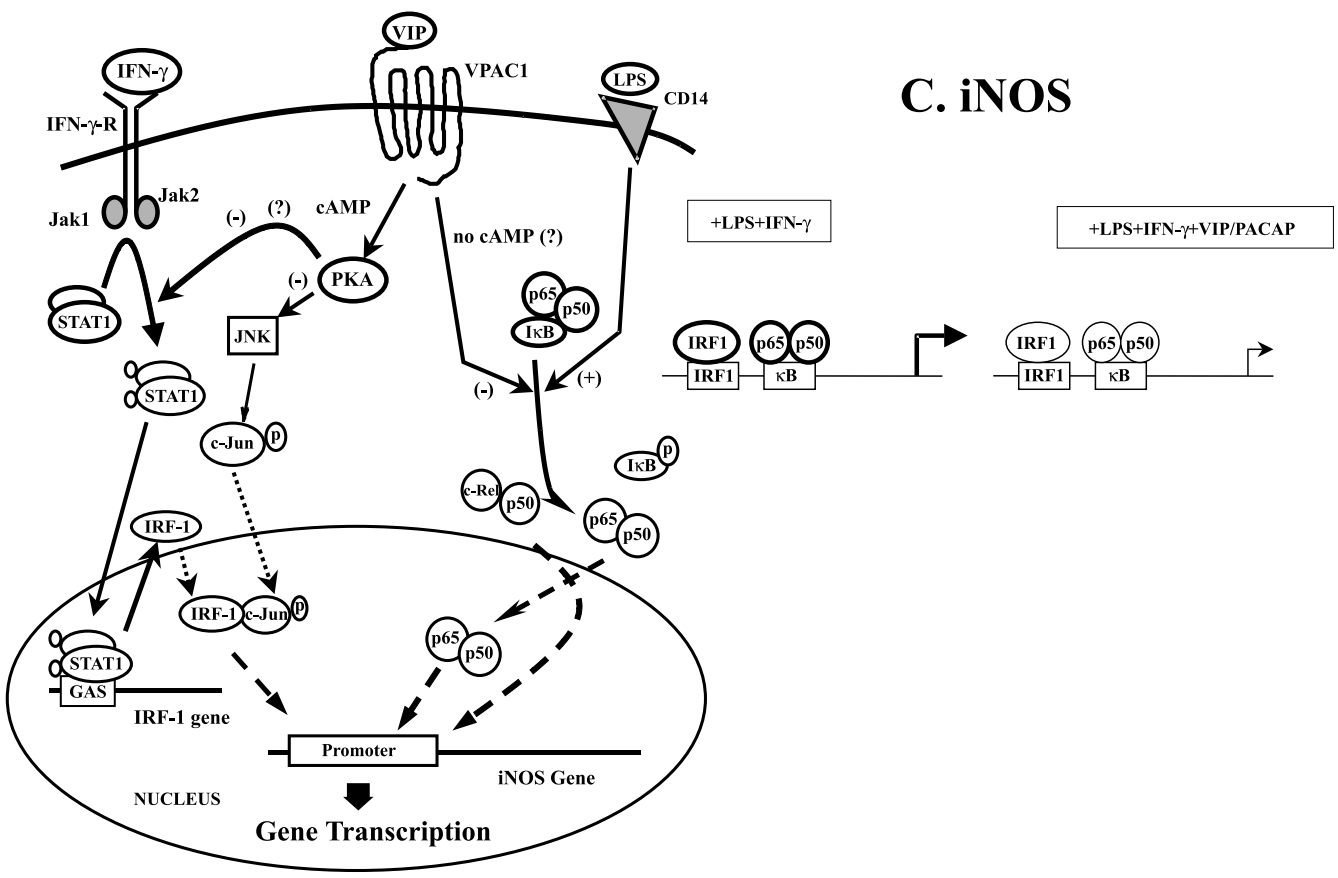
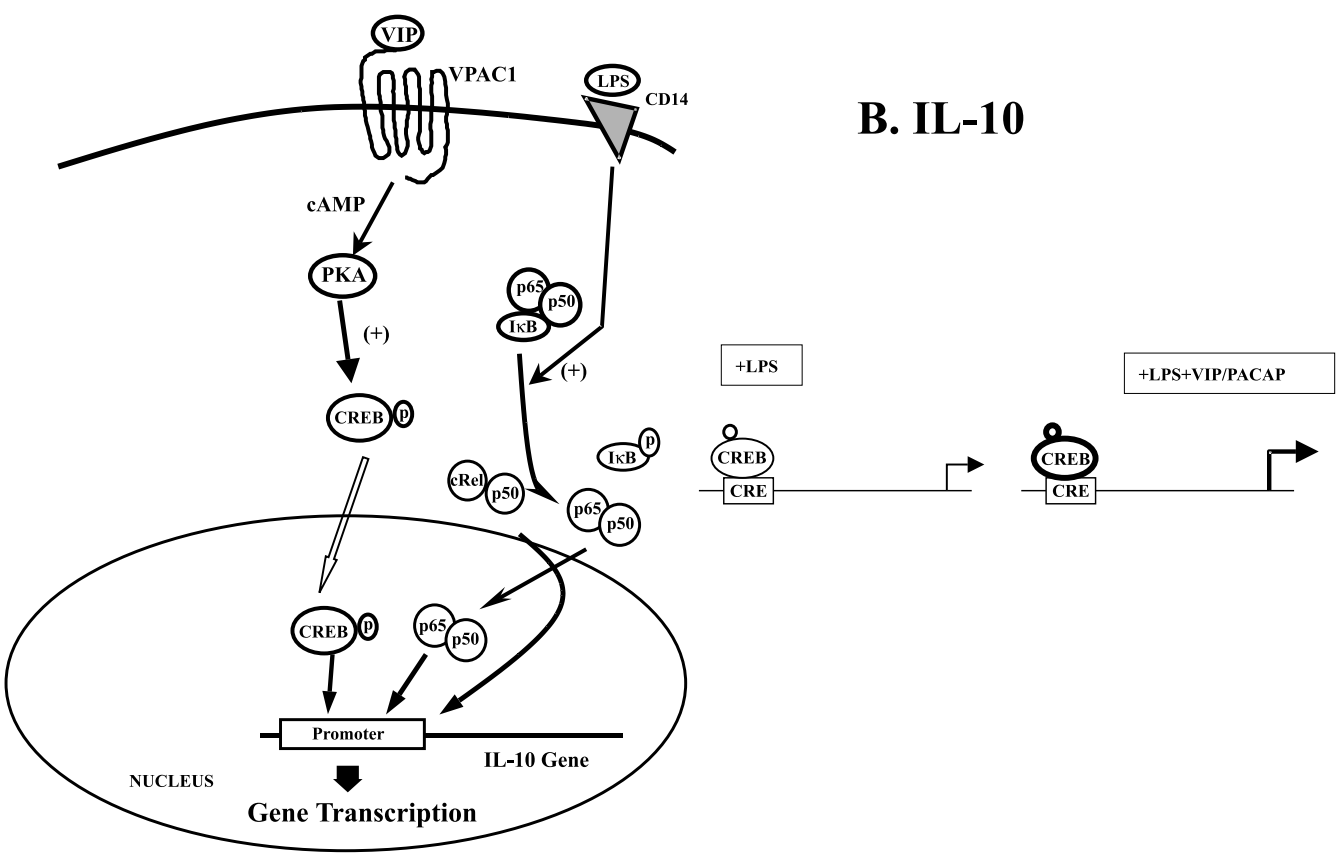
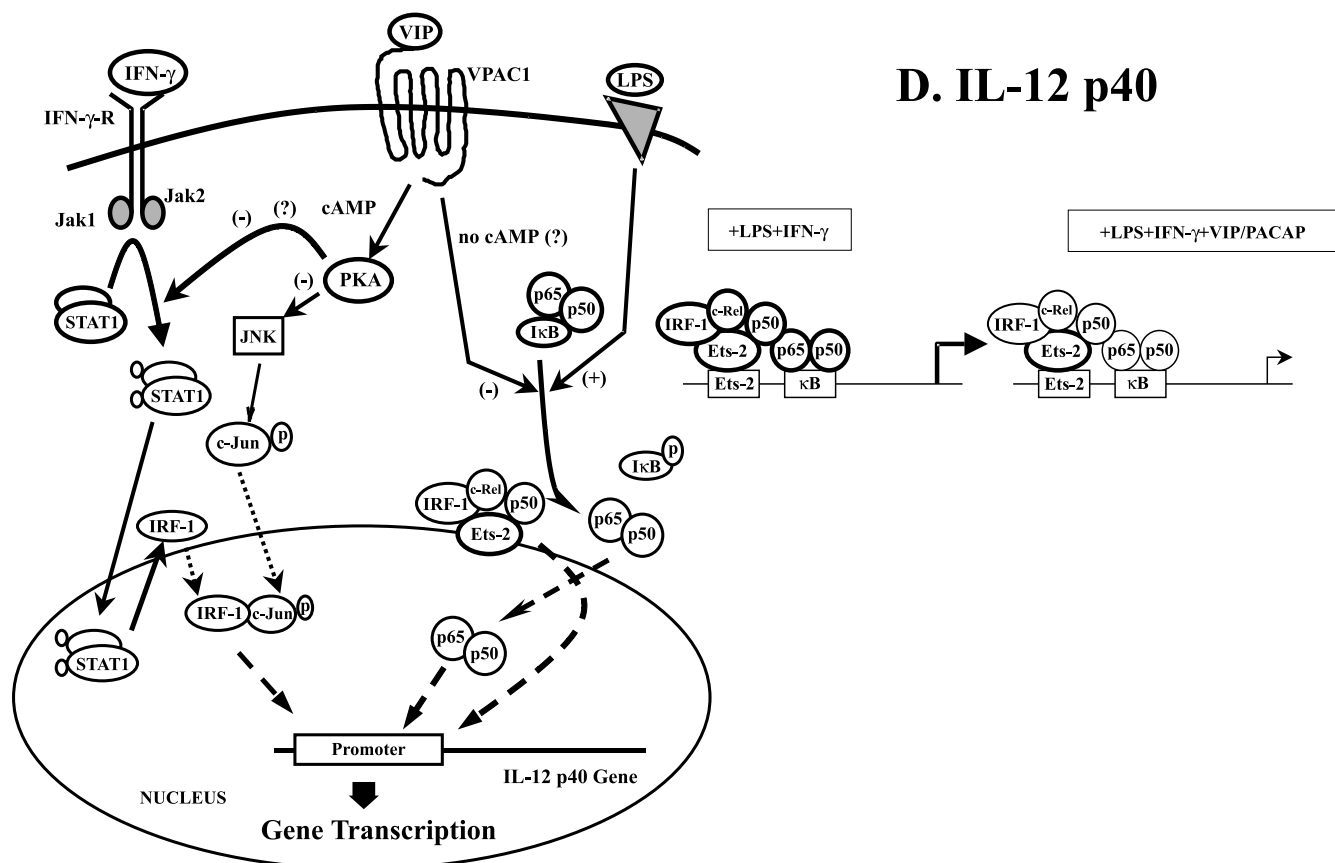


Fig. 1. Transduction pathways and transcriptional factors affected by VIP/PACAP in LPS or LPS/IFN- γ -stimulated macrophages. **A. TNF- α** – the cAMP-dependent pathway leads to the inhibition of JNK and therefore reduction in c-Jun, and an increase in CREB phosphorylation. As a result, c-Jun is replaced by CREB at the CRE site. The cAMP-independent pathway inhibits I κ B phosphorylation and prevents the nuclear translocation of c-Rel and p65. Decreases in nuclear NF κ B and changes in the CRE-binding complexes lead to reduced TNF- α transcription. **B. IL-10** – the cAMP, dependent pathway induces CREB phosphorylation and the increase in transcriptionally active CREB increases IL-10 gene transcription. **C. iNOS** – the cAMP-dependent pathway inhibits JNK activity and, possibly, STAT1 phosphorylation. As a result, IRF-1 transcription is inhibited. The cAMP-independent pathway inhibits I κ B phosphorylation and prevents the nuclear translocation of c-Rel and p65. Decreases in nuclear NF κ B and IRF-1 reduce iNOS gene transcription. **D. IL-12 p40** – the cAMP-dependent pathway inhibits JNK activity and, possibly, STAT1 phosphorylation. As a result, IRF-1 transcription is inhibited. IRF-1 participates as a member of the Ets-2 complex to the transcriptional activation of the IL-12 p40 gene. The reduction in IRF-1 and the decrease in nuclear NF κ B through the cAMP-independent pathway lead to a reduced IL-12 p40 gene transcription. Explanations: (–) indicates an inhibitory effect; (+) a stimulatory effect. On the right side of each of the figures, bold circling means increased, and thin circling reduced levels of the transactivating factors.





-control network of endogenous pro-inflammatory cytokines⁶⁸. Since VIP/PACAP inhibit the production of pro-inflammatory macrophage-derived cytokines *in vivo* and *in vitro*, it was expected that the two neuropeptides might protect against endotoxemia. Indeed, VIP/PACAP had a protective effect against lethal high endotoxemia in a murine model for septic shock¹⁵. VIP/PACAP acted in a dose-dependent and time-dependent manner, and the surviving VIP/PACAP-treated individuals did not present any of the histopathological alterations associated with septic shock. Initial experiments indicated a reduction of both TNF- α and IL-6 at the protein and mRNA levels. Subsequent experiments showed similar reductions in IL-12, IFN- γ and NO in serum and peritoneal fluid, associated with decreases in the corresponding mRNAs and an increase in IL-10²⁰. These results suggest that VIP/PACAP exert their protective effect through a generalized inhibition of the pro-inflammatory cytokine network and through the up-regulation of other anti-inflammatory agents such as IL-10. Since VIP/PACAP appear to affect multiple cytokines and inflammatory factors, they might provide a more efficient therapeutic alternative to the use of specific cytokine antibodies or antagonists.

Effects of VIP/PACAP on Macrophage B7 Expression and the Subsequent Th1/Th2 Differentiation

In addition to their function in innate immunity, macrophages participate in the initiation of acquired or specific immunity through their capacity to present the antigen to T cells expressing the appropriate receptor. To activate T helper (Th) cells, macrophages have to provide a second, costimulatory signal in addition to the MHC class II/antigen complex recognized by the specific T cell receptor. Among the costimulatory molecules, B7.1 and B7.2 play major roles. In macrophages, B7.1 and B7.2 are expressed only following activation, with B7.2 being induced earlier and at higher levels than B7.1⁴⁹.

VIP and PACAP belong to the family of endogenous factors that regulate B7 expression in macrophages. Interestingly, the two neuropeptides affect B7 expression in resting and activated macrophages in an opposite manner. In resting macrophages, VIP/PACAP up-regulate B7.2, but not B7.1 expression at mRNA and protein level both *in vivo* and *in vitro*. In contrast, in LPS/IFN- γ -activated macrophages, VIP/PACAP down-

-regulate both B7.1 and B7.2 expression²². The effect of VIP/PACAP on B7 expression correlates with effects on the costimulatory activity for T cells²².

The different subsets of effector Th cells play different roles in the immune response, with Th1 being primarily involved in cell-mediated immunity and Th2 in antibody production. Although the biological significance of the differential expression of B7.1 and B7.2 is not clear, several *in vivo* models suggest the involvement of B7.2 in Th2 differentiation^{45, 46}. In agreement with the capacity to induce B7.2, but not B7.1 in unstimulated macrophages, VIP/PACAP favor the development of Th2 cells both *in vivo* and *in vitro*¹³. As a consequence, the *in vivo* administration of VIP/PACAP also induces a shift in antibody isotype, increasing IgG1 and decreasing IgG2a levels¹³.

If the reduction in B7.1/B7.2 expression in activated macrophages is easy to incorporate into the general physiological role proposed for VIP/PACAP as endogenous anti-inflammatory agents, the induction of B7.2 in unstimulated macrophages, and the subsequent

induction of costimulatory activity for Th cells, appears to contradict the proposed model. However, since the final outcome is the predominant development of a Th2 response, with subsequent inhibition of Th1 differentiation, and since the Th1 response is associated with inflammatory reactions typical for cell-mediated immunity, the VIP/PACAP inhibition of Th1 development may represent an additional mechanism for their general anti-inflammatory activity.

Conclusions

VIP, and the structurally related neuropeptide PACAP, present in the microenvironment of lymphoid organs, modulate the function of inflammatory cells through specific receptors. Production and release of both pro-inflammatory and anti-inflammatory cytokines by activated phagocytes is a crucial event in the initiation and subsequent down-regulation of the immune response. VIP and PACAP inhibit the production

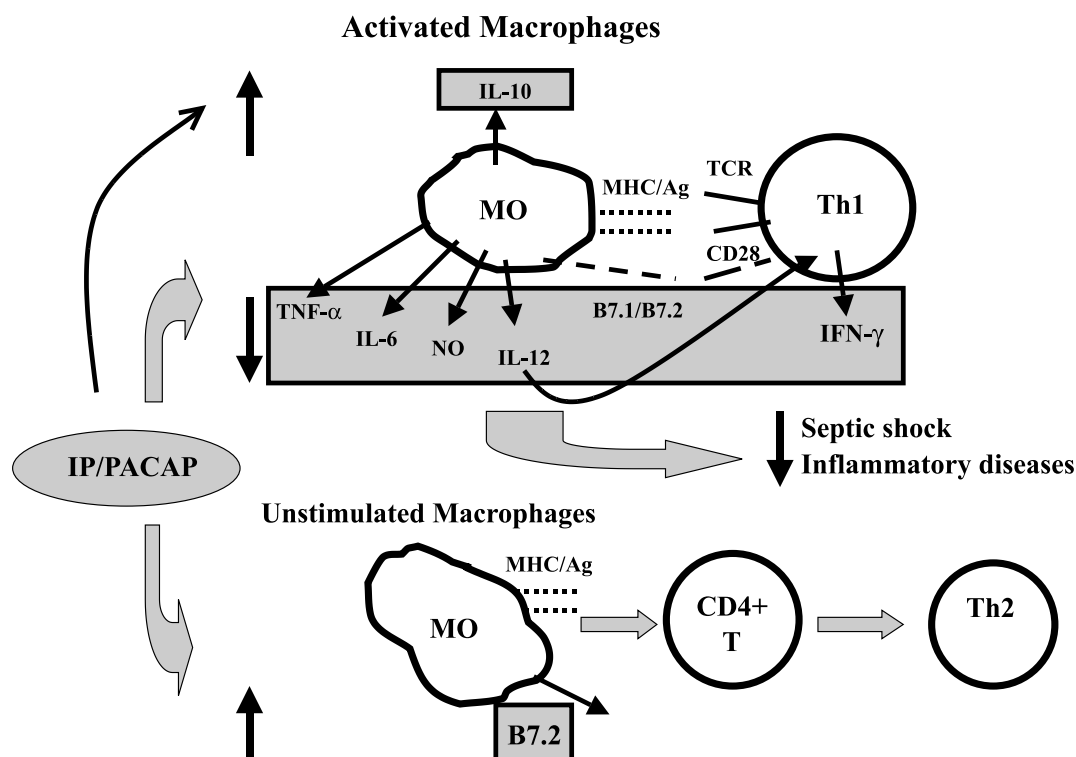


Fig. 2. Model for the *in vivo* immunomodulatory functions of VIP/PACAP on macrophages. **Activated macrophages** – VIP/PACAP inhibit the release of NO and of the pro-inflammatory macrophage-derived cytokines IL-6, TNF- α and IL-12, and of the IL-12, induced release of IFN- γ from Th1 cells. They also inhibit the expression of the costimulatory molecules B7.1/B7.2 and the subsequent stimulation of Th cells. In contrast, VIP/PACAP augment the production of the anti-inflammatory cytokine IL-10. Through their effects on both the pro- and anti-inflammatory cytokine network, VIP/PACAP might protect from the deleterious consequences of a hyperactive pro-inflammatory cytokine network in septic shock and inflammatory diseases. **Unstimulated macrophages** – VIP/PACAP induce the expression of B7.2 and subsequent activation of Th cells, leading to the preferential development of Th2 effector cells

of the pro-inflammatory cytokines TNF- α , IL-6, IL-12 and nitric oxide and stimulate the production of the anti-inflammatory cytokine IL-10, in activated macrophages *in vitro* and *in vivo*. The protective effect of VIP/PACAP in a high-endotoxic murine model for septic shock is, presumably, mediated through the effects on the cytokine network.

Macrophages function as antigen-presenting cells, initiating the activation of Th cells. VIP/PACAP reduce the expression of the costimulatory B7.1/B7.2 molecules and the subsequent stimulatory activity for Th cells in stimulated macrophages. In contrast, in unstimulated macrophages, VIP/PACAP induce specific B7.2 expression and, subsequently, promote T cell differentiation into Th2 effector cells.

We propose the following model for the immunomodulatory role of VIP/PACAP *in vivo* (Fig. 2). Antigenic stimulation initiates the early production of pro-inflammatory cytokines by activated macrophages, followed by the later secretion of anti-inflammatory factors. Among these, the neuropeptides VIP and PACAP are released from the peptidergic innervation or the immune cells, bind to macrophages expressing the VIP/PACAP receptors and modulate cytokine and iNOS expression. The production of pro-inflammatory agents such as TNF- α , IL-6, IL-12 and NO is inhibited and the production of anti-inflammatory cytokines such as IL-10 is stimulated. In septic shock the physiological "macrophage deactivating agents", including VIP/PACAP, are overwhelmed by the excessive pro-inflammatory cytokine network. However, exogenous administration of VIP/PACAP might have a significant therapeutical potential, since, in contrast to neutralizing antibodies and receptor antagonists directed against a single cytokine, VIP and PACAP directly interact with macrophages to suppress the LPS-induced production of TNF- α , IL-6, IL-12 and NO. In addition, VIP/PACAP inhibit B7.1/B7.2 expression in activated macrophages and reduce their subsequent stimulatory capacity for T cells.

Although most of the immunomodulatory functions of VIP/PACAP are in agreement with an *in vivo* anti-inflammatory role, recent observations suggest a more complex pattern of immune regulation, depending on the activation and developmental stage of the cellular targets. For example, VIP/PACAP induce B7.2 expression and IL-6 production in unstimulated macrophages, in contrast to their inhibitory effect on activated macrophages. Therefore, the physiological consequences of VIP/PACAP presence in the immune microenvironment may depend on the timing of their release and the activation stage of the neighboring immune cells.

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