GRANT NUMBER DAMD17-94-J-4001

TITLE: The Role of Alveolar Macrophages and Chemical Mediators in a Model of Smoke-Induced Lung Injury

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REPORT DATE: December 1996

TYPE OF REPORT: Final

PREPARED FOR: Commander
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Fort Detrick, Frederick, Maryland 21702-5012

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The Role of Alveolar Macrophages and Chemical Mediators in a Model of Smoke-Induced Lung Injury

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Using a rabbit model of lung injury to simulate fire-related transport accidents and military combat situations, our studies have demonstrated that toxic products of combustion cause a severe inflammatory reaction in the lung parenchyma, as evidenced by gas exchange, WtL/WtB, O$_2^-$ and TNF-α by PAM in vitro, and pathological evidence. It was suggested that pulmonary alveolar macrophages play an important role in the early phase of acute lung injury through production of oxygen radicals and cytokines. Standard doses of U75412E (1% in saline) were aerosolized and ventilated into the rabbit lungs via an endotracheal tube either before or after smoke exposure, suggesting the treatment with U75412E significantly prevented or limited the extent of acute lung injury due to smoke insult. It is postulated that lazaroids may possibly be associated with the oxygen radicals-initiated processes which activate cytokine gene transcription and initiate the cytokine cascade as a result of the smoke insult. Also our findings have demonstrated that this lazaroid may be more effective as a rescue agent rather than a prophylactic agent for acute smoke-induced lung injury. The additional benefit from dose- and time-effects of U75412E remain to be experimentally demonstrated.
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Mark L. Hitter 12-17-96
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INTRODUCTION

Smoke-induced acute lung injuries (SI-ALI) remain one of the most severe and lethal complications associated with fire-related disasters in an enclosed space [1]. An immediate catastrophic pulmonary failure and the subsequent development of pneumonia produce substantial morbidity and mortality. Each year in the United States approximately two million people are injured in fires, of which 130,000 are hospitalized, and more than 50% require intensive care. The majority of deaths, 8000 to 12,000 annually, are caused by the toxic productions of combustion [2]. Furthermore, the presence of inhalation injury can increase the risk of dying by a factor of five in burn victims.

SI-ALI are usually produced by a variety of toxic gaseous or particulate products of incomplete combustion. The combination of burning material and an enclosed space are major factors that lead to SI-ALI in transportation accidents and other catastrophic scenarios. Direct thermal injuries to lower airways are extremely rare because of rapid dissipation of heat through air passages, except in those patients subjected to the effects of hot gases or high-pressure steam from sudden explosions or similar accidents [3,4]. Adult respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS) is an important consequence of smoke inhalation. The primary pathophysiological abnormality of SI-ALI is an injury to the alveolar-capillary barrier resulting in increased lung permeability. There are rapid and massive accumulations of fluid in the interstitial and alveolar spaces of the lung accompanied by hemorrhage. There are four stages in the clinical course of patients with smoke-inhalation lung injury: asphyxia and acute poisoning, acute respiratory insufficiency, bronchopneumonia, and recovery. Most inhalation injury-related deaths occur during the second and third stages, which is involved in alterations in local and systemic defense mechanisms. Patients that survive these complications may enter the recovery stage [5]. Therefore, knowledge about the early role of alveolar cells in the pathogenesis of smoke-induced acute lung injury should also benefit the management of burn victims with smoke insult.

SI-ALI are characterized by a complex series of events in the alveolar septal area, such as the cascade of proinflammatory cytokines, the propagation of toxic oxygen reactive species and the release of inflammatory mediators. Of these mediators, the role of oxygen reactive species, especially lipid peroxides, is thought to be one of major pathological manifestations of lung alveolar injury [6-8]. There is strong evidence that lipid peroxides are directly toxic to alveolar cells [9,10], which results in an increase in capillary permeability and lung edema. Meanwhile, oxygen-derived free radicals are rapidly capable of activating cytokine gene transcription and initiate the cytokine cascade as a result of the smoke insult, including that for TNF-α [5]. Most importantly, pulmonary alveolar macrophages (PAM) could be activated and/or altered both by smoke combustion products, such as nitrogen dioxide, ozone and particulates, and free radicals from activated leukocytes [11,12].

It would be of interest to explore the potential of a compound in protection of SI-ALI in which oxidation damage has been implicated, either by rescue or by prophylactic treatment. A novel class of antioxidants, 21-aminosteroids (Lazaroids), have been extensively investigated and demonstrated to possess therapeutic potential in acute central nervous system trauma, cerebral ischemia and subarachnoid hemorrhage [18-21], and to serve a protective role in heme protein-induced renal injury and splanchnic artery occlusion shock [22]. The mechanism known so far to explain the action of Lazaroids is their strong lipid antioxidant activity attributed to iron chelation, chain breaking like that of α-tocopherol, and possibly the alteration of membrane fluidity [22-25]. In particular, it has recently been suggested that Lazaroids also possess therapeutic properties in animal models of endotoxin [26], bleomycin [27], Escherichia coli [28], silica [29], hyperoxia [9], and ischemia-reperfusion [30,31] induced lung injuries. However, very little information is known about the pharmacological effects of Lazaroids on acute smoke-induced lung injuries, which involves a complicated pathogenesis ultimately leading to ARDS [32].
It has been documented that the early events of smoke-induced lung injury will eventually lead to serious outcomes including death within several hours [32]. The initiation of acute lung injury is associated with activation of pulmonary alveolar macrophages (PAM) in the distal airspace. There are several studies [33-36] which demonstrate that PAM tumor necrosis factor-α (TNF-α) and superoxide anion (O$_2^-$) may be the chemical mediators released early in the lung injury process and may play a pivotal role in the pathogenesis of acute lung injury. There is evidence to suggest that the alveolar macrophage-epithelial cell axis may be important for the initiation and evolution of acute lung injury [37,38]. Therefore, PAM lavaged from rabbits exposed to in vivo 60 tidal volume breaths of diesel fuel-polycarbonate plastic smoke with U75412E treatment, either rescue or prophylactic mode, were analyzed for alterations in their ability to produce superoxide anion and TNF-α in vitro after cell isolation and culture. The purpose of the study was to investigate the potential value of the 21-aminosteroid analog U75412E for treatment of acute smoke-induced lung injuries and the lazaroid’s ability to modulate the effect of oxygen radicals in a rescue mode of therapy. Our hypothesis in this study is that U75412E treatment attenuates the smoke-induced lung injury process by altering the release of chemical mediators by PAM.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Animals

A total of 242, specific pathogen-free, female New Zealand white rabbits, weighing 2.33-3.22 kg, were utilized in this study which was approved by the University of Arizona Animal Care and Use Committee. The animals were assigned to the following exposure groups: (1) sham smoke controls (CON); (2) U75412E treatment before sham smoke control (DFC); (3) U75412E treatment after sham smoke control (DLC); (4) smoke exposure (SMO); (5) U75412E treatment before smoke (D+S); (6) U75412E treatment after smoke (S+D). Each group of rabbits were divided into both one and two hour subgroups, which were again divided for either bronchoalveolar lavage fluid (BALF) or pathological studies. The rabbits were housed one per cage with a 12-hour light/dark cycle at the Arizona Health Sciences Center AAALAC-approved animal resource facility and fed a standard rabbit chow diet and tap water ad libitum.

Surgery

The rabbits were anesthetized intramuscularly with a mixture of ketamine HCL (50 mg/kg; Parke-Davis, Morris Plains, NJ, U.S.A.), xylazine (8 mg/kg; Mobay, Shawnee, KS, U.S.A.), and acepromazine maleate (1 mg/kg; Fermenta, Kansas City, MO, U.S.A.) for the entire experimental period to ensure a deep state of anesthesia. A tracheostomy was performed with an endotracheal tube (ET, Concord/Portex, Keene, NH, U.S.A.) firmly tied in place with its tip 2 cm above the carina. The rabbits were then paralyzed with 8 mg/kg of intravenous gallamine triethiodide (Flaxedil; Lederle, Carolina, Puerto Rico, U.S.A.) to suppress spontaneous respiration during the entire experimental process. Auricular arterial blood was taken 5 minutes before the end of the experimental time period and analyzed using a System 1620 pH/Blood Gas Analyzer and 482 Co-Oximeter (Instrumentation Laboratory, Lexington, MA, U.S.A.). At the end of the experimental time period, the rabbits were killed by exsanguination of the abdominal aorta, and the heart-lung block was removed immediately for bronchoalveolar lavage (BAL) or pathological studies.

Smoke exposure

The smoke exposure protocol has been described in detail in a previous study [39]. Briefly, polycarbonate plastic shavings (0.2 g) and 20 ml diesel fuel were placed in a ceramic
crucible, and set on fire in a stainless steel smoke chamber. A total of 60 tidal volume breaths, based on a calculation of tidal volume at 14 ml/kg body weight, of diesel fuel-polycarbonate plastic smoke was drawn from the sampling port with a 60 cc syringe and then injected into the rabbit's lungs via the ET, while the ventilator was interrupted. Sham smoke exposure rabbits had the same protocol as smoke exposure except that ambient air was drawn through an empty smoke chamber. A piston-type ventilator (Model 665, Harvard Apparatus Co., South Natick, MA, U.S.A.) was used to deliver a tidal volume of 14 ml/kg at a rate of 50 breaths/min. to maintain PaCO₂ at 35-45 mmHg.

Drug treatment

The lazaroid U75412E (21-[4-(3-ethylamino-2-pyridinyl)-1-piperazinyl]-16-α-methylpregna-1,4,9-(11)-triene-3,20-dione), manufactured by Pharmacia-Upjohn Inc. (Kalamazoo, MI, U.S.A.), was examined in this study. We aerosolized 0.0418 g of sterile U75412E and 0.125 g encapsin solution in 4.18 ml of normal sterile saline (1% U75412E solution) for 3 minutes using a DeVilbiss Pulmo Sonic nebulizer (Model 25, Somerset, PA, U.S.A.). The nebulizer circuit was temporarily placed into the ventilator circuit and aerosolized lazaroid was ventilated into rabbit lungs through the ET either immediately before smoke exposure or at 0.5 and/or 1.5 hours after smoke exposure.

Isolation and culture of pulmonary alveolar macrophages

PAM were harvested by a revision of the Myrvik et al. [40] method of bronchoalveolar lavage. Washes were repeated four times with 60-ml aliquots of sterile 0.85% saline solution flushed through the tube portion of the ET with 90.2% ± 4.2 mean recovery. The lavage fluid was decanted into 20-ml chilled polypropylene tubes and spun at 500xg for 5 min. at 4 °C. The supernatant was used for determination of total protein in BALF, through a modification of the Lowry micro method using diagnostic kits (Sigma, St. Louis, MO, U.S.A.). The cell pellet was frozen at -75 °C without preservatives and saved for future analysis. A 50-ml centrifuge tube containing BALF was centrifuged for 15 minutes at 500xg. The supernatant was decanted and saved in sterile microfuge tubes and stored at -70 °C for BALF TNF-α assays. All cell pellets were resuspended in RPMI 1640 media (GIBCO Laboratory) with L-glutamine and sodium bicarbonate, combined, and centrifuged again at 500xg for 15 min. Cell counts showed average yields of 35-70 million cells per rabbit with 95% viability (trypan blue exclusion). An aliquot of 200 µl of cell suspension (1x10⁶ PAMs/ml) was added to 2 ml of RPMI 1640 medium with 25 mM HEPES in Costar 35 mm culture plates and the PAM were allowed to adhere for 30 min. at 37 °C, 5% CO₂. Media was then decanted and replaced with RPMI 1640 supplemented with 25 mM HEPES containing 10% heat-inactivated (56 °C, 30 min.) fetal bovine serum (Gemini, Calabasas, CA, U.S.A.) and 1% penicillin/streptomycin. Lipopolysaccharide (LPS, 1 µg/ml) was added to some cultures at this time. Cells remained in culture for either 2 or 24 hours. After culture, supernatants were saved at -70 °C for TNF-α assay and cells were measured for superoxide production.

TNF-α bioassay

The TNF-α bioassay [41,42], utilizing a WEHI-164 cell line subclone 13 (Dr. Waage’s Laboratory, Institution of Cancer Research, The University of Trondheim, Trondheim, Norway), was performed in the study. The cell numbers of the WEHI-164 cell line subclone 13 were adjusted to 5x10⁵ cells/ml in RPMI 1640 medium containing 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS), 30 µg/ml of gentamicin (Sigma, St. Louis, MO, U.S.A.), and 0.5 µg/ml of actinomycin D. A 100 µl aliquot of BAL or cell culture supernatant were run in duplicate or triplicate and serial dilution performed in a plate (flat-bottom 96 wells, Corning 25860) mixed with 100 µl of the above
mentioned WEHI-164 subclone 13 cell suspension. The plates were then incubated at 37° C, 5% CO₂ for 24 hours. After incubation, a 20 μl aliquot of [3-(4,5-Dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide] (MTT) at a concentration of 5 mg/ml in 0.01 M phosphate buffered saline (PBS) was added to each well for 4 hours at 37° C, 5% CO₂. The supernatant was discarded, and 100 μl of isopropanol-HCl (0.04N) was added to each well. The plates were kept in the dark at room temperature overnight, and then read at a test wavelength of 570 nm and reference wavelength of 660 nm on a MR600 microplate reader. The murine rTNF-α (10 ng/μl, Genzyme Corporation, Cambridge, MA, U.S.A.) was used as the standard for this assay in a range of 0.2 to 200 pg/ml. Polyclonal antiserum (anti-murine and anti-human TNF-α, Genzyme Corporation, Cambridge, MA, U.S.A.) and monoclonal antibody (anti-murine TNF-α from Genzyme; antihuman TNF-α from Olympus, Lake Success, NY, U.S.A.) were used to determine the cytotoxic specificity of TNF.

**PAM superoxide bioassay**

Pulmonary alveolar macrophages from the lavage were used to determine oxygen radical production by the single-cell measurement method [43]. This technique uses electro-optical density measurement methods to determine reduction of nitroblue tetrazolium (NBT), as an indicator of oxygen radical production. After incubation, supernatants were discarded, and 3 ml of resuspension solution [140 mM NaCl, 5 mM KCl, 1.5 mM CaCl₂, 5 mM glucose, and 10 mM Na-HEPES (N-2-hydroxyethyl piperazine-N'-2-ethane sulfonic acid)] containing 2 mg/ml of NBT were added. Plates were then transferred to a 37 °C warm stage of an inverted microscope and a layer of paraffin oil was placed over the solution to prevent evaporation. Cells were transilluminated at 550 nm, the peak absorbance wavelength for insoluble formazan in aqueous solutions. A field of six PAM was randomly selected, viewed with a low light level silicon-vidicon television camera, and video-recorded for 55 minutes using a 3/4 inch Sony (Model V05600) video cassette recorder. PAM were stimulated to produce superoxide (O₂⁻) by the addition of 10 μg/ml opsonized zymosan, 25 minutes after being video-recorded. Temporal changes in light intensity over PAMs were determined by playing back previously recorded images through a digital image analysis system capable of measuring the optical density of specified areas of the video image. Background light intensity variation was determined in regions of the image containing no cells. A modified form of the Beer-Lambert equation relating concentration to optical density was used to calculate the mass of formazan produced as a result of the reduction of soluble nitroblue tetrazolium dye to insoluble formazan precipitate. Oxygen radical production was calculated assuming a two-electron transfer for full reduction of nitroblue tetrazolium to formazan. Data were expressed as superoxide production (fmole/cell).

**Stable Metabolite of PGI₂ (6-keto-PGF₁α Assay)**

The collected fluid for 6-keto-PGF₁α analysis was decanted into chilled polypropylene tubes and spun at 1500 rpm for 5 min at 4 °C. The supernatant was decanted from the cell pellet and frozen immediately at -75 °C for analysis. We determined BALF 6-keto-PGF₁α concentrations by radioimmunoassay techniques as described elsewhere (39) using standard kits (DuPont NEN Research Products, Inc., Boston, MA). The 6-keto-PGF₁α antibody has the highest cross-reactivity (0.8%) with prostaglandin E1. All samples were run in duplicate and averaged to obtain a mean value.

**Pathological evaluation**

After removing the heart-lung bloc, the esophagus and cardiovascular structures were carefully dissected away from the body and the tracheopulmonary bloc weighed. The lungs were
fixed with 1/2 strength Karnovasky's fixative (2% paraformaldehyde, 2% gluteraldehyde, and 0.01% picric acid in 0.1 molar HEPES) at 20 centimeters H₂O pressure [44] and room temperature for one hour. The lungs were then immersed in fixative for 24 hours at 4 °C. Sections (2-3 mm in thickness) from the fixed lungs were taken from the mid-portion of the left and the right inferior lobes for light microscopy and minced into 1 mm³ pieces for electron microscopy. Light microscopy sections (5 μm) were embedded in paraffin and stained with hematoxylin and eosin (H & E). Electron microscopy sections (silver to gold interference colors) were osmicated and stained with lead citrate and uranyl acetate. The electron microscopy sections were examined with a Philips CM-12 electron microscope. Both light and electron microscopy slides were examined using blinded techniques.

**Statistical analysis**

Mean (SEM) data were calculated for each group of rabbits or cells. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) statistical analyses were calculated using the Statview (Abacus Concepts, Inc., Berkeley, CA, U.S.A.) computer program. A priori contrast between groups was performed using the Scheffe F test. Comparisons with p < 0.05 were considered significant.

**RESULTS**

**Lung gas exchange**

The SMO groups for either one or two hour experimental protocols had a significant decrease in blood PaO₂ and pH values accompanied by a marked increase in blood PaCO₂ when compared to the CON group (Figures 1 and 2). However, the U75412E-treated groups, including the D+S and S+D groups, had a significant elevation of blood PaO₂ and pH values, and a significant attenuation of PaCO₂ compared to the SMO group. However, the changes in these blood parameters did return to control levels in S+D2 group. There were no differences in gas exchange values between the CON and DFC groups.

**Cell count, differential in BALF**

In the one hour post-smoke experiment time-period, the BALF cell count in the SMO group was considerably higher than that observed in the CON group. Conversely, a significant attenuation of BALF cells in the U75412E pretreatment group (D+S) was observed when compared to the SMO group. However, this BALF cell count was still elevated when compared to the CON group (Table 1). The percentage of PAM in the SMO group was lower than the other groups, but only reached a significant decrease compared to that of the U75412E pretreatment group. The percentage of granulocytes in the SMO group was higher than the CON group, but the U75412E pretreatment groups had a significant decrease compared to that of the SMO group. In the two hour experiment time-period, the BALF cell count in all smoke groups had a decrease compared to that of the SMO group, but only D+S group and its control DFC group reached statistical significance. No statistical difference was demonstrated in lymphocyte differential (%) among all experimental groups.

**Superoxide anion (O₂⁻)**

In the one hour post-smoke experiment time-period, or at 2 hours after cell isolation and culture, both background and zymosan-stimulated production of PAM superoxide anion (O₂⁻) in the SMO1 group were significantly decreased compared to that of the CON1 group (Figure 3). The production of PAM O₂⁻ in both U75412E treatment groups (D+S1, S+D1), either background or zymosan-stimulated group, followed the same pattern as that in the SMO1 group, but background values of the S+D1 group only reached statistical significance when compared to
its corresponding control (CON1). Conversely, at 24 hours after culture, both background and zymosan-stimulated production of PAM $O_2^-$ were significantly increased in the SMO1 group as compared to that of the CON1 group. However, both background and zymosan-stimulated PAM $O_2^-$ values with or without LPS stimulation were significantly attenuated in the S+D1 group, not in the D+S1 group, as compared to that of the SMO1 group. There were no significant differences in PAM production of $O_2^-$ at 24 hour between groups with and without LPS-stimulation.

In the two hour experiment time-period, background production of PAM superoxide ($O_2^-$) in the SMO2 group (4.49 ± 1.44 fmole/cell, N=9) was significantly increased compared to that of the CON2 group (0.81 ± 1.29 fmole/cell, N=9). The PAM $O_2^-$ level in the D+S2 group (4.92 ± 1.71 fmole/cell, N=9) was identical to that in the SMO2 group, but the PAM $O_2^-$ value of the S+D2 group (0.73 ± 0.56 fmole/cell, N=6) decreased compared to its corresponding control level. Zymosan-stimulated production of PAM $O_2^-$ had the same trend as that of background production of PAM $O_2^-$, but there were no significant differences in PAM production of $O_2^-$ among all experimental groups.

Tumor necrosis factor-α (TNF-α)

After cessation of the experimental protocol at one hour, BALF TNF-α levels in the SMO1 group appeared to increase, but did not reach statistical significance when compared to that of the CON1 group. BALF TNF-α levels in the D+S1 group had a significant decrease compared to that of the DFC1 group (Table 2). At 24 hours after cell isolation and culture, PAM TNF-α levels in the SMO1 group were 3.6-fold greater than in the CON1 group. PAM TNF-α levels in both U75412E pretreatment groups significantly decreased when compared to those in the SMO1 group, however, the levels did not return to CON1 values. There were no significant differences in PAM TNF-α levels at 24 hours after stimulation with LPS among all experimental groups.

At two hours post-smoke, BAL TNF-α levels in the SMO2 group (2.0 ± 0.4 pg/ml) and the D+S2 group (7.5 ± 2.3 pg/ml) were significantly increased when compared to that of control (0.8 ± 0.3 pg/ml), the S+D2 group TNF-α value did not have a significant decrease when compared to that of the SMO2 group (1.5 ± 0.3 pg/ml, p>0.05). PAM TNF-α levels in the SMO2 group were significantly higher than in the CON2 group, either without or with LPS-stimulation. However, PAM TNF-α levels in both D+S2 and S+D2 groups significantly decreased (except S+D2 with LPS-stimulation) when compared to those in the SMO2 group, regardless of LPS stimulation. There were differences of PAM TNF-α levels between D+S2 and S+D2 groups, but these values did not reach statistical significance.

$PGI_2$, measured as its stable metabolite, 6-keto-PGF$_{1α}$

The SMO1 group (24.42±2.01 pg/ml) caused significant increases in bronchoalveolar lavage concentrations of 6-keto-PGF$_{1α}$, which had a 1.79-fold increase compared to the CON1 group (12.37±3.72 pg/ml). There were no differences in the bronchoalveolar lavage concentrations of 6-keto-PGF$_{1α}$ between SMO and U75412E treatment groups, either before or after smoke insult.

Histopathological analysis

Gross pathology showed that rabbit lungs in the SMO group had a dark red appearance. Wet lung/body weight ratio (WtL/WtB) in the SMO group was significantly increased compared to that of the CON group either at one or two hours experimental protocol (Figure 4). However, the WtL/WtB in both U75412E treatment groups (D+S, S+D) were considerably attenuated when compared to that of the corresponding SMO group values. In all the rabbit lungs in which smoke was instilled, minute soot particles were observed in the alveolar spaces and within PAM. Scattered minute inflammatory foci were observed in 50% of the lungs of SMO rabbits, but these
foci did not appear to be related to the accumulation of soot particles in the lungs. Electron microscopy also revealed that a significant attenuation of interstitial edema in the alveolar walls and the vacuolization of the type II cells occurred in the U75412E treatment groups, when compared to the SMO group. Additionally, we measured epithelial thickness and quantified sloughing of epithelium to the basement membrane in H&E stained rabbit terminal bronchioles. Epithelial thickness and sloughing did not significantly change in all smoke exposure groups at the 1 and 2 hour experiments as compared to control. Interestingly, an insignificant increase in epithelial thickness, as compared to control, occurred in the 1 hour experiment in the U75412E treated group.

DISCUSSION

Using a rabbit model of lung injury to simulate fire-related transport accidents and military combat situations, our studies have demonstrated that toxic products of combustion cause a severe inflammatory reaction in the lung parenchyma [32,45-54], as evidenced by gas exchange, WtL/WhB, O$_2^-$, and TNF-α by PAM in vitro, and pathological evidence. However, standard doses of U75412E (1% in saline) were aerosolized and ventilated into the rabbit lungs via an endotracheal tube either before or after smoke exposure, suggesting the treatment with U75412E significantly prevented or limited the extent of acute lung injury due to smoke insult [46-48]. It was also demonstrated that this lazarooid may be more effective as a rescue agent rather than a prophylactic agent for acute smoke-induced lung injury [48]. The additional benefit from larger and/or multiple doses of U75412E remain to be experimentally demonstrated.

The role of alveolar macrophages and chemical mediators, as well as the effects of lazarooid on an acute smoke-induced lung injury

The present study demonstrated that acute smoke exposure markedly decreased blood PaO$_2$ and pH values while increasing PaCO$_2$. However, a single aerosolized U75412E dose (1% solution) for 3 minutes resulted in a significant improvement in the gas exchange defect generated by the smoke insult, while with double doses treatment these values did return to control levels. We disclosed a protective role of U75412E on gas exchange in this smoke model similar to that of U74389G, another lazarooid compound, demonstrated by Johnson and co-workers in a lung injury dog model [55]. Pretreatment with U74389G (10 mg/kg body weight) attenuated the decrease in PaO$_2$ (476 ± 61 mmHg to 226 ± 143) and the increase in intrapulmonary shunt (12.6% ± 6.1% to 14.3% ± 6.8%) 70 minutes after endotoxin infusion.

Alveolar macrophages are the major resident phagocyte on the air-exchange surface of the lung and serve as the primary cellular defense mechanism of the lung. There is evidence to indicate that the alveolar macrophage-epithelial cell axis may be important for the initiation and evolution of acute injury [37]. We found that the smoke insult resulted in an increase in the total cell count by 88.9% and additional recruitment of granulocytes into the lung airspace within the one hour experiment time-period compared to controls. The present data suggests that the lung phagocytic system may play an early and possibly crucial role in the inflammatory processes by taxis and phagocytosis of large amounts of smoke particulate matter. Conversely, a single aerosolized U75412E dose (1% solution) for 3 minutes prior to smoke exposure attenuated the elevation of the total cell count and granulocytes in BALF. We postulate that this effect may involve either the attenuation of chemoattractants produced at the smoke-induced inflammatory focus or the alteration of chemotaxis characteristics of blood monocytes and interstitial macrophages [33,34].
Alveolar macrophages may contribute to lung injury and inflammation in multiple ways, including release of reactive oxygen species such as superoxide anion [56]. Phagocytosis is usually accompanied by a respiratory burst that increases cellular oxygen consumption and glucose metabolism in the hexose monophosphate shunt which leads to the release of highly reactive oxygen metabolites at the surface of plasma membranes [43]. The initial oxygen metabolite is thought to be superoxide anion, which can readily form hydrogen peroxide, hydroxyl ion, singlet oxygen, or hydrochloric acid. In order to determine the effects of treatment with U75412E on PAM function following intratracheal smoke instillation, PAM lavaged from rabbits were analyzed for alterations in their ability to produce superoxide anion in vitro. The data showed that acute smoke exposure in vivo activated and enhanced the PAM O$_2^-$ production in vitro. It is possible to build a cause-effect relationship of the lung injury based on this study that smoke exposure significantly altered the function of PAM. Also a biphasic response of production of PAM O$_2^-$ regardless of the presence of opsonized zymosan was observed in the SMO group. At 2 hours after cell isolation and culture, production of PAM O$_2^-$ was significantly inhibited, while at 24 hours, production of PAM O$_2^-$ was significantly increased when compared to the corresponding control (CON). This may be one of the characteristics of PAM associated with smoke exposure due to an immediate release of O$_2^-$ during the smoke insult. However, the U75412E treatment at 0.5 hour post-smoke clearly interrupts the long-term PAM O$_2^-$ production, suggesting that treatment with U75412E may be more effective if administered in a “rescue” mode after the smoke insults.

Previous studies suggest that TNF-α may be an early predictive marker and potent proinflammatory cytokine in inducing acute lung processes [36]. The data showed that acute smoke exposure in vivo activated and enhanced PAM TNF-α release in vitro. Therefore, the release of TNF-α from PAM and its presence in the alveolar septal area may be an important factor that induces acute lung injury and inflammation [38]. We demonstrated that the U75412E treatment, either before or after smoke insult, significantly attenuated the elevation of smoke-induced PAM TNF-α production in vitro even if the TNF-α values did not return to control levels. Perhaps, the higher dose of lazaroid affects the ability of lung cells, both resident and recently recruited, to produce TNF-α. Thus, the modulation of PAM TNF-α production may possibly be one of the pharmacological action mechanisms to attenuate lung injury in this model. However, the dose- and time-effect relationships should be built to confirm the action of U75412E to attenuate PAM TNF-α production.

Histopathological data showed that treatment with U75412E attenuated the lung injury and inflammatory response to smoke exposure, as evidenced by gross, light, and electron microscopy examination. Both U75412E pretreatment and posttreatment significantly attenuated wet lung/body weight ratio (WtL/WtB). Furthermore, electron microscopy revealed that the magnitude of interstitial edema and vacuolation of type II cells were reduced by the U75412E treatment. Parallel data, by gas exchange and histopathologic analysis, suggest that the protective effect of U75412E may be related to the smoke-induced changes in capillary permeability which allows the development of alveolar interstitial edema.

The possible mechanisms of action of lazaroid in the pathogenesis of an acute smoke induced-lung injury

Lazaroids are able to integrate into cell membranes and then scavenge free radicals by their steroid moiety and the iron-chelating group [18,11,21]. Although the antioxidant properties of lazaroids have been documented in acute central nervous system trauma, cerebral ischemia and subarachnoid hemorrhage, whether and by which mechanisms lazaroids attenuate smoke-induced acute lung injury are yet to be elucidated. The present study showed that a lazaroid, U75412E, not
only had inhibition of PAM superoxide production, but substantially attenuated smoke-induced BALF TNF-α, especially PAM expression of TNF-α, in this well-characterized rabbit smoke model. In another study, mRNA levels for IL-1β, IL-6, IL-10, TNF-α, and IFN-γ were significantly decreased among intraparenchymal pulmonary mononuclear cells in mice treated with U74389F [31]. It is postulated that lazaroids may possibly be associated with the oxygen radicals-initiated processes which activate cytokine gene transcription and initiate the cytokine cascade as a result of the smoke insult.

In addition, treatment with U75412E resulted in a significant improvement in the gas exchange defect and pulmonary edema. It is reported that lung surfactant could be inactivated and/or altered both by smoke combustion products, such as nitrogen dioxide, ozone and particulate, and free radicals from activated PAM and leukocytes [11,12]. Especially, phospholipids with unsaturated fatty acids, which may be important in spreading dipalmitoylphosphatidylcholine at the air-liquid interface, are very susceptible to lipid peroxidation. Cholesterol which makes up about 8% of surfactant lipid are also subject to alteration by free radicals [12]. It is suggested that lazaroid may attenuate the smoke induced lung injury process, at least in part, by protecting alveolar surfactant from oxidation damage.

Smoke exposure can induce an acute injury to the alveolar-capillary barrier resulting in increased lung permeability progressing to ARDS by multiple cell populations [31]. Obviously, the inhibition of U75412E on free radical and TNF-α generated by PAM may be one of the major lung cells involving smoke-induced early lung injury. There is evidence that endotoxin-induced lung injury could be attenuated by another lazaroid analogue, U74389G, through a decrease in the concentration of free radicals associated with neutrophil activation [26]. Therefore, lazaroids may prove effective in those lung disease processes, including ARDS, where free-radical reactions and/or lipid peroxidation are presumed mechanisms of lung injury.

Our studies with this model have demonstrated that smoke-induced lung injury was involved in a complex series of events in the lung including the time-phase changes of PAM $O_2^-$ production, PAM TNF-α release, and lung permeability. We found that PAM $O_2^-$ production in vitro decreases at 2 hours and conversely, increases at 24 hours after cell isolation and culture in a one hour post-smoke experiment. Therefore, this investigation was designed for a comparison between pretreatment and posttreatment with U75412E in this model, due to a biphasic response of PAM $O_2^-$ production. Our data demonstrated that the rescue mode of U75412E therapy was more advantageous than the prophylactic mode of U75412E administration in relation to gas exchange, PAM $O_2^-$ production, and BAL TNF-α and PAM TNF-α unstimulated by LPS, and pathological evidence. Exact mechanisms of the lazaroid action due to the mode of administration (rescue-vs-prophylactic) are not known, however, the effects may be related to the lazaroid’s strong scavenging ability for free radicals by their steroid moiety. Also this observation suggests, at least in part, that lipid peroxidation may not be the primary pathogenesis for the early events of injury in this smoke model. However, it may be more important for production of $O_2^-$ to initiate lipid peroxides and/or activate cytokine gene transcription and protein expression, which could potentiate the lung injury process in the post-injury period.

The parallel evidence of gross, light and electron microscopy examination indicated that attenuating smoke-induced increases in lung permeability were associated with the pharmacological activity of U75412E. The U75412E action mechanisms in attenuating the lung permeability still need to be elucidated. We postulated that the effect of U75412E may be implicated by two mechanisms: 1) smoke exposure damages capillary interendothelial junctions to allow the development of alveolar compliance through oxidative stress and cytokine cascade; 2) smoke exposure activates the type II pneumocytes which are actively involved in pumping sodium and other electrolytes from the alveolar spaces into the interstitial areas [58,59].
Although PAM's abilities to produce $O_2^-$ and TNF-α production and lung injury were substantially inhibited with the dose of U75412E used in this study, we can not precisely address the mechanisms of action involved, and the broader concern of lung injury. The effects of U75412E on smoke-induced lung injury could be involved in multiple mechanisms, such as the direct inhibition of lipid peroxidation and other pharmacological action mechanisms [24,27,47]. One possible key mechanism of this lazaroid's effectiveness in this smoke model may be the physicochemical interaction on the alveolar cell membrane by its iron-chelating abilities and lipophilic nature. In addition, U75412E may be associated with the oxygen radicals-initiated processes which activate nuclear transcriptional regulatory factor NF-kB, and initiate the cytokine cascade (IL-1β, TNF-α) as a result of the smoke insult. Thus, whether and how U75412E exerts its effectiveness in the model through these possible injury mechanisms requires further study.

CONCLUSIONS

1. Smoke exposure can induce an acute injury to the alveolar-capillary barrier resulting in increased lung permeability progressing to ARDS, of these process the PAM may play a central role in the early events of acute lung injury through activation of chemical mediators, such as $O_2^-$, TNF-α and PG I₂ production.

2. A standard dose of aerosolized U75412E (1% in saline) for 3 minutes before or after smoke exposure has been demonstrated to attenuate the acute smoke induced lung parenchyma injury by preserving gas exchange, and inhibiting PAM $O_2^-$ and TNF-α production in vitro. Histopathology and cell differential data indicated that morphological alterations after smoke insult, such as inflammatory focus and interstitial edema, were also attenuated by the U75412E pretreatment.

3. It was also demonstrated that this lazaroid may be more effective as a rescue agent rather than a prophylactic agent for acute smoke induced lung injury, as evidenced by gas exchange, PAM $O_2^-$ production, and PAM TNF-α production in vitro in the 2 hour experimental protocol.

4. The additional benefit from larger and/or multiple doses of U75412E remain to be experimentally demonstrated because the protection from lung injury was not complete in this study. In particular, dose- and time-effect relationships of U75412E on acute lung injury should be determined.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The authors thank J. Christopher Pitchford of Pharmacia-Upjohn Inc. for his assistance in this project. This research was supported by the U.S. Army Medical & Development Command, No. DAMD 17-94-J-4001 and National Institute of Health grant ES06694. The WEHI cell line 13 was a kind gift from Dr. Wagge, University of Trondheim, Norway.

The views expressed in this article are those of the authors and do not reflect the official policy or position of the Department of the Army, Department of Defense, or the U. S. Government.

REFERENCES


Figure 1. Comparison of the effects of U75412E pretreatment and posttreatment on gas exchange at one hours in a rabbit model of smoke induced lung injury. CON1: sham smoke control (n=18); DFC1: U75412E treatment immediately before sham smoke (n=17); DLC1: U75412E treatment after sham smoke (n=16); SMO1: smoke exposure (n=15); D+S1: U75412E treatment before smoke exposure (n=18); S+D1: U75412E treatment at 0.5 hour after smoke exposure (n=16). Auricular arterial blood was taken at 1 hour after smoke exposure and analyzed using a System 1620 pH/Blood Gas Analyzer and 482 Co-Oximeter. Data expressed as Mean (SEM). a p<0.05 compared to CON1; b p<0.05 compared to SMO1; c p<0.05 compared to D+S1.
Figure 2. Comparison of the effects of U75412E pretreatment and posttreatment on gas exchange at two hours in a rabbit model of smoke induced lung injury. CON2: sham smoke control (n=17); DFC2: U75412E treatment immediately before sham smoke (n=14); DLC2: U75412E treatment after sham smoke (n=12); SMO2: smoke exposure (n=17); D+S2: U75412E treatment before smoke exposure (n=13); S+D2: U75412E treatment at 0.5, and 1.5 hours after smoke exposure (n=11). Auricular arterial blood was taken at 2 hours after smoke exposure and analyzed using a System 1620 pH/Blood Gas Analyzer and 482 Co-Oximeter. Data expressed as Mean (SEM). a p<0.05 compared to CON2; b p<0.05 compared to SMO2; c p<0.05 compared to D+S2.
<table>
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<tr>
<th>GROUP</th>
<th>CON</th>
<th>DFC</th>
<th>DLC</th>
<th>SMO</th>
<th>D+S</th>
<th>S+D</th>
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<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8</td>
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<td>13.71±1.74</td>
<td>19.01±3.96</td>
<td>28.87±4.60a</td>
<td>17.24±4.22b</td>
<td>28.94±4.60ac</td>
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<td>PAM</td>
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<td>99.00±0.58</td>
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<td>0.91±0.44b</td>
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<td>Two hours, N=</td>
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<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
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<td>25.73±6.21</td>
<td>18.86±4.34a</td>
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<td>PAM</td>
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<td>Lymphocyte</td>
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<td>0.56±0.24</td>
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CON: sham smoke control; DFC: U75412E treatment immediately before sham smoke; DLC: U75412E treatment after sham smoke; SMO: smoke exposure; D+S: U75412E treatment before smoke exposure; S+D: U75412E treatment after smoke exposure. Data expressed as Mean±SEM. * p<0.05 compared to CON; b p<0.05 compared to SMO; c p<0.05 compared to D+S.
Figure 3. The effects of U75412E treatment on superoxide production of pulmonary alveolar macrophages (PAM) in a rabbit model of smoke induced lung injury. PAM were harvested at the end of one hour experiment in vivo and cultured for 2 and 24 hours correspondingly. CON1: sham smoke control (n=10); DFC1: U75412E treatment immediately before sham smoke (n=9); DLC1: U75412E treatment after sham smoke (n=9); SMO1: smoke exposure (n=9); D+S1: U75412E treatment before smoke exposure (n=11); S+D1: U75412E treatment at 0.5 hour after smoke exposure (n=8). Data expressed as Mean (SEM). a p<0.05 compared to CON1; b p<0.05 compared to SMO1; c p<0.05 compared to D+S1.
Table II

Changes of tumor necrosis factor-α (TNF-α) in BALF and PAM after smoke exposure and U75412E treatment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GROUP</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>BALF TNF-α (pg/ml)</th>
<th>PAM TNF-α (pg/ml)</th>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-LPS</td>
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<tr>
<td>CON1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.45 ± 0.10</td>
<td>2284.09 ± 470.41</td>
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<tr>
<td>DFC1</td>
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<td>1.19 ± 0.44</td>
<td>1435.79 ± 126.84</td>
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<td>1.37 ± 0.75</td>
<td>3430.76 ± 1641.77</td>
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<tr>
<td>SMO1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.57 ± 0.24</td>
<td>7496.37 ± 1288.87a</td>
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<td>D+S1</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.20 ± 0.32</td>
<td>4046.35 ± 1742.45b</td>
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<td>S+D1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2.04 ± 0.02</td>
<td>4324.05 ± 1687.61b</td>
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</table>

CON1: sham smoke control; DFC1: U75412E treatment immediately before sham smoke; DLC1: U75412E treatment after sham smoke; SMO1: smoke exposure; D+S1: U75412E treatment before smoke exposure; S+D1: U75412E treatment after smoke exposure. Bronchoalveolar lavage were repeated four times with 60-ml aliquots of sterile 0.85% saline solution flushed through the tube portion of the ET with 90.2% ± 4.2 mean recovery at the end of one hour experiment in vivo. PAM were isolated and cultured in RPMI medium with 25 mM HEPES in Costar 35 mm culture plates for 24 hours. Data expressed as Mean±SEM. a p<0.05 compared to CON1; b p<0.05 compared to SMO1; Abbreviations: BALF: bronchoalveolar lavage fluid; PAM: pulmonary alveolar macrophages; LPS: lipopolysaccharide.
Figure 4. Comparison of the effects of U75412E pretreatment and posttreatment on wet lung/body weight ratios (WL/WB) in a rabbit model of smoke induced lung injury. CON: sham smoke control; DFC: U75412E treatment immediately before sham smoke; DLC: U75412E treatment after sham smoke; SMO: smoke exposure; D+S: U75412E treatment before smoke exposure; S+D: U75412E treatment after smoke exposure. Data expressed as Mean (SEM). a \textit{p}<0.05 compared to CON; b \textit{p}<0.05 compared to SMO.


List of all personnel receiving pay, and the graduate degrees resulting from the grant support

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<td>Mark L. Witten</td>
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<td>Principal Investigator</td>
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<td>R. Clark Lantz</td>
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<td>Evelyn D. Rider</td>
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<td>Shengjun Wang</td>
<td>M.D., MPH.</td>
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<td>Veronica Breceda</td>
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<td>Grace Parliman</td>
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<td>Brian J. Tollinger</td>
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