Mini Review

Regulation of host immune responses by nuclear $I\kappa B$ proteins

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Nuclear factor- κ B (NF- κ B) plays an essential role in optimal activation of host immune systems, which is conserved from insects to mammals. Various microbial components and host-derived inflammatory cytokines activate NF- κ B, leading to activation of the host immune system. Since excessive activation of NF- κ B is harmful to the host, its activity is finely regulated at multiple steps in immune signaling pathways. One mechanism to prevent NF- κ B activation is conducted by cytoplasmic I κ B family proteins. Cytoplasmic I κ Bs have been shown to interact with NF- κ B subunits in the cytoplasm of unstimulated cells. On stimulation, I κ Bs are rapidly degraded in a ubiquitin-proteasome dependent manner, allowing liberated NF- κ B to translocate into the nucleus and activate the transcription of genes encoding various immune mediators. After the translocation of NF- κ B from the cytoplasm to the nucleus, nuclear proteins structurally similar to cytoplasmic I κ Bs participate in the regulation of NF- κ B activity as co-activators or -inhibitors through association with NF- κ B subunits. For that reason, the regulatory I κ B-like nuclear molecules are known as 'nuclear I κ B proteins'. In this review, we will discuss the physiological function of the nuclear I κ B proteins, I κ B ζ , I κ BNS, and Bcl-3 in the context of innate and adaptive immune responses.

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Introduction

Activation of the host immune system requires a set of transcription factors including NF- κ B, AP-1, C/EBP, and interferon regulatory factors, that positively regulate the expression of genes involved in various immune responses such as proinflammatory cytokine production, proliferation, and up-regulation of surface molecules in a variety of immune cells¹⁻⁶). Among the transcriptional activators, NF- κ B family proteins are well known for their role in the regulation of innate and adaptive immune responses. In unstimulated cells, NF- κ B is sequestered in the cytoplasm by associating with inhibitory proteins called I κ B. Activation and regulation of NF- κ B is tightly controlled by the I κ B proteins that mask the nuclear localization signal of NF- κ B, preventing its translocation into the nucleus in the unstimulated state. On stimula-



Fig.1 NF-*k*B and *k*B family proteins

RelA/p65, RelB, and c-Rel possess trans-activation domain in the C-terminal portions. Distinct from cytoplasmic $I_{\mathcal{K}}B$ proteins, Bcl-3, $I_{\mathcal{K}}BNS$, and $I_{\mathcal{K}}B\zeta$ contain nuclear localization signal. RHD: Rel homology domain. NLS: Nuclear localization signal. TAD: Trans-activation domain. A: Ankyrin motif.

tion by various host immune mediators such as proinflammatory cytokines including tumor necrosis factor (TNF) or interleukin (IL)-1 superfamily proteins, or a number of microbial components such as Toll-like receptor (TLR) ligands, signaling cascades downstream of the receptors are activated, leading to phosphorylation of I κ B proteins by I κ B kinase complex including α , β , and γ subunit of I κ B kinases, which are shown to be required for NF- κ B activation through phosphorylation of cytoplasmic I κ Bs³, and subsequent degradation of the phosphorylated I κ B proteins. This allows NF- κ B to translocate into the nucleus for the transcription of target genes. As for the structural character, I κ B family proteins harbor ankyrin repeats that are shown to be required for interaction with NF- κ B subunits³(Fig.1).

I κ B-like proteins possessing ankyrin repeats are found not only in the cytoplasm but also in the nucleus, where they are called 'nuclear I κ B proteins'. To date, three nuclear I κ B proteins I κ B ζ , I κ BNS, and Bcl-3 have been cloned and characterized by *in vitro* biochemical and *in vivo* genetic analysis in terms of the host immune response (Fig.1). Compared with cytoplasmic I κ B proteins, nuclear I κ B proteins containing nuclear localization signals in the N-terminal portions were found to be bound with p50 or p52 subunit of NF- κ B to modulate gene expression in the nucleus. In this review, we summarize recent findings on nuclear I κ B proteins with particular emphasis on the immunological aspects⁷⁻⁹).

ΙκΒζ

I κ B ζ (also known as INAP or MAIL) was originally identified as a gene that is specifically induced by LPS (a TLR4 ligand) or IL-1 stimulation¹⁰⁻¹²⁾. Unlike other I κ B family members, I κ B ζ is preferentially induced in response to TLR ligands, but not TNF, which activates NF-kB and MAP kinases as in TLR-mediated pathways. In vitro studies showed that overexpression of I κ B ζ inhibits NF- κ B activation. On the other hand, ectopic expression of I κ B ζ promoted LPS-induced IL-6 production in a cell line. I κ B ζ -deficient mice were generated to examine its physiological role in TLR-mediated immune responses¹³⁾. I κ B ζ -deficient mice showed defective IL-6 production in response to all TLR ligands and IL-1, but not to TNF. Regarding the IL-6 promoter, the NF- κ B site is responsible for the positive effect of I κ B ζ , which specifically interacts with the p50 subunit of NF- κ B. In addition, microarray analysis comparing gene expression profiles of LPS-stimulated wild-type and I κ B ζ -deficient macrophages demonstrated that a subset of LPS-inducible genes, such as IL-12 p40, GM-CSF and G-CSF, were severely affected by $I \kappa B \zeta$ deficiency. The LPS-induced transcription of I κ B ζ occurs earlier than the transcription of these genes. In addition, LPS-induced expression of these genes requires de novo protein synthesis, indicating that these genes are secondary response genes. Furthermore, LPS-induced expression of genes that are induced early, like $I \kappa B \zeta$, was not impaired in $I \kappa B \zeta$ -deficient cells. Thus, some TLR-mediated responses are regulated by a two-step mechanism: firstly, primary response genes are induced early after TLR stimulation; then, the primary response gene product $I \kappa B \zeta$ mediates induction of secondary response genes (Fig.2).

Also, $I\kappa B\zeta$ -deficient mice exhibited pathological changes in the conjunctiva characterized by heavy lymphocyte infiltration into the submucosa and loss of goblet cells in the conjunctival epithelium^{13,14)}. The inflammatory symptoms found in $I \kappa B \zeta$ deficient mice are reminiscent of Stevens-Johnson syndrome and/ or cicatricial ocular pemphigoid, in which patients experience loss of goblet cells and infiltration of lypmphocytes into the conjunctival tissues over the cornea^{14,15)}. In addition, $I \kappa B \zeta / MAIL$ deficient mice showed atopic dermatitis-like skin lesions with higher concentrations of serum IgE, suggesting a role for $I\kappa B\zeta$ in the negative regulation of the *in vivo* immune response¹⁶. Indeed, TNF- α production in LPS-induced septic shock was augmented and prolonged in $I\kappa B\zeta$ -deficient mice, indicating that $I \kappa B \zeta$ may function as a negative regulator of TNF- α production in cell types other than macrophages. The apparent contradiction observed in *in vitro* and *in vivo* analysis using $I \kappa B \zeta$ deficient mice might be possibly due to the difference of the cell-





 $I\kappa B\zeta$ and $I\kappa BNS$ act positively and negatively, respectively, in TLR/IL-1R-mediated MyD88-dependent secondary "late" immune responses. Bcl-3 suppresses p50-dependent gene expression and promotes p52-dependent responses.

type specific regulation of NF- κ B gene expression by I κ B ζ , since overexpression of I κ B ζ inhibits or activates NF- κ B-dependent gene expression in 293T cells or 3T3 fibroblast cells, respectively^{10,11}. Further detailed analysis may reveal the precise role of I κ B ζ as a positive or negative regulator of NF- κ Bdependent gene expression.

In terms of the mechanisms how $I\kappa B\zeta$ potentiates expression of a subset of LPS-inducible genes, $I\kappa B\zeta$ -deficient macrophages showed defective induction of trimethylation of histone H3 on the promoter of $I\kappa B\zeta$ -regulated genes, suggesting the role of $I\kappa B\zeta$ in the nucleosome remodeling induced by LPS¹⁷⁾.

IκBNS

IκBNS was originally cloned as a gene rapidly induced by TCR stimulation in thymocytes¹⁸⁾. IκBNS also contains ankyrin repeats as well as IκBζ or Bcl-3 and is localized in the nucleus. Overexpression of IκBNS by a retrovirus in thymocytes promoted cell death, suggesting the involvement of IκBNS in thymocyte development *in vivo*. Moreover, ectopic expression of IκBNS abrogated PMA/ionophore-induced NF-κB DNA binding activity and NF-κB-dependent luciferase reporter activity, suggesting a role for IκBNS as a negative regulator of NF-κB.

Independently, gene expression analysis of colonic lamina propria (CLP) macrophages, which constitutively produce IL-10 and are therefore considered to have an important role in the maintenance of colonic mucosal immunological homeostasis, revealed the specific expression of $I\kappa$ BNS in CLP macrophages, but not in peritoneal macrophages, suggesting a potential role for $I\kappa$ BNS in intestinal mucosal immunity¹⁹. In addition, LPS stimulation up-regulated the mRNA expression of $I\kappa$ BNS. Overexpression of $I\kappa$ BNS in a macrophage cell line inhibited LPS-induced IL-6 production at the transcriptional level through association with the p50 subunit of NF- κ B. Moreover, upon LPS stimulation, $I\kappa$ BNS was recruited to the κ B site of IL-6, but not the TNF- α , promoter¹⁹.

Further studies were conducted by generation of $I\kappa$ BNS-deficient mice^{20,21)}. Not only IL-6, but also other secondary response genes whose induction has been shown to be severely impaired in $I\kappa B \zeta$ -deficient cells, were conversely up-regulated in $I\kappa$ BNSdeficient cells in response to LPS²⁰⁾. Moreover, LPS-induced NF- κ B DNA binding activity and the recruitment of NF- κ B to the promoter of secondary response genes were also prolonged in $I\kappa$ BNS-deficient cells. Given that $I\kappa$ BNS proteins like $I\kappa B\zeta$ are shown to be recruited to the promoter of the secondary latephase gene in response to LPS and both binds the p50 subunit of NF- κ B^{10,13,17,18)}, $I\kappa$ B ζ and $I\kappa$ BNS might have opposite functions especially in the regulation of LPS-mediated secondary late-phase gene induction (Fig.2). However, the molecular mechanisms of the opposite function in detailed are currently unknown.

In addition, $I \kappa$ BNS-deficient mice were highly susceptible to LPS-induced septic shock and to dextran sodium sulfate-induced colitis, demonstrating the role of $I\kappa$ BNS in limiting TLRmediated immune responses and the maintenance of intestinal homeostasis *in vivo*²⁰⁾. On the other hand, thymocytes from $I\kappa$ BNS-deficient mice produced less IL-2 and exhibited impaired proliferation after TCR stimulation²¹⁾. In addition, *in vitro* studies demonstrated that the positive function of $I\kappa$ BNS was mediated through the κ B site on the IL-2 promoter. This suggests that, whether $I\kappa$ BNS and $I\kappa$ B ζ act positively or negatively for NF- κ Bdependent gene expression might depend on the cell type expressing these genes.

Bcl-3

Bcl-3 was the first identified molecule among the nuclear $I\kappa B$ proteins and was originally cloned as a proto-oncogene for chronic lymphatic leukemia^{22,23)}. Subsequent in vitro studies revealed that Bcl-3 was bound with p50 or p52 and its overexpression resulted in p50 or p52-mediated gene expression or gene suppression in various conditions²⁴⁻²⁷⁾, suggesting that Bcl-3 acts as a activator or an inhibitor of NF-kB-dependent gene expression through association with the p50 or p52 subunit of NF- κ B. Bcl-3-deficient mice were generated and analyzed extensively in terms of adaptive immune responses^{28,29)}. Bcl-3-deficient mice showed impaired formation of germinal centers and disrupted splenic structures along with reduced numbers of splenic follicular B cells and marginal zone macrophages. The phenotypes found in Bcl-3 is similar to those found in NFkB2-deficeint mice in terms of the impaired development of lymphoid organ tissues and Bcl-3 are shown to be bound with p52 subunit of NF- κ B, suggesting that Bcl-3 may function as an activator of $p52/NF\kappa B2$ in vivo (Fig.2). Parasite-induced Th1 immune responses were retarded in Bcl-3-deficient mice in vivo, however, Bcl-3-deficient naïve T cells were able to differentiate normally into Th1 cells in ex vivo culture condition, indicating that Bcl-3-dependent non-T cell factor(s) may regulate parasite-induced Th1 differentiation²⁹⁾. Moreover, Bcl-3-deficient T cells are defective in Th2 differentiation and the production of Th2 cytokines such as IL-4, IL-5 and IL-13, due to a T-cell-intrinsic decrease in GATA-3 transcription factor expression, which is consistent with the finding that Bcl-3 can transactivate the gata-3 promoter, indicating a distinct role for Bcl-3 in the regulation of Th1 and Th2 differentiation³¹⁾.

Bcl-3 was also identified by microarray-based gene expression analysis as a gene induced by stimulation of an anti-inflammatory cytokine IL-10³²⁾, treatment of which has been shown to diminish NF- κ B-DNA binding activity. Ectopic expression of Bcl-3 also impaired NF-kB-DNA binding activity and resulted in reduced production of TNF- α , but not IL-6, in response to LPS in macrophages where LPS stimulation leads to the selective recruitment of Bcl-3 to the promoter of TNF- α , but not IL-6, by currently unknown mechanisms³²⁾. Moreover, Bcl-3deficient macrophages were defective in IL-10-mediated suppression of LPS-induced TNF- α production, demonstrating the physiological function of Bcl-3 in innate immune cell populations³²⁾. In addition, Bcl-3-deficient mice and cells were found to be hypersensitive to TLR activation and unable to control responses to lipopolysaccharides, suggesting that Bcl-3 plays a role in negative regulation of TLR-mediated immune responses. Bcl-3 promoted the ubiquitination of p50 to facilitate the degradation, resulting in limitation of the strength of TLR responses³³⁾.

Conclusions and Perspectives

Given that the three nuclear $I \kappa B$ proteins possess ankyrin repeats to interact with NF-*k*B subunits, structurally they should be classified as 'inhibitors' of NF- κ B. However, distinct from the cytoplasmic IkB family proteins that simply inhibit the translocation of NF- κ B subunits to the nucleus and prevent NF- κ Bdependent gene expression, the nuclear I κ B proteins I κ B ζ , IkBNS, and Bcl-3 act not only as suppressors but also activators of NF-kB-dependent gene expression, In vitro studies demonstrate that these nuclear $I \kappa B$ proteins interact with the p50 or p52 subunits of NF-κB. Considering that only p50/p52 doublydeficient mice, but not singly-deficient mice, exhibit severely defective immune disorders such as osteopetrosis, some immunological phenotypes may be compensated for in mice lacking only one nuclear I κ B protein (Fig.2)³⁴⁾. Further studies using mice devoid of two or all three nuclear $I \kappa B$ proteins may be useful to clarify and discover new and detailed physiological aspects of the nuclear $I\kappa B$ proteins in the future.

In conclusion, nuclear $I \kappa Bs I \kappa Bz$, $I \kappa BNS$, and Bcl-3 play various roles in inflammatory responses through p50 or p52 subunit of NF- κB . The more detailed and precise molecular mechanisms that clarify the role of nuclear $I \kappa B$ proteins should be examined by *in vitro* and *vivo* studies in the future.

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