

# WAPing Out Pathogens and Disease in the Mucosa: Roles for SLPI and Trappin-2

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**Abstract** The interface between the external environment and the body's internal structures is defined by the mucosal tissue and the viscous lining fluid that is responsible for maintaining its integrity and protecting internal structures from damage or infection. Human mucosal fluids include seminal fluid, cervical mucus, bronchial and nasal secretions and tears whose composition is particularly complicated. Here we will focus on just two related molecules that are present in the mucosal lining fluid, namely, secretory leucocyte protease inhibitor (SLPI) and trappin-2/elafin, that are responsible for many of the homeostatic and host defence functions of these uniquely situated viscous sols. This review will focus on our increasing understanding of these two molecules from a simple role as local antibiotics that respond to pathogen invasion to major orchestrators of cellular interplays, host defence mechanisms and immune homeostasis.

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# 1 SLPI

## 1.1 *The Gene and Molecule*

Early understanding of SLPI structure and function was complicated by at least four interrelated factors (Seemuller et al. 1986). Firstly, multiple forms seemed to exist in vivo. Secondly, the mucosal environment where SLPI is present is often full of mucous, leucocytes and degradative enzymes. Thirdly, isolation of molecules from tissues often involved the use of trypsin or non-specific protease digestion steps. Finally, inhibitors of similar activity were isolated from anatomically distinct body compartments. Thus, bronchial mucus inhibitor (BMI), human seminal inhibitor I (HUSI-I), cervical mucus inhibitors (CUSI), antileucoprotease (ALP), secretory leucocyte protease inhibitor (SLPI) and mucus proteinase inhibitor (MPI) proved to be identical or derived from a mature inhibitory protein encoded by a single gene of the human genome (Fritz 1988). Human and mouse SLPI are relatively conserved at both the genomic and protein level. The human gene is composed of ~2.6 kb and is organised into four exons, which transcribes a 399-base-pair message to a 132-amino acid protein (Stetler et al. 1986). Similarly, the mouse gene is composed of four exons, which transcribes a 396-base-pair coding sequence to a 131-amino acid protein (Kikuchi et al. 1998). Human SLPI is located on chromosome 20, and the mouse orthologue is located to the syntenic chromosome 2 H (Kikuchi et al. 1998). In both species the functional domains of the SLPI molecule are distributed across the exons; exon 1 codes for the secretion signal, exon 2 the trypsin inhibition domain, exon 3 the elastase inhibitory domain and exon 4 the 3' untranslated region. Grutter and co-workers eloquently wrote that 'SLPI has a boomerang-like shape with both wings comprising two well separated domains of similar architecture' in their paper outlining the 2.5 Å crystal structure of SLPI binding to bovine  $\alpha$ -chymotrypsin (Grutter et al. 1988). Each domain is, relatively conserved, cysteine rich and has high homology to the whey acidic protein (WAP) genes found in rodent milk (Campbell et al. 1984). However, despite the presence of two separate WAP domains, it is the C-terminal that is responsible for the antielastase, antichymotrypsin and antitrypsin activities and that leucine 72 is a key residue involved in the interaction (Kramps et al. 1990; Eisenberg et al. 1990). In keeping with this, both full length and a truncated C-terminal (1/2 SLPI) SLPI could also inhibit cathepsin G activity (Renesto et al. 1993). However, SLPI and its active site variants do not bind or inactivate proteinase 3(PR-3), but instead get cleaved in the N-terminal domain at alanine-16 (Rao et al. 1993). This is further complicated by the species specific potency of SLPI against these proteases (Wright et al. 1999a).

## 1.2 *Expression and Binding Interactions*

Numerous studies have evaluated the tissue distribution of SLPI in humans using specimens from surgically treated patients or autopsy where normal tissue is selected

from gross appearance and further examination by light microscopy. These studies utilise specific antisera to localise signal in tissue by immunocytochemistry or to detect in biological fluids using ELISA. SLPI is expressed in numerous areas of the respiratory tract including the submucosal glands of the nose and bronchus, non-ciliated cells of the bronchus, terminal and respiratory bronchioles and alveolar duct (Franken et al. 1989; Fryksmark et al. 1982). Willems et al. used two separate antibodies to localise SLPI along the elastic fibres of the alveolar septa and walls of the bronchi, bronchioles, blood vessels and extracellular matrix (Willems et al. 1986; Kramps et al. 1989). Using a gold labelling technique to demonstrate increased resolution in serous cells of the bronchial submucosal glands, SLPI was located in granules, including structures such as the endoplasmic reticulum and nuclear envelope. This study could only detect SLPI in the Clara cells of bronchial epithelium (De Water et al. 1986). SLPI has also been detected in lung secretions including bronchoalveolar lavage (Kouchi et al. 1993; Ohlsson et al. 1992), broncholavage (Kouchi et al. 1993) and sputum sol phases (Piccioni et al. 1992).

SLPI is also expressed in reproductive mucosa where it has been localised to the epithelium of the upper cervix (Schill et al. 1978) and in seminal fluid (Moriyama et al. 1998). More specifically others have demonstrated SLPI expression in the cervical crypts, together with high concentrations in cervical mucus which varied throughout the menstrual cycle with increased concentrations during the ovulatory compared to follicular phases (Casslen et al. 1981; Moriyama et al. 1999). Interestingly during pregnancy SLPI is increased in cervical tissue and is particularly high in the cervical plug which also has a high molar ratio of SLPI to elastase. Denison and co-workers demonstrated dramatic increases in the levels of SLPI (~200-fold) in amniotic fluid over the course of pregnancy and suggested that the major source is the decidua parietalis cells (Denison et al. 1999). These studies together with demonstration of SLPI in foetal membranes suggest a protective role (involving structural integrity and inhibition of proinflammatory responses) for SLPI during the menstrual cycle and pregnancy (Helmig et al. 1995).

Expression of SLPI has been demonstrated in many other mucosal tissues and lining fluids including salivary glands (Ohlsson et al. 1984; Shugars et al. 2001; Cox et al. 2006), middle ear (Carlsson & Ohlsson 1983; Lee et al. 2006), maxillary sinus (Fryksmark et al. 1985), intestine, (Bergensfeldt et al. 1996), colon, (Nystrom et al. 2001), human skin (Wiedow et al. 1993), nasal secretions (Westin et al. 1999a), peritoneal fluid (Shimoya et al. 2000), stomach (Wex et al. 2004), gingival crevicular fluid (Cox et al. 2006; Nakamura-Minami et al. 2003) and cornea (Nielsen et al. 2005).

The binding interactions of SLPI are not limited to forming 1:1 molar complexes with proteases such as elastase, chymotrypsin and trypsin. Indeed, binding activities for SLPI are not just limited to the extracellular milieu but have also been reported at the plasma membrane and within the intracellular space. Extracellular binding interactions include those to the pathogen-associated molecular patterns bacterial lipopolysaccharide (LPS) (Ding et al. 1999), mannan-capped lipoarabinomannans and phosphatidylinositol mannoside (Gomez et al. 2009) together with numerous glycosaminoglycans (Fath et al. 1998; Ying et al. 1997) and classes of immunoglobulin (Hirano et al. 1999). Intracellular binding interactions include binding to DNA

(Miller et al. 1989; Taggart et al. 2002) and to IRAK, I $\kappa$ B $\alpha$  and I $\kappa$ B $\beta$  (Lentsch et al. 1999a). Interactions at the plasma membrane include annexin-II (Ma et al. 2004), scramblase-1 (Tseng & Tseng 2000; Py et al. 2009) and scramblase-4 (Py et al. 2009).

### ***1.3 Antimicrobial Activity***

SLPI has moderate antimicrobial actions against a variety of human bacterial pathogens including *Escherichia coli*, *Staphylococcus aureus*, *S. epidermidis*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and *Mycobacterium bovis* (Wiedow et al. 1998; Hiemstra et al. 1996; Nishimura et al. 2008). SLPI is less potent (on a molar basis) than lysozyme or defensin with 50 % inhibitory concentrations against *E. coli* of 4.7  $\mu$ M, 1.8  $\mu$ M and 1.4  $\mu$ M, respectively, with the antimicrobial domain residing in the N-terminal (Hiemstra et al. 1996). SLPI has also been shown to have antimicrobial activity against metabolically active fungi, in particular *Aspergillus fumigatus* and *Candida albicans*. Interestingly metabolically quiescent *A. fumigatus* conidia were resistant to SLPI in this study. The antifungal activity is reported to be equal to lysozyme and defensins and also appears to reside in the N-terminal portion of the molecule (Wiedow et al. 1998; Tomee et al. 1997).

In contrast to the relatively consistent parallel studies investigating bacterial and fungal activity, the antiviral activity of SLPI has proved much more complicated. McNeely and colleagues identified a protein in saliva that could protect monocytes against HIV infection which following analysis was confirmed to be SLPI (McNeely et al. 1995; Shugars et al. 1997). Since then reports have both supported (McNeely et al. 1997) and refuted (Turpin et al. 1996) this work. Following this, studies focused on two main aspects of this compelling argument: (1) clinical studies attempting to relate SLPI levels to transmission of HIV and viral load and (2) mechanistic studies attempting to explain the precise conditions necessary for activity. Thus, SLPI was increased in saliva and plasma of HIV-infected individuals compared to uninfected controls (Baqui et al. 1999). In a study of pregnant HIV-positive South African women, those who had higher levels of SLPI in vaginal fluid had lower perinatal transmission rates to their babies (Pillay et al. 2001). In a similar but larger study of 602 saliva samples from 188 infants over the first 3 months following birth, increased SLPI was associated with a reduced risk of HIV transmission from breast milk (Farquhar et al. 2002).

### ***1.4 Unique Role in Inflammation: Priming Innate Immunity and Tissue Remodelling***

Cell culture studies have identified a plethora of cytokines, drugs and hormones that modulate the levels of SLPI when introduced to the bathing medium. In human

airway cells, Abbinante-Nissen et al. found that neutrophil elastase (NE) was a potent inducer of SLPI transcript. Furthermore, other neutrophil products, such as cathepsin G, myeloperoxidase and lysozyme, had little or no effect on SLPI transcript levels. In contrast, two non-neutrophil proteases, trypsin and pancreatic elastase, also increased SLPI transcript levels at higher doses than that required of NE. These authors also showed that tumour necrosis factor- $\alpha$  (TNF- $\alpha$ ) and interleukin (IL)-8 induced little or no SLPI transcript levels (Abbinante-Nissen et al. 1993). Using Clara cells and alveolar type II cells and measuring SLPI protein as an end point, we showed both a constitutive and IL-1 $\beta$ - or TNF- $\alpha$ -induced production of SLPI (Sallenave et al. 1994). Interestingly, glucocorticoids can induce SLPI transcript in human airway epithelial cells with a descending potency of fluticasone > triamcinolone > or = dexamethasone > methylprednisolone > hydrocortisone (Abbinante-Nissen et al. 1995). This study also demonstrated that elastase and fluticasone together induce synergistic increases in SLPI. Indeed, the ability of glucocorticoids to induce SLPI may be partly responsible for their anti-inflammatory action. Furthermore, progesterone has been shown to upregulate SLPI mRNA and protein through a mechanism involving its transactivation of the SLPI gene through the progesterone receptor (PR), via induction of basic transcription element-binding protein-1 (BTEB1) gene and co-recruitment of BTEB1 and the PR coactivator cAMP-response element-binding protein (CBP) to the SLPI promoter (Velarde et al. 2006; King et al. 2003).

The late 1990s saw a dramatic change in the way we viewed SLPI. Before then SLPI was considered an antimicrobial molecule with potent antiprotease activity; however, the seminal work of Jin and colleagues in macrophages demonstrating the ability of LPS to induce SLPI and furthermore that SLPI could suppress LPS-induced activation of NF- $\kappa$ B and synthesis of TNF- $\alpha$ /nitric oxide suggested that SLPI had immunomodulatory activity as well (Jin et al. 1997). In a later paper, the same group also demonstrated that LPS-induced SLPI was an early (~30 min) and prolonged response (remaining at 72 h). The LPS inducible proteins IL-10 and IL-6 could also upregulate SLPI but IL-1 $\beta$  and TNF- $\alpha$  could not. Finally, the Gram-positive cell wall constituent LTA could also stimulate SLPI production (Jin et al. 1998). There are multiple mechanisms responsible for these effects including the ability of SLPI to inhibit NF- $\kappa$ B activation by stabilisation of IRAK, I $\kappa$ B $\alpha$  and I $\kappa$ B $\beta$  proteins, despite increasing the amount of phosphorylated and polyubiquitinated I $\kappa$ B $\alpha$  (Taggart et al. 2002; Lentsch et al. 1999a). This is supported by the anti-inflammatory activity of a non-secretable form of SLPI when transfected into macrophages (Zhu et al. 1999). Others have suggested that SLPI can prevent the p65 subunit of NF- $\kappa$ B binding to its consensus sequence in the promoters regions of target genes. It is unclear which domain of the SLPI molecule mediates the anti-inflammatory action as one study suggests that oxidation of SLPI inhibits this action (Taggart et al. 2002), whereas site-directed mutants of the oxidisable methionine residue (Met 73) could still inhibit LPS-induced TNF and nitric oxide responses (Yang et al. 2005). In vivo Mulligan and co-workers have suggested that the leucine 72 residue which is essential in determining antiprotease

function is vital, and their studies implicate the antitrypsin activity in SLPI (through a Lysine 72 mutant) to have a greater suppressive effect on the inflammatory response than wild-type SLPI (Mulligan et al. 2000).

Generation of mice deficient in SLPI at the beginning of the millennium has enhanced our knowledge of the in vivo effects of this molecule. The first of these studies suggested a role for SLPI in linking host defence with wound repair (Ashcroft et al. 2000). SLPI-deficient mice have deficient cutaneous wound healing with increased inflammation and elastase activity with enhanced local production of TGF- $\beta$ . In a similar model, Zhu has suggested an alternative pathway dependent on proepithelin and its cleaved product epithelin which have opposite effects during inflammation (Zhu et al. 2002). Proepithelin blocks TNF- $\alpha$ -induced neutrophil activation and oxidant and protease release, whereas epithelin inhibits the growth of epithelial cells and induces IL-8 production by neutrophils. In this way proepithelin complexed with SLPI cannot be cleaved with elastase to epithelin, and SLPI null mice can be rescued with proepithelin. Angelov and co-workers identified differences in the mechanisms of wound healing in a combined dermal scarring and oral non-scarring model (Angelov et al. 2004). Here an absence of SLPI results in markedly impaired oral wound healing associated with increased inflammation, raised elastase activity and decreased matrix deposition through increased MMP activity suggesting deregulated proteolysis. Intriguingly, TGF- $\beta$  expression is increased in cutaneous model (Zhu et al. 2002), but decreased in the oral model (Angelov et al. 2004) pointing to the ability of SLPI to improve wound healing by very different local mechanisms. The link is particularly pertinent in a cardiac transplant model of ischemia/reperfusion injury where SLPI-deficient hearts had profound abnormalities in early contraction and high protease expression and TGF- $\beta$  expression (Schneeberger et al. 2008). Interestingly, systemic SLPI could not rescue this phenotype, whereas including SLPI in the preservation solution prior to transplantation reversed the phenotype suggesting a dual inhibitory effect on protease and TGF- $\beta$  expression might be the underlying mechanism (Schneeberger et al. 2008).

The identification of these homeostatic functions for SLPI encouraged others to investigate its role during inflammation and infection. In a model of endotoxin shock, SLPI-deficient mice had significantly higher mortality possibly due to increased levels of macrophage IL-6, HMG-1 and NF- $\kappa$ B compared to wild-type cells (Nakamura et al. 2003). Similarly B cells isolated from null mice showed increased proliferation and IgM production suggesting that SLPI acts to attenuate excessive inflammatory responses. However, in a model of infection, SLPI null mice were highly susceptible to *Mycobacterium bovis*, when given by the respiratory route, suggesting a role in driving the local inflammatory response to clear pathogens (Nishimura et al. 2008).

In addition to gene deletion, functional studies have also supplemented recombinant SLPI either through overexpression (e.g. adenoviral) or administration of the purified protein. Thus, adenoviral gene delivery of SLPI can protect against ischemic

brain injury (Wang et al. 2003) and has also been shown to attenuate NF- $\kappa$ B-dependent inflammatory responses to atherogenic stimuli (Henriksen et al. 2004). By transfecting multiple clones of the highly metastatic subline (H-59) to overexpress SLPI, Wang and colleagues showed that these cells' ability to elicit a host proinflammatory response in the liver was markedly decreased, as evidenced by reduced TNF- $\alpha$  production and vascular E-selectin expression, relative to controls (Wang et al. 2006). Consistent with these findings, recombinant SLPI administered systemically could suppress inflammation associated with joint damage (Song et al. 1999) and attenuate hepatic ischemia/reperfusion injury (Lentsch et al. 1999b) in rats and mice, respectively. Furthermore, local delivery of SLPI to ovine lung by aerosol has been shown to prevent allergen-induced pulmonary responses in a model of asthma (Wright et al. 1999b), and topical administration to the eye in guinea pigs suppressed the recruitment of eosinophils and decreased the severity of conjunctivitis (Murata et al. 2003).

It has been unclear for sometime whether SLPI has proinflammatory/immune stimulatory effects that are distinct from its direct antimicrobial activity. In models of resolving inflammation where neutrophil apoptosis has been shown to stimulate macrophage clearance (Savill et al. 1989), SLPI seems to play a proinflammatory role. Firstly, murine macrophages produce SLPI during clearance of apoptotic cells (Odaka et al. 2003), and SLPI (together with lactoferrin) is secreted by activated neutrophils (Jacobsen et al. 2008). Recently a functional study by Subramaniam and colleagues has suggested that SLPI inhibits apoptosis therefore prolonging the life of neutrophils during inflammation (Subramaniam et al. 2011). In support of an immune stimulatory role for SLPI, Gomez and co-workers have shown that SLPI may act as a pattern recognition receptor for mycobacteria which acts to stimulate phagocytosis (Gomez et al. 2009). Thus, it seems that the proinflammatory actions of SLPI are dependent on the type of pathogen and on the progress of the inflammatory response.

### ***1.5 Key Roles in Mucosal Tissue: Ovarian and Gastric Cancer***

An emerging literature identifying a role for SLPI in cancer has developed over the last few years. Initial evidence for this came from mRNA differential display systems identifying changes in a SLPI gene variant in the highly metastatic murine carcinoma cell line IMC-HA1 (Morita et al. 1999). The gene was isolated as SLPI- $\alpha$  and SLPI- $\beta$  and was found to be differentially expressed with SLPI- $\alpha$  expressed ubiquitously in tumours but SLPI- $\beta$  having lower expression in normal tissues and distinct expression in certain tumours (e.g. P388 leukemias). In a separate study, the repression of SLPI was shown to be under the control of the cell growth regulator interferon regulatory factor (IRF)-1 suggesting that it might be a downstream target modulating cell growth properties (Nguyen et al. 1999). Changes in SLPI levels have been associated with cancer. For instance, SLPI is expressed in a number of tumour environments including ovarian endometriomas (Suzumori et al. 2001;



Shigemasa et al. 2001), head and neck squamous cell carcinomas (Westin et al. 1999b), cervical adenocarcinoma (Tian et al. 2004) and gastric cancer (Cheng et al. 2008) but decreased in prostate cancer (Xuan et al. 2008).

A role for SLPI in cancer has been suggested in a variety of studies. Devoogdt et al. have suggested a pro-malignant role as transfection of low malignant lung carcinomas with SLPI produced a highly malignant phenotype both in vitro and in vivo (Devoogdt et al. 2003), and moreover, the protease inhibitory function was essential for that activity. In a later study, the same author has found that overexpression of a protease-dead SLPI resulted in more aggressive ovarian cancers (Devoogdt et al. 2009). This tumour-promoting effect of SLPI is thought to mediate the pro-tumourigenic effects of TNF- $\alpha$  as SLPI expression and tumour size was decreased in TNF- $\alpha$ -deficient mice (Devoogdt et al. 2006). In being a TNF responsive gene, SLPI may even impact on the 'cancer immunoediting hypothesis' which suggests that the local tumour microenvironment might induce cancer cell variants with increased resistance to the immune system (Dunn et al. 2002).

## 2 Trappin-2/Elafin

### 2.1 *The Gene and Molecule*

Trappin-2 protein was purified and characterised from human lung secretions and skin tissues in the 1980s and 1990s under a variety of names, such as elafin, BSI-E, elastase-specific inhibitor (ESI), precursor of elafin-ESI (PELESI) and skin-derived antileucoprotease (SKALP) (Hochstrasser et al. 1981; Kramps & Klasen 1985; Wiedow et al. 1990; Sallenave & Ryle 1991; Sallenave et al. 1992). The trappin-2 gene encodes a secreted 9.9-kDa non-glycosylated 95-residue cationic protein (Saheki et al. 1992; Sallenave & Silva 1993), comprising an N-terminal domain (38 residues) or cementoin domain (Nara et al. 1994) and a C-terminal inhibitory whey acidic protein (WAP)-type domain (57 residues) (Bairoch & Apweiler 1997). The N-terminal domain contains several repeated motifs with the consensus sequence Gly-Gln-Asp-Pro-Val-Lys that can anchor the whole molecule to extracellular matrix proteins by transglutaminase-catalysed cross-links. By doing so, it is believed trappin-2 shields the elastic tissues from locally secreted enzymes (e.g., NE), which overwhelm the tissues at times of inflammation/infection (Nara et al. 1994). The C-terminal domain is structurally similar to the SLPI domains (about 40 % sequence identity with each SLPI domain). Trappin-2 is encoded by the PI3 gene in the same chromosome region 20q12-13 as SLPI gene and is composed of three exons spanning about 2 kb. The first exon codes for the 5' untranslated region, the signal peptide and the first few amino acids of the mature protein; the second exon encodes most of the mature protein, and the third exon encodes the 3' untranslated region (Molhuizen et al. 1993). Trappin-2 is translated with a signal peptide that is cleaved during secretion and proteolytically processed



to form a ~6-kDa peptide referred to as elafin. Although the antiprotease activity of trappin-2 was initially identified in both the intact 9.9-kDa peptide and its cleaved 6-kDa C-terminus product (elafin), trappin-2 has a reduced protective effect in an in vivo model of elastase-induced lung injury when it is cleaved of its cementoin domain (Tremblay et al. 2002).

## 2.2 *Expression and Binding Interactions*

Trappin-2 or its orthologues are also found in other mammals and is expressed both in foetal and adult tissues (Pfundt et al. 1996). Interestingly, the expression trappin-2/elafin has not been demonstrated in rat or mouse tissues (Williams et al. 2006). Trappin-2 inhibits NE, porcine pancreatic elastase and PR-3 with a low degree of reversibility but does not inhibit cathepsin G, trypsin or chymotrypsin and, hence, has a more restricted spectrum of inhibition than SLPI (Williams et al. 2006). The regulation of trappin-2 expression by healthy and inflamed tissues has attracted much attention. Unlike SLPI, low levels of trappin-2 is secreted by bronchial and alveolar epithelial cells as well as keratinocytes in steady state, but its production is significantly increased under the influence of LPS as well as inflammatory cytokines IL-1 and TNF- $\alpha$  (Sallenave et al. 1994). A few signalling pathways, namely, c-jun, p38 mitogen-activated protein (MAP) kinase and NF- $\kappa$ B pathways, are implicated in the trappin-2 response to inflammatory molecules (Pfundt et al. 2000, 2001; Bingle et al. 2001). Likewise, trappin-2/elafin mRNA expression is increased by free NE in bronchial epithelial cells, which is found at high concentrations ( $\mu$ M levels) at inflammatory sites (Reid et al. 1999; van Wetering et al. 2000). In recent years, trappin-2 has increasingly been shown to display functions beyond its protease inhibition [reviewed in (Williams et al. 2006; Roghanian & Sallenave 2008; Sallenave 2010)] such as antimicrobial and immunomodulatory activities, as will be discussed below.

## 2.3 *Antimicrobial Activity*

Our group first ascribed antimicrobial activity to trappin-2 in the late 1990s. Importantly, we demonstrated that trappin-2 was active against two major respiratory pathogens, the Gram-negative *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and Gram-positive *Staphylococcus aureus* both in vitro and in vivo (Simpson et al. 1999; McMichael et al. 2005a). To this end, overexpression of trappin-2 by adenovirus-mediated gene transfer dramatically increased the local antibacterial defences against *P. aeruginosa* and *S. aureus* infections (Simpson et al. 1999; McMichael et al. 2005a). On the other hand, supernatants of *P. aeruginosa* could induce trappin-2 production in human keratinocytes, and trappin-2 inhibits growth of *P. aeruginosa* in vitro, but not *E. coli* (Meyer-Hoffert et al. 2003; Bellemare et al. 2008). *P. aeruginosa* is an opportunistic pathogen and commonly resistant to conventional antibiotics that is life-threatening

for immunocompromised individuals and for patients suffering from chronic respiratory diseases such as cystic fibrosis (CF). *P. aeruginosa* is also the predominant bacteria associated with nosocomial infections, and acute *P. aeruginosa* infection may result in sepsis and death (Hancock 1998; Erwin & VanDevanter 2002). Similarly, *Staphylococcus aureus* infections are closely associated with pneumonia and sepsis, particularly in nosocomial infections, and its increasing association with antimicrobial resistance has become a major concern for clinicians (Butterly et al. 2010). In addition to the above-mentioned pathogens, trappin-2 has significant bactericidal activity against *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, *Haemophilus influenzae*, *Streptococcus pneumoniae* and *Branhamella catarrhalis* which are also common features of inflammatory lung disorders such as CF and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) (Baranger et al. 2008). Furthermore, trappin-2 and its cleaved product elafin possess potent fungicidal activities against pathogenic *Aspergillus fumigatus* and *Candida albicans*, which have preferential tropism for human lungs and other mucosae (Baranger et al. 2008).

Trappin-2/elafin has also been shown to possess anti-human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) activity, although the mechanism(s) of this inhibition is currently unknown. Both trappin-2 and SLPI have been detected in cervicovaginal lavage samples of HIV-negative and HIV-positive women (Moreau et al. 2008; Ghosh et al. 2010a). Reportedly, the 6-kDa elafin was amongst factors that correlated with protective immunity to HIV infection in the genital tract secretions of a group of African women who remain virus-free despite multiple high-risk exposures to HIV infection (Iqbal et al. 2009). Recombinant trappin-2/elafin is able to inhibit both T cell-tropic X4/IIIB and macrophage-tropic R5/BaL HIV-1 in a dose-dependent manner (Ghosh et al. 2010b). This inhibitory activity was observed when virus was incubated with trappin-2/elafin but not when trappin-2/elafin was added to cells either before infection or after infection. This indicates that the inhibitory activity of trappin-2/elafin occurs through a direct interaction with the virus rather than at the level of the target cell surface, for example, through the blocking of receptors.

Collectively, these findings propose that trappin-2/elafin may play an important protective role in vivo against the transmission of HIV from men to women. In the latest attempt to develop preventive anti-HIV therapeutics, engineered commensal bacteria secreting elafin have been utilised that appear to confer protection against HIV infection in vitro (Fahey et al. 2011). These innovative yet unproven approaches are designed to regulate immunity in the female reproductive tract in ways that will potentially reduce HIV infection in women.

## ***2.4 Unique Roles in Inflammation: Linking Innate and Adaptive Immunity***

The initial interaction between antimicrobial peptides and pathogens is due to electrostatic forces, since the host defence peptide is positively charged and

molecules such as LPS and lipoteichoic acid are negatively charged. Indeed, trappin-2 and its C- and N-terminus peptides are capable of binding both smooth and rough forms of LPS at the lipid A portion of the molecule, with N-terminus binding both forms of LPS more avidly, thus modulating immune responses (McMichael et al. 2005b). Moreover, binding of trappin-2 and cementoin (trappin-2N-terminal domain) to *P. aeruginosa* elicits morphological changes such as wrinkling and blister formation on the cell surface and the presence of pore-like structures (Baranger et al. 2008; Bellemare et al. 2010; Wilkinson et al. 2009). It is commonly assumed that the presence of pore-like structures is indicative of cell lysis. However, several lines of evidence suggest that the membrane disruption properties of cementoin, trappin-2 and elafin are considerably weaker compared to other antimicrobial peptides, such as the amphibian lytic magainin 2 (Bellemare et al. 2010). Moreover, recent evidence indicates that trappin-2 and elafin, but not cementoin, are capable of reducing biofilm development and the secretion of pyoverdine, which correlates with the ability of these peptides to bind DNA in vitro and to accumulate within the bacterial cytosol (Bellemare et al. 2010; Li et al. 2010a). Thus, in addition to bacterial opsonisation and induction of cell lysis, trappin-2 and elafin attenuate the expression of some *P. aeruginosa* virulence factors, possibly through acting on intracellular pathways (Bellemare et al. 2010). Interestingly, it has been suggested that trappin-2 WAP domain also specifically inhibits a *P. aeruginosa*-secreted peptidase with the characteristics of arginyl peptidase (protease IV) and prevents bacterial growth in vitro (Bellemare et al. 2008).

In an effort to further address the mechanisms by which trappin-2 exerts its antimicrobial/immunomodulatory effects in the host, in vitro and in vivo models of the very earliest interactions between *P. aeruginosa* and macrophages were developed by us to mimic the presumed environment encountered in the initial stages of lung infection (Wilkinson et al. 2009). Consequently, subantimicrobial concentrations (nanomolar range) of trappin-2 enhanced clearance of *P. aeruginosa* (strain PA01) by macrophages, which was dependent on prior opsonisation of the bacteria by trappin-2 in vitro. Similarly, wild-type mice receiving an intratracheal dose of trappin-2-opsonised *P. aeruginosa* had significantly decreased bacterial burden compared with mice receiving nonopsonised *P. aeruginosa*. In striking contrast, CD14-deficient mice were resistant to the *P. aeruginosa*-opsonising effects of trappin-2 and were unable to clear the bacteria as effectively (Wilkinson et al. 2009). Hence, CD14, a promiscuous pattern recognition receptor, is the only described receptor involved in mediating the effect of trappin-2 to date. CD14 has a broad ligand specificity allowing it to bind Gram-positive, Gram-negative and viral pathogens (Anas et al. 2010). CD14 can also participate in non-inflammatory or anti-inflammatory responses by acting as a macrophage receptor for engulfment of apoptotic cells (Anas et al. 2010). Furthermore, trappin-2-opsonised *P. aeruginosa* simultaneously promoted a CD14-dependant fivefold increase in CXCL1 compared with nonopsonised bacteria, which led to a rapid recruitment of neutrophils soon after, as previously observed in other experimental models (Simpson et al. 1999; Sallenave et al. 2003; Roghanian et al. 2006). Both CXCL1 and CXCL2 act through the chemokine receptor CXCR2, which has been shown to be essential for host

protection against *P. aeruginosa* pneumonia (Tsai et al. 2000). Thus, in the early stages of infection, trappin-2 simultaneously delivers pathogens to resident alveolar macrophages, while contributing to activation of the neutrophil/CXCR2 axis should the bacterial inoculum appear sufficient to drive significant infection. These recent findings further strengthen the notion that trappin-2 is able to augment clearance of pathogens at early onset of infection, even before recruitment of neutrophils and other effector cells to the inflammatory site.

It is noteworthy to point out that *P. aeruginosa* PAO1-conditioned medium and two purified *Pseudomonas* metalloproteases, pseudolysin (elastase) and aeruginolysin (alkaline protease), are able to cleave recombinant elafin leading to loss of its antiprotease activity and binding to fibronectin following transglutaminase activity, respectively (Ghosh et al. 2010b). Moreover, elafin is cleaved by its cognate enzyme NE, present at excessive concentration at inflammatory milieu, and that *P. aeruginosa* infection promotes this effect (Guyot et al. 2008). Consequently, such cleavages may have repercussions on the innate immune function of elafin.

When secreted locally at mucosal sites, trappin-2 promotes recruitment or priming of innate immunity. Expression of the human trappin-2 gene in the murine lungs results in an increased influx of inflammatory cells in response to infection/inflammation (Wilkinson et al. 2009; Sallenave et al. 2003; Roghanian et al. 2006; Simpson et al. 2001), and the interaction of trappin-2 with LPS results in an augmentation of the LPS-induced TNF- $\alpha$  response in a murine macrophage cell line (McMichael et al. 2005b). Interestingly, transgenic mice expressing human trappin-2 show lower serum-to-bronchoalveolar lavage ratios of proinflammatory cytokines, including TNF- $\alpha$ , macrophage inflammatory protein 2 and monocyte chemoattractant protein 1, than wild-type mice in response to local intratracheal LPS stimulation with a concomitant increase in inflammatory cell influx (Sallenave et al. 2003). Conversely, trappin-2 transgenic mice show lower TNF- $\alpha$  serum levels in response to systemic LPS, indicating that trappin-2 may have a dual function, that is, promoting upregulation of local lung innate immunity while simultaneously downregulating potentially unwanted systemic inflammatory responses in the circulation (e.g. preventing septic shock) (Sallenave et al. 2003).

As discussed above, trappin-2 was first identified as being able to protect tissues from the damaging effects of proteases released during inflammation and was later shown to be functionally active in the regulation of both inflammation and innate immunity (Williams et al. 2006). However, emerging data expand upon the previously described functions for trappin-2/elafin, by showing that the influence of trappin-2 actually extends to include modulation of adaptive immune responses. To this end, using the dual system of trappin-2 expression (either provided as an adenoviral construct or in an elafin-transgenic model), our laboratory provided novel evidence that trappin-2 induces a type 1-biased inflammatory and immunological response (cellular and humoral) in the lungs and spleens of mice overexpressing elafin (Roghanian et al. 2006). The demonstrated Th1 skewing effect of trappin-2 is likely to be mediated through the increase in numbers and/or activation status of lung antigen-presenting cells, as elafin overexpressers exhibited higher numbers of total lung CD11c<sup>+high</sup> cells and CD11c<sup>+high</sup> MHCII<sup>+high</sup> cells (dendritic cells; DCs), expressing

higher levels of the B7 family costimulatory molecules CD80 and CD86 (indicative of activated DCs). In accordance with the increase in the number of activated DCs, increased levels of proinflammatory cytokines IL-12, TNF- $\alpha$  and IFN- $\gamma$  were observed in BALF of trappin-2 overexpressers (Roghianian et al. 2006). Clinical evidence to support a role for trappin-2 in the augmentation of a Th1 phenotype is also available, for example, increased levels of trappin-2 are found in pathological conditions associated with a type I immune response, such as in the bronchoalveolar lavage of farmer's lung sufferers (Tremblay et al. 1996) and psoriatic skin (Schalkwijk et al. 1993).

More recently, human  $\gamma\delta$  T cells have been shown to produce trappin-2/elafin (both mRNA and protein) upon stimulation with supernatant of *P. aeruginosa* grown in culture. Between 2 and 5 % of CD3<sup>+</sup> T cells in the peripheral blood express the  $\gamma\delta$  T cell receptor (TCR) instead of the conventional  $\alpha\beta$  TCR. In contrast to the peripheral blood,  $\gamma\delta$  T cells represent a major T cell population in other anatomical localisations such as the small intestine where 20–30 % of local T cells are  $\gamma\delta$  T cells (Kabelitz et al. 2000; Hayday 2000).  $\gamma\delta$  T cells have the capacity to act as antigen-presenting cells (Brandes et al. 2005) and to secrete antimicrobial effector molecules such as granulysin (Dieli et al. 2001) and the cationic antimicrobial peptide LL37/cathelicidin, which is typically produced by epithelial cells (Agerberth et al. 2000; Selsted and Ouellette 2005). Due to certain features, which  $\gamma\delta$  T cells share with cells of both the adaptive (e.g. TCR expression) and the innate immune system (e.g. Toll-like receptor expression, antigen-presenting capacity),  $\gamma\delta$  T cells are thought to bridge innate and adaptive immunity (Hayday 2000). The secretion of elafin by  $\gamma\delta$  T cells might contribute to the recruitment of neutrophils or the opsonisation of the pathogens in sites of inflammation where access is restricted.

## 2.5 Key Roles in Mucosal Tissue

### 2.5.1 Reproductive Tract

In addition to the lung mucosa and skin, trappin-2 expression and regulation has received much interest in the female genital tracts, as it represents a major mucosal site. The mucosal immune system in the female reproductive tract has evolved to meet the unique requirements arising from the need to deal with sexually transmitted bacterial and viral pathogens, allogeneic spermatozoa and the immunologically distinct foetus. In this regard, a wide range of antimicrobial peptides including trappin-2 are expressed throughout the female genital tract [(Nishimura et al. 2008; Tomee et al. 1997), reviewed in (Horne et al. 2008)]. Trappin-2 and SLPI are expressed in the vagina (Draper et al. 2000) and cervix, with high concentrations of SLPI demonstrated in the cervical mucus (12, 57). SLPI is expressed in endometrium from the mid-late secretory phase of the menstrual cycle when it is localised predominantly to the glandular epithelium (King et al. 2000). In contrast,

trappin-2 is expressed primarily in endometrial neutrophils during menstruation (Turpin et al. 1996). Trappin-2 and SLPI are also detectable in the vaginal secretions throughout pregnancy (Shugars et al. 1997). Trappin-2 levels are diminished in bacterial vaginosis, suggesting that it may be an important component of innate immunity in the lower genital tract (Stock et al. 2009). In the Fallopian tube, trappin-2 and SLPI mRNA are upregulated in ectopic pregnancy. In contrast to endometrium, trappin-2 and SLPI are not regulated in a cycle-dependent manner at the mRNA level in the Fallopian tube. The pathology underlying ectopic pregnancy is unclear although previous infection with *Chlamydia trachomatis* is a risk factor. In line with this, the mRNA message for trappin-2 is increased during in vitro chlamydial infection of an oviductal cell line (King et al. 2009).

Natural antimicrobial production is also an important part of the innate immune response of the amnion. Indeed, the primary amnion epithelial cells produce potent natural antimicrobials, including trappin-2 and SLPI, which may help protect the pregnancy from infection (Stock et al. 2007). Taken together, these observations suggest that trappin-2 and SLPI play important roles in the maintenance of the female reproductive tract physiology via regulation of protease activity, wound healing and tissue remodelling. Trappin-2 and SLPI may also be implicated in the event of pathological conditions, such as infection and ectopic implantation (King et al. 2009), and abnormal expression of these peptides may predispose to infection or ectopic pregnancy.

## 2.5.2 Gastrointestinal Tract

Recent limited studies also point out to the important roles played by antimicrobial peptides, including trappin2/elafin and SLPI, in the gastrointestinal tract and associated pathologies. In a rhesus macaque host–pathogen model, microarray analysis revealed that in *Helicobacter pylori*-infected animals, several innate antimicrobial effector proteins, including elafin and siderocalin, and several novel paralogues of human  $\beta$ -defensin-2 were upregulated, which depended on the presence of the *cag* pathogenicity island (Baqui et al. 1999). In another study, investigating the presence of antimicrobial peptides in biopsies from the healthy oesophagus, stomach and the duodenum, trappin-2 was found to be predominantly expressed in the oesophagus (Hosaka et al. 2008).

Antimicrobial peptide imbalance appears to contribute to aetiology and pathogenesis of inflammatory bowel disease (IBD) (Pillay et al. 2001; Farquhar et al. 2002; Abbinante-Nissen et al. 1993). Interestingly, in biopsies taken from patients with Crohn's disease, the expression of trappin-2 and SLPI was shown to be attenuated upon inflammation, thereby suggesting a disruption of the protease/antiprotease balance in chronic inflammatory status of the gut (Schmid et al. 2007). By taking advantage of the adenoviral construct and two trappin-2 transgenic murine models, we established that restoring this proteolytic imbalance by the expression of the trappin-2 is associated with a strong protective effect against the development of colitis in experimental models (Motta et al. 2011). This

protection appears to be both due to reduced NE/PR-3 and trypsin-like activities and also due to the inhibition of NF- $\kappa$ B proinflammatory pathway by trappin-2, as observed in other models (Velarde et al. 2006; King et al. 2003). Collectively, these results not only provide definitive insights into the importance of the proteolytic balance in gut inflammation but also point to trappin-2 as a possible protective molecule in chronic inflammatory disorders of the gut (Motta et al. 2011).

### 3 WAP as Therapeutics, Drug Targets or Biomarkers

In vitro and in vivo experimental modelling has identified the activities of SLPI and trappin-2/elafin, but transforming these results into medicines is only just becoming a reality.

Numerous studies in the 1990s reported the effects of giving recombinant SLPI to humans (McElvaney et al. 1993; Bergenfeldt et al. 1990; Stolk et al. 1995; McElvaney et al. 1992) with a view to treating lung disease. These studies confirmed elimination half-lives of 10 min (Bergenfeldt et al. 1990) and 0.2–2.8 h (Stolk et al. 1995) for intravenous administration and inhalation, respectively. Inhaled therapy appears to be the way forward due to increased lung targeting and decreased systemic effects although repeated dosing was necessary to maintain therapeutic levels in CF patients (McElvaney et al. 1993). Analysis of epithelial lining fluid from patients with emphysema has suggested this may be due to SLPI cleavage by cathepsins (Taggart et al. 2001). To improve delivery to the diseased lung, Gibbons and co-workers have developed a dry powder formulation of liposome-encapsulated recombinant SLPI that proved better at retaining a protective function against cathepsin L-induced rSLPI inactivation compared to an aqueous DOPS–rSLPI liposome dispersion and was also more stable under storage (Gibbons et al. 2010).

Improvements have also been made with regard to the production of recombinant protein. Expression of SLPI in bacteria required extensive denaturation and renaturation to refold the disulphide-rich protein into its biologically active form (Lucey et al. 1990). Recently two alternative methods of production have been developed using baculovirus expression (Gray et al. 2002) and the yeast *Pichia pastoris* (Li et al. 2009, 2010b) with purification under non-denaturing conditions. These advances have suggested that SLPI can be produced in an efficient and cost-effective manner for therapeutic purposes. These methods have resulted in a greater yield of protein with improved biological activity. Interestingly Zani and co-workers have produced fusion proteins to create antiproteases with activities overlapping with SLPI and elafin so that elastase, cathepsin G and PR-3 could be inhibited by one molecule (Zani et al. 2009). Such manipulation of these molecules will hopefully result in designer therapeutics directed at lung diseases (e.g. COPD) where protease/antiprotease balance is destructive to the host.

Further advances moving SLPI therapeutics one step closer to reality have been reported recently: firstly, the development of four hybridomas that produce anti-



human SLPI monoclonal antibodies (Chen et al. 2006); secondly, the specificity of serum SLPI levels to differentiate between benign ovarian cysts and malignancies (Tsukishiro et al. 2005); thirdly, the development of cleaved SLPI (cSLPI) as a biomarker of chymase activity in allergic disease (Belkowski et al. 2008); and, finally, the exciting potential of the SLPI promoter as a tissue-specific promoter in the development of ovarian cancer gene therapy (Barker et al. 2003).

## 4 Concluding Remarks

Recent publications on the WAP SLPI and trappin-2/elafin have dramatically changed our current view of these molecules. They are no longer 'just' antiproteases expressed in lining fluid but major modulators of immunity. Moreover, their actions seem temporally regulated to be expressed during stages of the immune response. They have roles in innate immune priming, which links to the adaptive immune system and also to immune homeostasis and tissue remodelling, suggesting that their plethora of activities are essential throughout the inflammatory response. Understanding how they can produce such varying activities over the course of the inflammatory response is not so well understood and will form the basis for the next generation of literature on these quite extraordinary pleiotropic molecules.

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