

New insights into the mechanisms controlling neutrophil survival

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Purpose of review

Neutrophil survival is regulated by a complex convergence of different pathways. The present review analyzes these pathways and discusses how neutrophil survival is modulated during the course of inflammatory reactions.

Recent findings

Although apoptosis appears to be the predominant cell death pathway in the neutrophil, recent data reveal that neutrophil survival is also regulated by a number of nonconventional pathways including NETosis, autophagic cell death, and other less characterized mechanisms. This supports an even more complex picture of the mechanisms involved in the regulation of neutrophil survival than previously thought.

Summary

The control of neutrophil survival is central to homeostasis and resolution of inflammation. Cell death is usually discussed dichotomously in terms of apoptosis or necrosis. There are two main pathways responsible for the stimulation of apoptosis; a death receptor pathway triggered by Fas, tumor necrosis factor α , and tumor necrosis factor-related apoptosis-inducing ligand (TRAIL) and a mitochondrial pathway stimulated by a number of stressors such as DNA damage, growth factor deprivation, and chemotherapy drugs. Nonconventional pathways of neutrophil death include NETosis and autophagic cell death as well as a number of poorly characterized mechanisms. Understanding the integrated pathways responsible for the control of neutrophil survival holds therapeutic promise in infectious and inflammatory diseases.

Keywords

apoptosis, caspases, extracellular traps, NETosis, neutrophils, oxygen-reactive species

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Introduction

Neutrophils play a critical role in the early stages of the inflammatory response to bacteria and fungi infection by ingesting and killing invading pathogens through the action of proteolytic enzymes, antimicrobial proteins, and reactive oxygen species [1]. This role is illustrated by the increased susceptibility to infection and sepsis of individuals with congenital or acquired neutropenia or defects of neutrophil functions [2]. Neutrophils are also involved in wound healing and in fine-tuning immune response by virtue of their ability to produce a number of cytokines and chemokines such as tumor necrosis factor α (TNF α), interleukin-1, interleukin-12, transforming growth factor β (TGF- β), interleukin-8, growth related oncogene α (GRO- α), macrophage inflammatory protein 1 α/β (MIP-1 α/β), MIP-3 α/β , and interferon- γ inducible protein 10 [3 \bullet]. Neutrophils are short-lived cells (12–72 h). As a first-line of defense against host insult, they are rapidly and massively recruited from the circulation into inflammatory sites, where their survival is regulated by a complex array of factors and mechanisms. The present review addresses recent finding related to

the pathways responsible for the control of neutrophil survival.

Apoptosis

The present paradigm supports that apoptosis is the predominant cell death pathway in the neutrophil. The term apoptosis, proposed by Kerr in 1972, describe a morphological pattern of cell death characterized by cell shrinkage, nuclear chromatin condensation, DNA fragmentation into nucleosome-length fragments followed by chromatin condensation, and exposure of phosphatidylserine on the outer leaflet of the plasma membrane [4 $\bullet\bullet$]. All of these changes are related to the activation of caspases (cysteiny aspartate proteases), an evolutionarily conserved family of proteins that irreversibly commit a cell to die [5 \bullet]. Thirteen caspases have been identified in the humans and seven of them are involved in apoptosis. According to their role in apoptosis, these caspases are classified as initiators (caspase-2, 8, 9, and 10) and effectors (caspase-3, 6, and 7), which kill cells by cleaving a number of cellular components. A phylogenetically distinct class of caspases (caspase-1, 4, 5, 11, and 12) mediate the proteolytic

processing of the precursors of the inflammatory cytokines interleukin-1 and interleukin-18 thus resulting in the induction of inflammatory responses [5[•],6].

The activity of caspases is under the control of a family of proteins namely inhibitors of apoptosis proteins (IAPs), including cellular IAP 1 (c-IAP-1), c-IAP-2, X-linked IAP (XIAP), IAP-like protein 2 (ILP-2), neuronal apoptosis inhibitor protein (NAIP), melanoma inhibitor of apoptosis protein (ML-IAP), apollon and survivin, which bind and inhibit caspases 3, 9, and 7 [7]. Human neutrophils express c-IAP-1, c-IAP-2, and XIAP. The expression of cIAP-2 is low in aging neutrophils but increases by granulocyte colony-stimulating factor (G-CSF)-treatment, either *in vitro* or *in vivo* [8]. Neutrophils from septic patients express high levels of XIAP that may explain, at least partially, their delayed apoptotic rate [9]. Altnauer *et al.* [10] showed that only immature neutrophils express high levels of survivin. Interestingly, mature neutrophils re-express survivin after stimulation by G-CSF or granulocyte macrophage-colony stimulating factor (GM-CSF) and during the course of inflammatory diseases such as acute appendicitis, ulcerative colitis, and cystic fibrosis. Moreover, antisense specific inhibition of survivin expression in mature neutrophils impairs the antiapoptotic effects mediated by G-CSF and GM-CSF, supporting that the pro-survival action of both cytokines depends not only on their ability to increase the ratio between antiapoptotic and proapoptotic members of the B-cell lymphoma (Bcl-2) family of proteins.

There are two main pathways leading to caspase activation and induction of apoptosis: a death receptor or extrinsic pathway and a mitochondrial or intrinsic pathway. Both pathways involve the sequential activation of caspases in two distinct but converging pathways.

Regulation of neutrophil apoptosis via death receptors: the extrinsic apoptosis pathway

Death receptors include Fas, TNF receptor-1 (TNFR1), and TNF-related apoptosis-inducing ligand (TRAIL) receptors that transmit apoptotic signals after stimulation by specific ligands: Fas ligand (FasL), TNF α , and TRAIL, respectively. Stimulation of death receptors leads to the activation of the initiator caspase-8 that activates effector caspases leading to apoptotic cell death [11]. The role of death receptor in the control of neutrophil survival has been a matter of controversy. Because cross-linking of Fas receptors by agonistic antibodies directed to Fas results in a dramatic acceleration of apoptosis it has been suggested that the Fas/FasL system plays a major role in the regulation of spontaneous apoptosis of neutrophils [12]. However, blocking antibodies directed to Fas or agents able to block FasL are unable to increase neutrophil survival. Consistent with

this observation, neutrophils from Fas (*lpr*) or FasL (*gld*) deficient mice display a normal rate of apoptosis supporting that apoptosis of resting neutrophils is not under the regulation of the Fas/FasL system [13]. Interestingly, Jonsson *et al.* [14] found that the ongoing inflammatory processes observed in immune complex-mediated inflammatory arthritis and thioglycollate-induced peritonitis require the forkhead transcription factor forkhead box O3 (Foxo3a), which acts by suppressing the expression of FasL thus promoting neutrophil viability at the inflammatory sites. This suggests that the Fas/FasL system controls survival of inflammatory neutrophils. Moreover, it has been recently reported that the Fas/FasL pathway is associated with the acceleration of neutrophil apoptosis in children with idiopathic neutropenia [15[•]].

The interaction of TNF α with TNFR1 may result in either the activation of nuclear factor (NF)- κ B, promoting neutrophil survival, or the stimulation of apoptosis via recruitment of TNFR1-associated death domain protein (TRADD) and caspase-8. Shedding light on these contrasting effects, Micheau and Tschopp [16] have shown that activation of TNFR1 leads to the assembly of a membrane-bound complex, complex I, which involves TNFR1, TRADD, receptor interacting protein (RIP), and TNF receptor-associated factors (TRAFs). This complex is able to trigger NF- κ B activation promoting neutrophil survival. In a second step, TRADD dissociates from TNFR1 and associates with Fas-associated protein with death domain (FADD) and caspase-8, leading to the assembly of a cytoplasmic complex, complex II, which induces the activation of caspases and cell death. Of note, the ability of TNFR1 to promote cell survival or cell death depending on the regulated assembly of complex I and complex II might explain contrasting results reported on the action of TNF α on neutrophil apoptosis. As expected, TNF α might also affect the fate of neutrophils at inflammatory sites by additional mechanisms. For example, TNFR1 has been shown to disrupt antiapoptosis pathways induced by survival factors in neutrophils [17], whereas it strongly impairs the depuration of apoptotic neutrophils by macrophages thus promoting inflammatory reactions [18[•]].

Unlike other cytokines of the TNF family, TRAIL is able to interact with a complex system of receptors that include two proapoptotic death receptors, TRAIL-R1 and TRAIL-R2, and three decoy receptors devoid of functional death domains [19[•]]. Under appropriate stimulatory conditions (treatment with interferon- α or interferon- γ) neutrophils produce high levels of TRAIL [20]. Interestingly, TRAIL does not appear to be involved in the control of apoptosis of freshly isolated neutrophils, but promotes the apoptosis and clearance of senescent neutrophils by a mechanism dependent on the interaction of stromal cell-derived factor 1 (SDF-1) with chemokine (C-X-C motif) receptor 4 (CXCR4), which induces both the production

of TRAIL and the expression of TRAIL death receptors [21].

Regulation of apoptosis via the mitochondria: the intrinsic apoptosis pathway

The mitochondrial pathway of apoptosis occurs via the activation of caspase-9 as an initiator caspase and involves the Bcl-2 family members. This pathway is triggered by a variety of stressors such as DNA damage, growth factor deprivation, cytoskeleton damage, endoplasmic reticulum stress, detachment from the cell matrix (anoikis), inhibition of macromolecular synthesis, chemotherapy drugs, and γ -irradiation. These stimuli lead to the permeabilization of the mitochondrial outer membrane and the release of cytochrome c and other proapoptotic proteins such as second mitochondria-derived activator of caspase/direct IAP-binding protein with low isoelectric point (pI) (Smac/DIABLO), apoptosis-inducing factor (AIF), and Omi/high temperature requirement protein A2 (Omi/HtrA2) to the cytosol. Cytochrome c then interacts with the tryptophan-aspartate (WD) repeat domain of apoptotic protease activating factor 1 (APAF-1), leading to the oligomerization of Apaf-1 and the formation of the apoptosome, which recruits caspase-9 and activates effector caspases 3, 6, and 7 [22]. The Bcl-2 family proteins act as prominent gatekeepers controlling the release of cytochrome c and other proapoptotic proteins from the mitochondria to the cytosol. Three subfamilies of Bcl-2 proteins have been characterized on the basis of function and sequence similarity. The antiapoptosis subfamily comprises Bcl-2 itself, Bcl-x_L, Bcl-w, myeloid cell leukemia sequence (Mcl-1), A1, and Bcl-B. The proapoptosis proteins include two subfamilies, the multidomain subfamily represented by Bax and Bak, and the 'BH3-only' subfamily represented by Bim, Bad, Bid, Bik, Bmf, Puma, Noxa, and Hrk [23].

Neutrophils contain relatively few mitochondria, however they form a highly developed network [24]. The role of mitochondria in neutrophil physiology has been clarified in the last years. Mitochondria hardly contribute to the energy status of neutrophils, which is mainly dependent on a high rate of glycolysis [25]. However, even though neutrophil mitochondria contain low levels of cytochrome c, they appear to play a critical role in the control of neutrophil survival. It has been proposed that the intrinsic pathway of neutrophil apoptosis has a lowered threshold requirement for cytochrome c which is compensated by an increased expression of Apaf-1 and other proapoptotic proteins such as Smac/DIABLO and HtrA2/Omi, that can be rapidly and massively released from the mitochondria into the cytosol after appropriate stimulation [26,27].

The balance between the expression of the proapoptotic and antiapoptotic members of the Bcl-2 family of proteins is thought to determine the lifespan of neutrophils. A prominent feature of neutrophils is their very short half-life and, consistent with this property, proapoptotic proteins of the Bcl-2 family such as Bax, Bak, Bad, Bid, and Bik are constitutively expressed in the neutrophil [27]. Neutrophils also express the antiapoptotic proteins Mcl-1 and A1/Bfl-1. Although there are some contradictory reports regarding the expression of Bcl-X_L at the protein level, Bcl-2 has not been detected in resting neutrophils [27,28*]. The evidence summarized in Table 1 [29–40] strongly suggests that the mitochondrial pathway of apoptosis plays a critical role in the spontaneous apoptosis of neutrophils and also modulate the survival of activated cells.

NETosis

NETosis is a novel neutrophil death pathway triggered upon neutrophil activation that leads to the release of neutrophil extracellular traps (NETs) that are able to kill

Table 1 Role of the intrinsic pathway in the control of neutrophil survival

Experimental model	Observation	Reference
Bak ^{-/-} Bax ^{-/-} DKO mice	Neutrophilia	[29]
Bax deficient neutrophils	Delayed spontaneous apoptosis	[30]
Neutrophils + GM-CSF	Low Bax levels and delayed apoptosis	[31]
Neutrophils + TNF α or <i>Mycobacterium tuberculosis</i>	Increased Bax/Bcl-XL ratio and accelerated apoptosis	[32]
Neutrophils + antiapoptotic stimuli (GM-CSF, IL-8, LPS)	Blockade of proapoptotic activity of Bad by Ser-phosphorylation	[33]
Neutrophils + pro-apoptotic stimuli (Nicotinic acid)	Dephosphorylation of Bad	[34]
Bim-deficient neutrophils	Delayed apoptosis in response to cytokine withdrawal and cytotoxic drugs	[35]
Neutrophils + calcium pyrophosphate crystals	Low Bim levels and delayed apoptosis	[36]
A1-deficient neutrophils	Accelerated spontaneous apoptosis	[37]
Neutrophils + LPS or GM-CSF	Increased levels of A1 and delayed apoptosis	[38]
Mcl-1-deficient neutrophils	Accelerated spontaneous apoptosis	[39]
Mcl-1 ^{-/-} mice	Marked reduction in the number of neutrophils in the blood, spleen, and peritoneal exudates	[40]

Bcl-XL, B-cell lymphoma X_L; GM-CSF, granulocyte macrophage-colony stimulating factor; IL, interleukin; LPS, lipopolysaccharide; Mcl-1, myeloid cell leukemia sequence.

a variety of bacteria, fungi, and parasites [41,42]. NETs are webs formed by chromatin and granule proteins that provide a high local concentration of antimicrobial molecules. This pathway of neutrophil death depends on the activation of the respiratory burst and it is characterized by a number of specific morphological changes different from those described in apoptotic and necrotic neutrophils, such as disintegration of the nuclear envelope, mixing of cytoplasmic and nuclear materials, and loss of internal membranes and cytoplasmic organelles, thus defining a novel cell death pathway [41,42]. Interestingly, following priming with GM-CSF and subsequent stimulation by complement component C5a (C5a), viable neutrophils release NETs containing mitochondrial, but not nuclear DNA. Strikingly, release of NETs by neutrophils stimulated by GM-CSF and C5a was associated with an increased cell survival compared with resting neutrophils [43^{••}]. This clearly indicates that the production of NETs does not always require neutrophil death. Production of NETs by neutrophils seems to play an important role not only in host defense against infection [41,42,44[•]] but also in autoimmunity. It has been recently reported that NETs are released by antineutrophil cytoplasm autoantibodies (ANCA)-stimulated neutrophils and triggers both vasculitis and the autoimmune response against neutrophil components observed in patients with small-vessel vasculitis [45^{••}].

Autophagic cell death

Autophagy represents an evolutionarily conserved catabolic pathway that enables eukaryotic cells to degrade and recycle cellular components. Autophagic cell death is a programmed cell death different from apoptosis, characterized by the formation of multilamellar autophagosomes under the control of GTPases and phosphatidylinositol kinases that engulf intracellular components [46]. Interestingly, the pathways of autophagic cell death and apoptosis are interconnected. Both pathways share several genes and a variety of stimuli are able to activate either pathway [47^{••}]. Recent studies support that autophagic cell death is operative in the neutrophil. In this regard, it has been shown that sialic acid-binding immunoglobulin-like lectin 9 (Siglec-9) ligation on the neutrophil surface induces cell death. Of note, death induction by Siglec-9 is enhanced when neutrophils were exposed to proinflammatory antiapoptotic cytokines, such as GM-CSF, interferon- α , or interferon- γ and also in neutrophils obtained from patients with acute septic shock or rheumatoid arthritis [48,49]. Cell death was largely caspase-independent, required the activation of the respiratory burst, and it was characterized by cytoplasmic vacuolization and other nonapoptotic morphologic features closely resembling autophagic cell death [48,49]. A similar mechanism of cell death was described for neutrophils stimulated by TNF α in the presence of the caspase inhibitor benzyloxycarbon-

yl-Val-Ala-Asp (OMe) fluoromethylketone (z-VAD-fmk) [50]. Interestingly, it has been recently reported that human intravenous immunoglobulin (IVIg) preparations contain natural anti-Siglec-9 autoantibodies, which are able to ligate Siglec-9 on neutrophils and induce autophagic-like cell death in the presence of GM-CSF and some other survival cytokines [51].

Conclusion

As the Nomenclature Committee on Cell Death 2009 stated [4^{••}], different types of cell death are often defined by morphological criteria, without a clear reference to precise biochemical mechanisms. Moreover, there are numerous examples in which cells show mixed features, with signs of both apoptosis and necrosis. This made it difficult to define how the survival of neutrophil is regulated under physiological and pathological conditions. However, it is clear that the half-life of neutrophils is heavily affected in the course of inflammatory and autoimmune conditions. In fact, neutrophils have been shown to display a prolonged half lifespan in patients with endotoxemia, traumatic injury, pneumonia, systemic inflammatory response syndrome (SIRS), inflammatory bowel disease, and rheumatoid arthritis. By contrast, a decreased neutrophil survival was reported for patients with glycogen storage disease type 1b, ANCA-associated vasculitis, and systemic lupus erythematosus [52[•]]. Understanding the molecular pathways that control neutrophil survival holds therapeutic promise in a variety of infectious, inflammatory, and autoimmune diseases.

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Additional references related to this topic can also be found in the Current World Literature section in this issue (p. 72).

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