

p38 γ and p38 δ kinases regulate the Toll-like receptor 4 (TLR4)-induced cytokine production by controlling ERK1/2 protein kinase pathway activation

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On the basis mainly of pharmacological experiments, the p38 α MAP kinase isoform has been established as an important regulator of immune and inflammatory responses. However, the role of the related p38 γ and p38 δ kinases has remained unclear. Here, we show that deletion of p38 γ and p38 δ impaired the innate immune response to lipopolysaccharide (LPS), a Toll-like receptor 4 (TLR4) ligand, by blocking the extracellular signal-regulated kinase 1/2 (ERK1/2) activation in macrophages and dendritic cells. p38 γ and p38 δ were necessary to maintain steady-state levels of tumor progression locus 2 (TPL2), the MKK kinase that mediates ERK1/2 activation after TLR4 stimulation. TNF α , IL-1 β , and IL-10 production were reduced in LPS-stimulated macrophages from p38 γ/δ -null mice, whereas IL-12 and IFN β production increased, in accordance with the known effects of TPL2/ERK1/2 signaling on the induction of these cytokines. Furthermore, p38 γ/δ -deficient mice were less sensitive than controls to LPS-induced septic shock, showing lower TNF α and IL-1 β levels after challenge. Together, our results establish p38 γ and p38 δ as key components in innate immune responses.

The innate immune system is the front line of defense against invading pathogens and uses evolutionarily conserved systems of pathogen-associated pattern recognition (1, 2). For example, pathogen-specific molecules activate Toll-like receptors (TLRs) on innate immune cells, leading to secretion of proinflammatory cytokines and other mediators that promote elimination of infectious agents and the induction of tissue repair (1, 2). TLR stimulation by pathogen-associated molecules such as the bacterial lipopolysaccharide (LPS), a TLR4 ligand, activates various signaling pathways crucial for synthesis of proinflammatory molecules (2); one of these pathways is the p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) pathway (3, 4).

The four p38MAPK family members p38 α , p38 β , p38 γ , and p38 δ share highly similar protein sequences and are activated by dual phosphorylation mediated by the MAPK kinases MKK3 and MKK6 (3). On the basis of expression patterns, substrate specificities, and sensitivity to chemical inhibitors, p38MAPK can be further divided into two subsets, p38 α /p38 β and p38 γ /p38 δ (3). p38 α and p38 β are very similar proteins that appear to have overlapping functions. Whereas p38 β is expressed at very low levels, p38 α is abundant in most cell types and is the best-characterized isoform; most of the literature on p38MAPK refers to p38 α . A better understanding of the essential role of p38 α in inflammation and in numerous TLR4-triggered responses in macrophages and dendritic cells was provided by studies using a range of p38 α inhibitors or the constitutive deletion of its physiological substrates or activators (4). Gene targeting to systemically knockout p38 α is an embryonic lethal mutation (5–7). However, studies using conditional tissue-specific knockouts of p38 α mice have revealed the importance of this isoform in the inflammatory response of cultured macrophages in vitro (8) and in the development of skin and gut

inflammation (9, 10) in vivo. In contrast, p38 β -null mice show no defects in lymphocyte development or cytokine production in response to LPS (11).

The less-studied p38 γ and p38 δ isoforms probably have specialized functions, given their restricted expression patterns; p38 γ is abundant in skeletal muscle and p38 δ in endocrine glands (3). Recent reports implicate p38 γ and p38 δ in metabolic diseases, cancer, and tissue regeneration, raising interest in this pathway as a therapeutic target for drugs. p38 δ regulates insulin secretion and survival of pancreatic β -cells, implying a pivotal role for this kinase in diabetes (12). Moreover, studies in mice suggest that p38 γ blocks premature differentiation of satellite cells, a skeletal muscle stem-cell population that participates in adult muscle regeneration (13). p38 δ -null mice show reduced susceptibility to skin carcinogenesis (14). However, studies in immortalized mouse embryonic fibroblasts and in K-Ras-transformed cells lacking p38 γ or p38 δ have indicated that these kinases can also inhibit tumor development (15).

p38 γ and p38 δ are also expressed in immune cell lines and primary immune cells, and both are activated in myeloid cell lines in response to LPS (16, 17). However, the function of p38 γ and p38 δ in primary immune cell signaling and inflammatory responses has not been addressed. Here, we investigated this question using mice deficient in p38 γ , p38 δ , or both. We show that deletion of both p38 γ and p38 δ impaired the innate immune response to LPS by regulating the steady-state levels of ABIN-2 and its associated protein tumor progression locus 2 (TPL-2), the MKK kinase that mediates extracellular signal-regulated kinase 1/2 (ERK1/2) pathway activation. Consistently, p38 γ/δ deficiency affected the production of cytokines by TLR4-stimulated macrophages and dendritic cells (DCs) and reduced LPS-induced septic shock similarly to the known effects of deleting TPL-2. Our results demonstrate that p38 γ and p38 δ are essential for innate immune responses and suggest that pharmacological modulation of their expression could be therapeutically beneficial in diseases involving chronic inflammation.

Results

p38 γ and p38 δ Regulate LPS-Induced Cytokine Production. The p38 MAPK pathway is central to the regulation of cytokine production in macrophages, a primary outcome of TLR4 activation

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by LPS. To investigate the potential role of p38 γ and p38 δ in this process, we analyzed cytokine production by bone marrow-derived macrophages (BMDM) and bone marrow-derived dendritic cells (BMDC) generated from mice lacking both p38 γ and p38 δ . Real-time quantitative PCR (qPCR) and Western blot analyses demonstrated that p38 γ and p38 δ were expressed in wild-type (WT) BMDM and WT BMDC, although at a much lower level than p38 α and p38 β (*SI Appendix, Table S1 and Fig. S1*). Deficiency of p38 γ and p38 δ did not affect the in vitro differentiation of bone marrow progenitor cells to macrophages or dendritic cells because we obtained equivalent numbers of BMDM expressing the macrophage-specific marker F4/80, or of BMDC expressing the marker CD11c, from WT control and double-knockout mice (*SI Appendix, Fig. S2*).

BMDM were stimulated with LPS; supernatants collected at the times indicated in Fig. 1; and TNF α , IL-1 β , IL-6, IL-10, and IL-12 levels were measured. LPS induced the production of each these cytokines by WT macrophages (Fig. 1A). p38 γ /p38 δ deficiency impaired LPS induction of TNF α , IL-1 β , or IL-10 compared with WT cells, whereas there was a significant increase in IL-12p70 production. p38 γ /p38 δ deficiency did not significantly alter IL-6 production (Fig. 1A).

Quantitative PCR (qPCR) was used to determine whether the effects of p38 γ /p38 δ deficiency on induction of the analyzed cytokines were due to altered transcription. p38 γ /p38 δ deficiency reduced LPS induction of *IL-1 β* and *IL-10* mRNAs, whereas *IL-12p35* and *IL-12p40* mRNAs were increased (Fig. 1B). LPS induction of *Il6* mRNAs was similar between WT and p38 γ /p38 δ BMDM. The effects of p38 γ /p38 δ deficiency on the production of IL-1 β , IL-10, and IL-12 therefore probably resulted from altered transcription.

p38 γ /p38 δ deficiency did not affect LPS induction of *Tnf α* mRNA (Fig. 1B). Although TNF α production was blocked in p38 γ /p38 δ BMDM (Fig. 1A), immunoblotting of cell lysates demonstrated that production of pre-TNF α was similar to WT cells (Fig. 1C). Therefore, p38 γ /p38 δ did not control TNF α production at the transcriptional or translational level, but might regulate its maturation or secretion.

Neither p38 γ nor p38 δ deficiency alone affected LPS-induced TNF α , IL-10, IL-6, and IL-12p70 production, although IL-1 β induction was partially impaired (*SI Appendix, Fig. S3*). This supports the idea that p38 γ and p38 δ functions are partially redundant.

To examine whether p38 γ and p38 δ also regulated LPS-induced cytokines in another immune cell type, we analyzed BMDC from WT or p38 γ /p38 δ mice. Similarly to the effects detected in BMDM, p38 γ /p38 δ deficiency reduced LPS induction of TNF α , IL-1 β , and IL-10 protein and mRNA production by BMDC compared with WT cells, whereas IL-6 was unaffected and IL-12p70 was increased (*SI Appendix, Fig. S4*).

Because IL-10 has a profound inhibitory effect on cytokine production by TLR-stimulated macrophages (18), increased IL-12 levels in p38 γ /p38 δ BMDM might have resulted from diminished IL-10 secretion. This was investigated by quantifying the synthesis of IL-12p70 and IL-12p40 proteins, as well as *IL-12p35* and *IL-12p40* mRNAs, in the presence of anti-IL-10 antibody (Fig. 2A). Because it has been suggested that IL-10 inhibits IFN- β production (18), IFN- β protein and *IFN- β* mRNA were also assayed under the same conditions (Fig. 2B). Incubation of cells with anti-IL-10 caused a marked increase in LPS-induced IL-12 and IFN- β production by both p38 γ /p38 δ and WT BMDM compared with control cells incubated with IgG (Fig. 2). When incubated with either anti-IL-10 or control IgG, however, p38 γ /p38 δ BMDM produced significantly higher IL-12 p40/p70 and IFN- β levels compared with WT BMDM (Fig. 2). These results show that p38 γ and p38 δ negatively regulated IL-12 and IFN- β production independently of IL-10, but that autocrine IL-10 limited TLR4-induced production of these cytokines. Secretion of IL-10 and TNF α , which was positively controlled by p38 γ and p38 δ (Fig. 1), was also reduced by autocrine IL-10 in both p38 γ /p38 δ and WT BMDM (*SI Appendix, Fig. S5*).

Together these findings show an important function for p38 γ and/or p38 δ in the regulation of inflammatory cytokine production in both LPS-stimulated BMDM and BMDC.

p38 γ and p38 δ Are Required for ERK1/2 Pathway Activation in Response to LPS. TLR4 stimulation of myeloid cells by LPS activates all three major MAPK pathways, c-Jun N-terminal kinase (JNK), p38 α , and ERK1/2, as well as the canonical NF- κ B signaling pathway (Fig. 3A), which together regulate cytokine production (1, 19). p38 γ and/or p38 δ deficiency did not affect the LPS-induced transient activation of p38 α and JNK1/2, as determined by immunoblotting with phospho-specific antibodies (Fig. 3B). TLR4-induced proteolysis of the NF- κ B inhibitor I κ B α was also unaffected by the lack of p38 γ , p38 δ , or p38 γ /p38 δ (Fig. 3B).

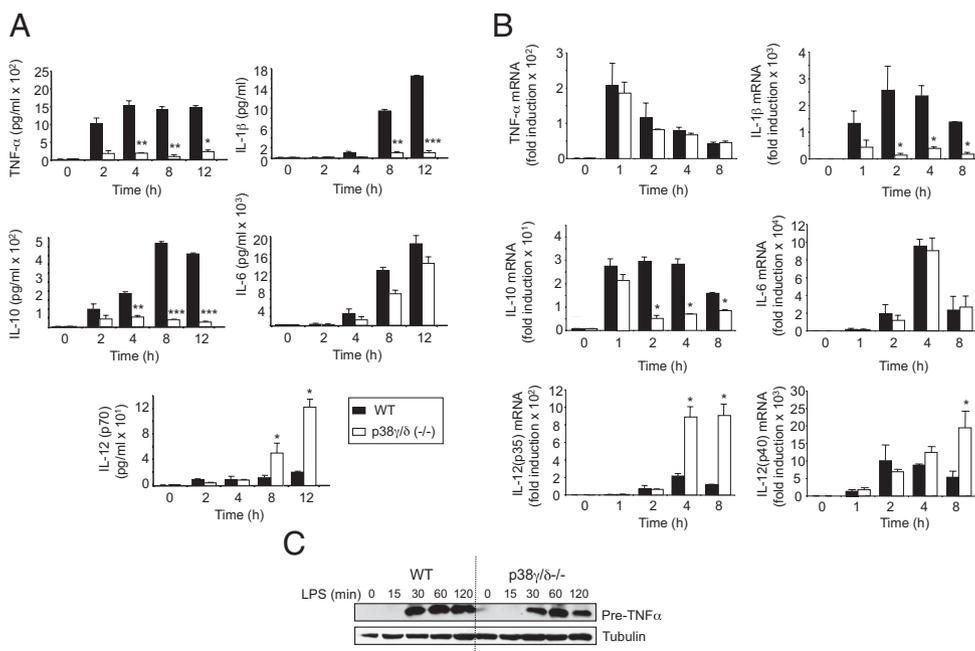


Fig. 1. Bone marrow-derived macrophages from p38 γ /p38 δ -deficient mice show altered cytokine production in response to LPS. (A) BMDM from WT (black bars) or p38 γ /p38 δ (-/-) (white) mice were exposed to LPS (100 ng/mL) for the indicated times, and culture supernatants harvested for luminex cytokine analysis of TNF α , IL-1 β , IL-10, IL-6, and IL-12(p70). Values show mean \pm SD for one representative experiment of three performed in duplicate. (B) qPCR of TNF α , IL-1 β , IL-10, IL-6, IL-12(p35), and IL-12(p40) mRNA in total RNA from WT (black bars) or p38 γ /p38 δ (-/-) BMDM stimulated with LPS (100 ng/mL). Results were normalized to 18S RNA expression and x-fold induction was calculated relative to WT expression at 0 h. Data show mean \pm SD from one representative experiment of two in triplicate, with similar results. * $P \leq 0.05$, ** $P \leq 0.01$, and *** $P \leq 0.001$ relative to WT BMDM exposed to LPS at each time. (C) WT and p38 γ /p38 δ (-/-) BMDM were exposed to LPS (100 ng/mL). Cell lysates (50 μ g) were immunoblotted with a murine anti-TNF α antibody.

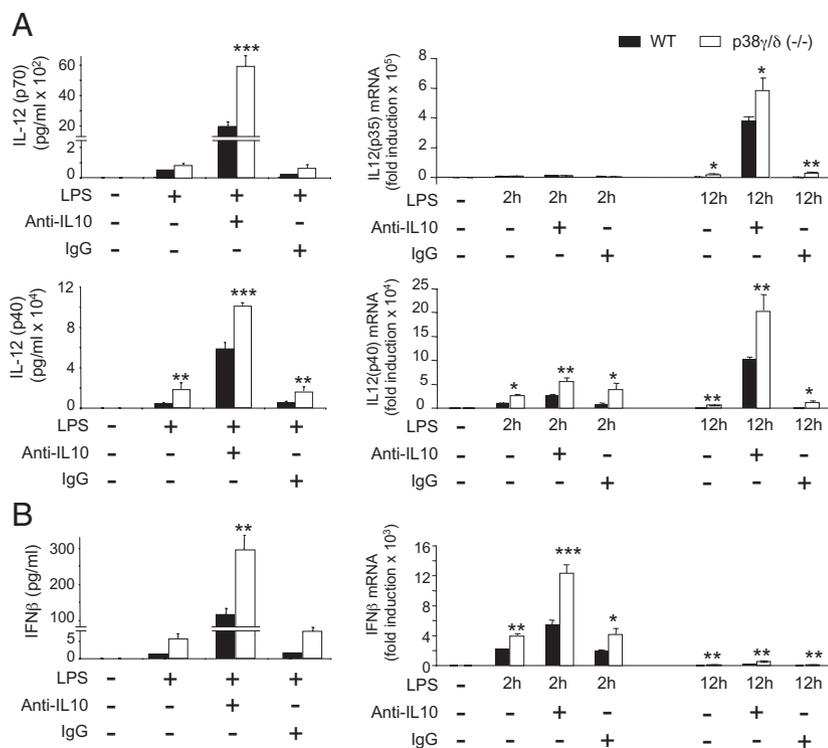


Fig. 2. Role of IL-10 in LPS-induced cytokine production. (A and B) BMDM from WT (black bars) or $p38\gamma/\delta^{-/-}$ (white) mice were exposed to LPS (100 ng/mL) alone or in the presence of neutralizing antibody to IL-10 (anti-IL10) or an isotype control antibody (IgG) (both at 1 μ g/mL, 12 h); culture supernatants were harvested for luminex cytokine analysis of (A) IL-12(p70) and IL-12(p40) and (B) IFN β . Data are mean \pm SD of one representative experiment of two in triplicate with similar results. Real-time qPCR analysis of (A) IL-12(p35), IL-12(p40), and (B) IFN β in total RNA from WT (black bars) or $p38\gamma/\delta^{-/-}$ (white) BMDM stimulated as before for the times indicated. Results show mean \pm SD of triplicate wells normalized to GAPDH mRNA. * $P \leq 0.05$, ** $P \leq 0.01$, and *** $P \leq 0.001$ relative to WT BMDM in each experimental condition.

In contrast, phosphorylation of both ERK1/2 kinases and their activator MKK1 was substantially reduced in $p38\gamma/\delta$ -null BMDM compared with WT or single p38 knockouts (Fig. 3C). This effect in ERK1/2 pathway activation in $p38\gamma/\delta^{-/-}$ cells compared with single knockout cells indicates that p38 γ and p38 δ appeared to be redundant with respect to their requirement for LPS activation of ERK1/2. ERK1/2 activation was also impaired in LPS-stimulated $p38\gamma/\delta^{-/-}$ BMDC, whereas JNK phosphorylation, p38 α phosphorylation, and I κ B α degradation were similar to that in WT cells (SI Appendix, Fig. S6).

These results suggested that lack of p38 γ/δ affected a kinase upstream of MKK1. In response to LPS, MKK1/ERK1/2 activation in macrophages is regulated by the MKK kinase TPL-2 (also known as cancer Osaka thyroid) (20–22). In unstimulated cells, TPL-2 is stoichiometrically complexed with the NF- κ B inhibitory protein NF- κ B1 p105 and the ubiquitin-binding protein ABIN-2 (A20-binding inhibitor of NF- κ B2), both of which are needed to maintain TPL-2 protein stability (20, 23–25) (Fig. 3A). In unstimulated and LPS-stimulated $p38\gamma/\delta^{-/-}$ BMDM, steady-state levels of TPL-2 and ABIN-2 proteins were substantially reduced compared with WT cells or single p38 knockouts (Fig. 3D; SI Appendix, Fig. S7), whereas NF- κ B1 p105 protein levels were normal (Fig. 3D). NF- κ B1 p105 phosphorylation in LPS-stimulated $p38\gamma/\delta^{-/-}$ BMDM was also similar to WT cells (Fig. 3D). The reduction in TPL-2 and ABIN-2 proteins resulted from posttranscriptional effects because *Tpl2* and *Abin2* mRNA levels were unaffected by p38 γ/δ deficiency (Fig. 4A). TPL-2 and ABIN-2 protein expression was also substantially reduced in BMDC (SI Appendix, Fig. S6).

TPL-2 and ABIN-2 are proteolyzed by proteasome in macrophages after LPS stimulation, suggesting that the reduced levels of these proteins in $p38\gamma/\delta^{-/-}$ BMDM could result from proteasome-mediated proteolysis (26, 27). This was investigated by testing the effect of proteasome inhibitor I (PSI) on TPL-2 and ABIN-2 protein levels in WT and $p38\gamma/\delta^{-/-}$ BMDM. PSI increased the amount of TPL-2 and ABIN-2 proteins in both WT and $p38\gamma/\delta^{-/-}$ BMDM (Fig. 4B). Earlier work has shown that ABIN-2 deficiency reduces steady-state levels of TPL-2 protein without affecting *TPL-2* mRNA or p105 protein levels (24, 28).

Therefore, it is possible that p38 γ and p38 δ control TPL-2 protein levels directly or via effects on ABIN-2 protein levels. To investigate this hypothesis, we performed rescue experiments in $p38\gamma/\delta^{-/-}$ mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEF), which express substantially lower amounts of TPL-2 and ABIN-2 than WT MEF, similar to BMDM (Fig. 4C). We transfected $p38\gamma/\delta^{-/-}$ with plasmids encoding p38 γ , p38 δ , p38 γ , and p38 δ or ABIN-2 and examined the expression of TPL-2 and ABIN-2 protein. Overexpression of p38 δ , alone or with p38 γ , restored TPL-2 and ABIN-2 protein to levels similar to those in WT MEF, whereas p38 γ transfection restored only the TPL-2 protein level (Fig. 4C). Overexpression of TPL-2 did not restore ABIN-2 levels (Fig. 4C). In addition, the overexpression of ABIN-2 restored TPL-2 protein in $p38\gamma/\delta^{-/-}$ MEF to a level similar to that in WT cells (Fig. 4D), consistent with earlier experiments showing that ABIN-2 is required for TPL-2 protein stability (24, 28).

Together our data indicate that the impairment in LPS activation of ERK1/2 in $p38\gamma/\delta^{-/-}$ BMDM was due to the reduced levels of TPL-2 protein. In support of this idea, TNF α activation of ERK1/2, which is TPL-2 dependent (29), was also blocked in $p38\gamma/\delta$ -null BMDM (Fig. 4E). In contrast, ERK1/2 activation by phorbol-12 myristate-13 acetate (PMA), which is mediated via Raf kinase (30), was unaffected by $p38\gamma/\delta^{-/-}$ deficiency (Fig. 4F). To determine whether the decreased ERK1/2 activation in $p38\gamma/\delta^{-/-}$ macrophages was the consequence of TPL-2 deficiency due to the lack of p38 γ/δ , we reconstituted TPL-2 in $p38\gamma/\delta^{-/-}$ macrophages by infection with recombinant retrovirus encoding TPL-2. Expression of TPL-2 increased ERK1/2 activation (Fig. 4G) and also TNF α production (Fig. 4G) in response to LPS.

Consistent with the hypothesis that p38 γ/δ control cytokine production by regulating TPL-2/ERK1/2 pathway activation, pharmacological blockade of LPS-induced ERK1/2 activation using the MKK1 inhibitor PD184352 in WT BMDM mimicked the effects of genetic deletion of p38 γ and p38 δ on cytokine mRNA induction (SI Appendix, Fig. S8). Furthermore, comparative qRT-PCR analyses of WT and *Tpl2*^{-/-} BMDM demonstrated that TPL-2 deficiency had similar effects on the mRNA levels of each of these cytokines (SI Appendix, Fig. S9), consistent with early studies (21).

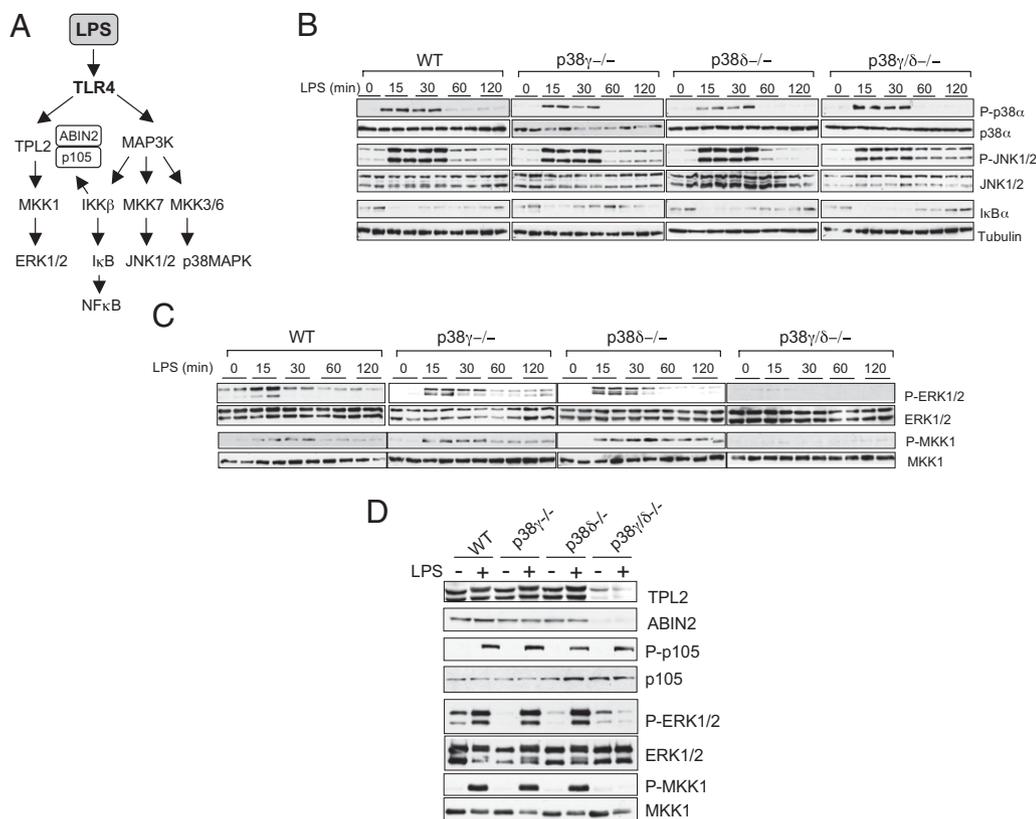


Fig. 3. p38 γ and p38 δ are necessary for LPS activation of ERK1/2 but not of other signaling pathways. (A) Scheme of various signaling pathways activated in macrophages after LPS stimulation. (B–D) BMDM from WT, p38 γ ^{-/-}, p38 δ ^{-/-}, or p38 γ/δ ^{-/-} mice were stimulated with 100 ng/mL LPS for the times indicated (B and C) or for 15 min (D). Cell lysates (50 μ g) were immunoblotted with antibodies to (B) active phosphorylated p38 α (P-p38 α) and active phosphorylated JNK1/2 (P-JNK1/2) or I κ B α and (C) active phosphorylated ERK1/2 (P-ERK1/2) and MKK1 (P-MKK1). (B and C) Total protein levels of tubulin, p38MAPK, JNK1/2, ERK1/2, and MKK1 were also measured in the same lysates as loading controls. Duplicate lanes are shown; similar results were obtained in at least three independent experiments. (D) Cell lysates immunoblotted with anti-TPL-2, anti-ABIN-2, anti-phospho p105 (P-p105), anti-p105, anti-P-ERK1/2, anti-ERK1/2, anti-P-MKK1, or anti-MKK1.

p38 γ/δ ^{-/-} Are More Resistant Than WT Mice to Endotoxic Shock. The reaction to bacterial LPS is a well-characterized innate immune response that leads to endotoxic or septic shock due primarily to TNF α overproduction. To examine the *in vivo* role of p38 γ and p38 δ in innate immunity, we administered *i.p.* injections of *Escherichia coli*-derived LPS plus the transcriptional inhibitor D-galactosamine (D-Gal) to age- and sex-matched WT, p38 γ ^{-/-}, p38 δ ^{-/-}, or p38 γ/δ ^{-/-} mice (21). Both p38 γ ^{-/-} (Fig. 5A) and p38 δ ^{-/-} mice (Fig. 5B) were slightly more resistant to endotoxic shock induction and survived ~1–2 h longer than WT mice whereas compound p38 γ and p38 δ deficiency had a more pronounced protective effect (Fig. 5C). And, whereas 100% of WT mice died within 8 h of LPS injection, ~50% of p38 γ/δ ^{-/-} mice survived for 20 h and ~15% survived to 36 h, at which time they were killed (Fig. 5C).

To determine whether p38 γ and/or p38 δ control cytokine release in response to LPS challenge *in vivo*, we measured TNF α and IL-1 β levels in serum from WT, p38 γ ^{-/-}, p38 δ ^{-/-}, and p38 γ/δ ^{-/-} mice at 2 h post LPS injection. Lack of p38 γ or p38 δ alone had little effect on TNF α and IL-1 β production compared with WT mice (Fig. 5D). However, induction of both of these cytokines was substantially reduced in double mutant p38 γ/δ ^{-/-} mice (Fig. 5D). IL-1 α , IL-10, and IL-6 production was also diminished in LPS-treated p38 γ/δ ^{-/-} mice compared with WT mice (SI Appendix, Fig. S10). These data suggest that the reduced susceptibility of p38 γ/δ ^{-/-} mice to LPS-induced septic shock was due to an overall decrease in cytokine production and indicate that p38 γ/δ ^{-/-} mice behave similarly to *Tpl2*^{-/-} mice, which cannot up-regulate TNF α and IL-1 β after LPS injection and are protected from LPS-induced toxic shock (21, 31).

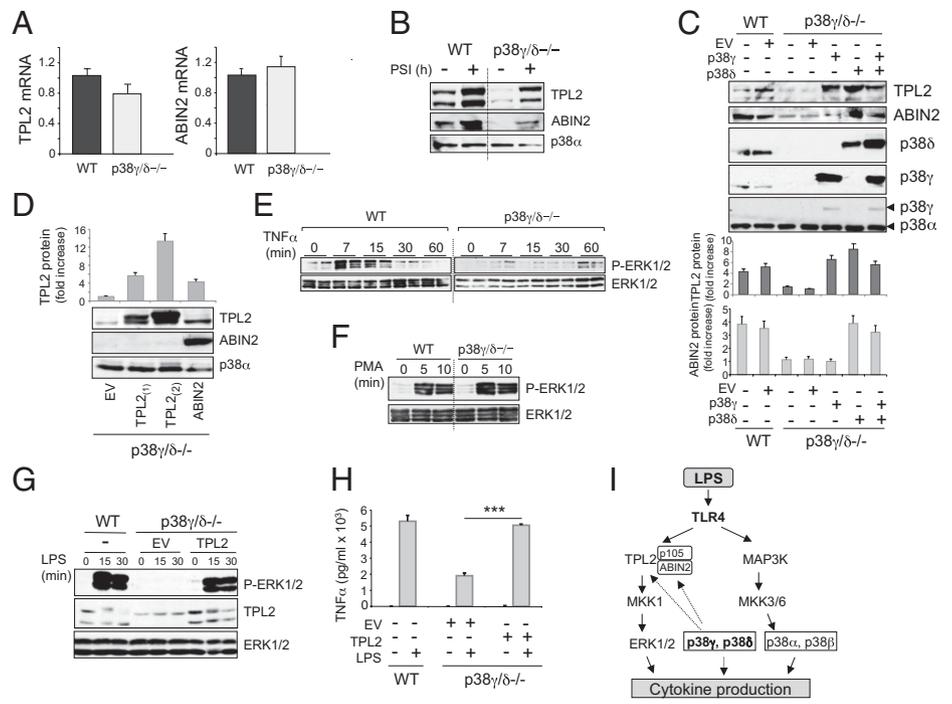
Discussion

Here we used mice lacking p38 γ and/or p38 δ to analyze the effect of p38 γ and p38 δ on the inflammatory response. Our results show that these two kinases are central to regulation of the inflammatory response and that p38 MAPKs have a substantially

more complex function in the immune response than previously thought. In both macrophages and DC, p38 γ and p38 δ deletion altered the response to LPS by reducing production of cytokines such as TNF α , IL-1 β , or IL-10 and by increasing IL-12 and IFN β synthesis. This was paralleled by specific blockade of the MKK1-ERK1/2 pathway activation. LPS induction of p38 α and JNK activation, as well as I κ B proteolysis, was unaffected by p38 γ/δ deficiency. p38 γ/δ ^{-/-} macrophages showed substantially lower levels of two MKK1-ERK1/2 upstream components, the proteins TPL-2 and ABIN-2. TPL-2 is a MKK kinase essential for LPS activation of MKK1-ERK1/2, but not of p38MAPK, JNK, or NF- κ B, in macrophages and in DC (20–22). Optimal TPL-2 stability *in vivo* requires interaction with ABIN-2 as well as with NF κ B1 p105, and ABIN-2 positively regulates the ERK1/2 signaling pathway by stabilizing TPL-2 (20, 26). Our data suggest that one function of p38 γ and p38 δ in the TLR4-signaling pathway is to regulate TPL-2 and ABIN-2 protein levels and, consequently, MKK1-ERK1/2 pathway activation. This idea is supported by our following findings: (i) expression of p38 γ and p38 δ in p38 γ/δ -null cells restored ABIN-2 and TPL-2 protein levels, and (ii) expression of TPL-2 in p38 γ/δ ^{-/-} macrophages not only increased ERK1/2 activation, but also rescued TPL-2-dependent TNF α production in response to LPS. In addition, ERK1/2 activation in p38 γ/δ ^{-/-} macrophages was also impaired in response to TNF α , a ligand that also activates ERK1/2 via TPL-2 (29), whereas it was unimpaired in response to PMA, which activates ERK1/2 independently of TPL-2 (30). Our preliminary observations, based on transient transfection experiments in HEK293 cells, indicate that p38 γ and p38 δ regulate TPL-2 and ABIN-2 protein stability by phosphorylation and interaction with the TPL-2/ABIN-2/p105 complex. Further studies will be needed to determine the exact mechanism by which p38 γ and p38 δ regulate TPL-2 and ABIN-2 protein levels in macrophages.

Production of TNF α , IL-1 β , and IL-10 was severely reduced in LPS-stimulated macrophages from p38 γ/δ -null mice, whereas IL-12 and IFN β production increased, and IL-6 synthesis was

Fig. 4. Deletion of p38 γ and p38 δ decrease TPL-2 and ABIN-2 protein levels in cells. (A) Quantitative PCR of *Tpl-2* mRNA or *Abin-2* mRNA in total RNA from WT or p38 $\gamma/\delta^{-/-}$ BMDM. Results were normalized to 18S RNA expression. Data show mean \pm SD from one representative experiment of two with similar results. (B) BMDM from WT or p38 $\gamma/\delta^{-/-}$ mice were incubated with the proteasome inhibitor PSI (60 μ M) for 0 or 8 h before lysis with SDS-containing buffer A. Immunoblotting was carried with anti-total TPL-2, anti-ABIN-2, or anti-total p38 α antibody as protein loading control. (C) WT and p38 $\gamma/\delta^{-/-}$ MEF were transiently transfected with plasmids encoding p38 γ , p38 δ , or with no insert (EV). (D) p38 $\gamma/\delta^{-/-}$ MEF were transiently transfected with plasmids encoding ABIN-2, TPL2 (as positive control), or with no insert (EV). (C and D) Lysates were immunoblotted with the antibodies indicated, and the band intensity of blots in D and E were quantified and the relative amount of TPL-2 or ABIN-2 in the lysates was calculated. Histogram show mean \pm SD of two to three independent experiments. BMDM from WT or p38 $\gamma/\delta^{-/-}$ mice were stimulated with (E) 100 ng/mL TNF α or (F) 100 ng/mL PMA. Immunoblotting was carried out with antibodies to active phosphorylated-ERK1/2 (P-ERK1/2) or total protein (ERK1/2) as loading control. E shows duplicate lanes. Results were similar in two independent experiments. (G and H) Uninfected WT BMDM or p38 $\gamma/\delta^{-/-}$ BMDM infected with recombinant retroviruses encoding TPL-2 or with no insert (EV). Cells were stimulated with LPS at various times (G), and immunoblots were carried out as in E and F. (H) BMDM were stimulated with LPS for 6 h, and qPCR of TNF α was performed as in Fig. 1. Data show mean \pm SD from one representative experiment of two in triplicate, with similar results. *** $P \leq 0.001$. (I) Schematic representation of the signaling pathways involved in cytokine production, which are controlled by p38 γ and p38 δ in LPS-stimulated macrophages.



unaffected. p38 γ /p38 δ signaling thus has complex pro- and anti-inflammatory effects on cytokine production in innate immune responses. The effect of p38 γ/δ deficiency on cytokine production resembled those described previously in macrophages generated from TPL-2 and ABIN-2 knockout mouse strains. Similar to p38 γ and p38 δ , TPL-2 and ABIN-2 are necessary for optimal TNF α and IL-1 β production by LPS-stimulated macrophages, the major cell source of TNF α during inflammatory responses, whereas TNF α and IL-1 β production by LPS-stimulated DC is partially TPL-2- and ABIN-2-dependent (24, 31). LPS-induced TNF α secretion, but not *Tnfa* mRNA or pre-TNF α synthesis, was abolished in p38 $\gamma/\delta^{-/-}$ macrophages and DC, showing the importance of p38 γ and p38 δ in the post-translational control of TNF α production. These findings are again similar to those for TPL-2-deficient BMDM, in which TPL-2-ERK1/2 signaling is required for TNF α intracellular transport and maturation, but not induction of *Tnfa* mRNA (32, 33). IL-12 and IFN β are other cytokines whose production was altered in p38 $\gamma/\delta^{-/-}$ BMDM, independently of any effects on IL-10 induction; we found increased production of *IL-12p40*, *IL-12p35*, and *IFN β* mRNA as well as of IL-12p70 and IFN β protein, as also was observed in TPL-2 $^{-/-}$ BMDM (34). As for TPL-2 (34), p38 γ and p38 δ positively regulate IL-10 protein and mRNA induction in LPS-stimulated macrophages and DC. In vivo analysis of p38 $\gamma/\delta^{-/-}$ mice also suggests critical p38 γ and p38 δ functions in the immune response, confirming the physiological relevance of our in vitro findings in macrophages and dendritic cells. Following LPS challenge, p38 $\gamma/\delta^{-/-}$ mice were less sensitive to endotoxic shock than WT mice, which was associated with a decrease in serum levels of proinflammatory (TNF α , IL-1 β) and anti-inflammatory (IL-10) cytokines. The results shown here imply that p38 γ and p38 δ have largely redundant functions. The absence of p38 γ or p38 δ did not affect TPL-2 or ABIN2 levels, LPS-induced ERK1/2 activation, or, in most cases, cytokine production. However, we found that lack of either p38 γ or p38 δ has a similar effect on the induction of *IL-1 β*

mRNA or IL-1 β protein in BMDM (*SI Appendix, Fig. S3*). *IL-1 β* gene transcription is a complex, precisely regulated process that involves many transcription factors (35). Both p38 γ - and p38 δ -null BMDM have TPL-2 protein levels similar to those of WT macrophages, indicating that p38 γ and/or p38 δ might control *IL-1 β* transcription at one or various steps; further studies are needed to determine their specific roles in this process and also

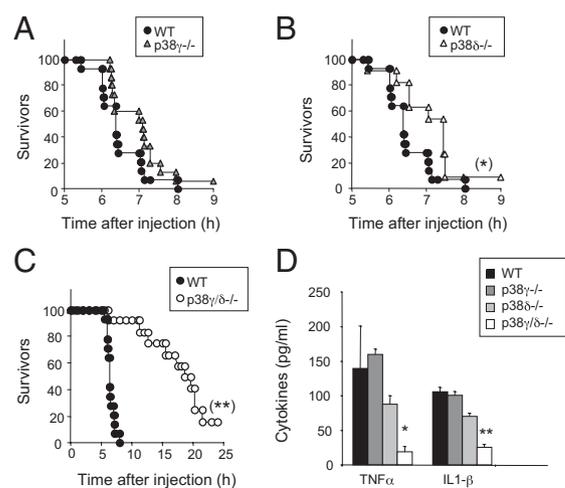


Fig. 5. Deletion of p38 γ and p38 δ decreases LPS/D-Gal-induced lethality. (A–C) Mice received injections of LPS (50 μ g/kg) and D-Gal (1 g/kg), and death was monitored for up to 36 h. Wild type ($n = 14$) and (A) p38 $\gamma^{-/-}$ ($n = 15$), (B) p38 $\delta^{-/-}$ ($n = 11$), or (C) p38 $\gamma/\delta^{-/-}$ ($n = 12$) are shown. (D) Serum from mice in A–C was collected 2 h after LPS and D-Gal challenge, and TNF α and IL-1 β were measured in a luminex cytokine assay. Data show mean \pm SD ($n = 4$ –6 mice/group). * $P \leq 0.05$ and ** $P \leq 0.01$ relative to WT mouse serum.

to establish the molecular mechanism by which both p38 γ and p38 δ are necessary to keep TPL-2 or ABIN2 protein levels in BMDM and BMDC.

Our results show a previously unreported, essential function for p38 γ and p38 δ in the immune response and identify two possible targets for treatment of inflammatory conditions such as septic shock and rheumatoid arthritis. We propose that p38 γ and p38 δ act simultaneously at different levels to control inflammatory cytokine expression by (i) regulating expression of other signaling pathway components essential for cytokine production during the immune response to endotoxic shock and/or (ii) by directly modulating transcription of cytokines such as IL-1 β (Fig. 4I). In contrast, p38 α MAPK controls cytokine production mainly by regulating transcriptional activation and mRNA stability (3). Use of p38 γ and p38 δ as therapeutic targets might obviate the pleiotropic and adverse side effects of the numerous p38 α inhibitors currently being tested for sepsis and rheumatoid arthritis treatment (36, 37). TPL-2 has recently become an attractive target for anti-inflammatory drugs, although further study is needed to develop sufficiently potent compounds with physicochemical properties appropriate for in vivo use (36). Our results demonstrate that p38 γ and p38 δ are players in the inflammatory response and indicate that their suitability as targets for the treatment of certain inflammatory disorders should be evaluated.

Materials and Methods

Cell Culture, Stimulation, and Protein Overexpression. BMDM were isolated from adult mouse femurs (38). Bone marrow cells were allowed to differentiate on bacteria-grade plastic dishes in DMEM with 20% (vol/vol) FBS and 30% (vol/vol) L929 cell-conditioned media (CSF-1 source). After 7 d, adherent

cells were removed, counted, and replated at a constant density (10^6 cells/mL). At 4–8 h after replating in DMEM with 10% (vol/vol) FBS, cells were stimulated for various times with LPS, TNF α , or PMA (all from Sigma). Cells were lysed in buffer A [50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5), 1 mM EGTA, 1 mM EDTA, 0.15 M NaCl, 1 mM sodium orthovanadate, 10 mM sodium fluoride, 50 mM sodium β -glycerophosphate, 5 mM pyrophosphate, 0.27 M sucrose, 0.1 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride, 1% (vol/vol) Triton X-100] plus 0.1% (vol/vol) 2-mercaptoethanol and complete proteinase inhibitor mixture (Roche). In experiments using PSI, the cells were lysed in buffer A supplemented with 0.5% (wt/vol) SDS to obtain soluble and insoluble proteins. Lysates were centrifuged ($13,000 \times g$, 15 min, 4 $^{\circ}C$), and supernatants were removed, quick-frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at $-80^{\circ}C$.

In IL-10 blockade experiments, BMDM were stimulated with LPS alone or in the presence of neutralizing antibody to IL-10 or of an isotype control antibody (both at $1 \mu g/mL$); after 2 and 12 h, culture medium was collected (and stored at $-80^{\circ}C$), cells were lysed, and RNA was extracted using the Micro RNeasy kit (Qiagen; 74004).

Protein transfection in MEF and retroviral expression of macrophages were carried out as described (15, 24).

LPS/ β -Gal-Induced Endotoxic Shock. A combination of LPS (50 $\mu g/kg$ body weight) and β -Gal (1 g/kg body weight) was simultaneously injected intraperitoneally in 12-wk-old p38 $\gamma^{-/-}$, p38 $\delta^{-/-}$, p38 $\gamma/\delta^{-/-}$ (38) and control mice of both sexes. Plasma samples were collected for cytokine analysis 2 h after LPS injection, and mice were killed 36 h post injection.

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