RESEARCH ARTICLE

A keratan sulfate disaccharide prevents inflammation and the progression of emphysema in murine models


1Systems Glycobiology Research Group, RIKEN-Max Planck Joint Research Center for Systems Chemical Biology, Global Research Cluster, Hirosawa, Wako, Saitama, Japan; 2First Department of Medicine, Hokkaido University School of Medicine, Sapporo, Hokkaido, Japan; 3Department of Medicine and Biological Science, Gunma University Graduate School of Medicine, Gunma, Japan; 4Central Research Laboratories, Seikagaku Corporation, Higashiyamato, Tokyo, Japan; 5Faculty of Life Sciences, Kumamoto University, Kumamoto, Japan; 6University of Veterinary Medicine Hannover, Research Center for Emerging Infections and Zoonoses, Infection Immunology, Hannover, Germany; 7Department of Biomolecular Systems, Max Planck Institute of Colloids and Interfaces, Potsdam, Germany; 8Department of Biology, Chemistry and Pharmacy, Freie Universität Berlin, Berlin, Germany; 9Division of Pulmonary Medicine, Department of Medicine, Keio University, School of Medicine, Tokyo, Japan; and 10Respiratory Care Clinic, Nippon Medical School, Tokyo, Japan

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Gao C, Fujinawa R, Yoshida T, Ueno M, Ota F, Kizuka Y, Hirayama T, Korekane H, Kitazume S, Maeno T, Ohtsubo K, Yoshida K, Yamaguchi Y, Lepenies B, Aretz J, Rademacher C, Kabata H, Hegab AE, Seeberger PH, Betsuyaku T, Kida K, Taniguchi N. A keratan sulfate disaccharide prevents inflammation and the progression of emphysema in murine models. Am J Physiol Lung Cell Mol Physiol 312: L268–L276, 2017. First published December 21, 2016; doi:10.1152/ajplung.00151.2016.—Emphysema is a chronic and inflammatory airway disease. However, no effective treatment currently exists. Here, we show that keratan sulfate (KS), one of the major glycosaminoglycans produced in the small airway, decreased in lungs of cigarette smoke-exposed mice. To confirm the protective effect of KS in the small airway, a disaccharide repeating unit of KS designated L4 ([SO3-6-Galβ1–4-SO3-6-GlcNAc] was administered to two murine models: elastase-induced-emphysema and LPS-induced exacerbation of a cigarette smoke-induced emphysema. Histological and microcomputed tomography analyses revealed that, in the mouse elastase-induced-emphysema model, administration of L4 attenuated alveolar destruction. Treatment with L4 significantly reduced neutrophil influx, as well as the levels of inflammatory cytokines, tissue-degrading enzymes (matrix metalloproteinases), and myeloperoxidase in bronchoalveolar lavage fluid, suggesting that L4 suppressed inflammation in the lung. L4 consistently blocked the chemotactic migration of neutrophils in vitro. Moreover, in the case of the exacerbation model, L4 inhibited inflammatory cell accumulation to the same extent as that of dexamethasone. Taken together, L4 represents one of the potential glycan-based drugs for the treatment of COPD through its inhibitory action against inflammation.

CHRONIC OBSTRUCTIVE PULMONARY DISEASE (COPD), a disease characterized by irreversible airflow obstruction and alveolar destruction (23), is now a major worldwide health problem in terms of associated morbidity and mortality (24). COPD patients are more likely to develop a greater degree of inflammation in their airways due to bacterial or viral infections and air pollutants (11). Some phenotypes of COPD cause some patients to have frequent COPD episodes, resulting in a rapid deterioration in lung function and poor outcomes. These episodes of COPD are accompanied by extensive pathological changes to the lung. Inflammation, particularly of the small airways, is characterized by an accumulation of inflammatory cells, such as neutrophils, macrophages, and dendritic cells (2). These cells, along with airway epithelial cells, release reactive oxygen species, cytokines, chemokines, elastase, and matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs) that are responsible for the pathogenesis of COPD (2). Although pharmacology therapy is employed to control these symptoms, there is a pressing need to develop novel approaches for preventing the progression of airflow limitations and/or emphysema (11).

Glycans, which are functionally attached to various biomolecules, including proteins and lipids, play important roles in the interaction of cells with the surrounding extracellular matrix, which is important in a variety of physiological and pathological phenomena, including inflammation. In our previous studies, α1,6-fucosyltransferase (FUT8), a glycosylation enzyme that catalyzes the biosynthesis of a core fucose structure in N-glycans, was purified to homogeneity, and its cDNA was cloned (30). We found that Fut8-null mice developed emphysematous changes (32) and that a reduced level of core fucose results in an elevated sensitivity to cigarette smoke-induced emphysema in mice (8). FUT8 levels are also related to the...
outcome of human COPD patients, namely, the frequency of exacerbations and the decline of lung function, which are typical of COPD patients (16). Moreover, endogenous glycosaminoglycans (GAGs), including keratan sulfate (KS), hyaluronan, chondroitin sulfate/dermatan sulfate, and heparan sulfate/heparin, are expressed in the interstitium, the subepithelial tissue, the bronchial walls, and in airway secretions (20). GAGs play important roles in numerous biological functions, such as controlling growth, signal transduction, and cell adhesion (31). KS has been shown to inhibit the expression and activation of MMP-2 in corneal and skin explant cultures (13), suggesting that it may have protective effects from tissue damage. We recently reported that a KS disaccharide, L4 ([SO₃⁻]-6[Galβ1-4[SO₃⁻]-6]GlcNAc), specifically blocked the interaction of bacterial flagellin with Toll-like receptor 5 and subsequently suppressed the production of IL-8 in normal human bronchial epithelial (NHBE) cells (27). In addition, L4 was also reported to suppress the production of IL-12 in macrophages that had been stimulated with LPS (33). The fact that KS is located at the apical border of NHBE cells and on the apical surface of ciliated cells in human tracheal tissue sections (20) suggests that it could be one of the substances that interact with inflammatory cells at an early stage in the process of inflammation.

Here, we report that L4 protects the lung from destruction by reducing the influx of inflammatory cells and decreasing the levels of inflammatory cytokines and MMPs, in the inflammatory process of emphysema or its exacerbation model in mice.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

**Materials.** LPS-free L4, [SO₃⁻]-6[Galβ1-4[SO₃⁻]-6]GlcNAc, was isolated from the digest of KS from shark fins with keratanase II, as previously described (33). Porcine pancreatic elastase (PPE) was obtained from Wako (Osaka, Japan). Other reagents and chemicals were obtained from commercial sources as indicated.

**Cell cultures.** The murine macrophage cell line RAW 264.7 was purchased from American Type Culture Collection (Manassas, VA) and cultured in DMEM (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO), supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS), 100 U/ml penicillin, and 100 μg/ml streptomycin. Cells were maintained at 37°C in a humidified incubator containing 5% CO₂.

**Mice.** C57BL/6J mice were purchased from Oriental Yeast (Tokyo, Japan). The mice were housed under a 12:12-h light-dark cycle, fed standard chow, and given free access to food and water. All experimental protocols and procedures were approved by the Ethical Committee on Animal Research of the Hokkaido University School of Medicine and were performed in compliance with the Institutional Guidelines for Animal Experiments of RIKEN.

**PPE-induced emphysema model.** PPE (5 U; Wako), dissolved in 100 μl of sterile PBS or PBS alone, was sprayed into the tracheas of each mouse using a MicroSprayer drug delivery device (Penn-Century, Philadelphia, PA), as described previously (28).

**Cigarette smoke exposure and LPS-induced exacerbation model.** Cigarette smoke exposure was performed on C57BL/6J heterozygous mice (32) using two unfiltered Kentucky cigarettes per day, 6 days per week for 3 mo, as described previously (8). LPS was administered after the completion of the cigarette smoke exposure. LPS (1 mg/kg) (Sigma-Aldrich), dissolved in 100 μl of PBS, was sprayed into the tracheas of each mouse using the MicroSprayer drug delivery device.

**mRNA extraction, reverse transcription, and real-time PCR.** Total RNAs were extracted from mouse lungs using TRIzol (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA) and then purified using an RNaseasy kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany), according to the manufacturers’ protocols. Total RNA (0.5 μg) was reverse-transcribed using a SuperScript III First-Strand Synthesis System (Thermo Fisher Scientific). For real-time PCR, cDNA was mixed with Thunderbird SYBR qPCR Mix (Toyobo, Osaka, Japan) and amplified using an ABI PRISM 7900HT. The levels of Chst1 and Chst5 mRNAs were normalized to the corresponding levels of Rpl4. Primers for Chst1, Chst2, and Chst5 were purchased from Qiagen (Mm_Chst1_1_SG, Mm_Chst2_1_SG and Mm_Chst5_1_SG). Primers for Rpl4 were 5’-GTCTAAAGCTCTCAATTCCGAC-3’ and 5’-ATTCATCTGACCCATAGG-3’.

**Tissue preparation and histological analysis.** On completion of the experimental protocol, mice were euthanized by CO₂ inhalation. Lungs were inflated by instilling 10% formalin at a constant pressure of 25 cm H₂O for 10 min, and the inflated lungs were fixed for 24 h. Serial midsagittal sections were obtained for morphological and histological analyses. After fixation, the paraffin-embedded tissues were sectioned (5 μm) and stained with hematoxylin and eosin. For histological analyses, Serial midsagittal sections were obtained for morphological and histological analyses. After fixation, the paraffin-embedded tissues were sectioned (5 μm) and stained with hematoxylin and eosin. Mean linear intercepts (Lm) were calculated on the basis of 20 randomly selected fields in each section at ×100 magnification with two crossed test lines (18). Rabbit-anti-KS (5D4) (Seikagaku, Tokyo, Japan), rabbit-anti-protamine C (Merck-Millipore, Darmstadt, Germany) antibodies were used in immunofluorescence staining, as described previously (9). DAPI was added to stain nuclei.

**L4 administration.** To assess the anti-inflammatory effect of L4, L4 (250 μg/body) suspended in 50 μl of saline or 50 μl of saline alone was intravenously administered at 0.5 h before intratracheal PPE treatment. The mice were euthanized by CO₂ narcosis at 24 h after PPE treatment, and tissue sampling was performed. For the suppressive effects of L4 on air space enlargement due to PPE treatment, L4 was administered intravenously on two further occasions, i.e., 250 μg/mouse at 24 h and 125 μg/mouse at 48 h post-PPE treatment. The intratracheal administration of L4 was also attempted. Administration of 1, 0.3, or 0.1 mg of L4 per mouse (1 mg, unless otherwise specified) occurred 1 day before the PPE treatment (4 U). Bronchoalveolar lavage (BAL) fluid was collected using the same procedure that was used for intravenous administration. xxxMicro-computer tomography assessment was included to analyze the destruction of alveolar compartments, as reported previously (18).

**Dexamethasone administration.** Mice were administered 1 mg of L4 or 3.9 mg/kg of dexamethasone (DEX) sodium phosphate (Soltoc; Fujipharma, Tokyo, Japan), corresponding to 3 mg/kg as dexamethasone, according to manufacturer’s instructions, was administered 1 day after the LPS treatment. Seven days later, BAL fluid was collected for analysis using the same procedure as that used in the case of intravenous administration.

**Migration assay.** Neutrophils from mouse bone marrow were purified using a discontinuous Percoll gradient, as described previously (3). Cells were then washed and resuspended in Hank’s balanced salt solution. Cells were first treated with 1 mg/ml of L4 or PBS at 37°C for 30 min. A total of 1 × 10⁶ cells were plated on a 3-μm-pore size membrane of cell culture inserts (Merck-Millipore), and the lower well of the migration plate contained 500 μl of medium with or without 1 × 10⁻⁵ M N-formyl-methionyl-leucyl-phenylalanine (fMLP) (Sigma-Aldrich). The 24-well migration plate was incubated at 37°C for 90 min in a 5% CO₂ humidified atmosphere. After incubation, the filter was stained with Diff-Quik (International Reagents, Kobe, Japan), and the number of migrated cells on the undersurface of the filter was counted in five random high-power fields (×400). Experiments were performed in triplicate.

**BAL fluid analysis.** BAL fluid was retrieved via a 22-gauge intravenous catheter inserted into the trachea of mice. Total cell counts of the BAL fluid were determined with a hemocytometer after the destruction of red blood cells. Cell subsets in the BAL fluid were examined by cytospin preparation staining with Hema3 (Biochemical Sciences, Swedesboro, NJ) or Diff-Quik reagent (Sysmex Interna-
tional Reagents, Kobe, Japan). Differential counts were performed by examining ~300 cells with a standard light microscope. Myeloperoxidase (MPO) activity in BAL fluid was measured as described previously (21).

ELISA for cytokines. Cytokines (IL-6 and TNF-α) in BAL (at day 1 shown in Fig. 2C) were quantified using a Mouse IL-6 ELISA Ready-SET-Go! (eBioscience, San Diego, CA) and Mouse TNF-α ELISA Ready-SET-Go! (eBioscience), respectively, according to the manufacturer’s protocol.

L4 quantification in BAL and blood. BAL or plasma was diluted with water and then boiled for 5 min. After an equal volume of phenol-chloroform was added and followed with being vortexed for 30 s, the samples were centrifuged at 20,000 g for 15 min at room temperature. The supernatant was transferred to Amicon Ultra-0.5 ml 10K (Merck Millipore) and then centrifuged at 14,000 g for 30 min at 4°C. After filtration (0.22 μm), the samples were injected into HPLC (Prominence; Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan). Separation of L4 in reverse-phase HPLC and postcolumn fluorescent labeling with cyanocnamide was performed according to a previous report (29) with modifications. Unison UK-Amino 150 × 4.6 mm column (Intakt, Kyoto, Japan) was used for this separation. The HPLC eluents used were A: 2.5% ethanol; B: 2.5% ethanol, 800 mM Na2SO4. The gradient program (flow rate: 0.4 ml/min) was 0–30 min, 0–25% eluent B; 30–40 min, 50% eluent B. 2-Cyanoacetamide (2%) in 50 mM Na2B4O7, pH 9.7, was added to the effluent at 0.225 ml/min, and the mixture was passed through a dry reaction bath (DB-5; Shimamura Instrument, Tokyo, Japan) at 145°C for 5 min. Fluorescence (ex/em, 331/383 nm) of the labeled L4 was detected.

Zymography. Mouse BAL fluid was assessed by gelatin zymography. To semi-quantify gelatinolytic activities, gel images were captured using a Scan Jet II ex/T (Hewlett-Packard, Palo Alto, CA), and band intensities were calculated using National Institutes of Health Image software (Image J, version 1.54, ML), as described previously (22). Relative intensities of zymography were described previously (29) with modifications. Unison UK-Amino 150 × 4.6 mm column (Intakt, Kyoto, Japan) was used for this separation. The HPLC eluents used were A: 2.5% ethanol; B: 2.5% ethanol, 800 mM Na2SO4. The gradient program (flow rate: 0.4 ml/min) was 0–30 min, 0–25% eluent B; 30–40 min, 50% eluent B. 2-Cyanoacetamide (2%) in 50 mM Na2B4O7, pH 9.7, was added to the effluent at 0.225 ml/min, and the mixture was passed through a dry reaction bath (DB-5; Shimamura Instrument, Tokyo, Japan) at 145°C for 5 min. Fluorescence (ex/em, 331/383 nm) of the labeled L4 was detected.

Quenched fluorescent assay against generic MMP activity. Culture supernatants of RAW 264.7 cells were used as an enzyme source. The altered total MMP activity was examined directly by cleavage of the quenched fluorescent substrate Dnp-Pro-β-cyclohexyl-Ala-Gly-Cys(Me)-His-Ala-Lys(N-Me-2-aminobenzoyl)-NH2 (Calbiochem, San Diego, CA), with various types of MMPs. The altered total MMP activity was examined directly by cleavage of the quenched fluorescent substrate Dnp-Pro-β-cyclohexyl-Ala-Gly-Cys(Me)-His-Ala-Lys(N-Me-2-aminobenzoyl)-NH2 (Calbiochem, San Diego, CA), with various types of MMPs. The altered total MMP activity was examined directly by cleavage of the quenched fluorescent substrate Dnp-Pro-β-cyclohexyl-Ala-Gly-Cys(Me)-His-Ala-Lys(N-Me-2-aminobenzoyl)-NH2 (Calbiochem, San Diego, CA), with various types of MMPs. The altered total MMP activity was examined directly by cleavage of the quenched fluorescent substrate Dnp-Pro-β-cyclohexyl-Ala-Gly-Cys(Me)-His-Ala-Lys(N-Me-2-aminobenzoyl)-NH2 (Calbiochem, San Diego, CA), with various types of MMPs. The altered total MMP activity was examined directly by cleavage of the quenched fluorescent substrate Dnp-Pro-β-cyclohexyl-Ala-Gly-Cys(Me)-His-Ala-Lys(N-Me-2-aminobenzoyl)-NH2 (Calbiochem, San Diego, CA), with various types of MMPs. The altered total MMP activity was examined directly by cleavage of the quenched fluorescent substrate Dnp-Pro-β-cyclohexyl-Ala-Gly-Cys(Me)-His-Ala-Lys(N-Me-2-aminobenzoyl)-NH2 (Calbiochem, San Diego, CA), with various types of MMPs. The altered total MMP activity was examined directly by cleavage of the quenched fluorescent substrate Dnp-Pro-β-cyclohexyl-Ala-Gly-Cys(Me)-His-Ala-Lys(N-Me-2-aminobenzoyl)-NH2 (Calbiochem, San Diego, CA), with various types of MMPs.

Microcomputer tomography assessment of emphysema. PPE-treated mice or corresponding control mice were scanned by microcomputer tomography (micro-CT), and density histograms were created from all the transaxial micro-CT images (Hitachi Aloka Medical, Mitaka, Japan) within the lung fields, as described previously (18). Low-attenuation area (LAA) thresholds were set in the range ~871 to ~610 Hounsfield units, and LAA% was calculated using the ratio of the LAA volume to the total lung volume. The LAA% was used to assess the progress of alveolar destruction.

Data presentation and statistical analysis. Data are expressed as the means ± SE unless otherwise indicated, and the Student’s t-test was used to compare two groups. The Tukey-Kramer method and the Type error method using the StatView J 5.0 System software (SAS Institute, Cary, NC) were used to compare three or more groups. Statistical significance was set at P < 0.05 and P < 0.01.

RESULTS

KS levels in lungs are diminished in mice exposed to cigarette smoke. KS is the most abundant GAG present in the airway mucus, and cells in the surface epithelium are responsible for the synthesis and release of KS or KS-like molecules into airway secretions. To study the biological function of KS in lung injuries, we examined its expression in mouse lung by using an anti-KS (5D4) antibody. We examined KS levels in normal and 3-smoke-exposed mouse lungs. Histological sections of lungs stained with the anti-KS antibody and with a marker for type I (aquaporin-5) or type II (surfactant protein-C) pneumocytes showed that KS (shown in red) is expressed in endothelial cells (Fig. 1A), immune cells (Fig. 1, B and C), and in fibroblasts (Fig. 1D), but not in lung epithelial cells (shown in green). After a 3-smoke exposure, although signals in endothelial cells partially remained in some areas (Fig. 1E), KS

Fig. 1. Keratan sulfate (KS) is decreased by cigarette smoking. A–G: histological sections of murine lungs were fluorescently stained for KS using anti-KS (5D4) antibody (red), surfactant protein-C (a marker for type II pneumocyte) (A, C–G; green) or aquaporin-5 (a marker for type I pneumocyte) (B; green), and for nuclei using DAPI (blue). 5D4 reactivity was observed in endothelial cells (A, E), immune cells (B, C), and fibroblasts (D), as indicated by arrowheads. Scale bar: 50 μm. H: mRNA levels of Chst1 and Chst5 genes relative to that of Rpl4 in lung from control or 3-smoke-exposed mice were quantified (n = 6). Chst2 mRNA encoding another sulfotransferase for KS was undetectable in mouse lung. All graphs show means ± SE, and statistical analyses were performed using Student’s t-test. *P < 0.05.
expression in the lung was largely reduced (Fig. 1, F and G). To further examine the issue of whether KS expression is altered by smoking, we focused on the three KS sulfotransferases: KGal6ST, encoded by Chst1 (5); GlcNAc6ST-1, encoded by Chst2 (34); and GlcNAc6ST-3, encoded by Chst5 (1), which are responsible for KS biosynthesis. Real-time PCR analyses found that mRNA level of Chst1 in mouse lungs was decreased by cigarette-smoking (Fig. 1H), further indicating that KS expression is downregulated by smoking. These findings suggest that the decreased level of KS may be related to lung injury and that lung KS may have a protective function under normal physiological conditions.

L4 treatment attenuates early lung inflammation in a PPE-induced emphysema mouse model. We next investigated the effect of L4 on neutrophil migration, because neutrophil influx is implicated in lung inflammation and the development of COPD (10, 26). Neutrophils were isolated from mouse bone marrow tissue and subjected to a chemotaxis assay. There were six times as many cells as controls that migrated to the lower wells containing the chemoattractant fMLP, and cells that were pretreated with 1 mg/ml L4 demonstrated a 50% decrease in migration (Fig. 2, A and B). This suggests that L4 has the capacity to suppress neutrophil-mediated inflammation. On the basis of these findings, we tested L4 in an elastase-induced emphysema mouse model (Fig. 2C). An analysis of BAL fluid indicated that an intravenous L4 pretreatment resulted in a significant decrease in the influx of inflammatory cells, especially neutrophils and macrophages (Fig. 2D) and that this effect was L4-dose-dependent (Fig. 2E). In accordance with the decrease of neutrophils in BAL fluid, activity of antimicrobial enzyme MPO in BAL, which is induced by a 24-h period of PPE administration, was significantly decreased by L4 pretreatment (Fig. 2F). We also confirmed the reduction in inflammatory cytokines (IL-6 and TNF-α) in BAL (Fig. 2G). These data suggest that L4 blocks both immune cell migration and subsequent inflammation in the lung.

![](https://example.com/figure2.png)

Fig. 2. L4 ([SO$_3$-$\beta$]Gal[$\alpha$-1-4][SO$_3$-$\beta$]GlcNAc) treatment inhibits inflammatory outcomes in elastase-induced acute lung inflammation. A: chemotaxis of purified neutrophils was determined. Cells that had migrated to the lower surface of the membrane were fixed and stained with Diff-Quik. Representative fields of cell migration were photographed using a phase-contrast microscope. The purple color indicates cells that had migrated. B: numbers of migrated cells were quantified (n = 3). C: protocols for the treatment of animals. L4 was administered intratracheally (E, G) or intravenously (O, F). D: after the administration of L4 and porcine pancreatic elastase (PPE), the numbers of total cells, neutrophils, and macrophages in bronchoalveolar lavage (BAL) fluid were determined (n = 5, 13, 16 for untreated, saline pretreatment, and L4 pretreatment, respectively). E: total cell numbers in BAL fluid (n = 6), after the administration of PPE and various doses of L4 (intratracheal). F: MPO activity in BAL fluid was measured (n = 5, 13, 16 for untreated, saline pretreatment, and L4 pretreatment, respectively). G: levels of IL-6 and TNF-α in BAL (n = 7, 11 for PBS and L4 treatment, respectively). All graphs show means ± SE, and statistical analyses were performed using the Tukey-Kramer method for multiple comparisons or Student’s t-test for two groups. *P < 0.05 and **P < 0.01.
To confirm that intratracheally administered L4 reaches alveoli, we quantified the L4 levels in mouse BAL and plasma after an L4 administration. We established a quantification method for L4 using HPLC, in which exogenously L4 was added to untreated mouse plasma or BAL, which was recovered with good linearity (Fig. 3A). By using this method, after intratracheal administration, L4 was detected in BAL fluid (Fig. 3B) and, subsequently, in plasma (Fig. 3C) with a half-life of 45 and 129 min, respectively, showing that intratracheally administered L4 does, in fact, reach alveoli.

**L4 treatment decreases MMP-2 and MMP-9 in BAL fluid in a PPE-induced emphysema mouse model.** We also examined whether L4 had an inhibitory effect on MMP production or activity in the lung. Activity of MMP-2 and MMP-9 in BAL fluid from elastase-induced emphysema model mice were analyzed by gelatin zymography. In this model, both MMP-2 and MMP-9 levels were significantly elevated in BAL fluid at 24 h after PPE administration, and we found that an L4 pretreatment decreased the gelatinolytic activities of MMP-2 and MMP-9 in BAL fluid (Fig. 4, A and B). Moreover, a quenched fluorescence assay for MMP-9 activity was done on BAL fluid. The level of MMP-9 activities in the L4-pretreated mice was only one-third that for the PBS-treated mice (Fig. 4C). Similar results were obtained using culture medium from a mouse macrophage cell line, RAW 264.7, as an enzyme source of MMP. Treatment with 1 mg/ml solution of L4 reduced generic MMP activity to ~70% of the control (Fig. 4D). Although a commercial MMP inhibitor, GM6001 (25 µM), showed a stronger inhibition on MMP activity, other disaccharides LacNAc and lactose did not inhibit MMP activity.

**L4 treatment reduces the PPE-induced enlargement of air space in mice.** We next examined the therapeutic effect of L4 on lung destruction. Histochemical analyses of lung tissue were performed on day 14 or 21 after the intratracheal administration of PPE (Fig. 5A). Examination of histological sections showed that PPE induced a significant enlargement of the air space due to the destruction of alveolar walls. The use of the Lm as a measure of the average distance between alveolar walls provides an indication of the severity of emphysema. This value was significantly reduced in animals that had been pretreated intravenously with L4 (72 ± 3.8 vs. 86 ± 3.5 µm in saline-treated mice) (Fig. 5B).

We next administered L4 intratracheally, a much more direct method of delivery (Fig. 5C), and, therefore, much easier for patients to receive if this therapy were applied clinically. The progression of emphysema was evaluated using micro-CT, which allows a quantitative assessment to be made in living mice and humans (7). Reconstructed three-dimensional structure images of the murine lung (day 21) clearly showed that the area of emphysema (shown in yellow) was reduced as the result of the L4 pretreatment (Fig. 5D, left). LAA % was calculated as the ratio of LAA to the total lung area. We found a significant decrease in LAA % in the L4-pretreated mice at days 7, 14, and 21 (Fig. 5D, right). These data show that L4 was effective in reducing alveolar destruction in the PPE-induced lung injury.

**L4 treatment is as effective as dexamethasone in inhibiting LPS-induced inflammation in cigarette smoke-exposed mice.** We finally evaluated whether or not L4 also inhibits LPS-induced inflammation. For this purpose, we used Fut8-heterozygous (Fut8+/−) mice, which were previously found to develop emphysema easily after a 3-mo period of exposure to cigarette smoke (8). After an LPS treatment to cigarette smoke-exposed mice, L4 (1 mg/mouse, intratracheally) or DEX (intravenously) was administered, and BAL fluid was collected and assayed on day 7, as shown in Fig. 6A. L4 reduced the accumulation of inflammatory cells, including macrophages and neutrophils, in the alveolar space to about half of that in mice that had been treated with saline only. Moreover, the effect of L4 was nearly the same as that of DEX (Fig. 6B), an anti-inflammatory agent that is widely used to treat COPD patients with exacerbations.

**DISCUSSION**

Since an inflammatory event is one of the most important factors triggering the onset and/or progression of COPD (12), a clear understanding of changes in lung GAGs and of their pathological significance represents a potentially novel ap-
approach to the design of therapeutic strategies for the treatment of COPD.

A reduction in KS frequently occurs in association with inflammation (14). The biosynthesis of KS is a complicated process, which includes two kinds of enzymes: glycosyl- and sulfo-transferases (6). We found that a KS sulfotransferase (Chst1 encoding KSGal6ST) was downregulated in mouse lung by cigarette smoking (Fig. 1H), but the possibility that other mechanisms are also involved in the reduction of KS cannot be excluded. As KS is typically not found to be a free ...

Fig. 4. L4 treatment decreases matrix metalloproteinase (MMP)-2 and MMP-9 activity in BAL. Mice were divided into three groups as in the case of Fig. 2. D and F: PPE-untreated or PPE-treated group with pretreatment of saline or L4. A: gelatin zymography was performed on BAL fluid collected from all of the mice at 24 h after PPE administration. B: band intensity of MMP-2 and MMP-9 were semiquantified (*n = 5, 13, 16 for untreated, saline pretreatment, and L4 pretreatment, respectively). C: MMP-9 enzyme activity in BAL fluid was measured using SensoLyte 520 MMP-9 fluorimetric assay kit (Anaspec, Freemont, CA) (*n = 5). D: total MMP activities from culture media of RAW 264.7 cells. In addition to L4, other oligosaccharides (LacNAc and lactose) were used as negative controls. GM6001, an MMP inhibitor, was used as a positive control. The MMP activities relative to that of untreated cell culture medium are shown (*n = 3). All graphs are means ± SE, and statistical analyses were performed using the Tukey-Kramer method for multiple comparisons or Student’s t-test for two groups. *P < 0.05 and **P < 0.01.

Fig. 5. L4 treatment attenuates PPE-induced alveolar damage. A: mice were treated intravenously with saline or L4 three times. B: hematoxylin and eosin-stained sections were used for morphological analyses. Representative images of lungs from PPE-untreated, saline pretreatment, or L4 pretreatment groups on day 21 after PPE administration are shown (left). Original magnification is ×200. Scale bar: 200 µm. Mean linear intercepts (Lm) of alveoli on day 21 is shown (right) (*n = 5, 9, and 9 for untreated, saline-pretreated, and L4-pretreated groups, respectively). C: mice were treated intratracheally with PBS or L4 (1 mg/mouse) at 24 h before intratracheal PPE (4 U/mouse) inhalation. The progress of the emphysema was then monitored by micro-computer tomography (micro-CT). D: three-dimensional lung images (day 21) in which the low attenuation area (LAA) is shown in yellow, and the whole lung field is shown as a transparent shape. Original magnification is ×200. Scale bar: 200 µm. Mean linear intercepts (Lm) of alveoli on day 21 is shown (right) (*n = 5 and 6 for PBS-pretreated and L4-pretreated, respectively). Statistical tests were performed between the PBS and L4 groups at each time point. All graphs are means ± SE, and statistical analyses were performed using the Tukey-Kramer method for multiple comparisons or Student’s t-test for two groups. *P < 0.05 and **P < 0.01.
GAG, most of its biological functions are considered to be associated with KS proteoglycans, such as lumican and related structures in the human lung (4). Therefore, inflammation-induced KS-linked protein degradation may be partly responsible for the reduction in KS. Although the reasons why KS levels are diminished by cigarette smoke are not completely clear at present, the KS reduction is an important factor in plotting a course for creating a glycan-based therapeutics for lung disease.

L4 was found to be effective in attenuating the inflammation processes in mice in the present study (Fig. 2). By suppressing excessive immune responses, the L4 treatment exerted protective effects against alveolar inflammation, as well as alveolar destruction. Although anti-inflammatory corticosteroids are widely used for persistent or acute exacerbations of COPD, the worse outcomes and adverse effects of corticosteroids against alveolar inflammation, as well as alveolar destruction. More importantly, L4 reduced the influx of inflammatory cells and the subsequent production of cytokines and proteolytic enzymes, which may play an important role in alveolar destruction. Moreover, L4 reduced the influx of inflammatory cells and the subsequent production of cytokines and proteolytic enzymes. It is noteworthy that L4 has similar efficacy to that of dexamethasone, as shown in Fig. 6, suggesting that the L4 would be an effective therapy for the steroid-resistant COPD patients (15).

MMP-2 and MMP-9 activities were reduced in BAL fluid as the result of L4 administration, although the mechanism by which MMP activities are downregulated is unclear. It is possible that the decreased numbers of inflammatory cells partly contribute to this. On the other hand, as lumican has been shown to inhibit MMP-14 activity (25), there is an undeniable possibility that there is a direct interaction between KS and MMPs. An earlier report on the chondroitin sulfate proteoglycan (20) indicated that GAGs regulate the activity of MMPs at extracellular sites, where substrate degradation and matrix remodeling occur. It was suggested that the specificity of protein–GAG interactions is governed by ionic attractions between sulfate and carboxylate groups of GAGs, with the basic amino acids on the protein, as well as the optimal structural fit of the GAG chain into the binding site of the protein (31).

L4 is indicated to significantly reduce fMLP-mediated neutrophil migration. In contrast, L4 did not directly inhibit the production of reactive oxygen species or MPO activity in neutrophils in vitro (Ota F Kizuka Y, Taniguchi N, unpublished results). Considering these results, one of anti-inflammatory actions of L4 likely involves the blockade of neutrophil migration. As the exposure of neutrophils to fMLP induced an immediate polarization, which resulted in directional migration, preincubation of L4 may interfere with this process via reducing phosphorylation and surface distribution of membrane proteins, or decreasing the activation of MAP kinases of neutrophil. Determining how L4 blocks neutrophil migration and how L4 suppresses inflammation in vivo is an important focus of our next project.

Although the concentration of L4 used in this study was ~250 μg/mouse, which is ~4 mM, no adverse effects were found in vivo and in vitro. Our data showed that the half-life of L4 is ~129 min in blood (Fig. 3C) and that one to three injections of L4 in the experimental model mice were found to be effective. Attempts to identify more stable, longer-acting, lower-dose L4 derivatives will provide a significant challenge for future studies, and suitable protocols for the dosage and frequency of L4 administration are required to establish more effective treatments for COPD exacerbations.

During the progress of COPD, cigarette smoking, viruses and bacteria, and air pollutants will induce inflammation and MMP production from various lung cells (e.g., neutrophils, macrophages, and lung epithelial cells). We showed that L4 suppresses both directly and indirectly the MMP enzyme activity (Fig. 4), which may play an important role in alveolar destruction. More importantly, L4 reduced the influx of inflammatory cells and the subsequent production of cytokines and MPO, and directly inhibited neutrophil migration. This might be due to interference with the polarization of neutrophils (e.g., the expression pattern of β2-integrin). As L4 was suggested to have a proinflammatory cytokine-like function (19), the reduction in MPO activity could partially contribute to the anti-inflammatory action of L4. Moreover, we previously reported that L4 has inhibitory activity on flagellin-induced IL-8 production, which is known to be chemotactrant of inflammatory cells. Therefore, it appears that L4 functions to attenuate emphysema through its multiple anti-inflammatory activ-
ITIES (Fig. 7). Our next important challenge will be to identify a direct target protein (receptor) of L4, which can mediate glycancharged COPD therapy.

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Disclosures

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