Cysteinyl Leukotrienes and Their Receptors; Emerging Concepts

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Cysteinyl leukotrienes (cys-LTs) are potent mediators of inflammation derived from arachidonic acid through the 5-lipoxygenase/leukotriene C synthase pathway. The derivation of their chemical structures and identification of their pharmacologic properties predated the cloning of their classical receptors and the development of drugs that modify their synthesis and actions. Recent studies have revealed unanticipated insights into the regulation of cys-LT synthesis, the function of the cys-LTs in innate and adaptive immunity and human disease, and the identification of a new receptor for the cys-LTs. This review highlights these studies and summarizes their potential pathobiologic and therapeutic implications.

Key Words: Leukotrienes; 5-lipoxygenase; asthma; AERD

INTRODUCTION

Leukotrienes are lipid mediators generated from arachidonic acid through the 5-lipoxygenase (5-LO) pathway. They are named for their cells of origin (leukocytes) and the presence of three positionally conserved double bonds (triens). The 2 classes of leukotrienes, cysteinyl leukotrienes (cys-LTs) and leukotriene B (LTB), have broad array of bioactivities and cellular targets. Both 5-LO inhibitors and cys-LT receptor antagonists are useful for the treatment of asthma and rhinitis.1,2 Recently studies using molecular approaches have demonstrated that cys-LTs possess multiple cell targets and immunologic functions, and act through a receptor system far more complex than previously anticipated. This review highlights these recent studies, and will consider their potential pathobiologic and therapeutic implications.

Regulation of leukotriene synthesis

Leukotriene synthesis is initiated during the activation of leukocytes, when arachidonic acid is liberated from the membrane phospholipids by a cytosolic phospholipase A.3 5-LO activating protein presents arachidonic acid to 5-LO, which catalyzes the formation of 5-hydroperoxyeicosatetraenoic acid and then the unstable epoxide LTA.4 In mast cells, macrophages, eosinophils, and basophils, LTC, synthase (LTC,S) conjugates LTA, to reduced glutathione, forming LTC, the parent of the cys-LTs.6 Once formed, LTC, is transported to extracellular space via the ATP-binding cassette (ABC) transporters-1 and-4 and then metabolized to LTD, and LTE, by γ-glutamyl transpeptidases and dipeptidases, respectively. The rapid extracellular metabolism of LTC, and LTD, results in short biologic half-lives relative to the stable mediator LTE, which is abundant and readily detected in biologic fluids. In neutrophils, LTA, is hydrolyzed by a cytosolic LTA, hydrolase enzyme to form LTB, a dihydroxy leukotriene that is a potent chemoattractant for neutrophils and monocytes.7

5-LO activity is substantially upregulated when granulocytes are exposed ex vivo to hematopoietic cytokines such as GM-CSF or (in the case of eosinophils) IL-5.8,10 In cord blood-derived human mast cells, IL-3 and IL-5 enhance the function of 5-LO by inducing its import from the cytosol to the nucleoplasm, whereas IL-4 potently induces expression and function of LTC,S.12 LTC,S enzymatic function can be inhibited by protein kinase C (PKC)-dependent phosphorylation, which can limit the generation of cys-LTs ex vivo.13 5-LO activity is suppressed by stimuli that induce cyclic adenosine monophosphate (cAMP) accumulation, leading to serine phosphorylation of 5-LO by cAMP-dependent protein kinase A (PKA).14 These in vitro studies suggest that LT production is tightly regulated by

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the microenvironment and intracellular phosphorylation events, with mechanisms that can respectively enhance and limit the expression and function of the critical metabolic enzymes dependent on context.

**Cysteiny] Leukotriene receptors**

Early pharmacologic profiling studies predicted the existence of at least 2 cys-LT receptors in mammalian tissues. The molecular characterization of the classical G protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs) partially reconciled this pharmacology. The type 1 cys-LT receptor, CysLT₁R, is a high-affinity receptor for LTD₄, and the target of antagonists (Montelukast, Zafirlukast, and Pranlukast) that are used for the management of asthma. The cloned human CysLT₁R gene encodes a GPCR of 339 amino acids. Human CysLT₁R mRNA is expressed in bronchial smooth muscle and substantially in myeloid cells, such as macrophages and mast cells. The human CysLT₁R is 38% identical to CysLT₂R in amino acid sequence. CysLT₂R binds LTC₄ and LTD₄ with equal affinity, and binds LTD₄ with affinity one-log less than CysLT₁R. CysLT₄R is resistant to Montelukast, and is expressed both on cells that also express CysLT₂R (e.g., myeloid cells, smooth muscle), as well as endothelial cells, cardiac Purkinje cells, adrenal medulla, and brain. The incompletely overlapping distribution of the 2 classical receptors for cys-LTs suggests that they have both complementary and distinct functions.

In contrast to their affinities for LTC₄ and LTD₄, the cloned CysLT₁R and CysLT₂R receptors display trivial binding affinity for the stable metabolite LTE₄. Nonetheless, studies of human tracheal explants and guinea pig tracheal rings had predicted the existence of a third cys-LT receptor with a preference for LTE₄. LTE₄ also was equipotent to its precursors for inducing wheal and flare responses when injected intradermally into humans. Recently GPR99, previously reported as an oxyglutarate receptor, was identified as a potential LTE₄ receptor. LTE₄ binds and activates GPR99 at low nM range concentrations in transfected cells, and resists blockade by MK571, a prototype CysLT₁R antagonist. The ability of LTE₄ to induce cutaneous vascular permeability in mice depends largely on the presence of GPR99. GPR99 mRNA is expressed strongly by kidney and smooth muscle. Precise definition of its cellular distribution awaits the development of suitable antibody reagents, and its role in allergic inflammation is to be determined.

**Regulation of cysteiny] leukotriene receptor function**

As is the case for the cys-LT synthesis, cellular responsiveness to cys-LTs can be modulated both by exogenous stimuli and intracellular phosphorylation events. IL-4 and IL-13 upregulate the expression and function of CysLT₁R by human peripheral blood monocytes and monocyte-derived macrophages, but not IL-4, upregulates CysLT₁R expression as well in human monocytes. IL-13 and transforming growth factor beta induce CysLT₁R expression by human bronchial smooth muscle cells.

The expression and function of CysLT₁R is also controlled by PKA- or PKC-dependent phosphorylation and desensitization. PKC mediates ligand-induced internalization of CysLT₁R following stimulation with LTD₄. PKC activation by members of the purinergic (P2Y) family of GPCRs, which are homologous to the cys-LT receptors, can induce heterologous, PKC-dependent phosphorylation and desensitization of CysLT₁R without causing its internalization. Since nucleotides, the natural ligands for P2Y receptors, are released in large quantities during acute inflammatory responses, signaling through the cognate P2Y receptors may limit potentially deleterious effects of CysLT₁R signaling in cells that express both classes of receptors (Figure). Moreover, the overlap in the cytokines (IL-4) and protein kinases (PKA, PKC) that respectively enhance and suppress the functions of the synthetic and receptor systems suggest that cys-LT production may be regulated in parallel with end-organ responsiveness.

CysLT₁R functions can also be regulated by direct physical interactions with other GPCRs. CysLT₁R and CysLT₂R heterodimerize in cultured human mast cells. The presence of CysLT₁R limits the levels of membrane expression of CysLT₂R, and dampens the capacity of CysLT₂R to induce phosphorylation of extracellular signal regulated kinase and proliferation in this cell type. GPR17, a GPCR homologous to CysLT₁R and CysLT₂R, was originally “deorphanized” as a dual-specific receptor for cys-LTs and uracil nucleotides. However, we and others could not reproduce GPR17 activation by either ligand type in various assay systems. Instead, GPR17 functions as a negative regulator of LTD₄-mediated CysLT₁R activation, and markedly reduces binding of LTD₄ when the two receptors are co-expressed in cell lines. Accordingly, mice lacking GPR17 (Gpr17–/– mice) showed markedly enhanced CysLT₁R-dependent tis-
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Asthma and rhinitis

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asthma does not correlate with the numbers of CysLT1R- or CysLT2R-expressing cells in bronchial biopsies. It is tempting to speculate that non-classical receptors, such as GPR99, may account for a component of the end organ responsiveness to cys-LTs (particularly to LTE4) observed in AERD.

Understanding functions of the cys-LTs and their receptors in mice

The development of mice lacking LTC4S (Ltc4s−/−), CysLT1R (Cysltr1−/−), CysLT2R (Cysltr2−/−), and both receptors (Cysltr1/Cysltr2−/−) has permitted in-depth studies of the role of cys-LTs in immune and inflammatory responses. These studies have revealed complex and, in some instances, unanticipated functions for cys-LTs and their receptors in a variety of biologic responses detailed below.

Vascular leak

In a mast cell and IgE-dependent model of passive cutaneous anaphylaxis, Ltc4s−/− mice displayed reductions in ear skin swelling of ~50% compared to wild-type (WT) mice. Intraportal injections of zymosan, a yeast cell wall glycan that elicits LTC4 generation from macrophages, induced vascular leak that was reduced in both the Ltc4s−/− and Cysltr1−/− strains by ~50% compared with WT controls. The responses of Cysltr2−/− mice were equivalent to those of WT controls. Thus, CysLT1R plays a key role in mediating vascular leak in models where cys-LTs are generated in response to antigen- or pathogen-dependent stimuli.

To determine whether additional cys-LT receptors participated in vascular leak, we subjected Cysltr1/Cysltr2−/− mice to direct intracutaneous challenges with cys-LTs. Surprisingly, LTC4 and LTD4 induced tissue edema in Cysltr1/Cysltr2−/− mice that was comparable to WT mice, and LTE4 induced marked tissue edema in this strain, with 64-fold enhanced sensitivity to LTE4 over the WT controls. This enhanced response to LTE4 was inhibited by pretreatment of the mice with pertussis toxin and a Rho kinase inhibitor, suggesting that it was mediated by a previously unrecognized G protein-coupled cys-LT receptor with a preference to LTE4. Given that GPR99 bound LTE4 in transfected cells, we generated Gpr99−/− and Gpr99/Cysltr1/Cysltr2−/− mice for comparison with WT and Cysltr1/Cysltr2−/− mice. GPR99 deletion from the Cysltr1/Cysltr2−/− mice eliminated the vascular leak in response to the cys-LT ligands, indicating that GPR99 is likely to be a true cys-LT receptor. Furthermore, the Gpr99−/− mice showed a dose-dependent loss of LTE4-mediated vascular permeability, but not to LTC4 or LTD4, suggesting a preference of GPR99 for LTE4.

Th2 Immunity

Lung Th2 immunity to the house dust mite Dermatophagoides farinae (Df) requires stimulation of the myeloid C-type lectin receptor, Dectin-2. Based on a protocol of sensitization of naive WT mice by means of adoptive transfer of Df-pulsed dendritic cells (DCs), Th2 responses to Df require the expressions of LTC4S and CysLT1R by DCs. Interestingly, both Cysltr2−/− mice and Gpr17−/− mice showed markedly augmented eosinophilic pulmonary inflammation, serum IgE, and Th2 cytokine generation in response to Df sensitization and challenge compared to WT controls. Df-pulsed DCs derived from Cysltr2−/− mice and Gpr17−/− mice induce an enhanced pulmonary eosinophil and Th2 immune response in WT mice when compared with WT DCs. The enhanced response induced by Gpr17−/− DCs was eliminated by introduction of the Cysltr1−/− allele, whereas the introduction of the Ltc4s−/− allele eliminated the potentiation of Th2 immunity induced by transfer of Cysltr2−/− DCs. Thus, constitutive downregulation of CysLT1R function by GPR17 and CysLT1R may be critical to maintain homeostasis during the induction of Th2 immunity, at least to allergens (and potentially microbes) that bear ligands for Dectin-2.

Activation of innate lymphoid cells

Type 2 innate lymphoid cells (ILC2) are innate lymphocytes that release large quantities of IL-5 and IL-13 when activated by cytokines, such as IL-33, IL-25, or thymic stromal lymphopoietin (TSLP), derived from epithelial cells. A recent study implicated the cys-LTs in the activation of ILC2 cells. Intrapulmonary challenge of mice with an extract from the mold Alternaria alternata strongly induced the generation of cys-LTs in the lung, and the recruitment and activation of ILC2. ILC2 expressed CysLT1R, and responded to stimulation in vitro and in vivo with LTD4, by proliferating and releasing cytokines. Interestingly, while both LTD4 and IL-33 caused lung ILC2 to generate IL-5 and IL-13, only LTD4 caused them to generate IL-4. Ex vivo stimulation of lung ILC2 with either LTD4 or LTE4 caused the production of IL-5. While the IL-5 production in response to LTD4 could be blocked by Montelukast, LTE4-induced IL-5 production was resistant to Montelukast. This study suggests that cys-LTs can contribute to Th2 immunity through direct actions at ILC2. These effects reflect cys-LT actions both classical and nonclassical receptors that can induce effector cytokine production.

Platelet-dependent pulmonary eosinophilia

Platelets are essential for the development of pulmonary eosinophilia and airway remodeling in mouse models of ovalbumin (OVA) sensitization and challenge. Activated platelets express P-selectin, which permits their adherence to leukocytes and primes leukocytes for directed migration via integrins. Mouse and human platelets express both CysLT1R and CysLT2R, as well as the P2Y12 receptor, a homologue of the cys-LT receptors that binds ADP. Stimulation of mouse platelets with LTC4 strongly induces their expression of P-selectin in an entirely CysLT2R-dependent manner, while LTD4 or LTE4 are inactive. Intratracheal administration of LTC4, but not LTD4, mark-
Nasal polyps from subjects with AERD contain less PGE2 than nasal polyps from aspirin tolerant controls, suggesting a direct stimulatory effect of LTC4 on platelet-dependent inflammation, reflecting the co-expression of 2 inducible enzymes; COX-2 and/or mPGES-1. Such cells produce PGE2 (a largely aspirin-resistant enzyme) and microsomal PGE synthase-1 (mPGES-1), which isozymes COX-2-derived PGH2 to PGE2. Nasal polyps from subjects with AERD contain less PGE2 than nasal polyps from aspirin tolerant controls, possibly relating to epigenetic modifications of COX-2 and/or mPGES-1 expression. Mice lacking mPGES-1 (Ptges–/–) cannot upregulate PGE2 production with inflammation, and display a remarkably AERD-like phenotype when subjected to a model of Df-induced pulmonary disease. Compared with WT controls, Ptges–/– mice show increased eosinophilic inflammation and levels of cys-LTs in the BAL fluid. Challenge with inhaled lysine aspirin causes marked increases in airway resistance, robust release of cys-LTs, and pulmonary mast cell activation in the Ptges–/– strain, but not in WT controls. Aspirin challenge profoundly depletes lung PGE2 in the Ptges–/– mice, but not in the WT controls, suggesting that the mPGES-1 is needed to maintain PGE2 levels when COX-1 is inhibited. Ptges–/– mice also show increased numbers of platelet-adherent granulocytes in both the peripheral blood and lungs compared with WT controls. Importantly, cys-LT production, mast cell activation, and the changes in airway resistance were blocked by depletion of platelets or blockade of the TP receptor for thromboxane A2. This model may be useful in defining the potential pathogenetic role of GPR99, CysLT1R, and P2Y12 receptors in AERD, as well as unraveling the complex interplay between cys-LTs, platelets, and mast cells that lead to the physiologic response to aspirin challenges.

CONCLUSIONS

While the drugs capable of inhibiting cys-LT formation and blocking CysLT1R are useful, it is clear that the cys-LT system is far more complex than initially appreciated. The involvement of the cys-LTs in the induction of Th2 immunity and the effector phase of the immune response suggests additional potential applications for currently available pharmacologic agents. However, the recognition that cys-LTs act through at least three receptors and the resistance of 2 of these (CysLT1R and GPR99) to the blockade by currently available drugs presents both challenges and opportunities for further therapeutic development. The availability of a broad array of valid animal models should facilitate progress in this area, while continuing to reveal unanticipated biological functions for the cys-LTs and their receptors.

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