Original Article

Evaluation of *TREM1* Gene Expression in Circulating Polymorphonuclear Leukocytes and Its Inverse Correlation with the Severity of Pathophysiological Conditions in Patients with Acute Bacterial Infections

Tsuneyuki Ubagai^{1*}, Shigeru Tansho¹, Ryuji Ieki², and Yasuo Ono¹

¹Department of Microbiology & Immunology, Teikyo University School of Medicine, Tokyo 173-8605; and ²Department of Pulmonary Medicine, Tokyo Metropolitan Bokutoh Hospital, Tokyo 130-8575, Japan

(Received January 19, 2012. Accepted May 30, 2012)

SUMMARY: During bacterial infection, activated polymorphonuclear leukocytes (PMNs) often cause inflammation and organ dysfunction in severely ill patients. Gene expression was analyzed in circulating PMNs isolated from these patients to determine the distinct expression profile. We focused on immunomodulatory genes, such as those for pattern recognition receptors, inflammatory cytokines, PMN surface antigens, and myeloid cell receptors in PMNs. Gene expression in 23 patients (12 with pneumonia and 11 with sepsis) were analyzed using quantitative real-time polymerase chain reaction. The mRNA levels of TLR2 (20/23 cases) and CD14 (18/23 cases) were upregulated in the PMNs of patients when compared with healthy subjects. The mRNA expression levels of TLR4 (16/23 cases) and IL6 (16/23 cases) were downregulated in patients' PMNs, and of TNFA (16/23 cases) were upregulated in these cells. Although mRNA levels of IL8RA (15/23 cases) were downregulated in PMNs, MAC-1 mRNA levels (14/23 cases) were upregulated in the same cells. Copies of the TREM1 transcript were 0.7- to 2.1-fold higher in patients with moderate pneumonia than in the healthy subjects; the average fold change was 1.1. The mRNA levels were 0.3-fold lower in the patients with severe pneumonia and sepsis than in the healthy subjects. In conclusion, the downregulation of TREMI expression in PMNs is associated with the severity of the pathophysiological conditions and may be used as a surrogate marker of acute bacterial infections.

INTRODUCTION

The Burden of Disease Project (1) of the World Health Organization (WHO) estimated that lower respiratory tract infections account for approximately 35% of all the deaths resulting from infectious diseases, resulting in the death of nearly 4 million adults and children annually.

Furthermore, bacterial sepsis in adults and children is a life-threatening disease with high rates of morbidity and mortality worldwide (2,3). About 20 million cases of severe sepsis arise every year worldwide despite the availability of effective antibiotics. Acute infections are a major cause of morbidity and mortality (4).

Polymorphonuclear leukocytes (PMNs) are a critical component of the innate immune system and provide the first line of defense against bacterial and fungal pathogens (5). These effector cells are activated by a diverse repertoire of receptors; indeed, different classes of pathogens trigger specific pattern recognition receptors (PRRs) that are differentially expressed on PMNs

(6,7). Circulating PMNs constitute an accessible source of clinically relevant information, and the genotype of these cells can be determined using gene expression analysis (8).

PRRs (e.g., Toll-like receptor [TLR] 2, 4, and CD14) are germline-encoded molecules that recognize different bacterial products (9,10). In particular, TLR2 recognizes specific components of *Mycobacterium* spp. (lipoarabinomannan), fungi (zymosan), and Grampositive bacteria (lipoteichoic acid and lipoproteins); TLR4 and CD14 recognize lipopolysaccharides (LPS) (11).

PMNs are preactivated by low concentrations of various inflammatory cytokines, such as tumor necrosis factor (TNF)- α , released during infection or following tissue damage (12–16). These cytokines initiate a cytokine cascade, leading to the increased production of interleukin (IL)-6, IL-8, and chemokines (17).

Cell surface antigens on PMNs (e.g., IL-8 receptors [IL-8Rs] and Mac-1 [CD11b]) increase in response to bacterial infection (18). IL-8 mediates its biological activity through the G-protein-coupled receptors IL-8R α (CXCR1) and IL-8R β (CXCR2): these 2 receptors are highly homologous (77% amino acid identity) (19). Transmembrane signaling through IL-8Rs plays a role in many antimicrobial functions of PMNs, including chemotaxis, degranulation, and oxidative burst (20). Mac-1 is a member of the β_2 integrin family of adhesion

^{*}Corresponding author: Mailing address: Department of Microbiology & Immunology, Teikyo University School of Medicine, Kaga 2-11-1, Itabashi-ku, Tokyo 173-8605, Japan. Tel: +81-3-3964-1211, Fax: +81-3-5375-5284, E-mail: ubat@med.teikyo-u.ac.jp

molecules on PMNs that primes and activates phagocytes (21). PMNs show high constitutive and inducible levels of the Mac-1 complex, which has been shown to contribute to TLR4 signaling in PMNs through lipid rafts (22).

TREM-1 is a cell surface receptor of the immunoglobulin (Ig) superfamily (23). This receptor has been found to amplify the immune response that strongly potentiates the activation of PMNs in response to microbial products (24). The function of TREM-1 and soluble TREM-1 (sTREM-1) is to modulate inflammatory response during pneumonia (25) and sepsis (26).

PMNs in peripheral blood constitute an accessible source of clinically relevant information, and the molecular phenotype of these cells can be determined by analyzing gene expression patterns. Elucidating gene expression patterns in PMNs of patients with bacterial infections has led to a better understanding of the mechanisms underlying the onset of infectious diseases and responses to treatment.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Patients: In this study, we included 12 patients (11 men and 1 woman) admitted for pneumonia on the basis of the diagnostic criteria of the Japanese Respiratory Society (27). The median age of patients with moderate and severe disease was 60 years and 71 years, respectively (Table 1a). Eleven patients (4 men and 7 women) with sepsis were included on the basis of previously published definitions (28). The median age of patients with severe sepsis was 72 years and that of patients with septic shock was 66 years (Table 1a). All the patients were hospitalized at the Teikyo University Hospital. The causative organisms were isolated from the sputum of pneumonia patients or from whole blood samples of sepsis patients. All the microbes collected were cultured and identified in the Clinical Laboratory Department of the hospital. The protocol was approved by the Ethical Review Committee at the Teikyo University School of Medicine (No. 07-104), and written informed consent was obtained from all the participants.

PMN preparation: PMNs from patients and healthy volunteers were isolated from peripheral blood (29). Briefly, 20 mL of whole blood was mixed with 4.5% dextran solution, and the mixture was allowed to stand for 40 min at room temperature. The leukocyte-rich

plasma was centrifuged at $400 \times g$ on a Ficoll-Paque Plus gradient (Amersham Bioscience, Madison, Wis., USA) for 20 min. To lyse erythrocytes, hypotonic (0.2%) saline was used, and osmolality was restored using hypertonic (1.6%) saline. PMNs were adjusted to a final concentration of 1×10^6 cells/mL in Hank's balanced salt solution (HBSS) (–). Cell viability was determined by light microscopic assessment using trypan blue exclusion staining. Cell preparations contained more than 95% PMNs with a viability of >97%. All the volunteers were healthy adults (10 men and 8 women; aged 28 to 58 years with a mean age of 50 years) (Table 1a).

RNA isolation: Total RNA was extracted from PMNs using the RNeasy Plus Mini Kit (QIAGEN, Hilden, Germany), according to the manufacturer's instructions. The quantity and quality of the total RNA samples were determined using the Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent Technologies, Waldbronn, Germany).

Complementary DNA synthesis: Total RNA was reverse-transcribed to cDNA using SuperScript III First-Strand Synthesis SuperMix for reverse transcription-polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) (Invitrogen Life Technologies, Carlsbad, Calif., USA). For reverse transcription, 1 μg of total RNA was incubated with 2.5 μM oligo (dT)₂₀, 50 ng of random hexamers, and 200 U of SuperScript III RT enzyme in a 40-μL reaction volume at 25°C for 10 min, followed by reaction at 50°C for 20 min. Reactions were terminated by heating at 85°C for 5 min; the samples were then treated with 2 U of *Escherichia coli* RNaseH at 37°C for 20 min, for digesting untranscribed RNA.

Quantitative real-time PCR (qPCR) analysis: Gene expression levels of TLR2 (GenBank accession no. NM 003264.3), TLR4 (GenBank accession no. NM_ 138554.3), CD14 (GenBank accession no. NM 000591.3), TNFA (GenBank accession no. NM 000594.2), IL6 (GenBank accession no. NM 000600.3), IL8RA (GenBank accession no. NM 000634.2), MAC-1 (GenBank accession no. NM 000632.3), and TREM1 (GenBank accession no. NM 018643.2) in PMNs were quantified using the ABI7300 real-time PCR System (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, Calif., USA). cDNAs were amplified with SYBR Green using the Platinum SYBR Green qPCR SuperMix UDG (Invitrogen). qPCR was performed for TREM1 and the housekeeping gene ACTB (GenBank accession no. NM_001101.1).

Table 1a. Clinical features of patients with acute bacterial infections

	Healthy	Pneum	onia	Sepsis		
	volunteer	Moderate	Severe	Severe	Shock	
Average age (yr)	50	60	71	72	66	
Gender (male/female)	10/8	6/1	5/0	2/3	2/4	
Total patients number	_	7	5	5	6	
Causative organisms						
GNR	_	3	3	0	1	
GPC	_	1	1	4	2	
Polymicrobial	_	1	1	1	3	
N.D.	_	2	0	0	0	

Total number of patients was 23 and that of healthy volunteers was 18. GNR, Gram-negative rod; GPC, Gram-positive cocci; N.D., not detected.

PCR primer sets were designed using the Primer3 program (http://frodo.wi.mit.edu/cgi-bin/primer3/primer 3_www.cgi); the sequences are listed in Table 1b (30). The cDNA amplification program was as follows: 50° C for 2 min and 95° C for 2 min; followed by 40 cycles of 95° C for 15 s, 59° C for 25 s, 72° C for 30 s, and 60° C for 1 min. All the PCR reactions were carried out in 30 μ L reaction volumes, which comprised the following components: 5μ L cDNA solution, 0.9 U Platinum Taq polymerase, $1 \times$ reaction buffer (20 mM Tris/HCl [pH

Table 1b. Primer sets for quantitative polymerase chain reaction

Gene	Sequence	Amplicon size (bp)
TLR2	F: 5'-TCTGCTATGATGCATTTGTTT-3'	150
	R: 5'-TATTGTCAATGATCCACTTGC-3'	150
TLR4	F: 5'-ATTTCAGCTCTGCCTTCACTA-3'	212
	R: 5'-CTTCTGCAGGACAATGAAGAT-3'	212
CD14	F: 5'-CGCTCGAGGACCTAAAGATA-3'	2.42
	R: 5'-CAGACAGGTCTAGGCTGGTAA-3'	243
TNFA	F: 5'-AGACCAAGGTCAACCTCCT-3'	104
	R: 5'-AAAGTAGACCTGCCCAGAC-3'	194
TT 6	F: 5'-AGCTATGAACTCCTTCTCCAC-3'	170
IL6	R: 5'-GTTTGTCAATTCGTTCTGAAG-3'	170
IL8RA	F: 5'-GGTCATCTTTGCTGTCGTCC-3'	191
ILOKA	R: 5'-CGTAGATGATGGGGTTGAG-3'	191
MAC-1	F: 5'-AAGGTGTCCACACTCCAGAAC-3'	204
	R: 5'-GAGGAGCAGTTTGTTTCCAAG-3'	204
TREMI	F: 5'-GTCTCCACTCCTGACTCTGAA-3'	158
	R: 5'-TAGGGTACAAATGACCTCAGC-3'	136
ACTB	F: 5'-TTAAGGAGAAGCTGTGCTACG-3'	205
	R: 5'-TTGAAGGTAGTTTCGTGGATG-3'	203

F, forward primer; R, reverse primer.

8.4], 3 mM MgCl₂, 200 μ M dVTPs [a mixture of dATP, dCTP, and dGTP], 400 μ M dUTP, 500 nM ROX reference dye, and 0.6 U uralic glycosylase), and 200 nM primers. *TREM1* mRNA expression levels in PMNs were normalized to those of *ACTB*. Fold changes in PMN *TREM1* mRNA levels in patients and controls were determined using Sequence Detection System (SDS) software (Applied Biosystems).

Statistical analysis: P values were determined using Excel 2008 (Microsoft Corporation, Tokyo, Japan) and analyzed by performing unpaired or paired t tests (two-tailed) or nonparametric tests, as indicated. A P-value of <0.05 was considered to be statistically significant, and the degree of significance was expressed as **P < 0.01.

RESULTS

Expression analysis of the PPRs TLR2, TLR4, and CD14: Gene expression levels of TLR2 were higher in 10 of the 12 pneumonia patients, when compared to the healthy controls. Of note, the TLR2 mRNA levels were ≥ 3.0 -fold in 8 of the 10 patients. In septic patients, 10 of the 11 patients showed higher expression levels of TLR2 than the healthy subjects did, whereas 1 of the 11 patients showed lower expression levels (< 0.3-fold). In particular, the TLR2 mRNA expression levels in 5 of the 10 patients were ≥ 3.0 -fold higher (Table 2).

The gene expression levels of TLR4 were higher in 3 of the 12 pneumonia patients than those observed in the healthy subjects, and they were lower than those in the controls in 9 of the 12 patients. In septic patients, 3 of 11 showed higher expression levels than the healthy subjects, and 7 showed levels lower than the controls did. The mRNA levels of TLR4 were ≤ 0.3 -fold lower in 2 of

Table 2a. Fold-changes of mRNA expression levels in patients with pneumonia

Patient no.	Infectious disease (Underling disease)	Leukocyte [/µL] (PMNs: %), Stab [%] Causative organism(s)	Fold-changes of mRNA expression							
			TREMI	TLR2	TLR4	CD14	TNFA	IL6	IL8RA	MAC-1
1	Pneumonia/Moderate	10,800 (88), 6% Enterobactor cloacae	2.1	9.7	1.7	6	0.5	0.5	1.2	0.7
2	Pneumonia/Moderate	10,000 (85), 7% Acinetobacter sp.	1.3	6	0.5	3.6	2	7.5	0.2	0.9
3	Pneumonia/Moderate	14,900 (73), 8% N.D.	1.1	3	0.7	4	0.5	0.5	1	0.8
4	Pneumonia/Moderate	18,600 (83), 16% H. influenzae, Citrobacter sp.	1.1	8	0.9	3.2	2	0.5	0.2	1.2
5	Pneumonia/Moderate	15,100 (91), 9% N.D.	0.7	1.5	1.3	1.3	2.3	3.7	2.6	2.3
6	Pneumonia/Moderate (DM, Hepatitis)	16,300 (86), 13% MRSA	0.7	5	0.6	5	1.5	1	10	1.2
7	Pneumonia/Moderate	15,800 (88), 6% S. aureus, S. maltophilia	0.7	4	0.7	4	4.5	0.5	0.3	1
8	Pneumonia/Severe (DM)	15,600 (86), 16% E. aerogenes, S. aureus	0.5	1.3	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.5	10	4
9	Pneumonia/Severe	15,600 (90), 26% Acinetobacter sp.	0.5	1	0.6	6	3.5	3	0.1	1
10	Pneumonia/Severe	8,200 (94), 25% K. pneumoniae	0.5	3.7	0.6	2.8	0.5	0.5	0.1	2.9
11	Pneumonia/Severe (DM)	4,300 (75), 24% S. hominis	0.1	0.8	0.7	0.6	3.8	0.5	1.8	2
12	Pneumonia/Severe	31,300 (88), 72% P. aeruginosa, E. coli	0.1	3.7	0.6	2	2.5	1.5	0.2	0.4

PMNs, polymorphonuclear leukocytes; Stab, band cells; DM, diabetes mellitus; MRSA, methicillin-resistant S. aureus; N.D., not determined.

the 7 patients (Table 2).

Gene expression levels of CD14 in 11 of the 12 pneumonia patients were higher than those of the healthy subjects, while 1 of the 12 showed lower levels than the controls did. In 7 of the 11 patients, the mRNA levels of CD14 were ≥ 3.0 -fold higher. Among the 11 septic patients, 7 showed higher expression levels than the healthy subjects did, and 4 showed lower levels than the controls, with 1 of the 4 showing a 0.1-fold lower level (Table 2).

Expression analysis of the inflammatory cytokines TNFA and IL6: The gene expression levels of TNFA were higher in 9 of the 12 pneumonia patients than those in the healthy subjects. Of note, in 3 of the 9 patients, the mRNA levels of TNFA were ≥ 3.0 -fold higher. In septic patients, 7 of the 11 showed higher levels than the healthy subjects did, and 1 of the 11 showed a 0.1-fold higher level. In 2 of the 7 patients, the mRNA levels of TNFA were ≥ 3.0 -fold higher (Table 2).

Gene expression levels of *IL6* in 5 of the 12 pneumonia patients were higher than those in the healthy subjects. In septic patients, 1 of the 11 showed higher levels than the healthy subjects did, and 10 showed lower expression levels than the controls did. In 1 of the 10 patients, the mRNA level of *IL6* was 0.1-fold lower (Table 2).

Expression analysis of the PMN surface antigens *IL8RA* and *MAC-1*: The gene expression levels of *IL8RA* in 5 of the 12 pneumonia patients were higher than those in the healthy subjects. In 2 of the 5 patients, the mRNA levels of *IL8RA* were 10-fold higher, while they were lower (≤ 0.3 -fold) in 6 of the 12 patients. When compared to the healthy subjects, higher expression levels were observed in 2 of the 11 septic subjects and of the remaining 9, 5 showed lower expression levels (≤ 0.3 -fold) (Table 2).

The gene expression levels of MAC-1 in 6 of the 12

pneumonia patients were higher than those in the healthy subjects, while 4 of the 12 patients showed lower expression levels than the controls did. In septic patients, 8 of 11 showed higher expression levels than the healthy subjects did; 3 of the 11 showed lower expression levels than the controls did. Notably, in 1 of the 3 patients, the mRNA level of *MAC-I* was 0.1-fold lower (Table 2).

Expression analysis of *TREM1* (Fig. 1): The gene expression levels of *TREM1* in 4 of the 7 patients with moderate pneumonia were higher than those seen in the healthy subjects. *TREM1* levels were 0.7-fold lower in 3 of the 7 patients with moderate pneumonia when com-

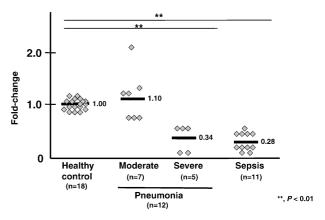


Fig. 1. mRNA expression analysis of TREM1. Individual values were plotted, and the bars represent the means of the values. Control, 18 healthy subjects; mRNA expression levels of healthy subjects, 1.0. Seven patients with moderate pneumonia; average change in mRNA, 1.10-fold. Five patients with severe pneumonia; average change in mRNA levels, 0.34-fold. Eleven patients with sepsis; average change in mRNA levels, 0.28-fold. Statistical significance was determined using the Mann-Whitney U test. **P < 0.01 compared with healthy subjects. Data are representative of at least 3 separate experiments.

Table 2b. Fold-changes of mRNA expression levels in patients with sepsis

Patient no.	Infectious disease (Underling disease)	Leukocyte [/ μ L] (PMNs: %), Stab [%] Causative organism(s)	Fold-changes of mRNA expression							
			TREM1	TLR2	TLR4	CD14	TNFA	IL6	IL8RA	MAC-I
13	Severe sepsis (Pneumonia)	20,900 (96), 6% S. hominis	0.2	2.3	0.6	2	0.5	0.5	0.8	0.5
14	Severe sepsis (Pneumonia)	22,100 (89), 7% S. pneumoniae (PISP)	0.4	1.3	0.7	0.4	1.2	0.9	2.7	4.2
15	Severe sepsis (Pneumonia, DM)	11,700 (82), 29% S. epidermidis	0.5	2.3	1	4.6	1.5	1.5	0.2	2.2
16	Severe sepsis (Severe pneumonia)	20,900 (N.D.), [N.D.] MRSA, E. faecium, A. baumannii	0.4	1.3	0.2	0.6	0.1	0.9	2.6	0.1
17	Severe sepsis	17,100 (96), 41% S. epidermidis	0.2	10	2.1	2	1.5	0.5	0.6	2.7
18	Septic shock	21,000 (95), 7% MRSA, <i>E. faecium</i>	0.4	6.3	1.1	10	2	0.5	0.8	2
19	Septic shock (DIC)	8,800 (91), 35% K. pneumoniae	0.4	1.5	1.1	0.9	0.8	0.5	0.3	5.6
20	Septic shock (MOF, DIC)	5,700 (83), 46% S. aureus	0.2	8.3	0.8	8	3	0.5	0.2	3
21	Septic shock (Peritonitis, DM)	14,500 (84), 50% E. coli, K. pneumoniae, Bacteroides sp.	0.2	6.6	0.5	6	2	0.5	0.2	1.9
22	Septic shock (Pneumonia)	17,400 (99), 94% S. pneumoniae (PISP)	0.1	4.7	0.4	2.8	3.5	0.5	0.1	1.9
23	Septic shock (Endotoxemia)	12,200 (97), 87% E. coli, K. pneumoniae	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.5	0.1	0.4	0.3

PMNs, polymorphonuclear leukocytes; Stab, band cells; DM, diabetes mellitus; DIC, disseminated intravascular coagulation; MOF, multiple organ failure; MRSA, methicillin-resistant *S. aureus*; PISP, penicillin-intermediate *S. pneumoniae*; N.D., not determined.

pared to the levels observed in the healthy subjects, and 0.1-fold lower in 2 patients with severe pneumonia. In all the septic patients, mRNAs levels of *TREM1* were lower than those in the control subjects. In 6 of the 11 patients, the mRNA levels of *TREM1* were 0.2-fold lower (Table 2).

DISCUSSION

Successful clearance of a bacterial infection depends on efficient PMN migration into the infected tissues and the killing of pathogens by phagocytes (31). Pathogenassociated molecular patterns (PAMPs) are recognized as molecular signatures by PRRs that are predominantly expressed on PMNs (32). Indeed, TLR2 recognizes a wide range of PAMPs derived from various pathogens, including peptidoglycan (PGN) and lipoteichoic acid (LTA) from Gram-positive bacteria (10). Our data indicates that the mRNA expression levels of TLR2 in 10 of 12 pneumonia patients and 10 of 11 sepsis patients were higher than those in the healthy subjects (Table 2). These data strongly correlated with the mRNA expression levels of CD14 (Table 2). TLR2 generally forms a heterodimer with TLR1, TLR6, or non-TLR molecules, such as CD14, CD36, and Dectin-1, to discriminate between molecular structures of the ligands. CD14 is also involved in the recognition of diacylated lipopeptide and lipoarabinomannan (32).

TLR4 mainly responds to LPS, which is a major component of the outer membrane of Gram-negative bacteria and a potent immunostimulatory molecule that causes septic shock. In our data, mRNA expression levels of TLR4 were observed to be downregulated in 9 of 12 pneumonia patients and 7 of 11 sepsis patients (Table 2). In this study, 6 cases of Gram-negative rod (GNR) infection, 2 cases of Gram-positive coccal (GPC) infection, and 2 cases of polymicrobial bacteremia were identified among the pneumonia patients (Table 1a). The causative organisms in 2 of the 12 pneumonia patients were not identified. One case of GNR infection, 6 cases of GPC infection, and 4 cases of polymicrobial bacteremia were identified among the septic patients (Table 1a). Overall, gene expression levels of *TLR2* were higher than those of TLR4, regardless of the bacterial species. It is possible that TLR2 also recognizes bacterial lipid and carbohydrate compounds, including lipoteichoic acid and lipoproteins (33). LPS-binding protein (LBP) and CD14 are involved in responses to LPS. CD14 is a glycosylphosphatidylinositol (GPI)-linked protein containing PRRs that bind LBP and deliver LPS-LBP to the TLR4-MD2 complex (34). However, mRNA expression levels of TLR4 did not correlate with that of CD14 in our acute-phase patients.

It is possible that stimulation of multiple TLRs is required for an overwhelming inflammatory response (35).

The mRNA expression levels of *IL8RA*, unlike those of *TLR2*, were obserbed to be downregulated (Table 2). PMNs stimulated with LPS or bacteria also display a loss of IL-8-binding capacity (36) and a downregulation of IL-8R (37-39).

Furthermore, TLR2 signaling downregulates the expression of IL-8R β on the surface of circulating PMNs, which could result in impaired migration to the site of

infection, affecting disease severity (40).

The mRNA expression levels of *TNFA* correlated with those of *MAC-I* in our patients (Table 2).

Reumaux et al. (13,41) demonstrated TNF- α -induced clustering of Mac-1 and the Fc γ receptor IIa (Fc γ IIa), suggesting the concerted action of these receptors in triggering PMN activation. TNF- α induces the upregulation of certain molecules on the PMN surface and causes lateral changes in receptor distribution on the cell membrane. Mac-1 is also expressed constitutively or inducibly at high levels on the PMN cell surface (22).

The transcriptional activation of multiple inflammatory genes is characteristic of the pathophysiology of septic shock. Indeed, nuclear factor (NF)-κB plays a crucial role in the LPS- or cytokine-activated promoter activity of over 200 genes, many of which play important roles in the development of septic shock (42-44). In this study, TNFA and IL6 are examples of NF- κ B-regulated genes, and the mRNA expression levels of TNFA were upregulated in 9 of 12 pneumonia patients and 7 of 11 sepsis patients. However, the mRNA levels of IL6 were downregulated in almost all the patients (Table 2). Animal studies have demonstrated that in vivo inhibition of NF- κ B activation reduces LPS-induced mRNA transcription and protein expression of multiple proinflammatory cytokines and other molecules that play critical roles in the pathophysiology of sepsis (45-47).

TLR activation regulates chemokine receptor expression and function in PMNs and presumably facilitates the recruitment and localization of these cells to sites of infection and inflammation. However, the underlying mechanisms and ultimate consequences of this regulation are complex. Further, several other inflammatory mediators also exist at the sites of infection (e.g., C5a, formylated bacterial peptides) that regulate PMN chemokine receptors in complex patterns (48–50).

Whole blood contains a heterogeneous population of leukocytes, the proportion of which varies between individuals and depends on the stage of the infectious disease.

Leukocytes include the percentages of PMNs and stab (band) cells that fluctuate widely over the course of an infection, depending on the balance between the release of PMNs and their precursors from the bone marrow in response to cytokine stimulation (51).

PMN phagocytosis decreases when the egress rate in the blood is enhanced (or when production is increased), as shown by an increase in circulating stab cells in the acute phase of bacterial infection (51). In contrast, PMN phagocytosis increases with the increasing maturation time (52).

The findings of our gene expression analysis did not correlate with fever, leukocytes, C-reactive protein, age, and the gender of patients. However, the downregulated mRNA levels of *TREM1* were associated with the severity of infection.

The protein expression of TREM-1 is upregulated in phagocytic cells in the presence of pathogens, and sTREM-1 is released into the circulating blood during infection (53). TREM-1 silencing was associated with a subsequent downregulation of the production of several proinflammatory (TNF- α , IL-1 β , and IL-6) and anti-inflammatory (IL-10) cytokines during sepsis in animal

models. On the other hand, activated TREM-1 upregulated the production of proinflammatory cytokines (TNF- α , IL-1 β , granulocyte macrophage colonystimulating factor) and stimulated further TREM-1 expression (54). Our gene expression analysis did not indicate any interaction between TREM-1 and TNF- α or IL-6 in the PMNs of the patients.

In this study, compared to the healthy controls, the average expression levels of *TREM1* in patients with moderate and severe pneumonia were 1.10-fold and 0.34-fold, respectively. The mRNA levels of *TREM1* in the sepsis patients were 0.28-fold higher than those in the controls (Fig. 1, Table 2). In patients with moderate pneumonia, the expression levels of *TREM1* were almost the same as those of healthy volunteers in the acute phase of infection. A possible explanation for this observation is that the stab cell population in patients was higher than that of the healthy volunteers.

In our study, the absolute quantification of *TREM1* mRNA levels in PMNs of patients was performed because PMNs reflect the patients' pathophysiological conditions during infections. Using these data is more applicable, useful, and reasonable than using the data obtained by performing ELISA, because the concentration of sTREM-1 in the patient serum is estimated from the surface TREM-1 of circulating PMNs and monocytes/macrophages (53).

As a result, the scope of our findings is limited to PMNs. Indeed, the interactions between the alteration of gene expression and protein synthesis have not been fully elucidated. Furthermore, it is unclear whether similar changes occur in other leukocyte subtypes (e.g., lymphocytes and macrophages). Future studies on these cell types are needed to completely understand the host response in infectious diseases.

Acknowledgments We thank our patients for agreeing to participate in the study. We are also indebted to Ms C. Miyazaki for technical assistance.

Financial support for this study was provided by a grant-in-aid from the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology of Japan (21591300).

Conflict of interest None to declare.

REFERENCES

- World Health Organization (2005): Burden of Disease Project. World Health Organization, Gneneva. Online at http://www.who.int/healthinfo/bodproject/en/index.html. Accessed 10 November 2005.
- Angus, D.C. and Wax, R.S. (2001): Epidemiology of sepsis: an update. Crit. Care Med., 29 (Suppl 7), 109–116.
- 3. Zaidi, A.K., Thaver, D., Ali, S.A., et al. (2009): Pathogens associated with sepsis in newborns and young infants in developing countries. Pediatr. Infect. Dis. J., 28 (Suppl 1), 10–18.
- 4. Fauci, A.S. (2005): The global challenge of infectious diseases: the evolving role of the National Institutes of Health in basic and clinical research. Nat. Immunol., 6, 743-747.
- Segal, A.W. (2005): How neutrophils kill microbes. Annu. Rev. Immunol., 23, 197–223.
- Medzhitov, R. and Janeway, C.A., Jr. (1997): Innate immunity: the virtues of a nonclonal system of recognition. Cell, 91, 295-298.
- Medzhitov, R. and Janeway, C.A., Jr. (2000): Innate immune recognition: mechanisms and pathways. Immunol. Rev., 173, 89-97
- 8. Dale, D.C., Boxer, L. and Liles, W.C. (2008): The phagocytes: neutrophils and monocytes. Blood, 112, 935-945.

- Akira, S. and Takeda, K. (2004): Toll-like receptor signaling. Nat. Rev. Immunol., 4, 499-511.
- Akira, S., Uematsu, S. and Takeuchi, O. (2006): Pathogen recognition and innate immunity. Cell. 124, 783–801.
- nition and innate immunity. Cell, 124, 783-801.

 11. Jeyaseelan, S., Chu, H.W., Young, S.K., et al. (2005): Distinct roles of pattern recognition receptors CD14 and Toll-like receptor 4 in acute lung injury. Infect. Immun., 73, 1754-1763.
- 12. Swain, S.D., Rohn, T.T. and Quinn, M.T. (2002): Neutrophil priming in host defense: role of oxidants as priming agents. Antioxid. Redox. Signal., 4, 69-83.
- 13. Reumaux, D., Vossebeld, P.J.M., Roos, D., et al. (1995): Effect of tumor necrosis factor-induced integrin activation on Fcγ receptor II-mediated signal transduction: relevance for activation of neutrophils by anti-proteinase 3 or anti-myeloperoxidase antibodies. Blood, 86, 3189–3195.
- 14. Csernok, E., Ernst, M., Schmitt, W., et al. (1994): Activated neutrophils express proteinase 3 on their plasma membrane in vitro and in vivo. Clin. Exp. Immunol., 95, 244-250.
- 15. Porges, A.J., Redecha, P.B., Kimberly, W.T., et al. (1994): Antineutrophil cytoplasmic antibodies engage and activate human neutrophils via FcγRIIa. J. Immunol., 153, 1271-1280.
- 16. Harper, L., Radford, D., Plant, T., et al. (2001): IgG from myeloperoxidase-antineutrophil cytoplasmic antibody-positive patients stimulates greater activation of primed neutrophils than IgG from proteinase 3-antineutrophil cytoplasmic antibody-positive patients. Arthritis Rheum., 44, 921-930.
- 17. Liu, S.F. and Malik, A.B. (2006): NF-κB activation as a pathological mechanism of septic shock and inflammation. Am. J. Physiol. Lung Cell Physiol., 290, L622-645.
- Lee, J., Horuk, R., Rice, G.C., et al. (1992): Characterization of two hige affinity human interleukin-8 receptors. J. Biol. Chem., 267, 16283-16287.
- Holmes, W.E., Lee, J., Kuang, W.J., et al. (1991): Structure and functional expression of a human interleukin-8 receptor. Science, 253, 1278-1280.
- Stillie, R., Farooq, S.M., Gordon, J., et al. (2009): The functional significance behind expressing two IL-8 receptor types on PMN. J. Leukoc. Biol., 86, 529-543.
- Perera, P.Y., Mayadas, T.N., Takeuchi, O., et al. (2001): CD11b/CD18 acts in concert with CD14 and Toll-like receptor (TLR) 4 to elicit full lipopolysaccharide and taxol-inducible gene expression. J. Immunol., 166, 574-581.
- Fessler, M.B., Arndt, P.G., Frasch, S.C., et al. (2004): Lipid rafts regulate lipopolysaccharide-induced activation of Cdc42 and inflammatory functions of the human neutrophils. J. Biol. Chem., 279, 39989–39998.
- Colonna, M. (2003): TREMs in the immune system and beyond. Nat. Rev. Immunol., 3, 445-453.
- Bouchon, A., Dietrich, J. and Colonna, M. (2000): Cutting edge: inflammatory responses can be triggered by TREM-1, a novel receptor expressed on neutrophils and monocytes. J. Immunol., 164, 4991–4995.
- Gibot, S., Cravoisy, A., Bruno, L., et al. (2004): Soluble triggering receptor expressed on myeloid cells and the diagnosis of pneumonia. N. Engl. J. Med., 350, 451-458.
- Klesney-Tait, J., Turnbull, I.R., and Colonna, M. (2006): The TREM receptor family and signal integration. Nat. Immunol., 7, 1266–1273.
- 27. Kohno, S. (ed.) (2008): The JRS Guidelines for the Management of Community-Acquired Pneumonia in Adults. The Japanese Respiratory Society Publishing, Tokyo, Japan.
- 28. Bone, R.C., Balk, R.A., Cerra, F.B., et al. (1992): Definitions for sepsis and organ failure and guidelines for the use of innovative therapies in sepsis. Chest, 101, 1644–1655.
- 29. Ubagai, T., Tansho, S., Ito, T., et al. (2008): Influences of aflatoxin B1 on reactive oxygen species generation and chemotaxis of human polymorphonuclear leukocytes. Toxicol. In Vitro, 22, 1115-1120.
- Ubagai, T., Koshibu, Y., Koshio, O., et al. (2009): Downregulation of immunomodulator gene expression in LPS-stimulated human polymorphonuclear leukocytes by the proton pump inhibitor lansoprazole. J. Infect. Chemother., 15, 374–379.
- 31. Nathan, C. (2006): Neutrophils and immunity: challenges and opportunities. Nat. Rev. Immunol., 6, 173-182.
- 32. Kawai, T. and Akira, S. (2009): The roles of TLRs, RLRs, and NLRs in pathogen recognition. Int. Immumol., 21, 317-337.
- 33. Balamayooran, G., Batra, S., Fessler, M.B., et al. (2010): Mechanisms of neutrophil accumulation in the lungs against bac-

- teria. Am. J. Respir. Cell Mol. Biol., 43, 5-16.
- Miyake, K. (2007): Innate immune sensing of pathogens and danger signals by cell surface Toll-like receptors. Semin. Immunol., 19, 3-10.
- 35. Alves-Filho, J.C., de Freitas, A., Russo, M., et al. (2006): Toll-like receptor 4 signaling leads to neutrophil migration impairment in polymicrobial sepsis. Crit. Care Med., 34, 461–470.
- 36. Lloyd, A.R., Biragyn, A., Johnston, J.A., et al. (1995): Granulocyte-colony stimulating factor and lipopolysachaareide regulate the expression of interleukin 8 receptors on polymorphonuclear leukocytes. J. Biol. Chem., 270, 28188–28192.
- Kobayashi, S.D., Braughton, K.R., Whitney, A.R., et al. (2003): Bacterial pathogens modulate an apoptosis differentiation program in human neutrophils. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA, 100, 10948–10953.
- 38. Khandaker, M.H., Mitchell, G., Xu, L., et al. (1999): Metalloproteinases are involved in lipopolysachaaride- and tumor necrosis factor-α-mediated regulation of CXCR1 and CXCR2 chemokine receptor expression. Blood, 93, 2173–2185.
- 39. Khandaker, M.H., Xu, L., Rahimpour, R., et al. (1998): CXCR1 and CXCR2 are rapidly down-regulated by bacterial endotoxin through a unique agonist-independent, tyrosine kinase-dependent mechanism. J. Immunol., 161, 1930–1938.
- 40. Alves-Filho, J.C., de Freitas, A., Souto, F.O., et al. (2009): Regulation of chemokine receptor by Toll-like receptor 2 is critical to neutrophil migration and resistance to polymicrobial sepsis. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA, 106, 4018–4023.
- 41. Reumaux, D., Mull, F.P.J., Hordijk, P.L., et al. (2002): Effect of TNF- α on Fc γ receptor IIa (Fc γ RIIa) and β 2-integrin distribution on neutrophil surface analyzed by confocal laser scanning microscopy. Clevel. Clin. J. Med., 69 (Suppl 2), SII-163.
- 42. Baeuerle, P.A. and Baichwal, V.R. (1997): NF-kappa B as a frequent target for immunosuppressive and anti-inflammatory molecules. Adv. Immunol., 65, 111-137.
- 43. Brown, M.A. and Jones, W.K. (2004): NF-kappa B action in sepsis: the innate immune system and the heart. Front. Biosci., 9, 1201-1217.

- 44. Pahl, H.L. (1999): Activators and target genes of Rel/NF-kappa B transcription factors. Oncogene, 18, 6853-6866.
- 45. Liu, S.F., Ye, X.B. and Malik, A.B. (1997): In vivo inhibition of NF-κB activation prevents inducible nitric oxide synthase expression and systemic hypotension in a rat model of septic shock. J. Immunol., 159, 3976-3983.
- 46. Liu, S.F., Ye, X.B. and Malik, A.B. (1999): Inhibition of NF-κB activation by pyrrolidine dithiocarbamate prevents in vivo expression proinflammatory genes. Circulation, 100, 1330–1337.
- 47. Liu, S.F., Ye, X.B. and Malik, A.B. (1999): Pyrrolidine dithiocarbamate prevents I-κB degradation and reduces microvascular injury induced by lipopolysaccharide in multiple organs. Mol. Pharmacol., 55, 658-667.
- Sabroe, I., Williams, T.J., Hebert, C.A., et al. (1997): Chemoattractant cross-desensitization of the human neutrophil IL-8 receptor involves receptor internalization and differential receptor subtype regulation. J. Immunol., 158, 1361–1369.
- Richardson, R.M., Pridgen, B.C., Haribabu, B., et al. (1998): Differential cross-regulation of the human chemokine receptors CXCR1 and CXCR2. Evidence for time-dependent signal generation. J. Biol. Chem., 273, 23830-23836.
- Ali, H., Richardson, R.M., Haribabu, B., et al. (1999): Chemoattractant receptor cross-desensitization. J. Biol. Chem., 274, 6027-6030.
- Mathy, K.A. and Koepke, J.A. (1974): The clinical usefulness of segmented vs stab neutrophil criteria for differential leukocyte counts. Am. J. Clin. Pathol., 61, 947-958.
- 52. Dresch, C., Flandrin, G. and Breton-Gorius, J. (1980): Phagocytosis of neutrophil polymorphonuclears by macrophages in human bone marrow: importance in granulopoesis. J. Clin. Pathol., 33, 1110-1113.
- 53. Gibot, S. and Cravoisy, A. (2004): Soluble form of the triggering receptor expressed on myeloid cells-1 as a marker of microbial infection. Clin. Med. Res., 2, 181-187.
- Gibot, S., Massin, F., Marcou, M., et al. (2007): TREM-1 promotes survival during septic shock in mice. Eur. J. Immunol., 37, 456-466.