An antiinflammatory role for IKKβ through the inhibition of “classical” macrophage activation

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The nuclear factor κB (NF-κB) pathway plays a central role in inflammation and immunity. In response to proinflammatory cytokines and pathogen-associated molecular patterns, NF-κB activation is controlled by IκB kinase (IKK). Using Cre/lox-mediated gene targeting of IKKβ, we have uncovered a tissue-specific role for IKKβ during infection with group B streptococcus. Although deletion of IKKβ in airway epithelial cells had the predicted effect of inhibiting inflammation and reducing innate immunity, deletion of IKKβ in the myeloid lineage unexpectedly conferred resistance to infection that was associated with increased expression of interleukin (IL)-12, inducible nitric oxide synthase (NOS2), and major histocompatibility complex (MHC) class II by macrophages. We also describe a previously unknown role for IKKβ in the inhibition of signal transducer and activator of transcription (Stat)1 signaling in macrophages, which is critical for IL-12, NOS2, and MHC class II expression. These studies suggest that IKKβ inhibits the “classically” activated or M1 macrophage phenotype during infection through negative cross talk with the Stat1 pathway. This may represent a mechanism to prevent the over-exuberant activation of macrophages during infection and contribute to the resolution of inflammation. This establishes a new role for IKKβ in the regulation of macrophage activation with important implications in chronic inflammatory disease, infection, and cancer.

NF-κB is a ubiquitous transcription factor that regulates expression of proinflammatory and antiapoptotic genes and is thought to play an important role in driving the inflammatory response (1). NF-κB activation in response to proinflammatory stimuli is regulated by IκB kinase (IKK), which has recently become a major target for the development of new antiinflammatory drugs (2). However, we have previously established both pro- and antiinflammatory roles for NF-κB in inflammation (3, 4). In this study, we have tested the hypothesis that NF-κB has tissue-specific roles in inflammation; although NF-κB activation in epithelial cells is required to drive the inflammatory response, NF-κB activity in macrophages has an opposing role in the resolution of inflammation.

Macrophages are an extremely heterogeneous lineage displaying a range of both pro- and antiinflammatory functions (5, 6). Two extremes in the spectrum of macrophage function are represented by the “classically” activated (or M1) and the alternative (or M2) phenotypes (7). The M1 phenotype is typified by IFN-γ–primed macrophages and is characterized by increased MHC class II, IL-12, and inducible nitric oxide synthase (NOS2) expression. M2 macrophages are characterized by decreased expression of NOS2, MHC class II, and IL-12, but elevated expression of antiinflammatory cytokines such as IL-10. The M2 phenotype is promoted by Th2 cytokines such as IL-4 and IL-13.
Generally, M2 macrophages are considered antiinflammatory cells, whereas M1 macrophages are proinflammatory. The signaling pathways that regulate these phenotypes in vivo are not well understood.

We used Cre/lox-mediated gene targeting of IKKβ in lung epithelial cells and macrophages (9, 10) and show that IKKβ deletion in airway epithelial cells inhibits inflammation and prevents clearance of bacteria in the lung. However, IKKβ deletion in macrophages has the opposite role, increasing the inflammatory response and enhancing the clearance of bacteria. In addition, we show that IKKβ activation suppresses the classically activated or M1 macrophage phenotype, and we present evidence for negative regulation of Stat1 activation by IKKβ. These findings represent important new information regarding the role of NF-κB in macrophage biology during inflammation and infection. Furthermore, cross talk between IKKβ and Stat1 signaling pathways could have implications for the development and clinical use of IKKβ inhibitors.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To investigate the tissue-specific role of IKKβ in innate immunity, we specifically targeted the Ikkβ gene using Cre/lox-mediated recombination in lung epithelial cells and myeloid cells using the Clara cell–specific protein promoter (Cc10) and lysozyme promoter to express Cre in bronchial airway cells using the Clara cell–specific protein promoter (Cc10)

Figure 1. Tissue-specific role for IKKβ in Streptococcal pneumonia. (A) IKKβMye and IKKβMyeCre control mice were infected intranasally with 5 × 10⁶ CFUs GBS in PBS. Bronchialveolar lavage was performed after 4 h, and CFUs were determined by serial dilution on Todd-Hewitt agar plates (n = 11–14; *, P = 0.0242). (B) Hematoxylin and eosin stain (left, H+E) of lungs from GBS-infected mice after 4 h showed reduced leukocyte infiltration in IKKβMye mice (arrows). Gram stain (right) of infected lungs showed accumulation of bacteria in alveolar spaces of IKKβMye lungs (arrows). Representative panels are shown from n = 8. Bar, 100 μm. (C) IKKβMye and IKKβMyeCre control mice were infected as described above, and BAL CFUs were measured at 4 h (n = 11–14; *, P = 0.0304). (D) Hematoxylin and eosin stain of lungs from GBS-infected mice after 4 and 24 h showed resolution of peribronchial inflammation in the lungs of IKKβMye mice at 24 h (top, arrows); however, inflammation in IKKβMye mice fails to resolve (bottom, arrows). Bar, 200 μm. (E) PMN recruitment in IKKβMye and IKKβMyeCre mice infected with GBS was counted under high power field after hematoxylin and eosin stain. Data are represented as mean ± SEM of n = 8 (*, P = 0.0055).

mine if the increased inflammatory response could confer resistance to infection. IKKβMye mice were indeed more resistant to systemic infection with GBS. More than 60% of IKKβMye mice survived a lethal dose of GBS beyond 48 h, whereas >90% of littermate controls had died within 24 h, and none survived to 48 h (Fig. 2 A). Furthermore, resistance of IKKβMye mice to lethal GBS infection correlated with significantly lower titres of bacteria in the blood (Fig. 2 B; IKKβMye vs. IKKβMyeCre, **, P = 0.0057). To investigate the mechanism for this resistance, we measured the expression of proinflammatory cytokines in the spleen and serum of GBS-infected mice. Fig. 2 C shows a significant increase in...
In fact, IL-1β levels were slightly decreased, although these data did not reach statistical significance (Fig. 2 C). To further analyze the macrophage phenotype in IKKβΔMye mice, we isolated peritoneal macrophages from GBS-infected mice and measured MHC class II expression by FACS. IKKβΔMye mice showed a threefold increase in MHC class II expression compared with control mice (Fig. 2 D). Expression of the costimulatory molecules CD80 (B7.1) and CD86 (B7.2) were also increased on macrophages from IKKβΔMye mice, whereas CD124 (IL-4Rα) expression was decreased (Fig. S1 A, available at http://www.jem.org/cgi/content/full/jem.20080124/DC1). We also analyzed IL-12p40 and arginase-1 mRNA expression in the spleen from GBS-infected mice; although expression of IL-12p40 was increased in IKKβΔMye mice, expression of the antiinflammatory macrophage marker arginase-1 was reciprocally decreased (Fig. 2 E). In addition, immunohistochemical analysis of lungs from GBS-infected mice revealed dramatically increased NOS2 expression in alveolar macrophages, whereas NOS2 expression in lung epithelium remained unchanged (Fig. 2 F). IL-12 is a critical cytokine for host defense (12) and, along with MHC class II and NOS2, is a marker for classically activated or M1 macrophages (7). On the other hand, increased expression of arginase-1 and IL-10 is characteristic of alternative M2 macrophage activation, which is dependent on CD124 expression (7).

Previous work from our group and others has demonstrated that IKKβ and NF-κB activation in bronchial epithelium is required for leukocyte recruitment and inflammation in the lung by regulating the expression of chemotactic cytokines (9, 13). The impaired ability of IKKβΔMye mice to clear bacteria is therefore quite expected; however, the finding that IKKβ deletion in myeloid cells increases inflammation and bacterial clearance was somewhat surprising. In IKKβΔMye mice, IKKβ expression is effectively deleted in both macrophages and PMNs (14). PMNs are the major defense against extracellular bacteria such as GBS, although macrophage activation is also critical to PMN recruitment in inflammation (15). Previous work from our group has also shown that NF-κB can have a proapoptotic role in leukocytes during the resolution of inflammation (3), which was recently confirmed in IKKβΔMye mice (4); however, we found no difference in apoptosis in the lungs of GBS-infected IKKβΔMye mice (not depicted). We performed in vitro killing assays with macrophages and PMNs isolated from IKKβΔMye mice to test their direct antimicrobial activity. Although IKKβΔ macrophages showed some level of increased killing in vitro, IKKβΔ PMNs did not (Fig. 3, A and B). This suggested increased phagocytic killing by macrophages, probably through increased NOS2 expression, and macrophage-mediated PMN recruitment was responsible for enhanced clearance of bacteria rather than increased PMN activation. To test this hypothesis, we challenged IKKβΔMye mice intranasally with a noninfectious stimulus, bacterial LPS, to measure activation of alveolar macrophages and PMN recruitment. Lung tissue was collected for FACS analysis of PMN recruitment (CD11b+...
Immunohistochemical analysis of LPS-stimulated lungs from IKKβΔMye mice also revealed increased NOS2 expression in alveolar macrophages (Fig. 3 F). In addition, cytokine analysis of bronchialveolar lavage fluid (BAL) from LPS-challenged mice showed increased IL–12 production but reduced levels of the antiinflammatory cytokine IL–10 in IKKβΔMye mice (Fig. 3 E; IKKβΔ/Mye vs. IKKβΔ/Mye: IL–12: *, P = 0.0318), in keeping with an increase in M1 macrophage activation.

We further analyzed the phenotype of IKKβΔ macrophages after stimulation in vitro. Both resident and elicited peritoneal macrophages from IKKβΔMye mice express normal levels of typical macrophage lineage markers (including CD11b, F4/80, and CD68) and display no distinctive morphology (not depicted). Peritoneal macrophages were elicited and stimulated in vitro with heat-killed bacteria over a 24-h time course, and protein extracts were prepared for biochemical analysis. As expected, there was a profound impairment in IKK activity and NF-κB activation in IKKβΔ macrophages, whereas activation of JNK MAPK remained unchanged (Fig. 4 A). However, although the absence of IKK activity was associated with decreased expression of pro–IL–1β and TNF-α, expression of NOS2 was in fact elevated, which correlated with increased tyrosine phosphorylation of Stat1 (pY-Stat1) (Fig. 4, B–D). Expression of the endogenous inhibitor of Stat1, suppressor of cytokine signaling (SOCS)1 (16), was unaltered in IKKβΔ macrophages (Fig. 4 B). Stat1 is a critical transcription factor for NOS2, IL–12, and MHC class II expression (17). These data suggest that IKKβ activity in macrophages suppresses NOS2 as well as MHC class II and IL–12 expression during infection by antagonizing Stat1. M1 macrophage activation is typified by IFN–γ priming (7), and IFN signaling in macrophages absolutely requires Stat1 (17). In macrophages stimulated in vitro with Toll-like receptor ligands, Stat1 is activated by the autocrine production of IFN–β; however, GBS-induced IFN–β expression was inhibited in IKKβΔ macrophages (Fig. 4 D). To investigate a role of IKKβ in the cross regulation of Stat1 signaling, we stimulated IKKβΔ macrophages with bacterial LPS and recombinant IFN–γ in vitro. As shown in Fig. 5 A, IKKβΔ macrophages had increased activation of Stat1 and NOS2 expression when stimulated with LPS/IFN–γ, whereas activation of Stat3 appeared unchanged. IFN–γ and Stat1 strongly activate MHC class II expression in macrophages. To confirm the in vivo data described above, we measured MHC class II expression on macrophages stimulated in vitro with IFN–γ. MHC class II expression was dramatically enhanced with IKKβΔ macrophages (Fig. 5 B). In addition, IKKβΔ macrophages showed an increased ability to drive T cell proliferation in an allogenic mixed lymphocyte assay (Fig. S1 B). In further experiments, we used a recombinant adenovirus to express a dominant-negative inhibitor of IKKβ (IKKβΔdn) in macrophages in vitro (18). Fig. 5 C shows that expression of IKKβΔdn increased both Stat1 activation and NOS2 expression upon stimulation with LPS. Similar results were obtained with heat-killed bacteria (not depicted). Expression of IKKβΔdn also dramatically increased LPS/IFN–γ–induced
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BRIEF DEFINITIVE REPORT

We previously described a role for IKKβ, the sister kinase of IKKα, in limiting inflammation during infection and resistance to septic shock, by regulating the magnitude and duration of NF-κB activation (13). In the current study, we describe a specific role for IKKβ in limiting the expression of Stat1–regulated genes. There is clearly still much to learn about the relative and specific roles for IKKα and IKKβ in inflammation and immunity. Our working hypotheses, based on previously published work and data presented here, is that

Figure 4. IKKβ inhibits Stat-1 activation in GBS-infected macrophages. (A) Peritoneal macrophages from IKKβ−/− and IKKβ+/+ mice were stimulated in vitro with heat-killed GBS (MOI of 20:1). Protein extracts were prepared at the indicated time points for biochemical analysis. IKK and JNK activity was measured by IP kinase assay (KA) using recombinant substrates GST-IκBα 1-54 or GST-cJun 1-79, respectively. NF-κB activation was measured by electrophoretic mobility shift assay (EMSA) using 32P-labeled κB consensus oligonucleotide. (B) Expression of IKK, pro–IL-1β, NOS2, tyrosine 701 phosphorylation of Stat1 (pY-Stat1), serine 726 phosphorylation of Stat1 (pS-Stat1), total Stat1, and SOCS1 was measured by immunoblot analysis of cell lysates using actin as a loading control. (C) In parallel experiments, TNF-α production in cell culture supernatants was measured by ELISA, and (D) total RNA was isolated for real-time PCR analysis of TNF-α (Tnfa) and IFN-β (Ifnb) mRNA expression. Data are represented as mean ± SEM of n = 4. Representative data are shown from at least three independent experiments.

Figure 5. IKKβ inhibits IFN-γ signaling in macrophages. (A) Peritoneal macrophages from IKKβ−/− and IKKβ+/+ mice were stimulated in vitro with 100 ng/ml LPS in combination with 100 U/ml recombinant mouse IFN-γ, and protein extracts were prepared at the indicated time points. NOS2 expression, pY-Stat1, and pY-Stat3 were measured by immunoblot analysis. (B) Peritoneal macrophages from IKKβ−/− and IKKβ+/+ mice were stimulated in vitro, with IFN-γ and MHC class II expression analyzed by FACS. Representative data are shown from at least three independent experiments. (C) BMDMs were infected with recombinant adenovirus expressing a dominant-negative inhibitor of IKKβ (Ad-IKKβdn) or EGFP (Ad-GFP) 48 h before stimulation with LPS. NOS2 and pY-Stat1 expression was measured by immunoblot analysis at the indicated time points. (D) BMDMs were infected with Ad-IKKβdn or Ad-GFP before stimulation with LPS/IFN-γ, and IL-12p40 production was measured in cell culture supernatants by ELISA. Data are represented as mean ± SEM of n = 4. (E) RAW 264.7 macrophages were transfected with GAS luciferase reporter and either empty vector (pCDNA) or cDNA expressing IKKβ, IκBα, or SOCS1. After LPS/IFN-γ stimulation for 6 h, GAS reporter activity was measured by dual luciferase activity assay. Data are represented as relative light units (RLU) normalized for transfection efficiency with pRLTK.

IL-12 production (Fig. 5 D). To confirm the role of IKKβ in the suppression of Stat1 transcriptional activity, we performed reporter assays in RAW 264.7 macrophages using a GAS luciferase reporter gene. Transient overexpression of IKKβ in RAW cells inhibited GAS reporter activity, whereas transfection of the endogenous NF-κB inhibitor IκBα increased GAS reporter activity (Fig. 5 E). As a positive control, overexpression of SOCS1 inhibited GAS activity. Interestingly, previous studies have also described sustained IL-12 expression in macrophages deficient in p50 and heterozygous for RelA expression (19), suggesting that NF-κB activation downstream of IKKβ suppresses IL-12 expression. However, these studies did not include analysis of Stat1 activation. Our data would suggest that IL-12 expression is inhibited in macrophages by the NF-κB–dependent expression of a Stat1 inhibitor other than SOCS1.
IKKα acts to limit inflammation by inhibiting the persistent expression of NF-κB–dependent proinflammatory genes. However, IKKβ/NF-κB also acts to limit Stat1 activity and the overexpression of Stat1–dependent genes as a result of autocrine and paracrine IFN signaling. These antiinflammatory roles for the IKK complex have clear implications for the clinical use of IKK inhibitors.

Here, we have described a new role for IKKβ in the suppression of M1 macrophage activation during infection through the inhibition of Stat1 activity. To further test this hypothesis, we infected IKKβΔMyc mice with the fungal pathogen Cryptococcus neoformans (Cn). Cn infects macrophages and promotes an M2 phenotype to evade a protective Th1 response (20). IKKβΔMyc mice infected with Cn showed increased clearance of fungi after 10 d compared with control mice (Fig. S2 B, available at http://www.jem.org/cgi/content/full/jem.20080124/DC1; IKKβΔMyc, *, P = 0.003). FACS analysis of BAL and lung tissue from Cn–infected mice showed MHC class II expression on alveolar macrophages was significantly increased (Fig. S2 C; IKKβΔMyc vs. IKKβΔMyc, *, P = 0.0172). In addition, the proportion of T cells in the lungs of IKKβΔMyc mice was elevated, although these data did not reach statistical significance (Fig. S2 C). These changes correlated with increased IFN-γ in BAL and reduced levels of Th2 cytokines IL-4 and IL-5 (Fig. S2 D), suggesting a switch to a protective Th1 response. These data, and that described above, suggest that IKKβ inhibits M1 macrophage activation during infection with both extracellular Streptococci and the intracellular fungal pathogen Cn. The precise pathophysiological significance of M1 and M2 macrophage populations is not yet well established (6, 7). However, it is clear that M1 macrophage activation is critical to control certain infections, but a switch to an M2 phenotype may limit the innate immune response and be required for the resolution of inflammation.

In summary, IKKβ plays a tissue-specific role in inflammation. In resident tissue cells, such as lung epithelium, IKKβ–mediated NF-κB activation drives cytokine and chemokine production required to initiate the inflammatory response (9, 13). However, NF-κB activation in resident macrophages or leukocytes recruited during inflammation has an antinflammatory role (3, 21). This may represent a mechanism to prevent the over-exuberant activation of macrophages during inflammation. In a parallel study in this issue on page 1261, Hagemann et al. (22) show that inhibition of IKKβ in tumor-associated macrophages, which have an M2 phenotype (8, 23), also leads to increased Stat1 activation and a polarized M1 phenotype (increased; NOS2, MHC class II, and IL-12). However, in this context IKKβ inhibition confers enhanced tumoricidal activity, analogous to the increased antimicrobial activity observed in IKKβΔMyc mice. It will be interesting to investigate if pathogens can hijack the IKKβ–NF-κB pathway to evade M1 macrophage activation and innate immunity in a similar fashion to tumor cells.

Considering the dominant role of Stat1 in regulation of NOS2, MHC class II, and IL-12 expression, it is likely that activation of this pathway is a major determinant of the M1 macrophage phenotype. Collectively, these data suggest that IKKβ activation plays an important role in suppression of this phenotype, contributing to both the resolution of inflammation during infection and the suppression of macrophage tumoricidal activity in cancer. The potential to manipulate the inflammatory phenotype of macrophages by targeting IKKβ may offer therapeutic opportunities for the treatment of inflammatory diseases, infection, and cancer.
Adenovirus preparation. Recombinant, replication-deficient adenoviral vectors were developed to express cDNA in primary macrophages. Virus-encoding GFP was used to assess infection efficiency. Virus expressing a kinase-defective dominant-negative form of IKKβ (IKKβd) was used to inhibit IKKβ activity and NF-κB activation. These viruses are E1/E3 deleted, belong to the Ad5 serotype, and have been used in other studies (18). Approximately 80–90% of BMDMs were found to express GFP when infected with virus at an MOI of 200:1. IKKβd BMDMs were infected with recombinant adenovirus expressing Cre recombinase, and IKKβd and IkBα knockdown macrophages infected with Adv–GFP were used as a control. Infections were performed at day 4 of macrophage differentiation in the presence of 10 ng/ml recombinant murine M-CSF (PeproTech).

Gene expression analysis and ELISA. Total cellular RNA was isolated using TRIzol (Invitrogen) and analyzed by RT–PCR with a SyBr Green (5700 thermocycler; PE Biosystems) or RNAscript protection assay (RPA). Primer sequences are available upon request. For RT–PCR analyses, all values were normalized to the level of cyclophilin mRNA. For RPA analyses, total RNA was hybridized with RNA probes using the Riboquant Multi-probe RPA System (BD Biosciences) according to the manufacturer’s instructions. Cytokine levels in cell culture supernatants were determined by sandwich ELISA (R&D Systems and BD Biosciences) performed according to the manufacturer’s instructions.

Kinase assay, electrophoretic mobility shift assay, and immunoblotting. Whole cell lysates were prepared, and IKK or JNK kinase activity was measured after immunoprecipitation with anti-IKKγ or anti-JNK1 antibody (BD Biosciences) using recombinant GST-IκBα (1–54) or GST-c-Jun (1–29), respectively, as described previously (11). IKK and JNK recovery was determined by immunoblotting with anti-IκBα (BD Biosciences) or anti-JNK antibody (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Inc.). Immunoblotting was performed on SDS-PAGE gel–separated whole cell lysates or nuclear and cytoplasmic extracts (11). Electrophoretic mobility shift assays were performed with 2 μg of protein extract as described previously (3, 11).

Flow cytometry. Murine Fc receptors were blocked using anti-mouse CD16/CD32 Fc Block (BD Biosciences). For staining, cells were washed and resuspended in PBS supplemented with 1% heat-inactivated FBS and 0.01% NaN₃. Antibodies were diluted in this buffer and used at a final concentration of between 2 and 20 μg/ml. The following antibodies were used: MHC class II (Ia)-PE, CD11b-APC, CD86-PE, CD80-PE, CD124 (IL-4Ra)-PE, and CD4-FITC (BD Biosciences). Incubations with antibodies were performed for 30 min on ice. Labeled cells were analyzed by flow cytometry on a FACScan flow cytometer and analyzed using CellQuest software (Becton Dickinson).

Mixed lymphocyte reaction. 10⁵ elicited macrophages from C57BL6/J mice were plated in 96-well plates and stimulated overnight with 100 ng/ml LPS. CD4⁺ T cells were negatively selected from the lymph nodes of BALB/c mice and labeled with 5 μM CFSE. 5 × 10⁵ T cells were added to macrophages and co-cultured for 4 d. Cells were harvested, 7-AAD was added to exclude nonviable cells, and CFSE dilution in the viable cell population was measured by FACS.

Transfections and reporter assays. 3T3 or RAW264.7 cells were transiently transfected using FuGene HD (Roche). Cells were plated in 12-well plates and grown until 80–90% confluency. Cells were cotransfected with 500 ng of the reporter gene plasmid, 500 ng of an expression vector, and 10 (3T3) or 50 ng (RAW264.7) pRLTK (Promega). 22 h after transfection, cells were treated with LPS and IFN-γ for 6 h. Cells were harvested in 75 μl Passive Lysate Buffer (Promega). Luciferase activity was determined with the Dual-Luciferase Reporter Assay System according to the manufacturer’s instructions (Promega).

Statistical analysis. At least three independent experiments were performed, and representative data are shown. Data are represented as mean ± SEM. Student’s t test or Mann-Whitney test was performed where appropriate to test the statistical significance between datasets and p-values indicated.

Online supplemental material. Fig. S1 shows the increased immunostimulatory activity of IKKβ⁺ macrophages. Fig. S2 shows that macrophage IKKβ activity inhibits protective immunity to Ca infection. Figs. S1 and S2 are available at http://www.jem.org/cgi/content/full/jem.20080124/DC1.

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