

Hypothesis: leukocyte endogenous mediator/ endogenous pyrogen/lymphocyte-activating factor modulates the development of nonspecific and specific immunity and affects nutritional status¹⁻³

Michael C. Powanda, Ph.D. and William R. Beisel, M.D.

ABSTRACT We postulate that leukocyte endogenous mediator/endogenous pyrogen/lymphocyte-activating factor (LEM/EP/LAF) integrates the host's nonspecific and specific immune responses to infection by virtue of the panoply of physiological and metabolic activities it is capable of eliciting. The alterations in systemic metabolism modulated by LEM/EP/LAF, although apparently of value to the host in the defense against infection and the repair of tissue damage, result in negative nutrient balances. Severe infections, alone or in conjunction with injury, may result in malnutrition unless the patient is adequately nourished. Preexisting nutritional deficits can compromise host resistance to infection, in part by preventing production of LEM/EP/LAF. Additional studies of the sequelae of LEM/EP/LAF action and effects of nutrition on host resistance to infection appear warranted. *Am J Clin Nutr* 1982;35:762-768.

KEY WORDS Leukocyte endogenous mediator/endogenous pyrogen/lymphocyte-activating factor, nonspecific and specific immunity, infection, metabolism, nutrition.

Introduction

Endogenous pyrogen (EP), also known as leukocyte endogenous mediator (LEM) (1, 2), has recently been demonstrated to be equivalent to lymphocyte-activating factor (LAF) (3). There are a multitude of reports that show that LEM/EP/LAF not only stimulates lymphocyte proliferation in response to antigen (4) but also induces fever and elicits neutrophilia and granulopoiesis (2, 5) and evokes profound cellular, organ, and systemic alterations in trace metal, nitrogen, and hormone distribution and metabolism (6-8). Infection induces negative nutrient balances which are related to the severity and duration of the illness (6, 9, 10). Malnutrition can compromise resistance to infection in many instances (11, 12). These findings lead us to postulate that LEM/EP/LAF acts as a broad but central mediator or modulator of the development of and interactions amongst various aspects of nonspecific and specific immunity. Moreover, we propose that this constellation of systemic metabolic and physiological events modulated by LEM/EP/

LAF which lead not only to the development of immunity but also function to limit tissue injury at the site(s) of microorganism-phagocyte interaction and facilitate wound healing place metabolic demands on the host which lead to increased excretion of some nutrients, the development of negative nutrient balances and, in the absence of adequate nutrient input, eventual malnutrition.

Discussion

Nonspecific immunity involves phagocytosis, macrophage activation, localized inflammation, and certain systemic alterations

¹ From the US Army Institute of Surgical Research, Fort Sam Houston, TX 78234, and the US Army Medical Research Institute of Infectious Diseases, Frederick, MD 21701.

² The views of the authors do not purport to reflect the positions of the Department of the Army or the Department of Defense.

Address reprint requests to: Library, US Army Institute of Surgical Research, Fort Sam Houston, TX 78234.

Received July 1, 1981.

Accepted for publication September 22, 1981.

in host physiology and metabolism which occur as part of the acute-phase response to a wide variety of circumstances usually having some degree of tissue damage as a common denominator (13-15). Specific immunity, of course, refers to the response of a lymphocyte to a single antigen which results in the development of the capability of that cell and its clone to secrete antibody or implement cell-mediated immunity.

Figure 1 summarizes the putative interactions amongst various aspects of nonspecific and specific immunity modulated by LEM/EP/LAF. A wide variety of phagocytic cell types have the ability to produce and release LEM/EP/LAF, but generally appear not to do so unless stimulated (7, 8). Activation *in situ* may occur after cellular ingestion of microorganisms or tissue debris or after interaction with immune complexes (13, 16-18). Perturbation of the phagocytic cell membrane appears to be a key stimulus for activation since chemicals such as colchicine (19), phorbol myristic acetate (20) and polyribonucleic-polyribocytidylic acid complexes (21), as well as endotoxin (7) elicit LEM/EP/LAF release. Some (22, 23), but not all (24) studies of endogenous pyrogen release indicate that *de novo* protein synthesis may be required, while studies of lymphocyte-activating factor production suggest that variable amounts of preformed, high molecular weight precursors may exist intracellularly. Upon activation of the cells, these precursors are rapidly processed into low molecular weight (13 to 16,000 daltons) LEM/EP/LAF and released (25). Once released, LEM/EP/LAF circulates and affects or influences the activities of an amazing array of tissues and cells: lymphocytes, the reticuloendothelial system, bone marrow, hypothalamus, liver, muscle, and endocrine organs. There is evidence for a direct effect of LEM/EP/LAF on the hypothalamus, liver, granulocytes, macrophages, and lymphocytes (4, 5, 7, 8, 15, 26). LEM/EP/LAF may also act indirectly on these and other tissues and organs. Although there is evidence that LEM, EP, and LAF may be identical (1-3), there are also indications that these molecules comprise a family of closely related mediators, each member of which may have a somewhat different spectrum of activities (14, 15, 25) and perhaps even distinct physical properties (27).

LEM/EP/LAF can induce fever and hypoferrremia (1, 2) which in concert appear to retard microorganism proliferation (28). LEM/EP/LAF is also able to elicit neutrophilia (1, 2) and provoke macrophages to produce colony-stimulating factor (5) which promotes granulopoiesis. Both of these actions of LEM/EP/LAF would appear to be designed to provide more granulocytic phagocytes to kill macroorganisms and clear tissue debris. LEM/EP/LAF can also stimulate neutrophil oxygen-dependent metabolism (29) which appears to be related to the microbicidal activity of these cells. LEM/EP/LAF is capable of causing granulocytes to release selectively lysozyme and lactoferrin (30). Lysozyme appears to facilitate the phagocytosis of certain microorganisms while lactoferrin restricts the availability of iron to microorganisms, thereby hindering their growth and/or toxin production. Lactoferrin may also contribute to the abrupt onset of hypoferrremia by enhancing the flux of iron into the liver. Taken together these activities of LEM/EP/LAF may account, at least in part, for the observed antimicrobial activity of LEM/EP/LAF (31).

LEM/EP/LAF triggers marked alterations in amino acid, trace metal, and protein metabolism and distribution (6-8) which characterize infections and inflammatory states (6, 32). Uptake of zinc by the liver appears to correlate with the increased production of acute-phase proteins (13) which is supported by an enhanced flux of amino acids from muscle to liver (6, 33). Although the zinc seems to accumulate in the liver in the form of metallothionein (34), some of it may redistribute throughout the body in the form of α_2 -macroglobulin. α_2 -Macroglobulin is a protease inhibitor and as such may limit tissue damage due to proteolytic enzymes released by stimulated phagocytes or already damaged tissue. There are indications that α_2 -macroglobulin may be involved in wound healing (35) and in the modulation of the specific immune response (36). LEM/EP/LAF stimulates an increase in plasma copper in the form of ceruloplasmin (37). Ceruloplasmin is capable of donating copper to various enzymes (6, 35), such as lysyl oxidase, which are involved in wound healing. Ceruloplasmin also acts as a scavenger of superoxide ions (38) generated by stimulated phagocytes.

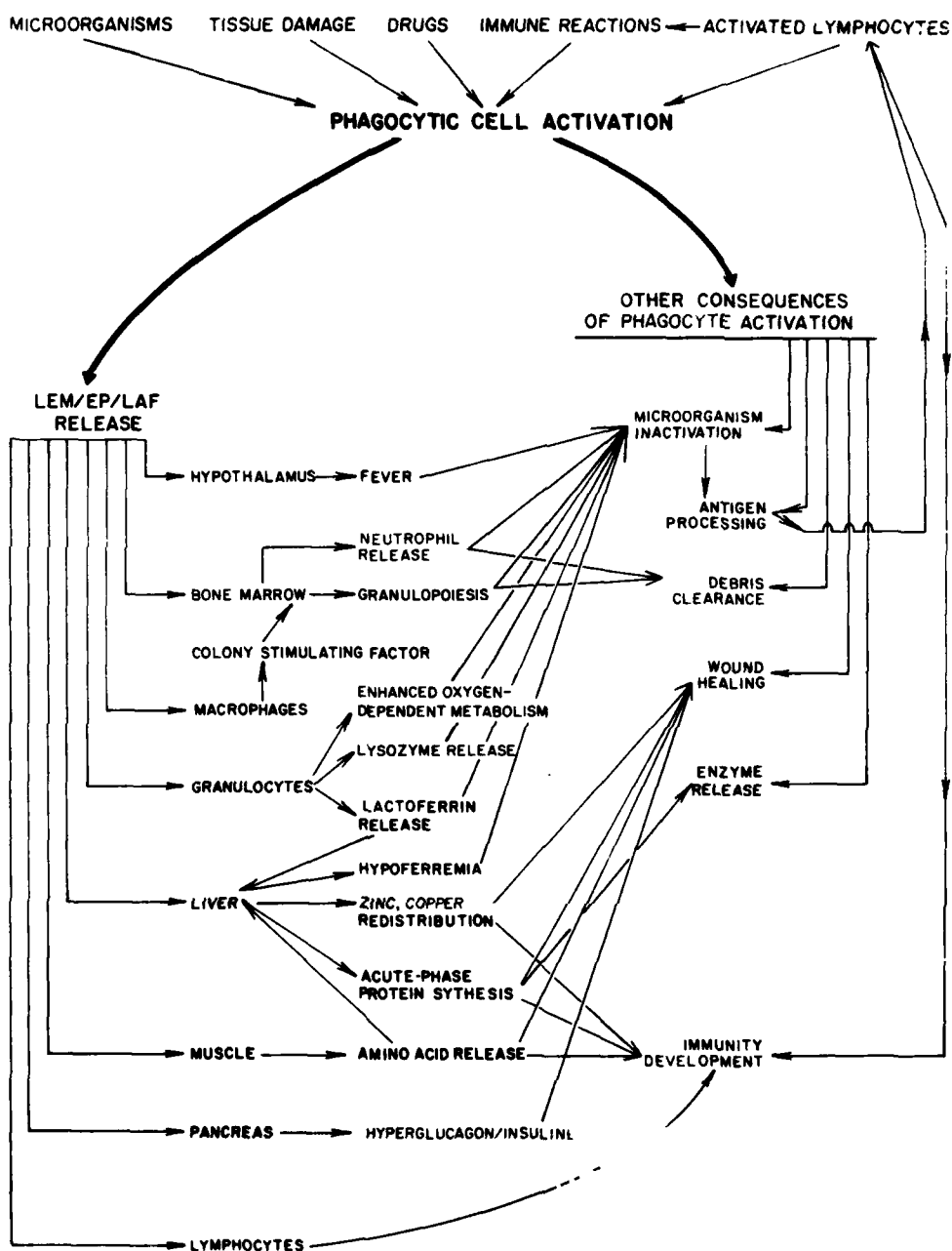


FIG. 1. Postulated interactions amongst various aspects of nonspecific and specific immunity modulated by LEM/EP/LAF.

thereby helping to limit tissue damage resulting from the phagocyte-microorganism confrontation. LEM/EP/LAF increases the plasma concentration of haptoglobin 2- to 3-

fold and of C-reactive protein several 100-fold (8). These proteins accumulate at the site of injury and appear to participate in wound healing (35). There is also considerable evi-

dence that C-reactive protein modulates the development of the immune response. C-reactive protein may mute the sensitivity of the specific immune response so that it is involved only in clearing microorganisms the nonspecific immune system cannot eliminate, thereby avoiding futile antibody production (39). There are other plasma proteins such as α_1 -antitrypsin and lipoproteins which appear to participate in host defense or repair (6, 14, 35, 39). It is not known whether the synthesis or concentration of these proteins is affected by LEM/EP/LAF.

The hyperglucagonemia and insulinemia that attend severe infections can also be induced by LEM/EP/LAF (40). Insulin and glucagon are needed to regulate the production and distribution of glucose during infection as in health, but the elevated concentrations of these hormones may have other functions. Insulin and glucagon facilitate liver regeneration and appear to protect the liver against hepatitis-induced damage. Insulin is said to promote wound healing, preserve leukocyte function and maintain cell-mediated immunological processes. Glucagon, in pharmacological amounts, has been reported to protect against stress-induced hemorrhagic gastritis (41).

Malnutrition as a consequence of inflammatory stress is not an uncommon finding even in hospitalized patients (12, 42) and clearly is a frequent aftermath of infection in poorly nourished populations (11). The putative relationship between the systemic metabolic and physiological sequelae induced by LEM/EP/LAF and altered nutritional status is depicted in Figure 2. Although the constel-

lation of physiological and metabolic events modulated by LEM/EP/LAF appears to facilitate host defense against acute infections and repair of tissue damage (6, 35, 39, 41), there are often heavy costs to the host. It should be apparent that increased heat production, the massive shifts in trace elements and amino acids within the body and the proliferation of protein synthesis and secretory systems in the liver to allow for the greatly increased production of acute-phase proteins (43, 44) as well as the healing of wounds and the production of antibody require considerable energy. In addition to the requirement for energy, there is a need for nitrogen which may result in extensive wasting of muscle tissue.

The liver is the key organ in orchestrating the majority of metabolic alterations mediated by LEM/EP/LAF. It appears that the liver attempts to sequester nutrients for later use, e.g., zinc and iron, if there is a readily available storage form or as long as the material stored is not likely to be or become "toxic." Thus the ammonia moiety that is released when amino acids are cannibalized to generate glucose is converted into a form that can be readily excreted. The increase in tryptophan (10) and tyrosine (45) degradation during infection may be an attempt to prevent an accumulation of these precursors of potent neurotransmitters (46). Despite the attempts to store valuable nutrients for recycling, the energy demands of host defense as well as the requirement of preventing an accumulation of actual or potential "toxic" substances result in considerable inefficiency in the retention of nutrients, hence the en-

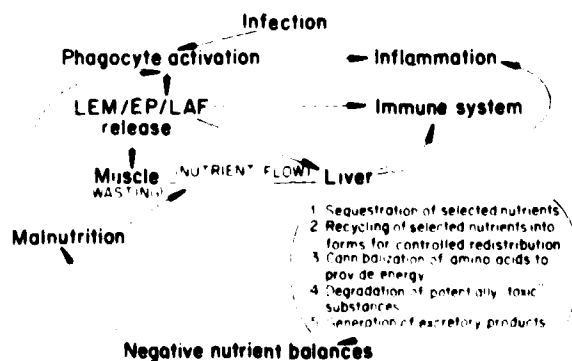


FIG. 2. The roles of LEM/EP/LAF in some aspects of the interaction between nutrition and infection

hanced excretion of many nutrients especially during the illness phase of infection. The anorectic state which often accompanies infection exacerbates this seemingly wasteful series of events. However, anorexia may also be construed as a means of preventing the introduction of exogenous nutrients which might compromise the endogenous antiinfection system (47). Of course even if anorexia is momentarily beneficial, it seems clear that prolonged periods of reduced food intake compromise the patient (12).

Malnutrition can increase susceptibility to numerous types of infection (11). Although malnutrition may simply reduce the availability of endogenous stores of critical nutrients to be mobilized in defense of the host, there is recent evidence that protein deprivation may lead to increased susceptibility to infection through reduced synthesis of LEM/EP/LAF (47).

In regard to the development of specific immunity, the metabolic and physiological sequelae modulated by LEM/EP/LAF appear designed to eliminate the infecting microorganism before it proliferates and spreads. Failing this, these LEM/EP/LAF-induced alterations would seem arranged so as to limit dissemination and growth of the microorganism until a specific immune response may be developed to aid in clearing the infection. Moreover, a number of these physiological and metabolic alterations seem to facilitate the development of specific immunity (6, 39). LEM/EP/LAF appears to modulate the development of specific immunity directly as well as indirectly. Macrophages not only process antigen for use in the development of specific immunity, but also modulate the immune response through release of various soluble factors. LAF, now recognized to be identical to LEM/EP (3), potentiates DNA synthesis in stimulated lymphocytes (48) and enhances antibody synthesis in spleen cells (49). LEM/EP/LAF induces macrophages to make colony-stimulating factor (5). Colony-stimulating factor activates macrophages to produce LAF (50). Thus there appears to be an amplification cycle that promotes the generation of granulocytes to clear infection and tissue debris and enhances antibody production as well as engendering systemic metabolic and physiological alterations that appear to facilitate

host defense and repair. It would therefore seem that a more complete understanding of the roles of altered endogenous nutrient distribution and metabolism mediated by LEM/EP/LAF in, and the effects of exogenous nutrient supply on, host defense/repair processes may provide a means of shifting the balance in favor of host during a host-microorganism conflict and hastening the healing processes. 

References

1. Merriman CR, Pulliam LA, Kampschmidt RF. Comparison of leukocytic pyrogen and leukocytic endogenous mediator. *Proc Soc Exp Biol Med* 1977;154:224-7.
2. Kampschmidt RF, Pulliam LA, Merriman CR. Further similarities of endogenous pyrogen and leukocytic endogenous mediator. *Am J Physiol* 1978; 235:C118-21.
3. Murphy PA, Simon PL, Willoughby WF. Endogenous pyrogens made by rabbit peritoneal exudate cells are identical with lymphocyte-activating factors made by rabbit alveolar macrophages. *J Immunol* 1980;124:2498-501.
4. Rosenwasser LJ, Dinarello CA, Rosenthal AS. Adherent cell function in murine T-lymphocyte antigen recognition. IV. Enhancement of murine T-cell antigen recognition by human leukocytic pyrogen. *J Exp Med* 1979;150:709-14.
5. Kampschmidt RF, Upchurch HF. Possible involvement of leukocytic endogenous mediator in granulopoiesis. *Proc Soc Exp Biol Med* 1977;155:89-93.
6. Powanda MC. Changes in body balances of nitrogen and other key nutrients: description and underlying mechanisms. *Am J Clin Nutr* 1977;30:1254-68.
7. Kampschmidt RF. Leukocytic endogenous mediator. *J Reticuloendothel Soc* 1978;23:287-97.
8. Kampschmidt RF. Biological manifestations of leukocytic endogenous mediator. In: Schlessinger D, ed. *Microbiology*. 1980. Washington, DC: American Society for Microbiology, 1980:150-3.
9. Beisel WR, Sawyer WD, Ryll ED, Crozer D. Metabolic effects of intracellular infections in man. *Ann Intern Med* 1967;67:744-79.
10. Rapoport MI, Beisel WR, Hornick RB. Tryptophan metabolism during infectious illness in man. *J Infect Dis* 1970;122:159-69.
11. Scrimshaw NS, Taylor CE, Gordon JE. *Interactions of nutrition and infection*. Geneva: WHO, 1968.
12. Wilmore DW, Kinney JM. Panel report on nutritional support of patients with trauma or infection. *Am J Clin Nutr* 1981;34:1213-22.
13. Powanda MC, Cockerell GL, Moe JB, Abeles FB, Pekarek RS, Canonico PG. Induced metabolic sequelae of tularemia in the rat: correlation with tissue damage. *Am J Physiol* 1975;229:479-83.
14. Canonico PG, McManus AT, Powanda MC. Biochemistry and function of the neutrophil in infected, burned and traumatized hosts. In: Dingle JT, Jacques PJ, Shaw IH, eds. *Lysosomes in applied biology*

- and therapeutics. Vol 6. Amsterdam: North Holland, 1979:287-326.
15. Beisel WR, Sobocinski PZ. Endogenous mediators of fever-related metabolic and hormonal responses. In: Lipton JM, ed. *Fever*. New York: Raven Press, 1980:39-48.
 16. Powanda MC, Bostian KA, Dinterman RE, et al. Phagocytosis and the metabolic sequelae of infection. *J Reticuloendothel Soc* 1980;27:67-82.
 17. Kampschmidt RF, Pulliam LA. Effect of delayed hypersensitivity on plasma iron and zinc concentration and blood leukocytes. *Proc Soc Exp Biol Med* 1974;147:242-4.
 18. Atkins E, Francis L, Bernheim HA. Pathogenesis of fever in delayed hypersensitivity: role of monocytes. *Infect Immun* 1978;21:813-20.
 19. Bodel P. Colchicine stimulation of pyrogen production by human blood leukocytes. *J Exp Med* 1976;143:1015-26.
 20. Mizel SB, Rosenstreich DL, Oppenheim JJ. Phorbol myristic acetate stimulates LAF production by the macrophage cell line, P388D₁. *Cell Immunol* 1978;40:230-5.
 21. Powanda MC, Sammons ML, Stephen EL. Systemic metabolic alterations associated with repeated injections of a modified polyribonucleic-polyribocytidylic acid complex. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 1977;12:602-5.
 22. Nordlund JJ, Root RK, Wolff SM. Studies on the origin of human leukocytic pyrogen. *J Exp Med* 1970;131:727-43.
 23. Bodel P. Studies on the mechanism of endogenous pyrogen production. III. Human blood monocytes. *J Exp Med* 1974;140:954-65.
 24. Fleetwood MK, Gander GW, Goodale F. Effect of metabolic inhibitors on pyrogen production by rabbit leukocytes. *Proc Soc Exp Biol Med* 1975;149:336-9.
 25. Mizel SB, Rosenstreich DL. Regulation of lymphocyte-activating factor (LAF) production and secretion in P388D₁ cells: identification of high molecular weight precursors of LAF. *J Immunol* 1979;122:2173-9.
 26. Rupp RG, Fuller GM. The effects of leukocytic and serum factors on fibrinogen biosynthesis in cultured hepatocytes. *Exp Cell Res* 1979;118:23-30.
 27. Murphy PA, Hanson DF, Simon PL, Willoughby WF, Windle BE. Properties of two distinct endogenous pyrogens secreted by rabbit macrophages. In: Schlessinger D, ed. *Microbiology—1980*. Washington, DC: American Society for Microbiology, 1980:158-61.
 28. Grieger TA, Kluger MJ. Fever and survival: the role of serum iron. *J Physiol (Lond)* 1978;279:187-96.
 29. Klempner MS, Dinarello CA, Henderson WR, Gallin JI. Stimulation of neutrophil oxygen-dependent metabolism by human leukocytic pyrogen. *J Clin Invest* 1979;64:996-1002.
 30. Klempner MS, Dinarello CA, Gallin JI. Human leukocytic pyrogen induces release of specific granule contents from human neutrophils. *J Clin Invest* 1978;61:1330-6.
 31. Kampschmidt RF, Pulliam LA. Stimulation of antimicrobial activity in the rat with leukocytic endogenous mediator. *J Reticuloendothel Soc* 1975;17:162-9.
 32. Beisel WR. Infectious diseases: effects on food intake and nutrient requirements. In: Alfin-Slater RB, Kritchevsky D, eds. *Human nutrition: a comprehensive treatise*. Vol. 4. Hodges RE, ed. *Nutrition: metabolic and clinical applications*. New York: Plenum Press, 1979: 329-436.
 33. Wannemacher RW Jr. Key role of various individual amino acids in host response to infection. *Am J Clin Nutr* 1977;30:1269-80.
 34. Sobocinski PZ, Canterbury WJ Jr, Mapes CA, Dinterman RE. Involvement of hepatic metallothioneins in hypozincemia associated with bacterial infection. *Am J Physiol* 1978;234:E399-406.
 35. Powanda MC, Moyer ED. Plasma proteins and wound healing. *Surg Gynecol Obstet* 1981;153:749-55.
 36. Hubbard WJ. Hypothesis: alpha-2 macroglobulin-enzyme complexes as suppressors of cellular activity. *Cell Immunol* 1978;39:388-94.
 37. Pekarek RS, Powanda MC, Wannemacher RW Jr. The effect of leukocytic endogenous mediator (LEM) on serum copper and ceruloplasmin concentrations in the rat. *Proc Soc Exp Biol Med* 1972;141:1029-31.
 38. Goldstein IM, Kaplan HB, Edelson HS, Weissman G. Ceruloplasmin: a scavenger of superoxide anion radicals. *J Biol Chem* 1979;254:4040-45.
 39. Powanda MC, Moyer ED. Plasma protein alterations during infection: potential significance of these changes to host defense and repair systems. In: Powanda MC, Canonico PG, eds. *Infection: the physiologic and metabolic responses of the host*. Amsterdam: Elsevier/North Holland (in press).
 40. George DT, Abeles FB, Mapes CA, Sobocinski PZ, Zenser TV, Powanda MC. Effect of leukocytic endogenous mediators on endocrine pancreas secretor responses. *Am J Physiol* 1977;233:E240-5.
 41. Powanda MC. Host metabolic alterations during inflammatory stress as related to nutritional status. *Am J Vet Res* 1980;41:1905-11.
 42. Beisel WR. Malnutrition as a consequence of stress. In: Suskind RM, ed. *Malnutrition and the immune response*. New York: Raven Press, 1977:21-6.
 43. Lombart C, Sturgess J, Schachter H. The effect of turpentine-induced inflammation on rat liver glycosyltransferases and Golgi complex ultrastructure. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1980;629:1-12.
 44. Little JS. Effect of *Streptococcus pneumoniae* infection on the synthesis of rat liver plasma membranes. *Proc Soc Exp Biol Med* 1981;167:284-9.
 45. Shambaugh GE III, Beisel WR. Endocrine influences on altered hepatic tyrosine transaminase activity during pneumococcal septicemia in the rat. *Endocrinology* 1968;83:965-74.
 46. Moyer ED, Powanda MC. Amino acid metabolism during infectious illness. In: Powanda MC, Canonico PG, eds. *Infection: the physiologic and metabolic responses of the host*. Amsterdam: Elsevier/North Holland (in press).
 47. Hoffman-Goetz L, McFarlane D, Bistran BR, Blackburn GL. Febrile and plasma iron responses of rabbits injected with endogenous pyrogen from malnourished patients. *Am J Clin Nutr* 1981;34:1109-16.
 48. Kierszenbaum F, Waksman BH. Mechanisms of action of 'lymphocyte activating factor' (LAF): I.

Association of lymphocyte activating factor action with early DNA synthesis in PHA-stimulated lymphocytes. Immunology 1977;33:663-9.

49. Koopman WJ, Farrar JJ, Fuller-Bonar J. Evidence for the identification of lymphocyte activating factor as the adherent cell-derived mediator responsible for enhanced antibody synthesis by nude mouse spleen

cells. Cell Immunol 1978;35:92-8.

50. Moore RN, Oppenheim JJ, Farrar JJ, Carter CS Jr, Waheed A, Shadduck RK. Production of lymphocyte-activating factor (interleukin 1) by macrophages activated with colony-stimulating factors. J Immunol 1980;125:1302-5.

DTIC
SELECTED
MAY 28 1982
A *JD*

Accession For	
NTIS GRA&I	☒
DTIC TAB	☐
Unannounced	☐
Justification	
By _____	
Distribution/	
Availability Codes	
Dist	Avail and/or Special
A	21

