

Production of Prostaglandins and Leukotrienes by Pathogenic Fungi

Mairi C. Noverr,^{1,2} Galen B. Toews,² and Gary B. Huffnagle^{1,2*}

Division of Pulmonary and Critical Care Medicine, Department of Internal Medicine,¹ and Department of Microbiology and Immunology,² University of Michigan Medical School, Ann Arbor, Michigan 48109-0642

Received 29 June 2001/Returned for modification 9 August 2001/Accepted 27 September 2001

These studies demonstrate that pathogenic fungi (dermatophytic, subcutaneous, and systemic) have the ability to produce eicosanoids both from simple metabolites and from arachidonic acid. Host-derived eicosanoids have been previously demonstrated to enhance fungal colonization and atopic disease development. Thus, fungus-derived eicosanoids represent a potential class of novel virulence factors.

Eicosanoids are potent regulators of host immune responses (14). Eicosanoids are oxygenated metabolites of dihomo- γ -linolenic, arachidonic, or eicosapentaenoic acid and include the prostaglandins and leukotrienes. Prostaglandins (e.g., prostaglandin D₂ [PGD₂], PGE₂, and PGF_{2 α}) are produced via the initial action of prostaglandin G/H synthase (cyclooxygenase) followed by specific prostaglandin synthases. Leukotrienes are produced via a lipoxygenase (LOX) followed by conversion into leukotriene B₄ (LTB₄) and the cysteinyl leukotrienes (LTC₄, LTD₄, and LTE₄) by different synthases and hydrolases. Prostaglandins can inhibit Th1 type immune responses, chemokine production, phagocytosis, and lymphocyte proliferation (3, 9, 11, 14, 17, 19, 20). Leukotrienes are potent leukocyte chemotactic factors (7). Prostaglandins and leukotrienes can also promote Th2 type responses and tissue eosinophilia (4, 7, 11, 14, 18). In the context of antifungal immunity, chronic or disseminating fungal infections will result if the early Th1/Th2 balance of cellular immunity is shifted away from Th1 toward Th2 type responses (16). Thus, enhanced prostaglandin production during fungal infection could be an important factor in promoting fungal colonization and chronic infection.

Host cells are one source of eicosanoids during fungal infection; however, another potential source of eicosanoids is the fungal pathogen itself. We recently reported that the pathogenic yeasts *Cryptococcus neoformans* and *Candida albicans* produce prostaglandins de novo and when fed exogenous arachidonic acid (AA) (13). In addition, yeast-derived PGE could inhibit lymphocyte proliferation, decrease tumor necrosis factor alpha production, and augment interleukin-10 production (13). Our objective was to determine if eicosanoid production extended to other pathogenic fungi, including dermatophytes (*Epidermophyton floccosum*, *Fusarium dimerum*, *Microsporium audouinii*, *Microsporium canis*, and *Trichophyton rubrum*), subcutaneous pathogens (*Sporothrix schenckii*), and systemic pathogens (*Absidia corymbifera*, *Aspergillus fumigatus*, *Histoplasma capsulatum*, *Blastomyces dermatitidis*, *Penicillium* spp., *Rhizopus* spp., and *Rhizomucor pusillus*).

To examine eicosanoid production in various species of

pathogenic fungi, PGE₂, PGD₂, PGF_{2 α} , LTB₄, and cysteinyl leukotriene (CysLT) levels from culture supernatants were measured. *H. capsulatum* and *B. dermatitidis* were grown for 7 days at 37°C in RPMI medium while shaking. All others were grown for 7 days at 25°C in RPMI medium while shaking. The cultures were incubated for an additional 2 h with 1 mM AA (Cayman Chemicals, Ann Arbor, Mich.). Culture supernatants from both AA-fed and non-AA-fed fungi were analyzed for eicosanoid production using enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay kits (Cayman Chemicals) for PGE₂, PGD₂, PGF_{2 α} , LTB₄, and CysLT (detects LTC₄, LTD₄, and LTE₄) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The cultures without AA measure the (endogenous) production of eicosanoids by fungi in the absence of exogenous fatty acid substrates (RPMI medium is a defined medium devoid of fatty acids). All fungal strains grown in RPMI medium alone produced PGE₂, PGD₂, PGF_{2 α} , LTB₄, and CysLT (Table 1). In the presence of exogenous AA, approximately 10-fold more of each eicosanoid was detected in the cultures (Table 2). *C. neoformans* and *C. albicans* also produced both prostaglandins and leukotrienes from exogenous AA. These data demonstrate that all of these pathogenic fungi have the ability to convert exogenous AA into both LOX- and prostaglandin G/H synthase-derived eicosanoids. Thus, pathogenic fungi have the ability to produce eicosanoids both from simple metabolites and from exogenous AA.

Fungal infections are most notable for their chronicity (e.g., dermatophyte infections) and nonprotective or injurious inflammatory responses (e.g., dermatophytoses, subcutaneous mycoses, and vaginal candidiasis). In mammals, prostaglandins and leukotrienes can play a dual role in the pathogenesis of inflammatory diseases, both promoting and counteracting inflammatory processes (7, 12). All fungal pathogens examined produced prostaglandins and leukotrienes in the absence and presence of extracellular AA (Tables 1 and 2), thereby representing the potential for both de novo and "trans-species" metabolic production of eicosanoids during infection (during infection, exogenous AA could be generated via the action of fungal phospholipases on host phospholipids) (5). Fungal leukotrienes could enhance the acute phase of an inflammatory response, while fungal prostaglandins could locally down-regulate the innate effector phase or protective Th1 response to the infection. The result of fungal eicosanoid production would be an immunologic "tolerance" of the infection with or without

* Corresponding author. Mailing address: Division of Pulmonary and Critical Care Medicine, Department of Internal Medicine, University of Michigan Medical School, Ann Arbor, MI 48109-0642. Phone: (734) 936-9369. Fax: (734) 764-4556. E-mail: ghuff@umich.edu.

TABLE 1. Eicosanoid levels in culture supernatants of pathogenic fungi^a

Fungal species	Strain ^b	Mean (SE) eicosanoid level (pg/ml)				
		Prostaglandins			Leukotrienes	
		PGE ₂	PGD ₂	PGF _{2α}	CysLT	LTB ₄
<i>Absidia corymbifera</i>	ATCC 66271	67 (1)	109 (28)	12 (1)	256 (17)	21 (2)
<i>Aspergillus fumigatus</i>	ATCC 13073	75 (19)	248 (140)	4 (1)	230 (89)	12 (3)
<i>Blastomyces dermatitidis</i>	UM	113 (8)	144 (31)	8 (2)	273 (11)	21 (3)
<i>Epidermophyton floccosum</i>	ATCC 52061	76 (22)	115 (25)	3 (1)	204 (2)	15 (1)
<i>Epidermophyton floccosum</i>	UM	66 (5)	79 (20)	2 (1)	207 (13)	8 (0)
<i>Fusarium dimerum</i>	ATCC 62876	24 (5)	35 (14)	6 (1)	29 (9)	3 (1)
<i>Histoplasma capsulatum</i>	UM	86 (0)	100 (4)	13 (0)	241 (78)	25 (4)
<i>Microsporium audouinii</i>	UM	39 (9)	90 (0)	6 (2)	229 (68)	30 (1)
<i>Microsporium canis</i>	ATCC 42559	22 (16)	111 (24)	4 (1)	168 (33)	13 (1)
<i>Penicillium citrinum</i>	ATCC 76113	121 (24)	119 (14)	7 (0)	32 (17)	17 (2)
<i>Penicillium notatum</i>	ATCC 24655	36 (2)	123 (33)	9 (1)	30 (10)	24 (3)
<i>Penicillium piscarium</i>	ATCC 12109	74 (38)	128 (12)	7 (2)	18 (5)	7 (1)
<i>Penicillium spp.</i>	UM	72 (25)	127 (18)	9 (0)	29 (5)	5 (1)
<i>Rhizomucor pusillus</i>	ATCC 36606	40 (14)	78 (34)	19 (1)	44 (1)	19 (2)
<i>Rhizopus spp.</i>	UM	30 (11)	132 (13)	11 (2)	12 (0)	7 (2)
<i>Sporothrix schenckii</i>	ATCC 24646	137 (2)	164 (1)	9 (1)	33 (5)	9 (2)
<i>Sporothrix schenckii</i>	UM	111 (0)	100 (1)	10 (0)	37 (9)	14 (1)
<i>Trichophyton rubrum</i>	ATCC 18760	81 (22)	146 (1)	5 (1)	7 (6)	12 (3)
<i>Trichophyton rubrum</i>	UM	95 (6)	220 (43)	2 (0)	6 (0)	14 (2)

^a Fungi were cultured for 7 days in RPMI medium (which does not contain any fatty acids or eicosanoids).

^b American Type Culture Collection catalog number or reference standard from The University of Michigan Medical Microbiology Laboratory (UM).

acute inflammation in an otherwise immunocompetent host, leading to chronic fungal colonization.

Why do fungi produce eicosanoids? Since the fungi reported in this work represent a diverse group of organisms, one possibility is that there is a link between eicosanoid production and fungal growth. We previously reported that indomethacin and etodolac (prostaglandin G/H synthase inhibitors) could

inhibit the growth of *C. neoformans* and *C. albicans* (13). We have also observed that nordihydroguaiaretic acid (a LOX inhibitor) can also inhibit the growth of these fungi (data not shown).

The precise role of fungal eicosanoids in the pathogenesis of fungal diseases remains to be determined, but the potential link between fungal eicosanoids and the development of atopic

TABLE 2. Eicosanoid levels in culture supernatants from arachidonic acid-fed pathogenic fungi^a

Fungal species	Strain ^b	Mean (SE) eicosanoid level (pg/ml)				
		Prostaglandin			Leukotriene	
		PGE ₂	PGD ₂	PGF _{2α}	CysLT	LTB ₄
<i>Absidia corymbifera</i>	ATCC 66271	2,044 (48)	2,068 (425)	996 (129)	4,832 (683)	1,679 (266)
<i>Aspergillus fumigatus</i>	ATCC 13073	2,413 (58)	1,192 (202)	1,611 (300)	1,398 (290)	379 (19)
<i>Blastomyces dermatitidis</i>	UM	1,720 (141)	1,121 (243)	839 (142)	987 (142)	467 (9)
<i>Epidermophyton floccosum</i>	ATCC 52061	1,302 (170)	1,733 (360)	1,736 (176)	3,233 (442)	942 (0)
<i>Epidermophyton floccosum</i>	UM	617 (98)	1,002 (224)	782 (85)	1,427 (79)	356 (38)
<i>Fusarium dimerum</i>	ATCC 62876	1,262 (45)	514 (83)	534 (129)	382 (77)	142 (23)
<i>Histoplasma capsulatum</i>	UM	1,825 (171)	1,211 (306)	973 (239)	1,951 (213)	869 (89)
<i>Microsporium audouinii</i>	UM	1,886 (111)	1,511 (327)	1,516 (205)	2,130 (376)	777 (53)
<i>Microsporium canis</i>	ATCC 42559	345 (67)	1,120 (159)	762 (159)	1,198 (240)	330 (47)
<i>Penicillium citrinum</i>	ATCC 76113	1,073 (144)	662 (4)	954 (257)	346 (48)	387 (31)
<i>Penicillium notatum</i>	ATCC 24655	454 (98)	1,179 (128)	891 (157)	491 (72)	564 (111)
<i>Penicillium piscarium</i>	ATCC 12109	1,148 (70)	1,434 (19)	1,480 (432)	1,337 (169)	910 (81)
<i>Penicillium spp.</i>	UM	1,413 (281)	822 (31)	1,096 (116)	566 (159)	496 (21)
<i>Rhizomucor pusillus</i>	ATCC 36606	378 (35)	261 (79)	3,250 (250)	467 (83)	186 (54)
<i>Rhizopus spp.</i>	UM	868 (133)	1,139 (88)	750 (298)	592 (127)	406 (86)
<i>Sporothrix schenckii</i>	ATCC 24646	1,755 (21)	1,833 (87)	1,015 (34)	1,677 (278)	1,280 (50)
<i>Sporothrix schenckii</i>	UM	690 (171)	961 (28)	776 (42)	629 (131)	498 (40)
<i>Trichophyton rubrum</i>	ATCC 18760	970 (109)	1,409 (76)	1,189 (371)	534 (24)	612 (81)
<i>Trichophyton rubrum</i>	UM	2,287 (244)	1,716 (567)	1,180 (132)	2,304 (583)	1,082 (171)
<i>Cryptococcus neoformans</i> ^c	52D	211 (42)	814 (165)	373 (92)	508 (141)	139 (26)
<i>Candida albicans</i> ^c	CHN1	23 (10)	562 (41)	325 (45)	726 (132)	28 (7)

^a Fungi were cultured for 7 days in RPMI medium, and then 1 mM AA was added for 2 h.

^b American Type Culture Collection catalog number or reference standard from The University of Michigan Medical Microbiology Laboratory (UM).

^c *C. neoformans* and *C. albicans* were cultured for 3 days in Sabouraud dextrose broth, spun out, resuspended in RPMI medium containing 1 mM AA, and incubated for 2 h.

diseases in the host is intriguing. The role of eicosanoids in the pathogenesis of allergy and asthma is well documented (2–4, 7, 8, 11, 13, 14, 16, 21). Fungi elicit a variety of allergic diseases, including asthma, sinusitis, allergic bronchopulmonary mycoses, and hypersensitivity pneumonitis (6, 10, 15). As demonstrated in this study, fungi produce immunologically active mediators that can promote the development and manifestation of atopic responses to the infection itself or fungal antigens. By analogy, schistosoma-derived PGD₂ was recently reported to play a role in the immune deviation that occurs following skin infection by this parasite (1). Thus, the discovery that pathogenic fungi produce eicosanoids opens up a new realm of investigation for virulence mechanisms in fungal pathogenesis and also for fungal eicosanoids as potential cofactors of atopic diseases.

We thank Susan Salo and Carl Pierson of the University of Michigan Medical Microbiology Laboratory for providing the fungal reference standards and Deirdra Williams and Cara Chrisman for technical assistance.

This work was supported by a New Investigator Award in Molecular Pathogenic Mycology from the Burroughs-Wellcome Fund (G.B.H.). M.C.N. is also supported by NIH-NIAID training grant T32AI07528.

REFERENCES

1. Angeli, V., C. Faveeuw, O. Roye, I. Fontaine, M. Capron, and F. Trottein. 2001. Role of the parasite-derived prostaglandin D₂ in the inhibition of epidermal langerhans cell migration during schistosomiasis infection. *J. Exp. Med.* **193**:1135–1147.
2. Barnes, P., M. Belvisi, R. Newton, and J. Mitchell. 1998. Cyclooxygenase-2 expression in airway cells, p. 111–127. *In* C. Lenfant (ed.), *Eicosanoids, aspirin, and asthma*, vol. 114. Marcel Dekker, Inc., New York, N.Y.
3. Betz, M., and B. S. Fox. 1991. Prostaglandin E₂ inhibits production of Th1 lymphokines but not of Th2 lymphokines. *J. Immunol.* **146**:108–113.
4. Demeure, C. E., L.-P. Yang, C. Desjardins, P. Raynauld, and G. Delespesse. 1997. Prostaglandin E₂ primes naive T cells for the production of anti-inflammatory cytokines. *Eur. J. Immunol.* **27**:3526–3531.
5. Ghannoum, M. 2000. Potential role of phospholipases in virulence and fungal pathogenesis. *Clin. Microbiol. Rev.* **13**:122–143.
6. Horner, W. E., A. Helbling, J. E. Salvaggio, and S. B. Lehrer. 1995. Fungal allergens. *Clin. Microbiol. Rev.* **8**:161–179.
7. Jonsson, E., and S. Dahlen. 1999. The role of eicosanoids in inflammation and allergy, p. 233–272. *In* F. Marks and G. Furstenberger (ed.), *Prostaglandins, leukotrienes, and other eicosanoids*. Wiley-VCH, Weinheim, Germany.
8. Kaufman, H., J. Tomee, T. van der Werf, J. de Monchy, and G. Koeter. 1995. Review of fungus-induced asthmatic reactions. *Am. J. Respir. Care Med.* **151**:2109–2116.
9. Kunkel, S. L., M. Spengler, M. A. May, R. Spengler, J. Larrick, and D. Remick. 1988. Prostaglandin E₂ regulates macrophage-derived tumor necrosis factor gene expression. *J. Biol. Chem.* **263**:5380–5384.
10. Kurup, V., H. Shen, and B. Banerjee. 2000. Respiratory fungal allergy. *Microbes Infect.* **2**:1101–1110.
11. Matsuoka, T., M. Hirata, H. Tanaka, Y. Takahashi, T. Murata, K. Kabashima, Y. Sugimoto, T. Kobayashi, F. Ushikubi, Y. Aze, N. Eguchi, Y. Urade, N. Yoshida, K. Kimura, A. Mizoguchi, Y. Honda, H. Nagai, and S. Narumiya. 2000. Prostaglandin D₂ as a mediator of allergic asthma. *Science* **287**:2013–2019.
12. Nicosia, S., V. Capra, and G. Rovati. 2001. Leukotrienes as mediators of asthma. *Pulm. Pharmacol. Ther.* **14**:3–19.
13. Noverr, M., S. Phare, G. Toews, M. Coffey, and G. Huffnagle. 2001. Pathogenic yeasts *Cryptococcus neoformans* and *Candida albicans* produce immunomodulatory prostaglandins. *Infect. Immun.* **69**:2957–2963.
14. Peters-Golden, M. 1997. Lipid mediator synthesis by lung macrophages, p. 151–182. *In* M. F. Lipscomb and S. W. Russell (ed.), *Lung macrophages and dendritic cells in health and disease*, vol. 102. Marcel Dekker, Inc., New York, N.Y.
15. Ponikau, J., D. Sherris, E. Kern, H. Homberger, E. Frigas, T. Gaffey, and G. Roberts. 1999. The diagnosis and incidence of allergic fungal sinusitis. *Mayo Clin. Proc.* **74**:877–884.
16. Romani, L., and S. H. Kaufmann (ed.). 1998. *Immunity to fungi*. Research in immunology, vol. 149. Elsevier, Amsterdam, The Netherlands.
17. Sergeeva, M. G., M. V. Gonchar, A. T. Mevkh, and S. D. Varfolomeyev. 1997. Prostaglandin E₂ biphasic control of lymphocyte proliferation inhibition by picomolar concentrations. *FEBS Lett.* **418**:235–238.
18. Snijdewint, F. G., P. Kalinski, E. A. Wierenga, J. D. Bos, and M. L. Kapsenberg. 1993. Prostaglandin E₂ differentially modulates cytokine secretion profiles of human T helper lymphocytes. *J. Immunol.* **150**:5321–5329.
19. Standiford, T. J., S. L. Kunkel, M. W. Rolfe, H. L. Evanoff, R. M. Allen, and R. M. Strieter. 1992. Regulation of human alveolar macrophage- and blood monocyte-derived interleukin-8 by prostaglandin E₂ and dexamethasone. *Am. J. Respir. Cell Mol. Biol.* **6**:75–81.
20. Strassmann, G., V. Patil-Koota, F. Finkelman, M. Fong, and T. Kambayashi. 1994. Evidence for the involvement of interleukin 10 in the differential deactivation of murine peritoneal macrophages by prostaglandin E₂. *J. Exp. Med.* **180**:2365–2370.
21. Yamaoka, K., J. Kolb, N. Miyasaka, G. Inuo, and K. Fujita. 1993. Leukotriene B₄ induces interleukin 5 generation from human T lymphocytes. *Eur. J. Immunol.* **23**:2392–2398.

Editor: T. R. Kozel