

Role of Transcription Factor NF- κ B in Asbestos-Induced TNF α Response from Macrophages

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Asbestos exposure in humans is associated with inflammatory, fibrotic, and malignant diseases in the lung. Increasing evidence supports the hypothesis that the production of proinflammatory cytokines such as tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF α) is an important mediator of the pathologic responses of asbestosis. In this study, we examine the role of nuclear transcription factor- κ B (NF- κ B) and free oxygen radicals in asbestos-induced TNF α gene and protein expression in lung macrophages. Exposure of the cells to crocidolite asbestos caused a parallel increase in TNF α production and NF- κ B activation, as analyzed by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay and electrophoretic mobility shift assay. Inhibition of NF- κ B by SN50, an inhibitor of NF- κ B nuclear translocation, or by sequence-specific oligonucleotides directed against the NF- κ B binding site of TNF α promoter attenuated the asbestos effect on TNF α production. Gene transfection assays using an expression plasmid containing a luciferase reporter gene and a TNF α -derived NF- κ B gene promoter further indicated the dependence of NF- κ B activation on asbestos-induced gene expression. The effects of asbestos on NF- κ B and TNF α activation were inhibited by oxygen radical scavengers and were enhanced by antioxidant enzyme inhibitors. These results indicate that asbestos-induced TNF α gene expression is mediated through a process that involves NF- κ B activation and free radical reactions. © 1999 Academic Press

INTRODUCTION

Clinical and experimental studies show that asbestos exposure causes lung diseases such as inflammation, fibrosis, and cancer (Mossman and Gee 1989; Zhang *et al.* 1993; Janssen *et al.* 1994). Although the mechanisms of asbestos-induced lung diseases remain unclear, an elaboration of macrophage cytokines and activation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) are thought to play a key role in the disease process. Tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF α) is an important cytokine that mediates inflammatory and fibrotic reactions (Zhang *et al.* 1993; Perkins *et al.* 1993). It can initiate a cascade of events including the secretion of chemotactic cytokines by immune and nonimmune cells, expression of adhesion molecules on endothelial cells, and responses that contribute to lung toxicities (Emgelmann *et al.* 1990; Li *et al.* 1993; Perkins *et al.* 1993; Ljungman *et al.* 1994).

The expression of TNF α is regulated at different levels, transcriptional and posttranscriptional (Beutler 1992). At the transcriptional level, TNF α is regulated by sequence-specific transcription factors, which interact with the gene's promoter or enhancer regions (Collart *et al.* 1990). Because the TNF α gene promoter contains NF- κ B binding sites (Lenardo and

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Baltimore 1989; Collart *et al.* 1990), we hypothesize that asbestos-induced TNF α production is mediated through NF- κ B activation. The possible role of NF- κ B in asbestos-induced lung disease has also been recently suggested. Janssen *et al.* (1995) reported that asbestos was able to induce NF- κ B DNA binding activity in hamster tracheal epithelial cells, and Simeonova and Luster (1996) showed that asbestos activated NF- κ B-like transcription factors in the human pulmonary epithelial cell line A549. Although these studies suggest that asbestos is able to activate NF- κ B, whether or not this activation is responsible for TNF α production remains to be established. Furthermore, asbestos-induced NF- κ B activation has not been demonstrated in pulmonary alveolar macrophages. This is important since alveolar macrophages are the primary source of TNF α production in the lung and are the principal target for inhaled toxicants (Kelly 1990). Thus, in this study we focus on the role of NF- κ B in asbestos-induced TNF α activation in macrophages.

Asbestos-induced lung toxicity has also been associated with the generation of free radicals and other ROS by macrophages and other inflammatory cells. ROS such as superoxide anion (O $_2^-$), hydrogen peroxide (H $_2$ O $_2$), and hydroxyl radical (\cdot OH) have been reported to cause lung injury after asbestos exposure (Kamp *et al.* 1992; Schapira *et al.* 1994). Recent studies have also indicated that ROS can activate a number of cytokine genes including TNF α (Gossart *et al.* 1996; Simeonova and Luster 1995). These findings suggest that ROS may serve as mediators of TNF α and other cytokine-related pathologic responses in asbestosis. As ROS has been implicated in the activation of numerous transcription factors, including NF- κ B (Schreck *et al.* 1991), we hypothesize that asbestos induces TNF α gene expression via ROS-dependent NF- κ B activation. Here, we demonstrate that asbestos activates TNF α promoter-mediated transcription and stimulates binding activity to the NF- κ B regulatory elements in the TNF α gene. The contribution of ROS and the role of specific oxidative species were evaluated in the regulation of these responses.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Reagents

Crocidolite asbestos [(Na $_2$ (Fe III) $_2$ (Fe II) $_3$ Si $_8$ O $_{22}$ (OH) $_2$] was obtained from the National Institute of Occupational Safety and Health (Morgantown, WV). This sample, originally obtained from a mine in South Africa, had a median fiber length of 11.5 μ m and a surface area of 17.1 m 2 /g. Titanium

dioxide (Sigma Chemical Co., St. Louis, MO) was spherical in shape and had a diameter between 0.1 and 0.55 μ m. Prior to use, the samples were heat-sterilized for 2 h at 200°C and dispersed in incubating medium by ultrasonication. The presence of endotoxin in the samples was analyzed by the Limulus ameocyte assay (Sigma) and was undetectable. Double-stranded (ds) oligodeoxynucleotide with a sequence specific to the NF- κ B binding site of the TNF α promoter (NF-ON) (5'-GGTCCGTGAATCCCCAGGGC-3') (Collart *et al.* 1990) and a nonspecific control sequence (C-ON) (5'-GTGAAGGTCCAGGGCTTCCC-3') were synthesized on an automated solid-phase synthesizer using standard phosphoramidite chemistry. The antisense strands of these ds oligomers were the reverse complements. The oligonucleotides were purified by high-performance liquid chromatography and were >98% pure. SN50 peptide was obtained from Biomol Research Laboratories (Plymouth Meeting, PA). All other test agents including deferoxamine mesylate, sodium formate, mercaptosuccinic acid, and diethyldithiocarbamic acid were purchased from Sigma Chemical Co.

Cell Preparation and Culture

Alveolar macrophages were harvested from male Sprague-Dawley rats (200–250 mg) by bronchoalveolar lavage as previously described (Rojanasakul *et al.* 1997). Aliquots of 200 μ l containing 2×10^5 cells in DMEM medium with 10% fetal bovine serum were added onto a 96-well plate and incubated at 37°C in a humidified atmosphere at 5% CO $_2$. The macrophage cell line RAW 264.7 was obtained from American Type Culture Collection (ATCC, Rockville, MD) and was similarly maintained.

Cell Treatment

In a typical experiment, cells were treated with crocidolite asbestos in DMEM medium at a subcytotoxic concentration of 50 μ g/ml. In studies designed to evaluate the effect of concentration of asbestos on TNF α production and NF- κ B activation, 25–100 μ g/ml of asbestos was used. All other test agents, including deferoxamine, sodium formate, PBN, mercaptosuccinic acid, and diethyldithiocarbamic acid, at indicated concentrations, were added to the cells 2 h prior to asbestos stimulation.

Nuclear Extracts

Nuclear extracts were prepared as follows: 5×10^7 cells were treated with 500 μ l lysis buffer (50 mM KCl, 0.5%

NP-40, 25 mM Hepes, 1 mM PMSF, 10 μ g/ml leupeptin, 20 μ g/ml aprotinin, 100 μ M DTT) on ice for 4 min. Nuclei were pelleted by centrifugation at 14,000 rpm for 1 min and were resuspended in 300 μ l extraction buffer (500 mM KCl, 10% glycerol, 25 mM Hepes, 1 mM PMSF, 10 μ g/ml leupeptin, 20 μ g/ml aprotinin, 100 μ M DTT). After centrifugation at 14,000 rpm for 5 min, the supernatant was harvested and stored at -70°C . The protein concentration of the resulting nuclear protein extract was determined by BCA protein assay reagent (Pierce, Rockford, IL).

Electrophoretic Mobility Shift Assay

The DNA–protein binding reaction was conducted in a 24- μ l reaction mixture including 3 μ g nuclear protein extract, 1 μ g poly(dI·dC) (sigma), 3 μ g BSA, 4×10^4 cpm of ^{32}P -labeled oligonucleotide probe (see below), and 12 μ l of $2 \times \text{Y}$ buffer (Ye *et al.* 1996). In some cases, nonlabeled oligomer (100-fold excess) was also added as a cold competitor. The mixture was incubated on ice for 10 min with or without antibody specific to NF- κ B p50 in the absence of radiolabeled probe and then for 20 min at room temperature in the presence of radiolabeled probe. The mixture was resolved on a 5% polyacrylamide gel that had been prerun at 170 V for 30 min with $0.5 \times \text{TBE}$ buffer. The loaded gel was run at 200 V for 90 min, dried, and placed on Kodak X-OMAT film (Eastman Kodak, Rochester, NY). This film was developed after overnight exposure at -70°C . The preparation of radiolabeled oligonucleotide probe was performed as previously described (Isshiki *et al.* 1990). An NF- κ B binding sequence (5'TGGGATTTTCCCATGAGTCT-3') was used to synthesize the probe. The synthesized oligonucleotide probe was denatured at 80°C for 5 min and annealed with its complementary sequence at room temperature. An AP1 binding oligonucleotide was also used as a nonspecific competitor or as a probe to examine the AP1 binding activity (Ye *et al.* 1996). The ds probe was labeled with [^{32}P]ATP (Amersham, Arlington Heights, IL) using T4 kinase (BRL, Gaithersburgh, MD).

Transient Transfection and Luciferase Assay

The reporter gene vector used in this study was generously provided by Dr. S. T. Fan at the Scripps Research Institute (La Jolla, CA) (Yao *et al.* 1997). The luciferase vector contains NF- κ B binding sites derived from the $-615/+15$ promoter fragment of the TNF α gene. RAW 264.7 cells (1×10^6 /well) were plated in 6-well plates for 16 h, after which they were transfected with the reporter DNA (5 μ g) using

the DEAE–dextran method (Yao *et al.* 1997). After transfection, the cells were washed and added to normal culture medium containing 10% fetal bovine serum. After a 24-h incubation at 37°C , the cells were washed and used for asbestos stimulation studies. Luciferase activity was measured 6 h after asbestos stimulation, with or without other test agents, using the Promega Luciferase Assay kit (Promega, Madison, WI). To account for the potential cytotoxic effect caused by the transfecting agent, asbestos, or other test agents during the experiments, total cell protein was determined and used to normalize the measured luciferase activity.

Enzyme-Linked Immunosorbent Assay

Analysis of TNF α protein level was performed using the Genzyme TNF α enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) kit (Genzyme Corp., Cambridge, MA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Absorbance measurement of the enzyme product was carried out at a wavelength of 450 nm using the Bio-Rad 500 microplate reader.

RESULTS

Asbestos Induces TNF α Production

To study the effect of asbestos on TNF α production, ELISA experiments were conducted using primary alveolar macrophages and macrophage RAW 264.7 cells. The cells were treated with varying concentrations of crocidolite asbestos (25–100 μ g/ml) for up to 24 h, and the cell supernatants were collected and analyzed for TNF α . Figures 1 and 2 show that asbestos stimulated TNF α production in a dose- and time-dependent manner. The saturation level was reached in about 8 h at a crocidolite concentration of approximately 50 μ g/ml. The nonfibrogenic control dust, titanium dioxide, had no stimulatory effect on TNF α secretion (Fig. 1). Under the optimal stimulatory condition (50 μ g/ml, 8 h), asbestos did not cause a significant cytotoxic effect over control, as analyzed by trypan blue dye exclusion assay, i.e., $7 \pm 3\%$ vs $5 \pm 4\%$ ($P < 0.05$, $n = 4$). These results are in good agreement with previous studies that indicated that asbestos was able to induce TNF α secretion both *in vivo* and *in vitro* (Perkins *et al.* 1993; Driscoll *et al.* 1990; Simeonova and Luster 1995).

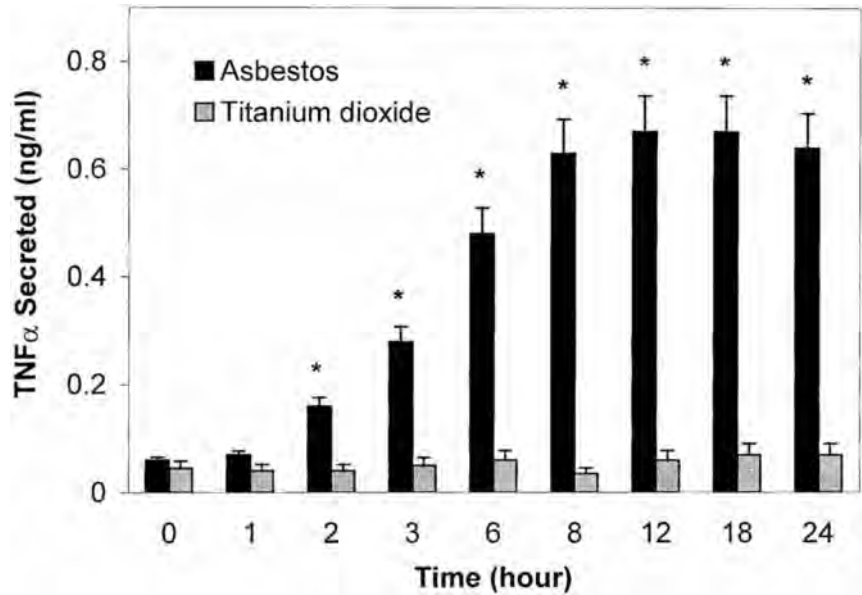


FIG. 1. Time course of TNF α production in asbestos-treated alveolar macrophages. Lavage cells (2×10^5 /well) were incubated with heat-sterilized crocidolite asbestos ($50 \mu\text{g/ml}$) or titanium dioxide ($50 \mu\text{g/ml}$) at 37°C in culture medium. At the indicated times, the culture media were collected and analyzed for TNF α by ELISA. The values represent mean \pm SE of three measurements obtained from different cell preparations. *Significant difference from untreated control ($P < 0.05$).

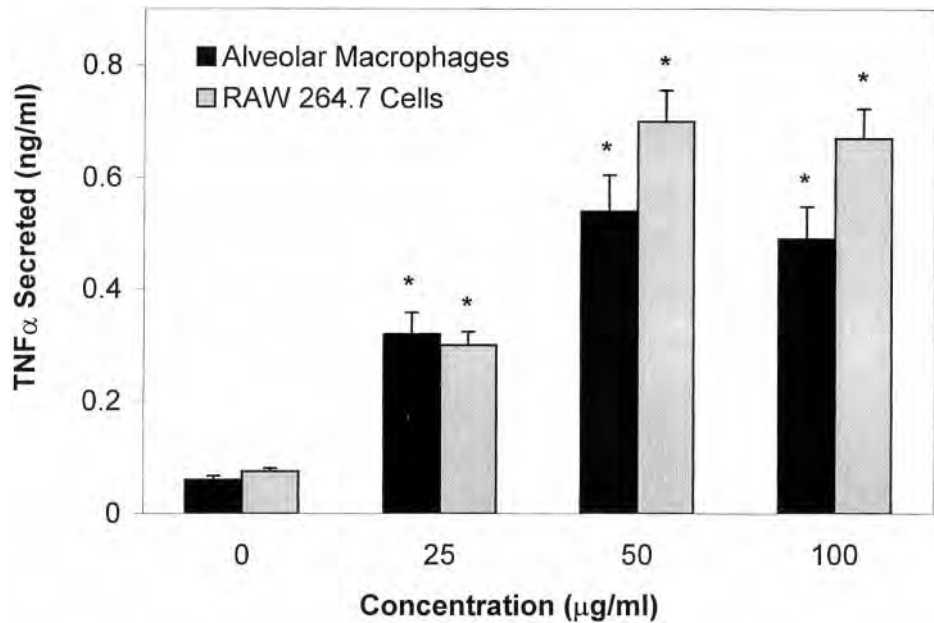


FIG. 2. Dose effect of crocidolite asbestos on TNF α production in alveolar macrophages and RAW 264.7 cells. Cells were treated with varying concentrations of crocidolite asbestos (0–100 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) for 6 h at 37°C . The values represent mean \pm SE, $n = 3$. *Significant difference from untreated control ($P < 0.05$).

Inhibition of Asbestos-Induced TNF α Production by NF- κ B Inhibitors

Since NF- κ B binding sites have been found in the promoter region of the TNF α gene (Collart *et al.* 1990; Lenardo and Baltimore 1989), NF- κ B may be involved in the regulation of asbestos-induced TNF α expression. To test this possibility, cells were treated with asbestos in the presence of SN50, a cell-permeable inhibitory peptide of NF- κ B. This peptide carries a functional domain that inhibits the translocation of activated NF- κ B complexes from the cytoplasm to the nucleus (Lin *et al.* 1995). As shown in Fig. 3, treatment of the cells with SN50 resulted in a complete inhibition of TNF α , suggesting the regulatory role of NF- κ B in asbestos-induced TNF α activation.

To confirm the above observation, oligonucleotide inhibition assays were conducted. Double-stranded oligonucleotide containing the sequence specific to the NF- κ B binding site of TNF α promoter was added to the cells prior to asbestos stimulation. As a control, nonspecific oligonucleotide sequence having the same base composition and length was used. Figure 3 shows that the NF-ON was able to inhibit TNF α production, whereas the control C-ON had no effect. These results suggest the binding specificity of NF-ON to its NF- κ B target and the involvement of NF- κ B in asbestos-induced TNF α activation.

EMSA and Gene Transfection Studies

The observation that NF- κ B inhibitors attenuated TNF α production indicates that the activation of NF- κ B by asbestos may be required for the induction of TNF α . The possible activation of NF- κ B by crocidolite asbestos was further examined by electrophoretic mobility shift assay (EMSA) and luciferase gene transfection assays. In the EMSA study, alveolar macrophages were exposed to crocidolite asbestos for 6 h, and the NF- κ B was analyzed in the nuclear extracts. As shown in Fig. 4A, the cells exhibited a dose-dependent increase in NF- κ B binding activity. The specificity of NF- κ B binding was verified by competitive inhibition and antibody supershift assays (Fig. 4B). The results of this study showed that the NF- κ B binding activity of the nuclear extract could be competed by a nonlabeled NF- κ B DNA probe but not by a nonspecific AP-1 DNA probe, and the antibody specific to NF- κ B caused a bandshift of the NF- κ B complexes. Pretreatment of the cells with SN50 or NF-ON effectively inhibited asbestos-induced NF- κ B activation, whereas the nonspecific inhibitor C-ON had no effect (Fig. 4C). In the second set of experiments, a more quantitative gene transfection assay was used to probe the promoter activity of the TNF α gene under asbestos stimulation. The TNF α promoter-containing vector that carries NF- κ B binding sites upstream of

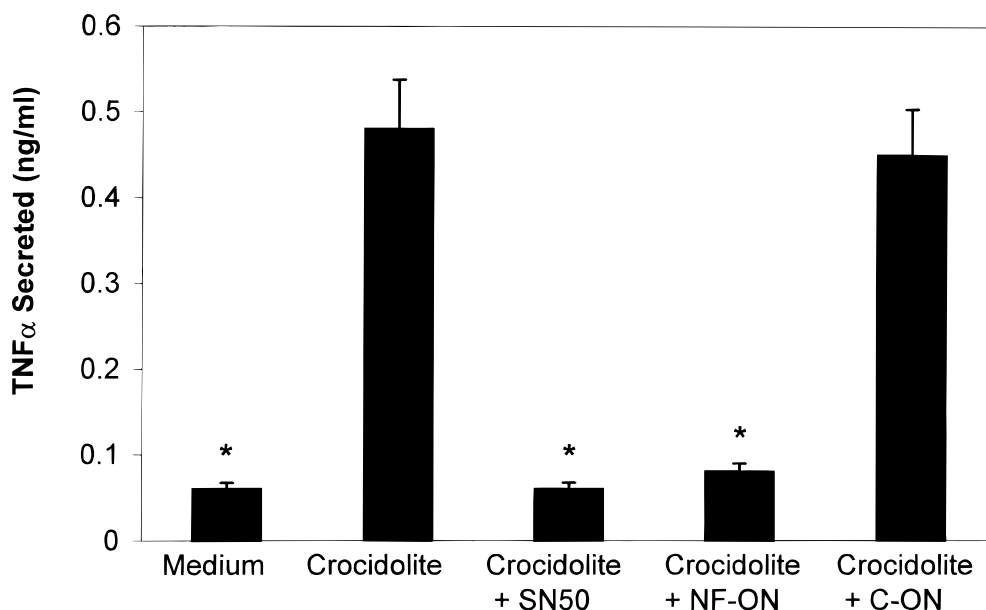


FIG. 3. Effect of NF- κ B inhibitors on crocidolite-induced TNF α production. Alveolar macrophages were pretreated with SN50 (100 μ g/ml), NF-ON (25 μ g/ml), or C-ON (25 μ g/ml) for 2 h, followed by asbestos stimulation (50 μ g/ml) for another 6 h. The values represent mean \pm SE, $n = 3$. *Significant difference from crocidolite-treated control ($P < 0.05$).

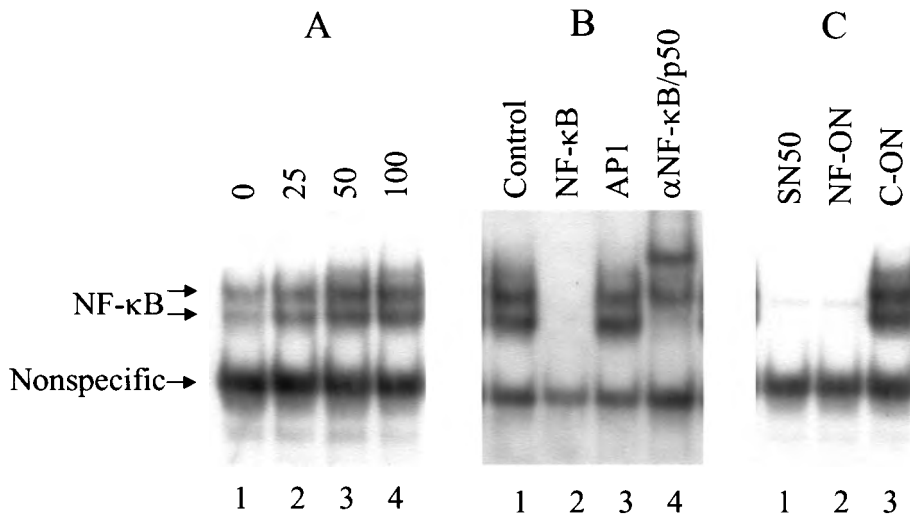


FIG. 4. NF- κ B activation by asbestos and its inhibition by NF- κ B inhibitors. (A) Dose-dependence activation of NF- κ B by asbestos. Alveolar macrophages were stimulated by crocidolite asbestos at varying concentrations (0, 25, 50, and 100 μ g/ml) (lane 1–4) for 6 h at 37°C, and then nuclear extracts were prepared. (B) Competition and antibody supershift assays of NF- κ B binding activity for nuclear extract from cells treated with asbestos (50 μ g/ml) for 6 h. The competitors and antibody used in each lane are as indicated. (C) Effect of NF- κ B inhibitors on asbestos-induced NF- κ B activation. Cells were pretreated with SN50 (100 μ g/ml) (lane 1), NF-ON (25 μ g/ml) (lane 2), or C-ON (25 μ g/ml) (lane 3), for 2 h, followed by crocidolite stimulation (50 μ g/ml) for an additional 6 h.

the luciferase reporter gene was introduced into the macrophages. In this study, the macrophage RAW 264.7 cells were used instead of the alveolar macrophage cells since the latter were found to be refractory to gene transfection. The transfected RAW 264.7 cells were treated with varying concentrations of asbestos in the presence or in the absence of SN50. Figure 5 shows that such treatment caused a dose-dependent increase in luciferase activity, and the SN50 effectively inhibited this activation. These results demonstrate that asbestos is able to activate the TNF α gene promoter and that the NF- κ B binding site is required for such activation.

Effects of Oxygen Radical Scavengers

The role of free radical reactions in asbestos-induced NF- κ B and TNF α activation was examined using free radical scavengers and antioxidant enzyme inhibitors. It has been reported that asbestos is capable of generating free radicals from hydrogen peroxide (Kamp *et al.* 1992). Free radical scavenger (sodium formate) and metal chelator (deferoxamine) were used to examine the effects of asbestos on NF- κ B activation and TNF α production. As shown in Fig. 6, cells treated with these agents prior to asbestos stimulation exhibited a dose-dependent decrease in NF- κ B activity. Similarly, treatment of the cells with these agents also caused a parallel decrease in TNF α production (Fig. 7).

Most cells are endowed with a sophisticated network of antioxidant defense mechanisms. To test whether endogenous antioxidant enzymes are involved in asbestos-induced TNF α activation, two specific antioxidant enzyme inhibitors, mercaptosuccinate and diethyldithiocarbamic acid, were used. As shown in Fig. 7, mercaptosuccinate, an inhibitor of glutathione peroxidase that scavenges H₂O₂, enhanced macrophage secretion of TNF α , whereas diethyldithiocarbamic acid, an inhibitor of superoxide dismutase that scavenges superoxide anion to generate H₂O₂, inhibited it. These results indicate the role of endogenous antioxidant enzymes in the regulation of asbestos-induced ROS generation and TNF α production.

DISCUSSION

It is well documented that asbestos exposure induces pulmonary diseases (Craighead and Mossman 1982; Zhang *et al.* 1993). The pathologic responses in the lung are characterized by the accumulation of macrophages at the site of fiber deposition and the release of inflammatory mediators, including proinflammatory cytokines, chemotactic peptides, and growth factors (Zhang *et al.* 1993; Perkins *et al.* 1993;

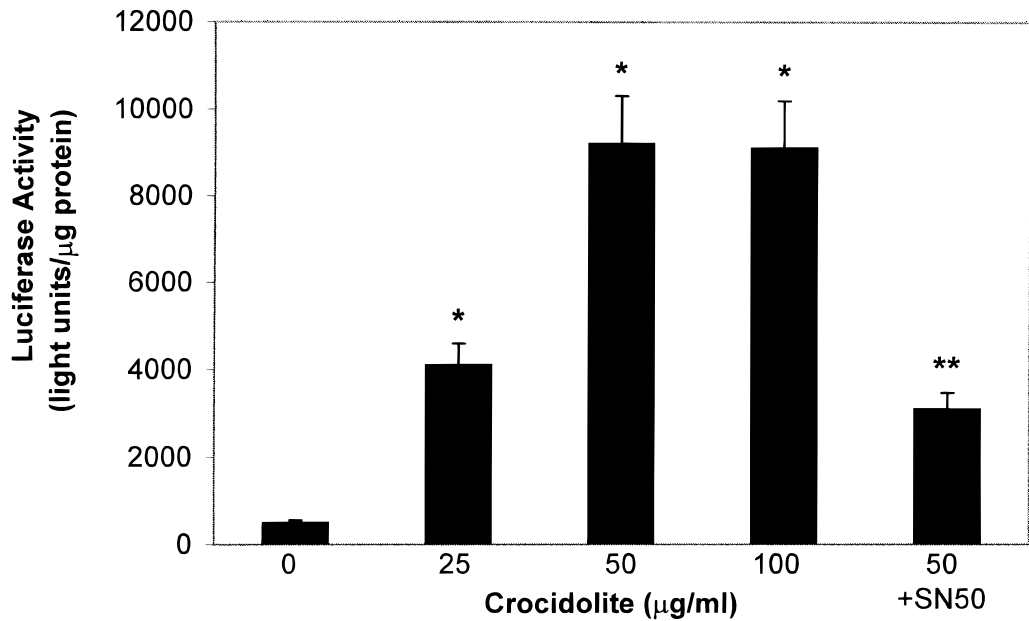


FIG. 5. Effect of crocidolite and SN50 on NF- κ B-dependent luciferase gene expression. RAW 264.7 cells were transiently transfected with an expression plasmid containing luciferase gene transcribed from the NF- κ B-dependent promoter. The transfected cells were treated with varying concentrations of crocidolite (0–100 μ g/ml) in the absence or in the presence of SN50 (100 μ g/ml) for 6 h at 37°C. The values represent mean \pm SE, $n = 3$. *Significant difference from non-crocidolite-treated control A ($P < 0.05$). **Significant difference from crocidolite-treated control C ($P < 0.05$).

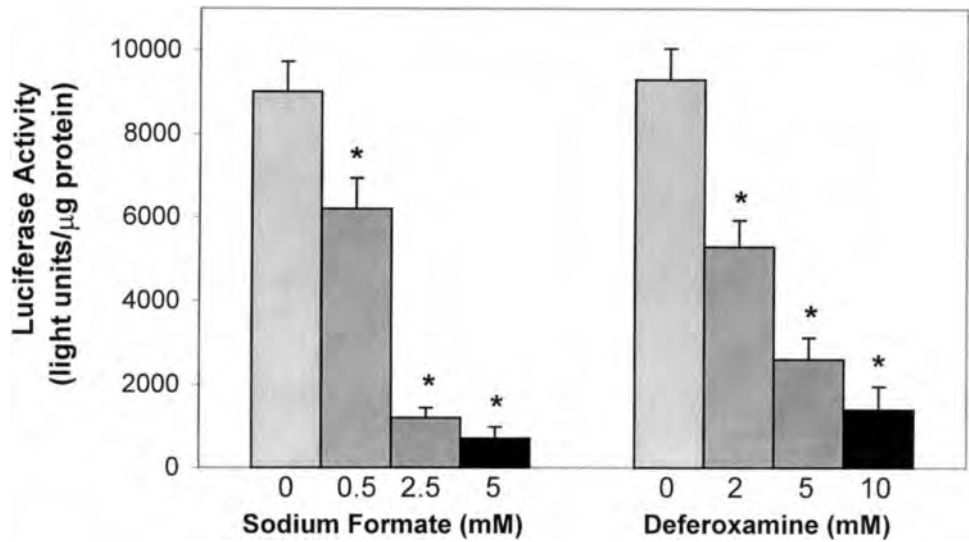


FIG. 6. Effect of oxygen radical scavengers on NF- κ B-dependent luciferase activity in crocidolite-treated cells. Transfected RAW 264.7 cells were pretreated with various concentrations of sodium formate or deferoxamine for 2 h at 37°C and then treated with crocidolite for 6 h at 37°C. The values represent mean \pm SE, $n = 3$. *Significant difference from crocidolite-treated control B ($P < 0.05$).

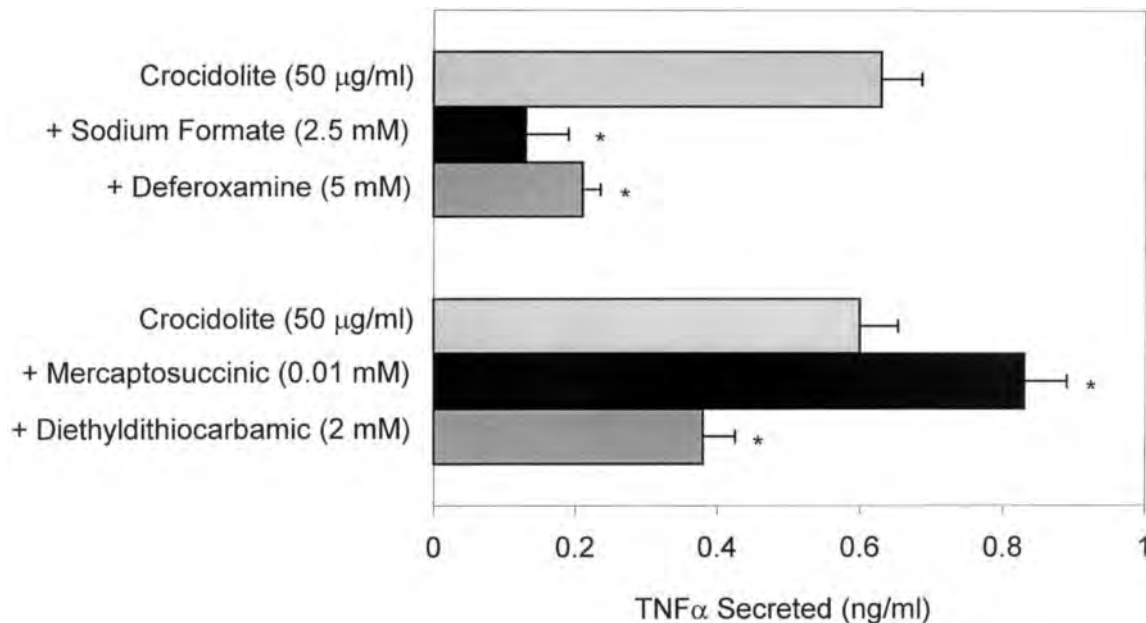


FIG. 7. Effect of oxygen radical scavengers and antioxidant enzyme inhibitors on TNF α production in crocidolite-treated cells. RAW 264.7 cells were pretreated with various radical scavengers and enzyme inhibitors for 2 h at 37°C and then treated with crocidolite for 6 h at 37°C. The values represent mean \pm SE, $n = 3$. *Significant difference from crocidolite-treated control B ($P < 0.05$).

Li *et al.* 1993). Among the proinflammatory cytokines, TNF α has received the most attention and several lines of evidence suggest that it plays a crucial role in asbestos-induced lung diseases, including (1) alveolar macrophages from asbestosis patients (Zhang *et al.* 1993) or from patients with a history of chronic asbestos exposure (Perkins *et al.* 1993) who produce an increased amount of TNF α ; (2) *in vivo* administration of TNF α causes many of the pathologic responses associated with asbestosis (Piguet *et al.* 1990a; Fiers 1991); and (3) administration of antibodies to TNF α prevents the pathologic effects caused by related fibrogenic material (Piguet *et al.* 1990b). Despite these findings, relatively little is known about the molecular mechanism by which asbestos stimulates TNF α production. Recent studies suggest that ROS produced by macrophages are involved in TNF α activation and antioxidants inhibit this activation (Gossart *et al.* 1996; Simeonova and Luster 1995). In the present study, we further demonstrate that ROS-dependent TNF α activation by asbestos is mediated through NF- κ B activation.

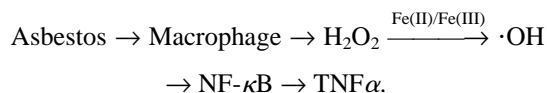
The expression of TNF α is regulated at different levels, transcriptional and posttranscriptional (Beutler 1992). It is well known that transcriptional regulation is a key step in the control of TNF α gene expression (Collart *et al.* 1990).

The activation of the TNF α gene is controlled by transcription factors that bind to the gene's promoter or enhancer regions. NF- κ B is one such factor that is involved in the transcriptional regulation of several cytokines, including interleukins and TNF α (Baeuerle and Henkel 1994; Siebenlist *et al.* 1994). This study demonstrated that crocidolite asbestos induced NF- κ B activation and stimulated TNF α production in alveolar macrophages and RAW 264.7 cells. The inhibitory effects were dose-dependent and inhibited by the NF- κ B inhibitor SN50. The SN50 is a cell-permeable peptide that carries a functional domain consisting of the nuclear localization sequence of the transcription factor NF- κ B p50 (Lin *et al.* 1995). It inhibits subcellular traffic of NF- κ B/Rel complexes from the cytoplasm to the nucleus. This peptide has been reported to inhibit LPS-induced NF- κ B activation in a dose-dependent manner. At 100 μ g/ml, this peptide inhibits 85% of the NF- κ B activation (Lin *et al.* 1995). Thus, it appears from this study that asbestos-induced TNF α expression is regulated by NF- κ B activation.

NF- κ B is known to activate gene transcription by interacting with a specific DNA sequence in the promoter region of a target gene. Since this interaction is sequence specific, we rationalize that specific oligonucleotides having the same base sequence as that of the NF- κ B recognition site may be

used to inhibit transcriptional activation. Using a ds oligonucleotide targeted to the TNF α binding site of NF- κ B, we have shown that specific inhibition of TNF α gene expression can be achieved. The relative inability of the nonspecific control sequence to inhibit TNF α activation under identical stimulation conditions indicates the target binding specificity of NF-ON. These results are consistent with the SN50 finding and indicate that NF- κ B is involved in asbestos-induced TNF α activation.

The dependence of ROS in asbestos-induced NF- κ B activation and TNF α production is further demonstrated by the following observations: (1) sodium formate, a hydroxyl radical scavenger, inhibited asbestos-induced NF- κ B activation and TNF α production; (2) mercaptosuccinic acid, an inhibitor of endogenous glutathione peroxidase, enhanced the TNF α induction, whereas diethyldithiocarbamic acid, an inhibitor of superoxide dismutase, decreased the effect. The major function of glutathione peroxidase is to protect the cell against oxidative damage by scavenging H₂O₂. The inhibition of this enzyme increases the cellular level of H₂O₂. The major function of superoxide dismutase is to scavenge superoxide radicals to generate H₂O₂. Thus, a decrease in superoxide dismutase activity reduces the H₂O₂ level. It should be noted that H₂O₂ is a major source of hydroxyl radicals, i.e., via the metal-catalyzed Fenton reaction (Halliwell and Gutteridge 1986). (3) The metal chelator deferoxamine reduced TNF α induction. Deferoxamine chelates metal ions, such as Fe(II) and Fe(III), making them less reactive toward H₂O₂ and thus decreasing their ability to generate hydroxyl radicals. Previous studies have shown that the treatment of asbestos with deferoxamine effectively removes Fe from the fiber surface and decreases its ability to generate hydroxyl radicals (Ghio *et al.* 1992a). Based on the above information, the following scheme is proposed for asbestos-induced TNF α production:



The dependence of iron on fiber reactivity suggests that fibers with high iron content (e.g., crocidolite) should be more biologically active than those with lower iron content (e.g., chrysotile). Indeed, previous studies have shown that crocidolite is a stronger inducer of TNF α (Simeonova and Luster 1995) and is also more toxic to the pulmonary system than chrysotile (Craighead and Mossman 1982). Titanium dioxide, a mineral oxide with minimal iron binding capacity (Ghio *et al.* 1992b), was unable to stimulate TNF α in the present study.

In conclusion, the present study demonstrates that crocidolite asbestos is able to activate TNF α production in macrophages and that this activation can be inhibited by NF- κ B inhibitors and free radical scavengers. NF- κ B activation via metal-mediated free radical reactions is an important step in asbestos-induced TNF α production.

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