

Immune Response to Burn Injury: Hyperinflammation and Immunosuppression

Septin Mauludiyana¹, Aryati², Yoes Prijatna Dachlan³, Iswinarno Doso Saputro⁴, Muhaimin Rifa'i⁵

¹Doctoral Student, Post Graduate Doctoral Program, Faculty of Medicine, Airlangga University, Indonesia, ²Professor, Department of Clinical Pathology, Faculty of Medicine, Airlangga University, Dr. Soetomo General Hospital, Indonesia, ³Professor, Department of Parasitology, Faculty of Medicine, Airlangga University, Indonesia, ⁴Head of Department of Plastic Reconstructive and Aesthetic Surgery, Faculty of Medicine, Airlangga University, Dr. Soetomo General Hospital, Indonesia, ⁵Professor, Head of Department of Biology, Faculty of Mathematics and Natural Science, Brawijaya University, Indonesia

Abstract

Burn is an injury to the skin or other tissue. Mostly, it caused by contacting with hot liquids, solids, and flames. The important thing that should be consider in burn incident is the severity of burn and it based on the depth and area of the burn injury. The severity of burns will cause differences of pathophysiological responses. This was a literature review study. Various articles were collected from online database including reports, journals, and published in the last 10 years. The articles were from the scholar journals. The systemic inflammatory response in severe level of burns was not given good response to disappear of lesion burn and initiating tissue repair. Moreover, it was given an organ failure to the patient. The body responded to this incident by releasing antiinflammatory mediators. This response is very strong and prolonged, so it caused immunosuppression and increase the risk of secondary infection to the patients. Burns affects the patient's immune system. The ratio between pro and antiinflammatory mediators are determining the patient's subsequent status.

Keywords: Immune response, Burn Injury, Hyperinflammation, Immunosuppression

Introduction

Burn is an injury to the skin or other tissue caused from contacts with hot liquids, hot solids, flames, radiation, radioactivity, electricity, and friction or contact with chemicals⁽¹⁾. Most of burns incidences are caused by hot fluids, solids, and flames⁽²⁾. The differences of causes of these burns will affects the pathophysiological response⁽³⁾. Moreover, the important note after the burn incident is the level of burn severity based on the on the depth and area of the wound.

The presence of tissue damage due to burns causes an immune response in body, the response is the inflammation form to disappear the lesion and initiate tissue repair⁽⁴⁾. The inflammatory reaction was driven by some cells who involved in innate immunity, such as neutrophil cells and macrophage cells. At earlier, the inflammatory response was to protect the host but

the consequences of this process given an exacerbate injury. In severe burns cases, the inflammatory response is very strong and systemic or known as systemic inflammatory response syndrome (SIRS) which can lead to organ failure⁽⁵⁾. Therefore, the body responds by forming a counter antiinflammatory response syndrome (CARS) and it is expect to restore the homeostasis condition and control SIRS. Unfortunately, a prolonged antiinflammatory response not profitable response but now it causes an immunosuppressive condition and increases the risk of secondary infection for the patients⁽⁶⁾.

Hyperinflammation reaction of Burn Injury

Burns have an effect on the immune system⁽⁷⁾. Burns also cause tissue damage because many endogenous molecules are released or called damage-associated molecular patterns (DAMPs)⁽⁸⁾. The molecules

come from neutrophil cells or cells who are necrosis. DAMPs molecules are include chromatin associated high-mobility group box 1 protein (HMGB1) ⁽⁹⁾, heat shock proteins (HSPs)⁽¹⁰⁾, purine metabolites, such as ATP⁽¹¹⁾ and uric acid⁽¹²⁾. The molecules directly bound by immune cells through a receptor, and the receptor called pattern recognition receptors (PRRs)⁽¹³⁾. DAMPs will bind with pattern recognition receptors (PRRs) in the form of toll-like receptors (TLRs) on the surface of antigen presenting cells (APCs). The binding between DAMPs and TLRs will generate the signals in cells, initiated by Myddosome formation, it consists of myeloid differentiation primary response gene 88 (MyD88) and IL-1 receptor-associated kinases (IRAKs). During the formation stage, IRAK4 auto-phosphorylation occurs then phosphorylates and activates IRAK1, so IRAK1 is released from Myddosome complex and then joint with TNF receptor-associated factor 6 (TRAF6) to activate TGF- β -activated kinase (TAK1)⁽¹⁴⁾. After that, TAK1 activates two distinct signaling lines, namely IKK complex-NF- κ B- pathway and -MAPK pathway. TAK1 binds with IKK complex via the ubiquitin chain, than inducing kappa kinase (IKK-) β inhibitor activity. After on active status, IKK- β will degrade the kappa inhibitor (IK-) β , so NF- κ B is active. TAK1 can also activate mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) then mediates the activation activator protein 1 (AP-1). Transcription factors of NF- κ B and AP-1 will translocate in nucleus to induce the expression of various genes who encoding proinflammatory cytokines, such as tumor necrosis (TNF-) α , interleukin (IL-) 1β , and IL-6⁽¹⁵⁾.

The production of proinflammatory cytokines by innate immune cells is regulated by a transcription factor, one of that is nuclear factor kappa-B (NF- κ B). Nuclear factor kappa-B is a heterodimer protein that binds with cytosol inhibitor in an inactive state, especially in normal condition of the body. However, this protein will be released their inhibitor complex to be able to translocate to the nucleus and activate the transcription process of inflammatory mediators ⁽¹⁶⁾. Based on the results of the study mentioned that in severe burns level, there was an excessive response of proinflammatory cytokines production in second stimulation, such as the exposure of lipopolysaccharide (LPS) which described the infection condition. This high production of proinflammatory

cytokines were not depend on the degree of the second stimulant exposure, but it was due to the increasing of NF- κ B activation ⁽¹⁷⁾.

Immunosuppression after Burn Injury Leading to Secondary Infection

The immune system consists of loops feedback series to restore homeostatic conditions. Thus, the presence of SIRS will accompanied with counter antiinflammatory response syndrome (CARS) which is characterized by the release of antiinflammatory cytokines, such as IL-10, TGF- β , and cytokine antagonists IL1-R α . Furthermore, the ratio between pro and antiinflammatory mediators were determine whether the immune system can return to be homeostatic state or develop to be inflammation, immunosuppression, and catabolic syndromes, and this can increase the risk of organ failure and sepsis ⁽¹⁸⁾.

After trauma, epithelial cells produced Alarmins, such as Thymic stromal lymphopietin (TSLP), IL-25, and IL-33. All of three can induce type 2 of innate lymphoid cells (ILCs) which plays an important role in the activation of type 2 immune response by producing IL-4, IL-5, IL-9, and IL-13. Hyperactive response of type 2 immune response can suppress the development of type 1 immune response who is protective toward pathogenic microorganisms, so the patients are high risk to occur un-control infection. The increasing numbers of type 2 ILCs were detected in the peripheral blood circulation of burn patients ⁽¹⁹⁾. IL-4 and IL-13 activated the M2 phenotypic macrophage cells. This process called alternative macrophage activation. The active Macrophage cells produced IL-10 and TGF- β which they work to inhibit the development of TH1 cell function ⁽¹⁵⁾.

The description of cytokines balance who related with T cells helper, namely Th1 and Th2 cells are known as a cause of the decreasing body's ability to fight infection. Th1-related cytokines are IFN- γ , IL-12, and IL-2, whereas Th2-related cytokines are IL-10, IL-4, and IL-5 ⁽²⁰⁾. The cytokines were turn negatively regulate production. Thus, the ratio between two of cytokines will determine whether the immune system can effectively fight to the pathogen.

Previously, a study noted that the severe burn injury caused a systemic inflammatory response with a mediation by macrophage cells with releasing a number of proinflammatory cytokines, such as TNF α and IL-12. However, it was take place at a certain point, TNF α can regulate IL-12 production by inhibiting IL-12 gene expression as part of the cytokine feedback scheme and self-limiting modulations. This regulatory mechanism does not depend on the IL-10 barrier pathway (the main IL-12 inhibitor), NF κ B (the main activator for IL-12 production as a response to LPS), or IRF-1 (the main activator for IL-12 production as a response to IFN- γ ⁽²¹⁾). It was known in last several years that this regulatory mechanism occurred via TNFR-1 ⁽²²⁾. Thus, the incidence of SIRS was described by the hyperactive response of immune cells and it was caused the reduction of pathogens resistance.

Post-burn immunosuppression also occurred due to the production of microRNAs (miRNAs) after efferocytosis process (phagocytosis process of apoptotic cells by M1 macrophage cells to regulate inflammation), one of that is microRNA-21. MicroRNA (miR-) 21 is a noncoding RNA and consisting 21-23 nucleotides, it plays a role in RNA silencing and post-transcription regulation in gene expression ⁽²³⁾.

MicroRNA (miR-) 21 was produced as a negative regulator to suppress the toxic effects of LPS. MicroRNA (miR-) 21 acts to inhibit the activation of PTEN as it known as facilitator to TNF α production in pathogenic LPS response. RNA silencing by miR-21 on the PDCD4 gene target supports c-Jun expression and AP-1 transactivation. This condition lead the macrophages to M2 phenotype ⁽²⁴⁾. M2 macrophage cells suppress the development of a type 1 immune response toward pathogens and his caused persistent infection with characterized by an increasing of IL-10 expression. Interleukin (IL-) 10 bound with heterodimer receptor subunits (IL-10R1 and IL10R2) and activated Jak and Tyk2 kinases, so there was an activation of STAT-3. This signaling pathway provides an inhibitory mechanism for IL-12 production in target cells.

Conclusion

Burns injury give an affect for the patients,

especially in immune system. It begins with a series of inflammatory responses, which the aim of this is to eliminating the lesson of wound and initiating tissue repair. The inflammatory process in burns injury with severe damage should be controlled. When the inflammatory response becomes very strong in cases of severe burns, the body responds by forming an antiinflammatory mediators. the ratio between pro and antiinflammatory mediators are determine by immune system, it can return to be a homeostatic state or develop persistent inflammation, immunosuppression, and catabolic syndromes, which this can increase the risk of organ failure and sepsis in patients.

Ethical Clearance: This study was conducted after obtained Ethical Clearance from the Ethics Commission of the Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, Airlangga University, Surabaya.

Source of Funding: This study was supported funding from Education Fund Management Institution (LPDP dissertation on 2019).

Conflict of Interest: The authors declare that they have no conflict of interests regarding the publication of this paper.

References

1. Peck MD. Epidemiology of burns throughout the world. Part I: Distribution and risk factors. *Burns*. 2011 Nov 1;37(7):1087-100.
2. American Burn Association. National burn repository 2019 update: Report of data from 2009–2018. Chicago (IL): American Burn Association. 2019.
3. Jeschke MG, van Baar ME, Choudhry MA, Chung KK, Gibran NS, Logsetty S. Burn injury. *Nature Reviews Disease Primers*. 2020 Feb 13;6(1):1-25.
4. Cavaillon JM, Eisen D, Annane D. Is boosting the immune system in sepsis appropriate?. *Critical Care*. 2014 Apr;18(2):1-0.
5. Singer M, Deutschman CS, Seymour CW, Shankar-Hari M, Annane D, Bauer M, Bellomo R, Bernard GR, Chiche JD, Cooper-Smith CM, Hotchkiss RS. The third international consensus definitions for sepsis and septic shock (Sepsis-3). *Jama*. 2016 Feb 23;315(8):801-10.

6. Kylänpää ML, Repo H, Puolakkainen PA. Inflammation and immunosuppression in severe acute pancreatitis. *World journal of gastroenterology: WJG*. 2010 Jun 21;16(23):2867.
7. Xiao W, Mindrinos MN, Seok J, Cuschieri J, Cuenca AG, Gao H, Hayden DL, Hennessy L, Moore EE, Minei JP, Bankey PE. A genomic storm in critically injured humans. *Journal of Experimental Medicine*. 2011 Dec 19;208(13):2581-90.
8. Manson J, Thiemermann C, Brohi K. Trauma alarmins as activators of damage-induced inflammation. *British journal of surgery*. 2012 Jan;99(S1):12-20.
9. Scaffidi P, Misteli T, Bianchi ME. Release of chromatin protein HMGB1 by necrotic cells triggers inflammation. *Nature*. 2002 Jul;418(6894):191-5.
10. Quintana FJ, Cohen IR. Heat shock proteins as endogenous adjuvants in sterile and septic inflammation. *The Journal of Immunology*. 2005 Sep 1;175(5):2777-82.
11. Bours MJ, Swennen EL, Di Virgilio F, Cronstein BN, Dagnelie PC. Adenosine 5'-triphosphate and adenosine as endogenous signaling molecules in immunity and inflammation. *Pharmacology & therapeutics*. 2006 Nov 1;112(2):358-404.
12. Kono H, Chen CJ, Ontiveros F, Rock KL. Uric acid promotes an acute inflammatory response to sterile cell death in mice. *The Journal of clinical investigation*. 2010 Jun 1;120(6):1939-49.
13. Kono H, Rock KL. How dying cells alert the immune system to danger. *Nature Reviews Immunology*. 2008 Apr;8(4):279-89.
14. Keating SE, Maloney GM, Moran EM, Bowie AG. IRAK-2 participates in multiple Toll-like receptor signaling pathways to NF κ B via activation of TRAF6 ubiquitination. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*. 2007 Nov 16;282(46):33435-43.
15. Abbas AK, Lichtman AH, Pillai S. *Basic Immunology E-Book: Functions and Disorders of the Immune System*. Elsevier Health Sciences; 2019 Jan 25.
16. Ogle CK, Mao JX, Wu JZ, Ogle JD, Alexander JW. The 1994 Lindberg Award: the production of tumor necrosis factor, interleukin-1, interleukin-6, and prostaglandin E2 by isolated enterocytes and gut macrophages: effect of lipopolysaccharide and thermal injury. *The Journal of burn care & rehabilitation*. 1994 Nov 1;15(6):470-7.
17. Lopez NE, Krzyzaniak M, Costantini TW, De Maio A, Baird A, Eliceiri BP, Coimbra R. Vagal nerve stimulation blocks peritoneal macrophage inflammatory responsiveness after severe burn injury. *Shock (Augusta, Ga.)*. 2012 Aug;38(3):294.
18. Nichols DP, Caceres S, Caverly L, Fratelli C, Kim SH, Malcolm K, Poch KR, Saavedra M, Solomon G, Taylor-Cousar J, Moskowitz S. Effects of azithromycin in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* burn wound infection. *Journal of surgical research*. 2013 Aug 1;183(2):767-76.
19. Herndon DN. *Total burn care: Elsevier health sciences*. 2018.
20. Toliver-Kinsky TE, Varma TK, Lin CY, Herndon DN, Sherwood ER. Interferon- γ production is suppressed in thermally injured mice: decreased production of regulatory cytokines and corresponding receptors. *Shock*. 2002 Oct 1;18(4):322-30.
21. Ma X, Sun J, Pappasavvas E, Riemann H, Robertson S, Marshall J, Bailer RT, Moore A, Donnelly RP, Trinchieri G, Montaner LJ. Inhibition of IL-12 production in human monocyte-derived macrophages by TNF. *The Journal of Immunology*. 2000 Feb 15;164(4):1722-9.
22. Zakharova M, Ziegler HK. Paradoxical anti-inflammatory actions of TNF- α : inhibition of IL-12 and IL-23 via TNF receptor 1 in macrophages and dendritic cells. *The Journal of Immunology*. 2005 Oct 15;175(8):5024-33.
23. Sen CK. MicroRNAs as new maestro conducting the expanding symphony orchestra of regenerative and reparative medicine.
24. Das A, Ganesh K, Khanna S, Sen CK, Roy S. Engulfment of apoptotic cells by macrophages: a role of microRNA-21 in the resolution of wound inflammation. *The Journal of Immunology*. 2014 Feb 1;192(3):1120-9.