

1 **Pro-resolving Lipid Mediators in Sepsis and Critical Illness.**

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1 **Abstract**

2 **Purpose of review:** Sepsis is a life-threatening condition caused by a dysregulated host response to
3 infection that remains a huge clinical challenge. Recent evidence indicates that bioactive lipid
4 mediators derived from polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs) termed specialized pro-resolving
5 mediators (SPMs) are promising new candidates for treating critical illness.

6 **Recent findings:** We highlight herein the protective actions of SPMs in experimental sepsis, cardiac
7 dysfunction as well as lung and cerebral injury, and discuss their mechanisms of action. We also
8 emphasise that failed resolution responses and dysregulated SPM pathways may provide an
9 explanation for the ongoing chronic inflammation in many diseases including chronic heart failure.

10 **Summary:** Importantly, monitoring plasma SPM profiles can predict patient outcomes in sepsis
11 indicating their utility as new early biomarkers that may help stratify patients upon ICU admission.

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13 **Keywords:** Sepsis, resolution, specialised pro-resolving mediators (SPMs), lung, heart.

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1 **Introduction**

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3 Resolution of acute inflammation is a biochemically active process, regulated by endogenous
4 mediators that act in concert to switch off the inflammatory response and return the tissue to
5 homeostasis. These include gaseous mediators such as hydrogen sulphide and nitric oxide,
6 proteinaceous mediators such as annexin A1 and galectin-1 as well as lipid mediators derived from
7 polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs). This new genus includes lipoxins, resolvins, protectins and
8 maresins, collectively coined specialized pro-resolving mediators (SPMs), which act as potent local
9 resolution agonists. SPMs are enzymatically produced by a variety of cell types within the body and
10 act upon specific G-protein coupled receptors (GPCRs) to evoke their bioactions. Some examples of
11 their actions include limiting neutrophilic infiltration, enhancing phagocyte function and hence the
12 clearance of microbial products and apoptotic cells, promoting macrophage phenotype switching and
13 enhancing tissue repair. The discovery of SPMs has led to a new era of 'resolution pharmacology'
14 whereby structure-function activity relationships of pro-resolving mediators and their receptor targets
15 are being determined to aid the generation of novel therapeutics, providing a new mechanistic way to
16 correct persistent inflammation by initiating resolution (1).

17 SPMs enhance bacterial clearance and survival from sepsis.

18 Sepsis is defined as life-threatening organ dysfunction caused by a dysregulated host response to
19 infection. Sepsis kills over 52,000 people annually in the UK, and globally around 6 million a year and
20 represents a major cause of death in hospitals. It remains a huge clinical challenge and hence there is
21 an unmet need to identify new therapeutic opportunities to combat this fatal condition. In a study
22 conducted by Dalli and colleagues, the temporal regulation of bioactive lipid mediators and pathway
23 markers were assessed in peripheral blood of patients with sepsis. Furthermore, SPMs were
24 correlated with patient outcomes and also clinical data to decipher whether they could be utilised as
25 biomarkers or predictors of the disease course. In sepsis non-survivors, significantly higher
26 inflammation-initiating mediators including prostaglandin F_{2α} (PGF_{2α}; 53.6±29.0 vs 3.3±1.2 pg/ml)
27 and leukotriene B₄ (LTB₄; 2.2±1.1 vs. 0.9±0.3 pg/ml) as well as pro-resolving mediators
28 including resolvin E1 (RvE1; 1.7±0.9 vs 0.3±0.2 pg/ml), RvD5 (4.9±2.7 vs 0.2±0.2 pg/ml), and 17R-
29 protectin D1 (17R-PD1; 1.8±0.7 vs 0.3±0.3 pg/ml) were detected compared with patients surviving

1 sepsis. Systematic analysis of SPM profiles in septic patients with acute respiratory distress
2 syndrome (ARDS) indicated that the amount of circulating 10S,17S-diHDHA (PDX) at day 3 was a
3 better predictor of ARDS development than the APACHE II score (Figure 1). Importantly, the results
4 indicate that PDX represents a new early biomarker that may help stratify patients upon ICU
5 admission (2).

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7 Mitochondrial dysfunction has been suggested to play a critical role in the pathogenesis of sepsis. In a
8 study conducted by Hao *et al.*, the authors aimed to explore the impact of maresin 1 (MaR1) on
9 metabolic dysfunction in cecal ligation and puncture (CLP) induced sepsis model. MaR1 significantly
10 increased the overall survival rate (58.33% versus 16.67%) and attenuated lung and liver injuries in
11 septic mice. In addition, MaR1 markedly reduced the levels of proinflammatory cytokines (TNF- α and
12 IL-6) and alleviated mitochondrial damage (3). In another study, MaR1 (100ng i.p.) significantly
13 inhibited cytokine production, decreased peritoneal bacterial load, reduced neutrophil numbers,
14 decreased lactic acid levels and upregulated cyclic AMP (cAMP), resulting in significantly decreased
15 lung injury and enhanced survival (63%) in CLP-induced sepsis. Mechanistically, MaR1 was shown to
16 inhibit reactive oxygen species (ROS) production by down-regulating nitric oxide (NOX) activity, and
17 improving catalase (CAT) and superoxide dismutase (SOD) activity (4). Another interesting study from
18 Zhuo and colleagues showed that RvD1 treatment (10ng/g body weight i.v.) increased survival in
19 CLP-induced sepsis in mice. Moreover, RvD1 attenuated the degree of lung inflammation by
20 suppressing signal transducer and activator of transcription 3 (STAT3), nuclear factor kappa light-
21 chain-enhancer of activated B cells (NF- κ B), extracellular signal-related kinase (ERK), and p38
22 activation through a mechanism partly dependent on the protein deacetylase sirtuin 1 (SIRT1) (5). To
23 mimic intestinal infection and diarrhoea in infants, which represents a significant global cause of infant
24 morbidity and mortality, infant mice were infected with *Citrobacter rodentium*. Strikingly, post-infection
25 treatment with a single dose of RvD1 and RvD5 (100ng i.p) reduced bacterial loads, alleviated
26 inflammation, and improved survival rates by 33% at 10 days post-infection. Importantly, treatment
27 also protected from reinfection associated with *C. rodentium*-specific IgG responses comparable to
28 adults (6) (Figure 2).

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1 In a murine model of pneumonia, 15-epi-LXA₄ (100ng i.v.) inhibited lung neutrophil infiltration while
2 enhancing bacterial clearance, indicating that this mediator is not immunosuppressive. This in line
3 with other SPMs such as RvD1, RvD2, and MaR1 enhancing sepsis survival. Mechanistically, 15-epi-
4 LXA₄ enhanced the synthesis of anti-microbial peptides cathelicidin/LL37 (*mCramp*) and bactericidal
5 permeability-increasing protein, BPI (*mBPI*) within the lung and induced the NF-κB regulators A20 and
6 single Ig IL-1R-related molecule (SIGIRR) to promote the resolution of pneumonia via its cognate
7 receptor ALX/FPR2 (7).

8

9 Parenteral nutrition with omega-3 lipid emulsions (LEs) has proved beneficial for adult patients post
10 gastrointestinal surgery, reducing infection rates and limiting hospital stay (8). Yet the benefits for
11 critically ill patients are less clear (8) and further information on the mechanism of action of omega-3
12 LEs is required. Parenteral administration of LEs proved protective in a murine polymicrobial sepsis
13 model, limiting hypothermia and weight loss leading to enhanced survival (9). Omega-3 LEs
14 enhanced the levels of 15-hydroxy-eicosatetraenoic acid (15-HETE) along with the resolution
15 mediators LXA₄, PDX and MaR1 in peritoneal lavage fluids, offering a molecular mechanism for
16 improved survival from sepsis (9). A recent study investigated whether EPA could potentiate the
17 beneficial effects of mesenchymal stromal cells (MSCs) in experimental sepsis. Mice received saline,
18 adipose tissue-derived (AD)-MSCs or AD-MSCs preconditioned with EPA intravenously one day post-
19 CLP. Mice treated with EPA-preconditioned AD-MSCs displayed reduced interstitial oedema, alveolar
20 septal inflammation, collagen fibre content and neutrophilic infiltration leading to a significant
21 reduction in lung injury. Additionally, EPA-preconditioned MSCs improved morphological
22 abnormalities of the heart, liver, kidney and spleen, improving distal organ injury. Additionally, EPA
23 preconditioning of MSCs resulted in increased secretion of bioactive lipid mediators RvD₁ and PGE₂
24 as well as IL-10, and TGF-β. These effects culminated in improved sepsis severity score and higher
25 survival rates. This strategy could offer an alternate therapeutic approach, which enhances SPM
26 levels to treat septic patients, (10).

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28 One in two patients with sepsis develop cardiac dysfunction and the severity of cardiac dysfunction is
29 correlated with mortality in sepsis. Recent studies have revealed a protective role of transient receptor
30 potential vanilloid receptor type (TRPV)-1 activation in models of sepsis. A low-dose LPS protocol

1 was selected to simulate the early stages of bacteremic sepsis. In WT mice, low-dose LPS had no
2 effect on cardiac function, whereas TRPV1 null mice displayed profound cardiac dysfunction
3 indicating an innate protective role of this receptor. Indeed, TRPV1 signaling by the endogenous
4 agonist 20-hydroxyeicosatetraenoic acid (20-HETE), induced the release of neuropeptide and
5 calcitonin gene-related peptide (CGRP), leading to cardioprotection in endotoxemia (11).

6 7 SPMs promote cardiac repair.

8 Cardiovascular disease is the leading cause of morbidity and mortality worldwide, causing almost a
9 third of all global deaths. Current treatment strategies for heart failure after myocardial infarction are
10 limited and non-curative, thus new therapeutics and further investigation into the pathophysiology of
11 this process is warranted. Recent work assessed whether bioactive lipid mediators were generated at
12 the site of the injured myocardium using an acute model of heart failure post-MI. A permanent
13 coronary ligation model in C57/Bl6 mice was utilised to induce MI, causing decreased contractility
14 index, marked wall thinning and necrosis of the infarcted left ventricle. Additionally, the splenic
15 reservoir was assessed over the time course of the disease process to monitor leukocyte
16 mobilisation. Prior to MI, SPMs were more abundant in the spleen than the left ventricle. Interestingly,
17 24h after coronary ligation, an increase in resolvins, protectins and maresin (RvD1, RvD3, RvD4,
18 RvD5, RvD6, AT-RvD1, RvE2, PD1, MaR1, 7S,14S-diHDHA and 4S,14S-diHDHA) were detected in
19 the infarcted myocardium, which correlated with a peak in neutrophils, and a depletion of leukocytes
20 from the spleen. Gene expression analysis indicated that enzymes involved in SPM biosynthesis were
21 higher in the infarcted LV compared to the spleen; *ALOX15* peaked within 24 hours post-MI and
22 returned to naïve levels by day 5 post-MI, whilst *ALOX5* and *ALOX12* were gradually increased at d1
23 to d5 post-MI compared to d0 naïve controls. Resolving macrophages and N2 neutrophils
24 (Ly6G⁺/CD206⁺) increased from day 1 and peaked at day 5 in the infarcted LV. Depletion of
25 macrophages using clodronate liposomes was associated with decreased SPM biosynthesis in the
26 heart, suggesting that leukocytes are mobilized from the spleen to the infarcted heart to generate
27 SPMs to help resolve inflammation (Figure 2) (12) (13).

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29 The following studies indicate that SPMs offer a valid therapeutic strategy for cardiac repair and
30 prevention of organ dysfunction. Mice treated with 15-epi-lipoxin A₄ (1 µg/kg/day) either alone or fused

1 with liposomes displayed reduced LV and lung mass to body weight ratios and improved ejection
2 fraction 5 days post myocardial infarction (14). RvD1 was tested for its ability to limit MI-induced
3 cardiorenal syndrome (CRS). RvD1 (3 µg/kg/d; s.c., 3h after MI) promoted neutrophil clearance from
4 the infarcted LV, and increased reparative macrophages (F4/80⁺/Ly6C^{low}/CD206⁺) 5 days after MI
5 (Figure 2). Comprehensive miRNA expression analysis revealed that RvD1 prevents the significant
6 alteration of numerous miRs in the infarcted LV area after MI and accelerates a healing response.
7 RvD1 also attenuated MI-induced renal inflammation and preserved nephrin expression to limit CRS
8 in a heart failure model (15).

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10 Deep vein thrombosis (DVT) is a common cardiovascular disease that causes a major impact on
11 quality of life and if missed or left untreated can lead to the development of life-threatening pulmonary
12 embolism. A mouse model of DVT was utilised to test whether SPM could limit thrombus
13 development. Mice were subjected to inferior vena cava stenosis leading to blood flow restriction and
14 thrombus formation. Administration of RvD4 (3 µg i.v. via tail vein injection on days 1 and 4)
15 significantly reduced thrombus burden (17% decrease in thrombus length on day 8 compared with the
16 vehicle-treated group), enhanced leukocyte early apoptosis with significantly less neutrophils and
17 increased pro-resolving monocytes in the thrombus. RvD4 also limited release of neutrophil
18 extracellular trap (NETs), which are critical for DVT development, enhancing thrombus resolution (16).

19
20 It has recently been appreciated that chronic inflammation may persist not only because of excess
21 pro-inflammatory mediators but also from defects in pro-resolving pathways (17). Chronic heart failure
22 (CHF) is an example of this ongoing non-resolving inflammatory state. Elderly patients with CHF were
23 found to have significantly lower plasma levels of RvD1 compared with healthy age-matched control
24 subjects. Blood leukocytes from these patients displayed reduced 15-lipoxygenase activity and hence
25 reduced biosynthesis of RvD1. They also expressed lower levels of a RvD1 receptor GPR32
26 rendering T cells less responsive to exogenous RvD1 treatment. Together these failed resolution
27 responses may provide an explanation for the ongoing chronic inflammation in CHF patients (18).
28 Defective Lipoxin A₄ and RvD1 production is also reported in patients with obstructive sleep apnea
29 (19). It is well established that obstructive sleep apnea can be a major determinant of cardiovascular
30 morbidity and mortality; leading to hypertension, ischaemic heart disease, cardiac arrhythmias and

1 stroke. In addition to defective SPM production, they also found reduced expression of the
2 LXA₄/RvD1 receptor ALX/FPR2 on neutrophils from patients exhibiting sleep disordered breathing
3 with hypertension (19), again suggesting defective resolution pathways (Figure 1).

4 SPMs protect from acute respiratory distress syndrome and lung injury.

5 Mechanical ventilation is a major life support for patients with severe illness, yet this can cause or
6 aggravate acute lung injury leading to increased morbidity and mortality. The protective effects of
7 RvD1 were investigated using a mouse model of ventilation at high tidal volume pressure (40 mL/kg,
8 HV_T, 4h) to induce mechanical ventilation lung injury (VILI). RvD1 (500ng i.p) limited pathological
9 damage to lungs, pulmonary oedema, leukocyte infiltration, and release of pro-inflammatory cytokines
10 such as IL-1 β , TNF α and IL-6 (20). Mechanistically, RvD1 enhanced heme oxygenase-1 (HO-1)
11 expression, and decreased high mobility group chromosomal protein B1 (HMGB-1) expression (21).
12 Mechanical ventilation can also induce pulmonary fibrosis, which contributes to the high mortality rate
13 of acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS) whereby impaired fluid clearance in the lung results in
14 an acute and lethal clinical syndrome. Importantly, RvD1 attenuated lung fibrosis and significantly
15 reduced mechanical stretch-induced mesenchymal markers (vimentin and α -smooth muscle actin),
16 whilst increasing epithelial markers (E-cadherin) (22). SPMs also promote alveolar fluid clearance by
17 upregulating the epithelial sodium channel, Na,K-ATPase, cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance
18 regulator (CFTR), and aquaporins levels as reviewed in (23). In addition, RvE1 can restore
19 TNF- α -induced mitochondrial dysfunction in human alveolar epithelial cells suggesting a beneficial
20 effect of RvE1 in pulmonary diseases (24).

21 SPMs are neuroprotective.

22 Cerebral ischaemia/reperfusion (I/R) injury is a major contributing factor to a poor prognosis for
23 ischemic stroke patients. Treatment of cerebral ischemia is limited, thus new neuroprotective
24 therapies are needed. Omega-3 dietary supplements have been shown to improve the prognosis of
25 patients with ischemic stroke, yet the protective mechanism remains to be fully elucidated. Induction
26 of cerebral I/R by middle cerebral artery occlusion and reperfusion caused a significant reduction in
27 the phosphorylation of 5-lipoxygenase and reduced endogenous RvD2 levels compared with sham-
28 operated rats (25). Therefore, treatment with RvD2 (25, 50 and 100 μ g/kg) was tested in I/R-induced
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1 brain injury, reducing cerebral infarction, inflammatory cytokines, oedema, and neurological
2 dysfunction. Importantly, RvD2 (50µg/kg) was more effective than omega-3 treatment (oral gavage of
3 30% ω-3 fatty acids at 1g/kg/day) (25). In another study using a model of acute focal brain injury,
4 RvD1 promoted functional recovery, reduced neuroinflammation via microRNA (miR)-146b- and miR-
5 219a-1 and prevented neuronal cell death (26).

6

7 **Conclusion**

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9 Mounting evidence indicates that SPM pathways are dysregulated in chronic inflammatory diseases
10 including chronic heart failure and may explain disease persistence and failure to resolve. Whilst
11 specific SPMs are increased in plasma from both sepsis non-survivors and ARDS patients, these may
12 not be sufficient to counter the disease sequelae in these patients giving rise to a status of failed
13 resolution. An alternative hypothesis could be that their cognate receptors are down-regulated, as
14 observed in other diseases such as CHF, a hypothesis that warrant further investigation. Given their
15 potent biological actions in promoting bacterial clearance as well as organ protection in animal models
16 of sepsis, respiratory distress and heart failure, SPMs offer promising new therapeutics for critical
17 illness. Indeed, development and testing of stable analogues and mimetics of SPMs with enhanced
18 pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics is on-going and initial clinical evidence of protective actions
19 of SPMs in human diseases is emerging (1).

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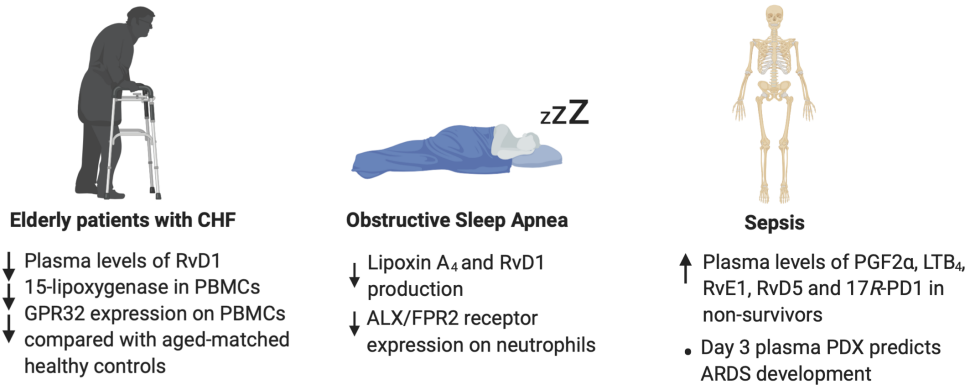
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22 **Key Points**

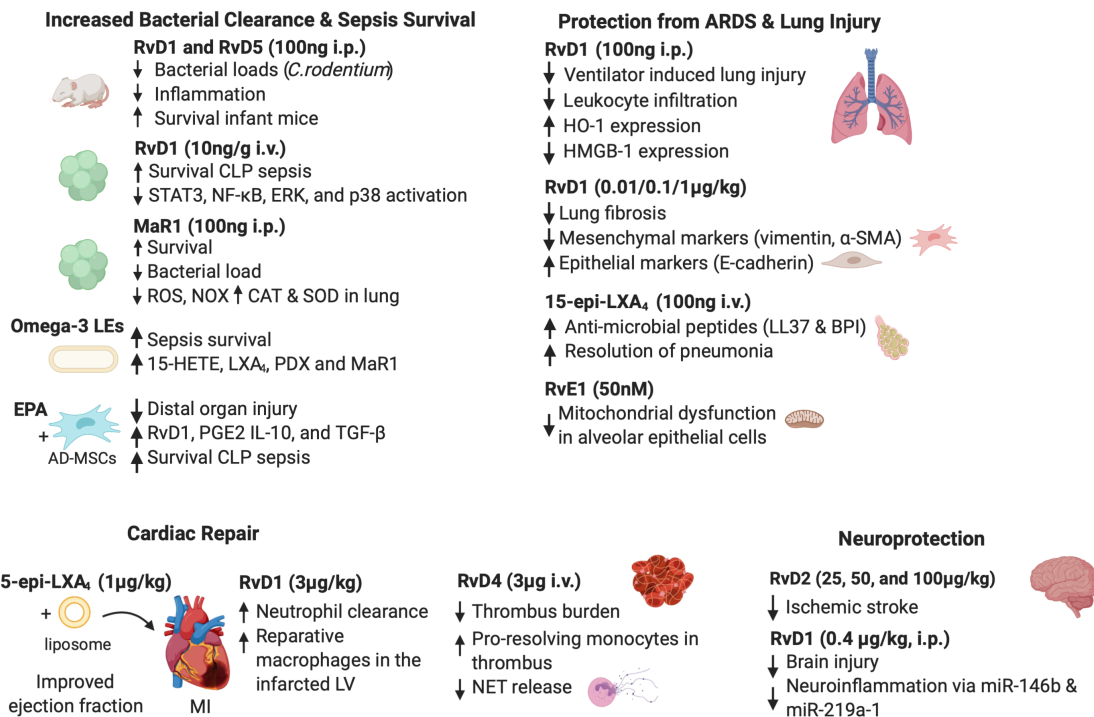
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- 24 • SPMs promote the resolution of inflammation and increase survival in experimental sepsis.
- 25 • SPMs enhance host responses including bacterial clearance and do not cause
26 immunosuppression.
- 27 • SPM profiling can predict septic patient outcomes.
- 28 • SPM pathways are dysregulated in chronic inflammatory diseases.

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 2 **Figure 1. SPM are dysregulated in human pathology.** Examples of dysregulated SPM and their
 3 receptors are shown in patients with chronic heart failure (CHF), people with obstructive sleep apnea
 4 and patients with sepsis. Importantly, monitoring plasma SPM profiles can predict septic patient
 5 outcomes and may help stratify patients upon ICU admission. *Abbreviations:* GPR32; G protein-
 6 coupled receptor 32, PBMC; peripheral blood mononuclear cells, LXA₄; lipoxin A₄, RvD1; resolvins D1,
 7 ALX/FPR2; lipoxin A₄/formyl peptide receptor 2, prostaglandin F_{2α}; PGF_{2α}, LTB₄; leukotriene B₄,
 8 17R-PD1; 17R-protectin D1.



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Figure 2. SPM are protective in experimental models of inflammation and critical illness. Protective actions of SPMs in experimental sepsis, cardiac dysfunction as well as lung and cerebral injury are shown. *Abbreviations:* RvD1; resolvin D1, RvD2; resolvin D2, RvD5; resolvin D5, RvE1; resolvin E1, MaR1; maresin 1, PDX; protectin DX/10S,17S-diHDHA, STAT3; signal transducer and activator of transcription 3, NF-κB; nuclear factor kappa light-chain-enhancer of activated B cells, ERK; extracellular signal-related kinase, ROS; reactive oxygen species, NOX; nitric oxide, CAT; catalase, SOD; superoxide dismutase, IL-10; interleukin 10, omega-3 LEs; omega-3 lipid emulsions, 15-HETE; 15-hydroxy-eicosatetraenoic acid, LXA₄; Lipoxin A₄, EPA; Eicosapentaenoic acid, AD-MSCs; adipose tissue-derived mesenchymal stromal cells, PGE₂; prostaglandin E₂, IL-10; interleukin 10, TNF-α; tumour necrosis factor alpha, CLP; cecal ligation and puncture, 15-epi-LXA₄; 15-epi-lipoxin A₄, MI; myocardial infarction, LV; left ventricle, RvD4; resolvin D4, NET; neutrophil extracellular trap, HO-1; heme oxygenase 1, HMGB-1; high mobility group protein 1, α-SMA; alpha-smooth muscle actin, cathelicidin/LL37 (mCramp); BPI; bactericidal permeability-increasing protein, miR; micro RNA.

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