Heterophils isolated from chickens resistant to extra-intestinal Salmonella enteritidis infection express higher levels of pro-inflammatory cytokine mRNA following infection than heterophils from susceptible chickens

PAMELA J. FERRO¹, CHRISTINA L. SWAGGERTY², PETE KAISER³, IGAL Y. PEVZNER⁴ AND MICHAEL H. KOGUT^{2*}

(Accepted 7 May 2004)

SUMMARY

Previous studies showed differences in *in vitro* heterophil function between parental (A>B) broilers and F1 reciprocal crosses (D>C). Our objectives were to (1) determine if *in vitro* variations translate to differences in resistance to *Salmonella enteritidis* (SE) and (2) quantitate cytokine mRNA in heterophils from SE-infected chicks. One-day-old chicks were challenged and organs were cultured for SE. Chicks with efficient heterophils (A and D) were less susceptible to SE compared to chicks with inefficient heterophils (B and C). Heterophils were isolated from SE-infected chicks and cytokine mRNA expression was evaluated using quantitative real-time RT–PCR. Pro-inflammatory cytokine mRNA was up-regulated in heterophils from SE-resistant chicks compared to susceptible chicks. This is the first report to quantitate cytokine mRNA in heterophils from SE-infected chicks. These data show a relationship between *in vitro* heterophil function, increased pro-inflammatory cytokine mRNA expression, and increased resistance to SE in 1-day-old chicks.

INTRODUCTION

The vertebrate immune system consists of two functional divisions, the innate and acquired immune responses. Historically, the innate immune response has been considered as the first line of defence which functioned to limit infection until the acquired response was initiated [1]. However, more recent findings indicate the innate immune response also provides instruction for the acquired immune response [2–5]. The innate immune system uses germ-line-encoded receptors, known as pattern recognition receptors (PRRs), to recognize self from (infectious) non-self by

* Author for correspondence. (Email: kogut@ffsru.tamu.edu)

detecting molecules unique to invading organisms referred to as pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs) [2, 6–10]. Recognition of PAMPs by PRRs on the host immune cell directs the acquired immune response to that appropriate to the microbe by inducing pro-inflammatory cytokines and co-stimulatory molecules [4, 6, 11, 12].

Cytokines are soluble gene products that are produced by different cells during the activation phase of the immune response. They are pivotal for communication between cells and are potent effector molecules [13]. Proper communication between cells via PRRs and PAMPs initiates signal transduction pathways which in turn induce the expression of cytokines and co-stimulatory molecules that control immune function and direct the appropriate immune response

¹ Texas A&M University, Poultry Science, College Station, TX 77843, USA

² USDA-ARS, SPARC, 2881 F&B Road, College Station, TX 77845, USA

³ Institute for Animal Health, Compton, Berkshire RG20 7NN, UK

⁴ Cobb-Vantress Inc., Siloam Springs, AR 72761-1030, USA

[10]. Pro-inflammatory cytokines are important in the recruitment of immune cells to the site of infection. The pro-inflammatory cytokines IL-1 β and IL-6, as well as IL-8, a chemokine, have been cloned and sequenced in the chicken [14–17].

As the first cells to migrate to the site of infection, polymorphonuclear leukocytes (PMNs) are vital cellular components of inflammatory and innate immune responses [18–20]. The primary PMN in poultry is the heterophil, the avian equivalent of the mammalian neutrophil. Like the neutrophil, avian heterophils are involved in the phagocytosis of invading microbes and foreign particles, the production of oxygen intermediates, and the release of proteolytic enzymes [21–23]. In mammals, neutrophil activation, following receptor-mediated phagocytosis, induces pro-inflammatory gene transcription that mediates host innate responses and modulates acquired responses [20, 24-26]. In chickens, the penetration of the intestine by Salmonella enteritidis (SE) and other Salmonellae is known to initiate an inflammatory response characterized by a large influx of heterophils to the site of initial infection [27].

Traditionally, the association between genetics and disease resistance in chickens has focused on the acquired immune response [28–31]. Given the ability of the innate immune system to recognize a variety of pathogens, we hypothesize that innate immunity could be a more useful marker when genetically selecting chickens for disease resistance. Instead of identifying chickens resistant to a single pathogen, our laboratory is interested in identifying a biomarker(s) for poultry that could indicate which lines have the potential to mount the most effective immune response against multiple microorganisms.

Previous studies in our laboratory have shown differences in in vitro heterophil function between two parental lines (A and B) of broiler chicks and their F1 reciprocal crosses (line $C = male B \times female A$; line $D = \text{male } A \times \text{female } B$) [32]. Specifically, heterophils from line A were more functionally efficient compared to heterophils from line B, and heterophils from line D were more efficient than heterophils from line C, thereby suggesting functional efficiency of the heterophil is an inherited trait and associated with the male parent line [32]. Therefore, the objectives of the current study were: (1) to determine if the previously reported in vitro differences in heterophil function between the lines translated to an increase in resistance or susceptibility to in vivo infection with SE and (2) to quantitate pro-inflammatory cytokine mRNA expression levels in heterophils isolated from SE-infected chicks from the different lines.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Experimental birds

Broiler chickens used in this study were obtained from a commercial breeder. To maintain confidentiality, the lines were designated A, B, C and D, where lines A and B are parental lines and C and D are F1 reciprocal crosses of the two parent lines (C=male $B \times \text{female A}$; $D = \text{male A} \times \text{female B}$). Fertilized eggs were set in incubators (GQF Manufacturing Company, Savannah, GA, USA or Jamesway Incubator Company Inc., Ontario, Canada) and maintained at wet and dry bulb temperatures of 32 and 37 °C respectively. After 10 days of incubation, the eggs were candled and non-fertile and non-viable eggs discarded. The viable eggs were returned to the incubator until day 18, then transferred to hatchers (Humidaire Incubator Company, New Madison, OH, USA) and maintained under the aforementioned temperature and humidity conditions until day of hatch. Upon hatching, 115 chicks per line (A–D) were placed in floor pens containing wood shavings and provided with supplemental heat, water, and a balanced, un-medicated corn and soybean meal-based diet ad libitum. The feed was calculated to contain 23% protein and 3200 kcal of metabolizable energy (ME)/kg of diet, and all other nutrient rations met or exceeded the standards established by the National Research Council [33].

Bacteria

A poultry isolate of SE (no. 97-11771) was obtained from the National Veterinary Services Laboratory (Ames, IA, USA) and approved by the United States Department of Agriculture Animal and Plant Health Inspection Service for use in our facilities. SE was selected for resistance to novobiocin and carbenicillin and was maintained in tryptic soy broth containing antibiotics (25 μ g/ml novobiocin and 100 μ g/ml carbenicillin; Sigma Chemical Co., St. Louis, MO, USA). A stock culture of SE was prepared in sterile PBS and adjusted to a concentration of 1 × 10⁹ c.f.u./ml using a spectrophotometer at a reference wavelength of 625 nm (Spectronic 20D, Milton Roy Co., Golden, CO, USA). The viable cell concentration of the challenge dose was determined by colony counts

on Brilliant Green agar plates containing carbenicillin and novobiocin (BGA+CN; Difco Laboratories, Detroit, MI, USA).

Organ invasion by SE

Thirty 1-day-old chicks from lines A-D were challenged orally with 7×10^3 c.f.u./ml SE per chick or 5×10^6 c.f.u./ml SE per chick. A challenge dose of 5×10^6 c.f.u./ml SE was administered to ensure the chicks used as heterophil donors were infected. At 24 h post-challenge chicks were euthanized and necropsied. At necropsy, livers and spleens were aseptically removed and incubated overnight at 41 °C in tetrathionate enrichment broth. From each enrichment, $10 \,\mu l$ were streaked onto BGA + CN plates for isolation of SE and incubated overnight at 41 °C. Subsequently, BGA+CN plates were examined for the presence of non-lactose fermenting CN-resistant Salmonella colonies. Representative colonies were confirmed SE-positive by plate agglutination using specific Group D₁ antisera (Difco Laboratories). Ten non-challenged chicks from lines A–D were included as negative controls. Four experimental trials were conducted and data from these replicate experiments were pooled for presentation and statistical analysis.

Heterophil isolation for analysis of cytokine expression

Twenty-five 1-day-old chicks from lines A-D were orally challenged with 5×10^6 c.f.u./ml SE and 25 non-challenged 1-day-old chicks from lines A-D were used as controls. At 4 h post-challenge [34], heterophils were isolated from the chicks as previously described [35]. Briefly, blood was collected in vacutainer tubes containing disodium ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA) - an anticoagulant. The blood was pooled and diluted 1:1 with RPMI 1640 media containing 1% methylcellulose and centrifuged at 60 g for 15 min. The supernatant was transferred to a new conical tube, diluted with Ca2+- and Mg2+-free Hanks' balanced salt solution (1:1), layered onto discontinuous Histopaque® gradients (specific gravity 1.077 over 1.119), and then centrifuged for 1 h at 300 g, 5 °C. The Histopaque layers were collected, washed with RPMI 1640 (1:1) and centrifuged at 500 g, 5 °C for 15 min. The supernatants were discarded and the cell pellets resuspended in fresh RPMI 1640, counted on a haemacytometer, and diluted to the desired concentration $(1 \times 10^7 \text{ cells/ml})$ for

subsequent RNA isolation. All tissue culture reagents and chemicals were obtained from the Sigma Chemical Company.

RNA isolation from SE-infected and non-infected chicks

Heterophils $(1 \times 10^7 \text{ cells})$ from control and SE-infected chicks were pelleted (500 g for 15 min at 4 °C), supernatants discarded, and heterophils resuspended in 350 μ l lysis buffer (Qiagen RNeasy mini RNA extraction kit, Qiagen Inc., Valencia, CA, USA). The lysed cells were transferred to QIAshredder homogenizer columns (Qiagen Inc.), and centrifuged for 2 min at $\geq 8000 \ g$. Total RNA was extracted from the homogenized lysate according to the manufacturer's instructions. Purified RNA was eluted with $50 \ \mu$ l RNase-free water and stored at $-80 \ ^{\circ}$ C until analysed for cytokine mRNA expression.

Real-time quantitative RT-PCR

Cytokine mRNA levels in control heterophils (heterophils isolated from uninfected chicks) and heterophils isolated from SE-infected chicks were quantitated as previously described [36].

For both cytokine and 28S rRNA-specific amplification, primers and probes were designed using the Primer Express software program (PE Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA). Details of the probes and primers are given in Table 1. All cytokine probes were designed, from the sequence of the relevant genes, to lie across intron–exon boundaries. Cytokine and 28S rRNA probes were labelled with the fluorescent reporter dye 5-carboxyfluorescein (FAM) at the 5'-end and the quencher *N*,*N*,*N*,*N*'-tetramethyl-6-carboxyrhodamine (TAMRA) at the 3'-end.

RT–PCR was performed using the reverse transcriptase qPCR Master Mix RT–PCR kit (Eurogentec, Seraing, Belgium). Amplification and detection of specific products were performed using the ABI PRISM 7700 sequence detection system (PE Applied Biosystems) with the following cycle profile: one cycle of 50 °C for 2 min, 96 °C for 5 min, 60 °C for 30 min, and 95 °C for 5 min, and 40 cycles of 94 °C for 20 s, 59 °C for 1 min. All amplification reactions were one-step reactions. Final primer concentrations were as follows: 28S, $0.6 \,\mu\text{M}$ (15 pmol/ μ l); IL-1 β , $0.4 \,\mu\text{M}$ (10 pmol/ μ l); IL-6, $0.2 \,\mu\text{M}$ (5 pmol/ μ l); IL-8, $0.6 \,\mu\text{M}$ (10 pmol/ μ l); and all probes were used at a final concentration of 200 nmol/ μ l.

Table 1. Real-time quantitative RT-PCR probes and primers

RNA target		Probe/primer sequence	Exon boundary	Amplicon size (bp)	Accession no. ^a
28S	Probe F ^c R ^d	5'-(FAM)-AGGACCGCTACGGACCTCCACCA-(TAMRA)-3'b 5'-GGCGAAGCCAGAGGAAACT-3' 5'-GACGACCGATTGCACGTC-3'		62°	X59733
IL-1β		5'-(FAM)-CCACACTGCAGCTGGAGGAAGCC-(TAMRA)-3' 5'-GCTCTACATGTCGTGTGTGATGAG-3',	5/6	80	AJ245728
IL-6	R Probe F	5'-TGTCGATGTCCCGCATGA-3' 5'-(FAM)-AGGAGAAATGCCTGACGAAGCTCTCCA-(TAMRA)-3' 5'-GCTCGCCGGCTTCGA-3'	3/4	71	AJ250838
IL-8	R Probe F R	5'-GGTAGGTCTGAAAGGCGAACAG-3'	1/2	74	AJ009800

^a Genomic DNA sequence.

Table 2. Standard curve data from real-time quantitative RT-PCR on total RNA extracted from stimulated heterophils

	$\Delta R n^a$	Log dilutions	C_{t}^{b}	R^{2c}	Slope
28S	0.05	$10^{-1} - 10^{-5}$	8-22	0.9952	3.1657
IL-1B	0.02	$10^{-1} - 10^{-5}$	26 - 32	0.9977	2.8451
IL-6	0.02	$10^{-1} - 10^{-5}$	21-36	0.9915	3.7278
IL-8	0.02	$10^{-1} - 10^{-5}$	14–28	0.9907	2.87

^a ΔRn, change in the reporter dye.

Quantification was based on the increased fluorescence detected by the ABI PRISM 7700 sequence detection system due to hydrolysis of the target-specific probes by the 5' nuclease activity of the rTth DNA polymerase during PCR amplification. The passive reference dye 6-carboxy- χ -rhodamine, which is not involved in amplification, was used to correct for fluorescent fluctuations, resulting from changes in the reaction conditions, for normalization of the reporter signal. Results are expressed in terms of the threshold cycle value (C_t), the cycle at which the change in the reporter dye passes a significance threshold. In this work, the threshold values of the change in the reporter dye are given in Table 2 for all reactions described.

Standard curves for the cytokine and 28S rRNAspecific reactions were generated as previously described [36]. Each RT–PCR experiment contained triplicate no-template controls and test samples, and a log₁₀ dilution series of standard RNA. Each experiment was performed in triplicate, with replicates performed on different days. Regression analysis of the mean values of six replicate RT–PCRs for the log₁₀-diluted RNA was used to generate standard curves.

Statistical analyses

Statistical analyses were performed using the Sigma-Stat[®] statistical software (Jandel Corporation, San Rafael, CA, USA). A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to detect differences between mean values. Mean values were further analysed for significance with Tukey's test (P < 0.05).

RESULTS

Organ invasion with SE

The percentage of SE-positive organ cultures from chicks challenged with 7×10^3 c.f.u./ml SE is presented in Figure 1. Significantly (P < 0.05) fewer organ cultures from line A chicks were positive for SE compared to liver/spleen cultures from line B chicks (Fig. 1). There were no significant differences between SE-positive organ cultures from line C chicks compared to organ cultures from line D chicks (Fig. 1). When comparing the F1 reciprocal crosses (C and D) to the parent lines (A and B), line B chicks had the

^b FAM, fluorescent reporter dye 5-carboxyfluorescein; TAMRA, quencher *N,N,N,N'*-tetramethyl-6-carboxyrhodamine.

c Forward.

d Reverse.

^b C_t , threshold cycle level: the cycle at which the change in the reporter dye levels detected passes the ΔRn .

 $^{^{\}rm c}$ R^2 , coefficient of regression.

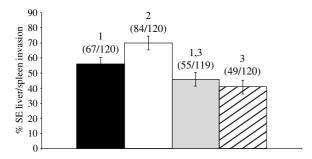


Fig. 1. SE liver/spleen invasion: values are expressed as the mean percent positive for SE organ invasion per group over four experiments. Different numbers indicate significant differences between the four different lines (A–D) of commercial broilers (P<0.05). Numbers in parentheses represent the number of chicks positive for SE organ invasion/ the total number of chicks tested. ■, Line A; □, line B; □, line C; □, line D.

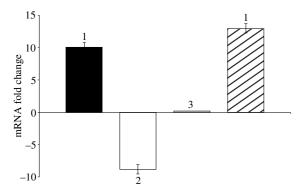


Fig. 2. IL-1 β mRNA expression in heterophils isolated from different lines of SE-infected chicks, columns represent fold change from controls. Different numbers indicate significant differences between the four different lines (A–D) of commercial broilers (P<0·05). ■, Line A; \square , line B; \square , line C; \square , line D.

most SE-positive organ cultures (P < 0.05) compared to organ cultures from line C or line D chicks (Fig. 1). The number of organ cultures positive for SE organ invasion from line A chicks was not significantly different from the number of SE-positive organ cultures from line C chicks. More organ cultures from line A chicks were positive for SE organ invasion (P < 0.05) compared to organ cultures from line D chicks (Fig. 1).

Organ cultures from all lines (A–D) were 96–100 % positive following oral challenge with 5×10^6 c.f.u./ml SE (data not shown).

Pro-inflammatory cytokine mRNA expression

Cytokine mRNA expression levels from heterophils collected from SE-infected chicks and non-infected controls were evaluated. Data are shown as fold

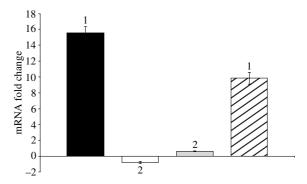


Fig. 3. IL-6 mRNA expression in heterophils isolated from different lines of SE-infected chicks, columns represent fold change from controls. Different numbers indicate significant differences between the four different lines (A–D) of commercial broilers (P<0.05). ■, Line A; \square , line B; \square , line C; \square , line D.

increase of cytokine mRNA from heterophils of the SE-infected chicks against control values from heterophils from non-infected chicks (Figs 2–4). A challenge dose of 5×10^6 c.f.u./ml SE was administered to ensure the chicks used as heterophil donors were infected.

Heterophils isolated from SE-infected line A chicks had a significant (P < 0.05) up-regulation of IL-1 β mRNA levels compared to heterophils isolated from SE-infected line B chicks (Fig. 2). Expression levels of IL-1 β mRNA were also significantly (P < 0.05) upregulated in heterophils isolated from SE-infected line D chicks when compared to heterophils isolated from SE-infected line C chicks (Fig. 2). When comparing the F1 crosses (C and D) to the parent lines (A and B), mRNA expression levels of IL-1 β in heterophils isolated from SE-infected chicks from lines A and D were up-regulated above background levels. However, IL-1 β mRNA expression levels in heterophils from line B chicks were down-regulated compared to controls and unchanged from control levels in heterophils from line C chicks (Fig. 2).

Heterophils isolated from SE-infected line A chicks had a significant (P < 0.05) up-regulation of IL-6 mRNA expression compared to heterophils isolated from SE-infected line B chicks (Fig. 3). Expression levels of IL-6 mRNA were also significantly (P < 0.05) increased in heterophils isolated from SE-infected line D chicks when compared to heterophils isolated from SE-infected line C chicks (Fig. 3). When comparing the F1 crosses back to the parents, IL-6 mRNA expression in heterophils isolated from SE-infected chicks from lines A and D were significantly (P < 0.05) up-regulated above control levels. However, IL-6

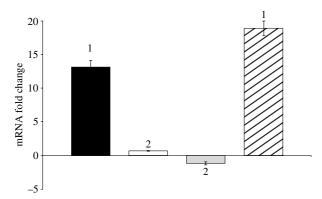


Fig. 4. IL-8 mRNA expression in heterophils isolated from different lines of SE-infected chicks, columns represent fold change from controls. Different numbers indicate significant differences between the four different lines (A–D) of commercial broilers (P<0.05). ■, Line A; \square , line B; \square , line C; \square , line D.

mRNA expression was down-regulated in heterophils from SE-infected line B chicks and was comparable to control levels in heterophils from SE-infected line C chicks, yet significantly (P < 0.05) below IL-6 mRNA expression levels of heterophils isolated from SE-infected line A and line D chicks (Fig. 3).

Heterophils isolated from SE-infected line A chicks were significantly (P < 0.05) up-regulated in IL-8 mRNA expression compared to heterophils isolated from SE-infected line B chicks (Fig. 4). Expression levels of IL-8 mRNA were also significantly (P < 0.05) higher in heterophils isolated from SE-infected line D chicks when compared to heterophils isolated from SE-infected line C chicks (Fig. 4). When comparing the F1 crosses to the parent lines, mRNA expression levels of IL-8 in heterophils isolated from line A and line D SE-infected chicks were significantly (P < 0.05) up-regulated above control levels. However, heterophils isolated from SE-infected line B chicks were upregulated above control levels values while heterophils isolated from SE-infected line C chicks were down-regulated from control levels (Fig. 4).

DISCUSSION

Genetic selection for disease resistance has traditionally focused on aspects of acquired immunity. This has proven difficult and often resulted in adverse effects on growth parameters and other characteristics required by the poultry industry [37–39]. Based on emerging evidence that the innate immune response drives the acquired immune response [3–5], our laboratory is interested in identifying measures of innate immunity

applicable to the development of new, more generally disease-resistant, lines of poultry. The heterophil, the avian equivalent of the mammalian neutrophil, is the first cell to migrate to the site of a bacterial infection [27]. Therefore heterophil functional efficiency is of interest when evaluating the potential efficacy of an innate immune response in chickens. Previous studies conducted in our laboratory reported differences in in vitro heterophil functional efficiency among parental lines of broilers and F1 reciprocal crosses, indicating heterophil functional efficiency may be genetically associated and heritable [32]. The current studies confirm and extend our earlier study in that the two lines (A and D) reported to have more functionally efficient heterophils were less susceptible to extra-intestinal SE infections whereas the two lines (B and C) reported to have functionally less efficient heterophils were more susceptible to SE organ invasion (Fig. 1).

In mammals, neutrophil activation, following receptor-mediated phagocytosis, induces transcription of pro-inflammatory cytokines that mediate the host innate responses and modulate acquired responses [20, 25, 26, 40]. Recent studies conducted in our laboratory indicate heterophils, like neutrophils, are capable of pro-inflammatory gene expression upon infection [41]. In the present studies, proinflammatory cytokine gene expression in heterophils was evaluated in order to increase knowledge and understanding of the mechanism involved in SE resistance. We found significant up-regulation in proinflammatory cytokine (IL-1 β , IL-6, IL-8) mRNA expression in heterophils isolated from chicks that were more resistant (lines A and D) to SE organ invasion when compared to levels in heterophils isolated from the more susceptible lines (lines B and C) (Figs 2–4). Pro-inflammatory cytokines are important in the recruitment of immune cells to the site of infection. Therefore, an increase in mRNA expression of pro-inflammatory cytokines by heterophils could result in a more efficient and potentially effective immune response.

IL-6 has been shown to have multiple biological activities against many cellular targets [42]. For example, one study where researchers examined lung inflammation in mice and showed IL-6 had both inflammatory and anti-inflammatory activities depending on the stimulus used [43]. IL-6 also has an anti-inflammatory role in both local and systemic acute inflammatory responses by controlling the level of pro-inflammatory cytokines [44]. Preliminary

studies conducted in our laboratories, using recombinant chicken IL-6, indicate IL-6 has no direct effect on heterophils, neither activating nor priming heterophil functional activity (P. J. Ferro and M. H. Kogut, unpublished observations). Therefore, IL-6 produced by heterophils probably affects other cells involved in an immune response. In mammals, recent studies show IL-6 is capable of inhibiting the suppression of effector T cells (T_E) by regulatory T cells (T_R) thereby allowing efficient generation of T_E against a pathogen [45, 46]. Recognition of PAMPs by Toll-like receptors (TLR) leads to the activation of antigen-presenting cells (APC) resulting in the production of IL-6 and other soluble factors [46]. The presence and functional activity of TLRs on chicken heterophils has been recently reported [47]. Perhaps the activation of the appropriate signalling pathway(s) in the heterophil, in part, contributes to the line differences in susceptibility to organ invasion by SE observed in the current study.

In mammals, IL-1 β is considered an early response pro-inflammatory cytokine produced by many cells in response to microbial challenges. The expression of IL-1 β by heterophils is consistent with findings in mammals that neutrophils are a source of locally produced IL-1 β [40]. IL-1 β is important in the induction of innate response mediators such as acute phase proteins and the chemokine IL-8 [40]. Therefore, an increase in IL-1 β is likely to contribute to an improved innate immune response, as supported by the current study where heterophils isolated from chicks more resistant to SE extra-intestinal infection showed an increase in IL-1 β mRNA expression, and a decrease in IL-1 β mRNA expression was observed in heterophils isolated from chicks more susceptible to SE organ invasion.

IL-8 is a chemokine important in recruiting neutrophils to sites of inflammation and infection [18]. Neutrophils are capable of secreting IL-8 thereby autoamplifying an acute inflammatory response to infection [18]. Kogut [48] reported IL-8-like activities in chickens during an inflammatory reaction which also functioned to recruit heterophils to the site of SE infection. The recruitment of heterophils to the site of an infection is important in the clearance of a pathogen due to the ability of the heterophil to phagocytize and kill SE [49]. Therefore, heterophils isolated from chickens that express higher levels of IL-8 would recruit immune cells to the site of infection more efficiently thereby increasing a chick's resistance to a pathogen. As was previously reported, heterophils

from line A and line D chicks phagocytized SE more efficiently than heterophils from line B and line C chicks [32]. Additionally, heterophils from the lines that were more resistant (A and D) to SE organ invasion expressed more IL-8 mRNA than heterophils from the more susceptible lines (B and C). These data, in conjunction with the previous study [32], provide possible factors (heterophil functional efficiency and pro-inflammatory cytokine expression) whereby lines A and D are more resistant to extra-intestinal infection by SE than lines B and C.

To our knowledge this is the first report to quantitate IL-1 β , IL-6, and IL-8 mRNA expression levels in heterophils isolated from 1-day-old chicks orally challenged with SE. These results show a relationship between *in vitro* heterophil function [32] and resistance to organ invasion by SE. These data also indicate that pro-inflammatory cytokine mRNA expression by heterophils contributes, at least in part, to resistance/ susceptibility of 1-day-old chicks to extra-intestinal infection by SE.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors thank Ms Virginia Lowry for providing exceptional technical assistance and critically reviewing the manuscript. Thanks are also due to Dr Laura Ripley for expert technical assistance. This research was undertaken with the financial support of the UK Biotechnology and Biological Sciences Research Council.

REFERENCES

- Kuby J. Overview of the immune system. In: Immunology. New York: W. H. Freeman and Company, 1992: 1–19.
- 2. Fearon DT, Locksley RM. The instructive role of innate immunity in the acquired immune response. Science 1996; **272**: 50–54.
- 3. Bendelac A, Fearon DT. Innate immunity: innate pathways that control acquired immunity. Curr Opin Immunol 1997; 9: 1–3.
- Medzhitov R, Janeway Jr. CA. Innate immunity: impact on the adaptive immune response. Curr Opin Immunol 1997; 9: 4–9.
- 5. Parish CR, O'Neill ER. Dependence of the adaptive immune response on innate immunity: some questions answered but new paradoxes emerge. Immunol Cell Biol 1997; 75: 523–527.
- 6. Romagnani S. Induction of Th1 and Th2 responses: a key role for the 'natural' immune response? Immunol Today 1992; 13: 379–381.

- Kogut MH, McGruder ED, Hargis BM, Corrier DE, DeLoach JR. *In vivo* activation of heterophil function in chickens following injection with *Salmonella enteritidis*immune lymphokines. J Leuk Biol 1995; 57: 56–62.
- Anderson KV. Toll signaling pathways in the innate immune response. Curr Opin Immunol 2000; 12: 13–19.
- Akira S. Toll-like receptors and innate immunity. Adv Immunol 2001; 78: 1–56.
- 10. Janeway Jr. CA, Medzhitov R. Innate immune recognition. Annu Rev Immunol 2002; 20: 197–216.
- Medzhitov R, Janeway Jr CA. Innate immunity: the virtues of a nonclonal system of recognition. Cell 1997; 91: 295–298.
- 12. Imler JL, Hoffmann JA. Toll receptors in innate immunity. Trends Cell Biol 2001; 11: 304–311.
- 13. Parham P. The immune system. New York: Garland Publishing/Elsevier Science Ltd, 2000; 211–213.
- 14. Bedard PA, Alcorta D, Simmons DL, Luk KC, Erikson RL. Constitutive expression of a gene encoding a polypeptide homologous to biologically active human platelet protein in Rous sarcoma virus transformed fibroblast. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 1987; 84: 6715–6719.
- Sugano S, Stoeckle MY, Hanafusa H. Transformation by Rous sarcoma virus induces a novel gene with homology to a mitogenic platelet protein. Cell 1987; 49: 321–328.
- 16. Weining KC, Sick C, Kaspers B, Staeheli P. A chicken homolog of mammalian interleukin-1 beta: cDNA cloning and purification of active recombinant protein. Eur J Biochem 1998; 258: 994–1000.
- 17. Schneider K, Klaas R, Kaspers B, Staeheli P. Chicken interleukin-6 cDNA structure and biological properties. Eur J Biochem 2001; **268**: 4200–4206.
- Hachicha M, Rathanaswami P, Nacche PH, McColl SR. Regulation of chemokine gene expression in human peripheral blood neutrophils phagocytosing microbial pathogens. J Immunol 1998; 160: 449–454.
- Kobayashi SD, Voyich JM, Buhl CL, Stahl RM, DeLeo FR. Global changes in gene expression by human polymorphonuclear leukocytes during receptor-mediated phagocytosis: cell fate is regulated at the level of gene expression. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 2002; 99: 6901–6906.
- Nau GJ, Richmond JFL, Schlesinger A, Jennings EG, Lander ES, Young RA. Human macrophage activation programs induced by bacterial pathogens. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 2002; 99: 1503–1508.
- 21. Powell PC. Immune mechanisms in infections of poultry. Vet Immunol Immunopathol 1997; **15**: 87–113.
- 22. Harmon BG. Avian heterophils in inflammation and disease. Poult Sci 1998; 77: 972–977.
- Kogut MH, Lowry VK, Moyes RB, et al. Lymphokineaugmented activation of avian heterophils. Poult Sci 1998; 77: 964–971.
- 24. Cassatella MA, Meda I, Bonora S, Ceska M, Constatin G. Interleukin 10 inhibits the release of proinflammatory cytokines from human polymorphonuclear leukocytes. Evidence for an autocrine role of TNF and

- IL-1 β in mediating the production of IL-8 triggered by lipopolysaccharide. J Exp Med 1993; **178**: 2207–2211.
- 25. McDonald PP, Bald A, Cassatella MA. Activation of the NF-κB pathway by inflammatory stimuli in human neutrophils. Blood 1997; **89**: 3421–3433.
- Subrahmanyam YVBK, Yamaga S, Prasher Y, et al. RNA expression patterns change dramatically in human neutrophils exposed to bacteria. Blood 2001; 97: 2457–2468.
- 27. Kogut MH, Tellez GI, McGruder ED, et al. Heterophils are decisive components in the early responses of chickens to *Salmonella enteritidis* infections. Microb Pathol 1994; **16**: 141–151.
- 28. Holt PS, Gast RK, Porter Jr. RE, Stone HD. Hyporesponsiveness of the systemic and mucosal humoral immune systems in chickens infected with *Salmonella enterica* serovar *enteritidis* at one day of age. Poult Sci 1999; **78**: 1510–1517.
- Kaiser MG, Lamont SJ. Genetic line differences in survival and pathogen load in young layer chicks after Salmonella enterica serovar Enteritidis exposure. Poult Sci 2001; 80: 1105–1108.
- Kaiser MG, Lakshmanan N, Wing T, Lamont SJ. Salmonella enterica serovar enteritidis burden in broiler breeder chicks genetically associated with vaccine antibody response. Avian Dis 2002; 46: 25–31.
- Pinard-van der Laan MH. Immune modulation: the genetic approach. Vet Immunol Immunopathol 2002; 87: 199–205.
- 32. Swaggerty CL, Pevzner IY, Lowry VK, Farnell MB, Kogut MH. Functional comparison of heterophils isolated from commercial broiler chickens. Avian Pathol 2003; 32: 95–102.
- National Research Council. Nutrient requirements for poultry. Washington, DC: National Academy Press, 1994: 19–34.
- 34. Kogut MH, McGruder ED, Hargis BM, Corrier DE, DeLoach JR. Dynamics of avian inflammatory response to *Salmonella*-immune lymphokines. Inflammation 1994; **18**: 373–388.
- 35. Kogut MH, Genovese KJ, Lowry VK. Differential activation of signal transduction pathways mediating phagocytosis, oxidative burst, and degranulation by chicken heterophils in response to stimulation with opsonized *Salmonella enteritidis*. Inflammation 2001; 25: 7–15.
- 36. Kaiser P, Rothwell L, Galyov EE, Barrow PA, Burnside J, Wigley P. Differential cytokine expression in avian cells in response to invasion by Salmonella typhimurium, Salmonella enteritidis, and Salmonella gallinarum. Microbiology 2000; 146: 3217–3226.
- 37. Bumstead N, Barrow PA. Resistance to *Salmonella gallinarum*, *S. pullorum*, and *S. enteritidis* in inbred lines of chickens. Avian Dis 1993; **37**: 189–193.
- 38. Bayyari GR, Huff WE, Rath NC, et al. Effect of the genetic selection of turkeys for increased body weight and egg production on immune and physiological responses. Poult Sci 1997; **76**: 289–296.
- 39. Beaumont C, Protais J, Buillot JF, et al. Genetic resistance to mortality of day-old chicks and carrier-state

- of hens after inoculation with Salmonella enteritidis. Avian Pathol 1999; **28**: 131–135.
- Cassatella MA. The production of cytokines by polymorphonuclear neutrophils. Immunol Today 1995; 16: 21–26.
- 41. Kogut MH, Rothwell L, Kaiser P. Differential regulation of cytokine gene expression by avian heterophils during receptor-mediated phagocytosis of opsonized and non-opsonized *Salmonella enteritidis*. Interferon Cytokine Res 2003; 23: 319–327.
- 42. Kishimoto T. The biology of interleukin-6. Blood 1989; **74**: 1–10.
- 43. Leemans JC, Vervoordeldonk MJBM, Florquin S, van Kessel KP, van der Poll T. Differential role of interleukin-6 in lung inflammation induced by lipoteichoic acid and peptidoglycan from *Staphylococcus aureus*. Am J Resp Crit Care Med 2002; 165: 1445–1450.
- 44. Xing Z, Gauldie J, Cox G, et al. IL-6 is an anti-inflammatory cytokine required for controlling local or systemic acute inflammatory responses. J Clin Invest 1998; **101**: 311–320.

- 45. Pasare C, Medzhitov R. Toll pathway-dependent blockade of CD4⁺CD25⁺ T cell-mediated suppression by dendritic cells. Science 2003; **299**: 1033–1036.
- 46. Powrie F, Maloy KJ. Regulating the regulators. Science 2003; **299**: 1030–1031.
- 47. Farnell MB, Crippen TC, He H, Swaggerty CL, Kogut MH. Oxidative burst mediated by toll like receptors (TLR) and CD14 on avian heterophils stimulated with bacterial toll agonists. Devel Comp Immunol 2003; 27: 423–429.
- 48. Kogut MH. Dynamics of a protective avian inflammatory response: the role of an IL-8-like cytokine in the recruitment of heterophils to the site of organ invasion by *Salmonella enteritidis*. Comp Immunol Microbiol Infect Dis 2002; **25**: 159–172.
- 49. Kogut MH, McGruder ED, Hargis BM, Corrier DE, DeLoach JR. Characterization of the pattern of inflammatory cell influx in chicks following the intraperitoneal administration of live *Salmonella enteritidis* and *Salmonella enteritidis*-immune lymphokines. Poult Sci 1995; 74: 8–17.