

Hhip haploinsufficiency sensitizes mice to age-related emphysema

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Genetic variants in Hedgehog interacting protein (*HHIP*) have consistently been associated with the susceptibility to develop chronic obstructive pulmonary disease and pulmonary function levels, including the forced expiratory volume in 1 s (FEV₁), in general population samples by genome-wide association studies. However, in vivo evidence connecting *Hhip* to age-related FEV₁ decline and emphysema development is lacking. Herein, using *Hhip* heterozygous mice (*Hhip*^{+/-}), we observed increased lung compliance and spontaneous emphysema in *Hhip*^{+/-} mice starting at 10 mo of age. This increase was preceded by increases in oxidative stress levels in the lungs of *Hhip*^{+/-} vs. *Hhip*^{+/+} mice. To our knowledge, these results provide the first line of evidence that *HHIP* is involved in maintaining normal lung function and alveolar structures. Interestingly, antioxidant *N*-acetyl cysteine treatment in mice starting at age of 5 mo improved lung function and prevented emphysema development in *Hhip*^{+/-} mice, suggesting that *N*-acetyl cysteine treatment limits the progression of age-related emphysema in *Hhip*^{+/-} mice. Therefore, reduced lung function and age-related spontaneous emphysema development in *Hhip*^{+/-} mice may be caused by increased oxidative stress levels in murine lungs as a result of haploinsufficiency of *Hhip*.

HHIP | emphysema | COPD | aging | oxidative stress

Aging (senescence) increases vulnerability to age-associated diseases, such as chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD), the third leading cause of death in the United States (1). COPD is also strongly influenced by cigarette smoke (CS) and genetic predisposition (2, 3).

Genome-wide association studies (GWAS) have successfully identified susceptibility loci for many complex diseases in the last decade (4, 5). However, understanding the biology underlying these GWAS associations remains a major challenge (6, 7). Mechanistic studies on novel susceptibility genes in complex traits, including COPD and pulmonary function levels, may provide insights into disease pathogenesis and thus highlight potential targets for therapy. Through GWAS, the chromosome 4q31 Hedgehog interacting protein (*HHIP*) locus has been consistently identified in COPD (8–10) and in spirometric measures, including the forced expiratory volume in 1 s (FEV₁) and ratio of FEV₁ to forced vital capacity in general population samples (11–14). *Hhip* represses hedgehog signaling by competitive binding with three Hedgehog (HH) ligands: Sonic Hedgehog, Indian Hedgehog, and Desert Hedgehog (15). Deletion of the *Hhip* gene in mice is neonatally lethal because of defective branching in the lung (14, 15). The reduced expression of *HHIP* in COPD lungs, and reduced enhancer activity associated with COPD risk alleles at the *HHIP* locus (16), suggested a protective role of *HHIP* in COPD pathogenesis.

Cellular redox (reduction-oxidation) homeostasis is necessary to protect cells from internal and external environmental stresses, thus maintaining normal cellular functions. During aging, reactive oxygen species (ROS) production and oxidant burden increase in lungs, contributing to parenchymal lung destruction and emphysema

(17, 18). Pulmonary emphysema may result from accelerated and premature aging of the lungs because of cellular senescence (19), consistent with the observation that most COPD patients develop disease at advanced ages. Deficiency of cellular guardian genes, such as *SIRT1* (sirtuin 1) (20) and *TLR4* (Toll receptor 4) (21), leads to spontaneous pulmonary emphysema in murine models because of increased oxidative stress and accelerated aging.

We have previously shown that *Hhip* heterozygous knockout mice (*Hhip*^{-/-}) developed more severe emphysema than wild-type littermates when exposed to CS (22), suggesting that *HHIP* protects lung cells from environmental stressors, such as CS exposure. To extend our findings and understand the roles of *HHIP* in regulating lung function in nonsmokers, *Hhip*^{+/-} mice were evaluated in an aging model. Lung quasi-static compliance, pressure–volume (PV) flow loops, and lung morphology were assessed over time, and molecular mechanisms by which *Hhip* regulates lung redox homeostasis and determines susceptibility to age-related emphysema were investigated.

Results

***Hhip* Haploinsufficiency Leads to Spontaneous Age-Dependent Airspace Enlargement.** Given that the *HHIP* locus is consistently associated with pulmonary function levels in the general population, we

Significance

Genome-wide association studies (GWAS) have been very successful in discovering genetic loci associated with complex traits. However, only few studies applied murine models to investigate how GWAS genes contribute to human lung diseases. Motivated by GWAS linking Hedgehog interacting protein (*HHIP*) to emphysema and impairments in lung function, this study demonstrated that *Hhip*^{+/-} mice developed spontaneous emphysema and lung function impairment over time. Moreover, emphysema, associated with increased oxidative stress in *Hhip*^{+/-} lungs, was prevented by treating the mice with the antioxidant, *N*-acetyl cysteine (NAC). This post-GWAS functional study connects aging-related diseases, molecular mechanisms, and potential therapy in a genetic haploinsufficient murine model, which may lead to improvements in understanding pathophysiologic concepts of alveolar loss related to aging.

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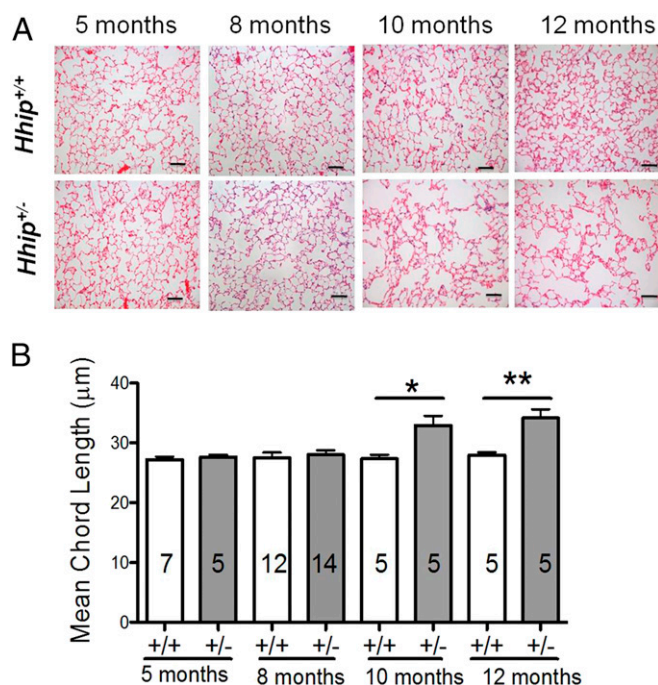


Fig. 1. Age-dependent airspace enlargement in *Hhip*^{+/-} mice. (A) Histology of lung sections from *Hhip*^{+/-} vs. wild-type littermate control mice (*Hhip*^{+/+}) at different ages as demonstrated by H&E staining. (Scale bars, 60 μm.) (B) Mean chord length (MCL) measurements on airspace size in murine lung sections from *Hhip*^{+/+} (+/+) and *Hhip*^{+/-} (+/-) mice. Means ± SEM shown in B are from 5 to 14 mice per group. **P* < 0.05 and ***P* < 0.01 by unpaired *t* test. There is a significant interaction between genotype and ages of mice by two-way ANOVA (*P* < 0.01).

assessed lung morphology and mechanics in *Hhip*^{+/-} and *Hhip*^{+/+} mice at different ages without smoke exposure. *Hhip*^{+/-} mice have normal lung development (14) and normal distal airspace size at up to 8 mo of age. However, starting at 10 mo of age, *Hhip*^{+/-} mice demonstrated significant age-dependent increases in airspace size in contrast to *Hhip*^{+/+} mice (Fig. 1) (unpaired *t* test, *P* < 0.01), suggesting increased susceptibility of *Hhip*^{+/-} mice to age-related airspace enlargement. There were also strong interactions between genotype and age of mice, suggesting genotype- and age-dependent airspace enlargement in murine lungs (Fig. 1B) (two-way ANOVA, *P* < 0.01).

***Hhip* Haploinsufficiency Accelerated Age-Dependent Lung Compliance Increases.** Consistent with airspace enlargement, *Hhip*^{+/-} mice showed significantly increased lung compliance and decreased total lung elastance compared with age-matched *Hhip*^{+/+} mice at 10 and 12 mo of age (Fig. 2A and B) (unpaired *t* test, *P* < 0.05). Furthermore, *Hhip*^{+/-} mice showed left shifts in the PV loops starting at 10 mo of age, suggesting that *Hhip* haploinsufficiency led to increased quasi-static lung compliance (Fig. 2C) (unpaired *t* test at each pressure point, *P* < 0.05). These age-related impairments in respiratory mechanics were associated with progressively reduced expression of *Hhip* in *Hhip*^{+/+} murine lungs and even greater reductions in *Hhip* expression in *Hhip*^{+/-} lungs during aging (Fig. S1) (23), supporting protective roles of *Hhip* during aging.

Increased Lymphoid Aggregates in the Lungs of *Hhip*^{+/-} Mice During Aging. Aging lungs may exhibit signs of chronic inflammation (24), and *Hhip*^{+/-} mice demonstrated increased numbers of lymphoid aggregates in lungs after chronic CS exposure (22); we therefore assessed lymphoid aggregates in murine lungs at different ages. The number of peri-bronchial lymphoid aggregates was significantly

increased in *Hhip*^{+/-} mice (Fig. 3A and B) (unpaired *t* test, *P* < 0.05) at 10 and 12 mo of age compared with age-matched *Hhip*^{+/+} mice. Consistently, the expression of CXCR3 (C-X-C chemokine receptor type 3) and CXCR5 were also significantly increased in *Hhip*^{+/-} lungs at 10 mo of age as assessed by RT-PCR (Fig. 3C and D) (unpaired *t* test, *P* < 0.05). CXCR5 is crucial for B-cell migration, whereas CXCR3 induces the migration of activated T cells into the lungs (25, 26). Interestingly, CXCL10 (C-X-C motif chemokine 10), a ligand for CXCR3, and MCP1 (monocyte chemoattractant protein 1) also showed increased levels in *Hhip*^{+/-} compared with *Hhip*^{+/+} lungs at 8 mo of age (Fig. 3E and F) (unpaired *t* test, *P* < 0.05). These results indicate increased recruitment of B and T lymphocytes into the lungs in *Hhip*^{+/-} mice at 8–10 mo of age. However, total cell counts in bronchoalveolar lavage did not show significant difference between *Hhip*^{+/-} and *Hhip*^{+/+} mice at 10 mo of age (Fig. 3G).

Increased Levels of Matrix Metalloproteinases in the Lungs of *Hhip*^{+/-} Mice. Matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs) promote emphysema development in both human COPD patients and murine emphysema models (27); thus, we compared levels of MMPs in lungs from *Hhip*^{+/+} and *Hhip*^{+/-} mice. MMP-9 protein levels were significantly increased in *Hhip*^{+/-} lungs at 12 mo of age (Fig. S2A) (unpaired *t* test, *P* < 0.05). MMP-12 levels were significantly affected by *Hhip* genotype with a trend toward increased levels in *Hhip*^{+/-} lungs (Fig. S2B) (two-way ANOVA, *P* < 0.05). Lung levels of the collagenase, MMP-8, also showed interaction between genotype and age time points (Fig. S2C) (two-way ANOVA, *P* < 0.05). However, no differences in levels of MMP-2 were detected in *Hhip*^{+/-} and *Hhip*^{+/+} mice at either 8 or 12 mo of age (Fig. S2D).

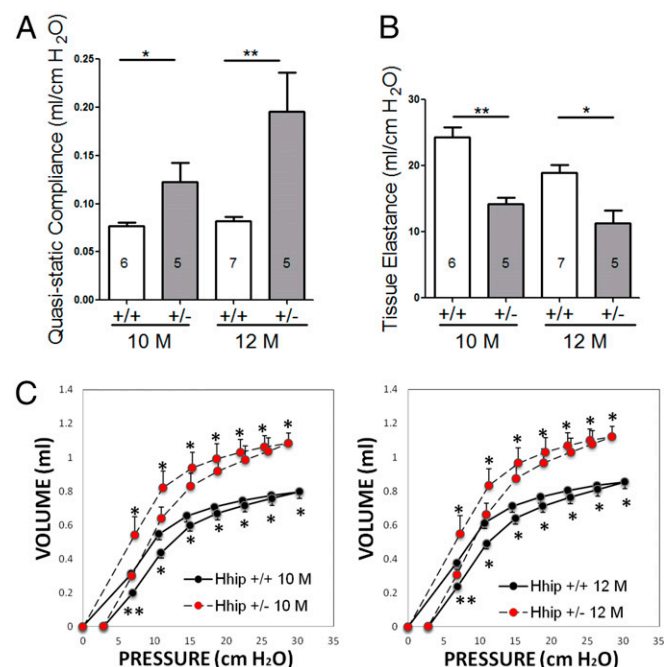


Fig. 2. Lung mechanics measurements in *Hhip*^{+/+} and *Hhip*^{+/-} mice at 10 and 12 mo (M) of age. (A) Lung compliance measurements. (B) Tissue elastance measurements. (C) Lung volume–pressure curve measurements. **P* < 0.05 and ***P* < 0.01 by unpaired *t* test at each pressure point to compare mean volume in *Hhip*^{+/+} and *Hhip*^{+/-} mice. *Hhip*^{+/-} mice at 10 and 12 mo of age had left shifts in their pressure–volume curves compared with *Hhip*^{+/+} mice at the same age, indicating that the *Hhip*^{+/-} mice have higher quasi-static lung compliance. Means ± SEM are shown for each group (*n* = 5–7 mice per group).

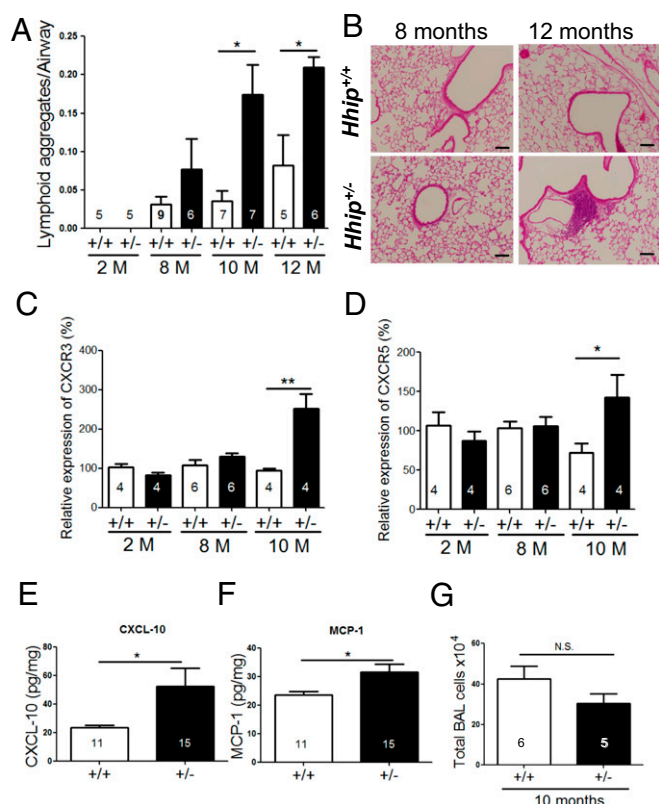


Fig. 3. Increased lymphoid aggregates in the lungs of $Hhip^{+/-}$ mice during aging. (A) Quantification of lymphoid aggregates per airway (mean internal diameter of 200–1,000 μ m) in $Hhip^{+/+}$ mice (+/+) and $Hhip^{+/-}$ mice (+/-) at different ages. Data are means \pm SEM from five to nine mice per group. (B) H&E staining in murine lungs. (Scale bars, 60 μ m.) (C and D) Gene expression of CXCR3 and CXCR5 in lungs from $Hhip^{+/+}$ (+/+) and $Hhip^{+/-}$ (-/-) mice. Mean \pm SEM are shown. (E and F) Measurements on CXCL10 and MCP1 levels in lungs from $Hhip^{+/+}$ (+/+) and $Hhip^{+/-}$ (-/-) mice at 8 mo of age. Data are means \pm SEM from 11 to 15 mice per group. (G) Total cell counts in bronchoalveolar lavage from mice at 10 mo of age. * P < 0.05; ** P < 0.01 by unpaired t test. N.S., nonsignificant.

Increased Cell Death and Cell Senescence in $Hhip^{+/-}$ Lungs. As alveolar septal cell apoptosis contributes to emphysema development (28), we also measured cell death in lungs. Significantly increased cell death as assessed by TUNEL staining was detected in lungs from $Hhip^{+/-}$ mice compared with $Hhip^{+/+}$ mice at 8 mo of age (Fig. S3 A and B) (unpaired t test, P < 0.05). However, no difference in cell proliferation was detected in $Hhip^{+/-}$ vs. $Hhip^{+/+}$ lungs as assessed by Ki67 staining (Fig. S3 C and D). Furthermore, we assessed cellular senescence markers in murine lungs. Increased p53 and p21 levels were detected in $Hhip^{+/-}$ lungs compared with $Hhip^{+/+}$ lungs at 10 mo of age (Fig. S4) (unpaired t test, P < 0.05).

Increased Oxidative Burden in $Hhip^{+/-}$ Lungs. To identify pathways driving spontaneous emphysema in $Hhip^{+/-}$ mice, we assessed genes differentially expressed in 8-mo-old (preceding phenotypic changes) $Hhip^{+/-}$ and $Hhip^{+/+}$ murine lungs (22). All 48 up-regulated genes in $Hhip^{+/-}$ vs. $Hhip^{+/+}$ mice were significantly enriched in biological oxidation pathways by gene set enrichment analysis (false-discovery rate is 1.20E-04) (Table S1). A subset of selected genes validated by quantitative RT-PCR included Mt3 (metallothionein 3) and Adh7 (alcohol dehydrogenase 7) (Fig. S5 A–D). Increased expression of genes enriched in xenobiotic pathways suggested a pro-oxidant state in $Hhip^{+/-}$ murine lungs at 8 mo of age.

To further confirm that $Hhip^{+/-}$ mice have increased lung oxidative stress levels, we measured reduced glutathione (GSH)

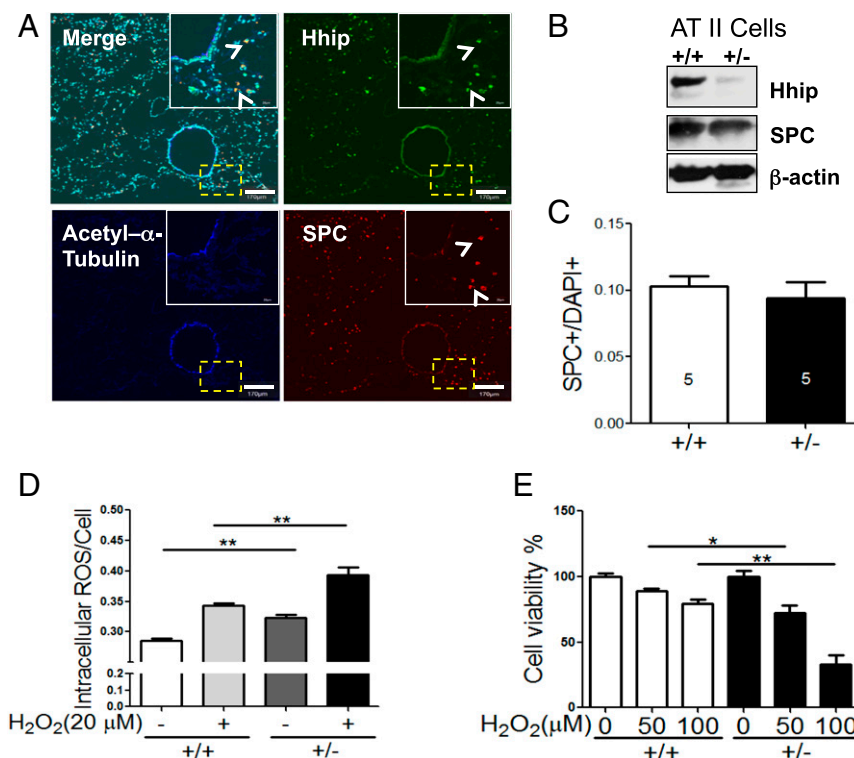
and oxidized GSH (GSSG) in lung lysates from $Hhip^{+/+}$ and $Hhip^{+/-}$ mice. A markedly lower GSH/GSSG ratio was found in lung lysates from 9-mo-old $Hhip^{+/-}$ mice compared with $Hhip^{+/+}$ mice (Fig. S5E) (unpaired t test, P < 0.05). Consistently, the antioxidant capacity in lungs showed a strong age-related reduction in $Hhip^{+/-}$ mice (Fig. S5F) (one-way ANOVA, P < 0.01).

HHIP, Expressed in Alveolar Type II Cells, Regulates Cellular Oxidant Stress. Immunofluorescence staining of lung sections revealed that HHIP colocalizes with SPC (surfactant protein C), a marker of alveolar type II (AT II) cells (Fig. 4A), with a reduced level of HHIP in $Hhip^{+/-}$ mice (Fig. 4B). However, no differences in the numbers of AT II cells (quantified by SPC staining) were detected between $Hhip^{+/-}$ and $Hhip^{+/+}$ mice at 2 mo of age (Fig. 4C).

We then assessed oxidative stress responses in AT II cells. Increased intracellular ROS levels were detected in AT II cells isolated from 9-mo-old $Hhip^{+/-}$ mice compared with cells from age-matched $Hhip^{+/+}$ mice (Fig. 4D) (unpaired t test, P < 0.01). Consistently, increased cell death rates were detected in AT II cells from $Hhip^{+/-}$ mice treated with H_2O_2 (Fig. 4E) (unpaired t test, P < 0.05).

HHIP Interacts with GSTP1 and Enhances Glutathione-Conjugating Activity. HHIP prevents the HH ligands from activating transcription factor Gli1 (29). However, AT II cells having minimal Gli1 expression are less likely to be responsive to HH ligands. To identify the potential molecular mechanisms by which HHIP contributes to redox homeostasis in AT II cells, we applied two screening approaches: (i) we searched for cellular proteins that interact with HHIP using affinity purification followed by MS; and (ii) we used a PCR array-based assay to measure expression changes of genes related to oxidative stress pathways in AT II cells derived from $Hhip^{+/-}$ mice and age-matched $Hhip^{+/+}$ mice.

First, in HEK 293 cells transfected with a C-terminal Flag/HA-tagged HHIP construct, HHIP-interacting proteins were visualized by silver staining after immunoprecipitation (IP) with anti-HA antibody (Fig. 5A). Through MS, 239 proteins were identified as cellular interacting proteins of HHIP after background subtraction of proteins identified from vector-transfected cells. Among novel HHIP interacting partners, we detected the presence of GST π 1 (GSTP1), a GST family member that catalyzes the conjugation of GSH with electrophilic compounds to fulfill its detoxification function. First, we confirmed the interaction between HHIP and GSTP1 by IP in HEK 293 cells transfected with Flag/HA-tagged HHIP. Compared with full-length HHIP, HHIP¹⁻¹⁹³ that contains a frizzled domain on the N terminus of HHIP maintains its interaction with GSTP1 but HHIP¹⁹⁴⁻⁵⁹² did not (Fig. 5B). Furthermore, overexpression of the full-length HHIP (but not the GSTP1 binding-deficient HHIP¹⁹⁴⁻⁵⁹² mutant) improved cell viability (Fig. S6A), increased GSTP1 activity (Fig. S6B), and reduced intracellular ROS accumulation in Beas-2B cells treated with H_2O_2 (Fig. 5C), suggesting that the interaction between GSTP1 and HHIP promotes GSTP1 activity and thereby reduces lung oxidative stress levels. Second, we assessed where HHIP interacts with GSTP1 inside cells. Intracellular HHIP was detectable in the mitochondria of AT II cells (Fig. S7A), whereas GSTP1 interacts with HHIP mainly in the mitochondrial fraction of Beas-2B cells, which was enhanced after H_2O_2 treatment (50 μ M for 1 h) (Fig. 5D). To determine whether HHIP modulates GSTP1 function, we measured GST enzymatic activity in AT II cells derived from $Hhip^{+/-}$ and $Hhip^{+/+}$ mice at 9 mo of age. We detected significantly lower GST activity in AT II cells derived from $Hhip^{+/-}$ vs. $Hhip^{+/+}$ mice (Fig. 5E), suggesting that HHIP promotes the activity of GST in murine AT II cells. We also detected increased mitochondrial-derived ROS, represented by increased mitoSOX staining in AT II cells from $Hhip^{+/-}$ compared with $Hhip^{+/+}$ mice at 9 mo of age (Fig. S7B), suggesting a functional impacts of HHIP on mitochondria by limiting mitochondrial-derived ROS accumulation in AT II cells.



HHIP inhibits the HH pathway, a critical lung developmental pathway, through preventing three ligands from binding to its receptor, protein patched homolog 1, and eventually activating Gli1 (29). However, age-related emphysema in *Hhip*^{+/-} mice might depend on a noncanonical HH pathway given that the HH pathway was regarded as an antagonist of aging in Alzheimer's disease and

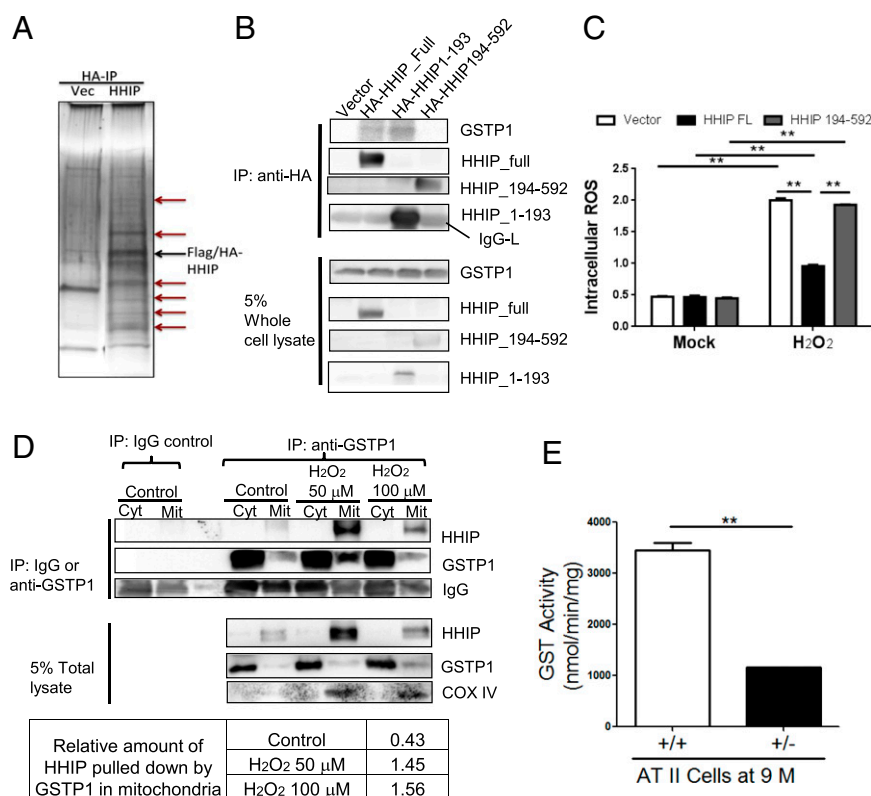


Fig. 5. HHIP interacts with GSTP1 and enhances glutathione-conjugating activity. (A) Affinity purification of cellular protein complexes associated with Flag/HA-tagged HHIP (indicated by the black arrow) in HEK 293 cells as indicated by the red arrows. (B) IP of HHIP by anti-HA antibody in HEK 293 cells transfected with HHIP full length, HHIP¹⁻¹⁹³, or HHIP¹⁹⁴⁻⁵⁹² deletion mutant followed by immunoblotting (IB) with indicated antibodies. IgG-L, IgG light chain. (C) Intracellular ROS measurements in Beas-2B cells transfected with empty vector, full-length HHIP, or HHIP¹⁹⁴⁻⁵⁹² deletion mutant after H₂O₂ treatment (200 μ M for 12 h). (D) IP of GSTP1 in mitochondrial (Mit) and cytosol (Cyt) fractions by anti-GSTP1 or isotype IgG (control) antibody in Beas-2B cells treated with H₂O₂ (50 μ M or 100 μ M) for 1 h. Relative amount of HHIP to GSTP1 in the Mit-IP portions was shown in the bottom table. (E) GST activity measurements in AT II cells from 9-mo-old *Hhip*^{+/-} and *Hhip*^{+/+} mice. ***P* < 0.01, unpaired *t* test.

diabetes (35) because of its critical roles in organ-specific stem cells (36, 37). We would expect a slower aging process because of partial de-repression of the HH pathway in *Hhip*^{+/-} mice (22), whereas we observed accelerated aging-associated emphysema and increased cellular senescence in *Hhip*^{+/-} mice. By searching for additional interacting proteins of HHIP, we identified GSTP1, a detoxification gene, which protects murine lung epithelial cells from H₂O₂-induced cell death (38). Therefore, the interaction between HHIP and GSTP1 in the cellular mitochondrial fraction suggests that HHIP may reduce oxidative stress by binding to and possibly increasing the activity of GSTP1. Interestingly, overexpressing GSTP1 in *Caenorhabditis elegans* extended its lifespan (39), suggesting a potential antiaging role of GSTP1, consistent with reduced GSTP1 activity in *Hhip*^{+/-} mice.

Based on its interaction with GSTP1, HHIP may have an autonomous effect in AT II cells. However, *Pdgfr α* ⁺ (platelet-derived growth-factor receptor α) mesenchymal cells but not endothelial cells and alveolar type I cells in the alveolar space also express HHIP (Fig. S11). Therefore, increased cell death and senescence detected in lungs from *Hhip*^{+/-} mice may result from a combination of autonomous and paracrine effects in multiple cell types. Although more work is needed to characterize autonomous and paracrine effects of HHIP in lungs during aging, it is noteworthy that the increased oxidant burden and increased lymphoid aggregates accompanied by lung function abnormalities in adult *Hhip*^{+/-} mice recapitulate those seen in human COPD patients carrying risk alleles in the *HHIP* GWAS locus (16, 22).

Senile lungs also exhibit increased inflammation that is likely pathologically important for the development of COPD, including increased levels of CXCR3 and CXCR5 to promote migration of B and T lymphocytes (24). Consistent with increased levels of cytokines, lymphoid aggregates, previously associated with severe emphysema in human COPD lungs (40), were also detected in lungs from *Hhip*^{+/-} mice. An increased number of lymphoid aggregates may contribute to the greater airspace enlargement observed in *Hhip*^{+/-} mice as (i) lymphoid aggregate number and size correlate with emphysema severity in human COPD patients (41); (ii) activated T lymphocytes (which are present in lymphoid aggregates) not only secrete MMPs (42) that can promote lung destruction, but also induce greater MMP production by macrophages (43); (iii) B cells (also present in lymphoid aggregates) promote CS-induced emphysema in mice (44); and (iv) B-cell products (autoantibodies) have been linked to emphysema in CS-exposed mice and human COPD patients (45, 46). Thus, *Hhip* may protect mice from spontaneous airspace enlargement in mice by inhibiting adaptive immunity (including lymphoid aggregates formation).

The cause of reduced levels of *Hhip* in lungs during aging, which may include reduced numbers of AT II cells during aging or reduced number of transcripts of HHIP in each AT II cell, needs further investigation. Nonetheless, a moderate reduction of *Hhip* in *Hhip*^{+/-} mice was sufficient to provoke oxidative stress, lymphoid aggregates, alveolar loss, lung function abnormalities, and cellular senescence related to emphysema at 10 mo of age, suggesting that normal levels of *Hhip* are critical to maintain lung homeostasis.

Airspace Size Analysis. For alveolar morphometric analysis, at least 15 images per mouse lung were randomly taken for analysis using methods described previously (22). Images were processed using Scion imaging software and analyzed for mean alveolar chord length (49).

Statistical Analysis Methods. We used two-way ANOVA analyses followed by Student two-sample unpaired *t* tests. See details in *SI Materials and Methods*.

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