

Effect of Monoclonal Antibody against TNF- α on Noise-Induced Inner Ear Damage

Youhei Yamamoto, Kazuma Sugahara, Junko Tsuda, Makoto Hashimoto and Hiroshi Yamashita

Department of Otolaryngology, Yamaguchi University Graduate School of Medicine, 1-1-1 Minamikogushi, Ube, Yamaguchi 755-8505, Japan

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Correspondence to Kazuma Sugahara, MD. Email: kazuma@yamaguchi-u.ac.jp

Abstract This study investigated the potential of adalimumab (ADA), a monoclonal antibody targeting TNF- α , to protect the inner ear from intense sound exposure, given that inflammatory cytokines, including TNF- α , are linked to hearing loss in acoustic disorders. In this study, adalimumab was administered to mice, and its effect on the inner ear was assessed. We examined the translocation of ADA to the inner ear and its ototoxicity and impact on acoustic exposure. The results showed that adalimumab partially reached the cochlea after administration but increased the susceptibility to acoustic exposure, resulting in higher hair cell loss in the inner ear. While TNF- α had been considered a potential therapeutic target, the results suggested that excessive TNF- α suppression could harm the inner ear. We acknowledged some limitations, such as the use of adalimumab instead of an anti-mouse TNF- α antibody and the need to explore the suppression of other cytokines for better inner ear protection. In conclusion, adalimumab administration was found to increase the inner ear's susceptibility to acoustic exposure, potentially leading to more significant hair cell damage, possibly due to excessive TNF- α suppression.

Key words: TNF- α , noise trauma, Adalimumab, mouse

Introduction

After exposure to high-intensity sound, hearing loss occurs because of decreased blood flow to the cochlea¹⁻³ and damage to hair cells.⁴ In addition, inflammatory cytokines such as IL-1, IL-6, and TNF- α are expressed in the inner ear along with increased expression of the transcription factor NF κ B after exposure to high-intensity sound.^{5,6}

Glucocorticoids have been clinically used to treat inner ear disorders, including acoustic disorders. Glucocorticoids can suppress NF κ B activity via glucocorticoid receptors in many tissues, thereby suppressing inflammation.⁷ Steroids also suppress cytokine production following acoustic disturbances in the inner ear.⁸ Acoustic disorders can be avoided by inhibiting inflammatory cytokines in the

inner ear.⁹⁻¹¹ Recently, many types of antibody pharmaceuticals have been developed that potently suppress inflammatory cytokines and are used to treat many diseases. However, although these new drugs strongly suppress the activity of cytokines in the inner ear, their effects on inner ear disorders remain unclear. TNF- α is a major mediator of the inflammatory response whose levels increase after acoustic injury. It is possible that acoustic disturbances can be circumvented by inhibiting the activity of TNF- α . Animal experiments have shown that etanercept, an anti-TNF- α antibody, suppresses acoustic disturbances.¹² Many anti-TNF antibody preparations have been developed, including adalimumab, infliximab, golimumab, certolizumab, and ozoralizumab; however, their effects on the inner ear are unknown. This

study aimed to determine the effects of adalimumab on acoustic disturbances in the inner ear.

Materials and Methods

Animal use and care

Male CBA/N mice (4-6 weeks old, 20-25 g body weight) with normal Preyer reflexes were obtained from Japan SLC, Inc. (Shizuoka, Japan).

The experimental protocol was reviewed and approved by the Committee for Ethics on Animal Experiments at Yamaguchi University School of Medicine (43-056). This study was conducted in accordance with the guidelines of Japanese Federal Law (No. 105) and Notification No. 6 of the Japanese Government.

Inner ear translocation of adalimumab

The animals were divided into two groups, namely, Adalimumab and Control. Six animals were intraperitoneally administered adalimumab (AbbVie GK, Tokyo, Japan) or saline (10 mg/kg body weight). Twenty-four hours after the administration of adalimumab, the animals were anesthetized with an overdose of pentobarbital and immediately decapitated. Their temporal bones were quickly removed.

After fixation with 4% PFA (4°C, 2h), the cells were washed with PBS at 4°C. After decalcification with 10% EDTA for three days, samples were washed with PBS at 4°C and then incubated with anti-Humira (adalimumab) monoclonal antibody (Eurobio scientific, Les Ulis, France) (1:100). After washing with PBS, the samples were incubated with Alexa Fluor 488-conjugated mouse anti-mouse IgG (1:100; Sigma) for 4 h at room temperature. The specimens were washed with PBS at 4°C, dehydrated in four steps with ethanol, and embedded in Immuno-Bed® (Polysciences, Inc., Warrington, USA). After sectioning to obtain sections with a thickness of 4 µm, these sections were encapsulated and examined under a fluorescence microscope. In this study, a negative control was not established by staining with secondary antibodies only.

Ototoxicity of adalimumab

Experiments were conducted to confirm the toxic effects of adalimumab administration on inner ear hair cells.

Adalimumab and saline were administered to two groups, the adalimumab treatment and control groups (n = 2 each), respectively. Seven days later, the animals were decapitated under deep anesthesia, and the cochlea was removed. After fixation with 4% PFA (4°C, 2 h), the cells were washed with PBS at 4°C. The Organ of Corti was excised using a surface preparation technique. Hair cells were labeled with FITC-conjugated phalloidin (100 nM; Merck KGaA, Darmstadt, Germany), washed, mounted, and observed under a fluorescence microscope.

Effects of adalimumab on acoustic exposure

This experiment was conducted to confirm the effect of adalimumab on acoustic disturbance.

The animals were divided into two groups: adalimumab and control (n = 8 each). Hearing functions of all animals were evaluated with ABR thresholds measured with System 3 auditory brainstem response ABR system (Bioresearch Center, Nagoya, Japan) after the administration of intraperitoneal anesthesia [a mixture of medetomidine (0.3 mg/0.3 mL/kg), midazolam (4 mg/0.8 mL/kg), and butorphanol (5 mg/mL/kg)].

Adalimumab (10 mg/kg, AbbVie LLC) or saline was administered intraperitoneally 1 h before acoustic exposure.

The animals were exposed to octave-band noise with a center frequency of 4 kHz and 130 dB for 5 h under intraperitoneal anesthesia.

The ABR was measured seven days after acoustic loading, and changes in the ABR threshold before and after loading were compared. Subsequently, the animals were quickly decapitated under deep anesthesia to remove the cochlea. After fixation with 4% PFA (4°C, 2 h), the cells were washed with PBS at 4°C. The Organ of Corti was excised using a surface preparation technique to evaluate the hair cell loss rate. Hair cells were labeled with FITC-conjugated phalloidin, washed, mounted, and observed under a fluorescence microscope.

Statistical Analysis

All data were analyzed using StatView version 5.0 J for Macintosh (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA). The Mann-Whitney U test was used to compare hair cell densities and significance values. Statistical significance was set at $P < 0.05$.

Results

Effect of the administration of adalimumab on the cochlea

The results of indirect immunofluorescence analysis 24 h after adalimumab administration are shown in Figure 1. After the administration of adalimumab, signal enhancement was observed in the Organ of Corti and

lateral wall of the cochlea. Signals were also observed in the blood vessels within the bone wall. By contrast, no signal enhancement was observed in the control group. This finding indicated that the intraperitoneally administered adalimumab was partially distributed in the cochlea. Figure 2 shows the surface preparation of the Organ of Corti seven days after the administration of adalimumab. In the adalimumab-treated group, no phalloidin-labeled inner or outer hair cells were damaged. This suggests that adalimumab was not toxic. Based on the aforementioned results, some intraperitoneally administered adalimumab migrated to the cochlea after 24 h, but adalimumab alone was unlikely to damage the hair cells.

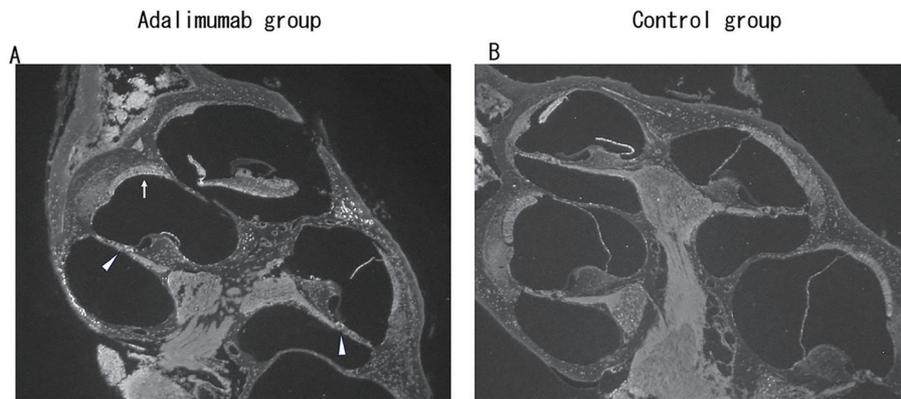


Fig. 1 Inner ear translocation of adalimumab. Following adalimumab administration, signal enhancement was observed in the Organ of Corti (arrowhead) and the lateral wall (arrow) of the cochlea (A). No signal enhancement was observed in the control group (B). (n=3, each)

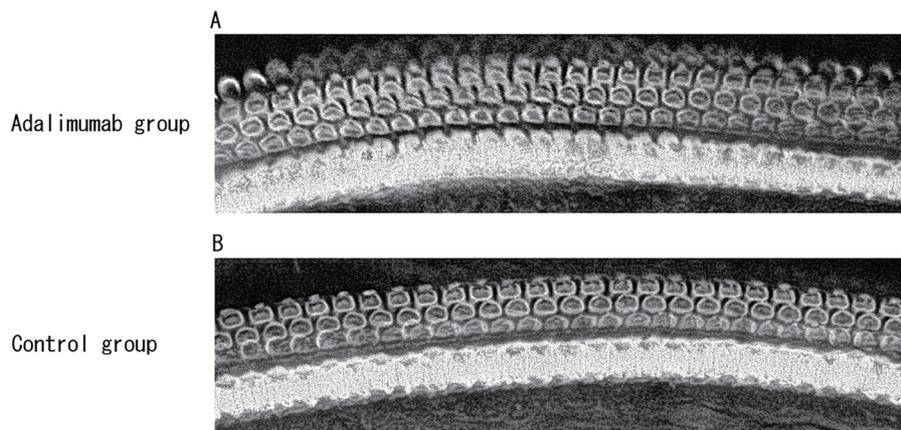


Fig. 2 Surface structure of the organ of Corti after the administration of adalimumab. Neither the adalimumab group (A) nor the control group (B) exhibited degeneration of inner and outer hair cells. (n=2, each)

Effect of the administration of adalimumab on acoustic trauma

The ABR thresholds were evaluated before and seven days after intense noise exposure (Fig. 3). Little difference was observed in the ABR thresholds between the adalimumab and control groups before noise exposure.

The ABR thresholds increased by 20-50 dB at each frequency after noise exposure compared with before noise exposure. Under the acoustic exposure conditions used in this study, the threshold elevation seven days after noise exposure reached a maximum of 16 kHz for both groups. The ABR threshold shifts seven days after noise exposure are

shown in Figure 4. There was no significant difference in the ABR threshold shifts ($p = 0.089$ at 16 kHz); however, the threshold tended to be higher in the adalimumab group at each frequency (Fig. 4).

The surface structures of the Organs of Corti after seven days of noise exposure are shown in Figure 5. In both the control and adalimumab groups, hair cell loss was observed seven days after sound exposure. However, the adalimumab-treated group exhibited a higher rate of hair cell loss than the control group.

Outer hair cells were significantly lost on the basal rotation side in the adalimumab

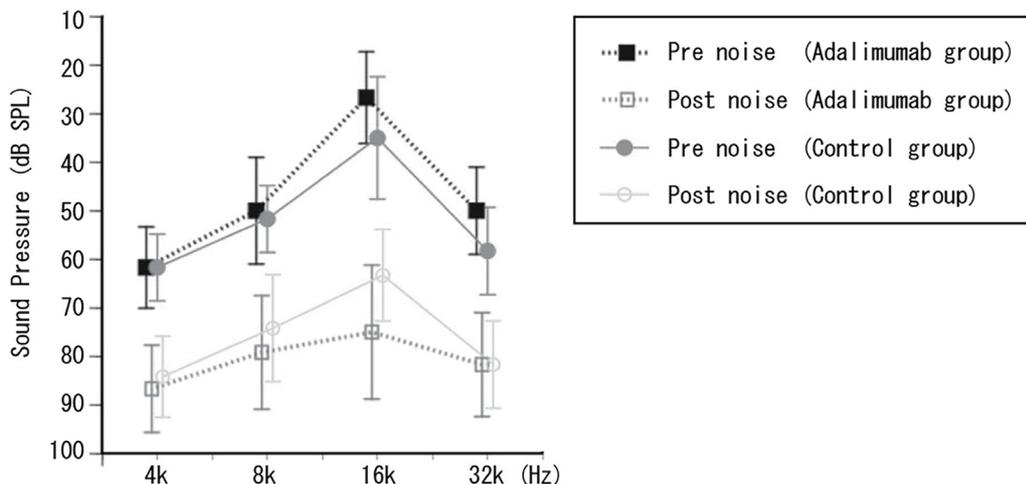


Fig. 3 The ABR thresholds before and seven days after exposure to intense noise. There was minimal difference in the ABR thresholds between the adalimumab and control groups before noise exposure. Error bars indicate \pm I.s.d. ($n=8$, each)

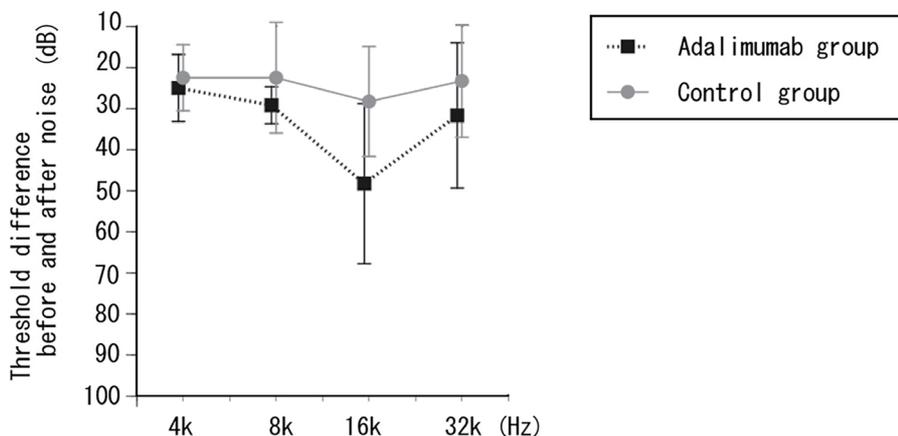


Fig. 4 Shifts in the ABR threshold in both adalimumab group and control group. At each frequency, the adalimumab group exhibited larger threshold shifts than the control group. Error bars indicate \pm I.s.d. ($n=8$, each)

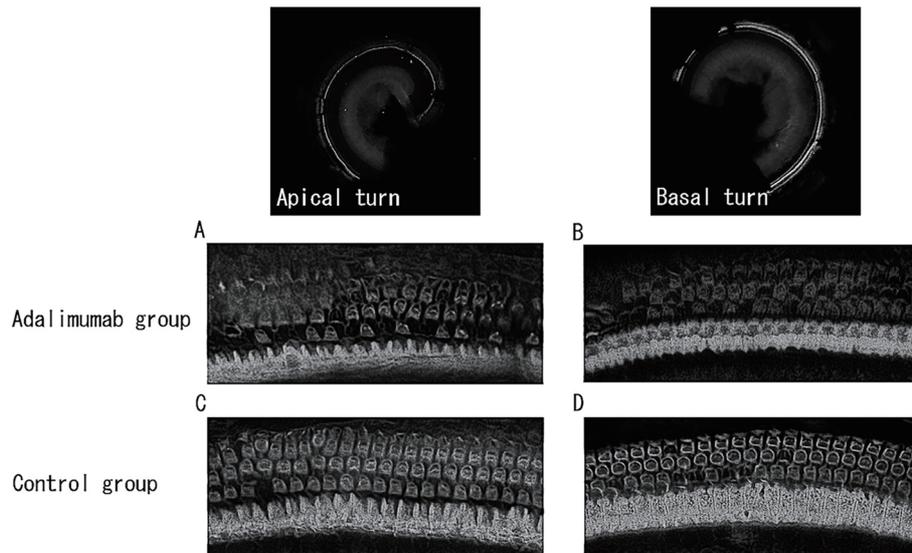


Fig. 5 Surface preparation of the cochlear hair cells seven days after sound exposure. A higher number of outer hair cells were degenerated in the adalimumab-treated group (A, B) than in the control group (C, D). (n=8, each)

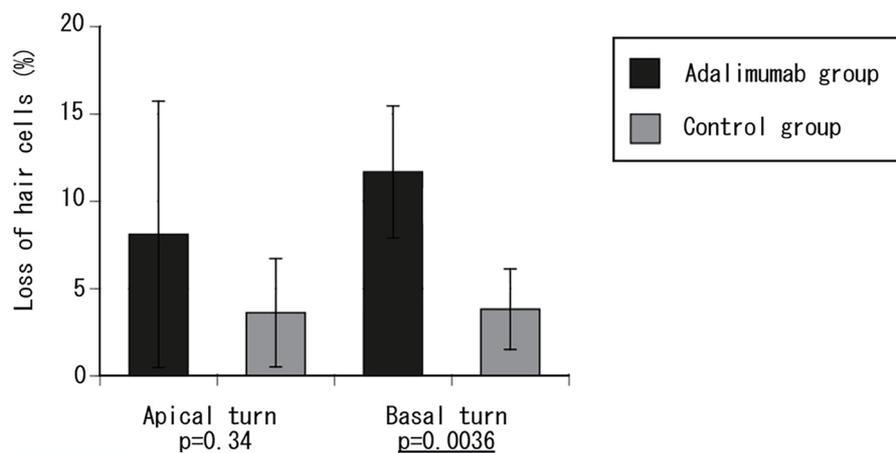


Fig. 6 The rate of degenerated outer hair cells seven days after sound exposure. The number of degenerated outer hair cells was higher in the adalimumab group than in the control group. Error bars indicate \pm I.s.d. (n=8, each)

group (Fig. 6). These results suggest that adalimumab administration increases susceptibility to acoustic exposure in the inner ear.

Discussion

The immune system of the inner ear is unique because it is deficient in immunoglobulins.¹³ However, it was recently revealed that immune cells also exist in the inner ear and help maintain homeostasis in the inner ear.^{14,15}

Sensory cell degeneration and synaptic

disturbances occur when the inner ear is exposed to loud sounds, leading to a decline in inner ear function.¹⁶ Various inflammatory cytokines are involved in inner ear damage after sound.^{5,6,17-19}

TNF- α is a potent inflammatory cytokine, similar to IL-1 and IL-6. It plays an important role in chronic inflammatory diseases, including Crohn's disease and rheumatoid arthritis, and has been targeted for treatment. The levels of TNF- α increase in the inner ear after acoustic disturbance.^{5,19,20} This

study was designed to investigate the potential of TNF- α as a therapeutic target for inner ear disorders caused by loud sounds. The administration of Etanercept, a TNF- α inhibitor, suppressed the elevation of the ABR threshold after acoustic stress.¹²

If TNF- α is involved in hair cell damage, anti-TNF- α drugs may protect the inner ear from acoustic damage. However, our experimental results showed that the administration of anti-TNF- α antibody enhanced hair cell damage following acoustic disturbance. TNF- α , unlike other inflammatory cytokines, including Il-1 and Il-6, is expressed even before acoustic disturbance.^{5,21} This suggests that TNF- α may have a functional role even when the inner ear is intact. The abnormal inner ear morphology and impaired hearing in mice with TNF- α knockout also indicates that TNF- α plays an important role in the inner ear.²² Our results suggest that excessive suppression of TNF- α might have adverse effects on the inner ear. Previous animal experiments have reported inhibitory effects of etanercept on noise-induced inner ear damage.¹² Etanercept comprises TNF- α receptor section, which is responsible for binding to TNF- α , and an IgG1 Fc portion, providing circulatory stability and sustained therapeutic effects. It has an affinity not only for TNF- α but also for TNF- β .²³ In contrast, adalimumab, being an antibody formulation, not only binds to the resultant TNF- α for inhibition but also impairs TNF- α -producing cells themselves.^{24,25} These differences in the mechanism of action may explain why adalimumab exacerbates inner ear damage after intense noise exposure.

Inflammatory cytokines are produced by fibrocytes of the spiral ligament during acoustic trauma.^{26,27} In the present study, no inflammatory cells were observed. However, a small number of inflammatory cells, primarily tissue macrophages, exist in the cochlea, and their number increases during acute inner ear disorders such as after acoustic trauma²⁸ and drug-induced damage.^{29,30} We hypothesized these tissue macrophages were also affected. The fact that tissue macrophages were not observed is a subject for future investigation.

In this study, the experimental drug

adalimumab was administered as an anti-human TNF- α antibody. Typically, an anti-mouse TNF- α antibody should be used. However, adalimumab was used because the manufacturer showed cross-reactivity in mice. This is a limitation of this study.

In the current study, 10 mg/kg adalimumab was administered intraperitoneally 1 h before acoustic exposure. Other studies examining adalimumab in mice administered doses of 3-10 mg/kg.³¹⁻³³ Typically, the amount of drug transferred to the inner ear is expected to be limited due to the presence of the blood-inner ear barrier.^{34,35} Therefore, we conducted the experiments at a dose of 10 mg/kg. However, these experiments were not conducted at lower doses. Considering that the dosage is a crucial issue when applying these results to humans, this was a limitation of the present study.

In this study, the intense sound to which the animals were exposed consisted of an octave-band noise centered at approximately 4 kHz. According to cochleograms^{36,37} previously reported in mice, sounds at 4 kHz were received at the apical turn of the cochlea. However, inner ear damage due to intense sounds occurs in frequency regions higher than the exposed frequency.³⁸ Therefore, under the conditions of acoustic disturbance used in this study, we believe that hair cell damage occurred in both the apical and basal turns.

In a recent study, the calcineurin inhibitor tacrolimus (TCR) was shown to protect the inner ear by suppressing the expression of cytokines (TNF- α and c-fos).⁹ In addition, Ginkgo Biloba extract (EGb 761) inhibited TNF- α and protected the inner ear after acoustic injury.¹⁰ Metformin suppresses the expression of cytokines, including TNF, in acoustic disorders and protects the inner ear.¹¹ In light of these findings, it appears that suppressing other cytokines might offer more robust protection for the inner ear than focusing solely on the suppression of TNF.

Conclusion

In the Adalimumab and control groups, changes in the hearing threshold at each frequency before and after the acoustic load and

the rate of hair cell depletion were compared. The rate of hair cell defects was significantly higher in the adalimumab group than in the control group.

Hence, the inner ear may be adversely affected by the extent of suppression of TNF- α as a cause.

Acknowledgments

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Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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