Advances in mechanisms of allergy and clinical immunology in 2012

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Manuscripts published in the "Mechanisms of allergy and clinical immunology" section of the *Journal of Allergy and Clinical Immunology* during 2012 enhanced our knowledge of the involvement of cytokines and other mediators in allergic disorders and described novel approaches for understanding mechanisms of allergic and immunologic diseases. Also published were articles focused on mechanisms of allergen-specific immunotherapy and the development of novel antiallergic treatments, as well as strategies to achieve tolerance to allergens. The highlights of these studies and their potential clinical implications are summarized in this review. (J Allergy Clin Immunol 2013;131:661-7.)

Key words: Dendritic cells, cytokines, immunotherapy, mast cell, basophil, eosinophil, T cells, regulatory T cells

Since its inception in 2003, initially as "Advances in mechanisms of allergy" covering articles published in 2001 and 2002 in the "Mechanisms of allergy and clinical immunology" section (formerly "Mechanisms of allergy") of the *Journal of Allergy and Clinical Immunology*,¹ these annual reviews have become a popular mainstay of the *Journal*. This year's version should be no

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Abbreviations used		
AHR	Airway hyperresponsiveness	
	MHC class II transactivator	
CRTH2:	Chemoattractant receptor homologous molecule	
	expressed on T_{H2} cells (also called DP2 and CD294)	
CysLT:	Cysteinyl leukotriene	
•	Dendritic cell	
EMT:	Epithelial mesenchymal transition	
	Eosinophilic pustular folliculitis	
	Forkhead box protein 3	
	House dust extract	
HDM:	House dust mite	
IRAK-M:	IL-1 receptor-associated kinase M	
MITF:	Microphthalmia transcription factor	
MSC:	Mesenchymal stem cell	
α-MSH:	α-Melanocyte stimulating hormone	
NLRP3:	Nucleotide-binding domain and leucine-rich repeat	
	protein 3	
OVA:	Ovalbumin	
OX40L:	OX40 ligand	
PAR:	Protease-activated receptor	
PG:	Prostaglandin	
SLIT:	Sublingual immunotherapy	
SPT:	Skin prick test	
TFE3:	Transcription factor E3	
TLR:	Toll-like receptor	
U	Regulatory T	
TSLP:	Thymic stromal lymphopoietin	

exception and summarizes articles that represent advances in mechanisms of allergy and clinical immunology published in the *Journal* during 2012 (Table I). Although the topics covered by this review, like the articles themselves, are quite diverse, particularly prominent features among these articles include those involving dendritic cell (DC) and regulatory T (Treg) cell biology; IL-1/IL-33 family, T_H1 , T_H2 , and T_H17 cytokines; new forms of therapies relevant to the practice of allergy and immunology; the latest insights into how allergen-specific therapies might be working; and original animal models, including so-called "humanized" models in which human cell xenografts are established in mice to allow the study of human biology and cell-based therapeutics in a preclinical animal setting. In addition to summarizing key findings, when possible, the potential clinical implications are also included.

INVOLVEMENT OF CYTOKINES AND OTHER MEDIATORS IN ALLERGIC DISORDERS

Barlow et al² demonstrated that IL-25/IL-33–responsive innate type 2 lymphoid cells (nuocytes) are an important source of IL-13

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Торіс	Advances and observations
IL-33 biology	Production of nuocytes; role in rhinitis and mast cell activation
DC biology	Role of MHC class II expression; tissue recruitment by diesel exhaust particles and allergens mediated by specific chemokines and their receptors; role in mediating IL-13-dependent inflammation
PAR2	Roles in allergenicity and nasal hypersecretion
Predicting allergic disease and development of tolerance	Using personal home dust extracts to predict sensitization; use of DC biomarkers to predict efficacy roles for Treg cells and DCs
Mechanisms of immunotherapy	Understanding the IgG_4 response; use of allergen-specific tetramers to track allergen-specific T cells and changes during immunotherapy
Novel therapies	Cotargeting IgE and FcyRIIb; use of fullerene derivatives

TABLE I. Key advances in our understanding of the mechanisms of asthma, allergy, and immunology as reported in 2012 in the *Journal of Allergy and Clinical Immunology*

in a mouse model of allergic airway disease and can produce sufficient IL-13 in response to IL-25 to induce airway hyperresponsiveness (AHR) and allergic lung inflammation. A difference between CD4⁺ T-cell secretion of IL-13 and the related cytokine IL-4 was also demonstrated: IL-13 was secreted by lung CD4⁺ T cells, whereas IL-4 was secreted by lymph node but not lung CD4⁺ T cells.

Haenuki et al³ evaluated the role of IL-33, a cytokine that is known to promote allergic responses by stimulating T_H^2 cytokine secretion through effects on multiple cell types, in patients with allergic rhinitis. Increased serum IL-33 and decreased nasal epithelial cell IL-33 levels were demonstrated in patients with allergic rhinitis, and ragweed extract stimulated release of IL-33 by nasal epithelial cells in a mouse model of this disorder. Furthermore, allergic rhinitis was considerably more severe in wild-type than in IL-33–deficient mice. In addition to promoting T_H^2 cytokine secretion, IL-33 promoted mast cell histamine release and basophil-active chemokine secretion. Consequently, IL-33 antagonists might suppress the development of allergic rhinitis.

Wu et al⁴ evaluated IL-1 receptor–associated kinase M (IRAK-M), which negatively regulates Toll-like receptor (TLR) 2 function, and demonstrated that its expression is increased in airway epithelium from asthmatic patients. In addition, IRAK-M was shown to be upregulated *in vitro* in human primary airway epithelial cell cultures by IL-13 through a pathway dependent on phosphatidyl inositol 3-kinase activation of c-Jun, which binds to the IRAK-M promoter. This suggests a mechanism through which increased IL-13 levels in asthmatic patients can impair TLR2dependent airway host defense against bacterial pathogens.

Parmentier et al⁵ demonstrated that human T_H^2 cells express considerably more *CYSLTR1* mRNA (which encodes the cysteinyl leukotriene [CysLT] receptor 1 [CysLT1]) than T_H^1 cells and respond more than T_H^1 cells to CysLTs. CysLT1 signaling in T_H^2 cells is mediated by $G\alpha_q$ and $G\alpha_i$ proteins and is responsible for the chemotactic effect of leukotriene D_4 on T_H^2 cells. These observations might account for some of the antiinflammatory effects of CysLT1 antagonists in asthmatic patients. Brand et al⁶ showed that induction of allergic airway disease in mice was associated with methylation of the promoter of the gene for IFN- γ in CD4⁺ T cells, which decreases IFN- γ expression. Reversal of IFN- γ promoter methylation in CD4⁺ T cells inhibited T_H^2 polarization and allergic airway inflammation. These observations suggest the importance and potential usefulness of epigenetic modification as a therapy for allergic disorders. Hsia et al⁷ used a mouse model to show that the absence of surfactant protein A allows increased macrophage and neutrophil TNF- α production. A further increase in TNF- α production in response to *Mycoplasma* species infection enhances mast cell secretion of mediators that contribute to AHR. Thus surfactant protein A can inhibit AHR during *Mycoplasma* species infection by suppressing TNF- α production.

Finally, using adoptive transfer of CD8 ovalbumin (OVA) transgenic (OT-I) cells in mice, Tang et al⁸ examined the role of CD8 T cell–derived IFN- γ in their effector function. They report that wild-type effector CD8 OT-I cells, but not IFN- $\gamma^{-/-}$ effector OT-I CD8 T cells, attenuated T_H2 inflammation induced in sensitized mice by OVA challenge. In contrast, the IFN- $\gamma^{-/-}$ effector OT-I CD8 T cells were able to both induce and exacerbate lung inflammation due in part to effects on lung DCs. A main conclusion of their work is that IFN- γ , specifically that derived from CD8 T cells, can be important for controlling T_H2 pulmonary inflammation in their murine model.

NOVEL APPROACHES FOR UNDERSTANDING MECHANISMS OF ALLERGIC AND IMMUNOLOGIC DISEASES

Massoud et al⁹ demonstrated that intraperitoneal administration of intravenous immunoglobulin activates DCs to induce a highly suppressive, antigen-specific, forkhead box protein 3 (Foxp3)–positive Treg cell population that homes to the lungs and thoracic lymph nodes of mice that had been immunized intranasally with OVA or ragweed. Consequently, the antiinflammatory effects of intravenous immunoglobulin might be partially explained by suppression through Treg cells of allergic airway inflammation and AHR.

Sedej et al¹⁰ explored crosstalk between 2 receptors for prostaglandin (PG) D₂, chemoattractant receptor homologous molecule expressed on T_H2 cells (CRTH2; also called DP2 and CD294) and DP₁, through *in vitro* studies with human eosinophils. Heterodimerization of these 2 receptors was shown to suppress calcium signaling by means of ligation of DP₁ but to amplify calcium signaling through ligation of CRTH2. Consequently, targeting of the DP₁/CRTH2 heterodimer can suppress the inflammatory effects of PGD₂ mediated by CRTH2 in allergic disorders.

Liang et al¹¹ demonstrated that the highly allergenic cysteine protease papain acts directly on naive T cells through proteaseactivated receptor (PAR) 2 to stimulate secretion of IL-4 and the chemokines CCL17 and CCL22, which induce basophil Download English Version:

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