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#### Review 1

#### Tolerogenic dendritic cell vaccines to treat autoimmune diseases: Can the Q3 unattainable dream turn into reality? 3

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### ABSTRACT

Autoimmune diseases affect about one in 15 individuals in developed countries and are characterized by a break- 23 down in immune tolerance. Current therapeutic approaches against destructive immune responses in autoim- 24 mune diseases are based on non-specific agents systemically suppressing the function of many immune 25 effector cells. This indiscriminate immunosuppression, however, often causes serious and sometimes life- 26 threatening side effects. Therefore, the need for more specific treatments resulting in lower toxicity and 27 longer-term solutions is high. Because of the established role of dendritic cells (DCs) in maintaining the balance 28 between immunity and tolerance, tolerogenic (tol)DCs might be novel therapeutic targets to prevent undesirable 29 (auto-)immune responses. The idea behind toIDC therapy is that it is a highly targeted, antigen-specific treat- 30 ment that only affects the auto-reactive inflammatory response. The therapeutic potential of toIDCs has already 31 been proven in experimental animal models of different autoimmune disorders as well as with in vitro experi- 32 ments using ex vivo generated human tolDCs, thus the challenge remains in bringing tolDC therapy to the clinic, 33 although first clinical trials have been conducted. In this review, we will extensively discuss the use of toIDCs for 34 induction of antigen-specific tolerance in several autoimmune disease settings, from bench to bedside, including 35 currently applied strategies to generate toIDCs as well as technical difficulties and challenges in the field. 36 © 2013 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved. 37

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## **ARTICLE IN PRESS**

## 63 **1. Introduction**

Autoimmune and autoinflammatory diseases affect about 1 in 15 in-64 65 dividuals in developed countries and are in many instances a devastating health problem to the individual patient, thereby representing a 66 heavy burden to society. They comprise a diverse collection of diseases 67 in terms of their demographic profile and primary clinical manifesta-68 69 tions [1–3]. Whereas in some cases autoimmunity is associated with 70 systemic symptoms affecting multiple organs, such as systemic lupus 71erythematosus (SLE), most autoimmune diseases have a predilection 72for a specific organ, such as rheumatoid arthritis (RA), atherosclerosis, multiple sclerosis (MS), inflammatory bowel diseases (IBD), and psori-73asis. Although several mechanisms are thought to be operative in the 74 75pathogenesis of autoimmune diseases, including genetic predisposition and environmental modulation, the commonality between them is that 76 they all originate from an aberrant lymphocytic response against self-77 antigens, which can be primarily T or B cell-mediated or both, and re-78 79 guires breakdown of immune tolerance to self-antigens. However, since self-antigen driven B cell activation cannot take place without T 80 cell help, we focus here on the studied models of breakdown of toler-81 ance at the T cell level. 82

83 Immune tolerance is the ability of the immune system to ignore self-84 antigens as well as harmless constituents thereby preventing destructive responses to the body's own tissues and cells while preserving 85 protective immunity [4]. The immune system possesses multiple 86 complex tolerance mechanisms to keep T and B cells unresponsive to 87 self-antigens. The early tolerance mechanisms that operate in the core 88 89 immune organs, such as the thymus and the bone marrow, before the maturation and circulation of T cells and B cells, respectively, are 90 91 referred to as central tolerance [5,6]. Additional processes used to reduce 92 or inactivate auto-reactive immune cell lineages take place in secondary 93 lymphoid organs and/or at sites of inflammation and are called *periph*-94eral tolerance [5,6].

In contrast to corticosteroid-based treatment of autoimmunity, cur-9596 rent immune-based therapies to restore the immune tolerance and treat autoimmune diseases, such as T and B cell depletion [7,8], blocking 97 98 of T cell costimulation using CTLA-4 Ig [9,10], and cytokine neutralization (anti-TNF $\alpha$ , anti-IL-6) [11–13] offer promising and more tailored 99 treatment of some autoimmune diseases. Unfortunately, they do not re-100 sult in a long-lasting, drug-free remission of the autoimmune disease 101 [14]. Moreover, they act as general immunosuppressants, systemically 102 103 suppressing the function of many immune effector cells and therefore often cause serious and sometimes life-threatening side effects. Thus, 104 105 new - more antigen-specific and targeted - therapies resulting in 106 lower toxicity and longer-term solutions are needed. Since dendritic cells (DCs), a specialized subset of antigen-presenting cells, appear to 107 108 be essential for both central tolerance in the thymus and peripheral tolerance in the other tissues, this has provided the prospect for their use 109 to suppress pathogenic immune responses in autoimmune diseases. 110

DCs are the main orchestrators of the immune symphony. They con-111 stitute a heterogeneous family of professional antigen-presenting cells 112 113 that play a central role in the (dys)regulation of immune responses 114 [15–17]. As sentinel members of the *innate immune system*, they patrol the body to capture antigens, including self-antigens, invading patho-115gens and certain malignant cells. These antigen-loaded DCs migrate to 116 the secondary lymphoid organs and the internalized antigen is processed 117 118 and presented to other immune cells. Depending on the context in which the antigen is captured, DCs induce tolerance or immunity. Indeed, DCs 119 respond to antigens and molecules containing pathogen-associated mo-120 lecular patterns (PAMPs) or damage-associated molecular patterns 121(DAMPs) by the generation of protective cytokines [15]. In doing so, 122they trigger effective immunity against invading pathogens and altered 123self-antigens by stimulation of naive T cells, effector T cells and memory 124 T cells, as well as B cells [15,18,19]. 125

126Extensive evidence from numerous studies has directly or indirectly127demonstrated the role of DCs in autoimmune disease development. For

example, constitutive ablation of conventional (c)DCs, plasmacytoid (p) 128 DCs and Langerhans cells breaks self-tolerance and leads to spontane- 129 ous fatal autoimmunity under steady-state conditions [20]. Given the 130 critical role of DCs in the negative selection of auto-reactive T cells and 131 positive selection of regulatory T cells (Tregs) [21], this is most likely 132 mediated by a failure to induce T cell tolerance in the thymus and the 133 subsequent release of auto-reactive T cells into the periphery. However, 134 transient (short-term) depletion of DCs in mice abrogates T cell priming 135 to antigens [22] and inhibits the development of autoimmune diseases, 136 even after disease onset [23]. This suggests that either the presence of 137 DCs in the young animal is sufficient to promote long-term immune 138 tolerance or that spontaneous priming and expansion of auto-reactive 139 T cells in the periphery can only occur when DCs are depleted for a 140 prolonged period of time [20]. Moreover, upon constitutive ablation of 141 cDCs only, mice remain healthy without any signs of autoimmunity 142 [24], indicating that pDCs and Langerhans cells may have a more promi- 143 nent role in the maintenance of immune tolerance. Indeed, both pDCs and 144 Langerhans cells have been shown to exert potent tolerogenic functions 145 to prevent or dampen activation of alloreactive [25-27] or allergen- 146 specific [28] T cells as well as to mediate oral tolerance [29]. 147

The abundant presence of DCs at sites of autoimmune inflamma- 148 tion, such as synovial fluid and tissue of RA patients [30], salivary 149 glands of Sjögren's syndrome patients [31], atherosclerotic plaques 150 [32] and cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) of MS patients [33], further sup- 151 ports their involvement in autoimmune mechanisms. Also in serum 152 of patients with various autoimmune diseases, high numbers of in- 153 flammatory DCs were detected [34–36] and a positive association 154 was shown between high levels of circulating DCs secreting pro-155 inflammatory cytokines and severity of MS [37]. 156

In this review, we discuss the dual role of DCs in the pathogenesis of 157 autoimmunity and subsequently provide prospect for their use as 158 tolerance-inducing cell-based treatment strategy for a number of auto-159 immune diseases. For this, we concentrate on RA, atherosclerosis, MS 160 and IBD. An overview of different currently applied strategies is given to generate stable tolerogenic DCs (toIDCs) as well as technical difficulties and challenges that remain in the field. 163

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### 2. DCs in autoimmunity: a double-edged sword

Continuous research efforts have contributed substantially to cur- 165 rent knowledge regarding the DC-mediated tolerance mechanisms. 166 Nevertheless, uncovering the underlying pathways as well as identifica- 167 tion of new ones in peripheral tissues remain a big challenge for immu- 168 nologists [38]. Thymic DCs, together with medullar thymic epithelial 169 cells (mTECs), play a critical role in maintaining central tolerance where- 170 by T cells recognizing self-antigens with high affinity are eliminated 171 through apoptosis (i.e. negative selection) during their development 172 in the thymus [39,40]. However, since many self-reactive T cells may 173 have low or intermediate affinity for the self-antigen, not every poten-174 tial auto-reactive lymphocyte is deleted in the thymus. Furthermore, 175 not all self-antigens are expressed in the thymus. Hence, T cells recog- 176 nizing proteins that are only found at other sites in the body or only at 177 certain times during development must be initiated in the periphery 178 [6]. DC-mediated *peripheral tolerance* mechanisms are more diverse. 179 Tolerance-inducing DCs can mediate apoptosis or deletion of mature 180 auto-reactive T cells in the peripheral lymphoid organs [41]; or, DCs 181 can induce unresponsiveness of T cells, a process that is called anergy 182 [42]. Indeed whereas cooperative action of a TCR signal, a costimulatory 183 signal mediated by CD28 ligation and secreted cytokines interacting 184 with TCRs in a paracrine fashion is mandatory for T cell activation 185 [43], it was believed that antigen recognition in the absence of a 186 costimulatory signal induces long-term hyporesponsiveness of the T 187 cells characterized by an active repression of TCR signaling [6]. Howev- 188 er, to date a variety of costimulatory pathways have been identified and 189 are currently classified based on their impact on primed T cells [44]. 190 Indeed, pathways delivering activatory signals to T cells are termed 191

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