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Sensing cell stress and transformation through $V\gamma 9V\delta 2$ T cell-mediated recognition of the isoprenoid pathway metabolites

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Abstract

 $V\gamma 9V\delta 2$ cells, a major peripheral blood $\gamma\delta$ T cell subset in adults, recognize non-peptidic phosphorylated metabolites referred to as phosphoantigens (phosphoAg), which are produced by a broad array of prokaryotic and eukaryotic organisms. We will review here the biosynthetic pathways leading to production of phosphoAg and our current understanding of the mode of activation of $V\gamma 9V\delta 2$ cells by these compounds. We will also discuss the physiological relevance of this immune recognition process and show how it can enable discrimination by $V\gamma 9V\delta 2$ lymphocytes of infected and/or transformed cells.

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1. $V\gamma 9V\delta 2$ cells respond to widespread non-peptide ligands, the phosphoantigens

At the time of their first description 15 years ago, human $V\gamma 9V\delta 2$ T lymphocytes were found to respond to mycobacteria and to human tumor cells [1]. Early analyses of the *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* compounds stimulating $V\gamma 9V\delta 2$ cells led to the identification of four structurally related phosphoesters (so-called TUBag 1–4), with thymidine or uridine nucleotide conjugates together with their non-nucleotidic pyrophosphoester moieties [2–4]). In *Mycobacterium smegmatis*, isopentenyl pyrophosphate (IPP) and its dimethylallyl pyrophosphate (DMAPP) isomer were also identified [5,6]. Although these findings were confirmed later, at that time, they did not account for the $V\gamma 9V\delta 2$ cell reactivity to distinct histotypes of human tumor cells, encompassing lymphoma

and carcinoma. It has become clear since then that a broad set of natural compounds with a phosphate part as the major determinant of bioactivity was produced by microorganisms and mammalian cells and selectively stimulated the human $\gamma\delta$ T cell population expressing V γ 9V δ 2 T cell receptor (TCR) [7]. These were defined as phosphoantigens (phosphoAg) on this basis [3]. Natural phosphoAg such as IPP, DMAPP [8], or also Escherichia coli-derived 3-formyl-butyl-pyrophosphate [9] and 4-hydroxy-3-dimethylallyl pyrophosphate (HDMAPP) [10] were identified in many microorganisms [3,11] and plants [12], implying that these organisms share a biosynthetic route for these phosphorylated metabolites, leading to more complex isoprenoids [13]. Also, non-phosphorylated non-peptide molecules that stimulate in a crossreactive fashion the same $V\gamma 9V\delta 2$ T lymphocytes are now known, including natural and synthetic alkylamines [14] and therapeutic aminobisphosphonates (ABP) such as pamidronate [15,16]. Since the $V\gamma 9V\delta 2$ -stimulating compounds from human cancer cells have recently been identified as the IPP and DMAPP metabolites of the human mevalonate (MVA) pathway to cholesterol [17,18], and since ABP inhibit the MVA pathway after IPP/DMAPP biosynthesis [19], the ability of ABP to activate human $\gamma\delta$ T cells reflects their pharmacological ability to induce IPP accumulation by treated cells, instead of acting directly, like phosphoAg themselves. Accordingly, ABP concentrations required to stimulate $\gamma \delta T$

Abbreviations: ABP, aminobiphosphonate; Ag, antigen; ApoA1, apolipoprotein A1; AS, ATP synthase; DC, dendritic cell; DMAPP, dimethylallyl pyrophosphate; DOXP, 1-deoxy-D-xylulose-5-phosphate; HDMAPP, 4-hydroxy-3-dimethylallyl pyrophosphate; HMGR, HMG-CoA reductase; HSP, heat shock protein; IPP, isopentenyl pyrophosphate; MAb, monoclonal antibody; MVA, mevalonate; PhosphoAg, phosphoantigen; TCR, T cell receptor.

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cell clones in vitro are 3 to 4 log higher than those needed to induce $\gamma\delta$ T cell expansion in vivo [20,21]. Furthermore, upstream MVA inhibitors such as statins are able to abrogate the $\gamma\delta$ T cell activation, presumably through blockade of production of downstream metabolites such as IPP [17,18].

2. Biosynthesis of phosphoantigens by MVA and DOXP pathways to isoprenoids

All living organisms produce isoprenoids, essential metabolites of their cellular and intercellular biology, but share a metabolic bottleneck at isomerization of the two IPP and DMAPP C5 isomers. On the one hand, archaebacteria and most eukaryotes synthesize IPP from acetyl-CoA through the lipid MVA pathway. In all of these cells, both statins and ABP may prove useful to probe this MVA route, which appears mostly distributed in the mitochondriates (Fig. 1). On the other hand, cyanobacteria, most eubacteria, algae and plastids make IPP differently, through a carbohydrate-based route referred to as 1-deoxy-D-xylulose-5-phosphate (DOXP) after its first intermediate [22]. The DOXP pathway starts from pyruvate plus D-glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate substrates, and after several steps with oxygen-free conditions, produces HDMAPP [23] followed by IPP and DMAPP. Multicellular algae and higher plants cumulate the MVA pathway in the cytosol and in mitochondria, together with, in their chloroplasts, a functional DOXP pathway whose genes remain encoded in the

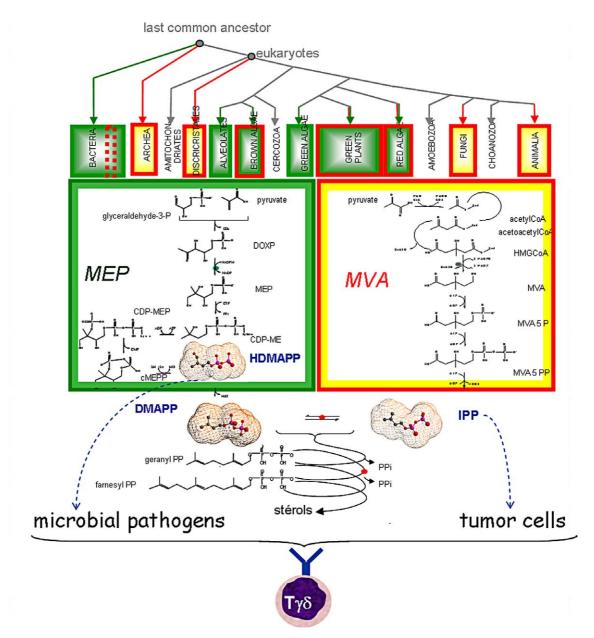


Fig. 1. The DOXP and MVA metabolic paths of cholesterol biosynthesis involve phosphoAg intermediates. Top panel, phylogenetic distribution of DOXP (green boxes) and MVA (yellow boxes) pathways in a simplified tree of life. Bottom panels, DOXP and MVA pathways, with phosphoAg intermediates shown with green molecular surfaces. Grey boxes indicate inhibitors.

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