

In vivo $\gamma\delta$ T Cell Priming to Mycobacterial Antigen by Primary *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* Infection and Exposure to Nonpeptidic Ligands

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Abstract

Background: The recognition of phosphorylated non-peptidic microbial metabolites by V γ 9V δ 2 T cells does not appear to require the presence of MHC molecules or antigen processing, permitting rapid responses against microbial pathogens. These may constitute an important area of natural anti-infectious immunity. To provide evidence of their involvement in immune reactivities against mycobacteria, we measured the responsiveness of peripheral blood V γ 9V δ 2 T cells in children with primary *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (MTB) infections.

Materials and Methods: Peripheral blood mononuclear cells from 22 children with MTB infections and 16 positivity of tuberculin (PPD)-negative healthy children were exposed to nonpeptidic antigens in vitro and the reactivity of the V γ 9V δ 2 T cell subset with these antigens was determined using proliferation and cytokine assays. Also, responses of $\gamma\delta$ T cells from rhesus monkeys stimulated with phosphoantigens in vivo were measured.

Results: The V γ 9V δ 2 T cell responses were highly increased in infected children in comparison with age-matched controls. This augmented V γ 9V δ 2 T cell reactivity subsided after successful antibiotic chemotherapy, suggesting that persistent exposure to mycobacterial antigens is required for the maintenance of $\gamma\delta$ T cell activation in vivo. The in vivo reactivity of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells to phosphoantigens was also analyzed in a rhesus monkey model system. Intravenous injections of phosphoantigens induced an activated state of simian V γ 9V δ 2 T cells which decreased after 2 months, i.e., with a time course similar to that seen in MTB-infected children.

Conclusions: The increased reactivity of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells to phosphoantigens appears to be dependent on constant antigenic exposure. Consequently, the assessment of V γ 9V δ 2 responses may be useful for monitoring the efficacy of antimycobacterial therapies.

Introduction

Tuberculosis in children is usually due to a primary infection (1). Anti-*Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (MTB) immunity depends on the interaction of antigen-

specific CD4⁺ $\alpha\beta$ ⁺ T lymphocytes with macrophages (2,3). However, several studies indicate that $\gamma\delta$ T lymphocytes also play an important role in MTB immunosurveillance (4,5). In *Homo sapiens*, most $\gamma\delta$ T cells express the V γ 9V δ 2 rearrangements (6,7). V γ 9V δ 2 T cells from healthy donors recognize nonpeptidic, tumor-associated or microbial phosphoantigens (8-11) and, similar to natural killer (NK) cells, display the inhibitory receptors for

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major histocompatibility (MHC) class I molecules (12–17). These inhibitory receptors may control their reactivities toward conserved self-antigens and exogenous mycobacterial ligands (12). The phosphoantigenic recognition requires neither antigen uptake/processing nor classical polymorphic or nonpolymorphic MHC molecules, allowing for a rapid response to microbial immune challenge (18). This recognition is severely impaired in some patients with chronic viral (19,20) or bacterial (21) infections. Here we report our analyses of $\gamma\delta$ T cell reactivities to phosphoantigens *ex vivo* in primary MTB-infected children and *in vivo* in rhesus monkeys (*Macaca mulatta*).

Materials and Methods

Cell Preparation and Stimulation

Peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMC) were isolated from 22 children with MTB infections (13 males, 9 females; 5.2 ± 3.3 years of age, range 1–12 years). Fourteen patients suffered from pulmonary MTB, four had MTB meningitis, three had lymphatic MTB, and one had renal MTB. The diagnoses of MTB infections were established by the presence of clinical symptoms, by the positivity of tuberculin (PPD) skin test, and by chest radiography. In some cases (i.e., MTB meningitis and renal MTB), positive cultures of microorganisms and/or MTB detection by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) further supported the clinical diagnosis. PPD-negative healthy children (9 males, 7 females; 6.2 ± 2.5 years of age, range 3–12 years) served as controls. Informed consent was obtained for each patient and control subject. In addition, PBMC were isolated from 12 healthy rhesus monkeys (5–13 years old). Mononuclear cells were cultured at 10^6 cells/ml in a complete culture medium [RPMI-1640, 10% v/v heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum (FBS), 2 mM L-glutamine, 100 IU/ml penicillin, and 100 μ g/ml streptomycin]. Long-term cultures (10–14 days) were supplemented with 100 U/ml of recombinant interleukin-2 (IL-2) (Boehringer Mannheim, Mannheim, Germany), whereas short-term cultures (4 days) were performed in the presence of 5 U/ml of IL-2. $V\gamma9V\delta2$ T cells were stimulated with the following: 0.5 mM ribose-1-phosphate (Rib-1-P, Sigma, St. Louis, MO), 0.5 mM xylose-1-phosphate (Xyl-1-P, Sigma), 0.5 mM dimethylallylpyrophosphate (DMAPP, Sigma), 50 μ M monoethylpyrophosphate [MEP, kindly provided by Drs. Y. Tanaka and B.R. Bloom (9)], 100 μ M

diphosphoglyceric acid (DPG, Sigma), 100 μ M isopentenyl-pyrophosphate (IPP, Sigma), and the mycobacterial TUBAg1 sample diluted 1/1000 v/v [approximately at a final concentration of 1 nM, kindly provided by Dr. J.J. Fournié (8)]. After 1 week of culture, 50% of culture medium was replaced by fresh medium. The expansion of $V\gamma9V\delta2$ T cells was followed by cytometric analysis as previously described (14,19), following double staining of the stimulated cells with anti-CD3 or anti-CD2 [phycoerythrin (PE)] and $V\delta2$ [fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC)] MAb. The absolute number of $V\delta2$ T cell in each culture was calculated as follows: (% of $V\delta2$ T cells among total cells) \times (total cell count)/100. The $V\delta2$ expansion index was then calculated by dividing the absolute number of $V\delta2$ T cells in specifically stimulated cultures by the absolute number of $V\delta2$ T cells before the initiation of culture (14,19). Thus, an expansion index higher than 1 represents a specific expansion of the $V\delta2$ T cell population. The Mann-Whitney U test was used and *p* values of <0.05 were considered significant.

Monoclonal Antibodies and FACS Analysis

The anti-CD3 (IgG1, clone SK7, Becton-Dickinson, Mountain View, CA) was coupled with PE. The B6.1 MAb (IgG₁, Pharmingen, San Diego, CA), which recognizes the $V\delta2$ region of the $\gamma\delta$ TCR, was unlabeled or coupled with FITC. The following anti-human MAbs cross-reactive with rhesus monkey antigens were used: anti-CD2-PE (Antigenix America, New York) and anti- $V\delta2$ -FITC (T Cell Diagnostic, Wabum, MA). The anti-interferon γ (IFN- γ) antibodies (clone 4S.B3, IgG₁) were purchased from Pharmingen. Control MAb (IgG1 or IgG2a) for cell surface labeling were purchased from Becton Dickinson. Analysis of surface and intracellular antigen expression was done as described previously (14). For each sample, 2×10^4 double-stained viable lymphocytes were gated following size (FSC) and granularity (SSC) criteria and analyzed with the Lysis II Software Program (Becton-Dickinson).

Intravenous Injection of DPG in Rhesus Monkeys

All monkeys received a single injection of 100 mg/kg DPG (the maximum dose tolerated by rodents). A slight increase in body temperature was observed in all injected monkeys for 2 hr and two monkeys out of eight developed fever, but recovered within a few hours. (The experi-

Table 1. $V\gamma9/V\delta2$ responses to different phosphoantigens in PPD skin test-positive children, age-matched PPD-negative controls, and healthy rhesus monkeys

PBMC	(n)	$V\gamma9/V\delta2$ expansion index after in vitro culture with						
		Rib-1-P	Xyl-1-P	DMAPP	TUBAg	IPP	DPG	MEP
Healthy PPD ⁻ children	16	7 ± 6	2 ± 1	5 ± 2	6 ± 2	6 ± 1	n.d.	n.d.
MTB-infected PPD ⁺ children ^a	22	18 ± 7	30 ± 14	54 ± 24	50 ± 14	61 ± 20	n.d.	n.d.
Healthy rhesus monkeys	12	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	8 ± 2	8 ± 3	6 ± 2	9 ± 3

PBMC were stimulated for 10–14 days with nonpeptidic antigens as described in Materials and Methods. The expansion index was calculated as the absolute number of $V\delta2$ T cells in stimulated cultures divided by the absolute number of $V\delta2$ T cells in the initial cultures prior to the antigenic exposure. n.d., not determined.

^a $p < 0.01$ when compared to the healthy PPD⁻ group.

mental protocol was approved by the Animal Research Committee of the University of Wisconsin.)

T Cell Proliferation Assay

PBMC from healthy donors (10^7 /ml) were resuspended in complete medium and stimulated with 100 μ M IPP and 5 U/ml IL-2. Cells were cultured for 4 days at 37°C in flat-bottomed microtiter wells, and T cell proliferation was measured following a 6-hr pulse with [³H]-thymidine [0.5 μ Ci/well, Amersham, Bucks, U.K. (22)]. Cultures were harvested (Skatron Instruments, Lier, Norway) and the number of cpm was determined using a β -counter (Packard Gamma 5500).

TNF- α and IFN- γ Detection

Tumor necrosis factor α (TNF- α) release in the supernatants of IPP-stimulated PBMC was measured by ELISA (Amersham) after 24 hr. The intracellular staining of $V\delta2$ T cells producing IFN- γ was analyzed after 6 hr of culture with IPP as previously described (14). Monensin (10 μ M, Sigma) was added during the last 4 hr of culture to block intracellular transport and allow cytokine accumulation. The stimulated cells were washed in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), 1% bovine serum albumin (BSA), and 0.1% sodium azide and stained with the anti- $V\delta2$ -FITC MAb for 15 min at 4°C. The cells were fixed and permeabilized in PBS 1% paraformaldehyde for 10 min at 4°C, and incubated for 30 min at room

Table 2. Frequency of $\gamma\delta$ T lymphocytes in the peripheral blood of healthy PPD skin test-positive children, healthy PPD skin test-negative children, and PPD skin test-positive children with primary tuberculosis

Children Category	Proportion of CD3 ⁺ Cells (Mean ± Standard Error) ^a		
	$\gamma\delta^+$	$V\gamma9V\delta2^+$	$V\delta2/CD45RO^+$
Healthy PPD ⁺ (n = 46)	5.6 ± 0.5%	4.3 ± 0.4%	3.0 ± 0.4%
Healthy PPD ⁻ (n = 17)	5.3 ± 0.6%	4.0 ± 0.5%	3.2 ± 0.3%
TB patients PPD ⁺ (n = 27)	5.2 ± 0.6%	4.1 ± 0.4%	3.2 ± 0.4%

^aThe absolute numbers of $\gamma\delta$ T cells (mean ± standard error) in healthy PPD⁺: 84 ± 36 $\gamma\delta^+$ cells/ μ l (n = 46); healthy PPD⁻: 79 ± 33 $\gamma\delta^+$ cells/ μ l (n = 17); TB patients PPD⁺: 78 ± 39 $\gamma\delta^+$ cells/ μ l (n = 27).

temperature in the dark with the anti-cytokine MAb diluted in PBS with 1% BSA and 0.05% saponin. Finally, they were washed twice in PBS (1% BSA, 0.01% saponin) and analyzed using a FACScan (Becton Dickinson). The controls for nonspecific staining included cells stained with isotype-matched monoclonal antibodies. The proportions of cytokine-producing V δ 2 T cells were determined by FACScan analyses.

Results

To determine whether primary MTB-infected children possess V γ 9V δ 2 T cells exhibiting their constitutive reactivities (8–11), PBMC from 22 patients and 16 age-matched controls were stimulated with different phosphoantigens. These studies assessed the ability of V γ 9V δ 2 cells to expand in 14-day cultures with different synthetic [such as ribose-1-phosphate (Rib-1-P), xylose-1-phosphate (Xyl-1-P), dimethylallyl-pyrophosphate (DMAPP), monoethyl-pyrophosphate (MEP), diphosphoglyceric acid (DPG), and isopentenyl-pyrophosphate (IPP)] (9,10), or natural [TUBAg-1 (8)] phosphoantigens. The V γ 9V δ 2 T cell responses were highly increased in MTB-infected children in comparison to age-matched controls (Table 1). The V γ 9V δ 2 T cell subset in tuberculin-positive MTB-infected children responded well to all antigens used. The strongest responses were detected using IPP, with the mean expansion index of 61. In contrast, the IPP-induced expansion of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells from healthy, tuberculin-negative children was approximately 10 times lower, with the mean expansion index of 6. The absolute and relative numbers of $\gamma\delta$ T cells, V γ 9V δ 2 T cells, and V δ 2/CD45RO cells measured in these children as well as in some additional young TB patients and controls were comparable (Table 2). The $\gamma\delta$ T cell response was further studied in 15 tuberculin-positive children 3 to 9 months after chemotherapy (23). The increased responsiveness of V γ 9V δ 2 cells sharply declined close to the levels detected in healthy tuberculin-negative children (Fig. 1). This suggests that persistent mycobacterial exposure was required for the presence of hyperactivity against phosphoantigens. In contrast, responses of $\alpha\beta$ T lymphocytes to tuberculin (PPD) and to the immunodominant 38 kDa protein of MTB (24) were increased after chemotherapy (data not shown).

To investigate the possibility of phosphoantigen-priming of the V γ 9V δ 2 T cell subset in vivo,

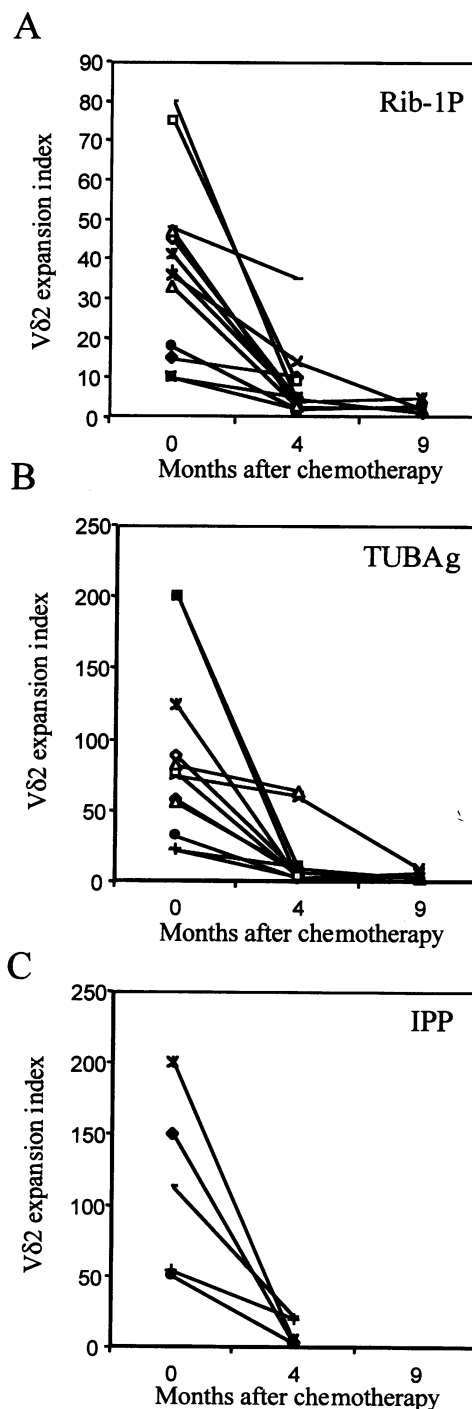


Fig. 1. Successful chemotherapies of *M. tuberculosis* infections are accompanied by reduced $\gamma\delta$ T cell reactivities to nonpeptidic antigens. (A) V δ 2 expansion index to Rib-1P, (B) V δ 2 expansion index to TUBAg, (C) V δ 2 expansion index to IPP. Each symbol corresponds to one individual.

rhesus monkeys whose V γ 9V δ 2 T lymphocytes react in vitro to IPP, MEP, and DPG (Table 1) received intravenous injections of DPG. Periph-

Fig. 2. Intravenous injection of DPG induces an increased reactivity of $\gamma\delta$ T cells. The $V\gamma9V\delta2$ T cell expansion was monitored by measuring DNA synthesis after 5-day stimulation (A) or by flow cytometry after 10 days (B). Previous experiments (data not shown) have indicated that among the peripheral blood leukocytes proliferating in the IPP response, the $V\gamma9V\delta2$ T cell subset forms a dominant population, whereas other proliferating leukocytes (which respond by DNA synthesis to $V\gamma9V\delta2$ T cell-produced cytokines) constitute a minority. Cytokine production (C) was monitored by ELISA ($TNF-\alpha$) or by flow cytometry ($IFN-\gamma$) before and 1 month after the injection of DPG in vivo. The production of $TNF-\alpha$ was detectable by the ELISA assay only after the administration of DPG.

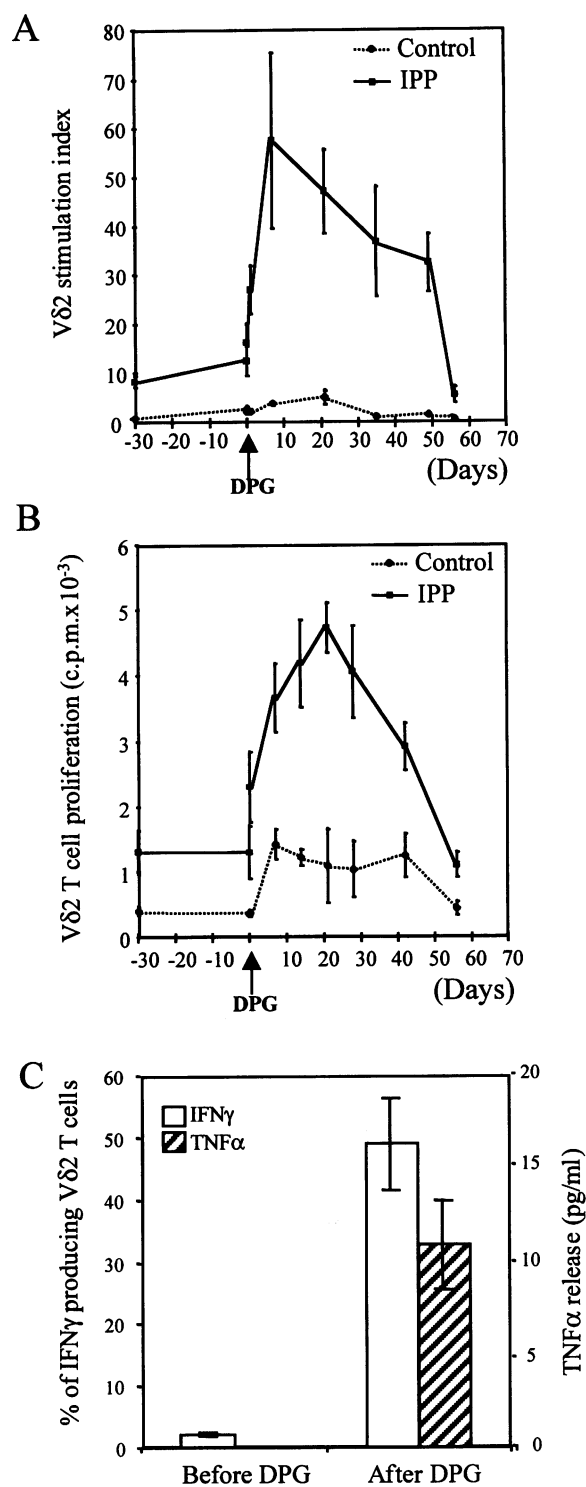


eral blood samples were collected at different time intervals and analyzed for functional reactivities in vitro. The DPG treatment resulted in a substantial up-regulation of both proliferative and cytokine ($IFN-\gamma$) responses to isopentenyl pyrophosphate in immunized animals (Fig. 2). $IFN-\gamma$ -producing $V\delta2$ T cells increased from 2.2% prior to the in vivo treatment to 48.9% 1 month after the treatment. $TNF-\alpha$ -producing $V\delta2$ T cells were not detectable before, but were clearly present after, the treatment (Fig. 2).

Discussion

Historically, most vaccination strategies have utilized protein antigens. However, there are many lymphocytes that do not seem to recognize primarily peptide antigens bound to MHC molecules (8–12). Our data indicate that in vivo exposures to nonpeptidic antigens substantially augment the immunological reactivity of genetically unrestricted $\gamma\delta$ T cells. When activated, these cells exert a powerful antibacterial activity (12–14) and release $IFN-\gamma$ and $TNF-\alpha$ (14). These properties may be useful in the design and development of novel vaccines and/or adjuvants. The long-lasting memory response of $\alpha\beta$ T lymphocytes is clinically applicable for evaluating previous exposures to MTB, but provides unsatisfactory information about the presence or absence of productive infection. In contrast, the $\gamma\delta$ T cell hyperactivity against phosphoantigens requires persistent antigenic exposure. Thus, the assessment of $V\gamma9V\delta2$ T cell responses may be a useful tool to monitor active MTB infections and potential failures of antimycobacterial therapies.

The recent elegant studies of Hoft et al. (25)



provide evidence that the *Mycobacterium bovis* Bacillus Calmette-Guérin (BCG) vaccine augments human $\gamma\delta$ T cell responsiveness to mycobacteria. This study is fully compatible with our observations of human and simian $\gamma\delta$ T cells primed in vivo by either TB disease or intravenously ad-

ministered phosphoantigen. Therefore, both studies strongly suggest that $\gamma\delta$ T cells in vivo may (a) allow for rapid and potent responses against the invading pathogen and (b) serve as targets for new TB vaccines.

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