

IL-1 regulates the IL-23 response to wheat gliadin, the etiologic agent of Celiac Disease

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Celiac disease (CD) is an autoimmune disease prevalent in ~1% of the general population¹. CD is unique because both the major genetic (Human Leukocyte Antigen-DQ2/DQ8 alleles) and etiologic factors (dietary glutens) for susceptibility are known^{2,3}. While these alleles are responsible for the inappropriate T cell response that characterizes CD, they are not sufficient since most HLA-DQ2⁺/DQ8⁺ individuals exposed to glutens never develop disease. The reasons for this have not been explained; however our novel findings strongly advocate a role for interleukin-23 (IL-23) in the immunopathogenesis of CD. We demonstrate that wheat gliadin stimulates monocytes to produce significantly higher amounts of inflammatory cytokines IL-1 β , IL-23, and tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF α) in CD patients compared to HLA-DQ2⁺ healthy individuals. Furthermore, we determine that IL-1 signalling is obligatory for production of IL-23, since IL-1 β triggers IL-23 secretion in a dose-dependent manner and IL-1 receptor antagonist (IL-1ra) blocks IL-23 responses to gliadin. Our results suggest that gliadin activation of monocytes and the subsequent robust secretion of IL-1 β and IL-23 initiate the immune response cascade that is manifest as CD, and reveal for the first time that the IL-1 system regulates production of IL-23. The discovery of IL-23 has

highlighted the critical role of the innate immune response in autoimmunity and other inflammatory conditions⁴. We anticipate that our novel findings will lead to the discovery of therapeutic targets for this disease and other inflammatory diseases mediated by IL-23.

Celiac disease (CD) is a chronic inflammatory disorder of the small intestine triggered by dietary gluten in genetically susceptible individuals¹. More than a decade of research has defined the T cell response to gluten-derived gliadin peptides in CD, yet the early events that initiate its activation are not well understood^{3,5,6}. Clearly, the compromised intestinal epithelial barrier that characterizes CD allows gliadin access to the intestinal submucosa, where it must be acquired and processed by antigen presenting cells (APC) for presentation and activation of gliadin-specific CD4⁺ T cells. While augmented levels of zonulin and potent inflammatory cytokines IL-1 β and TNF α have all been reported to increase intestinal permeability by disrupting the integrity of tight junctions in individuals with CD and other forms of inflammatory bowel disease (IBD), the precise mechanisms involved remain to be determined⁷⁻⁹.

A dynamic relationship between intestinal epithelial cells (IEC) and dendritic cells (iDC) regulates the processes of immunologic tolerance to harmless food and commensal antigens and adaptive immunity to pathogens¹⁰. The aberrant response to dietary gluten in CD immediately calls into question the maturation and activation state of iDC in these individuals. Indeed, a subset of activated lamina propria DQ2⁺ DC derived from circulating blood monocytes was recently implicated in the pathogenesis of CD¹¹. Moreover, circulating monocytes from CD patients have been demonstrated to produce substantially more TNF α and IL-8 in response to gliadin than monocytes from healthy individuals¹². Together, these findings suggest that CD ultimately results from accumulation of normally quiescent circulating monocytes that are activated upon encounter with gliadin in the gut.

Monocytes and their progeny are integral components of the innate immune system. In response to environmental antigens, conserved pattern recognition receptors (PRR) trigger cytokine production directing the immune response to the encountered antigen¹³. New evidence shows that activated monocytes producing IL-1 β and IL-23 are the most potent stimulators of the memory subset of pathogenic T helper cells (termed Th17) that secrete tissue destructive cytokines IL-17, IL-21 and IL-22¹⁴⁻¹⁶.

IL-1 was one of the first cytokines to be described and has since proved to be an important mediator of multiple immunologic processes throughout the body, including inflammatory conditions in the gut¹⁷. The IL-1 family consists of proinflammatory cytokines IL-1 α and IL-1 β and anti-inflammatory IL-1ra, which prevents IL-1 signalling by binding the active IL-1 receptor (IL-1RI)¹⁸. An imbalance between IL-1 β and IL-1ra, resulting from amplified levels of IL-1 β has been associated with inflammation in CD¹⁹. Interestingly, elimination of dietary glutens significantly increases levels of IL-1ra in these individuals without substantially altering IL-1 β , suggesting that individuals with CD inherently produce more IL-1 β and IL-1ra, and that dietary glutens may induce inflammation by shifting the balance toward IL-1 β in individuals with CD.

IL-23 is a relatively new inflammatory cytokine composed of the IL-12/23p40 subunit and the IL-23p19 protein that is preferentially secreted in specific tissues by APC^{20,21}. It perpetuates chronic inflammation by stimulating both adaptive and innate cells to produce additional proinflammatory mediators⁴. CD has been considered a typical Th1 disease, however emergence of the IL23-Th17 paradigm has prompted reanalysis of cell-mediated tissue damage previously attributed to the IL12-Th1 axis, and emphasized the decisive role of the innate arm in adaptive immunity. Although novel studies have detected augmented levels of IL-23 in rheumatoid arthritis, psoriasis, Crohn's disease, ulcerative colitis and multiple sclerosis, and other cytokines associated

with Th17-mediated inflammation (IL-1 β , IL-6, IL-15 and TNF α) have been implicated in the pathogenesis of CD, an association with IL-23 has not yet been reported^{19,22-29}.

Given the strong genetic requirement associated with CD, we investigated gliadin's capacity to activate the IL-23 pathway in HLA-DQ2⁺ individuals with and without CD. We predicted that gliadin would induce increased levels of IL-23 and related inflammatory cytokines in HLA-DQ2⁺ individuals with CD compared to healthy individuals. To test this hypothesis, we exposed PBMC from CD patients and HLA-DQ2⁺ healthy individuals to a pepsin-trypsin digest of gliadin (PTG) and analyzed culture supernatants for IL-1 β , IL-1ra, IL-6, IL-12p70, IL-23 and TNF α . We discovered that PTG stimulated production of IL-23, IL-1 β , IL-6 and TNF α and reduced secretion of IL-1ra in all donors tested, however levels of IL-1 β , IL-23, IL-6 and TNF α were significantly higher, and IL-1ra substantially reduced, in CD patients (Figure 1a). Importantly, PTG did not induce IL-12p70 in any of the donors tested (negative data not shown). These results confirm that gliadin stimulates robust production of IL-1 β and TNF α in individuals with CD^{12,19} and demonstrate gliadin's ability to disrupt the balance between IL-1 β and IL-1ra by simultaneously inducing high levels of IL-1 β and decreased levels of IL-1ra. Moreover, our novel findings strongly advocate a role for IL-23 mediated inflammation in the pathogenesis of CD.

In order to demonstrate that production of these potent mediators depended on gliadin exposure, dose response curves were generated with PTG or β -glucan, an agent known to activate the IL-23 pathway. Both stimuli induced dose-dependent production of IL-1 β and IL-23, although PTG proved to be far more effective as evidenced by detectable levels of IL-23 achieved with 100 μ g/ml versus 500 μ g/ml of β -glucan (Figure 1b). These stimulatory effects of PTG were not due to endotoxin contamination, since the presence of LPS in this preparation of PTG was ruled out in earlier studies²⁹.

Several immunodominant epitopes of α -gliadin that preferentially bind HLA-DQ2 and DQ8 molecules as well as an innate peptide p31-43 have been implicated in the pathogenesis of CD³⁰. To determine if any of these epitopes were involved in activation of the innate immune response, we incubated PBMC with synthetic overlapping peptides spanning the entire sequence of α -gliadin. None of the overlapping peptides tested individually or in combination stimulated secretion of IL-1 β or IL-23, indicating that other subtypes of gliadin (γ - or ω -gliadin) or additional properties of gliadin are required for induction of these cytokines (negative data not shown). Since gliadin is a glycoprotein and β -glucan recapitulates the inflammatory cytokine response generated by PTG, posttranslational modifications are likely necessary for pattern recognition and activation of APC.

The kinetics of cytokine responses to PTG was determined by exposing PBMC to PTG for 6, 24, 48 and 72h. These studies revealed that IL-1 β , IL-6 and TNF α were secreted in as few as 6h following PTG exposure, while IL-23 could not be detected until 24h, suggesting that induction of IL-23 required earlier inflammatory mediators (data not shown). During these initial studies, we also observed a positive correlation between IL-1 β and IL-23, which led us to hypothesize that IL-1 is essential for production of IL-23. To directly examine the role of IL-1 β in IL-23 responses, we treated PBMC from CD patients with IL-1ra prior to stimulation with PTG or the positive control, β -glucan. IL-1ra completely inhibited induction of IL-23 in response to both PTG and β -glucan, illustrating the fundamental role of IL-1 signalling in IL-23 production (Figure 2a). IL-1ra also markedly reduced levels of IL-1 β in PBMC treated with both antigens, suggesting that IL-1 β released upon engagement of PTG or β -glucan with their respective pattern recognition receptor (PRR) perpetuates production of IL-1 β and facilitates induction of IL-23 (Figure 2a). Additionally, PBMC were treated with physiologic concentrations of exogenous IL-1 β in order to ascertain its direct effects on cytokine production. Importantly, IL-1 β alone induced IL-23

production at much lower levels than PTG and β -glucan, indicating that additional signalling pathways triggered by these antigens enhance secretion of IL-23 (Figure 2b). These results demonstrate for the first time that the IL-1 system regulates IL-23, and illustrate the powerful anti-inflammatory effects of IL-1ra on induction of IL-23.

While IL-1 β is produced by many cell types, IL-23 production is thought to be restricted to activated APC. Recently, TLR activated monocytes were shown to secrete high levels of IL-23 and to be the best inducers of Th17 cells¹⁴, thus we predicted that monocytes were the cellular source of PTG-induced IL-23. To investigate this hypothesis, we exposed purified lymphocytes, monocytes, or monocyte-derived DC (cultured with GM-CSF and IL-4 for 72h) to PTG overnight and analyzed the cell-free culture supernatants for IL-23 and related “Th17” polarizing mediators. Under these conditions, monocytes and not their progeny DC or lymphocytes produced IL-23, IL-1 β , IL-6, TNF α and CCL20 in response to PTG, demonstrating a direct interaction between PTG and its anonymous PRR(s) on this population (Figure 3).

As with whole PBMC, IL-1ra significantly inhibited IL-23 responses to PTG and β -glucan in purified monocytes (Figure 4a), and addition of exogenous IL-1 β to this subset triggered a dose-dependent IL-23 response (Figure 4b). These results illustrate that gliadin directly stimulates monocytes to secrete IL-23 and related inflammatory mediators and further support a primary role for the IL-1 system in IL-23 mediated inflammation.

In summary, our studies demonstrate that enzymatically digested wheat gliadin stimulates monocytes to produce significantly more IL-23, IL-1 β and TNF α in CD patients than HLA-DQ2⁺ healthy individuals, and reveal a fundamental role for the IL-1 system in the IL-23 pathway. We show that IL-1 β directly induces monocytes to secrete IL-23, while its natural inhibitor, IL-1ra, substantially inhibits both the IL-1 β and IL-23

responses generated by monocytes exposed to gliadin. Moreover, our data indicate that gliadin initiates the inflammatory cascade by disrupting the balance between these two IL-1 members, which could be targeted therapeutically for treatment of this disease and other conditions associated with IL-23 mediated inflammation.

Methods

Cells. Peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMC) were isolated from Celiac patients' and healthy donors' whole blood by density gradient centrifugation in Lymphocyte Separation Medium (ICN Biomedicals Inc.). PBMC were viably cryopreserved in RPMI-1640 media (Invitrogen Corp.) containing 20% human AB serum (hAB) (Gemini Bioproducts) and 10% Dimethylsulfoxide (Sigma) using an automated cell freezer (Gordinier Electronics), and stored in the vapor phase of liquid nitrogen until used. Highly purified monocytes (95% purity) were obtained from healthy donors as above followed by countercurrent centrifugal elutriation. The resulting cells were viably cryopreserved in fetal bovine serum (Summit Biotechnology) containing 10% DMSO and 5% glucose (Sigma) for later use. All individuals gave informed consent for peripheral blood drawn for this study. The study protocol was approved by the Institutional Review Board at the University of Maryland School of Medicine.

DNA Extraction and HLA Typing. DNA was extracted from a portion of the PBMC using the QIAamp DNA Mini Kit (Qiagen) per the manufacturer's instructions. DNA was analyzed by spectrophotometry to determine quantity and purity and stored at –20°C until used. Alleles of genes encoding HLA were identified using One Lambda Micro SSP™ ABDR Typing Kit, and alleles of genes encoding HLA-DQ were determined by DQA1 and DQB1 SSP UniTray® Kit (Dynal Biotech) following the manufacturer's.

Reagents. Gliadin was prepared by enzymatic digestion as described previously²⁹. The presence of contaminating endotoxin in gliadin was determined by *Limulus* amoebocyte assay per the manufacturers' instructions. 100mg of β -D-glucan from barley (Sigma) was dissolved in 600ul 95%EtOH followed by 9mL distilled water. The resultant slurry was stirred vigorously at 100°C for 3 minutes, allowed to cool, and stored at 10mg/ml at 4°C until used. 25 overlapping 20mers spanning the sequence of α -gliadin were synthesized and purified >95% at the University of Maryland Biopolymer Lab, and stored at -20°C until used. Recombinant human IL-1 β and IL-1ra were purchased from R & D Systems.

PBMC cultures. PBMC from CD patients and HLA-DQ2⁺ healthy controls was tested as follows. 10⁶PBMC/ml were incubated in RPMI-1640 supplemented with 10% heat inactivated hAB, 1% L-glutamine, 1% Pen-Strep and 20mM Hepes Buffer (cRPMI) with and without PTG, β -glucan, 5ng/ml rhIL-1 β , or 10 μ g/ml pooled synthetic 20mers of α -gliadin in 96 well U-bottom plates (Denville Scientific Inc.) at 37 °C in 5% CO₂ for 6, 24, 48, or 72h. Alternatively, 10⁶PBMC/ml were incubated with 0.5 μ g/ml rhIL-1ra at 37 °C in 5% CO₂ for 1h then cultured with and without 100 μ g/ml PTG or 500 μ g/ml β -glucan for an additional 20h. Cell-free culture supernatants were harvested for cytokine and chemokine analysis.

Elutriated monocyte cultures. 5 x 10⁵ monocytes/ml were cultured in cRPMI with and without 100 μ g/ml PTG, 100 μ g/ml β -glucan, or 0.5-50ng/ml rhIL-1 β in 96 well U-bottom plates at 37 °C in 5% CO₂ for 20h. Alternatively, 5 x 10⁵ monocytes/ml were incubated with 0.5 μ g/ml rhIL-1ra at 37 °C in 5% CO₂ for 1h then cultured with and without 100 μ g/ml PTG or β -glucan for an additional 20h. Cell-free culture supernatants were harvested for cytokine and chemokine analysis.

Cytokine & chemokine analysis. Cell-free culture supernatants were analyzed for IL-1 β , IL-1ra, IL-6, IL-12p70, IFN γ , TNF α (Bio-Plex Cytokine Assay kit, Bio-Rad) or IL-

1 β , IL-23 (ELISA kit, eBiosciences), IL-1ra and CCL20 (Quantikine ELISA kit, R & D Systems) following the manufacturers' protocols. Appropriate standard curves were included in each assay.

Statistical analyses. Data are presented as mean values + s.d. P values comparing different conditions within the same individuals were calculated using paired two-tailed Student's *t* tests and p values comparing the two study groups were determined by unpaired two-tailed Student's *t* tests (Figure 1a). *P* values < 0.05 were considered statistically significant.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We would like to thank the University of Maryland Center for Celiac Research for providing patient samples, PTG and synthetic α -gliadin peptides. Funding for this project was provided by an Internal Research Grant from the Department of Pathology, University of Maryland School of Medicine.

AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS

K.M.H designed and conducted the experiments, analyzed the data and drafted the manuscript. D.L.M. assisted K.M.H. with experimental design, data analyses and manuscript writing. A.F. provided patient material, gave input on experimental design and data evaluation, and reviewed the manuscript.

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Figure 1 Gliadin induces robust production of IL-23 and related proinflammatory cytokines in PBMC from CD patients. **(a)** PBMC from CD patients generate significantly higher amounts of IL-23, IL-1 β and TNF α in response to PTG stimulation than HLA-DQ2⁺ healthy individuals. PTG substantially reduces secretion of the anti-inflammatory cytokine IL-1ra in CD patients but not in

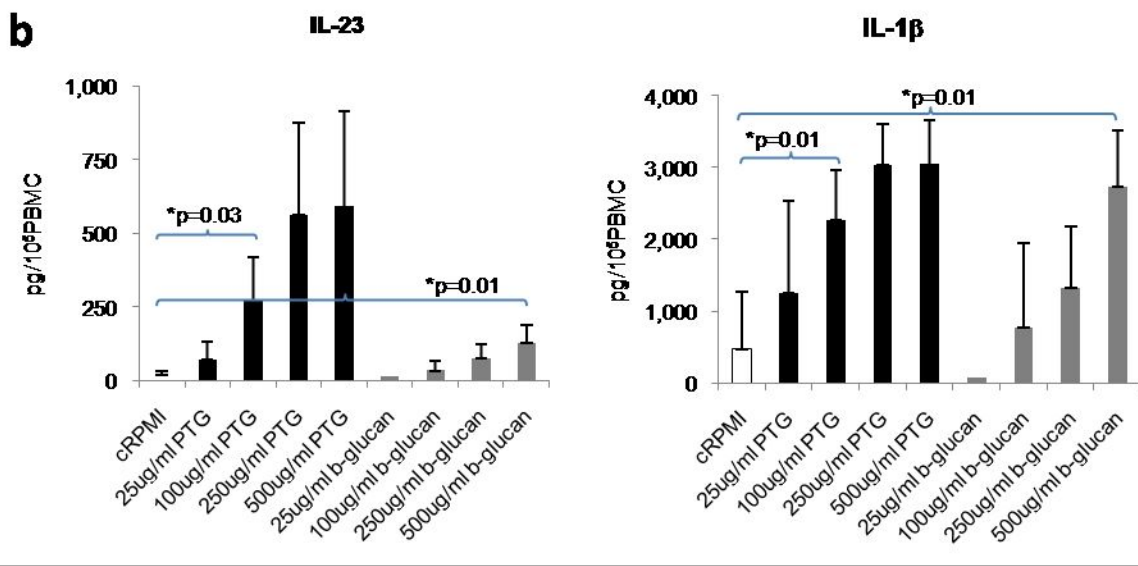
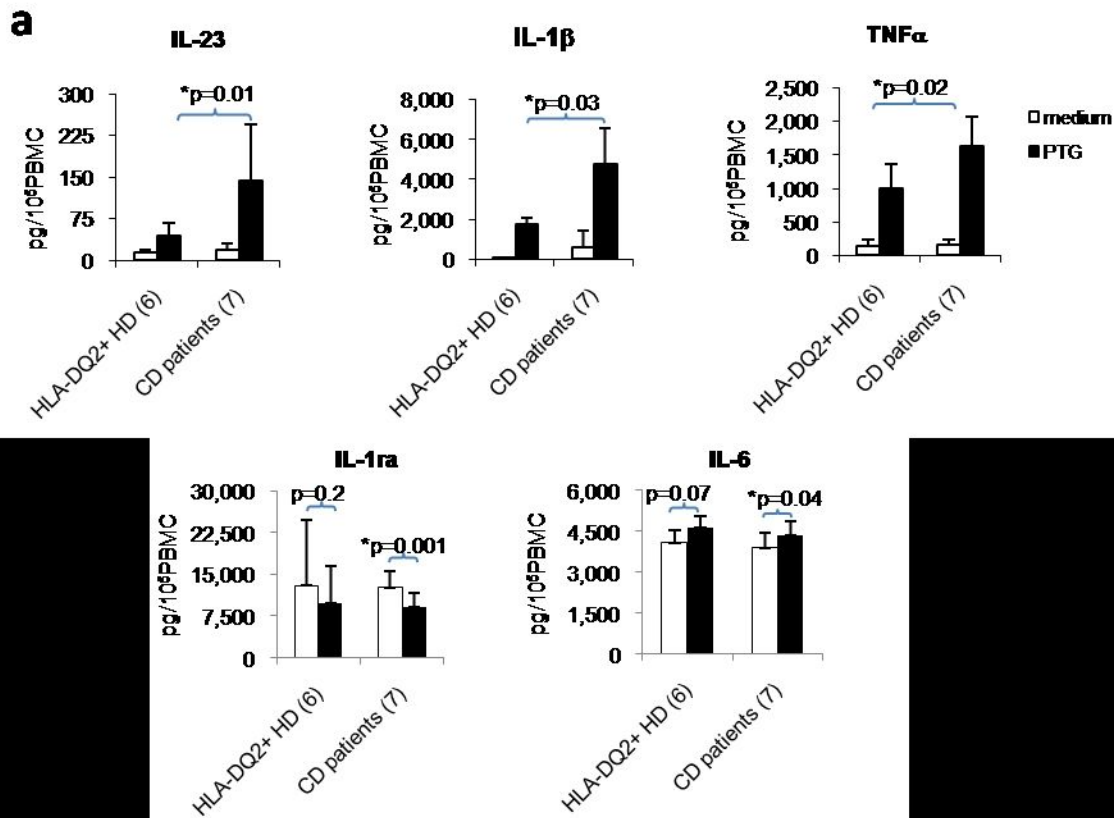
healthy individuals, and only stimulates significant levels of IL-6 in CD patients. PBMC from 7 CD patients and 6 HLA-DQ2⁺ healthy individuals (HD) were incubated with or without PTG (100µg/ml) for 48h, and cell-free culture supernatants analyzed for production of IL-1β, IL-1ra, IL-6, IL-12p70, IL-23 and TNFα. Together, these data illustrate that proinflammatory cytokine responses to PTG are augmented in HLA-DQ2⁺ individuals with CD compared to those without disease. Error bars indicate + s.d. **(b)** PTG stimulation of IL-23 and IL-1β production is dose dependent. PBMC from CD patients were cultured with or without 25, 100, 250 or 500µg/ml PTG for 24h. Increasing doses of β-glucan from barley served as a positive control. Concentrations of IL-23 and IL-1β were quantified by ELISA. Data represents mean values from 3 independent experiments. Error bars indicate + s.d.

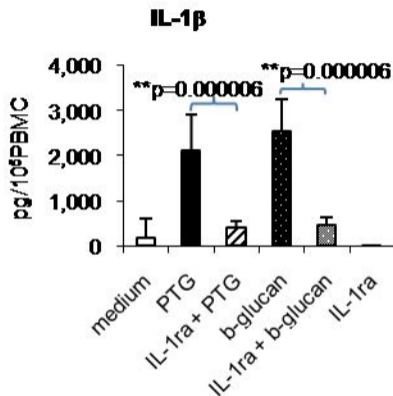
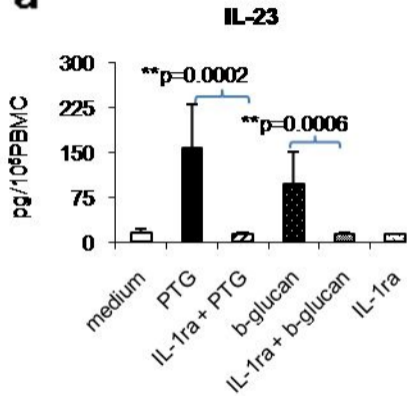
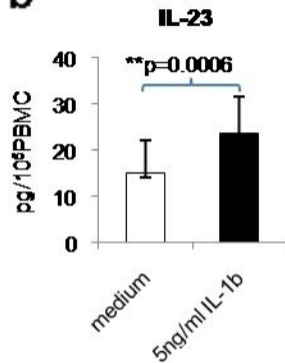
Figure 2 IL-1 cytokines regulate the IL-23 response *in vitro*. **(a)** Addition of IL-1ra significantly inhibits IL-23 and IL-1β responses to PTG and the positive control, β-glucan. PBMC were incubated with or without 0.5µg/ml IL-1ra for 1h prior to stimulation with PTG or β-glucan for 20h. Secretion of IL-23 and IL-1β were determined by ELISA. These data are mean values from 10 independent experiments. Error bars indicate + s.d. **(b)** IL-1β alone stimulates PBMC to produce IL-23, however its capacity to do so is much lower (~10-fold) than that of PTG or β-glucan. PBMC were cultured in the absence or presence of 5ng/ml IL-1β for 20h, and supernatants tested by IL-23 ELISA. These results represent the mean of 10 independent experiments. Error bars indicate + s.d.

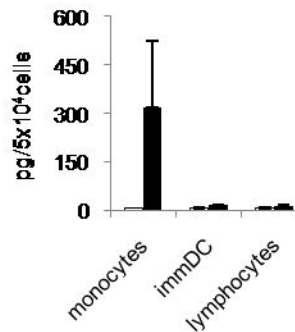
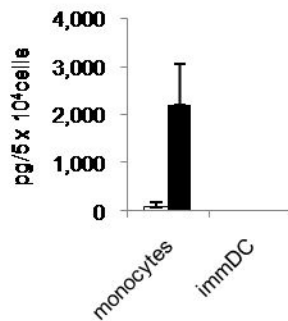
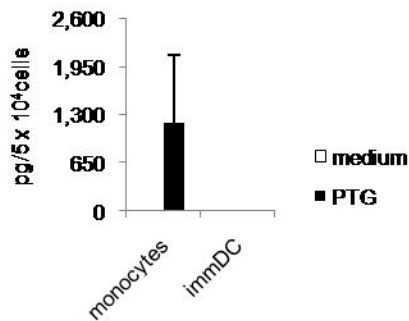
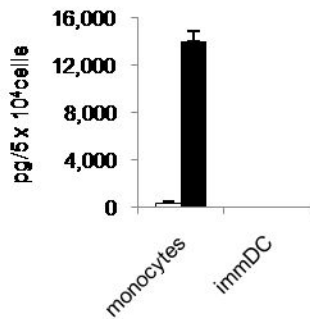
Figure 3 Monocytes are the cell source of IL-23 and related proinflammatory mediators produced in response to *in vitro* gliadin stimulation. Highly purified lymphocytes, monocytes or monocyte-derived immDC were incubated with or without PTG (100µg/ml) for 24h, and supernatants analyzed for production of

IL-1 β , IL-6 IL-23, TNF α and CCL20. PTG directly activates monocytes, and not lymphocytes or immature DC, to secrete IL-23. IL-1 β , TNF α , IL-6 and CCL20 responses were also generated by monocytes exposed to PTG, and not their progeny DC. IL-23 data represent the mean of 5 independent experiments. IL-1 β , TNF α and IL-6 data represent the means of 3 independent experiments. CCL20 data is one representative of 3 independent experiments. Error bars indicate + s.d.

Figure 4 The IL-1 system regulates IL-23 production in human monocytes. **(a)** IL-1ra significantly inhibited IL-23 responses from monocytes exposed to PTG and the positive control, β -glucan. Highly purified monocytes were incubated with or without 0.5 μ g/ml IL-1ra prior to addition of PTG or β -glucan for 20h. These results represent the means of 5 independent experiments. Error bars indicate + s.d. **(b)** IL-1 β alone directly activates monocytes to secrete IL-23 in a dose dependent manner, however its capacity to do so is greatly reduced (~10-fold) compared to that of PTG or β -glucan. Purified monocytes were treated with and without 0.5, 5 or 50ng/ml rhIL-1 β for 20h, and culture supernatants were analyzed for IL-23 production. These results represent the means of 5 independent experiments. P values compare IL-1 β data sets to medium alone. Error bars indicate + s.d.



a**b**

IL-23**IL-1 β** **TNF α** **IL-6****CCL20**