

Chronic Intestinal Inflammatory Condition Generates IL-10-Producing Regulatory B Cell Subset Characterized by CD1d Upregulation

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Summary

B cells possess a variety of immune functions that are involved in normal and abnormal immune responses, including autoimmune disorders. Through murine models of intestinal inflammation, we here demonstrate a B cell subset that is induced in gut-associated lymphoid tissues and is characterized by CD1d upregulation. This B cell subset appears under a chronic inflammatory environment, produces IL-10, and suppresses progression of intestinal inflammation by downregulating inflammatory cascades associated with IL-1 upregulation and STAT3 activation rather than by altering polarized T helper responses. This study indicates that B cells, by producing cytokines such as IL-10, can act as regulatory cells in immunologically mediated inflammatory reactions.

Introduction

Immune responses are regulated by the cooperative activities of cells that possess diverse immune functions. Functionally distinct subsets have been clearly defined in T cells (Abbas et al., 1996; O'Garra, 1998). Among these subsets, regulatory T cell subsets downregulate immune responses for both foreign and self-antigens and effectively participate in the suppression of autoimmune disorders (Chen et al., 1994; Asano et al., 1996; Asseman et al., 1999; Shevach, 2000). B cells possess a variety of immune functions, including the production of immunoglobulins (Igs) and cytokines, the presentation of antigens, and the regulation of dendritic cell function (Wolf et al., 1996; Moulin et al., 2000; Harris et al., 2000). Functionally distinct roles of B cells have also been reported in autoimmune diseases. B cells drive the development of several autoimmune disorders through the production of pathogenic Igs (Korganow et al., 1999; Fagarasan et al., 2000). On the other hand, B cells participate in the induction of immune tolerance

(Ozaki et al., 1999; Gonnella et al., 2001) and suppression of experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis (Wolf et al., 1996). Interestingly, even in the rheumatoid arthritis model in which Igs are required for the development of the disease, the presence of regulatory B cells has also been proposed (Korganow et al., 1999), suggesting that effector and regulatory B cells can coexist. Recently, B cell subsets (termed B effector [Be] 1 and Be 2 cells) that possess distinct cytokine production profiles have been identified (Harris et al., 2000).

One of the regulatory cytokines is IL-10. IL-10 helps preserve immune balance and suppresses the development of autoimmune diseases, including intestinal inflammation (de Waal Malefyt et al., 1992; Davidson et al., 1996). IL-10 is not only involved in the prevention of Th1 polarization (Asseman et al., 1999) but also inhibits Th2 responses (Grunig et al., 1997; Cottrez et al., 2000). In addition, IL-10 directly suppresses macrophage/monocyte-induced inflammatory responses, including the release of proinflammatory cytokines (Fiorentino et al., 1991; O'Farrell et al., 1998; Riley et al., 1999). The regulatory T cell subset producing IL-10 suppresses the development of experimental intestinal inflammation (Asseman et al., 1999). Although IL-10 is produced by numerous cell types including B cells, it is unclear whether IL-10 produced by B cells plays an important role in the suppression of inflammatory immune responses.

CD1d molecules are cell surface glycoproteins consisting of a heavy chain in noncovalent association with a β 2-microglobulin light chain (Bleicher et al., 1990). The presence of two deep hydrophobic pockets in the groove of CD1d confers a unique capacity for this molecule to bind and present certain glycolipid antigens to distinct T cell subsets (Moody et al., 1999). Interestingly, the cytoplasmic tail of CD1d is linked to signaling cascades associated with the transcription of IL-10 (Colgan et al., 1999). CD1d is expressed on a wide variety of cell types, including B cells (Blumberg et al., 1991; Brossay et al., 1997). In the spleen, an increased expression of CD1d (CD1d^{high}) has been found in certain subsets of B cells, the marginal zone B cells (Amano et al., 1998), and the recently identified CD21^{high(hi)}IgM^{hi} B cell subset, termed as transitional B cells of type 2 (T2 B cells) (Loder et al., 1999). The glycolipids presented by CD1d rapidly activate natural killer T (NKT) cells (Bendelac et al., 1997), and this activation of NKT cells has been reported to be associated with suppression of insulin-dependent diabetes (Lehuen et al., 1998) and intestinal inflammation induced by dextran sodium sulfate (DSS) (Saubermann et al., 2000). In addition, an NKT cell-independent role of CD1d in immune modulation has been recently demonstrated (Dao et al., 2001). Although CD1d-mediated activation of B cells has been reported (Zeng et al., 2000), the functional role of B cells activated by CD1d-associated pathways is not well characterized.

Draining lymph nodes are important sites for modulating immune responses to foreign and self-antigens (Toh et al., 2000). Mesenteric lymph nodes (MLN), which are a part of the gut-associated lymphoid tissue (GALT),

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participate in maintaining a balance between oral tolerance and active immune responses to intestinal luminal antigens (Hershberg and Mayer, 2000). Lymphocytes sensitized in the intestine and intestine-derived dendritic cells efficiently migrate to MLN (Huang et al., 2000), and T cells from MLN of some murine colitis models are capable of transferring the disease into immunodeficient recipient mice (Hollander et al., 1995; Mizoguchi et al., 1996). An increased translocation of nonpathogenic bacteria from the intestinal lumen to MLN is associated with the development of intestinal inflammation (Dombrowicz et al., 2001). It is now generally accepted that dysregulated immune responses driven by enteric bacteria lead to the development of spontaneous intestinal inflammation in murine models of colitis (Bhan et al., 1999; Blumberg et al., 1999). The T cell receptor α knockout (TCR α KO) mouse, which spontaneously develops chronic intestinal inflammation, exhibits a marked expansion of B cells, especially in MLN. As a result, the pathogenic role of B cells was initially postulated to be responsible for intestinal inflammation observed in these mice (Mombaerts et al., 1993; Mizoguchi et al., 1996). However, subsequent studies using B cell-deficient TCR α double-knockout ($\alpha\mu$ DKO) mice demonstrated a regulatory role for B cells in the pathogenesis of this intestinal inflammation (Mizoguchi et al., 1997, 2000). The intestinal inflammation also spontaneously develops in IL-2 knockout (IL2KO) mice and IL-10 knockout (IL10KO) mice. However, B cells are not required for the development of intestinal inflammation in these mice (Ma et al., 1995; Davidson et al., 1996).

In this study, we have provided evidence to indicate that upregulation of CD1d expression under chronic inflammatory conditions confers on B cells an ability to suppress the progression of chronic intestinal inflammation by enhancing IL-10 production.

Results

Upregulation of CD1d on GALT B Cells Is Associated with the Development of Intestinal Inflammation

The MLN form a part of GALT, and the enlargement of MLN is seen in TCR α KO as well as IL2KO and IL10KO mice during the development of intestinal inflammation. To examine whether there are differences in the B cell populations between these mice, MLN B cells from these different mouse models of intestinal inflammation were examined. An enlargement of MLN was observed in these mice (TCR α KO, 38 ± 5 ; IL10KO, 32 ± 4 ; IL2KO, $57 \pm 12 \times 10^6$ cells) compared to wild-type mice (WT) ($5 \pm 0.7 \times 10^6$ cells). In the MLN cells, a marked increase in the proportion of IgM⁺ cells was observed in TCR α KO mice ($77.0 \pm 2.4\%$, $n = 18$), and a lesser increase of these cells was detected in IL10KO mice ($40.2 \pm 1.7\%$, $n = 10$) compared to WT mice ($30.8 \pm 4.6\%$, $n = 8$) (Figure 1A). In contrast, the IgM⁺ B cells were virtually absent in MLN of IL2KO mice. Interestingly, a distinct expression pattern of CD1d was observed in MLN B cells between TCR α KO and IL10KO mice. A significant increase ($p < 0.001$) of CD1d expression on MLN B cells was detected in diseased TCR α KO mice (fluorescent mean channel [FMC] = 210.5 ± 22.4 , $n = 19$) as compared to WT mice (FMC = 92.8 ± 8.7 , $n = 16$) and

diseased IL10KO mice (FMC = 106.2 ± 9.2 , $n = 9$) (Figure 1B). To examine whether the upregulation of CD1d on MLN B cells was associated with the development of intestinal inflammation, age-matched TCR α KO mice (6 months of age) with and without intestinal inflammation were examined. There was significant difference ($p < 0.001$) of CD1d expression of MLN B cells between TCR α KO mice with and without colitis; upregulation of CD1d was detected on MLN B cells of TCR α KO mice with colitis (FMC = 210.5 ± 22.4 , $n = 19$) but not in TCR α KO mice without colitis (FMC = 108.7 ± 6.0 , $n = 11$) (Figure 1C). Upregulation of CD1d on B cells was also detected in the colonic LP but not the Peyer's patches and appendix lymphoid follicle of diseased TCR α KO mice compared to WT mice (Figure 1D and data not shown). Since CD1d^{hi} B cells have been found among the T2 B cell subset (Loder et al., 1999) and marginal zone B cells (Amano et al., 1998) in the spleen, splenic B cells were also examined. There was no difference in the number and proportion of splenic CD1d^{hi} B cell subsets between WT mice and diseased TCR α KO mice (Figure 1E and data not shown). As previously described (Amano et al., 1998; Loder et al., 1999), the splenic marginal zone CD1d^{hi} B cells were phenotypically characterized by CD21^{hi}CD62^{hi}IgM^{hi}CD23⁻. In contrast, the MLN CD1d^{hi} B cells were CD21^{intermediate(int)}CD62^{low}IgM^{int}CD23^{hi} (Figure 1F and data not shown). These findings indicate that increased expression of CD1d on B cells of MLN and colonic LP, but not spleen, is associated with the development of intestinal inflammation in TCR α KO mice.

CD1d Participates in the Suppression of Intestinal Inflammatory Progression

To define the role of CD1d in the pathogenesis of intestinal inflammation, CD1d-deficient TCR α double-knockout (α CD1DKO) mice were generated. As previously described (Saubermann et al., 2000), CD1d knockout (CD1KO) mice did not spontaneously develop colitis (Figures 2A and 2C). In contrast, TCR α KO, α CD1DKO, and B cell-deficient TCR α KO ($\alpha\mu$ DKO) mice spontaneously developed intestinal inflammation. The kinetics of intestinal inflammation development in α CD1DKO mice was very similar to that observed in TCR α KO mice rather than $\alpha\mu$ DKO mice; $\alpha\mu$ DKO mice developed colitis at an early age in comparison to α CD1DKO mice (Figure 2A). However, at 6 months of age, there was much more severe inflammation in the colon of α CD1DKO mice compared to TCR α KO mice as indicated by the increased number of inflammatory cells and more thickened colonic wall (Figures 2B–2F). Of note, ulceration characterized by loss of epithelium and fibrosis was detected in 11.5% of α CD1DKO mice with intestinal inflammation (Figures 2E and 2F). In contrast, ulceration was not detectable in the colon of TCR α KO mice. There was a marked increase in the expression of the proinflammatory cytokine, IL-1 β , in the colonic mucosa of α CD1DKO mice as compared to TCR α KO mice (Figure 2G). Recently, signal transducer and activation of transcription (STAT) 3 phosphorylation has been demonstrated to participate in the perpetuation of intestinal inflammation mediated by both Th1 and Th2 pathways, and the activation of STAT3 correlates with the severity of intestinal inflammation (Suzuki et al., 2001). Increased

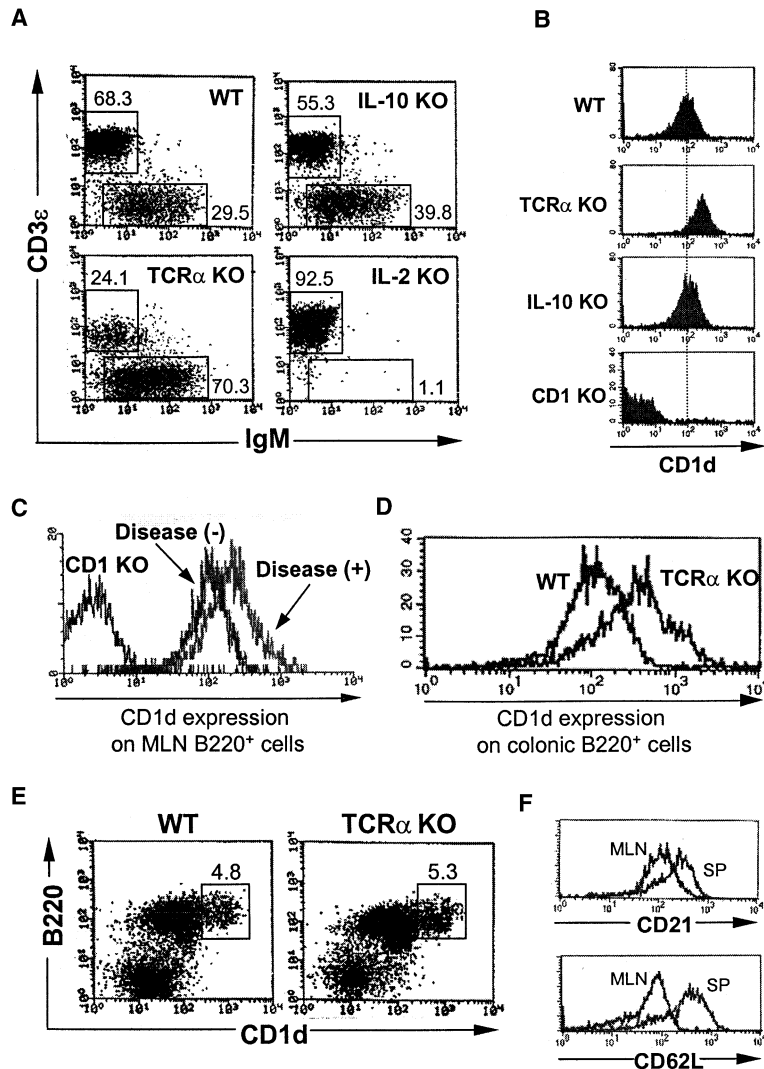


Figure 1. CD1d on Mucosal Associated B Cells Is Upregulated after the Development of Intestinal Inflammation

(A) The expression of CD3 ϵ and IgM in MLN cells from WT, TCR α KO, IL10KO, and IL2KO mice. The TCR α KO (6 months of age), IL10KO (6 months of age), and IL2KO (4 months of age) mice exhibited intestinal inflammation. (B) MLN cells from WT and CD1dKO mice and diseased TCR α and IL10KO mice were stained with anti-CD1d and -B220 mAbs. The figure shows CD1d expression on the gated B220 $^{+}$ MLN cells. (C) MLN cells from TCR α KO mice, with and without intestinal inflammation, and CD1dKO mice were stained with anti-CD1d and -B220 mAbs. The figure shows CD1d expression on the gated B220 $^{+}$ MLN cells. (D) Cells from colonic LP of WT and diseased TCR α KO mice were stained with anti-CD1d and -IgM mAbs. The figure shows CD1d expression on the gated IgM $^{+}$ colonic LP cells. (E) Cells from spleen of WT and diseased TCR α KO mice were stained with anti-CD1d and -B220 mAbs. (F) CD21 and CD62L expression on the gated CD1d hi B220 $^{+}$ B cells from the spleen (SP) and MLN of TCR α KO mice. All of the mice shown in (A)–(F) were 6 months of age.

STAT3 phosphorylation was observed in the colonic mucosa of TCR α KO mice as compared to WT mice (Figure 2H). A greater increase in STAT3 activation was reproducibly detected in α CD1DKO mice as compared to TCR α KO mice (Figure 2H); the ratio of phosphorylated STAT3/STAT3 was 0.258 ± 0.034 ($n = 7$) in α CD1DKO mice and 0.132 ± 0.023 ($n = 7$) in TCR α KO mice ($p < 0.01$). These findings suggest that, although the onset of intestinal inflammation is not changed in α CD1DKO mice, the disease progresses rapidly in α CD1DKO mice presumably due to the lack of downregulation of the inflammatory cascade.

B Cells Upregulating CD1d Suppress the Progression of Intestinal Inflammation

To examine the role of B cells with high expression of CD1d in the pathogenesis of intestinal inflammation, B cells (Figure 3A) enriched from MLN of TCR α KO or α CD1DKO mice were transferred into $\alpha\mu$ DKO mice that have no B cells and develop a more severe form of colitis with an early onset at 8 weeks of age (Mizoguchi et al., 1997). Since increased CD1d expression on B cells was found after the development of intestinal inflamma-

tion, it is likely that CD1d is required for controlling the progression rather than the initiation of intestinal inflammation. Therefore, B cells were transferred into the $\alpha\mu$ DKO mice with mild to moderate disease. The presence of intestinal inflammation was grossly confirmed by opening the abdomen and measuring the circumference of the distal colon as a marker for evaluating the progression of intestinal inflammation (Figures 3B and 3C). In $\alpha\mu$ DKO mice, the circumference of the distal colon was found to progressively increase within a 44 day period (from 12–18 weeks of age), indicating that disease in the $\alpha\mu$ DKO mice progressed rapidly during this period (Figure 3C). Transfer of B cells from TCR α KO mice was able to effectively inhibit the progression of intestinal enlargement in $\alpha\mu$ DKO mice (Figures 3B and 3C). In contrast, transfer of B cells from α CD1DKO mice failed to suppress the exacerbation of intestinal enlargement. Histological examination also confirmed the results obtained by evaluating the change of colonic circumference. The intestinal inflammation as characterized by thickening of the colonic mucosa with crypt elongation and inflammatory cell infiltration was significantly milder ($p < 0.001$) in the $\alpha\mu$ DKO mice receiving

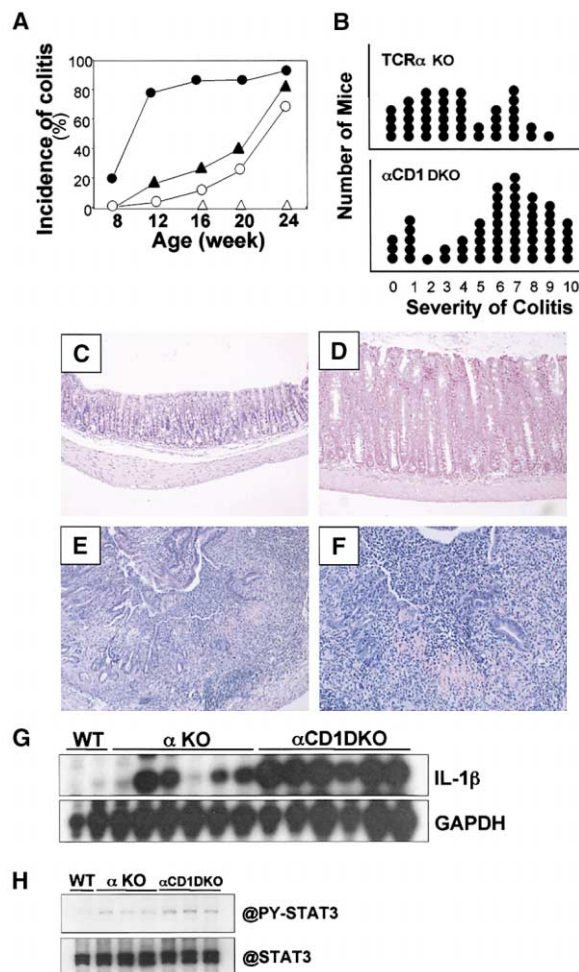


Figure 2. Absence of CD1d Leads to the Development of Severe Intestinal Inflammation in TCR α KO Mice

(A) The incidence of intestinal inflammation in TCR α KO (open circles), $\alpha\mu$ DKO (closed circles), α CD1DKO (closed triangles), and CD1KO (open triangles) mice at various ages is shown.

(B) Severity of intestinal inflammation of TCR α KO and α CD1DKO mice at 6 months of age is shown. Each dot represents an individual mouse. A significant difference ($p < 0.001$) in the disease severity is observed between TCR α KO and α CD1DKO mice.

(C–F) Severity of colonic inflammation in CD1KO (C), TCR α KO (D), and α CD1DKO (E and F) mice at 6 months of age is shown. More severe colonic inflammation including ulceration was present in α CD1DKO mice (E and F) than in TCR α KO mice (D). [[C and D] X10, [E] X4, and [F] X20 objective).

(G) Total RNA isolated from the colonic mucosa of WT, TCR α KO, and α CD1DKO mice (6 months of age) was subjected to RPA for the detection of IL-1 β .

(H) Proteins extracted from the colonic mucosa of WT, TCR α KO, and α CD1DKO mice (6 months of age) were immunoblotted with anti-phospho-STAT3 (PY-STAT3) Ab. After stripping PY-STAT3 Ab, the membrane was reprobbed with anti-STAT3 Ab.

B cells from TCR α KO mice in comparison to $\alpha\mu$ DKO mice receiving B cells from α CD1DKO mice or $\alpha\mu$ DKO mice without B cell transfer (Figures 3D and 3E). There was no significant difference between the number of reconstituted B cells within the MLNs of recipient $\alpha\mu$ DKO mice after the cell transfer from either TCR α KO or α CD1DKO mice (Figure 3C). These findings indicate that MLN

B cells with high expression of CD1d play an important role in suppressing the progression of intestinal inflammation.

Since intestinal inflammation in the TCR α KO mice is mediated by CD4⁺ T cells (Bhan et al., 1999), the role of MHC class II-associated antigen presentation in the regulatory properties of B cells was examined by transferring B cells from MHC II-deficient TCR α double-knockout (α MHCDKO) mice into $\alpha\mu$ DKO mice. We initially observed that transfer of enriched B cells from α MHCDKO mice did not suppress the progression of intestinal inflammation in $\alpha\mu$ DKO mice (data not shown). However, it was also observed that there was a poor expansion of B cells from α MHCDKO mice in $\alpha\mu$ DKO mice, and the absolute number of reconstituted B cells within the recipient MLN was less than 3×10^5 . By increasing the number of transferred B cells (3×10^7) and the frequency of injections (four times), MHC-deficient B cells were also able to inhibit the progression of intestinal enlargement in $\alpha\mu$ DKO mice (Figure 3C). In contrast, B cells from α CD1DKO mice failed to inhibit the disease progression in the recipient $\alpha\mu$ DKO mice even with the increased numbers of B cells and frequency of injections (data not shown). These findings suggest that MHC class II facilitates the expansion of B cells under chronic inflammatory conditions. CD1d, rather than MHC class II, may be effectively involved in the regulatory effect of B cells on intestinal inflammation.

CD1d Expression Is Associated with Enhanced IL-10 Production in MLN B Cells

Splenic CD1d^{hi} B cells in the NZB/NZW strain, but not the C57BL/6 strain, have been reported as a source of IgM autoantibodies (Zeng et al., 2000). Since Igs participate in the suppression of the development of intestinal inflammation in TCR α KO mice (Mizoguchi et al., 1997), Ig production in α CD1DKO mice was examined. There was no significant difference in the serum Ig levels between TCR α KO and α CD1DKO mice with intestinal inflammation (Figure 4A). In addition, enzyme-linked immune spot (ELISPOT) assays also showed no significant difference in the number of MLN B cells secreting Ig and anti-tropomyosin autoantibodies between TCR α KO and α CD1DKO mice with intestinal inflammation (Figure 4B and data not shown).

Next, we screened the cytokine expression of freshly isolated MLN cells by RNase protection assay (RPA). IL-10 mRNA was reproducibly detected in the MLN cells of TCR α KO but not in $\alpha\mu$ DKO and α CD1DKO mice (Figure 4C). Furthermore, RT-PCR showed that IL-10 was detectable in the purified B220⁺ B cells from MLN of diseased TCR α KO mice (Figure 4D). Upregulation of CD1d on these purified B220⁺ B cells was confirmed by flow cytometric analysis (Figure 4E). In contrast, IL-10 was not detectable in the purified B220⁺ B cells from MLN of TCR α KO mice without intestinal inflammation and diseased α CD1DKO mice (Figure 4D). These findings suggest that B cells are a source of IL-10 in the diseased TCR α KO mice, and upregulation of CD1d is associated with enhanced IL-10 production by MLN B cells.

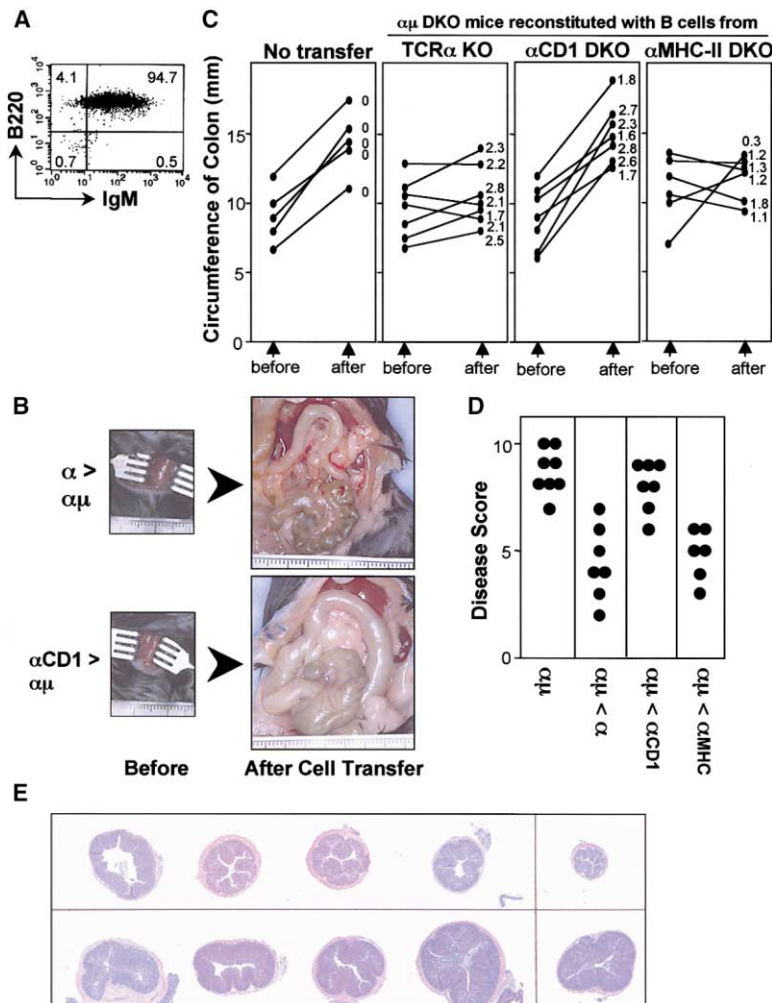


Figure 3. Transfer of B Cells Expressing CD1d Leads to Suppression of Colonic Inflammation Progression in $\alpha\mu$.DKO Mice

(A) Representative flow cytometric result of the enriched B cells used in the cell transfer studies is shown. On average, $94.3 \pm 0.9\%$ of the preparations were $IgM^+ B220^+$ cells (range, 90.3%–96.9%). The $IgM^- B220^+$ cells were present at a range that varied from 2.7% to 6.9%. $CD3\epsilon^+$ cells, and $NK-1.1^+$ cells represented less than 0.5% of the total cell preparations.

(B–E) A small abdominal incision was made in anesthetized $\alpha\mu$.DKO mice (12 weeks of age) to determine the presence of intestinal inflammation ([B] left panels). The colonic circumference was measured. MLN B cells (1.5×10^7) from TCR α KO and α CD1DKO mice were transferred into $\alpha\mu$.DKO mice 14 days after the operation. After three injections of MLN B cells (every 10 days), the recipient $\alpha\mu$.DKO mice were sacrificed 10 days after the last cell transfer, and the circumference of the distal colon was measured. For the transfer of B cells from α MHCCKO mice, 3×10^7 B cells were injected four times (every 7 days) into $\alpha\mu$.DKO mice. (B) right panels) Gross findings of the colon of the $\alpha\mu$.DKO mice receiving the MLN B cells from TCR α KO (top panel) and α CD1DKO (bottom panel) mice are shown. (C) The figure summarizes the results of the change in the colonic circumference (before and after the cell transfer) of $\alpha\mu$.DKO mice receiving PBS alone or B cells from TCR α KO, α CD1DKO, and α MHCCKO mice. The numbers next to the lines represent the absolute numbers of reconstituted $IgM^+ B220^+$ B cells ($\times 10^6$) in MLN of recipient $\alpha\mu$.DKO mice. (D) Severity of intestinal inflammation in $\alpha\mu$.DKO mice receiving PBS alone or B cells from TCR α KO, α CD1DKO, or α MHCCKO mice is shown. Each dot represents an individual mouse. (E) Histological

findings (2.5 \times objective) of the distal colon of the WT mouse (top right) and $\alpha\mu$.DKO mouse transferred with PBS alone (bottom right) and MLN B cells from TCR α KO (top left, four individual colons) and α CD1DKO (bottom left, four individual colons) mice are shown.

IL-10 Produced by MLN B Cells Regulates the Progression of Intestinal Inflammation by Directly Downregulating Inflammatory Cascades

To determine whether IL-10 produced by $CD1^{hi}$ MLN B cells is directly involved in the suppression of intestinal inflammation, $\alpha\mu$.DKO mice that had adoptively received B cells from TCR α KO mice were treated weekly with a combination of anti-IL-10 receptor (R) and anti-IL-10 mAbs, a combination of mAbs that has been demonstrated to efficiently neutralize in vivo activity of IL-10 (Asseman et al., 1999). The in vivo neutralization of IL-10 activity by the combination of these mAbs led to progressive enlargement of the large intestine in the $\alpha\mu$.DKO mice receiving B cells from TCR α KO mice, indicating that the suppressive activity of B cells in the intestinal inflammation is mediated by IL-10 (Figures 5A and 5B). In contrast, the treatment with control Abs did not affect the inhibitory activity of the adoptively transferred B cells. Since IL-10 has been shown to promote human B cell proliferation in vitro (Rousset et al., 1992), we examined the MLN B cell populations in the recipient $\alpha\mu$.DKO mice with and without the treatment. There was no obvious difference in the number and

proportion of the $IgM^+ B220^+$ B cells in the MLN of $\alpha\mu$.DKO mice after reconstitution and treatment with the combination of mAbs (anti-IL10R plus anti-IL10) and with control Abs (Figures 5B and 5C). We also administered these mAbs into $\alpha\mu$.DKO mice without transferring B cells. The in vivo neutralization of IL-10 activity did not exacerbate the disease in the $\alpha\mu$.DKO mice (Figure 5D). This supports our contention that IL-10 produced by B cells is involved in the regulation of intestinal inflammation in TCR α KO mice.

To further confirm these findings, IL-10-deficient TCR α double-knockout (α IL10DKO) mice were generated, and the B cells from these DKO mice were used for cell transfer studies. Unlike B cells from TCR α KO mice, the transfer of B cells from α IL10DKO mice was unable to effectively inhibit the progression of intestinal enlargement in $\alpha\mu$.DKO mice (Figure 6A). Taken together, these findings indicate that IL-10 produced by MLN B cells is involved in suppressing the progression of chronic intestinal inflammation.

Mechanistically, the intestinal inflammation of TCR α KO mice is mediated by the IL-4-dependent Th2 pathway as indicated by the suppression of intestinal

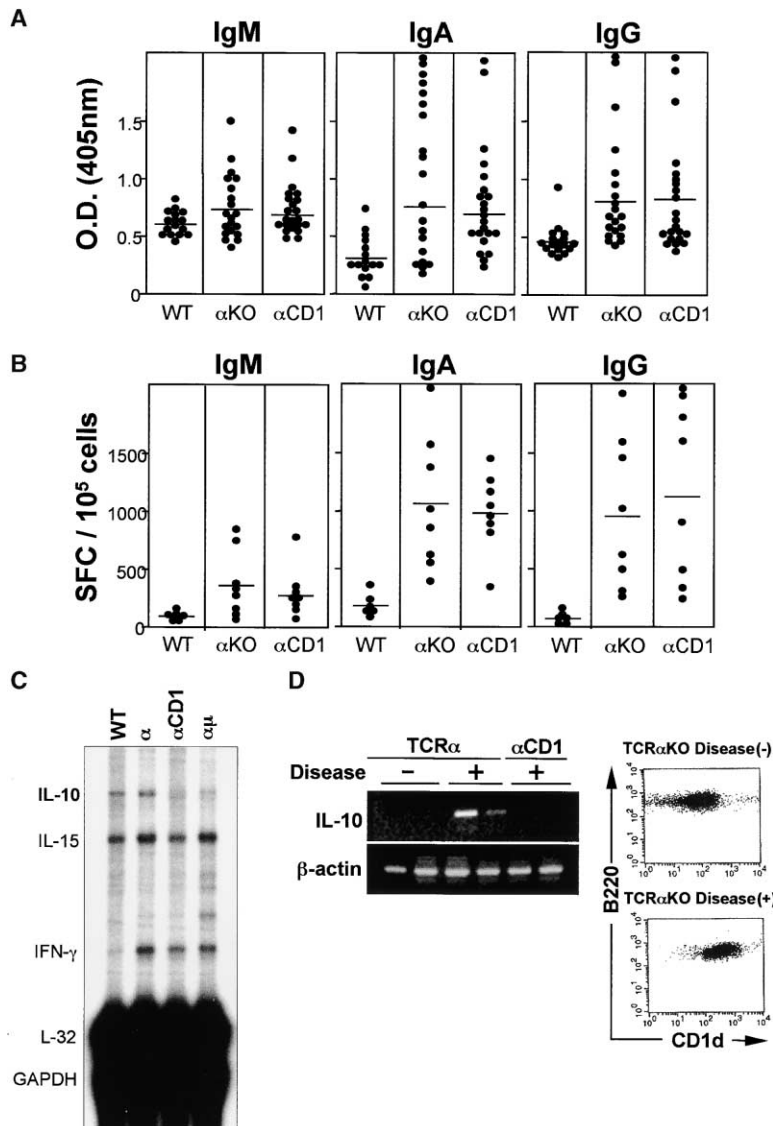


Figure 4. Absence of CD1d Affects IL-10 Production but Not Ig Secretion in TCRαKO Mice

(A) Serum samples were obtained from WT, TCRαKO, and αCD1DKO mice (6 months of age) and subjected to ELISA.

(B) MLN cells were obtained from WT, TCRαKO, and αCD1DKO mice (6 months of age). Number of Ig (IgM, IgA, and IgG)-secreting cells per 1 × 10⁵ MLN cells was evaluated by ELISPOT assay.

(C) Total RNA extracted from single cell suspension of MLN of WT, TCRαKO, αCD1DKO, and αμDKO mice (6 months of age) was subjected to RPA for the detection of IL-10. Data are representative of three individual experiments.

(D) B220⁺ cells were purified from MLN cells of TCRαKO mice with and without disease and αCD1DKO mice with disease (6 months of age) by using MACS. RNA extracted from 5 × 10⁵ cells (B220⁺IgM⁺ > 94.8%) was subjected to RT-PCR using specific primers for IL-10 and β-actin (left panel). Data are representative of four individual experiments. Flow cytometric analysis shows that upregulation of CD1d was found on the purified B220⁺ MLN B cells of diseased TCRαKO mice but not TCRαKO mice without disease (right panel).

inflammation in IL-4-deficient TCRα double-knockout (αIL4DKO) mice (Mizoguchi et al., 1999) and in TCRαKO mice treated with anti-IL-4 mAb (Iijima et al., 1999). Since IL-10 can suppress the induction of Th2 responses (Grunig et al., 1997; Cottrez et al., 2000), it is possible that B cells regulate intestinal inflammation in TCRαKO mice by downregulating Th2 polarization of immune responses. However, there was no detectable difference in the IL-4 production by purified CD4⁺ colonic LP and MLN T cells from αμDKO mice with and without transfer of B cells from TCRαKO and αIL10DKO mice (Figure 6B). In contrast, transfer of MLN B cells from TCRαKO, but not αIL10DKO mice, led to downregulation of IL-1β expression and STAT3 activation in the colonic LP of αμDKO mice (Figures 6C and 6D). Since IL-10 directly suppresses macrophage/monocyte-induced inflammatory responses (Fiorentino et al., 1991; O'Farrell et al., 1998; Riley et al., 1999), it is likely that once intestinal inflammation is initiated, IL-10 directly suppresses the inflammatory cascades resulting from upregulation of IL-1β and activation of STAT3.

Inflammatory Conditions Associated with Intestinal Inflammation Upregulate CD1d Expression on B Cells

As upregulation of CD1d was not found in the MLN B cells of IL10KO mice (Figure 1), it could be suggested that CD1d upregulation is mediated by IL-10. To examine this possibility, we generated IL-10-deficient TCRα double-knockout (αIL10DKO) mice. As an unexpected result, like TCRαKO mice, an upregulation of CD1d on MLN B cells was also observed in association with development of intestinal inflammation in αIL10DKO mice (Figure 7A). These findings indicate that IL-10 is not required for the upregulation of CD1d on MLN B cells under chronic inflammatory conditions. No increase of IL-4 production was observed in IL10KO mice (Davidson et al., 1996), whereas the development of intestinal inflammation in TCRαKO mice is associated with an increase of IL-4, as well as IL-6, production (Mizoguchi et al., 1999); these cytokines are known to be involved in B cell activation and Ig class switching. However, upregulation of CD1d was also detectable on MLN

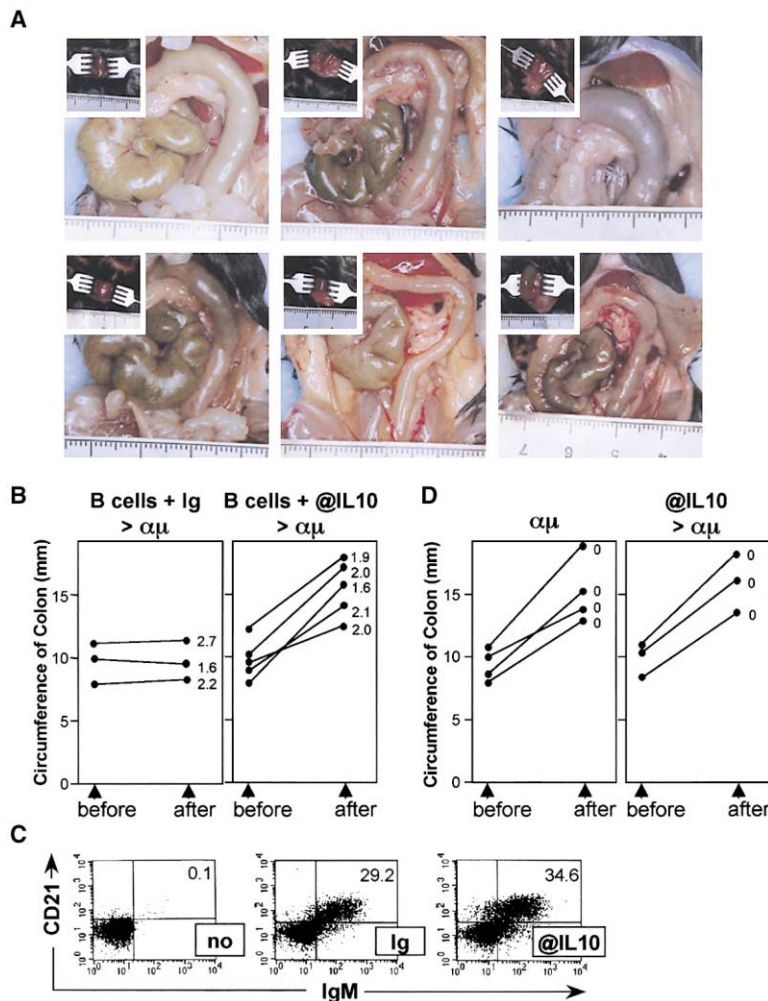


Figure 5. Regulatory B Cell Function in Intestinal Inflammation Is Inhibited by Neutralization of IL-10 Activity

(A and B) The circumference of the colon was measured by opening the abdomen of anesthetized $\alpha\mu$ DKO mice (12 weeks of age) (top left inserts in each panel). Fourteen days after the operation, the $\alpha\mu$ DKO mice were transferred with enriched MLN B cells (1.5×10^7) from TCR α KO mice. B cell transfers were performed every 10 days (three times). A combination of mAbs (@IL10) specific for IL-10 (1 mg) and IL-10R (0.5 mg) (top panels in [A]) or control rat immunoglobulins (1.5 mg) (bottom panels in [A]) were injected intraperitoneally the day after each B cell transfer. An additional dose of antibodies was administered 7 days after the final B cell transfer. The recipient mice were sacrificed on day 10 after the final B cell transfer. The gross findings of the colon of the recipient mice sacrificed on day 10 after the last cell transfer are shown as large panels in (A). The results are summarized in (B). The numbers next to the lines in (B) represent absolute number of reconstituted IgM⁺B220⁺ B cells ($\times 10^6$) in MLN of the recipient $\alpha\mu$ DKO mice.

(C) Cells from MLN of the $\alpha\mu$ DKO mice without (left panel) and with B cell transfer plus administration of either control immunoglobulins (middle panel) or @IL10 (right panel) were stained with anti-CD21 and -IgM and subjected to flow cytometric analysis.

(D) Change in the circumference of the colon of $\alpha\mu$ DKO mice (without B cell transfer) with and without administration of @IL10 is shown. The same protocol omitting B cell transfer as shown in (A) and (B) was used.

B cells of α IL4DKO and IL-6-deficient TCR α double-knockout (α IL6DKO) mice with intestinal inflammation (grade 4) (Figure 7A), indicating that neither IL-10, IL-4, nor IL-6 is required for the upregulation of CD1d on MLN B cells.

In our previous study, a significant decrease of intestinal epithelial proliferation, a characteristic feature of intestinal inflammation, has been described in the recipient $\alpha\mu$ DKO mice transferred with splenic B cells from WT mice (Mizoguchi et al., 2000). Therefore, we examined CD1d expression on the reconstituted B cells in the MLN of $\alpha\mu$ DKO mice receiving enriched B cells from the spleens of WT mice. Increased CD1d expression was clearly detectable on the WT-derived B cells reconstituted into the MLN of the recipient $\alpha\mu$ DKO mice with intestinal inflammation (Figure 7B). In contrast, when WT-derived splenic B cells were transferred into B cell-deficient mice that do not develop intestinal inflammation, upregulation of CD1d was not found in the reconstituted B cells in MLN of the recipient B cell-deficient mice (Figure 7B). Indeed, the transfer of splenic B cells from WT mice inhibited the disease progression of the recipient $\alpha\mu$ DKO mice (Figure 7C). To rule out the possibility that inhibition of the disease progression is not due to the few contaminating T cells, purified splenic

B cells from TCR $\beta \times$ TCR δ ($\beta\delta$) DKO mice, which have no T cells, were also transferred into $\alpha\mu$ DKO mice. The transfer of splenic B cells from $\beta\delta$ DKO mice also suppressed the disease progression in the recipient $\alpha\mu$ DKO mice (Figure 7C). In addition, the reconstituted B cells in the recipient $\alpha\mu$ DKO mice exhibited upregulation of CD1d compared to MLN B cells of $\beta\delta$ DKO mice (Figure 7D). These findings indicate that chronic inflammatory conditions lead to upregulation of CD1d even on splenic B cells from WT mice, which possess an ability to inhibit the progression of intestinal inflammation in $\alpha\mu$ DKO mice.

Discussion

B cells possess diverse immune functions, and both regulatory and pathogenic roles of B cells have been demonstrated in autoimmune diseases (Wolf et al., 1996; Korganow et al., 1999; Fagarasan et al., 2000). A recent study has shown that, like Th subsets, B cell subsets can be distinguished by distinct cytokine secretion profiles (Harris et al., 2000). Here, we have defined a GALT-associated B cell subset that is characterized by upregulation of CD1d expression and enhanced production of IL-10. This B cell subset appears after the development

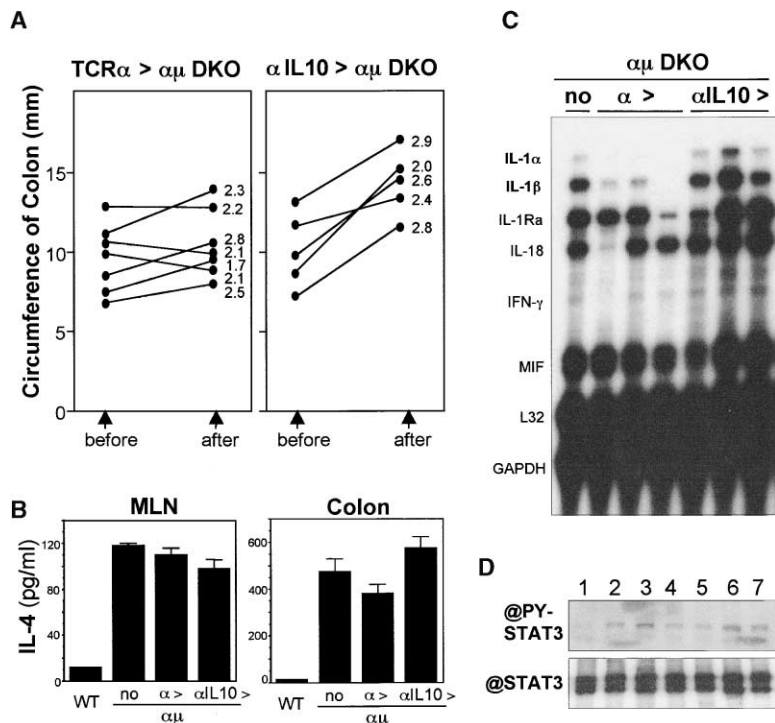


Figure 6. Transfer of MLN B Cells from α IL10DKO Mice Does Not Inhibit the Progression of Disease in $\alpha\mu$ DKO Mice

(A) Change of colonic circumference of $\alpha\mu$ DKO mice before and after MLN B cell transfer from TCR α KO or α IL10DKO mice is shown. The numbers next to the lines represent the absolute numbers of reconstituted IgM⁺B220⁺ B cells ($\times 10^6$) in the MLN of recipient $\alpha\mu$ DKO mice. (B) CD4⁺ T cells were purified from MLN of WT and $\alpha\mu$ DKO mice with and without B cell transfer from TCR α KO and α IL10DKO mice. The purified CD4⁺ T cells were stimulated with plate-coated anti-TCR β for 3 days. The culture supernatants were subjected to ELISA for the detection of IL-4.

(C) Total RNA was isolated from colonic mucosa of $\alpha\mu$ DKO mice with and without B cell transfer from TCR α KO and α IL10DKO mice and analyzed by RPA.

(D) Proteins extracted from the colonic mucosa of WT mice (lane 1) and $\alpha\mu$ DKO mice without (lanes 2 and 3, the average [$n = 5$] ratio calculated by band density of phosphorylated STAT3/density of STAT3, 0.348 ± 0.065) and with (lanes 4–7) B cell transfer from either TCR α KO (lanes 4 and 5, the average ratio [$n = 5$] was 0.141 ± 0.031) or α IL10DKO mice (lanes 6 and 7, the average ratio [$n = 4$] was 0.380 ± 0.090) were immunoblotted with anti-phospho-STAT3 (PY-STAT3) Ab. After stripping PY-STAT Ab, the membrane was reprobbed with anti-STAT3 Ab.

of chronic intestinal inflammation and participates in the suppression of intestinal inflammation progression. This B cell subset is detected in TCR α KO mice where intestinal inflammation is mediated by a Th2 pathway but not in a Th1-mediated model of intestinal inflammation associated with IL-10 deficiency. The increased expression of CD1d on splenic B cells from WT mice after transfer into diseased $\alpha\mu$ DKO mice also supports this contention.

CD1d binds a variety of lipid-containing antigens (Moody et al., 1999; Burdin and Kronenberg, 1999), and the presentation of a glycolipid (α -galactosyl ceramide) by CD1d induces rapid activation of NKT cells (Kawano et al., 1997). However, NKT cells are not present in TCR α KO mice (Taniguchi et al., 1996), indicating that the regulatory function of CD1d^{hi} B cell subset is not likely to be dependent on NKT cells. The presence of CD1d-restricted T cells without NK-1.1 expression has recently been identified using CD1d tetramers (Benlagha et al., 2000; Matsuda et al., 2000), and CD1d-restricted T cells that do not express an invariant TCR α chain have been described (Behar and Cardell, 2000). Therefore, it is possible that the regulatory effect of CD1d^{hi} MLN B cells may be induced by the interaction of NK-1.1⁻ CD1d-restricted T cells with CD1d^{hi} B cells.

Ligation of CD1d results in a rapid and sustained production of IL-10 (Colgan et al., 1999). CD1d is capable of binding a wide variety of lipid antigens including α -galactosyl ceramide, β -galactosyl ceramide, which is unable to activate NKT cells (Naidenko et al., 1999), and phospholipids that are present in mammalian cells and considered to be potential self-antigens (Gumperz et al., 2000). Ligation of CD1d on B cells by self-phospholipids or β -anomeric glycolipid eluted from damaged

cells resulting from chronic intestinal inflammation may be involved in the production of IL-10. Alternatively, the differentiation of regulatory B cells producing IL-10 may depend on an interaction with CD1d-restricted T cells, but CD1d crosslinking may not be required for IL-10 production. Increased translocation of nonpathogenic bacteria from the intestinal lumen to MLN is associated with the development of IL-4-associated intestinal inflammation (Ceponis et al., 2000; Dombrowicz et al., 2001), and a form of α -anomeric glycolipid with phyto-sphingosine has been detected in certain bacteria (Kawano et al., 1997). In the colitis induced by oral intake of 4% DSS, the CD1d^{hi} B cells are detectable in the MLN during the healing period (3 days after cessation of DSS intake) but not in the acute phase of inflammation during DSS intake (our unpublished data). Since the translocation of enteric bacterial products into a host increases in DSS-induced colitis due to direct damage of the epithelial layer by DSS, it is possible that bacteria-derived glycolipids cause ligation of CD1d on a regulatory B cell subset and/or CD1d-dependent expansion or activation of a regulatory B cell subset.

Igls have been shown to regulate the initiation of intestinal inflammation by rapidly removing harmful self-antigens in TCR α KO mice (Mizoguchi et al., 1997). In this study, we have identified a B cell subset that can regulate intestinal inflammation through production of IL-10 after the onset of disease. The ability of B cells from TCR α KO mice to inhibit the progression of intestinal inflammation in $\alpha\mu$ DKO mice can be neutralized by the administration of a combination of anti-IL-10 and -IL-10R mAbs. Furthermore, B cell transfer from α IL10DKO mice is unable to effectively suppress the progression of intestinal inflammation in $\alpha\mu$ DKO mice. These findings

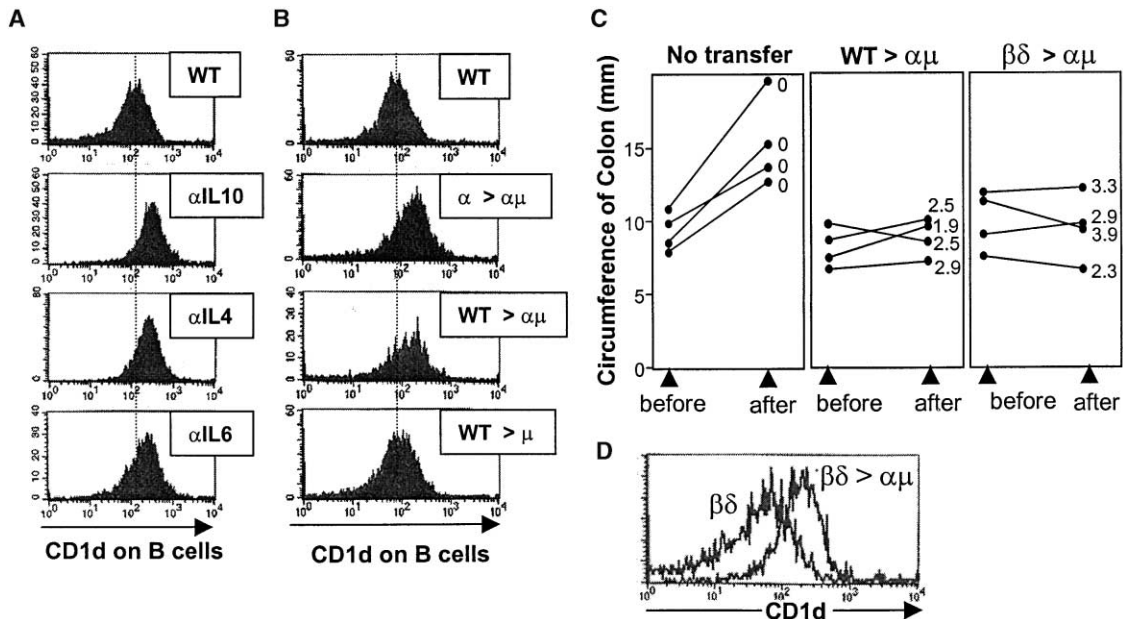


Figure 7. Chronic Inflammatory Environment Leads to Upregulation of CD1d on WT-Derived B Cells

(A) MLN cells from WT, α IL10DKO, α IL4DKO, and α IL6DKO mice (6 months of age) with mild to moderate colitis were stained with anti-CD1d and -B220 mAbs. The figure shows CD1d expression on gated B220⁺ MLN cells.
 (B) The figure shows CD1d expression on gated B220⁺ cells of MLNs from WT mice, $\alpha\mu$ DKO mice receiving splenic B cells from TCR α KO ($\alpha > \alpha\mu$) or WT (WT $> \alpha\mu$) mice, and B cell-deficient mice receiving splenic B cells from WT (WT $> \mu$) mice.
 (C) Change of colonic circumference of $\alpha\mu$ DKO mice receiving PBS alone ($\alpha\mu$) or splenic B cells from WT mice (WT $> \alpha\mu$) or $\beta\delta$ DKO mice ($\beta\delta > \alpha\mu$) are shown. The numbers next to the lines represent the absolute numbers of reconstituted IgM⁺B220⁺ B cells ($\times 10^6$) in the MLN of recipient $\alpha\mu$ DKO mice.
 (D) CD1d expression on gated MLN B220⁺ cells of $\alpha\mu$ DKO mice receiving splenic B cells from $\beta\delta$ DKO mice ($\beta\delta > \alpha\mu$) and of donor $\beta\delta$ DKO mice ($\beta\delta$) is shown.

clearly demonstrate that IL-10 produced by B cells is involved in the regulation of a Th2-mediated intestinal inflammation. Recent studies have shown that initiation of both polarized Th1 and Th2 responses can be regulated by IL-10 (Grunig et al., 1997; Cottrez et al., 2000). However, administration of IL-10 does not alter established Th1 polarization in IL10KO mice (Davidson et al., 1996). Furthermore, in vitro studies indicate that, although a high amount of IL-10 is produced by regulatory CD4⁺CD25⁺ T cells, IL-10 is not involved in the regulation of effector T cell functions (Thornton and Shevach, 1998). Similarly, the transfer of regulatory B cells from TCR α KO mice does not change an established Th2 response in $\alpha\mu$ DKO mice. In contrast, the transfer of regulatory B cells leads to downregulation of the inflammatory cascade associated with IL-1 β production and STAT3 activation. Indeed, IL-10 has been demonstrated to directly suppress inflammatory responses (Fiorentino et al., 1991; O'Farrell et al., 1998; Riley et al., 1999). Therefore, it is likely that IL-10 produced by B cells plays a regulatory role in chronic inflammatory conditions, such as chronic colitis resembling human ulcerative colitis associated with the TCR α KO mice, by affecting inflammatory mediators and their effects rather than by directly affecting T cell functions.

Experimental Procedures

Mice

TCR α KO, $\alpha\mu$ DKO, α IL4DKO, and $\beta\delta$ DKO mice of C57BL/6 background have been described previously (Mizoguchi et al., 1997,

1999). CD1dKO mice (F6 backcross to C57BL/6) (Behar et al., 1999) were obtained from Dr. M.J. Grusby, Harvard Medical School, Boston. IL-10 (F13 backcross to C57BL/6) and IL-6 (F7 backcross to C57BL/6) KO mice were purchased from Jackson Laboratory (Bar Harbor, Maine), and MHC class II KO (N5 backcross to C57BL/6) mice were purchased from Taconic Farm. To generate α CD1, α IL10, α MHC, and α IL6 DKO mice, CD1dKO, IL10KO, MHC-IIKO, and IL6KO mice were crossed with TCR α KO mice. The screening was performed by PCR using tail genomic DNA and the pairs of three primers for distinguishing homozygous and heterozygous mice as previously described (Mizoguchi et al., 1997). All mice were maintained under specific pathogen free facilities at Massachusetts General Hospital. Known pathogenic organisms including the *Helicobacter* species were not detectable in these mice.

B Cell Transfer

Cells were extracted from the pooled MLN or spleen of donor mice. For enrichment of MLN B cells, CD3 ϵ (145-2C11), CD4 (RM4-4), CD11b (M1/70), and NK-1.1 (PK136) positive cells were depleted by using a magnetically activated cell sorting system (MACS, Miltenyi, Auburn, CA). For enrichment of splenic B cells, depletion of CD117 (2B8) and CD11c (HL3) positive cells was also carried out. After examining the purity of B220⁺IgM⁺ B cells by flow cytometric analysis, 1.5×10^7 enriched B cells from TCR α KO, α CD1dKO, α IL10DKO, $\beta\delta$ DKO, and WT mice and 3×10^7 enriched B cells from α MHCdKO mice were used for cell transfer studies. An abdominal incision was made in anesthetized $\alpha\mu$ DKO mice (12 weeks of age) to determine the presence of intestinal inflammation. The circumference of the colon was measured. The selected $\alpha\mu$ DKO mice that had developed mild to moderate intestinal inflammation (mice with a colonic circumference ranging from 6 mm to 13 mm) were used as recipient mice. The recipient mice were injected intraperitoneally with B cells 14 days after the operation, and the B cell transfers were performed every 10 days (three times). The recipient mice were sacrificed 10 days after the last B cell transfer. Azide-free anti-IL10R (1B1.2) mAbs

were purchased from Pharmingen (San Diego, CA). Hybridoma-producing anti-IL10 (JES5-2A5) mAb was kindly provided by Dr. D.M. Rennick (DNAX), and the mAbs were purified as previously described (Asseman et al., 1999). One milligram of anti-IL-10 and 0.5 mg of anti-IL-10R mAbs were combined and injected intraperitoneally three times into $\alpha\mu$ DKO mice receiving adoptively transferred B cells 1 day after the B cell transfer. In addition, an additional dose of the two antibodies was administered 7 days after the last B cell transfer.

Histological Examinations

The severity of intestinal inflammation was evaluated by using previously described criteria (Mombaerts et al., 1993) with some modifications. The disease score (0–10) was estimated by a combination of both gross and histological findings. The gross score was rated as 0, presence of normal beaded appearance; 1, absence of beaded appearance of colon; 2, focal thickened colon; and 3, marked thickness of the entire colon. The histological score was based upon the extent of intestinal wall thickening (0–3), lamina propria infiltration (0–3), and presence (0–1) of ulceration. Statistical analysis was performed using a Kruskal-Wallis test.

Flow Cytometric Analysis

Cells (3×10^5) were subjected to flow cytometric analysis. The mAbs used in the studies are FITC- or PE- conjugated anti-CD3e (145-2C11), -B220 (RA3-6B2), -CD21 (7G6), and -CD1d (1B1) purchased from Pharmingen and PE-conjugated anti-Ig μ from Caltag. The Mann-Whitney *U* test was used for statistical analysis.

Detection of Cytokines

MLN cells were stained with FITC-anti-B220 (RA3-6B2), and B220⁺ B cells were positively sorted by using anti-FITC microbeads on MACS. RT-PCR was performed using total RNA extracted from 5×10^5 cells as previously described (Mizoguchi et al., 1996). Colonic LP cells were isolated as previously described (Mizoguchi et al., 1996), and CD4⁺ T cells were purified using MACS as described above. 1×10^6 CD4⁺ T cells in 150 μ l F12/DMEM medium containing 1% FBS, $1 \times$ SITE3 (Sigma), 10 mM sodium pyruvate, and 50 μ M 2-ME were stimulated with plate-coated (10 μ g/ml) anti-TCR β mAbs (H57-597) for 72 hr. The culture supernatants were subjected to OptEIA ELISA (Pharmingen) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Total RNA was extracted from the mucosal layer without the outer muscle layer of the colon as previously described (Mizoguchi et al., 1999). Total RNA was extracted as described above, and RPA was performed using 10 μ g of RNA with the RiboQuant RPA system (PharMingen) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Detection of Igs

Sera from mice were subjected to ELISA for the detection of IgM, IgA, and IgG. Mononuclear cells extracted from MLNs were subjected to ELISPOT assay for the detection of IgM-, IgA-, and IgG-secreting cells as previously described (Mizoguchi et al., 1996). Cells were cultured for 12 hr for the detection of immunoglobulin-secreting cells.

Detection of STAT3 Phosphorylation

The colonic mucosal layer obtained as described above was homogenized in a lysis buffer containing 50 mM Tris (pH 8), 0.5% NP-40, 1 mM EDTA, 150 mM NaCl, 10% glycerol, 1 mM sodium vanadate, 50 mM sodium fluoride, 10 mM sodium pyrophosphate, 1 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride, and a tablet of protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche) (Suzuki et al., 2001). The lysates (10 μ g) were resolved by SDS-PAGE, and the proteins were detected by immunoblotting using ECL detection system (Amersham). Tyrosine phosphorylation of STAT3 was detected by using anti-phospho-STAT3 Ab (Cell Signaling Technology, Beverly, Massachusetts). After stripping the anti-phospho-STAT3 specific antibody, the membranes were reprobed by using anti-STAT3 Ab (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Santa Cruz, California). The density of bands was measured by scanning densitometry (Bio Rad), and the ratio of phosphorylated STAT3 was calculated as the density of phosphorylated STAT3 minus background density divided by the density of STAT3 minus background density.

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