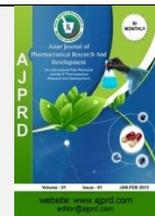


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Review Article

Involvement of iNKT Cells in Bronchial Asthma

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ABSTRACT

Background: Bronchial asthma is a prevalent inflammatory disease characterized by infiltration with eosinophils, lymphocytes, and mast cells in the airway leading to airway hypersensitivity and increased mucus secretion. T helper (Th) 2-based immune responses drive the inflammatory process. Numerous mechanisms are being studied to understand the progression of allergen induce asthma which subsequently led to the identification of a new population of T cells called the iNKT cells which showed promising results when experimented on murine models. iNKT cells are potent immune modulators involved in a variety of immunoregulations. This potency is the result of their ability to produce prime Th2 cytokines. The recognition of lipid antigens is required for the activation of iNKT cells. When an inflammation occurs due to Th2 cells and ozone, endogenous glycolipids become modified. This causes the activation of various subsets of iNKT cells and initiates airway hyperactivity. Infrequent human studies depict that the number of iNKT cells in BAL fluid ranges from 1 % of lung lymphocytes to 14 % which is a sign of dynamic fluctuation in the number of iNKT cells.

Methods: Selective literature review including primary and secondary sources of literature. Eg. Cochrane database, NCBI, MEDLINE database.

Key words: asthma, glycolipid ligand, iNKT cells, Th2 cytokine, airway hypersensitivity, α -galactosylceramide

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INTRODUCTION

Bronchial asthma is a prevalent health problem affecting nearly one in every ten individual and is continuously escalating leading to a greater number of affected patients since the past two decades¹. The pulmonary wards of the hospitals in the country are cramped with cases of bronchial asthma and the same site is evident in the majority of developing countries^{2,3}. In general, Asthma is characterized by wheeze, cough, shortness of breath, chest congestion and any obstruction in the air pathway⁴. Not all symptoms lead to the main outcome i.e. asthma but are somehow linked to the dissimilar pattern of inflammation. The modulation of asthma occurs via epithelial cells, bronchial smooth muscle, fibroblasts and pulmonary nerves. Normally, asthma is classified into allergic and non-allergic types⁵⁻⁷.

Endotypes classification

In allergic asthma, the primary cause of inflammation is the type 2 immune responses which are mediated through the Th2 cytokines including IL-4, IL5, and IL-13, produced by CD+4Th2 cells⁸. The interleukins enhance the growth, differentiation, and recruitment of eosinophils, basophils, mast cells, and IgE-producing B cells in asthma inflammation⁹. The Th2 cells produce Th2 cytokines, which increase allergen-specific IgE synthesis which further increase airway mucus production and differentiation of airway eosinophils. This leads to the development of airway hyper responsiveness (AHR)¹⁰.

While, allergic asthma is the mostextensive form of asthma. The airways enclose eosinophils, allergen-specific CD4 Th2 cells, mast cells and basophils in huge numbers. Asthma affected patients from every age group have airway inflammation and airway hyper reactivity (AHR) as a common characteristic¹¹.

Non-allergic asthma is chiefly triggered by an inflammatory reaction caused due to viral infections with a major neutrophilic component^{12, 13}. There is ample data to demonstrate that neutrophilic forms of murine and human asthma are linked with IL-17A^{14, 15}. The cytokine IL-17A induces neutrophilic inflammation and in association with TGF- β contributes in airway smooth muscle remodelling¹⁶.

Inflammation in Asthma

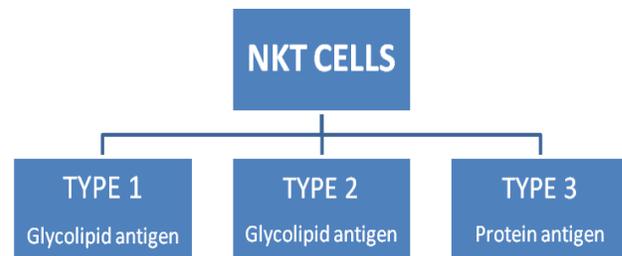
The fundamental characteristic of Asthma hyperresponsiveness is the reversible airway obstruction which does not occur in other non-asthmatic pulmonary inflammations like pneumonia and bronchiectasis¹⁷. Respiratory irritants like cold, fumes and smoke lead to extended clinical responses and further increase the severity of AHR. The increase in the concentrations of methacholine or histamine is a chief feature¹⁸. Airway inflammation cannot be concluded as the cause of airway hyperresponsiveness but the inflammatory events increase airway responsiveness after exposure to allergens^{19, 21}. There are also other causes of AHR for e.g., live influenza virus sources amplified bronchoconstriction involving cholinergic and non-cholinergic excitatory neural pathways. Other examples include epithelial necrosis and reduced production of epithelial relaxing factors such as PGE2 and neutral peptidases²². Some other studies imply that the levels of IgE antibodies are comparatively high in formative years which later on lead to the development of airway hyperresponsiveness²³.

To understand the mechanism of a asthma, experimentally induced allergic channel is studied and typically the inflammation follows the following pathways:

- Primarily identified as the early phase reaction, this step includes the release of pro inflammatory mediators like the histamine eicosanoids and reactive oxygen species. It is then followed by the activation of airway mast cells and macrophages^{24, 25}. This causes contraction of the smooth muscles present in the airways encompassed with mucous secretion and vasodilatation²⁵. The plasma gets exuded into the microvasculature after which the airway wall thickens and airway lumen narrows. This causes airway obstruction²⁶.
- The subsequent step is the late phase reaction which is characterised by Cellular events and release of proinflammatory mediators. In this step, because of the release of the cytokines previously, the early recruitment of mast cells occurs²⁷. After the late phase reaction, non-specific bronchial hyperresponsiveness occurs.
- The maturation of inflammatory cells takes place in the bone marrow. Hematopoietic cells are also present in the airways^{28, 29}. The travelling inflammatory and endothelial cells get adhered to the microvasculature. Further, the inflamed airways recruit the including eosinophils, lymphocytes, and monocytes (peripheral blood cells)^{30, 31}. Along with pro inflammatory mediators, distinct adhesion molecules such as CD11a, CD11b, CD18, and intercellular adhesion molecule-1 (ICAM-1) or vascular cell adhesion molecule-1 (VCAM-1) on endothelial cells also catalyses the induction of the inflammatory response^{32, 33}.

Role of NKT cells in Asthma inflammation

The progression of asthma is suggested to be by the contribution of NKT cells. NKT cells which are only 1% of the total Lymphocytes (WBCs) are responsible for the expression of both T cells (T-cell receptor) and NK cells (e.g., NK1.1, NKG2D)³⁴. NKT cells are sometimes confused with Natural killer cells and cytotoxic T cells (cytotoxic T cells). Natural killer cells are critical part of the innate immune system and are a type of cytotoxic lymphocyte belonging to the ILC family or innate lymphoid cells. And cytotoxic T cell is a T lymphocyte (a form of white blood cell) that inhibits cancer cells or other transmuted cells³⁵. NKT cells are classified into three subtypes, following the basis of their TCR.



a. TYPE I NKT CELLS

They are the invariant NKT (iNKT) cells that express invariant TCR alpha chains including V α 24 – J α 18 in humans and V α 14 – J α 18 in mice together with a restricted selection of V β chains (V β 8, V β 7, V β 2 in mice and V β 11 in humans). Type 1 NKT rely on the glycolipid antigens of the non-polymorphic major histocompatibility complex (MHC) class I-like molecule CD1d such as the glycolipid α -galactosylceramide (α -GalCer)^{36, 37}. Type I NKT cells respond and express a pattern recognition receptor. For instance, the development of allergen induced AHR demands the presence of CD1d-restricted or type 1 NKT cells. Type 1 NKT cells contribute to AHR and asthma more apparently³⁸.

b. TYPE II NKT CELLS

They are responsible for the expression of the non-invariant TCRs and simultaneously identify glycolipid antigens presented by CD1d. They have diverse TCR range because of which they can't be recognized using α -GalCerloaded CD1d tetramers³⁹.

c. TYPE III NKT CELLS

Type 3 NKT cells are restricted to MHC (major histocompatibility complex) class I and class II molecules other than CD1d. The non-invariant TCRs are a component of their expression. They also recognize antigen in a CD1d-independent manner^{40, 41}.

Type 1 and type 2 NKT cells recognize glycolipid antigens whereas type 3 cells recognize protein antigens. CD1d present on type 1 and 2 is expressed by the mucosal epithelial cells of the airway tract, hepatocytes, T cells, B cells, macrophages and dendritic cells^{42, 43}.

Different subsets of iNKT

iNKT cells can be CD4+, CD4-CD8- or CD8+ in humans. The human CD4+ produces larger amounts of IL-4, IL-13, IFN- γ and Th2 cytokines⁴⁴, and in mice the same CD4+ iNKT cells produce larger amounts of IL-4 but is less effective in tumour immunity⁴⁵. Other important immunoregulatory cytokines are also produced by CD4+ cells such as the IL-2, GM-CSF, IL-6 and IL-10. One of the e.g. is of phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate (PMA)/ionomycin and α -GalCer-pulsed dendritic cells⁴⁶. On the other hand, CD4-CD8- iNKT cell subset showcase greater cytotoxicity and only produce IFN- γ and TNF- α ⁴⁷.

An additional subset of iNKT cells, NK1.1 has been studied whose function is not yet clear. It produces IL-17 but not IL-4. Every subset of iNKT cells expresses distinct receptors dependable for specific organs^{48, 49}. According to a study that was performed on the participation of IL-17 in airway neutrophilia resulting from exposure to α -GalCer, PBS-57 (another iNKT cell ligand), it was verified that pulmonary iNKT cells could produce IL-17 upon activation^{50, 51}.

Studies propose that human V α 24 iNKT cells, defined by staining with CD1d tetramers or dual staining with V α 24 and V β 11 monoclonal antibodies⁵², are functionally and phenotypically heterogeneous in their expression of CD4/8 and their capacity for cytokine production^{53, 54}. CD1d-restricted T cells have been acknowledged equally in mice as well as humans, and possess consideration for their unusual ability to secrete both Th1 and Th2 cytokines quickly upon stimulation⁵⁵⁻⁵⁷. iNKT cells are consistent for the development of AHR and airway inflammation. The suppression of OVA-induced AHR can be caused by the administration of anti-CD1d antibodies or a CD1d-dependent antagonist⁵⁸. Other than this, lately, another subset of iNKT cells has been identified that meticulously releases high concentrations of IL-17 within definite time period (say 2-3 hours) from TCR stimulation during the lack of Th17 priming cytokine or IL-23. This iNKT cell subset is particularly distinct and has predefined cytokine secretion phenotype with discharge of IL-17 and IL-22 but no other Th1 or Th2 cytokines^{59, 60}.

Summary point:

1. Airway inflammation cannot be concluded as the cause of airway hyper responsiveness but the inflammatory events increase airway responsiveness after exposure to allergens.
2. The Th2 cells produce Th2 cytokines, which increase allergen-specific IgE synthesis which further increase airway mucus production and differentiation of airway

Lipid antigens in correlation with pulmonary iNKT cells

The recognition of lipid antigens is deemed significant for the activation of iNKT cells. Inflammatory environment base the expression of endogenous glycolipids⁶¹. When an inflammation occurs due to Th2 cells and ozone, endogenous glycolipids become modified. This causes the activation of various subsets of iNKT cells and initiates airway hyperactivity. An example is of Disialoganglioside GD3 which is a tissue specific glycolipid from tumour cells⁶². Other than the endogenous lipids, exogenous lipids

mainly derived from microorganisms and plants can also be found for the activation of pulmonary iNKT cells⁶³. A study concludes the activation of pulmonary iNKT cells and progression of AHR by other pathogens as well. Examples that were provided to support it include diacylglycerol antigens from the causative agent of Lyme disease and *Borrelia burgdorferi* glycolipid II. In addition, mycobacterium cell wall possesses phosphatidylinositol mannoside, which binds to CD1d and activates mouse and human iNKT cells⁶⁴⁻⁶⁷. Other organisms, such as *Salmonella typhimurium*, *Listeria monocytogenes*, *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Escherichia coli*, and cytomegalovirus, also bear the ability to activate iNKT cells but have an oblique approach. They work by stimulating DC production of cytokines such as IL-12, which then activate iNKT cells. E.g. of Cellular phospholipids include, phosphatidylcholine, phosphatidylinositol, phosphatidylglycerol, and phosphatidylethanolamine⁶⁸. NKT cell development demands CD1d trafficking to lysosomal compartments in conjunction with lipid transfer function of saposins⁶⁹. Isoglobotrihexosylceramide which is a lysosomal glycosphingolipid is another example of endogenous glycolipids. It can stimulate both human as well as mice iNKT cells. In a study from 2004, Hexb (lysosomal glycosphingolipid degrading enzyme b-hexosaminidase) cells were incapable stimulating V α 14 NKT hybridomas thus suggesting that iGb3 (Isoglobotrihexosylceramide) may perhaps alone characterize the chief natural ligand of NKT cells^{70, 71}. Previously, two different mechanisms were proposed for the activation of V α 14 iNKT cells. They were proposed particularly by microbial products that do not enclose a ligand for the invariant TCR⁷². It has also been made known that V α 14 iNKT cells can also be stimulated by the collective action of IL-12 from dendritic cells, macrophages and endogenous GSL Ag(s) (glycosphingolipids) presented by CD1d⁷³.

α -galactosylceramide as an iNKT cell ligand

Discovered in the year 1997, α -galactosylceramide is a glycolipid presented by the monomorphic MHC class I-like CD1d molecule⁷⁴. It was thought that the iNKT cell ligand should encompass both hydrophobic and hydrophilic properties to bind with both CD1d pockets and V α 14 antigen receptor respectively⁷⁵. Activation of iNKT cells with α -GalCer promotes vigorous IFN- production by bystander cells such as NK cells. The common example being of exogenous glycolipid, α -GalCer which activates iNKT cells in mice and has been repeatedly studied. It causes rapid progression of severe AHR characterized by neutrophils, eosinophils, and lymphocytes. When glycolipids which resemble α -GalCer structurally were isolated from gram-negative α -proteobacteria *sphingomonas*, the response was similar⁷⁶. In a study conducted in 1999, it was demonstrated that α -GalCer first binds to CD1d molecules on DCs followed by the recognition of α -GalCer bound DCs by NKT cells and their interaction with TCRs. After this, the endogenously produced IL-12 stimulates IFN-g production by NKT cells and IFN-g produced by NKT cells up regulates IL-12R on NKT cells^{77, 78}.

Do iNKT cells have an effect on human asthma?

A substantial number of studies have examined endobronchial biopsies; bronchoalveolar (BAL) fluid and sputum samples obtained from asthmatic patients and have found the presence of iNKT cells⁷⁹. Out of the 7 studies that have been reviewed for this paper, 5 studies suggest that iNKT cells were present in the lung of patients with asthma⁸⁰⁻⁸⁴ but the remaining of the studies did not find iNKT cells in samples of the asthma patients which have questioned the significance of iNKT cells in asthma⁸⁵. Although the fact that every study conducted followed somewhat different protocol can't be ignored. For example, the major α -GalCer loaded CD1d tetramer or the anti-invariant NKT TCR or even the arrangement of 24 / V 11, which are the prominent means for identifying iNKT cells were either omitted in some of the studies or replaced⁸⁶. Some studies replaced BAL fluid samples with sputum samples which may have led to discrepancies and thus questioning the broader objective, the role of iNKT in Asthma. According to a study that was performed on patients with broad range of asthma severity and non-asthmatic controls, using α -GalCer-loaded CD1d tetramers with appropriate unloaded CD1d tetramer as a control to identify iNKT cells, showed that patients who had severe but poorly controlled asthma had greater number of iNKT cells in their BAL samples⁸⁷. The iNKT cells present in the BAL fluid varied largely (from 1 % up to 60 % of the T cells). Thus leading to the conclusion of not all asthma patients have increased number of iNKT cells^{83, 84}. This again supports the fact that the iNKT cells as a factor can't be ignored in asthma. The results that vary are also affected by the type of the patient population undergoing the study, the different techniques used to identify the iNKT cells and even the tissues that were used for analysis. The studies are difficult to perform in humans but are regularly performed on murine models. But the outcomes of the infrequent human studies depict that the number of iNKT cells in BAL fluid ranges from 1 % of lung lymphocytes to 14 % which is a sign of dynamic fluctuation in the number of iNKT cells⁸⁸.

Studies conducted on mice and other non-human primates provide strong evidences concerning the importance of iNKT cells in asthma. With reference to the study performed in 2007 which was approved by the Institutional Review Boards at Children's Hospital Boston and Brigham and Women's and Connolly Hospitals, it was suggested that the number of iNKT cells matter less as compared to their potency. The small number of iNKT cells present in asthmatic patients suggests that iNKT cells might be more actively potent as they are rather considered⁸⁹. The experiment induced asthma in mice by 3 distinct ways including allergens, viruses and exposure to ozone thus creating three models of the disease. Each of these models required an unlike subset of iNKT cells for the development of AHR.

iNKT cells in allergen induced asthma

According to a study published in 2003, it was shown that iNKT cells are in association with Th2 responses, eosinophils, and AHR. Both J α 18 and CD1d mice, which lack iNKT cells, failed to develop allergen-induced AHR. The study showed the requirement of iNKT cells for the

development of allergen-induced AHR. This study indicates that both Th2 cells (necessary for allergen-specific responses) and iNKT cells producing IL-4 and IL-13 are required for the development of allergen-induced AHR⁹⁰⁻⁹².

iNKT cells in ozone induced asthma

Studies conducted on mouse models who have been induced with asthma with air pollution, developed severe AHR and airway inflammation. Unlike allergen-induced AHR, which is associated with airway eosinophils, ozone-induced AHR was associated with airway neutrophils and macrophages⁹⁰. Significantly, both CD1d and J α 18 were unsuccessful in developing ozone-induced AHR, demonstrating that iNKT cells were required in the development of ozone-induced AHR. Moreover, IL-17A mice failed to develop ozone-induced AHR, although they developed severe allergen-induced AHR, indicating that IL-17 was specifically required for ozone but not for allergen-induced AHR^{91, 81-83}.

iNKT in virus induced asthma

The experiment that was conducted to identify the presence of iNKT cells in this model utilized Sendai virus to induce the symptoms of asthma.⁹² Using Sendai virus it was demonstrated that viral infection induced acute bronchiolar inflammation, chronic mucous cell metaplasia and increased AHR. In this model, the iNKT cells induced alternatively activated macrophages, which produced IL-13, which in turn drove increased mucus production and AHR^{83, 93}.

Summary points:

1. Inflammation occurs due to Th2 cells and ozone and endogenous glycolipids become modified.
2. Isoglobotrihexosylceramide which is a lysosomal glycosphingolipid is an example of endogenous glycolipids.
3. α -galactosylceramide is a glycolipid presented by the monomorphic MHC class I-like CD1d molecule.
4. Th2 cells and iNKT cells producing IL-4 and IL-13 are required for the development of allergen-induced AHR

Can Asthma be treated via iNKT cells?

The NKT cells, which express both NK receptors and TCR are encoded by the V α 14 and J α 281 gene segments, and are suggested to conduct an imperative function in the regulation of immune responses⁹³. Cytokines such as IL-12 are capable of stimulating NKT cells to release IFN- and demonstrate natural cytotoxicity. This IFN- release by NKT cells in response to α -GalCer is primarily mediated by IL-12 produced by dendritic cells. NKT cells which are chiefly stimulated by α -GalCer inhibit antigen-induced allergic responses by the production of IFN- γ ⁹⁴. Because of their presence in Asthma, iNKT cells provide as a striking objective for asthma therapy⁹⁵. Studies suggest that targeting iNKT cells may perhaps involve:

- Direct removal of iNKT cells or paralyzing iNKT cell function,
- Preventing the activation of iNKT cells by blocking CD1d, or
- Altering iNKT cell function by reducing Th2 cytokine production^{81, 96}

Experiments to support these ideas include the following:

When α -GalCer was intranasally administered to already sensitized mice there was seen inhibition of AHR and eosinophilia along with BALF Th2 cytokine production⁹⁷. Furthermore, the reduction of IL-4 was associated with an increase of IFN- γ indicated that a shift from a pro asthmatic Th2 to a protecting Th1 response had occurred in the airways⁹⁶. Many studies in cancer field used α -GalCer or DCs loaded with α -GalCer, and showed hopeful efficacy in animal models. A known C-glycoside analog of α -GalCer has been shown to induce iNKT cells to produce distorted Th1 cytokines, and were shown to be more potent than α -GalCer in both antitumor and antimalarial efficacy⁹⁸⁻¹⁰⁰. In autoimmune disease field, another analog of α -GalCer, an OCH compound, has been shown to induce distorted Th2 response and to protect mice against a Th1 disease like autoimmune encephalitis and collagen induced arthritis¹⁰¹⁻¹⁰⁴. α -GalCer can bind CD1d of both mice and human species and activate NKT cells of both species⁹⁷. Thus there lies the scope for immunotherapy with α -GalCer for human asthma. Single injection of α -GalCer may provide protection against airway inflammation. Some of the limited data propose a realistic use of α -GalCer for therapeutic intervention in asthma. According to the research paper published in 2005, α -GalCer has differing effects on allergen induced eosinophilic airway inflammation and the degree of eosinophil infiltration and the IgE levels remained unchanged by both method of α -GalCer administration in J α -281 mice^{105, 106}.

This therapeutic advancement with α -GalCer is still debatable though as α -GalCer can also function as an adjuvant to develop allergen sensitization, and can induce AHR on its own. So other ways of treatment counting iNKT cells need to be explored to bring about the essential optimization of asthma treatment. IL-17BR is expressed in cultured primary fibroblasts and that IL-17E stimulates the production of the Eosinophil associated mediators CCL-5, CCL-11, GM-CSF, and CXCL-8 in these cells⁴². In a study it was showed that IL17E is expressed in the bronchial submucosa in asthma, and that the cytokines TNF- α and TGF- β 1 which are involved in the pathogenesis of the disease have the ability to modulate the fibroblast response to IL-17E⁴³.

Other functions of iNKT cells

- As an immunomodulator

iNKT cells comprise of evolutionally conserved subpopulation of T lymphocytes that express both T cell receptor (TCR) and NK receptors¹⁰⁷. iNKT cells recognize glycolipid antigens by an invariant TCR α chain composed of V α 14-J α 18 segments in mice and V α 24-J α 18 segments in humans¹⁰⁸. Experimentally, activated iNKT cells are one amongst the primary potent immune modulators through an enormous production of a various cytokines including IL-4 and IFN- γ and were the major source of cytokines among TCR-bearing cells after stimulation with anti-CD3 antibody *in vivo*^{33, 36}.

- In the development of allergic responses

The link between allergic responses and iNKT cells includes treatment with α -GalCer induced IL-4 and IL-10 which

provided protection against colitis¹⁰⁹. BALB/c or C57BL/6J mice mixed Th1 and Th2 type colitis was shown and treatment with α -GalCer exacerbates the disease¹¹⁰. These results clearly indicate that iNKT cells situated in the gut mucosa can influence the type of colitis observed and can contribute to allergic colitis.

- iNKT cells in human SLE

Humans that are genetically susceptible to autoimmune diseases, including systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE) have reduced numbers and functional defects in iNKT cells¹¹¹. A few human studies have investigated the presence and function of iNKT cells in peripheral blood in lupus patients and healthy control subjects¹¹². The authors concluded that approximately 50% of autoimmune diseases react to α -GalCer treatment. In non-responders a functional defect of the iNKT cells can be suspected¹¹³. Another group investigated different rheumatic disease patients including SLE. In SLE patients CD8+ iNKT cell number was significantly reduced in the peripheral blood as compared to healthy controls. The authors suggest that a reason for this reduced iNKT cell number could be that the iNKT cells migrate into inflamed tissues. The immunoregulatory function of iNKT cells seems to be quite well supported by data¹¹⁴.

CONCLUSION

The studies and papers reviewed for this article did not include any new discoveries and were partially based on ideas and theoretical approaches. Robust data and evidences are required to support the fact that the presence of iNKT cells influence asthma in some way or other. Further studies involving the researches on iNKT cells as potential treatment approach are required to comprehend and conclude the theory. The fact that iNKT cells participate in AHR and airway modulation is enough to carry out dedicated researches. New treatment approaches are required other than immunosuppressive therapies and iNKT cells ensembles substantial data.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

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Ethical statement

No ethical approval was required as this study did not involve human participants or laboratory animals.

Data availability

Data sharing is not applicable to this article as no new data were created or analyzed in this study.

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