

DIPLOMARBEIT

***IN VITRO* INVESTIGATION OF TOLERANCE INDUCING EFFECTS OF CMV HYPERIMMUNOGLOBULIN CONTAINING DRUGS**

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.....
(Unterschrift)

**Die Wissenschaft fängt eigentlich erst da an interessant zu werden,
wo sie aufhört.**

Justus von Liebig (1803-73)
deutscher Chemiker

In diesem Sinne möchte ich mich bei allen bedanken, die zur Entstehung dieser Diplomarbeit durch fachliche oder persönliche Unterstützung beigetragen haben.

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ZUSAMMENFASSUNG

CMV Hyperimmunoglobuline (CMVlg) werden in der Herztransplantation routinemäßig zur Prophylaxe gegen CMV Erkrankungen eingesetzt. Ein Einfluss dieser Medikamentenklasse auf transplant-relevante Immunfunktionen ist nicht bekannt. Ziel dieser *in vitro* Studie war es, die Auswirkungen von CMVlg auf die zelluläre Immunantwort zu beschreiben und eine mögliche Wirkung auf toleranzinduzierende Mechanismen nachzuweisen.

Es konnte gezeigt werden, dass CMVlg sowohl in allogenen „mixed lymphocyte reactions“ als auch in T-Zell spezifischen Proliferationsansätzen anti-proliferative Eigenschaften besitzen. Diese Ergebnisse konnten mittel CFSE Dilutions-Experimenten und Zellzyklus-Analysen bestätigt werden. Weiters wurde ein bedeutender Einfluss von CMVlg auf die Zellviabilität beschrieben. Vor allem Effektorzellen (CD8+, CD56+) waren vulnerabel für eine CMVlg vermittelte Apoptoseinduktion. Im dritten Teil der Diplomarbeit wurde die Wirkung von CMVlg auf NK Zellen näher beschrieben. Hier konnte gezeigt werden, dass die Antikörper-vermittelte zelluläre Zytotoxizität von NK Zellen durch CMVlg massiv supprimiert wird.

Zusammenfassend kann gesagt werden, dass im Rahmen dieser Arbeit erstmals toleranzinduzierende Mechanismen von CMVlg nachgewiesen wurden. Die *in vitro* Ergebnisse erklären klinische Beobachtungen, die einen positiven Einfluss von CMVlg auf das Transplantatüberleben zeigen. Basierend auf den Daten dieser Arbeit kann nun das Konzept von CMVlg als rein anti-viral wirksame Substanzklasse auf ein Medikament mit breiterem, für die Transplantationsmedizin günstigem Wirkungsprofil erweitert werden.

ABSTRACT

Cytomegalovirus hyperimmunoglobulin containing drugs are routinely administered in solid organ transplantation for prophylaxis against CMV disease. Yet little is known about their influence on transplant relevant immune functions. The aim of this study was to evaluate the effect of CMVlg on cellular immunity *in vitro* and to define their role in tolerance inducing mechanisms.

CMVlg were shown to reduce proliferation in mixed lymphocyte reactions and T cell specific anti-CD3 blastogenesis assays. These anti-proliferative effects are associated with a cell-cycle arrest in the G0/G1 phase. Furthermore, CMVlg evidenced an induction of apoptosis primarily in cytotoxic T cells and natural killer cells. Co-incubation with CMVlg caused a downregulation of cell surface bound immunoglobulins and FcγRIII expression on natural killer cells. This led to an attenuation of antibody dependent cellular cytotoxicity effector functions.

Concluding, CMVlg induce immunological features on leukocytes *in vitro* that are known to be related to tolerance induction *in vivo*. These observations extend the current concept of CMVlg as passive CMV prophylaxis to a therapeutic drug compound capable to reduce allogeneic immune response.

BACKGROUND

Cytomegalovirus and its role in solid organ transplantation

CMV - definitions [1]:

Viremia is defined as a positive viral blood culture proved by standard or shell vial techniques.

Antigenemia: The detection of pp65, a CMV specific protein, in leukocytes is termed antigenemia.

Latency is the silent carriership of CMV genome causing a low grade infection without signs of active viral replication.

CMV infection is a state of active viral replication and defined by the isolation of either the whole virus, viral protein or viral deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) from body fluids.

CMV disease is a symptomatic CMV infection.

Cytomegalovirus belongs to the *Betaherpesvirinae* family. Like other herpes viruses it is able to persist lifelong in healthy individuals unaffected by the immune system. Epidemiological data suggest that roughly 60 to 90 percent of the adult population in developed countries are infected [2, 3]. CMV antigens can be purified from urine, saliva, tears, semen, milk and liquor even years after first CMV contact. The virus is able to spread horizontally (transmission between members of the same social group that are not in a parent-child relationship) as well as vertically (from mother to child during the perinatal period). Breast feeding is the most common way of the vertical infection route [4]. However, transplacental transmission and infections during delivery are also described in literature [5, 6]. In a prospective study Vouchem *et al.* showed that the concentration of viral DNA in breast milk strongly correlates with the incidence of CMV infections in infants. Preterm infants were at a higher risk for CMV infection when compared to mature newborns [7].

For the horizontal infection route close contact seems to be necessary. However, the precise transmission route is still unknown. Histopathologic examinations of necropsy tissues indicate that the upper respiratory tract, the upper alimentary tract or the genitourinary tract are the most likely route of infection. Epidemiological data suggest that unhygienic conditions and low socioeconomic status are the major risk factors for a horizontal infection [8]. Rare cases of transmission through blood transfusions by

direct transfer of viral antigens in leukocytes (neutrophils and monocytes) are also discussed in literature. However, this route only seems possible during acute infection [8], where a high virus load is present.

In healthy individuals CMV is kept under control by the immune system. Total clearance of the virus is rare resulting in latent, lifelong infections. Primary CMV infections normally proceed subclinical. In rare cases a symptomatic infection develops, becoming manifest in unspecific features e.g. persistent fever, myalgia, cephalgia, lymphadenopathy and splenomegaly. However, a wide range of complications including gastrointestinal infections, hepatitis, cystitis, myocarditis, pneumonia, retinitis, encephalitis, polyradiculitis (Guillain-Barré syndrome) is known. Elevated liver enzymes and an increased serum bilirubin are often associated with CMV infections.

As most of the infections remain inapparent and complications are rare, CMV was of no great interest, traditionally. However, the impact of CMV infections has increased due to the growing importance of organ transplantation, immune deficiency syndromes (e.g. acquired immune deficiency syndrome - AIDS) and the extended use of immunosuppressive drugs.

The incidence of CMV infections in allograft recipients is considerable. Epidemiological data reveal that CMV is the second most infectious agent during post-transplant course.

Table 1 Incidence (%) of infectious diseases in solid organ transplant recipients (adapted from Patel *et al.* [9])

Type of infection	Liver	Kidney	Heart	Lung/Heart-Lung	Pancreas/Kidney-Pancreas
bacterial infections	33-68	47	21-30	54	35
CMV	22-39	8-32	9-35	39-41	50
HSV	3-14	53	1-42	10-18	6
VZV	5-10	4-12	1-12	8-15	9
Candida spp.	1-26	2	1-5	10-16	32
Mycelial fungi	2-4	1-2	3-6	3-19	3
Pneumocystis carinii	4-11	5-10	1-8	15	NA

CMV = cytomegalovirus; HSV = herpes simplex virus; VZV = varicella zoster virus; NA = not available

In other reviews CMV infections are even considered the most important infectious complication after solid organ transplantation [10, 11].

Post-transplant CMV disease is associated with an enormous financial strain resulting in a 40 to 80 percent increase in direct medical charges [12, 13]. The major risk factor for a later CMV disease is a serological CMV mismatch. Seronegative recipients receiving an organ from a seropositive donor are high risk patients [14]. Besides these immunological factors certain immunosuppressive agents also seem to have an influence. Induction therapy with antithymocyte globulin (ATG)-fresenius resulted in earlier and higher antigenemia when compared to induction therapy with thymoglobuline [15, 16]. In addition the administration of ATG during acute rejection periods in kidney transplantations was also associated with a consecutive development of a CMV disease [14, 16, 17].

CMV disease in the transplant patient can be caused by primary infection (if the patient has not been exposed to CMV before), re-activation or re-infection with CMV. It predominantly occurs during the first four months after transplantation [18]. Clinical symptoms range from general discomfort, fever, myalgia, arthralgia as well as organ involvement e.g. esophagitis, gastritis, enterocolitis (subsumed as CMV induced gastrointestinal diseases), hepatitis, pancreatitis, nephritis, cystitis, myocarditis, pneumonia, retinitis, CNS diseases (encephalopathy, polyradiculopathy) [1].

A generalized form of CMV disease, the CMV syndrome, must be assumed if the patient has a proven antigenemia or viremia and at least one of the following:

- (i) temperature $>38^{\circ}\text{C}$,
- (ii) new or increased malaise,
- (iii) leukopenia,
- (iv) > 5 percent atypical lymphocytes,
- (v) thrombocytopenia,
- (vi) elevated liver enzymes.

The prognosis of a CMV syndrome is disastrous with a mortality of over 90 percent [13].

In addition to the above described deleterious effects of CMV infections, CMV can also damage the transplanted organ.

CMV infections were shown to promote acute graft rejections in heart [19] and kidney [20, 21] recipients. Data referring to lung allografts are contradictory [22, 23]. In liver

transplantation no significant correlation between CMV infections and graft rejection was found [24].

The reasons for these effects on early allograft failure are thought to be due to immunomodulatory properties of CMV. The virus is able to render the immunological state of a transplanted organ by upregulating major histocompatibility complex (MHC) class I and class II as well as boosting the nuclear factor kappa B (NfκB) pathway *in vitro* [25]. Furthermore, CMV can trigger superinfections with opportunistic infectious agents [26, 27].

Besides their ability to promote acute graft rejection, CMV infections were also shown to be a risk factor for chronic transplant dysfunction. A higher incidence of bronchiolitis obliterans syndrome in lung transplant recipients [22, 28], vanishing bile duct syndrome in liver transplantation [29-31] has been described following CMV disease.

In transplanted hearts an increased appearance of graft vasculopathy was associated with CMV infections [32, 33]. This phenomenon was studied by Lemstrom *et al.* in a rat transplant model [34]. The most prominent changes in the hearts of CMV infected rats were found in small intramyocardial arterioles. Immunohistochemical staining showed a CMV specific mononuclear cell infiltrate in tissue with replicating virus. This inflammatory infiltrate led to endothelial proliferation and intima-thickening – both relevant factors in graft vasculopathy. In addition CMV infections were shown to increase the amounts of atherosclerotic fatty streaks in endothelium [35].

Therapeutic strategies

In immunocompetent individuals normally no specific treatment of CMV infections is required. In immunocompromised patients there are three fundamental strategies: universal prophylaxis, pre-emptive therapy and treatment of an already manifest disease.

Universal prophylaxis

CMV disease, CMV-associated mortality and number of acute rejection periods can be effectively reduced by universal prophylaxis [36]. Pharmacoeconomical analysis revealed that the CMV prophylaxis is an effective way to save money in solid organ transplant medicine by significantly reducing the days spent in hospital and the overall costs after transplantation [37]. Therefore, CMV prophylaxis is recommended in most clinical guidelines [38].

Contrarily, universal anti-viral prophylaxis is expensive and most drugs used can cause bone marrow suppression and evidence renal toxic effects. In addition, the broad application of anti-viral drugs in universal prophylactic strategies creates drug resistances due to viral mutations [39, 40].

Regarding the different drugs available for universal prophylaxis ganciclovir, valganciclovir and valaciclovir proved to be more effective than aciclovir. Anti-viral prophylaxis also shows protective effects on CMV associated chronic allograft dysfunction [41]. This effect can be ameliorated by the addition of CMV hyperimmunoglobulin (CMVlg) to ganciclovir universal prophylaxis [13].

Pre-emptive therapy (selective prophylaxis)

Pre-emptive therapy was introduced in the early 90s to reduce adverse side effects to a minimum by constricting patient collective receiving anti-viral drugs [42]. It is also a prophylactic approach, however, anti-viral treatment is only initiated in patients with proven antigenemia. Antigenemia is thought to be a reliable marker for a later outburst of CMV disease (positive predictive value of 94%) [43]. Meta-analysis revealed that pre-emptive therapy with anti-viral drugs had the same positive effects on CMV disease, acute rejection, chronic rejection and all-cause mortality as the universal approach. On the other hand, adverse side effects were significantly lower in pre-emptive group compared to the universal prophylaxis [44]. The limiting factor of

the pre-emptive approach is a disaccordance in determining cut-off values for clinical intervention. Furthermore, there is still a lack of laboratory assay standardization for the detection of antigenemia. Therefore pre-emptive therapy is only recommended in patients with low to intermediate risk for developing a CMV disease. The optimal drug regimen is either intravenous (iv) ganciclovir (5mg/kg per 12h) or valganciclovir (900mg/bid) [13].

The most recent revision of guidelines for prevention of CMV disease in solid organ transplantation has been published by the Canadian Society of Transplantation Consensus Workshop Group:

Table 2 Guidelines for CMV prevention in solid organ transplant recipients (adapted from Preiksaitis *et al.* [13])

Organ/CMV status	Relative merits of universal prophylaxis, pre-emptive therapy	Recommendations/options when applying universal prophylaxis
Kidney, liver, pancreas, heart D+/R-	Universal prophylaxis preferred over pre-emptive therapy as rapid rise in viral load in absence of previous immunity makes pre-emptive strategies logistically difficult	oral ganciclovir (3g/d) valganciclovir (900mg/d) iv ganciclovir (5mg/kg/d) valganciclovir (8g/d) is an alternative in kidney recipients
Kidney, liver, pancreas, heart R+	Either universal prophylaxis or pre-emptive therapy are acceptable options	oral ganciclovir (3g/d) valganciclovir (900mg/d)
Lung, heart-lung D+R-	In this high-risk group, universal prophylaxis is preferred rather than pre-emptive therapy	iv ganciclovir (5mg/kg/d) valganciclovir (900mg/d) +/- CMV hyperimmunoglobulin
Lung, heart-lung R+	Universal prophylaxis is preferred rather than pre-emptive therapy	iv ganciclovir valganciclovir (900mg/d) +/- CMV hyperimmunoglobulin

Abbr.: D - donor, R - recipient, CMV cytomegalovirus

Treatment of CMV disease

Ganciclovir, foscarnet and cidofovir have been proved beneficial for the treatment of a manifest CMV disease. However, the capacious clinical experience with the “old” substance ganciclovir and the described nephrotoxicity of foscarnet and cidofovir in combination with calcineurin inhibitors make iv ganciclovir (5mg/kg per 12h) the recommended first-line drug for solid organ transplantation. Valganciclovir (a prodrug of ganciclovir with high oral bioavailability) has similar pharmacokinetics and can be used instead of the iv drug [45]. Addition of CMV Ig is recommended for severe CMV

disease with lung and liver involvement. Immunosuppression should be reduced to a minimum during anti-viral treatment. When full-dose iv ganciclovir therapy for one week shows no effect (persisting viral loads or clinical symptoms) a ganciclovir-resistant CMV disease should be assumed. This often occurs in a seropositive donor/seronegative recipient setting. Rescue therapy with CMVlg, high-dose foscarnet or cidofovir should be initiated for this ganciclovir-insensitive CMV disease [13].

Passive immunization - CMV hyperimmunoglobulin

Passive immunization against CMV with high-dose iv immunoglobulins can be added to a pre-existing therapeutic anti-viral approach (as described above) but is generally a prophylactic option. Two different drug preparations can be used: unspecific intravenous immunoglobulins (Ivlg) and CMVlg.

Ivlg are used in many clinical conditions (see Table 4) and are currently under discussion for their application in transplant medicine [46]. CMVlg are produced by pooling plasma from hundreds of healthy donors with a proven antibody titer greater than 1 in 7000. CMVlg were shown to be highly effective in preventing CMV disease when administered during the post-operative course [47-51]. CMVlg therapy is rather expensive, however, cost-effectiveness analysis shows that CMVlg are comparable to other well-accepted medical treatments [52, 53].

Although beneficial effects of CMVlg in preventing CMV disease are well documented, little evidence exists describing underlying mechanisms. Andreoni *et al.* showed that CMVlg are able to neutralize CMV infectivity and can reduce the intracellular, pro-inflammatory response in a fibroblast cell line [54]. Furthermore, CMVlg could reduce cytopathic effects in infected fibroblasts in an antibody-dependent cell-mediated cytotoxicity assay *in vitro* [55].

Currently, two different CMVlg-containing drugs are licensed in Austria: Cytotect by Biotest and Cytoglobulin by Bayer.

Table 3 Distribution of different Ig-subsets of Cytotect and Cytoglobin

	Cytotect	Cytoglobin
IgG	> 95%	> 98%
IgG1	62%	65%
IgG2	34%	29%
IgG3	0.5%	5.7%
IgG4	3.5%	1.1%
IgA	< 5mg/mL	< 0.21mg/mL
specific Ab against CMV	50 E	100 E

CMVlg containing drugs are considered “save” drugs as adverse side effects are rare. They are often caused by a too high infusion speed. Therefore, infusions should not run above 0.08mL/min for adults (about 20 drops per minute). Chills, cephalaea, fever, nausea, reversible aseptic meningitis and arthralgia can occur. Hypersensitivity and anaphylactic reactions are extremely rare and often associated with an immunoglobulin A (IgA)-deficiency syndrome (anti-IgA antibodies). Furthermore, cases of renal failure have been described. Most of them were due to pre-existing renal insufficiency, diabetes mellitus, hypovolemia, hyperviscosity or co-administration of kidney-toxic drugs. Thrombo-embolic events can be triggered by CMVlg [56, 57]. The mechanism being responsible for this was shown to be a ligation of the low affinity Fcγ-receptor (FcγR; CD32) on thrombocytes resulting in platelet activation and subsequent aggregation [58].

The risk of transfection with pathogens is minimized by inactivation of possible infectious material during the manufacturing process. In addition the drug is tested routinely for human immunodeficiency virus (HIV), hepatitis B virus (HBV) and hepatitis C virus (HCV). No specific drug interactions have been reported yet. However, the effect of attenuated living vaccines (e.g. mumps, measles, roseola, chickenpox) can be reduced. The drug has no influence on pregnancy. In contrast, there are data indicating that CMVlg is a save and effective way to treat prenatal CMV disease [59].

Management of CMV at the Viennese Heart Transplant Center

All patients – unregarded of their or the donor’s serological status – undergoing heart transplantation at the Viennese Heart Transplant Center receive CMVlg (Cytotect, Biotest) as universal prophylaxis. Cytotect is given iv at a dose of 100mg/kg pre-operatively and on day 1, 7, 14, 21, 28 post-operatively. In addition high risk patients

receive valganciclovir at doses between 450 to 900mg/d depending on their renal function. This therapeutic concept was introduced in 1987 together with the application of rabbit antithymocyte globuline (ATG) as induction therapy. Since then, rejection rates are one of the lowest when compared to other transplantation centers (86 percent freedom of rejection ISHLT>2 – classified by the guidelines of the International Society for Heart and Lung Transplantation – within the first year after transplantation) [60]. In addition incidence of graft atherosclerosis is very low due to the aggressive CMV prophylaxis [61-63].

Intravenous immunoglobulins

The first therapeutical application of immunoglobulins can be dated 1891 when Emil von Behring treated two children suffering from diphtheria by injecting antisera. However, purification techniques for intravenous application were not developed before the 1970s. The first clinical indication of Ivlg was the congenital Bruton agammaglobulinemia, applications in other immunodeficiency syndromes followed. By the 1980s Ivlg were utilized in various autoimmune diseases and inflammatory disorders, administered in high intravenous doses. Interestingly, this new clinical effect was discovered incidentally during the treatment of two children with a congenital immune deficiency who coincidental suffered from idiopathic thrombocytopenic purpura. The pediatricist who treated the children observed that Ivlg infusion also increased the number of thrombocytes in his patients [64]. Today, Ivlg are suggested as first line therapy in several inflammatory disorders e.g. Kawasaki syndrome [65], Guillain-Barré syndrome [66], chronic inflammatory demyelinating polyneuropathy [67], Myasthenia gravis [68], idiopathic thrombocytopenic purpura [69], multifocal neuropathy [70], Epidermolysis bullosa [71].

Table 4 Proved beneficial effects of Ivlg therapy (adapted from Emmi *et al.* [72])

Acquired immune thrombocytopenias
Autoimmune neutropenias
Autoimmune hemolytic anemia
Autoimmune erythroblastopenia
Autoimmune myocarditis [73]
Von Willebrand disease
Hemophilia A and B associated with antibodies to factors VIII and IX
Dermatomyositis
SLE [74, 75]

RA
Lambert-Eaton syndrome
ANCA positive systemic vasculitis
Goodpasture syndrome
Antiphospholipid syndrome
Chronic fatigue syndrome
MS
Intractable childhood epilepsy (Lennox Gastaut and West syndrome)
Rasmussen encephalitis
Stiff-man syndrome
Thyroid-related eye disease
Therapy-refractory kidney and bone marrow graft rejections [76-79]
GvH disease [80]
Steroid dependent asthma
IBD

Abbr.: SLE - systemic lupus erythematosus, RA - rheumatoid arthritis, ANCA – anti-neutrophil cytoplasmatic antibodies, MS - multiple sclerosis
GvH - graft versus host, IBS - inflammatory bowel diseases

Although the positive effects of Ivlg have been proved in many controlled clinical trials as well as meta-analysis, their mode of action still remains unclear. The main theories are:

Natural antibodies

Natural antibodies are pre-existing antibodies not produced as a result of a prior immune response. They can be found during embryonic development and in animals held under sterile conditions. Their specificity, affinity and titer are low and they can not be transformed by affinity maturation. Natural antibodies were shown to be either directed against conserved auto-antigens or non-self antigens [81].

They are able to prevent early dissemination of viral pathogens into the brain and the kidney and therefore considered as part of the innate immune response. As some autoimmune disorders are associated with viral infections, natural antibodies can ameliorate these disorders by reducing viral loads [82].

Self-reacting natural antibodies were shown to have the property to regulate a ditched immune system by demonetising senescent or apoptotic cells *via* opsonisation [83, 84]. This is essential in order to prevent the leakage of auto-epitopes from aged or damaged cells.

However, as the vast majority of natural antibodies are subtype immunoglobulin M (IgM), their concentration in Ivlg containing drugs is minimal.

Anti-idiotypic antibodies

Ivlg contain small amounts of antibodies directed against universal immunoglobulin structures e.g. the Fc fragment. These anti-antibodies are termed anti-idiotypic antibodies. Anti-idiotypic antibodies have the ability to neutralize disease-associated auto-antibodies [85]. However, the role of anti-idiotypic antibodies is considered modest, suggesting that there must be additional mechanisms responsible for the immunomodulatory effects of Ivlg containing drugs [72].

Modulation of complement

In some of the disease entities listed in Table 4 an overflowing complement system mediating immune complex associated damage is deemed pivotal. The high immunoglobulin G (IgG) blood concentration after Ivlg application is able to withdraw complement components C1, C3b, C4, C3b (reviewed in Stangel *et al.* [64]) and anaphylotoxins C3a and C5a [86] from circulation.

Auto-antibodies directed against CD4, MHC, CD95 and cytokines

Ivlg contain small amounts of anti-CD4 and anti-MHC antibodies. In *in vitro* studies blocking of these membrane proteins resulted in a decreased function of CD4 and CD8 bearing cells [87, 88]. Blockage of CD95 (Fas-receptor, APO-1) on keratinocytes by antagonistic auto-antibodies present in Ivlg preparations was described to be important in toxic epidermal necrolysis [89, 90]. Furthermore, Ivlg contain physiological occurring auto-antibodies directed against interleukine (IL)-6, IL-1, tumor necrosis factor (TNF)- α , IL-8, granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor (GM-CSF) [89, 91]. The mechanism of action attributed to this theory is the neutralization of an inflammatory overshoot. However, contents of these auto-antibodies vary immensely between manufacturers and patches.

Triggering of Fc γ -receptors by IgG dimers

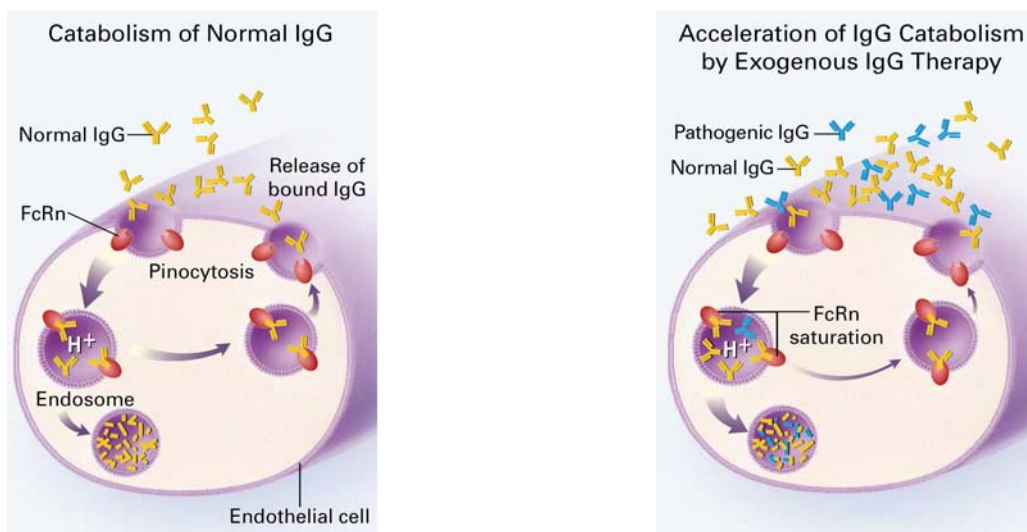
IgG are present as dimers in small quantities in Ivlg containing drugs. These crosslinked IgG can trigger Fc γ -receptors resulting in a prolonged anti-inflammatory cytokine release subsequent to the initial release of pro-inflammatory peptides [92, 93]. Dimers were also described to bind to an inhibitory Fc-receptor, termed Fc γ RIIb. Activation of Fc γ RIIb leads to a direct release of anti-inflammatory cytokines, decreases proliferation of B cells and inhibits endogenous immunoglobulin

production [94]. Furthermore, Ivlg themselves induce an upregulation of the FcγRIIb. FcγRIIb can crosslink with FcγRIII (CD16) and in this way reduce the pro-inflammatory effect of immune complexes.

Acceleration of auto-antibody catabolism by binding to FcRn

This theory addresses the ability of Ivlg to accelerate IgG catabolism. Normally, IgG enter the cell through pinocytosis and are degraded by the endosome/lysosome system. However, IgG can escape their degradation by binding to FcRn. These receptors are initially internalized but can re-circulate to the cell membrane (Figure 1). Ivlg application leads to an overflow of IgG in the circulation resulting in a saturation of FcRn. Therefore Ivlg can promote the catabolism of pathognomonic auto-antibodies found in Myasthenia gravis or the Lambert-Eaton syndrome [95].

Figure 1 Mechanism of exogenous IgG therapy based on the concept of FcRn saturation (adapted from Yu *et al.* [96])



Fcγ-receptors and their functions

FcγR are classified through their affinity towards the IgG molecule. One high affinity (CD64 – FcγRI) and two low affinity receptors (CD32 – FcγRII, CD16 – FcγRIII) can be distinguished. Engagement of FcγR triggers a variety of biological functions ranging from phagocytosis, antibody-dependent cell-mediated cytotoxicity (ADCC),

degranulation of preformed vesicles and transcriptional activation of cytokine coding genes [97]. FcγR are also responsible for demonetizing immunoglobulin complexes.

Table 5 Expression of human Fcγ-receptors (adapted from Takai *et al.* [97])

FcγRI	macrophage, monocyte, neutrophil, dendritic cell
FcγRIIa	macrophage, neutrophil, eosinophil, platelet, dentritic cell, NK cell
FcγRIIb	B cell, mast cell, dendritic cell, macrophage, eosinophil, neutrophil
FcγRIII	macrophage, monocyte, NK cell, mast cell, eosinophil, dendritic cell, T cell
FcRn	placenta, small intestine, monocyte, dendritic cell, endothelium

Table 6 Biological functions of human Fcγ-receptors (adapted from Flesch *et al.* [98])

	FcγRI	FcγRIIa	FcγRIIb	FcγRIII	FcRn
Endocytosis	+	+	-	+	-
Phagocytosis	+	+	-	+	-
ADCC	+	+	-	+	-
Superoxide production	+	+	-	+	-
Cytokine production	+	+	-	+	-
B cell downregulation	-	+	+	-	-
IgG regulation	-	-	-	-	+

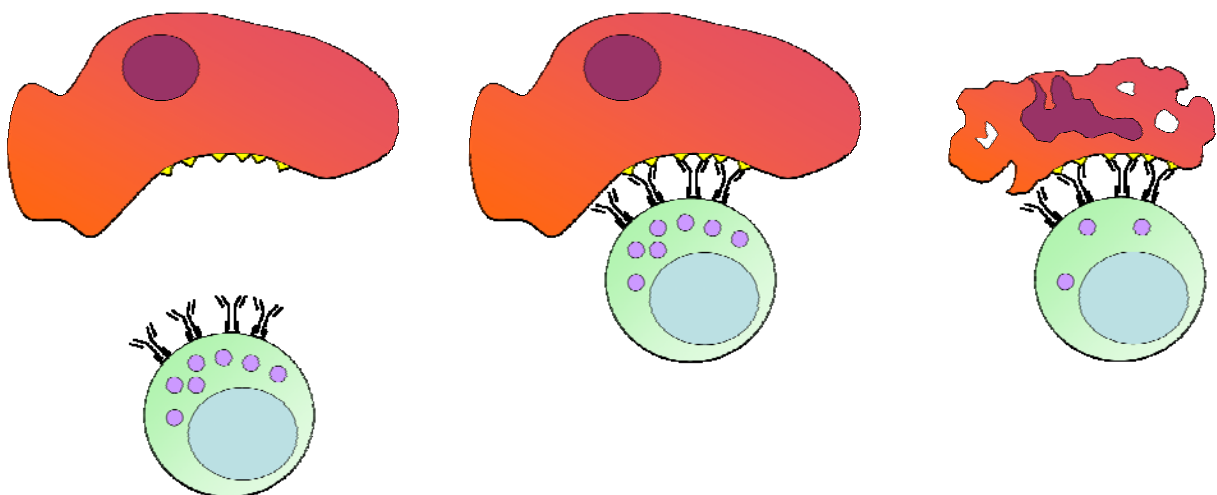
Antibody-dependent cell-mediated cytotoxicity

ADCC is an immune effector mechanism linking features of the innate and the adaptive immune system. Three components are required: a target antigen, an antigen-specific antibody and a Fc-receptor bearing effector cell. The antibody binds to the target cell's surface antigen leading to the crosslinking of Fc-receptors and a consecutive activation of effector cells (Figure 2) [99]. Natural killer (NK) cells, macrophages and neutrophils have been described to possess ADCC features. However, NK cells are considered most important. They kill their target cells mainly by releasing preformed granules containing granzymes and perforin.

Macrophages develop their ADCC effect by phagocytosis and by release of nitric oxide (NO), reactive oxygen radicals as well as a variety of proteases. They also use Fas/FasL interactions to lyse target cells [100]. Neutrophils have been described to exhibit ADCC through IgA receptors (CD89) leading to a direct injection of caspases into target cells [101-103].

ADCC in NK cells is mainly mediated through FcγRIII (CD16) and to a less content through FcγRII (CD32).

Figure 2 Mechanism of antibody-dependent cell-mediated cytotoxicity



CD4+CD25bright T cells (Tregs)

Treg (T regulatory) cells play a pivotal role in suppressing an immune response [104, 105]. Normally, they are produced in the thymus and therefore are also termed natural occurring Tregs (nTregs). However, they can also differentiate from naïve T cells in the periphery by certain stimuli (induced Tregs) [106, 107]. *In vitro* data suggest that T cell receptor triggering with a MHC bound self-peptide on cortical epithelial cells together with specific interactions of accessory molecules (CD28, B7, CD40) are imperative for the development of nTregs [108].

Tregs were found to be anergic *in vitro*. They cannot be stimulated by anti-CD3, or antigen presenting cells (APC). However, they are able to suppress proliferation of other responder T cells. nTregs do this in by close cell-cell contact, partly due to a perforin/granzyme-dependent cytolytic pathway [109-112]. Induced Tregs execute their anti-inflammatory properties mainly by secretion of high levels of IL-10 and transforming growth factor (TGF)- β [110, 113].

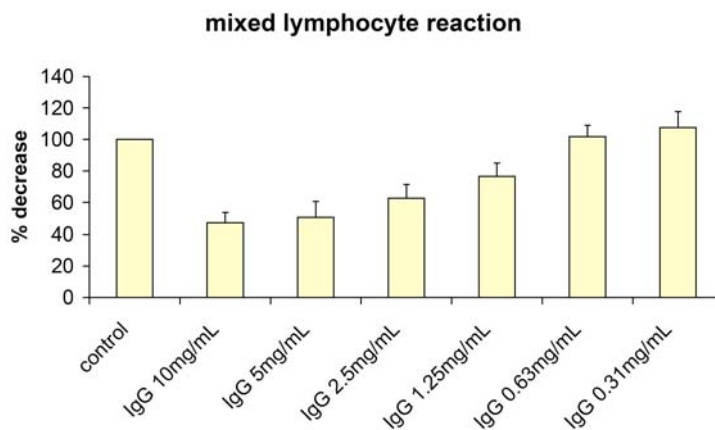
Tregs can be determined by their constitutively high expression of the IL-2R α chain and stain positive for intracellular FoxP3, a transcriptional factor imperative for Treg development and function [114].

RATIONALE AND AIM OF THE STUDY

Previous findings of our research group

Pooled human IgG purchased from a biochemical company (Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA) were tested in mixed lymphocyte cultures for their effects on cell proliferation. Addition of 10mg/mL of pooled IgG reduced the proliferation to 47% of maximal proliferative response (control). This reduction was dose-dependent and ceased at a IgG dose of 0.31mg/mL [115].

Figure 3 Anti-proliferative effects of pooled human IgG



Based upon this observation the zero hypothesis of this study was defined: Proliferation in blastogenesis assays is not influenced by the addition of CMVlg containing drugs.

The basis of this work was to evaluate anti-proliferative effects of CMVlg, the role of CMVlg on cell viability and the effect of CMVlg on NK cell effector functions. In detail the following parameters were important:

- a) Proliferation assays were performed, stimulating PBMC with either anti-CD3 in blastogenesis assays or irradiated allogeneic PBMC in mixed lymphocyte reactions (MLR). Results obtained from the proliferation assays were verified by carboxyfluorescein diacetate succinimidyl ester (CFSE) dilution experiments and cell cycle analysis. To evaluate the role of cytokines in these experiments, supernatants obtained from the blastogenesis assays were analyzed for anti-inflammatory and pro-inflammatory cytokines.

- b) To test apoptosis-inductive properties of CMVlg, PBMC were co-stained for Annexin/propidium iodide (PI) and assessed by flow cytometry. To determine the subpopulations most prone for apoptosis induction highly purified CD4+, CD8+, CD19+ and CD56+ were exposed to CMVlg.
- c) Morphologic features of PBMC exposed to CMVlg were assessed by transmission electron microscopy.
- d) The effect of CMVlg on NK effector cells was addressed by flow cytometric analysis of FcγRIII and cell membrane bound IgG. The functional relevance of these findings was confirmed by europium release ADCC assays.
- e) To quantify the effect of CMVlg on the inflammatory response of monocytes, cytokine release (IL-8, TNFα) after lipopolysaccharide (LPS)-stimulation was evaluated.
- f) To determine the ability of CMVlg to expand CD4+CD25bright cells *in vitro*, FACS analysis of CMVlg exposed PBMC were performed.

PROBAND SELECTION, STATISTICAL METHODS AND EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

Proband selection

Experiments were performed with PBMC obtained from healthy, young volunteers. The study protocol was approved by the ethics committee of the Medical University of Vienna (EC-No: 083/2006). The main outcome variable was the reduction of proliferation rates in MLRs and blastogenesis assays. A power analysis based upon preliminary data revealed a necessary sample size of n=10 to get a statistically significant statement.

Inclusion criteria: age>18, age<40.

Exclusion criteria: Autoimmune diseases, acute or chronic infections, malignancies, medication with immunomodulatory agents e.g. steroids. Probands, unable to give permission or probands taking part in another clinical study at the same time were excluded.

Statistical methods

Statistical analysis were performed using SPSS 14.0 software (SPSSInc., Chicago, IL, USA). Data are given as mean \pm standard error of the mean (SEM). Normal distribution was verified using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. Two sided students T-tests for paired and unpaired comparisons were used to calculate significances. P-values of 0.05 or lower were considered statistically significant. Bonferroni-Holm correction was applied to correct for multiple comparisons. For evaluation of ADCC data, areas under the curve (AUC), calculated by linear interpolation for each condition, were compared.

Blood samples and CMV hyperimmunoglobulin

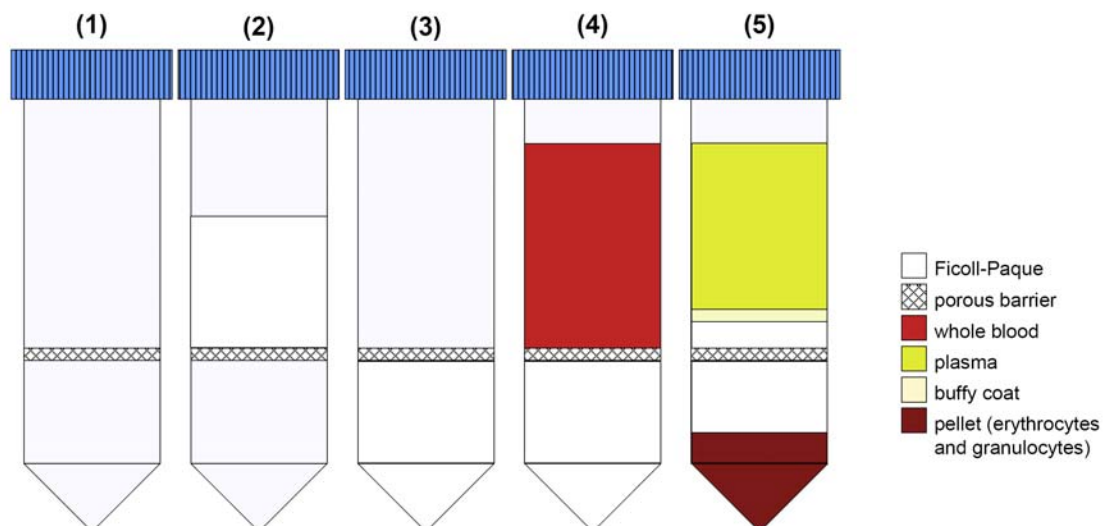
Samples of venous blood (anticoagulated by heparin) were freshly obtained from each proband. Experimental analysis were performed immediately after the blood draw in order to avoid loss of cell viability or functionality.

CMVlg were obtained from two different manufacturers (Cytotect by Biotest, Dreieich, Germany; Cytoglobin by Bayer, Leverkusen, Germany) and kept sterile at 4°C until used in the experiments. CMVlg were added to all experiments at therapeutic concentrations as described by Kwekkeboom *et al.* [116]. In control experiments CMVlg were replaced by medium. Dialysis of CMVlg with a 1kDa cut off for exclusion of stabilizing agents was additionally performed (Mini dialysis kit; Amersham Pharmacia Biotech, Uppsala, Sweden). This was due published data showing that stabilizing sugars had negative effects on cell viability and growth [117]. Dialysis of Cytotect and Cytoglobin had no effect in *in vitro* assays.

Separation of peripheral blood mononuclear cells

PBMC were separated by Ficoll density gradient centrifugation. Freshly obtained whole blood samples were diluted 1:2 in Hanks' Balanced Salt Solution (HBSS). 15mL Ficoll-Paque (GE healthcare, Uppsala, Sweden) were transferred to a 50mL Leucosept tube (Greiner, Frickenhausen, Germany) and centrifuged for one minute at 1000g bringing Ficoll under the porous barrier. Diluted whole blood was shifted upon the porous barrier and tubes were centrifuged for 15min at 800g at room temperature. The buffy coat containing PBMC was lifted off carefully (Figure 4). Cells were washed two times in HBSS, stained for viability with trypan blue (Sigma, St Louis, MO, USA) and counted on a hemacytometer (KX-21, Sysmex, Norderstedt, Germany).

Figure 4 Ficoll density gradient centrifugation



³[H]-thymidine proliferation assay

1×10^5 PBMC were re-suspended in 150 μ L of serum free Ultra Culture Medium (Cambrex Corp., NJ, USA) containing 0.2% gentamycinsulfate (Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA), 0.5% β -Mercapto-ethanol (Sigma, St Louis, MO, USA) and 1% L-Glutamin (Sigma, St Louis, MO, USA). For blastogenesis assays cells were stimulated with monoclonal antibodies (MoAb) to CD3 (10 μ g/mL, Becton Dickinson, Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA) for 48h at 37°C in a humidified atmosphere of 5% CO₂ in 96-well round-bottomed tissue culture plates (Figure 5a). For MLRs, 1×10^5 responder cells were added to irradiated (60 Gy) stimulator cells at a 1:1 ratio and cultured for 120h in an incubator (Figure 5b). CMVlg were applied in various concentrations, medium served as control. Cells were pulsed for 18h with ³[H]-thymidine ($3,7 \times 10^4$ Bq/well; Amersham Pharmacia Biotech, Uppsala, Sweden), harvested and thymidine uptake was measured in a liquid scintillation counter.

Figure 5a Model of an anti-CD3 blastogenesis assay

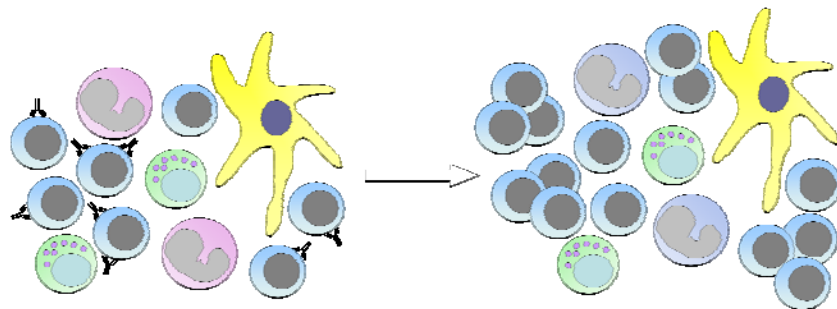
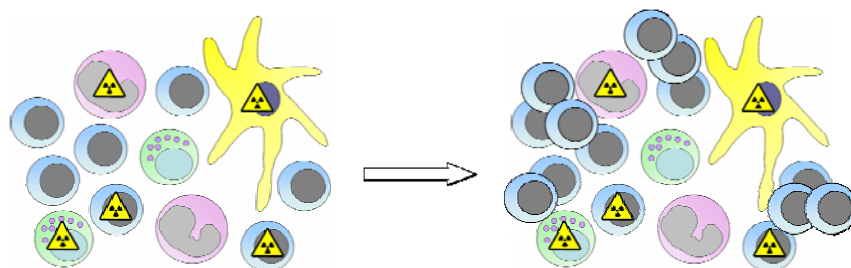


Figure 5b Model of a mixed lymphocyte reaction



CFSE dilution assay

1×10^7 PBMC were labelled with 5 μ M CFSE (Fluka BioChemika, Buchs, Switzerland) at room temperature for 10min. Labelling was stopped by addition of fetal calf serum (FCS). Cells were washed twice, resuspended in Ultra Culture Medium and stimulated with 10 μ g/mL anti-CD3 MoAb in a humidified incubator. CFSE dilution was measured after 48h on a flow cytometer FC500 (Beckman Coulter, Fullerton, CA, USA).

Cell cycle analysis

PBMC were stimulated with 10 μ g/mL anti-CD3 for 48h and stained for DNA content using a cell cycle test kit (Becton Dickinson, Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA); PI was utilized for DNA detection. Cells were measured on a flow cytometer and histograms were analyzed by ModFit LT software (Verity Software House, Topsham, ME, USA).

Apoptosis detection by flow cytometry

PBMC (3×10^5) in serum free Ultra Culture Medium were exposed to different CMVlg preparations and incubated in Cryovails (Simport, Beloeil, Canada) in a humidified atmosphere. For determination of apoptosis cells were transferred to 1.4mL Fluorescent-activated cell sorting (FACS) tubes (Micronic Systems, Lelystad, Netherlands), washed once in Annexin Binding Buffer (Becton Dickinson, Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA). Pre-experiments revealed 1 μ L of Annexin-fluorescein (FITC) and 1 μ L of PI (both Becton Dickinson, Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA) *ad* 50 μ L Annexin Binding Buffer a suitable amount for 5×10^4 cells to obtain optimal staining intensity. After addition of Annexin-FITC and PI tubes were incubated for 15min in the dark at room temperature. 500 μ L Annexin Binding Buffer were added and cells were analyzed on a Cytomics FC 500 (Beckman Coulter, Fullerton, CA, USA).

Morphologic analysis by transmission electron microscopy

1×10^6 PBMC were incubated with or without CMVlg for 12h. Cells were spun down at 270g for 7min and the material was processed according to standard electron

microscopical methods: fixation in 4% paraformaldehyde, pH 7.4, at 4°C, dehydration in a graded ethanol series and embedding in epoxy resin. Ultrathin sections (0,5µm) were cut on a Reichert ultra-microtome (OM U3, Ultracut S), stained with uranyl acetate/lead citrate and sections were examined on a Jeol 1200 EXII electron microscope.

Quantification of CD4+CD25bright cells

Amount of CD4+CD25bright cells was analyzed following a protocol from a publication by Lopez *et al.*, who evidenced tolerance inducing effects of ATG [118]. $3 \cdot 10^5$ PBMC were cultured in 450µL Ultra Culture Medium at 37°C with various concentrations of CMVlg. After 24h cells were stained for CD4 and CD25 expression (antibodies obtained from Becton Dickinson, Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA) and evaluated by flow cytometry.

Effect of CMV hyperimmunoglobulin on LPS-stimulated monocytes

Monocytes were separated from PBMC using CD14+ magnetic beads (positive selection, Miltenyi Biotec GmbH, Bergisch Gladbach, Germany). Purity obtained by this system was determined by flow cytometry as 96% CD14+ expressing cells (data not shown). $5 \cdot 10^4$ purified monocytes were pre-incubated with therapeutic concentrations of CMVlg for 4h in 96-well round-bottomed plates. Cells were stimulated for 4h with 1ng/mL LPS (Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA). Supernatants were collected and kept at -80°C till further tests were performed.

IL-2, IL-10, IFN γ , TNF α and IL-8 ELISA

Cytokines were measured utilizing ELISA kits (BenderMedSystems, Vienna, Austria) following the manufacturer's instructions. In detail plates were either supplied pre-coated or coated, sealed and incubated over night at 4°C. Plates were washed (Phosphate buffered saline (PBS) + 0.05% Tween20) and blocked with Assay buffer (PBS, 0.05% Tween20, 0.5% bovine serum albumin (BSA)) for two hours at room temperature. Standards or samples and a biotin conjugated detection antibody were added to each well and incubated for another two hours. Plates were washed and

streptavidin-horseradish peroxidase (HRP) conjugate was added. 3,3',5,5'-Tetramethylbenzidine (TMB) was used as substrate solution (Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA) and the enzymatic colour reaction was stopped with 1N sulphuric acid. Plates were read at 450nm on a Wallac Multilabel counter 1420 (PerkinElmer, Waltham, MA, USA). Cytokine concentrations were calculated by comparing optical density (OD) values of samples with OD of known concentrations of the standards.

Cell cultures

Jurkat (human, peripheral blood, leukemia T cells) and PANC-1 (pancreatic cancer cells) (both American Type Culture Collection, Manassas, VA, USA) were cultured in RPMI-1640 (Cambrex Corp., NJ, USA) supplemented with 10% heat shock inactivated FCS and 0.2% gentamycinsulfate at 37°C in a humidified atmosphere of 5% CO₂. Cells were split twice per week; 0.25% trypsin (Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA) was used to re-suspend adherent cells.

Measurement of ADCC by europium release assays

Target cells were counted and split one day before the killing assay to a concentration of 1×10^5 cells per mL in order to obtain exponential growth.

Target cells: 5×10^6 target cells were labelled with 1mL of labelling buffer supplemented with 20mM Eu(CH₃COO)³⁺, 100mM diethylenetriaminopentaacetate and 0.5mg of dextran sulphate for 15 min at room temperature with occasional shaking. 20µL of stop solution (100mM CaCl₂) were added, cells were washed three times in repair buffer and re-suspended in Ultra Culture Medium. After incubation for 60min cells were stained for their viability using trypan blue and added to a 96-well round-bottomed assay plate.

Effector cells: Freshly obtained PBMC or highly purified NK cells were pre-incubated with CMVlg or Ultra Culture Medium (serving as control) for 4h. Cells were counted and cell number was corrected for viability before added to plates.

Effector/target ratio ranged from 50:1 to 1.6:1 each ratio arranged in triplets. The incubation period was 4h at 37°C in a humidified atmosphere of 5% CO₂. Then plates were centrifuged at 280g for 5min, 30µL supernatant were transferred to a 96-well flat-bottomed plate (Nunc, Roskilde, Denmark) and 100µL of an enhancement

solution (PerkinElmer, Boston, USA) were added. ADCC was measured by time-resolved fluorometry (PerkinElmer, Waltham, MA, USA). Specific cytotoxic activity was calculated by the following formula:

$$\% \text{ cytotoxicity} = \frac{(\text{experimental release} - \text{spontaneous release})}{(\text{total release} - \text{spontaneous release})} \times 100$$

Total release was determined by adding 2% Triton X-100 (Sigma, St Louis, MO, USA) to target cells.

RESULTS

Anti-proliferative effects of CMVIg

³[H]-thymidine proliferation assay

To address the question if CMVIg possess anti-proliferative properties anti-CD3 blastogenesis assays and MLRs were performed. Both, Cytotect and Cytoglobin reduced proliferation rates in a dose-dependent manner. These effects ceased at concentrations of 0.08mg/mL. In the therapeutic concentration of 2.5mg/mL stimulation indices were reduced to a mean of 36±4.6% of the control value.

Figure 6 Anti-proliferative effects of CMVIg in MLRs

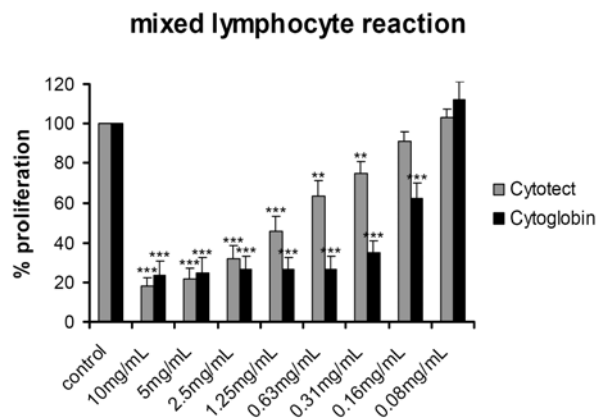


Figure 7 Anti-proliferative effects of CMVIg in blastogenesis assays

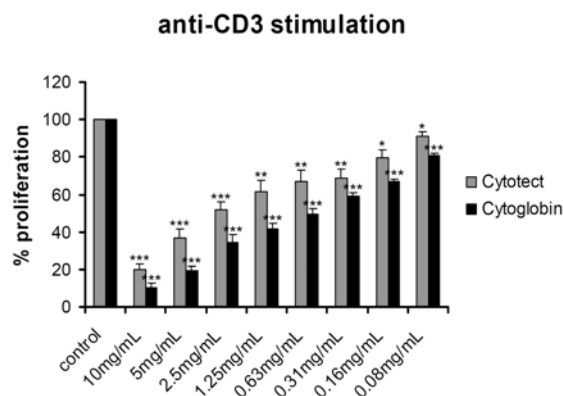


Figure 6 and 7 show anti-proliferative properties of Cytotect and Cytoglobin in MLRs and blastogenesis assays. Cytoglobin seems to be more potent in inhibiting clonal proliferation when compared to Cytotect (* p<0.05; ** p<0.001; *** p<0.0001; n=10).

To verify data obtained from the proliferation experiments, light microscopic evaluations were performed. PBMC cultures stimulated with MoAb to CD3 were exposed to therapeutic concentrations of CMVlg.

Figure 8 Light microscopic evaluations of anti-proliferative properties of CMVlg

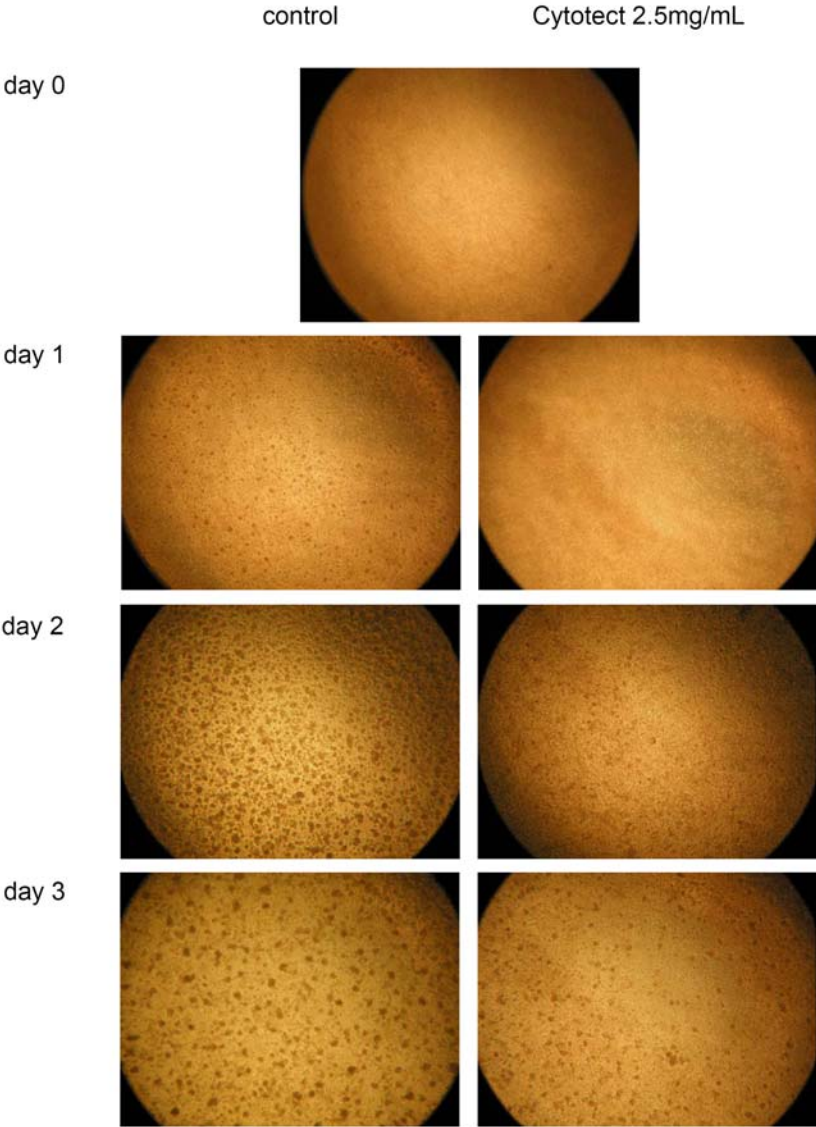


Figure 8 shows time resolved, light microscopic evaluations of one representative proband at a 40-fold magnification. The knobs indicate cell clusters of proliferating PBMC. Number of proliferation clusters considerably decreased by co-incubation with Cytotect. Similar results were obtained in MLRs and by adding Cytoglobin (data not shown).

CFSE dilution assays

CFSE dilution assays were performed to testify results obtained from the thymidine assays. Combined data of 10 probands demonstrated that the percentage of proliferating cells decreased from 24.1 ± 2.5 (control) to 8.4 ± 1.7 (Cytotect) and 5.3 ± 1.0 (Cytoglobin).

Figure 9 CMVlg reduce proliferation upon anti-CD3 stimulation measured in CFSE dilution assays

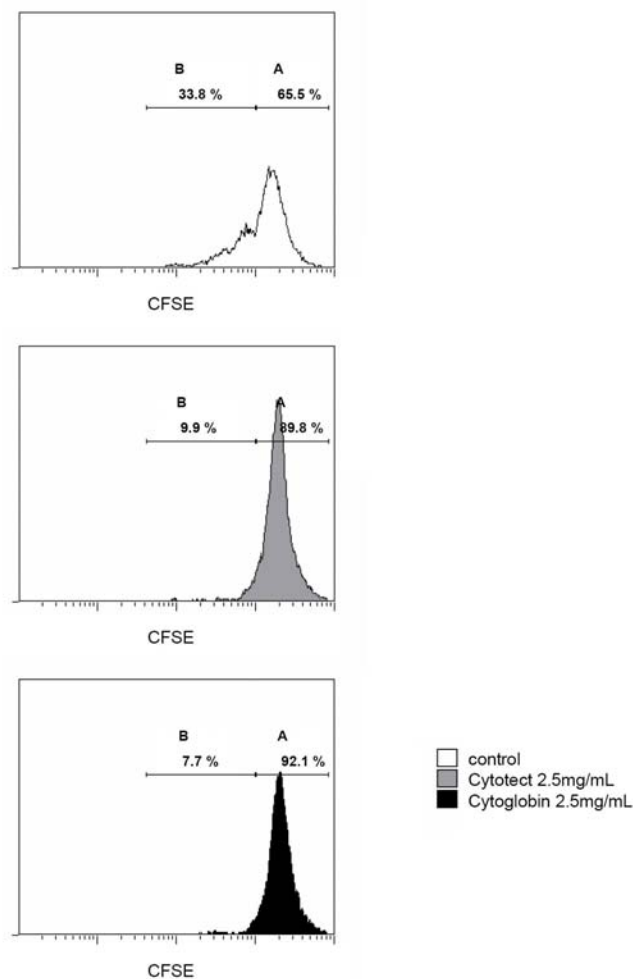


Figure 9 depicts a representative CFSE dilution experiment. The addition of CMVlg resulted in a nearly complete aberration of proliferation.

Table 7 Summarized results (n=10) of the CFSE dilution assays

	% resting cells	% proliferating cells
control	75.4 ± 2.5	24.1 ± 2.5 ^{†‡}
Cytotect 2.5mg/mL	91.3 ± 1.6	8.4 ± 1.7 [†]
Cytoglobin 2.5mg/mL	94.3 ± 1.0	5.3 ± 1.0 [‡]

Summarized data of CFSE dilution assays are shown in Table 7. A significant reduction of proliferating cells was observed after co-incubation with CMVlg ([†] p<0.001, [‡] p<0.001; n=10).

Cell cycle analysis

Cell cycle analysis of CMVlg co-incubated PBMC revealed a significant reduction of transition of resting G0/G1 cells to S and G2/M phase when compared to control cells.

Table 8 Cell cycle analysis of peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMC) exposed to CMVlg

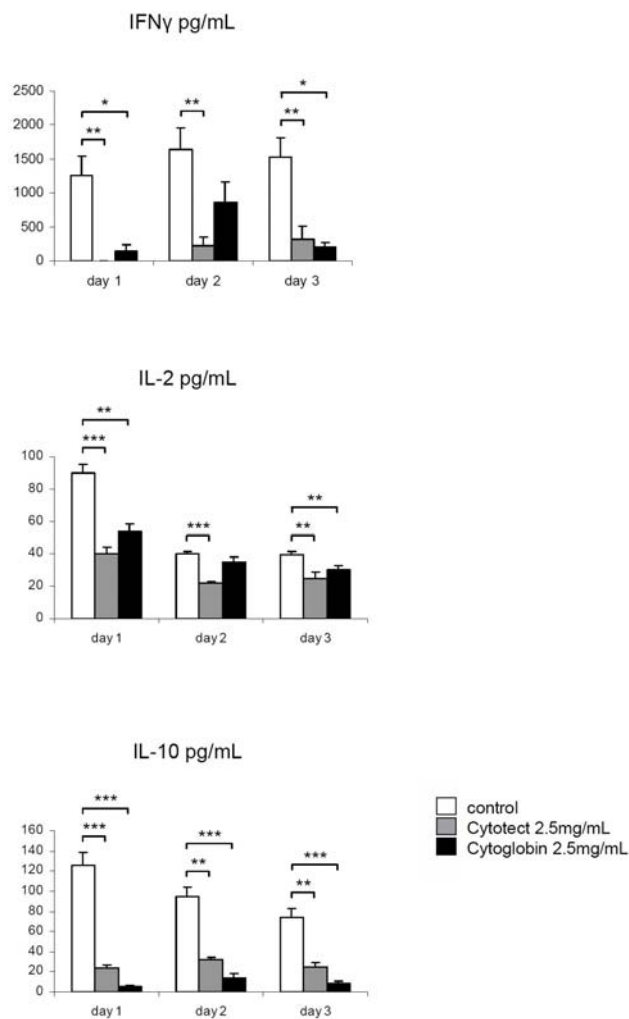
	% G0/G1	% S	% G2/M
control	85.3 ± 2.9	11.7 ± 2,3 ^{†‡}	3.0 ± 0,7 ^{†‡}
Cytotect 2.5mg/mL	98.8 ± 0.3	1.1 ± 0,3 [†]	0.1 ± 0,1 [†]
Cytoglobin 2.5mg/mL	95.9 ± 1.4	3.7 ± 1,1 [‡]	0.4 ± 0,4 [‡]

Table 8 shows results of cell cycle analysis performed in T cell triggered PBMC. Co-incubation with CMVlg led to a massive decrease of cells residing in S and G2/M-phase. These data confirm CFSE dilution experiments ([†] p<0.05; [‡] p<0.05; n=10).

Reduction of cytokine release by CMVlg

To evaluate the influence of CMVlg on cytokine release supernatants of anti-CD3 simulated PBMC cultures exposed to CMVlg were collected. Samples were evaluated utilizing ELISA kits. Interestingly, cells treated with CMVlg significantly reduced cytokine secretion. This phenomenon was observed for pro-inflammatory – IL-2, interferon (IFN) γ – as well as for anti-inflammatory cytokines – IL-10.

Figure 10 Cytokine release of PBMC is reduced by co-incubation with CMVlg



Cytokines released by PBMC cultures co-incubated with Cytotect and Cytoglobin are shown in Figure 10. All three mainly T cell derived cytokines were significantly reduced (*p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001; n=10).

CMVlg induce apoptosis in PBMC

To test the influence of CMVlg on cell viability flow cytometric analysis of CMVlg treated PBMC were performed. The percentage of Annexin positive cells was significantly increased in the CMVlg groups when compared to the control. A subsequent rise in the Annexin/PI double positive cells, indicating late apoptosis, was observed (data not shown). When comparing Cytotect and Cytoglobin data, Cytoglobin seems to display a greater effect on cell viability than Cytotect.

Figure 11 CMVlg induce apoptosis in resting PBMC

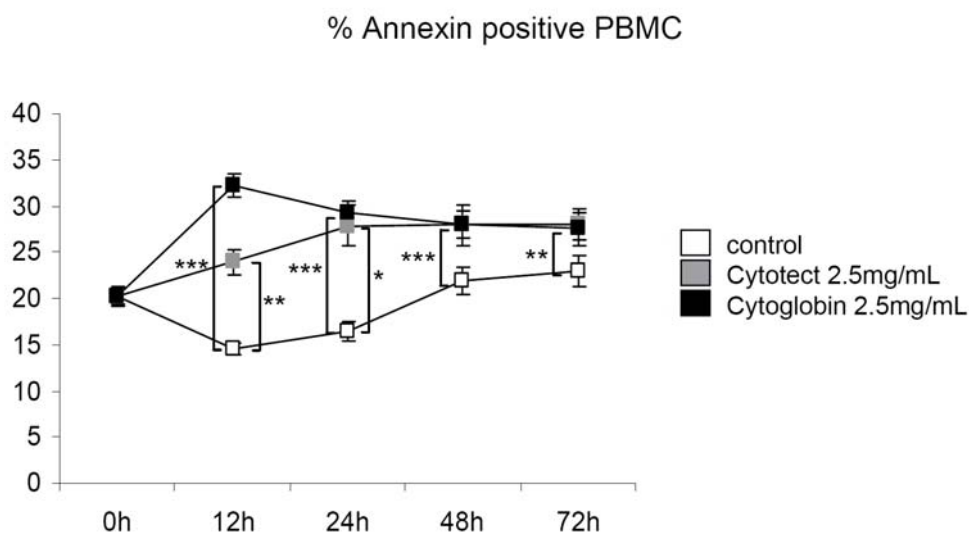
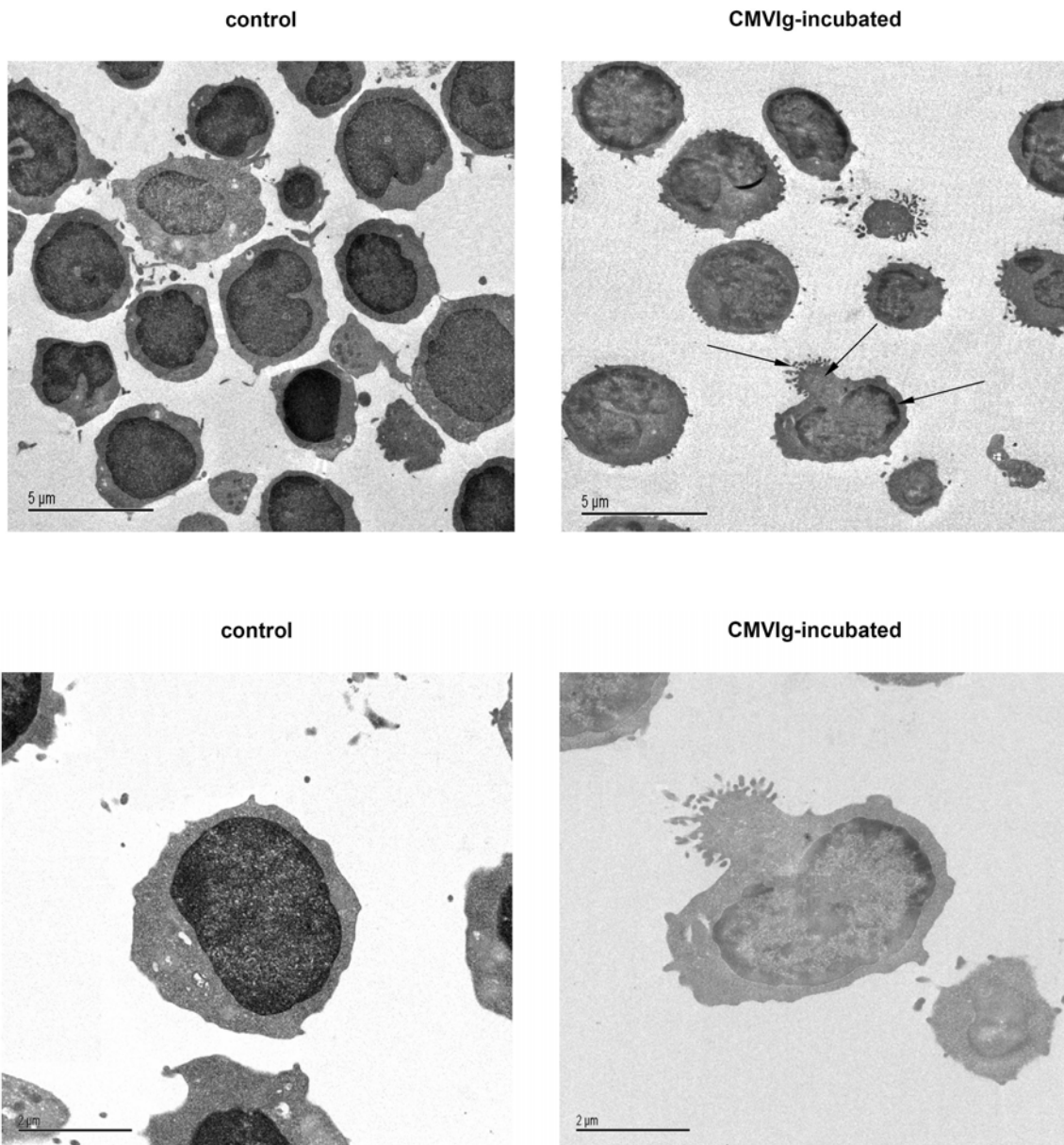


Figure 11 depicts the potency of CMVlg to induce apoptosis in resting PBMC. Percentage Annexin positive cells significantly increased by co-incubation of PBMC with CMVlg. This effect reached highest significance at the time point 12h (control: $14.5 \pm 0.8\%$; Cytotect: $23.9 \pm 1.3\%$; Cytoglobin: $32.3 \pm 1.3\%$).

These apoptosis-inducing properties of CMVlg were confirmed by ultrastructural electron microscopic analysis. CMVlg treated PBMC showed typical apoptotic features whereas control cells displayed normal morphology of resting PBMC.

Figure 12 Electron microscopic evaluation of the apoptosis-inductive potency of CMVlg



Ultrastructural changes in cell morphology of CMVlg treated PBMC are shown in Figure 12. Upon CMVlg incubation cells developed typical apoptotic features (e.g. formation of apoptotic bodies, cell membrane blebbing, chromatin condensation - arrows). Control cells remained unchanged.

Purified NK cells and CD8+ cells are sensitive to CMVlg-induced apoptosis

To identify cell types being most sensitive to CMVlg-induced apoptosis CD4+, CD8+, CD19+ and CD56+ cells were purified by a magnetic bead system. Interestingly, viability of “effector” cells (cytotoxic T cells and NK cells) was most affected by CMVlg.

Figure 13 Evaluation of the sensitivity of PBMC subpopulations for apoptosis induction by CMVlg

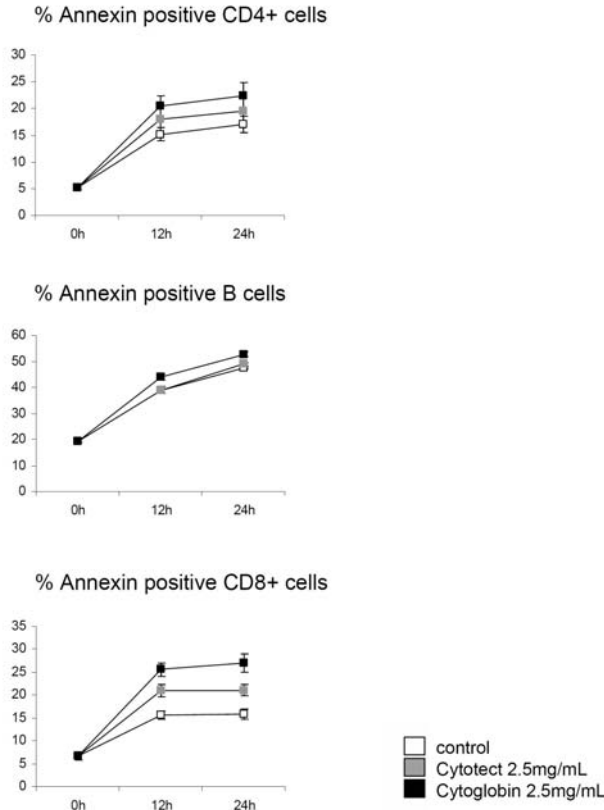
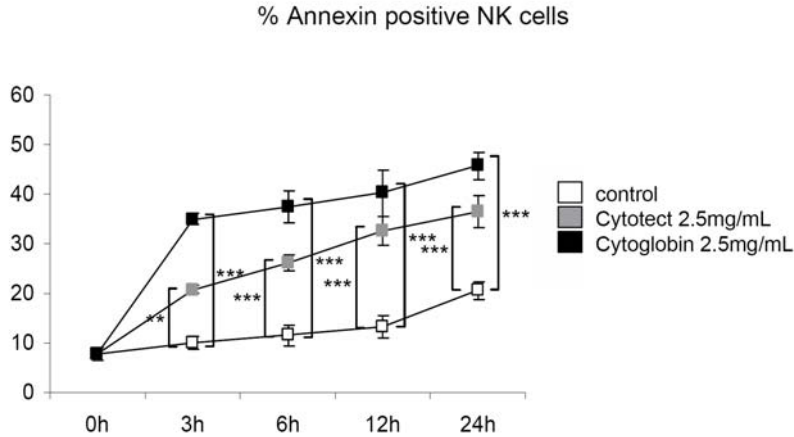


Figure 13 demonstrates the sensitivity of CD4+, CD19+ and CD8+ cells to undergo apoptosis upon CMVlg incubation. CD8+ cells were most prone for CMVlg-induced apoptosis whereas CD4+ and B cells were hardly affected.

Figure 14 CMVlg induce apoptosis in highly purified NK cells



CMVlg induced apoptosis of highly purified NK cells is shown in Figure 14. Both Cytotect and Cytoglobin were potent inducers of programmed cell death when compared to untreated control NK cells (*p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001; n=10).

FcγRIII and cell surface bound IgG is downregulated by CMVlg

Based on the apoptosis data obtained for NK cells, we sought to evaluate the role of CMVlg on NK cell effector functions. Therefore, the influence of CMVlg on cell surface bound IgG and on the expression of the low affinity FcγRIII (CD16) was evaluated by flow cytometric analysis. Both surface proteins were shown to be downregulated.

Figure 15 CMVlg lead to losing of cell surface bound IgG and FcγRIII in purified NK cells

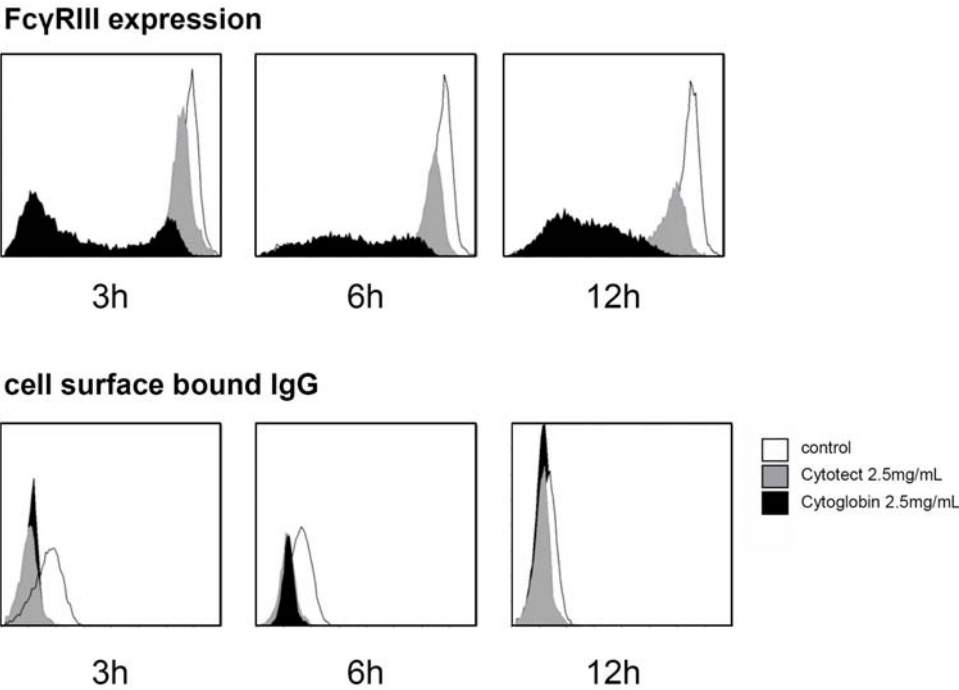


Figure 15 shows flow cytometric evaluation of a representative proband indicating that CMVlg significantly reduced cell surface bound IgG and density of FcγRIII in purified NK cells.

Table 9 Cell surface bound IgG and FcγRIII on purified NK cells are downregulated by CMVlg (n=10)

cell bound IgG - mean fluorescence			
	control	Cytotect 2.5mg/mL	Cytoglobin 2.5mg/mL
0h	1.32 ± 0.50	1.32 ± 0.50	1.32 ± 0.50
3h	0.62 ± 0.16 ^{†‡}	0.38 ± 0.12 [†]	0.47 ± 0.10 [‡]
6h	0.50 ± 0.13	0.38 ± 0.03	0.39 ± 0.02
12h	0.39 ± 0.04	0.34 ± 0.03	0.39 ± 0.06

CD16 expression - mean fluorescence			
	control	Cytotect 2.5mg/mL	Cytoglobin 2.5mg/mL
0h	286.00 ± 66.11	286.00 ± 66.11	286.00 ± 66.11
3h	224.38 ± 54.23 ^{#§}	131.90 ± 52.71 [#]	39.66 ± 20.30 [§]
6h	200.25 ± 52.43 ^{#§}	91.89 ± 44.42 [#]	19.26 ± 8.97 [§]
12h	163.63 ± 61.93 ^{#§}	57.01 ± 39.22 [#]	8.65 ± 5.53 [§]

Summarized data of the CD16 and FcγRIII FACS evaluations are shown in Table 9. The losing of membrane bound IgG reached significance at the 3h time point whereas the downregulation of FcγRIII dragged behind († p<0.05; ‡ p<0.05; # p<0.001; § p<0.001).

CMVlg reduce ADCC of PBMC and purified NK cells

Finally, based on the impact of CMVlg on NK cell viability and downregulation of FcγRIII, we sought to extend these findings by quantifying ADCC against PANC-1 and Jurkat target cells. Immune function against these two tumor cell lines was significantly reduced when effector cells were pre-incubated with CMVlg.

Figure 16 PBMC and purified NK cells evidence a decrease in antibody dependent cellular cytotoxicity

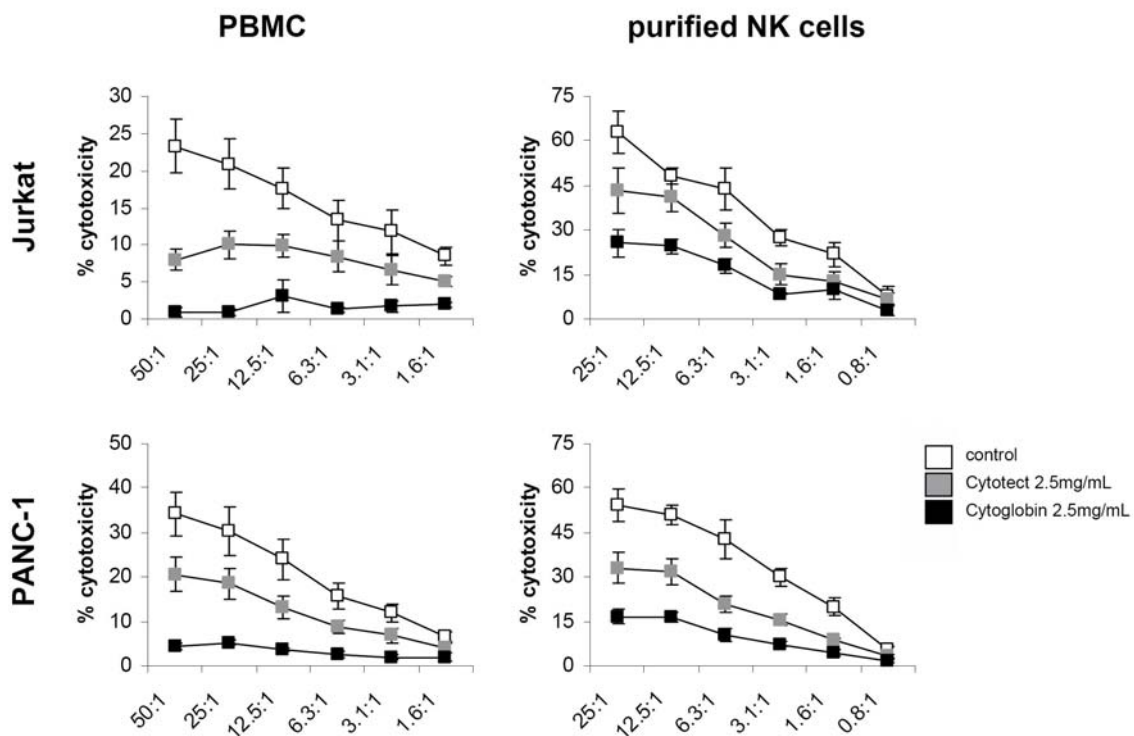
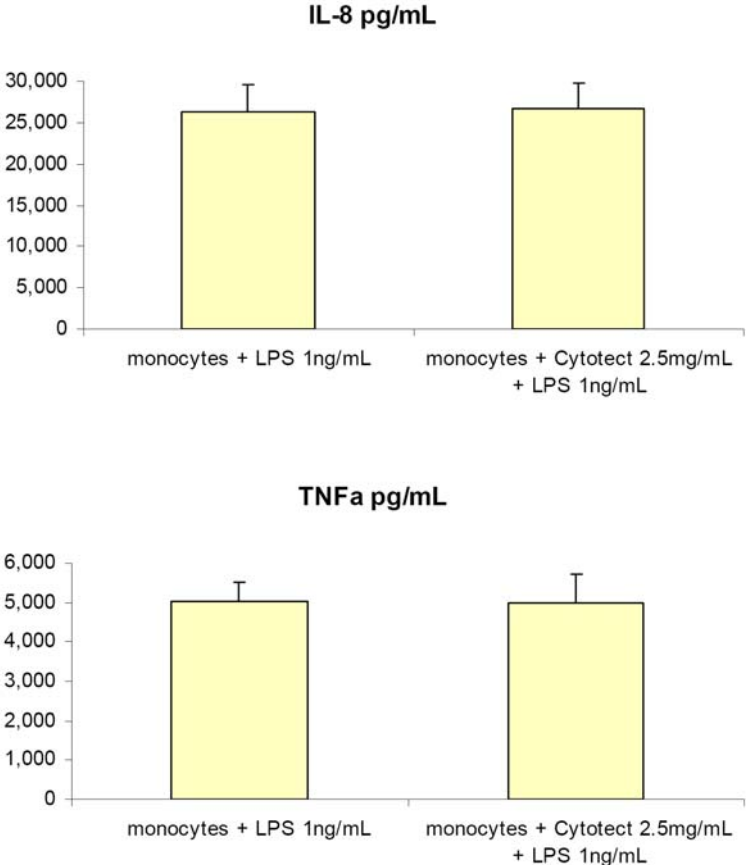


Figure 16 shows natural occurring cytotoxicity of PBMC against Jurkat and PANC-1 after pre-incubation with therapeutic CMVlg concentrations. ADCC was significantly reduced when cells were pre-incubated with Cytotect and Cytoglobin. This effect was seen at all different effector/target ratios ranging from 50:1 to 1.6:1 and was comparable at both target cell lines. Significances refer to comparison between AUC as described in the Material and Methods section. PBMC-Jurkat: control 944.9 ± 148.5 Cytotect: 434.7 ± 71.0 ($p < 0.01$) Cytoglobin: 68.7 ± 37.9 ($p < 0.05$); PBMC-PANC-1: control: 1327.2 ± 220.9 , Cytotect: 785.0 ± 145.2 ($p < 0.05$), Cytoglobin: 205.2 ± 23.8 ($p < 0.001$); NK cells-Jurkat: control 1138.5 ± 82.4 , Cytotect: 844.1 ± 98.2 ($p < 0.05$), Cytoglobin: 510.2 ± 57.0 ($p < 0.05$); NK cells-PANC-1: control 1120.6 ± 101.8 , Cytotect: 653.9 ± 85.7 ($p < 0.01$), Cytoglobin: 331.6 ± 44.8 ($p < 0.001$) ($n = 10$).

CMVlg do not interfere with NfκB dependent pathway of monocytes

A minor objective of this study was to evaluate the impact of CMVlg on NfκB dependent signal pathway in monocytes. Therefore LPS-stimulated monocytes were exposed to CMVlg and supernatants were evaluated for NfκB associated cytokines.

Figure 17 CMVlg do not influence cytokine release of stimulated monocytes



To evaluate if CMVlg interfere with NfκB pathway, LPS-stimulated purified monocytes were analyzed for their NfκB dependent cytokine release. Levels of TNFα and the chemokine IL-8 were not affected by the addition of Cytotect to the experiment indicating that CMVlg do not influence NfκB pathway in monocytes.

CD4+CD25bright cells are not expanded by CMVlg

Recently, the ability of antithymocyte globuline (ATG) to expand Tregs *in vitro* has been described [118]. As the effective components of ATG are polyclonal antibodies we sought to evaluate if CMVlg preparations also have the capacity to induce CD4+CD25bright cells *in vitro*.

Figure 18 CMVlg do no expand CD4+CD25bright cells *in vitro*

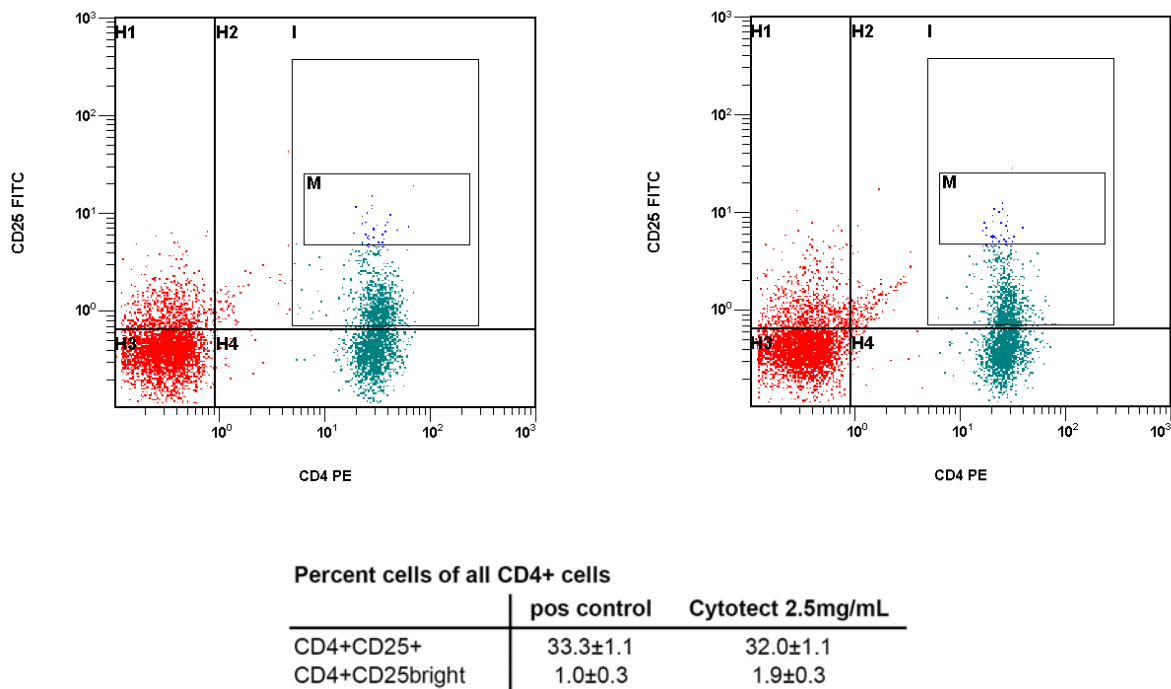


Figure 18 and the incorporated table show summarized data of 10 probands indicating that Cytotect did not induce Treg differentiation. Hence there is strong evidence that the anti-proliferative effects seen in the MLRs and in the anti-CD3 stimulations are not due to the induction of suppressor T cells but are either a direct cellular effect of CMVlg or an indirect effect caused by modulation of cytokine profiles.

DISCUSSION

CMVlg have been routinely administered at the Viennese Heart Transplant Center since 1987 as prophylaxis against CMV disease during the post-transplant period. Their anti-viral effects are sufficiently described in literature and have been confirmed in several meta-analysis [47-51].

CMVlg are produced by pooling immunoglobulins of hundreds seropositive donors. Ivlg, also consisting of pooled immunoglobulins, are a drug class related to CMVlg. Immunomodulatory effects of Ivlg are well known and have been addressed in many studies (reviewed in [119]).

The aim of this study was to evaluate if CMVlg also possess such immunomodulatory properties making them an additional useful tool for immunosuppressive drug regimen in the early post-transplant course.

Both purchasable CMVlg compounds, currently licensed in Austria were analyzed in this study (Cytotect from Biotest, Cytoglobin from Bayer).

We could show for the first time that CMVlg exhibit remarkable anti-proliferative activity in *in vitro* stimulation assays. Similar effects have been published for Ivlg. Several mechanisms being responsible for the anti-proliferative effects of Ivlg have been suggested. Nachbaur *et al.* showed that Ivlg inhibited IL-2 protein synthesis, whereas no influence on IL-2 mRNA expression was observed [120]. A blockade of IFN γ or CD4 by neutralizing antibodies found in Ivlg preparations was suggested by other investigators [87, 121]. Vuist *et al.* demonstrated that Ivlg contain antibodies against glycolipids expressed on lymphocytes leading to an Ivlg-induced growth attenuation [122]. More recently, Jordan *et al.* evidenced that antibodies directed against MHC class I and II as well as T cell receptor molecules are found in Ivlg. They were shown to directly interfere with the allo-antigen recognition process in MLRs [123].

The attenuation of proliferation by CMVlg, either upon T cell triggering or in an allogeneic MLR, was associated with an increased apoptotic turnover proved by Annexin/PI co-staining in flow cytometric analysis. Morphologic studies underlined these findings by showing that typical apoptotic features can be found in CMVlg treated PBMC cultures.

To answer the question which cells are most affected by the addition of CMVlg we purified different cell populations with a magnetic bead separation system. Interestingly, cytolytic effector cells are most affected by CMVlg – namely CD8+ T cells and NK cells. Both cell populations are known to play a pivotal role in acute rejection episodes.

The role of CD8+ cells in acute allograft rejection has been known for a long time [124, 125]. Cytotoxic T cells amount half of all graft infiltrating cells in biopsies obtained from patients experiencing an acute rejection period [126]. CD8+ cells need pre-activation *via* IL-2 and IFN γ , secreted by CD4+ cells, to exhibit their cytolytic properties. The two main mechanisms thereby are: (1) pore formation resulting in a colloid osmotic collapse of the target cell and (2) the release of pro-apoptotic proteins (granzyme B, FasL).

The role of NK cells in acute allograft rejection has traditionally not been a highlight in transplant research. Although early morphological studies of biopsies obtained during rejection periods have shown that NK cells are part of the inflammatory infiltrate [127], the role of NK cells in allo-immune response has only been addressed recently [128, 129]. Maier *et al.* reported evidence that NK cells provide an alternative source of T cell help thus contributing to the acute rejection of wild-type hearts transplanted into CD28-deficient mice [130].

Madsen and colleagues found that NK cells also play an important role in chronic graft dysfunction. They demonstrated that NK cells were able to be activated in the absence of self MHC class I molecules on donor endothelium and by that mechanism participate in the pathogenesis of transplant-associated coronary artery disease (TACAD) [131].

An important question arising from the data on anti-proliferation and apoptosis induction is whether the reduction of clonal proliferation is a sole effect of CMVlg or the consequence of an increased apoptotic turnover, leaving fewer cells to proliferate. Transmission electron microscopy revealed that anti-proliferation and apoptosis are most likely two independent mechanisms. Cells featuring typical apoptotic morphology were found in direct neighbourhood to resting cells – unaffected by the proliferative stimuli.

To specify these findings we performed CFSE dilution assays and cell cycle analysis. Co-incubation with CMVlg resulted in significantly increased cell numbers remaining

in G0/G1 phase as compared to the control condition. These data demonstrate that anti-proliferative effects and induction of apoptosis primarily in CD8+ and NK cells are two clearly independent mechanisms.

Another important aspect of this work was the influence of CMVlg on the FcγR system of NK cells. Two different observations were made:

- (1) **Discharging of membrane bound IgG.** Within the first three hours of CMVlg-incubation, density of membrane bound IgG proteins was massively reduced on NK cells. Furthermore, vacant FcγR were not filled up with IgG from CMVlg preparations. These findings were rather surprising because they are in conflict to the concept of Ivlg exhibiting their immunomodulatory effect partly through the blockade of Fc-receptors [72].
- (2) **CMVlg evidenced a downregulation of low affinity FcγRIII.** Ichiyama *et al.* could show in a monocyte cell line (U-937) that Ivlg application leads to a downregulation of the high-affinity FcγRI [132]. This work confirms their findings in PBMC cultures (data not shown) and extends their observations to NK cells. Density of the low affinity FcγRIII (CD16) on NK cells was diminished by co-incubation with CMVlg. The ablation of FcγRIII could be seen mainly between 6 and 12 hours after CMVlg incubation. Therefore, the retraction of “oven” receptors seems to be a direct consequence of the losage of receptor bound IgG.

The effects of CMVlg on NK cells led to the hypothesis that CMVlg reduce ADCC, the main NK cell effector mechanism against an allograft. We could prove this theory by standard europium release cytotoxicity assays against Jurkat and PANC-1 cell lines. Pre-incubation of PBMC as well as highly purified NK cells with different CMVlg preparations resulted in a dose dependent reduction of ADCC. Moreover, these results corroborate work showing that co-incubation of NK cells with anti-CD16 led to NK cell apoptosis, alteration of NK phenotype (CD56+/CD16^{bright} to CD56+/CD16^{dim}) and decreased NK cell effector function [133].

Anti-proliferative effects and apoptosis induction are accepted mechanisms to obtain an immunological anergic state – the so-called functional graft tolerance [134]. The standard drug regimen to achieve such functional graft tolerance is a triple

immunosuppressive therapy consisting of an anti-proliferative drug (azathioprin, mycophenoic acid), a calcineurin inhibitor (cyclosporine, tacrolimus) and glucocorticoids (prednisolone). In addition to this standard regimen an induction therapy with monoclonal antibodies directed against T cell epitopes (antithymocyte globulin, OKT-3, anti-IL2-receptor antibodies) is performed in most heart transplant centers worldwide.

By showing that CMVlg also exhibit anti-proliferative effects and induce apoptosis in effector cells, their application could help achieving functional graft tolerance and could therefore have a beneficial influence on acute graft rejection and formation of TACAD.

The *in vitro* findings of this work are underlined by clinical data of the Viennese Heart Transplant Center. Since CMVlg prophylaxis with Cytotect has been introduced in the 80s, rejections rates are one of the lowest reported in the world. The observations made in the Viennese center is confirmed by data from clinical trials indicating that the application of CMVlg is beneficiary in regard to graft survival and overall mortality when compared to CMV immune prophylaxis with anti-viral drugs [135, 136].

The results of this work extend the current concept of CMVlg as passive CMV prophylaxis to a therapeutic drug compound capable of reducing allogeneic immune response. In respect to the clinical observation of low incidence in allograft rejection rates and TACAD formation it is tempting to suggest that administration of CMVlg in the early post-transplant course has a beneficial effect on graft survival.

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ABBREVIATIONS

ADCC	Antibody-dependent cell-mediated cytotoxicity
AIDS	Acquired immune deficiency syndrome
ANCA	Anti-neutrophil cytoplasmatic antibodies
APC	Antigen presenting cells
ATG	Antithymocyte globuline
AUC	Area under the curve
BSA	Bovine serum albumin
CFSE	Carboxyfluorescein diacetate succinimidyl ester
CMV	Cytomegalovirus
CMVlg	CMV hyperimmunoglobulin
CTLA	Cytotoxic T-lymphocyte antigen
D	Donor
DNA	Deoxyribonucleic acid
E	Reference units of the Paul-Ehrlich institute
ELISA	Enzyme linked immunosorbent assay
FACS	Fluorescent-activated cell sorting
FCS	Fetal calf serum
FcyR	Fcy-receptors
FITC	Fluorescein
GM-CSF	Granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor
GvH	Graft versus host
HBSS	Hanks' balanced salt solution
HBV	Hepatitis B virus
HCV	Hepatitis C virus
HIV	Human immunodeficiency virus
HRP	Horseradish peroxidase
HSV	Herpes simplex virus
IBS	Inflammatory bowel diseases
IFN	Interferon
Ig	Immunoglobulin
IgA	Immunoglobulin A
IgG	Immunoglobulin G
IgM	Immunoglobulin M
IL	Interleukine
iv	Intravenous
Ivlg	Intravenous immunoglobulin
ISHLT	International Society for Heart and Lung Transplantation
Jurkat	human, peripheral blood, leukemia T cells
LPS	Lipopolysaccharide
MHC	Major histocompatibility complex
MLR	Mixed lymphocyte reaction
MoAb	Monoclonal antibodies
MS	Multiple sclerosis
NA	Not available
NfkB	Nuclear factor kappa B
NK cells	Natural killer cells
NO	Nitric oxide
OD	Optical density
PANC-1	Pancreatic cancer cells

PBMC	Peripheral blood mononuclear cells
PBS	Phosphate buffered saline
PI	Propidium iodide
R	Recipient
RA	Rheumatoid arthritis
SLE	Systemic lupus erythematosus
TACAD	Transplant-associated coronary artery disease
TGF	Transforming growth factor
TMB	3,3',5,5'-Tetramethylbenzidine
TNF	Tumor necrosis factor
Tregs	T regulatory cells
VZV	Varicella zoster virus

APPENDIX

Publication

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Cytomegalovirus hyperimmunoglobulin: mechanisms in allo-immune response *in vitro*

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Abstract

Background Cytomegalovirus hyperimmunoglobulin (CMVig) containing drugs are routinely administered in cardiac transplantation for prophylaxis against CMV disease. Yet little is known about their influence on transplant relevant immune functions. The aim of this study was to evaluate the effect of CMVig on cellular immunity in *in vitro* experiments and to define their role in tolerance inducing mechanisms.

Materials and methods/results CMVig reduces proliferation in mixed lymphocyte reactions and anti-CD3 blastogenesis assays and is related to decreased production of immune modulating cytokines interleukin (IL)-2, interferon (IFN) γ , IL-10. This antiproliferative effect is associated with a cell-cycle arrest in the G0/G1 phase and induction of apoptosis in CD8+ and natural killer cells. Co-incubation with CMVig causes down-regulation of cell bound immunoglobulin and Fc γ RIII surface expression on natural killer cells and leads to attenuation of antibody dependent cellular cytotoxicity effector functions.

Conclusions We conclude that CMVig induces immunological features on leukocytes *in vitro* that are known to be related to tolerance induction. Our observations extend the current concept of CMVig as passive CMV prophylaxis to a therapeutic drug compound capable of reducing allogeneic immune response.

Keywords Allo-immune response, apoptosis, CMV hyperimmunoglobulin, heart transplantation, NK cell function.

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Introduction

Cardiac transplantation has evolved as the best treatment option for patients with advanced heart failure remaining refractory to medical treatment. The advances made in

transplant management, surgical techniques and modifications of immunosuppression have resulted in significant improvements in patient survival [1]. Recently, our heart transplant programme reported a conspicuously low incidence of acute rejection and development of transplant-associated coronary artery disease (TACAD) in heart allograft recipients [2–4]. Induction therapy with rabbit anti-thymocyte globulin (rATG), in addition to a standard drug scheme based on cyclosporine, mycophenolate mofetil and steroids, is held responsible for this striking clinical observation. The immunological mechanism responsible for this clinical state of 'anergy' in allograft recipients treated with poly or monoclonal antibodies (rATG, OKT3, interleukine-2 receptor blocker) is thought to be related to its potential to cause apoptosis/activation induced cell death (AICD) in allogeneic activated T cell [5–8].

In addition to the immunosuppressive regime described above, cytomegalovirus (CMV) hyperimmunoglobulin (CMVig) has been routinely applied to all heart recipients as passive prophylaxis against CMV in our transplant centre since 1987. CMVig is administered intravenously

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on postoperative days 1, 7, 14, 21 and 28 irrespective of the preoperative donor/recipient CMV status. CMV, a virus belonging to the herpes family, was identified as the most important pathogen affecting morbidity and mortality in the immediate postoperative course after transplantation. CMV induced morbidities in transplant recipients include gastrointestinal tract infection, lung infections, chorioretinitis and hepatitis-like syndromes [9–12]. Moreover, CMV infection was also shown to be associated with incidence of TACAD, a clinical entity describing morphological and functional changes in the small coronary arteries of the transplanted heart [13,14].

The CMVig drug compound is produced by pooling plasma from hundreds of healthy donors with a proven antibody titre greater than 1 : 7000. Several reports have found evidence that CMVig is highly effective in preventing CMV disease [15,16]. CMVig is pharmacologically related to pooled intravenous immunoglobulin (IVIg). The systemic application of IVIg is shown to be highly beneficial in several autoimmune and inflammatory disorders including Kawasaki disease, dermatomyositis, lupus erythematosus, polyradiculoneuritis, Guillain-Barré syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis [17]. The modes of action of IVIg are complex and are still the topic of ongoing research. Theories range from immunomodulation due to attenuation of complement-mediated tissue damage, down-regulation of B-cell response by FcγR blockade and acceleration of FcRn-mediated catabolism [18]. Concerning allogeneic transplantation early reports found evidence that IVIg is able to decrease proliferation in allogeneic mixed lymphocyte reactions [19]. These *in vitro* experiments were recently complemented by the *in vivo* observation that IVIg were highly effective in treating steroid resistant allograft rejection [20,21].

Since there is little published evidence relating CMVig and immunosuppression we sought to investigate (a) the effect of CMVig on proliferation in mixed lymphocyte reaction (MLR) and anti-CD3 blastogenesis assays; (b) the potential of CMVig to induce apoptosis in peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMC) and highly purified CD4+, CD8+, CD19+ and CD56+ cells; (c) the effect of CMVig on natural killer (NK) cell effector function utilizing antibody dependent cellular cytotoxicity (ADCC) assays.

Materials and methods

CMVig compounds and sample size

Two different CMVig preparations were used for experimental studies (Cytotect, kindly provided by Dr Schrot, Biotest, Frankfurt, Germany and Cytoglobulin, Bayer AG, Leverkusen, Germany). The study protocol was approved by the Ethics Committee of the Medical University of Vienna (EC-No: 083/2006). Cells used for the experiments were obtained from healthy volunteers. All experiments were conducted with a sample size of ten ($n = 10$). CMVig was added to all experiments in therapeutic concentrations as described elsewhere [22]. In control experiments CMVig

was replaced by medium. Dialysis of CMVig with a 1 kDa cutoff for exclusion of stabilizing agents was additionally performed (Mini dialysis kit; Amersham Pharmacia Biotech, Uppsala, Sweden) following the manufacturer's instructions. Dialysis had no effect in *in vitro* assays (data not shown).

³[H]-thymidine proliferation assay

PBMC were separated by Ficoll density gradient centrifugation. They were resuspended in serum free Ultra Culture Medium (Cambrex Corp., North Brunswick, NJ, USA) containing 0.2% gentamycin sulfate (Sigma Chemical Co, St. Louis, MO, USA), 0.5% β-mercapto-ethanol (Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA), 1% L-glutamin (Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA) and 150 μL medium containing 1×10^5 cells per well were added to 96-well round-bottomed tissue culture plates. Responder cells were either stimulated with irradiated allogeneic PBMC at a 1 : 1 ratio (for MLR) or by monoclonal antibodies (MoAb) to CD3 ($10 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$, Becton Dickinson, Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA). Plates were incubated at 37 °C in a humidified incubator for 48 h or 5 days together with CMVig and then pulsed for 18 h with ³[H]-thymidine (3.7×10^4 Bq/well; Amersham Pharmacia Biotech, Uppsala, Sweden). Cells were harvested and ³[H]-thymidine incorporation was measured in a liquid scintillation counter.

Measuring of cell division

PBMC (1×10^7) were labelled with 5 μM Carboxyfluorescein diacetate succinimidyl ester (CFSE, Fluka BioChemika, Buchs, Switzerland) at room temperature for 10 min. Labelling was stopped by the addition of fetal calf serum (FCS). Cells were washed, resuspended in Ultra Culture Medium and stimulated with $10 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ MoAb to CD3 in a humidified incubator. CFSE dilution was measured after 48 h on a flow cytometer FC500 (Beckman Coulter, Fullerton, CA, USA).

Cell cycle analysis

PBMC were stimulated with $10 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ MoAb to CD3 for 48 h and stained for DNA content using a cell cycle test kit (Becton Dickinson, Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA) utilizing propidium iodide for DNA detection. Cells were measured on a flow cytometer and histograms were analysed by ModFit LT software (Verity Software House, Topsham, ME, USA).

Cytokine profiles

PBMC (1×10^6) were incubated with $10 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ anti-CD3. Supernatants were collected and frozen immediately at -80 °C until further tests were performed. Content of

cytokines was measured by commercially available enzyme linked immunosorbant assays (ELISA, BenderMedSystems, Vienna, Austria). Assays were performed according to the manufacturer's instructions. All plates were read at 450 nm on a Wallac Multilabel counter 1420 (PerkinElmer, Boston, MA, USA).

Isolation of purified CD4+, CD8+, B cells, NK cells

CD4+, CD8+, B cells, NK cells were isolated from prior obtained PBMC by negative selection using magnetic labelling isolation kits (Miltenyi Biotec, Auburn, CA, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Purity of separated cells measured by flow cytometry was determined to be higher than 95%.

Detection of apoptosis

PBMC (3×10^5) of purified subpopulations (CD4+ T-cells, CD8+ T-cells, B cells, NK cells) were incubated in a humidified atmosphere. Induction of apoptosis was measured by AnnexinV-fluorescein/propidium iodide (FITC/PI) costaining (Becton Dickinson, Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA) on a flow cytometer at different time points (0 h, 3 h, 6 h, 12 h, 24 h, 48 h, 72 h).

Electron microscopy

PBMC (1×10^6) were incubated with or without CMVIG at 37 °C in an incubator for 12 h. Cells were spun down and the material was processed according to standard electron microscopical methods: fixation in 4% paraformaldehyde, pH 7.4, at 4 °C followed by dehydration in a graded ethanol series and embedding in epoxy resin (glycidether). Ultrathin sections (0.5 µm) were cut on a Reichert ultra-microtome (OM U3, Ultracut S), stained with uranyl acetate lead⁻¹ citrate and examined on a Jeol 1200 EXII electron microscope.

Evaluation of FcγRIII (CD16) and cell surface bound IgG content

Purified NK cells (3×10^5) were incubated in a humidified atmosphere. Cells were costained with anti-CD16 and anti-IgG (Serotec, Oxford, UK) following a standard staining protocol. CD16 expression and amount of cell surface bound IgG were evaluated by flow cytometry.

Tumour cell lines

JURKAT (human, peripheral blood, leukaemia T cells) and PANC-1 (pancreatic cancer cells) (both American Type Culture Collection, Manassas, VA, USA) were cultured in RPMI 1640 medium (Gibco, Grand Island, NY, USA) supplemented with 10% FCS (HyClone; Perbio, Logan, UT,

USA) and 0.2% gentamycinsulfate (Sigma Chemical Co) in a 5% CO₂ humidified atmosphere at 37 °C.

Antibody-dependent cellular cytotoxicity (ADCC) assay

ADCC was measured using a europium release assay. *In vitro* cultured target cells (Jurkat, PANC-1) were harvested and labelled with europium for 15 min. PBMC or purified NK cells serving as effector cells were pre-incubated for 4 h with 2.5 mg mL⁻¹ of CMVIG, washed twice, resuspended serum free Ultra Culture Medium and incubated with target cells at ratios ranging from 50 : 1 to 0.8 : 1 for 4 h in round bottom 96-well plates. Europium release to the supernatant was measured by time resolved fluorometry (Wallac Multilabel counter 1420, PerkinElmer, Boston, MA, USA). Cytotoxic activity was calculated with the following formula:

$$\% \text{ cytotoxicity} = \frac{(\text{experimental release} - \text{spontaneous release})}{(\text{total release} - \text{spontaneous release})} \times 100$$

Total release was determined by adding 2% Triton X-100 to target cells.

Statistical methods

Statistical analysis was performed using SPSS software (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA). All data are given as mean ± standard of the mean. Normal distribution was verified using the Kolmogorov–Smirnov test. Paired two-sided *T*-tests for dependent variables were utilized calculating significances. For evaluation of ADCC data, areas under the curve (AUC), calculated by linear interpolation for each condition were compared. Bonferroni–Holm correction was used to adjust *P*-values for multiple testing. *P*-values < 0.05 were considered statistically significant.

Results

³[H]-thymidine incorporation is decreased in mixed lymphocyte reactions (MLR) and anti-CD3 blastogenesis assay after co-incubation with CMVIG

To test the hypothesis whether CMVIG contributes to a decreased allo-immune response and a decreased response after T-cell triggering, we employed established models of MLR and anti-CD3 blastogenesis assays. Figure 1(a) shows that addition of CMVIG significantly decreases proliferation rates in a dose-dependent manner.

Anti-proliferative effect determined by CFSE dilution and cell cycle analysis

To verify antiproliferative effects CFSE dilution experiments and cell cycle analysis of anti-CD3 stimulated PBMC

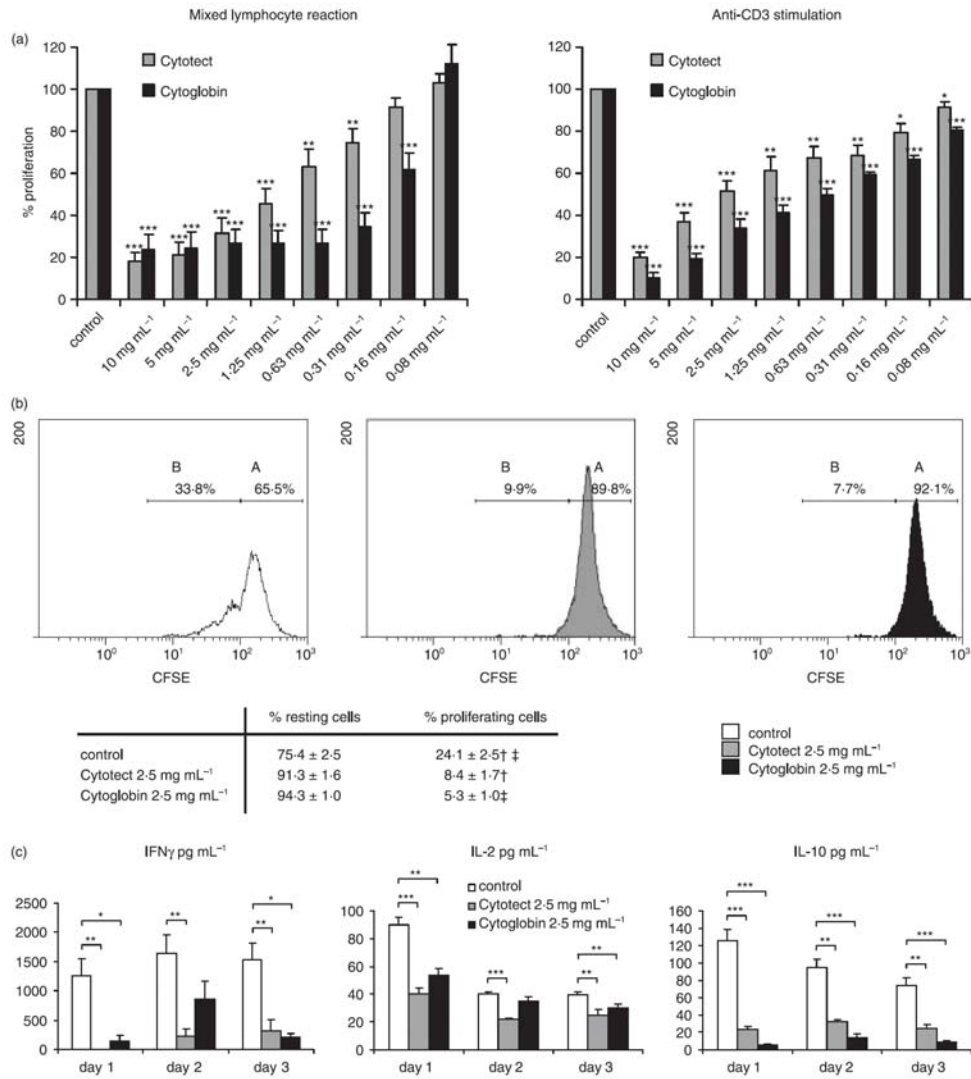


Figure 1 (a) ³[H]-thymidine incorporation is decreased by co-incubation with Cytomegalovirus hyperimmunoglobulin (CMVlg). This figure shows the effect of CMVlg on ³[H]-thymidine incorporation in an allogeneic stimulation and in a T-cell specific triggering by monoclonal antibodies (MoAb) against CD3. Proliferation rates of experiments containing different concentrations of CMVlg were compared to control experiments and are given as percentages of the maximal control proliferation (**P* < 0.05; ***P* < 0.01; ****P* < 0.001; *n* = 10). (b) Carboxyfluorescein diacetate succinimidyl ester (CFSE) dilution assays confirm antiproliferative effects of CMVlg. A representative CFSE dilution experiment is depicted in this figure. The control setting demonstrates a distinct CFSE dilution whereas the addition of CMVlg resulted in strongly reduced proliferation. Summarized data are shown in the incorporated table. A significant reduction of proliferating cells was observed after co-incubation with CMVlg (†*P* < 0.001, ‡*P* < 0.001; *n* = 10). (c) Release of interferon (IFN) γ , interleukin (IL)-2 and IL-10 in anti-CD3 blastogenesis assays is reduced. This figure displays the evaluation of supernatants for IFN γ , IL-2 and IL-10 of anti-CD3 stimulated peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMC) in a time resolved manner. All three T-cell derived cytokines were significantly reduced (**P* < 0.05; ***P* < 0.01; ****P* < 0.001; *n* = 10).

Table 1 Cell cycle analysis evidence antiproliferative effects of CMVlg

Cell cycle analysis of peripheral mononuclear cells (PBMC) exposed to CMVlg			
	% G0-G1	% S	% G2-M
Control	85.3 ± 2.9	11.7 ± 2.3*†	3.0 ± 0.7*†
Cytotec 2.5 mg mL ⁻¹	98.8 ± 0.3	1.1 ± 0.3*	0.1 ± 0.1*
Cytoglobin 2.5 mg mL ⁻¹	95.9 ± 1.4	3.7 ± 1.1†	0.4 ± 0.4†

This table shows results of cell cycle analysis performed in T-cell triggered PBMC. Co-incubation with CMVlg results in a massive decrease of cells residing in S and G2/M-phase. These data confirm CFSE dilution experiments (* $P < 0.05$; † $P < 0.05$; $n = 10$).

were performed. Figure 1(b) shows a representative CFSE dilution experiment indicating that CMVlg has clear antiproliferative properties. Combined data of 10 probands demonstrated that the percentage of proliferating cells decreased from 24.1 ± 2.5 in the control to 8.4 ± 1.7 (Cytotec; $P < 0.001$) and 5.3 ± 1.0 (Cytoglobin; $P < 0.001$). These findings were also confirmed by cell cycle analysis. Co-incubation of CMVlg significantly reduces transition of resting G1 cells to S and G2/M phase as shown in Table 1.

Decreased production of IFN γ , IL-2 and IL-10 in the presence of CMVlg in anti-CD3 blastogenesis assays

To investigate whether cytokine profile is altered by CMVlg we employed ELISA technique to quantify IFN γ , IL-2 and IL-10 cytokine content in the supernatant after T-cell specific triggering. Results are depicted in Fig. 1(c). All measured cytokines were significantly reduced by the addition of CMVlg.

Resting PBMC exposed to CMVlg undergo apoptosis and evidence characteristic morphology as determined by electron microscopy

The effect of CMVlg on unstimulated PBMC was evaluated by Annexin-V/PI staining on a flow cytometer. Co-incubation of PBMC with CMVlg resulted in a significant increase in Annexin-V binding cells, indicating early apoptosis, as shown in Fig. 2(a). Subsequent increase in PI staining cells evidencing late apoptosis was observed at time point 48 h (data not shown).

Flow cytometric data were confirmed by electron microscopy. CMVlg treated PBMC showed typical apoptotic features (e.g. formation of apoptotic bodies, cell membrane blebbing, chromatin condensation) whereas control cells displayed normal morphology of resting PBMC (Fig. 2b).

Purified NK cells and CD8+ cells are sensitive to CMVlg-induced apoptosis

To substantiate which subpopulations of PBMC are prone to undergoing apoptosis after incubation with CMVlg

we exposed highly purified CD4+, CD8+, CD19+ and CD56+ cells to therapeutic CMVlg concentrations. CD4+ and CD19+ cells are hardly sensitive for induction of apoptosis as compared to cytotoxic CD8+ cells and NK cells (Fig. 2c,d).

CMVlg evidences a down-regulation of low affinity Fc γ RIII (CD16) resulting in a decrease of cell surface bound IgG in purified NK cells

Figure 3(a) shows that CMVlg significantly reduces cell surface bound IgG and density of Fc γ RIII in purified NK cells. Data of 10 probands are summarized in Table 2. Both features, namely CD16 and cell surface bound immunoglobulin, are inalienable to the performance of NK cell mediated ADCC.

PBMC and purified NK cells evidence a decrease in ADCC after preincubation with CMVlg

Finally, based on the impact of CMVlg on apoptosis in PBMC and NK cells and down-regulation of Fc γ RIII expression, we sought to extend these findings by quantifying ADCC against PANC-1 and Jurkat target cells. Immune function against these two tumour cell lines was significantly reduced when effector cells were preincubated with CMVlg (Fig. 3b).

Discussion

Our findings represent the first demonstration that CMVlg countered proliferation in allogeneic and T-cell receptor stimulated lymphocytes *in vitro*. A significant induction of apoptosis in PBMC (predominantly CD8+ and NK cells) was verified, accompanied by loss of cell surface bound immunoglobulin and low-affinity Fc receptor (Fc γ RIII; CD16) expression. Moreover, effector functions of CMVlg preincubated PBMC and NK cells were decreased in ADCC assays. We deduce from our *in vitro* experiments that CMVlg has the potential to induce two immunological features that are known mechanisms for allograft tolerance induction: (a) attenuation of allogeneic and T-cell receptor induced

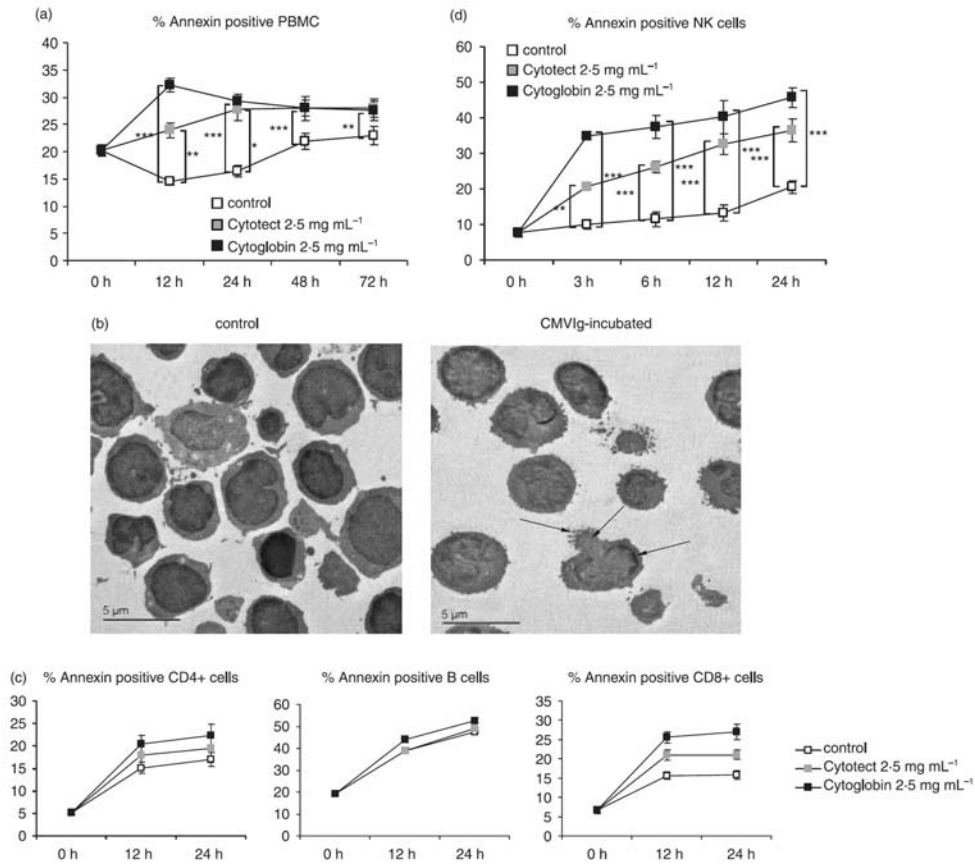


Figure 2 (a) CMVlg induces apoptosis in PBMC. The potential of CMVlg to induce apoptosis in resting PBMC is shown in this figure. Co-incubation of PBMC with CMVlg results in a massive increase of Annexin-V binding, indicating early phases of apoptosis. This increase reached significance after 12 h ($n = 10$). (b) Electron microscopy reveals typical morphological changes in PBMC after incubation with CMVlg. This figure shows the influence of CMVlg on cell morphology as evaluated by electron microscopy. Cells treated with therapeutic concentrations of Cytotect developed typical apoptotic features whereas control cells remained unchanged. Similar results were found for Cytoglobin (data not shown). (c) Evaluation of the sensitivity of subpopulations for apoptosis induction by CMVlg. The sensitivity of purified CD4+, CD19+ and CD8+ cells to undergo apoptosis after CMVlg triggering is shown in this figure. CD4+ and B cells are hardly affected for programmed cell death whereas cytotoxic T-cells are prone to apoptosis induction by CMVlg ($n = 10$). (d) Natural killer (NK) cells are most prone for CMVlg induced programmed cell death. This figure demonstrates cell viability of highly purified NK cells. Both Cytotect and Cytoglobin are potent inducers of programmed cell death when compared to untreated control NK cells ($*P < 0.05$; $**P < 0.01$; $***P < 0.001$; $n = 10$).

proliferation; (b) induction of apoptosis in cytotoxic CD8+ and NK cells and reduction of NK effector function.

We provide evidence for the first time that CMVlg has similar effects in suppressing MLR as those published for IVIg. In these studies several investigators suggested responsible mechanisms for this *in vitro* observation. Nachbaur *et al.* showed that IVIg inhibited IL-2 protein synthesis with no effect on IL-2 mRNA expression [19]. Blockade of IFN γ or CD4 by antibodies found in IVIg pre-

parations was suggested by other investigators [23,24]. Vuist *et al.* demonstrated that IVIg contain antibodies against glycolipids expressed on lymphocytes leading to the IVIg-induced growth attenuation [25]. More recently, Jordan *et al.* evidenced that antibodies directed against MHC class I and II as well as T-cell receptor molecules are found in IVIg, which are directly involved in the alloantigen recognition process in the MLR. Moreover, IVIg was shown to also induce apoptosis in the setting of MLR, primarily in

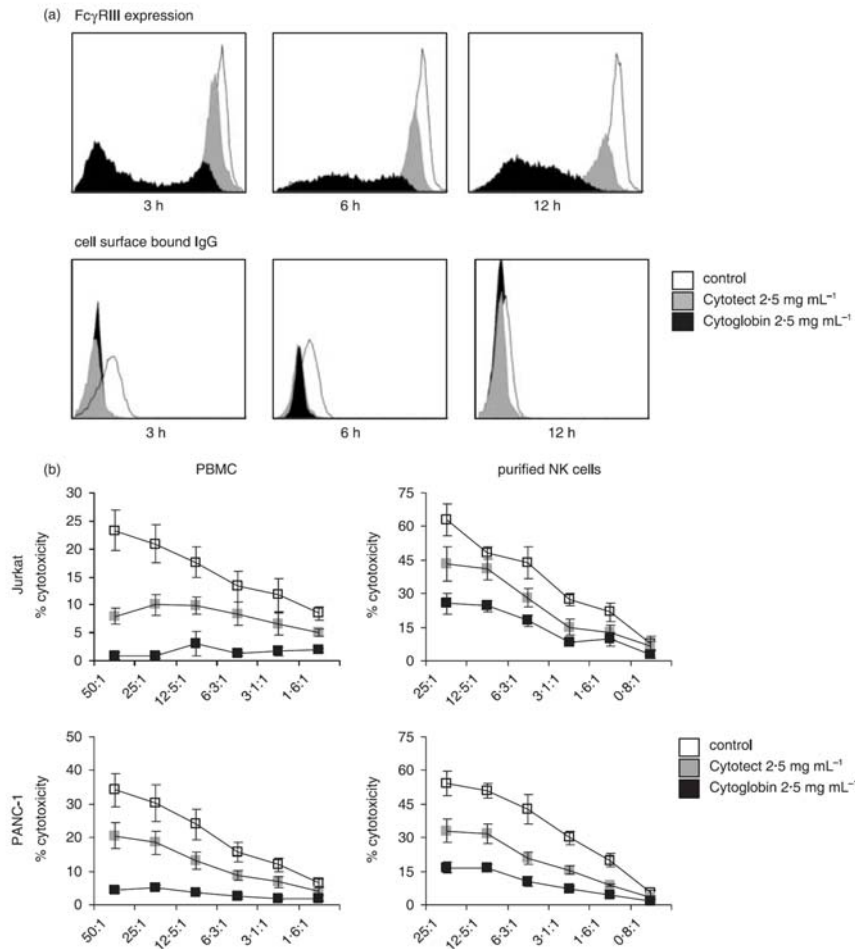


Figure 3 (a) Fc γ RIII (CD16) and cell surface bound IgG is down-regulated in purified NK cells by CMVig. This figure displays histograms of a representative experiment showing the density of Fc γ RIII and surface bound IgG on purified NK cells. A massive down-regulation of both surface proteins is observed in the course of time. (b) PBMC and purified NK cells evidence a decrease in antibody dependent cellular cytotoxicity (ADCC) against two tumour cell lines. ADCC of PBMC and purified NK cells against Jurkat and PANC-1 tumour cell lines are depicted in this figure. Both Cytotect and Cytoglobin are potent inhibitors of ADCC *in vitro*. Significances refer to comparison between AUC as described in the material and methods section. PBMC-Jurkat: control 944.9 \pm 148.5, Cytotect: 434.7 \pm 71.0 ($P < 0.01$), Cytoglobin: 68.7 \pm 37.9 ($P < 0.05$), PBMC-PANC-1: control 1327.2 \pm 220.9, Cytotect: 785.0 \pm 145.2 ($P < 0.05$), Cytoglobin: 205.2 \pm 23.8 ($P < 0.001$); NK cells-Jurkat control 1138.5 \pm 82.4, Cytotect: 844.1 \pm 98.2 ($P < 0.05$), Cytoglobin: 510.2 \pm 57.0 ($P < 0.05$), NK cells-PANC-1: control 1120.6 \pm 101.8, Cytotect: 653.9 \pm 85.7 ($P < 0.01$), Cytoglobin: 331.6 \pm 44.8 ($P < 0.001$) ($n = 10$).

B cells [26–28]. These *in vitro* findings of IVIg-induced leukocyte apoptosis were corroborated by the clinical observation of transient lymphopenia after infusion of IVIg [29].

In addition to the MLR data we were able to show that CMVig also causes a decrease of proliferation in T-cell triggered blastogenesis assays. An important question arising

from our proliferation data is whether reduced proliferation rates were real antiproliferative effects or only masked effects due to increased cell death. To dissect these mechanisms we performed CFSE dilution assays and cell cycle analysis. Co-incubation with CMVig revealed that a significantly increased number of cells were in G0/G1 phase as compared

Table 2 CMVlg reduces density of FcγRIII and cell surface bound IgG on NK cells

Cell bound IgG and FcγRIII on purified NK cells are down-regulated by CMVlg			
	Control	Cytotect 2.5 mg mL ⁻¹	Cytoglobin 2.5 mg mL ⁻¹
Cell bound IgG – mean fluorescence			
0 h	1.32 ± 0.50	1.32 ± 0.50	1.32 ± 0.50
3 h	0.62 ± 0.16*†	0.38 ± 0.12*	0.47 ± 0.10†
6 h	0.50 ± 0.13	0.38 ± 0.03	0.39 ± 0.02
12 h	0.39 ± 0.04	0.34 ± 0.03	0.39 ± 0.06
CD16 expression – mean fluorescence			
0 h	286.00 ± 66.11	286.00 ± 66.11	286.00 ± 66.11
3 h	224.38 ± 54.23‡§	131.90 ± 52.71‡	39.66 ± 20.3§
6 h	200.25 ± 52.43‡§	91.89 ± 44.42‡	19.26 ± 8.97§
12 h	163.63 ± 61.93‡§	57.01 ± 39.22‡	8.65 ± 5.53§

This table demonstrates the summarized flow cytometric data of surface bound IgG and FcγRIII in purified NK cells. Density of surface bound IgG is down-regulated within a few hours subsequently followed by the reduction of FcγRIII (* $P < 0.05$; † $P < 0.05$; ‡ $P < 0.001$; § $P < 0.001$; $n = 10$).

to control condition. These *in vitro* results indicated that antiproliferative effects and induction of apoptosis in CD8+ and NK cells were two clearly independent mechanisms. This observation seems to be of particular interest in the setting of allo-immune response as cytotoxic CD8+ cells are known to be primarily responsible for acute allograft rejection [30,31].

The relevance of our data on NK cell function has to be seen in context to recent reports evidencing that NK cells are vital players in the initiation of transplant-associated coronary artery disease (TACAD) and allo-immune response [32,33]. Maier *et al.* reported evidence that NK cells provide an alternative source of T-cell help and thus contribute to the acute rejection of wild type hearts transplanted into CD28-deficient mice [34]. With their experimental design, Madsen and colleagues extended that the adaptive immune system is not solely responsible for TACAD formation/allograft rejection in an animal transplant model. They demonstrated that NK cells were able to be activated in the absence of self MHC class I molecules on donor endothelium and thus participate in the pathogenesis of TACAD [35].

The investigation leading us to NK cell relevant experiments were initiated by our primary findings that incubation of PBMC with CMVlg lowered content of cell surface bound immunoglobulin on PBMC (data not shown) and purified NK cells. In addition to cell surface bound immunoglobulin the presence of FcγRIII (CD16) is mandatory for NK cell recognition and subsequent ADCC effector functions. Therefore we sought to investigate whether CMVlg has the ability to influence FcγRIII expression on purified NK cells. We found that CMVlg attenuated FcγRIII receptor density on NK cells within a few hours. The relevance of both findings was proven by attenuation of NK cell function in ADCC assays. Moreover, our results corroborate work showing that co-incubation of NK cells with anti-CD16 led to NK cell apoptosis, alteration of NK phenotype (CD56+/CD16^{bright} to CD56+/CD16^{dim}) and decreased NK effector function [36].

In conclusion, our experiments extend the currently accepted CMVlg function as passive virus prophylaxis in

allograft recipients. If we interpret our *in vitro* data correctly, CMVlg administration could have a beneficial influence on graft rejection and formation of TACAD. Previous clinical observational studies have indicated that the application of CMVlg is beneficiary in regard to graft survival and overall mortality [37,38].

Our *in vitro* findings extend the current concept of CMVlg as passive CMV prophylaxis to a therapeutic drug compound capable of reducing allogeneic immune response. In respect to our clinical observation of low incidence in allograft rejection rates and TACAD formation it is tempting to suggest that co-administration of rATG and CMVlg has a synergistic effect in the early post-transplant course.

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Austrotransplant 2005, Alpbach. Pooled human Ig and Immunosuppression. (oral presentation)

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Posterausstellung anlässlich der vfwf-Universitätsvorlesung “Die Medizinische Universität der Zukunft” 2006, Wien. Case report: rabbit antithymocyte globulin (rATG) and ECMO bridge as new options in the treatment of giant cell myocarditis. (poster presentation)

Österreichischer Chirurgenkongress 2006, Wien. Case report: rabbit antithymocyte globulin (rATG) and ECMO bridge as new options in the treatment of giant cell myocarditis. (poster presentation)

Austrotransplant 2006, Hof. Cytotect (CMV hyperimmunoglobuline) – passive immunisation, active immune suppression (oral presentation)

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Österreichischer Chirurgenkongress 2007, Graz. CMV hyperimmunoglobulin evidences anti-proliferative properties and reduces natural occurring cell mediated cytotoxicity in vitro (oral presentation)

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Austrotransplant 2007, St. Wolfgang. CMV hyperimmunoglobulin role in allo-immune response (invited lecture)

Studies approved by the institutional review board of the Clinical Research Ethics Committee of the Medical University of Vienna:

Search for apoptosis specific activation marker and TH2 cytokine profile as surrogate markers for bronchiolitis Obliterans (BO) syndrome: implications for treatment and early detection of BO in lung transplant recipients (Klepetko W, Pollreisz A, Hoetzenecker K, Brunner M, Roth G, Ankersmit HJ) – 2004

Investigation of T-Cell Response to Industrial Glutaraldehyde Fixed Porcine Valves: The Role of Specific Immune System in Degeneration During Adult Aortic Valve Replacement Therapy (Hoetzenecker K, Pollreisz A, Ankersmit HJ) – 2004

Investigation of T Lymphocytes in COPD Patients and Healthy Smokers: Role of CD4+CD28null Cells in the Pathogenesis of COPD (Lambers C, Hacker S, Hoetzenecker K, Pollreisz A, Ankersmit HJ) – 2006

In Vitro Investigation of Immunosuppressive Effects of CVM hyperimmunoglobulin (Hoetzenecker K, Hacker S, Ankersmit HJ) – 2006

Investigation of T Lymphocytes and Cytokines in Cystic Fibrosis Patients: Search for Specific Diagnostic Markers (Jaksch P, Klepetko W, Pollreisz A, Hacker S, Hoetzenecker K, Ankersmit HJ) – 2006

Endothelial Activation and Soluble Death Receptors in Coronary Artery Bypass Surgery: Cardiopulmonary Bypass versus “Off-pump” techniques (Hacker S, Hoetzenecker K, Pollreisz A, Ankersmit HJ) – 2006

Studies approved by the Animal Experiment Committee according to the animal experiment ordinance of the Austrian Federal Ministry for Education, Science and Culture:

Immunomodulation after MI – investigated in a rat model (Podesser BK, Hoetzenecker K, Ankersmit HJ) – 2006

Teaching:

VO AHA Guidelines in der Cardiovasculären Chirurgie 2007 – invited lecture

VO+SE Vom Textbuch der Herzchirurgie zur PowerPoint-Präsentation 2007 – invited lecture

Clinical Investigations:

K Hoetzenecker coordinated the Viennese Site (Dept. of Cardiothoracic Surgery – Prof. Seitelberger) of a clinical investigation “**Multi-center, double-blind, randomized, placebo-controlled, parallel-group study to assess the efficiency, safety and tolerability of tezosentan in patients with pre-operative pulmonary hypertension, due to left heart disease, undergoing cardiac surgery**” assigned by Actelion – 2007.

Review activity:

American Journal of Transplantation