

Diverse and Opposing Roles of IL-27 in Immunity

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Abstract: IL-27 was originally thought to play a pro-inflammatory role in immunity, however it is now clear that IL-27 also exerts potent anti-inflammatory effects. Here, we discuss some of the key studies that have elucidated the diverse and apparently paradoxical roles of IL-27. While IL-27 can promote early Th1 development there is evidence of suppressive effects in later phases of Th1 responses. IL-27 exerts a direct inhibitory effect in Th2 immunity by blocking Th2 cell differentiation. The role of IL-27 in Th17 immune responses is also complex as it seems that while IL-27 can block early Th17 development, fully differentiated Th17 cells may become resistant to the inhibitory effects of IL-27. In the field of cancer biology, IL-27 has been shown to have anti-tumourigenic effects however it acts *via* both immunogenic and non-immunogenic mechanisms. Collectively, the studies discussed in this review have demonstrated multiple biological functions and mechanisms of action of IL-27.

Keywords: IL-27, T cell, tumour, autoimmune disease.

INTRODUCTION

IL-27 is a heterodimeric cytokine composed of two subunits namely p28 and Epstein Barr Virus-induced gene 3 (EBI-3) [1]. It has recently been shown that EBI-3 is also a component of the novel heterodimeric cytokine IL-35 which shares its other subunit, p35, with IL-12 [2]. Thus it is recognised that there is a high degree of subunit promiscuity between these cytokines. Thus, it was originally thought that such cytokines would have similar functions and while there is a degree of overlap in certain aspects of their bioactivity, there are also many distinct roles for each individual cytokine. It has been shown that activated antigen presenting cells are the main source of IL-27, however, other cell types including endothelial cells, neutrophils, NKT cells and astrocytes also produce IL-27 [3-8]. Whereas murine p28 can be secreted, human p28 requires EBI-3 for secretion and thus, concomitant expression of both EBI-3 and p28 within the same cell appears to be required for optimal human IL-27 production [1]. Interestingly, it was recently shown in a murine colon carcinoma cell line, that murine p28 monomer inhibits the biological function of IL-27 [9].

Many Toll-like receptor (TLR) signalling pathways induce IL-27 expression including TLR2, TLR3, TLR4 and TLR9 and both MyD88 and TRIF have been identified as important signalling molecules in IL-27 expression. At the transcriptional level, binding sites for NFκB and IRF3 have been identified in the p28 promoter and NFκB can also induce EBI-3 expression [1, 10-15].

IL-27 signals *via* the IL-27 receptor (IL-27R) which is a heterodimer of the signalling IL-6 receptor called gp130 and WSX-1 (also known as T cell cytokine receptor, TCCR)

[16]. IL-27R is expressed on a range of cell types including T cells, monocytes, dendritic cells (DCs), mast cells, hepatocytes, endothelial cells, neurons, B and NK cells [16-19]. Thus, a wide range of cell types can be responsive to IL-27 which confers multiple functions to this cytokine. In addition, IL-27R ligation induces activation of a range of signalling pathways which can be cell-specific. Each of STAT1, 3, 4 and 5 have been shown to exert functional cellular responses to IL-27R ligation in several settings [10, 17, 20].

IL-27 IN HELPER T CELL RESPONSES

T Helper 1 (Th1)

Much of the research on IL-27 has focused on its function in adaptive immunity and in particular, its effect on helper T cells. Early work showed a supportive role for IL-27 in Th1 mediated immunity. Mechanisms underlying this phenomenon included induction of the Th1-associated transcription factor, T-bet, and upregulation of IL-12Rβ2 expression by naïve T cells [10, 21]. This renders naïve T cells responsive to IL-12 which has long since been known to drive IFN-γ expression and Th1 immunity. Rather than solely driving Th1 development, IL-27 was shown to synergise with IL-12 to promote Th1 development [1]. However, IL-27 can also exert an inhibitory effect on Th1 cells, particularly in the later phases of inflammatory responses. We have observed significant suppression of T cell IFN-γ expression by IL-27 (unpublished observations) and Yoshimura and colleagues also reported IL-27-mediated inhibition of IFN-γ expression by fully differentiated Th1 cells [22]. These findings may explain in part, apparently differing findings in Th1 mediated *in vivo* models. In addition, several groups have reported that IL-27 inhibits IL-2 production. Villarino *et al.* reported enhanced IL-2 expression by IL-27R-deficient cells and that exogenous IL-27 suppressed IL-2 production by wildtype cells [50]. Owaki *et al.* went on to show that this effect was mediated by SOCS3 [49]. As IL-2 plays an important role in the growth and survival of Th1 cells, this may

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represent one of the mechanisms through which IL-27 can exert a suppressive effect on Th1 responses.

IL-27R-deficient mice have shown that IL-27 signalling was not absolutely required for generating Th1 responses as demonstrated by significant Th1-mediated inflammation in these mice. In fact, regulation of such inflammatory responses was impaired in these mice leading to significant host immunopathology. Comparison of wildtype and IL-27R-deficient mice infected with *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* showed greater lethality in the latter genotype despite increased bacterial clearance mediated by IFN- γ producing helper T cells. This presents a paradigm of sufficient Th1 mediated inflammation to eradicate the pathogen but a lack of resolution of inflammation leading to immune-mediated host pathology [23]. In a model of *Toxoplasma gondii* infection, IL-27R-deficiency lead to lethality associated with uncontrolled inflammation [24]. Similarly Rosas *et al.* demonstrated that CD4⁺ T cell-mediated hepatic immunopathology developed in IL-27R-deficient mice infected with *Leishmania donovani* which was also associated with efficient eradication of the pathogen [25]. These studies suggest that IL-27 plays an inhibitory role at some point in Th1-mediated inflammation that serves to protect the host from excessive immunopathology. In theory, this constraint on Th1 cells could also impair the ability of the immune system to clear pathogenic organisms. However this has not been directly shown in *in vivo* models to date.

In models of autoimmune disease IL-27 has also been shown to exert dichotomous influences on Th1 cells. In the case of dextran sulfate sodium-induced colitis, IL-27R-deficiency resulted in less severe clinical disease with lower levels of IFN- γ compared to wildtype mice suggesting a pro-inflammatory role for IL-27 in this model [26]. Villarino *et al.* also observed that IL-27R-deficient mice exhibited delayed onset of colitis, associated with inhibited Th1 responses [27]. This would also suggest a role for IL-27 signalling in autoimmune pathology driven by Th1-mediated inflammation. However this study was in a model of concurrent IL-10-deficiency (*il27ra*^{-/-} crossed with *il10*^{-/-} mice) and IL-27 signalling was not absolutely required for autoimmune pathology as these mice eventually developed disease [27].

Distinct models of arthritis have shown pro- and anti-inflammatory effects of IL-27. Deficiency of the IL-27R resulted in less severe clinical disease and a delay in disease onset in the proteoglycan-induced model of arthritis compared to wildtype controls. Decreased IFN- γ – producing T cells and overall IFN- γ secretion was reported in this model while the frequency of IL-4- and IL-17-expressing cells did not differ between phenotypes [28]. In contrast, administration of IL-27 at the onset phase of disease ameliorated collagen-induced arthritis [29]. These somewhat conflicting findings may be due to differences in disease pathogenesis between the models employed, the difference in targeting of the IL-27 signalling system (complete signalling deficiency in the absence of IL-27R compared to exogenous IL-27 administration) or perhaps is reflective of the divergent roles of IL-27 at different phases of Th1 immune responses.

That IL-27 may initially support Th1 immunity, but later dampen this inflammatory response, can be explained in part by the expansion of IL-10-producing Th1 cells by IL-27 [30, 31]. As IL-10 is a potent anti-inflammatory cytokine, its expression by Th1 cells as a result of IL-27 bioactivity confers immunoregulatory properties to these cells that are generally perceived as inflammatory. We have reported an IL-10-dependent anti-inflammatory effect of IL-27 in a Th1-driven model of experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis (EAE). Using IL-12 to polarise myelin-reactive T cells toward a Th1 phenotype, we showed that a combination of IL-12+IL-27 resulted in significantly less severe disease than IL-12 alone. This suppressive effect of IL-27 was not evident in IL-10^{-/-} cells demonstrating that IL-10 was required for the anti-inflammatory effects of IL-27 in Th1-mediated EAE [30]. As cells were exposed to IL-27 after *in vivo* differentiation, these data are consistent with the theory that IL-27 can inhibit differentiated Th1 cells.

Th2

In contrast to apparently paradoxical effects of IL-27 on Th1 responses, the inhibitory effect of IL-27 on other helper T cell subsets is clearer. IL-27 abrogates Th2 development by blocking the Th2-associated transcription factor GATA-3 in a STAT1-mediated manner [32]. *In vivo*, the inhibitory

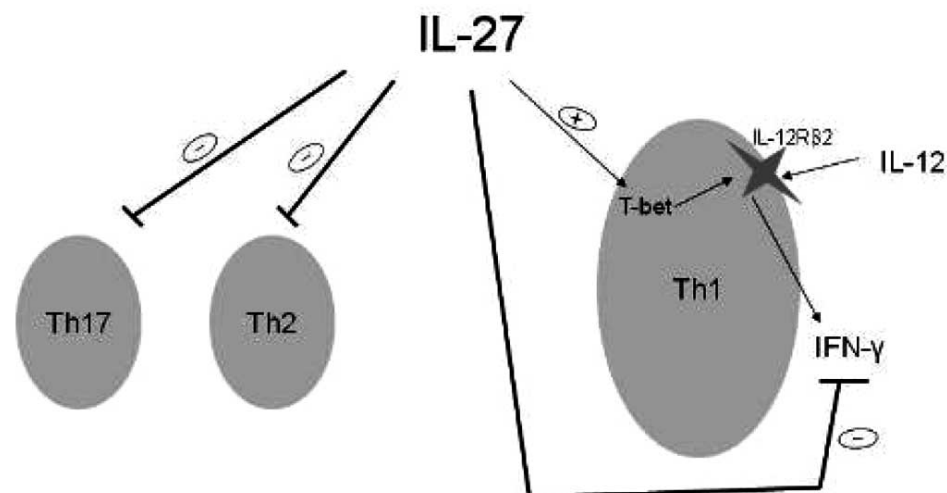


Fig. (1). Multiple effects of IL-27 on helper T cell subsets. IL-27 has direct suppressive (-) effects on Th17 and Th2 cells. However, IL-27 can both support (+) the development of Th1 cells and also inhibit (-) the function of these cells.

effect of IL-27 on Th2 immunity has been shown in both infectious and autoimmune murine models.

Artis and colleagues reported that IL-27R-deficient mice infected with *Trichuris muris* cleared the pathogen more efficiently than wildtype controls demonstrating that IL-27 signalling has an inhibitory effect in this model. Helminth clearance was mediated by Th2 immunity and neutralization of IL-4 resulted in greater larval burden and reduced IL-4 and IL-13 expression by antigen specific cells [17]. In autoimmune models IL-27 has also been shown to suppress Th2 responses. Yoshimoto *et al.* reported suppression of OVA-induced airway hyper-responsiveness by exogenous IL-27 administration which resulted in an inhibition of Th2 cell development and cytokine production [32]. More recently, Fujita and colleagues demonstrated that IL-27 produced by iNKT cells mediated suppression of Th2-associated allergic inflammation by alpha-GalCer [8].

In a model of spontaneous glomerulonephritis, IL-27R-deficiency caused a shift in the Th1:Th2 balance and resulted in a Th2-mediated immunopathology similar to human membranous glomerulonephritis [33]. This observation was a phenotypic switch in the helper T cell profile from Th1 towards Th2 which may be due to both the early supportive role of IL-27 in Th1 cell development as well as the inhibitory effect on Th2 development.

Th17

In terms of Th17-driven inflammatory responses, several groups have shown that IL-27 has an inhibitory effect on Th17 cells both *in vitro* and *in vivo* [3, 7, 34-37]. IL-27 blocks the expression of the Th17 transcription factors

RORC and ROR γ t/ROR α in human and mouse CD4⁺ cells respectively [37, 38] in a STAT1-mediated manner. Interestingly, however, it would appear that once fully differentiated, Th17 cells become resistant to suppression by IL-27 [37].

The first evidence of IL-27 constraining Th17 cells in an infectious setting was shown in a murine model of *T. gondii* infection. Stumhofer *et al.* used a modified, non-lethal model of chronic infection to show greater severity of Th17-driven encephalitis in IL-27R-deficient mice than wildtype controls [7]. Similarly, in an autoimmune model of encephalomyelitis IL-27R-deficiency was shown to confer more severe clinical disease associated with enhanced Th17 cell infiltration into the CNS of mice immunized to develop EAE [35]. Amadi-Obi *et al.* also suggested that IL-27 inhibited Th17-mediated autoimmune pathology in experimental autoimmune uveoretinitis [34]. We have shown that exogenous administration of IL-27 prior to disease onset suppressed clinical disease in murine EAE. This was associated with reduced infiltration of Th17 cells and indeed Th1 cells into the CNS [3].

We have also shown that exogenous IL-27 inhibits the encephalitogenicity of proteolipid peptide (PLP)₁₃₉₋₁₅₁ - reactive Th17 cells that have been primed with IL-23 for 10 days *in vitro* [3]. However, more recent studies in our laboratory have produced apparently conflicting data to suggest that IL-27 does not inhibit the encephalitogenicity of IL-23-driven Th17 cells. Using the 2D2 mouse model, naïve myelin oligodendrocyte glycoprotein(MOG)₃₅₋₅₅-specific Th17 cells were differentiated *in vitro* using TGF- β +IL-6 and in a subsequent activation with antigen, cells were treated with IL-23 alone or IL-23+IL-27. Purified CD4⁺ cells were then transferred to irradiated, naïve recipient mice. There was no

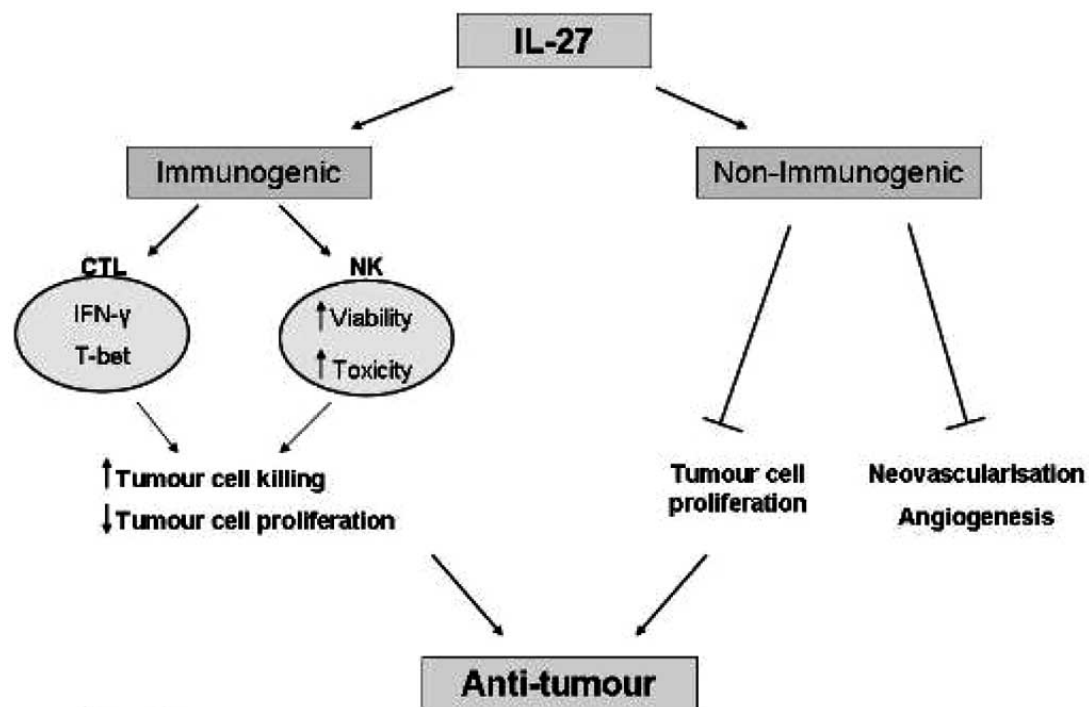


Fig. (2). Multiple anti-tumour effects of IL-27. Immunogenic mechanisms of action: Inhibition of tumour cell proliferation by IL-27 is mediated through CD8⁺ CTL cells and IFN- γ and dependant on T-bet. IL-27 also increases viability and toxicity of NK cells resulting in the death of tumour cells. Non-immunogenic mechanisms of action: IL-27 directly acts on tumour cells to inhibit tumour cell proliferation, neovascularisation and angiogenesis.

significant difference in clinical disease between groups and only mild suppression of IL-17 expression by IL-27 was observed [37].

While it is too early to definitively explain these apparently opposing findings, several differences between the models used suggest interesting possibilities. The MOG₃₅₋₅₅ model involved transfer of purified CD4⁺ cells whereas total cells were transferred in PLP₁₃₉₋₁₅₁ model suggesting that effects of IL-27 on non-CD4⁺ cells may mediate disease suppression. Alternatively, the duration of culture with IL-23 ± IL-27 may affect the sensitivity of Th17 cells to IL-27; the MOG model involved a 3-day exposure whereas the PLP model involved a 10-day exposure to IL-23 ± IL-27. It is also possible that the difference in the differentiation conditions of naïve CD4⁺ cells confers differential susceptibility of Th17 cells to suppression by IL-27; the MOG₃₅₋₅₅ model utilized *in vitro* differentiation of CD4⁺ cells with antigen, TGF-β+IL-6 whereas the PLP₁₃₉₋₁₅₁ model induced Th17 differentiation *in vivo* by immunization of animals with antigen in Complete Freund's Adjuvant [3, 37]. These studies highlight some tantalizing unanswered questions in IL-27 biology and served to expand further the multitude of effects of IL-27 in immunity.

Th17 cells play an important role in the pathogenesis of EAE and other groups have also demonstrated a regulatory role of IL-27 in EAE. In a murine model of Type I Interferon receptor deficiency (*ifnar*^{-/-}), Guo and colleagues demonstrated enhanced disease severity compared to wildtype controls which was ameliorated by exogenous IL-27 treatment [37, 39]. Shinohara *et al.* made similar observations in this murine model at that time. However this group uncovered a novel mechanism of osteopontin-I-induced IL-27 expression which reduced the severity of clinical disease [40].

T Regulatory Cells (Treg)

IL-27 also plays an important role in the development of T regulatory (Treg) cells. Neufert *et al.* demonstrated that IL-27 inhibited TGF-β-induced Treg cells by almost 50% in an *in vitro* setting in a STAT-1-independent manner [36]. Huber *et al.* also demonstrated the suppressive effect of IL-27 on Tregs. Using transient siRNA, this group showed that the suppressive effect was partially *via* STAT-3 signaling [48]. Furthermore, Pot *et al.* demonstrated that IL-27 promotes the differentiation of IL-10-producing Tr1 cells which have potent immunomodulatory functions. This was shown to be *via* the induction of c-Maf, IL-21 and ICOS. IL-2 is an important cytokine in the development and function of iTregs. As discussed earlier, IL-27 has a potent inhibitory effect on IL-2 production by T cells. Neufert *et al.* addressed whether suppression of IL-2 by IL-27 was responsible for the inhibitory effect of IL-27 on Tregs. However, exogenous IL-2 could not protect Tregs from the suppressive effect of IL-27 and thus, this is likely not the primary mechanism of Treg suppression by IL-27 [36].

ANTI-TUMOUR EFFECTS OF IL-27

The field of cancer biology has also interrogated biological functions of IL-27. While published studies generally agree on the anti-tumour effect of IL-27, there are striking differences in the mechanisms through which IL-27 exerts this effect. In 2004, Hisada and colleagues first demonstrated

potent anti-tumour effects of IL-27 *in vivo* with the use of a murine model of colon carcinoma. Transduction of C26 cells with IL-27 cDNA resulted in significant inhibition of tumour growth and tumour-specific protective immunity when mice were challenged with parent C26 tumour. Mechanistically, tumour inhibition was mediated by CD8⁺ cytotoxic T lymphocytes (CTL) and IFN-γ and was dependent on the transcription factor, T-bet, but independent of STAT4 signalling [41]. Salcedo *et al.* observed similar IFN-γ and CTL-mediated inhibition of tumour growth in a neuroblastoma model transduced with IL-27 [42]. This group later demonstrated that combined IL-2 and IL-27 therapy inhibited neuroblastoma metastases in a CD8⁺ T cell dependent manner and this combination was particularly effective in bone marrow metastases [43].

However, the mechanisms by which IL-27 inhibits tumorigenesis are not limited to CD8⁺ T cells. Matsui *et al.* showed an anti-tumour effect of IL-27 in a squamous cell carcinoma model which in general is not susceptible to NK cell cytotoxicity. However delivery of the IL-27 gene correlated with the presence of tumour-specific antibodies in sera which conferred susceptibility of tumour cells to NK cell cytotoxicity [44]. While the importance of IL-27 in the development of anti-tumour immunity has been demonstrated in several models, Shinozaki and colleagues recently highlighted an important example of opposing effects of IL-27 in this regard. As expected, mice that lacked IL-27 responsiveness (IL-27R-deficient) that were inoculated with B16 melanoma cells displayed enhanced tumour growth coupled with reduced tumour specific CTLs. Transfer of wildtype DCs did not rescue this phenotype however, injection of DCs from IL-27R-deficient mice resulted in tumour specific CTL expansion and inhibition of tumour growth. Importantly, the most effective combination of anti-tumourigenic cells was wildtype CTLs with IL-27R-deficient DCs which suggests that IL-27 directly acts on CTLs and actually inhibits the activity of DCs in anti-tumour immunity [45].

Further diversity in the anti-tumour effects of IL-27 is evident in studies that have shown non-immunological mechanisms of tumour inhibition. Shimizu and colleagues investigated the efficacy of IL-27 in inhibiting tumour growth in a poorly immunogenic model of melanoma. Using B16F10 cells they showed anti-tumourigenic and anti-metastatic effects of IL-27 however this effect was preserved in the absence of IFN-γ and also partially in NOD/SCID mice suggesting novel mechanisms of action. Indeed this study went on to demonstrate anti-angiogenic actions directly affecting endothelial cells which was in part due to IP-10 induction [46]. In 2008 Yoshimoto *et al.* identified a direct anti-proliferative effect of IL-27, *via* STAT1 signalling, in the B16F10 model of melanoma which was translated to human melanoma cells [47].

Collectively, these studies demonstrate multiple roles of IL-27 in anti-tumourigenicity which encompass immune-mediated, vascular and direct anti-proliferative mechanisms.

In conclusion, the field of IL-27 biology has elucidated surprising and apparently paradoxical functions for IL-27, particularly in *in vivo* models. However, it is likely that, as with many other cytokines, the biological function of IL-27 is greatly influenced by the microenvironment as well as the global immune status of the organism. Clearly much data has

demonstrated a supportive role for IL-27 in the development of Th1 responses, in several *in vivo* models. That IL-27 can also inhibit Th1 immune responses in certain settings is perplexing and warrants further investigation. Several other importance questions remain to be addressed in the field of IL-27 biology. In particular, it is unclear how and when fully differentiated helper Th17 cells become partially or fully resistant to suppression by IL-27. What are the molecular mechanisms underlying this transition? Importantly in the context of therapeutic applications of IL-27, is this phenomenon reversible? Answering these questions will help to progress towards a unifying model that may explain the apparent paradoxical roles of IL-27 in inflammation.

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