

Interleukin-21: A New Class of Thymopoietin for Immune Rejuvenation

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Abstract

More than two billion people will reach the age of 65 by 2050. Therefore, infectious disease/cancer-related morbidity and mortality of aged subjects is expected to rise. Several factors including impaired functions of body barriers and changes in microbial colonization contribute to increasing elderly susceptibility to infections and cancer. However, thymic involution, a hallmark of immunosenescence, is undoubtedly the principal component of this prominent problem. Although the thymus remains functional at older age, its pronounced diminished T-cell export rate is insufficient to sustain a competent naïve peripheral T-cell pool. Consequently, gradual dwindling in T-cell receptor (TCR) repertoire diversity takes place. As a result, the capacity of the elderly immune system to confer protection against cancer, acute/chronic infections or to respond to vaccination erodes. Therefore, there is an urgent need for the development of novel strategies aimed at: i) providing superior control of infectious diseases and cancer, and ii) improving responsiveness to all forms of immunotherapies.

Keywords: Thymopoiesis; Aging; Interleukin-21

Commentary

The thymus is unique due to its unparalleled capacity in supporting the *de novo* generation of naïve T cells [1-3]. Since the thymus lacks self-renewing progenitors, it heavily relies on sustained seeding with bone marrow-derived early thymic progenitors (ETPs) [4]. Unfortunately however, ETP numbers decline markedly with age due to increased apoptosis rates and reduced proliferative capacities [5]. This in turn leads to a diminished pool of double-negative (DN) and double-positive (DP) thymocytes triggering a negative impact on the delicate thymic stromal compartment (especially thymic epithelial cells-TECs) as the latter depends on cross-talk interactions with thymic progenitors for its sustained survival and function [6,7]. To compensate for such diminished thymic output, both homeostatic proliferation and increased T-cell life-span contributes to sustain the size of the peripheral T-cell compartment. As a result, aging peripheral T cells become highly exposed to extrinsic factors such as oxidative stress leading to a variety of intrinsic dysfunctionalities including: i) increased expression of several inhibitory/exhaustion receptors (PD1, LAG3, 2B4, and CD160); ii) alterations in cytoskeletal rearrangement and cell surface glycosylation, and iii) diminished formation of immune synapses with a 50% reduction in recruitment of signalling/adaptor molecules (Lck, ZAP-70, Fyn, LAT, Grb2 and Vav) [8-16]. Further investigations led to additional insights on a direct relationship between age-dependent decline of miR-181a levels in human peripheral naïve CD4 T cells and dampened TCR signaling, which ends-up adding an additional counterproductive layer of interference with normal responsiveness to exogenous antigens [11]. As these defects cannot be corrected at the single cell level, simulating thymopoiesis remains the only strategy capable of re-establishing a pool of “young” and diversified T cells free of intrinsic deficiencies and capable of competent immune responsiveness.

A variety of rejuvenation therapies including the use of growth factors, cytokines, hormonal therapies and castration have been tested [17]. The most promising of these interventions appear to be keratinocyte growth factor (KGF), interleukin (IL)-7, and ghrelin (GRL) [17]. Although preclinical models taught us that KGF can promote thymopoiesis through enhanced survival of the thymic stromal compartment [18,19], clinical studies did not clearly confirm these

findings [20,21]. Likewise, IL-7-based treatments showed increased thymic output in rodents and aged rhesus macaques, but marginal effects were observed on human thymopoiesis with preferential expansion of recent thymic emigrants and memory T cells [22-24]. Finally, the supporting role of the peptide hormone GRL in blocking thymic involution is another evolving treatment strategy for boosting T-cell output in older animals [25-29]. Unfortunately however, the effect of GRL may be limited by the gradual loss of thymic GRL receptor expression with aging [25-29]. As evidence for these therapies in stimulating thymopoiesis in higher species is yet to be clarified, the search for new compounds displaying non-redundant thymopoietic-stimulating/supporting abilities in aged subjects is needed.

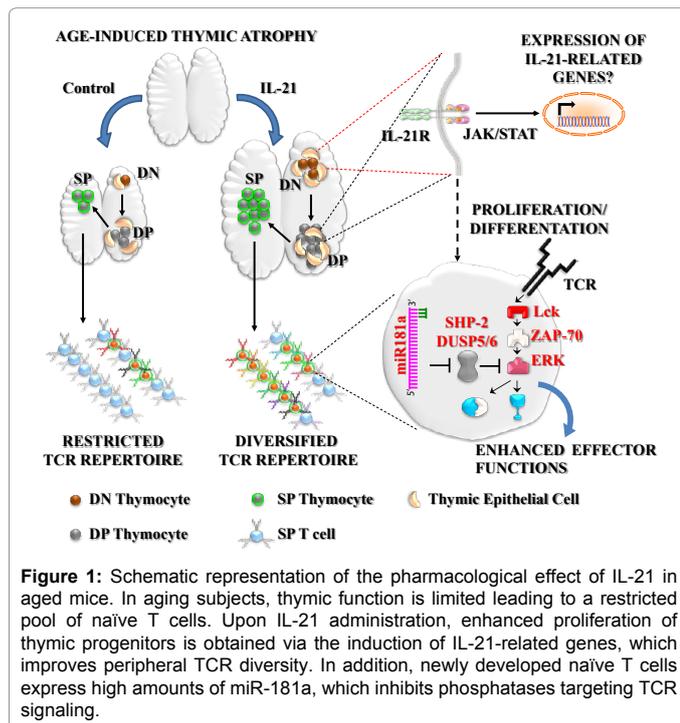
Thymopoiesis relies on cytokines interplay with T-cell progenitors. In fact, prior to entering the peripheral T-cell pool, DP thymocytes must undergo restricted selection processes in the thymus via their rearranged TCR in response to self-peptides [30]. As a consequence, they become responsive to IL-7 [31]. In a quest to gain further insights into the possible role of additional cytokine(s) in supporting thymopoiesis, an *in vitro* model was developed to precisely manipulate the nature of the selecting peptide and the cytokine added to the milieu [32]. Besides the discovery of a role for IL-4 and IL-13 in positive selection and differentiation of thymocytes, the use of this high-throughput system unveiled a novel and non-redundant function for IL-21 in supporting the expansion of thymic progenitors [32]. IL-21 is the most recently identified member of the common γ -chain family of cytokines [33]. Produced mainly by activated CD4 T cells, IL-21

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can: i) support CD4 T-cell differentiation down the Th17 pathway, ii) co-stimulate activated NK and CD8 lymphocytes, iii) desensitize responding cells to the inhibitory effects of regulatory T cells, and iv) act as a switch for IgG production in B cells [33,34]. Although not required for normal hematopoiesis, bone marrow progenitors expand in response to IL-21 overexpression *in vivo* [35]. Likewise, IL-21 did not seem to be essential for thymopoiesis due to normal T-cell development in mice deficient for the IL-21 receptor (IL-21R) [32]. However, *in vitro* peptide-mediated TCR-engagement on DP thymocytes triggered potent cell surface expression of the IL-21R leading to their expansion and enhanced generation of single-positive (SP) CD8 T cells if combined with IL-7 [32]. Based on these observations and on the fact that IL-21 can accelerate thymic recovery following pharmacologically-induced acute atrophy [36], the effect of IL-21 was evaluated for triggering *de novo* thymopoiesis in aged mice as a means to enhance their responsiveness to cancer vaccination [37]. In contrast to control aged mice, IL-21 administration was indeed capable of stimulating thymopoiesis and led to a boost in recent thymic emigrants output [37]. Accordingly, a substantial increase in the proportion of naïve T cells was observed along with noticeable improvements in TCR receptor diversity. The rejuvenated T-cell pool of IL-21-treated aged mice also exhibited lower expression levels of the TCR-inhibiting phosphatases SHP-2 and DUSP5/6 owing to augmented miR-181a expression [37] (Figure 1). The net outcome culminated in improved TCR signaling (e.g. enhanced phosphorylation of Lck, ZAP-70, and ERK) and effector functions (IL-2 secretion, CD25 expression and proliferation), which was further reflected on their enhanced anti-tumoral response to melanoma challenge following vaccination [37].

In summary, effective T-cell activation by immunotherapies or following the encountering of non-self-antigens is dependent upon two factors: a broad TCR repertoire and a pool of naïve T cells free of intrinsic defects. Unfortunately, both of these requirements are limited in aged subjects, which definitely impede the capacity of the aged immune system in generating both effective protection and a large/

diverse antigen-specific T-cell memory repertoire. As reversing these deficiencies could only be achieved by stimulating thymic functions, IL-21 could be exploited as a novel immune intervention to halt and hence reverse thymic atrophy and all related immune defects associated with an aging immune system.

Disclosures

The authors declare that they have no competing financial interests.

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