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Research Article

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Dysfunctions of Pokeweed Mitogen-stimulated T and B Lymphocyte Responses Induced by Gammaglobulin Therapy

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ABSTRACT Lymphocytes obtained from nonimmunodeficient children treated with commercially available preparations of gammaglobulin failed to proliferate and to mature into plasma cells *in vitro* after stimulation with pokeweed mitogen. The influence of the treatment on lymphocyte functions varied according to the cell population considered. A T helper cell activity was detected in these patients but only in the cell subset bearing receptors for IgG after irradiation. T lymphocytes exerted a suppressive effect that disappeared after irradiation or incubation at 37°C. The suppressive cells were found among E rosette-forming cells depleted of leukocytes bearing receptors for IgG. Their suppressive effect was expressed only in the presence of normal radioresistant T lymphocytes that did not bear Fc receptors for IgG. Similar dysfunctions could be induced *in vitro* by incubation of normal T and B lymphocytes with gammaglobulin preparations. Because F(ab)'₂ fragments or deaggregated preparations of gammaglobulin failed to activate T suppressor lymphocytes, this activation was likely triggered by attachment of Fc portion of denatured IgG to the corresponding membrane receptor. This activation step was prostaglandin E₂-dependent, suggesting that activated monocytes were involved in the activation process. B lymphocyte responses appeared directly inhibited by attachment of denatured gammaglobulin on membrane Fc receptor. Our observations suggest that immunological effects of gammaglobulin therapy are not limited to antibody transfer, since it also induces subtle modifications of *in vitro* pokeweed mitogen-stimulated T and B cell responses. These modifications must be considered in interpreting results obtained in

immunodeficient patients investigated under gammaglobulin therapy.

INTRODUCTION

Immune responses are under a regulatory control system in which helper and suppressor mechanisms are involved. Besides regulatory processes of the immune response to a single antigen, several animal and human studies have demonstrated leukocyte populations able to suppress antigen or mitogen-induced T and B cell functions (1-8). Suppressor functions have been ascribed predominantly to T lymphocytes activated either by fixation of immune complexes on Fc receptors for IgG (Fcγ) (5) or by mitogens, such as concanavalin A (Con A) (4, 7-10). Other suppressor leukocytes have been described including B lymphocytes (11) and monocytes (12-15) acting through the release of suppressor mediators, especially prostaglandin E₂ (PGE₂)¹ (13-16). Cell-to-cell interactions between subpopulations of T cells (2, 17) or T lymphocytes and monocytes (18) also play an important role in the expression of suppressor activities. The physiological relevance of these various immunoregulatory systems remains undetermined. In addition to these numerous studies showing that expression of suppressor activities requires an *in vitro* activation, naturally occurring suppressor lymphocytes have been shown to control the level of T and B immune responses (19-23) at such times as the neonatal period (24-26), late pregnancy (26), and in normal nonresponder subjects (27). The

¹ *Abbreviations used in this paper:* E-RFC, sheep erythrocytes forming rosettes; γG, gammaglobulin; HTLA, human T leukocyte antigen; ICC, immunoglobulin-containing cells; NWC, nylon wool columns; PGE₂, prostaglandin E₂; PWM, pokeweed mitogen; sIg, surface immunoglobulins; TS, T suppressor.

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generation of plasma cells during pokeweed mitogen (PWM)-stimulated leukocyte cultures allows the study of the balance between positive and negative regulatory functions. This technique appears to give reproducible results in autologous as well as in allogeneic systems.

As it was suggested that immunoglobulin may reduce the level of the humoral response (28), and because an excess of suppressor activity was described in hypogammaglobulinemic patients receiving gammaglobulin (γ G) therapy (29, 30), we have investigated the influence of γ G injections in children without any detectable immune deficiency on the regulatory mechanism of the PWM system. We have found that γ G injections induce an inhibition of B lymphocytes and an activation of T suppressor (TS) lymphocytes that can inhibit the proliferation of T and B lymphocytes and the maturation of B lymphocytes. Furthermore, γ G injections provoked the lack of the helper function normally expressed by lymphocytes that do not bear Fc γ receptors. In an attempt to define the mechanisms involved in the inhibition of B and activation of TS lymphocytes, we developed experiments using normal leukocytes incubated with γ G preparation.

METHODS

Blood was collected from 12 children (aged 4 to 12 yr) who had no detectable abnormality of immune functions and who received γ G therapy because of mild but repeated infections of the respiratory tract. Humoral and cellular immune functions were investigated in all children before therapy. Antibody formation and serum immunoglobulin levels were within normal ranges except for three who had an increased serum IgE level (230 to 850 IU/ml, $n = 60 \pm 40$ IU/ml as tested by radioimmunoassay). In vivo delayed skin reactions to antigens (tuberculin, purified protein derivative, and Candidin [CD]) and in vitro proliferative responses to mitogens (phytohemagglutinin, Difco Laboratories, Detroit, Mich.), Con A (Miles Laboratories, Yeda, Israel), PWM (Gibco Laboratories, Glasgow, Scotland) or antigens (tetanus toxoid, purified protein derivative, and CD) performed as previously described (31) were comparable to controls.

10 children were treated with plasmatic γ G obtained from blood transfusion center (Centre National de Transfusion Sanguine, France), prepared by fractionation of plasmatic human γ G using ethanol fractionation (32), and adjusted to a final concentration of 165 mg/ml in a solution containing 22.5 mg/ml glycine and 0.1 mg/ml sodium mercurothiolate. Electrophoretic and immunoelectrophoretic studies showed that γ G preparations contained a large proportion of IgG and traces of IgA, IgM, and 2% albumin. As measured by radial immunodiffusion, IgG represented 155 mg/ml (94%); IgA, 1.5 mg/ml; IgM, 0.5 mg/ml. Sephadex G-200 (Pharmacia Fine Chemicals, Uppsala, Sweden) gel filtration pattern of the γ G preparation used for therapy showed the presence of ~30% of aggregates (>150,000 mol wt) (Fig. 1). No antibody against histocompatibility antigens (A, B, and DR) was detected using 10–80 mg/ml γ G preparation in a microcytotoxicity test (33).

Two other children were treated with placental γ G (Institut Mérieux, Lyon, France). The γ G preparation was eluted from placenta at pH 2.5, then fractionated by

ethanol precipitation (32), and adjusted at 165 mg/ml. It also contained aggregates (Fig. 1).

The γ G preparation was injected intramuscularly every 15 d at the dosage of 80 mg/kg, resulting in a reduction of the frequency of infections. All children were investigated prior to, during (48 h after the third or the fourth injection), and after (1–8 mo) cessation of therapy. Among tested functions, the only change observed was a normalization of the serum hyper-IgE. Under therapy, neither antiimmunoglobulin antibodies nor immune complexes were detected by a hemagglutination technique (34) or by polyethyleneglycol method (35), respectively. Apart from profound decreases in the PWM-induced responses, no other changes of cell-mediated immunity including in vitro cellular responses and in vivo delayed skin reactions to antigens were observed. Although a longitudinal study of antibody formation was not performed, we noticed a return to normal of serum IgE levels, whereas other serum immunoglobulin classes remained unchanged.

A control group consisting of healthy adult donors or age-matched children was studied in parallel. All blood specimens from children were obtained following informed consent by the parents.

Leukocyte markers. Blood was collected in preservative-free heparin (100 U/ml). After dilution 1:3 in Hanks' buffer solution (Gibco Laboratories) mononuclear cells were isolated on Ficoll-Hypaque (Pharmacia Fine Chemicals) density gradient and washed twice in medium. Sheep erythrocytes forming rosettes (E-RFC) were counted as previously described (36). A heteroantiserum specific for human T leukocyte antigen (HTLA) (Institut Mérieux) was also used in a microcytotoxicity test, and results were expressed after subtraction of the background. Surface immunoglobulins (sIg) were detected by membrane immunofluorescence using fluorochrome-labeled monospecific F(ab)'2 fragments against human μ -, δ -, γ -, and α -chains and anti-F(ab) IgG (Nordic Laboratories, Tilburg, Netherlands) (37). In order to detect actual products of B lymphocytes, cells were preincubated 30

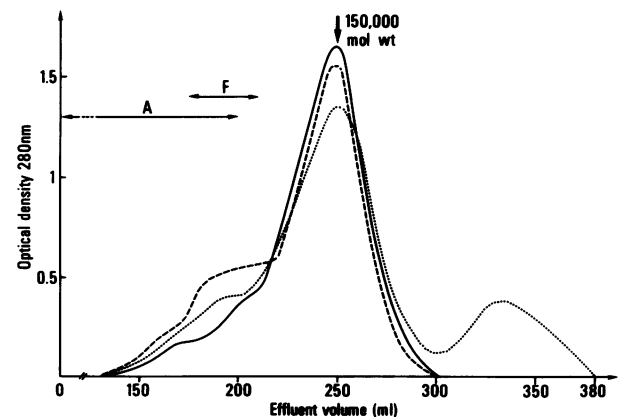


FIGURE 1 Elution patterns from Sephadex G-200 of plasmatic (----) and placental (.....) γ G preparation and purified human IgG (—): F, elution zone of ferritin (mol wt, 450,000), A, elution zone of heat-aggregated human IgG. γ G preparation appears to contain ~30% aggregates (mol wt > 150,000). Placental γ G preparation was contaminated by a heterogeneous polypeptide (~50,000 mol wt) as defined by polyacrylamide gel (45); this constituent was precipitated by anti-IgG antiserum in double immunodiffusion and was found not to be suppressive in the PWM system.

min at 37°C or treated with trypsin (ICN Pharmaceuticals Inc., Cleveland, Ohio) (2 mg/ml), then washed and incubated for 7 h before sIg studies were performed. Detection of C₃b and Fc receptors was performed by EAC (erythrocytes antibody complement) rosetting and fixation of heat-aggregated rabbit IgG revealed by a fluorescent sheep antiserum anti-rabbit IgG (38). Ia-antigen was revealed by an anti-Ia antiserum raised in rabbit (kindly donated by Dr. P. Niaudet, Institut National de la Santé et de la Recherche Médicale, Paris) and prepared according to a technique previously described (39).

Determination of E-RFC-bearing Fc receptors for IgG (EA γ (+) cells) was done as described by Moretta et al. (5). Detection of endogenous peroxidase was done as described by Preudhomme and Flandrin (40). Histochemical staining for α -naphthyl esterase was used to define subpopulations of human blood T lymphocytes and monocytes, as described by Horwitz et al. (41).

Cell separation. E-RFC positive or E(+) and E-RFC negative or E(-) leukocytes were obtained as already described (26). After erythrocyte lysis, preparations from controls and children who received γ G-E(+) contained 85.4 \pm 6.9% HTLA(+), 87.8 \pm 7.5% E-RFC, 0.5 \pm 0.9% sIg(+) and 3.7 \pm 2.3% peroxidase positive cells. In E(-) cell preparations of both origins, some T cells (9.6 \pm 3.3% HTLA[+] and 5.5 \pm 2.8% E-RFC), 45.4 \pm 6.7% sIg(+) and 28.7 \pm 12.1% peroxidase positive cells were enumerated. A further step of E(+) cell separation was performed by rosetting with IgG-sensitized ox erythrocytes by a previously reported method (26). EA γ (+) cell preparations contained 62.2 \pm 6.8% HTLA(+), 58.5 \pm 6.5% E-RFC, and 59.9 \pm 6.5% cells formed again EA γ (+) rosettes. 13.0 \pm 6.1% ox erythrocytes phagocytizing cells and 4.1 \pm 2.9% peroxidase positive leukocytes were also detected. EA γ (-) cell preparations contained 85.8 \pm 8.5% HTLA(+), 86.1 \pm 4.7% E-RFC, few peroxidase positive cells (1.5 \pm 0.5%) and very few cells able to form EA γ (+) rosettes (\leq 0.5%).

Adherent and nonadherent cells were obtained by incubation of 150–500 \times 10³ E(-) cell preparations at 37°C in plastic microwells (Falcon 3040, Falcon Labware, Div. Becton, Dickinson & Co., Oxnard, Calif.). After 1 h, nonadherent cells were removed and adherent cells were washed thoroughly several times with Hanks' solution. About 20% of cells adhere on plastic and 90.5 \pm 6.2% were monocytes as judged by latex particle phagocytosis. Nonadherent cells were further depleted of monocytes by two successive incubations on plastic at 37°C. In some experiments, indomethacin (Sigma Chemical Co., St. Louis, Mo.), at a final concentration of 0.51 μ M, or anti-PGE₂, or antithromboxane B₂ (TxB₂) antisera raised in rabbit (42), at a final concentration 1:100, were added.

Various pretreatments of cell preparations were performed in particular experiments: pretreatment of E(-) preparations either by trypsin or by a cytotoxic anti-HTLA in the presence of complement, filtration of E(+) or EA γ (-) cells through nylon wool columns (NWC) as described by Julius et al. (43) (0.5 \pm 0.9% peroxidase positive cells were enumerated), incubation of E(+), EA γ (-), or EA γ (+) leukocytes during 24 h at 37°C in RPMI 1640 medium (Gibco Laboratories) containing 20% de complemented human AB+ serum or irradiation of E(+), EA γ (+), or EA γ (-) cells at 2,000 rad in a gamma cell irradiator.

Elsewhere, before being cultured, control E(-), E(+), or EA γ (-) leukocytes were incubated with extensively dialyzed plasmatic (batches 77 D277 A and 77 D 853 F) or placental (batch U 0 143 I) γ G preparations (0.07–1.5 mg/ml).

In other experiments, control E(+) or EA γ (-) cell populations were incubated with the same concentrations of aggregated or deaggregated γ G(separated by gel filtration on Sephadex G-200) or F(ab)'2 fragments of plasmatic γ G(pre-

pared by peptic digestion (pepsin, Sigma Chemical Co.) 20 h, 37°C, followed by gel filtration, according to the technique of Natvig and Turner [44]). Purity of F(ab)'2 fragments was verified on sodium dodecyl sulfate polyacrylamide gel (45). Finally, control E(+) cell preparations were incubated with the same concentrations of plasmatic or placental γ G previously absorbed (vol/vol) with a pool of total (times three) and E(-) (times two) normal leukocytes before testing for suppressive activity.

In all experiments, cell viability was >90% as judged by trypan blue exclusion.

Cell cultures. PWM-stimulated cultures were performed as previously described (26). Cultured cells, harvested at day 7, were counted and stained for the presence of intracytoplasmic immunoglobulin with fluorescent monospecific anti-heavy chain (N. L. Cappel Laboratories, Inc., Cochranville, Pa.) or polyvalent anti-human immunoglobulin (Meloy Laboratories, Inc., Springfield, Va.) antisera. The proportion of immunoglobulin-bearing and immunoglobulin-containing cells (ICC, or plasma cells) was determined by examination of 500–1,000 cells. Proliferative responses, measured by incorporation of tritiated thymidine (2 μ Ci/ml, sp act 1 Ci/mM) added during the last 18 h of the culture were expressed in Δ -counts per minute, after subtraction of the background.

Statistical analysis. Data are expressed as the mean value \pm 1 SD. The level of significance (*P*) was obtained using Student's *t* test.

RESULTS

Effect of γ G injections on blood lymphocyte markers. Absolute number and expression of surface markers of T and B lymphocytes remained unchanged during γ G therapy. Double staining experiments showed, however, that 25% of μ - and δ -bearing B lymphocytes were also detected by F(ab)'2 fragments of anti- γ -chain antibodies. γ -chains that cocapped with Ia antigens were thought unlikely to be B lymphocyte products as they did not reappear after an *in vitro* trypsin treatment.

Reduced capability of γ G-treated children leukocytes to proliferate and to mature into ICC during a PWM-stimulated culture. Leukocytes from 10 children before therapy were capable of proliferation and maturation into ICC in the presence of PWM, comparable to adult or age-matched normal children. In contrast, leukocytes from the same children receiving plasmatic γ G injections proliferated less well than normal leukocytes (*P* < 0.01) and demonstrated reduced plasma cell maturation (*P* < 0.001) (Table I). Studies of membrane markers indicated that the reduction of proliferation occurred in both T and B cell populations and showed that, although δ -chain determinants normally disappeared, γ - and α -bearing lymphocytes were strongly diminished. The same abnormalities, absent before therapy, appeared in two children receiving γ G of placental origin.

Longitudinal studies performed in six children indicated that this failure persisted several months (up to 5 mo) after cessation of γ G therapy. After restoration of PWM-induced responses we observed, in three chil-

TABLE I
PWM-induced Proliferation and Maturation into Plasma Cells of Lymphocytes from Control or from Children prior to or during γ G Therapy

Source of cultured leukocytes	No. of subjects tested	Δ cpm $\times 10^3$	Total leukocytes	Absolute number of recovered cells $\times 10^3 \pm 1$ SD							
				Plasma cells containing				Cells bearing			
				IgM	IgG	IgA	IgD	IgM	IgG	IgA	IgD
Control	35	25.9 \pm 6.6	150.5 \pm 62.0*	11.6 \pm 7.8	9.6 \pm 5.8	9.6 \pm 6.9	<0.1	10.7 \pm 5.2	8.0 \pm 2.1	5.9 \pm 0.5	<0.1
Children before γ G therapy	10†	39.0 \pm 16.9	209.0 \pm 19.2	11.8 \pm 4.3	8.4 \pm 3.7	5.8 \pm 2.1	<0.1	11.8 \pm 6.8	7.4 \pm 3.9	6.7 \pm 0.7	<0.1
Children receiving plasmatic γ G	10†	11.7 \pm 8.2	91.5 \pm 20.5*	0.3 \pm 0.3	0.3 \pm 0.3	<0.1	<0.1	5.4 \pm 1.5	1.8 \pm 2.1	0.8 \pm 0.2	<0.1

Cultures were performed with 200×10^3 leukocytes in presence of PWM for 7 d.

Detection of membrane determinants (HTLA or sIg) performed at the end of cultures * indicated that the reduction of proliferation affected both T and B cells since respective percentages (44.5 \pm 10.4 and 10.5 \pm 2.5%) were not different from control cultures (42.3 \pm 2.8 and 15.7 \pm 3.2%).

† Two additional children were tested prior to and during therapy with γ G of placental origin. Results were very similar to those obtained with the 10 children receiving plasmatic γ G.

dren tested, that reintroduction of γ G injections provoked the same failure (Table II).

Inability of B lymphocytes from γ G-receiving children to mature into ICC with the help of normal T cells. B lymphocytes present in E(-) populations isolated from γ G-receiving children proliferated poorly ($P < 0.001$) and did not mature into ICC when co-cultured with control E(+) leukocytes ($P < 0.001$) (or their own E(+) leukocytes) (Table III). B lymphocytes remained unable to mature after 7 h incubation in culture medium alone or after pretreatment with trypsin or after depletion of a few T cells that can contaminate E(-) preparations by a cytotoxic anti-HTLA antiserum, while normal B lymphocytes were not affected under such conditions (data not shown). On the other hand,

several experiments were performed to determine whether or not monocytes were involved in the failure of B cell maturation. Depletion of adherent cells or their replacement by control adherent cells had no significant influence on the generation of PWM-induced plasma cells. Addition of indomethacin, known to switch off a part of monocyte suppressor activity (46), or of an anti-PGE₂ antiserum, did not restore the B lymphocyte maturation.

Helper effect of T lymphocytes from γ G-receiving children or their subsets on PWM-induced proliferation and maturation of control B lymphocytes. Total T lymphocytes, present in E(+) populations isolated from children receiving γ G therapy, were normally able to help allogeneic control B lymphocytes present in E(-) preparations to proliferate and to mature into ICC during a 7-d PWM-stimulated culture (Table IV). Such an effect was increased by a previous irradiation of E(+) leukocytes. The cell recovery and expression of sIg determinants were comparable to that of control co-cultures. EA γ (+) leukocytes isolated either from treated children or from control individuals were unable to allow maturation of B lymphocytes ($P < 0.001$), unless they were irradiated in order to abolish the suppressor activity induced by fixation of EA complexes. EA γ (-) leukocytes from treated children, contrary to control EA γ (-) leukocytes, were ineffective as inducers of proliferation ($P < 0.02$) and maturation into plasma cells of control B lymphocytes ($P < 0.02$), even after a 2,000-rad irradiation.

Suppressor activity of T lymphocytes from γ G-receiving children or their subsets on PWM-induced T and B cell proliferation and maturation of B lymphocytes. Addition of control E(+) leukocytes to a constant number of autologous or allogeneic total control leukocytes (ratio 1:1) did not affect proliferation and maturation of B lymphocytes in presence of PWM. In contrast, E(+) leukocytes from children under γ G

TABLE II
Longitudinal Study of PWM-induced Maturation into Plasma Cells of Lymphocytes from Children prior to, during, and after (1-6 mo) Cessation of Treatment with Plasmatic γ G

Children	No. of recovered plasma cells $\times 10^3$					
	Prior to γ G therapy	During γ G therapy	After cessation of γ G therapy			During a second cure of γ G therapy
			1 mo	2-5 mo	6 mo	
1	10.5	0.2	NT	1.8	27.8	NT
2	15.0	0.1	NT	0.3	18.9	NT
3	18.2	0.2	0.1	NT	24.9	0.1
4	12.0	0.1	0.8	7.2	12.2	0.2
5	16.8	0.1	0.1	14.9	NT	0.1
6	5.6	<0.1	NT	4.8	NT	NT

PWM-stimulated cultures were performed using 200×10^3 leukocytes isolated from the same children before any therapy, during therapy with plasmatic γ G, 1-6 mo after cessation of treatment and during a second cure of plasmatic γ G. NT, not tested.

TABLE III
PWM-induced Proliferation and Maturation into Plasma Cells of γ G-treated Children E(-) Leukocytes Co-cultured with Control E(+) Leukocytes

Source of E(+) leukocytes	Source of E(-) leukocytes	No. of experiments performed	Number of recovered cells $\times 10^3 \pm 1$ SD			
			Total cells	Plasma cells containing		
				IgM	IgG	IgA
Control Children receiving plasmatic γ G	Control	25	159.4 \pm 50.3	10.1 \pm 5.1	8.1 \pm 4.6	7.6 \pm 3.9
Control	Treated children	7*	65.3 \pm 25.0	0.3 \pm 0.1	0.2 \pm 0.1	0.1 \pm 0.1
	Treated children	7*	51.0 \pm 32.7	0.1 \pm 0.1	0.1 \pm 0.1	0.1 \pm 0.1

PWM-stimulated co-cultures were performed in autologous or allogeneic situations. Co-cultures of E(+) and E(-) cells were performed using 160.10^3 E(+) leukocytes and 40.10^3 E(-) leukocytes. Isolated E(+) or E(-) leukocytes did not mature into plasma cells in presence of PWM.

* Identical results were obtained with E(-) leukocytes isolated from two children receiving placental γ G.

therapy provoked a significant inhibition of T and B cell proliferation ($P < 0.001$) and of B cell maturation ($P < 0.001$) when added to control total leukocyte cultures (Table V). EA γ (+) leukocytes isolated from γ G-treated children exerted a suppressor activity restricted to B cell maturation ($P < 0.001$) comparable to that observed with control EA γ (+) leukocytes, regardless of the ratio of EA γ (+) to target cells used (1:4 to 1:1). Whereas control EA γ (-) leukocytes added to allogeneic total leukocyte cultures did not affect proliferations and B cell maturation, the same cell popula-

tions isolated from γ G-treated children exerted a suppressor effect on proliferations ($P < 0.01$) and strongly inhibited maturation of B lymphocytes ($P < 0.001$). This suppressor activity was also observed at lower ratios (1:4 and 1:2). A similar suppressive activity was obtained with NWC filtered E(+) or EA γ (-) populations (data not shown).

Properties of TS lymphocytes isolated from children receiving plasmatic γ G. The suppressor activity of E(+) or EA γ (-) leukocytes from γ G-treated children was totally abolished by a 2,000-rad irradiation

TABLE IV
Helper Function Exerted by E(+), EA γ (+), or EA γ (-) Lymphocytes from Control or Children Treated with Plasmatic γ G Co-cultured with Control E(-) Population Stimulated by PWM

Source of E(+) leukocytes or subset co-cultured with control E(-) population	No. of experiments performed	No. of recovered cells $\times 10^3 \pm 1$ SD			
		Total cells	Plasma cells containing		
			IgM	IgG	IgA
Control E(+)	25	159.4 \pm 50.3	10.1 \pm 5.1	8.1 \pm 4.6	7.6 \pm 3.9
Control irradiated E(+)	10	237.5 \pm 61.3	29.1 \pm 6.3	26.7 \pm 7.9	23.2 \pm 7.1
Treated children E(+)	7*	165.6 \pm 32.7	7.3 \pm 3.6	6.7 \pm 4.3	5.5 \pm 3.4
Treated children irradiated E(+)	6	195.0 \pm 34.1	22.4 \pm 8.9	21.0 \pm 7.7	19.2 \pm 5.6
Control EA γ (+)	7	118.7 \pm 15.0	0.4 \pm 0.4	0.2 \pm 0.1	0.3 \pm 0.3
Control irradiated EA γ (+)	5	112.0 \pm 19.7	9.6 \pm 1.2	9.3 \pm 3.9	7.2 \pm 2.1
Treated children EA γ (+)	5*	123.6 \pm 11.8	0.3 \pm 0.2	0.1 \pm 0.2	<0.1
Treated children irradiated EA γ (+)	2	116.5 \pm 23.3	6.4 \pm 0.1	5.3 \pm 0.6	5.4 \pm 0.4
Control EA γ (-)	10	144.0 \pm 41.5	14.1 \pm 4.2	13.9 \pm 4.7	14.3 \pm 4.5
Control irradiated EA γ (-)	4	171.5 \pm 17.2	25.2 \pm 5.6	18.4 \pm 3.1	16.7 \pm 4.4
Treated children EA γ (-)	5*	122.3 \pm 21.1	1.1 \pm 0.2	0.7 \pm 0.4	0.3 \pm 0.2
Treated children irradiated EA γ (-)	3	95.5 \pm 31.6	0.2 \pm 0.1	0.2 \pm 0.1	0.2 \pm 0.1

The helper function on B lymphocyte maturation was studied by co-culturing, in presence of PWM, 160×10^3 E(+), EA γ (+), or EA γ (-) leukocytes isolated from control or children receiving plasmatic γ G and 40×10^3 allogeneic control E(-) cell populations. E(+) preparation or their subsets were either untreated or irradiated (2,000 rad).

* Helper effect of E(+) but not of non-irradiated EA γ (+) or EA γ (-) leukocytes isolated from two children receiving placental γ G was also observed.

TABLE V
Suppressive Effect Exerted by E(+), EA γ (+), or EA γ (-) Lymphocytes from Control or Children Treated with Plasmatic γ G Co-cultured with Control Total Leukocytes Stimulated by PWM

Source of E(+) leukocytes or subset co-cultured with control total leukocytes	No. of experiments performed	Number of recovered cells $\times 10^3 \pm 1$ SD			
		Total cells	Plasma cells containing		
			IgM	IgG	IgA
Control E(+)	20	126.6 \pm 20.2*	7.6 \pm 4.6	6.6 \pm 1.9	6.8 \pm 3.4
Control irradiated E(+)	10	157.8 \pm 18.4	17.7 \pm 3.3	19.1 \pm 0.7	13.0 \pm 2.1
Treated children E(+)	5†	76.6 \pm 15.2§	0.3 \pm 0.3	0.2 \pm 0.2	0.3 \pm 0.4
Treated children irradiated E(+)	5	167.2 \pm 14.8	12.9 \pm 2.3	9.3 \pm 2.6	9.0 \pm 3.9
Control EA γ (+)	15	152.5 \pm 38.9	0.5 \pm 1.0	0.4 \pm 0.3	0.2 \pm 0.1
Control irradiated EA γ (+)	4	114.5 \pm 10.7	7.1 \pm 0.3	8.2 \pm 2.3	5.9 \pm 2.1
Treated children EA γ (+)	5†	125.5 \pm 28.2	0.6 \pm 0.5	0.2 \pm 0.2	0.3 \pm 0.1
Treated children irradiated EA γ (+)	3	118.7 \pm 41.6	6.6 \pm 1.4	5.7 \pm 0.7	4.3 \pm 2.0
Control EA γ (-)	15	136.3 \pm 24.0	6.1 \pm 2.6	5.5 \pm 1.7	5.6 \pm 1.4
Control irradiated EA γ (-)	4	137.7 \pm 29.9	12.4 \pm 4.7	10.8 \pm 3.6	8.8 \pm 4.9
Treated children EA γ (-)	5†	81.5 \pm 16.2	0.6 \pm 0.5	0.3 \pm 0.4	0.2 \pm 0.1
Treated children irradiated EA γ (-)	3	114.5 \pm 14.7	5.1 \pm 1.1	4.8 \pm 0.9	4.7 \pm 0.5

The suppressor effect on B lymphocyte maturation was studied by co-culturing, in presence of PWM, 100×10^3 E(+), EA γ (+), or EA γ (-) leukocytes isolated from control or children receiving plasmatic γ G and 100×10^3 allogeneic control total cell populations. E(+) preparations or their subsets were either untreated or irradiated (2,000 rad).

Percentage of recovered B lymphocytes detected by sIg studies and T lymphocytes revealed with an a-HTLA antiserum were, respectively, 14.7 ± 6.8 and $40.5 \pm 8.7\%$ in cultures with control E(+)* and 12.7 ± 3.5 and $51.9 \pm 13.3\%$ in cultures with treated children E(+).§

† The same suppressive effect was observed with E(+), EA γ (+), or EA γ (-) leukocytes isolated from two children receiving placental γ G.

($P < 0.01$) (Table V) or by a preincubation (24 h 37°C) in culture medium added with normal human serum ($P < 0.001$) (data not shown). The suppressor activity exerted by EA γ (+) leukocytes from γ G-treated children and from controls were similarly sensitive to irradiation ($P < 0.001$) but not to a previous incubation ($P > 0.5$). Although, as already indicated, E(+) leukocytes from γ G-treated children exerted a helper activity on B lymphocytes present in control E(-) cell preparations, the same E(+) leukocytes became able to express a suppressive activity when a small quantity of control E(+) was added to the co-cultures. The intensity of this suppressive effect was proportional to the number of added control E(+) cells (Fig. 2). Cells present in control E(+) leukocyte preparations, and necessary for the expression of γ G-treated E(+) leukocyte suppression, were isolated in EA γ (-) populations (Fig. 2) and resistant to a 2,000-rad irradiation (data not shown).

In vitro effect of γ G-preparations on control leukocytes. Total control leukocytes, cultured in presence of either plasmatic or placental γ G-preparation (0.15–1.5 mg/ml) used for therapy, were unable to proliferate ($P < 0.001$) and maturation of B lymphocytes was abolished ($P < 0.001$) (data not shown). In order to explain these results, separated cell populations were incubated in presence of γ G before co-culturing with

control E(-) or total leukocytes. The helper effect of incubated E(+) leukocytes could not be studied, however, since control E(+) leukocytes lost their helper function after a 48-h incubation in culture medium alone. As shown in Table VI, control fresh, but not preincubated or irradiated E(+) leukocytes acquired suppressor activity after 24 to 48 h (but not 1 h) incubation in presence of 0.07 to 1.5 mg/ml γ G. This *in vitro* γ G-induced suppressor activity was proportional to the dosage of γ G. Cell cytotoxicity was observed over 1.5 mg/ml. Similar results were obtained when EA γ (-) leukocytes were incubated with γ G. Because E(+) or EA γ (-) cell preparations contained few monocytes ($\leq 5\%$), it was possible that monocytes were involved in the observed suppressive effect. In fact, an extensive monocyte depletion of E(+) or EA γ (-) leukocyte preparation on a NWC reduced the *in vitro* suppressive activity induced by plasmatic γ G ($P < 0.05$). Control E(+) or EA γ (-) leukocytes incubated in presence of plasmatic γ G and an anti-PGE₂ antiserum, in order to inhibit PGE₂ that could be secreted by γ G-activated cells, did not acquire any suppressive activity (Table VI). In contrast, the suppression exerted by γ G-activated E(+) cells was insensitive to the addition of anti-PGE₂ antiserum in the test culture, suggesting that PGE₂ was only required in the activation phase of TS

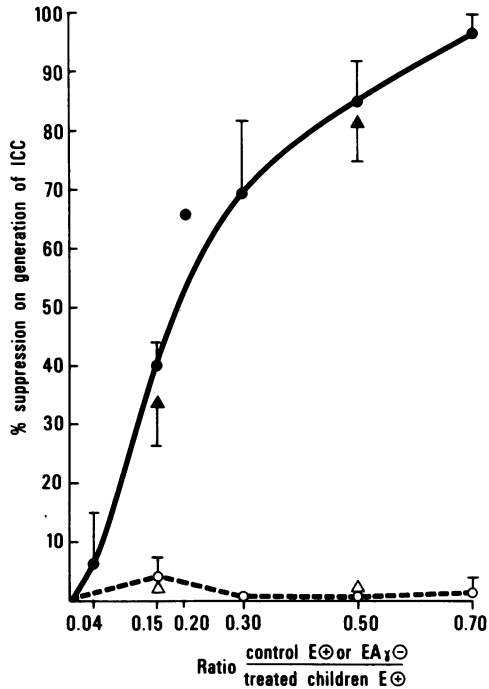


FIGURE 2 Suppressor activity of E(+) leukocytes from children receiving plasmatic γ G (—) or from control (---) on normal B lymphocyte maturation in the presence of increasing numbers of control allogeneic E(+) (mean of four experiments) or EA γ (-) leukocytes (mean of two experiments). PWM-stimulated co-cultures were performed with 40×10^3 control E(-) leukocytes and 160×10^3 γ G-treated children E(+) leukocytes mixed with control E(+) (●) or EA γ (-) (▲) leukocytes added at varying ratios (0 to 0.75). Suppressor activity on generation of ICC was proportional to an increasing ratio of control E(+)-treated children's E(+) cells. No suppressor activity was obtained by mixing control E(+) leukocytes with allogeneic control E(+) (○) or EA γ (-) leukocytes (△).

(data not shown). On the other hand, control E(+) leukocytes did not acquire any suppressor activity when incubated with purified F(ab)'2 fragments of plasmatic γ G or with plasmatic or placental γ G preparations depleted of aggregates by gel filtration. Such deaggregated γ G preparations treated by heat (56°C for 60 min, then 63°C for 20 min) in order to again provoke aggregates, became capable of inducing TS lymphocyte activation. Finally, plasmatic or placental γ G preparations previously absorbed with total E(-) leukocytes and adjusted at 1 mg/ml retained their ability to induce TS activity (data not shown).

Control B lymphocytes present in E(-) preparations pretreated (1-4 h) by either plasmatic or placental γ G (1 mg/ml) remained able to proliferate and to mature with the help of control, untreated T lymphocytes. However, when co-cultures were performed by mixing control irradiated E(+) leukocytes (in order to inhibit the γ G-induced suppressive effect) and control E(-) leukocytes in presence of PWM and γ G (1 mg/ml), pro-

liferation ($P < 0.01$) and maturation of B lymphocytes ($P < 0.001$) were profoundly diminished. The suppressor effect of γ G when present during the culture period was still observed when anti-PGE₂ substances (indomethacin or anti-PGE₂ antiserum) were added in order to prevent a possible indirect PGE₂-dependent suppression of B cell maturation (data not shown).

DISCUSSION

Repeated intramuscular injections of plasmatic or placental γ G to 12 nonimmunodeficient children provoked a marked reduction of in vitro PWM-induced T and B lymphocyte proliferations and B lymphocyte maturation into plasma cells, an effect that persisted several months after cessation of therapy. This failure appears to be the consequence of an in vivo-induced dysregulation of both T and B cell functions.

Firstly, B lymphocytes present in E(-) leukocyte preparations responded poorly to a helper effect exerted by control or autologous T lymphocytes. Such an inability could be due either to an indirect effect, in relation to a suppressive activity exerted by monocytes, by the few T lymphocytes present in E(-) cell preparations, or to a direct inhibition of B lymphocytes. Indeed, it is well-known that activated monocytes are able to suppress lymphocyte proliferation (6, 11, 12) and B cell maturation (13, 14). However, depletion of monocytes from γ G-treated children E(-) cell preparations or their replacement by normal monocytes did not improve B lymphocyte maturation. On the other hand, depletion of T lymphocytes of low affinity for sheep erythrocytes, which have been described as suppressor for the PWM-driven B lymphocyte maturation even in a normal situation (3, 27), did not restore the B lymphocyte function. These results suggest that a direct inhibition of B lymphocyte responses occurred in vivo, likely by fixation of γ G on Fc γ receptors. However, after enzyme cleavage of γ G (detected by immunofluorescence) from the membrane, B lymphocytes remained unable to respond, as if the strong in vivo inhibition does not allow, in our experimental conditions, an in vitro recovery. The interpretation of a direct inhibition of B lymphocytes is sustained by in vitro experiments showing that B lymphocytes were directly inhibited in the presence of γ G throughout the culture. This inhibition was not complete however, because B lymphocytes could reach a certain degree of differentiation marked by the loss of membrane IgD, an event that was reported to be concomitant with B cell maturation (47), but were unable to express γ - and α -chain determinants.

Secondly, although T lymphocytes from γ G-treated children were able to help the maturation of normal B lymphocytes (present in E[-] populations), they exerted a suppressor activity when added to unfractionated normal leukocytes. This suppressor activity

TABLE VI
Induction of T Lymphocyte Suppressor Activity by in vitro Incubation of Control Leukocytes in Presence of Plasmatic γ G Preparation

Treatment of E(+) or EA γ (-) cell preparation added to total leukocyte cultures	No. experiments performed	No. of recovered cells $\times 10^3 \pm 1$ SD			
		Total cells	Plasma cells containing		
			IgM	IgG	IgA
E(+) incubated alone	25	121.3 \pm 33.0	8.9 \pm 4.9	7.8 \pm 1.2	8.0 \pm 2.7
E(+) incubated with γ G	18*	75.2 \pm 26.3	0.8 \pm 1.6	0.7 \pm 1.4	1.0 \pm 1.7
E(+) irradiated, then incubated with γ G	2	140.5 \pm 40.3	9.6 \pm 1.8	9.3 \pm 2.1	8.6 \pm 1.5
E(+) preincubated alone, then with γ G	7	93.4 \pm 21.6	6.3 \pm 1.3	5.7 \pm 1.0	6.1 \pm 0.2
NWC filtrated E(+) incubated with γ G	7	102.2 \pm 31.9	3.8 \pm 2.4	3.7 \pm 2.4	3.1 \pm 2.2
E(+) incubated with γ G + aPGE ₂	7	132.7 \pm 17.8	7.6 \pm 1.5	5.8 \pm 0.6	6.3 \pm 1.7
E(+) incubated with γ G + aTXB ₂	4	71.0 \pm 7.3	0.5 \pm 0.4	0.3 \pm 0.5	0.5 \pm 0.4
EA γ (-) incubated alone	7	152.5 \pm 16.9	9.3 \pm 1.4	7.8 \pm 1.9	7.7 \pm 1.7
EA γ (-) incubated with γ G	7	84.7 \pm 26.0	0.7 \pm 0.6	0.4 \pm 0.3	0.6 \pm 0.5
EA γ (-) incubated with γ G + aPGE ₂	5	119.4 \pm 18.3	7.1 \pm 3.4	6.5 \pm 2.8	6.7 \pm 2.4
EA γ (-) incubated with γ G + aTXB ₂	2	65.7 \pm 10.6	0.6 \pm 0.2	0.8 \pm 0.3	0.4 \pm 0.3

The in vitro induction of suppressor activity by plasmatic γ G preparation was tested on untreated, preincubated (24 h, 37°C), NWC filtered or irradiated (2,000 rad) control E(+) or EA γ (-) leukocytes (1×10^6 /ml) incubated in presence of 1 mg/ml of γ G for 48 h before being added to control allogeneic total leukocyte PWM-stimulated cultures. In some experiments, an anti-PGE₂ antiserum was present during the 48 h incubation with γ G. A monospecific anti-thromboxane B₂ (aTXB₂) antiserum that did not crossreact with PGE₂, and which neutralized an important class of prostaglandin secreted by monocytes, was used as control in order to estimate a possible effect of immune complexes.

* Control E(+) leukocytes incubated in presence of placental γ G (1 mg/ml) acquired the same suppressive activity.

was totally neutralized by irradiation, suggesting that suppression was displayed by in vivo activated TS lymphocytes that operated only when able to divide, as already mentioned for various TS lymphocyte activities (20, 21, 26, 48). In an attempt to further characterize in vivo γ G-induced suppressor leukocytes, the respective activities of EA γ (+) and EA γ (-) populations were studied. EA γ (+) leukocytes from treated patients exerted a suppressor effect on B lymphocyte maturation but not on proliferation, an effect that appeared to be radiosensitive but resistant to a 24-h preincubation, as already described for normal individual EA γ (+) (5, 26). A suppressor effect found in EA γ (+) cells is not peculiar to γ G-treated children since it is well known that technical procedures for isolation of EA γ (+) subset activated cells to become suppressive (5, 49). Titration experiments performed with varying numbers of EA γ (+) leukocytes did not allow detection of a greater suppressive effect exerted by the treated children subset. Thus, we are not able to discriminate between a possible in vivo activation of EA γ (+) by γ G preparations and an artificial in vitro activation by EA complexes. EA γ (-) leukocytes from γ G-treated children appeared to be more clearly activated in vivo because they exerted a spontaneous suppressive activity that was not detected in normal EA γ (-) leukocytes. The observation that suppressor activity was not altered by re-

moval of NWC-adherent leukocytes suggests that T lymphocytes that do not bear Fc γ receptors were responsible for the effect. The in vivo γ G-induced TS lymphocyte activity was comparable with that exerted by in vitro Con A-activated TS lymphocytes since they both affected proliferation and B cell maturation, and disappeared after incubation (9, 10, 26).

γ G-induced TS activity appeared to be dependent on a cell-to-cell interaction. Indeed, the γ G-induced suppression was only expressed in the presence of a normal, radioresistant, Fc γ (-) subset. It may be that leukocytes from treated children lack an intermediate cell activity necessary for expression of TS lymphocytes. Alternatively, as already proposed in other situations (17, 50), it may exist in treated children's leukocytes a "contra-suppressive" activity able to protect helper cells from the inhibitory effect of suppressor T cells, but which is overcome by addition of normal helper cells. Either hypothesis would explain why, despite activation of TS lymphocytes, a helper function was observed when treated children's E(+) cells were co-cultured with normal E(-) leukocytes since, in this condition, TS lymphocytes could not operate. When studied in Fc γ (+) or Fc γ (-) leukocyte subsets, the helper function normally found in Fc γ (-) populations was absent in treated children's leukocytes even after irradiation. In contrast, a helper function was observed in the irradi-

ated Fc γ (+) subset, both in treated children and in normal leukocytes. Fc γ (+) cell populations thus appear heterogeneous, since not only radiosensitive suppressor cells but also radioresistant T helper lymphocytes were found. Such heterogeneity, at least in terms of membrane phenotype, was recently mentioned by Reinherz et al. (51) and by Kaszubowski et al. (52).

The observation that γ G preparation induced in vitro a TS activity comparable, in all respects, to that observed in γ G-treated children helps, to some extent, to analyze the mechanisms involved. The activation, but not the expression, of TS lymphocytes appeared to be dependent on PGE₂ secretion by γ G-activated cells. In fact, it has already been shown in mice (53) and suggested in humans (54) that PGE₂ can induce TS activity on T lymphocyte proliferation. We have reported elsewhere that PGE₂ can directly activate TS cells effective on human T and B cell proliferation and B lymphocyte maturation (55). Monocytes could be responsible for the in vitro PGE₂-induced TS activation, since activated monocytes were shown to produce large amounts of PGE₂ (56).

The exact mechanism of the in vivo and in vitro activation of TS lymphocytes is questionable. Anti-Ia antibodies that could be present in γ G preparations might be responsible for the TS activation. Although anti-HLA, including anti-Ia antibodies were not detected in plasmatic γ G preparations using a microcytotoxicity test, we performed absorption experiments in order to reduce the level of anti-Ia antibodies that might have not been detected by such an assay. Under our conditions of absorption, we failed to remove the induction of TS activity. We also showed that F(ab)'₂ fragments of plasmatic γ G failed to induce suppressive activity indicating that the effect was dependent on the Fc portion of γ G. Finally, deaggregated γ G preparation was inefficient in inducing TS activity unless it was aggregated again by heat. Altogether, these data tend to indicate that aggregated or denatured γ G plays an important role in the dysregulation of the PWM responses, probably by its attachment on membrane Fc γ receptor, present on B lymphocytes, monocytes, and a T lymphocyte subset (5, 38, 56). B lymphocyte maturation could well be directly inhibited by fixation of IgG on membrane, as already described in mouse (57, 58). The same mechanism could activate monocytes to produce large amounts of PGE₂, as shown by Passwell et al. (56). Such an activation appears, however, transitory or not detected in blood monocytes since adherent cells from γ G-treated children behave like control adherent cells. The activation of TS lymphocytes is likely to be secondary to the effect of PGE₂ secreted by activated monocytes, that acts on T lymphocytes and particularly on Fc γ (-) lymphocytes, as previously shown (55). Our observation that TS activity is predominantly found in T γ (-) lymphocyte populations does not exclude, how-

ever, the possibility that Fc γ (+) TS lymphocytes could have been directly activated by γ G, and thus lost their Fc γ receptors as already described (59). Finally, γ G preparations inhibit helper function normally supported by Fc γ (-) cell subsets. Whether this lack of helper activity was secondary to the in vivo TS activity is not demonstrated. If so, one would expect that helper function found in EA γ (+) population was either insensitive to the in vivo TS functions or selected by our technical procedures.

The observation that aggregates seem to be responsible of the induced dysregulation does not exclude other possible mechanisms. Anti-Ia antibodies for instance, especially present in placental γ G (60), might well induce comparable results as described in vitro by Broder et al. (61). Whatever the case, preparation of γ G used for therapy should be depleted of aggregates as well as of anti-Ia antibodies. In the present study, we did not document any adverse effect of γ G therapy despite the profound abnormalities described in the PWM system. The only in vivo modification was a return to normal of serum IgE levels in the three children who had an increased level before treatment. The absence of other abnormalities, including influence on the level of other serum immunoglobulin classes, could in part be explained by the fact that γ G-induced TS activity was ineffective in absence of normal T lymphocytes. However, since B lymphocytes are affected by γ G therapy, a longitudinal study of primary and secondary antibody formation to antigenic stimulations could reveal a possible in vivo effect on humoral function. Even if our study does not show any clear correlation between in vitro abnormalities and in vivo effects due to γ G therapy, it indicates that an assay often used in the investigation of immune disorders can be profoundly modified during such a treatment. Although we have observed a spontaneously occurring TS lymphocyte activity in some common variable hypogammaglobulinemic patients before any γ G therapy, it appears that caution should be taken in interpreting in vitro PWM dysfunction. Indeed, γ G-induced immune dysregulation can mimic or amplify abnormalities due to primary physiopathological mechanisms.

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