

# ICOS: A New Costimulatory Ligand/Receptor Pair and Its Role in T-Cell Activation

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## Key Words

ICOS · Ligand/receptor pair, costimulatory · T-cell activation

## Summary

The inducible costimulator (ICOS) is a new member of the CD28/CD152 receptor family that regulates T-cell activation and function. ICOS binds to a specific ligand on antigen-presenting cells (APC) and cells of the peripheral tissue different from the CD28/CD152 ligands CD80 and CD86. ICOS-L can be induced by inflammatory stimuli in peripheral tissue and on some APC, including monocytes, but is downregulated in B-cell and myeloid leukemia. ICOS-L delivers distinct signals to T cells, presumably important for the maintenance of certain types of immune response, providing the rationale for the development of new therapeutic strategies for the treatment of diseases.

## Schlüsselwörter

ICOS · Liganden/Rezeptor-Paar, kostimulatorisch · T-Zellaktivierung

## Zusammenfassung

Der induzierbare Kostimulator (ICOS) ist ein neues Mitglied der CD28/CD152 Rezeptorfamilie, die die Aktivierung und Funktion von T-Zellen regulieren. ICOS bindet an einen spezifischen Liganden auf Antigen-präsentierenden Zellen (APC) und Zellen des peripheren Gewebes, der verschieden ist von den CD28/CD152-Liganden CD80 und CD86. Die Expression des ICOS-L kann durch inflammatorische Stimuli auf peripherem Gewebe und einigen APC, einschließlich Monozyten induziert werden, ist aber herunter reguliert bei B-Zell- und myeloiden Leukämien. ICOS-L induziert spezifische Signale in T-Zellen, die wahrscheinlich für die Aufrechterhaltung bestimmter Immunantworten notwendig sind. Diese Beobachtungen sind die Grundlage für die Entwicklung neuer therapeutischer Strategien zur Behandlung von Erkrankungen.

## ICOS: A New Member of CD28 Receptor Family

Antigen-specific T-cell stimulation via the T-cell receptor/CD3 complex (TCR/CD3) requires costimulatory receptors such as CD28. During this process, CD28 or CD152 (CTLA-4) expressed on T cells is engaged by the ligands CD80 (B7-1) or CD86 (B7-2) expressed on antigen-presenting cells [1]. The inducible costimulator (ICOS) is a recently defined new mem-

ber of the CD28 family, but unlike CD28, it is not constitutively expressed on T cells [2]. ICOS expression requires the activation of T cells via the TCR/CD3 complex. It shows structural homology to CD28 and CD152 but it differs in the MYPPPY homology domain necessary for binding of CD28/CD152 to CD80 or CD86 [3]. Similarly, the cytoplasmic tail of ICOS lacks the PXXP site necessary for IL-2 production after CD28 engagement [4]. ICOS is expressed on T cells in lymphoid or-

**Table 1.** Regulation of ICOS/ICOS-L expression

ICOS expression		
Naive T cells	no	
Activated T cells	yes, TH2 >TH1 cells, CD8+ T cells	
Memory T cells	yes	
Activated NK cells	yes	
Tissue location of ICOS	human fetal and new-born thymus; thymic medulla and cortico-medullary junction in mice; germinal centres in lymphoid tissues	
ICOS-L expression in lymphoid tissues		
Regulation	expressed on B cells, CD33+ cells in bone marrow, monocytes, DCs and T cells induced by IFN- $\gamma$ on B cells, monocytes and DCs; induced by GM-CSF/TNF- $\alpha$ or GM-CSF/IL-3 on CD34+ cells earlier than B7-1/B7-2; not induced by progenitor Ig or CD40 crosslinking on B cells or CD3+ T cells	
ICOS-L expression in nonlymphoid tissues		
Regulation	expressed on a variety of tissues including kidney, liver, peritoneum, lung, testes, embryonic fibroblasts, epithelial cells induced by TNF- $\alpha$ , LPS and IFN- $\gamma$ on fibroblasts, epithelial cells and other nonlymphoid tissues	
ICOS-L expression in leukemia and lymphoma		
Acute myeloid leukemia	CD13+/CD33+	0%
B cell lymphoblastic leukemia	CD19+	0%
Chronic lymphocytic leukemia	CD19+	20%
B cell prolymphocytic leukemia	CD19+	40%
Hairy cell leukemia	CD19+	66%
Follicular lymphoma	CD19+	0%

gans, including spleen, lymph nodes, and Peyer's patches (table 1) [2, 5–7]. ICOS is expressed in the medulla and the cortico-medullary junction of the thymus [6]. In humans, ICOS expression was detected in fetal and newborn thymuses, with expression primarily in the medulla [5]. However, mice deficient for ICOS have a normal thymus and normal numbers of peripheral CD4<sup>+</sup> and CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells, indicating that ICOS does not play a critical role in T-cell development [8–10]. In addition, it was recently observed that ICOS can be upregulated on IL-2 or IFN- $\gamma$  activated NK cells [11].

### ICOS Binds to a New Ligand (ICOS-L) That is Differentially Expressed Compared to CD80/CD86

CD80 is expressed on antigen presenting cells after induction by microbes, cytokines or CD40 ligation and is also expressed on fibroblasts, while CD86 is constitutively expressed on monocytes and is inducible upon stimulation [12]. Most lymphoma and leukemia cells lack CD80 but about 50% of cases express CD86. Recently, new homologues of CD80 and CD86 were described. One of these, B7h (also designated B7RP-1, GL50 or B7-H2) binds to ICOS but not to CD28 or CD152/CTLA-4 [6, 7, 13–16]. The ligand for ICOS (ICOS-L) shares only ~20% amino acid identity with CD80 and CD86. A soluble form of the ICOS receptor was generated and used,

together with a subsequently developed mouse anti-human ICOS-L mAb 13C1 that has been generated by DNA vaccination [17], to characterize the ICOS-L. We found that ICOS-L is expressed on human antigen presenting cells of myeloid origin and on about 40% of peripheral blood CD19<sup>+</sup> B cells [18]. Expression of ICOS-L was induced on monocytes after integrin-dependent plastic adhesion and was further upregulated by IFN- $\gamma$  but not TNF- $\alpha$ . Unlike CD152-L expression, ICOS-L expression did not change when monocytes were differentiated into dendritic cells (DCs) or after DCs were induced to mature by LPS, TNF- $\alpha$ , or CD40 ligation.

Flow cytometry and ICOS-L-specific RT-PCR of immunomagnetically purified subpopulations revealed an ICOS-L expression level on CD19<sup>+</sup> B cells in bone marrow that was similar to that observed in peripheral blood, while CD3<sup>+</sup> T cells and CD34<sup>+</sup> stem cells were ICOS-L<sup>-</sup>. CD33<sup>+</sup> myeloid cells were ICOS-L positive and 3-color staining further suggested that ICOS-L expression is acquired as soon as hematopoietic progenitor cells show a clear myeloid commitment as indicated by strong CD33 expression and beginning loss of CD34 antigen expression.

When immuno-magnetically purified CD34<sup>+</sup> cells were grown in a cocktail of GM-CSF and TNF- $\alpha$  that induces differentiation of hematopoietic progenitor cells into DCs, they rapidly acquired, already after 12 hours of culture, ICOS-L expression at the cell surface. ICOS-L was equally expressed

in the GM-CSF/TNF- $\alpha$  induced CD11c<sup>+</sup>CD14<sup>-</sup> DC and CD11c<sup>+</sup>CD14<sup>+</sup> monocyte fraction. TNF- $\alpha$  appeared to be the crucial cytokine for induction of expression of ICOS-L, while GM-CSF alone and G-CSF alone were not able to induce ICOS-L expression. Significant expression of the costimulatory molecules CD80/CD86 (as judged by binding of the CD152Ig fusion protein (or anti-CD80 and CD86 mAb) appeared later at day 6 (table 1). Dendritic cells distinctive from those that give rise to Langerhans cells can be generated by stimulation with IL-3 or IL3 + GM-CSF [19]. These cells are also called 'lymphoid dendritic cells' and are positive for CD4, CD33, CD54, CD58, CD86 and HLA-DR, but negative for CD1a and CD80. The combination of GM-CSF and IL-3 induced an up-regulation of ICOS-L that was earlier and stronger as compared to CD80/CD86. Highest ICOS-L expression, however, was achieved at a later time than in TNF-containing cultures.

Early during the discovery of ICOS-L it was shown that ICOS-L is not only expressed on cells of hematopoietic origin, but also on peripheral tissue, such as brain, heart liver, kidney and endothelial cells and can be further induced by TNF- $\alpha$  or other inflammatory stimuli (table 1) [7, 15–17, 20].

### Myeloid and Lymphoid Leukemic Cells Do Not Express ICOS-L

When myeloid (AML) and lymphoid leukemic cells (ALL) were investigated for ICOS-L expression, none of 7 cases of CD13<sup>+</sup>CD33<sup>+</sup> AML nor any of 6 cases of B-lineage ALL examined were bound by ICOSIg (table 1) [17]. These data suggest that the very early myeloid cells and B-cell progenitor cells do not express ICOS-L. 4/5 cases of chronic lymphocytic leukemia, which is thought to represent a disease of immature, virgin B-lymphocytes, were ICOS-L<sup>-</sup>; whereas 2/4 PLL and 4/6 HCL were ICOS-L<sup>+</sup>. None of 7 cases of follicular lymphoma (which correspond to germinal center B cells) reacted with our ICOSIg reagent. Similarly, ICOS-L mRNA expression in pediatric c-ALL was found to be down-regulated when compared to normal controls (Uwe Hattenhorst, personal communication). Since ICOS-L expression in the periphery seems to provide costimulatory activity to T cells, down-regulation of ICOS-L on leukemic cells could be part of possible mechanisms of tumor cells to escape immuno surveillance not only by T cells but also by NK cells, for which ICOS expression on activated NK cells was recently demonstrated [11].

### Stimulatory Potential of ICOS-L Depends on the State of T-Cell Activation and Phenotype of APC

Engagement of ICOS, like CD28, can mediate potent costimulation of T cells [2, 21], and promotes T-cell proliferation at levels similar to those observed after CD28 triggering but

without the accompanying increase in IL-2 production. Instead, ICOS up-regulates expression of IL-4, IL-5, GM-CSF, IFN- $\gamma$ , TNF- $\alpha$  and is particularly effective in enhancing IL-10 production [2, 22]. In Ag-specific T-cell proliferation assays, the presence of tetanus toxoid increased T-cell proliferation by 3-fold. This T-cell proliferation was inhibited about 50% in the presence of ICOSIg. Comparable results were observed using influenza HA. The presence of CD152Ig efficiently blocked T-cell proliferation in both cases by more than 80%. Similarly, addition of ICOSIg to allogeneic MLRs between mature DCs and T cells reduced T-cell proliferative responses but did so less efficiently than CTLA4Ig (CD152Ig) did [18]. However, when purified CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells had been preactivated with suboptimal doses of anti-CD3 sufficient to induce ICOS expression, and were subsequently stimulated in an allogeneic MLR with CD34<sup>+</sup> cells pretreated with TNF- $\alpha$  to express optimal amounts of ICOS-L, these TNF-activated CD34<sup>+</sup> cells were potent stimulators of allogeneic T cells [17]. The results also suggested that the CD28 costimulatory pathway is not necessary for ICOS-L-mediated costimulation, since inhibition of CD80/86:CD28 interaction by CD152Ig in this situation was less effective. Similarly, when MHC class II<sup>+</sup> endothelial cells together with superantigen were cocultured with resting memory CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells, different cytokines (IL-2, IFN- $\gamma$ , IL-4, IL-10, and IL-13) were produced. Inhibition with blocking anti-ICOS-L mAb reduced the amount of cytokines produced to 20–50%, indicating that ICOSL is a major costimulator in endothelial cell mediated costimulation [20]. Likewise, Yoshinaga and colleagues [7] found that T cells from CD28<sup>-/-</sup> mice could still be stimulated via ICOS-L. Villegas et al. [23] in addition observed in a model of parasite infection with *Toxoplasma gondii* in CD28<sup>-/-</sup> mice that infection resulted in increased expression of ICOS coming along with an increased parasite burden and mortality when ICOS/ICOS-L interaction is blocked.

The prominent role of ICOS-L in B-cell responses has been demonstrated in transgenic mice overexpressing soluble ICOS-L [7]. These mice are characterized by lymphoid hyperplasia in the spleen, lymph node, and Peyer's patches, and have high serum IgG levels. In addition, ICOS-deficient mice show a severe decrease in serum IgG1 levels [8, 9], and immunization of mice with TNP-KLH in the absence of adjuvant or with alum or IFA reveals a deficit in IgG1 and IgG2a antibody production [8]. Immunization of mice with NP-OVA in alum [9] or with aerosolized antigen in the lung [10] also demonstrated a deficit in IgE production in ICOS-deficient mice, consistent with defects in overall germinal center formation and T-cell dependent B-cell responses [8–10]. Similarly, for patients with common variable immunodeficiency (CVID) that lack the ICOS gene, it was observed that their T cells appeared normal, but naïve, switched and memory B cells were reduced, suggesting a critical role for ICOS in late B-cell differentiation, class switching and memory B cell generation [24].

## Therapeutic Implications

It appears that the clone size of T<sub>H</sub> cells responding to their antigen critically depends on ICOS as shown recently in a adoptive transfer system. Moreover, results by Kopf et al. [29] reveal that blockade of ICOS/ICOS-L interaction also inhibits T<sub>H1</sub>-regulated effector phases. They observed that both the T<sub>H1</sub> cytokine IFN- $\gamma$  and T<sub>H2</sub> cytokines IL-4 and IL-5 are reduced by administration of ICOSIg at the time of infection with *Nippostrongylus brasiliensis*, indicating that the ICOS pathway is relevant for both T<sub>H1</sub> and T<sub>H2</sub> cytokine production in vivo. Studies on experimental induction of autoimmune encephalomyelitis (EAE), a T<sub>H1</sub>-mediated autoimmune disease, similarly suggest that ICOS costimulation may play an important role in the effector phase of T<sub>H1</sub> responses, in that disease is ameliorated by blockade of ICOS only during the effector phase [25] by preventing encephalitogenic T cells from attacking brain tissue where ICOS-L is abundantly expressed. However, induction of EAE is not dependent upon ICOS, since ICOSIg at the time of antigen priming does not prevent the disease [25]. Likewise, inhibiting ICOS/ICOS-L interaction in a heart transplant model suppressed intragraft T-cell activation and prolonged allograft survival, and in combination with cyclosporin A promoted long-term allograft acceptance [26]. Iwai et al. [27] in a model of collagen-induced arthritis found that ICOS-L blockade could ameliorate and delay the onset of the disease by blocking both T<sub>H1</sub>- and T<sub>H2</sub>-mediated inflammatory reactions.

In addition, it was observed that ICOS engagement can also stimulate CD8<sup>+</sup> T cell responses. Immunogenic, ICOS-L<sup>+</sup> tumors can be efficiently rejected in immunocompetent mice [21], in these studies, ICOS-L costimulation of CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells was found to enhance IL-2 and IFN- $\gamma$  production preferentially in recall responses compared with naïve responses. However, ICOS-L does not enhance cytolytic T-cell function, which is consistent with experiments showing that ICOS blockade had no effect on CTL responses after LCMV or VSV infection [28, 29], indicating that the lytic function of T cells is ICOS-independent.

Interestingly, ICOS seems to be critically important for the generation of IL-10-secreting regulatory CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells [30]: In

a model of allergen-induced airway hypersensitivity (AHR) IL-10-secreting T<sub>R</sub> cells expressed significant in vivo and in vitro inhibitory activity and blocked the development of allergen-induced AHR. DC-induced development of T<sub>R</sub> was prevented by neutralization of IL-10 or by blockade of ICOS:ICOS-ligand signaling. A finding that is supported by Witsch et al. [31] observing that IL-10 production of CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells stimulated with mature DC in the presence of superantigen critically depends on ICOS/ICOS-L interaction.

It will be interesting to investigate whether ICOS is also effective in other therapeutic settings: Graft versus host disease (GVHD) remains a major complication after allogeneic bone marrow transplantation (BMT), thereby preventing the widespread use of this therapeutic approach for the treatment of malignant and nonmalignant diseases [32, 33]. Acute GVHD is initiated by alloreactive donor T cells that recognize MHC class I and II molecules on the surface of host cells as well as peptides presented by them. The infiltration of several target organs such as gut, liver, and skin by donor leukocytes including T cells is thought to be one of the key processes in the early phase of GVHD. The activation and expansion of the donor T cells, leading to the secretion of proinflammatory cytokines and the recruitment of additional inflammatory effector cells to these sites, further damages the affected tissues. The apparent involvement of ICOS/ICOS-L interaction in several T-cell effector functions and the abundant expression of ICOS-L in a variety of tissues also affected in a GVHD provides the rationale to investigate whether it will be possible to ameliorate a GVHD with anti-ICOS-L treatment and to determine the influence of this treatment on a protective graft versus leukemia (GvL) reactivity of the BMT. Likewise, it is not understood why a high percentage of leukemic cells down-regulate ICOS-L on their cell surface and on the other hand the blockade of ICOS-L has no influence on cytolytic T-cell function, but is hoped to be determined in the near future.

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