# How the immune system responds to therapeutic biological agents 

Alessandra Vultaggio', Giulia Petroni ${ }^{2}$, Sara Pratesi ${ }^{2}$, Francesca Nencini ${ }^{2}$, Daniele Cammelli ${ }^{2}$, Andrea Ferraro ${ }^{1}$, Enrico Maggi ${ }^{2}$ and Andrea Matucci ${ }^{2}$


#### Abstract

Biological agents target disease mechanisms and have modified the natural history of several immune-mediated disorders. Biological agents are structurally immunogenic, and therefore usually elicit a minor, subclinical and transient phenomenon. Occasionally, however, these drugs induce complete cellular and humoral immune responses, with the main clinical consequences being hypersensitivity reactions or loss of treatment response. This article considers the relative pathogenic mechanisms influencing immunogenicity in biological agents and discusses mechanisms of tolerance and adaptive immune response, including adaptive T-regulatory cell induction and immune response induction. Methods of determining cellular and humoral immune response to biological agents are identified and examined. Assays to detect antidrug antibodies and their isotypes can assist in monitoring immunogenicity and in preventing adverse events. Such strategies also enable resource conservation and may provide regulatory authorities with new insights that can be useful during the process of approving new biological or biosimilar agents.


## Keywords

Adaptive response, antidrug antibodies, biologicals, humoral response, immunogenicity, immune response, tolerance

## Introduction

In the last decade, several treatments have been developed to target disease mechanisms. These biological agents have modified the natural history of immune-mediated disorders such as rheumatic diseases, inflammatory bowel diseases, systemic vasculitis and psoriasis. ${ }^{1-3}$ These treatments are

[^0]Corresponding author:
Enrico Maggi, Largo Brambilla, 3, Florence 50134, Italy. Email: enrico.maggi@unifi.it
structurally immunogenic and usually elicit a minor, subclinical, transient phenomenon. ${ }^{4}$ However, they may occasionally induce complete cellular and humoral immune responses, ${ }^{5}$ the main clinical consequences of which are drug hypersensitivity and loss of treatment response. ${ }^{6}$ The study of immunogenicity in therapeutic biological agents is an important research tool, particularly considering the availability of biosimilars (i.e., copies of original biological agents that are manufactured by a different company, once the patent on the original product has expired).

## Factors influencing immunogenicity

Several factors may contribute to developing an immune response to biological agents. Generally, the expression of specific human leukocyte antigen (HLA) haplotypes might contribute more readily to antidrug antibody development in subjects who recognise the wild-type protein as a foreign epitope, even if specific data are not yet available. It has also been shown that the high expression of costimulatory molecules on dendritic cells may accelerate the outgrowth of antidrug antibodies. ${ }^{7}$

It is well known that high doses of biological agents foster tolerance mechanisms and reduce their immunogenic activity. ${ }^{8}$ An inverse correlation between drug dose and antidrug antibody level has been reported in patients with rheumatoid arthritis or Crohn's disease. ${ }^{9,10}$ Drug tolerance can arise during long-term treatment regimens with intravenous, rather than intramuscular or subcutaneous, treatment administration. ${ }^{11}$ Immunogenicity is also reduced when biological agents are administered in combination with traditional immune suppressors. ${ }^{12,13}$

Despite showing low xenoantigen sequences, all monoclonal antibodies (mAbs) display new, potentially
immunogenic epitopes. For example, fully human mAbs (such as adalimumab), which lack foreign epitopes, may also elicit antidrug antibodies due to differences in glycosylation or to the sequences of the mAb idiotype. ${ }^{14} \mathrm{~F}_{\mathrm{c}}$ fusion proteins include few new epitopes, however, thus explaining the low degree of immunogenicity with etanercept and abatacept. ${ }^{15}$

Antiadalimumab antibodies always have a neutralizing effect, whereas different percentages of neutralizing antidrug antibodies have been reported for other tumour necrosis factor (TNF) $\alpha$ blockers. ${ }^{5,16}$ Notably, antidrug antibodies to etanercept never have a neutralizing effect. ${ }^{17}$

## Mechanisms of tolerance and adaptive immune response

The immune response to self proteins is controlled by mechanisms shared by biological agents. The mechanisms of adaptive T-regulatory (Treg) cell induction are not well known, and may include both regulatory cytokines and intracellular signaling (cytotoxic T-lymphocyte-associated protein [CTLA-4], programmed cell death protein 1 [PD1], etc.). ${ }^{18}$ Adaptive Treg induction is associated with sustained tolerance and probably requires the concomitant presence of Treg cells with the same specificity as the self-reactive T cells. ${ }^{18}$

High-dose tolerance, involving anergy and immune deletion, is likely responsible for the nonresponsiveness of T cells to therapeutic biological agents. It has been shown that some sequences located in the $\mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{c}}$ and $F_{a b}$ domains of human immunoglobulin (Ig) G exert a central role in immune tolerance. These epitopes (known as Tregitopes) selectively expand Treg cells but not T-effector cells. ${ }^{19}$

Other regulatory mechanisms include the intrinsic activity of biological agents. Infliximab and adalimumab, for instance, act as a reverse signal on membrane

TNF- $\alpha$-bearing cells by inducing tolerogenic dendritic cells and upregulation of signals (Notch 1), thus mediating inhibition of the T-cell cycle. ${ }^{20,21}$ The induction of immune responses to biological agents probably occurs by two main mechanisms: (i) activation of an adaptive immune response to nonself epitopes on the drug; and (ii) the loss of immune tolerance. Most humoral responses to biological agents are due to an adaptive response to foreign antigens, leading to the expansion of memory T (and adaptive Treg) cells, and B cells specific to foreign epitopes. ${ }^{5}$

The sequence of events leading to B-cell activation and antidrug antibody production can follow a T-independent or a T-dependent process. The former occurs when some structural sequence of the drug (polymeric repeats or protein aggregates) induces the signals required to directly stimulate B-cell subsets, and usually does not lead to affinity maturation or generation of memory B cells. In contrast, T-dependent B -cell activation results in a more robust antibody response, isotype switching and induction of memory B cells. ${ }^{22}$ The prevalent induction of high affinity antidrug antibodies of the IgG class or $\mathrm{IgG} 1 / \mathrm{IgG} 4$ subclasses reinforces the concept that biological agents predominantly act as T-dependent antigens. ${ }^{23}$ Naturally, this mechanism also requires T-cell recognition of immunodominant epitopes in the context of HLA Class I/II molecules of antigen presenting cells, and the amplification of centralmemory and effector-memory T cells. ${ }^{24}$ Therefore, T cell recognition of drug peptides is a prerequisite for generating memory B cells and for antidrug antibody formation. ${ }^{25}$

## Assessment of cellular and humoral immune response

Detection of memory T cells specific for drug epitopes includes proliferation assays and cytokine production by freshly isolated mononuclear cells or T-cell lines expanded
in vitro with the drug (or its peptides). A second approach to identifying T-cell epitopes is an in silico method, which enables the prediction of the binding affinity of peptides along the entire sequence of biological agents to HLA class I or II antigens. ${ }^{26}$ A third method is studies of genetic linkage between HLA haplotypes and antidrug antibody outgrowth. ${ }^{26}$

Different methods have been reported for the assessment of humoral response to biological agents including double antigen (bridging) enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA), sandwich ELISA, radio immunoassay (RIA), surface enhanced laser desorption/ionization mass spectrometry and surface plasmon resonance. ${ }^{27}$ Comparison of different studies is at present difficult since the assays are not standardized or validated. This raises some concerns regarding the validity of certain studies on this topic.

Bridging ELISA for the detection of antidrug antibodies is influenced by circulating drugs and Ig with rheumatoid factor activity. ${ }^{28}$ New immunoassay approaches, such as acid dissociation bridging ELISA, may increase the sensitivity of antidrug antibody detection. ${ }^{29}$

The presence of biological agent-specific IgE can be detected using the ImmunoCAP ${ }^{\circledR}$ platform (ImmunoDiagnostics, ThermoFisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) or RIA. The identification of mAbsspecific IgE may be difficult because of the small quantities of this isotype in human serum and interference from IgG.

When a hypersensitivity response towards a biological agent is suspected, skin tests must be performed. Positive skin tests are suggestive of an IgE-mediated mechanism, as demonstrated in mAbs-reactive patients. ${ }^{28,30}$

## Conclusions

Advances have been made in the knowledge of pathogenic mechanisms related to
immunogenicity of biological agents and their consequences. The use of new assays to detect antidrug antibodies and their isotypes may be useful for monitoring immunogenicity and preventing adverse events. Such a strategy also enables us to save resources and may provide the regulatory authorities with new insights, which could be useful during the process of approving new biologicals or biosimilars.

## Declaration of conflicting interest

The authors declare that there are no conflict of interest.

## Funding

The paper was funded by the EU IMI project ("Anti-Biopharmaceutical Immunization: Prediction and analysis of clinical relevance to minimize the risk" ABIRISK). Editorial assistance was provided by Gayle Robins on behalf of HPS-Health Publishing and Services Srl and funded by Pfizer Italia.

## References

1. Willrich MA, Murray DL and Snyder MR. Tumor necrosis factor inhibitors: clinical utility in autoimmune diseases. Transl Res 2015; 165: 270-282.
2. Bressler B, Haraoui B, Keystone E, et al. Optimizing use of tumor necrosis factor inhibitors in the management of immunemediated inflammatory diseases. J Rheumatol Suppl 2010; 85: 40-52.
3. Siddiqui MA and Scott LJ. Infliximab: a review of its use in Crohn's disease and rheumatoid arthritis. Drugs 2005; 65: 2179-2208.
4. Vande Casteele N, Gils A, Singh S, et al. Antibody response to infliximab and its impact on pharmacokinetics can be transient. Am J Gastroenterology 2013; 108: 962-971.
5. Rup B, Pallardy M, Sikkema D, et al. Standarizing terms, definitions and concepts for describind and interpreting unwanted immunogenicity of biopharmaceuticals:
reccomendations of the Innovative Medicines Initiative ABIRISK consortium. Clin Exp Immunol 2015; 181: 385-400.
6. Lee SJ and Kavanaugh A. Adverse reactions to biologic agents: focus on autoimmune disease therapies. J Allergy Clin Immunol 2005; 116: 900-905.
7. Anderson PJ. Tumor necrosis factor inhibitors: clinical implications of their different immunogenicity profiles. Semin Arthritis Rheum 2005; 34(5 Suppl1): 19-22.
8. Schellekens H. Factors influencing the immunogenicity of therapeutic proteins. Nephrol Dial Transplant 2005; 20(Suppl 6): vi 3-9.
9. Wasserman MJ, Weber DA, Guthrie JA, et al. Infusion-related reactions to infliximab in patients with rheumatoid arthritis in a clinical practice setting: relationship to dose, antihistamine pretreatment, and infusion number. J. Rheumatol 2004; 31: 1912-1917.
10. Moss AC, Fernandez-Becker N, Jo Kim K, et al. The impact of infliximab infusion reactions on long-term outcomes in patients with Crohn's disease. Aliment Pharmacol Ther 2008; 28: 221-227.
11. Genovese MC, Covarrubias A, Leon G, et al. Subcutaneous abatacept versus intravenous abatacept: a phase IIIb noninferiority study in patients with an inadequate response to methotrexate. Arthritis Rheum 2011; 63: 2854-2864.
12. Schaible TF. Long term safety of infliximab. Can J Gastroenterol 2000; 14(Suppl C): $29 \mathrm{C}-32 \mathrm{C}$.
13. Sandborn WJ and Hanauer SB. Infliximab in the treatment of Crohn's disease: a user's guide for clinicians. Am J Gastroenterol 2002; 97: 2962-2972.
14. van Schouwenburg PA, Bartelds GM, Hart MH, et al. A novel method for the detection of antibodies to adalimumab in the presence of drug reveals "hidden" immunogenicity in rheumatoid arthritis patients. J Immunol Methods 2010; 362: 82-88.
15. Somerfield J, Hill-Cawthorne GA, Lin A, et al. A novel strategy to reduce the immunogenicity of biological therapies. J Immunol 2010; 185: 763-768.
16. van Schouwenburg PA, van de Stadt LA, de Jong RN, et al. Adalimumab elicits a
restricted anti-idiotypic antibody response in autoimmune patients resulting in functional neutralisation. Ann Rheum Dis 2013; 72: 104-109.
17. Emi Aikawa N, de Carvalho JF, Artur Almeida Silva C, et al. Immunogenicity of Anti-TNF-alpha agents in autoimmune diseases. Clin Rev Allergy Immun 2010; 38: 82-89.
18. Dhaeze T, Stinissen P, Liston A, et al. Humoral autoimmunity: A failure of regulatory T cells? Autoimmun Rev 2015; 14: 735-741.
19. De Groot AS, Moise L, McMurry JA, et al. Activation of natural regulatory T cells by IgG Fc-derived peptide "Tregitopes". Blood 2008; 112: 3303-3311.
20. Horiuchi T, Mitoma H, Harashima S, et al. Transmembrane TNF-alpha: structure, function and interaction with anti-TNF agents. Rheumatology (Oxford) 2010; 49: 1215-1228.
21. Werner L, Berndt U, Paclik D, et al. TNF $\alpha$ inhibitors restrict T cell activation and cycling via Notch-1 signalling in inflammatory bowel disease. Gut 2012; 61: 1016-1027.
22. Sauerborn M, Brinks V, Jiskoot W, et al. Immunological mechanism underlying the immune response to recombinant human protein therapeutics. Trends Pharmacol Sci 2010; 31: 53-59.
23. Lundkvist M, Engdahl E, Holmen C, et al. Characterization of anti-natalizumab antibodies in multiple sclerosis patients. Mult Scler 2012; 19: 757-764.
24. Abbas AK, Lichtman AH and Pillai S. Cellular and molecular immunology, 8th ed. Philadelphia: Elsevier Saunders, 2014.
25. Jawa V, Cousens LP, Awwad M, et al. T-cell dependent immunogenicity of protein therapeutics: preclinical assessment and mitigation. Clin Immunol 2013; 149: 534-555.
26. Kim Y, Sette A and Peters B. Applications for T-cell epitope queries and tools in the Immune Epitope Database and Analysis Resource. J Immunol Methods 2011; 374: 62-69.
27. Bourdage JS, Lee TN, Taylor JM, et al. Effect of double antigen bridging immunoassay format on antigen coating concentration dependence and implications for designing immunogenicity assays for monoclonal antibodies. J Pharm Biomed Anal 2005; 39: 685-690.
28. Vultaggio A, Matucci A, Nencini F, et al. Anti-infliximab $\operatorname{IgE}$ and non $\operatorname{IgE}$ antibodies and induction of infusion-related severe anaphylactic reactions. Allergy 2010; 65: 657-661.
29. van Schouwenburg PA, Krieckaert CL, Rispens T, et al. Long-term measurement of anti-adalimumab using pH -shift-anti-idiotype antigen binding test shows predictive value and transient antibody formation. Ann Rheum Dis 2013; 72: 1680-1686.
30. Vultaggio A, Matucci A, Nencini F, et al. Drug-specific Th2 cells and IgE antibodies in a patient with anaphylaxis to rituximab. Int Arch Allergy Immunol 2012; 159: 321-326.

[^0]:    'Centre of Excellence Denothe and Department of Experimental and Clinical Medicine, University of Florence, Florence, Italy
    ${ }^{2}$ Department of Biomedicine, Immunoallergology Section, AOU Careggi, University of Florence, Florence, Italy

