

SHORT COMMUNICATION

Insulin gene VNTR genotype associates with frequency and phenotype of the autoimmune response to proinsulin

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Immune responses to autoantigens are in part controlled by deletion of autoreactive cells through genetically regulated selection mechanisms. We have directly analyzed peripheral CD4⁺ proinsulin (PI) 76–90 (SLQPLALEGSLQKRG)-specific T cells using soluble fluorescent major histocompatibility complex class II tetramers. Subjects with type I diabetes and healthy controls with high levels of peripheral proinsulin-specific T cells were characterized by the presence of a disease-susceptible polymorphism in the insulin variable number of tandem repeats (INS-VNTR) gene. Conversely, subjects with a 'protective' polymorphism in the INS-VNTR gene had nearly undetectable levels of proinsulin tetramer-positive T cells. These results strongly imply a direct relationship between genetic control of autoantigen expression and peripheral autoreactivity, in which proinsulin genotype restricts the quantity and quality of the potential T-cell response. Using a modified tetramer to isolate low-avidity proinsulin-specific T cells from subjects with the susceptible genotype, transcript arrays identified several induced pro-apoptotic genes in the control, but not diabetic subjects, likely representing a second peripheral mechanism for maintenance of tolerance to self antigens. Genes and Immunity (2010) 11, 188–193; doi:10.1038/gene.2009.108; published online 7 January 2010

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Introduction

Insulin is an important antigen in both murine¹ and human² autoimmune diabetes (type 1A diabetes (T1D)). T-cell reactivity to a major proinsulin epitope, PI(73–90), occurs as an early marker of disease progression in the pre-diabetic stage among genetically high-risk subjects.^{2,3} Direct detection of these proinsulin-specific T cells was recently achieved using soluble, fluorescent human leukocyte antigen (HLA)-peptide tetramers containing the PI(73–90) epitope to bind to peripheral CD4 T cells proliferating in response to proinsulin peptide stimulation.⁴ In humans, expression levels of insulin are regulated in part by a direct transcriptional influence of a polymorphic insulin gene variable number of tandem repeats (INS-VNTR) genetic element associated with the proinsulin gene promoter region. Higher expression levels of proinsulin, due to the presence of the VNTR III haplotype in the thymus, are associated with a 3- to 4-fold relative protection from diabetes.^{5–7} Using proinsulin-specific HLA tetramers to detect CD4 T cells in subjects with either the VNTR III protective haplotype or the allelic VNTR I diabetes susceptibility haplotype, we found markedly lower frequencies of high-avidity T cells in VNTR III-positive subjects, consistent with a genetically controlled mechanism of immune tolerance

based on polymorphic antigen expression levels involved in thymic selection of autoreactive lymphocytes.

In human autoimmune diseases many epitopes recognized by autoreactive T cells are of moderate or low avidity,^{8–10} which may allow these cells to escape deletional tolerance mechanisms during thymic development. Expression of proinsulin, similar to other tissue-specific protein antigens, occurs in thymic medullary epithelial cells influenced by the transcriptional regulator AIRE (autoimmune regulator),¹¹ and NOD mice deficient in thymic insulin expression have accelerated development of T1D, consistent with escape of high-avidity autoreactive T cells and a prominent role for central tolerance in protection from insulin autoimmunity.^{12,13} Transcriptional levels of proinsulin in the human thymus are under genetic control of the polymorphic INS promoter region, which carries a variable number of tandem repeats of a 14-bp consensus element, classified as VNTR I (short, 26–63 repeats), VNTR II (63–140 repeats) or VNTR III (long, 141–209 repeats). European ancestry populations express either VNTR I or III,¹⁴ and insulin transcription in thymic tissue is higher in VNTR I/III heterozygotes or VNTR III/III homozygotes when compared with VNTR I/I homozygotes.^{15,16}

Allelic variation at INS-VNTR confers differential susceptibility to T1D. Subjects with the VNTR III genotype have a lower frequency of anti-insulin autoantibodies,¹⁷ more preserved β -cell function¹⁸ and a lower concordance rate of diabetes among twins¹⁹ when compared with subjects having the VNTR I/I genotype. Overall, the INS-VNTR genotype is associated with an odds ratio for T1D susceptibility of 2.2,²⁰ and the presence of the VNTR III genotype can moderate disease risk, even in populations that carry high-risk HLA genotypes.²¹

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Results and discussion

One postulated mechanism to account for the T1D protective effect of VNTR III is that higher thymic expression may lead to deletion of proinsulin-reactive T cells during development. To directly test this hypothesis, we analyzed peripheral blood lymphocytes for recognition of HLA class II-proinsulin complexes in subjects

Table 1 Occurrence of PI₇₆₋₉₀ tetramer-positive^a cells in T1D patients and non-T1D subjects

	INS-VNTR	PI ₇₆₋₉₀ tetramer positive % (x/y)	^b P VNTR I/I vs III/x	P groups
T1D	I/I	88 (14/16)	0.0581	0.0665
	III/x	44 (4/9)		
Ab+	I/I	67 (2/3)	NS	
	III/x	17 (1/6)		
Controls	I/I	60 (3/5)	NS	
	III/x	17 (1/6)		
T1D and Ab+	I/I	84 (16/19)	0.0042	
	III/x	33 (5/15)		
All	I/I	79 (19/24)	0.0010	
	III/x	29 (6/21)		

Abbreviations: Ab+, autoantibody positive; INS-VNTR, insulin variable number of tandem repeats; INS-VNTR III/x, III/I or III/III; NS, not significant; PI, proinsulin; T1D, type IA diabetes.

^aTetramer positivity was defined as >0.5% of the negative control tetramer. Differences in tetramer positivity between the groups were calculated using Fisher's exact test and considered significant at $P < 0.05$.

with VNTR I/I or VNTR III/x (where $x = I$ or III) genotypes. CD4 + CD25⁻ peripheral T lymphocytes from 24 Caucasian VNTR I/I and 21 VNTR III/x subjects matched for HLA-DRB1*0401 were cultured with autologous antigen-presenting cells in the presence of PI(76-90),²² to allow for expansion of antigen-specific cells, and subsequently incubated with soluble DRB1*0401-PI(76-90) complexes conjugated to a phycoerythrin fluorochrome. Out of 45 HLA-DRB1*0401-positive subjects analyzed, 6 were homozygous for DRB1*0401, 12 had in addition DRB1*0301 and the remaining 27 had some other DRB1* allele. The PI 73-90 epitope is immunodominant in both humans and in humanized HLA-DR4/CD4 double-transgenic mice immunized with human proinsulin.²³ Of VNTR I/I subjects, 79% (19/24) had detectable tetramer-positive T cells, compared with 29% (6/21) of the VNTR III/x subjects ($P < 0.0010$; Table 1). As shown in Figure 1a, the difference in overall distribution of tetramer positivity was highly significant between groups ($P < 0.0004$) and, with two exceptions, all the VNTR III/x subjects were at or near background levels of tetramer detection.

To improve the detection of low-avidity CD4 + self-reactive T cells in T1D, HLA class II tetramer reagents have been developed with agonist peptides containing amino acid substitutions, which improve binding of the tetramer to the antigen-specific regulatory T cells. Yang *et al.*⁴ recently described substitution of lysine to serine at peptide position p9 within the PI(76-90) peptide to stabilize binding to DRB1*0401 in soluble tetramers, resulting in enhanced detection of a proinsulin-positive CD4 T-cell population. When the same T-cell samples

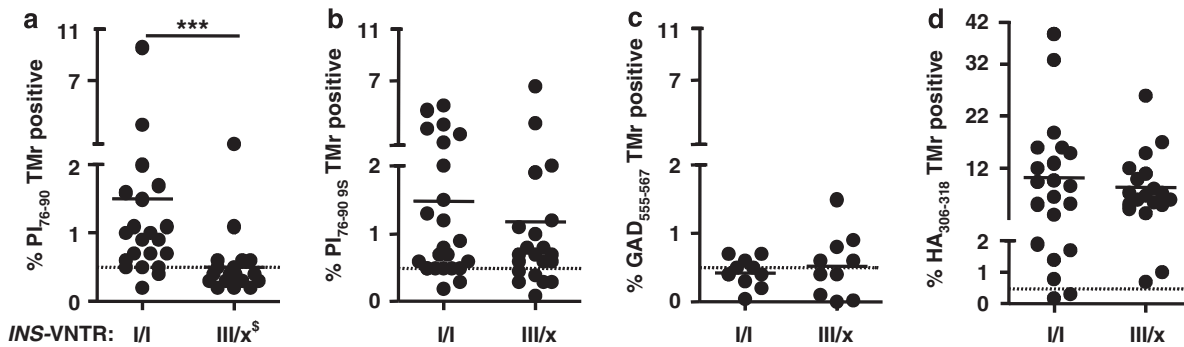


Figure 1 Relationship between INS-VNTR genotype and detection of CD4 T cells, which bind PI76-90 tetramers. Subjects with VNTR class I alleles have high levels of peripheral blood T cells recognizing soluble DRB1*0401-PI76-90 tetramer compared with the subjects having the protective class III alleles (a). The same T-cell samples were analyzed using the PI76-90 9S modified tetramer; no difference between the two groups of subjects was detected, implying presence of low-avidity PI-reactive T cells in both (b). In addition, no difference in tetramer positivity between the two groups of subjects was found when tetramers specific for another T1D autoantigen, GAD555-567, or foreign antigen, HA306-318, were used, indicating proinsulin specificity of the VNTR association (c, d). *** $P = 0.0004$, differences in the level of tetramer-reactive T cells were calculated using Mann-Whitney U test. Solid horizontal lines represent means. Dashed horizontal lines indicate 0.5% binding of negative control tetramer. ^sINS-VNTR III/x where $x = I$ or III. Typing for HLA-DRB1*04 subtypes was performed using sequence-specific primers and probes in conjunction with real-time PCR.²⁷ A total of 45 HLA-DRB1*0401-positive subjects were analyzed out of which 6 were homozygous for DRB1*0401, 12 had in addition DRB1*0301 and the remaining 27 had in addition some other DRB1* allele. T1D patients of INS-VNTR I/I as well as INS-VNTR I/III genotype were of comparable age (average 25.8 ± 8.9 years vs 26.2 ± 11.6 years, respectively) and had similar duration of the disease (3.4 ± 1.9 years vs 5.5 ± 1.5 years, respectively) as were autoantibody-positive subjects (36.3 ± 10.4 vs 42 ± 12.8) and healthy controls (40.4 ± 14.5 vs 50.5 ± 14.6). The VNTR genotype was assigned based on the genotype at the -23 A/T single-nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) at the INS promoter.^{14,28} Peripheral blood mononuclear cells were isolated from heparinized blood and CD4 + CD25⁻ T cells enriched in two steps. In the first step CD4 + T cells were separated from all non-CD4 cells using CD4 + T cell isolation kit (Miltenyi Biotec, Auburn, CA, USA). In the second step CD25 + T cells were depleted using anti-CD25-coated micro beads. CD4 + CD25⁻ T cells were stimulated *in vitro* for 12-14 days in 48-well tissue culture plates with autologous adherent non-CD4 + cells prepulsed with either PI peptides, hemagglutinin (HA) peptide ($10 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$) or without peptides. At days 6, 8 and 10, human recombinant IL-2 (10 IU ml^{-1} , Chiron Corporation, Emeryville, CA, USA) was added to the cultures.

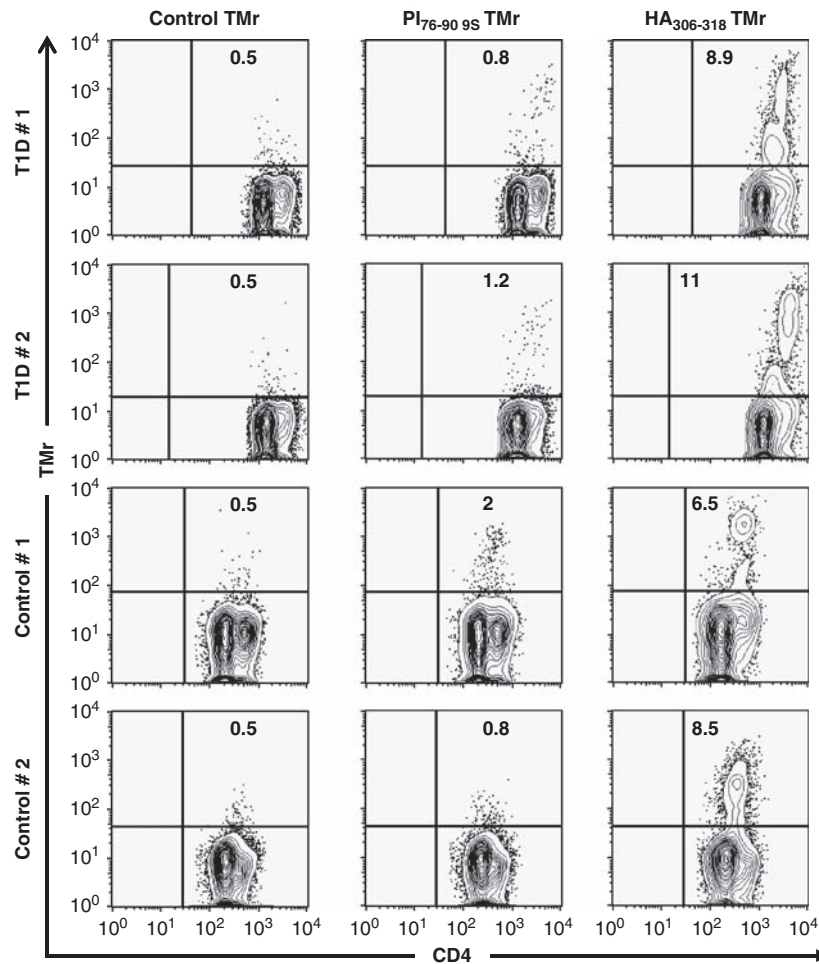


Figure 2 Flow cytometry profiles of CD4 T cells of T1D and control subjects used for RNA isolation and subsequent transcript arrays, showing tetramer binding with the PI 76–90 9S modified tetramer. Parallel HA306–319 tetramer-positive binding (foreign control antigen) and an irrelevant control tetramer, outer surface protein A (OspA) 163–175, are also shown. The numbers in the upper right quadrant represent percentages of the tetramer-positive cells in the CD4⁺CD25[−] T-cell subset after 14 days of culture. Major histocompatibility complex (MHC) class II tetramers were produced by constructing the expression vectors and generating soluble biotinylated HLA-DRB1*0401 molecules, as described elsewhere.²⁵ HLA molecules were loaded with peptides by detergent-facilitated exchange and dialyzed to remove the unbound fractions. Tetramers were obtained by incubation with phycoerythrin-labeled streptavidin. PI76–90 immunodominant epitope (SLQPLALEGSLQKRG),²² a PI76–90 9S substitute peptide (SLQPLALEGSLQSRG), in which substitution of K88 to S in peptide position 9 (9P) enhanced its binding affinity and agonistic activity,^{4,22} and two irrelevant control peptides, an influenza A hemagglutinin, HA306–318 (KYVKQNTLKLA)²⁵ as a positive control and *Borrelia burgdorferi* OspA163–175 (KSYVLEGLTAEK) as a negative control were each loaded into HLA-DR4 molecules assembled into tetramers. After 12–14 days of culture, T cells were stained with tetramers for flow cytometry analysis as described.²⁹

were analyzed using this ‘9S’ tetramer, higher levels of tetramer-positive cells were detected, in both VNTR I/I and VNTR III/x subjects (Figure 1b), and there was no difference between groups. Thus, low-avidity T cells are present in both populations, independent of genotype, whereas the presence of CD4 T cells with higher avidity, capable of recognizing the native proinsulin peptide, is under *INS* genetic control.

Parallel tetramer assays were performed using either another T1D autoantigen, GAD65,²⁴ or an antigen from the hemagglutinin of influenza virus.²⁵ As shown in Figures 1c and d, no differences in tetramer positivity for these antigens were found among subjects classified by *INS*-VNTR genotype, indicating specificity for the proinsulin immune response.

The lymphocyte samples for these assays come from a mixture of T1D subjects, autoantibody-positive, non-diabetic ‘at-risk’ subjects and non-autoimmune controls.

INS-VNTR genetic control of T-cell detection using proinsulin tetramers was similar in all three groups, as summarized in Table 1. In other words, the correlation between *INS*-VNTR and the presence of peripheral proinsulin tetramer-binding T cells was found in all groups based on genotype alone, irrespective of disease status. Overall, combining VNTR I/I and VNTR III/x subjects, there was also a trend for higher tetramer positivity in the T1D group when compared with the non-diabetic groups, consistent with the presence of pre-existing *in vivo* expansion of autoreactive cells in the diabetic population (Supplementary Figure S1). Alternatively, the *in vitro* culture conditions of the assay may allow for preferential expansion of these autoreactive populations.

As tetramer-binding studies with the modified ‘9S’ peptide allowed us to detect low-avidity PI(76–90)-binding T cells, we used HLA-DRB1*0401–9S tetramers

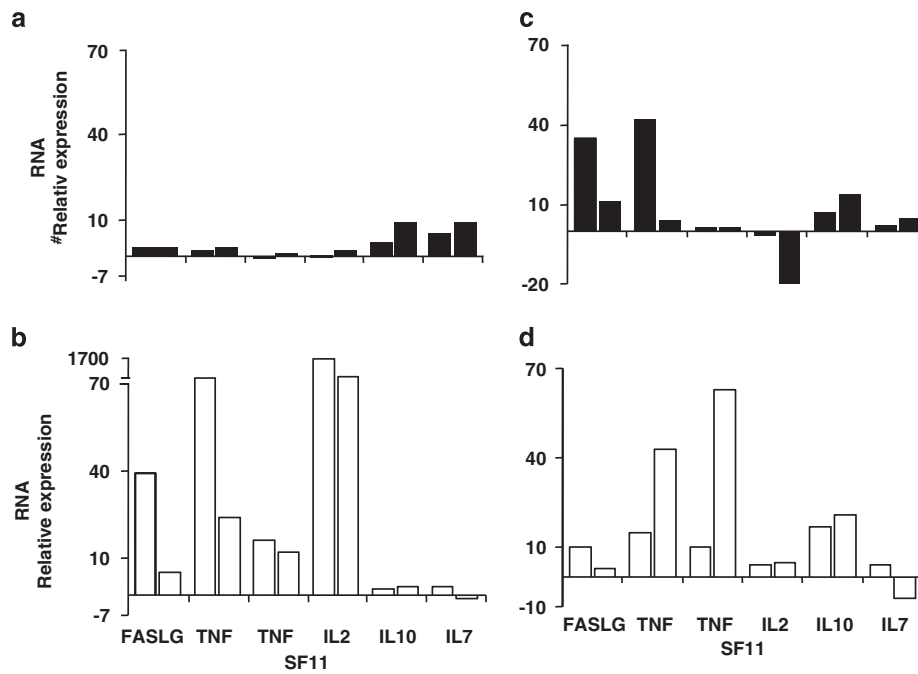


Figure 3 Partial expression profile of PI-specific, tetramer-sorted cells. Upregulated transcripts for FASLG, tumor necrosis factor (TNF), TNFSF11 and IL-2, which are commonly associated with peripheral tolerance, distinguish T1D subjects (a) from control subjects (b). Similar associations were not observed for control HA306-318-specific cells (c, d). Relative transcript expression was calculated as fold up- or downregulation in peptide-stimulated cultures relative to autologous non-stimulated cultures. Gene expression profiling was performed on tetramer-positive cells isolated by flow cytometry using a BD FACSVantage cell sorter (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA, USA). From the sorted tetramer-positive cells, total RNA was extracted using a MagMAX Total RNA Isolation Kit (Applied Biosystems, Inc., Foster City, CA, USA). First-strand complementary DNA was synthesized with the RT² first-strand kit (SABiosciences, Corp., Frederick, MD, USA) and samples plated on RT² profiler PCR arrays for common human cytokines (SABiosciences), followed by the amplification by real-time PCR on a StepOne Plus or an ABI7000 sequence detection system (Applied Biosystems, Inc.). Amplification was carried out in a total volume of 25 μ l for 40 cycles of 15 s at 95 $^{\circ}$ C and 1 min at 60 $^{\circ}$ C each. Expression of each gene was determined by normalizing the expression to five housekeeping genes. Relative gene expression for each subject was calculated by comparing peptide-stimulated samples to an unstimulated autologous sample to calculate a fold-change value.

for sorting of the proinsulin-specific CD4 T cells by flow cytometry from *INS*-VNTR I/I subjects. The recovery of cells was limited because of the low frequency of antigen-specific T cells, but in four cases (two controls and two T1D) we purified sufficient tetramer-positive cells for transcript array analysis. Figure 2 shows the flow cytometry profiles used for cell sorting: parallel tetramer sorting of the influenza hemagglutinin-positive T cells and parallel transcript arrays from the same samples used as controls.

Of the 84 transcripts selected for cytokines and candidate immunologic markers, 6 clearly distinguished between the proinsulin tetramer-positive cells of the normal control subjects and T1D subjects (Figure 3). Four of these markers are closely related, representing proapoptotic transcripts associated with peripheral tolerance mediated by activation-induced cell death: FASLG (Fas ligand (TNF superfamily, member 6)), interleukin-2 (IL-2), tumor necrosis factor and TNFSF11 (TNF (ligand) superfamily, member 11). These markers were observed in both normal and T1D subjects responding to a foreign antigen, but only in the normal subjects responding to proinsulin. The failure to upregulate these transcripts in the T1D T cells activated by proinsulin may indicate a functional resistance to this pathway of peripheral tolerance.

In addition, there were two marker transcripts, IL-10 and IL-7, that were upregulated in the T1D subjects but

not in the normal controls responding to proinsulin. The presence of IL-10 transcripts in the T cells from T1D subjects responding to proinsulin is of interest because this is reminiscent of previous studies in which peripheral blood stimulation with proinsulin peptides was predominantly associated with IL-10 release.^{22,26} Figure 4 illustrates mixed T-cell proliferation assays, in which three T-cell clones purified from the sorted '9S' proinsulin tetramer-positive population were added to autologous responder peripheral blood mononuclear cells. In each case, suppression of the bystander T cells, irrespective of additional antigen, was observed. It is possible that IL-10 and IL-7 are associated with cell survival and energy in this low-avidity autoreactive population, contributing to their relative resistance to apoptotic tolerance mechanisms.

These studies illustrate simultaneous and dual mechanisms of antigen-specific tolerance to diabetes-associated autoantigens. The first, most fundamental level of control is a genetically determined threshold for central tolerance through deletion of high-avidity autoreactive T cells. The relationship between specific *INS*-VNTR alleles and levels of proinsulin tetramer-binding CD4 T cells, corresponding directly with the previously observed levels of thymic antigen expression, clearly identifies this developmental checkpoint as a fundamental determinant of T1D susceptibility. This is the first direct demonstration in human disease of this important

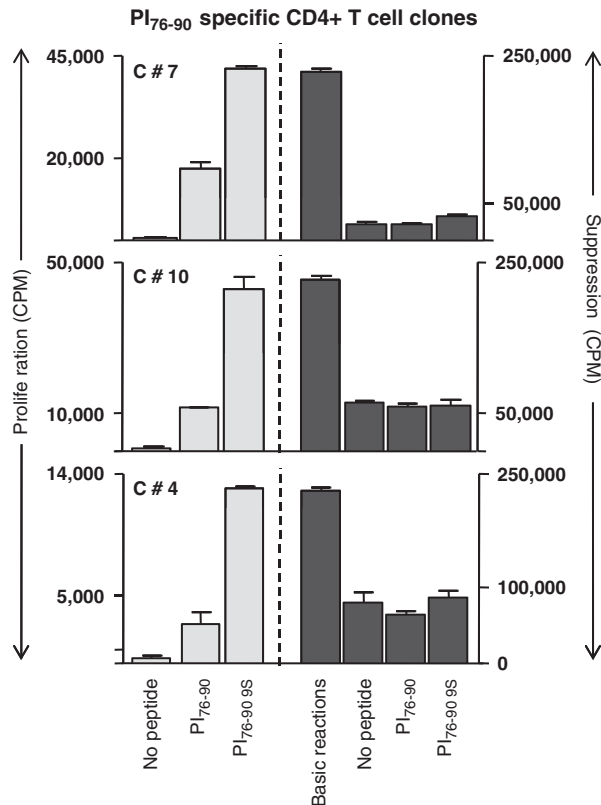


Figure 4 PI-specific T cells exert bystander suppression. Shown are three representative clones that proliferated specifically to native and 9S PI peptides ($10 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$). Addition to responder T cells suppressed proliferation, irrespective of antigen exposure. The s.d. bars represent average of three replicate wells. PI₇₆₋₉₀-specific T-cell clones were isolated from CD4⁺ T cells of a diabetic subject, as described previously.²² They were further characterized in a ³H thymidine incorporation assay to confirm their PI specificity using both wild-type PI₇₆₋₉₀ peptide and PI₇₆₋₉₀ S9 substitute peptide.^{2,26} For suppression assays, 20 000 clone T cells per well were activated with irradiated DRB1*0401 PBMCs (60 000 per well) as antigen-presenting cells (APCs) pulsed with either of the PI peptides or alone. Activated cells were then added to a responder cell culture consisting of CD25⁺-depleted CD4⁺ T cells of a DRB1*0401 donor activated by $5 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ soluble anti-CD3 (UCHT1; BD Biosciences Pharmingen, San Diego, CA, USA), $5 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ soluble anti-CD28 (CD28.2; Pharmingen) and irradiated autologous APCs (non-CD4 cells). The ability of each T-cell clone to suppress proliferation of the responder cells was determined by ³H thymidine incorporation during the final 16 h of the 5-day assay.

central control of antigen-specific autoimmunity, but it is functionally incomplete. Using the modified '9S' agonist tetramer, we also identified low-avidity autoreactive T cells in the peripheral circulation, which were survivors that had escaped central thymic deletion. In our control, non-diabetic subjects, transcript profiling of these cells suggested a second peripheral tolerance mechanism characterized by upregulation of pro-apoptotic genes. Thus, both central and peripheral deletional checkpoints are invoked to control T-cell autoreactivity to proinsulin, manifest through genetic control of antigen expression and the avidity threshold for antigen-specific response.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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