

Preferential elimination of CD28⁺ T cells in systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE) and the relation with activation-induced apoptosis

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SUMMARY

CD28 on T cells provides a potent costimulatory signal for T cell activation. Down-regulation of CD28 on peripheral T cells has been reported in certain clinical conditions, but full studies on the mechanism and biological significance have not been performed. Our extensive phenotype analysis of peripheral blood lymphocytes (PBL) from SLE patients revealed that the absolute number of CD28⁺ T cells of both CD4 and CD8 phenotypes was selectively decreased, while that of CD28⁻ T cells was maintained. CD28⁺ T cells from SLE patients exhibited mostly normal proliferative responses to both CD28-dependent and -independent stimulations. In contrast, CD28⁻ T cells were hyporesponsive to anti-CD3 stimulation in both SLE and normal controls. These results implied that the selective decrease of CD28⁺ T cells in SLE does not result from a hyporesponsiveness of CD28⁺ T cells. To investigate the reason for the selective loss of CD28⁺ T cells, we determined the appearance of apoptotic cells in culture with or without anti-CD3 stimulation. Apoptotic cells defined by merocyanine (MC)540 were gradually increased from 12 h to 24 h. Anti-CD3-induced apoptosis of CD28⁺ T cells was significantly accelerated in SLE, whereas apoptosis of CD28⁻ T cells was hardly detected in both SLE and normal controls. Comparative analysis between CD28⁺ and CD28⁻ T cells on CD95 (Fas) and Bcl-2 expression, which are related to activation-induced cell death (AICD), did not show a major difference, although CTLA4, which has been demonstrated to transmit an apoptosis-inducing signal, was expressed only on CD28⁺ T cells. Our results suggest that CD28-mediated costimulation influences T cell susceptibility to AICD and may be involved in T cell lymphopenia in SLE.

Keywords CD28 apoptosis T cell activation systemic lupus erythematosus

INTRODUCTION

Recent studies have indicated that activation signals to T cells may lead to either proliferation, anergy, or cell death by apoptosis [1–3]. It appears that the activational state of cells and the pathway of an activation signal both play important roles in the decision process [4,5]. An optimal T cell activation requires two signals, the first signal through the ligation of TCR/CD3 complex and the second costimulatory signal delivered by direct interaction between T cells and antigen-presenting cells (APC). Triggering of TCR/CD3 alone, in the absence of a costimulatory signal, not only fails to

induce proliferation but occasionally leads to a state of hyporesponsiveness or anergy [1,2,6]. One of the best known, a crucial costimulatory molecule, is CD28, which is expressed on most T cells and thymocytes. Ligation of CD28 by its ligands, CD80 (B7, B7-1) [7,8] or CD86 (B70, B7-2) [9,10] costimulates T cell proliferation, cytokine production and generation of cytotoxic T lymphocytes (CTL) [11,12].

Although essentially all TCR/CD3⁺ thymocytes in man and mouse express CD28, a minor subset of human peripheral blood T cells lacks CD28 [13]. In healthy adult peripheral blood, CD28⁻ T cells were preferentially found within the CD8 subset [14,15], while CD28⁻4⁺ T cells were observed in certain individuals [16]. CD28⁻8⁺ T cells were not observed in the thymus and were present only at low frequency in cord blood. In healthy adults, this subpopulation was gradually increased with age [17]. We previously demonstrated that CD28⁻8⁺ T cells were morphologically and phenotypically distinct from CD28⁺8⁺ T cells and exhibited unique functional characteristics, in that CD28⁻8⁺ T cells were

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cytolytic in response to anti-CD3 stimulation but unresponsive to anti-CD3-induced proliferation even in the presence of costimulation through CD80 or CD58 [15]. The CD28⁻8⁺ T cell population overlapped most with the CD57⁺8⁺ or CD11b⁺8⁺ T cell subset in normal adult individuals [18], and it has been demonstrated that CD57⁺8⁺ T cells from patients with AIDS and bone marrow transplantation (BMT) manifested non-specific suppressor function through the release of soluble factors [19,20]. All these data indicate that CD28⁻ T cells may possess distinct functional roles from CD28⁺ T cells in an immune response. The increase of this population has been reported in certain clinical situations, such as after BMT [21] or in the course of viral infections [22,23]. It seems that abnormal T cell activation by allo-antigens or viral antigens might be associated with such clinical situations *in vivo*.

SLE is a systemic autoimmune disease characterized by autoantibody production against selected intercellular antigens. In peripheral blood from SLE patients, abnormalities in T and B cell activation are generally observed and lymphopenia is seen in most cases. Although it is not well understood why lymphopenia occurs in SLE, one possible explanation is the existence of lymphocytotoxic antibodies [24], and another may be apoptosis resulting from an excessive lymphocyte activation. Activation through the TCR/CD3 results in the elimination of a proportion of the responding cells; this is called activation-induced cell death (AICD). Recent studies suggest that one of the important mechanisms for AICD within T cells is mediated by CD95 (Fas/Apo-1)- and the CD95 ligand-mediated pathway [25,26]. Many investigators have discussed abnormalities in apoptosis as the cause of autoimmunity [27]. In this study, we investigated the functional and phenotypic characteristics of CD28⁺ and CD28⁻ T cells from both SLE and normal subjects and compared the susceptibility to AICD between these two distinct T cell subsets. Based on our present results, we discuss the possibility that CD28-mediated costimulatory signals affect not only the choice of proliferative response or anergy but also the choice of apoptosis.

PATIENTS AND METHODS

Patients

Lymphocyte marker analysis was performed in 35 SLE patients and 20 healthy donors. Heparinized peripheral blood was obtained from 35 out-patients (34 women and one man) observed at the Rheumatology Clinic in our University. All patients met the American College of Rheumatology criteria (1982) for SLE [28]. The age of patients ranged from 16 to 72 years, with a mean (\pm s.d.) of 36.8 ± 12.7 years. Thirty-one patients were receiving prednisolone treatment (all <30 mg/day). Normal controls (NC) were obtained from 20 healthy volunteers (14 women and six men, 28.8 ± 3.4 years old). At the same time as drawing blood for phenotyping, another blood sample was subjected to whole blood leucocyte count and haemogram on Micro Diff 18 cell counter (Coulter Corp., Hialeah, FL) in our central blood test laboratory. For the cell sorting study in NC, buffy coats were obtained from the Japanese Red Cross Central Blood Centre (Tokyo, Japan). Peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMC) were isolated by Ficoll-Hypaque gradient within 6 h after blood drawing.

Monoclonal antibodies

MoAbs against the following antigens were used: CD3 (OKT3,

IgG2a; obtained from the American Type Culture Collection, Rockville, MD), CD3 (UCHT1, IgG1), CD4 (RPA-T4, IgG1), CD8 (RPA-T8, IgG1), CD5 (UCHT2, IgG1), CD45RO (UCHL1, IgG2a), CD45RA (HI100, IgG1), CD57 (NK-1, IgM), CD11b (44, IgG1), CD16 (3G8, IgG1), CD25 (M-A251, IgG1), CD69 (FN50, IgG1), HLA-DR (TU36, IgG2b), Bcl-2 (124, IgG1; Dako Japan Co. Ltd, Kyoto, Japan), CD28 (TN228, IgG1) and CD95 (DX2, IgG1; generated as previously described [12,29]), CTLA4 (11D4, IgG1; generously provided by Dr P. Linsley, Bristol-Myers Squibb Pharmaceutical Research Institute, Seattle, WA). All MoAbs were generously provided by PharMingen (San Diego, CA), unless otherwise stated.

Immunofluorescence and flow cytometry

Methods of immunofluorescent staining, flow cytometry, and data analysis have been described previously [30]. Cytoplasmic staining for Bcl-2 antigen was performed as described by Pollice *et al.* [18] with minor modifications. Briefly, cells were fixed with 0.25% paraformaldehyde in PBS for 15 min after cell surface staining with PE- and Cychrome (Cy)-conjugated MoAbs. Then the cells were incubated with 70% methanol at 4°C for 60 min for cell membrane permeabilization. After washing once, cells were incubated with FITC-conjugated anti-Bcl-2 MoAb or control mouse IgG1 MoAb for 30 min and were analysed after washing. Flow cytometry was performed using FACScan or FACStar^{plus} (Becton Dickinson Immunocytometry Systems, San Jose, CA) and data were analysed using Lysis II or Cell Quest software (Becton Dickinson).

Cell isolation

CD4⁺ or CD8⁺ cells were isolated from PBMC using anti-CD4- or anti-CD8-coated Dynabeads (M-450) and DynaBeads (Dyna Inc., Oslo, Norway), according to the manufacturer's instructions. CD4⁺ T cells were stained with PE-conjugated anti-CD28 (TN228) and then CD28⁺ cells were collected by flow cytometric cell sorting and used as CD4⁺28⁺ cells. For isolation of CD8⁺28⁺ and CD8⁺28⁻ T cells, purified CD8⁺ T cells were stained with FITC-conjugated anti-CD16 (3G8) MoAb and PE-conjugated anti-CD28 MoAb to distinguish contaminated CD8⁺16⁺28⁻ natural killer (NK) cells and sorted for CD28⁺16⁻ or CD28⁻16⁻ fraction by flow cytometry. All isolated cells were reanalysed by flow cytometry and purity $>95\%$ was always assured.

T cell proliferation assays

Anti-CD3-coated plates were prepared as previously described [15]. In our preliminary studies, we determined that coating with 5 μ g/ml of OKT3 (anti-CD3 MoAb) caused maximal proliferation of T cells and coating with 0.5 μ g/ml of OKT3 was suboptimal. Freshly isolated PBMC (1×10^5 cells) or highly purified T cells (1×10^5 cells) were added at the indicated cell number to anti-CD3-coated or uncoated wells in 96-well flat-bottomed plates (Corning, New York, NY) in the presence or absence of 5 μ g/ml anti-CD28 (TN228) MoAb and 50 U/ml recombinant IL-2 (Shionogi Pharmaceutical Inc., Osaka, Japan) and plates were cultured for the indicated period. Cultures were labelled for the final 18 h with 1 μ Ci/well ³H-TdR (New England Nuclear, Boston, MA), were harvested using a Micro 96 Harvester (Skatron, Lier, Norway) and radioactivity was measured using a microplate β counter (Micro Beta Plus; Wallac, Turku, Finland).

Assessment of apoptotic cells

For identification of apoptotic cells in certain T cell subsets, we estimated the increased binding of a lipophilic fluorescent dye merocyanine (MC)540 (Sigma, St Louis, MO) and decreased forward scatter (FSC) by flow cytometry. Staining with MC540 was performed as described [31] with minor modifications. After cell surface staining with FITC-conjugated anti-CD28 and Cy-conjugated anti-CD3 MoAbs, cells were resuspended in 100 μ l of 2% fetal calf serum (FCS)-PBS. MC540 (0.1 μ g/ml) was added and the cells were incubated for 10 min at room temperature. After one washing, cells were analysed by flow cytometry on FACScan immediately.

RESULTS

Selective loss of CD28⁺ T cells in SLE

Three-colour immunofluorescence analysis of peripheral blood lymphocytes (PBL) from 35 SLE patients and 20 healthy NC was performed to examine CD28 expression on T cell subsets. Representative results are presented in Fig. 1, and the mean percentage of each subset to total lymphocytes is shown in Fig. 2a. As shown in the left panel in Fig. 1, CD28 was exclusively expressed on CD3⁺ T cells in both NC and SLE PBL. The percentages of CD3⁺ T cells in NC and SLE were 72.8% and 60.3%, respectively (data not shown). Despite a minor decrease of total T cell percentage in SLE, the proportion of CD28⁺ T (CD28⁺CD3⁺) cells was apparently decreased and, in contrast, that of CD28⁻ T (CD28⁻CD3⁺) cells was significantly increased (Fig. 2a). Since we previously showed that discrimination of CD8⁺ NK cells

was difficult by two-colour staining with anti-CD28 and anti-CD8 MoAbs, we performed three-colour staining in the following experiments. An electronic 'gate' was placed on CD3⁺ T cells stained with Cy-conjugated anti-CD3 MoAb to eliminate CD28⁻ non-T cells and the percentages in total lymphocytes are presented (Fig. 2a). Within the CD4⁺ T cell population, the percentage of CD28⁺ cells in SLE (21.3%) was decreased to half of NC (42.9%). Consistent with previous observations, CD28⁻ T cells were hardly detected in NC [16,18]. However, considerable percentages of CD28⁻CD4⁺ cells were observed in several individuals with SLE, as represented in Fig. 1. Within the CD8⁺ T cell subset, no significant difference was seen in percentages of CD28⁺ cells between NC and SLE, while a significant increase ($P < 0.05$) of CD28⁻ cell percentage was observed in SLE. The percentages of CD28⁻ T cells in the CD8 subset were remarkably variable in individual SLE patients (range 0.2–40.9%) in contrast with NC (range 1.0–14.7%). The proportions of CD28⁻ cells in both CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells were 11.8% and 45.4% in SLE, and 4.5% and 29.8% in NC, respectively (not shown). We examined the statistical correlation between the increased proportion of CD28⁻ T cells and clinical parameters including duration of disease, total amount of received corticosteroids, and disease activity, but no correlation was observed (not shown). These results suggest that CD28⁻ T cells might be expanded in SLE patients. However, lymphopenia is common in SLE, so the increase of percentages of certain cell subsets is not a direct indication of expansion.

We therefore calculated the absolute cell numbers (Fig. 2b). A remarkable reduction of CD28⁺ T cells was observed, especially within the CD4 subset. This is consistent with a previous

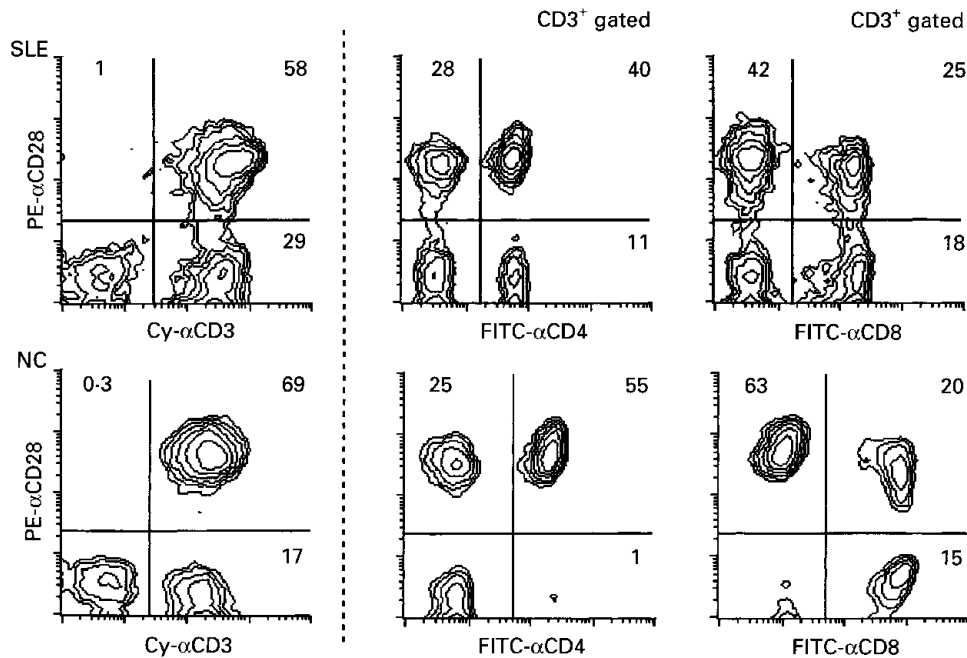


Fig. 1. Expression of CD28 on peripheral blood lymphocytes (PBL) from SLE patients (SLE) and normal controls (NC). Peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMC) from healthy adults and SLE patients were stained with FITC-anti-CD4 or anti-CD8, PE-anti-CD28 and Cy-conjugated anti-CD3 MoAbs, or with appropriate fluorochrome-control immunoglobulin (not shown). Samples were analysed by three-colour flow cytometry. Lymphocytes were identified by characteristic forward angle and side scatter profiles. Data are displayed as contour plots (4-decade log scale) and quadrant markers were positioned to include >98% of control immunoglobulin-stained cells in the lower left. In the middle and left panels, an electronic gate was set on CD3⁺ T lymphocytes and expression of CD28 and CD4 or CD8 is displayed. Representative FACS profiles are presented.

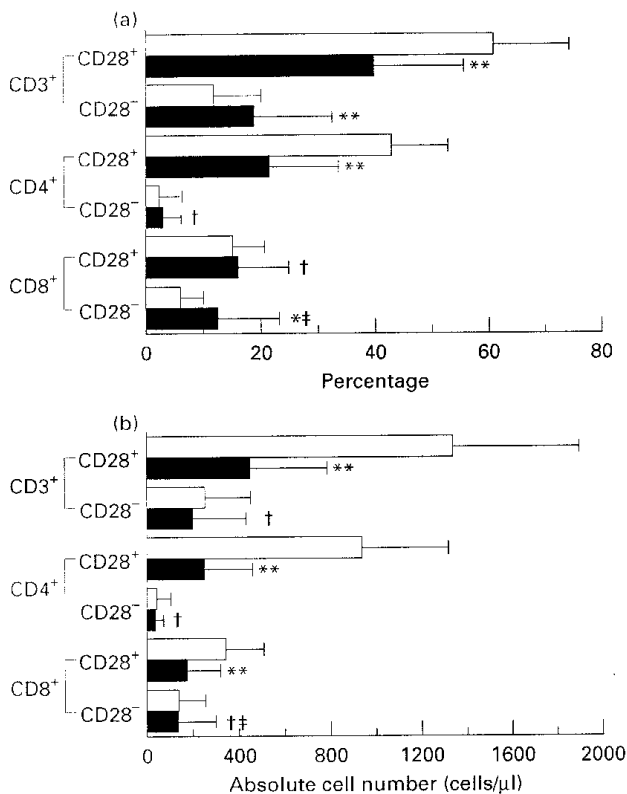


Fig. 2. Comparison of mean percentages (a) and absolute cell numbers (b) of CD28⁺ and CD28⁻ T cells between normal controls (NC) (□) and SLE (■). Peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMC) from 35 SLE patients and 20 NC were stained as described in Fig. 1. (a) The mean percentage of CD28⁺ or CD28⁻ cells co-expressing CD3 within total lymphocytes was determined. For CD4⁺ or CD8⁺ cells, an electronic gate was placed on CD3⁺ T lymphocytes and then the percentage of CD28⁺ or CD28⁻ cells co-expressing CD4 or CD8 within total lymphocytes was presented. (b) The absolute cell number of the subsets was determined by multiplying the total lymphocyte count by the percentage of lymphocytes exhibiting the indicated phenotypes. Each value is presented as the mean ± s.d. of 35 (SLE) or 20 (NC) individuals. **P* < 0.05; ***P* < 0.001 compared with NC by Mann-Whitney *U*-test; †not significantly different from NC; ‡not significantly different from CD28⁺ cells.

demonstration that lymphopenia in SLE was remarkable in the CD4 subset and the ratio of CD4 to CD8 was reduced [32]. We could not see any significant difference in absolute cell number of CD28⁻ T cells in both CD4 and CD8 subsets between NC and SLE. This clearly indicates that the increase of CD28⁻ T percentage in SLE resulted from the reduction of CD28⁺ T cells rather than the expansion of CD28⁻ T cells. Furthermore, it seems unlikely that CD28⁻ T cells arose from CD28⁺ T cells by down-regulation of CD28 expression during activation *in vivo*, because the mean fluorescence intensity of CD28 on CD28⁺ T cells in each CD4 and CD8 subset from SLE and NC was similar, and we have not observed an obvious CD28^{dim} population in SLE. These observations revealed that CD28⁺ T cells were selectively lost in PBL from SLE patients.

CD28⁺ T cells are not generally hyporesponsive in SLE

It has been frequently reported that T cells from SLE patients have

dysfunction in *in vitro* proliferation and IL-2 production [33]. This suggests that the decrease of CD28⁺ T cells in SLE might result from a limited expansion of CD28⁺ T cells *in vivo*. To see the proliferative ability of T cells from SLE and NC, we examined the proliferative response to CD28 costimulation. PBMC were cultured with optimal amounts of soluble anti-CD28 MoAb (5 μg/ml) or rIL-2 (50 U/ml) in the presence or absence of suboptimal (0.5 μg/ml) or optimal (5 μg/ml) anti-CD3 MoAb. As shown in Fig. 3a, PBMC from SLE showed only slightly lower proliferative responses than those from NC in both culture conditions. Since PBMC from SLE patients contained fewer CD4⁺ and CD28⁺ T cells, this minor decrease in proliferation might result from a decrease of such responder T cells. We previously demonstrated that CD28⁻ T cells possess a limited proliferative capacity when stimulated with allo-antigens [16] or anti-CD3 MoAb [15]. To investigate whether the lower proliferative responses in SLE resulted from the hyporesponsiveness of CD28⁺ or CD28⁻ T cells, we compared the proliferative ability of purified CD28⁻ or CD28⁺ T cells from NC and SLE patients. In the case of the CD4⁺ T subset, the isolation of CD28⁻ T cells from NC was difficult, so we compared proliferative responses of highly purified CD28⁺ T cells (>97% pure) from NC and SLE. These cells were cultured with anti-CD28 and anti-CD3 MoAbs for 4 days. We observed no significant difference between NC and SLE, though the proliferative responses in SLE were slightly lower than NC (Fig. 3b). In our preliminary experiments, CD28⁻ T cells from SLE failed to proliferate (not shown). As shown in Fig. 3c, we compared the proliferative response of purified CD28⁺ and CD28⁻ T cells between NC and patients. CD28⁻ T cells responded poorly to stimulation with anti-CD3 MoAb and exogenous IL-2 in both NC and SLE. In contrast, CD28⁺ T cells from some SLE patients (as represented by S.O.) showed a lower response, but those from some patients (as represented by M.U.) showed a comparable response to NC. These results indicate that, although CD28⁻ T cells are similarly hyporesponsive in both NC and SLE, CD28⁺ T cells from SLE are not generally hyporesponsive to TCR/CD3-mediated stimulation. This suggests that the decrease of CD28⁺ T cells in SLE does not result from a hyporesponsiveness of these cells *in vivo*.

Activation-induced apoptosis of CD28⁺ T cells is accelerated in SLE

We next investigated an alternative possibility that CD28⁺ T cells are more susceptible to elimination by AICD. TCR/CD3 cross-linking has been reported to induce apoptosis in previously activated T cells and T cell lines, but not in normal naive T cells [4,5]. However, there was a report that the spontaneous apoptosis of SLE-PBL was accelerated [34]. We therefore investigated whether activation-induced apoptosis is comparably induced in both CD28⁺ and CD28⁻ T subsets. We took advantage of the sensitive reactivity of a lipophilic fluorescent dye, MC540, to apoptotic cells and performed three-colour and five-parameter analysis by flow cytometry. Apoptotic cells were identified by their decreased FSC and increased binding of MC540, as shown in Fig. 4b. In our initial experiments, we did not observe a clear difference in percent apoptotic cells between the MC540 method and a common propidium iodide-staining for apoptotic cells [35] (not shown). Figure 4a shows the appearance of MC540^{high}FSC^{low} apoptotic T cells in cultures with or without anti-CD3 MoAb. In preliminary experiments, it was confirmed that the total cell

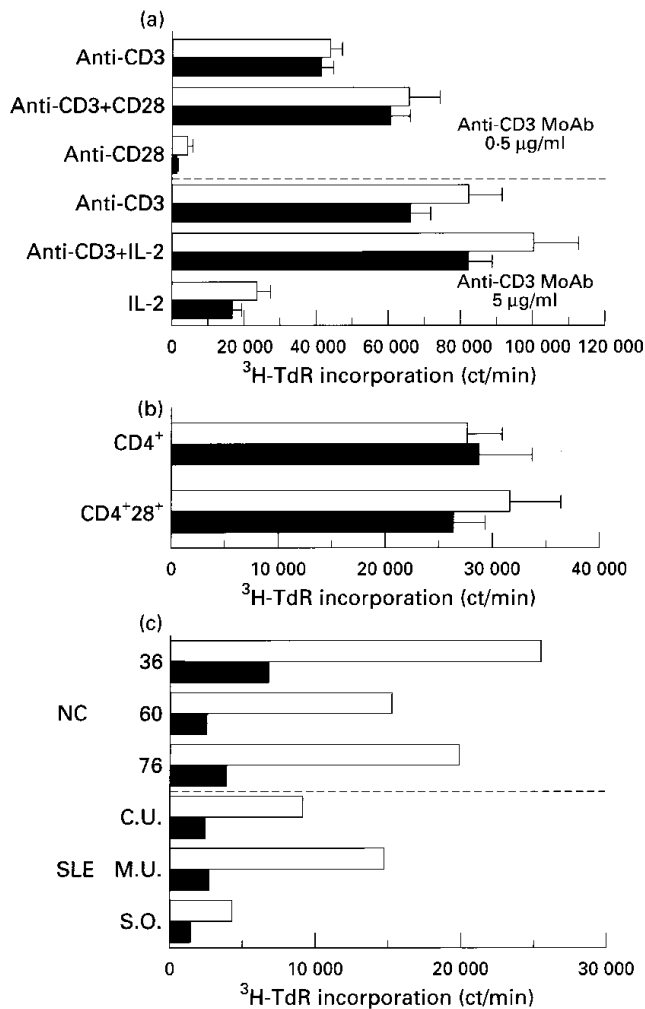


Fig. 3. CD28-dependent or CD28-independent proliferative responses of peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMC) or purified CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells from SLE patients. (a) Freshly isolated PBMC (1×10^5 cells/well) were cultured with a suboptimal amount of immobilized anti-CD3 (OKT3, 0.5 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) and/or soluble anti-CD28 (TN228, 10 $\mu\text{g/ml}$), or with optimal amount of immobilized anti-CD3 (5 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) and/or 50 U/ml rIL-2, as indicated. Cultures were pulsed overnight with $^3\text{H-TdR}$ and harvested on day 4. Values represent the mean \pm s.e.m. of five (NC; \square) and nine (SLE; \blacksquare) individuals. (b) CD4⁺ T cells were isolated by Dynabeads and DetachaBeads system and then CD4⁺28⁺ T cells were collected by flow cytometric cell sorting. Purified cells (1×10^5 cells/well) were cultured with immobilized anti-CD3 MoAb (0.5 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) and soluble anti-CD28 MoAb (5 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) for 4 days. Values represent the mean \pm s.e.m. of four (NC; \square) and eight (SLE; \blacksquare) individuals. (c) CD8⁺ T cells were stained with FITC-anti-CD16 MoAb and PE-anti-CD28 MoAb and selected for CD28⁺16⁻ and CD28⁻16⁻ cells and used for the assay as CD8⁺28⁺ T cells (\square) and CD8⁺28⁻ T cells (\blacksquare), respectively. Sorted cells were stimulated with immobilized anti-CD3 MoAb (5 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) and 50 U/ml of rIL-2. Cultures were pulsed overnight with 1 $\mu\text{Ci/well}$ $^3\text{H-TdR}$ and harvested on day 7. Three individual results from normal controls (NC) and SLE were presented.

number determined by trypan blue exclusion did not change significantly within the culture up to 24 h. In freshly drawn PBL, $2.1 \pm 0.8\%$ and $4.7 \pm 1.3\%$ (mean \pm s.e.m.) of CD3⁺ T cells were apoptotic in NC and SLE, respectively. Spontaneous apoptosis in

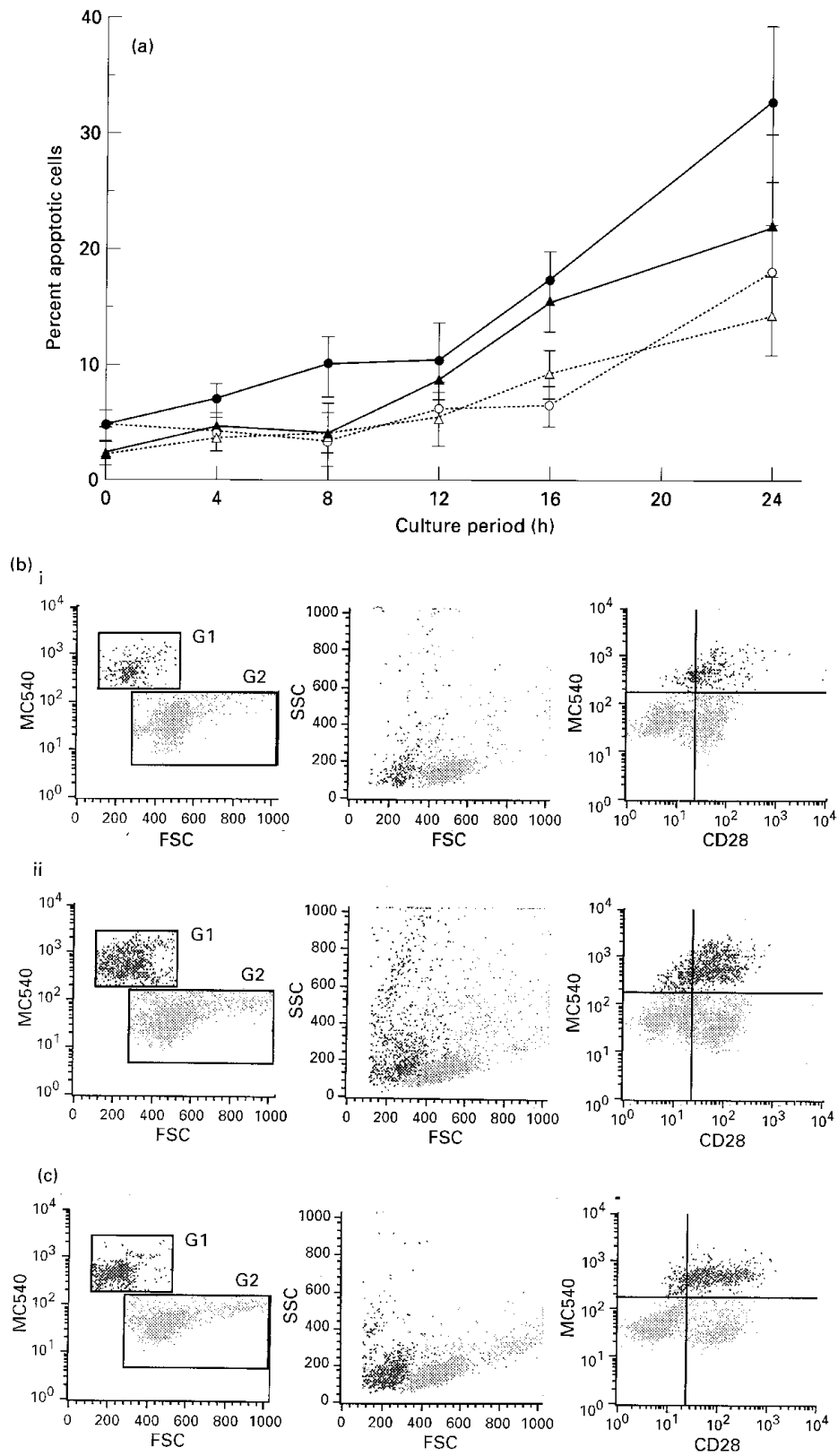
culture gradually occurred in both NC and SLE to a similar extent. Apoptosis of T cells in SLE tended to be augmented by anti-CD3 stimulation from 16 h to 24 h, but this was not statistically significant (Fig. 4a). Apoptotic cells defined by MC540^{high}FSC^{low} were preferentially observed in the CD28⁺ T cell population, and only a few CD28⁻ T cells were apoptotic over 24 h in culture of SLE PBMC (Fig. 4b). Figure 5c represents the apoptosis of CD8⁺ T cells from NC. As was the case in SLE PBMC, apoptotic cells arose preferentially from CD28⁺ cells. We therefore compared the ratio of apoptotic cells within the CD28⁺ T cell subset between NC and SLE. As shown in Fig. 4d, the percentage of apoptotic cells was significantly increased in SLE 24 h after anti-CD3 stimulation. These results suggest that CD28⁺ T cells from SLE patients are more susceptible to activation-induced apoptosis, which may be responsible for the selective loss of CD28⁺ T cells in SLE.

Expression of CD95 and Bcl-2 in CD28⁺ and CD28⁻ T cells

To investigate possible mechanisms for the susceptibility of CD28⁺ T cells to AICD, we performed comparative analysis of apoptosis-related molecules between CD28⁻ and CD28⁺ T cells. CD95, which has been implicated in AICD of preactivated mature T cells, was predominantly expressed on CD45RO⁺ 'memory' T cells, but not on CD45RA⁺ 'naive' T cells in NC. Consistent with previous reports [36,37], a significant up-regulation of CD95 was observed in CD45RA⁺ T cells from SLE. There was no apparent difference in expression patterns of CD95 between CD4 and CD8 T cell subsets (not shown). To compare the levels of CD95 expression between CD28⁺ and CD28⁻ T cells, we prepared overlaid histograms of an electronic gate placed on CD28⁺3⁺ and CD28⁻3⁺ cells (Fig. 5b). CD28⁻ T cells showed a homogeneous and intermediate level of CD95 expression in both NC and SLE. In contrast, CD28⁺ T cells consisted of two populations with high or low-negative CD95 expression. Some SLE patients, as represented by M.M., exhibited higher CD95 expression on CD28⁺ T cells than NC, but this was not generally observed in other SLE patients tested. The product of proto-oncogene Bcl-2 has been shown to inhibit apoptosis and to be expressed on T and B cells [38]. Comparison of Bcl-2 protein level in CD28⁺ and CD28⁻ T cells showed no significant difference in both NC and SLE (Fig. 5c).

Activation-induced cell surface antigens on CD28⁺ and CD28⁻ T cells

To investigate whether the hypoproliferative capacity and resistance to AICD in CD28⁻ T cells result from the defect in activation, we measured cell surface expression of CD25, CD69, and HLA-DR on both CD28⁺ and CD28⁻ T cells after CD3 stimulation (Fig. 6a). CD69 expression was induced during the first 4 h after CD3 stimulation on both CD28⁺ and CD28⁻ T cells, and reached a maximal level within 24 h. Although HLA-DR was expressed on freshly isolated T cells from SLE patients but not from NC, expression of CD25 and HLA-DR on CD28⁻ T cells was comparable to that on CD28⁺ T cells 24 h after activation. It has been recently reported that CTLA4, which is a structural homologue of CD28, mediated apoptosis of activated T cells *in vitro* [38]. Substantial expression of CTLA4 in normal T cells was detectable at 5 days after stimulation with anti-CD3 MoAb and IL-2. Figure 6b shows the FACS profiles of T cells from SLE stained with MoAbs against CD28 and CTLA4 at days 0, 5, and 7 after stimulation. CTLA4 was preferentially induced on CD28⁺ T



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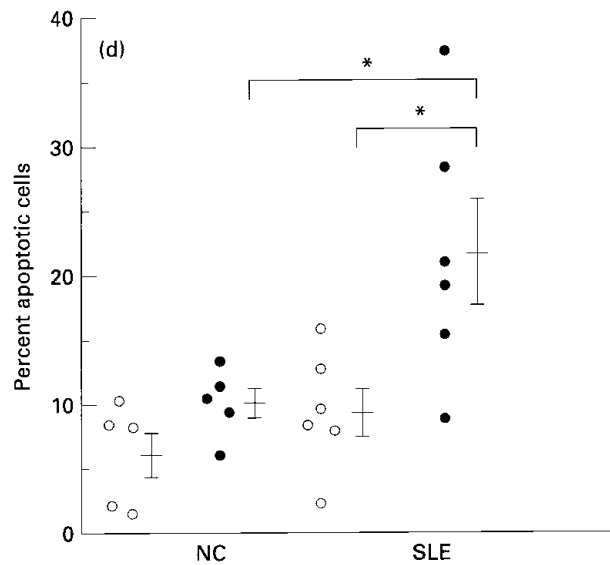


Fig. 4. (See previous page.) Appearance of apoptotic cells in culture. (a) Comparison between normal controls (NC) and SLE. Peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMC) from NC (triangles) and SLE (circles) were cultured for 0, 4, 8, 12, 16, and 24 h in anti-CD3 ($5 \mu\text{g/ml}$)-coated (closed symbols) or uncoated (open symbols) 48-well plates. Cells were recovered, stained with Cy-anti-CD3 MoAb, FITC-anti-CD28 MoAb, and MC540, and analysed by three-colour flow cytometry. An electronic gate was set on the live CD3^+ T cells by FSC and fluorescence intensity for CD3. The percentage of apoptotic cells was determined as $\text{MC540}^{\text{high}}\text{FSC}^{\text{low}}$ in total CD3^+ T cells. Values represent the mean percentage \pm s.e.m. of four (NC) and seven (SLE) individuals. (b,c) CD28 expression on apoptotic cells. Freshly isolated (bi) or 24 h anti-CD3-stimulated (bii) PBMC from SLE and 24 h anti-CD3-stimulated CD8^+ cells from NC (c) were analysed. Stained cells were gated on the live CD3^+ T cells by FSC and fluorescence intensity and data are displayed as dot plots with the indicated parameters on abscissa and ordinate. In the left panels, rectangular markers were set on $\text{FSC}^{\text{low}}\text{MC540}^{\text{high}}$ cells for apoptotic cells (G1) and $\text{FSC}^{\text{high}}\text{MC540}^{\text{low}}$ cells for non-apoptotic cells (G2). Results are representative of at least five experiments. (d) The percentage apoptotic cells in CD28^+ T cells. PBMC from NC and SLE were cultured in the presence (●) or absence (○) of anti-CD3 MoAb and stained as described above. An electronic gate was set on CD28^+ cells and then the percentage of $\text{MC540}^{\text{high}}\text{FSC}^{\text{low}}$ cells was calculated. Values represent the mean percentage \pm s.e.m. of five (NC) and six (SLE) individuals. *Statistically significantly different ($P < 0.05$).

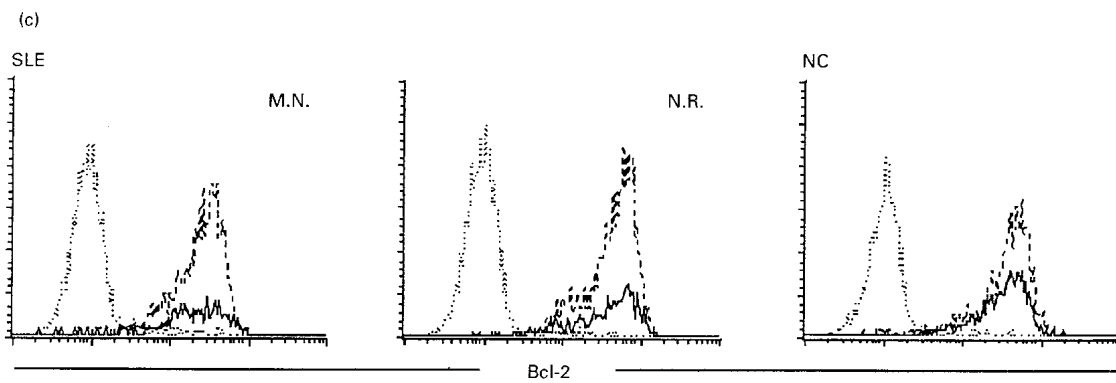
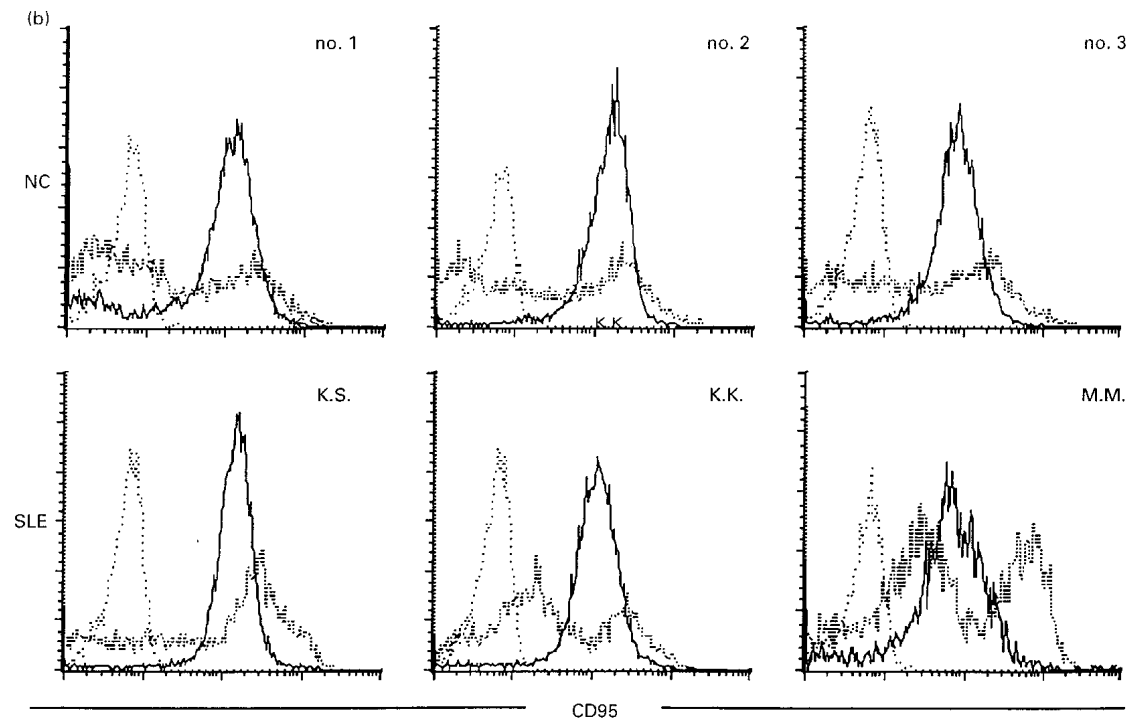
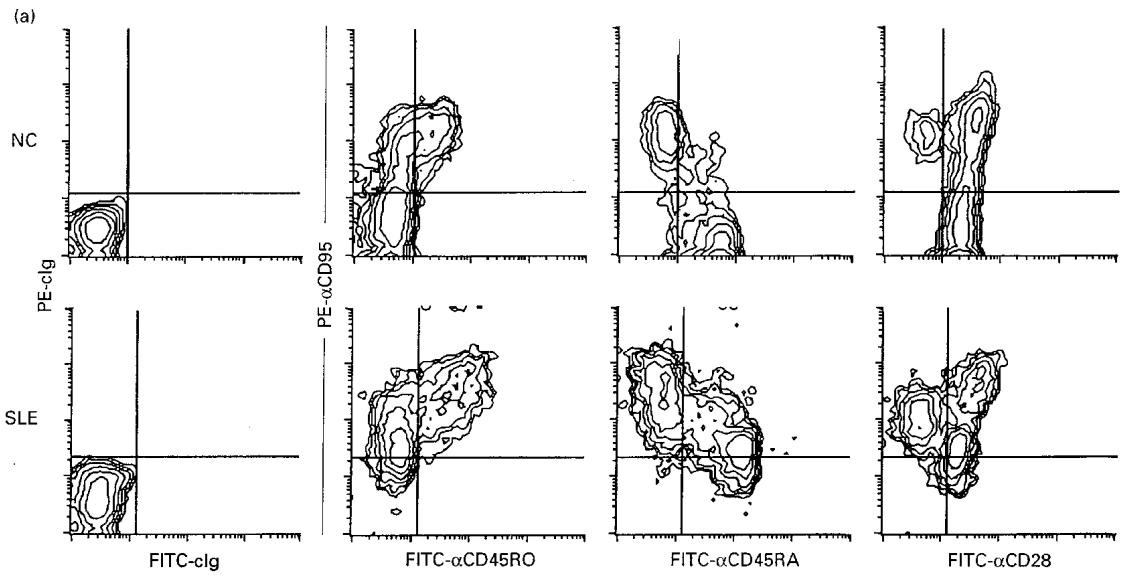
cells but not on CD28^- T cells, though a significant difference in kinetics of CTLA4 induction between SLE and NC was not observed (not shown). This suggests that CTLA4 preferentially expressed on CD28^+ T cells might be responsible for the preferential apoptosis of these cells after activation.

DISCUSSION

In the present study, we demonstrate that CD28^+ T cells were selectively decreased in PBMC from patients with SLE. The CD28^- T cell subset is mostly correspondent to the CD11b^+ or CD57^+ T cell subset in normal PBMC [14,15]. Increased CD57^+ or CD11b^+ T cell subset in PBMC has been reported after BMT [21] or in the course of infection by cytomegalovirus [22] and Epstein-Barr virus (EBV) [23]. Recently, an increased proportion of CD28^- T cells was also reported in HIV infection [39–41]. In such clinical situations, lymphoproliferative and/or subsequent lymphoatrophic states are often observed in their clinical courses. The increased percentage of CD28^- T cell subset could be caused by preferential expansion of CD28^- T cells and/or preferential elimination of CD28^+ T cells in response to antigenic stimulation. We tested which is the case in SLE. Although the etiology of SLE is not clear, aberrant activation of both T and B cells in SLE patients has been reported [42,43]. It has been generally agreed that hyperactivation of B cells characterized by autoantibody production is driven by some autoantigen, T-B cognate interaction, and T

cell-derived cytokines. Therefore, abnormal T cell activation by some autoantigen seems to be occurring in SLE *in vivo*. In this study, we demonstrate that CD28^- T cells were not increased in SLE, and these cells from both SLE and NC were hyporesponsive to anti-CD3 stimulation even in the presence of exogenous IL-2. In contrast, CD28^+ T cells were selectively decreased in SLE. In our experiments using highly purified $\text{CD4}^+\text{CD28}^+$ T cells, we observed unimpaired proliferation of SLE T cells in response to anti-CD3 and -CD28 stimulation. Consistent with our data, Sfrikakis *et al.* demonstrated that the anti-CD3-induced proliferative response costimulated with CD80 -transfectant was not impaired in SLE patients [44]. It is well known that proliferative responses to phytohaemagglutinin (PHA) and recall antigens are lowered in SLE patients. Since these responses are dependent on CD28 -mediated costimulation, as indicated by blocking with Fab fragments of anti- CD28 Fab or anti- CD80 and - CD86 MoAbs, hyporesponsiveness of SLE PBMC to these stimulations seems to result from the decrease of CD28^+ T cells. In addition, CD28^- T cells have been proposed to have a suppressive effect against proliferative T cell responses [21,45]. Therefore, relatively increased CD28^- T cells may also have a suppressive effect against proliferative CD28^+ T cells in SLE.

Lymphopenia is a common manifestation of human SLE and the murine lupus models. Although it is not well understood why lymphopenia occurs in SLE, several possible explanations have been proposed. First, antilymphocyte antibodies [24] may react



specifically with a particular T cell subset. Second, apoptosis may result from aberrant lymphocyte activation. Third, lymphocytes may be sequestered at sites of inflammation or lymphoid tissues. In respect of T cell lymphopenia, certain T cell subsets may be affected selectively by these three factors. Consistent with the studies using two-colour analysis by Alvarado *et al.* [46], we demonstrated strictly that CD28⁺ T cells are eliminated selectively in SLE. Sfrikakis *et al.* [47] suggested that the decrease of CD28⁺ T cells in peripheral blood of rheumatoid arthritis (RA) patients might result from the migration of these cells to active sites of inflammation, from the comparative examination of both peripheral blood and synovial fluid T cells in RA patients. Although we cannot completely eliminate this possibility, it is unlikely that the migration of CD28⁺ T cells is a common reason for T cell lymphopenia in SLE, since the homing of T cells to the specific organs is not typical except for certain cases. There were only few studies directly investigating abnormalities in lymphocyte apoptosis of lymphocytes in SLE. Emlen *et al.* reported the up-regulated spontaneous apoptosis of PBL from SLE patients *in vitro* [34]. We observed a significant increase of apoptotic T cells from SLE patients within the CD28⁺ T cell subset, but not in whole T cell populations. Although this *in vitro* experiment did not reproduce the state of lymphocytes *in vivo*, it is possible that hyperactivated B cells or other APC expressing CD28 ligands augment T cell activation through CD28 costimulation. Therefore, we prefer the explanation that an excessive activation of CD28⁺ T cells might result in acceleration of *in vivo* apoptosis in SLE patients. It has been demonstrated that CD95 and its ligand play a critical role in AICD of mature T cells [25,26]. On the other hand, Bcl-2 and its related molecules affected lymphocyte survival and resistance to CD95-mediated apoptosis [27,48,49]. Recent studies reveal that defects in the CD95 or CD95 ligand result in autoimmunity in *lpr* and *gld* mice, which develop a murine form of lupus [27,50,51]. Although the expression of CD95 and Bcl-2 in SLE was investigated by several groups, no report has focused on the relation to CD28 expression. In a comparative analysis between CD28 and CD95, we found relatively higher CD95 expression in the CD28⁺ T cell subset. It remains to be determined whether these CD95^{high} cells in the CD28⁺ population are indeed susceptible to AICD. However, despite up-regulation of CD95 expression, increased apoptosis in SLE PBMC and B cells by the agonistic anti-CD95 MoAb in freshly isolated PBMC was not observed [37]. In addition, several reports indicate that expression of CD95 is not always associated with CD95-mediated apoptosis [52–54]. Recently, human CD95 ligand has been cloned [55] and the induction of CD95 ligand on T cells might be more critical to AICD. CD95 ligand was co-expressed with CD95 on T cells after activation [25,26]. However, at present, expression of CD95 ligand on various T cell subpopulations has not been clarified. We are now trying to detect surface expression of CD95 ligand on

anti-CD3-activated T cells from NC and SLE using specific MoAbs against human CD95 ligand [56]. In the analysis for Bcl-2, a high level of Bcl-2 was constitutively expressed in peripheral blood T cells, and we found no significant difference in expression level between CD28⁺ and CD28⁻ T cells from SLE. This indicates that Bcl-2 is not critical for determining the susceptibility of CD28⁺ T cells to AICD. Boise *et al.* reported that CD28 costimulation promoted T cell survival by enhancing the expression of Bcl-xL [57]. Therefore, Bcl-xL induction in CD28⁻ T cells from SLE remains to be determined.

Recently, CD28 overlapped with CD95 on the sphingomyelin-ceramide signalling pathway. Signalling through both CD95 and CD28 caused sphingomyelin conversion to ceramide by an active form of sphingomyelinase [29,58,59]. The generated ceramide acts as a second messenger for activating a serine/threonine protein kinase [60] and Ras [61] and initiates induction of apoptosis. Therefore, the ceramide generated by the CD28-mediated signalling may act additively with that generated by the CD95-mediated signalling and, thus, enhance AICD of CD28⁺ T cells. Although ceramide generation appears to be involved in both proliferation and apoptosis, further studies are required to know what factor decides between apoptosis and proliferation. Furthermore, Gribben *et al.* [62] recently suggested that CTLA4 triggers antigen-specific apoptosis. More recently, a negative regulatory role of CTLA4 has been demonstrated by *in vitro* studies [63,64] and by the generation of CTLA4-deficient mice [65,66]. It is possible that CTLA4 rather than CD28 could directly function to eliminate autoreactive T cells or antigen-specific T cells that were no longer needed. At present, it is difficult to discriminate the role of CTLA4 from CD28-mediated T cell activation, since the induction of CTLA4 expression seems to be dependent on CD28-mediated activation ([64] and Fig. 6b). It remains to be determined how CD28 and CTLA4 operate on T cell activation and apoptosis.

In this study, we found that CD28⁺ T cells were selectively eliminated in PBMC from SLE patients, and surmised that this reduction of CD28⁺ T cells might be partly due to AICD *in vivo*. In many clinical situations, such as cancer, viral infections, and autoimmune diseases, T cells are activated by certain antigens and then faced with a decision whether they should proliferate, be anergic, or die. To elucidate the exact regulatory mechanisms of the fate of activated T cells may provide an effective way of treatment of such human diseases.

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Fig. 5. Expression of apoptosis-associated antigens in CD28⁻ and CD28⁺ T cells. (a) Correlation between CD95 and CD45R or CD28 expression. (b) CD95 expression. (c) Bcl-2 expression. Fresh peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMC) from normal controls (NC) and SLE were stained with Cy-anti-CD3, FITC-anti-CD28, CD45RO, and CD45RA, and PE-anti-CD95 MoAbs or with an appropriate fluorochrome-control immunoglobulin. An electronic gate was set on CD3⁺ T cells and correlated expression of CD95 *versus* other antigens is displayed as contour plots (4-decade log scale) (a). In (b,c), an electronic gate was set on CD3⁺28⁻ (solid line) and CD3⁺28⁺ (broken line) cells and expression of CD95 (b) and Bcl-2 (c) are presented as histograms (4-decade log scale) with the immunoglobulin control histograms (dotted line) in each panel. Representative FACS profiles of at least five donors each from NC and SLE are presented.

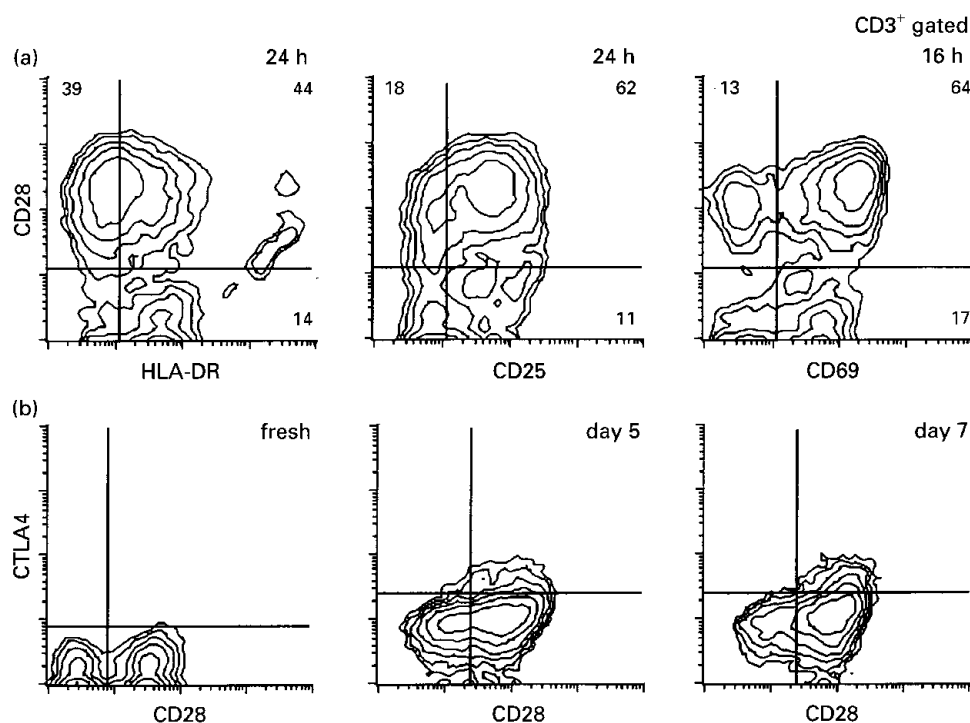


Fig. 6. Activation-induced cell surface antigens on CD28⁺ and CD28⁻ T cells. (a) Peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMC) from SLE patients were cultured with immobilized anti-CD3 MoAb (5 µg/ml) for 16 or 24 h. Cells were stained with FITC-anti-CD69, anti-CD25, or anti-HLA-DR and PE-conjugated anti-CD28, and Cy-anti-CD3, or with an appropriate fluorochrome-control immunoglobulin (not shown). (b) PBMC were stimulated with immobilized anti-CD3 MoAb for 3 days, then further cultured with rIL-2 (50 U/ml) and harvested for CTLA4 and CD28 expression at the indicated days. Cells were stained with biotinylated anti-CTLA4 (11D4), FITC-anti-CD28, and Cy-anti-CD3 MoAbs, followed by PE-streptavidin or with appropriate fluorochrome controls (not shown). Data are displayed as contour plots (4-decade log scale) and quadrant markers are positioned to include >98% of control immunoglobulin-stained cells in the lower left. Representative data from three patients are shown.

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