ably have diminished elastin content. Since the rodent lung continues to develop until two months after birth, one wonders whether $Eln^{+/-}$ lungs undergo structural reorganization when exposed to postnatal transmural pressure and what the consequences of such reorganization might be on pulmonary function.

- Helminen, H.J., Saamanen, A.M., Salminen, H., and Hyttinen, M.M. 2002. Transgenic mouse models for studying the role of cartilage macromolecules in osteoarthritis. *Rheumatology*. 41:848–856.
- Faury, G., et al. 2003. Developmental adaptation of the mouse cardiovascular system to elastin haploinsufficiency. J. Clin. Invest. 112:1419–1428. doi:10.1172/JCI200319028.
- Parks, W.C., Pierce, R.A., Lee, K.A., and Mecham, R.P. 1993. Elastin. Advances in Molecular and Cellular Biology. 6:133–182.

- Leung, D.Y.M., Glagov, S., and Mathews, M.B. 1977. Elastin and collagen accumulation in rabbit ascending aorta and pulmonary trunk during postnatal growth: correlation of cellular synthetic response with medial tension. *Circ. Res.* 41:316–323.
- Clark, J.M., and Glagov., S. 1985. Transmural organization of the arterial media. The lamellar unit revisited. *Arteriosclerosis.* 5:19–34.
- Tassabehji, M., et al. 1998. An elastin gene mutation producing abnormal tropoelastin and abnormal elastic fibres in a patient with autosomal dominant cutis laxa. *Hum. Mol. Genet.* 7:1021–1028.
- 7. Curran, M.E., et al. 1993. The elastin gene is disrupted by a translocation associated with supravalvular aortic stenosis. *Cell.* **73**:159–168.
- Ewart, A.K., Jin, W.S., Atkinson, D., Morris, C.A., and Keating, M.T. 1994. Supravalvular aortic stenosis associated with a deletion disrupting the elastin gene. J. Clin. Invest. 93:1071–1077.
- Urban, Z., et al. 1999. Supravalvular aortic stenosis: a splice site mutation within the elastin gene results in reduced expression of two aberrantly spliced transcripts. *Hum. Genet.* 104:135–142.
 Urban, Z., et al. 2000. Isolated supravalvular aortic supr

tic stenosis; functional haploinsufficiency of the elastin gene as a result of nonsense-mediated decay. *Hum. Genet.* **106**:577–588.

- Chowdhury, T., and Reardon, W. 1999. Elastin mutation and cardiac disease. *Pediatr. Cardiol.* 20:103-107.
- Lowery, M.C., Morris, C.A., and Ewart, A.K. 1995. Strong correlation of elastin deletions, detected by FISH, with Williams Syndrome: evaluation of 235 patients. Am. J. Hum. Genet. 57:49–53.
- Li, D.Y., et al. 1998. Elastin is an essential determinant of arterial morphogenesis. *Nature*. 393:276–280.
- Li, D., et al. 1998. Novel arterial pathology in mice and humans hemizygous for elastin. J. Clin. Invest. 102:1783–1787.
- Ting, C.T., et al. 1986. Arterial hemodynamics in human hypertension. J. Clin. Invest. 78:1462–1471.
- Simon, A.C., Levenson, J., Chau, N.P., and Pithois-Merli, I. 1992. Role of arterial compliance in the physiopharmacological approach to human hypertension. J. Cardiovasc. Pharmacol. 5(Suppl.):S11–S20.
- Armentano, R., et al. 1991. Mechanical pressure versus intrinsic effects of hypertension on large arteries in humans. *Hypertension*. 18:657–664.

The origin of *FOXP3*-expressing CD4⁺ regulatory T cells: thymus or periphery

Shimon Sakaguchi

Department of Experimental Pathology, Institute for Frontier Medical Sciences, Kyoto University, Kyoto, Japan

Laboratory for Immunopathology, RIKEN Research Center for Allergy and Immunology, Yokohama, Japan

Naturally arising CD4⁺ regulatory T cells, which engage in the maintenance of immunologic self-tolerance, specifically express *FOXP3*, which encodes a transcription-repressor protein. Genetic defects in *FOXP3* cause IPEX, an X-linked autoimmune/inflammatory syndrome. With *FOXP3* as a specific marker for regulatory CD4⁺ T cells in humans, it is now possible to determine their origin and developmental pathway (see the related article beginning on page 1437).

J. Clin. Invest. 112:1310-1312 (2003). doi:10.1172/JCI200320274.

The immune system discriminates between self and non-self, maintaining immunologic self-tolerance (i.e., unresponsiveness to self-constituents). It is known that potentially hazardous selfreactive T and B cells are clonally delet-

Address correspondence to: Shimon Sakaguchi, Department of Experimental Pathology, Institute for Frontier Medical Sciences, Kyoto University, 53 Shogin Kawahara-cho, Sakyo-ku, Kyoto 606-8507, Japan. Phone: 81-75-751-3888; Fax: 81-75-751-3820; E-mail: shimon@frontier.kyoto-u.ac.jp.

Conflict of interest: The author has declared that no conflict of interest exists. **Nonstandard abbreviations used:** regulatory T (T_R); inflammatory bowel disease (IBD); T cell receptor (TCR).

ed at immature stages of their development or inactivated upon encounter with self-antigens in the periphery. There is now accumulating evidence that, in addition to these passive mechanisms of self-tolerance, a population of CD4⁺ T cells, called regulatory T cells (T_R cells), engage in the maintenance of peripheral self-tolerance by actively suppressing the activation and expansion of self-reactive T cells (1–3). The majority, if not all, of such naturally occurring CD4⁺ T_R cells constitutively express CD25 (IL-2 receptor α chain) in the physiologic state. Indeed, removal of CD25⁺CD4⁺ T cells, which constitute 5-10% of CD4+ T cells in rodents and humans, leads to spontaneous development of various autoimmune diseases in otherwise normal mice (4). The removal of CD25⁺CD4⁺ T_R cells also triggers excessive or misdirected immune responses to microbial antigens, causing immunopathology, such as inflammatory bowel disease (IBD), due to hyper-reaction of the remaining T cells to commensal bacteria in the intestine (3).

FOXP3: master control gene for the development and function of natural CD4⁺ T_R cells

There is now evidence not only for the presence of CD25⁺CD4⁺ T_R cells in humans but also for their essential roles in controlling autoimmunity, immunopathology, and allergy in human diseases (5). This is best illustrated by IPEX (immune dysregulation, polyendocrinopathy, enteropathy, X-linked syndrome), a rare monogenic disease of male children that is accompanied by autoimmune disease (such as type 1 diabetes), IBD, and severe allergy similar to those produced in mice by depletion of $CD25^+CD4^+T_R$ cells (6). The causative gene, FOXP3 (Foxp3 in mice), which encodes a transcription repressor (7-10), is specifically expressed in CD25⁺CD4⁺ T cells in the thymus and periphery (11-13). Forced expression of the Foxp3 gene can convert murine naive T cells to T_R cells that phenotypically and functionally resemble naturally arising CD25⁺CD4⁺ T_R cells

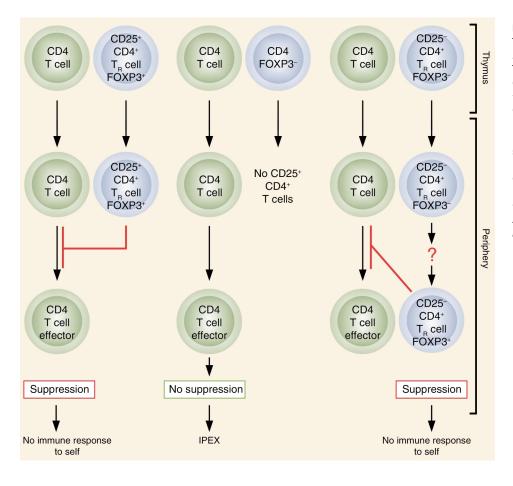


Figure 1

The normal thymus produces FOXP3-expressing CD25⁺CD4⁺ T_R cells. Some of the naive CD25⁻CD4⁺ T cells may also differentiate to FOXP3-expressing CD25⁺CD4⁺ T_R cells in the periphery. These T_R cells suppress the activation and expansion of self-reactive T cells that may cause autoimmune disease. Genetic defects of FOXP3 cause IPEX due to developmental or functional defects of T_R cells. Adapted with permission from *Nature Immunology* (21).

(11, 12). Furthermore, inoculation of CD25⁺CD4⁺ T cells prepared from normal mice can prevent autoimmune disease in *Foxp3*-defective mice (12). These findings collectively indicate that *FOXP3* is a master control gene for the development and function of natural CD25⁺CD4⁺ T_R cells.

The origin and the developmental pathway of *FOXP3*-expressing T_R cells

The discovery of FOXP3/Foxp3 as a specific and stable marker for natural T_R cells now makes it possible to determine the origin and the developmental pathway of T_R cells in humans, as reported by Walker et al. in this issue of the JCI (14). It has been shown, mainly in rodents, that the normal thymus continuously produces CD25⁺CD4⁺ T_R cells as a functionally mature T cell subpopulation that recognizes a broad repertoire of self- and non-self antigens, and that abrogation of the thymic production of T_R cells leads to the development of autoimmune disease (1-3). Walker et al. (14)

show that CD25⁺CD4⁺ T cells in the peripheral blood lymphocytes express FOXP3 and are capable of suppressing the activation and expansion of other T cells in vitro, as shown in rodents (11–13). Furthermore, they show that, in contrast with murine Foxp3 expression, activation of CD25-CD4+ T cells by T cell receptor (TCR) stimulation induces FOXP3 expression, and that FOXP3-expressing T cells derived from CD25-CD4+ T cells are equally as suppressive as natural CD25⁺CD4⁺ T_R cells (Figure 1) (14). This interesting finding suggests two possibilities regarding the origin of CD25⁺CD4⁺ T_R cells. One is that naive T cells can differentiate to CD25+CD4+ T_R cells upon TCR stimulation, in a manner similar to that in which the expression of the transcription factors T-bet and GATA-3 instruct naive T cells to differentiate to Th1 and Th2 cells, respectively (15, 16). Another possibility is that some of the functionally mature T_R cells produced by the thymus are CD25⁻ or lose CD25 expression with retention of their suppressive function, as has been

shown in rodents (17–19). Such CD25⁻ T_R cells may become CD25⁺ upon activation, especially when other T cells respond to antigen stimulation, and IL-2 secreted by them may trigger the expansion of T_R cells. Given the specific expression of *FOXP3* in T_R cells whether they are of thymic or peripheral origin, it remains to be determined whether other T cells with regulatory functions, such as IL-10–secreting Tr1 or TGF- β –secreting Th3 cells, may also express *FOXP3* (20).

Besides self-tolerance and autoimmunity, evidence is now accumulating that natural CD4⁺ T_R cells actively engage in negative control of a broad spectrum of immune responses to quasi-self or non-self antigens, as in tumor immunity, organ transplantation, allergy, and microbial immunity (1–3). With *FOXP3* as a useful tool for investigating T_R cells, further characterization of their developmental pathways will facilitate better control of pathologic as well as physiologic immune responses by expansion or reduction of T_R cell populations.

- Sakaguchi, S. 2000. Regulatory T cells: key controllers of immunologic self-tolerance. *Cell.* 101:455–458.
- Shevach, E.M. 2000. Regulatory T cells in autoimmunity. Annu. Rev. Immunol. 18:423–449.
- 3. Maloy, K.J., and Powrie, F. 2001. Regulatory T cells in the control of immune pathology. *Nat. Immunol.* **2**:816–822.
- 4. Sakaguchi, S., Sakaguchi, N., Asano, M., Itoh, M., and Toda, M. 1995. Immunologic tolerance maintained by activated T cells expressing IL-2 receptor α-chains (CD25): breakdown of a single mechanism of self-tolerance causes various autoimmune diseases. J. Immunol. 155:1151–1164.
- Shevach, E.M. 2001. Certified professionals: CD4⁺CD25⁺ suppressor T cells. *J. Exp. Med.* 193:F41-F46.
- Gambineri, E., Torgerson, T.R., and Ochs, H.D. 2003. Immune dysregulation, polyendocrinopathy, enteropathy, and X-linked inheritance (IPEX), a syndrome of systemic autoimmunity caused by mutations of FOXP3, a critical regulator of T-cell homeostasis. *Curr. Opin. Rheumatol.* 15:430–435.
- 7. Brunkow, M.E., et al. 2001. Disruption of a new forkhead/winged-helix protein, scurfin, results in the fatal lymphoproliferative disorder of the scurfy mouse. *Nat. Genet.* **27**:68–73.
- 8. Chatila, T.A., et al. 2000. JM2, encoding a fork

head-related protein, is mutated in X-linked autoimmunity-allergic disregulation syndrome. J. Clin. Invest. **106**:R75–R81.

- Wildin, R.S., et al. 2001. X-linked neonatal diabetes mellitus, enteropathy and endocrinopathy syndrome is the human equivalent of mouse scurfy. *Nat. Genet.* 27:18–20.
- Bennett, C.L., et al. 2001. The immune dysregulation, polyendocrinopathy, enteropathy, X-linked syndrome (IPEX) is caused by mutations of FOXP3. *Nat. Genet.* 27:20–21.
- Hori, S., Nomura, T., and Sakaguchi, S. 2003. Control of regulatory T cell development by the transcription factor Foxp3. *Science*. 299:1057-1061.
- Fontenot, J.D., Gavin, M.A., and Rudensky, A.Y. 2003. Foxp3 programs the development and function of CD4⁺CD25⁺ regulatory T cells. *Nat. Immunol.* 4:330–336.
- Khattri, R., Cox, T., Yasayko, S.A., and Ramsdell, F. 2003. An essential role for Scurfin in CD4*CD25* T regulatory cells. *Nat. Immunol.* 4:337–342.
- 14. Walker, M.R., et al. 2003. Induction of FoxP3 and acquisition of T regulatory activity by stimulated human CD4⁺CD25⁻ T cells. J. Clin. Invest. 112:1437-1443. doi:10.1172/JCI200319441.
- 15. Thorstenson, K.M., and Khoruts, A. 2001. Generation of anergic and potentially immunoregula-

tory CD25*CD4 T cells in vivo after induction of peripheral tolerance with intravenous or oral antigen. *J. Immunol.* **167**:188–195.

- Apostolou, I., Sarukhan, A., Klein, L., and von Boehmer, H. 2002. Origin of regulatory T cells with known specificity for antigen. *Nat. Immunol.* 3:756–763.
- Annacker, O., Burlen-Defranoux, O., Pimenta-Araujo, R., Cumano, A., and Bandeira, A. 2000. Regulatory CD4 T cells control the size of the peripheral activated/memory CD4 T cell compartment. J. Immunol. 164:3573–3580.
- Gavin, M.A., Clarke, S.R., Negrou, E., Gallegos, A., and Rudensky, A. 2002. Homeostasis and anergy of CD4*CD25* suppressor T cells in vivo. *Nat. Immunol.* 3:33–41.
- 19. Stephens, L.A., and Mason, D. 2000. CD25 is a marker for CD4⁺ thymocytes that prevent autoimmune diabetes in rats, but peripheral T cells with this function are found in both CD25⁺ and CD25⁻ subpopulations. *J. Immunol.* 165:3105–3110.
- 20. Levings, M.K., et al. 2002. Human CD25*CD4* T suppressor cell clones produce transforming growth factor beta, but not interleukin 10, and are distinct from type 1 T regulatory cells. J. Exp. Med. 196:1335–1346.
- 21. O'Garra, A., and Vieira, P., et al. 2003. Twentyfirst century Foxp3. *Nat. Immunol.* **4**:304–306.

Tales from the crypt

Eric A. Schon

Department of Neurology and Department of Genetics and Development, Columbia University, New York, New York, USA

Intestinal colonic crypts are derived from a stem cell population located at the base of each crypt. A new analysis of mitochondrial function and of the rates of mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) mutation in individual crypts shows that mtDNA mutations arise in stem cells — and at a surprisingly high frequency (see the related article beginning on page 1351). Because crypts turn over extremely rapidly (about once per week), somatic mtDNA mutations can "take over the system" and even become homoplasmic, in a manner similar to what has been shown to occur in tumors.

J. Clin. Invest. 112:1312-1316 (2003). doi:10.1172/JCI200320249.

Stem cells are the progenitors of specific cell lineages that become the body's organs and tissues during embryonic development. After birth, however, stem cells continue to play an equally important role in tissue maintenance, as they are called upon to repopulate cells that

Address correspondence to: Eric A. Schon, Department of Neurology, Room 4-431, Columbia University, 630 West 168th Street, New York, New York 10032, USA. Phone: (212) 305-1665; Fax: (212) 305-3986; E-mail: eas3@columbia.edu.

Conflict of interest: The author has declared that no conflict of interest exists.

Nonstandard abbreviations used:

mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA); cytochrome *c* oxidase (COX); nuclear DNA (nDNA); succinate dehydrogenase (SDH).

turn over constantly. Hematopoietic stem cells were among the earliest identified exemplars of this role, but stem cells exist even in long-lived tissues — for example, muscle "satellite" cells — and, with the discovery in the last few years of stem cell lineages in brain and heart, our whole view of the idea of a "terminally differentiated" tissue has undergone a complete overhaul.

Mitochondrial dysfunction in stem cells

Mitochondria are semiautonomous organelles that are present in essentially all cells of the body. They contain their own DNA (mtDNA) and are the seat of a number of important housekeeping functions. Foremost among these is the production of energy via the respiratory chain and oxidative phosphorylation, an intricate system composed of five complexes and two electron carriers (Figure 1a). The mtDNA (Figure 1b), a tiny 16.6 kb maternally inherited circular genome present in multiple copies in each organelle (there are about 10,000 mtDNAs in a typical cell), encodes 2 rRNAs, 22 tRNAs, and only 13 polypeptides, all of which are subunits of the respiratory complexes. In the last 15 years, mutations in mtDNA, all of which impair oxidative energy metabolism, have been found to cause a wide spectrum of disorders (1). In these patients, the mutations are typically heteroplasmic; that is, mutated mtDNAs coexist with wildtype mtDNAs in varying proportions, resulting in a mosaic pattern of respiratorily competent and incompetent cells. Respiratorily deficient cells must typically contain at least 80% mutated mtDNA to initiate dysfunction.

Heteroplasmic populations of mtDNA mutations can also arise randomly in somatic cells and can accumulate at low levels in individual cells during the course of normal aging (2). Even more intriguingly, somatic mtDNA mutations arise and are amplified in solid tumors, such as colon cancers (3), although a causative