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## The therapeutic potential of interleukin-10 in neuroimmune diseases

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### Abstract

Neuroimmune diseases have diverse symptoms and etiologies but all involve pathological inflammation that affects normal central nervous system signaling. Critically, many neuroimmune diseases also involve insufficient signaling/bioavailability of interleukin-10 (IL-10). IL-10 is a potent anti-inflammatory cytokine released by immune cells and glia, which drives the regulation of a variety of anti-inflammatory processes. This review will focus on the signaling pathways and function of IL-10, the current evidence for insufficiencies in IL-10 signaling/bioavailability in neuroimmune diseases, as well as the implications for IL-10-based therapies to treating such problems. We will review in detail four pathologies as examples of the common etiologies of such disease states, namely neuropathic pain (nerve trauma), osteoarthritis (peripheral inflammation), Parkinson's disease (neurodegeneration), and multiple sclerosis (autoimmune). A number of methods to increase IL-10 have been developed (e.g. protein administration, viral vectors, naked plasmid DNA, plasmid DNA packaged in polymers to enhance their uptake into target cells, and adenosine 2A agonists), which will also be discussed. In general, IL-10-based therapies have been effective at treating both the symptoms and pathology associated with various neuroimmune diseases, with more sophisticated gene therapy-based methods producing sustained therapeutic effects lasting for several months following a single injection. These exciting results have resulted in IL-10-targeted therapeutics being positioned for upcoming clinical trials for treating neuroimmune diseases, including neuropathic pain. Although further research is necessary to determine the full range of effects associated with IL-10-based therapy, evidence suggests IL-10 may be an invaluable target for the treatment of neuroimmune disease.

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### Keywords

Interleukin-10; Interleukin-10 receptor; Neuropathic pain; Osteoarthritis; Parkinson's disease; Multiple sclerosis

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## 1. Introduction

Neuroimmune diseases are debilitating conditions, which involve substantial loss of quality of life. The key features of these diseases include ongoing inflammation, pain, fatigue, anxiety, and cognitive-impairments, although the etiologies and full range of symptoms of these diseases are quite diverse. Here, we will focus on four neuroimmune diseases as examples of the common etiologies of such pathologies [i.e. neuropathic pain (NP) (nerve trauma), osteoarthritis (OA) (peripheral inflammation), Parkinson's disease (PD) (neurodegeneration), and multiple sclerosis (MS) (autoimmune)]. Treatments for neuroimmune diseases have been developed, but notably, most patients remain either partially or fully refractory to treatment (Ali et al., 2013; Gutierrez et al., 2014; Tarazi et al., 2014b; Taruc-Uy and Lynch, 2013).

The purpose of this review is to explore the potential of interleukin-10 (IL-10)-based therapeutic strategies for the treatment of neuroimmune disease. IL-10 is a potent anti-inflammatory cytokine that is endogenously released by immune cells and glia as a process of negative feedback during inflammation (Kettenmann et al., 2011; Ledebuer et al., 2002; Moore et al., 2001). Importantly, insufficiencies in IL-10 signaling/bioavailability have been implicated in these disease states, and in animal studies, strategies aimed at increasing IL-10 have been effective in treating symptoms and pathology associated with neuroimmune diseases. The signaling pathways and function of IL-10, potential therapeutic benefits of IL-10 in neuroimmune disease, and various strategies aimed at increasing physiological levels of IL-10 will be discussed.

## 2. Interleukin-10 (IL-10)

### 2.1. Cellular sources of IL-10

IL-10 was first described by Fiorentino et al. (1989) as a novel immune mediator secreted by T helper 2 ( $T_H2$ ) cells that could inhibit the synthesis of interleukin 2 (IL-2) and interferon- $\gamma$  (IFN- $\gamma$ ) in  $T_H1$  cells. In the periphery, IL-10 is secreted by innate immune cells, including dendritic cells, macrophages, mast cells, natural killer cells, eosinophils and neutrophils, and by adaptive immune cells, including  $T_H1$ ,  $T_H2$ ,  $T_H17$  and regulatory T cells ( $T_{regs}$ ), as well as B cell subsets (Moore et al., 2001; Nouel et al., 2014; Saraiva and O'Garra, 2010). In the central nervous system (CNS), IL-10 is expressed by microglia, astrocytes and neurons (Gutierrez et al., 2014; Hulshof et al., 2002; Kettenmann et al., 2011; Ledebuer et al., 2002; Tarazi et al., 2014b; Taruc-Uy and Lynch, 2013; Yan et al., 2014). IL-10 is induced in innate immune cells by signaling at CD209 and pattern recognition receptors, such as Toll-like receptors (TLRs) and Dectin-1, and can be enhanced by CD40 or Fc receptor ligation (Saraiva and O'Garra, 2010). Antigenic stimulation at the T cell receptor, cytokine stimulation (e.g. IL-12, IL-21 and IL-27), and Notch signaling are sufficient to induce IL-10 production in T cells (O'Garra and Vieira, 2007; Saraiva et al., 2009; Saraiva and O'Garra, 2010).

## 2.2. IL-10 structure

Mouse (m)*IL-10* and human (h)*IL-10* genes are encoded by five exons on the respective chromosomes 1, rat (r)*IL-10* gene is encoded by 4 exons on chromosome 13, and each are under epigenetic control (Moore et al., 2001; Saraiva and O'Garra, 2010). A large number of polymorphisms have been identified, particularly in the h*IL-10* promoter region, which may be associated with a range of diseases (Moore et al., 2001; Sabat et al., 2010). hIL-10 is a 35 kD homodimer that is composed of two non-covalently bonded monomers. The homodimer contains two distinct domains that are oriented at right angles to each other. Each of the domains is composed of helices, four on one (A–D), and two on the other (E, F) (Syto et al., 1998; Walter and Nagabhushan, 1995; Zdanov, 2010; Zdanov et al., 1995), with two disulfide bridges existing within the monomer (C30–C126 and C80–C132) (see Fig. 2 in Zdanov, 2010 for a diagram of IL-10 crystal structure; Syto et al., 1998; Windsor et al., 1993). This structure is essential to maintain the biological activity of IL-10, with two residues located at the bend in helix F (Lys-138 and Glu-142) forming a binding pocket for IL-10R1 (Shrestha et al., 2014), while IL-10R2 likely binds to helices A and D (Yoon et al., 2010). mIL-10 and hIL-10 share 72% homology at the amino-acid level, while rIL-10 shares 83% homology with mIL-10 and 73% homology with hIL-10 (Ball et al., 2001). IL-10 protein is trafficked and secreted by constitutive exocytosis (Lacy and Stow, 2011).

## 2.3. Regulation of IL-10 gene transcription

TLR-dependent *IL-10* transcription is mediated through Toll/IL-1 receptor (TIR)-domain-containing adaptor molecules, such as myeloid differentiation primary-response protein 88 (MyD88) and TIR-domain-containing adaptor protein inducing IFN $\beta$  (TRIF) (Boonstra et al., 2006) (Fig. 1). Activation of nuclear factor kappa-light-chain-enhancer of activated B cells (NF $\kappa$ B) and the mitogen activated protein kinases (MAPKs) extracellular-signal-regulated kinase (ERK) and p38 follows recruitment of MyD88, leading to *IL-10* transcription, together with proinflammatory cytokines (Kawai and Akira, 2007; Saraiva and O'Garra, 2010) (Fig. 1). However, distinct from proinflammatory cytokines, whose transcription is induced by the prototypical NF $\kappa$ B heterodimers (p65/p50), *IL-10* transcription is only induced by p50 homodimers (Cao et al., 2006). *IL-10* transcription is also differentially regulated by mitogen- and stress-activated protein kinase 1 (MSK1) and MSK2, which are downstream of ERK and p38 (Ananieva et al., 2008). Triggering of CD209 activates the kinase rapidly-accelerated fibrosarcoma (Raf)-1, which leads to NF $\kappa$ B p65 sub-unit acetylation and *IL-10* transcription after TLR-dependent activation (Gringhuis et al., 2007) (Fig. 1). Dectin-1 receptor-dependent *IL-10* transcription follows recruitment of spleen tyrosine kinase (SYK) (Rogers et al., 2005). Despite being independent of TLR signaling, IL-10 production downstream of dectin-1 receptor signaling is also dependent on ERK (Slack et al., 2007) (Fig. 1). Most if not all macrophages produce IL-10 when activated. Polarized regulatory macrophages (M2; alternatively activated) produce IL-10, but not proinflammatory cytokines (released by M1 macrophages), though the intracellular mechanisms governing this selective regulation are not well understood (Murray and Wynn, 2011).

Alternatively activated macrophages are characterized, among other factors, by elevated IL-10 production and the absence of M1 cytokines (Sica and Mantovani, 2012). Several

studies have implicated differential expression of suppressor of cytokine signaling (SOCS) 1, 2, and 3, depending on the signals driving polarization to various M2 phenotypes (Spence et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2010; Whyte et al., 2011). SOCS proteins negatively regulate JAK-STAT signaling leading to selective suppression of proinflammatory mediators, such as TNF, IFN $\gamma$ , and nitric oxide, while retaining antiinflammatory function, such as IL-10 production.

Signaling cascades controlling *IL-10* transcription in T cells have not been as well studied as those of innate immune cells. IL-10 induction is ERK dependent in all T cell subsets, but in addition is dependent on signal transducer and activator of transcription 4 (STAT4) in T<sub>H</sub>1 cells; STAT6 and GATA3 in T<sub>H</sub>2 cells; and, STAT1 and STAT3 in T<sub>H</sub>17 cells (Saraiva and O'Garra, 2010). While T<sub>regs</sub> are known to express IL-10 *in vivo*, the signal transduction mechanisms underlying this phenomenon remain elusive. For additional details on transcription factors that regulate production of IL-10 beyond those discussed herein, see the recent review (Saraiva and O'Garra, 2010).

There are also several mechanisms leading to enhancement or suppression of *IL-10* transcription, though the factors dictating the balance between these mechanisms are not well understood. For instance, STAT3 signaling induced by IL-10 elevates CD209 expression on M2 macrophages, which increases *IL-10* transcription (Dominguez-Soto et al., 2011). Conversely, *IL-10* transcription is negatively regulated by IFN $\gamma$ , which suppresses AP1 binding (Hu et al., 2006). Autocrine IL-10 signaling also negatively regulates p38 phosphorylation and thus serves to dampen *IL-10* transcription (Hammer et al., 2005). IL-10 may be further regulated at a posttranscriptional level by factors that modulate mRNA stability and by microRNAs (Nemeth et al., 2005; Powell et al., 2000; Schulte et al., 2011; Sharma et al., 2009). For example, IL-10 mRNA contains adenine and uridine-rich elements (AREs) found in the 3' untranslated regions of mRNA molecules that are targeted by the RNA binding protein tristetraprolin (TTP) for rapid degradation (Anderson, 2008). Adenosine A2B receptor and TLR4 signaling suppress ARE-mediated IL-10 mRNA degradation, the latter via p38-mediated suppression of TTP (Kiyota et al., 2012; Nemeth et al., 2005).

### 3. IL-10 receptor and consequences of IL-10 receptor signaling

As described above, IL-10 is produced in inflammatory cascades, together with classical proinflammatory cytokines, such as TNF and IL-1 $\beta$ . However, regulation of such proinflammatory processes is achieved as a consequence of subsequent IL-10 activity at its cognate receptor (summarized in Fig. 2).

IL-10 exerts its innate and adaptive immune effects through its cognate cell surface receptor complex, a heterotetramer consisting of two IL-10 receptor 1 (IL-10R1) chains and two IL-10 receptor 2 (IL-10R2) chains (Moore et al., 2001). While IL-10R1 is specific for the IL-10 receptor complex with a relatively high affinity, IL-10R2 is also part of the receptor complexes of other cytokines (IL-22, IL-26, IL-28a, IL-28b, and IL-29) (Zdanov, 2010). IL-10R2 is widely and strongly expressed in both immune and non-immune cells and tissues (Wolk et al., 2004, 2005). In contrast, IL-10R1 expression is restricted to innate and adaptive immune cells, is upregulated under inflammatory conditions, and is consequently the

determinant of the cellular response to IL-10 (Ding et al., 2001; Ledebøer et al., 2002; Sabat et al., 2010; Wolk et al., 2002). The IL-10/IL-10R1 interaction changes IL-10 conformation, thereby exposing the IL-10R2 binding site that allows association of the IL-10/IL-10R1 complex with IL-10R2 (Reineke et al., 1999; Wolk et al., 2005; Yoon et al., 2006). The ligation of IL-10 to IL-10R1 and IL-10R2 has diverse consequences, which are elaborated upon in the following sections.

### 3.1. Cytokine modulation

Activation of IL-10 receptors leads to the inhibition of tumor necrosis factor (TNF), IL-1 $\beta$ , IL-6, IL-8, IL-12 and IL-23 release and enhanced release of anti-inflammatory mediators such as IL-1 receptor antagonist and soluble TNF receptors (sTNFRs) from innate immune cells. Activation of IL-10 receptors also leads to the inhibition of both the proliferation and the cytokine synthesis of CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells, including the T<sub>H</sub>1 production of IL-2 and IFN $\gamma$ , and T<sub>H</sub>2 production of IL-4 and IL-5 (Sabat et al., 2010). However, IL-10 does not suppress the IL-17 production in T<sub>H</sub>17 cells (Naundorf et al., 2009).

Ligation of IL-10 to its receptors induces dual activation of two members of the Janus kinase (Jak) family: Jak1 (associated with IL-10R1) and tyrosine kinase 2 (Tyk2) (associated with IL-10R2), which together induce the phosphorylation of IL-10R1, allowing binding and phosphorylation of STAT3 (as well as STAT1 and STAT5 in some cell types) (Finbloom and Winestock, 1995; Weber-Nordt et al., 1996; Wehinger et al., 1996). STAT3 migrates into the cell nucleus and/or is constitutively present in the nucleus but undergoes a conformational change to induce transcription of genes corresponding to effector proteins. These effector proteins, such as A20-binding inhibitor of NF $\kappa$ B activation (Abin-3) and dual specificity phosphatase-1 (DUSP-1), inhibit transcription of proinflammatory cytokines by inhibiting phosphorylation of the MAPK p38 and inducing nuclear translocation and DNA binding of p50/p50 homodimers of NF $\kappa$ B, which are insufficient to induce proinflammatory cytokine transcription (Sabat et al., 2010). IL-10 signaling also induces SOCS1 and SOCS3 production that suppresses proinflammatory cytokine production by targeting the p65 NF $\kappa$ B subunit for degradation, as well as controlling cytokine receptor signaling by marking activated JAK-STAT complexes for proteasomal degradation (Yoshimura et al., 2007). Several other factors induced by IL-10 have been described as suppressing NF $\kappa$ B activity including Bcl-3, IKBNS, ETV3 and SBNO2 (Sabat et al., 2010). IL-10 also induces expression of MAPK phosphatases, including MKP1, which inhibit MAPK signaling and hence transcription of proinflammatory cytokines (Chi et al., 2006; Hammer et al., 2005). For further reading, see Sabat et al. (2010).

### 3.2. Decreased antigen presentation

IL-10 inhibits antigen presentation of monocytes/macrophages. It reduces the constitutive and induced cell surface expression of major histocompatibility complex class II (MHC II) molecules by inducing membrane-associated RING-CH (MARCH) 1, which prevents MHC II trafficking to the cell membrane (Koppelman et al., 1997; Thibodeau et al., 2008). IL-10 also inhibits antigen presentation by inhibiting expression of co-stimulatory (e.g. CD86) and adhesion (e.g. CD54) molecules that drive a proinflammatory response (Grace et al., 2011; Sabat et al., 2010).

### 3.3. Cell polarization

IL-10 promotes the differentiation of anti-inflammatory macrophage phenotypes, such as IL-10 producing M2-like macrophages via induction of the transcription factors STAT3, c-MAF, as well as regulatory macrophages that promote T<sub>H</sub>2 polarization (Locati et al., 2013; Mosser and Edwards, 2008). IL-10 attenuates development of T<sub>H</sub>1 and T<sub>H</sub>17 immunity by inhibiting the synthesis of proinflammatory cytokines (e.g. IL-12, IL-23; described above) (McKinstry et al., 2009; Schuetze et al., 2005). Decreased antigen presentation due to factors described above also shifts the balance away from T<sub>H</sub>1 development. In addition, IL-10 inhibits phosphorylation of CD28, inducing a state of anergy (Groux et al., 1996; Joss et al., 2000). The presence of IL-10 also enhances the differentiation of T<sub>reg</sub> cells (Barrat et al., 2002; Hawrylowicz and O'Garra, 2005; Roncarolo et al., 2006).

### 3.4. Neuroprotection

IL-10 has the capacity to act in a neuroprotective fashion. Inhibition of microglial proinflammatory mediator production by IL-10 halts astrocyte activation and directly inhibits p65 NF $\kappa$ B binding (Balasingam and Yong, 1996). Such a reduction in NF $\kappa$ B activity results in increased excitatory amino acid transporter-2 (EAAT2) expression, helping to prevent neurotoxic synaptic glutamate accumulation (Bachis et al., 2001; Kim et al., 2011). In addition, some neuronal populations have been shown to express functional IL-10 receptors, which when activated promote neuronal survival (Boyd et al., 2003). For example, IL-10 activation of the PI3K-AKT pathway, downstream of IL-10R1, protects neurons against glutamate-induced excitotoxicity and hypoxic and ischemic injury by inducing transcription of survival genes preventing and by normalizing intracellular Ca<sup>2+</sup> levels (Sharma et al., 2011; Tukhovskaya et al., 2014; Turovskaya et al., 2012; Zhou et al., 2009). IL-10 has also been shown to prevent glutamate-induced neuronal apoptosis by restoring suppressed anti-apoptotic factors Bcl-2 and Bcl-xl, and by attenuating caspase-3 expression (Bachis et al., 2001; Zhou et al., 2009).

## 4. Diseases that implicate inflammation and impairments in IL-10 signaling

### 4.1. Neuropathic pain

Neuropathic pain (NP) is a debilitating disorder originating from mechanical/chemical tissue damage, infection, or disease to the peripheral and/or central nervous system (CNS), which affects approximately four million people in the United States alone (Taylor, 2006). The common features of NP involve sensory disturbances including spontaneous pain, increased sensitivity to painful stimuli (hyperalgesia), and painful sensitivity to innocuous stimuli (allodynia) (Jensen et al., 2007; Macleod et al., 2002; Rowbotham and Fields, 1996). NP generally remains at least partially refractory to currently available analgesics, and frontline opioid medications have been shown to exacerbate pain and inflammation with chronic use (Hansen et al., 2005; Hutchinson et al., 2007; Salengros et al., 2010; Trevino et al., 2013; van Gulik et al., 2012; Watkins et al., 2009). In both NP patients as well as in animal models of NP, IL-10 levels in blood, sciatic nerve, dorsal root ganglion (DRG), spinal cord and/or cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) tissues are decreased versus healthy controls (Backonja et al., 2008; Franchi et al., 2012; George et al., 2004; Jancalek et al., 2011; Liou et al., 2011; Uceyler et al., 2007; Wilkerson et al., 2012a). Moreover, in animal studies, decreased IL-10

occurs later after injury despite maintaining high IL-10 mRNA levels, and is preceded by an initial increase in IL-10 shortly after injury (Franchi et al., 2012; George et al., 2004; Jancalek et al., 2011; Liou et al., 2011; Mika et al., 2008; Okamoto et al., 2001; Taskinen et al., 2000; Wilkerson et al., 2012b). These findings suggest that either IL-10 mRNA is not translated sufficiently and/or IL-10 is produced endogenously at high levels but is also rapidly utilized during NP, thus remaining insufficient to control pain and inflammation associated with the disease. In this context, several animal studies have demonstrated antinociceptive effects with IL-10-based therapies, which will be covered below (see Table 1 for summary).

Direct IL-10 protein administration has been shown to produce antinociception after peripheral nerve injury. For example, IL-10 injected intrathecally (IT) following CCI produced transient reversal of mechanical allodynia for approximately 2 h that resolved by 24 h (Lee et al., 2013; Milligan et al., 2005b; Shen et al., 2013). This effect was correlated with decreased injury-induced TNF, IL-1 $\beta$ , and IL-6 in lumbar spinal cord (Lee et al., 2013). Contrastingly, IT injection of the same dose of IL-10 4 $\times$ /day was effective for each day of treatment and 4 days thereafter. This sustained reversal of mechanical allodynia with repeated IL-10 injections was also associated with reversal of injury-induced increases in total, tetrodotoxin-sensitive, and voltage-gated sodium channel 1.8 current densities, as well as reversal of overall excitability of cultured lumbar DRG neurons (Shen et al., 2013). Moreover, the therapeutic effect of IL-10 is not limited to central administration, as perisciatric nerve injection of IL-10 at the time of sciatic nerve injury blocks thermal hyperalgesia and is correlated with decreased TNF in the sciatic nerve (Wagner et al., 1998).

Viral vector-mediated delivery of IL-10 is another strategy to increase IL-10, which produces a longer reversal of NP-related behaviors than direct protein administration given the short half-life of IL-10 (~2 h) (Li et al., 1994; Milligan et al., 2005a). IT viral-mediated delivery of IL-10 after nerve injury has resulted in sustained reversal of mechanical allodynia for as little as 6 days and as long as 4 weeks depending on dose and viral vector used, and these effects were associated with decreased injury-induced IL-1 $\beta$  in lumbosacral CSF and decreased TNF, IL-1 $\beta$ , and IL-6 protein in lumbar spinal cord (He et al., 2013; Lau et al., 2012; Milligan et al., 2005a, 2005b). As with protein, viral vectors are also effective when administered peripherally, as intraplantar administration of herpes simplex virus (HSV)-IL-10 decreased both mechanical allodynia/hyperalgesia and thermal hyperalgesia for at least 4 weeks while also decreasing operant mechanical allodynia-related conflict avoidance responses (Lau et al., 2012).

To date, the IL-10-based therapeutic strategy that has produced the longest-lasting reversal of NP-related behaviors has been to inject naked (unencapsulated) plasmid DNA encoding IL-10 (pDNA-IL-10) or pDNA-IL-10 encapsulated in microparticles composed of various polymers (see route of administration, below). Repeated intrathecal (IT) injections of pDNA-IL-10 after sciatic nerve injury (chronic constriction injury [CCI]) produced increasingly longer periods of anti-allodynia after each subsequent injection (Milligan et al., 2006a), and a second IT injection of pDNA-IL-10 three days after the first injection, produced sustained anti-allodynia and antihyperalgesia after nerve injury for up to 80+ days (Ledeboer et al., 2007; Milligan et al., 2007, 2006a, 2006b; Sloane et al., 2009a). This effect

was correlated with an increased ED1/ED2 ratio in lumbar CSF cells early after the first injection, followed by a decreased ED1/ED2 ratio 6 days after the second injection, demonstrating a shift from a predominately proinflammatory to predominately antiinflammatory phenotype in CSF cells over time (Sloane et al., 2009a). Administration of polyethylenimine (PEI) polymer-based microparticles encapsulating pDNA-IL-10 after CCI also required two injections for a maximally sustained antinociceptive effect (Milligan et al., 2006b). In contrast, a single injection of XT-101, an IL-10-based gene therapy from Xalud Therapeutics consisting of an IL-10 plasmid encapsulated in a biodegradable poly(lactic-co-glycolic) (PLGA) microparticle polymer, reversed CCI-induced mechanical allodynia for up to ~3 months and increased the number of ED2 positive cells in CSF at 72 h versus 24 h post-injection (Milligan et al., 2006b; Soderquist et al., 2010b). Importantly, reversal of allodynia by XT-101 was abolished by IT anti-IL-10 neutralizing antibody, confirming that the pain resolving effect of this therapeutic approach was due to ongoing IL-10 induction (Milligan et al., 2006b; Soderquist et al., 2010b). Excitingly, we and our collaborators have also found that a single IT injection of XT-101 produces sustained reversal of NP-related behaviors in dogs in an open-label study for up to 4 months (unpublished observations). As a result of these highly successful rodent and promising dog studies, phase I/II clinical trials with XT-101 for the treatment of NP in humans are currently planned to begin in 2015.

#### 4.2. Osteoarthritis

Osteoarthritis (OA) is a peripherally-based neuroimmune disorder, which involves inflammation of tissues within the joints (e.g. synovial membrane and chondrocytes) and ongoing pain. Although the precise etiology of OA is unknown, it is thought to involve degradation of cartilage that leads to tissue damage, inflammation, and pain with resulting alterations in central nervous system function such as peripheral and central sensitization (for review, see Fernandes et al., 2002; Martel-Pelletier et al., 1999; Salaffi et al., 2014; Taruc-Uy and Lynch, 2013). OA is the leading cause of pain and disability in the world, most commonly affecting the elderly but also occurring in younger populations often following injury or intense physical activity (Sharma et al., 2006).

In human OA, elevated IL-10 levels in joint tissues and IL-10-associated anti-inflammatory effects have been demonstrated in several studies. For example, IL-10 mRNA is detected in synovial tissue and is spontaneously produced in synovial cell culture from OA patients (Katsikis et al., 1994). IL-10 and TNF are also inversely correlated in cartilage from OA patients within and around chondrocytes (Moos et al., 1999), and IL-10 incubation in synovial fibroblast culture from OA patients decreased prostaglandin E2-stimulated release of TNF, upregulated sTNFRs, and reduced TNF induction of cyclooxygenase 2 (Alaaeddine et al., 1999). Moreover, blood cells from OA patients that produced the least amount of IL-10 in response to LPS stimulation were correlated with greater disease symptoms (Riyazi et al., 2005). This finding is contradicted, however, by another study in which patients whose blood cells produced the most IL-10 were correlated with a 4-fold increased risk of joint space narrowing progression over a 2-year timespan (Botha-Scheepers et al., 2008). Lastly, moderate exercise, which increases intra-articular and peri-synovial IL-10, has been found to be beneficial for female patients with OA (Helmark et al., 2010).



Due to a lack of sufficient preclinical models for OA (Malfait et al., 2013), there have been few studies of OA involving IL-10 in animals (see Table 2 for summary). In OA dogs as in OA humans, IL-10 mRNA is detected in synovial tissue (Maccoux et al., 2007). In a rabbit model of OA, intra-articular injection of primary synoviocytes transfected with retroviral vector expressing hIL-10 was moderately effective at preventing cartilage breakdown (Zhang et al., 2004). Lastly, we and our collaborators have begun testing of XT-101 for the treatment of OA in dogs. Preliminary open-label studies have been promising, with a single intra-articular injection reversing pain-related behaviors for up to 4 months (unpublished observations). These studies are currently undergoing expansion and aim to provide further evidence that IL-10-based gene therapy may be an effective treatment for OA.

### 4.3. Parkinson's disease

Parkinson's disease (PD) is a neurodegenerative disorder that causes death of dopaminergic neurons of the striatum. Neuroinflammation is also closely associated with PD, and has been identified an important mediator of PD-induced neurodegeneration (Shrestha et al., 2014; Yan et al., 2014). In the United States alone, there are approximately one million people currently affected by PD and approximately 40,000–50,000 new diagnoses for PD each year (Tarazi et al., 2014a). Although its etiology remains unknown, PD produces motor symptoms such as muscle tremors, stiffness, and loss of spontaneous movement (Jankovic, 2008; Tolosa et al., 2006). Non-motor symptoms of PD include cognitive/memory impairment, depression, sleep disturbances, hallucinations, and autonomic motor dysfunction (Chaudhuri et al., 2006). Common treatments for PD are mostly limited to supplementation with the precursor for dopamine, levodopa, and/or dopamine D2 receptor agonists, although these treatments tend to only be partially effective, can lose efficacy over time, and are associated with a variety of severe motor and cognitive side effects (Rao et al., 2006; Tarazi et al., 2014a). Although there is limited information on the relationship of IL-10 to PD, current studies do not rule out a potential role for IL-10-based therapy in PD and warrant further examination.

The majority of supporting studies for IL-10-based therapies in PD have been conducted in animals (see Table 2 for summary). In animal models of PD, IL-10-based therapies have been shown to reduce dopaminergic cell damage and related microglial activation and inflammation. For example, intra-substantia nigral injection of LPS causes a selective loss of dopaminergic neurons, and this effect can be attenuated by osmotic minipump infusion of IL-10 into the substantia nigra, producing decreased microglial activation in the same region (Arimoto et al., 2007). IL-10 is also protective against LPS-induced dopaminergic cell toxicity in rat primary mesencephalic neuron-glia co-cultures, and this effect was also attributed to decreased microglial activation and microglial production of TNF, nitric oxide, reactive oxygen species, and superoxide free radicals (Qian et al., 2006a, 2006b). Lastly, in a 1-methyl-4-phenyl-1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridine (MPTP) model of PD, which causes striatal tyrosine hydroxylase depletion and subsequent dopaminergic cell death, AAV2-hIL-10 injected intracerebroventricularly (ICV) before MPTP injection provided neuroprotective effects by increasing striatal tyrosine hydroxylase (Schwenkgrub et al., 2013).

To date, there have been no studies examining the efficacy of IL-10-based therapies in PD patients. Several studies have investigated potential associations between IL-10 polymorphisms and risk for developing PD, and although most found no association (Bialecka et al., 2008, 2007; Chu et al., 2012; Infante et al., 2008; Nie et al., 2013; Pascale et al., 2011), two studies did find IL-10 promoter polymorphisms –819 and –1082 may be associated with early onset PD and PD risk in female Han Chinese populations (Hakansson et al., 2005; Li et al., 2012). Moreover, plasma IL-10 levels have been shown to be higher in PD patients with classical motor symptoms of PD versus healthy controls (Brodacki et al., 2008; Rentzos et al., 2009), although in a separate study, IL-10 was not found to be correlated to the non-motor symptoms of PD (Menza et al., 2010).

Overall, there is limited but promising evidence that IL-10-based therapies could be effective for PD. Future studies should focus on the potential of IL-10-based therapies to treat both the behavioral and cellular deficits associated with PD.

#### 4.4. Multiple sclerosis

The hallmark of multiple sclerosis (MS) is chronic inflammation directed against oligodendrocyte-derived antigens comprising myelin sheaths. The resultant focal demyelination and axonal damage leads to motor, sensory, and cognitive impairment (for review, see Compston and Coles, 2008). Patients suffer from a variety of neurological symptoms, most notably loss of normal gait, paresis, muscle atrophy, gradual paralysis, and pain. The majority of patients experience multiple episodes of autoimmune attacks interceded by temporary remissions, although succeeding attacks usually increase in severity and damage tends to be cumulative. More than two million people are estimated to be afflicted globally, with 2–3 times higher prevalence among women (Disanto and Ramagopalan, 2013). While the etiology is unknown, evidence suggests that both genetic (Kenealy et al., 2003) and environmental factors play a role (Marrie, 2004). Currently, there is no effective therapy that eliminates MS, although medications are available that slow disease progression (for review, see Ali et al., 2013).

Significant perturbations in cytokine homeostasis have been reported in MS patients, including levels of IL-10 (see Imitola et al., 2005 for review). In both relapsing-remitting and secondary-progressive MS patients, IL-10 mRNA levels are reduced in unstimulated peripheral blood mononuclear cells (Hesse et al., 2011; van Boxel-Dezaire et al., 1999), while B cells exhibit deficiency in IL-10-producing capacity, and CD4<sup>+</sup> cells show reduced IL-10R-mediated signaling compared to healthy controls (Duddy et al., 2007; Martinez-Forero et al., 2008). Importantly, IL-10 secretion by peripheral blood mononuclear cells is decreased prior to relapse and increased during remission (Rieckmann et al., 1994; Waubant et al., 2001), suggesting that IL-10 presence is required for recovery to occur.

Multiple autoimmune murine and rat models of MS have been developed, collectively known as experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis (EAE) (for review, see Batoulis et al., 2011; Croxford et al., 2011). Elevated gene expression of proinflammatory cytokines is an early, lasting, and shared feature of rodent EAE models, while expression of the *IL-10* gene depends on the model and stage of disease progression. For example, the Dark Agouti (DA) EAE rat model is commonly used to mimic relapsing MS where spinal cord IL-10

mRNA levels increase as the disease progresses, particularly preceding symptoms and during remission (Issazadeh et al., 1996; Tanuma et al., 2000). Murine relapsing-remitting EAE models likewise show upregulated IL-10 mRNA during remission (Kennedy et al., 1992), whereas IL-10 mRNA in acute rat models of EAE is elevated throughout the monophasic episode and is thought to contribute to the resolution of the disease.

Continuing deterioration of symptoms in EAE may be the consequence of diminished bioavailability of IL-10. For example, IL-10-deficient mice develop a stronger proinflammatory T cell-mediated immune response with more severe EAE (Anderson et al., 2004; Bettelli et al., 1998) and accelerated disease progression that does not remit compared to wild-type mice (Samoilova et al., 1998), suggesting that IL-10 plays a crucial role in recovery. Likewise, mice overexpressing *IL-10* are highly resistant to EAE, an effect mediated at least in part by suppression of proinflammatory T<sub>H</sub>1 cells. This effect was abolished following administration of anti-IL-10 antibody, demonstrating that resistance to disease development was IL-10-dependent (Bettelli et al., 1998; Cua et al., 1999).

Early interventions to abrogate disease development in EAE rodents using IL-10 protein have yielded conflicting results (Table 2). Systemic delivery of IL-10 was only modestly effective in suppressing EAE in an acute Lewis rat model (Rott et al., 1994) and in the relapsing-remitting SJL/J mouse model (Nagelkerken et al., 1997). Contrastingly, intranasal delivery of low concentrations of IL-10 strongly suppressed clinical signs of disease in both acute and chronic-progressive EAE rats (Xiao et al., 1998). This effect was associated with decreased microglial activation, T-cell proliferation, spinal cord infiltration by peripheral immune cells, and IFN- $\gamma$  secretion. Likewise, successive ICV treatment of CSJLF<sub>1</sub>/J chronic EAE mice with IL-10 at disease onset improved clinical scores only over the period of intervention (Cua et al., 2001), with motor impairments emerging once daily treatment was discontinued. Importantly, intraperitoneal antibody-mediated sequestration of IL-10 was found to worsen the disease (Cannella et al., 1996). By contrast, intravenously-delivered IL-10 failed to improve histological outcomes and even exacerbated clinical score under some treatment regimens (Cannella et al., 1996). Similarly, systemically delivered IL-10 was reported ineffective in another murine EAE context (Croxford et al., 2001). A likely explanation for the varied success of IL-10 protein administration may be the short half-life of IL-10 (~2 h), its route of administration, and its inability to cross the blood-brain barrier (Kastin et al., 2003; Li et al., 1994).

More promising results have been noted with IL-10 gene therapy using viral vectors for delivery directly into the CNS (Table 2). ICV administration of adenovirus (AD)-IL-10 in SJL EAE mice at symptom onset prevented development of inflammation and clinical disease symptoms in a dose-dependent manner, including blocking relapse and accelerating remission (Cua et al., 2001). By contrast, a similar study involving lower doses of AD-IL-10 delivered ICV in ABH relapsing-remitting EAE mice was ineffective (Croxford et al., 2001), suggesting the need for greater IL-10 ligand bioavailability in ameliorating EAE symptoms. Preliminary results from our lab found both relapsing-remitting (non-obese diabetic) and chronic progressive (C57Bl/6) EAE mice show improvement of clinical scores following a single IT delivery of adeno-associated viral vector (AAV)-IL-10-F129S (a potent variant of

IL-10) at disease onset, as well as modest improvement following transgene delivery 12 days after manifestation of overt symptoms (unpublished observations).

IL-10 plasmid injections in EAE rodents have likewise yielded promising results (Table 2). Our lab found that two successive IT injections of naked IL-10-F129S plasmid arrested and reversed paralysis and extended remission of symptoms along with suppression of astrocyte and microglial activation in lumbar spinal cord of DA EAE rats. Similar to findings for NP, the disease-suppressing effects of T cells were observed only when a second IL-10 plasmid injection was administered within a regular time interval following the first, reinforcing the importance of time of intervention as a determinant of efficacy (Schif-Zuck et al., 2006; Sloane et al., 2009b). A more recent development in IL-10 gene delivery includes XT-101 (IL-10 plasmid DNA encapsulated in a biodegradable polymer). Preliminary studies in our lab show that IT delivery of XT-101 at symptom onset in relapsing-remitting DA rats enhanced survival and attenuated EAE-induced paralysis/paresis, anxiety-like behavior, and motor impairment (Grace, 2012). Similarly, we have found that XT-101 is most effective at suppressing motor deficits in chronic-progressive mouse EAE when administered before the onset of symptoms (unpublished observations).

Taken together, there is overwhelming evidence from rodent studies that IL-10-based therapies are effective to treat MS disease onset, severity, and progression (see Table 2 for summary). In general, IL-10 intervention has been most effective in suppressing EAE when administered centrally in the form of a gene therapy at disease onset. Disease suppression after the development of overt symptoms has also been demonstrated, however more work is needed to ascertain optimal timing and dosing of gene therapy.

#### 4.5. Other

The most promising and extensive research to date with IL-10-based therapies has been done with the diseases described above, however other neuroimmune diseases such as amyotrophic lateral sclerosis, Alzheimer's disease, Huntington's disease, and rheumatoid arthritis also share common properties with these diseases (e.g. inflammation/altered neuronal functioning), and thus could too benefit from IL-10-based therapy. For example, a single study has demonstrated the efficacy of IL-10 gene therapy in a mouse model of Alzheimer's disease (Kiyota et al., 2012). Moreover, IL-10-based therapies for rheumatoid arthritis have been explored but remain controversial. This discrepancy is founded primarily on two failed clinical studies in which rheumatoid arthritis patients were injected subcutaneously with recombinant human-IL-10 (Smeets et al., 1999; van Roon et al., 2003). One reason for the failure of these clinical studies may be that IL-10 protein was used, which is rapidly degraded upon systemic administration (Li et al., 1994). In contrast to clinical findings with IL-10 protein, IL-10-based gene therapy in animal models of rheumatoid arthritis has been mostly successful (Keravala et al., 2006; Lechman et al., 1999; Lubberts et al., 2000; Whalen et al., 1999), with some conflicting results when administered after the development of the disease (Apparailly et al., 1998; Kim et al., 2000; Ma et al., 1998). There have been no studies to date investigating the efficacy of IL-10-based therapy for amyotrophic lateral sclerosis or Huntington's disease in either humans or animals. Future

studies are thus needed to determine the full range of neuroimmune diseases for which IL-10-based therapies might be effective.

## 5. Therapeutic potential of IL-10-based therapies: setting the stage for interventions with IL-10

### 5.1. IL-10 protein

Systemic administration of IL-10 protein is generally not feasible due to the rapid breakdown of the protein and its large size, which renders it incapable of crossing the blood brain barrier (Kastin et al., 2003; Li et al., 1994). In contrast, studies involving direct IT or intranasal administration of IL-10 protein have been mostly successful. However, this route of administration still produces only transient effects due to the rapid clearance of IL-10 protein from intrathecal space (half-life ~2 h) (Milligan et al., 2005a). One advantage of IL-10 protein administration over IL-10-based gene-therapy is that it is effective immediately, whereas gene therapies have a delayed therapeutic onset. Direct IL-10 protein administration can thus be useful in clinical situations where immediate and transient relief is needed, and could also be used as an adjuvant to longer-term gene therapies to provide immediate relief during the period in which therapeutic onset of the gene therapy is delayed (Milligan et al., 2006a, 2006b; Soderquist et al., 2010a).

### 5.2. IL-10 gene-therapy

IL-10-based gene-therapies have been more successful at producing sustained therapeutic effects of IL-10 than protein administration. There are several methods of gene-therapy that are currently used. The IL-10 gene can be delivered by a variety of methods from viral vectors to naked pDNA to encapsulation of IL-10-pDNA in polymers designed to enhance the uptake of pDNA into appropriate cell types.

**5.2.1. Viral vectors encoding IL-10**—One method for producing sustained therapeutic effects of IL-10 is to deliver a viral vector that increases the expression of IL-10. To date, AD, AAV, retroviral, lentiviral, and HSV vectors encoding IL-10 have been effective at producing therapeutic effects in a variety of animal models of neuroimmune disease (Croxford et al., 2001; He et al., 2013; Lau et al., 2012; Milligan et al., 2005a, 2005b). Replication-deficient AD, AAV, and HSV are more favored methods of transgene delivery due to their specificity of infection as well as their ability to produce large quantities of the transgene product over an extended period of time, usually weeks for AD (Wood et al., 1996), weeks to months for AAV (Beutler and Reinhardt, 2009; Milligan et al., 2005b), and months for HSV (Lau et al., 2012). Although not completely understood, the effects of IL-10 increased by single viral vector have generally been more transient than effects from other methods of gene therapy such as optimized injections of naked pDNA or microparticles encapsulating pDNA, which have been shown to last up to 4 months. One explanation for this difference is exposure to viral proteins, which may ultimately be targeted for suppression by the immune system. Repeated dosing has also not been studied with viral vector administration, which has been shown with naked pDNA injections to increase the potency, efficacy, and duration of its therapeutic effect.

**5.2.2. Naked pDNA-IL-10 injection**—Direct IT injection of naked pDNA-IL-10 has also been a successful method for producing sustained therapeutic effects of IL-10. With this method of IL-10 delivery, the cellular environment at the time of neuroinflammation and subsequent pDNA injection is thought to play a critical role in the therapeutic effect. For example, shortly after nerve injury, macrophages infiltrate CSF and surrounding meningeal tissue (Gomez-Nicola et al., 2008), and following pDNA injection, additional macrophages are recruited to CSF (Sloane et al., 2009c). These infiltrating cells have been shown to be primarily ED1-positive (blood-derived macrophages or monocytes) (Dijkstra et al., 1985) and/or ED2-positive (mature tissue or resident macrophages) (Polfliet et al., 2001). Importantly, both of these cell populations are highly phagocytic (Duffield, 2003), which is thought to be a critical cell property for uptake of pDNA. Accordingly, pDNA-IL-10 has been most effective when administered IT as two injections separated over 5 h to 3 days, which is thought to be a result of a higher number of phagocytic cells to uptake pDNA at the time of the second injection as a result of the first injection. This argument is further supported by a study in which efficacy of treatment is similar whether the first injection included only the control pDNA or the actual IL-10 plasmid (Sloane et al., 2009a). Although some IL-10-transfected macrophages are likely to undergo apoptosis or be cleared to the lymph nodes (de Vos et al., 2002), many of the infiltrating macrophages may differentiate into ED2 positive resident macrophages (Honda et al., 1990) or microglia (Zhang et al., 2007), which could provide an ongoing source of IL-10 and subsequent therapeutic effects. Notably, it was recently shown that the addition of D-mannose as an adjuvant to IT pDNA-IL-10 injection dramatically improves the potency of pDNA IL-10 and reduces the need for two injections to produce sustained antinociceptive efficacy (Dengler et al., 2014), providing a potentially revolutionary therapeutic strategy for pDNA-IL-10 delivery. Future studies will be necessary to explore the full capabilities of D-mannose as an adjuvant to pDNA-IL-10 injections.

**5.2.3. Polymer-based microparticles encapsulating IL-10-pDNA**—The most successful method to date for producing sustained therapeutic effects of IL-10 has been to encapsulate pDNA-IL-10 into biodegradable polymer-based microparticles that enhance the uptake of pDNA into phagocytic cells. One major advantage to this technique is that it protects the pDNA from extracellular and intracellular degradative enzymes (Kaneda, 2001; Sebestyen et al., 1998), thus greatly reducing the amount of pDNA that is required to produce a comparable effect with naked pDNA (Meuli-Simmen et al., 1999; Shi et al., 2003). To date, two polymers have been the most extensively studied in the context of IL-10 (i.e. PEI and PLGA). The increased potency of PEI-pDNA complexes over naked pDNA is thought to be mainly due to the efficiency of releasing pDNA from the complex (see Meuli-Simmen et al., 1999; Pack et al., 2005; Shi et al., 2003 for more information). PLGA is a copolymer of lactic and glycolic acid approved by the US Food and Drug Administration and has also been demonstrated as a successful method for slow release of peptides and proteins (Hedley, 2003). The advantage of PLGA-based microparticles is that they naturally stimulate the innate immune system, allowing increased infiltration of phagocytic cells, which readily phagocytize PLGA microparticles. Accordingly, a single IT injection of a PLGA-based IL-10 gene therapy (now called XT-101 and being forwarded toward clinical trials by Xalud Therapeutics), was as effective as two optimized IT injections of pDNA-

IL-10 in a model of NP at a tenth of the dose (Sloane et al., 2009a; Soderquist et al., 2010b). Also importantly, IT PLGA is non-toxic to cells of the meninges (Ayhan et al., 2002), and proteins released from PLGA microparticles have been shown to be non-toxic for up to 35 days after treatment (Lagarce et al., 2005a, 2005b; Sendil et al., 2003). Phase I/II clinical trials with XT-101 for the treatment of NP are expected to begin in 2015.

### 5.3. Adenosine 2A agonists

Adenosine 2A receptors (A2ARs) are typically activated by adenosine but can also be activated by various A2AR-selective agonists. A2ARs are found on both glial cells (Gyoneva et al., 2009) and neurons (Guntz et al., 2008) and activation following inflammation has been shown to increase IL-10 and decrease proinflammatory molecules released from a variety of different inflammatory cell types in culture (Grinberg et al., 2009; Hasko et al., 1996; Khoa et al., 2001; Link et al., 2000; Perez-Aso et al., 2013; Vincenzi et al., 2013a, 2013b). Interestingly, the A2AR is upregulated on macrophages and microglia following inflammatory signals such as LPS, CpG, lipoteichoic acid, or TNF, and on lymphocytes from MS and ALS patients, providing a unique pharmacological target for immune cells and glia exclusively activated by prior proinflammatory signals (Grinberg et al., 2009; Gyoneva et al., 2009; Vincenzi et al., 2013a, 2013b). As with IL-10-based gene therapies, a single administration of A2AR agonist after the onset of CCI-induced allodynia or collagen-induced arthritis resulted in sustained suppression of disease symptoms (Loram et al., 2009, 2013; Mazzon et al., 2011). A2AR agonist effects on allodynia appear to furthermore be dependent on sustained IL-10 release, although the mechanisms underlying this effect are not fully understood (Loram et al., 2009, 2013). Genetic inactivation of the A2AR has also been shown to exacerbate brain damage in the experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis (EAE) model of MS, providing further evidence for a protective effect of A2ARs in neuroimmune diseases (Yao et al., 2012).

## 6. Conclusion

In conclusion, IL-10 is implicated in neuroimmune diseases of varying etiologies such as NP (nerve trauma), OA (peripheral inflammation), PD (neurodegeneration), and MS (autoimmune). A common feature of these disorders is an insufficiency in IL-10 signaling/bioavailability and ongoing inflammation. In animal studies, increasing physiological levels of IL-10 in the context of these diseases has generally been a successful strategy to reduce disease symptoms and associated inflammation. Various methodologies to increase physiological levels of IL-10 have been employed (i.e. direct protein administration, viral vectors, naked plasmid delivery, plasmid delivery in microparticles, A2AR agonist administration), which have grown increasingly sophisticated in their ability to produce sustained therapeutic effects following a single injection. Future studies including clinical trials planned for XT-101 will critically evaluate the efficacy of IL-10-based therapies for the treatment of neuroimmune diseases in both animals and humans.

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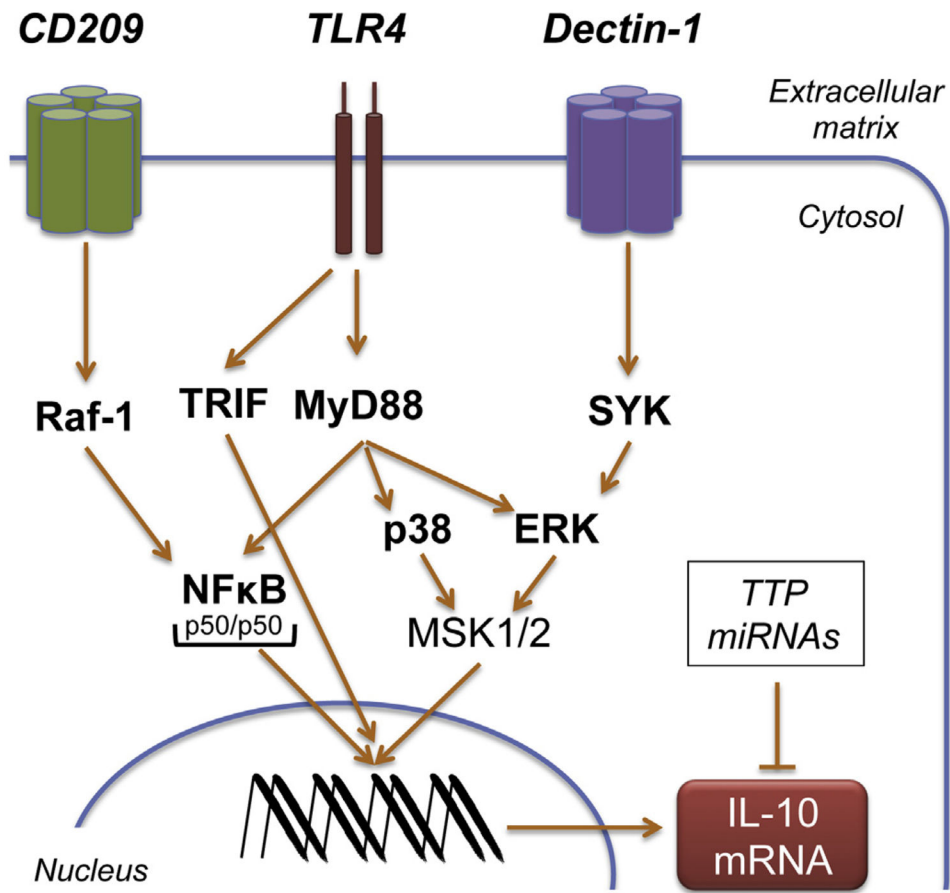
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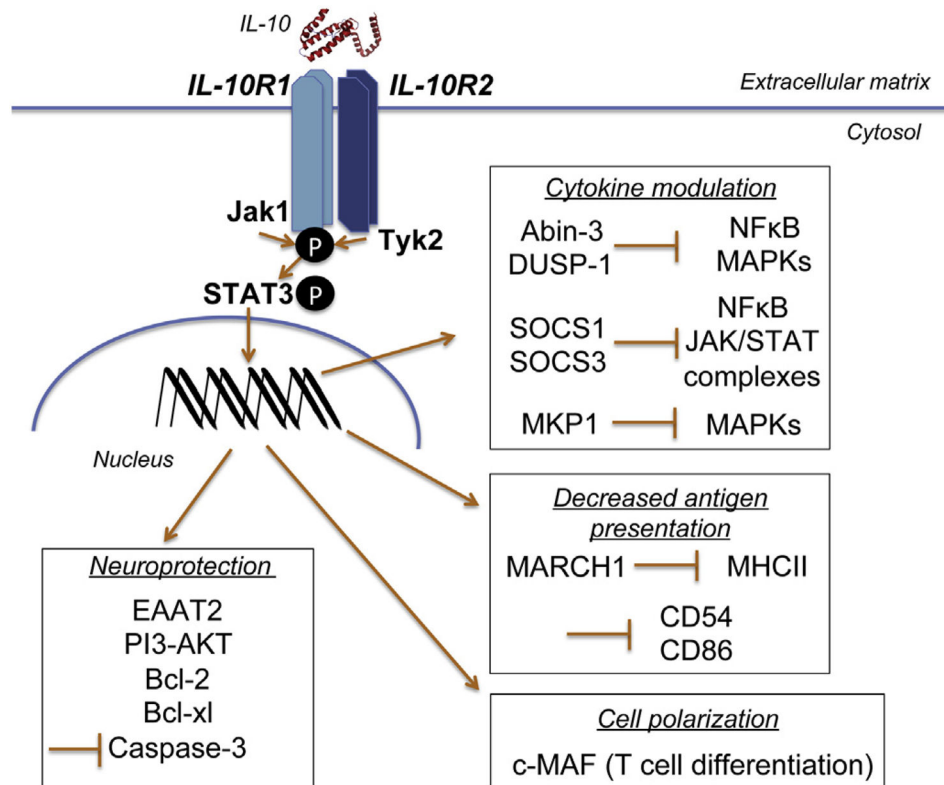
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**Fig. 1.** Interleukin-10 (IL-10) gene transcription regulation. IL-10 transcription is initiated after a) CD209 signaling mediated via rapidly-accelerated fibrosarcoma (Raf)-1, which activates nuclear factor kappa-light-chain-enhancer of activated B cells (NFκB); b) Toll-like receptor 4 (TLR4) signaling mediated via TIR-domain-containing adaptor protein inducing IFNβ (TRIF) and Myeloid differentiation primary response gene 88 (MyD88). MyD88 activates nuclear factor kappa-light-chain-enhancer of activated B cells (NFκB). MyD88 also activates the mitogen activated protein kinases (MAPKs) p38 and extracellular related kinase (ERK), further activating mitogen- and stress-activated protein kinase (MSK) 1 and 2; c) Dectin-1 signaling mediated via the ERK pathway and upstream spleen tyrosine kinase (SYK) activation. IL-10 mRNA is post-transcriptionally regulated by a range of micro-RNAs and by tristetraprolin (TTP).



**Fig. 2.**

Interleukin-10 (IL-10) receptor signaling. IL-10 exerts effects through a heterotetramer consisting of two IL-10 receptor 1 (IL-10R1) chains and two IL-10 receptor 2 (IL-10R2) chains. IL-10R1 activates Janus kinase 1 (Jak1), while IL-10R2 activates tyrosine kinase 2 (Tyk2), leading to phosphorylation of IL-10R1 followed by phosphorylation of STAT3 (other STAT proteins have also been implicated including STAT4 in  $T_H1$  cells; STAT6 and GATA3 in  $T_H2$  cells; and, STAT1 and STAT3 in  $T_H17$  cells). Such signaling results in diverse consequences, such as a) cytokine modulation by the induction of A20-binding inhibitor of nuclear factor kappa-light-chain-enhancer of activated B cells (NF $\kappa$ B) (Abin-3) and dual specificity phosphatase-1 (DUSP-1) that inhibit mitogen activated protein kinase (MAPK) phosphorylation as well as NF $\kappa$ B. Suppressor of cytokine signaling (SOCS) 1 and 3 are also produced which target the p65 NF $\kappa$ B subunit for degradation and mark activated JAK-STAT complexes for degradation. Mitogen activated protein kinase (MAPK) phosphatase (MKP) expression, including MKP1, is elevated to inhibit MAPK signaling; b) decreased antigen presentation by reducing expression of major histocompatibility complex class II (MHC II) molecules by inducing membrane-associated RING-CH (MARCH) 1 and by inhibiting expression of adhesion (e.g. CD54) and co-stimulatory (e.g. CD86) molecules c) cell polarization via induction of transcription factors such as c-MAF, and d) neuroprotection by normalizing expression of excitatory amino acid transporter-2 (EAAT2), by releasing intracellular calcium stores via PI3K-AKT, by preventing apoptosis through restoration of suppressed anti-apoptotic factors Bcl-2 and Bcl-xl, and by attenuating caspase-3 expression.

Table 1

Summary of studies in which IL-10-based therapy was used in animal models of neuropathic pain.

Neuropathic Pain							
Model	Sex	Treatment	Dose/route	Time of treatment	Effect	Duration of effect	Reference
SD rats (CCI)	Female	IL-10 (n/s)	250 ng, peri-sciatic nerve	0 DPI	↓ Thermal hyperalgesia	~7 days	Wagner et al., 1998
SD rats (CCI)	Male	hIL-10	50 → 500 → 5000 ng, IT	10 → 11 → 12 DPI	↓ Mechanical allodynia (each injection) ↓ Thermal hyperalgesia (2nd/3rd injection)	~2 h	Milligan et al., 2005a
SD rats (CCI)	Male	AD-hIL-10	5 × 10 <sup>7</sup> PFU, IT	10 DPI	↓ Mechanical allodynia ↓ Thermal hyperalgesia	~10 days (mechanical allodynia) ~3–5 days (thermal hyperalgesia)	Milligan et al., 2005a
SD rats (SIN)	Male	AD-hIL-10	5 × 10 <sup>7</sup> PFU, IT	Immediately pre-zymosan injection	↓ Mechanical allodynia	24 h (ET)	Milligan et al., 2005a
SD rats (SIN)	Male	AD-hIL-10	5 × 10 <sup>7</sup> PFU, IT	1 day post-zymosan injection	↓ Mechanical allodynia	~3 days (ET)	Milligan et al., 2005a
SD rats (CCI)	Male	AAV2-rIL-10	8.5 × 10 <sup>8</sup> IPs, IT	10 DPI	↓ Mechanical allodynia/thermal hyperalgesia	~12 days (allodynia) ~14 days (thermal hyperalgesia)	Milligan et al., 2005b
SD rats (SIN)	Male	AAV2-rIL-10	8.5 × 10 <sup>8</sup> IPs, IT	2 days pre-zymosan	↓ Mechanical allodynia	~7–8 days	Milligan et al., 2005b
SD rats (CCI)	Male	pDNA-rIL-10-F129S	100 µg × 4, IT	10 → 14 → 22 → 64 DPI	↓ Mechanical allodynia	Each injection lasted until subsequent injection, final injection 5 days (ET)	Milligan et al., 2006a
SD rats (CCI)	Male	pDNA-rIL-10-F129S	100 µg × 2, IT	10 → 13 DPI	↓ Mechanical allodynia	~45–47 days (ET)	Milligan et al., 2006a
SD rats (CCI)	Male	pDNA-rIL-10-F129S	100 µg × 2, IT	58 → 61 DPI	↓ Mechanical allodynia	~7–35 days (unreliable effect)	Milligan et al., 2006a
SD rats (CCI)	Male	pDNA-rIL-10-F129S	1 µg × 2, IT	10 → 13 DPI	No effect	N/A	Milligan et al., 2006b
SD rats (CCI)	Male	pDNA-rIL-10-F129S	100 µg × 2, IT	10 → 13 DPI	↓ Mechanical allodynia	~31 days	Milligan et al., 2006b
SD rats (CCI)	Male	PEI-pDNA-rIL-10-F129S	5 µg, IT	10 DPI	↓ Mechanical allodynia	~11 days	Milligan et al., 2006b
SD rats (CCI)	Male	PEI-pDNA-rIL-10-F129S	5 µg × 2, IT	10 → 13 DPI	↓ Mechanical allodynia	~27–30 days	Milligan et al., 2006b
SD rats (CCI)	Male	XT-101	400 ng, IT	10 DPI	↓ Mechanical allodynia	~28–29 days (ET)	Milligan et al., 2006b
SD rats (PIN)	Male	pDNA-rIL-10-F129S	100 → 25 µg, IT	35 → 38 DPI	↓ Mechanical allodynia	~32–37 days	Ledeboer et al., 2007
SD rats (CCI)	Male	Control pDNA –> pDNA-rIL-10-F129S	100 → 25 µg, IT	10 → 13 DPI	↓ Mechanical allodynia	~89 days (ET)	Sloane et al., 2009
SD rats (CCI)	Male	pDNA-rIL-10-F129S –> Control pDNA	100 → 25 µg, IT	10 → 13 DPI	↓ Mechanical allodynia	~3–4 days	Sloane et al., 2009
SD rats (CCI)	Male	pDNA-rIL-10-F129S	100 → 25 µg, IT	10 → 13 DPI	↓ Mechanical allodynia	~93 days (ET)	Sloane et al., 2009
SD rats (CCI)	Male	pDNA-rIL-10-F129S	100 → 1 µg, IT	10 → 13 DPI	↓ Mechanical allodynia	~77–85 days	Sloane et al., 2009
SD rats (CCI)	Male	pDNA-rIL-10-F129S	100 → 25 µg, IT	10 DPI → 2 h post 1st injection	↓ Mechanical allodynia	~6 days	Sloane et al., 2009

Neuropathic Pain						
Model	Sex	Treatment	Dose/route	Time of treatment	Effect	Reference
SD rats (CCI)	Male	pDNA-rIL-10-F129S	100 → 25 µg, IT	10 DPI → 5 h post 1st injection	↓Mechanical allodynia	Sloane et al., 2009
SD rats (CCI)	Male	pDNA-rIL-10-F129S	125 µg, IT	10 DPI	↓Mechanical allodynia	Sloane et al., 2009
SD rats (CCI)	Male	pDNA-rIL-10-F129S	100 (pDNA) → 0.2 (anti-IL-10) → 25 (pDNA) µg, IT	10 DPI → 1 h after 1st injection → 13 DPI	↓Mechanical allodynia (pDNA) reversed acute/sustained pDNA antinociception (anti-IL-10)	Sloane et al., 2009
SD rats (CCI)	Male	pDNA-rIL-10-F129S	100 → 25 µg (pDNA) → 0.2 µg (anti-IL-10), IT	10 → 13 (pDNA) → 23 (anti-IL-10) DPI	↓Mechanical allodynia (pDNA) reversed sustained pDNA antinociception (anti-IL-10)	Sloane et al., 2009
SD rats (CCI)	Male	pDNA-rIL-10-F129S	25 → 25 → 25 µg, IT	10 → 13 → 45 DPI	↓Mechanical allodynia	Sloane et al., 2009
SD rats (CCI)	Male	pDNA-rIL-10-F129S	25 → 25 → 25 µg, IT	10 → 13 → 61 DPI	↓Mechanical allodynia	Sloane et al., 2009
SD rats (CCI)	Male	XT-101 (rat)	8.8 µg, IT	10 DPI	↓Mechanical allodynia	Soderquist et al., 2010
SD rats (SNI)	Male	rIL-10	0.5–5 µg, intra-red nucleus	21 DPI	↓Mechanical allodynia	Wang et al., 2012
SD rats (SCI)	Male	HSV-rIL-10	2 × 10 <sup>8</sup> PFU, IPL	7 DPI	↓Mechanical allodynia/hyperalgesia and thermal hyperalgesia ↓Operant conflict avoidance	Lau et al., 2012
SD rats (L5/L6 SNL)	Male	rIL-10	0.1–1 µg, IT	1–7 DPI (daily) (each injection 1 h before testing)	↓Mechanical allodynia	Lee et al., 2013
SD rats (L5/L6 SNL)	Male	rIL-10	7 µg, IT	7 DPI (injection 1 h before testing)	No effect	Lee et al., 2013
SD rats (L5 SNL)	Male	rIL-10	500 ng × 3, IT	7 → 8 → 9 DPI (1×/day)	↓Mechanical allodynia	Shen et al., 2013
SD rats (L5 SNL)	Male	rIL-10	500 ng × 12, IT	7 → 8 → 9 DPI (4×/day)	↓Mechanical allodynia	Shen et al., 2013
SD rats (CCI)	Male	D-mannose → pDNA-rIL-10-F129S	50 µg (D-mannose) → 1 µg (pDNA)	10 (D-mannose) → 13 (pDNA) DPI	↓Mechanical allodynia	Dengler et al., 2014
SD rats (CCI)	Male	D-mannose → pDNA-rIL-10-F129S	50 µg (D-mannose) → 25 µg (pDNA)	10 (D-mannose) → 13 (pDNA) DPI	↓Mechanical allodynia	Dengler et al., 2014
SD rats (CCI)	Male	D-mannose + pDNA-rIL-10-F129S	50 µg (D-mannose) + 1 µg (pDNA)	10 DPI	↓Mechanical allodynia	Dengler et al., 2014
Dog (N/S NP)	Mixed	XT-101 (human)	500 µg, IT	Various	↓Pain-related behaviors	Unpublished observations

Abbreviations: ↓: suppression, →: denotes sequence of injections, AAV: adeno-associated virus, AD: adenovirus, CCI: chronic constriction injury, DPI: days post-injury, ET: experiment terminated before resolution of antinociceptive effect, hIL-10: human IL-10, HSV: herpes simplex virus, IFS: infectious particles, IPL: intraplantar, IT: intrathecal, N/S NP: non-specified neuropathic pain, pDNA: plasmid DNA, PEI: polyethylenimine, PIN: pacitaxel-induced neuropathy, PLGA: poly(lactic-co-glycolic), SCI: T12 blunt laminectomy, SD rat: Sprague-Dawley rat, SIN: sciatic inflammatory neuropathy, SNL: spared nerve-injury, SNL: spinal nerve ligation, rIL-10: rat IL-10, rIL-10-F129S: point mutation rIL-10 variant, xT-101 (rat): PLGA-rat IL-10-F129S, xT-101 (human): PLGA-human IL-10-F129S.



Table 2

Summary of studies in which IL-10-based therapy was used in animal models of osteoarthritis, Parkinson's Disease, and multiple sclerosis.

Model	Sex	Treatment	Dose/route	Time of treatment	Effect	Duration of effect	Reference
<b>Osteoarthritis</b>							
Rabbit (bilateral excision of MCL/medial meniscectomy)	N/S	Synoviocytes transduced with RV-hIL-10	5 <sup>7</sup> cells, intra-articular	5 DPI	↓Cartilage breakdown	Only determined at 19 DPI	Zhang et al., 2004
Dogs (N/S OA)	Mixed	XT-101 (human)	800 ug, intra-articular	Various	↓Pain-related behaviors	~4 months	Unpublished observations
<b>Parkinson's disease</b>							
SD rats (intra-substantia nigral LPS)	Male	rIL-10	50 ng/day continuous infusion, intra-substantia nigral	0-14 DPI	↓Dopaminergic cell loss ↓Microglial activation	Only determined 14 DPI	Arimoto et al., 2007
C57/B16 mice (IP MPTP)	Male	AAV2-hIL-10	2 × 10 <sup>10</sup> VGs, intrastriatal	~28 days DPI	↓Striatal tyrosine hydroxylase expression loss	Only determined on days 7 and 21 DPI	Schwenkgrub et al., 2013
<b>Multiple sclerosis</b>							
Lewis rats (MBP, acute)	N/S	hIL-10	5000 units × 3, SC	0, 3, 6 DPI	↓Clinical score ↓Body weight loss	~12 days (clinical score) ~14 days (ET) body weight	Rott et al., 1994
SJL/J mice (MBP lymphocyte transfer, acute)	Female	mIL-10	1 µg, IV	Various	No Effect/↑Clinical score	N/A	Cannella et al., 1996
SJL/J mice (MBP lymphocyte transfer, acute)	Female	anti-IL-10 antibody	100 µg × 3, IP	4-6 DPI	↑Clinical score	N/A	Cannella et al., 1996
SJL/J mice (PLP, acute)	Female	hIL-10	2 µg, IP × 13	0-12 DPI (daily)	↓Clinical score ↓Body weight loss	~21 days (ET) (clinical score/body weight)	Nagelkerken et al., 1997
SJL/J mice (PLP, acute)	Female	hIL-10	2-20 µg, IP × 8	~2-5 DPI (daily)	No Effect	N/A	Nagelkerken et al., 1997
C57Bl/6 mice (MOG <sub>35-55</sub> , chronic progressive)	Female	IL-10-/-	N/A	N/A	↑Clinical score	~32 days (ET)	Bettelli et al., 1998
(SJLxFVB)F <sub>1</sub> mice (PLP, acute)	N/S	IL-10 over-expression under CD2 promoter	N/A	N/A	↓Clinical score	~22 days (ET)	Bettelli et al., 1998
Lewis rats (SCH, acute)	N/S	hIL-10	150 ng × 10, IN	0-9 DPI (daily)	↓Clinical score	~7 days	Xiao et al., 1998
DA Rats (SCH, relapsing-remitting)	N/S	hIL-10	150 ng × 10, IN	0-9 DPI (daily)	↓Clinical score	~35 days (ET)	Xiao et al., 1998
BALB/cAnN (SCH, acute)	N/S	IL-10 over-expression under MHCI promoter	N/A	N/A	↓Clinical score	~120 days (ET)	Cua et al., 1999

Model	Sex	Treatment	Dose/route	Time of treatment	Effect	Duration of effect	Reference
(SJL/J x BALB/cAnN)F <sub>1</sub> (SCH, acute)	N/S	IL-10 over-expression under MHCII promoter	N/A	N/A	↓Clinical score	~16 days (ET)	Cua et al., 1999
Biozzi ABH mice (SCH)	N/S	mIL-10	1 ng/ml ICV	12 DPI	No effect	N/A	Croxford et al., 2001
Biozzi ABH mice (SCH)	N/S	AD5-mIL-10	$5 \times 10^4$ - $5 \times 10^6$ , ICV	12 DPI	No effect	N/A	Croxford et al., 2001
CSJLF <sub>1</sub> /J (SCH, chronic)	N/S	hIL-10	10 µg × 5, ICV	10-14 DPI (daily)	↓Clinical score	8 days (ET)	Cua et al., 2001
CSJLF <sub>1</sub> /J (SCH, chronic)	N/S	AD-hIL-10	$3 \times 10^9$ VPs, ICV	10	↓Clinical score	~15-26 days (ET)	Cua et al., 2001
CSJLF <sub>1</sub> /J (SCH, chronic)	N/S	AD-hIL-10	$3 \times 10^7$ - $3 \times 10^9$ , IV	10 DPI	No effect	N/A	Cua et al., 2001
CSJLF <sub>1</sub> /J (SCH, chronic)	N/S	AD-hIL-10	$3 \times 10^7$ - $3 \times 10^9$ VPs, IN	10 DPI	No effect	N/A	Cua et al., 2001
CSJLF <sub>1</sub> /J (SCH, chronic)	N/S	AD-hIL-10	$3 \times 10^9$ VPs, ICV	-2 DPI or 15 DPI	↓Clinical score ↑Survival	~46 days (ET)	Cua et al., 2001
CSJLF <sub>1</sub> /J (SCH, chronic)	N/S	AD-hIL-10	$3 \times 10^9$ VPs, ICV	24 DPI	↓Relapse	~21 days (ET)	Cua et al., 2001
DA rats (MOG <sub>1-125</sub> , relapsing-remitting)	Male	pDNA-rIL-10-F129S	100 µg → 25 µg, IT	0 DPI → 3 DPI	↓Clinical score ↓Mechanical allodynia ↓Body weight loss	~19 days (ET) (clinical score) ~15 days (ET) (allodynia) ~3 days (ET) (body weight)	Sloane et al., 2009
DA rats (MOG <sub>1-125</sub> , relapsing-remitting)	Male	XT-101 (rat)	8 µg, IT	12 DPI	↓Clinical score ↑Survival ↑Wheel-running ↓Social exploration	~18 days (ET) (clinical score) ~14 days (ET) (survival) ~11 days (ET) (wheel-running) Only tested on day 12 (social exploration)	Grace et al., 2012

Abbreviations: ↓ : suppression, ↑ : enhancement, → : denotes sequence of injections, AD: adenovirus, AAV: adeno-associated virus, DA: Dark Agouti rats, DPI: days post-immunization with myelin peptide or homogenate to induce EAE. Plus and minus signify interventions before and after immunization, respectively, ET: experiment terminated before resolution of therapeutic effect, hIL-10: human IL-10, ICV: intracerebroventricular; mIL-10: murine IL-10, IN: intranasal, IP: intraperitoneal, IT: intrathecal, LPS: lipopolysaccharide, MBP: myelin basic protein, MOG: myelin oligodendrocyte glycoprotein, MPTP: 1-methyl-4-phenyl-1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridine, N/A: not applicable, NOD mice: non-obese diabetic mice, N/S: not specified, PFU: plaque-forming units, PLGA: poly(lactic-co-glycolic), PLP: proteolipid protein, rIL-10: rat IL-10, rIL-10-F129S: point mutation rat IL-10 variant, SC: subcutaneous, SCH: Sprague-Dawley rat, VGs: Viral/Vector genomes, VPs: viral particles, XT-101 (rat): PLGA-rat IL-10-F129S, XT-101 (human): PLGA-human IL-10-F129S.