

Molecular mechanisms of immunity in corneal allotransplantation and xenotransplantation

Ying Qian and M. Reza Dana

Corneal allotransplantation is the most common and successful form of solid organ transplantation in humans. In uncomplicated cases, the two-year graft survival rate is over 90%. This extraordinary success can be attributed in part to various features of the normal cornea and anterior segment that together account for their 'immune-privileged' status. However, despite this success, a significant number of corneal grafts fail and immunological rejection remains by far the leading cause of graft failure. Studies on animal models of corneal transplantation have yielded a wealth of information on the molecular and cellular features of graft rejection, and have established that this process is mediated primarily by CD4⁺ T cells of the T helper 1 (Th1) phenotype. In addition, studies have elucidated that certain facets of allosensitisation differ between corneal and other solid organ transplants. On the basis of these findings, novel experimental strategies selectively targeting the afferent or efferent arms of corneal alloimmunity have provided promising results in preventing corneal allograft rejection in the laboratory. Finally, because of the global shortage of human donor corneas, there is currently renewed interest in the possibility of using corneas from other species for transplantation into human eyes (xenotransplantation). Preliminary studies on animal models of corneal xenotransplantation have documented both antibody-mediated and cell-mediated responses that might play important roles in the accelerated rejection observed in corneal xenotransplants. This review synthesises the principal concepts emerging from studies of the molecular mechanisms in corneal transplant immunology.

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Corneal transplantation, which is also known as penetrating keratoplasty, is the most common form of tissue allotransplantation. In the USA alone, nearly 40 000 cases are performed annually. In uncomplicated first grafts, the two-year graft survival rate under cover of local immune suppression is over 90% (Ref. 1). This extraordinary rate of success, which can be achieved in other solid grafts only with profound systemic immune suppression, has been related to various features of the cornea and ocular

microenvironment that together account for its immune-privileged status. First, expression of major histocompatibility complex (MHC) class II molecules is reduced or absent in the normal uninfamed cornea (Ref. 2). Second, the cornea secretes immunosuppressive factors that inhibit T-cell and complement activation (Refs 3, 4, 5). Third, the cornea [and other anterior chamber (AC) tissues – see Fig. 1] constitutively expresses Fas ligand (FasL, CD95L), which plays a pivotal role in protecting the eye from cell-mediated

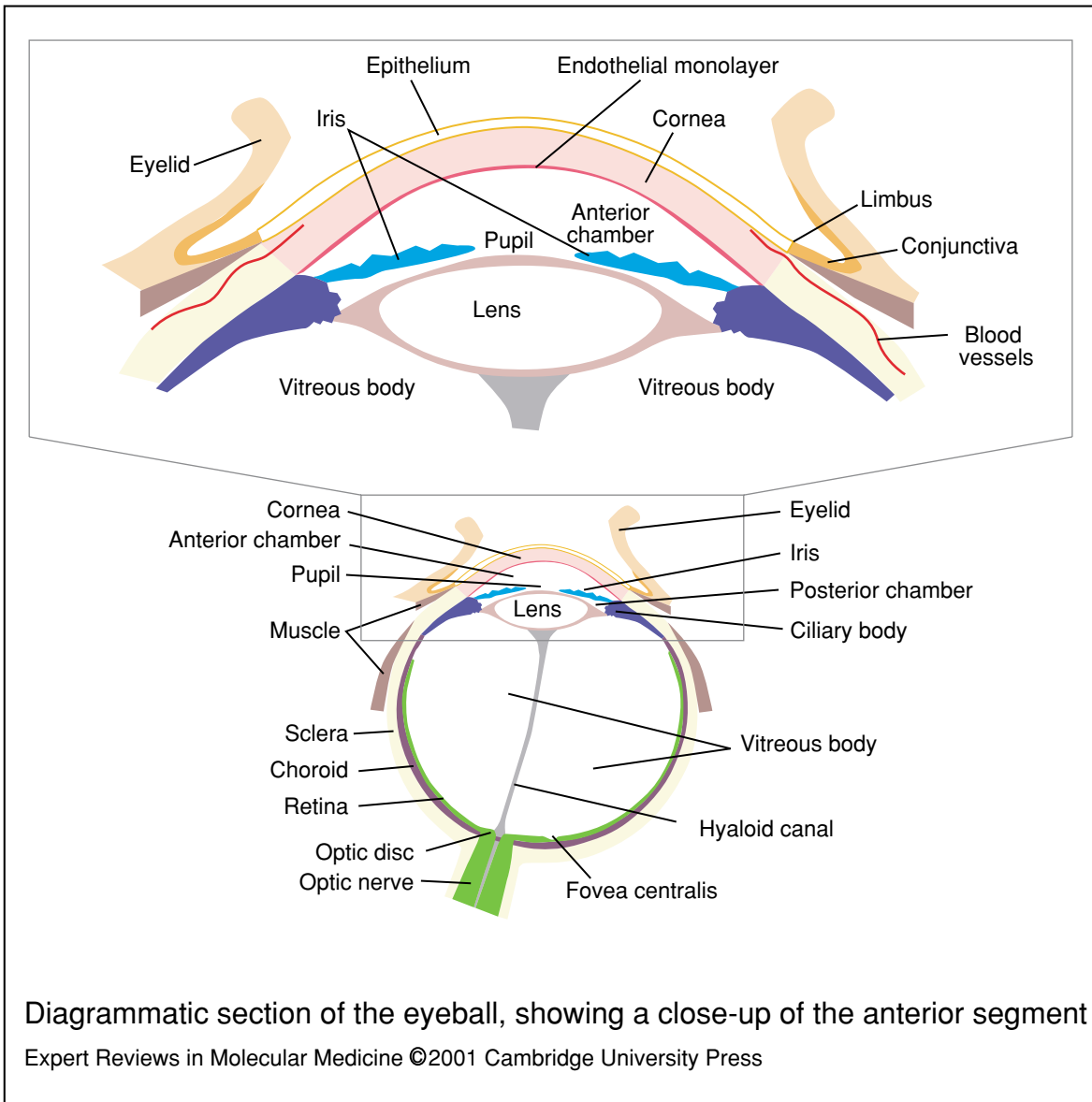


Figure 1. Diagrammatic section of the eyeball, showing a close-up of the anterior segment (fig001rdb).

damage. It is proposed that Fas⁺ T cells, which enter the eye during inflammation, interact with FasL within the eye and are eliminated by apoptosis (programmed cell death) with no ensuing inflammatory damage. Consistent with this proposal, the eye of a *gld* (FasL-deficient) mouse appears to be unable to deter this damage and the corneal endothelium is targeted for immune-mediated destruction (Refs 6, 7, 8, 9, 10). Fourth, under normal uninflamed conditions, MHC class II⁺ corneal Langerhans cells [LCs: a specific subset of antigen-presenting dendritic cells (DCs)] or other class II⁺ 'professional' antigen-presenting cells (APCs) are rare in the cornea (Ref. 2). Finally, the cornea is avascular and devoid of lymphatics, which hinders traffic of immune elements between the eye and the lymphoid system.

The cornea is located in the immune-privileged AC. Allogeneic tissue (i.e. from an unrelated member of the same species) implanted into the AC survives for prolonged intervals of time compared with similar tissues implanted subcutaneously or at conventional, non-immune-privileged body sites (Ref. 11). This is a tolerogenic form of immunity in that the host becomes tolerant to intraocular antigens and fails to mount antigen-specific delayed-type hypersensitivity (DTH). Furthermore, this tolerance results in a selective and adoptively transferable suppression of antigen-specific DTH in the periphery known as AC-associated immune deviation (ACAID) (Refs 11, 12, 13, 14). This form of tolerance is not limited to naive hosts (who are later challenged with antigen); rather, even if the host is pre-sensitised to an antigen, ACAID can impose tolerance on this host (for its future interactions with antigen).

Immunological mechanisms of corneal allograft rejection

Although the cornea itself has been considered to be an immune-privileged tissue, many orthotopic corneal grafts (grafts placed in the normal anatomic location in recipients) are still rejected, and immune rejection is the leading cause of corneal graft failure (Ref. 1). Therefore, immune privilege is not absolute, and under circumstances that promote inflammation this privilege can be lost. One such setting is neovascularisation, which is a ubiquitous element of corneal pathology that can accompany a vast array of traumatic, inflammatory, infectious and toxic insults

(Ref. 15). In corneal transplantation, corneal neovascularisation can significantly increase the risk of graft rejection as compared with the low-risk corneal transplant setting (i.e. first transplant into nonvascular and uninflamed hot beds). In fact, grafts placed into 'high-risk' beds exhibit rejection rates of 50–90%, even with maximal local and systemic immune suppression (Ref. 16). Therefore, the immune-privileged status of the cornea is abolished in these circumstances.

Humoral immunity

Cornea-specific and donor-specific antibodies have been detected in host serum after clinical (Refs 17, 18, 19) and experimental (Refs 20, 21) corneal grafting. However, these antibodies are not detected until after the grafts have been rejected (Ref. 21), and passive transfer of donor-specific antibodies fails to cause corneal allograft rejection in mice (Ref. 22). Moreover, clinical investigations in humans have shown that corneal allografts can undergo rejection in the absence of detectable donor-specific antibody (Ref. 18). Animals that are deficient in B cells (and are therefore unable to elicit antibody-mediated immunity) or the complement C3 component (and are therefore unable to use complement-fixing antibodies to promote rejection) consistently reject corneal grafts in a manner similar to their respective wild-type controls (Ref. 23). Thus, antibody production might be the result, rather than the cause, of corneal graft rejection in low-risk transplantation.

However, in clinical settings, corneal grafting often occurs in vascularised (high-risk) eyes. Post-transplant antibodies directed against donor MHC class I antigens in high-risk patients have been associated with graft rejection (Ref. 24). In addition, corneal grafts fare more poorly when transplanted into patients with pre-formed anti-class I antibodies as a consequence of previous corneal transplants or blood transfusions. Therefore, the human studies suggest that antibodies might in some instances contribute to graft failure if the recipient has been sensitised previously to donor antigens. However, it cannot be ruled out that the antibody response detected in corneal graft hosts is, at least in part, a byproduct of the cell-mediated (T-cell) response generated to the graft. A recent study on a murine model of high-risk corneal transplantation has provided supporting evidence for this notion (Ref. 25).

Cellular immunity

The two primary T-cell-dependent immune effector mechanisms that have been implicated in the rejection of solid tissue grafts are cytotoxic T lymphocyte (CTL) and DTH responses. CTLs are characterised by their expression of the CD8 cell-surface determinant, whereas cells mediating DTH typically express the CD4 surface marker. CD4⁺ T helper (Th) cells can be further divided into two functional subsets, Th1 and Th2, which can be distinguished by the patterns of cytokines that they secrete. Th1 cells secrete interleukin 2 (IL-2), interferon γ (IFN- γ) and lymphotoxin, and are responsible for the development of the cell-mediated immune responses including DTH. Th2 cells secrete IL-4, IL-5, IL-10 and IL-13, and are responsible for promoting the production of high levels of IgG1, IgA and IgE by B cells (in mice), and for the activation of effector cells such as eosinophils (Ref. 26).

A large body of experimental evidence has established that corneal allograft rejection is a CD4⁺ Th1-cell-mediated process. Corneal allograft rejection can be adoptively transferred with lymphocytes (Ref. 27), and in vivo depletion of CD4⁺ T cells with anti-CD4 monoclonal antibodies (mAbs) leads to a significantly reduced incidence of corneal allograft rejection (Refs 28, 29, 30, 31), whereas treatment with anti-CD8 mAbs has no effect on the rejection rate of corneal allografts (Refs 28, 29). In addition, mice deficient in CD4⁺ T cells are significantly impaired in their ability to reject orthotopic corneal allografts, whereas corneal allograft rejection proceeds unimpaired in mice deficient in CD8⁺ T cells (Refs 32, 33). Reconstitution of severe combined immunodeficient (SCID) mice with CD8⁺-depleted spleen cells leads to rejection rates similar to those of mice receiving undepleted spleen cells, whereas SCID mice reconstituted with CD4⁺-depleted spleen cells display a significantly reduced rejection rate (Ref. 33). Moreover, rejection of corneal grafts correlates temporally better with recipient acquisition of donor-specific DTH rather than CTLs (Refs 34, 35, 36). Finally, the cytokine profile of cornea and aqueous humor in rejecting grafts is of the Th1 type (Refs 37, 38, 39).

Although CD4⁺ Th1 cells have been shown to play the central role in most animal models of corneal graft rejection, some controversy still remains concerning the contribution of CD8⁺ T cells in the rejection of allogeneic corneal grafts

under certain circumstances. There are instances in which corneal allograft rejection is associated with the presence of CTLs (which are typically CD8⁺ T cells) directed against donor-specific antigens. Allospecific CTLs are activated in mice receiving heterotopic corneal grafts (i.e. grafted at a site different from the normal anatomic position) (Refs 40, 41), rats receiving orthotopic corneal grafts (Refs 42, 43, 44, 45) and humans receiving corneal grafts (Refs 46, 47). However, studies using the murine model of orthotopic corneal transplantation have produced mixed results: some studies have suggested that CTLs do not play a role in corneal allograft rejection (Refs 28, 34, 48), whereas others indicate that CTLs mediate, at least in part, the alloresponse to minor H alloantigens (Ref. 49) and graft rejection in high-risk hosts (Refs 48, 50, 51). Subsequent studies in mice have demonstrated that CD8⁺ T-cell-deficient or perforin-deficient hosts reject donor corneas mismatched for MHC and minor H antigens as effectively as do wild-type controls (Refs 33, 36), indicating that although CD8⁺ T cells might be generated in response to corneal allografts, they do not play a crucial role in rejection of the corneal grafts. However, in some mice deficient in CD4⁺ T cells, fully mismatched corneal allografts are rejected within 10 weeks of engraftment, undergoing delayed rejection after long-term acceptance. The CD4⁺ T-cell knockout mice that have rejected allogeneic grafts do not generate significant DTH responses, suggesting a mechanism involving CD8⁺ T cells in the late rejection of some corneal transplants (Refs 32, 33).

The afferent and efferent arm of corneal allograft rejection

The process of corneal transplant immunity can be conceptualized as being similar to the motor reflex induced in response to sensory stimulation, composed of an 'afferent' and an 'efferent' arm (Fig. 2). The afferent arm is synonymous with the process by which the graft host becomes sensitised to the donor antigens in the transplant (allorecognition). This requires processing of alloantigens by APCs (in particular, local DCs and LCs) and their successful presentation to naive T cells. Allorecognition itself can be further subdivided into discrete steps, including: (1) activation of APCs and their migration into the graft; (2) processing of antigens; and (3) presentation of antigens in the context of MHC

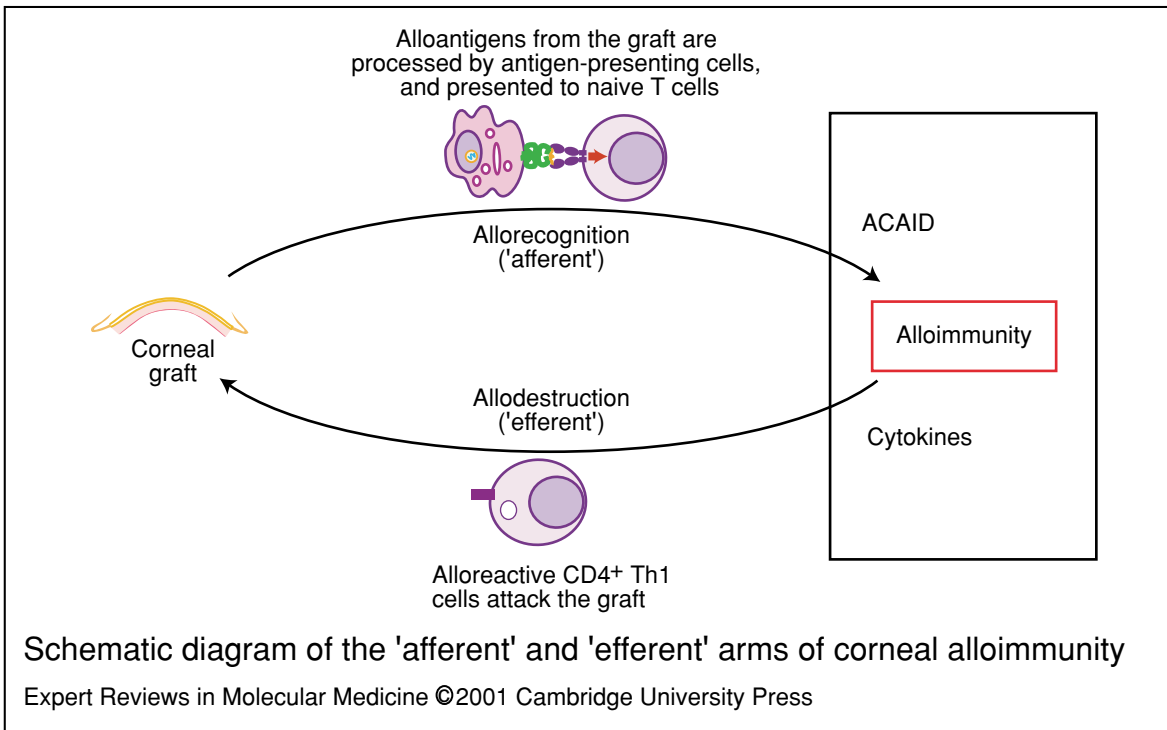


Figure 2. Schematic diagram of the 'afferent' and 'efferent' arms of corneal alloimmunity. Allorecognition and the alloredestructive response can be considered synonymous with the afferent and efferent arms of the motor reflex that is induced in response to sensory stimulation. Both the afferent and efferent arms of the immune response generated to alloantigens are regulated by cytokines (see text for details) and by the anterior-chamber-associated immune deviation (ACAID) response. ACAID induces an antigen-specific response that is tolerising (**fig002rdb**).

class II to the T-cell receptor (TCR) of naive T cells in the draining lymph node, which, together with adequate costimulation, results in T-cell activation (Refs 52, 53, 54, 55). The expression or efferent phase of the response is synonymous with the process of attacking the graft (the alloredestructive response). This can likewise be divided into steps, consisting of: (1) entry of alloreactive T cells from lymphoid organs to the general circulation; (2) delivery of these cells to the target tissue and re-encounter with antigen; and, possibly, (3) development of 'memory', which might facilitate the expression of the alloimmune response if there is repeated exposure to antigen (Ref. 52). In the following sections, we discuss the cellular and molecular components that participate in the afferent and efferent arms of corneal allograft immunity.

Allorecognition of corneal alloantigens
Immunogenicity of each layer of the cornea
Theoretically, each layer of the cornea has the potential to contribute to the immunogenicity of

this tissue as a graft. When corneal allografts are placed orthotopically in eyes of experimental animals, it is difficult to discern the immunogenic potential of the various layers because the graft is placed in an immune-privileged site (Refs 13, 56, 57). Therefore, a non-immune-privileged site, such as the space beneath the kidney capsule, can be helpful in testing the immunogenicity of each layer of the cornea. This approach has been used by transplantation immunologists to study the fate of various solid tissue grafts (Refs 58, 59, 60). When placed beneath the kidney capsule, allografts of mouse corneal epithelium, either alone or as stroma deprived of endothelium, undergo immune rejection and induce donor-specific DTH (Ref. 61). Such findings indicate that the alloimmunogenicity of the normal cornea largely resides within its epithelial and stromal layers.

The view that epithelium is the primary source of alloimmunogenicity in full-thickness mouse corneal grafts is consistent with a clinical study suggesting that human corneas deprived of

epithelium show better survival in keratoplasty (Ref. 62). However, a similar and subsequent study showed that the removal of epithelium does not reduce the likelihood of graft rejection (Ref. 63). The inconsistent results are explained in part by a recent study using a mouse model of corneal transplantation. Epithelium-deprived corneal grafts are swiftly rejected in allogeneic recipients because these allografts incite intense stromal inflammation and neovascularisation in the grafts and in the recipient beds. When epithelium-deprived corneal grafts are resurfaced with LC-deficient syngeneic epithelium, the composite corneal grafts are protected from immune rejection (Ref. 10). The findings indicate that, on the one hand, an intact epithelial layer inhibits the development of inflammation and neovascularisation within a graft by a mechanism that is unrelated to immunity, but, on the other hand, is potentially capable of promoting all forms of inflammatory responses including graft rejection.

Corneal alloantigens

In humans, the MHC is composed of human leukocyte antigens (HLAs) that include class I HLA-A, -B and -C, and class II HLA-DP, -DQ and -DR antigens. Initially, only class I HLA antigens were shown to be expressed on normal corneal epithelium and stromal cells but, later, class II HLA antigens were also found on DCs in the limbal epithelium and stroma, and on endothelial cells lining limbal blood vessels (Refs 64, 65, 66, 67). Despite well-established associations between the MHC and allograft rejection in other solid organ transplantation, there is considerable controversy about the role of MHC antigens in corneal transplantation. A beneficial effect of matching for HLA-A, -B and -DR antigens in clinical corneal transplantation has been observed in several prospective and retrospective studies, mainly in high-risk patients (Refs 68, 69, 70, 71). However, other studies, including the Collaborative Corneal Transplantation Studies (CCTS), do not show a significant effect on graft survival of HLA matching (Refs 72, 73, 74). Instead, results from the CCTS suggest that ABO blood group compatibility decreases the rejection rate in high-risk vascularised patients. Evidence from other studies also suggests that non-MHC antigens play an important role in clinical corneal allograft rejection (Ref. 75). Further studies evaluating the

contribution of blood ABO antigens to clinical corneal alloimmunity are currently under way.

Experimental work using rats and mice has confirmed a prominent role for non-MHC antigens in corneal graft rejection. Orthotopic corneal allografts bearing minor H antigens alone are more likely to be rejected than are grafts displaying only MHC alloantigens (Refs 34, 51, 76). Although the chromosomal locations of several dozens of minor antigens have been determined in mice, the antigens themselves remain largely uncharacterised.

LCs and DCs

LCs are a population of constitutively immunogenic DCs that mediate antigen presentation and promote immune surveillance in the skin and ocular surface epithelium. As such, they play a critical role in allosensitisation. Corneal LCs are bone-marrow-derived cells that are thought to represent the professional APCs of the ocular surface and hence are capable of activating T cells and initiating ocular immune responses (Refs 77, 78). While MHC class II⁺ LCs are physiologically absent from the central cornea (Ref. 2), several corneal stimuli (e.g. keratoplasty, trauma, infection and cauterisation) can induce centripetal (towards the centre) migration of LCs into the cornea from the limbus, where they might initiate antigen processing (Refs 79, 80, 81). The presence of LCs in the donor cornea has been shown to effect host allosensitisation and graft rejection (Refs 82, 83). Recent work in our laboratory (M.R. Dana et al., unpublished) has shown the presence of MHC class II⁻ resident DCs in the cornea. Inflammatory insults to the cornea lead to upregulation in the expression of class II antigens and costimulatory molecules (e.g. CD80, CD86) by these cells, thereby potentially rendering them capable of initiating T-cell responses. Hence, inflammation in the cornea can lead to enhanced presence of class II⁺ APCs through two mechanisms: (1) recruitment of limbal LCs; and (2) upregulation of MHC class II on resident native LCs and other DCs.

Direct and indirect allosensitisation

T cells of the recipient can be activated directly by the donor APCs that present complexes of foreign donor MHC molecules and graft-derived peptides. This interaction, which is unique to the transplant situation, is referred to as direct recognition of alloantigens (Fig. 3). Alternatively,

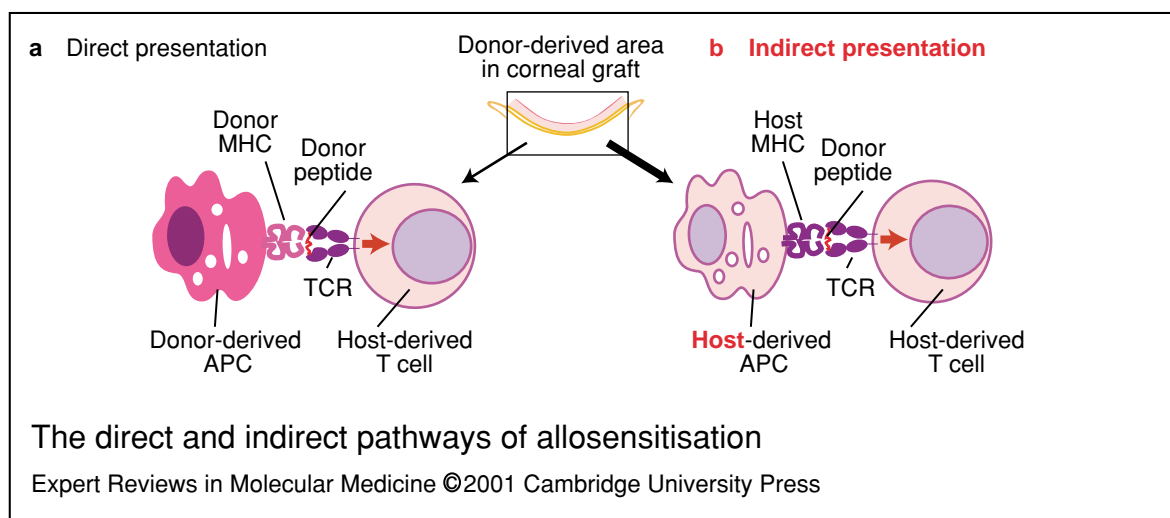


Figure 3. The direct and indirect pathways of allosensitisation. (a) In the direct pathway, major histocompatibility complex (MHC) molecules on donor antigen-presenting cells (APCs) from the graft tissue present graft-derived peptides to host T cells (TCR, T-cell receptor). (b) In the indirect pathway, host APCs take up graft proteins and present donor-derived processed peptides on host MHC to host T cells. The indirect pathway is thought to be the main route of sensitisation in corneal transplants, because constitutive MHC class II expression in donor tissue is low (**fig003rdb**).

proteins shed from the graft are taken up and processed by the APCs of the recipient so the self-restricted Th cells are activated indirectly by recipient MHC class II molecules presenting graft-derived peptides (Fig. 3) (Refs 20, 84, 85).

In the typical form of organ transplantation, such as heart or kidney, the donor tissue contains significant numbers of 'passenger leukocytes' (e.g. APCs such as DCs/LCs) that express high levels of MHC class II and are highly motile, and hence can sensitise the host directly when T cells recognise the donor MHC (Ref. 86). This is different from the corneal graft setting, where there is very little expression of donor-type MHC and, as far as we know, virtually no class II⁺ donor APCs in the graft tissue (Refs 87, 88). Despite our recent work (M.R. Dana et al., unpublished) showing the presence of MHC class II⁺ APCs (or DC precursors) in the cornea, the role of these cells in allorecognition remains unknown. What is known is that these cells are capable of upregulating class II expression after inflammation, as occurs in transplantation. Therefore, donor class II expression is present in the grafted tissue. Nevertheless, the relative paucity of constitutive expression of MHC class II in the donor tissue has led to the proposal that the indirect pathway of sensitisation is the dominant form of sensitisation. In this scenario, recipient APCs come into contact with

graft-derived antigens, process them and present them in the context of host MHC to T cells – generating self-restricted or indirect alloreactive T cells (Refs 89, 90, 91). Streilein's group has reported that reactive T cells elicited in low-risk corneal grafting are largely self-restricted (Ref. 50). Furthermore, our laboratory has shown that suppression of host APCs (i.e. the indirect pathway) in the low-risk setting can lead to almost universal acceptance of grafts that are unmatched to the host with respect to minor and MHC antigens. This further underscores the relevance of the indirect pathway to host sensitisation to both donor MHC and minor antigens (Refs 92, 93). Therefore, a fundamental difference between low-risk corneal grafts and other solid transplants is that the immune response generated in low-risk corneal grafts is principally of the indirect, 'self-restricted' type.

However, multiple investigators have shown that, under appropriate stimulation (as might occur in inflamed corneal beds), expression of both class I and class II MHC antigens by corneal cells can be significantly upregulated (Refs 65, 94). Accordingly, under appropriate stimulation, particularly as might occur in the high-risk setting, resident corneal APCs might be capable of sensitising host T cells. Alternatively, enhanced expression of MHC might allow graft cells to serve as 'non-professional' APCs capable of peripheral

sensitisation. This might be possible given the high precursor frequency of cells responding to foreign (allo) MHC epitopes, and the highly probable enhanced localisation of recirculating T cells to high-risk neovascularised eyes. In summary, the indirect pathway appears to be the main mechanism of allosensitisation in the low-risk setting, but it is conceivable that the direct pathway might be important in the 'high-risk' setting.

Recruitment of effector cells to corneal allografts

Recruitment of inflammatory and immune cells to a tissue site represents the net functional effect of adhesion molecules and chemokines that function at the level of the vascular endothelium as well as the tissue matrix (Refs 95, 96). Research over the past five years has thoroughly described the steps in the generation of a cell-mediated immune response and related these to specific chemokine responses: APC traffic to the site of

inflammation, migration of activated APCs to secondary lymphoid organs, colocalisation of APCs with naive T cells for priming, selective generation of Th1/Th2 polarised T-cell clones, and transendothelial migration and homing of T cells to the target organ (Fig. 4) (Refs 96, 97, 98). Major stimuli for adhesion molecule and inducible chemokine expression include the pro-inflammatory cytokines IL-1 and tumour necrosis factor α (TNF- α) (Refs 95, 96, 98), as well as bacterial products such as endotoxin (Ref. 96).

When chemokines were first described more than a decade ago, many products were shown to be upregulated in response to pro-inflammatory cytokines. This led to a dilemma: if ubiquitous pro-inflammatory cytokines stimulate secretion of a wide array of chemokines, how can the subsequent chemokine response retain selectivity? The answer is twofold: chemokines do not act alone, but function in concert with other molecular mediators including integrins and other adhesion factors; and, importantly, the type

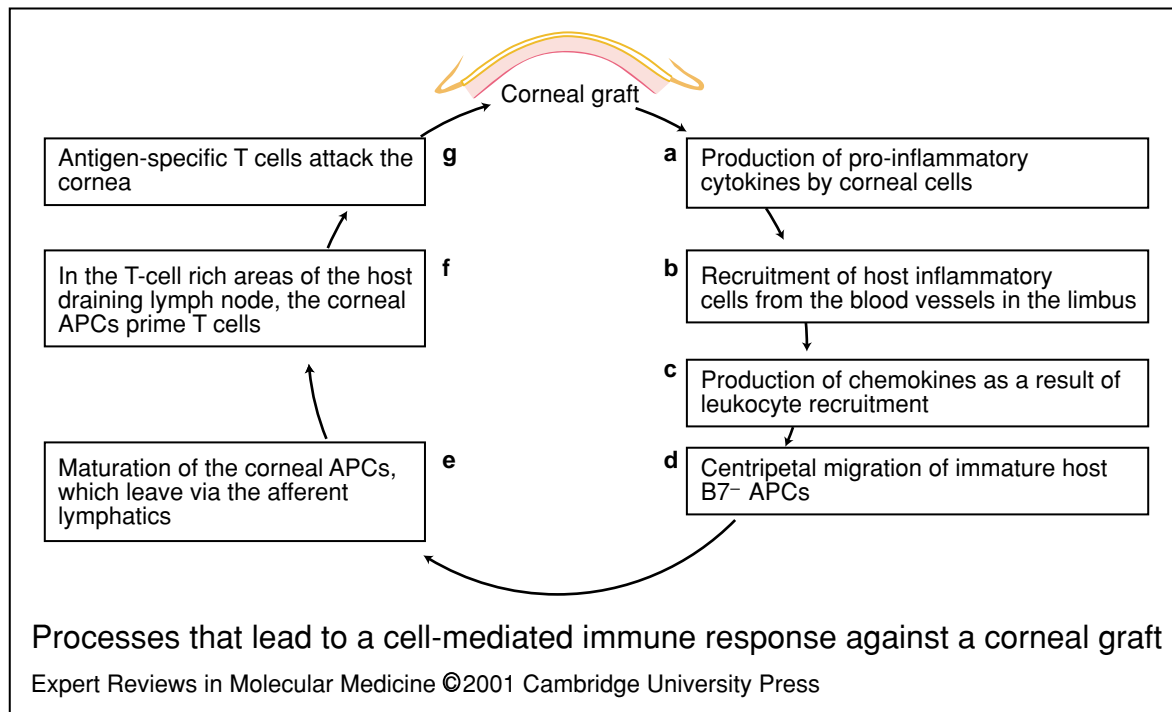


Figure 4. Processes that lead to a cell-mediated immune response against a corneal graft. (a) Production of pro-inflammatory cytokines in the cornea as a result of grafting leads to (b) recruitment of host inflammatory cells (mostly polymorphonuclear neutrophils) from the limbal vasculature. (c) Leukocyte recruitment in the cornea results in the production of chemokines, which (d) induces centripetal migration of immature (B7⁻) antigen-presenting cells (APCs), such as Langerhans cells. (e) After maturation, these APCs leave the cornea by entering afferent lymphatics, thereby gaining access to draining lymph nodes. (f) The APCs converge in the parafollicular T-cell-rich areas of the lymph node, where they prime T cells. (g) The final, effector phase of the immune response involves the targeting of the cornea by antigen-specific primed CD4⁺ T cells (**fig004rdb**).

and degree of leukocytic response generated is controlled largely by the specific subgroup of chemokine receptors expressed by specific cell types (Refs 96, 97, 98, 99). For example, expression of IFN- γ and IL-12, which are critical cytokines involved in the development of DTH responses, is associated with selective expression of chemokine receptors CCR1, CCR5 and CXCR3 by T-cell subsets. This leads to localisation of Th1 cells to sites of DTH expression, such as allograft rejection (Refs 99, 100, 101, 102, 103).

Chemokine biology is starting to attract more attention from transplantation immunologists, particularly since upregulation of select CC chemokines has been related to rejection of human kidney (Refs 104, 105) and rodent heart (Ref. 106) grafts. Recently, the differential gene expression of chemokines in experimental corneal transplant rejection has been reported (Ref. 107). Although many aspects of the chemokine biology of corneal transplantation remain unknown, there is now firm evidence to suggest that select chemokines of the CXC (α) and CC (β) families are associated with basic cellular mechanisms involved in corneal allograft rejection. Specifically, it has been shown that there is overexpression of RANTES (for 'regulated on activation normal T-cell expressed and secreted'), macrophage inflammatory protein 1 α (MIP-1 α), MIP-1 β , MIP-2 and monocyte chemoattractant protein 1 (MCP-1) in eyes with rejected allografts. In addition, the data suggest high levels of gene transcription for the IFN- γ -inducible protein IP-10 in recipients prone to rejection. It is anticipated that increased understanding of the role of chemokines and chemokine receptors in corneal transplantation biology will open new doors for the development of molecular strategies for immune modulation in corneal transplant rejection. For example, our laboratory has recently discovered (M.R. Dana et al., unpublished) that selective antagonism of the chemokine receptor CCR1 leads to a dramatic increase in the survival of corneal allografts.

Immune modulation

Current immunosuppressive drugs used to prevent or treat corneal graft rejection in humans include corticosteroids and cyclosporin A. However, corticosteroids are only variably effective in either the prevention or treatment of high-risk corneal graft rejection, and their use sometimes results in cataracts, glaucoma and

opportunistic infections (Refs 73, 108). While several investigators have been strong proponents of systemic cyclosporin use, the efficacy of this agent in the high-risk setting is far from clear, as demonstrated recently by a double-masked prospective trial in the UK (Ref. 109). Moreover, systemic immunosuppressive agents are fraught with a myriad of risks since they induce nonspecific suppression of both acquired and innate immunity (Refs 28, 110, 111, 112). Recently, a number of laboratories have had success in promoting transplant survival in rodent models of corneal transplantation, as described below (see also Table 1). However, it should be noted that the clinical applicability of these specific promising strategies remains to be tested in clinical trials.

Prevention of corneal graft rejection by inhibiting the afferent arm of alloimmunity *Inhibition of LC migration*

The migration of LCs into corneal grafts is regulated, at least partly, by the pro-inflammatory cytokines IL-1 and TNF- α . IL-1 is a potent pro-inflammatory cytokine produced primarily by monocytes and macrophages, but also by resident corneal cells (Refs 113, 114). This cytokine has a wide range of activities, including mediation of the acute-phase response, induction of chemotaxis and activation of inflammatory cells and APCs, and stimulation of neovascularisation (Refs 115, 116, 117). IL-1 receptor antagonist (IL-1Ra) is a naturally occurring IL-1 isoform produced by the same cells that synthesise IL-1. It undergoes high-affinity binding to IL-1 receptors, but shows no agonist activity (Refs 118, 119, 120). Intracorneal injection of IL-1 induces centripetal migration of peripheral LCs (Refs 121, 122). Conversely, neutralising the activity of IL-1 by topical administration of IL-1Ra leads to a profound suppression of inflammation-induced LC migration in the cornea (Ref. 55), and a significantly reduced level of infiltrating host LCs in both low-risk and high-risk corneal grafts (Ref. 93).

TNF- α mediates many pro-inflammatory and immune-regulatory functions, such as upregulation of the expression of adhesion and costimulatory molecules, activation of neutrophils, induction of chemokine secretion, and activation of the NF- κ B signal transduction pathway (Refs 115, 123). In the cornea, significant expression of TNF- α by the corneal resident

Table 1. Potential strategies for immune modulation to promote corneal transplant survival (tab001rdb)

Alloimmunity and rejection process targeted	Experimental immune modulation	Refs
Maturation of resident corneal (donor) APCs	Targeting cytokines IL-1 and TNF- α Targeting CD40 on T cells	54, 55, 93, 130
APC migration from host rim to graft	Targeting chemokine receptor CCR5 Targeting cytokines IL-1 and TNF- α	55, 92, 93, 122, 130, 178
Migration of APCs into afferent lymphatics	?Modulation of lymphoangiogenesis or lymphatic growth factors (VEGF-c)	
Interaction between APCs and naive T cells	Targeting costimulatory pathway of T-cell activation (CD40-CD154)	39
Th1 differentiation	Overexpression of Th2 cytokines Oral tolerance	44, 135, 141, 163, 164, 165
Trafficking of effector cells to the graft	Suppression of adhesion molecules Angiostatic strategy	145, 146, 147, 148, 153, 154
Destruction of corneal allograft	?Anti-apoptosis strategy	

Abbreviations: APC, antigen-presenting cell; IL-1, interleukin 1; TNF- α , tumour necrosis factor α ; VEGF, vascular endothelial growth factor.

cells can be induced by inflammatory stimuli (Ref. 124). TNF- α activity is regulated by two distinct receptors: the type I receptor (p55; TNFR-I) and the type II receptor (p75; TNFR-II), which have largely homologous extracellular domains but distinct intracellular domains that can mediate discrete cellular responses (Ref. 125). TNFR-I is believed to be the principal receptor through which many of the pro-inflammatory activities of TNF- α are mediated (Refs 126, 127). The bioactivity of TNF- α can be dramatically suppressed by soluble TNFR-I, which binds free TNF- α and prevents ligation of the membrane-bound receptors (Ref. 128). Administration of TNF- α by intracorneal injection not only induces migration of LCs into the central cornea but also leads to a marked increase in the number of recruited LCs at the corneal limbus, which serves as a potential reservoir for corneal LCs. In gene-targeted knockout mice lacking TNFR-I or TNFR-II, the migratory response of LCs to thermal cautery or cytokine stimulation is profoundly attenuated (Ref. 122). Our recent work (M.R. Dana et al., unpublished) suggests that IL-1 and TNF- α mediate the recruitment of native DCs (including LCs) through upregulation of select chemokines

(e.g. RANTES, MIP-1 β) and chemokine receptors (e.g. CCR5). Consistent with this, CCR5 knockout mice exhibit a significantly decreased propensity for LC recruitment to the cornea.

On the basis of the experimental data above, IL-1 and TNF- α as well as downstream chemokines induced by these cytokines provide targets for therapeutic intervention in the prevention of corneal allograft rejection. Indeed, the concurrent overexpression of IL-1 and TNF- α has been reported in corneal transplantation (Ref. 129). Inhibition of IL-1 activity by topical IL-1Ra successfully prolongs both low- and high-risk orthotopic corneal allografts in the mouse (Ref. 54). The enhanced graft survival is associated with suppressed allosensitisation, as demonstrated by a lack of DTH response to donor alloantigens in treated animals (Ref. 93). In addition, mice with a gene-targeted deficiency in TNFR-I accept grafts disparate in minor H antigens at a significantly higher rate than do wild-type controls (Ref. 92). A subsequent study has further demonstrated that neutralisation of TNF- α activity by topical administration of soluble TNFR-I promotes the acceptance of allogeneic corneal transplants in mice (Ref. 130).

Blockade of costimulatory pathways

T-cell activation requires the interaction of the TCR with the MHC-peptide complex on the APC (signal 1) as well as requisite costimulatory signals (signal 2) provided by the APC. One of the major signalling pathways responsible for delivery of this costimulatory signal is the interaction of CD28 on T cells with B7 molecules found on APCs (Ref. 131). A recombinant immunoglobulin (Ig) fusion protein, CTLA-4-Ig, comprising CTLA-4 and the CH2 and CH3 domains of human IgG, binds B7 with high affinity and prevents its interaction with CD28 (Ref. 132). Prolonged survival of corneal allografts has been achieved using CTLA-4-Ig as a blocking agent in animal models. Postoperative systemic administration of CTLA-4-Ig prolongs the mean survival of corneal allografts from 14 days to 24 days in mice (Ref. 133). Furthermore, incubation of rabbit donor corneas with CTLA-4-Ig prior to transplantation enhances allograft survival in vascularised high-risk recipients, but not in avascular low-risk recipients (Ref. 134). A recent study delivered vectors containing the gene encoding CTLA-4 to donor corneal epithelium and reported prolonged corneal graft survival using this approach (Ref. 135).

Another critical costimulatory signal for T-cell activation is the CD40-CD154 pathway, which can activate both B7 and IL-12 expression by APCs. The net effect of CD40 ligation on CD4⁺ T cells is their differentiation down the Th1 pathway (Ref. 136). Blockade of the CD40-CD154 interaction by anti-CD154 mAb has been shown to prevent rejection of non-ocular solid organ allografts, such as cardiac, renal, pancreatic islet, and skin grafts (Refs 137, 138, 139). Similarly, systemic treatment with anti-CD154 mAb promotes universal acceptance of corneal transplants, regardless of the degree of allodisparity or preoperative risk (Ref. 39).

Overexpression of Th2 cytokines

As described above, the rejection of orthotopic corneal allografts is principally a consequence of the actions of CD4⁺ T cells of the Th1 type, which secrete IFN- γ and IL-2. However, Th1 cells are cross-regulated by CD4⁺ T cells of the Th2 type, which secrete IL-4 and IL-10. The cytokines produced by Th2 cells suppress the activation and release of cytokines from Th1 cells, thereby limiting the ability of the latter cells to mediate immune responses such as DTH

(Ref. 140). When the immune system of adult mice is biased towards the Th2 response by immunisation with keyhole limpet haemocyanin (KLH) and incomplete Freund's adjuvant (IFA), the mice accept subsequent orthotopic corneal allografts at a higher rate than do normal mice. Moreover, the Th2-biased mice fail to acquire donor-specific, allodestructive CD4⁺ T cells that secrete IFN- γ and mediate DTH (Ref. 141). Consistently, transfection with the Th2 cytokine IL-4 of donor corneal epithelium prolongs corneal graft survival in comparison with controls (Ref. 135).

Prevention of corneal graft rejection by suppressing the efferent arm of alloimmunity

Inhibition of adhesion molecules

Graft invasion by recipient effector cells is mediated by cell adhesion molecules that are detected readily at sites of corneal immune inflammation (Refs 142, 143, 144). Systemic treatment of mice with mAbs to intercellular adhesion molecule 1 (ICAM-1), leukocyte function-associated antigen 1 (LFA-1) or very late antigen 4 (VLA-4) has shown promising results in enhancing corneal allograft survival (Refs 145, 146, 147, 148). The prolonged graft survival is associated with suppressed levels of the Th1 cytokines IFN- γ and IL-2 in treated hosts (Ref. 149). However, two studies have indicated that LFA-1 and ICAM-1 are involved in recipient sensitisation to alloantigens rather than in the allodestructive effector phase (Refs 95, 147).

Reduction of corneal neovascularisation

Neovascularisation is a ubiquitous element of corneal pathology that can accompany a vast array of infectious, inflammatory, traumatic and toxic insults (Refs 53, 150, 151). It has been shown in both human (Ref. 152) and mouse (Ref. 76) settings that corneal transplantation alone can induce neovascularisation. Because postkeratoplasty corneal neovascularisation likely facilitates the recruitment of immune cells, and therefore the expression of immune and inflammatory responses in the graft site, reduction of this process (angiostasis) might improve the outcome of corneal transplantation. Topically neutralising the activity of vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF), a potent angiogenic cytokine (Ref. 153), prolongs corneal allograft

survival and is associated with suppressed transplantation-induced corneal neovascularisation and reduced infiltrating cells in the grafts (Ref. 154).

Prevention of corneal graft rejection by inducing allospecific tolerance

Induction of allospecific ACAID

ACAID is a tolerogenic form of immunity that is induced in response to intraocular antigens and that leads to a selective and adoptively transferable suppression of antigen-specific DTH in the periphery (Ref. 15). ACAID has been elicited by a wide range of different types of antigens, including alloantigens. Implantation of allogeneic spleen (Refs 35, 155, 156), peritoneal exudate cells (Ref. 157), corneal epithelial and endothelial cells (Ref. 156), or segments of allogeneic corneal tissue (Ref. 158) into the AC of mouse eyes induces ACAID. Recipients of these cells or fragments fail to develop donor-specific DTH. More importantly, induction of donor-specific ACAID by these donor cells effectively prolongs the survival of subsequent orthotopic corneal grafts (Refs 35, 155, 156, 157). Accordingly, implantation of fragments of allogeneic corneal tissue in the AC of the host eye (which is capable of efficiently inducing ACAID) reduces the risk of rejection in subsequent orthotopic corneal allografts (Refs 156, 159).

Oral tolerance

Oral antigen administration is an effective tolerising regimen for desensitising previously immunised hosts (Ref. 160) and for downregulating the immune response to a variety of antigens, including alloantigens (Refs 161, 162). Oral administration of cultured corneal epithelial and endothelial cells obtained from donors results in a 50% reduction in graft rejection in mice (Refs 44, 163). This graft enhancement can be augmented by conjugating the oral cell inoculum with the nontoxic B subunit of the mucosal adjuvant cholera toxin (Ref. 164). Importantly, orally induced graft enhancement is alloantigen specific, and third-party corneal allografts (donor corneal tissue obtained from mice that are of a different strain from both the immunised recipients and the donors used for preparing the corneal cells for immunisation) are not affected by oral antigen administration (Ref. 165).

Corneal xenotransplantation

General concepts of xenotransplantation

Xenogeneic transplantation is the transplantation of tissues from a member of one species to that of another. Potential xenogeneic donors can be subdivided into 'discordant' donors, against whose tissues the recipient possesses pre-formed xenoreactive natural antibodies (NABs), and 'concordant' donors, against whose tissues such NABs are absent (Ref. 166). Primate species concordant with human recipients are considered unlikely candidates as donors of xenogeneic tissues for a variety of practical and ethical reasons. The possibility of using discordant tissue sources for xenotransplantation is, then, of considerable interest (Refs 167, 168).

Xenografts are always rejected faster than allografts when similar types of tissues are transplanted under similar circumstances. The barriers to success of xenografts significantly exceed the barriers to success of allografts. Xenotransplantation of vascularised organs, such as kidney and heart, in discordant donor-host combinations invariably results in hyperacute antibody-mediated rejection within minutes or hours. The rapidity of rejection is generally thought to be mediated by pre-existing NABs via activation of complement components (Refs 169, 170).

Immunity of corneal xenotransplants

Although keratoplasty is readily available in the USA and in certain other regions of the developed world, the need for human donor corneas far exceeds supply on a worldwide scale (Ref. 171). In addressing this shortage, animal cornea might be a substitute. Because the cornea is an immune-privileged tissue, its fate as a xenograft might be different from, and perhaps even better than, that of other types of solid tissue xenografts. Fragments of guinea pig cornea implanted in the AC (an immune-privileged site) of normal mouse eyes survive for prolonged intervals of time, and many grafts retain clarity and display little evidence of immune rejection during an 8-week observation period (Ref. 172). Xenogeneic antigens expressed on corneal fragments in the AC of mouse eyes evoke no change in recipient humoral immune status and induce mild guinea-pig-specific DTH (Ref. 173). These findings indicate that immune privilege in the AC is extended to xenogeneic corneal tissue.

Although the fate of intracameral (contained in the AC) corneal xenografts is good, xenografts of this type survive poorly when placed orthotopically in eyes of normal rats or mice. Guinea pig to rat orthotopic xenografts have been reported to survive for relatively short periods (3–8 days) (Refs 174, 175, 176). The presence of anti-donor pre-formed antibodies to leukocytes in all recipients and the deposition of rat IgG2a, IgG1 and IgM on the grafts are consistent with early antibody- and complement-mediated damage. The early graft damage is followed at 7–14 days by evidence of a cell-mediated response, involving the infiltration of substantial numbers of activated CD4⁺ cells and fewer CD8⁺ cells, macrophages and granulocytes into the graft, as well as the prominent infiltration of eosinophils at the host-graft interface (Refs 175, 176). In addition to immune effector mechanisms, experimental xenotransplantation has been complicated by technical difficulties of grafting corneas among different species (size and thickness disparity), so that loss of corneal xenografts in some cases results from experimental rather than immune variables.

Taken together, studies on models of guinea pig to mouse orthotopic transplantation do not suggest an important antibody-mediated rejection mechanism. Guinea pig to mouse orthotopic xenografts are rejected acutely (between 8 and 16 days), but not hyperacutely (less than 3 days), in eyes of normal BALB/c and C57BL/c mice (Ref. 177). Since the cornea is an avascular tissue, hyperacute rejection, which results from vascular occlusion and is commonly seen in vascularised solid organ xenografts, is not seen in corneal xenografts. The survival of cornea xenografts in mice genetically deficient both in B cells and antibody formation is virtually identical to that in wild-type mice. However, acute rejection is avoided by guinea pig grafts placed in the eyes of CD4-knockout mice, and reconstitution of these mice with normal CD4⁺ T cells restores the capacity for rejection. Therefore, the experimental evidence in murine xenotransplantation indicates that CD4⁺ T cells, rather than antibodies, are the primary mediators of acute corneal xenograft rejection in the discordant combination with mice as recipients.

Conclusions

Studies on the immunobiology of corneal xenografts are still at an early stage. The

differential fate of intracameral versus orthotopic corneal xenografts, the speed of rejection of orthotopic corneal xenografts, and the involvement of humoral and/or cell-mediated immune responses in corneal xenograft rejection are general worthy areas for further investigation. Exploiting these areas might lead to knowledge that can improve the fate of orthotopic corneal xenografts, such that these could be offered as an alternative to allotransplantation to patients in need of corneal grafts.

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Further reading, resources and contacts

The American Academy of Ophthalmology organises ophthalmic education, meetings and advocacy.
<http://www.eyenet.org/>

The Eye Bank Association of America procures and distributes eyes for corneal transplantation, and offers education and research programmes.

<http://www.restoresight.org/>

The Schepens Eye Research Institute website introduces research projects in the authors' laboratory

<http://www.eri.harvard.edu/>

Features associated with this article

Figures

Figure 1. Diagrammatic section of the eyeball, showing a close-up of the anterior segment (fig001rdb).

Figure 2. Schematic diagram of the 'afferent' and 'efferent' arms of corneal alloimmunity (fig002rdb).

Figure 3. The direct and indirect pathways of allosensitisation (fig003rdb).

Figure 4. Processes that lead to a cell-mediated immune response against a corneal graft (fig004rdb).

Tables

Table 1. Potential strategies for immune modulation to promote corneal transplant survival (tab001rdb).

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