

Fattori di patogenesi e di protezione: la risposta immune

Giulia Marchetti

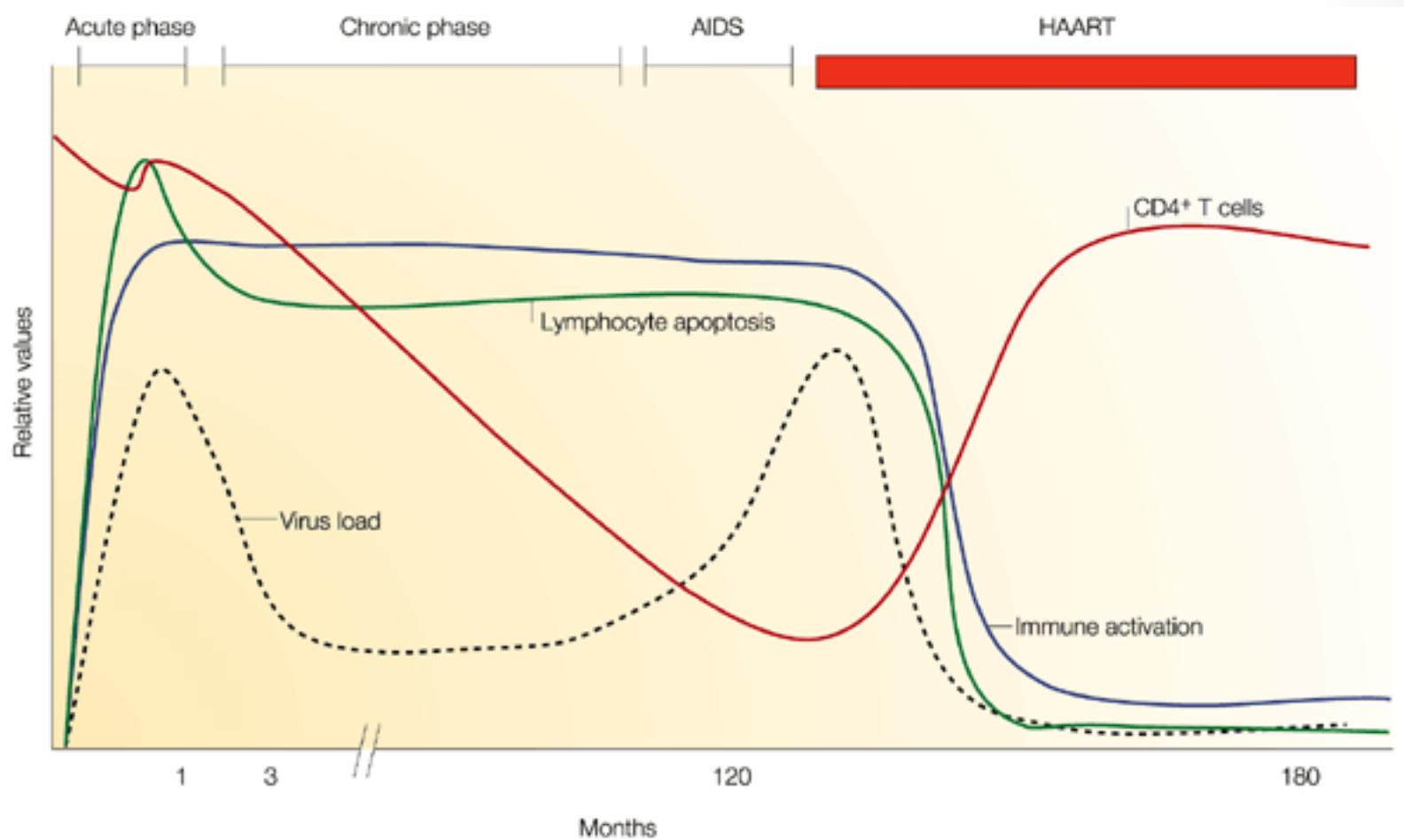
Dipartimento di Scienze della Salute, Clinica di Malattie
Infettive, Universita' degli Studi di Milano, Ospedale San Paolo

From pathogenesis
to “clinical models”
of disease
progression

Clinical “models” of disease progression

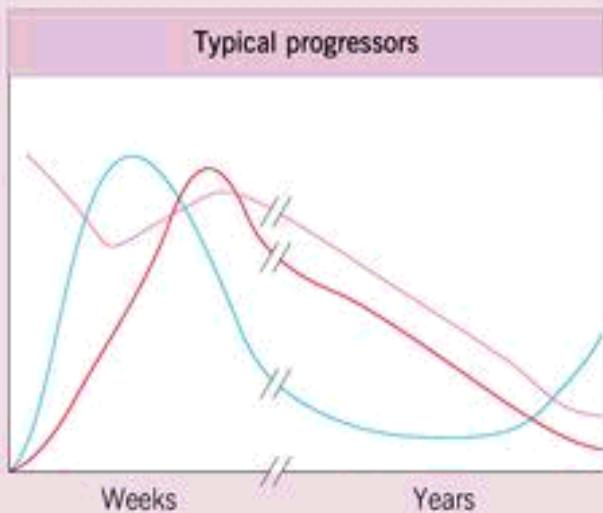
- Rapid/slow progressors
- Long-term non-progressors (LTNPs)/Elite controllers (ECs)
- Exposed yet non-infected individuals
- Animal models: natural hosts of SIV

Clinical progression of HIV

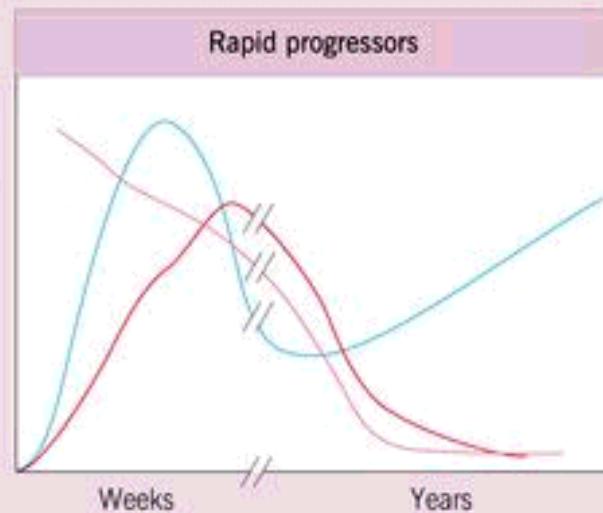


CHANGES IN VIRAL LOAD, CD4⁺ T LYMPHOCYTES AND IMMUNE RESPONSE IN THE DIFFERENT NATURAL COURSES OF HIV-1 INFECTION

Levels of viral load and immune response



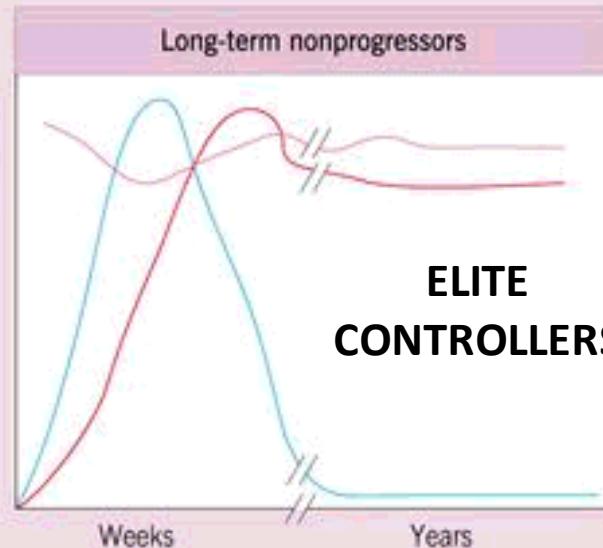
Levels of viral load and immune response



Levels of viral load and immune response



Levels of viral load and immune response



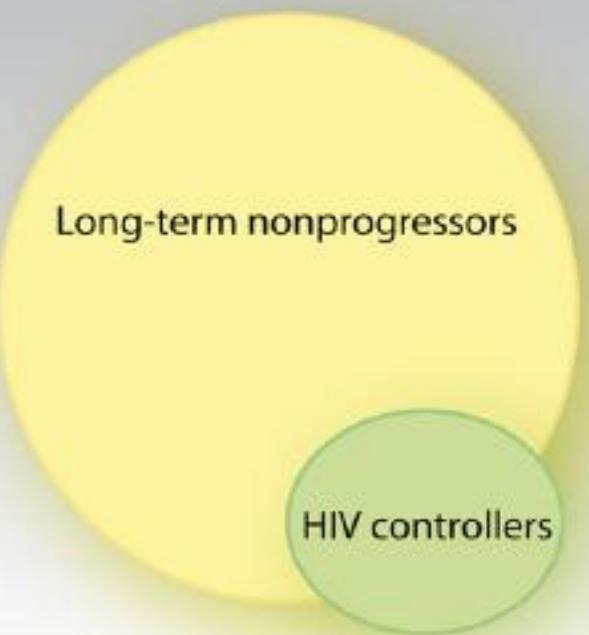
Viremia

Immune response

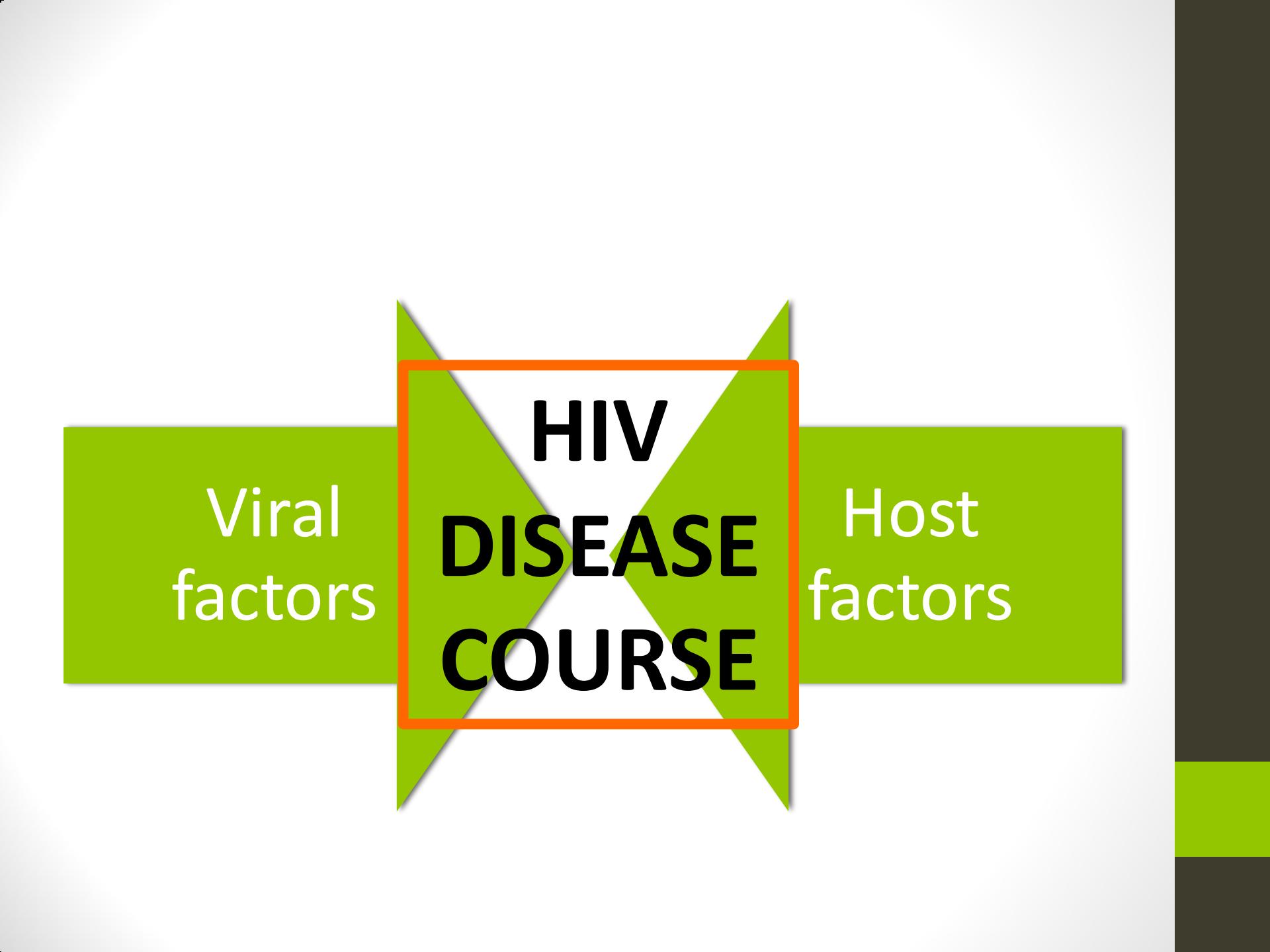
CD4⁺ T lymphocytes

Elite Controllers

- HIV seropositive
- No detectable HIV RNA (< 50 copies/mL) for > 2 years
- Antiretroviral untreated



The proportion of individuals who become elite controllers is not known, but is estimated to be ~ 1%.



A diagram illustrating the factors influencing the course of HIV disease. In the center, the words "HIV DISEASE COURSE" are written in large, bold, black capital letters, enclosed within a thick orange rectangular border. This central text is positioned between two green rectangular boxes. The left box contains the text "Viral factors" in white capital letters. The right box contains the text "Host factors" in white capital letters. The entire diagram is set against a white background.

Viral
factors

HIV
**DISEASE
COURSE**

Host
factors

Host factors

Host Factors

Cell-mediated immunity

Cytotoxic T cells

T-helper cell response

Humoral immunity

Local factors

STDs and cytokine milieu

Mucosal cytotoxic T lymphocytes
and antibodies

Dendritic cells

Chemokine receptors

CCR5-Δ32

CCR2-V64I

CCR5 promoter polymorphisms

Chemokines

SDF-1 3'α

Cytokines

Other soluble factors

Other genetic factors

HLA alleles

Effects on HIV Transmission and Disease Progression

Eliminate virions and virus-infected cells; play prominent role in initial control of viremia, slowing of disease progression, and perhaps prevention of infection

Preservation of this response may be vital to preservation of cytotoxic T lymphocyte response, and its importance provides theoretic rationale for early treatment

Role in prevention and control of disease progression is unclear

May upregulate HIV replication

Role in prevention of transmission and disease progression is unclear

Facilitate HIV infection of T cells by capturing and transporting HIV to lymph nodes and activating T cells

Homozygosity for this deletion is associated with decreased susceptibility to R5 virus infection; heterozygosity is associated with delayed progression to disease

Heterozygosity is associated with delayed progression to disease

Several genetic polymorphisms that may affect transmission or disease progression have been identified—for example, 59029-G homozygosity is associated with slower progression, and 59356-T homozygosity is associated with increased perinatal transmission

Homozygosity may be associated with delayed progression to disease

Complex interplay of stimulatory and inhibitory cytokines affects HIV replication

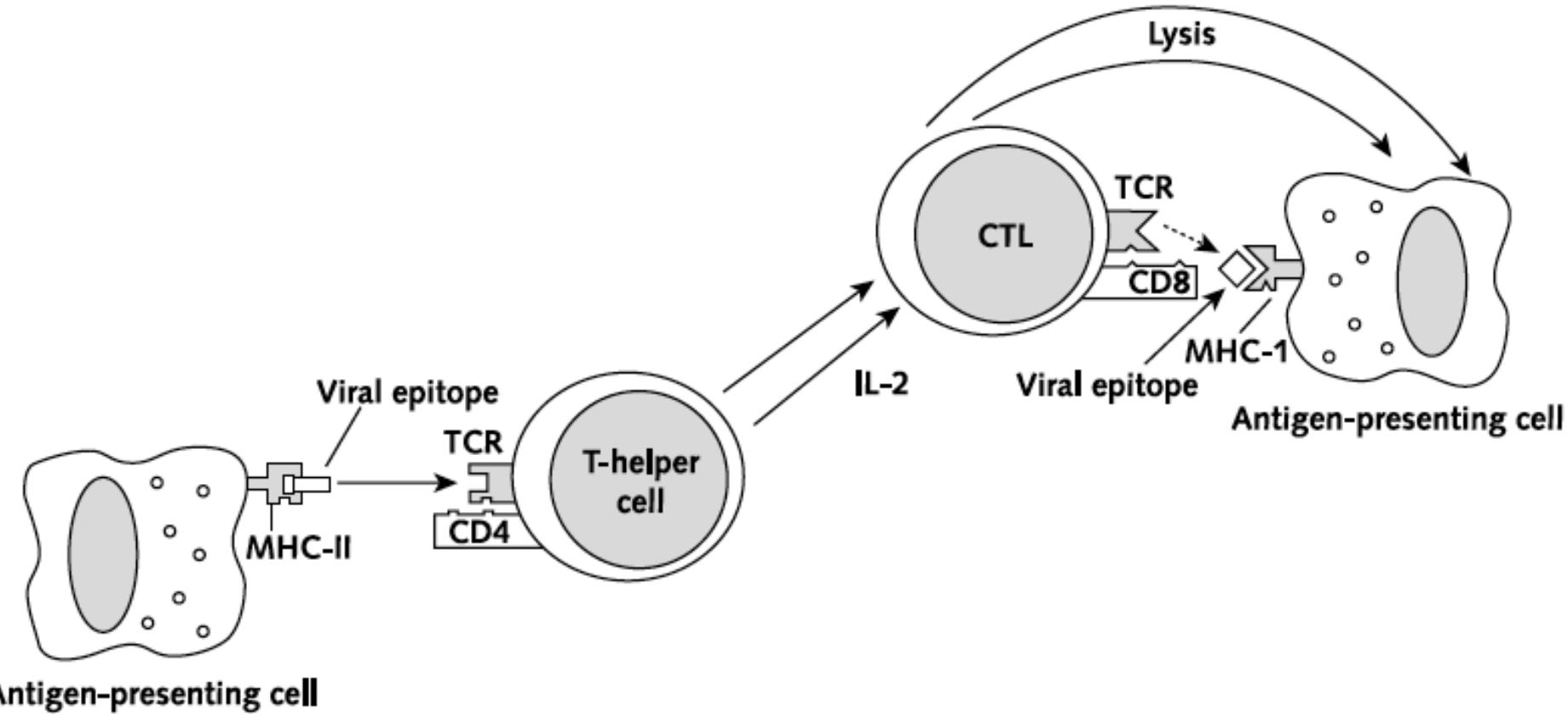
Inhibit HIV replication in a noncytotoxic manner

Certain alleles are associated with differing susceptibilities to infection and rates of disease progression

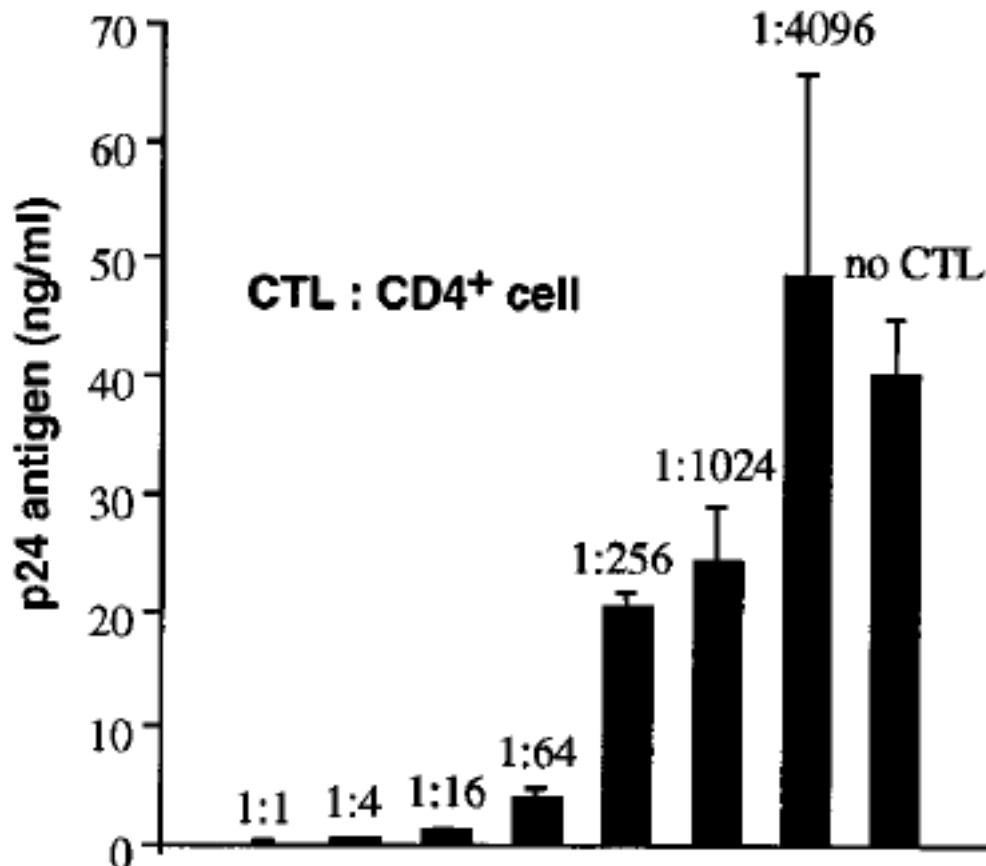
Viral factors that interact with the host to codetermine outcome

Viral Factor	Effect on HIV Transmission and Disease Progression
Escape from immune response	Under cellular and humoral immune pressure, mutations may arise in the <i>gag</i> , <i>pol</i> , and <i>env</i> genes, leading to escape from immune response
Attenuated viruses	<i>nef</i> viruses have been associated with long-term nonprogression in individual case reports and small cohorts
Tropism	Chemokine receptor use may determine tropism; progression from macrophage-tropic to T-cell–tropic viruses has been associated with increased pathogenicity and progressive disease
Subtypes	Different subtypes may have differing virulence and transmissibility

CTL response

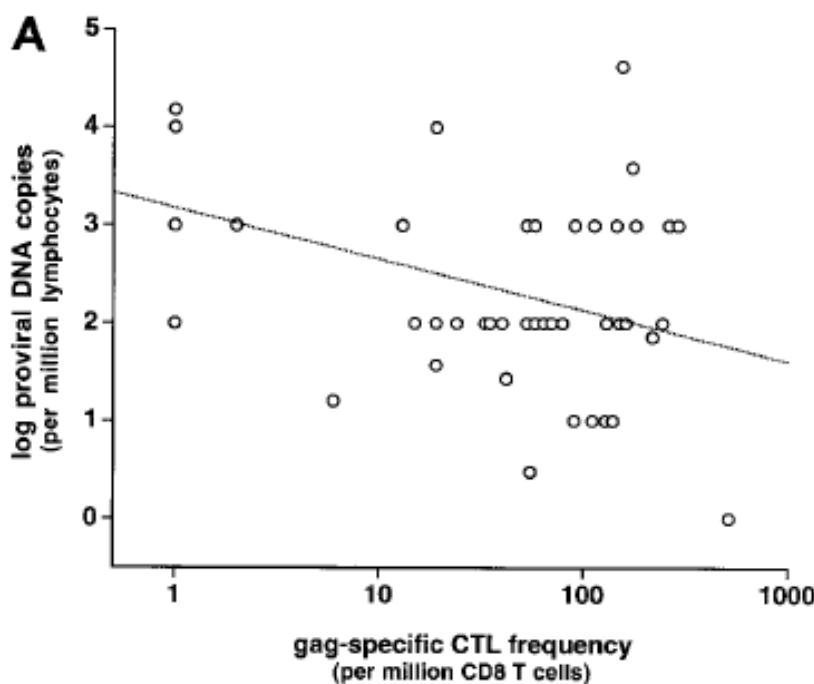


In vitro inhibition of HIV replication by CTL

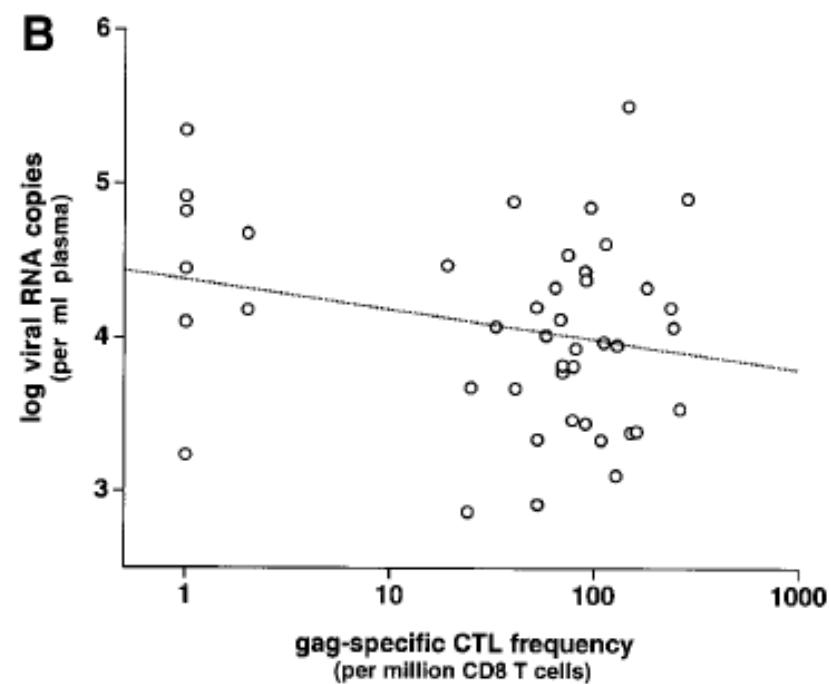


Gag-specific CTL response correlates with HIV proviral DNA

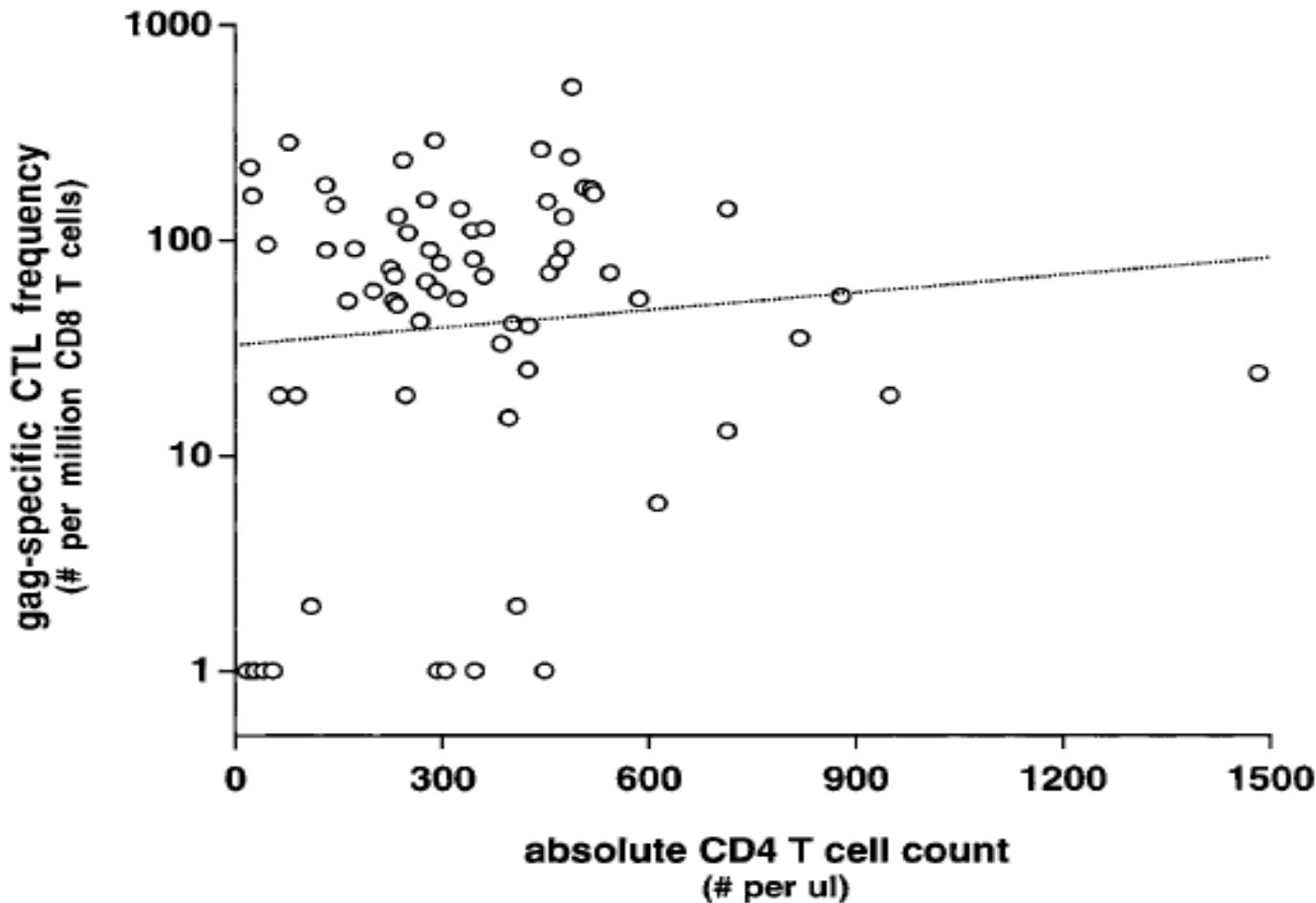
R=-.401, p=.005



R=-.241, p=.120

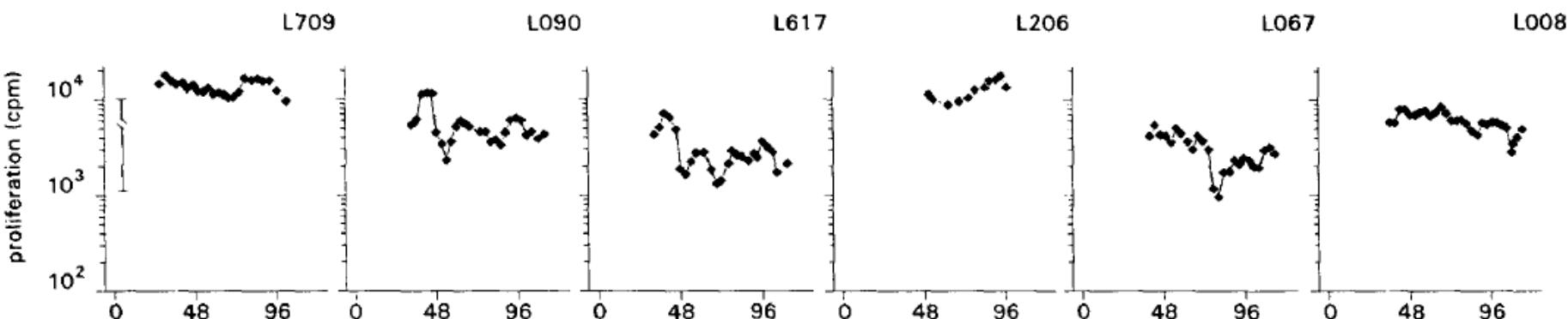


Gag-specific CTL response and CD4+ count

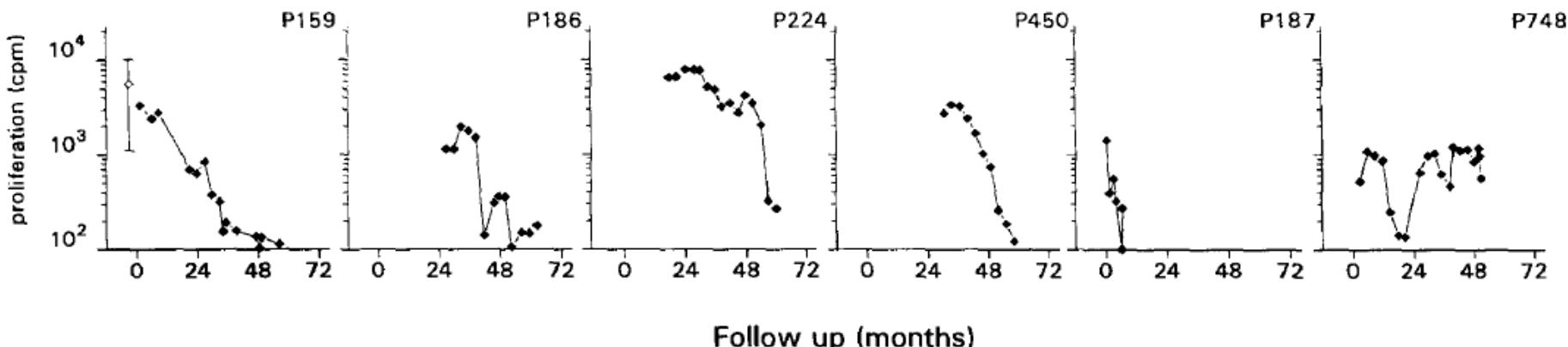


T-cell responses in progressors vs non-progressors

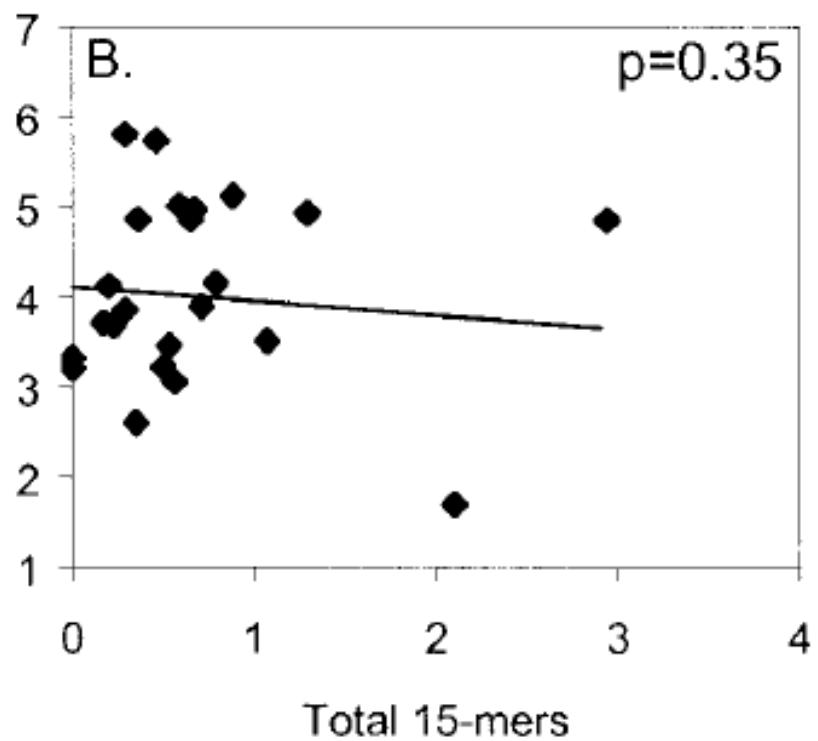
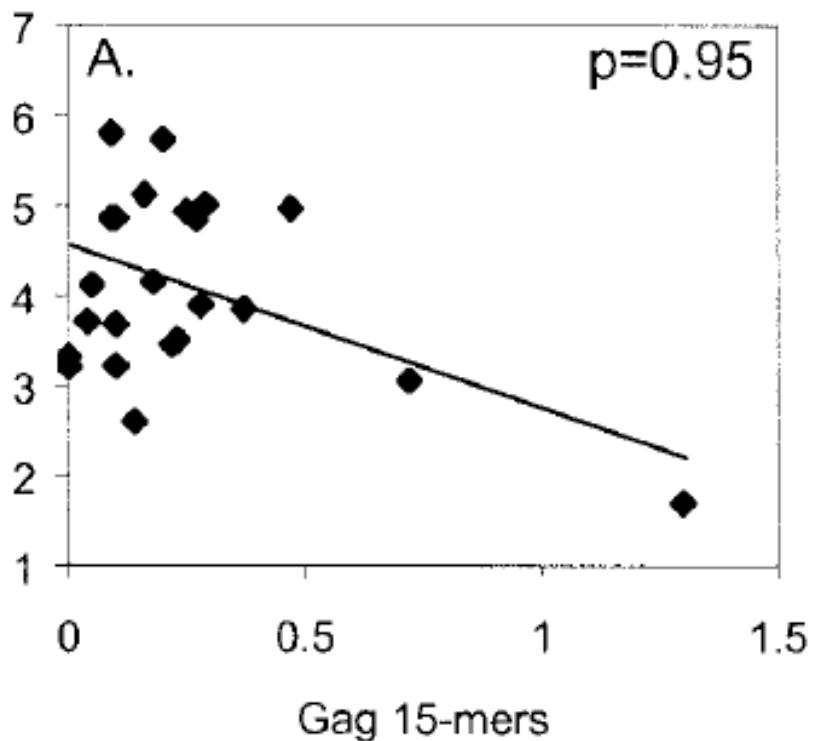
a) T-cell function in LTA



b) T-cell function in rapid progressors

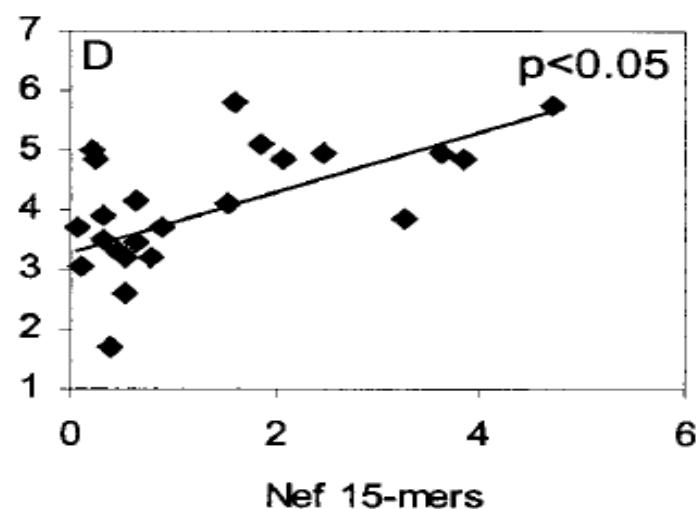
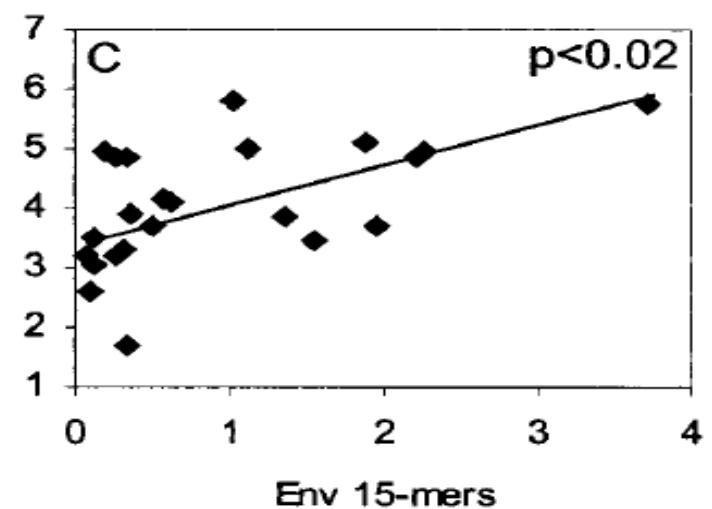
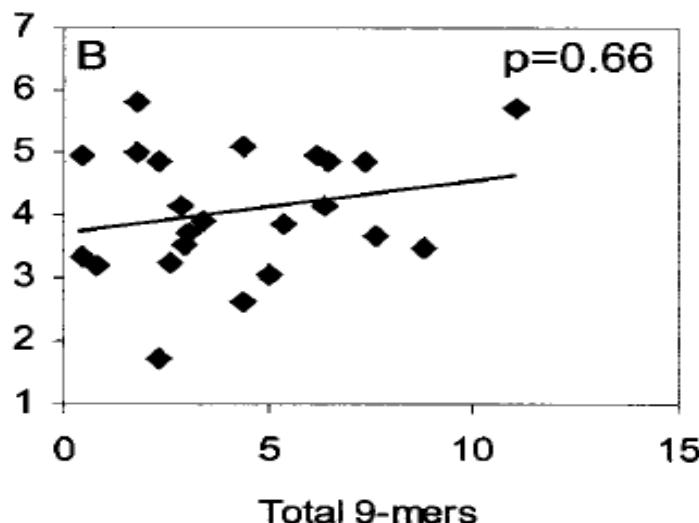
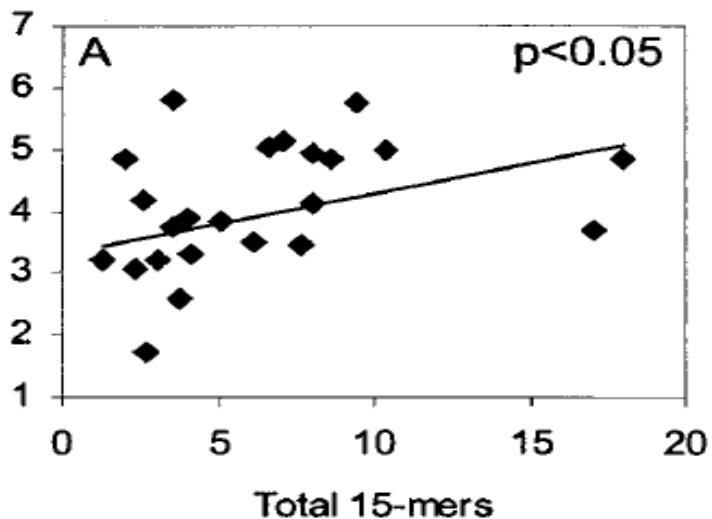


Log Viral Load



— % CD4+ IFN- γ Production —————→

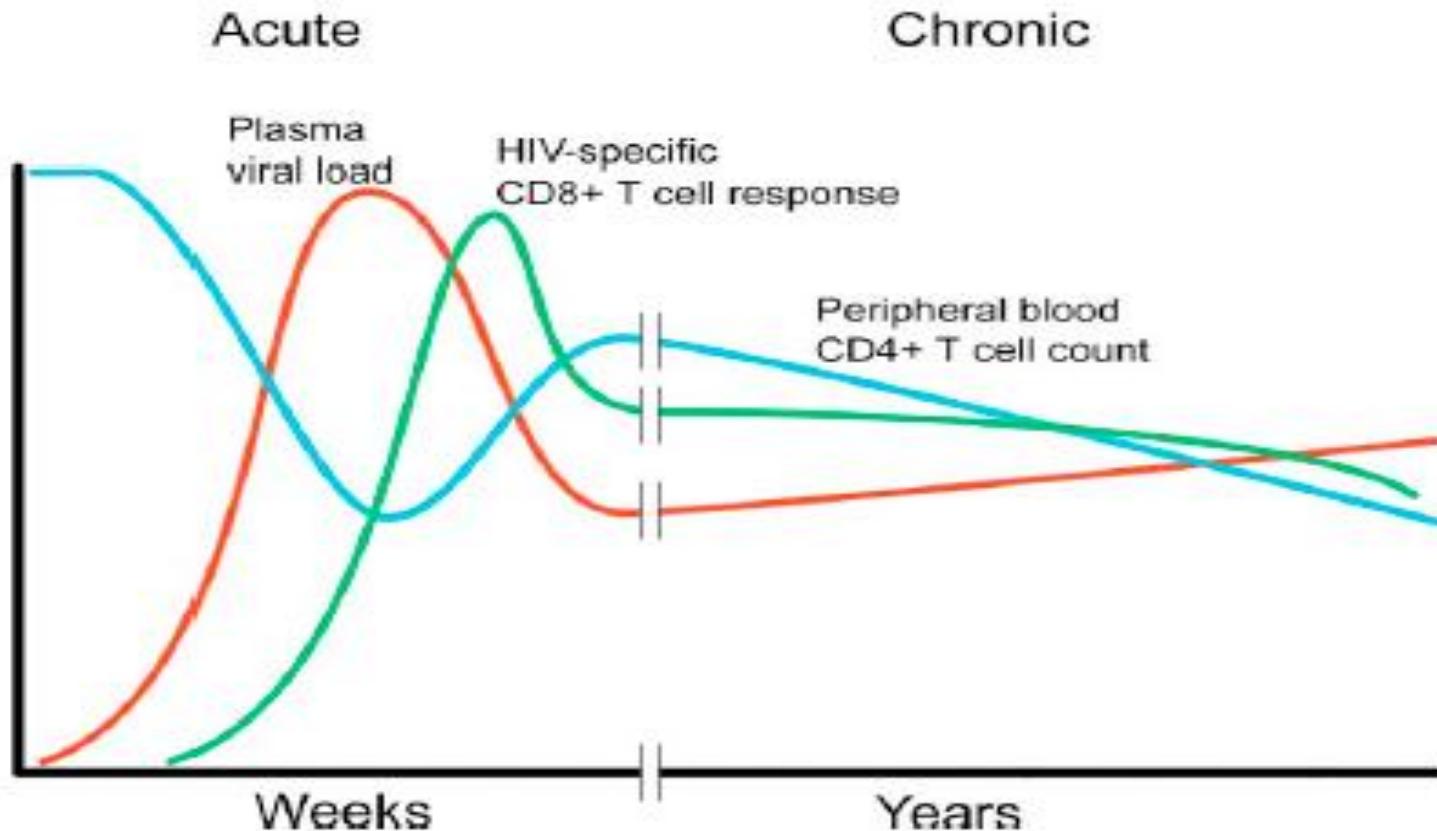
↑
Log Viral Load



% CD8+ IFN- γ Production

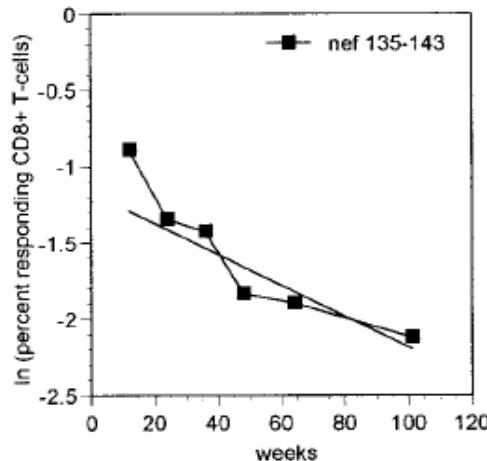
Betts et al. J Virol 2001

Persistent HIV replication in the face of vigorous CTL response

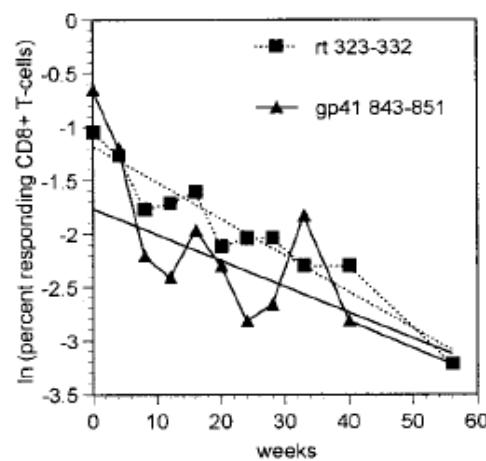


HIV viremia control by HAART reduces CTL response

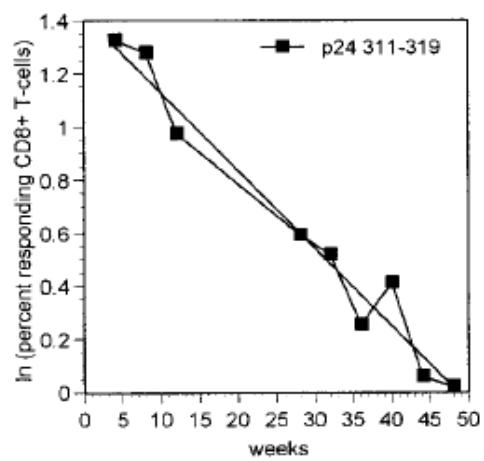
a Patient 1



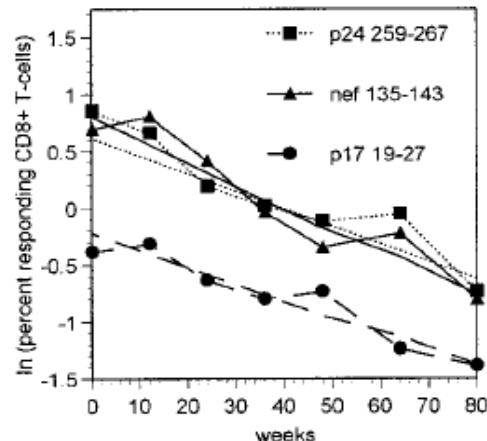
Patient 2



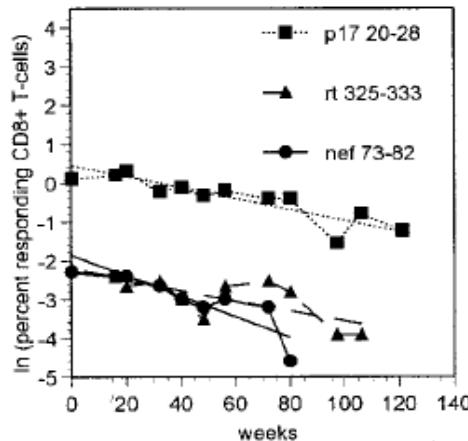
Patient 3



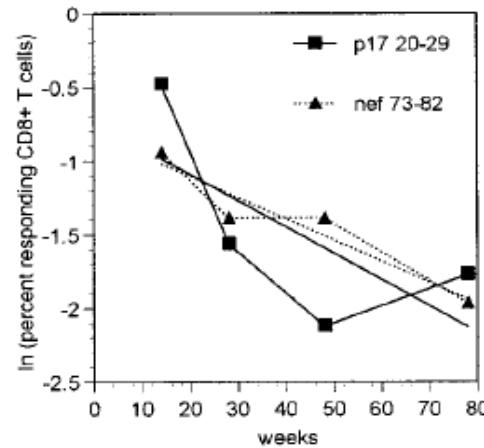
Patient 4



Patient 5



Patient 6

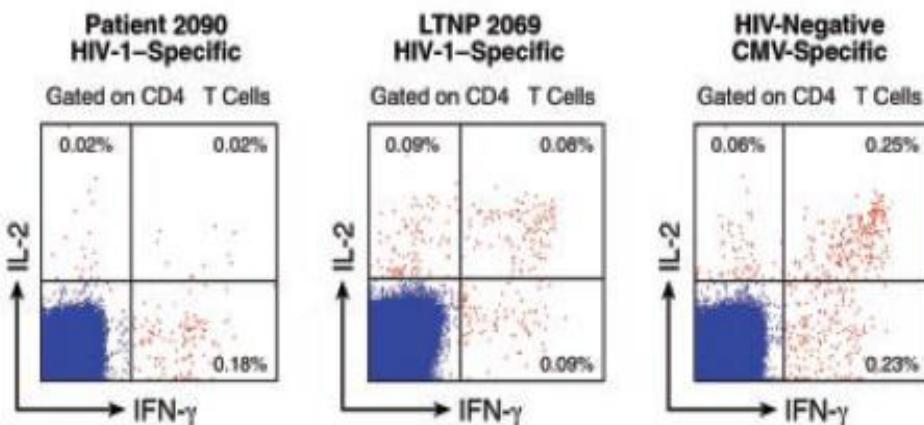


No correlation
between CD8 T-cell
response to HIV and
pathogenesis/clinical
progression

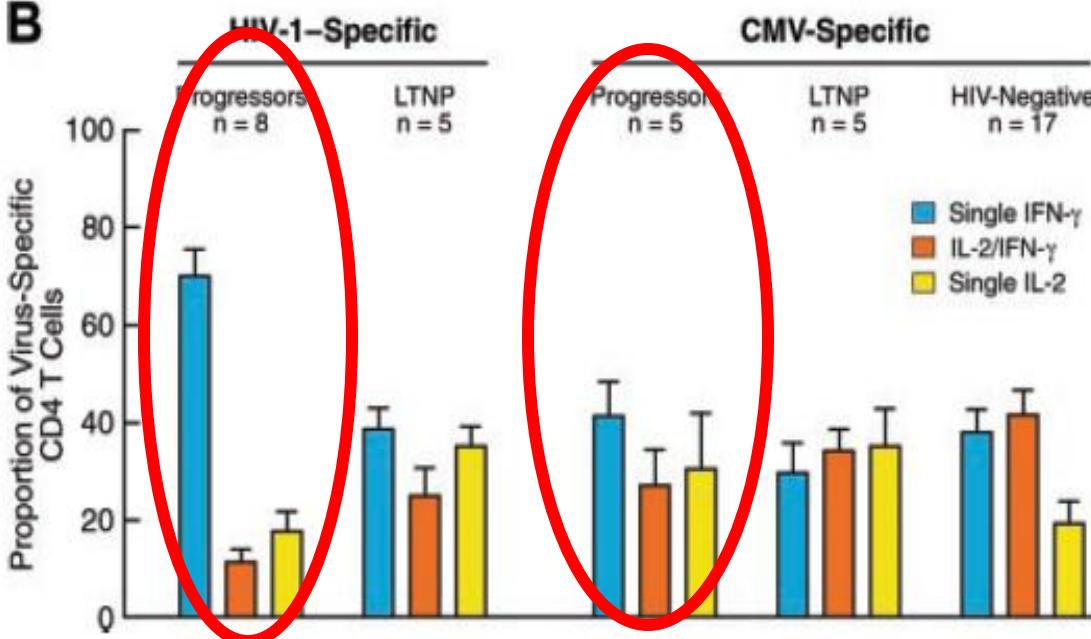
T-cell function in HIV pathogenesis

Functionally-distinct populations of HIV-specific CD4+

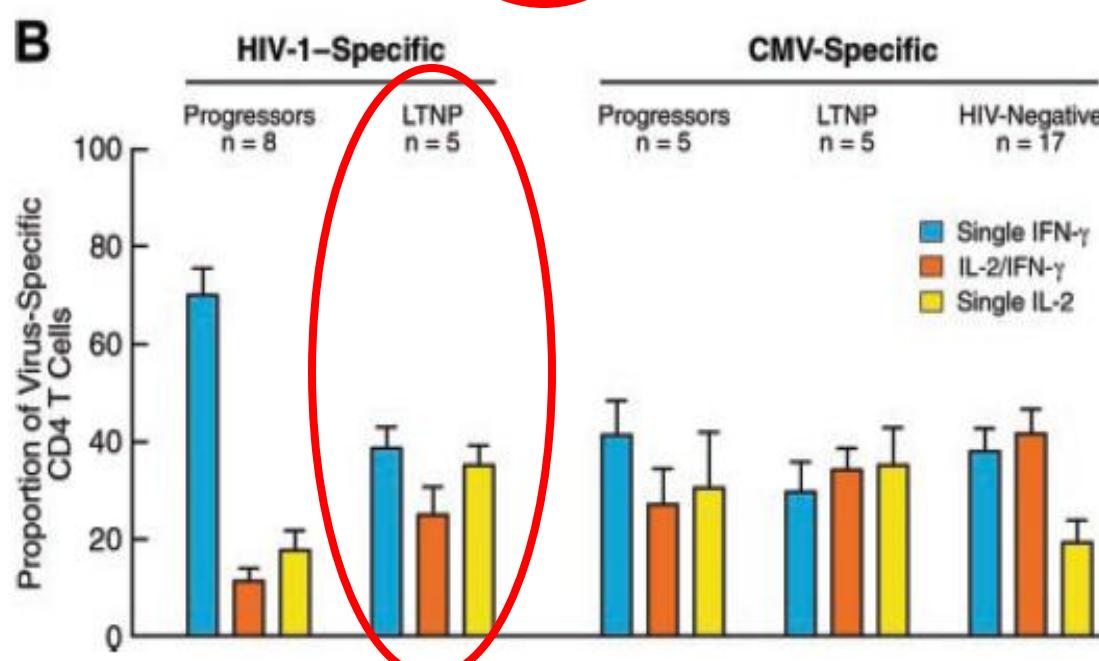
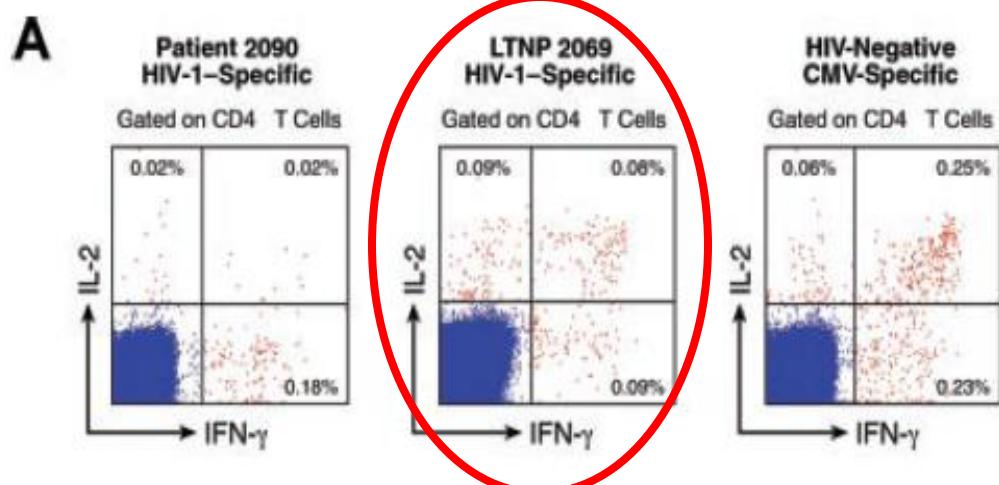
A



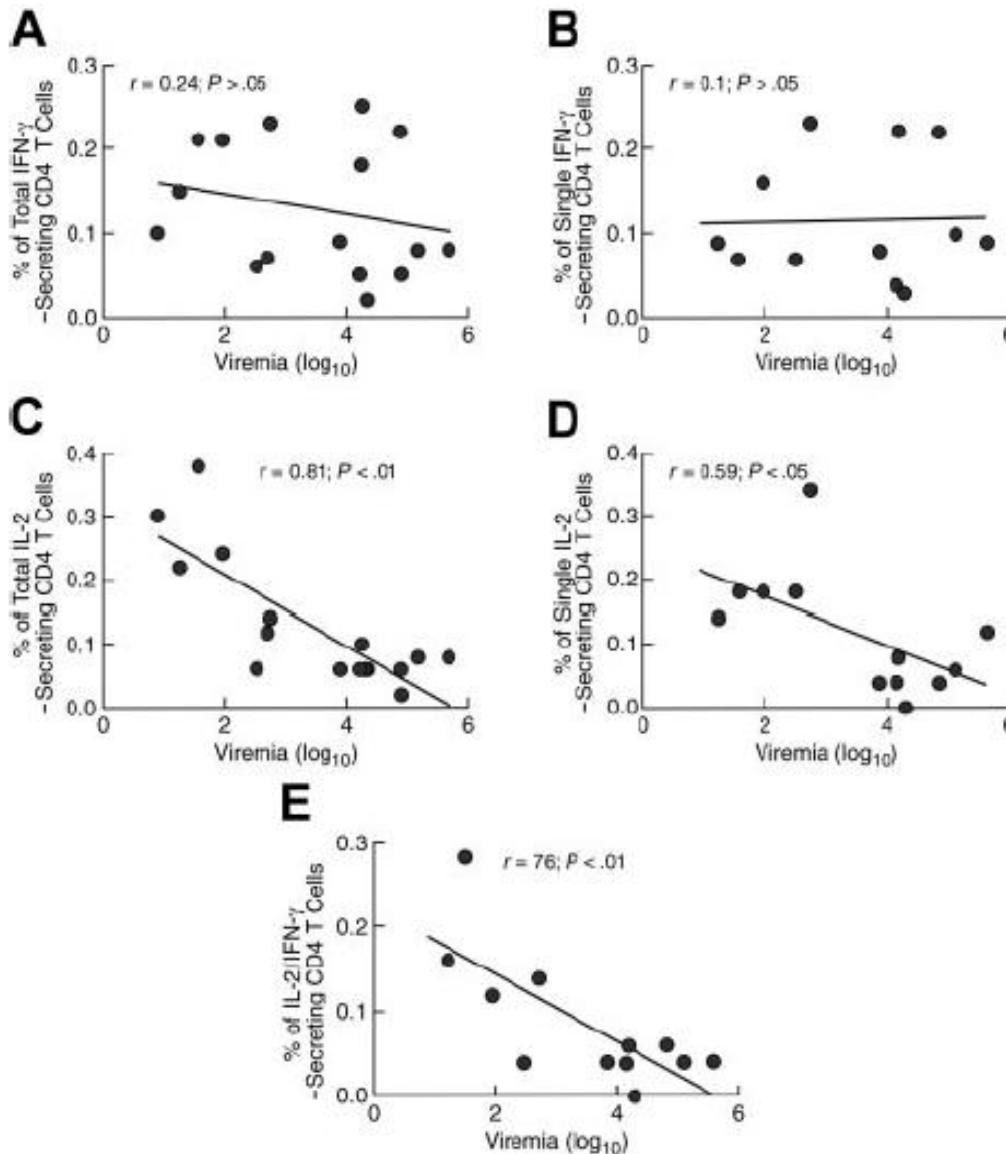
B



HIV-specific CD4+ are equally distributed within different phenotypes in LTNPs



Correlation of functionally-distinct populations of HIV-specific CD4+ and HIV RNA



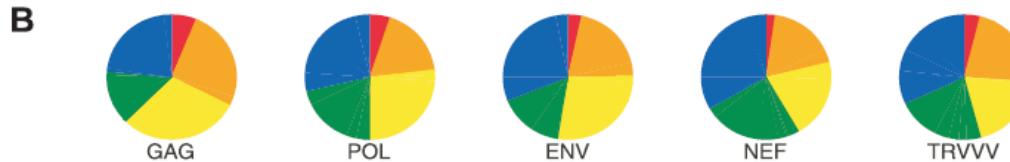
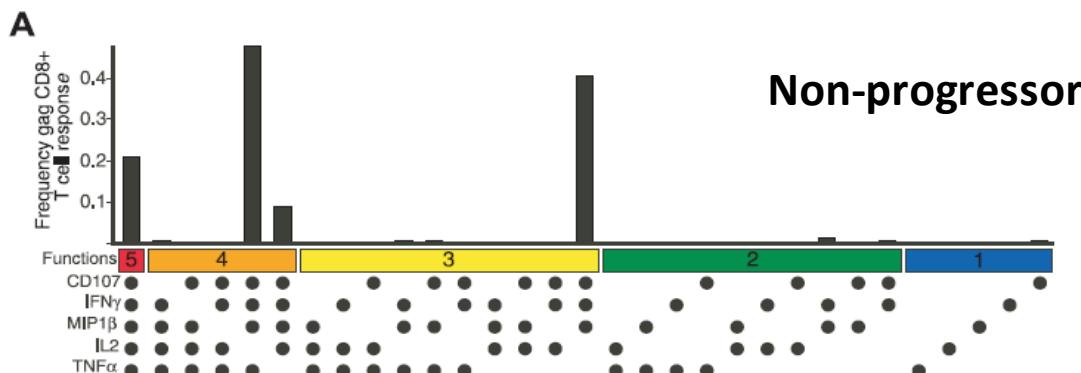
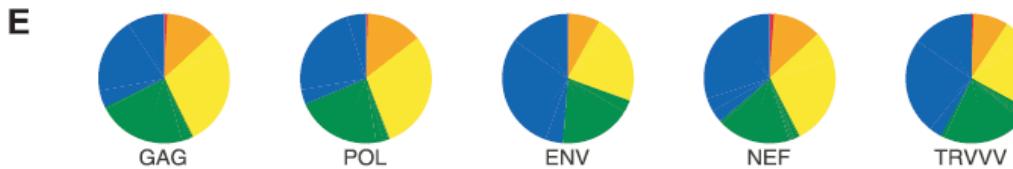
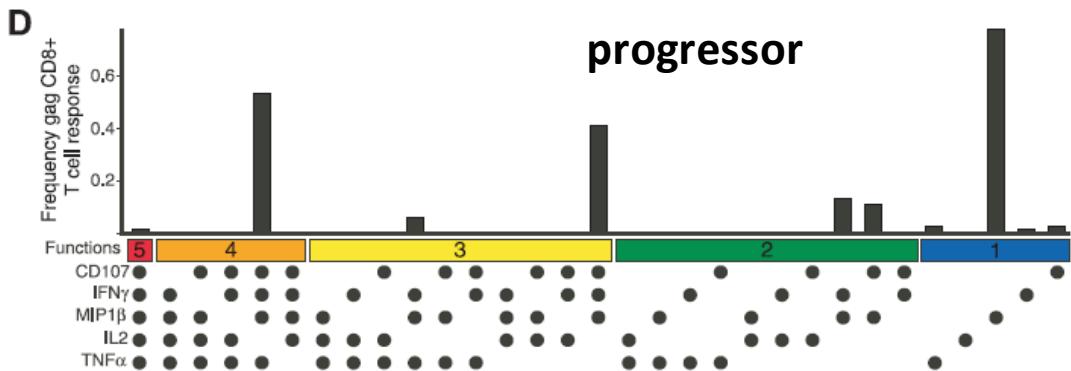
Single IL-2 response =
antigen clearance

Single IFN- γ response =
antigen persistence, high
antigen load

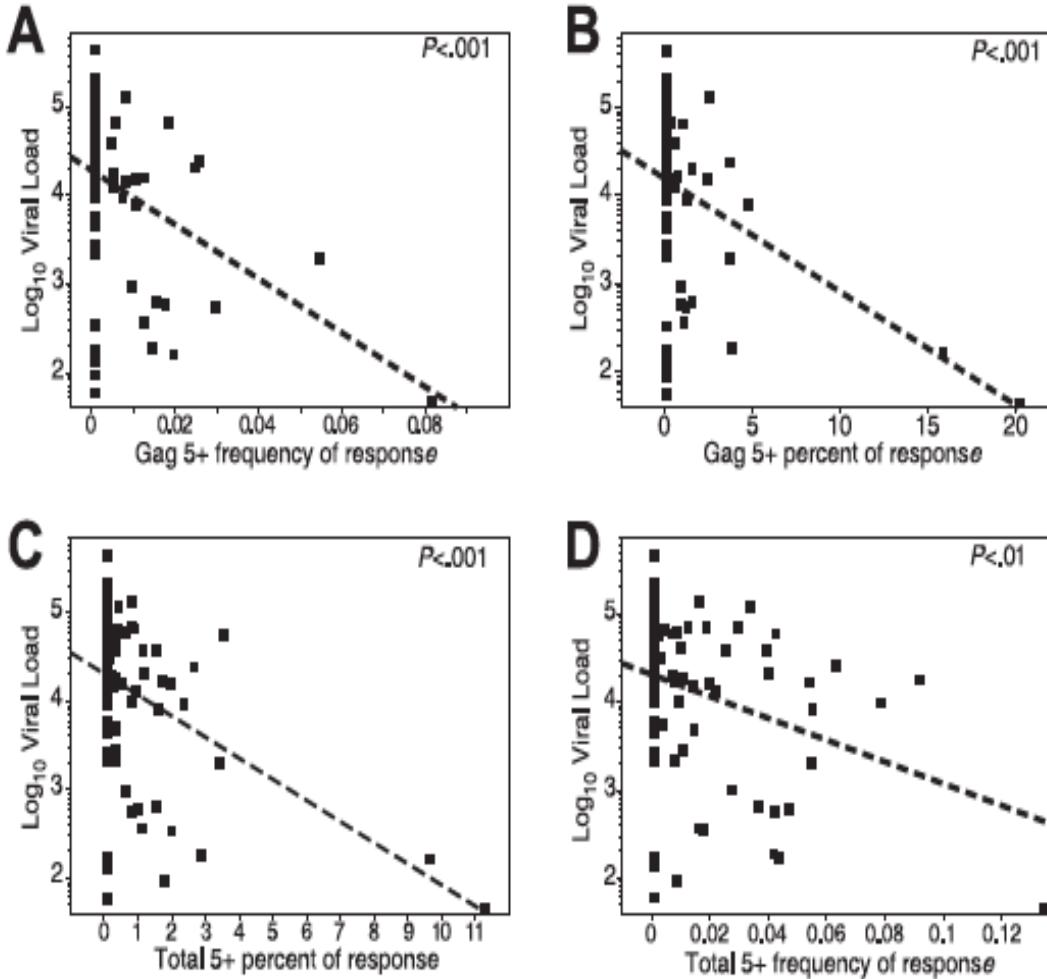
Polyfunctional IL-2/ IFN- γ
response = protracted
antigen exposure, low
antigen load

HIV-specific CD8+ functionality in HIV-infected progressors vs non-progressors

T-cell quality
measured by 5
different
function on
cell-by-cell
basis

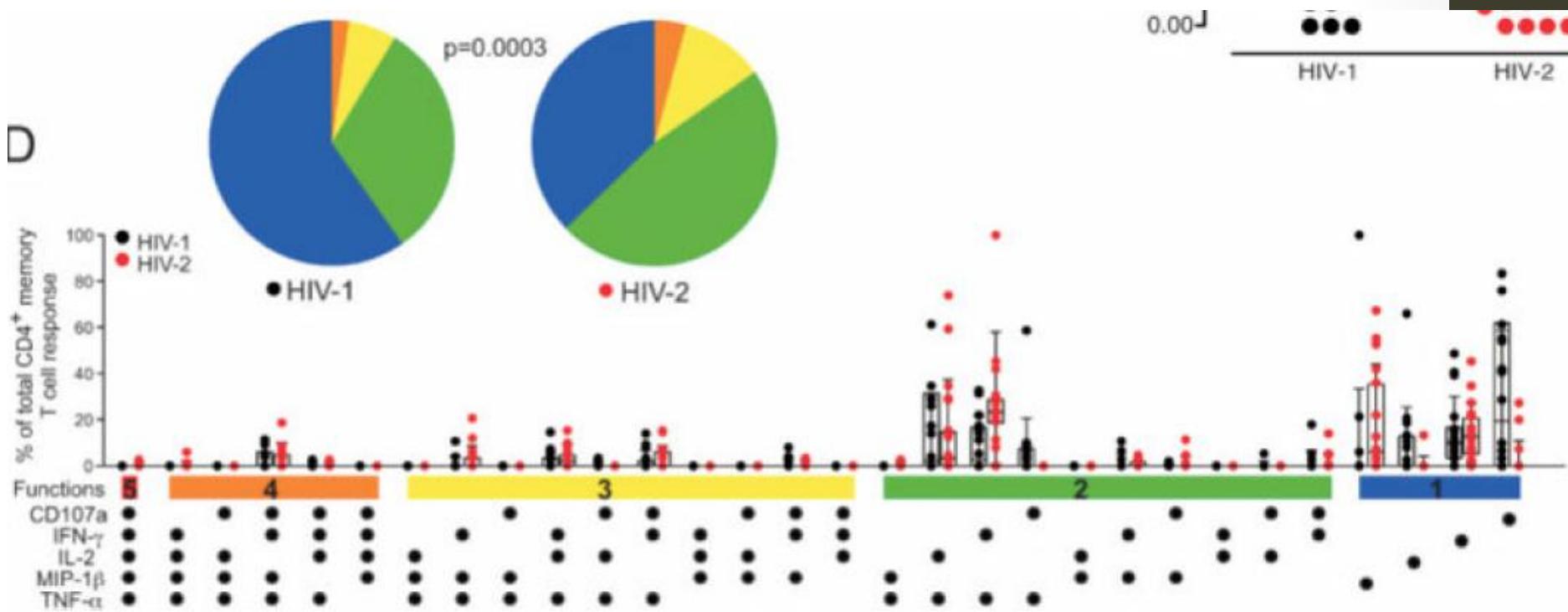


The magnitude and proportion of HIV-spec CD8 negatively relate to HIV RNA



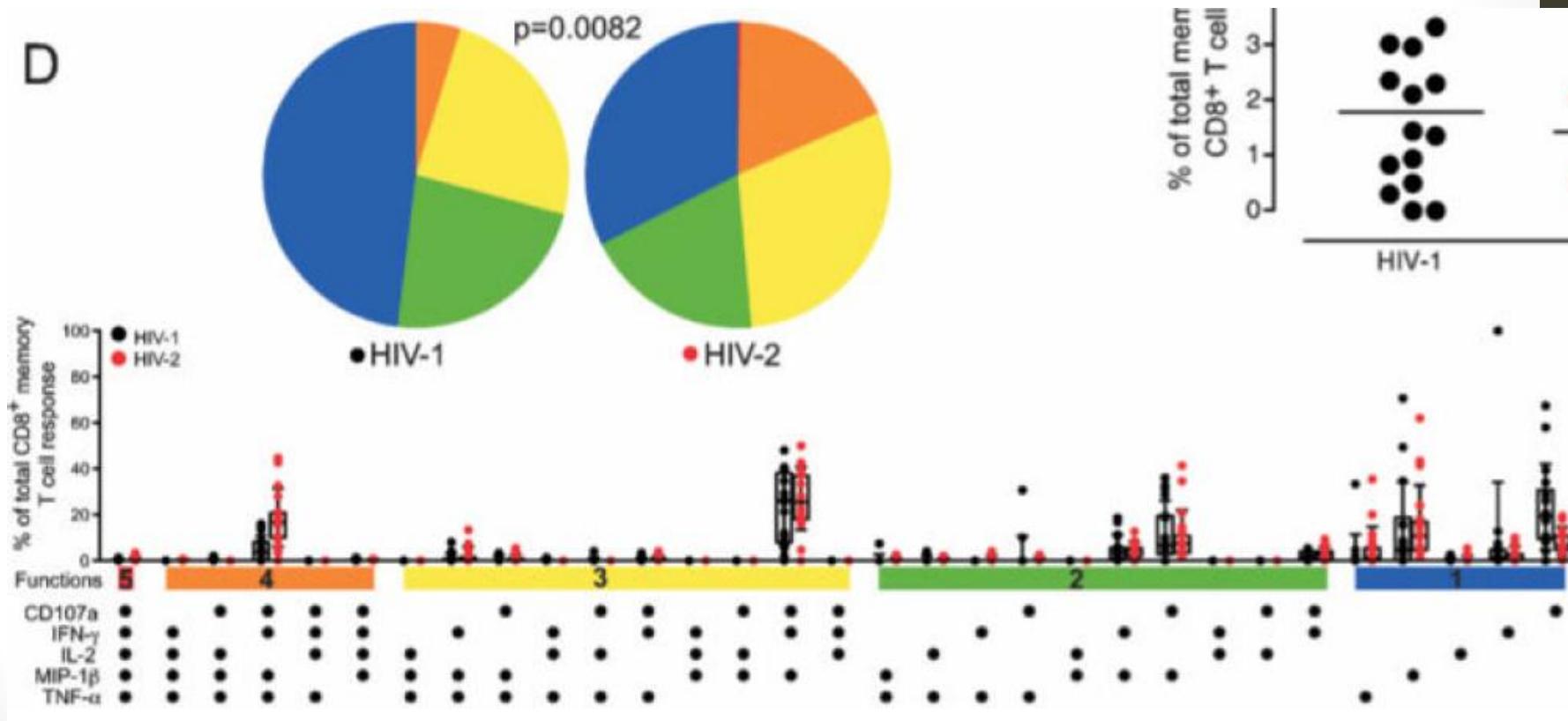
Higher CD4+ T-cell polyfunctionality in HIV-2

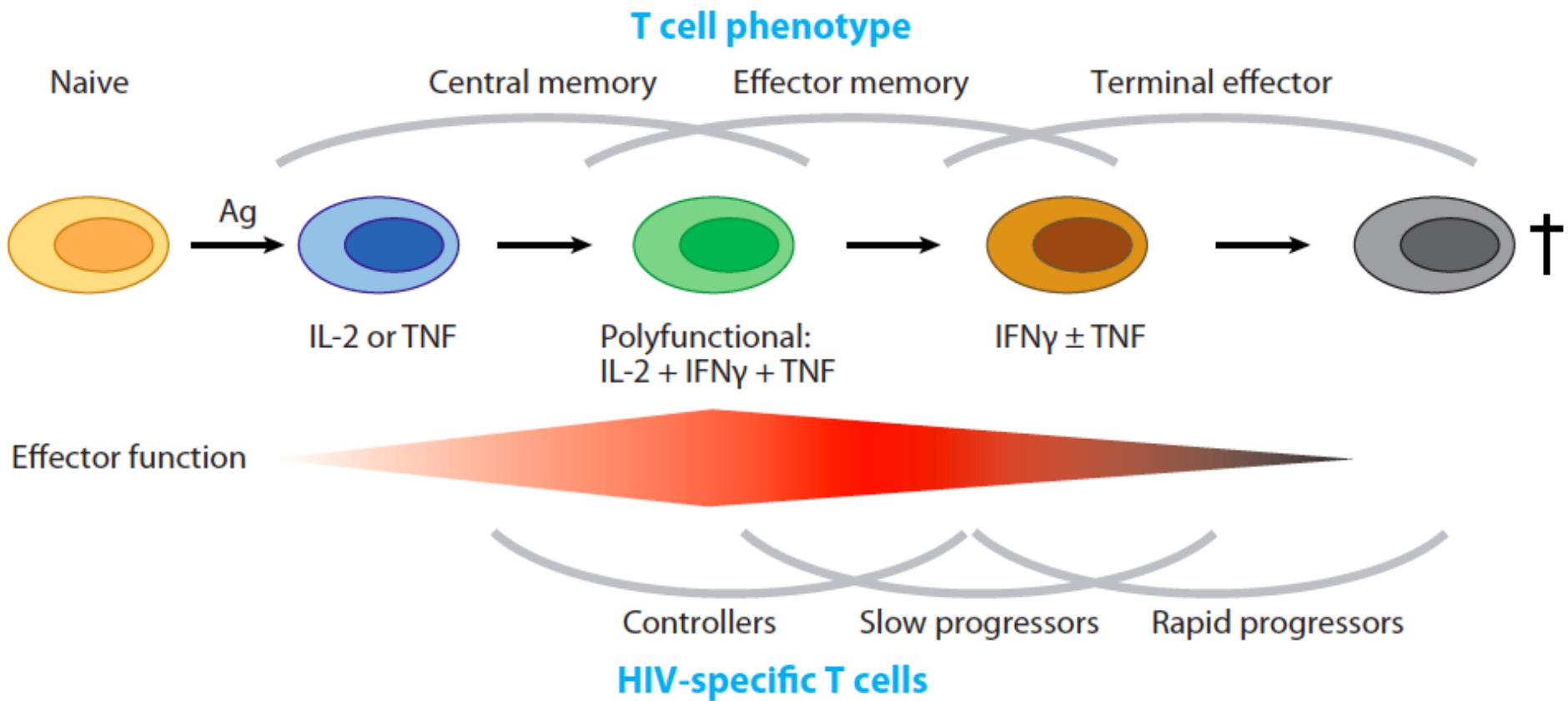
D



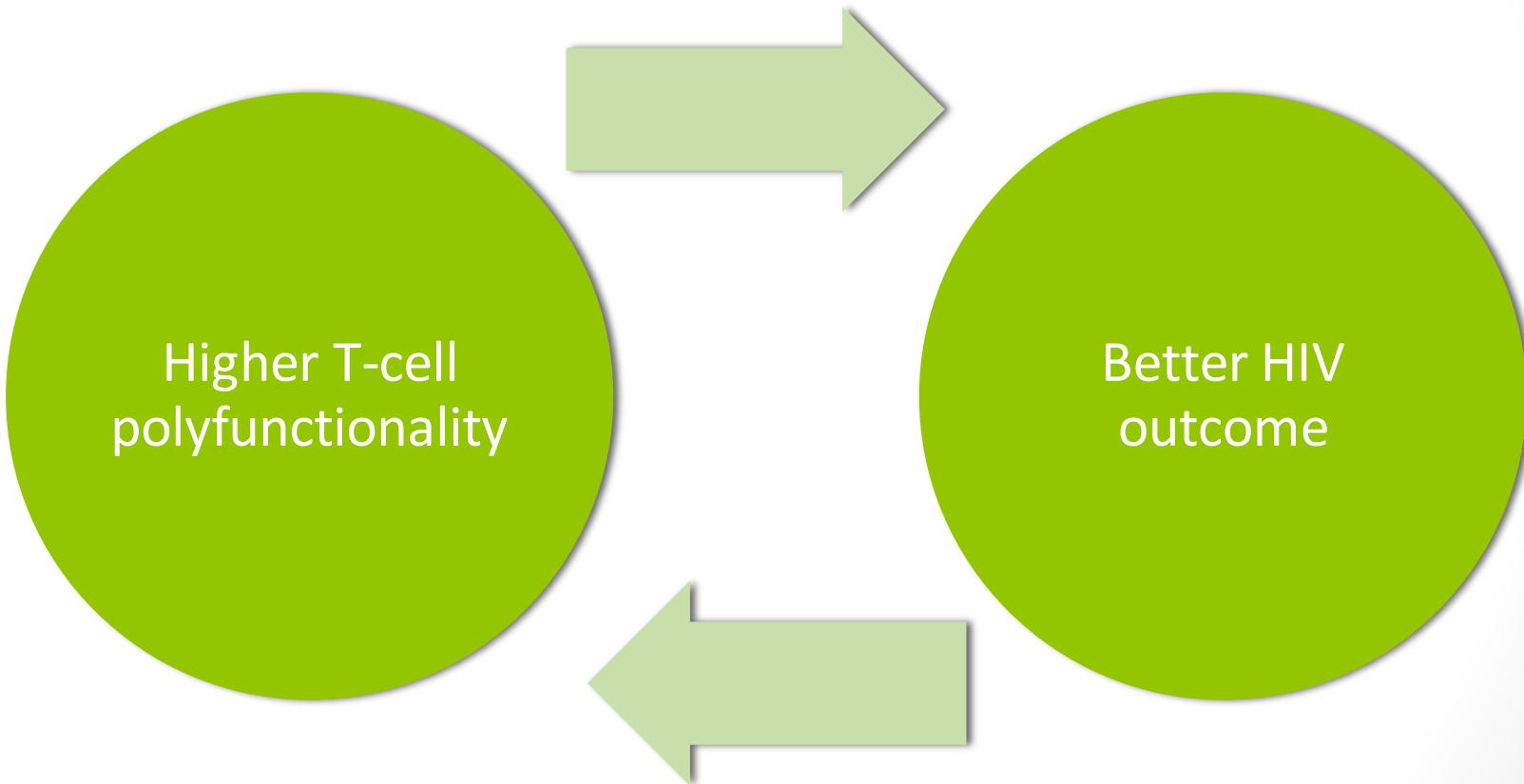
Higher CD8+ T-cell polyfunctionality in HIV-2

D





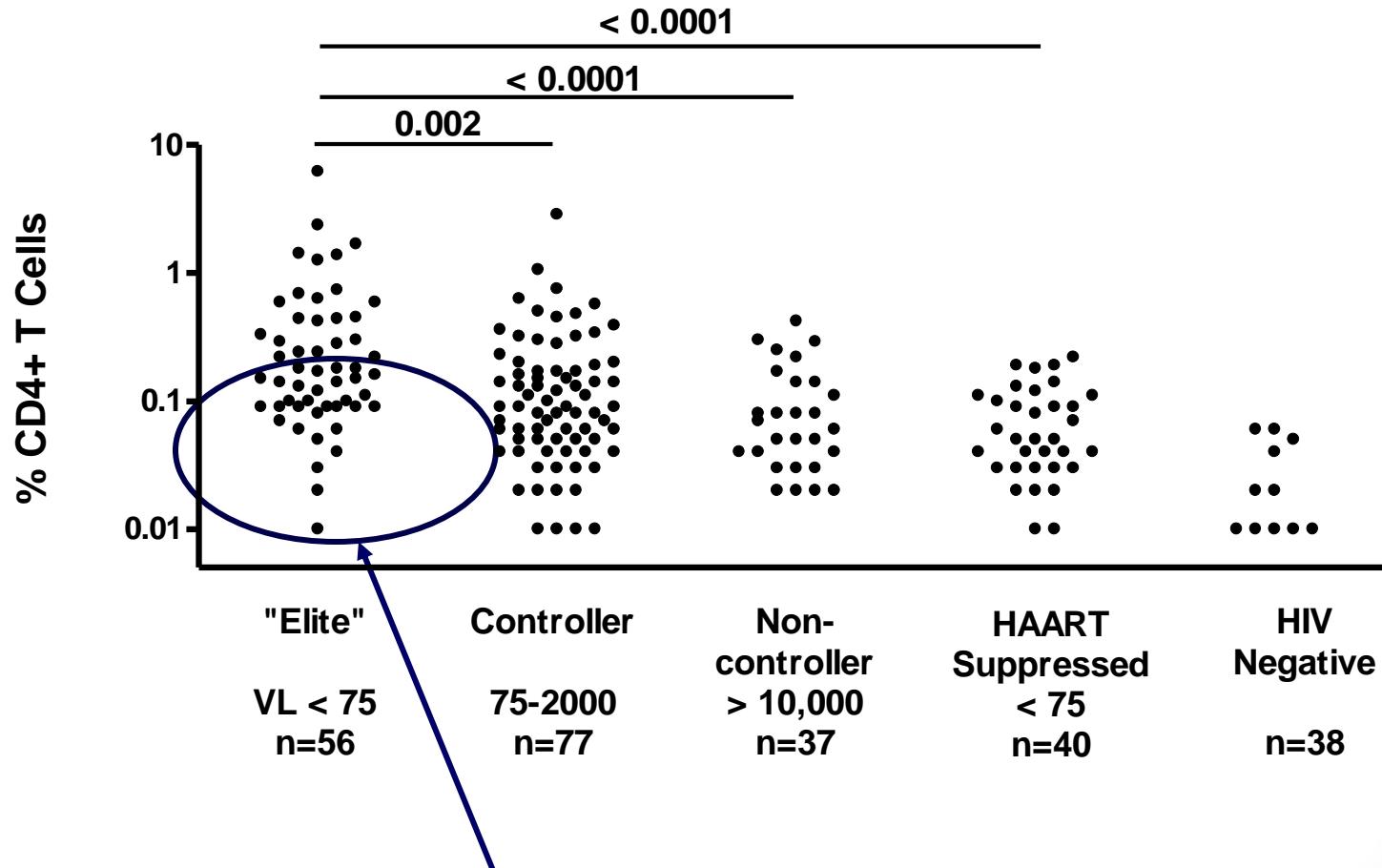
What is the cause and what is the effect?



Evidence in favour of T-cell polyfunctionality as causative of better control over HIV

- Each polyfunctional cell elicits a wider repertoire of functions
- Each polyfunctional cell produces as much as 10-fold the amount of cytokine produced by monofunctional cells
- IL-2 production by polyfunctional cells makes them more prone to proliferation and effectiveness

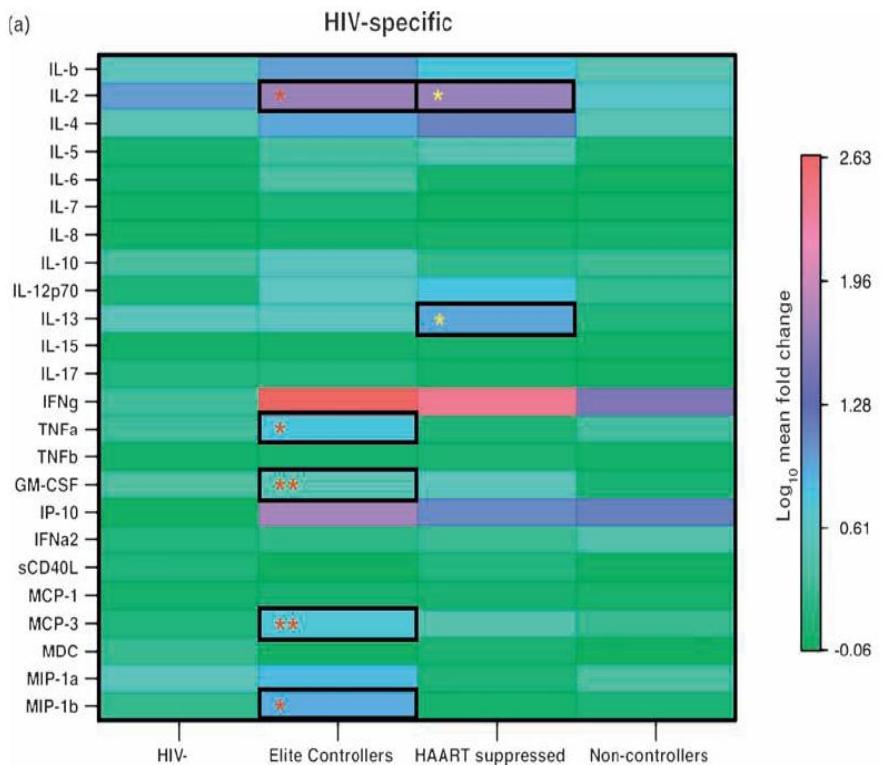
Is the adaptive T cell response completely responsible for “elite” control?



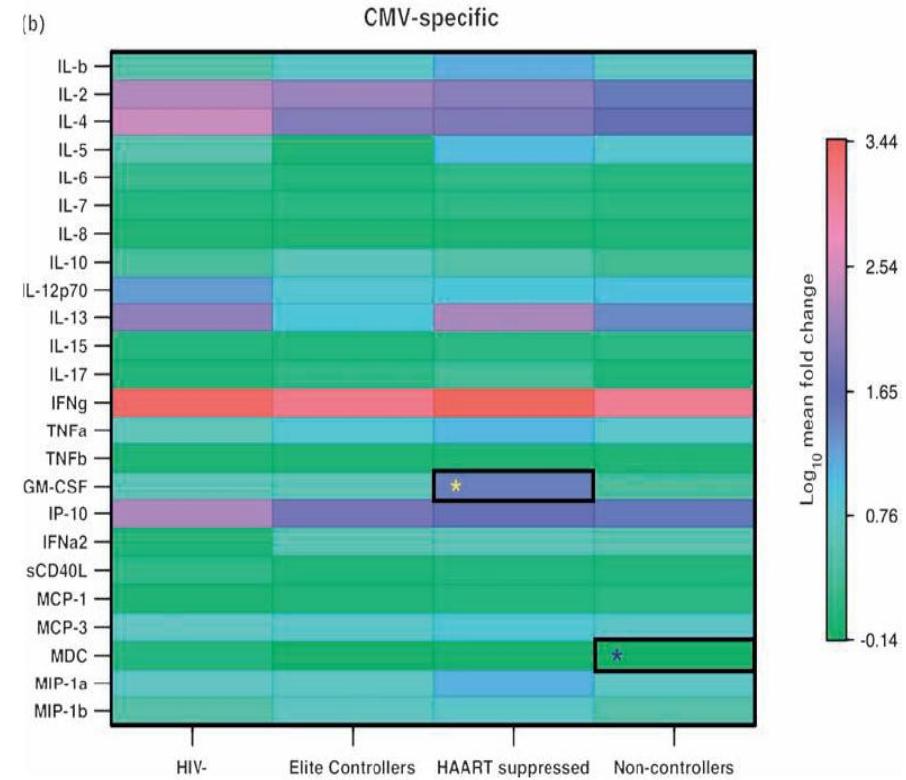
Many controllers have HIV specific T cells that are low

Elite controllers mount a broad and strong cytokine/chemokine response following HIV-specific stimulation

(a)

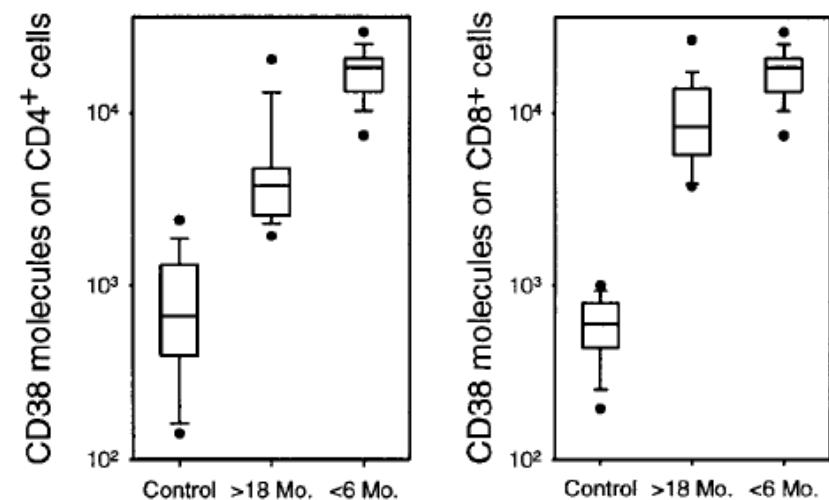
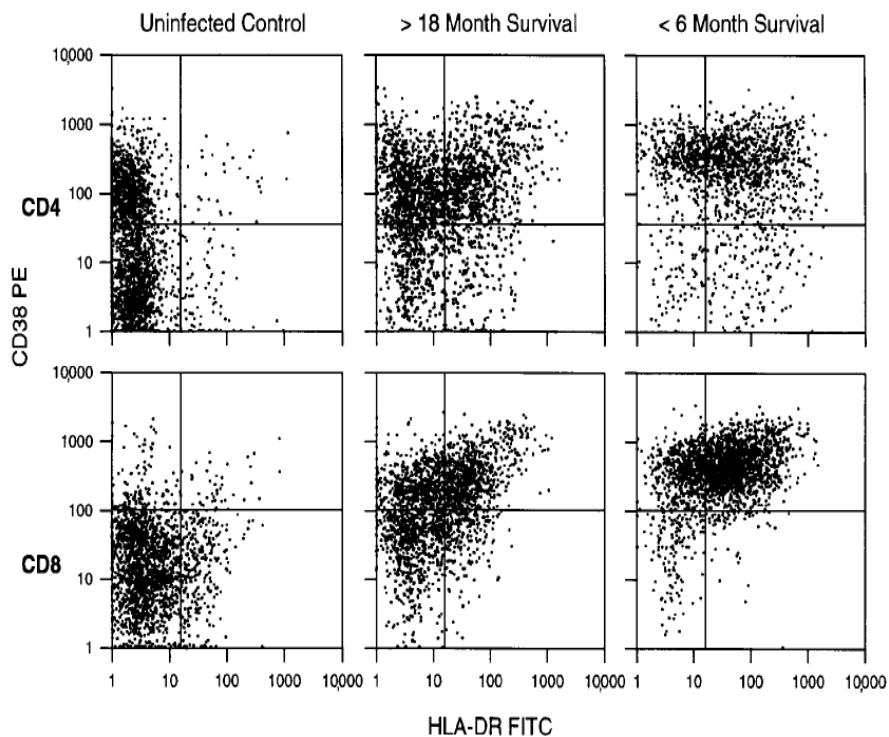


(b)

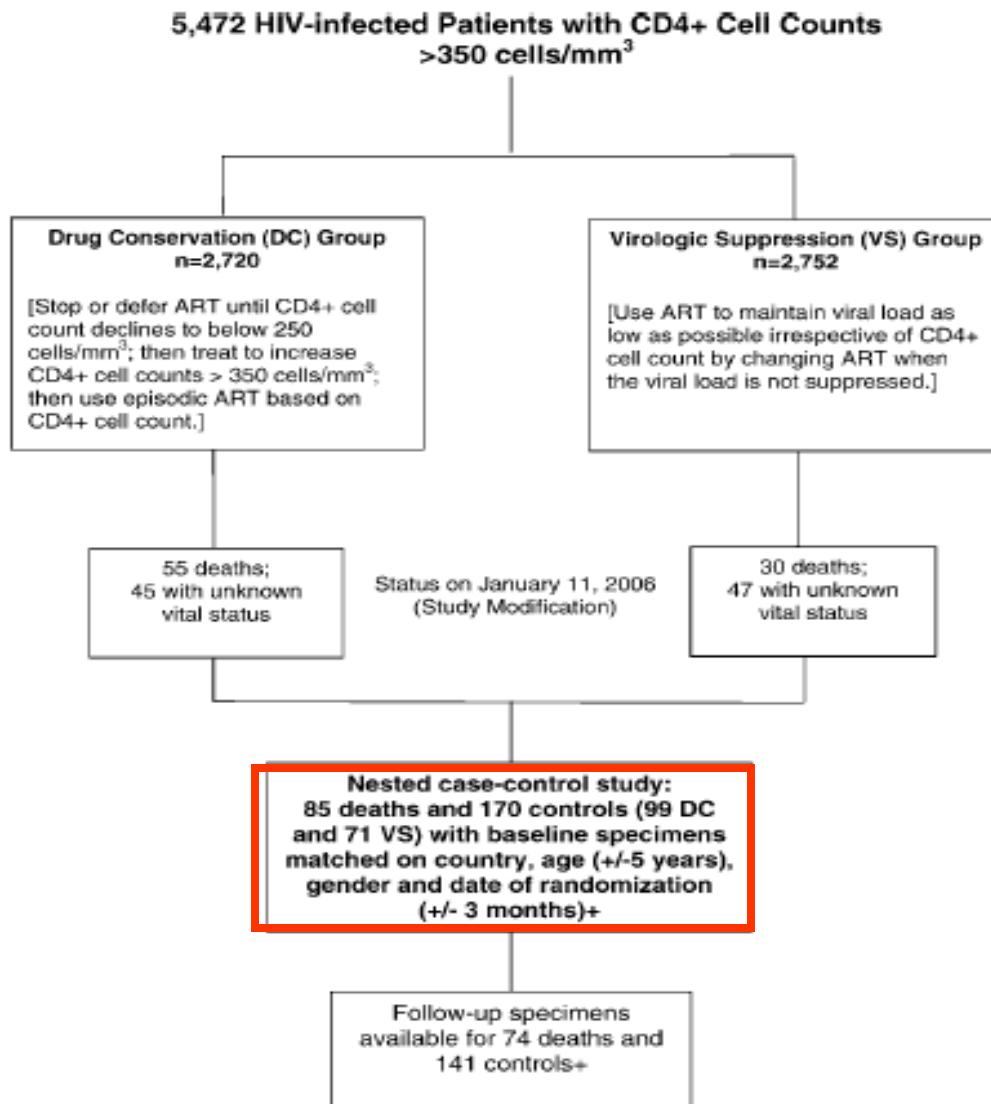


Immune activation in HIV pathogenesis

Shorter survival is associated with T-lymphocyte activation



The SMART Study



Analisi del rischio di morte in
relazione a marcatori di
infiammazione/coagulazione in
pazienti in ART versus pazienti
senza ART

Rischio di morte associato a marcatori di infiammazione e coagulopatia

Biomarker	Type of Analysis	<25 th Percentile (Reference)	25th–49th Percentile		50th–74th Percentile		≥75 th Percentile		OR associated with One IQR Higher Biomarker Level after Log ₁₀ Transformation	
			OR (95% CI)	p-Value	OR (95% CI)	p-Value	OR (95% CI)	p-Value	OR (95% CI)	p-Value
hsCRP (µg/ml)	No. ^a	16/45	9/42		20/28		40/55			
	Univariate	1.0 (ref.)	0.6 (0.2–1.5)	0.29	2.0 (0.9–4.6)	0.09	2.0 (1.0–4.1)	0.05	1.7 (1.2–2.4)	0.005
	Adjusted	1.0 (ref.)	0.7 (0.2–2.1)	0.50	2.5 (0.9–7.2)	0.08	3.1 (1.2–8.0)	0.02	2.3 (1.4–3.7)	0.001
Amyloid A (mg/l)	No.	11/46	17/35		28/33		29/56			
	Univariate	1.0 (ref.)	2.0 (0.8–5.2)	0.13	3.4 (1.5–7.7)	0.005	2.2 (0.9–5.2)	0.07	1.3 (0.9–1.7)	0.11
	Adjusted	1.0 (ref.)	3.4 (1.0–11.1)	0.04	3.5 (1.2–10.2)	0.02	3.1 (1.0–9.5)	0.05	1.3 (0.9–1.9)	0.12
Amyloid P (µg/ml)	No.	25/44	20/25		16/43		24/56			
	Univariate	1.0 (ref.)	1.5 (0.7–3.1)	0.32	0.7 (0.3–1.4)	0.32	0.7 (0.4–1.5)	0.39	0.7 (0.6–0.9)	0.009
	Adjusted	1.0 (ref.)	1.5 (0.6–4.0)	0.42	0.8 (0.3–2.0)	0.65	1.1 (0.4–3.0)	0.78	0.7 (0.5–1.0)	0.06
IL-6 (pg/ml)	No.	8/48	10/41		26/48		40/29			
	Univariate	1.0 (ref.)	1.3 (0.5–3.6)	0.62	3.2 (1.3–7.9)	0.01	8.3 (3.3–20.8)	<0.0001	3.4 (2.2–5.4)	<0.0001
	Adjusted	1.0 (ref.)	1.0 (0.3–3.6)	0.98	4.5 (1.4–14.2)	0.01	12.4 (3.6–42.0)	<0.0001	4.1 (2.3–7.3)	<0.0001
D-dimer (µg/ml)	No.	8/51	22/54		18/40		37/25			
	Univariate	1.0 (ref.)	3.2 (1.1–9.0)	0.03	4.0 (1.3–12.3)	0.02	12.4 (4.2–37.0)	<0.0001	3.9 (2.3–6.6)	<0.0001
	Adjusted	1.0 (ref.)	8.3 (1.9–36.8)	0.005	12.6 (2.4–65.1)	0.003	41.2 (7.5–225.6)	<0.0001	5.3 (2.6–10.9)	<0.0001

Incremento di IL-6 e D-dimero

Braccio DC (drug conservation – ART CD4+-guidata)

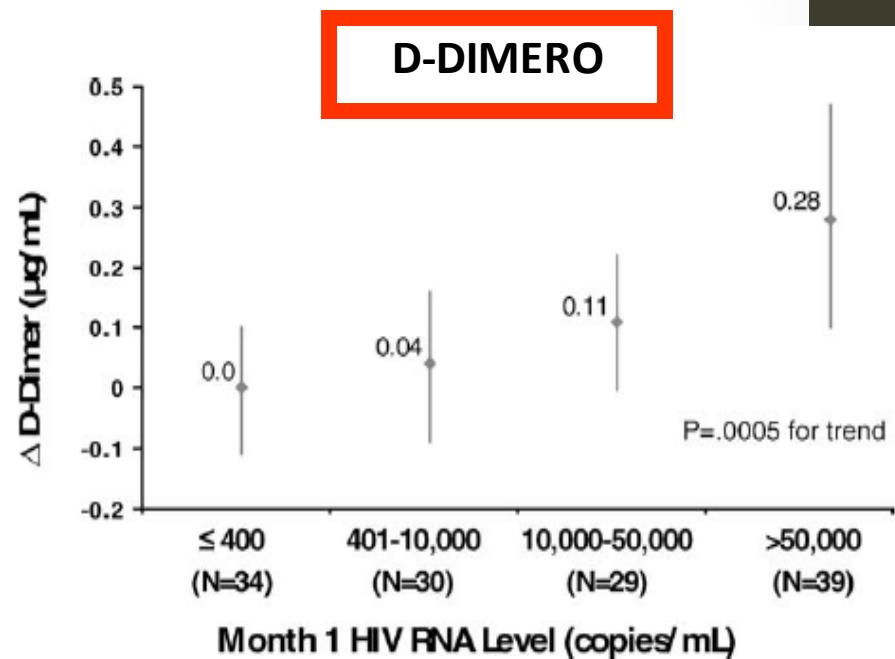
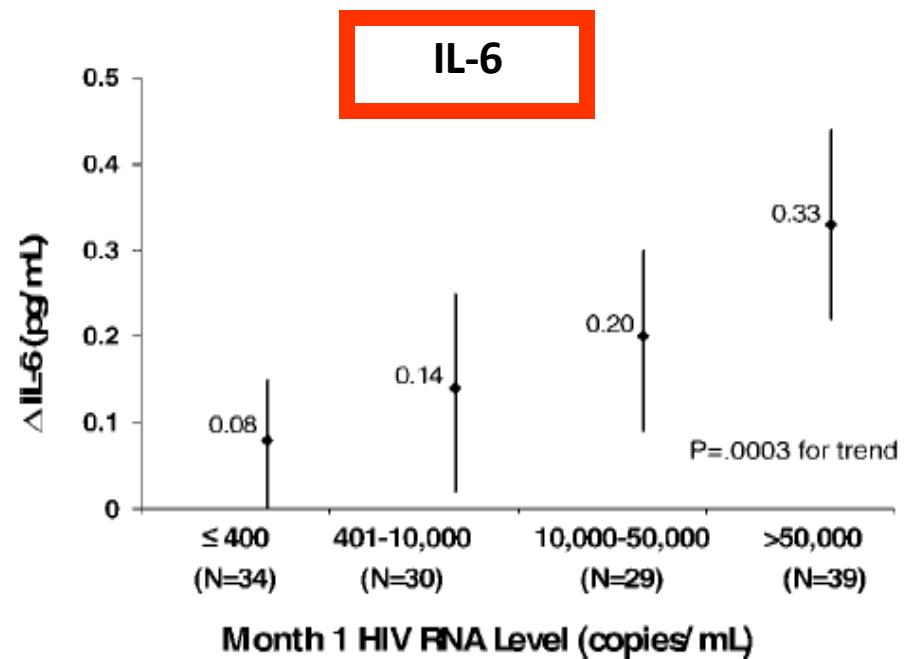
- IL-6= 30%
- D-dimero=16%

Braccio VS (virologic suppression)

- IL-6 =0%
- D-dimero=5%

P<.0001

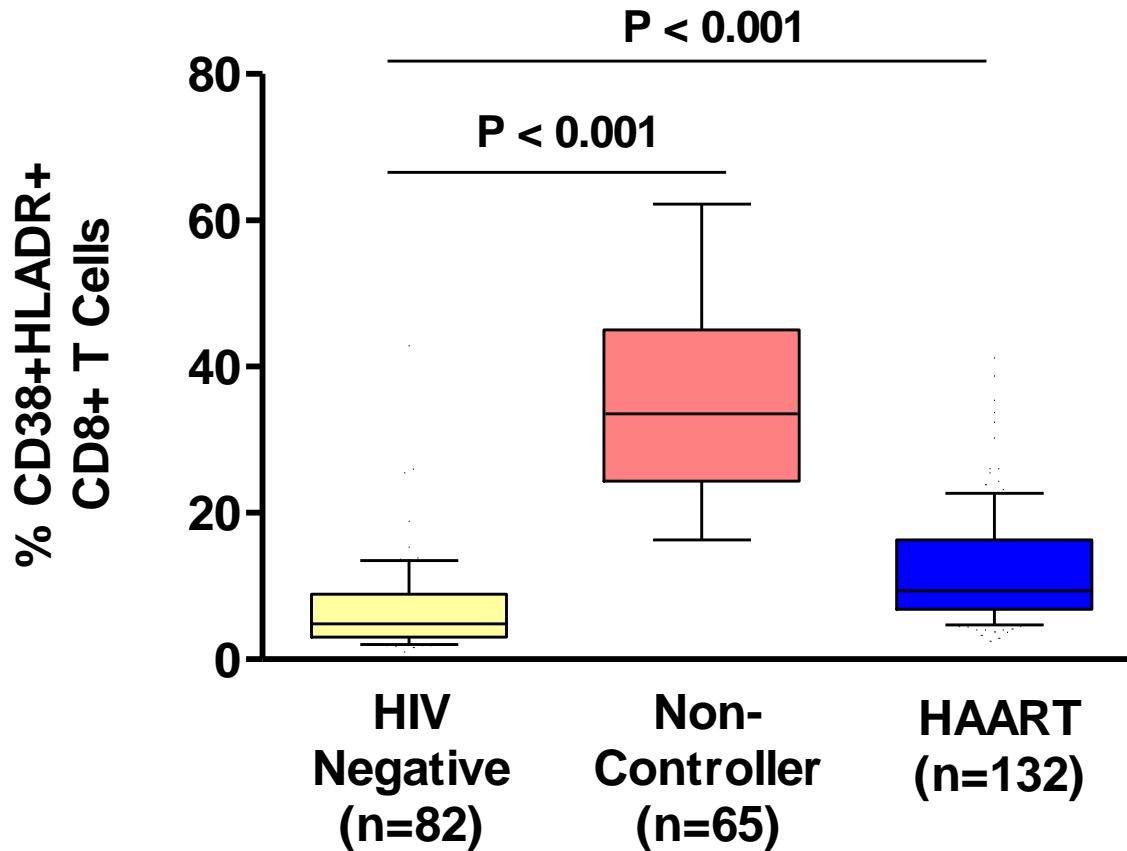
Incremento di IL-6 e D-dimero nel braccio DC (drug conservation – ART CD4+-guidata)



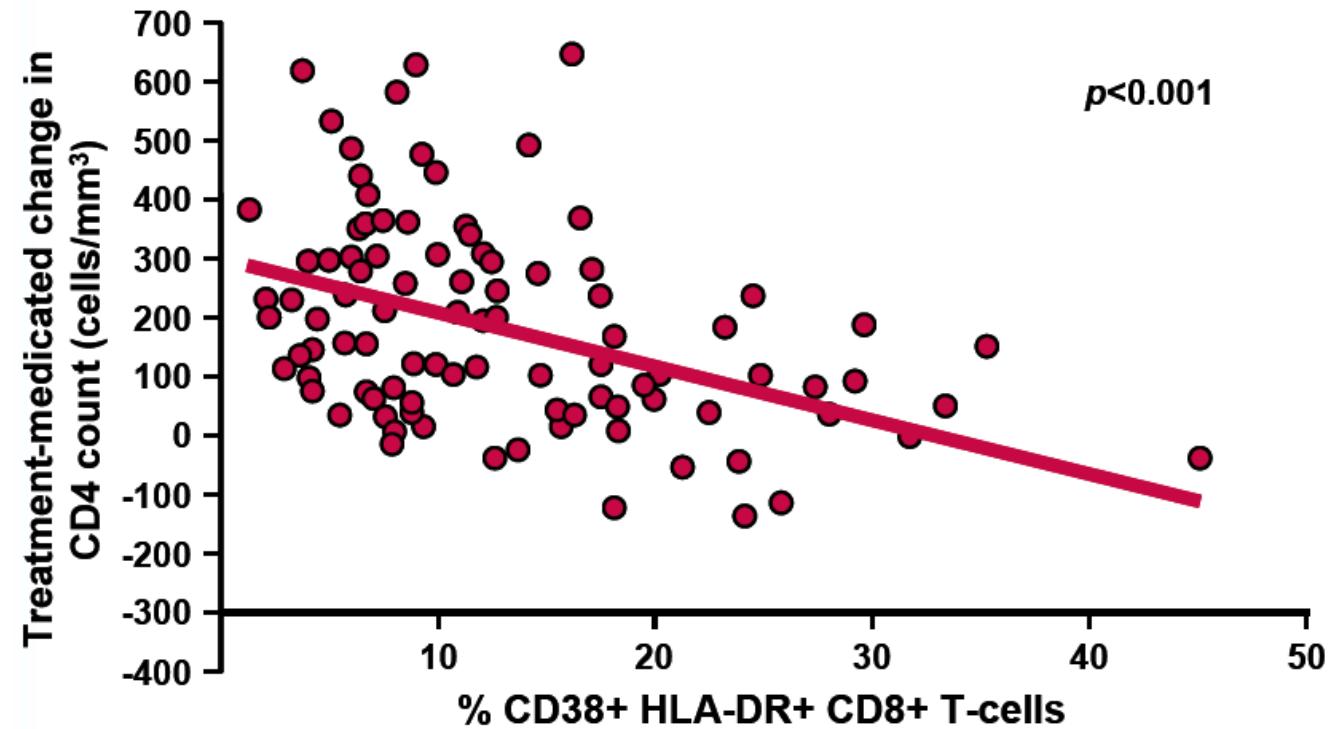
Rischio di morte associato a marcatori di infiammazione nei diversi bracci di trattamento

Biomarker	Type of Analysis	DC		VS		p-Value for Interaction ^b
		OR ^a (95% CI)	p-Value	OR ^a (95% CI)	p-Value	
hsCRP ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)	Univariate	2.0 (1.2–3.4)	0.01	1.8 (0.7–4.6)	0.18	0.41
	Adjusted ^c	2.3 (1.2–4.4)	0.01	2.7 (0.9–7.9)	0.08	
Amyloid A (mg/l)	Univariate	1.6 (1.0–2.5)	0.06	1.2 (0.6–2.3)	0.67	0.08
	Adjusted ^c	1.6 (0.9–2.8)	0.11	1.5 (0.6–3.8)	0.40	
Amyloid P ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)	Univariate	0.7 (0.5–1.1)	0.14	0.8 (0.4–1.4)	0.43	0.22
	Adjusted ^c	0.8 (0.5–1.3)	0.40	0.7 (0.3–1.6)	0.46	
IL-6 (pg/ml)	Univariate	3.7 (2.1–6.4)	<0.0001	2.8 (1.3–6.1)	0.008	0.56
	Adjusted ^c	3.8 (2.1–7.2)	0.0002	2.4 (1.1–5.2)	0.03	
D-dimer ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)	Univariate	3.6 (1.7–7.3)	0.0005	2.6 (0.7–9.1)	0.14	0.38
	Adjusted ^c	5.9 (1.9–18.7)	0.002	7.1 (0.8–63.2)	0.08	
F1.2 (pmol/l)	Univariate	1.0 (0.6–1.6)	0.98	0.8 (0.3–2.2)	0.71	0.34
	Adjusted ^c	0.8 (0.4–1.5)	0.47	0.7 (0.2–2.2)	0.55	

Persistente attivazione T-linfocitaria in corso di HAART virologicamente soppressiva

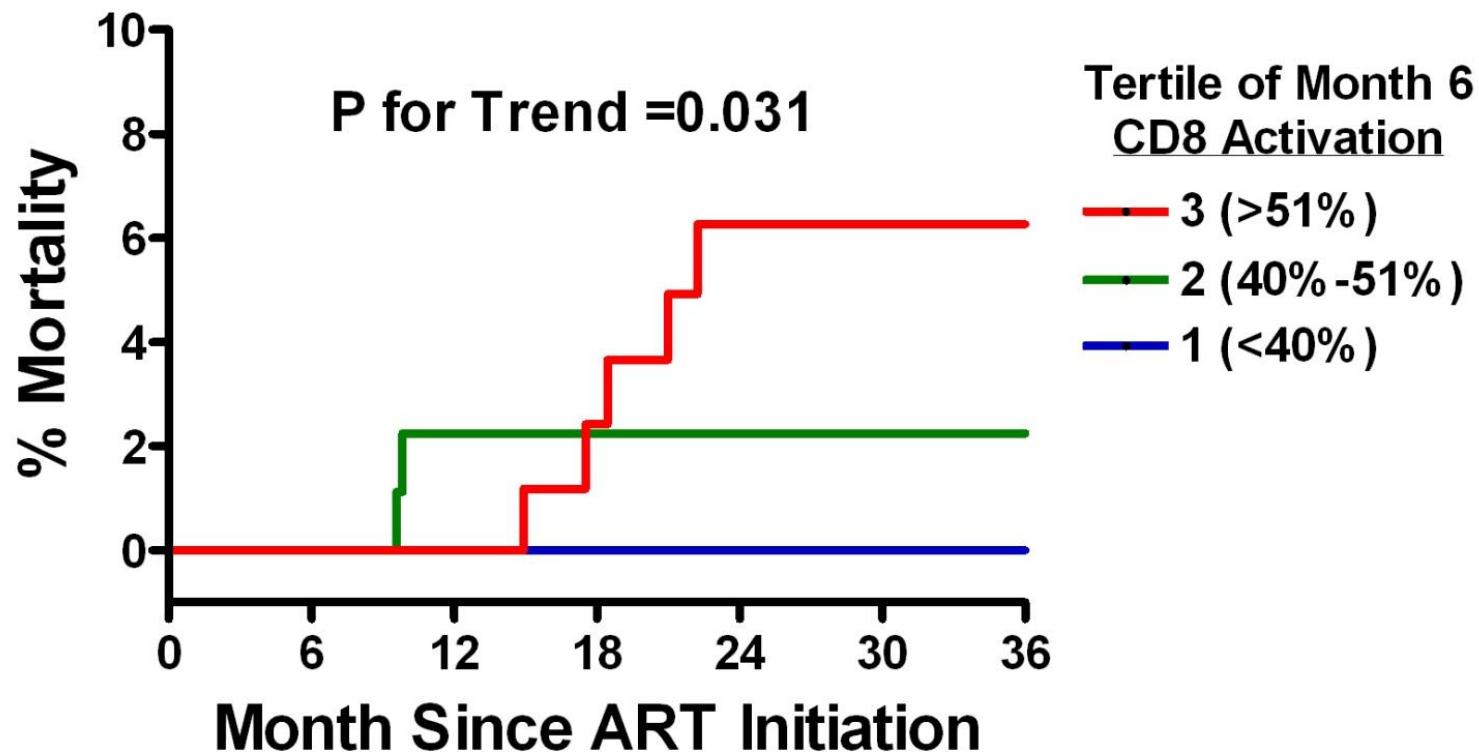


Immune activation hampers immune reconstitution on HAART



Hunt *et al.* JID 2003;187(10):1534–43

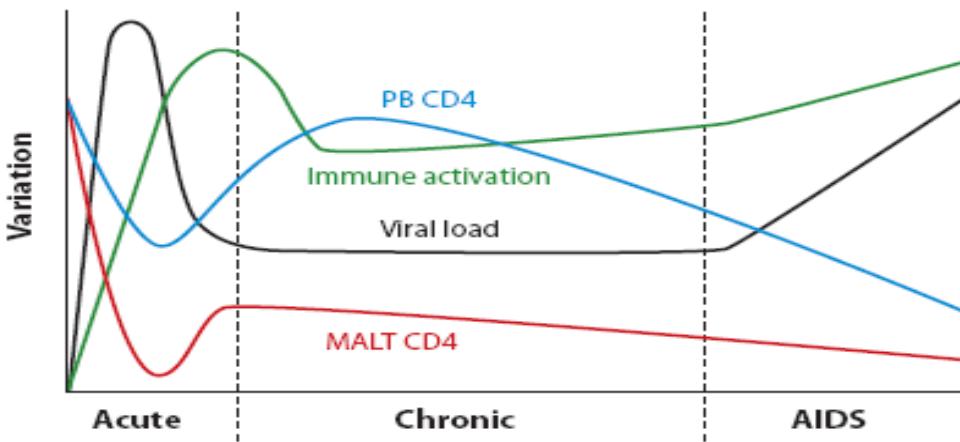
UARTO: alti livelli di attivazione CD8+ dopo 6 mesi di HAART predicono la mortalità in condizioni di HIV R <400



In Cox Proportional Hazards models, each 10% increase in the frequency of activated (%CD38+ HLA-DR+) CD8+ T cells was associated with an increased hazard of death even after adjustment for baseline CD4 count (HR: 1.62, P=0.048) or month 6 CD4 count (HR: 1.61, P=0.042).

Dynamics of immune activation in the Natural Hosts of HIV-Related Viruses

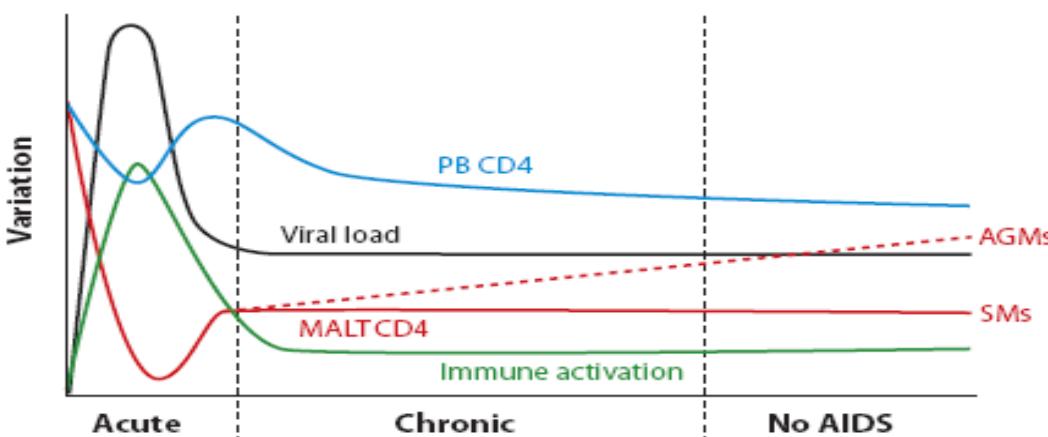
a HIV/SIV infection in non-natural hosts



Rhesus
macaques - RM



b SIV infection in natural hosts



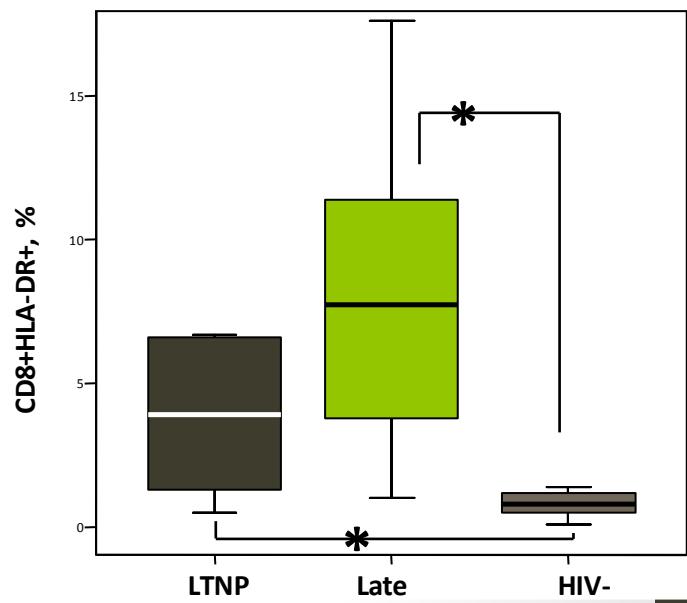
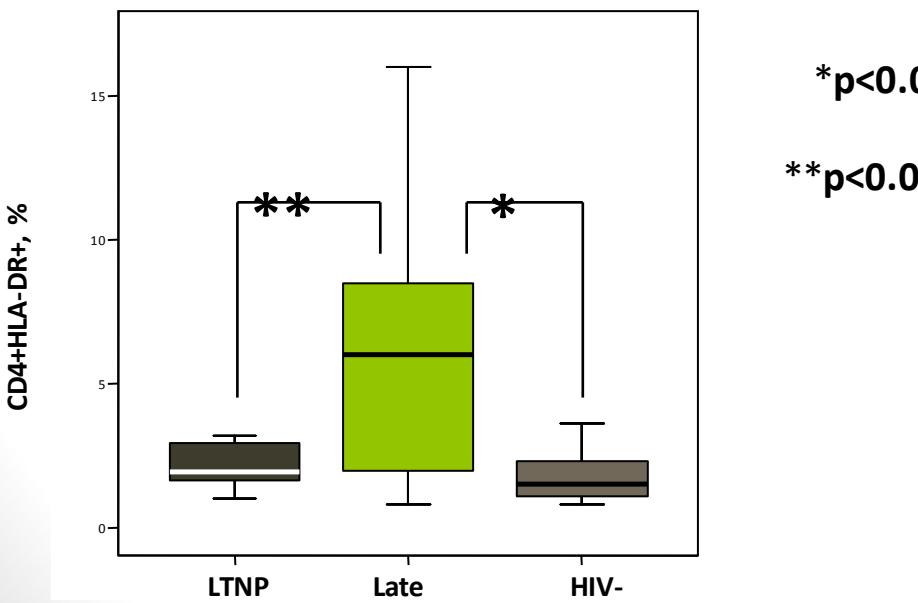
Sooty
mangabeys - SM



I LTNPs presentano livelli di attivazione T- linfocitaria più contenuti rispetto a pazienti con progressione di infezione

- Ridotti livelli di iperattivazione T-linfocitaria (in particolare CD4+CD38+ e CD8+CD38+)
- Ridotti livelli di apoptosi periferica

Vicenzi E, 1997 Blood; Perfetto SP, 1998 Cytometry; Richardson MW, 2003 AIDS

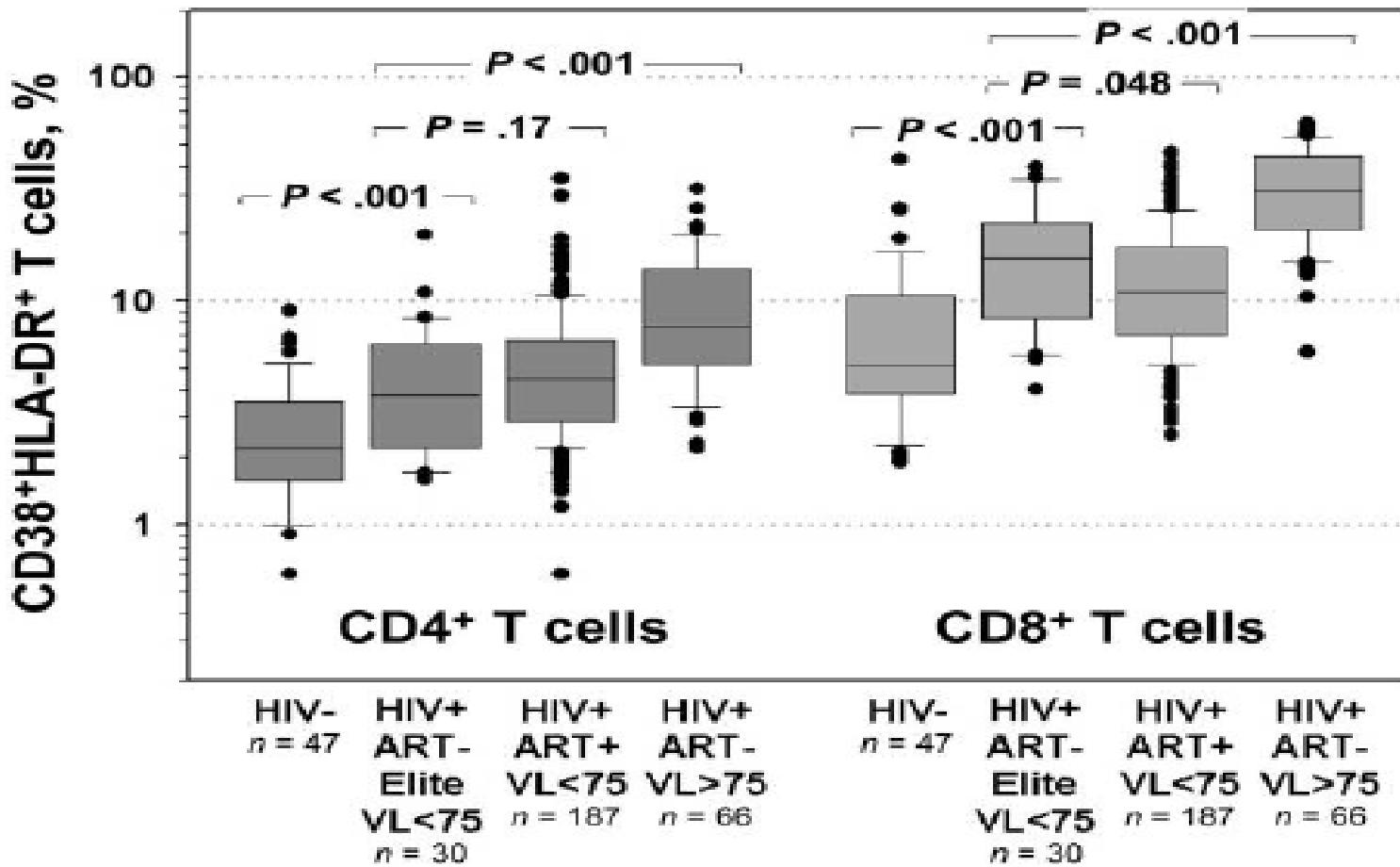


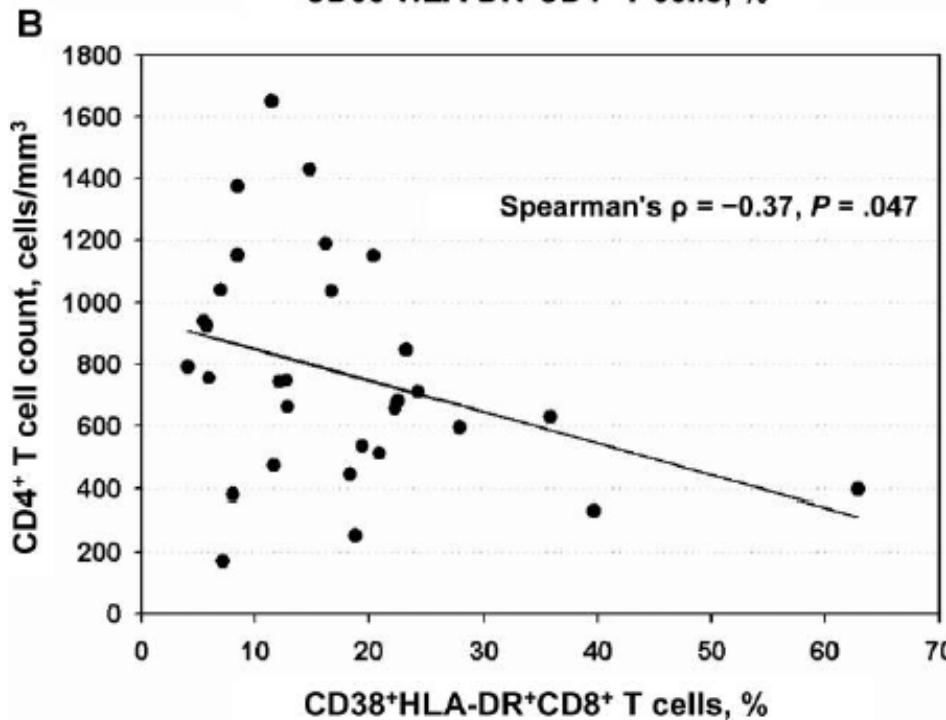
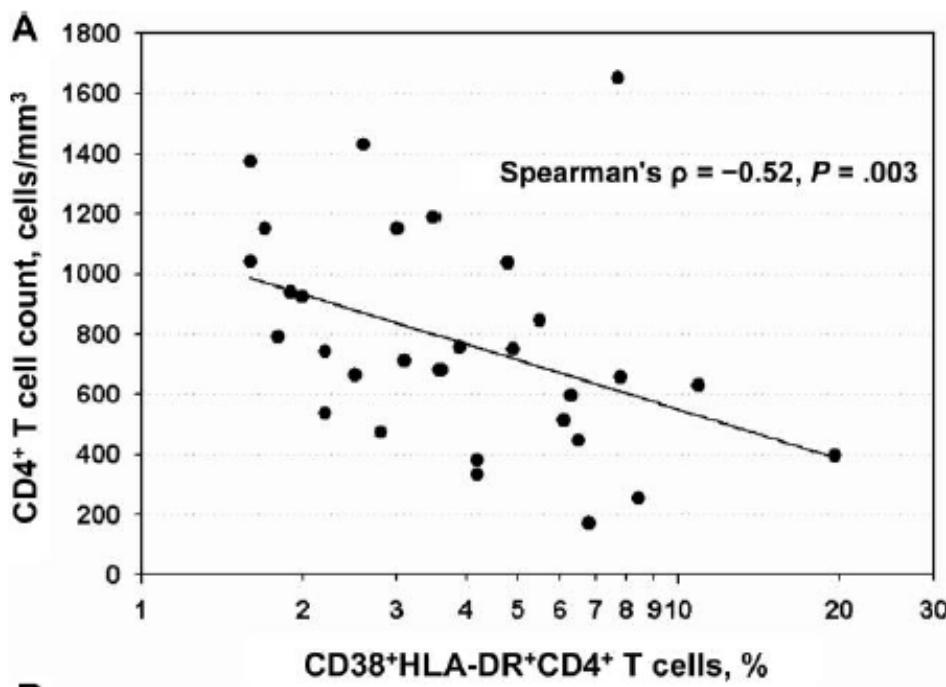
Marchetti et al HIV Med 2009

Elite controllers

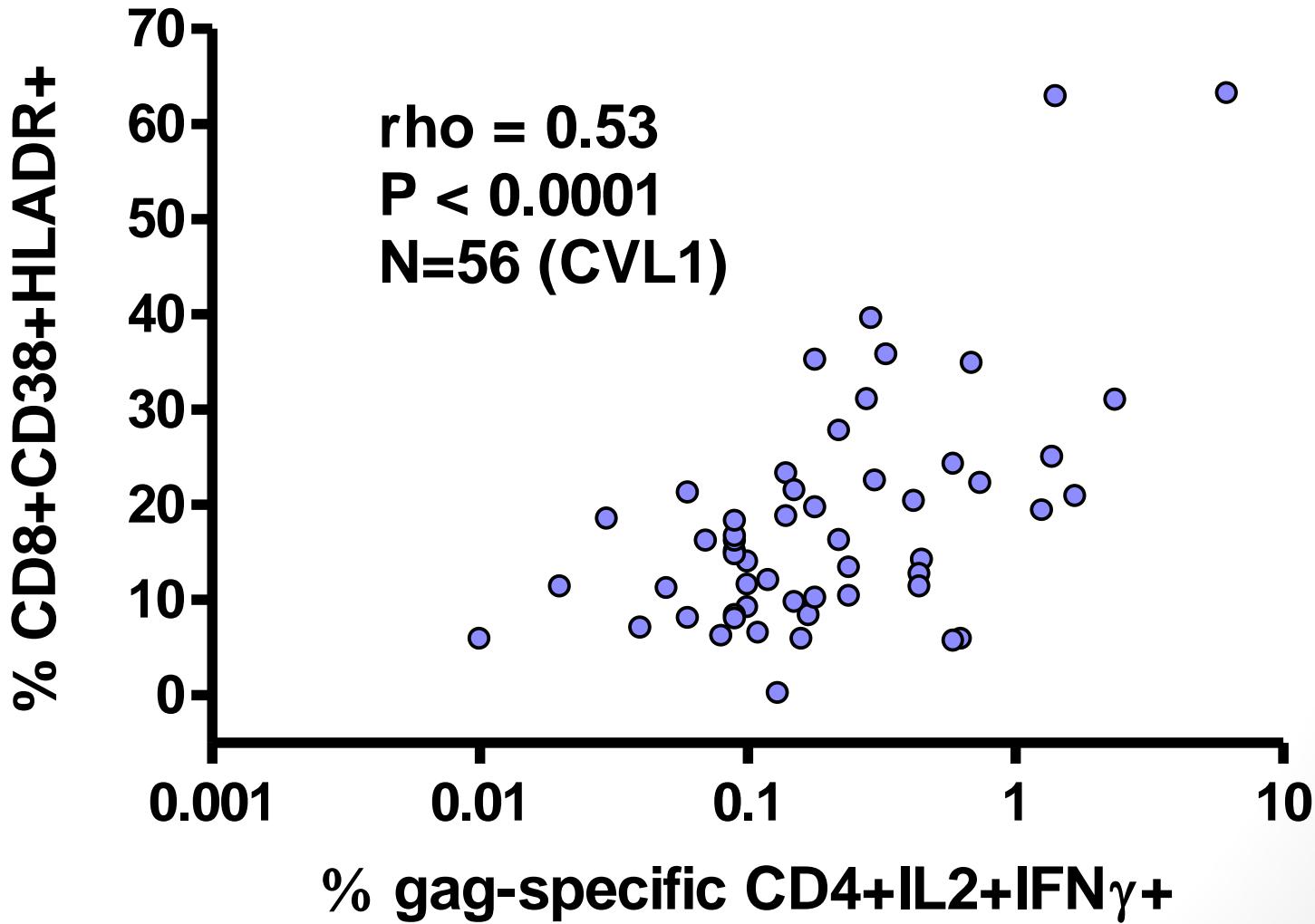
Characteristic	HIV-uninfected participants (n = 47)	HIV-infected controllers with VL<75 (n = 30)	HIV-infected antiretroviral-treated participants with VL<75 (n = 187)	HIV-infected untreated participants with VL>75 (n = 66)
Age, years	37 (30–43)	48 (45–51)	46 (41–51)	42 (37–48)
Female sex, no. (%)	0 (0)	12 (40)	32 (17)	14 (21)
CD4 ⁺ T cell count, cells/mm ³	943 (689–1058) ^a	727 (512–1037)	442 (274–633)	351 (250–511)
Plasma HIV RNA level, log ₁₀ copies/mL	...	<1.9 (. . .)	<1.9 (. . .)	4.0 (3.4–4.5)
Current AIDS diagnosis, no. (%)	0 (0)	2 (7)	25 (13)	12 (18)
Nadir CD4 ⁺ T cell count, cells/mm ³	...	496 (350–642)	114 (40–191)	270 (137–400)
Hepatitis C virus seropositive, no. (%)	0 (0)	19 (79) ^b	54 (29)	32 (48)

Elite controllers display elevated T-cell activation

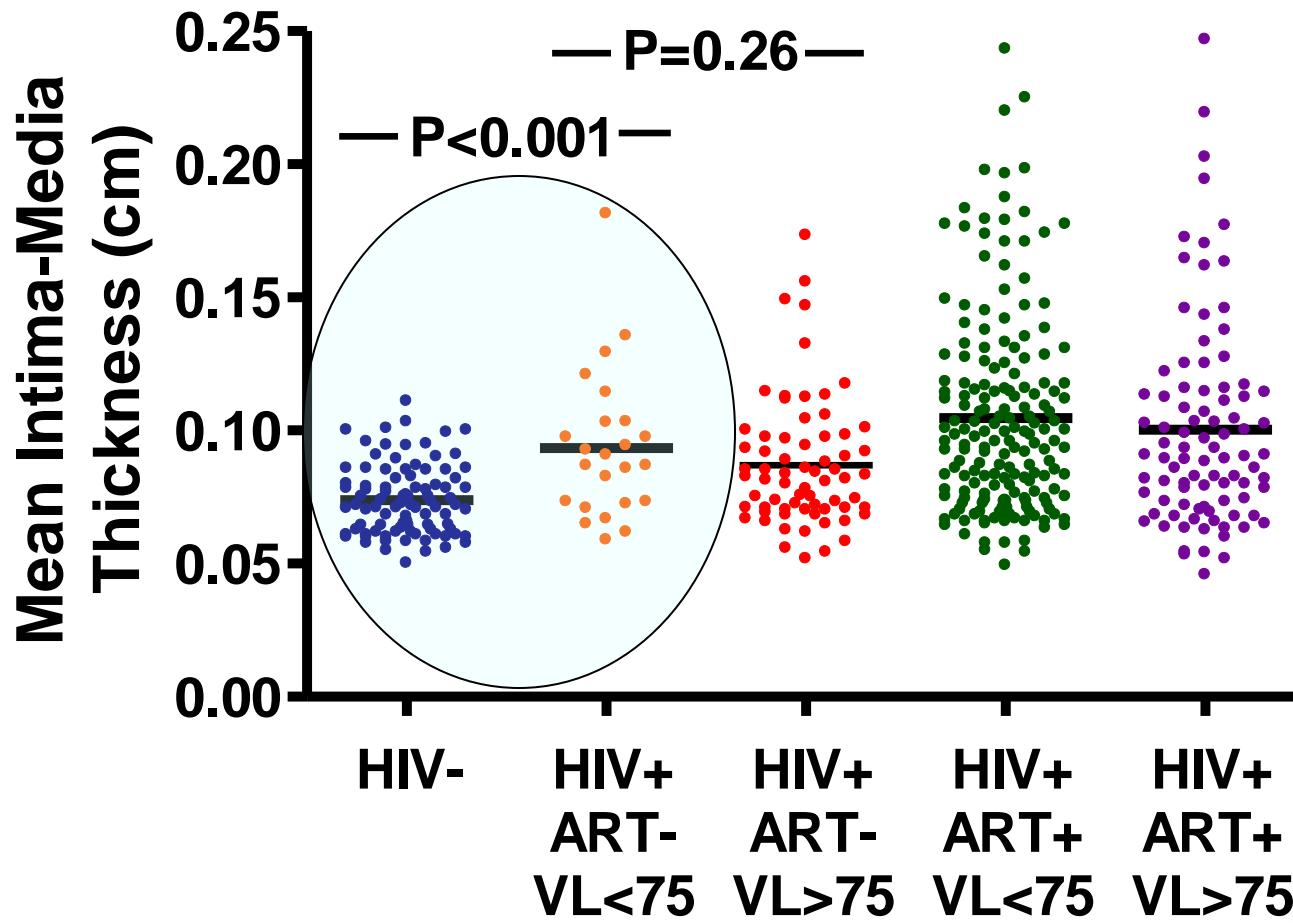




High CD8+ T Cell Activation is Associated with High Gag-Specific CD4+ T cell Responses Among “Elite” Controllers



Elite controllers have higher levels of atherosclerosis than HIV negatives, after controlling for all known risk factors



HIV “ELITE” CONTROLERS

Controlling virus comes at a cost?

**Strong HIV-specific CD8+
and CD4+ T cell responses**

High NK Cell activation

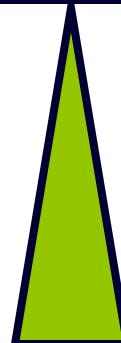
Persistent inflammation

Progressive CD4 loss

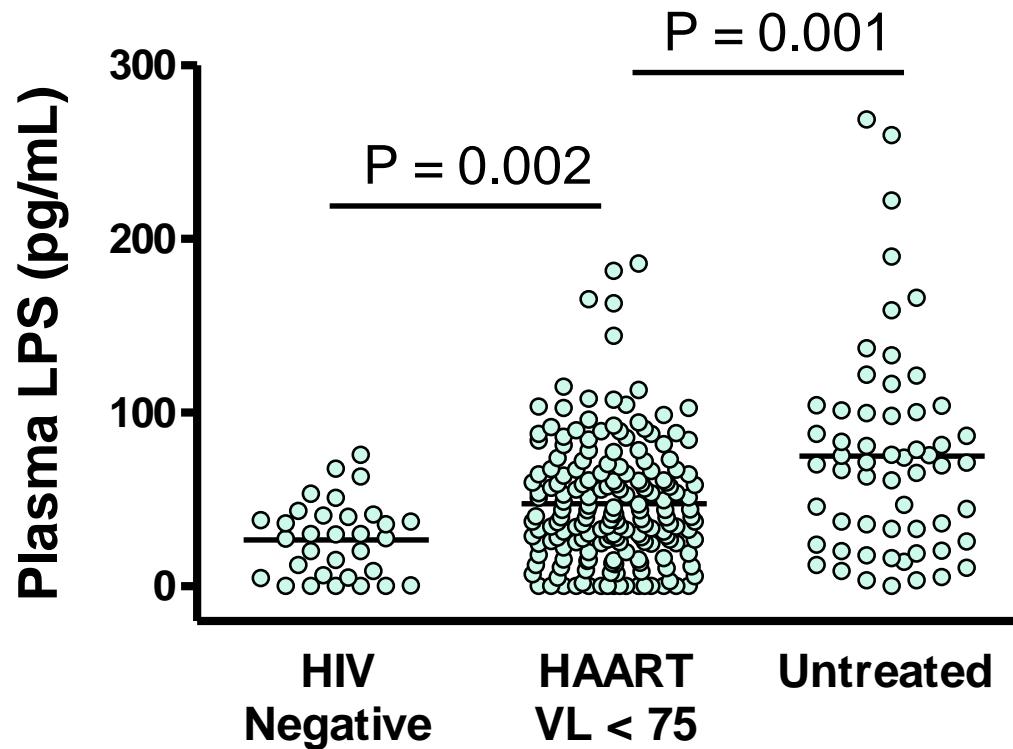
**Higher risk of
cardiovascular disease**

The Good

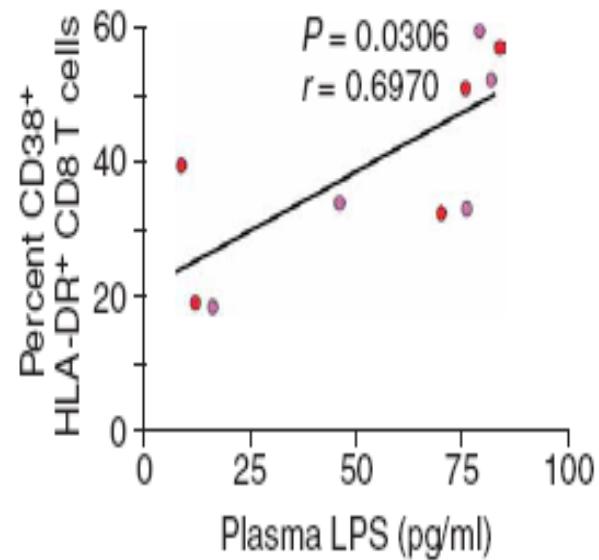
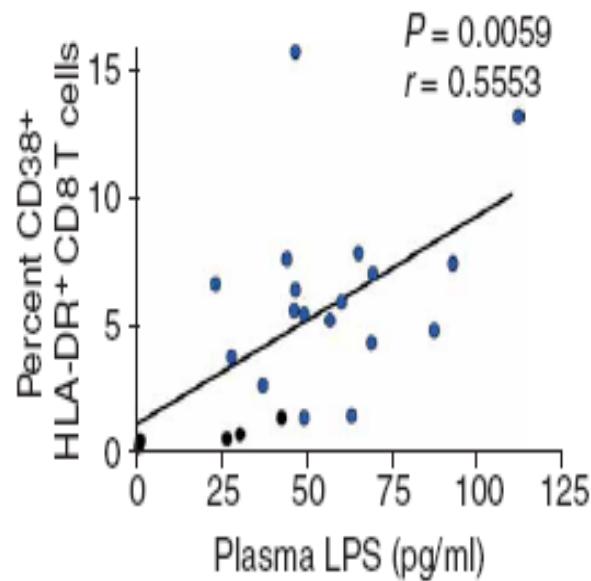
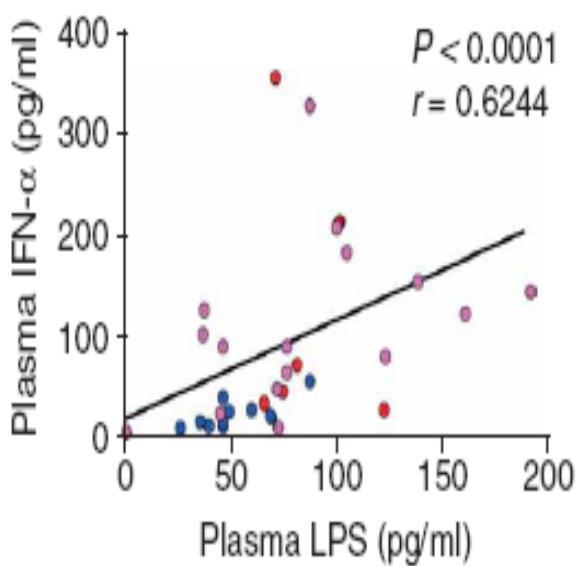
The Bad



Most (but not all) studies have shown that HIV infection results in mucosal damage, microbial translocation and inflammation; this effect persists during HAART



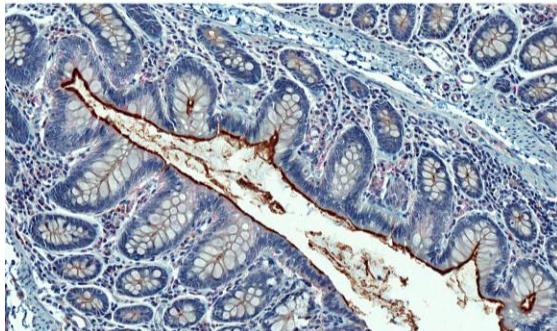
Microbial translocation is associated to immune activation



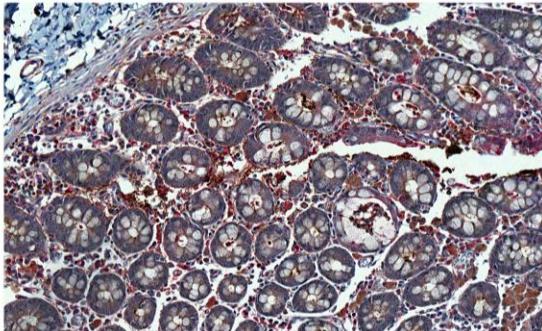
Microbial translocation causes immune activation (?): colocalization of *E.coli* and IFN- α in colon

Colon - E.coli/IFNa

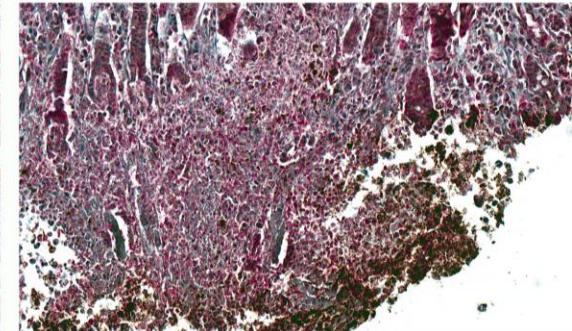
SIV-



SIV+ (Non AIDS)



SIV+ (AIDS)

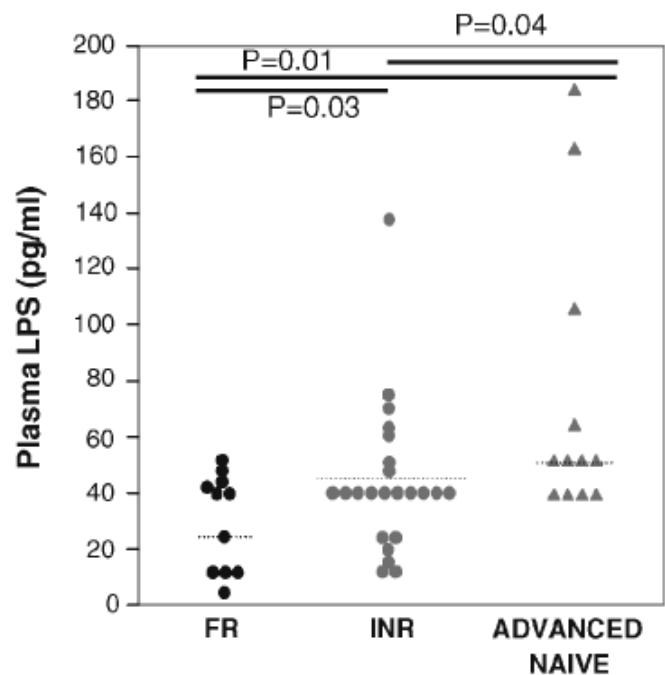
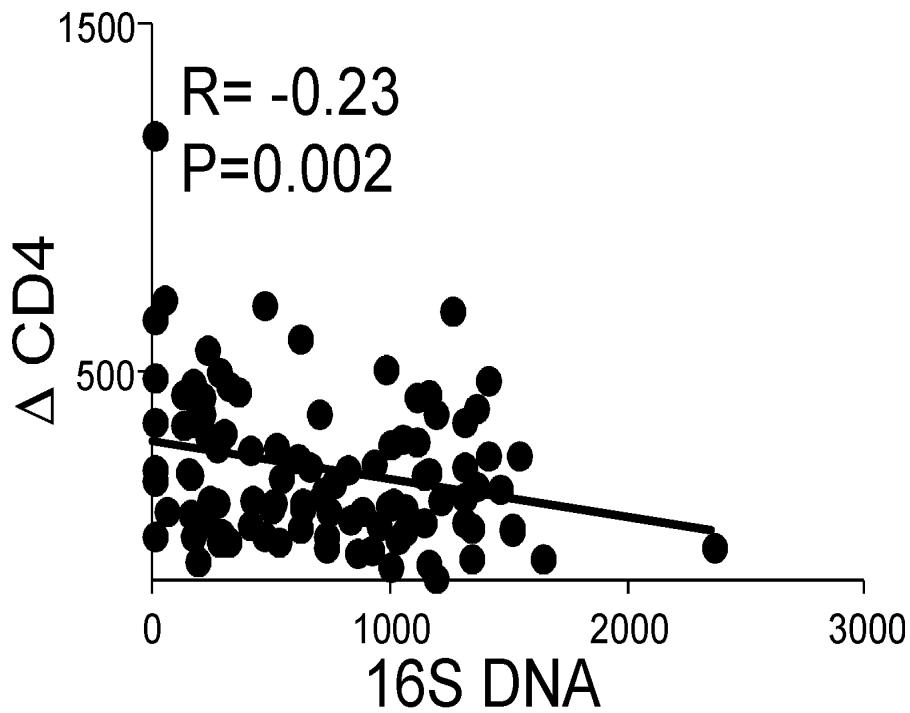


LPS independently predicts HIV disease progression

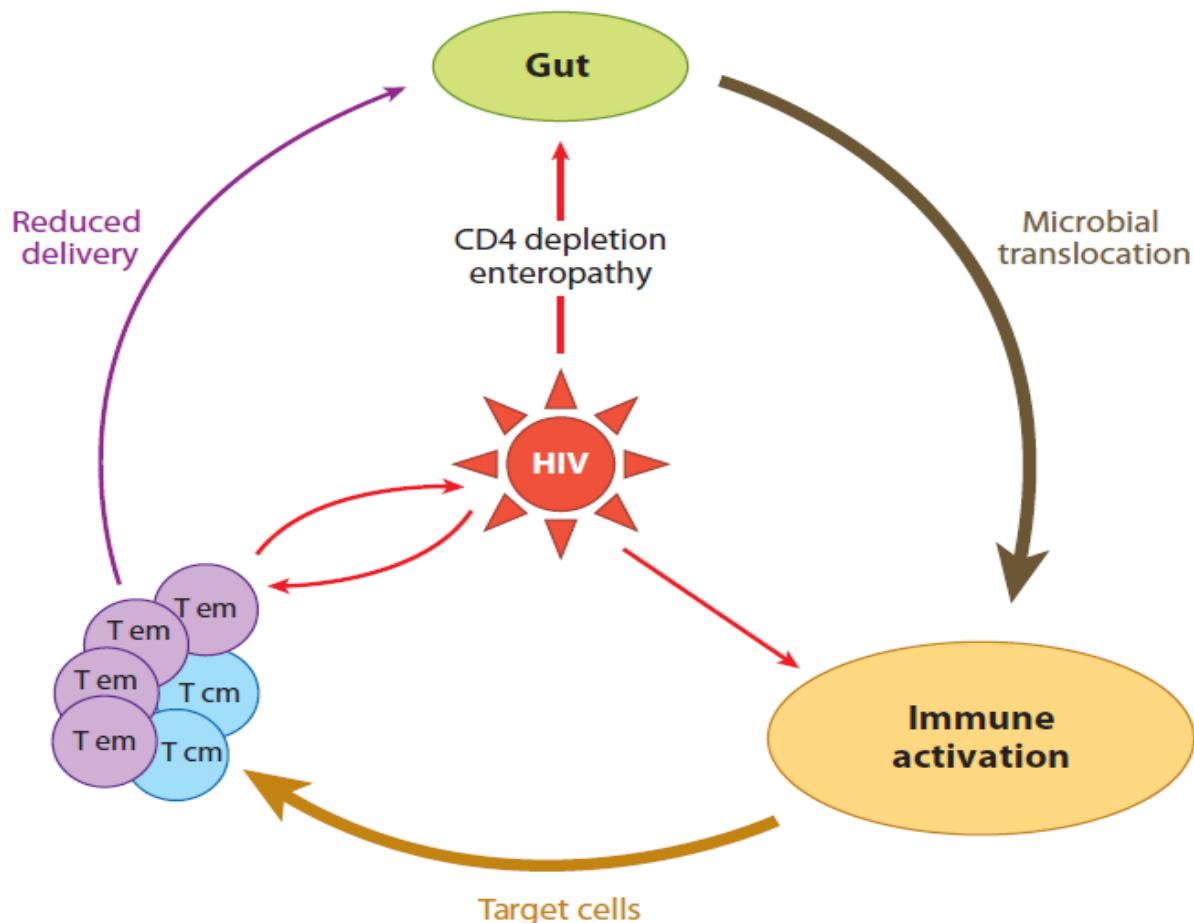
Biomarker	Crude and adjusted relative hazards of clinical progression					
	Crude RH (95% CI)	p-value	Adjusted* RH (95% CI)	p-value	Adjusted** RH (95% CI)	p-value
IL-6, pg/ml						
<=1	1.00		1.00		1.00	
>1	0.91 (0.69, 1.20)	0.507	1.12 (0.85, 1.47)	0.436	1.08 (0.80, 1.46)	0.600
not measured	1.03 (0.74, 1.45)	0.858	1.28 (0.91, 1.82)	0.157	1.28 (0.58, 2.82)	0.537
LPS, pg/ml						
<=110	1.00		1.00		1.00	
>110	1.90 (1.39, 2.60)	<.001	1.92 (1.39, 2.66)	<.001	1.85 (1.32, 2.58)	<.001
not measured	1.31 (0.97, 1.76)	0.077	1.32 (0.97, 1.79)	0.077	1.13 (0.78, 1.64)	0.504
sCD14, mg/ml						
<=3	1.00		1.00		1.0	
>3	1.32 (1.00, 1.74)	0.046	1.12 (0.84, 1.48)	0.439	1.14 (0.85, 1.52)	0.374
not measured	1.35 (0.95, 1.93)	0.098	1.28 (0.89, 1.84)	0.183	0.98 (0.41, 2.32)	0.967
TNF-alfa, pg/ml						
<=2.5	1.00		1.00		1.0	
>2.5	1.36 (1.03, 1.80)	0.033	1.22 (0.92, 1.62)	0.170	1.16 (0.86, 1.56)	0.342
not measured	1.54 (1.12, 2.11)	0.008	1.43 (1.04, 1.98)	0.028	1.28 (0.74, 2.24)	0.379

*All models (a separate one for each biomarker) adjusted for age, CD4+, HIV RNA, HCV/HBV, year of test, duration of HIV infection at the date of the test; **Further mutually adjusted for all biomarkers

CD4 reconstitution during HAART is negatively associated with microbial translocation

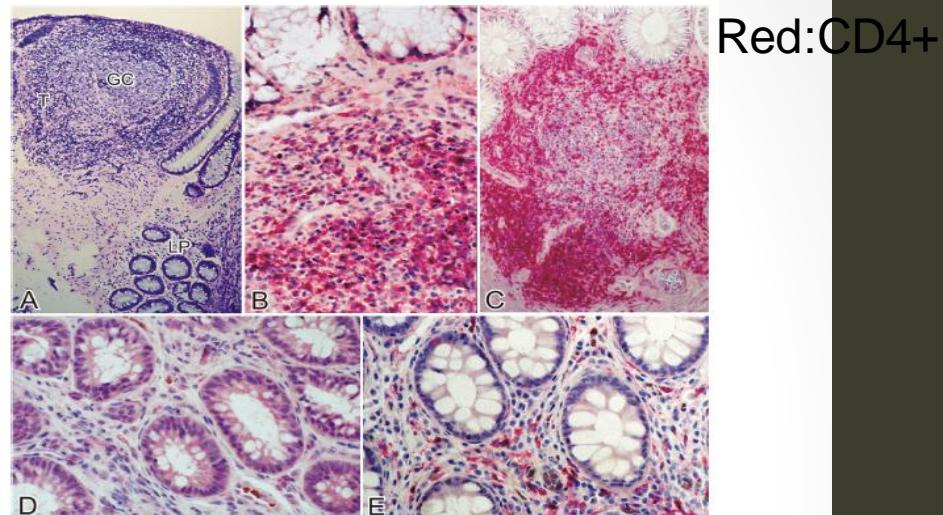
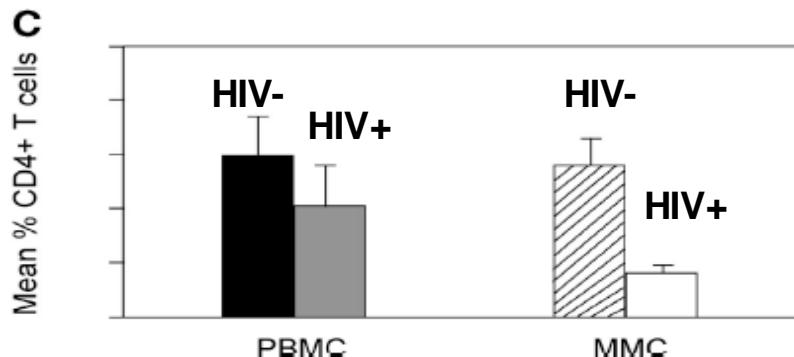


Microbial translocation and systemic immune activation: what the cause what the effect

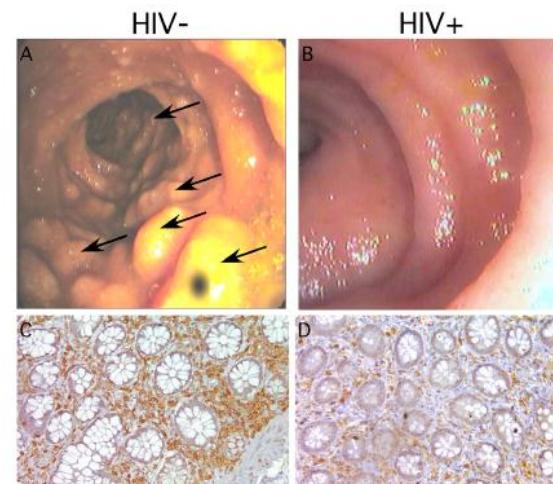
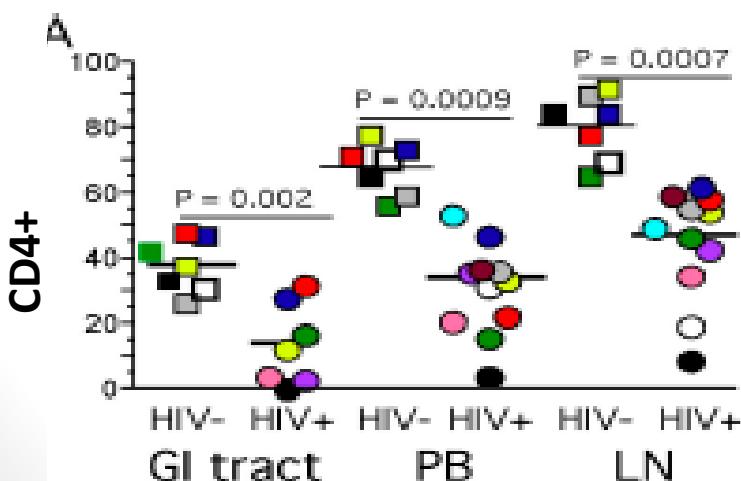


Gut CD4+ T-cell depletion in all stages of HIV infection

Acute and early HIV

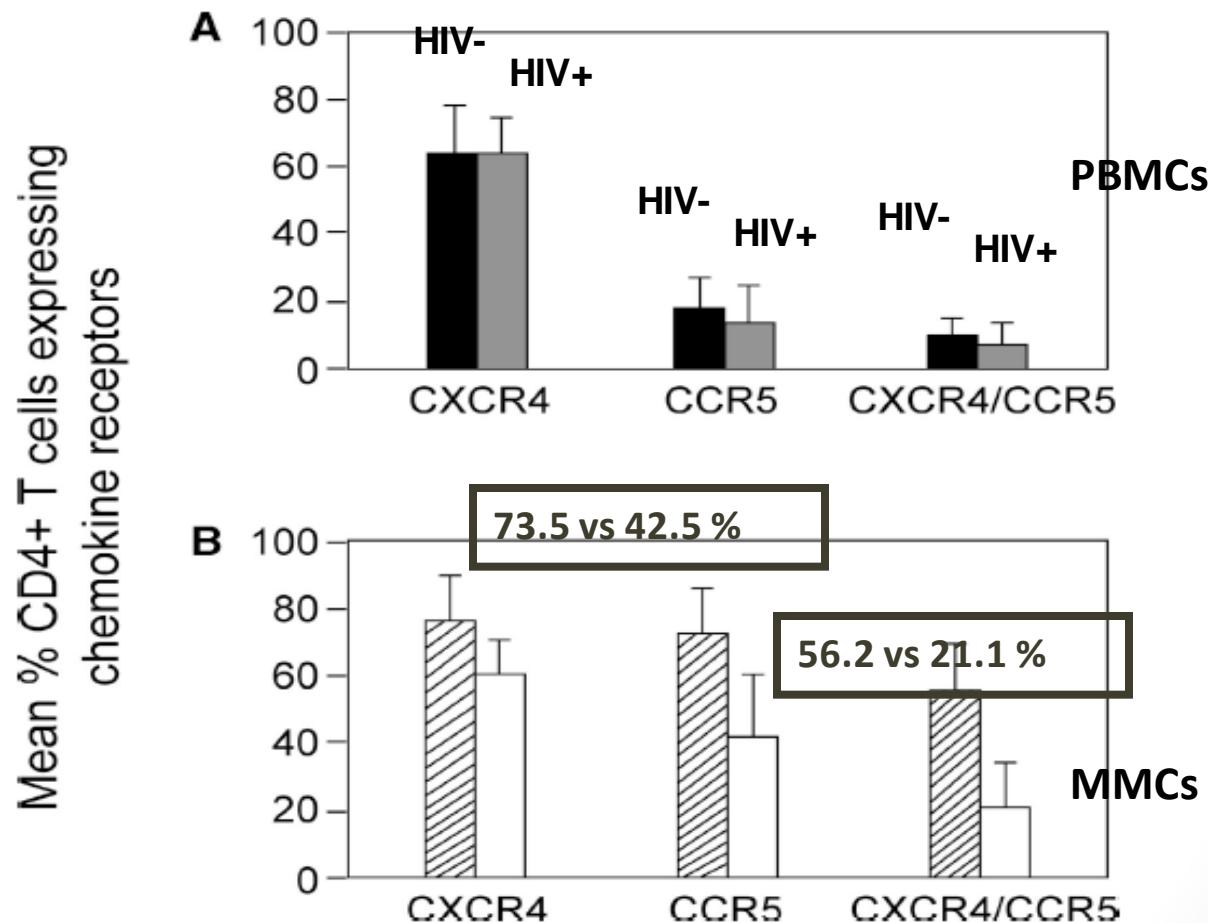


Mehandru et al. J Exp Med 2004

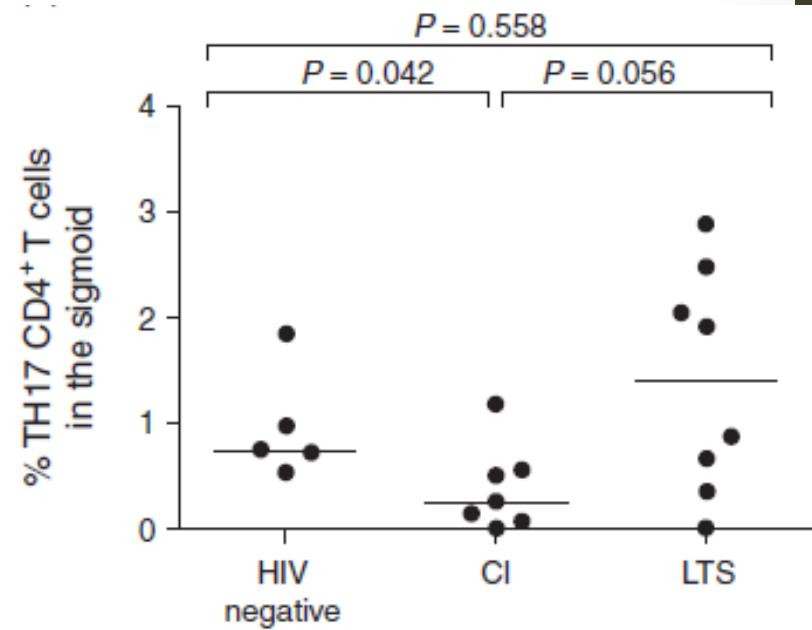
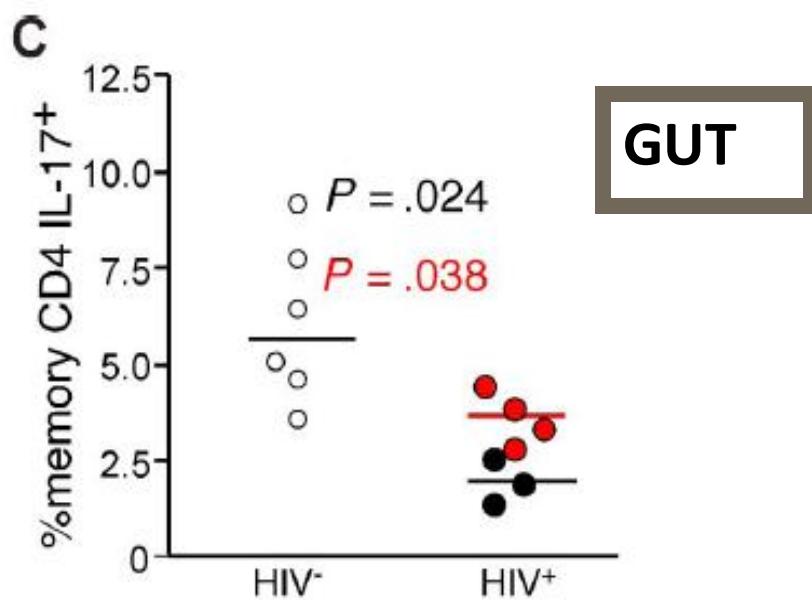


Brenchley J et al. J Exp Med 2004

Preferential depletion of CCR5-expressing CD4+ in the GI mucosa



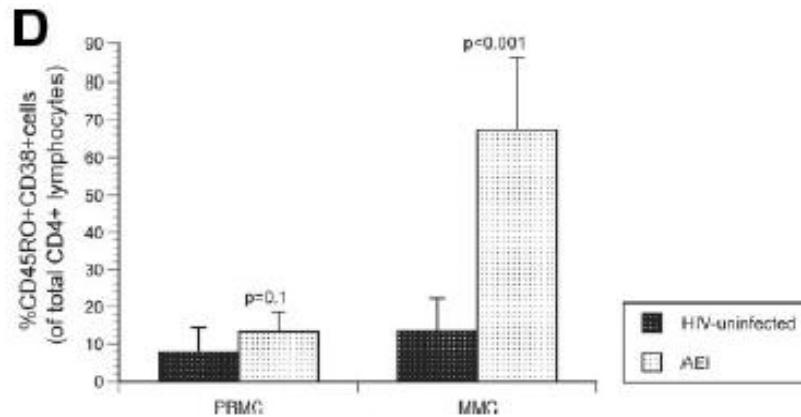
Th17 cells are preferentially lost from the GI of HIV-infected patients



Brenchley J, Paiardini M et al. Blood 2008

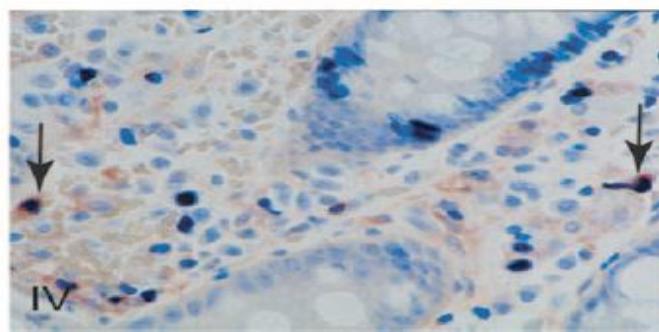
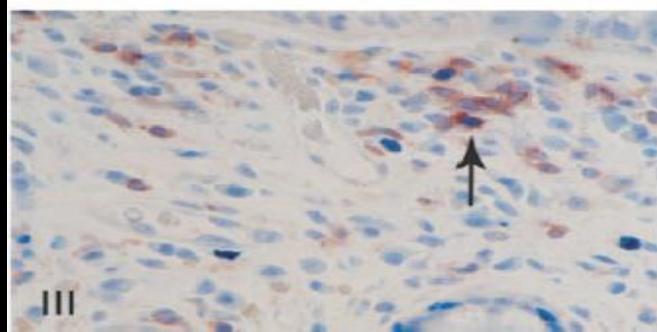
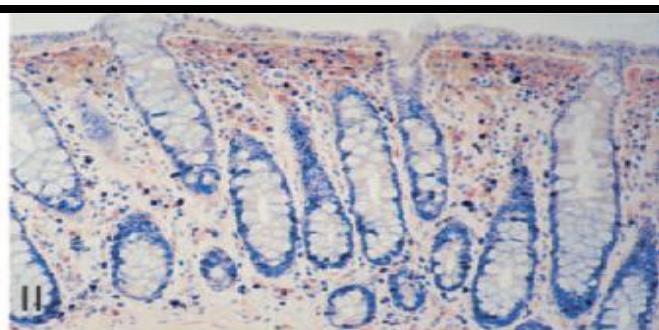
Chege D et al. AIDS 2011

Early HIV infection: greater immune activation in the gut compared to peripheral blood



Mehandru S et al. J Virol 2007

HIV -

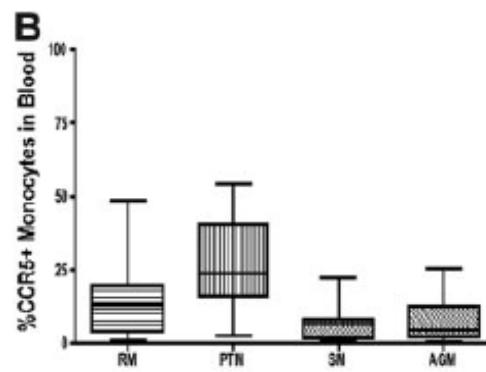
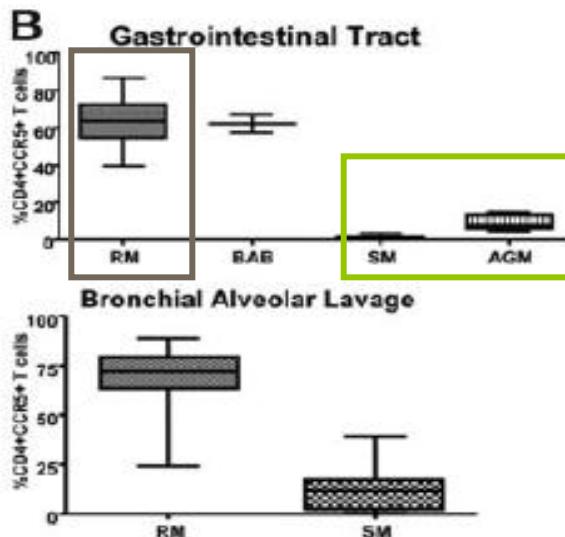
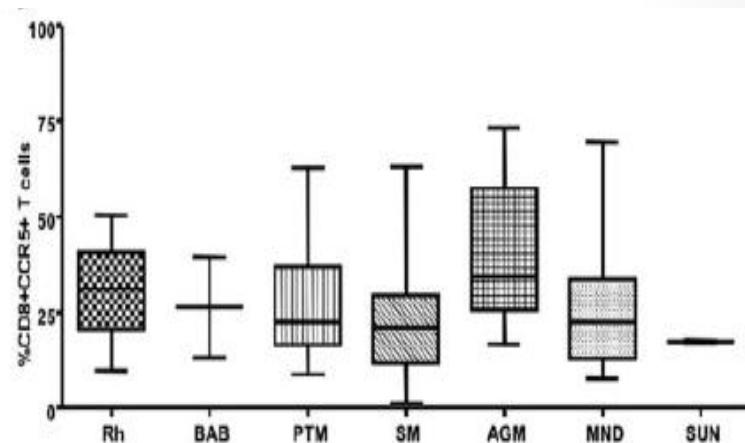
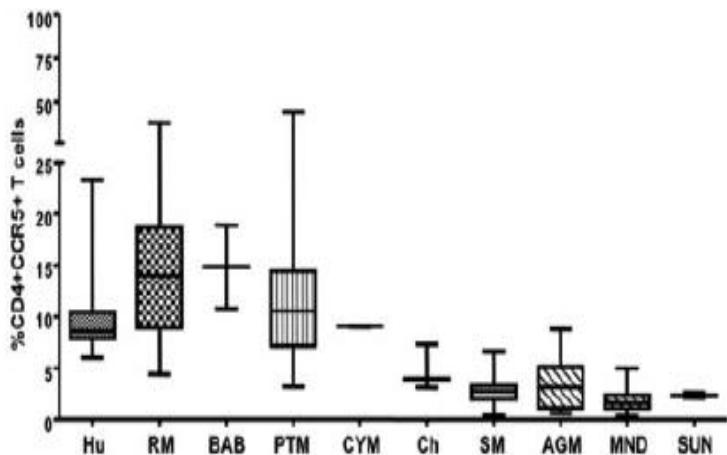


CD4+ in brown; Ki67+ in blue

HIV +

Lessons Learned from the Natural Hosts of HIV-Related Viruses: the experiment of “Mother Nature”.

EVELSOF

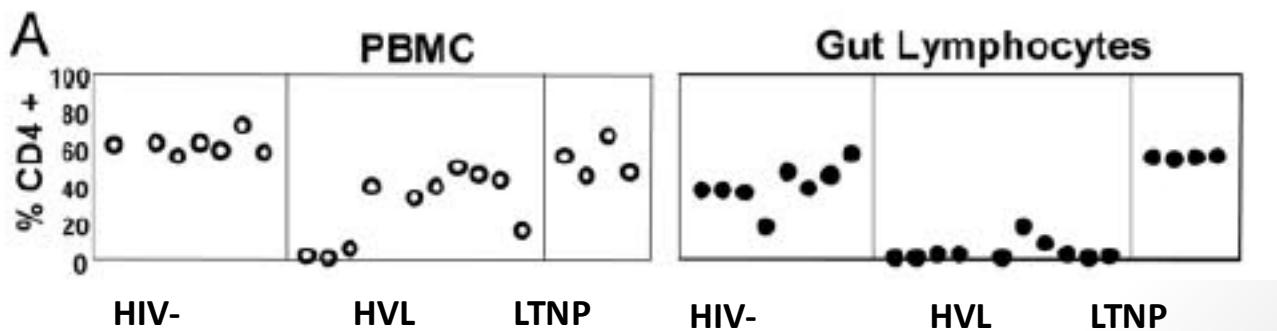
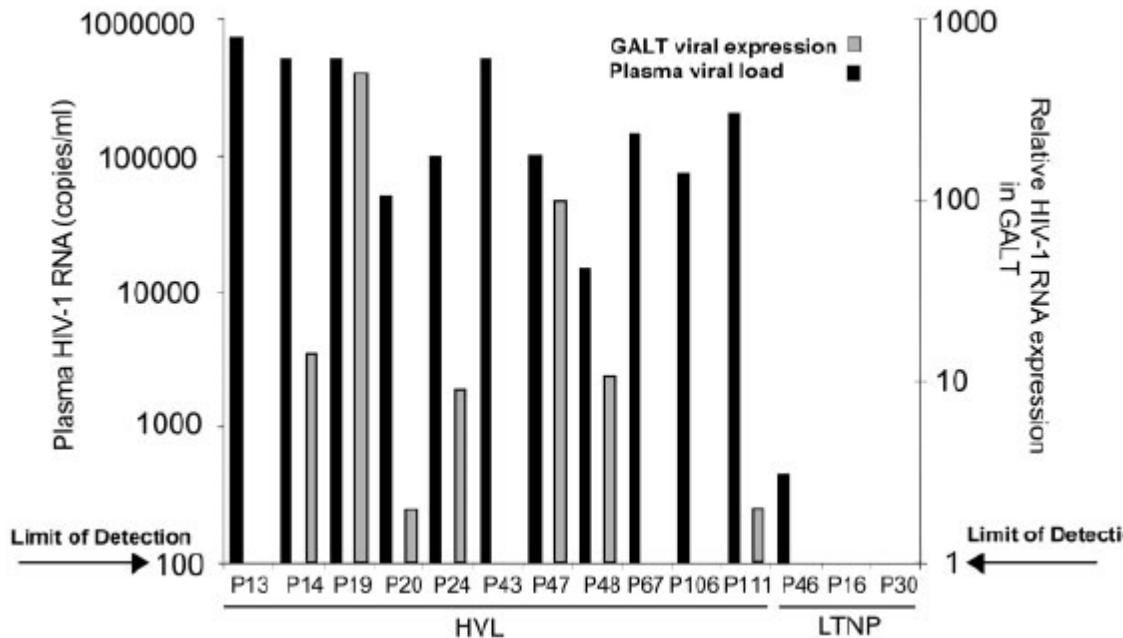


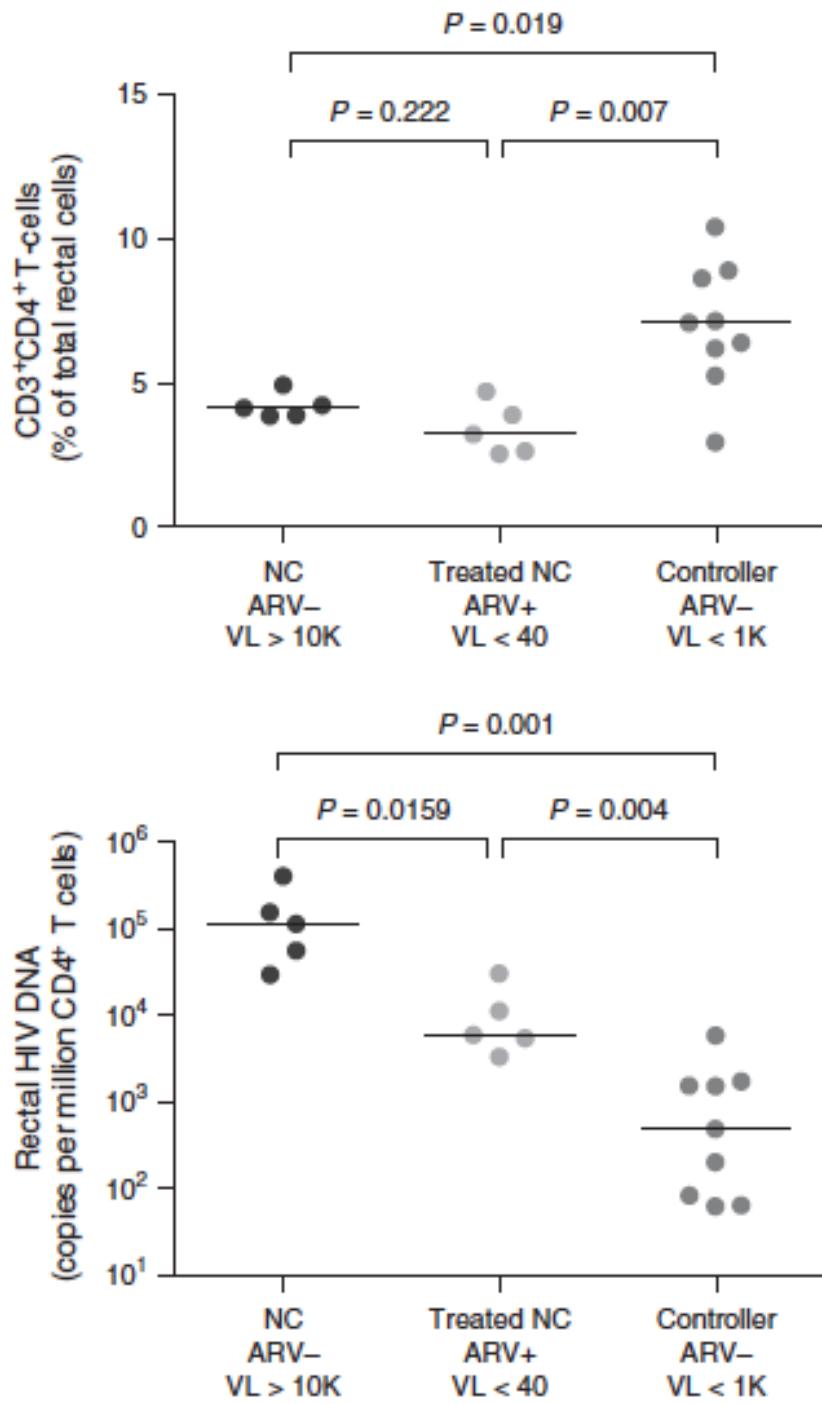
CCR5 and HIV: the less, the better

- Through natural selection, some species of primates exhibit lower levels of CCR5 cells in the gut, thereby escaping the massive immunopathogenesis and associated sequelae, allowing the host to maintain long-term nonprogression even in the face of relatively high plasma viremia.
- Should HIV infection persist uncontrolled in humans, we might find our own subspecies undergoing a selection for low CCR5 expression.

Viral RNA is not detected in mucosa of LTNPs

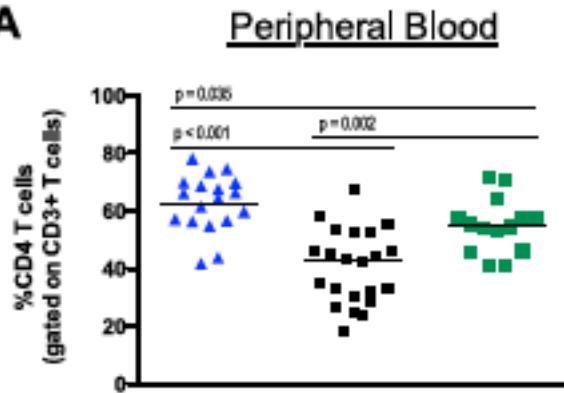
Sankaran S et al.PNAS 2005; also
Avettand-Fenoel et al. AIDS 2008



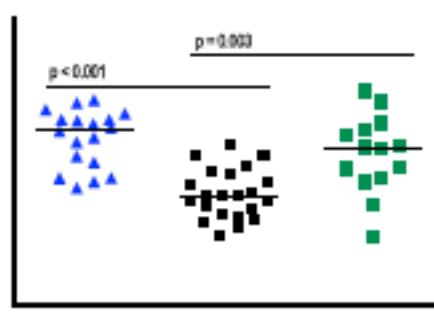


Colon CD4 are maintained in LTNPs

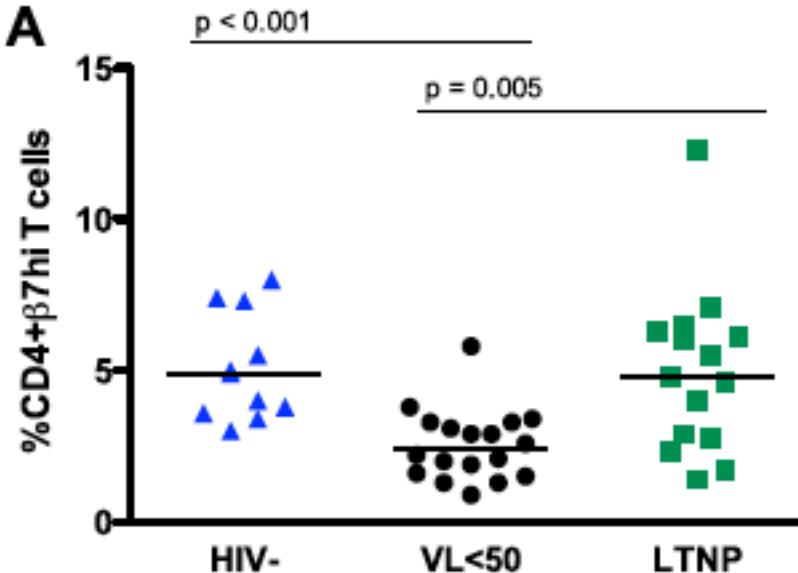
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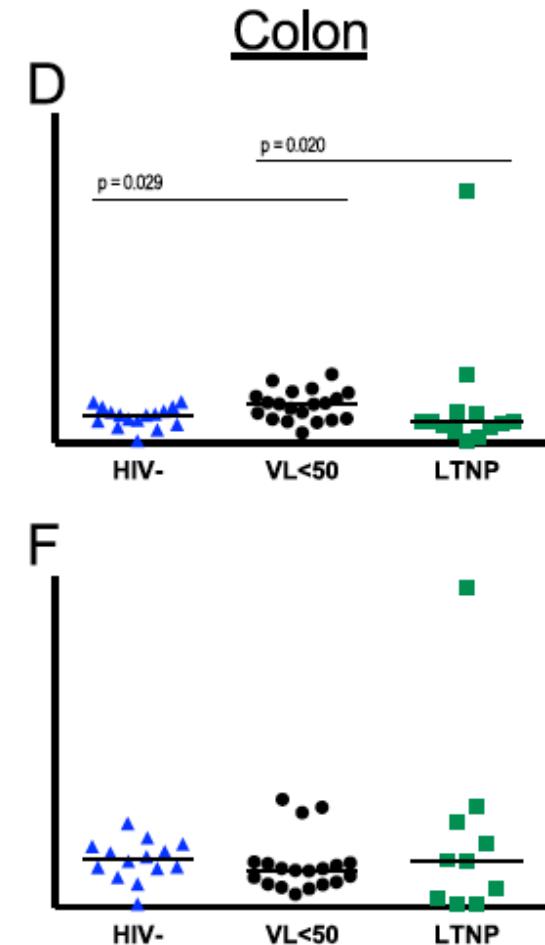
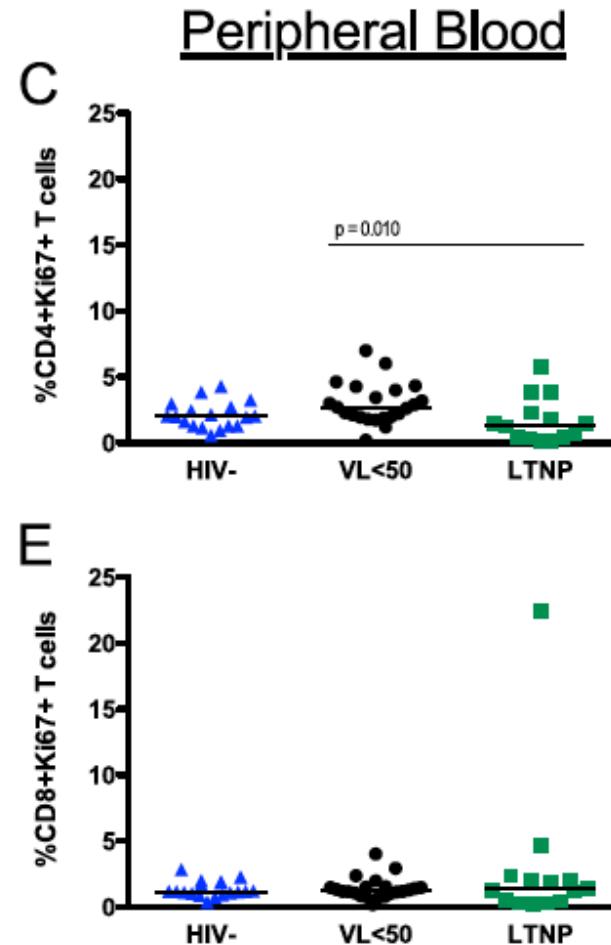
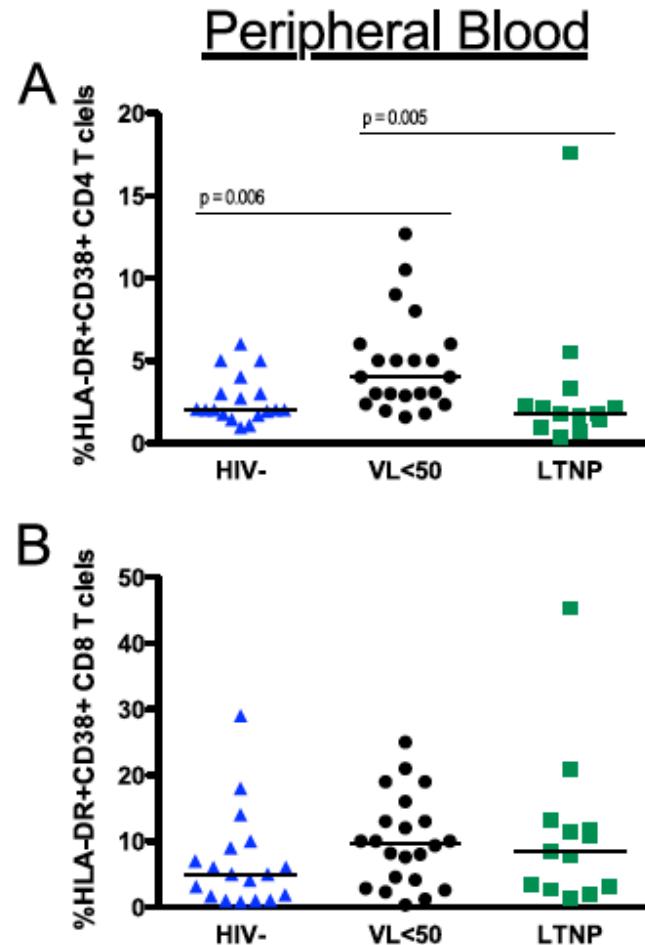
Colon



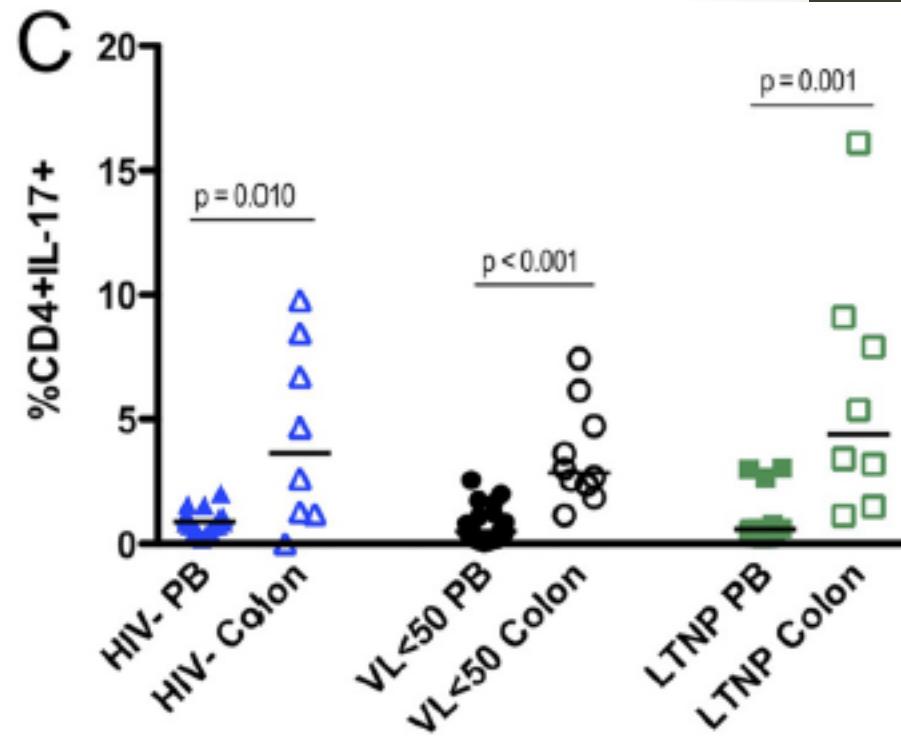
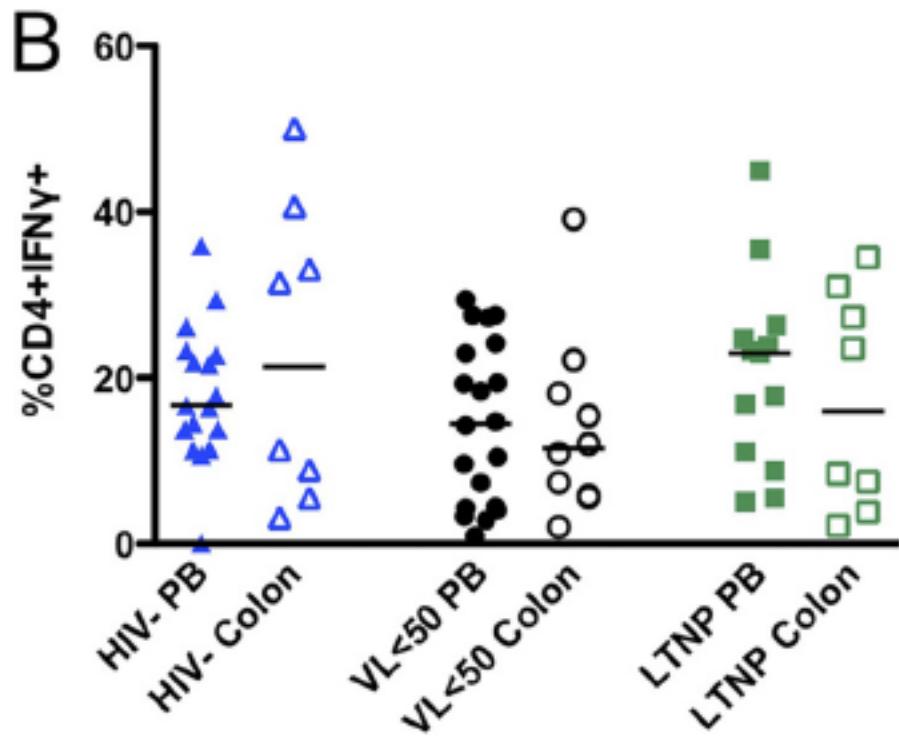
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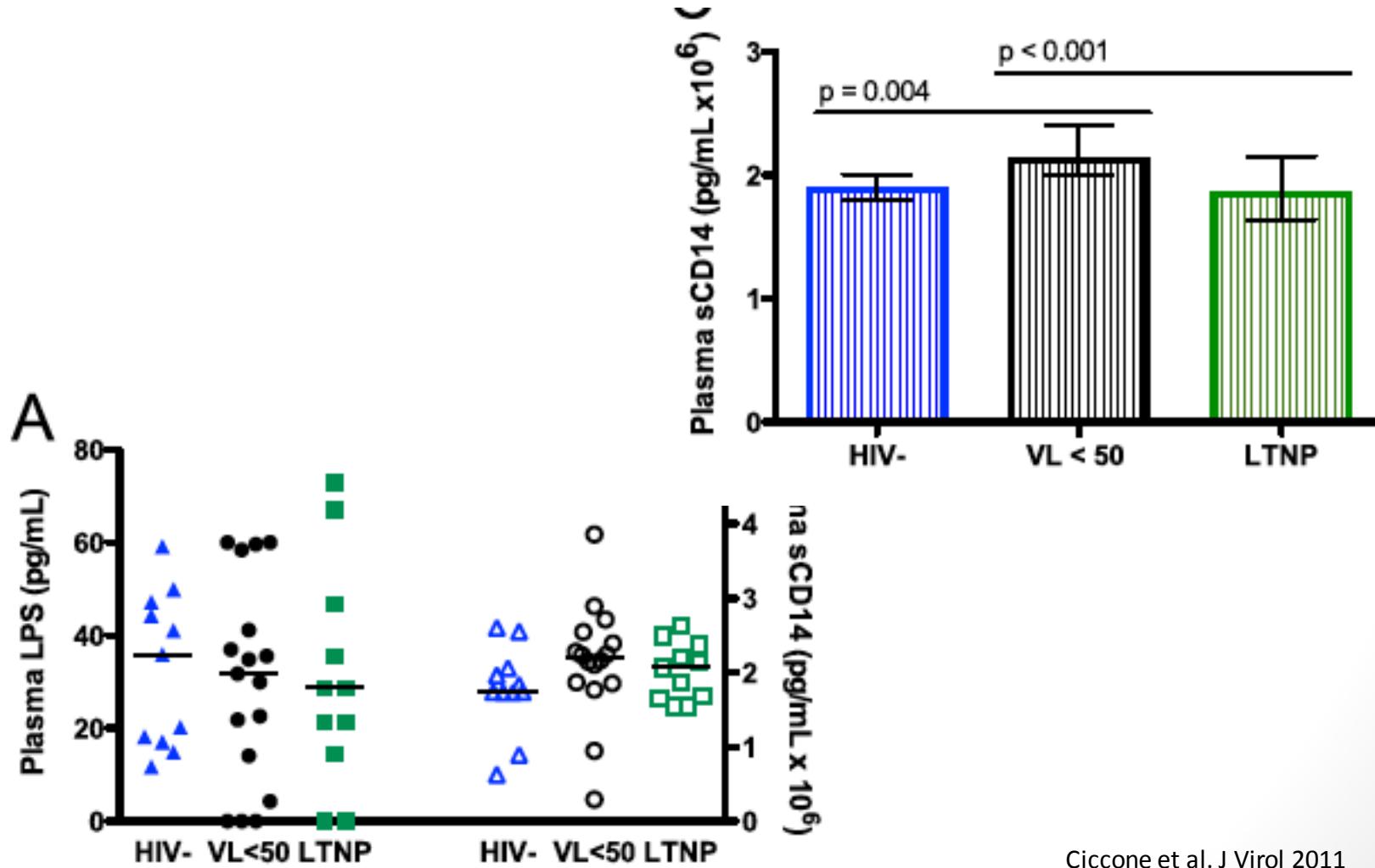
Lower T-cell activation in the gut of LTNPs

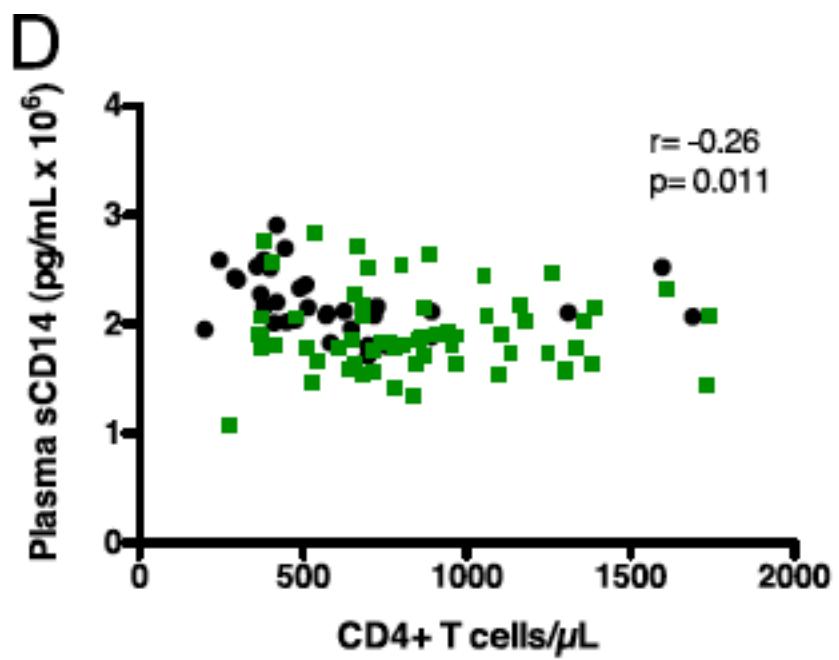


Higher colon Th17 in LTNPs

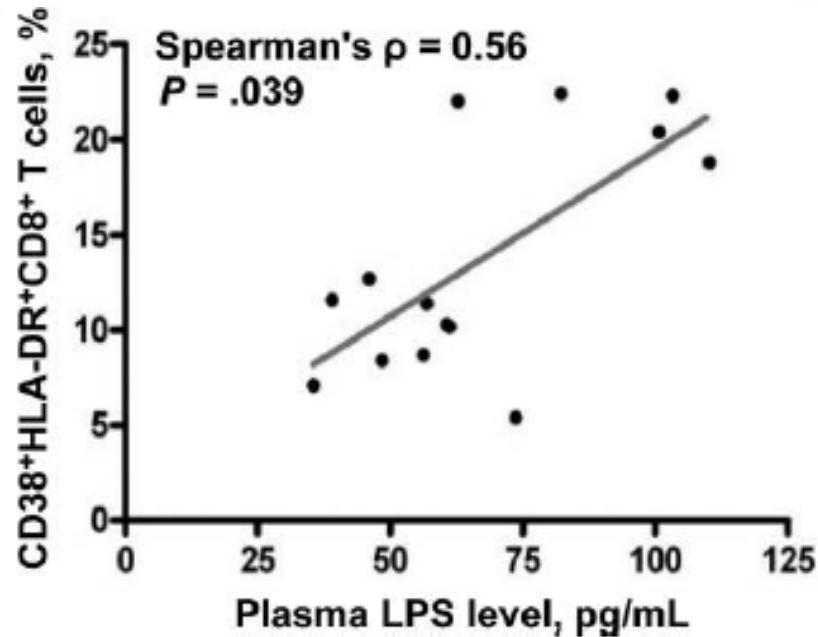
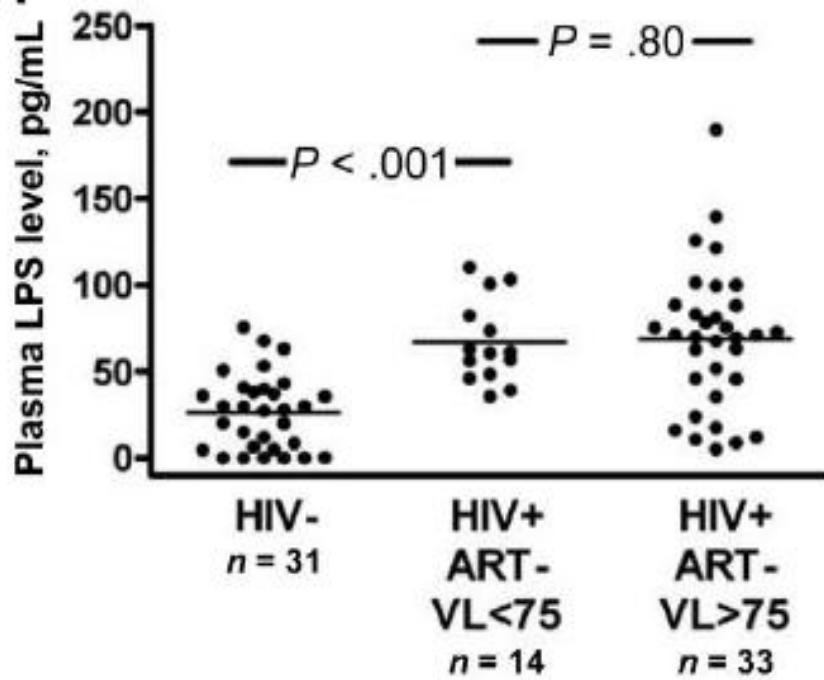


Lower immune activation due to microbial translocation in LTNPs



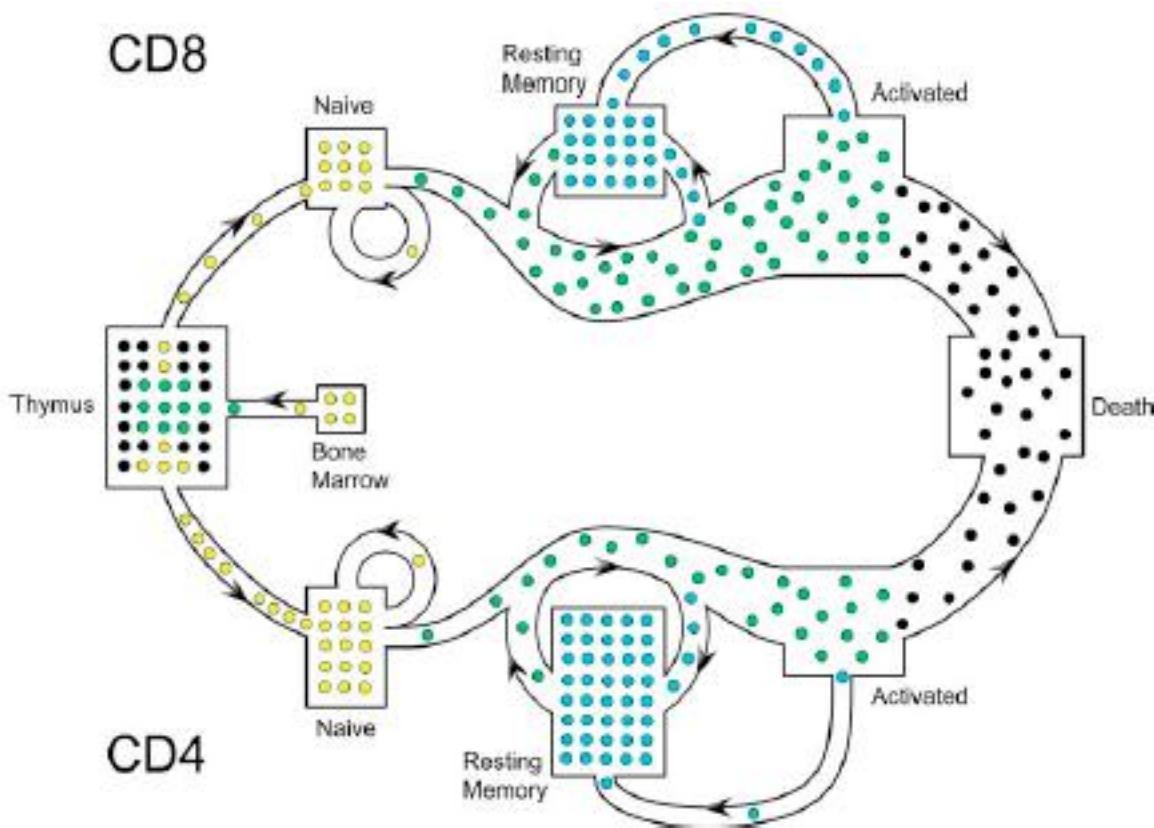


Elite controllers display elevated microbial translocation

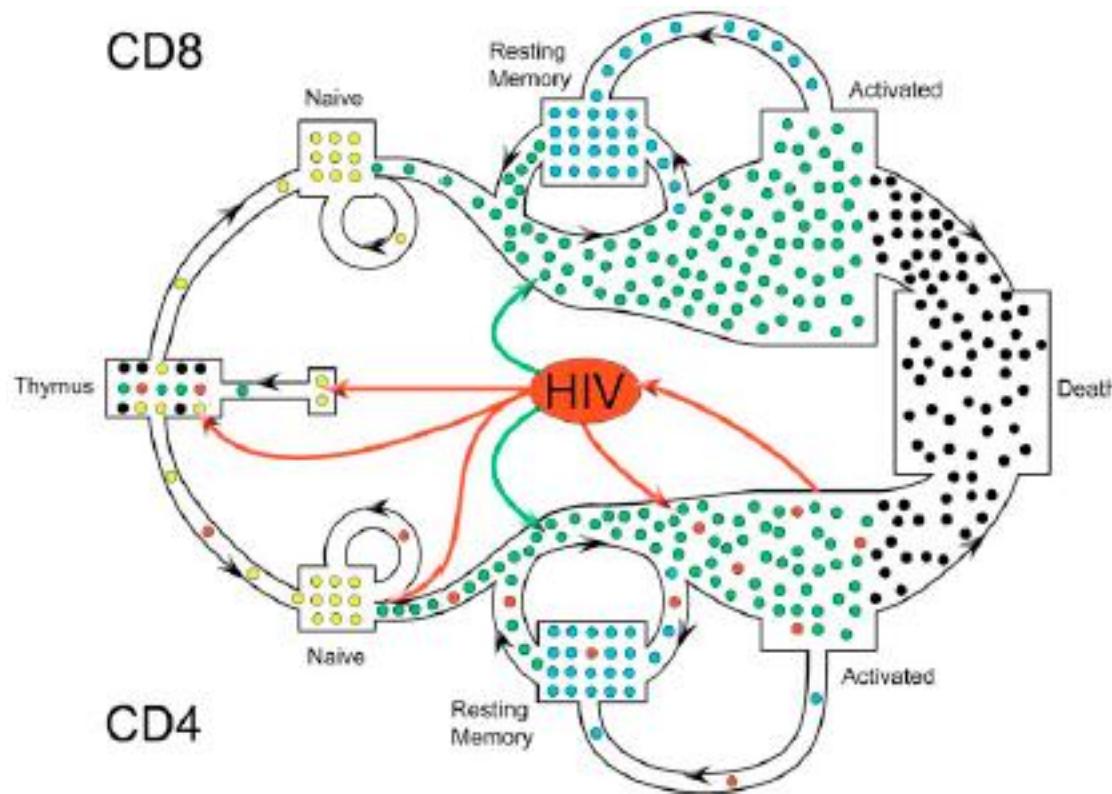


T-cell homeostasis in HIV pathogenesis

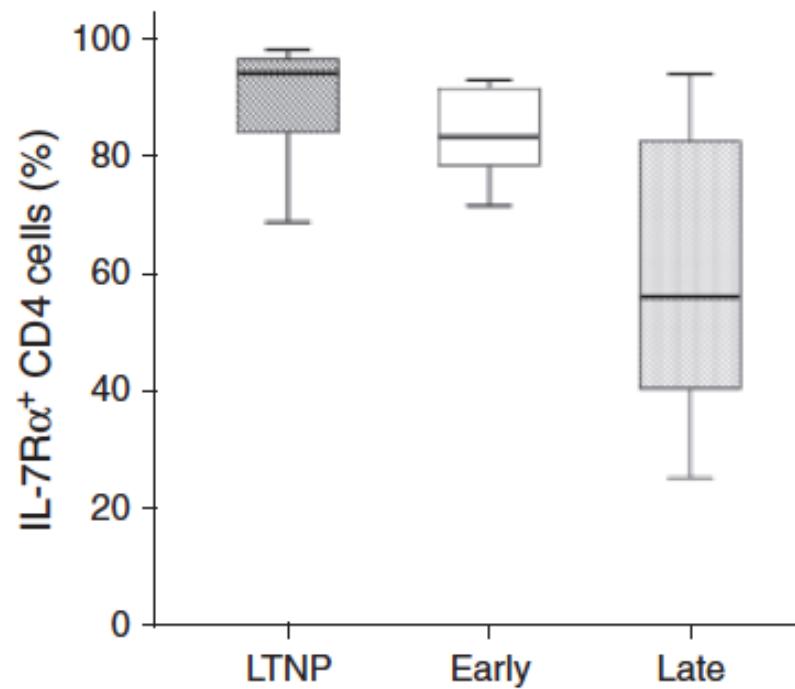
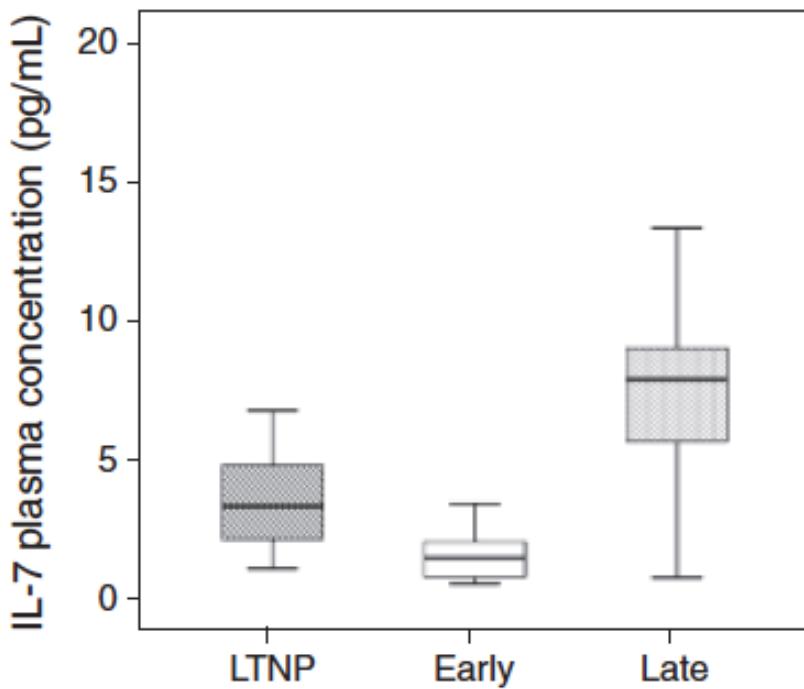
T-cell homeostasis in the healthy



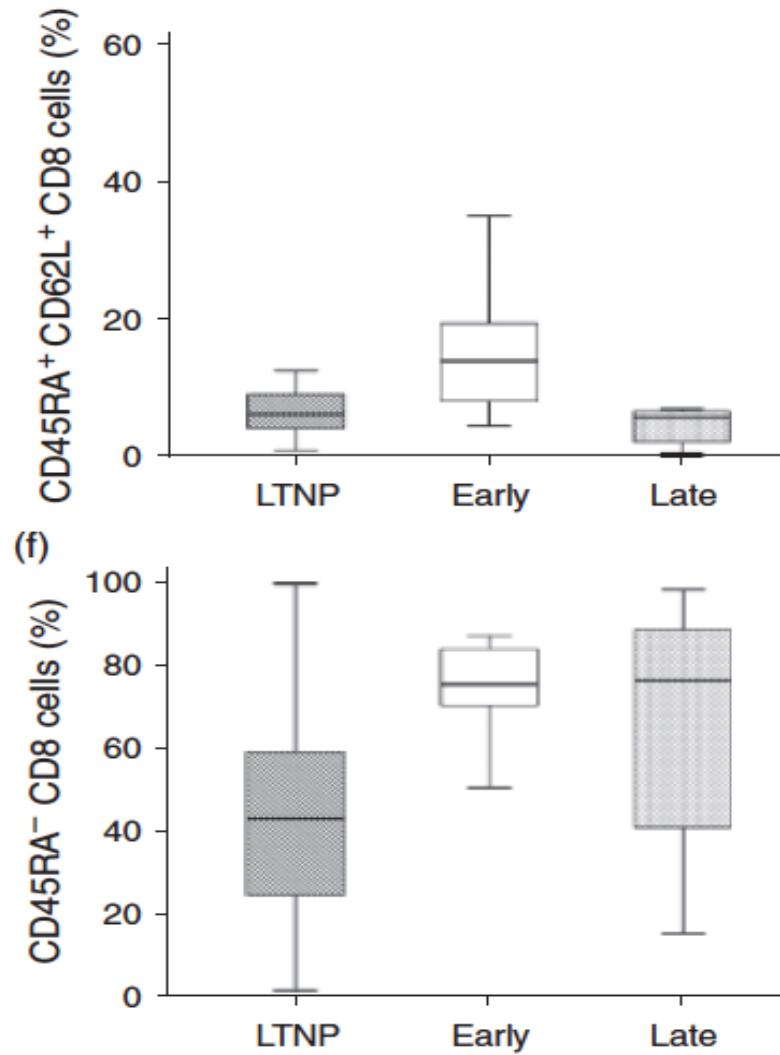
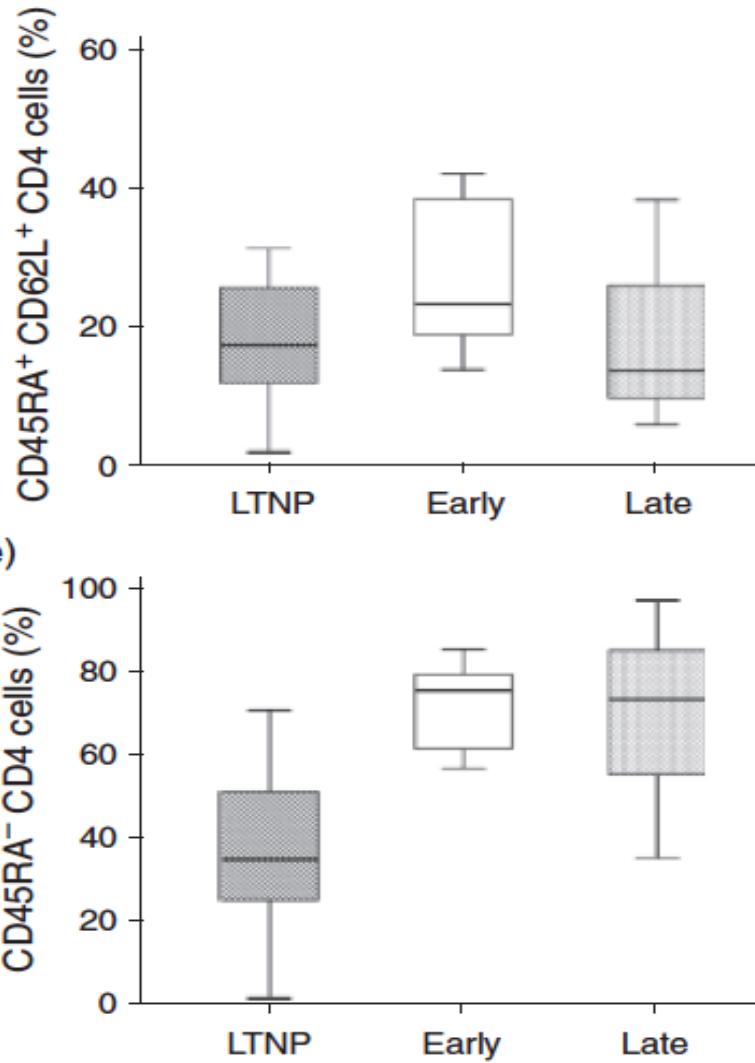
T-cell homeostasis in HIV



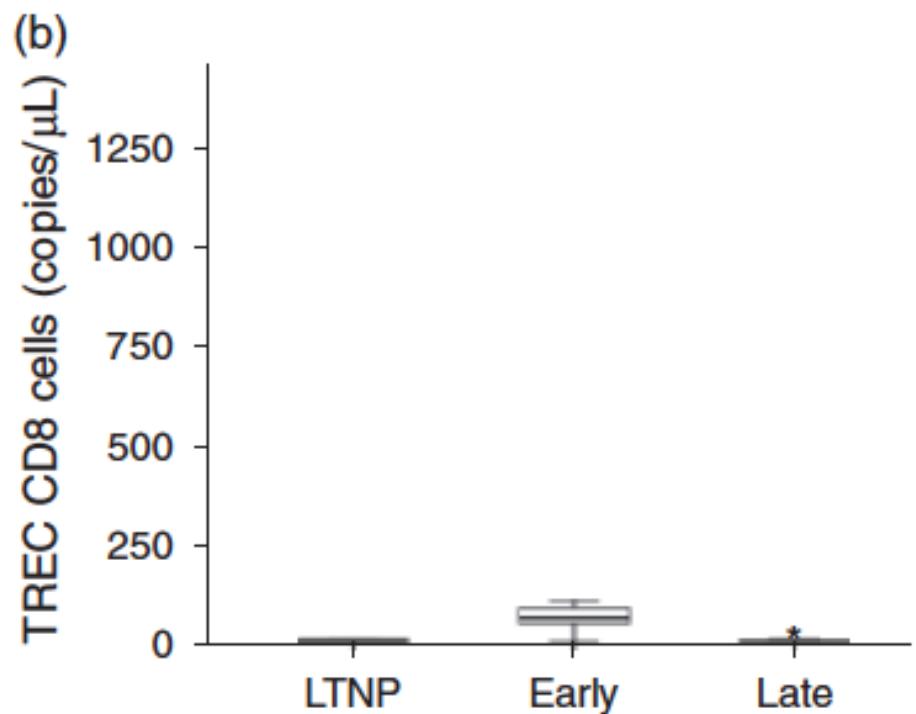
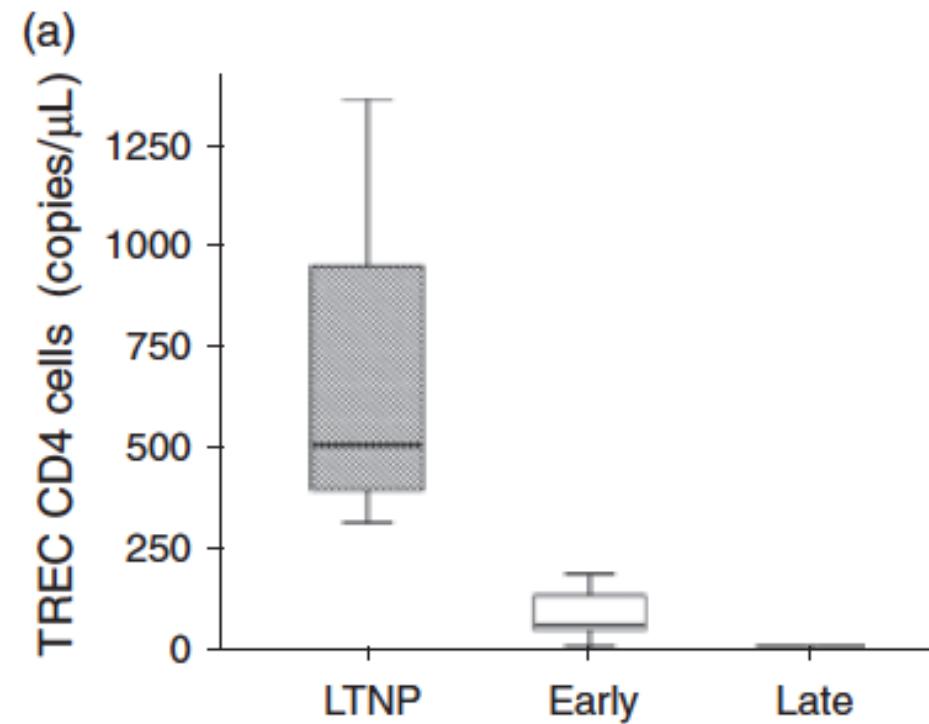
IL-7/IL-7R pathway in LTNP



Naïve/memory T-cells in LTNPs



Thymic output in LTNPs



Open questions

- HIV infects apparently a small proportion of CD4 (1 in 100 to 1 in 100)- how can it still overwhelm T-cell renewal capacity of the host?
- Drivers of chronic immune activation?
- Persistent HIV replication in the face of vigorous CTL response?



