

Malignant Interaction between B Cells and T Helper Cells

Simone Burgler*

Experimental Infectious Diseases and Cancer Research, University Children's Hospital Zurich, Zurich, Switzerland

*Corresponding author: Simone Burgler, Experimental Infectious Diseases and Cancer Research, University Children's Hospital Zurich, Zurich, Switzerland, E-mail: simone.burgler@kispi.uzh.ch

Received date: 24 Apr 2017; Accepted date: 22 May 2017; Published date: 29 May 2017.

Citation: Burgler S (2017) Malignant Interaction between B Cells and T Helper Cells. *J Blood Disord Med* 2(1): doi <http://dx.doi.org/10.16966/2471-5026.115>

Copyright: © 2017 Burgler S. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

Abstract

Collaboration of T helper cells and B cells is central for the generation of high affinity antibodies with distinct effectors functions, and thus for the establishment of effective immune responses. Physiological T cell help for B cells takes place in germinal centers in peripheral lymphoid organs, where follicular T helper cells interact with mature, antigen-stimulated B cells. Occasionally, B cells undergo malignant transformation, which may lead to the development of leukemia or lymphoma. In nearly all cancers, the tumor cells critically depend on interactions with the tumor microenvironment for growth and survival. Since many B cell malignancies develop in germinal centers - the place of physiological T helper cell-B cell interaction - T helper cells represent a main component of the tumor microenvironment of B cell leukemia and lymphoma. Thus, while crucial for the development of an effective immune response, the interaction between T helper cells and B cells on the flip side contributes the development and pathogenesis of B cell malignancies. This mini-review discusses the mechanisms underlying T helper cell-mediated support of malignant B cells in leukemia and lymphoma. Given the importance of the tumor microenvironment in cancer pathogenesis, targeting these malignant interactions may increase treatment efficiency and reduce disease relapse.

Keywords: T Helper Cells; B cells; Leukemia; Lymphoma; B cell malignancies; T helper cell-B cell interaction; Tumor microenvironment

Abbreviations: CLL: Chronic Lymphocytic Leukemia; FL: Follicular Lymphoma; HL: Hodgkin Lymphoma; MHC: Major Histocompatibility Complex; MM: Multiple Lymphoma; TCR: T Cell Receptor

Physiological Th Cell-B Cell Interaction

Antibodies are a central arm of the adaptive immune system. Highly diverse and equipped with diverse effectors functions, antibodies recognize and neutralize invading pathogens by various mechanisms. While B cells are the producers of antibodies, they depend on help from T helper (Th) cells for the generation of high affinity antibodies with distinct effectors properties. Thus, the establishment of a specific and efficient immune response requires a close collaboration of Th cells and B cells.

Th cells are generated in the bone marrow (BM) but mature in the thymus. Naïve Th cells leave the thymus and migrate to the periphery, where they may encounter antigenic peptides presented by antigen-presenting cells. Upon stimulation, Th cells proliferate and differentiate into one of several effector subsets that are distinct in phenotype and function. Best characterized among these are the pro-inflammatory Th1 cells, expressing interferon (IFN)- γ , and the Th2 cells, producing interleukin (IL)-4, IL-5 and IL-13 [1]. Besides further effector lineages such as Th17, Th9 or Th22, several Th cell subsets with regulatory or suppressive functions - called regulatory T (Treg) cells-exist [2]. In addition, follicular helper T (Tfh) cells make up a unique population of Th cells distinct from extrafollicular and peripheral Th cells [3].

B cells develop and mature in the BM and subsequently migrate to the secondary lymphoid organs for the antigen-dependent phase of their development. While this process can be independent of T cell help, B cells conventionally engage in T cell-dependent responses and receive stimulation by CD40L, IL-4 and IL-21 from Tfh cells [4]. B cells further develop either into short-lived plasma cells, or into GC B cells that give rise to long-lived memory B cells and plasma cells. Importantly, the interaction with Tfh cells leads to the upregulation of activation-induced

cytidine deaminase (AID), a DNA-editing enzyme and that initiates somatic hypermutation (SHM) and class switch recombination (CSR), the basic mechanisms creating high affinity antibodies with diverse effector functions [5].

Malignant Th Cell-B Cell Interaction

During their development, B cells may undergo malignant transformation, resulting in leukemia or lymphoma. Such transformations are frequently initiated by genetic events leading to aberrantly expressed proteins that promote growth and survival of the cells. The mutations, however, are usually not sufficient for cancer development. Instead, malignant B cells critically depend on interactions with cells of their microenvironment in order to survive and expand [6-8].

B cell malignancies often arise from GC B cells. Thus, the cells within GC represent key collaboration partners of malignant cells during pathogenesis, progression and relapse of leukemia and lymphoma. Besides non-hematopoietic cells such as mesenchymal stromal cells and fibroblasts, the GC harbors Tfh cells that support B cells in their physiological maturation and function. Interestingly, malignantly transformed B cells seem to retain their ability to interact with Th cells, and are therefore still capable of profiting from Th cell help. Thus, the same Th cell-mediated support that is crucial for an adaptive immune response can-when directed towards malignant B cells-promote lymphoma or leukemia (Figure 1).

Follicular lymphoma

Follicular lymphoma (FL) is an indolent lymphoma arising from GC B cells. Both non-hematopoietic cells as well as Th cells play a crucial role in supporting FL cell growth and survival [9]. Tfh cells from FL-affected lymph nodes express increased levels of IL-2, IL-4, IFN- γ and TNF [10]

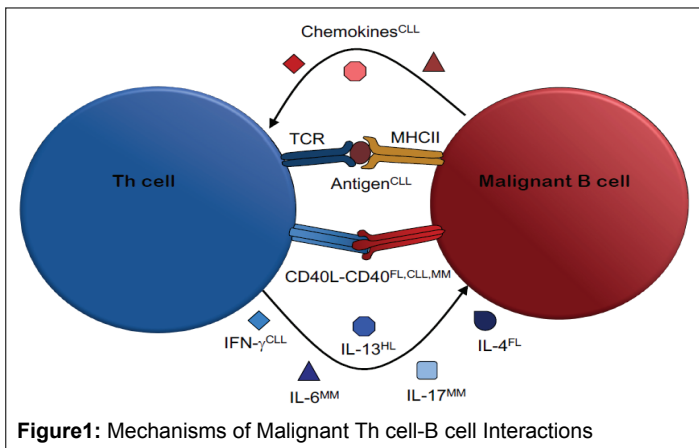


Figure1: Mechanisms of Malignant Th cell-B cell Interactions

and seem to support FL cells by IL-4 [11,12]. Besides cytokines, also ligation of CD40 with CD40L plays a role. FL cells showed an increased survival when stimulated by CD40 cross linking *in vitro* [13] as well as upon cognate interaction with Th cells [14], and it has been suggested that CD40L stimulation protects FL cells from TRAIL-mediated apoptosis in a NF- κ B-dependent manner [15].

Burkitt's lymphoma

Burkitt's lymphoma (BL) is an aggressive B cell cancer, probably arising from GC B cells [16] BL is strongly associated with the Epstein-Barr virus (EBV), even though the pathogenic mechanism is not clear [17,18]. The role of Th cells in BL development and progression is highly controversial. Several studies showed that EBV-specific Th cells could kill or limit proliferation of BL cell lines or EBV-transformed B cells [19-27]. Others, in contrast, have reported that EBV-specific Th cells induced B cell proliferation [28], and in several mouse models such EBV-specific Th cells were even required for lymphomagenesis [29-31]. Two studies found both a killing and supportive role for Th cells [32,33], suggesting that the function of Th cells in BL and other EBV-associated malignancies is likely to be context-dependent.

Hodgkin lymphoma

In Hodgkin lymphoma (HL), infiltration of certain Th cell subsets is correlated with reduced overall patient survival [34,35]. Several cytokines seem to have a stimulatory effect on malignant cells in HL, one of which is the Th2 cytokine IL-13 [36]. Nevertheless, the source of this cytokines is still unclear. Thus, a direct role of Th cells in HL development or expansion remains to be demonstrated.

Chronic lymphocytic leukemia

Chronic lymphocytic leukemia (CLL) is a malignancy of mature clonal B cells, although the precise cell of origin is still under debate [37]. CLL cells proliferate in pseudofollicles in secondary lymphoid organs and in the BM, where they receive support from cells of the stromal microenvironment [38]. Th cells are actively recruited by CLL cells via chemokines to infiltrate such CLL pseudofollicles [39,40]. Recently, we found that these Th cells recognized antigen derived from autologous CLL cells and stimulated CLL cell activation and proliferation in an antigen- and CD40L-dependent manner *in vitro* and in an *in vivo* xenograft model [41]. Interestingly, the patients-derived CLL-specific Th cells had a Th1-like phenotype, characterized by high IFN- γ secretion. IFN- γ upregulated CD38, a marker of poor prognosis in CLL in a mechanism involving IFN- γ -induced binding of the transcription factor T-bet to two consensus sites in 5 regulatory regions of the CD38 gene [42,43]. Consistently, T-bet

expression in peripheral blood CLL cells significantly correlated with CD38 expression. Thus, it seems that Th cell promote the development of a more aggressive CLL subset through secretion of IFN- γ .

CLL cells express polyreactive and/or autoreactive BCR that provide a certain level of constant signaling [44,45]. However, sustained BCR signaling can induce anergy and apoptosis. In fact, CLL cells are considered to be autoreactive B cells that may be rescued from anergy by stimuli from the microenvironment [46,47]. Consistently, we found that stimulation by CD40L activated the kinase Syk in CLL cells, a component that is shared by the BCR and the CD40 signaling cascade. This suggests that Th cells contribute to CLL development by rescuing CLL cells from anergy through CD40L stimulation [48].

Multiple myeloma

Multiple myeloma (MM) is a malignancy characterized by the expansion of plasma cell-derived myeloma cells in the BM. The BM of MM patients displayed increased numbers of T cells [49], and CD40 stimulation induced MM cell migration, which is associated with MM disease progression [50]. CD40 stimulation also triggered secretion of IL-6 by MM cells, which may mediate MM cell proliferation in an autocrine and/or paracrine mechanism [51]. In addition to CD40L-mediated stimulation, MM-specific Th cells could also support autologous MM cells by secreting cytokines [52]. Very recently, we demonstrated that polyclonally activated allogeneic as well as autologous Th cells stimulated blastogenesis and proliferation of MM cells in a CD40L-dependent manner [53]. Together with the previous reports by others, this suggests that CD40L stimulations is a key mechanism in Th cell-mediated MM cell support, but cytokines like IL-6 and IL-17 are important components as well.

Concluding Remarks

The tumor microenvironment plays a key role in supporting malignant cells. In B cell leukemia and lymphoma, the malignant B cells seem to have retained the ability to receive help from their physiological interaction partners, the Th cells. Consistently, a cancer-supportive role for Th cells has been described in various types of B cell malignancies, although the detailed mechanisms remain to be determined. Effective anti-cancer therapies should involve targeting the cells of the tumor microenvironment. Thus, research efforts leading to the identification and characterization of tumor-promoting collaboration between Th cells and malignant B cells may provide novel strategies for therapies aiming to target the tumor microenvironment.

References

1. Mosmann TR, Cherwinski H, Bond MW, Giedlin MA, Coffman RL (2005) Two types of murine helper T cell clone I Definition according to profiles of lymphokine activities and secreted proteins. *J Immunol* 175: 5-14.
2. Liston A, Gray DH (2014) Homeostatic control of regulatory T cell diversity. *Nat Rev Immunol* 14: 154-165.
3. Schaerli P, Willmann K, Lang AB, Lipp M, Loetscher P, et al. (2000) CXC chemokine receptor 5 expression defines follicular homing T cells with B cell helper function. *J Exp Med* 192: 1553-1562.
4. MacLennan IC (1994) Germinal centers. *Annu Rev Immunol* 12: 117-139.
5. Muramatsu M, Kinoshita K, Fagarasan S, Yamada S, Shinkai Y, et al. (2000) Class switch recombination and hypermutation require activation-induced cytidine deaminase (AID) a potential RNA editing enzyme. *Cell* 102: 553-563.
6. Sison EA, Brown P (2011) The bone marrow microenvironment and leukemia: biology and therapeutic targeting. *Expert Rev Hematol* 4: 271-283.

7. Purizaca J, Meza I, Pelayo R (2012) Early lymphoid development and microenvironmental cues in B-cell acute lymphoblastic leukemia. *Arch Med Res* 43: 89-101.
8. Ayala F, Dewar R, Kieran M, Kalluri R (2009) Contribution of bone microenvironment to leukemogenesis and leukemia progression. *Leukemia* 23: 2233-2241.
9. Ame-Thomas P, Tarte K (2014) The yin and the yang of follicular lymphoma cell niches: role of microenvironment heterogeneity and plasticity. *Semin Cancer Biol* 24: 23-32.
10. Ame-Thomas P, Le Priol J, Yssel H, Caron G, Pangault C, et al. (2012) Characterization of intratumoral follicular helper T cells in follicular lymphoma: role in the survival of malignant B cells. *Leukemia* 26: 1053-1063.
11. Calvo KR, Dabir B, Kovach A, Devor C, Bandle R, et al. (2008) IL-4 protein expression and basal activation of Erk *in vivo* in follicular lymphoma. *Blood* 112: 3818-3826.
12. Pangault C, Ame-Thomas P, Ruminy P, Rossille D, Caron G, et al (2010) Follicular lymphoma cell niche: identification of a preeminent IL-4-dependent T (FH)-B cell axis. *Leukemia* 24: 2080-2089.
13. Johnson PW, Watt SM, Betts DR, Davies D, Jordan S, et al. (1993) Isolated follicular lymphoma cells are resistant to apoptosis and can be grown *in vitro* in the CD40/stromal cell system. *Blood* 82: 1848-1857.
14. Umetsu DT, Esserman L, Donlon TA, DeKruyff RH, Levy R (1990) Induction of proliferation of human follicular (B type) lymphoma cells by cognate interaction with CD4+ T cell clones. *J Immunol* 144: 2550-2557.
15. Travert M, Ame-Thomas P, Pangault C, Morizot A, Micheau O, et al. (2008) CD40 ligand protects from TRAIL-induced apoptosis in follicular lymphomas through NF-kappa B activation and up-regulation of c-FLIP and Bcl-xL. *J Immunol* 181: 1001-1011.
16. Jaffe ES, Pittaluga S (2011) Aggressive B-cell lymphomas: a review of new and old entities in the WHO classification. *Hematology Am Soc Hematol Educ Program* 2011: 506-514.
17. Magrath I (1990) The pathogenesis of Burkitt's lymphoma. *Advances in cancer research* 55: 133-270.
18. Bornkamm GW (2009) Epstein-Barr virus and the pathogenesis of Burkitt's lymphoma: more questions than answers. *Int J Cancer* 124: 1745-1755.
19. Sun Q, Burton RL, Lucas KG (2002) Cytokine production and cytolytic mechanism of CD4(+) cytotoxic T lymphocytes in ex vivo expanded therapeutic Epstein-Barr virus-specific T-cell cultures. *Blood* 99: 3302-3309.
20. Adhikary D, Behrends U, Moosmann A, Witter K, Bornkamm GW, et al. (2006) Control of Epstein-Barr virus infection *in vitro* by T helper cells specific for virion glycoproteins. *J Exp Med* 203: 995-1006.
21. Landais E, Saulquin X, Scotet E, Trautmann L, Peyrat MA, et al. (2004) Direct killing of Epstein-Barr virus (EBV)-infected B cells by CD4 T cells directed against the EBV lytic protein BHRF1. *Blood* 103: 1408-1416.
22. Khanolkar A, Yagita H, Cannon MJ (2001) Preferential utilization of the perforin/granzyme pathway for lysis of Epstein-Barr virus-transformed lymphoblastoid cells by virus-specific CD4+ T cells. *Virology* 287: 79-88.
23. Freeman ML, Burkum CE, Cookenham T, Roberts AD, Lanzer KG, et al. (2014) CD4 T cells specific for a latency-associated gamma-herpesvirus epitope are polyfunctional and cytotoxic. *J Immunol* 193: 5827-5834.
24. Von Gegerfelt A, Valentin A, Alicea C, Van Rompay KK, Marthas ML, et al. (2010) Emergence of simian immunodeficiency virus-specific cytotoxic CD4+ T cells and increased humoral responses correlate with control of rebounding viremia in CD8-depleted macaques infected with Rev-independent live-attenuated simian immunodeficiency virus. *J Immunol* 185: 3348-3358.
25. Fu T, Voo KS, Wang RF (2004) Critical role of EBNA1-specific CD4+ T cells in the control of mouse Burkitt lymphoma *in vivo*. *J Clin Invest* 114: 542-550.
26. Paludan C, Bickham K, Nikiforow S, Tsang ML, Goodman K, et al. (2002) Epstein-Barr nuclear antigen 1-specific CD4(+) Th1 cells kill Burkitt's lymphoma cells. *J Immunol* 169(3): 1593-1603.
27. Nikiforow S, Bottomly K, Miller G (2001) CD4+ T-cell effectors inhibit Epstein-Barr virus-induced B-cell proliferation. *J Virol* 75: 3740-3752.
28. Fu Z, Cannon MJ (2000) Functional analysis of the CD4(+) T-cell response to Epstein-Barr virus: T-cell-mediated activation of resting B cells and induction of viral BZLF1 expression. *J Virol* 74: 6675-6679.
29. Coles RE, Boyle TJ, DiMaio JM, Berend KR, Via DF, et al. (1994) T cells or active Epstein-Barr virus infection in the development of lymphoproliferative disease in human B cell-injected severe combined immunodeficient mice. *Ann Surg Oncol* 1: 405-410.
30. Ma SD, Xu X, Plowshay J, Ranheim EA, Burlingham WJ, et al. (2015) LMP1-deficient Epstein-Barr virus mutant requires T cells for lymphomagenesis. *J Clin Invest* 125: 304-315.
31. Veronese ML, Veronesi A, DAndrea E, Del Mistro A, Indraccolo S, et al (1992) Lymphoproliferative disease in human peripheral blood mononuclear cell-injected SCID mice. I. T lymphocyte requirement for B cell tumor generation. *J Exp Med* 176: 1763-1767.
32. Linnerbauer S, Behrends U, Adhikary D, Witter K, Bornkamm GW, et al. (2014) Virus and autoantigen-specific CD4+ T cells are key effectors in a SCID mouse model of EBV-associated post-transplant lymphoproliferative disorders. *PLoS Pathog* 10: e1004068.
33. MacArthur GJ, Wilson AD, Birchall MA, Morgan AJ (2007) Primary CD4+ T-cell responses provide both helper and cytotoxic functions during Epstein-Barr virus infection and transformation of fetal cord blood B cells. *J Virol* 81: 4766-4775.
34. Alvaro T, Lejeune M, Salvado MT, Bosch R, Garcia JF, et al. (2005) Outcome in Hodgkin's lymphoma can be predicted from the presence of accompanying cytotoxic and regulatory T cells. *Clin Cancer Res* 11: 1467-1473.
35. Muenst S, Hoeller S, Dirnhofer S, Tzankov A (2009) Increased programmed death-1+ tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes in classical Hodgkin lymphoma substantiate reduced overall survival. *Hum Pathol* 40: 1715-1722.
36. Skinnider BF, Mak TW (2002) The role of cytokines in classical Hodgkin lymphoma. *Blood* 99: 4283-4297.
37. Chiorazzi N, Ferrarini M (2011) Cellular origin(s) of chronic lymphocytic leukemia: cautionary notes and additional considerations and possibilities. *Blood* 117: 1781-1791.
38. Burger JA, Ghia P, Rosenwald A, Caligaris-Cappio F (2009) The microenvironment in mature B-cell malignancies: a target for new treatment strategies. *Blood* 114: 3367-3375.
39. Pizzolo G, Chilosi M, Ambrosetti A, Semenzato G, Fiore-Donati L, et al. (1983) Immunohistologic study of bone marrow involvement in B-chronic lymphocytic leukemia. *Blood* 62: 1289-1296.
40. Ghia P, Strola G, Granziero L, Geuna M, Guida G, et al. (2002) Chronic lymphocytic leukemia B cells are endowed with the capacity to attract CD4+, CD40L+ T cells by producing CCL22. *Eur J Immunol* 32: 1403-1413.
41. Os A, Burgler S, Ribes AP, Funderud A, Wang D, et al. (2013) Chronic lymphocytic leukemia cells are activated and proliferate in response to specific T helper cells. *Cell Rep* 4: 566-577.
42. Burgler S, Gimeno A, Parente-Ribes A, Wang D, Os A, et al. (2015) Chronic lymphocytic leukemia cells express CD38 in response to Th1 cell-derived IFN-gamma by a T-bet-dependent mechanism. *J Immunol* 194: 827-835.

43. Burgler S (2015) Role of CD38 Expression in Diagnosis and Pathogenesis of Chronic Lymphocytic Leukemia and Its Potential as Therapeutic Target. *Crit Rev Immunol* 35: 417-432.
44. Stevenson FK, Krysov S, Davies AJ, Steele AJ, Packham G (2011) B-cell receptor signaling in chronic lymphocytic leukemia. *Blood* 118: 4313-4320.
45. Duhren-von Minden M, Ubelhart R, Schneider D, Wossning T, Bach MP, et al. (2012) Chronic lymphocytic leukaemia is driven by antigen-independent cell-autonomous signalling. *Nature* 489: 309-312.
46. Caligaris-Cappio F (1996) B-chronic lymphocytic leukemia: a malignancy of anti-self B cells. *Blood* 87: 2615-2620.
47. Muzio M, Apollonio B, Scielzo C, Frenquelli M, Vandoni I, et al. (2008) Constitutive activation of distinct BCR-signaling pathways in a subset of CLL patients: a molecular signature of anergy. *Blood* 112: 188-195.
48. Parente-Ribes A, Skanland SS, Burgler S, Os A, Wang D, et al. (2016) Spleen tyrosine kinase inhibitors reduce CD40L-induced proliferation of chronic lymphocytic leukemia cells but not normal B cells. *Haematologica* 101: e59-e62.
49. Perez-Andres M, Almeida J, Martin-Ayuso M, Moro MJ, Martin-Nunez G, et al. (2006) Characterization of bone marrow T cells in monoclonal gammopathy of undetermined significance, multiple myeloma, and plasma cell leukemia demonstrates increased infiltration by cytotoxic/Th1 T cells demonstrating a skewed TCR-Vbeta repertoire. *Cancer* 106: 1296-1305.
50. Tai YT, Podar K, Mitsiades N, Lin B, Mitsiades C, et al. (2003) CD40 induces human multiple myeloma cell migration via phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase/AKT/NF-kappa B signaling. *Blood* 101: 2762-2769.
51. Urashima M, Chauhan D, Uchiyama H, Freeman GJ, Anderson KC (1995) CD40 ligand triggered interleukin-6 secretion in multiple myeloma. *Blood* 85: 1903-1912.
52. Prabhala RH, Pelluru D, Fulciniti M, Prabhala HK, Nanjappa P, et al. (2010) Elevated IL-17 produced by TH17 cells promotes myeloma cell growth and inhibits immune function in multiple myeloma. *Blood* 115: 5385-5392.
53. Wang D, Floisand Y, Myklebust CV, Bürgler S, Parente-Ribes A, et al. (2017) Autologous bone marrow Th cells can support multiple myeloma cell proliferation *in vitro* and in xenografted mice. *Leukemia*.