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# **Pregnancy-Associated Immunoregulatory Molecules Discovered in Ruminants and Their Possible Relevance to Other Species**

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## **Abstract**

Several distinct molecules involved in maternal-conceptus interactions have been discovered in ruminants. Among these are two families of immunoregulatory molecules that represent genes that have undergone evolution to perform a function distinct from that of the ancestral gene. Interferon- $\tau$  (IFN- $\tau$ ) is a product of the trophoblast that retains its antiviral activity and other functions characteristic of interferons but whose primary role is the inhibition of luteolysis. The uterine serpins are progesterone-induced members of the serpin superfamily of serine proteinase inhibitors. The uterine serpin has only a weak antiproteinase activity and, at least in the sheep, appears to function as an inhibitor of lymphocyte proliferation to mediate the immunosuppressive effects of progesterone on uterine immune function. The IFN- $\tau$  are not present in mammals that diverged from ancestors of ruminants before 36 million years ago, the approximate origin of IFN- $\tau$ , but uterine serpins apparently arose before the divergence of mammals and the proteins are present in at least one nonruminant species, the pig. The clinical value of these molecules can extend beyond use in ruminants. IFN- $\tau$  has been used to treat experimental allergic encephalomyelitis in mice and can inhibit human immunodeficiency virus replication. Ovine uterine serpin is also active against murine and human cells but a clinical use has not yet been identified.

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## **Introduction**

The pecoran ruminants diverged as a separate infraorder during the Middle Eocene epoch about 33–46 million years ago and radiated into 5 separate families during the Early/Late Oligocene transition about 20–29 million years ago

[1]. While the basic pattern of reproduction in pecoran ruminants is similar to other mammals, there are distinct features of reproduction including, most prominently, characteristics of placental anatomy [2]. There are also several molecules involved in endocrine and paracrine signaling processes during pregnancy that have been described in pecoran ruminants only.

Despite the unique features of pecoran reproduction, the immunological relationship between the conceptus and mother is similar in many ways to that of other mammals. The uterus of ruminants contains components of the immune system capable of tissue graft rejection responses [3, 4]. Like for other species, expression of MHC antigens on the trophoblast is largely downregulated [5, 6] although, at least in the cow, there is limited expression of class I MHC molecules on trophoblast in later pregnancy and the degree of fetal-maternal MHC compatibility affects placentomal lymphocyte populations and cytokine expression [6]. That extensive regulation of lymphocyte populations in the uterus takes place is indicated by the dynamic changes in uterine lymphocyte populations that occur during pregnancy. In the sheep, for example, macrophages accumulate in large numbers in the endometrial stroma during pregnancy [7] and a population of granulated  $\gamma\delta$  T cells becomes abundant in luminal epithelium of the interplacentomal regions during mid and late pregnancy [8, 9]. In contrast, numbers of nongranulated T cells in the glandular epithelium decline during pregnancy while numbers of these cells in luminal epithelium first decline and then return to levels seen in nonpregnant ewes [8, 9]. T cells are nearly absent in the placentomes [5].

The nature of the regulatory signals controlling changes in lymphocyte function during pregnancy is incompletely understood. Studies in which pregnancy is confined to one uterine horn have provided evidence for both systemic and local regulation of endometrial leukocyte populations [7, 9]. Both placental and endometrial tissues also produce a variety of cytokines and growth factors. For the purposes of this review, focus is placed on the properties of two immunoregulatory molecules that were initially discovered in ruminants and which appear to represent genes that have undergone evolution to perform a function distinct from that of the ancestral gene. Interferon- $\tau$  (IFN- $\tau$ ) is a product of the trophoblast whose synthesis peaks around the time when placental attachment begins. While it retains its antiviral activity and other functions characteristic of interferons, the IFN- $\tau$  gene has evolved to encode for a protein whose primary role is the inhibition of luteolysis to maintain sustained progesterone secretion [10]. The other protein, uterine serpin, is a progesterone-induced member of the serpin superfamily of serine proteinase inhibitors. Uterine serpin has only weak antiproteinase activity and appears to function as an inhibitor of lymphocyte proliferation to mediate the immunosuppressive effects of progesterone on uterine immune function [11].

## Interferon- $\tau$

The IFN- $\tau$  gene arose via gene duplication from IFN- $\omega$  about 36 million years ago [12], a time before the radiation of the pecoran ruminants about 20–29 million years ago [1]. Thus, IFN- $\tau$  genes have been found in a variety of pecoran ruminants including the cow, sheep, goat, musk ox, and giraffe. The genes continued to evolve after the initial gene duplication – 12 genes have been identified in sheep and 9 in cattle.

As pointed out by Roberts et al. [12], it is not its activity that makes IFN- $\tau$  such an important molecule in maintaining corpus luteum function because other interferons can also block luteolysis [13] and because IFN- $\tau$  retains the antiviral, antiproliferative, natural killer (NK) cell-activating, and immunosuppressive properties of type I interferons [14–18]. Rather it is its unique tissue-specific and temporal expression pattern. In particular, IFN- $\tau$  gene expression is limited to the trophoblast for only a few days at a time coincident with the time when the uterus is poised to produce prostaglandin- $F_{2\alpha}$  (PGF $_{2\alpha}$ ) pulses that lead to luteolysis. In the cow, for example, the trophoblast produces low amounts of IFN- $\tau$  beginning at the expanded blastocyst stage at  $\sim$ day 8 of pregnancy [19]. Synthesis becomes prominent by days 12–13, peaks at days 15–17, and continues to be produced in decreasing amounts until it ceases between day 25 and 29 [20–22]. These times correspond to the programmed time for luteolytic release of PGF $_{2\alpha}$  at days 16–19 after estrus [23]. The evolutionary changes that lead to this pattern of gene expression must therefore have involved changes in the transcriptional control of IFN- $\tau$  gene expression. IFN- $\tau$  genes have no apparent viral control elements in the promoter region but do contain an Ets-2 binding site that is likely required for expression in the trophoblast [12]. Signals from the uterus are important for induction of IFN- $\tau$  gene expression; expression can be induced by placing in vitro derived embryos in the uterus for several days [19]. The specific uterine signal involved is not known. There is evidence supporting the induction of IFN- $\tau$  gene expression by maternal granulocyte colony-stimulating factor (GM-CSF) and interleukin-3 [24] although effects of GM-CSF have not always been observed [25].

The mechanism by which IFN- $\tau$  blocks luteolysis involves disruption of the control of PGF $_{2\alpha}$  synthesis in the uterus. In the cow, IFN- $\tau$  induces synthesis of linoleic acid which, in turn, acts as a competitive inhibitor to cyclooxygenase 2 (COX-2) that is the rate-limiting enzyme for PGF $_{2\alpha}$  synthesis [26]. In addition, IFN- $\tau$  acts through a transcriptional-dependent mechanism to decrease the stability of COX-2 mRNA [27]. Induction of PGF $_{2\alpha}$  synthesis by endometrial epithelial cells requires actions of both estradiol and oxytocin. In sheep, IFN- $\tau$  reduces estrogen receptor- $\alpha$  gene expression, which in turn leads to reduction in amounts of oxytocin receptor [10].

The degree to which immunoregulatory functions of IFN- $\tau$  are important for pregnancy is unclear. In fact, the endometrium appears resistant to some of the actions of IFN- $\tau$ . Thus, although like other interferons, IFN- $\tau$  inhibits lymphocyte proliferation and causes activation of NK cells [17, 18], there was no noticeable effect of the conceptus on endometrial lymphocyte populations at day 16 of pregnancy in cattle [28]. A possible amplifying effect of IFN- $\tau$  on presentation of placental antigens through upregulation of class I MHC molecules is limited by the fact that uterine luminal epithelial cells (although not stroma or glandular epithelium) are resistant to this action of IFN- $\tau$  [29]. Similarly, endometrial epithelium and stroma are resistant to the antiproliferative action of IFN- $\tau$  [30]. There are a large number of endometrial genes whose expression is changed by IFN- $\tau$ , however, and some of these could conceivably alter the immune status of the conceptus-maternal interaction. Among these are monocyte chemotactic protein-1 and 2 in endometrial eosinophils [31] and GM-CSF in the luminal epithelium [32].

### **The Uterine Serpins**

The uterine serpins are members of a large superfamily of proteins that, prototypically, fold into a conserved structure and inhibit serine proteinases through a unique suicide-like mechanism [33, 34]. Uterine serpins have been identified in sheep [35], cattle [36], goats [37], and pigs [38] and are therefore more widely distributed phylogenetically than the IFN- $\tau$  genes. It has been estimated that uterine serpins diverged at some point before the divergence of mammals [39] and it is possible that uterine serpins are widely distributed among mammalian orders. Depending on analytical methods used, the uterine serpins are classified either as a distinct serpin clade or as a highly diverged group of the  $\alpha_1$ -antitrypsin clade [33, 39].

Many serpins have evolved to have functions distinct from proteinase inhibition and this appears true for uterine serpins. The best studied of these, the ovine uterine serpin (OvUS), can inhibit proliferation of  $\alpha\beta$  T lymphocytes [11] and has been proposed to protect the conceptus from destruction by the maternal immune system [40]. The porcine uterine serpins form complexes with the iron-containing protein, uteroferrin [41], and may be involved in metabolism of that protein. In addition, OvUS exhibits weak pepsin inhibitory activity [36, 42] and can bind to IgA and IgM [43] and activin [44].

All uterine serpins are products of endometrial epithelium [predominately glandular epithelium for most of pregnancy; see 45, 46]. The major signal for induction of synthesis for the ovine and bovine proteins (and presumably caprine

and porcine proteins) is progesterone [47] although placental lactogen or growth hormone can also increase OvUS mRNA in ovariectomized ewes treated with progesterone and IFN- $\tau$  [48].

The diversity of effects of OvUS on cells of the immune system and its potential mechanism of action have been reviewed [11]. This protein can inhibit activation of T cells induced by a variety of stimuli, NK cell activation in culture, NK cell-mediated abortion in vivo, and antibody production in response to T cell-dependent antigen, ovalbumin. The protein appears not to inhibit  $\gamma\delta$  T cells and the resistance of these cells to OvUS may explain in part why their numbers in the luminal epithelium of the endometrium rise in mid and late pregnancy [8]. What is unusual about OvUS as an immunoregulator is that it is not very potent – concentrations in the 100–500  $\mu\text{g/ml}$  range are required to inhibit T cells and NK cells in vitro. These concentrations are well within the physiological ranges of OvUS in uterine fluid, however, and the inhibitory effects of OvUS are likely to be physiologically relevant. Nonetheless, the fact that the protein is only active at high concentrations suggests that it acts to inhibit lymphocytes through some unusual mechanism. Perhaps, the protein has a low affinity for an immunosuppressive receptor or competes with the native ligand for receptors required for lymphocyte activation.

### **Relevance to Other Species**

Whether or not IFN- $\tau$  or uterine serpins play an important role in species other than the ones mentioned in this review depends upon their phylogeny. IFN- $\tau$  did not arise until soon before pecoran ruminants emerged [12] and therefore one would not find IFN- $\tau$  genes in orders of mammals that diverged before this time. Conversely, the early emergence of uterine serpins may mean that these proteins are produced in the uterus of a wide range of mammalian species. It may, however, be that the uterine serpin genes were not retained as functional genes in all species or exhibit expression in tissues other than the uterus.

Regardless of their role in species other than ruminants, there is clinical value in using the ruminants as a source of gene products with therapeutic potential. IFN- $\tau$  is less cytotoxic than other type I interferons [15] and has been used to treat experimental allergic encephalomyelitis in mice [49]. IFN- $\tau$  also inhibits human immunodeficiency virus replication [50]. Ovine uterine serpin is also active against murine [51, 52] and human cells [53] and either the uterine serpins or a more potent derivative of the serpins may prove useful in regulating lymphocyte proliferative responses.

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