

# Neonatal induction of tolerance to $T_H2$ -mediated autoimmunity in rats

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## Abstract

**Brown-Norway (BN) rats are highly susceptible to drug-induced immune dysregulations and when injected with mercuric chloride ( $HgCl_2$ ) or sodium aurothiopropanolsulfonate (ATPS), they develop a syndrome characterized by a polyclonal B cell activation depending upon  $CD4^+$   $T_H2$  cells that recognize self-MHC class II molecules. Since peripheral tolerance of  $T_H2$  cells might be crucial in the prevention of immunological manifestations such as allergy, establishing conditions for inducing tolerance to  $HgCl_2$ - or ATPS-mediated immune manifestations appeared to be of large interest. We report here that BN rats neonatally injected with  $HgCl_2$ : (i) do not develop the mercury disease, (ii) remain resistant to  $HgCl_2$ -induced autoimmunity at 8 weeks of age and later, provided they are regularly exposed to  $HgCl_2$ , (iii) are still susceptible to ATPS-induced immune manifestations, and (iv) exhibit spleen cells that adoptively transfer tolerance to  $HgCl_2$ -induced autoimmunity in naive, slightly irradiated, syngeneic recipients. These findings demonstrate that dominant specific tolerance can be neonatally induced using a chemical otherwise responsible for  $T_H2$ -mediated autoimmunity.**

## Introduction

For a long time the neonatal period has been thought to be a privileged period to manipulate the immune system, and particularly to tolerize against self and non-self antigens (1). Revisiting neonatal tolerance, recent papers have demonstrated that regarding the tolerance induction, the neonatal period is rather quantitatively different from the later stages of development (2–4).

Three non-mutually exclusive mechanisms have been posited to account for acquired unresponsiveness of T cells: clonal deletion, clonal anergy and active suppression (5). In this latter case, tolerance was shown to be restored or broken by passive transfer or depletion of regulatory T cells respectively (6).

Most autoimmune disorders, either organ-specific, such as experimental allergic encephalomyelitis (EAE), or systemic, such as the MRL/*lpr* lupus model, depend upon  $T_H1$  cells (7–9). Induction of tolerance has been well established in these autoimmune conditions by either intra-thymic injection (10–12) or by oral administration of the corresponding autoantigen with regulatory T cells being generated (13) or by passive transfer of regulatory T cells (14). By contrast,  $T_H2$  cells appear to be much less frequently involved in autoimmune

diseases. They play a role in EAE in immunocompromised mice (15), in lupus syndrome developed in B/W mice (16,17) and in allogeneic reactions (18). Moreover,  $T_H2$  cells were first accepted as not susceptible to tolerization (19,20) and even though induction of peripheral tolerance of  $T_H2$  cells is no longer controversial (21), a tolerant state appears more difficult to achieve in  $T_H2$  than in  $T_H1$  cells (22). For example, injections of parental spleen cells in  $F_1$  neonates lead to tolerance of  $T_H1$  cells, whereas  $T_H2$  cells escape this phenomenon and induce autoimmunity (23,24).

Mercury- or gold-induced autoimmune disorders in the Brown-Norway (BN) strain of rats represent another example of  $T_H2$ -mediated autoimmunity. Indeed BN rats injected with mercuric chloride ( $HgCl_2$ ) or sodium aurothiopropanolsulfonate (ATPS) develop a similar lupus-like syndrome with lymphoproliferation (25–27), hypergammaglobulinemia affecting mainly IgE and IgG1 (28), production of numerous autoantibodies (against laminin, DNA, type II and IV collagen, and thyroglobulin) (26,29–31), and an autoimmune glomerulonephritis due to the deposition of anti-laminin antibodies (32–34). All the immune disorders autoregulate and thereafter animals are relatively resistant to rechallenge with  $HgCl_2$

(35,36). In humans, mercury and gold salts are also associated with the occurrence of various immune-mediated manifestations (37) and thus make the animal models valuable to study the role of environmental factors in the development of systemic autoimmunity.

For both mercury- and gold-induced immune disorders, previous studies pointed to the pivotal role of autoreactive  $CD4^+$  T cells that proliferate in the presence of naive syngeneic MHC class II<sup>+</sup> cells (34,38,39) and induce a polyclonal B cell activation (26,34). These  $CD4^+$  T cells belong to the  $T_H2$  subset (18) and  $T_H2$  cell lines derived from gold salt-injected rats were demonstrated to transfer the whole autoimmune syndrome in naive, CD8-depleted recipients (40). Taking advantage of this strong mediation by the  $T_H2$  subset (34,40–43), we investigated, in this study, the conditions to induce a solid tolerance to  $T_H2$ -mediated autoimmunity. We show that neonatal injections of  $HgCl_2$  in BN rats establish a solid metal-specific tolerance to  $HgCl_2$ -induced immune manifestations. Moreover, transfer of spleen cells from animals neonatally exposed to  $HgCl_2$  is shown to protect syngeneic naive rats against mercury disease, therefore suggesting a role for an active suppressive mechanism.

## Methods

### Animals

BN rats, originating from the CSEAL (Orléans, La Source, France), were bred in our own animal facilities. Animals were weaned at 3 weeks of age, and were cared for and handled according to the principles expressed in the Declaration of Helsinki on the use of animals in research. Neonates and 2- to 9-month-old female and male rats were used in the following experiments.

### Experimental procedure

BN rats were s.c. injected with  $HgCl_2$  3 times a week for 2 weeks at a dose of 100  $\mu$ g/100 g body wt (33) starting within 24 h after birth. Control rats received the same volume of distilled water adjusted to the same pH (3.8) as the  $HgCl_2$  solution, following the same schedule as for  $HgCl_2$  injections. At 8–12 weeks of age, several BN rats received a second set of injections of either  $HgCl_2$  or  $H_2O$  as above, or of ATPS at a dose of 2 mg/100 g body wt 3 times a week for 8 weeks, as already described (34).

### Experimental groups

BN rats were neonatally injected with  $HgCl_2$  (Hg rats) or  $H_2O$  rats) (first set of injections). Rats from each of these two groups were either sacrificed at 2 weeks of age or were injected, at 8–12 weeks of age, with  $HgCl_2$  (Hg-Hg or  $H_2O$ -Hg rats) or  $H_2O$  (Hg- $H_2O$  or  $H_2O$ - $H_2O$  rats) or ATPS (Hg-ATPS or  $H_2O$ -ATPS rats) (second set of injections). In another set of experiments, BN rats neonatally injected with  $HgCl_2$  were re-exposed to  $HgCl_2$  either at 2, 4, 6 or 9 months of age.

### Transfer experiments

Spleen cells obtained from 2- to 4-month-old BN rats neonatally injected with  $HgCl_2$  or  $H_2O$  were i.v. transferred into  $^{137}Cs$   $\gamma$ -irradiated (200 rad) BN rats of 8–12 weeks of age.

**Table 1.** Effect of  $HgCl_2$  administration in BN neonates

Neonatal injections <sup>a</sup>	n	IgE concentration ( $\mu$ g/ml)	Anti-laminin antibody titer (AU) <sup>b</sup>	Glomerular Ig deposits
$H_2O$	9	1.4 $\pm$ 0.6	1.3 $\pm$ 0.1	–
$HgCl_2$	9	2.3 $\pm$ 0.5	1.6 $\pm$ 0.1 <sup>c</sup>	–

<sup>a</sup>Neonates received six injections of  $H_2O$  or  $HgCl_2$  starting within 24 h after birth and were sacrificed at 2 weeks of age.

<sup>b</sup>Expressed as percent of maximum binding activity of a serum reference.

<sup>c</sup>Not significant using the Student's *t*-test when compared to  $H_2O$ -injected neonates.

Twenty-four hours after adoptive transfer, irradiated BN rats were exposed to 50  $\mu$ g/100 g body wt of  $HgCl_2$  3 times a week as described (33).

### Proteinuria and renal immunofluorescence studies

Proteinuria was assessed once a week using the biuret method and was considered as abnormal when exceeding 20 mg/24 h (33). Open wedge kidney biopsy was performed in 8- to 12-week-old rats on day 15 of the second set of injections. Kidneys were obtained after killing of 2-week-old rats on day 15 of the first set of injections or of 8- to 12-week-old rats on day 30 of the second set of injections. Kidney cryostat sections were stained with a fluoresceinated sheep antibody to rat Ig as previously described (33).

### Detection of anti-laminin and anti-DNA antibodies in serum

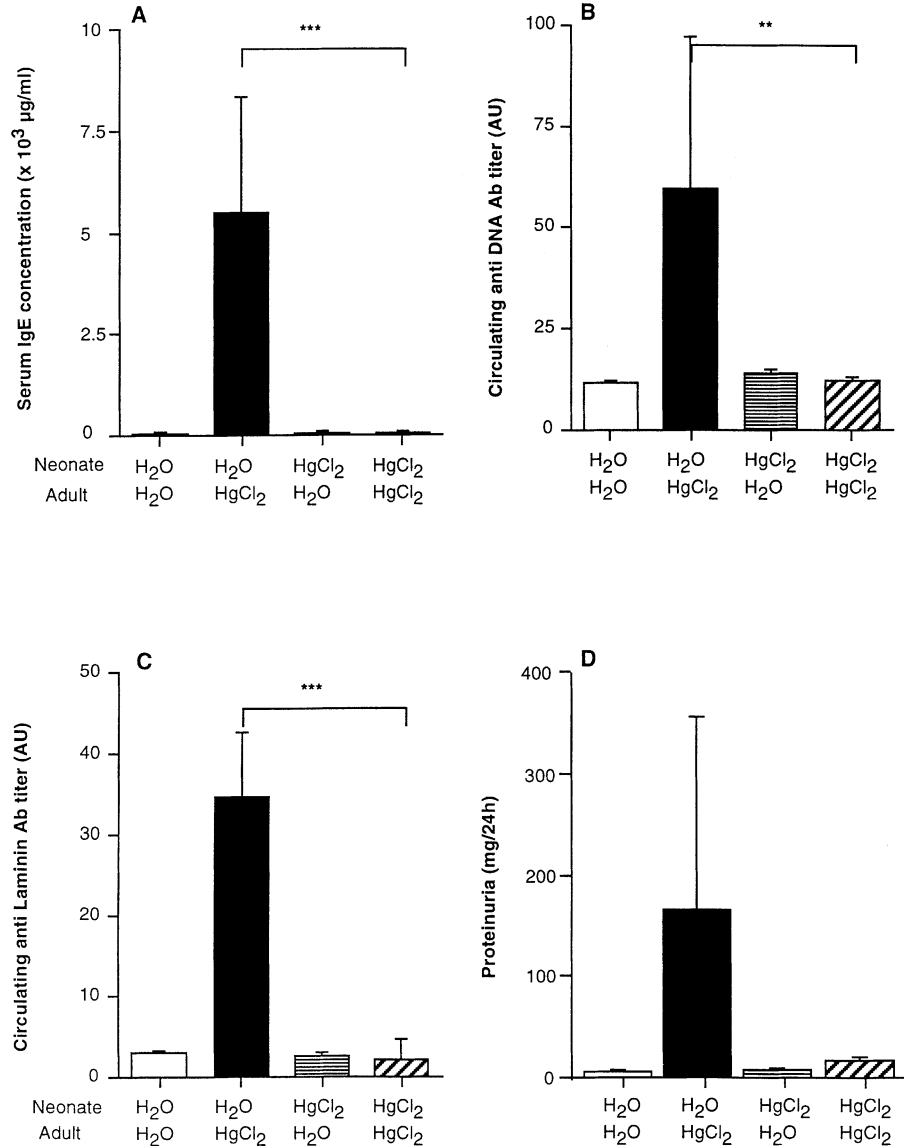
Individual serum titers of antibodies to laminin and DNA were measured by ELISA as already described (44,45). Results were expressed as percent of maximum binding activity of a standard pool of sera originated from BN rats injected with  $HgCl_2$ .

### Quantification of serum IgE concentration

Individual serum IgE concentrations were determined by a sandwich ELISA as follows. Microtiter plates (Maxi-Sorp; Nunc, Roskilde, Denmark) were coated with 100  $\mu$ l of the mouse monoclonal MARE antibody to the rat  $\epsilon$  chain (Immex, Brussels, Belgium), diluted to 5  $\mu$ g/ml in PBS containing 0.01%  $NaN_3$  for 90 min at 37°C and overnight at 4°C. Rat serum samples were diluted in PBS buffer containing 0.1% gelatine and 0.01% Tween 20 (PBS gel Tw) and incubated for 2 h at 37°C. Mouse monoclonal MARK-1 antibody to the rat  $\kappa$  chain labeled with horseradish peroxidase (HRP) (a gift from H. Bazin, Brussels, Belgium) was used as a second antibody, diluted 1:6 000 in PBS gel Tw and incubated for 1 h at 37°C; bound HRP activity was revealed as described (44) and absorbance at 490 nm was determined with a microplate ELISA reader (MR610; Dynatech, Alexandria, VA). Results were expressed by comparison to a standard pool of BN rat sera containing known amounts of rat IgE.

### Statistical analysis

Comparisons between the different groups of rats were performed using unpaired Student's *t*-test or Fisher's test as *post-hoc* procedure after ANOVA.



**Fig. 1.** BN rats neonatally injected with HgCl<sub>2</sub> are resistant to mercury disease under HgCl<sub>2</sub> exposure at 8–12 weeks of age. BN rats, when neonates, were injected with H<sub>2</sub>O or HgCl<sub>2</sub> and then, when 8–12 weeks old (adults), were exposed to H<sub>2</sub>O or HgCl<sub>2</sub> (see Methods). Serum IgE concentration (A), circulating anti-DNA (B) and anti-laminin (C) antibody titers were measured using specific ELISA, and proteinuria (D) was measured using the biuret method. Data represent peak values obtained during the second set of injections, i.e. in adult rats, and are expressed as the mean  $\pm$  SD from 11–16 rats. Statistical analysis for Hg-Hg rats versus H<sub>2</sub>O-Hg rats: \*\* $P$ <0.01 and \*\*\* $P$ <0.001.

## Results

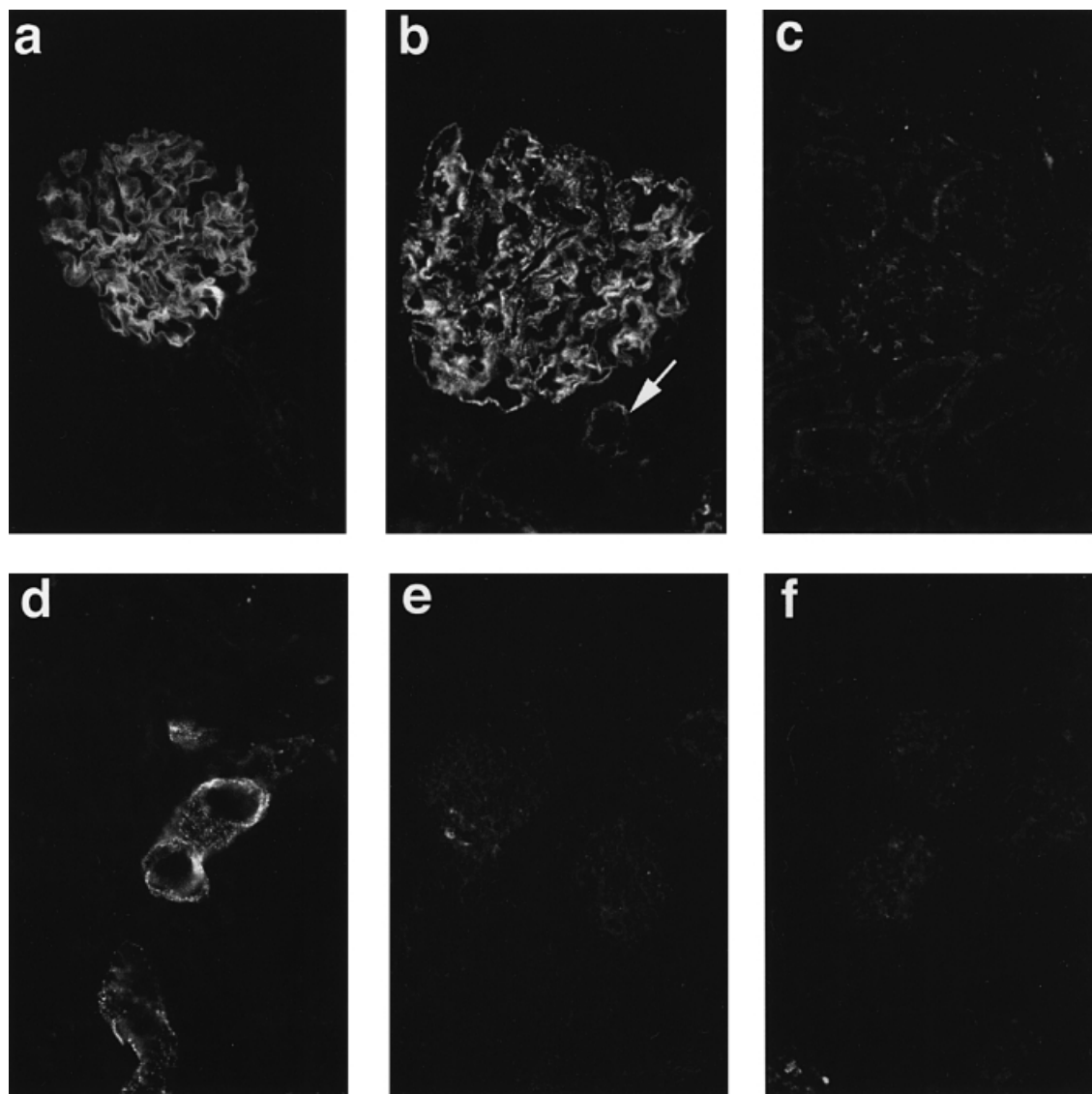
### Neonatal injections of HgCl<sub>2</sub> make BN rats tolerant to HgCl<sub>2</sub>-induced autoimmunity

Neonatally HgCl<sub>2</sub>-injected BN rats sacrificed at 2 weeks of age, i.e. after six injections of HgCl<sub>2</sub>, exhibited similar very low levels of circulating IgE and antibodies to laminin as neonatally H<sub>2</sub>O-injected BN rats sacrificed at 2 weeks of age. Moreover, in both groups renal glomeruli were free of IgG deposits (Table I).

Neonatally H<sub>2</sub>O-injected BN rats exposed to HgCl<sub>2</sub> at 8–12 weeks of age (H<sub>2</sub>O-Hg rats) exhibited the typical HgCl<sub>2</sub>-induced manifestations including a dramatic increase in serum IgE concentration (Fig. 1A) associated with the produc-

tion of antibodies to DNA (Fig. 1B) and to laminin (Fig. 1C). As previously described, these manifestations peaked on day 15, then declined and were no longer observed in the third month of HgCl<sub>2</sub> administration (not shown). Moreover, on day 15 all these H<sub>2</sub>O-Hg rats displayed typical linear IgG deposits along the glomerular capillary wall (Fig. 2a), whereas at the time of sacrifice, by the end of the second month of HgCl<sub>2</sub> administration, glomerular IgG deposits were distributed in a granular pattern along the capillary walls (Fig. 2b) and in the arteriolar walls. Finally, all of the H<sub>2</sub>O-Hg rats developed proteinuria (Fig. 1D).

In sharp contrast, neonatally HgCl<sub>2</sub>-injected BN rats exposed to HgCl<sub>2</sub> at 8–12 weeks of age (Hg-Hg rats) had similar circulating anti-DNA (Fig. 1B) and anti-laminin (Fig. 1C)



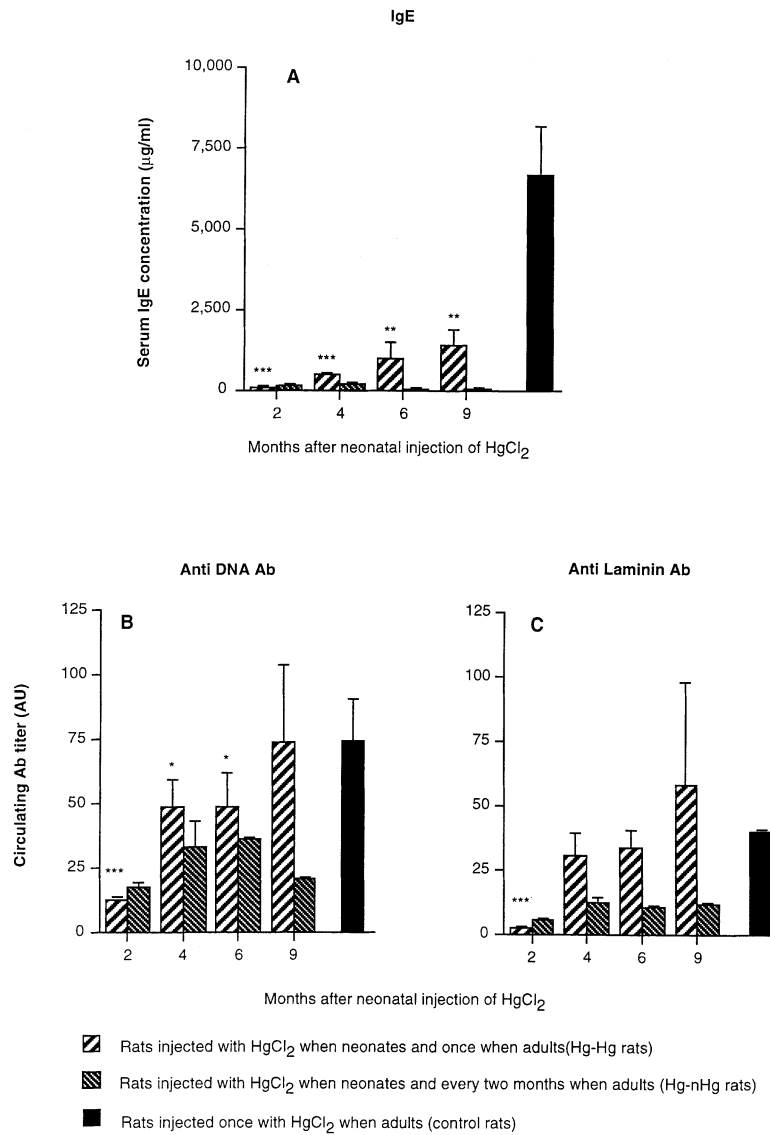
**Fig. 2.** Immunofluorescence studies. BN rats, when neonates, were injected with  $H_2O$  or  $HgCl_2$  and then, when 8–12 weeks old (adults), were exposed to  $H_2O$  or  $HgCl_2$  (see Methods). Kidney cryostat sections were stained with FITC-labeled sheep anti-rat IgG antibodies. In  $H_2O$ -Hg rats ( $n = 16$ ), on day 15 of  $HgCl_2$  exposure (a; original magnification  $\times 250$ ), IgG deposits are observed along the glomerular capillary walls in a linear pattern, and on day 60 of  $HgCl_2$  exposure (b; original magnification  $\times 250$ ), in a granular pattern along the glomerular capillary walls and in the arteriolar walls (arrow). In contrast, in Hg-Hg rats ( $n = 11$ ), only on day 60 of  $HgCl_2$  exposure (c; original magnification  $\times 160$ ) very light granular IgG deposits are disseminated within the mesangium and (d; original magnification  $\times 250$ ) granular IgG deposits are seen mainly in arteriolar walls. No staining is ever seen either in  $H_2O$ - $H_2O$  rats ( $n = 14$ ) (e; original magnification  $\times 160$ ) or in Hg- $H_2O$  rats ( $n = 12$ ) (f; original magnification  $\times 160$ ).

antibody titers as Hg- $H_2O$  or  $H_2O$ - $H_2O$  control rats on day 15 (Fig. 1B and C) or at any time thereafter (not shown). In Hg-Hg rats serum IgE concentration significantly increased ( $P < 0.05$ ) during the second week of  $HgCl_2$  exposure as compared to  $H_2O$ - $H_2O$  rats and then plateaued ( $48 \pm 24$  versus  $11 \pm 4$   $\mu g/ml$ ), but this increase was much lower ( $P < 0.001$ ) as compared to  $H_2O$ -Hg rats ( $48 \pm 24$  versus  $5420 \pm 3050$   $\mu g/ml$ ). Moreover, none of the Hg-Hg rats developed proteinuria (Fig. 1D); they only displayed scarce IgG deposits in the mesangial areas (Fig. 2c) and granular IgG deposits in the arteriolar walls (Fig. 2d) at the time of

sacrifice (8 weeks after starting the second set of  $HgCl_2$  injections). No renal staining was ever observed either in  $H_2O$ - $H_2O$  or Hg- $H_2O$  rats (Fig. 2e and f).

*Neonataly  $HgCl_2$ -induced tolerance is transient and dependent upon the presence of  $HgCl_2$*

BN rats neonatally injected with  $HgCl_2$  received a second set of  $HgCl_2$  injections at 2, 4, 6 or 9 months of age (Hg-Hg rats). As shown in Fig. 3, as compared to control BN rats that received only one set of  $HgCl_2$  injections at 2 months of age, in Hg-Hg rats, serum IgE concentration (Fig. 3A) and

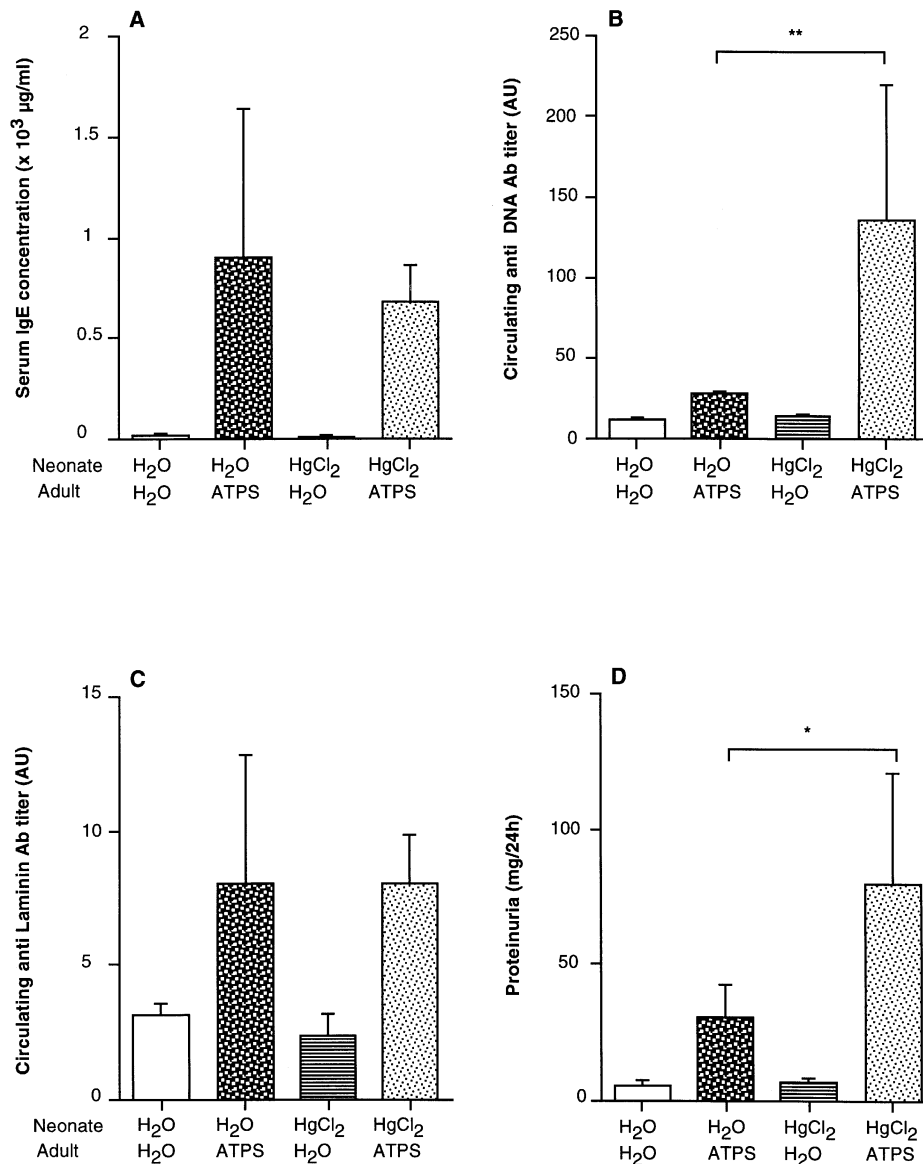


**Fig. 3.** Neonatally induced tolerance to mercury disease is transient and depends upon the presence of  $\text{HgCl}_2$ . BN rats received a first set of  $\text{HgCl}_2$  injections when neonates and a second set either at 2, 4, 6 or 9 months of age (Hg-Hg rats,  $n = 3-9$ ) or every 2 months starting at 2 months of age (Hg-nHg rats,  $n = 5$ ). Serum IgE concentration (A) circulating anti-DNA (B) and anti-laminin (C) antibody titers were determined by specific ELISA. Data represent peak values obtained during the last set of  $\text{HgCl}_2$  injections as compared to data obtained from rats exposed once to  $\text{HgCl}_2$  at 2 months of age (control rats,  $n = 3$ ). Statistical analysis for Hg-Hg rats versus control rats: \* $P < 0.05$ , \*\* $P < 0.01$  and \*\*\* $P < 0.001$ . Statistical analysis for Hg-nHg rats versus Hg-Hg rats exposed again to  $\text{HgCl}_2$  at 2 months of age: non significant.

circulating anti-DNA (Fig. 3B) antibody titers were lower but gradually increased with time. Moreover, in Hg-Hg rats, circulating anti-laminin antibody titers were significantly lower in rats of 2 months of age, but no significant difference was observed in rats of 4, 6 or 9 months of age as compared to control rats (Fig. 3C). These data indicate that the tolerant state to the mercury disease is transient. However, in rats neonatally injected with  $\text{HgCl}_2$  and then receiving a second set of  $\text{HgCl}_2$  injections every 2 months (Hg-nHg rats), the tolerant state to the mercury disease was sustained (Fig. 3A-C).

*BN rats neonatally injected with  $\text{HgCl}_2$  are still susceptible to gold salt-induced immune manifestations*

In susceptible BN rats,  $\text{HgCl}_2$  and gold salts induce similar immune manifestations characterized by polyclonal B cell activation depending upon autoreactive  $T_H2$  cells specific for MHC class II molecules (18,40,42). To address the specificity of the heavy metal-induced effects, gold salts were administered in BN rats neonatally exposed to  $\text{HgCl}_2$ . As shown in Fig. 4, BN rats neonatally injected with  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  and exposed at 8-12 weeks of age to ATPS (34) ( $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ -ATPS rats) behaved like unmanipulated BN rats and exhibited an increase in



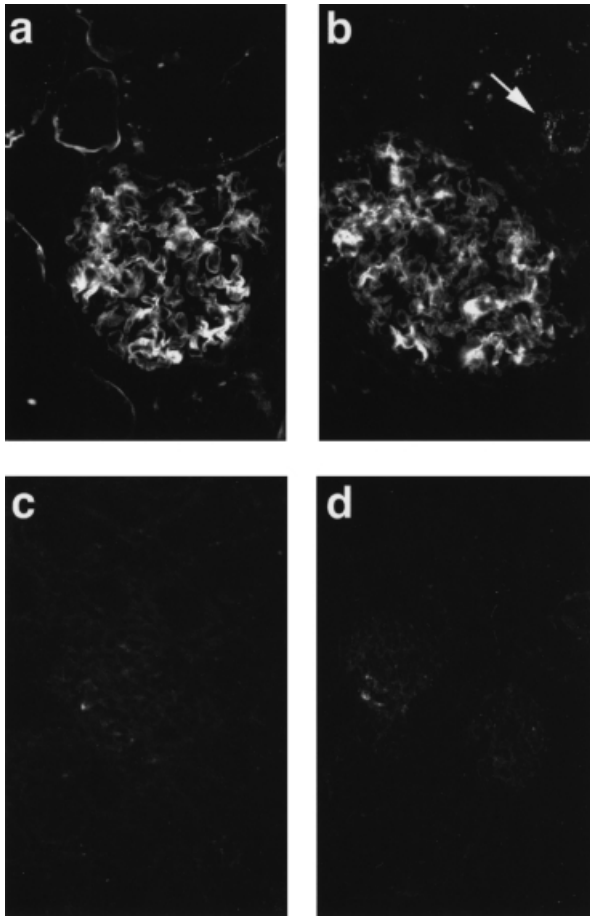
**Fig. 4.** The tolerance is drug specific. BN rats, when neonates, were injected with H<sub>2</sub>O or HgCl<sub>2</sub> and then, when 8–12 weeks old (adult), were exposed to H<sub>2</sub>O or ATPS (see Methods). Serum IgE concentration (A), circulating anti-DNA (B) and anti-laminin (C) antibody were measured using specific ELISA, and proteinuria (D) was measured using the biuret method. Data represent peak values obtained during the second set of injections, i.e. in adult rats, either on day 14 or 21 of ATPS exposure, and are expressed as the mean  $\pm$  SD from 5–14 rats. Statistical analysis for HgCl<sub>2</sub>-ATPS rats versus H<sub>2</sub>O-ATPS rats: \* $P$ <0.05 and \*\* $P$ <0.01.

serum IgE level (Fig. 4A), and in circulating antibodies to DNA (Fig. 4B) and to laminin (Fig. 4C). They also demonstrated glomerular linear IgG deposits (Fig. 5a) associated with proteinuria (Fig. 4D). Interestingly, BN rats neonatally injected with HgCl<sub>2</sub> and administered with ATPS at 8–12 weeks of age (Hg-ATPS rats) demonstrated ATPS-induced immune manifestations characterized by a closely similar increase in serum IgE concentration (Fig. 4A) and the same titer of anti-laminin antibodies (Fig. 4C) as those of H<sub>2</sub>O-ATPS rats. The titers of circulating anti-DNA antibodies were even significantly ( $P$ <0.01) higher in Hg-ATPS than in H<sub>2</sub>O-ATPS rats (Fig. 4B). In the Hg-ATPS rats, glomerular IgG deposits were distributed in the same linear pattern as in H<sub>2</sub>O-ATPS rats and associated

with granular IgG deposits in arteriolar walls (Fig. 5b); moreover, Hg-ATPS rats developed a proteinuria significantly ( $P$ <0.05) higher than H<sub>2</sub>O-ATPS rats (Fig. 4D).

#### *Tolerance to mercury-induced autoimmunity can be adoptively transferred*

Lightly irradiated BN rats, that have received spleen cells originated from naive BN rats and then have been exposed to HgCl<sub>2</sub> (control rats), exhibited an increase in serum IgE concentration that peaked at  $3180 \pm 2600$  µg/ml (Fig. 6A), and developed anti-laminin and anti-DNA antibodies whose concentration peaked at  $59.3 \pm 32.8$  and  $36.5 \pm 17.7$  AU respectively (Fig. 6C and B).



**Fig. 5.** Immunofluorescence studies. BN rats, when neonates, were injected with  $H_2O$  or  $HgCl_2$  and then, when 8–12 weeks old (adults), were exposed to  $H_2O$  or ATPS (see Methods). Kidney cryostat sections were stained with FITC-labeled sheep anti-rat IgG antibodies. In  $H_2O$ -ATPS rats ( $n = 8$ ) (a; original magnification  $\times 250$ ) linear staining along the glomerular capillary walls is observed; in  $HgCl_2$ -ATPS rats ( $n = 5$ ) (b; original magnification  $\times 250$ ). IgG deposits are observed in a linear pattern along the glomerular capillary walls and in a granular pattern in the arteriolar walls (arrow). No staining is ever seen either in  $H_2O$ - $H_2O$  rats ( $n = 14$ ) (c; original magnification  $\times 160$ ) or in  $Hg$ - $H_2O$  rats ( $n = 12$ ) (d; original magnification  $\times 160$ ).

Lightly irradiated BN rats that had received spleen cells originating from BN rats neonatally exposed to  $HgCl_2$  and then been exposed to  $HgCl_2$  (transfer rats) exhibited, at the peak of production, a significant lower increase in serum IgE concentration as compared to control rats ( $P < 0.001$ ) (Fig. 6A). Similarly, the peak of production of anti-laminin antibodies was significantly ( $P < 0.02$ ) lowered as compared to control rats (Fig. 6C). Circulating anti-DNA antibody titers were also decreased as compared to control rats, although not significantly (Fig. 6B). In transfer rats, maximal circulating anti-autoantibody titers were never significantly different as compared to BN rats neonatally exposed to  $HgCl_2$  and exposed again to  $HgCl_2$  after 2 months of age ( $Hg$ - $Hg$  rats) (Fig. 6B and C). At the time of sacrifice, i.e. after 8 weeks of  $HgCl_2$  exposure, in transfer rats, kidney IgG deposits displayed the same pattern in the mesangial areas as in  $Hg$ - $Hg$  rats (not shown); whereas, in control rats, glomerular IgG

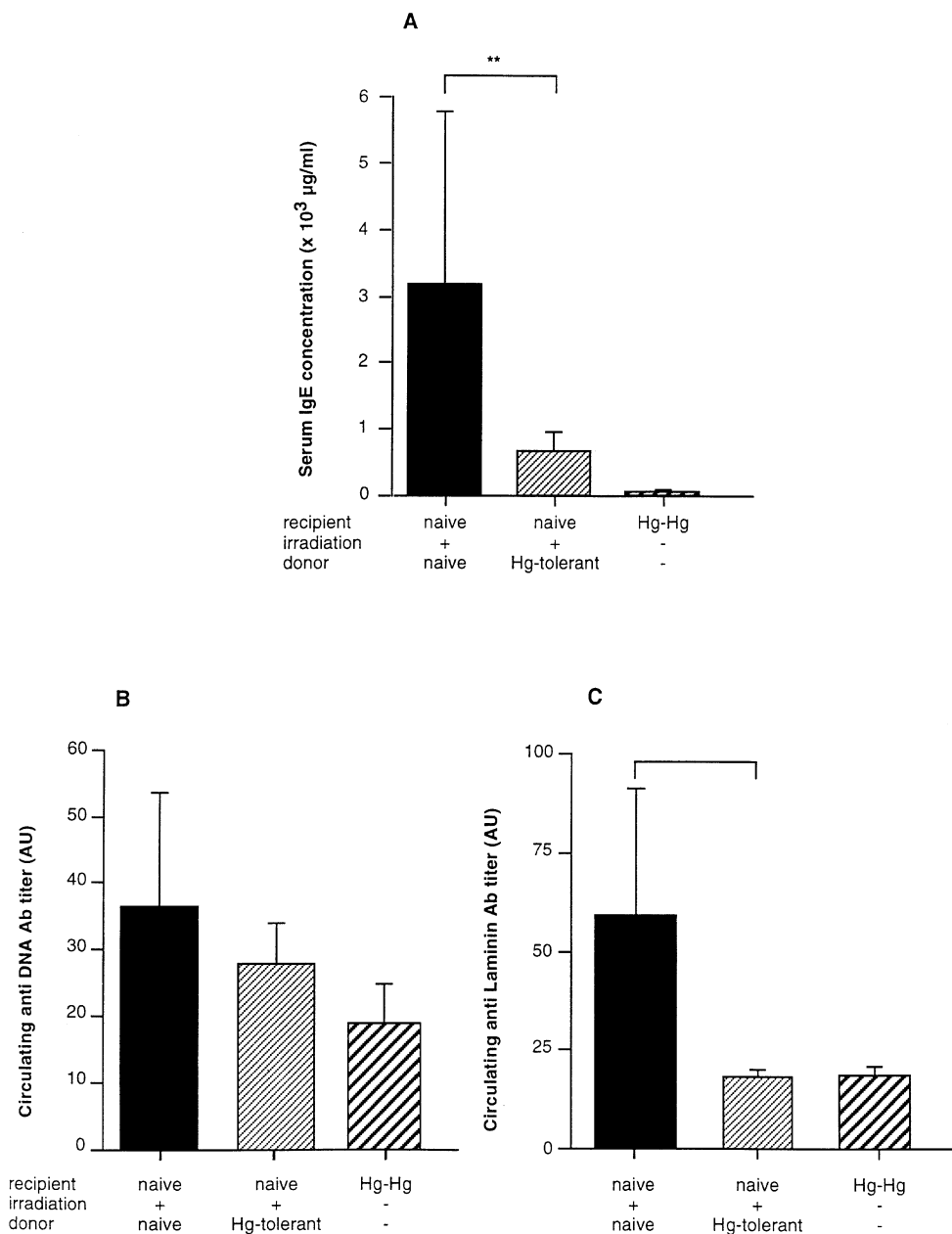
deposits were distributed in a typical granular pattern along the capillary walls and in the arteriolar walls (not shown).

## Discussion

Susceptible BN rats exposed to  $HgCl_2$  or ATPS develop a similar  $T_H2$ -mediated, systemic autoimmune disease, due to the emergence of autoreactive  $T_H2$  cells that recognize MHC class II molecules. In the present study we demonstrate that: (i) neonatal injections of  $HgCl_2$  do not induce the mercury disease in 2-week-old BN neonates and induce immunological tolerance since mercury-induced immunopathological manifestations are abrogated, or profoundly reduced, when these rats are challenged with  $HgCl_2$  at 8 weeks of age; (ii) this tolerance is mercury specific because gold-induced immunopathological manifestations are still observed in  $HgCl_2$ -tolerant rats; (iii) this tolerance is transient but can be sustained providing regular exposure to  $HgCl_2$ ; and (iv) this tolerance is dominant since it is adoptively transferable into syngeneic animals by spleen cells from tolerant rats.

To the best of our knowledge, induction of tolerance to a  $T_H2$ -mediated autoimmune model, following neonatal injection of a chemical, has not been previously reported. In mice as well as in rats, we and others demonstrated that injection of  $F_1$  spleen cells into neonates of one parental strain results in transplantation tolerance due to the tolerance of  $T_H1$  cells. In contrast, neonate  $T_H2$  cells that recognize allogeneic MHC class II molecules are present and responsible for B cell polyclonal activation and systemic autoimmunity (23,24,46–48). These results and those from other experimental systems indicate that tolerance is much more difficult to achieve in  $T_H2$  than in  $T_H1$  cells (19,22). In that respect, it is noteworthy that  $HgCl_2$  exposure through oral or respiratory routes not only does not induce tolerance, in contrast to what has been observed in several  $T_H1$ -mediated autoimmune diseases (13), but leads to systemic autoimmunity (49). However, it has been shown that individuals allergic to bee venom can be desensitized following exposure to tolerogenic amounts of the relevant antigen phospholipase  $A_2$  (50) and the tolerance thus obtained is mediated by IL-10 producing cells that are reminiscent of  $T_H1$  cells (51).

The fine specificity of T cells involved in the  $HgCl_2$ - and ATPS-induced models of systemic autoimmunity is still unsolved. Our previous data, in both models, indicate that T cells are generated that recognize self-MHC class II molecules or, more likely, a ubiquitous peptide presented in the context of MHC class II molecules (52). Those T cells have a  $T_H2$  phenotype in BN rats, and induce polyclonal B cell activation both *in vivo* and *in vitro* (40,52). In mice exposed to mercury or gold salts, other authors have shown metal-specific T cells but did not evidence their pathogenic role (53). The fact that neonatal injections of  $HgCl_2$  induce, in adults, tolerance to  $HgCl_2$  but not to ATPS, advocates the existence of such metal-specific T cells. This view is strengthened by our observation that neonatal injections of ATPS induce, in adults, tolerance to ATPS but not to  $HgCl_2$  (not shown). Higher anti-laminin antibody titers and proteinuria levels in  $Hg$ -ATPS rats than in  $H_2O$ -ATPS rats than in  $H_2O$ -ATPS rats may be due to a bystander activation of the



**Fig. 6.** Tolerance is adoptively transferred by spleen cells. Naive recipient BN rats were  $^{137}\text{Cs}$   $\gamma$ -irradiated (200 rad) and i.v. injected with  $100 \times 10^6$  spleen cells originating from naive BN rats or from BN rats neonatally exposed to  $\text{HgCl}_2$  (Hg-tolerant rats); transfer of spleen cells was done the day of irradiation; 24 h later, BN recipients and mercury-tolerant littermates (Hg-Hg rats) received injections of 0.5 mg/kg  $\text{HgCl}_2$  as described in Methods. Serum IgE concentration (A), circulating anti-DNA (B) and anti-laminin (C) antibody titers were determined by specific ELISA. Data represent peak values and are expressed as the mean  $\pm$  SD from two to six rats. Statistical analysis for recipients of cells from mercury-tolerant rat versus recipients of cells from naive rats: \* $P < 0.05$  and \*\* $P < 0.01$ .

previously suppressed autoreactive T cells specific of the mercury-modified (MHC class II-peptide) complex following the activation of autoreactive T cells primed by the ATPS-modified (MHC class II-peptide) complex. Whether  $\text{HgCl}_2$  or ATPS is involved in  $T_H2$ -mediated autoimmunity, autoreactive T cells that are induced may recognize, in the context of MHC class II molecules, either different ubiquitous peptides or self-peptides specifically altered by the heavy metal (40,54). At this point, one may speculate that whether  $\text{HgCl}_2$  is

administered in neonate or in adult BN rats, T cells of the same specificity are generated but they may differ by their pattern of cytokine production. Those cells, that need to be regularly exposed to  $\text{HgCl}_2$  in order to maintain their teleregenic potential, are likely to be regulatory cells as demonstrated in other models of tolerance and may produce inhibitory cytokines such as IL-10 or transforming growth factor- $\beta$  (55–57). This hypothesis is emphasized by the ability of spleen cells from tolerant rats to transfer tolerance in naive



syngeneic recipients. The precise phenotype of these cells, their fine specificity and their profile of cytokine production remain to be investigated. Clonal deletion is another mechanism posited to explain peripheral tolerance (5). In previous experiments, we demonstrated that in adult BN rats,  $HgCl_2$  induces a polyclonal T cell expansion (58) and in BN rats neonatally injected with  $HgCl_2$  no changes occur in the T cell repertoire (not shown). Considering these findings clonal deletion might be ruled out as an associated mechanism of tolerance to the mercury disease. Taken together our data favor specific dominant tolerance due to regulatory cells rather than to clonal deletion; however, anergy as an associated mechanism of tolerance cannot be ruled out.

We have previously shown that, besides the induction of autoreactive T cells,  $HgCl_2$  induces *in vitro* IL-4 gene expression in normal T cells following a protein kinase C-dependent pathway (59,60). This latter effect is still observed in tolerant animals (not shown) and likely to explain IgE production that, if deeply reduced, is not completely abrogated and furthermore plateaued after 2 weeks of  $HgCl_2$  administration. Thus our data indicate that production of IL-4 associated with the direct effect of  $HgCl_2$  on the encoding gene is not affected by neonatal exposure to  $HgCl_2$  and nevertheless not sufficient to induce the mercury disease. This suggests a very efficient regulatory process, even more potent than towards the production of autoantibodies.  $CD8^+$  T cells that have been involved in IgE tolerance (61) may be at play. Moreover, previous studies have shown that  $HgCl_2$  exposure not only induces autoimmune manifestations that spontaneously resolve even if  $HgCl_2$  injections are continued, but also makes the animals resistant to rechallenge with full-dose  $HgCl_2$  (36). The exact mechanisms involved in regulation and resistance are still ill-defined. There is some evidence that  $T_H1/T_H2$  balance may be involved (42,43,62,63). Indeed the importance of  $T_H1$  cells has been suggested since anti-IL-2 receptor antibody treatment, that preferentially blocks the effect of  $T_H1$  cells, delays the regulatory phase (42). It has been shown that depletion of  $CD8^+$  T cells partially reverses the resistant state without affecting the regulatory phase (36). Furthermore, adoptive transfer of  $CD8^+$  T cells from resistant rats can transfer resistance in naive syngeneic rats (35,36). In the present study, we show that neonatal administration of  $HgCl_2$  is not pathogenic and induces the development of disease resistance in adult animals. This neonatally induced resistant state is specific and can be transferred to naive recipients with spleen cells, indicating a role of dominant tolerance. Co-transfer of spleen cells from naive and mercury-tolerant animals remains to be investigated to emphasize this phenomenon of active suppression. Whether this state of neonatally-induced resistance is similar to that described in adult rats treated with  $HgCl_2$  remains to be determined; particularly, whether  $CD4^+$  or  $CD8^+$  T cells are involved in the transfer and maintenance of neonatal tolerance remains to be determined.

In summary, our findings of a solid tolerant state induced by neonatal injections of  $HgCl_2$  indicate that neonatal tolerance can be induced to a systemic autoimmune disease mediated by  $T_H2$  cells. Further investigation of this dominant tolerance will be of major interest because it might be instrumental in lupus autoimmunity and allergy.

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## Abbreviations

ATPS	sodium aurothiopropanolsulfonate
BN	Brown-Norway
EAE	experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis
HRP	horseradish peroxidase

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