

*CANINE T-REGULATORY CELLS IN
AGING AND CANCER: QUANTIFYING
A UNIQUE T CELL SUBSET*

A Thesis Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate School

University of Missouri

In partial Fulfillment
Of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Veterinary Clinical Science

By

KERRY RISSETTO

Dr. Carol Reiner, Thesis Supervisor

DECEMBER, 2010

The undersigned, appointed by the dean of the Graduate School, have examined the thesis
entitled

***CANINE T-REGULATORY CELLS IN AGING AND
CANCER:***

QUANTIFYING A UNIQUE T CELL SUBSET

presented by Kerry Risetto, a candidate for the degree of Master of Veterinary Clinical Sciences

and hereby certify that, in their opinion, it is worthy of acceptance.

Dr. Carol Reinero, Research Advisor

Dr. Kim Selting, Resident Advisor

Dr. Carolyn Henry

Dr. Keiichi Kuroki

DEDICATION

This Master's thesis (aka the last 2.5 years of my life) is dedicated to those that remained in my life despite it being consumed with this very document.

To my parents, Martine and Gene Risetto, who dealt with limited phone time and only one visit a year, but who remained selflessly happy for me because they knew I was doing what I love and understand that this career demands more than the typical 8-5 job that all of their friends' children have. Thank you for loving me unconditionally and being my biggest fans. I am so lucky to have you for parents.

To my grandmother, Marie Risetto, who has been my greatest supporter and role model and is the most beautiful person I have ever known; I strive to one day be one half of the friend, mother, grandmother, and wonderful human being that you are. Thank you for your patience, invaluable words of wisdom, unconditional love, and amazing cooking.

To my loving East coast family: Kim, Bart, Jill, Avary, Mike, Debbie, Katie, and Ricky. You have been so incredibly supportive and encouraging these past 29 years, I am so grateful and proud to be a part of your family.

To my friends, Laura Nafe, Kim Johnson, Armando and Cecilia Villamil, Matt Lamberta, Erin Redeker, Frank Fasanella, Abigail Coons, Kim Ringen, Brooke Fowler, Jocelyn Cerrito, Joann Kunz, Stacey Leach, Laura Vasquez, Penny Partnow, and Fannie Krein, (to name only a few) who worked overtime to stay in touch, send words of support and kindness, take detours to visit Columbia, bring me late-night Starbucks, send mojitos via Priority mail, provide extra office snacks, or just offer a listening ear and bit (or a lot) of laughter. I am so grateful to have you in my life and honored to call you my friends.

I firmly believe that if our friendship has survived the past 3 years, we will forever be friends. I only hope that I can be half the friend to all of you that you have been for me.

To Elvis, my faithful companion for the last 7 years. Thank you for never being disappointed in your lack of leash time on those busy work nights and for never failing to greet me at the door with the greatest enthusiasm and unconditional love, no matter how late it was. Despite spending the first 6 years of your life as a blood donor, you continue to offer your Tregs for further benefit of the canine species. You are the best dog a girl could ask for.

To my best friend and companion, Jeff Davis. Thank you for being my rock and selflessly helping me pursue my career while you temporarily held off on yours. Thank you for your forgiveness of all too often postponed plans or weekend trips as well as all the extra loads of laundry ☺ Yamw.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

There is not enough space on these pages to express my gratitude to those people who have supported me in my career, both clinical and research, over the past 3 years. Dr. Carol Reinero has gone above and beyond the requirements of a research advisor. She generously took me on (when she was already plenty occupied with her current graduate student load) because she knew I was having so much trouble finding a lab that “fit.” After working with Dr. Reinero for the past 3 years, it is no surprise why she has a 3-mile long “waiting list” of graduate students eager to study under her. She expects a lot from her graduate students (and in an efficient manner!) but goes out of her way to be very supportive and present every step of the way, never hesitating to get her “hands dirty” in the lab as well. She challenged me with research and techniques that I was unfamiliar with, but offered continuous supervision and guidance, never once leaving me stranded to face troubleshooting on my own (even if it meant verbally and physically threatening the flow cytometer for me). I am so grateful to have spent the last 3 years learning from her because it has made me a better scientist, veterinarian, and person.

Dr. Kim Selting has been a constant supporter and phenomenal resident advisor, looking out for my best personal, as well as career, interests. She is not only one of the most compassionate individuals I have ever worked with, but also one of the most intelligent. She is an eternal optimist and always manages to find the good in every person or situation she encounters, making her a phenomenal role model and mentor.

Dr. Carolyn Henry has been an invaluable resource and advisor these past three years. She has a super-human ability to multi-task yet still has time for her family and residents. Her insight and suggestions always come with a side of humor and makes every day, however, grueling, easier to swallow and a pleasure to come to work.

Dr. Kei Kuroki was so generous to take me on as a graduate student when he, too, was already more than busy enough in his department. His willingness to join my Master's committee part way into my program has been so greatly appreciated and his academic insight into my master's research has been invaluable.

Thank you to all of my committee members for their support and mentorship. It has been an honor to work with you and a blessing to know you.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	ii
ABSTRACT.....	viii
CHAPTER	
1. Introduction.....	1
2. Treg Origin, Function and Identification.....	5
2.1 Treg origin.....	5
2.2 Treg function.....	6
2.3 Identification of Tregs	8
3. Cloning of Canine CD25 and Validation of the Anti-Human CD25 Antibody.....	10
3.1 RNA isolation from lymph node.....	10
3.2 Reverse transcription and generation of CD25 cDNA.....	11
3.3 Cloning of the CD25 cDNA.....	11
3.4 Expression of canine CD25 in mammalian cells.....	13
3.5 Confirmation of CD25 expression using flow cytometry.....	15
3.6 Expression of CD25 on non-transfected and transfected HeLa cells: The human anti-CD25 antibody recognizes the canine CD25 protein.....	15
4. Tregs and Aging Changes.....	17
4.1 Immune senescence.....	17
4.2 CD4+CD25+FoxP3+ staining of whole blood and peripheral lymph nodes of dogs of different ages.....	19
4.3 Statistical analysis.....	21
4.4 Results of flow cytometric analysis of peripheral blood and mandibular lymph node Tregs.....	22

5. Tregs in Cancer Bearing Dogs and Healthy Controls.....	23
5.1 Tregs in human cancer.....	23
5.2 Canine osteosarcoma.....	24
5.3 CD4+CD25+FoxP3+ staining of whole blood and peripheral lymph nodes of dogs with osteosarcoma.....	26
5.4 Results of flow cytometric analysis of peripheral blood, tumor draining lymph node and mandibular lymph node Tregs of Osteosarcoma patients.....	27
5.5 Comparison of Treg percentages between healthy controls and osteosarcoma patients.....	27
6. Discussion.....	28
6.1 Potential future utility of Treg targeting.....	29
6.2 Conclusion.....	35
FIGURES	36
TABLES.....	42
REFERENCES.....	46

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

Figure	Page
1. Inhibitory cytokines released by T regulatory cells.....	36
2. Cytolytic destruction via granzyme B released by T regulatory cells.....	36
3. Metabolic disruption of effector T cells caused by T regulatory cells: Adenosine release, cytokine deprivation, and cAMP signaling.....	37
4. Indirect dendritic cell targeting by T regulatory cells.....	37
5. The sequences of the forward and reverse CD25 specific primers used for PCR to obtain CD25 cDNA.....	38
6. The 807 bp DNA sequence of our CD25 clone chosen for further experiments.....	38
7. Non-transfected HeLa cells (a human cervical cancer cell line) were used in a flow cytometric assay to determine surface expression for CD25 using a mouse anti-human CD25 PE antibody.....	39
8. HeLa cells were transfected with canine CD25 and subsequently evaluated for surface expression of CD25 using a mouse anti-human CD25 PE antibody.....	39
9. Peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) were used in a three-color flow cytometric assay to identify surface expression of CD4 and CD25, and the intracellular transcription factor foxP3 in healthy dogs of various ages.....	40
10. Lymph node cells were used in a three-color flow cytometric assay to identify surface expression of CD4 and CD25, and the intracellular transcription factor foxP3 in healthy dogs of various ages.....	41
Table	Page
1. Healthy control patient signalment.....	42
2. The median % Tregs in the peripheral blood and unrelated lymph nodes within each age group of the healthy controls.....	43

3. Osteosarcoma patient signalment.....	44
4. The median % Tregs in the peripheral blood, unrelated, and tumor draining lymph nodes of osteosarcoma patients.....	45

CANINE T-REGULATORY CELLS IN AGING AND CANCER:

QUANTIFYING A UNIQUE T CELL SUBSET

Kerry Risetto

Dr. Carol Reinero, Thesis Supervisor

ABSTRACT

T regulatory lymphocytes (Tregs), identified by the markers CD4, CD25, and FoxP3, are an essential part of the immune system and promote tolerance with the purpose of minimizing auto-immune disease. However, if Tregs are overactive, they allow host susceptibility to infectious diseases and cancer, allowing these disease processes to escape normal immune surveillance. There are numerous human studies documenting not only an increase %Tregs in cancer patients, but also correlation with negative prognostic factors and overall survival time. At the time that this research was generated, there were only three veterinary papers examining Tregs in canine cancer patients and they only evaluated CD4+FoxP3+ Tregs because, until recently, there was no commercially available anti-canine CD25 antibody.

By cloning and transfecting canine CD25 into CD25 negative HeLa cells, we definitively validated the anti-human CD25 antibody for use in the dog and then quantified CD4+CD25+FoxP3+ Tregs in healthy dogs and dogs with osteosarcoma. Our data revealed no major differences in %Treg between healthy dogs and those with bone cancer. However, by definitively validating the use of the anti-human CD25 antibody, there is now a more specific way to identify this unique T cell subset and evaluate these cells in a variety of different diseases.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

The study of cancer and, specifically, advances in its treatment, has improved greatly over the past 20 years. However, the chemotherapy standard of care in most patients rarely offers a cure for most patients mostly due to dose-limiting normal tissue toxicity as well as the development of various resistance mechanisms. New treatment modalities are necessary if further success in median survival times is to be achieved. Immunotherapy has been studied extensively in humans and has had variable success in clinical applications. The relationship between cancer and the immune system is complex, and attempts at immunotherapy have often failed for unknown reasons.

T regulatory lymphocytes (Tregs) are a specific subset of CD4+ helper T cells that modify the activity of cytotoxic effector T cells (CD8+ T cells) in addition to other helper T cells, dendritic cells, and Natural Killer cells. They are essential for preserving peripheral tolerance and immune homeostasis by preventing auto-immunity and regulating inflammation induced by pathogens. Tregs can have both beneficial and injurious effects and must be evaluated in relation to the primary disease process to truly understand their function. The primary goal of Treg function is to prevent autoimmune and chronic inflammatory diseases such as Type I diabetes, pemphigoid disease, asthma, and inflammatory bowel disease.¹⁻¹⁸ However, at the same time overzealous activity of this highly specialized T cell subset can suppress normal anti-viral¹⁹⁻²⁶ or anti-tumor immune responses and Tregs have even been found in increased numbers in cancer patients.²⁷⁻⁴¹ The accountability of Tregs in cancer pathogenesis is rapidly moving to the forefront of targeted therapy research as we learn more and more about their role in

tumor progression. In fact, multiple human studies have correlated increased Treg percentages with decreased survival and remission times.^{30,32,42-46}

There have been encouraging studies documenting an improved anti-tumor response after specifically downregulating or targeting tumor-specific Tregs.⁴⁷⁻⁵¹ With these early yet promising advances, it is clear that understanding the origin, function, and development of Tregs in association with various disease processes may be crucial to potentially targeting this unique subset of cells in the future to exploit the host's own immune response.

One of the most powerful analytical tools for identifying and selectively harvesting Tregs is flow cytometry, a technique for quantifying and qualifying markers on, or in, cells in a fluid suspension. Multiple physical and chemical parameters can be evaluated simultaneously at a rate of thousands of cells per second, and subsequently cells of interest can then be sorted out and used for further experiments. A flow cytometer directs a beam of single wavelength laser light into a thin stream of sample fluid. The light then scatters from particles that constitute cells in suspension depending on size and complexity. This scattered light is picked up by various detectors situated in different positions around the beam. The detector parallel to the beam detects "forward Scatter" (FSC) and the detector perpendicular to the beam detects "side scatter" (SSC). There are also several detectors that recognize fluorescent chemicals found in or on the cells in suspension. The combination of scattered and fluorescent light is analyzed and portrayed as collection of dots on a plot with each dot representing one cell. The flow cytometer will provide a FSC vs. SSC plot, with FSC correlating with cell volume and SSC correlated with cell complexity (i.e. nuclear shape, granules, etc). The flow

cytometer will also provide evaluation of fluorescence using either a histogram (for a single fluorescent marker) or a dot plot (if evaluating two or more fluorescent markers simultaneously). Once a forward/side scatter plot is configured, the cell population of interest is extracted as a subset for further analysis. This subset extraction is called “gating,” or telling the cytometer which population to evaluate further for other markers/fluorescence.⁵²⁻⁵³ The investigator can then make conclusions based on the quantified populations or, of even greater utility, sort the populations, extracting the cell subset of interest for further functional experiments.

In veterinary medicine, we are just scratching the surface of Treg investigation, especially as it pertains to cancer. Tregs are characterized by clusters of differentiation (CD) on their cell surface, specifically CD4 and CD25, in combination with the intracellular protein FoxP3. At the time that research was generated for this thesis, there was no commercially available anti-canine CD25 antibody for use in the flow cytometric identification of Tregs, and thus the three prior published canine cancer Treg studies used only CD4 and FoxP3 positivity to define Tregs in their study subjects.⁵⁴⁻⁵⁶ It was therefore important for our research to optimize the correct identification of Tregs.

Because the main goal of this research was to investigate T regulatory cells in canine cancer patients, it was necessary to first evaluate the effect of age on the immune system, specifically on the Treg subset. Cancer most often occurs in geriatric patients, thus, it was imperative to evaluate the effect of aging on Tregs in healthy individuals, prior to making comparisons in tumor bearing patients. The concept of immune senescence describes the gradual deterioration of the immune system’s efficiency that occurs in all species in parallel with the aging process. There are multiple studies

documenting a significant difference in T cell subsets in the spleen and thymus of old and young mice⁵⁷⁻⁶¹ as well as humans⁶²⁻⁶⁴ while other studies specifically noted an increased percentage of Tregs in the blood, spleen, and lymph nodes of aged mice with various suppressor abilities.⁶⁵⁻⁶⁶ Regardless of the responsible mechanisms/cell subsets, impaired central tolerance and a reduction in the diversity of the T cell repertoire may be key factors in immune dysregulation in the elderly, and peripheral mechanisms for immune regulation may become increasingly important. At the present time, the effects of aging on Tregs have only been studied in murine and human subjects and it is necessary to establish a basic understanding of Treg trends in our companion animal patients so that these trends may be taken into account when diseases processes, such as cancer, are studied.

The goals of this Master's project were to validate the commercially available anti-human CD25 antibody for use in our canine flow cytometry assay to more accurately identify canine Tregs. We then wanted to determine if there was a difference in CD4+CD25+FoxP3+ Treg percentages between healthy young, middle aged, and elderly dogs to use as a baseline for comparison when quantifying Tregs in diseased patients of different ages. This is especially important in canine cancer patients as this disease typically affects elderly patients. Finally, we wanted to compare %Tregs in the peripheral blood and tumor draining lymph node of cancer bearing dogs with those of healthy controls to determine if a difference exists. If a difference truly exists, this may be exploited to specifically target these cells to allow our patients to mount a more potent anti-tumor immune response.

CHAPTER 2: TREG ORIGIN, FUNCTION, AND IDENTIFICATION

2.1 Treg Origin

In general, there are two subsets of Tregs which differ in their origin, antigen specificity, and effector mechanisms. The first subset, thymic or naturally derived Tregs, develops during the normal early stages of fetal and neonatal T-cell development and maturation in the thymus. These polyclonal cells develop when CD4+ thymocytes react with self-antigens in the thymus.⁶⁷⁻⁶⁸ Once generated, the Tregs are released into the periphery where they function to prevent the activation of other, self-reactive T cells that have the potential of developing into detrimental effector cells.⁶⁹ Unlike classic T cell subsets which express CD25 only transiently when activated, natural Tregs maintain high levels of CD25 likely due to continuous exposure to peripheral autoantigens in the periphery under non-inflammatory conditions.⁷⁰⁻⁷¹ These natural Tregs continually survey for self-antigens in healthy individuals under normal conditions.

The second subset, adaptive Tregs, come about as a result of mature T cell activation under conditions of sub-optimal antigen exposure and/or the necessary dendritic cell co-stimulation.⁷²⁻⁷³ Like natural Tregs, adaptive Tregs arise from the thymus but can be derived from both classical T-cell subsets and naturally derived Tregs. They also express CD25 but their level of expression varies with the specific disease and location.⁷⁴ In essence, adaptive Tregs differ from their naturally derived counterparts not by their origin, but by their need for further activation and functional differentiation according to the context of their antigen exposure.⁷⁵⁻⁷⁷

2.2 Treg Function

Though there is some controversy surrounding the exact means by which Tregs modulate effector cell function, most studies support one or more of four major mechanisms: secretion of inhibitory cytokines, induction of cytolysis, disruption of metabolic function, and modulation of dendritic cell maturation or function. The major suppressive cytokines presumably utilized by Tregs are interleukin-10 (IL-10) and transforming growth factor- β (TGF- β), which inhibit the effector activity of both CD4+ and CD8+ T cells [**Figure 1**]. These cytokines, when released from Tregs, may also play a role in subsequently stimulating adaptive/induced Treg cell populations. Despite the well-defined suppressive role of these cytokines, their specific responsibility in the function of thymic-derived naturally occurring Tregs is still controversial based on studies supporting contact-dependent modulation (the requirement of cell to cell contact in order for suppression to occur).^{15,17} In contrast to most in vivo studies, in vitro work suggests that IL-10 and TGF- β may not be essential for Treg function.^{15,17,78-79} In various disease models, suppression of effector T cells appears to be cytokine dependent but there is much disagreement of whether or not the production of these cytokines by Tregs themselves is required for suppression.⁸⁰⁻⁸⁸ Several studies have also found a significant difference in the molecular form of the cytokine, for example, membrane tethered TGF- β appears to play a crucial role in maximal Treg function while secreted TGF- β does not, supporting the “contact dependence” theory.⁸⁹⁻⁹⁰ More recently, IL-35 was added to the Treg inhibitory cytokine repertoire and appears to be required for maximum Treg activity.⁹¹⁻⁹² It is crucial to remember that though IL-10, IL-35, and TGF- β all play a role

in Treg function, their utilization in different disease settings varies and requires further elaboration.

Cytolytic killing is well known to be the main function of Natural Killer (NK) cells and CD8+ cytotoxic T lymphocytes (CTLs). However, activated naturally occurring Tregs were recently found to express granzyme B and perforin and selectively inhibited effector cells in vitro.⁹³⁻⁹⁵ Furthermore, in murine models, Tregs derived from melanoma and lymphoma tumor microenvironments could induce NK and cytotoxic T cell death in a granzyme B- and perforin-dependent fashion.⁹⁶ **[Figure 2]** Therefore Tregs may directly destroy effector cells in addition to simply modulating their activity.

Several forms of “metabolic disruption” have been described for Treg function. One proposed mechanism is that of cytokine “deprivation,” that is, the Treg cell utilizes its IL-2 receptor (IL-2R=CD25) to consume any local IL-2, thus depriving effector T cells of their major stimulatory cytokine and potentially even inducing deprivation mediated apoptosis.^{17,97-98} However, given that IL-2 binding to the Treg IL-2R can actually cause overall Treg suppressive activity, further research is necessary to elucidate the precise effect of IL-2 binding to CD25.⁹⁹ Another suggested form of disruption is the generation of adenosine, which, upon binding to the adenosine receptor 2A, suppresses effector cell function and enhances Treg function.¹⁰⁰⁻¹⁰³ A third and final mode of metabolic disruption is the transfer of cyclic AMP (cAMP), an inhibitory second messenger, into target effector cells via membrane gap junctions.¹⁰⁴ **Figure 3** describes the three common forms of metabolic disruption.

Tregs also indirectly suppress effector cells by targeting the dendritic cells (DC) required for their activation. Intravital microscopy has documented cell-to-cell contact among Tregs and DCs in vivo and this contact is thought to function to attenuate effector cell activation.¹⁰⁵⁻¹⁰⁶ The Treg binds to the effector cell CD80/86 molecule via its co-stimulatory molecule cytotoxic T-lymphocyte antigen 4 (CTLA-4) and results in DC expression of the regulatory molecule indoleamine 2,3-dioxygenase (IDO). [Figure 4] ^{15,107-109} IDO is the first and rate-limiting enzyme of tryptophan catabolism, thus causing depletion of tryptophan which can cause halted growth of microbes as well as T cells. Other studies suggest that Tregs have the capability of down-regulating DC co-stimulatory molecules CD80/86, thereby impeding effector cell activation.¹¹⁰

Until more research is done evaluating Treg function, a single mechanism of suppression cannot be defined and it is reasonable to assume that Tregs have multiple mechanisms of action and utilize these mechanisms appropriately in their disease context.

2.3 Identification of Tregs:

Tregs can be identified both phenotypically and functionally. Surface markers CD4 (conferring a helper cell phenotype) and CD25 (the alpha chain of the IL-2 receptor) and the intracellular transcription factor, FoxP3, define the most commonly accepted phenotype. Phenotypic evaluation, however, can be challenging because each of these proteins are found to be upregulated in other (non T-reg) T-cells that have been activated by a variety of mechanisms. Initially, rodent studies found that the Forkhead Box 3 (FoxP3) transcription factor uniquely identified a highly enriched Treg population.¹¹¹⁻¹¹⁶ FoxP3 is the protein product of the *foxp3* gene which maps to the p arm of the human X-

chromosome, specifically Xp11.23.¹¹⁷ The FoxP3 protein serves as a transcriptional repressor of nuclear factor of activated T-cells (NFAT) and nuclear factor-kappa B (NFκB), which leads to the suppression of interleukin (IL)-2 secretion.¹¹⁸⁻¹¹⁹ Mice that lack a functional FoxP3 protein (due to a spontaneous loss-of-function mutation) develop scurfy, a fatal auto-immune-like disease characterized by hyper-functional CD4+ T cells.^{111,120} It is for this reason that the FoxP3 protein is often referred to as “scurfin.” Humans that lack functional FoxP3 develop a severe immune-mediated disease involving immunodysregulation, polyendocrinopathy, and enteropathy, X-linked syndrome (IPEX), which closely resembles mouse scurfy.^{18,117,121-122} However, although FoxP3 appears to be required, it is not sufficient for Treg function, because in human studies, FoxP3 could be induced in activated CD4+ T cells that did not possess suppressive activity.¹²³⁻¹²⁸ This finding suggests that FoxP3 expression alone does not confer a Treg phenotype. In 1995, Sakaguchi and colleagues determined that Treg suppressor activity was confined to the subset of T cells that constitutively expressed CD25, the alpha chain of the IL-2 receptor.⁹ However, non-regulatory T cells were also found to express CD25, thus suggesting the need for functionality assays to truly determine Treg phenotype. In 2005, Dannull et al found that FoxP3 was expressed almost exclusively in the subset of CD4+ cells expressing CD25 at high levels.⁴⁸ In addition, CD4+CD25+(high) cells were found to have distinct regulatory activity over CD4+CD25- and CD4+CD25+(low) cells.¹²⁹⁻¹³⁰ Finally, Zhao and coworkers documented that the majority of CD4⁺CD25⁺ T cells are Foxp3⁺ and very few CD4⁺CD25⁻ T cells express Foxp3 in young mice.¹³¹ Thus, in most recent literature, Tregs are (at minimum) defined by the phenotype CD4+CD25+FoxP3+ in addition to functionality assays to truly assess suppressive behavior.

CHAPTER 3: CLONING OF CANINE CD25 AND VALIDATION OF THE ANTI-HUMAN CD25 ANTIBODY

At the time of generating the data for this thesis, Treg studies in canine cancer⁵⁴⁻⁵⁶ had been limited to only the CD4+FoxP3+ phenotype because of a lack of a commercially available anti-canine CD25 antibody. There are rare publications suggesting the cross-reactivity of the anti-human CD25 antibody with the canine CD25 protein based on documenting increased antibody activity in mitogen stimulated T cells.¹³²⁻¹³⁴ Almost simultaneous to the research described in this chapter, Mizuno et al found the anti-human CD25 antibody to be cross-reactive with the canine protein.¹³⁵ The goal of this chapter is to describe validation of the anti-human CD25 antibody to provide a more specific marker to distinguish canine Tregs.

3.1 RNA isolation from lymph node

A popliteal lymph node was removed in a sterile fashion within 5 minutes after euthanasia from an apparently healthy dog euthanized in an animal shelter for reasons related to population control. Five 2 mm sections were placed into sterile tubes, immediately submerged in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C for 1 week. Isolation of RNA from a single section of lymph node tissue was performed using Tri-Reagent (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) according to a previously described protocol.¹³⁶ Briefly, the lymph node tissue was homogenized in a reagent containing phenol and guanidine thiocyanate and the simultaneous isolation of RNA, DNA and proteins was accomplished in a single step by a liquid-phase separation (the upper phase contained the RNA, the interphase contained DNA, and the lower phase contained proteins). The RNA was then

resuspended in 100 ul of nanopure water for RNA quantification based on UV absorbance (NanoDrop spectrophotometer; Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA).

3.2 Reverse transcription and generation of CD25 cDNA

Reverse transcription was performed using SuperScript™ III Reverse Transcriptase (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) according to manufacturer's instructions using either oligo(dT) or random primers. Subsequently, three sets of forward and reverse primers (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) were designed based on sequences flanking the canine CD25 gene (Broad Institute Dog Genome Sequencing Project, GenBank accession number NW_876291.1; Table 1), using the algorithm of Integrated DNA Technologies (www.idtdna.com) to optimize annealing temperatures and to minimize the formation of primer dimers. The primers were used to amplify the CD25 cDNA using Pfu enzyme with the following heat cycle conditions: 1. 94 °C for 2 min 2. 94 °C for 30 sec 3. 55 °C for 30 sec 4. 68 °C for 2 min 5. Repeat step #2 for 34 cycles 6. 68 °C for 10 min. PCR products were separated by agarose gel electrophoresis to visualize the expected product of approximately 800 bp. The product of primer pair #1 was selected and used in the remainder of the experiment. The primer pair is given in **Figure 5**.

3.3 Cloning of the CD25 cDNA

A terminal adenosine base was added to the PCR products by incubation with 0.5 ul Taq enzyme and 0.2 mM dNTPs at 72°C for 10 min. The PCR products were then cloned into the Topoisomerase Vector, pCR2.1 Topovector (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) according to manufacturer's instructions. Subsequently, two ul of topovector reaction

mix (containing PCR product) was used to transform 50 ul of competent E. coli cells (One Shot® MAX Efficiency® DH5 α TM-T1^R Competent Cells, Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) according to manufacturer's instructions. Twenty ul of the transformed cells and 40 ul of 5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl- β -galactopyranoside (Xgal) were plated on ampicillin agar plates. The topovector contains an ampicillin resistance gene and thus only those E. coli colonies that had been successfully transfected would survive and proliferate on the plate. The topovector contains the insertion site for the PCR product within the *lacZ* gene encoding the β -galactosidase enzyme. Thus, when plated with X-gal, a blue E. coli colony indicates an intact *lacZ* gene i.e. the absence of the CD25 PCR product, while the lack of blue color (i.e. white colony) indicates the disruption of the *lacZ* gene with our PCR product. After incubation overnight at 37 °C, 10 white E. coli colonies were harvested and subcultured in 2 ml of 2x YT media and 50 ug/ml of ampicillin. Plasmid DNA was subsequently isolated using a small scale preparation protocol.¹³⁷ Agarose gel electrophoresis was used to determine the appropriate restriction pattern after digestion of the plasmid DNA using the EcoRI restriction site (New England BioLabs, Ipswich, MA). Several candidate clones were sequenced (University of Missouri DNA Research Core), and the identity of the clones was confirmed by alignment with published dog CD25 sequences (GenBank accession numbers NW_876291.1, AACN010128068.1, AACN010012922.1). One clone with the complete 807 base pair sequence of the canine CD25 cDNA was chosen for subsequent experiments (GenBank: GU207463.1)[**Figure 6**].

3.4 Expression of canine CD25 in mammalian cells

In order to conduct expression studies, the CD25 sequence was subcloned into the mammalian expression vector, pCMVtag2 (Stratagene products, Agilent technologies, La Jolla, CA), using BamHI and EcoRI restriction sites engineered into the amplification primers. The resulting construct, pCMV-CD25, was verified by restriction enzyme digestion and sequence analysis. Column-purified plasmid DNA (PureLink HiPure Plasmid DNA purification Kit, Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) was used for subsequent transfection experiments. Two ul of the pCMV Tag2C expression vector was used to transform 50 ul of DH5 α competent E. coli according to manufacturer's instructions. These cells were cultured in Kanamycin to exploit the kanamycin resistance gene engineered into the pCMV Tag2C expression vector. A large scale preparation of these E. coli cultures was performed to isolate purified plasmid DNA (both pCR 2.1 Topovector/CD25 insert and the pCMV Tag2C expression vector) following the specific Maxi preparation protocol (PureLink HiPure Plasmid DNA purification Kit, Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA). The DNA was then resuspended in Tris EDTA (TE) (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) TE buffer for quantification via UV absorbance.

Restriction enzyme digestion of pCR2.1 Topovector/CD25 insert and pCMV vector was then performed Ecor1 (New England BioLabs,® Ipswich, MA) BamHI (New England BioLabs,® Ipswich, MA), and heating at 37 °C for 3 hours. Agarose gel electrophoresis was again performed to separate the CD25 insert from the Topovector and to visualize the linearized pCMV vector. The ~807 bp band (CD25) and the 4.2 kb band (linearized PCMV vector) were cut out of the agarose using a sterile 11 blade.

To extract the DNA from the gel, the DNA containing agarose segments were centrifuged over a glass wool pellet at 10,000 rpm for 5 minutes. Butanol was added and the tube centrifuged to adsorb the water and ethidium bromide remaining with the DNA. The supernatant was discarded and 400 ul of chloroform added and the tube centrifuged at 10,000 rpm for 30 seconds. The supernatant was transferred to a separate tube and 10 ul of 3.2 M Tris HCL + 500 ul of 100% of ethanol added for overnight precipitation in a -20° C freezer.

Ligation of the expression vector and CD25 was performed by combining 100 ng of vector and 20 ng of CD25 insert with 1 ul of DNA ligase and incubating at room temperature for 1 hour. Five ul of ligated vector/CD25 insert was then added to 75 ul DH5 α competent E coli cells. The E. coli cells were plated onto Kanamycin agar plates and incubated at 37° C at 5% CO₂ overnight. Transformed E. coli colonies were harvested in 2 mls of 2Xyt media and 2 ul of kanamycin (1X concentration) and incubated overnight at 37° C in a plate shaker. This was followed by a small scale preparation to isolate “impure” plasmid DNA from bacteria as described above. Finally, Ecor1 and BamH1 digestions were run on a 1% agarose gel at 100 V for 30 minutes to ensure correct size of the construct. Confirmation of the canine CD25 gene was performed by DNA sequencing at the University of Missouri DNA Research Core.

For transfection experiments, HeLa cells (ATCC, Manassas, VA), a human cervical cancer cell line, were cultured in a 6 well plate until approximately 90% confluency. HeLa cells have been well characterized and are known to be CD25 negative. Between 0 and 6 ug of pCMV-CD25 was mixed with OPTI-MEM and Lipofectamine 2000 at a DNA-reagent ratio of 1:3. Sonicated salmon sperm DNA was

added where appropriate to adjust the total DNA content for each reaction. After 30 min, the complexes were added to the cells. Successful transfection was ascertained by co-transfection of 0.5 ug of a gfp (green fluorescent protein) expression plasmid. Following incubation at 37° C at 5% CO₂ for 24 hours, the plates were washed with enzyme free dissociation buffer (GIBCO, Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) and the cells collected and processed for flow cytometry.

3.5 Confirmation of CD25 expression using flow cytometry

HeLa cells were aliquoted at 1 X 10⁶ cells/well after counting on a hemacytometer and plated in a 96 well round-bottom plate. The cells were then washed 3 times with fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS) buffer (PBS with 3% FBS and 0.09% sodium azide). The cells were incubated with either 10 ul of anti-human CD25 monoclonal antibody (#RO811, clone ACT-1, Dako , Carpinteria, CA) or 10 ul of mouse IgG1 R-phycoerythrin conjugated isotype control (clone 15H6, Southern Biotech, Birmingham, Alabama) in 40 ul of FACS buffer. The same antibodies were added to non-transfected HeLa cells for use as a control to check for baseline human CD25 expression. Cells were incubated in the dark at 4 °C for 60 minutes and then washed 3 times as above, but using ice cold FACS buffer and a 4 °C centrifuge. Flow cytometry was performed on a Cyan ADP Flow Cytometer (Becton Dickenson, Franklin Lakes, NJ).

3.6 Expression of CD25 on non-transfected and transfected HeLa cells: The human anti-CD25 antibody recognizes the canine CD25 protein

Flow cytometric analyses of the non-transfected human HeLa cells demonstrated a lack of surface expression of CD25 using the anti-human CD25 antibody [**Figure 7**]. In contrast, the canine CD25-transfected HeLa cells showed expression of the canine CD25 protein which was recognized by the anti-human CD25 antibody. Additionally, by increasing the amount of CD25 expression vector used, a dose response was noted with a corresponding increase in the percentages of CD25 PE positive cells so that 0.5 ug of transfected CD25 resulted in 40.11% expression and 2 ug of transfected CD25 resulted in 71.06% expression [**Figure 8**].

CHAPTER 4: TREGS AND AGING CHANGES

4.1 Immune senescence

The immune system has a complex and very dynamic organization that changes constantly throughout the host's life. Immune senescence is the gradual deterioration of the immune system's efficiency in appropriate responses that occurs in parallel with the aging process. This process occurs in all species regardless of life expectancy and has been found to be more a product of relative life span rather than chronological time. Immune senescence is manifested as reduced immune function due to the functional decline of memory cell populations, as well as an increased susceptibility to infections and malignancy due to the decline in production and function of lymphocyte effector populations. There are multiple studies documenting a significant difference in T cell subsets in the spleen and thymus of old and young mice⁵⁷⁻⁶¹ as well as humans,⁶²⁻⁶⁴ suggesting a shift from immune surveillance and homeostasis to dysregulation and often, dysfunction.

The mechanisms of this process are poorly understood. One theory suggests that thymic involution and decreased peripheral trafficking¹³⁸ are likely contributing factors to the contraction of the T-cell receptor (TCR) repertoire and the emergence of oligoclonal T cell populations in aged mice¹³⁹ as well as humans.¹⁴⁰ This process results in an overall decreased TCR diversity and thus, dysfunctional immune surveillance. Another potential mechanism is the accumulation of Tregs resulting in a decline in lymphocyte effector function. Numerous studies have documented an increased Treg percentage in the peripheral blood of aged humans¹⁴¹⁻¹⁴² and mice.¹³¹ However, the correlation

between increased Tregs and immune dysfunction may not be that simple as Tregs may preferentially inhibit certain effector cells differently than others. Zhao et al demonstrated an increased percentage of CD4+CD25+ cells expressing FoxP3 in the blood, spleen, and lymph nodes of aged mice. However, in functionality assays, the investigators demonstrated that Tregs from aged mice had a significantly decreased ability to inhibit delayed hypersensitivity reactions and IL-2/IFN- γ production but not the cell proliferation of effector T cells.¹³¹ This evidence may support increased incidence of both auto-immune disease (due to decreased Treg suppression of IL-2 and IFN- γ production) as well as malignancies (due to increased Treg suppression of anti-tumor lymphocyte proliferation) in aged individuals. Other studies further complicate the immunologic picture preventing a clear understanding of exactly how Tregs in aged individuals contribute to a higher incidence of disease. Tsaknaridis et al¹⁴³ documented a decreased function of CD4+CD25+ Tregs while Nishioka et al¹⁴⁴ documented that though Tregs were slightly increased in number in aged mice they retained similar suppressive function to those of young mice. Interestingly, Nishioka and colleagues found that the CD4+CD25- T cells in the aged mice were hyporesponsive to paracrine signals implicating T helper cell hypoactivity rather than an increased suppressive activity by Tregs as the main reason for immune pathology associated with aging.

Regardless of the responsible mechanisms/cell subsets, impaired central tolerance and a reduction in the diversity of the T cell repertoire may be key factors in immune dysregulation in the elderly, and peripheral mechanisms for immune regulation may become increasingly important. At the present time, the effects of aging on Tregs have only been studied in murine and human subjects. Because the ultimate goal of this

Master's project was to determine if Treg percentages in canine cancer patients differed from those of healthy controls, it was imperative that we define expected reference values for healthy control patients of different ages, especially considering that the majority of canine cancer patients are elderly. The goals of Chapter 4 were to use the validated cross-reactive mouse anti-human CD25 antibody to identify canine Tregs in peripheral blood and peripheral lymph nodes, and to demonstrate a significant difference in Treg percentages between healthy young, middle aged, and elderly dogs. This information may be useful as a baseline for comparison when quantifying Tregs in diseased dogs of different ages.

4.2 CD4+CD25+FoxP3+ staining of whole blood and peripheral lymph nodes of dogs of different ages

Thirty-nine dogs belonging to the students, faculty, and staff of the University of Missouri Veterinary Medical Teaching Hospital, were determined to be healthy based on history from the owner (lack of gastrointestinal, urinary, neurologic, and respiratory signs) and no detectable abnormalities on physical examination, complete blood count, and serum biochemical profile. All dogs were enrolled in this study with informed client consent. Procedures were approved by the University of Missouri - Animal Care and Use Committee. Lymphocytes from a mandibular lymph node were obtained by aspiration using a 22-gauge needle and incubated in 500ul RPMI-1640 (Invitrogen™, Calsbad, CA). At the same time, 0.5 ml of whole blood was obtained using a 22-gauge needle and vacutainer system and placed in 1 ml EDTA tubes. Samples were processed for flow cytometry within 24-48 hours of collection.

Erythrocytes in whole blood and lymph nodes (when present) were lysed using water followed by the addition of 2X PBS. Cells (peripheral blood mononuclear cells; PBMCs) were then transferred to a 96-well plate at a concentration of 10^6 cells/well, then washed three times in FACS buffer, and incubated with the appropriate antibodies. Whole blood and lymph node cells from one dog were used for appropriate gating and compensation: a well with unstained cells only in 200 μ l FACS buffer, a well with rat anti-canine CD4 fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC) stained cells only (clone YKIX302.9; AbD Serotec, Raleigh, NC), a well with anti-human CD25 PE stained cells only, a well with anti-mouse/rat FoxP3 allophycocyanin (APC) stained cells only (clone FJK-16s, eBioscience, San Diego, CA) and wells with each of two isotype control stained cells: mouse IgG1 PE isotype (clone 15H6, Southern Biotech, Birmingham, Alabama) control and rat IgG2a APC isotype control (clone eBR2a, eBioscience, San Diego, CA). From each study dog, 10^6 cells/well were used for triple staining with anti-canine CD4+ FITC, mouse anti-human CD25+ PE, and anti-mouse/rat FoxP3 APC. Details on the cross-reactivity of the anti-mouse/rat FoxP3 antibody have been published previously.⁵⁴

Cell pellets in the 96-well plate were first stained for the surface markers CD4 and CD25 using 10 μ l of the rat anti-canine CD4 FITC antibody and 10 μ l of the mouse anti-human CD25 PE antibody in 30 μ l FACS buffer on ice for 60 minutes in the dark. Plates were then washed twice with FACS buffer and permeabilized overnight using the eBioscience FoxP3 staining kit (eBioscience, San Diego, CA) according to manufacturer's instructions. Cells were again washed and incubated with 5 μ l of the anti-mouse foxP3 APC antibody in 45 μ l FACS buffer on ice for 60 minutes in the dark. Cells were again washed twice in FACS buffer and resuspended to a final volume of 400 μ l

FACS buffer and 1% formalin in a 12X75 polypropylene tube (#352003, Becton, Dickinson, and Company, Falcon, Franklin Lakes, NJ). All assay preparations were performed by the same individual (KCR).

A CyAn ADP flow cytometer was used for analysis: lymphocytes were first gated on a forward versus side scatter plot and that gate was used to display double positive stained cells (CD4+ CD25+ T cells and CD4+FoxP3+ cells) on an FL1 vs FL2 plot or an FL1 vs. FL8 plot, respectively. The CD4+CD25+ T cells were then applied to a histogram of FoxP3 APC to obtain quantification of the triple positive cells (CD4+CD25+ lymphocytes expressing FoxP3). The number of CD4+CD25+ lymphocytes expressing FoxP3 was also divided by the number of peripheral blood lymphocytes in the gate on the forward versus side scatter plot to provide the %CD4+CD25+FoxP3+ lymphocytes. Finally, cells positive for CD4 were gated on a FITC histogram and were subsequently applied to a FL2 vs. FL8 plot to obtain the % of CD4+ T helper cells that are also CD25 and FoxP3 positive. A minimum of 10,000 events per gate were collected per tube. All flow cytometric assays and subsequent analyses were performed by the same individual (KCR).

4.3 Statistical analysis

Only those samples with a minimum of 10,000 events per gate were evaluated statistically. Statistical analysis was performed to determine if a significant difference between percentages of Tregs, using all previously defined combinations of markers, was present. Non-parametric statistical analysis (Rank Sum tests) was used to compare percentage of Tregs between the defined age groups. A p value <0.05 was considered significant.

4.4 Results of flow cytometric analysis of peripheral blood and mandibular lymph node

Tregs

The signalments of 39 healthy dogs, divided into three age strata (< 2 years, 2-6 years, and ≥ 7 years) are given in **Table 1**. Five lymph node samples from the healthy dogs were not used due to the low cellularity and insufficient number of events per gate. Representative scatter plots for Treg identification in peripheral blood lymphocytes are shown in **Figure 9**; scatter plots were set up in a similar fashion for lymph node cells **Figure 10**. The median percentages of CD4+CD25+ Tregs, CD4+FoxP3+ Tregs, CD4+CD25+ lymphocytes expressing FoxP3+, CD4+CD25+FoxP3+ Tregs, and CD4+ cells expressing both CD25 and FoxP3 for each subgroup of the healthy controls are shown in **Table 2**. There was a significantly decreased % CD4+CD25+ T lymphocytes expressing FoxP3 (triple positive) within the blood of older dogs when compared to the blood of the other two age groups ($p < 0.001$). There were no other significant differences among age groups for any other Treg population.

CHAPTER 5: TREGS IN CANCER BEARING DOGS AND HEALTHY

CONTROLS

5.1 Tregs in Human Cancer

In human medicine, the role of Tregs in cancer pathogenesis has been well studied. Based on our knowledge of this unique T cell subset, it is not surprising that an increased Treg proportion correlates with a negative outcome.^{30,32,42-46} In numerous human clinical cancer studies, there is a documented increase in the Treg proportion among lymphocytes in peripheral blood^{29,34-38,40-41,45,145} and tumor draining lymph nodes of tumor bearing patients when compared to healthy controls.^{29,34-35} Further studies investigating the tumor microenvironment showed a higher percentage of Tregs in the malignant ascites of ovarian cancer patients compared to patients with non-malignant ascites, in glioblastoma multiforme tumors compared to normal brain tissue, in invasive breast carcinoma compared to normal breast tissue, and in gastric adenocarcinoma compared to normal gastric mucosa.^{30-31,44,146-147} Among tumor infiltrating lymphocytes (TILs), Tregs were higher in later stage compared to earlier stage ovarian carcinomas and in invasive breast carcinoma when compared to carcinoma in situ.^{30,147} When survival times were evaluated in mesothelioma and breast carcinoma patients, increased Tregs correlated with decreased overall survival.^{44,147-148} In addition, an increased Treg percentage of TILs in breast carcinomas, correlated with tumor invasion, size, microvessel density (MVD), higher grade, nodal positivity, estrogen receptor negativity in addition to a higher risk of relapse and shorter remission times.^{44,147}

Not only do Tregs have the potential to predict advanced stage of disease and overall prognosis, but they may offer a novel treatment target. With the recent finding

that the downregulation of tumor specific Tregs allows human patients to mount a more potent anti-tumor response, it seems logical that this immunologic subset be further explored in veterinary medicine as well.⁴⁷⁻⁵¹

5.2 Canine Osteosarcoma

Osteosarcoma (OSA) is the most common primary bone tumor in dogs comprising approximately 85% of all skeletal tumors.¹⁴⁹⁻¹⁵³ It is an aggressive bone tumor that is both locally and systemically aggressive. Approximately 77% of OSA occurs in the appendicular skeleton making amputation an excellent treatment option.¹⁵⁰ However, even when there is no visible evidence of pulmonary metastasis, it is likely that 90% of patients have microscopic metastasis at the time of diagnosis. This theory is based on studies showing an approximately 10% one year survival rate for those patients undergoing amputation alone with the majority of patients dying due to metastatic disease.^{149,154-155} Thus, for canine osteosarcoma, surgical removal of the primary tumor is considered only palliative, and adjunctive treatment to slow metastatic disease and thus prolong survival is always warranted. Clinical trials consistently report improved survival times compared to amputation alone (10-12 months vs.4-6 months) when adjuvant chemotherapy is administered after the primary tumor is removed via amputation.¹⁵⁶⁻¹⁶⁹ However, the relatively consistent one year median survival time in a multitude of clinical trials suggests that a more targeted therapeutic approach is warranted to overcome the one-year survival threshold associated with amputation and chemotherapy. Currently, there are few other adjuvant therapies with the potential to further prolong the life of our canine osteosarcoma patients.

Due to the correlation of increased Tregs and negative prognosis in the human literature, a study determining the prognostic significance of increased Tregs in veterinary cancer patients is warranted. Up to this point, our spectrum of prognosticators for canine appendicular osteosarcoma is limited to location,^{160,166,170-172} presence of metastasis, alkaline-phosphatase positivity,^{166,173-176} lymph node involvement,¹⁷⁷ and age.^{155,166} Investigation of Tregs in osteosarcoma may provide not only an additional prognosticator, but enable better monitoring of treatment efficacy to allow tailoring of aggressive therapy accordingly. In essence, Tregs have potential to act as biomarkers for monitoring disease progression and treatment failure. What is unique about this “biomarker” is that it may also provide opportunity as a treatment target. If we can modulate the canine immune system to suppress the tumor recruited Tregs, we may allow the patient’s own tumor specific T cell response to more efficiently target the tumor cells.

Though Tregs are becoming a more common topic of research, there is not nearly enough information in veterinary medicine. In 2007, Biller et al proved that dogs with various tumor types (4 oral melanoma, 3 osteosarcoma, 2 mast cell tumor, and one soft tissue sarcoma) had a significantly increased proportion of CD4+FoxP3+ Tregs in their peripheral blood and tumor draining lymph nodes compared to the blood and lymph nodes of healthy control subjects.⁵⁴ In 2009, O’Neill et al. also documented an increase in % CD4+FoxP3+ Tregs in the blood and tumor draining lymph nodes of canine cancer patients (14 sarcomas, 7 carcinomas, 7 lymphomas, and 6 MCT) compared to those of healthy controls. However, when evaluating the tumor types by etiology, only patients with carcinomas had an increased %Tregs compared to healthy controls.⁵⁶ Finally, in another 2009 paper by Horiuchi et al, dogs with metastatic tumors also had a significantly

higher CD4+FoxP3+ Treg% compared to those without metastatic disease.⁵⁵ It is important to note, however, that none of these studies evaluated CD4+CD25+FoxP3+ Tregs due to the lack of a canine specific antibody.

The purpose of this study in dogs with spontaneously developing osteosarcoma is to determine the percent of CD4+CD25+FoxP3+ Tregs in blood, tumor-draining lymph nodes, and unrelated lymph nodes (and to compare to healthy dogs), and determine whether treatment affects the % Tregs in peripheral blood and lymph nodes. This pilot information will help us determine if Tregs are important in the body's response to this bone cancer, and will set the stage for future treatments to target this population of immune cells.

5.3 CD4+CD25+FoxP3+ Staining of Whole Blood and Peripheral Lymph Nodes of Dogs with Osteosarcoma

Sixteen dogs with appendicular osteosarcoma (OSA) presenting to the Oncology Service at the Veterinary Medical Teaching Hospital, University of Missouri, were determined to have no other life-threatening or systemic inflammatory disease processes based on physical examination, complete blood count, and serum biochemical profile and no evidence of macroscopic pulmonary metastatic disease on thoracic radiographs. All dogs were enrolled in this study with informed client consent. Procedures were approved by the University of Missouri - Animal Care and Use Committee. Lymphocytes from a submandibular lymph node and the tumor draining lymph node were obtained by aspiration using a 22-gauge needle and incubated in 500ul RPMI-1640 (Invitrogen™, Calsbad, CA). At the same time, 0.5 ml of whole blood was obtained using a 22-gauge needle and vacutainer system and placed in 1 ml EDTA tubes. Samples were processed for flow

cytometry within 24-48 hours of collection. The flow cytometry assay was performed as written above for the healthy control patients and results were evaluated using the same statistical analyses. An additional comparison was made between dogs with osteosarcoma and healthy controls (from Chapter 4). All flow cytometric assays and subsequent analyses were performed by the same individual (KCR).

5.4 Results of Flow Cytometric Analysis of peripheral blood, tumor draining lymph node and mandibular lymph node Tregs of Osteosarcoma patients

The signalments of the 16 Osteosarcoma patients are provided in **Table 3**. Among the OSA patients, one “unrelated” lymph node and six “tumor draining” lymph nodes were removed due to low cellularity and insufficient number of events per gate. Representative scatter plots for Treg identification in peripherally blood lymphocytes and lymph node cells, are as shown in **Figure 9** and **10**, respectively. The median percentages of CD4+CD25+ Tregs, CD4+FoxP3+ Tregs, CD4+CD25+ lymphocytes expressing FoxP3+, CD4+CD25+FoxP3+ Tregs, and CD4+ cells expressing both CD25 and FoxP3 in the blood, unrelated and tumor draining lymph nodes of osteosarcoma patients are shown in **Table 4**. There was a significant decrease in the % of CD4+CD25+FoxP3+ Tregs in the tumor draining lymph nodes of OSA patients compared to the unrelated lymph node in the same patient (p=0.049).

5.5 Comparison of Treg percentages between healthy controls and osteosarcoma patients

There were no significant differences found in any of the Treg populations in peripheral blood between osteosarcoma patients and the healthy controls.

CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION

The study of Tregs has increased incrementally in the last 5 years with new manuscripts being added weekly to the already growing list of Treg publications. There is no denying the importance of this unique T cell subset, especially since it can apply to a variety of pathologic diseases, specifically viral disease, autoimmune disease, and cancer. Based on many years of research, we know that dysfunctional or underdeveloped Tregs predispose to autoimmune disease and overactive or excessive Tregs results in progressive viral disease and neoplasia with a dose dependent relationship that corresponds with stage of disease and prognosis. However, with the ability to perform cell sorting and specifically target Treg populations, cancer researchers have found preliminary success in downregulating these cells to allow the host to mount a more potent immune response.

In the last part of the 20th century, it was discovered that simply depleting Tregs in murine models could potentially induce tumor regression. In 1999, two studies found that after the administration of a monoclonal anti-CD25 antibody to tumor bearing mice, a decrease in CD4+CD25+ T cells (assumed to be Tregs) was noted in the peripheral lymphoid tissues. More importantly, however, the anti-CD25 activity resulted in regression of various different syngeneic tumors.^{50,178} Shimzu and colleagues found that when athymic nude BALB/c mice received CD4+CD25+ depleted splenic cell suspensions (via cell sorting), subsequent tumor cell transplants grew initially but then regressed within a 1 month period. Furthermore, this study found a potent induction of cytotoxic lymphocytes in the splenic cell suspensions that were depleted of CD4+CD25+ cells.⁵⁰

6.1 Potential Future Utility of Treg Targeting

More recent studies have evaluated the potential synergistic effects of Treg depletion in addition to cytotoxic chemotherapy. Based on previous work suggesting decreased survival times in mesothelioma patients with increased percentages of CD4+CD25+ cells among TILs,¹⁴⁸ Anraku et al created a murine model of intrathoracic malignant mesothelioma for use in treatment trials. The mice were depleted of Tregs via administration of an anti-CD25 monoclonal antibody, either before or after tumor cell injection. The study found that depletion of Tregs only provided survival benefit if performed prior to tumor induction. However, the addition of pemetrexed chemotherapy (a folate anti-metabolite) to Treg blockade (even after tumor induction) was synergistic and resulted in decreased tumor-infiltrating Tregs, increased IL-2 production, dendritic cell maturation, and increased CD8+ tumor-infiltrating T cells.¹⁷⁹

Previous phase I clinical trials have suggested that autologous vaccines consisting of tumor RNA transfected dendritic cells were efficacious at inducing a potent cytotoxic T lymphocyte immune response.¹⁸⁰⁻¹⁸¹ However, if this treatment approach is undertaken without disrupting the strong regulatory pathway, the cytotoxic immune response will be impeded, resulting in only a short lived anti-tumor response. In 2005, Prasad and colleagues exploited the unopposed immune systems of Treg depleted mice, finding them to have prolonged tumor immunity after a tumor antigen loaded dendritic cell vaccine.¹⁸² This was then translated to human oncology when Dannull and colleagues successfully eliminated CD25-expressing Tregs in renal carcinoma patients using a conjugate of recombinant IL-2 and diphtheria toxin (DAB₃₈₉IL-2) to target and kill cells expressing high levels of CD25. This depletion resulted in improved stimulation of tumor-specific

cytotoxic T cells when patients were subsequently vaccinated with autologous tumor RNA dendritic cell vaccines.⁴⁸

Currently at the University of Pennsylvania, School of Medicine, the novel anti-human CD25 antibody daclizumab is being used in a phase I clinical trial in human patients with metastatic breast cancer. Preliminary results suggest a marked and durable (> 5 weeks) elimination of CD25+FoxP3+ Tregs in the peripheral blood of patients. When these patients are then administered an anti-tumor peptide vaccine during their Treg nadir, they show a successful generation of a cytotoxic T lymphocyte response.⁵¹ Though this adjunctive treatment is still in phase I trials, if promising data continues to be found, this antibody may offer a novel/adjunct treatment modality for cancer patients as they undergo various other forms of therapy.

Interestingly, previously accepted cancer treatment modalities are now being discovered to affect Treg activity as well. Imatinib mesylate (Gleevec, STI571) a selective tyrosine kinase inhibitor, has been used to treat chronic myelogenous leukemias and gastrointestinal stromal tumors in humans by competitively binding to the active kinase domain (ATP-binding pocket) preventing substrate binding.¹⁸³⁻¹⁸⁴ Recently, in vitro exposure of murine spleen and lymph node Tregs to clinical doses of imatinib, resulted in decreased Treg cell viability and immunosuppressive function. When mice were treated with imatinib for 7 days, there was an obvious decrease in splenic and lymph node Treg numbers and function when compared to untreated mice. When A20 lymphoma cells were transplanted into the mice, those treated with imatinib had improved responses to a dendritic cell vaccine.⁴⁹

Radiation therapy may also have more beneficial effects than previously thought. Low dose total body irradiation in naïve mice resulted in not only a decreased percentage of Tregs, but an increase in CD4+ and CD8+ effector cells. More importantly, these mice experienced an increased anti-tumor immune response following dendritic cell vaccine and subsequent tumor cell transplant.¹⁸⁵

It is quite clear that the therapeutic depletion of Tregs improves responses to cancer immunotherapy and may improve survival times of various cancers previously thought to be refractory to treatment. With osteosarcoma (OSA) being the most common canine bone tumor and having an aggressive systemic behavior, it poses a significant therapeutic challenge to veterinary oncologists. Since various canine osteosarcoma treatments have yet to consistently prolong patient survival past a median of 10-12 months, investigation of immune dysregulation in these patients is a reasonable next step. Currently, there are few other adjuvant therapies with the potential to further prolong the life of canine osteosarcoma patients, making immunotherapy appealing for further study. In addition, this disease is strikingly similar to its human counterpart and may serve as an excellent comparative model.

By cloning and transfecting the canine CD25 cDNA and subsequently expressing the canine CD25 protein in human HeLa cells, we were able to document the cross-reactivity of an anti-human CD25 monoclonal antibody in a flow cytometric assay. While other studies¹³²⁻¹³⁴ have suggested this antibody recognizes canine CD25, only this and the simultaneously published research by Mizuno et al, have rigorously documented cross-reactivity with the human antibody.¹³⁵ This has important implications for veterinary immunology and translational research in that the presence of CD25 is essential in

identifying the unique T regulatory lymphocyte subset and the dog serves as a model for a number of human conditions in which this regulatory cell plays a critical role. Proper identification of Tregs will be useful for understanding the immune response (or lack thereof) in a variety of diseases including autoimmune, allergic, viral and neoplastic diseases. To date, there have only been three papers discussing Tregs in cancer bearing dogs and all have used only CD4 and FoxP3 positivity to define the Treg phenotype⁵⁴⁻⁵⁶ In human studies, FoxP3 can be induced in activated CD4+ T cells that do not possess suppressive activity, suggesting that FoxP3 expression is not sufficient to specifically define the Treg phenotype.¹²³⁻¹²⁸ The results of our study confirm that there is a more specific marker to identify this important and understudied population of cells in the dog.

In human and murine studies, a significant change in T lymphocyte subsets has been noted as patients age.^{131,141-142} Because osteosarcoma is often a disease of older dogs,¹⁴⁹⁻¹⁵³ we first sought to rule out the effect (if any) of aging on the %Tregs in our healthy control group. We found that the percentage of most Treg populations did not significantly increase with age. In fact, the only significant change was a decreased % CD4+CD25+ T lymphocytes expressing FoxP3 within the blood of older dogs compared with the other two age groups. Moreover, the % Tregs in the peripheral blood and lymph nodes of dogs with OSA did not differ significantly from those of healthy controls. However, within the OSA patients, tumor draining lymph nodes had significantly less CD4+CD25+FoxP3+ Tregs than the unrelated lymph nodes. A lack of an increase in Tregs in dogs with OSA is in agreement with a prior study which documented no increases in blood and lymph node %CD4+FoxP3+ Tregs in dogs with sarcomas, despite an increase in % CD4+FoxP3+ Tregs in the blood and tumor draining lymph nodes of

various canine cancer patients when evaluated collectively.⁵⁶ That is, only dogs with carcinomas, and not with OSA, had an increased %CD4+FoxP3+Tregs compared to healthy control dogs. Our reasons for selecting OSA patients as a target population included availability of cases, relatively homogeneity of disease, and the relatively consistent standard of care available for treatment. It is not entirely surprising that there were not significant changes in percentages of Tregs in dogs with OSA, as changes in function of Tregs may actually play a more important role in immune system modulation than changes in percentages of Tregs. This remains to be explored in the future, and the identification of a cross-reactive CD25 antibody in the dog will be critical for isolating Tregs for functionality assays. The fact that the tumor-draining lymph node of the osteosarcoma patients had fewer Tregs than the unrelated lymph node may actually fit with newer theories on Treg activity in human cancers. In these studies, Tregs seem to migrate preferentially and predominantly to the tumor mass/ascites and work by inhibiting extranodal effector T cell function rather than naive T cell priming in the lymph nodes (at least in later stages of tumors).³⁰ Thus, one might theorize that the osteosarcoma patient tumor-draining lymph nodes were being depleted of their Tregs due to recruitment/migration into the tumor mass.

As with most veterinary studies, small case number is often a potential reason for the lack of significance between groups. Another potential confounding factor in this study is the use of the submandibular lymph node as an internal control. We chose this lymph node since it is the most consistently palpable node and the easiest to harvest adequate numbers of lymphocytes for our assay; however, due to its proximity to the oral cavity, there is a strong potential for immune reactivity which may affect the %Tregs. A

final potential reason for the lack of significance between age groups is the discrepancy between quantification of Tregs and their functionality, as mentioned previously. The inhibitory abilities of Tregs are not entirely dependent on the total number of cells and functionality assays are required to delineate the relationship between function and quantity.

The study of cancer and, specifically, advances in treatment, have improved greatly over the past 20 years; however, standard chemotherapy rarely offers a cure for most patients primarily due to a combination of dose-limiting normal tissue toxicity and continually emerging resistance mechanisms. New treatment modalities are essential if further success in survival is to be achieved. Immunotherapy has been studied extensively in humans and has had variable success in clinical applications. The relationship between cancer and the immune system is complex, and attempts at immunotherapy have often failed for unknown reasons. T regulatory cells may be one of the reasons for these failed attempts at immunomodulation in the treatment of various cancers. Thus, further investigation of this unique helper T cell subset is warranted.

The study of T regulatory cells in the dog carries much potential for expanding not only our knowledge of the immune response to various diseases but may provide insight into how to dampen or enhance that response to the advantage of our patients. With a newly validated cross-reactive CD25 antibody, functionality studies on magnetically or fluorescently sorted canine lymphocyte populations can now be performed to assess function of Tregs. Further studies evaluating Tregs in cancer patients with other, potentially more immunogenic tumors, are indicated. In addition, comparing Tregs in patients with different stage tumors and prognoses, as well as the effect of local

and systemic treatment on Tregs over time, may provide a clinically relevant use for quantifying this unique subset of T cells in order to predict case outcome and inform case management decisions.

6.2 Conclusion

Cloning and transfection of the canine CD25 gene followed by expression of the canine CD25 protein has allowed definitive confirmation of cross-reactivity of an anti-human CD25 antibody in a flow cytometric assay. The use of this antibody in canine cancer has not been performed previously and facilitates identification of a very specific subset of T cells, the T regulatory lymphocyte. Using blood or cells from the lymph nodes, the flow cytometric assay to identify %CD4+CD25+FoxP3+ Tregs was not useful to discriminate dogs that were healthy from dogs with OSA. In other words, OSA patients do not appear to have any increased percentage of Tregs compared to healthy controls. As this does not rule out increased effector function of these Tregs, future studies focusing on Treg functionality assays may provide additional information.

FIGURES

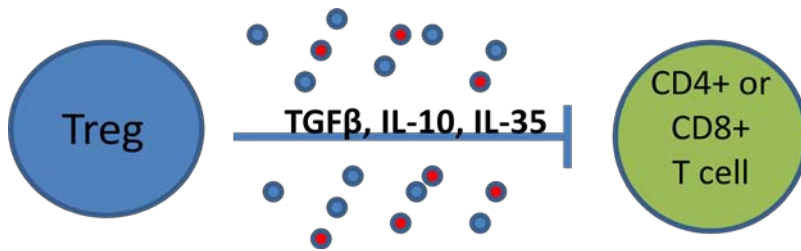


Figure 1: Inhibitory cytokines released by T regulatory cells.

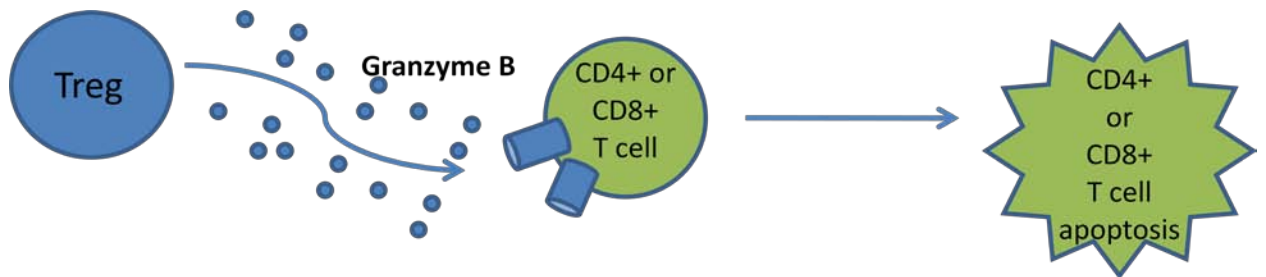


Figure 2: Cytolytic destruction via granzyme B released by T regulatory cells.

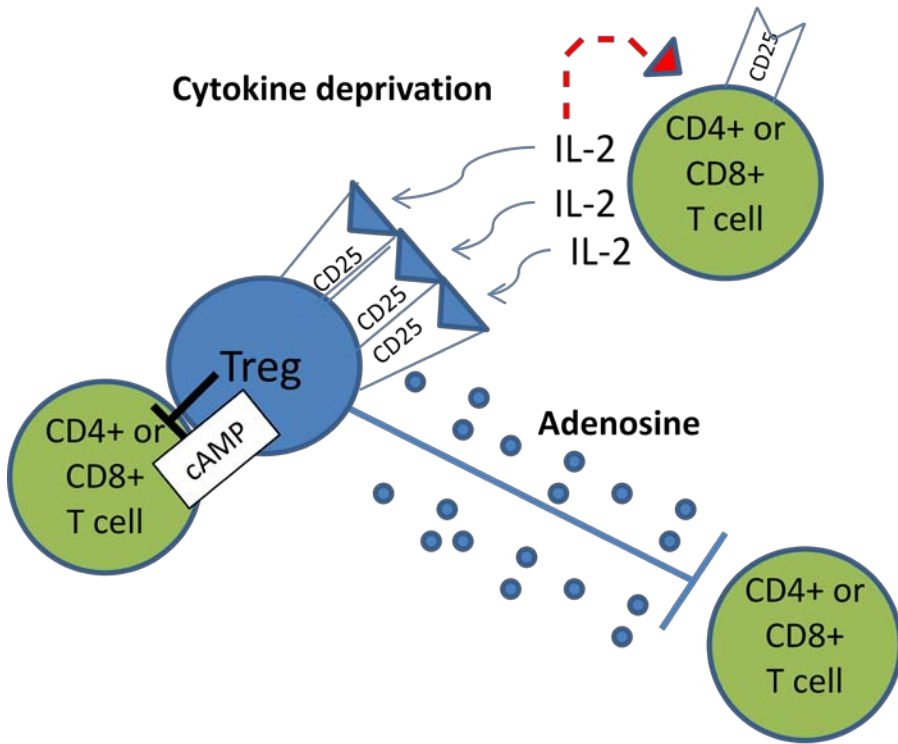


Figure 3: Metabolic disruption of effector T cells caused by T regulatory cells: Adenosine release, cytokine deprivation, and cAMP signaling.

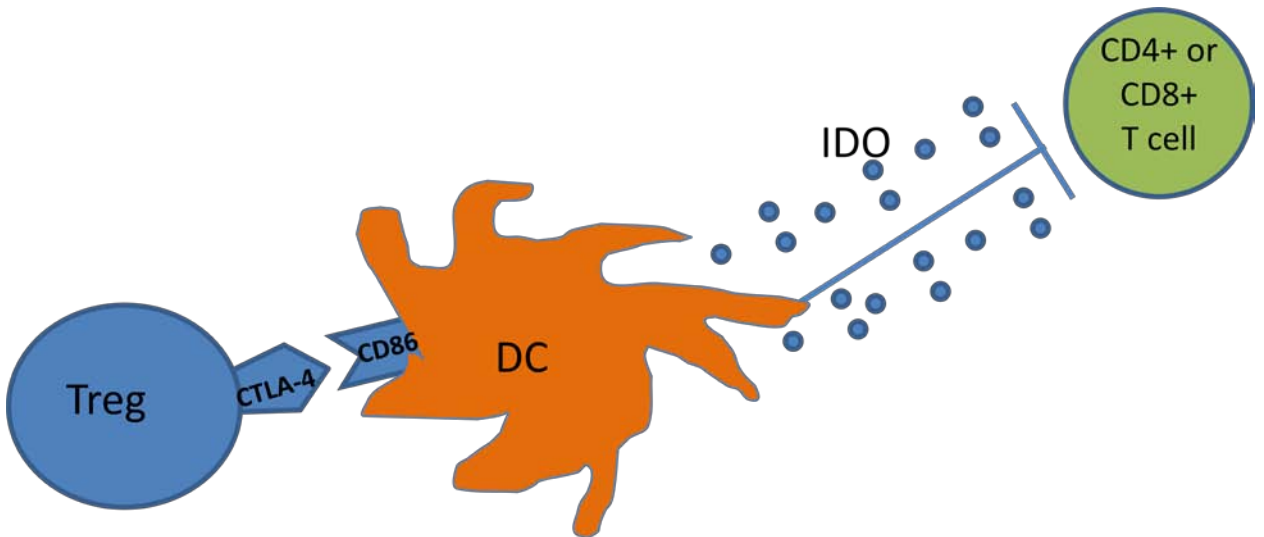


Figure 4: Indirect dendritic cell targeting by T regulatory cells.

Forward: 5'-GGATCCTGGAGCCATGTTTGCTGATGTG

Reverse: 5'-GAATTCGATTGTTCTACTCTTCCTCCTTCTCCG

Figure 5: The sequences of the forward and reverse CD25 specific primers used for PCR to obtain CD25 cDNA.

atggagccat gtttctgat gtggggaatc cttacattca tcacagtatc tggtacacg
acagacctct gtgatgatga ccaccaaac ctcaaacacg ccacattcaa agctctcaca
tacaagacag gcacggtggt aaattgtgat tgtgagaggg gcttccgcag aataagcagc
tacatgcatt gtacaggaaa ctctagccat gcttctggg aaaacaaatg tcggtgcaaa
agtgtatccc cagagaacag aaaaggaaaa gttaccacta aacctgagga acagaagggg
gaaaaccca cagaaatgca gagccaaacg ccgccatgg acgaagtga cttgtaggt
cactgcaggg agcctctcc ctgggaacat gaaaactcca agagaattta ccactttgta
gtggggcaga cacttacta ccagtgcag cagggattca cagccctcca cagaggtcct
gccaagagca tctgcaaac catcttggg aagaccagat ggacgcagcc cccgctcaag
tgcataagtg aaagtcaagt tccagatgac gaagagcttc aagcaagcac tgatgctcct
gctgggaggg aacttcgtc tccttcata acgacaagta ctccagatt ccacaaacac
acagaagtgg ctacaacct ggagtcattc atattcacga ccgagtacca gatagcagt
gcgagctgcg tctctctgct gatcagcadc gtctgctga gtgggctcac ctggcagcgg
agaaggagga agagtagaac aatctag

Figure 6: The 807 bp DNA sequence of our CD25 clone chosen for further experiments.

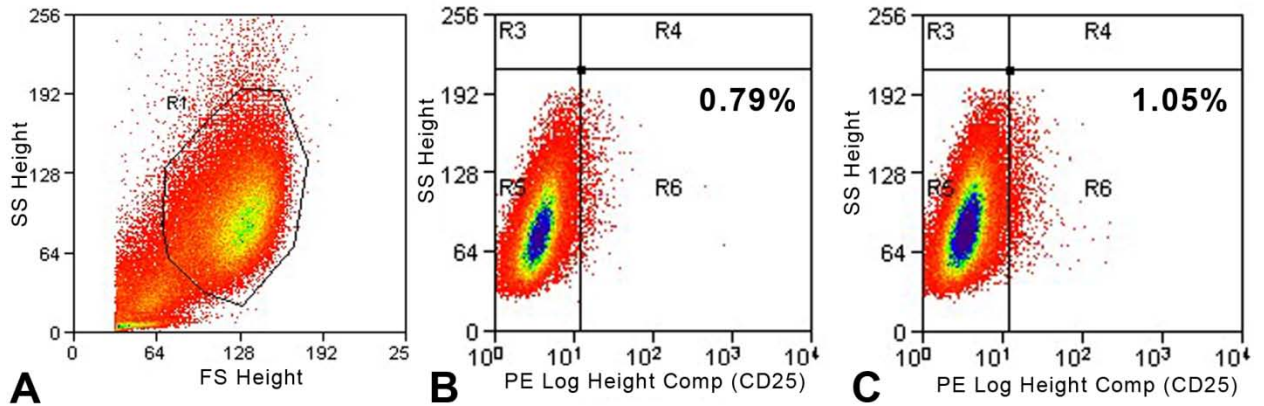


Figure 7: Non-transfected HeLa cells (a human cervical cancer cell line) were used in a flow cytometric assay to determine surface expression for CD25 using a mouse anti-human CD25 PE antibody. Numbers represent the percentage of positive cells in each quadrant. (A) A forward/side scatter plot demonstrates gating of the HeLa cell population for further analysis. (B) A scatter plot of the non-transfected HeLa cells stained with the mouse IgG1 PE isotype control antibody shows minimal reactivity. (C) A scatter plot of the non-transfected HeLa cells stained with the anti-CD25 PE antibody also shows minimal reactivity.

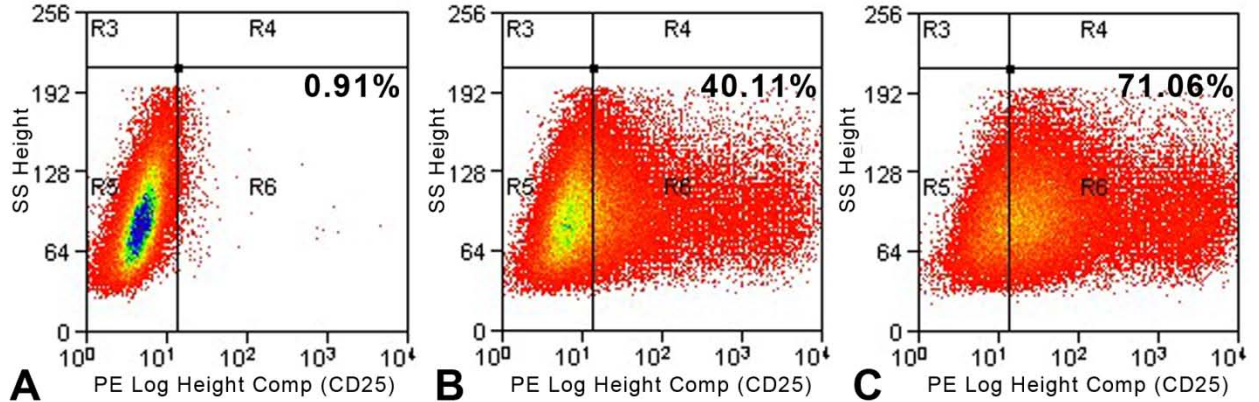


Figure 8: HeLa cells were transfected with canine CD25 and subsequently evaluated for surface expression of CD25 using a mouse anti-human CD25 PE antibody. Numbers represent the percentage of positive cells in each quadrant. (A) A scatter plot of the canine CD25-transfected HeLa cells stained with the mouse IgG1 PE isotype control antibody documents minimal reactivity. (B) A scatter plot of the canine CD25-transfected HeLa cells using 0.5ug of pCMVCD25 plasmid documents cross-reactivity of the anti-human CD25 antibody. (C) A scatter plot of the canine CD25-transfected HeLa cells using 2ug of pCMV-CD25 plasmid demonstrates a dose-response effect. Further increases in the amount of pCMV-CD25 plasmid (4ug and 6ug) did not result in higher cellular expression for CD25 (data not shown).

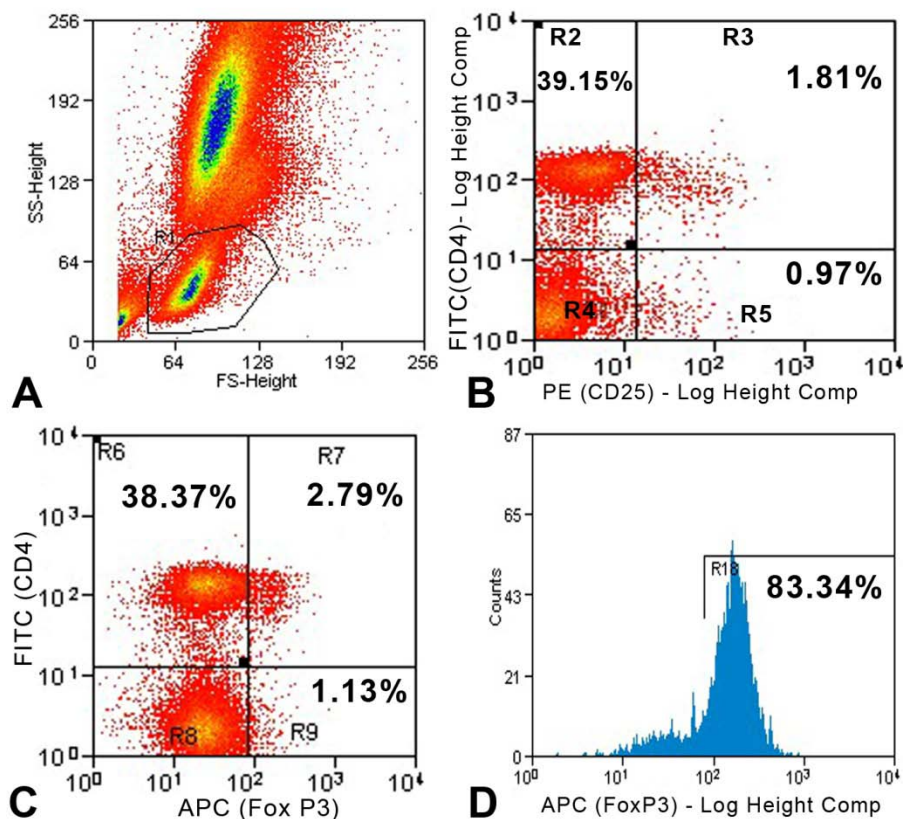


Figure 9: Peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) were used in a three-color flow cytometric assay to identify surface expression of CD4 and CD25, and the intracellular transcription factor FoxP3 in healthy dogs of various ages. Results of PBMC staining from a representative dog are shown. (A) Cells were first gated on a forward/side scatter plot to specify the lymphocyte population for further analysis. (B) A PE vs. FITC scatter plot demonstrates staining for CD25 vs. CD4 positivity, respectively. Double positive cells are shown in R3 and are used in subsequent analysis of CD4+CD25+ cells expressing FoxP3. (C) An APC vs. FITC scatter plot demonstrates FoxP3 vs. CD4 positivity, respectively. (D) A histogram of Fox P3 gated on the CD4+CD25+ population (R3) noted in (B) shows CD4+CD25+ cells expressing FoxP3. Additionally, the absolute numbers of CD4+CD25+ cells expressing FoxP3 were divided by the absolute numbers of lymphocytes in the FSC/SSC gate (A) to give the CD4+CD25+FoxP3+ cells (data not shown).

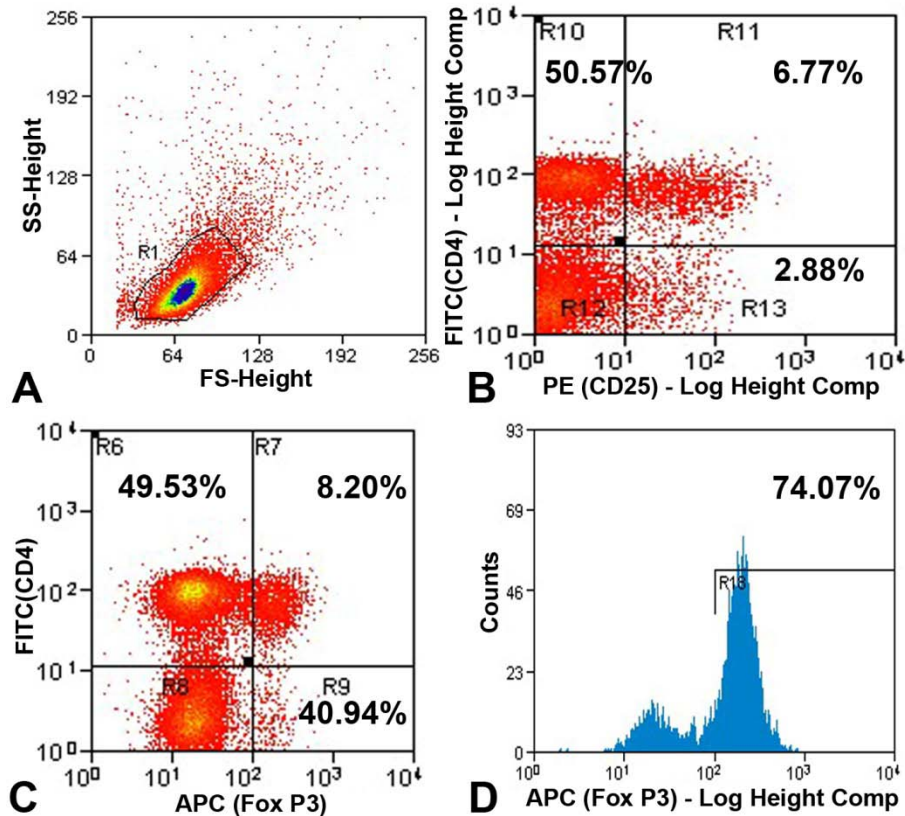


Figure 10: Lymph node cells were used in a three-color flow cytometric assay to identify surface expression of CD4 and CD25, and the intracellular transcription factor FoxP3 in healthy dogs of various ages. Results of lymph node cell staining from a representative dog are shown. (A) Cells were first gated on a forward/side scatter plot to specify the lymphocyte population for further analysis (NOTE: this is the majority of cells since the source is a lymphoid organ). (B) A PE vs. FITC scatter plot demonstrates staining for CD25 vs. CD4 positivity, respectively. Double positive cells are shown in R11 and are used in subsequent analysis of CD4+CD25+ cells expressing FoxP3. (C) An APC vs. FITC scatter plot demonstrates FoxP3 vs. CD4 positivity, respectively. (D) A histogram of Fox P3 gated on the CD4+CD25+ population (R11) noted in (B) shows CD4+CD25+ cells expressing FoxP3. Additionally, the absolute numbers of CD4+CD25+ cells expressing FoxP3 were divided by the absolute numbers of lymphocytes in the FSC/SSC gate (A) to give the CD4+CD25+FoxP3+ cells (data not shown).

TABLES

	Controls < 2 yrs	Controls 2-6 yrs	Controls >= 7 years	HEALTHY CONTROLS (ALL)
Cases	11	16	12	39
Spayed females/Intact females	3/1	9/0	6/0	18/1
Castrated males/Intact males	7/0	5/2	6/0	18/2
Median Age (yr)	1.15	4	8	4.21
Range (yr)	0.9-2	3-6	7-13	0.9-13
Mean age +/- SD	1.25 +/- 0.5	4.04 +/- 1.02	8.83 +/- 2.38	4.81 +/- 3.44
Median weight (kgs)	24.4	23.4	23.4	23.6
Mean weight +/- SD	25.4 +/- 10.2	24.5 +/- 8.8	25.8 +/- 9.6	24.6 +/- 9.3
Breeds	French bulldog (3), Golden Retriever(3), Great Dane (2), mixed breed (1) Labrador (1), Newfoundland (1)	Mixed breed (7), Labrador (3), Greyhound (2), German Shepherd (1), American Staffordshire Terrier (1), Brittany Spaniel (1), Hound (1)	Pointer,(2) Weimeraner (2) Labrador (2), German Shepherd (1), Collie (1), Mixed breed (1),English Spaniel (1), Cocker Spaniel (1), Dogue de Bordeaux (1)	Mixed breed (9), Labrador (6), French Bulldog (3), Golden Retriever (3), German Shepherd (2), Great Dane (2), Pointer (2), Weimeraner (2) Greyhound (2), American Staffordshire Terrier (1), Newfoundland(1), Brittany Spaniel (1), Hound (1), Dogue de Bordeaux (1), , Cocker spaniel (1), Collie (1), English spaniel (1),

Table 1: Healthy control patient signalment.

	Controls < 2 yrs	Controls 2-6 yrs	Controls >/= 7 years	HEALTHY CONTROLS (ALL)
<u>BLOOD</u>				
CD4+CD25+	2.12%	1.80%	2.49%	1.98%
CD4+CD25+FOXP3+	1.00%	0.98%	1.09%	0.98%
CD4+FOXP3+	2.17%	2.81%	2.50%	2.63%
CD4+CD25+ lymphocytes expressing FoxP3	55.29%	53.23%	*32.20%	47.01%
CD4+ cells expressing CD25 and FoxP3	1.97%	1.67%	2.5%	1.97%
<u>LYMPH NODE</u>				
CD4+CD25+	8.11%	5.55%	9.14%	7.15%
CD4+CD25+FOXP3+	5.79%	4.33%	6.16%	5.36%
CD4+FOXP3+	9.05%	8.20%	9.92%	9.25%
CD4+CD25+ lymphocytes expressing FoxP3	72.62%	73.19%	66.79%	71.68%
CD4+ cells expressing CD25 and FoxP3	9.54%	8.66%	11.97%	9.62%

* There was a significantly decreased % CD4+CD25+ T lymphocytes expressing FoxP3 within the blood of older dogs when compared to the blood of the other two age groups ($p < 0.001$).

Table 2: The median % Tregs in the peripheral blood and unrelated lymph nodes within each age group of the healthy controls

OSA PATIENTS	
Cases	16
Spayed females/Intact females	10/0
Castrated males/Intact males	6/0
Median Age (yr)	8
Range (yr)	3.9 -10.25
Mean age +/- SD	7.74 +/- 2.12
Median weight (kgs)	37.9
Mean weight +/- SD	40.9 +/- 12.8
Breeds	Mixed breed (4), Mastiff (3), American Staffordshire Terrier (2), Labrador (2), Alaskan Malamute (1), Sharpei (1), Doberman (1), Newfoundland (1), Golden Retriever (1)

Table 3: Osteosarcoma patient signalment

OSA PATIENTS	
<u>BLOOD</u>	
CD4+CD25+	2.20%
CD4+CD25+FOXP3+	0.84%
CD4+FOXP3+	3.37%
CD4+CD25+ lymphocytes expressing FoxP3	39.68%
CD4+ cells expressing CD25 and FoxP3	1.7%
<u>LYMPH NODE</u>	
CD4+CD25+	8.47%
CD4+CD25+FOXP3+	5.66%
CD4+FOXP3+	8.59%
CD4+CD25+ lymphocytes expressing FoxP3	70.41%
CD4+ cells expressing CD25 and FoxP3	10.39%
<u>TUMOR DRAINING LYMPH NODE</u>	
CD4+CD25+	7.19%
CD4+CD25+FOXP3+	**4.25%
CD4+FOXP3+	9.16%
CD4+CD25+ lymphocytes expressing FoxP3	63.18%
CD4+ cells expressing CD25 and FoxP3	8.15%

**There was a significant decrease in the % of CD4+CD25+FoxP3+ Tregs in the tumor draining lymph nodes of Osteosarcoma patients compared to the unrelated lymph nodes in the same patients (p=0.049).

Table 4: The median % Tregs in the peripheral blood, unrelated, and tumor draining lymph nodes of osteosarcoma patients.

REFERENCES:

1. Umetsu DT, Akbari O, Dekruyff RH. Regulatory T cells control the development of allergic disease and asthma. *J Allergy Clin Immunol* 2003;112:480-487; quiz 488.
2. Xystrakis E, Boswell SE, Hawrylowicz CM. T regulatory cells and the control of allergic disease. *Expert Opin Biol Ther* 2006;6:121-133.
3. Sakaguchi S, Sakaguchi N, Shimizu J, et al. Immunologic tolerance maintained by CD25+ CD4+ regulatory T cells: their common role in controlling autoimmunity, tumor immunity, and transplantation tolerance. *Immunol Rev* 2001;182:18-32.
4. Takahashi T, Tagami T, Yamazaki S, et al. Immunologic self-tolerance maintained by CD25(+)CD4(+) regulatory T cells constitutively expressing cytotoxic T lymphocyte-associated antigen 4. *J Exp Med* 2000;192:303-310.
5. Barnes MJ, Powrie F. Regulatory T cells reinforce intestinal homeostasis. *Immunity* 2009;31:401-411.
6. Chen L, Yang P, Zhou H, et al. Diminished frequency and function of CD4+CD25high regulatory T cells associated with active uveitis in Vogt-Koyanagi-Harada syndrome. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 2008;49:3475-3482.
7. Loser K, Hansen W, Apelt J, et al. In vitro-generated regulatory T cells induced by Foxp3-retrovirus infection control murine contact allergy and systemic autoimmunity. *Gene Ther* 2005;12:1294-1304.
8. Sakaguchi S, Fukuma K, Kuribayashi K, et al. Organ-specific autoimmune diseases induced in mice by elimination of T cell subset. I. Evidence for the active participation of T cells in natural self-tolerance; deficit of a T cell subset as a possible cause of autoimmune disease. *J Exp Med* 1985;161:72-87.
9. Sakaguchi S, Sakaguchi N, Asano M, et al. Immunologic self-tolerance maintained by activated T cells expressing IL-2 receptor alpha-chains (CD25). Breakdown of a single mechanism of self-tolerance causes various autoimmune diseases. *J Immunol* 1995;155:1151-1164.
10. Sugiyama H, Matsue H, Nagasaka A, et al. CD4+CD25high regulatory T cells are markedly decreased in blood of patients with pemphigus vulgaris. *Dermatology* 2007;214:210-220.
11. Veldman C, Hohne A, Dieckmann D, et al. Type I regulatory T cells specific for desmoglein 3 are more frequently detected in healthy individuals than in patients with pemphigus vulgaris. *J Immunol* 2004;172:6468-6475.
12. Asano M, Toda M, Sakaguchi N, et al. Autoimmune disease as a consequence of developmental abnormality of a T cell subpopulation. *J Exp Med* 1996;184:387-396.
13. Suri-Payer E, Amar AZ, Thornton AM, et al. CD4+CD25+ T cells inhibit both the induction and effector function of autoreactive T cells and represent a unique lineage of immunoregulatory cells. *J Immunol* 1998;160:1212-1218.
14. Shimizu J, Yamazaki S, Takahashi T, et al. Stimulation of CD25(+)CD4(+) regulatory T cells through GITR breaks immunological self-tolerance. *Nat Immunol* 2002;3:135-142.
15. Takahashi T, Kuniyasu Y, Toda M, et al. Immunologic self-tolerance maintained by CD25+CD4+ naturally anergic and suppressive T cells: induction of autoimmune disease by breaking their anergic/suppressive state. *Int Immunol* 1998;10:1969-1980.
16. Itoh M, Takahashi T, Sakaguchi N, et al. Thymus and autoimmunity: production of CD25+CD4+ naturally anergic and suppressive T cells as a key function of the thymus in maintaining immunologic self-tolerance. *J Immunol* 1999;162:5317-5326.
17. Thornton AM, Shevach EM. CD4+CD25+ immunoregulatory T cells suppress polyclonal T cell activation in vitro by inhibiting interleukin 2 production. *J Exp Med* 1998;188:287-296.

18. Wildin RS, Smyk-Pearson S, Filipovich AH. Clinical and molecular features of the immunodysregulation, polyendocrinopathy, enteropathy, X linked (IPEX) syndrome. *J Med Genet* 2002;39:537-545.
19. Rouse BT, Sarangi PP, Suvas S. Regulatory T cells in virus infections. *Immunol Rev* 2006;212:272-286.
20. Sellin CI, Jegou JF, Renneson J, et al. Interplay between virus-specific effector response and Foxp3 regulatory T cells in measles virus immunopathogenesis. *PLoS ONE* 2009;4:e4948.
21. Ebinuma H, Nakamoto N, Li Y, et al. Identification and in vitro expansion of functional antigen-specific CD25+ FoxP3+ regulatory T cells in hepatitis C virus infection. *J Virol* 2008;82:5043-5053.
22. Wingate PJ, McAulay KA, Anthony IC, et al. Regulatory T cell activity in primary and persistent Epstein-Barr virus infection. *J Med Virol* 2009;81:870-877.
23. Boettler T, Spangenberg HC, Neumann-Haefelin C, et al. T cells with a CD4+CD25+ regulatory phenotype suppress in vitro proliferation of virus-specific CD8+ T cells during chronic hepatitis C virus infection. *J Virol* 2005;79:7860-7867.
24. Cabrera R, Tu Z, Xu Y, et al. An immunomodulatory role for CD4(+)CD25(+) regulatory T lymphocytes in hepatitis C virus infection. *Hepatology* 2004;40:1062-1071.
25. Rushbrook SM, Ward SM, Unitt E, et al. Regulatory T cells suppress in vitro proliferation of virus-specific CD8+ T cells during persistent hepatitis C virus infection. *J Virol* 2005;79:7852-7859.
26. Sugimoto K, Ikeda F, Stadanlick J, et al. Suppression of HCV-specific T cells without differential hierarchy demonstrated ex vivo in persistent HCV infection. *Hepatology* 2003;38:1437-1448.
27. Beyer M, Schultze JL. Regulatory T cells in cancer. *Blood* 2006;108:804-811.
28. Chen ML, Pittet MJ, Gorelik L, et al. Regulatory T cells suppress tumor-specific CD8 T cell cytotoxicity through TGF-beta signals in vivo. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2005;102:419-424.
29. Clarke SL, Betts GJ, Plant A, et al. CD4+CD25+FOXP3+ regulatory T cells suppress anti-tumor immune responses in patients with colorectal cancer. *PLoS ONE* 2006;1:e129.
30. Curiel TJ, Coukos G, Zou L, et al. Specific recruitment of regulatory T cells in ovarian carcinoma fosters immune privilege and predicts reduced survival. *Nat Med* 2004;10:942-949.
31. Enarsson K, Lundgren A, Kindlund B, et al. Function and recruitment of mucosal regulatory T cells in human chronic Helicobacter pylori infection and gastric adenocarcinoma. *Clin Immunol* 2006;121:358-368.
32. Giatromanolaki A, Bates GJ, Koukourakis MI, et al. The presence of tumor-infiltrating FOXP3+ lymphocytes correlates with intratumoral angiogenesis in endometrial cancer. *Gynecol Oncol* 2008;110:216-221.
33. Knutson KL, Disis ML, Salazar LG. CD4 regulatory T cells in human cancer pathogenesis. *Cancer Immunol Immunother* 2007;56:271-285.
34. Li X, Ye DF, Xie X, et al. Proportion of CD4+CD25+ regulatory T cell is increased in the patients with ovarian carcinoma. *Cancer Invest* 2005;23:399-403.
35. Liyanage UK, Moore TT, Joo HG, et al. Prevalence of regulatory T cells is increased in peripheral blood and tumor microenvironment of patients with pancreas or breast adenocarcinoma. *J Immunol* 2002;169:2756-2761.
36. Okita R, Saeki T, Takashima S, et al. CD4+CD25+ regulatory T cells in the peripheral blood of patients with breast cancer and non-small cell lung cancer. *Oncol Rep* 2005;14:1269-1273.
37. Ormandy LA, Hillemann T, Wedemeyer H, et al. Increased populations of regulatory T cells in peripheral blood of patients with hepatocellular carcinoma. *Cancer Res* 2005;65:2457-2464.

38. Schaefer C, Kim GG, Albers A, et al. Characteristics of CD4+CD25+ regulatory T cells in the peripheral circulation of patients with head and neck cancer. *Br J Cancer* 2005;92:913-920.
39. Vence L, Palucka AK, Fay JW, et al. Circulating tumor antigen-specific regulatory T cells in patients with metastatic melanoma. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2007;104:20884-20889.
40. Wolf AM, Wolf D, Steurer M, et al. Increase of regulatory T cells in the peripheral blood of cancer patients. *Clin Cancer Res* 2003;9:606-612.
41. Woo EY, Chu CS, Goletz TJ, et al. Regulatory CD4(+)CD25(+) T cells in tumors from patients with early-stage non-small cell lung cancer and late-stage ovarian cancer. *Cancer Res* 2001;61:4766-4772.
42. Salama P, Phillips M, Grieu F, et al. Tumor-infiltrating FOXP3+ T regulatory cells show strong prognostic significance in colorectal cancer. *J Clin Oncol* 2009;27:186-192.
43. Shen LS, Wang J, Shen DF, et al. CD4(+)CD25(+)CD127(low/-) regulatory T cells express Foxp3 and suppress effector T cell proliferation and contribute to gastric cancers progression. *Clin Immunol* 2009.
44. Bates GJ, Fox SB, Han C, et al. Quantification of regulatory T cells enables the identification of high-risk breast cancer patients and those at risk of late relapse. *J Clin Oncol* 2006;24:5373-5380.
45. Kono K, Kawaida H, Takahashi A, et al. CD4(+)CD25high regulatory T cells increase with tumor stage in patients with gastric and esophageal cancers. *Cancer Immunol Immunother* 2006;55:1064-1071.
46. Viguier M, Lemaitre F, Verola O, et al. Foxp3 expressing CD4+CD25(high) regulatory T cells are overrepresented in human metastatic melanoma lymph nodes and inhibit the function of infiltrating T cells. *J Immunol* 2004;173:1444-1453.
47. Chen J, Schmitt A, Giannopoulos K, et al. Imatinib impairs the proliferation and function of CD4+CD25+ regulatory T cells in a dose-dependent manner. *Int J Oncol* 2007;31:1133-1139.
48. Dannull J, Su Z, Rizzieri D, et al. Enhancement of vaccine-mediated antitumor immunity in cancer patients after depletion of regulatory T cells. *J Clin Invest* 2005;115:3623-3633.
49. Larmonier N, Janikashvili N, LaCasse CJ, et al. Imatinib mesylate inhibits CD4+ CD25+ regulatory T cell activity and enhances active immunotherapy against BCR-ABL- tumors. *J Immunol* 2008;181:6955-6963.
50. Shimizu J, Yamazaki S, Sakaguchi S. Induction of tumor immunity by removing CD25+CD4+ T cells: a common basis between tumor immunity and autoimmunity. *J Immunol* 1999;163:5211-5218.
51. Rech AJ, Vonderheide RH. Clinical use of anti-CD25 antibody daclizumab to enhance immune responses to tumor antigen vaccination by targeting regulatory T cells. *Ann N Y Acad Sci* 2009;1174:99-106.
52. Longobardi Givan A. *Flow Cytometry: First Principles*. 2nd ed. New York: Wiley-Liss, 2001.
53. Shapiro HM. *Practical Flow Cytometry*. 3rd ed. New York: Wiley-Liss, 1995.
54. Biller BJ, Elmslie RE, Burnett RC, et al. Use of FoxP3 expression to identify regulatory T cells in healthy dogs and dogs with cancer. *Vet Immunol Immunopathol* 2007;116:69-78.
55. Horiuchi Y, Tominaga M, Ichikawa M, et al. Increase of regulatory T cells in the peripheral blood of dogs with metastatic tumors. *Microbiol Immunol* 2009;53:468-474.
56. O'Neill K, Guth A, Biller B, et al. Changes in regulatory T cells in dogs with cancer and associations with tumor type. *J Vet Intern Med* 2009;23:875-881.
57. Bloom ET. Functional importance of CD4+ and CD8+ cells in cytotoxic lymphocytes activity and associated gene expression. Impact on the age-related decline in lytic activity. *Eur J Immunol* 1991;21:1013-1017.

58. Bloom ET, Kubota LF, Kawakami K. Age-related decline in the lethal hit but not the binding stage of cytotoxic T-cell activity in mice. *Cell Immunol* 1988;114:440-446.
59. Bloom ET, Umehara H, Bleackley RC, et al. Age-related decrement in cytotoxic T lymphocyte (CTL) activity is associated with decreased levels of mRNA encoded by two CTL-associated serine esterase genes and the perforin gene in mice. *Eur J Immunol* 1990;20:2309-2316.
60. Utsuyama M, Kasai M, Kurashima C, et al. Age influence on the thymic capacity to promote differentiation of T cells: induction of different composition of T cell subsets by aging thymus. *Mech Ageing Dev* 1991;58:267-277.
61. Horvath JA, Mostowski HS, Okumura K, et al. Pore-forming protein in individual cytotoxic T lymphocytes: the effect of senescence provides a probe for understanding the lytic mechanism. *Eur J Immunol* 1992;22:2649-2654.
62. Schwab R, Staiano-Coico L, Weksler ME. Immunological studies of aging. IX. Quantitative differences in T lymphocyte subsets in young and old individuals. *Diagn Immunol* 1983;1:195-198.
63. Rosenthal M, Steinmann A. [Age and immunity. I. Lymphocyte populations in the peripheral blood in various age groups (author's transl)]. *Dtsch Med Wochenschr* 1978;103:409-412.
64. McElhaney JE, Upshaw CM, Hooton JW, et al. Responses to influenza vaccination in different T-cell subsets: a comparison of healthy young and older adults. *Vaccine* 1998;16:1742-1747.
65. Sun Y, Li H, Langnas AN, et al. Altered allogeneic immune responses in middle-aged mice. *Cell Mol Immunol* 2004;1:440-446.
66. Chen J, Astle CM, Harrison DE. Delayed immune aging in diet-restricted B6CBAT6 F1 mice is associated with preservation of naive T cells. *J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci* 1998;53:B330-337; discussion B338-339.
67. Derbinski J, Schulte A, Kyewski B, et al. Promiscuous gene expression in medullary thymic epithelial cells mirrors the peripheral self. *Nat Immunol* 2001;2:1032-1039.
68. Jordan MS, Boesteanu A, Reed AJ, et al. Thymic selection of CD4+CD25+ regulatory T cells induced by an agonist self-peptide. *Nat Immunol* 2001;2:301-306.
69. Salomon B, Lenschow DJ, Rhee L, et al. B7/CD28 costimulation is essential for the homeostasis of the CD4+CD25+ immunoregulatory T cells that control autoimmune diabetes. *Immunity* 2000;12:431-440.
70. Malek TR, Yu A, Vincek V, et al. CD4 regulatory T cells prevent lethal autoimmunity in IL-2Rbeta-deficient mice. Implications for the nonredundant function of IL-2. *Immunity* 2002;17:167-178.
71. Seddon B, Mason D. Peripheral autoantigen induces regulatory T cells that prevent autoimmunity. *J Exp Med* 1999;189:877-882.
72. Barrat FJ, Cua DJ, Boonstra A, et al. In vitro generation of interleukin 10-producing regulatory CD4(+) T cells is induced by immunosuppressive drugs and inhibited by T helper type 1 (Th1)- and Th2-inducing cytokines. *J Exp Med* 2002;195:603-616.
73. Levings MK, Sangregorio R, Roncarolo MG. Human cd25(+)cd4(+) t regulatory cells suppress naive and memory T cell proliferation and can be expanded in vitro without loss of function. *J Exp Med* 2001;193:1295-1302.
74. Gonzalez A, Andre-Schmutz I, Carnaud C, et al. Damage control, rather than unresponsiveness, effected by protective DX5+ T cells in autoimmune diabetes. *Nat Immunol* 2001;2:1117-1125.

75. Chen Y, Kuchroo VK, Inobe J, et al. Regulatory T cell clones induced by oral tolerance: suppression of autoimmune encephalomyelitis. *Science* 1994;265:1237-1240.
76. Fuss IJ, Boirivant M, Lacy B, et al. The interrelated roles of TGF-beta and IL-10 in the regulation of experimental colitis. *J Immunol* 2002;168:900-908.
77. Kingsley CI, Karim M, Bushell AR, et al. CD25+CD4+ regulatory T cells prevent graft rejection: CTLA-4- and IL-10-dependent immunoregulation of alloresponses. *J Immunol* 2002;168:1080-1086.
78. Dieckmann D, Plottner H, Berchtold S, et al. Ex vivo isolation and characterization of CD4(+)CD25(+) T cells with regulatory properties from human blood. *J Exp Med* 2001;193:1303-1310.
79. Jonuleit H, Schmitt E, Stassen M, et al. Identification and functional characterization of human CD4(+)CD25(+) T cells with regulatory properties isolated from peripheral blood. *J Exp Med* 2001;193:1285-1294.
80. Anderson CF, Oukka M, Kuchroo VJ, et al. CD4(+)CD25(-)Foxp3(-) Th1 cells are the source of IL-10-mediated immune suppression in chronic cutaneous leishmaniasis. *J Exp Med* 2007;204:285-297.
81. Annacker O, Asseman C, Read S, et al. Interleukin-10 in the regulation of T cell-induced colitis. *J Autoimmun* 2003;20:277-279.
82. Asseman C, Mauze S, Leach MW, et al. An essential role for interleukin 10 in the function of regulatory T cells that inhibit intestinal inflammation. *J Exp Med* 1999;190:995-1004.
83. Hawrylowicz CM, O'Garra A. Potential role of interleukin-10-secreting regulatory T cells in allergy and asthma. *Nat Rev Immunol* 2005;5:271-283.
84. Jankovic D, Kullberg MC, Feng CG, et al. Conventional T-bet(+)Foxp3(-) Th1 cells are the major source of host-protective regulatory IL-10 during intracellular protozoan infection. *J Exp Med* 2007;204:273-283.
85. Joetham A, Takeda K, Taube C, et al. Naturally occurring lung CD4(+)CD25(+) T cell regulation of airway allergic responses depends on IL-10 induction of TGF-beta. *J Immunol* 2007;178:1433-1442.
86. Kearley J, Barker JE, Robinson DS, et al. Resolution of airway inflammation and hyperreactivity after in vivo transfer of CD4+CD25+ regulatory T cells is interleukin 10 dependent. *J Exp Med* 2005;202:1539-1547.
87. Molitor-Dart ML, Andrassy J, Kwun J, et al. Developmental exposure to noninherited maternal antigens induces CD4+ T regulatory cells: relevance to mechanism of heart allograft tolerance. *J Immunol* 2007;179:6749-6761.
88. Rubtsov YP, Rasmussen JP, Chi EY, et al. Regulatory T cell-derived interleukin-10 limits inflammation at environmental interfaces. *Immunity* 2008;28:546-558.
89. Green EA, Gorelik L, McGregor CM, et al. CD4+CD25+ T regulatory cells control anti-islet CD8+ T cells through TGF-beta-TGF-beta receptor interactions in type 1 diabetes. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2003;100:10878-10883.
90. Nakamura K, Kitani A, Strober W. Cell contact-dependent immunosuppression by CD4(+)CD25(+) regulatory T cells is mediated by cell surface-bound transforming growth factor beta. *J Exp Med* 2001;194:629-644.
91. Collison LW, Pillai MR, Chaturvedi V, et al. Regulatory T cell suppression is potentiated by target T cells in a cell contact, IL-35- and IL-10-dependent manner. *J Immunol* 2009;182:6121-6128.
92. Collison LW, Workman CJ, Kuo TT, et al. The inhibitory cytokine IL-35 contributes to regulatory T-cell function. *Nature* 2007;450:566-569.

93. Gondek DC, Lu LF, Quezada SA, et al. Cutting edge: contact-mediated suppression by CD4+CD25+ regulatory cells involves a granzyme B-dependent, perforin-independent mechanism. *J Immunol* 2005;174:1783-1786.
94. Grossman WJ, Verbsky JW, Tollefsen BL, et al. Differential expression of granzymes A and B in human cytotoxic lymphocyte subsets and T regulatory cells. *Blood* 2004;104:2840-2848.
95. Zhao DM, Thornton AM, DiPaolo RJ, et al. Activated CD4+CD25+ T cells selectively kill B lymphocytes. *Blood* 2006;107:3925-3932.
96. Cao X, Cai SF, Fehniger TA, et al. Granzyme B and perforin are important for regulatory T cell-mediated suppression of tumor clearance. *Immunity* 2007;27:635-646.
97. de la Rosa M, Rutz S, Dorninger H, et al. Interleukin-2 is essential for CD4+CD25+ regulatory T cell function. *Eur J Immunol* 2004;34:2480-2488.
98. Pandiyan P, Zheng L, Ishihara S, et al. CD4+CD25+Foxp3+ regulatory T cells induce cytokine deprivation-mediated apoptosis of effector CD4+ T cells. *Nat Immunol* 2007;8:1353-1362.
99. Brandenburg S, Takahashi T, de la Rosa M, et al. IL-2 induces in vivo suppression by CD4(+)CD25(+)Foxp3(+) regulatory T cells. *Eur J Immunol* 2008;38:1643-1653.
100. Zarek PE, Huang CT, Lutz ER, et al. A2A receptor signaling promotes peripheral tolerance by inducing T-cell anergy and the generation of adaptive regulatory T cells. *Blood* 2008;111:251-259.
101. Borsellino G, Kleinewietfeld M, Di Mitri D, et al. Expression of ectonucleotidase CD39 by Foxp3+ Treg cells: hydrolysis of extracellular ATP and immune suppression. *Blood* 2007;110:1225-1232.
102. Deaglio S, Dwyer KM, Gao W, et al. Adenosine generation catalyzed by CD39 and CD73 expressed on regulatory T cells mediates immune suppression. *J Exp Med* 2007;204:1257-1265.
103. Kobie JJ, Shah PR, Yang L, et al. T regulatory and primed uncommitted CD4 T cells express CD73, which suppresses effector CD4 T cells by converting 5'-adenosine monophosphate to adenosine. *J Immunol* 2006;177:6780-6786.
104. Bopp T, Becker C, Klein M, et al. Cyclic adenosine monophosphate is a key component of regulatory T cell-mediated suppression. *J Exp Med* 2007;204:1303-1310.
105. Tadokoro CE, Shakhar G, Shen S, et al. Regulatory T cells inhibit stable contacts between CD4+ T cells and dendritic cells in vivo. *J Exp Med* 2006;203:505-511.
106. Tang Q, Adams JY, Tooley AJ, et al. Visualizing regulatory T cell control of autoimmune responses in nonobese diabetic mice. *Nat Immunol* 2006;7:83-92.
107. Read S, Malmstrom V, Powrie F. Cytotoxic T lymphocyte-associated antigen 4 plays an essential role in the function of CD25(+)CD4(+) regulatory cells that control intestinal inflammation. *J Exp Med* 2000;192:295-302.
108. Fallarino F, Grohmann U, Hwang KW, et al. Modulation of tryptophan catabolism by regulatory T cells. *Nat Immunol* 2003;4:1206-1212.
109. Mellor AL, Munn DH. IDO expression by dendritic cells: tolerance and tryptophan catabolism. *Nat Rev Immunol* 2004;4:762-774.
110. Cederbom L, Hall H, Ivars F. CD4+CD25+ regulatory T cells down-regulate co-stimulatory molecules on antigen-presenting cells. *Eur J Immunol* 2000;30:1538-1543.
111. Fontenot JD, Gavin MA, Rudensky AY. Foxp3 programs the development and function of CD4+CD25+ regulatory T cells. *Nat Immunol* 2003;4:330-336.
112. Fontenot JD, Rudensky AY. A well adapted regulatory contrivance: regulatory T cell development and the forkhead family transcription factor Foxp3. *Nat Immunol* 2005;6:331-337.
113. Ramsdell F. Foxp3 and natural regulatory T cells: key to a cell lineage? *Immunity* 2003;19:165-168.

114. Hori S, Nomura T, Sakaguchi S. Control of regulatory T cell development by the transcription factor Foxp3. *Science* 2003;299:1057-1061.
115. Yagi H, Nomura T, Nakamura K, et al. Crucial role of FOXP3 in the development and function of human CD25+CD4+ regulatory T cells. *Int Immunol* 2004;16:1643-1656.
116. Khattri R, Cox T, Yasayko SA, et al. An essential role for Scurfin in CD4+CD25+ T regulatory cells. *Nat Immunol* 2003;4:337-342.
117. Bennett CL, Yoshioka R, Kiyosawa H, et al. X-Linked syndrome of polyendocrinopathy, immune dysfunction, and diarrhea maps to Xp11.23-Xq13.3. *Am J Hum Genet* 2000;66:461-468.
118. Lopes JE, Torgerson TR, Schubert LA, et al. Analysis of FOXP3 reveals multiple domains required for its function as a transcriptional repressor. *J Immunol* 2006;177:3133-3142.
119. Schubert LA, Jeffery E, Zhang Y, et al. Scurfin (FOXP3) acts as a repressor of transcription and regulates T cell activation. *J Biol Chem* 2001;276:37672-37679.
120. Brunkow ME, Jeffery EW, Hjerrild KA, et al. Disruption of a new forkhead/winged-helix protein, scurfin, results in the fatal lymphoproliferative disorder of the scurfy mouse. *Nat Genet* 2001;27:68-73.
121. Bennett CL, Christie J, Ramsdell F, et al. The immune dysregulation, polyendocrinopathy, enteropathy, X-linked syndrome (IPEX) is caused by mutations of FOXP3. *Nat Genet* 2001;27:20-21.
122. Wildin RS, Ramsdell F, Peake J, et al. X-linked neonatal diabetes mellitus, enteropathy and endocrinopathy syndrome is the human equivalent of mouse scurfy. *Nat Genet* 2001;27:18-20.
123. Allan SE, Passerini L, Bacchetta R, et al. The role of 2 FOXP3 isoforms in the generation of human CD4+ Tregs. *J Clin Invest* 2005;115:3276-3284.
124. Morgan ME, van Bilsen JH, Bakker AM, et al. Expression of FOXP3 mRNA is not confined to CD4+CD25+ T regulatory cells in humans. *Hum Immunol* 2005;66:13-20.
125. Walker MR, Kaspirowicz DJ, Gersuk VH, et al. Induction of FoxP3 and acquisition of T regulatory activity by stimulated human CD4+CD25- T cells. *J Clin Invest* 2003;112:1437-1443.
126. Gavin MA, Torgerson TR, Houston E, et al. Single-cell analysis of normal and FOXP3-mutant human T cells: FOXP3 expression without regulatory T cell development. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2006;103:6659-6664.
127. Tran DQ, Ramsey H, Shevach EM. Induction of FOXP3 expression in naive human CD4+FOXP3 T cells by T-cell receptor stimulation is transforming growth factor-beta dependent but does not confer a regulatory phenotype. *Blood* 2007;110:2983-2990.
128. Wang J, Ioan-Facsinay A, van der Voort EI, et al. Transient expression of FOXP3 in human activated nonregulatory CD4+ T cells. *Eur J Immunol* 2007;37:129-138.
129. Baecher-Allan C, Brown JA, Freeman GJ, et al. CD4+CD25high regulatory cells in human peripheral blood. *J Immunol* 2001;167:1245-1253.
130. Baecher-Allan C, Wolf E, Hafler DA. Functional analysis of highly defined, FACS-isolated populations of human regulatory CD4+ CD25+ T cells. *Clin Immunol* 2005;115:10-18.
131. Zhao L, Sun L, Wang H, et al. Changes of CD4+CD25+Foxp3+ regulatory T cells in aged Balb/c mice. *J Leukoc Biol* 2007;81:1386-1394.
132. Galkowska H, Waldemar LO, Wojewodzka U. Reactivity of antibodies directed against human antigens with surface markers on canine leukocytes. *Vet Immunol Immunopathol* 1996;53:329-334.
133. Masuda K, Yasuda N. The antibody against human CD25, ACT-1, recognizes canine T-lymphocytes in the G2/M and G0/G1 phases of the cell cycle during proliferation. *J Vet Med Sci* 2008;70:1285-1287.

134. Olivry T, Kurata K, Paps JS, et al. A blinded randomized controlled trial evaluating the usefulness of a novel diet (aminoprotect care) in dogs with spontaneous food allergy. *J Vet Med Sci* 2007;69:1025-1031.
135. Mizuno T, Suzuki R, Umeki S, et al. Crossreactivity of antibodies to canine CD25 and Foxp3 and identification of canine CD4+CD25+Foxp3+ cells in canine peripheral blood. *J Vet Med Sci* 2009;71:1561-1568.
136. Chomczynski P. A reagent for the single-step simultaneous isolation of RNA, DNA and proteins from cell and tissue samples. *Biotechniques* 1993;15:532-534, 536-537.
137. Sambrook J FE, Maniatis T. *Molecular Cloning: A Laboratory Manual*. 2nd ed. Cold Spring Harbor: Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory Press, 1989.
138. Scollay RG, Butcher EC, Weissman IL. Thymus cell migration. Quantitative aspects of cellular traffic from the thymus to the periphery in mice. *Eur J Immunol* 1980;10:210-218.
139. Aspinall R. Age-associated thymic atrophy in the mouse is due to a deficiency affecting rearrangement of the TCR during intrathymic T cell development. *J Immunol* 1997;158:3037-3045.
140. Schwab R, Szabo P, Manavalan JS, et al. Expanded CD4+ and CD8+ T cell clones in elderly humans. *J Immunol* 1997;158:4493-4499.
141. Bryl E, Witkowski JM. Decreased proliferative capability of CD4(+) cells of elderly people is associated with faster loss of activation-related antigens and accumulation of regulatory T cells. *Exp Gerontol* 2004;39:587-595.
142. Gregg R, Smith CM, Clark FJ, et al. The number of human peripheral blood CD4+CD25high regulatory T cells increases with age. *Clin Exp Immunol* 2005;140:540-546.
143. Tsaknaridis L, Spencer L, Culbertson N, et al. Functional assay for human CD4+CD25+ Treg cells reveals an age-dependent loss of suppressive activity. *J Neurosci Res* 2003;74:296-308.
144. Nishioka T, Shimizu J, Iida R, et al. CD4+CD25+Foxp3+ T cells and CD4+CD25-Foxp3+ T cells in aged mice. *J Immunol* 2006;176:6586-6593.
145. Cesana GC, DeRaffele G, Cohen S, et al. Characterization of CD4+CD25+ regulatory T cells in patients treated with high-dose interleukin-2 for metastatic melanoma or renal cell carcinoma. *J Clin Oncol* 2006;24:1169-1177.
146. El Andaloussi A, Lesniak MS. An increase in CD4+CD25+FOXP3+ regulatory T cells in tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes of human glioblastoma multiforme. *Neuro Oncol* 2006;8:234-243.
147. Gupta S, Joshi K, Wig JD, et al. Intratumoral FOXP3 expression in infiltrating breast carcinoma: Its association with clinicopathologic parameters and angiogenesis. *Acta Oncol* 2007;46:792-797.
148. Anraku M, Cunningham KS, Yun Z, et al. Impact of tumor-infiltrating T cells on survival in patients with malignant pleural mesothelioma. *J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg* 2008;135:823-829.
149. Brodey RS, Mc GJ, Reynolds H. A clinical and radiological study of canine bone neoplasms. I. *J Am Vet Med Assoc* 1959;134:53-71.
150. Brodey RS, Riser WH. Canine osteosarcoma. A clinicopathologic study of 194 cases. *Clin Orthop Relat Res* 1969;62:54-64.
151. Brodey RS, Sauer RM, Medway W. Canine Bone Neoplasms. *J Am Vet Med Assoc* 1963;143:471-495.
152. Dorfman SK, Hurvitz AI, Patnaik AK. Primary and secondary bone tumours in the dog. *J Small Anim Pract* 1977;18:313-326.
153. Ling GV, Morgan JP, Pool RR. Primary bone tumors in the dog: a combined clinical, radiographic, and histologic approach to early diagnosis. *J Am Vet Med Assoc* 1974;165:55-67.

154. Brodey RS. Surgical treatment of canine osteosarcoma. *J Am Vet Med Assoc* 1965;147:729-735.
155. Spodnick GJ, Berg J, Rand WM, et al. Prognosis for dogs with appendicular osteosarcoma treated by amputation alone: 162 cases (1978-1988). *J Am Vet Med Assoc* 1992;200:995-999.
156. Bailey D, Erb H, Williams L, et al. Carboplatin and doxorubicin combination chemotherapy for the treatment of appendicular osteosarcoma in the dog. *J Vet Intern Med* 2003;17:199-205.
157. Berg J, Gebhardt MC, Rand WM. Effect of timing of postoperative chemotherapy on survival of dogs with osteosarcoma. *Cancer* 1997;79:1343-1350.
158. Berg J, Weinstein MJ, Schelling SH, et al. Treatment of dogs with osteosarcoma by administration of cisplatin after amputation or limb-sparing surgery: 22 cases (1987-1990). *J Am Vet Med Assoc* 1992;200:2005-2008.
159. Berg J, Weinstein MJ, Springfield DS, et al. Results of surgery and doxorubicin chemotherapy in dogs with osteosarcoma. *J Am Vet Med Assoc* 1995;206:1555-1560.
160. Bergman PJ, MacEwen EG, Kurzman ID, et al. Amputation and carboplatin for treatment of dogs with osteosarcoma: 48 cases (1991 to 1993). *J Vet Intern Med* 1996;10:76-81.
161. Chun R, Garrett LD, Henry C, et al. Toxicity and efficacy of cisplatin and doxorubicin combination chemotherapy for the treatment of canine osteosarcoma. *J Am Anim Hosp Assoc* 2005;41:382-387.
162. Kent MS, Strom A, London CA, et al. Alternating carboplatin and doxorubicin as adjunctive chemotherapy to amputation or limb-sparing surgery in the treatment of appendicular osteosarcoma in dogs. *J Vet Intern Med* 2004;18:540-544.
163. Kirpensteijn J, Teske E, Kik M, et al. Lobaplatin as an adjuvant chemotherapy to surgery in canine appendicular osteosarcoma: a phase II evaluation. *Anticancer Res* 2002;22:2765-2770.
164. Kraegel SA, Madewell BR, Simonson E, et al. Osteogenic sarcoma and cisplatin chemotherapy in dogs: 16 cases (1986-1989). *J Am Vet Med Assoc* 1991;199:1057-1059.
165. Mauldin GN, Matus RE, Withrow SJ, et al. Canine osteosarcoma. Treatment by amputation versus amputation and adjuvant chemotherapy using doxorubicin and cisplatin. *J Vet Intern Med* 1988;2:177-180.
166. Phillips B, Powers BE, Dernell WS, et al. Use of single-agent carboplatin as adjuvant or neoadjuvant therapy in conjunction with amputation for appendicular osteosarcoma in dogs. *J Am Anim Hosp Assoc* 2009;45:33-38.
167. Shapiro W, Fossum TW, Kitchell BE, et al. Use of cisplatin for treatment of appendicular osteosarcoma in dogs. *J Am Vet Med Assoc* 1988;192:507-511.
168. Straw RC, Withrow SJ, Richter SL, et al. Amputation and cisplatin for treatment of canine osteosarcoma. *J Vet Intern Med* 1991;5:205-210.
169. Thompson JP, Fugent MJ. Evaluation of survival times after limb amputation, with and without subsequent administration of cisplatin, for treatment of appendicular osteosarcoma in dogs: 30 cases (1979-1990). *J Am Vet Med Assoc* 1992;200:531-533.
170. Gamblin RM, Straw RC, Powers BE, et al. Primary osteosarcoma distal to the antebrachiocarpal and tarsocrural joints in nine dogs (1980-1992). *J Am Anim Hosp Assoc* 1995;31:86-91.
171. Liptak JM, Dernell WS, Straw RC, et al. Proximal radial and distal humeral osteosarcoma in 12 dogs. *J Am Anim Hosp Assoc* 2004;40:461-467.
172. Bacon NJ, Ehrhart NP, Dernell WS, et al. Use of alternating administration of carboplatin and doxorubicin in dogs with microscopic metastases after amputation for appendicular osteosarcoma: 50 cases (1999-2006). *J Am Vet Med Assoc* 2008;232:1504-1510.

173. Ehrhart N, Dernell WS, Hoffmann WE, et al. Prognostic importance of alkaline phosphatase activity in serum from dogs with appendicular osteosarcoma: 75 cases (1990-1996). *J Am Vet Med Assoc* 1998;213:1002-1006.
174. Garzotto CK, Berg J, Hoffmann WE, et al. Prognostic significance of serum alkaline phosphatase activity in canine appendicular osteosarcoma. *J Vet Intern Med* 2000;14:587-592.
175. Kirpensteijn J, Kik M, Rutteman GR, et al. Prognostic significance of a new histologic grading system for canine osteosarcoma. *Vet Pathol* 2002;39:240-246.
176. Vail DM, Kurzman ID, Glawe PC, et al. STEALTH liposome-encapsulated cisplatin (SPI-77) versus carboplatin as adjuvant therapy for spontaneously arising osteosarcoma (OSA) in the dog: a randomized multicenter clinical trial. *Cancer Chemother Pharmacol* 2002;50:131-136.
177. Hillers KR, Dernell WS, Lafferty MH, et al. Incidence and prognostic importance of lymph node metastases in dogs with appendicular osteosarcoma: 228 cases (1986-2003). *J Am Vet Med Assoc* 2005;226:1364-1367.
178. Onizuka S, Tawara I, Shimizu J, et al. Tumor rejection by in vivo administration of anti-CD25 (interleukin-2 receptor alpha) monoclonal antibody. *Cancer Res* 1999;59:3128-3133.
179. Anraku M, Tagawa T, Wu L, et al. Synergistic antitumor effects of regulatory T cell blockade combined with pemetrexed in murine malignant mesothelioma. *J Immunol* 2010;185:956-966.
180. Heiser A, Coleman D, Dannull J, et al. Autologous dendritic cells transfected with prostate-specific antigen RNA stimulate CTL responses against metastatic prostate tumors. *J Clin Invest* 2002;109:409-417.
181. Su Z, Dannull J, Heiser A, et al. Immunological and clinical responses in metastatic renal cancer patients vaccinated with tumor RNA-transfected dendritic cells. *Cancer Res* 2003;63:2127-2133.
182. Prasad SJ, Farrand KJ, Matthews SA, et al. Dendritic cells loaded with stressed tumor cells elicit long-lasting protective tumor immunity in mice depleted of CD4+CD25+ regulatory T cells. *J Immunol* 2005;174:90-98.
183. Demetri GD, von Mehren M, Blanke CD, et al. Efficacy and safety of imatinib mesylate in advanced gastrointestinal stromal tumors. *N Engl J Med* 2002;347:472-480.
184. O'Brien SG, Guilhot F, Larson RA, et al. Imatinib compared with interferon and low-dose cytarabine for newly diagnosed chronic-phase chronic myeloid leukemia. *N Engl J Med* 2003;348:994-1004.
185. Liu R, Xiong S, Zhang L, et al. Enhancement of antitumor immunity by low-dose total body irradiation associated with selectively decreasing the proportion and number of T regulatory cells. *Cell Mol Immunol* 2010;7:157-162.