

Experimental Corneal Allograft Rejection

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Abstract

The major findings regarding corneal allograft rejection in experimental animals are reviewed. The principal anatomic and biological feature of the cornea that determines the immunologic privilege of this tissue is its avascularity. The surgical trauma of transplantation compromises the immunologic privilege, putting corneal allografts at risk for immune rejection. During the past 50 yr, rabbits, rats, and mice have been used extensively in the study of the process of immunologically mediated corneal allograft rejection. It is clear that the inflammation and neovascularization of the graft that occurs following transplantation predisposes a corneal allograft to the classic cell-mediated immune rejection response. The antigenicity of cornea cells has been studied and has been found to be significantly lower compared to other cells and tissues.

Rejection of a corneal allograft is a cell-mediated process directed against major histocompatibility complex antigens involving both CD4⁺ T helper cells and CD8⁺ cytotoxic cells. The prevention of corneal allograft rejection depends on the development of topically applied compounds that can prevent inflammation and vascularization and inhibit the activation of T lymphocytes. Considerable progress has been made using immunomodulators, including blocking antibodies and soluble coreceptor blocking agents such as CTLA4-Ig. Combinations of antiangiogenic agents and immunomodulators hold great promise for preventing corneal allograft rejection in patients.

Key Words

Cornea
Allograft
Rejection
Vascularization
Cell-mediated immunity
Immunologic privilege
Rabbit
Mouse
Rat
Immunosuppression

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Introduction

The cornea is the only part of the eye that is technically feasible to transplant clinically and experimentally. Many thousands of patients have vision restored to blind eyes by having a diseased cornea replaced with a corneal allograft. Protected against immunologic attack by immunosuppressive drugs, 90% of corneal allografts survive for extended periods of time. Given this high rate of success, why do we continue to study corneal allograft immune reactions in experimental animals? The impetus for pursuing the study of corneal allograft immune reactions is that, although the cellular and molecular components of rejection have been characterized, the immune mechanisms whereby corneal allograft cells are destroyed are not understood. Furthermore, in patients who are considered to be at high risk for rejecting a corneal allograft because of a vascularized graft bed or previous graft rejection, it is often impossible to prevent rejection with immunosuppressive drugs.

The immunologic privilege of the cornea is universally appreciated. This privilege derives from the anatomy and cell biology of this tissue: The cornea is avascular and does not contain lymphatic channels, and corneal cells express low levels of histocompatibility antigens. A variety of pathological circumstances result in inflammation and neovascularization of the cornea, eliminating immunologic privilege. When a cornea becomes vascularized it is subject to the same rules of transplantation immunology as other tissues and organ grafts. Corneal allograft rejection has all the hallmarks of a cell-mediated immune response to alloantigens; the death of irreplaceable graft cells results in failure of graft function and rejection of the graft. In this review, a synthesis of our understanding of the process of corneal allograft rejection and the ways in

which corneal allograft rejection can be circumvented will be considered.

The main points to be elaborated on are:

1. The normal cornea is immunologically privileged because it is not vascularized.
2. Trauma to the cornea as a result of surgery (corneal transplantation) or other penetrating injury, bacterial, viral, or fungal infection, or chemical burns—all of which induce inflammation and/or neovascularization—eliminate the immunologic privilege of this tissue.
3. Corneal allograft rejection is a typical cellular immune process involving T helper lymphocytes, T cytotoxic lymphocytes, and accessory leukocytes.
4. It is not known where corneal allograft antigens are initially recognized—*in situ*, external to the graft, or both.
5. Corneal allograft rejection is a localized immune response which does not engender measurable systemic humoral or cell-mediated immunity.
6. Antigens coded for by the major histocompatibility gene complex (MHC) are the targets of corneal allograft immune reactions.
7. Prevention of corneal allograft rejection in high risk situations will be achieved using a combination of locally applied mediators that inhibit neovascularization, inflammation, and T cell activation.

Animal Models of Corneal Allograft Rejection

Since the normal cornea is optically clear and is part of the exterior surface of the body, it is possible, with low power magnification, to observe changes in this tissue associated with rejection, such as infiltration of leukocytes, neovascularization, haze, and edema. Thus, it is feasible to record the appearance of a corneal allograft from the time of transplantation to the endpoint of rejection (Fig. 1).

The histopathology of corneal allograft rejection has been described (1–8) and mimics

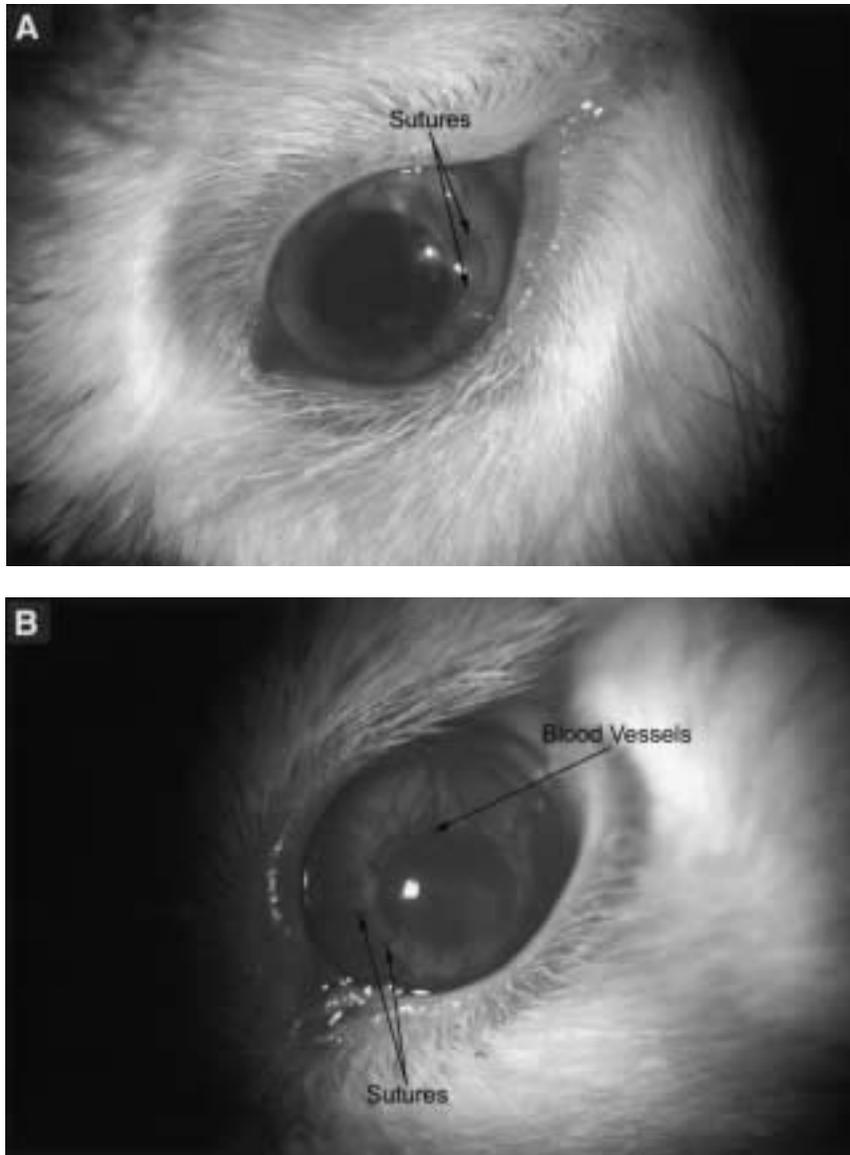


Fig. 1. Slit lamp photographs of rabbit corneal allografts. (A) Photograph of a graft five days after transplantation. Two of the sutures in the periphery of the graft are marked with arrows. At this early time the graft is optically clear and not vascularized. (B) Photograph of a rejected corneal allograft 19 d after transplantation. The graft is hazy, edematous, inflamed, and vascularized. Blood vessels growing into the graft are readily apparent. Grafts in this condition are end-stage and not salvageable by immunosuppression.

other forms of cell-mediated allograft rejection such as occur in the kidney, heart, and other organ allografts. During rejection a corneal allograft becomes vascularized and is

infiltrated by a mixed population of leukocytes including polymorphonuclear leukocytes, lymphocytes, and macrophages (Fig. 2). At the time of transplantation, a corneal allograft

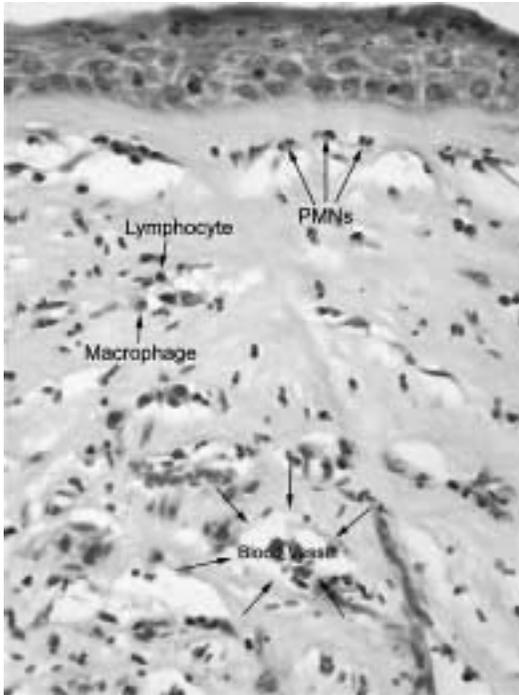


Fig. 2. Histopathology of corneal allograft rejection. In this photomicrograph of a corneal allograft undergoing rejection, numerous white blood cells of different morphologies can be seen in the stroma and epithelium of the graft. In particular, cells having the morphology of lymphocytes, macrophages, and polymorphonuclear leukocytes can be seen. Blood vessels are present in the corneal stroma ($\times 100$ magnification).

is avascular and consists of a multilayered epithelium, a collagenous stroma containing scattered keratocytes, and an inner monolayer of endothelial cells (Fig. 3). The rim of a corneal allograft is joined to the edge of the recipient's cornea and a watertight seal is established using a delicate nylon suture. Before a corneal allograft immune reaction can develop, the first cellular host event that must ensue is the infiltration of acute inflammatory cells including neutrophils and macrophages, into the wound site and around the nylon sutures that hold the graft in place. In patients, this

acute inflammatory reaction is suppressed by topical steroids. The continued use of topical steroids as an immunosuppressive therapy for several months after transplantation is relatively effective in preventing cornea graft rejection in patients. Similarly, controlling the acute inflammatory reaction that occurs soon after corneal transplantation in animals can prevent early graft failure mediated by nonspecific damage of the graft by inflammatory cells and continued treatment can also prevent a subsequent antigen-specific immune response.

Rabbits, rats, and mice are commonly used in corneal allografting experiments. There are significant differences in the survival of corneal allografts in these three species and the technical difficulty of performing the surgery increases as the size of the animal and its cornea decreases. More than half of the corneal allografts placed into nonvascularized graft beds in rabbits survive indefinitely without the use of steroids or other immunosuppressive drugs (9,10). However, when one is investigating the cellular and molecular components of the immune graft reaction it is necessary that a high percentage of recipients mount an immunologic attack on the corneal allografts. In order to predispose corneal allografts in rabbits to undergo graft rejection, we first induce vascularization of the recipient graft site with silk sutures. Using the technique reported by Hill and Maske (11), three loops of silk suture are sewn into the anterior corneal stroma of the recipient rabbit approximately two weeks before corneal transplantation. The silk suture acts as an irritant, eliciting an inflammatory reaction and the ingrowth of blood vessels to and around the sutures (Fig. 4). Then the sutures are removed and the vascularized recipient cornea is replaced with a nonvascularized cornea allograft. In this way, recipient blood vessels are immediately adjacent to the corneal allograft when the transplant is in place. This

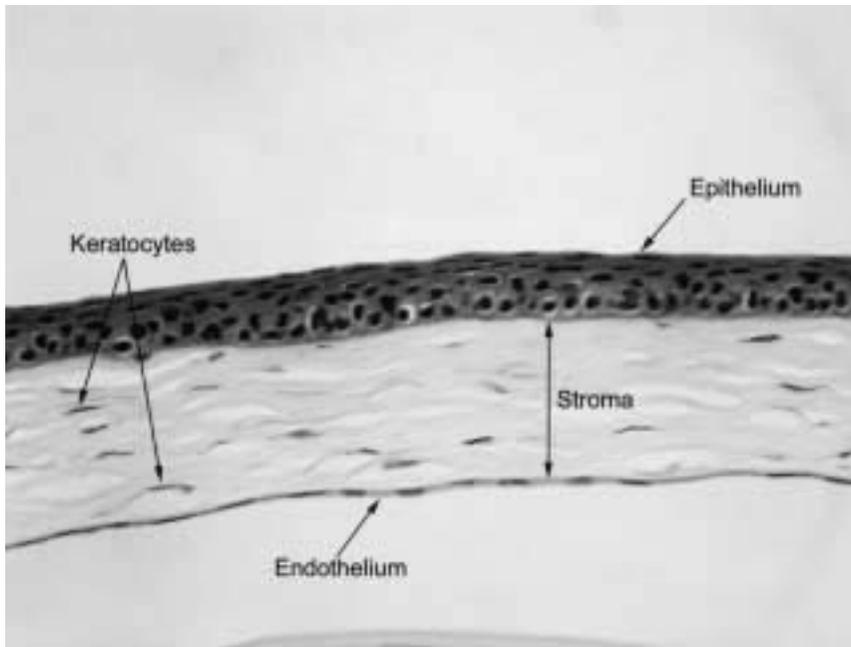


Fig. 3. Histology of the normal cornea. In this photomicrograph the structure of the normal cornea, consisting of an outer layer of epithelium, a middle layer of collagenous stroma with scattered keratocytes, and an inner layer of endothelial cells, is shown ($\times 40$ magnification).

juxtaposition of recipient blood vessels with the allograft facilitates vascular ingrowth into the allograft, promoting contact between donor alloantigens and the recipient's cellular immune apparatus. Using this approach, more than 80% of rabbit corneal allografts are subjected to immune reactions, providing a wealth of material for study (10,11). Heat cautery or alkali burns also induce inflammation and vascularization of the cornea (10,11).

When a rabbit corneal allograft placed into an avascular, immunologically privileged recipient graft site is compared with one placed into an inflamed and vascularized site which is no longer privileged, the differences between these two circumstances emerge. If a technically perfect and surgically uncomplicated corneal allograft is accomplished in a nonvascularized graft site the allograft is likely to sur-

vive indefinitely without the use of topical or systemic immunosuppression. Removal of sutures often can be achieved between 14 and 21 d; clear, healthy corneal allografts will survive for the lifetime of the animal. Placing the graft in a recipient cornea that has been inflamed and vascularized by the insertion of silk sutures as described above dramatically alters the immunologic privilege of the recipient cornea and the subsequent fate of the graft. Even if the surgical procedure is technically uncomplicated and there are no postsurgical sequelae, the majority of grafts placed in vascularized sites are subjected to an acute immune rejection response. In rabbits, rejection of corneal allografts placed in vascularized graft beds occurs between 12 and 25 d; the median survival time is 18 d (Fig. 5). Observation of corneal allografts in vascularized

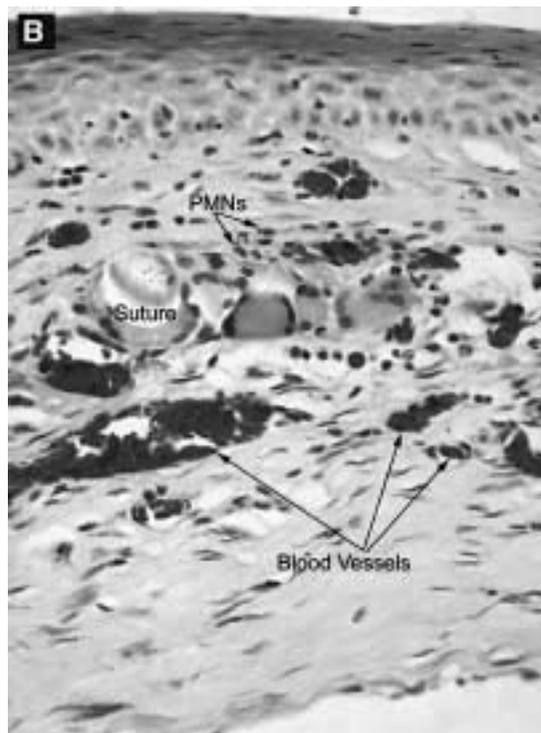
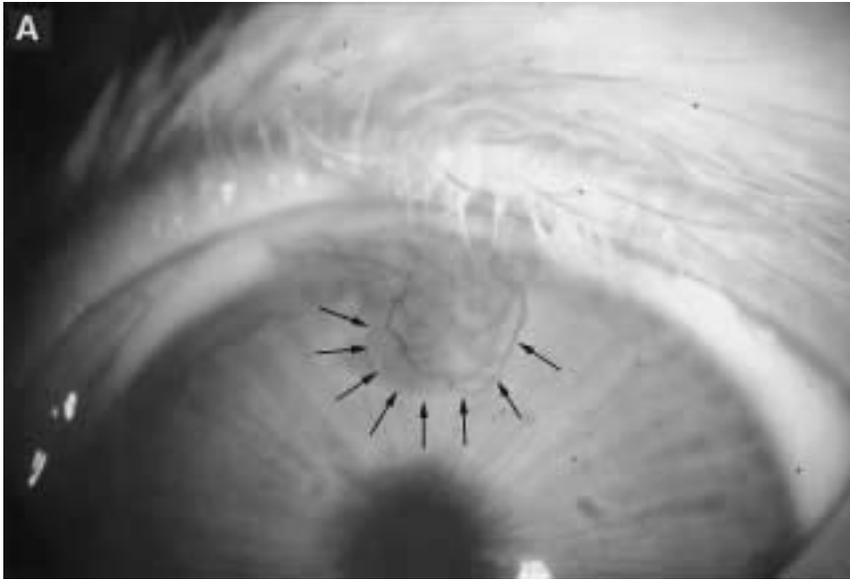


Fig. 4. Neovascularization of the rabbit cornea with silk sutures. (A) Slit lamp photograph of a vascularized cornea shortly after removal of the silk sutures. The dense neovascularization of the cornea in the area where the sutures were placed can be seen (arrows). (B) Photomicrograph showing the histopathology of corneal neovascularization induced by a silk suture. The presence of blood vessels and inflammatory cells in the stroma and disruption of the stromal matrix induced by the suture can be seen ($\times 100$ magnification).

grafts sites reveals that recipient vessels grow across the graft-host junction, beginning the process of neovascularization of the graft, during the first week after transplantation. Histological analysis of such grafts during the first week reveals a vigorous, acute inflammatory response at the graft-host junction very similar in cellular character to that seen in response to the silk suture (Fig. 4B). Sprouting vessels from the recipient cross into the corneal allograft and migrate centrally during the ensuing days. Even if suture removal is completed within 14 d after transplantation, eliminating the inflammatory and angiogenic stimulus, the grafts are usually subjected to a cellular immune response; the graft becomes edematous, opaque, and vascularized. The variability in the time course in which corneal allografts are rejected in rabbits is, in part, due to the varying degrees of histoincompatibility between donors and recipients in this random bred species.

Experimental studies in corneal allografting date from the 1940s and 1950s. Investigations carried out by Medawar (12), Maumenee (9), and Billingham and Boswell (13) were performed in random bred rabbits. These studies established the principle of immunologic privilege of avascular tissues such as the cornea and showed that under certain circumstances allografts placed into this immunologically privileged site could be subjected to immunologic rejection particularly when inflammation and vascularization of the graft occurred (14,15) or when the recipient had been presensitized to donor alloantigens (9,16). For many years, the rabbit was favored by vision researchers and in particular used in studies of corneal transplantation and the testing of immunosuppressive drugs to prevent graft rejection (17–22).

Beginning in the 1970s and continuing to the present, investigators have used inbred

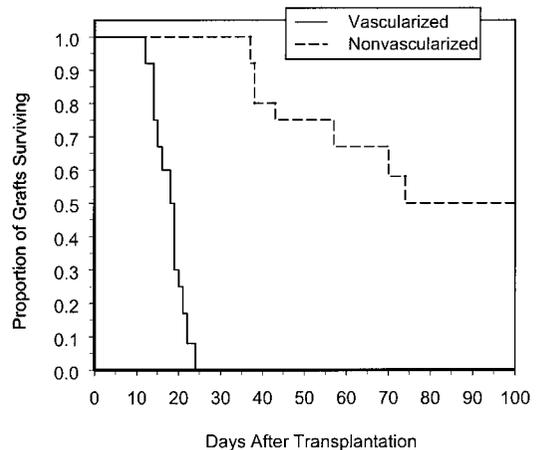


Fig. 5. Kaplan-Meier survival curves showing the difference in survival between corneal allografts placed into vascularized and nonvascularized graft sites in the rabbit eye. Typically 50% or more of corneal allografts placed into nonvascularized graft beds survive for a 100 d observation period, whereas 10% or fewer of corneal allografts placed into vascularized graft sites survive.

strains of rats as donors and recipients of corneal allografts (23–38). These investigations clarified the role of class I and class II MHC molecules in eliciting corneal allograft immune reactions (25,27,28,30,34) and led to studies of the cellular and molecular events in corneal allograft rejection (29,31,36–38). As in the rabbit, rats receiving corneal allografts may or may not reject these grafts depending upon the intensity of the postgrafting inflammation and vascularization (24,29). Approximately half of the allografts exchanged between MHC mismatched rats undergo immune rejection, whereas the remaining 50% survive even in the absence of immunosuppressive therapy (29,31,36). Analysis of the cellular infiltrate in rat corneal allografts reveals that T lymphocytes of the CD4+ and CD8+ subsets migrate into corneal allografts (39,40) by 3 d after transplantation. In grafts destined to undergo a destructive immune

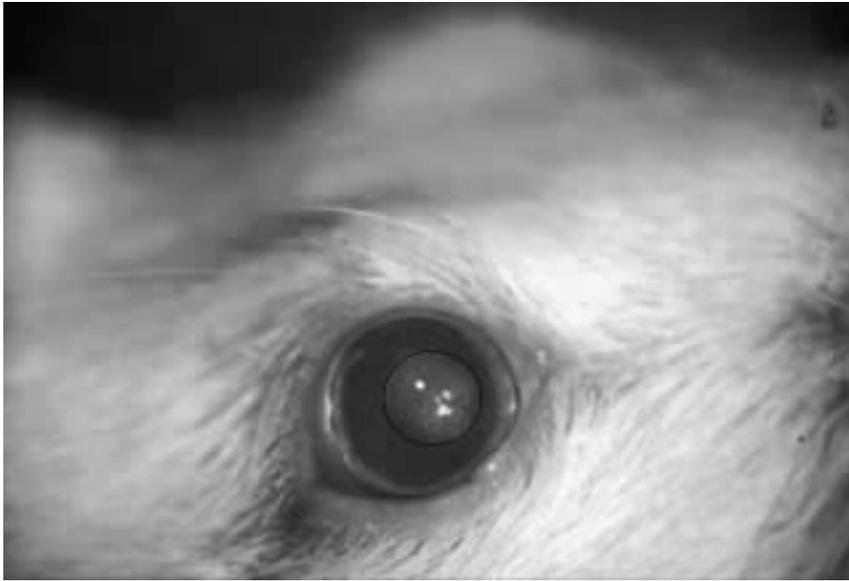


Fig. 6. Slit lamp photograph of a rejected corneal allograft in a BALB/c mouse. Fourteen days after transplantation the graft from a C57BL/6 donor is opaque and vascularized. The superimposed circle marks the circumference of the graft.

response, the accumulation of these cells continues with the migration of lymphocytes, macrophages, and Langerhans cells centripetally into the allograft. Recent studies have shown that a cytokine cascade accompanies this cellular infiltrate, and mediators such as interleukin-1 and interleukin-2, interferon gamma, tumor necrosis factor alpha, and a variety of chemokines are produced by cells infiltrating corneal allografts (37,38,41).

In the past ten years a number of investigators have used inbred strains of mice as donors and recipients of corneal allografts (5,42–48). The inbred mouse has many virtues as an experimental animal in which to study immunological phenomena. In contrast to the large percentage of corneal allografts that survive without immunosuppression in rabbits and rats, most, if not all, grafts in mice are rejected (5,43,48–57). Our experience is that even though the mouse cornea is avascular, exchange of corneas between strains of mice mismatched at the MHC genes such as

C57BL/6 and BALB/c invariably leads to graft rejection; unless immunosuppression is used, all corneal allografts are rejected (unpublished data). The mouse cornea is approx 3.5 mm in diameter and commonly 2 mm allografts are performed. It is necessary to hold grafts in place with at least 8, 10, or even 12 interrupted sutures. The trauma of performing corneal transplantation into the eye of a mouse and the presence of multiple sutures in such a small piece of tissue invariably leads to an intense, acute inflammatory response, which is followed by neovascularization and culminates in immune graft failure (55, Fig. 6). Of more than 200 allografts performed, we have not had a single mouse corneal allograft survive beyond 20 d without the use of immunosuppression (unpublished data). Thus, we conclude that the immunologic privilege which exists in the mouse cornea prior to transplantation is lost as a result of the surgical trauma, and corneal allografts in mice are at high risk of being rejected.

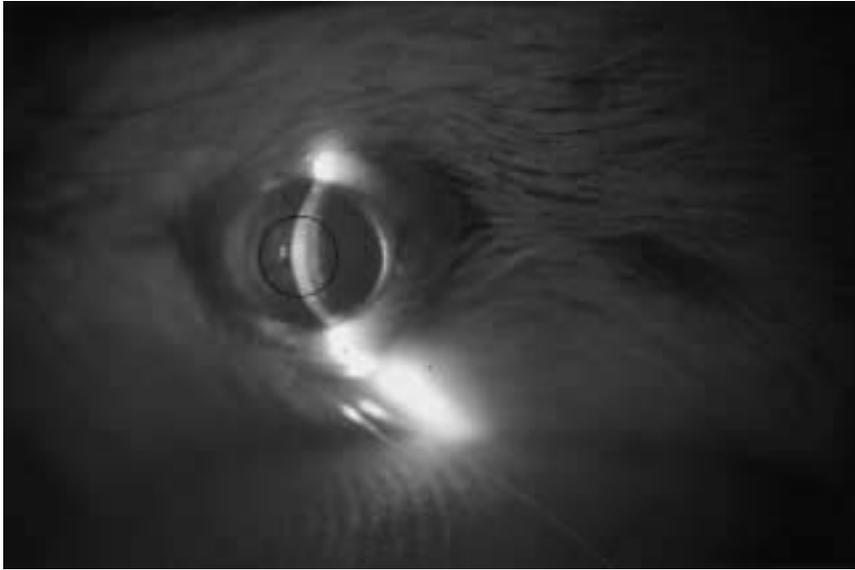


Fig. 7. Slit lamp photograph of a surviving corneal graft exchanged between two members of the same inbred strain. Shown here at 35 d, the syngraft is clear, making it difficult to discern the graft-host margins. In this photograph the light beam was narrowed in order to reveal the normal thickness of the graft. A black circle is superimposed just inside the graft-host junction. Such grafts survive for the life of the recipient.

Autografts and grafts exchanged between mice of the same inbred strain are subjected to a transient inflammatory response which rapidly wanes as the sutures are removed; these grafts are not rejected (Fig. 7).

Some investigators report that in order to ensure rejection of MHC mismatched grafts in mice, the graft bed must be altered by an irritating agent. Peeler, et al. (42) and Niederkorn, et al. (58,59) injected latex beads into the recipient graft site as a means of inducing immigration of Langerhans cells, whereas Sano, et al. (60–62) used alkali cautery or silk sutures as a means of inducing recipient graft bed inflammation and vascularization. These investigators believe that in order to ensure that the recipient will mount an immune attack on a corneal allograft and in order to eliminate immunologic privilege in the recipient cornea, it is necessary to first induce the migration of Langerhans cells into the recipient cornea, or

to induce inflammation and vascularization. This is contrary to the results of others (5,43,48–57) indicating that corneal allografts exchanged between MHC-mismatched donor and recipient mice are invariably subjected to intense inflammatory responses, immune responses, and ultimately rejection. We conclude that corneal allografting in mice is inherently a high risk situation despite the fact that prior to transplantation the mouse cornea is an avascular tissue. By virtue of the small size of the cornea and consequently the even smaller size of the mouse corneal allograft and the postsurgical inflammation and vascularization which occurs, corneal allografts in this species are invariably predisposed to a terminal immune rejection response.

This is not to say that the mouse is not a useful species in which to study corneal allograft immune rejection. Many aspects of graft rejection can be studied in the mouse and some

of these will be discussed below (pages 11–13 and 17–18).

Antigenicity of the Cornea and the Expression of Major Histocompatibility Complex Antigens by Cornea Cells

The cornea consists of three main types of cells (Fig. 3). The outer surface consists of a layer of epithelial cells 5–6 cells deep. The corneal stroma, made up of collagen, is populated by a scattering of cells called keratocytes which have many properties in common with fibroblasts. The inner layer of the cornea consists of a monolayer of endothelial cells. In the periphery of the cornea where it adjoins the conjunctiva, there is a small population of Langerhans cells in the epithelium (36,62).

The antigenicity of the intact cornea and of the individual cell layers of the cornea has been investigated (63–67). The conclusion from these studies is that in aggregate the cornea is a weakly antigenic tissue. Collectively and individually, the cells of the cornea express low levels of class I MHC molecules and few or no class II MHC molecules. In fact, most investigators have had to resort to sensitive methodologies in order to demonstrate the presence of MHC on corneal epithelial cells, keratocytes, and endothelial cells.

Guymer and Mandel (65) found that the cornea, in comparison to the pancreas and skin, was by far the least antigenic and expressed the lowest level of class II MHC antigens. These investigators also noted that cornea cells did not respond to cytokines such as gamma interferon and interleukin-2 which stimulate the expression of class II MHC molecules in some other cell types. Langerhans cells, which express class II MHC molecules, are found in the corneal epithelium at the limbus, and presumably have the same origin and function as the Langerhans cells in the skin. The number

of these cells in the central cornea is so low as to be negligible in terms of contributing to the antigenicity of this tissue (65).

Gebhardt and Seto investigated the immunogenicity of tissue-cultured corneal stromal keratocytes (66). They found that on a per cell basis corneal keratocytes were significantly less antigenic than blood mononuclear cells. Furthermore, it was noted that the immune response elicited by keratocytes was directed against class I MHC antigens; no detectable response to class II MHC antigens was recorded. At least 30×10^6 keratocytes were required to elicit a humoral or cellular immune response whereas individual corneas contained only 0.05×10^6 keratocytes. The conclusion was that although a corneal allograft may elicit a local immune response this response did not confer systemic humoral or cellular immunity on the graft recipient (66).

In subsequent studies, Gebhardt (67) investigated the alloantigenicity of corneal tissue and the effect of the route of immunization with allogeneic corneal tissue on the generation of an immune response. Variable amounts of allogeneic corneal tissue were placed orthotopically, subcutaneously, or intraperitoneally in allogeneic recipients and the cellular and humoral immune response was measured at weekly intervals. It was noted that a corneal allograft placed in the orthotopic site in a vascularized graft bed was rejected but failed to elicit a systemic immune response as measured by the absence of a serum antibody response or a cellular cytotoxic response in the spleen and lymph nodes. Similarly, one cornea placed subcutaneously or intraperitoneally failed to elicit a cellular or humoral alloantigenic response. A minimum of four corneal allografts placed intraperitoneally was necessary to elicit a systemic alloimmune response; fewer than four corneas failed to induce systemic immunity (67). Subsequent

studies confirmed that the alloimmune response engendered by four or more allogeneic corneas was directed against donor origin class I MHC antigens, not class II MHC antigens.

Thus, the weight of the evidence indicates that the cornea is a very weakly alloantigenic tissue and that when grafted orthotopically a corneal allograft elicits a local immune response that is not reflected in a systemic immune response measurable as serum alloantibody or cytotoxic effector cells in the lymphoid tissue.

It should be mentioned here that the results of recent studies using inbred mice and rats and some analyses in MHC-matched patients suggest the possibility that the principal antigenic targets on corneal allografts are minor histocompatibility antigens (32,43,44,50,61,68–73). Why corneal cells should present minor histocompatibility antigens in such a way as to elicit acute graft rejection when skin and other tissue grafts exchanged between donors and recipients that differ only in minor histocompatibility antigens elicit only weak, chronic rejection reactions remains unclear. The vast majority of corneal allografts performed in patients are MHC and minor histocompatibility antigen mismatches. The same is true for experimental corneal allografts in rabbits, rats, mice, and other species in which this procedure has been performed. The conundrum presented by the observations that suggest that minor histocompatibility antigens are dominant over MHC antigens in corneal allograft rejection is unsolved. It is well documented that skin grafts exchanged between mice differing only in minor histocompatibility genes result in graft survival times of months to years. Such grafts are subjected to a slow, chronic, and weak rejection response (74). The results of studies in which corneal grafts are exchanged between mice or rats dif-

fering only in minor histocompatibility genes yielded graft rejection times of two to three weeks (32,68,70). Explanation of why a vascularized skin graft should survive for extended periods of time while a nonvascularized corneal graft is abruptly rejected has not been forthcoming. Given that the cornea is a weakly antigenic tissue (see pages 10–11) in terms of MHC expression, it may be reasonably concluded that the antigenic load represented by the minor histocompatibility antigens in this site is vanishingly small and therefore not a significant immunogenic stimulus to the immune system. We believe that the recent reports regarding the role of minor histocompatibility antigens in corneal allograft rejection in patients suggest that the MHC matching was not complete. Regarding the observations in inbred rodents, we feel that further study will reveal that most, if not all, of the minor histocompatibility antigen-mediated corneal graft “rejection” is due to either technical failure of the grafts and/or the existence of mismatched MHC loci in the animals used in these studies. Additional investigation of the possibility that the rejection of corneal allografts is based on minor histocompatibility antigen differences between donor and recipient is required.

All organ allografts, by virtue of their vascularity, contain passenger leukocytes and these cells have been shown to contribute significantly to the antigenicity of allografts. The cornea, in its avascular condition, is essentially devoid of such passenger leukocytes and thus the alloantigenicity of this tissue is limited to the small amount of class I major histocompatibility complex molecules expressed on epithelial cells, keratocytes, and endothelial cells. The small population of Langerhans cells in the corneal epithelium (75–84) does not contribute to the antigenicity of a donor cornea under most circumstances because it

is only the central portion of the donor cornea that is transplanted to the recipient. Thus, very few, if any, donor origin Langerhans cells are transplanted when a corneal allograft is performed.

Centripetal migration of Langerhans cells can be induced by a variety of stimuli (42,58,60,85–87). Thus, corneal limbal Langerhans cells migrate into the central cornea in response to infections, physical damage to the epithelium, cautery, and acid and alkali burns. In such circumstances, a cornea not only becomes inflamed and vascularized, but also contains an increased number of Langerhans cells centrally. Clinically, corneas that are scarred, inflamed, and contain many Langerhans cells are not used as corneal allografts because they are opaque and cannot provide visual rehabilitation.

Corneal Immunologic Privilege

Medawar (12) concluded over 50 yr ago that foreign tissues placed in locations that are not vascularized survive without undergoing immunologic attack. The cornea is avascular and the preponderance of evidence dating back over the past half century confirms that this anatomic condition determines the immunologic privilege of this tissue.

There are at least two other properties of the cornea and the anterior chamber of the eye that have been proposed to explain the immunological privilege of this tissue. Griffith, et al. (88) and Yamagami (53) reported that Fas ligand (FasL) is expressed on cells lining the anterior chamber of the eye. It was concluded by both groups of investigators that interaction of FasL with Fas expressed on T lymphocytes in a corneal allograft induced apoptosis, eliminating the immune effector cells and thereby protecting the graft from rejection. In other studies it was found that

CD95 ligand (CD95L) is expressed on corneal endothelial cells and it was concluded that immune privilege was conferred by virtue of apoptosis of T effector cells interacting with this ligand on the endothelium (89,90). Unexplained by these studies is the fact that numerous T lymphocytes infiltrate corneal allografts and mediate rejection. The fact that these cells remain alive to mediate the immune graft reaction and the fact that viable T lymphocytes have been isolated and cloned from corneas during rejection (91) suggests that FasL-Fas interaction is not adequate to confer immunologic privilege on corneal allografts. It has also been reported that FasL expression by islet of Langerhans cells does not render them immunologically privileged (92). Thus, the functional significance of FasL-Fas in suppressing a corneal allograft immune response or the response to other types of allografts is not apparent.

Another phenomenon that has been claimed to have an important role in modulating immune reactions in the cornea is termed anterior chamber-associated immune deviation (ACAID). Kaplan and Streilein (93) and others reported (94–99) that antigens introduced into the anterior chamber of the eye resulted in a failure of the injected animal to develop systemic cell-mediated immunity although a humoral response was elicited. For over 25 yr, a variety of cells and mediators have been implicated in the induction of ACAID. At the cellular level it has been reported that T cells (100–103), macrophages (104,105), natural killer cells (106), B lymphocytes (107), Langerhans cells (108), CD8+ T cells (109–112), and CD4+ T cells (113–115) mediate ACAID. Soluble mediators implicated in mediating ACAID include transforming growth factor beta (116–123), interleukin-1 (124,125), interleukin-2 (126), interleukin-6 (123), interleukin-10 (127), interferon gamma

(128,129), tumor necrosis factor alpha (130), the neuropeptides substance P and vasoactive intestinal peptide (131), endogenous glucocorticoids (132), a natural killer inhibitor (133), and undefined blood and serum factors (134–137). Regarding the immune privilege afforded a corneal allograft, it has been noted that corneal cells may produce substances which mediate ACAID (53,88–90,138–140). Similarly, it is felt that the aqueous humor of the eye which bathes the inner surface of the cornea also may contain some factors which tend to suppress cellular immune reactions (88,90,116–123,141). ACAID is thought by some investigators to be the most important response mediating corneal allograft privilege (142–147). Paradoxically, however, it has also been stated that ACAID is no longer operative in corneas which are inflamed and vascularized (46,60,146,148). Since virtually all corneal allografts undergo an initial acute inflammatory response subsequent to transplantation and since corneal allograft neovascularization occurs to some extent in virtually all grafts, at least at the graft periphery, thus eliminating ACAID, it is not clear how ACAID could influence the immunologic privilege of the surgically manipulated cornea. It is said that for corneal allograft immune privilege to be in effect none of the components of the immune reflex arc must be altered (146). Thus, inflammatory cells and corneal Langerhans cells must not enter the graft, corneal alloantigens must not be shed from the graft and transported to the lymphoid tissues for presentation to T cells, vascularization of the graft must not occur, and T cells entering the graft must undergo apoptosis following encounter with FasL. However, one or more of these events occurs in all corneal allografts thereby compromising the immunologic privilege of this tissue. Immunologic privilege of the cornea only holds under circumstances in

which an antigen is placed into the cornea in such a way as to avoid inflammation, minimize antigen processing and presentation by Langerhans cells, or avoid vascularization such that antigen is not transported to the lymphoid tissue, processed, and presented to T cells. Investigators who feel that ACAID mediates corneal immune privilege recognize that immune privilege relies upon the failure of corneal allograft antigens to stimulate an immune response (142–147). The only way that this can be achieved is if the corneal alloantigens are sequestered within the graft such that the immune system is not signaled to respond; this situation applies only in the normal, noninflamed and nonvascularized cornea.

In patients it is clear that there are several risk factors that contribute to the likelihood that a corneal allograft will come under immune attack. Prior vascularization of the graft site is one of the most important risk factors. Other risk factors include prior rejection of a corneal allograft, large diameter grafts, and sensitization to donor alloantigens by blood transfusions (149).

Immune Mechanisms of Corneal Allograft Rejection

It is not known if corneal alloantigens are recognized *in situ* in the graft or in the lymphoid tissues distant from the graft. One possibility that can be considered is that MHC antigens from a corneal allograft exit the graft passively by one of several routes, enter the circulation, and reach lymphoid tissues for processing and presentation to T lymphocytes (150, Fig. 8). Thus, alloantigenic molecules might be shed from the surface of the cornea into the tear film following transplantation. In all likelihood, however, antigens in the tears would be drained away in the tear ducts and

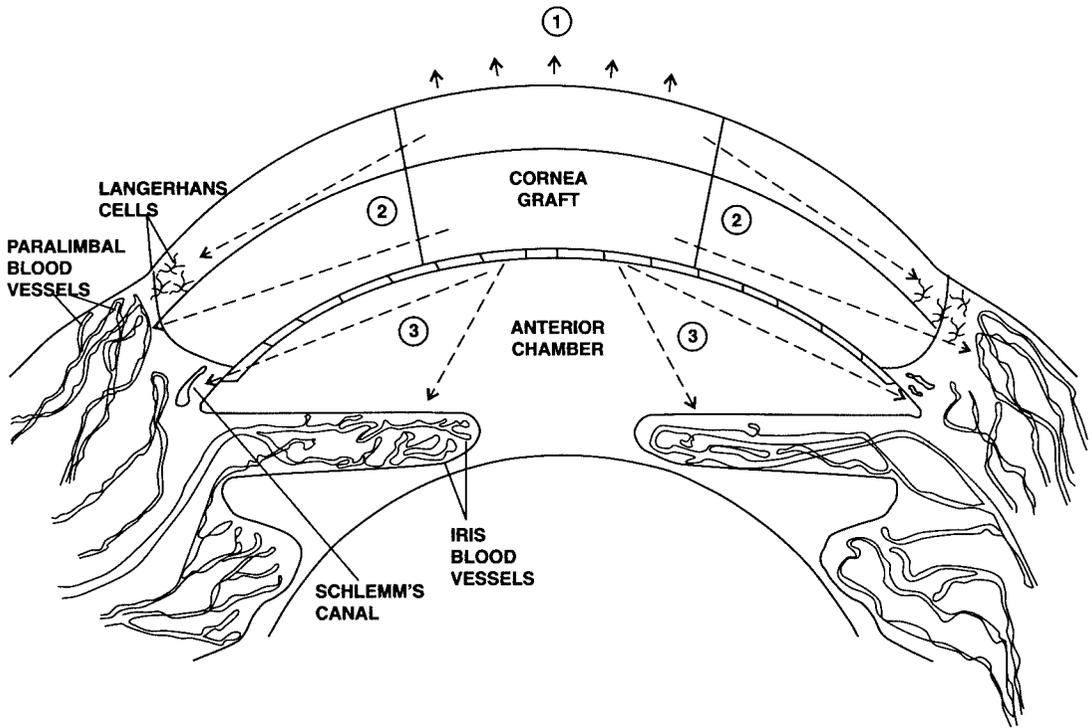


Fig. 8. The possible pathways of passive movement of corneal allograft antigens out of the graft and toward the recipient's immune system is shown schematically. (1) Alloantigens exiting the graft into the tears would drain into the tear ducts and be metabolized away without making contact with the immune system. (2) Alloantigens diffusing out of the graft laterally through the recipient cornea would reach the paralimbal blood vessels in very small amounts. If these antigens gained access to the blood they would be further diluted in the blood and the amount of alloantigen reaching the lymphoid tissues would be too low to stimulate a response. Similarly, alloantigens reaching the limbus might be taken up by Langerhans cells, but whether or not these cells migrate to the lymphoid tissues and present the antigens is not known. (3) Alloantigens diffusing into the anterior chamber might gain entry to the iris blood vessels or, more likely, might exit the eye in the drainage system consisting of the trabecular meshwork and Schlemm's canal. Antigens achieving this route of exit may reach the blood vessels and the lymphoid tissues, but in concentrations too low to stimulate active immunity in the recipient.

eliminated from the body. Lateral, passive movement of MHC antigens from the graft through the recipient cornea to the paralimbal blood vessels and transport to the spleen and lymphoid tissues is a second possibility. Since the amount of alloantigen in a corneal allograft is small and the amount that is spontaneously shed from the graft must be considerably smaller, the dilution of antigens reaching the circulation would be so great that

the concentration of alloantigens reaching distant lymphoid tissues would be insufficient to activate T cells. Similarly, MHC antigens diffusing into the anterior chamber of the eye might leave the eye and enter the circulation by way of iris blood vessels or drainage through the ocular outflow system known as the canal of Schlemm. Here too, the dilution factor would be very large and the amount of alloantigen leaving the eye would be infinitesimally

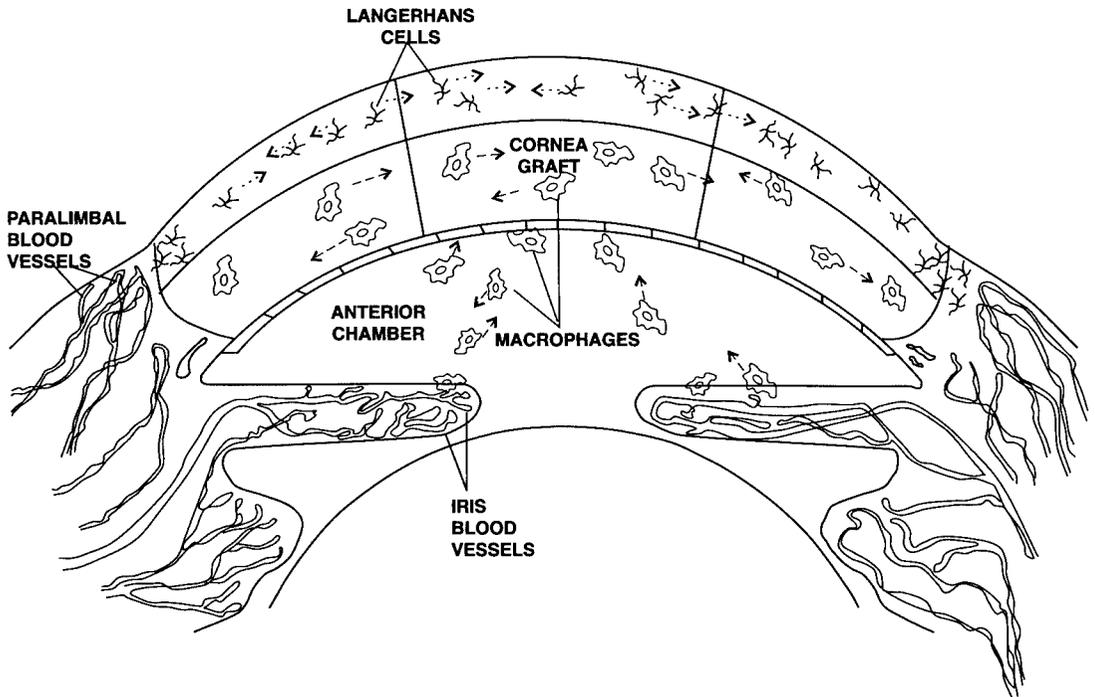


Fig. 9. The process of active transport of corneal allograft antigens from the graft to the recipient's immune system is shown schematically. Langerhans cells in the recipient's epithelium migrate into the graft epithelium and collect donor MHC antigens which are then transported to the recipient's immune lymphoid tissue such as the lymph nodes and spleen. Similarly, macrophages from the paralimbal blood vessels migrate into the graft, phagocytose graft alloantigens, and return to the blood and lymphoid tissues for presentation of antigen to T lymphocytes. A third possibility is shown whereby macrophages might enter the eye from iris blood vessels into the anterior chamber, phagocytose and process graft alloantigens in the anterior chamber or on the corneal graft endothelium, and return with the processed antigens to the iris vessels and the recipient's immune system.

small. Thus, we regard the possibility of passive diffusion of MHC antigens from corneal grafts to distant lymphoid tissues as an unlikely scenario by which corneal allograft immunity is initiated.

Another possibility that should be considered regarding the initiation of antigraft immunity outside a corneal allograft is shown in Fig. 9. In this case, Langerhans cells residing in the limbal region of the graft recipient and macrophages from the blood migrate into the corneal allograft and phagocytose graft alloantigens. These Langerhans cells and macrophages then migrate out of the allograft

to distant lymphoid tissues such as the spleen and lymph nodes where the graft alloantigens are processed and presented to T lymphocytes. If antigen presentation occurs in the lymphoid tissues, the activated T lymphocytes would migrate to the graft as a result of chemotactic signals provided by accessory immune cells including polymorphonuclear leukocytes, Langerhans cells, and macrophages in the graft. This scenario involving active transport of graft alloantigens to the lymphoid tissues for presentation to T lymphocytes is one route whereby the allograft immune process can be initiated. The possibility of antigen presenta-

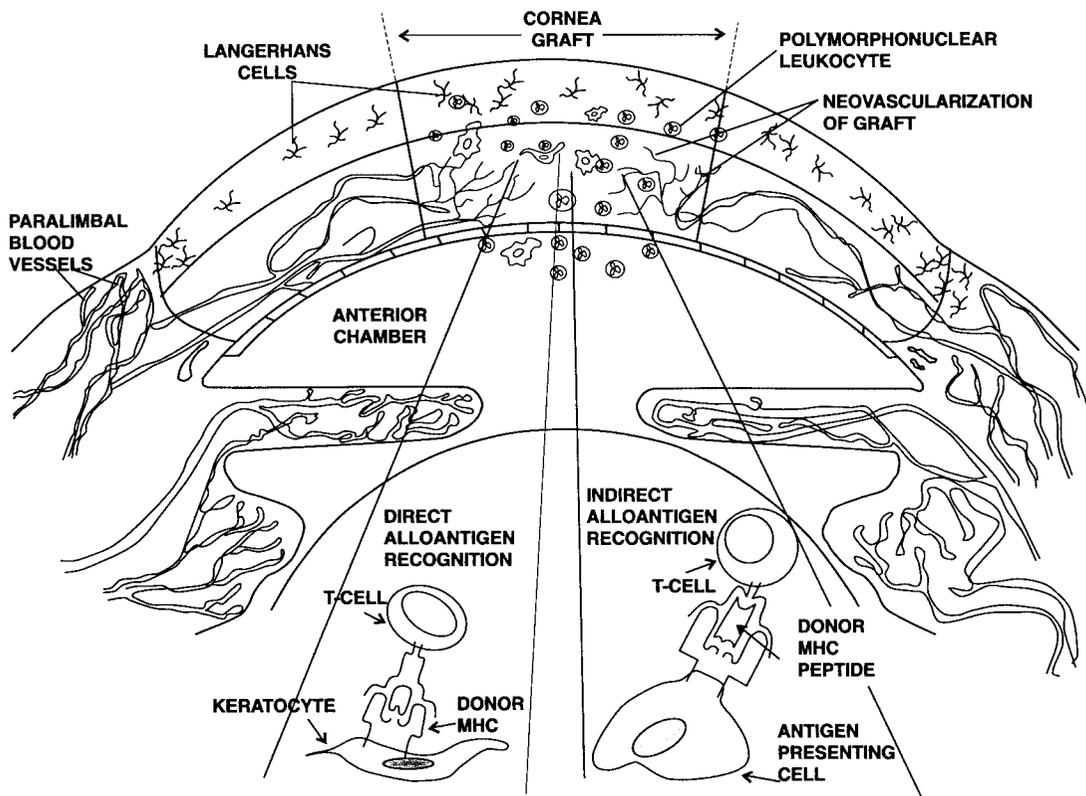


Fig. 10. The complexity of corneal alloantigen recognition and graft rejection is shown schematically. As depicted, direct alloantigen recognition could occur if corneal allograft cells express foreign MHC molecules which are recognized by T lymphocytes migrating into the graft. These T cells would then become activated and direct further immune attack on the graft. Alternatively, in the indirect recognition of alloantigen, antigen-presenting cells migrating into the allograft might process donor MHC antigens and present these antigens to lymphocytes entering the graft. In this instance, the recipient T cells would recognize self MHC and a donor MHC peptide. Direct or indirect alloantigen recognition may also occur outside of the graft in the lymphoid tissues. During rejection additional cells present in the graft include Langerhans cells, polymorphonuclear leukocytes, and macrophages. The neovascularization of the corneal allograft facilitates the entry of these cells into the graft.

tion *in situ* in the graft has not been ruled out however.

The rejection of a corneal allograft in rabbits and in other species in which this procedure has been performed has the features of acute, cell-mediated graft rejection. Corneal allograft rejection is a cell-mediated immune response involving T lymphocytes, macrophages, other inflammatory cells, and cyto-

kines. There are no compelling data that demonstrate that antibodies alone can mediate corneal allograft rejection. Following corneal allografting into a vascularized graft site, histopathological analysis reveals acute inflammatory cells at the graft/host margins followed by the entry of both CD4+ and CD8+ T lymphocytes into the allograft stroma (2,6,8). Numerous Langerhans cells, macro-

phages, neutrophils, and a few cells expressing B lymphocyte markers are also found in corneal allografts undergoing an acute rejection response. Thus, the cellular immune apparatus involved in primary corneal allograft rejection is identical to that which occurs in vascularized organ allografts undergoing a primary acute rejection episode.

In order to initiate the process of corneal allograft rejection, T lymphocytes must recognize graft alloantigens by either the direct or indirect alloantigen recognition pathways, or both (63, 151, 152) and respond to these antigens just as they do in the recognition of antigens in organ allografts (Fig. 10). As indicated, the direct or indirect recognition may occur outside the graft in the lymphoid tissues or within the graft. CD4+ T lymphocytes undergo lymphoblast transformation, proliferate, and produce a variety of cytokines, some of which mediate the maturation and proliferation of CD8 T cells and others that act as chemoattractants for neutrophils, macrophages, and Langerhans cells, which are necessary to complete the immune graft reaction process (2, 6, 8). The CD8+ T lymphocytes recognize corneal alloantigens and in the presence of cytokines such as interleukin-2 and others made by the CD4+ T cells, these cells mature into cytotoxic effector cells. The CD8+ killer lymphocytes then are presumed to attack and kill corneal allograft cells as part of the rejection process. The role of inflammatory cells such as neutrophils, macrophages, and Langerhans cells which migrate into corneal allografts is to serve as accessory cells, producing the additional cytokines and chemokines needed to amplify the immune graft reaction. In addition, the neutrophils and macrophages phagocytose dead graft cells and other debris resulting from the immune rejection process. A role for natural killer cells and B lymphocytes, which are present in small numbers in

corneal allografts during rejection, has not been delineated.

The mechanism(s) of immunologically mediated cell killing in corneal allograft rejection are not known. For example, the process of corneal cell alloantigen recognition may occur by either the direct or indirect pathways (62). However, it is not known whether alloantigen recognition occurs in a corneal allograft or if corneal allograft antigens must be transported by antigen-presenting cells to regional lymph nodes and spleen (Fig. 9). It is possible that both local processing and presentation of corneal alloantigens and also distant processing and presentation in the lymphoid tissues occur. A second major gap in our knowledge regarding corneal allograft rejection is the actual mechanism of graft cell killing. It is abundantly clear that corneal allografts undergoing immune attack are populated by CD4+ and CD8+ T lymphocytes, as well as accessory cells such as macrophages, Langerhans cells, and neutrophils (91). Both CD4+ and CD8+ T lymphocytes expressing activation markers are found in grafts during rejection indicating that both T helper and T cytotoxic cells are involved in the process. However, the precise immune mechanisms whereby these cells destroy corneal allograft cells is not known.

Attempts to implicate individual immune cell subsets in corneal allograft rejection have led some investigators to conclude that macrophages play a major role in graft cell destruction (153–156). There is also evidence that CD4 lymphocytes are key mediators of corneal allograft rejection (48, 157–163). In other studies a role for CD8+ T lymphocytes was suggested (7, 31, 91). Given this seemingly conflicting evidence and the cellular complexity of corneal allograft immune reactions, we conclude that the process is a multicellular one that involves cytokine-producing

T lymphocytes of the CD4 subset, cytotoxic CD8 lymphocytes, Langerhans cells, activated macrophages, and neutrophils all of which contribute to the immune and inflammatory aspects of the graft rejection process. Thus, the evidence points to cornea allograft rejection as a cellular immunopathologic process much the same as occurs in organ allograft rejection mediated by antigen-specific lymphocytes and cytokine-activated accessory cells.

Inhibition of Corneal Allograft Rejection: Drugs, Immunomodulators, and Manipulation of the Immune Response

Topically applied corticosteroids are used clinically to inhibit inflammation of corneal allografts in the days immediately following transplantation and to prevent acute graft rejection during the weeks and months following transplantation (149); this approach has been the standard of therapy for use in corneal transplantation for over 40 yr. Within the past 10 yr, cyclosporine has been formulated for topical use as an alternative or adjunct to corticosteroids for preventing corneal allograft rejection in patients (164,165). Notwithstanding refinements in the use of topical immunosuppressive drugs, corneal transplants performed in high risk situations in patients are likely to be subjected to immune attack, if not immune destruction (158,166,167). Some clinicians resort to the use of both topical and systemic immunosuppressive drugs in high risk patients but even with this aggressive therapy many grafts are rejected (168–171). There is a clear need for alternative approaches and therapies to prevent corneal allograft rejection in high risk situations.

In experimental animals, many alternative therapies and attempts to manipulate the immune response have been tested. Examples in which immunomodulators have been used

to alter the response to a corneal allograft are discussed below.

There is a wealth of information dating back to the 1960s on the phenomenon of immunological enhancement and the possibility of protecting cell and tissue allografts by “enhancing” an allograft (172,173). Years of experimentation led to the conclusion that immunological enhancement is mediated by antibodies directed against graft antigens although the mechanism of enhancement still eludes us (174). Twenty-five years ago Chandler, et al. and Binder, et al. (177) investigated the use of antibody-mediated enhancement as a means of protecting corneal allografts from acute rejection. Serum from guinea pigs immunized with rabbit blood leukocytes was purified and the immune globulin was shown to contain antibodies which would bind to both rabbit leukocytes and cornea cells. Next, rabbit corneas were incubated in the guinea pig immune or nonimmune globulins and then the corneas were transplanted into allogeneic rabbit hosts. The immune globulin preparation was found to significantly prolong the survival of corneal allografts placed in allogeneic recipients whereas nonimmune globulin had no effect (175–177). Recently we produced a goat anti-rabbit immune globulin preparation which was enzymatically digested to remove the Fc portion of the globulin so as to prevent it from fixing complement. It was demonstrated that the F(ab')₂ portions of the immune globulin would bind to rabbit corneal cells in an immunologically specific way (178). Non-immune goat globulin or nonimmune F(ab')₂ fragments did not bind to rabbit corneal cells. Using radiolabeled immune and nonimmune F(ab')₂ fractions, it was shown that the binding of the immune globulin F(ab')₂ fragments occurred at both 4°C and 32°C. However, the half-life of association of the F(ab')₂ fragments with a rabbit cornea was approx 10 times longer at 4°C than at 32°C. In vivo, the immune

globulin F(ab')₂ fraction prolonged the survival of corneal allografts significantly beyond the time at which the radiolabeled F(ab')₂ molecules were found to be associated with the corneal allograft. This work was performed in a high risk situation in which the recipient graft bed had been vascularized prior to transplantation, and thus prolongation of corneal allograft survival by the enhancing F(ab')₂ molecules was concluded to be a powerful modulator of the anti-graft response (178).

We have also studied a costimulatory molecule blocking agent as a means of prolonging corneal allograft survival in rabbits (179) and mice (unpublished data). CTLA4 is a homolog of the CD28 molecule, both of which are expressed by T lymphocytes. These two homologs interact with the B71 and B72 coreceptors expressed on antigen-presenting cells. The binding affinity of CTLA4 for the B7 molecules is higher than that of CD28 (180, 181). Isolation and cloning of the cDNA for CTLA4 enabled investigators to create a soluble CTLA4 molecule which blocked T lymphocyte costimulation by antigen-presenting cells (180, 181). Linsley, et al. genetically engineered the CTLA4 gene so that a soluble fusion protein consisting of the CTLA4 moiety and an immunoglobulin Fc fragment was produced (182). CTLA4-Fc, or CTLA4-Ig as it is often called, has been shown to prevent experimental organ allograft rejection in a variety of animals and organ and tissue transplantation experiments (183–192). We have recently shown that incubation of rabbit corneal allografts in CTLA4-Ig followed by transplantation into vascularized recipient graft beds results in significantly prolonged survival of the grafts compared to control allografts (179). We have also tested CTLA4-Ig in the mouse. C57BL/6 corneas were incubated in CTLA4-Ig for 18 h, transplanted into MHC mismatched BALB/c recipients, and the grafts observed daily for six weeks. As indicated above, all

corneal allografts exchanged between C57BL/6 and BALB/c mice fail. When the C57BL/6 grafts were incubated in CTLA4-Ig the grafts survived indefinitely (unpublished data). Thus approaches involving enhancing antibodies and CTLA4-Ig may afford great promise for the future of corneal transplantation in patients.

Other approaches have been tested in experimental animals to attempt to prevent corneal allograft rejection. For example, an interleukin-2-PE-40 fusion protein consisting of T cell growth factor and the *Pseudomonas* exotoxin was given intraperitoneally to rats receiving corneal allografts (193). Prolongation of corneal allograft survival was achieved. Whether or not this approach will have clinical application remains to be determined.

Recently it has been shown that the elimination of macrophages in the conjunctiva of the eye results in prolonged corneal allograft survival in rats (153–156). Dichloromethylene diphosphate-containing liposomes were injected into the subconjunctiva of the eye. Phagocytosis of the liposomes by macrophages kills the cells and prolongation of corneal allograft survival was reported (153, 155).

It has also been reported that oral feeding of alloantigens alters alloantigen presentation such that the animals become at least transiently immunologically tolerant to the alloantigen and accept the corneal allografts for extended periods of time (194–197). The approach of oral presentation of alloantigens and autoantigens may have a promising future if the dose, route, and timing of administration can be clarified. There are also studies indicating that treatment of corneal allografts with hyperbaric oxygen or ultraviolet light in vitro prior to transplantation promotes the survival of allografts (198–204), possibly as a result of the elimination of Langerhans cells in the graft. Paradoxically, the number of these cells in a central corneal graft is vanishingly

small and therefore it is not clear why these treatments have a significant effect.

Summary and Conclusion

More than 40,000 corneal transplants are performed annually in the United States. Although many of these corneal transplants restore vision to a previously blind eye, the number that fail due to immunologic rejection warrants continued study of corneal transplantation in experimental animals. Since we now appreciate that the immunologic privilege of the cornea is tenuous and limited to the avascular and uninflamed cornea, it will be possible to focus on the development of

effective, safe, and practical therapies which incorporate topical medications that block neovascularization (205) and T-lymphocyte activation (180) to prevent corneal allograft rejection. By studying experimental corneal transplantation in animals we will be able to refine and perfect methods for preventing rejection.

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