

***In vitro* models for gluten toxicity: relevance for celiac disease pathogenesis and development of novel treatment options**

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Abstract

In genetically predisposed individuals, dietary gluten in wheat, rye and barley triggers celiac disease, a systemic autoimmune disorder hallmarked by an extensive small-bowel mucosal immune response. The current conception of celiac disease pathogenesis is that it involves components of both innate and adaptive immunity whose activation typically leads to small-bowel villous atrophy with crypt hyperplasia. Currently, the only effective treatment for celiac disease is a strict lifelong gluten-free diet excluding all wheat-, rye- and barley-containing food products. During the diet, the clinical symptoms improve and the small-bowel mucosal damage recovers, while re-introduction of gluten into the diet leads to re-appearance of the symptoms and deterioration of the small-bowel mucosal architecture. In view of the restricted nature of the diet, alternative treatment is warranted. Improved understanding of the molecular basis of celiac disease has enabled researchers to suggest other therapeutic approaches. Although there is no animal model reproducing all features of celiac disease, the use of *in vitro* approaches including a variety of cell lines and the celiac patient small-bowel mucosal biopsy organ culture has generated knowledge about pathogenesis of celiac disease. In these culture systems, gluten induces different effects that can be quantified, thus also enabling studies concerning the efficacy of candidate therapeutic compounds for celiac disease. This review describes the intestinal epithelial cell models, celiac patient T-cell lines and clones, as well as the small-bowel mucosal organ culture methods widely used in studies of celiac disease, and summarizes the major findings obtained with these systems.

Keywords: celiac disease, gluten, epithelium, T-cells, organ culture

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Introduction

Dietary gluten in wheat, rye and barley is the etiological agent in celiac disease. In a subgroup of individuals carrying the human leukocyte antigen (HLA) DQ2 or DQ8 molecules, ingestion of gluten leads to a small-bowel mucosal immune response and development of celiac disease. The disorder often presents with small-bowel villous atrophy, crypt hyperplasia and immune activation, including the production of disease-specific antibodies against gluten-derived gliadin peptides and an endogenous protein transglutaminase 2 (TG2).¹ The current conception of celiac disease pathogenesis is that it involves components of both innate and adaptive immunity. Gluten contains a high amount of repetitive glutamine- and proline-rich sequences, making it highly resistant to proteolytic degradation by gastrointestinal enzymes.^{2,3} This results in the persistence of relatively large gluten-derived gliadin peptides

which predispose to activation of the small-bowel mucosal immune system. Some of the gliadin peptides (the so-called toxic peptides, for example p31–43) are able to induce harmful effects on the small-intestinal epithelium through interleukin (IL)-15, whose overexpression eventually leads to epithelial cell destruction.^{4,5} Other gliadin peptides, the immunodominant ones (for example p57–68 and the 33-mer) in turn activate T-cell-mediated adaptive immunity in the mucosa. A key step in this process is the post-translational modification of immunogenic gliadin peptides by TG2. TG2 has the capacity to deamidate distinct glutamine residues in gliadin peptides to glutamic acid, which favors their interaction with the celiac-type HLA DQ2, thereby promoting the activation of T-cells.^{3,6,7}

Similar to other autoimmune disorders, celiac disease is self-perpetuating if the specific exogenous trigger, gluten, is not removed. Its removal by a strict gluten-free diet

leads to recovery of the small-bowel mucosal lesion and disappearance of the clinical symptoms. Re-introduction of gluten into the diet, on the other hand, results in the re-appearance of clinical symptoms and deterioration of the small-bowel mucosal architecture. Today, the only effective treatment for celiac disease is a lifelong gluten-free diet excluding all wheat-, rye- and barley-containing food products. As the diet is restricted and often burdensome, novel treatment options would be highly welcomed by celiac patients. During recent years, several lines of research have in fact aimed to develop alternative therapies. Approaches include blocking of innate and adaptive immune components as well as the function of TG2.⁸ Another prominent strategy is to hydrolyze gluten by exogenous enzyme supplements designed for this purpose. This promising strategy is based on the finding that distinct peptidases or their combinations from different sources are able to hydrolyze gliadin and gliadin peptides *in vitro*.^{3,9} Indeed, data are available to indicate that distinct peptidase is capable of accelerating the degradation of gluten in the gastrointestinal system, closely mimicking *in vivo* digestion and suggesting that gluten toxicity might be eliminated by such an approach.¹⁰

Regardless of the progress made in understanding the pathogenesis of celiac disease, the most conspicuous limitation in the field is the lack of a functional disease-specific animal model. Such a model would also be highly appreciated among researchers developing novel treatment strategies for the disease, as the initial testing of novel drug candidates could then be conducted in animals. A number of attempts have been made to create an animal model for celiac disease by various approaches. These include the generation of transgenic mice expressing the celiac-type human HLA DQ2 or DQ8¹¹⁻¹⁴ and introduction of celiac-type antibodies in mice,¹⁵⁻¹⁷ but none of the animals used have developed a full-blown villous atrophy together with crypt hyperplasia that are characteristic for untreated celiac disease. Gluten-dependent small-intestinal mucosal damage can be induced in mice¹⁸ and has been described in rhesus macaques,¹⁹ but these two models are not dependent on celiac-type HLA and their applicability as models for celiac disease has thus to be considered with caution. Very recently, DePaolo *et al.*²⁰ reported that gliadin-fed humanized HLA-DQ8 mice that overexpress IL-15 in the lamina propria (DQ8-D^d-IL-15 transgenic mice) present with a condition resembling early developing celiac disease, where intestinal inflammation is present but the mucosal architecture remains normal. This promising model may prove useful in the future, although its applicability needs to be verified in further studies.

Regardless of numerous attempts, the animal model for celiac disease that reproduces all the aspects of the disorder still awaits development. However, the use of *in vitro* approaches including a variety of cell lines and the celiac patient small-bowel mucosal biopsy organ culture has generated knowledge about pathogenesis of celiac disease and enabled the initial testing of novel treatment options for celiac disease. This review describes the cell-based and organ culture methods widely used in celiac disease and summarizes the major findings obtained with these systems.

Epithelial cell culture models

After ingestion and progress to the small intestine, the gluten-derived gliadin peptides come into contact with the small-bowel mucosal epithelium. In untreated celiac disease, small-bowel mucosal epithelial cells proliferate more rapidly without differentiating to enterocytes, and their turnover by apoptosis is augmented. Moreover, the epithelial junctional integrity is compromised^{21,22} and the gliadin peptides therefore gain access to the lamina propria. However, it is not well understood how gluten-derived gliadin peptides modulate the biology of the epithelium and how they cross the epithelial barrier prior to substantial mucosal remodeling during the early stages of the disorder. For all of the above-mentioned reasons, study of the intestinal epithelium in the context of celiac disease is thus manifestly relevant. There are several intestinal epithelial cell lines available, but two of those mostly used in celiac disease research are described here.

T84 cells

T84 cells are derived from a lung metastasis of a colon cancer, and the cell line was first established as a model for studying intestinal epithelial chloride transport. When grown on permeable supports, the cells form confluent polarized layers with high transepithelial resistance, and they evince a chloride secretory response to different chemicals.²³ In addition, the polarized T84 cell layers are characterized with well-delineated intracellular junctions including circumferential tight junctions.²⁴ For the above-mentioned reason, the cell line, although of colonic origin, is widely used in studying intestinal epithelial permeability to macromolecules and ions even though the cells do not present with features of intestinal enterocyte-type differentiation in such cultures. However, when T84 cells are cultured three-dimensionally in collagen in the presence of either fibroblasts or transforming growth factor β , they differentiate to intestinal enterocytes as assessed by morphological and biochemical criteria.²⁵

T84 cells have been applied in research into celiac disease pathogenesis, for instance in studying the innate immune reactions elicited by the toxic gliadin peptides. It has been shown that the toxic gliadin peptide p31-43 creates cellular stress by inducing the production of reactive oxygen species²⁶ and Fas-dependent apoptosis.²⁷ Furthermore, it has been shown that untreated celiac disease patients' serum antibodies induce proliferation and reduce differentiation of the three-dimensionally cultured T84 cells²⁸ and increase the permeability of the T84 cell epithelial monolayer.²⁹ Moreover, Bethune *et al.*³⁰ have demonstrated that interferon (IFN)- γ derived from gluten-stimulated celiac patient-specific intestinal T-cells enhances the passage of gluten through the T84 epithelial layer.

Caco-2 cells

The Caco-2 cell line was originally obtained from a relatively well-differentiated human colon adenocarcinoma. When reaching confluence, the Caco-2 cells differentiate

spontaneously.³¹ In such cultures, the cells are polarized and possess an ultrastructural morphology of differentiated enterocytes with an apical surface covered by microvilli.³² In the monolayer, the cells are joined together through apical junctional complexes which include tight junctions and desmosomes.³³ Postconfluent cultures are hallmarked by the emergence of domes in which cells express sucrase isomaltase, alkaline phosphatase and aminopeptidase N, enzymes typical for differentiated enterocytes.³³ Owing to the above-mentioned characteristics, the Caco-2 cell line is widely used as a model for the intestinal epithelial barrier. Caco-2 cells probably comprise the most extensively used epithelial cell line in studies related to celiac disease.

Gliadin or distinct gliadin peptides are reported to induce actin rearrangement,³⁴ proliferation,^{34,35} intracellular oxidative imbalance³⁶ and apoptosis in Caco-2 cells.^{37,38} Gliadin also inhibits the spontaneous differentiation of these cells.³⁹ Such findings suggest that the celiac disease-inducing agent gliadin itself could at least partly account for the behavioral abnormalities of the small bowel epithelial cells in celiac disease.

In view of the importance of the compromised small-bowel epithelial barrier function in celiac disease pathogenesis, researchers have used the Caco-2 cells in studies seeking to establish which factors could account for this. At least gliadin and two proinflammatory cytokines abundantly expressed in celiac disease, IFN- γ and tumor necrosis factor α , have been reported to affect the expression of several epithelial junctional proteins (for example occludin and ZO-1) and permeability in Caco-2 cells.^{40–48}

Caco-2 cells have also been used in studies clarifying how individual gliadin peptides are processed in intestinal epithelial cells. Using Caco-2 cells it has been found that both the toxic p31–43 and the immunodominant p57–68 gliadin peptides are taken up by the cells and interact with the endocytosis compartment.⁴⁹ However, the toxic and the immunodominant gliadin peptides seem to be differentially processed in Caco-2 cells,⁴⁹ but at least the immunodominant 33-mer gliadin peptide eventually crosses the epithelial barrier to the luminal side.⁵⁰ These findings in Caco-2 cells, together with others made in celiac patient biopsies or mucosal organ cultures, have considerably increased our understanding of gliadin processing in intestinal epithelial cells, this presumably being crucial for our understanding of celiac disease pathogenesis.

The epithelial modulating properties of yet another factor possibly participating in celiac disease pathogenesis, namely celiac disease antibodies, have also been studied in Caco-2 cells. It has been shown that celiac patient antibodies induce actin remodeling,⁵¹ interfere with the uptake of p31–43⁵² and modify its intracellular transport,⁵³ and further induce proliferation in Caco-2 cells.^{51,54} Moreover, celiac patient IgA has been reported to increase the epithelial permeability of both toxic (p31–43) and immunodominant (p57–68) gliadin peptides.⁵⁵

The Caco-2 cell line has also been used fairly extensively in initial testing of novel treatment options for celiac disease. The cell line has been used in studying the potency of at least a tight junction modulator, zonulin antagonist, Bifidobacteria, germinating cereal enzymes

and polymeric binders of gliadin as putative future treatment options.^{41–43,45,56–59} All the studies in question demonstrated protective effects of the tested compounds against gluten-induced effects in Caco-2 cells, but their efficacy obviously need to be tested in other systems as well as in patients. Taken together, the use of Caco-2 cells in celiac disease research has shed significant light on the disease pathogenesis and the proof-of-principle efficacy of novel treatment options.

Celiac patient-derived T-cell lines and clones

The extensive evidence that CD4+ T-cells, associated with recognition of HLA DQ2 and DQ8 molecules, are markedly involved in the pathogenesis of celiac disease has inspired researchers to develop *in vitro* T-cell models. The celiac disease-specific T-cells, raised against gluten, have been obtained both from the small-intestinal mucosa^{60–62} and the peripheral blood^{63–65} of patients suffering from celiac disease. The HLA-DQ2 or DQ8 restricted T-cells isolated from small-bowel mucosal biopsies are typically cultured *in vitro* in the presence of stimulating gluten peptides (T-cell lines), whereafter single, gluten-reactive monoclonal cells (T-cell clones) can be further isolated and maintained in the culture conditions. In contrast, peripheral blood mononuclear cells are isolated from treated celiac disease patient's serum after a short-term *in vivo* gluten challenge.⁶⁶ In both cases, activation of T-cells is typically presented as an increase in cell proliferation and IFN- γ -predominant cytokine production.^{62,64,67}

Most of the gut-derived T-cells do not recognize native gluten peptides unless they are deamidated by tissue transglutaminase,⁶⁷ a phenomenon which is thought to occur also in *in vivo* conditions. The majority of studies conducted with celiac patient T-cells have concentrated on identification of gliadin epitopes such as diverse epitopes found in immunodominant α -gliadin 33-mer;^{3,68} however, intestinal T-cell lines and clones have also been shown to recognize deamidated rye secalin and barley hordein peptides.^{69,70} T-cell lines and clones have been especially useful in the systematic characterization of T-cell reactive gluten epitopes in wheat, rye and barley.^{71–73} However, patients seem to respond to distinct gluten peptides,^{74,75} resulting in limitations when investigating the overall toxicity of gluten peptides. Application of several simultaneous T-cell lines from different patients is thus probably needed to overcome these challenges.

Similarly to intestinal epithelial cells, celiac patient T-cell lines and clones have been used in testing newly developed treatment forms. For instance, testing of different types of modified gliadin or gluten peptides^{76–79} and enzyme therapy^{3,42,80–83} as a potential novel treatment form has been carried out in celiac patient T-cell lines or clones.

Small-bowel mucosal biopsy organ culture

The culturing of small-intestinal mucosal biopsies derived *ex vivo* from celiac disease patients was originally introduced by Browning and Trier.⁸⁴ The biopsies can be kept

viable in the organ culture system for 24–48 h⁸⁵ or even longer, although there is no guarantee of the quality of mucosal morphology after a long-term culture.⁸⁶ In preliminary studies, the organ culture method was used in an opposite manner to the current practice. Culture conditions were thought to mimic a gluten-free diet, so that the small-bowel mucosal morphology improved after gluten was excluded.^{85–88} In contrast, the present organ culture system is generated to illustrate the harmful effects of gluten, gliadin or distinct gliadin peptides added to the culture supernatant (Figure 1). Since the *ex vivo* biopsy culture contains a wide variety of cell types expressed in the intestinal mucosa *in vivo*, the method allows researchers to investigate an extensive range of markers for gluten toxicity, all the way from the epithelium to activation of immune components in the mucosal *lamina propria*. One of the versatile benefits of the method lies in the fact that various features characteristic for the disorder can be reproduced in biopsies from treated celiac disease patients, thus allowing researchers to find mechanisms related to the development of celiac disease from a healthy mucosa into the active phase of the disease. In addition, some researchers have suggested the organ culture method even as a potential tool for celiac disease diagnosis.^{89,90}

As the small-bowel mucosal biopsy organ culture system has been used extensively in studies aiming to clarify the pathogenesis of celiac disease, it would be impossible to summarize the entire literature in this review. However, since biopsies contain a number of different cell types, the issues open to investigation in the system are numerous. For instance, celiac disease researchers have studied the immune mechanisms⁴ as well as the contribution of different cytokines⁹¹ in this context. As an example, one of the major findings related to celiac disease pathogenesis, namely the importance of IL-15 during the disease process, was obtained from studies conducted with the organ culture.^{5,92–96}

Considering that the small-bowel organ culture method has been widely used in studies aiming to clarify the pathogenesis of celiac disease, it is surprising that the method has only been used in a few studies related to novel treatment forms. To our knowledge, it has only been applied in studying the therapeutic potential of a particular zonulin

antagonist⁴⁵ and gliadin-degrading proteolytic enzymes,^{42,81,97} with promising results.

Conclusions

In the absence of an animal model for celiac disease, researchers have used different cell lines and the celiac patient small-bowel mucosal organ culture method in studying different aspects of celiac disease pathogenesis and proof-of-concept testing of novel treatment options which could in the future replace the only effective treatment for celiac disease, the gluten-free diet. Although widely used, all of the models presented in this review have their limitations and thus do not always correlate with the circumstances in the human small intestine *in vivo*. For example, the epithelial cell lines are not derived from celiac disease patients but instead are of cancerous origin. Moreover, the epithelial cells and celiac patient T-cell lines and clones lack connection to other cell types present in the intestine. In addition, the small-bowel organ culture system lacks circulation, nervous system and connection to lymphatic organs. Furthermore, the organ culture system is not a high-throughput method. In the future it would thus be worthwhile to develop novel and improved culture systems and to promote celiac disease-specific models. However, even regardless of the above-mentioned shortcomings, researchers have gained important information and been able to add pieces to the celiac disease pathogenesis puzzle using the models described in this review and also other available model systems. Moreover, the studies clarifying the efficacy of novel treatment options carried out with the models described here have yielded encouraging results and some potentially therapeutic compounds have already entered phase II clinical trials.

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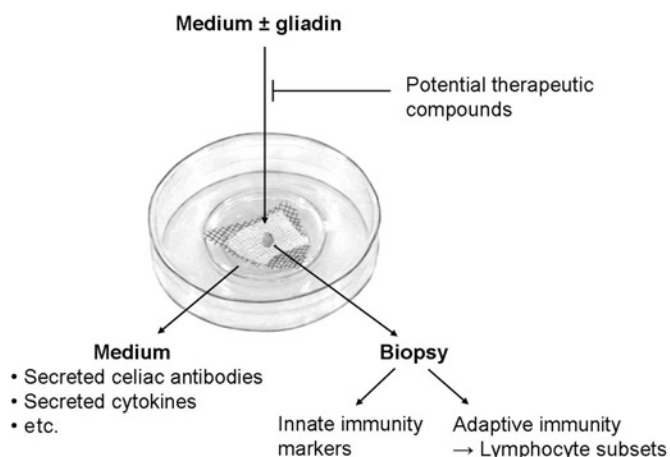


Figure 1 The principle of the small-bowel mucosal organ culture system

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