

· 综述 ·

程序性死亡蛋白1靶向免疫治疗在慢性病毒性感染中的研究进展

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【摘要】在慢性病毒性感染的发生发展过程中,免疫系统一直起着举足轻重的作用。一方面,免疫系统通过免疫细胞、免疫分子等发挥正向的积极抗感染作用;另一方面,机体通过免疫负调控机制,发挥免疫抑制作用,以防止免疫系统的过度活化。而慢性病毒性感染中,免疫抑制作用过强则会阻碍机体正常抗感染效应的发挥。本综述就该过程中免疫抑制分子程序性死亡蛋白1(PD-1)及其配体PD-L1在其中发挥的作用并对靶向于PD-1/PD-L1的免疫治疗进展进行综述。

【关键词】程序性死亡蛋白1;免疫治疗;慢性病毒性感染

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【Abstract】Immune system plays a pivotal role in disease development during chronic virus infection. On one hand, the immune system defends against infectious agents through effector immune cells and molecules. On the other hand, the immune system has negative immune regulation mechanisms to suppress immune response and prevent its overactivation. However, these mechanisms may oversuppress and hamper the generation of effective antiviral immune responses during chronic viral infection. In this review, the function of immunosuppressive molecules programmed cell death protein-1 (PD-1) and its ligand PD-L1 during chronic viral infections were discussed, and recent advances in immune therapies targeting these molecules were summarized.

【Key words】Programmed cell death protein-1; Immunotherapy; Chronic virus infection

当机体受病毒侵袭时,免疫系统会迅速反应执行免疫防御功能,防止病毒入侵并及时将其清除。然而,若机体免疫功能低下,病毒难以被清除而长期存在,则可导致慢性病毒性感染的发生。

慢性病毒性感染的常见病原体包括乙型肝炎病毒(hepatitis B virus, HBV)、丙型肝炎病毒(hepatitis C virus, HCV)、人类免疫缺陷病毒(human immunodeficiency virus, HIV)等。HBV感染所致的慢性乙型肝炎(chronic hepatitis B, CHB)每年导致约100万人死亡^[1];2015年,全球HCV感染率为1%,且其中约710万人为慢性HCV感染^[2],而HIV感染例数从1990年的874万逐年上升至2017年的3 680

万^[3],以上疾病均对人类健康构成了巨大威胁,均为亟待解决的社会公共卫生问题。

机体存在针对免疫系统活化的负调控系统,如表达于活化T细胞表面的细胞毒T淋巴细胞相关抗原4(cytotoxic T lymphocyte-associated antigen-4, CTLA-4)、程序性死亡蛋白1(programmed cell death protein-1, PD-1)以及表达于NK细胞表面的KIR(killer cell immunoglobulin-like receptor, KIR)家族等,其能通过与其相应的配体结合,发挥抑制免疫系统过度活化的功能。以上在免疫系统中起抑制作用的调节分子称为免疫检查点(immune checkpoints, ICs),在维持自身耐受、防止自身免疫反应及控制免疫应答时间及强度方面发挥重要作用。而近年来越来越多研究显示,在慢性病毒性感染的发生发展中,免疫检查点分子表达持续上调并抑制抗感染免疫应答,进而在病毒慢性感染的维持中发挥重要作用。因此,针对上述免疫检查点分子的靶向免疫治疗也为治疗慢性病毒性感染提供了新的策略。本文就慢性病毒性感染中,针对免疫检查点分子PD-1及其配体PD-L1(programmed death

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ligand-1, PD-L1) 的靶向免疫治疗研究进展加以综述。

一、PD-1/PD-L1的结构与表达

1. PD-1的结构与表达: PD-1 (CD249) 由日本免疫学家本庶佑于1992年通过减法杂交技术首次发现^[4], 是由288个氨基酸组成的I型跨膜糖蛋白, 分子量为50~55 ka, 属于免疫球蛋白超家族。PD-1的空间结构包括胞外免疫球蛋白IgV样结构域、1个约20个氨基酸大小的连接IgV样结构域与细胞膜的柄、跨膜结构域和细胞内尾部结构域, 其中尾部结构域包括2个酪氨酸残基, N端酪氨酸残基参与构成邻近胞膜的免疫受体酪氨酸抑制基序 (immunoreceptor tyrosine-based inhibition motif, ITIM), C端酪氨酸残基参与构成远离胞膜的免疫受体酪氨酸转换基序 (immunoreceptor tyrosine-based switch motif, ITSM)^[4-5]。由于ITIM存在于如CD72 (cluster of differentiation 72)、FcγR II B (Fc receptor II B) 及KIR多种免疫抑制性受体中, 故被认为是PD-1发挥免疫抑制功能的核心部分。然而, Chemnitz等^[6]研究表明, 定位于ITSM而非ITIM中的酪氨酸残基才是PD-1执行抑制功能的关键。PD-1胞外段与CTLA-4、CD28及可诱导共刺激分子 (inducible co-stimulatory molecule, ICOS) 在序列上有21%~33%同源, 故属于CD28/CTLA-4共刺激受体家族^[7]。但与CD28/CTLA-4共刺激受体家族的其他成员不同, PD-1因缺乏半胱氨酸残基而不能形成共价二聚体, 因此目前认为PD-1以单体形式表达或存在于细胞表面或溶液中^[7]; 由于PD-1的CDR3环并不包含保守的XXPPP (F/Y) 基序, 其不能结合B7-1、B7-2和B7RP-1^[8-9]。编码人PD-1的PDCD1基因定位于染色体2q37.3, 含有5个外显子, 编码小鼠PD-1的基因定位于1号染色体, 其氨基酸序列与人PD-1分子有60%的同源性^[10]。PD-1表达于活化的T细胞、B细胞、骨髓细胞、胸腺细胞、自然杀伤 (natural killer, NK) 细胞及从双阴性向双阳性转换的CD4⁺CD8⁺胸腺细胞等, 更广泛的表达谱说明PD-1相较于CD28家族能发挥更广泛的免疫调节作用^[11]。

2. PD-L1的结构与表达: PD-1有两种配体, PD-L1 (programmed death ligand-1, PD-L1) 和PD-L2 (programmed death ligand-2, PD-L2)。PD-L1又名B7-H1或CD274, 属于B7家族, 于1999年由华裔免疫学家陈列平首次发现并报道^[12]。PD-L1与B7家族的其他成员不同, 其不与CD28、CTLA-4或ICOS结合, 但能促进白细胞介素-10 (interleukin-10, IL-10) 的分泌, 提示其在免疫负性调节中发挥着重要作用^[12]。编码人PD-L1的B7-H1基因定位于染色体9p24.1, 编码290个氨基酸大小的I型跨膜蛋白, 其空间结构由胞外的免疫球蛋白样IgV样结构域及IgC样结构域、1段疏水跨膜结构域和1段30个氨基酸大小的胞内结构域组成。其中PD-L1的胞外段与B7-1和B7-2在氨基酸序列上分别具有20%和15%的同源性。编码小鼠PD-L1的基因定位于19号染色体^[7]。

PD-L1广泛表达于造血细胞, 如活化的T细胞、B细

胞、单核细胞、树突状细胞和巨噬细胞等, 同时在心脏、骨骼肌、胎盘、肺、肾和肝等外周非造血器官中亦能检测到PD-L1的中高表达^[7]。

二、PD-1信号通路及其功能

生理状态下, PD-1/PD-L1通过抑制T细胞受体 (T-cell receptor, TCR) 和B细胞受体 (B-cell receptor, BCR) 通路的信号转导来控制T、B细胞的活化强度, 来保护正常组织免受免疫损伤, 即发挥免疫“刹车”的作用^[13-14]。T细胞上的PD-1与其配体结合后, 可导致其胞内段酪氨酸磷酸化并招募SRC同源磷酸酪氨酸磷酸酶2 (SRC homology 2-domain-containing protein tyrosine phosphatase 2, SHP-2) 至ITSM的C端酪氨酸残基, SHP-2通过使TCR信号转导通路的CD-3ζ和ZAP7等分子发生去磷酸化, 导致对下游信号转导通路的抑制。同时, 有研究发现, 阻断PI3K的活化及细胞存活基因Bcl-xl, 会降低白细胞介素-2 (interleukin-2, IL-2) 的产生及糖代谢, 而IL-2的下调是诱导CD8⁺T和CD4⁺T细胞发生失能的关键因素^[15-16]。磷酸化ITSM还招募SHP-1, 然而SHP-1的抑制能力弱于SHP-2, 且将二者同时定位于TCR微团簇时, 只有SHP-2在生理状况下能被招募^[17-18]。在B细胞中, PD-1通过类似机制抑制B细胞活化。其胞内段酪氨酸磷酸化并招募SHP-2至磷酸化位点, SHP-2使BCR邻近包括Igα/β和Syk在内的信号分子发生去磷酸化, 进而减弱PLCγ2、PI3K、vav及ERK1/2等下游分子的活化^[17]。

作为免疫检查点分子, PD-1能通过免疫抑制作用, 维持自身耐受并通过调节外周组织中免疫反应的持续时间和强度来减少组织损伤^[14, 19]。但在慢性病毒性感染中, 因长期暴露于持续性抗原和炎症, 免疫细胞 (尤其是T细胞) 功能逐渐耗竭。耗竭T细胞的效应功能及免疫记忆能力降低, 持续高表达PD-1等免疫检查点分子, 其转录模式也与功能性效应或记忆T细胞显著不同^[20]。PD-1/PD-L1相互作用也抑制B细胞扩增及产生抗体^[21]。因此, 通过阻断PD-1/PDL1的相互作用解除其免疫抑制效应从而恢复抗感染T/B淋巴细胞功能, 成为治疗慢性病毒性感染的新途径。

三、PD-1/PD-L1免疫治疗与慢性乙型肝炎

研究表明, 未经治疗的慢性HBV感染者外周血单个淋巴细胞 (peripheral blood mononuclear cells, PBMCs) 中总T细胞及CD8⁺T细胞均高表达PD-1^[22]。HBV特异性CD4⁺T细胞出现PD-1的表达上调^[23]。慢性乙型肝炎患者的外周血CD14⁺单核细胞及CD19⁺B细胞的PD-L1表达升高^[24], 记忆B细胞 (memory B cells, MBCs) 和非典型记忆B细胞 (atypical memory B cells, AtM) 表面的PD-1表达上调^[25]。慢性乙型肝炎患者肝内T细胞表面PD-1的表达水平亦显著升高^[26]。

多项研究显示, 抑制PD-1能增强慢性乙型肝炎患者外周血中HBV特异性CD8⁺T细胞功能^[22, 27-28], 而阻断PD-1能部分改善HBV特异性CD4⁺T细胞产生干扰素-γ (interferon-γ, IFN-γ)、IL-2及肿瘤坏死因子-α (tumor necrosis factor-α,

TNF- α)的能力^[23]。在利用抗PD-1抗体(anti-PD-1 antibody, 抗-PD-1)阻断PD-1/PD-L1相互作用后,慢性乙型肝炎患者PBMCs中MBCs产生HBV表面抗体(hepatitis B surface antibody, HBsAb)的能力大幅提升,HBV表面抗原(hepatitis B surface antigen, HBsAg)特异性B细胞功能部分恢复^[25],Burton等^[29]研究也从理论上支持了上述结果。

体内PD-1/PD-L1阻断对慢性HBV感染的疗效亦在动物模型和慢性肝炎患者中得到验证。在土拨鼠肝炎病毒(woodchuck hepatitis virus, WHV)感染所致慢性肝炎模型中,通过抗-PD-L1阻断PD-1/PD-L1的相互作用,能部分恢复T细胞功能且不产生肝细胞毒性^[30]。当利用抗-PD-L1与HBV DNA疫苗及恩替卡韦进行联合治疗时,抗-PD-L1能提高WHV特异性T细胞功能,同时该联合治疗还能抑制WHV复制,进而实现对病毒感染的持续控制,增强抗体的产生甚至清除病毒^[31]。2017年的1项临床试验招募20例慢性乙型肝炎患者,利用商品化的抗-PD-1 nivolumab(英文商品名:Opdivo,中文商品名:欧狄沃)单独治疗或与乙肝疫苗进行联合治疗,结果提示nivolumab具有良好的安全性及耐受性,其中1例受试者发生了HBsAg血清学转换^[32],2019年有研究也得到了类似的结果^[33]。除nivolumab外,目前已上市的抗-PD-1还包括pembrolizumab(英文商品名:Keytruda,中文商品名:可瑞达),抗-PD-L1包括atezolizumab(英文商品名:Tecentriq,中文商品名:特善奇)、durvalumab(英文商品名:Imfinzi,中文商品名:英飞凡)和avelumab(英文商品名:Bavencio,中文商品名:巴文西亚)。以上抗-PD-1和(或)抗-PD-L1的临床试验提示未来运用PD-1/PD-L1阻断剂治疗慢性乙型肝炎的可能。

四、PD-1/PD-L1免疫治疗与慢性丙型肝炎

成人感染HCV后易发展为慢性丙型肝炎(chronic hepatitis C, CHC)。与健康人相比,CHC患者PBMCs中CD4⁺T及CD8⁺T细胞表面PD-1表达上调,在接受HCV肽刺激后,其表达IL-2、IL-6及TNF- α 的能力下降^[34]。慢性丙型肝炎患者肝内HCV特异性CD8⁺T细胞的PD-1表达水平显著高于外周HCV特异性CD8⁺T细胞,提示肝内PD-1⁺CD8⁺T细胞处于更严重的耗竭状态^[35]。CD8⁺CD28⁻PD1⁺T细胞与慢性HCV感染中血清HCV RNA水平呈正相关,其能通过分泌IL-10抑制CTLs的增殖并诱导CTLs凋亡^[36]。

在感染性HCV共培养模型中,Huh7.5A2细胞表达的PD-L1能减弱HCV特异性T细胞的功能,而阻断PD-1能通过上调CD107a的表达而显著增强其细胞溶解能力^[37]。在黑猩猩慢性HCV感染模型中,利用抗-PD-1可以改善HCV特异性T细胞的增殖能力,部分接受抗体注射的动物病毒血症可显著减轻,且期间并不造成明显的肝细胞毒性,但停药后病毒血症复发^[38]。该病症减轻的黑猩猩在接受抗-PD-1治疗前接受过多种HCV蛋白免疫,提示抗-PD-1治疗成功可能需要机体预先存在一定量的病毒特异性T细胞^[38]。此外,有研究显示从

CHC患者肝脏分离出的CD8⁺T细胞高表达PD-1和CTLA-4,单独阻断PD-1或CTLA-4均只能部分诱导耗竭性T细胞抗病毒能力的恢复,只有二者同时阻断才能恢复T细胞功能^[39]。2013年1项在CHC患者群体中开展的临床试验显示,应用大剂量(10 mg/kg) nivolumab对20例患者进行治疗,仅3例患者出现病毒载量大幅度下降^[40]。以上均说明在慢性丙型肝炎个体中,阻断CTLA-4能协同PD-1的阻断作用^[41]。

五、PD-1/PD-L1免疫治疗与HIV

T细胞耗竭是慢性HIV感染的特征之一。在HIV感染病例中,CD4⁺T及CD8⁺T细胞表面出现包括PD-1在内的一系列免疫检查点分子表达上调^[42-43]。终末分化状态的CD8⁺T细胞比例增加及PD-1的表达上调与HIV初发感染时抗逆转录病毒药物治疗(antiretroviral therapy, ART)后HIV持续存在有关^[44]。在猿猴免疫缺陷病毒(simian immunodeficiency virus, SIV)感染恒河猴模型中,研究发现其骨髓来源的CD4⁺T细胞被严重耗竭,且在ART过程中,骨髓来源的记忆CD4⁺T细胞持续高表达PD-1和CTLA-4,其外周血也含高水平的SIV DNA、SIV RNA及有复制能力的病毒^[45]。在病毒感染性HIV阳性的个体中,其血浆中可溶性PD-L1(soluble form of PD-L1, sPD-L1)表达升高,脂多糖(lipopolysaccharide, LPS)及TNF- α 刺激后,单核细胞来源的树突状细胞(dendritic cells, DCs)不仅上调表达膜结合型PD-L1(membrane-bound form PD-L1, mPD-L1),且表达sPD-L1,提示其可能是sPD-L1的来源之一^[46]。

多项离体实验证实,阻断PD-1/PD-L1均能提高HIV特异性CD8⁺T细胞功能,并杀伤感染的靶细胞^[42, 47-48]。在体内实验中,抗-PD-1参与的联合治疗能显著提高T细胞功能。在SIV感染恒河猴模型中,在ART前10天使用抗-PD-1能快速提高抗病毒CD8⁺T细胞和B细胞的功能并削弱干扰素刺激基因的表达,且在ART中断后,抗-PD-1处理组动物体内产生CXCR5、穿孔素、颗粒酶B的效应T细胞仍处于大量扩增状态,以上均提示阻断PD-1协同ART能安全有效地增强抗病毒CD8⁺T细胞的功能^[49]。Gill等^[50]亦在该模型中研究发现阻断PD-1尽管不能大幅度改善抗病毒反应,但其联合ART可小幅度推迟病毒反弹。TIGIT是HIV感染中另一个重要的执行免疫负性调节的免疫检查点,双重阻断TIGIT和PD-L1能显著恢复CD8⁺T细胞的增殖,但不能修复效应细胞因子的产生^[43]。对免疫检查点T细胞免疫球蛋白及黏蛋白域蛋白-3(T cell immunoglobulin domain and mucin domain-3, TIM-3)或B和T淋巴细胞弱化因子(B- and T-lymphocyte attenuator, BTLA)的阻断能增强抗-PD-1提升CD8⁺T细胞增殖的能力,PD-1/TIM-3或PD-1/BTLA联合阻断能提高HIV感染者PBMC上清中IFN- γ 和TNF- α 等细胞因子的浓度^[51]。目前关于靶向于PD-1/PD-L1的免疫治疗在HIV感染者的疗效尚需要进一步深入研究。

以上PD-1靶向治疗对慢性病毒性感染影响的总结见表1。

表1 PD-1 靶向治疗对慢性病毒性感染影响

病原体	受影响免疫细胞类型	研究对象	主要研究进展
乙型肝炎病毒	CD4 ⁺ T细胞、CD8 ⁺ T细胞、MBCs、B细胞等	小鼠、土拨鼠、人	阻断PD-1/PD-L1能改善CD4 ⁺ T细胞、CD8 ⁺ T细胞、MBCs及B细胞功能,抑制病毒复制,增强抗体产生
丙型肝炎病毒	CD4 ⁺ T细胞、CD8 ⁺ T细胞等	细胞、黑猩猩、人	阻断PD-1能部分改善HCV特异性T细胞功能;联合阻断PD-1/CTLA-4能获得更好的阻断作用
人类免疫缺陷病毒	CD4 ⁺ T细胞、CD8 ⁺ T细胞、B细胞等	恒河猴、人	阻断PD-1能提高HIV特异性CD8 ⁺ T细胞功能;PD-1阻断参与的联合治疗能推迟病毒反弹

六、PD-1/PD-L1免疫治疗的不良反应

生理状态下PD-1/PD-L1对免疫系统的负性调节对于维持免疫稳态也十分重要,加之PD-1/PD-L1具有广泛的表达谱,阻断PD-1/PD-L1会非特异性地破坏免疫稳态,导致特有的免疫相关不良反应(immune-related adverse events, irAEs)。irAEs包括:①皮肤系统:1~2级斑丘疹、苔藓样反应、白癜风及皮肤瘙痒,同时更严重的史蒂文斯-约翰逊综合征及毒性表皮坏死溶解等亦有报道^[52]。②血液系统:自身免疫性溶血性贫血(autoimmune hemolytic anemia, AIHA)^[53]等。③呼吸系统:不明原因引起的组织肺炎、急性呼吸窘迫综合征、非特异性间质性肺炎及过敏性肺炎等多种肺炎^[54-55]。④胃肠道系统:腹泻、结肠炎和肝炎等^[56]。⑤风湿免疫系统:关节痛、肌痛、肌炎、狼疮性肾炎和血管炎等^[56-57]。⑥肾脏系统:血尿、水肿及尿量减少等^[58]。⑦内分泌系统:甲状腺功能减退、胰腺功能受损(血清淀粉酶及脂肪酶水平升高)、自身免疫性糖尿病等^[56, 59-60]。⑧神经系统:头痛最为常见,严重者包括免疫介导的脑炎、无菌性脑炎、吉兰-巴雷综合征、重症肌无力等^[56, 61-62]。因而在应用PD-1/PD-L1靶向性药物进行治疗时,要随时关注并治疗irAEs,以在最大限度减轻不良反应的情况下达到最佳疗效。

七、展望

尽管PD-1及其配体自发现至今仅经过了约20年,但关于此分子的生物学功能研究取得了极大的进展,并证实了PD-1/PD-L1信号转导通路在慢性病毒性感染的发生发展中发挥重要作用。靶向PD-1/PD-L1的免疫治疗能通过改善免疫细胞的耗竭状态并恢复其免疫杀伤功能,控制病原体感染,且通过联合阻断其他免疫检查点分子往往可取得更好的疗效。但阻断免疫检查点会导致免疫稳态的紊乱,有可能导致irAEs的发生,这是在开展免疫检查点治疗时需重点关注的问题。靶向PD-1/PD-L1的免疫治疗策略在肿瘤治疗中取得了巨大的成功,也促使其在慢性病毒性感染中的研究愈加广泛和深入。随着其治疗方案的不断改进和完善,其在慢性病毒性感染疾病治愈治疗中必将发挥更大的作用。

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