

B-cell tolerance: mechanisms and implications

Antony Basten^{1,2} and Pablo A Silveira^{1,2}

Advances in our knowledge of the spectrum of B-cell activities combined with the remarkable clinical efficacy of B-cell inhibitors in autoimmunity and transplantation settings serve to re-emphasise the importance of tolerance to self and foreign antigens in the B-cell repertoire. In particular, new information is emerging about the molecular mechanisms involved in B-cell tolerance induction and identification of B-cell selective defects that contribute to the pathogenesis of autoimmune/inflammatory diseases.

Addresses

¹ Immunology Program, Garvan Institute of Medical Research, Darlinghurst, New South Wales, Australia

² St. Vincent's Clinical School, University of New South Wales, Sydney, New South Wales, Australia

Corresponding author: Basten, Antony (A.Basten@garvan.org.au)

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Introduction

It is essential that tolerance be imposed on the B-cell as well as the T-cell repertoires. The main reasons for this are: (a) the spectrum of functional activities performed by B-cells that include not only antibody production, but also antigen presentation and secretion of pro-inflammatory and anti-inflammatory cytokines [1]; (b) the fact that the B-cell repertoire is generated in two stages: in the first, V(D)J recombination occurs within the bone marrow (BM) to create the 'pre-immune repertoire', while the second involves somatic hypermutation (SMH) of immunoglobulin (Ig) variable region genes within germinal centres (GCs) following antigen stimulation and provision of co-stimulatory signals from T-cells and/or external pathogens (immune repertoire). In each case, the primary goal is to diversify the repertoire of B-cell specificities against foreign antigens, although the random nature of both V(D)J recombination and SMH inevitably leads to the appearance of cells expressing anti-self B-cell receptors (BCR) within both repertoires. Multiple overlapping mechanisms of tolerance at several checkpoints in B-cell differentiation have evolved to deal with the ever-present threat of autoimmunity posed by the generation of self-

reactive B-cells. This range of mechanisms also applies when tolerance is acquired for foreign antigens on allografts or infectious agents [2,3•].

Decision between tolerance and immunity

For B-cells, the decision between tolerance and immunity can still be explained within the framework of the two-signal hypothesis of Bretscher and Cohn [4]. The factors that influence this decision can be divided into antigen or host (immune system) related categories (Table 1). Here we have focused on antigen structure, the role of host tissues and contributions made by regulatory cells, as these factors tend to be overlooked.

Conventional wisdom has it that *antigen structure* can determine the T-cell dependence of a B-cell response, but does not distinguish self from non-self. Two studies challenge this dogma. In the first, a highly immunogenic multimeric T-independent type 2 (TI-2) antigen, polyacrylamide, was 'decorated' with sialosides (terminal sugar motifs commonly expressed on glycoproteins of mammalian but not microbial cells) recognised by the inhibitory signalling molecules CD22 and Siglec-G on B-cells [5•]. This manoeuvre resulted in B-cell tolerance to subsequent challenge with the unmodified TI-2 antigen. The modified foreign antigen was therefore recognised as self. A similar interpretation may account for the link described between the degree of membrane sialylation of tumour cells (e.g. from B16F10 melanoma) and their metastatic potential [6]. In the second study, the attachment of opsonised complement components (C3dg) onto neo-self-antigens, resulting in co-ligation of BCR and CD21/35 complement receptors on B-cells, led to reversal of self-tolerance [7]. In this case, the self-antigen was recognised as foreign. Taken together, these studies demonstrate that an important function of B-cell co-receptors is to assist in distinguishing self-antigens from non-self-antigens by setting the threshold of reactivity to them (Table 1).

A potential role for *target tissue* factors in influencing the decision between tolerance and immunity requires emphasis. Matzinger has summarised this concept well in a recent review where she points out that tissues 'use all sorts of mechanisms to keep the cells and molecules of the immune system out until they need them and to control them when they arrive' [8•]. Independent evidence of a role for tissues in modulating tolerance comes from studying the genetics of autoimmune disease models, where two clusters of susceptibility genes are frequently identified, one controlling the level of reactivity of the immune system and the other encoding tissue susceptibility to autoimmune attack [9,10•]. These tissue

Table 1

Antigen and host-related factors leading to tolerance or immunity^a

Factors	Tolerance	Immunity ^b
Antigen-related (signal 1)		
Structure	Increased sialylation	Lower sialylation
Concentration	Higher	Lower
Avidity	High	Intermediate
Duration of encounter	Chronic	Acute
Timing of encounter	Immature stage	Mature stage
Host-related (signal 2) ^c		
<i>Intrinsic to immune system</i>		
• Cytokines	TGF- β , IL10	IL-4, TNF
• Antibodies	IgG (via Fc γ RIIb)	IgM, IgG (via Fc γ RI or III)
• Regulatory cells	B _{reg} and T _{reg}	–
• Macrophages	TBM in GC	CD69+ in MZ and subcapsular sinus
• Complement	Guide B-cell to niches for negative selection	Anaphylatoxins in inflammation
• BCR signalling threshold	ITIM motifs (siglecs, e.g. CD22)	ITAM motifs (e.g. Lyn, CD19)
<i>Extrinsic to immune system</i>		
• Target tissue factors	No inflammation (no cell access)	Inflammation (cell access)
• External co-stimuli	Tumour-derived (e.g. TGF beta)	Pathogen-derived (e.g. toll like receptors)

^a Reviewed in [2,5*,6,7,8*,25,29,53].^b Factors favouring immunity also contribute to breakdown in tolerance leading to autoimmunity and rejection of tolerated grafts.^c Host-related factors contribute to secondary mechanisms of tolerance.

factors can operate directly on B-cells, as does the B-cell survival factor BAFF when produced, for example by synovocytes in joints [11], or indirectly through their effects on other cells such as T-cells [9].

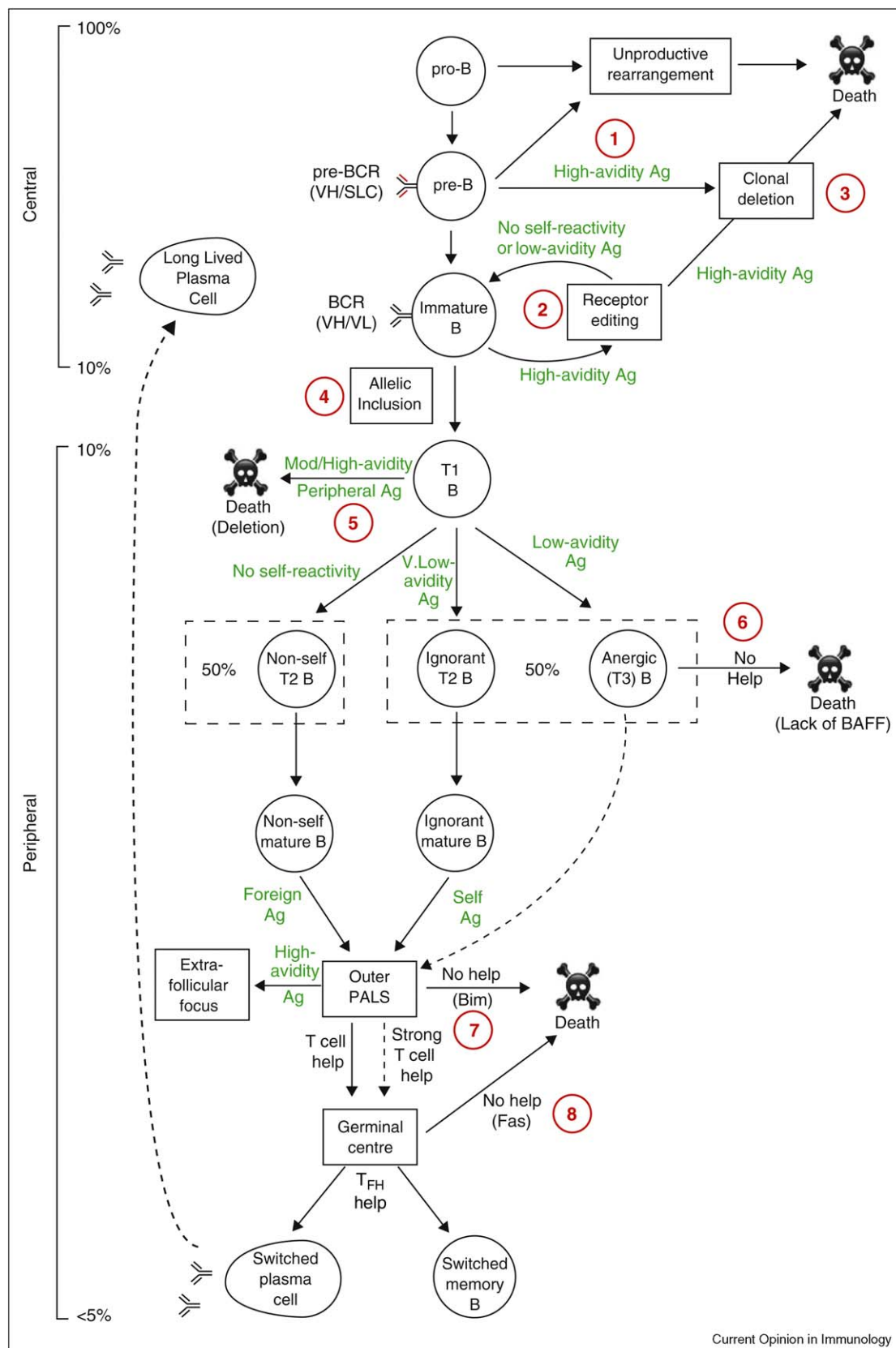
Another mechanism contributing to the decision between tolerance and immunity worth highlighting here is the alleged capacity of B-cells themselves to act as regulators rather than effectors. Although the first description of *regulatory B-cells* (B_{regs}) dates back many years [12], they have only just re-emerged in the form of a IL-10 secreting CD5^{hi}CD1d^{hi} B-cell population in mice [13], and a comparable CD19⁺CD24^{hi}CD38^{hi} population in humans [14*], with potent ‘tolerising’ capabilities for both T-cell and B-cell mediated responses [15*]. In other studies, activated B-cells when acting as antigen presenting cells (APCs) have been shown to expand regulatory T-cells (T_{regs}) [16] or cause deletion or anergy of self-reactive T-cells [17,18]. The key issue posed by these observations is the relative importance of B-cells with regulatory versus effector functions in disease settings *in vivo*. For the most part, the remarkable efficacy of anti-CD20 antibodies (e.g. Rituximab) in eliminating B-cells with foreign and self-specificities without causing dramatic disturbances in regulation points to a predominant role for effector B-cells [19**]. On the contrary, the fact that prophylactic anti-CD20 mediated B-cell depletion has been shown to intensify experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis (EAE) [20] and systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE) [21] in mice, as well as exacerbating ulcerative colitis and precipitating psoriasis, vasculitis and autoimmune cytopenia in some human patients [19**] is consistent with a suppressive role for B-cells in autoimmunity. In view of the different outcomes of anti-CD20 therapy, it is not surprising that the

proportion of infiltrating B-cells found in human allografts has been associated both with improved graft survival [22] and with a greater risk of rejection [23] in different patient samples. Moreover, when interpreting the outcome of antibody therapy, it should be borne in mind that anti-CD20 like anti-TNF antibodies exert profound effects on the integrity of lymphoid tissue including GCs.

Mechanisms of tolerance

The requirement for multiple checkpoints to purge the B-cell repertoire of unwanted anti-self-specificities is now well accepted in both mice and humans (Figure 1) [3**,24**,25], although the concept continues to be refined, particularly with respect to the mechanisms underlying negative selection at the pre-B-cell [26**], transitional [27] and GC [28**] stages of differentiation. For convenience, the mechanisms of self-tolerance in the B-cell compartment can be divided into *de novo* (primary) and *secondary mechanisms*. The former operate throughout B-cell differentiation and contribute to shaping the repertoire, while the latter do not alter the repertoire but act in a fail-safe capacity in peripheral lymphoid organs by modulating the responsiveness of mature B-cells. Much of the work deciphering these mechanisms was performed in transgenic models involving self-antigens or neo-self-antigens [29]. However, similar conclusions can be drawn for acquired tolerance to foreign microorganisms and to MHC or blood group antigens involved in prevention of graft rejection [30,31]. With respect to microorganisms, they can affect B-cell responsiveness in several ways, for example by direct infection of B-cells in the case of EBV [32] and HIV [33] resulting in subversion of BCR signalling, or indirectly by inhibiting their antigen presenting capacity in the case of *Helicobacter pylori* [34].

Figure 1



De novo mechanisms

The selection of *de novo* mechanisms is determined by the combination of antigen avidity (affinity and density) and signalling threshold of the BCR [25]. They operate at multiple checkpoints, centrally in BM (or foetal liver) and peripherally within secondary lymphoid tissue for foreign as well as self-antigens (Figure 1).

Central tolerance

Selection in the BM is mediated by *deletion* and *receptor editing* for B-cells with high to moderate avidity for self-antigens (Figure 1). Following the early loss of pro-B-cells through unsuccessful VDJ heavy-chain gene rearrangements, the remainder, that is those with successful rearrangements, develop into pre-B-cells expressing a surface antigen receptor composed of an Ig heavy chain (HC) combined with a surrogate light chain (SLC). The outcome of ligation of the pre-B-cell receptor was traditionally considered to be just a proliferative burst in positively selected clones. However, according to a recent study, negative selection may also take place at this stage in B-cell ontogeny as demonstrated by enhanced levels of antinuclear-antibodies in mice unable to produce pre-BCRs due to a knockout of the SLC [26**]. Nevertheless, it remains possible that the appearance of autoreactive clones in these mice could be due to reduced competition for survival factors (e.g. BAFF) and micro-environmental niches, since the absence of the SLC also resulted in diminished production of B-cells secondary to limited positive selection.

The situation is less controversial for immature B-cells that, once they have successfully rearranged heavy and light chains on their surface, become particularly susceptible to tolerance induction upon BCR engagement by cognate antigen [3**]. Until recently, the primary mechanism affecting high-avidity B-cells was thought to be deletion, while those recognising antigens with moderate avidity underwent receptor editing, a process involving reactivation of RAG genes and continued rearrangements of IgL (and less commonly, IgH) genes in an attempt to acquire a useful anti-foreign BCR specificity. Now, it is considered that receptor editing is the predominant mechanism of central tolerance, with clonal deletion

serving as the default pathway for B-cells that retain their self-reactivity [35]. Curiously, about half of the immature B-cells undergoing receptor editing continue to express two or more different light (and occasionally heavy) chains [36]. This phenomenon, termed 'allelic inclusion', may not only explain the high incidence of poly-reactivity and self-reactivity early in B-cell development, but also how weakly self-reactive immature cells escape central tolerance through dilution of aberrant receptors and reach secondary lymphoid tissue [3**]. When the repertoire of developing B-cells was tracked in humans, a similar picture emerged with evidence of persistent self-reactivity and poly-reactivity among mature low-avidity B-cells in the periphery despite relatively efficient negative selection in the BM [24**]. The decision to undergo receptor editing in B-cells was thought to be the exclusive domain of BCR avidity; however, recent studies of patients with defects in MyD88, IRAK-4 and UNC-93B molecules point to an unpredicted role for pathways involving innate receptors (e.g. for IL-1 and TLRs) in regulating this mechanism of tolerance [37*].

No equivalent of the *AIRE* gene, which mediates expression of peripherally restricted antigens in the thymus, has been identified in BM, nor is it required given the fact that B-cells interact directly with antigen. Presumably, however, widely expressed cell associated self-antigens do exist at this site as indicated by a recent transgenic study showing that B-cells specific for the NCI domain on alpha3 type IV collagen, a target of anti-glomerular basement autoantibodies in Goodpasture's syndrome, normally undergo deletion and receptor editing in the BM [38**].

The information presented so far has been confined to conventional B2-cells. Do the same rules apply to B1-cells, given that they are also self-reactive and poly-reactive and, unlike B2-cells, are normally cycling? Although 'natural' autoantibodies from B1-cells tend to be of low-avidity and not highly pathogenic, support for some form of negative selection in B1-cells comes from the demonstration of greatly increased numbers in mice deficient in ITIM-containing molecules like CD22 and Siglec-G [39*] or overexpressing BAFF [40], where these cells play a direct

(Figure 1 Legend) Multiple checkpoints of B-cell tolerance. Most self-reactive B-cells (90%) are eliminated by central *de novo* tolerance mechanisms within the BM (1–4), while the remaining minority that escape into peripheral lymphoid organs are controlled by secondary as well as *de novo* mechanisms at these sites (5–8). (1) Pre-B-cells expressing strongly self-reactive Ig heavy chains (VH) paired with a surrogate light chain (SLC) undergo deletion. (2) Immature B-cells expressing strongly self-reactive Ig heavy and light chain (VL) combinations rearrange receptor genes (receptor editing), thereby reducing self-reactivity. (3) Receptor edited B-cells that remain strongly self-reactive undergo deletion. (4) Self-reactive BCRs are diluted on a proportion of receptor edited B-cells due to expression of a second Ig light (or sometimes heavy) chain (allelic inclusion). (5) T1 B-cells recognising peripheral self-antigen with moderate to high-avidity undergo Bim-dependent deletion in the spleen. (6) B-cells continually recognising self-antigen with low-avidity can no longer compete for limiting amounts of BAFF and withdraw into an unresponsive (anergic) state, in which they are short-lived, unless provided with strong T-cell help or other co-stimulatory signals (e.g. TLR). (7) B-cells recognising self-antigen with very low-avidity or which do not normally encounter a sequestered self-antigen (i.e. are ignorant) can mature along with non-self-reactive B-cells. However, once exposed to their cognate antigen in the absence of T-cell help, they undergo deletion in the outer PALS area of the spleen. (8) Similarly, in the absence of help from T_{FH}, B-cells undergoing SMH within GCs that become self-reactive undergo Fas-dependent death. Conversely, those receiving help survive and differentiate into antibody secreting plasma cells and memory B-cells.

role in induction of autoimmunity. Conversely, reduced numbers of B1-cells have been described in mice tolerised to xenoantigens that selectively interact with B1-cells [41]. The precise location of negative selection of B1-cells and B2-cells within BM remains elusive, although complement and other cells (e.g. macrophages and stromal cells) bearing complement receptors are likely to be important (Table 1).

Peripheral tolerance

Only 10% of newly generated immature B-cells emerge from BM as transitional (T1 then T2) cells [2]. These migrate to the spleen where they may encounter peripheral self-antigens not present in BM. High-avidity interactions with these antigens lead to rapid Bim-dependent deletion of B-cells at the T1 stage (Figure 1) [25,42]. By contrast, low or very-low-avidity interactions result in the induction of *anergy* and *ignorance*, respectively [29]. Upon exposure to either self or foreign antigen, these cells, like mature naïve B-cells, relocate to the outer peri-arteriolar lymphoid sheath (PALS) of the T-cell zone in search of help, provided that receptor occupancy exceeds 25%, and the BCR signalling threshold (tonicity) is adequate [2]. In the absence of T-cell help or TLR dependent co-stimulatory signals, B-cells, irrespective of their specificity, die within 2–3 days; in effect undergoing delayed deletion [2].

The *anergic state* [43] is characterised by desensitisation of BCR signalling and its uncoupling from the NF κ B pathway, resulting in decreased responsiveness, a failure of antigen presenting and antibody producing capabilities and an inability to compete for limiting amounts of the B-cell survival factor, BAFF [44]. Nevertheless, in the event that they are exposed within their shortened life-span to strongly cross-reactive antigens, excess BAFF or vigorous T-cell help, anergic B-cells survive negative selection and enter GCs where they undergo affinity maturation along with 'ignorant' cells of either foreign or self-specificities (Figure 1). Although the importance of this transient state of tolerance has been questioned, several lines of evidence point to a physiological role for it. First a subset of B-cells with unique marker profiles has been identified in the normal B-cell repertoire of mice (CD93⁺ IgM^{lo} population termed An1) [45] and more recently in humans (unmutated IgM⁺ IgD⁺ population termed B_{ND}) [46^{*}] that display many of the functional and phenotypic characteristics of anergy defined in transgenic systems, with their specificity profile skewed towards self-reactivity. Secondly the introduction of several BCR transgenic systems onto autoimmune-prone mouse backgrounds has revealed that the failure of anergy is a common mechanism leading

Table 2

Examples of *de novo* defects in B-cell tolerance operating at multiple checkpoints in murine models of autoimmune disease

Mechanism	Mouse strains	Defect	Refs.
<i>Central tolerance</i>			
Deletion	NZM2410/NZW	Immature B-cells show decreased calcium flux and increased resistance to apoptosis following BCR cross-linking due to expression of the lupus associated Ly108.1 allelic variant.	[57 ^{**}]
Receptor editing	MRL. <i>lpr</i> , NZB, NOD	BM immature B-cells exhibit low levels of additional IgL gene rearrangements and RAG reactivation indicative of decreased efficiency of receptor editing. Similar defects found in 30–55% of SLE and T1D patients (compared to 7% of healthy controls).	[55 ^{**}]
Allelic inclusion	(NZB \times NZW)F1	Allelic exclusion was strictly maintained in anti-DNA B-cells of (NZB \times NZW)F1 mice. However, a large proportion of these clones maintained RNA expression of non-productively rearranged IgL chains, which may act to reduce anti-DNA BCR density on autoreactive B-cells.	[58]
<i>Peripheral tolerance</i>			
Deletion	NZB, NOD	T1 B-cells are resistant to apoptosis following IgM cross-linking due to increased expression of anti-apoptotic factor Bcl-2. Decreased generation of T1 B-cells or increased BAFF production also leads to impaired tolerance induction.	[59,60]
Anergy	NZM2410/NZW, NZB, MRL. <i>lpr</i> , (NZB \times NZW)F1 and NOD	B-cell anergy induced by neo-self-antigen HEL or self-antigens including DNA, Sm antigen and rheumatoid factor in BCR transgenic mouse models on non-autoimmune-prone backgrounds is abrogated in mice on various autoimmune-prone genetic backgrounds.	[29,57 ^{**} ,59,61]
GC negative selection	MRL. <i>lpr</i> , NZM2410/NZW	Increased spontaneous generation of GCs in many autoimmune-prone strains correlated with onset of autoantibodies. In BCR transgenic mice specific for DNA and rheumatoid factor self-antigens, GCs persist to give rise to memory and autoantibody-forming cells in mice on autoimmune-prone, but not non-autoimmune-prone genetic backgrounds.	[28 ^{**} ,62,63]

to the activation of self-reactive B-cells [29,44]. Finally an increasing number of BCR-related intracellular events linked to the anergic state *per se* are being reported in mouse models [44,47[•],48,49].

GCs play a pivotal role in regulating development of the 'immune' B-cell repertoire. Thus they represent a micro-environment in follicles where hypermutating B-cells are positively selected on the basis of affinity, but negatively selected against self-reactivity due to local competition for antigen presented on follicular dendritic cells and access to help provided at this site by T follicular helper (T_{FH}) cells [28^{••}]. GC B-cells are characterised by a pro-apoptotic gene expression profile involving downregulation of Bcl-2 and upregulation of Bim family molecules, which means that these B-cells, like those in the outer PALS, are deleted following antigen exposure if they do not receive survival signals from T_{FH} cells. The other cell type of importance in GC is the tingible-body macrophage (TBM) that functions to remove the very large number of potentially immunogenic apoptotic bodies expressing nuclear antigens derived from apoptosing GC B-cells [50[•]]. Defects in T_{FH} and/or TBMs have been shown to predispose to autoimmunity, thereby

confirming their importance in self/non-self discrimination within GCs [28^{••}].

Secondary mechanisms

Secondary fail-safe mechanisms can be subdivided into B-cell extrinsic and intrinsic (Table 1) [2]. The former encompass microenvironmental niches wherein B-cell numbers are regulated, interactions with the complement pathway, the effects of soluble molecules (e.g. cytokines or anti-idiotypic antibodies) and negative T-cell influences (e.g. Tregs, lack of help, and/or direct killing by CD4 and CD8 T-cells) [51,52[•]]. B-cell intrinsic mechanisms, by contrast, include the various signalling pathways and receptors that mediate positive (e.g. CD19 and CD21/35) and negative (e.g. CD22 and FcγRIIB) influences responsible for regulating the threshold of BCR triggering and tonicity [29,53].

Breakdown of B-cell tolerance

This is mainly relevant to self-tolerance, although environmental factors like viruses can play a role in reversal of tolerance to foreign antigens like allografts [2]. Factors responsible for the failure in tolerance fall into the same two broad categories that control the decision between

Table 3

Recently described spontaneous autoimmune susceptibility genes contributing to breakdown of B-cell tolerance^a

Gene	Mouse strain or human population	Associated diseases ^b	Tolerance phenotypes mediated by susceptibility alleles
<i>Mice</i>			
<i>Fcgr2b</i>	NZB/MRL/BXSB/NOD/NZM2410/NZW	SLE	Reduced <i>Fcgr2</i> expression in GC B-cells leads to differentiation of self-reactive B-cells into plasma cells.
<i>Ifi202</i>	NZB	SLE	Increased expression reduces B-cell susceptibility to apoptosis.
<i>Ly108</i>	NZM2410/NZW	SLE	Dampens BCR signalling at immature/transitional stage impairing anergy, receptor editing and deletion.
<i>Cr2</i>	NZM2410/NZW	SLE	Impairment of C3d binding resulting in defective B-cell anergy and abnormal GC response.
<i>Tlr7</i>	BXSB	SLE	Increased expression due to gene duplication on Y Chromosome impairs B-cell tolerance to RNA-associated autoantigens.
<i>Human</i>			
<i>PTPN22</i>	Various	T1D/RA/GD/SLE/MG	Dominant gain of inhibitory function mutation that impairs BCR (and TCR) signalling.
<i>FCRL3</i>	Asian	SLE/RA/GD	Increased expression dampens BCR signalling. Associated with increased autoantibody production.
<i>FCGR2B</i>	Asian/Caucasian	SLE/GP/ITP	Polymorphisms cause reduced induction of this inhibitory molecule on memory B-cells.
<i>PDCD1</i>	Asian/Caucasian/Hispanic	SLE	Decreased expression due to impaired binding of RUNX transcription factor to its enhancer. Functions as an inhibitor of BCR (and TCR) signalling.
<i>BLK</i>	Caucasian	SLE/APS	Decreased expression due to promoter polymorphism is thought to inhibit BCR signalling.
<i>LYN</i>	Caucasian (female)	SLE	Decreased expression due to intronic polymorphism is thought to result in hyper-responsiveness to BCR stimulation. Strong correlation with autoantibody production.
<i>BANK1</i>	Asian/Caucasian	SLE, SSc	Polymorphisms predicted to increase recruitment and activation of Lym and IP3R resulting in sustained BCR signalling and B-cell hyperactivity.
<i>CD40</i>	Asian/Caucasian	RA, GD	Increased surface expression of CD40 on B-cells.

^a Reviewed in [64–67].

^b Abbreviations – APS: primary antiphospholipid antibody syndrome; GD: Grave's disease; GP: Goodpasture's disease; ITP: idiopathic thrombocytopenic purpura; MG: myasthenia gravis; RA: rheumatoid arthritis; SLE: systemic lupus erythematosus; SSc: systemic sclerosis; and T1D: type 1 diabetes.

tolerance and immunity, namely antigen and host (immune system) related (Table 1). From studies in a range of autoimmune-prone murine models expressing BCR transgenes of different avidities to self-antigens or neo-self-antigens, it has become apparent that any of the tolerance checkpoints shown in Figure 1 can be subject to failure depending on the genetic background of the host (Table 2). Similarly, when the frequency of self-reactive specificities was measured in the human B-cell repertoire, defects in tolerance were detected in patients with autoimmune diseases including SLE and rheumatoid arthritis (RA) at the late pre-B to immature and transitional to mature B-cell stages of differentiation, indicative of defects in both central and peripheral tolerance [54]. Several susceptibility genes that specifically contribute to B-cell tolerance defects in different autoimmune diseases are beginning to be identified in animal models as well as humans (Table 3). Not surprisingly, many of these appear to alter the BCR signalling pathway (e.g. *Ly108*, *Cr2*, *FCGR2B*, *PTPN22*, *FCRL3*, *BLK*, *LYN* and *BANK*). Nevertheless, what has also become evident from genetic studies is that full expression of clinical disease depends not only on genes causing a breakdown in B-cell tolerance *per se*, but also on abnormalities in other sets of genes operating along one or more distinct pathways such as those involved in mediating T-cell tolerance, apoptosis and target tissue inflammation. A good example is the development of experimental lupus, which requires defects in at least three pathways: (i) those causing loss of B-cell tolerance to nuclear antigens (e.g. *Ly108* or *PTPN22*); (ii) those mediating dysregulation of innate and adaptive immune systems (e.g. *Thr7* and *FAS*); and (iii) those ultimately responsible for end organ damage rather than influencing the immune system *per se* (e.g. *Ifn- α* and *Icam1*) [10^{*}].

Conclusions

The importance of tolerance in both B-cell and T-cell lineages is now well established. Both lineages are susceptible to deletion and anergy in primary and secondary lymphoid tissues; moreover B-cells with regulatory activity have rejoined their T-cell counterparts in suppressing inflammation at sites of disease including certain autoimmune conditions. What distinguishes central B-cell tolerance in particular is receptor editing that now appears to be more important than deletion in mediating negative selection in the BM. Perhaps not surprisingly defects in this mechanism of *de novo* tolerance are most clearly linked to susceptibility to B-cell-dependent autoimmune diseases like SLE [55^{**},56].

In the periphery, *de novo* and secondary (fail-safe) mechanisms of B-cell unresponsiveness continue to operate, again involving multiple checkpoints. These are mainly important for self-tolerance, given that a second wave of receptor diversification takes place in GC. Among these peripheral mechanisms is the still unresolved but intriguing role that B-cells play as APCs, where they have

been shown to be capable of expanding T_{regs} and either switching off or on effector T-cells specific for foreign and self-antigens. Deciphering the conditions leading to these divergent roles will be essential for optimising the effectiveness of B-cell depleting drugs (e.g. anti-CD20) for the treatment of systemic autoimmune diseases (and, for that matter, graft rejection) in humans. Fortunately, however, peripheral B-cell tolerance is robust and clinical autoimmunity only occurs should genetic defects involving multiple distinct signalling pathways co-associate in the one individual.

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