We are IntechOpen, the world's leading publisher of Open Access books Built by scientists, for scientists

6,300

Open access books available

172,000

International authors and editors

190M

Downloads

Our authors are among the

154

Countries delivered to

TOP 1%

most cited scientists

12.2%

Contributors from top 500 universities

WEB OF SCIENCE™

Selection of our books indexed in the Book Citation Index
in Web of Science™ Core Collection (BKCI)

Interested in publishing with us?
Contact book.department@intechopen.com

Numbers displayed above are based on latest data collected.
For more information visit www.intechopen.com

Immunosuppression in Helminth Infection

Maria Doligalska and Katarzyna Donskow-Łysoniewska
*Department of Parasitology, University of Warsaw, Warsaw
 Poland*

1. Introduction

1.1 Parasitism

Parasitism is an antagonistic relationship between organisms of different species where the parasite benefits at the expense of the host. Helminths are long-living, multicellular parasites. There are two major phyla of helminths; Nematodes and Platyhelminthes. The nematodes contain the intestinal worms known as soil-transmitted helminths including hookworms, whipworms and the filarial worms that cause lymphatic filariasis and onchocerciasis. The Platyhelminthes, known as flatworms, include the flukes and the tapeworms. Both nematodes, flukes and tapeworms widely infect humans and animals (Hotez & Kamath, 2009). Most of the parasitic species causing weakness and disease survive in and explore the host as natural environment. Helminths can be found in a great variety of tissue niches, and although they cause very high morbidity, direct mortality of the host species remains low (Brooker, 2010). Human hookworm infection is a common soil-transmitted helminth infection that is caused by the nematode parasites *Necator americanus* and *Ancylostoma duodenale*. Hookworm infections are asymptomatic however substantially contributes to the incidence of anemia and malnutrition in developing nations (de Silva et al. 2003, WHO 2010).

Filarial diseases are rarely fatal and morbidity of human filariasis results mainly from the host reaction to microfilariae or developing adult worms in different areas of the body. Most of the filarial infected individuals have a subclinical condition associated with patent infection, and acute manifestations which are rarely life threatening. However, chronic manifestations, such as lymphedema (elephantiasis) and hydrocele, are debilitating (Keiser et al., 2002).

Schistosomes, the blood flukes reside in the mesenteric and vesical venules. They have a life span of many years and daily produce large numbers of eggs, which must traverse the gut or bladder tissues on their way to the lumens of the excretory organs. Many of the eggs remain in the host tissues, inducing immunologically mediated granulomatous inflammation and fibrosis (Warren, 1982). The relationship between the presence of schistosome infection and clinical morbidity revealed schistosomiasis-related disease and associated death (Van der Werf et al., 2003).

Worldwide, many cestode infestations occur with very low prevalence of infections and are asymptomatic. Nevertheless some of the more serious infestations result in symptoms from mass effects on vital organs, inflammatory responses, nutritional deficiencies, and the potential of fatal anaphylaxis (Del Brutto, 2005; Morar & Feldman, 2003; Ozturk et al., 2007).

1.2 The outcome of immunosuppression in population

However the immune system is the system responsible for protection against parasites, multicellular helminths which actively destroy host tissue evolved in effective immune system; the aim of parasite-related suppression is to get the right environment for existence and survival. The number of larvae which successfully invade the host, the number of migrating parasites and the number of settled adult forms and their reproductive capacity depend on the activity of the host immune system. Immune recognition, effectiveness of immune reactivity and protective response are the mechanisms that affect parasite abundance and survival in the host. In response to the action of immune system, parasites induce a plethora of mechanisms which evade or manipulate host defence. All these reactions take place at the host-parasite interface and are regulated by gene products of both species. In the evolutionary sense both parasite products and host immune system are adjusted to their intimate relationship.

Genetic population studies shown that helminths have been a major selective force on a subset of interleukin receptor genes (IL genes) from which some genes, have been a target of balancing selection, a process that maintains genetic variability within a population (Fumagalli et al., 2009). Allele frequency, host behaviour and helminth distribution in population may influence of heritable factors both in patterns of infection and immunity (Ellis et al., 2007). It is reflected in the effect of helminths on individual host responses to other pathogens such as microparasites, which is considerable variable. In concurrent infections with multiple coinfecting species, parasites interact with one another through the host's immune system *via* mechanisms such as immune trade-offs and immunosuppression (Ezenwa & Jolles, 2011). A subset of immunomodulatory parasite species may have a key role in structuring other infections in natural vertebrate populations. Affecting expression of toll-like receptors (TLR) are important in initiating immunity; populations free from immunosuppressive parasites may exist at 'unnaturally' elevated levels of innate immune activation, leading to an increased risk of immunopathology (Jackson et al. 2009). The host immunocompetence may give some indications of the control of parasite infection and of the host mediation effect, through immunity, on the parasite community structure (Combes, 1997; Mouritsen & Poulin, 2005). Thus immunosuppression promotes over-dispersal of parasites and favours the most suitable genotype of the host for better propagation of the parasite. As intestinal mucins are an important component of innate defence even a single gene deficiency predisposes to infection with nematodes (Hasnain et al., 2010; McKay and Khan, 2003).

The distribution of parasites among different individuals in the host population, infected with the same helminth species is heterogeneous. A consequence of this is the aggregated distribution of helminth infection in endemic communities; a small proportion of hosts are rapidly, frequently, and/or heavily infected (May & Anderson, 1990). Such a pattern of distribution suggests that some individuals are predisposed to heavy infection and intensity of parasitic infections are also under genetic control (Iraqi et al., 2003, Stear & Wakelin, 1998). It is shown in humans as individual predisposition to infection, ethnic variation in susceptibility to disease and familial aggregation to infection (Quinnell, 2003). Genetic background determines both the favorable level of immune suppression necessary to sustain chronic infection as well as a highly active immune response to eradicate worms from the infected host. In lambs, naturally exposed to nematodes on pasture season, genetics acts mainly through the control of acquired anti-fecundity immune response (Stear et al., 1997). Moreover, as the consequence of anthropogenic changes in natural environment the

evolution of different traits in parasites e.g. specificity, virulence, and polymorphism may be influenced by humans (Lebarbenchon et al., 2008).

1.3 The outcome of immunosuppression in the host

Helminths tend to settle in privileged localization in the host which is reflected in the distinct location of larvae and adults in the host. Helminths need a suitable and non-destructive localization to propagate and transmit their offspring. The state of immune unresponsiveness protects growing larvae during migration through the host tissue. Some nematode species larvae such as *Ascaris* and *Strongylus* undergo extensive migrations which begin and end in the same location, the intestine. Nematodes which migrate during development are usually bigger than their closest relatives that develop wholly within the gastrointestinal tract. Time to reproduction is the same, indicating that worms with a tissue phase during development grow faster in the intestine. Because fecundity is intimately linked with size in nematodes, this provides an explanation for the maintenance of tissue migration by natural selection (Read & Sharping, 1995). For example *Trichinella spiralis* infection results in depression of various parameters of immunity, including delayed type hypersensitivity and responses to bacterial lipopolysaccharide (Barriga, 1978; Beiting et al., 2007; Gerencer et al., 1992). The nematode is a source of macrophage inhibitory factor (TspMIF) and is able to subvert host immunoregulation; MIF has been cloned and characterized with respect to structural, enzymic and cytokine properties (Tan et al., 2001). The maintenance of an immunosuppressed state in the host may improve the fitness of the parasite.

Immunosuppression induced by helminths not only affects the parasite which already has infected the host, but also promotes infection with further infectious larvae. Parasite acquisition is density-dependent and the number of parasites successfully establishing in the host may over time increase with the parasite burden in the host. In long-lasting infections, immunosuppressive mechanisms prevent or limit parasite killing and expulsion; the ongoing infections do not elicit a strong host effector response; infection with one species predisposes for infection with other species and polyparasitism is common (Blaxter, 2003; Ellis & McManus, 2009; Keiser et al., 2002).

2. When immunosuppression is expressed

Immunosuppression may be recognized as; (i) the state when immune system is not specifically suppressed but is not active. That has been characterized for young or older individuals and also with genetic defects resulted in dysfunction of immune system or is artificially induced with immune suppressant for different reason; (ii) suppression activated during immune response which regulates inflammatory reactions and inhibits specific response to sustain the state of physiological homeostasis.

2.1 When the immunosuppression is used

The steady-state of immunosuppression develops as a naturally occurring regulatory pathway resulting in antigen-specific inhibition (von Boehmer, 1991) and the lack of immune response to antigen. Physiological immune homeostasis depends on a balance between the responses to infection or neoplasia and the reciprocal responses that prevent inflammation and autoimmune diseases. These phenomena lead to immunotolerance; the immunosuppressed host fails to respond to the presence of specific antigens or fails to respond to specific antigen. The outcome of these immune-compromising may be beneficial

to the host, through limiting the immunopathology and also beneficial to the pathogen, through subversion of the protective immune responses of the host (Kingston & Mills, 2004). Helminths survive within the host because they may induce the state of physiological and immune compromise and may consequently evade immune attack and actively subvert the host immune response (Mitchell, 1991; Ogilvie & Wilson, 1976).

The immune system does not function efficiently throughout the life of the host. Host individuals are more susceptible to infection when their immune system is less sensitive to antigenic signals and doesn't react as quickly or efficiently to infection (Matzinger, 1994). This immune suppression is related to the physiological state of the host and influences the pattern of infection in the population. Most parasitic species are propagated preferentially in young individuals when the immune system is not completely developed or educated (Roberts, 1999). Especially physiological immunosuppression associated with parturition and lactation and the immunological unresponsiveness of young ruminants allows parasites to increase transmission; these states are correlated with the unresponsiveness of lymphocytes to mitogens (Soulsby, 1987).

Neonatal exposure to antigens appears to develop immune tolerance (Billingham et al., 1956). From the neonate major environmentally associated changes in immune response phenotype occurred (Wilkie et al., 2011) and neonatal T cells were susceptible to induction of tolerance (Gammon et al., 1986). In such immune milieu morbidity is acceptable in the host population. From evolution, it is likely that immunosuppression in the meaning of unresponsiveness or selective mortality of the most sensitive individuals, protect the better (suitable) genotypes of the host which are able to tolerate surviving parasites.

Changes with age in the average intensity of *Ascaris* infection tend to be convex, rising in childhood and declining in adulthood (Bundy et al., 1987). Also piglets are more susceptible to *Trichuris suis* infection than adult pigs (Pedersen & Saeed, 2002). In contrast, hookworm frequently exhibits a steady rise in intensity of infection with age, peaking in adulthood (Hotez et al., 2008). Similarly, *Brugia malayi* infection establishes more rapidly in adults than in children (Terhell et al., 2001). Changes in cytokine phenotype, particularly CD4 T cells, contribute to age-associated switch from *Trichuris muris* resistance to susceptibility in mice (Humphreys & Grencis, 2002). As the parasite load gained through the life differs among parasite and host species, the establishment of infection may be therefore dependent not only on the host immune response but also on parasite-related factors which may actively modulate immune reactions.

The immune system is involved in creating a favorable environment in the tissue for the parasites. The compromise of immune responsiveness by the host endocrine system may support establishment, growth, reproduction and survival of helminths. The contribution of stress, host sex or age may also reflect neuroimmunoendocrine interactions. The gender-dependent immune regulation was identified; adult individuals of Senegalese population chronically infected with *Schistosoma haematobium* parasite presenting similar intensities of infection showed specific IgA response and production of TGF- β and IL-10 significantly higher in females compared to males. This specific profile was supposed to be associated with T helper type-3 (Th3) immune response. Nonimmunological factors like sexual hormones, were proposed to influence the chronicity of the infection (Remoué et al., 2001). Hormones are strongly involved in immune suppression observed in stress-fully conditions which predispose to greater and longer infection or make the host susceptible to infection (Hernandez-Bello et al., 2010). Increases in gastrointestinal nematode egg production in sheep with age were greatest among individuals that had experienced the highest degree of stress (Hayward et al., 2009).

2.2 When the immunosuppression is expressed

Immunosuppression may be reached by different mechanisms in response to a plethora of parasitic molecules and may be expressed at each point of infection; from the ongoing invasion to chronic prolonged infection (Robinson et al., 2010). When parasites enter host tissues, a balance between the host effector mechanisms and the defense by the parasite have to be established allowing the survival of a number of larvae that escape from the first immune attack, and as long as some parasites persist, are able to act as effectors to regulate immune responses. One of the possibilities to cope with host defence is to inhibit innate immunity. Helminth derived products are able to modulate the function of non-immune and immune cells (Perrigoue et al, 2008). T cell hyporesponsiveness to antigen-specific stimuli from the beginning of infection may support survival of the developing stages of the parasite (Schwartz, 2003; Taylor et al., 2009). Induced hyporesponsiveness of T cells as a defect in lymphocyte function may contribute to the failure of the immune system to eliminate filarial nematodes (W. Harnett & M.M. Harnett, 2008; W. Harnett & M.M. Harnett, 2006). In ruminants immunosuppression caused by parasites leads to reduced responsiveness of lymphocytes to mitogens (Soulsby, 1987).

Helminth infections induce regulatory T cells (Treg: Tr1, Th3) secreting IL-10 and transforming growth factor (TGF- β) (Doetze et al, 2000) as well as CD4⁺CD25⁺ Treg expressing the Foxp3 transcription factor in the host (Cervi et al.; 2009; Pacífico et al., 2009). These regulatory T cells can alter the course of inflammatory disorders by increased production of IL-10 and TGF- β , together with induction of CD25⁺CD4⁺ Foxp3⁺ T cells (Correale & Farez, 2007). This also may represent a potential explanation regarding how exposure to a parasite could alter immune reactivity to unrelated stimuli.

Parasites release products whose molecular structure and specificity may be changed during infection and most parasite immune evasion mechanisms depend on a form of molecular recognition between parasite and host. Helminths especially in long lasting infection produce factors that interfere with the tissue of the host and for that many helminth-derived substances are considered as immune modulators (W. Harnett & M.M. Harnett, 2008; Harn et al., 2009; Imai & Fujita, 2004). Infection with helminths drives CD4⁺ T cell biasing towards Th2-types and also induces the state of immunosuppression or anergy (Stadecker, 1992; Tawill et al., 2004).

From the beginning of infection down regulation of innate response may occur. Typically for helminthic infections, expanded populations of eosinophils, basophils, mast cells and macrophages appear (Anthony et al., 2007; Jenkins & Allen, 2010). Nitric oxide produced by activated macrophages, eosinophils and other myeloid cells, is involved in many signalling pathways and may mediate induction of immunosuppression (Stamler et al., 1992). Hookworm infection inducing NO production is associated with impaired function of antigen-presenting cells and depletion of lymphocyte subpopulations (Dondji et al., 2008); myeloid cells derived from helminth infected animals exhibit antiproliferative properties (Mylonas et al., 2000).

Myeloid suppressor cells displaying an alternative activation phenotype CD11b/GR-1 emerged gradually in progression of *Taenia crassiceps* infection and in the late stage of infection, the suppressive activity relied on arginase activity, which facilitated the production of reactive oxygen species including H₂O₂ and superoxide (Brys et al., 2005). These cells are potent to impair antigen-specific T cell responses (Terrazas et al., 2001). Helminth extracts activate various macrophage populations and the most active in regulation of immune response are alternatively activated macrophages (AAM Φ) (Herbert et al., 2004).

2.3 Immunosuppression for tissue repair

During helminth infections Th2 immune responses and parasitic-related products downregulate immunity; both of which minimize pathology in the host (Maizels & Yazdanbakhsh, 2003; Tawill et al., 2004).

Macrophages are frequently the most abundant cell type recruited to the site of helminth infection but their activation and role are strictly dependent on the stage of infection and localization of the parasite. In the construction of tissue homeostasis suppression of inflammation is propagated by AAM Φ as anti-inflammatory down-regulatory cells (Allen & Loke, 2001; Villanueva et al., 1994). These cells are sources of TGF- β and IL-10 (Mylonas et al., 2009; Loke et al., 2000) as well prostaglandins PGE2 (Rodriguez-Sosa et al., 2002) and the IL-1 receptor antagonist (Goerdts & Orfanos, 1999). AAM Φ are also involved in repairing tissue or wound healing followed migration of larvae through the host tissue (Gratchev et al., 2001; Munder et al., 1998). Activation of myeloid cells may represent not only the state of innate protection but also have been already activated by helminth products and represent suppressor or repair responses.

Metazoan parasites localized in the tissue require a supply of nutrients and the removal of waste products therefore angiogenesis may be a key mechanism for helminth survival and presumably depend on the host tissue. The multifactorial induction of parasitic helminth-associated neovascularization could arise through, either a host-, a parasite- or a host-/parasite-dependent, angiogenic switch (Dennis et al., 2011). It is possible that mechanisms that downregulate the inflammatory reaction and support wound healing are the main outcome of immunosuppression in the host tissue. Upon immunosuppression, the activation or efficacy of the immune response is reduced. Some portions of the immune system itself have immunosuppressive effects on other parts of the immune system, and immunosuppression may also occur as an adverse reaction to treatment of other conditions. It is really that helminths inducing inflammatory responses provoke opposite or reverse reactions of immune cells (Erb, 2009). Depending on the parasite stages and their localization a distinct local and systemic immune reaction may be observed in the host tissue (Löscher & Saathoff, 2008). The rapid and persistent release of tegument glycoconjugates play a key role in immune evasion and life-long inflammation seen in many neurocysticercosis patients (Alvarez et al., 2008). The production of pro-inflammatory cytokines is often required to control parasites but the same cytokines contribute to immunopathology. In the tissue, cytokines and prostaglandins or glucocorticoid hormones may differentially suppress an inflammatory response provoked by the parasite (Dhabhar, 2009; Noverr et al., 2003; Wiegers & Reul, 1998). The immunosuppressive effect may be also maintained by other mechanisms such as induction of immunosuppressive B cells (Wilson et al., 2010) and regulatory function in helminth infection is also pointed for B cells. IL-10 and TGF- β are secreted from B cells during *Schistosoma mansoni* infection (Velupillai & Harn, 1994) or in mice infected with *Brugia pahangi* (Gillan et al., 2005).

2.4 The action of immunosuppressive factors

Immune non-responsiveness may also be the result of particular external processes such as deactivation of immune molecules or factors by helminthic products. Helminth parasites secrete considerable quantities of proteins and glycoproteins into the host environment, many of which are capable of modulating antiparasite immunity. Such molecules interfere with crucial stages in the immune response such as extravasations (blocked by parasite lectins and glycans through binding to endothelial selectins), chemokine attraction

(hookworms release proteases capable of degrading eotaxin), release of host proteases (inhibited by helminth serpins), attack by reactive nitrogen and oxygen intermediates by eosinophils and other effector cells (inhibited by helminth antioxidants such as glutathione-S-transferase) (Falcone et al., 2004; Maizels et al., 2004).

Helminth parasites may also secrete cytokine homologues such as TGF- β and produce protease inhibitors that are capable of blocking peptide antigen presentation and of eliciting an IL-10 response from macrophages. Immune non-responsiveness may also be the result of deactivation of immune molecules or factors by helminthic products such as macrophage migration inhibitory factor (Vermeire et al., 2008). Lipid-like molecules of schistosomes such as lyso-PS can interact with dendritic cells to induce T regulatory phenotypes in naïve T cells (van der Kleij et al., 2002) and homologous molecules have been identified in *Ascaris*. Potent immunosuppressive effect of *Ascaris suum* extract components on the host immune system was related to their property of down-regulating the antigen presenting ability of dendritic cells *via* an IL-10-mediated mechanism (Silva et al., 2006). Filariae cystatin as immunoregulator exploits host signalling events to regulate cytokine production in macrophages (Klotz et al., 2011).

The efficiency of the innate response is crucial for invasion and survival of arriving larvae. Key attack points for selective immunoregulation conducted by parasites rely on (i) modulation of antigen recognition with changes in pathways of signal transduction; (ii) costimulation blockade; (iii) induction of regulatory cells; (iv) deviation to protective responses; (v) neutralization of proinflammatory cytokines; (vi) induction of anti-inflammatory cytokines and; (vii) modulation of leukocyte trafficking. Immunosuppressive action of parasites can be primarily directed to antigen-presenting cells (APC) and induction of suppressor/regulatory T cells and macrophages, with the common effect to selectively inhibition of local or systemic immune response.

2.5 How and when to get the immunosuppression

2.5.1 Innate and adaptive immune response

Innate immunity provides the first line of defence against invading pathogens. Excretory – secretory products released by helminths described as conserved molecular patterns associated with the pathogen (PAMP) may interact with the host pattern recognition receptor (PRRs) (Jackson et al., 2009). Different carbohydrate moieties of helminths molecules are recognized by toll-like receptors (Medzhitov, 2007) and the C-type lectins receptors on dendritic cells and macrophages (Cambi et al., 2005). As a consequence of ligation, these DC will receive signals that are subsequently translated into different sets of Th1-, Th2-, or Treg-polarizing molecules. However, TLR ligation by helminth derived factors is recognized as a mechanism to limit of Th1 cytokine-mediated inflammation. Mature DC generated during helminth infection express relatively low levels of co-stimulatory molecules and proinflammatory cytokines promoting proliferation of CD4-positive T cells with Th2 phenotypes (MacDonald & Maizels, 2008; Semnani et al., 2008). Regulation of the host response starts from the recognition of the parasite; helminths products are able to stimulate partially activated dendritic cells with suppressed expression of TLRs and activate factors which promote Th2 and Treg phenotypes (Jackson et al., 2008). Some molecules which are released during tissue damage may interact with and induce anti-inflammatory effects (Ehlers & Ravetch, 2007).

Helminths strongly drive Th2-cell differentiation (Liu et al., 2005). Th2 related defence is involved in protective immune responses to helminths and is dominated by IL-4, IL5 and IL-

IL-13 production (Finkelman et al., 2004). During Th2 related response, in addition to IL-4, IL-13, IL-5, IL-9, and IL-10 (Anthony et al., 2007). Th2 cells can make IL-25 and IL-33 (Fallon et al., 2006; Neill et al., 2010) which can further promote and/or regulate Th2 immune responses. IL-10 is differentially used by helminths to regulate immune response and as produced by different cells *in vivo* downregulates both Th1 and Th2 response (Hoffman et al., 2000; Taylor et al., 2006). Induction of type 2 immune responses may also be influenced by thymic stromal lymphopoietin (TSLP) synthesized by epithelial cells, and blocking IL-12 production can condition dendritic cells to promote Th2 cell development (Rimoldi et al., 2005). The innate cell sources of factors promoting Th2 and Treg response were only now proposed as a new innate type-2 immune effector leukocyte that were named the nuocyte. Nuocytes expand *in vivo* in response to the type-2-inducing cytokines IL-25 and IL-33, and represent the predominant early source of IL-13 during helminth infection with *Nippostrongylus brasiliensis* (Neill et al., 2010).

Apoptosis is mechanism which is involved in regulation of cell abundance during immune response. Cells induced to die release extramembrane phosphatidylserine which causes differentiation of immature dendritic cells to cells with a tolerogenic phenotype which favours anti-inflammatory responses (Steinman et al., 2000; Wallet et al., 2005). However, a plethora of helminths are able to modulate host apoptosis pathways to their own advantage. The involvement of apoptosis in immune regulation of the host immune function was proposed as one possible mechanism in creating the host–parasite relationship. The relative numbers of activated cells in both tissue and lymph nodes *via* the apoptotic pathway could determine pathology (Donskow-Schmelter & Doligalska, 2005). There is growing evidence that parasites can regulate apoptosis of T cells. Apoptosis can be triggered by diverse stimuli (Domen, 2001), including stimulation *via* T cells, Fas receptor, TNF receptors, glucocorticoids, removal of growth factors and enhanced expression of some proteases. In mice infected with microfilariae of the filariae nematode *B. malayi*, CD4⁺ T cells showed high levels of apoptosis and displayed an antigen specific proliferative defect what is related to elevated macrophages activity (Jenson et al., 2002). Parasites may provoke apoptosis directly by secretion of active mediators or indirectly by producing an inflammatory milieu that promotes death of reactive T cells.

2.5.2 The regulation of immunosuppression by *Heligmosomoides polygyrus*

The *H. polygyrus* nematode is known to induce a dominant Th2 CD4⁺ response and it provides an excellent example of downregulation of immune responsiveness. The adult worms had a potent immunosuppressive influence on the mouse host, but the histotropic L4 larvae provided the strongest signal for acquired immunity (Wahid & Behnke, 1992). In helminths, glycans provide a major contribution to the induction of Th2 development which is strongly skewed but the effectiveness of these responses for elimination or maintenance of the parasite is not fully elucidated. Additionally, in response to IL-4 and/or IL-13 producing cells, alternatively activated macrophages are activated, and express high levels of PRR. These population of cells produce high amounts of IL-10 and TGF- β but fail to generate NO (Gordon, 2003; Rodríguez-Sosa et al., 2002) and therefore may contribute to the general immune hyporesponsiveness observed in helminth-infected individuals (Leng et al., 2006; van Riet et al., 2007). Profoundly downregulatory cytokine TGF- β is critical to the immunosuppression induced by nematodes. Neutralization of these cytokines in human peripheral blood lymphocyte (PBL) cultures reversed antigen responsiveness toward filarial antigens (Cooper et al., 2001). Neutralization of TGF- β in BALB/c infected with *H. polygyrus* mice did not affect the Th2 related immune response (Doligalska et al., 2006). However

adult worms might express ligands from the TGF-β superfamily- TGH-2 to bind to mammalian TGF-β receptors which may induce naïve T cells to adopt a regulatory T-cell phenotype; thereby promoting long-term survival of parasites (Peng et al., 2004).

Intestinal submucosa	Reference	Mesenteric lymph node	Reference
L3 Larvae			
Neutrophils↑	Morimoto et al., 2004	T cells proliferation↑	Doligalska et al., 2006
Eosinophils↑	Morimoto et al., 2004	CD4 ⁺ T cells apoptosis↓	Doligalska et al., 2006
AAMΦ↓	Morimoto et al., 2004		
Basophils↓	Anthony et al., 2006		
Mast cells↓	Morimoto et al., 2004		
CD4 ⁺ T cells↑	Morimoto et al., 2004		
CD8 ⁺ T cells↓	Liu et al., 2007		
B cells↓	Liu et al., 2007		
<i>Cytokines & chemokines</i>		<i>Cytokines & chemokines</i>	
IL-4↑, IL-13↑, IL-6↑	Donskow-Schmelter et al., 2008	IL-4↓, IL-6↓	Doligalska et al., 2007
IL-2↑, IL-12p70↑, IFN-γ↑	Donskow-Schmelter et al., 2008	IL-2↓, IL-12 p70↓, IFN-γ↓	Doligalska et al., 2007
TNF-α↑, IL-10↑, MCP-1↑	Donskow-Schmelter et al., 2008	TNF-α↑, IL-10 , MCP-1↑	Doligalska et al., 2007
		TGF-β↓	Doligalska et al., 2006
L4 Larvae			
AAMΦ↑	Kreider et al., 2007	T cells proliferation↓	Doligalska et al., 2006
CAMΦ↓	Donskow-Schmelter et al., 2008	CD4 ⁺ T cells apoptosis↓	Doligalska et al., 2006
CD4 ⁺ T cells↓	Kreider et al., 2007		
CD8 ⁺ T cells↓	Kreider et al., 2007		
<i>Cytokines & chemokines</i>		<i>Cytokines & chemokines</i>	
IL-4↓ , IL-13↓, IL-6↑	Donskow-Schmelter et al., 2008	IL-4↓, IL-6↓	Doligalska et al., 2007
IL-2↓, IL-12p70↑, IFN-γ↑	Donskow-Schmelter et al., 2008	IL-2↓, IL-12 p70↓, IFN-γ↓	Doligalska et al., 2007
TNF-α↑, IL-10↓, MCP-1↑	Donskow-Schmelter et al., 2008	TNF-α↑, IL-10↓, MCP-1↓	Doligalska et al., 2007
		TGF-β↑	Doligalska et al., 2006
Adult worms			
Eosinophils ↓	Doligalska et al., 2006	T cells proliferation↓	Donskow et al., 2011
AAMΦ ↑	Anthony et al., 2006	CD4 ⁺ T cells apoptosis ↓	Donskow et al., 2011
CD4 ⁺ T cells ↓	Doligalska et al., 2006	CD8 ⁺ T cells apoptosis↓	Donskow et al., 2011
CD8 ⁺ T cells↑	Metwali, 2008	CD4 ⁺ CD25 ^{hi} Treg apoptosis↓	Donskow et al., 2011
CD4 ⁺ CD25 ^{hi} Treg ↑	Metwali, 2008		
<i>Cytokines & chemokines</i>		<i>Cytokines & chemokines</i>	
IL-4↑, IL-13↓, IL-6↓	Donskow-Schmelter et al., 2008	IL-4↓, IL-6↑	Doligalska et al., 2007
IL-2↓, IL-12p70↑, IFN-γ↓	Donskow-Schmelter et al., 2008	IL-2↓, IL-12 p70↓, IFN-γ ↑	Doligalska et al., 2007
TNF-α↓, IL-10↑, MCP-1↓	Donskow-Schmelter et al., 2008	TNF-α↑, IL-10↑, MCP-1↑	Doligalska et al., 2007
IL-5↑	Doligalska et al., 2006	TGF-β↑	Doligalska et al., 2006
IL-17↓	Elliott et al., 2009	IL-17↓	Elliott et al., 2009

Table 1. Cellular and cytokines responses to *H. polygyrus* infection in BALB/c mice. *H. polygyrus* is trichostrongylid nematode parasite used as a model of human gastrointestinal nematode infection. Within 24 hrs of infection by gavage larvae, the stage L3, penetrate the submucosa of duodenum. The fourth larval molt takes place about 90-96 hrs after infection and larvae reside in for 8 days. Pre-adult stage re-enter the lumen of the intestine and mature to adult stages. *H. polygyrus* infection in BALB/c mice is widely used for studies of parasite immunomodulation. BALB/c mice moderately respond to *H. polygyrus* infection and the immunoresponsiveness of this strains is well documented (Donskow-Schmelter et al., 2008). The *H. polygyrus* causes chronic, asymptomatic infection. Primary exposure to L3 larvae results in an upregulation of the Th2 cytokine response, minimal damage in the tissue provoked by L4 larvae and significant reduction of inflammation by adult stages. AAMΦ, alternatively activated macrophage; CAMΦ, classically activated macrophage

The induced immunosuppressive mechanisms including apoptosis of activated cells is dependent on the host genotype (Donskow-Schmelter et al., 2007). The other immune response of fast FVB responder and slow C57Bl/6 responder mice during infection with *H. polygyrus* is associated with differences in apoptosis of CD4⁺ T cells in mesenteric lymph nodes (MLN). The apoptosis of these lymphocytes at the beginning of infection, when the first immune signal is given by infective L3 larvae, might play an important role in the modulation of the response in C57Bl/6 slow responder (Donskow-Schmelter, et al., 2007) but not in fast responder mice.

The expression of host-protective immunity to *H. polygyrus* was dependent on the development of resistance to the immunomodulatory factors secreted by the worms (Behnke & Parish, 1979). The differences in sensitivity of T cells to apoptosis is provoked by distinct protein production by *H. polygyrus* worms in different strains of mice (Morgan et al., 2006). Calreticulin or other proteins produced by *H. polygyrus* (Morgan et al., 2006; Rzepecka et al., 2006) in slow responder mouse could be responsible for the observed apoptosis in C56Bl/6 mice. The recombinant form of human hookworm calreticulin can disturb the complement cascade and induce cell apoptosis *in vitro* (Kasper et al., 2001; Chow et al., 2000) thereby supporting chronic infection (Donskow-Schmelter et al., 2007).

Interestingly, in resistant strains immunosuppression during infection does not affect the outcome of parasite-induced apoptosis, but results from a hyporesponsiveness experienced by CD4⁺ T cells during *H. polygyrus* infection (Doligalska et al., 2006). In the prepatent and chronic phase of infection, CD4⁺ T cells that are leaving the MLN survive better, do not proliferate and already have a hyporesponsive or anergic phenotype induced by CD4⁺CD25^{hi} T cells which increased in number (Donskow et al., 2011).

Chronic helminth infections are associated with a general hyporesponsiveness in which the activity of regulatory T cells can induce peripheral tolerance and constrain mucosal reactivity. However, little is known about particular helminth molecules that can induce Treg cells but characterization of some of them has started. The role of native and adaptive regulatory T cells and CD8⁺ lymphocytes have been elucidated. The *H. polygyrus* downregulation of immune responsiveness, is attributable in part to the activity of host natural Treg cells with the CD4⁺CD25^{hi} phenotype (Finney et al., 2007) and regulatory CD8⁺ T cells (Metwali et al., 2006). The expansion of CD4⁺CD25^{hi} Treg cells in mice MLN is a consequence of inhibited apoptosis of this subpopulation regulated by glucocorticoid during the infection (Donskow et al., 2011). *H. bakeri* antigen modulates CD4⁺ positive T cell resistance to glucocorticoid induced apoptosis by inducing overexpression of Bcl-2 and FLICE-like inhibitory protein (FLIP). They are transcriptionally regulated by the transcription factor, nuclear factor kappa B (NF- κ B) (Doligalska, unpublished data).

Additionally colonization with *H. polygyrus* induces a mucosal CD8⁺ T cell that inhibits proliferation of CD4⁺ T cells and CD8⁺ T cells through a contact and transporter associated with antigen processing (TAP)-dependent mechanism (Metwali et al., 2006). These observations have far-reaching implications. Undoubted host parasite relationships are complex and there may be several mechanisms by which parasites could protect host from inflammation.

Helminths and their hosts need to achieve a state of homeostatic balance in which regulatory mechanisms operate for the survival of both the parasite and the host. Molecular signalling and cross-talk between cells of the endocrine, neuronal or immune systems and secreted factors such as hormones, neuropeptides, cytokines and chemokines influence the course of infection and severity of disease. Neural pathways regulate immune response at

regional, local and systemic levels through neurotransmitters and neuropeptides, and may have variable effects on immune cell activation and cytokine production. In turn, cytokines and chemokines produced both at peripheral inflammatory sites and/or locally in the CNS can modulate neural tissue function and hormonal secretion by endocrine glands (Delgado et al., 2004; Escobedo et al., 2005; Hernandez-Bello et al., 2010). One consequence of the invasion of nematode larvae is inflammation and tissue damage which provokes immunosuppression and analgesia. An increased number of neuronal opioid receptors on neurons is necessary for analgesic effects of opioids and their expression on immune effector cells allows immunomodulatory effects.

H. polygyrus is a strictly intestinal nematode and displays no systemic migration during its development in the host. L3 larvae briefly inhabit the duodenal wall and during this period the inflammation provoked by the larvae is regulated by opioids (Donskow-Schmelter et al., 2008). The endogenous opioid peptides have a wide array of immunomodulatory effects on the immune system, directly through MOR opioid receptor of macrophages and indirectly through the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis. The administration of naltrexone (NLX), an oral antagonist of opioid receptors which completely blocks the effects of opioid agonists in mice infected with L4 larvae, caused a dramatic increase in classically activated macrophages (CAM Φ) activity; NO and cytokine production and migration. Additionally, as end-effectors of the HPA axis, endogenous glucocorticoids play an important role in the suppression of immunity by induction of CD4⁺CD25⁺ Treg lymphocytes. The opioid action is strictly determined by tissue damage; adult worms in the intestinal lumen inhibit inflammation without opioid receptor-linked mechanism activation (Donskow-Schmelter et al., 2008).

2.5.3 "Therapeutic helminths"

Nematode suppress the immunity generated by infection and also affect systemic responses to other non-nematode antigens (Barthlott et al., 2003). For this reason there has been a dramatic increase in the prevalence of immune-mediated diseases in areas where previously common exposure to helminths is now rare. These observations suggest that the parasites produce a natural governor that helps to prevent autoimmune disease such as inflammatory bowel disease (IBD), asthma, autoimmune diabetes (type I) or multiple sclerosis (Yazdanbakhsh et al., 2001). Laboratory and clinical studies confirm that nematodes can both prevent disease onset and reverse ongoing diseases.

The development of immunologically well-defined laboratory models of nematode infection helps to understand the immunological basis of effector mechanisms operating during these and other infections. Infected mice develop immunological characteristics which are very similar to those observed in m infection in man. *H. polygyrus* infection in mice is a laboratory model which generates new information in the wider fields of allergic and autoimmune inflammatory disorders.

Nematode infection of humans and animals induce immune responses which are characterized by the production of Th2 associated cytokines IL-4, IL-5, IL-10, IL-13 and Treg associated cytokines IL-10 and TGF- β . This type of response generally down regulates the Th1 immune responses and persists for the duration of the infection. *H. polygyrus* infection suppresses asthma in a murine model by induction of CD4⁺CD25⁺Foxp3⁺ regulatory T cells and IL-10 production (Wilson et. al., 2005). In ovalbumin (OVA) induced asthmatic mice infected with *H. polygyrus* reduced Th2 responses and eosinophil responses by down-regulation of eotaxin concentration, reduced CCR3 chemokine receptor expression on

eosinophils and decreased chemotactic activity of these cells toward eotaxin (Rzepecka et al., 2006). The suppression of OVA-induced inflammation by *Nippostrongylus brasiliensis* is additionally strictly mediated by IL-10 (Wohlleben et al., 2004). IL-10 which is a component of the natural host response to infection with enteric helminth parasites could be the key for therapeutic benefit.

T. spiralis, *Trichuris trichiura* and *H. polygyrus* infection protects animals from IBD (Elliott et al., 2007), but the complex pathways activated by nematodes to regulate the host's immune system, especially during *colitis*, is unknown. The combined induction of both Th2 (Setiawan et al., 2007) and Treg cells (Elliott et al., 2005) provoked by concurrent infection with *H. polygyrus* only partly explain the beneficial effects in mice with *colitis*. The inflammatory infiltrate in *colitis* is both Th1- and Th2-mediated. Therefore, additional parasite-induced mechanisms reduce inflammation.

Such regulatory cells can control self-reactive T cells and are functionally important in limiting inflammation in various animal models of IBD. In addition, *H. polygyrus* suppression of *colitis* requires CD8⁺ T cells, suggesting that such these population of T cells may be important for this protection (Metwali et al., 2006). Furthermore, a resistance of *Schistosoma mansoni* infected mice to dextran sulfate sodium (DSS) induced *colitis* is macrophage dependent but not mediated by alternatively activated macrophages in the colon (Smith et al., 2007). *H. polygyrus* reduced established *colitis* by proopiomelanocortin- α (Pomc- α) and MOR opioid pathway (Donskow, unpublished data).

Recently treatment with living helminths such as *T. suis* or *N. americanus*, was initiated to control Cohn's disease, ulcerative colitis and asthma in human (Ruyssers et al., 2008). The opportunity to reveal novel ways to manipulate the human immune system to treat autoimmune inflammatory diseases by utilization of the natural response of the host to infection is exciting. In order that they may survive for long periods in an adverse and aggressive environment, nematodes secrete several soluble factors that interact with host cells. Some of these molecules may modify host-cell homeostasis and increase the susceptibility to infection and oncogenic factors. Undoubtedly, host parasite relationships are complex and there may be several mechanisms by which parasites induce immunosuppression and modulate host cells. Therapeutic helminth infection of humans needs to be closely examined for potential adverse side effects. For this reason the complex pathways that nematodes activate to regulate the host's immune system need further investigation.

3. Conclusions

Helminth infections are widely distributed. The extended survival of parasitic worms suggests that they are successful in an evolutionary sense. It is because they survive in and explore the host as natural environment. Helminths are often long lived and support tolerogenic reactions in host tissue rather than devastating immune reactions; they may induce the state of physiological and immune compromise and may consequently evade immune attack and actively subvert the host immune response. The immunosuppressive reactions provoked by different stages of the parasite in different periods of the host life span are embroiled in the host-parasite relationship and in this sense sustain the state of physiological homeostasis.

Helminths seeking for survive themselves using a plethora of mechanisms have been a major selective force for the host population and may influence of heritable factors both in patterns of infection and host immunity. The state of immune unresponsiveness in the host

protects growing larvae during migration through the tissue and allow for non-destructive localization of adults to propagate and transmit their offspring. The maintenance of an immunosuppressed state in the host may improve the fitness of the parasite, promotes infection with further infectious larvae. Infection with one species predisposes also for infection with other species. As the parasite load gained through the life differs among parasite and host species, the establishment of infection may be therefore dependent not only on the host immune response but also on parasite-related factors which may actively modulate immune reactions. Immunosuppression may be reached by different mechanisms in response to a plethora of parasitic molecules and may be expressed at each point of infection. Helminths especially in long lasting infection produce factors that directly interfere with the tissue of the host and for that many helminths-derived substances are considered as immune modulators.

The efficiency of the innate response is crucial for invasion and survival of arriving larvae. Key attack points for selective immunoregulation conducted by parasites rely on: modulation of antigen recognition with changes in pathways of signal transduction; costimulation blockade; induction of regulatory cells; deviation to protective responses, neutralization of proinflammatory cytokines, induction of anti-inflammatory cytokines and modulation of leukocyte trafficking. Immunosuppressive action of parasites can be primarily directed to antigen-presenting cells (APC) and induction of suppressor/regulatory T cells and macrophages with the common effect to selectively inhibition of local or systemic immune response. The development of immunologically well-defined laboratory models of nematode infection helps to understand the immunological basis of effector mechanisms operating during hyperactive or auto-destructive disorders. *Heligmosomoides bakeri* related mechanisms involved in suppression of immune response in mice as representing for regulation of the host immune response are proposed. Helminths and their hosts need to achieve a state of homeostatic balance in which immunosuppressive and regulatory mechanisms operate for the survival of both the parasite and the host.

4. Acknowledgment

This research was supported through the Polish Ministry of Science and Higher Education (NN 303 819140 and NN 303 357233). We thank Professor M.J. Stear for help with the English.

5. References

- Allen, J.E. & Loke, P. (2001). Divergent roles for macrophages in lymphatic filariasis. *Parasite Immunology*, Vol.23, No.7, (July 2001), pp. 345-352, ISSN 0141-9838
- Alvarez, J.I.; Rivera, J. & Teale, J.M. (2008). Differential release and phagocytosis of tegument glycoconjugates in neurocysticercosis: implications for immune evasion strategies. *PLoS Neglected Tropical Diseases*, Vol.2, Issue 4, (April 2008), pp. e218, ISSN 1935-2727
- Anthony, R.M.; Rutitzky, L.I.; Urban J.F.Jr.; Stadecker, M.J. & Gause, W.C. (2007). Protective immune mechanisms in helminth infection. *Nature Reviews Immunology*, Vol.7, Issue 12, (December 2007), pp. 975-987, ISSN 1474-1733
- Anthony, R.M.; Urban, J.F.Jr.; Alem, F.; Hamed, H.A.; Rozo, C.T.; Boucher, J-L.; van Rooijen, N. & Gause, W.C. (2006). Memory TH2 cells induce alternatively activated

- macrophages to mediate protection against nematode parasites. *Nature Medicine*, Vol.12, No.8, (August 2006), pp. 955–960, ISSN 1078-8956
- Barriga, O.O. (1978). Depression of cell-mediated immunity following inoculation of *Trichinella spiralis* extract in the mouse. *Immunology*, Vol.34, Issue 1, (January 1978), pp. 167-173, ISSN 0019-2805
- Barthlott, T.; Kassiotis, G. & Stockinger, B. (2003). T cell regulation as a side effect of homeostasis and competition. *The Journal of Experimental Medicine*, Vol.197, No.4, (February 2003), pp. 451-460, ISSN 0022-1007
- Behnke, J.M. & Robinson, M. (1985). Genetic control of immunity to *Nematospiroides dubius*: a 9-day anthelmintic abbreviated immunizing regime which separates weak and strong responder strains of mice. *Parasite Immunology*, Vol. 7, Issue 3, (May 1985), pp. 235-253, ISSN 0141-9838
- Beiting, D.P.; Gagliardo, L.F.; Hesse, M.; Bliss, S.K.; Meskill, D. & Appleton, J.A. (2007). Coordinated control of immunity to muscle stage *Trichinella spiralis* by IL-10, regulatory T cells, and TGF- β . *The Journal of Immunology*, Vol.178, No.2, (January 2007), pp. 1039-1047, ISSN 0022-1767
- Billingham, R. E.; Brent, L. & Medawar, B.P. (1956). Quantitative studies of tissue transplantation immunity. III. Acutely acquired tolerance. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London. Series B, Biological Sciences*, Vol.239, No.666, (March 1956), pp. 357-414, ISSN 0080-4622
- Blaxter, M.L. (2003). Nematoda: Genes, genomes and the evolution of parasitism. *Advances in Parasitology*, Vol.54, pp. 101-195, ISSN 0065-308X
- Brooker, S. (2010). Estimating the global distribution and disease burden of intestinal nematode infections: Adding up the numbers – A review. *International Journal for Parasitology*, Vol.40, Issue 10, (August 2010), pp. 1137-1144, ISSN 0020-7519
- Brys, L.; Beschin, A.; Raes, G.; Ghassabeh, G.H.; Noel, W.; Brandt, J.; Brombacher, F. & De Baetselier, P. (2005). Reactive oxygen species and 12/15-lipoxygenase contribute to the antiproliferative capacity of alternatively activated myeloid cells elicited during helminth infection. *The Journal of Immunology*, Vol.174, No.10, (May 2005), pp. 6095-6104, ISSN 0022-1767
- Bundy, D.A.P.; Cooper, E.S.; Thompson, D.E.; Didier, J.M. & Simmons, I. (1987). Epidemiology and population dynamics of *Ascaris lumbricoides* and *Trichuris trichiura* infection in the same community. *Transactions of the Royal Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene*, Vol.81, Issue 6, (November-December 1987), pp. 987-993, ISSN 00359203
- Cambi, A.; Koopman, M. & Figdor, C.G. (2005). How C-type lectins detect pathogens. *Cellular Microbiology*, Vol.7, Issue 4, (April 2005), pp. 481-488, ISSN 1462-5814
- Capron, A. & Dessaint, J.P. (1992). Immunologic aspects of *Schistosomiasis*. *Annual Review of Medicine*, Vol.43, (February 1992), pp. 209-218, ISSN 0066-4219
- Cervi, L.; Serradell, M.C.; Guasconi, L. & Masih, D.T. (2009). New insights into the modulation of immune response by *Fasciola hepatica* excretory-secretory products. *Current Immunology Reviews*, Vol.5, No.4, (November 2009), pp. 277-284, ISSN 1573-3955
- Combes, C. (1997). Fitness of parasites: Pathology and selection. *International Journal for Parasitology*, Vol.27, Issue 1, (January 1997), pp. 1-10, ISSN 0020-7519
- Cooper, P.J.; Mancero, T.; Espinel, M.; Sandoval, C.; Lokato, R.; Guderian, R.H. & Nutman, T.B. (2001). Early human infection with *Onchocerca volvulus* is associated with an

- enhanced parasite-specific cellular immune response. *The Journal of Infectious Diseases*, Vol.183, Issue 11, (June 2001), pp. 1662-1668, ISSN 0022-1899
- Correale, J. MD & Farez, M. MD. (2007). Association between parasite infection and immune responses in multiple sclerosis. *Annals of Neurology*, Vol.61, Issue 2, (February 2007), pp. 97-108, ISSN 0364-5134
- Del Brutto, O.H. (2005). Neurocysticercosis. *Seminars in Neurology*, Vol.25, Issue 3, (September 2005), pp. 243-251, ISSN 0271-8235
- Delgado, M.; Pozo, D. & Ganea, D. (2004). The significance of vasoactive intestinal peptide in immunomodulation. *Pharmacological Reviews*, Vol.56, No.2, (June 2004), pp. 249-290, ISSN 0031-699
- Dennis, R.D.; Schubert, U. & Bauer, C. (2011). Angiogenesis and parasitic helminth-associated neovascularization. *Parasitology*, Vol.138, Issue 4, (April 2011), pp. 426-439, ISSN 1469-8161
- de Silva, N.R.; Brooker, S.; Hotez, P.J.; Montresor, A.; Engels, D. & Savioli, L. (2003). Soil-transmitted helminth infections: updating the global picture. *Trends in Parasitology*, Vol.19, No.12, (December 2003), pp. 547-551, ISSN 1471-4922
- Dhabhar, F.S. (2009). Enhancing versus suppressive effects of stress on immune function: implications for immunoprotection and immunopathology. *Neuroimmunomodulation*, Vol.16, No.5, (June 2009), pp. 300-317, ISSN 1021-7401
- Doetze, A.; Satoguina, J.; Burchard, G.; Rau, T.; Loliger, C.; Fleischer, B. & Hoerauf, A. (2000). Antigen-specific cellular hyporesponsiveness in a chronic human helminth infection is mediated by Th3/Tr1-type cytokines IL-10 and transforming growth factor-beta but not by a Th1 to Th2 shift. *International Immunology*, Vol.12, Issue 5, (May 2003), pp. 623-630, ISSN 0953-8178
- Doligalska, M., Donskow-Schmelter, K.; Rzepecka, J. & Drela, N. (2007). Reduced apoptosis in BALB/c mice infected with *Heligmosomoides polygyrus*. *Parasite Immunology*, Vol.29, No.6, (June 2007), pp. 283-291, ISSN 0141-9838
- Domen, J. (2001). The role of apoptosis in regulating hematopoietic stem cell numbers. *Apoptosis*, Vol.6, No.4, (August 2001), pp. 239-252, ISSN 1360-8185
- Dondji, B.; Bungiro, R.D.; Harrison, L.M.; Vermeire, J.J.; Bifulco, C.; McMahon-Pratt, D. & Cappello, M. (2008). Role for nitric oxide in hookworm-associated immune suppression. *Infection and Immunity*, Vol.76, No.6, (June 2008), pp. 2560-2567, ISSN 0019-9567
- Donskow-Schmelter, K. & Doligalska, M. (2005). Apoptosis, a protective mechanism for pathogens and their hosts. *Wiadomości Parazytologiczne*, Vol. 51, No.4, pp. 271-280, ISSN 0043-5163
- Donskow, K.; Drela, N. & Doligalska, M. (2011). *Heligmosomoides bakeri* antigen rescues CD4 positive T cells from glucocorticoid-induced apoptosis by Bcl-2 protein expression. *Parasite Immunology*, Vol.33, Issue 3, (March 2011), pp.158-169, ISSN 0141-9838
- Donskow-Schmelter, K.; Doligalska, M.; Rzepecka, J. & Jedlina-Panasiuk, L. (2007). *Heligmosomoides polygyrus*: Decreased apoptosis in fast responder FVB mice during infection. *Experimental Parasitology*, Vol.117, Issue 2, (October 2007), pp. 149-156, ISSN 0014-4894
- Donskow-Schmelter, K.; Laskowska, M. & Doligalska, M. (2008). *Heligmosomoides polygyrus*: Opioid peptides are involved in immune regulation of histotropic phase of

- infection. *Experimental Parasitology*, Vol.118, Issue 3, (March 2008), pp. 338-344, ISSN 0014-4894
- Ehlers, M. & Ravetch, J.V. (2007). Opposing effects of Toll-like receptor stimulation induced autoimmunity or tolerance. *Trends in Immunology*, Vol.28, Issue 2, (February 2007), pp. 74-79, ISSN 1471-4906
- Elliott, D. E., A. Metwali, J. Leung, T. Setiawan, A. M. Blum, M. N. Ince, L. E. Bazzone, M. J. Stadecker, J. F. Urban, Jr, J. V. Weinstock. (2008). Colonization with *Heligmosomoides polygyrus* suppresses mucosal IL-17 production. *Journal of Immunology*. Vol.181, Issue 4 (August 15) pp. 2414-2419, ISSN 0022-1767
- Elliott, D.E.; Summers, R.W. & Weinstock, J.V. (2007). Helminths as a governors of immune mediated inflammation. *International Journal for Parasitology*, Vol. 37, Issue 5, (April 2007), pp. 457-464, ISSN 0020-7519
- Ellis, M.K. & McManus, D.P. (2009). Familial aggregation of human helminth infection in the Poyang lake area of China with a focus on genetic susceptibility to schistosomiasis japonica and associated markers of disease. *Parasitology*, Vol.136, Issue 7, (June 2009), pp. 699-712, ISSN 1469-8161
- Ellis, M.K.; Raso, G.; Li, Y.S.; Rong, Z.; Chen, H.G. & McManus, D.P. (2007). Familial aggregation of human susceptibility to co- and multiple helminth infections in a population from Poyang Lake region China. *Intrenational Journal for Parasitology*, Vol.37, Issue 10, (August 2007), pp. 1153-1161, ISSN 0020-7519
- Erb, K.J. (2009). Can helminths or helminth-derived products be used in humans to prevent or treat allergic diseases? *Trends in Immunology*, Vol.30, Issue 2, (January 2009), pp. 275-282, ISSN 1471-4906
- Escobedo, G.; Roberts, C.W.; Carrero J.C. & Morales-Montor, J. (2005). Parasite regulation by host hormones:an old mechanism of host exploitation? *Trends in Parasitology*, Vol.21, Issue 12, (December 2005), pp. 588-593, ISSN 1471-4922
- Ezenwa, V.O. & Jolles, A.E. (2011). From host immunity to pathogen invasion: The effects of helminth coinfection on the dynamics of microparasites. *Integrative Comparative Biology*, DOI: 10.1093/icb/icr058, ISSN: 1540-7063
- Falcone, F.; Loukas, A.; Quinnell, R.J. & Pritchard, D.I. (2004). The innate allergenicity of helminth parasites. *Clinical Reviews in Allergy and Immunology*, Vol.26, No.1, (February 2004), pp. 61-72, ISSN 1080-0549
- Fallon, P.G.; Ballantyne, S.J.; Mangan, N.E.; Barlow, J.L.; Dasvarma, A.; Hewet, D.R.; McIlqorm, A.; Jolin, H.E. & McKenzie, A.N. (2006). Identification of an interleukin (IL-25)-dependent cell population that provides Il-4,vIL-5 and Il-13 at the onset of helminth explusion. *Journal of Experimental Medicine*, Vol.203, No.4, (April 2006), pp. 1105-1116, ISSN 0022-1007
- Finkelman, F.D.; Shea-Donohue, T.; Morris, S.C.; Gildea, L.; Strait, R.; Madden, K.B.; Schopf, L. & Urban, J.F.Jr. (2004). Interleukin 4 and interleukin 13-mediated host protection against intestinal nematode parasites. *Immunological Reviews*, Vol.201, (October 2004), pp. 139-155, ISSN 0105-2896
- Finney, C.A.M.; Taylor, M.D.; Wilson, M.S. & Maizels, R.M. (2007). Expansion and activation of CD4+CD25+ regulatory T cells in *Heligmosomoides polygyrus* infection. *European Journal of Immunology*, Vol.37, No.7, (July 2007), pp. 1874-1886, ISSN 0014-2980
- Fumagalli, M.; Pozzoli, U.; Cagliani, R.; Comi, G.P. & Riva, M. (2009). Parasites represent a major selective force for interleukin genes and shape the genetic predisposition to

- autoimmune conditions. *The Journal of Experimental Medicine*, Vol.206, No.6, (May 2009), pp. 1395-1408, ISSN 0022-1007
- Gammon, G.; Dunn, K.; Shastri, N.; Oki, A.; Wilbur, S. & Sercarz, E.E. (1986). Neonatal T cell tolerance to minimal immunogenic peptides is caused by clonal inactivation. *Nature*, Vol. 319, Issue 6052, (January 1986), pp. 413-415, ISSN 0028-0836
- Gerencer, M.; Marinculic, A.; Rapić, D.; Frankovic, M. & Valpotic, I. (1992). Immunosuppression of in vivo and in vitro lymphocyte responses in swine induced by *Trichinella spiralis* or excretory-secretory antigens of the parasite. *Veterinary Parasitology*, Vol.44, Issue 3-4, (October 1992), pp. 263-273, ISSN 0304-4017
- Gillan, V.; Lawrence, R.A. & Devaney, E. (2005). B cells play a regulatory role in mice infected with the L3 of *Brugia pahangi*. *International Immunology*, Vol.17, No.4, (February 2005), pp. 373-382, ISSN 0953-8178
- Goerdts, S. & Orfanos, C. E. (1999). Other functions, other genes: alternative activation of antigen-presenting cells. *Immunity*, Vol.10, No.2, (February 1999), pp. 137-142, ISSN 1074-7613
- Gordon, S. (2003). Alternative activation of macrophages. *Nature Reviews Immunology*, Vol.3, Issue 1, (January 2003), pp. 23-35, ISSN 1474-1733
- Gratchev, A.; Guillot, P.; Hakiy, N.; Politz, O.; Orfanos, C.E.; Schledzewski, K. & Goerdts, S. (2001). Alternatively activated macrophages differentially express fibronectin and its splice variants and the extracellular matrix protein β IGH3. *Scandinavian Journal of Immunology*, Vol.53, No.4, (April 2001), pp. 386-392, ISSN 0300-9475
- Harn, D.A.; McDonald, J.; Atochina, O. & Da'dara, A.A. (2009). Modulation of host immune responses by helminth glycans. *Immunological Reviews*, Vol.230, No.1, (July 2009), pp. 247-257, ISSN 0105-2896
- Harnett, W. & Harnett, M.M. (2006). What causes lymphocyte hyporesponsiveness during filarial nematode infection? *Trends in Parasitology*, Vol.22, Issue 3, (March 2006), pp. 105-110, ISSN 1471-4922
- Harnett, W. & Harnett, M.M. (2008). Therapeutic immunomodulators from nematode parasites. *Expert Reviews in Molecular Medicine*, Vol.10, (June 2008), pp. e18, ISSN 1462-3994
- Harnett, W. & Harnett, M.M. (2008). Lymphocyte hyporesponsiveness during filarial nematode infection. *Parasite Immunology*, Vol.30, Issue 9, (September 2008), pp. 447-53, ISSN 0141-9838
- Hasnain, S.Z.; Wang, H.; Ghia, J.E.; Haq, N.; Deng, Y.; Velcich, A.; Grecis, R.K.; Thornton, D.J. & Khan, W.I. (2010). Mucin gene deficiency in mice impairs host resistance to an enteric parasitic infection. *Gastroenterology*, Vol.138, Issue 5, (May 2010), pp. 1763-1771.e5, ISSN 1528-0012
- Hayward, A.D.; Wilson, A.J.; Pilkington, J.G.; Pemberton, J.M. & Kruuk, L.E.B. (2009). Ageing in a variable habitat: environmental stress affects senescence in parasite resistance in St Kilda Soay sheep. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, Vol.276, Issue 1672, (October 2009), pp. 3477-3485, ISSN 0962-8452
- Herbert, D.R.; Holscher, C.; Mohrs, M.; Arendse, B.; Schwegmann, A.; Radwanska, M.; Leeto, M.; Kirsch, R.; Hall, P.; Mossmann, H.; Claussen, B.; Forster, I. & Brombacher, F. (2004). Alternative macrophage activation is essential for survival during schistosomiasis and downmodulates T helper I response and

- immunopathology. *Immunity*, Vol.20, Issue 5, (May 2004), pp. 623-635, ISSN 1074-7613
- Hernandez-Bello, R.; Escobedo, G.; Guzman C.; Ibarra-Coronado, E.G.; Lopez-Griego, L. & Morales-Montor, J. (2010). Immunoendocrine host-parasite interactions during helminths infections: from the basic knowledge to its possible therapeutic applications. *Parasite Immunology*, Vol.32, Issue 9-10, (September/October 2010), pp. 633-643, ISSN 0141-9838
- Hoffmann, K.F.; Cheever, A.W. & Wynn, T.A. (2000). IL-10 and the dangers of immune polarization: excessive type 1 and 2 cytokine response induced distinct forms of lethal immunopathology in murine schistosomiasis. *The Journal of Immunology*, Vol.164, No.12, (June 2000), pp. 6406-6416, ISSN 0022-1767
- Hotez, P.J.; Brindley, P.J.; Bethony, J.M.; King, C.H.; Pearce, E.J. & Jacobson, J. (2008). Helminth infections: the great neglected tropical diseases. *Journal of Clinical Investigation*, Vol.118, Issue 4, (April 2008), pp. 1311-1321, ISSN 0021-9738
- Hotez, P.J. & Kamath, A. (2009). Neglected tropical diseases in Sub-Saharan Africa: review of their prevalence, distribution and disease burden. *PLoS Neglected Tropical Disease*, Vol. 3, No.8, (August 2009), pp. e412, ISSN 1935-2727
- Humphreys†, N.E. & Grencis, R.K. (2002). Effects of ageing on the immunoregulation of parasitic infection. *Infection and Immunity*, Vol.70, No.9, (September 2002), pp. 5148-5157, ISSN 0019-9567
- Imai, S. & Fujita, K. (2004). Molecules of parasites as immunomodulatory drugs. *Current Topics in Medicinal Chemistry*, Vol.4, Issue 5, pp. 539-552, ISSN 1568-0266
- Iraqi, F.A.; Behnke, J.M.; Menge, D.M.; Lowe, A.; Teale, A.J.; Gibson, J.P.; Baker, L.R. & Wakelin, D. (2003). Chromosomal regions controlling resistance to gastro-intestinal nematode infections in mice. *Mammalian Genome*, Vol.14, No.3, (March 2003), pp. 184-191, ISSN 0938-8990
- Jackson, J.A.; Friberg, I.M.; Bolch, L.; Lowe, A.; Ralli, C.; Harris, P.D.; Behnke, J.M. & Bradley, J.E. (2009). Immunomodulatory parasites and toll-like receptor-mediated tumour necrosis factor alpha responsiveness in wild mammals. *BMC Biology*, Vol.7, (April 2009), pp. 16, ISSN 1741-7007
- Jackson, J.A.; Friberg, I.M.; Little, S. & Bradley, J.E. (2009). Review series on helminths, immune modulation and the hygiene hypothesis: Immunity against helminthes and immunological phenomena in modern human populations: coevolutionary legacies. *Immunology*, Vol.126, No.1, (January 2009), pp. 18-27, ISSN 0019-2805
- Jenkins, S.J. & Allen, J.E. (2010). Similarity and diversity in macrophage activation by nematodes, trematodes, and cestodes. *Journal Biomedicine and Biotechnology*, 2010;2010:262609, ISSN 1110-7243
- Jenson, J.S.; O'Connor, R.; Osborne, J. & Devaney E. (2002). Infection with *Brugia microfilariae* induces apoptosis of T cells: a mechanism of immune unresponsiveness in filariasis. *European Journal of Immunology*, Vol.32, Issue 3, (March 2002), pp. 858-867, ISSN 0014-2980
- Keiser, J.; N'Goran, E.K.; Traoré, M.; Lohourignon, K.L.; Singer, B.H.; Lengeler, C.; Tanner, M. & Utzinger, J. (2002). Polyparasitism with *Schistosoma mansoni*, geohelminths, and intestinal protozoa in rural Côte d'Ivoire. *The Journal of Parasitology*, Vol.88, No.3, (June 2002), pp. 461-466, ISSN 0022-3395

- Keiser, P.B. & Nutman, T.B. (2002). Update on lymphatic filarial infections. *Current Infections Disease Reports*, Vol.4, No.1, pp. 65-69, ISSN 1523-3847
- Kingston, H. & Mills, G. (2004). Regulatory T cells: friend or foe in immunity to infection? *Nature Reviews Immunology*, Vol.4, Issue 11, (November 2004), pp. 841-855, ISSN 1474-1733
- Klotz, C.; Ziegler, T.; Figueiredo, A.S.; Rausch, S.; Hepworth, M.R.; Obsivac, N.; Sers, C.; Lang, R.; Hammerstein, P.; Lucius, R. & Hartmann, S. (2011). A helminth immunomodulator exploits host signaling events to regulate cytokine production in macrophages. *PLoS Pathogens*, Vol.7, Issue 1, (January 2011), pp. e1001248, ISSN 1553-7366
- Kreider, T.; Anthony, R.M.; Urban, J.F., Jr. & Gause, W. C. (2007). Alternatively activated macrophages in helminth infections. *Current Opinion in Immunology*. Vol.19, Issue 4, (August 2007), pp. 448-453, ISSN 0952-7915
- Lebarbenchon, C.; Brown, S.P.; Poulin, R.; Gauthier-Clerc, M. & Thomas, F. (2008). Evolution of pathogens in a man-made world. *Molecular Ecology*, Vol.17, No.1, (January 2008), pp. 475-484, ISSN 0962-1083
- Leng, Q.; Bentwich, Z. & Borkow, G. (2006). Increased TGF- β , Cbl-b and CTLA-4 levels and immunosuppression in association with chronic immune activation. *International Immunology*, Vol.18, No.5, (November 2005), pp. 637-644, ISSN 0953-8178
- Liu, Z.; Liu, Q.; Hamed, H.; Anthony, R.M.; Foster, A.; Finkelman, F.D.; Urban, J.F.Jr. & Gause, W.C. (2005). IL-2 and autocrine IL-4 drive the in vivo development of antigen-specific Th2 T cells elicited by nematode parasites. *Journal of Immunology*, Vol.174, No.4, (February 2005), pp. 2242-2249, ISSN 0022-1767
- Liu, Z. ; Liu, Q.; Pesce, J.; Anthony, R.M.; Lamb, E.; Whitmire, J.; Hamed, H.; Morimoto, M.; Urban, J.F.Jr. & Gause, W.C. (2004). Requirements for the development of IL-4-producing T cells during intestinal nematode infections: what it takes to make a Th2 cell *in vivo*. *Immunological Reviews*, Vol. 201, Issue 1, (October 2004), pp. 57-74, ISSN 0105-2896
- Loke, P.; MacDonald, A.S. & Allen, J.E. (2000). Antigen-presenting cells recruited by *Brugia malayi* induce Th2 differentiation of naive CD4+ T cells. *European Journal of Immunology*, Vol.30, No.4, (April 2000), pp. 1127-1135, ISSN 0014-2980,
- Loke, P.; MacDonald, A.S.; Roob, A.; Maizels, R.M. & Allen, J.E. (2000). Alternatively activated macrophages induced by nematode infection inhibit proliferation via cell-to-cell contact. *European Journal of Immunology*, Vol.30, No.9, (September 2000), pp. 2669-2678, ISSN 0014-2980
- Löscher, T. & Saathoff, E. (2008). Eosinophilia during intestinal infection. *Best Practice & Research Clinical Gastroenterology*, Vol.22, Issue 3, (June 2008), pp. 511-536, ISSN 1521-6918
- MacDonald, A.S. & Maizels, R.M. (2008). Alarming dendritic cells for Th2 induction. *The Journal of Experimental Medicine*, Vol.2005, No.1, (January 2008), pp. 13-17, ISSN 0022-1007
- Maizels, R.M.; Balic, A.; Gomes-Escobar, N.; Nair, M.; Taylor, M.D. & Allen, J.E. (2004). Helminth regulation – masters of regulation. *Immunology Reviews*, Vol.201, Issue 1, (October 2004), pp. 89-116, ISSN 0105-2896
- Maizels, R.M. & Yazdanbakhsh, M. (2003). Immune regulation by helminth parasites: cellular and molecular mechanisms. *Nature Reviews Immunology*, Vol.3, No.9, (September 2003), pp. 733-744, ISSN 1474-1733

- Matzinger, P. (1994). Tolerance, danger, and the extended family. *Annual Review of Immunology*, Vol.12, (April 1994), pp. 991-1045, ISSN 0732-0582
- May, R.M. & Anderson, R.M. (1990). Parasite–host coevolution. *Parasitology*, Vol.100, supplement S1 S89-S101, ISSN 1469-8161
- McKay, D.M. & Khan, W.I. (2003). STAT-6 is an absolute requirement for murine rejection of *Hymenolepis diminuta*. *Journal of Parasitology*, Vol.89, No.1, (February 2003), pp. 188-189, ISSN 0022-3395
- Medzhitov, R. (2007). Recognition of microorganisms and activation of the immune response. *Nature*, Vol.449, No.7164, (October 2007), pp. 819-826, ISSN 0028-0836
- Metwali, A.; Setiawan, T.; Blum, A.M.; Urban, J.; Elliott, D.E.; Hang, L. & Weinstock, J.V. (2006). Induction of CD8⁺ regulatory T cells in the intestine by *Heligmosomoides polygyrus* infection. *American Journal of Physiology Gastrointestinal and Liver Physiology*, Vol.291, No.2, (August 2006), pp. 253-259, ISSN 0193-1857
- Mitchell, G.F. (1991). Co-evolution of parasites and adaptive immune responses. *Parasitology Today*, Vol.7, Issue 3, (March 1991), pp. 2-5, ISSN 0169-4758
- Morar, R. & Feldman, C. (2003). Pulmonary echinococcosis. *European Respiratory Journal*, Vol.21, No.6, (June 2003), pp. 1069-1077, ISSN 0903-1936
- Morimoto, M.; Morimoto, M.; Whitmire, J.; Xiao, S.; Anthony, R.M.; Mirakami, H.; Star, R.A.; Urban, J.F.Jr. & Gause, W.C. (2004). Peripheral CD4 T cells rapidly accumulate at the host: parasite interface during an inflammatory Th2 memory response. *The Journal of Immunology*, Vol.172, No.4, (February 2004), pp. 2424-2430, ISSN 0022-1767
- Mouritsen, K.N. & Poulin, R. (2005). Parasites boosts biodiversity and changes animal community structure by trait-mediated indirect effects. *Oikos*, Vol.108, Issue 2, (February 2005), pp. 344-350, ISSN 0030-1299
- Munder, M.; Eichmann, K. & Modolell, M. (1998). Alternative metabolic states in murine macrophages reflected by the nitric oxide synthase/arginase balance: competitive regulation by CD4⁺ T cells correlates with Th1/Th2 phenotype. *Journal of Immunology*, Vol.160, No. 11, (June 1998), pp. 5347-5354, ISSN 0022-1767
- Mylonas, K.J.; Nair, M.G.; Prieto-Lafuente, L.; Paape, D. & Allen, J.E. (2009). Alternatively activated macrophages elicited by helminth infection can be reprogrammed to enable microbial killing. *Journal of Immunology*, Vol.182, No.5, (March 2009), pp. 3084-3094, ISSN 0022-1767
- Neill, D.R.; Wong, S.H.; Bellosi, A.; Flynn, R.J.; Daly, M.; Langford, T.K.A.; Bucks, C.; Kane, C.M.; Fallon, P.G.; Pannell, R.; Jolin, H.E. & McKenzie, A.N. (2010). Nuocytes represent a new innate effector leukocyte that mediates type-2 immunity. *Nature*, Vol.464, Issue 7293, (April 2010), pp. 1367-1370, ISSN 0028-0836
- Noverr, M.C.; Erb-Downward, J.R. & Huffnagle, G. B. (2003). Production of eicosanoids and other oxylipins by pathogenic eukaryotic microbes. *Clinical Microbiology Reviews*, Vol.16, No.3, (July 2003), pp. 517-533, ISSN 0893-8512
- Ogilvie, B.M. & Wilson, R.J.M. (1976). Evasion of the immune response by parasites. *British Medical Bulletin*, Vol.32, Issue 2, (May 1976), pp. 177-181, ISSN 0007-1420
- Ozturk, G.; Aydinli, B.; Yildirgan, M.I.; Basoglu, M.; Atamanalp, S.S. & Polat, K.Y. (2007). Posttraumatic free intraperitoneal rupture of liver cystic echinococcosis: a case series and review of literature. *The American Journal of Surgery*, Vol.194, Issue 3, (September 2007), pp. 313-316, ISSN 0002-9610

- Pacífico, L.G.G.; Marinho, F.A.V.; Fonseca, C.T.; Barsante, M.M.; Pinho, V.; Sales, P.A.Jr.; Cardoso, L.S.; Araujo, M.I.; Carvalho, E.M.; Cassali, G.D.; Teixeira, M. M. & Oliveira, S.C. (2009). *Schistosoma mansoni* antigens modulate experimental allergic asthma in a murine model: a major role for CD4⁺ CD25⁺ Foxp3⁺ T cells independent of Interleukin-10. *Infection and Immunity*, Vol.77, No.1, (January 2009), pp. 98-107, ISSN 0019-9567
- Pedersen, S. & Saeed, I. (2002). Host age influence on the intensity of experimental *Trichuris suis* infection in pigs. *Parasite*, Vol.9, Issue 1, (March 2002), pp. 75-79, ISSN 1252-607X
- Peng, Y.; Laouar, Y.; Li, M.O.; Green, E.A. & Flavell, R.A. (2004). TGF- β regulates *in vivo* expansion of Foxp3-expressing CD4⁺CD25⁺ regulatory T cells responsible for protection against diabetes. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, Vol.101, Issue 13, (March 2004), pp. 4572–4577, ISSN 0027-8424
- Perrigou, J.G.; Marshall, F.A. & Artis, D. (2008). On the hunt for helminths: innate immune cells in the recognition and response to helminth parasites. *Cellular Microbiology*, Vol.10, Issue 9, (September 2008), pp. 1757-1764, ISSN 1462-5814
- Quinnell, R.J. (2003). Genetics of susceptibility to human helminth infections. *International Journal for Parasitology*, Vol.33, Issue 11, (September 2003), pp. 1219-1231, ISSN 0020-7519
- Rajakumar, S.; Bleiss, W.; Hartmann, S.; Schierack, P.; Marko, A. & Lucius, R. (2006). Concomitant immunity in a rodent model of filariasis: The infection of *Meriones unguiculatus* with *Acanthocheilonema viteae*. *Journal of Parasitology*, Vol.92, No.1, (February 2006), pp. 41-45, ISSN 0022-3395
- Read, A.F. & Sharping, A. (1995). The evolution of tissue migration by parasitic nematode. *Parasitology*, Vol.111, Issue 3, (September 1995), pp. 359-371, ISSN 1469-8161
- Remoué, F.; Van, D.T.; Schacht, A.-M.; Picquet, M.; Garraud, O.; Vercruysse, J.; Ly, A.; Capron, A. & Riveau, G. (2001). Gender-dependent specific immune response during chronic human *Schistosomiasis haematobia*. *Clinical & Experimental Immunology*, Vol.124, Issue 1, (April 2001), pp. 62-68, ISSN 0009-9104
- Rimoldi, M.; Chieppa, M.; Salucci, V.; Avogadri, F.; Sonzogni, A.; Sampietro, G.M.; Nespoli, A.; Viale, G.; Allavena, P. & Rescigno, M. (2005). Intestinal immune homeostasis is regulated by the crosstalk between epithelial cells and dendritic cells. *Nature Immunology*, Vol.6, No.5, (May 2005), pp. 507-514, ISSN 1529-2908
- Roberts, M.G. (1999). The immunoepidemiology of nematode parasites of farmed animals: a mathematical approach. *Parasitology Today*, Vol.15, No.6, (June 1999), pp. 246-251, ISSN 0169-4758
- Robinson, M.W.; Hutchinson, A.T.; Donnelly, S. & Dalton, J.P. (2010). Worm secretory molecules are causing alarm. *Trends in Parasitology*, Vol.26, No.8, (August 2010), pp. 371-372, ISSN 1471-4922
- Rodríguez-Sosa, M.; Satoskar, A. R.; Calderon, R.; Gomez-Garcia, L.; Saavedra, R.; Bojalil, R. & Terrazas, L.I. (2002). Chronic helminth infection induces alternatively activated macrophages expressing high levels of CCR5 with low interleukin-12 production and Th2-biasing ability. *Infection and Immunity*, Vol.70, No.7, (July 2002), pp. 3656-3664, ISSN 0019-9567
- Ruyssers, N.E.; De Winter, B.Y.; De Man, J.G.; Loukas, A.; Pearson, M.S.; Weinstock, J.V.; Van den Bossche, R.M.; Martinet, W.; Pelckmans, P.A. & Moreels, T.G. (2009).

- Therapeutic potential of helminth soluble proteins in TNBS – induced colitis in mice. *Inflammatory Bowel Diseases*, Vol.15, Issue 4, (April 2009), pp. 491-500, ISSN 1078-0998
- Rzepecka, J.; Lucius, R.; Doligalska, M.; Beck, S.; Rausch, S. & Hartmann, S. (2006). Screening for immunomodulatory proteins of the intestinal parasitic nematode *Heligmosomoides polygyrus*. *Parasite Immunology*, Vol.28, Issue 9, (September 2006), pp. 463-472, ISSN 0141-9838
- Rzepecka J., Donskow-Schmelter K., Doligalska M. (2007). *Heligmosomoides polygyrus* infection down regulates eotaxin concentration and CCR3 expression on lung eosinophils in murine allergic pulmonary inflammation. *Parasite Immunology*, Vol. 29, Issue 8, (Jul 2007), pp. 405-413, ISSN 0141-9838
- Schwartz, R.H. (2003). T cell anergy. *Annual Review of Immunology*, Vol.21, (April 2003), pp. 305-334, ISSN 0732-0582,
- Semnani, R.T.; Venugopal, P.G.; Leifer, C.A.; Mostbock, S.; Sabzevari, H. & Nutman, T.B. (2008). Inhibition of TLR3 and TLR4 function and expression in human dendritic cells by helminth parasite. *Blood*, Vol.112, No.4, (August 2008), pp.1290-1298, ISSN 0006-4971
- Setiawan, T.; Metwali, A.; Blum, A. M.; Ince, M. N.; Urban, J. F.; Elliott, D. E.; Weinstock, J. V. (2007). *Heligmosomoides polygyrus* promotes regulatory T cell cytokine production in normal distal murine intestine. *Infection and Immunity*, Vol.75, pp.4655-4663, ISSN 0019-9567
- Silva, S.R.; Jacysyn, J.F.; Macedo M.S., & Faquim-Mauro, E.L. (2006). Immunosuppressive components of *Ascaris suum* down-regulate expression of costimulatory molecules and function of antigen-presenting cells via an IL-10-mediated mechanism. *European Journal of Immunology*, Vol.36, Issue 12, (December 2006), pp. 3227–3237, ISSN 0014-2980
- Smith, P.; Mangan, N.E.; Walsh, C.M.; Fallon, R.E.; McKenzie, A.N. & van Rooijen N. (2007). Infection with a helminth parasite prevents experimental colitis via a macrophage-mediated mechanism. *The Journal of Immunology*, Vol.178, No.7, (April 2007), pp. 4557–466, ISSN 0022-1767
- Soulsby, E.J.L. (1987). The evasion of the immune response and immunological unresponsiveness: Parasitic helminth infections. *Immunology Letters*, Vol.16, Issues 3-4, (December 1987), pp. 315-320, ISSN 0165-2478
- Stadecker, M.J. (1992). The role of T cell anergy in the immunomodulation of schistosomiasis. *Parasitology Today*, Vol.8, Issue 6, (June 1002), pp. 199-204, ISSN 0169-4758
- Stamler, J.S.; Singel, D.J. & Loscalzo, J. (1992). Biochemistry of nitric oxide and its redox-activated forms. *Science*, Vol. 258, No.5090, (December 1992), pp. 1898-1902, ISSN 0036-8075
- Stear, M.J.; Bairden, K.; Duncan, J.L.; Holmes, P.H.; McKellar, Q.A.; Park, M.; Strain, S.; Murray, M.; Bishop, S.C. & Gettinby, G. (1997). How hosts control worms. *Nature*, Vol.389, Issue 6646, (September 1997), pp.27-27, ISSN 0028-0836
- Stear, M.J. & Wakelin, D. (1998). Genetic resistance to parasitic infection. *Scientific and Technical Review-International Office of Epizootics*, Vol.17, Issue 1, (April 1998), pp. 143-153, ISSN 0253-1933

- Steinman, R.M.; Turley, S.; Mellman, I. & Inaba, K. (2000). The induction of tolerance by dendritic cells that have captured apoptotic cells. *The Journal of Experimental Medicine*, Vol.191, No.3, (February 2000), pp. 411-416, ISSN 0022-1007
- Tan, T.H.P.; Edgerton, S.A.V.; Kumari, R.; McAlister, M.S.B.; Rowe, S.M.; Nagl, S.; Pearl, L.H.; Selkirk, M.E.; Bianco, A.E.; Totty, N.F.; Engwerda, C.; Gray, C.A. & Meyer, D.J. (2001). Macrophage migration inhibitory factor of the parasitic nematode *Trichinella spiralis*. *Biochemical Journal*, Vol.357, Issue 2, (July 2001), pp. 373-383, ISSN 0264-6021
- Tawill, S.; Le Goff, L.; Ali, F.; Blaxter, M. & Allen, J.E. (2004). Both free living and parasitic nematodes induce a characteristic Th2 response is dependent on the presence of intact glycans. *Infection and Immunity*, Vol.72, No.1, (January 2004), pp. 398-407, ISSN 0019-9567
- Taylor, J.J.; Krawczyk, C.M.; Mohrs, M. & Pearce, E.J. (2009). Th2 cell hyporesponsiveness during chronic murine schistosomiasis is cell intrinsic and linked to GRAIL expression. *The Journal of Clinical Investigation*, Vol.119, Issue 4, (April 2009), pp. 1019-1028, ISSN 0021-9738
- Taylor, J.J.; Mohrs, M. & Pearce, F.J. (2006). Regulatory T cell responses develop in parallel to Th responses and control the magnitude and phenotype of the Th effector population. *The Journal of Immunology*, Vol.176, No.10, (May 2006), pp. 5839-5847, ISSN 0022-1767
- Terhell, J.; Haarbrink, M.; Abadi, K.; Syafruddin; Maizels, R.M.; Yazdanbakhsh, M. & Sartono, E. (2001). Adults acquire filarial infection more rapidly than children: a study in Indonesian transmigrants. *Parasitology*, Vol.122, Issue 6, (Jun 2001), pp. 633-640, ISSN 1469-8161
- Terrazas, L.I.; Walsh, K.L.; Piskorska, D.; McGuire, E. & Harn, D.A., Jr. (2001). The schistosome oligosaccharide lacto-N-neotetraose expands Gr1⁺ cells that secrete anti-inflammatory cytokines and inhibit proliferation of naïve CD4⁺ cells: a potential mechanism for immune polarization in helminths infections. *The Journal of Immunology*, Vol.167, No.9, (November 2001), pp. 5294-5303, ISSN 0022-1767
- Van der Boehmer, H. (1991). Positive and negative selection of the alpha beta T-cell repertoire in vivo. *Current Opinion in Immunology*, Vol.3, Issue 2, (April 1991), pp. 210-215, ISSN 0952-7915
- Van der Kleij, D.; Latz, E.; Brouwers, J.F.H.M.; Kruize, Y.C.M.; Schmitz, M.; Kurt-Jones E.A.; Espevik, T.; de Jong, E.C.; Kapsenberg, M.L.; Golenbock, D.T.; Tielens, A.G.M. & Yazdanbakhsh, M. (2002). Novel host-parasite lipid cross-talk schistosomal lyso-phosphatidylserine activates toll-like receptor 2 and affects immune polarization. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*, Vol.277, (December 2002), pp. 48122-48129, ISSN 0021-9258
- Van der Werf, M.J.; de Vlas, S.J.; Brooker, S.; Looman, C.A.N.; Nagelkerke, N.J.D.; Habbema, J.D.F. & Engels, D. (2003). Quantification of clinical morbidity associated with schistosome infection in sub-Saharan Africa. *Acta Tropica*, Vol.86, No.2-3, (May 2003), pp. 125-139, ISSN 0001-706X
- Van Riet, E.; Hartagers, F.C. & Yazdanbakhsh, M. (2007). Chronic helminths infections induce immunomodulation: consequences and mechanisms. *Immunobiology*, Vol.212, Issue 6, (June 2007), pp. 475-490, ISSN 0171-2985

- Velupillai, P. & Harn, D.A. (1994). Oligosacchride-specific induction of interleukin 10 production by B220+ cells from schistosome-infected mice: a mechanism for regulation of CD4+ T cell subsets. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, Vol. 91, No.1, (January 1994), pp. 18-22, ISSN 0027-8424
- Vermeire, J.J.; Cho, Y.; Lolis, E.; Bucala, R. & Cappello, M. (2008). Orthologs of macrophage migration inhibitory factor from parasitic nematodes. *Trends in Parasitology*, Vol.24, Issue 8, (August 2008), pp. 355-363, ISSN 1471-4922
- Villanueva, P.O.F.; Harris, T.S.; Ricklan, D.E. & Stadecker, M.J. (1994). Macrophages from schistosomal egg granulomas induce unresponsiveness in specific cloned Th-1 lymphocytes in vitro and down-regulate schistosomal granulomatous disease in vivo. *Journal of Immunology*, Vol.152, No.4, (February 1994), pp. 1847-1855, ISSN 0022-1767
- Wahid, F.N. & Behnke, J.M. (1992). Stimuli for acquired resistance to *Heligmosomoides polygyrus* from intestinal tissue resident L3 and L4 larvae. *International Journal for Parasitology*, Vol.22, Issue 6, (September 1992), pp. 699-710, ISSN 0020-7519
- Wallet, M.A.; Sen, P. & Tisch, R. (2005). Immunoregulation of dendritic cells. *Clinical Medicine & Research*, Vol.3, No.3, (May 2005), pp. 166-175, ISSN 1554-6179
- Wang, C-H. (1997). Study of biological properties of *Trichinella spiralis* newborn larvae and the antiparasitic mucosal immunity of the host. *Frontiers in Bioscience*, Vol.2, (July 1997), pp. d317-d330, ISSN 1093-4715
- Warren, K.S. (1982). Schistosomiasis: host-pathogen biology. *Clinical Infection Diseases*, Vol.4, Issue 4, (July-August 1982), pp. 771-775, ISSN 1058-4838
- WHO World Health Organization. Parasitic Diseases.: http://www.who.int/vaccine_research/diseases/soa_parasitic/en/index2.html.
- Wiegers, G.J. & Reul, J.M.H.M. (1998). Induction of cytokine receptors by glucocorticoids: functional and pathological significance. *Trends in Pharmacological Sciences*, Vol.19, Issue 8, (August 1998), pp. 317-321, ISSN 0165-6147
- Wilkie, B.N.; Rupa, P. & Schmied, J. (2011). Practical immunoregulation: Neonatal immune response variation and prophylaxis of experimental food allergy in pigs. *Veterinary Immunology and Immunopathology*, (March 2011), doi:10.1016/j.vetimm.2011.03.010, ISSN 0165-2427
- Wilson, M.S.; Taylor, M.D.; Balic, A.; Finney, C.A.; Lamb, J.R.; Maizels, R.M. (2005) Suppression of allergic airway inflammation by helminth-induced regulatory T cells. *The Journal of Experimental Medicine*, Vol.202, Issue 9, pp. 1199-212, ISSN 0022-1007
- Wilson, M.S.; Taylor, M.D.; O'Gorman, M.T.; Balic, A.; Barr, T.A.; Filbey, K.; Anderton, S.M. & Maizels, R.M. (2010). Helminth-induced CD19+CD23hi B cells modulate experimental allergic and autoimmune inflammation. *European Journal of Immunology*, Vol.40, Issue 6, (June 2010), pp. 1682-1696, ISSN 0014-2980
- Wohlleben, G.; Trujillo, C.; Müller, J.; Ritze, Y.; Grunewald, S.; Tatsch, U.; Erb, K.J. (2004). Helminth infection modulates the development of allergen-induced airway inflammation. *International immunology*, vol.16, pp. 585-596, ISSN 0953-8178
- Yazdanbakhsh, M.; Van den Biggelaar, A. & Maizels, R.M. (2001). Th2 responses without atopy: immunoregulation in chronic helminth infections and reduced allergic disease. *Trends in Immunology*, Vol.22, Issue 7, (July 2001), pp. 372-377, ISSN 1471-4906

Immunosuppression - Role in Health and Diseases

Edited by Dr. Suman Kapur

ISBN 978-953-51-0152-9

Hard cover, 470 pages

Publisher InTech

Published online 24, February, 2012

Published in print edition February, 2012

A need for a book on immunology which primarily focuses on the needs of medical and clinical research students was recognized. This book, "Immunosuppression - Role in Health and Diseases" is relatively short and contains topics relevant to the understanding of human immune system and its role in health and diseases. Immunosuppression involves an act that reduces the activation or efficacy of the immune system. Therapeutic immunosuppression has applications in clinical medicine, ranging from prevention and treatment of organ/bone marrow transplant rejection, management of autoimmune and inflammatory disorders. It brings important developments both in the field of molecular mechanisms involved and active therapeutic approaches employed for immunosuppression in various human disease conditions. There was a need to bring this information together in a single volume, as much of the recent developments are dispersed throughout biomedical literature, largely in specialized journals. This book will serve well the practicing physicians, surgeons and biomedical scientists as it provides an insight into various approaches to immunosuppression and reviews current developments in each area.

How to reference

In order to correctly reference this scholarly work, feel free to copy and paste the following:

Maria Doligalska and Katarzyna Donskow-Lysoniewska (2012). Immunosuppression in Helminth Infection, Immunosuppression - Role in Health and Diseases, Dr. Suman Kapur (Ed.), ISBN: 978-953-51-0152-9, InTech, Available from: <http://www.intechopen.com/books/immunosuppression-role-in-health-and-diseases/immunosuppression-in-helminths-infection>

INTECH
open science | open minds

InTech Europe

University Campus STeP Ri
Slavka Krautzeka 83/A
51000 Rijeka, Croatia
Phone: +385 (51) 770 447
Fax: +385 (51) 686 166
www.intechopen.com

InTech China

Unit 405, Office Block, Hotel Equatorial Shanghai
No.65, Yan An Road (West), Shanghai, 200040, China
中国上海市延安西路65号上海国际贵都大饭店办公楼405单元
Phone: +86-21-62489820
Fax: +86-21-62489821

© 2012 The Author(s). Licensee IntechOpen. This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the [Creative Commons Attribution 3.0 License](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

IntechOpen

IntechOpen