

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Asian Pacific Journal of Tropical Medicine



journal homepage:www.elsevier.com/locate/apjtm

Document heading

Effect of Ocimum sanctum on the development of protective immunity against Salmonella typhimurium infection through cytokines

Anjana Goel, Sandeep Kumar, Ashok Kumar Bhatia*

Department of Microbiology & Immunology, College of Veterinary Sciences & Animal Husbandry, U.P. Pt Deen Dayal Upadhyay Pasu Chikitsa Vigyan Vishwavidyalaya evam Go Anusandhan Sansthan (DUVASU), Mathura, 281001, U.P., India

ARTICLE INFO

Article history: Received 28 July 2010 Received in revised form 17 August 2010 Accepted 5 September 2010 Available online 20 September 2010

Keywords: Ocimum sanctum Salmonella typhimurium TNF- α IFN- γ IL-2

ABSTRACT

Objective: To investigate the protective role of *Ocimum sanctum (O. sanctum)* leaves against Salmonella typhimurium(S. typhimurium) infection in rats by inducing TNF- α , IFN- γ & IL-2 cytokines. Methods: Wistar albino rats were fed with aqueous extract of O. sanctum leaves using 250 mg/kg body weight dose once a day for 20 consecutive days. Control rats were fed with placebo. Rats were infected with LD50 dose of S. typhimurium infection and monitored for their survival. Bacterial blood burden in both the groups was compared and numbers of activated peritoneal macrophages were counted. Concentration of TNF- α , IFN- γ and IL-2 cytokines in serum during different time intervals was assayed by sandwich ELISA. Results: Rats of control group showed a high mortality rate and had higher bacterial blood burden when compared with O. sanctum extract fed rats. There was a significant increase in the number of S. typhimurium engulfed peritoneal macrophages in the peritoneal fluid of O. sanctum fed animals. The protective control against bacterial infection in O. sanctum fed rats was associated with elevated level of TNF- α , IFN- γ and IL-2 cytokines in serum. **Conclusions:** These findings suggest that orally administered O. sanctum leaves extract effectively enhanced activation in macrophage and lymphocytes, depicted by the elevated serum concentration of TNF- α , IFN- γ and IL-2 cytokines, leading to induce a protective resistance against Salmonella typhimurium infection.

1. Introduction

Salmonella enteric serovar Typhimurium (S. typhimurium), a gram negative intracellular baterium, has been used extensively as a model for knowing the mechanism of Salmonella pathogenesis^[1]. Due to emergence of drug resistant Salmonella bacteria^[2,3] as well as inadequate understanding of host resistance to Salmonella which hampers the vaccine design^[4], there is a need to evaluate the efficacy of the natural plant products which can be used against the disease.

Ocimum sanctum (O. sanctum) has been widely used for its diverse utility and multidirectional therapeutic uses since the Vedic time. Aqueous and ethanolic extracts of O. sanctum showed in vitro antimicrobial activity against

Tel: 9897065354

different bacterial strains like *Staphylococcus aureus*, Bacillus pumilus, Escherichia coli, Salmonella typhi murium, Pseudomonas aeruginosa etc[5,6]. O. sanctum leaves extract also possesses potent immune modulating activity^[7,8]. Recently, immune modulating effect of plant extracts has now been evaluated on the basis of induction of different cytokines[9]. TNF- α and IFN- γ play a crucial role against Salmonella infection^[10]. TNF– α , IFN– γ and IL–2 are found essential for the suppression of bacterial growth during sub lethal Salmonella infection up to 10⁸ CFU^[11] and are specially required for macrophage activation^[12]. Macrophages and natural killer (NK) cells, capable of producing a variety of cytokines, are important for host survival during the primary response to Salmonella infection[12-15]. Data from our previous ex vivo experiments^[16-18] showed that aqueous extract of O. sanctum leaves up regulated the level TNF- α , IFN- γ and IL-2 cytokines and this led us to examine the efficient immune response in clearance of Salmonella infection. Thus, in this study the protective role of O. sanctum against S. typhimurium infection, by altering the level of TNF– α , IFN– $\gamma\,$ and IL–2, has been investigated.

^{*}Corresponding author: Ashok Kumar Bhatia, Prof. & Head, Dept. of Biotechnology, GLA, Institute of Professional studies, NH-2, Mathura-Delhi Road, P.O. Chaumauhan, Mathura, India.

Fax: (0565)2404819

E-mail: akbhatia33@yahoo.com

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Chemicals and reagents

Cytokine kits of IFN– γ & IL–2 from R&D system, USA; ELISA kit for TNF– α (BD. Biosciences, USA), RPMI–1640 medium & fetal bovine serum (SIGMA chemicals, USA), nitroblue tetrazolium dye (NBT dye) (Loba chemicals, INDIA) & Luria–Bertani agar medium (Hi Media Labs, Bangalore)

2.2. Animals

Wistar albino rats of 60–80 g, purchased from IVRI, Izaitnagar, U.P. India, were used for all the experiments. Rats were maintained under controlled condition of light (14 h) and temperature $[(24+2) \ ^{\circ}C]$. They were provided a standard diet as prescribed by Indian Council Medical Research (ICMR), water *ad libetum* and acclimatized to their environment at least one week before the start of experiment. The experiments were approved by Institute's Animal Ethics Committee constituted as per Committee for the Purpose of Control and Supervision of Experiments on Animals (CPCSEA) guidelines for the purpose of control and supervision of experiments on animals.

2.3. Plant material

Leaves of *O. sanctum* were collected from garden of College of Veterinary Sciences, DUVASU, Mathura and authenticated from National Botanical Research Institute; Lucknow. Voucher specimen was preserved.

2.4. Preparation of herbal drug extract

Aqueous leaves extract was prepared by dipping the 100 g dry powder with 500 mL of triple distilled water at room temperature for 3 days with few drop of chloroform to avoid the fungal growth. The suspension was filtered through muslin cloth and then Whatman No. 1 filter paper and finally dried in lyophilizer under vacuum. The yield of the extract was approximately 12%–15% in terms of dry powder.

2.5. Preparation of S. typhimurium suspension

Smooth colonies of *S. typhimurium*, maintained in the Department of Microbiology & Immunology, grown on Luria–Bertani agar medium were selected and inoculated in Luria broth. Overnight incubated broth was centrifuged at 3 000 rpm and cell pellet was resuspended in PBS. Bacterial cell concentration was determined by matching with Mc Ferland's nephelometer and viable count method using pour plate of LB agar.

2.6. Determination of 50% lethal dose of S. typhimurium infection in rats

The LD_{50} of S. typhimurium was determined by the method

of Reid and Munch^[19]. Four groups having 10 rats in each group were made and 1 mL of suspension of 4 different concentrations i.e. $2.10 \times 10^{\circ}$, $1.05 \times 10^{\circ}$, 2.10×10^{8} and 1.05×10^{8} cells were administered intraperitoneally in rats of respective group. Following infection, mortality was scored over a 20 days period. The dose causing 50% mortality was recorded and considered as LD₅₀.

All the rats in group I challenged with 2.10×10^9 CFU of *S. typhimurium* were died within 4 days where as in group II i.e. 1.05×10^9 of infection caused 50% animals mortality on day 10^{th} . In group III, having 2.10×10^8 CFU, only 20% death was recorded while at the 1.05×10^8 CFU of *S. typhimurium* all the rats survived. Thus 1.05×10^9 CFU of *S. typhimurium* was calculated as LD_{50} dose.

2.7. Effect of O. sanctum on S. typhimurium infection

Ten animals were divided equally into two groups. Group A (control) and group B (experimental group) which was prefed with O. sanctum extract at 250 mg/kg body weight for 20 days. On 21st day both groups were challenged with LD_{50} dose i.e. 1.05×10^{9} CFU of *S. typhimurium* by intraperitoneal route.

2.7.1. Survival

Animals were observed for the development of clinical sign and mortality, post challenge up to 20 days.

2.7.2. Bacterial load in blood

Blood was collected at different intervals i.e. 24 h, 48 h and 72 h following *S. typhimurium* infection as designed above. A total of 0.5 mL from 10 fold serially diluted blood was plated on Luria Bertoni agar plate and incubated at 37 $^{\circ}$ C for 24 h to measure viable count.

2.7.3. Phagocytic activity of peritoneal macrophages (nitroblue tetrazolium test)

After 24 h of infection, nitroblue tetrazolium test (NBT) was performed as per method by Tanaka^[20]. Peritoneal fluids were collected and glass adherent macrophages were separated. They were suspended in RPMI–1640 medium and were incubated with 0.1% NBT solution at 37 $^{\circ}$ C for 15 min. Thin smear was prepared, air dried and stained with Leishman stain. A total of 100 macrophages were examined for the presence of dark blue formazone in cells.

2.7.4. Induction of TNF- α , IFN- γ & IL-2 cytokines

Blood was also collected at different time intervals i.e. 2 h, 2 days, 7days & 14 days after *S. typhimurium* infection given to both groups. TNF– α , IFN– γ & IL–2 cytokines were measured and compared by sandwich ELISA according to the manufacturer's instructions.

2.8. Statistical analysis

Results were expressed as mean \pm SEM and analyzed using Prism-5.0 version. The statistical difference was calculated using student's *t*-test. *P* value <0.05 was considered statistically significant.

3. Results

3.1. Effect of O. sanctum on S. typhimurium infection

3.1.1. Protection study

O. sanctum fed rats when infected with S. typhimurium showed longer survival rate than control rats. Half of rats in the control group died within 10 days of infection while 10% and 20% death could be recorded in O. sanctum fed rats after 10 days and 15 days of infection respectively (P value< 0.001). Thus pretreatment of drug conferred 60% & 80% protection against infection on day 10th and day 15th respectively.

3.1.2. Bacterial load

O. sanctum fed and control group rats were infected with LD_{50} dose of 2.10×10^9 CFU of *S. typhimurium* and analyzed for bacterial load in blood on day 1, 2 and 3 post infection. *O. sanctum* fed animals showed 10 times reduction in bacterial load on day 1 i.e. 0.11×10^{10} vs 1.20×10^{10} CFU and approximately 30 times reduction on day 2 and day 3 as compared to control i.e 1.1×10^{10} vs 36.0×10^{10} and 0.2×10^{10} vs 28.0×10^{10} CFU, respectively. Thus the bacterial numbers were significantly lower in *O. sanctum* fed rats (*P*< 0.001).

3.1.3. Phagocytic activity of macrophages

Using NBT assay the number of *S. typhimurium* engulfed phagocytes were found significantly elevated in *O. sanctum* fed rats in response to control group on day 1 post infection(*P*<0.001) (Figure 1).

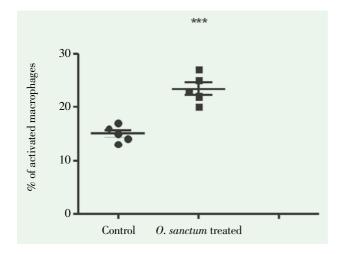


Figure 1. Effect of *O. sanctum* treatment on activation of macrophages isolated from peritoneal fluid of *S*.Typhimurium challenged animals.

3.1.4. TNF- α , IFN- γ and IL-2 concentrations in serum

Induction of TNF- α , IFN- γ & IL-2 was measured at 2 h, 2nd day, 7th day and 14th day post *Salmonella* infection and compared with control group (Figure 2). TNF- α and IL-2 were found to be enhanced at 2 h post infection while IFN- γ was up regulated at later time point i.e. 48 h time interval. The up regulation of TNF- α , IFN- γ & IL-2 was significant in *O. sanctum* fed rats in comparison to control rats. Further it was demonstrated that TNF- α was down regulated and undetectable at 2nd day, 7th day and 14th day post infection while IL-2 concentration was maintained up to 7th day in the serum and become undetectable after 14th day post infection.

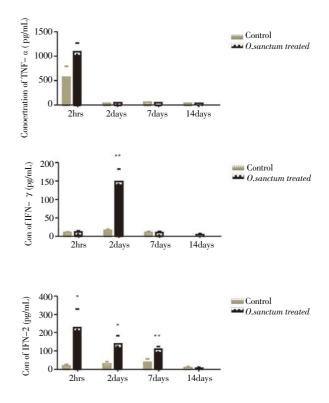


Figure 2. Effect of *O. sanctum* leaves extract on cytokine production following *S. typhimurium* infection. *: *P*< 0.01, **: *P*< 0.001.

Increase in TNF– α in the serum within 2 h clearly demonstrated that serum of *O. sanctum* treated rats contains greater quantity of TNF– α , which plays a role in inhibiting the growth of *S. typhimurium*. Further it has been also demonstrated that serum of *O. sanctum* treated rats contained detectable amount of IL–2 at 2 h while IFN– γ remained undetectable in both the groups. When serum's of both groups were quantitated for these cytokines at 48 hrs, TNF– α , could not be detectable but increased IFN– γ production was observed. IFN– γ showed remarkable up regulation in *O. sanctum* fed rats. This showed that an early response of microbial infection stimulated TNF– α along with IL–2 induction.

4. Discussion

The organism of genus *Salmonella* is the causative agent of a variety of infections in humans, ranging from acute self limiting gastroenteritis to systematic typhoid fever^[21]. Following oral infection with virulent *S. typhimurium*, bacteria quickely spread from the gut, probably through the Peyer's patches of the gut associated lymphoid tissue to organs of the reticuloendothelial system including the liver and spleen. Rate of bacterial growth is rapid causing death of animals within few days with signs of endotoxic shock and high level of bacteria in liver and spleen^[22].

Enumeration of bacteria in blood of i.p. challenged *Salmonella* infected & *O. sanctum* treated rats showed that they differ in the number of organisms present on day 1, 2 & 3 of infection with the control rats which were having much higher counts in blood. It appeared that *O. sanctum* has significant protective effect by stimulating different cell types and factors involved in innate and adaptive immune responses.

Macrophages act as first line of defense during infection of *S. typhimurium*^[15]. They kill the bacteria by engulfment. Thus, phagocytic activity of macrophages was determined and 55% stimulation in phagocytic activity of *O. sanctum* treated animals was recorded as compared to control animals infected with *S. typhimurium*. It clearly showed that macrophages were more activated due to *O. sanctum* treatment.

Since level of cytokines plays an important role during the protective response in a biological system, it was of interest to investigate the effect of *O. sanctum* on cytokines. Our previous studies^[16–18] reported that *O. sanctum* feeding in rats stimulated the *ex vivo* production of TNF– α , IFN– γ & IL–2 cytokines. Thus during *S. typhimurium* infection in vivo stimulation of these cytokines, which are essentially needed for protection against the disease, were estimated.

The controlled production and release of inflammatory mediators like TNF- α play an essential role in the mechanism of phagocytosis and killing of the infectious microorganism thereby protecting the animal^[23–25]. TNF– α may be needed for polymorphonuclear cells recruitment to control Salmonellosis at this early time point^[14]. The bacterial product most frequently implicated in TNF- α , in *vivo*, is lipopolysaccharide (LPS). Neutralization of TNF- α in vivo can also prevent the host from mounting a protective response and animals succumb to infection[26]. In this study we have found that there was significant increase in TNF- α in control as well as *O*. sanctum treated animals but the augmentation in TNF- α concentration was highly significant in O. sanctum treated animals in comparison to control animals, 2 h after infection with S. typhimurium. The level of TNF- α was down regulated very soon in both the groups.

In addition to TNF- α , IFN- γ is also essential for the suppression of bacterial growth during sub lethal *Salmonella* infection^[27]. A lack of IFN- γ results in increased bacterial replication^[28] and host susceptibility^[29], but does not influence antibody protection^[30]. The main sources of IFN- γ are natural killer (NK) cells & T-cells^[12, 31,32]. The response to infected phagocytic cells could be divided into two identifiable stages. First, resting NK cells required IL-2 and/or IL-15 dependent priming. It is well established that murine dendritic cells produce IL-2 and enhances NK cell activation^[11, 33]. Second, activated NK cells then can respond directly to infected macrophages by cytotoxicity and IFN- γ production which modulate other components of host immune response^[12]. In this study, IFN- γ induction was

observed at later time point of 48 h and the induction of IFN- γ is 9.3 fold increased in O. sanctum treated animals than control animals. The IL-2 concentration was also much pronounced (12.5 fold) in O. sanctum treated animals at 2 h post infection and maintained to a high level in O. sanctum treated animals up to 7 days. IL-2 act as a growth factor for Th1 and Th2 lymphocytes and play a direct role in the induction of B-lymphocytes^[34,35] which are essential to clear the inter cellular bacteria by producing antibodies. Thus it can be postulated that during S. typhimurium infection as soon as bacteria come in contact with macrophages they become activated. Macrophages act as a first line of defense and secrete TNF- α in high concentration. IL-2 with IL-15 and / or IL-18 synergistically activates the resting NK cells and T- cells, the main source of IFN- γ , resulting in IFN- γ production only at late time of infection. Our data showed that augmented TNF- α , IFN- γ & IL-2 levels at different stages in O. sanctum fed animals managed to subdue the lethality of LD₅₀ dose of *S. typhimurium* infection.

It was also observed that TNF- α production diminished to ground level very soon but the IL-2 was continuously produced and its concentration remained higher up to 7 days. The IFN- γ which was induced at 48 h time point decline very rapidly. Thus it can be emphasized that these cytokine secretions also reflect time dependency which differ according to the type of cytokine.

Thus, the results of the present study indicate significant modulation of different cytokines i.e. $\text{TNF-}\alpha$, $\text{IFN-}\gamma$ & IL-2 secretion by *O. sanctum* extract in *S. typhimurium* infected rats which in turn leads to clearance of bacteria during different time intervals from blood establishing the efficient anti-microbial immune responses and therapeutic potency of *O. sanctum* extract.

Conflict of interest statement

We declare that we have no conflict of interest.

Acknowledgements

The authors are thankful to Dept. Of Science & Technology, New Delhi for providing the financial grant and to Hon'ble Vice Chancellor, Veterinary University, Mathura for providing necessary facilities to carry out the work.

References

- Ohl ME, Miller SI. Salmonella: a model for bacterial pathogenesis. Annu Rev Med 2001; 52: 259–74.
- [2] Khan KH, Ganjewala D, Rao KVB. Recent advancement in typhoid research- a review. Advanced Biotech 2008; 7 (4): 35-40.
- [3] Hazir T, Qazi SA, Abbas KA, Khan MA. Therapeutic reappraisal of multiple drug resistant *Salmonella typhi* (MDRST) in Pakistani children. *J Pak Med Assoc* 2002; **52** (3): 123–7.
- [4] Mastroeni P, Menager N. Development of acquired immunity to Salmonella. Med Microbiol 2003; 52 (6): 453–9.
- [5] Joshi B, Lekhak S, Sharma A. Antibacterial property of different medicinal plants: Ocimum sanctum, Cinnamomum zeylanicum,

Anthoylum armatum and Origanum majorana. Kathmandu University J Sci Engineering Technol 2009; **5**: 143–50.

- [6] Singh S, Malhotra M, Majumdar DK. Antibacterial activity of Ocimum sanctum L. fixed oil. Indian J Exp Biol 2005; 43(9): 835–7.
- [7] Gupta G, Charan S. Antimicrobial and immunomodulatory effect of *Ocimum sanctum* against infectious bursal disease virus infection in chickens as model. *Indian J Comparative Microbiol Immunol & Inf Dis* 2005; 26 (2): 92–8.
- [8] Mediratta PK, Sharma KK, Singh S. Evaluation of immunomodulatory potential of *Ocimum sanctum* seed oil and its possible mechanism of action. *J Ethnopharmacol* 2002; 80(1): 15– 20.
- [9] Spellman K, Burns J, Nichols D, Winters N, Ottersberg S, Tenborg M. Modulation of cytokine expression by traditional medicines: a review of herbal immunomodulators. *Alternate Med Rev* 2006; 11(2): 128–50.
- [10]Schoenborn JR, Wilson CB. Regulation of interferon-during innate and adaptive immune responses. Adv Immunol 2007; 96: 41–101.
- [11]Becknell B, Caligiuri MA. Interleukin–2, interleukin–15, and their roles in human natural killer cells. *Adv Immunol* 2005; 86: 209–39.
- [12]Lapaque N, Walzer T, Me'resse S, Vivier E, Trowsdale J. Interactions between human NK cells and macrophages in response to Salmonella infection. J Immunol 2009; 182: 4339-48.
- [13]Wick MJ. Living in the danger zone: innate immunity to Salmonella. *Curr Opin Microbiol* 2004; 7: 51–7.
- [14]Seiler P, Aichele P, Raupach B, Odermatt B, Steinhoff U, Kaufmann SH. Rapid neutrophil response controls fast-replicating intracellular bacteria but not slow-replicating *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*. J Infect Dis 2000; **181**: 671–80.
- [15]Wijburg OL, Simmons CP, Rooijen NV, Strugnell RA. Dual role for macrophages *in vivo* in pathogenesis and control of murine *Salmonella enterica* var. Typhimurium infections. *Eur J Immunol* 2000; **30**: 944–53.
- [16]Goel A, Singh DK, Bhatia AK. Immunomodulating property of Ocimum sanctum by regulating the IL-2 production and its m-RNA expression from splenocytes in rats. Asian Pacific J Trop Med & Hyg 2010; 3: 8-12.
- [17]Goel, A, Kumar S, Singh DK, Bhatia AK. Wound healing potential of Ocimum sanctum with the induction of tumor necrosis factor– α. Ind J Experimental Biol 2010; 48: 402–8.
- [18]Goel A, Singh DK, Bhatia AK. Effect of Ocimum sanctum on the induction of IFN- γ & IL-2 cytokines and their m-RNA expression. J Immunol & Immunopathol 2010. (In press).
- [19]Reed LJ, Muench H. A simple method of estimating fifty percent endpoints. *American J Hyg* 1938; 27: 493–7.
- [20]Tanaka T, Sugiura H, Inaba R, Nishikawa A, Murakami A, Koshimizu K, et al. Immunomodulatory action of citrus auraptene on macrophage functions and cytokine production of lymphocytes in female BALB/c mice. *Carcinogenesis* 1999; 20: 1471–6.
- [21]Kaufmann SHE, Kaplan G. Immunity to intracellular bacteria. Res

Immunol 1996; 147: 487-9.

- [22]Nauciel C, Espinasse–Maes F, Matsiota–Bernad P. Role of gamma interferon and tumor necrosis factor in early resistance to murine Salmoellosis. In: Cabello F, Hormaeche CE, Bonina L, Mastroeni P. *Biology of Salmonella. NATO A. S. I. series A245*. New York: Plenum Press; 1992, p. 255–64.
- [23]Eckmann L, Kagnoff MF. Cytokines in host defense against Salmonella. *Microbes Infect* 2001; 3: 1191–200.
- [24]Mizuno Y, Takada H, Nomura A, Jin CH, Hattori H, Ihara K, et al. Th1 and Th2 inducing cytokines in *Salmonella* infection. *Clin Exp Immunol* 2003; **131**: 111–17.
- [25]Basel K, Al-ramadi, Mariam H, Al-dhaheri, Mustafa N, Abouhaidar M, et al. Influence of vector-encoded cytokines on anti-Salmonella immunity: Divergent effects of interleukin-2 and tumor necrosis factor alpha. *Inf & Imm* 2001; 69: 3980-88.
- [26]Mastroeni P, Villarreal-Ramos B, Hormaeche CE. Effect of late administration of anti-TNF- antibodies on a *Salmonella* infection in the mouse model. *Microb Pathog* 1993; 14: 473–80.
- [27]Pietila TE, Veckman V, Kyllönen P, Lähteenmäki K, Korhonen TK, Julkunen I. Activation, cytokine production, and intracellular survival of bacteria in *Salmonella*-infected human monocytederived macrophages and dendritic cells. *J Leukocyte Biol* 2005; 78: 909–20.
- [28]Gulig PA, Doyle TJ, Clare-Salzler MJ, Maiese RL, Matsui H. Systemic infection of mice by wild-type but not Spv- Salmonella typhimurium is enhanced by neutralization of interferon and tumor necrosis factor. Infect Immun 1997; 65: 5191-7.
- [29]Jouanguy E, Doffinger R, Dupuis S, Pallier A, Altare F, Casanova JL. IL-12 and IFN- in host defense against *Mycobacteria* and *Salmonella* in mice and men. *Curr Opin Immunol* 1999; 11: 346–51.
- [30]Bao S, Beagley KW, France MP, Shen J, Husband AJ. Interferongamma plays a critical role in intestinal immunity against Salmonella typhimurium infection. Immunology 2000; 99: 464– 72.
- [31]Harrington L, Srikanth CV, Antony R, Shi HN, Cherayil BJ. A role for natural killer cells in intestinal inflammation caused by infection with *Salmonella enterica* serovar Typhimurium. *FEMS Immunol Med Microbiol* 2007; **51**:372–80.
- [32]Kirby AC, Yrlid U, Wick MJ. The innate immune response differs in primary and secondary *Salmonella* infection. *J Immunol* 2002; 169: 4450–9.
- [33]Feau S, Facchinetti V, Granucci F, Citterio S, Jarrossay D, Seresini S, et al. Dendritic cell derived IL-2 production is regulated by IL-15 in humans and in mice. *Blood* 2005; 105: 697-702.
- [34]Waldmann TA. The biology of interleukin-2 and interleukin-15: implications for cancer therapy and vaccine design. *Nature Rev Immunol* 2006; 6(8): 595-601.
- [35]Thornton AM, Donovan EE, Piccirillo CA, Shevach EM. Cutting edge: IL-2 is critically required for the *in vitro* activation of CD4⁺CD25⁺T cell suppressor function. *Jimmunol* 2004; **172**: 6519– 23.