Interleukin 17A as an Effective Target for Anti-inflammatory and Antiparasitic Treatment of Toxoplasmic Uveitis

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**Background.** Toxoplasmosis is the most common cause of posterior uveitis in immunocompetent subjects. The requirement of limiting both parasite multiplication and tissue destruction suggests that the balance between T-helper (Th) 17 and T-regulatory cells is an important factor in toxoplasmosis-induced retinal damage.

**Methods.** In a prospective clinical study of acute ocular toxoplasmosis, we assessed the cytokine pattern in aqueous humors of 10 affected patients. To determine the immunological mechanisms, we evaluated intraocular inflammation, parasite load, and immunological responses using messenger RNA and protein levels in a mouse model. Anti-interleukin 17A (IL-17A) monoclonal antibodies (mAbs) were administered with the parasite to evaluate the role of IL-17A.

**Results.** Severe ocular inflammation and cytokine patterns comparable to human cases were observed, including IL-17A production. Neutralizing IL-17A decreased intraocular inflammation and parasite load in mice. Detailed studies revealed up-regulation of T-regulatory and Th1 pathways. When interferon γ (IFN-γ) was neutralized concomitantly, the parasite multiplication rate was partially restored.

**Conclusions.** Local IL-17A production by resident cells plays a central role in the pathology of ocular toxoplasmosis. The balance between Th17 and Th1 responses (especially IFN-γ) is crucial for the outcome of infection. This data reveals new in vivo therapeutic approaches by repressing inflammatory pathways using intravitreal injection of IL-17A mAbs.

Toxoplasmosis is the most common cause of posterior uveitis in immunocompetent subjects. Despite their apparent clinical significance, the pathophysiological mechanisms underlying ocular lesions and their recurrence have largely been unexplored [1–3]. Due to the scarcity of parasites in the aqueous humor (AqH) of affected eyes, an immunopathological mechanism is likely to be involved [1]. There is no clear consensus concerning the treatment of ocular toxoplasmosis (OT), which often involves the concomitant use of antibiotics with corticosteroids. However, such an immunosuppressive treatment may itself be responsible for the reactivation of OT, resulting in large necrotic retinal damage when used without adequate antibiotic coverage [4].

Current OT treatment balances the need to limit parasite multiplication and minimize tissue destruction in the eye. A recent study revealed interleukin 17 (IL-17)–producing T cells in brain inflammation sites due to *Toxoplasma* infection, which is controlled by interleukin 27 (IL-27) [5]. IL-17 is the key cytokine of the recently discovered Th17 inflammatory response. In addition to its anti-*Toxoplasma* role [6], IL-17 stimulates the production of interleukin 6 (IL-6) and nitric...
oxide, and amplifies local inflammatory responses in synergy with other mediators, such as interleukin 1, tumor necrosis factor (TNF) α, and interferon γ (IFN-γ) [7]. In addition, IL-17 amplifies local inflammatory responses by recruiting neutrophils and monocytes to sites of infection through the production of interleukin 8, Monocyte Chemotactic Protein-1 (MCP-1), and granulocyte colony-stimulating factor [6, 8, 9]. A similar mechanism was observed in autoimmune uveitis and scleritis [10], along with its regulation by IL-27 [11–13]. Furthermore, we recently showed in a retrospective study that IL-17 overexpression was observed in most OT cases [14]. The detection of IL-17 in AqH in human OT supports the hypothesis of an autoimmune process [3, 15].

When mice of susceptible strains are infected by the natural oral route, this results in ocular infection, although the parasite load is usually too low and develops too slowly to allow us to investigate immunological mechanisms both in congenital [16] and adult-acquired infections [17]. Therefore, we established a model of direct intraocular injection of tachyzoites of the avirulent Toxoplasma gondii PRU strain, which mimics natural pathology, though at a measurable level [18].

Our study aimed to assess the cytokine pattern in a prospective study involving patients with acute OT, particularly in terms of the Th17 pathway; our findings were then confirmed in our mouse model. Furthermore, we aimed to determine the benefit of injecting IL-17A monoclonal antibodies (mAbs) to diminish intraocular inflammation without damaging the ocular tissues on account of the cytolytic effects due to increased ocular parasite loads. Thus, we aimed to control simultaneously the 2 deleterious mechanisms involved in OT. Knowledge about the underlying immune mechanisms would enable us to develop more specific treatments targeting these pathogenic mechanisms.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Patients

The AqHs of 20 patients were collected, comprising 10 confirmed cases of acute acquired OT and 10 patients who had previously undergone cataract surgery. These patients were part of a prospective multicenter study benefitting from funds from Protocole Hospitalier de Recherche Clinique (PHRC 3964). All patients were immunocompetent. Anterior chamber puncture and serum sampling were conducted before initiating treatment. OT diagnosis was based on positive polymerase chain reaction (PCR) for 7 patients and immunoblotting for 3. The healthy control patients had been previously operated on for cataracts and were seronegative for Toxoplasma antibodies. The anterior chamber puncture was performed at the beginning of the surgical procedure. The protocol was approved by the local ethics committee, and all of the patients provided written informed consent.

Animals

Outbred Swiss-Webster mice were obtained from the Centre d’Elevage R. Janvier. Animals were bred under specific pathogen-free conditions at our laboratory. All experiments were conducted in accordance with the Statement for the Use of Animals in Ophthalmic and Vision Research from the Association for Research in Vision and Ophthalmology, under the surveillance of the regional Public Veterinary Health authorities.

Parasites

Cysts of T. gondii of the type II (avirulent) PRU strain were obtained from the brains of previously infected Swiss-Webster mice. Tachyzoites of the T. gondii PRU strain were harvested from infected human MRC5 fibroblast cultures.

Experimental Schedule

Mice at 4 weeks of age were infected intravitreally in both eyes with 2000 tachyzoites in 5 µL phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) using 30-gauge needles. The precise amount of injected tachyzoites was confirmed by microscopic counting and quantitative PCR. Age-matched control mice received an intravitreal injection of 5 µL of PBS. In a second experiment, 200 pg of anti–IL-17A mAbs were administered together with the tachyzoites. The corresponding control mice received 200 pg of rat immunoglobulin G2a (IgG2a) antibody. Finally, in a third experiment, 200 pg of IFN-γ mAbs and 200 pg of IL-17A mAbs (or 200 pg of a corresponding control rat IgG2a mAbs) in 5 µL PBS were coadministered intraocularly. All antibodies were purchased from Clinciences.

Intraocular injections were performed after a sedation procedure using isoflurane inhalation. The mice used in this study were killed by anesthetic overdose on days 1, 3, 5, or 7 after intravitreal injection. Clinical staging of intraocular inflammation was conducted as described elsewhere [19], and AqH was collected by means of an anterior chamber puncture (approximately 5 µL per eye), then pooled and stored in aliquots of 25 µL at −80°C until analysis. The eyes were finally enucleated, with the retinas being dissected and then stored at −80°C. Thus, each experimental group consisted of 5 animals (10 eyes), and all experiments were performed 3 times.

Quantification of Parasite Load

DNA was extracted from the whole eye using the QIAamp DNA Tissue Mini Kit (Qiagen), eluted with 200 µL of Qiagen elution buffer, and stored at −20°C. T. gondii real-time PCR (RT-PCR) was performed for the T. gondii repeated sequence AF487550 [20] on a LightCycler 2.0 (Roche Diagnostics) using the DNA Master Hybridization Probes Kit (Roche Diagnostics), as described elsewhere [16].

Cytokine Measurement in AqH

The Bio-Plex human 27-Plex and mouse 10-Plex Cytokine Panel (Bio-Rad) assays were used to measure cytokine and chemokine...
levels in AqH. The cytokine and chemokine assay plate layout consisted of 1 standard in duplicate (1–32,000 pg/mL), 4 blank wells, and 20-μL duplicates of pooled AqH samples diluted to 50 μL with BioPlex mouse serum diluent. The BioPlex method was performed as recommended by the manufacturer. Data was analyzed using Bio-Plex Manager TM software V1.1.

Quantitative RT-PCR Analysis
To include other potentially interesting cytokines or transcription factors that were not included in the BioPlex kit, we performed quantitative RT-PCR for T-bet, IL-27, Foxp3, RORγt, and transforming growth factor β (TGF-β). Retinas were gently homogenized. RNA was extracted using the RNeasy kit (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer’s recommendations.

Figure 1. Cytokine and chemokine patterns in the aqueous humor of patients with acute ocular toxoplasmosis (n = 10) compared with control patients with cataracts (n = 10). Immune mediators were administered using a 27-plex BioPlex assay in duplicates of 50 μL of aqueous humor. Horizontal dashes represent the medians *P < .05, ***P < .001. Abbreviations: IFN-γ, interferon γ; IL-2, interleukin 2; IL-6, interleukin 6; IL-10, interleukin 10; IL-13, interleukin 13; IL-17, interleukin 17; MCP-1, Monocyte Chemotactic Protein-1.
One microgram of RNA was then reverse-transcribed using the first-strand complementary DNA Synthesis Kit (Amer-Sham Biosciences). Next, the complementary DNA samples were subjected to RT-PCR (LightCycler FastStart DNA MasterPLUS SYBR Green I; Roche Applied Sciences) on a capillary-based LightCycler instrument (Roche). An external standard created using the same primer pairs was employed to quantify gene expression. The messenger RNA (mRNA) expression levels were normalized to the levels of hypoxanthine phosphoribosyltransferase (HPRT) and expressed relative to the mRNA levels of the same gene in a noninfected mouse. The following primers were used in this study: murine hypoxanthine-guanine phosphoribosyltransferase (mHPRT) forward, 5′-GTT GGA TAC AGG CCA GAC TTT GTT G-3′; mHPRT reverse, 5′-GAT TCA ACT TGC GCT CAT CTT AGC C-3′; T-bet forward, 5′-CCT GTT GTG GTC CAA GTT CA-3′; T-bet reverse, 5′-TGC TGC CTT CTG CCT TTC-3′; IL-27 forward, 5′-CCT GTT GCT GCT ACC CTT-3′; IL-27 reverse, 5′-TGT GGA CAT AGC CCT GAA C-3′; Foxp3 forward, 5′-GCT GAT CAT GGC TGG GTT GTT GT-3′; Foxp3 reverse, 5′-GGC CCT TCT CCA GGA CAG A-3′; RORγt forward, 5′-AGG CGG CTT GGA CCA CGA T-3′; RORγt reverse, 5′-CGG CCC TGG TTC TCA TCA A-3′; TGF-β forward, 5′-TGG CTT CTA GTG CTG ACG C-3′; TGF-β reverse, 5′-TAG TTT GGA CAG GAT CTG GC-3′; Foxp3 forward, 5′-GCT GAT CAT GGC TGG GTT GT-3′; Foxp3 reverse, 5′-GGC CCT TCT CCA GGA CAG A-3′; RORγt forward, 5′-TCT CAG GCT CCC TCT TC-3′; and IL-17 reverse, 5′-CTA CCT CAA CCG TTC CAC-3′.

Histopathology and IL-17A Immunofluorescence of Retinal Sections

Eyes were enucleated and immediately fixed in 4% buffered formaldehyde. For histopathology, fixed eyes were embedded in paraffin using an automate (TECK VIP 300). Each piece
was serially cut in 10 4-µm sections hematoxylin-eosin stained with a staining machine (DRS 2000; Sakura).

For immunofluorescence, cryocut sections of whole eyes were prepared as described elsewhere [21]. In short, fixed eyes were placed in increasing concentrations of sucrose and embedded in Tissue-Tek OCT compound (Sakura Fintek). Thereafter, 15-µm-thick sections were prepared, incubated in methanol, and quenched with glycine. Sections were incubated with rabbit anti–IL-17A antibody (clone H-132, 2 µg/mL; Santa Cruz Biotechnology) for 2 hours at room temperature, then with Alexa 488–conjugated anti-rabbit antibody (10 µg/mL; Invitrogen) for 45 minutes, and finally with Hoechst 33342 stain for 1 minute. All antibodies were diluted in PBS (0.1% bovine serum albumin, 0.05% Tween 20). Between all steps, sections were washed with PBS for 3 × 5 minutes. After mounting, fluorescence was visualized on an Axioobserver Z1 HSDI epifluorescence microscope (Zeiss) and evaluated with AxioVision v5 software (Zeiss). For colocalization

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Figure 3. A large panel of cytokines and chemokines was up-regulated after intraocular infection. Cytokine levels in aqueous humor were measured by BioPlex assay on day 3 (A) or 7 (B) after the intravitreal injection of 2000 Toxoplasma gondii tachyzoites. Values are expressed as means ± standard deviations of 3 independent experiments. **P < .01, ***P < .001. Abbreviations: IFN-γ, interferon γ; IL-2, interleukin 2; IL-6, interleukin 6; IL-10, interleukin 10; IL-13, interleukin 13; IL-17, interleukin 17; MCP-1, Monocyte Chemotactic Protein-1; PBS, phosphate-buffered saline; TNF-α, tumor necrosis factor α.
experiments, slides were incubated simultaneously with anti-IL-17A and goat anti-vimentin (Santa Cruz Biotechnology) antibodies, then with Alexa 488-conjugated anti-goat antibody and Alexa 546-conjugated anti-rabbit antibody (both Invitrogen), using the same protocol described above. Fluorescence was visualized on a Leica SR5 confocal microscope and evaluated using Leica LAS imaging analysis software.

Statistical Analysis
In the human study, values were given as individual cytokine or chemokine levels plus medians. Statistical analysis was performed using the nonparametric Mann-Whitney test. In mouse studies, values were expressed as means ± standard deviations (SDs) of the 3 independent experiments. The statistical evaluation of the intraocular inflammation grading was performed using Student’s t test. The 2-way analysis of variance test was used to compare the mean titers of immune mediators obtained by RT-PCR and BioPlex analysis in the groups of mice. All statistical analyses and graphs were performed using the GraphPad Prism software, version 5 (GraphPad Software). Differences were considered statistically significant at $P < .05$.

RESULTS

Acute Ocular Toxoplasma Infection in Humans Associated With Inflammatory Cytokine Profile
A large panel of immune mediators was up-regulated in the infected eyes, including cytokines of the Th1 (interleukin 2 [IL-2], IFN-γ) and Th2 (interleukin 13 [IL-13], but to a lesser extent) pathways, as well as inflammatory (IL-6, IL-17, MCP-1) and down-regulating cytokines (interleukin 10 [IL-10]). In contrast, TNF-α was not up-regulated. In addition, we confirmed the strong up-regulation of IL-17 in patients with OT (Figure 1). All other cytokines and chemokines were below the detection limit.

Measurable Inflammation Induced by Intraocular T. gondii Injection
As shown in Figure 2A, the T. gondii injection rapidly induced intraocular inflammation, the differences between the infected and sham-infected mice being highly significant ($P < .001$) throughout the experiment. Our observations showed that the toxoplastic infection involved mild architectural modifications of the analyzed retinas (Figure 2B). Indeed, we observed a deterioration of the ganglionar cell layer and the choroids of all the analyzed sections accompanied by an infiltration of inflammatory cells and a neovascularization. Moreover, we noticed a deterioration of the hierarchy of the various nuclear layers characterized by a folding of the photoreceptor layer.

Local Inflammatory and Anti-inflammatory Reactions Induced by Infection
Several cytokines of the Th1- and Th17-type reactions as well as regulatory cytokines, such as IL-10, were up-regulated on infection. No difference was visible between days 3 and 7, with the exception of IL-2, which was absent at the latter time point (Figure 3). IL-27 and TGF-β levels were significantly increased in the infected eyes. T-bet was markedly enhanced, thus confirming the initiation of a strong Th1 response, in line with our cytokine data. Additionally, the up-regulation of inflammatory cytokines was mirrored by the enhanced RORγt transcription (Figure 4).

Effect of IL-17A Neutralization on Intraocular Inflammation Due to T. gondii Injection and Pathogen Control
Simultaneous injections of parasites and neutralizing antibodies were performed with the aim of abrogating early IL-17A
and its functional role in the pathological development of the disease. Intraocular inflammation after the intravitreal injection of 2000 Toxoplasma gondii tachyzoites and concomitant injection of rat IgG2a or anti–IL-17A monoclonal antibody was significantly lower on days 1, 3, and 5 compared with the injection of a rat IgG2a control antibody (Figure 2B). This difference disappeared on day 7. Using the control mAb, the ocular parasite load started to increase exponentially after day 1 until the end of the experiment. After the injection of anti–IL-17A mAbs at the same time as T. gondii tachyzoites, parasite multiplication could not be completely prevented, although it was significantly delayed (Figure 2C).

**Effect of IL-17A Neutralization on Cytokine Balance in AqH**

AqH levels of the inflammatory mediators, IL-6 and MCP-1, were decreased with anti–IL-17A mAbs as compared with the corresponding IgG2a control. In addition, the Th1 cytokines IL-2 (on day 3) and IFN-γ showed increased levels with
anti–IL-17A mAbs, whereas TNF-α levels did not significantly differ. Surprisingly, IL-10 was down-regulated, and IL-13 was absent (Figure 5A and 5B).

**Quantitative RT-PCR Analysis Revealing Shift Toward T-Regulatory Pathways**
Although the regulating cytokine TGF-β was slightly less expressed with anti–IL-17A mAbs, the anti-inflammatory IL-27 showed markedly enhanced mRNA levels on IL-17A neutralization. The latter finding was mirrored in the enhanced expression of Foxp3 mRNA. The highly enhanced t-bet expression was in line with the higher IFN-γ levels, thus pointing to an influx of Th1 cells. In contrast, the expression of ROAST was not affected (Figure 6).

**Reversed Effects of Anti–IL-17A Treatment With Concomitant Neutralization of IFN-γ**
The neutralization of IFN-γ and IL-17A led to increased inflammation (Figure 2B). Similarly, parasite multiplication almost returned to its original level with IFN-γ and IL-17A neutralization (Figure 2C).

**Production of IL-17A in Retinal Cells**
Retinas of both noninfected and infected mice stained positive for IL-17A (Figure 7A). The wide distribution of IL-17A–producing cells, mainly located in the ganglion and nuclear layers, suggested resident cells rather than infiltrating leukocytes. Staining was considerably more intense in the retinas of infected mice, being extended to transversal cells. On account of this staining of transversal fibers, we undertook a colocalization study of IL-17A and vimentin, a marker for Müller cells (Figure 7B). A large colocalization of IL-17 and Müller cells was observed, in addition to some IL-17 production in other cell types that did not express vimentin.

**DISCUSSION**
Understanding the immunopathological mechanisms involved in OT is a prerequisite for developing targeted pharmaceutical interventions. However, because of our limited access to human ocular tissues and the variable ocular affections that occur after oral infection in animal models, few data are available. This is particularly true when investigating early inflammatory responses and cytokine production.

In a recent retrospective study [14], we found a characteristic local cytokine profile in human OT, which notably included IL-17A overexpression. To obtain more precise data, we conducted a prospective study so as to establish ocular cytokine and chemokine levels in clinically well-defined patients in French hospitals. The confirmed presence of IL-17A in infected eyes is of particular interest, because this cytokine is known to induce and mediate proinflammatory responses and autoimmune diseases. The role of IL-17A in infectious diseases is ambiguous, varying between antipathogenic activity and tissue destruction. IL-17 and the corresponding inflammatory response have already been reported during *T. gondii* infections [5, 6, 22]. In contrast, there is a considerable discrepancy in terms of the antiparasitic effect of IL-17. Different studies have revealed contradictory results. The focus on different organs could be one explanation. In addition, numerous studies confirmed the central role of Th17-type cytokines in autoimmune pathology [11, 23], although they may be beneficial in certain infectious diseases [24]. However, the eye presents a particular immunosuppressive environment [25]. Retinal pigment epithelium and probably other cell types

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**Figure 6.** Gene expression analysis revealed increased T-regulatory pathways. Mice were injected intravitreally with 2000 *Toxoplasma gondii* tachyzoites and simultaneously with rat IgG2a or anti–IL-17A antibody. Quantitative real-time polymerase chain reaction analysis was performed in pools of the retinas, with 5 mice per group. Values are expressed as means ± standard deviations of 3 independent experiments. *P < .05, **P < .01, ***P < .001. Abbreviations: IL-17, interleukin 17; IL-17, interleukin 27; mRNA, messenger RNA; TGF-β, transforming growth factor β.
confer tolerance to activated T cells either directly or via the induction of T-regulatory cells [26, 27].

In our model involving the direct intraocular injection of tachyzoites of the avirulent type-II PRU strain of T. gondii, which mimics the natural pathology in Europe, we demonstrated the deleterious role of IL-17A in terms of pathology and parasite control. We also observed another increase in intraocular inflammation on day 7. This increase may have been due to 2 major inflammatory mediator cytokines, IL-6 and MCP-1, which deserve further investigation. T-regulatory pathways were increased by IL-17A neutralization, as shown by the increased IL-27 and FoxP3 expression. It would be interesting to know whether existing FoxP3+ T cells were attracted to the eye or changed their phenotype in situ. Both direct

Figure 7.  A, Immunofluorescence detection of interleukin 17A (IL-17A) in retinal sections. Cryocut sections of noninfected and Toxoplasma gondii–infected retinas on day 7 after injection were incubated with anti–IL-17A antibody, Alexa 488–conjugated secondary antibody, and Hoechst 33342 stain. To assess background staining, only secondary antibody stained sections are shown. Abbreviations: GCL, ganglion cell layer; INL, inner nuclear layer; ONL, outer nuclear layer; PHR, photoreceptors; RPE, retinal pigmented endothelium. B, Colocalization study of vimentin (Müller cells) and IL-17A in T. gondii–infected retinas on day 7 after injection, as described in Materials and Methods.
conversion [27] and peripheral induction of T-regulatory cells by locally primed antigen-presenting cells [28] were reported elsewhere. Keeping in mind the direct antagonism between IL-17 and IL-27 [29], which was also shown in a T. gondii infection setting [5], this up-regulation is not surprising.

Our immunofluorescence images suggested the early IL-17A production by resident retinal cells rather than infiltrating T cells. The positive staining in noninfected retinas confirms this interpretation. This is somewhat surprising, because IL-17 production is generally attributed to T cells by activating the transcription factor RORγt [30]. However, cells of the innate immune system have been recently recognized as important factors in the rapid onset of inflammatory responses by IL-17 secretion [31]. The observed distribution and early secretion of IL-17A in the eye led us to suspect that resident cells, such as glial cells and/or astrocytes, may be responsible for this early production of IL-17A, as already reported in the brain [32]. Although the retina remains poorly explored, local IL-17 production was observed in a rat model of autoimmune uveitis and then localized to astrocytes based on morphological evidence [33]. Intriguingly, our observed production pattern corresponded with IL-27 production patterns in autoimmune uveitis [11]. It would be interesting to investigate the interplay between inflammatory and anti-inflammatory actions in the same cells.

Whether the up-regulation of IL-27 is directly responsible for the increased Th1 response and IFN-γ production in particular, remains uncertain during OT. IFN-γ is undoubtedly the central player in antitoxoplasmic immunity [34]. Accordingly, when we neutralized IFN-γ at the same time as IL-17A, we found that parasite proliferation nearly reached this level without any neutralizing antibodies. More surprisingly, an early reduction in ocular pathology was equally abrogated. Obvious we found that parasite proliferation nearly reached this level at the same time as IL-17A, when we neutralized IFN-γ; this up-regulation is not surprising.

In summary, we established a pathogenic role for local IL-17A in OT. Our results relate to the relatively benign Type II strain, predominant in Europe and North America, which induces IL-17 production in mice models. It would be of interest to analyze the inflammatory cytokines in South American patients, harboring more virulent strains [37–39]. The understanding of immunopathological OT events may open new and targeted approaches to immune therapy. The increasing efficacy and safety of intravitreal injections in conjunction with the development of pharmacotherapies has led to a recent surge in the use of this technique for the administration of various pharmacotherapies in numerous diseases [40]. Because it was suggested that intravitreal drug application was likely to achieve therapeutic levels locally, resulting in prolonged effective concentrations, intravitreal injection may be used in toxoplasmic retinochoroiditis to decrease inflammatory processes. These findings open new in vivo therapeutic approaches based on the repression of the Th17 pathway via IL-17A mAbs.

Notes

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