



Special Issue: Interaction between gut microbiota and host immune cells

Mini Review

Regulation of allergy by probiotics

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A considerable number of reports show that administration of probiotics may prevent or alleviate allergy. These may be direct effects of bacterial components on immune system, or through indirect effects through alteration of intestinal microbiota. Animal and cellular studies imply that direct effects may be through inhibition of Th2 responses by enhancement of Th1 response, induction of apoptosis, induction of regulatory T cells, and other mechanisms. One mechanism of the indirect effects may be regulatory T cell induction by metabolites of microbiota. Further studies are required to fully understand the mechanisms.

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Regulation of allergy by probiotics

Allergy is hypersensitivity to harmless antigens such as pollen and food. Probiotics are defined as living microorganisms with beneficial effects when administered orally. At the start of the 21st century, it was reported that intestinal microbiota are different between allergic and non-allergic individuals^{1, 2)}. This led to trials to inhibit allergy by administration of lactic acid bacteria (LAB). It was shown by Kalliomaki et al. that the administration of lactic acid bacteria to pregnant mothers and the new born babies could prevent the prevalence of atopic skin disease in the newborns³⁾. Since then, many trials have been performed to prevent or alleviate allergy by oral administration of LAB or other probiotic bacteria. Concerning effects of probiotics

on allergy, meta-analyses have been performed^{4, 5)}. One such analysis shows the efficacy of probiotics in prevention rather than treatment of pediatric atopic dermatitis⁴⁾. Another concludes that prenatal and/or early-life probiotic administration reduces risk of atopic sensitization and decreases IgE level in children⁵⁾. In Japanese studies, besides the inhibition of atopic dermatitis⁶⁾, it has been shown that oral administration of a *Lactobacillus* strain⁷⁾ or a *Bifidobacterium* strain⁸⁾ could alleviate pollen allergy.

Mechanisms of inhibition of allergy by LAB and other probiotic bacteria

The inhibition of allergy may be either direct effects through bacterial components or indirect effects through intestinal



Table 1 Mechanisms of regulation of allergy by probiotics

Direct effects
Inhibition of Th2 responses by enhancement of Th1 responses mediated by IL-12
Inhibition of Th2 responses by apoptosis induction
Induction of regulatory T cells by enhancement of RALDH activity
Inhibition of Th2 chemokines
Indirect effects
Induction of regulatory T cells by commensal metabolites

microbiota (Table 1). One mechanism of direct effects is the inhibition of excess Th2 response, being one of the major causes of allergy. It has been shown in cellular and animal models that certain LAB could inhibit Th2 responses. One of the well documented mechanisms is the induction of Th1 and inhibition of Th2 response through the enhancement of IL-12 response⁹⁻¹¹. However this does not seem to be the case for all LAB. Certain LAB are capable of inhibiting Th2 response without enhancing Th1 response¹². We found that such strain of *Lactobacillus acidophilus* induced apoptosis of activated T cells mediated by dendritic cells¹². In these cases in which Th1 responses are not enhanced, IL-10 may be produced, as shown in the case of a *Lactobacillus plantarum* strain¹³. A further mechanism to inhibit allergy is the induction of regulatory T cells¹⁴. Retinoic acid, a vitamin A metabolite has activity to induce Foxp3⁺ regulatory T cells. The induction of RALDH2 activity, a key enzyme in the production of retinoic acid, is an interesting mechanism of regulatory T cell induction¹⁵. A strain of *L. plantarum* has been shown to induce ALDH activity in MLN dendritic cells and induce Foxp3⁺ regulatory T cells in mice^{14,15}. We have shown a yet another mechanism for *Bifidobacterium* to inhibit Th2 response, being the inhibition of Th2 chemokines¹⁶. A strain of *Bifidobacterium longum* inhibited the production of TARC induced by T cell and antigen-presenting cell interactions¹⁶. These direct effects of bacterial components could be observed in case of 'killed' bacteria, implying that at least part of the 'probiotic' effects do not necessarily require 'live' bacteria. It has been suggested that these bacterial components are recognized by immune competent cells through pattern recognition receptors such as TLRs. Some studies demonstrate the involvement of TLR2, which seem to mediate the induction of IL-10¹⁷. TLRs may not be involved in the induction of IL-12, and one study shows that the IL-12 enhancing effect is not altered in TLR2^{-/-}TLR4^{-/-}TLR9^{-/-} mice¹⁸. Of interest

is the recent report demonstrating that double-stranded RNA derived from LAB recognized through TLR3 inhibits inflammation by induction of type I interferon¹⁹.

The indirect effects through intestinal microbiota are less documented. The alterations of intestinal microbiota after administration of a *Bifidobacterium* strain that has anti-allergic effects has been shown²⁰. However, the mechanisms that alleviate allergy underlying are not clearly understood. The relation between certain commensal bacteria and immune response may give hints. *Clostridium* species induce regulatory T cells and in the mouse model, mediate IgE inhibition²¹. The induction of regulatory T cells may be due to the commensal metabolites such as butyrate²².

Conclusion

Although there are considerable reports in humans showing regulation of allergy by probiotics (and non-viable bacteria)³⁻⁸, other reports suggest they are ineffective^{4, 5}. Various mechanisms have been demonstrated in animal and cellular models⁹⁻²². It is necessary to elucidate the difference of species and strains for a better understanding.

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No conflicts of interest to be disclosed.

Abbreviations

LAB: lactic acid bacteria

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