REVIEW ARTICLE

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Epidermal adhesion molecules and basement membrane components as target structures of autoimmunity

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Abstract Intraepidermal and dermal-epidermal cohesion are of paramount importance for the integrity of the skin. Some constituent molecules of keratinocyte adhesion complexes and basement membrane-associated structures are the targets of antibody-mediated autoimmune reactions that give rise to various (muco-)cutaneous blistering diseases. The current state of our knowledge about these molecules - along with the main clinical, histological, and immunohistochemical features of the corresponding autoimmune diseases and their pathogenetic mechanisms – comprise the subjects surveyed in this review. Among the desmosomal cadherins (desmogleins and desmocollins) that mediate epidermal cell-cell adhesion, it has been demonstrated that desmoglein 1 and desmoglein 3 are the autoantigens of pemphigus foliaceus and pemphigus vulgaris, respectively, both diseases that result in intraepidermal blistering. Further, desmocollin autoantibodies may be involved in IgA pemphigus. Paraneoplastic pemphigus is associated with autoantibodies directed against the desmosomal plaque protein, desmoplakin. Of the constituents of hemidesmosomes, the plaque protein, BP230 (BPAG1), and the collagen-like transmembrane protein, BP180 (BPAG2), are the autoantigens of bullous pemphigoid and pemphigoid gestationis, the manifestations of both of which include subepidermal blistering. Several diseases arise from autoimmune reactions against certain proteins associated with the basement membrane located beneath hemidesmosomes, for example laminin 5 (cicatricial pemphigoid), ladinin (LAD-1; linear IgA disease), uncein, and collagen VII (epidermolysis bullosa acquisita), the last of which is the constituent protein of the anchoring fibrils. Such recent advances in the elucidation of the molecular nature of autoantigens may serve as the

basis for the development of novel molecule-based therapeutic strategies.

Key words Desmosomal cadherins \cdot Pemphigus \cdot Hemidesmosomes \cdot Basement membrane \cdot Bullous skin diseases

Introduction

In multicellular organisms, cells are able to attach to other cellular and noncellular structures. The establishment and maintenance of adhesion - both between two identical or two different cell types (homophilic and heterophilic cell-cell adhesion) and between a cell and the extracellular matrix (cell-matrix adhesion) – are of fundamental importance in embryonic development and tissue homeostasis. Furthermore, cellular adhesion is a factor of great significance in various fields of pathology, including inflammation, immunopathology, and, by no means least, tumour pathology. In the last of these, the adhesive properties of tumour cells and their loss or acquisition of the ability to adhere to various structures of the host organism contribute to multiple events during tumour development and progression. Recent research has been able to cast a good deal of light on the molecules that form complex intra- or extracellular networks involving various interactions, thereby mediating diverse adhesion processes [17, 30, 51, 133, 134].

Another clinically important field in which defective cell-cell and cell-matrix adhesion are of pivotal importance with respect to pathogenesis is that of bullous autoimmune diseases of the skin. In these diseases, various adhesion molecules of epidermal keratinocytes and of the basement membrane zone are targets of humoral autoimmunity, leading to the loss of adhesion of epidermal cells at various (ultra)structural levels and, consequently, the formation of bullae (for an early review by pioneer researchers in this field, see [20]; for a more recent review see [130]). In recent dermatological review articles, the main features of these diseases have been summa-

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rized as well as the particular methods, including immunofluorescence microscopy, required for their accurate diagnosis [66, 76]. The present survey of published work focuses on recent advances concerning the cell and molecular biology of epidermal adhesion molecules and considers their relevance with respect to the classification, pathogenesis, and treatment of autoimmune bullous diseases. As will be shown, not only has the molecular characterization of relevant autoantibodies been useful for clinical medicine, but such autoantibodies have also, in turn, been most valuable for cell biology, particularly basic cutaneous biology. Indeed, the identification of certain structural molecules, such as the antigens of pemphigus vulgaris and of bullous pemphigoid, has only been made possible by the use of sera from those affected [2, 31, 87]. Molecular sequencing of several of these

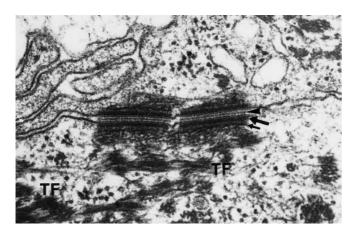


Fig. 1 Typical ultrastructure of desmosomes. Electron micrograph of two desmosomes connecting human epidermal stratum spinosum keratinocytes. Note the well-developed midline structure of the desmoglea (*arrowhead*), the conspicuous outer desmosomal plaque (*large arrow*) and the thinner inner plaque (*small arrow*) with the inserting tonofilaments (*TF*). ×55,000

Fig. 2 Schematic illustration of the structural and molecular composition of the epidermal desmosome, together with the corresponding autoimmune diseases. The outer plaque is shown in *dark grey*, the inner plaque in *light grey*. Note that the extracellular domains of the desmosomal cadherins bridge the widened intercellular gap (only the outer part of the lower cell's desmosomal half is shown)

antigens has revealed surprising relationships to known protein families, while unique, novel proteins have been identified in other cases.

Constituents and antigens of desmosomes

Among the intercellular adhering junctions of epithelial cells, desmosomes (maculae adhaerentes) are the most typical. In stratified squamous epithelia, these are particularly large and well formed, and their molecular composition is more complex than that of the desmosomes present in simple epithelia (for recent reviews, see [41, 42, 47, 48, 51, 86, 122, 130]). True desmosomes also occur in a few nonepithelial cell types, such as those of the myocardium and dendritic reticulum cells of lymphoid follicles.

The typical ultrastructure of desmosomes is shown in Fig. 1, and a simplified diagram of the structural and molecular composition of these junctions is presented in Fig. 2. The most prominent ultrastructural feature of desmosomes is the electron-dense plaque with a diameter of about 0.5 µm (Fig. 1). This can be differentiated into an outer (submembranous), very dense portion and an inner, less dense portion: bundles of intermediate filaments (in epithelial cells, cytokeratin filaments or tonofilaments) insert tangentially into the latter part. The desmosomal plague mainly comprises the ubiquitous proteins, desmoplakin I (extending into the inner plaque) and plakoglobin (in the outer plaque), while particularly in stratified squamous epithelia, further, accessory proteins, such as desmoplakin II and plakophilin 1, may be also present ([122]; see also below). In addition, the two desmoplakin-related intermediate filament-associated proteins (IFAPs), plectin and IFAP 300, are also present in desmosomes (and in hemidesmosomes; see below) [51]. The intercellular adherence is assumed to be mediated by

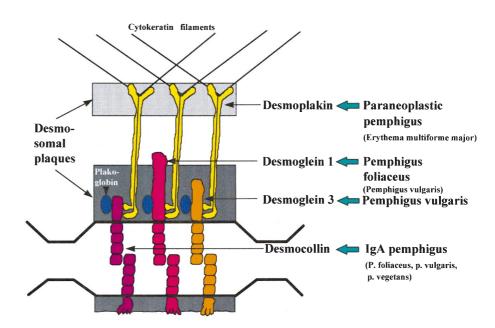


Table 1 Overview of autoantigenic cell-cell and cell-matrix adhesion proteins and basement membrane components and the corresponding autoimmune diseases

Structure	Autoantigen		Autoimmune diseases ^a	Blisters
	Name	Character		
Desmosomes	Desmoplakins	Cytoplasmic plaque proteins	Paraneoplastic pemphigus ^b ; (erythema multiforme major)	Intraepidermal
	Desmoglein (Dsg) 1	Cadherin	Pemphigus foliaceus (including pemphigus erythematosus); pemphigus herpetiformis; (pemphigus vulgaris)	Intraepidermal
	Desmoglein (Dsg) 3	Cadherin	Pemphigus vulgaris (including pemphigus vegetans)	Intraepidermal
	Desmocollins (Dsc)	Cadherins	IgA pemphigus: Subcorneal pustular dermatosis (Dsc1), intraepidermal neutrophilic IgA dermatosis (Dsg3?); (pemphigus foliaceus); (pemphigus vulgaris, pemphigus vegetans)	Intraepidermal
Hemidesmosomes and associated basement membrane structures	BP230 (BPAG1)	Cytoplasmic plaque protein	Bullous pemphigoid; (pemphigoid gestationis)	Subepidermal
	BP180 (BPAG2)	Transmembrane protein (extracellular collagenous portion)	Bullous pemphigoid; pemphigoid gestationis; cicatricial pemphigoid	Subepidermal
	Laminin 5	Protein complex of anchoring filaments	Cicatricial pemphigoid (laminin-5 type)	Subepidermal
	Uncein	Protein complex of anchoring filaments	Cicatricial pemphigoid (uncein type; clinically epidermolysis bullosa acquisita-like)	Subepidermal
	Ladinin (LAD-1)	Component of anchoring filaments	Linear IgA disease, chronic bullous disease of childhood	Subepidermal
	Collagen VII	Component of anchoring fibrils	Epidermolysis bullosa acquisita; bullous systemic lupus erythematosus (type I)	Subepidermal

^a Diseases in which autoantibodies against the respective autoantigen are of minor importance are indicated in brackets

transmembrane molecules, the desmosomal cadherins (desmogleins, desmocollins; for references, see below). The cytoplasmic portions of these molecules extend from the plasma membrane into the outer plaque. The extracellular portions of these molecules play a primary and immediate part in the mediation of intercellular adhesion occurring in a zipper-like manner; at the ultrastructural level these molecules have the appearance of a substance filling the distended intercellular gap (desmoglea) and exhibiting a dense midline structure recognizable in well-developed desmosomes. Thus, desmosomes anchor the intermediate-filament cytoskeleton to the plasma membrane, while simultaneously maintaining, via their role in cell-cell adhesion, the integrity and stability of multicellular epithelial tissue. As well as having these mechanical functions, desmosomes may also be involved in signal transduction pathways [30].

Several desmosomal proteins play important parts in certain bullous autoimmune diseases (Table 1; Fig. 2)

and may serve as target antigens; as a result of the autoimmune processes, *intraepidermal blisters* develop.

Desmoplakins

The relatively large desmoplakin I (250 kDa) is an important, exclusively intracellular plaque protein present in all true desmosomes (Fig. 2). It is not found in most other plaque-bearing junctions, such as adherens junctions, and the only non-desmosomal junction in which desmoplakin (or a closely related protein) has been detected is the complexus adhaerens of the lymphatic endothelium and the retothelium of lymph nodes [120, 121]. Desmoplakin II is a smaller splice variant found in certain epithelia such as stratified squamous epithelia. Desmoplakins occur as homodimers, in which the central, intertwining α-helical domains of two molecules form a rod-like middle portion, from which the globular

^b Autoantibodies against BP230 and a 190 kDa protein are also typically detected

N-terminal (head) and C-terminal (tail) domains protrude [86]. While the head is part of the electron-dense outer desmosomal plaque, the tail extends into the cell (inner plaque) and is prominently involved in the attachment of cytokeratin filaments [85]. Desmoplakin I is a ubiquitous component of all true desmosomes and is also detectable, as a marker, in malignant tumours derived from desmosome-bearing cells; along with carcinomas, such tumours include meningiomas and granulosa cell tumours [100].

Autoantibodies directed against desmoplakins I and II are typical features of the recently recognized *paraneo-plastic pemphigus* [11, 57, 66, 109], a severe blister- and erosion-forming disease of the skin and mucous membranes, mainly occurring in patients suffering from malignant lymphomas (including chronic lymphatic leukemia) and thymomas.

Histologically, a prominent feature of this disease is epidermal basal-cell vacuolization, with resultant formation of suprabasal acantholytic blisters; further distinctive features are keratinocyte necroses and disseminated dyskeratoses, as well as the presence of a subepidermal inflammatory infiltrate.

It has been shown that when transferred to animals, the immunoglobulins of patients suffering from this disease exert pathogenic effects [11]; however, the precise mechanisms involved are unclear, since antibodies directed against intracytoplasmic desmoplakins cannot enter intact cells. Nonetheless, such anti-desmoplakin autoantibodies are of significance at least with respect to serodiagnosis, because in indirect immunofluorescence microscopy, they label various epithelia (including the urothelium) that are not stained by pemphigus autoantibodies (see below). Further autoantibodies that are present in paraneoplastic pemphigus and might be of pathogenic relevance are those directed against BP230 (see below) and against an as yet unidentified 190-kDa protein. Along with desmoplakins I and II, these antigens comprise the so-called paraneoplastic pemphigus complex (for a discussion on another 170-kDa transmembrane antigen with an extracellular domain, as well as atypical clinical and immunological varieties of paraneoplastic pemphigus and further references, see [28]).

Very recently, autoantibodies directed against desmoplakins I and II were found in a subset of patients with erythema multiforme major, some of whom had been exposed to nonsteroidal antirheumatic drugs and herpes simplex labialis [40]; the lesions seen in these patients had histopathological features reminiscent of those seen in cases of paraneoplastic pemphigus.

Plakoglobin and other desmosomal proteins of the *arma-dillo* family

Plakoglobin is a plaque protein (83 kDa) of the *armadillo* family, whose members are characterized by typically tandemly ordered repeating units and may also have signal transduction functions. This protein is also a compo-

nent of nondesmosomal plaque-bearing junctions, such as actin-filament-associated adherens junctions, which typically also contain another *armadillo* protein, β -catenin (for a review, see [122]). In desmosomes (Fig. 2), plakoglobin is associated with the cytoplasmic portions of desmosomal cadherins (see below; [30, 41, 51]). Therefore, upon immunoprecipitation using pemphigus foliaceus and pemphigus vulgaris autoantibodies directed against certain desmosomal cadherins (see below), plakoglobin is precipitated along with the cadherins, although it is not itself an autoantigen [84, 130].

Two other *armadillo*-type proteins found in desmosomal plaques also occur in cell nuclei, a curious phenomenon whose significance is, as yet, unclear. These are plakophilin 1 (band-6 protein), whose presence in desmosomes is restricted to stratified and complex epithelia [62, 63, 71, 103, 122], and plakophilin 2, which has a more widespread desmosomal distribution [99]. Autoimmune phenomena related to these proteins have yet to be described.

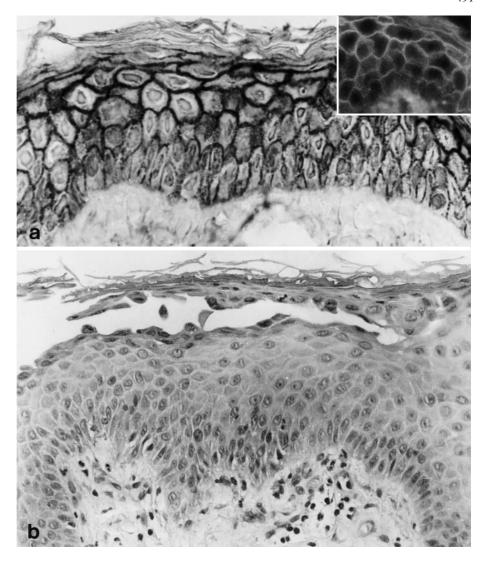
Desmosomal cadherins

Desmosomal cadherins make an important contribution to the adhesive functions of desmosomes. These transmembrane glycoproteins belong to the supergene family of cadherins, which are calcium-dependent homophilic cell-cell adhesion molecules [49, 132–134], whose genes are clustered on chromosome 18q12. Interestingly, six desmosomal cadherins can be distinguished, these being differentially expressed according to the cell type and the stratified squamous epithelial layer. This group comprises three desmogleins (Dsg1, Dsg2, and Dsg3), which are characterized by relatively long cytoplasmic portions, and three shorter desmocollins (Dsc1, Dsc2, and Dsc3) [25, 41, 78, 86, 122, 130]. Of these, Dsg2 and Dsc2 appear to be expressed more or less throughout most desmosome-bearing tissues, while Dsg1, Dsg3, Dsc1, and Dsc3 are less widespread, being largely confined to stratified squamous epithelia [74, 101, 106, 107, 117, 118, 124, 137]. In comparison with the "classical" cadherins, E-, P-, and N-cadherin, the desmosomal cadherins differ principally in their cytoplasmic portions; however, they do exhibit relatively close homologies in their extracellular, calcium-ion-binding, repetitive domains, E1 (outermost, N-terminal) to E4, the outer domain(s) mediating homophilic binding to the corresponding portion of the partner molecule of a neighbouring cell (Fig. 2). The functional significance of certain desmosomal cadherins with respect to epidermal cell-cell adhesion is illustrated by their autoimmune pathology.

Desmoglein 1

Desmoglein 1 (Dsg1) is a desmosomal cadherin with a molecular weight of 160 kDa [79, 141], which has a rela-

Fig. 3a, b Pemphigus foliaceus. a Indirect immunoperoxidase staining (applying 5 mM CaCl₂ [96]) of human epidermis detects circulating IgG4 autoantibodies with typical, suprabasally enhanced intercellular staining pattern (Brazilian endemic form). ×700. The inset illustrates a corresponding staining using the more common indirect immunofluorescence method. ×430. b Biopsy showing split formation at the level of the uppermost stratum spinosum and the stratum granulosum and a slight subepidermal inflammatory infiltrate. H&E, $\times 280$. (Reprinted, with permission of Gustav Fischer Verlag Stuttgart, from [102])



tively long cytoplasmic tail extending into the desmosomal plaque (Fig. 2). Its expression is restricted to stratified squamous epithelia [75, 80, 117]. In the epidermis, Dsg1 is most prominent in the desmosomes of suprabasal layers, apparently attaining maximum expression in the upper epidermal layers [7, 12, 75, 125] while the immunostaining produced by autoantibodies against Dsg1 in basal epidermal cells is weaker but not insignificant (Fig. 3a; cf. [8]).

Dsg1 is the autoantigen of *pemphigus foliaceus* [84, 130]. The autoimmune nature and significance of autoantibodies in this disease, as well as in pemphigus vulgaris and bullous pemphigoid, was recognized in the pioneering work in this field by E.H. Beutner, R.E. Jordon, and T.P. Chorzelski [20]. Clinically, pemphigus foliaceus is characterized by highly superficial, flaccid skin blisters [111], whose extremely thin roofs rapidly rupture, giving rise to painful, crusted erosions with surrounding erythema. The lesions can affect the skin of the scalp, face, chest, and back, while mucosal sites are unaffected.

Besides the sporadic form, there is an endemic form of pemphigus foliaceus, fogo selvagem (wild fire; [32]),

which is mainly confined to certain regions of Brazil and is thought to be transmitted by an insect (black fly) of the Simuliidae family [94]. In contrast to nonendemic pemphigus foliaceus, which affects mainly middle-aged and older persons, fogo selvagem mainly affects young persons (both Caucasians and Indians) living in rural areas; these patients share a common immunogenetic background displaying specific HLA alleles, which probably predispose them to the disease ([43]; see there for further references). The precise aetiology of pemphigus foliaceus, including that of fogo selvagem, is not completely understood. In the case of fogo selvagem, it is possible that black-fly saliva contains antigens that cross-react with Dsg1. In predisposed persons, these antigens would induce the production of pathogenic antibodies against Dsg 1, thus conforming with the mechanism of antigenic mimicry. Alternatively, the flies may transfer infectious agents, such as a presently unidentified virus. In some patients with pemphigus foliaceus and its variant, pemphigus erythematosus (see below), disease initiation or exacerbation has been observed after exposure to sunlight, while the induction of acantholysis by artificial UV-B irradiation has been reported (for references, see [104]). Furthermore, certain drugs, particularly penicillamine, can induce autoantibody-mediated pemphigus-like disease [9].

When tested by application of indirect immunofluorescence or immunoperoxidase microscopy to human skin sections, circulating, pathogenic (see below) autoantibodies against Dsg1 (especially IgG4) produce a typical intercellular staining pattern of the epidermis, which may be suprabasally accentuated (Fig. 3a). On indirect immunoelectron microscopy, these antibodies have been found to bind to the extracellular part (desmoglea) of epidermal desmosomes [15, 112, 125]. Molecular analyses have shown that most pemphigus foliaceus autoantibodies are directed against epitopes on the in vivo-accessible, extracellular domain of Dsg1 [1, 6, 38]; some of these epitopes are conformational and calcium dependent [7].

In pemphigus foliaceus patients, direct immunofluorescence microscopy reveals that the distribution of in vivo-bound autoantibodies in the epidermis has a typical intercellular pattern [20, 66]. Such binding results in the destruction of the desmosomes and, histologically, in the formation of acantholytic gaps at the level of either the uppermost stratum spinosum or the stratum granulosum of the epidermis (Fig. 3b). Because of the very thin blister roof, intact blisters are rarely visible in histological specimens. There is a superficial dermal inflammatory infiltrate, often containing eosinophils [90]. Electron and immunoelectron microscopic studies have shown that in preacantholytic keratinocytes desmosomes become internalized ([131] and references cited therein) and possibly transformed into particular curvicircular bodies; it has been suggested that this may be the initial step in acantholysis [131].

The actual pathogenicity of the pemphigus foliaceus autoantibodies is underlined by the correlation between the antibody titres and the clinical severity of the disease [20]. Recently, experimental evidence that definitely demonstrates the pathogenicity of the anti-Dsg1-autoantibodies of pemphigus foliaceus has been obtained. When the immunoglobulins of such patients are passively transferred to newborn mice they produce typical blisters on the mouse skin. By means of absorption on the recombinantly constructed extracellular domain of Dsg1, the autoantibodies can be completely removed from the patient sera, and their experimental pathogenicity is entirely lost [6]. This opens up novel therapeutic perspectives with respect to antigen-specific plasmapheresis.

A variant form of pemphigus foliaceus exhibiting several clinical and immunological features of lupus erythematosus is called *pemphigus erythematosus* (Senear Usher syndrome), and again the target antigen is Dsg1 (see [66]). Another pemphigus variant, *pemphigus herpetiformis*, has features seen in dermatitis herpetiformis and typically exhibits eosinophilic spongiosis when subjected to histological analysis. This variant may be classified as pemphigus foliaceus (nonendemic form and endemic fogo selvagem) or, in some cases, as pemphigus vulgaris;

the presence of autoantibodies directed against Dsg1 has been reported in this disease variant [115].

Desmoglein 2

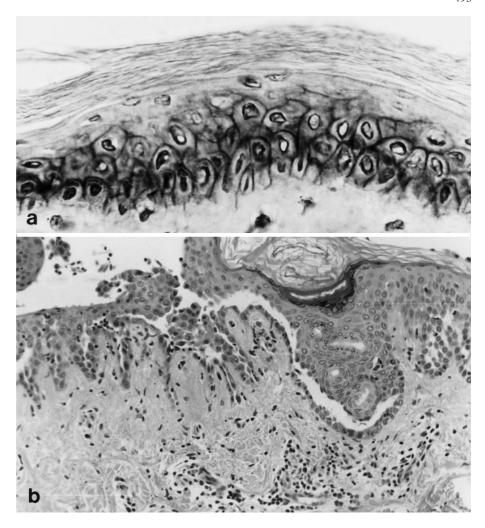
The desmoglein isoform Dsg2, whose intracellular domain is larger than any other, is characterized by its occurrence in every desmosome-containing tissue studied up to now; thus, it is also present in the desmosomes of simple epithelia and of cardiomyocytes, for example [42, 117]. In stratified squamous epithelia, Dsg2 is confined to the basal cell layer, its level being particularly low in the epidermis, at which site it may be absent [101, 118, 119, 124]. Autoantibodies against Dsg2 have not yet been described; if they do exist, their presence would be expected to have severe consequences not only for internal simple epithelia (e.g., of the gastrointestinal tract) but also for the myocardium. There have been some reports concerning gastrointestinal involvement in patients with pemphigus ([123]; see there for further references), but such cases have not yet been subjected to analysis using autoantigens.

Desmoglein 3

Dsg3 (130 kDa), the pemphigus vulgaris antigen (PVA), is the (intracellularly) shortest of the three desmogleins (Fig. 2). Like Dsg1, it is essentially confined to stratified squamous epithelia [20, 117], but unlike Dsg1, Dsg3 is only present in the lowermost epidermal cell layers (basal and lower spinous layers) (Fig. 4a; [7, 8, 12, 72]; cf. also [125]). While, at the ultrastructural level, there is overall agreement concerning the general intercellular localization of this antigen at keratinocyte contacts, there have been discrepancies in published findings relating to its fine distribution. While some investigators have reported a more diffuse membrane distribution of PVA [19, 69], others have described a concentration of Dsg3 in desmosomes [72, 125]. In a very recent study involving the use of direct and indirect immunoelectron microscopy under native conditions, both the desmosomal desmoglea and large portions of the nondesmosomal keratinocyte membrane, containing adherens junctions, were found to be decorated by pemphigus vulgaris sera [16]. These findings suggest that Dsg3 occurs in both a desmosomal pool and, in smaller amounts, an interdesmosomal pool; however, it remains to be demonstrated whether Dsg3 is the only antigen in pemphigus vulgaris sera responsible for these results. That Dsg3 does indeed have an adhesive function has been demonstrated experimentally [5], although its capability in this respect is lower than that of classical cadherins.

The main target antigen of *pemphigus vulgaris*, the 130-kDa PVA (see [130]), has recently been identified as Dsg3 [2, 25]. However, beside anti-Dsg3 autoantibodies, some pemphigus vulgaris sera also contain autoantibodies directed against Dsg1 [6, 38, 58]. Clinically, com-

Fig. 4a, b Pemphigus vulgaris. a Intercellular decoration of human epidermis at the level of the stratum basale and lower stratum spinosum by IgG4 autoantibodies. Indirect immunoperoxidase staining, ×700. **b** Acantholytic split formation immediately above the basal cell layer, which extends onto an acrosvringium; slight inflammatory infiltrate in the upper dermis. H&E, ×180. (Reprinted, with permission of Gustav Fischer Verlag Stuttgart, from [102])



pared with pemphigus foliaceus, pemphigus vulgaris is a more severe disease, which before the corticosteroid era, always had a fatal outcome. Pemphigus vulgaris patients have thin-walled blisters and skin erosions (mainly face, trunk, pressure points, groin, and axillae) as well as the typical involvement of mucous membranes (particularly the oral mucosa), where slow-healing, painful erosions develop [111].

At present, our understanding of the aetiology of pemphigus vulgaris is incomplete. As discussed above with respect to pemphigus foliaceus, both genetic predisposition and exogenic influences are probably involved in the induction of the disease. The former is reflected by the prevalence of certain HLA genes in pemphigus vulgaris patients (for references, see [111]) and by the higher incidence of the disease in certain ethnic groups, such as Jews [111]. Possible exogenic influences include drugs, nutritional factors, viruses, emotional stress, and physical factors such as the UV radiation of sunlight ([104] and references cited therein). However, the mechanism(s) by which production of the pathogenic autoantibodies is initiated still remain(s) unclear.

Autoantibodies directed against Dsg3 are polyclonal. As revealed by immunoblotting and affinity purification

using recombinant fusion proteins [3], a pathogenically relevant epitope is localized at the N-terminal region of the extracellular portion of the molecule (domains E1, E2), a region that is particularly important for the adhesive function of cadherins [105]. More frequently, though, conformation-dependent epitopes appear to be involved. It has been reported that a eukaryotically expressed (and therefore conformationally "correct") fusion protein containing the extracellular portion of Dsg3 was able to absorb the pathogenic autoantibodies out of nearly half of the pemphigus vulgaris sera studied [4]; the remaining sera required additional absorption using Dsg1 fusion protein (extracellular domain) to become entirely free of immunofluorescence-detectable autoantibodies [8]. The correct conformation of these artificial proteins depends on the presence of calcium ions, whose removal eliminates the binding of the autoantibodies [7]. In summary, all pemphigus vulgaris sera contain (pathogenic) autoantibodies directed against the extracellular domain of Dsg3, while the majority of these sera also contain (nonpathogenic) autoantibodies directed against the extracellular portion of Dsg1.

Being predominantly of the IgG4 subclass, circulating autoantibodies can be detected serologically by indirect

immunofluorescence microscopy, a procedure that is most effective when a calcium-ion-containing buffer is used [96]; indirect immunoperoxidase microscopy can be used to obtain comparable results (Fig. 4a). When examined by these methods, some pemphigus vulgaris sera produce intercellular staining of the lower epidermal cell layers (Fig. 4a) [8], which is in accordance with the known distribution of Dsg3; however, the majority of these sera bind throughout the entire living epidermis, a phenomenon that is due to the additional presence of autoantibodies directed against Dsg1 ([8] and references cited therein). Having bound to their target structures in vivo, i.e., to the epidermis and mucosal stratified squamous epithelia, these autoantibodies can be detected in biopsies, together with complement C3, by direct immunofluorescence microscopy, which reveals an intercellular staining pattern [20, 66]. Subsequently, there is observable widening of the intercellular space and dissolution of the "intercellular cement" both between basal and adjacent suprabasal cells, and laterally between the basal cells themselves, resulting in immediately suprabasal acantholysis [53]. The desmosomes are then destroyed; they may be internalized by endocytosis ([131] and literature cited therein). This pathomechanism is probably enhanced by the activation of complement and proteinases [3, 54]. However, the inactivation of Dsg3 via autoantibody binding alone would apparently be sufficient for the process of acantholysis, as shown by the fact that gene knock-out mice lacking Dsg3 exhibit, at certain sites, the kind of blisters typically seen in pemphigus

At the histological level (Fig. 4b), acantholytic blisters are apparent that are immediately suprabasal (with a split level considerably deeper than that seen in pemphigus foliaceus). In skin lesions, not only the epidermis but also hair follicles and sweat gland ducts become involved (Fig. 4b). Typically, basal cells remain attached to the basement membrane zone but their lateral connections become looser, resulting in the histological picture referred to as the "row of tombstones" pattern. Blister lumina often contain detached, rounded acantholytic keratinocytes, so-called pemphigus cells, while there is a mild superficial inflammatory infiltrate that often contains eosinophilic granulocytes.

When the immunoglobulins of patients with this disease are transferred to newborn mice, similar histological changes develop [3, 4, 10], thus conclusively demonstrating the pathogenic activity of these autoantibodies. Interestingly, anti-Dsg3 autoantibodies have been shown to be pathogenic, while those directed against Dsg1, which are frequently also detectable in pemphigus vulgaris, are not (this being in contrast to the anti-Dsg1 antibodies in pemphigus foliaceus) [4]. Even stronger evidence for the direct pathogenic significance of Dsg3 has recently been obtained by the induction, using recombinant Dsg3, of experimental rabbit antibodies producing pemphigus vulgaris like blisters in neonatal mice [98]. The ability shown in those recent studies [4, 98] to produce large quantities of pathogenically relevant, partial

or complete Dsg3 protein has important implications for the development of specific immunotherapies for treating pemphigus vulgaris based on antigen-specific plasmapheresis (specific absorption using artificial antigens, such as recombinant fusion proteins bound to affinity columns). Such approaches would be highly desirable in view of the disadvantages of the present therapeutic schemes involving corticosteroids and nonspecific immunosuppressive agents, such as azathioprine [111].

A variant of pemphigus vulgaris that exhibits the same target antigen is *pemphigus vegetans*, which embraces the relatively benign but less common *Hallopeau type* and the more severe *Neumann type*, the main clinical characteristic of which is the occurrence of hypertrophic, serum-exuding granulations that later develop into verrucous plaques [66, 108, 111].

Desmocollins

The second subclass of desmosomal cadherins comprises the desmocollins (Fig. 2), which also occur in three subtypes (Dsc1, Dsc2, Dsc3). While, like the classical cadherins, their cytoplasmic portions are short, all three desmocollin isoforms occur in a longer (form "a") and a shorter (form "b") splice variant, which differ with respect to their cytoplasmic portions. Again, cell-type and stratum-specific differential expression is encountered: while Dsc2 is ubiquitous, Dsc3 is present in the desmosomes both of stratified squamous epithelia and of basal cells of pseudostratified epithelia, whereas Dsc1 is confined to the upper layers of keratinizing squamous epithelia, e.g., the epidermis [12, 74, 75, 106, 107, 137]. Thus, in desmosomes of the epidermis, while all three desmocollin subtypes are present their distribution is differential. The precise topographic and functional relationships between the individual desmogleins and desmocollins remain to be elucidated.

The clinical and pathogenetic significance of autoantibodies is less clear in the case of desmocollins than in that of desmogleins. Autoantibodies of the IgA type directed against desmocollins have been reported in patients suffering from IgA pemphigus [37, 60]. This disease entity - which has also been referred to as "intercellular IgA vesiculopustular dermatosis" [37] and "intraepidermal IgA pustulosis" [140] - is pustular rather than bullous in its clinical manifestation, in contrast to the other autoimmune dermatoses considered in the present review. It belongs to the group of neutrophilic dermatoses [140], and two subtypes can be distinguished: subcorneal pustular dermatosis (SPD), or Sneddon-Wilkinson disease, in which sterile pustules occur only in the upper epidermis [127], and intraepidermal neutrophilic IgA dermatosis (IEN), which involves pustule formation throughout the entire epidermis [37, 140]. Some cases are associated with monoclonal IgA gammopathies. In some (but not all) cases, low titres of circulating IgA autoantibodies demonstrating subcorneal or intercellular epidermal staining patterns can be detected by indirect immunofluorescence. By definition, however, all cases are found to have intraepidermal IgA deposits – again in different patterns – when examined by direct immunofluorescence [140].

Interestingly, in a recent study, it was shown that SPD autoantibodies, binding to the upper epidermis only (as revealed by indirect immunofluorescence), recognized (bovine) Dsc1 when subjected to immunoblotting procedures; in contrast, IEN autoantibodies, which bind throughout the epidermis, reacted with (bovine) Dsc3 [60]. These binding patterns are identical to those revealed using experimental Dsc1 and Dsc3 antibodies, respectively [74, 107]. This suggests that, in these disease types, Dsc1 and Dsc3 may represent the actual target autoantigens, with the histological level of the pustular lesions corresponding very closely to the differential expression patterns of these two desmocollin isoforms. If this hypothesis is confirmed, the SPD and IEN subtypes of IgA pemphigus would have a similar relationship to each other in the desmocollin system to that of the pemphigus forms, pemphigus foliaceus and pemphigus vulgaris, in the desmoglein system. However, when tested on transgenically expressed, conformationally preserved human desmocollins, the reactivity of SPD autoantibodies has been convincingly demonstrated in a very recent study, while clarification of IEN autoantibodies with respect to their human antigenic targets has not yet been possible [61].

After in vivo autoantibody binding, IgA immune complexes may activate complement via the alternative pathway, thereby inducing neutrophil migration into their respective epidermal levels and subsequent tissue damage.

In addition to disease-typical desmoglein autoantibodies, autoantibodies directed against desmocollins have also been found in cases of Brazilian pemphigus foliaceus and, less frequently, in cases of nonendemic pemphigus foliaceus and pemphigus vulgaris [33, 58], as well as in two cases of Hallopeau-type pemphigus vegetans [55]; again, the pathogenetic significance of these findings remains unknown.

Hemidesmosomes

Hemidesmosomes are cell-matrix junctions that attach epithelial cells to the underlying basement membrane [21, 36, 51, 70, 82, 110, 130]. Together with specialized structures of the extracellular matrix (primarily anchoring filaments and anchoring fibrils), they form adhesion complexes that are intracellularly connected to the cytoskeletal network of cytokeratin filaments (tonofilaments). Hemidesmosomes are typically present in basal cells of the epidermis and of other stratified squamous epithelia, but they also occur in basal and myoepithelial cells of complex, pseudostratified, and glandular epithelia [110]. At the ultrastructural level (Fig. 5), although smaller, they have the appearance of halved desmosomes; however, molecular analyses – performed not least

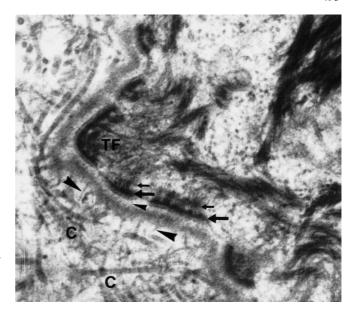


Fig. 5 Typical ultrastructure of hemidesmosomes, shown here in an electron micrograph of an epidermal basal cell (*right*; the dermis is to the *left*). Bundles of tonofilaments (*TF*) insert into the hemidesmosomal plaque (*small arrows* inner plaque, *large arrows* outer plaque). Fine anchoring filaments (*small arrowhead*) bridge the lamina lucida, while anchoring fibrils (*large arrowheads*) extend down from the lamina densa (*C* dermal collagen fibrils). ×54,000

with the assistance of human autoantibodies – have shown that hemidesmosomes actually bear only a slight resemblance to desmosomes. In electron micrographs of these structures, the cytoplasmic, submembranous, electron-dense plaque is most conspicuous; in typical cases it is possible to distinguish an outer and inner plaque, with tonofilament bundles inserted into the inner plaque.

Extracellularly, within the lamina lucida of the basement membrane, a subbasal dense plate is associated with the fine anchoring filaments that traverse the lamina lucida and insert into the lamina densa of the basement membrane. From the latter, root-like, collagenous anchoring fibrils extend into the subjacent dermal connective tissue (Fig. 5).

The molecular composition of hemidesmosomes is schematically depicted in Fig. 6. In brief (for details, see below), the hemidesmosome proper consists of several components [21, 47, 51, 70], including the cytoplasmic plaque protein BP230, the IFAPs plectin/HD1 (for the close relationship or identity of plectin and HD1, see [21, 44]) and IFAP300, and two transmembrane proteins, BP180 and α6β4-integrin. BP230 and plectin and also the desmosomal plaque protein, desmoplakin, are related to each other, belonging to a single family of proteins [70, 93, 136]. The anchoring filaments appear to comprise several proteins. These include laminin 5, which has also been termed epiligrin, BM600, nicein, and kalinin [24, 113] and which may act as an extracellular ligand for $\alpha 6\beta 4$ -integrin [26, 129]. Further anchoring filament components are laminin 6 (see [95]), uncein [65] and, possibly, the extracellular collagenous portion of

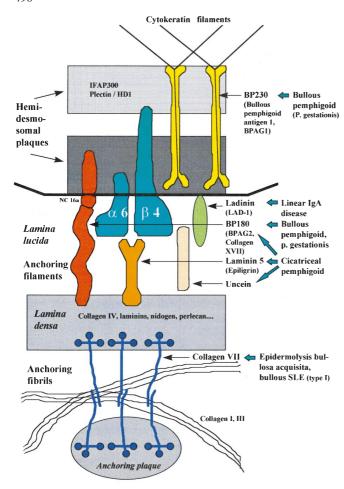


Fig. 6 Schematic illustration of the structural and molecular composition of the epidermal hemidesmosome, together with the corresponding autoimmune diseases. The outer plaque is shown in *dark grey*, the inner plaque in *light grey*. The lamina lucida is bridged by several different molecules, with transmembrane or entirely extracellular topography. Note the similarities between BP230 and desmoplakin (Fig. 2), both shown in *yellow*

BP180 [24, 70]. In contrast, the anchoring fibrils are entirely composed of collagen VII [23]. In the formation of hemidesmosomes, $\alpha 6\beta 4$ -integrin and plectin may form the core for hemidesmosome assembly [21], but laminin 5 also appears to be important for induction of the assembly process [14]. Autoimmune pathology indicates likely connections between many of these structural molecules and specific disease entities, all of which are characterized by *subepidermal blistering*, albeit at divergent ultrastructural split levels (Table 1, Fig. 6). In addition, defects of several hemidesmosome-associated proteins caused by specific gene mutations have recently been recognized as the molecular basis of such inherited bullous diseases as various forms of junctional epidermolysis bullosa, showing gene mutations for β 4-integrin, BP180 or laminin 5 [21, 82].

Bullous-pemphigoid antigens

Two important structural components of hemidesmosomes have been identified and characterized with the help of autoantibodies obtained from patients with bullous pemphigoid: the bullous-pemphigoid antigens, BP230 and BP180 [130].

BP230 (BPAG1)

The major bullous-pemphigoid antigen, BP230 (also referred to as BPAG1), is a cytoplasmic (completely intracellular) 230-kDa protein of the hemidesmosomal plaque (Fig. 6). Its recently reported amino acid sequence [116] has revealed that it (together with plectin and IFAP300 [51, 93]) belongs to the same protein family as the desmosomal plaque protein, desmoplakin: indeed, these are the only known molecular relationships between desmosomes and hemidesmosomes [51, 130]. The genes for both BP230 and desmoplakin are localized on the short arm of chromosome 6 (BP230: chromosome 6p11). As is also true for desmoplakin, two BP230 molecules assemble into homodimers via their (α -helical central domains, which are flanked by N- and C-terminal globular domains, resulting in a structure resembling a doubledumbbell. Analogous to the situation for desmoplakin, the C-terminal domains are probably responsible for the binding of cytokeratin filaments. Very recent gene knock-out experiments have shown that BP230 is the main component of the inner hemidesmosomal plaque. In fact, this protein is of major importance for tonofilament binding, as is revealed by the fact that BP230-deficient mice lack both the inner plaque and inserting tonofilaments, resulting in highly exacerbated fragility of the basal cells in this submembranous zone; in contrast, the outer hemidesmosomal components (including the outer dense plaque) and their attachment to the basement membrane are unaffected in such mice [52].

BP180 (BPAG2; collagen XVII)

The minor bullous-pemphigoid antigen, BP180 [50, 70], this name being a reference to its size (180 kDa), is also called BPAG2. Its gene is localized on chromosome 10q24. BP180 is a unique transmembrane protein (Fig. 6) exhibiting an uncommon type-II orientation, i.e., with an extracellular C-terminus. While the intracellular (N-terminal) portion is very basic and is part of the (outer) hemidesmosomal plaque, the longer extracellular (Cterminal) portion contains 15 collagen-like domains. Thus, BP180 is very unusual in being a true cellular structural protein that exhibits features of a collagen molecule; because of these features, it is also referred to as collagen XVII. It has been postulated that the extracellular portions of three BP180 molecules combine into a collagen-typical triple helix. Obviously, this structure, which may alone or in part constitute the anchoring filaments, has an important role in attachment of the hemidesmosomes to the extracellular matrix.

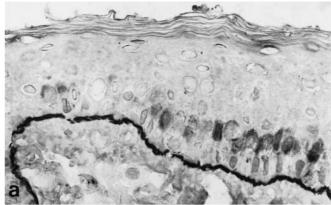
Autoantibodies directed against BP230 and BP180 are crucial in the pathogenesis of *bullous pemphigoid*. In this disease, which is usually encountered in elderly patients, generalized large blisters with tightly stretched roofs develop on partly erythematous skin, subsequently healing rapidly and leaving no scars [111]. In addition, blisters may occur in the oral mucosa. The spectrum of circulating autoantibodies is inhomogeneous, with the majority of sera (~70%) containing antibodies against BP230, ~55% of sera exhibiting antibodies against BP180, and both antibody species occurring together in ~30% of bullous-pemphigoid sera [56, 135]. The serum level of anti-BP180 autoantibodies has been found to be correlated with the prognosis for mortality, which appears to be worse than previously thought [18].

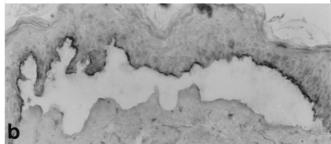
When indirect immunohistochemical methods are applied, all sera produce distinct linear staining of the epidermal basement membrane zone (Fig. 7a). When skin specimens that have been artificially split at the level of the lamina lucida by incubation in a 1 M NaCl solution ("split skin") are used as the test substrate, immunolabelling is usually observed on the epidermal side of the split, while the dermal side remains unstained (Fig. 7b). Direct immunofluorescence microscopy applied to the epidermis of patients with bullous pemphigoid reveals depositions of bound IgG and C3, these again exhibiting a linear staining pattern along the basement membrane zone [66, 76].

Although the antigenic epitopes present on BP230 appear to be localized on different portions of the molecule, they are preferentially situated in the C-terminal half [135]. In the case of BP180, an immediately extramembranous domain, NC16a (Fig. 6), represents an important antigenic epitope site [50]. This accords well with the observed binding of purified BP180 antibodies at the plasma membrane level of hemidesmosomes, as revealed by immunoelectron microscopy [67].

Subsequent pathophysiological events, which end with the detachment of basal epidermal cells from the basement membrane, can only be satisfactorily explained for BP180 autoantibodies binding on the extracellular side. Indeed, the transfer to newborn mice of experimentally produced rabbit antibodies directed against the NC16a epitope of BP180 has been reported to result in blisters [91]. In this experimental form of bullous pemphigoid, complement activation appears to have a pathophysiological role [92]. Hopkinson et al. [64] have speculated that BP180 autoantibodies might interfere with the interaction of BP180 and α 6-integrin and thus perturb the structural integrity of the hemidesmosomes.

The pathogenetic significance of the more commonly encountered autoantibodies against intracytoplasmic BP230 – in intact cells in vivo, this should not be accessible to antibodies and, as outlined above in the context of knock-out experiments, it is not crucial for cell-matrix attachment proper [52] – currently remains unclear. In any case, bullous-pemphigoid autoantibodies bind in vi-





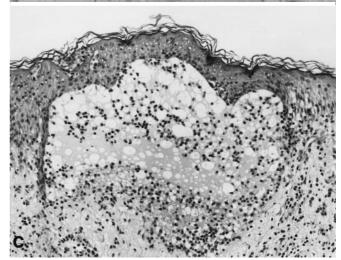


Fig. 7a–c Bullous pemphigoid. a Linear decoration of the epidermal basement membrane zone by IgG4 autoantibodies present in an autoimmune serum. Indirect immunoperoxidase staining, ×450. b In an artificial split skin specimen (1 M NaCl treatment), bullous pemphigoid antibodies decorate the epidermal side, indicating binding to hemidesmosomal components belonging to the basal epidermal cells proper (BP230, BP180; cf. Fig. 6). Indirect immunoperoxidase staining, ×190. c Typical subepidermal blister and mixed, eosinophil-rich inflammatory infiltrate penetrating into the blister lumen. H&E, ×110. (a, c Reprinted, with permission of Gustav Fischer Verlag Stuttgart, from [102])

vo to the basement membrane zone, thus appearing, on direct immunoelectron microscopy, as depositions of IgG in the lamina lucida in the regions of hemidesmosomes [90]. This results in the formation of a split at the level of the lamina lucida of the basement membrane zone and the destruction of hemidesmosomes [90]. These pathophysiological events are probably enhanced by second-

ary mechanisms, such as the activation of complement, degranulation of mast cells, recruitment of leucocytes, and release of proteases [83, 92].

Histologically, bullous-pemphigoid lesions present as subepidermal blisters (Fig. 7c), with an infiltrate typically rich in eosinophilic leucocytes present in the adjacent dermis and blister lumen [90].

BP230 and, more commonly, BP180 are also target antigens in *pemphigoid* (herpes) gestationis, a rare dermatosis of pregnancy [50, 59, 66, 73, 76]. Starting in the periumbilical regions, such patients develop subepidermal blisters with an eosinophil-rich infiltrate. The autoantibodies involved are also referred to as "herpes gestationis factor"; one target epitope has been identified as being the NC16a domain of BP180 [50]. The placenta seems to play a part in the initiation of autoimmune events in this disease, together with abnormal expression of MHC class-II molecules [73].

The occurrence of autoantibodies against BP180 in a particular type of *cicatricial pemphigoid* is discussed below.

α6β4-Integrin

Integrins are heterodimeric transmembrane proteins of the cell surface that function as matrix receptors. The hemidesmosomal integrin complex, $\alpha 6\beta 4$ -integrin, is an important constituent of hemidesmosomes [47, 128, 129]. It is unique among the integrins owing to its cytoplasmic association with intermediate (cytokeratin) filaments (integrins are usually associated with actin microfilaments). The β 4-chain has an unusually long cytoplasmic portion containing type-III fibronectin domains. Analogous to the intracellular portions of the desmogleins present in desmosomes, the cytoplasmic portion of β4-integrin is probably involved in the formation of the hemidesmosomal plaque. Laminin 5 (see below) is an important matrix ligand of $\alpha 6\beta 4$ -integrin. It appears likely that, as in the case of classical integrin-mediated cell-matrix junctions, ligand binding is coupled with signal transduction into the cell [21]. The high functional significance of α6β4-integrin for the integrity of hemidesmosomes [129] has been convincingly corroborated by the development of blisters in β4-integrin-deficient knock-out mice (see [21]); nevertheless, no corresponding autoimmune diseases have yet been described.

Laminin 5 (epiligrin, BM 600, nicein, kalinin)

Laminin 5 is a high-molecular weight (\geq 600 kDa) gly-coprotein complex of epithelial basement membranes. It is identical to the autoantigen epiligrin and has also been referred to as BM 600, nicein, and kalinin [13, 24, 26, 34, 113]. Laminin 5 is a special variant of the classical, cross-shaped laminin 1 and consists of the three protein chains, α 3, β 3, and γ 2 [24, 114]. Its β - and γ -chains are shorter than the corresponding laminin-1 chains (β 1, γ 1)

and thus give rise to only rudimentary, short arms, resulting in a Y shape [14]. A small number of cysteine-rich epidermal growth factor (EGF) motifs are present in the N-terminal regions (short arms) of these laminin-5 chains [13]. Laminin 5 is localized in the hemidesmosomal lamina lucida, where it probably contributes to the formation of anchoring filaments (Fig. 6); as mentioned above, it is a ligand for hemidesmosomal $\alpha 6\beta$ 4-integrin (as well as for the $\alpha 3\beta$ 1-integrin of focal contacts) [26, 129]. The anchoring function of laminin 5 is evident not only from the autoimmune pathology described below, but also from the causal pathogenetic significance of mutations in the laminin-5 chain genes observable in certain forms of junctional epidermolysis bullosa (for a review, see [82]).

Autoantibodies directed against laminin 5 are relevant for a certain subtype of cicatricial (mucosal) pemphigoid [34, 35]. This is a chronic blister-forming disease whose main manifestations are in the oral mucosa, although other mucosal sites and the skin can also be involved [66, 76]. These mucosal blisters and erosions tend to result in scarring [111]. As can be shown by indirect immunofluorescence microscopy, autoantibodies directed against laminin 5 (α 3-chain; [77]) bind to the dermal side of skin split with 1 M NaCl; indirect immunoelectron microscopy can detect these autoantibodies at the border between the lamina lucida and the lamina densa of the basement membrane, particularly in the region of hemidesmosomes at sites corresponding to the localization of anchoring filaments. When direct immunofluorescence microscopy is applied to split skin from biopsies of patients with cicatricial pemphigoid, IgG and C3 deposits are detectable at the same localizations [126].

The main histological features of this disease are subepithelial blisters and a chronic inflammatory infiltrate, with fibrosis and scarring often (in mucosal lesions consistently) developing subsequently [90].

In an experimental model, the administration of a monoclonal antibody against the α 3-chain in skin fragments induced dermal–epidermal separation at the level of the lamina lucida, with bound antibody detectable on the dermal side of the antibody-induced split [113]. This suggests that antibody binding may directly displace pre-existing protein–protein interactions, thus subsequently resulting in blistering. In cell culture, a monoclonal antibody against the globular (G) domain of the α 3-chain of laminin 5 resulted in rapid detachment of hemidesmosomes from the underlying matrix [14]. Recently, a passive-transfer animal model in which laminin 5-antibodies directly elicited dermo-epidermal cleavage has been reported [89].

It should be noted, however, that cicatricial pemphigoid comprises a heterogeneous group of autoimmune diseases that can be distinguished from one another on the basis of split-skin immunofluorescence, immunoelectron microscopy, and immunoprecipitation [126]. A subtype more common than that mediated by laminin 5 is characterized by the presence of autoantibodies against BP180. As in the cases of bullous pemphigoid and pem-

phigoid gestationis, the juxtamembranous extracellular domain, NC16a, may be a target structure, although another target region of such autoantibodies is the C-terminal end region of BP180, which probably extends down to the lamina densa of the basement membrane [15].

Another lamina lucida antigen, protein p105, is the target antigen of an atypical blister-forming dermatosis that has recently been described for the first time [27].

Uncein

A further anchoring-filament component consisting of three polypeptide chains (165, 135, and 100 kDa), which is related to but distinct from laminin 5, is called uncein (Fig. 6; see [65]). Defects in uncein are known to be involved in the recessive junctional type of epidermolysis bullosa [39]. Recently, an acquired bullous dermatosis caused by autoantibodies against uncein has been described in one patient [65]. Electron microscopy and immunolocalizations revealed the lamina lucida to be the site of pathogenesis. This disease may be classified as a special form of cicatricial pemphigoid; clinically, the disease rather resembled epidermolysis bullosa acquisita (see below).

This and other forms of cicatricial pemphigoid (see above) illustrate that in the case of basement membrane zone molecules, autoimmune reactions (and mutations) involving different proteins and genes may result in a similar clinical phenotype.

Ladinin (LAD-1)

The molecular nature of the main autoantigen of the basement membrane-zone related, IgA-mediated autoimmune dermatosis, linear IgA disease, has very recently been elucidated. Another component of anchoring filaments (Fig. 6), it has a molecular weight of 97 kDa [95] and is synthesized and secreted by epidermal keratinocytes (in vivo, its molecular weight may be 120 kDa [95]). Using immunoelectron microscopy, this antigen has been found to be localized in the lamina lucida beneath hemidesmosomes [68]. Recent cloning of this molecule, termed LAD-1 [95] or ladinin [97], has revealed it to be a novel secretory protein (gene on chromosome 1q), which is very basic (pI 10.15) as a result of the enrichment of basic amino acids present in the N-terminal portion [97]. This feature may facilitate ionic binding to the basal plasma membrane of basal keratinocytes, thus contributing to the structural integrity of the basement membrane zone.

Ladinin appears to be the pathogenic autoantigen in most cases of linear IgA disease (linear IgA bullous dermatosis [68]). Beside the adult form, there is a paediatric variant called *chronic bullous disease of childhood*. The typical clinical picture in children comprises tightly stretched, small (1–3 mm) blisters at various skin sites, often grouped in rosettes around the edge of an annular

lesion. Most patients also have mucosal involvement, very frequently with genital and often with ocular lesions, which subsequently cause scarring. In the adult form, the lesions are similar to those seen in children, or they may resemble acné excoriée [29].

While circulating IgA autoantibodies against ladinin are detected in such patients, the typical linear staining of the basement membrane zone seen by indirect immunofluorescence (in NaCl-split skin retained on the epidermal side) is not consistently observed in adults, and the autoantibody titres are usually low. However, with direct immunofluorescence, a consistent finding is the presence of a pathognomonic linear IgA band along the basement membrane zone. The bound antibody is predominantly of the IgA1 class [29].

As might be expected, histopathology [29] shows the presence of subepidermal blisters and a dermal infiltrate consisting predominantly of neutrophils and a few eosinophils. In some cases, the neutrophilic infiltrate may be concentrated in dermal papillae, resulting in papillary microabscesses resembling those seen in dermatitis herpetiformis, although the latter has a different IgA pattern (granular and papillary), as revealed by immunofluorescence [66].

The pathogenicity of IgA autoantibodies directed against ladinin is suggested by the finding that the incubation of unfixed human skin en bloc with an experimental monoclonal antibody against this protein induced dermal-epidermal separation in situ upon antibody binding to the anchoring filaments [95]. Incidentally, it should also be borne in mind that linear IgA disease is probably heterogeneous, as shown by the fact that some patients have been reported to exhibit immunolocalization patterns and autoantigens different from those described above (for references, see [29, 66, 68]).

Collagen VII

Collagen VII, which is mainly synthesized and secreted by keratinocytes, is the constituent molecule of the anchoring fibrils which, underneath the hemidesmosomes, attach the basement membrane to the underlying dermis [23]. At the ultrastructural level, these fibrils exhibit typical collagen banding [139]. Three chains of the $\alpha 1(VII)$ polypeptide (290 kDa; gene localized on chromosome 3p21) combine to form a triple helix typical of collagens, although this one is particularly flexible owing to the presence of several interruptions. At the N-terminal end, the triple helix is flanked by the large, noncollagenous, globular NC1 domain, whose complex composition includes multiple fibronectin type-III sequences. Two such triple-chain complexes associate at the opposite (C-terminal) ends to form a dimer resembling a dumbbell (Fig. 6). These dimers associate laterally to form anchoring fibrils [23, 139]. Since collagen VII interacts via its NC1 domains with other matrix proteins, such as collagen IV, the anchoring fibrils connect the collagen IVcontaining lamina densa of the basement membrane with the islet-like anchoring plaques in the subjacent dermis, which have a basement membrane-like composition and thus also contain collagen IV. These anchoring structures are interwoven with the dermal interstitial type-I and type-III collagen fibres, resulting in the adhesion of the basement membrane to the dermis.

Besides acquired autoimmune diseases, the pathology of type-VII collagen includes congenital mutations, that is to say the group of diseases that fall into the category of epidermolysis bullosa dystrophica [22, 23, 82, 138, 139].

The main autoimmune disease for which collagen VII acts as the target molecule is epidermolysis bullosa acquisita. Clinically, in skin that is initially free of inflammation, minor traumata induce blisters that leave pronounced scarring as well as milia and hyperpigmentation after healing [111]; the extensor surfaces of the extremities and the acra are the regions predominantly affected by this disease. Mucosal involvement is variable. The circulating IgG autoantibodies are directed against multiple epitopes (fibronectin type-III repeats) located in the noncollagenous NC-1 domain of collagen VII [46, 88]; indirect immunofluorescence microscopy reveals that these autoantibodies bind to the dermal side of NaClsplit skin. Applying direct immunofluorescence microscopy, IgG deposits appear as a broad band along the basement membrane zone [66, 76]. As revealed by immunoelectron microscopy, both the lamina densa and the dermal ends of the anchoring fibrils (anchoring plaques) are labelled, this corresponding to the localization of the NC-1 domains [76]. Although attempts at experimental passive transfer have not yet succeeded, these autoantibodies are considered to be pathogenic [88]. Histological examination reveals subepidermal blisters with a variable inflammatory infiltrate, which is usually absent in the classical noninflammatory phenotype but is, owing to the activation of complement, dense and rich in neutrophils in the inflammatory phenotype. In contrast to the situation in cases of bullous pemphigoid, eosinophils are sparse. During the course of disease, dermal scarring de-

Another autoimmune disease that is associated with type-VII collagen autoantibodies is *bullous systemic lupus erythematosus (type I)*, which occurs predominantly in young black women. In addition to exhibiting all the features characteristic of systemic lupus erythematosus, this disease further includes extensive, nonscarring blistering resulting from an autoimmune reaction against collagen VII [45, 66]. The histological picture, which includes accumulations of neutrophils and papillary microabscesses along with subepidermal blistering, is reminiscent of that of dermatitis herpetiformis [45].

In both collagen-VII autoimmune diseases, genetic predisposition – an association with the HLA-DR-2 phenotype [45] – appears to play a part.

Conclusions

In the present review, classical examples of organ-specific autoantibody-mediated autoimmune diseases have been presented and discussed. In the last 10 years, there have been notable advances in the molecular-biological characterization and epitope mapping of the relevant autoantigens, while the significance of the pathogenicity of these autoantibodies has also been widely recognized. Nevertheless, many questions remain to be answered, for example with respect to the aetiological aspects of those diseases. Such questions include a possible genetic predisposition along with the fundamental problem of how the (frequently severe) autoimmune processes are initiated. Are infectious agents involved? What is the exact role of black-flies or viruses in endemic Brazilian pemphigus foliaceus? A frequently discussed aetiological hypothesis is that of molecular mimicry, i.e., the idea that extraneous molecules share antigenic epitopes identical with those of certain body's own proteins and thus initiate an autoantibody response. There are, however, good arguments in favour of stressing the importance of the autoantigen molecule itself in the initiation of the autoimmune response; for example, the frequent polyclonality of autoimmune sera suggests that at least a substantial portion of the authentic autoantigen molecule directs the immune response. But how, then, might endogenous molecules induce the formation of autoantibodies? One possibility is that aetiological factor(s) may slightly modify the relevant cell-cell and cell-matrix adhesion proteins or change their conformation, thereby releasing them from immune tolerance. Another open question concerns the pathogenic significance of autoantibodies directed against cytoplasmic antigens, such as desmoplakins and BPAG1, which are normally inaccessible to the immune system. Also, the role of T cells in supporting and modulating antibody-mediated autoimmune responses requires further clarification. Finally, there are still autoimmune dermatoses, such as dermatitis herpetiformis, whose target antigens have yet to be identified.

Nonetheless, the dramatic increase in available molecular-biological data concerning cell-cell and cell-matrix adhesion molecules has already had a considerable theoretical and practical impact. Thus, compared with the situation even a few years ago, we can now claim a much deeper understanding of the pathogenesis of many autoimmune diseases involving these molecules, as well as of related genodermatoses involving mutated or deficient adhesion molecules [82]. Practical, straightforward applications of such molecular data might take the form of molecularly defined therapeutic strategies, such as the development of antigen-specific plasmapheresis in the case of pemphigus. Such recent developments have arisen from the cooperative efforts of basic biological research and modern medicine.

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