

Review Article

The Potential Role of Regulatory B Cells in Idiopathic Membranous Nephropathy

Zhaocheng Dong ,^{1,2} Zhiyuan Liu,³ Haoran Dai,⁴ Wenbin Liu,¹ Zhendong Feng,⁵ Qihan Zhao,^{2,6} Yu Gao,^{2,6} Fei Liu,^{1,2} Na Zhang,^{2,6} Xuan Dong,^{2,6} Xiaoshan Zhou,^{1,2} Jielu Du,^{1,2} Guangrui Huang ,¹ Xuefei Tian,⁷ and Baoli Liu ^{1,2}

¹Beijing University of Chinese Medicine, No. 11, North Third Ring Road, Chaoyang District, Beijing 100029, China

²Beijing Hospital of Traditional Chinese Medicine Affiliated to Capital Medical University, No. 23 Meishuguanhou Street, Dongcheng District, Beijing 100010, China

³Shandong First Medical University, No. 619 Changcheng Road, Tai'an City, Shandong 271016, China

⁴Shunyi Branch, Beijing Traditional Chinese Medicine Hospital, Station East 5, Shunyi District, Beijing 101300, China

⁵Beijing Chinese Medicine Hospital Pinggu Hospital, No. 6, Pingxiang Road, Pinggu District, Beijing 101200, China

⁶Capital Medical University, No. 10, Xitoutiao, You'anmenwai, Fengtai District, Beijing 100069, China

⁷Department of Internal Medicine, Yale University School of Medicine, New Haven, Connecticut, USA

Correspondence should be addressed to Baoli Liu; liubaoli@bjzhongyi.com

Received 22 June 2020; Revised 22 November 2020; Accepted 10 December 2020; Published 22 December 2020

Academic Editor: Charles Elias Asmann

Copyright © 2020 Zhaocheng Dong et al. This is an open access article distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Regulatory B cells (Breg) are widely regarded as immunomodulatory cells which play an immunosuppressive role. Breg inhibits pathological autoimmune response by secreting interleukin-10 (IL-10), transforming growth factor- β (TGF- β), and adenosine and through other ways to prevent T cells and other immune cells from expanding. Recent studies have shown that different inflammatory environments induce different types of Breg cells, and these different Breg cells have different functions. For example, Br1 cells can secrete IgG4 to block autoantigens. Idiopathic membranous nephropathy (IMN) is an autoimmune disease in which the humoral immune response is dominant and the cellular immune response is impaired. However, only a handful of studies have been done on the role of Bregs in this regard. In this review, we provide a brief overview of the types and functions of Breg found in human body, as well as the abnormal pathological and immunological phenomena in IMN, and propose the hypothesis that Breg is activated in IMN patients and the proportion of Br1 can be increased. Our review aims at highlighting the correlation between Breg and IMN and proposes potential mechanisms, which can provide a new direction for the discovery of the pathogenesis of IMN, thus providing a new strategy for the prevention and early treatment of IMN.

1. Introduction

The human immune system has the ability to distinguish self and nonself. Under normal circumstances, the immune system only produces an immune response to nonautoantigens, while it has no response to the autoantibodies or only produces a weak response; that is, the immune system is in an immune tolerance state to its own tissue components [1, 2]. In the state of immune tolerance, there are certain amounts of autoantibodies against autoantigens or autoreactive T cells

and autoreactive B cells, thus producing an autoimmune response. This response is physiological, and its main function is to clear the aging in vivo apoptotic or aberrant auto-cells [3–5]. However, when the autoimmune tolerance state is broken, the immune system produces a pathological immune response to the autoantigen, resulting in the damage or dysfunction of its own tissues and cells, thus forming an autoimmune disease [6, 7]. The characteristics of autoimmune diseases compared with other diseases is that the patients can be detected with autoreactive T and B cells

which can cause immune damage to the components of their own tissues [8, 9]. B cells play a crucial role in autoimmune diseases in particular.

B cells are professional antigen-presenting cells (APCs) and can differentiate into plasma cells capable of producing autoantibodies [8, 10, 11]. B cells are both the beginning of autoimmune diseases and the effect of most autoimmune diseases. Breg, as one of the members of B cells, plays a vital role in immune regulation, exerting a myriad of influences on the occurrence and development of autoimmune diseases, such as type I diabetes, lupus erythematosus, and rheumatoid arthritis [11–15].

IMN belongs to autoimmune nephropathy and is one of the common pathological types of nephrotic syndrome [16]. The increase in the incidence of this disease and the discovery of autoantigens such as phospholipase A2 receptor (PLA2R) attracted the attention of many researchers [17]. Although few basic studies have been published on IMN and its immunological mechanisms, the efficacy of rituximab has encouraged researchers to focus on B-cell studies [18, 19]. At the same time, the oligoinflammatory nature of IMN makes it different from other autoimmune nephropathies, which indicates the important role of immune regulation in the pathogenesis of this disease [11]. Therefore, we reviewed the role of B cells in autoimmune diseases and attempted to hypothesize the relationship between Bregs and IMN.

2. Overview of Breg

2.1. A Brief History of Breg. The activation of the immune system is compulsory. However, if the occurrence of autoimmune reactions such as autoimmunity against autoantigens, immunity against allogeneic fetus, hypersensitivity against allergens, and immune response against normal intestinal flora is not effectively suppressed, it will lead to serious autoimmune diseases [20–22]. Therefore, the weakening of the immune response is more important. Besides being able to recognize antigens such as APC, B cells can be differentiated into plasma cells to secrete antibodies and provide immune protection for the human body [11]. It is important to understand how B cells properly control the immune response under normal conditions and suppress a wrong or excessive immune response to avoid damage to the body. This part of the function of controlling the uncontrolled immune response belongs to immune regulation, and the B cells responsible for immune regulation become Bregs [23].

The discovery of Bregs is almost parallel to that of regulatory T cells (Tregs), but less importance was given to Breg. As early as 1974, Neta and Salvin discovered a B cell in the spleen of guinea pigs that specifically inhibits delayed hypersensitivity [24]. In 1996, Janeway et al. found that B-cell-deficient mice were allergic to myelin oligodendrocyte protein (MOG) and were unable to prevent the occurrence of experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis (EAE) that worsened the autoimmune response [25]. These studies have shown that there is the presence of a type of B cell involved in immune regulation. In 2002, Fillatreau et al. found that these B cells secrete IL-10 [26]. In 2006, the concept of Breg was

formally proposed by Mizoguchi and Bhan [27]. Since then, there have been numerous studies on Breg, mostly in mice; however, the existence of Breg in humans remains a mystery. In 2010, Blair et al. found the presence of Breg in lupus patients [28]. In 2011, Iwata et al. found the presence of Breg in human peripheral blood performing the same function as B10 cells in mice [29]. B10 cells are a subtype of mouse Breg. The phenotype of this cell is CD5⁺CD1d^{hi}, while in humans this phenotype is CD24^{hi}CD27⁺, which suggests that Breg phenotypes in humans are not universal in relation to those derived from animal studies. Thus, the academic world began a new era of exploration of Breg species and their functions in the human body.

2.2. Types and Functions of Breg. Breg production differs from Tregs, i.e., it can be differentiated from B cells at different stages and show the functions of B cells at different stages (Figure 1) [23]. This also leads to a wide variety of Breg phenotypes. Different phenotypes of human Bregs are known in Table 1. Different types of Bregs play different functions and regulate different autoimmune responses to different immune cells.

2.2.1. The Role of IL-10 in Breg Function. Breg plays an immunosuppressive role in most people mainly by secreting IL-10 (Figure 2) [28–34]. It can also suppress the function of different kinds of immune cells. In terms of T cells, Breg inhibited the production of interferon- γ (IFN- γ) and IL-17 and other proinflammatory cytokines by Th1 and Th17 through IL-10, and inhibited the differentiation of initial T cells into Th1 and Th17 [35–38]. IL-10 can also directly inhibit the activity of cytotoxic T lymphocytes (CTL) and ultimately inhibit cellular immunity [39, 40]. In addition, in the IL-10 environment, Breg expressing B7 can induce the differentiation of Treg and Tr1 and thus promote the occurrence of immune regulation; however, not all Breg can do this [41]. Therefore, Breg plays a key role in immune regulation through the dynamic diversification interaction between secreted IL-10 and T cells. In addition to T cells, Breg can inhibit the expression of major histocompatibility complex II (MHC II) on the surface of dendritic cells by secreting IL-10, thereby inhibiting antigen presentation [42–44]. In addition, IL-10 can also inhibit the activity of monocytes and natural killer cells (NK cells), thereby inhibiting the innate immune response [45–47]. It is worth noting that IL-10 promotes the proliferation of B cells, which may lead to the possibility that Breg can play an accessory role in regulating adaptive immunity in the continuation of humoral immune response [46].

2.2.2. In Addition to IL-10 in Breg Function. In addition to the secretion of IL-10, Breg can achieve immunomodulatory effects through other means. Tim-1 B cells, as a type of Breg, can secrete not only IL-10 but also TGF- β to play an immunomodulation role [31]. TGF- β can inhibit the proliferation and differentiation of various immune cells and the production of cytokines, especially regulating the differentiation of Th17 and Treg cells [31, 48, 49]. It also promotes the proliferation of fibroblasts, osteoblasts, and Schwann cells to help

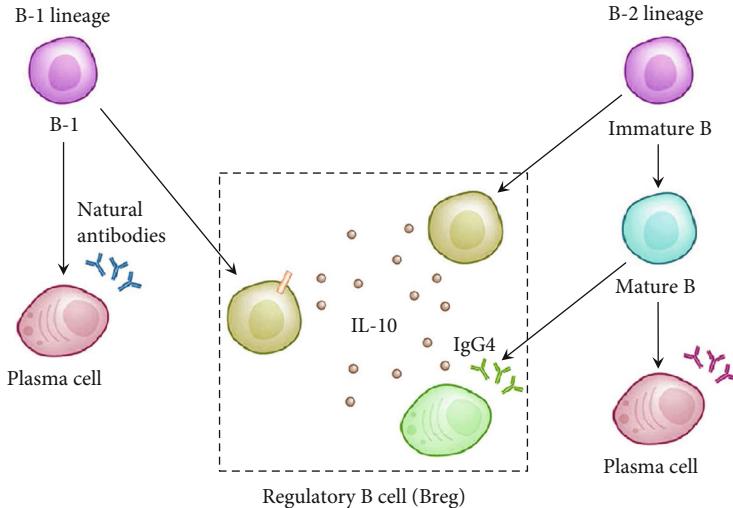


FIGURE 1: The source of Breg. Different from Treg, Breg has more extensive sources. It does not matter whether they are B1 cells or B2 cells, or if they are immature B cells or mature B cells, under certain conditions of stimulation, Breg with immunomodulation function can be differentiated. At present, the main mechanism by which Breg plays the immune regulatory function in the human body is the secretion of IL-10.

TABLE 1: Breg found in human peripheral blood.

Name	Breg cell phenotype	Method of stimulation in vitro	Mechanism of suppression	References
B10	CD24 ^{hi} CD27 ⁺	CD40L ⁺ CpG, LPS	IL-10	29
Immature B cell	CD24 ^{hi} CD38 ^{hi} CD27 ⁻	CD40L, CpG ⁺ pDC	IL-10, PD-L1, CD80/CD86	28
GrB ⁺ B cell	CD38 ⁺ CD1d ^{hi} IgM ⁺ CD147 ⁺	IL-21 ⁺ anti-BCR	IL-10, GrB, IDO	30
Tim-1 B cell	Tim-1 ⁺	—	IL-10, TGF- β	31
—	CD39 ⁺ CD73 ⁺	CD40L ⁺ IL-4	Adenosine	64
—	IgD ^{lo} CD38 ⁺ CD24 ^{lo} CD27 ⁻	—	CD62L	65
Plasmablasts	CD24 ^{hi} CD27 ^{int} CD38 ⁺	GpG ⁺ IL-2 ⁺ IL-6 ⁺ IFN α	IL-10	32
Br1 cell	CD25 ^{hi} CD71 ^{hi}	CpG	IL-10, IgG4	33
B-1 cell	CD27 ⁺ CD43 ⁺ CD11b ⁺	—	IL-10, CD80/CD86	34

repair damaged tissues [50–53]. In addition, Th9 differentiation requires TGF- β and IL-4 induction, and some allergic inflammation is associated with Th9 overactivation [54, 55]. It is worth noting that Breg which can secrete IL-35 has not been found in the human body, and the specific mechanism needs to be explored [56, 57]. In addition to promoting Treg differentiation, immature B cells with immunomodulation can express programmed cell death protein ligand 1 (PD-L1), which can directly kill T cells [58]. Recent studies have shown that in terms of infection, Breg in human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) patients inhibited antigen presentation and the activity of CD4⁺ T cells through interaction between IL-10 and PD-1/PD-L1, and it inhibited anti-HIV cytotoxic T lymphocytes at the same time [59]. In terms of tumor, PD-L1 is highly expressed in tumor invasive B cells in patients, which may assist the tumor to achieve immune escape [60]. At the same time, the presence of B cells with a high expression of PD-L1 in malignant B lymphoblastoma provides a theoretical basis for PD-1 inhibitor treatment of this disease [61, 62]. In addition to secreting IL-10, GrB⁺ B

cells also play an immunosuppressive role by producing granzyme B (GrB) and indoleamine 2,3-dioxygenase (IDO) [30]. The phenotype of this cell is CD38⁺CD1d^{hi}IgM⁺CD147⁺. GrB⁺ B cells can infiltrate tumors and inhibit the CD4⁺ T cell response after being activated by IL-21 [63]. Breg with phenotype CD39⁺CD73⁺ can secrete adenosine, which affects the activity and proliferation of various immune cells, mainly neutrophils, monocytes, and T cells, and plays an immunomodulatory function [64]. In vitro, such cells can be activated in IL-4 by stimulating their CD40 [64]. Breg with IgD^{lo}CD38⁺CD24^{lo}CD27⁻ controls B7 expression through CD62L, thereby inhibiting dendritic cell maturation [65]. Br1 cells with phenotype CD25^{hi}CD71^{hi} can directly secrete IgG4 to block autoantigens, and this antibody is currently considered to have a protective effect in patients with chronic allergy [33]. We can activate this type of cell by stimulating its TLR9 [33]. To sum up, Breg mainly inhibits innate immune response and cellular immune response in specific immunity, but it lacks corresponding means to regulate humoral immune response.

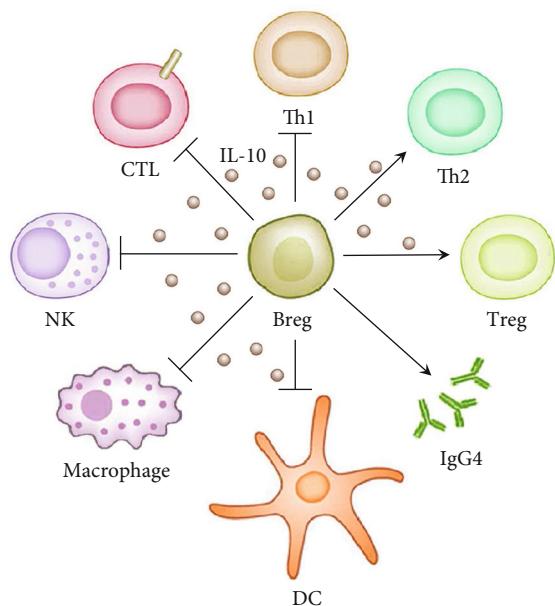


FIGURE 2: The function of Breg. Breg can promote Th2 cell differentiation and inhibit Th1 cell differentiation by secreting IL-10. In addition, its secretion of inhibitory cytokines such as IL-10, TGF- β , and adenosine can inhibit the activity of NK cells, monocytes, and CTL, and impair the antigen presentation function of dendritic cells. In addition, some Bregs can also promote the differentiation of Treg, enhance the immune regulation effect, and secrete IgG4 blocking autoantibodies to protect the body from hypersensitivity damage.

3. Abnormal Features of IMN

3.1. Abnormal Pathological Features of IMN. IMN is one of the common pathologic types of nephrotic syndrome. At an early stage, the glomerular subepithelial deposits can only be seen under a light microscope, and then the glomerular basement membrane is diffusely thickened [16]. At late stages, the mesangial matrix increases, capillary loops are compressed and occluded, and glomerulosclerosis occurs [66]. However, the glomerulus is usually free of cell proliferation and immune cell infiltration throughout the process [67]. In immunofluorescence examination, IgG was diffusely deposited in the glomerular capillary wall, but not in IgM [68]. Most patients are associated with C3 deposition [69]. In general, there are no deposits of multiple immunoglobulin and complement C1q, and they are not deposited in the area outside the glomerular capillary wall. With the detection of the anti-PLA2R antibody on serum and kidney sections, IgG deposited on the glomerular capillary wall of IMN patients is the most common IgG, followed by IgG1 [68].

It is not difficult to see that the pathological characteristics of IMN are very abnormal. Firstly, the antigen antibody complex was deposited only under the glomerular epithelial cells, and mesangial cell proliferation was rare, indicating that the immune complex was generated by an *in situ* immune complex [70, 71]. Recently, Liu et al. hypothesized that the autoantigen of IMN came from human lungs [72]. This statement broke the current research deadlock and

was widely recognized by peers. Secondly, IgG4 is the dominant antibody in patients, indicating that the disease is at the end of the immune response [73–75]. The pathogenesis of IMN is necessarily different from that of IgG4-related diseases (IgG4-RD), because IMN does not have systemic multi-tissue IgG4⁺ plasma cell infiltration like IgG4-RD, and the incidence of kidney disease is concentrated in the renal interstitium [76, 77]. Thirdly, although IgG and C3 deposition can be seen in the renal tissues of IMN patients, C1q deposition is rare, and there is no obvious abnormality in serum C1q and C3, indicating that there is no significant complement depletion in the patients [78, 79]. Also, the passive Heymann nephritis rat model has demonstrated that C5b-9 deposition is one of the factors leading to proteinuria, and the complement of IMN patients can be activated by the alternative pathway or the mannose-binding lectin pathway [79–82]. However, there are no reports on the effectiveness of the direct use of eculizumab in the treatment of this disease, which indicates that kidney damage in IMN patients is not mainly caused by the complement [83]. Many contradictory phenomena have obscured the pathogenesis of IMN. So let us see what happens to the immune cells and cytokines in this disease.

3.2. Abnormal Immunological Characteristics of IMN. As an autoimmune disease, the main autoantibodies of IMN are PLA2R, accounting for 70–80% [84–86]. PLA2R is a member of the C-type lectin superfamily, also known as the mannose receptor family [87–89]. It is a type I transmembrane protein that contains long extracellular segments, long transmembrane segments, and short intracellular segments [88]. It has been reported that PLA2R inhibits inflammatory response by binding to the PLA2 protein, and the increased expression of PLA2R is related to inflammatory stimulation and aging [72, 90, 91]. This also proves that IMN is more common among the elderly. The onset of this disease is related to environmental pollution or the history of respiratory tract infection during the adolescent period [92, 93]. At the gene level, Stanescu et al. found that the HLA-DQA1 allele on chromosome 6p21 was closely related to the pathogenesis of IMN after collecting the relevant data of 556 white IMN patients [94]. The single nucleotide polymorphism of PLA2R and HLA-DQA1 can be related to IMN susceptibility [94, 95]. Interestingly, about 7% of patients with this disease were seropositive for the anti-PLA2R antibody but negative for renal tissue PLA2R [96]. There are also many cases of recurrence of IMN after renal transplantation [97]. However, this protein is expressed in the lungs and kidneys [82, 98], and it is also found in neutrophils and alveolar macrophages [99–101]. The evidence raises the question of whether IMN's autoimmune response really originated in the kidney.

In terms of immune cells, there was no significant increase in the number of T and B cells in the patients [102, 103]. In terms of T cells, the most significant reduction was in CD8⁺ T cells, while Th2 cells accounted for the largest proportion in CD4⁺ T cells, and the number of Th1 and Treg cells decreased [103, 104]. In terms of cytokines, IL-4, IL-10, and IL-13 were significantly increased, while there was no significant change in IFN- γ and IL-12 [103, 105–107]. Ifuku et al.

compared the expression levels of renal cytokine mRNA with those of antineutrophil cytoplasmic autoantibody-associated crescentic glomerulonephritis (ANCAGN) and membrane proliferative glomerulonephritis (MPGN) in IMN patients and found that IL-6, IL-12, and IL-17 in IMN patients were significantly reduced compared with the other two groups, while IL-4, IL-5, TGF- β , and Foxp3 significantly increased compared with the other two groups [108]. Kawasaki et al. compared the serum cytokine levels of IMN children with lupus nephritis children, MPGN, Henoch-Schönlein purpura nephritis, and IgA nephritis, and found that serum IL-2, IL-6, IL-12, and IFN- γ were not significantly increased, while the contents of IL-4 were significantly increased [109]. All these cytokines with insufficient content have the effect of strengthening cellular immune response, while the increased cytokines have the effect of strengthening humoral immune response and inhibiting cellular immunity. From the perspective of source cells, IL-6 is mainly produced by mononuclear macrophages, endothelial cells, fibroblasts, and other cells [110–112]. IL-12 is mainly produced by dendritic cells, macrophages, and B cells [113, 114]. IFN- γ is mostly produced by NK cells and Th1 cells [115, 116]. Therefore, IMN is a disease dominated by humoral immune response, while the innate immune response and cellular immune response in specific immunity are weakened.

4. Role of Breg in IMN

4.1. Breg Activation Is Present in IMN. Professional APCs recognize their own antigens, activate T helper cells, and induce activation of cellular and humoral immunity. The antibodies produced in the first response of humoral immunity are mainly IgM, and IgG can be produced at a later period [117, 118]. Although cytokines produced by activation of humoral immune response, such as IL-4 and IL-10, can weaken cellular immune response [119, 120], cellular immune response of a large number of autoimmune diseases coexists with humoral immune response [121–124], indicating that cellular immunity will not be easily attenuated due to activation of humoral immunity. However, when the immunomodulatory cells intervene, the innate and specific immune responses are weakened, and the humoral immune response is the main stream. This is precisely because whether Treg or Breg play an immunomodulatory role, they mainly rely on the secretion of IL-10, IL-35, and TGF- β to suppress cellular immunity, but lack the means to secrete IFN- γ to inhibit Th2 differentiation or block B cell-activating factor receptor (BAFF-R), B cell maturation antigen (BCMA), transmembrane activator, and CAML interactor (TACI), and other ways to inhibit B cell proliferation, thus inhibiting humoral immune response [125–129]. Therefore, for IMN, where humoral immune response is dominant, only active immune regulation can explain all kinds of abnormalities in IMN. The presence of tumor-related MN, and the pathological characteristics of the disease are very similar to those of IMN, is a strong evidence of active immune regulation [85, 130, 131]. Tumors are known to escape the body's immune system by escaping [132, 133]. Autoimmune diseases, however, are characterized by overactivation of the immune

system. Therefore, if the cells play an immunomodulatory role, they can participate in and even lead to the occurrence of autoimmune diseases. In this environment, tumors can coexist with autoimmune diseases [134, 135].

Interestingly, however, the peripheral number of Treg and the blood IL-35 content of IMN patients were lower than those of normal people, indicating that Treg activity in IMN patients was insufficient [104, 136]. As mentioned above, Breg which can secrete IL-35 has not been found in humans. Therefore, Breg should be the main immune regulatory cells in IMN patients [56, 137]. Moreover, not all Bregs have the ability to activate Tregs. In addition, B cells themselves also belong to professional antigen-presenting cells [138, 139], although immune regulatory activation can lead to a decreased antigen presentation function of dendritic cells and macrophages, which are professional APCs [42–44]. Moreover, IMN patients contain more lipopolysaccharide (LPS) than normal people, which is enough to activate the resting B cells to perform an antigen presentation function [140, 141]. Meanwhile, B cells are mainly presented with soluble antigen, and the soluble PLA2R is present in the circulation of IMN patients [142, 143]. Hence, it is clear that under the activation of Breg, the autoimmune response can continue even if the antigen presentation ability of dendritic cells and macrophages is inhibited [42–44].

4.2. IgG4 Antibody Is Produced by Br1 Cells. Br1 cells were discovered in 2013 by van de Veen et al. in beekeepers, people who had been chronically exposed to allergens, and in patients receiving desensitization therapy [33]. This cell production requires toll-like receptor 9 (TLR9) to be activated. The main means of immune regulation is secretion of IL-10 and production of the IgG4 antibody. However, the incidence of IMN is also related to air pollution; that is, long-term exposure of patients to air with excessive PM2.5 content meets the condition of long-term exposure to allergens [93]. In addition, the single nucleotide polymorphism of TLR9 is related to the pathogenesis of IMN [144]. Happily, Cantarelli et al. have confirmed the presence of increased Breg cells in the periphery of IMN patients [145]. The proliferation of these cells confirmed Br1. It is safe to assume that the patient has a factor that activates TLR9 or something that activates Br1. And our next study is to prove our point, in order to better study the pathogenesis of IMN (Figure 3).

4.3. Time Point of Breg Activation. To answer the time point of Breg activation in IMN progression, we should first determine when the cellular immune response in IMN patients is weaker than the cellular immune response. If it is in the course of disease, why is there no trace of cell infiltration found in the kidneys of a large number of IMN patients [146]? Namely, CD8 $^{+}$ T cell infiltration should be seen in the renal pathology of patients with early MN. If the PLA2R antigens were not from the kidney, IFN- γ concentrations or RNA levels in the peripheral blood should either be higher than at other time points or the proportion of CD8 $^{+}$ T cells should be higher [103, 134].

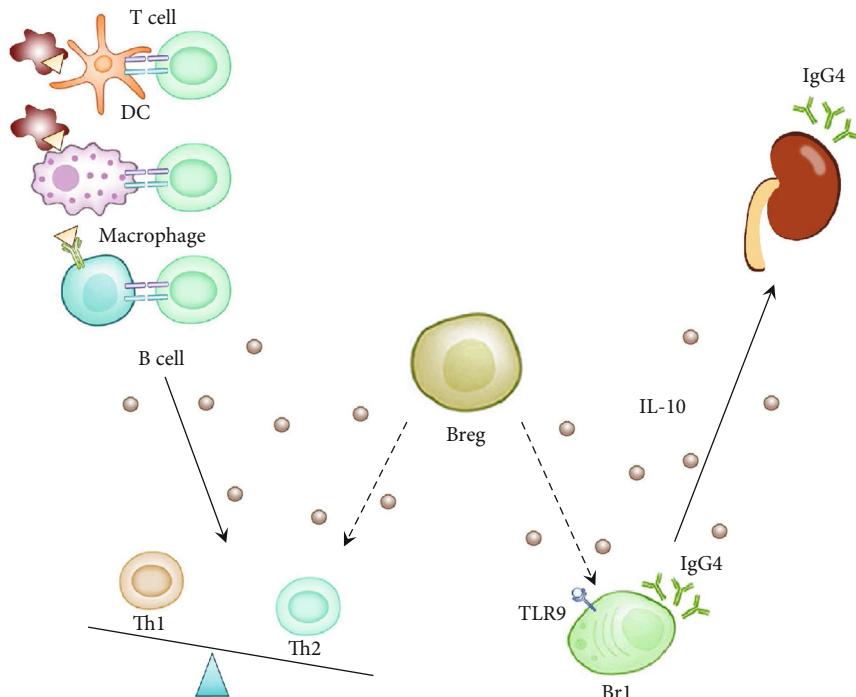


FIGURE 3: The role of Breg in IMN. Common autoantigens of IMN include PLA2R and THSD7A. Dendritic cells and macrophages phagocytose damaged cells or particles carrying this antigen, or B cells recognize the circulating soluble antigen. These professional APCs capture, process, and present their antigens to Th cells. Th cells reactivate B cells and induce differentiation. In an in vivo high-IL-10 environment, Br1 cells' TLR9 is also stimulated. This stimulates the secretion of IgG4 by Br1 cells. This happens even though IgG4 blocks autoantibodies, forming immune complexes beneath the glomerular epithelium, leading to IMN.

We do not deny the involvement of cellular immune response in IMN, but just why is this immune response so weak? However, in IMN patients, activation of the cellular immune response is inadequate at the onset of the disease. In other words, the level of IL-4 and IL-10 in IMN patients is already elevated before the onset of the disease, which can satisfy this phenomenon. This is because both of these cytokines are major cytokines that inhibit Th1 [36, 115, 147]. Among the cells that can secrete IL-4, basophils, NKT cells, and Th2 cells are common [148, 149]. Monocytes, mast cells, Th2 cells, Treg cells, and Breg cells are common among the cells that can secrete IL-10 [35, 36, 106, 150–153]. At present, there is no obvious correlation between mast cells and IMN [154]. Mononuclear cells showed no significant changes before and after treatment [106]. Treg cells showed low activity in IMN patients [104].

At the same time, no literature could prove the correlation between basophils and NKT cells and IMN. Therefore, Th2 and Breg levels were already elevated before the onset of the disease. To prove whether our opinion is valid, it only needs to prove that the IL-4 and IL-10 levels of patients before the diagnosis of IMN are higher than those of ordinary people, and the occurrence of hypoproteinemia and nephropathic proteinuria in most people is later than the increase of these two cytokines. However, the rise of Th2 did not cause all patients to suffer from allergic diseases such as asthma, precisely because a type of Breg can protect patients from hyperactive autoimmune response even when exposed to allergens [155, 156]. And this kind of Breg is the Br1 cell.

5. Conclusion

We made three significant conclusions. First, we concluded that there are phenotypes and functions of Breg in humans. Second, IMN has many characteristics that are different from other autoimmune diseases. Third, we reasoned that the number of Br1 cells in the activated state in IMN patients is increased.

At present, there are abundant articles about the role of Breg in autoimmune diseases. However, its role in membranous nephropathy is still unknown. This is because it is widely believed that immune-regulating cells in the body play a role in alleviating or even blocking autoimmune diseases and are unlikely to become pathogenic. In this review, we discuss the main functions of Breg and propose relevant hypotheses based on the abnormal pathological and immunological characteristics of IMN. An interesting finding was that Breg has a cell that can secrete IgG4, and IgG4 is the main pathogenic antibody of IMN. Therefore, we believe that IMN may have abnormal Breg function and is related to the activity of Br1 cells. In addition, renal pathology in IMN patients, even at an early stage, is characterized by rare IgM deposition or CD8⁺ T cell infiltration. Therefore, we suspect that patients already have an autoimmune response at the beginning of IMN, and the number of Breg cells and Th2 cells in these patients is in a comparative advantage, which makes their autoimmune response mainly based on humoral immunity from the beginning. This is the central idea of our hypothesis.

Although Breg is only one type of B cell or immune regulatory cell, its role cannot be ignored. We hope to confirm these views through basic experiments and clinical trials, looking for the number of Breg and subtype abnormalities in the peripheral blood of IMN patients. When conditions permit, a case review is conducted in patients with IMN to investigate the changes of cytokines in their peripheral blood before and after the disease, so as to explore how these abnormal Breg proportions are activated. At the same time, in terms of treatment, we observed whether the efficacy of the drug was related to the change of Breg of the patient, and then developed a treatment method to prevent or inhibit the incidence of IMN and renal damage caused by IMN, so as to be beneficial to the clinical treatment of IMN patients. Finally, through the above series of studies, it is proved that Breg plays a crucial role in IMN, and some new Breg is even found to expand our understanding of Breg.

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest regarding the publication of this paper.

Acknowledgments

This work was supported by grants from the National Key Research and Development Project (No. 2019YFC1709402), National Natural Science Foundation of China (Nos. 81673907 and 81973793 to L. B.), Natural Science Foundation of Beijing Municipality (No. 7182070 to L. B.), Capital's Funds for Health Improvement and Research (No. 2020-2-2234 to L. B.), and Beijing Municipal Administration of Hospitals Clinical Medicine Development of Special Funding Support.

References

- [1] S. K. Devarapu, G. Lorenz, O. P. Kulkarni, H.-J. Anders, and S. R. Mulay, "Cellular and molecular mechanisms of autoimmunity and lupus nephritis," *International Review of Cell and Molecular Biology*, vol. 332, pp. 43–154, 2017.
- [2] G. Papp, P. Boros, B. Nakken, P. Szodoray, and M. Zeher, "Regulatory immune cells and functions in autoimmunity and transplantation immunology," *Autoimmunity Reviews*, vol. 16, no. 5, pp. 435–444, 2017.
- [3] G. Thorlacius-Ussing, J. F. Sørensen, H. H. Wandall, and A. E. Pedersen, "Auto-reactive T cells revised. Overestimation based on methodology?," *Journal of Immunological Methods*, vol. 420, pp. 56–59, 2015.
- [4] J. Spetz, A. G. Presser, and K. A. Sarosiek, "T cells and regulated cell death: kill or be killed," *International Review of Cell and Molecular Biology*, vol. 342, pp. 27–71, 2019.
- [5] C. Ding and J. Yan, "Regulation of autoreactive B cells: checkpoints and activation," *Archivum Immunologiae et Therapiae Experimentalis (Warsz)*, vol. 55, no. 2, pp. 83–89, 2007.
- [6] J. Harbige, M. Eichmann, and M. Peakman, "New insights into non-conventional epitopes as T cell targets: the missing link for breaking immune tolerance in autoimmune disease?," *Journal of Autoimmunity*, vol. 84, pp. 12–20, 2017.
- [7] K. S. Cashman, S. A. Jenks, M. C. Woodruff et al., "Understanding and measuring human B-cell tolerance and its breakdown in autoimmune disease," *Immunological Reviews*, vol. 292, no. 1, pp. 76–89, 2019.
- [8] G. F. Salinas, F. Braza, S. Brouard, P.-P. Tak, and D. Baeten, "The role of B lymphocytes in the progression from autoimmunity to autoimmune disease," *Clinical Immunology*, vol. 146, no. 1, pp. 34–45, 2013.
- [9] S. Tsai and P. Santamaria, "MHC class II polymorphisms, autoreactive T-cells, and autoimmunity," *Frontiers in Immunology*, vol. 4, p. 321, 2013.
- [10] E. Mariño and S. T. Grey, "B cells as effectors and regulators of autoimmunity," *Autoimmunity*, vol. 45, no. 5, pp. 377–387, 2012.
- [11] W. Hoffman, F. G. Lakkis, and G. Chalasani, "B cells, antibodies, and more," *Clinical Journal of the American Society of Nephrology*, vol. 11, no. 1, pp. 137–154, 2016.
- [12] S. Bugatti, L. Bogliolo, C. Montecucco, and A. Manzo, "B cell autoimmunity and bone damage in rheumatoid arthritis," *Reumatismo*, vol. 68, no. 3, pp. 117–125, 2016.
- [13] M. J. Smith, K. M. Simmons, and J. C. Cambier, "B cells in type 1 diabetes mellitus and diabetic kidney disease," *Nature Reviews. Nephrology*, vol. 13, no. 11, pp. 712–720, 2017.
- [14] P. Mota, V. Reddy, and D. Isenberg, "Improving B-cell depletion in systemic lupus erythematosus and rheumatoid arthritis," *Expert Review of Clinical Immunology*, vol. 13, no. 7, pp. 667–676, 2017.
- [15] K. Ma, W. Du, X. Wang et al., "Multiple functions of B cells in the pathogenesis of systemic lupus," *International Journal of Molecular Sciences*, vol. 20, no. 23, p. 6021, 2019.
- [16] W. G. Couser, "Primary membranous nephropathy," *Clinical Journal of the American Society of Nephrology*, vol. 12, no. 6, pp. 983–997, 2017.
- [17] A. Pozdzik, F. Touzani, I. Brochériou, and F. Corazza, "Molecular classification of membranous nephropathy," *Current Opinion in Nephrology and Hypertension*, vol. 28, no. 4, pp. 336–344, 2019.
- [18] J. Zhang, L. Bian, F. Z. Ma, Y. Jia, and P. Lin, "Efficacy and safety of rituximab therapy for membranous nephropathy: a meta-analysis," *European Review for Medical and Pharmaceutical Sciences*, vol. 22, no. 22, pp. 8021–8029, 2018.
- [19] W. Lu, S. Gong, J. Li, H. W. Luo, and Y. Wang, "Efficacy and safety of rituximab in the treatment of membranous nephropathy: a systematic review and meta-analysis," *Medicine*, vol. 99, no. 16, 2020.
- [20] T. Skaaby, L. L. Husemoen, B. H. Thuesen, R. V. Fenger, and A. Linneberg, "Specific IgE positivity against inhalant allergens and development of autoimmune disease," *Autoimmunity*, vol. 48, no. 5, pp. 282–288, 2015.
- [21] V. V. Borba, G. Zandman-Goddard, and Y. Shoenfeld, "Exacerbations of autoimmune diseases during pregnancy and postpartum," *Best Practice & Research. Clinical Endocrinology & Metabolism*, vol. 33, no. 6, p. 101321, 2019.
- [22] J. T. Russell, L. F. W. Roesch, M. Ördberg et al., "Genetic risk for autoimmunity is associated with distinct changes in the human gut microbiome," *Nature Communications*, vol. 10, no. 1, p. 3621, 2019.
- [23] E. C. Rosser and C. Mauri, "Regulatory B cells: origin, phenotype, and function," *Immunity*, vol. 42, pp. 607–612, 2015.
- [24] R. Neta and S. B. Salvin, "Specific suppression of delayed hypersensitivity: the possible presence of a suppressor B cell

- in the regulation of delayed hypersensitivity," *The Journal of Immunology*, vol. 113, pp. 1716–1725, 1974.
- [25] S. D. Wolf, B. N. Dittel, F. Hardardottir, and C. A. Jane-way Jr., "Experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis induction in genetically B cell-deficient mice," *The Journal of Experimental Medicine*, vol. 184, no. 6, pp. 2271–2278, 1996.
- [26] S. Fillatreau, C. H. Sweeney, M. J. McGeachy, D. Gray, and S. M. Anderton, "B cells regulate autoimmunity by provision of IL-10," *Nature Immunology*, vol. 3, no. 10, pp. 944–950, 2002.
- [27] A. Mizoguchi and A. K. Bhan, "A case for regulatory B cells," *Journal of Immunology*, vol. 176, no. 2, pp. 705–710, 2006.
- [28] P. A. Blair, L. Y. Noreña, F. Flores-Borja et al., "CD19⁺ CD24^{hi}CD38^{hi} B cells exhibit regulatory capacity in healthy individuals but are functionally impaired in systemic lupus erythematosus patients," *Immunity*, vol. 32, no. 1, pp. 129–140, 2010.
- [29] Y. Iwata, T. Matsushita, M. Horikawa et al., "Characterization of a rare IL-10-competent B-cell subset in humans that parallels mouse regulatory B10 cells," *Blood*, vol. 117, no. 2, pp. 530–541, 2011.
- [30] S. Lindner, K. Dahlke, K. Sontheimer et al., "Interleukin 21-induced granzyme B-expressing B cells infiltrate tumors and regulate T cells," *Cancer research*, vol. 73, pp. 2468–2479, 2013.
- [31] O. Aravena, A. Ferrier, M. Menon et al., "TIM-1 defines a human regulatory B cell population that is altered in frequency and function in systemic sclerosis patients," *Arthritis research & therapy*, vol. 19, no. 8, 2017.
- [32] M. Matsumoto, A. Baba, T. Yokota et al., "Interleukin-10-producing plasmablasts exert regulatory function in autoimmune inflammation," *Immunity*, vol. 41, no. 6, pp. 1040–1051, 2014.
- [33] W. van de Veen, B. Stanic, G. Yaman et al., "IgG₄ production is confined to human IL-10-producing regulatory B cells that suppress antigen-specific immune responses," *Journal of Allergy and Clinical Immunology*, vol. 131, no. 4, pp. 1204–1212, 2013.
- [34] D. O. Griffin and T. L. Rothstein, "Human "orchestrator" CD11b(+) B1 cells spontaneously secrete interleukin-10 and regulate T-cell activity," *Molecular Medicine*, vol. 18, no. 6, pp. 1003–1008, 2012.
- [35] S. Schülke, "Induction of Interleukin-10 producing dendritic cells as a tool to suppress allergen-specific T helper 2 responses," *Frontiers in Immunology*, vol. 9, p. 455, 2018.
- [36] D. Fang and J. Zhu, "Molecular switches for regulating the differentiation of inflammatory and IL-10-producing anti-inflammatory T-helper cells," *Cellular and Molecular Life Sciences*, vol. 77, no. 2, pp. 289–303, 2020.
- [37] B. Wu and Y. Wan, "Molecular control of pathogenic Th17 cells in autoimmune diseases," *International Immunopharmacology*, vol. 80, p. 106187, 2020.
- [38] R. Stadhouders, E. Lubberts, and R. W. Hendriks, "A cellular and molecular view of T helper 17 cell plasticity in autoimmunity," *Journal of Autoimmunity*, vol. 87, pp. 1–15, 2018.
- [39] M. Oft, "Immune regulation and cytotoxic T cell activation of IL-10 agonists—preclinical and clinical experience," *Seminars in Immunology*, vol. 44, p. 101325, 2019.
- [40] H. Mollazadeh, A. F. G. Cicero, C. N. Blesso, M. Pirro, M. Majeed, and A. Sahebkar, "Immune modulation by curcumin: the role of interleukin-10," *Critical Reviews in Food Science and Nutrition*, vol. 59, pp. 89–101, 2017.
- [41] C. Mauri and A. Bosma, "Immune regulatory function of B cells," *Annual Review of Immunology*, vol. 30, no. 1, pp. 221–241, 2012.
- [42] C. Burrello, F. Garavaglia, F. M. Criqui et al., "Therapeutic faecal microbiota transplantation controls intestinal inflammation through IL10 secretion by immune cells," *Nature Communications*, vol. 9, no. 1, 2018.
- [43] C. Mauri and M. R. Ehrenstein, "The "short" history of regulatory B cells," *Trends in Immunology*, vol. 29, no. 1, pp. 34–40, 2008.
- [44] R. Sabat, G. Grütz, K. Warszawska et al., "Biology of interleukin-10," *Cytokine & Growth Factor Reviews*, vol. 21, no. 5, pp. 331–344, 2010.
- [45] K. N. Couper, D. G. Blount, and E. M. Riley, "IL-10: the master regulator of immunity to infection," *Journal of Immunology*, vol. 180, no. 9, pp. 5771–5777, 2008.
- [46] G. Tian, J. L. Li, D. G. Wang, and D. Zhou, "Targeting IL-10 in auto-immune diseases," *Cell Biochemistry and Biophysics*, vol. 70, no. 1, pp. 37–49, 2014.
- [47] G. M. Konjević, A. M. Vučetić, K. M. Mirjačić-Martinović, A. K. Larsen, and V. B. Jurišić, "The role of cytokines in the regulation of NK cells in the tumor environment," *Cytokine*, vol. 117, pp. 30–40, 2019.
- [48] Y. Guo, X. Zhang, M. Qin, and X. Wang, "Changes in peripheral CD19⁺Foxp3⁺ and CD19⁺TGF β ⁺ regulatory B cell populations in rheumatoid arthritis patients with interstitial lung disease," *Journal of Thoracic Disease*, vol. 7, no. 3, pp. 471–477, 2015.
- [49] G. R. Lee, "The balance of Th17 versus Treg cells in autoimmunity," *International Journal of Molecular Sciences*, vol. 19, 2018.
- [50] D. Sheppard, "Epithelial-mesenchymal interactions in fibrosis and repair. Transforming growth factor- β activation by epithelial cells and fibroblasts," *Annals of the American Thoracic Society*, vol. 12, pp. 21–23, 2015.
- [51] I. Grawe, S. Alexander, J. R. Peterson et al., "TGF- β family signaling in mesenchymal differentiation," *Cold Spring Harbor Perspectives in Biology*, vol. 10, no. 5, 2018.
- [52] P. Garg, M. M. Mazur, A. C. Buck, M. E. Wandtke, J. Liu, and N. A. Ebraheim, "Prospective review of mesenchymal stem cells differentiation into osteoblasts," *Orthopaedic Surgery*, vol. 9, no. 1, pp. 13–19, 2017.
- [53] W. Sulaiman and D. H. Nguyen, "Transforming growth factor beta 1, a cytokine with regenerative functions," *Neural Regeneration Research*, vol. 11, no. 10, pp. 1549–1552, 2016.
- [54] F. Meylan and J. Gomez-Rodriguez, "T cell receptor and co-stimulatory signals for Th9 generation," *Methods in Molecular Biology*, vol. 1585, pp. 59–71, 2017.
- [55] P. Angkasekwinai, "Th9 cells in allergic disease," *Current Allergy and Asthma Reports*, vol. 19, no. 5, 2019.
- [56] C. M. Wortel and S. Heidt, "Regulatory B cells: phenotype, function and role in transplantation," *Transplant Immunology*, vol. 41, pp. 1–9, 2017.
- [57] R. Y. Alhabbab, E. Nova-Lamperti, O. Aravena et al., "Regulatory B cells: development, phenotypes, functions, and role in transplantation," *Immunological Reviews*, vol. 292, no. 1, pp. 164–179, 2019.

- [58] Z. I. Komlósi, N. Kovács, W. van de Veen et al., "Human CD40 ligand-expressing type 3 innate lymphoid cells induce IL-10-producing immature transitional regulatory B cells," *The Journal of Allergy and Clinical Immunology*, vol. 142, no. 1, pp. 178–194.e11, 2018.
- [59] B. Siewe, J. T. Stapleton, J. Martinson et al., "Regulatory B cell frequency correlates with markers of HIV disease progression and attenuates anti-HIV CD8⁺ T cell function in vitro," *Journal of Leukocyte Biology*, vol. 93, no. 5, pp. 811–818, 2013.
- [60] H. Guan, Y. Wan, J. Lan et al., "PD-L1 is a critical mediator of regulatory B cells and T cells in invasive breast cancer," *Scientific Reports*, vol. 6, no. 1, 2016.
- [61] Y. Han, J. Wu, L. Bi et al., "Malignant B cells induce the conversion of CD4⁺CD25⁻ T cells to regulatory T cells in B-cell non-Hodgkin lymphoma," *PLoS One*, vol. 6, no. 12, 2011.
- [62] X. Sun, T. Zhang, M. Li, L. Yin, and J. Xue, "Immunosuppressive B cells expressing PD-1/PD-L1 in solid tumors: a mini review," *QJM*, vol. 26, pp. 1–6, 2019.
- [63] M. Arabpour, R. Rasolmali, A. R. Talei, F. Mehdiipour, and A. Ghaderi, "Granzyme B production by activated B cells derived from breast cancer-draining lymph nodes," *Molecular Immunology*, vol. 114, pp. 172–178, 2019.
- [64] Z. Saze, P. J. Schuler, C. S. Hong, D. Cheng, E. K. Jackson, and T. L. Whiteside, "Adenosine production by human B cells and B cell-mediated suppression of activated T cells," *Blood*, vol. 122, no. 1, pp. 9–18, 2013.
- [65] A. Morva, S. Lemoine, A. Achour, J. O. Pers, P. Youinou, and C. Jamin, "Maturation and function of human dendritic cells are regulated by B lymphocytes," *Blood*, vol. 119, no. 1, p. 106, 2012.
- [66] M. J. Stangou, S. Marinaki, E. Papachristou et al., "Histological grading in primary membranous nephropathy is essential for clinical management and predicts outcome of patients," *Histopathology*, vol. 75, no. 5, pp. 660–671, 2019.
- [67] K. C. Keri, S. Blumenthal, V. Kulkarni, L. Beck, and T. Chongkrairatanakul, "Primary membranous nephropathy: comprehensive review and historical perspective," *Postgraduate Medical Journal*, vol. 95, no. 1119, pp. 23–31, 2019.
- [68] B. Huang, Y. Zhang, L. Wang et al., "Phospholipase A2 receptor antibody IgG4 subclass improves sensitivity and specificity in the diagnosis of idiopathic membranous nephropathy," *Kidney & Blood Pressure Research*, vol. 44, no. 4, pp. 848–857, 2019.
- [69] Y. Chen, L. Tang, Z. Feng et al., "Pathological predictors of renal outcomes in nephrotic idiopathic membranous nephropathy with decreased renal function," *Journal of Nephrology*, vol. 27, no. 3, pp. 307–316, 2014.
- [70] C. Meyer-Schwesinger, S. Dehde, P. Klug et al., "Nephrotic syndrome and subepithelial deposits in a mouse model of immune-mediated anti-podocyte glomerulonephritis," *Journal of Immunology*, vol. 187, no. 6, pp. 3218–3229, 2011.
- [71] C. Hanrotel-Saliou, I. Segalen, Y. Le Meur, P. Youinou, and Y. Renaudineau, "Glomerular antibodies in lupus nephritis," *Clinical Reviews in Allergy & Immunology*, vol. 40, no. 3, pp. 151–158, 2010.
- [72] W. Liu, C. Gao, H. Dai et al., "Immunological pathogenesis of membranous nephropathy: focus on PLA2R1 and its role," *Frontiers in Immunology*, vol. 10, 2019.
- [73] A. M. Davies and B. J. Sutton, "Human IgG4: a structural perspective," *Immunological Reviews*, vol. 268, no. 1, pp. 139–159, 2015.
- [74] S. Crescioli, I. Correa, P. Karagiannis et al., "IgG4 characteristics and functions in cancer immunity," *Current Allergy and Asthma Reports*, vol. 16, p. 7, 2016.
- [75] T. H. Scott-Taylor, S. C. Axinia, S. Amin, and R. Pettengell, "Immunoglobulin G: structure and functional implications of different subclass modifications in initiation and resolution of allergy," *Immunity, Inflammation and Disease*, vol. 6, pp. 13–33, 2017.
- [76] R. Wang, D. He, L. Zhao et al., "Role of complement system in patients with biopsy-proven immunoglobulin G4-related kidney disease," *Human Pathology*, vol. 81, pp. 220–228, 2018.
- [77] S. A. Muhsin, R. Masia, R. N. Smith et al., "Phospholipase A2 receptor-associated membranous nephropathy in a patient with IgG4-related disease: a case report," *Medicine*, vol. 98, no. 20, 2019.
- [78] H. Ma, D. G. Sandor, and L. H. Beck, "The role of complement in membranous nephropathy," *Seminars in Nephrology*, vol. 33, no. 6, pp. 531–542, 2013.
- [79] R. A. Sinico, N. Mezzina, B. Trezzi, G. M. Ghiggeri, and A. Radice, "Immunology of membranous nephropathy: from animal models to humans," *Clinical and Experimental Immunology*, vol. 183, no. 2, pp. 157–165, 2016.
- [80] T. Takano, H. Elimam, and A. V. Cybulsky, "Complement-mediated cellular injury," *Seminars in Nephrology*, vol. 33, no. 6, pp. 586–601, 2013.
- [81] W. Luo, O. Florina, J. H. Miner et al., "Alternative pathway is essential for glomerular complement activation and proteinuria in a mouse model of membranous nephropathy," *Frontiers in Immunology*, vol. 9, 2018.
- [82] N. Hayashi, K. Okada, Y. Matsui et al., "Glomerular mannose-binding lectin deposition in intrinsic antigen-related membranous nephropathy," *Nephrology Dialysis Transplantation*, vol. 33, no. 5, pp. 832–840, 2018.
- [83] K. Kaartinen, A. Safa, S. Kotha, G. Ratti, and S. Meri, "Complement dysregulation in glomerulonephritis," *Seminars in Immunology*, vol. 45, p. 101331, 2019.
- [84] L. H. Beck, R. G. Bonegio, G. Lambeau et al., "M-type phospholipase A2 receptor as target antigen in idiopathic membranous nephropathy," *The New England Journal of Medicine*, vol. 361, no. 1, pp. 11–21, 2009.
- [85] A. Radice, F. Pieruzzi, B. Trezzi et al., "Diagnostic specificity of autoantibodies to M-type phospholipase A2 receptor (PLA2R) in differentiating idiopathic membranous nephropathy (IMN) from secondary forms and other glomerular diseases," *Journal of Nephrology*, vol. 31, no. 2, pp. 271–278, 2018.
- [86] H. Kaga, A. Komatsuda, S. Yamamoto et al., "Comparison of measurements of anti-PLA2R antibodies in Japanese patients with membranous nephropathy using in-house and commercial ELISA," *Clinical and Experimental Nephrology*, vol. 23, no. 4, pp. 465–473, 2019.
- [87] N. D. Quach, J. N. Mock, N. E. Scholpa et al., "Role of the phospholipase A2 receptor in liposome drug delivery in prostate cancer cells," *Molecular Pharmaceutics*, vol. 11, no. 10, pp. 3443–3451, 2014.
- [88] Y. Dong, L. Cao, H. Tang, X. Shi, and Y. He, "Structure of human M-type phospholipase A2 receptor revealed by cryo-electron microscopy," *Journal of Molecular Biology*, vol. 429, no. 24, pp. 3825–3835, 2017.
- [89] S. Jaber, D. Goehrig, P. Bertolino et al., "Generation of a conditional transgenic mouse model expressing human

- phospholipase A2 receptor 1,” *Scientific Reports*, vol. 10, no. 1, 2020.
- [90] A. Augert, C. Payré, Y. de Launoit, J. Gil, G. Lambeau, and D. Bernard, “The M-type receptor PLA2R regulates senescence through the p53 pathway,” *EMBO Reports*, vol. 10, no. 3, pp. 271–277, 2009.
- [91] A. Griveau, C. Wiel, B. Le Calvé et al., “Targeting the phospholipase A2 receptor ameliorates premature aging phenotypes,” *Aging Cell*, vol. 17, no. 6, 2018.
- [92] S. Bally, H. Debiec, D. Ponard et al., “Phospholipase A2 receptor-related membranous nephropathy and mannose-binding lectin deficiency,” *Journal of the American Society of Nephrology*, vol. 27, pp. 3539–3544, 2016.
- [93] X. Xu, G. Wang, N. Chen et al., “Long-term exposure to air pollution and increased risk of membranous nephropathy in China,” *Journal of the American Society of Nephrology*, vol. 27, pp. 3739–3746, 2016.
- [94] H. C. Stanescu, M. Arcos-Burgos, A. Medlar et al., “Risk HLA-DQA1 and PLA2R1 alleles in idiopathic membranous nephropathy,” *The New England Journal of Medicine*, vol. 364, no. 7, pp. 616–626, 2011.
- [95] K. Z. Latt, K. Honda, M. Thiri et al., “Identification of a two-SNP PLA2R1 haplotype and HLA-DRB1 alleles as primary risk associations in idiopathic membranous nephropathy,” *Scientific Reports*, vol. 8, no. 1, 2018.
- [96] H. Debiec and P. Ronco, “PLA2R autoantibodies and PLA2R glomerular deposits in membranous nephropathy,” *The New England Journal of Medicine*, vol. 364, no. 7, pp. 689–690, 2011.
- [97] J. Leon, M. J. Pérez-Sáez, I. Batal et al., “Membranous nephropathy posttransplantation: an update of the pathophysiology and management,” *Transplantation*, vol. 103, no. 10, pp. 1990–2002, 2019.
- [98] J. D. Nolin, H. L. Ogden, Y. Lai et al., “Identification of epithelial phospholipase A2 receptor 1 as a potential target in asthma,” *American Journal of Respiratory Cell and Molecular Biology*, vol. 55, no. 6, pp. 825–836, 2016.
- [99] C. C. Silliman, E. E. Moore, G. Zallen et al., “Presence of the M-type sPLA(2) receptor on neutrophils and its role in elastase release and adhesion,” *American Journal of Physiology-Cell Physiology*, vol. 283, pp. 1102–1113, 2002.
- [100] F. Granata, A. Petraroli, E. Boillard et al., “Activation of cytokine production by secreted phospholipase A2 in human lung macrophages expressing the M-type receptor,” *The Journal of Immunology*, vol. 174, pp. 464–474, 2004.
- [101] M. Menschikowski, U. Platzbecker, A. Hagelgans et al., “Aberrant methylation of the M-type phospholipase A2 receptor gene in leukemic cells,” *BMC Cancer*, vol. 12, no. 1, 2012.
- [102] B. Wang, K. Zuo, Y. Wu et al., “Correlation between B lymphocyte abnormality and disease activity in patients with idiopathic membranous nephropathy,” *Journal of International Medical Research*, vol. 39, no. 1, pp. 86–95, 2011.
- [103] A. Kuroki, M. Iyoda, T. Shibata, and T. Sugisaki, “Th2 cytokines increase and stimulate B cells to produce IgG4 in idiopathic membranous nephropathy,” *Kidney International*, vol. 68, no. 1, pp. 302–310, 2005.
- [104] M. Rosenzwajg, E. Languille, H. Debiec et al., “B- and T-cell subpopulations in patients with severe idiopathic membranous nephropathy may predict an early response to rituximab,” *Kidney International*, vol. 92, no. 1, pp. 227–237, 2017.
- [105] Z. Zhang, Y. Shi, K. Yang, R. Crew, H. Wang, and Y. Jiang, “Higher frequencies of circulating ICOS, IL-21 T follicular helper cells and plasma cells in patients with new-onset membranous nephropathy,” *Autoimmunity*, vol. 50, no. 8, pp. 458–467, 2017.
- [106] J. Hou, M. Zhang, Y. Ding et al., “Circulating CD14⁺CD163⁺CD206⁺ M2 monocytes are increased in patients with early stage of idiopathic membranous nephropathy,” *Mediators Inflamm*, vol. 2018, article 5270657, 10 pages, 2018.
- [107] Z. Zhang, X. Liu, H. Wang et al., “Increased soluble ST2 and IL-4 serum levels are associated with disease severity in patients with membranous nephropathy,” *Molecular Medicine Reports*, vol. 17, no. 2, pp. 2778–2786, 2018.
- [108] M. Ifuku, K. Miyake, M. Watanebe et al., “Various roles of Th cytokine mRNA expression in different forms of glomerulonephritis,” *American Journal of Nephrology*, vol. 38, no. 2, pp. 115–123, 2013.
- [109] Y. Kawasaki, J. Suzuki, N. Sakai et al., “Evaluation of T helper-1/-2 balance on the basis of IgG subclasses and serum cytokines in children with glomerulonephritis,” *American Journal of Kidney Diseases*, vol. 44, no. 1, pp. 42–49, 2004.
- [110] C. Muangchan and J. E. Pope, “Interleukin 6 in systemic sclerosis and potential implications for targeted therapy,” *The Journal of Rheumatology*, vol. 39, no. 6, pp. 1120–1124, 2012.
- [111] W. G. McMaster, A. Kirabo, M. S. Madhur, and D. G. Harrison, “Inflammation, immunity, and hypertensive end-organ damage,” *Circulation Research*, vol. 116, no. 6, pp. 1022–1033, 2015.
- [112] S. Garbuzova-Davis, J. Ehrhart, P. R. Sanberg, and C. Borlongan, “Potential role of humoral IL-6 cytokine in mediating pro-inflammatory endothelial cell response in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis,” *International Journal of Molecular Sciences*, vol. 19, no. 2, p. 423, 2018.
- [113] L. Sun, C. He, L. Nair, J. Yeung, and C. E. Egwuagu, “Interleukin 12 (IL-12) family cytokines: role in immune pathogenesis and treatment of CNS autoimmune disease,” *Cytokine*, vol. 75, no. 2, pp. 249–255, 2015.
- [114] H. Zheng, Y. Ban, F. Wei, and X. Ma, “Regulation of interleukin-12 production in antigen-presenting cells,” *Advances in Experimental Medicine and Biology*, vol. 941, pp. 117–138, 2016.
- [115] A. Cope, G. Le Friec, J. Cardone, and C. Kemper, “The Th1 life cycle: molecular control of IFN- γ to IL-10 switching,” *Trends in Immunology*, vol. 32, no. 6, pp. 278–286, 2011.
- [116] Y. Guo, N. K. Patil, L. Luan, J. K. Bohannon, and E. R. Sherwood, “The biology of natural killer cells during sepsis,” *Immunology*, vol. 153, no. 2, pp. 190–202, 2018.
- [117] S. Kracker and A. Durandy, “Insights into the B cell specific process of immunoglobulin class switch recombination,” *Immunology Letters*, vol. 138, no. 2, pp. 97–103, 2011.
- [118] K. Yu and M. R. Lieber, “Current insights into the mechanism of mammalian immunoglobulin class switch recombination,” *Critical Reviews in Biochemistry and Molecular Biology*, vol. 54, no. 4, pp. 333–351, 2019.
- [119] I. C. Ho and S. C. Miaw, “Regulation of IL-4 expression in immunity and diseases,” *Advances in Experimental Medicine and Biology*, vol. 941, pp. 31–77, 2016.
- [120] M. Saraiva and A. O’Garra, “The regulation of IL-10 production by immune cells,” *Nature Reviews Immunology*, vol. 10, no. 3, pp. 170–181, 2010.

- [121] E. F. McKinney, P. A. Lyons, E. J. Carr et al., “A CD8+ T cell transcription signature predicts prognosis in autoimmune disease,” *Nature Medicine*, vol. 16, no. 5, pp. 586–591, 2010.
- [122] H. Carvalheiro, J. A. da Silva, and M. M. Souto-Carneiro, “Potential roles for CD8⁺ T cells in rheumatoid arthritis,” *Autoimmunity Reviews*, vol. 12, no. 3, pp. 401–409, 2013.
- [123] A. Mak and N. Y. Kow, “The pathology of T cells in systemic lupus erythematosus,” *Journal of Immunology Research*, vol. 2014, Article ID 419029, 8 pages, 2014.
- [124] P. Wehr, H. Purvis, S. C. Law, and R. Thomas, “Dendritic cells, T cells and their interaction in rheumatoid arthritis,” *Clinical and Experimental Immunology*, vol. 196, no. 1, pp. 12–27, 2019.
- [125] P. Hillyer, N. Raviv, D. M. Gold et al., “Subtypes of type I IFN differentially enhance cytokine expression by suboptimally stimulated CD4(+) T cells,” *European Journal of Immunology*, vol. 43, no. 12, pp. 3197–3208, 2013.
- [126] F. B. Vincent, D. Saulep-Easton, W. A. Figgett, K. A. Fairfax, and F. Mackay, “The BAFF/APRIL system: emerging functions beyond B cell biology and autoimmunity,” *Cytokine & Growth Factor Reviews*, vol. 24, no. 3, pp. 203–215, 2013.
- [127] G. S. Dickinson, M. Akkoyunlu, R. J. Bram, and K. R. Alugupalli, “BAFF receptor and TACI in B-1b cell maintenance and antibacterial responses,” *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences*, vol. 1362, no. 1, pp. 57–67, 2015.
- [128] C. M. Coquery and L. D. Erickson, “Regulatory roles of the tumor necrosis factor receptor BCMA,” *Critical Reviews in Immunology*, vol. 32, no. 4, pp. 287–305, 2012.
- [129] E. Sanchez, E. J. Tanenbaum, S. Patil et al., “The clinical significance of B-cell maturation antigen as a therapeutic target and biomarker,” *Expert Review of Molecular Diagnostics*, vol. 18, no. 4, pp. 319–329, 2018.
- [130] C. Murtas and G. M. Ghiggeri, “Membranous glomerulonephritis: histological and serological features to differentiate cancer-related and non-related forms,” *Journal of Nephrology*, vol. 29, no. 4, pp. 469–478, 2016.
- [131] D. Zhang, C. Zhang, F. Bian, W. Zhang, G. Jiang, and J. Zou, “Clinicopathological features in membranous nephropathy with cancer: a retrospective single-center study and literature review,” *The International Journal of Biological Markers*, vol. 34, no. 4, pp. 406–413, 2019.
- [132] P. Alessandro, M. Alessandra, D. Irene, and M. R. Zocchi, “Mechanisms of tumor escape from immune system: role of mesenchymal stromal cells,” *Immunology Letters*, vol. 159, pp. 55–72, 2014.
- [133] L. Yang and C. Xuetao, “Immunosuppressive cells in tumor immune escape and metastasis,” *Journal of Molecular Medicine*, vol. 94, pp. 509–522, 2016.
- [134] P. Kumar, P. Bhattacharya, and B. S. Prabhakar, “A comprehensive review on the role of co-signaling receptors and Treg homeostasis in autoimmunity and tumor immunity,” *Journal of Autoimmunity*, vol. 95, pp. 77–99, 2018.
- [135] N. Kumar, H. Chugh, R. Tomar, V. Tomar, V. K. Singh, and R. Chandra, “Exploring the interplay between autoimmunity and cancer to find the target therapeutic hotspots,” *Artificial Cells, Nanomedicine, and Biotechnology*, vol. 46, no. 4, pp. 658–668, 2018.
- [136] D. Roccatello, S. Sciascia, D. Di Simone et al., “New insights into immune mechanisms underlying response to rituximab in patients with membranous nephropathy: a prospective study and a review of the literature,” *Autoimmunity Reviews*, vol. 15, no. 6, pp. 529–538, 2016.
- [137] C. Mauri and M. Menon, “The expanding family of regulatory B cells,” *International Immunology*, vol. 27, no. 10, pp. 479–486, 2015.
- [138] A. S. Chong, “B cells as antigen-presenting cells in transplantation rejection and tolerance,” *Cellular Immunology*, vol. 349, p. 104061, 2020.
- [139] E. Kuokkanen, V. Šuštar, and P. K. Mattila, “Molecular control of B cell activation and immunological synapse formation,” *Traffic*, vol. 16, no. 4, pp. 311–326, 2015.
- [140] G. H. Wang, J. Lu, K. L. Ma et al., “The release of monocyte-derived tissue factor-positive microparticles contributes to a hypercoagulable state in idiopathic membranous nephropathy,” *Journal of Atherosclerosis and Thrombosis*, vol. 26, no. 6, pp. 538–546, 2019.
- [141] S. Cheng, H. Wang, and H. Zhou, “The role of TLR4 on B cell activation and anti-GPI antibody production in the antiphospholipid syndrome,” *Journal of Immunology Research*, vol. 2016, Article ID 1719720, 2016.
- [142] M. I. Yuseff, P. Pierobon, A. Reversat, and A. M. Lennon-Duménil, “How B cells capture, process and present antigens: a crucial role for cell polarity,” *Nature Reviews Immunology*, vol. 13, no. 7, p. 475, 2013.
- [143] A. E. van de Logt, M. Fresquet, J. F. Wetzels, and P. Brenchley, “The anti-PLA2R antibody in membranous nephropathy: what we know and what remains a decade after its discovery,” *Kidney International*, vol. 96, no. 6, pp. 1292–1302, 2019.
- [144] Y. T. Chen, C. C. Wei, K. L. Ng et al., “Toll-like receptor 9 SNPs are susceptible to the development and progression of membranous glomerulonephritis: 27 years follow-up in Taiwan,” *Renal Failure*, vol. 35, no. 10, pp. 1370–1375, 2013.
- [145] C. Cantarelli, M. Jarque, A. Angeletti et al., “A comprehensive phenotypic and functional immune analysis unravels circulating anti-phospholipase A2 receptor antibody secreting cells in membranous nephropathy patients,” *Kidney International Reports*, vol. 5, no. 10, pp. 1764–1776, 2020.
- [146] X. Chen, Y. Chen, K. Shi et al., “Comparison of prognostic, clinical, and renal histopathological characteristics of overlapping idiopathic membranous nephropathy and IgA nephropathy versus idiopathic membranous nephropathy,” *Scientific Reports*, vol. 7, 2017.
- [147] E. Şahin, S. A. Bafaqeeh, S. G. Güven et al., “Mechanism of action of allergen immunotherapy,” *American Journal of Rhinology & Allergy*, vol. 30, 5_supplement, pp. S1–S3, 2016.
- [148] A. Sahoo, S. Wali, and R. Nurieva, “T helper 2 and T follicular helper cells: regulation and function of interleukin-4,” *Cytokine & Growth Factor Reviews*, vol. 30, pp. 29–37, 2016.
- [149] C. Iwamura and T. Nakayama, “Role of NKT cells in allergic asthma,” *Current Opinion in Immunology*, vol. 22, no. 6, pp. 807–813, 2010.
- [150] D. Elieh Ali Komi and D. Ribatti, “Mast cell-mediated mechanistic pathways in organ transplantation,” *European Journal of Pharmacology*, vol. 857, p. 172458, 2019.
- [151] T. Boonpiyathad, P. Satitsuksanoa, M. Akdis, and C. A. Akdis, “IL-10 producing T and B cells in allergy,” *Seminars in Immunology*, vol. 44, p. 101326, 2019.
- [152] J. Geginat, M. Vasco, M. Gerosa et al., “IL-10 producing regulatory and helper T-cells in systemic lupus erythematosus,” *Seminars in Immunology*, vol. 44, p. 101330, 2019.

- [153] C. Cerqueira, B. Manfroi, and S. Fillatreau, “IL-10-producing regulatory B cells and plasmocytes: molecular mechanisms and disease relevance,” *Seminars in Immunology*, vol. 44, p. 101323, 2019.
- [154] M. Danilewicz and M. Wagrowska-Danilewicz, “Quantitative analysis of interstitial mast cells in lupus and non-lupus membranous glomerulopathy,” *Polish Journal of Pathology*, vol. 52, pp. 211–217, 2001.
- [155] W. van de Veen, B. Stanic, O. F. Wirz, K. Jansen, A. Globinska, and M. Akdis, “Role of regulatory B cells in immune tolerance to allergens and beyond,” *The Journal of Allergy and Clinical Immunology*, vol. 138, pp. 654–665, 2016.
- [156] W. van de Veen, “The role of regulatory B cells in allergen immunotherapy,” *Current Opinion in Allergy and Clinical Immunology*, vol. 17, no. 6, pp. 447–452, 2017.