

# Circulating Myeloid Dendritic Cells is Decreased in the Acute Phase of Kawasaki Disease

Kenji Suda<sup>1,2\*</sup>, Shintaro Kishimoto<sup>1</sup>, Tomoyuki Takahashi<sup>3</sup>, Hiroshi Nishino<sup>1</sup>, Hisayoshi Okamura<sup>3</sup>, Yozo Teramachi<sup>1</sup>, Takato Yokoyama<sup>4</sup>, Hideo Yasukawa<sup>2</sup>, Keizo Ohbu<sup>4</sup>, Tsutomu Imaizumi<sup>2</sup> and Toyojiro Matsuishi<sup>1,3</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Pediatrics and Child Health, Kurume University School of Medicine, Japan

<sup>2</sup>Cardiovascular Research Institute, Kurume University, Japan

<sup>3</sup>Cognitive and Molecular Research Institute of Brain Diseases, Kurume University, Japan

<sup>4</sup>Department of Pediatrics, St. Mary's Hospital, Japan

## Abstract

**Background:** Kawasaki disease is the most prevalent vasculitis of children in the developed countries that affects middle-sized arteries. Though T-cells are known to be activated with ample production of cytokines in acute phase of Kawasaki disease, there is a paucity of data concerning dendritic cells (DCs), the most potent antigen presenting cells that initiates T-cell activation. This study examined change in circulating DCs in acute phase of Kawasaki disease.

**Methods:** Using multi-color flow cytometry, we determined circulating myeloid DC (mDC), Lin<sup>-</sup>HLA-DR<sup>+</sup>CD11c<sup>+</sup> cell, and plasmacytoid DC (pDC), Lin<sup>-</sup>HLA-DR<sup>+</sup>CD123<sup>+</sup> cell in 33 patients with acute phase of Kawasaki disease (aKD), 24 febrile controls (FC), and 13 healthy controls (HC). Blood chemistry data including cytokines were determined at the same time. Numbers of DCs were compared among 3 groups and before and after immunoglobulin treatment in aKD. Correlation between numbers of circulating DCs and blood chemistry data were determined.

**Results:** Number of circulating mDC was significantly lower in aKD on admission than in FC and HC [median (lower, upper quartile)=7260 (2463, 11550) vs. 12210 (9500, 22050) and 18600 (11520, 23460) cells/ml,  $p < 0.001$ ]. This number of circulating DCs significantly correlated with disease severity represented by serum albumin (mDC,  $r=0.56$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ; pDC,  $r=0.39$ ,  $p < 0.02$ , respectively), C reactive protein (mDC,  $r=-0.42$ ,  $p < 0.005$ ), and interleukin-6 (mDC,  $r=-0.55$ ,  $p < 0.007$ ). Immunoglobulin treatment quickly restored number of mDC [7260 (2463, 11550) vs. 15200 (10840, 30965) after IVIG and 18600 (12950, 25510) cells/ml at convalescence,  $p < 0.001$ ] in aKD.

**Conclusions:** This study indicates that number of circulating mDCs is decreased in acute Kawasaki disease, and may be involved in the pathophysiology.

**Keywords:** Kawasaki disease; Dendritic cell; Pathophysiology; Myeloid

## Introduction

Kawasaki disease is the most prevalent systemic vasculitis, and affects middle-sized arteries including coronary arteries, of children in developed countries [1,2]. In acute phase of Kawasaki disease, ample cytokines are known to increase, but the precise pathophysiology of Kawasaki disease remains unknown [3-5]. In a recent report, a functional single nucleotide polymorphism (itpkc\_3) in the inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate 3-kinase C (ITPKC) gene, a negative regulator of T-cell activation, was significantly associated with Kawasaki disease susceptibility and also with an increased risk of coronary artery lesions in both Japanese and United States children [6]. However, little is known about the role of dendritic cells (DC), highly specialized antigen presenting cells initiating and regulating T cell response [7,8], in the pathophysiology of acute Kawasaki disease.

In the human circulation, two major subsets of DCs, myeloid DC (mDC) and plasmacytoid DC (pDC), have been identified [9,10]. Myeloid DC express CD11c, leukocyte integrin alpha subunit, and polarize naïve T cells toward the T-helper 1 (Th1) phenotype, whereas pDC express CD123, interleukin-3 receptor alpha chain, and polarize T cells toward the Th2 phenotype. These DC subsets recognize different microbial pathogens through specific receptors, which in turn induce different types of innate and adaptive immune responses [10]. Both DCs originate in the bone marrow and circulate briefly in peripheral blood as precursor DCs before migrating to the peripheral tissues. Immature DCs are activated after the capture of antigens in circulation

or affected tissues, and then the activated DCs migrate through lymphatic vessels to lymphoid organs where they present processed antigens to naïve T cells [7-10]. Abnormalities of DC homeostasis have been involved in the pathophysiology of various human diseases, including autoimmune diseases [11-15], ischemic heart disease [16], and viral infection [17-19].

Especially, in patients with ischemic heart disease, the number of circulating DCs decreases and DC has been found to accumulate with activated T cells in atherosclerotic plaques [16]. Similarly, Yilmiz et al. reported that activated mDCs accumulate and co-localize with T cells in coronary artery lesions both in human patients with Kawasaki disease [20] and in a murine model of coronary arteritis mimicking Kawasaki disease [21]. In addition, Khor et al. recently identified susceptible alleles in ATP-binding cassette, subfamily C, member 4 (ABCC4) for Kawasaki disease from genome-wide linkage and association mapping

**\*Corresponding author:** Kenji Suda, MD, Cardiovascular Research Institute, Kurume University School of Medicine, 67 Asahi-Machi, 830-0011, Japan, Tel: +81-942-31-7565; Fax +81-942-38-1792; E-mail: [suda\\_kenji@med.kurume-u.ac.jp](mailto:suda_kenji@med.kurume-u.ac.jp)

**Received** September 10, 2013; **Accepted** October 07, 2013; **Published** October 10, 2013

**Citation:** Suda K, Kishimoto S, Takahashi T, Nishino H, Okamura H, et al. (2013) Circulating Myeloid Dendritic Cells is Decreased in the Acute Phase of Kawasaki Disease. J Clin Exp Cardiol 4: 272. doi: [10.4172/2155-9880.1000272](https://doi.org/10.4172/2155-9880.1000272)

**Copyright:** © 2013 Suda K, et al. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

[22]. ABCC4 is a multifunctional cyclic nucleotide transporter that known to stimulate the migratory capacity of dendritic cells.

Therefore we hypothesized that DCs are involved in the pathophysiology of acute phase of Kawasaki disease. The specific aim of this study was to determine the number of circulating DC in acute phase of Kawasaki disease compared with controls, its correlation with laboratory data including cytokines, and its change with immunoglobulin treatment.

## Methods

Subjects were 33 patients with acute phase of KD who fulfilled the diagnostic criteria [23] of Kawasaki disease (aKD), 24 febrile controls (FC), and 13 healthy controls (HC) with comparable age (Table 1). All patients in aKD were treated with 2 g/kg of intravenous immunoglobulin treatment (IVIG) in a single infusion over 24 hours, and with 30 mg/kg of aspirin initially and 5 mg/kg of aspirin after resolution of fever either at Kurume University Hospital or St. Mary's Hospital, Kurume city, Japan. Initial IVIG was given at  $5.6 \pm 1.7$  days of illness and 2 patients (5.7%) required additional IVIG because of resistance to IVIG. Also 1 patient (1.9%) required cardiotoxic drugs and diuretics because of impaired cardiac contractility and moderate mitral valve regurgitation. In addition, 12 patients (34 %) showed transient dilation of coronary artery with more than + 2.5 standard deviation of population normal in diameter, but no patient left with coronary artery aneurysms at convalescence.

The primary diagnosis of FC included bacterial infection with unspecified focus in 15, pneumonia in 5, colitis in 1, lymphadenitis in 1, meningitis in 1, urinary tract infection in 1. All patients in FC were successfully treated with appropriate antibiotics.

In each group, blood samples were obtained on admission or recent visit and, in aKD, additionally at 48 hours after IVIG and at convalescence around 1 month after the onset. We determined numbers of circulating mDC and pDC using multi-color flow-cytometry, complete blood count including white blood cell count, platelet count, and hematocrit, and blood chemistry including C-reactive protein (CRP), serum sodium, and albumin.

We compared demographic data, numbers of mDC and pDC, laboratory data between groups and determined correlation between these variables and numbers of mDC as well as pDC.

Additionally, we determined serum cytokines in 20 of aKD, 10 of FC, and 9 HC at presentation and compared them among 3 groups. In addition, we determined correlation between numbers of mDC or pDC and serum cytokines in pooled data of aKD and HC.

## Three-color flow cytometry

The numbers of DCs were determined using three-color flow cytometry as previously described elsewhere [24]. In brief, whole peripheral blood samples obtained from the subjects were incubated with phycoerythrin (PE)-conjugated anti-IL-3 receptor chain (CD123), PE-conjugated anti-CD11c, peridinin chlorophyll protein (PerCP)-conjugated anti-HLA-DR monoclonal antibody (mAb), and fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC)-conjugated lineage cocktail 1 (Lin 1) for 20 minutes at room temperature. The Lin 1 contains mAb clones against CD3 (T cells), CD14 (monocytes / macrophages), CD16 (natural killer cells), CD19 (B cells), CD20 (B cells), and CD56 (natural killer cells). The erythrocytes were lysed with FACS lysing solution (Becton Dickinson, Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA). After washing with phosphate buffer saline, the stained cells were analyzed with a FACS Caliber flow

cytometer (Becton Dickinson, Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA). Dendritic cells were defined as the cells positive for PerCP-conjugated anti-HLA-DR mAb but negative for FITC-conjugated Lin1 (Figure 1a and b). Anti-CD11c and anti-CD123 mAb conjugated with PE were used for further identification of the mDC and pDC subsets (Figure 1c and d). Cells labeled with isotype control antibodies were included to determine background fluorescence. Three-color analysis was performed using a FACScan flow cytometer (Becton Dickinson, Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA) with the BD CellQuest™ software. The number of total WBCs in the samples was determined using an automated cell counter. The absolute number of mDCs and pDCs was calculated from the WBC count multiplied by the proportion of each subset within WBC, as determined by flow cytometric analysis.

## Determination of serum inflammatory cytokines using cytometric beads array

One milliliter of peripheral blood was sampled, and serum levels of cytokines were quantified with the cytometric beads array (CBA) kits and BD CBA software (Becton Dickinson, Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA). Measured serum cytokines included Interleukin (IL)-1 $\beta$ , IL-6, IL-8, IL-10, IL-12p70, and tumor necrosis factor- $\alpha$  (TNF- $\alpha$ ). In general, each cytokine is categorized by its main action; IL-1 $\beta$ , IL-6, and TNF- $\alpha$  are thought to be pro-inflammatory cytokines, IL-8 to be a chemokine, IL-10 to be an immunosuppressive cytokine, and IL-12p70 to be regulator of DC-T cell interactions. These assay kits contained a mixture of five types of microbeads with distinct fluorescent intensities (FL-3) and were precoated with capture antibodies specific for each cytokine. Fifty microliters of serum, cytokine standard was added to the premixed micro beads in Falcon tubes (BD Biosciences, Carlsbad, CA). After the addition of 50  $\mu$ L of a mixture of phycoerythrin (PE)-conjugated antibodies against the cytokines, the mixture was incubated for 3 hours in the dark at room temperature. This mixture was washed and centrifuged at 500g for 5 minutes and the pellet resuspended in 300  $\mu$ L of wash buffer. A FACS Caliber flow cytometer (Becton Dickinson, Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA) was calibrated with setup beads, and 3000 events were acquired for each sample. Individual cytokine concentration was determined by measuring individual fluorescence intensities (FL-2) and computing with the standard reference curve of the software (BD CellQuest™ and CBA software).

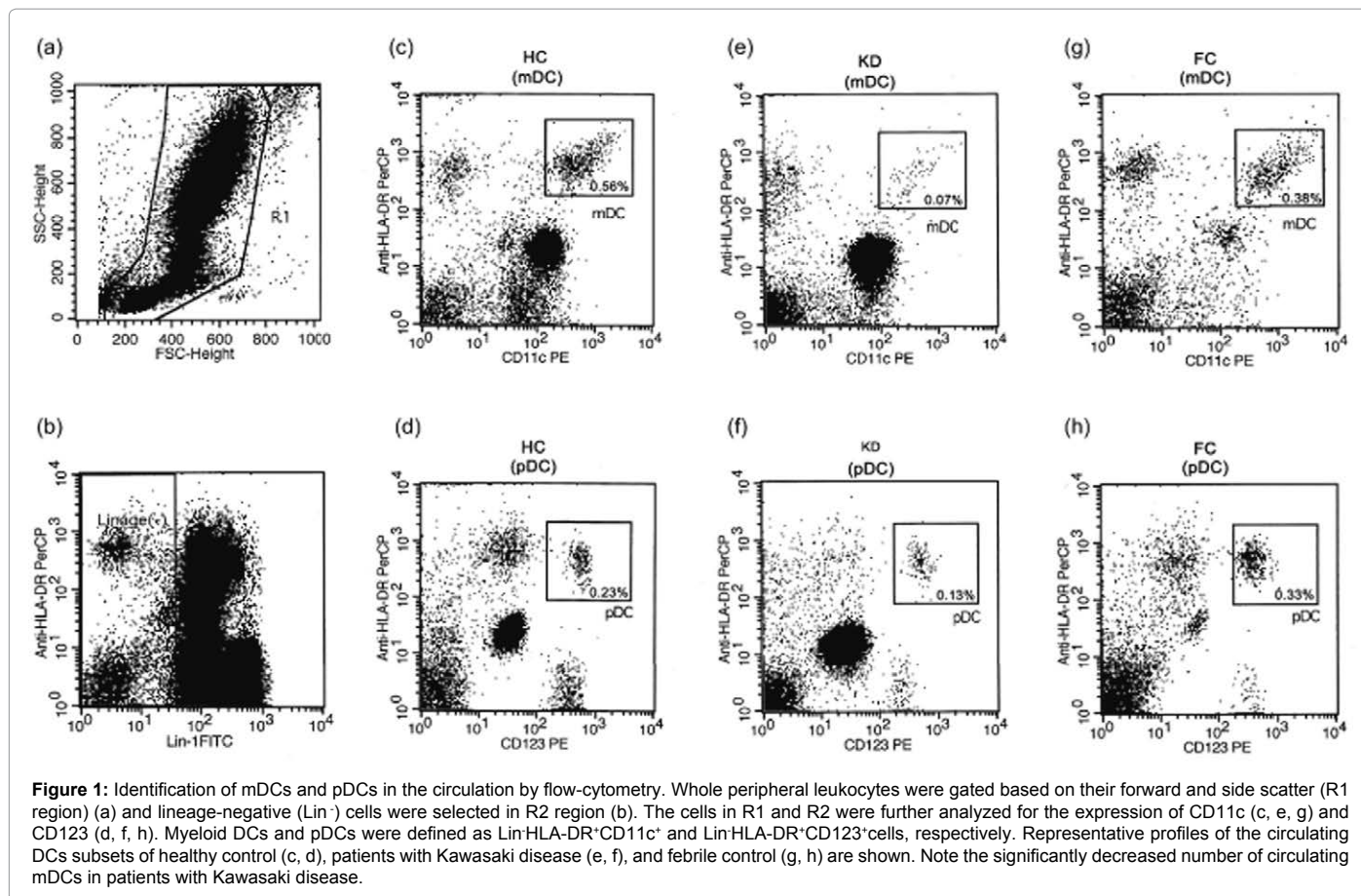
This study protocol was approved by ethics committee of Kurume University School of Medicine and written informed consent to participate in this study was obtained from all parents or guardians of the subjects. Of note, these measurements including the number of

	Acute phase of Kawasaki diseases	Febrile Control	Healthy Control
number of Patients	33	24	13
Sex (Male / Female)	18 / 15	13 / 11	8 / 5
Age (years)	$2.6 \pm 2.1$	$2.2 \pm 1.5$	$3.0 \pm 2.5$
Days of Illness (days)	$5.6 \pm 1.6$	$4.6 \pm 2.2$	-
C-reactive protein (mg/l)	$86 \pm 48^*$	$75 \pm 54^*$	$1 \pm 1$
White blood cell ( $\mu$ l)	$13820 \pm 5330^*$	$15390 \pm 7490^*$	$8420 \pm 2320$
Hematocrit (%)	$32.3 \pm 2.8^*$	$32.6 \pm 3.1^*$	$37.3 \pm 2.8$
Platelet count ( $\times 10^4 / \mu$ l)	$35.7 \pm 10.4$	$34.8 \pm 10.9$	$32.5 \pm 4.7$
Sodium (mmol/l)	$134 \pm 2^*$	$135 \pm 2^*$	$138 \pm 2$
Albumin (g/l)	$33 \pm 4^{*,\#}$	$38 \pm 4$	$41 \pm 2$

\*, p <0.05 vs. Healthy Control

#, p <0.05 vs. Febrile Control

Table 1: Patients' Profile.



**Figure 1:** Identification of mDCs and pDCs in the circulation by flow-cytometry. Whole peripheral leukocytes were gated based on their forward and side scatter (R1 region) (a) and lineage-negative (Lin<sup>-</sup>) cells were selected in R2 region (b). The cells in R1 and R2 were further analyzed for the expression of CD11c (c, e, g) and CD123 (d, f, h). Myeloid DCs and pDCs were defined as Lin<sup>-</sup>HLA-DR<sup>+</sup>CD11c<sup>+</sup> and Lin<sup>-</sup>HLA-DR<sup>+</sup>CD123<sup>+</sup> cells, respectively. Representative profiles of the circulating DCs subsets of healthy control (c, d), patients with Kawasaki disease (e, f), and febrile control (g, h) are shown. Note the significantly decreased number of circulating mDCs in patients with Kawasaki disease.

DCs and inflammatory cytokines were made by 2 investigators (T.T. and H.O.) that were blinded to the clinical profile of each study subject.

### Statistical analyses

Variables were expressed as mean and standard deviations or median and range as appropriate. We compared number of DCs, demographic data, and blood chemistry data among the 3 groups using the Kruskal-Wallis test and determined differences in consecutive changes of number of DCs among 3 time points using the Kruskal-Wallis test with post-hoc analysis using Dunn's method. In addition, we determined correlation between number of mDCs and blood chemistry data such as CRP, albumin, inflammatory cytokines, and chemokines in AKD using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient. Level of statistical difference was set at  $p < 0.05$ . All data analysis was performed by a commercially available statistical analysis software package (Statview 5.0, SAS Institute Inc, Cary, NC, USA, StatMateIV, Atms, Tokyo, Japan, or PASW Statistics 17.0, SPSS Inc, Chicago, IL, USA).

### Results

There was no significant difference in age or sex distribution among 3 groups and number of febrile days at study between aKD and FC. As expected, aKD and FC showed significantly higher white blood cell count ( $13820 \pm 5330$  and  $15390 \pm 7490$  vs.  $8420 \pm 2320/\mu\text{l}$ ) and CRP ( $86 \pm 48$  and  $75 \pm 54$  vs.  $1 \pm 1$  mg/l) but significantly lower hematocrit ( $32.2 \pm 2.8$  and  $32.8 \pm 3.0$  vs.  $37.3 \pm 2.8$  %) and sodium ( $134 \pm 2$  and  $135 \pm 3$  vs.  $138 \pm 2$  mEq/l) than HC (Table 1). There was no significant difference between aKD and FC in white blood cell counts,

CRP, hematocrit, and sodium. However, aKD showed significantly lower serum albumin ( $33 \pm 4$  vs.  $38 \pm 4$  and  $41 \pm 2$  g/l) than FC or HC, characterizing blood chemistry profile in aKD.

### Change in circulating DCs

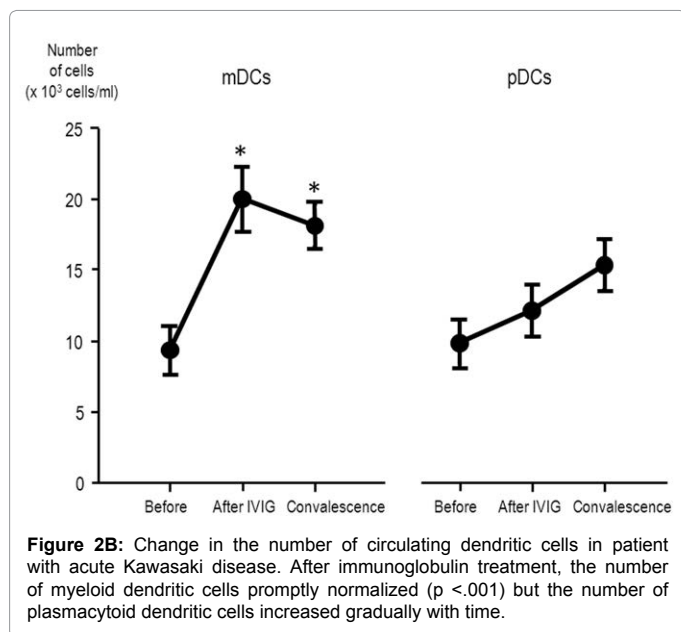
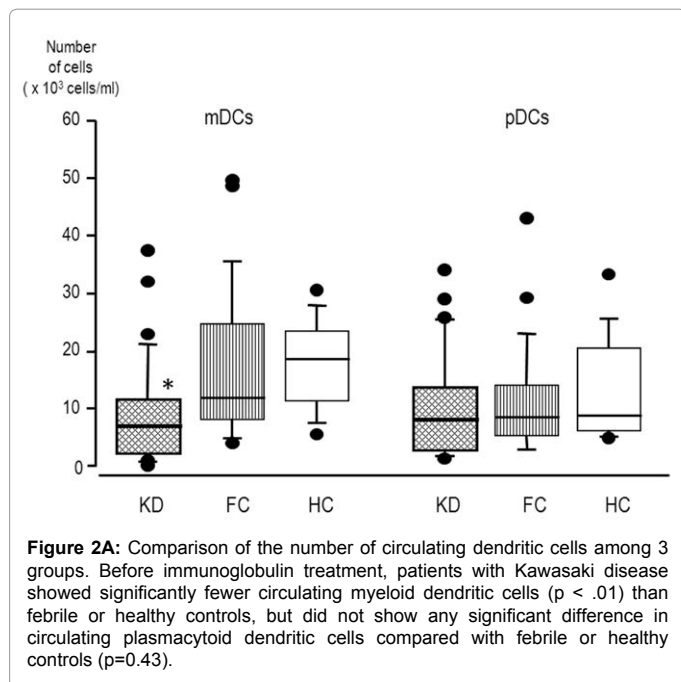
Before IVIG, aKD showed significantly fewer circulating mDC [median (lower, upper quartile)=7260 (2463, 11550 vs. 12210 (9500, 22050) and 18600 (11520, 23460) cells/ml,  $p < 0.001$ ] than FC and HC, but did not show any significant difference in circulating pDC compared with FC or HC [8100 (2553, 13090) vs. 8275 (5125, 13545) and 8690 (6060, 19600) cells/ml,  $p=0.43$  (Figure 1c - h, 2A). In aKD, the number of mDC quickly restored [7260 (2463, 11550) vs. 15200 (10840, 30965) after IVIG and 18600 (12950, 25510) cells/ml at convalescence,  $p < 0.001$ ], but the number of pDC did not change significantly [8100 (2553, 13090) vs. 10700 (6465, 14265) after IVIG and 13625 (11040, 16045) cells/ml at convalescence, NS] after IVIG (Figure 2B).

Of note, the number of mDC as well as pDC significantly positively correlated with serum albumin (mDC,  $r=0.56$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ , Figure 3A, and pDC,  $r=0.39$ ,  $p < 0.02$ , respectively) and the number of mDCs significantly negatively correlated with CRP ( $r=-0.42$ ,  $p < 0.005$ , Figure 3B), but pDC did not. Either mDC or pDC did not correlate with serum sodium level.

### Serum cytokines and its correlation with circulating DCs (Table 2)

aKD showed significantly higher IL-6 ( $p < 0.0001$ ), IL-8 ( $p=0.0024$ ), and IL-10 ( $p=0.0025$ ), but significantly lower IL12-p70 ( $p=0.0035$ ) than



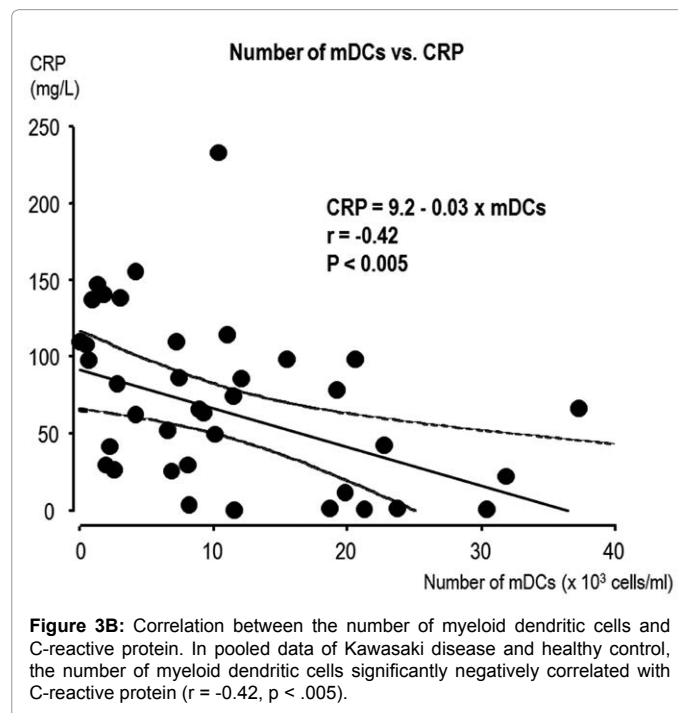
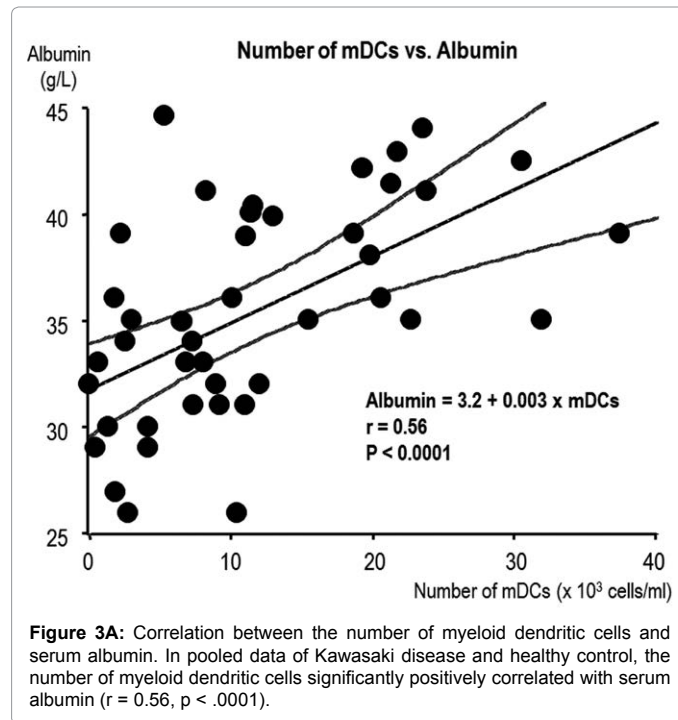


FC and HC (Figure 4). Among these elevated cytokines, IL-6 ( $r=-0.50$ ,  $p < 0.02$ ) and IL-10 ( $r=-0.44$ ,  $p < 0.04$ ), significantly inversely correlated with circulating DCs. There was no significant difference in IL-1 $\beta$  and tumor necrosis factor- $\alpha$  (TNF- $\alpha$ ) among the groups.

## Discussions

This study indicates that circulating mDCs might be involved in the pathophysiology of acute phase of Kawasaki disease. We demonstrated that aKD exhibited a specific and significant decrease in the absolute number of circulating mDC when compared to patients with other febrile disease or healthy controls. In addition, the number of circulating mDCs decreases with an inverse correlation with disease severity of Kawasaki disease and the number of circulating mDC is restored quickly by IVIG.

This association between reduced number of circulating DCs and diseases activity is reported in many types of autoimmune diseases such as Sjögren's syndrome [11,12], systemic lupus erythematosus [13], sarcoidosis [14], and graft versus host disease [15]. In patients with graft-versus-host disease [15], the decrease in circulating DCs is associated with the clinical manifestations of disease in temporal profile. When patients showed active skin or liver disease, the number of circulating DCs reduced. In these diseases, mature DCs were reported to be found in active lesion of the disease, such as in labial

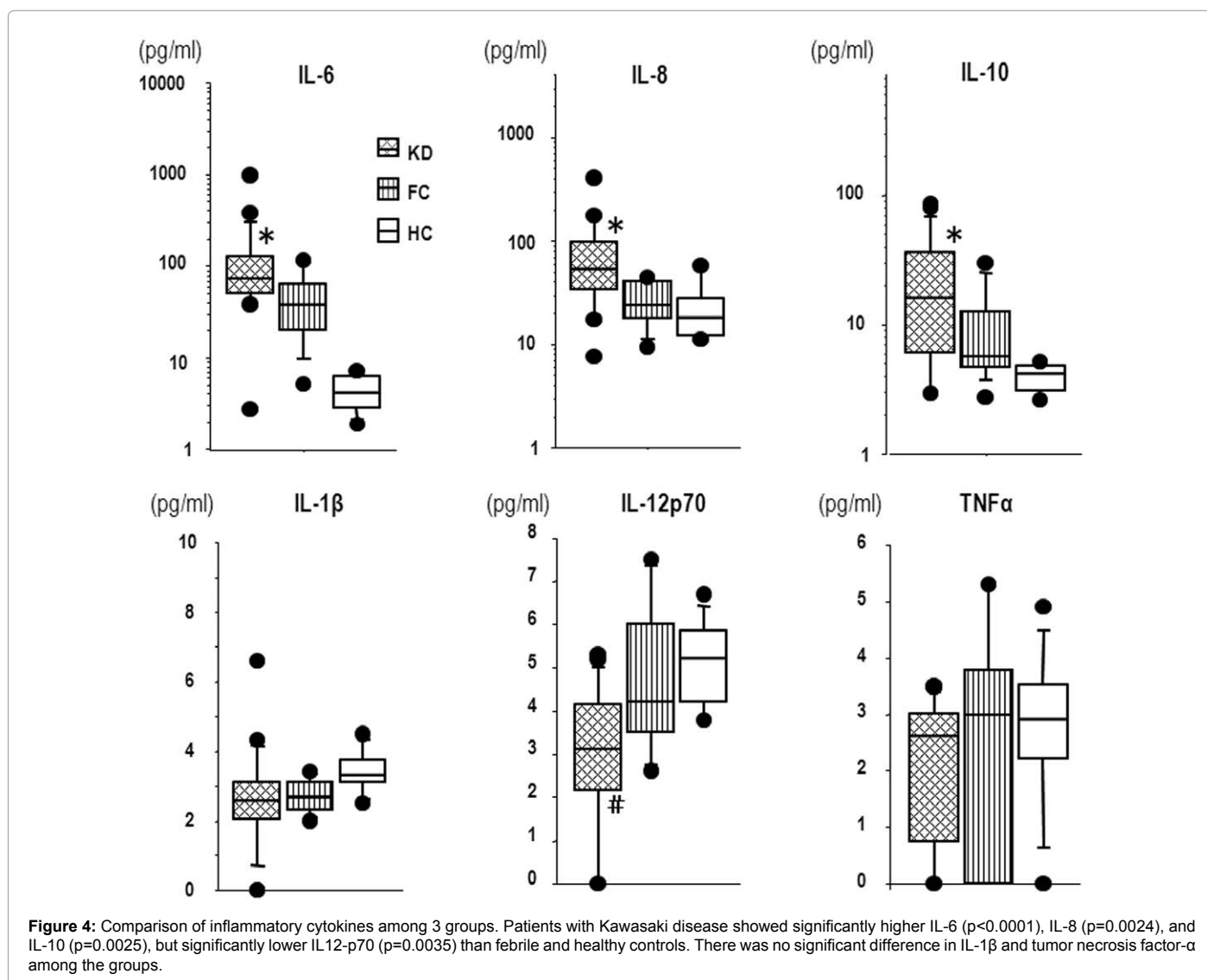


	All DCs	Myeloid DC	Plasmacytoid DC
IL-1 $\beta$	Ns.	Ns.	Ns.
IL-6	R=-0.50, p=0.01	R = -0.46, p=0.003	R = -0.36, p=0.03
IL-8	Ns.	R = -0.34, p=0.03	Ns.
IL-10	R=-0.44, p=0.03	R = -0.41, p=0.01	R = -0.34, p=0.03
IL-12p70	Ns.	Ns.	Ns.
TNF- $\alpha$	Ns.	Ns.	Ns.

Abbreviations

DC: Dendritic cell; IL: Interleukin; Ns: No significant difference; TNF- $\alpha$ : Tumor necrosis factor- $\alpha$

**Table 2:** Correlation between cytokines and number of myeloid DC as well as plasmacytoidDC in acute phase of Kawasaki disease.



salivary glands in Sjögren syndrome [11,12], in granulomas together with T cells in sarcoidosis [14], and in skin biopsy specimen of graft-versus-host disease [15]. In this study, the number of circulating DCs was associated with laboratory maker of disease severity of Kawasaki disease such as serum level of albumin; the characteristic change in KD [25,26] and levels of inflammatory pro-cytokines, CRP and IL-6.

Various possible mechanisms could be involved in decreased peripheral DCs. One hypothesis is that these cells are more susceptible to apoptosis and may undergo peripheral destruction [27]. However,

it is possible that the reduced number of circulating DC could be due to their enhanced recirculation from blood to affected tissues. In Sjögren syndrome, a negative correlation was observed between the number of circulating mDCs and the frequency of tissue-infiltrated DCs [12]. Therefore, selective trafficking of DCs into target tissues and the resultant decrease of the circulating pool of DCs might be one of the mechanisms. Interestingly, IL-6 is reported to regulate the selective influx of DC subsets into an inflamed lymph node [28]. In mouse model, IL-6 has an important role in the accumulation of CD11b+DCs

and CD8+ DCs in response to the injection of bacterial peptidoglycan, as well as a role in regulating changes in overall lymph node cellularity [28]. Increased IL-6 in Kawasaki disease might not act as just one of the pro-inflammatory cytokines but also take some role in the recirculation of DCs to affected tissues.

On the other hand, the fact that number of circulating DCs is reduced at the initial presentation of Kawasaki disease should draw attention in terms of the etiological aspect because the initial trigger of this disease is still unknown. Number of circulating DCs is reported to decrease in infection of certain viruses such as influenza H1N1 virus [17], cytomegalovirus [18], and dengue virus [19]. Because clinical picture of Kawasaki disease, including hematological and blood chemistry data, is not compatible with these known viral infections, these viruses should not take etiological role. However, it may be possible that unknown virus infection [29] may induce an initial process and decrease circulating DCs.

Furthermore, the fact that immunoglobulin treatment is the most effective treatment in Kawasaki disease may strengthen the possible involvement of DCs. Regular immunoglobulin treatment is reported to be effective in experimental model of graft-versus-host disease [30] in which pathophysiological involvement of DCs is postulated and the reduced number of DCs is documented.

Cytokine profile in this study was compatible with previous reports except for TNF- $\alpha$ . Though many cytokines, such as IL-6, IL-8, and IL-10 in this study, were reported to increase in Kawasaki disease [31,32], IL-12p70 was not reported to increase [33]. Indeed, IL-12p70 in aKD was significantly lower than those in FC and HC in this study. Because production of IL-12p70 by DCs may depend on DC subset [34], this decreased level of IL-12p70 may be associated with decreased number of circulating mDCs. On the other hand, we could not show typical increase of TNF- $\alpha$ , because we measured TNF- $\alpha$ , unstable short half-life cytokine, and we should have measured soluble form receptor of TNF- $\alpha$ , which should reflect the true biological activity of TNF- $\alpha$  [35].

## Study Limitation

This study has several limitations. Because we did not have methods to look for localization of DCs in live human subjects or the approval to examine affected tissue, such as lymph nodes, in patients with Kawasaki disease, the real mechanisms involved in the significant decrease of DCs are not clear. Also, it was difficult for us to examine functional status of DCs including co-stimulatory molecules because the severer the disease, the less DCs circulate and small subjects' body size did not allow us to obtain enough blood samples.

## Conclusions

This study indicates that circulating mDC is decreased in acute phase of Kawasaki disease and may play a significant role in the pathophysiology of this disease.

## Acknowledgement

This study was partially supported by "Academic Frontier" Project and Grants-in-Aid for Scientific Research, The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology, Japan and Research Grant of Japan Kawasaki Disease Research Center, Japan.

We thank K. Kimura for excellent technical assistance and Dr Julien I. E. Hoffman, Professor of Pediatrics, University of California, San Francisco, for his kind assistance with the manuscript.

Part of this study was presented at the annual meeting of American Heart Association 2011, Orlando, FL, USA.

## Declaration

We declare that there is no conflict of interest in this study.

## References

1. Burns JC (2009) Kawasaki Disease update. *Indian J Pediatr* 76: 71-76.
2. Harnden A, Takahashi M, Burgner D (2009) Kawasaki disease. *BMJ* 338: b1514.
3. Matsubara T, Ichiyama T, Furukawa S (2005) Immunological profile of peripheral blood lymphocytes and monocytes/macrophages in Kawasaki disease. *Clin Exp Immunol* 141: 381-387.
4. Abe J, Jibiki T, Noma S, Nakajima T, Saito H, et al. (2005) Gene expression profiling of the effect of high-dose intravenous Ig in patients with Kawasaki disease. *J Immunol* 174: 5837-5845.
5. Rowley AH, Shulman ST (2007) New developments in the search for the etiologic agent of Kawasaki disease. *Curr Opin Pediatr* 19: 71-74.
6. Onouchi Y, Gunji T, Burns JC, Shimizu C, Newburger JW, et al. (2008) ITPKC functional polymorphism associated with Kawasaki disease susceptibility and formation of coronary artery aneurysms. *Nat Genet* 40: 35-42.
7. Banchereau J, Steinman RM (1998) Dendritic cells and the control of immunity. *Nature* 392: 245-252.
8. Banchereau J, Briere F, Caux C, Davoust J, Lebecque S, et al. (2000) Immunobiology of dendritic cells. *Annu Rev Immunol* 18: 767-811.
9. Mellman I, Steinman RM (2001) Dendritic cells: specialized and regulated antigen processing machines. *Cell* 106: 255-258.
10. Shortman K, Liu YJ (2002) Mouse and human dendritic cell subtypes. *Nat Rev Immunol* 2: 151-161.
11. Ozaki Y, Amakawa R, Ito T, Iwai H, Tajima K, et al. (2001) Alteration of peripheral blood dendritic cells in patients with primary Sjögren's syndrome. *Arthritis Rheum* 44: 419-431.
12. Ozaki Y, Ito T, Son Y, Amuro H, Shimamoto K, et al. (2010) Decrease of blood dendritic cells and increase of tissue-infiltrating dendritic cells are involved in the induction of Sjögren's syndrome but not in the maintenance. *Clin Exp Immunol* 159: 315-326.
13. Migita K, Miyashita T, Maeda Y, Kimura H, Nakamura M, et al. (2005) Reduced blood BDCA-2+ (lymphoid) and CD11c+ (myeloid) dendritic cells in systemic lupus erythematosus. *Clin Exp Immunol* 142: 84-91.
14. Ota M, Amakawa R, Uehira K, Ito T, Yagi Y, et al. (2004) Involvement of dendritic cells in sarcoidosis. *Thorax* 59: 408-413.
15. Takebayashi M, Amakawa R, Tajima K, Miyaji M, Nakamura K, et al. (2004) Blood dendritic cells are decreased in acute graft-versus-host disease. *Bone Marrow Transplant* 33: 989-996.
16. Yilmaz A, Weber J, Cicha I, Stumpf C, Klein M, et al. (2006) Decrease in circulating myeloid dendritic cell precursors in coronary artery disease. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 48: 70-80.
17. Lichtner M, Mastroianni CM, Russo R, Russo G, Belvisi V, et al. (2011) Severe and persistent depletion of circulating plasmacytoid dendritic cells in patients with 2009 pandemic H1N1 infection. *PLoS One* 6: e19872.
18. Varani S, Rossini G, Mastroianni A, Tammik C, Frascaroli G, et al. (2012) High TNF-alpha and IL-8 levels predict low blood dendritic cell counts in primary cytomegalovirus infection. *J Clin Virol* 53: 360-363.
19. De Carvalho Bittencourt M, Martial J, Cabié A, Thomas L, Césaire R (2012) Decreased peripheral dendritic cell numbers in dengue virus infection. *J Clin Immunol* 32: 161-172.
20. Yilmaz A, Rowley A, Schulte DJ, Doherty TM, Schröder NW, et al. (2007) Activated myeloid dendritic cells accumulate and co-localize with CD3+ T cells in coronary artery lesions in patients with Kawasaki disease. *Exp Mol Pathol* 83: 93-103.
21. Schulte DJ, Yilmaz A, Shimada K, Fishbein MC, Lowe EL, et al. (2009) Involvement of innate and adaptive immunity in a murine model of coronary arteritis mimicking Kawasaki disease. *J Immunol* 183: 5311-5318.
22. Khor CC, Davila S, Shimizu C, Sheng S, Matsubara T, et al. (2011) Genome-wide linkage and association mapping identify susceptibility alleles in ABCC4 for Kawasaki disease. *J Med Genet* 48: 467-472.

23. Ayusawa M, Sonobe T, Uemura S, Ogawa S, Nakamura Y, et al. (2005) Revision of diagnostic guidelines for Kawasaki disease (the 5th revised edition). *Pediatr Int* 47: 232-234.
24. Sugi Y, Yasukawa H, Kai H, Fukui D, Futamata N, et al. (2011) Reduction and activation of circulating dendritic cells in patients with decompensated heart failure. *Int J Cardiol* 147: 258-264.
25. Terai M, Honda T, Yasukawa K, Higashi K, Hamada H, et al. (2003) Prognostic impact of vascular leakage in acute Kawasaki disease. *Circulation* 108: 325-330.
26. Kuo HC, Liang CD, Wang CL, Yu HR, Hwang KP, et al. (2010) Serum albumin level predicts initial intravenous immunoglobulin treatment failure in Kawasaki disease. *Acta Paediatr* 99: 1578-1583.
27. Kim HY, Lee HG, Kim DS (2000) Apoptosis of peripheral blood mononuclear cells in Kawasaki disease. *J Rheumatol* 27: 801-806.
28. Dawicki W, Jawdat DW, Xu N, Marshall JS (2010) Mast cells, histamine, and IL-6 regulate the selective influx of dendritic cell subsets into an inflamed lymph node. *J Immunol* 184: 2116-2123.
29. Rowley AH, Baker SC, Shulman ST, Rand KH, Tretiakova MS, et al. (2011) Ultrastructural, immunofluorescence, and RNA evidence support the hypothesis of a „new“ virus associated with Kawasaki disease. *J Infect Dis* 203: 1021-1030.
30. Gregoire-Gauthier J, Durrieu L, Duval A, Fontaine F, Dieng MM, et al. (2012) Use of immunoglobulins in the prevention of GvHD in a xenogeneic NOD/SCID/ $\beta$ 2-microglobulin mouse model. *Bone Marrow Transplant* 47: 439-450.
31. Lin CY, Lin CC, Hwang B, Chiang B (1992) Serial changes of serum interleukin-6, interleukin-8, and tumor necrosis factor alpha among patients with Kawasaki disease. *J Pediatr* 121: 924-926.
32. Hirao J, Hibi S, Andoh T, Ichimura T (1997) High levels of circulating interleukin-4 and interleukin-10 in Kawasaki disease. *Int Arch Allergy Immunol* 112: 152-156.
33. Katayama K, Matsubara T, Fujiwara M, Koga M, Furukawa S (2000) CD14+CD16+ monocyte subpopulation in Kawasaki disease. *Clin Exp Immunol* 121: 566-570.
34. Dalod M, Salazar-Mather TP, Malmgaard L, Lewis C, Asselin-Paturel C, et al. (2002) Interferon alpha/beta and interleukin 12 responses to viral infections: pathways regulating dendritic cell cytokine expression in vivo. *J Exp Med* 195: 517-528.
35. Duncombe AS, Brenner MK (1988) Is circulating tumor necrosis factor bioactive? *N Engl J Med* 319: 1227-1228.