

## Spotlight

Inflammation and  
Autism: From Maternal  
Gut to Fetal BrainIvan Osokine<sup>1</sup> and  
Adrian Erlebacher<sup>1,\*</sup>

**Maternal immune activation (MIA) during pregnancy is associated with an increased risk of behavioral disorders in the offspring of affected mothers. Two recent studies highlight how maternal inflammation disrupts inhibitory interneuron networks and suggest that the maternal gut microbiome may be a contributing risk factor for MIA-induced behavioral abnormalities.**

Autism spectrum disorders (ASDs) are characterized by pervasive and potentially severe developmental deficits in communication, socialization, and behavior. Both genetic and environmental factors are thought to contribute to the pathogenesis of ASD [1] and maternal inflammation during pregnancy, particularly as a consequence of infection, is being increasingly recognized as a potential risk factor for the development of ASD [2]. The association between maternal wellbeing and fetal development leads to novel avenues of translational investigation into the immunological, neurological, and developmental factors underlying ASD severity and pathogenesis. These may ultimately lead to candidate therapeutic and preventative strategies to combat ASD.

Experimental work on the link between maternal inflammation and ASD was pioneered in the early 2000s, when it was discovered that MIA in pregnant rodents, through either infection or the administration of proinflammatory adjuvants, induced schizophrenia- and ASD-like behaviors in their offspring [3]. Two years ago the field took a leap forward when

Gloria Choi, Jun Huh, and colleagues demonstrated that MIA could induce abnormal patches of neuronal architecture in areas of the cerebral cortex through the direct intracerebral action of the proinflammatory cytokine interleukin-17a (IL-17a) [4]. This remarkable work also revealed that the source of IL-17 was T helper 17 (Th17) cells, a CD4<sup>+</sup> T cell subset that plays a key role in combating bacterial and fungal infections and in the maintenance of gut homeostasis. Thus, IL-17a produced by maternal Th17 cells was hypothesized to reach the fetal circulation, which would then allow it to affect fetal brain development.

In companion publications in the September 2017 issue of *Nature*, the same researchers now describe additional discoveries regarding both the neurological and immunological components of the IL-17a MIA pathway. The article focusing on the neurological pathway (Yim *et al.*) elegantly dissects the neural circuits involved in MIA-induced cortical pathology and associated behavioral abnormalities [5]. The authors first determined that polyinosinic:polycytidylic acid [poly(I:C)]-induced MIA in pregnant mice led to localized loss of inhibitory interneuron networks in the brains of adult offspring, primarily in the dysgranular zone of the primary somatosensory cortex (S1DZ) [5]. Moreover, on optical stimulation of adult wild-type mice (in the absence of MIA), the authors were able to recapitulate an ASD-like behavior [comprising repetitive marble burying, anxiety (time spent at the center of an open field), and decreased sociability] by either enhancing the activation of excitatory neurons within the S1DZ or reducing the function of inhibitory interneurons. This suggested the possibility that MIA-induced ASD-like behaviors might arise from enhanced cortical activation following the loss of inhibitory interneuron networks [5]. Moreover, separate optogenetic targeting of the connections between S1DZ and two of its

downstream targets, the striatum and the temporal cortex, reproduced or rescued discrete components of MIA-induced behavioral abnormalities – repetitive behaviors and socialization defects, respectively. These data implicated S1DZ as a central node connecting multiple behavioral pathways disrupted by MIA. A seminal finding from this work was that optogenetic inhibition of S1DZ in adult MIA offspring abrogated the behavioral abnormalities of these mice, demonstrating the potential of reversing MIA-induced developmental abnormalities, even into adulthood [5].

Although maternal inflammation is associated with increased risk of ASD, the incidence of ASD among children of mothers hospitalized from infection remains relatively low [2]. This suggests that other maternal or fetal factors may modify the risk of ASD in the context of an inflammatory illness. Accordingly, the immunological experiments described in the companion article (Kim *et al.*) revealed that the maternal gut microbiome is another critical determinant of MIA-induced behavioral abnormalities [6]. This work took advantage of the fact that C57BL/6 mice purchased from Taconic Biosciences (Tac) contain a high number of gut Th17 cells because they are colonized with a strain of a segmented filamentous bacterium (SFB). By contrast, mice purchased from The Jackson Laboratory (JAX) lack gut Th17 cells and are not colonized by SFB. The authors found a striking result in that only the offspring of Tac mice are susceptible to MIA-induced behavioral pathology; furthermore, such susceptibility – concomitant with the induction of gut Th17 cells – could be conferred on JAX mice by co-housing the animals or via gastrointestinal gavage [6]. In addition, the study demonstrated that elevated IL-17a responses during MIA were due to the activation of dendritic cells (a key antigen-presenting cell type) interacting

with pre-established memory Th17 cells within the SFB-colonized gut.

Together these murine studies provide further definition of the mechanisms of MIA-induced behavioral changes and also open new ways of thinking about how the pathogenesis of ASD intersects with maternal inflammation, brain development, and environment. For instance, the known effects of diet on gut microbial composition [7] might help to explain the emerging link between diet and ASD incidence [8]; this, in turn, may suggest ways to harness specific dietary modifications during pregnancy to reduce ASD risk. Furthermore, MIA cortical pathology possesses a narrow developmental window [5], suggesting that developing neural networks may have a restricted window of sensitivity to IL-17a or that MIA-induced IL-17a production by gut Th17 cells is itself somehow regulated over the course of gestation. Kim *et al.* showed that systemic inflammation does not activate gut dendritic cells (and hence Th17 cells) when the mice are not pregnant. How this additional layer of regulation relates to the multitude of dynamic physiologic, hormonal, and immunologic changes that accompany pregnancy remains to be determined.

These pregnancy-specific issues are also relevant when considering how IL-17a, produced by maternal Th17 cells might reach the fetal brain and whether this process might be regulated by the placenta, which separates the maternal and fetal circulations and which tightly controls communication between the two compartments. One possibility is that the cytokine itself is transported across the placenta; another is that Th17 cells migrate from the maternal gut to the fetus. Both possibilities, however, would be consistent with the emerging association between ASD risk and certain pathologies of the placenta [9,10].

It is important to note that the murine MIA model used by the Choi and Huh laboratories simulates viral infection, but bacterial infections and autoimmune events are also associated with an increased risk of ASD [2]. It is thus possible that non-specific memory Th17 activation could serve as a final common pathway for different inflammatory challenges or that other, yet-to-be-defined mechanisms can account for the increased ASD risk under different inflammatory circumstances. Last, although many hurdles remain, the work by Choi, Huh, and colleagues now point the way towards envisioning how

therapies that target discrete regions of the brain might eventually be developed to ameliorate the symptoms of ASD [5,6].

<sup>1</sup>Department of Laboratory Medicine, University of California, San Francisco, San Francisco, CA 94143, USA

\*Correspondence:  
adrian.erlebacher@ucsf.edu (A. Erlebacher).  
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