
**NEW IMMUNOMODULATORY APPROACHES TO ALLERGIC
INFLAMMATION: BIOLOGICS, SMALL MOLECULES, AND
INNOVATIVE VACCINES**

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ABSTRACT:

Allergic inflammatory disorders, including asthma, allergic rhinitis, atopic dermatitis, food allergies, and chronic urticaria, represent a growing global health burden affecting millions of individuals worldwide. The increasing prevalence of these conditions has been linked to complex interactions among genetic susceptibility, environmental exposures, lifestyle changes, and immune dysregulation. Traditional therapeutic approaches, such as antihistamines, corticosteroids, and bronchodilators, remain the cornerstone of allergy management; however, these treatments primarily focus on symptom control and often fail to address the underlying immunological mechanisms responsible for disease initiation and progression. Consequently, there is a growing need for targeted therapies capable of providing sustained disease control and long-term immunological benefits.

Recent advances in immunology and molecular medicine have revolutionized the treatment landscape of allergic diseases through the development of novel immunomodulatory strategies.

Biologic agents, particularly monoclonal antibodies targeting key mediators of type 2 inflammation, including immunoglobulin E (IgE), interleukin (IL)-4, IL-5, IL-13, thymic stromal lymphopoietin (TSLP), and their associated signaling pathways, have demonstrated remarkable efficacy in reducing inflammation, preventing disease exacerbations, and improving clinical outcomes in patients with moderate-to-severe allergic disorders. In parallel, small-molecule

therapeutics, such as Janus kinase (JAK) inhibitors and other intracellular signaling modulators, offer a promising alternative by selectively interfering with inflammatory pathways involved in allergic responses, while providing the convenience of oral administration.

Furthermore, innovative vaccine-based approaches are emerging as potential disease-modifying interventions. These include allergen-specific immunotherapy, recombinant allergen vaccines,

peptide-based vaccines, DNA and mRNA vaccines, and nanoparticle-assisted delivery systems designed to promote immune tolerance and reshape aberrant immune responses. Unlike conventional pharmacotherapy, these strategies aim to induce long-lasting immunological changes, thereby reducing allergen sensitivity and preventing disease recurrence.

This review explores the latest developments in biologics, small molecules, and next-generation vaccine technologies for allergic inflammation, highlighting their mechanisms of action, therapeutic applications, clinical efficacy, safety considerations, and future prospects. The integration of these advanced immunomodulatory approaches into clinical practice represents a significant step toward precision medicine, offering personalized and potentially curative treatment options for patients suffering from allergic diseases. Continued research and large-scale clinical studies are essential to further refine these therapies, improve accessibility, and establish their long-term effectiveness in allergy management.

KEYWORDS: Allergic inflammation, immunomodulation, biologics, monoclonal antibodies, small-molecule therapeutics, JAK inhibitors, allergen immunotherapy, recombinant vaccines, mRNA vaccines, immune tolerance, precision medicine, allergic diseases.

INTRODUCTION:

Chronic non-communicable diseases, including allergies and hypersensitivity disorders, are strongly influenced by lifestyle factors and environmental exposures. According to the 2019 Global Burden of Disease report, more than 260 million individuals worldwide are affected by asthma, while approximately 170 million suffer from atopic dermatitis (AD). Recognizing the growing impact of these conditions, the World Health Organization (WHO) incorporated dedicated sections on allergy and hypersensitivity disorders within Chapter 3 of the International Classification of Diseases, 11th Revision (ICD-11). Allergic and hypersensitivity disorders encompass a broad spectrum of clinical conditions, including asthma, urticaria (hives), allergic rhinitis (hay fever), rhinoconjunctivitis, atopic dermatitis (eczema), chronic rhinosinusitis with

nasal polyps (CRSwNP), food and chemical allergies, and anaphylaxis, which is a potentially life-threatening medical emergency. These disorders are characterized by exaggerated or prolonged type 2 (T₂) immune responses to environmental stimuli that are generally harmless and well tolerated by non-allergic individuals. Persistent allergic inflammation can lead to structural and functional damage of affected tissues and organs if left untreated.

The pathogenesis of allergic inflammation involves a complex interaction among various immune cells and is typically initiated by exposure to non-infectious environmental allergens. In sensitized individuals, allergens trigger the cross-linking of immunoglobulin E (IgE) molecules bound to high-affinity FcεRI receptors on mast cells and basophils, leading to cellular activation and the release of inflammatory mediators. Allergic inflammation generally progresses through three sequential phases. The early phase occurs within seconds to minutes and is characterized by the rapid release of preformed mediators and newly synthesized arachidonic acid metabolites. This is followed by the late phase, developing several hours later, during which eosinophils, macrophages, lymphocytes, and other immune cells migrate to and infiltrate the site of inflammation. With continuous or repeated allergen exposure, a chronic inflammatory phase develops and persists, contributing to long-term tissue damage and disease progression. Interestingly, allergic inflammation shares several immunological features with inflammation induced by helminth infections and ectoparasites, particularly the involvement of T₂ immune responses and IgE-mediated mechanisms. The epithelial barrier, group 2 innate lymphoid cells (ILC2s), and Th₂ cells play essential roles in orchestrating these responses. While mast cells and IgE act as primary initiators and regulators of allergic reactions, eosinophils serve as major effector cells that sustain and amplify inflammation. Over recent decades, extensive research has significantly advanced the understanding of allergic inflammatory mechanisms. These discoveries have led to the identification of distinct disease endotypes, providing valuable insights into the biological pathways underlying allergic disorders and helping to explain their diverse clinical phenotypes.

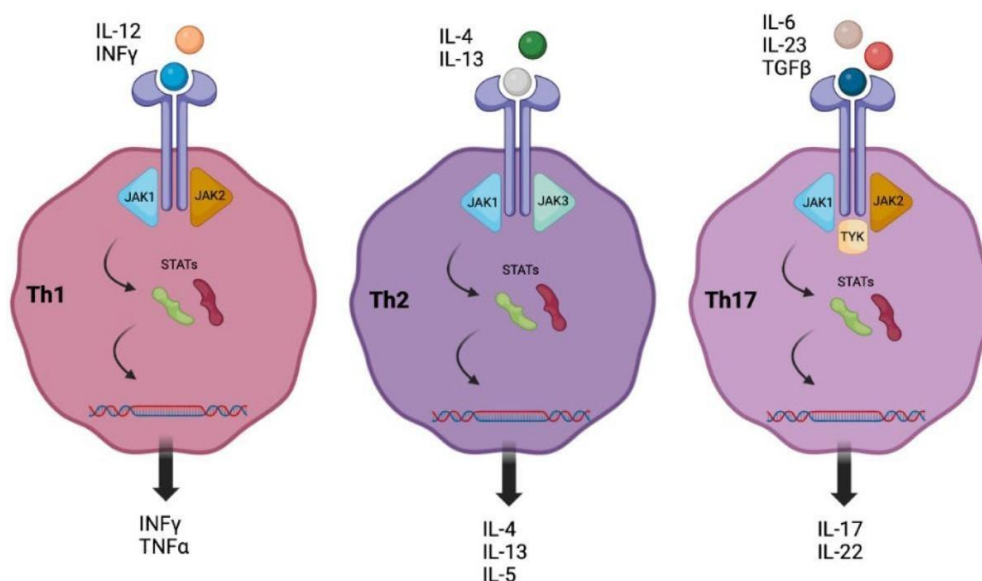
ETIOLOGY:

The high prevalence of allergic diseases in Western countries and their increasing occurrence in developing nations suggest that environmental and lifestyle factors play a significant role in their development. The adoption of a Western lifestyle across the world may contribute to this trend. Other environmental factors associated with allergy risk include increased air

pollution, greater indoor exposure to allergens, and improvements in living conditions.

One widely accepted explanation is the hygiene hypothesis, which proposes that repeated exposure to infections during early childhood helps protect against the development of allergic diseases such as atopic dermatitis (AD). This theory is supported by observations that children in developed countries, who grow up in cleaner and more hygienic environments with reduced exposure to microorganisms, have a higher risk of developing allergies. In contrast, children in developing countries are more frequently exposed to infectious agents due to overcrowding, inadequate sanitation, limited access to clean drinking water, and malnutrition. They encounter various bacterial, viral, and parasitic infections early in life, and intestinal colonization by Gram-negative bacteria commonly occurs during infancy. Studies in Europe have demonstrated differences in the intestinal microbiota of allergic and non-allergic children.

Furthermore, the use of antibiotics during the first two years of life has been associated with an increased risk of developing AD. Normally, balanced exposure to microbes, parasites, allergens, and other environmental factors supports the proper maturation of immune responses, maintaining equilibrium between T-helper 1 (Th1) and T-helper 2 (Th2) cells. However, in genetically susceptible individuals, increased allergen exposure may promote an exaggerated Th2-mediated immune response, leading to allergic sensitization. Regulatory T cells (Tregs) play an important role in maintaining immune tolerance by suppressing excessive Th1 and Th2 responses triggered through activation of both innate and adaptive immune pathways.

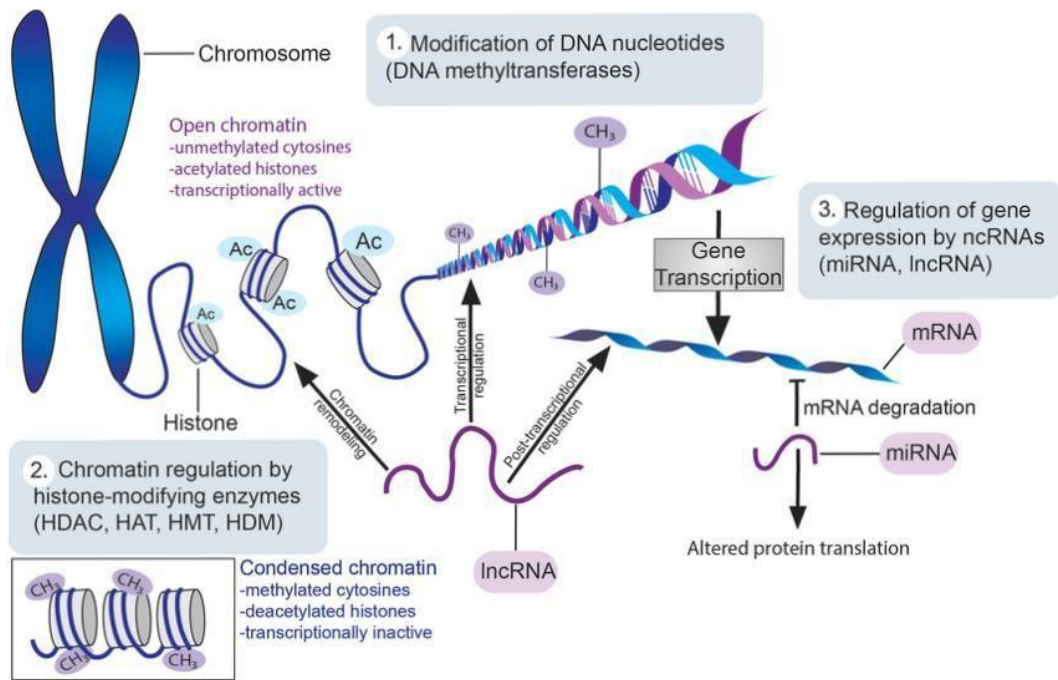


GENETIC AND EPIGENETICS:

Genetic predisposition has long been recognized as one of the major etiologic factors contributing to allergic diseases. Advances in genome-wide association studies (GWAS) have led to the identification of hundreds of genes associated with asthma and other allergic disorders. Although a definitive causal relationship has not been fully established, these genetic findings have significantly improved our understanding of the molecular pathways involved in allergy development. The identified genes can broadly be classified into those regulating immune responses and those influencing the structure and function of tissues such as the epithelium and connective tissue, thereby affecting both innate and adaptive immunity.

In addition to genetic susceptibility, environmental factors can influence the development of allergic diseases through epigenetic mechanisms, including DNA methylation and histone modifications. Several genes play critical roles in allergic inflammation and immune regulation. Among these, IL-4 and IL-13 are essential for the differentiation of Th2 cells and the production of immunoglobulin E (IgE), both of which are central to allergic responses. The ADRB2 gene encodes the β 2-adrenergic receptor, which mediates relaxation of airway smooth muscles; genetic variations in this gene may alter airway responsiveness to allergens. HLA-DRB1 is involved in antigen presentation and contributes to immune recognition of allergens, while CD14 participates in interactions between environmental exposures and the immune system, influencing allergic susceptibility.

The FLG (Filaggrin) gene is crucial for maintaining skin barrier integrity. Mutations in FLG can impair the skin barrier, increasing susceptibility to allergic sensitization, atopic dermatitis, eczema, and food allergies [19,20]. Other important genes include ORMDL3 and GSDMB (formerly GSDML), both of which have been associated with an increased risk of early-onset asthma. The ADAM33 gene is involved in airway remodeling and may contribute to airway hyperresponsiveness observed in allergic conditions. STAT6 plays a key role in Th2 cell differentiation and the regulation of allergic inflammation. Additionally, variants of the CDHR3 gene, which encodes a protein involved in epithelial cell function, have been linked to severe asthma exacerbations and increased disease severity.



CELL AND CHEMICAL MESSANGERS IN ALLERGY:

The allergic inflammatory response arises from complex interactions among inflammatory and structural cells through the release of chemical mediators, which collectively contribute to the development and progression of allergic symptoms.

IGE AND ITS RECEPTORS

Immunoglobulin E (IgE) plays a central role in the pathogenesis of allergic inflammation and mediates hypersensitivity reactions through its interaction with specific cell-surface receptors. Two major receptors for IgE have been identified: the high-affinity receptor FcεRI and the low-affinity receptor FcεRII (CD23). These receptors regulate IgE-mediated immune responses and contribute to the initiation and maintenance of allergic diseases.

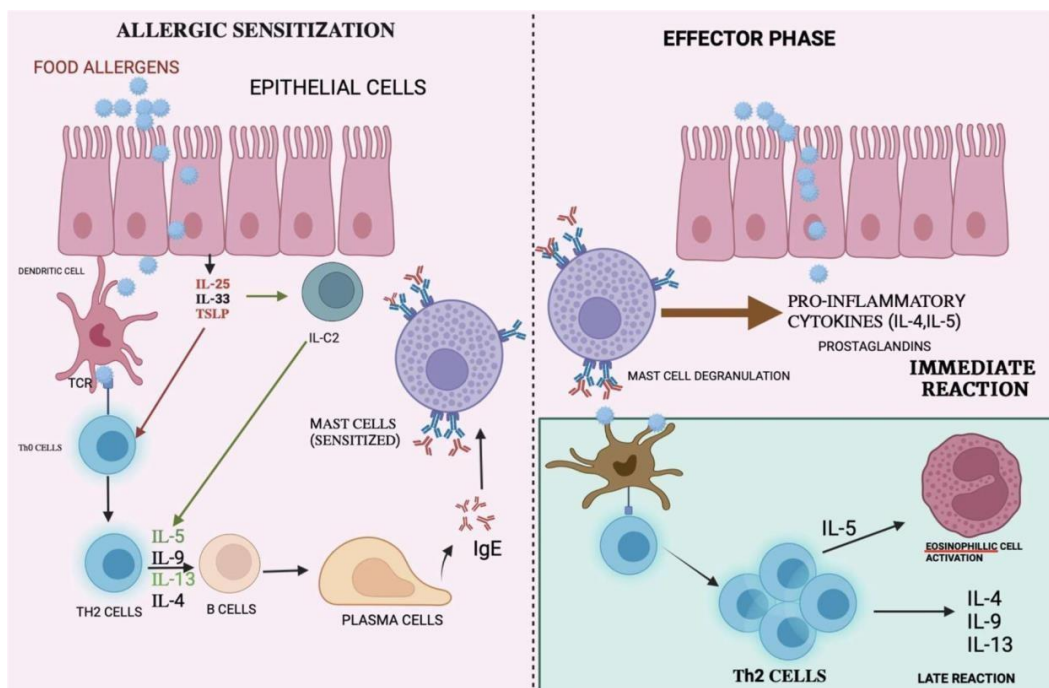
During allergic sensitization, allergen-specific IgE antibodies bind to FcεRI receptors expressed on mast cells and basophils. Upon subsequent exposure to the same allergen, cross-linking of the IgE–FcεRI complexes occurs, triggering rapid activation of these cells. This activation leads to degranulation and the release of preformed mediators such as histamine, proteases, and inflammatory cytokines, which are responsible for the immediate symptoms of allergy, including itching, swelling, bronchoconstriction, mucus secretion, and increased vascular permeability.

The low-affinity IgE receptor, CD23, exists in two isoforms, CD23a and CD23b. CD23a is

primarily expressed on activated B lymphocytes, whereas CD23b expression is induced on B cells, epithelial cells, and other immune cells by cytokines such as interleukin-4 (IL-4). CD23 plays an important role in regulating IgE synthesis, allergen uptake, and antigen presentation, thereby influencing both the magnitude and persistence of allergic responses.

Beyond its role in immediate hypersensitivity reactions, IgE contributes to chronic allergic inflammation by promoting the recruitment and activation of eosinophils, basophils, and T-helper 2 (Th2) cells. The release of cytokines such as IL-4, IL-5, and IL-13 further amplifies the allergic cascade, leading to tissue inflammation and remodeling. Elevated IgE levels are commonly associated with allergic conditions such as asthma, allergic rhinitis, atopic dermatitis, food allergy, and allergic conjunctivitis.

Recent studies have also highlighted the involvement of IgE receptors on dendritic cells and other antigen-presenting cells, which facilitate allergen capture and presentation to T lymphocytes, thereby enhancing adaptive immune responses. These findings have led to the development of targeted biological therapies, such as anti-IgE monoclonal antibodies, which effectively reduce allergic inflammation by preventing IgE from binding to its receptors and interrupting downstream inflammatory signaling pathways.



MAST CELLS:

Upon activation, mast cells release three major categories of biologically active mediators:

performed mediators stored within cytoplasmic granules, newly generated lipid-derived mediators, and newly synthesized cytokines, chemokines, and growth factors. During degranulation, the granule membranes fuse with the plasma membrane, resulting in the rapid release of their contents into the surrounding tissues. Key preformed mediators include histamine, heparin, chondroitin sulfate, tryptase, chymase, carboxypeptidase, and various cytokines and growth factors.

In addition to these preformed substances, activated mast cells produce lipid mediators such as prostaglandins, leukotrienes, and platelet-activating factor (PAF), which further amplify the inflammatory response. These mediators contribute to vasodilation, increased vascular permeability, smooth muscle contraction, mucus hypersecretion, and recruitment of inflammatory cells to the site of allergen exposure.

The combined effect of these mediators leads to the characteristic manifestations of allergic diseases. In allergic rhinitis, they cause nasal congestion, sneezing, itching, and excessive mucus production, whereas in asthma they induce bronchoconstriction, airway inflammation, wheezing, coughing, and shortness of breath. Histamine is particularly important in triggering immediate

hypersensitivity reactions, while leukotrienes are potent mediators of prolonged bronchoconstriction and airway edema.

Mast cells also release cytokines such as interleukin-4 (IL-4), IL-5, IL-6, IL-9, IL-13, and tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF- α), which promote the differentiation and activation of T-helper 2 (Th2) cells and eosinophils. Chemokines secreted by mast cells attract additional inflammatory cells, including eosinophils, basophils, and lymphocytes, thereby sustaining and amplifying allergic inflammation. Furthermore, stem cell factor (SCF) and IL-9 support mast cell growth, survival, and persistence within tissues and mucosal surfaces, contributing to the chronic nature of allergic disorders.

Overall, mast cells serve as central effector cells in allergic and hypersensitivity reactions, initiating both the immediate and late-phase inflammatory responses that underlie conditions such as allergic rhinitis, asthma, atopic dermatitis, and food allergies.

DENDRITIC CELLS:

Dendritic cells (DCs) are specialized antigen-presenting cells that play a crucial role in initiating and regulating immune responses. Human DCs are broadly classified into two major subsets: CD11c⁺ myeloid dendritic cells (mDCs) and CD11c⁻ plasmacytoid dendritic cells (pDCs), which are characterized by the expression of CD123, CD303, and CD304. Myeloid DCs can

be further subdivided based on the differential expression of surface markers such as CD1c, CD141, and CD16, each possessing distinct immunological functions.

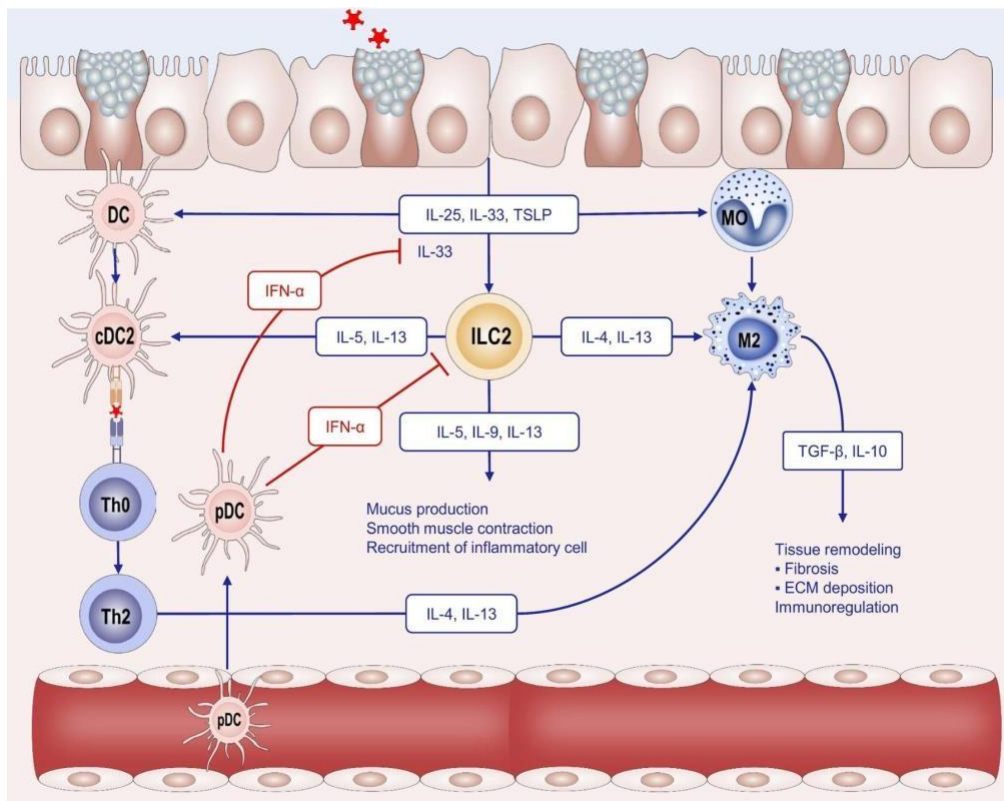
DCs are strategically positioned beneath and within the airway epithelium, where they extend dendritic processes between epithelial cells into the airway lumen. This unique arrangement allows them to continuously sample inhaled allergens and pathogens while preserving the integrity of the epithelial barrier through the formation of tight junctions with neighboring epithelial cells. Upon encountering allergens, pattern recognition receptors, particularly Toll-like receptors (TLRs), recognize pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs) and damage-associated molecular patterns (DAMPs), triggering dendritic cell activation and maturation.

Following activation, DCs upregulate chemokine receptors such as CCR7, which facilitate their migration through lymphatic vessels to the T-cell-rich areas of regional lymph nodes. There, mature DCs process and present allergen-derived peptides on major histocompatibility complex

(MHC) molecules to naïve T lymphocytes, thereby initiating adaptive immune responses. Myeloid DCs primarily function as potent antigen-presenting cells that promote T-cell activation and differentiation, whereas plasmacytoid DCs are important for antiviral immunity through the production of large amounts of type I interferons and contribute to the maintenance of immune tolerance.

Activated dendritic cells secrete a wider range of chemokines, including CCL2, CCL3, CCL4, CCL17, CCL22, and CXCL8, which recruit eosinophils, basophils, mast cells, neutrophils, and T lymphocytes to the site of allergen exposure. They also produce cytokines such as IL-12, IL-6, IL-10, and thymic stromal lymphopoietin (TSLP)-induced mediators, which influence T-cell polarization. In allergic diseases, dendritic cells preferentially promote the differentiation of naïve T cells into Th2 cells, leading to the production of IL-4, IL-5, and IL-13, cytokines that drive IgE synthesis, eosinophilic inflammation, and airway hyperresponsiveness.

Thus, dendritic cells serve as a critical link between innate and adaptive immunity, playing a central role in allergen recognition, antigen presentation, immune regulation, and the development and persistence of allergic inflammation.



TH2 CELLS:

T-helper2(Th2)cellsarekeyregulatorsofallergicinflammationandexerttheireffectsthrough thesecretionofcytokinessuchasinterleukin-4(IL-4),IL-5,IL-9,andIL-13.Duringan allergic response, antigen-presenting cells (APCs), including dendritic cells, process and present allergen-derivedpeptidestonaïveTlymphocytes.In thepresenceofIL-4,releasedbymastcells, eosinophils, or activated T cells, along with chemokines such as CCL17 and CCL22, naïve T cells differentiate into Th2 cells. These Th2 cells promote B-cell activation, proliferation, and class switching, resulting in the production of allergen-specific immunoglobulin E (IgE). Furthermore,Th2-derivedcytokinescontributeto eosinophilrecruitment,mucushypersecretion, airway inflammation, and bronchial hyperresponsiveness, all of which are hallmarks of allergic diseases.

InvariantnaturalkillerT(iNKT)cellsrepresent aunique subsetoflymphocytesshatshare characteristics of both T cells and natural killer (NK) cells. These cells express a highly conservedT-cellreceptor(TCR),characterizedbytheinvariantvariableregion α -chainV α 14-J α 18inmice(correspondingtoV α 24-J α 18inhumans).UnlikeconventionalTcellsthat recognizepeptideantigenspresentedbymajorhistocompatibilitycomplex(MHC)molecules, iNKTcellsspecificallyrecognizeglycolipid antigens presentedbyCD1d,anon-polymorphic MHC class I-like molecule expressed on antigen-presenting cells.

Upon activation, iNKT cells rapidly produce large amounts of cytokines, including both Th1- and Th2-type cytokines, thereby influencing immune responses. In allergic disorders, these cells contribute to the development of airway inflammation, tissue injury, and allergen-induced airway hyperreactivity. They can also promote eosinophilic infiltration, enhance IgE-mediated responses, and amplify inflammatory cascades, making them important contributors to the pathogenesis of asthma and other allergic diseases. Thus, iNKT cells serve as a critical bridge between innate and adaptive immunity and play a significant role in the initiation and progression of allergic inflammation.

INVARIANT NATURAL KILLER T CELLS:

Invariant natural killer T (iNKT) cells express a characteristic invariant T-cell receptor (TCR) α -chain known as V α 14–J α 18. These cells are unique because they recognize glycolipid antigens rather than peptide antigens. Glycolipid antigens are represented by CD1d, a non-polymorphic class I MHC-like molecule expressed on antigen-presenting cells (APCs). iNKT cells play a significant role in the development of allergen-induced airway hyperresponsiveness, tissue injury, and cell destruction.

TH17 CELLS:

T-helper 17 (Th17) cells constitute a distinct subset of CD4⁺ T lymphocytes that develop through a differentiation pathway separate from those of Th1 and Th2 cells. Their differentiation is driven by cytokines such as transforming growth factor-beta (TGF- β), interleukin-6 (IL-6), interleukin-1 β (IL-1 β), and interleukin-23 (IL-23), while being negatively regulated by interferon-gamma (IFN- γ) and interleukin-4 (IL-4). Th17 cells have emerged as important contributors to both protective immunity and inflammatory diseases, including allergic disorders.

A primary function of Th17 cells is the recruitment and activation of neutrophils and monocytes at sites of inflammation. This process enhances the clearance of allergens, pathogens, and damaged tissue through phagocytosis and other innate immune mechanisms. However, excessive or persistent Th17 activity can contribute to chronic inflammation and tissue injury, thereby playing a significant role in the pathogenesis of allergic diseases.

Th17 cells are characterized by their production of the cytokines IL-17A, IL-17F, IL-21, IL-22, and, to a lesser extent, IL-26. Among these, IL-17A and IL-17F are the most extensively studied

and are considered key mediators of inflammatory responses. These cytokines stimulate a variety of target cells, including fibroblasts, epithelial cells, endothelial cells, eosinophils, neutrophils, and smooth muscle cells, to produce pro-inflammatory mediators such as IL-6, CXCL8 (IL-8), CXCL1, CXCL10, granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor (GM-CSF), and matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs). The resulting amplification of inflammatory signaling promotes

leukocyte recruitment, tissue remodeling, and sustained immune activation.

IL-22, another important Th17-derived cytokine, acts primarily on epithelial tissues and contributes to mucosal barrier integrity, antimicrobial defense, and tissue repair. However, dysregulated IL-22 production may also contribute to epithelial dysfunction and chronic inflammatory conditions. In allergic airway diseases, Th17-associated cytokines can enhance mucus secretion, airway hyperresponsiveness, and structural changes within the respiratory tract.

Recent evidence suggests that Th17 cells play a crucial role in severe and corticosteroid-resistant forms of bronchial asthma. Elevated levels of Th17 cells and IL-17 have been detected in patients with severe asthma and are associated with increased neutrophilic airway inflammation, reduced responsiveness to glucocorticoid therapy, and poor clinical outcomes. Furthermore, interactions between Th17 cells, Th2 cells, and innate immune cells create a complex inflammatory network that contributes to disease progression and chronicity.

In addition to asthma, Th17-mediated immune responses have been implicated in atopic dermatitis, allergic rhinitis, chronic rhinosinusitis, and other inflammatory disorders.

Consequently, therapeutic strategies targeting the IL-17/Th17 signaling pathway are being investigated as potential approaches for controlling severe allergic inflammation and improving treatment outcomes in patients with refractory allergic diseases.

TH9 CELLS:

Th9 cells are a specialized subset of CD4⁺ T helper cells that develop primarily from Th2 cells under the influence of transforming growth factor-beta (TGF- β) and interleukin-4 (IL-4). Unlike other T-helper cell populations, Th9 cells are characterized by the absence of the key transcription factors T-bet, GATA3, ROR γ t, and Foxp3, which distinguish them from Th1, Th2, Th17, and regulatory T cells (Tregs). They are recognized mainly for their ability to produce large amounts of IL-9.

During allergen exposure, the expression of IL-9 is significantly increased, highlighting the important role of Th9 cells in allergic immune responses. In addition to Th9 cells, mast cells, basophils, and eosinophils can also secrete IL-9, further amplifying inflammation. IL-9 is

particularly associated with allergic disorders such as asthma and atopic dermatitis. It contributes to disease progression by promoting mucus hypersecretion, enhancing mast cell growth and activation, inducing the release of inflammatory mediators, and stimulating subepithelial fibrosis. Through these effects, Th9 cells play a crucial role in sustaining allergic inflammation and airway remodeling in chronic allergic diseases.

NATURAL KILLER CELLS:

It has been proposed that the innate and adaptive Th2 responses in AD are linked by a newly identified cell known as the nuocyte, an innate Th2 immune effector leukocyte [40]. These cells proliferate in response to IL-25, IL-33, Notch signaling, and ROR γ t activation, all of which are derived from epithelial cells [41]. Nuocytes are considered a nearly source of IL-13, particularly during helminthic infestation. However, their exact role in AD remains to be further defined.

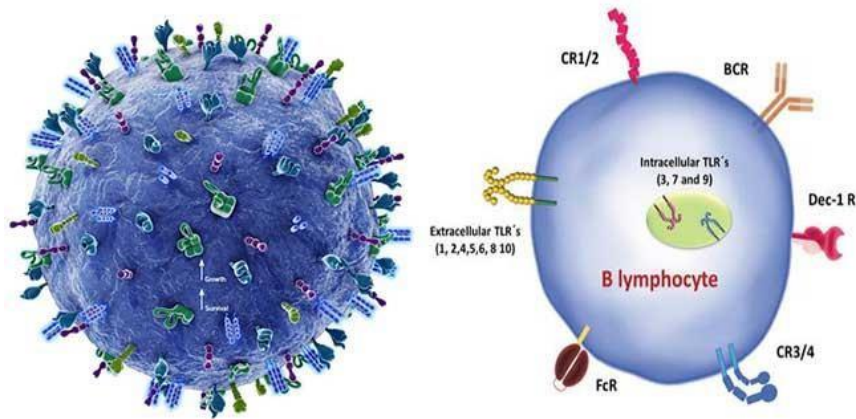
T SUPPRESSOR CELLS:

Regulatory T cells (Tregs) play a crucial role in maintaining immune tolerance and suppressing allergic inflammation. These cells may be naturally derived from the thymus (nTregs) or induced in the periphery (iTregs/Tr1 cells) and are characterized by the expression of CD4, CD25, and the transcription factor FoxP3 [42]. Tregs exert their immunosuppressive effects primarily through the secretion of interleukin-10 (IL-10) and transforming growth factor-beta (TGF- β), which inhibit dendritic cell activation and suppress Th1, Th2, and Th17 responses. They also reduce allergen-specific IgE production and limit the activation of mast cells, basophils, and eosinophils, thereby promoting immune tolerance and protecting against allergic diseases.

B LYMPHOCYTES:

B lymphocytes play a critical role in the pathogenesis of allergic inflammation by producing allergen-specific IgE antibodies and functioning as antigen-presenting cells. Under the influence of Th2 cytokines, particularly IL-4 and IL-13, activated B cells undergo class-switch recombination to produce IgE, which binds to high-affinity Fc ϵ R1 receptors on mast cells and basophils, thereby sensitizing these cells to allergens. Upon subsequent allergen exposure, cross-linking of IgE triggers the release of inflammatory mediators, leading to allergic responses. Recent research has highlighted B lymphocytes as an important therapeutic target in allergic diseases. Novel immunomodulatory strategies, including biologics that interfere with IgE production or B-cell activation, aim to reduce allergic sensitization and inflammation.

Furthermore, advances in allergen-specific immunotherapy and vaccine development seek to modulate B-cell responses, promoting immune tolerance while suppressing pathogenic IgE production. These findings emphasize the significant contribution of B lymphocytes to allergic inflammation and their potential as targets for innovative therapeutic interventions.



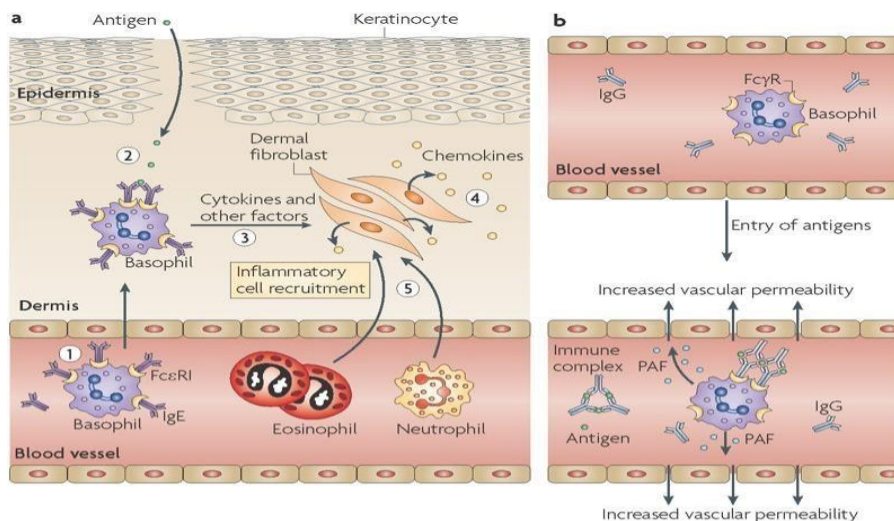
EOSINOPHILS:

Eosinophils are important effector cells involved in the development and progression of allergic inflammation. Their growth, activation, and survival are primarily regulated by IL-5, along with IL-3 and granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor (GM-CSF). Following allergen exposure, eosinophils are recruited to the site of inflammation, where they release cytotoxic granule proteins, cytokines, chemokines, and lipid mediators that contribute to tissue damage and the amplification of allergic responses. In allergic diseases such as asthma, atopic dermatitis, and allergic rhinitis, increased eosinophil infiltration is associated with disease severity and chronic inflammation. Recent immunomodulatory approaches have focused on targeting eosinophilic pathways through biologics directed against IL-5 or its receptor, resulting in reduced eosinophil numbers and improved clinical outcomes. These findings highlight the central role of eosinophils in allergic inflammation and support their importance as therapeutic targets in the development of novel treatments.

BASOPHILS:

Basophils are circulating granulocytes that contribute significantly to allergic inflammation and Th2-mediated immune responses. Although they represent a small proportion of peripheral blood

leukocytes, basophils are potent producers of IL-4 and IL-13, which promote Th2 cell differentiation and IgE synthesis by B lymphocytes. Upon activation through IgE-dependent mechanisms, basophils release histamine, leukotrienes, cytokines, and other inflammatory mediators that contribute to allergic symptoms and tissue inflammation. Recent studies have demonstrated that basophils play an important role in the initiation and amplification of allergic responses by interacting with T cells, B cells, and other immune cells. Consequently, novel immunomodulatory approaches targeting IgE signaling pathways and Th2-associated cytokines may indirectly regulate basophil activation and function. These findings suggest that basophils are key contributors to allergic inflammation and represent potential targets for the development of innovative therapeutic strategies.



NEUTROPHILS:

Neutrophils are among the first inflammatory cells recruited to sites of tissue injury and infection and are increasingly recognized for their role in allergic inflammation. These cells contribute to immune responses through the release of proteolytic enzymes, reactive oxygen species, cytokines, and chemokines that promote inflammation and tissue remodeling. In severe and chronic forms of allergic diseases, particularly corticosteroid-resistant asthma, increased neutrophil infiltration has been associated with persistent airway inflammation and disease severity. Neutrophils also interact with other immune cells, influencing both innate and adaptive immune responses. Recent research has highlighted the potential of targeting neutrophil-associated inflammatory pathways through small-molecule inhibitors and biologic therapies to reduce chronic inflammation and improve clinical outcomes. These findings indicate that

neutrophils play an important role in allergic inflammation and may serve as promising targets for novel immunomodulatory interventions.

NOVEL IMMUNOPHARMACOLOGICAL DRUGS AND ALLERGY THERAPY:

SMALL MOLECULE TARGETING G PROTEIN COUPLED RECEPTORS:

The JAK–STAT signaling pathway is activated when cytokines such as granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor (GM-CSF), IL-4, IL-5, and IL-3 bind to their respective cell-surface

receptors, resulting in receptor subunit dimerization. Activated Janus kinases (JAKs) associate with the dimerized receptor subunits and undergo transphosphorylation, followed by phosphorylation of intracellular tyrosine residues on the receptor. These phosphorylated residues serve as docking sites for signal transducer and activator of transcription (STAT) proteins, which are subsequently phosphorylated by JAKs. The activated STAT proteins then dimerize and translocate to the nucleus, where they function as transcription factors regulating genes involved in immune responses, cellular growth, and differentiation. Small-molecule JAK inhibitors interfere with this signaling cascade by blocking JAK activation and preventing downstream signal transduction, thereby exerting immunosuppressive and anti-inflammatory effects. The

JAK family comprises four members: JAK1, JAK2, JAK3, and tyrosine kinase 2 (TYK2).

Individual JAK inhibitors differ in their affinity and selectivity for these kinases, influencing their therapeutic efficacy and safety profiles.

TLRAGONIST:

Innate immune activation is initiated through the recognition of pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs) and damage-associated molecular patterns (DAMPs) by pattern recognition receptors (PRRs), particularly Toll-like receptors (TLRs). These receptors are expressed on

various skin and immune cells and serve as critical sensors of microbial invasion and tissue injury. Upon binding of PAMPs or DAMPs to TLRs, intracellular signaling pathways are activated, leading to the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines, chemokines, and other immune mediators. This signaling cascade promotes the recruitment and activation of immune cells, thereby contributing to the initiation and amplification of inflammatory responses. In allergic diseases, dysregulated TLR-mediated signaling has been implicated in the development and

persistence of chronic inflammation, highlighting its importance as a potential target for novel immunomodulatory therapies.

Production of Cytokines:

Activation of Toll-like receptor (TLR) signaling stimulates the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines, including TNF- α , IL-6, and IL-1 β , which are crucial for initiating inflammation and promoting tissue repair. Although these cytokines play an essential role in host defense against infections and in wound healing, their excessive production may contribute to the development of allergic inflammation and skin disorders such as atopic dermatitis and allergic contact dermatitis. Imiquimod, a TLR7/8 agonist, is an example of a therapeutic agent that induces local inflammatory responses and is widely used in the treatment of skin cancers and viral infections [52].

In addition, TLR9 agonists are recurrently being explored for their potential applications in cancer therapy. However, activation of TLR pathways can also intensify allergic responses by enhancing cytokine release and promoting inflammatory processes, highlighting the complex role of TLR agonists in immune regulation.

TLR Agonists in the Development of Vaccines:

Toll-like receptor (TLR) agonists are widely used as vaccine adjuvants to enhance immune responses against specific antigens. By stimulating innate immune pathways, these agents improve antigen presentation and promote the development of effective adaptive immune responses. In the context of allergic diseases, the adjuvant properties of TLR agonists may be utilized to modulate immune responses to allergens, potentially promoting immune tolerance and desensitization. Consequently, TLR agonists have emerged as promising candidates in the development of innovative allergy vaccines and immunotherapeutic strategies aimed at reducing allergic sensitization and improving long-term disease control.

TLR ANTAGONISTS:

Toll-like receptor (TLR) antagonists are emerging immunomodulatory agents that inhibit the activation of TLR-mediated signaling pathways involved in innate and adaptive immune responses. TLRs recognize pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs) and damage-associated molecular patterns (DAMPs), leading to the activation of intracellular signaling cascades and the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines such as TNF- α , IL-1 β , and IL-6. While these responses are essential for host defense, excessive or dysregulated TLR activation can contribute to the development and persistence of allergic and inflammatory diseases.

TLR antagonists act by blocking ligand binding or inhibiting downstream signaling pathways, thereby reducing cytokine production, inflammatory cell recruitment, and tissue inflammation. By modulating innate immune activation, these agents have shown potential in the treatment of allergic disorders, including atopic dermatitis, allergic asthma, and allergic rhinitis. Ongoing

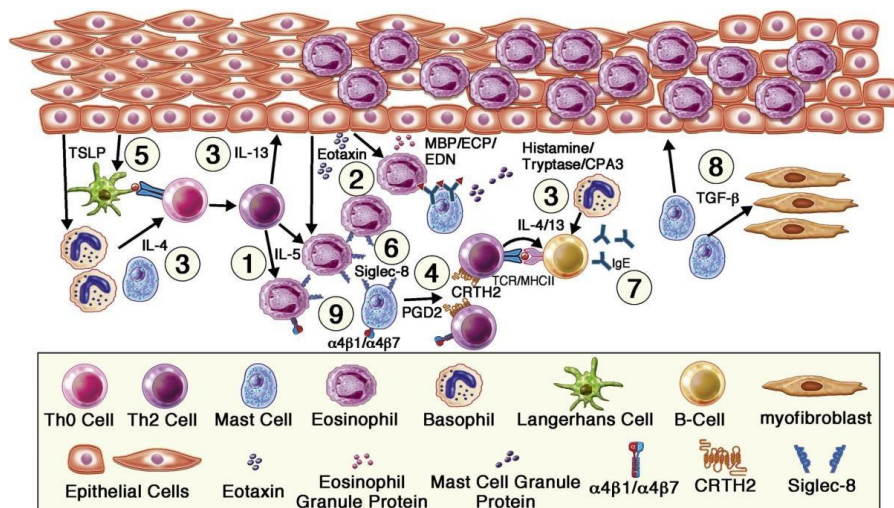
research is focused on the development of selective TLR antagonists that can suppress pathological inflammation while preserving protective immune functions. Consequently, TLR antagonists represent a promising class of small-molecule immunomodulators for the management of allergic inflammation.

H4 RECEPTOR ANTAGONISTS

Histamine receptor antagonists are a class of drugs that block the action of histamine by binding to histamine receptors and preventing their activation.

Histamine is a key inflammatory mediator released primarily from mast cells and basophils during allergic reactions. By inhibiting histamine signaling, these agents reduce symptoms such as itching, sneezing, rhinorrhea, urticaria, and inflammation. Histamine receptor antagonists are classified according to the

receptor subtype they target, including H1, H2, H3, and H4 receptors. Among these, H1 receptor antagonists are widely used for the treatment of allergic rhinitis, urticaria, and other allergic conditions, whereas H4 receptor antagonists have emerged as promising therapeutic candidates due to their ability to regulate immune cell migration and inflammatory responses. Consequently, histamine receptor antagonists remain an important component of current and emerging strategies for the management of allergic inflammation.



EMERGING PLANT DERIVED DRUGS:

Emerging plant-derived drugs are bioactive compounds obtained from medicinal plants that are being investigated and developed as novel therapeutic agents for the prevention and treatment of various diseases. These compounds possess diverse pharmacological properties, including anti-inflammatory, antioxidant, antimicrobial, and immunomodulatory activities. Recent advances in phytochemical research and drug discovery have identified numerous plant-derived molecules with the potential to target specific molecular pathways involved in disease pathogenesis. In the context of allergic and inflammatory disorders, emerging plant-derived drugs offer promising alternatives to conventional therapies by modulating immuneresponses, reducing inflammation, and promoting immune homeostasis. Their natural origin, multitarget mechanisms of action, and favorable safety profiles have attracted considerable interest for the development of innovative therapeutic strategies.

PHENOLIC AND FLAVONOID COMPOUND:

Phenolic and flavonoid compounds are naturally occurring phytochemicals widely distributed in fruits, vegetables, medicinal plants, and plant-derived foods. These compounds have attracted considerable attention due to their potent antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, and immunomodulatory properties. In allergic diseases, phenolics and flavonoids regulate immune responses by suppressing the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines, inhibiting mast cell degranulation, reducing histamine release, and modulating signaling pathways such as NF- κ B and MAPK. Furthermore, their antioxidant activity helps neutralize reactive oxygen species, thereby limiting oxidative stress-associated tissue damage.

Several flavonoids, including quercetin, kaempferol, luteolin, and catechins, have demonstrated significant anti-allergic effects in experimental studies. Similarly, phenolic compounds such as resveratrol and curcumin have been shown to attenuate inflammatory responses and promote immune homeostasis. Through their ability to target multiple inflammatory pathways simultaneously, phenolic and flavonoid compounds represent promising plant-derived immunomodulators for the prevention and treatment of allergic and inflammatory disorders.

ALKALOIDS

Cocaine is a naturally occurring alkaloid isolated from the coca plant species *Erythroxylum coca* and

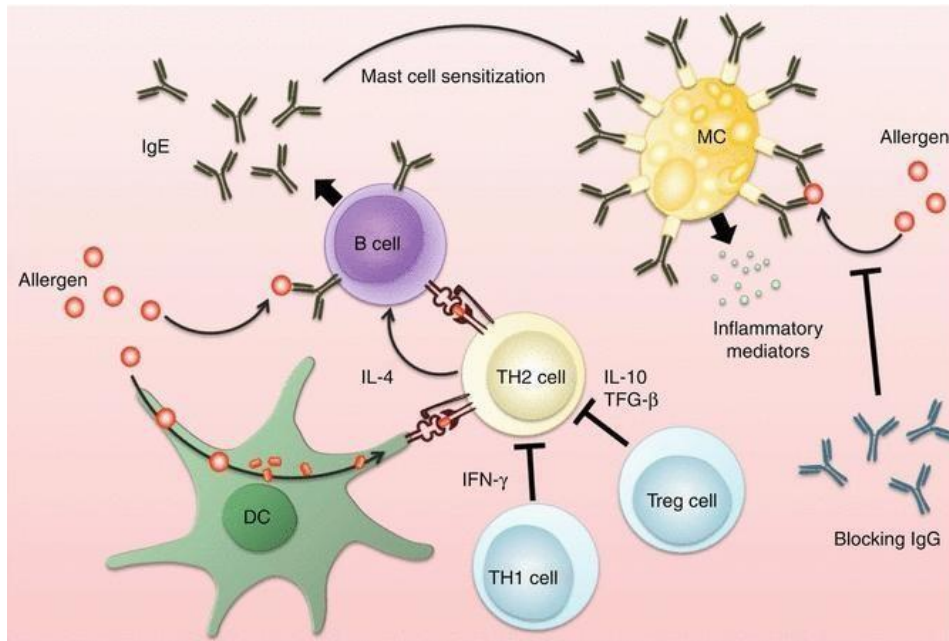
Erythroxyllum novogranatense. In addition to its well-known pharmacological effects, cocaine has been reported to influence immune function by modulating the production of several cytokines. It stimulates macrophages and splenocytes, leading to the release of pro-inflammatory cytokines such as IL-1 α , IL-6, and TNF- α , as well as immunoregulatory cytokines including IFN- γ , IL-2, IL-4, IL-5, and IL-10 [38]. Through its effects on cytokine secretion and immune cell activation, cocaine demonstrates significant immunomodulatory activity. Furthermore, a variety of plant-derived alkaloids have been investigated for their ability to regulate immune responses, highlighting their potential as therapeutic agents in immune-mediated and inflammatory disorders.

VACCINES BASED ON ALLERGEN DERIVATIVES WITH REDUCED IGE AND T CELL REACTIVITY:

The effectiveness of recombinant allergen-based immunotherapy has been demonstrated in several clinical studies. In one trial, patients with grass pollen allergy were treated with a mixture of the five major recombinant Timothy grass pollen allergens (rPhlp1, rPhlp2, rPhlp5a, rPhlp5b, and rPhlp6). Treatment resulted in significant clinical improvement, which was associated with modulation of the allergen-specific immune response, characterized by increased allergen-specific IgG levels and reduced IgE production. In another clinical study, patients with birch pollen allergy received either recombinant Betv1 (rBetv1), purified natural Betv1 extract, or placebo

This multicenter trial, involving 134 patients, demonstrated that immunotherapy with the single recombinant allergen rBetv1 was as effective a treatment with the purified natural allergen preparation containing multiple isoforms and the complete birch pollen extract. Furthermore, the efficacy of sublingual administration of recombinant Bet v 1 has also been investigated and shown promising results.

Despite these advantages, unmodified recombinant allergens retain immunological properties



Similar to their natural counterparts and may therefore induce ige-mediated and T-cell-mediated allergic reactions. To overcome these limitations and improve the safety and efficacy of specific immunotherapy (SIT), several strategies have been developed for the design of next-generation allergy vaccines with reduced allergenicity and enhanced immunomodulatory potential.

CONCLUSION

Allergic inflammatory diseases constitute a significant and growing global health burden, driven by complex interactions among genetic susceptibility, environmental exposures, epithelial barrier dysfunction, and immune dysregulation. The increasing prevalence of these disorders, coupled with their substantial impact on patient morbidity and healthcare systems, underscores the need for more effective and mechanism-based therapeutic strategies. Recent advances in immunology, molecular biology, and biotechnology have substantially enhanced our understanding of the cellular and molecular pathways underlying allergic inflammation, enabling the identification of novel therapeutic targets and the development of next-generation immunomodulatory interventions.

The advent of biologic therapies has revolutionized the management of severe and refractory allergic diseases by selectively targeting critical mediators of type 2 immune responses, including IgE, IL-4, IL-5, IL-13, thymic stromal lymphopoietin (TSLP), and their associated receptors. These agents have demonstrated remarkable efficacy in reducing disease activity,

preventing exacerbations, minimizing corticosteroid dependence, and improving overall clinical outcomes. Concurrently, small-molecule therapeutics, such as Janus kinase (JAK) inhibitors, CRTH2 antagonists, phosphodiesterase-4 (PDE4) inhibitors, Bruton's tyrosine kinase (BTK) inhibitors, Toll-like receptor (TLR) modulators, and G-protein-coupled receptor (GPCR)-targeted agents, have emerged as promising approaches for modulating intracellular signaling pathways and immune mechanisms that contribute to allergic inflammation.

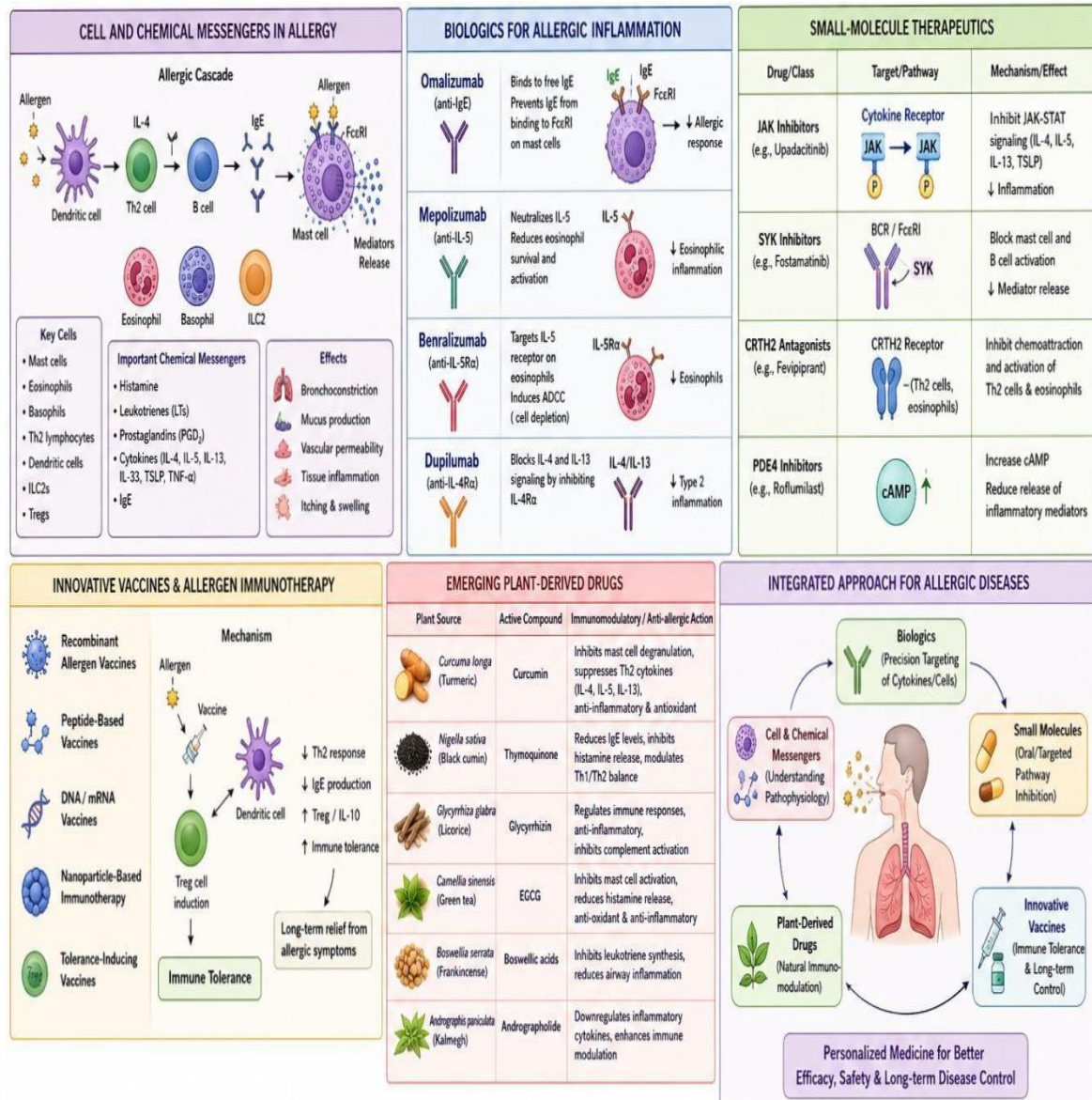
In parallel, significant progress has been achieved in the field of allergen-specific immunotherapy through the development of innovative vaccine platforms, including recombinant allergen vaccines, hypoallergenic derivatives, peptide-based vaccines, DNA and mRNA vaccines, and nanoparticle-mediated delivery systems. These advanced immunotherapeutic strategies aim to induce durable immunotolerance, thereby offering the potential for long-term disease modification rather than temporary symptomatic relief. Such approaches represent a paradigm shift in allergy management, with the prospect of altering the natural history of allergic diseases.

Furthermore, increasing scientific interest in plant-derived immunomodulatory compounds has highlighted the therapeutic potential of naturally occurring phenolics, flavonoids, alkaloids, and other bioactive phytochemicals. Compounds such as curcumin, quercetin, resveratrol, epigallocatechin gallate, and berberine have demonstrated diverse anti-inflammatory, antioxidant, and immunoregulatory activities, supporting their potential roles as complementary or adjunctive therapeutic agents in allergic disorders.

Despite these advances, several challenges continue to impede the widespread implementation of precision immunotherapy, including disease heterogeneity, variability in treatment response, long-term safety considerations, accessibility, and economic constraints. The identification of robust biomarkers, improved characterization of disease endotypes, and optimization of individualized treatment strategies remain critical priorities for future research. Moreover, continued translational and clinical investigations are essential to validate emerging therapeutic targets and establish their long-term efficacy and safety profiles.

In conclusion, the integration of biologics, targeted small-molecule therapies, innovative vaccine technologies, and emerging plant-derived immunomodulators has transformed the therapeutic landscape of allergic inflammation. These advances collectively support the transition from conventional symptom-oriented management to precision-based, disease-modifying

interventions aimed at restoring immune homeostasis and achieving sustained clinical remission. Continued scientific innovation and interdisciplinary collaboration will be fundamental to translating these therapeutic developments into improved patient outcomes and reducing the global burden of allergic diseases.



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