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# IDENTIFICATION AND FUNCTIONAL ANALYSIS OF ANTI-CITRULLINATED PROTEIN ANTIBODIES IN RHEUMATOID ARTHRITIS

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Cover illustration: The All-Seeing-Eye (immune system) gazing at the Tree of Knowledge (autoantibody) bearing the Fruit (autoantigen) in the ocean of chaos (autoimmunity). Originally illustrated for the cover artwork for the album of Black Reaper, *Celestial Descension* (2018), by Marcela Bolívar (Col). The illustration is approved to be used in this thesis by the artist and band.





# Identification and Functional Analysis of Anti-citrullinated Protein Antibodies in Rheumatoid Arthritis

Thesis for Doctoral Degree (Ph.D.)

*By*

**Yibo He**

The thesis will be defended in public at Samuelssonsalen, Tomtebodavägen 6, KI, Stockholm. 15<sup>th</sup> June, 2023

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*It's just a ride.*

- Bill Hicks

## Popular science summary of the thesis

Have you ever heard for years the babushka next door complain about her joints and the hard life of being a rheumatoid arthritis (RA) patient? Yes, RA is an autoimmune disease that affects 0.5-1.0% of the global population, with the immune system going rogue and crusading within the body, somehow turning joints into battlefields of an eternal civil war. With time, joints swollen, bones destroyed, knees weak and arms are heavy, then you lose yourself.

It is now believed that the development of RA begins years before the clinical onset, as no civil war occurs without a prelude full of misunderstandings and warmongering rallies. One of the signs in this scenario is the appearance of autoantibodies, and one of the most interesting groups of these autoantibodies is the anti-citrullinated protein antibodies (ACPAs), which are by far the most specific autoantibodies in RA and included in the clinical diagnosis for RA. However, since the discovery of ACPA in 1964, we still have not been able to pinpoint the exact function of these antibodies.

Roses are red, violets are blue, we are still figuring out the role of autoantibodies in rheumatoid arthritis, while mankind has already landed on the Moon. Previous studies suggested that ACPAs are “warmongers,” and recently ours and other groups showed that they perhaps could also be “peacekeepers.” In Study I & II, we entered the realm of ACPAs and performed in-depth analysis of these antibodies from different angles. For **Study I**, which is the main focus of this thesis, we used various animal and cell models and demonstrated that certain ACPA could actually be protective in RA by interacting with macrophages, a type of innate immune cells. **In Study II**, we dived deeper into the molecular structures of these antibodies and revealed that sugars (variable domain glycans, VDGs) could have an intricate impact on either the specificity or biological function of ACPAs.

Apart from autoantibodies, in **Study III**, we investigated the regulatory role of two important genes (*Ncf1* and *Clec4b*) on neutrophils, an important player in inflammatory response in arthritis, and found that both genes together have an additive regulatory effect on neutrophils, subsequently regulating the severity of arthritis.

Together, although RA remains an incurable disease, we provide new perspectives not only for understanding, but also for the future development of potential therapeutics for RA.



# Abstract

Rheumatoid arthritis (RA) is a complex autoimmune disease and typically manifested by joint inflammation and bone erosion with approximately 0.5% of the global population affected. To date, it is believed that genetic predisposition (e.g. *HLA-DRB1* alleles) and environment (e.g. cigarette smoking) are involved as risk factors for the development of RA. A hallmark of RA preceding the disease onset is the emergence of autoantibodies, including rheumatoid factors (RFs) and anti-citrullinated protein antibodies (ACPAs). Being the most specific (>90%) and sensitive (>60%) autoantibodies in RA, ACPAs have been included in the clinical criteria for the classification of RA. The function of ACPAs in RA is still unclear. Although patients with ACPA positivity are associated with more severe arthritis and in vitro studies have shown certain pathogenic effects of ACPAs, the in vivo evidence remains lacking. On the other hand, extensive but common N-glycosylation in the variable domain of ACPAs (90%) has been unveiled, questioning if these N-glycans serve a functional role.

In **Study I**, we expressed several monoclonal ACPAs derived from RA patients and identified their specificities using a panel of citrullinated peptides. We found one of the ACPAs, clone E4, could protect against collagen antibody induced arthritis in mice. The protection is joint-specific and depending on the interaction between E4 in complex with citrullinated alpha-enolase and FCGR2B on activated macrophages, enhancing the IL-10 secretion and suppressing osteoclastogenesis by macrophages. In **Study II**, we focused on the variable domain glycans (VDGs) in ACPAs by employing crystallography, glycobiology and functional B cell assay. We showed that 1) VDGs are positioned in the vicinity of the paratope with an impact on the antigen-binding; 2) VDGs could enhance B cell activation, and 3) VDG-expressing B cell receptors stay longer on the cell surface. In **Study III**, we investigated the two most significant arthritis QTLs in inbred rats, *Ncf1* and *Clec4b*, and showed that *Ncf1* and *Clec4b* together modulate the severity of arthritis in rats and their expression on neutrophils modulate the production of reactive oxygen species by neutrophils.

Taken together, the findings revealed a protective, rather than pathogenic effect of certain ACPAs in RA and elucidated the unique properties of VDGs in ACPAs and their functional impact on autoreactive B cells.

## List of scientific papers

- I. **Yibo He**, Changrong Ge, Àlex Moreno-Giró, Bingze Xu, Christian M. Beusch, Katalin Sandor, Jie Su, Lei Cheng, Erik Lönnblom, Christina Lundqvist, Linda M. Slot, Dongmei Tong, Vilma Urbonaviciute, Bibo Liang, Taotao Li, Gonzalo Fernandez Lahore, Mike Aoun, Vivianne Malmström, Theo Rispens, Patrik Erfors, Camilla I. Svensson, Hans Ulrich Scherer, René E. M. Toes, Inger Gjertsson, Olov Ekwall, Roman A. Zubarev & Rikard Holmdahl. **A subset of antibodies targeting citrullinated proteins confers protection from rheumatoid arthritis.** *Nature Communications*, 14, 691 (2023).
- II. Theresa Kissel, Changrong Ge, Lise Hafkenschied, Joanneke C. Kwekkeboom, Linda M. Slot, Marco Cavallari, **Yibo He**, Karin A. van Schie, Rochelle D. Vergoesen, Arieke S.B. Kampstra, Sanne Reijm, Gerrie Stoeken-Rijsbergen, Carolien Koeleman, Lennard M. Voortman, Laura H. Heitman, Bingze Xu, Ger J.M. Pruijn, Manfred Wuhrer, Theo Rispens, Tom W.J. Huizinga, Hans Ulrich Scherer, Michael Reth, Rikard Holmdahl, Rene E.M. Toes. **Surface Ig variable domain glycosylation affects autoantigen binding and acts as threshold for human autoreactive B cell activation.** *Science Advances*, 8, eabm1759 (2022).
- III. Mike Aoun, Xiaojie Cai, Bingze Xu, Gonzalo Fernandez Lahore, Michael Yi Bonner, **Yibo He**, Liselotte Bäckdahl and Rikard Holmdahl. **Glycan Activation of Clec4b Induces Reactive Oxygen Species Protecting against Neutrophilia and Arthritis.** *Antioxidants*, 11(1): 12 (2022).

## Scientific papers not included in the thesis

- I. Gonzalo Fernandez Lahore, Michael Förster, Martina Johannesson, Pierre Sabatier, Erik Lönnblom, Mike Aoun, **Yibo He**, Kuty Selva Nandakumar, Roman A. Zubarev & Rikard Holmdahl. **Polymorphic estrogen receptor binding site causes Cd2-dependent sex bias in the susceptibility to autoimmune diseases.** *Nature Communications*, 12, 5565 (2021)
  
- II. Mike Aoun, Ana Coelho, Alexander Krämer, Amit Saxena, Pierre Sabatier, Christian Beusch, Erik Lönnblom, Manman Geng, Nhu-Nguyen Do, Zhongwei Xu, Jingdian Zhang, **Yibo He**, Bingze Xu, Johan Viljanen, Joanna Rorbach, Gonzalo Fernandez Lahore, Inger Gjertsson, Alf Kastbom, Christopher Sjöwall, Jan Kihlberg, Roman Zubarev, Harald Burkhardt, Rikard Holmdahl. **Antigen presenting autoreactive suppressor B cells.**  
*Manuscript.*



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# List of abbreviations

ACPA	Anti-citrullinated protein antibody
Anti-CarP	Anti-carbamylated protein antibody
APC	Antigen-presenting cell
BCR	B cell receptor
CAIA	Collagen-antibody induced arthritis
CCP2/4	Cyclic citrullinated peptides, version 2 or 4
CEP-1	Citrullinated human alpha-enolase peptide 1
CIA	Collagen induced arthritis
CLR	C-type lectin receptor
COL2	Collagen type 2
COMP	Cartilage oligomeric matrix protein
DC	Dendritic cells
Dcard	Dendritic cell immuno-activating receptor
EAE	Experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis
ENO1	Alpha-enolase
FCGR2B	Fc gamma receptor IIb
GPI	Glucose-6-phosphate isomerase
IC	Immune complex
Ig	Immunoglobulin
ITAM/ITIM	Immunoreceptor tyrosine-based activation/inhibition motifs
LPS	Lipopolysaccharides
mAb	Monoclonal antibody
MHC	Major histocompatibility complex
NET	Neutrophil extracellular traps
NLR	NOD-like receptors
NOX2	NADPH oxidase 2
PAD	Peptidylarginine Deiminase
RF	Rheumatoid factor
ROS	Reactive oxygen species
SNP	Single nucleotide polymorphism
TLR	Toll-like receptor
VdG	Variable domain glycan







# 1 Introduction

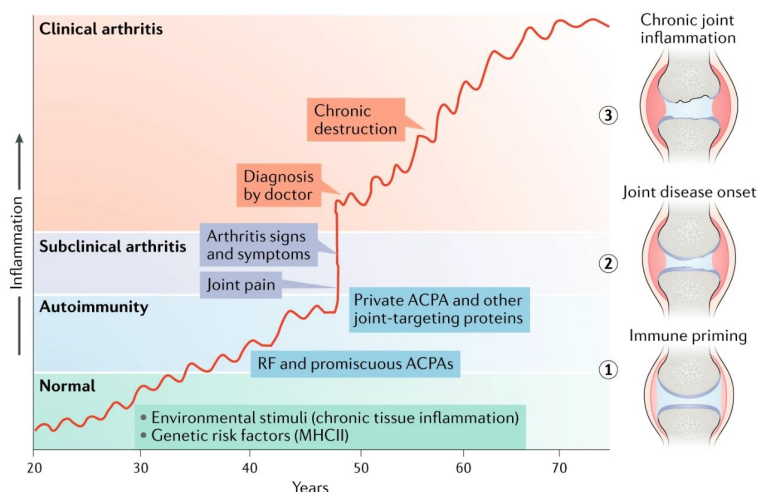
## 1.1 Autoimmunity

In the late 19th century, the concept that the immune system could target against self-antigen was commonly unheeded since such phenomenon contradicted to the traditional understanding that immune system should only target non-self. In fact, a classic finding by Paul Ehrlich that goat produced antibodies against the red blood cells from other goats but not its own was part of the basis to reject the existence of autoimmunity, expressed by Paul Ehrlich as *horror autotoxicus* (1). Regardless, he was the first to propose that the immune system is equipped with certain regulatory mechanism to prevent autoimmunity. It was until the 1950s, the dawn of modern science when technological breakthroughs and political upheavals were relentlessly concerting, the understanding of autoimmunity finally progressed into a new era. By demonstrating that the serum samples from patients with thyroiditis contained the autoantibodies against human thyroid extract, Ernest Witebsky, Ehrlich's student, postulated that "autoimmunization process within the patient" attacks the self-tissue and autoantibodies are involved in the pathological processes (2), which opened a new chapter in the field.

Autoimmunity by definition is an aberrant immune response towards against self-antigen, it arises when the checking mechanisms in the immune system fails to distinguish between self and non-self-antigens, ultimately leading to the breaking of tolerance (3). A typically hypothesis is that genetic predisposition, environmental stimuli and defective regulation synergistically direct the initiative stage of autoimmune diseases, resulting in inflammatory responses and the generation of autoantibodies. Depending on the course of disease and treatment, autoimmune diseases can lead to fatal outcome or chronic burden, their clinical manifestations greatly differ among each other, some are limited to certain organs while others being more dispersive and systemic (4). To date, over 100 inflammatory disorders have been collectively defined as 'autoimmune diseases.' However, with numerous subtypes, they can be challenging to define based on knowledge and criteria. Typical systemic autoimmune diseases include rheumatoid arthritis (RA), systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE), multiple sclerosis (MS) and Sjögren's syndrome etc., whereas examples like type I diabetes (T1D) and inflammatory bowel disease (IBD) are more organ-specific. Aside from being the standing burden for the society and economy, autoimmune diseases cause long-term physical and psychological sufferings to the individuals, leading to a dramatic decrease of living quality, if not death. Notably, many of them have significantly higher incidence in females and in the western population.

## 1.2 Rheumatoid arthritis

Rheumatoid arthritis (RA) is one of the most common autoimmune diseases, a systemic and complex inflammatory condition with 0.5% of worldwide incidence and higher frequency in Caucasian. It is clinically manifested by inflammation of joints, arthralgia and bone erosion, eventually leading to bone destruction following the lack of medical attention, sometimes also accompanied by complications in tissues that are not restricted to joints. Multiple risk factors, including predisposing genes such as *HLA-DRB1* alleles, and environmental stimuli such as smoking and estrogen drops, have been associated with the disease development (5–8). By combining them, the development of RA has been characterized to three stages (Fig.1) (9). The autoimmune responses direct the first phase of disease course that can last for decades before the clinical onset. In this priming phase, without symptoms, activation of autoreactive B cells allows the production of autoantibodies, for example, rheumatoid factors (RFs) and anti-citrullinated protein antibodies (ACPAs), which usually play as strong indicators. With time and constant exposure to autoantigens, more autoantibodies specifically targeting joint autoantigens emerge along with RFs and ACPAs, their titers dramatically increase - most likely a consequence of epitope spreading and T cell-dependent responses (10). Together with innate immune responses and extensive secretion of pro-inflammatory cytokines, the course reaches to the point where symptoms such as joint pain and swelling that can be perceived by patients. Shortly after the subclinical arthritis, the development enters the clinical stage triggered by inflammatory cascades and dysregulated immune responses, acquiring more severe and chronic manifestations such as cartilage degradation and bone erosion/destruction.



**Fig.1: The proposed courses of rheumatoid arthritis.** The illustration shows the hypothetical course of RA characterized by three stages: 1) immune priming; 2) joint disease onset; and 3) chronic joint inflammation, with age at the x-axis and degree of inflammation at the y-axis. *Illustration adapted from (9) with permission from Springer Nature.*

### 1.3 Risk factors of RA

The players that lead to the breaking of tolerance in RA are still to be understood, no conclusion could yet be drawn from either genetic or environmental analysis. Regardless, lots of progress have been made throughout the decades. One of the classic hypotheses of genetic risk factors in RA is the 5-aa motif in position 70-74 of HLA-DR $\beta$  chain coded by *HLA-DRB1* alleles, designated “shared epitope” (SE) (11). The presence of SE, for example, the *HLA-DRB1\*04* allele group (*\*0401*, *\*0404*, *\*0405* etc.) is often associated with severe RA (12, 13). This strong association remained unchallenged for long, with the exception that an aspartic acid in position 70 of the SE sequence DERRA (encoded by *HLA-DRB1\*0402* allele), instead of arginine or glutamine, could confer protection in RA (14, 15). However, the SE-coding alleles have not been shown to be a risk factor in seronegative RA, it is suggested that the presentation of autoantigens to T cells may be primarily driven by SE-containing HLA molecules, inducing the T cell-dependent responses and contributing to the expansion of autoreactive B cells and ACPA occurrence.

Smoking is by far the most significant risk factor from the environment. The association is especially stronger with seropositive RA vs. seronegative RA, although it may be irrelevant to ACPA or RF status (16, 17). Smoking, and potentially airway pollutants from different sources, such as silica and coal dust, have been linked to increased level of peptidyl-arginine deiminases (PADs) and citrullinated antigens in lungs, and thus were hypothesized to induce ACPA production as a consequence of citrullination and HLA-SE alleles possession (18, 19). However, analysis using multicenter cohort showed that only double-positive RA (ACPA + RF), but not single-positive RA (ACPA/RF) is associated with smoking (20), supported by another study that in RF negative patients, no relationship between smoking and ACPA was found (21).

Taken together, the contributions from the genetic or environmental risk factors to RA development are complex and still largely unknown, it is clear that RA is a multi-factorial disease driven by both genetics and environment (22), all leading to the eventual emergence of autoantibodies such as ACPAs.

### 1.4 Autoantibodies in RA

#### 1.4.1 Rheumatoid factor (RF)

One of the sets of the autoantibodies that were first identified in RA is rheumatoid factors (RFs). In 1940, RF was first described by Dr Erik Waaler, who was later acknowledged as the discoverer of RF, based on an observation on an unusual agglutination of sheep blood caused by the serum from a patient with RA (23, 24). It was E.C. Franklin and his colleagues who were then able to identify RFs in RA patients that were reacting to antibody instead of antigen (25, 26).

RFs are characterized as the autoantibodies that react with the Fc part of IgG, forming immune complex (IC) to participate in the process of immune responses. The hypotheses suggest that the formation of IgG IC may expose the antigenic determinants on the Fc gamma region that permits the recognition by RF, as opposed to monomeric native IgGs (27, 28), implicating that native IgGs are present in a form where the Fc epitopes are shielded from RF and explaining why circulating RFs do not normally bind to IgGs in blood. In RA, RFs and ACPAs are frequently found together, RFs have been shown to enhance monocyte activation by ACPA ICs in vitro (29). Furthermore, crosslinking of RF and ACPA may lead to an enhanced binding of ACPA to citrullinated antigens (30). However, RFs do not exhibit preferential binding to ACPAs over native IgGs, and the galactosylation level in the Fc region does not seem to affect the binding of RF to IgGs (30). Therefore, it is possible that the inflammation is not promoted by the ACPA-RF interaction, but rather by an increase titer of autoantibodies during the progression of the disease.

Although called “rheumatoid factors,” RFs are not exclusive to rheumatic diseases such as RA, SLE or Sjögren's syndrome. They can also be found in non-rheumatoid conditions such as leprosy, syphilis, pulmonary tuberculosis, chronic liver disease and sarcoidosis, all of which involve immune responses to pathogen infection (31). This has been a longstanding question if infection is responsible for the generation of RFs and contributing to the development of RA. One logical assumption is that, by binding to the Fc gamma region, RFs could participate in the removal of ICs that are formed by IgGs and captured foreign pathogens and therefore facilitate the clearance of pathogens. Nonetheless, due to the relatively lower specificity in RA, the origin and function of RF are still to be understood (32).

#### **1.4.2 Anti-citrullinated protein antibody (ACPA)**

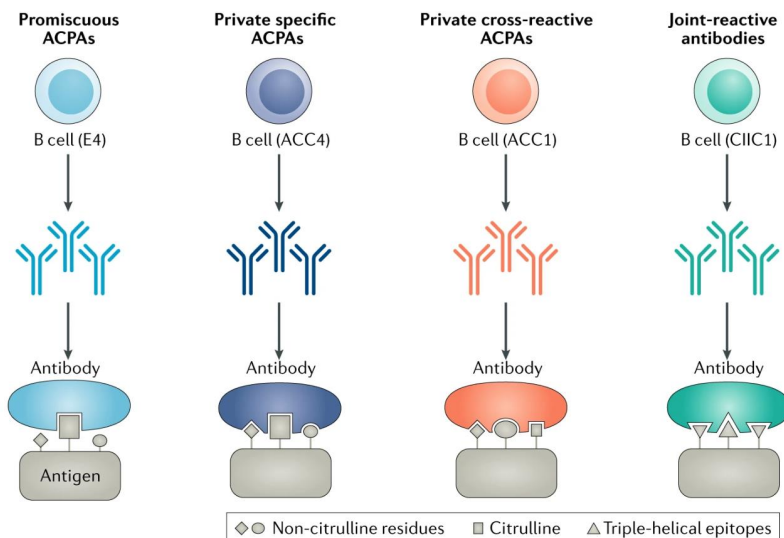
One of the hallmarks for RA is the autoantibodies recognizing citrullinated antigens, designated anti-citrullinated protein antibodies (ACPAs). They were initially reported by Nienhuis *et al* (33) in 1964 as a type of antibodies against perinuclear factor and antibodies against keratin in RA by Young *et al* (34), which were later proved to be a highly specific family of autoantibodies against citrullinated filaggrin. Nowadays, the targets of ACPAs have been widely extended, such as citrullinated alpha-enolase, vimentin, fibrinogen and collagen type etc. ACPAs have a sensitivity around 70% and by far the highest specificity (>90%) in RA (35), typically tested by anti-cyclic citrullinated peptides (CCP) ELISA. Together with RFs, ACPAs have been included in the ACR/EULAR 2010 classification criteria for RA (36).

Citrullination is a post-translational modification (PTM) controlled by PADs with the presence of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ . It enzymatically converts the positively charged arginine on the epitope to the non-natural amino acid citrulline, which is neutral and more hydrophobic. Normally, citrullination is a physiological and necessary PTM that widely takes place within the body, especially in maintaining

the skin and mucosal tissues. However, how the tolerance to citrullinated proteins is breached is still unknown. Hypothetically, this could be due to the constant exposure to environmental risk factors that induce hypercitrullination, which inevitably expands the pool of citrullinated autoantigens. One typical example is smoking, which is correlated to the over-expression of PAD2 and increased citrullination level in lung tissues (18). Another example is the bacterial infection by *Porphyromonas gingivalis* (*P.gingivalis*) causing periodontitis, which expresses a unique PAD enzyme (*P.PAD*) with capability of citrullinating proteins such as alpha-enolase and fibrinogen (37). Regardless, although the implications from both examples are supported by certain epidemiological and experimental data, there is still a lack of conclusive evidence as a link to their direct contribution in RA etiology. On the other hand, the development of ACPAs has not been fully understood. According to some current perspectives, incomplete elimination of autoreactivity during both central tolerance in the bone marrow and peripheral tolerance in secondary lymphoid tissues may enable certain autoreactive B cells to evade elimination and persist. These citrullinated autoantigen-driven B cells then receive help from T cells in association with HLA-SE, resulting in extensive somatic hypermutation, epitope spreading, isotype switch and increased titers within the time window around the onset of RA, and further matured in established RA (38). Together, RA patients or healthy individuals may possess mature autoreactive B cells to citrullinated proteins, but whether these elusive B cells are directly involved in the pathogenesis of RA requires further investigation.

ACPAs as such are autoantibodies against citrullinated epitopes. Based on the different binding patterns and structural analysis, three typical subgroups of ACPAs have been classified, namely promiscuous, private specific and private cross-reactive ACPAs (Fig.2) (9). The promiscuous ACPAs, for example the E4 or “L” antibodies, are highly specific to the citrulline side chain but have weak or no affinity to the surrounding amino acids and bind not only to citrullinated collagen type 2 (COL2) but also other citrullinated proteins (39–41); the private specific ACPAs, for example the ACC4 antibody, specifically recognizes the citrullinated C1 epitope on COL2 in a fixed form of an alpha chain peptide, but not other epitopes (42); and the private cross-reactive ACPAs, for example the ACC1 antibody, binds to either unmodified or citrullinated triple-helical epitopes on COL2, but not with other collagens or proteins except for a few citrullinated peptides (43). During the last years, the promiscuous, or “citrulline-specific” ACPAs, have been extensively studied in regard of their crystal structure, specificity and function (39–41), which will be extended in the next subsections. Monoclonal ACPAs isolated from patients with RA are likely to have a promiscuous nature and possess a small binding pocket that is well-suited for accommodating the citrulline side chain. This promiscuity is attributed to the fact that the ACPAs have limited interactions with the side chains of neighboring residues (40). However, in many cases, these ACPAs are only able to bind to a limited number of citrullinated epitopes, most likely because of

the disturbance caused by the neighboring amino acids or certain variable domain glycans (VDGs) (40, 41).



**Fig.2: Examples of different subgroups of ACPAs and joint-specific autoantibodies in RA.** Illustration of the epitope-binding by different subgroups of autoantibodies in RA. Each example is given based on the crystallized antibody-peptide complex. 1) Promiscuous ACPAs: the E4 antibody are widely reactive with citrullinated collagen type 2 (COL2) and other citrullinated proteins owing to citrulline-specificity. 2) Private specific ACPAs: the ACC4 antibody only reacts with the citrullinated C1 epitope with a form of COL2 alpha chain peptide, but not other epitopes. 3) Private cross-reactive ACPAs: the ACC1 antibody cross-reacts with triple-helical and cyclic epitopes on COL2, either in native or citrullinated forms. 4) Joint-reactive antibodies: the CIIC1 antibody is specific to the native triple-helical C1 epitope on COL2, but not other epitopes. *Illustration adapted from (9) with permission from Springer Nature.*

### 1.4.3 Function of ACPA

Since long time ago, topics surrounding the functions of ACPAs in RA have been extensively discussed. The presence of ACPAs in RA patients is associated with a more erosive and severe disease course (44), and it is also statistically evident that *HLA-DRB1* alleles encoding the SE are involved in such scenario (45–47). In terms of these strong associations, lots of efforts have been made to investigate the potential pathogenic role of ACPAs, in which ACPAs were shown to be instrumental in causing pathogenic effects on various models, supported by their interaction with innate immune system by activating complement system, or inducing pro-inflammatory cytokine secretion by interacting activating Fc receptors (48–50). Meanwhile, human polyclonal ACPAs were reported to induce osteoclastogenesis in vitro and in vivo (51), likely dependent on the Fc-glycans of human autoantibodies (52). By far, only certain subgroups of joint-specific ACPAs have been shown to be pathogenic in vivo, such as ACC1 and ACC4 antibody (42, 43). Nonetheless,

although it has become rather reasonable to assume that ACPAs are pathogenic in RA based on the previous data, it is still a putative notion since direct evidence from the application of patient-derived monoclonal ACPAs with proper controls, animal models and characterization, were lacking. In retrospect, interestingly, ACPAs were detected in approximately 1% of healthy individuals who never developed arthritis symptoms with time (53, 54). It is intriguing to think that a part of the ACPA response prior to the development of RA is to prevent the disease by either mediating the inflammation with immune complex formation or contributing to the clearance of citrullinated autoantigens induced by aberrant hypercitrullination.

Although it remains difficult to conclude the function of ACPAs in RA, emerging evidence suggests a protective, rather pathogenic role of ACPAs. In 2020, a study using engineered monoclonal ACPA specific to citrullinated histone 2A and 4, which were characterized in 2013, showed that these antibodies could inhibit collagen antibody-induced arthritis (CAIA) and collagen-induced arthritis (CIA) in mice, with postulated mechanisms such as by inhibiting the release of neutrophil extracellular traps (NETs) or initiating the phagocytosis of NETs by macrophages, either way diminishing NETosis (55, 56). However, the role of NETs in the pathogenesis of RA has been elusive and rather inconclusive, and the used antibodies did not display a promiscuity resembling typical promiscuous ACPAs. As a matter of fact, a patent concerning protective monoclonal ACPA derived from RA patients had been documented in 2018 (PCT/EP2018/082236), which was in fact the E4 ACPA and its variants in **Study I**. The protection had been carefully investigated since 2016 and recently published (39), demonstrating that the protective effect of E4 ACPA in arthritis is exerted through the formation of immune complex (e.g. with citrullinated ENO1) and interaction with FCGR2B on macrophages, increasing IL-10 secretion and suppressing osteoclastogenesis. Around the same time, two independent studies also observed protective effects of monoclonal ACPAs in derived from RA patients (57, 58), these recombinantly expressed ACPAs showed distinct reactivities towards a variety of citrullinated proteins/peptides, displaying typical features of promiscuous ACPAs and profound protective effect in CAIA. Similarly, the protective effect seemed to be dependent on the interaction between antibody and FcγRs (39, 58), and was more potent when the antibody was injected in the early stage of CAIA (57). The antigen specificities of these ACPAs are likely distinct among each other, but since the ACPA-FcγRs interaction is important for the protection, it is likely an interaction with the low affinity FcγRs and the formation of immune complex is preferred in this scenario, which was suggested with the example of E4 ACPA (39).

Together, the implications from recent data open a new door to pinpoint the functional role of ACPAs in RA. An optimal study design including the application of mutated antibodies (mutations on the paratope of ACPAs), extended peptides with unmodified controls (arginine peptides) and

careful selection of animal models could be largely helpful, and more efforts are still required to investigate the effect of ACPAs on pain and the functions of ACPA-VDGs in RA.

#### **1.4.4 Variable domain glycans in ACPA**

Immunoglobulins G (IgGs) are glycoproteins with conserved glycans linked to the asparagine (N297) in the Fc tail, which are crucial for FcR and C1q binding, whereas in the serum from healthy individuals, only 15-25% of IgGs are glycosylated in the variable domain (59). Strikingly, in contrast, approximately 90% of ACPA-IgGs in serum from RA patients possess variable domain glycans (VDGs), these VDGs are highly sialylated not only in serum, but also more enhanced in synovial fluid from RA patients (60, 61). Since only a few heavy chain variable region genes carry germline-encoded *N*-glycosylation sites, the high degree of VDGs in ACPAs could theoretically be the consequence of somatic hypermutation in germinal centres, supported by B cell receptor (BCR) sequencing of ACPA-expressing B cells (62).

The questions surrounding the occurrence of ACPA-IgG-VDGs and their function are still to be experimentally addressed. ACPAs are low-avidity antibodies (63), suggesting that the affinity maturation of BCRs in the process of B cell selection is incomplete or absent to some extent. It was then hypothesized that the VDGs in these BCRs could enable the bypassing of selection mechanisms, thus conferring to the breach of tolerance by these B cells (38). Moreover, recent data also implicated that VDGs could provide advantages for the survival and activation of the ACPA-expressing B cells (41). In crystallographic and binding analysis, VDGs are shown to be positioning near the paratope/citrulline-binding pocket, forming hydrogen bond with the CDR structures, and possibly disrupting the antigen-binding and further influenced by sialylation (41). However, it may be more dependent on the epitopes and the positioning of the VDGs, as not all bindings are disrupted (40). Notably, selective point-mutations on the paratope are sufficient to abolish the citrulline-specificity of ACPAs (39).

#### **1.4.5 Other autoantibodies in RA**

Besides RFs and ACPAs, other autoantibodies have also been identified with various degrees of sensitivity and specificity. One such family is the anti-carbamylated protein (anti-CarP) antibodies, which recognize carbamylated proteins/peptides and are found in approximately 44% of RA patients (64). Carbamylation is another PTM that involves the conversion of lysine to homocitrulline by cyanate, and is common in patients with renal diseases caused by high blood concentration of urea, as well as in individuals who smoke or have conditions that increase cyanate intake (65, 66). Homocitrulline is structurally similar to citrulline, with the addition of one methylene group in the side chain. ACPAs and anti-CarP antibodies are often present together in RA, with single or double positivity (65, 67). However, it is unclear whether this is due to true



cross-reactivity of monoclonals or a polyclonal response in RA, and further testing of isolated antibodies is required. Although the increase of anti-CarP antibodies is associated with the progression of RA (68), the mechanism underlying the breach of tolerance to carbamylated antigens and the function of these antibodies are still unclarified.

Another identified group of autoantibodies in RA is the anti-PAD4 antibodies. As described in previous sections, the PAD enzyme family (PAD1-4 and 6) is attributed to citrullination in humans. Each PAD enzyme differs in the substrate selection and location of activity (69). In RA, 30-50% of patients were detected with anti-PAD4 antibodies, and the association between anti-PAD4 antibodies and ACPA was also observed (70–72). The effect of anti-PAD4 antibodies upon binding to PAD4 is unclear, one obvious thinking is that it depends on the epitopes and the substrates. For example, the PAD4 inhibitors suppress the PAD4 activity by binding to the active site C645 (73), and theoretically, PAD4 bound by antibodies may confer a more efficient conformation for the enzymatic citrullination. In addition, PAD4 can also undergo autocitrullination (74), more data is needed to understand whether this self-modification will change or maintain the enzymatic activity, but it is possible that citrullinated PAD4 itself could also be a target for ACPAs.

Collagen type 2 (COL2) is the most abundant constituent in joint cartilage and an important autoantigen in experimental arthritis. The COL2 antibodies show clear arthritogenicity in classic CIA and CAIA models and are associated with acute onset of RA (75–81). However, the detection of these antibodies are not well-established mainly due to the lack of standards/well-defined reagents, leading to a highly deviating prevalence of 3-88% that is difficult to interpret (82, 83). So far, COL2 antibodies have not been included as a biomarker for RA diagnosis,

## **1.5 Animal models in experimental arthritis**

Mice and rats are the most commonly used animals for experimental arthritis, owing to their low cost, homogeneous genetics and convenience of handling. Although there is no single animal model that can completely mimic the conditions in human diseases, the models with maximal similarity are usually preferred, with various interventions to supplement the dissimilarities. Another advantage of using rodent models is the availability of selective modifications of the genes, generating congenic, knockout or transgenic strains (84). In this section, representative animal models for RA research will be discussed.

### **1.5.1 Collagen induced arthritis**

As a gold standard, collagen induced arthritis (CIA) is more extensively studied, it shares large similarities in regard of pathological and immunological features with human RA (85, 86). The CIA model is typically achieved by injecting COL2 from a variety of sources (bovine, human, or chick), inducing the breach of tolerance and generation of antibodies against collagen. COL is

usually emulsified in complete Freund's adjuvant (CFA) (78), a mixture of mineral oils, heat-killed mycobacteria and emulsifying agent, which enables enhanced cell-mediated and humoral immune responses to COL2. In addition, the model is later boosted by injection of COL2 emulsified with incomplete Freund's adjuvant (IFA), in which the mycobacteria is not present. CIA is dependent on T and B cell responses, in the A<sup>g</sup>-expressing mice it has been found that both cell types share the epitopes almost identical to RA patients with HLA-SE alleles (87), resembling the RA patients with HLA-SE alleles.

### **1.5.2 Collagen antibody induced arthritis**

Collagen antibody induced arthritis (CAIA) is an acute and simple mouse model for the investigation of pathogenic mechanisms of RA and screening of therapeutic agent, it has strikingly similar pathogenic features that are in human RA, including synovitis with various cell infiltrations, pannus formation, cartilage degradation and bone erosion (88). CAIA is induced by administration of monoclonal antibodies against COL2, typically a cocktail of antibodies against the defined epitope C1, J1, D3 and U1 (80), together with the TLR ligand lipopolysaccharide (LPS) as a booster. Because of direct injection of pathogenic antibodies against COL2, CAIA could mimic an effector phase of arthritis with minimal involvement of adaptive immune responses, providing advantages over CIA such as significantly shorter time for arthritis induction (few days vs. weeks in CIA) and wider selection of mouse strains (89). The major limitations of CAIA are the economic applicability due to the large amount of antibodies needed, making it a costly model; and its incapability to be used to study the chronic phase of arthritis because of its rapidity. Nonetheless, CAIA has become a highly useful model to investigate the functional roles of autoantibodies in RA (39, 43, 57, 58).

### **1.5.3 Pristane induced arthritis**

Pristane induced arthritis (PIA) is one of the most studied models in experimental arthritis. In rats, one single injection of the mineral oil, pristane, could induce severe and chronic arthritis within 2 weeks, with almost 100% of incidence and outstanding reproducibility (90). The rats develop severe and chronic arthritis restricted to the joints, involving pannus formation, MHC class II expression and T cell infiltration (90, 91) that are similar to human RA. It has become an ideal model to investigate the mechanisms of joint inflammation and to test new drugs against arthritis (92). However, although the production of antibodies against COL2 has been detected in PIA (93), there is no evidence showing that these antibodies are driving the pathogenesis.

## 2 Research aims

The development of RA is initiated by complex genetic and environmental risk factors, autoantibodies play a critical effector role in the downstream. The role of ACPAs in RA has been a subject of debate. Even though ACPAs have been associated with negative impact on RA development and implicated in different models to have a rather pathogenic role, a lot of questions surrounding the origin, specificity, VDGs, origin, specificity and most importantly, the exact function in RA, have not been fully addressed and understood. **Study I & II** in this thesis are primarily to understand the specificity and functions as well as the role of VDGs of ACPAs, whereas in **Study III**, the focus shifted to two regulatory genes, *Ncf1* and *Clec4b*, to demonstrate how interactions between two genes could regulate the immune responses.

In **Study I**, we aimed to identify the reactivities of monoclonal ACPAs derived from RA patients to a panel of citrullinated peptides, and to investigate their functions in vivo using various mouse models including the evoked pain-like behaviour model and CAIA, further detailed by histological staining with different tissues from mice and humans. To propose a mechanism, we employed the knockout mice and in vitro models, while using the proteomic analysis to identify the targets of ACPAs.

For **Study II**, we combined structural analysis, glycobiology and functional B cell assays to dissect the key characteristics of VDGs on ACPA-expressing B cells and tried to understand the impact of VDGs on antigen-binding and their effect on B cell behaviour.

**Study III** aimed to demonstrate the epistasis of two major regulators in rats, *Ncf1* and *Clec4b*, in arthritis, and to understand how their interactions could affect the severity and susceptibility of arthritis.



### 3 Materials and methods

This section provides descriptions for the representative experiments mainly for **Study I**. Full details of methodology in all experiments are referred to the original papers included in **Study I-III**.

#### 3.1 Expression and purification of antibodies and Fab fragments

Chimeric antibodies containing human variable and mouse constant domain were designed. The mouse IgG2b constant region sequence was obtained from UniProtKB with accession number P01867 and the mouse lambda-1 P01843. First, vectors containing the mouse IgG2b heavy chain (HC) constant region and the lambda light chain (LC) constant region were created. The variable regions of HC and LC from RA patients were then inserted in the frame before the mouse constant region. Four DNA fragments were synthesized with restriction sites at the 5' and 3' ends. The synthesized genes (constant regions of both HC and LC) were digested using FastDigest™ restriction enzymes. The digested DNA fragments were cloned into the mammalian expression vector pCEP4 that was digested using the same restriction enzymes. After ligation, two vectors containing mouse IgG2b and lambda constant regions were obtained, designated pCEP4-mIgG2b and pCEP4-mL, respectively. The HC and LC plasmids were co-transfected into Expi293F cells with FectoPRO™ DNA transfection reagent. The supernatants were harvested 6 days post-transfection. The chimeric antibodies were purified using a 5 mL HiTrap Protein affinity column, or protein G-based affinity chromatography with the ÄKTA™ system. The purified antibodies were dialyzed to PBS solution and the endotoxin was determined with <0.1 EU/mg protein. The antibodies that were traditionally expressed by hybridomas were similarly purified following the hybridoma subcloning and single-clone expansion. For Fab fragment preparation, chimeric antibodies were produced similarly as above, and dialyzed against PBS. The Fab fragments were prepared using the ImmunoPure Fab Preparation Kit (Pierce) following the manufacturer's instructions. Cleavage was evaluated by SDS-PAGE. Fab fragments were further purified by SEC on a HiLoad 16/600 Superdex 200 column.

#### 3.2 Multiplex bead-based array (Luminex)

The antibody responses to peptides were performed using the multiplex bead-based array (Luminex). In short, MagPlex® beads with unique IDs were activated by sulfo-NHS combining with EDC, NeutrAvidin was conjugated to the beads, and each biotinylated peptide was coupled to designated bead ID. The beads were mixed and incubated with indicated antibodies, followed by incubation with 1:750 diluted goat anti-mouse IgG secondary antibody conjugated with R-Phycoerythrin. The antibody reactivity to the peptides was detected by Bio-plex 200 system (Bio-

Rad) and processed by Bio-plex Manager 6.2 (Bio-Rad), and the raw values of median fluorescence intensity (MFI) were used for analysis.

### **3.3 Collagen-antibody induced arthritis**

For the functional study of ACPA in collagen antibody-induced arthritis (CAIA), indicated dose (2, 3 or 4 mg/mouse) of each monoclonal antibody were intravenously or intraperitoneally injected into designated mice on day 0. The mice received a boost by intraperitoneally injecting 25 µg of lipopolysaccharide (LPS, 055:B5) on day 3 or 5. The development of arthritis was monitored in different time points using an extended scoring system. Briefly, each inflamed (swollen or red) toe or knuckle was given 1 point, and each inflamed wrist or ankle was given 5 points, resulting in a maximum score of 15 (5 toes + 5 knuckles+ 1 wrist/ankle) per limb and 60 in total for each mouse.

### **3.4 Bone marrow derived macrophages**

For in vitro differentiation of BMDMs, depending on the purpose, bone marrow cells were obtained from Balb/c, B10.Q or FCGR2B knockout mice, and  $(2-3) \times 10^6$  cells/well were seeded in 6-well culture plates for protein extraction,  $10^6$  cells/well in 24-well plates for cytokine detection, or  $10^4$  cells/well in 96-well black µ-plate (ibidi) for IF assay. The RPMI 1640 GlutaMAX™ medium containing 10% FBS, 1% penicillin-streptomycin and 20 ng/ml of recombinant murine M-CSF was used for the differentiation, the medium was changed every 2–3 days, cells were cultured for  $\geq 5$  days at 37 °C in a conventional CO2 incubator until adherent BMDMs were fully differentiated.

### **3.5 Immunoprecipitation**

To precipitate the targets of given antibodies, 10 µg of each indicated biotinylated antibodies were immobilized to streptavidin-coated magnetic beads (Dynabeads™ MyOne™ Streptavidin C1/T1, Thermo Fisher Scientific) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Extracted proteins from macrophages or human synovial fluid were subjected to incubation with the beads for 2 h at room temperature with gentle rotation. The beads were washed between each step 3–4 times by sterile PBS. The proteins that were captured by the beads were then eluted and stored at –80 °C before further analysis.

### **3.6 Ethical considerations**

All experiments using human/animal samples were approved by local ethical committee with valid permits.

Undoubtedly, animal experiments should be performed under the framework of modern ethical consideration. It is factual that even if we use animals to only evaluate the drug toxicity in pre-clinical trial, it is still vastly different when it comes to clinical trials, thus the validity of animal

experiments are of concern, at least from the public. However, the public must be made aware that in the field of biomedicine as well as in any other scientific research, only continuing trial-and-error to understand errors will show the best way to reach a goal. Indeed, there is always a room for improving the animal experiments when it comes to the welfare and validity, guidelines exist based on the continuous evolution of our understanding between humans and other species, which pave a path for us to balance our modern value and need for survival. On the other hand, the benefit of animal experiments is not limited to translation to human, in fact, a large number of drugs applied to humans are same as those used in animals, for example, the antibiotics.

Currently, animal models are still irreplaceable for drug testing before trials on humans, it is plausible that with the rapid development of AI and bioinformatics, much could be extracted for use in the areas such as diagnosis, epidemiology and drug predictions, but none by far could change the superiority of animal experiments before anything could be applied to human body, whereas human samples remain difficult to access in different ways. That being said, it is unquestionable that increasing restrictions on animal experiments will jeopardize and slow down the research. More efforts surely need to be made to improve the conduction of animal studies, but it should be based on more rational discussions with the support of science and balancing of needs. It has always been a matter of communication between the scientific community and the public, the politics comes after.





## 4 Results and discussion

### 4.1 STUDY I: A SUBSET OF ANTIBODIES TARGETING CITRULLINATED PROTEINS CONFERS PROTECTION FROM RHEUMATOID ARTHRITIS

The functional role and reactivity of ACPAs in vivo are not well understood, but their strong association with RA suggests a potential pathogenic role. However, our findings in this study suggest that certain ACPA may not contribute to arthritis or bone erosion, and may even provide protection. This protective effect appears to be specific to joints and is facilitated by the formation of local immune complexes, potentially involving proteins such as citrullinated ENO1, COL2 and other unidentified citrullinated proteins. Additionally, we observed that some antibodies, including certain ACPAs with a more targeted interaction with cartilage, can exacerbate arthritis and pain-like behavior. The extent to which injected antibodies are pathogenic or protective may be determined by the function of the local immune complexes they form, and these complexes are usually depositing in the joint compartments such as cartilage, synovium and phagocytes (94–97). By far, several, but not all cartilage-targeting antibodies such as antibodies against COL2, cartilage oligomeric matrix protein (COMP) and glucose-6-phosphate isomerase (G6PI) have been shown to be pathogenic in experimental arthritis (42, 81, 98–101). It is also important to note that the protective effects of antibodies may depend on their preparation and tendency to form non-specific immune complexes or aggregates. To address this issue in our studies, we included well-defined controls such as antibodies with critical amino acids mutated, exemplified by E4m in our present work. On the other hand, visualizing the precise and dynamic interactions in vivo can be difficult, so we conducted in vitro tissue staining and examined the binding of monoclonal antibodies that were injected. It is important to note that the monoclonal antibodies produced in vitro may not have the full range of variability in Fab or Fc-glycosylation profiles compared to those produced naturally in vivo. We compared the specificity and function of E4 with and without Fab or Fc glycans and did not observe any variation. However, it is possible that the dynamic expression of more complex carbohydrates could fill the space and interfere with targeting in vivo, which cannot be ruled out (41).

### 4.2 STUDY II: SURFACE IG VARIABLE DOMAIN GLYCOSYLATION AFFECTS AUTOANTIGEN BINDING AND ACTS AS THRESHOLD FOR HUMAN AUTOACTIVE B CELL ACTIVATION

In this study, we demonstrate that the presence of VDGs has a significant impact on B cell function, including antigen binding, BCR signaling, and downregulation, and may therefore play a crucial role in determining the outcome of B cell responses.

It is noteworthy that VDGs are highly abundant in ACPA response in RA. The study provides evidence supporting the specific and extensive presence of VDGs on autoreactive B cells in RA, which may confer an advantage for B cell signaling, potentially explaining the improved stability and survival of these B cells and the increased levels of autoantibodies that eventually lead up to the onset of RA. The findings could improve our understanding of B cell mediation in autoimmune diseases, as they provide insight into how the possession of VDGs may be attributed to the evasion of immune checkpoints in humans, leading to the breaking of tolerance..

### **4.3 STUDY III: GLYCAN ACTIVATION OF CLEC4B INDUCES REACTIVE OXYGEN SPECIES PROTECTING AGAINST NEUTROPHILIA AND ARTHRITIS**

In this study, we found that the activation of Clec4b with glycans may lead to the induction of ROS and inhibition of neutrophilia, these effects may play a crucial role in the profound regulation over autoimmune arthritis. Additionally, we found that *Clec4b* expression is responsible for the correlation between neutrophil infiltration and acute inflammation observed in the carrageenan air-pouch model. Our investigation on recombinantly expressed rat Dcar proteins revealed their specificity to Zymosan, a macromolecule from the yeast cell wall, through the binding to the carbohydrate recognition domain, which triggered potent Ncf1/NOX2-derived ROS production. Furthermore, carbohydrate profiling analysis of wild type and mutated Dcar suggested a preference for binding to galactose-attached sialic acids.

## 5 Concluding marks

To conclude, **Study I & II** provide in-depth analysis on the specificity, function and structure of monoclonal ACPAs in RA, revealing the protective, rather than pathogenic effect of certain ACPAs in experimental arthritis. Moreover, the observed impact of VDGs on antigen-binding, B cell activation and survival deepens the current understanding regarding the functional role of these VDGs. In brief, these two studies address the haunting questions highlighting the function and glycosylation of ACPAs and have meaningful implications for the pathogenesis and therapeutics of RA. **Study III** identifies a new function for *Clec4b* in regulating arthritis via the Ncf1/NOX2 pathway, resulting in increased ROS production and a significant impact on experimental arthritis. the findings represent the first characterization of the epistasis between two positionally cloned SNPs associated with an autoimmune disease in eukaryotes.



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