



# LUND UNIVERSITY

## Genetic characterization to dissect the phenotypic complexity of autoimmunity

Karlsson, Jenny C

2005

[Link to publication](#)

*Citation for published version (APA):*

Karlsson, J. C. (2005). *Genetic characterization to dissect the phenotypic complexity of autoimmunity*. [Doctoral Thesis (compilation), Department of Experimental Medical Science]. Medical Inflammation Research, Department of Experimental Medicine, Faculty of Medicine, Lund University.

*Total number of authors:*

1

### General rights

Unless other specific re-use rights are stated the following general rights apply:

Copyright and moral rights for the publications made accessible in the public portal are retained by the authors and/or other copyright owners and it is a condition of accessing publications that users recognise and abide by the legal requirements associated with these rights.

- Users may download and print one copy of any publication from the public portal for the purpose of private study or research.
- You may not further distribute the material or use it for any profit-making activity or commercial gain
- You may freely distribute the URL identifying the publication in the public portal

Read more about Creative commons licenses: <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/>

### Take down policy

If you believe that this document breaches copyright please contact us providing details, and we will remove access to the work immediately and investigate your claim.

LUND UNIVERSITY

PO Box 117  
221 00 Lund  
+46 46-222 00 00

From the Department of Experimental Medicine  
Section for Medical Inflammation Research  
Lund University, Sweden

# **Genetic characterization to dissect the phenotypic complexity of autoimmunity**



**FACULTY OF MEDICINE**  
Lund University

**Jenny Karlsson**

Medical Inflammation Research, 2005

The dissertation will be held on the 26<sup>th</sup> of November, 09.00  
at the Biomedical Center, Segerfalk lecture hall.

*Faculty opponent*

**Marta Alarcón-Riquelme**

Department of Genetics and Pathology  
Rudbeck Laboratory, Uppsala, Sweden

© Jenny Karlsson  
Section for Medical Inflammation Research  
Department of Experimental Medicine  
BMC I11, Lund University  
S-221 84 Lund

ISBN 91-85481-04-1

Printed by Media-Tryck  
Lund University, 2005

***To my father***

“Det är stoltare våga sitt tärningskast,  
än att tyna med slocknande låge.

Det är skönare lyss till den sträng som brast,  
än aldrig spänna en båge”

*Verner von Heidenstam*



## Abstract

Autoimmune diseases are dependent on multiple genes and unknown environmental factors. Great efforts in the identification of genes conferring susceptibility to autoimmune diseases like Rheumatoid Arthritis (RA) and Multiple Sclerosis (MS) have recently been rewarding. A few genes have so far been associated to several autoimmune disorders and the understanding of the role of these genes in the pathogenesis and the identification of additional genes will be of great use in the designing of new and better therapies. The fine characterization of each disease is of importance in order to define sub-groups, which may respond differently to treatments.

The work in this thesis was done in mouse models for RA and MS and is based on four papers where the aim was to identify genes associated with these diseases. We have studied crosses between a susceptible and a resistant mouse strain to assess the genetic context for a disease-linked locus to appear. In an F2 intercross between the two strains, the *Eae2* locus on chromosome 15 was previously linked to disease in the MS model Experimental Autoimmune Encephalomyelitis (EAE) through interaction with *Eae3* on chromosome 3. The locus homologous to *Eae2* on human chromosome 5 was later associated with MS in a Finnish population. In order to identify additional loci, EAE was studied in an F2 intercross where the *Eae2* locus was neutralized (paper I) and in a N2 backcross (paper II). In paper III and IV a new strategy to study the interaction between *Eae2* and *Eae3* is described. Mice congenic for the *Eae2* and *Eae3* regions were bred in a Partial Advanced Intercross (PAI), which allows for the segregation of genes in the congenic intervals. More than 1000 PAI mice were investigated for Collagen Induced Arthritis (CIA). Different traits of disease were linked to seven sub-QTL within *Eae2* and *Eae3*. Furthermore, the importance of sub-phenotypes in order to identify disease-modifying genes was investigated and is discussed.

## Original papers

This thesis is based on the following papers, which are referred to in the text by their roman numerals:

- I.     *Identification of susceptibility genes for experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis that overcome the effect of protective alleles at the eae2 locus.***

Jirholt J, Lindqvist AK, Karlsson J, Andersson A, Holmdahl R. Int Immunol. 2002 Jan;14(1):79-85.
- II.    *Novel quantitative trait loci controlling development of experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis and proportion of lymphocyte subpopulations.***

Karlsson J, Zhao X, Lonskaya I, Neptin M, Holmdahl R, Andersson A. J Immunol. 2003 Jan 15;170(2):1019-26
- III.   *Identification of epistasis through a partial advanced intercross reveals three arthritis loci within the Cia5 QTL in mice.***

Johannesson M, Karlsson J, Wernhoff P, Nandakumar KS, Lindqvist AK, Olsson L, Cook AD, Andersson A, Holmdahl R. Genes Immun. 2005 May;6(3):175-85.
- IV.    *Genetic interactions in Eae2 control collagen-induced arthritis and the CD4<sup>+</sup>/CD8<sup>+</sup> T cell ratio.***

Karlsson J, Johannesson M, Lindvall T, Wernhoff P, Holmdahl R, Andersson A. J Immunol. 2005 Jan 1;174(1):533-41.

# Table of contents

<b>ABBREVIATIONS .....</b>	<b>8</b>
<b>INTRODUCTION.....</b>	<b>9</b>
<b>INSIGHT INTO THE IMMUNE SYSTEM .....</b>	<b>11</b>
THE INNATE IMMUNE SYSTEM .....	11
<i>Antigen presenting cells.....</i>	<i>11</i>
THE ACQUIRED IMMUNE SYSTEM .....	13
<i>T lymphocytes .....</i>	<i>14</i>
<i>Positive and negative selection .....</i>	<i>15</i>
<i>CD4 and CD8 T cell fate .....</i>	<i>15</i>
<i>Central Tolerance .....</i>	<i>16</i>
<i>Peripheral tolerance .....</i>	<i>17</i>
<b>THE AUTOIMMUNE DISEASES.....</b>	<b>19</b>
RHEUMATOID ARTHRITIS .....	19
<i>The role of antibodies in RA .....</i>	<i>20</i>
<i>RA and MHC class II.....</i>	<i>20</i>
MULTIPLE SCLEROSIS .....	21
<i>Infection and MS .....</i>	<i>22</i>
<i>Inflammatory cells involved in MS.....</i>	<i>22</i>
<i>MS and MHC class II.....</i>	<i>23</i>
<b>ANIMAL MODELS.....</b>	<b>24</b>
EXPERIMENTAL ARTHRITIS MODELS IN THE MOUSE .....	24
EXPERIMENTAL AUTOIMMUNE ENCEPHALOMYELITIS .....	25
<b>IDENTIFICATION OF GENES .....</b>	<b>27</b>
THE GENOME .....	27
LINKAGE ANALYSES IN HUMANS.....	27
LINKAGE ANALYSES IN ANIMAL MODELS .....	29
SHARED AUTOIMMUNITY GENES .....	30
EPISTASIS- THE IMPORTANCE OF GENETIC INTERACTIONS.....	30
ASSOCIATION STUDIES.....	32
<b>BACKGROUND TO THE PRESENT INVESTIGATIONS.....</b>	<b>34</b>
PAPER I.....	35
<i>Identification of susceptibility genes for experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis that overcome the effect of protective alleles at the Eae2 locus .....</i>	<i>35</i>
PAPER II.....	36
<i>Novel quantitative trait loci controlling development of experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis and proportion of lymphocyte subpopulations.....</i>	<i>36</i>
PAPER III.....	37
<i>Identification of epistasis through a partial advanced intercross reveals three arthritis loci within the Cia5 QTL in mice.....</i>	<i>37</i>
PAPER IV.....	39
<i>Genetic interactions in Eae2 control collagen- induced arthritis and the CD4<sup>+</sup>/CD8<sup>+</sup> T cell ratio .....</i>	<i>39</i>
<b>DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS .....</b>	<b>41</b>
<b>POPULÄRVETENSKAPLIG SAMMANFATTNING.....</b>	<b>44</b>
<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS .....</b>	<b>45</b>
<b>REFERENCES.....</b>	<b>47</b>



## Abbreviations

AEP	Asparagine endopeptidase
Aire	Autoimmune regulator
anti-CCP	Anti-Cyclic citrullinated peptide antibody
APC	Antigen Presenting Cells
AS	Ankylosing Spondylitis
Bbaa	Borrelia burgdorferi-associated arthritis
BcR	B cell Receptor
CAIA	Collagen-Antibody Induced Arthritis
CD	Cluster of Differentiation
CIA	Collagen Induced Arthritis
CFA	Complete Freund's Adjuvance
CNS	Central Nervous System
DC	Dendritic cells
EAE	Experimental Autoimmune Encephalomyelitis
HLA	Human Leukocyte Antigen
HS	Heterogenous Stock
IFA	Incomplete Freund's Adjuvance
IL	Interleukin
IFN $\gamma$	Interferon $\gamma$
IgG	Immunoglobulin G
Mbp	Megabasepair
MBP	Myelin Basic Protein
MHC	Major Histocompatibility Complex
MO	Macrophages
MOG	Myelin Oligodendrocyte Glycoprotein
MS	Multiple Sclerosis
NKT	Natural killer T cell
QTL	Quantitative Trait Loci
PAI	Partial Advanced Intercross
PADI	Peptidyl Arginine Deiminase I
PDCD1	Programmed Cell Death gene 1
PLP	Proteolipid Protein
RA	Rheumatoid Arthritis
RF	Rheumatic Factor
RUNX1	Runt-related transcription factor 1
SLE	Systemic Lupus Erythemathous
SNP	Single Nucleotide Polymorphism
Th	T helper
TcR	T cell Receptor
TEC	Thymic Epithelial Cells
TGF $\beta$	Tumor Necrosis Factor $\beta$
TNF $\alpha$	Tumor Necrosis Factor $\alpha$
Treg	Regulatory T cells
Trmq	T cell Ratio Modifier QTL

## Introduction

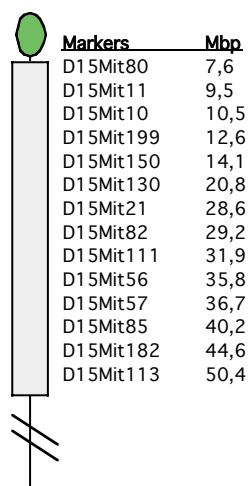
Autoimmune diseases arise from an immune system triggered to attack the body's own tissues. Rheumatoid Arthritis (RA) and Multiple Sclerosis (MS) are inflammatory autoimmune diseases that confer a lot of pain, malaise and disability. RA is estimated to affect approximately 1% of the worldwide population with a female predominance of 3 to 1 (1). The prevalence of MS in northern Europeans is about 0,2% and also here, women are more frequently affected than men (2). One of the most characteristic traits of RA is the symmetrical swelling and inflammation in hand joints. MS affects the central nervous system and symptoms like numbness, weakness and difficulty to walk are early signs. Subsequently, disability and paralysis arise from electrical short-circuiting of the neurons and progressive loss of plasticity of the central nervous system (CNS). Finding satisfactory cures for these diseases have been a struggle for decades. Both RA and MS are rather syndromes than single diseases since the disease courses differ tremendously in between patients and could vary from mild to devastating disabling with severe destruction of the target organs. 85% of MS patients develop a relapsing-remitting disease course and 10-15 % suffer from primary progressive MS, a form, which so far lacks helpful treatments.

One way to develop better treatments for MS and RA is to identify disease-modifying genes. This would subsequently lead to a better understanding of the molecular basis of disease and enable the finding of new therapeutic targets. In order to identify disease-modifying genes it is important to have well defined diagnoses. So far, most linkage studies performed in humans have failed to identify disease-linked genes except for the Human Leukocyte Antigen (HLA), and a reason for this might be the heterogeneity of the diseases themselves but also the heterogeneity of the human genome. Since these disorders are genetically complex and dependent on multiple genes, some of which are working in interactive networks, we need tools to characterize the genetics to be able to get a better understanding of the disease mechanisms. Moreover, people live different lives and are affected by various environmental influences such as smoking, diet, social class et c. Taken together, this

makes it extremely hard to form homogenous test groups in humans. Although being different diseases, autoimmune disorders share some characteristics and possibly also some of the genetics. Data have emerged showing the involvement of shared genes in several autoimmune diseases in humans (3), (4), (5), (6), (7), (8).

Animal models have been developed to study the pathogenesis of RA and MS among other autoimmune diseases. By using these models the genetics is homogenous and the environment can be controlled. Another great advantage is that experiments made in animal models are faster and conclusions can be drawn quicker than is possible in human trials. Also in animal models, the involvement of shared autoimmunity genes has been proposed (9). By using crosses of inbred mouse strains, several quantitative trait loci (QTL) loci have been linked to the experimental model for MS, Experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis (EAE) and for Collagen Induced Arthritis (CIA). Several of the QTL are overlapping and common genes might control both CIA and EAE.

In the present thesis, the *Eae2* is discussed, a QTL on mouse chromosome 15 (figure 1). *Eae2* controls both EAE and CIA supporting the hypothesis of the existence of shared autoimmunity genes. The emphasis is put on the importance of working with well-defined phenotypes and finding tools to comprehend the complex network of gene interactions contributing to the biological pathways underlying the various traits of autoimmune disease. The thesis is based on four papers, which follow the progression of gene identification methodology by investigating the *Eae2* locus in different genetic contexts.



**Figure 1.** The *Eae2* region on mouse chromosome 15 discussed in this thesis.

## **Insight into the immune system**

The immune system is designed to fight off invading microbes and pathogens and is divided into the innate and the acquired immune systems. One important feature of the immune system is its ability to discriminate self from non-self. Cells from the innate immune system ingest antigens derived from the own body as well as taking in foreign bacteria and viruses. The presentation of the digested antigens on the surface of antigen presenting cells (APC) to antigen specific T cells is then followed. The subsequent behavior of the T cells is an important event in inflammation and elimination of an infection. However, sometimes things go wrong along the way and certain tissue of the body may be subjected to an autoimmune attack and an autoimmune disease develops.

### **The innate immune system**

The innate immune system is the first line of defense against infectious agents. It involves several soluble molecules including the complement system and interferons produced by virus-infected cells, along with cellular events such as phagocytosis of bacteria. The phagocytic cells are derived from myeloid progenitors during hematopoiesis in the bone marrow and include macrophages, monocytes and neutrophils. One of the events involved in phagocytosis is the activation of the NADPH complex, which generates microbicidal reactive oxygen species (ROS). It has been shown that decreased levels of ROS exacerbate arthritis in a rat model of RA. Linkage analysis and subsequent positional cloning identified the *Ncf1* gene. A single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) in the gene was found to alter the ROS production and thus being responsible for this innate phenotype (10).

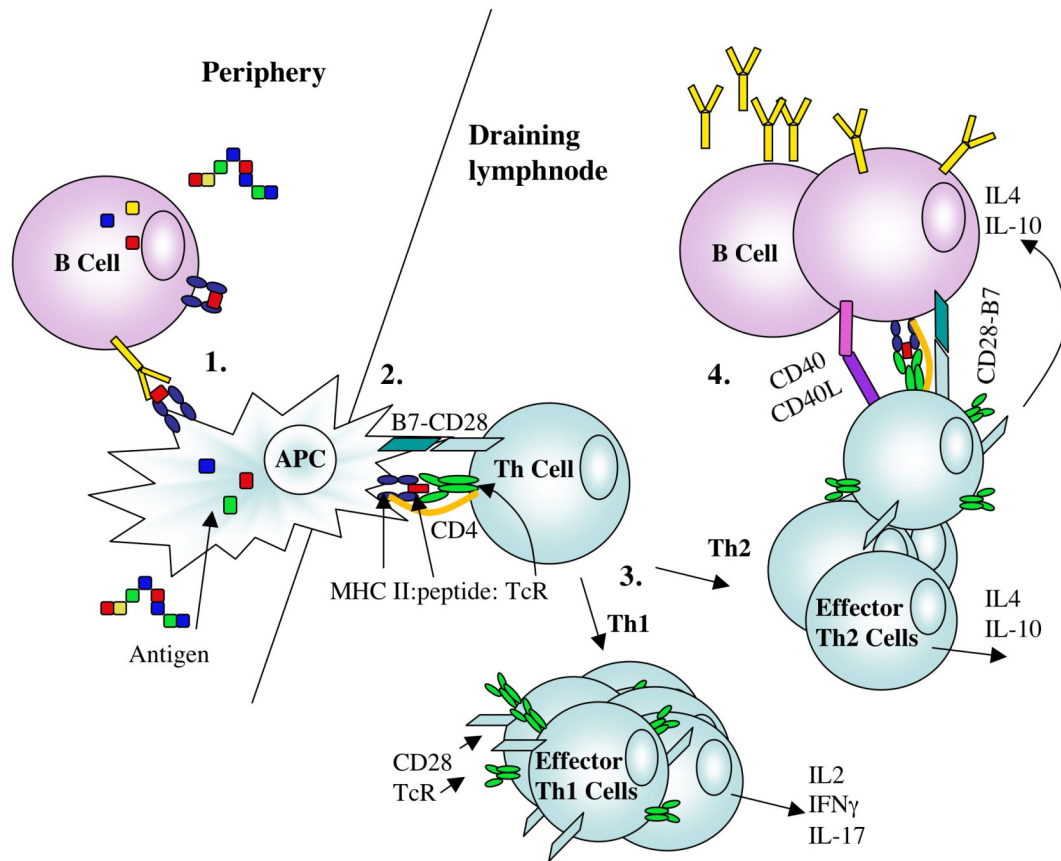
### ***Antigen presenting cells***

There are two kinds of APC. The professional APC include the dendritic cells (DC), macrophages (MO), B cells, and thymic epithelial cells (TEC), which constitutively express major histocompatibility complex (MHC) class II molecules. Non-professional APC can be induced to express MHC class II and include fibroblasts, mast cells and glial cells within the CNS. The primary role for the professional APC is to protect against pathogens by phagocytosis of invading bacteria/virus. The

pathogens are ingested in endosomes that fuse with lysosomes in the cytoplasm for degradation into peptides. These peptides are subsequently being presented on MHC class II molecules on the cell surface of the APC. Intracellular pathogens are presented on MHC class I molecules.

Activated macrophages express the co-stimulatory molecules B7-1 (CD80) and B7-2 (CD86) and in order to activate antigen specific T cells via the MHC-antigen-T cell receptor synapse, a co-stimulatory signal via the B7-ligand, CD28 is a prerequisite. It has been proposed that B7-1 and B7-2 engagement affect the differentiation of T cells into different effector functions (Th1 or Th2 cell lineage; see below), which have implications in autoimmune disease (11). Furthermore, the activation status of the APC is of great importance in autoimmune disease. In a transgenic system where the B7.2 molecule was constitutively expressed on resident microglia in the CNS, the mice developed a spontaneous demyelinating disease. The infiltrating cells were CD8<sup>+</sup> memory- and CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells implicating a role for the B7/ CD28 pathway in MS (12). Also, in mice deficient in the B7.2 molecule, the mice developed a milder disease upon EAE induction (13). Interestingly, as discussed in paper IV, a phenotype concerning the expression density of the B7.2, but not B7.1, on activated macrophages was linked to the *Eae2* region.

In the context of autoimmune disease, the APCs play a crucial role in the pathogenesis, by presenting peptides derived from the body's own target organs. The APCs connect the innate and the acquired immune system by presenting peptides to T and B cells via their respective receptors, BcR and TcR. Through this engagement, the T and B cells receive a first signal for activation. However, co-stimulation is required for full activation, and the APC gives a secondary signal to the T cell via the B7-CD28 interaction. For B cell activation, T cell help is needed through the CD40-CD40 ligand interaction in addition to stimulation by Th2 cytokines like IL-4 and IL-10, outlined in Figure 2.



**Figure 2. Schematic outline of antigen presentation.** (1.) Antigen presenting cell (APC) engulf antigen in the periphery, degrade it and present peptides derived from the antigen on MHC class II molecules (blue). The APC can present the peptide (red) to antigen specific B cells via MHC and the B cell Receptor (BcR, yellow) in the periphery. B cells are also able to internalize antigen, and present peptides on MHC class II. (2.) Antigen-activated APCs migrate to the draining lymph node and up-regulate B7 (turquoise) and MHC class II (blue), and secrete cytokines (not shown). In the draining lymph node, the APC presents the antigen peptide (red) to CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells with epitope-specific T cell Receptors (TcR, green) along with a co-stimulatory signal via B7-CD28. (3.) Activated T cells submit into either Th1 or Th2 effector functions and produce different cytokines. (4.) Activated T cells may stimulate B cells through the TcR (green) and MHC class II, along with co-stimulation via CD40-CD40L, CD28-B7, and Th2 cytokines (e.g. IL-4 and IL-10), leading to clonal expansion of the B cells and production of IgG antibodies (yellow Y-shaped).

## The acquired immune system

The acquired immune system comprises B and T lymphocytes derived from lymphoid progenitors during hematopoiesis. Lymphocytes express antigen-specific receptors that are generated to encompass an extreme variety of possible antigens evolved from

foreign intruders. The B cells mature in the bone marrow while the T cells are derived from the thymus. In autoimmune disorders, these cells recognize self derived antigens as foreign and mount an attack to the specific tissue of origin.

### ***T lymphocytes***

T cells express either CD4 or CD8 as a co-receptor to the T cell Receptor (TcR) depending on their affinity for MHC class II or MHC class I respectively. The CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells are called cytotoxic since they can kill tumor cells or cells infected with virus. The CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells are helper T cells and interact with the MHC class II bearing cells. The CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells could be categorized into T helper (Th) subclasses 1, 2, and 3 according the profile of the cytokines they secrete.

RA and MS and their respective animal models (CIA and EAE) are looked upon as Th1 driven diseases (14), (15). There is a vast infiltration of CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells into rheumatic synovial joints. It has been shown that these cells produce Interferon  $\gamma$  (IFN $\gamma$ ) and IL-17; pro-inflammatory cytokines produced by Th1 cells. IL-17 has osteoclast activating properties and may contribute to the destruction of cartilage in concert with the monocyte derived cytokines tumor necrosis factor  $\alpha$  (TNF $\alpha$ ) and IL-1 (16). The administration of anti-TNF $\alpha$  as a treatment in RA has been successful in reducing the degradation of cartilage (17).

Th2 cells typically produce the cytokines IL-4, IL-5, IL-9, IL-10 and IL-13. One of the criteria for RA is the Rheumatic Factor (RF), which is auto-antibodies towards IgG molecules in sera (18). In order for B cells to produce antibodies they are dependent on T cell help. This humoral response is triggered by activated Th2 cells by the production of cytokines in addition to cell-cell contact through the TcR-MHC. Moreover, a co-stimulatory signal is needed through the CD40-CD40 ligand in order for the B cells to commit to isotype switch and production of IgG antibodies (Figure 2). It has been shown that the Th2 cytokines IL-4 and IL-10 have a clear down regulatory effect on development of CIA (19).

The Th3 cells produce mainly Tumor Necrosis Factor  $\beta$  (TGF $\beta$ ) and are implicated in the regulation of immune responses. An example where these cells play an important

role is in the gastrointestinal tract, which is exposed to myriads of dietary proteins. In order to avoid food allergies the regulatory Th3 cells play an important role by avoiding an immune response towards these antigens, a process called oral tolerance. By taking advantage of these regulatory T cells residing in the gut, much research has aimed at inducing oral tolerance towards auto-antigens and thereby suppressing an autoimmune attack towards these antigens in the tissue of origin (e.g. brain, joints, pancreas et c) (20), (21).

### ***Positive and negative selection***

The T cells mature in the thymus and the maturation process involves positive and negative selection. During development, T cells that express both CD4 and CD8 co-receptors are positively selected in the thymic cortex based on the ability of the TcR to interact with MHC expressed on thymic stromal cells. CD4<sup>+</sup>CD8<sup>+</sup> double positive (DP) T cells survive (*positive selection*) if their TcR bind weakly to self-MHC expressed on thymic stromal cells whereas those DP cells with TcRs which do not recognize self-MHC or bind strongly to self antigens presented by self MHC undergo apoptosis (*negative selection*).

### ***CD4 and CD8 T cell fate***

Several theories exist on how the decision is made for a T cell to become a CD4<sup>+</sup> or CD8<sup>+</sup> T cell. Interestingly, the hematopoietic transcription factor runt-related transcription factor 1 (RUNX) proteins, recently identified to control autoimmune disease (see below) are implicated in lineage decision. The RUNX1 has been found to regulate the expression of CD4 during CD8 lineage commitment (22). It has been suggested that the strength of the TcR-MHC signal could be decisive in lineage fate, where a strong signal would promote a CD4 fate and a weaker signal would lead to the CD8 lineage (23). Also, the persistence of TcR signaling supports development of CD4<sup>+</sup> cells while interrupted signals result in cells going into the CD8 lineage (24). How and when thymocytes interact with the thymic antigen presenting cells (APC) during positive selection could affect cell fate. Thymic stromal cells, which are consisting of epithelial cells, dendritic cells, and macrophages play an important role in the maturation of DP T cells into single CD4 or CD8 positive T cells. CD83 is expressed on thymic epithelial and dendritic cells. It has been shown that the



engagement of CD83 in the interaction between maturing T cells and the APC is required for the generation of CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells (25). Thymic macrophages mainly play a role as scavengers of apoptotic T cells (26), but have also been suggested to present antigens and affect MHC restriction in close interplay with thymic nurse cells (27).

The CD4<sup>+</sup> and CD8<sup>+</sup> T cell ratio is under genetic control and a role for the MHC locus in the determination of the proportions of CD4<sup>+</sup> and CD8<sup>+</sup> cells has been reported in linkage studies in mice (28), and rats (29). Additionally, non-HLA genes are of importance and are illustrated by the difference in the ratio in the two MHC congenic mouse strains RIIS/J and B10.RIII used in experiments discussed in this thesis. As shown in paper II, a N2 backcross of these strains revealed that the CD4<sup>+</sup>/CD8<sup>+</sup> T cell ratio is controlled by three different QTL on chromosomes 2, 6, and 15 (*Eae2* region). Moreover, in paper IV we demonstrate that the CD4<sup>+</sup>/CD8<sup>+</sup> T cell ratio is controlled by genetic interactions between sub-QTL in the *Eae2* (*Cia30*) and *Eae3* (*Cia5*, and *Cia22*). The sub-QTL controlling the CD4<sup>+</sup>/CD8<sup>+</sup> T cell ratio and the proportion of CD4<sup>+</sup> and CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells in peripheral blood was named T cell ratio modifier QTL4-6 (*Trmq4*, *Trmq5*, and *Trmq6*).

### **Central Tolerance**

The thymus is organized into cortical and medullary zones. Positive selection occurs in the cortical area whilst negative selection and tolerance induction happen in the medulla. It appears that in the thymic medulla, there are distinct tissue lobes organized in islets or organoids, which express antigens specific for various organs, e.g. lung and thyroid gland (30). These islets have descended from a few hundred epithelial stem cells (31). Thymic epithelial cells (TECs) in the medullary organoids are able to synthesize organ-specific proteins, process them, and display antigens on MHC molecules. The expression of the autoimmune regulator (*aire*) gene is involved in the transcription of these extra-thymic tissue specific genes. The TECs are able to induce tolerance and negative selection in CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells but not in CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells (32). The TECs may transfer antigens to the DCs, which are able to induce tolerance also in CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells.

Negative selection is affected by how strongly the T cells engage their TcR with MHC, but also by the concentration of MHC molecules in thymus. It has been shown that even extremely low levels of MHC class II on thymic DCs confer on them the ability to mediate clonal deletion of autoreactive T cells (33). In addition, the efficiency by which APCs process and present antigens is of importance. An endosomal-lysosomal protease, asparagine endopeptidase (AEP), found in thymic dendritic cells, has been shown to destroy the immunodominant epitope of the myelin basic protein (MBP85-99). Thereby T cells reacting towards this epitope could escape negative selection (34).

### ***Peripheral tolerance***

Whereas high avidity recognition of peptide-MHC complexes by developing T cells in the thymus results in deletion and promotes self tolerance (*central tolerance*), such strong interaction by mature T cells in the periphery results in activation and clonal expansion (35). We are continuously exposed to myriads of non-harmful antigens from the diet and environment, and by peripheral tolerance mechanisms a deleterious immune response is avoided (36). Even though many organ specific antigens are expressed in the thymus through the actions of the AIRE protein, not all are expressed in high enough concentrations or with the right posttranslational modifications to eliminate auto-reactive T cells. Indeed, some T cells specific to a self- antigen, but with low avidity TcR, escape central tolerance in thymus. When these T cells encounter self-antigens presented by professional APC in the periphery, they will get stimulated via the TcR, but without co-stimulation there will be no clonal expansion and after a few cell divisions they are deleted (37).

Ignorance is another mean of tolerability, simply meaning that T cells avoid recognition of their cognate antigen due to its expression in immunologically privileged locations e.g. the eye, or that the avidity of the TcR is too low. However, ignorance is a labile state and given the proper stimulatory milieu (e.g. viral infection), the T cells could get activated and start to proliferate, subsequently resulting in an autoimmune attack (38).

Potentially self-reactive T cells are kept in check by regulatory T cells (Treg). The suppression of autoreactive T cells is dependant on cell-cell contact and requires the engagement of B7 molecules on the target T cells (39). The CTLA-4, a ligand for the B7 molecules is constitutively expressed at high levels on Treg cells but not on normal T cells (40). The Treg are normally CD4 and CD25 (IL-2Ra-chain) positive cells but as a Treg marker CD25 is limited since all activated CD4<sup>+</sup> and CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells transiently upregulate CD25. A better Treg marker is Foxp3, which is expressed in Treg cells but not in other activated or resting T cells (41). Some thymocytes expressing self-reactive TcR with intermediate avidity, upregulate Foxp3 in response to increased strength or duration of a TcR signal, in combination with an unknown signal. Upon Foxp3 induction, thymocytes deviate towards Treg lineage (42).

## **The Autoimmune Diseases**

### **Rheumatoid arthritis**

Despite the tolerance mechanisms, autoreactive cells sometimes escape the control. Potentially harmful T- and B- cells could mount an attack towards “self” by recognizing self-antigen via their respective TcR or BcR. Rheumatoid arthritis is a systemic, chronic, inflammatory, autoimmune disease characterized primarily by destruction and inflammation of synovial joints. The three most abundant cell populations in RA synovium are synovial macrophages, synovial fibroblasts, and infiltrating T lymphocytes (43). Females are more affected than males in a ratio of 3:1. Depending on the variability of the disease, patients must fulfill the following four uppermost criteria for RA diagnosis:

1. Morning stiffness
2. Arthritis in at least three joints
3. Arthritis of hand joints
4. Symmetrical joint swelling
5. Rheumatoid nodules
6. Abnormal serum rheumatoid factor
7. Radiographic changes in hand joints

Morning stiffness and swelling of arthritic joints might be related to an altered hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis and an imbalance of the production of cortisol and melatonin. The anti-inflammatory hormone cortisol is produced by the adrenal gland in circadian rhythm with the lowest plasma concentration during night and early morning. RA patients have lower ratios of serum cortisol to the pro-inflammatory cytokines IL-6 and TNF (44), which might contribute to the stiffness and swelling in the morning. Melatonin is produced by the pineal gland and the peak plasma concentration is reached at night and early morning. This hormone has opposite effects to those of glucocorticosteroids and could promote inflammation, especially through its stimulatory action on Th1 cells leading to cytokine production.

It has been shown that peripheral blood monocytes secrete IL-12 in response to melatonin (45), and melatonin has been reported to aggravate CIA in mice (46).

Although the involvement of symmetrical joint arthritis is a criterium for RA, not all patients have this diagnosis in the early phase of the disease. Some joints are more prone to be involved in symmetrical arthritis than others. The proximal interphalangeal (PIP) joints are more often involved in joint swelling symmetry than the metacarpophalangeal- (MCP), and wrist joints (47). The reason for symmetric inflammation and destruction remains obscure but might involve the nervous system (48).

### ***The role of antibodies in RA***

The three latter diagnostic criteria are only observed in subgroups of patients, like arthritic noduli (49), rheumatoid factor (RF), (50), (51), and antibodies towards cyclic citrullinated peptide antibodies. RF is found in sera of around 75% of RA patients and constitute of autoantibodies raised against the constant region of self IgG molecules. The antibodies are found in all Ig classes; IgA, IgG, IgE and IgM. However, the RF is not specific for RA, but it is a diagnostic and prognostic tool since all subclasses of RF predate the onset of RA (52), (53). RF is associated with a more severe disease course and could predict the need for a more aggressive treatment (54).

Another antibody, which has strong association to RA, is the Anti-Cyclic citrullinated peptide antibody (anti-CCP) (55). Citrullin is a “non standard” amino acid which is being generated by post-translational modification involving the enzyme peptidyl-arginine deiminase (PADI). The presence of anti-CCP antibodies in sera could predict the development of RA, indicating that citrullination of peptides and the production of anti-CCP and RF autoantibodies are going on in the early phase of RA (52).

### ***RA and MHC class II***

RA is thought to be a T cell driven autoimmune disorder and, in particular, CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells have been implicated due to the correlation with certain alleles of MHC class II. The haplotype HLA-DR4 has been associated with RA (56), and the inheritance of susceptibility to RA has been shown by twin studies to be around 60 % where MHC

class II is estimated to account for at least 30 % of the total genetic effect (57). The HLA is identified as having an impact on both RA and MS incidence and severity. Several alleles of the HLA-DRB1 gene (\*0401, 0404, 0405, 1402 and 0101) associated with RA, share a conserved amino acid sequence within the DRB1 chain, which is part of one side of the antigen presenting binding site. It has been suggested that this “shared epitope” motif is involved in RA by presentation of an arthritogenic peptide and furthermore involved in the selection of autoreactive CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells during thymic maturation (58). The shared epitope has been associated with radiological severity in RA patients (59) and to development of rheumatoid nodules (60). Furthermore, it has been observed that smoking in combination with the shared epitope of HLA-DRB1 is a risk factor for a more aggressive disease development in patients seropositive for RF but not in seronegative RA (61). This is an example of how an environmental factor may interact with genes to increase the disease susceptibility. Several alleles of the HLA genes (DRB1\*0401, DRB1\*1001, DQB1\*0302, and DQB1\*0501) have, in addition been associated with the presence of anti-CCP antibodies. One or two HLA-DRB1 shared epitope alleles were significantly associated with production of anti-CCP antibodies along with a more severe disease progression (62).

## **Multiple Sclerosis**

Multiple Sclerosis (MS) is a chronic autoimmune disease characterized by inflammation and destruction of the myelin sheath, as well as axonal injury and neuronal cell death leading to loss of neurological function. Women are more frequently affected than men. The frequency of MS varies over the globe and high frequency areas with a prevalence of more than 30 affected in 100 000 include most of Europe, Israel, Canada, northern US, eastern Russia, and southeast Australia and New Zealand. Africa and northern South America are low-frequency areas with prevalence less than 5 in 100 000. Migrants from high to low risk areas retain the MS risk of their birthplace only if they are at least 15 years old at the time of migration (63).

## ***Infection and MS***

One hypothesis is that MS is somehow acquired in early adolescence and that infectious agents could be the culprits in the disease onset (63). Viral infections may contribute to the initiation of autoimmune disease by molecular mimicry of the viral epitope and a self-epitope. Indeed, Theiler's murine encephalomyelitis virus (TMEV) engineered to express a Haemophilus influenza epitope mimicking the immunodominant myelin proteolipid protein epitope (PLP139-151), induced EAE in susceptible SJL mice. Furthermore, infection could exacerbate an ongoing autoimmune disease (64). Also, T cells recognizing the myelin basic protein (MBP) peptide (93-105) have been shown to cross-react with, and be activated by a synthetic peptide corresponding to residues of human herpesvirus-6 (HHV-6) in MS patients (65), (66).

## ***Inflammatory cells involved in MS***

T cells are implicated in MS and have been shown to rapidly traffic the CNS. In a trial where the purpose was to neutralize auto-reactive T cells with antibodies, antibody-covered T cells were found in the cerebrospinal fluid after 72-96 hours post-injection of antibody (67). Up-regulation of CD4 and HLA-DR $\alpha$  mRNA has been found in MS brains indicating that antigen is being presented locally to activated CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells (68). T cells, monocytes, and a few B cells characterize the inflammatory profile of active MS lesions. Macrophages are found in the center of the plaque and are filled with myelin debris. Oligodendrocyte counts are reduced in the lesions. The hallmark of the pathology of MS is the demyelinated plaque with reactive glial scar formation as visualized by magnetic resonance imaging (MRI). However, the pattern of demyelination and the cellular constitution of the inflammatory foci seen in MS brains are heterogeneous and indicate that different biological pathways may contribute to the same measurable end-point, the MS plaque (69). Thus, MS might be considered as a syndrome not only due to the different clinical sub groups but also because of the heterogeneous MS plaques. Therefore, fine-characterization of MS plaques may reveal different biological pathways in different MS patients and this could lead to the designing of new and more specific therapies.

## ***MS and MHC class II***

Epidemiological studies suggest that both environmental factors as well as heredity contribute to MS. The clearest evidence for genetic risk factors comes from twin studies showing that identical twins have 150-300 times greater risk than unrelated individuals in the population, and that siblings have a 20-40 times higher risk (70), (71). Association with HLA is suggested to explain 14-50 % of the genetic risk (72), and is primarily associated with onset and initiation of disease and not with the chronic phase (73). There is an increased prevalence of MS in isolated familial regions e.g. in Finland (74) and Sardinia (75). To date, the HLA is the only confirmed locus (76). The HLA-DR2 haplotype susceptibility allele has been associated to MS (77), and has been shown promote disease in a dose dependant manner, where two copies of the allele further increase the risk and render patients more likely to have a more severe outcome (78). These findings are in line with the more severe disease development in RA patients homozygous for HLA-DR4 alleles (79).



## **Animal models**

Mouse and human genomes are homologous to approximately 90%, and many genes and biological pathways are conserved between the species. Animal models are crucial for developing new and better treatments for human diseases. The experiments can be done much faster: disease development is investigated for months instead of for years as is the case in humans. Studies of multi-factorial diseases like RA and MS are difficult to perform in man due to the heterogenous human genome, in combination with various interacting environmental factors. Homogenous test groups are not easily established taking into account e.g. age, sex, diet, social life, sleeping habits, everything that might have the slightest impact on disease. Animal models have been of great value in studying models of human autoimmune disorders e.g. MS, RA, diabetes, systemic lupus erythemathous (SLE), but the need for additional models for each of these diseases is increasing. Since we use inbred strains where all mice of one strain are genetically identical, we do not cover the whole picture of one disease but parts or subsets of the pathogenesis. Therefore, studying the disease in several strains of mice and rats will give a more complete picture, and will capture more features that are observed in different patient groups. Furthermore, different immunization protocols in the induction of disease might trigger different pathways and will, thus, contribute to the knowledge of disease.

### **Experimental arthritis models in the mouse**

Collagen induced arthritis (CIA) is the most commonly used animal model for RA and is induced with collagen type II (80), type IX (81) or type XI (82). Other immunization protocols include the antibody transfer model (83) where collagen type II specific antibodies induce joint inflammation.

Glucose-6-phosphate (G6PI) is a secretable intracellular enzyme, which in the extra-cellular compartment can act as a cytokine. It induces B cell maturation and production of antibodies. In a T cell receptor (TcR) transgenic mouse model where the mice developed spontaneous arthritis, it was found that the TcR was specific for

G6PI (84). Furthermore, depending on the genetic background of the mouse strain, disease induction with G6PI in Complete Freund's Adjuvant (CFA) follows either an acute and severe disease course (DBA/1 mouse strain) or a chronic progressive arthritis (C3H.NB strain) (85). The model exemplifies the importance of controlling the genetic environment in order to study the disease phenotype.

The arthritis studies in this thesis are performed in an experimental setup using the susceptible B10.RIII mouse strain and the resistant RIIS/J strain and the CIA model with collagen type II in Incomplete Freund's Adjuvant (CFA). B10.RIII male mice have an incidence of about 70-90 % while around 50 % of the females develop arthritis. Males are more prone to disease development than females and by castrating female mice they retain the same degree of susceptibility as males, indicating a role for sex hormones (86). It has been shown that the female sex hormone estrogen could mediate an increase in Th2 cytokines along with a decreased production of Th1 cytokines (IFN $\gamma$ ) and thereby modulating the immune reaction (87). Furthermore, estrogen may inhibit an inflammatory response by suppressing homing of inflammatory cells e.g. macrophages and granulocytes and their production of IFN $\gamma$  and TNF $\alpha$  (88). In paper III and IV we show that specific gene regions in *Eae2* and *Eae3/Cia5* control an exacerbated development of arthritis in female mice only, thus implicating a role for sex hormones.

## **Experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis**

A model for MS was found through serendipity when the virologist Thomas Rivers in 1933 tried to explain a demyelinating disease that occurred in people after rabies vaccination. He injected brain tissue, in which the rabies virus was grown, into monkeys, which subsequently developed signs similar to MS; abnormal gait and eye movements as well as signs of inflammation and demyelination of the brain (89). The conclusion was that injected brain tissue into animals caused an allergic reaction with inflammation of the brain and spinal cord similar to MS, thereof the name experimental allergic (later autoimmune) encephalomyelitis (EAE).

Induction of a paralyzing MS-like disease in rodents is followed after injection of myelin specific proteins or peptides in susceptible strains. Induction of disease with

the myelin oligodendrocyte glycoprotein (MOG) or MOG peptides in B10.Q mice results in nearly 100% incidence with a chronic disease course (paper III). Moreover, SJL/J mice develop EAE when immunized with whole spinal cord homogenate (SCH), while B10.S/DvTe mice are resistant (90). The B10.RIII mouse strain develops a chronic disease course after induction with MBP peptide 89-101. The MHC class II haplotype is of importance for disease development as demonstrated by H2 congenic mice where H2-A<sup>r</sup>, A<sup>s</sup> and A<sup>q</sup> were associated with EAE susceptibility (91). However, the MHC class II congenic strain RIIS/J, which shares the H2-A<sup>r</sup>, is resistant to EAE (and CIA), pointing towards the importance of other genes in addition to the MHC genes. This thesis deals with methods to find non-MHC genes in various crosses between the B10.RIII and the RIIS/J mouse strains.

## **Identification of genes**

In order to develop new drug targets and to increase the ability to predict the disease course it is important to identify disease modifying genes and which allelic variants are implicated in the pathogenesis. A main goal is to genetically identify clinical subgroups. A problem of the medications available today is that they only work for some patients whereas other patients are unresponsive or even become worse from the same treatment (92), (93). One reason for the unresponsiveness could be that these patients suffer from a variant of the disease. More custom-tailored drugs, aimed at different clinical sub-groups would be a positive outcome of the cloning of susceptibility genes.

## **The genome**

Genes comprise only about 2% of the human genome. The remainder consists of noncoding regions, whose functions may include providing chromosomal structural integrity and regulating where, when, and in what quantity proteins are made. The human and mouse genomes are estimated to contain 20 000-25 000 genes (Human Genome Project). The genome is scattered with polymorphisms that can be used as markers in linkage and association studies of complex diseases. In the work presented in this thesis, we have used microsatellite markers to localize genetic regions linked to specific disease- and cellular phenotypes. Microsatellite markers are short tandem repeats of nucleotides and differ in length. Single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) are the most abundant variations in the genome and the Human Genome Project, which has sequenced > 98% of the human genome, has yielded more than 3 million SNPs. SNPs are estimated to account for 90 % of the sequence variation in humans (94), (95).

## **Linkage analyses in humans**

The first steps towards the identification of susceptibility genes have included linkage analyses, which link a certain allelic variant to a specific (disease) phenotype. In a

meta-analysis of all previously reported linkage genome screens in MS, involving a total of 719 families, six non-MHC regions have been identified (76). Many suggestive linkage peaks have been published and in a recent linkage analysis of RA, which took into account the heterogeneity of the disease, 19 non-HLA peaks were identified out of which 8 were estimated to be true-positives. Nine of the peaks overlapped with previously published regions (96). Other complex autoimmune disorders are dependent on MHC class I alleles. Behçet's disease is associated with MHC class I HLA-B51 alleles in addition to several other genes as suggested by a genome-wide linkage analysis (97). Ankylosing spondylitis (AS) mainly affects the spine and hip joints with inflammation and ossification. This disease is also strongly associated to MHC class I along with several non-MHC genes underlying linkage peaks (98). Interestingly, polymorphisms in the *ankh* gene have been associated with AS (99). The murine homologue, *Ank* is located within the *Eae2* region (100).

The efforts in trying to identify non-HLA susceptibility genes in human autoimmune diseases by linkage analysis approaches have proven difficult. The heterogeneity of the human genome and the variable disease courses decrease the power of detection of susceptibility alleles. Moreover, as discussed above, many of the autoimmune diseases are syndromes rather than one disease and may therefore be dependent on different genetic factors. Many clinically similar diseases are grouped together, irrespective of the underlying genetic contributions, possibly reducing the power of the studies. Genome scans and subsequent linkage studies usually locate the region of linkage, the QTL to a 10-30 cM region (1 cM  $\approx$  1 recombination in 100 individuals, which corresponds to  $\approx$  10 genes). To clone a gene in a QTL peak of this considerable size, the frequency of the predisposing allele needs to be very common in the population and confer a strong effect on the phenotype. In contrast, complex diseases like RA and MS, might depend on a large pool of alleles with low frequency in the population and with varying, often low effects on the disease risk (101). Linkage studies often show significance to a specific genomic interval only in specific ethnic groups (102) underscoring the vast impact of allelic and genetic heterogeneity on disease outcome.

Taken together, complex diseases result from a combination of several unfavorable sub-phenotypes many of which are under distinct genetic control. The set of phenotypes contributing to disease seem to differ in different ethnic populations (103), (104), (105). The importance to make the patient groups as homogenous as possible, in order to identify genes, is underscored. Furthermore, it is preferable to study the intermediate end-points, for example various sub-phenotypes, each of which contribute to the disease end-result. All these points argue for the use of animal models of autoimmune diseases, which could adjust for both genetic and phenotypic heterogeneity.

### **Linkage analyses in animal models**

Complex trait mapping aim at detecting the effects of individual QTL (that is additive and dominant effects) on the phenotype. Linkage analyses in mouse models of EAE and CIA have so far identified more than 30 loci for each disease ([www.informatics.jax.org](http://www.informatics.jax.org)). The basis of the method is to produce a gene segregating cross between a susceptible and a resistant mouse (or rat) strain, genotype the animals with microsatellite markers, induce and monitor the disease, and, subsequently, perform a genotype-phenotype statistical linkage analysis. Linkage studies have been performed in different strain combinations and with various disease induction protocols. Many of the *Eae* loci overlap with each other in different models of EAE. For example, the *Eae3*, in the central region on chromosome 3, has been linked to disease in a SJL/J-B10.S mouse cross immunized with the proteolipid protein (PLP) peptide (139-151) (106) and, in addition, was linked to disease in a RIIS/J-B10.RIII cross immunized with the MBP peptide (89-101) (107). Furthermore, different disease models have co-localized QTL such as the *Eae39* and the proteoglycan induced arthritis (*Pgia16*) on chromosome 5 (108), and the QTL for CIA, *Cia5* to the same locus as *Eae3* (109).

Encouragingly, some linkages originally found in mouse models have subsequently been confirmed in human linkage studies. The QTL for SLE on human chromosome 2 (102), is syntenic to a QTL on mouse chromosome 1 (110), and two loci, found linked to disease in a mouse model for Ankylosing Spondylitis (AS), overlapped with a QTL controlling AS in humans (111). Moreover, the *Eae2* locus, which was originally

linked to EAE (107), is syntenic to a region on human chromosome 5p14-p12, which was later shown to be involved in MS (112).

### **Shared autoimmunity genes**

The fact that several loci have been confirmed in various mouse crosses, which apart from having different genetic set-ups, also are immunized according to different protocols, points towards that the same genes are operating in these models. Furthermore, several QTL in mouse and rat disease models overlap with QTL in human diseases (113). In addition, co-localization of QTL for human autoimmune diseases (e.g. RA and diabetes) has been identified in linkage studies (114). As discussed above, *Eae3* is shared in several other autoimmune diseases; *Eae3*, *Tmevd2*, *Cia5*, *Idd10*, *Idd17* and *Idd18*, and this region is syntenic to human chromosome 1. Inevitably, these data support the existence of shared autoimmunity genes; genes or genetic pathways contributing to immune dysregulation and susceptibility to multiple autoimmune disorders.

At least 12 overlapping non-MHC autoimmune susceptibility QTL have been identified in syntenic regions of human and mouse in genome scans (113). Interestingly, many genes coding for proteins involved in the immune system are clustered in the genome. Therefore, it is possible that the co-localization of different autoimmune diseases reflects associations to different genes in the same cluster (coinciding in the same QTL peak) rather than to a common allele. Indeed, in paper IV, we conclude that in the *Eae3/Cia5* locus on mouse chromosome 3, an allele from the NOD strain, known to control diabetes, is not important for the control of neither CIA nor EAE. These results argue against a role for shared genes in the pathogenesis of diabetes, CIA and EAE in the *Eae3/Cia5* locus. These results emphasize the importance of a well-characterized genetic set-up, in order to closely pinpoint the genetic contribution to an autoimmune phenotype.

### **Epistasis- the importance of genetic interactions**

Epistasis is classically defined as a genetic interaction in which the gene at one locus affects the phenotypic expression of a gene at another locus (113). The phenotype of a QTL can thus not be explained by simply summing the effects of individual loci. One

example of epistasis in a complex trait is the interaction between the C-allele of angiotensin II type1R (AGTR1) and the D-allele of it's ligand, angiotensin II converting enzyme (ACE) leading to an increased risk of myocardial infarction (115). The phenotypic outcome, myocardial infarction, is dependent on both loci in a non-additive way.

Another important feature of epistasis is the suppression of autoimmune phenotypes by epistatic modifier genes, which was detected in a mouse model of SLE. The NZM2410 strain is moderately susceptible to SLE and females develop disease after 12 months of age (116). When the *Sle1*, *Sle2* and *Sle3* congenic fragments (originating from NZM2410), were introgressed onto the C57BL/6 background the mice developed fatal lupus nephritis in both males and females at a lower age (SLE). Thus, the effect of *Sle1*, *Sle2* and *Sle3* in the NZM2410 mouse strain is suppressed by modifying genes in the NZM2410 background. These modifier loci were subsequently detected (*Sles1-4*), and by congenic breeding of the *Sle1* and the modifier *Sles1* on the C57BL/6 background, the disease severity was reduced to the level of wildtype NZM2410 (117).

Some of the work in this thesis is built on the finding that 2 loci on mouse chromosome 3 and 15 were found to control development of EAE by genetic interactions. Surprisingly, it was shown that one allele from the resistant strain (RIIS/J) in *Eae2* on chromosome 15 interacted with B10.RIII alleles in *Eae3* (chromosome 3) conferring increased susceptibility to EAE to a level far extending the level of the susceptible B10.RIII wildtype strain (107). In paper III and IV we discuss this epistatic effect further, and suggest a tool to unravel the genetic complexity of autoimmune phenotypes, namely a partial advanced intercross (PAI). By crossing the *Eae2* and *Eae3* congenic mouse strains for up to 8 generations, genetic recombinations were obtained and genetic control of the disease phenotypes were localized to seven sub-QTL within the *Eae2* and *Eae3* congenic fragments.



## Association studies

Association studies of candidate genes located in linkage peaks in both humans and animal models have identified several genes shown to be involved in RA and other autoimmune diseases.

The PADI4 gene was associated to RA in a Japanese population (103). The PADI4 gene, located in a linkage peak on human chromosome 1, encodes for the peptidylarginine deiminase citrullinating enzyme 4. This enzyme is responsible for the conversion of the amino acid arginine into citrulline residues in various proteins. Citrullinated epitopes are associated with autoimmune diseases and antibodies recognizing anti-cyclic, citrullinated peptides are specific for RA. It has been shown that the myelin basic protein is more citrullinated in EAE brains and spinal cords and that severity of EAE coincides with increasing citrullination (118). Furthermore, an increased level of citrullinated myelin basic protein has been reported in the brains of MS patients (119).

By dense SNP mapping of a locus previously linked to several other autoimmune diseases (120) a risk allele of SLC22A4 was found to be associated with RA. The SLC22A4 is highly expressed in inflammatory joints in CIA mice. A SNP in an intron of the organic cation transporter gene SLC22A4 affects the transcriptional efficiency of the gene by altering the binding affinity of RUNX1. In addition, a SNP in the RUNX1 gene was contributing to the risk. SLC22A4 was identified to interact with RUNX1 in a way that homozygous alleles in both genes conferred increased susceptibility to disease. Furthermore, homozygosity for susceptibility alleles of SLC22A4 and heterozygous alleles in RUNX1 conferred moderately increased susceptibility to RA (8). This is a nice example of how genetic interactions could work in an additive fashion.

Another example is a SNP in the programmed cell death gene 1 (PDCD1, also called PD-1), which alters the binding site for the RUNX1. The mutation is located in an intronic regulatory enhancer of the PDCD1 gene and disrupts the binding site for a protein complex including RUNX1. The polymorphism in PDCD1 (called PD1.3) is

associated with development of systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE) in humans (121), type 1 diabetes (122), and RA (123).

By using SNPs with putative functional consequences, the hematopoietic specific protein tyrosine phosphatase, (PTPN22) was associated with RA. PTPN22 also called lymphoid-specific phosphatase (LYP) normally functions as a negative regulator of T cell activation (124). The risk allele changes the function of the protein, contributing to a lower threshold for T cell activation. Another allele of this SNP has been implicated in type 1 diabetes (125). Also, this genes has been associated to SLE (126). Altogether, this suggests that variants of the PTPN22 gene may increase overall reactivity of the immune system and susceptibility to autoimmune disease (127).

It has previously been suggested that an altered ability to maintain T cell homeostasis may play an important pathogenic role in MS (128). Cytokines are important in T cell homeostasis (129). Both naïve CD4 and CD8 T cells require engagements of both TcR and IL7 for survival. For memory T cell survival, on the other hand, IL7 is enough as well as crucial (130). Therefore, the maintenance of the T cell pool after an expansion triggered by antigen is dependent on memory T cell survival. This is mediated by both the expression of the IL7-R and IL-7 itself. Effector T cells loose their IL-7Rs whereas resting T cells have the highest level of expression (131). In an association analysis, 66 genes were genotyped with SNP markers chosen by chromosomal location and biological function. Here, SNPs in two genes, the IL-7R and the Lymphocyte Activation Gene-3 (LAG3) were associated with MS (132). The LAG3 (CD223) is an MHC class II ligand and is genetically related to CD4. It is embedded within the CD4 locus and may be controlled by CD4 regulatory elements. LAG3 is exclusively expressed on activated T cells and NKT cells. Through interaction of LAG3 with its receptor, activated T cells are down regulated (133). The location of the IL-7R on human chromosome 5p13, is syntenic to a region included within *Eae2*. Interestingly, as discussed in paper II and IV there is an increased CD4<sup>+</sup>/CD8<sup>+</sup> T cell ratio in the *Eae2* congenic mice compared to wildtype mice.

## Background to the Present Investigations

The present thesis is based on four papers focusing on the genetic characterization of the *Eae2* locus on mouse chromosome 15 and the dissection of linked autoimmune phenotypes. The *Eae2* locus was first identified in an F2 intercross between a susceptible (B10.RIII) and resistant (RIIS/J) mouse strain. Importantly, heterozygous alleles in *Eae2* controlled an exacerbated development of EAE by interacting with homozygous B10.RIII alleles in the *Eae3* locus on mouse chromosome 3. Moreover, homozygous RIIS/J genes in *Eae2* conferred complete resistance to disease induction (107).

The work in this thesis is based on studies in the same mouse model system and we have analyzed the *Eae2* region in different genetic set-ups, in addition to different disease models (EAE and CIA). In an effort to test murine candidate regions in a MS study, the human region syntenic to the *Eae2* locus on chromosome 5 was associated to susceptibility to MS in a Finnish population (112). These findings emphasize the significance of using animal models to detect susceptibility loci to complex trait diseases. With the QTL map in hand it has proven fruitful to perform high resolution mapping of the syntenic regions in humans (121), (104), (134). Also the animal models of complex diseases are extremely heterogeneous and depend on a large set of genes in combination with interactive components. Well-defined disease phenotypes allow for the identification of QTL that determine sub-groups of disease as discussed in paper II. This is more readily done in animal models where the impact of interactive environmental factors is decreased. Also, animal models may ease the detection of interactive loci as discussed in paper III and IV.

The *Eae3* locus co-localizes with the *Cia5*, which was linked to CIA in a F2 cross between the RIIS/J and the B10.RIII strains (109). Since the susceptibility to EAE was dependent on interactive genes in the *Eae2* and *Eae3* loci, we tested the hypothesis that these loci also control development of CIA. In paper III and IV we

conclude that this hypothesis was correct and, furthermore, we suggest a method on how to characterize the genetics in order to pin down disease phenotypic QTL.

## **Paper I.**

### ***Identification of susceptibility genes for experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis that overcome the effect of protective alleles at the *Eae2* locus***

In an effort to verify the protective effect from homozygous RIIS/J alleles in *Eae2*, this locus was congenically bred onto the susceptible B10.RIII background. In generation 4, the intercrossed congenic mice were analyzed for development of EAE. In contrast to the hypothesis, the mice homozygous for RIIS/J alleles in *Eae2* were not protected. However, mice heterozygous in the congenic fragment had a tendency to a higher incidence and a more severe disease course supporting the previous data. A reason for that the protective effect of the *Eae2* locus failed to depress EAE development could be that the 4<sup>th</sup> generation B10.RIII genetic background differs substantially from an F2 intercross and the number of RIIS/J genes is reduced. Putative interactive loci in the background are not present in the context of a congenic strain. Furthermore, as discussed in paper III and IV the effect of nearby intra-chromosomal epistatic loci is neutralized in the congenic strain.

Moreover, by crossing an *Eae2* congenic mouse with RIIS/J and subsequently produce F2, intercross mice the *Eae2* locus was fixed in the genome along with the MHC. Here, the impact of other loci on EAE development was analyzed. A QTL on chromosome 7 was significantly linked to acute disease and co-localizes with *Eae4* found in an EAE linkage analysis in a cross between SJL/J and B10.S (90). Additionally, linkages to SLE and CIA have also been associated to the same region (135), (136). Furthermore, the locus on chromosome 7 has been reproduced in CIA in mice congenic for a DBA/1 fragment introgressed onto the B10.Q background (Ahlqvist *et al.* manuscript in preparation). Suggestive linkage close to regions previously identified in other crosses and disease induction protocols (SLE, CIA EAE) were identified on chromosome 1, 6, 8, 10, 11, and 18.

This F2 intercross contained a limited number of animals, thus, reducing the power to detect significant linkages. Therefore, it would be worthwhile to analyze the suggestive linkages in additional crosses. Indeed, in paper II the QTL on chromosome 11 is reproduced to the same peak marker in a different genetic context and shows significant linkage to incidence of chronic EAE.

## **Paper II.**

### ***Novel quantitative trait loci controlling development of experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis and proportion of lymphocyte subpopulations***

To study the genetic contribution to EAE development in a backcross of the B10.RIII and RIIS/J strains, we immunized more than 400 N2 backcross mice with the MBP peptide 89-101. In the context of a backcross, the genetic variance is reduced compared to an F2 intercross, and may neutralize or reduce the impact of previously identified QTL. We expected to detect the most penetrant loci and since the *Eae2* locus conferred susceptibility in heterozygous state interacting with B10.RIII homozygous alleles in *Eae3* in the previous F2 experiment, we expected to detect this interaction. Although, the importance of the *Eae2* locus in EAE was confirmed in this backcross experiment, the inheritance of susceptibility alleles was opposite to expectation. Intriguingly, mice heterozygous in a broad region close to *Eae2* were protected from disease development. This region extended down to the middle of the chromosome apparently indicating the involvement of genes other than those within *Eae2*. Furthermore, in line with our expectation, we did not observe an effect from the *Eae3* QTL since in the backcross there were no homozygous RIIS/J alleles.

As expected, we detected some new QTL not previously detected in this strain combination. As observed in other linkage screens we detected some gender specific loci (137). Moreover, linkages on chromosomes 11, 16, and 18 might represent loci previously found in the SJL/J- B10.S strain combination; *Eae6b*, *Eae7* and *Eae23* (chromosome 11) *Eae11* (chromosome 16) and *Eae18* (chromosome 18). The three

peaks on chromosome 11 are homologous to a region on rat chromosome 10, which controls development of EAE (138).

By careful interpretation of clinical scores, we divided the sick mice into three clinical sub-groups; chronic, acute, or relapsing-relapsing disease. We concluded that the different clinical subgroups were influenced by different QTL. The importance of categorization of disease development and the linkages to different QTL has previously been reported in a F2 linkage study. Furthermore, it has proven relevant to study clinical sub groups in genetic studies of MS. A previously identified QTL on human chromosome 6 just outside the HLA has been linked to MS (139). Analysis of allele frequencies in this particular locus revealed an increased frequency of a certain alleles in patients with early onset of relapsing-relapsing MS (140).

Furthermore, we aimed at finding sub-phenotypes, which could reflect a biological pathway in disease. Studying sub-phenotypes of the disease instead of consider disease as one entity might enhance the power of QTL detection in linkage studies. Therefore, we investigated lymphocyte phenotypes possibly involved in the pathogenesis. The CD4<sup>+</sup>/CD8<sup>+</sup> T cell ratio was linked to the *Eae2* and, the % CD4<sup>+</sup> and % CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells were linked to the *Cia22* (*Cia5/Eae3* see paper III and IV). We conclude that the study of sub phenotypes might detangle the complexity of autoimmune disease and ease the understanding of what pathways are of importance.

### **Paper III.**

#### ***Identification of epistasis through a partial advanced intercross reveals three arthritis loci within the Cia5 QTL in mice***

This study aims at identifying interacting genes in pathways determining disease outcome. The *Cia5/Eae3* locus has been reported to control several autoimmune disorders. The original QTL for diabetes susceptibility *Idd10*, has been mapped close to the *Eae3/Cia5* locus and was found to consist of three sub-QTL each with a subtle disease phenotype (141). Here, we demonstrate by using sub-congenic mice, that the *Cia5/Eae3* congenic fragment, referred to as R3 in the paper, contains several disease-modifying genes. In line with the heredity pattern of the diabetes loci, the sub-

congenic fragments contributed to disease in an additive fashion with the strongest disease phenotype seen in the R3 fragment. By excluding mycobacterial adjuvance (IFA) from the induction protocol, it was possible to enhance the CIA phenotype considerably in the R3 congenic mice. Furthermore, the R3 fragment conferred almost complete resistance to collagen-antibody induced arthritis (CAIA). It became clear that genes in the more centromeric sub-congenic fragment controlled the CIA-IFA disease phenotype. The more telomeric fragment did not affect CIA-IFA but showed a later onset of collagen-antibody induced arthritis (CAIA). This indicates that genes within the large R3 fragment work together to confer resistance to arthritis. We conclude that by modifying the disease induction protocol it is possible to enhance the phenotype considerably and enable the narrowing down of linked genetic distance.

To obtain a higher penetrance of the various subloci within the *Cia5/Eae3* congenic fragment, we needed to better define the genetic context in which they operate. Furthermore, we aimed at identifying the genes in *Eae2* and understanding the genetic interactions conferring the exacerbated disease development in mice heterozygous in the fragment. We took advantage of the formerly identified interaction between *Eae2* and *Eae3* in susceptibility to EAE, (107) and bred the *Eae2* and *Eae3* congenic mice together to produce bi-congenic mice. These mice were intercrossed in a partial advanced intercross (PAI) for 8 generations and thus, accumulating recombinations for every generation. The mice not chosen for breeding the next generation were immunized with CIA-IFA and altogether more than 1000 mice were studied for different disease phenotypes.

We identified three sub-QTL, *Cia5*, *Cia21*, and *Cia22* within the original *Cia5/Eae3* QTL and four loci in the *Eae2* congenic fragment; *Cia26*, *Cia30*, *Cia31*, and *Cia32*. The three subloci on chromosome 3 each interacted uniquely with loci on chromosome 15 and we demonstrate that by altering the genotype on the interacting locus on chromosome 15, the penetrance of the genes in each of the loci on chromosome 3 could be modulated. Interestingly, alleles descending from the protected RIIS/J strain in a sublocus on chromosome 15 conferred exaggerated disease development. Mice heterozygous in this particular locus made the identification of the subloci on chromosome 3 possible. The importance of modifier

genes has been discussed before and the work by Morel et al. 1999 has showed how the *Sles1* modifier locus crucially affects the disease outcome inherited from the *Sle1* locus. Importantly, loci controlling complex traits seem to harbor multiple genes influencing subtle disease phenotypes (142). We therefore suggest using the new strategy, PAI to highly resolve the genetic map through the use of two congenic fragments harboring genes previously shown to interact. This method eliminates disturbing genes in the background, which might reduce the penetrance of the studied genes.

#### **Paper IV.**

##### ***Genetic interactions in Eae2 control collagen- induced arthritis and the CD4<sup>+</sup>/CD8<sup>+</sup> T cell ratio***

The centromeric region of mouse chromosome 15 have been shown to control several experimental models of inflammatory disease such as EAE (*Eae2*), proteoglycan-induced arthritis (*Pgia8*) (108), *Borrelia burgdorferi*-associated arthritis (*Bbaa14*) (143), Theiler's murine encephalomyelitis virus-induced demyelination (*Tmevd8*) (144), and progression of autoimmune arthritis in MRL mice (*Paam1*) (145). As discussed earlier, QTL controlling autoimmune diseases in experimental models seem to cluster in the genome and it could be speculated whether the same genes or pathways operate in several autoimmune diseases. Another point of view is that genes potentially involved in the development of autoimmunity are clustered in the genome and this would explain the aggregations of QTL (113).

First, we investigated the *Eae2* locus for CIA even though this locus has not been linked to arthritis in any cross between the B10.RIII-RIIS/J mouse strains. Interestingly, mice heterozygous for the fragment developed an exacerbated disease and to our surprise there was a sex influence. Moreover, mice homozygous for RIIS/J alleles in the congenic fragment indeed reduced the disease severity in females and a tendency was seen for this also in males, thus supporting the previous statement of the inheritance pattern observed in development of EAE (107). To investigate the proposed interaction between the *Eae2* and the *Eae3* loci we performed a partially advanced intercross (PAI) (discussed in paper III). We investigated more than 1000



mice for different aspects of CIA and concluded that four sub-QTL within the *Eae2* locus (*Cia26*, *Cia30*, *Cia31*, and *Cia32*) are involved in CIA development. We pinned down the region conferring protection from CIA to the centromeric part of *Eae2*, *Cia30*. On the other hand, mice with homozygous RIIS/J alleles in the *Cia26* sub-QTL (in the telomeric region of *Eae2*) and homozygous B10.RIII alleles in *Cia30* developed an exacerbated disease course, which in addition was female specific. Furthermore, heterozygous alleles in the *Cia32* interacted with two B10.RIII alleles in the *Cia22* locus on chromosome 3 also specifically for females. Males heterozygous in *Cia31* and homozygous B10.RIII in *Cia5* developed more severe disease before boost. These intra- and inter-chromosomal interactions visualize the extreme complexity of the disease taking into account that this method only considers two out of many QTL for CIA development.

As discussed earlier, not only definition of the genetic context is of importance to identify genes or pathways controlling complex diseases. We investigated the expression of the co-stimulatory marker B7.2 on stimulated macrophages from the *Eae2* congenic mice and B10.RIII wt and observed that one or two RIIS/J alleles in the fragment altered the density of this marker on the cell-surfaces. Since co-stimulation is crucial for antigen-presentation function we consider this as a relevant phenotype. Furthermore, we analyzed the CD4<sup>+</sup>/CD8<sup>+</sup> T cell ratio as a putative sub-phenotype of CIA. The CD4<sup>+</sup>/CD8<sup>+</sup> T cell ratio was increased in the *Eae2* but not in *Eae3* congenic mice. In the backcross experiment (paper II) the ratio was linked to the *Eae2* region but not to *Eae3*. However, the %CD4<sup>+</sup> and %CD8<sup>+</sup> was linked to the *Eae3* region.

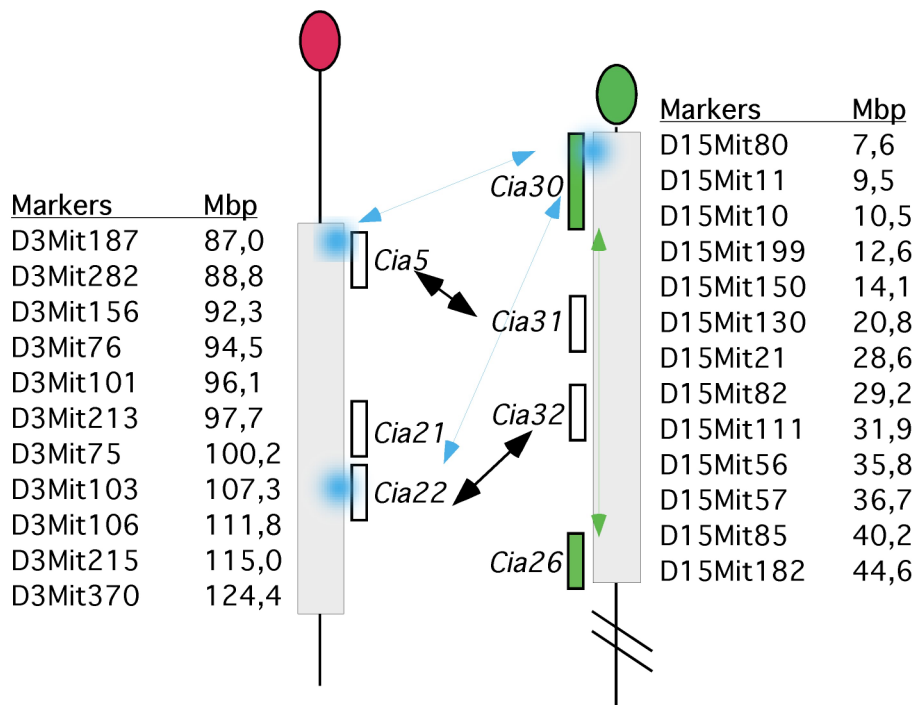
In the PAI mice, we showed how the CD4<sup>+</sup>/CD8<sup>+</sup> T cell ratio is linked to the *Cia30* (T cell ratio modifier QTL; *Trmq4*) by interacting with *Cia5* (*Trmq5*) and *Cia22* (*Trmq6*) on chromosome 3. Furthermore, in line with the backcross data, the %CD4<sup>+</sup> and %CD8<sup>+</sup> is linked to the same marker within the novel sub-QTL *Cia22*. Moreover, the %CD8<sup>+</sup> is also linked to the *Cia30* QTL. Taken together, by using the novel strategy of a PAI it is possible to increase the power to detect genetic interactions of complex phenotypes enabling the pinning down of the linked genetic regions.

## Discussion and Conclusions

The work in this thesis provides a new strategy to characterize the genetics in order to unravel the phenotypic complexity of an autoimmune disease. By breeding bi-congenic mice in a partial advanced intercross (PAI), we have demonstrated a method to increase the penetrance of the genes in a QTL. Linkage analysis as such is built on genetic recombinations in the genome, and in the PAI strategy we collect mice with recombinations within a limited genetic interval thereby limiting the genetic complexity to two defined QTL. The analysis of interactions between two QTL and the understanding of the inheritance pattern for the phenotype, provide more statistical power to isolate the genes and further on to comprehend the genetic pathways. The data obtained from such fine-mapping strategies makes it possible to analyze data from studies in humans such that interacting loci could be taken into account. Furthermore, the importance of well-defined phenotypes is visualized through that different regions are linked to different disease sub-phenotypes.

How do we proceed to clone the gene in the respective sub-QTL? The first step is to produce sub-congenic lines for each sub-QTL containing small fragments that control the phenotype. The complex inheritance of the sub-QTL in *Eae2* is summarized in figure 3. The *Cia26* region conferred a strong disease phenotype in female mice. With the gender specificity in mind, this region is suitable for a candidate gene approach. By sequencing candidate genes, any polymorphisms between the two strains are detected. Furthermore, if they are located in the coding region they might confer an amino acid shift altering the function of the protein. However, SNPs in noncoding region are also of interest eg. regulatory functions. To ultimately conclude that a candidate gene is involved in the phenotype transgenic mice could be established. By transferring the gene polymorphism from the RIIS/J to wildtype B10.RIII mice it is possible to investigate whether the transgenic mice behave similar to the congenic mice in disease development. Furthermore, it is possible to investigate existing gene knockouts for the phenotype or else producing such knockout as well as knockin mice.

It has been relatively easy to find recombinations in the *Cia30* and thus it is a suitable locus for making small overlapping congenic lines and subsequently positionally clone the gene. Furthermore, this region is not as dense in genes as many other regions. The bottleneck for this approach is markers; hence finding SNP markers in this region is a prioritized step. Heterozygous alleles in *Cia31* and *Cia32* were linked to exacerbated disease in males and females, respectively. There are few markers in *Cia31* and thus, finding the gene/s in this region would possibly not be achievable by regular positional cloning. Here, it would be useful to take advantage of the dense recombination frequency found in the outbred heterogeneous stock (HS) mice. The HS mice are originally bred from eight mouse strains including the B10.RIII and RIIIS/J strains. By phenotyping a set of these mice and genotype the mice with a dense set of genetic markers it would be possible to decrease the genetic distance in the region considerably. The *Cia32* was strongly interacting with the *Cia22* on chromosome 3 conferring exacerbated disease in female mice. By narrowing down the two QTL and investigate the candidate genes in these regions it would be possible to speculate in putative interactions of candidate genes.



**Figure 3.** Sub-QTL in *Eae2* interacting within chromosome 15 (green arrow) and with chromosome 3 (black arrows). The interactive loci controlling the T cell ratio (*Trmq4*, *Trmq5*, and *Trmq6*) are indicated in blue.

Moreover, by investigating the sub-QTL for different disease phenotypes such as CIA and CAIA it would be possible to speculate whether the fragment controls the initiation phase or the effector phase of the disease. Investigation of sub-phenotypes concerning e.g. T cells, APCs or antibody-response etc, will further pin-point the action of the candidate gene.

The identification of genes involved in complex inflammatory diseases is in the initiation phase. Several linkage studies in both rodents and humans conclude that QTL for different autoimmune diseases co-localize in the genome and it is valid to speculate whether the same genes may operate in different autoimmune diseases. Indeed, as already discussed, different alleles of several polymorphic genes have been associated to different diseases. Both the *PDCD1* and the *PTPN22* are involved in T cell activation, and the involvement of these genes in several autoimmune diseases may mirror a common activation pathway. Also the *Il7-R* and the *LAG3* gene, which recently have been associated to MS, are involved in T cell homeostasis and T cell activation, respectively (132). Moreover, in a gene expression analysis using a *Cia5/Eae3* QTL-chip to investigate differentially expressed genes in arthritis, several T cell specific genes were found (146). Accumulating data will piece by piece add to the picture of what pathways are implicated in the pathogenesises of RA and MS. The finding of biological pathways in sub phenotypes such as T cell activation may give an insight in how an autoimmune attack may occur and provide a target for drug development.

## Populärvetenskaplig sammanfattning

Rheumatoid Artrit (RA) och Multipel Skleros (MS) är autoimmuna sjukdomar som drabbar ca 1 % respektive 0.2 % av den nordeuropeiska befolkningen där kvinnor drabbas oftare än män. Dessa sjukdomar orsakas av att immunförsvaret attackerar kroppsegen vävnad. En fortgående inflammation förstör vävnaden och leder till nedsatt funktion. I RA angrips framför allt leder kan bli deformerade och förlora sin rörlighet. Även andra organ kan ibland vara inblandade och därför anses RA vara en systemisk sjukdom. MS är däremot en mer organ specifik sjukdom och drabbar det centrala nervsystemet (CNS). Det skyddande myelinet som omger nervfibrer bryts ned och beroende på var inflammationen är i hjärna och ryggmärg påverkas olika funktioner. Dubbelseende är ofta ett tidigt symptom i MS och orsakas av demyelinisering av den optiska nerven. Accumulering av sklerotiska plack i CNS leder så småningom till en successiv försämring som kan leda till svåra funktionshinder och förlamning.

Orsaken till dessa mycket komplexa sjukdomar är okänd men flera gener samt miljöfaktorer är inblandade. För att öka kunskapen om sjukdomarna och finna bättre mediciner är det viktigt att identifiera dessa gener. Den genetiska arvsmassan skiljer sig stort mellan individer och pga att olika kombinationer av många gener orsakar sjukdomarna. Detta gör det mycket svårt att finna nyckel generna i människa. Djurmodeller av de mänskliga sjukdomarna har fördelen att vi har kontroll över både miljöfaktorer och genetiken då vi använder inavlade stammar. I denna avhandling har vi utvecklat nya metoder för att förstå genetiken bakom RA och MS. Vi har visat att kollagen inducerad artrit, djurmodellen för RA samt djurmodellen för MS, experimentell autoimmun encefalomyelit (EAE) styrs av flera olika gener. Vi har visat att initeringsfasen och den kroniska fasen av artrit ej styrs av samma gener samt att interaktion av flera gener leder till olika förlopp. Vi har hittat genområden som styr vissa celltyper involverade i MS och RA. Vår forskningen hjälper oss att bättre förstå hur olika gener agerar tillsammans i utvecklingen av autoimmuna sjukdomar. I förlängningen kan detta leda till utveckling av nya och bättre läkemedel.

## Acknowledgements

This work has been performed at the Medical Inflammation Research department at Lund University and I wish to express my sincere gratitude to all members of the lab for creating a great scientific and friendly atmosphere in the lab.

Especially, I would like to thank my supervisor **Dr Åsa Andersson** for your enormous scientific enthusiasm, for your 24-7 availability for discussions, and for a great project! Moreover, for your [w'rmindska hjumr], contagious expressions and, for all the support.

**Prof. Rikard Holmdahl**, for being my co-supervisor, for creating an open-minded scientific atmosphere in the lab, for your great enthusiasm and inspiration.

From Immunology dept, **Dr Sanna Cardell**, for introducing me to science and to my supervisor, and **Prof. Fredrik Ivars** for T cell collaborations.

**Martina**, my friend and “collaboratrice”, for critically reading this thesis, for all the inspiration and friendship, for interactions! Ja, Rut + Knut = sant! Soon, we will get there.. **Meirav**, for critically reading this thesis, for being a wise friend, for always finding alternative ways to look at things, for your enthusiasm and genuine way.

**Alexandra**, my lab-sister and friend, for your support and friendship, and for ALL THE HELP! **Anna-Karin**, for friendship, and for all your support. **Lina** for critically reading this thesis, friendship and fun. **Emma A**, my chromosome 15 buddy, thanks for critically reading this thesis, and for all the fun. **Therese**, for friendship and collaborations, and for critically reading this thesis. **Robert**, for being my friend, and for always reading in between the lines. **Isabell**, for all the help with the mice and genotyping and for being tolerant to my protocols! Thankyou! **Margareta**, for support and friendship, for great rides together and help with Bacardi. **Malin H**, for all the fun lunches and being a super nice person. **Malin N**, for great collaboration, for your open smiley face, making me smile always. **Lena**, for your scientific enthusiasm,

sense of humor and artistic skills. **Estelle**, for being a supportive friend. **Thomas**, for angry faces and chocolate and for always being so kind, and for shared interest in 4-leg drive. **Angel**, for social events and making sure everybody is happy. **Jonathan**, **Yawei** and **Myassa**, my office neighbors, for making our room fun. **Emma M**, for your sense of humor. **Solveig**, for being so nice and caring, for being helpful and easy-going. **Nandakumar**, for interesting ideas, for being curious and for storage room collaboration. **Casse**, for your laid back style, comforting! **Carlos**, **Rebecka**, and **Sandy** for making the animal house a nice place to work in and for being so helpful. **Balik**, **Eszter**, **Kyra**, **Carola**, **Mikael**, **Johan B** and, **Shohreh** for your scientific knowledge, and for making the lab such a fun place to be in.

I also want to thank the former members of Medical Inflammation Research, particularly **Zhao** and **Irina** for great collaborations. **Alexandre C**, pour ton amitié, et pour la bicyclette. **Jens**, **Lasse S**, **Ingrid**, **Anna**, **Peter O**, **Åsa J**, **Sharam**, **Ann-Sofie**, **Kang**, **Hisakata**, and **Victor**, for a great time in the lab. **Johan J**, for introducing me to *Eae2*. **Shemin**, for helping me with statistics. **Patrik**, for statistic calculations, fantastic interaction images and for the Mumin in you.

**My father**, Lasse, for all your support and encouragement throughout life. For your energy and all our discussions about everything that matters in life.

My sister, **Hanna**, for critically reading this thesis, for your support and friendship and for always being there.

Finally, my love, **Mattias**, for being the best person in the world, for all support and encouragement, and for the future. And my son **Noah**, little star-dust, for being absolutely wonderful.

This work was supported by grants from the Swedish Research Council, the Swedish Rheumatism Association, the Craaford Foundation, the Greta and John Kock Foundation, Åke Wiberg Foundation, Thorsten and Elsa Segerfalk Foundation, Börje Dahlin Foundation, Prof. Nanna Schvarts Foundation, King Gustav V 80-years Foundation, Österlund Foundation, and Kungliga Fysiografiska Sällskapet in Lund.

## References

1. Lawrence, R. C., C. G. Helmick, F. C. Arnett, R. A. Deyo, D. T. Felson, E. H. Giannini, S. P. Heyse, R. Hirsch, M. C. Hochberg, G. G. Hunder, M. H. Liang, S. R. Pillemer, V. D. Steen, and F. Wolfe. 1998. Estimates of the prevalence of arthritis and selected musculoskeletal disorders in the United States. *Arthritis Rheum* 41:778.
2. Kurtzke, J. F. 1993. Epidemiologic evidence for multiple sclerosis as an infection. *Clin Microbiol Rev* 6:382.
3. Lei, C., Z. Dongqing, S. Yeqing, M. K. Oaks, C. Lishan, J. Jianzhong, Q. Jie, D. Fang, L. Ningli, H. Xinghai, and R. Daming. 2005. Association of the CTLA-4 gene with rheumatoid arthritis in Chinese Han population. *Eur J Hum Genet* 13:823.
4. Suppiah, V., I. Alloza, S. Heggarty, A. Goris, B. Dubois, H. Carton, and K. Vandenbroeck. 2005. The CTLA4 +49 A/G\*G-CT60\*G haplotype is associated with susceptibility to multiple sclerosis in Flanders. *J Neuroimmunol* 164:148.
5. Viken, M. K., S. S. Amundsen, T. K. Kvien, K. M. Boberg, I. M. Gilboe, V. Lilleby, L. M. Sollid, O. T. Forre, E. Thorsby, A. Smerdel, and B. A. Lie. 2005. Association analysis of the 1858C>T polymorphism in the PTPN22 gene in juvenile idiopathic arthritis and other autoimmune diseases. *Genes Immun* 6:271.
6. Alarcon-Riquelme, M. E. 2005. The genetics of shared autoimmunity. *Autoimmunity* 38:205.
7. Peltekova, V. D., R. F. Wintle, L. A. Rubin, C. I. Amos, Q. Huang, X. Gu, B. Newman, M. Van Oene, D. Cescon, G. Greenberg, A. M. Griffiths, P. H. St George-Hyslop, and K. A. Siminovich. 2004. Functional variants of OCTN cation transporter genes are associated with Crohn disease. *Nat Genet* 36:471.
8. Tokuihiro, S., R. Yamada, X. Chang, A. Suzuki, Y. Kochi, T. Sawada, M. Suzuki, M. Nagasaki, M. Ohtsuki, M. Ono, H. Furukawa, M. Nagashima, S. Yoshino, A. Mabuchi, A. Sekine, S. Saito, A. Takahashi, T. Tsunoda, Y. Nakamura, and K. Yamamoto. 2003. An intronic SNP in a RUNX1 binding site of SLC22A4, encoding an organic cation transporter, is associated with rheumatoid arthritis. *Nat Genet* 35:341.
9. Andersson, A., and R. Holmdahl. 2005. A genetic basis for shared autoimmunity in mouse models. *Autoimmunity* 38:209.
10. Olofsson, P., J. Holmberg, J. Tordsson, S. Lu, B. Akerstrom, and R. Holmdahl. 2003. Positional identification of Ncf1 as a gene that regulates arthritis severity in rats. *Nat Genet* 33:25.
11. Kuchroo, V. K., M. P. Das, J. A. Brown, A. M. Ranger, S. S. Zamvil, R. A. Sobel, H. L. Weiner, N. Nabavi, and L. H. Glimcher. 1995. B7-1 and B7-2 costimulatory molecules activate differentially the Th1/Th2 developmental pathways: application to autoimmune disease therapy. *Cell* 80:707.
12. Zehntner, S. P., M. Brisebois, E. Tran, T. Owens, and S. Fournier. 2003. Constitutive expression of a costimulatory ligand on antigen-presenting cells in the nervous system drives demyelinating disease. *Faseb J* 17:1910.
13. Girvin, A. M., M. C. Dal Canto, L. Rhee, B. Salomon, A. Sharpe, J. A. Bluestone, and S. D. Miller. 2000. A critical role for B7/CD28 costimulation in experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis: a comparative study using costimulatory molecule-deficient mice and monoclonal antibody blockade. *J Immunol* 164:136.
14. Mauri, C., R. O. Williams, M. Walmsley, and M. Feldmann. 1996. Relationship between Th1/Th2 cytokine patterns and the arthritogenic response in collagen-induced arthritis. *Eur J Immunol* 26:1511.
15. Koehler, N. K., C. P. Genain, B. Giesser, and S. L. Hauser. 2002. The human T cell response to myelin oligodendrocyte glycoprotein: a multiple sclerosis family-based study. *J Immunol* 168:5920.
16. Miossec, P. 2000. Are T cells in rheumatoid synovium aggressors or bystanders? *Curr Opin Rheumatol* 12:181.
17. Feldmann, M., F. M. Brennan, E. Paleolog, A. Cope, P. Taylor, R. Williams, J. Woody, and R. N. Maini. 2004. Anti-TNFalpha therapy of rheumatoid arthritis: what can we learn about chronic disease? *Novartis Found Symp* 256:53.



18. Arnett, F. C., S. M. Edworthy, D. A. Bloch, D. J. McShane, J. F. Fries, N. S. Cooper, L. A. Healey, S. R. Kaplan, M. H. Liang, H. S. Luthra, and a. et. 1988. The American Rheumatism Association 1987 revised criteria for the classification of rheumatoid arthritis. *Arthritis Rheum* 31:315.
19. van Roon, J. A., F. P. Lafeber, and J. W. Bijlsma. 2001. Synergistic activity of interleukin-4 and interleukin-10 in suppression of inflammation and joint destruction in rheumatoid arthritis. *Arthritis Rheum* 44:3.
20. Fukaura, H., S. C. Kent, M. J. Pietrusewicz, S. J. Khoury, H. L. Weiner, and D. A. Hafler. 1996. Antigen-specific TGF-beta1 secretion with bovine myelin oral tolerization in multiple sclerosis. *Ann N Y Acad Sci* 778:251.
21. Fukaura, H., S. C. Kent, M. J. Pietrusewicz, S. J. Khoury, H. L. Weiner, and D. A. Hafler. 1996. Induction of circulating myelin basic protein and proteolipid protein-specific transforming growth factor-beta1-secreting Th3 T cells by oral administration of myelin in multiple sclerosis patients. *J Clin Invest* 98:70.
22. Taniuchi, I., M. Osato, T. Egawa, M. J. Sunshine, S. C. Bae, T. Komori, Y. Ito, and D. R. Littman. 2002. Differential requirements for Runx proteins in CD4 repression and epigenetic silencing during T lymphocyte development. *Cell* 111:621.
23. Hernandez-Hoyos, G., S. J. Sohn, E. V. Rothenberg, and J. Alberola-Ila. 2000. Lck activity controls CD4/CD8 T cell lineage commitment. *Immunity* 12:313.
24. Singer, A. 2002. New perspectives on a developmental dilemma: the kinetic signaling model and the importance of signal duration for the CD4/CD8 lineage decision. *Curr Opin Immunol* 14:207.
25. Fujimoto, Y., L. Tu, A. S. Miller, C. Bock, M. Fujimoto, C. Doyle, D. A. Steeber, and T. F. Tedder. 2002. CD83 expression influences CD4+ T cell development in the thymus. *Cell* 108:755.
26. Volkman, A., T. Zal, and B. Stockinger. 1997. Antigen-presenting cells in the thymus that can negatively select MHC class II-restricted T cells recognizing a circulating self antigen. *J Immunol* 158:693.
27. Samms, M., M. Martinez, S. Fousse, M. Pezzano, and J. C. Guyden. 2001. Circulating macrophages as well as developing thymocytes are enclosed within thymic nurse cells. *Cell Immunol* 212:16.
28. Duarte, N., Penha-Goncalves, C. 2001. The MHC locus controls size variations in the CD4 compartment of the mouse thymus. *Immunogenetics* 53:662.
29. Damoiseaux, J. G., B. Cautain, I. Bernard, M. Mas, P. J. van Breda Vriesman, P. Druet, G. Fournie, and A. Saoudi. 1999. A dominant role for the thymus and MHC genes in determining the peripheral CD4/CD8 T cell ratio in the rat. *J Immunol* 163:2983.
30. Farr, A. G., J. L. Dooley, and M. Erickson. 2002. Organization of thymic medullary epithelial heterogeneity: implications for mechanisms of epithelial differentiation. *Immunol Rev* 189:20.
31. Rodewald, H. R., S. Paul, C. Haller, H. Bluethmann, and C. Blum. 2001. Thymus medulla consisting of epithelial islets each derived from a single progenitor. *Nature* 414:763.
32. Gallegos, A. M., and M. J. Bevan. 2004. Central tolerance to tissue-specific antigens mediated by direct and indirect antigen presentation. *J Exp Med* 200:1039.
33. de Bont, E. S., C. R. Reilly, D. Lo, L. H. Glimcher, and T. M. Laufer. 1999. A minimal level of MHC class II expression is sufficient to abrogate autoreactivity. *Int Immunol* 11:1295.
34. Manoury, B., D. Mazzeo, L. Fugger, N. Viner, M. Ponsford, H. Streeter, G. Mazza, D. C. Wraith, and C. Watts. 2002. Destructive processing by asparagine endopeptidase limits presentation of a dominant T cell epitope in MBP. *Nat Immunol* 3:169.
35. Gett, A. V., F. Sallusto, A. Lanzavecchia, and J. Geginat. 2003. T cell fitness determined by signal strength. *Nat Immunol* 4:355.
36. Mowat, A. M. 2003. Anatomical basis of tolerance and immunity to intestinal antigens. *Nat Rev Immunol* 3:331.
37. Hernandez, J., S. Aung, W. L. Redmond, and L. A. Sherman. 2001. Phenotypic and functional analysis of CD8(+) T cells undergoing peripheral deletion in response to cross-presentation of self-antigen. *J Exp Med* 194:707.
38. Oldstone, M. B., M. Nerenberg, P. Southern, J. Price, and H. Lewicki. 1991. Virus infection triggers insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus in a transgenic model: role of anti-self (virus) immune response. *Cell* 65:319.
39. Paust, S., L. Lu, N. McCarty, and H. Cantor. 2004. Engagement of B7 on effector T cells by regulatory T cells prevents autoimmune disease. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 101:10398.

40. Fallarino, F., U. Grohmann, K. W. Hwang, C. Orabona, C. Vacca, R. Bianchi, M. L. Belladonna, M. C. Fioretti, M. L. Alegre, and P. Puccetti. 2003. Modulation of tryptophan catabolism by regulatory T cells. *Nat Immunol* 4:1206.
41. Fontenot, J. D., M. A. Gavin, and A. Y. Rudensky. 2003. Foxp3 programs the development and function of CD4+CD25+ regulatory T cells. *Nat Immunol* 4:330.
42. Hori, S., T. Nomura, and S. Sakaguchi. 2003. Control of regulatory T cell development by the transcription factor Foxp3. *Science* 299:1057.
43. Tran, C. N., S. K. Lundy, and D. A. Fox. 2005. Synovial biology and T cells in rheumatoid arthritis. *Pathophysiology*
44. Jessop, D. S., and M. S. Harbuz. 2005. A defect in cortisol production in rheumatoid arthritis: why are we still looking? *Rheumatology (Oxford)* 44:1097.
45. Garcia-Maurino, S., D. Pozo, A. Carrillo-Vico, J. R. Calvo, and J. M. Guerrero. 1999. Melatonin activates Th1 lymphocytes by increasing IL-12 production. *Life Sci* 65:2143.
46. Hansson, I., R. Holmdahl, and R. Mattsson. 1992. The pineal hormone melatonin exaggerates development of collagen-induced arthritis in mice. *J Neuroimmunol* 39:23.
47. Zangger, P., E. C. Keystone, and E. R. Bogoch. 2005. Asymmetry of small joint involvement in rheumatoid arthritis: prevalence and tendency towards symmetry over time. *Joint Bone Spine* 72:241.
48. Blankenhorn, E. P., Butterfield, R. J., Rigby, R., Cort, L., Giambrone, D., McDermott, P., McEntee, K., Solowski, N., Meeker, N. D., Zachary, J. F., Doerge, R. W., Teuscher, C. 2000. Genetic analysis of the influence of pertussis toxin on experimental allergic encephalomyelitis susceptibility: an environmental agent can override genetic checkpoints. *J Immunol* 164:3420.
49. Sayah, A., and J. C. r. English. 2005. Rheumatoid arthritis: a review of the cutaneous manifestations. *J Am Acad Dermatol* 53:191.
50. Chaiamnuay, S., and S. L. J. Bridges. 2005. The role of B cells and autoantibodies in rheumatoid arthritis. *Pathophysiology*
51. van Boekel, M. A., E. R. Vossenaar, F. H. van den Hoogen, and W. J. van Venrooij. 2002. Autoantibody systems in rheumatoid arthritis: specificity, sensitivity and diagnostic value. *Arthritis Res* 4:87.
52. Rantapaa-Dahlqvist, S., B. A. de Jong, E. Berglin, G. Hallmans, G. Wadell, H. Stenlund, U. Sundin, and W. J. van Venrooij. 2003. Antibodies against cyclic citrullinated peptide and IgA rheumatoid factor predict the development of rheumatoid arthritis. *Arthritis Rheum* 48:2741.
53. Rantapaa-Dahlqvist, S. 2005. Diagnostic and prognostic significance of autoantibodies in early rheumatoid arthritis. *Scand J Rheumatol* 34:83.
54. Shin, Y. S., J. H. Choi, D. H. Nahm, H. S. Park, J. H. Cho, and C. H. Suh. 2005. Rheumatoid Factor is a Marker of Disease Severity in Korean Rheumatoid Arthritis. *Yonsei Med J* 46:464.
55. van der Helm-van Mil, A. H., K. N. Verpoort, F. C. Breedveld, R. E. Toes, and T. W. Huizinga. 2005. Antibodies to citrullinated proteins and differences in clinical progression of rheumatoid arthritis. *Arthritis Res Ther* 7:R949.
56. Feldmann, M., F. M. Brennan, and R. N. Maini. 1996. Rheumatoid arthritis. *Cell* 85:307.
57. MacGregor, A. J., H. Snieder, A. S. Rigby, M. Koskenvuo, J. Kaprio, K. Aho, and A. J. Silman. 2000. Characterizing the quantitative genetic contribution to rheumatoid arthritis using data from twins. *Arthritis Rheum* 43:30.
58. Gregersen, P. K. 2005. Pathways to gene identification in rheumatoid arthritis: PTPN22 and beyond. *Immunol Rev* 204:74.
59. Moreno, I., A. Valenzuela, A. Garcia, J. Yelamos, B. Sanchez, and W. Hernanz. 1996. Association of the shared epitope with radiological severity of rheumatoid arthritis. *J Rheumatol* 23:6.
60. Weyand, C. M., C. Xie, and J. J. Goronzy. 1992. Homozygosity for the HLA-DRB1 allele selects for extraarticular manifestations in rheumatoid arthritis. *J Clin Invest* 89:2033.
61. Padyukov, L., C. Silva, P. Stolt, L. Alfredsson, and L. Klareskog. 2004. A gene-environment interaction between smoking and shared epitope genes in HLA-DR provides a high risk of seropositive rheumatoid arthritis. *Arthritis Rheum* 50:3085.
62. van Gaalen, F. A., J. van Aken, T. W. Huizinga, G. M. Schreuder, F. C. Breedveld, E. Zanelli, W. J. van Venrooij, C. L. Verweij, R. E. Toes, and R. R. de Vries. 2004. Association between HLA class II genes and autoantibodies to cyclic citrullinated peptides (CCPs) influences the severity of rheumatoid arthritis. *Arthritis Rheum* 50:2113.
63. Kurtzke, J. F. 2000. Multiple sclerosis in time and space--geographic clues to cause. *J Neurovirol* 6 Suppl 2:S134.

64. Croxford, J. L., J. K. Olson, H. A. Anger, and S. D. Miller. 2005. Initiation and exacerbation of autoimmune demyelination of the central nervous system via virus-induced molecular mimicry: implications for the pathogenesis of multiple sclerosis. *J Virol* 79:8581.
65. Tejada-Simon, M. V., Y. C. Zang, J. Hong, V. M. Rivera, and J. Z. Zhang. 2003. Cross-reactivity with myelin basic protein and human herpesvirus-6 in multiple sclerosis. *Ann Neurol* 53:189.
66. Fotheringham, J., and S. Jacobson. 2005. Human herpesvirus 6 and multiple sclerosis: potential mechanisms for virus-induced disease. *Herpes* 12:4.
67. Hafler, D. A., and H. L. Weiner. 1987. In vivo labeling of blood T cells: rapid traffic into cerebrospinal fluid in multiple sclerosis. *Ann Neurol* 22:89.
68. Baranzini, S. E., C. Elfstrom, S. Y. Chang, C. Butunoi, R. Murray, R. Higuchi, and J. R. Oksenberg. 2000. Transcriptional analysis of multiple sclerosis brain lesions reveals a complex pattern of cytokine expression. *J Immunol* 165:6576.
69. Lucchinetti, C. F., W. Bruck, M. Rodriguez, and H. Lassmann. 1996. Distinct patterns of multiple sclerosis pathology indicates heterogeneity on pathogenesis. *Brain Pathol* 6:259.
70. Sadovnick, A. D., P. A. Baird, and R. H. Ward. 1988. Multiple sclerosis: updated risks for relatives. *Am J Med Genet* 29:533.
71. Mackay, R. P., and N. C. Myrianthopoulos. 1966. Multiple sclerosis in twins and their relatives. *Arch Neurol* 15:449.
72. Hafler, D. A., J. M. Slavik, D. E. Anderson, K. C. O'Connor, P. De Jager, and C. Baecher-Allan. 2005. Multiple sclerosis. *Immunol Rev* 204:208.
73. Weatherby, S. J., W. Thomson, L. Pepper, R. Donn, J. Worthington, C. L. Mann, M. B. Davies, A. A. Fryer, M. D. Boggild, C. A. Young, P. W. Jones, R. C. Strange, W. E. Ollier, and C. P. Hawkins. 2001. HLA-DRB1 and disease outcome in multiple sclerosis. *J Neurol* 248:304.
74. Kuokkanen, S., M. Gschwend, J. D. Rioux, M. J. Daly, J. D. Terwilliger, P. J. Tienari, J. Wikstrom, J. Palo, L. D. Stein, T. J. Hudson, E. S. Lander, and L. Peltonen. 1997. Genomewide scan of multiple sclerosis in Finnish multiplex families. *Am J Hum Genet* 61:1379.
75. Marrosu, M. G., Murru, M. R., Costa, G., Murru, R., Muntoni, F., Cucca, F. 1998. DRB1-DQA1-DQB1 loci and multiple sclerosis predisposition in the Sardinian population. *Hum Mol Genet* 7:1235.
76. 2003. A meta-analysis of whole genome linkage screens in multiple sclerosis. *J Neuroimmunol* 143:39.
77. Haines, J. L., Terwedow, H. A., Burgess, K., Pericak-Vance, M. A., Rimmler, J. B., Martin, E. R., Oksenberg, J. R., Lincoln, R., Zhang, D. Y., Banatao, D. R., Gatto, N., Goodkin, D. E., Hauser, S. L. 1998. Linkage of the MHC to familial multiple sclerosis suggests genetic heterogeneity. The Multiple Sclerosis Genetics Group. *Hum Mol Genet* 7:1229.
78. Barcellos, L. F., J. R. Oksenberg, A. B. Begovich, E. R. Martin, S. Schmidt, E. Vittinghoff, D. S. Goodin, D. Pelletier, R. R. Lincoln, P. Bucher, A. Swerdlin, M. A. Pericak-Vance, J. L. Haines, and S. L. Hauser. 2003. HLA-DR2 dose effect on susceptibility to multiple sclerosis and influence on disease course. *Am J Hum Genet* 72:710.
79. Weyand, C. M., K. C. Hicok, D. L. Conn, and J. J. Goronzy. 1992. The influence of HLA-DRB1 genes on disease severity in rheumatoid arthritis. *Ann Intern Med* 117:801.
80. Holmdahl, R., L. Jansson, G. Gullberg, K. Rubin, P. O. Forsberg, and L. Klareskog. 1985. Incidence of arthritis and autoreactivity of anti-collagen antibodies after immunization of DBA/1 mice with heterologous and autologous collagen II. *Clin Exp Immunol* 62:639.
81. Carlsen, S., Lu, S., Holmdahl, R. 2005. Arthritogenicity of joint cartilage related type IX collagen in rats, tolerance broken by pepsin. *Manuscript*
82. Lu, S., S. Carlsen, A. S. Hansson, and R. Holmdahl. 2002. Immunization of rats with homologous type XI collagen leads to chronic and relapsing arthritis with different genetics and joint pathology than arthritis induced with homologous type II collagen. *J Autoimmun* 18:199.
83. Holmdahl, R., L. Jansson, A. Larsson, and R. Jonsson. 1990. Arthritis in DBA/1 mice induced with passively transferred type II collagen immune serum. Immunohistopathology and serum levels of anti-type II collagen auto-antibodies. *Scand J Immunol* 31:147.
84. Matsumoto, I., A. Staub, C. Benoist, and D. Mathis. 1999. Arthritis provoked by linked T and B cell recognition of a glycolytic enzyme. *Science* 286:1732.
85. Bockermann, R., D. Schubert, T. Kamradt, and R. Holmdahl. 2005. Induction of a B-cell-dependent chronic arthritis with glucose-6-phosphate isomerase. *Arthritis Research & Therapy* 7:R1316.
86. Holmdahl, R., L. Jansson, and M. Andersson. 1986. Female sex hormones suppress development of collagen-induced arthritis in mice. *Arthritis Rheum* 29:1501.

87. Salem, M. L., G. Matsuzaki, K. Kishihara, G. A. Madkour, and K. Nomoto. 2000. beta-estradiol suppresses T cell-mediated delayed-type hypersensitivity through suppression of antigen-presenting cell function and Th1 induction. *Int Arch Allergy Immunol* 121:161.
88. Salem, M. L., M. S. Hossain, and K. Nomoto. 2000. Mediation of the immunomodulatory effect of beta-estradiol on inflammatory responses by inhibition of recruitment and activation of inflammatory cells and their gene expression of TNF-alpha and IFN-gamma. *Int Arch Allergy Immunol* 121:235.
89. Rivers, T. M., D. H. Sprunt, and G. P. Berry. 1933. Observations on attempts to produce acute disseminated encephalomyelitis in monkeys. *J Exp Med* 58:39-53.
90. Butterfield, R. J., J. D. Sudweeks, E. P. Blankenhorn, R. Korngold, J. C. Marini, J. A. Todd, R. J. Roper, and C. Teuscher. 1998. New genetic loci that control susceptibility and symptoms of experimental allergic encephalomyelitis in inbred mice. *J Immunol* 161:1860.
91. Jansson, L., Olsson, T., Hojeberg, B., Holmdahl, R. 1991. Chronic experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis induced by the 89-101 myelin basic protein peptide in B10RIII (H-2r) mice. *Eur. J. Immunol.* 21:693.
92. Correale, J., C. Rush, A. Amengual, and M. T. Goicochea. 2005. Mitoxantrone as rescue therapy in worsening relapsing-remitting MS patients receiving IFN-beta. *J Neuroimmunol* 162:173.
93. Arnason, B. G. 2005. Long-term experience with interferon beta-1b (Betaferon((R))) in multiple sclerosis. *J Neurol* 252 Suppl 3:iii28.
94. Collins, F. S., M. Morgan, and A. Patrinos. 2003. The Human Genome Project: lessons from large-scale biology. *Science* 300:286.
95. Johnson, G. C., and J. A. Todd. 2000. Strategies in complex disease mapping. *Curr Opin Genet Dev* 10:330.
96. Osorio, Y. F. J., H. Bukulmez, E. Petit-Teixeira, L. Michou, C. Pierlot, S. Cailleau-Moindrault, I. Lemaire, S. Lasbleiz, O. Alibert, P. Quillet, T. Bardin, B. Prum, J. M. Olson, and F. Cornelis. 2004. Dense genome-wide linkage analysis of rheumatoid arthritis, including covariates. *Arthritis Rheum* 50:2757.
97. Karasneh, J., A. Gul, W. E. Ollier, A. J. Silman, and J. Worthington. 2005. Whole-genome screening for susceptibility genes in multicase families with Behcet's disease. *Arthritis Rheum* 52:1836.
98. Laval, S. H., A. Timms, S. Edwards, L. Bradbury, S. Brophy, A. Milicic, L. Rubin, K. A. Siminovitch, D. E. Weeks, A. Calin, B. P. Wordsworth, and M. A. Brown. 2001. Whole-genome screening in ankylosing spondylitis: evidence of non-MHC genetic-susceptibility loci. *Am J Hum Genet* 68:918.
99. Tsui, H. W., R. D. Inman, A. D. Paterson, J. D. Reveille, and F. W. Tsui. 2005. ANKH variants associated with ankylosing spondylitis: gender differences. *Arthritis Res Ther* 7:R513.
100. Ho, A. M., M. D. Johnson, and D. M. Kingsley. 2000. Role of the mouse ank gene in control of tissue calcification and arthritis. *Science* 289:265.
101. Wright, A. F., A. D. Carothers, and M. Pirastu. 1999. Population choice in mapping genes for complex diseases. *Nat Genet* 23:397.
102. Lindqvist, A. K., K. Steinsson, B. Johanneson, H. Kristjansdottir, A. Arnasson, G. Grondal, I. Jonasson, V. Magnusson, G. Sturfelt, L. Truedsson, E. Svenungsson, I. Lundberg, J. D. Terwilliger, U. B. Gyllenstein, and M. E. Alarcon-Riquelme. 2000. A susceptibility locus for human systemic lupus erythematosus (hSLE1) on chromosome 2q. *J Autoimmun* 14:169.
103. Suzuki, A., R. Yamada, X. Chang, S. Tokuhira, T. Sawada, M. Suzuki, M. Nagasaki, M. Nakayama-Hamada, R. Kawaida, M. Ono, M. Ohtsuki, H. Furukawa, S. Yoshino, M. Yukioka, S. Tohma, T. Matsubara, S. Wakitani, R. Teshima, Y. Nishioka, A. Sekine, A. Iida, A. Takahashi, T. Tsunoda, Y. Nakamura, and K. Yamamoto. 2003. Functional haplotypes of PADI4, encoding citrullinating enzyme peptidylarginine deiminase 4, are associated with rheumatoid arthritis. *Nat Genet* 34:395.
104. Barton, A., J. Bowes, S. Eyre, K. Spreckley, A. Hinks, S. John, and J. Worthington. 2004. A functional haplotype of the PADI4 gene associated with rheumatoid arthritis in a Japanese population is not associated in a United Kingdom population. *Arthritis Rheum* 50:1117.
105. Caponi, L., E. Petit-Teixeira, M. Sebbag, F. Bongiorno, S. Moscato, F. Pratesi, C. Pierlot, J. Osorio, S. Chapuy-Regaud, M. Guerrin, F. Cornelis, G. Serre, and P. Migliorini. 2005. A family based study shows no association between rheumatoid arthritis and the PADI4 gene in a white French population. *Ann Rheum Dis* 64:587.
106. Encinas, J. A., M. B. Lees, R. A. Sobel, C. Symonowicz, J. M. Greer, C. L. Shovlin, H. L. Weiner, C. E. Seidman, J. G. Seidman, and V. K. Kuchroo. 1996. Genetic analysis of

- susceptibility to experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis in a cross between SJL/J and B10.S mice. *J Immunol* 157:2186.
107. Sundvall, M., Jirholt, J., Yang, H. T., Jansson, L., Engstrom, A., Pettersson, U., Holmdahl, R. 1995. Identification of murine loci associated with susceptibility to chronic experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis. *Nat Genet* 10:313.
  108. Otto, J. M., R. Chandrasekeran, C. Vermes, K. Mikecz, A. Finnegan, S. E. Rickert, J. T. Enders, and T. T. Glant. 2000. A genome scan using a novel genetic cross identifies new susceptibility loci and traits in a mouse model of rheumatoid arthritis. *J Immunol* 165:5278.
  109. Jirholt, J., A. Cook, T. Emahazion, M. Sundvall, L. Jansson, N. Nordquist, U. Pettersson, and R. Holmdahl. 1998. Genetic linkage analysis of collagen-induced arthritis in the mouse. *Eur J Immunol* 28:3321.
  110. Haywood, M. E., N. J. Rogers, S. J. Rose, J. Boyle, A. McDermott, J. M. Rankin, V. Thiruudaian, M. R. Lewis, L. Fossati-Jimack, S. Izui, M. J. Walport, and B. J. Morley. 2004. Dissection of BXSB lupus phenotype using mice congenic for chromosome 1 demonstrates that separate intervals direct different aspects of disease. *J Immunol* 173:4277.
  111. Vegvari, A., Z. Szabo, S. Szanto, A. B. Nesterovitch, K. Mikecz, T. T. Glant, and V. A. Adarichev. 2005. Two major interacting chromosome loci control disease susceptibility in murine model of spondyloarthritis. *J Immunol* 175:2475.
  112. Kuokkanen, S., M. Sundvall, J. D. Terwilliger, P. J. Tienari, J. Wikstrom, R. Holmdahl, U. Pettersson, and L. Peltonen. 1996. A putative vulnerability locus to multiple sclerosis maps to 5p14-p12 in a region syntenic to the murine locus Eae2. *Nat Genet* 13:477.
  113. Wandstrat, A., and E. Wakeland. 2001. The genetics of complex autoimmune diseases: non-MHC susceptibility genes. *Nat Immunol* 2:802.
  114. Cornelis, F., S. Faure, M. Martinez, J. F. Prud'homme, P. Fritz, C. Dib, H. Alves, P. Barrera, N. de Vries, A. Balsa, D. Pascual-Salcedo, K. Maenaut, R. Westhovens, P. Migliorini, T. H. Tran, A. Delaye, N. Prince, C. Lefevre, G. Thomas, M. Poirier, S. Soubigou, O. Alibert, S. Lasbleiz, S. Fouix, C. Bouchier, F. Liote, M. N. Loste, V. Lepage, D. Charron, G. Gyapay, A. Lopes-Vaz, D. Kuntz, T. Bardin, and J. Weissenbach. 1998. New susceptibility locus for rheumatoid arthritis suggested by a genome-wide linkage study. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 95:10746.
  115. Tired, L., A. Bonnardeaux, O. Poirier, S. Ricard, P. Marques-Vidal, A. Evans, D. Arveiler, G. Luc, F. Kee, P. Ducimetiere, and a. et. 1994. Synergistic effects of angiotensin-converting enzyme and angiotensin-II type 1 receptor gene polymorphisms on risk of myocardial infarction. *Lancet* 344:910.
  116. Kelley, V. E., and A. Winkelstein. 1980. Age- and sex-related glomerulonephritis in New Zealand white mice. *Clin Immunol Immunopathol* 16:142.
  117. Morel, L., X. H. Tian, B. P. Croker, and E. K. Wakeland. 1999. Epistatic modifiers of autoimmunity in a murine model of lupus nephritis. *Immunity* 11:131.
  118. Nicholas, A. P., T. Sambandam, J. D. Echols, and S. R. Barnum. 2005. Expression of citrullinated proteins in murine experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis. *J Comp Neurol* 486:254.
  119. de Seze, J., S. Dubucquoi, D. Lefranc, F. Virecoulon, I. Nuez, V. Dutoit, P. Vermersch, and L. Prin. 2001. IgG reactivity against citrullinated myelin basic protein in multiple sclerosis. *J Neuroimmunol* 117:149.
  120. Lee, J. K., C. Park, K. Kimm, and M. S. Rutherford. 2002. Genome-wide multilocus analysis for immune-mediated complex diseases. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 295:771.
  121. Prokunina, L., C. Castillejo-Lopez, F. Oberg, I. Gunnarsson, L. Berg, V. Magnusson, A. J. Brookes, D. Tentler, H. Kristjansdottir, G. Grondal, A. I. Bolstad, E. Svenungsson, I. Lundberg, G. Sturfelt, A. Jonssen, L. Truedsson, G. Lima, J. Alcocer-Varela, R. Jonsson, U. B. Gyllenstein, J. B. Harley, D. Alarcon-Segovia, K. Steinsson, and M. E. Alarcon-Riquelme. 2002. A regulatory polymorphism in PDCD1 is associated with susceptibility to systemic lupus erythematosus in humans. *Nat Genet* 32:666.
  122. Nielsen, C., D. Hansen, S. Husby, B. B. Jacobsen, and S. T. Lillevang. 2003. Association of a putative regulatory polymorphism in the PD-1 gene with susceptibility to type 1 diabetes. *Tissue Antigens* 62:492.
  123. Prokunina, L., L. Padyukov, A. Bennet, U. de Faire, B. Wiman, J. Prince, L. Alfredsson, L. Klareskog, and M. Alarcon-Riquelme. 2004. Association of the PD-1.3A allele of the PDCD1 gene in patients with rheumatoid arthritis negative for rheumatoid factor and the shared epitope. *Arthritis Rheum* 50:1770.
  124. Begovich, A. B., V. E. Carlton, L. A. Honigberg, S. J. Schrod, A. P. Chokkalingam, H. C. Alexander, K. G. Ardlie, Q. Huang, A. M. Smith, J. M. Spoorke, M. T. Conn, M. Chang, S. Y.

- Chang, R. K. Saiki, J. J. Catanese, D. U. Leong, V. E. Garcia, L. B. McAllister, D. A. Jeffery, A. T. Lee, F. Batliwalla, E. Remmers, L. A. Criswell, M. F. Seldin, D. L. Kastner, C. I. Amos, J. J. Sninsky, and P. K. Gregersen. 2004. A missense single-nucleotide polymorphism in a gene encoding a protein tyrosine phosphatase (PTPN22) is associated with rheumatoid arthritis. *Am J Hum Genet* 75:330.
125. Bottini, N., L. Musumeci, A. Alonso, S. Rahmouni, K. Nika, M. Rostamkhani, J. MacMurray, G. F. Meloni, P. Lucarelli, M. Pellecchia, G. S. Eisenbarth, D. Comings, and T. Mustelin. 2004. A functional variant of lymphoid tyrosine phosphatase is associated with type I diabetes. *Nat Genet* 36:337.
  126. Kyogoku, C., C. D. Langefeld, W. A. Ortmann, A. Lee, S. Selby, V. E. Carlton, M. Chang, P. Ramos, E. C. Baechler, F. M. Batliwalla, J. Novitzke, A. H. Williams, C. Gillett, P. Rodine, R. R. Graham, K. G. Ardlie, P. M. Gaffney, K. L. Moser, M. Petri, A. B. Begovich, P. K. Gregersen, and T. W. Behrens. 2004. Genetic association of the R620W polymorphism of protein tyrosine phosphatase PTPN22 with human SLE. *Am J Hum Genet* 75:504.
  127. Zheng, W., and J. X. She. 2005. Genetic association between a lymphoid tyrosine phosphatase (PTPN22) and type 1 diabetes. *Diabetes* 54:906.
  128. Hug, A., M. Korporal, I. Schroder, J. Haas, K. Glatz, B. Storch-Hagenlocher, and B. Wildemann. 2003. Thymic export function and T cell homeostasis in patients with relapsing remitting multiple sclerosis. *J Immunol* 171:432.
  129. Seddon, B., P. Tomlinson, and R. Zamoyska. 2003. Interleukin 7 and T cell receptor signals regulate homeostasis of CD4 memory cells. *Nat Immunol* 4:680.
  130. Guimond, M., T. J. Fry, and C. L. Mackall. 2005. Cytokine signals in T-cell homeostasis. *J Immunother* 28:289.
  131. Bradley, L. M., L. Haynes, and S. L. Swain. 2005. IL-7: maintaining T-cell memory and achieving homeostasis. *Trends Immunol* 26:172.
  132. Zhang, Z., K. Duvefelt, F. Svensson, T. Masterman, G. Jonasdottir, H. Salter, T. Emahazion, D. Hellgren, G. Falk, T. Olsson, J. Hillert, and M. Anvret. 2005. Two genes encoding immune-regulatory molecules (LAG3 and IL7R) confer susceptibility to multiple sclerosis. *Genes Immun* 6:145.
  133. Bruniquel, D., N. Borie, S. Hannier, and F. Triebel. 1998. Regulation of expression of the human lymphocyte activation gene-3 (LAG-3) molecule, a ligand for MHC class II. *Immunogenetics* 48:116.
  134. Reddy, M. V., M. Johansson, G. Sturfelt, A. Jonsen, I. Gunnarsson, E. Svenungsson, S. Rantapaa-Dahlqvist, and M. E. Alarcon-Riquelme. 2005. The R620W C/T polymorphism of the gene PTPN22 is associated with SLE independently of the association of PDCD1. *Genes Immun*
  135. Mohan, C., Y. Yu, L. Morel, P. Yang, and E. K. Wakeland. 1999. Genetic dissection of Sle pathogenesis: Sle3 on murine chromosome 7 impacts T cell activation, differentiation, and cell death. *J Immunol* 162:6492.
  136. Yang, H. T., J. Jirholt, L. Svensson, M. Sundvall, L. Jansson, U. Pettersson, and R. Holmdahl. 1999. Identification of genes controlling collagen-induced arthritis in mice: striking homology with susceptibility loci previously identified in the rat. *J Immunol* 163:2916.
  137. Butterfield, R. J., E. P. Blankenhorn, R. J. Roper, J. F. Zachary, R. W. Doerge, J. Sudweeks, J. Rose, and C. Teuscher. 1999. Genetic analysis of disease subtypes and sexual dimorphisms in mouse experimental allergic encephalomyelitis (EAE): relapsing/remitting and monophasic remitting/nonrelapsing EAE are immunogenetically distinct. *J Immunol* 162:3096.
  138. Roth, M. P., C. Viratelle, L. Dolbois, M. Delverdier, N. Borot, L. Pelletier, P. Druet, M. Clanet, and H. Coppin. 1999. A genome-wide search identifies two susceptibility loci for experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis on rat chromosomes 4 and 10. *J Immunol* 162:1917.
  139. Ebers, G. C., K. Kukay, D. E. Bulman, A. D. Sadovnick, G. Rice, C. Anderson, H. Armstrong, K. Cousin, R. B. Bell, W. Hader, D. W. Paty, S. Hashimoto, J. Oger, P. Duquette, S. Warren, T. Gray, P. O'Connor, A. Nath, A. Auty, L. Metz, G. Francis, J. E. Paulseth, T. J. Murray, W. Pryse-Phillips, R. Nelson, M. Freedman, D. Brunet, J. P. Bouchard, D. Hinds, and N. Risch. 1996. A full genome search in multiple sclerosis. *Nat Genet* 13:472.
  140. Shinar, Y., E. Pras, I. Siev-Ner, D. Gamus, C. Brautbar, S. Israel, and A. Achiron. 1998. Analysis of allelic association between D6S461 marker and multiple sclerosis in Ashkenazi and Iraqi Jewish patients. *J Mol Neurosci* 11:265.
  141. Lyons, P. A., N. Armitage, C. J. Lord, M. S. Phillips, J. A. Todd, L. B. Peterson, and L. S. Wicker. 2001. Mapping by genetic interaction: high-resolution congenic mapping of the type 1 diabetes loci Idd10 and Idd18 in the NOD mouse. *Diabetes* 50:2633.

142. Morel, L., B. P. Croker, K. R. Blenman, C. Mohan, G. Huang, G. Gilkeson, and E. K. Wakeland. 2000. Genetic reconstitution of systemic lupus erythematosus immunopathology with polycongenic murine strains. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 97:6670.
143. Roper, R. J., J. J. Weis, B. A. McCracken, C. B. Green, Y. Ma, K. S. Weber, D. Fairbairn, R. J. Butterfield, M. R. Potter, J. F. Zachary, R. W. Doerge, and C. Teuscher. 2001. Genetic control of susceptibility to experimental Lyme arthritis is polygenic and exhibits consistent linkage to multiple loci on chromosome 5 in four independent mouse crosses. *Genes Immun* 2:388.
144. Butterfield, R. J., R. J. Roper, D. M. Rhein, R. W. Melvold, L. Haynes, R. Z. Ma, R. W. Doerge, and C. Teuscher. 2003. Sex-specific quantitative trait loci govern susceptibility to Theiler's murine encephalomyelitis virus-induced demyelination. *Genetics* 163:1041.
145. Kamogawa, J., M. Terada, S. Mizuki, M. Nishihara, H. Yamamoto, S. Mori, Y. Abe, K. Morimoto, S. Nakatsuru, Y. Nakamura, and M. Nose. 2002. Arthritis in MRL/lpr mice is under the control of multiple gene loci with an allelic combination derived from the original inbred strains. *Arthritis Rheum* 46:1067.
146. Johannesson, M., L. M. Olsson, A. K. Lindqvist, S. Moller, D. Koczan, L. Wester-Rosenlof, H. J. Thiesen, S. Ibrahim, and R. Holmdahl. 2005. Gene expression profiling of arthritis using a QTL chip reveals a complex gene regulation of the Cia5 region in mice. *Genes Immun*