



# IL-12 p40 monomer is different from other IL-12 family members to selectively inhibit IL-12R $\beta$ 1 internalization and suppress EAE

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Multiple sclerosis (MS) is the most common human demyelinating disease of the central nervous system. The IL-12 family of cytokines has four members, which are IL-12 (p40:p35), IL-23 (p40:p19), the p40 monomer (p40), and the p40 homodimer (p40<sub>2</sub>). Since all four members contain p40 in different forms, it is important to use a specific monoclonal antibody (mAb) to characterize these molecules. Here, by using such mAbs, we describe selective loss of p40 in serum of MS patients as compared to healthy controls. Similarly, we also observed decrease in p40 and increase in IL-12, IL-23, and p40<sub>2</sub> in serum of mice with experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis (EAE), an animal model of MS, as compared to control mice. Interestingly, weekly supplementation of mouse and human recombinant p40 ameliorated clinical symptoms and disease progression of EAE. On the other hand, IL-12, IL-23, and p40<sub>2</sub> did not exhibit such inhibitory effect. In addition to EAE, p40 also suppressed collagen-induced arthritis in mice. Using IL-12R $\beta$ 1<sup>-/-</sup>, IL-12R $\beta$ 2<sup>-/-</sup>, and IL-12R $\beta$ 1<sup>+/-</sup>/IL-12R $\beta$ 2<sup>-/-</sup> mice, we observed that p40 required IL-12R $\beta$ 1, but not IL-12R $\beta$ 2, to suppress EAE. Interestingly, p40 arrested IL-12-, IL-23-, or p40<sub>2</sub>-mediated internalization of IL-12R $\beta$ 1, but neither IL-12R $\beta$ 2 nor IL-23R, protected regulatory T cells, and suppressed Th1 and Th17 biasness. These studies identify p40 as an anti-autoimmune cytokine with a biological role different from IL-12, IL-23, and p40<sub>2</sub> in which it attenuates autoimmune signaling via suppression of IL-12R $\beta$ 1 internalization, which may be beneficial in patients with MS and other autoimmune disorders.

IL-12 p40 monomer | multiple sclerosis | rheumatoid arthritis | EAE | IL-12R $\beta$ 1

Interleukin-12 (IL-12) plays a critical role in the early inflammatory response to infection and in the generation of T helper type 1 (Th1) cells (1). IL-12 consists of a heavy chain (p40) and a light chain (p35) linked covalently by disulfide bonds to give rise to the so-called bioactive heterodimeric (p70) molecule (2, 3). The p40 also couples with p19 to generate IL-23, having biological functions that are similar to as well as distinct from IL-12. While similar to IL-12, IL-23 augments the proliferation of Th1 cells to produce more IFN $\gamma$  (4, 5); contrary to IL-12, IL-23 is known to support the proliferation of memory T cells (4, 5). In addition to forming heterodimers (IL-12 and IL-23), the p40 subunit is also released as p40 monomer (p40) and p40 homodimer (p40<sub>2</sub>) (2, 6, 7).

Since multiple sclerosis (MS) and its animal model experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis (EAE) are T cell-driven autoimmune diseases, several studies have reported the involvement of IL-12 in MS and EAE (8, 9). While IL-12 challenge augmented the severity of EAE (10), antibody to IL-12 inhibited the induction or progression of EAE (11). Similarly, IL-23 also plays a key role in the pathogenesis of MS, and p19 (-/-) mice do not develop EAE (12). On the other hand, the role of p40<sub>2</sub> and p40 in the disease process of EAE is not known. In general,

to investigate the role of a molecule in any disease process, we consider using a knockout mouse model. In this case, however, p40 (-/-) mice cannot be used because deleting the p40 gene will knock out IL-12, IL-23, p40<sub>2</sub>, and p40. Therefore, we have generated separate functional blocking monoclonal antibodies (mAbs) against p40<sub>2</sub> and p40 (7). Recently we have demonstrated that different cancer cells produce greater levels of p40 than p40<sub>2</sub>, IL-12, and IL-23 (13). Here, we delineate that the level of p40 goes down in MS patients and EAE mice and that weekly treatment with recombinant mouse or human p40 protects mice from EAE. Similarly, p40 also attenuated collagen-induced arthritis (CIA) in mice. Interestingly, p40 suppressed the internalization of IL-12R $\beta$ 1, but neither IL-12R $\beta$ 2 nor IL-23R, and attenuated IL-12-, IL-23-, and p40<sub>2</sub>-mediated autoimmune signaling pathways. These results delineate an anti-autoimmune role of p40, which is different from IL-12, IL-23, and p40<sub>2</sub>.

## Results

### Selective Decrease in p40 in Mice with Relapsing-Remitting EAE.

IL-12 p40 is one of the most abundant gene transcripts present in central nervous system (CNS) tissues of MS patients and EAE animals (14, 15). The same p40 gene is responsible for the synthesis of IL-12 p70 (p40:p35), IL-23 (p40:p19), p40 homodimer (p40<sub>2</sub>), and p40 monomer (p40). Both IL-12 and IL-23 are bioactive cytokines, and they play important roles in MS and EAE (4, 16, 17). Accordingly, we found increased levels of IL-12 and IL-23 in serum of EAE mice at the acute phase of the disease

## Significance

The level of IL-12 p40 monomer (p40), a neglected member of the IL-12 family of cytokines, is less in serum of MS patients as compared to controls. Accordingly, supplementation of p40 inhibits the disease process of experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis (EAE), an animal model of MS. The p40 inhibits the internalization of IL-12R $\beta$ 1, but neither IL-12R $\beta$ 2 nor IL-23R, and suppresses EAE via IL-12R $\beta$ 1. These results describe an anti-autoimmune property of p40 that may be beneficial in the treatment of MS and other autoimmune disorders.

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The authors declare no competing interest.

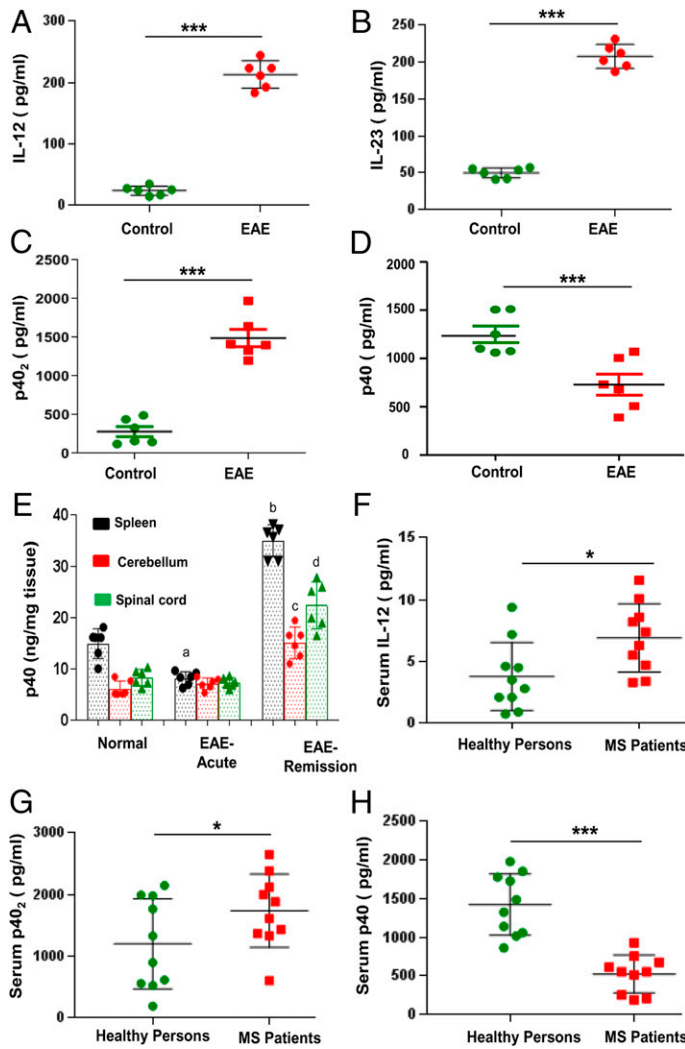
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**Fig. 1.** Level of p40 in serum of EAE mice and MS patients. Female SJL/J mice were induced EAE by adoptive transfer of MBP-primed T cells. At the acute phase (14 dpt), levels of IL-12 (A), IL-23 (B), p40<sub>2</sub> (C), and p40 (D) were measured in serum by sandwich ELISA. Results are mean ± SEM of six mice per group. Level of p40 was measured in homogenates of the spleen, cerebellum and spinal cord at acute (14 dpt) and remission (22 dpt) phases of EAE (E). Results are mean ± SEM of six mice per group. <sup>a</sup>*P* < 0.01 vs. control; <sup>b</sup>*P* < 0.001 vs. EAE acute phase spleen; <sup>c</sup>*P* < 0.001 vs. EAE acute phase cerebellum; <sup>d</sup>*P* < 0.001 vs. EAE acute phase spinal cord. Serum of MS patients with active disease (*n* = 10) and age-matched healthy controls (*n* = 10) was analyzed for IL-12 (F), p40<sub>2</sub> (G), and p40 (H) by sandwich ELISA. \**P* < 0.05; \*\*\**P* < 0.001.

(Fig. 1 A and B). Consistent to our previous finding (18), the level of p40<sub>2</sub> was also higher in EAE mice as compared to control mice (Fig. 1C). In contrast, the level of p40 was significantly lower in serum of EAE mice at the acute phase compared to control mice (Fig. 1D). Accordingly, we also observed loss of p40 in the spleen of EAE mice at the acute phase compared to control mice (Fig. 1E). In contrast, we did not observe any decrease in p40 in the cerebellum and spinal cord at the acute phase of EAE (Fig. 1E). However, significant increase in p40 was seen in the spleen, cerebellum, and spinal cord of EAE mice at the remission phase as compared to acute phase (Fig. 1E).

**Levels of p40, p40<sub>2</sub>, and IL-12 in Serum of MS Patients.** To understand the significance of our finding in MS, we measured levels of p40, p40<sub>2</sub>, and IL-12 in serum of relapsing–remitting (RR)-MS patients with acute disease relapse (*n* = 10) and healthy controls (*n* = 10) (Table 1). During blood collection, MS patients were without disease-modifying therapy for more than 6 mo. There was no significant difference between MS patients and healthy controls in terms of age and race (Table 1). As reported elsewhere, the level of IL-12 was greater in serum of MS patients than healthy controls (Fig. 1F and Table 1). However, similar to mouse finding, we observed greater ( $F_{1,20} = 6.2108$  [ $>F_c = 4.41$ ];  $P < 0.05$  [= 0.022]) levels of p40<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 1G and Table 1) and lower ( $F_{1,20} = 37.4858$  [ $>F_c = 4.41$ ];  $P < 0.0001$  [= 0.00000878])

levels of p40 (Fig. 1H and Table 1) in serum of MS patients than healthy controls.

**Recombinant p40 Inhibits Disease Progression in Mice with Adoptively Transferred RR-EAE and Chronic EAE.** Because the level of p40 decreased in serum of EAE mice and MS patients, we examined if supplementation of mouse recombinant p40 modulates the progression of disease in adoptively transferred RR-EAE mice. As expected, mouse p40 exhibited an ~40-kDa band in non-denaturing polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (PAGE) (Fig. 2A). Mice were treated weekly with different doses of p40 via intraperitoneal (i.p.) injection from 0 days posttransfer (dpt) of MBP-primed T cells. As evident from Fig. 2B, p40 dose-dependently inhibited clinical symptoms of EAE, and this inhibition was significant with as low as 25 ng of p40 per mouse (adjusted  $P = 0.0252$  [ $<0.05$ ] for EAE vs. EAE+p40 [25 ng] by Dunnett’s multiple comparison analysis). However, at higher doses of p40, greater inhibition of EAE (adjusted  $P = 0.0001$  for EAE vs. EAE+p40 [50 ng], EAE vs. EAE+p40 [100 ng], and EAE vs. EAE+p40 [200 ng] by Dunnett’s multiple comparison analysis) was observed (Fig. 2B).

Next, mice were treated with p40 from various phases of the disease. In the first group, mice were treated with p40 (200 ng per mouse) from the onset of acute phase (8 dpt). The results in Fig. 2C clearly show that the inhibitory effect of p40 on the clinical symptoms was observed within 4 d of treatment (from 12 dpt). There was further marked inhibition on subsequent days of

**Table 1. Levels of p40, p40<sub>2</sub>, and IL-12 in serum of MS patients and control subjects**

Samples	Age	Race/ethnicity	Gender	Type of MS	Stage	Disease duration, y	p40, pg/mL	p40 <sub>2</sub> , pg/mL	IL-12, pg/mL
MS-1	49	White	Male	RR-MS	Relapse	14	679 ± 50	2,650 ± 135	5.51 ± 0.22
MS-2	50	White	Female	RR-MS	Relapse	9	929 ± 14	2,380 ± 475	3.39 ± 0.18
MS-3	50	White	Female	RR-MS	Relapse	10	555 ± 232	1,613 ± 133	10.08 ± 0.18
MS-4	51	White	Female	RR-MS	Relapse	7	755 ± 127	1,430 ± 285	7.37 ± 0.098
MS-5	53	White	Male	RR-MS	Relapse	6	514 ± 143	1,880 ± 140	4.66 ± 0.15
MS-6	56	White	Female	RR-MS	Relapse	12	614 ± 73	1,366 ± 143	11.61 ± 0.32
MS-7	50	White	Male	RR-MS	Relapse	5	555 ± 217	2,000 ± 60	6.27 ± 0.145
MS-8	51	White	Male	RR-MS	Relapse	15	250 ± 160	600 ± 185	8.22 ± 0.26
MS-9	29	White	Female	RR-MS	Relapse	3	190 ± 246	1,330 ± 90	3.31 ± 0.32
MS-10	49	White	Male	RR-MS	Relapse	7	210 ± 360	2,120 ± 660	8.56 ± 0.085
Control-1	55	White	Female	Healthy	Healthy	Healthy	1,490 ± 742	2,148 ± 399	2.8 ± 0.147
Control-2	63	White	Female	Healthy	Healthy	Healthy	1,983 ± 903	1,983 ± 305	2.1 ± 0.049
Control-3	61	White	Female	Healthy	Healthy	Healthy	1,326 ± 451	1,326 ± 113	0.73 ± 0.097
Control-4	70	White	Male	Healthy	Healthy	Healthy	1,140 ± 432	610 ± 80	0.96 ± 0.19
Control-5	38	White	Female	Healthy	Healthy	Healthy	1,856 ± 541	1,765 ± 247	3.5 ± 0.195
Control-6	61	White	Male	Healthy	Healthy	Healthy	1,729 ± 288	553 ± 76	2.17 ± 0.097
Control-7	63	White	Male	Healthy	Healthy	Healthy	1,060 ± 32	895 ± 272	7.26 ± 0.097
Control-8	38	White	Female	Healthy	Healthy	Healthy	1,018 ± 118	185 ± 27	9.49 ± 0.424
Control-9	63	White	Male	Healthy	Healthy	Healthy	1,779 ± 217	520 ± 190	4.49 ± 0.611
Control-10	32	White	Female	Healthy	Healthy	Healthy	863 ± 116	1,991 ± 435	4.63 ± 0.245

Serum samples of MS patients were obtained from the MS Clinic of the Rush University Medical Center. Serum samples from control subjects were obtained from Discovery Life Sciences (Los Osos, CA). Controls are healthy individuals without significant medical history. Each sample was analyzed for p40, p40<sub>2</sub>, and IL-12 three times by ELISA. MS, multiple sclerosis; RR-MS, relapsing–remitting MS.

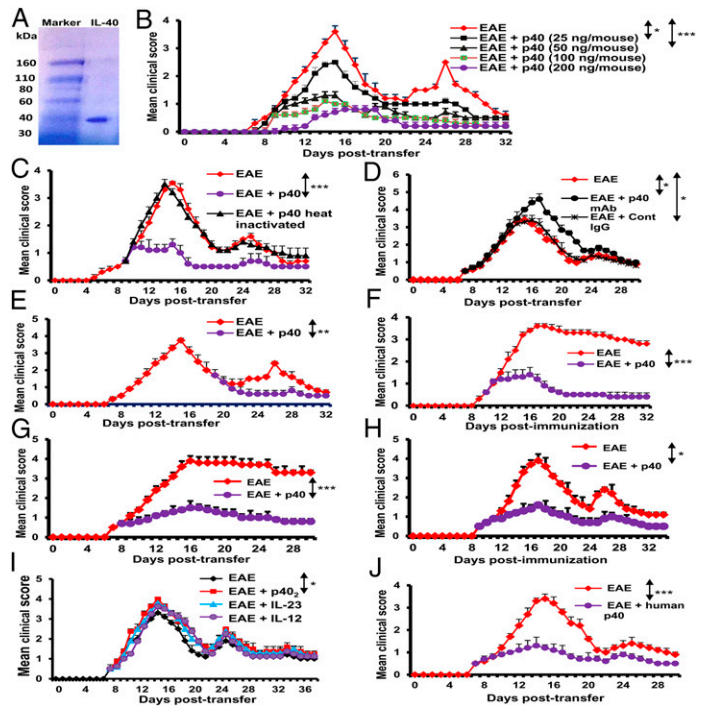
treatment (Fig. 2C). However, we did not see any inhibitory effect on clinical symptoms of EAE by heat-killed p40 under the same treatment paradigm (Fig. 2C). Moreover, single administration of functional blocking mAb a3-3a against p40, but not control IgG, stimulated clinical symptoms of EAE (Fig. 2D), suggesting the specificity of the effect. In the second group, p40 treatment began from the onset of relapsing phase (19 dpt). Fig. 2E clearly shows that p40, in this instance, also halted the disease progression. Similarly, p40 treatment from the disease onset also strongly inhibited the clinical symptoms of EAE in MOG35-55-immunized male C57/BL6 mice (Fig. 2F) and adoptive transfer of Th17 cells (SI Appendix, Fig. S1 A–F) in male C57/BL6 mice (Fig. 2G) and PLP139-151-immunized female SJL/J mice (Fig. 2H). In contrast, mouse recombinant IL-12, IL-23, and p40<sub>2</sub> remained unable to suppress the clinical symptoms of RR-EAE in female SJL/J mice (Fig. 2I). Since recombinant human p40 is available, we also tested the effect of human p40 on EAE. Similar to recombinant mouse p40, weekly administration of human p40 also suppressed clinical symptoms of adoptively transferred RR-EAE in female SJL/J mice (Fig. 2J).

**Effect of Recombinant p40, p40<sub>2</sub>, and IL-12 on the Encephalitogenicity of MBP-Primed T Cells.** Next, we investigated whether p40 was capable of inhibiting the encephalitogenicity of MBP-primed T cells. We found that mice receiving p40-treated MBP-primed T cells displayed significantly reduced clinical symptoms and disease severity (SI Appendix, Fig. S2A) compared to mice getting only MBP-primed T cells. On the other hand, p40<sub>2</sub> and IL-12 did not inhibit the encephalitogenicity of MBP-primed T cells. In fact, mice receiving either p40<sub>2</sub>-treated or IL-12-treated MBP-primed T cells exhibited slightly increased disease severity and clinical symptoms (SI Appendix, Fig. S2A) compared to mice in receipt of only MBP-primed T cells. Next, we investigated whether p40 treatment in donor mice was capable of suppressing the production of encephalitogenic T cells in vivo. Therefore, donor mice were treated with p40, and T cells from these donor mice were reprimed with MBP for 4 d and transferred adoptively to recipient mice. For comparison, groups of

donor mice were also treated with p40<sub>2</sub> and IL-12. We found that mice receiving T cells from p40-treated donor mice displayed less disease severity and clinical symptoms compared to the control EAE group (SI Appendix, Fig. S2B). These results were specific as we did not observe decrease in clinical symptoms in mice receiving T cells from either p40<sub>2</sub>- or IL-12-treated donor mice (SI Appendix, Fig. S2B). These results suggest that the function of p40 is different from that of either IL-12 or p40<sub>2</sub> and that p40 is capable of suppressing the encephalitogenicity of MBP-primed T cells.

**The p40, but Neither p40<sub>2</sub> nor IL-12, Preserves the Integrity of the Blood–Brain Barrier and Blood–Spinal Cord Barrier in Mice with RR-EAE.** It is known that the blood–brain barrier (BBB) and blood–spinal cord barrier (BSB) break down in a section of the brain and spinal cord, respectively, during active MS and EAE, ultimately allowing different blood molecules and toxins to enter into the CNS. We investigated if p40 modulated the integrity of the BBB and BSB. As evidenced from SI Appendix, Fig. S3A (first lane), infrared signals were not visible on areas over the brain and the spinal cord in control Hanks’ balanced salt solution (HBSS)-injected mice. On the other hand, we detected some infrared signals on areas over the brain and the spinal cord of EAE mice (SI Appendix, Fig. S3A; second lane), suggesting possible breakdown of the BBB and BSB. The p40<sub>2</sub> treatment markedly increased the appearance of infrared signals over the brain and spinal cord of EAE mice (SI Appendix, Fig. S3A; compare lane 3 with lane 2). In contrast, p40 treatment suppressed infrared signals over the brain and spinal cord (SI Appendix, Fig. S3A; compare lane 4 with lanes 2 and 3). To confirm these results further, the spinal cord and different parts of the brain (frontal cortex, midbrain, and cerebellum) were scanned for infrared signals in an Odyssey infrared scanner. Consistent to live mice results, a substantial amount of infrared dye was noticeable in CNS tissues of EAE mice as compared to control mice (SI Appendix, Fig. S3 B–F). Again, treatment of EAE mice by p40, but neither p40<sub>2</sub> nor IL-12, greatly decreased the entry of infrared dye into the spinal cord and different parts of the brain

**Fig. 2.** Treatment of EAE by recombinant p40. (A) Mouse p40 (BD Bioscience) was run through native PAGE followed by Coomassie blue staining. (B) Adoptively transferred EAE mice were treated with different doses of p40 once a week via i.p. injection starting from 0 dpt. Mice were examined for clinical symptoms for the next 30 d. Data are expressed as the mean  $\pm$  SEM of six mice per group. \* $P$  < 0.05 vs. EAE+p40 (25 ng per mouse); \*\*\* $P$  < 0.001 vs. EAE+p40 (200 ng per mouse). Repeated measures one-way ANOVA was calculated with treatment as a single factor, and the outcome was summarized as  $F_{4,160} = 14.8$  ( $>F_c = 4.32$ ). (C) Adoptively transferred EAE mice were treated with recombinant mouse p40 and heat-inactivated p40 (200 ng per mouse) weekly via i.p. injection starting from 8 dpt (the onset of acute phase). Data are expressed as the mean  $\pm$  SEM of six mice per group. \*\*\* $P$  < 0.001 vs. EAE+p40. (D) Adoptively transferred EAE mice received one i.p. injection of p40 mAb a3-3a (100  $\mu$ g per mouse) on 8 dpt. Another group of mice also received the same amount of control hamster IgG. Mice were examined for clinical symptoms daily until 30 dpt. Data are expressed as the mean  $\pm$  SEM of six mice per group. \* $P$  < 0.05 vs. EAE+p40. (E) Adoptively transferred EAE mice were treated with p40 (200 ng per mouse) weekly starting from 19 dpt (the onset of relapsing phase). Data are expressed as the mean  $\pm$  SEM of six mice per group. \*\* $P$  < 0.01 vs. EAE+p40. (F) MOG-induced active EAE mice were treated with p40 (200 ng per mouse) weekly starting from 10 dpt (the onset of acute phase). Data are expressed as the mean  $\pm$  SEM of six mice per group. \*\*\* $P$  < 0.001 vs. EAE+p40. (G) Th17 cell-induced active EAE mice were treated with p40 (200 ng per mouse) weekly starting from 8 dpt. Data are expressed as the mean  $\pm$  SEM of six mice per group. \*\*\* $P$  < 0.001 vs. EAE+p40. (H) PLP139-151-induced chronic RR-EAE mice were treated with p40 (200 ng per mouse) weekly starting from 9 dpt. Data are expressed as the mean  $\pm$  SEM of six mice per group. \* $P$  < 0.05 vs. EAE+p40. (I) Adoptively transferred EAE mice were treated with recombinant mouse IL-12, IL-23, or p40<sub>2</sub> (200 ng per mouse) once on 8 dpt. Data are expressed as the mean  $\pm$  SEM of six mice per group. \* $P$  < 0.05. (J) Adoptively transferred EAE mice were treated with recombinant human p40 (200 ng per mouse) weekly starting from 8 dpt. Data are expressed as the mean  $\pm$  SEM of six mice per group. \*\*\* $P$  < 0.001 vs. EAE+p40.



(SI Appendix, Fig. S3 B–F), indicating that the biological function of p40 is different from that of either IL-12 or p40<sub>2</sub>.

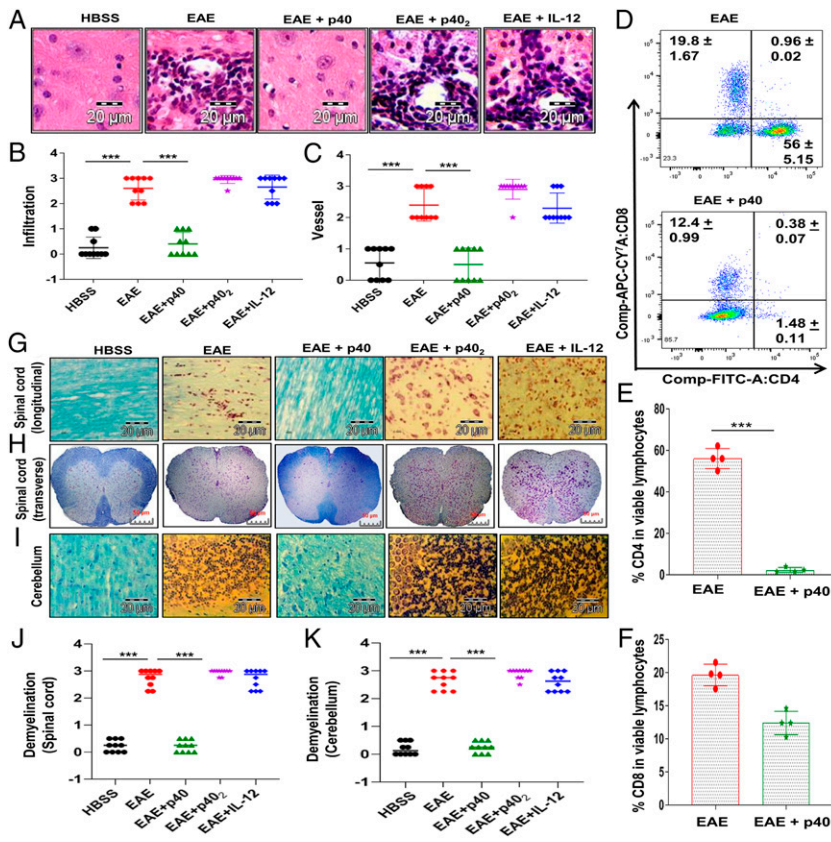
**The p40, but Neither p40<sub>2</sub> nor IL-12, Inhibits the Infiltration of Mononuclear Cells into the CNS of Mice with RR-EAE.** It is thought that EAE, as well as MS, is caused by intrusion of autoreactive T cells and allied mononuclear cells, like macrophages, into the CNS. Accordingly, EAE mice displayed widespread infiltration of inflammatory cells into the cerebellum (Fig. 3A). However, treatment of EAE mice with p40, but neither p40<sub>2</sub> nor IL-12, resulted in decreased intrusion of inflammatory cells into the cerebellum. Quantitation of the relative level of inflammation shows that p40, but neither p40<sub>2</sub> nor IL-12, dramatically reduced infiltration (Fig. 3B) and the appearance of cuffed vessels (Fig. 3C) in the cerebellum of RR-EAE mice. We then analyzed the proportion of CD4<sup>+</sup> and CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells from the cerebellum by flow cytometry. While p40 treatment inhibited the entry of both CD4<sup>+</sup> and CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells into the cerebellum of EAE mice (Fig. 3 D–F), the inhibition was very robust for CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells (Fig. 3E).

Infiltration is facilitated by adhesion molecules that are expressed in the endothelium of the BBB as well as in glial cells in CNS parenchyma. Therefore, we examined the effect of p40 on the expression of adhesion molecules in the cerebellum, spinal cord, and optic nerve of EAE mice. Our messenger RNA (mRNA) analysis data revealed marked expression of ICAM-1 (SI Appendix, Fig. S4 A–C) and P-selectin (SI Appendix, Fig. S4 D–F) in the spinal cord (SI Appendix, Fig. S4 A and D), cerebellum (SI Appendix, Fig. S4 B and E), and optic nerve (SI Appendix, Fig. S4 C and F) of EAE mice as compared to control mice. Consistent to the suppression in infiltration, treatment of EAE mice with p40, but neither p40<sub>2</sub> nor IL-12, resulted in decreased expression of ICAM-1 and P-selectin in the spinal cord, cerebellum, and optic nerve as compared to untreated EAE mice (SI Appendix, Fig. S4 A–F). These results again suggest that the

biological function of p40 is different from that of either IL-12 or p40<sub>2</sub>.

**The p40, but Neither p40<sub>2</sub> nor IL-12, Suppresses the Expression of Proinflammatory Molecules in CNS Tissues of Mice with RR-EAE.** We next studied whether p40 was capable of inhibiting the expression of proinflammatory molecules in the CNS of EAE mice. Marked expression of proinflammatory molecules like IL-1 $\beta$  and iNOS was seen in the spinal cord (SI Appendix, Fig. S4 G and J) and cerebellum (SI Appendix, Fig. S4 H and K) as well as optic nerve (SI Appendix, Fig. S4 I and L) of EAE mice as compared to control mice. However, treatment of EAE mice with p40, but neither p40<sub>2</sub> nor IL-12, led to reduction of proinflammatory molecule expression in the spinal cord, cerebellum, and optic nerve of EAE mice (SI Appendix, Fig. S4 G–L).

**The p40, but Neither p40<sub>2</sub> nor IL-12, Inhibits Demyelination in Mice with RR-EAE.** Next, we examined whether p40 protected EAE mice from demyelination. We observed a significant decrease in myelin genes like CNPase, MOG, PLP, and MBP in the spinal cord (SI Appendix, Fig. S5 A and D), cerebellum (SI Appendix, Fig. S5 B and E), and optic nerve (SI Appendix, Fig. S5 C and F) of EAE mice compared to HBSS-treated control mice. Again, treatment of EAE mice with p40, but neither p40<sub>2</sub> nor IL-12, led to normalization of myelin gene mRNA expression in the spinal cord, cerebellum, and optic nerve of EAE mice (SI Appendix, Fig. S5). To confirm this finding further, we stained spinal cord and cerebellar sections by Luxol fast blue (LFB) for myelin and noticed widespread demyelination zones in the white matter of the spinal cord (Fig. 3 G, H, and J) and brain (Fig. 3 I and K) of EAE mice compared to that of HBSS-treated control mice. However, treatment of RR-EAE mice with p40, but neither p40<sub>2</sub> nor IL-12, normalized the myelin level in both the spinal cord (Fig. 3 G, H, and J) and brain (Fig. 3 I and K). Similarly, p40 treatment also rescued myelin-specific genes and protected



**Fig. 3.** Effect of recombinant p40 on the CNS infiltration of mononuclear cells and demyelination in EAE mice. (A) Cerebellar sections isolated from normal, EAE (14 dpt) and p40-, p40<sub>2</sub>- or IL-12-treated EAE (14 dpt receiving these cytokines from 8 dpt) mice were stained with hematoxylin/eosin. Digital images were collected under bright field setting using a ×40 objective. Infiltration (B) and cuffed vessel (C) in cerebellar sections were represented quantitatively by using a scale as described in *SI Appendix, SI Materials and Methods*. Data are expressed as the mean ± SEM of four mice per group. (D) Mononuclear cells (MNCs) isolated from the cerebellum of EAE and EAE+p40 mice on 14 dpt were analyzed by FACS in an LSRFortessa analyzer (BD Biosciences). MNCs were gated, and percentages of CD4<sup>+</sup> (E) and CD8<sup>+</sup> (F) T cells in that gate were quantitatively analyzed. Data represent mean ± SEM of four mice per group. Longitudinal (G) and transverse (H) sections of the spinal cord and coronal sections of the cerebellum (I) isolated from normal, RR-EAE (14 dpt), and p40-, p40<sub>2</sub>- or IL-12-treated RR-EAE (14 dpt receiving these cytokines from 8 dpt) mice were stained with LFB. Digital images were collected under bright field setting using a ×40 objective. Demyelination in the spinal cord (J) and cerebellum (K) was represented quantitatively by using a scale as described in *SI Appendix, SI Materials and Methods*. On 8 dpt, mice were treated with 200 ng per mouse p40, p40<sub>2</sub>, or IL-12 via i.p. injection. Data are expressed as the mean ± SEM of four mice per group. \*\*\**P* < 0.001.

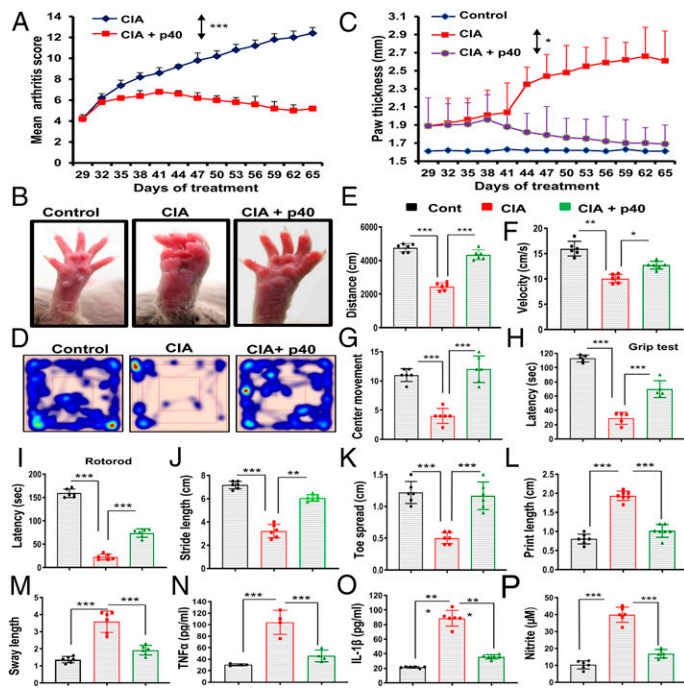
myelin in the MOG-induced chronic EAE model (*SI Appendix, Fig. S6 A–G*).

**Weekly p40 Treatment Suppresses the Disease Process of CIA in Mice.**

It was important to examine whether the inhibitory effect of p40 was limited to only EAE mice or other autoimmune disease models as well. CIA is a widely used animal model of rheumatoid arthritis. Similar to EAE mice, p40 also decreased clinical symptoms of CIA in mice (Fig. 4A). We also monitored paw swelling and observed marked decrease (adjusted *P* = 0.0232 [*P* < 0.05] by Dunnett’s multiple comparison analysis) in paw thickness upon treatment with p40<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 4B and C). As expected, induction of CIA reduced locomotor activities in mice that are evident by heat-map analysis (Fig. 4D), distance traveled (Fig. 4E), velocity (Fig. 4F), center movement (Fig. 4G), grip test latency (Fig. 4H), and rotarod (Fig. 4I). Footprint analysis (*SI Appendix, Fig. S7*) also indicated a decrease in stride length (Fig. 4J) and toe spread (Fig. 4K) and increase in print length (Fig. 4L) and sway length (Fig. 4M) in CIA mice as compared to normal mice. We also found dragging of toes frequently in CIA mice (*SI Appendix, Fig. S7*). However, weekly treatment by p40<sub>2</sub> improved locomotor activities and normalized footprints in CIA mice (Fig. 4D–M and *SI Appendix, Fig. S7*).

**The p40 Suppresses the Internalization of IL-12Rβ1, but Neither IL-12Rβ1 nor IL-23R, in T Cells: Potential Mechanism for the Inhibition of IL-12-, IL-23-, and p40<sub>2</sub>-Mediated Signaling.** To understand the mechanism by which p40 attenuated the disease process of EAE, we investigated the effect of p40 on IL-12, IL-23, and p40<sub>2</sub> signaling pathways. While IL-12 signals via a heterodimer of IL-12Rβ1 and IL-12Rβ2, IL-23 utilizes a heterodimer of IL-12Rβ1 and IL-23R for functioning (19, 20). We have also demonstrated that p40<sub>2</sub> participates in the disease process of EAE (18) and that p40<sub>2</sub> functions via IL-12Rβ1 (21). After

successful binding, these receptors are internalized (22). Since IL-12Rβ1 is a common receptor subunit for both IL-12 and IL-23, at first, we examined the effect of p40 on the internalization of IL-12Rβ1 in MBP-primed T cells. As evident from Fig. 5A and D, normal T cells had much greater surface expression of IL-12Rβ1 than MBP-primed T cells. However, p40 treatment restored the expression of IL-12Rβ1 on the surface of MBP-primed T cells (Fig. 5A and D). This result was specific as p40<sub>2</sub>, IL-12, and IL-23 remained unable to restore the surface expression of IL-12Rβ1 in MBP-primed T cells (Fig. 5A and D). In fact, p40<sub>2</sub>, IL-12, and IL-23 slightly stimulated the disappearance of IL-12Rβ1 from the surface of MBP-primed T cells (Fig. 5A and D). Interestingly, p40 pretreatment reversed the effect of p40<sub>2</sub>, IL-12, and IL-23 and restored the surface expression of IL-12Rβ1 in p40<sub>2</sub>-, IL-12-, and IL-23-treated MBP-primed T cells (Fig. 5A and D). To understand the specificity of the effect, we monitored IL-12Rβ2 by fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS) analysis. MBP priming reduced the surface expression of IL-12Rβ2 in T cells, and this reduction was more after IL-12 treatment (Fig. 5B and E). However, in contrast to the effect on IL-12Rβ1, p40 had no effect on the surface expression of IL-12Rβ2 (Fig. 5B and E). To further understand the specificity, we also monitored IL-23R. As expected, we found the reduction of IL-23R on the surface of T cells after MBP priming, which was further stimulated by IL-23 treatment (Fig. 5C and F). However, in contrast to the effect on IL-12Rβ1 and similar to that on IL-12Rβ2, p40 did not modulate the surface expression of IL-23R (Fig. 5C and F). Western blot analysis of IL-12Rβ1 in membrane fractions of MBP-primed T cells also confirmed prevention of IL-12Rβ1 internalization by p40 in IL-12- and IL-23-treated and untreated MBP-primed T cells (*SI Appendix, Fig. S8 A–F*). Pan-cadherin was analyzed to check the purity of the membrane fraction (*SI Appendix, Fig. S8 A–F*). MBP priming time-dependently decreased the surface expression of IL-12Rβ1



**Fig. 4.** The recombinant p40 protects mice from CIA. (A) CIA was induced in male DBA/1J mice by bovine type II collagen immunization, and from 29 dpi, mice were treated with p40 (200 ng per mouse) weekly via i.p. injection. Mice ( $n = 6$  per group in two independent experiments) were scored daily. (B) On 60 dpi, images of swollen paws were taken. (C) Paw thickness was monitored in six mice per group in two different experiments. Repeated measures one-way ANOVA was calculated with treatment as a single factor, and the outcome was summarized as  $F_{2,36} = 50.77$  ( $>F_c = 4.68$ ). General motor activities were monitored by the Ethovision System (D), heat map images representing overall motor activities; E, distance traveled; F, velocity; G, center movement), grip strength (H), and rotorod (I). Foot print analysis (J, stride length; K, toe spread; L, print length; M, sway length) was also performed. Levels of TNF $\alpha$  (N), IL-1 $\beta$  (O), and nitrite (P) were also monitored in serum. Six mice ( $n = 6$  per group) were used in two independent experiments. \* $P < 0.05$ , \*\* $P < 0.01$ , and \*\*\* $P < 0.001$  by two-sample  $t$  tests.

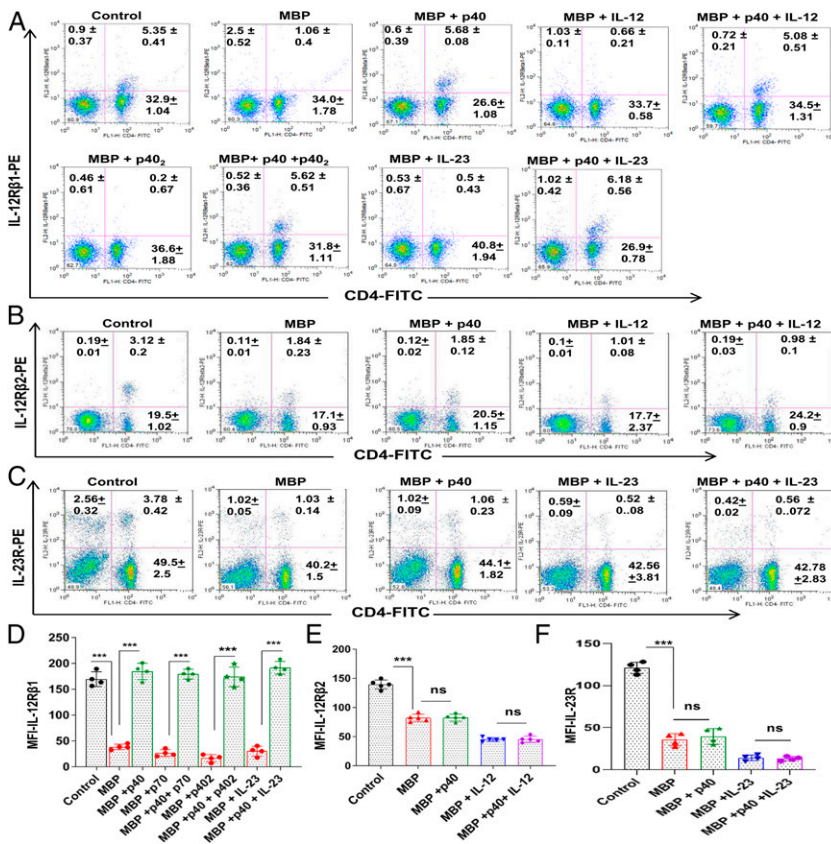
in T cells (SI Appendix, Fig. S8 A and B), and this decrease was more upon IL-12 (SI Appendix, Fig. S8 C and D) and IL-23 (SI Appendix, Fig. S8 E and F) treatment. However, such loss of IL-12R $\beta$ 1 from the membrane was markedly inhibited by p40 (SI Appendix, Fig. S8 A–F). To further confirm these findings, MBP-primed T cells were double labeled for IL-12R $\beta$ 1 and CD3. Time-dependent internalization of IL-12R $\beta$ 1 was noticed in MBP-primed T cells (SI Appendix, Fig. S8G), which was further stimulated by IL-23 (SI Appendix, Fig. S8H), IL-12 (SI Appendix, Fig. S8K), or p40<sub>2</sub> (SI Appendix, Fig. S9A) treatment. However, p40 treatment inhibited the internalization of IL-12R $\beta$ 1 in MBP-primed (SI Appendix, Fig. S8I) as well as IL-23–treated (SI Appendix, Fig. S8J), IL-12–treated (SI Appendix, Fig. S8L), and p40<sub>2</sub>–treated (SI Appendix, Fig. S9B) MBP-primed T cells. These results suggest that the biological functions of p40 are different from that of IL-12, IL-23, and p40<sub>2</sub>.

Again, to understand the specificity, we monitored if p40 modulated the internalization of IL-12R $\beta$ 2. At 0 min of MBP restimulation, IL-12R $\beta$ 2 was present mainly on the membrane (SI Appendix, Fig. S10A). However, at 2 h or 4 h, IL-12R $\beta$ 2 was internalized (SI Appendix, Fig. S10A). In contrast to IL-12R $\beta$ 1, the internalization of IL-12R $\beta$ 2 was not inhibited by p40 (SI Appendix, Fig. S10B). As expected, a greater degree of IL-12R $\beta$ 2 internalization was observed after IL-12 treatment (SI Appendix, Fig. S10C). Again, p40 pretreatment was unable to block the internalization of IL-12R $\beta$ 2 in IL-12–treated cells (SI Appendix, Fig. S10D), suggesting that p40 does not have any effect on the internalization of IL-12R $\beta$ 2.

To further confirm the inhibition of IL-12R $\beta$ 1 internalization by p40, we investigated the effect of p40 downstream signaling events. Since the engagement of IL-12R $\beta$ 1 by IL-12 is known to induce the phosphorylation of signal transducer and activator of transcription 4 (STAT4) (2), we examined the effect of p40 on the level of phospho-STAT4 (pSTAT4). Although restimulation of MBP-primed splenocytes with MBP led to the increase in total STAT4, we did not observe any significant increase in pSTAT4 (Fig. 6 A–C). However, addition of IL-12 during MBP restimulation, markedly increased the phosphorylation of STAT4 (Fig. 6 D–F), which was strongly inhibited by p40 (Fig. 6 G–I).

**Enrichment of the Regulatory T Cells by p40.** Until now, regulatory T cells (Tregs) are probably the most important immunomodulatory subtype of T lymphocytes (23, 24). Therefore, in order to comprehend the consequence of p40-mediated inhibition of IL-12R $\beta$ 1 signaling, at first, we examined the effect of p40 on the status of Tregs. It has been reported that Tregs become both numerically and functionally imperfect during autoimmune insults (25, 26). Foxp3 is a prototype marker of Tregs, and, as expected, MBP priming led to a marked decrease in CD4<sup>+</sup>Foxp3<sup>+</sup> T cells (Fig. 7 A and B). However, p40 treatment enriched CD4<sup>+</sup>Foxp3<sup>+</sup> T cells in MBP-primed splenocytes (Fig. 7 A and B). To further endorse this observation, we studied the effect of p40 on the differentiation into Tregs under Th1- or Th17-favoring conditions. MBP-primed splenocytes displayed greater loss of CD4<sup>+</sup>Foxp3<sup>+</sup> T cells under Th1-polarizing conditions than nonpolarizing conditions (Fig. 7 C and D). On the other hand, p40 treatment markedly protected CD4<sup>+</sup>Foxp3<sup>+</sup> T cells under Th1-favoring conditions (Fig. 7 C and D). However, higher concentrations of p40 were needed to protect CD4<sup>+</sup>Foxp3<sup>+</sup> T cells under Th1-polarizing conditions (Fig. 7 C and D). Similarly, MBP-primed splenocytes also had very few CD4<sup>+</sup>Foxp3<sup>+</sup> T cells under Th17-polarizing conditions as compared to nonpolarizing conditions (Fig. 7 E and F), which was increased by p40 treatment (Fig. 7 E and F).

Next, we monitored the status of Tregs in vivo in EAE mice. EAE mice receiving p40 from 8 dpt were killed on 16 dpt followed by analysis of Tregs in splenocytes and the CNS. As evident from a FACS dot plot (SI Appendix, Fig. S11A) and mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) (SI Appendix, Fig. S11B), there was a significant reduction in the CD4<sup>+</sup>Foxp3<sup>+</sup> population of T cells in EAE splenocytes as compared to normal splenocytes, which was increased by p40 treatment. Similarly, p40 treatment also up-regulated the frequency of CD4<sup>+</sup>Foxp3<sup>+</sup> T cells in the mononuclear cells extracted from the cerebellum of EAE mice (SI Appendix, Fig. S11 C–H). Although IL-10 is a Th2 cytokine, Tregs also have the ability to produce IL-10. Accordingly, we also observed an increase in IL-10 in the cerebellum of p40-treated EAE mice as compared to untreated EAE mice (SI Appendix, Fig. S11I).



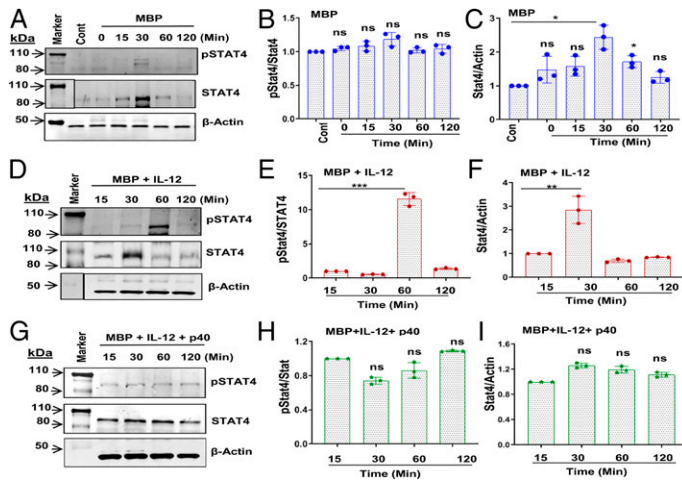
**Fig. 5.** The p40 treatment retains the surface expression of IL-12Rβ1, but neither IL-12Rβ2 nor IL-23R, in MBP-primed T cells. (A) Splenocytes isolated from MBP-immunized donor mice were restimulated with MBP in the presence or absence of p40, IL-12, p40+IL-12, p40<sub>2</sub>, p40<sub>2</sub>+p40, IL-23, and IL-23+p40 for 4 h followed by FACS analysis of nonadherent cells in an LSRFortessa analyzer (BD Biosciences) for IL-12Rβ1 and CD4. Where cells were treated with the combination of cytokines, p40 was used 30 min prior to p40<sub>2</sub>, IL-12, or IL-23. (B) Under similar treatment conditions (p40, IL-12, p40+IL-12), the surface expression of IL-12Rβ2 was monitored by FACS. (C) Under similar treatment conditions (p40, IL-23, p40+IL-23), the surface expression of IL-23 was monitored by FACS. The MFI of IL-12Rβ1 (D), IL-12Rβ2 (E), and IL-23R (F) in the CD4<sup>+</sup> population was calculated by using the CellQuest software. Data are mean ± SD of four different experiments. \*\*\*P < 0.001. ns, not significant; PE, phycoerythrin; FITC, fluorescein isothiocyanate.

**Suppression of Th1 and Th17 Responses by p40 Treatment.** Next, we investigated the effect of p40 on Th1 and Th17 responses. While MBP priming increased the level of CD4<sup>+</sup>IFNγ<sup>+</sup> T cells (*SI Appendix, Fig. S12A and C*) and the production of IFNγ (*SI Appendix, Fig. S12E*) in splenocytes, p40 treatment markedly suppressed MBP-induced up-regulation of the CD4<sup>+</sup>IFNγ<sup>+</sup> T cell population and IFNγ. Similarly, p40 also inhibited IL-12-mediated up-regulation of CD4<sup>+</sup>IFNγ<sup>+</sup> T cells (*SI Appendix, Fig. S12A and C*) and IFNγ production (*SI Appendix, Fig. S12E*) from MBP-primed splenocytes. As expected, MBP priming also increased the level of CD4<sup>+</sup>IL-17<sup>+</sup> T cells (*SI Appendix, Fig. S12B and D*) and the production of IL-17 (*SI Appendix, Fig. S12F*) in splenocytes, which was further stimulated by IL-23. However, p40 markedly suppressed the level of CD4<sup>+</sup>IL-17<sup>+</sup> T cells (*SI Appendix, Fig. S12B and D*) and the production of IL-17 (*SI Appendix, Fig. S12F*) in MBP-primed and IL-23-treated MBP-primed splenocytes. To further confirm these observations, we examined the effect of p40 on the differentiation of MBP-primed T cells into Th1 and Th17 cell types under Th1- or Th17-polarizing conditions. MBP-primed T cells produced a higher level of IFNγ under Th1-polarizing conditions than nonpolarizing conditions (*SI Appendix, Figs. S12G and S13A and B*). However, p40 markedly inhibited the ability of MBP-primed T cells to induce the production of IFNγ under Th1-favoring conditions (*SI Appendix, Figs. S12G and S13A and B*). Similarly, MBP-primed T cells expressed a greater level of IL-17 under Th17-polarizing conditions than nonpolarizing conditions, which was inhibited by p40 treatment (*SI Appendix, Figs. S12H and S14A and B*). Since results described above deal with antigen-primed T cells, next, pure naive CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells were primed in Th1- or Th17-polarizing conditions in the presence or absence of p40, followed by monitoring both IFNγ and IL-17 at the same time by FACS. As expected, Th1 polarization markedly increased IFNγ, but not IL-17, and Th17

polarization strikingly augmented IL-17, but not IFNγ (*SI Appendix, Fig. S15A–D*). However, p40 treatment strongly inhibited IFNγ under Th1-polarizing conditions and IL-17 during Th17 polarization (*SI Appendix, Fig. S15A–D*). It has been shown that GM-CSF plays an important role in the development of autoimmune CNS inflammation and that the expression of GM-CSF in CD4<sup>+</sup> and CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells is increased in MS patients (27, 28). Interestingly, p40 strongly inhibited the level of GM-CSF in Th1 cells (*SI Appendix, Fig. S16A–D*).

Next, we examined if p40 exhibited similar effects on Th1 and Th17 cells in vivo in the CNS of EAE mice. As evident from *SI Appendix, Fig. S17*, p40 treatment of RR-EAE mice led to the inhibition of CD4<sup>+</sup>IFNγ<sup>+</sup> and CD4<sup>+</sup>IL-17<sup>+</sup> T cells in vivo in the cerebellum (*SI Appendix, Fig. S17A, C, and D*) and spinal cord (*SI Appendix, Fig. S17B, E, and F*). These results indicate that p40 treatment is also capable of suppressing Th1 and Th17 responses in vivo in the CNS of EAE mice.

**The p40 Requires IL-12Rβ1, but Not IL-12Rβ2, to Suppress EAE.** Since p40 inhibited the internalization of IL-12Rβ1 (Rβ1), we investigated the role of Rβ1 and IL-12Rβ2 (Rβ2) in p40-mediated suppression of EAE. At first, we induced EAE in Rβ1<sup>-/-</sup> and Rβ2<sup>-/-</sup> mice. As reported earlier (29), MOG immunization did not induce EAE symptoms in Rβ1<sup>-/-</sup> mice but led to severe EAE symptoms in Rβ2<sup>-/-</sup> mice (Fig. 8A). In fact, all MOG-immunized mice in the Rβ2<sup>-/-</sup> group went to the moribund stage within 24 days postimmunization (dpi) (Fig. 8A). However, weekly p40 treatment significantly reduced clinical symptoms of EAE in Rβ2<sup>-/-</sup> mice (Fig. 8A), suggesting that p40 requires Rβ1, but not Rβ2, for suppressing EAE. Since Th1 and Th17 cells play an important role in the pathogenesis of EAE, we also monitored the status of these cells in Rβ2<sup>-/-</sup> EAE mice. Induction of EAE in Rβ2<sup>-/-</sup> mice led to a marked increase in serum levels of IFNγ



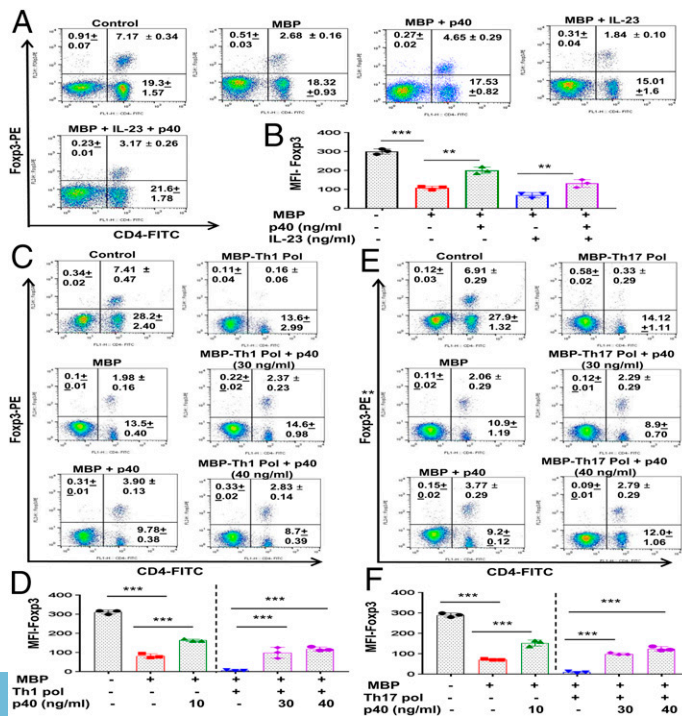
**Fig. 6.** The p40 inhibits the phosphorylation of STAT4 in MBP-primed T cells. Splenocytes isolated from MBP-immunized donor mice were restimulated with MBP (A–C) in the presence of IL-12 (D–F) and p40+IL-12 and pSTAT4 in nonadherent splenocytes. Cells were treated with p40 30 min before IL-12. Actin was used as a loading control. Bands were scanned, and values of pSTAT4/STAT4 (B, MBP; E, MBP+IL-12; H, MBP+IL-12+p40) and STAT4/ $\beta$ -actin (C, MBP; F, MBP+IL-12; I, MBP+IL-12+p40) are presented as relative to control. Data are expressed as the mean  $\pm$  SD of three independent experiments. \* $P$  < 0.05; \*\* $P$  < 0.01; \*\*\* $P$  < 0.001; ns, not significant.

(Fig. 8B) and IL-17 (Fig. 8C). However, p40 treatment markedly inhibited the levels of IFN $\gamma$  and IL-17 in the serum of R $\beta$ 2<sup>-/-</sup> EAE mice (Fig. 8B and C). Similarly, p40 treatment also suppressed the levels of CD4<sup>+</sup>IFN $\gamma$ <sup>+</sup> (SI Appendix, Fig. S18A and Fig. 8D) and CD4<sup>+</sup>IL-17<sup>+</sup> (SI Appendix, Fig. S18B and Fig. 8E) T cells in the spleen of R $\beta$ 2<sup>-/-</sup> EAE mice, indicating that p40 inhibits Th1 and Th17 responses via R $\beta$ 1, but not R $\beta$ 2. Since R $\beta$ 1<sup>-/-</sup> mice are resistant to EAE, to further prove the role of R $\beta$ 1 and R $\beta$ 2 in p40-mediated suppression of EAE, we crossed R $\beta$ 1<sup>-/-</sup> and R $\beta$ 2<sup>-/-</sup> mice to generate R $\beta$ 1<sup>+/-</sup>/R $\beta$ 2<sup>-/-</sup> mice (Fig. 8F), where R $\beta$ 1 was partially present. Two-month-old wild-type (WT), R $\beta$ 1<sup>-/-</sup>, R $\beta$ 2<sup>-/-</sup>, and R $\beta$ 1<sup>+/-</sup>/R $\beta$ 2<sup>-/-</sup> mice did not differ significantly with respect to either wet spleen weight (Fig. 8G and H) or gross body weight (Fig. 8I). We also did not notice any overt phenotypic differences, including diet, fecal boli, social interaction, and agitation across genotypes at this age. However, upon induction of EAE, we found that the severity of EAE is less in R $\beta$ 1<sup>+/-</sup>/R $\beta$ 2<sup>-/-</sup> mice (Fig. 8J) as compared to R $\beta$ 2<sup>-/-</sup> mice

(Fig. 8A). Although p40 treatment inhibited clinical symptoms of EAE in R $\beta$ 1<sup>+/-</sup>/R $\beta$ 2<sup>-/-</sup> mice, the inhibition was much stronger in R $\beta$ 2<sup>-/-</sup> mice (Fig. 8A) than that observed in R $\beta$ 1<sup>+/-</sup>/R $\beta$ 2<sup>-/-</sup> mice (Fig. 8J), again suggesting that p40 suppresses the disease process of EAE via R $\beta$ 1, but not R $\beta$ 2. In R $\beta$ 1<sup>+/-</sup>/R $\beta$ 2<sup>-/-</sup> EAE mice, p40 treatment also led to up-regulation of Tregs (SI Appendix, Fig. S19A and D) and suppression of Th1 (SI Appendix, Fig. S19B and E) and Th17 (SI Appendix, Fig. S19C and F) cells. However, p40 was less efficient in R $\beta$ 1<sup>+/-</sup>/R $\beta$ 2<sup>-/-</sup> EAE mice than either WT EAE mice or R $\beta$ 2<sup>-/-</sup> EAE mice in suppressing Th1 and Th17 cells.

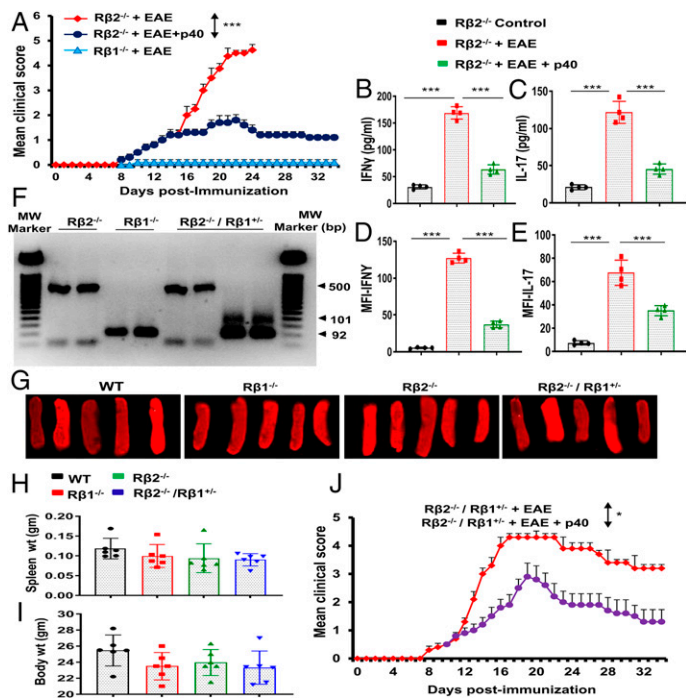
## Discussion

MS is the most common autoimmune demyelinating disease of the CNS. Since IL-12 is the most important cytokine in terms of cell-mediated immunity (30), this molecule is considered as an essential component of autoimmunity (2, 9, 12). The IL-12 family of molecules has four different members, including p40



**Fig. 7.** Enrichment of Tregs by p40. Splenocytes isolated from MBP-immunized donor mice were restimulated with MBP in the presence or absence of p40 (10 ng/mL), IL-23 (10 ng/mL), and p40+IL-23 for 48 h, followed by FACS analysis of nonadherent cells in an LSRFortessa analyzer (BD Biosciences) for CD4 and Fopx3 (A). The MFI of Fopx3 (B) in the CD4<sup>+</sup> population was calculated by using the CellQuest software. Results are mean  $\pm$  SD of three different experiments. \*\* $P$  < 0.01 and \*\*\* $P$  < 0.001 by two-sample  $t$  tests. Splenocytes isolated from MBP-immunized donor mice were treated with p40 (30 ng/mL), followed by restimulation with MBP in the presence of either Th1 (C and D) or Th17 (E and F) polarization (Pol) as mentioned in SI Appendix, SI Materials and Methods. After 48 h, cells were analyzed by FACS for CD4 and Fopx3 (C, Th1 polarization; E, Th17 polarization). The MFI of Fopx3 (D, Th1 polarization; F, Th17 polarization) in the CD4<sup>+</sup> population was calculated by using the CellQuest software. Results are mean  $\pm$  SD of three different experiments. \*\* $P$  < 0.01; \*\*\* $P$  < 0.001 by two-sample  $t$  tests.





**Fig. 8.** Involvement of IL-12Rβ1 and/or IL-12Rβ2 in p40-mediated protection of EAE. (A) EAE was induced in IL-12Rβ1<sup>-/-</sup> (Rβ1<sup>-/-</sup>) and IL-12Rβ2<sup>-/-</sup> (Rβ2<sup>-/-</sup>) mice by MOG immunization. We did not observe EAE symptoms in IL-12Rβ1<sup>-/-</sup> mice. From 8 dpi, IL-12Rβ2<sup>-/-</sup> mice were treated with p40 (200 ng per mouse) once a week via i.p. injection. Mice were examined for clinical symptoms until 34 dpi. Data are expressed as the mean ± SEM of six mice per group. \*\*\**P* < 0.001 vs. EAE+p40. On 20 dpi, levels of IFNγ (B) and IL-17 (C) were monitored in serum by ELISA. Results are mean ± SEM of four mice per group. Splenocytes were analyzed by FACS in an LSRFortessa analyzer (BD Biosciences) for CD4 and IFNγ and CD4 and IL-17. The MFI of IFNγ (D) and IL-17 (E) in the CD4<sup>+</sup> population was calculated by using the CellQuest software. \*\*\**P* < 0.001 by two-sample *t* tests. Rβ1<sup>-/-</sup> mice were bred with Rβ2<sup>-/-</sup> mice to generate Rβ1<sup>+/-</sup>/Rβ2<sup>-/-</sup> mice. Genotyping data are presented (F). Whole spleens are shown for all different groups (G). There were no significant differences in spleen weight (H) and total body weight (I) among different groups of mice (8 wk old). (J) EAE was induced in Rβ1<sup>+/-</sup>/Rβ2<sup>-/-</sup> mice by MOG immunization, followed by treatment with p40 (200 ng per mouse) once a week via i.p. injection from 8 dpi. Mice were scored until 34 dpi. Data are expressed as the mean ± SEM of six mice per group. \**P* < 0.05 vs. p40 treatment.

monomer (p40), p40 homodimer (p40<sub>2</sub>), IL-12 (p40:p35), and IL-23 (p40:p19) (2, 4). In the current era of science, where heterodimers rule, only IL-23 and IL-12 were thought to be biologically active. Accordingly, p40 and p40<sub>2</sub> were considered as inactive members of the IL-12 family (2). In contrast, we have established the proinflammatory property of p40<sub>2</sub> (21, 31, 32) and described that the biological activities of p40<sub>2</sub> are different from that of IL-12 and IL-23 (33-35). Furthermore, after generating separate functional blocking monoclonal antibodies (mAbs) and an enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) against each of mouse p40<sub>2</sub> and p40 (7), we have demonstrated that neutralization of p40<sub>2</sub> by specific mAbs protects mice from EAE (18). Recently we have seen that the level of p40 is much higher in the serum of prostate cancer patients as compared to healthy controls and that neutralization of p40 leads to shrinkage of prostate tumors in mice (13).

Here, we demonstrate that the level of p40 goes down in MS patients and EAE animals and that treatment with recombinant mouse or human p40 protects mice from EAE. The p40 also inhibited the disease process of CIA, an animal model of rheumatoid arthritis. This report demonstrates an anti-autoimmune role of p40 that is different from other members of the IL-12 family. These results also indicate a possible therapeutic prospect of recombinant p40 in MS. Recently a phase II clinical trial of ustekinumab, an anti-IL-12/23p40 antibody, found no clinical or radiologic improvement in any MS patient treatment group compared with placebo controls (36). It is expected because ustekinumab neutralizes p40 present in IL-12, IL-23, p40<sub>2</sub>, and p40. Although IL-12, IL-23, and possibly p40<sub>2</sub> (based on our human data in Table 1) are involved in the disease process of MS, according to our results, p40 is protective for EAE and most likely for MS as well. Therefore, by neutralizing both autoimmune (IL-12, IL-23, and p40<sub>2</sub>) and anti-autoimmune (p40) components at the same time, ustekinumab should not be protective in MS patients.

Tregs, viewed as the master controller of immune responses, play vital roles in MS and EAE (23, 24). Foxp3 is considered as a prototype marker of Tregs, and several studies demonstrate the

decrease in Foxp3 and reduction of Foxp3<sup>+</sup> T cells in RR-MS patients compared with those in control subjects (25, 26). Therefore, up-regulation and/or maintenance of Tregs may be beneficial for MS. Here, we demonstrate that p40 treatment is capable of enriching Foxp3<sup>+</sup> Tregs *in vivo* in the spleen and the CNS of EAE mice. Accordingly, p40 treatment also decreased Th1 and Th17 responses *in vivo* in EAE mice. Next, we investigated mechanisms by which p40 stimulated the anti-autoimmune Treg response and attenuated autoimmune Th1 and Th17 responses. Interaction of IL-12 and its receptor IL-12R in the plasma membrane triggers the activation of the Janus family of tyrosine kinases, ultimately resulting into the phosphorylation of tyrosine residues of STAT3 and STAT4. These tyrosine phosphorylations are responsible for the formation of the STAT4/STAT4 homodimer and STAT3/STAT4 heterodimers, which then translocate to the nucleus and bind to the IFNγ promoter for the transcription of the IFNγ gene (37). Similarly, binding of IL-23 to IL-23R leads to the transcription of IL-17 via activation of RORγt (38). Consistent to the suppression of EAE, p40 inhibited the production of both IFNγ and IL-17 in MBP-primed T cells, suggesting that the presence of p40 may not favor the interaction of IL-12 with IL-12R and IL-23 with IL-23R to turn on signaling pathways for the production of IFNγ and IL-17. A successful interaction of IL-12 and IL-23 with their respective receptors leads to the internalization of receptors inside the cell. On the other hand, an unsuccessful interaction leaves the receptor arrested in the membrane, which is then unable to transmit any downstream signaling cascades. Both IL-12R and IL-23R complexes share the same receptor, IL-12Rβ1. Interestingly, we found that p40 treatment increased the membrane localization of IL-12Rβ1, but neither IL-12Rβ2 nor IL-23R, in MBP-primed T cells. While IL-12 stimulated the internalization of both IL-12Rβ1 and IL-12Rβ2, p40 suppressed IL-12-mediated internalization of only IL-12Rβ1. Similarly, IL-23 augmented the internalization of both IL-12Rβ1 and IL-23R. However, p40 interfered with the internalization of only IL-12Rβ1 in IL-23-treated T cells. These results demonstrate that p40 is involved in the membrane arrest of IL-12Rβ1 and that p40 is also capable of suppressing IL-12-, IL-23-, and p40<sub>2</sub>-mediated IL-12Rβ1 internalization and

thereby associated autoimmune signaling pathways. Please see *SI Appendix, Fig. S20* for a schematic representation. Accordingly, our studies with  $R\beta 1^{-/-}$ ,  $R\beta 2^{-/-}$ , and  $R\beta 1^{+/-}/R\beta 2^{-/-}$  mice indicate that IL-12R $\beta 1$  is more critical than IL-12R $\beta 2$  in the induction of EAE and that p40 suppresses EAE via IL-12R $\beta 1$ .

However, at present, we do not know the mechanisms by which a cell decides to secrete either p40 or p40<sub>2</sub>. Numerous laboratories (2, 39) and we (7, 40) have shown the release of IL-12, IL-23, p40, and p40<sub>2</sub> from antigen-presenting cells such as macrophages, dendritic cells, microglia, etc. However, surprisingly, we have seen that human (LNCaP) and mouse (TRAMP) prostate cancer cells, human (MCF-7) and mouse (4T1) breast cancer cells, and human (Hep3B) and mouse (Hepa) hepatoma cells release excess p40 (13). Accordingly, we have seen higher levels of p40 in the serum of prostate cancer patients as compared to age-matched healthy controls. In contrast, levels of IL-12 and p40<sub>2</sub> are lower in the serum of prostate cancer patients as compared to age-matched healthy controls (13). On the other hand, here, we have observed the exactly opposite distribution of p40, IL-12, IL-23, and p40<sub>2</sub> in the serum of MS patients. Therefore, it is likely that IL-12, IL-23, and p40<sub>2</sub> are produced at greater levels under autoimmune and inflammatory conditions and that p40 is released at a higher level during anti-autoimmune and antiinflammatory conditions. However, further studies are required to find out cellular sources of p40 under inflammatory and antiinflammatory conditions.

In summary, here, we demonstrate the selective decrease of p40 in MS patients and EAE mice and that supplementation of p40 enriches anti-autoimmune Tregs, mitigates autoimmune Th1 and Th17 cells, inhibits the encephalitogenicity of MBP-primed T cells, restores the integrity of the BBB and BSB, normalizes the expression of myelin genes in the CNS, and attenuates the clinical symptoms of EAE via suppression of IL-12-, IL-23-, and p40<sub>2</sub>-mediated internalization of IL-12R $\beta 1$ . These results delineate an anti-autoimmune role of p40 that is different from IL-12, IL-23, and p40<sub>2</sub>. Although the disease process of MS is not exactly the same as EAE, our results from MS patients and EAE animals suggest that treatment with p40 may be a new therapeutic strategy against MS.

## Experimental Procedures

**Reagents.** Bovine myelin basic protein (MBP), L-glutamine, and  $\beta$ -mercaptoethanol were obtained from Invitrogen. Fetal bovine serum (FBS) and RPMI 1640 were from Mediatech. Heat-killed *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (H37RA) was purchased from Difco Labs. While recombinant mouse p40 monomer (p40) was obtained from BD Bioscience, recombinant human p40 was obtained from R&D Systems. Recombinant mouse p40 homodimer (p40<sub>2</sub>) was obtained from R&D Systems. Recombinant mouse IL-12 and IL-23 were obtained from eBioscience. Incomplete Freund's adjuvant (IFA) was obtained from Calbiochem. MOG35-55, solvent blue 38, cresyl violet acetate, and lithium carbonate were purchased from Sigma.

**Serum Samples of MS Patients.** Serum samples of MS patients with active disease were obtained from the MS Clinic of the Rush University Medical Center. These experiments were approved by the Institutional Review Board of the Rush University Medical Center. MS patients are individuals who have been diagnosed with the disease based on the McDonald criteria and were in a state of an acute disease relapse that was independently confirmed by magnetic resonance imaging. Patients were either treatment-naïve or off disease-modifying therapy for more than 6 mo.

**Induction of Adoptive Transfer EAE in Female SJL/J Mice by MBP-Primed T Cells, Adoptive Transfer EAE in Male C57/BL6 Mice by MOG35-55-Primed Th17 Cells, Active Induction of EAE in Female SJL/J Mice by PLP139-151, and Active Induction of EAE in Male C57/BL6 Mice by MOG35-55.** RR-EAE was induced in

female SJL/J mice by two different procedures (adoptive transfer of MBP-primed T cells and active immunization by PLP139-151) as described earlier (18, 41–43). Chronic EAE was also induced in male C57/BL6 mice by two different procedures (adoptive transfer of MOG35-55-primed Th17 cells and active immunization by MOG35-55) (42, 43). For details, please see *SI Appendix, SI Materials and Methods*.

**Treatment with Recombinant p40.** EAE mice were treated with either mouse or human p40 (carrier-free) once a week via i.p. injection. Control mice received only phosphate-buffered saline. Results were statistically analyzed by the RS/1 multicomparison procedure using a one-way ANOVA and Dunnett's test for multiple comparisons with a common control group.

**Induction of CIA.** CIA was induced in male DBA/1J mice by immunization with bovine type II collagen as described recently (44). For details, please see *SI Appendix, SI Materials and Methods*.

**Isolation of Lymph-Node Cells from p40-Treated Recipient (EAE) Mice.** Female SJL/J mice were induced EAE by adoptive transfer of MBP-primed T cells as described above. From 8 dpt (the onset of acute phase), mice were treated (i.p.) with p40 (200 ng per mouse per week). On 16 dpt, lymph nodes were collected, and lymph-node cells were tested for different experiments.

**Histological Analysis.** Histological analysis was performed in cerebellar and spinal cord sections of EAE mice at the peak of the acute phase as described by us (18, 43, 45). For details, please see *SI Appendix, SI Materials and Methods*.

**Assessment of BBB and BSB Permeability.** Permeability through the BBB and BSB was monitored in EAE mice at the peak of the acute phase using Alexa 680 as described before (18, 43). For details, please see *SI Appendix, SI Materials and Methods*.

**Staining for Myelin.** Spinal cord sections were stained with LFB for myelin as described before (18, 43, 45). For details, please see *SI Appendix, SI Materials and Methods*.

**Semiquantitative RT-PCR and Real-Time PCR Analyses.** Total RNA was isolated, and the mRNA expression of different genes was examined by semiquantitative RT-PCR and real-time PCR as described before (18, 43, 45). For details, please see *SI Appendix, SI Materials and Methods*.

**Quantification of p40 and p40<sub>2</sub> in Serum.** Sandwich ELISA was employed to measure p40 and p40<sub>2</sub> in serum as described before (13, 18). For details, please see *SI Appendix, SI Materials and Methods*.

**Flow Cytometry.** Multicolor FACS analysis was performed in single-cell suspensions isolated from mouse spleen, cerebellum, or spinal cord using an LSRFortessa analyzer (BD Biosciences). For details, please see *SI Appendix, SI Materials and Methods*.

**Statistical Analysis.** Levels of significance for comparison between two groups were determined by one-sided two-sample Mann-Whitney *U* rank-sum test and the Student *t* test distribution. Analyses were performed by GraphPad Prism 7.02 software. ANOVA were used to compare p40, p40<sub>2</sub>, and IL-12 among different groups. Wherever required, repeated measures one-way ANOVA was employed. Pair-wise comparisons with Bonferroni correction were performed to find out if there was any significant difference detected from ANOVA.

**Data Availability.** All study data are included in the article and *SI Appendix*. All other relevant data are available upon request.

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