## CNS Treg cells - new functions, conventional fuel

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Correspondence: Thomas Korn, ORCID: 0000-0002-3633-0955, E-mail: thomas.korn@tum.de, Technical University of Munich School of Medicine, Ismaninger Str. 22, 81675 Munich, Germany, Phone: ++49-89-41405617, Fax: ++49-89-41404675. Ectopic expression of IL-2 in the central nervous system (CNS) is sufficient to create an organ-restricted niche for tissue-resident regulatory T cells that support re-establishment of homoestasis after multiple types of tissue injury in the CNS.

 $Foxp3^+$  regulatory T (T<sub>reg</sub>) cells are prone to apoptosis unless they reside in a milieu rich in interleukin 2 (IL-2)<sup>1</sup>. In the systemic immune compartment, conventional T ( $T_{conv}$ ) cells are the major providers of IL-2, which T<sub>reg</sub> cells cannot produce themselves. However, T<sub>reg</sub> cells are also found to reside in non-lymphoid tissues where they control adaptive immune responses in a lowgrade inflammatory environment but might also subserve "homeostatic" functions for tissue integrity and regeneration  $^{2,3}$ . Since  $T_{conv}$  cells may not be available as sources of IL-2 in that scenario, it has been a key question which factors shape functional niches for the maintenance of T<sub>reg</sub> cells in non-lymphoid tissues such as the CNS. In the current study, Liston and colleagues show that IL-2 is sufficient to increase the local pool of  $T_{\rm reg}$  cells in the CNS  $^4\!.$  In a series of either genetically encoded systems or by adeno-associated viral (AAV)-vector mediated expression systems, CNS-intrinsic cells (e.g. neurons or astrocytes) were inducibly forced to locally produce IL-2 ("behind the blood-brain-barrier"), which led to an enlargement of the T<sub>reg</sub> cell population in the brain (but not the systemic compartment) with beneficial effects in traumatic brain injury, stroke, and autoimmunity<sup>4</sup>. Notably, microglia expressed higher levels of major histocompatibility complex (MHC) class II molecules and PD-L1, suggesting that a positive-feedback loop between microglia and Treg cells involving cognate and co-stimulatory signals might eventually result in the creation of an expanded CNS T<sub>reg</sub> niche as long as IL-2 is locally expressed in the brain.

The significance of tissue-resident immune cells is increasingly recognized not only in terms of the immune competence of non-lymphoid tissues but also as to their structural integrity and homeostatic function. A tissue-specific functional specialization has been described for T<sub>reg</sub> cells in particular in adipose tissue and muscle - but perhaps also in the CNS <sup>5</sup>. Even though the number of T<sub>reg</sub> cells in the naive CNS is very low, CNS-resident T<sub>reg</sub> cells form a sizeable population under infection-, autoimmune-, or damage-induced inflammatory conditions. As has been illustrated for visceral adipose tissue, CNS Treg cells exhibit a CNS-specific transcriptional profile that is distinct from the transcriptome of lymphoid system-residing T<sub>reg</sub> cells and T<sub>reg</sub> cells in other anatomical sites <sup>6</sup>. Yet, some key features of T<sub>reg</sub> cells, such as high expression of CD25, are also present in CNS T<sub>reg</sub> cells. While the prerequisites for the maintenance of T<sub>reg</sub> cells in lymphoid tissues have been worked out to some detail, it is unclear which are the growth and maintenance factors and their cellular sources in non-lymphoid tissues. In fact, it has been questioned whether T<sub>reg</sub> cells in the CNS depend upon IL-2 since the concentration of IL-2 in the CNS is low and that the CNS is usually devoid of T<sub>conv</sub> cells as the prime producers of this cytokine.

Since in their present study <sup>4</sup> Liston and colleagues do not introduce a CNS-conditional loss-of-function system for IL-2, they cannot make the claim that IL-2 is necessary for the maintenance of CNS  $T_{reg}$  cells. Yet, they provide clear evidence that synthetic IL-2 is sufficient to maintain and increase the pool of  $T_{reg}$  cells in the CNS.

Tissue-resident  $T_{reg}$  cells are diverse and adapted to their niches. In ongoing analyses, tissue specific signatures of  $T_{reg}$  cells are being identified. Presently, a "core signature" of tissue  $T_{reg}$  cells comprises the phenotypic markers KLRG1, ST2, CD103 and the transcription factor Blimp-

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 $1^{7}$ . This signature is overlapping with a signature of effector  $T_{reg}$  cells that has previously been proposed <sup>8</sup>. A commonality between the effector T<sub>reg</sub> and tissue-resident T<sub>reg</sub> cell signatures is a strong signalling bias towards the NF-kB pathway, and it has been hypothesized that this signaling bias is linked to the maintenance of T<sub>reg</sub> cells in non-lymphoid tissues <sup>9</sup>. From these findings, two key areas of investigation have evolved in order to understand the biology of tissue Treg cells and perhaps exploit their functions for interventional strategies in disease. First, the field has wondered whether the pool of tissue-resident T<sub>reg</sub> cells in a specific organ is formed by selective recruitment of precursor T<sub>reg</sub> cells that can already be found in the systemic immune compartment or whether a distinct functional phenotype is instructed in local T<sub>reg</sub> cells by the specific milieu in a given anatomical niche <sup>10</sup>. Second (and related to previous problem), the tissue-specific signals that shape and support Treg cells in non-lymphoid tissues need to be defined - and this refers to both the TCR specificity of tissue-resident Treg cells, i.e. the cognate signals that they receive, and the differentiation and growth factors that they might sense in a distinct organ. We are far from having the answers to these fundamental questions. However, the present study provides compelling evidence that IL-2 can be used to expand T<sub>reg</sub> cells not only in secondary lymphoid tissue but also in non-lymphoid tissue, including the CNS.

The report by Liston and colleagues <sup>4</sup> is technically very strong and provides a series of ideas to translate the concept of tissue-restricted IL-2 expression into a clinical setting with the aim to increase the niche size for tissue-resident  $T_{reg}$  cells at defined anatomical sites. This idea builds on the understanding that it might be a better strategy to expand established (functionally specialized) tissue-resident  $T_{reg}$  cell populations with their complex properties, rather than to adoptively transfer "generic"  $T_{reg}$  cells with all the issues of stability and tissue adaptation

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including the potential of aberrant adaptation. In addition, in recent years we have learnt quite a bit about interfering with the IL-2 system in therapeutic interventions. IL-2 is already used as a therapeutic agent in metastatic melanoma. Here, systemic application of IL-2 is meant to harness effector T cell responses against tumor cells. However, the systemic application of high-dose IL-2 in cancer therapy has been problematic due to immediate toxicities (mostly related to vascular leakage syndrome) but also due to systemic expansion of ICOS<sup>high</sup> T<sub>reg</sub> cells <sup>11</sup>, which is an unwanted event in tumor therapy. Conversely, a blocking monoclonal antibody to the IL-2Ra (daclizumab) that was applied in Multiple Sclerosis (MS) was associated with loss of Treg cell number and function <sup>12</sup>. In some cases, the application of daclizumab resulted in hyperinflammatory syndromes including severe encephalitis <sup>13</sup> that led to the withdrawal of this drug for MS. Together these data suggest that targeting IL-2 in humans unfolds some of its key effects through modulation of Foxp3<sup>+</sup> T<sub>reg</sub> cells. In order to refine IL-2 directed interventional approaches and to exploit them for organ-restricted inflammatory and degenerative diseases, the present study will be instrumental because it proves that locally and temporally restricted administration of IL-2 that has a short half-life and only acts over short distances is sufficient to support a preexisting pool of tissue-resident T<sub>reg</sub> cells. Therefore, the concept of expanding an already established tissue-adapted T<sub>reg</sub> cell population via the IL-2 system without modulating the systemic T<sub>reg</sub> cell pool is promising and bears a realistic translational potential (Figure 1).

 $T_{reg}$  cells are a rare cell population in the naive CNS, but are established in the CNS for extended periods of time after trauma, vasular tissue damage, or an inflammatory assault. While these CNS  $T_{reg}$  cells might constitute a cellular checkpoint of tissue recovery in the CNS, more homeostatic functions of CNS  $T_{reg}$  cells have been proposed. Since the molecular unraveling of these functions has only started, an alternative strategy to exploit this  $T_{reg}$  cell potential for next generation immune interventions builds on the idea to appropriately size the niche of these tissue adapted  $T_{reg}$  cells by interfering with crucial tissue-specific growth or maintenance factors. It has been proposed that tumor necrosis factor (TNF) might be a factor that specifically supports the functional phenotype of CNS  $T_{reg}$  cells <sup>14</sup>. However, the best known growth factor for  $T_{reg}$  cells (IL-2) might also do the job in controling the size of tissue  $T_{reg}$  cell populations. Nevertheless, we need to explore alternative fuels of tissue-resident  $T_{reg}$  cells (perhaps TNF or IL-33), and novel technologies that allow for single-cell analysis in the spatial context of distinct anatomical niches may help to identify cellular interaction partners of tissue-resident  $T_{reg}$  cells in non-lymphoid tissues. However, in the meantime, tissue conditioning to enhance resilience to recurrent injury and perhaps to promote regeneration of the CNS by  $T_{reg}$  cells might as well be facilitated by providing their conventional fuel.

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