

# Generalized Resistance to Thymic Deletion in the NOD Mouse: A Polygenic Trait Characterized by Defective Induction of *Bim*

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## Summary

The cause of common polygenic autoimmune diseases is not understood because of genetic and cellular complexity. Here, we pinpoint the action of a subset of autoimmune susceptibility loci in the NOD mouse strain linked to *D1mit181*, *D2mit490*, *D7mit101*, and *D15mit229*, which cause a generalized resistance to thymic deletion *in vivo* that applies equally to *Aire*-induced organ-specific gene products in the thymic medulla and to systemic antigens expressed at high levels throughout the thymus and affects CD4<sup>+</sup>,

CD4<sup>+</sup>8<sup>+</sup>, and CD4<sup>+</sup>25<sup>+</sup> thymocytes. Resistance to thymic deletion does not reflect a general deficit in TCR signaling to calcineurin- or ERK-induced genes, imbalance in constitutive regulators of apoptosis, nor excessive signaling to prosurvival genes but is distinguished by failure to induce the proapoptotic gene and protein, *Bim*, during *in vivo* encounter with high-avidity autoantigen. These findings establish defects in thymic deletion and *Bim* induction as a key mechanism in the pathogenesis of autoimmunity.

## Introduction

Autoimmune diseases directed against different target tissues often cluster together in individuals and families and in the inbred nonobese diabetic (NOD) mouse strain and its relatives, leading to the view that they arise from a shared, general susceptibility toward autoimmunity with the specific target antigens and tissues varying depending upon additional genetic traits such as the MHC and upon specific environmental factors (Todd and Wicker, 2001). The basis for such a generalized autoimmune propensity is not known but could have two not mutually exclusive origins. First, there may be an intrinsic reduction in the active processes for eliminating or silencing clones of T or B lymphocytes that bear receptors with dangerously high affinity for self antigens. Second, intrinsic hyperreactivity of target tissues or immune cells could exaggerate responses by lower affinity self-reactive lymphocytes that normally fall below the threshold for actively acquired tolerance and might otherwise exist in a state of immunological ignorance.

Defects in actively acquired tolerance by thymic clonal deletion apparently explain the cluster of autoimmune diseases in the rare Mendelian disorder, Autoimmune Polyendocrine Syndrome 1, in humans or mice with homozygous loss of function mutations in the Autoimmune Regulator (*Aire*) gene. *Aire* is not required within autoreactive T cells themselves but is required for ectopic expression of organ-specific gene products such as insulin within the radioresistant thymic epithelial stroma (Anderson et al., 2002), and in the absence of *Aire*, organ-specific T cells fail to be deleted in the thymus (Liston et al., 2003). Defects in thymic clonal deletion have also been associated with the non-MHC-linked genetic susceptibility to autoimmune diabetes in the NOD mouse (Kishimoto and Sprent, 2001; Lesage et al., 2002). Kishimoto and Sprent showed that semimature thymocytes from NOD, intermediate between the immature CD4<sup>+</sup>8<sup>+</sup> DP cells and CD4<sup>+</sup>8<sup>-</sup> SP cells, are relatively resistant to cell death *in vitro* when their TCRs are cross-linked with different doses of anti-TCR antibody, although this finding has been disputed (Villunger et al., 2003). Lesage et al. analyzed thymic deletion *in vivo*, tracing differentiation of T cells bearing a high affinity TCR for peptide 46–61 of hen egg lysozyme (HEL) bound to I-A<sup>k</sup> in TCR and insulin promoter:HEL double transgenic mice backcrossed to H2<sup>k</sup> congenic NOD or B10

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strains (Lesage et al., 2002). These cells were deleted during the transition between DP and SP cells in the thymus of autoimmune resistant B10.Br strain mice, but not in the NOD.H2<sup>k</sup> strain where the T cells escaped to the periphery and progression to diabetes ensued. The NOD defect in thymic deletion was comparable in magnitude to that caused by deficiency of *Aire* in the same model (Liston et al., 2003); however, the NOD defect acted cell autonomously within autoreactive T cells carrying the non-MHC NOD genes (Lesage et al., 2002). This in vivo NOD defect in negative selection has recently been extended to the CD8<sup>+</sup> thymocyte population in the A14 transgenic model, indicating that it is not isolated to the CD4<sup>+</sup> lineage alone nor to the 3A9 transgene (Choisy-Rossi et al., 2004).

The basis for T cell resistance to thymic deletion in NOD mice is unknown. It is not known if this resistance is uniquely associated with thymic deletion to *Aire*-induced antigens encountered late in differentiation in the thymic medulla or if it might relate to the systemic autoimmune syndromes that also occur in NOD strains nor is it known if this defect explains the action of one or more of the twenty-two known insulin dependent diabetes (*Idd*) or other autoimmune susceptibility loci in NOD. Here, we analyze these issues by a combination of in vivo cellular, molecular, and genetic approaches and find that there is a global, quantitative decrease in the efficiency of clonal deletion within the DP, SP, and CD4<sup>+</sup>25<sup>+</sup> thymocyte subsets across a range of amounts, locations, and sources of antigen. In molecular terms, the defect is explained by selectively diminished induction of *Bim* and reflects the additive action of four NOD loci, previously largely associated with diabetes and other autoimmune disorders in NOD mice and encompassing the *Bim* locus itself.

## Results

### Defective Thymic Deletion to Four Different Sources of Autoantigen

Thymic deletion of T cells bearing NOD or B10 genetic makeup was analyzed in vivo across a range of sources and amounts of thymic antigen to determine if NOD resistance to thymic deletion was limited to particular stages of development and sources of antigen. Four different HEL transgenic strains were backcrossed to 3A9 TCR transgenic mice on the B10.Br and NOD.H2<sup>k</sup> (NODk) MHC-congenic strain backgrounds. The ins:mHEL transgenic strain synthesizes high concentrations of membrane bound HEL as a self antigen in pancreatic islet  $\beta$  cells under control of the rat insulin promoter (Akkaraju et al., 1997b). Trace quantities of cleaved soluble HEL (sHEL) are present in the circulation of these mice (Akkaraju et al., 1997b), and *Aire*-dependent ectopic expression occurs in the thymus (Liston et al., 2004) with trace immunofluorescent staining in rare medullary cells (Figure 1). The Tg-HEL transgenic strain encodes the same membrane bound HEL protein under the control of a fragment of the rat thyroglobulin promoter, resulting in high expression in the thyroid epithelium, undetectable levels of sHEL present in the circulation (Akkaraju et al., 1997a, 1997b), and expression in scattered thymic medullary epithelium detected by immu-

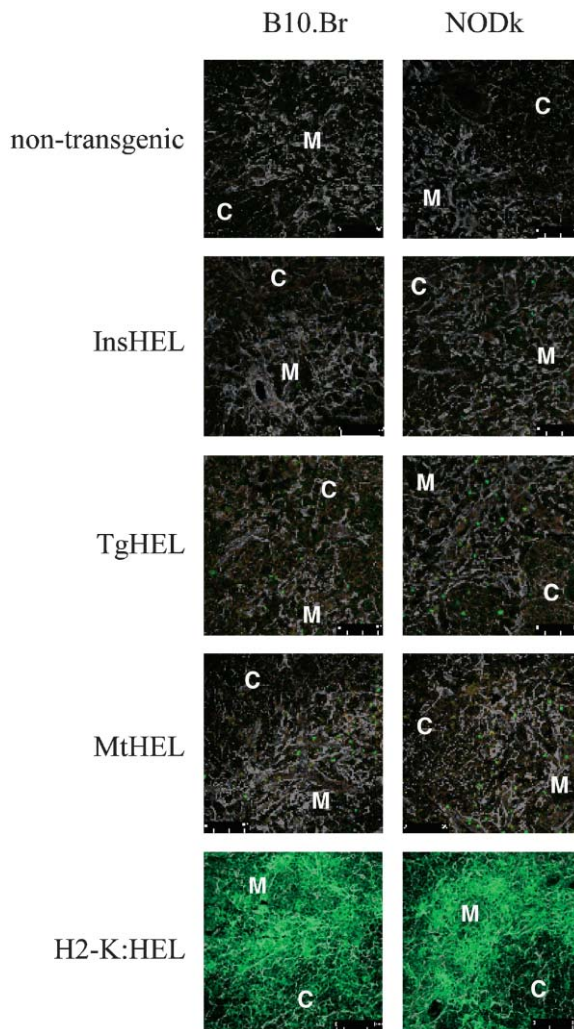


Figure 1. HEL Protein Expression in Thymi of Transgenic Mice  
Sections of frozen thymi from nontransgenic, insHEL, TgHEL, MtHEL, and H2-K:HEL transgenic B10.Br and NODk mice were stained with antibodies to HEL (green) and keratin (gray) and examined by confocal microscopy. The thymic medulla (M) and cortex (C) are indicated. Data are representative of three experiments.

nofluorescence (Figure 1) associated with *Aire*-dependent deletion (Liston et al., 2004). The Mt:sHEL transgenic strain ML4 encodes soluble HEL driven by the metallothionein promoter giving only a trace basal expression in the serum (Adelstein et al., 1991) and immunofluorescent staining in medullary epithelial cells comparable to the thyroglobulin promoter (Figure 1), although this is predominantly *Aire*-independent (A.L., unpublished data). The H2-K:mHEL transgenic strain encodes the membrane bound form of HEL being expressed under the H2-K<sup>b</sup> promoter, driving ubiquitous high-level expression on radioresistant cells and thymocytes (Figure 1; Hartley et al., 1991), and is unaffected by *Aire* mutations (Liston et al., 2004). For each transgene, HEL expression in the thymus was equivalent on the B10.Br and NODk backgrounds as measured by immunofluorescence (Figure 1; histograms shown in Supplemental Figure S1 available online at <http://www.immunity.com/cgi/content/>

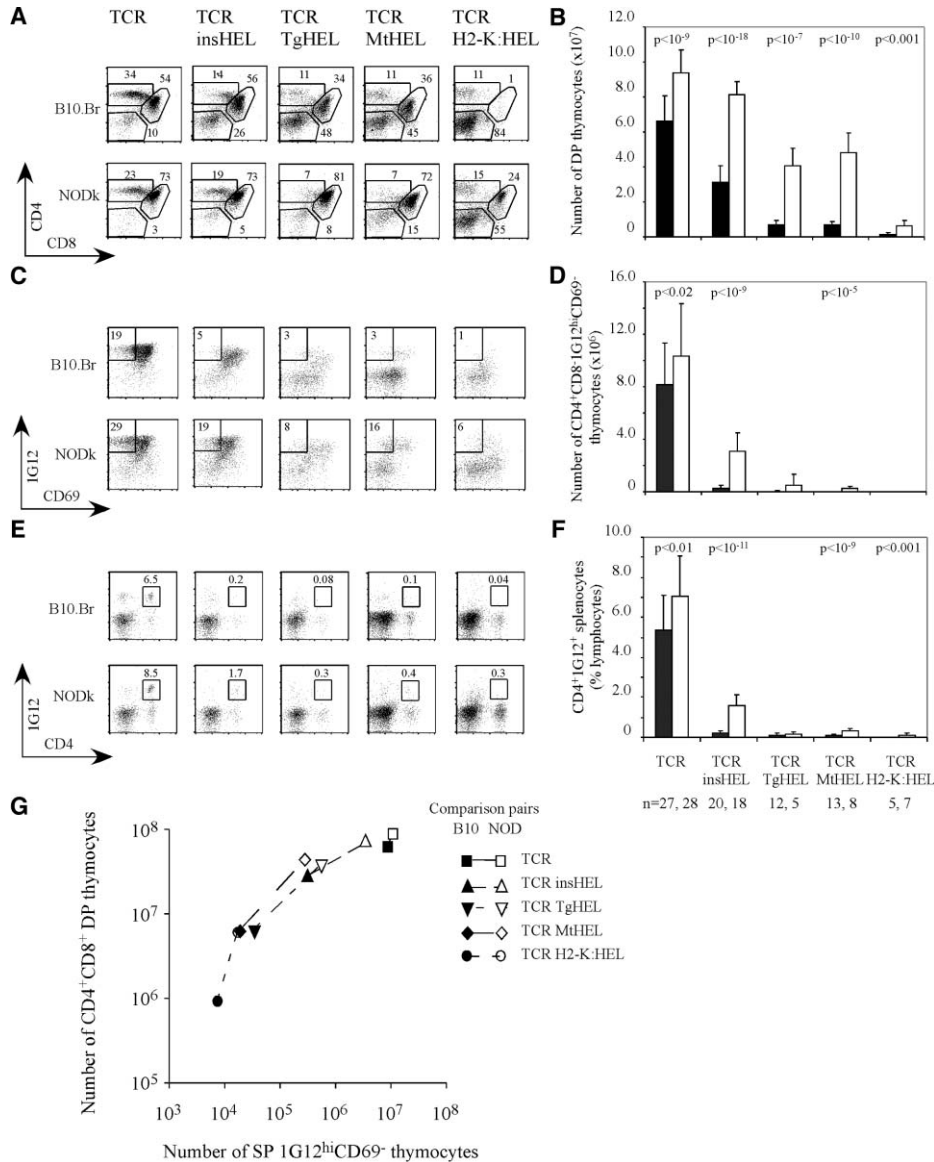


Figure 2. Cellular Effects of Thymic HEL Expression on 3A9 T Cells in B10.Br and NODk Genetic Backgrounds

Development of 3A9 TCR-bearing cells was analyzed by flow cytometry in TCR transgenic and the indicated TCR $\times$ HEL double transgenic mice on the B10.Br and NODk backgrounds. (A) Representative CD4 versus CD8 profiles of thymocytes. (B) Mean number of CD4<sup>+</sup>CD8<sup>+</sup> double positive thymocytes. B10.Br strains are shown in black, NODk strains are shown in white, error bars represent the SD. Significance of differences between B10.Br and NODk groups of the same genotype are indicated by t test p values above the group. (C) Representative profiles showing staining with the 3A9 TCR clonotypic-specific antibody 1G12 and CD69, gated on CD4<sup>+</sup>CD8<sup>-</sup> SP thymocytes. (D) Mean number of mature CD69<sup>-</sup> 1G12<sup>hi</sup> CD4<sup>+</sup> single positive thymocytes. Significance of differences between B10.Br and NODk groups of the same genotype are indicated by t test p values above the group. (E) CD4 and clonotypic 1G12 staining within splenic lymphocytes. (F) Mean percentage of splenocytes that are CD4<sup>+</sup>1G12<sup>+</sup>. Significance of differences between B10.Br and NODk groups of the same genotype are indicated by t test p values above the group. (G) A pairwise comparison of NODk and B10.Br counterparts, illustrating the relative deletion of immature (CD4<sup>+</sup>CD8<sup>+</sup>) and mature (CD4<sup>+</sup>CD8<sup>-</sup> 1G12<sup>hi</sup>CD69<sup>-</sup>) cells under each condition and showing the resistance to deletion in each of the NODk transgenic strains (open symbols) relative to their B10.Br counterparts (closed symbols) for the same concentration of thymic HEL.

full/21/6/817/DC1/) as were serum levels of sHEL protein (data not shown).

While there was no detectable effect of the NOD strain background upon thymic antigen expression, we next investigated how the NOD versus B10 background affected thymic deletion in TCR $\times$ HEL double transgenic mice bearing each of the HEL transgenes (Figure 2). T cell differentiation was traced by four color flow cytometry, measuring CD4 and CD8 expression to distinguish

the major subsets (Figure 2A), with further subdivision of the CD4<sup>+</sup> SP subset based on staining with the 1G12 antibody specific for the 3A9  $\alpha\beta$  TCR clonotype and for CD69 (Figure 2C). Large numbers of mature 1G12<sup>hi</sup>CD69<sup>-</sup> SP cells and semimature CD4<sup>+</sup> 1G12<sup>hi</sup>CD69<sup>+</sup> SP cells were present in the thymus of B10.Br and NODk 3A9 transgenic mice in the absence of HEL (Figure 2D). In TCR $\times$ HEL double transgenic mice carrying the different HEL transgenes, these SP subsets and the DP cells

underwent graded degrees of clonal deletion as gauged by decreased cell frequency and absolute numbers, and in each case, deletion was markedly less efficient in the NOD animals. First, when comparing the numbers of DP cells in double transgenic mice to those in TCR-only controls (Figures 2B and 2G), we found that their number was decreased 50% in B10.Br TCR $\times$ insHEL double transgenic mice, whereas no significant decrease was triggered by insHEL in the NOD counterparts. DP cell numbers were reduced more markedly, to 10% of controls, in B10 mice with the thyroglobulin- or metallothionein-regulated transgenes, which are expressed at higher levels in thymic medulla. Deletion of DP cells was now detected in the NOD counterparts but only to the levels achieved in B10 mice with the lower amounts of thymic HEL from the insulin promoter so that five times more DP cells remained. DP cells were almost completely absent in B10 mice with the highly expressed H2-K:HEL transgene (Figure 2A), whereas five times more DP cells again remained in the NOD counterparts so that deletion only attained the levels observed in B10 mice with the much less expressed TgHEL or MtHEL transgenes (Figures 2B and 2G).

In the same panel of mice, thymic deletion of mature CD4<sup>+</sup>CD8<sup>-</sup>1G12<sup>hi</sup>CD69<sup>-</sup> cells (Figure 2C) was also graded but appeared more efficient than in the DP subset and exhibited an even greater magnitude of defect in the NOD counterparts (Figures 2D and 2G). Mature HEL-reactive thymocytes were reduced to 3% of control numbers in insHEL mice on the B10.Br background, whereas they were only decreased to 30% of controls in the NODk background so that more than ten times as many autoreactive cells remained. In the Tg and Mt transgenic strains with higher HEL expression in the thymic medulla, mature cells were decreased to  $\sim$ 0.3% of controls, whereas fifteen times higher numbers remained in the NOD counterparts so that deletion only attained the efficiency of B10 animals with insHEL. In the H2-K:HEL animals, the numbers of mature cells in the NOD group were reduced to 0.2% of controls, but this magnitude compared only with the B10 animals expressing much less thymic HEL from Tg or Mt transgenes. The generalized decrease in efficiency of clonal deletion was also apparent when peripheral CD4<sup>+</sup>1G12<sup>+</sup> cells were enumerated in the spleen (Figures 2E and 2F). When the mean number of DP and mature SP cells in the thymus were plotted, the relationship between deletion in DP and mature cell subsets appears unchanged by the NOD background, but deletion is shifted up the curve by between 5- and 15-fold for each source of antigen (Figure 2G). Thus, the NOD thymic deletion defect is not limited to organ-specific promoters expressed in thymic medulla but manifests at early and late stages of maturation and low or high amounts of thymic autoantigen.

#### Defective Thymic Enrichment of CD4<sup>+</sup>25<sup>+</sup> Cells

As an alternative to clonal deletion, thymic encounter with autoantigen can also result in apparent conversion of autoreactive CD4 cells to CD25<sup>+</sup> regulatory cells that are exported from the thymus rather than being deleted (Jordan et al., 2001). Consistent with these results is the finding that a much greater fraction of CD4<sup>+</sup>1G12<sup>+</sup> SP thymocytes are CD25<sup>+</sup> when a HEL transgene is present (Figure 3A), and this proportion plateaus at >50% of

the autoreactive SP cells in Tg, Mt, and H2-K mice on the B10 background with the higher levels of thymic HEL (Figure 3B). In the NOD counterparts of these animals; however, little increase in the proportion of CD25<sup>+</sup> cells occurred under the insulin promoter, rising to 30% in the Tg and Mt animals and only reaching the plateau of 50% in the H2-K animals. The increase in proportion of CD4<sup>+</sup> cells that bear the CD25 marker is nevertheless not due to any increase in absolute number of this subset, because the thymic presence of HEL actually results in a decrease in the absolute number of mature CD25<sup>+</sup> thymocytes (Figure 3C). The same increase in proportion, but not absolute numbers, of CD25<sup>+</sup> cells with the presence of self-antigen is also observed in TCR $\times$ insHEL double transgenic B10.Br TCR $\alpha^{0/0}$  and RAG $^{0/0}$  mice, establishing that these cells do not require another receptor chain for their formation (data not shown). Plotting the relationship between mean numbers of CD25<sup>+</sup> and CD25<sup>-</sup> CD4<sup>+</sup>1G12<sup>+</sup> cells in the different groups reveals that the CD25<sup>+</sup> population appears remarkably refractory to thymic deletion and only shows evidence for a numerical reduction in B10 strains with higher thymic antigen expression (Figure 3D).

#### NOD Effects on Gene Responses Mediating Negative and Positive Selection

The data above indicate a general, quantitative decrease in the efficiency of clonal deletion affecting three key thymocyte subsets. Because the NOD effect acts cell autonomously within the T cells, it could arise from a global reduction in efficiency of TCR signal transmission, heightened signaling to prosurvival pathways, selective decrease in TCR signaling of apoptosis, or a shift in the balance of pro- and antiapoptotic effectors. To resolve these alternatives, we gauged their *in vivo* activity before and during negative or positive selection by flow sorting discrete subsets of thymocytes from NOD and B10 counterparts and then measuring mRNAs for genes that are well-defined targets and mediators of these processes. Four subsets of thymocytes were sorted from both B10.Br and NODk counterparts (Figure 4A). The subset of DP cells that are negative for CD69 and 1G12 TCR clonotype ("early DP") was sorted from TCR and TCR $\times$ insHEL double transgenic mice to obtain cells that had not yet received positive or negative selection signals. Cells that were in the early stages of positive selection ("early SP") were sorted from TCR animals lacking HEL based upon the cell surface phenotype of CD4<sup>+</sup>CD8<sup>low</sup>CD69<sup>+</sup>1G12<sup>+</sup>, and cells in the early stages of negative selection ("early SP") were sorted based on the same phenotype from double transgenic animals. These four types of cells were sorted from multiple NOD or B10 animals under conditions designed to prevent any gene induction *ex vivo* to yield three biologically and technically independent pools of mRNA for each of the eight experimental groups. After RNA purification and double amplification, labeled cRNA was hybridised to Affymetrix 430A GeneChips, and the data analyzed by MAS software.

The microarray dataset was first verified by analyzing relative mRNA values for genes with a well-established role and expression pattern during thymocyte maturation, either decreasing during differentiation from DP to SP cells (*Cd8*, *Rag1*, *Rag2*, and *preT $\alpha$* , Figure 4B) or

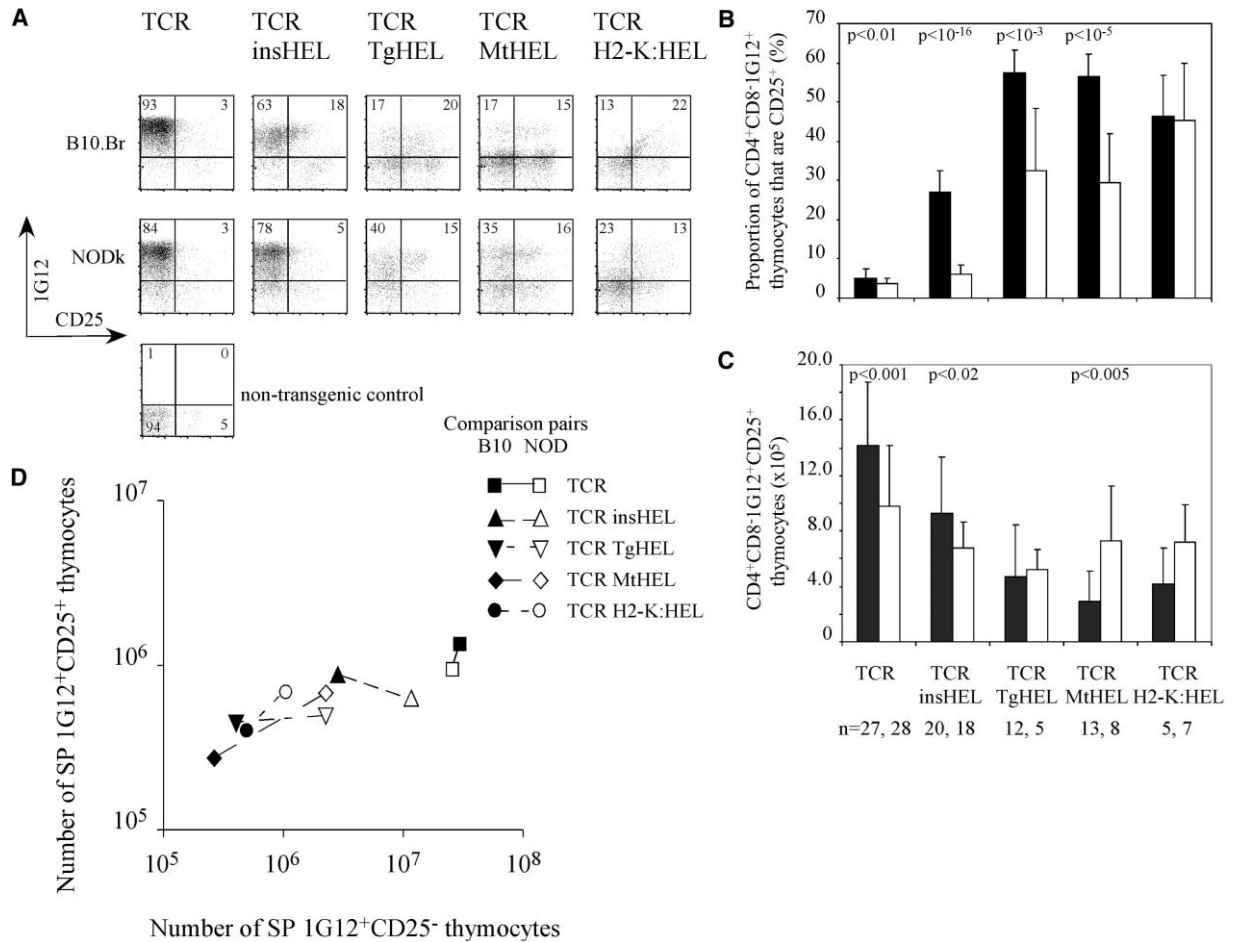


Figure 3. Production of CD4<sup>+</sup>CD25<sup>+</sup> Thymocytes in B10.Br and NODk Transgenic Strains

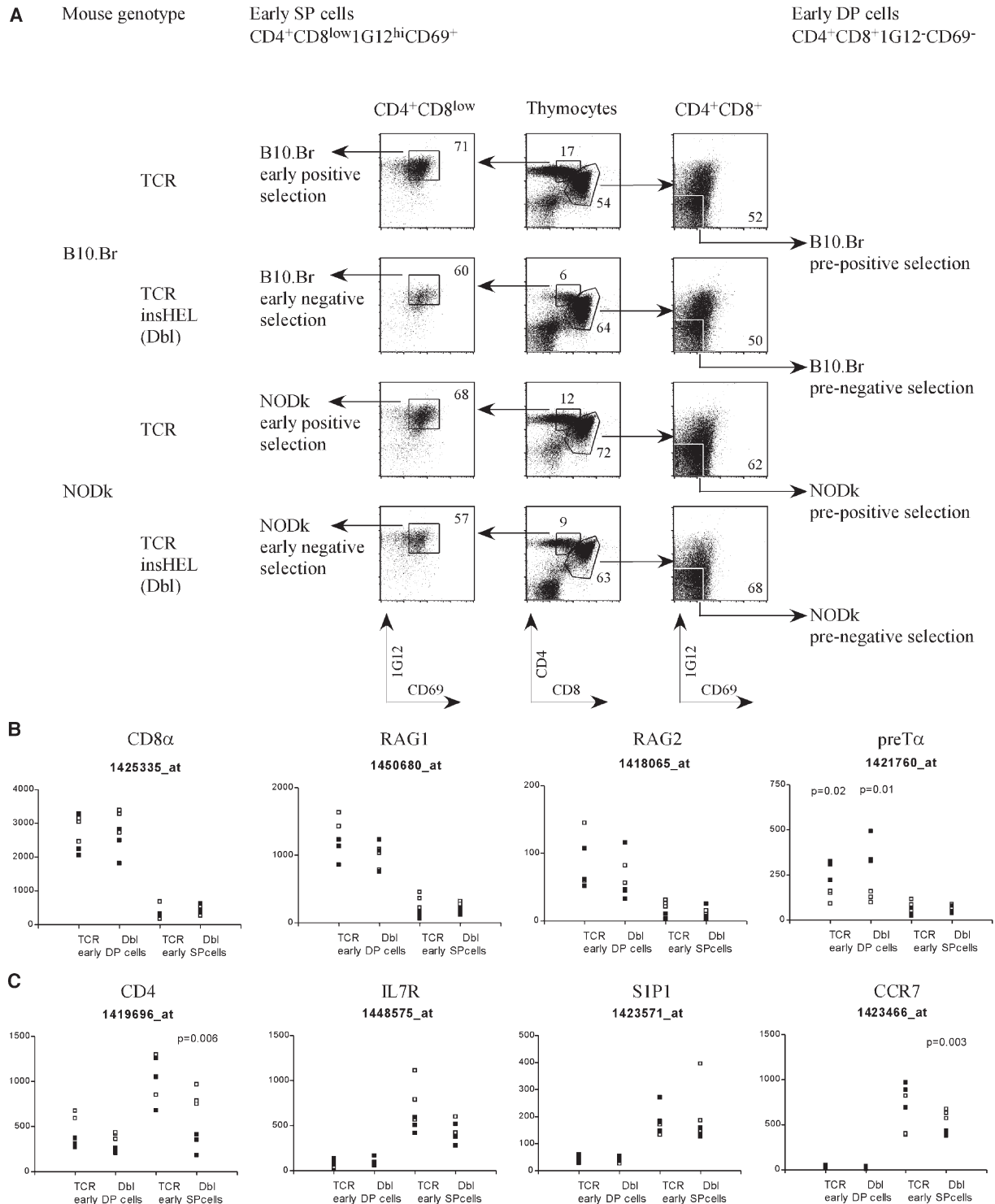
TCR and double transgenic mice on the B10.Br and NODk backgrounds were assessed for CD4<sup>+</sup>CD25<sup>+</sup> thymocyte production by flow cytometry. (A) Representative profiles for CD25 versus 1G12 clonotype, gated on CD4<sup>+</sup> SP thymocytes. (B and C) Mean percentage (B) and number (C) of mature CD4<sup>+</sup>CD8<sup>-</sup>1G12<sup>+</sup> thymocytes expressing CD25. B10.Br strains are shown in black, NODk strains are shown in white. Error bars represent the SD. Significance of differences between B10.Br and NODk groups of the same genotype are indicated by t test p values about the group. (D) A pairwise comparison of NODk and B10.Br counterparts, illustrating the relative deletion of CD25<sup>+</sup> and CD25<sup>-</sup> semimature (CD4<sup>+</sup>CD8<sup>-</sup>1G12<sup>+</sup>) thymocytes under each condition and showing the resistance to deletion in each of the NODk transgenic strains (open symbols) relative to their B10.Br counterparts (closed symbols) for the same concentration of thymic HEL.

increasing in SP cells (*Cd4*, *Ccr7*, *S1pr1*, and *Ii7R $\alpha$* , Figure 4C). Each of these mRNAs showed dramatic and highly reproducible changes in expression between DP and SP cell populations as expected with minor differences between negative and positive selecting thymi and between B10 and NOD counterparts.

Considering the data above showing that an increased proportion of CD4<sup>+</sup>1G12<sup>+</sup> cells are CD25<sup>+</sup> in TCR $\times$ insHEL animals on the B10 background, we then examined the data for a set of mRNAs established by others as being increased in peripheral CD4<sup>+</sup>25<sup>+</sup> T regs (McHugh et al., 2001). Consistent with the flow cytometry, *Cd25* mRNA was selectively increased in negatively selecting SP cells from B10 mice, but not in NOD counterparts (Figure 5A). Parallel increases in *Gitr*, *Pcd1*, *4-1bb*, *Ox40*, and *Ctla4* occurred in negatively selecting SP cells from B10 animals, and these also failed to be increased markedly in the NOD counterparts with the exception of *Ctla4*, which was equally increased in the NOD cells. *Foxp3* mRNA was consistently present only in the B10 negatively selecting population replicates; however, ex-

pression levels were too low to identify any consistent changes in the other samples.

Sets of previously identified reporter genes were analyzed to measure the strength of major signaling pathways to address the hypothesis of a global reduction in efficiency of TCR signal transmission. We first examined a set of genes induced by the TCR-calcineurin-NFAT signaling pathway based upon microarray analysis of calcineurin B-deficient thymocytes: *Egr2*, *Ian1*, *Adam19*, *Itgb7*, *CD52*, and *Bach2* (E.G. and G.C., unpublished data). All of these genes showed induction during developmental progression from DP to SP stages, little or no significant difference between positive and negative selection, and no strain differences between B10.Br and NODk (Figure 5B). Because the ras-MEK-ERK-TCF pathway is also activated and required for TCR-mediated positive selection, we examined a set of genes known to be targets of this pathway. *Egr-1*, *fos*, *zfp3611*, and *Nab2* were all induced in early SP cells undergoing positive selection or negative selection (Figure 5C); however, there was again no significant differences between NOD



**Figure 4. Experimental Design and Verification of Microarray Analysis of Sorted Thymocyte Subsets**

(A) Thymocytes from TCR transgenic and TCR:insHEL double transgenic (Dbl) nondiabetic 6- to 8-week-old female mice on the B10.Br and NODk backgrounds were sorted into the indicated subsets. Three biological replicate pools of mRNA were generated for each subset with independent sorts. Because of lower cell numbers, B10.Br Dbl early single positive cells were pooled from multiple independent donor mice. These replicate mRNA pools were independently labeled and hybridized to Affymetrix m430A arrays, and the average expression level for representative genes in each sample is shown by the square symbols in (B) and (C).

(B) Expression levels measured for representative well-characterized genes known to be developmentally downregulated between the early double positive stage and the early single positive stage.

(C) Expression levels of genes that are well established to be developmentally upregulated between the early double positive stage and the early single positive stage. Individual values of biological replicates are represented in black (B10.Br) and white (NODk) boxes.

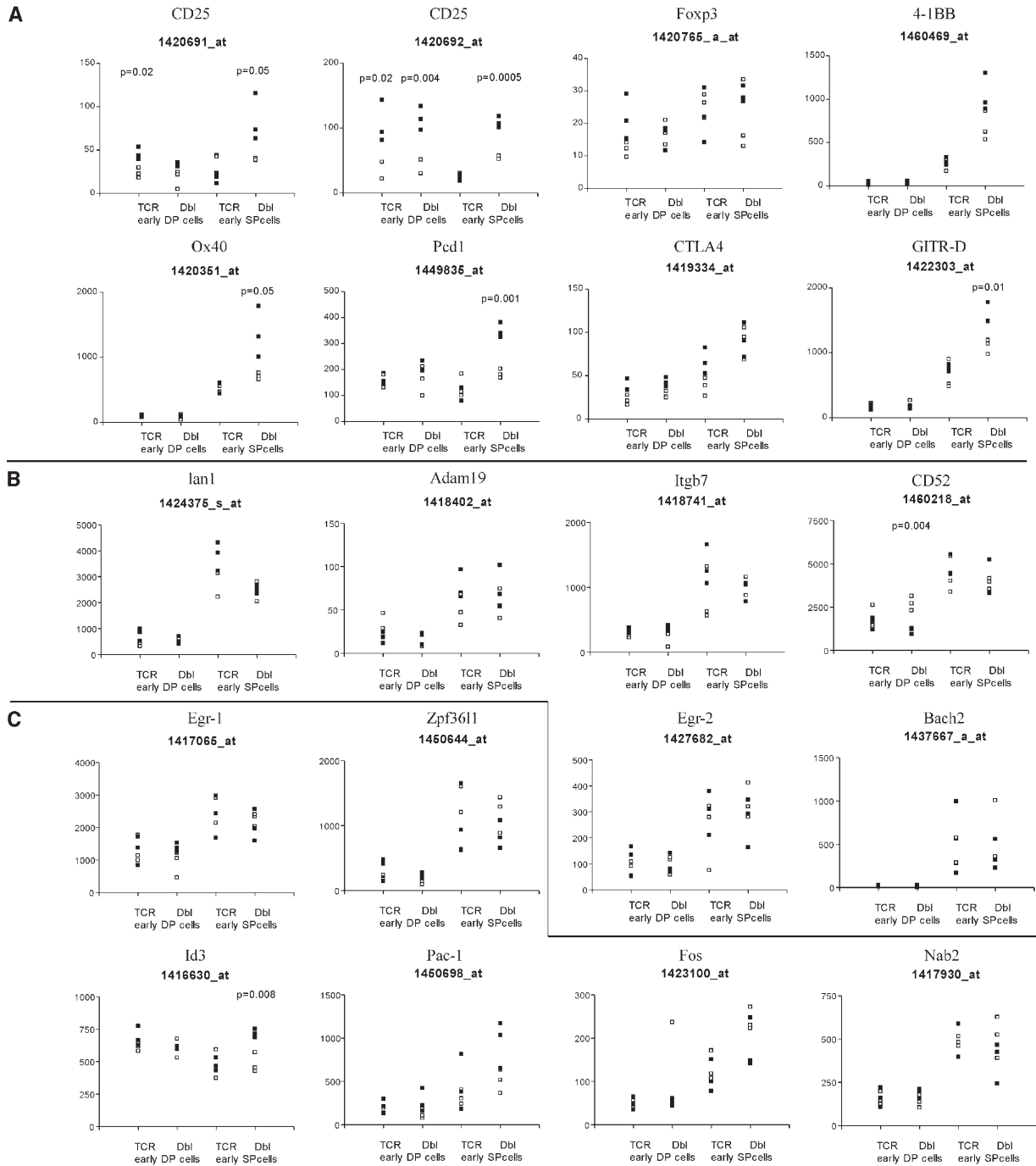


Figure 5. Expression of Known CD4<sup>+</sup>25<sup>+</sup> Regulatory T Cell Markers and Targets of Calcineurin and Erk Signaling in Thymocytes

(A) Genes known to be increased in CD4<sup>+</sup>CD25<sup>+</sup> regulatory cell subset.

(B) Calcineurin response genes.

(C) ERK response genes. Individual values are represented in black (B10.Br) and white (NODk) boxes with significant differences between the strain backgrounds indicated above the plot.

and B10 strains. By these downstream measures, both the calcineurin and ERK pathways appear to signal normally during positive and negative selection of NOD thymocytes.

We next tested the alternative hypotheses of selectively heightened signaling to prosurvival pathways, selectively diminished signaling of proapoptotic effectors,

or a constitutive shift in the balance of pro- and antiapoptotic terminal regulators. An important prosurvival pathway activated by the TCR comprises various members of the NF $\kappa$ B family. Analysis of *NF $\kappa$ B1/p105*, *NF $\kappa$ B2*, *Bcl-3*, *c-rel*, *rel-B*, *I $\kappa$ B $\alpha$* , and *I $\kappa$ B $\beta$*  showed that all except *p65/rel A* and *I $\kappa$ B $\beta$*  were induced in early SP cells undergoing positive and negative selection,

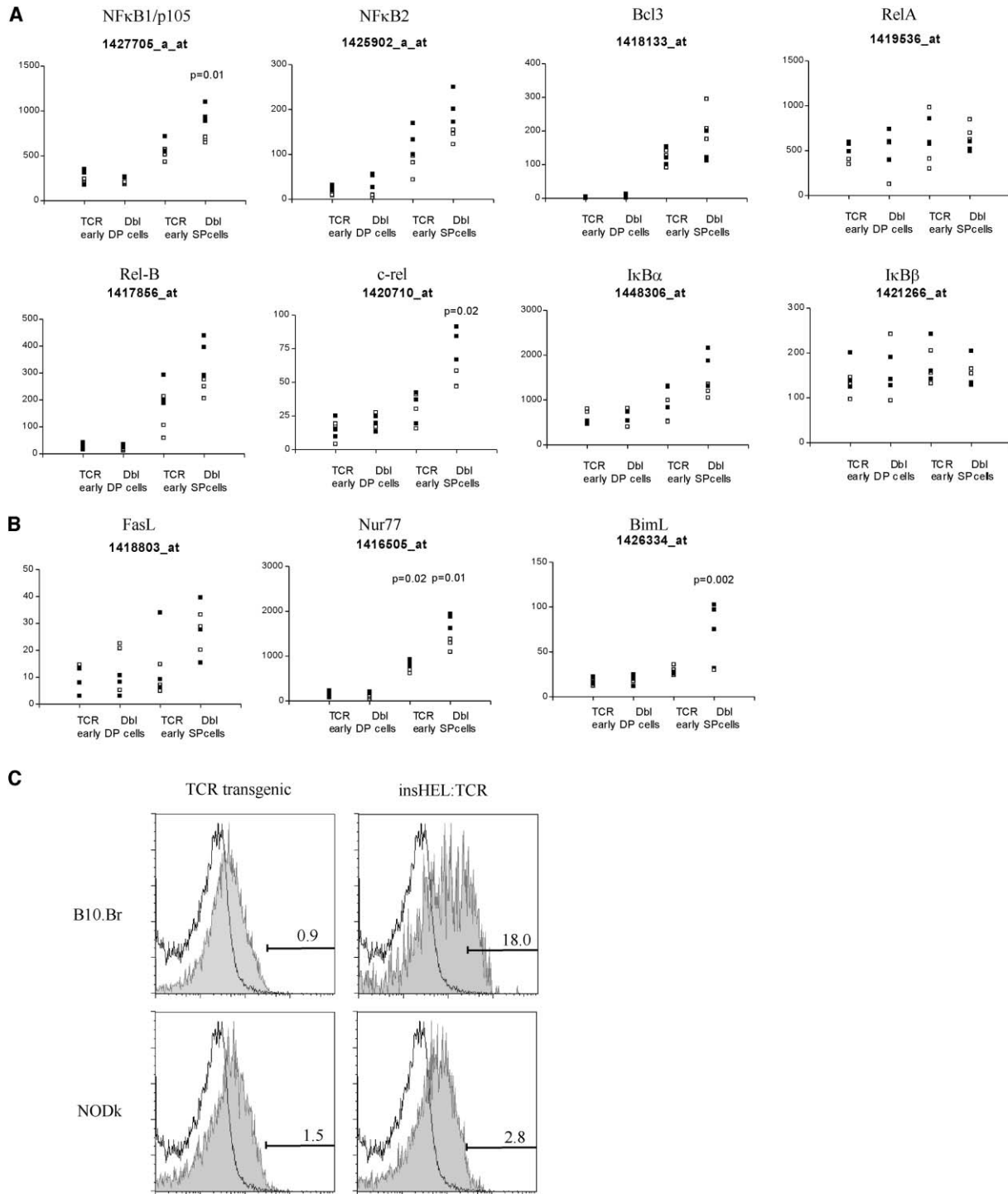


Figure 6. Expression of Genes Known to Regulate Apoptosis

(A) Expression of known antiapoptotic genes.

(B) Known proapoptotic genes. Individual values are represented in black (B10.Br) and white (NODk) boxes with significant differences between the strain backgrounds indicated above the plot.

(C) Flow cytometry analysis of Bim protein (tinted) in CD4<sup>+</sup>1G12<sup>+</sup> thymocytes, comparing CD4<sup>+</sup>1G12<sup>+</sup> thymocytes under positive (TCR transgenic) and negative (TCR:insHEL double transgenic) selection on the B10.Br and NODk backgrounds with the percentage of Bim<sup>+</sup> cells indicated on the graph. Staining specificity is indicated through parallel staining of Bim<sup>0/0</sup> thymocytes (line, background of 0.8% Bim<sup>+</sup> cells).

generally to highest levels in negative selection (Figure 6A). None were significantly overinduced in NODk thymocytes compared with B10 counterparts, and, in fact,

*NFκB1/p105* and *c-rel* were less induced in NODk early SP cells undergoing negative selection.

Analysis of constitutively expressed pro- and antiapo-



ptotic regulators showed no significant differences in expression of *Bcl-2*, *mcl-1*, *Bax*, *Bak*, *Bad*, *nox*, *puma*, *caspase 9*, *caspase 3*, and *apaf-1* in B10.Br and NODk thymocytes (Supplemental Figure S2), arguing against the hypothesis of a shift in favor of constitutive antiapoptotic molecules. Analysis of the components of the TCR-activated Fas apoptotic pathway showed induction of *FasL* in early SP cells undergoing negative selection that was not different between NOD and B10 cells (Figure 6B). Other elements of this pathway—*Fas*, *FADD*, *Casp8*, and *cFlip*—showed no significant induction or strain differences (Supplemental Figure S1). By contrast, analysis of the two TCR-induced genes with clearly established effector roles in thymic deletion, *BimL* and *Nur77*, revealed striking deficits selectively in NOD early SP cells undergoing negative selection. Consistent with previous data (Bouillet et al., 2002; Villunger et al., 2004; Woronicz et al., 1994; Xue et al., 1997), *BimL* and *Nur77* mRNAs were dramatically increased in B10.Br early SP cells undergoing negative selection compared to their positively selecting early SP counterparts (Figure 6B). In negatively selecting early SP cells from NOD, however, there was no measurable increase in *BimL* and a significantly blunted increase in *Nur77*. Because of the essential function of *Bim* as an apoptotic initiator during thymic deletion and previously defined posttranslational regulation (Puthalakath et al., 1999), a flow cytometric assay for intracellular Bim was developed. A monoclonal antibody, 10B12, with high specificity for Bim and no crossreactivity to any other protein (L.A.O., A.S., and D. Huang, unpublished data) was used to measure intracellular Bim levels in fixed and permeabilized CD4<sup>+</sup>1G12<sup>+</sup> thymocytes. Using the Bim<sup>0/0</sup> mouse as a staining control (Bouillet et al., 1999), we found Bim at just measurable levels in CD4<sup>+</sup>1G12<sup>+</sup> thymocytes from the B10.Br and NODk TCR transgenic mice, which was dramatically increased in vivo in SP cells undergoing negative selection from B10.Br TCR:insHEL double transgenic mice (Figure 6C). Double staining for Bim and CD25 showed that increased Bim was limited to the CD25<sup>-</sup> subset (data not shown). No detectable increase in Bim protein occurred in the corresponding SP cells in NODk double transgenic mice. Collectively, these results establish that NOD thymocytes have a selective in vivo deficit in autoantigen induction of proapoptotic effectors, in particular Bim.

#### Genetic Loci Causing Defective Thymic Deletion in NOD

The failure to induce Bim in autoreactive NOD SP thymocytes is sufficient to explain their generalized defect in thymic deletion, because *Bim*-deficient mice have a profound defect in thymocyte negative selection, and loss of a single gene copy causes a marked thymic deletion defect and autoimmunity (Bouillet et al., 1999, 2002; Villunger et al., 2004). We therefore wished to know if resistance to thymic deletion mapped to the *Bim* locus or to a subset of autoimmune loci established previously in the NOD strain. A backcross was established between (B10.Br × NOD.H2<sup>k</sup>)F1 animals and NOD.H2<sup>k</sup> based upon the earlier finding that defective negative selection in NOD is “recessive,” because double transgenic F1 mice display efficient negative selection comparable to B10.Br

mice (Lesage et al., 2002). In the backcross, the TCR and insHEL transgenes segregated independently in hemizygous state, because neither of these can be fixed as homozygotes. A total of 1906 backcross mice were bred, 979 female offspring weaned and genotyped for HEL and TCR transgenes, and 149 double transgenic backcross animals were identified and their thymus analyzed for efficiency of clonal deletion. As shown in Figures 2 and 3, defective negative selection in the NOD animals is characterized by an increased frequency of 1G12<sup>hi</sup>CD69<sup>-</sup>CD4 SP cells and by failure to increase the proportion of CD4<sup>+</sup>1G12<sup>+</sup> cells that are CD25<sup>+</sup>, so this combination of parameters was used (Figure 7) to classify the 149 TCR × insHEL backcross mice into “deletors” comparable to F1 controls (24%, n = 35), “nondeletors” comparable to NOD controls (35%, n = 52), and intermediates (42%).

Next, the deleter and nondeleter animals were individually genotyped with SSLPs linked to seven major NOD *Idd* loci: *Idd2*, *Idd3/10/18*, *Idd4*, *Idd5*, *Idd6*, *Idd9/11*, and *Idd13/Bim* (Figure 7). Loci with a preponderance of heterozygotes (B10/NOD) in the deleter cluster and homozygotes (NOD/NOD) in the nondeleter cluster, as measured by contingency tables for  $\chi^2$  values, were suggestive for linkage to the NOD defect in thymic deletion. Only two of these *Idd* regions showed evidence for linkage: a  $\chi^2$  value of 4.6 ( $p = 0.03$ , not Bayes corrected for multiple testing) at the *Idd5* locus on chromosome 1 (Ch1) at *D1mit181* (42.6 cM) and a  $\chi^2$  value of 5.4 ( $p = 0.02$ , not Bayes corrected) at the *Idd13* locus on Ch2 at *D2mit490* (64.5 cM) which is also linked to the *Bim* gene (59 cM).

A scan of other chromosomal regions was then performed to assess the overall genetic complexity of the trait. This identified two additional NOD-derived regions with highly significant association with resistance to thymic deletion: a  $\chi^2$  value of 11.3 centered on Ch7 at *D7mit101* (60 cM on the MGI map) and a  $\chi^2$  value of 9.7 centered on Ch15 at *D15mit229* (22 cM). Paradoxically, two loci showed an association between this trait and inheritance of a B10-derived allele: a  $\chi^2$  value of 10.3 centered on Ch13 at *D13mit39* (37 cM) and a  $\chi^2$  value of 8.1 centered on Ch14 at *D14mit109* (3.3 cM). These four regions correspond to loci previously associated with autoimmunity in NOD mice, as discussed below, and mathematical modeling was consistent with an additive interaction among these loci and those identified on Ch1 and Ch2 (Supplemental Data). Thus NOD resistance to thymic deletion is a complex polygenic trait.

#### Discussion

The findings here pinpoint the cellular and molecular action of a subset of autoimmune loci in the NOD strain, showing that they cause a general, quantitative resistance to thymic deletion in vivo across a range of thymic developmental subsets and thymic antigen sources and amounts. In vivo mRNA analysis reveals that the NOD genes cause a remarkably selective failure of thymic autoantigen to induce *Bim*, which is an essential, gene dose-limiting mediator of thymic deletion (Bouillet et al., 2002; Villunger et al., 2004). Flow cytometric analysis shows that Bim protein is indeed induced in single T cells

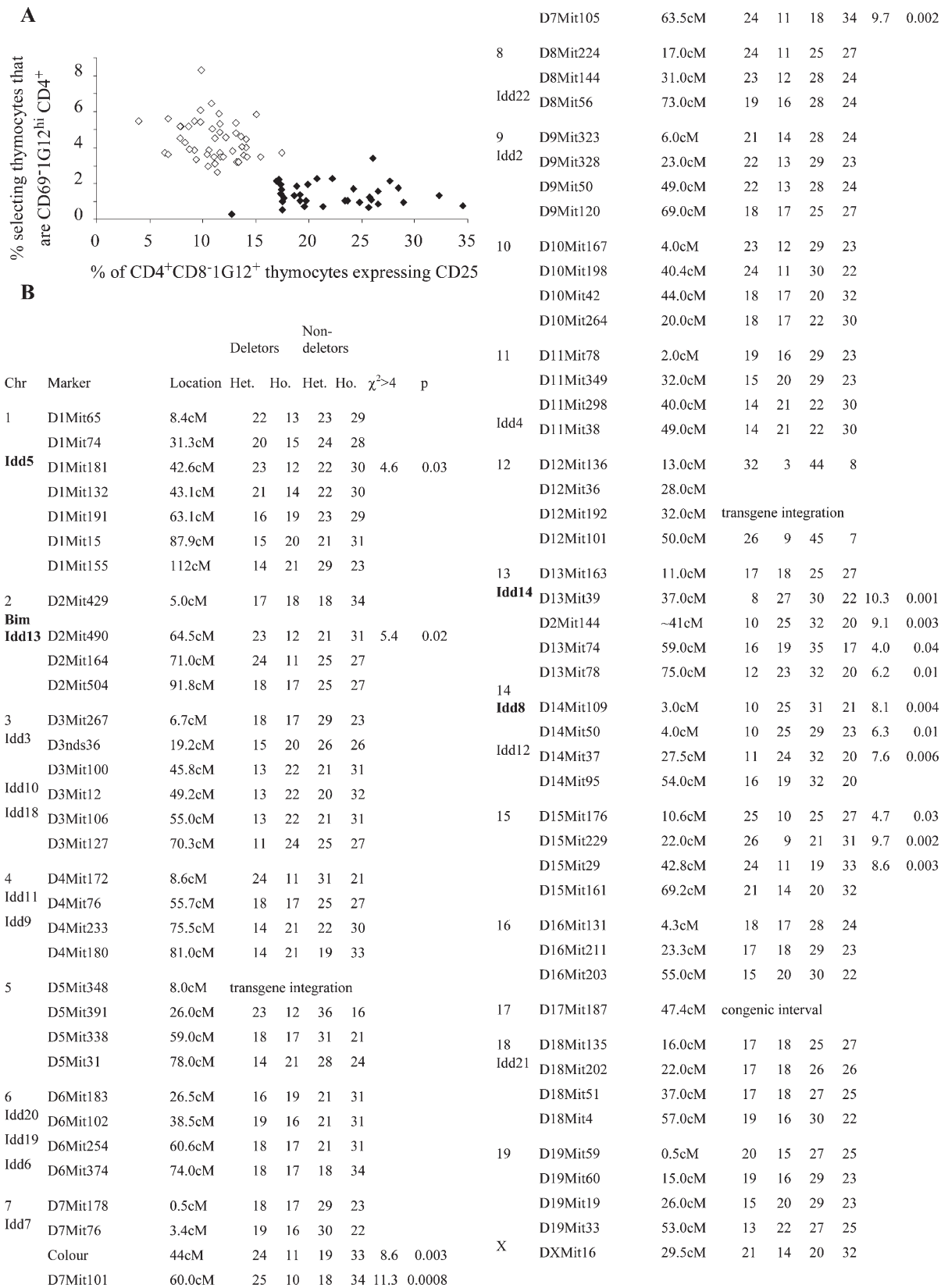


Figure 7. Linkage Analysis of NOD Resistance to Thymic Deletion

Thymi from 149 female TCR:insHEL B10.Br>NODk backcross 1 mice were analyzed at 6–10 weeks of age for the proportion of mature CD69<sup>-</sup>1G12<sup>hi</sup> CD4<sup>+</sup> single positive cells among CD4<sup>+</sup> and CD4<sup>+</sup>CD8<sup>+</sup> thymocytes and for the proportion of CD4<sup>+</sup>CD8<sup>-</sup>1G12<sup>+</sup> thymocytes expressing

undergoing in vivo thymic deletion to an *Aire*-dependent antigen and that it fails to be induced in corresponding NOD thymocytes. Genetic analysis shows that the *Bim* gene is a candidate for contributing to NOD resistance to thymic deletion, but this quantitative trait nevertheless remains polygenic, illustrating the complexity of autoimmune susceptibility even when reduced to a simpler cellular trait.

The relationship between clonal deletion in the DP subset and in the most mature CD69<sup>+</sup> SP subset of thymocytes, across the range of antigen amounts and sources (Figure 2G), suggests a continuous curvilinear function that is quantitatively, but not qualitatively, altered by NOD genes. We propose the following explanation for these data. In the *insHEL* animals, only rare antigen-presenting cells in the medulla and corticomedullary junction display sufficient autoantigen/MHC complexes to induce *Bim* and trigger apoptosis, and these are encountered infrequently as DP cells wander in the thymic cortex, receive positive selection signals, and migrate into the medulla. Consistent with this hypothesis, less than 50% of single positive cells bearing HEL-reactive TCRs have induced *Bim* protein in B10.Br *insHEL*×TCR double transgenic thymi (Figure 6C). Because positive selection and maturation in the medulla appear to take many days (Scollay and Godfrey, 1995), a high proportion of autoreactive thymocytes nevertheless experience a *Bim*-inducing encounter by the time they reach the most mature CD69<sup>+</sup> stage, where much greater culling is evident in *insHEL* animals. In *TgHEL* animals with greater antigen expression in thymic epithelial cells (Figure 1), more cells at the corticomedullary junction may display enough peptide/MHC to induce *Bim*, resulting in more frequent apoptosis-inducing encounters within the DP subset. By selectively depressing *Bim* induction to a given amount of autoantigen (Figure 6C), the NOD genes would be expected to reduce the frequency of cell contacts with sufficient antigen to induce apoptosis, accounting for the shift in deletion in NOD *TgHEL* animals to mirror deletion in B10 *insHEL* animals (Figure 2G).

NOD gene interference with *Bim* induction by autoantigen does not appear to reflect a global interference with TCR signaling in thymocytes, because a range of calcineurin-responsive or ERK-responsive genes in thymocytes are induced normally during positive and negative selection (Figure 5). On the other hand, several other genes that are induced to higher levels during negative selection compared to positive selection (*Nur77*, *NFκB1*, *c-rel*, and *A1*) show significantly blunted induction in NOD cells, although not to the extent of *Bim*, suggesting that qualitative or quantitative changes in TCR signaling may selectively interfere with activation of particular signaling pathways. Because several of these genes are induced by the NFκB pathway (*NFκB1*, *c-rel*, and *A1*) and it has been previously shown that CD28 selectively augments TCR activation of NFκB and negative selec-

tion of thymocytes (Punt et al., 1994) and that B7 ligands for CD28 are primarily expressed on medullary, but not cortical, thymic epithelial cells (Degermann et al., 1994), there is the distinct possibility that the NOD alleles dampen the NFκB pathway. A qualitative change in TCR signaling in NOD thymocytes diminishes activation of the zap70-ras-ERK pathway and enhances activation of *fyn* and phosphorylation of *c-cbl* (Salojin et al., 1997). It is unclear which TCR signaling pathway is responsible for *Bim* induction at the transcriptional and protein levels, although intracellular calcium (Bouillet et al., 1999, 2002) and cyclic AMP (Zhang and Insel, 2004) are implicated.

Under these conditions of limiting amount of antigen under the *insHEL* transgene, it is interesting that we did not observe overexpression of cFLIP in NOD thymocytes, contrary to previous in vitro data (Kishimoto and Sprent, 2001). However, this is not inconsistent with the findings by Kishimoto and Sprent, because the Fas pathway appears to be of greater importance during negative selection toward strong stimuli rather than the weaker stimuli used in the present study (Kishimoto and Sprent, 1999). Taken together, NOD thymocytes may have defects in both the *Bim* and Fas apoptotic pathways, or a component common to both, with the different pathways coming into play under different circumstances.

*Bim* is also partially required for thymocyte apoptosis induced by γ irradiation or dexamethasone (Bouillet et al., 2002), and NOD gene interference with *Bim* induction by these stimuli might explain the resistance of NOD thymocytes to γ irradiation (Bergman et al., 2001) and dexamethasone (Bergman et al., 2003). Resistance to dexamethasone maps to the *Idd6* region on distal Ch6, which showed insignificant association with resistance to deletion (Figure 7), whereas NOD resistance to γ radiation-induced apoptosis maps to the *Idd5* region of Ch1. The *Ctla4* gene within this interval is a candidate for radiation resistance because *Ctla4*-deficient thymocytes are also radiation resistant (Bergman et al., 2001). The NOD *Idd5* haplotype produces less of an alternatively spliced *Ctla4* gene product that is a constitutively active inhibitor of TCR zeta phosphorylation (Ueda et al., 2003; Vijaykrishnan et al., 2004). The orthologous region in humans also contains a CTLA-4 variant and has been associated with diabetes, thyroid autoimmunity, Addison's disease, and disease severity in multiple sclerosis (Ueda et al., 2003). The association between the *Idd5* region and in vivo resistance to thymic deletion is significant at  $p = 0.03$  tested as a single hypothesis, and the likelihood that this is a true positive is strengthened by the independent evidence associating this locus with autoimmune susceptibility. Further confirmation and analysis of this and the other associated NOD loci will nevertheless require the slow process of breeding NOD congenic TCR×*insHEL* animals.

The association between resistance to thymic dele-

CD25 as in Figures 2 and 3. Individuals were classified as nondeletors (25%,  $n = 52$ ), intermediates (42%), or deletors (24%,  $n = 35$ ) by comparison to NODk and F1 controls. (A) Scatterplot showing separation of deleter and nondeleter mice. (B) Genotype data with *Idd* loci (primary loci tested shown in bold) and marker positions on each chromosome from MGI v3.  $\chi^2$  scores are shown when  $>4$ . Probabilities shown are for single point values not corrected for multiple testing. Hom, homozygous for NOD allele; Het, heterozygous for NOD and B10 allele.

tion and the region around *D2mit490* at 64.5 cM on Ch2 is also supported by independent evidence. The *Bim* gene lies 11 Mb/5.5 cM proximal to *D2mit490*, making it a good candidate gene for this association. *Bim* is at 128.4 Mb (ENSEMBL), within the boundaries of the B6-derived *Idd13* locus determining diabetes resistance in the NOD-derived strain, NOR (Serreze and Leiter, 1994), and is within the proximal *Idd13* sublocus as determined by subcongenic strains (Serreze et al., 1998) along with a diabetes-modifying polymorphism in  $\beta$ -2 microglobulin (Hamilton-Williams et al., 2001; Serreze et al., 1998). The association of resistance to thymic deletion with NOD alleles at Ch2 *Idd13* and Ch1 *Idd5* is notable, because these two loci act cooperatively in promoting T cell influx into pancreatic islets (Fox et al., 2000).

Resistance to thymic deletion was strongly associated with NOD-derived loci on Ch7 at *D7mit101* (60 cM) and on Ch15 at *D15mit229* (22.2 cM). The Ch7 region corresponds to a NOD-derived diabetes susceptibility loci defined by McDuffie in a subcongenic strain (McDuffie, 2000) and to a locus at 58.7 cM, *Ssial3*, contributing to development of autoimmune sialoadenitis in a NOD $\times$ NZW cross (Boulard et al., 2002). The fact that this region has not been linked to diabetes in NOD $\times$ B10 crosses could be explained by the presence of a B10 diabetes susceptibility locus, *Idd7*, at the proximal end of Ch7 (Ghosh et al., 1993), which would interfere with detection of linked NOD susceptibility loci and is absent from the subcongenic diabetes-resistant strain (McDuffie, 2000). The Ch15 locus corresponds to a region showing suggestive evidence ( $\chi^2 = 5$ ) for association with diabetes in NOD $\times$ B10 (Ghosh et al., 1993). A locus in the same region of Ch15 from the MRL strain, *Paam1* at 18.7 cM, promotes progression of autoimmune arthritis in an MRL.*Jpr* $\times$ C3H.*Jpr* cross (Kamogawa et al., 2002). Nur77 is an unlikely candidate for the Ch15 linkage, because it lies 4 Mb distal of *D15Mit161* ( $\chi^2 < 4$ ).

In addition to the four NOD-derived loci associated with resistance to thymic deletion, the trait becomes more complex in the backcross, because two B10-derived loci on Ch13 and Ch14 were also strongly associated with resistance to deletion. Both the location and "polarity" of these loci correspond with two regions where the B10-derived allele paradoxically associates with susceptibility to diabetes in B10 $\times$ NOD backcross mapping: *Idd8* on Ch14 and an unnamed suggestive locus ( $\chi^2 = 5.6$ ) on Ch13 (Ghosh et al., 1993). These B10-derived loci may account for the observation that B10.Br TCR $\times$ insHEL animals develop a low incidence, early-onset, autoantibody-negative diabetes that is clinically distinct from the high-incidence, slower onset, autoantibody-positive diabetes in NODk TCR $\times$ insHEL animals and that is genetically distinct, because it is fully suppressed in F1 hybrids (Lesage et al., 2002).

Considering as much as 20%–30% of the autosomal genome lies within 20 cM of an *Idd* locus, it would not be surprising if two of the six loci detected overlap with known *Idd* loci by chance and one in six to overlap with the correct polarity (i.e., NOD versus B10 allele associated with susceptibility). However, the fact that all six loci overlap with correct polarity very compellingly argues that the thymic deletion defect is important to the pathogenesis of diabetes in the NOD mouse.

The chromosomal regions associated with resistance

to thymic deletion also match NOD loci associated with altered thymic selection and/or regulation: delayed onset of diabetes in NOD BCD2.5 TCR transgenic mice (Gonzalez et al., 1997) and reduced thymic positive selection of NKT cells in the NOD mouse (Esteban et al., 2003). Both these traits were associated with the *Idd13/Bim* region on Ch2. Diabetes in BDC2.5 was also associated with the *Idd5* region on Ch1 and with a region of Ch15 from 24 cM to 50 cM. Reduced thymic selection of NKT cells was associated with the same region of Ch7 (*D7mit101*, 60 cM) identified here. In the NKT study, the NOD alleles at each locus associate with reduced thymic positive selection of NKT cells just as they are associated here with reduced thymic negative selection of conventional CD4 $^+$  T cells. In the BDC2.5 study, the NOD alleles at each locus are paradoxically associated with resistance to diabetes. Unlike the 3A9 T cells studied here, BDC2.5 T cells are not deleted by the as-yet unknown islet-derived peptide in either background, and resistance to diabetes depends upon peripheral regulation by other T cell specificities (Gonzalez et al., 2001). BDC2.5 TCR-bearing CD4 cells are less efficiently positively selected on the NOD background (Gonzalez et al., 1997). The concordance of loci mapped in the three studies further strengthens the conclusion that these autoimmunity loci act by interfering with specific TCR signals for thymocyte selection.

The magnitude of the thymic deletion defect caused by the NOD genes is only slightly less severe than that caused by homozygous *Aire* deficiency in the same 3A9 TCR $\times$ insHEL strain (Liston et al., 2003), and like *Aire* deficiency in humans and mice, the generality of this defect is likely to play a key part in the susceptibility of NOD-derived strains to a range of different organ-specific diseases. Different autoantigens and tissues may become prime targets for this general defect through variations in other genes such as MHC or B7.2 (Salomon et al., 2001; Todd and Wicker, 2001), perhaps because these other genetic alterations selectively reduce thymic presentation and TCR induction of *Bim* by particular peptides and further increase the frequency of autoreactive T cells against these targets. Our findings show that it will be important to define the TCR pathway for *Bim* induction and how it is genetically suppressed in order to develop tests for comparable cellular defects in human autoimmune diseases that might be performed on peripheral blood T cells and to develop drugs that augment this pathway to diminish the incidence of autoimmune disease in individuals with this susceptibility trait.

#### Experimental Procedures

##### Mice

3A9 TCR transgenic mice (Ho et al., 1994), ILK-3 ins:mHEL transgenic mice (Akkaraju et al., 1997b), KLK4 H2-K:mHEL transgenic mice (Hartley et al., 1991), TLK3 Tg:mHEL transgenic mice (Akkaraju et al., 1997a, 1997b), and ML4 Mt:sHEL transgenic mice (Adelstein et al., 1991) were produced in C57BL/6J and backcrossed to B10.Br/SgSnJ (JAX) or NOD.H2<sup>k</sup> (Podolin et al., 1993). Data presented are from N8–N10 for B10.Br mice and N6 for NODk mice. TCR, HEL, and H2 genotype of each mouse was tested twice by PCR (Akkaraju et al., 1997b). *Bim*<sup>0/0</sup> mice were as described (Villunger et al., 2004).

#### Immunofluorescence and Confocal Microscopy

Frozen thymus sections (8  $\mu$ m) were fixed on slides in  $-20^{\circ}\text{C}$  acetone for 30 s, air dried, washed in PBS, and stained with biotinylated anti-HEL mAb (Hy-9) and rabbit anti-keratin antibodies followed by Alexa-488-conjugated streptavidin and Alexa-568-conjugated anti-rabbit IgG. Images were acquired on a Bio-Rad MRC 1024 confocal microscope with a three-line Kr/Ar laser (excitation lines 488, 568, and 647 nm) by using the Bio-Rad acquisition software LaserSharp version 3.2.

#### Flow Cytometry

Six- to twelve-week-old nondiabetic mice were analyzed. The following antibodies were used: mouse IgG1 anti-clonotypic 1G12 antibody (Van Parijs et al., 1998) culture supernatant followed by rat monoclonal anti-mouse IgG1 APC, anti-CD8-PerCP, anti-CD4-FITC, anti-CD4-PE, anti-CD25-PE, anti-CD69-PE, anti-V $\alpha$ 2-PE, anti-CD3-PE, and anti-CD5-FITC (all from Pharmingen). Staining with 10B12 involved labeling with 1G12, fixing in 1% paraformaldehyde (BDH), and permeabilizing cells for 30 min at  $4^{\circ}\text{C}$  in PBS/0.3% saponin (Sigma)/2% FCS containing anti-Bim mAb clone 10B12 (L.A.O. and A.S., unpublished data) or isotype-matched control mAb (IgG2a, Pharmingen). Cells were washed with 0.03% saponin/2% FCS and incubated with biotinylated anti-rat Ig2a (Pharmingen) in 0.3% saponin. After the cells were washed, Bim was revealed with avidin phycoerythrin. Data was collected on a FACSCalibur (BD Biosciences) and analyzed with FlowJo software (TreeStar).

#### Microarray Analysis of Sorted Cells

Thymus cell suspensions from 6- to 8-week-old female mice were prepared in RPMI without phenol red and supplemented with 10% foetal calf serum, 10 mM HEPES, 50 units/ml penicillin/streptomycin, 2 mM L-glutamine, 0.1% azide, and 1 mM EDTA containing 5  $\mu$ g/ml Actinomycin D and 2  $\mu$ g/ml  $\alpha$ -Amanitin (Sigma-Aldrich) to inhibit RNA polymerase action. Cells were stained with CD4-FITC, CD69-PE, CD8-PerCP, 1G12 supernatant, and anti-IgG1-APC and were kept at  $4^{\circ}\text{C}$  throughout the staining procedure. Stained cells were sorted on a Becton Dickinson FACVantage (DiVa) into chilled sorting medium as above, centrifuged, and resuspended in Trizol reagent (Invitrogen). RNA was purified from  $10^5$ – $10^6$  cells with the Qiagen RNeasy kit, and two rounds of in vitro RNA amplification were performed. Sample preparation followed the Affymetrix GeneChip Eukaryotic Small Sample Target Labeling Assay Version II protocol. The first cycle IVT was performed with MEGAscript (Ambion), and the second round IVT was performed with the ENZO BioArray HighYield RNA Transcript Labeling kit (Affymetrix) according to the protocol. Labeled cRNA was fragmented and hybridised to Affymetrix GeneChip 430A arrays (Santa Clara, CA). GeneChips were washed, stained, scanned as per manufacturer's recommendation, and analyzed with MAS5 (Affymetrix).

#### Genetic Mapping

Thymi from 6–10-week-old nondiabetic TCR:insHEL female backcross mice were analyzed by flow cytometry in batches of five to fifteen normalizing the mean of the batch to the mean of the entire data set to remove batch-related variation. Microsatellite markers were chosen based on identified linkage to diabetes susceptibility in the NOD mouse. Additional markers from the MIT database were chosen based on genomic spacing and reliable discrimination between the B10.Br and NODk strains. *D2mit144* was repositioned on Ch13 (Esteban et al., 2003). Primers were from GeneWorks (Ade-laide, Australia), and PCR reactions were resolved by agarose gel electrophoresis. Analysis of linkage was performed in Prism (GraphPad) with  $\chi^2$   $2 \times 2$  contingency tables testing the ratio of homozygous to heterozygous mice in the two extreme phenotypes deleter and nondeleter.

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