# Neuroprotective Effects of Polysialic Acid and SIGLEC-11 in Activated Phagocytic Cells

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#### **I** Abbreviations

AA	ascorbic acid
Αβ	amyloid-β
ABCA7	ATP-Binding Cassette, Sub-Family A, Member 7
α-CTF	C-terminal fragment
AD	alzheimer's disease
ADAM	a disintegrin and metalloprotease family enzyme
AGM	aorta-gonad-mesonephros
AICD	APP intracellular domain
ALP	alkaline phosphatase
ANOVA	analysis of variance
APH-1	anterior pharynx-defective 1
APOE	apolipoprotein E
APP	amyloid precursor protein
Arg	arginine
Asp	aspartic acid
avDP20	average degree of polymerization 20
BACE1	β-site APP cleaving enzyme 1
BAL1	brain-specific angiogenesis inhibitor1
BBB	blood brain barrier
β-CTF	C-terminal fragment
BDNF	brain derived neurotrophic factor
BIN1	bridging integrator 1
BM	bone marrow
BSA	bovine serum albumin
C2-set	constant domain
Cacl <sub>2</sub>	calcium chloride
cAMP	cyclic adenosine monophosphate
CD33	siglec-3
cDNA	complementary DNA
ChAT	choline acetyltransferase
CLU	clusterin gene
CNS	central nervous system
CpG	C phosphate G
CR1	complement receptor type 1
CX3CL1	chemokine (C-X3-C motif) ligand 1
CX3CR1	CX3C chemokine receptor 1
Cy DAP-12	cyanine dye
DAP-12 DAPI	DNAX activation protein of 12 kDa 4´,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole
DAFI	dendritic cells
00	

ddH <sub>2</sub> O	double-distilled water
DHE	dihydroethidium
DMEM/F12	dulbecco's modified eagle medium: nutrient mixture F-12
DMSO	dimethyl sulfoxide
DTT	dithiothreitol
EDTA	ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid
EOAD	early onset alzheimer's disease
EPHA1	ephrin type-A receptor 1
F4/80	EGF-like module-containing mucin-like hormone receptor-like 1
FACS	fluorescence-activated cell sorter
FAD	familial alzheimer's disease
FBS	fetal bovine serum
GAD	glutaraldehyde
GAPDH	glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase
GDNF	glial cell-line derived neurotrophic factor
GD1a	disialoganglioside
GD1b	disialoganglioside
GFAP	glial fibrillary acidic proteins
GFP	green fluorescent protein
GM1	monosialotetrahexosylganglioside
GSK-3β	glycogen synthase kinase 3 beta
GT1b	trisialoganglioside
GWAS	Genome-wide association studies
HCI	hydrochloric acid
HEK	human embryonic kidney
HEPES	4-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1-piperazineethanesulfonic acid
hLIF	human leukemia inhibiting factor
HO-1	hemeoxygenase-1
HSC	hematopoietic stem cells
lba-l	ionized calcium binding adaptor molecule I
IDE	insulin degrading enzyme
lg	immunoglobulin
lgG	Immunoglobulin G
IL-34	interleukin-34
IL-1β	interleukin-1β
iPS	induced pluripotent stem cell
ITAM	immunoreceptor tyrosine-based activation motif
ITIM	immunoreceptor tyrosine-based inhibition motif
KCI	potassium chloride
KDN	2-keto-3-deoxy-D-glycero-D-galacto-nonulosonic acid
LOAD	late onset alzheimer's disease
LPS	lipopolysaccharide
LTA	lipoteichoic acid

Lys	lysine
MDP	muramyl dipeptide
MEF	mouse embryonic fibroblast
MFG-E8	milk fat globule EGF factor 8
MgCl <sub>2</sub>	magnesium chloride
MS4A6A	membrane-spanning 4-domains subfamily A member 6A
MTT	3-(4,5-Dimethylthiazol-2-YI)-2,5-Diphenyltetrazolium Bromide
NaOH	sodium hydroxide
NaCl	sodium chloride
NCAM	neural cell adhesion molecule
Neu5Ac	n-acetylneuraminic acid
Neu5Gc	n-glycolylneuraminic acid
NeuN	neuronal nuclei
NFT	neurofibrillary tangles
nGS	normal goat serum
NK	natural killer
NLR	nod-like receptor
NOS2	Nitric Oxide Synthase 2
OligoSia	oligosialic acid
Opti-MEM	eagle´ minimum essential media
P3	amyloid β- peptide <sub>17-40/42</sub>
Pax6	paired box protein 6
PBS	phosphate buffered saline
PCR	polymerase chain reaction
PE	R-Phycoerythrin
PFA	paraformaldehyde
PICALM	phosphatidylinositol binding clathrin assembly protein
PLL	poly-I-lysine
PLO	poly-I-ornithine
PNS	peripheral nervous system
pNSC	primitive neural stem cells
PolySia	polysialic acid
PS	phosphatidylserine
PSA-NCAM	polysialylated-neural cell adhesion molecule
RAGE	receptor for advanced glycation end products
ROS	reactive oxygen species
RT	reverse transcription
sAPPα	soluble N-terminal APPα fragment
sAPPβ	soluble N-terminal APP fragment
SEM	standard error of mean
SHP	SH2 domain-containing tyrosine phosphatase
Sia	sialic acid

## Abbreviation

Siglec	sialic acid binding immunoglobulin-like lectin
SHP1	Src homology region 2 domain-containing phosphatase-1
SHP2	tyrosine-protein phosphatase non-receptor type 11
SIRP <sub>β1</sub>	signal regulatory protein-β1
Sox1	sex determining region Y-box 1
Sox2	sex determining region Y-box 2
Src	sarcoma
Syk	Spleen tyrosine kinase
TGF-β	transforming growth factor beta
TH	tyrosine hydroxylase
TLR	toll-like receptor
TNF-α	tumor necrosis factor alpha
TREM2	triggering receptor expressed on myeloid cells 2
TYROBP	TYRO protein tyrosine kinase binding protein
V-set	variable domain
YS	yolk sac
Zo1	zona occludens protein1

#### II Abstract

Phagocytes show an over-activated complement-phagosome-NADPH oxidase (NOX) signaling pathway in Alzheimer's disease. Polysialic and oligosialic acids (polySia and oligoSia) are glycans composed of sialic acid monomers, which are attached to the outermost ends of lipids and proteins on the surface of healthy brain cells. These structures are recognized by sialic acid-binding immunoglobulin-like lectin (SIGLEC) receptors of microglia and macrophages, which contain immunoreceptor tyrosine-based inhibitory motifs (ITIM)-signaling and counteract the complement-phagosome-NOX signaling pathway.

Here, we show that low molecular weight polysialic acid with average degree of polymerization 20 (polySia avDP20) binds to recombinant SIGLEC-11-Fc-fusion protein. *In vitro*, the induced pluripotent stem cell derived microglia (iPSdM) like cell line and the THP-1 human macrophage cell line were used as model systems of SIGLEC-11 expressing cells. PolySia avDP20 treatment slightly reduced phagocytosis of amyloid- $\beta_{1.42}$  fibrils and neural debris. In addition, polySia avDP20 completely prevented production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) by iPSdM cells and THP-1 macrophage cells when stimulated with amyloid- $\beta_{1.42}$  fibrils or neural debris. Reduction of ROS was as strong as known superoxide scavenger 6-hydroxy-2,5,7,8-tetramethylchroman-2-carboxylic acid (Trolox) and enzyme superoxide dismutase-1 (SOD1). By using *in vitro* neuron-iPSdM and neuron-macrophage co-culture systems, A $\beta$  and LPS treatment resulted in iPSdM and macrophage neurotoxicity with loss of neurites that was abrogated by treatment with polySia avDP20.

In total, data show that polySia avDP20 binds to human SIGLEC-11 and acts as an antiinflammatory signaling molecule on SIGLEC-11-expressing iPSdM cells and THP-1 macrophages.

V

### **1** Introduction

In this current era, the world's elderly population is confronted with the biggest problematic neurodegenerative disorder, "Alzheimer's disease (AD)". From a neurologic point of view, AD is a brain disorder with three major hallmarks: formation of amyloid- $\beta$  (A $\beta$ ) plaques, formation of neurofibrillary tangles, and activation of microglial cells; which all together results in loss of neuronal connections and memory impairment. Every factor that could have an effect on these three main hallmarks may be considered as a potential therapeutic agent.

#### 1.1 Microglia

#### 1.1.1 Microglia and Macrophages in CNS

**Microglial** cells are the resident macrophages of the brain, which constitute about 10-15% of the entire brain cell population. In the healthy brain, microglial cells are in surveillance mode and constantly explore their microenvironments. This task helps them recognize changes such as apoptotic material. They always interact with neurons to remove synaptic structure for remodelling the presynaptic components or to remove newborn neurons during early development [1]. In addition, microglial cells represent the first line of defence against invading pathogens or other types of brain tissue injury. To fulfill this task, they may directly remove the particles by phagocytosis or indirectly through inflammatory responses such as cytokine or reactive oxygen species (ROS) release [2].

Other types of resident immune cells of the brain are **brain macrophages** such as perivascular macrophages, meningeal macrophages and choroid plexus macrophages, which can be detected with the same specific markers as microglial cells (Iba1, CX3CR1,F4/80); however, they have a different ontogeny [3].

In pathological conditions or neurodegenerative diseases, in which the blood brain barrier (BBB) is compromised, blood monocytes and leukocytes recognize

chemoattractant molecules and enter to the brain to form a new population named **exogenous macrophages** [4], [5].

#### 1.1.2 Origin of Microglia and Replenishment

Del Rio-Hortega (1932) described for the first time microglia as the "third element", besides neurons and neuroglia (astrocytes and oligodendrocyte), in the central nervous system (CNS). Hortega was also the first person who postulated that microglial cells have a mesodermal origin [6]. Nowadays, it is believed that unlike neurons and macroglia (astrocytes and oligodendrocyte), which are derived from neuroectoderm, microglial progenitors have a mesodermal (myeloid) origin [7].

In mice, primitive hematopoiesis occurs between E7 to E9, and leads to the appearance of **microglial progenitors** [8]. During this time, erythromyeloid progenitors appear in the extra-embryonic yolk sac (YS) at E7. Later on, they migrate to the brain via the circulatory system around E9 and populate the brain mesenchyme [9]. Definitive hematopoiesis occurs at E10.5, when hematopoietic stem cells (HSCs) appear in aorta-gonad-mesonephros (AGM) region. These cells subsequently produce myeloid cells that are the **brain macrophage** and **exogenous macrophage** progenitors [3]. Later on, myeloid cells derived from HSCs populate fetal liver (E12.5) and bone marrow (after birth) as major hematopoietic organs [10].

The next debate concerned the replicative capacity of microglia and whether they are replicated *in situ* or are replenished by circulating precursor cells. Because of their mesodermal origin, the contribution of circulating monocytes or myeloid progenitor cells to the steady-state population of microglia in healthy CNS was under debate. Early studies, which mainly focus on transplantation of labeled bone marrow cells to irradiated recipients, yield to the conclusion that precursors originate from bone marrow and can cross BBB, where they differentiate into microglial cells [11], [12]. However, irradiation caused the BBB the become permeablized and, as a result, the circulating labeled bone marrow cells could easily enter CNS [13]. Recent findings from parabiosis experiments

show that under an intact BBB, recruitment of labeled bone marrow circulating cells to the brain of host animals is negligible [14]. Parabiosis experiments also show that under pathological conditions (which lead to a permeable BBB), transient recruitment of circulating cells to CNS occurs. However, these cells will never have a permanent contribution to CNS microglial pool [15].

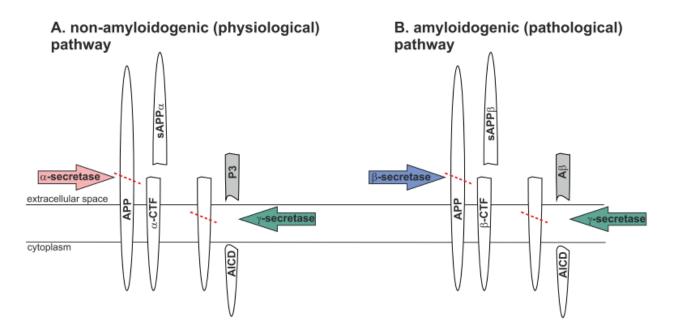
In summary, microglial cells originate from primitive progenitors in the YS and migrate to the CNS during early embryogenesis. Their population is maintained by local precursors that colonize the brain before birth independent of circulating monocytes. Data from bone marrow transplantations have shown that during CNS inflammation or disease conditions there will be recruitment and differentiation of blood monocytes to microglial like cells [16].

#### **1.2 Alzheimer's Disease**

AD is the most common form of neurodegenerative disorder in the elderly population, with prevalence of around 25% in those over 90 years old [17]. AD has a well-known progression, which starts in brain regions responsible for learning and memory, mainly pyramidal cell loss in CA1 region of hippocampus [18]. The most pathologically accepted concept is the amyloid cascade hypothesis. According to this hypothesis, the pathological steps which lead to AD consist of (i) appearance of senile plaques, (ii) formation of neurofibrillary tangles (NFT), and (iii) microglial cell inflammatory response (Heppner et al. 2015). In reality, there is no border between the three steps; however, these steps are described separately to simplify the explanation.

**First step:** The most important components of senile plaques are A $\beta$  peptides, which are produced through sequential cleavage of the amyloid precursor protein (APP) (Fig 1-1). APP cleavage can occur either in a non-amyloidogenic pathway or an amyloidogenic pathway. In the non-amyloidogenic (physiological) pathway, APP is first cleaved in the middle by an  $\alpha$ -secretase (a disintegrin and metalloprotease family enzyme, ADAM), producing a soluble N-terminal APP $\alpha$  fragment (sAPP $\alpha$ ) and a transmembrane C-terminal fragment (α-CTF). α-CTF is then further cleaved by a γsecretase (multi-subunit protease complex) to generate a short peptide P3 and APP intracellular domain (AICD; Fig 1-1 A; [19], [20].

In the amyloidogenic (pathological) pathway, which leads to A $\beta$  peptide formation, APP is first cleaved by a  $\beta$ -secretase ( $\beta$ -site APP cleaving enzyme 1, BACE1) at the N-terminus of the future A $\beta$  peptide sequence. This cleavage produces a soluble N-terminal APP $\beta$  fragment (sAPP $\beta$ ) and a transmembrane C-terminal fragment ( $\beta$ -CTF).  $\beta$ -CTF is further cleaved by a  $\gamma$ -secretase to generate A $\beta$  and AICD (Fig 1-1 B; Moore et al. 2015; Zhang et al. 2011).



**Figure 1-1:**  $A\beta_{1-42}$  production. In the physiological condition, APP is first cleaved by an  $\alpha$ -secretase and is divided into two fragments: sAPP $\alpha$  and  $\alpha$ -CTF. The  $\alpha$ -CTF piece is further cleaved by a  $\gamma$ -secretase and is cut up into the smaller peptides P3 and AICD (**A**). In the pathological condition, APP is cleaved by a  $\beta$ -secretase; afterwards, the  $\beta$ -CTF is split by a  $\gamma$ -secretase to form the A $\beta$  peptide and AICD (**B**).

A γ-secretase is a multi-subunit protease complex, which consists of presenilin, nicastrin, anterior pharynx-defective 1 (APH-1) and presenilin enhancer 2 [20].

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Depending on the cleavage site of the  $\gamma$ -secretase, various lengths of A $\beta$  (A $\beta_{43}$ , A $\beta_{42}$ , A $\beta_{40}$ , A $\beta_{38}$ , and A $\beta_{37}$ ) are produced [22]. The most produced forms of A $\beta$  are A $\beta_{1-40}$  and A $\beta_{1-42}$  peptides [23]. However, A $\beta_{1-42}$  is more neurotoxic since it is hydrophobic and can incite fibril polymerization, leading to stable clusters. These clusters are able to produce even larger aggregates [24], [25].

AD cases can mainly be divide to two groups: early onset AD (EOAD; also known familial AD or FAD) and late onset AD (LOAD). EOAD occurs in people between the ages of 30 to 60. Mutations in genes coding APP, presenilin-1 or presenilin-2 (subunits of  $\gamma$ -secretase) increase A $\beta_{1-42}$  production [25] and lead to FAD. LOAD occurs usually above the age of 65. Recent studies showed that genetic factors have a big effect on LOAD progression. The most widely-known gene is APOE, which has 3 alleles. The APOE  $\epsilon$ 4 allele highly increases the risk of LOAD [26]. Genome-wide association studies (GWAS) have led to the detection of several AD risk genes (CLU, MS4A6A, ABCA7, EPHA1, PICALM, TREM2, BIN1, CR1, and CD33) that may increase the risk of AD development [27], [28]. Some of these genes, such as TREM2, CD33, and CR1, are expressed in microglia. This shows that the role of microglia should be considered in the study of LOAD.

**Second step:** neurofibrillary tangles consist of clusters of microtubule-associated protein tau. Under physiological conditions, tau protein plays a role in stabilizing microtubules in a specific direction, especially in axons through mutual actions of kinases and phosphatases [29]. However, under pathological conditions like AD, tau proteins undergo modifications, predominantly hyper-phosphorylation, and lose their biological function. As a result, they cannot bind to microtubules and form aggregates inside neurons [30]. There are different points of view about the role of tau in AD. Some studies suggest that A $\beta$  works upstream of tau and accelerates NFT formation [31]. On the other side, other studies mention that tau pathology is independent of A $\beta$  or at least is needed for A $\beta$  pathology [32].

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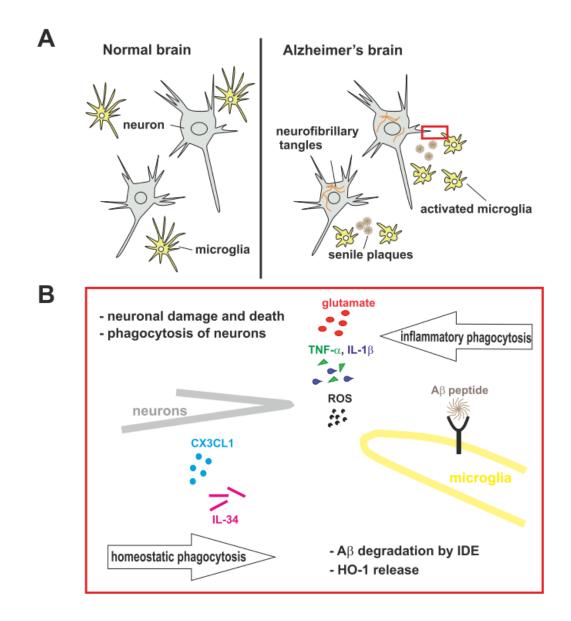
#### Introduction

**Third step:** In 1987, McGeer has shown that in contrast to the normal brain, where microglia are distributed uniformly throughout the gray and white matter, AD brains have microglia clustered in and around A $\beta$  deposits [33].

Microglial cells show a double-edged role in AD pathogenesis. On one hand, *in vitro* studies show that microglia have a **neurotoxic** role. Activation of microglial cells by Aβ caused an increase in extracellular glutamate concentration, which contributes to neuronal dysfunction and death [34], [35]. In addition, Aβ can induce the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines (TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-1 $\beta$ ) by microglial cells, which can directly impair neurons [36], [37]. In addition, Aβ can initiate the secretion of superoxide anions or ROS by a Syk kinase-dependent pathway in primary mouse microglia and THP-1 monocytes [38]. Aβ can also lead to peroxynitrite secretion that can induce neuronal exposure of the eat-me signal phosphatidylserine (PS) for microglial cells [39], [40]. Subsequently, microglial cells remove damaged neurons by phagocytosis.

On the other hand, microglia can be **neuroprotective** via clearance of A $\beta$  peptides and release of neurotrophic factors. Phagocytosis function by itself plays a pivotal role. On one side, phagocytosis can occur without neurotoxicity. Microglial cells, which were activated by Toll-like receptor-9 ligand (CpG), could increase uptake of A $\beta$  and release of hemeoxygenase-1 (HO-1), an antioxidant enzyme, without producing neurotoxic molecules [41]. There are some molecules such as Fractalkine (CX3CL1) and interleukin (IL)-34, which are supposed to be secreted by neurons to modulate microglial function in a neuroprotective way. For example, IL-34 promotes microglial proliferation, clearance of soluble oligomeric A $\beta$  via insulin degrading enzyme (IDE) (A $\beta$  degrading enzyme), and induces secretion of HO-1 by microglial cells [42] (Figure1-2). On the other side, phagocytosis can be associated with inflammation. For example, the uptake of microbes leads to the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines or ROS release that are toxic for neurons [43].

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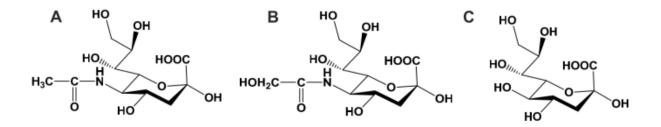


**Figure 1-2: Microglial cells plays a double-edged role in AD.** The most evident features of the AD brain compared to healthy brain are the appearance of senile plaques, NFT formation, and activated phenotype of microglia (**A**). Microglial cell activation can be inflammatory and neurotoxic. Attachment of A $\beta$  to its receptor on microglia can trigger release of glutamate, TNF- $\alpha$ , IL- $\beta$  and ROS, which are toxic to neurons (panel **B** right to left). On the other side, neurons can produce CX3CL1 and IL-34 and provoke homeostatic phagocytosis and neurotrophic function of microglia. This activation leads to microglial proliferation and release IDE enzyme or HO-1 enzyme (panel **B** left to right).

Every component, which can either reduce the inflammatory response of microglia in the presence of  $A\beta$  or increase  $A\beta$  uptake without inflammation could be a therapeutic candidate for AD.

#### **1.3 Polysialic Acid**

Sialic acids (Sias) are derivatives of the 9-carbone carboxylated sugar, neuraminic acid [44]. N-acetylneuraminic acid (Neu5Ac), N-glycolylneuraminic acid (Neu5Gc), and 2-keto-3-deoxy-D-glycero-D-galacto-nonulosonic acid (KDN) are the metabolic precursors for all other Sias [45] (Fig 1-3). Sias can often form extended homopolymers of oligosialic acids (oligoSias) and polysialic acids (polySias) which are diverse according to four factors: (i) backbone components (Neu5Ac, Neu5Gc and KDN), (ii) modifications (acetylation, methylation, sulphation, lactylation, lactonization), (iii) position of sialic acid residue linkages ( $\alpha 2 \rightarrow 4$ ,  $\alpha 2 \rightarrow 5$ ,  $\alpha 2 \rightarrow 8$  and  $\alpha 2 \rightarrow 9$ ) and (iv) degree of polymerization (2-400) [46].



**Figure 1-3: The three main sialic acid structures derived from neuraminic acid.** N-acetylneuraminic acid (Neu5Ac), which is the most common member of Sia in human (**A**). N-glycolylneuraminic acid (Neu5Gc, **B**) and 2-keto-3-deoxy-D-glycero-D-galacto-nonulosonic acid (KDN, **C**) (modified from Yamamoto 2010).

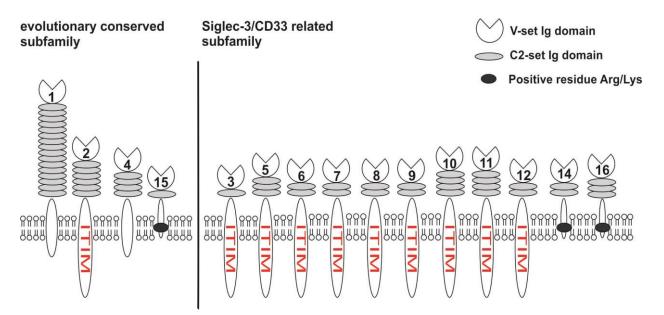
Usually at the cell surface, Sias provide an acidic cap to the outermost ends of lipids and proteins of the glycocalyx [48]. This Sia layer causes specific biophysical properties such as negative charge, hydrophilicity, binding to specific factors such as complement factor H, and masking of cell surface receptors [45], [49]. Among the multiple functions of Sias, one of the most important roles is the ligand recognition process. This recognition is mediated by specific receptors named SIGLEC receptors [50].

#### 1.3.1 Sialic Acid Binding Immunoglobulin-like Lectin Receptors

Sialic acid binding immunoglobulin-like lectins (SIGLEC) consist of a family of cell surface receptors expressed on immune cells (such as macrophages, dendritic cells (DC), monocytes, neutrophils and microglial cells) that can recognize Sia residues and mediate mostly inhibitory but also activatory signaling [51]. SIGLECs are divided into two major subgroups: first, the evolutionary conserved subfamily which consists of SIGLEC-1 (sialoadhesin or CD169), SIGLEC-2 (CD22), SIGLEC-4 (myelin-associated glycoprotein, MAG) and SIGLEC-15, which are conserved across all mammalian species and share 30% sequence homology [52]. The second subgroup is the SIGLEC3/CD33–related subfamily, which shows 50-90% sequence similarity to CD33 in their extracellular part. However, they show poor species homology and different numbers between species because of evolutionary events [53]. For example, the human SIGLEC3-related group contains 11 members (SIGLEC-3, -5, -6, -7, -8, -9, -10, -11, -12, -14, -16), and mouse contain 5 members (CD33, siglec-e, -f, -g, -h)[54].

All SIGLEC receptors are composed of four parts: (i) Extracellular N-terminal V-set immunoglobulin (Ig) domain, which is responsible for Sia recognition, (ii) variable number of C2-set Ig domains, (iii) one transmembrane part, and (iv) the cytoplasmic tail (Fig 1-4) [51], [52]. According to the transmembrane and cytoplasmic tail, SIGLECs can be divided into three groups: The first group of SIGLECs, like SIGLEC-1 and -4, do not have any inhibitory motif in their intracellular tail. The second group (SIGLEC-2, -3, -5, -6, -7, -8, -9, -10, -11 and -12) consist of at least one immunoreceptor tyrosine-based inhibition motif (ITIM) which allows them to act as inhibitory receptors (Fig. 1-4). The third group (SIGLEC-14, -15, -16) of SIGLECs carries a positively charged residue in the transmembrane region. This positive charge enables them to recruit a disulfide-linked homodimer of DNAX-associated protein of 12 kDa (DAP-12), an adaptor protein

that contains an immunoreceptor tyrosine-based activatory motif (ITAM), which permits these SIGLECs to function as activatory receptors (Fig 1-4) [53].



**Figure 1-4: Human SIGLECs.** SIGLECs are type I transmembrane proteins. Each SIGLEC contains one N-terminal V-set Ig domain to recognize the ligand. They have variable C2-set Ig domains to extend from the cell surface. In the intracellular part, according to the motif they carry, their function can be inhibitory (contain ITIM domain) or activatory (contain positive residues, which enable them to recruit ITAM containing adaptor protein). Modified according to Pillai et al., 2012.

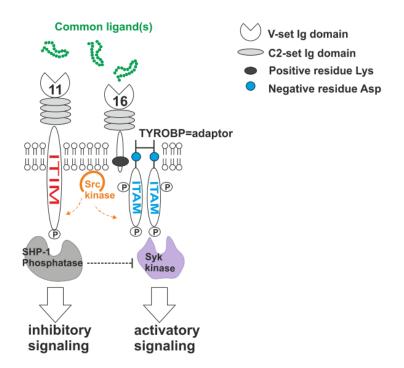
#### 1.3.2 ITIM / ITAM Signaling

Upon ligand binding to SIGLECs, depending on the type of intracellular motif, dephosphorylation or phosphorylation processes will cause an inhibitory or activatory response by cells.

There are two pairs of ITIM/ITAM-carrying receptors in SIGLEC3/CD33-related subfamily (SIGLEC-5 vs SIGLEC-14 and SIGLEC-11 vs SIGLEC-16). Pair receptors are developed to provide a balance in SIGLEC response toward ligand binding [53]. SIGLEC-11 and SIGLEC-16 share about 99% amino acid identity with each other in the extracellular domains [55]. Human brain microglia have a specific expression of

SIGLEC-11, which recognizes Neu5Ac  $\alpha 2 \rightarrow 8$  as it's ligand [56]. Neu5Ac  $\alpha 2 \rightarrow 8$  can be recognized by SIGLEC16 as well.

**SIGLEC-11** is neutrally charged in the transmembrane part and contains an ITIM motif in the intracellular part, which enables it to act as an inhibitory receptor [51]. Following ligand attachment to the receptor, members of the Src kinase family become activated and phosphorylate the ITIM motif tyrosine residues. Phosphorylated tyrosines provide the docking sites for SH2 domain-containing tyrosine phosphates (SHP1 and SHP2), which upon activation counteract functions of ITAM signaling pathways (Fig 1-5) [57].



**Figure 1-5: SIGLEC-11 vs SIGLEC-16 pair.** Upon ligand attachment to SIGLEC-11, the tyrosine within the ITIM domain will be phosphorylated by Src kinase and will provide the docking site for SHP-1 phosphatase. SHP-1 phosphorylation leads to the de-phosphorylation of downstream proteins, and downregulation of activatory signaling pathways. Alternatively, upon ligand binding to SIGLEC-16, it will recruit the adaptor protein TYROBP by interaction between positively charged lysine and negatively charged aspartic acid. TYROBP adaptor contains ITAM domains. ITAM domains phosphorylation will provide sites for Syk kinase and starts the activatory signal transduction.

SIGLEC-16 does not have any intracellular motif; however, it contains a positively charged lysine in the transmembrane part, which enables this receptor to recruit the ITAM-containing adaptor molecule DAP-12 (TYROBP) [51]. Upon ligand binding, the ITAM motif of the adaptor molecule will be phosphorylated by the Src kinase family and will provide the docking site for Syk kinase. This kinase will, upon phosphorylation, trigger several downstream signaling pathways, leading to phagocytosis or release of ROS (Fig 1-5) [58].

#### 1.3.3 Modulation of Aβ Neurotoxicity by Sia and SIGLECs

The human brain is a rich source of glycolipids. Gangliosides (GM1, GD1a, GD1b, GT1b) are members of glycolipids, which comprise ~ 0.6% of total brain lipid, and carry ~ 75% of brain's Sia [48]. Gangliosides, especially GM1, have been shown to be sufficient for A $\beta$  binding and aggregation; they are also the main suspect in immune masking of A $\beta$  plaques [59], [60]. A $\beta$  binding to gangliosides, especially GM1, results in an altered secondary structure towards  $\beta$ -sheets folding [61]. GM1 gangliosides can bind to A $\beta$  isoforms with the following affinities: A $\beta_{1-42}$ > A $\beta_{40-1}$ > A $\beta_{1-40}$ > A $\beta_{1-38}$  [62],[64]. On the other hand, sialylation provide the recognition signal for microglial cells which carry SIGLEC-11 or SIGLEC-3 on their surface. Both of these SIGLEC receptors have an ITIM motif, which upon activation start immunosuppressive signals [60], [65]. The inhibitory signals can inhibit the function of other microglial pattern recognition receptors, such as TREM2 and SIRP $\beta$ 1, which are amyloid plaque-associated microglial phagocytic receptors and signal via ITAM [66], [67]. Upon ITIM activation, phagocytosis is reduced, but simultaneously the A $\beta$  induced cytokine release and ROS production are attenuated.

Recent data show that SIGLEC receptors on microglia can recognize Sias on the neuronal glycocalyx. Siglec-e, which is a member of the mouse CD33-related SIGLEC family, can reduce phagocytosis and ROS release in microglial cells mediated by neural debris if overexpressed. In addition, in a mouse neuron-microglia co-culture system, siglec-e on microglial cells showed neuroprotective features by binding to Sias of intact

neuronal glycocalyx [68]. Moreover, activation of SIGLEC-11 in mouse microglia, which ectopically expresses flag-tagged human SIGLEC-11 by crosslinking with flag-specific antibodies, reduces gene transcription of pro-inflammatory mediators such as IL- $\beta$ , NOS-2. In the mouse neuron-microglia co-culture system, microglial SIGLEC-11 could interact with Sias on the neuronal glycocalyx and reduce microglial cell neurotoxicity [69].

## 1.4 Aim of the Study

In AD, neuronal glycocalyx is changed and Aβ plaques are present. Both of these situations can lead to inflammatory responses of microglial cells, which are harmful for neurons. Previously, it has been shown that alteration in polySia of neuronal glycocalyx can modulate microglia functions through SIGLEC receptors present on microglial cells. Still, it is not clear which length of polySia as a ligand can interact with microglial SIGLEC-11 receptor and how this interaction can change microglial cell behavior. Therefore, in this study, we attempted to fulfill three different aims.

The first aim of the thesis at hand was to investigate whether polySia could act as a ligand for SIGLEC-11 receptor. To fulfill this, different lengths of polySia were used and the response of A $\beta_{1-42}$  activated microglias (iPSdM cells) toward them was studied.

The second aim of the thesis was to explore how this specific ligand can change phagocytosis and superoxide production of iPSdM/macrophages toward A $\beta_{1-42}$  and neural debris stimulation .

The third aim of the thesis was to test whether the SIGLEC-11 ligand – polysia is capable of preventing the iPSdM/macrophages toxic effect mediated by  $A\beta_{1-42}$  or Lipopolysaccharide (LPS) in neuron-iPSdM or neuron-macrophage co-culture systems.

## 2 Materials and Methods

#### 2.1 Cells and Cultures

#### 2.1.1 Generation of Primitive Neural Stem Cells (pNSCs) from iPS Cells

Human induced pluripotent stem (iPS) cells generated from MP-1 (AG Brüstle, University of Bonn, Germany) were used for pluripotent neural stem cell (pNSC) induction by a modified protocol, which was originally described to obtain primitive neural precursors from human embryonic stem cells [70]. iPS cells were cultured on mouse embryonic fibroblast (MEF) feeder cells in iPS-knockout/serum replacement medium (table 2-1) to form small colonies for 2 days in an incubator with 5% CO<sub>2</sub>, 37°C. Next, the medium was changed to neural stem cell medium (table 2-2) which contains leukaemia inhibiting factor (LIF) and three small molecules CHIR99021 (inhibitor of GSK-3 $\beta$ ) and SB431542 (inhibitor of TGF- $\beta$  and activin receptors), and Compound E (inhibitor of  $\gamma$ -secretase) for 10 days. The medium was changed every day. Cells were split by accutase and replated on Poly-L-ornithine (PLO) + Fibronectin (Fn) coated dishes in neural stem cell medium supplemented with LIF, CHIR99021 and SB431542 to keep them in pluripotent state in an incubator with 5% CO<sub>2</sub>, 37°C.

Table 2-1 iPS knockout/serum replacement medium			
Component	Quantity	Company	
Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Media (DMEM) + factor12 (1:1) + L-glutamine + 15 mM HEPES	200 ml	Gibco, Life Technologies	
KnockOut serum replacement	50 ml	Gibco, Life Technologies	
Non-Essential Amino Acids	2.5 ml	Gibco, Life Technologies	
L-Glutamine	1.2 ml	Gibco, Life Technologies	
β-mercaptoethanol	5 μl	Millipore	
Recombinant human FGF basic	75 μl	R & D system	

Table 2-2 neural stem cell medium			
Component	Quantity	Company	
Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Media (DMEM) + factor12 (1:1) + L-glutamine + 15 mM HEPES	250 ml	Gibco, Life Technologies	
Neurobasal medium	250 ml	Gibco, Life Technologies	
N2 supplement	5 ml	Gibco, Life Technologies	
B27 supplemet	10 ml	Gibco, Life Technologies	
GlutaMAX supplement	5 ml	Gibco, Life Technologies	
Human Leukemia inhibitory factor	0.5 ml	Millipore	
CHIR99021	0.05 ml	Axon medchem	
SB431542	0.05 ml	Axon medchem	
Compound E	0.05 ml	Axon medchem	

#### 2.1.2 Generation of Human Neurons from pNSCs

To induce differentiation towards neurons, pNSCs were dissociated by accutase. Then, pNSCs were cultured on PLO + Laminin (Ln) coated 4-chamber slides in neural stem cell medium till cells attached and started to form small colonies in an incubator with 5%  $CO_2$ , 37°C. Afterwards, medium was changed to neuronal differentiation medium (table 2-3) for 2 weeks. Medium containing the neurotrophic factors was changed every second day.

Table 2-3 neuronal differentiation medium			
Component	Quantity	Company	
Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Media (DMEM) + factor12 (1:1) + L-glutamine + 15 mM HEPES	500 ml	Gibco, Life Technologies	
N2 supplement	5 ml	Gibco, Life Technologies	
B27 supplemet	10 ml	Gibco, Life Technologies	
Cyclic adenosine monophosphate	0.15 ml	Sigma-Aldrich	
Ascorbic acid	0.5 ml	Tocris	
Glial derived neurotrophic factor	0.5 ml	Prospect	
Brain derived neurotrophic factor	0.5 ml	Prospect	

#### 2.1.3 iPSdM Cell Line

Induced pluripotent stem cell-derived microglia (iPSdM) cells, a microglia-like cell line, were generated from human induce pluripotent stem cells. These cells show microglial cell surface markers such as CD11b, CD11c, CD16/32, CD36, CD40, CD45, CD49d, CD86, CD206 and CX3CR1. They also show functional abilities like microglial cells such as phagocytosis, release of ROS, release of pro-inflammatory cytokines and migration toward chemokines [71].

IPSdM cells grow in adherent culture. After thawing in pre-warmed N2 culture medium (table 2-4), the cell suspension was centrifuged to get rid of DMSO (1300 rpm, 3 minutes). Then, the pellet was resuspended in N2 culture medium and kept in 10 cm<sup>2</sup> diameter culture dish, in an incubator with 5% CO<sub>2</sub>, 37°C. When cultured cells reached 90% confluency, cells were detached by trypsinization, centrifuged (1300 rpm, 3 minutes), and resuspended in a new 10 cm<sup>2</sup> diameter culture dish.

Table 2-4 N2 culture medium			
Component	Quantity	Company	
Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Media (DMEM) + factor12 (1:1) + L-glutamine + 15 mM HEPES	500 ml	Gibco, Life Technologies	
N2 supplement	5 ml	Gibco, Life Technologies	
L-glutamine	1.2 ml	Gibco, Life Technologies	
Penicillin-Streptomycin	5 ml	Gibco, Life Technologies	

#### 2.1.4 THP1 Cell Line

The human monocytic cell line THP-1 derived from an acute monocytic leukaemia patient was used to obtain macrophages. These cells were kindly provided by Prof. Veit Hornung (University of Bonn, Germany). After thawing in pre-warmed monocyte culture medium (table 2-5), the cell suspension was centrifuged to get rid of DMSO (1300 rpm, 3 minutes). Since THP-1 monocytes are cultured in suspension, the pellet was resuspended in monocyte culture medium and kept in 25 cm<sup>2</sup> flask in an incubator with 5% CO<sub>2</sub>, 37°C. When cultured cells reached about 1x10<sup>6</sup> cells/ml, the cell suspension was collected, centrifuged (1300 rpm, 3 minutes), and resuspended in 75 cm<sup>2</sup> flasks.

Table 2-5 THP-1 monocyte culture medium			
Component	Quantity	Company	
Roswell Park Memorial Institute medium (RPMI) + L-glutamine	450 ml	Gibco, Life Technologies	
Fetal Calf Serum	50 ml	Gibco, Life Technologies	
Penicillin-Streptomycin	5 ml	Gibco, Life Technologies	
L-glutamine	5 ml	Gibco, Life Technologies	
Sodium pyruvate	5 ml	Gibco, Life Technologies	

One week after thawing, THP-1 monocytes were transfered to differentiation medium (table 2-6). To induce differentiation, cells were plated at appropriate density in differentiation medium and were incubated with 0.5  $\mu$ M Phorbol-12-Myristate-13-Acetate (PMA) for 3 hours. Then, the attached monocytes were washed 2 times with medium and cultured for 48 hours more in differentiation medium. The medium was changed to stimulation medium (table 2-7) which contains no serum for stimulation of the cells.

Table 2-6 THP-1 differentiation medium			
Component	Quantity	Company	
Roswell Park Memorial Institute	450 ml	Gibco,	
medium (RPMI) + L-glutamine		Life Technologies	
Chicken serum	5 ml	Gibco,	
		Life Technologies	
N2 supplement	5 ml	Gibco,	
		Life Technologies	
Penicillin-Streptomycin	5 ml	Gibco,	
		Life Technologies	
L-glutamine	5 ml	Gibco,	
		Life Technologies	
Sodium pyruvate	5 ml	Gibco,	
		Life Technologies	

Table 2-7 THP-1 stimulation medium			
Component	Quantity	Company	
Roswell Park Memorial Institute medium (RPMI) + L-glutamine	450 ml	Gibco, Life Technologies	
N2 supplement	5 ml	Gibco, Life Technologies	
Penicillin-Streptomycin	5 ml	Gibco, Life Technologies	
L-glutamine	5 ml	Gibco, Life Technologies	
Sodium pyruvate	5 ml	Gibco, Life Technologies	

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#### 2.1.5 HEK293FT Cell Line

Human Embryonic Kidney (HEK) 293 cells are a specific cell line originally derived from human embryonic kidney cells from an aborted human embryo. After thawing in prewarmed MEF medium (table 2-8), the cell suspension were centrifuged to get rid of DMSO (1300 rpm, 3 minutes). Next, the pellet was resuspended in MEF medium and kept in 15 cm<sup>2</sup> diameter culture dish, in an incubator with 5% CO<sub>2</sub>, 37°C. When cultured cells reached 90% confluency, cells were detached by trypsinization and seeded onto Poly-L-lysine (PLL) coated dishes for transduction.

Table 2-8 MEF medium			
Component	Quantity	Company	
Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Media (DMEM) + L-glutamine + 4500 mg/l D-glucose	450 ml	Gibco, Life Technologies	
L-glutamine	5 ml	Gibco, Life Technologies	
Non-Essential Amino Acids	5 ml	Gibco, Life Technologies	
Sodium pyruvate	5 ml	Gibco, Life Technologies	
Fetal Calf Serum	50 ml	Gibco, Life Technologies	

#### 2.1.6 Co-culture of Neurons with iPSdM or THP-1 Macrophages

To prepare iPSdM/macrophages for co-culture experiments, in LPS stimulated groups, 80% confluent dishes of either iPSdM cells or THP-1 macrophages were pre-treated for 24 hours with 1  $\mu$ g/ml LPS. Next, iPSdM/macrophages were washed once with 1x PBS, scraped, and counted. The appropriate number of iPSdM/macrophages were added to neurons with/without 1.5  $\mu$ M polySia avDP20 with a 1 : 5 iPSdM/macrophages : neuron ratio in neuronal differentiation medium for 48 hours.

In fibrillar A $\beta_{1-42}$  stimulated groups, unbiotinylated A $\beta_{1-42}$  was incubated 72 hours before the experiment in 37°C to stimulate fibrillar formation. iPSdM/macrophages and 1  $\mu$ M fibrillar A $\beta_{1-42}$  were added to the neurons with/without 1.5  $\mu$ M polySia avDP20 in a 1 : 5

iPSdM/macrophages : neuron ratio in neuronal differentiation medium for 48 hours. To test the antioxidant effect of 6-hydroxy-2,5,7,8-tetramethylchroman-2-carboxylic acid (Trolox), 40  $\mu$ M Trolox was together with 1  $\mu$ M fibrillar A $\beta_{1-42}$  and iPSdM/macrophages to the neurons and incubated in neuronal differentiation medium for 48 hours.

#### 2.1.7 Debris Production

Neural stem cells were seeded. When 90% confluency was reached, cells were incubated with 40 nM okadaic acid for 24 hours. Medium containing cell debris was collected and centrifuged (1500 rpm, 4 minutes) to aggregate the remaining cell membranes and washed once with 1x PBS. Then, debris was incubated with DNase to break down DNA and subsequently washed 2 times with 1x PBS. For phagocytosis experiments, debris was stained with "Dil Derivatives for Long-Term Cellular Labelling" Molecular Probes (1  $\mu$ g/ml) according to supplier's manual. The obtained debris was washed, weighed, aliquoted, and stored in -20°C.

#### 2.2 Cellular Assays

#### 2.2.1 Fibrillar Aβ<sub>1-42</sub> and Debris Phagocytosis Assays

To get fibril forms, biotinylated  $A\beta_{1-42}$  diluted in PBS (1 mg/ml) was incubated for 72 hours at 37°C as previously described [72]. IPSdM cells were seeded at a density of 40,000 cells per well in a chamber slide 24 hours before the experiment. THP-1 monocytes were seeded and differentiated at a density of 100,000 cells per well in a chamber slide to obtain macrophages 48 hours before the experiment. IPSdM/macropahges were pre-incubated for 1 hour with different concentrations of polySia avDP20 (0.15, 0.5 and 1.5  $\mu$ M), followed by 1.5 hour incubation with 2  $\mu$ M fibrillary biotinylated A $\beta_{1-42}$ . Then, the cells were fixed, blocked, and incubated with rabbit anti-Iba1 antibody (iPSdM, table 2-17) or rat anti-CD11b antibody (macrophages, table 2-17) overnight at 4°C. Afterwards, cell were washed and incubated with a secondary Alexa 488-conjugated antibody directed against rabbit IgG and streptavidin-

Cy3 (iPSdM, table 2-17) or a secondary Alexa 488-conjugated antibody directed against rat IgG and streptavidin-Cy3 (macrophages, table 2-17) for 2 hours at room temperature. The staining protocol is mentioned in table 2-16 in detail. For analysis, images were obtained with a confocal laser scanning microscope and the fluorescent labeled  $A\beta_{1-42}$  was visualized inside the iPSdM and macrophages by 3D reconstruction. Percentage of the cells ingested fluorescently labeled  $A\beta_{1-42}$  was analyzed in 5 randomly selected areas per condition per experiment by using ImageJ software.

Similar to A $\beta$  phagocytosis experiments, 40,000 iPSdM and 100,000 macrophages were seeded per well in a chamber slide. IPSdM and macrophages were pre-incubated for 1 hour with different concentrations of polySia avDP20 (0.15, 0.5 and 1.5  $\mu$ M), followed by 1.5 hour incubation with 5  $\mu$ g/ $\mu$ l stained debris. Then, the cells were fixed, blocked, and incubated with first and secondry antibodies as mentioned for A $\beta$  phagocytosis. For analysis, images were obtained with a confocal laser scanning microscope. Percentage of the cells with fluorescently labeled debris was analyzed in 5 randomly selected areas per condition per experiment by using ImageJ software.

#### 2.2.2 Detection of Superoxide Production

To measure the superoxide production by iPSdM, cells were seeded at a density of 40,000 cells per well in 4-chamber slides. 24 hours later, cells were treated with 10  $\mu$ M fibrillary A $\beta_{1-42}$  or 5  $\mu$ g/ $\mu$ l debris for 15 minutes with or without 1 hour polySia avDP20 (different concentrations) pre-incubation.

To measure the superoxide production by THP-1 macrophages, monocytes were seeded at a density of 100,000 cells per well in 4-chamber slides and differentiated to macrophages as mentioned before. 48 hours later, macrophages were treated with 10  $\mu$ M fibrillary A $\beta_{1-42}$  or 5  $\mu$ g/ $\mu$ l debris for 15 minutes with or without 1 hour polySia avDP20 (different concentrations) pre-incubation.

To test the antioxidant effect of SOD1 or Trolox as positive controls, iPSdM/macrophages were pre-incubated for 1 hour either with 60 U/ml SOD1 or 40  $\mu$ M Trolox, then fibrillary A $\beta_{1-42}$  or debris was added to them for 15 minutes. Afterwards,

cells were incubated for 15 minutes with 30 µM DHE solution (diluted in Krebs-HEPESbuffer, table 2-9) at 37°C. Finally, cells were washed twice with Krebs-HEPES-buffer and fixed with 4% PFA/Glutaraldehyde (GAD) and mounted with Mowiol 4-88. Three pictures were taken of each condition per experiment by confocal laser scanning microscopy. Analyzing of the pictures has done by Image J software.

Table 2-9 Krebs-HEPES-buffer			
Component	concentration	Company	
HEPES	8.3 mM	Carl Roth GmbH	
NaCl	130 mM	Sigma-Aldrich	
KCI	5.6 mM	Sigma-Aldrich	
CaCl2	2 mM	Sigma-Aldrich	
MgCl2	0.24 mM	Sigma-Aldrich	
Glucose	11 mM	Carl Roth GmbH	

#### 2.2.3 Neurite Branch Length Analysis

To analyze neurite branch length, co-cultures were prepared as mentioned in section 2.1.6. After 48 hours of iPSdM:neuron co-culture incubation, cells were fixed, blocked, and immunostained with rabbit-anti-Iba1 and mouse-anti- $\beta$ -tubulinIII antibodies (table 2-17) overnight at 4°C followed by secondary Cy3-conjugated goat antibody directed against rabbit IgG and Alexa488-conjugated antibody directed against mouse IgG (table 2-17) for 2 hours at room temperature. After 48 hours of THP-1 macrophage:neuron co-culture incubation, cells were fixed, blocked, and immunostained with monoclonal rat anti-CD11b and rabbit-anti-neurofilament antibodies (table 2-17) overnight at 4°C followed by secondary Cy3-conjugated goat antibody directed against rat IgG and Alexa 488-conjugated antibody directed against rat IgG and Alexa 488-conjugated antibody directed against rabbit IgG (table 2-17) for 2 hours at room temperature. Five images per condition per experiment were randomly collected by confocal laser scanning microscopy and total lengths of neuronal branches from  $\beta$ -tubulinIII or neurofilament stained neurites was determined by the NIH ImageJ/NeuronJ software.

#### 2.3 Molecular Assays

#### 2.3.1 RT-PCR

THP-1 monocytes that were kept in THP1 differentiation medium or macrophages after 48 hours differentiation in this medium were lysed with 1 ml QIAzol. Afterwards, RNA was isolated using a modified phenol-chloroform based method according to table 2-10.

Table 2-10 RNA isolation				
	Step	Quantity	Condition	Time
	Add QIAzol to cells	1 ml	Room temperature	5 min
	Incubation with chloroform	200 µl	Room temperature	3 min
	Centrifugation		13000 rpm, 4° C	15 min
	Collect the upper colorless phase			
	Incubation with isopropanol	(1:1) vol	Room temperature	5 min
	Centrifugation		13000rmp, 4°C	20 min
	Collect the sediment			
x3	Add 70% ethanol	300 µl		
۸J	Centrifugation		13000rmp, 4°C	5 min
	Collect the sediment, dry, and resuspend in $12\mu l$ RNase free water			

To obtain cDNA, the total RNA which was obtained by protocol described in table 2-10 was used. Reverse transcription (RT) was performed by SuperScript III reverse transcriptase and random hexamer primers as claimed by table 2-11.

Table 2-11 Reverse Transcription						
Prepare RT mix (I)	Components	Amount	Company			
	RNA	11 μl				
	Hexanucleotide (mM)	1 μl	Roche			
	dNTP	1 μl	Paqlab			
Start RT program	Temperature	Time				
	65°C	5 min				
	4°C	1 min				
	4°C	pause				
Add RT mix (II)	Components	Amount	Company			
	5x first-strand buffer	4 μl	Invitrogen, life technologies			
	DTT (100mM)	2 μl	Invitrogen, life technologies			
	Superscript® III	1 μl	Invitrogen, life technologies			
Continue RT program	Temperature	Time				
	25°C	5 min				
	55°C	1 h				
	70°C	15 min				
	4°C	pause				

RT-PCR reaction has been done by Taq DNA polymerase with primers mentioned in table 2-12.

#### Table 2-12 Primers

Gene	Forward Primer (5' $\rightarrow$ 3')	Reverse Primer (5' $ ightarrow$ 3')
SIGLEC11	CACTGGAAGCTGGAGCATGG	ATTCATGCTGGTGACCCTGG
GAPDH	CTGCACCACCAACTGCTTAG	TTCAGCTCAGGGATGACCTT

Amplification program has been done by a Biometra Thermocycler maschine as described in table 2-13.

Table 2-13 RT-PCR Progra	am		
Prepare PCR mix	Components	Amount	Company
	PCR reaction buffer 10x	5 μl	Roche
	dNTP	2 μl	Paqlab
	Forward Primer	2 μl	Invitrogen
	Reverse Primer	2 μl	Invitrogen
	Taq polymerase	0.2 μl	Roche
	cDNA	~ 500 ng	
	DEPC Treated Water	up to 50 μl	invitrogen
PCR program	Temperature	Time	
	94 °C	3 min	
	94 °C	1 min	
x35	60 °C	1 min	
	72 °C	1 min	
	72 °C	10 min	
	4 °C	pause	

# 

## 2.3.2 qRT-PCR

To compare SIGLEC-11 transcription levels, qRT-PCR was performed with 200 ng cDNA, SYBR GreenEP<sup>™</sup> qPCR SuperMix and 400 nM primers (table 2-12) in a final reaction volume of 25 µl. Amplification was done as mentioned in table 2-14 by a Mastercycler epgradient S®. Results were analyzed by the manufacturer's software, amplification specificity was checked by melting curve analysis, and relative quantifications were done by  $\Delta\Delta$ Ct method.

Table 2-14 qR 1-PCF	Frogram			
Step		Temperature	Time	Cycle
1- Initial denaturation		95°C	10 min	
2- Amplification	Denaturation	95°C		
	Annealing	60°C		x40
	Elongation	72°C		
5- Inactivation		95°C	10 min	
6- Melting curve		59°C - 95°C	20 min	
7- Final denaturation		95°C	15 s	
8- Pause		4°C	pause	

# Table 2-14 qRT-PCR Program

#### 2.4 Lentivirus Generation

For lentiviral knockdown of *SIGLEC11*, a 2<sup>nd</sup> generation packaging system was used. The lentiviral knockdown plasmid (shRNASig11: TRCN0000062842) in a human pLKO.1 lentiviral shRNA target gene set backbone or a pLenti 6.2/V5\_DEST Gateway Vector without target gene were used as control vector. HEK293FT cells pre-seeded on PLL coated 15 cm<sup>2</sup> dishes were transduced by *SIGLEC11* knockdown plasmid or control plasmid mixed with packaging plasmids (psPAX2 and pMD2.G) as described in table 2-15.

Step	Components	Amount	Time	Company
1- Plasmid mix	H₂O	1300 μl		
for 20 ml Advanced DMEM medium	Plasmid	40 µg		Open Biosystem
plus 25µM chloroquine	Packging plasmid	20 µg		Addgene
	(psPAX2)		5 min	
	Envelop plasmid	20 µg		Addgene
	(pMD2.G)			
	CaCl₂ (2.5 M)	133 µl		
Complex formation	2xHBS	1300 μl	15 min	
2- Add the whole plasmid mix			5 h	
to the dish				
3- Change the medium to	20 ml		48 h	
normal MEF				
4- harvest the virus				

For precipitation of viral particles, the virus-containing medium was collected and filtered (0.4 mm filter). Afterwards, the medium was mixed and incubated for 1.5 hour on ice with 8.5% polyethylenglycol, 0.3 M NaCl and PBS. Next, the solution was centrifuged at 4500 rpm for 30 minutes. At the end, the viral particle-containing pellet was resuspended in 1x PBS and added to THP-1 monocytes. After 48 hours, the transduced cells were selected by 1  $\mu$ g/ml puromycin. The efficiency of knockdown was checked by FACS analysis. THP-1 cells transduced by either *SIGLEC11* plasmid or control plasmid after differentiation to macrophages were used for further analysis.

## 2.5 Immunological Techniques

## 2.5.1 Immunocytochemistry (ICC)

For cell culture immunostaining, cells were washed once with 1x PBS. Afterwards, all the stainings were done according to the protocol as mention in table 2-16. Antibodies used in satinings are mentioned in table 2-17. Images were taken by confocal laser scanning microscopy or Fluorescence microscopy.

Step	Components	Time	Temperature
Fixation	4% PFA	15 min	Room temperature
Washing (3times)	1x PBS		
Blocking	10% BSA 5% nGS 0.1% Triton 100x	1 h	Room temperature
Primary antibody	in PBS	overnight	4°C
Washing (3times)	1x PBS		
Secondary antibody	in PBS	2 h	Room temperature
Washing (3times)	1x PBS		
Mounting	Mowiol		

## Table 2-16 ICC Protocol

AntibodyTypeHostSpecificityWorking conc.Company conc.Anti-NeuN1 stmousemouse/human10 μg/mlMilliporeMonoclonal1 stmouserat/human1 μg/mlSigma-Aldriβ-tubulin III1 stchickenmouse/human1 μg/mlMilliporeβ-tubulin III1 stchickenmouse/human1 μg/mlMillipore	ch
monoclonal1 stmouserat/human1 μg/mlSigma-Aldriβ-tubulin III1 stchickenmouse/human1 μg/mlMillipore	ch
monoclonal β-tubulin III 1 st chicken mouse/human 1 μg/ml Millipore	ch
polyclonal	
CD11b (Integrin alpha-M) 1 st rat mouse/human 1 µg/mI BD Bioscier monoclonal	nces
ChAT 1 st goat mouse/human 2 µg/ml Millipore polyclonal	
GABA 1 st rabbit rat/human 1 µg/mI Sigma-Aldri polyclonal	ch
GFAP 1 st rabbit cow/human 1 µg/ml Dako polyclonal	
lba-1 1 st rabbit mouse/human 1 µg/ml Wako polyclonal	
Ki67 1 st mouse human 10 μg/ml Dako monoclonal	
MAP2 1 st rabbit mouse/human 1 µg/ml Millipore polyclonal	
Nestin 1 st mouse human 10 µg/ml R&D syster monoclonal	n
Neurofilament 200 1 st rabbit mouse/human 1 µg/ml Sigma-Aldri polyclonal	ch
Olig2 1 st rabbit mouse/human 1 µg/ml Millipore polyclonal	
Pax 6 1 st rabbit mouse/human 10 µg/ml Covance polyclonal	
Siglec-11 1 st mouse human 2 µg/ml Abmart monoclonal	
Sox1 1 st rabbit mouse/human 10 µg/ml Millipore polyclonal	
Sox2 1 st mouse mouse/human 10 µg/ml R&D system monoclonal	n
Tyrosine Hydroxylase 1 st rabbit mouse/human 1 µg/ml Sigma-Aldri monoclonal	ch
Zo1 1 st rabbit mouse/human 2 μg/ml Invitrogen polyclonal	

# **Materials and Methods**

Alexa 488-conjugated	2 nd	chicken	2 µg/ml	life technologies
Alexa 488-conjugated	2 nd	goat	2 µg/ml	Invitrogen
Alexa 488-conjugated	2 nd	rabbit	2 µg/ml	Invitrogen
Alexa 488-conjugated	2 nd	rat	2 µg/ml	Invitrogen
Cy3-conjugated	2 nd	mouse	2 µg/ml	Dianova
Cy3-conjugated	2 nd	rabbit	2 µg/ml	Dianova
Cy3-conjugated	2 nd	rat	2 µg/ml	Dianova
PE-conjugated	2 nd	mouse	2 µg/ml	Jackson Immuno Research

#### 2.5.2 Enzyme-Linked Immunosorbent Assay (ELISA)

For ELISA, biotinylated polySia avDP20 had to be produced (table 2-18). PolySia avDP20 was coupled with a biotin molecule at the N-terminus of the polySia avDP20 chain. Biotinylated-dextran with same molecular weight was used as a control.

Table2-18 Bio	tinylation Protocol				
Step	Components	Time	Comments	Company	
Oxidation	Sodium Periodate (NalO4) 0.02 M diluted in oxidation buffer	30 min in dark at 4°C		Sigma-Aldrich	
Washing	HiTrap Desalting, 5 x 5 ml		5 times (25ml 1x PBS)	GE Healthcare Life Sciences	
Hydrazination	EZ-Link™ Hydrazide-Biotin 12.9 mg/ml dilute in DMSO	2 h at Room teperature		Thermo Scientific	
Washing	wash the column		5 times (25ml 1x PBS)		
Purification	biotinylated polySia avDP20		load to the column wash through with 5ml 1xPBS		
Oxidation buffer: 0.1 M Natrium acetate (C2H3NaO2)					

Oxidation buffer: 0.1 M Natrium acetate (C2H3NaO2)

Different concentrations of biotinylated-polySia avDP20 (0.01, 0.05, 0.25, 1.25, 6.25  $\mu$ g/ml) or biotinylated-dextran (0.01, 0.05, 0.25, 1.25, 6.25  $\mu$ g/ml) were used to test the binding affinity to the recombinant human SIGLEC-11 Fc-fusion (rhSIGLEC-11/Fc) protein coated plate according to table 2-19.

Table 2-19 ELISA Protocol					
Step	Components	Concentration	Time	Temperature	Company
Coat plate	Protein A	10 µg/ml	overnight	4°C	Thermo Scientific
Washing	1x PBS + 0.05 % tween20		x 3		
Blocking	3% BSA		1 h	Room teperature	
Coat receptor	SIGLEC11-Fc	5 μg	2 h	Room teperature	R&D system
Washing	1x PBS + 0.05 % tween20		x 3		
Blocking	3% BSA		1 h	Room teperature	
Add ligand	biotinylated - polySia avDP20 or biotinylated - dextran	different conc.	2 h	Room teperature	
Washing	1x PBS + 0.05 % tween20		x 3		
First reaction	HRP	1:5000	1 h	Room teperature	Pharmingen
Washing	1x PBS + 0.05 % tween20		x 3		
Second reaction	TMB	100 μl	15 min	Room teperature	Sigma-Aldrich
Stop reaction	HCL	1N			
Read the plate with ELISA plate reader (PerkinElmer) at 450 nm					

Read the plate with ELISA plate reader (PerkinElmer) at 450 nm

# 2.5.3 Fluorescence-Activated Cell Sorting (FACS)

The same number of iPSdM and THP-1 macrophages were collected to study surface expression of SIGLEC-11. Afterwards, samples were prepared as stated in table 2-20. SIGLEC-11 expression was measured by a BD FACSCalibur and data was analyzed by the FlowJo 8.7 Software.

Table 2-20 FACS Protocol			
Step	Components	Time	Temperature
Washing	1x PBS		
First antibody	in PBS	1 h	4°C
isotype control			
PBS control			
Washing	1x PBS	x2	
Secendary antibody	PE-conjugated Ab	30 min	4°C
Washing	1x PBS	x2	

## 2.5.4 MTT Assay

Cell viability was determined by the MTT (3-(4,5-Dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5diphenyltetrazolium bromide) assay. IPSdM cells were treated for 20 hours with different concentrations of distinct sialic acid chain lengths. Afterwards, yellow MTT was added to the cells and incubated for more 4 hours. At the end of this time, the purple MTT formazan was produced by living cells. The reaction was stopped by addition of isopropanol with HCI (0.04 N). Isopropanol dissolves formazan to give a homogeneous blue solution suitable for absorbance measurement, which was determined by a spectrophotometer at a wavelength of 570 nm.

# 2.6 Other Materials

# 2.6.1 Technical Equipment

Equipment	Article	Company	
Autoclave	Systec D150	Systec GmbH	
Automatic Pipettes	1, 10, 100, 1000 μl	Thermo Scientific	
Centrifuge	Megafuge 1.0R	Heraeus Holding GmbH	
Centrifuge	MCF 2360	LMS	
Electrophoresis	Power Supply EPS 301	Amersham Bioscience	
Electrophoresis	40-0911	Paqlab Biotechnologies	
Flow Cytometer	BD FACSCaliber	BD Bioscience	
Freezer (-20°C)	Premium	Liebherr	
Freezer (-20°C)	Profiline GG5260	Liebherr	
Freezer (-80°C)	Herafreeze	Heraeus Holding GmbH	
Fridge (4°C)	Medline LKUv 1612	Liebherr	
Gel Imaging System	ChemiDoc	Bio-Rad	
Incubator	Hera Cell 150	Heraeus Holding GmbH	
Laminar flow hood	Hera Safe	Kendo Laboratory producs GmbH	
Microscope	Confocal Olympus IX81	Olympus	
Microscope	Axioskop HBO 50	Carl Zeiss AG	
Microscope	Apotom	Carl Zeiss AG	
Microwave Oven	Severin 800	SEVERIN Elektrogeräte	
N2 Tank	MVE 611	German-cryo	
Peristaltic Pump	Pump drive PD 5001	Heidolph	
PH-meter	CG840	Schott	
Pipetteboy	Cell Mate II	Thermo Fische Scientific Inc.	
Scale	Acculab	Sartorius	
Shaker	KS-15 control	Edmund Buhler GmbH	
Spectrophotometer	Envision Multiplate Reader	Perkin Elmer	
Spectrophotometer	NanoDrop 1000	Thermo Scientific	
Thermocycler	Т3	Biometra	
Thermoshaker	Thermomixer compact	Eppendorf AG	
Ultracentrifuge	Sorvall Discovery 90 SE	HITACHI	
Ultracentrifuge	Sorvall RC 6+	Thermo Scientific	
Ultracentrifuge	Sorvall 5B Plus	Thermo Scientific	
Vaccum controller	VaccuHandControl	Vaccumbrand	
Vaccum pump	Vaccu-lan network for lab	Vaccumbrand	
Vortex	2X <sup>2</sup>	Velp Scientifica	
Waterbath	WB/OB7-45	Memmert GmbH & CoKG	

# 2.6.2 Consumables

Product	Specification	Company
Cell Culture Pipette	5, 10, 25 ml	Sarstedt
Cell Scraper	17 mm	Sarstedt
Chamber Slides	Lab-Tek 4-chambers	Nalge Nunc
Culture dish	35, 100, 150 mm	Sarstedt
Culture dish	6-well plate	Greiner Bio One
Culture flasks	25, 75 cm²	Sarstedt
Erlenmeyer flask	250 ml	Schott-Duran
Filter	0.22 μm	Sarstedt
Filter	0.45 μm	Corning Inc.
Glass bottle	100, 500, 1000 ml	Schott-Duran
Gloves	Micro-touch	Ansell
IHC Glass cover slips	24 x 60 mm	Engelbrecht
Lables	Tough-Spots 3/8"	DiversifiedBiotech
Neubauer counting-chamber	0.100 mm	Paul Marienfeld GmbH
Parafilm	Μ	Sigma-Aldrich
Pasteur pipettes	glass	Brand
Pasteur pipettes	plastic	Ratiolab
Pipette tips	10, 100, 1000 μl	Starlab GmbH
QPCR Optical Adhesive Film	QPCR seal	Paqlab Biotechnologies
QPCR plates	Semi-Skirted 96 wells	Paqlab Biotechnologies
Scalpel	Feather disposable scalpel	Thermo Fisher Scientific
Syringe	1, 50 ml	BD Bioscience
Tubes	0.2 ml; 8-strip	Biozym Scientific GmbH
Tubes	0.5, 1.5, 2 ml	Biozym Scientific GmbH
Tubes	1.8 ml cryotubes	Nalge Nunc
Tubes	5ml (flow cytometry)	Sarstedt
Tubes	15, 50 ml	Sarstedt

# 2.6.3 Chemicals and Reagents

Product	Company	
4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI)	Sigma-Aldrich	
Accutase	PAA	
Agarose	Biozym Scientific GmbH	
biotinylated Amyloid-β 1-42	Bachem	
Amyloid-β 1-42	Bruker	
Bovine Serum Albumin (BSA)	Sigma-Aldrich	
Deoxynucleotide triphosphates (dNTP) 10 mM	Paqlab Biotechnologies	
Dihydroethidium (DHE)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	
Dil Derivatives for Long-Term Cellular Labelling (Dil)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	
Dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO)	Roche	
Ditiothreiton DTT 10 mM	Invitrogen	
DNA ladder 100 bp	Roche	
Ethanol 99%	Carl Roth GmbH	
Ethidium bromide	Carl Roth GmbH	
Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA)	Carl Roth GmbH	
Glycerol 99%	Sigma-Aldrich	
Hexanucleotide mix 10x	Roche	
lso-propanol 99%	Sigma-Aldrich	
Lipopolysaccharide (LPS)	InvivoGen	
Media Advanced DMEM	Gibco	
Media DMEWF-12, HEPES	Gibco	
Media DMEM high glucose	Gibco	
Media Opti-MEM	Gibco	
Media Neurobasal®	Gibco	
Media RPMI	Gibco	
Mounting reagent Mowiol 4-88	Sigma-Aldrich	
Normal goat serum	Sigma-Aldrich	
Paraformaldehyde (PFA)	Merk & Co., Inc.	
Phosphate Buffer Saline (PBS)	Gibco	
Phorbol-12-Myristate-13-Acetate (PMA)	Sigma-Aldrich	
Poly-L-lysine (PLL)	Sigma-Aldrich	
Poly-L-ornithine (PLO)	Sigma-Aldrich	
QIAzol®	Qiagen	
Superoxide dismutase from bovine erythrocytes (SOD1)	Serva	
Tris	Carl Roth GmbH	
Triton X-100	Sigma-Aldrich	
6-hydroxy-2,5,7,8-tetramethylchroman-2-carboxylic acid (Trolox)	Cayman	
Trypan blue 0.4%	Gibco	
Trypsin 0.25%	Gibco Sigma-Aldrich	
Tween	•	
β-mercaptoethanol 99%	Carl Roth GmbH	

## 2.6.4 Kits

Product	Company
Colorimetric (MTT) kit for cell survival an proliferation	Millipore
KAPA™ Mouse Genotyping Hot Start Kit	Peqlab
REDExtract-N-Amp™ Tissue PCR Kit	Sigma-Aldrich
RNeasy Mini Kit	Qiagen

# 2.7 Statistical Analysis

Data are presented as mean +/- SEM (standard error of mean) of at least three independent experiments. Data were analyzed by SPSS 20 software followed by either t-test for two samples or One-Way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post hoc tests. Results are considerd significant if \*,P<0.05; \*\*,P<0.01; \*\*\*,P<0.001.

#### 3.1 SIGLEC-11 Receptor and PolySia avDP20 as It's Ligand

#### 3.1.1 SIGLEC-11 Expression on iPSdM Cells and THP1 Macrophages

SIGLEC-11 is expressed on human brain microglial cells [56]. Accordingly, to test the suitability of cell-lines, *SIGLEC-11* gene expression was analyzed in iPSdM cells and THP-1 monocytes/macrophages via RT-PCR as mentioned in section 2.3.1. The human monocytic cell line THP-1, derived from an acute monocytic leukaemia patient, was differentiated by PMA to macrophages as a model system for human tissue macrophages (more details in section 2.1.4). IPSdM cell line is an induced pluripotent stem cell derived microglial like cells, which used as a model system for human microglial cells (more details in section 2.1.3). The RT-PCR outcome showed clear expression of *SIGLEC-11* in all cells lines (Fig 3-1 A). Further comparison of mRNA levels between THP-1 monocytes and macrophages was performed by qRT-PCR as stated in section 2.3.2. Data showed that *SIGLEC-11* mRNA expression increased from 1 +/- 0.36 fold change in monocytes to 4.8 +/- 0.99 fold change in macrophages (p=0.026; Fig 3-1 B).

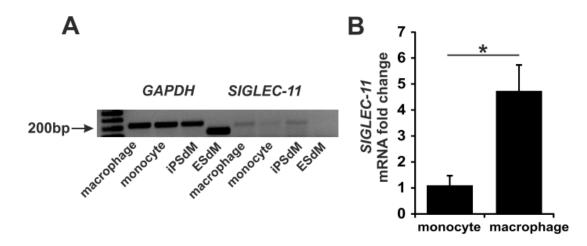
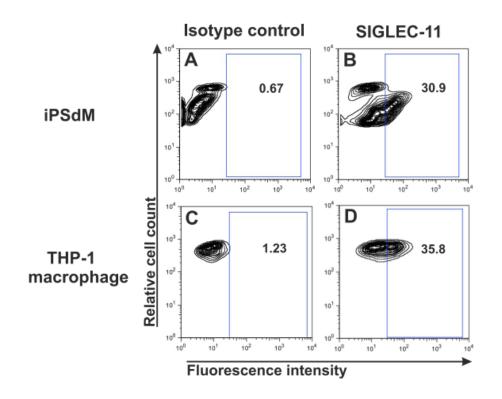


Figure 3-1: SIGLEC-11 gene expression. SIGLEC-11 gene expression in iPSdM cells, THP1 monocytes and macrophages. Representative images out of at least three independent

experiments; GAPDH is the internal control and mouse embryonic stem cell derived microglial cells (ESdM) cDNA is the negative control (**A**). *SIGLEC-11* gene expression comparison in THP-1 monocytes and THP-1 macrophages (**B**). Data are presented as mean +/- SEM of at least three independent experiments and were analyzed using t-test for independent samples. \*, p<0.05.

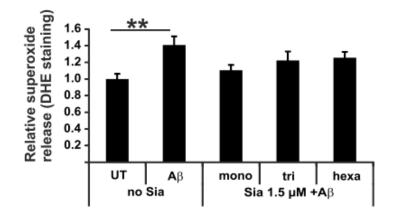
Afterward, SIGLEC-11 protein expression in iPSdM cells and THP-1 macrophages was evaluated as mentioned in section 2.5.3. Results showed that in a normal culture situation, around 30% of iPSdM cells and 35% of THP-1 macrophages express SIGLEC-11 (Fig 3-2).



**Figure 3-2: SIGLEC-11 protein expression.** Expression of SIGLEC-11 protein on the cell surface of iPSdM cells with isotype control (A) and a SIGLEC-11 specific monoclonal antibody (B). Expression of SIGLEC-11 protein on the cell surface of THP-1 macrophages with isotype control (C) and a SIGLEC-11 specific monoclonal antibody (D). Representative images out of at least three independent experiments.

#### 3.1.2 OligoSias Do Not Prevent Superoxide Production

One feature of microglial cells is their ability to produce ROS upon A $\beta$  stimulation, which is directly toxic for neurons [73][74]. To investigate ROS production upon fibrillar A $\beta_{1-42}$  stimulation, iPSdMs were pre-incubated for 1 hour with monoSia and oligoSias (triSia and hexaSia) and were then stimulated for 15 minutes with fibrillar A $\beta_{1-42}$ . The ROS production was measured by DHE staining (described in section 2.2.2). A $\beta_{1-42}$  stimulation significantly increased ROS production (1.4 +/- 0.1 fold) compared to the control group (1 +/- 0.06; p=0.004; Fig 3-3). Pre-incubation with monoSia and oligoSias (triSia and hexaSia) could not prevent the A $\beta_{1-42}$  effect (mono: 1.10 +/- 0.06 fold, tri: 1.22 +/- 0.1 fold, hexa: 1.25 +/- 0.07 fold; Fig 3-3).



**Figure 3-3: OligoSias cannot prevent superoxide production**. A $\beta_{1-42}$  treatment leads to significant superoxide production while monoSia, triSia, and hexaSia pre-incubation did not prevent this effect. Data are presented as mean +/- SEM of at least three independent experiments and were analyzed using one-way ANOVA (Bonferroni). \*\*, p<0.01.

#### 3.1.3 PolySia avDP20 and PolySia avDP 60 Prevent Superoxide Production

To examine if longer sizes of polySias were able to hamper the fibrillar  $A\beta_{1-42}$  effect or not, the synthesized polySias that had been produced in our laboratory, by Dr. Jens Kopats, were used. These polySias were homopolymers of  $\alpha$  2 $\rightarrow$ 8 linked Sias with average degree of polymerizations of 20, 60, and 180 (polySia avDP20, avDP60, and

avDP180). Pre-incubation with both polySia avDP20 and polySia avDP60 were able to reduce the superoxide production (Fig 3-4). To determine the optimal concentrations, different concentrations of polySia avDP20, avDP60, and avDP180 (0.15  $\mu$ M, 0.5  $\mu$ M, 1.5  $\mu$ M) were used. As demonstrated in Fig 3-4, polySia avDP20 incubation prevented fibrillar A $\beta_{1-42}$  induced superoxide production at the concentrations of 0.5  $\mu$ M and 1.5  $\mu$ M (1.08 +/- 0.07 fold; p=0.038 and 0.98 +/- 0.04 fold; p<0.001, respectively) and polySia avDP60 at the concentration of 0.5  $\mu$ M (0.96 +/- 0.05 fold; p<0.001) in comparison to fibrillar A $\beta_{1-42}$  (1.4 +/- 0.1; Fig 3-4). Despite the strong effects of polySia avDP20 and avDP60, different concentrations of high molecular weight polySia (polySia avDP180) pre-incubation did not reduce the superoxide production (Fig 3-4).

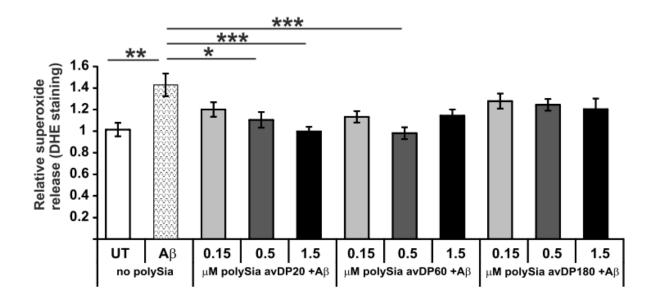


Figure 3-4: PolySias avDP20 and avDP60 are able to significantly reduce superoxide production. DHE intensity measurements showed that 0.5  $\mu$ M and 1.5  $\mu$ M of polySia avDP20 and 0.5  $\mu$ M of polySia avDP60 pre-incubation significantly prevented fibrillar A $\beta_{1-42}$  induced superoxide production. PolySia avDP180 pre-incubation did not reduce the superoxide production induced by fibrillar A $\beta_{1-42}$ . Data are presented as mean +/- SEM of at least three independent experiments and were analyzed using one-way ANOVA (Bonferroni). \*, p<0.05; \*\*, p<0.01; \*\*\*, p<0.001.

DHE results showed that both polySia avDP20 and avDP60 prevent superoxide production upon fibrillar A $\beta_{1-42}$  stimulation. To receive information about changes in metabolic activity of the cells, iPSdM were incubated with different concentrations of polySia avDP20, avDP60, and avDP180 (0.15  $\mu$ M, 0.5  $\mu$ M, 1.5  $\mu$ M) for 24 hours and an MTT assay was performed as mentioned in section 2.5.4. PolySia avDP60 and avDP180 at 1.5  $\mu$ M reduced the metabolic activity of iPSdM cells from 1 +/- 0.04 to 0.66 +/- 0.04 fold (p=0.037), and 0.71 +/- 0.02 fold (p=0.008), respectively (Fig 3-5). The concentration of 1.5  $\mu$ M polySia avDP20 was chosen for further experiments. Modified from [75].

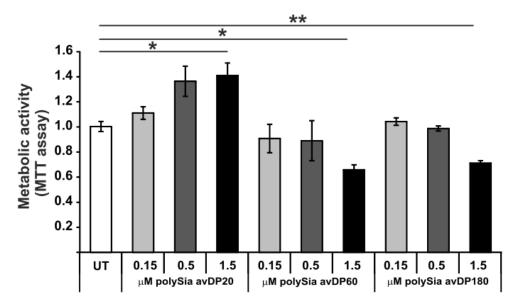
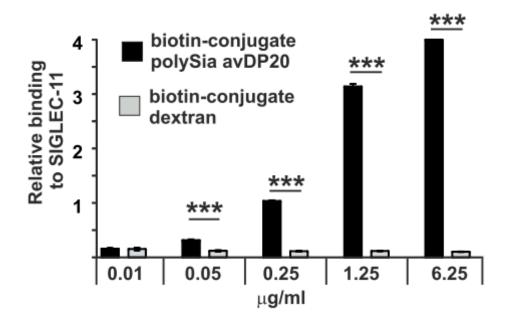


Figure 3-5: PolySias avDP60 and avDP180 are able to significantly reduce iPSdM cells metabolic activity. Metabolic activity measurements of iPSdM cells showed that 1.5  $\mu$ M of polySia avDP60 and avDP180 reduced the metabolic activity of iPSdM cells. Data are presented as mean +/- SEM of at least three independent experiments and were analyzed using one-way ANOVA (Bonferroni). \*, p<0.05; \*\*, p<0.01.

#### 3.1.4 PolySia avDP20 Directly Binds to SIGLEC-11 Receptor

To investigate direct binding of the SIGLEC-11 receptor to polySia avDP20, a rhSIGLEC-11/Fc plate was used. Different concentrations of biotinylated polySia

avDP20 (molecular weight between 4 and 8 kDa), which was produced according to the table 2-18, were added to the plate. Biotinylated dextran as a linear polysaccharide with a similar molecular weight (~ 5 kDa) was used as the control. ELISA was done as mentioned in table 2-19. Results showed that polySia avDP20 bound to the rhSIGLEC-11/Fc fusion protein in a concentration dependent manner, while no binding of dextran was observed. The relative binging to SIGLEC-11 shows the measured values of the OD450 from the ELISA. In detail, 0.01 µg/ml, 0.05 µg/ml, 0.25 µg/ml, 1.25 µg/ml, and 6.25 µg/ml polySia avDP20 displayed binding to rhSIGLEC-11/Fc as 0.31 +/- 0.01 fold, 1.03 +/- 0.01 fold, 3.14 +/- 0.04 fold, and over saturated respectively. In comparison, 0.01 µg/ml, 0.05 µg/ml, 0.25 µg/ml, 1.25 µg/ml, and 6.25 µg/ml biotinylated dextran showed binding to rhSIGLEC-11/Fc as 0.12 +/- 0.006 fold, 0.11 +/- 0.005 fold, and 0.10 +/- 0.005 fold respectively (Fig 3-6).



**Figure 3-6: Direct binding of biotinylated polySia avDP20 to SIGLEC-11.** ELISA measurements show the direct interaction between polySia avDP20 and SIGLEC-11/Fc fusion protein, while the binding of biotinylated dextran was negligible. Data are presented as mean +/- SEM of at least three independent experiments and were analyzed using one-way ANOVA (Bonferroni). \*\*\*, p<0.001.

## 3.2 PolySia avDP20 Modulates Macrophage Function via SIGLEC-11 Receptor

Macrophages and microglial cells have different functions in the brain, but they have two main tasks which can be harmful if misregulated. One of these tasks is phagocytosis and engulfment of apoptotic material, debris or A $\beta$  peptides. The other task is release of superoxide which can be directly toxic for neurons (Block et al. 2007; Bordt & Polster 2014).

#### 3.2.1 PolySia avDP20 Reduces Fibrillary A $\beta_{1-42}$ and Debris Uptake in Macrophages

Formation of Aβ plaques is one of the hallmarks of AD. It was shown that ITAM-bearing receptors might be included in the removal of Aβ [77][66]. SIGLEC-11 is an ITIM-bearing receptor, which upon activation can counter regulate activation of ITAM receptors [58]. Here, we attempted to determine if polySia avDP20 is able to influence the function of iPSdM and macrophages through SIGLEC-11.

IPSdM cell and THP-1 macrophage preparation and experimental procedures were done as mentioned in section 2.2.1. Ingestion of fibrillary  $A\beta_{1-42}$  into the iPSdMs and macrophages was observed by confocal microscopy and 3D-reconstruction (Fig 3-7 A and B). IPSdM cells were incubated with three different concentrations of polySia avDP20 (0.15  $\mu$ M, 0.5  $\mu$ M, and 1.5  $\mu$ M). Among them, 0.5  $\mu$ M (p=0.039) and 1.5  $\mu$ M (p=0.015) of polySia avDP20 were able to significantly reduce fibrillary  $A\beta_{1-42}$  phagocytosis (Fig 3-7 C). In detail, pre-incubation with 0.15  $\mu$ M, 0.5  $\mu$ M, and 1.5  $\mu$ M polySia avDP20 reduced relative uptake of  $A\beta_{1-42}$  from 1 ± 0.12 to 0.76 ± 0.06 fold, 0.74 ± 0.06 fold, and 0.71 ± 0.06 fold, respectively (Fig 3-7 C). Similarly, THP-1 macrophages were also incubated with three different concentrations of polySia avDP20 (0.15  $\mu$ M, 0.5  $\mu$ M, and 1.5  $\mu$ M). Only 1.5  $\mu$ M (p=0.003) polySia avDP20 was able to significantly reduce the relative fibrillary  $A\beta_{1-42}$  phagocytosis. In detail, pre-incubation with 0.15  $\mu$ M, 0.5  $\mu$ M, 0.5  $\mu$ M, and 1.5  $\mu$ M). Only 1.5  $\mu$ M (p=0.003) polySia avDP20 was able to significantly reduce the relative fibrillary  $A\beta_{1-42}$  phagocytosis. In detail, pre-incubation with 0.15  $\mu$ M, 0.5  $\mu$ M and 1.5  $\mu$ M polySia avDP20 reduced uptake of  $A\beta_{1-42}$  from 1 ± 0.08 to 0.94 ± 0.07 fold, 0.82 ± 0.02 fold, and 0.61 ± 0.06 fold, respectively (Fig 3-7 D).

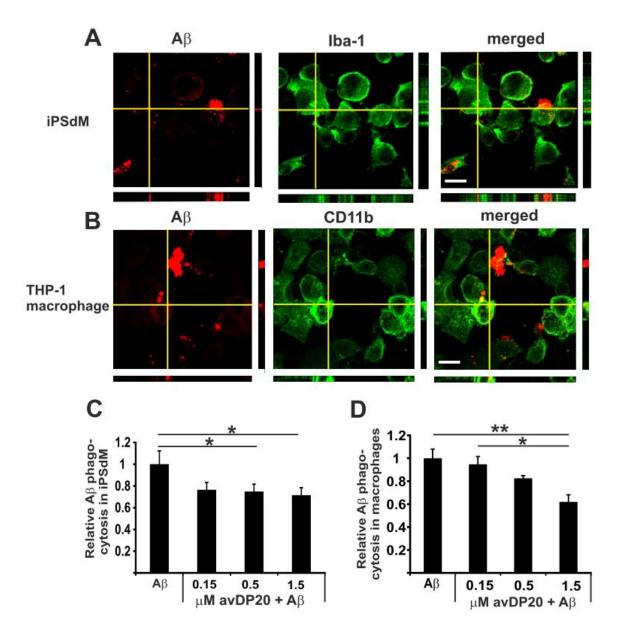


Figure 3-7: PolySia avDP20 reduced phagocytosis of fibrillary  $A\beta_{1-42}$  in iPSdM and THP-1 macrophages. Representative Z-stack confocal images and 3D reconstruction of A $\beta$  (red) and iPSdM labeled Iba1 (green, **A**) or macrophages labeled CD11b (green, **B**) immunostaining shows A $\beta$  internalization. Scale bar: 20 µm. In iPSdM cells, 0.5 µM and 1.5 µM polySia avDP20 pre-incubation reduced A $\beta$  uptake (**C**). In THP-1 macrophages, 1.5 µM polySia avDP20 decreased A $\beta$  uptake by these cells (**D**). Data are presented as mean +/- SEM of at least three independent experiments and were analyzed using one-way ANOVA (Bonferroni). \*, p<0.05; \*\*, p<0.01.

Overexpression of siglec-e, which is an ITIM-bearing receptor in mouse, reduced neural debris engulfment into a microglial cell-line [68]. To explore the role of polySia avDP20 in debris uptake via SIGLEC-11 receptor, iPSdM cells and THP-1 macrophages were prepared as mentioned in section 2.2.1. Uptake of neural debris into the iPSdM cells and macrophages was observed by confocal microscopy and 3D-reconstruction (Fig 3-8 A and B). IPSdM cells were treated with three different concentrations of polySia avDP20. Only 1.5  $\mu$ M (p=0.004) polySia avDP20 was able to significantly reduce phagocytosis of debris (Fig 3-8 C). In detail, pre-incubation with 0.15  $\mu$ M, 0.5  $\mu$ M, and 1.5  $\mu$ M polySia avDP20 reduced relative uptake of debris from 1  $\pm$  0.07 in untreated group to 1.04  $\pm$  0.06 fold, 0.78  $\pm$  0.06 fold, and 0.68  $\pm$  0.05 fold, respectively. THP-1 macrophage responses to polySia avDP20 treatments were similar. Again, only 1.5  $\mu$ M (p=0.007) polySia avDP20 was able to significantly reduce labeled debris phagocytosis (Fig 3-8 D). In detail, pre-incubation with 0.15  $\mu$ M polySia avDP20 was able to significantly reduce labeled debris phagocytosis (Fig 3-8 D). In detail, pre-incubation with 0.15  $\mu$ M, 0.5  $\mu$ M polySia avDP20 reduced relative uptake of 3-8 D). In detail, pre-incubation with 0.15  $\mu$ M, 0.5  $\mu$ M polySia avDP20 was able to significantly reduce labeled debris phagocytosis (Fig 3-8 D). In detail, pre-incubation with 0.15  $\mu$ M, 0.5  $\mu$ M polySia avDP20 reduced relative uptake of debris from 1  $\pm$  0.06 to 0.95  $\pm$  0.03 fold, 0.84  $\pm$  0.03 fold, and 0.7  $\pm$  0.07 fold, respectively (Fig 3-8 D).

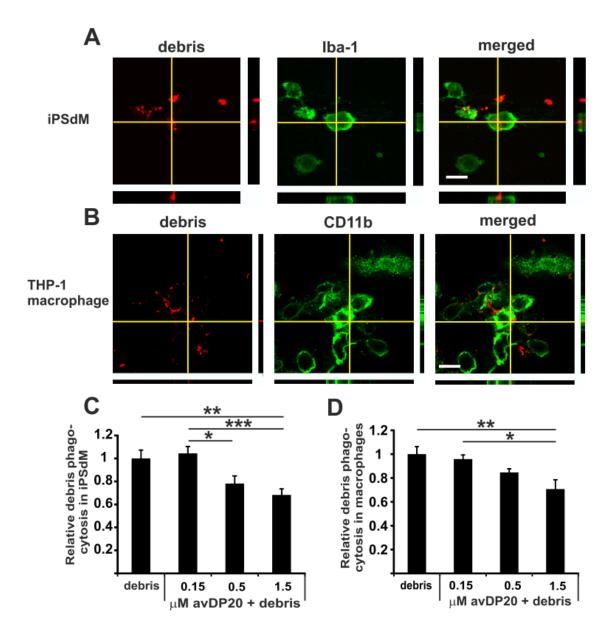


Figure 3-8: PolySia avDP20 reduced phagocytosis of labeled debris in iPSdM and macrophages. Representative Z-stack confocal images and 3D reconstruction of debris (red) and iPSdM labeled Iba1 (green, **A**) or macrophages labeled CD11b (green, **B**) immunostaining shows debris internalization. Scale bar: 20 µm. In iPSdM cells, 1.5 µM polySia avDP20 preincubation reduced debris uptake (**C**). In THP-1 macrophages, 1.5 µM polySia avDP20 decreased debris ingestion by these cells (**D**). Data are presented as mean +/- SEM of at least three independent experiments and were analyzed using one-way ANOVA (Bonferroni). \*, p<0.05; \*\*, p<0.01; \*\*\*, p<0.001.

# 3.2.2 PolySia avDP20 Reduces Superoxide Production Triggered by Fibrillary A $\beta_{1-}$ <sub>42</sub> and Debris Uptake in iPSdM and Macrophages

A $\beta$  attachment to the cell surface of microglia results in activation of the tyrosine kinase Syk, which starts the assembly of a multi-subunit enzyme NADPH oxidase [78]. These microglial cells then release superoxides via the NADPH oxidase [79]. Accordingly, in this study the superoxide release from iPSdM cells or THP-1 macrophages after fibrillary A $\beta_{1-42}$  stimulation was measured. In addition, the effect of polySia avDP20 was investigated.

IPSdM cells and THP-1 macrophages were prepared for experiments as mentioned in section 2.2.2. Signal intensity quantification of DHE-labeled superoxide measurements showed that in iPSdM cells, fibrillary A $\beta_{1-42}$  significantly increased the superoxide production compared to untreated cells (p=0.001; Fig 3-9 A). However, pre-incubation with 0.5  $\mu$ M (p=0.02) and 1.5  $\mu$ M (p=0.001) polySia avDP20 significantly prevented superoxide production (Fig 3-9 A). In detail, A $\beta$  incubation increased the release of superoxides from 1 ± 0.06 in untreated cells to 1.4 ± 0.1 fold in A $\beta$  treated cells. Pre-incubation with 0.15  $\mu$ M, 0.5  $\mu$ M, and 1.5  $\mu$ M PolySia avDP20 reduced the A $\beta$ -caused superoxide release from 1.4 ± 0.1 to 1.18 ± 0.06 fold, 1.08 ± 0.07 fold, and 0.98 ± 0.04 fold, respectively (Fig 3-9 A).

Likewise, in THP-1 macrophages fibrillary A $\beta_{1-42}$  significantly increased the superoxide production compared to untreated cells (p=0.004; Fig 3-9 B). Pre-incubation with 0.5  $\mu$ M (p=0.048) and 1.5  $\mu$ M (p=0.031) polySia avDP20 significantly prevented the superoxide production (Fig 3-9 B). In detail, A $\beta$  incubation increased the superoxide release from 1  $\pm$  0.05 in untreated cells to 1.43  $\pm$  0.1 fold in A $\beta$  treated cells. In detail, 0.15  $\mu$ M, 0.5  $\mu$ M, and 1.5  $\mu$ M polySia avDP20 treatment reduced the A $\beta$  induced superoxide release from 1.43  $\pm$  0.1 to 1.17  $\pm$  0.04 fold, 1.10  $\pm$  0.07 fold, and 1.08  $\pm$  0.03 fold, respectively (Fig 3-9 B).

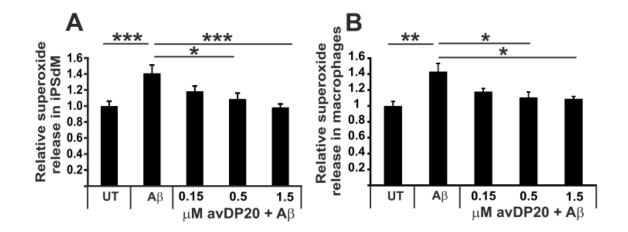
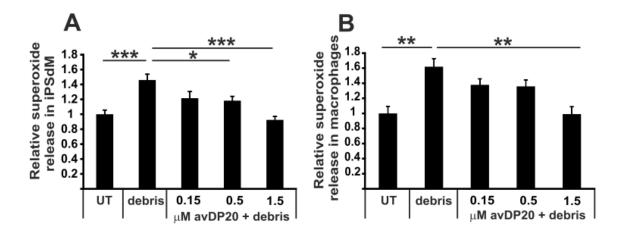


Figure 3-9: PolySia avDP20 prevented the superoxide release induced by fibrillary A $\beta_{1-42}$  in iPSdM and macrophages. Measurments superoxide release by DHE staining showed that A $\beta_{1-42}$  incubation significantly increased superoxide release in iPSdM (A) and macrophages (B). PolySia avDP20 pre-incubation prevented this increase both in iPSdM cells (A) and macrophages (B). Data are presented as mean +/- SEM of at least three independent experiments and were analyzed using one-way ANOVA (Bonferroni). \*,p<0.05; \*\*, p<0.01; \*\*\*,p<0.001.

Cellular debris can be recognized by ITAM-bearing receptors which leads then to superoxide release [80]. In an *in vitro* model, it has been shown that knockdown of siglec-e increased the superoxide release upon neural debris stimulation [68]. To test the stimulatory effect of cellular debris in the human *in vitro* system, superoxide release from iPSdM cells or THP-1 macrophages was measured after debris treatment. In addition, the effect of polySia avDP20 was investigated.

IPSdM cells and THP-1 macrophages were prepared and experiments were done as mentioned in sectione 2.2.2. Signal intensity quantification of DHE-labeled superoxide measurements showed a significant increase in relative superoxide production in iPSdM cells after debris incubation compared to untreated cells (p<0.001; Fig 3-10 A). Preincubation with 0.5  $\mu$ M (p=0.047) and 1.5  $\mu$ M (p<0.001) polySia avDP20 significantly prevented the relative superoxide production (Fig 3-10 A). In detail, debris incubation increased the superoxide release from 1 ± 0.05 in untreated cells to 1.45 ± 0.07 fold in debris treated cells. PolySia avDP20 pre-incubation with 0.15  $\mu$ M, 0.5  $\mu$ M, and 1.5  $\mu$ M reduced debris mediated superoxide release from 1.4 ± 0.07 to 1.21 ± 0.08 fold, 1.18 ± 0.05 fold and 0.92 ± 0.04 fold, respectively (Fig 3-10 A).

In THP-1 macrophages, debris treatment significantly increased the superoxide production compared to untreated cells as well (p=0.01; Fig 3-10 B). Pre-incubation with 1.5  $\mu$ M polySia avDP20 significantly prevented the superoxide production (p=0.01; Fig 3-10 B). In detail, debris incubation increased relative superoxide release from 1 ± 0.09 in untreated cells to 1.61 ± 0.1 fold in debris treated cells. 0.15  $\mu$ M, 0.5  $\mu$ M, and 1.5  $\mu$ M polySia avDP20 reduced debris stimulated superoxide release from 1.61 ± 0.1 to 1.37 ± 0.08 fold, 1.35 ± 0.08 fold, and 0.099 ± 0.1 fold, respectively (Fig 3-10 B).



**Figure 3-10:** PolySia avDP20 prevented the superoxide release in debris stimulated iPSdM and macrophages. Measurments superoxide release by DHE staining showed that neural debris incubation significantly increased superoxide release in iPSdM (A) and macrophages (B). PolySia avDP20 pre-incubation hampered this raise in both iPSdM cells (A) and macrophages (B). Data are presented as mean +/- SEM of at least three independent experiments and were analyzed using one-way ANOVA (Bonferroni). \*,p<0.05; \*\*, p<0.01; \*\*\*,p<0.001.

# 3.2.3 PolySia avDP20 Acts as Effectively as an Antioxidant

A biological antioxidant is a substance that, at low concentration, prevents the oxidation of the substrate [81]. Already polySia avDP20 pre-incubation at 1.5  $\mu$ M prevented superoxide release upon fibrillary A $\beta_{1-42}$  and debris stimulation. Trolox and SOD1, which are well-known antioxidants, were chosen to compare the scavenging effect of antioxidants with polySia avDP20 to reduce oxidative stress.

IPSdM cells and THP-1 macrophages were prepared and pre-incubated with 1.5  $\mu$ M polySia avDP20, 60 U/ml SOD1 or 40  $\mu$ M Trolox. Then, fibrillar A $\beta_{1-42}$  or debris were added and the experiments were done as mentioned in section 2.2.2. Signal intensity quantification of DHE-labeled superoxide measurements showed in iPSdM cells the elevation in superoxide production upon fibrillary A $\beta_{1-42}$  incubation (1.29 ± 0.05 fold) were reduced by both SOD1 (1.08 ± 0.05 fold; p=0.061;Fig 3-11 A) and Trolox (1.08 ± 0.06 fold; p=0.074; Fig 3-11 A) pre-incubation. Comparably, this reducing effect was similar to polySia avDP20 pre-incubation (0.97 ± 0.05 fold; p<0.001; Fig 3-11 A).

In THP-1 macrophages, the increased superoxide production upon fibrillary A $\beta_{1-42}$  incubation (1.42 ± 0.05 fold) was significantly prevented by both SOD1 (0.92 ± 0.1 fold; p=0.005; Fig 3-11 B) and Trolox (0.91 ± 0.1 fold; p=0.004; Fig 3-11 B) pre-incubation. Equivalently, this hampering effect was identical to polySia avDP20 pre-incubation (0.99 ± 0.02 fold; p=0.02; Fig 3-11 B).

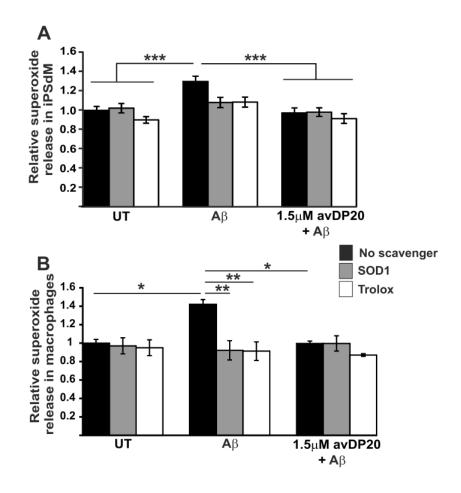
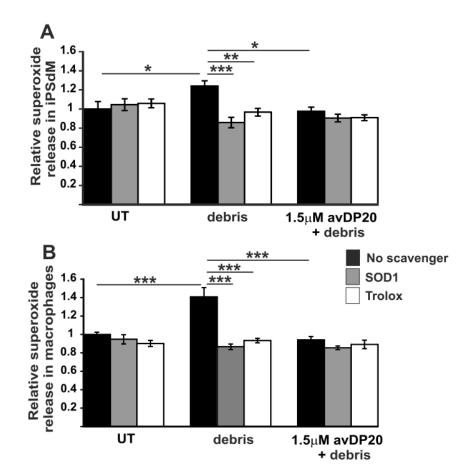


Figure 3-11: PolySia avDP20 inhibitory effect upon  $A\beta_{1-42}$  stimulation is as strong as common antioxidants SOD1 and Trolox. Relative intensity of the superoxide-sensitive fluorescent dye measurments showed that SOD1 and Trolox pre-incubation reduced superoxide release upon fibrillary  $A\beta_{1-42}$  stimulation both in iPSdM cells (A) and THP-1 macrophages (B). The level of reduction was similar to polySia avDP20 pre-incubation. Data are presented as mean +/- SEM of at least three independent experiments and were analyzed using one-way ANOVA (Bonferroni). \*,p<0.05; \*\*, p<0.01; \*\*\*,p<0.001.

To study the effect of neural debris, iPSdM cells and THP-1 macrophages were prepared for experiments as mentioned in section 2.2.2. In iPSdM, the elevation in superoxide production upon debris incubation (1.24  $\pm$  0.05 fold) was significantly prevented by both SOD1 (0.85  $\pm$  0.05 fold; p<0.001; Fig 3-12 A) and Trolox (0.96  $\pm$  0.04 fold; p=0.01; Fig 3-12 A) pre-incubation. The reducing effects of scavengers were as strong as polySia avDP20 pre-incubation (0.97  $\pm$  0.04 fold; p=0.017; Fig 3-12 A).

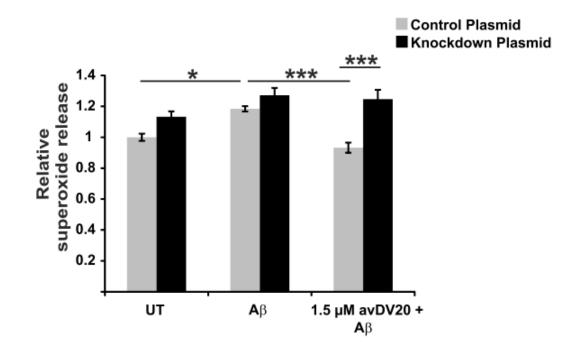
Same experiments in THP-1 macrophages showed that the elevation in superoxide production upon cell debris incubation (1.4  $\pm$  0.1 fold) significantly decreased by either SOD1 (0.86  $\pm$  0.03 fold; p<0.001; Fig 3-12 B) or Trolox (0.93  $\pm$  0.02 fold; p<0.001; Fig 3-12 B) pre-incubation. PolySia avDP20 pre-incubation reduced superoxide release to the same level as scavengers (0.94  $\pm$  0.03 fold; p<0.001; Fig 3-12 B).

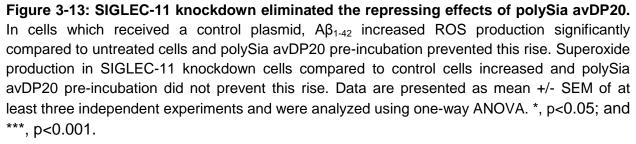


**Figure 3-12:** PolySia avDP20 inhibitory effect upon cell debris stimulation is similar to common antioxidants SOD1 and Trolox. Relative intensity of the superoxide-sensitive fluorescent dye measurements showed that SOD1 and Trolox pre-incubation reduced stimulatory production of superoxide upon cell debris addition both in iPSdM cells (**A**) and THP-1 macrophages (**B**). The level of reduction is similar to polySia avDP20 pre-incubation. Data are presented as mean +/- SEM of at least three independent experiments and were analyzed using one-way ANOVA (Bonferroni). \*, p<0.05; \*\*, p<0.01; \*\*\*, p<0.001.

# 3.2.4 Knockdown of SIGLEC-11 Diminishes PolySia avDP20 Anti-Superoxide Effect

The potential receptor of polySia avDP20 on iPSdM is SIGLEC-11. To confirm that polySia avDP20 has its inhibitory effects through SIGLEC-11 receptor, a knockdown experiment was performed. SIGLEC-11 knockdown cells were prepared as mentioned in section 2.4. Afterwards, DHE experiments were performed as mentioned in section 2.2.2. In iPSdM cells which contained the control plasmid, A $\beta_{1-42}$  stimulation increased superoxide release (1.19 +/- 0.01 fold; p=0.012; Fig 3-13) and polySia avDP20 pre-incubation prevented this stimulation (0.93 +/- 0.03 fold; p<0.000; Fig 3-13). However, SIGLEC-11 knockdown abolished the repressing effects of polySia avDP20 on A $\beta_{1-42}$  induced superoxide production (1.24 +/- 0.06 fold; p<0.000; Fig 3-13).





# 3.3 PolySia avDP20 Modulates iPSdM/Macrophage Function in Co-culture with Neurons

Neher and colleagues showed that microglia actively uptake neurons if  $A\beta$  is present in the culture [39]. To investigate whether polySia avDP20 can hamper this phenomenon, first iPSdM-neuron and macrophage-neuron co-cultures were established. Then, the effect of adding polySia avDP20 to the co-culture systems was explored.

## 3.3.1 Primitive Neural Stem Cells (pNSCs)

To set up the co-culture system, it was necessary to obtain human neuronal cells. In 2011, a relatively short and fast protocol was published, which used small inhibitory molecules to produce a homogenous culture of pNSCs from human embryonic stem cells [70]. In this study, the same protocol with small modifications was used to produce pNSCs from iPS cells as mentioned in section 2.1.1. pNSCs formation was confirmed by immunocytochemistry at passage 1 (Fig 3-14, A and B) and passage 10 (Fig 3-14, C-H). At passage 1, cells formed small colonies and strongly expressed NSC markers Nestin and ALP (Fig 3-14 A). Furthermore, the pluripotent stem cell marker Sox2 and ZO1 were also robustly expressed in these cells (Fig 3-14 B). By reaching a higher passage number (here 10), cells formed epithelial morphology and still expressed the NSC markers Nestin, Sox1, Sox2 and Pax6. Nestin (Fig 3-14 C) is a type VI intermediate filament protein, which is mainly expressed in dividing NSCs and is involved in the radial growth of the axons. Sox1 (Fig 3-14 D), Sox2 (Fig 3-14 E), and Pax6 (Fig 3-14 F) are transcription factors, which are necessary for maintaining selfrenewal and pluripotency of NSC. In addition, these cells were positive for the tight junction protein Zo1 (Fig 3-14, G) and cell proliferation marker Ki67 (Fig 3-14, H). pNSCs in our culture system were able to long-term self-renew over serial passages up to passage 30 on PLO + Fn coated dishes in the presence of hLIF, CHIR99021, and SB431542 inhibitory factors.

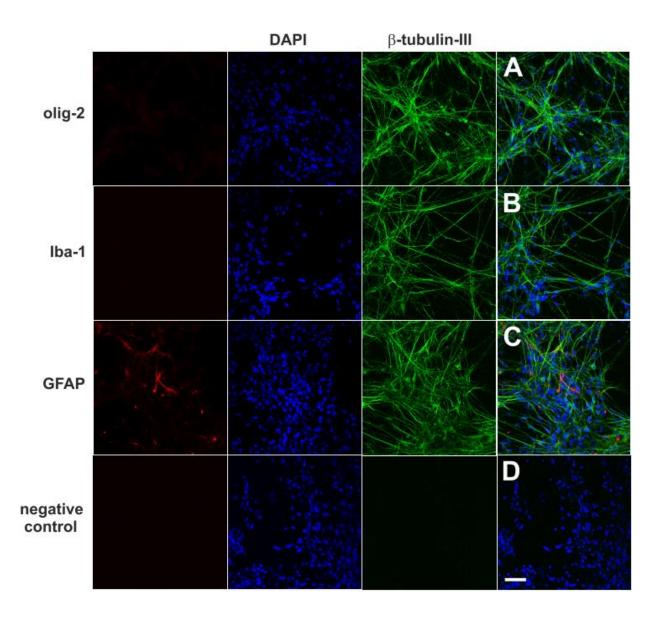
Nestin ALP		ALP	DAPI		A
Sox2		Zo1	DAF		B
Nestin	DAPI	Sox1	DAP	I Sox2	DAPI
C		D		MG E	
Pax6	DAPI	Zo1	DAP	Ki67	DAPI
E State of the sta		G			

**Figure 3-14: Characterization of pNSCs derived from iPS cells.** pNSCs at passage 1 were positive for NSC markers such as nestin and ALP (**A**). Moreover, these cells expressed pluripotency marker Sox2 and rosette-type NSC marker ZO1 (**B**). Immunocytochemistry data showed that when pNSCs reached a higher passage number (here 10), they kept the expression of NSC markers Nestin, Sox1, Sox2 and Pax6 (**C-F**). In addition, they were positive for Zo1 and Ki67 (**G-H**). Scale bar: 50  $\mu$ m.

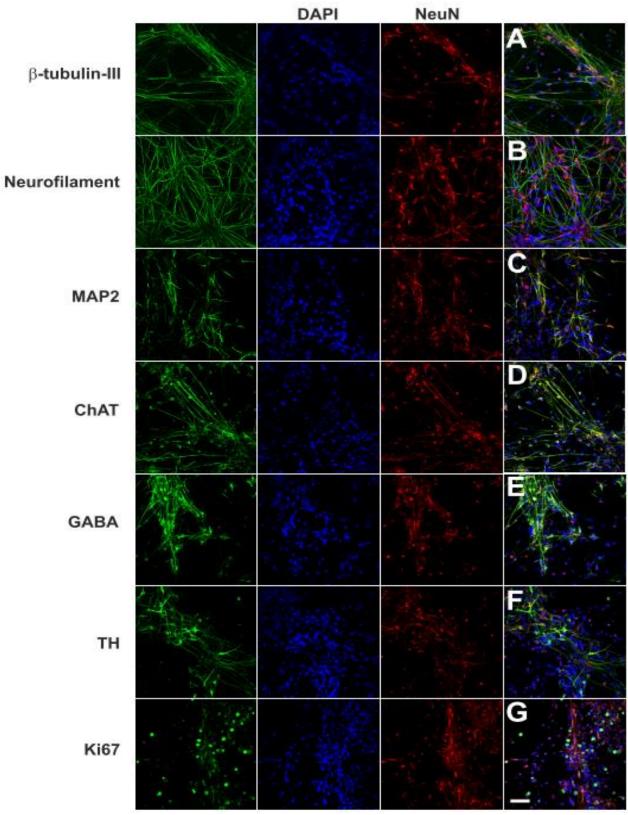
#### 3.3.2 pNSCs Differentiation towards Mature Neurons

To induce neuronal differentiation, pNSCs were cultured on PLO + Ln coated dishes with appropriate growth factors as mentioned in section 2.1.2. For neuronal characterization, immunocytochemistry with neuronal and non-neuronal markers was performed (Fig 3-15 and 3-16). Cultures were stained for glial markers olig2 (for oligodendrocyte; Fig 3-15 A), Iba1 (for microglial cells; Fig 3-15 B) and GFAP (for astrocyte; Fig 3-15 C) to investigate the neuronal culture's purity. Immunocytochemistry data showed that the produced neuronal cultures did not contain any oligodendrocyte and microglial cells; however, they had GFAP positive cells (Fig 3-15).

Neuronal cultures were stained for specific neuronal markers. Immunocytochemistry data showed that the neurons were positive for microtubule element of tubulin family ( $\beta$ -tubulin-III), neurons intermediate filament (Neurofilament), microtubule-associated protein 2 (MAP2) and hexaribonucleotide binding protein-3 (NeuN), which is a neural nucleus marker (Fig 3-16, **A-C**). Developed neuronal cultures contained mostly catecholaminergic neurons (ChAT), GABAergic neurons (GABA) and a small population of tyrosine hydroxylase (TH) positive neurons (Fig 3-16, **D-F**). Staining with Ki67 showed that even after two weeks of differentiation, the neuronal cultures still contained proliferating cells (Fig 3-16 **G**).



**Fig 3-15: Purity of neuronal cell cultures.** The developed neuronal cultures were stained for glial cells markers. The cultures were vacant of oligodendrocyes (olig-2, **A**) and microglial cells (Iba-1, **B**). There were always small populations of astrocytes in the neuronal cultures (GFAP, **C**). Negative controls contain no first antibodies (**D**). Scale bar: 50 µm.

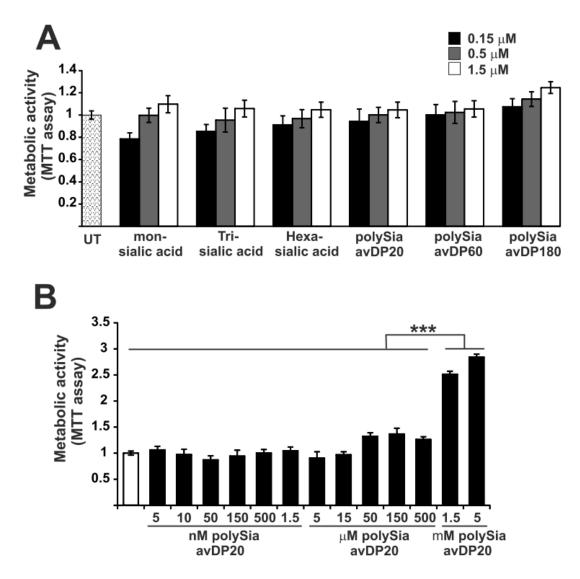


**Figure 3-16: Neuron specific markers expression.** pNSCs differentiated into neurons with high efficiency. Immunocytochemistry data showed that neuronal cells were positive for  $\beta$ -tubulin-III, Neurofilament, MAP2 and NeuN (**A-C**). The cultures contained different types of neurons such as ChAT, GABA, and TH-positive neurons (**D-F**). In addition, differentiated neuronal cultures had populations of proliferating cells (**G**). Scale bar: 50 µm.

#### 3.3.3 PolySia avDP20 Has no Effect on Metabolic Activity of Neurons

To measure the metabolic activity of neurons, pNSC were seeded on PLO + Ln coated 96-well plates. They were differentiated to neurons as mentioned in section 2.1.2. Neuronal cultures were treated for 24 hours with different concentrations (0.15  $\mu$ M, 0.5  $\mu$ M, and 1.5  $\mu$ M) of monoSia, triSia, hexaSia, and polySias (avDP20, avDP60, and avDP180). Afterwards, an MTT assay was performed as mentioned in section 2.5.4. MTT results showed that the metabolic activity of neurons did not change after treatment with different forms of Sias compared to the untreated control (Figure 3-17 A).

Next, metabolic activities of neuronal cultures were checked with a wider concentration range of polySia avDP20 (from 5 nM to 5 mM). Once more, pNSC were seeded on PLO + Ln coated 96-well plates as mentioned in section 2.1.2. After differentiation, neurons were treated for 24 hours with different concentrations of polySia avDP20. Then, an MTT assay was done as mentioned in section 2.5.4. MTT outcome showed that PolySia avDP20 did not reduce the metabolic activity of human neurons up to a concentration of 5 mM. However, increased metabolic activity was observed at concentrations of 1.5 mM and 5 mM compared to the untreated group and all lower concentrations (p<0.001; Fig 3-17 B). In detail, 1.5 mM and 5 mM polySia avDP20 increased the metabolic activity of neurons from 1  $\pm$  0.03 to 2.5  $\pm$  0.05 fold and 2.8  $\pm$  0.05 fold, respectively (Fig 3-17 B).



**Figure 3-17: Metabolic activity of neurons treated by Sias.** Metabolic activity measurements of neuronal cultures treated with different concentrations of monoSia, triSia, hexaSia, and polySias (avDP20, avDP60, and avDP180) after 24 hours showed no effect on cell viability of neurons (A). PolySia avDP20 treatment with different concentrations had no negative effect on neuronal cell viability. Even at 1.5 mM and 5 mM concentrations the cell viability was increased (**B**). Data are presented as mean +/- SEM of at least three independent experiments and were analyzed using one-way ANOVA (Bonferroni). \*\*\*, p<0.001

# 3.3.4 PolySia avDP20 Is Neuroprotective in iPSdM/Macrophage-Neuron Co-culture Systems against Aβ<sub>1-42</sub> Mediated Toxicity

It is known that fibrillar  $A\beta_{1-42}$  increases microglial phagocytosis function [82]. In addition, it induces uptake of living neurons by microglial cells through exposure of "eat me" signals on the neuronal cell surface [83]. To investigate whether polySia avDP20 co-treatment is able to prevent the toxic effect of fibrillar  $A\beta_{1-42}$  co-incubation in co-culture systems, two separate iPSdM-neuron and macrophage-neuron co-culture systems were established.

For iPSdM-neuron co-culture system, pNSCs were seeded in 4-chamber slides and differentiated to mature neurons as mentioned in section 2.1.2. iPSdM-neuron coculture treatments were done as mentioned in section 2.1.6. Co-cultures were double immunostained with antibodies against  $\beta$ -tubulin III (neurons) and Iba1 (iPSdM; Fig 3-18) A). Using neurite length as a neurotoxicity marker revealed that solely adding fibrillar  $A\beta_{1-42}$  to the culture system has no effect on relative neurite length (Fig 3-18 B). Alternatively, addition of the iPSdM in the presence of fibrillar A $\beta_{1-42}$  significantly reduced relative neurite branch length (Fig 3-18 B). In detail, Aβ incubation with neurons slightly reduced branch length from 1 +/- 0.02 to 0.9 +/- 0.03 fold (p=0.104). However, incubation of AB with iPSdM-neuron co-culture further reduced the relative branch length to 0.64 +/- 0.03 fold (p<0.001 vs neurons and neurons plus A $\beta$ ; Fig 3-18 B). This reduction supports the idea of toxic fibrillar Aß effect mediated by microglial cells. Incubation with 1.5 µM PolySia avDP20 protected branches from the toxic effect of fibrillar A $\beta_{1-42}$  activated iPSdM cells (0.82 +/- 0.03 fold; p=0.002; Fig 3-18 A and C). Furthermore, incubation with Trolox protected branches from the toxic effect of fibrillar A $\beta_{1-42}$  activated iPSdM in co-culture system, too (1.02 +/- 0.03 fold; p<0.001; Fig 3-18 C).

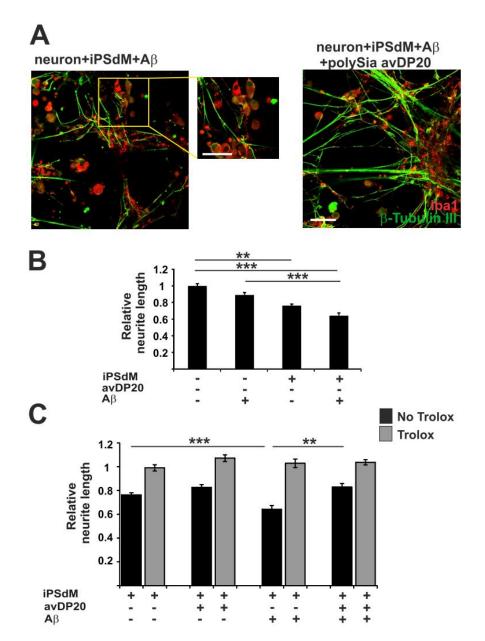


Figure 3-18: Neuroprotective effect of polySia avDP20 in Aβ-activated iPSdM-neuron cocultures. Representive immunocytochemistry images of neuron-iPSdM co-culture in the presence of Aβ with (right picture) or without (left picture) polySia avDP20 (**A**). Relative neurite length was shorter in the presence of Aβ in neuron-iPSdM co-culture (**B**). Relative neurite length was protected against Aβ if polySia avDP20 was present in the culture system. Trolox prevented neurotoxic effect in all different co-culture conditions (**C**). Data are presented as mean +/- SEM of at least three independent experiments and were analyzed using one-way ANOVA. \*\*, p<0.01; and \*\*\*, p<0.001. Scale bar: 50 µm.

# Results

In neuron-macrophage co-culture system, pNSCs were differentiated to mature neurons as mentioned in section 2.1.2. Macrophage-neuron experiments were done as mentioned in section 2.1.6. Analysis of the neurite length showed the same effect as in the iPSdM-neuron co-culture. Co-cultures were double immunostained with antibodies against Neurofilament (neurons) and CD11b (macrophages ;Fig 3-19 A). Addition of fibrillar  $A\beta_{1-42}$  to the macrophage-neuron co-culture system had no effect on relative neurite length (Fig 3-19 B). Although, inclusion of macrophages in the presence of fibrillar  $A\beta_{1-42}$  significantly reduced the relative neurite branch length (Fig 3-19 B). In detail,  $A\beta$  incubation with neurons reduced the branch length from 1 +/- 0.02 to 0.82 +/- 0.14 fold (p=0.233). Incubation of  $A\beta$  with macrophage-neuron co-culture further decreased relative length of branches to 0.57 +/- 0.05 fold (p=0.012; Fig 3-19 B). As expected, polySia avDP20 and Trolox incubation protected neuronal branches from the toxic effects of fibrillar  $A\beta_{1-42}$  activated macrophages in co-culture systems (0.9 +/- 0.05 fold, p=0.020; 0.9 +/- 0.09 fold, p=0.025, respectively; Fig 3-19 A and C).

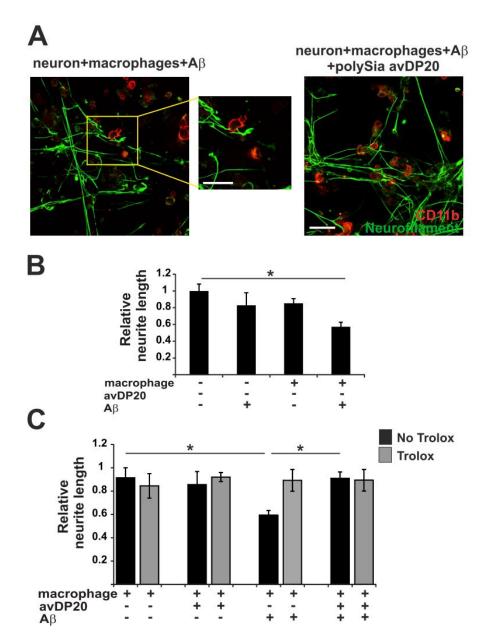
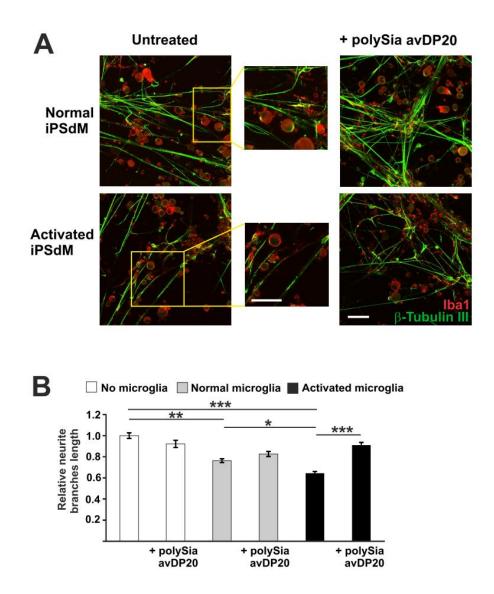


Figure 3-19: Neuroprotective effect of polySia avDP20 in A $\beta$ -activated macrophageneuron co-culture. Representive immunocytochemistry images of neuron-macrophages coculture in the presence of A $\beta$  with (right picture) or without (left picture) polySia avDP20 (A). Relative neurite length was shorter in the presence of A $\beta$  in neuron-macrophage co-culture system (B). Addition of polySia avDP20 protected relative neurite length against reducing effects of A $\beta$  in culture system. Furthermore, Trolox prevented the neurotoxic effect in all different co-culture conditions (C). Data are presented as mean +/- SEM of at least three independent experiments and were analyzed using one-way ANOVA. \*, p<0.05. Scale bar: 50 µm.

# 3.3.5 PolySia avDP20 Is Neuroprotective in iPSdM/Macrophage-Neuron Co-culture Systems against LPS Mediated Toxicity

LPS activates the phagocytosis function of microglia/macrophages indirectly and increases release of ROS, which is directly toxic to neurons [84]. Activation of SIGLEC-11 in transduced murine microglial cells, decreased the gene transcription of LPSstimulated pro-inflammatory mediators [69]. To investigate whether polySia avDP20 cotreatment has any effect on LPS-activated iPSdM/macrophages in co-culture systems, iPSdM-neuron and macrophage-neuron co-culture systems were established.

Neuron-iPSdM co-culture systems were prepared as mentioned in section 2.1.2 and experiments were done as mentioned in section 2.1.6. Co-cultures were double immunostained with antibodies against  $\beta$ -tubulin III (neurons) and Iba1 (iPSdM; Fig 3-20 A). Analysis of neurite lengths revealed that addition of both normal iPSdM and LPS-activated iPSdM to the neural culture system decreased relative neurite length. However, LPS-activated iPSdM cells significantly reduced relative neurite branches length compared to normal iPSdM cells (p=0.04; Fig 3-20 B). In detail, normal iPSdM incubation with neurons reduced branch length from 1 +/- 0.03 to 0.76 +/- 0.01 fold (p=0.003; Fig 3-20 B), and LPS-activated iPSdM incubation further reduced relative branch length to 0.64 +/- 0.02 fold (p<0.001; Fig 3-20 B). To explore the effect of polySia avDP20 in this system, 1.5  $\mu$ M polySia avDP20 was incubated with LPS-activated iPSdM cells. Data show that addition of polySia avDP20 protected neurite branches from the toxic effect of LPS-activated iPSdM cells in co-culture systems (0.91 +/- 0.02 fold; p=0.001; Fig 3-20 A and B).

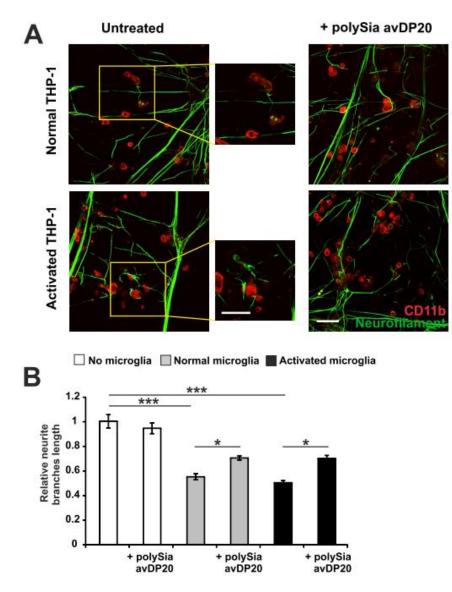


**Figure 3-20: Neuroprotective effect of polySia avDP20 in LPS-activated iPSdM-neuron cocultures.** Representive immunocytochemistry images of neuron-iPSdM co-culture in presence of normal iPSdM (upper picture) or LPS-activated iPSdMs (lower picture) with (right pictures) or without (left pictures) polySia avDP20 (**A**). Relative neurite lengths were shorter in presence of both normal iPSdM and LPS-activated iPSdM cells. However, this reduction was more severe in the presence of LPS-activated iPSdM cells. PolySia avDP20 incubation protected neurons from LPS-activated iPSdM cells (**B**). Data are presented as mean +/- SEM of at least three independent experiments and were analyzed using one-way ANOVA. \*, p<0.05; \*\*, p<0.01; and \*\*\*, p<0.001. Scale bar: 50 µm.

As mentioned before, neuron-macrophage co-culture systems were prepared. Cocultures were double immunostained with antibodies against Neurofilament (neurons)

# **Results**

and CD11b (macrophages; Fig 3-21 A). Analysis of neurite length demonstrated that inclusion of both normal macrophages and LPS-activated macrophages to the neural culture system reduced relative neurite lengths. In detail, THP-1 macrophage incubation with neurons reduced branch length from 1 +/- 0.05 to 0.55 +/- 0.02 fold (p<0.001; Fig 3-21 B), and LPS-activated THP-1 macrophages incubation further reduced relative branch length to 0.05 +/- 0.01 fold (p<0.001; Fig 3-21 B). PolySia avDP20 incubation in this system, protected neurite branches from the toxic effects of LPS-activated macrophages in co-culture systems (0.69 +/- 0.02 fold; p=0.03; Fig 3-21 A and B).



**Figure 3-21: Neuroprotective effect of polySia avDP20 in LPS-activated macrophageneuron co-culture.** Representive immunocytochemistry images of neuron-macrophage coculture in presence of normal macrophages (upper pictures) or LPS-activated macrophages (lower pictures) with (right pictures) or without (left pictures) polySia avDP20 (**A**). Relative neurite length was shorter in the presence of both normal macrophages and LPS-activated macrophages. PolySia avDP20 incubation partly protected neurons from LPS-activated macrophages (**B**). Data are presented as mean +/- SEM of at least three independent experiments and were analyzed using one-way ANOVA. \*, p<0.05 and \*\*\*, p<0.001. Scale bar: 50 μm.

# **4** Discussion

A contribution of activated microglial cells and an altered neuronal glycocalyx on progression of AD has been reported by many studies [68], [69]. Sia molecules are abundant on the outermost surface of intact glycocalyx. These molecules are recognized by SIGLEC receptors [80]. SIGLEC-11 is specifically expressed in resident tissue macrophages including brain microglial cells [85]. To determine the optimal length of Sia as a SIGLEC-11 ligand, this study used different lengths of oligoSia and polySia in in vitro systems and found polySia avDP20 to be a potential ligand for SIGLEC-11. Accumulation of extracellular AB plagues and appearance of inflammatory activated microglial cells are hallmarks of AD [86]. One of the mechanisms by which AB can activate microglial cells is through several scavenger receptors that could also signal through the ITAM-carrying adaptor molecule TYROBP/DAP12. This leads to activation of downstream signaling pathways and results in the increased phagocytosis function of microglia and/or release of ROS that is directly toxic to neurons [66], [74]. Within this study, the role and involvement of microglial SIGLEC-11, an ITIM-carrying receptor, in counter-regulation of AB activatory effects was investigated. This study reveals new evidence concerning the role of polySia molecules in modulating microglial functions in brain and toward neurons. In addition, the results shed light on the potential capacity of polySia avDP20 to be further investigated as a drug for neurodegenerative diseases.

#### 4.1 PolySia avDP20 Is the Potential Ligand for SIGLEC-11

SIGLEC-11 was first identified as a human microglial specific receptor in 2005 and from that time investigations tried to detect the possible ligand for it in the brain [56]. In the first part of this thesis, SIGLEC-11 expression on cell lines was explored and the effect of different lengths of Sias was investigated. Results showed that monoSia and oligoSias did not prevent ROS production from A $\beta$  activated cells. However, polySia

avDP20 and avDP60 were able to prevent ROS production. Measuring metabolic activity of cells showed that polySia avDP60 had negative effect on cell viability. No change in cell survival was observed in polySia avDP20 treated cells. In addition, ELISA data showed that there was a direct binding between polySia avDP20 and rhSIGLEC-11/Fc protein.

# 4.1.1 SIGLEC-11 Expression

As mentioned before, SIGLEC-11 is a member of CD33-related SIGLECs. SIGLECs in innate immune cells can recognize both self-endogenous and invading pathogen sialylations. According to recent data, there are variations in expression of SIGLECs on circulatory blood immune cells (monocytes, leukocytes, and lymphocytes) compared to tissue macrophages and neutrophils [87], [88]. SIGLEC-3, -5 and -9 are highly expressing on monocytes. SIGLEC-3 is also highly expressed in tissue macrophages, while SIGLEC-5 is not expressed and SIGLEC-9 is only expressed on a subset population [87]. In this study, data show that SIGLEC-11 is expressed on iPSdM cells, THP-1 monocytes, and macrophages both on mRNA and protein levels. This expression makes these cells proper models to find out the potential ligand for SIGLEC-11 receptor. In addition, as it was expected, expression level of SIGLEC-11 is higher in THP-1 macrophages compared to monocytes.

# 4.1.2 OligoSia and PolySia as a Ligand

The glycocalyx is a dense complex array of sugar units which are attached to the lipids and proteins on the cell surface [89]. The outermost ends of these sugar units are decorated with Sias, which can have diverse conformations due to their length [90]. Commonly, Sia units are able to form oligo/poly structures and accordingly are classified as diSia (DP=2), oligoSia (DP=3-7) and polySia (DP>8) [46]. Comparably, to determine structure's effect on function, distinct lengths of Sia were used in this study: monoSia, oligoSia (with DP3 and DP6), and polySia (with DP20, DP60, and DP180). In mammals, a wide number of gangliosides and glycoproteins are modified by oligoSias (mainly with DP=3-7). This change enables them to be recognized by SIGLEC-7 or SIGLEC-11 which prefer  $\alpha 2 \rightarrow 8$  linked Sias [46], [91]. Both SIGLEC-7 and SIGLEC-11 are ITIM bearing/inhibitory receptors and are involved in regulation of innate immune responses. SIGLEC-7 is expressed on natural killer (NK) cells, monocytes, basophils, and mast cells and shows a preference for  $\alpha \rightarrow 8$  linked diSias on gangliosides [92], [93]. SIGLEC-11 is expressed in a broad range of tissue macrophages such as Kupffer cells in liver, microglial cells in brain, perifollicular cells in spleen, and lamina propria macrophages in intestine and shows binding specificity to  $\alpha$ 2→8 linked Sias [94]. However, unlike SIGLEC-7, SIGLEC-11 does not show clear binding to gangliosides carrying  $\alpha 2 \rightarrow 8$  linked Sias. According to the literature, it was clear that SIGLEC-11 prefers  $\alpha \rightarrow 8$  linked structures to bind, but the length of Sia which has a great effect on conformation of the molecule was not clear. In this thesis, diverse lengths of small Sia molecules were used (monoSia, oligoSia DP3, oligoSia DP6) and their influence on iPSdM cell response was explored. As expected, cell treatment by monoSia and oligoSias were not adequate to prevent the stimulatory effect of AB on ROS production.

PolySia is a homopolymer of  $\alpha 2 \rightarrow 8$  linked Sias which is added to the membrane proteins as a posttranslational modification [91]. In contrast to oligoSias, polySia are added only to some specific proteins which are mainly expressed in the CNS or immune cell network. These proteins consist of neural cell adhesion molecule (NCAM/CD56), synaptic cell adhesion molecule (SynCAM1), CD36, neuropilin2 (NRP-2),  $\alpha$ -subunit of the voltage-gated sodium channel and autopolysialylation of sialyltransferases that polymerize polySia (ST8 SiaII, ST8 SiaIV) [95]–[97]. PolySias play an important role in cell adhesion, migration, and cytokine response of immune cells. Studies showed that polySias are expressed on mice bone marrow (BM) neutrophils and monocytes, but these cells gradually lose the polySia expression while they migrate toward inflammation sites [98]. In human system, monocyte-derived DC and NK cells also regulate polySia expression according to the activation state. In this context, cells

express less polySia as they mature [97], [99]. In total, it seems that upon arrival of blood immune cells to the target tissue, the self polySia expression reduces but the expression of self SIGLECs increases. PolySia are recognized by SIGLEC receptors and, as mentiond before, SIGLEC-11 is specifically expressed on microglial cells. This expression makes SIGLEC-11 a potential receptor for polySia, which is highly expressed on neuronal cells. In this thesis, to explore this possibility, iPSdM cells were treated with different lengths of polySia (polySia avDP20, avDP60, and avDP180). Results indeed confirmed that polySia avDP20 and avDP60 treatment prevented ROS release from Aβ-stimulated iPSdM cells. However, polySia avDP60 showed a negative effect on metabolic activity of iPSdM cells.

### 4.1.3 PolySia avDP20 Binds to SIGLEC-11

SIGLEC-11-modulated microglial cell behavior in an *in vitro* co-culture system was dependent on neuronal polySia residues, but independent of microglial polySia itself [69]. This thesis shows that polySia avDP20 can modify the response of iPSdM cells and THP-1 macrophages towards A $\beta$ . ELISA data showed that there is a direct binding between polySia avDP20 and rhSIGLEC-11-Fc protein, but dextran (a branched glucan with different lengths but same molecular weight) did not attach. In addition, SIGLEC-11 knockdown was enough to abolish the averting effect of polySia avDP20 treatment both in iPSdM cells and THP-1 macrophages.

### 4.2 PolySia avDP20 Changes iPSdM Cell and THP-1 Macrophage Function

Microglia, the brain inspectors, like other immune cells have a specific role to survey brain environment. A $\beta$  deposition is one the main signs in AD progression and its total amount is equal to its production minus its removal. This indicates the crucial role of clearance mechanisms and reveals the importance of microglial cells [100]. Accumulation of A $\beta$  damaged neurons and induced apoptosis cause debris production, which should be cleared by microglial cells. In this situation, microglial cells remove A $\beta$ 

and debris by inflammation associated phagocytosis, which is linked with the release of ROS in pathological conditions like AD [74]. In the second part of this thesis, the role of SIGLEC-11 activation by polySia avDP20 in face of A $\beta$  and apoptotic material was investigated. Results demonstrated that polySia avDP20 incubation reduced uptake of both A $\beta$  and debris by iPSdM cells and THP-1 macrophages. Moreover, polySia avDP20 prevented the ROS production towards stimulants. This prevention was similar to Trolox and SOD1 effects in blocking ROS production upon phagocytes stimulations.

# 4.2.1 PolySia avDP20 Reduces Phagocytosis Function

Phagocytosis is one of the normal functions of microglial cells as phagocytes. Phagocytosis occurs either by homeostatic phagocytosis or by inflammation-associated phagocytosis. Fibrilar A $\beta_{1-42}$  and debris are recognized by danger-associated molecular pattern (DAMPs), which increase microglial inflammation-triggered phagocytosis activity and leads to release of TNF- $\alpha$ , IL- $\beta$  or ROS and directly harm neurons [82], [101], [102]. Simultaneously, as fast as plaques or apoptotic materials are recognized, several anti-inflammatory responses are activated to maintain homeostasis. Therefore, negative signals are important to balance phagocytic activity [103].

Microglial function is controlled via diverse sets of receptors on the cell surface, and Aβ can be recognized by some of these surface receptors. Part of these receptors are activatory receptors such as TREM2 or SIRPβ1, which signal via TYROBP/DAP12 (bearing ITAM motif in intracellular part) [104]. Upon activation, these receptors phosphorylate downstream proteins and activate signaling pathways [66], [67], [77]. SIRPβ1 knockdown reduced uptake of Aβ and apoptotic neural material in mice primary microglial cells [66]. Siglec-h is another example which is expressed on mouse microglial cells and signals via TYROBP/DAP12. Induction of this receptor by Siglec-h specific antibody-coated beads increased phagocytosis function in the microglia line, while knockdown of this receptor neutralized bead uptake [105].

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On the other side, the function of ITAM carrying receptors is counter-regulated by inhibitory receptors such as SIGLEC receptors. Most SIGLECs carry an ITIM motif in their intracellular part and, by ligand attachment, antagonize the kinase activation signal and hamper signaling pathways [58]. ITIM carrying receptors are negative regulators of immune response and have an important role to prevent the harmful consequences of inflammation [106]. Aggregated A $\beta$  covered by sialylated glycolipids and glycoproteins are identified by microglial SIGLECs and are not removed by these cells [60]. SIGLEC-3 (an ITIM carrying receptor) positive microglial cells increase in AD patients and there is an association between A $\beta$  aggregation and the number of SIGLEC-3 levels inhibited A $\beta$  uptake; while reduced SIGLEC-3 was enough to increase A $\beta$  phagocytosis and Sia was necessary to modulate this function [107]. Thus, it seems that ITAM and ITIM receptors are counter-regulating A $\beta$  clearance mechanisms. In this thesis, polySia avDP20 incubation reduced A $\beta$  uptake in SIGLEC-11 expressing iPSdM cells and THP-1 macrophages, which is in line with current literatures.

In most neurodegenerative diseases the presence of debris in the brain parenchyma is increased [108]. Removal of debris is essential for effective regeneration, while their uptake may lead to inflammation. This could result in neuronal antigen presentation, which activates autoimmune responses [108], [109]. Several studies show that activation of ITIM-carrying receptors lead to reduced debris phagocytosis. In mice system, siglec-e (an ITIM carrying receptor) overexpression reduced uptake of neural debris into microglial cells, while siglec-e knockdown increased debris uptake [68]. In another study, murine microglial cells transduced with SIGLEC-11 exhibited less uptake of apoptotic neural material, while microglial cells that received a control vector had more capacity for apoptotic material uptake [69]. Accordingly, in this thesis polySia avDP20 incubation reduced debris uptake in SIGLEC-11 expressing iPSdM cells and THP-1 macrophages.

In total, SIGLEC receptors do not change the homeostatic phagocytosis but they efficiently reduce inflammatory-mediated phagocytosis of fibrilar  $A\beta_{1-42}$  or debris.

## 4.2.2 PolySia avDP20 Reduces ROS Production

The direct consequence of microglial activation by debris and AB is the respiratory burst and release of ROS, which contributed to neuronal damage [110]. The source of ROS is mainly microglial NADPH oxidase activity. NADPH oxidase consists of two membrane components (p22<sup>phox</sup> and gp91<sup>phox</sup>) and four cytosolic components (p47<sup>phox</sup>, p67<sup>phox</sup>, p40<sup>phox</sup>, and small G-protein Rac). Upon stimulus activation of a microglia/macrophage cell, the cytosolic subunits assemble with membrane components and initiate superoxide  $(O_2)$  production [78]. In detail, A $\beta$  is recognized by surface receptors, which are able to recruit Src-family of Tyr kinase. Then, phosphorylation and activation of Vav guanine nucleotide exchange factor (GEF) activity results in GDP to GTP exchange on Rac GTPase. This exchange leads to assembly of subunits of NADPH oxidase and release of ROS [111][78]. Engagement of tyrosine kinase Syk and membrane NADPH oxidase in response to microglial stimulation is necessary since pretreatment with piceatannol (inhibitor of Svk) significantly reduce AB stimulated tyrosine phosphorylation [73], [112]. In addition, using gp91ds-tat (NADPH oxidase inhibitory peptide) and gp91<sup>phox -/-</sup> mice showed that A $\beta$  stimulated ROS release was revoked [73], [112]. Primary culture of rat microglia and THP-1 monocyte incubation with Aß initiated superoxide production, which was inhibited by SOD treatment [73]. In addition, BV2 microglial cell exposure to fibrillary AB1-42 significantly increased ROS production via NADPH oxidase activity [74]. Equally, in this thesis treatment with fibrillary Aß increased ROS production in iPSdM cells and THP-1 macrophages, while polySia avDP20 incubation prevented ROS release upon AB inclusion.

If apoptotic material is not removed properly by phagocytosis, then the membrane integrity in apoptotic compartment vanishes over time and they will become necrotic substances [113]. In neonatal cerebellum sections, superoxide produced by microglial cells was the main source of Purkinje cell death [114]. In another model of neonatal

stroke, removal of apoptotic neurons by activated microglial cells were limited. However, even this slight removal was protective since depletion of microglial cells before stroke increased accumulation of inflammatory mediators like superoxide [115]. In an *in vitro* study, Siglec-e overexpression in microglial cells reduced ROS production upon debris stimulation, while knockdown of Siglec-e led to increased ROS release [68]. In the same manner, in this thesis debris treatment leads to increase ROS production in iPSdM cells and THP-1 macrophages, albeit polySia avDP20 incubation prevented this rise.

#### 4.2.3 PolySia avDP20 Inhibits ROS Production as Effectively as Antioxidants

As mentioned, oxidative stress in one of the main sources of neuronal damage. ROS such as superoxide  $(O_2^{-})$  and hydrogen peroxide  $(H_2O_2)$  are mainly produced by dysfunction of mitochondrial respiratory chain; however, membrane NADPH oxidase also produce ROS [116]. O<sub>2</sub> can quickly react with nitric oxide (NO) and produce peroxynitrite; as well H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> can produce hydroxyl radicals (•HO). Both peroxynitrite and hydroxyl radicals are highly toxic and damage biological molecules' functions [117]. The brain is responsible for about 20% of basal body O2 consumption and any interference in the oxygen respiratory chain cause huge damage to neurons (reviewed in Halliwell 2006). Therefore, substances that are able to reduce these highly reactive oxygen radicals can be considered as a potential therapeutic agent in neurodegenerative processes. Trolox is a water-soluble analog of vitamin E, which inhibits lipid peroxidation by scavenging peroxyl radicals and is used commonly as an antioxidant in biological experiments to scavenge ROS [118]. SOD1 is one of the three human superoxide dismutases enzymes. SOD1 catalyzes  $O_2^-$  to  $H_2O_2$ , which is then later broken down by catalase [119]. Siglec-e is a negative regulator of ROS released by mouse microglial cells [68]. Trolox kept neurite length in the normal range when neurons were co-cultured with Siglec-e knockdown microglial cells [68]. In this thesis, both Trolox and SOD1 treatments prevented the phagocytosis associated ROS release from iPSdM cells and THP-1 macrophages. In the same way, treatment with polySia avDP20 prevented release of ROS upon Aß and debris challenge via SIGLEC-11 ITIM

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signaling, since knockdown of this receptor was enough to abolish polySia avDP20 effect. Thus, in total polySia avDP20 like Trolox and SOD1 is able to keep ROS release at the basic level in *in vitro* cultures.

#### 4.3 PolySia avDP20 Has Neuroprotective Function

Neurons, as the central components of the CNS, are in close relation with microglial cells. Presence of A $\beta$  or LPS in brain parenchyma induces immune responses by microglial cells. Microglia, by recognition of these stimuli, become active and produce neurotoxic pro-inflammatory factors. They may become overactive by damaged neurons, harming adjacent neurons [110]. In the third part of this thesis, neurons differentiated from iPS cells to establish a co-culture system and the effects of diverse polySia avDP20 concentrations were explored. Afterwards, the role of polySia avDP20 treatment in face of A $\beta$  and LPS stimulation in neuron-iPSdM or neuron-macrophage co-culture systems were investigated. Results show that polySia avDP20 incubation reduced neurotoxicity effects of both A $\beta$  and LPS mediated by iPSdM cells or THP-1 macrophages. Moreover, this protective effect towards stimulants was similar to Trolox incubation, however, it was not as strong.

#### 4.3.1 Human Neuron Culture from iPS Cells

To establish a human co-culture system, a stable NSC line was necessary to constantly have neurons in culture. pNSCs were obtained from iPS cells according to a short protocol which initially used small inhibitory molecules to get pNSCs from human ES cells [70]. As mentioned before, four small inhibitory molecules (hLIF, CHIR99021, SB431542 and Compound E) were used to differentiate pNSCs from iPS cells. HLIF already has been shown to be essential for maintaining pluripotency [120]. CHIR99021 inhibits GSK-3β, which is a main component in the canonical Wnt pathway with a negative role in neuronal induction. Thus, inhibition of GSK-3β activates the canonical Wnt pathway and increases neural induction [121]. SB431542 inhibits mesodermal

induction and helps the cell culture to go towards ectodermal fate [122]. Compound E aids to stop cell differentiation [70]. All these factors help to differentiate pNSCs from iPS cells. pNSCs express NSC markers nestin, Pax6, Sox1 and Sox2. Nestin is a type VI intermediate filament protein which is expressed by uncommitted neural progenitor cells and is extensively expressed by our pNSCs [123]. Pax6 has been shown to increase neurogenesis from human fetal striatal NSCs. In addition, Pax6 and Sox2 are required for maintaining progenitor proliferative capacity of NSCs [124], [125]. pNSCs were also positive for Ki67, so they kept their proliferative phenotype.

pNSCs easily differentiate into neurons in the presence of BDNF and GDNF in 2 weeks. The resulting neurons were highly positive for neuronal markers NeuN,  $\beta$ -tubulin-III, neurofilament and MAP2. They have been positive for the neurotransmitters ChAT and GABA, but only few cells have been positive for the dopaminergic marker TH [126].

### 4.3.2 PolySia avDP20 Is Neurotrophic

Between different candidate molecules who have roles in neuronal plasticity, neural cell adhesion molecule (NCAM) and its attached polySia chains have received most attention. NCAM according to it molecular weight is present in four main isoforms (NCAM-180, NCAM-140, NCAM-120 and soluble NCAM) with one of the main post-translational modifications, which is the addition of a linear homopolymer of  $\alpha 2 \rightarrow 8$  linked Sias [127]. The expression of polySia-NCAM is highly regulated. Peak expression occurs during the early stages of brain development, followed by a continuous reduction, which leads to its regional expression in three types of neurons in adults brains. The first population is located in layer II of the paleocortex, which mostly lacks NeuN expression (immature neurons) [48]. To the second population belong mature NeuN positive inhibitory interneurons located in cortical areas such as prefrontal cortex, hippocampus, and amygdala [48]. The third population includes differentiated neurons with polySia negative soma but polySia positive neuritis, like hippocampus mossy fibers or pyramidal cells of CA1 region [48]. The most defining character of polySia is related to its polyanionic nature, which gives this molecule the anti-adhesive feature. This

feature enables it to has an important role in cell-cell and cell-matrix interactions [46]. Polysialyltransferases (PSTs) are key regulators of polySia synthesis in mammalian cells [128]. Due to this fact, many experiments have been done in recent years to examine polySia's function on neuronal cell behavior by changing the expression of PSTs. Motor neurons derived from mouse ES cells when transduced to express more PST (results in more polySia expression) showed increased survival and neurite outgrowth towards denervated muscles [129]. ES cell-derived dopaminergic neurons transduced with a lentiviral-expressing PST and grafted into a hemiparkinsonian mouse model showed increased survival without phenotypic change and neurite outgrowth [130]. Furthermore, increased PST expression resulted in complete recovery in mice with correction of behavioral impairment [130]. In this thesis, treatment of iPS-derived neuronal cells with different lengths and concentrations of Sia, oligoSia and polySia had no negative effect on metabolic activity of neurons. Moreover, treatment with polySia avDP20 improved neuronal metabolic activity in a concentration dependent manner.

# 4.3.3 PolySia avDP20 Effect in Aβ Stimulated iPSdM/macrophage-neuron Coculture Systems

**Phagocytosis and polySia:** In a healthy situation, microglial cells are in resting state. This means that their soma stay stable, but their processes are motile and continuously survey their microenvironment [103]. Any alteration in normal conditions, which is sensed by microglia, impairs microglial homeostasis and damages neurons [103]. Uptake of neurons occurs by two mechanisms: phagocytosis, which is removal of apoptotic or necrotic neurons that express eat me signals, and phagoptosis, which is removal of live neurons that transiently express eat me signals [84]. One of the important eat me signals on the neuronal surface is the appearance of PS, which is normally located in the inner leaflet of the cell membrane. Its exposure on the outside of the neuron can be increased by  $A\beta_{1-42}$  incubation [131]. PS is recognized by opsonins like milk fat globule EGF factor 8 (MFG-E8) and then bound to the vitronectin receptor on the microglial surface or directly to another microglial receptor called brain-specific

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angiogenesis inhibitor1 (BAL1) [84]. In a rat neuron-microglia co-culture system, low concentration of AB induced neuronal loss without increasing apoptosis or necrosis, further investigation showed that neuronal loss was mediated by the microglial phagocytosis function, which was boosted by Aß [83]. Blocking PS or inhibiting microglial phagocytosis was enough to save neurons [83]. Later on, the same group showed that A $\beta$  induced peroxynitrite release from microglia forced neurons to show PS eat me signal. Then, this neurons were taken up by phagoptosis through the PS-MFG-E8-vitronectin pathway [39]. Besides, treatment with peroxynitrite scavenger or vitronectin receptor antagonist was enough to inhibit neuronal loss [39]. In line with this literature, in the thesis at hand treatment of neuronal cultures with A<sup>β</sup> alone showed no difference in neurite length. However, co-incubation of iPSdM-neuron or macrophageneuron co-culture systems with AB showed reduced neurite branches length. Another eat me signal is the removal of the Sia cap from surface neuronal glycoproteins [126]. The altered glycocalyx followed by C1q opsonization, which recognizes by mouse microglial CR3 or human macrophage CR3; although, in both situations intact neurites with sialylated glycoproteins remain undamaged [126], [132]. Thus, it seems that neurite sialylation is an inhibitory signal for microglial cells and macrophages. Indeed, there are some don't eat me signals on neuronal surface like CD47 and sialylated glycoproteins that are recognized by microglial receptors SIRP1a and SIGLEC-11 to prevent phagocytosis [84]. In a mouse neuron-microglia co-culture system, intact polySia expressing neuronal cultures were incubated with SIGLEC-11 vector transduced microglial cells [69]. This culture showed higher neurite density compare to incubation with control vector transduced microglia. However, in polySia removed neuronal culture this outcome was not observed [69]. In line with this observations, here the toxic effect of Aß incubation in iPSdM-neuron and macrophage-neuron co-cultures was eliminated by co-treatment with polySia avDP20.

**ROS and polySia:** Another consequence of microglial cell activation by Aβ is ROS release, which is directly toxic to neurons in co-culture experiments [79]. APP overexpression alone was not toxic for APP-expressing-neuroblastoma cells; despite

the fact that co-culture of these neurons with microglial cells leads to enormous cell death via ROS release by microglial cells [133]. A $\beta$  incubation can induce NADPH-oxidase assembly in rat primary microglial cells and release of ROS in a dose dependent manner [134]. Nevertheless, melatonin as an antioxidant inhibited superoxide release by impairing the assembly of NADPH oxidase in these microglial cells [134]. In this thesis, incubation of co-cultures with Trolox was able to keep neurite length in A $\beta$  treated iPSdM/macrophage-neuron neuronal cultures as in untreated neuronal cultures. Incubation of the co-cultures with polySia avDP20 led to the same protective effect as seen with Trolox. In total, polySia avDP20 seems to be working through reducing the phagocytosis function of iPSdM and macrophages, besides inhibiting the release of ROS by phagocytes when they encounter A $\beta$ .

# 4.3.4 PolySia avDP20 Effect in LPS Stimulated iPSdM/macrophage-neuron Coculture Systems

LPS is the major immunostimulatory element in cell walls of Gram-negative bacterias, which has been studied for a long time to uncover the underlying mechanisms of microglia activation. Upon microglial stimulation with LPS, which mainly is recognized by Toll-like 4 receptor (TLR-4), these cells become activated and release diverse cytotoxic mediators such as NO, IL1- $\beta$ , TNF- $\alpha$ , various ROS, and other neurotoxic factors [40], [135]. Rat neuron treatment with LPS alone was not neurotoxic. However, when neurons were cultured under filter inserts containing LPS-activated microglial cells, neuronal cell death observed [40]. Further investigation showed that LPS increased NO and superoxide secretion from microglial cells, which then reacted, formed peroxynitrite and directly damaged neurons. Thus, they concluded that LPS neurotoxicity is indirect and via microglial cell activation, but they did not investigate phagocytosis function of microglial cells [40]. Afterward, additional studies with lipoteichoic acid (LTA) and muramyl dipeptide (MDP), the major immunostimulatory elements in cell walls of Gram-positive bacterias, showed that there is a LTA concentration dependent reduced neuronal cell number in a rat neuron-microglial cell

# Discussions

culture [136]. This reduction was mediated by release of NO by microglial cells and the later on production of peroxynitrite, since blocking of either substances significantly inhibited neuronal loss [136]. They have not seen an increase in apoptotic cells. They concluded that neurons either go through necrotic cell death or that they are rapidly removed by activated microglial cells. Later on, it was shown that death of neurons was simply prevented by phagocytosis inhibition even without disrupting inflammation [39]. The authors of this study declared that in a direct contact neuron-microglia co-culture system, LTA and LPS promoted neuronal loss, since microglial separation via transwell co-culture was enough to prevent neuronal loss. They assume that LTA or LPS microglial cell stimulation leads to more peroxynitrite production and more PS eat me signal exposure on neuronal cells, that is recognized by microglial cell receptors and leads to phagoptosis of neurites by microglial cells [39]. In this thesis, LPS activated iPSdM cells significantly reduced neurite length compare to normal iPSdM cells incubation. Furthermore, polySia avDP20 prevented this neurotoxicity. Activated macrophages did not show a higher toxicity compared to normal macrophages perhaps by non-identical responses of different THP-macrophages batches to LPS. However, polySia avDP20 reduced this toxicity. PolySia avDP20 showed this neurotrophic effects directly by starting inhibitory signaling, which reduced either neurons phagoptosis or prevented ROS production. It is also possible to improve polySia avDP20 effectiveness by increasing its concentration, since polySia avDP20 did not change neurons metabolic activity till 5 mM concentration.

## 4.4 Summary

SIGLEC-11 is an inhibitory receptor expressed on microglial cells and macrophages and can recognize  $\alpha 2 \rightarrow 8$  linked Sias structures. The surface of neuron is decorated by different lengths of polySias. PolySia-SIGLEC-11 interaction is important to keep normal physiological conditions in neuron-microglia co-culture systems. However, till now it was not clear which length of polySia is recognized by SIGLEC-11.

In this study the low molecular weight polySia with average degree of polymerization 20 (polySia avDP20), among different polySia lengths, introduced as the best length which was recognized by SIGLEC-11. PolySia avDP20 pre-treatment upon Aß or debris stimulation kept superoxide release of microglia/macrophages as low as of untreated cells. This effect was not observed when cells were pre-treated with monoSia or oligoSias. Furthermore, compared to other polySia lengths (avDP60 and avDP180), polySia avDP20 had no effect on the metabolic activity of cells. Knockdown of SIGLEC-11 was enough to prevent the inhibitory function of polySia avDP20. Additional experiments showed that the anti-superoxide effect of polySia avDP20 was as potent as Trolox and SOD1. Phagocytosis analysis in iPSdM cells and macrophages revealed that polySia avDP20 pre-treatment did reduce uptake of AB and debris, which are inflammatory phagocytosis stimulants. Neurons were differentiated from pNSCs to investigate the consequence of polySia avDP20 addition to co-cultures with iPSdM/macrophages. Co-culture of AB or LPS stimulated iPSdM/macrophage with neurons led to shorter neurite length. This length could stay like untreated neurons if polySia avDP20 was present.

Thus, this study suggests polySia avDP20 as a ligand for SIGLEC-11 receptor to reduce the inflammatory response of phagocytes towards provoking stimulants.

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# Declaration

I, hereby confirm that this work submitted is my own. This thesis has been written independently and with no other sources and aids than stated. The presented thesis has not been submitted to another university and I have not applied for a doctorate procedure so far.

Hiermit versichere ich, dass die vorgelegte Arbeit – abgesehen von den ausdrüklich bezeichneten Hilfsmitteln – persönlich, selbständig und ohne Benutzung anderer als der angegeben Hilfsmittel angefertigt wurde. Aus anderen Quellen direkt oder indirekt übernommene Daten und Konzepte sind unter Angabe der Quelle kenntlich gemacht worden.

Die vorliegende Arbeit wurde an keiner anderen Hochschule as Dissertation eingereicht. Ich habe früher noch keinen Promotionsversuch unternommen.

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# Publications

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# Submitted Patent

 Neumann H., Kopatz J., Shahraz A., Karlstetter M., Langmann T. "Polysialic acid use for treatment of neurodegenerative and neuroinflammatory disease". PCT/EP2014/055445, 2014

# **Oral Presentations**

- Shahraz A., Kopatz J., Neumann H. "Scavenging effect of low molecular weight polysialic acid on activated human microglia". ImmunoSensation cluster science day, Bonn, Germany, November 3-4, 2014.
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- Shahraz A. Neumann H. "*Role of polysialic acid and siglec11 in microglia-neuron interaction*". PhD-students Fourth THEME Symposium, Bad Honnef, Germany, October 1-2, 2013.

# **Poster Presentations**

- Shahraz A., Kopatz J., Neumann H. "Low molecular weight polysialic acid suppresses inflammatory, but not homeostatic phagocytosis in THP1 macrophages". ImmunoSensation cluster science day, Bonn, Germany, November 2-3, 2015.
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- Shahraz A., Kopatz J., Neumann H. "Polysialic acids prevent amyloid-β plaques mediated neurotoxicity". Saxon Biotechnology Symposium, Dresden, Germany. March 19, 2014.
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- Shahraz A., Tafreshi A., Zeynali B. "Wnt3a induces differentiation of unrestricted somatic stem cells (USSCs) towards dopaminergic neural precursor". Stem cells in development and disease, Berlin, Germany. September 11-14, 2011.
- Zeynali B., **Shahraz A.**, Chavoshi M., Khaki I., Molavi M, Tafreshi A. "*Expression of canonical Wnt signaling components in Unrestricted somatic stem cells(USSCs)*". Stem cells and tissue formation congress. Dresden, Germany. July 11-14, 2010.