

Clinically approved IVIg delivered to the hippocampus with focused ultrasound promotes neurogenesis in a model of Alzheimer's disease

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1	TIT	LE
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22 Abstract (250 words max)

23 Preclinical and clinical data support the use of focused ultrasound (FUS), in presence of 24 intravenously injected microbubbles, to safely and transiently increase the permeability of the 25 blood-brain barrier (BBB). FUS-induced BBB permeability can enhance the bioavailability of 26 therapeutics the brain. FUS-mediated delivery requires the intravenous administration of 27 therapeutics. Therefore, therapeutics capable of inducing benefits peripherally and at FUS-targeted 28 brain areas are ideal candidates. In Alzheimer's disease, intravenous immunoglobulin (IVIg), a 29 fractionated human blood product containing polyclonal antibodies, act as immunomodulator 30 peripherally and centrally, and it can reduce amyloid pathology in the brain. Using the TgCRND8 31 mouse model of amyloidosis, we tested whether FUS can improve the delivery of IVIg, administered intravenously (0.4 g/kg), to the hippocampus and reach an effective dose to reduce 32 33 amyloid plaque pathology and promote neurogenesis. Our results show that FUS-induced BBB 34 permeability is required to deliver a significant amount of IVIg (489 ng/mg) to the targeted 35 hippocampus of TgCRN8 mice. Two IVIg-FUS treatments, administered at day 1 and 8, 36 significantly increased hippocampal neurogenesis by 4-, 3- and 1.5-fold in comparison to saline, 37 IVIg alone, and FUS alone, respectively. Amyloid plaque pathology was significantly reduced in 38 all treatment groups; IVIg alone, FUS alone, and IVIg-FUS. Putative factors promoting 39 neurogenesis in response to IVIg-FUS include the downregulation of the pro-inflammatory 40 cytokine tumor necrosis factor alpha in the hippocampus. In summary, FUS was required to deliver 41 an effective dose of IVIg to the targeted hippocampus, where IVIg could then promote 42 neurogenesis and modulate the inflammatory milieu.

43 Keywords

Alzheimer's disease, immunotherapy, MRI-guided focused ultrasound, blood-brain barrier,
intravenous immunoglobulin, mouse model of amyloidosis, neurogenesis.

46 Significance Statement (120 words max)

47 The efficacy of immunotherapy in Alzheimer's disease is limited; partly because antibodies, 48 administered peripherally, have poor access to the brain. Focused ultrasound with microbubbles 49 allows the passage of antibodies from the blood to the brain. In a mouse model of Alzheimer's 50 disease, antibodies administered in the blood, with and without focused ultrasound, reduced 51 amyloid pathology in the hippocampus. In contrast, focused ultrasound was required to deliver 52 sufficient antibodies to effectively promote hippocampal neurogenesis. Neurogenesis, a 53 regenerative process involved in memory functions, is impaired in Alzheimer's disease. Putative 54 contributors to the stimulation of neurogenesis include a decrease in the proinflammatory cytokine 55 tumor necrosis factor alpha. Focused ultrasound holds potential to increase the efficacy of 56 immunotherapy for Alzheimer's disease.

58 Introduction

Alzheimer's Disease (AD) is a neurodegenerative disease estimated to affect 132 million individuals worldwide by 2050. The incidence of AD significantly increases with age, with one in 10 people over 65-year-old being affected (1). At present, AD has no cure and the multifaceted nature of this disorder prompts the development of therapeutics that can both reduce pathologies and promote the regenerative capacity of the brain (2).

64 One such therapeutic is intravenous immunoglobulin (IVIg). IVIg is composed of pooled 65 antibodies collected from healthy blood donors that have been shown, in patients with AD and/or 66 animal models of AD, to decrease amyloid-beta peptides (A β) and tau pathology, dampen 67 excessive inflammation, and increase neurogenesis (3-11). The excellent safety profile of IVIg 68 combined with its beneficial effects, in animal models and early clinical AD trials, led to a Phase 69 III trial in patients with mild to moderate AD (12, 13). The Phase III clinical trial failed to 70 demonstrate significant cognitive improvement in the overall population treated, although a 71 subgroup analysis pointed to some benefits in apolipoprotein-E4 carriers and at moderate AD 72 stages (8, 12-14).

73 The properties of the blood-brain barrier (BBB) restrict the bioavailability of IVIg to the 74 brain. While technically difficult to evaluate in human, studies in murine models of AD have 75 shown that less than 0.002% of intravenous IVIg reach the hippocampus (8, 12, 13, 15). Using 76 higher dosages to increase the amount of IVIg to the brain has limitations, both in terms of safety 77 and feasibility. Clinically, IVIg is used for several autoimmune and inflammatory conditions, and 78 its expansion to AD at relatively high dosages could put a serious burden on the provision of IVIg, 79 a human source biologic (16, 17). As such, strategies are warranted to develop recombinant 80 alternatives to IVIg (18), reduce the amount of IVIg required intravenously, and combine IVIg 81 with new therapeutic and delivery approaches to increase efficacy. The present study contributes

to efforts in improving treatment efficacy by enhancing the delivery of IVIg to the brain using focused ultrasound (FUS), keeping a relatively low dose of IVIg administered intravenously, and potentially benefiting from FUS-induced effects in reducing pathology and increasing neurogenesis (19) (20-22).

86 Since 2001, MRI-guided FUS, combined with intravenously administered microbubbles, has 87 been established as a modality to increase the permeability of the BBB (23). The use of well-88 defined FUS parameters, microbubbles dosage, an acoustic emissions-based controller, and MRI 89 guidance provides assurance, in real-time, that FUS-induced BBB permeability is done in a safe, 90 controlled, and targeted manner (23-29). FUS-mediated drug delivery requires the administration 91 of therapeutics intravenously to facilitate their passage through the BBB and into the brain at FUS-92 targeted regions. Therefore, therapeutics which are beneficial centrally and peripherally, such as 93 IVIg (8, 17), are ideal candidates to combine with FUS-mediated drug delivery. To date, 94 molecules, cells and gene vectors have been shown to be effectively delivered using FUS (26). In 95 animal models of AD, FUS-mediated drug delivery to the brain has been used for 96 immunotherapy against A β and tau pathologies (30-33), and for the delivery of a specific agonist 97 stimulating TrkA signaling and acetylcholine release (34).

98 We hypothesized that FUS-induced BBB permeability would significantly enhance the 99 delivery of IVIg from the blood to the hippocampus, a brain region vulnerable in AD (35), and 100 thereby improve treatment efficacy. To test this hypothesis, we used the transgenic murine model 101 of amyloidosis, namely TgCRND8, starting at 3 months of age. At this age, TgCRND8 mice 102 display salient features of AD, such as A β plaque burden (36), glial activation (37) associated with 103 increased tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNFa) (38), impaired hippocampal neurogenesis and 104 function (39, 40). As such, TgCRND8 mice at 3-months of age model a clinical stage when 105 patients would be presenting with pathological characteristics of AD, and prior to further neuronal 106 systems degenerating (41, 42). Evidence suggests that treating AD at relatively early stages may 107 be more efficient than at the later stages, when neurodegeneration reaches irreversible stage (43). 108 In the present study, we first demonstrated the feasibility of IVIg delivery to the 109 hippocampus using MRI-guided FUS in TgCRND8 mice. We next assessed the timeline of IVIg 110 clearance from the brain. Finally, therapeutic efficacy of two weekly treatments of IVIg, FUS, and 111 IVIg-FUS (at day 1 and day 8) was investigated two weeks later, at day 21 on Aβ plaque pathology, 112 neurogenesis and the inflammatory status centrally, in the hippocampus, and peripherally, in the 113 serum.

114 **Results**

115 Focused ultrasound increases the bioavailability of IVIg to the hippocampus

116 The bioavailability of IVIg delivered to the hippocampus with FUS was measured at 4 hours, 117 24 hours, 7 days and 14 days post-treatment (Fig 1A), in TgCRND8 (Tg) and non-transgenic (nTg) 118 mice. Two FUS spots per region were chosen for targeting the left hippocampus, and as a 119 supplementary region the frontal cortex (Fig. 1B). Under MRI-guidance, the left hippocampus and 120 cortex were selected (Fig 1C) and targeted with FUS (Fig 1D). The contralateral right hemisphere 121 served as non-FUS control side, allowing for paired comparison within animals. Both hippocampi 122 were exposed to IVIg in the circulation (0.4 kg/kg, *i.v.*) and only the left hippocampus was targeted 123 with FUS.

Immediately following FUS treatment in presence of microbubbles (0.02 ml/kg), gadolinium-based MRI contrast agent, Gadodiamide (GAD) (0.2 ml/kg) and IVIg (0.4 g/kg) were injected intravenously. To visualize the permeability of the BBB, post-FUS treatment T1-weighted (w) images (e.g. Fig 1*D*) were compared to the pre-FUS T1w images (e.g. Fig 1*C*). BBB permeability at the target locations was confirmed by GAD enhancement on T1w images post-FUS, as noted by the two lighter gray spots in the hippocampus and in the cortex in Fig 1*D*

Dubey et al MS#2019-08658R2

130 compared to Fig 1*C*. The levels of enhancement produced by GAD at FUS sites was not 131 significantly different between Tg and nTg animals (Fig 1*E*, n=16, p= 0.21), indicating that the 132 levels of BBB permeability induced by FUS is comparable in Tg and nTg mice.

133 In Tg mice, IVIg at 0.4 g/kg (12 mg per mouse, i.v.) did not bypass the BBB in the absence 134 of FUS (Fig 1F, 4-hour time-point, n=6, 0 ng/mg). In contrast, in FUS-targeted hippocampi the 135 levels of IVIg detected 4 hours post-treatment ranged from 67 to 1,013 ng/mg. and on average 136 (489 ng/mg) significantly higher compared to the untreated side (average 0 ng/mg) (Fig 1F, 137 p=0.016, n=6). Therefore, our bioavailability data demonstrate that one administration of IVIg-138 FUS delivered represent, on average, 0.09% (0.01 to 0.2%) of the injected dose to the targeted 139 hippocampi. At 24 hours post-FUS, IVIg remaining in the targeted hippocampi averaged 152 140 ng/mg (Fig 1F, p=0.063 compared to the untreated side, average 0 ng/mg, n=6). By 7 and 14 days 141 less than 20 ng/mg were detected on the FUS-treated hippocampus of Tg mice (Fig 1F, n=6 per 142 group).

143 In nTg animals, the levels of IVIg in the FUS treated hippocampi averaged 333 ng/mg, 144 approximately 0.06% of the injected dose, compared to 76 ng/mg on the contralateral untreated 145 side (Fig 1G, p=0.016, n=6), and they remained elevated at 24 hours in FUS treated hippocampi 146 (311 ng/mg) compared to the untreated side (90 ng/mg) (Fig 1G, p=0.016, n=6,). The levels of 147 IVIg remaining in the hippocampus post-FUS at 7 (62 ng/mg) and 14 (6 ng/mg) days were not 148 statistically different than those observed on the contralateral side; respectively 24 ng/mg (Fig 1G, 149 p=0.063, n=6) and 2 ng/mg (Fig 1G, p=0.125, n=6). The same trends were observed for the 150 delivery of IVIg to the FUS-treated cortex of Tg and nTg mice (S1A, B, n=6 per group).

We next evaluated the biological effects of IVIg-FUS treatments on Aβ plaque pathology, neurogenesis and inflammation. Bilateral hippocampal targeting was done for the following reasons: to cover the entire region for quantification of Aβ plaque pathology, to provide an 154 appropriate sampling area for the estimation of the total number of cells undergoing hippocampal 155 neurogenesis per animal and to globally treat the hippocampus for potential impact on serum 156 CCTF levels. Based on the clearance of IVIg at 7 days post-FUS treatment (Fig 1F, G), sex-157 balanced and age matched Tg and nTg animals received two weekly treatments (Fig 2A, B), being 158 allocated to one of four cohort: saline, IVIg, FUS or IVIg-FUS. To confirm that the increased BBB 159 permeability post-FUS is consistent between Tg and nTg animals, pre-T1w (Fig 2C) and post-T1w 160 (Fig 2D) images were analyzed. The increase in gadolinium (GAD) extravasation into the 161 hippocampus, visualized as the hypointense regions in post-T1w images, was not significantly 162 different between the FUS treated Tg and nTg animals (Fig 2E, n=10, p=0.33). Therefore, 163 differences in the biological effects observed under these conditions are unlikely to result from 164 variability in the extent of FUS mediated BBB permeability between Tg and nTg animals. Two 165 weekly bilateral treatments of IVIg alone and IVIg-FUS resulted in the immunochemical detection 166 of IVIg in the hippocampus, 14 days following the last treatment (S2A, B). The human-specific 167 Ig-immunopositivity in FUS-targeted hippocampi (S2A; c, d) was higher compared to animals that 168 received IVIg alone (*i.v.* without FUS, S2A, b) (S2B; p<0.05) and saline (S2A, a, B; p<0.01). IVIg 169 alone (*i.v.* without FUS, S2A, b) also led to levels of human Ig-immunopositivity greater than those 170 measured in the saline group (S2A, a, B; p < 0.05). The immunopositive signal of IVIg in the 171 hippocampus of Tg mice is diffuse (S2A), with visible binding to A β plaques (S2A, d, arrows) 172 reminiscent of observations made by Puli et al. (9) in APP/PS1dE9 mice.

173 Aβ plaque pathology is reduced by all treatments (IVIg, FUS, and IVIg-FUS)

Aβ plaque pathology was quantified in the hippocampus of Tg animals (saline, Fig 2*F*; IVIg-FUS, Fig 2*G*). A significant reduction in the number of hippocampal plaques was found following treatments with FUS (n=5, p<0.05), IVIg (n=6, p<0.01) and IVIg-FUS (n=5, p<0.01) compared to animals receiving saline (n=5, Fig 2*J*). Similarly, the mean surface area, i.e. plaque load, was 178 significantly lowered in FUS (p<0.01), IVIg (p<0.001), and IVIg-FUS (p<0.001) treated animals 179 compared to the saline group (Fig 2*K*). A 68% reduction in plaque load was observed following 180 IVIg-FUS treatment, compared to saline (Fig 2*K*). Treatments with IVIg alone and FUS alone 181 reduced plaque load by 57% and 40%, respectively, compared to saline (Fig 2*K*). No difference 182 was observed in the mean plaque size (S2*C*).

Both IVIg-alone and FUS-alone have been independently reported to reduce $A\beta$ plaque pathology and promote neurogenesis (7, 19-21, 35). As such, we next investigated whether an increase in neurogenesis in Tg animals could occur with FUS, IVIg and IVIg-FUS treatments, in addition to a reduction in $A\beta$ plaque pathology,

187 FUS is required for IVIg to promote hippocampal neurogenesis

188 To evaluate the effects on neurogenesis, we quantified cells labeled with markers of 189 proliferation (bromodeoxyuridine, BrdU) and immature neurons (doublecortin, DCX) in all groups 190 (Fig 2H, I; BrdU, red; DCX, green). In Tg mice, FUS treatment alone increased the number of 191 BrdU-positive cells compared to saline (p<0.05) and IVIg alone (p<0.05) (Fig 2L, n=5). IVIg-FUS 192 treatments further increased the number of BrdU-positive cells compared to saline (p<0.0001), 193 IVIg (p<0.001) and FUS alone (p<0.01) (Fig 2L). Notably, a 3-fold increase in proliferating cells 194 (BrdU-positive) with IVIg-FUS treatments was found compared to IVIg alone (p<0.001) (Fig 2L). 195 IVIg-FUS also increased the number of post-treatment proliferating cells maturing towards a 196 neuronal phenotype (BrdU-positive/DCX-positive) when compared to saline (p<0.01), IVIg 197 (p<0.01) and FUS (p<0.01) in Tg animals (Fig 2M, n=5). The average number of BrdU-198 positive/DCX-positive cells was 3-times higher in Tg mice treated with IVIg-FUS compared to 199 IVIg alone (p<0.05) (Fig 2*M*). At the dosage of IVIg given intravenously, FUS was required for 200 IVIg to have beneficial effects on hippocampal neurogenesis. These results contrast with the 201 significantly reduction in A β plaque load observed with IVIg alone. Indeed, with regards to

Dubey et al MS#2019-08658R2

hippocampal neurogenesis IVIg alone did not increase cell proliferation (BrdU-positive) nor cell differentiation (DCX-positive). Further analysis supported the lack of correlation between A β plaque load and hippocampal cell proliferation in Tg animals (R²=0.21, S2*D*). Therefore, in this experimental setting, decreasing A β load from a peripheral approach, i.e. with intravenous IVIg administration, is insufficient to promote neurogenesis.

207 We further demonstrated the necessity of FUS for IVIg-induced hippocampal neurogenesis, 208 and the concept that this effect is independent of A β by using nTg mice, where A β pathology is 209 lacking. In the hippocampus of nTg animals, the number of cells proliferating (BrdU-positive) and 210 differentiating in a neuronal phenotype (DCX-positive) significantly increased only following 211 IVIg-FUS treatments, compared to saline (p<0.01), FUS (p<0.05), and IVIg (p<0.01) (Fig 2 *N-O*). 212 Aside from the effects of IVIg on A β , IVIg has been characterized as an immunomodulatory 213 agent (17, 44, 45). Because of the potential influence of IVIg on inflammatory cytokines, key 214 modulators of neurogenesis (46), we next investigated whether treatments with IVIg and FUS 215 impacted the inflammatory milieu in a different manner then IVIg alone in Tg mice.

216 IVIg-FUS treatments decrease hippocampal TNFa

The choice of investigating changes in the hippocampal inflammatory milieu in response to treatments was motivated by the finding that IVIg-FUS treatments increased neurogenesis by 3fold compared to IVIg treatment alone in Tg mice, and despite comparable ability of IVIg alone and IVIg-FUS to reduce $A\beta$ plaque pathology. Therefore, in an exploratory study design (47), we assessed the levels of cytokines, chemokines and trophic factors (CCTFs)–which could be responsible for the increase of hippocampal neurogenesis– in Tg mice treated with IVIg, with and without FUS.

Using multiplex laser bead ELISA assay, of the 36 CCTF studied, 14 had detectable levels in the hippocampal formation (Fig 3*A*, *B*, S3). Among these, only TNFa and CCL5 responded differently to IVIg-FUS compared to IVIg alone treatments in Tg mice (Fig 3*A*, *B*). The hippocampal levels of pro-inflammatory cytokine TNFa were lowered with IVIg-FUS treatment compared to IVIg (Fig 3*A*, p<0.05). In contrast, mice treated with IVIg-FUS had elevated levels of chemokine CCL5 in the hippocampus compared to IVIg alone (Fig 3*B*, p<0.05).

230 Through the elucidation of CCTFs produced in response to IVIg-FUS and IVIg treatments 231 in Tg mice, we also uncovered significant changes in CCTFs in our control groups, i.e. in response 232 to FUS alone, in absence of IVIg (S3). Specifically, FUS treatments induced decreases in IL1a, 233 IL2, TGFb1, TGFb2 in both Tg and non-Tg mice (S3A, B, J, K). As a whole of the panel of CCTFs 234 studied, changes in CCTFs in responses to all treatments, namely FUS alone, IVIg alone, and IVIg-235 FUS were more frequently observed in nTg compared to Tg mice (S3). In summary, IVIg 236 modulated CCTFs in the hippocampus of Tg mice only when combined with FUS. IVIg-FUS 237 treatments decreased hippocampal TNFa and increased CCL5 (Fig 3A, B).

238 Because IVIg was administered intravenously and has known peripheral immunomodulatory 239 effects we also investigated the changes in CCTF levels in the blood. TNFa levels in the serum 240 were elevated in IVIg-FUS compared to IVIg treated Tg mice (Fig 3C, p<0.05), in contrast with 241 the results observed in the hippocampus (Fig 3A). CCL5 levels in the serum of Tg animals treated 242 with IVIg-FUS were significantly higher compared to those treated with IVIg alone (Fig 3D, 243 p<0.05), similarly to the hippocampal response (Fig 3B). Additional differences in CCTFs of IVIg-244 FUS treated Tg animals include increased CCL4 (Fig 3E, p<0.05), and decreased CCL7 (Fig 3F, 245 p<0.001), compared to IVIg treatment alone. IL2 and GM-CSF levels between IVIg-FUS and IVIg 246 treated Tg animals were not statistically different. However, both IVIg-FUS and IVIg treatments 247 appear to induce CCL4, IL2 and GM-CSF compared to low and undetectable levels in absence of 248 IVIg (Fig 3E, G, H). In summary, the serum data shows that in Tg mice, FUS treatments combined 249 with IVIg, administered intravenously, differentially alters the blood levels of the CCTFs TNFa,

250 CCL4, 5, and 7 compared to IVIg alone (Fig 3C-*F*). Such differential alteration of blood CCTFs 251 between IVIg-FUS and IVIg treatments in Tg mice was not observed for IL2 and GM-CSF (Fig 252 3G, *H*).

Taken together, these results highlight the profile of CCTFs in response to IVIg-FUS compared to IVIg in Tg mice centrally (FUS-targeted hippocampus, e.g. decrease in TNFa) and in the periphery (serum, e.g. increase in TNFa).

256 **Discussion**

257 For over 30 years, IVIg has been used in several neurological disorders as an efficient 258 immunomodulator and anti-inflammatory, reviewed in (10, 48). Yet, the mechanisms of action of 259 IVIg are poorly understood. In the context of AD, antibodies contained in IVIg could exert their 260 activities by: (1) binding to a broad spectrum of aggregating and pathological forms of A β and tau; 261 (2) binding to A β contained in the blood and promoting the efflux of A β from the brain, i.e. the 262 'peripheral sink' hypothesis; (3) engaging immune-mediated responses involved in the clearance 263 of A β ; (4) attenuating cell-death pathway and protecting neurons against A β ; and (5) acting as 264 immunomodulators potentially through FcyRIIB and sialylated Fc.

265 It is possible that the efficacy of previous clinical trials using IVIg, administered 266 peripherally, in mild to moderate AD was limited due to the poor access of IVIg to the brain (6, 267 12, 14, 49). These trials primarily relied on the immunomodulatory effects of IVIg in the periphery, 268 with some central effects achieved at high dosages over several months that are likely to be 269 transient (6, 12, 14, 49). As demonstrated here, transcranial FUS-BBB permeability increased the 270 bioavailability of IVIg from the blood to the hippocampus, where it reached therapeutic efficacy 271 at relatively low dosage given intravenously. For the usage of IVIg in clinical trials, lowering the 272 effective dose required for efficacy can lessen the burden on the availability of IVIg as a natural 273

resource, as it is reliant on human blood donors, and it is in high demand for treating several 274 neurological diseases (16, 17).

275 We postulated that IVIg, combined with non-invasive FUS-mediated therapeutic delivery to 276 the hippocampus (26), could enhance treatment efficacy. Over the last decade, safe acoustic 277 parameters of FUS-induced BBB permeability have been established in animal models and in 278 human, as recently reviewed in (26). In animal models, the use of safe parameters was shown to 279 prevent, or minimize, red blood cell extravasation (26). Blood-borne molecules can briefly enter 280 the brain and be cleared within hours, *i.e.* albumin (50), to 4 days, *i.e.* IgG and IgM (19). 281 Inflammation has been reported to occur acutely after FUS in some, but not all conditions (51-55). 282 At longer-term post-FUS, evidence suggest putative beneficial effects of albumin, IgG and IgM in 283 reducing AD pathology and establishing and that a pro-regenerative milieu (19-21, 26, 56, 57). To 284 date, in animal models of AD, the long-term effects of single and repeated FUS treatments-even 285 without the addition of a therapeutic-have led to the reduction of A β and tau pathologies, and to 286 the promotion of hippocampal neurogenesis, parenchymal nerve growth factor content, TrkA-287 related survival signaling pathways, and cognitive functions (20, 21, 32, 34, 58-63). When 288 acoustic settings are selected to avoid edema and microbleeds, the restoration of the BBB post-289 FUS occurs between 6 to 24 hours in animal models, and in patients with AD and amyotrophic 290 lateral sclerosis (ALS) (19, 23-28, 31). Recent clinical trials have described FUS-induced BBB 291 permeability as safe, reproducible, and transient in people with AD and ALS (27-29, 64). Here, 292 we provide further evidence that two FUS treatments by themselves reduce A β plaque pathology, 293 and we discovered that combined with IVIg, FUS can further enhance treatment efficacy in 294 reducing the pro-inflammatory cytokine TNFa and promoting neurogenesis in the hippocampal 295 formation of a Tg mouse model of AD.

296 Our bioavailability data demonstrate that one administration of 0.4 g IVIg /kg (12 mg per 297 Tg mouse, *i.v.*) resulted in 489 ng IVIg/mg of protein in FUS-targeted hippocampi, compared to 298 undetectable levels in non-FUS-targeted hippocampi, at four hours post-treatment. In these 299 conditions, FUS allowed on average 0.09% of the dose of IVIg injected *i.v.* to enter the 300 hippocampus. A study by St-Amour et al. (15) demonstrated that of 1.5 g IVIg/kg (25 mg per 301 mouse, *i.p.*) in C57Bl/6 mice delivered 12.5 ng IVIg/mg of protein to the hippocampus, the 302 equivalent of 0.0017% of the injected dose. As such, FUS delivery translates in an approximate 303 39-fold greater delivery to the hippocampus (489 ng/mg vs 12.5 ng/mg) by using less than half the 304 dose administered peripherally (*i.p.*) (12 mg vs 25 mg). Furthermore, it remains possible that we 305 did not capture the maximal levels of IVIg levels reaching FUS-targeted hippocampi post-FUS for 306 three main reasons. Firstly, the timeline of FUS-induced BBB permeability (23, 25, 65) could have 307 led to the accumulation of IVIg in the targeted hippocampi at a time-point that we did not captured 308 between 4h and 24 h. Secondly, the saline perfusion, aimed to remove IVIg still circulating in the 309 blood and avoid confounding results, may have also cleared some of the IVIg from the 310 hippocampal tissue. Thirdly, IVIg was delivered at two defined FUS spots to the hippocampus, 311 hence underestimating the amount of IVI in ng/mg delivered at each FUS spots by measuring IVIg 312 in total hippocampal tissue. Increasing the number of FUS spots to target the entire hippocampal 313 formation would be of interest to address this potential limitation in measurement of 314 bioavailability. The clearance of IVIg from the FUS-targeted hippocampi at 7 days post-treatment 315 is in-line with the previously established half-life of IVIg in the hippocampus by St-Amour, et al. 316 (15), i.e. 140 hours (5.8 days).

Two-photon microscopy analyses demonstrated that, in response to FUS, amyloid-coated vessels in 6 to 8-month-old Tg mice have reduced permeability and a limited capacity for change in diameter compared to measurements observed in nTg mice (66). In contrast, the levels of GAD enhancement, visualized by MRI following FUS-induced BBB permeability, are not significantly
different between Tg and nTg mice (21, 31, 34, 67). Congruent with this data, the amount of
therapeutic, *i.e.* IVIg (current study) and D3 (34), found in targeted brain areas post-FUS is similar
between Tg and nTg mice. In patients with AD, FUS-induced BBB modulation is reported to be
safe, and achievable repletely with predictable detection of GAD enhancement to visualize the
increase BBB permeability within few minutes and its restoration within 24 h (28, 29).

326 The pharmacokinetics (PK) of IVIg-FUS delivery in the current study has limitations. For 327 example, each FUS spots has variability in response to BBB permeability in time and space. The 328 current experimental design did not account for these variables; the resected tissue for 329 bioavailability analysis was taken at the same time point for all animals and included larger volume 330 of tissue relative to the two FUS spots targeted for IVIg delivery. These characteristics are bound 331 to introduce greater variability in IVIg measurements delivered by FUS compared to a traditional 332 PK evaluation of a compound homogeneously crossing the BBB. The increased IVIg delivery by 333 FUS and clearance by 7 days supported the notion of testing two weekly IVIg-FUS bilateral 334 treatments on treatment effects on A β plaque pathology and neurogenesis in both hippocampi.

335 With regards to neurogenesis, a previous study reported that 8 months of IVIg administration 336 at a high dose (1.0 g/kg/week, *i.v.*; cumulative dose of 32 g/kg) increased the number of immature 337 neurons (DCX+) in the hippocampus of APP/PS1 mice (9). Here, we aimed to improve treatment 338 efficacy on neurogenesis by delivering IVIg to the hippocampus with FUS, and identify whether 339 a putative increase in DCX+ cells comes from newly proliferating cells or the enhanced survival 340 of immature neurons. Considering the data obtained in the bioavailability study, IVIg was 341 administered at 0.4 g/kg (*i.v.*), weekly, for 2 weeks, with and without FUS-targeting to the 342 hippocampi. The results clearly show that two IVIg-FUS treatments, each delivering an estimated 343 489 ng/mg of IVIg to the hippocampus-here representing approximately 0.09% of the injected

344 dose, were sufficient to reach an effective concentration to promote neurogenesis. Indeed, two 345 treatments of IVIg-FUS, and not IVIg without FUS, increased the proliferation and survival of 346 newborn cells differentiating into immature neurons. Hippocampal progenitors, contributing to 347 adult hippocampal neurogenesis, play a critical role in pattern separation, cognitive function and 348 long-term memory (68-70). Comparing to Puli, et al. (9), IVI-FUS treatments reduced the 349 cumulative effective dose of IVIg from 32 g/kg (1 g/kg/week, *i.v.*) to 0.8 g/kg (0.4 g/kg/week, *i.v.*) 350 to promote neurogenesis. In Puli, et al. (9), the 8-month IVIg treatment increased the number of 351 DCX+ cells by less the 2-fold compared to saline. Here, two IVIg-FUS treatments quadrupled the 352 number of BrdU/DCX+ cells in the hippocampus compared to saline. FUS alone had been 353 previously characterized as increasing adult hippocampal neurogenesis through cell proliferation, 354 maturation and survival (i.e., augmenting the numbers of BrdU+, DCX+, and BrdU/NeuN+ cells) 355 (20-22, 71). Here we found that the main effects of IVIg-FUS are in augmenting cell proliferation 356 (BrdU+), maintaining differentiation and survival of newborn neurons (BrdU/DCX+). The levels 357 of hippocampal neurogenesis induced by IVIg-FUS were 4-, 3- and 1.5-fold higher than in Tg 358 mice treated with saline, IVIg alone, and FUS alone, respectively. This is remarkable considering 359 that exercise, one of the most potent modulators of neurogenesis, does not significantly increase 360 hippocampal neurogenesis in Tg mice running between 3 and 4 months of age (39), which would 361 represent a similar timeline to the current study. Furthermore, running typically results in maximal 362 increases in hippocampal neurogenesis by 2- to 3-fold (72), *i.e.* considerably below the 4-fold 363 increase observed here. In light of recent clinical trials using FUS to modulate the BBB in patients 364 with AD (28, 29), elucidating the effects of FUS, alone and combined with therapeutics, in the 365 hippocampus is critical. Adult neurogenesis declines rapidly with age and AD (73-75), and we 366 here provide novel evidence on the capacity of IVIg to potentiate hippocampal neurogenesis in 367 combination with FUS.

368 The beneficial effects of IVIg-FUS treatments on neurogenesis could not be explain solely 369 by the reduction of A β levels in Tg mice, as they were also observed in nTg animals where A β 370 pathology is inexistent. Therefore, the promotion of neurogenesis by IVIg-FUS does not require 371 Aβ-related mechanisms. IVIg has been previously reported to increase synaptic function without 372 reducing AB pathology in Tg2576 mice, providing another example of the effects of IVIg on 373 neuronal plasticity independently of A β reduction (76). Taken together, our data suggest that the 374 beneficial effects of IVIg-FUS on neurogenesis, and IVIg on Aβ plaque pathology-found to be 375 equally efficient with or without FUS-could be mediated by distinct modulation of central 376 (hippocampus) and peripheral (blood) inflammation, respectively. Previous work has shown that 377 repeated IVIg administration does not increase anti-human IgG response in mice (7). Instead, IVIg 378 alters the inflammatory environment (10). Therefore, the changes of peripheral (serum) CCTFs 379 seen in our work is attributed to immunomodulation effect of IVIg, which can contribute to 380 reducing A β plaque pathology as observed in IVIg treatments alone. Conversely, neurogenesis is 381 most likely to be modulated directly in the hippocampus, where IVIg and FUS combined alter the 382 microenvironment. Notably, we found that IVIg-FUS treatments decreased the pro-inflammatory 383 TNFa, known to inhibit adult neurogenesis (46). TNFa can also influence AB pathologies and 384 cognitive deficits in murine models of AD (77, 78).

Our data reveal that IVIg-FUS decreased TNFa and increased CCL5 in the hippocampus of Tg mice compared to IVIg treatment alone. In addition, IVIg-FUS therapy increased serum TNFa, CCL4 and CCL5, and decreased serum CCL7 in Tg animals. It is clear that factor responsible for increases in CCL4, IL2 and GM-CSF in the serum is IVIg and not FUS. CCL4, CCL5 and CCL7 are chemokines that regulate monocyte and T-cell entry into the brain and, along with TNFa, can be modulated by IVIg (79-82). Furthermore, CCL5, which is increased both in the serum and the hippocampus, has been associated with cognitive benefits of exercise and is lowered in the serum of AD patients (83-85). Therefore, IVIg-FUS may modulate the chemotactic signaling and
 transmigration of monocytes and T-cells by reversing the lowered levels of serum CCL5 in Tg
 animals.

395 IVIg-FUS also decreased hippocampal TNFa and increased serum TNFa in Tg animals. Our 396 data indicate that combined IVIg-FUS treatments modify the equilibrium of TNFa centrally and 397 peripherally. The mechanisms leading to reduced TNFa in the hippocampus and increased TNFa 398 in the serum remain to be identified, including potential exchanges of TNFa through the BBB 399 (86). Elevated serum levels of TNFa (>100 pg/ml) have been shown to induce pro-inflammatory 400 signaling in the blood and brain (87). IVIg-FUS increased TNFa levels in the serum to 50 pg/ml, 401 which did not globally transform the hippocampal milieu as pro-inflammatory. Other studies have 402 shown that elevated hippocampal TNFa promotes A β production (88-90), and reduces 403 neurogenesis (91). IVIg injected into the brain of APP/PS1 mice reduced the relative gene 404 expression of TNFa (92). Here, IVIg-FUS treatments decreased hippocampal A β plaque load, 405 similarly to IVIg treatments alone. In contrast, delivering IVIg to the hippocampus non-invasively 406 with FUS led to additional beneficial effects known to influence cognitive outcomes, e.g. 407 decreasing TNFa and promoting neurogenesis. For examples, IVIg-FUS could counteract the 408 deleterious impact of TNFa on neuronal excitability underlying cognitive functions in Tg mice 409 (93, 94). Augmenting the dose of IVIg to the brain with FUS, could improve novel object 410 recognition memory and reduce anxiety-like behavior, as seen in 3xTg-AD mice following chronic 411 IVIg delivery at a high dose of 1.5 g/kg (9-27 i.p. injections) (7). And finally, it has been 412 demonstrated that inducing a >2-fold increase in proliferation/survival of hippocampal progenitor 413 cells in Tg mice can be accompanied by enhanced cognitive function (39). Therefore, our data 414 strongly suggest that by increasing the bioavailability of IVIg to the hippocampus with FUS, leading to a reduction of TNFa and increase in neurogenesis by 3-fold, IVIg-FUS has the potentialto improve cognitive function and memory.

417 In summary, we found that at a low dose, IVIg administered *i.v.* did not cross the BBB in 418 significant amounts; and while two IVIg treatments *i.v.* reduced A β pathology, they did not 419 increase hippocampal neurogenesis nor reduced TNFa. In contrast, IVIg i.v. combined with FUS-420 targeted BBB permeability delivered significant amounts of IVIg to the hippocampus, decreased 421 TNFa and promoted neurogenesis; while also harnessing the effects of IVIg alone (*i.v.*), reducing 422 A β plaque pathology, and modulating serum CCTFs. Given the potential of FUS to reversibly 423 modulate the BBB in patients with AD (28, 29), our results suggest a novel approach for the use 424 of IVIg in AD and other neurological diseases, where the BBB poses a limitation for effective 425 therapeutic delivery and efficacy.

426 Materials & Methods

427 All data discussed is included in the manuscript and its supporting information, and it was428 generated as per methodology described here.

429 Animals

430 The TgCRND8 (Tg) mouse model of amyloidosis overexpresses the human amyloid 431 precursor protein (APP) 695 containing the KM670/671NL and V717F mutations under control of 432 the hamster prion promoter. By 90 days of age, amyloid plaque deposits in the forebrain are evident 433 (36, 95). A total of 107 Tg and 116 nTg animals, sex-balanced and age matched, were used for the 434 bioavailability and repeated efficacy studies. 48 Tg and non-transgenic (nTg) were used for the 435 bioavailability study, starting at the age of 97-128 days and sacrificed at four different time points 436 assessed in both genotypes (4 hours, 24 hours, 7 days, 14 days; n=6 per group) for IVIg 437 quantification. 59 Tg and 68 nTg were used in the efficacy study at the age of 104 ± 2 days for 438 treatments and sacrificed at 21 days post treatment for both immunohistochemistry and biochemical tissue processing. All animals were bred and housed at Sunnybrook Research
Institute. All experiments were carried out in accordance to the guidelines provided by the Animal
Care Committee at Sunnybrook Research Institute and the Canadian Council on Animal Care and
Animals for Research Act of Ontario.

443 MRI-guided FUS for targeted BBB permeability

444 On the day of the experiment, animals underwent anesthesia with isoflurane, followed by 445 depilation of the head, and tail vein catheterization for drug delivery. While under anesthesia, 446 animals were placed in dorsal recumbancy on a positioning sled, which was placed inside the 7T 447 MRI (BioSpin 7030; Bruker, Billerica, Massachusetts) for T2 and T1 weighted image acquisition 448 (20, 21, 96, 97). The sled was fitted on the FUS system with the animal's head resting in a degassed 449 water bath and positioned above a spherical FUS transducer (1.68 MHz, 75 mm diameter and 60 450 mm radius of curvature). The transducer was built-in with a small custom PVDF hydrophone in 451 the center of the transmit transducer (97, 98). The acquired T2 weighted image was registered with 452 the FUS transducer for bilateral hippocampal targeting in the x, y and z plane. Once the brain 453 regions to target were identified, Definity microbubbles (0.02 ml/kg; Lantheus Medical Imaging, 454 North Billerica, Massachusetts) were injected intravenously at the onset of sonication for BBB 455 permeabilization (1 Hz burst repetition frequency, 10 msec bursts, 120 seconds in total). With the 456 use of a feedback controller, the sonications were controlled and allowed for consistent BBB 457 permeabilization irrespective of skull thickness and vasculature variability between subjects (97, 458 98). Following ultrasound sonication, gadolinium-based MRI contrast agent, Gadodiamide 459 (Omniscan 0.5 mM/ml, GE Healthcare, Mississauga, ON, Canada) and IVIg where applicable 460 (Gammagard Liquid 10%, Baxter, Deerfield, Illinois, USA) were injected at the dose of 0.2 ml/kg 461 and 0.4 g/kg respectively. Post-sonication, animals were returned to the MRI for T1-weighted 462 image acquisition to confirm the BBB permeabilization through Gadodiamide entry into the brain463 parenchyma, as visualized as signal hyper-intensity or enhancement.

Bioavailability study: Using the FUS parameters listed above, nTg and Tg animals were administered 0.4 g/kg IVIg intravenously and the left side of the brain was targeted by FUS, under MRI guidance. Specifically, two FUS spots were used per brain region, namely the left hippocampus and cortex, while the right side of the brain was used as the internal control.

468 Treatment efficacy study: Tg and nTg animals were divided into one of four treatment groups, 469 namely saline, IVIg, FUS or IVIg-FUS. IVIg-FUS animals were treated as outlined above. Four 470 hippocampal targets were used, two in each dorsal hippocampus. Animals treated with only IVIg 471 or saline were anesthetized, depilated and injected with the respective treatment through a tail vein 472 catheter, without undergoing MRI or FUS sonication. Post-treatment, all animals were injected 473 with 5-bromo-2-deoxyuridine (BrdU, 50 mg/kg) for four consecutive days followed by a second 474 treatment on day 8. Matlab software (Mathworks, Natick, Massachusetts, USA) was used to 475 quantify enhancement via measuring pixel intensity of a $2x^2$ mm area within the region of interest 476 (four FUS focal spots). This was done using gadolinium-enhanced T1 weighted MRI images 477 acquired after FUS treatment. The intensity was averaged over the four spots per animal and 478 compared between Tg and nTg to ensure consistency in BBB permeabilization between genotypes.

479 Biochemical analyses

The animals were anesthetized using an intraperitoneal injection of ketamine (200 mg/kg) and xylazine (25 mg/kg), blood was collected from the right ventricle for serum collection followed by intracardial perfusion (left ventricle) with 0.9% saline. The brain tissue was rapidly dissected, and flash frozen in liquid nitrogen. The serum samples and dissected brain tissue was stored at -80°C until further use. *Human IgG ELISA*: For bioavailability study, the snap frozen hippocampus and cortex tissue was
homogenized in lysis buffer and lysates were analyzed using species-specific enzyme-linked
immunosorbent assay (ELISA) using IgG Fc-specific antibodies for capture and the corresponding
HRP-conjugated antibodies for detection (Jackson ImmunoResearch Laboratories Inc.).

489 Chemokines and trophic factors (CCTFs): Half of the homogenized hippocampal and cortical 490 tissue was sent for analysis to Eve Technologies for a multiplexing laser bead assay (Mouse 491 Cytokine/Chemokine Array 31-Plex and TGF-beta 3-plex) for an exploratory study design. The 492 following 36 analytes were targeted: CCL11 (Eotaxin), G-CSF, GM-CSF, M-CSF, IFNg, IL1a, 493 IL1b, IL2, IL3, IL4, IL5, IL6, IL7, IL9, IL10, IL12 (p40), IL12 (p70), IL13, IL15, IL17A, CXCL10 494 (IP10), CXCL1 (KC), LIF, LIX, MCP1 (CCL2), CXCL9 (MIG), CCL3 (MIP1a), CCL4 (MIP1b), 495 CXCL2 (MIP2), CCL5 (RANTES), TNFa, VEGF, LIX, TGFb1, TGFb2 and TGFb3. The 496 experimental conditions and the technology itself minimize potential non-specific binding and 497 detection, including from endogenous biotin. Specifically, the target analyte is detected by a 498 capture antibody attached to a fluorescent bead and a detection antibody attached to the 499 streptavidin-phycoerythrin reporter. Furthermore, several analytes were undetectable (i.e. G-CSF, 500 M-CSF, IFNg, IL-3, IL-5, IL-6, IL12 (p40), LIX, LIF, and MIP-1b), confirming the lack of 501 significant non-specific detection. Results are reported in pg/ml for analytes that were above 502 baseline.

Serum levels of 20 CCTF factors were evaluated by using a multiple analyte detection system
(FlowCytomix; eBioscience Inc.) as per kit instructions. The factors measured were: IL-1α, IL-2,
IL-4, IL-5, IL-6, IL-10, IL-13, IL-17 A/F, IL-18, IL-23, CXCL-1 (KC), GM-CSF, MCP-1 (CCL2), MCP-3 (CCL-7), CCL-4 (MIP-1b), CCL-3 (MIP-1a), CCL-5 (RANTES), CXCL-10 (IP-10),

507 IFNγ, and TNFαFlow cytometric analysis was performed using FACS Calibur (BD Biosciences)
508 and detected results were reported in pg/ml.

509 Immunohistochemistry

510 All animals were sacrificed for tissue collection 21 days after the treatment paradigm began. 511 Animals were deeply anesthetized using an intraperitoneal injection of ketamine (200 mg/kg) and 512 xylazine (25 mg/kg), followed by intracardial perfusion with 0.9% saline and 4% 513 paraformaldehyde (PFA). Whole brains were collected and post-fixed in 4% PFA overnight before 514 transfer to 30% sucrose at 4°C and kept until the brains sank to the bottom. Brains were cut into 515 serial 40 um-thick coronal sections using a sliding microtome (Leica). A systematic sampling 516 method was used to select sections at an interval of 12 throughout the hippocampus (from 0.94 517 mm to 2.92 mm posterior of Bregma) for immunohistochemistry.

Immunohistochemistry protocol: Sections used for Aβ plaques were first incubated in a blocking solution (1% bovine serum, 2% donkey serum and 0.35% Triton-X100 in PBS) for 1 hour. Following blocking, sections were incubated in mouse 6F3D antibody targeting human Aβ (1:200; Dako North American Inc.) overnight at 4°C. Subsequently, sections were washed in PBS and incubated in donkey anti-mouse-Cy3 and donkey anti-goat-Cy5 (1:200; Jackson ImmunoResearch Laboratories Inc) for 1 hour, washed in PBS and mounted on slides.

524 For IVIg staining, sections were incubated in 3% hydrogen peroxide for 10 minutes, rinsed, 525 and incubated overnight in biotinylated primary antibody against human IgG (1:100; Santa Cruz, 526 Product SC2775, Lot G0212). Following PBS rinse, sections were incubated in streptavidin-527 conjugated horseradish peroxidase (HRP) (1:1000; Jackson ImmunoResearch Laboratories Inc., 528 Product 016030084, Lot 82330) and 3,3-diaminobenzidine (DAB kit; Sigma). Sections were 529 mounted on slides, dehydrated by serial treatment in ethanol and propanol solutions, and 530 coverslipped.

531 For BrdU and doublecortin (DCX) and staining, sections were incubated in blocking serum 532 (10% donkey serum and 0.25% Triton-X100 in PBS) for 1 hour. After blocking, sections were 533 incubated with a goat anti-mouse DCX antibody (1:200; Santa Cruz) for 48 hours. This was 534 followed by washes in PBS and incubation in donkey anti-goat Alexa 488 (1:200; Jackson 535 ImmunoResearch Laboratories Inc.) for 2 hours. Sections were subsequently rinsed and treated 536 with 2N HCl (37°C, 35 minutes) for antigen retrieval, followered by neutralization through 537 treatment with 0.1M borate buffer (pH 8.5). Post neutralization, sections were rinsed with PBS 538 and incubated overnight in rat anti-mouse BrdU antibody (1:400; AbD Serotec). Next day, sections 539 were rinsed and incubated in donkey anti-rat Cy3 (1:200) for 1 hour. This was followed by PBS 540 rinses and sections were mounted on slides.

541 Confocal imaging and analysis: For IVIg immunoreactivity in the bilateral hippocampus, 542 brightfield virtual montages were acquired using a 20x objective (0.8 NA) on a Zeiss Axioplan 2 543 microscope and the 2D Virtual Slice module of Stereo Investigator 10 (MBF BioScience, 544 Williston, Vermont, USA). For rest of the immunofluorescence imaging, a spinning disk confocal 545 microscope (CSU-W1; Yokogawa Electric, Zeiss Axio Observer.Z1 - Carl Zeiss) was used to 546 acquire Z-stack images of the entire hippocampus. Using the tiling feature of the Zen 2012 software 547 version 1.1.2 (Carl Zeiss), a composite image of the hippocampus was created in three dimensions. 548 For A β plaques immunoreactivity quantification, images were acquired using a 20x objective (0.8) 549 NA) in the Cy3 channels and a maximum intensity projection image was generated for analysis in 550 the ImageJ software. Using the particle analysis feature of ImageJ, the number and area of plaques 551 in the entire hippocampus was calculated.

For BrdU and DCX cell quantification, images were acquired at 63x (1.40 NA) in the Cy3 and Cy2 channels respectively. An observer blinded to treatment using the Zen software carried out the cell counting for BrdU-positive cells and BrdU/DCX-positive cells. The total number of BrdU-positive and BrdU/DCX-positive was multiplied by the sampling interval value (1 in 12, 3-4 sections/animal) in order to estimate of the total number of cells in the entire hippocampus per animal.

558 Statistical Analysis

559 Statistical analysis was done in GraphPad Prism 5 and 8. In bar graphs, data are represented 560 as mean + standard deviation (SD). GAD enhancements between Tg and nTg were compared with 561 unpaired t-tests, and no statistical significance was noted. For bioavailability studies, Wilcoxon 562 matched-pairs signed rank one-tail tests were performed, under the assumption that greater levels 563 of IVIg will be found in FUS-treated regions. Significant differences were noted at p < 0.05. For the 564 efficacy of two treatments (Saline, IVIg, FUS, IVIg-FUS), one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) 565 was used to compare all treatment groups to each other for IVIg immunoreactivity, AB total plaque 566 number, mean size and surface area, BrdU-positive and BrdU/DCX-positive cells. Newman-Keuls 567 method was applied as post-hoc analysis and differences were significant at p<0.05. For analysis 568 of CCTFs in the brain and serum, we asked the question of how IVIg-FUS treatment compared to 569 IVIg alone and FUS treatment compared with saline alone. Therefore, unpaired t-tests were carried 570 out for each comparison and significant differences reported at p<0.05. For the serum analysis of 571 TNFa, CCL4, IL-2, and GM-CSF, differences between treatment groups were analyzed using non-572 parametric Mann-Whitney test (due to a high proportion of zero values) and significance set at 573 p<0.05.

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838 Figures



840 Figure 1 | Focused ultrasound increases the bioavailability of IVIg to the hippocampus. (A) 841 IVIg (0.4 g/kg) was injected intravenously in transgenic (Tg) and nTg animals. (A, B) A unilateral 842 focused ultrasound (FUS) treatment FUS was done on the left side of the brain. (B) The blood-843 brain barrier (BBB) was modulated with two FUS spots (black dots) per regions, namely the cortex 844 and hippocampus. The contralateral regions on the right side of the brain served as controls 845 exposed to circulating IVIg without FUS permeabilization. (A) Animals were sacrificed at 4 hours, 846 24 hours, 7 days and 14 days and brain homogenates were analyzed using human IgG (hIgG) 847 ELISA. (C, D) MRI visualization of the brain (C) before and (D) after FUS-BBB opening, which 848 results in noticeable gadolinium (GAD) entry as two lighter spots over the cortex, and two over 849 the hippocampus. (E) No significant difference in GAD enhancement post-FUS, indicative of BBB 850 permeability, was observed between Tg and nTg animals (n=16, p=0.21). hIgG content was found 851 to be higher in FUS-treated hippocampi (left) compared to the untreated hippocampi (right) in Tg

- 852 mice at 4 hours post-IVIg-FUS delivery (G, *p=0.016, n=6); and in nTg mice at 4 and 24 hours
- 853 treatment (F, *p=0.016, n=6 per time-point). T-test was used to compare GAD enhancement.
- 854 Bioavailability of IVIg at each independent time-point was analyzed with a Wilcoxon matched-
- pairs signed rank one-tail test, under the assumption that greater levels of IVIg will be found in
- FUS-treated hippocampi. Significant differences were noted at p<0.05.





859 Figure 2 | Intravenous IVIg reduces A β plaque pathology and promotes neurogenesis only 860 when combined with focused ultrasound. (A) Experimental timeline of weekly bilateral 861 treatments (Tx1. Tx2): saline; IVIg alone (0.4 g/kg i.v.), focused ultrasound (FUS), IVIg-FUS at day 1 and 8, with tissue collection at day 21 in Tg and nTg animals. One day after the first treatment 862 863 (Tx1), animals were injected intraperitoneally with 5-bromo-2-deoxyuridine (BrdU, 50 mg/kg) for 864 four consecutive days (arrows) followed by a second treatment (Tx2) on day 8 and tissue collection 865 on day 21. (B) The hippocampus was targeted bilaterally with four FUS spots. (C, D) MRI 866 visualization of the brain (C) before and (D) after FUS-BBB opening, which results in noticeable 867 gadolinium (GAD) entry as four lighter spots over the bilateral hippocampi. (E) No significant 868 difference in GAD enhancement post-FUS, indicative of BBB permeability, was observed 869 between Tg and nTg animals (p=0.33). (F, G) Representative images of plaques (red) in Tg mice 870 treated with (F) saline and (G) IVIg-FUS. (H, I) Representative images of BrdU+ cells (red) and 871 DCX+ cells (green) are shown here in nTg mice treated with (H) saline and (I) IVIg-FUS. (J, K) 872 Aβ plaque number and surface area were significantly decreased by all treatments (FUS, IVI, and 873 IVIg-FUS) compared to saline (n=5-6 per group). No statistical difference was found in efficacy 874 at reducing Aβ plaque pathology between treatments. (L-O) In Tg and nTg animals, IVIg-FUS the 875 most effective treatment at increasing (L, M) the total number of BrdU+ cells, and (N, O) the only 876 treatment to significantly increase the number of immature neurons (BrdU+/DCX+) (n=5). Data 877 are shown as mean+SD with one-way ANOVA and Newman-Keuls post-hoc tests. *p<0.05, 878 **p<0.01, ***p<0.001; *compared to saline, # compared to FUS, ^ compared to IVIg. Scale bar: 879 (F-G) 20 um; (H-I) 100 um.



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Figure 3 | IVIg-FUS treatments mediates changes in CCTF levels in the hippocampus and
serum. (A, B) In Tg mice, IVIg-FUS treatments decreased TNFa and increased CCL5 levels and
in the hippocampus compared to IVIg treatment alone. (C-E) In the serum, Tg animals treated with

Dubey et al MS#2019-08658R2

IVIg-FUS show increased TNFa, CCL5 and CCL4 compared to IVIg alone. CCL5 levels are also increased in FUS treated nTg animals (compared to saline) and saline treated Tg animals (compared to FUS). (F) Serum CCL7 is decreased with treatments of IVIg-FUS compared to IVIg in Tg animals, and treatments of FUS treatment compared to saline in nTg animals. (G-H) The detection of IL2 and GM-CSF was facilitated by IVIg and IVIg-FUS treatments in Tg and nTg animals. Brains (n=3-4) and serum (n=9-15) were analyzed using laser bead based multiplex assay for CCTF protein quantification. Data are shown as mean+SD with unpaired t-test or Mann

Whitney U-test, depending on distribution. *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001.

893 Supplementary Figures

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*p=0.016 *p=0.016

IVlg IVlg-FUS

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S1 | Focused ultrasound increases the bioavailability of IVIg to the cortex. (A) IVIg (0.4 g/kg) 895 896 was injected intravenously in transgenic (Tg) and nTg animals. (A, B) A unilateral focused 897 ultrasound (FUS) treatment FUS was done on the left side of the brain. (B) The blood-brain barrier 898 (BBB) was modulated with two FUS spots (black dots) per regions, namely the cortex and 899 hippocampus. The contralateral regions on the right side of the brain served as controls exposed 900 to circulating IVIg without FUS permeabilization. (A) Animals were sacrificed at 4 hours, 24 901 hours, 7 days and 14 days and brain homogenates were analyzed using human IgG (hIgG) ELISA. 902 (C, D) MRI visualization of the brain (C) before and (D) after FUS-BBB opening, which results 903 in noticeable gadolinium (GAD) entry as two lighter spots over the cortex, and two over the 904 hippocampus. (E) No significant difference in GAD enhancement post-FUS, indicative of BBB

- permeability, was observed between Tg and nTg animals (n=16, p=0.21). hIgG content was found to be higher in FUS-treated cortex (left) compared to the untreated cortex (right) in Tg mice post-IVIg-FUS delivery at 4 hours (G, *p=0.016, n=6, average 323 ng/mg) and 24 hours (G, *p=0.016, n=6, average 259 ng/mg); and in nTg mice at 4 hours (F, *p=0.016, n=6, average 323 ng/mg) and 24 hours (F, *p=0.016, n=6 per time-point). T-test was used to compare GAD enhancement.
 Bioavailability of IVIg at each independent time-point was analyzed with a Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank one-tail test, under the assumption that greater levels of IVIg will be found in
- 912 FUS-treated hippocampi. Significant differences were noted at p<0.05.



S2 | IVIg biodistribution, plaque size and lack of correlation between Aβ plaque pathology 914 915 and proliferating hippocampal cells. (A) Representative images of animals injected 916 intravenously (i.v.) with (a) saline, No IVIg; (b) IVIg; and (c, d) IVIg combined with focused 917 ultrasound (IVIg-FUS) bilaterally to the hippocampus. IVIg entering the brain binds to Aβ plaques, here visible by immunohistochemistry (d, arrows). (B) At 21 days post-treatments, the levels of 918 919 human IgG immunoreactivity in bilateral hippocampi were higher in IVIg-FUS compared to IVIg 920 alone and saline alone. IVg alone also had higher levels of immunoreactivity of human IgG 921 compared to saline alone (n=3 per group). (C) No difference in mean plaque size in the 922 hippocampus of Tg animals treated with FUS, IVIg and IVIg-FUS was found (n=5-6 per group). 923 (D) There was no significant correlation between plaque load, *i.e.* surface area of $A\beta$ plaques, and 924 cell proliferation (BrdU+) in the hippocampus ($R^2=0.20$). Data are shown as mean+SD with one-925 way ANOVA analysis with Newman-Keuls post-hoc tests ^,*p<0.05, **p<0.01; *compared to 926 saline, ^compared to IVIg. (A) Scale bars (a-c) 50 um, (d) 20 um.



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929 S3 | Alterations in CCTFs occur primarily in hippocampi treated with focused ultrasound.

930 (A-K) Hippocampal tissue from the treated animals (n=3-4) was analyzed using laser bead based 931 multiplex assay for CCTFs protein quantification. The levels of CCTFs for IVIg-FUS treated 932 animals were compared to IVIg, and FUS treated animals were compared to saline control. Data 933 are shown as mean+SD with unpaired t-test or Mann Whitney U-test, depending on distribution. 934 *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001.