The murine meninges acquire lymphoid tissue properties and harbour autoreactive B cells during chronic *Trypanosoma brucei* infection

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Keywords: sleeping sickness, African trypanosomes, neuroinflammation, meninges, fibroblasts.

Running title: Functional characterisation of the murine meninges during chronic *Trypanosoma brucei* infections

Abstract

The meningeal space is a critical brain structure providing immunosurveillance for the central nervous system, but the impact of infections on the meningeal immune landscape is far from being fully understood. The extracellular protozoan parasite *Trypanosoma brucei*, which causes Human African Trypanosomiasis (HAT) or sleeping sickness, accumulates in the meningeal spaces, ultimately inducing severe meningitis and resulting in death if left untreated. Thus, sleeping sickness represents an attractive model to study immunological dynamics in the meninges during infection. Here, by combining single cell transcriptomics and mass cytometry by time of flight (CyTOF) with *in vivo* interventions, we found that chronic *T. brucei* infection triggers the development of ectopic lymphoid aggregates (ELAs) in the murine meninges. These infection-induced ELAs were defined by the presence of ER-TR7$^+$ fibroblastic reticular cells, CD21/35$^+$ follicular dendritic cells, CXCR5$^+$ PD1$^+$ T follicular helper-like phenotype, GL7$^+$ CD95$^+$ GC-like B cells, and plasmablasts/plasma cells. Furthermore, the B cells found in the infected meninges produced high-affinity autoantibodies able to recognise mouse brain antigens, in a process dependent on LTβ signalling. A mid-throughput screening identified several host factors recognised by these autoantibodies, including myelin basic protein (MBP), coinciding with cortical demyelination and brain pathology. In humans, we identified the presence of autoreactive IgG antibodies in the cerebrospinal fluid of second stage HAT patients that recognised human brain lysates and MBP, consistent with our findings in experimental infections. Lastly, we found that the pathological B cell responses we observed in the meninges required the presence of *T. brucei* in the CNS, as suramin treatment before the onset of the CNS stage prevented the accumulation of GL7$^+$ CD95$^+$ GC-like B cells and brain-specific autoantibody deposition. Taken together, our data provide evidence that the meningeal immune response during chronic *T. brucei* infection results in the acquisition of lymphoid tissue-like properties, broadening our understanding of meningeal immunity in the context of chronic infections. These findings have wider implications for understanding the mechanisms underlying the formation ELAs during chronic inflammation resulting in autoimmunity in mice and humans, as observed in other autoimmune neurodegenerative disorders, including neuropsychiatric lupus and multiple sclerosis.

Introduction

The meningeal space is rapidly being recognised as a critical site for immunological responses in the central nervous system (CNS) under homeostasis[1–3], aging[4], and as a consequence of insults such as traumatic brain injury[5] and infection[6–8]. The extracellular protozoan parasite *Trypanosoma brucei*, which causes human African trypanosomiasis (HAT; sleeping sickness in humans) and animal African trypanosomiasis (Nagana in domestic animals) accumulates in the CNS and meningeal spaces triggering severe meningitis[9,10]. This culminates in the development of a wide range of debilitating neurological disorders[9,11–13]. These symptoms are diverse and include fatigue, altered sleep and circadian patterns, tremors, motor weakness, epilepsy, paralysis of one or more extremities, and Parkinson-like abnormal body movements[14–16]. Consistent with clinical data from humans, experimental trypanosomiasis in mice also results in chronic infection, leading to altered behaviour[17–20]. Thus, murine infection with *T. brucei* is a useful model to investigate meningeal responses to infection.

Chronic inflammatory processes are known to result in the formation of ectopic lymphoid aggregates (ELAs)[21–24]. Indeed, ELAs have been reported in a wide range of autoimmune disorders, including those affecting the CNS such as neuropsychiatric lupus[25] and multiple sclerosis[26]. The diverse cytokine and chemokine repertoire found in chronically inflamed tissues, including lymphotoxin-α/-β (LTα and LTβ) and CXCL13, help to the create interactive niches needed to generate such structures[21–24]. Stromal LTβ receptor (LTβR) signalling is important in generating the microarchitecture required for efficient antigen presentation and follicle organisation, which typically includes collagen-rich reticular cords that serve as channels for cellular trafficking, immunological synapses, and B cell affinity maturation[27]. Similarly, CXCL13 is an important chemokine for defining local gradients controlling B cell domains, typically in proximity to follicular dendritic cells (FDCs) and CD4$^+$ T follicular helper cells (T$_{FH}$) inducing the formation of germinal centres (GC), in which B cells undergo affinity maturation and somatic hypermutation to generate high affinity antibodies[21,23,25]. These reactions are typically restricted to secondary lymphoid organs such as the spleen and lymph nodes, but can occur ectopically in response to chronic inflammation, and may result in pathological consequences such as the formation of autoreactive antibodies, as recently described for multiple sclerosis and neuropsychiatric lupus[23,25,26,28].

In secondary lymphoid organs, including the spleen and lymph nodes, lymphatic vessels act as conduits for the transport of tissue-derived antigens and dendritic cells to lymph nodes, where naïve and memory T cells are optimally positioned for the detection of their cognate antigen[29–31]. Similarly, immune complexes can be acquired by macrophages in the subcapular space in lymph nodes and transferred directly to FDCs and B cells[32]. However, several key findings in recent years have led to a better understanding of the role of lymphatic vessels in the dura mater layer of the meninges. For instance, the meningeal lymphatic vessels can convey macromolecular complexes and immune cells from the meninges and cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) to the deep cervical lymph nodes[4,33,34]. However, it is also plausible that extramedullary reactions may take place locally in the meningeal spaces and brain borders, as reported recently in neuropsychiatric lupus[25] and multiple sclerosism[28]. Whether the same extramedullar immunological reactions in the brain and/or meninges, reminiscent of those taking place in secondary lymphoid tissues, can be triggered by chronic, unresolved infections is uncertain.

Here, we investigated how the meningeal transcriptional environment is altered during *T. brucei* infection, using a combination of single cell transcriptomics and mass cytometry by time-of-flight (CyTOF). We found that chronic *T. brucei* infection in the meningeal space results in a broad rearrangement of the immune landscape in the murine meninges, with a significant increase in the frequency of innate (mononuclear phagocytes and granulocytes) and adaptive (T, NKT, and B cells) immune cells. Furthermore, we identified a population of autoreactive B cells in the meningeal spaces, including the leptomeninges. These autoreactive B cels were able to recognise mouse brain antigens and deposit high-affinity IgG antibodies in several brain areas including the hippocampus and cortex, and this deposition was associated with cortical and white mater demyelination. We also detected significant levels of autoreactive IgM and IgG antibodies in the cerebrospinal fluid of HAT patients with inflammatory encephalopathy. Furthermore, using a targeted screening approach we identified myelin basic protein as one of the host antigens detected by autoreactive IgG antibodies in mouse serum and human CSF collected during the chronic stage of the infection. Taken together, this study demonstrates that the meningeal landscape acquires lymphoid tissue-like properties resulting in the formation of autoreactive B cells. These results imply that the chronic brain inflammation induced by African trypanosomes results in an autoimmune disorder affecting the brain as observed in other neurological disorders of unknown aetiology such as neuropsychiatric lupus and multiple sclerosis. We anticipate that the data presented

here will pave the way to understanding how chronic meningitis results in impaired peripheral tolerance and the development of autoimmunity in the context of chronic infections.

Materials and methods

Ethical statement. All animal experiments were approved by the University of Glasgow Ethical Review Committee and performed in accordance with the Home Office guidelines, UK Animals (Scientific Procedures) Act, 1986 and EU directive 2010/63/EU. All experiments were conducted under SAPO regulations and UK Home Office project licence number PP4863348 to Annette Macleod. The *in vivo* work presented in this study was conducted at 30-days post-infection (dpi) and correlated with increased clinical scores and procedural severity. The archived human CSF samples from gambiense HAT patients from North Uganda used in this study were collected by Professor Wendy Bailey (Liverpool School of Tropical Medicine, UK). Ethical approval was given to Prof. Bailey by the Liverpool School of Tropical Medicine, UK, for sample collection and patients were provided with a written consent. We received ethical approved by the University of Glasgow MVLS Ethics Committee for Non-Clinical Research Involving Human Subjects (Reference no. 200120043) for the use of human archived samples. The CSF from healthy donors was obtained from the University of Edinburgh Brain and Tissue Bank and received ethical approval from the University of Edinburgh (REC 21/ES/0087).

Murine infections with *Trypanosoma brucei*. Six- to eight-week-old female C57BL/6J mice (JAX, stock 000664) and C57BL/6-Tg(Nr4a1-EGFP/Cre)820Khog/J strain, also known as Nur77GFP reporter mice (JAX, stock 016617), or the Nur77Tempo reporter mouse line (kindly provided by Dr. David Bending), were inoculated by intra-peritoneal injection with ~2 x 10^3 parasites of strain *T. brucei brucei* Antat 1.1E[35]. Parasitaemia was monitored by regular sampling from tail venesection and examined using phase microscopy and the rapid "matching" method[36]. Uninfected mice of the same strain, sex and age served as uninfected controls. Mice were fed *ad libitum* and kept on a 12 h light–dark cycle. All the experiments were conducted between 8h and 12h. When using the *Nur77*GFP or the *Nur77*Tempo reporter mice, sample acquisition and analysis was conducted without *ex vivo* stimulation to preserve the TCR-dependent fluorescent reporter signal found in the tissue. For sample collection, we focussed on 30 days post-infection, as this has previously been shown to correlate with parasite infiltration in the epidural space[10,11]. Culture-adapted *T. brucei* Antat 1.1E whole cell lysates were prepared as followed. Parasites were cultured in HMI-9 supplemented with 10% FBS and

1% Penicillin/Streptomycin were grown at 37°C and 5% CO_2 and harvested during the

log phase. The parasites were harvested by centrifugation (800 g for 10 min at 4°C),

washed three times in 1X PBS (Gibco) supplemented with cOmplete protease Inhibitor

cocktail (Roche), and sonicated with 5 pulses of 10 seconds each. The resulting lysate

was cleared by centrifugation (3,000g for 10 min at 4°C to remove cell debris), and the

protein concentration of the cleared supernatant was measured using the Qubit protein

kit (Thermo) and kept at -80°C until usage for ELISPOT and ELISA. For LTBR-Ig

treatment, mice were inoculated with 1μg/μL of either LTBR-Ig or IgG2a i.p. (100

μl/mouse) for four consecutive days prior to infection, and then every seven days post-

infection until culling. Preparation of single cell suspension from skull meninges for single-

cell RNA sequencing

Tissue processing and preparation of single cell suspension. Single-cell

dissociations for scRNAseq experiments were performed as follow. Animals were

infected for 30 days (n = 2 mice/pool, 2 independent pools per experimental condition),

after which skullcap meninges were harvested for preparation of single cell suspensions.

Uninfected animals were also included as naive controls (n = 3 mice/pool, 2 pools

analysed). Briefly, all mice were killed by rapid decapitation following isoflurane

anaesthesia, within the same time (between 7:00 and 9:00 AM). To discriminate

circulating versus brain-resident immune cells, we performed intravascular staining of

peripheral CD45+ immune cells, as previously reported[37]. Briefly, a total of 2 μg of anti-

CD45-PE antibody (in 100 μl of 1X PBS) was injected intravenously 3 minutes prior

culling. Mice were euthanised as described above and transcardially perfused with ice-

cold 0.025% (wt/vol) EDTA in 1X PBS. The excised meninges were enzymatically

digested with Collagenase P (1 mg/ml) and DNAse I (1 mg/ml; Sigma) in 1X PBS (HSBB)

(Invitrogen) for ~30 min at 37 °C. Single-cell suspensions were passed through 70 μm

nylon mesh filters to remove any cell aggregates, and the circulating CD45-PE+ cells

were removed from the single cell suspension using magnetic sorting with anti-PE

microbeads (Miltenyi Biotec) according to manufacturer's recommendations (**S1A**

Figure).

Mass cytometry sample processing

Single cell suspension from meninges were prepared as described above and

resuspended in Dubecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM) to a concentration of 1 x 10^6

cells/mL. Cells were activated for 6 h in a round-bottom 96-well plate using Cell Activation

Cocktail (containing with Brefeldin A) (BioLegend, San Diego, USA) as per the
manufacturer's recommendations. Plates were then centrifuged at 300 x g for 5 min and
the pellets resuspended in 50 µL of Cell-ID™ Cisplatin-195Pt viability reagent (Standard
BioTools, San Francisco, USA), and incubated at room temperature for 2 min. Cells were
washed twice in Maxpar® Cell Staining Buffer (Standard BioTools, San Francisco, USA),
and centrifuged at 300 x g at room temperature for 5 min. The CD16/CD32 receptors
were then blocked by incubating with a 1/50 dilution of TruStain FcX™ (BioLegend, San
Diego, USA) in PBS at room temperature for 15 min. An antibody cocktail was prepared
from the Maxpar® Mouse Sp/LN Phenotyping Panel Kit (Standard BioTools, San
Francisco, USA), with and additional antibody against IgM. Cells were incubated with
antibodies for 60 min, on ice before washing 3 times in Maxpar® Cell Staining Buffer
(Standard BioTools, San Francisco, USA) as previously. Following staining, cells were
fixed in 2% paraformaldehyde (PFA) overnight at 4°C. Cells were then washed twice with
1X eBioscience™ Permeabilization Buffer (Invitrogen, Waltham, USA) at 800 x g at room
temperature for 5 min. The pellets were resuspended in intracellular antibody cocktail
and incubated at room temperature for 45 min. Cells were washed 3 times in Maxpar®
Cell Staining Buffer (Standard BioTools, San Francisco, USA) at 800 x g. The cells were
then resuspended in 4% PFA at room temperature for 15 min, before collecting the cells
at 800 x g and resuspending in Cell-ID™ Intercalator-Ir (Standard BioTools, San
Francisco, USA). Finally, the cells were barcoded by transferring the stained cells to a
fresh tube containing 2 µL of palladium barcode from the Cell-ID™ 20-Plex Pd Barcoding
Kit (Standard BioTools, San Francisco, USA). Cells were then frozen in a freezing
solution (90% FBS and 10% DMSO), before shipping to the Flow Cytometry Core Facility
at the University of Manchester for data acquisition. Sample analysis was conducted
using Cytobank and custom-built, python-based analysis scripts developed in house
(**S1B and 1C Figure for QC results**). The antibodies used for labelling were as follow
(Standard Biotools, cat No. 201306): Ly6G/C [Gr1] (141^{Pr}, clone RB6-8C5, 1/100), CD11c
(142^{Nd}, clone N418, 1/100), CD69 (145^{Nd}, clone H1.2F3, 1/100), CD45 (147^{Sm}, clone 30-F11,
1/200), CD11b (148^{Nd}, clone M1/70, 1/100), CD19 (149^{Sm}, clone 6D5, 1/100), CD3e (152^{Sm}, clone
145-2C11, 1/100), TCRβ (169^{Tm}, clone H57-597, 1/100), CD44 (171^{Yb}, clone IM7, 1/100), CD4
(172^{Yb}, clone RM4-5, 1/100), IgM (151^{Eu}, clone RMM-1, 1/100), IFNγ (165^{Ho}, clone XMG1.2,
1/100).
Single cell transcriptomics analysis of murine meninges

The single cell suspension obtained from murine meninges after the CD45-PE depletion

step was diluted to ~1,000 cells/μl (in 1X phosphate buffered saline supplemented with

0.04% BSA) and kept on ice until single-cell capture using the 10X Chromium platform.

The single cell suspensions were loaded onto independent single channels of a

Chromium Controller (10X Genomics) single-cell platform. Briefly, ~25,000 single cells

were loaded for capture using 10X Chromium NextGEM Single cell 3 Reagent kit v3.1

(10X Genomics). Following capture and lysis, complementary DNA was synthesized and

amplified (12 cycles) as per the manufacturer's protocol (10X Genomics). The final library

preparation was carried out as recommended by the manufacturer with a total of 14

cycles of amplification. The amplified cDNA was used as input to construct an Illumina

sequencing library and sequenced on a Novaseq 6000 sequencers by Glasgow

polyomics.

Read mapping, data processing, and integration. For FASTQ generation and

alignments, Illumina basecall files (*.bcl) were converted to FASTQs using bcl2fastq.

Gene counts were generated using Cell Ranger v.6.0.0 pipeline against a combined *Mus*

musculus (mm10) and *Trypanosoma brucei* (TREU927) transcriptome reference. After

alignment, reads were grouped based on barcode sequences and demultiplexed using

the Unique Molecular Identifiers (UMIs). The mouse-specific digital expression matrices

(DEMs) from all six samples were processed using the R (v4.1.0) package Seurat

v4.1.0[38]. Additional packages used for scRNAseq analysis included dplyr v1.0.7,

RColorBrewer v1.1.2 (http://colorbrewer.org), ggplot v3.3.5, and sctransform v0.3.3[39].

We initially captured 20,621 cells mapping specifically against the *M. musculus* genome

across all conditions and biological replicates, with an average of 30,407 reads/cell and

a median of ~841 genes/cell (**S1 Table and S1D Figure**). The number of UMIs was then

counted for each gene in each cell to generate the digital expression matrix (DEM). Low

quality cells were identified according to the following criteria and filtered out: *i*) nFeature

<200 or >4,000 genes, *ii*) nCounts <200 or >4,000 reads, *iii*) >20% reads mapping to

mitochondrial genes, and *iv*) >40% reads mapping to ribosomal genes, v) genes detected

< 3 cells. After applying this cut-off, we obtained a total of 19,690 high quality mouse-

specific cells with an average of 950 genes/cell (**S1 Table and S1D Figure**). High-quality

cells were then normalised using the *SCTransform* function, regressing out for total UMI

and genes counts, cell cycle genes, and highly variable genes identified by both Seurat

and Scater packages, followed by data integration using *IntegrateData* and

FindIntegrationAnchors. For this, the number of principal components were chosen using

the elbow point in a plot ranking principal components and the percentage of variance

explained (30 dimensions) using a total of 5,000 genes, and SCT as normalisation

method.

Cluster analysis, marker gene identification, sub-clustering, and cell-cell

interaction analyses. The integrated dataset was then analysed using *RunUMAP* (10

dimensions), followed by *FindNeighbors* (10 dimensions, reduction = "pca") and

FindClusters (resolution = 0.7). The resolution was chosen based on in silico analysis

using *Clustree*[40] (**S1E Figure**). With this approach, we identified a total of 19 cell clusters

The cluster markers were then found using the *FindAllMarkers* function (logfc.threshold

= 0.25, assay = "RNA"). To identify cell identity confidently, we employed a supervised

approach. This required the manual inspection of the marker gene list followed by and

assignment of cell identity based on the expression of putative marker genes expressed

in the unidentified clusters. This was particularly relevant for immune cells detected in our

dataset that were not found in the reference atlases used for mapping. A cluster name

denoted by a single marker gene indicates that the chosen candidate gene is selectively

and robustly expressed by a single cell cluster and is sufficient to define that cluster (e.g.,

Cd79a, Cd4, C1qa, Cldn5, among others). When manually inspecting the gene markers

for the final cell types identified in our dataset, we noted the co-occurrence of genes that

could discriminate two or more cell types (e.g., DCs, mononuclear phagocytes,

fibroblasts). To increase the resolution of our clusters to help resolve potential mixed cell

populations embedded within a single cluster and, we subset fibroblasts, DCs, and

mononuclear phagocytes and analysed them individually using the same functions

described above. In all cases, upon subsetting, the resulting objects were reprocessed

using the functions *FindVariableFeatures, RunUMAP, FindNeighbors*, and *FindClusters*

with default parameters. The number of dimensions used in each cased varied depending

on the cell type being analysed but ranged between 5 and 10 dimensions. Cell type-level

differential expression analysis between experimental conditions was conducted using

the *FindMarkers* function (*min.pct* = 0.25, *test.use* = Wilcox) and (*DefaultAssay* = "SCT").

For cell-cell interaction analyses, we used CellPhoneDB[41] and NicheNet[42] with default

parameters using "mouse" as a reference organism, comparing differentially expressed

genes between experimental conditions (*condition_oi* = "Infected", *condition_reference* =

"Uninfected"). Pathways analysis for mouse genes were conducted using STRING [26] with

default parameters. Module scoring were calculated using the *AddModuleScore* function

to assign scores to groups of genes of interest (*Ctrl* = 100, *seed* = NULL, *pool* =NULL)*,*
and the scores were then represented in feature plots. This tool measures the average
expression levels of a set of genes, subtracted by the average expression of randomly
selected control genes. The complete gene list used for module scoring derived from
previous publications[25] or from the MatrisomeDB[43]. Once defined, the collated gene list
was used to build the module scoring. Raw data and scripts used for data analysis will
be made publicly available after peer review.

Whole mount meningeal preparation and immunofluorescence. After euthanasia,
the skull caps were carefully removed using fine tweezers and scissors and placed
immediately in 10% neutral buffered Formalin (NFB) for 10 minutes at room temperature.
Coronal brain sections were also fixed as above, embedded in paraffin, and processed
for Luxol Fast blue used as a proxy to measure the levels of myelin. Following fixation of
the skull caps, for immunofluorescence staining, the meninges were detached from the
skull caps using a stereotactic microscope and kept at 4°C in 1X PBS containing 0.025%
sodium azide until imaging (no longer than one week). For histological analysis, the dura
meninges were left attached to the skull and the samples were decalcified prior to
embedding in paraffin using neutral EDTA. 2-3 μm skull sections were then prepared for
in situ hybridisation experiments or for Masson's trichrome staining. For
immunofluorescence staining, sections were blocked with blocking buffer (1X PBS
supplemented with 5% foetal calf serum and 0.2% Tween 20) and incubated with the
following primary antibodies at 4°C overnight: REAfinity anti-mouse FITC CD21/35
(Miltenyi, 1:50), rat anti-mouse ER-TR7 (Novus Biologicals, 1:100), REAfinity anti-mouse
PE CD3 (Miltenyi, 1:100), REAfinity anti-mouse APC B220 (Miltenyi, 1:100), anti-mouse
CD138 PE (BD Bioscience, 1:100). For the detection of ER-TR7, we used an anti-rat
antibody coupled with PE (Thermo, 1:500) for 1 hour at room temperature. All the
antibodies were diluted in blocking buffer. Slides were mounted with Vectashield
mounting medium containing DAPI for nuclear labelling (Vector Laboratories) and were
visualized using an Axio Imager 2 (Zeiss). Single molecule fluorescent *in situ*
hybridisation (smFISH) experiments were conducted as follow. Briefly, to prepare tissue
sections for smFISH, infected animals and naïve controls were anesthetized with
isoflurane, decapitated and the skull caps containing the dura mater layer of the
meninges were dissected and place on ice-cold 1X HBSS. The skulls were then fixed
with 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) at 4 °C for 15 min, and then dehydrated in 50, 70 and

100% ethanol. After fixation, the skulls caps were decalcified, cut coronally and

embedded in paraffin. 5 μm skull cap sections were RNAscope 2.5 Assay (Advanced Cell

Diagnostics) was used for all smFISH experiments according to the manufacturer's

protocols. We used RNAscope probes against mouse *Rarres2* on channel 1 (Cat No.

572581), *Cxcl13* on channel 2 (Cat. No. 406311-C2), and Ly6a on channel 3 (Cat. No

427571-C3). All RNAscope smFISH probes were designed and validated by Advanced

Cell Diagnostics. For image acquisition, 16-bit laser scanning confocal images were

acquired with a 63x/1.4 plan-apochromat objective using an LSM 710 confocal

microscope fitted with a 32-channel spectral detector (Carl Zeiss). Lasers of 405nm,

488nm and 633 nm excited all fluorophores simultaneously with corresponding beam

splitters of 405nm and 488/561/633nm in the light path. 9.7nm binned images with a pixel

size of 0.07um x 0.07um were captured using the 32-channel spectral array in Lambda

mode. Single fluorophore reference images were acquired for each fluorophore and the

reference spectra were employed to unmix the multiplex images using the Zeiss online

fingerprinting mode. All fluorescent images were acquired with minor contrast

adjustments where needed, and converted to grayscale, to maintain image consistency.

Flow cytometry analysis and *ex vivo* stimulation of meningeal-dwelling T cells. To

discriminate circulating versus brain-resident immune cells, we performed intravascular

staining of peripheral CD45^{+} immune cells, as previously reported[37]. Briefly, a total of 2

μg of anti-CD45-APC-Cy7 antibody (clone 30-F11, in 100 μl of 1X PBS) was injected

intravenously ~3 minutes prior culling. Mice were euthanised as described above and

transcardially perfused with ice-cold 0.025% (wt/vol) EDTA in 1X PBS. Whole meninges

were enzymatically digested with Collagenase P (1 mg/ml) and DNAse I (1 mg/ml; Sigma)

in 1X PBS (HSBB) (Invitrogen) for ~30 min at 37 °C, according to previously published

protocols[44]. Single-cell suspensions were passed through 70 μm nylon mesh filters to

remove any cell aggregates. The cell suspension was cleaned up and separated from

myelin debris using a Percoll gradient. The resulting fraction was then gently harvested

and used as input for *ex vivo* T cell stimulation or used as input for downstream flow

cytometry analysis. Briefly, the resulting cell fraction was diluted to a final density of

~1x10^6 cells/ml and seeded on a 96 well plate and stimulated with 1X cell Stimulation

cocktail containing phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate (PMA), Ionomycin, and Brefeldin A

(eBioSciences™) for 5 hours at 37°C and 5% CO_2. Upon stimulation, the cells were

analysed for the expression of IL-21 and PD-1.

For flow cytometry analysis, meningeal single cell suspensions were resuspended in ice-
cold FACS buffer (2 mM EDTA, 5 U/ml DNAse I, 25 mM HEPES and 2.5% Foetal calf
serum (FCS) in 1X PBS) and stained for extracellular markers. The list of flow cytometry
antibodies used in this study were obtained from Biolegend and are presented in the table
below. Samples were run on a flow cytometer LSRFortessa (BD Biosciences) and
analysed using FlowJo software version 10 (Treestar). For intracellular staining, single-
cell isolates from brain were stimulated as above in Iscove's modified Dulbecco's media
(supplemented with 1X non-essential amino acids, 50 U/ml penicillin,
50 μg/ml streptomycin, 50 μM β-mercaptoethanol, 1 mM sodium pyruvate and 10% FBS.
Gibco). Cells were then permeabilized with a Foxp3/Transcription Factor Staining Buffer
Set (eBioscience) and stained for 30 min at 4 °C. The anti-mouse GP38 (1:100) and the
LTβ (monoclonal antibody BBF6[45]; 10 μg/ml) antibodies were kindly provided by Dr. Lalit
Kumar Dubey (QMUL). For the detection of LTβ in CD4$^+$ T cells, we used a goat anti-
hamster (Armenian) IgG coupled to FITC as secondary antibody (Biolegend; 1:200). For
the detection of GP38 we used a Syrian hamster-anti mouse GP38 followed by anti-
Syrian hamster secondary antibody coupled to APC/alexa647 (Jackson
ImmunoResearch; 1:100). We used the following commercially available antibodies from
Biolegend: CD45-APC-Cy7 (clone 30-F11, 2 μg/100 μl 1X PBS i.v.), TER-119-APC-Cy7
(clone TER-119; 1/400), CD19-APC-Cy7 (clone 1D3/CD19; 1/400), F4/80-APC-Cy7
(clone BM8; 1/400), F4/80-PE Dazzle 594 (clone BM8; 1/400), CD3-APC (clone 17A2;
1/400), CD4-FITC (clone GK1.5; 1/400), PD1-BV711 (clone 29F.1A12; 1/400), CXCR5-
BV421 (clone L138D7; 1/200), IL-21-PE (clone 3A3-N2; 1/200), CD45-BV711 (clone 30-
F11; 1/400), CD31-BV421 (clone 8.1.1; 1/100), CD21/35-PE Dazzle 594 (clone 7E9;
1/100), MAdCAM-1-Alexa Fluor 488 (clone MECA-367; 1/100), CD19- Alexa Fluor 488
(clone 6D5; 1/400), CD138-PE (clone 281-2; 1/200), IgG-BV421 (clone Poly4053; 1/200),
IgM-BV711 (clone RMM-1; 1/200), CD8a-BV421 (clone QA17A07; 1/400), I-A/I-E-PerCP-
Cy5.5 (clone M5/114.15.2; 1/400)

ELISPOT assays

ELISPOT tests to measure *ex vivo* the frequency of meningeal antibody secreting cells
(ASCs) was performed using the ELISpot Flex IgM- and IgG-HRP (Mabtech) as followed.
After generating single cell suspensions from meningeal preparations, a total of 50,000
cells per well were seeded on 96-wells multiscreen-HA filter plates (Millipore) coated with
50 μg/ml of either whole *T. brucei*, prepared in house, or mouse brain lysate (Novus

Biologicals) to determine the presence of *T. brucei*- and mouse brain-reactive antibody

secreting cells, respectively. Wells coated with 50 μg/ml BSA (Sigma) were also included

as negative controls. After seeding the cells, the plates were incubated for 16 hours at

37°C, and 5%CO_2 covered in foil to avoid evaporation. In parallel, plates coated with 15

μg/ml affinity-purified goat anti-mouse IgM and IgG were also analysed in parallel to

measure the frequency of total IgM and IgG ASCs. For this, we used a total of 25,000

cells per well and incubated as before. Spots were enumerated with an Immunospot

analyser (CTL, Germany).

Detection of autoreactive IgM and IgG by ELISA

Serum samples from naïve and infected animals at 30 days post-infection were used to

examine the presence of mouse brain lysate-specific IgM and IgG using a colorimetric

approach. For this purpose, polysorb ELISA plates (Biolegend) were coated overnight

with 50 μg/ml either *T. brucei* Antat 1.1E whole cell lysate prepared in house, or mouse

brain lysate (Novus Biologicals) in 1X coating buffer (Biolegend). After extensive washes

with 1X ELISA washing buffer (Biolegend), total mouse IgM or IgG were detected in

mouse serum (1:50 to 1:10,000 dilution in 1X PBS) or human CSF (1:400 in 1X PBS) by

using Horseradish peroxidase-conjugated antibodies specific for mouse IgM (Thermo) or

IgG (all isotypes; Sigma) using the recommended concentrations, and the resulting

absorbance was detected at 450 nm using an ELISA Multiskan plate reader (Thermo).

Detection of host antigens detected by autoantigens

Blood samples were collected by cardiac puncture from naïve mice (*n* = 3 mice) or at

30dpi (*n* = 3 mice) were and place on EDTA tubes, from which serum was obtained. In

parallel, we screened CSF samples collected from 1st stage sleeping sickness patients

(*n* = 3 patients) and 2nd stage patients (*n* = 4 patients). Due to ethical constraints, we did

not have access to CSF samples from African healthy donors. Therefore, we obtained

CSF samples from healthy Caucasian donors (*n* = 2 donors) from the University of

Edinburgh Brain and Tissue Bank. Autoantibodies were assessed using a commercial

microarray-based platform (GeneCopoeia). Briefly, mouse serum or human CSF

samples were hybridised to distinct microarray spots containing 120 native host and viral

antigens spotted onto nitrocellulose fibers (adhered to glass slides). Next, the slides were

incubated with fluorescently-coupled anti-IgG or anti-IgM secondary antibodies, and

microarrays were scanned using a GenePix 4400A microarray scanner. Raw

fluorescence data was normalized to PBS controls on each slide. The data presented in
the heatmaps are normalised signal-to-noise ratios.

Data availability

The transcriptome data generated in this study have been deposited in the Gene
Expression Omnibus (GSE229436; Reviewer's token: mzitckmgbtmtxqz). The processed
transcript count data and cell metadata generated in this study, as well as the code for
analysis, are available at Zenodo (https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7814657). Additional
data and files can also be sourced via Supplementary Tables.

Code availability

The processed transcript count data and cell metadata generated in this study, as well
as the code for analysis, are available at Zenodo (DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.7814657).

Statistical analysis

All statistical analyses were performed using Graph Prism Version 8.0 for Windows or
macOS, GraphPad Software (La Jolla California USA). The data distribution was
determined by normality testing using the Shapiro-Wilks test. Where indicated, data were
analysed by unpaired Student's t-test, Mann-Whitney test, or one-way analysis of
variance (ANOVA). Data were considered to be significant where $p <0.05$. For the *in vivo*
experiments, we matched sex and age of the mice in experimental batches using a block
design including randomisation of experimental units. Data collection and analysis were
not performed blindly to the conditions of the experiment due to the specific requirements
of the UK Home Office project licence.

Results

The murine meninges are colonised by a diversity of immune cells during chronic *T. brucei* infection

We and others have shown an increase in meningeal infiltration and meningitis during the chronic stage (25dpi onwards) in experimental infections with *T. brucei*[10,13]. Previous studies have shown that mouse meninges are colonised by CD2$^+$ T cells and CD11c$^+$ dendritic cells (DCs) during chronic *T. brucei* infection[9], although a catalogue of the immune interactions spanning beyond these compartments is lacking. To fill this gap in knowledge, we used an integrative multi-omics approach that combined CyTOF and 10X Chromium single cell transcriptomics (**Figure 1A**) to understand the complexity of the immune interactions taking place in the meningeal space during chronic *T. brucei* infection. In addition to unbiasedly cataloguing the cells involved in this process, this approach also allowed us to identify transcriptional pathways involved in the anti-parasitic responses in the meninges with as much resolution as possible. We focussed on characterising the dura mater as this has been previously shown to contain the vast majority of the meningeal CD45$^+$ immune cells[42], as well as parasites during the chronic stages of the infection[9]. To ensure we captured the diversity of resident immune cells and meningeal stroma with as much confidence as possible, we selectively removed all circulating CD45$^+$ immune cells using a magnetic sorting approach (**Figure 1A and S1A Figure**). In brief, we labelled circulating CD45$^+$ cells by intravenous injection with an anti-CD45$^+$ antibody coupled to phycoerythrin (PE). All the circulating CD45$^+$ were then isolated using an anti-PE antibody coupled to magnetic beads. After extensive perfusion, the remaining circulating (PE$^+$ cells) cells were removed leaving behind resident CD45$^+$ cells (PE$^-$ cells), as well as stromal cells, including fibroblasts and cells associated with the vasculature and the lymphatic system.

Firstly, we decided to explore the broad immunological landscape in the meninges of mice at 30dpi, when infection in the CNS is well established[9–13]. For this reason and given the scarcity of cells typically obtained from the meninges, CyTOF was used as this approach enables detection of a wide range of cell types. Our CyTOF data was composed of T cells (CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$ T cells, including IFNγ^+ subsets, NK and $\gamma\delta$ T cells), B cells (including IgM^{High} B cells and CD11c$^+$ B cells), and myeloid cells including neutrophils and macrophages (**Figure 1B-D, S1B and S1C Figure**), consistent with previous work[2]. Overall, we detected a significant increase in the number of CD45$^+$ cells

(**Figure 1E**), and an increased in number of the various immune subsets in the murine

meninges at 30dpi compared to naïve controls (**Figure 1F**), without noticeable changes

in cell frequency **(Figure 1G)**. Together, these data suggested the expansion and/or

recruitment of resident immune cells into the meninges in response to infection.

To gain an understanding of the transcriptional responses triggered in the meninges in

response to infection, and to identify potential interactions between various meningeal

cells during infection, we performed single cell RNA sequencing of meningeal

preparations from mice at 30 dpi (*n* = 2 pools; 2 mice/pool) and naive controls (*n* = 2

pools; 2 mice/pool). Using this approach and after removing cells catalogued as low

quality (**Materials and Methods**), we obtained a total of 19,690 high quality cells, from

which 1,834 cells derived from naïve meninges and 17,856 cells from infected meninges,

with an average of 605 genes per cell from naïve samples and 1,297 genes per cell from

infected samples (**Figure 2A, Figure S1D and S1E, and Materials and Methods**). As

expected, our single cell meningeal atlas encompasses stromal and immune cells, most

of which have previously been reported in the murine meninges[2,46]. Within the stromal

compartment, we identified two populations of *Col1a1*+ fibroblasts, *Ccl19*+ *Rarres2*+ mural

cells, and *Wvf*+ *Pecam1*+ endothelial cells (**Figure 2A and 2B**). Within the immune

compartment, we identified five populations of mononuclear phagocytes (MNPs 1 to 5),

characterised by the expression of putative myeloid cell markers genes such as *Ccl8,*

C1qa, Aif1, Adgre1 and *Cd14*, amongst others, as well as conventional DCs (cDCs; *Xcr1,*

Zbtb46, Clec9a, Flt3 and *Itgae*) (**Figure 2A and 2B**)**.** Additionally, we also detected T

cells (*Trac, Cd3g, Cd3e, Cd4, Icos, Cd8a, Gzmb, Gzmk*), granulocytes, including

S100a8+ *Ngp*+ *Cd177*+ neutrophils, and two populations of B cells (*Cd79a, Cd79b*) that

expressed markers of canonical plasma cell markers (e.g., *Sdc1*) (**Figure 2A and 2B**)**.**

Lastly, we detected a small proportion of cells (<0.5%) with high expression levels of

haemoglobin (*Hba-a1, Hbb-bt*) and genes typically related to neurons (*Neurod1,*

Neurod4) (**Figure 2A, 2B, and S2 Table**). Notably, we observed a robust increase in the

frequency of most of the cells within the immune compartment (**Figure 2C**) consistent

with the CyTOF dataset. Together, these analyses are consistent with profound

alterations in the cellular makeup of the murine meninges during chronic *T. brucei*

infection.

Meningeal *Rarres2*+ *Ly6a*+ fibroblasts acquire lymphoid tissue stroma-like

properties during chronic *T. brucei* infection.

Next, we focussed on the meningeal fibroblasts. The meningeal fibroblasts are a heterogeneous cell population encompassing transcriptionally, spatially, and potentially functionally distinct units critical for meningeal immunity[47–50], but their responses to chronic protozoan infections remains to be elucidated. Therefore, we first asked whether the three fibroblast clusters (Fibroblast 1, Fibroblast 2, and mural cells) identified in figure 2 contained discreet clusters of cell populations that were not resolved by the top-level clustering. After sub-clustering, we identified 2,088 cells (547 and 1,541 cells from naïve and infected meningeal preparations, respectively), distributed across eight discrete subsets (**Figure 3A**). These clusters expressed marker genes putatively associated with fibroblasts from the dura mater, including *Mgp, Gja1, Fxyd5 and Col18a1* (**Figure 3B**)[48], but low or undetectable levels of markers proposed to be associated with arachnoid mater fibroblasts (e.g, *Clnd11, Tbx18, Tagln*) or pia mater (e.g., *Lama2, S100a6, Ngfr*) (**Figure 3B**)[48]. These observations suggested that the majority of the fibroblasts within our dataset were likely to be derived from the dura mater layer of the meninges[51]. These fibroblast clusters also expressed *Col1a1, Col1a2, Pdgfra* and *Pdgfrb* to various degrees but lacked *Pecam1* (encoding for CD31), suggesting that these cells are of mesenchymal origin rather than endothelial[50,51] (**Figure 3C**). Furthermore, cells within clusters 0 to 5 expressed *Rarres2*, suggesting that these are meningeal pericyte-like fibroblasts[50], in addition to *Ly6a* (which encodes for the Stem Cell antigen-1, *Sca1*) (**Figure 3C**), suggesting they are likely to retain progenitor properties[50]. We thus classified these cells as *Ly6a+* fibroblasts (**Figure 3A to 3C**). Clusters 0 to 3 also expressed *Pdpn*, which encodes for GP38, and *Col6a2*, which is recognised by the antibody ER-TR7[52], and were thus defined as fibroblast reticular cells (FRCs)-like *Ly6a+* fibroblasts 1 to 4 (**Figure 3C**). Cells within cluster 4 expressed high levels of the antioxidant protein Fth1 in addition to *Rarres2* and *Ly6a* and were labelled as *Fth1+ Ly6a+* fibroblasts (**Figure 3C**). Cells within cluster 5 also expressed *Ccl19* and *Aldh1a2,* recently shown to be associated with lymphoid stroma in the milky spots[53], in addition to *Ly6a*, and were thus classified as *Aldh1a2+ Ccl19+* fibroblasts (**Figure 3C**). Cells within cluster 6 expressed high levels of *Acta2* (which encodes for α-smooth muscle actin), as well as *Tnn, Postn*, and *Mmp13*, and were thus classified as myofibroblasts[50]. Lastly, cells within cluster 7 expressed *Slc38a2* and *Slc47a1*, consistent with the phenotype of dura and leptomeningeal fibroblasts[54,55,56] recently reported to be enriched in several transporters, and were thus assigned as *Ly6a-* dura fibroblasts (**Figure 3C**).

We also found heterogeneous responses to infection within the meningeal fibroblast
subset, including cells that display features of FRC and B cell zone reticular cells (BCRs)
in response to infection. Cells within cluster 0, 1, 2, 3, and to a lesser extent cells within
cluster 5 upregulated genes associated with FRCs[57] in response to infection, including
Pdpn, Pdgfra, Pdgrfb, Vim, and *Col6a3*, as well as secreted factors such as *Vefga* and
Tnfsf13b (encoding for BAFF) (**S3A Figure**). Cells within clusters 3, 5, and 6 upregulated
genes associated with BRCs[58] during infection, including *Cxcl13* (Cluster 5), *Itga7, Ltbr*
(cluster 5 and 6)*, Madcam1* (cluster 5), *Cr2* (cluster 3 and 6)*,* and *Tnfsf11* (encoding for
RANKL) in cluster 3 (**Figure 3C and S3B Figure**). Based on the expression pattern
observed across the fibroblast subset in response to infection, we catalogued clusters 0,
1, 2, and 3 as FRC-like cells, and cells within clusters 5 and 6 as BRC-like cells (**S3C
Figure**). Lastly, cells within cluster 2, described as a mature population of pericytes, were
exclusively detected in the infected meninges and were characterised by the expression
of genes associated with blood vessel development (*Fgfr, Thbs1, Fgf2*), as well as
leukocyte chemotaxis and myeloid differentiation (*Cxcl19*) (**Figure 3C and S3 Table**),
suggesting *de novo* expansion in response to infection. Additionally, all of the FRC-like
pericytes are predicted to be involved in extracellular matrix (ECM) remodelling in the
meninges, including collagen and proteoglycan deposition, as well as secretion of factors
involved in ECM production, as demonstrated by module scoring analysis using the
MatrisomeDB database[43] (**Figure S3D Figure**), which encompasses a curated proteomic
dataset of ECM derived from a wide range of murine tissues. Consistent with these *in
silico* predictions, we observed a consistent pattern of fibroblastic reactions and collage
deposition in the dura meninges from infected mice compared to naïve controls (**S3E
Figure**), further indicating an extensive meningeal ECM remodelling triggered in
response to infection.
Our results so far indicate that the dura mater layer of the meninges contains a diverse
population of stromal cells, including GP38$^+$ and GP38$^-$ stromal cells that resemble the
stroma of other lymphoid tissues and ECM remodelling. Consistent with our scRNAseq
data, using flow cytometry, we observed a significant expansion of GP38$^+$ FRCs, and a
distinctive population of MAdCAM1$^+$ CD21/CD35$^+$ cells indicative of the presence of
FDC-like cells in the infected murine meninges compared to naïve controls (**Figure 3E-
F; Gating strategy in 2A Figure**), without significant changes in the lymphatic
endothelial cells (LECs) or blood endothelial cells (BECs) (**Figure 3E-F**). Furthermore,
using module scoring analysis, which allows us to assess global gene signatures

associated with a gene set or pathway (in this case, ectopic lymphoid tissue signatures),

we were able to identify that cells within cluster 5 were enriched for genes associated

with FDC-like function and stromal lymphoid tissues, including *Ccl19 and Cxcl13*,

compared to the other fibroblast clusters (**Figure 3H**), and may be derived from *Ly6a*^{+}

pericytes with a precursor capacity as previously reported[59,60]. Indeed, using *in situ*

hybridisation on independent tissue sections, we were able to confirm the presence of

Ly6a[+] *Rarres2*^{+} cells that expressed *Cxcl13*^{+} during infection (**Figure 3I**). Together, our

data demonstrate the presence of a rich diverse fibroblast population, encompassing

Ly6a[+] *Rarres2*^{+} FRC-like pericytes, including *Aldh1a2*[+] *Ccl19*^{+} FRC-like pericytes,

myofibroblasts, *Fth1*^{+} fibroblasts, and perivascular dura fibroblasts. Our data also

suggests that chronic *T. brucei* infection induces an extensive remodelling of the

meningeal stroma compartment, resulting in the expansion of FRCs and FDC-like cells

without significant changes in the vasculature (LECs and BECs).

Meningeal mononuclear phagocytes are predicted to be involved in antigenic

presentation and chemotaxis during chronic *T. brucei* infection

The cells within the myeloid compartment in the murine meninges act as a critical first

line of defence against insults and were clearly expanded during the chronic stage of the

infection (**Figure 1 and 2**). To resolve the mononuclear phagocyte (MNPs) compartment

in more detail, we analysed these populations individually. In total, we obtained 10,760

cells organised into five major clusters: cluster 0 (33.8%), cluster 1 (25.04%), cluster 2

(19.7%), cluster 3 (13.4%), and cluster 4 (8.10%) (**Figure 4A**). Since clusters 0 and 2

expressed high levels of *Mrc1* (encoding for CD206) and the anti-inflammatory molecule

Il18bp, and *Siglec1* (encoding for CD169), we labelled these clusters as *Cd206*^{+} border-

associated macrophages (BAMs) (**Figure 4B and S4 Table**). Clusters 1 and 3 contained

the immune sensors *Cd14* and *Tlr2*, in addition to *Mertk, Adgre1*, and *Ly6c2*. We

therefore labelled these clusters as monocyte-derived macrophages (MDMs). Lastly,

cells within cluster 4 expressed high levels of mitochondrial-associated transcripts (e.g.,

mt-Co1, mt-Co2, mt-Atp6), in addition *Itgal, Sirpa, Cd274, Nfkbia, Sell*, and *Cd44* (**Figure**

4B and S4 Table), and were labelled as metabolically active mononuclear phagocytes

(maMNPs) (**Figure 4A and B**). We also observed that *Cd206*^{+} BAMs and cells within the

MDMs 1 cluster expressed high levels of *H2-Aa, Sirpa, Csf1r, Cxcl16,* and *Adgre1,* which

encodes for F4/80[61] (**Figure 4B and S4 Table**). Under homeostatic conditions, the

murine meninges were dominated by *Cd206*^{+} BAMs, in agreement with previous reports[62]

(**Figure 4C**). However, during infection, there was a significant expansion of MDMs

(**Figure 4C**), suggesting that the murine meninges were populated by circulating
monocytes during chronic *T. brucei* infection, consistent with previous reports[10]. Cell-cell
interaction analyses predicted that meningeal MNPs establish significant interactions with
other cell types, including T cells, *via* antigenic presentation (**Figure 4D to 4F**), likely
driving T cell activation locally, as previously proposed[2,10]. Consistent with our *in silico*
predictions, based on the expression level of F4/80, we identified two populations of
CD11b^{+} myeloid cells, that we defined as CD11b^{+} F4/80^{high} (resembling *Cd206*^{+} BAMs
and MDMs 1) and CD11b^{+} F4/80^{low} (resembling MDMs 2 and maMNPs) (**Figure 4B, 4G,**
and 4H). During infection, there was a significant increase in the frequency of CD11b^{+}
F4/80^{low} MNPs, whereas the CD11b^{+} F4/80^{high} MNPs population decreased in frequency
(**Figure 4G and 4H; Gating strategy in S2B Figure**). However, in both cases, we noted
a significant increase in the expression of MHC-II in both CD11b^{+} F4/80^{high} and CD11b^{+}
F4/80^{low} MNPs (**Figure 4G and 4H**). Together, our results indicate that the resident
population of meningeal myeloid cells expand upon infection (e.g., either as a result of
local myeloid proliferation or *via* the recruitment of monocytes to the meningeal space)
likely driving both cell recruitment *via* chemotaxis and antigen presentation to CD4^{+} T
cells. Our data are consistent with and complementary to independent reports focusing
on the ontogeny and dynamics of BAMs and MNPs under homeostasis[2] and during the
onset and resolution of *T. brucei* infection[10].

The murine meninges contain T$_{FH}$-like cells during chronic *T. brucei* infection
The accumulation of inflammatory T cell subsets in the meninges has been reported in
CNS infections with *T. brucei*[9], but their features and effector functions remain
unresolved. Our top level single cell analysis identified three discreet T cell clusters based
on the expression of *Trac, Cd3e, Cd3g, Cd4*, and *Cd8a* (**Figure 2A**). To resolve the
meningeal T cell compartment in more detail, we re-clustered the T cells and repeated
the dimensionality reduction analysis. Within the resident meningeal T cell compartment,
we identified four main transcriptional clusters, characterised by the expression of *Trbc1,*
Cd4 (cluster 0, 1, and 2), and *Cd8a* (cluster 3) (**Figure 5A and 5B, and and S5 Table**).
Several of the genes observed in the CD4^{+} T cells were putatively associated with a T$_{FH}$
like phenotype, including *Icos, Pdcd1* (encoding for PD-1), *Cxcr4, Ctla4, Maf, Nr4a1,*
Csf1, Tox2, Cxcr5, Bcl6, as well as the cytokines *Ifng* and *Il21* (**Figure 5B and 5C**). To
confirm this, we first examined the presence of T$_{FH}$-like T cells in the meninges *in vivo*
using flow cytometry. Consistent with our *in silico* predictions, we detected a significant
increase in the frequency of resident CXCR5^{+} PD1^{+} CD4^{+} T cells in the murine meninges

in response to chronic *T. brucei* infection compared to naïve controls (**Figure 5D and 5E;**

Gating strategy in S2C Figure). Furthermore, *ex vivo* stimulation assays demonstrated

that chronic *T. brucei* infection results in a significant expansion of meningeal PD1$^+$ CD4$^+$

T that express IL-21 compared to naïve controls (**Figure 5F and 5G**), further indicating

their T$_{FH}$-like phenotype.

Our data so far also indicate that meningeal ecosystems promote T cell activation *via*

antigen presentation (**Figure 4D**). Indeed, both our *in silico* prediction and flow cytometry

experiments demonstrated an expansion of CD69$^+$ CD4$^+$ T cells in the infected meninges

compared to naïve controls (**Figure 5B, 5H, and 5I**), strongly suggesting local activation.

To examine whether meningeal T cells were activated *in situ* during infection, we initially

utilised Nur77^{GFP} reporter mice[63]. In this model, GFP expression is used as a proxy for

MHC-dependent TCR engagement resulting in T cell activation[63]. We observed a

significant increase in the frequency of *Nur77*-GFP$^+$ CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$ T cells (**Figure 5J,**

5K; Gating strategy in S2C Figure), indicating local T cell activation within the murine

meninges. To further resolve whether T cell activation occurs *in situ*, we used the newly

reported *Nur77*^{Tempo} mice, a novel murine reporter line in which the expression of a

fluorescent timer (FT) protein is driven by *Nur77* expression[64,65]. This model enabled the

discrimination of newly activated (FT blue$^+$), persistent (FT blue$^+$ red$^+$), and arrested (FT

red$^+$) T cells based on MHC-dependent TCR engagement[64,65]. We observed a significant

increase in the frequency of newly activated and persistent CD4$^+$ T cells, and a

concomitant reduction in the frequency of arrested CD4$^+$ T cells in the meninges in

response to infection compared to naïve controls (**Figure 5L and 5M**), indicating that

most CD4$^+$ T cells are actively partaking in the local immune response, likely via antigenic

presentation. We also observed a significant increase in the frequency of newly activated

meningeal CD8$^+$ T cells, but a reduction in both persistent and arrested CD8$^+$ T cells,

perhaps indicating that the CD8$^+$ T cell responses are transitory (**S4A and S4B Figure**).

This pattern of local T cell activation was also detected in the CD69$^+$ CD4$^+$ T cells, in

which we detected a higher frequency of newly activated CD69$^+$ CD4$^+$ T cells and less of

arrested CD69$^+$ CD4$^+$ T cells (**S4C and S4D Figure),** altogether indicating the meningeal

T cells are newly activated in the meninges *in situ*. These observations are consistent

with previous studies showing that CD4$^+$ T cells actively patrol the meningeal landscape[2].

Taken together, these results demonstrate that the meningeal CD4$^+$ T cell population

undergoes newly and persistent MHC-dependent TCR engagement in the meninges,

promoting local responses *in situ*, but the CD8$^+$ T cell responses seem more transitory.

These responses are likely to provide all the necessary signals for activation, likely

resulting in T cell differentiation towards the observed a T_{FH}-like phenotype during chronic

T. brucei infection.

The murine meninges contain plasmablasts/plasma cells and GL7+ CD95+ GC-like

B cells during chronic infection

Previous studies have demonstrated that B cells represent a major immune population

in the meninges[42,46], although their dynamics during chronic infection are not yet

understood. We previously observed the expression of *Cxcl12* in dura and arachnoid

meningeal fibroblasts, which is critical for the differentiation and survival of early B cells

in the bone marrow[66,67]. Thus, we next explored the diversity of B cells in our dataset.

The majority of meningeal B cells detected in our dataset derived from the infected

meninges (1,688 cells out of 1,742 total B cells) (**Figure 2**). These cells expressed high

levels of genes associated with plasmablasts and plasma cells such as such as *Jchain*,

Prdm1 (which encodes for BLIMP-1)*, Sdc1* (encoding CD138), *Ighm*, and *Irf4* (**Figure**

6A). Flow cytometry experiments further confirmed that the vast majority of the meningeal

B cells correspond to plasmablasts and plasma cells, and to a lesser extent CD19+ B

cells (**Figure 6B; Gating strategy in S2D Figure**). Some of the marker genes identified

within the B cell clusters, such as *Pcna, Mki67, Ub2c and Ighg2* and *Ighg3*, are typically

associated with cell replication and class-switched B cells (**S2 Table**). These genes are

critical for affinity maturation and class switching during GC reactions[68]. Because the

transcriptional signatures observed within the B cell clusters were consistent with the

presence of extrafollicular GC-like reactions, we next examined this at the protein level.

We first exploited the Nur77[GFP] reporter mouse line to measure BCR engagement within

the meninges. Given that Nur77[GFP] expression in GC B cells is proposed to be markedly

reduced compared to activated B cells *in vivo*[69], and that *Nur77* restrains B cell clonal

dominance during GC reactions[70], this reporter line can be used to examine extrafollicular

GC-like reactions. In line with these studies, we detected significantly fewer GFP+ CD19+

B cells during infection compared to naïve controls (**Figure 6C and 6D, and S2D Figure**),

implying that upon infection, the meningeal B cells undergo GC-like reactions.

Intriguingly, the meningeal B cells also expressed *Cd38* and *Fas* (**Figure 6A**), similar to

dark zone (GFP[low]) GC B cells[69]. Consistent with these observations, we detected a

significant accumulation of GL7+ CD95/Fas+ cells within the CD19+ B cell compartment

(**Figure 6E and 6F**), further corroborating the presence of GC-like B cells in the murine

meninges. Consistent with the GC-like and the transcriptional profile, we observed an

increase in the frequency of IgG⁺ CD19⁺ B cells in the murine meninges at 30dpi compared to naïve controls (**Figure 6G and 6H**). In the spatial context, we observed clusters of CD3⁺ T cells, B220⁺ B cells and CD21/35⁺ FDCs in the murine meninges that were not readily detectable in naïve animals (**Figure 6I and S5 Figure**), suggesting the presence of immunological aggregates similar to those observed in tertiary lymphoid tissues[26,27]. Together, our data indicates the presence of class-switched plasma cells/plasmablasts as well as GC-like CD19⁺ B cells in close proximity to CD3⁺ T cells and CD21⁺/CD35⁺ FDC-like cells in the murine meninges in response to *T. brucei* infection.

***T. brucei* infection results in the accumulation of meningeal autoreactive B cells**

The accumulation of meningeal B cells has been reported in several autoimmune disorders such as neuropsychiatric lupus[25] and multiple sclerosis[28] where they are responsible for the generation of autoantibodies that are linked to the pathology associated with these disorders. However, it is unclear whether chronic *T. brucei* infection also results in the accumulation of autoreactive B cells in the meningeal spaces. We reasoned that in addition to generating B cell clones able to generate antibodies specific to *T. brucei*, these local GC-like reactions taking place within the meningeal space might also result in the development of autoreactive B cells. To directly test this hypothesis, we examined the presence of meningeal resident IgG⁺ antibody secreting cells (ASCs) able to recognise *T. brucei* and mouse brain lysates using ELISpot. We observed a significant accumulation of total IgG⁺ ASCs in the murine meninges (**Figure 7A and 7B**), consistent with our flow cytometry data (**Figure 6G-H**). We also detected a significant accumulation of IgG⁺ ASCs able to recognise *T. brucei* and mouse brain but not BSA (**Figure 7A and 7B**), indicative of the presence of autoreactive ASCs in the murine meninges during infection. Interestingly, splenocytes from animals at 30dpi or naïve controls did not contain autoreactive IgG⁺ ASCs (**S6A Figure**), suggesting that the mouse brain-specific autoreactive ASCs may arise locally within the meninges or within the CNS environment. Histological analysis of the corresponding murine brain sections revealed extensive IgG deposition in the infected brain compared to naïve controls, in particular in the leptomeninges and the cortex (**Figure 7C**). The IgG antibody deposition observed in the cerebral cortex in response to chronic infection was accompanied by a significant demyelination, particularly in the cerebral cortex, internal capsule, and thalamic tracts (**Figure 7D, and S6B and S6C Figure**). Additionally, we detected the presence of high IgM and IgG titres in the serum of infected animals able to react to mouse brain antigens

compared to naïve controls (**Figure 7E**), further corroborating our histological and
ELISpot findings. It is important to note that the binding of circulating IgG antibodies to
the murine brain does not seem to be restricted to areas with high parasite accumulation
(e.g., lateral ventricles) (**Figure 7F**). In humans, in the cerebrospinal fluid of 2nd stage
gambiense HAT patients from North Uganda we observed significant levels of
autoreactive IgM and IgG antibodies able to recognise human brain lysates, but not BSA
(**Figure 7G, and S6 Table**), consistent with our findings in experimental infections. Taken
together, our data suggest that meningeal B cells undergo affinity maturation locally
within the meninges or the CNS space to generate IgG$^+$ ASCs directed against both *T.*
brucei and the mouse brain (and in gambiense HAT patients), is associated with cortical
and white matter demyelination, and results in autoimmunity.

LTβ receptor signalling controls the accumulation of meningeal FDCs and
autoreactive B cells during chronic *T. brucei* infection.

LTβ receptor (LTβR) signalling is critical for the formation, induction, and maintenance of
lymphoid tissues under homeostasis and disease[71–73]. This process requires interactions
between the LTα$_1$β$_2$ heterodimer and its cognate receptor LTβR to induce broad effects
on FDC maintenance, promoting a favourable microenvironment promoting GC reactions
on B cells[71–73]. Furthermore, expression of LTα in the meninges causes *de novo* ectopic
lymphoid tissue formation and neurodegeneration in a model of myelin oligodendrocyte
glycoprotein-induced experimental autoimmune encephalitis[74]. Our data so far indicate
that the murine meninges develop ectopic lymphoid aggregates that display many
features of LTβ-driven lymphoid tissue formation, including the presence of FDCs like
structures, T$_{FH}$ T cells, and GC-like B cells with evidence of somatic hypermutation. Thus,
we hypothesised that LTβR-signalling plays a similar role in the formation of meningeal
lymphoid aggregates and coordinating the meningeal responses to chronic *T. brucei*
infection. The gene which encodes the LTβR, *Ltbr,* was expressed myeloid cells,
endothelial cells, granulocytes, and fibroblasts in the meninges (**Figure 8A**), indicating
that LTβR signalling may occur at multiple levels within the murine meninges. Similarly,
LTβ (encoded by *Ltb*) is primarily expressed by the CD4$^+$ T cell clusters and to a lesser
extent by cDCs, neutrophils, CD8$^+$ T cells, and B cells (**Figure 8A**). Using flow cytometry,
we detected a significant increase in the frequency of CD4$^+$ T cells expressing
LTβ (**Figure 8B and 8C**), consistent with their T$_{FH}$ phenotype[27]. Next, we investigated
the role of LTβR-signalling in the maintenance of local immunological responses within

the meningeal stroma. For this, mice were treated prior and during *T. brucei* infection with

a LTβR-Ig fusion protein to prevent the interaction of the ligands LT$\alpha_1\beta_2$ and LIGHT

(encoded by *Tnfsf14*) with LTβR (**Figure 8D**)[75]. LTβR-Ig treatment resulted in mice

unable to control systemic parasitaemia as efficiently as mice treated with an irrelevant

antibody or untreated mice (**S7A Figure**), and in a worsening in the clinical scoring (**S7B**

Figure), mirroring previous work using *Ltb*$^{-/-}$ mice infected with *T. brucei* in the context of

intradermal infections[76]. Furthermore, LTβR-Ig treatment significantly impaired the

expansion of meningeal FDCs (**Figure 8E and 8F**), and a significant accumulation of

meningeal LECs compared to naïve controls, which can be attributed to changes in

frequencies within other stromal compartments (**Figure 8E and 8F**). Using ELISpot, we

observed that LTβR-Ig treatment significantly impaired the expansion of both IgM$^+$

(**Figure 8G and S7C-E Figure**) and IgG$^+$ ASCs, including *T. brucei-* and mouse brain-

specific ASCs (**Figure 8G**), consistent with a central role for LTβR-signalling in the

formation of B cell follicles and GCs within secondary lymphoid organs and ectopic

lymphoid tissues[59,60,71,76]. Lastly, LTβR-Ig treatment significantly impaired the formation

of perivascular FDC-B cell clusters (**Figure 8H**), consistent with previous reports[59,60], and

prevented the cortical demyelination typically observed in response to chronic infection

(**Figure 8I and S7E Figure**). Together, these data demonstrate that LTβR signalling is

required for stromal responses and B cell accumulation and maturation in the meninges

during infection with *T. brucei*, further highlighting that the meninges depend on classical

lymphoid tissue-associated signalling pathways to coordinate local immune responses to

infections. Furthermore, the fact that LTβR-Ig treatment rescued the cortical

demyelination observed in response to infection suggests that the meningeal ectopic

lymphoid aggregates are indeed pathogenic.

Infection-induced autoantibodies recognise a broad range of host antigens,
including myelin basic protein

Given that our data so far indicate that chronic *T. brucei* infection results in the generation

of autoantibodies, we next decided to examine the nature of antigens recognised by these

autoantibodies. To achieve this, we employed a targeted array of 120 antigens known to

be identified in autoimmune disorders, from systemic lupus erythematous to multiple

sclerosis. Our data indicates that circulating IgG autoantibodies found in infected samples

significantly recognised a total of 18 antigens (15% of the antigen array), including

structural proteins (e.g., collagen VI, vitronectin, nucleolin, Histone H3), cytokines (e.g.,

GM-CSF), components of the complement system (e.g., C3, C1q), intracellular antigens (e.g., ssDNA, ssRNA, mitochondrial antigen), and most importantly myelin basic protein (MBP) (**Figure 9A, S7 Table, and S8A Figure**). To further understand whether the same pattern of autoreactive antibodies is observed in sleeping sickness patients, we screened CSF samples collected from patients during the 1st (haemolymphatic) stage and 2nd (meningoencephalitic) stage. As observed in mice, our results highlighted a broad range of host antigens recognised by IgG autoantibodies in the CSF exclusively detected during the 2nd stage of the disease (**Figure 9B, S7 Table, and S8B Figure**). More specifically, we detected reactivity against 51 antigens (42.5% of the antigen array), including several structural proteins, cytokines (e.g., TGFβ1, TNFα, IL-12, TPO), intracellular antigens (e.g., histones, nucleosome-related proteins, mitochondrial antigen), structural proteins (e.g., collagens, vitronectin), amongst others (**Figure 9B**). Interestingly, as observed in mice, we also detected the presence of autoantigens able to bind host proteins associated with either parasite control or pathology, such as proteins of the complement system (e.g., C1q, C3a) and nervous system-associated proteins (e.g., MBP and muscarinic receptor) (**Figure 9B**). Indeed, a total of 8 antigens (13.1% of the antigen array) were commonly identified by autoreactive antibodies in infected mouse serum and human CSF from 2nd stage sleeping sickness patients, which are known to be diagnostic markers of autoimmune disorders such as systemic lupus erythematosus, Sjogren's syndrome, scleroderma, rheumatoid arthritis, and multiple sclerosis[77–79] (**Figure 9C**). To further validate our findings, we examined the presence of circulating antibodies against MBP in an independent cohort of sleeping sickness patients from DRC that included both patients with an active infection ("cases") and samples obtained from patients post-treatment ("treated") (**Figure 9D**). Consistent with the data obtained from CSF biopsies, we observed that sleeping sickness patients with an active infection have significantly higher titres of serum IgG against MBP compared to healthy African controls (**Figure 9D**). Interestingly, most of the samples obtained from patients post-treatment display basal levels of anti-MBP antibody titres and show no significant differences with healthy African controls, suggesting that treatment with anti-parasitic chemotherapy prevents the accumulation of anti-MBP autoantibodies in humans. However, we noted that 30% of the treated patients maintained higher titres of anti-MBP antibodies in circulation, which might be due to: a) failure to effectively clear parasites post-treatment and thus considered to be relapsing cases; b) the presence of memory B cells that sustain anti-MBP

autoantibody secretion; c) or a combination of both. Taken together, our mid-throughput

targeted screening identified a myriad of host antigens recognised by infection-induced

autoantibodies in both chronically infected mice and 2nd stage sleeping sickness patients,

potentially indicative of a complex autoimmune disorder affecting several organs

including the CNS.

The accumulation of meningeal GL7+ CD95+ GC-like B cells and autoreactive

antibodies depends upon parasite accumulation in the CNS

Our data so far demonstrate that chronic *T. brucei* infection results in the accumulation

of autoreactive B cells that display a GL7+ CD95+ GC-like phenotype, likely resulting in

the generation of autoreactive antibodies and subsequent local IgG deposition in the

brain. We also identified MBP, a highly abundant CNS protein, to be one of the host

antigens recognised by these infection-induced IgG autoantibodies in both mice and

humans during chronic infections, potentially explaining the local antibody deposition

observed in the brain in our histological analyses. Given that at least 30% of 2nd stage

sleeping sickness patients displayed elevated levels of anti-MBP autoantibodies in

circulation post-treatment, likely as a result of treatment failure, we next decided to

explore whether suramin treatment, used in experimental infections to clear *T. brucei*

infections[18,80], prevented the accumulation of GL7+ CD95+ GC-like phenotype and IgG

deposition in the brain. In other words, whether an active CNS colonisation is necessary

to trigger local B cell responses. We tried several treatment strategies based on recent

studies[18,80], the majority of which resulted in mice relapsing to the infection. This was

particularly evident when treatment was started after 14dpi. In our hands, the most

effective treatment regime consisted of three consecutive doses of suramin (20 mg/kg)

i.p. at 5, 6, and 7dpi, consistent with previous studies[80] (**Figure 10A**). Using this model,

we observed ~50% of mice relapsing and ~50% of the animals completely clearing the

disease, as determined by qPCR against the *T. brucei*-specific gene *Pfr2* used here as a

proxy to quantify parasite tissue burden, alongside immunohistochemistry staining

against the *T. brucei*-specific antigen BiP (**Figure 10B and 10C**). Interestingly, in the

relapsing animals, we noted a significantly higher parasite burden in the brain compared

to infected but untreated controls. Using flow cytometry, we detected a significant

expansion of GL7+ CD95+ GC-like B cells in the meninges of infected animals that

remained high in the relapsing animals (**Figure 10D and 10E**). However, in cured mice,

the frequency of GL7+ CD95+ GC-like B cells in the meninges returned to basal levels

(**Figure 10D and 10E**). Furthermore, we observed a reduction in the IgG deposition in

the brain of cured mice (**Figure 10F**), reduced serum antibody titres of anti-brain IgG
autoantibodies in cured mice compared to infected or relapsing animals (**Figure 10G**),
and less cortical demyelination in cured mice compared to infected and relapsing animals
(**Figure 10H and 10I**), indicating that an active CNS infection is required to induce the
pathological antibody responses and cortical demyelination observed in response to
chronic infection. However, it is worth noting that cured mice still showed signs of
antibody deposition and serum levels of anti-brain IgG autoantibodies, albeit to a lesser
extent to infected or relapsing animals. Taken together, our results suggest that the
presence of parasites in the CNS either directly or indirectly promotes the expansion of
meningeal GL7$^+$ CD95$^+$ GC-like B cells and antibody deposition in the brain during
chronic infection.

Discussion

Here, we set out to characterise the local immune responses taking place within the
murine meninges in response to chronic infection with *T. brucei*. Our results demonstrate
that the murine meninges are dynamic structures able to support a wide range of immune
responses that are triggered upon infection with *T. brucei*, resulting in the acquisition of
ectopic lymphoid tissue-like signatures including the development of FDC-like cells, T$_{FH}$
cells, and GC-like B cells undergoing class switching. We also showed that during *T.*
brucei infection, the murine meninges also harbour a distinctive population of
autoreactive B cells that generate IgG$^+$ antibodies able to bind parasite and murine brain
antigens, including MBP. Furthermore, we demonstrated that the rearrangement of the
meningeal stroma, as well as the accumulation of autoreactive B cells, depend upon
LTβR signalling, consistent with its lymphoid tissue properties. Lastly, we demonstrated
the presence of IgG$^+$ antibodies in the CSF of 2nd stage gambiense HAT patients (when
the parasites accumulate in the meninges and CNS) able to recognise human brain
lysates and MBP, indicating that the observations using experimental infections are likely
to be conserved in humans.

Focussing on the stroma, we identified several populations of meningeal fibroblasts,
mostly derived from the dura mater layer of the meninges that express *bona fide* markers
of mesenchymal precursor cells (*Ly6a$^+$*). Interestingly, this population of meningeal
fibroblasts shares many transcriptional features with omental *Aldh1a2$^+$* FRCs that are
known to play a critical role in modulating lymphocyte recruitment and local immune
responses in the peritoneum[53]. It is tempting to speculate that there exists a pre-defined

populations of fibroblasts with precursor capacity (e.g., Ly6a/Sca1^{+}) in several body
cavities, including the meninges, that are able to quickly sense and adapt to inflammatory
responses to efficiently coordinate local immune responses[81–83]. In this context, it is
plausible that the population of lymphoid stromal cells residing in the dura layer of the
meninges sense the presence of *T. brucei* (e.g., *via* TLR or cytokine signalling) to
promote local immunological responses, as recently proposed[84]. We propose that these
populations meningeal *Ly6a^{+}* fibroblast precursors could adapt to chronic inflammatory
conditions, resulting in the development of stromal structures required to sustain long-
lasting immunological responses *in situ*, including FRC- and FDC-like cells, as well as *de*
novo angiogenesis. These observations are consistent with the idea that chronic
neuroinflammation results in lymphangionesis in the CNS[85]. All of these populations
participate in changes in the ECM during infection, including collagen and proteoglycan
deposition and regulation of the ECM, highlighting the extensive ECM remodelling taking
place in the meninges during chronic infection. The ontogeny of the meningeal FDC-like
cells that we detected under chronic infection with *T. brucei*, and whether they play an
active role in the neuroinflammatory process in this infection setting[86], requires further
investigation. Nevertheless, to our knowledge, this is the first report characterising the
response of meningeal fibroblasts to chronic infections with a protozoan parasite, which
has important implications for understanding how dynamic and adaptable the meningeal
stroma is under chronic inflammatory processes.
Additionally, we predicted that meningeal MNPs are involved in chemotaxis and antigen
presentation to CD4^{+} T cells. Consistent with recent studies characterising the dynamics
of myeloid cells within the brain borders in response to *T. brucei* infection[9,10], we identified
several subsets of MNPs and conventional DCs that play a wide range of roles, from
inflammatory responses to chemotaxis and antigenic presentation. Overall, all these
myeloid subsets might offer a first line of defence against incoming parasites, and
together with the meningeal stroma, might promote the recruitment and activation of
adaptive immune cells required to support an efficient local immune response. It also
remains to be determined whether the lymphatic structures present within the meninges
play an active role in the induction of ectopic lymphoid tissues during chronic *T. brucei*
infection.
We also detected an accumulation of autoreactive B cells able to produce high affinity
antibodies against both *T. brucei* and the mouse brain, resembling the pathology
observed under autoimmune neurological disorders including MS[87]. Previous work has

demonstrated the presence of autoreactive antibodies in HAT patients and during
experimental infections[88–92], some of which are able to recognise a wide variety of heat
shock proteins and ribosomal proteins[88,90] that might be evolutionarily conserved
between parasites and host. However, the local generation of autoreactive B cells in the
murine meninges able to recognise murine brain lysates in response to chronic infection
with *T. brucei* has not been reported before. These observations indicate that the local
immunological responses in the meninges could result in the (uncontrolled) production of
autoreactive antibodies, explaining their presence in the CSF of 2nd stage *gambiense*
HAT patients as shown in this study. Nevertheless, the mechanisms resulting in the
development of local autoantibodies remains to be determined.

Based on our dataset and *in vivo* experimental approaches, we conclude that the
formation of meningeal ELAs during chronic *T. brucei* infections relies on LTβR signalling.
This in turn is likely to supports the expansion of meningeal FDC-like fibroblasts and the
accumulation of GC-like autoreactive B cell clones and brain deposition of high-affinity
antibodies, potentially aided by the local activation and development of $CXCR5^+$ $PD1^+$
T_{FH}-like $CD4^+$ T cells expressing high levels of *Il21*. In this context, our data demonstrate
that chronic meningeal inflammation leads to the formation of plasma cells/FDC-like
cell/$CD3^+$ T cell aggregates, resembling those within the B cell follicle in lymph nodes and
spleen but lacking their typical microarchitecture, to sustain the production of high affinity
antibodies locally. It is important to note that the majority of the cells within the B cell
compartment were assigned as IgM^+ and IgG^+ plasma cells as shown before[2,42,46,93,94],
although their composition (IgA^+ vs IgM^+ and/or IgG^+) differs slightly from previous
elegant work describing the diversity of meningeal B cells compartment during fungal
infection[46]. Interestingly, in an experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis (EAE) model,
the frequency of *Igha*+ B cells found in the homeostatic dura mater decreased significantly
followed by a significant expansion of *Ighm* and *Ighg* expression in B cells during
inflammation[93], in a process similar to the results presented in this study. These
differences might be attributed to technical differences between studies (e.g., depth of
coverage) or biological differences due to intrinsic differences between disease
conditions. It is important to note that, in addition to the autoreactive IgG^+ ASCs residing
in the meninges and identified by ELISpot, vascular leakage (allowing the passage of IgG
through the blood-brain barrier) reported in this model[95–97] may also contribute to the IgG
deposition detected within the brain. However, at present we cannot directly assess the

relative contribution of each process separately. Irrespective of the routes by which
autoreactive antibodies reach the meningeal barrier and/or brain parenchyma, further
work is required to identify whether they arise as a result of molecular mimicry (e.g.,
shared epitopes between *T. brucei* and mice) or *via* bystander activation (e.g., continues
TLR stimulation on B cells[98,99]). It remains unclear, however, whether the emergence of
autoreactive B cells depends upon T cell-mediated responses (antigen-specific) or
whether it results from T cell-independent processes (e.g., polyclonal activation, antigen-
independent). In the context of T cell-dependent responses, future work is required to
determine the nature of the antigens driving such specific responses, as well as the
precise ontogeny of T_{FH} T cells (e.g., derived from T_H17 T cells as recently proposed[100])
to the generation of high affinity autoreactive antibodies in the context of chronic
infections remains to be delineated in more detail. It is likely that brain antigens such as
MBP might be one (of several) antigen driving T cell-specific responses, in a similar
process to experimental autoimmune encephalitis[101,102].

The histological features related to antibody deposition in the meningeal and cortical
spaces during chronic *T. brucei* infection are associated with cortical and white matter
demyelination, which are reminiscent of the histopathological features observed in MS
and other neurological autoimmune disorders[103–105]. However, it is unclear whether the
cortical pathology observed in our infection model results in primary (B cells generating
antibodies against myelin) or secondary demyelination, as a result of neuronal death.
Importantly, *Aid*^{-/-} mice, in which B cells are unable to undergo affinity maturation, are
better at controlling *T. brucei* infections due to an increase in circulating (low affinity) IgM,
suggesting that class-switching might indeed be an unfavourable process for the host[106],
both in terms of parasite control and tissue immunopathology. Based on our data, local
B cell affinity maturation and class-switching results in autoimmunity. In this scenario, it
is tempting to speculate that most of the neuropathological features associated with
chronic *T. brucei* infection derive from a disruption in peripheral tolerance resulting in
maladaptive antibody responses, as recently demonstrated in variable immune
deficiency patients with autoimmune manifestations[107]. Further studies are required to
determine the type of antigens detected by the autoreactive antibodies generated
specifically in the meninges, and to determine whether they share epitopes with *T. brucei*
antigens due to molecular mimicry, as reported for EBV-induced MS[87]. Similarly, it is
important to determine if B cell depletion strategies (e.g., B cell depletion
approaches[108,109], including treatment with anti-CD20 treatment[110]) or chemotherapy

interventions to treat the infection ameliorate disease progression, meningeal
inflammation, and cortical pathology during chronic *T. brucei* infection, similar to MS[109].
Lastly, our observations in both experimental infections and human studies indicate that
sleeping sickness results in an autoimmune disorder affecting the CNS (and likely other
organs), but it remains unclear whether these autoimmune disorders have an impact of
sleep, contributing to the known sleep disruptions caused by this parasitic infection. In
this regard, sleep disturbances are commonly reported in patients with autoimmune
encephalitis[111–113], and in narcoleptic patients[114,115], potentially supporting a link between
these pathologies. However, this remains to be further tested and the mechanisms
elucidated.

Together, our data provide a novel perspective for understanding the cellular and
molecular mediators that lead to the development of autoimmunity during chronic *T.*
brucei infection. Furthermore, our results support the notion that the meningeal spaces
are dynamic structures able to support a wide range of immunological responses,
including those resulting in pathological outcomes such as autoreactive antibody
deposition at the brain borders. In this context, we propose that experimental infections
with African trypanosomes can be exploited to address basic questions regarding
infection-induced autoimmunity and brain pathology, which could be leveraged for the
treatment of complex neurological disorders of unknown aetiology such as MS in addition
to the meningoencephalitic stage of sleeping sickness. Our results also highlight that
chronic sleeping sickness in patients also results in the accumulation of autoreactive
antibodies in the CNS, potentially driving pathology even after anti-parasitic
chemotherapy. In this context, it becomes clear that a better understanding of the
sequalae of the infection in human and animal health is critical but remains unsolved.

Funding and acknowledgments.

We gratefully acknowledge the contributions given by the tissue donors and their families
from the Edinburgh Brain and Tissue Bank (REC 21/ES/0087). We thank Julie Galbraith
and Pawel Herzyk (Glasgow Polyomics, University of Glasgow) for their technical support
with library preparation and sequencing, and the technical staff at the University of
Glasgow Biological Services for their assistance in maintaining optimal husbandry
conditions and comfort for the animals used in this study. Similarly, we would like to thank
the histopathology unit at the University of Glasgow veterinary school (In particular Frazer
Bell and Lynn Stevenson) for their technical assistance with sample processing and
preparation. We also thanks Professor Wendy Bailey (Liverpool School of Tropical

Medicine, UK) for providing CSF samples from gambiense HAT patients from North

Uganda, and Dr. Barry Bradford (Roslin Institute, UK) for his technical assistance with

LFB image quantification. The authors would also like to thank the III Flow cytometry

facility for their support with flow cytometry analysis, Dr. Gareth Howell (university of

Manchester) for technical support with the mass cytometry experiments, and Dr. Chiara

Pirillo (Beatson Institute) for technical assistance with the ELISpot assay. This work was

funded by a Sir Henry Wellcome postdoctoral fellowship (221640/Z/20/Z to JFQ). AML is

a Wellcome Trust Senior Research fellow (209511/Z/17/Z). PC and MCS are supported

by a Wellcome Trust Senior Research fellowship (209511/Z/17/Z) awarded to AML. DB

is funded by an MRC fellowship MR/V009052/1 and a Lister Institute Fellowship. NAM is

supported by project Institute Strategic Programme Grant funding from the BBSRC

(BBS/E/D/20002174 and BB/X010937/1). The authors declare that the research was

conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be

construed as a potential conflict of interest.

Author contributions

Conceptualisation: JFQ, NAM. **Methodology:** JFQ, MCS, LKD, PC, DB, JO, GM, MAS.

Sample collection in the field: NRKS, DMN. **Formal analysis**: JFQ, MCS, PC, MH.

Writing – original draft: JFQ**. Writing – reviewing and editing:** JFQ, MCS, LKD, GM,

DB, AM, LDL, NAM. **Funding acquisition:** JFQ. All authors approved the current version

of this manuscript. The authors declare that they have no competing interests,

commercial or otherwise. Correspondence and requests for materials should be

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Figures

Figure 1. CyTOF confirms the expansion of innate and adaptive immune cells in

the murine meninges during chronic *T. brucei* infection.

A) Overview of the experimental approach applied in this work. An anti-CD45-PE

antibody was injected *i.v.* prior to cull, followed by magnetic sorting using anti-PE

antibodies to obtain a fraction of resident meningeal cells that were used as input for

single cell transcriptomics using the 10X Chromium platform. **B)** Uniform manifold

approximation and projection (UMAP) visualisation of the CyTOF immunophenotyping in

murine meninges from naïve and animals at 30dpi. The UMAP plot represents pooled

data from n = 5-6 mice/group. **C)** Normalised protein expression level of markers used to

define T cells and NK cells (TCRβ, TCRγδ, NK1.1), B cells (CD19, B220, IgM), and

myeloid cells (CD11b, Ly6G/C, and CD11c). **E)** Quantification of CD45$^+$ cells in the

murine meninges by CyTOF at 30dpi (*n* = 5 mice/group). Parametric two-sided *T* student

test: a *p* value < 0.05 was considered significant. **D)** Unsupervised cell annotation from

CyTOF data using a combination of several marker genes. The expression level is

normalised to the average of the expression within the group. **F)** Quantification of the

different populations of immune cells in the naïve and infected murine meninges (*n* = 5-

6 mice/group). A parametric ANOVA test with multiple comparison was used to estimate

statistically significant pairwise comparisons. A *p* value < 0.05 is considered significant.

Data in all panels are expressed as mean ± SD. Data points indicate biological replicates

for each panel. **G)** Bar chart depicting the frequency of the different immune populations

identified in the murine meninges by CyTOF.

Figure 2. Single cell atlas of the murine meninges during chronic *T. brucei*

infection.

A) A total of 19,690 high-quality cells were used for dimensionality reduction, resulting in

uniform manifold approximation and projection (UMAP) for the single cell transcriptome

profiling from naïve (n = 2 pools; 1,834 high quality cells in total) and infected meninges

(n = 2 pools; 17,856 high quality cells in total). **B)** Dotplot representing the expression

levels of top marker genes used to catalogue the diversity of cell types in our single cell

dataset. **C)** Frequency of the different cell types detected in the murine meninges

analysed in this study.

Figure 3. The meningeal stromal compartment acquires lymphoid-like properties

and provide cues for immune cell recruitment during chronic *T. brucei* infection

A) Uniform manifold approximation and projection (UMAP) of 2,088 high-quality cells

within the fibroblast clusters were re-analysed to identify a total eight subclusters. **B)** Dot

plot representing the expression levels of marker genes previously reported to be

enriched in fibroblasts from different meningeal layers, including dura mater, pia mater,

and arachnoid mater. **C)** Dot Plot representing the expression levels of top marker genes

used to catalogue the diversity of cell types in our single cell dataset. **D)** Frequency plot

the different fibroblast clusters detected in the murine meninges in naïve and infected

samples (*n* = 2 pools per experimental condition). **E)** Representative flow cytometry

analysis of meningeal stromal cells from naïve and infected meningeal preparations (left

panel), and the corresponding quantification **(F)**. A The data in all panels is expressed as

mean ± SD. Data points indicate biological replicates for each panel. A parametric T test

was employed to assess significance between experimental groups. A *p* value < 0.05 is

considered significant. FRC, fibroblast reticular cells; LECs, lymphatic endothelial cells;
BECs, blood endothelial cells; FDCs, follicular dendritic cells. **G)** Module scoring for
genes typically associated with lymphoid tissues. **H)** Violin plot depicting the expression
of two chemokines associated with lymphoid tissues such as *Ccl19* and *Cxcl13*. **I)** Single
molecule fluorescent *in situ* hybridisation (smFISH) demonstrating the presence of *Ly6a*^{+}
Rarres2^{+} cells that express *Cxcl13* in the dura mater of the meninges of infected mice.
DAPI is included as a nuclear marker. The skull bone, the bone marrow (BM), and the
meninges are indicated. Scale bar, 50 μm.

Figure 4. Heterogeneity of meningeal mononuclear phagocytes during chronic T.
brucei infection.

A) Uniform manifold approximation and projection (UMAP) of 10,760 high-quality
mononuclear phagocytes (MNPs) from naïve (n = 54 cells) and infected meninges (n =
10,706 cells). **B)** Expression level of top genes defining different populations of meningeal
MNPs. **C)** Frequency plot depicting the relative abundance of the five MNPs subclusters
identified in the murine meninges during *T. brucei* infection. **D)** Cell-cell interaction
network via MCH-II signalling axis. **E)** Violin plot depicting the expression level of *H2-D1*
and *H2-Ab1*, two of the most upregulated MHC-II associated genes within the myeloid
compartment. **F)** Cell-cell interaction network *via Cxcl* signalling axis. **G)** Representative
flow cytometry analysis and quantification (**H**) of CD11b^{+} F4/80[High] and F4/80[Low] myeloid
cell populations, as well as MHC-II^{+} myeloid cells, in the murine meninges in response to
T. brucei infection. Data in all panels are representative from two independent
experiments and is expressed as mean ± SD (*n* = 5 mice/experimental group). Data
points indicate biological replicates for each panel. A parametric T test was employed to
assess significance between experimental groups. A *p* value < 0.05 was considered
significant.

Figure 5. Accumulation of PD1^{+} CXCR5^{+} T$_{FH}$-like CD4^{+} T cells in the meninges
during chronic *T. brucei* infection

A) Uniform manifold approximation and projection (UMAP) of 1,742 high-quality T cells
from naïve (n = 147 cells) and infected meninges (n = 2,691 cells). **B)** Dot plot depicting
the expression level of marker genes for all the T cell subsets identified in (**A**). The dot
size corresponds to the proportion of cells expressing the marker genes, whereas the
colour indicates the level of expression. **C)** as in (B) but depicting marker genes
associated with T$_{FH}$ cells. The dot size corresponds to the proportion of cells expressing

the marker genes, whereas the colour indicates the level of expression. **D)**

Representative flow cytometry analysis and quantification (**E**) the presence of CXCR5$^+$

PD1$^+$ CD4$^+$ T cells in the murine meninges from naïve and 30dpi (n = 5 mice/group). Data

points indicate biological replicates for each panel. A parametric T test was employed to

assess significance between experimental groups. A p value < 0.05 is considered

significant. **F)** *Ex vivo* T cell activation from naïve and infected murine meninges to

measure the expression of PD-1 and IL-21. Unstimulated controls are also included. **G)**

Quantification of the flow cytometry data from the *ex vivo* stimulation assay in (F). Data

points indicate biological replicates for each panel and are representative from two

independent experiments. A parametric T test was employed to assess significance

between experimental groups. A p value < 0.05 was considered significant. **H)**

Representative flow cytometry analysis and quantification **(I)** of the frequency of CD69$^+$

CD4$^+$ T cells in the murine meninges in response to infection. Data points indicate

biological replicates for each panel and is representative from two independent

experiments. A parametric T test was employed to assess significance between

experimental groups. A p value < 0.05 was considered significant. **J)** Representative flow

cytometry analysis to determine TCR engagement in CD4$^+$ (top panel) and CD8$^+$ (bottom

panel) T cells *in situ* in the meninges during chronic infection with *T. brucei* using the

Nur77^{GFP} reporter mouse line. **K)** Quantification of the flow cytometry data from **(J)**. A p

value < 0.05 is considered significant. Data points indicate biological replicates for each

panel and are representative from two independent experiments. A parametric T test was

employed to assess significance between experimental groups. A p value < 0.05 is

considered significant. **L)** Representative flow cytometry analysis to determine TCR

engagement in CD4$^+$ (top panel) in the Nur77^{Tempo} reporter mouse line. In this model, T

cell activation dynamics can be discriminated between *de novo* (FT blue$^+$) versus

historical (FT red$^+$) MHC-dependent TCR engagement. **M)** Quantification of the flow

cytometry data from **(L)**. Data points indicate biological replicates for each panel and are

representative from two independent experiments. A parametric T test was employed to

assess significance between experimental groups. A p value < 0.05 was considered

significant.

Figure 6. The murine meninges contain class-switched B cells in proximity to FDC-

like cells.

A) Dotplot representing the expression level of top marker genes for the meningeal B

cells, including *bona fide* markers of plasma cells (*Jchain, Prdm1, Sdc1, Xbp1, Ighm)* as

well as activation and GC-like phenotype (*Cd24a, Cd38, Tnfrsf13c, Fas*). The dot size

corresponds to the proportion of cells expressing the marker genes, whereas the colour

indicates the level of expression. **B) Left panel;** Representative flow cytometry analysis

(left panel) and quantification (right panel) to measure meningeal B cells (CD19$^+$ CD138$^-$

cells), plasmablasts (CD19$^+$ CD138$^+$), and plasma cells (CD19$^-$ CD138$^+$). **Right panel;**

quantification of flow cytometry data showing the expansion of meningeal CD138$^+$

plasma cells in response to infection (*n* = 5 mice/group). Data points indicate biological

replicates for each panel and are representative from two independent experiments. A

parametric T test was employed to assess significance between experimental groups. A

p value < 0.05 was considered significant. **C)** Representative flow cytometry analysis to

determine BCR engagement on meningeal B cells *in situ* during chronic infection with *T.*

brucei using the *Nur77*^{GFP} reporter mouse line. **D)** Quantification of flow cytometry data

showing the reduction in the frequency of *Nur77*$^{GFP+}$ CD19$^+$ B cells in the meninges in

response to infection (*n* = 5 mice/group). Data points indicate biological replicates for

each panel and are representative from two independent experiments. A parametric T

test was employed to assess significance between experimental groups. A *p* value < 0.05

was considered significant. **E)** Representative flow cytometry analysis to determine the

presence of GC-like B cells in the murine meninges based on the co-expression of GL7

and CD95. **D)** Quantification of GL7$^+$ CD95$^+$ GC-like CD19$^+$ B cells in the meninges in

response to infection (*n* = 5 mice/group). Data points indicate biological replicates for

each panel and are representative from two independent experiments. A parametric T

test was employed to assess significance between experimental groups. A *p* value < 0.05

was considered significant. **G)** Representative flow cytometry analysis to determine the

presence of IgG$^+$ CD19$^+$ B cells in the murine meninges in response to infection. **H)**

Quantification of GL7$^+$ CD95$^+$ GC-like CD19$^+$ B cells in the meninges in response to

infection (*n* = 4 mice/group). Data points indicate biological replicates for each panel and

are representative from two independent experiments. A parametric T test was employed

to assess significance between experimental groups. A *p* value < 0.05 was considered

significant. **I)** Representative imaging analysis of whole-mount meninges from naïve (left)

and infected (right) of CD21/CD35$^+$ follicular dendritic cells (green), as well as CD3d$^+$ T

cells (red) and B220$^+$ B cells (purple). DAPI was included as nuclear staining. Scale = 50

μm.

Figure 7. The murine meninges contain autoreactive IgG$^+$ antibody secreting cells (ASCs) during chronic *T. brucei* infection.

A) Representative ELISpot images depicting mouse brain-specific IgG$^+$ ASCs from naïve and infected murine meninges after 30dpi with *T. brucei*. **B)** Quantification of ELISpot results including total IgG$^+$, *T. brucei*-specific IgG$^+$, and mouse brain-specific IgG$^+$ antibody secreting cells. Wells coated with BSA were included as negative controls. A p value < 0.05 was considered significant. **C)** Immunohistochemistry analysis to determine IgG$^+$ deposition in the mouse brain from naïve (left) and infected (right) mouse brain sagittal sections. The sections were stained with an anti-mouse IgG antibody coupled to HRP to measure the overall distribution of IgG in the brain. The asterisks denote areas of intense IgG deposition in the leptomeningeal space, as well as in the upper layers of the cerebral cortex, exclusively detected in the infected brain. Lm, leptomeninges; Ctx, cerebral cortex. **D) Left panel:** Representative Luxol fast blue (LFB) staining from naïve (left) and infected (right) animals at 30dpi as a proxy to measure myelin. Lower panels show the tissue heatmap of the mean pixel intensity. **Right panel:** Percentage of demyelination, calculated here as a reduction in the average of the relative LFB intensity, was calculated from three independent experiments (n = 3-4 mice/repeat). A parametric T test was employed to assess significance between experimental groups. A *p* value < 0.05 was considered significant. **E)** Serum titters of mouse brain-specific IgM and IgG antibodies in naïve and infected samples as measured by ELISA. The dotted line represents the average of the optical density detected in naïve controls. A *p* value < 0.05 was considered significant. **F)** Immunohistochemistry analysis to determine the presence of circulating brain autoreactive IgG antibodies in serum from naïve (top panels) and infected animals (middle panels) in the mouse brain from naïve (left) and infected (right) mouse coronal brain sections. Staining with the *T. brucei*-specific protein BiP (bottom panels) is also included to highlight accumulation of parasites in the lateral ventricles (arrowheads). **G)** ELISA analysis of human brain-autoreactive IgM and IgG antibodies in cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) from sleeping sickness patients from 1st stage and 2nd stage HAT (CSF dilution 1:400). Wells coated with BSA (5μg/ml) were included as controls. A *p* value < 0.05 was considered significant.

Figure 8. LTβ receptor signalling is critical to sustain FDC-like networks and autoreactive B cells in the murine meninges in response to *T. brucei* infection.

A) Dot plot depicting the expression level of *Ltb*, and its cognate receptors *Traf2* and *Ltbr*. The dot size corresponds to the proportion of cells expressing the marker genes, whereas the colour indicates the level of expression. **B)** Representative flow cytometry analysis depicting the expression of LTβ in CD4$^+$ T cells in naïve and mice chronically infected with *T. brucei* (30dpi). **C)** Quantification of flow cytometry analysis (n = 4 mice/group). A *p* value < 0.05 is considered significant. **D)** Overview of the experimental approach applied to block LTβR signalling *in vivo* during chronic *T. brucei* infection. **E)** Representative flow cytometry analysis of the murine meningeal stroma in naïve and mice chronically infected with *T. brucei* (30dpi). FDC-like cells were gated from the double CD45$^-$ mesenchymal cells. **F)** Quantification of the different components of the stroma in naïve and infected meningeal preparations (n = 4 mice/group). A *p* value < 0.05 was considered significant. FRC, fibroblast reticular cell; LEC, lymphatic endothelial cell; BEC, blood endothelial cell; DN, double negative. **G)** Quantification of ELISpot results including total IgG$^+$ (left panel), *T. brucei*-specific IgG$^+$ (middle panel), and mouse brain-specific IgG$^+$ antibody secreting cells (right panel) in naïve mice, mice treated with an irrelevant IgG2a antibody, and mice treated with LTBR-Ig (*n* = 4 - 9 mice/group). A *p* value < 0.05 was considered significant. **H)** Representative immunofluorescence analysis of whole mount meningeal preparation labelling CD138$^+$ plasma cells (red) and CD21/CD35$^+$ FDC-like cells (green) in naïve or at 30 days post-infection. Each of the fluorescent channels are shown individually, and DAPI was included to detect cell nuclei. Scale bar = 50 μm. **I) Left panel:** Representative Luxol fast blue (LFB) staining from naïve (left) and infected (right) animals at 30dpi as a proxy to measure myelin. **Middle panel:** The tissue heatmap of the mean pixel intensity is also shown. **Right panel:** Percentage of demyelination, calculated here as a reduction in the mean grey intensity of the LFB staining, was calculated from two independent experiments (n = 4-5 mice/experiment). A parametric ANOVA with multiple comparisons was employed to assess significance between experimental groups. A *p* value < 0.05 was considered significant.

Figure 9. Targeted antigen screening identified shared host antigens detected by autoreactive antibodies in mouse serum and human CSF in response to *T. brucei* infection.

A) Heatmap depicting the normalised fluorescent signal-to-noise ratio for 18 antigens significantly detected by mouse serum from infected animals at 30dpi (*n* = 3 mice) compared to naïve controls (*n* = 3 mice). The selected genes were chosen based on

significant level in pairwise comparisons between naïve and infected samples using a parametric two-sided *T* test. Pairwise comparisons resulting in a *p* value < 0.05 were considered to be significant. **B)** As in (A) but depicting a total of 51 antigens significantly and exclusively detected in the cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) from 2nd stage sleeping sickness patients (*n* = 4 patients) compared to both 1st stage sleeping sickness patients (*n* = 3 patients) and healthy donors (*n* = 2 donors). **C)** Ven diagram depicting host antigens identified in this screening that were commonly detected by autoreactive IgG antibodies in both mouse serum and human CSF, as well as those antigens that showed specie-specific responses. A table summarising the common host antigens and the disease they are often associated with is also included. **D)** ELISA analysis to examine the presence of anti-MBP IgG autoantibodies in human serum from patients with an active *T. brucei* gambiense infection ("cases") or post-treatment ("treated"), as well as healthy African controls ("controls"). A parametric ANOVA test with multiple comparison was used to estimate statistically significant pairwise comparisons. A *p* value < 0.05 was considered significant.

Figure 10. Suramin treatment prevents the expansion of GL7$^+$ CD95$^+$ GC-like B cells and the IgG deposition in the mouse brain.

A) Overview of the experimental approach applied to prevent the CNS stage of the disease using suramin. **B)** Estimation of *T. brucei* burden in the murine brain using RT-PCR analysis to detect the parasite-specific *Pfr2* gene in naïve brain specimens and infected but untreated animals (*n* = 5 mice/group), as well as cured (*n* = 4 mice) and relapsing animals (*n* = 4 mice). These data are representative of two independent experiments. A parametric ANOVA test with multiple comparison was used to estimate statistically significant pairwise comparisons. A *p* value < 0.05 was considered significant. **C)** Immunohistochemistry staining of the *T. brucei*-specific protein BiP in brain sections from the same experimental groups as in (B). **D)** Representative flow cytometry analysis of GL7$^+$ CD95$^+$ GC-like CD19$^+$ B cells in the murine meninges from the same experimental groups as in (B). The gating strategy to identify meningeal B cells is shown in S2C figure. **E)** Quantification of GL7$^+$ CD95$^+$ GC-like CD19$^+$ B cells in the murine meninges from the same groups as in (B). A parametric ANOVA test with multiple comparison was used to estimate statistically significant pairwise comparisons. A *p* value < 0.05 was considered significant. **F)** Representative immunohistochemistry micrographs comparing IgG$^+$ deposition in brains from naïve mice and infected but untreated mice, as well as cured and relapsed mice post suramin-treatment. Images are representative from

two independent experiments. Scale bar = 1 mm. **G)** ELISA test to determine serum IgG

titters of mouse brain-specific autoantibodies in the experimental groups in (B). Data are

representative from two independent experiments. A parametric ANOVA test with

multiple comparison was used to estimate statistically significant pairwise comparisons.

A p value < 0.05 was considered significant. **H) Upper panel**: representative Luxol fast

blue (LFB) staining as a proxy to measure myelin in brain specimens from naïve and

infected mice, as well as infected mice treated with suramin, including relapsed and cured

animals. Lower panel: Tissue heatmap representing the mean grey value (MGV) for the

LFB staining. The calibration bar was set up so that the lowest level is 0 and the maximum

MGV is 255. Scale bar = 1 mm. **I)** Percentage of demyelination, calculated here as a

reduction in the mean grey intensity of the LFB staining, was calculated from two

independent experiments (n = 4-10 mice/experiment). Parametric pairwise comparisons

using one-sided T test was employed to assess significance between experimental

groups. A p value < 0.05 was considered significant.

1353

Supplementary figures

Supplementary figure 1. Quality control measurements of the murine single cell

CyTOF and transcriptomics dataset. A) Representative flow cytometry analysis of the

input and flowthrough for the removal of circulating CD45$^+$ immune cells using magnetic

sorting. **B)** Identification of CD45$^+$ cells in the CyTOF murine meninges dataset. C)

Uniform manifold approximation and projection (UMAP) of the CyTOF dataset from

samples (left panel; BC10-BC15: naïve; BC11-BC20: 30dpi) experimental groups (right

panel) after CD45$^+$ cell clustering. **D)** Number of Unique molecular identifies (UMIs),

genes, mitochondrial reads, and library complexity (Log10 UMIs/gene) after applying

filtering parameters. **E)** Clustree output representing the relationship between different

cell clusters at various levels of resolution using the function *FindClusters*.

Supplementary figure 2. Gating strategies for flow cytometry analysis. Gating

strategies to identification stromal cells (**A**), resident myeloid cells (**B**), resident CD4$^+$ and

CD8$^+$ $\alpha\beta$ T cells (**C**), and B cells/plasma cells (**D**).

Supplementary figure 3. Expression of lymphoid stromal cells marker genes within

the dura fibroblasts. A) Left: Expression level of Marker genes typically associated with

fibroblast reticular cells (FRCs). **Right:** Expression level of genes encoding for secreted

factors resealed by FRCs. **B)** Marker genes moderately (left) or lowly (right) expressed

typically associated with B zone reticular cells (BRC). **C)** Broad classification of the
various fibroblasts clusters as FRC- or BRC-like clusters based on the marker genes
shown in (A) and (B). In all cases, the size of the dot represents the proportion of cells
expressing the markers indicated in each plot. **D)** Feature plots depicting the results from
module scoring of the different categories within the MatrisomeDB including collagen and
proteoglycan production and deposition, and secreted factors. **E**) Masson's trichrome
staining depicting collagen deposition (blue), and keratin (pink) in sagittal skull sections
containing dura meninges from naïve and infected animals. Scale bar = 50 μm.

Supplementary figure 5. Local T cell activation in the meninges in response to T.
brucei infection using the *Nur77*^{Tempo} reporter mice. A) Representative flow cytometry
analysis to determine TCR engagement in CD8$^+$ T cells in the *Nur77*^{Tempo} reporter mouse
line. In this model, T cell activation dynamics can be discriminated between *de novo* (FT
blue$^+$) versus historical (FT red$^+$) MHC-dependent TCR engagement. **B)** Quantification of
the flow cytometry data from **(A)** focusing exclusively on FT blue$^+$ or FT red$^+$ CD8$^+$ T cells.
Data points indicate biological replicates for each panel and are representative from two
independent experiments. A two-sided, parametric T test was employed to assess
significance between experimental groups. A *p* value < 0.05 was considered significant.
C) Representative flow cytometry analysis to determine TCR engagement in CD69$^+$ CD4$^+$
T cells in the *Nur77*^{Tempo} reporter mouse line. **D)** Quantification of the flow cytometry data
from **(A)** focusing exclusively on FT blue$^+$ or FT red$^+$ CD69$^+$ CD4$^+$ T cells. Data points
indicate biological replicates for each panel and are representative from two independent
experiments. A two-sided, parametric T test was employed to assess significance
between experimental groups. A *p* value < 0.05 was considered significant.

Supplementary figure 5. Meningeal lymphoid-like aggregates in response to *T.*
***brucei* infection.** Additional imaging analysis of whole-mount meninges from naïve (left)
and infected (right) of CD21/CD35$^+$ follicular dendritic cells (green), as well as CD3d$^+$ T
cells (red) and B220$^+$ B cells (purple). The data correspond to data obtained from two
independent meningeal preparations; Replicate 1 and 2 shown in top and bottom panels,
respectively. DAPI was included as nuclear staining. Scale = 100 μm.

Supplementary figure 6. Chronic *T. brucei* infection induces demyelination in the
CNS. A) Left: Representative ELISpot images depicting mouse brain-specific IgG$^+$ ASCs
from naïve and infected murine meninges and splenocytes after 30dpi with *T. brucei*.
Right: Quantification of ELISpot results from mouse brain-specific IgG$^+$ ASCs in

meningeal preps and splenocytes (n = 4 mice/group). A p value < 0.05 is considered

significant. Luxol Fast blue staining to determine myelination in naïve (**B**) and infected

(**C**) coronal brain sections. Insets how areas of the cortex (Ctx), internal capsule (IC), and

thalamus (Th).

Supplementary figure 7. LTβR signalling blockade results in uncontrolled

parasitaemia and IgM⁺ B cell accumulation in the meninges. Parasitaemia (**A**) and

clinical scoring (**B**) of *T. brucei*-infected mice treated with the LTβR-Ig fusion protein (blue

line). *T. brucei*-infected mice alone (green line) or infected mice treated with an irrelevant

IgG2a antibody (orange line) were used as controls. For parasitaemia, an ANOVA test

with multiple comparisons was conducted. For clinical scoring, pairwise comparisons

were conducted using a non-parametric *T* test. In all cases, a p value < 0.05 was

considered significant. Representative ELISpot results for meningeal IgM⁺ (**C**) and IgG⁺

(**D**) antibody secreting cells (ASCs), including total ASCs (top panel), *T. brucei*-specific

ASCs (middle panel), and mouse brain-specific ASCs (bottom panel). The number of

spots detected by the automated analysis software is also included. **E**) Quantification of

ELISpot results including total IgM⁺ (left panel), *T. brucei*-specific IgM⁺ (middle panel),

and mouse brain-specific IgM⁺ antibody secreting cells (right panel) in naïve mice, mice

treated with an irrelevant IgG2a antibody, and mice treated with LTβR-Ig (n = 4 – 9

mice/group). A p value < 0.05 was considered significant. F) Luxol Fast blue (LFB)

staining to determine myelination in sagittal brain sections from infected mice treated with

LTBR-Ig or with an irrelevant IgG2a antibody control naïve (2 replicates per condition).

Insets how selected cortical areas. Ctx, Cortex. Scale bar: 1mm (whole image) or 50 μm

(insets).

Supplementary figure 8. Targeted antigen screening identified shared host

antigens detected by autoreactive antibodies in mouse serum and human CSF in

response to *T. brucei* infection. Heatmap depicting the normalised signal-to-noise ratio

for IgG binding against a panel of 120 host antigens. The data was acquired from naïve

and infected murine serum (**A**) at 30dpi (n = 3 mice/group), and human CSF (B) from

healthy donors (n = 2 donors), 1st stage sleeping sickness patients (n = 3 samples), and

2nd stage sleeping sickness patients (n = 4 samples). The asterisks denote samples that

were statistically significant in a pairwise comparison analysis using parametric T test. A

p value < 0.05 is considered significant.

Supplementary Tables

Table S1. Quality control including mean reads per cell and median genes per cell before and after filtering out low quality cell types.

Table S2. Overview of the major cell types detected in the single cell dataset (resolution of 0.7). The total number of cells per cluster, percentages, and marker genes are also included.

Table S3. Marker genes identified for the cells within the fibroblast clusters obtained after subsetting (resolution = 0.6). The total number of cells per cluster, percentages, and marker genes are also included.

Table S4. Marker genes identified for the cells within the mononuclear phagocytes (MNP) cluster obtained after subsetting (resolution = 0.3). The total number of cells per cluster, percentages, and marker genes are also included.

Table S5. Marker genes identified for the cells within the T cell cluster obtained after subsetting (resolution = 0.7). The total number of cells per cluster, percentages, and marker genes are also included.

Table S6. Metadata associated with the human cerebrospinal fluid samples included for autoantibodies against human brain lysates by ELISA.

Table S7. Normalised signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) of targeted host antigen screening conducted using mouse serum and human CSF. The SNR values for each of the 120 antigens are included, as well as a parametric T test conducted to determine the level of significant in pairwise comparisons between infected mice and naïve controls, or between 2nd stage sleeping sickness CSF samples and 1st stage sleeping sickness or healthy donors.

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1759

A) Naive (547 cells) Infected (1,541 cells)

UMAP2 / UMAP1

FRC-like *Ly6a*+ fibroblasts 1 (Cl 0; 18.82%)　FRC-like *Ly6a*+ fibroblasts 4 (Cl 3; 13.41%)　Myofibroblasts (Cl 6; 5.65%)
FRC-like *Ly6a*+ fibroblasts 2 (Cl 1; 17.43%)　*Fth1*+ *Ly6a*+ fibroblasts (Cl 4; 13.03%)　*Ly6a*- Dura fibroblasts (Cl 7; 4.50%)
FRC-like *Ly6a*+ fibroblasts 3 (Cl 2; 16.04%)　*Aldh1a2*+ *Ccl19*+ fibroblasts (Cl 5; 11.11%)

B) Exp. level: Min – Max　% cells: 5 25 50 75 100
Pia matter: *Lama2* *S100a6* *Ngfr*
Arachnoid matter: *Crabp2* *Cldn11* *Tbx18* *Tagln*
Dura matter: *Mgp* *Gja1* *Fxyd5* *Col18a1*

C) Exp. level: Min – Max　% cells: 5 25 50 75 100

D) Proportion of cells — Naive1, Naive2, 30dpi_1, 30dpi_2

E) Gated on live, CD45- cells / Gated on GP38- CD31- DNs
Naive: FRCs (27.1%), LECs (5.04%), DNs (65.5%), BECs (2.33%), FDCs (18.0%)
30dpi: FRCs (40.1%), LECs (7.78%), DNs (49.6%), BECs (2.47%), FDCs (24.2%)
GP38-APC / CD31-BV421 / MAdCAM1-FITC / CD21/CD35 - PE Dazzle 594

F) FRCs (%) 0.0021; FDCs (%) 0.0035; LECs (%) 0.9144; BECs (%) 0.1749 — Naive vs 30dpi

G) Module scoring - ectopic lymphoid signatures
Cluster 5 — Module score 0.6 / 0.4 / 0.2 / 0.0
UMAP2 / UMAP1

H) *Ccl19* — *p* < 0.05; *Cxcl13* — *p* < 0.05
Naive / Infected
Expression level
FRC-like *Ly6a*+ fibroblasts 1, FRC-like *Ly6a*+ fibroblasts 2, FRC-like *Ly6a*+ fibroblasts 3, FRC-like *Ly6a*+ fibroblasts 4, *Fth1*+ *Ly6a*+ fibroblasts, *Aldh1a2*+ *Ccl19*+ fibroblasts, Myofibroblasts, *Ly6a*- Dura fibroblasts

I) Naive — Meninges, Skull bone, BM, *Ly6a*, *Rarres2*, *Cxcl13*, 50 µm, 10 µm
30dpi — Meninges, Skull bone, BM, BV, *Ly6a*, *Rarres2*, *Cxcl13*, 50 µm, 10 µm

A) PB/PC, GC-like phenotype

Exp. level: Min — Max
% cells: 0 25 50 75 100

Genes: *Jchain*, *Prdm1*, *Sdc1*, *Xbp1*, *Irf4*, *Ighm*, *Ighg3*, *Cd19*, *Ptprc*, *Cd24a*, *Cd38*, *Tnfrsf13c*, *Fas*

B) Gated on live, lineage neg, resident cells

Naive: CD19+ B cells (3.29%), CD19+ CD138+ PBs 2.51%, 65.0%, CD138+ PCs 29.2%

30dpi: CD19+ B cells (4.43%), CD19+ CD138+ PBs 2.71%, 45.5%, CD138+ PCs 47.3%

CD138+ PCs (%): 0.0002, Naive vs 30dpi

C) Gated on live, resident CD19+ B cells

Naive: 22.8%, 11.7%, 47.4%, 18%

30dpi: 6.07%, 3.56%, 65.4%, 25%

CD19-BV711 vs Nur77-GFP

D) Nur77-GFP+ CD19+ B cells (%): 0.0079, Naive vs 30dpi

E) Gated on live, resident CD19+ B cells

Naive: GC-like B cells 4.42%

30dpi: GC-like B cells 57.0%

CD95-PE vs GL7-FITC

F) GL7+ CD95+ GC B cells (%): 0.0004, Naive vs 30dpi

G) Gated on live, resident CD19+ B cells

Naive: 2.05%

30dpi: 12.5%

CD19-BV711 vs IgG-BV421

H) IgG+ CD19+ B cells (%): <0.0001, Naive vs 30dpi

I) Naive / 30dpi

CD3, B220, CD21/35, 50 μm

A)

	Naive	30dpi	
Replicate:	1 2 3	1 2 3	

TIF1γ
α–fodrin
ssDNA
Collagen VI
ssRNA
GM-CSF
PM/Scl-75
KU (p70/p80)
β2 glycoprotein 1
Vitronectin
Mitochondrial antigen
Histone H3
Complement C1q
Sm
Complement C3/C3a
IFN-L2
Nucleolin
Myelin Basic protein (MBP)

Normalised signal to noise
Min — Max

B)

Control | 1st stage | 2nd stage
Replicate: 1 2 | 1 2 3 | 1 2 3 4

Histone H2B
Complement C3/C3a
β-actin
IFN-A1
CD4
TNF-α
Jo-1
LC1
Thyroglobulin
MDA5
Factor B
Fibrinogen IV
Myelin Basic protein (MBP)
Muscarinic receptor
PCNA
β2-microglobulin
Collagen 17A1
Factor I
MPO
IFN-r
La/SSB
Neuropilin-1
Mi-2
M2
SP100
PL-12
α–fodrin
Nucleolin
Core Histone
Mitochondrial antigen
Myosin
IFN-β
Vimentin
Myosin heavy & light chain
CENP-A
PM/Scl-100
IL-12
S100
Aggrecan
Nucleosome antigen
PM/Scl-75
GM-CSF
IA2
TGF-β1
Ribophosphoprotein P1
Collagen IV
GAD65
TPO
CENP-B
Vitronectin
Sm/RNP

Normalised signal to noise
Min — Max

C)

Mouse serum — 2nd stage CSF

10 antigens (16.4%) | 8 antigens (13.1%) | 43 antigens (70.5%)

Antigen	Associated disease
α-Fodrin	Systemic lupus erythematosus, Sjorgren's syndrome
Complement C3/C3a	Systemic lupus erythematosus, Lupus nephritis
GM-CSF	Multiple sclerosis, Rheumatoid arthritis
Mitochondrial antigen	Primary biliary cholangitis
Myelin basic protein (MBP)	Multiple sclerosis
Nucleolin	Systemic lupus erythematosus
PM/Scl-75	Polymiositis/Scleroderma
Vitronectin	Systemic lupus erythematosus, Myastenia gravis

D)

O.D.450 nm

Control | HAT cases | HAT Treated

>0.9999
0.0463
0.0204

A) Gated on live, CD8⁺ T cells

A)

Meninges

Naive   Infected

3   97

Splenocytes

0   7

0.0012

0.0011   >0.9999

Mouse brain IgG ASCs
(No. spots/50x10^4 cells)

Naive Infected   Naive Infected
Meninges   Splenocytes

B) Naive brain

Ctx

IC

Th

1mm

Ctx

100 μm

IC

100 μm

Th

100 μm

C) Infected brain

Ctx

IC

Th

1mm

Ctx

100 μm

IC

100 μm

Th

100 μm