Epstein-Barr virus promotes T cell dysregulation in a humanized mouse model of multiple sclerosis

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SUMMARY

In a novel humanized mouse model of multiple sclerosis (MS), donor history of Epstein-Barr virus

(EBV) infection exacerbates disease severity by skewing the balance of effector and regulatory T cells in

the brain and spinal cord. These results reveal an immunomodulatory mechanism by which latent EBV

infection could predispose to the development of autoimmune disease.

ABSTRACT

Infection with the human-tropic Epstein-Barr virus (EBV) is a strong risk factor for multiple

sclerosis (MS), though the underlying mechanisms remain unclear. To investigate the immunomodulatory

effects of latent EBV infection, we induced experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis (EAE) in

immunocompromised mice humanized with peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) from

individuals with or without a history of EBV infection and/or a diagnosis of relapsing MS. HuPBMC EAE

mice generated from EBV seronegative healthy donors were less susceptible to developing severe clinical

disease than EBV seropositive healthy donor and RRMS cohorts. Donor EBV seropositivity and RRMS

led to a significant incremental increase in the number of brain and spinal cord infiltrating effector T cells,

in the absence of viral reactivation, due to enhanced proliferation of donor T cells and reduced regulatory

T cell expansion. The data indicate that a history of EBV infection, further compounded by a diagnosis of

RRMS, promotes T cell-mediated disease in a novel humanized mouse model of MS.

INTRODUCTION

Multiple sclerosis (MS) is an autoinflammatory disease of the central nervous system (CNS) characterized by lesions of demyelinated nerve axons, infiltration of autoreactive T cells, and subsequent neurodegeneration (Dendrou, Fugger and Friese, 2015). Clinical presentation among affected individuals is heterogeneous, with variable symptoms and disease courses ranging from relapsing-remitting (RRMS) to progressive forms with intermediate phenotypes (Klineova and Lublin, 2018). Symptoms also vary widely but typically involve some combination of loss of coordination and sensation, muscle weakness, vision impairment, fatigue, pain, cognitive impairment, and others (Compston and Coles, 2008). MS is especially prevalent among women, for whom there is a heavy bias in incidence (Rommer *et al.*, 2020). Although the exact etiology of MS is unclear, development of the disease is thought to be a consequence of environmental triggers in genetically susceptible individuals (Olsson, Barcellos and Alfredsson, 2017).

The environmental factor most strongly and consistently linked to MS is infection with Epstein-Barr virus (EBV) (Ascherio *et al.*, 2001; DeLorenze *et al.*, 2006; Thacker, Mirzaei and Ascherio, 2006; Handel *et al.*, 2010; McKay *et al.*, 2016; Bjornevik *et al.*, 2022; Lanz *et al.*, 2022). EBV is a human gammaherpesvirus transmitted through saliva that infects over 90% of all adults (Hjalgrim, Friborg and Melbye, 2007). During acute infection the virus infects epithelial cells in the oropharynx and subsequently disseminates and infects memory B cells, within which the virus establishes latency and persists for the life of the host (Hjalgrim, Friborg and Melbye, 2007; Chaganti *et al.*, 2009). EBV reactivates intermittently to transmit to new cells and hosts but is typically quiescent and, in healthy individuals, does not cause disease. However, EBV is associated with a broad spectrum of malignancies and diseases (Hjalgrim, Friborg and Melbye, 2007; Chen, 2011). The varied pathological consequences of EBV infection are considered to be due to host-specific differences in immune responses to infection dictated by age, genetic

predispositions, and confounding environmental exposures (Hjalgrim, Friborg and Melbye, 2007; Balfour

et al., 2013; Houldcroft and Kellam, 2015; Sallah *et al.*, 2020; Chen *et al.*, 2022). Acute infection is usually

asymptomatic when the virus is acquired at an early age, but delayed acquisition can cause infectious

mononucleosis (IM); a self-limiting clinical condition marked by a large expansion of CD8$^+$ T cells

specific to viral antigens (Dunmire, Hogquist and Balfour, 2015). The connection between EBV infection

and MS was first posited due to the prominent epidemiological overlap in cases of IM and MS (Warner

and Carp, 1981). Numerous studies have since provided evidence linking EBV infection with the

development of MS (Ascherio *et al.*, 2001; DeLorenze *et al.*, 2006; Thacker, Mirzaei and Ascherio, 2006;

McKay *et al.*, 2016; Bjornevik *et al.*, 2022; Lanz *et al.*, 2022).

Individuals who are EBV seronegative (EBV$^-$) have a relatively low risk for MS, whereas

asymptomatically infected individuals have a moderate risk, and those who have previously developed

IM have a significantly higher risk for MS than those who acquired the virus asymptomatically (Thacker,

Mirzaei and Ascherio, 2006; Handel *et al.*, 2010). Additionally, nearly all adult and pediatric MS patients

are EBV seropositive (EBV$^+$) (Alotaibi *et al.*, 2004; Banwell *et al.*, 2007; Levin *et al.*, 2010), and MS

patients show higher EBV-specific antibody titers than age-matched controls in the years preceding

disease onset (DeLorenze *et al.*, 2006). MS patients also show increased frequencies of EBV-specific T

cells in the blood compared to unaffected individuals with a similar viral load, some of which are cross

reactive to myelin epitopes (Lünemann *et al.*, 2006, 2008; Lanz *et al.*, 2022). Recently, a longitudinal

case-matched study demonstrated a 32-fold increased risk for MS and significant upregulation of a

biomarker of axonal degeneration in individuals with MS, specifically following EBV seroconversion in

young adulthood (Bjornevik *et al.*, 2022). The efficacy of B cell depletion therapies in MS patients further

suggests a role for EBV infection in disease, as anti-CD20 antibodies may target the viral reservoir

(Jagessar *et al.*, 2013). Moreover, EBV infection is associated with the development of other autoimmune

diseases, including rheumatoid arthritis and systemic lupus erythematosus (Balandraud and Roudier,

2018; Jog and James, 2021), which suggests a common mechanism by which EBV predisposes for

autoimmunity. Latent gammaherpesvirus infection is known to modulate immune responses relevant to

autoimmunity, including downregulation of B cell apoptosis, suppression of regulatory T cell (Treg)

function and production of an interferon-I response (Gasper-Smith, Marriott and Bost, 2006; Quan *et al.*,

2010; Pratt, Zhang and Sugden, 2012). Despite mounting epidemiological and clinical evidence

suggesting EBV infection is a causative factor in MS, experimental investigation of mechanism has been

limited due to the high prevalence of EBV in the general population, the preponderance of asymptomatic

EBV infection years prior to MS onset, and, since EBV exclusively infects humans, a lack of suitable

animal models.

Due to the narrow tropism of latent EBV for human B cells, and resulting inability to infect rodent

immune cells, the animal models that have helped shaped our understanding of MS pathogenesis are not

amenable to EBV infection directly. To address this species limitation, our group previously developed a

mouse model wherein wild-type C57Bl/6 mice are latently infected with the rodent homolog of EBV,

gammaherpesvirus 68 (γ-HV68), and induced with experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis (EAE),

a widely used autoimmune model of MS, to mimic the viral acquisition observed in humans years prior

to disease onset (DeLorenze *et al.*, 2006; Miller, Karpus and Davidson, 2007; Olivadoti *et al.*, 2007;

Casiraghi *et al.*, 2012, 2015; Bjornevik *et al.*, 2022). Mice latently infected with γ-HV68 prior to EAE

induction experience a severe pathology more alike MS than uninfected EAE mice (Casiraghi *et al.*, 2012,

2015). The enhanced MS-like disease is characterized by greater clinical scores with earlier symptom

onset, as well demyelinated lesion formation in the brain, and CNS infiltration of activated

macrophages/microglia, cytotoxic CD8$^+$ T cells, and Th1-skewed CD4$^+$ T cells (Casiraghi *et al.*, 2012).

Treg frequencies are also significantly decreased in the CNS and spleens of infected EAE mice (Casiraghi

et al., 2012). Moreover, these effects were exclusive to latent γ-HV68 infection, as acute γ-HV68 infection

and chronic infection with other viruses, including murine cytomegalovirus and lymphocytic

choriomeningitis virus, were not able to enhance EAE (Casiraghi *et al.*, 2012). The immunopathological

features of the γ-HV68/EAE model are hallmark characteristics of MS that are either far less pronounced

or absent in classical EAE models (Simmons *et al.*, 2013; Wagner *et al.*, 2020), which strongly indicates

EBV might contribute to similar aspects of the pathogenesis of MS in humans. Although this modeling

approach has been educational, a more complete understanding of how EBV modifies MS susceptibility

could be gained from improved models of host-viral interactions.

Here, we sought to study the role of EBV latency in MS using humanized mice that contain

reconstituted human immune systems naturally exposed to EBV. EBV infection of humanized mice has

recapitulated various aspects of the viral immune response and pathogenesis of EBV-associated diseases

observed in humans, including lytic and latent infections (Melkus *et al.*, 2006; Yajima *et al.*, 2008; Lin *et*

al., 2015), lymphoproliferation and tumor formation (Islas-Ohlmayer *et al.*, 2004; Lim *et al.*, 2007; Heuts

et al., 2014), among others (Kuwana *et al.*, 2011; Sato *et al.*, 2011; Münz, 2015). Studies of EBV infection

in humanized mice, however, have not reported CNS-localized inflammation leading to motor deficits, as

seen in classical EAE models of MS. To capture the effects of long-term latent EBV infection on immune

function and neuroinflammation, we induced EAE in immunodeficient mice reconstituted with peripheral

blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) isolated from healthy EBV$^+$ or EBV$^-$ adults. Since the vast majority of

people living with MS are EBV$^+$ (Levin *et al.*, 2010; Abrahamyan *et al.*, 2020), we also tested donor

PBMCs from this group for neuroinflammatory potential in EAE. Supporting a role for EBV-mediated

immunomodulation in MS susceptibility, we found that donor EBV serostatus clearly defined the time of

EAE symptom onset and severity of disease. Further, this novel mouse model revealed that PBMCs from

EBV seropositive donors led to diminished regulatory T cell expansion and enhanced effector T cell

infiltration of the CNS, providing new mechanistic understanding of how latent EBV infection promotes

CNS autoimmunity.

RESULTS

EBV seropositive and RRMS donor derived PBMCs exacerbate clinical disease severity in HuPBMC EAE mice

To evaluate the impact of EBV infection on clinical outcomes of disease in a humanized MS model, we engrafted NOD/SCID-IL2Rγ $^{-/-}$ (NSG) mice with PBMCs (HuPBMC mice) from three donor groups based on EBV seropositivity and RRMS diagnosis (Figure 1A). For this study, we enrolled treatment naïve female donors aged 19–39, due to the increased prevalence of RRMS among young women (Rommer *et al.*, 2020). Consistent with previous reports (DeLorenze *et al.*, 2006; Mouhieddine *et al.*, 2015; Bjornevik *et al.*, 2022), the donors diagnosed with RRMS were all EBV seropositive (EBV$^+$) and exhibited significantly elevated EBV-specific serum IgG titres to both the acute phase viral capsid antigen (VCA, Figure 1B) and the latent phase Epstein-Barr nuclear antigen 1 (EBNA-1, Figure 1C) compared to previously infected, otherwise healthy EBV$^+$ donors. Uninfected EBV seronegative (EBV$^-$) healthy donors (HDs) were identified and grouped based on the absence of serum IgM and IgG specific to both antigens. EBV viral load analysis of donor PBMCs confirmed that none of the donors had detectable levels of cell-associated EBV that might be indicative of a highly active infection or an EBV-associated disorder such as malignancy or infectious mononucleosis (Kimura *et al.*, 1999) (Figure 1D). We also assessed donor group differences in other serological factors associated with MS (McKay *et al.*, 2016; Olsson, Barcellos and Alfredsson, 2017). Our donors showed 33–50% seropositivity for cytomegalovirus (CMV) within each donor group, which reflects the general population (Staras *et al.*, 2006; Lachmann *et al.*, 2018) (Table 1). Although there was no significant difference in anti-CMV IgG titres between EBV$^+$ HD and the other two groups, RRMS EBV$^+$ donors had elevated anti-CMV IgG compared to EBV$^-$ HD (Figure S1A). We also verified that the donors did not have any existing overt

seroreactivity to the inducing antigen, recombinant human myelin oligodendrocyte glycoprotein (rhMOG,

Figure S1B), and the donor groups had statistically similar serum 25-OH vitamin D levels (Figure S1C).

Human leukocyte antigen (HLA) typing revealed that two of four RRMS donors expressed the MS risk

allele DRB1*15:01 (Wang *et al.*, 2020), whereas none of the healthy donors expressed this allele (Figure

S1D). Individual donor characteristics, including clinical MS parameters and viral serostatus, are reported

in Table 1.

Flow cytometric analysis of transplanted PBMCs confirmed that recipient NSG mice were

engrafted with a similar composition of immune cells from each donor (Figure S2). HuPBMC mice were

then induced with EAE using a mixture of $rhMOG_{1-120}$ and MOG_{35-55} after a three-week reconstitution

period (Figure 1A). HuPBMC mice were found to be susceptible to EAE and exhibited symptoms typical

of other murine EAE models, including weight loss, piloerection, motor imbalance, and an ascending

paralysis with resolution within approximately a week from onset (data not shown and Figure S3, S7).

The development of paralysis, reaching EAE scores of up to 4 on a standard 5-point scale (Miller, Karpus

and Davidson, 2007), was similar to the asynchronous, relapsing EAE phenotype of the Non-Obese

Diabetic (NOD) background strain for the NSG (Figure S3, S7) (Baker *et al.*, 2019). HuPBMC EAE mice

demonstrated an exacerbation of clinical disease by multiple measures when engrafted with PBMCs from

donors who were EBV^+ and had been diagnosed with RRMS (Figure 1E – G). The overall disease course

of EAE was significantly worsened in EBV^+ HD mice compared to EBV^- HD mice, which was in turn

significantly more severe in the EBV^+ RRMS recipient cohorts compared to both HD groups (Figure 1E).

The incidence of EAE symptoms was significantly greater in EBV^+ RRMS recipient mice compared to

the HD groups, and moderately increased with EBV infection between HD groups (Figure 1F). HuPBMC

EAE mice derived from EBV^- HD donors also exhibited a significantly delayed time to symptom onset

compared to the EBV^+ recipient groups, which was not significantly different between the EBV^+ recipient

groups, regardless of an RRMS diagnosis (Figure 1G). The clinical outcomes of EAE indicate that donor EBV infection and RRMS diagnosis both increase disease susceptibility and severity in recipient HuPBMC EAE mice.

Human T cells infiltrate and localize to areas of inflammatory demyelination in the CNS of HuPBMC EAE mice

In classical EAE models, clinical disease scores are assessed based on the severity of ascending paralysis, which is a consequence of inflammatory damage to the spinal cord (Simmons *et al.*, 2013). To investigate the underlying cause of the clinical symptom differences associated with donor EBV and RRMS status, we first evaluated the degree of demyelination of the spinal cord among the three recipient HuPBMC EAE groups. EAE induction of immunocompetent NOD mice and RRMS/HD EBV+ HuPBMC mice led to a significant loss of total myelin content relative to unaffected NSG control mice (Figure 2A). Both EBV+ groups had significantly less myelin in the spinal cord compared to NSG controls, whereas EAE induction of EBV- HD recipient HuPBMC mice did not significantly reduce myelination, suggesting greater protection from EAE consistent with diminished clinical disease severity in this group. As demyelination in EAE is predominantly T cell driven (Furtado *et al.*, 2008; Hohlfeld and Steinman, 2017), we confirmed that engrafted human T cells could infiltrate the CNS following induction. Notably, we detected an accumulation of human CD8+ T cells in the white matter of both the spinal cord (Figure 2B) and the cerebellum (Figure 2C) of HuPBMC EAE mice engrafted with RRMS donor PBMCs, demonstrating that engrafted human T cells can localize to CNS regions typically demyelinated in classical EAE models. Moreover, we observed an inflammatory lesion within the cerebellum marked by microgliosis, as indicated by concentrated Iba-1 staining, that co-localized with human CD8+ T cell infiltration (Figure 2D). Demyelination of the spinal cord and brain lesion infiltrates composed of

macrophages and CD8^{+} T cells are consistent with the CNS immunopathology seen in both EAE models

and MS, respectively (Salou *et al.*, 2015; Wagner *et al.*, 2020).

CNS immunopathology in HuPBMC EAE is mediated by human Th1 and cytotoxic T cells and

murine macrophages

Murine EAE models can present with a range of distinct disease symptomologies, CNS

pathologies and constituent autoimmune processes based on the induction method and rodent strain used.

As this HuPBMC EAE model is novel, we first characterized the immunopathological features of EAE

mice using NSG mice engrafted with HD EBV[+] PBMCs, in order to establish a baseline from which to

compare EBV^{-} and RRMS PBMCs recipient cohorts. Consistent with our findings by histology, we

measured substantial spinal cord infiltration of both human CD4^{+} (hCD4^{+}, 3802 ± 3525 cells/ spinal cord)

and CD8^{+} (hCD8^{+}, 1225 ± 1262 cells/ spinal cord) T cells by flow cytometry in HuPBMC EAE mice

(Figure 3A). A large proportion of hCD4^{+} T cells in the CNS produced IFNγ (~45%). Although there were

relatively few IL-17A^{+} cells, the majority of these cells co-expressed IFNγ, indicating that this model is

predominantly Th1-driven (Figure 3A, B). Among CNS-infiltrating hCD8^{+} T cells, ~80% expressed IFNγ

and/or Granzyme B (GzmB) (Figure 3A, B), suggesting they are capable of cytotoxic activity. Though the

level of T cell reconstitution and infiltration was variable among tissues derived from the same recipient

cohort, the pattern of cytokine expression was similar in the periphery and in the CNS (Figure 3B). Human

T cell infiltration was detected in the CNS of all EAE-induced HuPBMC mice regardless of the

development of clinically visible EAE symptoms (Figure S4). However, the spinal cords of mice that

developed clinical symptoms contained significantly greater numbers of hCD45^{+} cells, including total

hCD3^{+} and activated hCD8^{+} T cells, than mice that remained subclinical (Figure S4). Moreover, there was

a significantly higher ratio of hCD8^{+} T cells relative to hCD4^{+} T cells within the CNS of mice with EAE

symptoms (Figure 3C), suggesting a critical role for cytotoxic hCD8^{+} T cells in mediating demyelination

and tissue damage.

Myelin phagocytosis by infiltrating and resident macrophages/microglia is a key mediator of

demyelination in EAE models (Yamasaki *et al.*, 2014; Dong and Yong, 2019). In humanized mouse

models, both endogenous murine and engrafted human myeloid cells reconstitute and can co-exist within

the CNS (Gorantla, Gendelman and Poluektova, 2012; Zhang *et al.*, 2021). We assessed the abundance of

murine (mCD45^{hi}CD11b^{hi}F4/80^{+}) and human (hCD45^{+}CD14^{+}CD68^{+}) macrophages in the CNS and

periphery to determine the potential relative contribution of each subset to the immunopathology of

HuPBMC EAE. Unlike hematopoietic stem cell engraftment-based humanized mouse models, PBMC

humanization of NSG mice generally favors the engraftment of T cells over innate immune subsets

(Morillon *et al.*, 2020). Accordingly, we observed numerous mCD45^{hi} macrophages in the brains, spinal

cords, and spleens of HuPBMC EAE mice but very few hCD45^{+} macrophages (Figure 3D). The overall

scarcity of hCD45^{+}CD14^{+}CD68^{+} cells in the CNS suggests that infiltrating murine macrophages and

resident microglia likely perform the bulk of axonal demyelination following EAE induction. We

confirmed that murine myeloid cells phagocytosed myelin in the HuPBMC EAE model based on the

detection of intracellular myelin basic protein (MBP) in mCD45^{hi} macrophages in the CNS after induction

(Figure 3E). In the spinal cord, the total number of infiltrating hCD8^{+} T cells correlated strongly and

specifically with the number of infiltrating MBP^{+} murine macrophages in the same tissue (Figure 3F),

similar to MS brain lesions wherein infiltrating cytotoxic T cells and macrophages are positively

correlated with the extent of axonal damage (Bitsch *et al.*, 2000). An association with myelin phagocytosis

was not observed for hCD4^{+} T cells or human macrophages (Figure S5). Furthermore, we observed a

significant increase in the total numbers of murine macrophages and myelin-phagocytosing microglia

(mCD45^{lo}CD11b^{hi}F4/80^{+}MBP^{+}) in the spinal cords of HuPBMC mice that developed clinical EAE

symptoms compared to mice that remained subclinical (Figure 3G, H), supporting the notion that murine

myeloid cells demyelinate the CNS sufficiently to produce clinical symptoms in this model.

Collectively, the data indicate that infiltrating hCD4$^+$ T cells direct a Th1 polarized response in the

CNS of HuPBMC EAE mice that leads to hCD8$^+$ T cell-mediated myelin damage and subsequent

phagocytosis by murine macrophages and microglia. The capability of hCD8$^+$ T cells to exert myelin-

directed cytotoxicity, however, was unclear in an interspecies model of immune-mediated demyelination.

Based on previous work, which has demonstrated productive human T cell receptor (TCR) interactions

with mouse major histocompatibility complex (MHC) in humanized NSG mice (Halkias *et al.*, 2015), we

assessed whether hCD8$^+$ T cells could effectively interact with myelin antigen presented on mouse MHC

I-expressing cells ex vivo (Figure 3I). Co-culture of sort-purified splenic mCD45$^+$ and hCD8$^+$ cells from

HuPBMC mice in the presence of rhMOG resulted in a significant expansion of mCD11c$^+$ cells, including

those expressing CD40, and a simultaneous decrease in CD8 median fluorescence intensity on human

CD3$^+$CD8$^+$ T cells (Figure 3J), indicative of increased antigen recognition (Kroger and Alexander-Miller,

2007). There was also a significant increase in the proportion of hCD8$^+$ T cells expressing the antigen

activation marker CD137, as well as IFNγ (Figure 3J), which affirms the functional capacity of hCD8$^+$ T

cells to recognize and respond to antigen in humanized mouse tissues. These data highlight the interspecies

nature of the immunopathology of the HuPBMC EAE model and supports its use as a model of MS.

Donor EBV seropositivity and RRMS diagnosis promote effector T cell accumulation in the CNS

of HuPBMC EAE mice

Since the HuPBMC EAE recipient groups showed an EBV and RRMS associated increase in

disease severity and demyelination, we sought to assess human immune cell infiltration of the CNS and

reconstitution in the periphery to identify contributing immune subsets. In the brain, spinal cord, and

spleen, HuPBMC EAE recipient cohorts followed a stepwise, increasing trend in total human CD45$^+$

immune cell counts with donor EBV seropositivity and RRMS diagnosis (Figure 4A). In all HuPBMC

EAE mice, relatively few human B cells infiltrated the CNS relative to T cells: approximately 25–100

hCD19$^+$ B cells versus 10^3–10^5 hCD3$^+$ T cells per spinal cord (Figure 4B, C). Total B cell infiltration of

the CNS and peripheral reconstitution also did not differ between the three recipient groups (Figure 4B).

EBV intermittently reactivates from latently infected memory B cells to transmit to new cells

(Hadinoto *et al.*, 2008), which has been suggested to potentially contribute to relapses in MS (Bar-Or *et*

al., 2020). Though engrafted B cells reconstituted the spleen (approximately 10^3 – 10^5 hCD19$^+$ B cells),

EBV viral genomes were undetectable in the spleens of most mice at EAE endpoint, regardless of recipient

group (Figure 4D), indicating peripheral viral reactivation from engrafted B cells is unlikely to have

influenced disease outcomes. We further assessed whether an active EBV infection may play a role in

promoting disease by measuring antibody production by EBV-specific B cells. Given that engrafted

lymphocytes do not form organized germinal centers in NSG mouse lymphoid tissues, and are

subsequently unable to promote class-switching and hypermutation of human B cells (Jangalwe *et al.*,

2016; Lang *et al.*, 2017), any EBV-specific IgG produced in these mice would indicate a reactivation of

engrafted memory B cells rather than a novel response to infection post-engraftment. We confirmed the

production of rhMOG-specific human IgM and the absence of rhMOG-specific human IgG in the serum

of HuPBMC EAE mice (Figure S6A), indicating the engraftment of otherwise functionally responsive

human B cells. In three separate EBV$^+$ recipient cohorts, no human IgG to the EBV antigen VCA could

be detected in serum after EAE induction (Figure S6B), despite a strong response in corresponding donor

serum (Figure 1B), suggesting that, under these conditions, an active infection likely does not play a role

in the enhancement of clinical disease.

Though direct B cell involvement in causing disease differences seemed improbable, total hCD3^{+}

T cell counts comprised the majority of infiltrating human CD45^{+} cells in the CNS, following the same

increasing trend of higher counts with donor EBV and RRMS status (Figure 4C). Among infiltrating T

cells, hCD4^{+} T cells demonstrated a consistent increase in total counts in all three tissues with donor EBV

seropositivity and RRMS (Figure 4E), while hCD8^{+} T cell counts were increased only in the brain of

RRMS recipient mice compared to HD mice (Figure 4F). Increased hCD8^{+} T cell counts in the RRMS

recipient brains corresponded to greater numbers of infiltrating murine immune cell in these samples

(Figure S6C), whereas microglia and human macrophage counts did not differ between recipient groups

in any tissue (Figure S6D, E). Splenic reconstitution of hCD8^{+} T cells was also similar between groups

(Figure 4F).

Among hCD4^{+} T cells, the proportions of cells expressing cytokines indicative of subset skewing

(Th1 and Th17) did not follow any consistent trends with PBMC donor EBV or RRMS status (Figure 5A,

S7A – C), indicating polarization toward a particular inflammatory Th subset was not the main driver of

clinical group differences. However, the increased number of total hCD4^{+} T cells in EBV^{+} HD and RRMS

recipient group tissues than EBV^{-} HD tissues (see Figure 4E) led to an overall greater abundance of

effector Th1 cells in the CNS and spleen (Figure 5B), despite similar levels of IFNγ expression (Figure

5A, S7A). The relatively fewer total numbers of Th17 (Figure 5C) and IFNγ[+]IL-17A^{+} Th cells (Figure

5D) showed some moderate, but not striking group specific trends that would otherwise suggest they

underpinned the observed clinical disease differences. Despite similar numbers of total infiltrating hCD8^{+}

T cells in the CNS between recipient cohorts (see Figure 4F), donor EBV seropositivity led to significantly

enhanced T cell cytotoxicity (Figure 5E), as measured by a significant shift from less IFNγ expression

(Figure 5F) to more GzmB expression (Figure 5G, H) among hCD8^{+} T cells in the brain and spinal cord.

Interestingly, this trend was not further enhanced by donor RRMS diagnosis. Although total effector

hCD8$^+$ T cell counts were similar between recipient group tissues (Figure S7D – F), the skewing toward

increased cytotoxic capacity within the infiltrating hCD8$^+$ T cell population is consistent with the elevated

level of demyelination in the CNS of EBV$^+$ recipient mice (see Figure 2A). Overall, both a donor history

of EBV infection and a diagnosis of RRMS led to incremental increases in the accumulation of pathogenic

effector hCD4$^+$ and hCD8$^+$ T cells in the CNS of HuPBMC mice induced with EAE.

Donor EBV seropositivity and RRMS diagnosis limit regulatory T cell expansion in HuPBMC

EAE mice

Alongside greater Th1 and cytotoxic T effector cell infiltration of the CNS, we observed a

reduction in the proportion of hCD4$^+$ T cells expressing the regulatory transcription factor FOXP3 in EBV$^+$

recipient group tissues compared to the EBV$^-$ HD group (Figure 6). Initially, FOXP3 expression in hCD4$^+$

T cells from freshly isolated PBMCs is comparable between donor groups (Figure 6A) but is incrementally

reduced in EBV$^+$ HD and RRMS hCD4$^+$ T cells in the blood of NSG mice following engraftment of the

PBMCs (Figure 6B). Following EAE induction, this trend of lower proportions of FOXP3$^+$ T cells is

likewise observed in the CNS and spleen of EBV$^+$ HD and RRMS recipient mice (Figure 6C – E), even

though total regulatory T cell (Treg) counts are similar between groups (Figure S6F). The sum

consequence of this incremental increase in pathogenic T cell infiltration of the CNS and simultaneous

suppression of Treg expansion was a significantly greater ratio of effector hCD4$^+$ and hCD8$^+$ T cells to

regulatory hCD4$^+$ T cells in the CNS and periphery of EBV$^+$ HD and RRMS recipient mice compared to

EBV$^-$ HD mice (Figure 6F, G & S6G, H). As sample collection was timed to maintain similar overall

cumulative EAE scores between groups at endpoint, differences in CNS infiltration could not be correlated

with greater clinical disease burden for RRMS and EBV$^+$ recipient groups (Figure S8A – D). Though

weight loss followed the EBV and RRMS status trend with clinical disease severity (Figure S8E), the

incidence of clinical symptoms of graft-versus-host disease (GvHD) was comparably low between the

groups (Figure S8F, G), suggesting excessive, nonspecific inflammation due to varying degrees of human

PBMC recognition of murine MHC within the recipient tissues was not the main determinant of the

observed Th1 expansion and Treg suppression. The data collectively suggest that a history of both EBV

infection and an RRMS diagnosis among donors leads to a compounded reduction in the expansion of

Tregs and a concomitant increase in effector Th1 and cytotoxic T cell abundance, and, subsequently, to

systemic dysregulation of T cell-mediated inflammation resulting in excessive CNS damage and worsened

clinical outcomes.

EBV infection and RRMS both enhance donor T cell proliferation following TCR stimulation

Based on the findings above, PBMCs from EBV$^-$ HD are seemingly less reactive to myelin antigen

challenge in the HuPBMC EAE model than EBV$^+$ HD and RRMS PBMCs. The observation that FOXP3

expression among hCD4$^+$ T cells is reduced even prior to EAE induction suggests the effector T cells may

become more activated during reconstitution due to a lack of regulation, which then transfers to the CNS

after MOG immunization. Within the donor PBMCs (prior to engraftment into NSG mice), hCD4$^+$ and

CD8$^+$ T cells did not differ in their group baseline expression of the activation markers HLA-DR, CD38,

CD137, or CD154 (Figure S9), nor of subset-specific transcription factors (Figure S10). Likewise,

baseline cytokine expression did not follow any EBV or RRMS associated trends that would explain the

observations in the HuPBMC EAE mice (Figure S10). To evaluate the possibility that T cells from an

EBV-exposed host are intensely activated following TCR engagement generally, we stimulated donor

PBMCs by anti-hCD3/CD28 stimulation in vitro (Figure 7). Interestingly, direct stimulation of the TCR

without a specific antigen resulted in a trend of enhanced hCD4$^+$ T cell proliferation with donor EBV and

RRMS status, as measured by a CFSE-based proliferation index and Ki-67 expression (Figure 7A – C).

hCD4$^+$ T cells from EBV$^+$ HD PBMCs, and even more so EBV$^+$ RRMS PBMCs, were able to attain a

higher average number of cellular divisions during the incubation period compared to EBV$^-$ donor PBMCs

(Figure 7B). Consistent with the HuPBMC EAE model data, these T cells were not differentially polarized

after stimulation based on inflammatory cytokine expression (Figure 7D, E). Moreover, the same effects

were observed with hCD8$^+$ T cells, as measured by an incremental increase in proliferation with donor

EBV seropositivity and RRMS diagnosis following anti-CD3/CD28 treatment (Figure 7F – H). Stimulated

hCD8$^+$ T cell cytokine expression also did not follow group specific trends (Figure 7I, J). Therefore, in

addition to an EBV and RRMS associated deficiency in the expansion of regulatory T cells in the

HuPBMC EAE model, both hCD4$^+$ and hCD8$^+$ T cells from EBV experienced hosts are also more

proliferative following general TCR stimulation, without alteration to the polarization profiles of these

cells.

DISCUSSION

The findings of this study highlight the utility of PBMC-humanized EAE mice in modelling clinical and immunopathological aspects of MS and its association with a history of EBV infection. Immunocompromised NSG mice engrafted with human donor PBMCs were susceptible to the development of EAE symptoms and demyelination, much like classical murine EAE models immunized with myelin antigens. As confirmed by histological analysis, engrafted human CD8$^+$ T cells were able to migrate to and infiltrate the mouse CNS and localize to areas of microgliosis and myelin damage. Moreover, the CNS of symptomatic mice was enriched for hCD8$^+$ relative to hCD4$^+$ T cells, which is commonly observed in post-mortem analysis of MS lesions (Babbe *et al.*, 2000; Salou *et al.*, 2015) but is not usually observed in classical murine EAE models (Simmons *et al.*, 2013). We also observed equivalent numbers of infiltrating human T cells in the brain and the spinal cord, as opposed to the spinal cord dominant pathology of most murine EAE models (Simmons *et al.*, 2013). Infiltrating T cells produced predominantly Th1 and cytotoxic molecules that functioned alongside murine macrophages to demyelinate the CNS. Notably, demyelination of the mouse CNS occurred without substantial involvement of engrafted human macrophages, and human CD8$^+$ T cells and murine immune cells were able to functionally interact ex vivo. Interspecies TCR:MHC interactions are potentially less efficient than autologous antigen presentation (Halkias *et al.*, 2015), as evidenced by a relatively reduced rate of EAE symptom incidence compared to classical murine EAE models (Dang *et al.*, 2015). These interactions are, however, sufficient to produce demyelinating disease resulting in clinically measurable motor deficits. Though a previous study incorporated myelin antigen-pulsed autologous dendritic cells (DC) to provide human MHC for presentation in PBMC humanized mice (Zayoud *et al.*, 2013), our data suggest human DC priming is not necessary to produce clinical EAE symptoms in HuPBMC mice. Immune system

reconstitution of NSG mice with human PBMCs does not precisely replicate the composition of the donor

PBMCs, nor all the nuanced contextual and site-specific complexities of the mammalian immune system

(Morillon *et al.*, 2020). Nevertheless, these data collectively demonstrate that the HuPBMC EAE model

is an interspecies system that exemplifies key elements of MS, and as such is a viable mouse model

capable of providing novel clues for causation, biomarkers, and treatment of disease.

PBMC donor history of EBV infection and a diagnosis of RRMS both exacerbated clinical disease

susceptibility and severity in HuPBMC EAE mice. Consistent with the findings of Bjornevik *et al.*, 2022,

clinical EAE differences could not be attributed to CMV infection status, nor to reduced serum vitamin D

levels. Moreover, clinical differences associated with donor EBV seropositivity in the HuPBMC EAE

model are consistent with findings that elevated humoral responses to EBV at disease onset are associated

with long-term greater disease severity and higher relapse rate in individuals with MS (Comabella *et al.*,

2022). Though EBV infection alone was not necessary to enable EAE development in HuPBMC mice,

the EBV[+] HD recipient group presented with an intermediate phenotype that resembled RRMS recipient

mice in some ways more than the EBV[-] HD group. Interestingly, active infection by EBV was not required

to exacerbate disease severity, as demonstrated by the absence of viral replication and memory B cell

responses to EBV in mice derived from donors with existing latent EBV infection. Our group has

previously demonstrated that viral reactivation does not occur following EAE induction in C57Bl/6 mice

latently infected with the murine EBV homolog, gammaherpesvirus-68 (γHV68), and that γHV68 does

not actively infect the CNS during EAE (Casiraghi *et al.*, 2012). B cell accumulation in the CNS of

HuPBMC EAE mice was also not significantly different among mice derived from donors with or without

EBV and RRMS. Though relatively few B cells engraft and infiltrate the CNS compared to T cells, the

possibility remains that engrafted B cells of varying specificities and functionalities, which can act both

protectively and pathogenically in classical EAE models (Rojas *et al.*, 2019; Jain and Yong, 2021), may

468 also contribute to the enhancement of disease and the increased CNS inflammation observed in EBV[+] and

469 RRMS recipient mice. Clinical post-mortem evidence has suggested that EBV could contribute to the

470 development and/or progression of MS through infection of CNS-infiltrating B cells and tertiary lymphoid

471 structures, leading to local inflammation (Serafini *et al.*, 2004, 2007; Pikor *et al.*, 2016). With minimal B

472 cell accumulation in the CNS at endpoint, the HuPBMC EAE model likely reflects earlier stages of MS,

473 where B cell-containing lymphoid structures have not yet formed. An important limitation of PBMC

474 humanized mice is the development of xenogeneic graft-versus-host disease, which limits the duration of

475 experiments to ~25 days post-immunization in our experience. Further investigation will be required to

476 assess the presence and influence of EBV-infected and EBV-specific B cells HuPBMC EAE mice.

477 Although there are multiple supported mechanisms by which EBV could promote an autoimmune

478 environment through B cell-specific processes, our data suggests a role for T cell immunomodulation

479 following latent infection.

480  HuPBMC EAE mice derived from EBV[+] HD and RRMS recipient groups had increased

481 accumulation of Th1 and cytotoxic T cells in the CNS compared to EBV[-] HD groups. Additionally, EBV[+]

482 mice also had substantially reduced Treg expansion, indicating an impairment of immune regulation

483 resulting from infection. The increased abundance of effector T cells relative to regulatory T cells

484 consequently skews to promote a more inflammatory environment in mice derived from healthy donors

485 with a history of EBV infection, which further compounds when donors have also been diagnosed with

486 RRMS. Unlike in classical EAE models, where inbred mice are effectively genetically identical and highly

487 susceptible to EAE immunization (Levine and Sowinski, 1973; Marín *et al.*, 2014), the genetic variability

488 of engrafted human immune cells from unrelated donors highlights the consistency and magnitude of the

489 effect of EBV seropositivity on clinical and immunological disease outcomes in this model. Given that

490 both clinical and immunological differences were observed between the healthy donor groups differing

based on EBV serostatus, these effects are not entirely due to existing autoimmunity among donors. The

increase in infiltrating T effector cells appeared to be due to a generalized enhanced proliferative capacity

among T cells derived from EBV seropositive donors following TCR engagement. Further analysis will

be required to determine if engrafted human T cells that proliferate in the periphery express more CNS

homing molecules and chemokine receptors when derived from EBV[+] donors, or, if upon infiltration of

the CNS, EBV experienced T cells proliferate locally to a greater extent than those that are EBV naïve.

Regulatory T cells control effector T cell proliferation and motility in the CNS following EAE induction

(Koutrolos *et al.*, 2014), and thus assessment of the functional capacity of the engrafted cytotoxic T cell

and Treg populations would also provide insight into mechanisms by which EBV suppresses regulation

of effector cells following antigenic challenge.

As T cells are required for constant immune control of EBV-infected B cells (Long, Meckiff and

Taylor, 2019), latent infection could promote lasting change in predisposition to activation that may alter

the balance of effector and regulatory responses toward a more 'MS-like' state. In the γHV68 EAE model,

we also observe greater CD8^{+} T cell infiltration of the CNS, and particularly the brain, of latently infected

mice, in addition to Th1-skewing, macrophage/microglia and DC activation, and reduced Treg proportions

in the CNS and periphery (Casiraghi *et al.*, 2012, 2015). Similar Th1-skewing and CD8^{+} T cell

involvement was observed in latent γHV68-infected mice induced with rheumatoid arthritis (Mouat *et al.*,

2021), suggesting a common role for gammaherpesviruses in the exacerbation of and predisposition for

autoimmunity. Other susceptibility factors for MS, including a history of obesity, smoking and low

vitamin D intake, have all been suggested to act in part by promoting T cell inflammation both directly

and by impeding regulatory processes (Ascherio, Munger and Lünemann, 2012; Correale and Farez, 2015;

Fisher *et al.*, 2019; Marrodan *et al.*, 2021). Ingelfinger et al. recently identified increased CD25 expression

on transitional helper T cells as a defining phenotype of MS-derived PBMCs in a monozygotic twin study,

which the authors posit could be preferentially responsive to an environmental immune challenge such as

EBV infection (Ingelfinger *et al.*, 2022). Zdimerova et al. also demonstrated a synergistic interaction

between EBV infection and the MS risk allele HLA-DRB1*15:01 in stem cell-humanized mice, leading

to increased T cell reactivity to myelin antigens (Zdimerova *et al.*, 2020). Though two of four of the RRMS

donors who provided samples to this study expressed the HLA-DRB1*15:01 risk allele, the absence of

the variant among healthy donors in this small initial donor pool did not allow an analysis of the

downstream effects of this variant on outcomes in the HuPBMC EAE model. A focus on the interplay of

genetics and environmental exposures will enable more comprehensive investigation of MS risk factors

and targeted therapies in the HuPBMC EAE model moving forward.

HuPBMC mice offer the possibility of pre-screening and selecting donors based on chosen genetic

variants, environmental exposures, immunological conditions (Jodeleit *et al.*, 2021; Unterweger *et al.*,

2021), and, in the case of the HuPBMC EAE model, MS disease characteristics of interest, to create a

personalized immune system model. The increased brain infiltration in HuPBMC EAE mice may also aid

in the study of MS pathology. Though EBV induced immunomodulation of T cell responses is a possible

mechanism for inciting MS, it is also possible that immunomodulation occurs alongside additional virus-

specific mechanisms, such as infection and immortalization of autoreactive B cells, ineffective or abherent

immune control of EBV reactivation, and structural mimicry of CNS antigens by viral proteins (Lang *et*

al., 2002; Pender, 2003; Laurence and Benito-León, 2017; Lanz *et al.*, 2022; Schneider-Hohendorf *et al.*,

2022). An important next step is to assess clinical outcomes and T cell inflammation in the model when

engrafted with PBMCs derived from donors with other autoimmune disorders, especially those also linked

to EBV infection, such as systemic lupus erythematosus and rheumatoid arthritis (Balandraud and

Roudier, 2018; Jog and James, 2021), to determine the generalizability of T cell immunomodulation by

EBV in autoimmune susceptibility. HuPBMC EAE mice could be used for directly assessing disease

modifying therapies specific to human immune targets, as well as indirectly by engrafting PBMCs derived

from patients treated with therapies such as B cell monoclonal antibodies or EBV-specific T cells (Pender

et al., 2018). Instances of promising results from biologic testing in preclinical EAE models that translated

to worsened disease or serious side effects in humans could ideally also be identified in preclinical models

with human immune systems before advancement to clinical trials (Schmidt *et al.*, 2003; Suntharalingam

et al., 2006; Jagessar *et al.*, 2012; Kappos *et al.*, 2014). HuPBMC mice could also be used to circumvent

the generation of costly transgenic mouse lines for immunogenetic studies. Furthermore, the HuPBMC

EAE model mechanistically reflects the epidemiological and clinical data associating EBV infection with

increased risk of autoimmune disease.

In summary, our findings highlight that EBV-mediated risk for disease in a humanized mouse

model of MS occurs prior to autoimmune challenge and that either the establishment or maintenance of

latent infection likely modulates subsequent T cell reactivity to autoantigen years later. The data support

prevention of EBV infection and establishment of latency as a strong avenue for MS preventative

strategies.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be fulfilled by the Lead Contact, Marc Horwitz (mhorwitz@mail.ubc.ca).

Human participants

Blood donation by human participants was approved by the University of British Columbia's Clinical Research Ethics Board and by the Fraser Health Authority, under protocol H16-02338. Individuals with RRMS were recruited at the Fraser Health MS Clinic (Burnaby, BC) under the supervision of Dr. Galina Vorobeychik. Unaffected, otherwise healthy donors were recruited at the Life Sciences Center (University of British Columbia). All donors were female, 19 – 39 years of age (mean age 31.5 ± 6.1 years for RRMS donors and 26.4 ± 6.2 years for HDs) and provided written informed consent prior to enrolment in the study, from November 2018 to August 2021. Donors with a definite RRMS diagnosis, according to Poser or 2010 McDonald criteria, and disease duration of less than 10 years, were confirmed as treatment naïve prior to donation (no previous use of any disease modifying therapies during lifetime). RRMS donors underwent a neurological exam the day of blood donation to assess Expanded Disability Status Scale (EDSS) score. Individuals with a progressive MS diagnosis or EDSS >4, that were male, pregnant, outside of the designated age range, or undergoing treatment were excluded from the present study.

Donor sample processing

Blood samples were obtained by venipuncture and assigned an alphanumeric code to protect donor identity. Whole blood (80 mL) was processed for PBMC isolation by Lymphoprep (StemCell, #07801)

gradient separation, according to manufacturer's instructions, within an hour of collection in K_2-EDTA

coated vacutainer tubes (BD, #366643). Donor PBMCs were immediately injected into recipient mice. A

subsample of freshly isolated PBMCs was retained for DNA isolation and flow cytometric analysis. A

second subsample of PBMCs was stored in autologous plasma with 10% dimethyl sufoxide and placed in

a Mr. Frosty™ Freezing Container (Thermo Fisher, # 5100-0001) for controlled cooling to -80°C,

followed by transfer to liquid nitrogen for long-term storage. Serum was obtained by centrifugation of

blood (15 min at 1300 x g) collected in uncoated vacutainers (BD, #367820) and frozen at -80°C prior to

analysis. Donor DNA samples were HLA genotyped by The Sequencing Center (Fort Collins, Colorado,

USA) using GenDx NGSengine® software for HLA typing (v.2.27.1).

Animals

Animal work was approved by the Animal Care Committee of the University of British Columbia,

under regulation of the Canadian Council of Animal Care, under protocols A17-0266 and A17-0184.

Adult male NSG (NOD.Cg-*Prkdc^{scid} Il2rg^{tm1Wjl}*/SzJ, JAX #005557), NSG-SGM3 (NOD.Cg-

*Prkdc^{scid}Il2rg^{tm1Wjl}*Tg (CMV-IL3,CSF2,KITLG)1Eav/MloySzJ, JAX #013062) and NOD (JAX #001976)

mice, originally sourced from the Jackson Laboratory, began experiments at 6 – 14 weeks old. In

preliminary experiments, we observed a greater incidence of graft-versus-host disease (GvHD) and

reduced EAE symptom incidence in female NSG mice compared to male NSG mice engrafted with the

same donor PBMCs (data not shown, DNS), and therefore male NSG mice were used as recipients for this

study. Moreover, NSG-SGM3 mice, which differ from the NSG by transgenic expression of human

hematopoietic cytokines (Nicolini *et al.*, 2004; Jangalwe *et al.*, 2016), exhibited similar incidence of EAE

and GvHD symptoms as NSG mice engrafted with the same donor PBMCs (DNS) and were thus used

interchangeably when randomized to recipient groups. Mice were bred in three facilities in Vancouver,

British Columbia (BC Cancer Animal Resource Centre, Centre for Disease Modelling, and Modified

Barrier Facility) to minimize facility-specific outcomes and housed in the same specific pathogen-free

facility at the University of British Columbia for the duration of experiments (Modified Barrier Facility).

Mice were housed in groups up to five animals per cage on corn cob bedding (Bed-o'Cobs, The

Andersons) and fed ad libitum with PicoLab Rodent Diet 20 (#5053) standard irradiated chow with free

access to autoclaved acidified water (pH 3 – 4). Housing rooms were set at 22 – 25°C with a humidity

range of 50 – 70%. All NSG cages were kept on the same designated immunocompromised rack on a 14.5

– 9.5-hour light-dark cycle with sunrise at 5:30 am, sunset at 8:00 pm.

Humanization and EAE induction

NSG mice were engrafted with 5×10^6 donor PBMCs each (or blank phosphate buffered saline

(PBS) for un-engrafted controls) by intravenous tail vein injection. Twelve to twenty mice per donor were

randomly assigned to recipient groups based on PBMC yield and available stock on the day of blood

donation. Following a three-week reconstitution period, circulating human CD45$^+$ cell repopulation was

confirmed by saphenous vein blood sampling and flow cytometric analysis. HuPBMC mice, as well as

un-engrafted NSG and NOD control mice for some experiments, were actively induced with EAE on day

0 by subcutaneous injection of a 100 µL total volume containing 200 µg MOG$_{35\text{-}55}$ peptide (GenScript),

100 µg recombinant human MOG (rhMOG$_{1\text{-}120}$ prepared in-house) and 400 µg desiccated *M. Tuberculosis*

H37Ra (DIFCO, #DF3114-338) emulsified in incomplete Freund's adjuvant (DIFCO, #DF0639-60-6).

On days 0 and 2 post-immunization, mice received an intraperitoneal injection of 200 ng pertussis toxin

(List Biological Laboratories, #179A). The mice were monitored and scored daily for EAE symptoms.

Clinical EAE scoring was based on the following 5-point scale: 0, no overt signs of disease; 0.5, partially

limp tail; 1, limp tail; 1.5 limp tail and hind limb weakness; 2, loss of coordinated movements; 2.5, one

hind limb paralyzed; 3, both hind limbs paralyzed; 3.5, hind limbs paralyzed and weakness in forelimbs;

4, forelimbs paralyzed; 5, moribund state or death by EAE. Clinical outcome assessors of HuPBMC EAE

mice were blinded to the viral serostatus of the blood donors. Onset was defined by the occurrence of tail

paralysis (score 0.5 or higher) for two consecutive days. Cumulative EAE scores were calculated by

summing daily clinical scores from the day of onset until endpoint. Mice with motor impairments, weight

loss and signs of illness were provided supportive care, including administration of subcutaneous fluids

and cage heating, and provisions of wet food and nutritional gel. Humane endpoint was defined by an

EAE score of 4 or greater, or a clinical health score of 4 or greater, as defined by the Animal Care

Committee based on body condition, weight loss and signs of pain. Symptomatic onset of GvHD was

defined by the appearance and persistence or worsening of skin dryness, redness, discoloration (jaundice),

and/or hair loss. Due to intragroup variability in EAE symptom onset and ongoing GvHD and wasting

following the resolution of EAE symptoms, HuPBMC EAE mice could not be maintained longer than

approximately ten days post-symptom onset. Recipient cohorts were treated with the same experimental

interventions for humanization and EAE induction and assigned at random to different endpoint analyses.

Recombinant human MOG protein

The extracellular domain of recombinant human myelin oligodendrocyte protein ($rhMOG_{1-120}$)

was expressed from an *Escherichia coli* (BL21) vector (pQE-30) obtained from Drs. Christopher

Linington and Nancy Ruddle (Breithaupt *et al.*, 2003; Oliver, Lyon and Ruddle, 2003), and the protocol

was modified from that of Dr. Jennifer Gommerman. The vector expresses a 15.8 kDa His-tagged rhMOG

protein under the control of a lac operon. Following isopropyl ß-D-1-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG)

induction, the cells were lysed to release the protein product from inclusion bodies. The protein was

subsequently purified using a Ni^{2+}-His-bind resin column (5 mL HisTrap FF, Cytiva, #17525501) and the

protein fractions were analyzed by SDS-PAGE gel electrophoresis and stained with Coomassie blue. The

fractions containing sufficiently pure protein of the correct molecular weight were pooled and diluted to

a protein concentration of <0.5 mg/mL in preparation for partial refolding in cellulose dialysis tubing (6

– 8 kDa molecular weight cut-off, MWCO). The refolded protein product was concentrated by

centrifugation in 3K MWCO Amicon tubes (EMD Millipore, #UFC900324) until a final concentration of

at least 4 mg/mL was reached. The final concentration was determined using a Nanodrop Lite

Spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific, firmware version 1.02) (MW = 15.5 kDa, e/1000 = 12.09). Protein

samples were aliquoted, and flash frozen in liquid nitrogen prior to storage at -80ºC. The purified and

concentrated rhMOG protein was confirmed to elicit an encephalitogenic response by induction of EAE

symptoms in C57Bl/6 mice.

Tissue collection

Mice were euthanized at endpoint by isoflurane overdose. Blood was collected by cardiac

puncture, followed by perfusion with 20 mL of sterile PBS for collection of CNS tissues. Brains, spinal

cords, and spleens were dissected whole and kept in cold sterile PBS or in 10% neutral buffered formalin

(NBF) for further processing. Spinal cords were straightened, placed onto filter paper, and submerged in

NBF for histological analyses. The presence of intact emulsion was confirmed by examining the skin at

the injection site. Serum was extracted from untreated blood samples by centrifugation (13 min at 8000

rpm) and stored at -80°C prior to analysis. To isolate peripheral blood cells, blood samples were treated

with K2-EDTA for further processing. Tissues from animals in each recipient cohort were included for

analysis regardless of the occurrence of clinically visible EAE symptoms to account for differences in

incidence and severity among donor groups.

Histological analysis

Immunohistochemistry

Perfused, intact organs collected for analysis of cellular infiltration by immunohistochemistry (IHC) were stored in 10% NBF for 2 hours at room temperature (RT). At 2 hours, brains were halved by sagittal division and incubated for another 2 hours along with the spinal cords (4 hours total in NBF at RT). CNS organs were washed in cold PBS for 1 hour at 4°C to remove remaining NBF, then placed in 15% sucrose solution overnight at 4°C for cryoprotection. Organs were then placed in a 30% sucrose solution overnight at 4°C, then placed overnight at 4°C in a 25% sucrose solution containing 50% optimal cutting temperature compound (OCT, VWR Clear Frozen Section Compound, #CA95057-838). Cryoprotected organs were segmented in the case of spinal cords, and oriented in cryomolds containing OCT medium and frozen on a partially submerged aluminum block equilibrated in liquid nitrogen, then stored at -80°C for sectioning. Brain and spinal cord tissues were cut at -19°C into 12-µm sagittal and coronal sections, respectively, using a Shandon Cryotome® FSE (Thermo), and placed onto Superfrost Plus microscope slides (Fisher Scientific, #12-550-15). Sections were taken at least 30-µm apart and obtained from one of either brain hemispheres, or from four equally distant points along the length of the spinal cord. Sections were rehydrated in PBS for 10 min at RT, followed by blocking in 3% mouse serum in PBS overnight at 4°C. Sections were thrice washed in PBS (5 min per wash) and incubated with rabbit anti-human CD8 primary antibody (stock diluted 1:200 – Table M1) and/or goat anti-mouse/human Iba-1 primary antibody (0.5 mg/mL stock diluted 1:300) in 3% mouse serum in PBS for 2 hours at 4°C. A rat IgG isotype primary (Abcam, #ab27478) was used to confirm the specificity of the secondary antibody binding to anti-human CD8. Sections were then thrice washed and incubated with AlexaFluor 680-conjugated donkey anti-rabbit IgG secondary antibody (2 mg/mL stock diluted 1:600) or DyLight594-

conjugated mouse anti-goat IgG secondary antibody (1 mg/mL stock diluted 1:300) in 3% mouse serum

in PBS for 2 hours at 4°C. Sections were thrice washed with PBS then incubated for 20 min at RT in PBS

containing 0.2% Triton X-100 (PBT solution). CNS sections were incubated 20 min at RT in a PBT master

mix containing FluoroMyelin™ Green, NeuroTrace™ 530/615 and diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI)

(BrainStain™ Imaging Kit, Invitrogen #B34650). Sections were then thrice washed in PBT (15 min per

wash) to remove excess stain. Slides were mounted with ProLong™ Diamond Antifade Mountant medium

(Invitrogen, # P36961), sealed, allowed to cure for 24 hours at room temperature, and then stored at 4°C

until imaged.

Demyelination

Perfused, intact spinal cords collected for analysis of myelination were stored in 10% NBF

overnight at RT, then moved to 70% ethanol and sent to Wax-it Histology Services Inc. for paraffin

embedding. To quantify myelination throughout the organ, a total of 6 – 9 consecutive 10-µm coronal

sections were taken from of 4 – 6 equally distanced regions along the length of the spinal cord using a

Shandon Finesse 325 microtome (Thermo Scientific). Sections were mounted on Superfrost Plus

microscope slides (Fisher Scientific, #12-550-15), dried at 37°C for one hour, and then air dried overnight

at RT. Sections were washed in 3 changes of xylene for 10 minutes each, then treated in 3 changes of

absolute ethanol for 3 minutes each and hydrated in 95% ethanol for 5 minutes. Slides were incubated in

eriochrome cyanine R (Sigma-Aldrich, #3564-18-9) staining solution (0.22% w/v ferric chloride, 0.5%

v/v sulfuric acid and 0.2% w/v eriochrome cyanine R CI 43820) for 20 minutes, run under tap water for

30 seconds, and incubated in differentiating solution (5.6% w/v ferric chloride) for 5 – 10 minutes until

only the white matter retained the stain. Slides were washed under running tap water for 5 minutes, then

dehydrated in 3 changes of 100% ethanol for 30 seconds each (with agitation) and cleared in 3 changes of

xylene for 30 seconds each (with agitation). Coverslips were mounted with VectaMount Permanent

Mounting Medium (Vector Laboratories, #H-5000).

Imaging and analysis

Histology sections were imaged using a Zeiss Axio Observer 7 epi-fluorescent microscope

outfitted with a motorized stage (x, y, z mobility) and five LED channels. Whole organ immunofluorescent

sections were imaged at x20/0.65 NA air objective using an Axiocam 702 mono CMOS camera at room

temperature. Isotype staining was used to set LED voltages and exposures across slides per imaging

experiment. Immunofluorescent images were stitched and Z-stack (3 stacks of 1.2 μm each) fusion was

performed using a wavelet transform in Zen2.6 Pro (blue edition, Zeiss). Brightfield images of EC-stained

spinal cord sections were acquired at 10X/0.3 NA air objective magnification using an Axiocam 105

colour CMOS camera. Stitching and subsequent analysis of images was performed using Zen 2.6 Pro.

For EC sections, single RBG images were saved as JPEG files and quantitative analysis of staining was

performed using ImageJ 1.53c (NIH). Default color thresholding method was used to first select the area

of stained myelin and then the total area of the spinal cord. Hue, saturation, and brightness thresholds were

set based on fully myelinated NSG control sections and applied across all other sections. The Area

measurement function was used to acquire the area of the selected regions in μm^2, relative to a 200-μm

scale bar. Myelination was expressed as fraction of myelin-stained area of total area of the spinal cord

section. Replicate sections (6 – 9 consecutive sections per region) were averaged to generate 4 – 6 regional

myelination indices per spinal cord.

Flow cytometric analysis

Sample processing

Brains, spinal cords, and spleens were kept in sterile PBS on ice, then processed into single cell suspensions by passing the tissue through a 70-µm cell strainer with a syringe insert. Splenocyte suspensions were incubated in red blood cell lysis buffer (150 mM NH_4Cl, 10 mM $KHCO_3$, 0.1 mM Na_2-EDTA) for 10 min on ice. Whole EDTA-treated blood samples were incubated in pre-warmed red blood cell lysis buffer for 15 min at RT. Brain and spinal cord samples specifically processed for the detection of intracellular MBP within phagocytic cells were predigested with 0.5 mg/mL Collagenase/Dispase® (Roche, #11097113001), 0.02 mg/mL DNase I (Sigma-Aldrich, #D5025) and 2% FBS in 10 mL RPMI per sample for 45 min shaking at 180 rpm and 37°C. CNS cells were further isolated by resuspension in 40% isotonic Percoll™ solution (Cytiva, #17089101) and centrifugation (15 min at 1400 rpm) to remove lipid debris. Samples analyzed for cytokine expression were incubated at 37°C (5% CO_2) for 4 hours at 1 – 2×10^6 splenocytes or total isolated CNS cells per 200 µL of stimulation media, containing 10% FBS, 10 ng/mL phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate (PMA, Sigma-Aldrich, #P1585), 500 ng/mL ionomycin (Thermo Fisher, #I24222) and 1 µL/mL GolgiPlug™ Protein Transport Inhibitor (containing Brefeldin A, BD Biosciences, #555029). Cell suspensions were washed between each step with sterile PBS containing 2% FBS (FACS buffer).

Cell sorting and co-culture

For interspecies antigen presentation assays, splenocytes were isolated from EBV[+] HD PBMC-engrafted male NSG mice at 4 weeks post-injection, as described above. Splenocytes were combined, stained with fluorochrome-labelled anti-mCD45 and anti-hCD8 antibodies (Table M1), and positively

selected using a BD Influx™ cell sorter. Sorted cells were resuspended to 4×10^4 mCD45$^+$ cells with 4×10^5

hCD8$^+$ cells (1:10 ratio) per well in 200 µL complete culture medium (RPMI-1640 plus FBS, L-glutamine,

penicillin/streptomycin, MEM NEAA, sodium pyruvate, HEPES, β-mercaptoethanol), supplemented with

or without 20 µg/mL rhMOG protein, and incubated for 65 hours at 37°C (5% CO_2). Cells were then

refreshed with pre-warmed culture medium (same respective rhMOG treatments) containing 1 µL/mL

GolgiPlug™ Protein Transport Inhibitor and incubated for another 5 hours at 37°C (5% CO_2). Following

70 hours total incubation time, cells were washed with serum-free PBS and stained for flow cytometric

analysis as described below.

T cell bead stimulation assay

Donor PBMC samples previously stored in autologous plasma with 10% dimethyl sulfoxide were

thawed from liquid nitrogen for activation analysis. Total PBMCs (5 x 10^6 cells/ mL) were stained

with 2.5 mM carboxyfluorescein succinimidyl ester (CFSE, Sigma #21888-25MG-F) in the dark at 4°C

for 8 minutes prior to quenching with newborn calf serum. An unstimulated and PMA/ionomycin-

stimulated subset of each sample was analyzed for baseline marker expression (PMA stimulation

conditions described above under 'sample processing'). Duplicate wells of 200,000 CFSE-stained cells

per sample were then incubated for 91 hours at 37°C (5% CO_2) at a 1:2 bead-cell ratio with Human T-

Activator CD3/CD28 DynaBeads™ (Thermo Fisher, #11161D) and 1 U/mL of recombinant human IL-2

(BioLegend, #589102) in 200 µL of complete culture medium (see above for media components). The

media did not contain any factors to specifically influence polarization or activation. Cells were then

refreshed with pre-warmed culture medium containing 1 µL/mL GolgiPlug™ Protein Transport Inhibitor

and incubated for another 5 hours at 37°C (5% CO_2). Following 96 hours total incubation time, cells were

washed with serum-free PBS and stained for flow cytometric analysis as described below.

 Antibody staining and analysis

Cells were stained with 1X eBioscience™ Fixable Viability Dye eFluor™ 506 (Thermo Fisher,

#65-0866-14) for 20 min at 4°C in serum-free PBS. Cells were then washed in FACS buffer, and

preincubated with human and mouse Fc block (Table M1) in FACS buffer for 10 minutes at RT. Cells

were washed again and incubated with fluorochrome-labelled antibodies specific to extracellular makers

(Table M1) in FACS buffer for 30 minutes at 4°C. Cells were washed and treated with transcription factor

fixation and permeabilization reagent (Thermo Fisher, #00-5521-00) for 30 min at 4°C, followed by a

wash with permeabilization buffer (Thermo Fisher, #00-8333-56). Cells were incubated with

fluorochrome-labelled antibodies specific to intracellular makers (Table M2) in permeabilization buffer

for 30 min at RT. Cells were washed with permeabilization and FACS buffer and resuspended in FACS

buffer with 2 mM EDTA for acquisition. Frozen human PBMC samples were stained as detailed above

for use as titration, compensation, and gating controls for all experiments. Stained cell suspensions were

acquired on an Attune NxT flow cytometer (Thermo Fisher) and analyzed using FlowJo™ v10.8 Software

(BD Life Sciences).

Serology

Endogenous antibodies to EBV, CMV and rhMOG were detected using indirect enzyme-linked

immunosorbent assays (ELISA). Nunc Maxisorp 96-well microtiter ELISA plates (Thermo Fisher,

#439454) were coated overnight at 4°C with 1 μg/well of the peptide or protein of interest (Table M3,

produced by ScenicBio) in 0.05 M carbonate buffer. For EBV EBNA-1 and CMV, epitope peptides 1 and

2 were mixed prior to well coating. The following day, the plates were washed thrice with PBS and wash

buffer (PBS + 0.05% Tween-20), followed by a two-hour blocking step at RT using wash buffer + 3%

bovine serum albumin. Plates were washed again, then incubated with serum samples serially diluted in

blocking buffer to generate duplicate 6-point curves (1:100 – 1:5000 for human donor serum and 1:50 –

1:2500 for mouse serum). After a two-hour RT incubation with serum dilutions, the plates were washed,

then incubated with HRP-labelled anti-human IgG antibody (Table M1) diluted 1:3000 in blocking buffer,

or HRP-labelled anti-human IgM diluted 1:4000, for 1 hour at 37°C. The plates were then washed with

PBS prior to the addition of 100 μL/well TMB substrate (BD Biosciences, #555214). Fifteen minutes after

the addition of substrate, 100 μL stop solution (2 N sulfuric acid) was added to each well. The plates were

read at 450 nm on a VarioSkan Plate Reader (Thermo Fisher) within 10 min of adding stop solution. Donor

serum at 1:1000 dilution was used to determine seropositivity to EBV and CMV antigens. The lower limit

of detection for positive IgG and IgM values was set based on the level of nonspecific background signal

in negative control samples (full reaction minus antigen and/or serum). Donor serum vitamin D levels

were quantified using a 25-OH Vitamin D ELISA assay test kit, according to the manufacturer's

instructions (Eagle Biosciences, #VID31-K01).

EBV viral load

Genomic DNA was isolated from a maximum of 4×10^6 donor PBMCs or mouse splenocytes per

sample using the PureLink^{TM} Genomic DNA Minikit (Invitrogen, #K1820), according to the

manufacturer's instructions, quantified using a Nanodrop Lite Spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific,

firmware version 1.02), and stored at -80°C. A *BALF5* viral DNA polymerase gene qPCR protocol adapted

from Kimura et al. was used to measure EBV load in DNA samples (Kimura *et al.*, 1999). The forward

and reverse primer and fluorogenic probe sequences are listed in Table M4 (produced by Integrated DNA

Technologies), along with the *BALF5* gene fragment sequence used for standard curve generation. qPCR

reactions comprised 300 ng genomic DNA, 0.4 μM each primer, 0.2 μM probe, and 1X QuantiNova Probe

PCR master mix (Qiagen, #208256). An EBV$^+$ B95-8 cell line extract (100 ng per reaction) was used as

a positive control for EBV detection. Blank water was used in negative control reactions. An 8-point

standard curve was generated with 1 to 10^7 *BALF5* gBlock copies per reaction. Reactions were made up

in Mx3000P 96-well plates (Agilent Technologies, #401333) and data were acquired using a CFX96 Real-

Time System C1000 Thermal Cycler (Bio-Rad) and CFX manager 3.1 software for HEX detection. The

cycler parameters were set according to the Qiagen QuantiNova Probe PCR protocol – 2 min at 95°C to

activate DNA polymerase then 45 repeats of 5 sec at 95°C and 5 sec at 60°C. Sample copies per reaction

were determined by interpolation of the standard curve using triplicate-averaged reaction threshold values

(C_T), which were then used to calculate viral load. The lower limit of detection was determined by

interpolating the C_T value for the lowest detectable standard point per plate and was normally ~30 EBV

copies/μg DNA.

Statistical analyses

Data were collated using Microsoft Excel, then graphed and statistically analyzed using GraphPad

Prism software 9.2.0 (GraphPad Software Inc.). Figure panels were composed in Adobe Illustrator V24.3.

Most graphs present group means with standard error (SEM) or standard deviation (SD) unless otherwise

stated in the figure legend. No statistical methods were used to predetermine sample sizes, as donor PBMC

yield limited recipient cohort size. No inclusion or exclusion criteria were used for analyses and groups

include all mice from the cohort regardless of the incidence of clinical EAE symptoms, unless otherwise

stated. Two normally distributed groups of data were analyzed by two-tailed, unpaired t-test with Welch's

correction. For three or more groups, normally distributed data were analyzed by ordinary one-way

analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Tukey's multiple comparisons test or Brown-Forsythe and Welch

ANOVA with Dunnett's T3 multiple comparisons test. If group data did not pass the Kolmogorov–

Smirnov normality test (or Shapiro-Wilk test when group N too small to compute KS distance), a

nonparametric Mann-Whitney test or Kruskal-Wallis with Dunn's multiple comparisons test was used. A

Log-rank (Mantel-Cox) test was used for incidence curve analysis, simple linear regression analysis for

cell count correlations, and ordinary two-way ANOVA for group comparisons with two variables (i.e.,

EAE scores over time and ELISA absorbance readings with serum dilution), where the column factor p

value is reported. Specific statistical tests used for each assay are noted in the figure legends, along with

the number of animals or replicates per group. Significance is indicated by asterisks: ****$p<0.0001$,

***$p<0.001$, **$p<0.01$, and *$p<0.05$. The data that support the findings of this study are available from

the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

Table M1 – Antibodies for extracellular targets.

Target antigen	Clone	Species reactivity	Application	Source	Identifier
CD3	OKT3	Human	Flow cytometry	Thermo Fisher	56-0037-42
CD4	RPA-T4	Human	Flow cytometry	BD Biosciences	555347
CD4	RPA-T4	Human	Flow cytometry	Thermo Fisher	47-0049-42
CD8	SP16	Human	IHC-F	Thermo Fisher	MA5-14548
CD8	RPA-T8	Human	Flow cytometry	Thermo Fisher	11-0088-42
CD8	RPA-T8	Human	Flow cytometry	BD Biosciences	563821
CD11b	M1/70	Mouse	Flow cytometry	Thermo Fisher	17-0112-82
CD11c	N418	Mouse	Flow cytometry	Thermo Fisher	11-0114-85
CD14	63D3	Human	Flow cytometry	BioLegend	367142
CD14	61D3	Human	Flow cytometry	Thermo Fisher	11-0149-42
CD19	HIB19	Human	Flow cytometry	Thermo Fisher	47-0199-42
CD20	2H7	Human	Flow cytometry	BioLegend	302328
CD21	HB5	Human	Flow cytometry	Thermo Fisher	12-0219-42
CD25	CD25-4E3	Human	Flow cytometry	Thermo Fisher	11-0257-42
CD25	BC96	Human	Flow cytometry	Thermo Fisher	45-0259-42
CD27	LG.3A10	Human	Flow cytometry	BioLegend	124216
CD38	HIT2	Human	Flow cytometry	BioLegend	303529
CD40	3/23	Mouse	Flow cytometry	Thermo Fisher	MA5-17855
CD45	HI30	Human	Flow cytometry	Thermo Fisher	MHCD4517

CD45	HI30	Human	Flow cytometry	BD Biosciences	557748
CD45	30-F11	Mouse	Flow cytometry	Thermo Fisher	45-0451-82
CD45	30-F11	Mouse	Flow cytometry	Thermo Fisher	48-0451-82
CD56	TULY56	Human	Flow cytometry	Thermo Fisher	17-0566-42
CD68	Y1/82A	Human	Flow cytometry	BioLegend	333825
CD137	4B4-1	Human	Flow cytometry	BioLegend	309818
CD154 (40L)	24-31	Human	Flow cytometry	BioLegend	310823
F4/80	BM8	Mouse	Flow cytometry	Thermo Fisher	47-4801-82
Fc receptor (CD16/CD32)	2.4G2	Mouse	Flow cytometry	BD Biosciences	553142
Fc receptor	Fc1.3216	Human	Flow cytometry	BD Biosciences	564220
HLA-DR	L243	Human	Flow cytometry	Thermo Fisher	17-9952-42
Iba-1	Polyclonal	Mouse	IHC-F	Thermo Fisher	PA5-18039
IgG (H+L)	Polyclonal	Goat	IHC-F	Jackson ImmunoResearch	205-585-108
IgG (γ chain)	Polyclonal	Human	ELISA	Thermo Fisher	62-8420
IgG (H+L)	Polyclonal	Rabbit	IHC-F	Thermo Fisher	A10043
IgG2b	m2b-25G4	Mouse	Flow cytometry	Thermo Fisher	11-4220-82
IgM (μ chain)	Polyclonal	Human	ELISA	Thermo Fisher	A18841

862 **Table M2 – Antibodies for intracellular targets**.

Target antigen	Clone	Species reactivity	Application	Source	Identifier
EOMES	WD1928	Human	Flow cytometry	Thermo Fisher	11-4877-41
FOXP3	236A/E7	Human	Flow cytometry	Thermo Fisher	17-4777-42
Granzyme B	QA16A02	Human	Flow cytometry	BioLegend	372214
IFNγ	4S.B3	Human	Flow cytometry	Thermo Fisher	48-7319-42
IL-17A	eBio64DEC17	Human	Flow cytometry	Thermo Fisher	25-7179-42
Ki-67	Ki-67	Human	Flow cytometry	BioLegend	350516
MBP	MBP101	Mouse	Flow cytometry	Abcam	ab62631
RORγt	AFKJS-9	Human	Flow cytometry	Thermo Fisher	12-6988-80
T-bet	4B10	Human	Flow cytometry	Thermo Fisher	45-5825-82
TNFα	MAb11	Human	Flow cytometry	Thermo Fisher	17-7349-82

865   **Table M3 – Antigen sequences for endogenous antibody detection by ELISA**.

Antigen	Sequence
EBV VCA p18 (Liu *et al.*, 2019)	ASAGTGALASSAPSTAVAQSATPSVSSSISSLRAATSGATAAAAVDTGS GGGGQPHDTAPRGARKKQ
EBV EBNA-1 (Liu *et al.*, 2019)	Epitope 1: RSPSSQSSSSGSPPRRPPPGRRPFFHPVG
	Epitope 2: DYFEYHQEGGPDGEPDVPPGAIEQGPADDPGEGPSTGPRG
rhMOG$_{1-120}$ (Oliver, Lyon and Ruddle, 2003)	MASLSRPSLPSCLCSFLLLLLLQVSSSYAGQFRVIGPRHPIRALVGDEVE LPCRISPGKNATGMEVGWYRPPFSRVVHLYRNGKDQDGDQAPEYRG RTELLKDAIGEGKVTLRIRNVRFS
CMV (Greijer *et al.*, 1999)	Epitope 1: CETDDLDEEDTSIYLSPPPVPPVQVVAKRLPRPDTPRT
	Epitope 2: KSGTGPQPGSAGMGGAKTPSDAVQNILQKIEKIKNTEE

868   **Table M4 – DNA sequences for EBV *BALF5* qPCR assay**.

Component	Sequence (5' to 3')
Primer P1 (Kimura *et al.*, 1999)	CGGAAGCCCTCTGGACTTC
Primer P2 (Kimura *et al.*, 1999)	CCCTGTTTATCCGATGGAATG
Probe P3 (Kimura *et al.*, 1999)	/5HEX/TGTACACGC/ZEN/ACGAGAAATGCGCC/3IABkFQ/
BALF5 gene standard (gBlock)	ACC GAG ACC CGG CAG GGG GTC CTG CGG TCG AAG GTG CTG GCC TTG AGG GCG CTG AGG ACT GCA AAC TCC ACG TCC AGA CCC TGA GGC GCG CTG GCG TAG AAG TAG GCC TGC TGC CCA AAC ACG TTC ACA CAC ACG CTG GCC CCA TCG GCC TTG CGC CGG CCC AGT AGC TTG ATG ACG ATG CCA CAT GGC ACC ACA TAC CCC TGT TTA TCC GAT GGA ATG ACG GCG CAT TTC TCG TGC GTG TAC ACC GTC TCG AGT ATG TCG TAG ACA TGG AAG TCC AGA GGG CTT CCG TGG GTG TCT GCC TCC GGC CTT GCC GTG CCC TCT TGG GCA CGC TGG CGC CAC CAC ATG CCC TTT CCA TCC TCG TCA CCC CCC ACC ACC GTC AGG GAG TCT TGG TAG AAG CAC AGG GGG GGC TGA GGC CCC CGC ACA TCC ACC ACC CCT GCG GCG CCT GGT GTC TGG AAA CAC TTG GGA ATG AGAC GCA GGT ACT CCT TGT CAG GCT TTT TC

FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. **Donor EBV infection and RRMS diagnosis worsen clinical outcomes in HuPBMC EAE**

mice. (A) Experimental design: Donor PBMCs isolated from women with or without a history of EBV

infection or an RRMS diagnosis were used to engraft immunocompromised NSG mice. Following a three-

week reconstitution period and confirmation of circulating human CD45$^+$ cell repopulation, humanized

NSG mice (HuPBMC) were immunized with recombinant human myelin oligodendrocyte glycoprotein

(rhMOG) antigens to induce EAE. (B) Donor serum IgG specific to acute EBV antigen viral capsid antigen

(VCA). (C) Donor serum IgG specific to latent EBV antigen Epstein-Barr nuclear antigen 1 (EBNA-1).

For B and C, group data are shown as mean with SEM and were curve fit with a one-site total binding

equation. Statistical differences in titre curves were assessed by ordinary two-way ANOVA. (D) Cell-

associated EBV viral loads in donor PBMCs. Data are shown as mean with SEM and were analyzed by

ordinary one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test. For B – D, n = 3 – 4 donors/group

and the lower limit of detection (LOD) for each assay is represented by a dashed line. (E) Clinical disease

scores post-induction for symptomatic HuPBMC EAE mice. Data are shown as mean with SEM and

curves were analyzed by ordinary two-way ANOVA (n = 17 – 25 mice/group derived from 3 – 4

donors/group). (F) Incidence of clinical EAE symptoms post-induction. Data are shown as percentage of

the group and curves were analyzed by Log-rank (Mantel-Cox) test (n = 54 – 62 mice/group derived from

3 – 4 donors/group). (G) Day of EAE symptom onset post-induction (DPI). Distribution of individual data

are shown with median and quartiles (dashed lines) and were analyzed by Brown-Forsythe and Welch

ANOVA with Dunnett's T3 multiple comparisons test (n = 17 – 25 mice/group derived from 3 – 4

donors/group).

Figure 2. **EAE induction in HuPBMC mice causes human T cell infiltration and inflammatory**
demyelination of the CNS. (A) Demyelination of the spinal cord in the HuPBMC EAE model. Perfused
spinal cords were obtained days 19 – 25 post-induction (5 – 8 days post-symptom onset) from HuPBMC
EAE mice, and days 15 – 25 post-induction from NOD EAE mice (5 – 15 days post-symptom onset).
Eriochrome cyanine-stained sections (top) obtained from the lower thoracic region of the spinal cord show
representative myelination indices (MI) for each of the respective group means. Individual data points
represent averages of serial sections sampled from 4 – 6 equidistant regions along the entire length of the
spinal cord (n = 18 regional points from 3 unengrafted NSG control mice; n = 22 – 36 regional points
from 5 – 6 mice/group for EAE-induced NOD and HuPBMC groups). Distribution of individual data are
shown with median and quartiles (dashed lines) and were analyzed by Kruskal-Wallis with Dunn's
multiple comparisons test. (B – D) Human CD8$^+$ cells infiltrate the CNS of HuPBMC EAE mice engrafted
with RRMS donor PBMCs. Representative images of lumbar spinal cord (B) and cerebellar (C, D) sections
from an unengrafted control NSG mouse (left) and a symptomatic HuPBMC EAE mouse (right) derived
from a donor with RRMS. Perfused tissues were collected day 15 post-EAE induction (day 4 post-
symptom onset). Sections were labelled with FluoroMyelin (green), NeuroTrace 530/615 (red), DAPI
(blue), anti-hCD8 (yellow) and anti-Iba-1 (light blue). Example hCD8$^+$ cells are indicated by white arrows
(B, C), and hCD8$^+$ cells in proximity to Iba-1$^+$ cells by red arrows (D). Scale bars indicate size as specified
per panel, showing (A) 200 μm; (B) 200 μm, insets 50 μm; (C) 500 μm, insets 50 μm; and (D) 100 μm,
inset 50 μm.
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Figure 3. **EAE in HuPBMC mice is mediated by infiltrating human Th1 and cytotoxic T cells and by murine myeloid cells**. (A) Concatenated flow cytometric plots of spinal cord-infiltrating hCD3$^+$CD4$^+$ and hCD3$^+$CD8$^+$ T cells and their respective cytokine expression, shown as mean frequency of the parent population ± SD. (B) Human T cell subsets quantified in the brain, spinal cord and spleen, shown as mean with SEM. For A and B, perfused tissues were collected day 22 post-EAE induction and isolated cells were stimulated with PMA and ionomycin (n = 18 mice derived from one EBV$^+$ HD). For C – H, perfused tissues were collected days 14 – 24 post-induction of recipient cohorts derived from 2 – 3 unrelated EBV$^+$ HD PBMCs, and data were combined for analysis. (C) Human CD8$^+$:CD4$^+$ T cell ratios in the CNS and spleens of HuPBMC EAE mice that either developed symptoms or remained subclinical. Data are shown as mean with SEM (n = 10 – 21 mice/group) and were analyzed by Mann-Whitney test. (D) Total numbers of murine mCD45^{hi}CD11b^{hi}F4/80$^+$ and human hCD45$^+$CD14$^+$CD68$^+$ macrophages in the CNS and spleens of HuPBMC EAE mice. Data are shown as mean with SEM (n = 16 mice/group) and were analyzed by Mann-Whitney test. (E) Frequency of murine macrophages containing intracellular myelin basic protein (MBP) in HuPBMC EAE organs. Data are shown as mean with SEM (n = 16 mice/group) and were analyzed by Kruskal-Wallis with Dunn's multiple comparisons test. Concatenated flow cytometric plots, right, show the mean frequency of the parent population ± SD. (F) Correlation between the total numbers of infiltrating hCD3$^+$CD8$^+$ T cells and murine macrophages containing intracellular MBP in the spinal cords of HuPBMC EAE mice. Data were analyzed by simple linear regression (n = 16 mice). Goodness of fit is indicated by R^2 value, and the 95% confidence interval by dashed lines. (G) Total numbers of infiltrating mCD45^{hi}CD11b^{hi}F4/80$^+$ macrophages in the CNS and spleens of uninduced HuPBMC mice and EAE-induced HuPBMC mice that either developed symptoms or remained subclinical. Data are shown as mean with SEM (n = 6 – 10 mice/group). CNS groups were analyzed by Kruskal-Wallis with Dunn's multiple comparisons test and spleen groups by Brown-Forsythe and Welch

ANOVA with Dunnett's T3 multiple comparisons test. (H) Total numbers of murine microglia

($mCD45^{lo}CD11b^{hi}F4/80^+$) containing intracellular MBP (gating scheme left) in the CNS of uninduced

HuPBMC mice and EAE-induced HuPBMC mice that either developed symptoms or remained

subclinical. Data are shown as mean with SEM (n = 6 – 10 mice/group) and were analyzed by Brown-

Forsythe and Welch ANOVA with Dunnett's T3 multiple comparisons test. (I) Interspecies co-culture

assay design: NSG mice (n = 4) were engrafted with PBMC from an EBV^+ HD, and after four weeks,

reconstituted spleens were processed and combined for fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS). Sorted

cells were cultured 1 $mCD45^+$:10 $hCD8^+$ cells per well in blank or rhMOG-supplemented complete culture

medium for 70 hours. (J) Changes in $mCD11c^+$ and $hCD8^+$ cell marker expression following myelin

antigen exposure in culture. Data are shown as mean with SEM (n = 5 replicate wells/group) and analyzed

by Mann-Whitney test ($mCD11c^+$ data) or by unpaired t-test with Welch's correction ($hCD8^+$ data).

Median fluorescence intensity (MFI).

Figure 4. **Donor EBV and RRMS status promote human immune cell infiltration of the HuPBMC**

EAE CNS without viral reactivation. (A) Total human $CD45^+$ immune cell counts, (B) $hCD19^+$ B cell

counts, (C) $hCD3^+$ T cell counts, (D) EBV genome copies in splenic DNA, (E) $hCD3^+CD4^+$ T cell counts

and (F) $hCD3^+CD8^+$ T cell counts in the brain, spinal cord, and spleen of recipient HuPBMC EAE mice

at endpoint, grouped by PBMC donor EBV serostatus and RRMS diagnosis. Perfused organs were

collected days 14 – 27 post-EAE induction (average 5 – 10 days post-symptom onset). For total immune

cell quantification, n = 29 – 35 mice/group derived from 2 – 3 donors/group. For viral load quantification,

n = 28 – 53 mice/group derived from 2 – 4 blood donors/group; n = 5 replicates for control EBV^+ B95-8

cell line and assay lower limit of detection is represented by a dashed line. All data are shown as mean

with SEM and were analyzed by Kruskal-Wallis with Dunn's multiple comparisons test.

Figure 5. **Donor EBV and RRMS status promote effector T cell expansion in the HuPBMC EAE**

model. Figure shows brain and spinal cord infiltration and spleen reconstitution in recipient HuPBMC

EAE mice at endpoint, grouped by PBMC donor EBV serostatus and RRMS diagnosis. (A) Concatenated

flow cytometric plots of IFNγ and IL-17A expression, showing the mean frequency of hCD3$^+$CD4$^+$ cells

± SD, as well as corresponding total (B) IFNγ$^+$(IL-17A$^-$), (C) IL-17A$^+$(IFNγ$^-$), and (D) IFNγ$^+$IL-17A$^+$

hCD4$^+$ T cell counts in each tissue. (E) Concatenated flow cytometric plots of IFNγ and GzmB expression,

showing the mean frequency of hCD3$^+$CD8$^+$ cells ± SD, quantified as (F) %IFNγ$^+$(GzmB$^-$), (G)

%GzmB$^+$(IFNγ$^-$), and (H) %IFNγ$^+$GzmB$^+$ of hCD3$^+$CD8$^+$ cells in each tissue. Perfused organs were

collected days 14 – 27 post-EAE induction (average 5 – 10 days post-symptom onset). Isolated immune

cells were stimulated with PMA and ionomycin for cytokine detection (n = 9 – 20 mice/group derived

from 1 – 2 donors/group). All plotted data are shown as mean with SEM and were analyzed by Brown-

Forsythe and Welch ANOVA with Dunnett's T3 multiple comparisons test or by Kruskal-Wallis with

Dunn's multiple comparisons test.

Figure 6. **Donor EBV and RRMS status limit regulatory T cell expansion in HuPBMC EAE mice**.

The proportion of hCD3$^+$CD4$^+$ T cells expressing FOXP3 in (A) freshly isolated donor PBMC (n = 3 – 4

donors/group), (B) in the peripheral blood of engrafted HuPBMC mice at 3 weeks post-PBMC injection

(n = 57 – 62 mice/group derived from 3 – 4 donors/group), and in the (C) brain, (D) spinal cord, and (E)

spleen of HuPBMC EAE mice at endpoint (n = 30 – 35 mice/group derived from 2 – 3 donors/group). The

ratio of infiltrating (F) hCD4$^+$IFNγ$^+$ (Th1) and (G) hCD8$^+$IFNγ$^+$GzmB$^+$ (Tc) to regulatory hCD4$^+$FOXP3$^+$

(Treg) cells per tissue in recipient HuPBMC EAE mice at endpoint, grouped by PBMC donor EBV

serostatus and RRMS diagnosis (n = 7 – 20 mice/group from 1 – 2 donors/group). Cells were isolated

from perfused organs collected days 14 – 27 post-EAE induction (average 5 – 10 days post-symptom

onset) and, for cytokine detection, stimulated with PMA and ionomycin. Data are shown as mean with

SEM and were analyzed by Brown-Forsythe and Welch ANOVA with Dunnett's T3 multiple comparisons

test (A) or by Kruskal-Wallis with Dunn's multiple comparisons test (B – G).

Figure 7. **Donor T cell proliferation is enhanced by both EBV seropositivity and RRMS**. Previously

frozen, whole PBMC samples from EBV$^+$ RRMS, EBV$^+$ HD, and EBV$^-$ HD blood donors were incubated

with anti-CD3/CD28 coated beads for 96 hours to stimulate T cells in the absence of specific antigen.

Figure shows (A) the proliferation index determined by CFSE staining, (B) the proportion of hCD4$^+$ T

cells having undergone a specified number of cellular divisions by CFSE staining, (C) Ki-67 expression,

(D) TNFα expression and (E) IFNγ and IL-17A expression on hCD3$^+$CD4$^+$ T cells, as well as, (F) the

proliferation index determined by CFSE staining, (G) the proportion of hCD8$^+$ T cells having undergone

a specified number of cellular divisions by CFSE staining, (H) Ki-67 expression, (I) TNFα expression

and (J) IFNγ expression on hCD3$^+$CD8$^+$ T cells. Concatenated flow plots indicate the sum proportion of

marker positive cells for all donors in each group. The colored symbol legend is applicable to all

comparisons (n = 3 – 4 blood donors/group). All plotted data are shown as mean with SEM and were

analyzed by Brown-Forsythe and Welch ANOVA with Dunnett's T3 multiple comparisons test or by

Kruskal-Wallis with Dunn's multiple comparisons test.

TABLE LEGENDS

010 **Table 1**. **PBMC donor demographics, disease characteristics, and serology**. All RRMS and healthy

011 donors were female. RRMS participants were treatment naïve and in clinical remission at the time of

012 donation. Abbreviations: Healthy donor, HD; Expanded Disability Status Scale, EDSS; Viral capsid

013 antigen, VCA; Epstein-Barr nuclear antigen 1, EBNA-1; Cytomegalovirus, CMV.

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Figure 1

Table 1

Donor ID	Age (years)	Age (years) at MS symptom onset	EDSS score	Disease duration	EBV IgG serostatus		CMV IgG serostatus	Serum 25-OH (ng/mL)
MS-01	24	24	2.5	4 months	VCA EBNA-1	+ +	+	29.7
MS-02	31	31	2.5	6 months	VCA EBNA-1	+ -	+	34.9
MS-03	32	26	2.0	5 years	VCA EBNA-1	+ +	-	19.9
MS-04	39	31	2.0	7 years	VCA EBNA-1	+ +	-	66.5
HD-01	39	N/A	N/A	N/A	VCA EBNA-1	+ +	-	27.7
HD-02	25	N/A	N/A	N/A	VCA EBNA-1	- -	-	35.0
HD-03	26	N/A	N/A	N/A	VCA EBNA-1	- -	-	29.8
HD-04	23	N/A	N/A	N/A	VCA EBNA-1	+ +	+	37.5
HD-05	19	N/A	N/A	N/A	VCA EBNA-1	- -	+	18.9
HD-06	25	N/A	N/A	N/A	VCA EBNA-1	+ -	+	38.4
HD-07	28	N/A	N/A	N/A	VCA EBNA-1	+ +	-	27.5

Figure 2

Spinal cord

A

NOD EAE	RRMS EBV+	HD EBV+	HD EBV-	NSG control
MI: 0.368	MI: 0.375	MI: 0.370	MI: 0.405	MI: 0.447

***p = 0.0005
*p = 0.028
**p = 0.0023
p > 0.99

Myelination Index (myelinated area/total area)

NOD EAE control mice (n = 5)
RRMS EBV+ HuPBMC mice (n = 6)
HD EBV+ HuPBMC mice (n = 6)
HD EBV- HuPBMC mice (n = 6)
NSG control mice (n = 3)

B

Control NSG | RRMS-HuPBMC EAE

200 μm | 200 μm

50 μm | 50 μm

Myelin Nissl DAPI hCD8

Cerebellum

C

50 μm | 50 μm

Control NSG | RRMS-HuPBMC EAE

500 μm | 500 μm

50 μm | 50 μm

Myelin Nissl DAPI hCD8

D

100 μm

50 μm

Myelin Nissl DAPI hCD8 Iba-1

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7