Spontaneous and inducible CD8 T cell lesions in the brain and spinal cord of HLA-DR15-positive MS PBMC humanized mice

Irini Papazian[1], Maria Kourouvani[1,2], Anastasia Dagkonaki[1], Lila Dimitrakopoulou[3], Vasileios Gouzouasis[1,4], Fotis Badounas[1,5], Nikolaos Markoglou[6], Maria Belimezi[7], Emmanouil Angelakis[7], Theodore Tselios[8], Maria Anagnostouli[6], Lesley Probert[1,*]

1. Laboratory of Molecular Genetics, Department of Immunology, Hellenic Pasteur Institute, Athens, Greece.
2. Athens International Master's Programme in Neurosciences, Department of Biology, National and Kapodistrian University of Athens, Athens, Greece.
3. Department of Hematology, Laiko General Hospital, National and Kapodistrian University of Athens, Athens, Greece.
4. Department of Molecular Biology and Genetics, Democritus University of Thrace, Alexandroupolis, Greece.
5. Transgenic Technology Unit, Hellenic Pasteur Institute, Athens, Greece.
6. Research Immunogenetics Laboratory, First Department of Neurology, Aeginition University Hospital, National and Kapodistrian University of Athens, Athens, Greece.
7. Diagnosis Department, Hellenic Pasteur Institute, Athens, Greece.
8. Department of Chemistry, University of Patras, Patras, Greece.

Keywords: Humanized mice, peripheral blood mononuclear cells, HLA-DR15 MS risk factor, multiple sclerosis, experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis, natalizumab

* Correspondence: Lesley Probert; lesley@pasteur.gr

Summary

Autoimmune diseases of the central nervous system such as multiple sclerosis (MS) are only

partially represented in current experimental models and the development of humanized

immune mice is crucial for better understanding of immunopathogenesis and testing of

novel therapeutics. We describe a humanized mouse model with several key MS features.

Severely immunodeficient B2m-NOG mice were transplanted with peripheral blood

mononuclear cells (PBMC) from MS and healthy (HI) donors and showed rapid engraftment

by human T and B lymphocytes. DR13-positive MS PBMC mice developed low levels of graft

versus host disease (GVHD) and no CNS inflammation. Both DR15 MS and DR15 HI mice

developed spontaneous and EAE-inducible infiltration of CNS barriers and parenchyma by

CD8$^+$ and CD4$^+$ T cells. DR15 MS mice uniquely developed spontaneous T cell lesions in

brainstem and spinal cord grey matter, and large EAE-inducible lesions in the brain corpus

callosum, with relatively low GVHD levels compared to DR15 HI mice. Main limitations of

this model for further development are poor monocyte engraftment, lack of demyelination

and of lymph node organization and IgG responses. These results show that PBMC

humanized mice represent promising experimental tools for MS immunopathology and for

testing experimental immunotherapeutics in a patient-specific approach.

Introduction

Multiple sclerosis (MS) is a complex chronic inflammatory demyelinating and

neurodegenerative disease of the central nervous system (CNS) with autoimmune

characteristics. Pathological hallmarks are focal plaques of immune-mediated demyelination

in the white matter, inflammation at CNS borders and diffuse demyelination and

neurodegeneration of the grey and white matter of the brain and spinal cord. Genome wide

association studies show that the vast majority of MS risk genes are related to immune

activation and function, thereby strongly supporting the role of adaptive immunity in MS

pathogenesis. These include the strongest MS associated genetic risk factor, human

leukocyte antigen (HLA) DR15 haplotype, encoded by two DRB* genes, *DRB1*15:01* (DR2b)

and *DRB5*01:01* (DR2a), of the MHC class II that restricts CD4^{+} T cells (1,2). Pathological

analyses of autopsy tissues reveal CD8^{+} lymphocytes and monocytes as the main CNS

infiltrating cells, with B cells accumulating in meningeal and perivascular spaces, and

relatively few infiltrating CD4^{+} T cells (3). Studies in animal models, mainly experimental

autoimmune encephalomyelitis (EAE), showing that myelin-reactive T cells are both

necessary and sufficient to induce EAE, as well as the effectiveness of current

immunotherapies in MS patients that work mainly by targeting peripheral immune

responses, further support an autoimmune pathogenesis for MS.

EAE and MS share many clinical, immunological, and pathological similarities (4,5), but they

also present significant differences (6,7). One difference is the predominance of CD8^{+} T cells

in MS lesions, while these cells are scarce in the CNS of EAE mice (8). In addition, the

inflammatory process in EAE primarily targets the spinal cord, whereas in MS it also targets

the brain. Moreover, while some MS drugs were discovered from research in the EAE model

(natalizumab, glatiramer acetate), there is a relatively low or moderate success rate of drugs

that showed high efficacy in both the EAE model and the human disease (9). These

differences infer that different pathways or mechanisms are prevalent in MS versus EAE

(10,11). Differences are further highlighted by recent clinical data showing the critical

importance of B cells to MS pathology, a cell population that does not show functional

participation in most EAE models (12,13). The development of animal models capable of

developing human immune system is crucial to the study of human immune-mediated

diseases such as MS, and for evaluating the safety and efficacy of human immunotherapies.

Most current studies with humanized mouse models use immunodeficient non-obese

diabetic (NOD) - severe combined immunodeficiency disorder (*scid*) mice deficient or

mutant for the common cytokine receptor γ-chain gene (*IL2rg)* (named NSG or NOG mice,

respectively) that lack B, T cells and NK cells and have defective innate immune responses

(14–17). These mouse strains readily engraft with human peripheral blood monocytes

(PBMC) without prior irradiation, as murine MHC molecules support the proliferation of

both CD4^{+} and CD8^{+} T cells, with CD8^{+} T cells predominating. Recent variants of these strains

lacking MHC class I molecules (B2m) show increased CD4 to CD8 ratios and a longer time

window before onset of xenogeneic graft versus host disease (GVHD) and represent

improved strains for the study of human immune responses (18,19). Previous studies

showed that PBMC humanized NSG mice with cells from healthy donors are susceptible to

EAE, exhibiting subclinical disease, with infiltration of the brain and spinal cord by CD4^{+} and

CD8^{+} T cells, but not monocytes (20).

To investigate the potential of PBMC from MS patients to induce CNS-directed

immunopathology in humanized mice, we engrafted B2m-NOD/*scid*-IL2Rγ[null] (B2m-NOG)

mice with PBMC from 3 human donors based on HLA-DRB1 genotype and RRMS diagnosis,

and monitored CNS inflammation that developed spontaneously or after immunization with

myelin antigens. We show that PBMC from MS and healthy (HI) donors rapidly engraft B2m-

NOG mice, but with marked differences towards the proportions of immune cell populations

engrafted and propensity to develop CNS inflammation between donors. Mice transplanted

with PBMC from HLA-DR15-positive MS and HI donors engrafted with human (h)CD4^{+} and

hCD8^{+} T cells and showed prominent hCD8^{+} T cell accumulation at CNS borders and

infiltration of brain and spinal cord parenchyma associated with locally activated microglia

and astrocytes. Overall, CNS inflammation tended to be more severe in DR15 MS mice and

uniquely showed spontaneous hCD8^{+} T cell lesions in the spinal cord grey matter and

brainstem, and prominent corpus callosum white matter lesions in mice immunized with

myelin peptides. Our results show that the PBMC humanized B2m-NOG mouse model

partially reproduces MS immunopathology and can be used to investigate human immune

responses towards CNS in a simple, fast, and personalized manner.

Results

Reconstitution of human adaptive immune system in B2m-NOG mice engrafted with PBMC from MS patient and HI donors

Two long-term RRMS patients, one HLA-DR15-positive (DR15 MS) and one HLA-DR13-positive (DR13 MS), both presenting with highly active disease following immunomodulatory treatment with natalizumab, were selected as PBMC donors (Table 1). An HLA-DR15-positive healthy individual (DR15 HI) was selected as a control donor. Fresh blood samples were used for immunoprofiling by flow cytometry with a panel of standard human immune cell marker antibodies (Supplementary Table 1A, B), for screening of plasma antibody responses to viruses (Table 1; and Supplementary Table 1C for interpretation of EBV results), and for the isolation of fresh PBMC. Groups of 8 B2m-NOG mice were injected intravenously with freshly prepared PBMC (1×10^7/mouse) from each donor (Supplementary Table 2, protocol 1). The transplanted mice were monitored for human immune cell engraftment by flow cytometry analysis of small blood samples recovered from the tail vein at different time points and all showed progressive engraftment by human CD45$^+$ (hCD45$^+$) leukocytes from day 7 (Fig. 1A). At day 14 post-transplantation (dpt 14), 5 mice from each group were immunized for EAE using a mixture of immunodominant T cell myelin peptide antigens. The PBMC donors used in this study show T cell proliferation responses to myelin peptides (Table 1), as shown in a previous study (21). Non-immunized mice showed steadily increasing levels of blood hCD45$^+$ leukocytes up to sacrifice at dpt 42. Immunized mice showed reduced levels of blood hCD45$^+$ leukocytes following immunization (Fig. 1A). Further FACS analysis showed preferential expansion of hCD4$^+$ T lymphocytes compared to hCD8$^+$ T lymphocytes in blood and spleens of all mice (Fig. 1B, C), a finding consistent with a previous report describing the B2m-NSG model (18).

Successful engraftment of mice by hCD45$^+$ leukocytes was confirmed in the spleen recovered from non-immunized and immunized mice at sacrifice on dpt 42 (Fig. 1A). Further analysis of splenocytes revealed robust engraftment of hCD4$^+$ and hCD8$^+$ T cells in all mice, and of hCD19$^+$ B cells in DR13 MS PBMC mice (Fig. 1C; Supplementary Table 3). Human immune cells other than T and B cells, notably monocytes, were undetectable in dpt 42 spleen. Analysis of cytokine production by intracellular staining showed high proportions of

IFN-γ-producing hCD4$^+$ and hCD8$^+$ splenocytes, and IL-17A-producing hCD4$^+$ in both

immunized and non-immunized mice (Fig. 1E).

To estimate the contribution of mouse myeloid cell populations in the humanized mice, we

analyzed peripheral blood from a parental NOD-*scid* mouse strain and wild-type C57BL/6

(B6) mice, non-immunized (naïve) or day 8 post-immunization (dpi 8) with CFA and

intraperitoneal (i.p.) injections with *Bordetella pertussis* toxin (PTx) following the EAE

protocol, by flow cytometry. Immature Ly6C^{hi} monocytes and Ly6G$^+$ cells are known to

massively expand in the periphery of wild-type B6 mice following immunization with

adjuvants and are critical for the development of EAE in wild-type mice (22,23). Unlike B6

mice, very high proportions of mouse (m) CD11b$^+$, mCD11b$^+$Ly6C^{hi} and mCD11b$^+$Ly6G$^+$

myeloid cells were already present in the blood of non-immunized NOD-*scid* mice, and these

did not increase significantly following immunization (Supplementary Table 4).

Functionality of the human immune system in B2m-NOG mice was investigated using an *ex*

vivo proliferation assay for T cell responses in splenocytes (23), and a cell-based assay for

anti-MOG antibody responses in plasma. Briefly, splenocytes recovered from non-

immunized and immunized mice at sacrifice were stimulated *ex vivo* individually with the 4

myelin peptides used for immunization (mMOG35-55, hMOG35-55, MOG1-20, MBP83-99).

T cell proliferation responses were measured using a CFSE dilution assay. Splenocytes

isolated from DR13 MS mice (Fig. 1D), not DR15 MS or DR15 HI mice (data not shown),

showed significant T cell proliferation responses to all myelin peptides, equal to control

splenocytes stimulated with anti-hCD3 antibody. The difference in responses between

donors might be explained by the significant engraftment of human B cells in DR13 MS mice,

which can act as antigen-presenting cells in the *ex vivo* T cell proliferation assay. Anti-hMOG

IgG antibody responses were not detectable in the plasma of any mice at any time point.

We next investigated whether draining lymph nodes (LN) structures could be identified in

the immunized mice at sacrifice. Mice lacking the common cytokine receptor γ-chain gene

are known to have poor lymphoid organ structure and functioning, because NK cells are

needed for the formation of LN inducer cells, which in turn are needed for LN organogenesis

(24). Nevertheless, the inguinal fat tissue from several immunized mice showed

accumulations of leukocytes containing mCD45- and hCD45-positive leukocytes, CD8-, CD4-

and CD20-positive lymphocytes by immunohistochemistry, although lacking obvious LN

organization (Fig. 1F). Together the results show that human T and B lymphocytes are

efficiently engrafted in B2m-NOG mice by PBMC from MS patients, that functional T cell

responses can be detected, depending upon the PBMC donor, while lack of organized LN

and germinal centers prevents the generation of anti-MOG IgG antibody responses.

Human T cells accumulate at CNS borders in non-immunized DR15 MS and DR15 HI mice,

and form spontaneous parenchymal lesions in brainstem and spinal cord of DR15 MS mice

For the period of the study, none of the engrafted mice showed clinical symptoms of

neuroinflammation or EAE using criteria commonly used for scoring EAE (21), or other

neurological deficits (25). Mild symptoms of GVHD, specifically fur ruffling and reduced

mobility (26), were recorded in few mice independent of group close to the time of sacrifice.

To determine whether human immune cells enter CNS tissues in PBMC humanized B2m-

NOG mice, we performed immunohistochemical analyses of serial sections from brain and

spinal cord recovered from non-immunized mice at sacrifice using marker antibodies for

human and mouse immune cells as well as for mouse microglia and astrocytes. To further

monitor GVHD development we also performed standard histological analyses of lung and

liver, two main tissues targets of GVHD.

DR13 MS humanized mice showed very few hCD45-positive leukocytes at CNS borders,

specifically meninges, and none in CNS parenchyma, so no further analysis was made (data

not shown). DR15 HI mice showed an accumulation of human immune cells at CNS borders,

particularly the meninges and some in the choroid plexus of the interventricular foramen

between lateral and third ventricles (Fig. 2A, C, D, arrowheads). In the brain, individual

hCD45-positive leukocytes were scattered throughout the parenchyma and comprised

mainly hCD8-positive T cells (Fig. 2C) and fewer hCD4-positive T cells (data not shown). Mild

activation of Iba1-positive microglia and GFAP-positive astrocytes was seen at sites of

immune cell accumulation at CNS borders (Fig. 2C). In spinal cord, hCD3-positive T cells

accumulated at borders and few individual cells infiltrated parenchyma of white and grey

matter (Fig. 3A, B). Sparse small T cell lesions ($\geq$ 3 adjacent cells) were detected in the white

matter of the spinal cord (Fig. 3A, left panel, arrowhead). Mouse CD45-positive cells were

sparse at barriers, absent from parenchyma, and demyelination was not observed in the
brain or spinal cord of DR15 HI mice.

DR15 MS mice showed more severe pathology than HLA-DR15 HI mice, with accumulation
of human immune cells at CNS borders, particularly the meninges and choroid plexus of the
interventricular foramen between lateral and third ventricles (Fig. 2A, C, D, arrowheads),
widespread immune cell infiltration of the parenchyma, and small T cell lesions in the
brainstem and spinal cord. In the brain, hCD45-positive leukocytes comprised mainly hCD8-
positive T cells (Fig. 2C, arrows) and fewer hCD4-positive T cells, (data not shown). Numbers
of brain parenchymal hCD8-positive T cells tended to increase in the brain parenchyma of
DR15 MS mice compared to control HI mice, but differences were not significant due to
variation within the groups (Fig. 2E). Unlike control HI mice, DR15 MS mice showed
parenchymal T cell lesions ($\geq$ 3 adjacent cells) in brainstem (Fig. 2A, B). Locally activated
Iba1-positive microglia and GFAP-positive astrocytes were observed at sites of immune cell
accumulation (Fig. 2C, D, arrowheads). In the spinal cord, hCD3-positive T cells accumulated
at borders and infiltrated both white and grey matter parenchyma (Fig. 3A). T cell lesions
were present in spinal cord white and grey matter (Fig. 3A, right panels, arrowheads).
Numbers of parenchymal hCD3-positive T cells in whole spinal cord sections tended to be
increased in DR15 MS mice compared to control HI mice, but differences were not
significant (Fig. 3C). However, unlike control HI mice, DR15 MS mice showed numerous
small T cell lesions in the grey matter, often close to the central canal suggesting this is a
main site of human T cell entry into the spinal cord grey matter (Fig. 3A, right panel,
arrowheads, B). Mouse CD45-positive cells were rare at barriers, absent from parenchyma,
and demyelination was not observed in the brain or spinal cord of DR15 MS mice.

To determine whether differences in the severity of CNS immune infiltration in the
immunized mice was secondary to levels of GVHD inflammation in the periphery, we
performed semi-quantitative analysis of H&E stained liver and lung sections, which are main
targets of GVHD responses (26). All mouse groups showed equal levels of inflammation in
both liver and lung, revealing a dissociation between peripheral GVHD and CNS
inflammation (Supplementary Fig 1). These results show that non-immunized DR15 MS
humanized mice have increased infiltration of brain and spinal cord by human T cells

compared to non-immunized DR15 HI mice, and uniquely develop hCD8^{+} T cell lesions in

spinal cord grey matter and brainstem parenchyma.

Immunization with myelin peptides increases T cell infiltration of CNS parenchyma and

promotes development of brain and spinal cord lesions in both DR15 MS and DR15 HI mice

To further investigate whether human immune cells have the potential to induce CNS

immunopathology in PBMC humanized B2m-NOG mice, we immunized mice following an

EAE protocol using a mixture of immunodominant myelin peptides. In a previous study, we

found that humanized HLA-DR2b transgenic mice lacking all mouse MHCII genes required

greater amounts of peptide antigen to induce clinical EAE than wild-type B6 mice (21). We

tested several EAE protocols using wild-type B6 mice, mainly to exclude the possibility of

toxicity at high peptide doses. Briefly, 8-week-old female B6 mice were immunized by

subcutaneous (s.c.) tail-base injection of 37 µg (standard EAE protocol in B6 mice) or 200 µg

mMOG35-55 (protocol used in HLA-DR2b transgenic mice), or a myelin peptide antigen

cocktail containing 200 µg each of mMOG35-55, hMOG35-55, MOG 1-20 and MBP83-99,

dissolved in 100 µl saline and emulsified in an equal volume of complete Freund's adjuvant

(CFA), together with i.p. PTx injections. Mice receiving high dose peptide also received an

identical booster immunization 7 days after the first. All mice developed clinical symptoms

of EAE, albeit with delayed disease onset in the high peptide groups possibly due to

induction of T cell tolerance in B6 mice, with no evidence of increased morbidity or

mortality at high peptide doses (Supplementary Fig. 2). For this reason, the high-dose

peptide cocktail was chosen for immunization of groups of 12-14-week-old humanized B2m-

NOG mice on dpt 14. Mice were monitored for engraftment by human immune cells (see

above, and Fig. 1) and clinical symptoms at different time points, and brain and spinal cord

tissues were recovered at sacrifice for immunohistochemical analysis using marker

antibodies for human and mouse immune cells as well as for mouse microglia and

astrocytes. In agreement with a previous study in NSG mice humanized with PBMC from

healthy donors (20), none of the mice immunized with myelin antigens developed typical

clinical symptoms of EAE.

To investigate whether immunization increased immune cell infiltration of the brain and

spinal cord we performed immunohistochemical analysis of tissues recovered from the mice

at sacrifice at dpt 42. Immunized DR13 MS mice, like their non-immunized group, showed

very few hCD45-positive leukocytes at CNS borders and infiltrating spinal cord parenchyma,

so no further analysis was made (data not shown). Immunized DR15 HI mice, like their non-

immunized group, showed an accumulation of human immune cells at CNS borders,

particularly the meninges and choroid plexus. In the brain, individual hCD45-positive

leukocytes were scattered throughout the brain parenchyma and comprised mainly hCD8-

positive T cells (Fig. 4A, B) and fewer hCD4-positive T cells (not shown). In one of three

immunized mice, small T cell lesions were present in the optic tract (Fig. 4C, arrowhead).

Locally activated Iba1-positive microglia and GFAP-positive astrocytes were present at sites

of immune cell accumulation at borders and in optic tract lesions (Fig. 4C). In spinal cord,

hCD3-positive T cells accumulated at borders and individual cells infiltrated grey and white

matter (Fig. 5A), forming small T cell lesions in the white matter (Fig. 5A, B). Mouse CD45-

positive cells were rare at barriers, absent from parenchyma, and demyelination was not

observed in the brain or spinal cord of immunized DR15 HI mice.

Immunized DR15 MS mice showed prominent accumulation of human immune cells at CNS

borders, widespread immune cell infiltration of the parenchyma and development of T cell

lesions in the brain and the spinal cord (Figs. 4 and 5). Brain infiltrates comprised mainly

hCD8-positive T cells, and fewer hCD4-positive T cells (Fig. 4D, arrowheads). Accumulation

at borders and infiltration of parenchyma by hCD8- positive cells in immunized DR15 MS

mice was increased compared to immunized DR15 HI mice, but differences in numbers of

hCD8-positive T cells did not reach significance (Fig. 4E). A unique feature of immunized

DR15 MS mice was the presence of large T cell lesions in the corpus callosum white matter

(Figs. 4D and G, arrowheads), and small lesions in other brain regions (e.g. hypothalamus,

cortex, periventricular regions; data not shown). Locally activated Iba1-positive microglia

and GFAP-positive astrocytes were present at sites of immune cell entry at CNS borders and

in T cell lesions (Fig. 4D). In the spinal cord, like in immunized DR15 HI mice, hCD3-positive T

cells accumulated at borders and individual cells infiltrated grey and white matter (Fig. 5A,

right panels), but forming small T cell lesions only in the white matter (WM) (Fig. 5A, B).

Numbers of hCD3-positive T cells counted in whole spinal cord sections were equal to those

in immunized HLA-DR15 HI mice (Fig. 5D). Again, mCD45-positive cells were rare at barriers,

absent from parenchyma, and demyelination was not observed in the brain (Fig. 4G) or
spinal cord (Fig. 5C) of immunized DR15 MS mice.

To determine whether CNS immune infiltration in the immunized mice was secondary to
levels of GVHD inflammation in the periphery, we performed semi-quantitative analysis of
H&E stained liver and lung sections. Immunized DR13 MS mice showed the lowest levels of
immune cell infiltration in liver and lung, DR15 MS mice intermediate levels, and DR15 HI
highest levels (Supplementary Fig. 1). Results revealed an inverse relationship between
peripheral and CNS inflammation in the DR15 HI and MS mice, with DR15 HI mice showing
highest peripheral and relatively lower CNS involvement, while DR15 MS mice showed the
highest CNS and relatively lower peripheral inflammation. These results show that
immunization of DR15 HI and DR15 MS mice with myelin peptides equally induced spinal
cord white matter inflammatory lesions, and uniquely induced large confluent corpus
callosum white matter lesions in DR15 MS mice. Taken together, our results show that
PBMC from a DR15-positive MS patient show increased propensity to induce inflammatory
CNS lesions compared to PBMC from a DR13-positive MS patient or a DR15-positive healthy
individual.

Discussion
Here we show that PBMC from RRMS and healthy donors with different HLA genotypes have
the potential to efficiently engraft B2m-NOG mice with human T and B lymphocytes and to
induce sub-clinical CNS inflammation dominated by hCD8$^+$ T cells in the brain and the spinal
cord. Specifically, mice engrafted with PBMC from DR15-positive MS and healthy donors,
and not from a DR13-positive MS donor, showed spontaneous brain and spinal cord
infiltration by hCD8$^+$ and hCD4$^+$ T cells which tended to be more severe in DR15 MS mice.
DR15 MS mice uniquely developed prominent T cell lesions in several brain regions including
the corpus callosum following immunization with myelin peptides using an EAE protocol. T
cell lesions were associated with locally activated microglia and astrocytes, but notably
lacked infiltrating monocytes and demyelination, and did not lead to clinical symptoms of
EAE or other neurological defects.

PBMC humanized B2m-NOG mice developed several hallmark features of MS that are not

readily reproduced in conventional animal models, such as EAE. First, brain immune

infiltrates in DR15 MS engrafted mice were enriched for hCD8$^+$ over hCD4$^+$ T cells, even

though the B2m-NOG model is characterized by increased engraftment of CD4$^+$ over CD8$^+$ T

cells (18) (Figure 1B). The preferential infiltration of the CNS parenchyma by CD8$^+$ T cells,

and the presence of inflammatory lesions in the brain white matter in our model are both

features of MS (3,8,27). Second, T cell lesions and locally activated microglia and astrocytes,

were observed in brain white matter regions, particularly the corpus callosum. Lesions in

the corpus callosum are important findings in MRI of MS patients and are correlated with

cognitive problems as well as disability in the upper limbs (28). Third, human leukocytes

were concentrated on the meninges and choroid plexus, notably in the interventricular

foramen connecting the lateral and third ventricles. The choroid plexus is an important

immunological site for immune surveillance and a site of CD8+ T cell and granulocyte

involvement in progressive MS (29).

Nevertheless, MS is a complex disease and immunopathology was only partially reproduced

in the brain and the spinal cord of PBMC humanized B2m-NOG mice. Parenchymal lesions

contained both hCD4$^+$ and hCD8$^+$ T cells associated with locally activated microglia and

astrocytes, but there was poor engraftment by human monocytes in the blood, spleens or

CNS of both immunized and non-immunized B2m-NOG mice. Blood myeloid cells are short-

lived and constantly renewed by the bone marrow, so that human myeloid cells are nearly

absent in the commonly used PBMC-NSG model (18). In contrast, mouse CD45$^+$ cells

comprising very high proportions of CD11b$^+$ myeloid cells, Ly6C^{hi} monocytes and Ly6G$^+$ cells,

were present in the blood of immunized and non-immunized NOD-*scid* mice, which are a

parental strain for B2m-NOG mice. Nevertheless, mouse CD45$^+$ myeloid cells did not

infiltrate the CNS of the humanized mice, even after EAE induction. The absence of CNS-

infiltrating monocytes in the PBMC humanized B2m-NOG mice NOG mice likely underlies

the absence of clinical symptoms and demyelination in this system. Our results are

consistent with a previous study in which NSG mice were humanized with PBMC from

healthy donors and immunized for EAE (20). In that study, mice developed CNS

inflammation with infiltrating CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$ T cells but did not show clinical symptoms or

demyelination (20). CNS-infiltrating Ly6C^{hi}CCR2$^+$ monocytes, which differentiate into

inflammatory macrophages locally in the CNS after being activated by T cells, are critical

effector cells in EAE (22,30). These cells are massively recruited into the periphery from the

bone marrow following immunization (23), and are likely to compete for space with

engrafted human immune cells following EAE induction. The use of immunodeficient

NOG/NSG models expressing human transgenes that would enhance the engraftment of

human monocytes, such as GM-CSF, or facilitate communication of human T cells with

mouse inflammatory monocytes (31,32), should allow a more comprehensive modeling of

MS immunopathology in humanized mice.

Another limitation for MS modeling in the B2m-NOG mice used in this study is the poor LN

structure and functioning that results from depletion of the common cytokine receptor γ-

chain gene (24). This deficiency was confirmed in this study by the absence of organized LN

and germinal follicles, and of anti-MOG IgG antibodies in the PBMC humanized B2m-NOG

mice immunized for EAE. Again, further development of available immunodeficient mouse

strains to promote LN organogenesis will be an important step for modeling MS

immunopathology in mice. In a previous study, NSG mice injected directly in the CNS with

CSF cells from MS patients (33) developed clinical symptoms, immune infiltration of the CNS

and demyelination, although differences in the route of administration of the transplanted

cells might explain the differences between our study and that of others (20).

Our observation that mice engrafted with PBMC from a DR15-positive active RRMS patient

showed both spontaneous and EAE-inducible T cell lesions in the brainstem and spinal cord

is highly relevant in the context of previous data concerning this haplotype. HLA-DR2 has

long been associated with MS (34), with the DR15 haplotype being linked to earlier disease

onset (1,35). MHCII molecules present antigens to CD4$^+$ T cells, and DR15 is strongly

associated with the autoproliferation of peripheral CD4$^+$ T cells in MS patients (36). T cell

autoproliferation is mediated by memory B cells in a HLA-DR-dependent manner, and the

autoproliferating T cells are increased in MS patients treated with natalizumab and enriched

for brain-homing T cells (37). In a recent study with humanized NSG mice, CD34$^+$

hematopoietic progenitor cells (HSC) from DR15-positive donors induced higher peripheral T

cell responses and alloreactivity compared to HSC from DR15-negative donors, and

increased CD8$^+$ T cell responses after Epstein-Barr virus (EBV) infection (38). There is now

strong evidence that EBV infection plays a major role in MS pathogenesis (39), acting
synergistically with DR15 to increase the likelihood of developing MS (34). DR15 individuals
with specific antibody reactivity to EBNA1 (amino acid 385–420) have 24-fold increased risk
for MS (40). Anti-EBNA-1 antibodies present high homology and react with several CNS
antigens, such as αB-crystallin, MBP, anoctamin 2 and more recently glial cell adhesion
molecule (41–44). In our study, the DR15 MS and HI donors were both positive for IgG and
IgM anti-EBNA-1 antibodies, which can be a sign of autoimmune disease, whereas the DR13
MS patient was positive for IgG anti-EA (early antigen) antibodies, which indicates either
primary EBV infection or possible reactivation (Table 1, and Supplementary Table 1C for
interpretation). In the PBMC humanized mice, we only found immune system infiltration
and brain lesions with the DR15 MS and DR15 HI donors and not with the DR13 MS donor.
This could be indicative of the presence of autoproliferating and brain-homing CD4$^+$ and
CD8$^+$ T lymphocytes in the blood of the DR15 MS and HI donors, particularly following
treatment with natalizumab, prior to transplantation in B2m-NOD mice, increasing the
likelihood of cross-reactivation upon encounter of similar mouse CNS antigens.
Nevertheless, positive correlations between the DR15 haplotype, T cell autoproliferation,
EBV and the development of brain lesions in humanized mice remain to be formally tested
in a larger study using greater numbers of DR15-positive MS donors against DR15 negative
MS and DR15-positive healthy controls, together with the measurement of basal levels of T
cell proliferation in the peripheral blood of the PBMC donors.

In summary, PBMC humanized B2m-NOG mice show partial representation of MS
immunopathology that is not reproduced in conventional animal models such as EAE,
particularly the development of hCD8$^+$ lesions in the grey and white matter of the brain and
spinal cord. New immunodeficient mouse strains developed to promote human monocyte
engraftment and the development of organized LN therefore hold great promise for
comprehensive modelling of MS immunopathology. An important outcome of this study is
that PBMC humanized B2m-NOG mice highlight the variability between the different human
PBMC donors, and therefore represent valuable research tools for generating personalized
immune models for drug screening.

Materials & Methods

MS patients and healthy subjects

Blood donors were selected from a Hellenic MS patient cohort attending the MS outpatient clinic at Aeginition University Hospital of the National and Kapodistrian University of Athens (NKUA) School of Medicine, supervised by Dr. Maria Anagnostouli and genotyped for the HLA-DRB1 allele, at the Research Immunogenetics Laboratory, of the same Hospital, as previously described (21) (Table 1). Two patients with long-term RRMS recently presenting with highly active disease since the last dose of immunomodulatory therapy (natalizumab) were selected. Natalizumab treatment was chosen as a criteria for this study because it blocks lymphocyte migration to the brain, thereby increasing circulating T and B lymphocytes (45). One patient was DR15-positive (DR15 MS), the other DR13-positive (DR13 MS). The DR13-positive patient additionally received cortisone treatment 1 month prior to sampling because of high disease activity. A healthy DR15-matched healthy individual (DR15 HI) was selected as control. Donor characteristics, including viral infections and EBV status are listed in Table 1. Blood samples were obtained from MS patients and healthy individuals under signed informed consent in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki and approval from the Institutional Ethics Committee of Aeginition Hospital, NKUA (Protocol No: 7BSH46Y8N2-B66, 13/05/2015).

PBMC isolation

Fresh peripheral blood (50 ml) was collected in EDTA-treated polypropylene tubes and PBMC were isolated under Ficoll-Histopaque®-1077 gradient centrifugation (Sigma-Aldrich). Buffy coats containing blood leukocytes were washed with 2% FBS in PBS. Erythrocytes were removed using ACK erythrocyte lysis buffer (BioLegend) and leukocytes were washed with 2% FBS in PBS. Before transfer of PBMC into mice, we compared several protocols for preparation of human PBMC using blood from a healthy individual, specifically, 1) PBMC isolated from fresh blood on the day of transfer, 2) PBMC isolated from blood after 3 days' storage at 4°C, 3) PBMC cultured for 24 h in complete RPMI-1640 after snap freezing of fresh PBMC and thawing. Cell viability and analysis of immune cell populations by flow cytometry showed that freshly isolated PBMC gave the best results and were used for transfer in this study (Supplementary Table 2).

EBV antibody responses in human blood

Blood plasma from the DR13 MS, DR15 MS and DR15 HI donors was analyzed for EBV
antibody responses using the following ELISA tests: ELISA-VIDITEST anti-VCA EBV IgG (ODZ-
265), ELISA-VIDITEST anti-EA (D) EBV IgG (ODZ-006), ELISA-VIDITEST anti-EBNA-1 EBV IgM
(ODZ-002) and ELISA-VIDITEST anti-EBNA-1 EBV IgG (ODZ-001) (Vidia). Standardized criteria
for the clinical interpretation of EBV antibody responses are shown in Supplementary Table
1C.

Mice

Ten-to-twelve-week-old female immunodeficient B2m-NOD/Shi - *scid IL2rg^{null}* (B2m-NOG)
mice (stock number 14957-F: NOD.Cg-B2m<em1Tac> Prkdc<scid>Il2rg<tm1Sug>JicTac;
Taconic Biosciences) were used for transfer of freshly isolated human PBMC. These mice
lack mature T, B, and NK cells and lack MHC class I molecules. Previous studies show that an
equivalent mouse strain, *NOD.Cg-Prkdc^{scid}Il2rg^{tm1Wjl}B2m^{tm1Unc}/Sz* (NSG β2m^{null}; The Jackson
laboratory) facilitates the engraftment of CD4^{+} over CD8^{+} T cells and exhibits delayed onset
of graft versus host disease (17,18). NOD.CB17-Prkdc scid/NCrHsd (Envigo) were used for
investigation of peripheral mouse myeloid cell populations in a related severely
immunodeficient mouse strain by flow cytometry.

Mice were transplanted via tail vein injection with 10x10^{6} PBMC in 200 μL PBS on the same
day as cell isolation from fresh peripheral human blood. Mice were assessed daily for
symptoms of GVHD, such as fur ruffling, hunched posture, reduced mobility and tachypnea
(26), as well as for any spontaneous neurological deficits (25).

All experiments were performed under sterile conditions in the Department of Animal
Models for Biomedical Research of the Hellenic Pasteur Institute. Mice were housed in a
specific pathogen-free facility in microisolator cages and given *ad libitum* UV-sterilized
standard chow, acidified water and gels for hydration. The experiments complied with
ARRIVE guidelines and were in accordance with the local Ethical Committee guidelines on
the use of experimental animals at the Hellenic Pasteur Institute, were approved by the
national authorities and complied to EU Directive 2010/63/EU for animal experiments.

Immunization with myelin peptides

Peptides MBP83-99, MOG1-20, and mMOG35-55 and hMOG35-55 (S42 in mMOG, P42 in

hMOG), were synthesized as previously described (46). In a previous study, we found that

humanized HLA-DR2b transgenic mice lacking all mouse MHCII genes required greater

amounts of peptide antigen to induce clinical EAE than wild-type B6 mice (21). Due to

limited numbers of B2m-NOG mice available for this study, several EAE protocols were first

tested using wild-type B6 mice, mainly to exclude the possibility of toxicity at high peptide

doses. Briefly, 8-week-old female B6 mice were immunized by subcutaneous (s.c.) tail-base

injection of 37 µg or 200 µg mMOG35-55, or a myelin peptide antigen cocktail containing

200 µg each of mMOG35-55, hMOG35-55, MOG1-20 and MBP83-99, dissolved in 100 µl

saline and emulsified in an equal volume of Freund's complete adjuvant (FCA) (Sigma-

Aldrich). FCA was supplemented with 400 µg/injection of H37Ra *Mycobacterium*

tuberculosis (Difco). All mice, except those immunized using the standard protocol (37 µg

mMOG35-55), received an identical boost immunization 7 days later. The immunized mice

also received intraperitoneal (i.p.) injections of 200 ng of *Bordetella pertussis* toxin (PTx)

(Sigma-Aldrich) at the time of each immunization and 48 h later. All mice developed clinical

symptoms of EAE with no evidence of increased morbidity or mortality at high peptide

doses. For this reason, the high-dose peptide cocktail was chosen for immunization of

groups of 12-14-week-old PBMC humanized B2m-NOG mice on dpt 14. Mice were

monitored daily for the clinical symptoms of EAE according to criteria commonly used for

scoring EAE: 0, normal; 1, limp tail; 2, hind limb weakness; 3, hind limb paralysis; 4, forelimb

paralysis; 5, moribund or dead (0.5 gradations represent intermediate scores) (21). Mice

were also monitored for signs of other neurological deficits (25).

MOG antibody responses in PBMC humanized mouse blood

Peripheral blood was collected from immunized and non-immunized mice at sacrifice on dpt

42, and sera collected for analysis of antibody responses. Samples were screened for IgG

antibodies against MOG, using indirect immunofluorescence assays (IFA). Sera were

analyzed at a starting dilution of 1:10, on EU 90 cells transfected with MOG protein and on

EU 90 control transfected cells, according to the manufacturer instructions (Euroimmun,

Lubeck, Germany). Visualization and evaluation of IFA results were performed under a

fluorescence microscope (Zeiss, Axioskop 40).

Flow cytometry

Fresh peripheral blood samples from the MS and HI donors were analyzed by FACS using a panel of immune cell marker antibodies. To monitor immune cell populations, 3 ml fresh peripheral blood was collected in EDTA tubes and a 100 µl aliquot was used for flow cytometry. Erythrocyte lysis was achieved with with Quicklysis[TM] (Cytognos) for 25 min. Cells were washed and incubated with an antibody mixture for human immune cell markers BV-510-hCD45 (clone 2D1), APC-Cyanine 7-hCD3 (clone HIT3a), PE-Cyanine 7-hCD4 (clone A161A1), PerCP-hCD8 (clone SK1), PE-hCD19 (clone 4G7), FITC-hCD56 (clone 5.1H11), APC-hCD66b (clone G1OF5), BV-421-hCD14 (clone HCD14) (all from Biolegend), for 30 min at 4 °C (Supplementary Table 1A). To monitor engraftment of human immune cells in B2m-NOG mice, peripheral blood was collected in heparin tubes from the tail vein at dpt 7, 13 and 42. Erythrocyte lysis and incubation with antibody mixture was performed as for fresh human blood above, except that the APC-hCD66b antibody was replaced by mouse APC-CD45 (clone 30-F11) (Biolegend) (Supplementary Table 1A). Data was acquired with FACSCelesta[TM] or FACSCanto[TM] II cytometer and analyzed with FACSDiva™ (BD) and FlowJo software (Tree Star, Inc.).

For intracellular staining of IFN-γ, splenocytes were isolated at sacrifice at dpt 42 as described above, and cells were stimulated with phorbol 12-myristate 13 acetate (PMA) (20 ng/ml, Sigma-Aldrich) and ionomycin (1µg/ml, Sigma-Aldrich) and treated with brefeldin-A (5µg/ml, Sigma-Aldrich) for 3 h at 37°C/5% CO2 in order to disrupt Golgi-mediated transport. Cells were fixed with 2% PFA in FBS, permeabilized using 0.5% wt/vol saponin, and stained with fluorochrome-conjugated antibodies for APC-CD4 (clone RPA-T4, BD Biosciences), CD8-PerCP (clone SK1, Biolegend), and PE-IFN-γ (clone B27; BD Biosciences) and PE-IL-17A (clone eBio64DEC17, eBioscience). Data acquisition was performed using a FACSCalibur[TM] cytometer and analyzed with FlowJo software (Tree Star, Inc.).

T cell proliferation assay

Spleens were isolated at sacrifice and homogenized in RPMI (Invitrogen Life Technologies) containing 10% heat-inactivated FCS. To obtain single cell suspensions, the washed homogenate was passed through a 70 µm cell strainer and erythrocyte lysis was performed with Gey's erythrocyte lysis buffer for 5 min. The reaction was stopped with RPMI 1640/FCS. Washed splenocytes at a concentration of 10^7 cells/mL in PBS were incubated with 5 µM

carboxylfluorescein succimidyl ester (CFSE, V12883, Thermofisher) for 15 min at 37°C. Cells

were washed and PBS/2% FCS was applied for 30 min at 37°C to stop the reaction. Cells

were washed and resuspended in RPMI 1640/FCS with 50 µM 2-mercaptoethanol (Sigma-

Aldrich) at concentration of 10^6 cells/ml. The cells were stimulated with in triplicates in

round-bottom 96-well plates with a myelin peptide antigen cocktail containing 30 µg/ml

each mMOG35-55, hMOG35-55, MOG1-20 and MBP83-99 for 120 h. Negative control cells

were incubated with medium only, and positive control cells were incubated in plates

coated with anti-CD3 (1µg/ml) (clone HIT3a, BD Biosciences). Results were expressed as cell

division index which is the ratio of %CFSE^{low} splenocytes (proliferating splenocytes) cultured

with peptides or anti-CD3 to the of %CFSE^{low} splenocytes cultured with medium only. Data

acquisition was performed using a FACSCalibur^{TM} cytometer and analyzed with FlowJo

software (Tree Star, Inc.)

Histopathology and Immunohistochemistry

Mice were transcardially perfused with ice-cold PBS at sacrifice on dpt 42 by carbon dioxide

inhalation. Brains, spinal cords and peripheral tissues (including lung, liver and inguinal fat

tissue) were dissected and post-fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde fixative (PFA) overnight at

4°C. Tissues were embedded in paraffin and 5µm sections and used for

immunohistochemistry and histopathology. Inflammation in peripheral tissues was

visualized by haematoxylin and eosin (H&E) using standard techniques. Immune cell

infiltration and inflammation of brain and spinal cord was visualized by

immunohistochemistry using antibodies specific for hCD45, hCD4, hCD8, mCD45, and mouse

Iba1 and GFAP followed by biotinylated secondary Abs, horseradish peroxidase-labeled

avidin-biotin complex, and signal development using 3'3'-diaminobenzidine. Nuclei were

counterstained with hematoxylin. Images were captured with an Olympus DP71 microscope

digital camera using cell^A imaging software (Soft Imaging System GmbH). High resolution

immunofluorescence imaging was performed by confocal microscopy using paraffin sections

immunostained with marker antibodies for myelin (MBP), microglia (Iba1) followed by anti-

rat CF-647- (Biotrium) and anti-rabbit AlexaFluor 568- (Invitrogen) labelled secondary

antibodies, respectively. Nuclei were counterstained with DAPI. A Leica TCS SP8 confocal

microscope was used to acquire fluorescent images.

Statistical Analysis

Data were processed using Microsoft Excel, and statistical analysis was performed with Graphpad Prism 8. Figures were made using Adobe Illustrator V24.3 Data was analyzed with Student's t test and results are presented as means ± SEM. Results were considered statistically significant when p ≤ 0.05. Graphical abstract was created using BioRender.com

Data availability statement

The raw data supporting the conclusions of this manuscript will be made available by the authors, without undue reservation, to any qualified researcher.

Conflict of interest statement

The authors report no conflict of interest.

Ethics approvals

The studies involving human participants were reviewed and approved by the Scientific Committee of Aeginition Hospital, National and Kapodistrian University of Athens, Greece. Licence 283/13-05-2015ADA: 7BΣH46Y8N2-B66. The patients/participants provided their written informed consent to participate in this study. The animal study was reviewed and approved by Committee for Evaluation of Experimental Procedures, Department of Experimental Animal Models, Hellenic Pasteur Institute (Presided by Dr P Andriopoulos pandriopoulos@patt.gov.grfor the Hellenic Republic, General Secretariat for Agricultural Economy, Veterinary and Licenses). Licence number 770851/27-11-2019.

Patient consent statement

Written informed consent was obtained from the human individual(s) for the publication of any potentially identifiable images or data included in this article.

Authors contributions

IP designed, set-up and performed experimental protocols for PBMC preparation and humanization of B2m-NOG mice, monitored mice for clinical symptoms and performed immunohistochemical analysis of CNS tissues, analysed results and prepared figures; MK performed quantitative immunohistochemical analysis of CNS tissues, analysed results and

prepared figures; AD designed and performed EAE experiments, monitored mice for clinical
symptoms, performed immunohistochemistry of LN tissues and FACS analyses of humanized
mice, analysed results and prepared figures; LD designed human FACS antibody panel,
performed analyses of human and mouse blood and analysed results; VG performed FACS
analysis and EBV ELISA on fresh human donor blood samples; NM collected and co-
ordinated delivery of human donor blood samples; FB performed histological analysis of
peripheral humanized mouse tissues and evaluated GVHD; MB and MA designed and
performed cell-based anti-MOG antibody assays; TT designed, synthesized, purified and
characterized myelin peptide analogues; MA performed HLA genotyping, selected patients
for this study, and supervised Hellenic MS patient cohort; LP was responsible for overall
experimental design and management of project, analysed and interpreted data, wrote
paper. All authors contributed to the article, edited, and approved the submitted version.

Funding

This research was co-financed by European Union and Greek national funds by The
Management and Implementation Authority for Research, Technological Development and
Innovation Actions (MIA-RTDI/ EYDE-ETAK) of the Hellenic Ministry of Development and
Investments, through the Operational Program Competitiveness, Entrepreneurship and
Innovation, under the call RESEARCH – CREATE – INNOVATE (project code T1EDK-01859;
acronym AKESO). Research was also supported by the Hellenic General Secretariat for
Research and Innovation (G.S.R.I.) Flagship Action for Neurodegenerative Diseases on the
basis of Personalized Medicine (Project code 2018ΣE01300001, acronym EDIA-N).

Acknowledgements

We wish to thank Ivan Gladwyn-Ng and Dimitri Gimnopoulos at Taconic Biosciences for
providing B2m-NOG mice and expert scientific support, Konstantinos Kambas, Katerina
Nanou and George Kollias for support with the flow cytometry analyses, and Maria Avloniti
for contributing material. We especially thank Dr Eirini Fragkiadaki, and members of the
Department of Experimental Animals for Biomedical Research of HPI for their help and
expert support in maintenance and handling of the B2m-NOG mice during these
experiments.

References

1. International Multiple Sclerosis Genetics C, Wellcome Trust Case Control C, Sawcer S,

Hellenthal G, Pirinen M, Spencer CC, et al. Genetic risk and a primary role for cell-

mediated immune mechanisms in multiple sclerosis. Nature [Internet].

2011;476(7359):214–9. Available from:

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21833088

2. Beecham AH, Patsopoulos NA, Xifara DK, Davis MF, Kemppinen A, Cotsapas C, et al.

Analysis of immune-related loci identifies 48 new susceptibility variants for multiple

sclerosis. 2013;45(11):1353–60.

3. Lassmann H. The changing concepts in the neuropathology of acquired demyelinating

central nervous system disorders. Curr Opin Neurol. 2019/03/21. 2019;32(3):313–9.

4. Regen T, Waisman A. Modeling a complex disease: Multiple sclerosis-Update 2020.

Adv Immunol. 2021;149:25–34.

5. Schreiner B, Heppner FL, Becher B. Modeling multiple sclerosis in laboratory animals.

Semin Immunopathol. 2009 Nov;31(4):479–95.

6. Attfield KE, Dendrou CA, Fugger L. Bridging the gap from genetic association to

functional understanding: the next generation of mouse models of multiple sclerosis.

Immunol Rev. 2012 Jul;248(1):10–22.

7. Lassmann H, Bradl M. Multiple sclerosis: experimental models and reality. Acta

Neuropathol. 2016/10/22. 2017;133(2):223–44.

8. Babbe H, Roers A, Waisman A, Lassmann H, Goebels N, Hohlfeld R, et al. Clonal

expansions of CD8(+) T cells dominate the T cell infiltrate in active multiple sclerosis

lesions as shown by micromanipulation and single cell polymerase chain reaction. J

Exp Med. 2000 Aug;192(3):393–404.

9. Wiendl H, Hohlfeld R. Multiple sclerosis therapeutics: unexpected outcomes clouding

undisputed successes. Neurology [Internet]. 2009;72(11):1008–15. Available from:

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19289741

10. Wekerle H, Flügel A, Fugger L, Schett G, Serreze D. Autoimmunity's next top models.

Nat Med. 2012;18(1):66–70.

11. Mestas J, Hughes CCW. Of mice and not men: differences between mouse and human

immunology. J Immunol. 2004 Mar;172(5):2731–8.

12. Hauser SL, Bar-Or A, Comi G, Giovannoni G, Hartung H-P, Hemmer B, et al.

677   Ocrelizumab versus Interferon Beta-1a in Relapsing Multiple Sclerosis. N Engl J Med.

678   2017 Jan;376(3):221–34.

679 13. Li R, Bar-Or A. The Multiple Roles of B Cells in Multiple Sclerosis and Their

680   Implications in Multiple Sclerosis Therapies. Cold Spring Harb Perspect Med. 2019

681   Apr;9(4).

682 14. Allen TM, Brehm MA, Bridges S, Ferguson S, Kumar P, Mirochnitchenko O, et al.

683   Humanized immune system mouse models: progress, challenges and opportunities.

684   Vol. 20, Nature immunology. United States; 2019. p. 770–4.

685 15. Nagatani M, Kodera T, Suzuki D, Igura S, Fukunaga Y, Kanemitsu H, et al. Comparison

686   of biological features between severely immuno-deficient NOD/Shi-scid Il2rg(null)

687   and NOD/LtSz-scid Il2rg(null) mice. Exp Anim. 2019 Nov;68(4):471–82.

688 16. Willinger T, Rongvaux A, Takizawa H, Yancopoulos GD, Valenzuela DM, Murphy AJ, et

689   al. Human IL-3/GM-CSF knock-in mice support human alveolar macrophage

690   development and human immune responses in the lung. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A.

691   2011 Feb;108(6):2390–5.

692 17. Morillon YM 2nd, Sabzevari A, Schlom J, Greiner JW. The Development of Next-

693   generation PBMC Humanized Mice for Preclinical Investigation of Cancer

694   Immunotherapeutic Agents. Anticancer Res. 2020 Oct;40(10):5329–41.

695 18. King MA, Covassin L, Brehm MA, Racki W, Pearson T, Leif J, et al. Human peripheral

696   blood leucocyte non-obese diabetic-severe combined immunodeficiency interleukin-

697   2 receptor gamma chain gene mouse model of xenogeneic graft-versus-host-like

698   disease and the role of host major histocompatibility complex. Clin Exp Immunol.

699   2009 Jul;157(1):104–18.

700 19. Morillon YMI, Smalley Rumfield C, Pellom ST, Sabzevari A, Roller NT, Horn LA, et al.

701   The Use of a Humanized NSG-β2m(-/-) Model for Investigation of Immune and Anti-

702   tumor Effects Mediated by the Bifunctional Immunotherapeutic Bintrafusp Alfa. Front

703   Oncol. 2020;10:549.

704 20. Zayoud M, El Malki K, Frauenknecht K, Trinschek B, Kloos L, Karram K, et al. Subclinical

705   CNS inflammation as response to a myelin antigen in humanized mice. J

706   neuroimmune Pharmacol Off J Soc NeuroImmune Pharmacol. 2013 Sep;8(4):1037–

707   47.

708 21. Dagkonaki A, Avloniti M, Evangelidou M, Papazian I, Kanistras I, Tseveleki V, et al.

Mannan-MOG35-55 Reverses Experimental Autoimmune Encephalomyelitis, Inducing

a Peripheral Type 2 Myeloid Response, Reducing CNS Inflammation, and Preserving

Axons in Spinal Cord Lesions. Front Immunol. 2020;11:575451.

22.   King IL, Dickendesher TL, Segal BM. Circulating Ly-6C+ myeloid precursors migrate to

the CNS and play a pathogenic role during autoimmune demyelinating disease.

Blood. 2009 Apr;113(14):3190–7.

23.   Dagkonaki A, Papalambrou A, Avloniti M, Gkika A, Evangelidou M, Androutsou M-E, et

al. Maturation of circulating Ly6C(hi)CCR2(+) monocytes by mannan-MOG induces

antigen-specific tolerance and reverses autoimmune encephalomyelitis. Front

Immunol. 2022;13:972003.

24.   Mebius RE. Organogenesis of lymphoid tissues. Nat Rev Immunol. 2003 Apr;3(4):292–

303.

25.   Guyenet SJ, Furrer SA, Damian VM, Baughan TD, La Spada AR, Garden GA. A simple

composite phenotype scoring system for evaluating mouse models of cerebellar

ataxia. J Vis Exp. 2010 May;(39).

26.   Cooke KR, Kobzik L, Martin TR, Brewer J, Delmonte JJ, Crawford JM, et al. An

experimental model of idiopathic pneumonia syndrome after bone marrow

transplantation: I. The roles of minor H antigens and endotoxin. Blood. 1996

Oct;88(8):3230–9.

27.   Wagner CA, Roqué PJ, Mileur TR, Liggitt D, Goverman JM. Myelin-specific CD8+ T cells

exacerbate brain inflammation in CNS autoimmunity. J Clin Invest. 2020

Jan;130(1):203–13.

28.   Ozturk A, Smith SA, Gordon-Lipkin EM, Harrison DM, Shiee N, Pham DL, et al. MRI of

the corpus callosum in multiple sclerosis: association with disability. Mult Scler. 2010

Feb;16(2):166–77.

29.   Rodríguez-Lorenzo S, Konings J, van der Pol S, Kamermans A, Amor S, van Horssen J,

et al. Inflammation of the choroid plexus in progressive multiple sclerosis:

accumulation of granulocytes and T cells. Acta Neuropathol Commun. 2020

Feb;8(1):9.

30.   Ajami B, Bennett JL, Krieger C, McNagny KM, Rossi FM V. Infiltrating monocytes

trigger EAE progression, but do not contribute to the resident microglia pool. Nat

Neurosci. 2011 Jul;14(9):1142–9.

31.   Codarri L, Greter M, Becher B. Communication between pathogenic T cells and
myeloid cells in neuroinflammatory disease. Trends Immunol. 2013 Mar;34(3):114–9.

32.   El-Behi M, Ciric B, Dai H, Yan Y, Cullimore M, Safavi F, et al. The encephalitogenicity of
T(H)17 cells is dependent on IL-1- and IL-23-induced production of the cytokine GM-
CSF. Nat Immunol. 2011 Jun;12(6):568–75.

33.   Saeki Y, Mima T, Sakoda S, Fujimura H, Arita N, Nomura T, et al. Transfer of multiple
sclerosis into severe combined immunodeficiency mice by mononuclear cells from
cerebrospinal fluid of the patients. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 1992 Jul;89(13):6157–61.

34.   Nielsen TR, Rostgaard K, Askling J, Steffensen R, Oturai A, Jersild C, et al. Effects of
infectious mononucleosis and HLA-DRB1*15 in multiple sclerosis. Mult Scler. 2009
Apr;15(4):431–6.

35.   Masterman T, Ligers A, Olsson T, Andersson M, Olerup O, Hillert J. HLA-DR15 is
associated with lower age at onset in multiple sclerosis. Ann Neurol. 2000
Aug;48(2):211–9.

36.   Mohme M, Hotz C, Stevanovic S, Binder T, Lee J-H, Okoniewski M, et al. HLA-DR15-
derived self-peptides are involved in increased autologous T cell proliferation in
multiple sclerosis. Brain. 2013 Jun;136(Pt 6):1783–98.

37.   Jelcic I, Al Nimer F, Wang J, Lentsch V, Planas R, Jelcic I, et al. Memory B Cells Activate
Brain-Homing, Autoreactive CD4(+) T Cells in Multiple Sclerosis. Cell. 2018/09/04.
2018;175(1):85-100.e23.

38.   Zdimerova H, Murer A, Engelmann C, Raykova A, Deng Y, Gujer C, et al. Attenuated
immune control of Epstein-Barr virus in humanized mice is associated with the
multiple sclerosis risk factor HLA-DR15. Eur J Immunol. 2021 Jan;51(1):64–75.

39.   Bjornevik K, Cortese M, Healy BC, Kuhle J, Mina MJ, Leng Y, et al. Longitudinal analysis
reveals high prevalence of Epstein-Barr virus associated with multiple sclerosis.
Science. 2022 Jan;375(6578):296–301.

40.   Sundström P, Nyström M, Ruuth K, Lundgren E. Antibodies to specific EBNA-1
domains and HLA DRB1*1501 interact as risk factors for multiple sclerosis. J
Neuroimmunol. 2009 Oct;215(1–2):102–7.

41.   Lanz T V, Brewer RC, Ho PP, Moon J-S, Jude KM, Fernandez D, et al. Clonally expanded
B cells in multiple sclerosis bind EBV EBNA1 and GlialCAM. Nature. 2022
Mar;603(7900):321–7.

42.   Tengvall K, Huang J, Hellström C, Kammer P, Biström M, Ayoglu B, et al. Molecular

mimicry between Anoctamin 2 and Epstein-Barr virus nuclear antigen 1 associates

with multiple sclerosis risk. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2019 Aug;116(34):16955–60.

43.   Hecker M, Fitzner B, Wendt M, Lorenz P, Flechtner K, Steinbeck F, et al. High-Density

Peptide Microarray Analysis of IgG Autoantibody Reactivities in Serum and

Cerebrospinal Fluid of Multiple Sclerosis Patients. Mol Cell Proteomics. 2016

Apr;15(4):1360–80.

44.   Jog NR, McClain MT, Heinlen LD, Gross T, Towner R, Guthridge JM, et al. Epstein Barr

virus nuclear antigen 1 (EBNA-1) peptides recognized by adult multiple sclerosis

patient sera induce neurologic symptoms in a murine model. J Autoimmun. 2020

Jan;106:102332.

45.   Yednock TA, Cannon C, Fritz LC, Sanchez-Madrid F, Steinman L, Karin N. Prevention of

experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis by antibodies against alpha 4 beta 1

integrin. Nature. 1992 Mar;356(6364):63–6.

46.   Tapeinou A, Androutsou ME, Kyrtata K, Vlamis-Gardikas A, Apostolopoulos V,

Matsoukas J, et al. Conjugation of a peptide to mannan and its confirmation by tricine

sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis. Anal Biochem.

2015/06/17. 2015;485:43–5.

Table 1

Genotype Diagnosis	G	Age	MS duration (y)	Therapies	Relapse (12/24 m)	MRI Brain/Gd	MRI Spine/Gd	EDSS	Viral infections (titre)	T cell responses (21)
DR13 1302/1303 RRMS	F	42	27	Azathioprine Interferon beta-1a Interferon beta-1b Fingolimod Natalizumab (#5) Cortisone (1 m prior to sampling)	1/1	(+) stable	(+) GD (+)	2.5	**CoV2**$^+$ **JC**$^+$ (1.24) **EBV** VCA IgG$^+$ **EBV** EA IgG$^+$ **EBV** EBNA1 IgG$^+$ **EBV** EBNA1 IgM$^-$	MBP83-99 hMOG35-55 (Patient 17)
DR15 0402/1501 RRMS	F	38	15	Interferon beta-1a Fingolimod Natalizumab (#24) Cladribine	1/1	(+) stable	(+) stable	2.5	**CoV2**$^+$ **JC**$^+$ (1.47) **EBV** VCA IgG$^+$ **EBV** EA IgG$^-$ **EBV** EBNA1 IgG$^+$ **EBV** EBNA1 IgM$^+$	MBP13-32 MBP83-99 hMOG35-55 (Patient 11)
DR15 04/15 Healthy	F	28	None	None	None	ND	ND	ND	**CoV2**$^+$ **JC** ND **EBV** VCA IgG$^+$ **EBV** EA IgG$^+$ **EBV** EBNA1 IgG$^+$ **EBV** EBNA1 IgM$^+$	None (Normal 1)

797 KEY: EDSS, expanded disability status scale; Gd, gadolinium; NA, not applicable; ND, not done; RRMS, relapse-remitting MS.

Figure legends

Figure 1

Reconstitution of a human adaptive immune system in B2m-NOG mice engrafted with PBMC from MS patient and healthy donors. (A) Progressive engraftment of human (h) CD45+ leukocytes from donors in groups of B2m-NOG mice, non-immunized (left) and immunized using an EAE protocol (right), measured in peripheral blood samples taken at different time points, and in spleen recovered at sacrifice 42 days post-transplantation (dpt 42). **(B)** Proportions of hCD4$^+$ and hCD8$^+$ T cells in blood hCD45$^+$CD3$^+$ T cells at different time points. **(C)** Proportions of human immune cell subpopulations in spleens of immunized and non-immunized mice at dpt 42 (see also Supplementary Table 3). **(D)** Antigen-specific T cell proliferation responses to the immunizing antigens (mMOG35-55, hMOG35-55, MOG1-20, MBP83-99), anti-hCD3 (positive control) and medium (unstimulated; US), in splenocytes recovered from non-immunized and immunized DR13 MS PBMC humanized mice at dpt 42. Results are expressed as a cell division index. **(E)** Proportions of IL-17A-producing CD4$^+$ (left graph), and interferon-γ-producing (right graph) CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$ T cells in splenocytes recovered from mice in the different groups at dpt 42. **(F)** Draining lymphoid structures in inguinal fat of mice engrafted with DR13 MS and DR15 MS PBMC and immunized with myelin peptides, recovered at dpt 42. Immunohistochemistry revealed the presence of hCD45- and mCD45-positive leukocytes, hCD4- and hCD8-positive T cells, and hCD20-positive B cells (latter only DR13 MS mice). All results are depicted as mean ± SEM. Statistical significance is shown after pairwise comparisons between groups using Student's t test (*p ≤ 0.05, **p ≤ 0.01, ***p ≤ 0.001).

Figure 2

Human T cells accumulate at brain borders in non-immunized DR15 MS and DR15 HI mice, and form parenchymal lesions in brain and spinal cord of DR15 MS mice

Immunohistochemical analysis of the brain from non-immunized PBMC B2m-NOG mice showing infiltration by human (h) and mouse (m) CD45-positive leukocytes, and hCD8-positive T cells, in brain border regions (denoted in diagram **A**) and in brainstem parenchyma (denoted in diagram **B**). **(B)** Parenchymal lesion containing hCD8-positive T cells

in brainstem of a DR15 MS mouse. **(C, D)** Accumulation of hCD45- and mCD45-positive

leukocytes and hCD8-positive T cells, together with local activation of Iba1-positive microglia

and GFAP-positive astrocytes, at border regions in the brains of DR15 HI and DR15 MS mice,

specifically in the connective tissue of the interventricular foramen joining the lateral and

third ventricles (C, arrowheads), and at meninges close to the optic tract (D, arrowheads).

Scattered hCD45-positive leukocytes and hCD8 T cells in brain parenchyma of DR15 MS mice

(C, arrows). (**E**) Counting of barrier-associated and parenchymal hCD8-positive T cells in

whole coronal sections of brain (shown in A) from DR13 MS, DR15 MS and DR15 HI mice.

Scale bar 100 µm; x20 objective (C, D). All results are depicted as mean ± SEM. Statistical

analysis was performed by pairwise comparisons between different groups of mice using

Student's t test.

Figure 3

Human T cells infiltrate spinal cord white matter in non-immunized DR15 MS and DR15 HI

mice, and form grey matter lesions in DR15 MS mice

Immunohistochemical analysis of spinal cord from non-immunized PBMC B2m-NOG mice

showing infiltration by human (h) CD3-positive T cells in the grey and white matter regions.

(A) Infiltrating hCD3-positive T cells were scattered individually throughout spinal cord grey

and white matter and formed small lesions in the white matter (WM) of both DR15 MS and

DR15 HI mice (lower panels, arrowheads), and grey matter lesions only in DR15 MS mice

(upper panels, arrowheads). The dotted lines mark the boundary between grey matter and

white matter. **(B)** Counting of hCD3-positive T cell lesions (≥ 3 adjacent cells) in grey and

white matter in whole spinal cord sections from DR15 HI and DR15 MS mice. **(C)** Semi-

quantitative estimation of hCD3-positive T cells in whole spinal cord sections from DR15 HI

and DR15 MS mice. **(D)** Double immunofluorescence staining for hCD45-positive leukocytes

(green, arrowheads) and MBP-positive myelin (red), with DAPI counterstained nuclei (blue),

in spinal cord white matter (WM) of DR15 MS mice. Grey matter (GM). Scale bars 100 µm;

x20 objective (A, upper panels); x40 objective (A, lower panels). All results are depicted as

mean ± SEM. Statistical analysis was performed by pairwise comparisons between different

groups of mice using Student's t test.

Figure 4

Immunization with myelin peptides increases T cell infiltration of brain parenchyma and promotes development of brain lesions in both DR15 MS and DR15 HI mice

Immunohistochemical analysis of the brain from PBMC B2m-NOG mice immunized for EAE showing infiltration by human (h) and mouse (m) CD45-positive leukocytes, hCD8- and hCD4-positive T cells, and local activation of Iba1-positive microglia and GFAP-positive astrocytes, in brain regions denoted in the diagram **(A)**. **(B, C)** Individual hCD45-positive leukocytes and hCD8-positive T cells scattered in the corpus callosum white matter (B) and small lesions in the optic tract (C, arrowhead) in the presence of locally activated Iba1-positive microglia and GFAP-positive astrocytes in immunized DR15 HI mice. **(D)** Prominent lesions in the corpus callosum white matter of two of the three DR15 MS mice **(i, ii,** arrowheads), containing hCD45- and mCD45-positive leukocytes, hCD4- and hCD8-positive T cells and locally activated Iba1-positive microglia and GFAP-positive astrocytes. **(E)** Counting of barrier-associated and parenchymal hCD8-positive T cells in whole coronal sections of brain from DR13 MS, DR15 MS and DR15 HI mice. **(F)** Double immunofluorescence staining for hCD45-positive leukocytes (green, arrowhead) and Iba1-positive microglia/border macrophages (red, yellow arrowhead; non-specific red staining of erythrocytes in vessel lumen), with DAPI counterstained nuclei (blue), showing a small perivascular lesion in the thalamus grey matter (GM) of immunized DR15 MS mice. **(G)** Double immunofluorescence staining for hCD45-positive leukocytes (green, arrowheads) and MBP-positive myelin (red), with DAPI counterstained nuclei (blue), in corpus callosum in immunized DR15 MS mice, showing inflammatory lesion without demyelination. Scale bars 100 µm; x20 objective (B, C, D, G); x40 objective (F). All results are depicted as mean ± SEM. Statistical analysis was performed by pairwise comparisons between different groups of mice using Student's t test.

Figure 5

Immunization with myelin peptides induces T cell lesions in spinal cord white matter of both DR15 MS and DR15 HI mice

Immunohistochemical analysis of spinal cord from PBMC B2m-NOG mice immunized for EAE showing infiltration by human (h) CD3-positive T cells in the grey and white matter regions. **(A)** Infiltrating hCD3-positive T cells scattered throughout spinal cord grey and white matter and forming small lesions in the white matter (WM) of both DR15 MS and DR15 HI mice (lower panels, arrowheads) The dotted lines mark the boundary between grey matter and

white matter. **(B)** Counting of hCD3-positive T cell lesions (≥ 3 adjacent cells) in grey and

white matter in whole spinal cord sections from DR15 HI and DR15 MS mice. **(C)** Double

immunofluorescence staining for hCD45-positive leukocytes (green, arrowheads) and MBP-

positive myelin (red), with DAPI counterstained nuclei (blue), in white matter (WM) of

immunized DR15 MS spinal cord. Grey matter (GM). **(D)** Semi-quantitative estimation of

hCD3-positive T cells in whole spinal cord sections from DR15 HI and DR15 MS mice. All

results are depicted as mean ± SEM. Scale bars 100 µm; x40 objective (A). Statistical analysis

was performed by pairwise comparisons between different groups of mice using Student's t

test.

A

Grey matter

hCD3   DR15 HI   DR15 MS

White matter

hCD3   DR15 HI   DR15 MS

WM   WM

D   DR15 MS   DAPI MBP hCD45

WM   GM

B

Grey matter lesions per animal

**

DR15 HI   DR15 MS

White matter lesions per animal

DR15 HI   DR15 MS

C

Parenchymal CD3 score

DR15 HI   DR15 MS