1 2 3	Epithelial organoid supports resident memory CD8 T cell differentiation
4 5 6 7 8	Max R. Ulibarri ^{1,#} , Ying Lin ^{1,2,#} , Julian R. Ramprashad ¹ , Geongoo Han ¹ , Mohammad H. Hasan ¹ , Farha J. Mithila ^{1,3} , Chaoyu Ma ⁴ , Smita Gopinath ⁵ , Nu Zhang ^{4,6} , J. Justin Milner ⁷ , Lalit K. Beura ^{1,*}
9 10	¹ Department of Molecular Microbiology and Immunology, Brown University, Providence, RI, 02912
11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21	 ² Pathobiology Graduate Program, Brown University, Providence, RI, 02912 ³ Molecular Biology, Cell Biology and Biochemistry Graduate Program, Brown University, Providence, RI, 02912
	 ⁴ Department of Microbiology, Immunology and Molecular Genetics, University of Texas Health Science Center, San Antonio, TX, 78229
	⁵ Department of Immunology and Infectious Diseases, Harvard T.H. Chan School of Public Health, Cambridge, MA, 02115
	 ⁶ South Texas Veterans Health Care System, San Antonio, TX, 78229 ⁷ Department of Microbiology and Immunology, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, NC, 27599
22 23	[#] - Contributed equally to this work
24 25 26 27 28 29 30	*Send correspondence to- Lalit K. Beura, lalit beura@brown.edu
	Keywords- Vaginal epithelial organoids, CD8 resident memory T cells, in vitro differentiation

1 Abstract

2

3 Resident Memory T cells (TRM) play a vital role in regional immune defense in barrier organs. 4 Although laboratory rodents have been extensively used to study fundamental TRM biology, poor 5 isolation efficiency, sampling bias and low cell survival rates have limited our ability to conduct 6 TRM-focused high-throughput assays. Here, we engineered a murine vaginal epithelial organoid 7 (VEO)-CD8 T cell co-culture system that supports CD8 TRM differentiation in vitro. The three-8 dimensional VEOs established from murine adult stem cells resembled stratified squamous 9 vaginal epithelium and induced gradual differentiation of activated CD8 T cells into epithelial TRM. 10 These in vitro generated TRM were phenotypically and transcriptionally similar to in vivo TRM. 11 and key tissue residency features were reinforced with a second cognate-antigen exposure during 12 co-culture. TRM differentiation was not affected even when VEOs and CD8 T cells were 13 separated by a semipermeable barrier, indicating soluble factors' involvement. Pharmacological 14 and genetic approaches showed that TGF- β signaling played a crucial role in their differentiation. 15 We found that the VEOs in our model remained susceptible to viral infections and the CD8 T cells 16 were amenable to genetic manipulation; both of which will allow detailed interrogation of antiviral 17 CD8 T cell biology in a reductionist setting. In summary, we established a robust model which 18 captures bonafide TRM differentiation that is scalable, open to iterative sampling, and can be 19 subjected to high throughput assays that will rapidly add to our understanding of TRM.

1 Introduction

2

Memory CD8 T cells play a crucial role in coordinating the immune response against intracellular 3 4 infections and malignancies. Their duties, however, are compartmentalized, with distinct subsets 5 of memory CD8 T cells performing surveillance responsibilities depending on their anatomic 6 location. Specifically, circulating memory CD8 T cells, which encompass both central memory 7 (TCM) and effector memory CD8 T cells (TEM), continuously patrol the bloodstream and 8 secondary lymphoid organs (SLOs) such as the spleen and lymph nodes as well as non-lymphoid tissues (NLTs) ¹⁻³. Resident memory CD8 T cells (TRM), by contrast, are stationed within specific 9 10 tissues and rarely recirculate through blood or lymphatics. The frontline placement of TRM positions them at the first line of defense against invading pathogens. Upon contact with infected 11 12 Antigen Presenting Cells, TRM cells promptly release a milieu of cytokines and chemokines and 13 exhibit cytotoxic capacity. This multifaceted response serves to curtail pathogen replication, alert 14 the immune system, and recruit other immune cells to the site of infection. Consequently, the 15 presence of TRM is correlated with expedited pathogen control in a number of barrier tissues ^{4,5}.

16

17 Mucosal barrier tissues including the intestine, lung and female reproductive tract (FRT) are frequently targeted by pathogens. Localizing abundant quantities of antiviral CD8 TRM in these 18 tissues is associated with rapid protective benefit in infection ^{6–10}. Accordingly, positioning a robust 19 20 TRM population in barrier tissues that is maintained long-term is a crucial vaccination goal. This 21 requires an in-depth understanding of the signals that mediate differentiation of naive CD8 T cells 22 to TRM While the identity of certain core transcription factors (e.g. Hobit, Blimp-1, Runx3 and 23 KLF2) and surface molecules (e.g. CD103, CD69, CD49a) have been discovered, our understanding of the TRM differentiation process is far from complete ^{11–13} TRM development is 24 25 complex and involves multiple anatomical niches including initial effector differentiation in SLOs. 26 trafficking via blood, and final TRM formation at the tissue of residence under the influence of the 27 local microenvironment. The contributions of the local tissue-specific signals in dictating TRM fate 28 is an intense area of research as the information could be used to modulate TRM density in an 29 organ-restricted manner. Many of these studies employ gene-specific knockout mice and 30 transgenic CD8 T cells to elucidate mechanistic insights into the signaling mechanism that 31 induces TRM. However, a major issue remains in distinguishing the roles of specific genes in the 32 initial CD8 T cell effector differentiation process, which occurs in SLOs, from their contributions to the subsequent differentiation process that transpires within the respective non-lymphoid barrier 33 34 tissues, once the T cells have homed there. The utility of tissue-specific Cre-driver lines, which 35 can be temporally induced, is constrained by their limited availability and susceptibility to spurious 36 or leaky induction. Furthermore, these in vivo animal studies are not well-suited for high-37 throughput assays and are constrained in their capacity for invasive experimental manipulations. Addressing these limitations, organoid models have emerged as a reductionist surrogate system 38 39 that overcomes the shortcomings of in vivo models while retaining the three-dimensional 40 architecture of target tissues ^{14–16}.

41

42 Epithelial organoids can be derived from induced pluripotent stem cells or adult epithelial stem 43 cells. They are phenotypically stable through successive passages, which makes them an 44 efficacious alternative to in vivo assays. Other components of the native tissue can also be 45 incorporated into these epithelial organoids including immune cells, mesenchymal cells, and a microbiome to develop more faithful models that recapitulate relevant in vivo interactions ¹⁷⁻¹⁹. 46 47 Enteric and lung organoids have been well-established and currently offer tremendous prospect 48 for fundamental biologic discovery as well as personalized medicine. In comparison, organs with type-II mucosa have been less investigated. Here we exploited a recently established model of 49 50 vaginal epithelial organoids (VEO)²⁰ to dissect the localized interactions between T cells and the vaginal epithelium and to study TRM differentiation. By co-culturing activated CD8 T cells with 51

VEOs, we successfully induced CD8 TRM differentiation. Subsequent analysis of the transcriptome and phenotype of the CD8 T cells showed robust alignment of the *in vitro* generated TRM with bonafide *in vivo* CD8 TRM cells. We further ascertained that the TRM phenotype is contingent on TGF- β signaling and can be repressed by the chemical inhibition of TGF- β activation/signaling. This reductionist model system enables in-depth exploration of the intricate interplay between T cells and the vaginal epithelium, providing valuable insights into the local differentiation of TRM within the FRT.

1 Results

2

3 Establishment of vaginal epithelial organoid-CD8 T cell co-culture system

(

4 5 In this study, we employed a vaginal epithelial organoid (VEO) generation system, as previously 6 outlined by Ali et al. in 2020²¹, to cultivate VEOs. Vaginal tissue was collected from female 7 C57BL/6 mice (>8 weeks), and the epithelium was separated from stroma using a combination of 8 enzymatic and physical techniques (Fig. 1A). Single-cell suspensions of epithelial cells were 9 embedded in basement membrane extract (Matrigel) and cultured in a growth medium designed 10 for the maintenance and proliferation of epithelial stem cells. Individual stem cells gave rise to 11 structures with multiple differentiated layers, closely resembling previously described vaginal organoids²⁰. These VEOs were successfully maintained for at least 21 days through 12 13 supplementation of fresh medium during which they steadily grew in size (Fig.1B). Notably, in 14 differential interference contrast (DIC) images, the organoids exhibited a distinct darker core 15 attributed to mucinous secretions and a lighter external boundary composed of a basal layer of 16 epithelial cells (Fig.1B). We also measured relative transcript levels of various genes associated with different layers of vaginal epithelium at different times post-culture²⁰. Transcripts associated 17 18 with stem cells (Axin2) and proliferation (Birc5, Ki67) were more abundant at earlier times (day 5 19 post-culture), whereas genes associated with luminal keratinocytes (Sprr1a) and cornified cells 20 (*Krt1*) increased at later times (Fig.1C) 20,22 .

21

22 Our histological analysis of the VEOs demonstrated consistent staining with the pan-epithelial cell 23 marker EpCAM. The majority of proliferating cells (Ki67+) were located in the outer layer, (Fig. 24 1D, top row). Similarly, the basal epithelial cell marker, keratin-5, was predominantly localized to 25 the outer layer of cells within the organoids (Fig. 1D, bottom row). Next, we aimed to introduce 26 CD8 T cells into the VEOs to test whether exposure to VEO-derived cues could facilitate CD8 T 27 cell differentiation into mature tissue-resident memory (TRM) cells. To achieve this, naive CD8 T 28 cells were enriched from secondary lymphoid organs (SLOs) of TCR transgenic mice, which 29 included P14 mice carrying CD8 T cells with specificity for the gp33 epitope of Lymphocytic 30 choriomeningitis virus (LCMV), OT-I mice bearing CD8 T cells against the ovalbumin-derived 31 SIINFEKL epitope, or gBT-I mice containing CD8 T cells with specificity for the SL8 epitope of Herpes simplex virus (HSV). These cells underwent polyclonal activation using a combination of 32 a CD3ɛ antibody and B7.1 Fc as described before ²³. The expanded CD8 T cells were then co-33 34 cultured with the VEOs, as shown in Fig. 1A, and their presence within the basement membrane 35 extract (BME)/Matrigel was imaged using a congenic marker (CD90.1) through confocal microscopy. CD8 T cells were observed in close proximity to fully developed organoids as well as 36 37 found scattered around the organoids, as presented in Fig. 1E. These CD8-VEO co-cultures were 38 successfully maintained for a minimum of 16 days with regular media changes, supplemented 39 with IL-2 alone. In summary, we established VEOs that closely resemble previously described 40 organoids and effectively introduced CD8 T cells into the VEO environment for further 41 investigation.

- 42
- 43 44
- 45
- 46
- 47
- 47 10
- 48
- 49
- 50

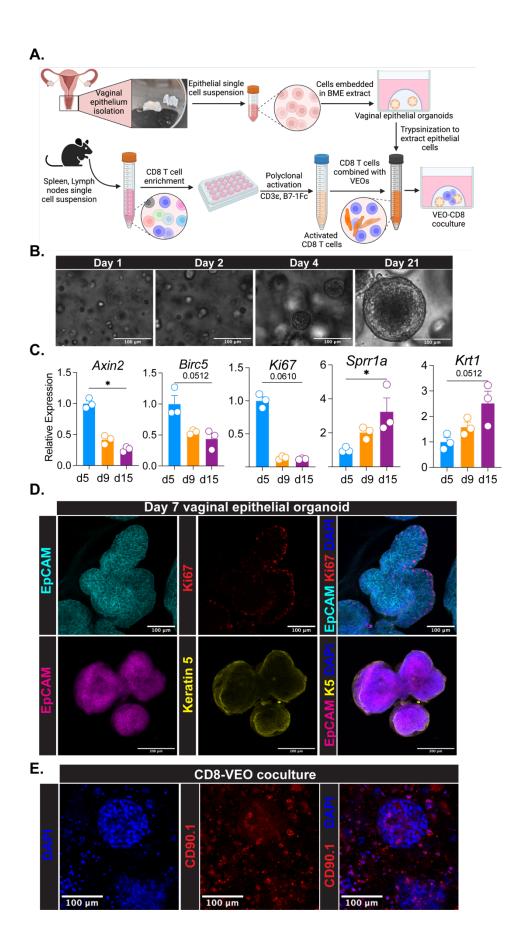


Figure 1: Establishment of vaginal epithelial organoid (VEO) and co-culturing with CD8 T 1 2 lymphocytes. A. Schematics describing the isolation of vaginal epithelial cells from C57BL/6 3 mouse and differentiation of epithelial organoid using growth factors and chemicals. Naive CD8 4 T cells from TCR transgenic mice were enriched and activated *in vitro* using CD3 and B7.1 Fc. 5 Activated CD8 T cells were co-cultured with VEOs to enable CD8 T cells' differentiation to TRM. B. Representative differential interference contrast (DIC) microscopy of VEOs at day 1, 2, 4 and 6 7 21 post subculture showing growth. Scale bar=100µm. C. Relative RNA level of indicated genes 8 detected by quantitative PCR at different days post-subculture showing differential levels of 9 distinct epithelial populations within the VEOs as they grow. D. Representative confocal 10 microscopy images of VEOs showing epithelial identity as well as different layers. Top row-Epcam, cyan; Ki67, red; DAPI, blue; Scale bar=100µm. Bottom row- Epcam, magenta; Keratin 5, 11 12 yellow; DAPI, blue; Scale bar=200µm. E. Activated CD8 T cells stained with a congenic marker 13 CD90.1 (red) were co-cultured with VEOs, and representative confocal microscopy image 7-day 14 post culture is shown. Scale bar=100µm. Schematic in A is made with Biorender. Experiments in 15 B. C. D and E have been repeated at least twice with more than 3 separate wells/condition.

16

17 <u>CD8 T cells acquire an epithelial TRM phenotype upon co-culture with VEOs</u>

18

19 Following the successful maintenance of CD8 T cells with VEOs, we performed phenotypic 20 characterizations of these co-cultured CD8 T cells. Expression of various CD8 T cell-specific 21 markers were assessed from dissociated VEO-CD8 co-cultures via flow cytometry. CD8 T cells 22 maintained alone in the absence of VEOs upregulated CD103 but not CD69, and few cells 23 expressed both CD69 and CD103 (Fig.2A, top row). In contrast, a substantial proportion (~40-24 65%) of the co-cultured CD8 T cells showed dual expression of CD69 and CD103 (Fig.2A, middle 25 row). This double positive CD8 TRM cell population is normally observed in the epithelial compartment ²⁴⁻²⁶. Importantly, this in vitro co-cultured CD8 T cell phenotype resembled that of 26 27 anti-viral CD8 TRM generated against murine LCMV infection in vivo (Fig.2A, bottom row). These CD8 T cells are well-documented as bonafide residents within the vaginal and cervical tissues^{27,28} 28 29 . Beyond CD69 and CD103, the co-cultured CD8 T cells also adopted other phenotypic attributes of TRM, including downregulation of Lv6C and CD62L and upregulation of PD-1 ^{24,29}Interaction 30 31 of TRM with extracellular matrix (ECM) components is important for many aspects of TRM biology 32 ^{30–32}. To test if the acquisition of the TRM phenotype was influenced by the presence of Matrigel 33 (ECM), which provides a 3D environment and support for the growth and maintenance of VEOs, 34 we cultured CD8 T cells within Matrigel in the absence of VEOs. Even after 12 days of culture, 35 these CD8 T cells failed to adopt a CD69+CD103+ TRM phenotype, confirming that ECM alone 36 cannot drive the TRM phenotype and VEOs are crucial in driving TRM formation (Supplementary 37 Fig.1A-B). Additionally, co-cultured CD8 T cells exhibited downregulation of transcription factors 38 T-bet and Eomes, aligning with established TRM traits (Supplementary Fig.1C) 33 . 39

40 To gain insight into the kinetics of acquisition of various TRM markers, we conducted 41 longitudinal phenotyping of co-cultured CD8 T cells, revealing that CD103 upregulation occurs at 42 a faster rate compared to CD69 in vitro (Supplementary Fig.2A-B). We further performed deeper 43 phenotypic characterization of these different CD8 populations generated via co-culture. This 44 revealed that the CD69+ CD103+ CD8 T cells conform to the established true TRM phenotype 45 (CD62L lo, P2rx7 hi, CXCR6 hi) and express CD49a as well as the cytotoxic molecule granzyme-B (Supplementary Fig.2C). However, the CD103 single positive CD8 T cells failed to adopt these 46 47 TRM phenotypes and rather resembled circulating CD8 T cells expressing higher levels of 48 CD62L.

1 Previous studies in mouse models have suggested that a local second antigenic 2 encounter in the target tissue can enhance the differentiation of effector CD8 T cells into TRM ^{34,35}. In our study, we aimed to replicate this process by exposing the activated CD8 T cells to 3 4 VEOs presenting cognate antigen. For this, disaggregated epithelial cells from VEOs were 5 incubated with cognate antigenic peptide (gp33 for P14 CD8 T cells and SL8 for gBT-I CD8 T 6 cells) for an hour and were subsequently washed to eliminate any unbound peptides (Fig.2D). 7 Epitope-loaded epithelial cells were incubated with activated CD8 T cells, and together, were 8 embedded in BME to induce VEO formation and TRM differentiation. The antigen-exposed CD8 9 T cells exhibited a significantly higher percentage of CD69+CD103+ TRM, as depicted in Figure 10 2E&2F, as early as 8 days in comparison to the non-antigen-exposed CD8 T cells. The expression 11 of other TRM-associated markers was also more pronounced in these cells (Fig. 2E-F). In 12 summary, we have successfully differentiated CD8 TRM cells through VEO-derived signals, and 13 this process was enhanced by a transient second antigen exposure.

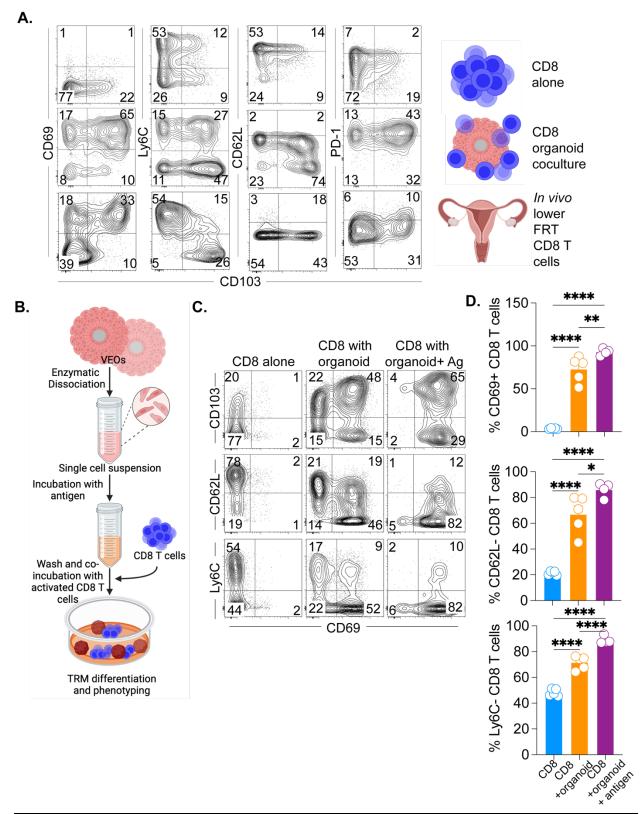


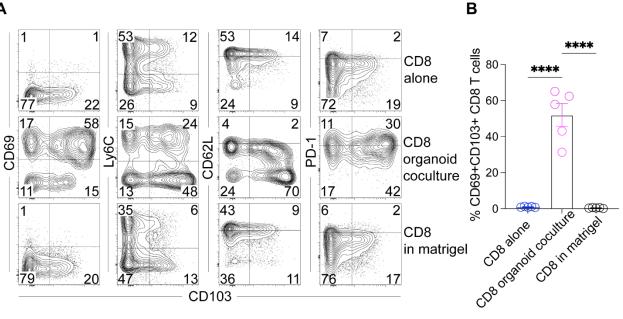
Figure 2: Co-cultured CD8 T cells adopt phenotypic characteristics of TRM. A. CD8 T cells
 maintained alone (top row) or embedded with the VEOs (middle row) were isolated at day 14 post
 culture, and representative flow plots depicting expression of various TRM-associated markers

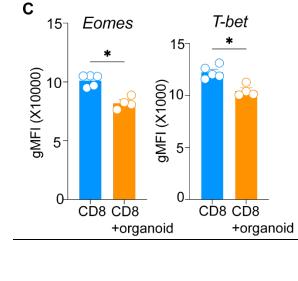
1 are shown. Both rows were gated on live congenic marker (CD45.1 or CD90.1) or CD8 β + T cells. 2 Flow plots in the bottom row are viral antigen-specific memory CD8 T cells isolated from the lower 3 FRT of mice infected with lymphocytic choriomeningitis virus (LCMV) 50 days prior. The plots are 4 gated on live antigen-specific CD8 T cells located in the tissue parenchyma (IV negative). B. 5 Schematics describing the protocol used to expose the activated CD8 T cells to cognate antigen 6 again during the co-culture. C. Flow cytometry phenotype of CD8 T cells exposed to antigen (gp33 7 peptide) leading to enhanced acquisition of TRM characteristics. Representative flow plots are 8 shown in C gated on live congenic marker (CD45.1 or CD90.1) or CD88+T cells, and percentages 9 are enumerated in D. Bars indicate mean ± SEM. Data are representative of three repeats with 10 n=4-6/condition. One way ANOVA with Holm-Sidak multiple comparison test (D). * < 0.05, ** < 0.01, *** <0.001 and **** <0.0001. 11

12 13

Supplementary Fig.1 14





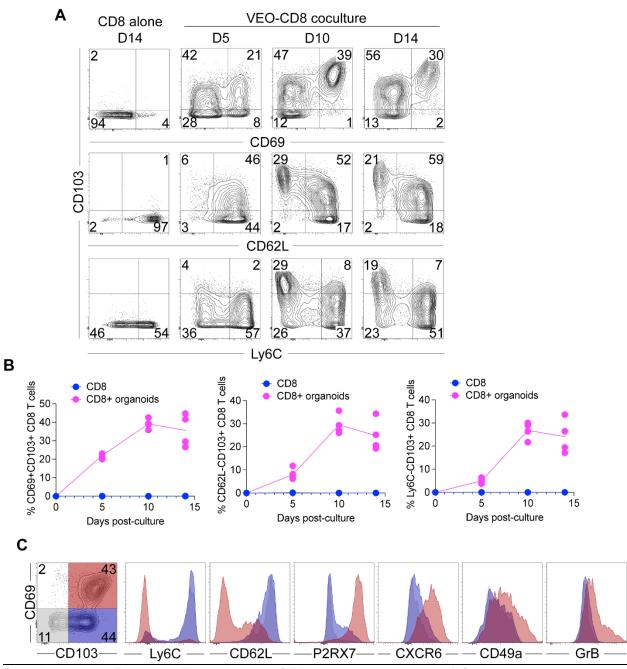


15 16 17

Supplementary Figure 1. The extracellular matrix microenvironment alone is not capable of supporting TRM differentiation. A. CD8 T cells were mixed with VEO-derived epithelial cells and were embedded in Matrigel (middle row) or just embedded alone in BME in the absence of VEOs (bottom row) for 14 days. CD8 T cells maintained as a suspension culture in the absence of VEOs (top row) were included as a control. Representative flow plots depicting expression of various TRM-associated markers are shown. Cells were gated on live congenic marker (CD45.1 or CD90.1) or CD88+ T cells. B. Bar graph comparing the percentage acquisition of TRM phenotype among different conditions. C. Geometric mean fluorescence intensity comparison of transcription factors eomesodermin and T-bet between in vitro generated TRM and CD8 T cells maintained alone after 14 days of culture. Data are representative of two repeats with n=4-6/condition. Bars indicate mean ± SEM. One way ANOVA with Holm-Sidak multiple comparison test (B). Student t-test (C). * < 0.05, ****<0.0001

1 Supplementary Fig.2





3 ⊿

4 Supplementary Figure 2. The induction of TRM phenotype by the VEOs is a gradual process, 5 and among various subsets generated post-co-culture, the CD103+CD69+ subset alone 6 phenotypically resembles true epithelial TRM. A. Phenotype of CD8 T cells cultured with VEOs 7 for indicated time points was assessed by flow cytometry. The left most column represents cells 8 maintained in the absence of VEOs for 14 days. Representative flow plots depicting expression 9 of various TRM-associated markers are shown. Cells were gated on live and congenic marker 10 (CD45.1 or CD90.1). B. Scatter plot depicting percentage of CD8 T cells positive for various 11 TRM-associated markers across time. C. Flow-based comparison of TRM markers among the 3 subsets generated by the co-culture (CD69+CD103+, CD69-CD103+ and CD69-CD103-) 12

13 showing that only the phenotype of CD69+CD103+ population aligns with previously described

- 1 2 TRM phenotype including CD62L-, P2rx7+, CD49a+, CXCR6+ and a fraction of cells that are
- granzyme-B+. Data are representative of two repeats with n=4-6/condition.

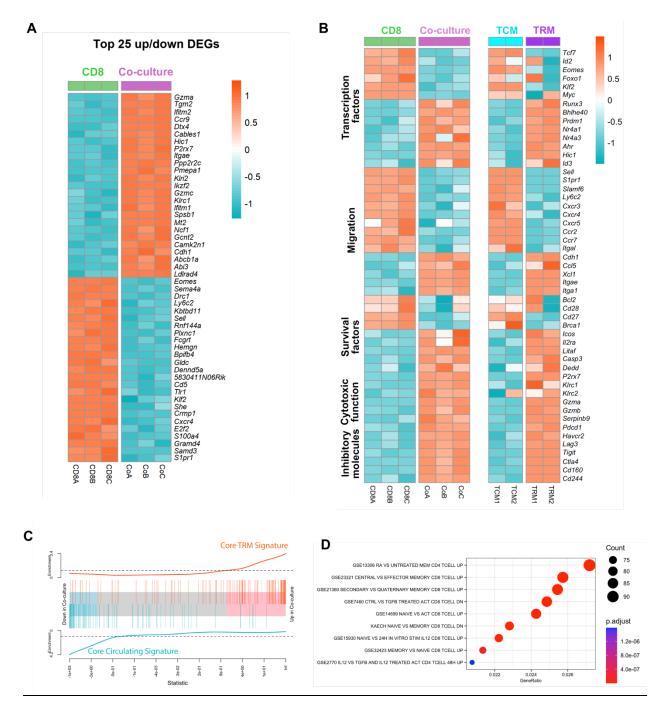
1 Transcriptional alignment of in vitro generated TRM with bonafide in vivo TRM

2

3 The phenotypic resemblance between VEO-induced CD8 TRM and CD8 TRM established in vivo 4 upon viral infection strongly suggests that the in vitro generated CD69+ CD103+ CD8 T cells 5 faithfully resemble TRM. However, a number of these phenotypic markers can arise during T cell 6 activation and cytokine stimulation and have led to questioning the establishment of TRM identity 7 by phenotyping alone. Detailed transcriptional analysis of TRM across tissues and species have 8 established a core-TRM transcriptional signature that has been used to establish the fidelity and identity of particular TRM populations ^{29,36}. We performed population-based RNA-seq analysis 9 10 comparing the CD69+CD103+ ex vivo generated CD8 T cell subset with CD8 T cells maintained 11 without the VEOs. Out of the 6,223 (3,748 up- and 2,475 downregulated) differentially expressed 12 genes between the 2 cell types, many of the top 25 up- and downregulated genes (e.g. 13 upregulated: Gzma, Hic1, Ccr9, Itgae; downregulated: Eomes, Sell, Klf2, S1pr1) are similarly regulated in bonafide TRM (Fig. 3A)^{11,13,37}. To further substantiate this overlap, we compared the 14 15 expression of a selected list of genes associated with TRM signature belonging to various T cell-16 associated processes. A heatmap depicting the expression of these genes between co-cultured 17 CD8 T cells and CD8 T cells cultured alone is shown in Fig.3B. Expression of these same genes 18 between bonafide gut TRM and splenic TCM (extracted from GSE 147080) is shown on the right 19 (Fig. 3B).

20

21 The in vitro TRM exhibited differential expression of a number of transcription factors associated 22 with enforcing residency, such as downregulation of Tcf7, Klf2, Eomes and upregulation of Runx3, 23 Bhlhe40, and Prdm1. Similarly, many of the genes associated with migration (e.g. Sell, Ccr7, and 24 a number of other chemokine receptors) were downregulated in ex vivo TRM as well as in vivo 25 established TRM (Fig. 3B). However, integrin and cadherins that help anchor TRM to local tissues 26 (e.g. Itgae, Cdh1 and Itga1) were upregulated in both in vitro and in vivo TRM. Similarly, VEO-27 induced TRM showed heightened expression of cytotoxic molecules as well as co-inhibitory 28 receptors (the latter help regulate uncontrolled T cell activation). This signature also closely 29 resembled what has already been shown for in vivo TRM. A gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) 30 found significant enrichment of core TRM signature genes (extracted from publicly available data) 31 in the *in vitro* TRM and negative enrichment of genes associated with circulating CD8 T cells (Fig. 32 3C). A further analysis of biological processes overrepresented in the co-cultured TRM within the 33 MsigDB database showed enrichment of a number of pathways upregulated in the memory CD8 34 T cells compared to naive (Fig. 3D). Interestingly, we also noticed genes upregulated in response 35 to retinoic acid (vitamin-A, Retinoic Acid/RA) and TGF- β are represented among these pathways. 36 In summary, our transcriptomic analysis showed strong overlap of previously established TRM 37 gene signatures among the *in vitro* generated CD8 TRM, further verifying their TRM identity. 38



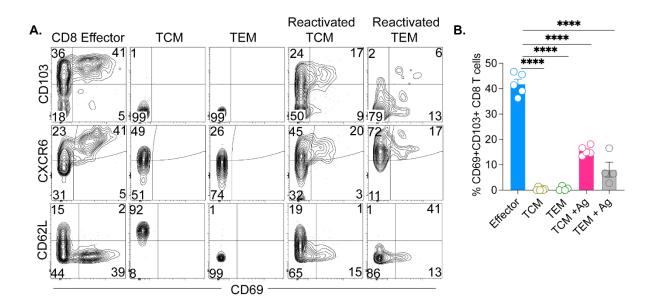
<sup>1
2
2</sup>

3 Figure 3: Transcriptional overlap between bonafide in vivo TRM and in vitro differentiated TRM. 4 A. Heatmap of top 25 differentially up-/downregulated genes between CD8 TRM generated via 5 co-culture with VEOs vs CD8 T cells maintained alone. The score was calculated as -6 log10(padj)*log2FC, and differentially expressed genes (DEGs) were based on this score. B. 7 Expression of selected gene sets belonging to indicated categories between CD8 and co-cultured 8 TRMs (CD69+ CD103+). Expression level of these same genes for circulating CD8 TCM and CD8 9 TRM from published data set (GSE 147080) is shown on the right. C. GSEA plot. Core TRM and 10 core circulating gene signature was created using a ranked gene list from published data comparing TRM and TCM¹². Enrichment of the overexpressed and underexpressed in vitro TRM 11

gene sets in this ranked list is plotted. **D.** Enriched pathways in *in vitro* TRM based on MSigDB
 are shown.

12 Reactivated circulating memory CD8 T cells can differentiate into TRM under influence of VEOs

13 14 After establishing that VEOs can support differentiation of effector CD8 T cells (generated from 15 activation of naive CD8 T cells) into mature TRM in vitro with remarkable efficiency, we tested 16 whether they could also facilitate TRM differentiation of circulating memory CD8 T cells. For this, 17 we first generated central and effector memory CD8 T cells (TCM and TEM) in vivo by transferring 18 naive congenically marked P14 CD8 T cells (CD45.1+) to C57BI/6j mice followed by LCMV 19 infection. The P14 CD8 T cells were allowed to differentiate into circulating memory CD8 T cells 20 for 75 days post-infection, at which point the SLOs from these mice were isolated and TCM 21 (CD45.1+, CD44 hi, CD62L hi) as well as TEM (CD45.1+, CD44 hi, CD62L lo) were separated by 22 flow sorting. Sorted TCM and TEM were co-cultured with VEOs to induce differentiation for 10 23 days. As a positive control, we also included in vitro generated effector CD8 T cells, which have 24 been shown to differentiate into CD69+CD103+ TRM. Although a fraction of TCM and TEM 25 survived in co-culture, they failed to adopt the epithelial TRM phenotype (Fig.4A&B). In contrast, 26 circulating memory CD8 T cells exposed to VEOs loaded with cognate antigenic peptide (gp33) 27 formed TRM-like cells (Fig.4A&B). This suggests circulating memory CD8 T cells require antigenic 28 restimulation to enable their differentiation into TRM. However, the efficiency of adoption of 29 various TRM-associated markers (CD69+CD103+, CXCR6+ and CD62L-) was significantly lower 30 among the reactivated TCM and TEM compared to effector CD8 T cells (Fig.4B). The CD8 TCM 31 showed better acquisition of TRM phenotype compared to TEM, although this difference was not 32 statistically significant. Altogether, this suggests circulating memory CD8 T cells can be 33 programmed into TRM but need reactivation for differentiation.



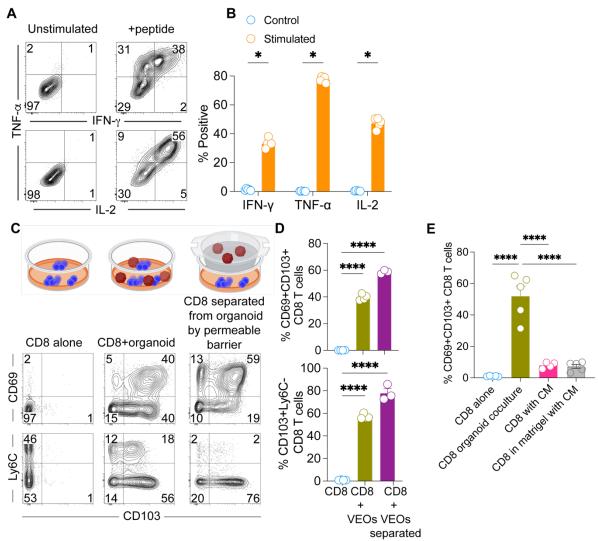
1 2 Figure-4: Circulating memory CD8 T cells need to be reactivated to form TRM under the influence 3 of VEOs. C57BI/6j mice received 104 CD45.1+ naïve P14 CD8 T cells and were infected with 4 LCMV. At 70 dpi, SLOs were harvested, and TCM (Live CD8a+ CD45.1+ CD62L+) and TEM (Live 5 CD8a+ CD45.1+ CD62L-) cells were flow sorted and incubated with VEOs for 10 days. In some 6 cases, the cells were exposed to epithelial cells loaded with gp33 peptide (0.2 µg/ml) labeled as 7 reactivated cells. Naïve CD8 T cells differentiated in vitro and co-cultured with VEOs were 8 included as a control (effector). Representative flow plots are shown in A, gated on live congenic 9 marker (CD45.1) T cells, and percentages are enumerated in B. Data is representative of one 10 repeat with n=5/condition. Bars indicate mean ± SEM. One-way ANOVA with Holm-Sidak multiple 11 comparison test (B). ****<0.0001.

<u>VEO-induced CD8 TRM remain functional and can be generated in the absence of physical</u> <u>contact with the organoids</u>

3

4 TRM located in frontline mucosal tissues rapidly elicit cytotoxic granules and cytokines after TCR 5 stimulation, and maintenance of this functionality is crucial to limit pathogen replication. Here we 6 assessed whether the in vitro generated CD8 TRM remain functional in response to antigenic 7 recall. For this, wells containing CD8 TRM and VEOs (14 days post-co-culture) were treated with 8 antigenic peptide in the presence of Brefeldin-A, and the expression of various cytokine molecules 9 were checked by intracellular cytokine staining followed by flow cytometry. As shown in Fig. 10 5A&B, in response to the peptide challenge CD8 T cells elaborated significant amounts of IFN-y, 11 TNF- α and IL-2. These data indicate TRM generated in response to VEO-derived cues retain their 12 functional potential as has been shown for *in vivo* TRM⁹.

13 Next, we tested if the *in vitro* TRM differentiation process relies on direct interaction with 14 VEOs or can be achieved when the VEOs and CD8 T cells are physically separated. For this we 15 used transwell inserts containing permeable membranes such that the CD8 T cells can access 16 any soluble factors produced by the VEOs but are not in direct contact. We exposed the CD8 T 17 cells to VEOs through the permeable barrier for up to 15 days and evaluated the CD8 T cell 18 phenotype by flow cytometry. Interestingly, these CD8 T cells upregulated the classical TRM 19 markers CD69 and CD103 (Fig. 5C&D). For comparison, we also had wells without the transwell 20 inserts where CD8 T cells were either maintained alone or embedded in the VEOs co-culture 21 system. As expected, the co-cultured CD8 T cells upregulated TRM-associated markers. These 22 results showed that TRM differentiation can be mediated by the soluble factors produced by 23 epithelial organoids. We next asked whether induction of TRM phenotype can be achieved 24 through regular supplementation of conditioned media (CM) from wells containing VEOs. 25 Exposure of effector CD8 T cells to VEO-derived CM (every 2 days for 10 days) did not 26 dramatically upregulate CD69 or CD103 expression (Fig.5E). Embedding the CD8 T cells in BME 27 also failed to induce a TRM phenotype. Altogether, these data suggest that while in vitro TRM 28 differentiation can be induced by soluble agents, these factors might be labile in nature and 29 require continuous contact with responding CD8 T cells.



1 2 Figure-5: In vitro differentiated CD8 TRMs remain functional and could be generated in the 3 absence of physical association with VEOs. A. Co-cultured CD8 T cells (Day 11) were stimulated 4 with antigenic peptide or unstimulated for 4 hours in the presence of Brefeldin-A. Representative 5 flow plots showing expression of cytokines IFN- γ , TNF- α and IL-2 are shown. Plots are gated on 6 live CD8 β + T cells. **B**. Percentage of stimulated cells expressing various cytokines are compared 7 against unstimulated cells. C. Transwell assays were conducted whereby CD8 T cells in the 8 bottom chamber were exposed to soluble mediators released from VEOs for a period of 10 days. 9 This was compared to CD8 T cells cultured in the absence of VEOs and CD8 T cells embedded 10 together with VEOs. Representative flow plots are gated on live CD8 β + T cells showing robust 11 adoption of TRM phenotype when CD8 T cells were separated from VEOs by the semipermeable barrier. D. Bar graph showing percent positivity of various TRM phenotypes. E. Regular exposure 12 13 to VEO-conditioned media (CM) for 10 days was not sufficient to drive CD69+ CD103+ epithelial 14 TRM phenotype. Bar graph comparing various CM treatments with the regular co-culture system 15 is shown. Data are representative of three repeats with n=3-6/condition (B, D), and two repeats 16 with n=5/condition (E). Bars indicate mean ± SEM. Multiple Student's t-tests (B) One-way ANOVA 17 with Holm-Sidak multiple comparison test (D, E). * < 0.05, ****<0.0001.

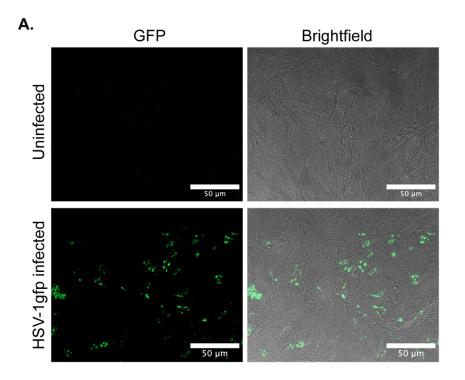
<u>VEOs support viral replication, and the organoid co-culture system can be used to probe</u> <u>molecular drivers of antiviral TRM differentiation</u>

3

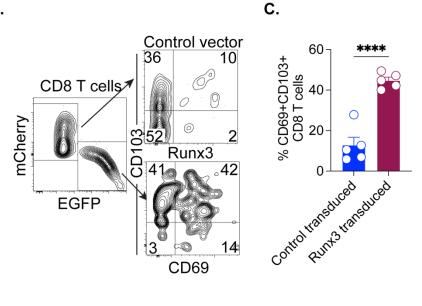
4 The vaginal epithelium is a common portal for viral invasion and often serves as an initial 5 replication site before the pathogen spreads to distal organs. As such, understanding the viral 6 replication dynamics in the vaginal mucosa and the ensuing immune response is crucial to 7 improve antiviral therapies and vaccines. Here, we aimed to test whether VEOs can be targeted 8 by a common sexually transmitted infection, Herpes Simplex virus (HSV). For this, fully grown 9 VEOs (>7 days post subculture) were released from the BME through depolymerization of the 10 extracellular matrix and were exposed to a recombinant HSV-1 K26GFP that encodes a green fluorescent VP26 capsid protein³⁸. Infected cells showed punctate green signals, which 11 correspond to capsid assembly sites within the nucleus between 24-36 hours post-infection 12 13 (Fig.6A)³⁸. These findings suggest VEOs can support HSV replication and could be used to test 14 protective efficacy of drugs and immune cells in a more physiological setting than what is afforded 15 by routine in vitro cell culture models.

16 Despite the outsized functional role of TRM cells in infection, the molecular drivers 17 coordinating TRM fate remain ill-defined. Most studies utilize rodent models to test the role of 18 putative regulators, an approach that is not often scalable and technically challenging. We wanted 19 to test if the in vitro VEO-mediated CD8 TRM differentiation system could be used to define 20 regulators of TRM fate. Notably, we detected elevated expression of the transcription factor 21 Runx3 in VEO-co-cultured CD8 T cells compared with the CD8 T cells alone (Fig.3B). Runx3 has 22 also been established as a key transcription factor that promotes TRM formation in the intestine¹². 23 However, the role of Runx3 in governing TRM fate in the FRT remains unknown. To test whether 24 Runx3 influences FRT TRM formation, we transduced activated CD8 T cells with either a Runx3 25 encoding retrovirus (simultaneously encoding an EGFP reporter) or a control vector encoding mCherry. Transduced CD8 T cells were mixed at 1:1 ratio and were co-cultured with the VEOs 26 27 for 5-10 days. We found a significantly higher percentage of CD69+CD103+ TRM cells among 28 the Runx3 transduced cells compared to the control vector (Fig.6B&C). These data suggest 29 Runx3 drives FRT CD8 TRM formation, and more importantly, our findings establish a proof of 30 principle that the VEO-CD8 co-culture system can be used to identify molecular regulators of TRM 31 differentiation.

A critical advantage of the *in vitro* differentiation system is the generation of an abundant (near unlimited) number of TRM compared to the sparse number of TRM that can be isolated from the FRT *in vivo* ³⁹. Comparison of the relative TRM yield between the two systems showed that a single well of a 96 well plate could generate ~3 times more CD8 TRM than what could be extracted from a single mouse lower FRT that was infected with LCMV intravaginally 30 days before (Supplementary Fig.3). Altogether, these attributes establish the robustness of the VEO-CD8 co-culture model for studies of antiviral TRM differentiation and function.



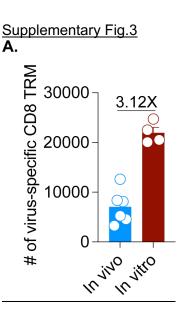
Β.



1 2 3

4 Figure-6: VEOs support viral replication, and the co-culture system is amenable to genetic 5 perturbation. A. Seven-day old VEOs were released from basement membrane extract and were 6 maintained as a suspension culture for 24 hours. Then they were infected with HSV-1K26GFP or 7 mock infected. Wells containing infected and uninfected cells were visualized 36-hours post-8 infection using fluorescence microscopy. Representative images are shown. Scale bar- 50 µm. 9 B. In vitro activated P14 CD8 T cells were retrovirally transduced with Runx3-EGFP expressing 10 vector or control-mCherry expressing vector. Equivalent number of cells were cultured with VEOs for 10 days, and their ability to form TRM was tested by flow cytometry. Representative flow plots 11 12 of total transgene positive P14 cells are shown in the left, and the level of CD69 and CD103 on

- 1 the two reporter positive populations are shown in the right. **C**. Bar graph comparing percentage 2 of CD69+ CD103+ cells among the two transduced populations. Bars indicate mean \pm SEM.
- 3 Student's t-test. ****<0.0001
- 4 5 6



7 8

9 **Supplementary Figure 3.** Comparison of FRT TRM cell yield between *in vivo* mouse model of

- 10 intravaginal LCMV infection (infected 50 days prior) and VEO-induced *in vitro* TRM isolated from
- 11 a single well of a 96-well plate. Data are representative of two repeats with n=4-6/condition.
- 12 Bars indicate mean ± SEM. Student's t-test ****<0.0001

1 Inhibition of TGF-β signaling impairs TRM differentiation in organoids

2

3 TGF-ß is a multifunctional cytokine has been implicated in epithelial TRM differentiation in 4 numerous tissues ^{24,26,40,41}. Our pathway analysis also showed an important role of TGF-ß in 5 programming TRM differentiation in the VEO-CD8 co-culture system (Fig.3D). Consequently, we 6 aimed to test the relevance of TGF-β signaling in *in vitro* vaginal TRM differentiation using two 7 separate approaches. In the first approach, we used two distinct pharmacological inhibitors that 8 block separate aspects of TGF-β signaling. The small molecule SB431542 is a potent and 9 selective inhibitor of TGF-β type-1 receptor kinase (ALK-5) but also affects ALK-4 and ALK-7⁴². 10 Treatment with SB41532 is thought to inhibit signaling through the TGF- β receptor. When co-11 cultured CD8 T cells were treated with 10 µM of SB431542 for 7 days, it led to an almost complete 12 absence of CD69+ CD103+ TRM cells (Fig. 7A&B). This treatment also led to the CD8 T cells 13 failing to downregulate CD62L, a cardinal feature of TRM (Fig. 7A&C). Next, we tested another 14 small molecule inhibitor, CWHM-12, which specifically targets aV integrins ⁴³. AlphaV integrin mediated processing of inactive TGF- β to active TGF- β has been shown to be important for CD8 15 TRM formation ^{44–47} VEO-CD8 co-cultures were treated with various concentrations of CWHM-16 12, which led to a dose-dependent reduction in the percentage of CD69+CD103+ TRM (Fig. 17 18 7D&E). However, another property of epithelial TRM, i.e. downregulation of Ly6C expression, was 19 not altered in CWHM-12 treated cells (Fig. 7D&E). Altogether, our results suggested that in vitro 20 FRT TRM differentiation could be prevented by pharmacological inhibition of TGF- β pathways.

21 22 To further substantiate the role of TGF- β signaling in the FRT TRM differentiation process, 23 we used a genetic approach. We used a previously described genetic model system where dLckcre mice were crossed to Tafbr2flox mice, permitting conditional depletion of TGFβRII expression 24 25 in mature T cells. Transgenic P14 CD8 T cells from TGF-βR conditional knockout (KO) donors 26 and their wild type (WT) counterparts were enriched and activated in vitro before being introduced 27 to the VEO-CD8 co-culture system at 1:1 ratio. Twelve days after the co-culture, we performed 28 phenotypic analysis of the resulting T cell population by flow cytometry. As shown in Figure 7F, 29 among all the antigen-specific CD8 T cells (H2-Db:gp33 tetramer positive) present, the KO CD8 30 T cells were present at approximately 4-fold lower rate than their WT counterpart. The KO CD8 T 31 cells also failed to upregulate CD103 (Fig. 7F&G). Lack of TGF-β receptor signaling also impaired CD8 T cells' ability to downregulate Ly6C and upregulate P2rx7, the latter of which is a known 32 TGF-β regulated gene in TRM ⁴⁸. Altogether, this experiment further supports the crucial role of 33 34 TGF- β signaling in mediating TRM differentiation in the VEO system.

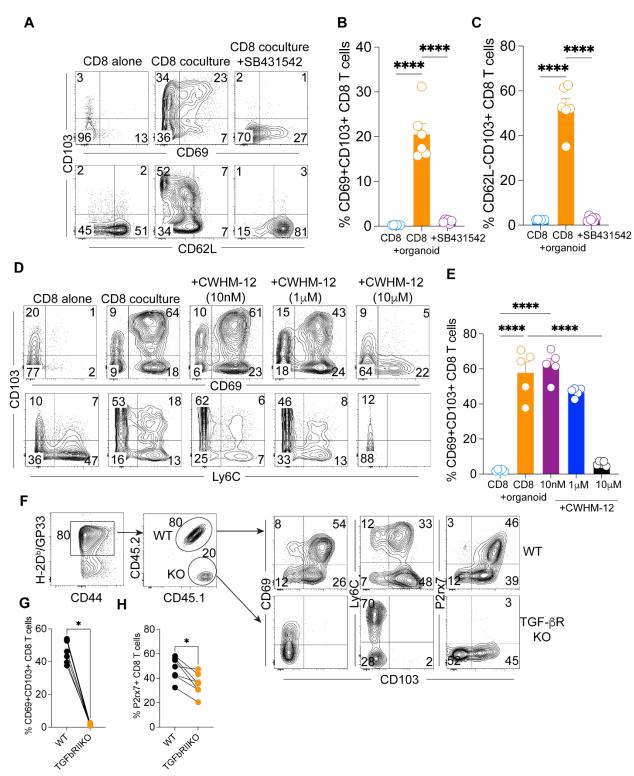




Figure-7: Pharmacological and genetic inhibition of TGF- β signaling interferes with in vitro TRM generation. A. CD8 T cells co-cultured with VEOs were treated with TGF-β signaling inhibitor, SB431542 (10 µM), or vehicle control for 7 days. Representative flow plots of live CD8β+ T cells 5 are shown. B, C. Percentage of TRM phenotype cells are enumerated. CD8 T cells maintained 6 alone are included as a control. D. CD8 T cells co-cultured with VEOs were treated with 7 increasing concentrations of an inhibitor of TGF-β activating αv, CWHM-12 (10 nM to 10 μM), or

1 vehicle for 12 days. Representative flow plots of live CD8 β + T cells are shown. **E**. Percentage of

2 CD69+CD103+ phenotype cells are enumerated. F. TGF-B receptor deficient CD8 T cells fail to

3 adopt TRM phenotype in the VEO co-culture model. Wild type (WT, CD45.1+CD45.2+) and

4 TGF-BRII deficient P14 (KO, CD45.1+CD45.2-) CD8 T cells were activated and embedded in 5 BME containing VEOs at 1:1 ratio. Representative flow plots 12 days after the co-incubation are

shown. Total P14 CD8 T cells and the ratio of WT and KO CD8 T cell percentages retained as 6

7 well as their associated phenotypes after 12 days are shown. G. Comparison of CD69+CD103+

- 8
- CD8 T cells and H. p2rx7+ CD8 T cells between WT and KO groups. Data are representative of
- 9 two repeats with n=4-6/condition. Bars indicate mean ± SEM. One-way ANOVA with Holm-
- 10 Sidak multiple comparison test (B, C, E). Wilcoxon matched- pairs signed rank test (G, H). * <
- 0.05, ****<0.0001 11
- 12

1 Discussion

2 Mice have long been the model of choice in fundamental TRM studies and have contributed 3 immensely to our understanding of TRM biology. However, a number of issues with the in vivo 4 model have restrained progress in generating a comprehensive picture of TRM differentiation. 5 Chief among these is the highly inefficient extraction of TRM from tissues via enzymatic digestion; 6 by performing microscopy-based counting. Steinert et al. found enzymatic extraction could only 7 isolate 1 CD8 TRM cell for every 69 actual CD8 TRM cells present in the FRT ³⁹. This ratio is less 8 biased for other tissues like the small intestine (12.9) and liver (6.13) but is nonetheless 9 widespread. Moreover, there was bias in the extraction of cells bearing different phenotypes e.g., CD103+ TRM were extracted more easily than the CD103- TRM ³⁹. Recent work has also 10 suggested that the routine enzymatic digestion processes can alter the transcriptome of isolated 11 cells potentially leading to confounding results ⁴⁹. TRM are also highly susceptible to cell death upon isolation, complicating phenotypes and outcomes ^{50–52}. Lastly, separating the tissue-specific 12 13 signals responsible for local TRM differentiation from systemic signals that impact other linked 14 15 processes like initial T cell activation, migration and entry into the NLT is difficult in mouse models. 16 Here, we sought to address these limitations by establishing a robust *in vitro* system for modeling 17 TRM differentiation with epithelial organoids that solely focuses on local TRM differentiation under the influence of inductive cues produced by NLTs. We demonstrated that the vaginal epithelium 18 19 alone is sufficient to orchestrate CD8 TRM differentiation. Importantly, our approach establishes 20 a path for the development of reductionist, in vitro immune-epithelial co-culture models to 21 interrogate aspects of biology that can't be efficiently modeled in vivo. This opens avenues for 22 conducting TRM-centric functional, genomic, and metabolomic assays that requires higher cell 23 numbers than routine flow cytometry and transcriptional methods. 24

25 Despite its reductionist nature, the VEO system faithfully recapitulates the stratified squamous 26 epithelium of the *in vivo* vaginal tissue, which is made up of basal, suprabasal, and cornified apical 27 epithelium. Moreover, single cell RNA-sequencing analysis has revealed at least 6 separate clusters of transcriptionally distinct epithelial cells among these layers of vaginal epithelium ²⁰Our 28 29 co-culture system exposes CD8 T cells to products of each of these distinct epithelial cell types 30 which is hard to model in classical immortalized vaginal epithelial cell lines that cannot 31 differentiate into these various cell types. Moreover, the VEO co-culture model enables the 32 detailed characterization of events specifically occurring at the final site of TRM residence. 33 circumventing confounding factors present in live animal studies, such as the impact of CD8 T 34 cell entry into NLT stroma on tissue residence. It is noteworthy that our model, while not 35 incorporating the vaginal microbiome, offers a platform amenable to introducing bacterial species 36 or their metabolites, enabling a detailed examination of a tripartite interaction involving epithelium-37 commensal microbiome-immune cells. There is a significant gap in our understanding of the 38 impact of the vaginal microbiome on adaptive immunity, and our system could be used to fill this 39 need.

40

Previous work has implicated cytokines TGF-β, IL-33, and TNF-α as crucial modulators of CD8 41 TRM differentiation ^{6,13,24}, and our study also suggested that activated CD8 T cells can differentiate 42 into TRM by soluble factors in the absence of physical interaction with epithelial cells. However, 43 44 an interesting finding from our co-culture studies is the pivotal role of a second antigenic exposure 45 in further enhancing the TRM phenotype. This is in agreement with past studies that have shown 46 the enhancement of CD8 T cell effector response as well as improvement in TRM density with second antigenic exposure^{34,35,53,54}. Altogether, it suggests that while cell-cell interaction might not 47 be essential, it greatly improves epithelial TRM density. By utilizing pharmacological and genetic 48 49 means, we verified the significant contributions of TGF-B. Future investigations will employ highthroughput proteomic screening to unravel the involvement of other proteins in this intricate process.

We showed that VEOs support HSV-1 replication, and as such, this model could be easily adopted 3 4 for high-throughput screening of drugs or cell-based therapies that will target viral infections of 5 the lower FRT. CD8 T cells in the co-culture model could also be genetically modified using 6 shRNA or CRISPR to delineate the molecular underpinning of TRM development. We provided a 7 proof of principle experiment showing the relevance of Runx3 in FRT TRM development, but this 8 could easily extend to libraries of transcription factors, epigenetic modifiers, and other molecules 9 implicated in T cell biology. Beyond the scientific advancements, our organoid model aligns with 10 ethical considerations in animal research, adhering to the principles of Replacement and Reduction outlined by Russell and Burch in 1958 ⁵⁵. By offering an ethically sound alternative to 11 live animal studies, our model not only replaces the need for animal studies with a cell culture 12 13 approach but also reduces the number of animals required for experimentation.

14

In summary, our *in vitro* TRM generation system provides a reductionist, scalable alternative that will allow deeper interrogation of TRM biology than what is possible with existing *in vivo* approaches without sacrificing the complexity of the epithelial environment. Our findings suggest that the type-II mucosa-derived signals are sufficient for TRM differentiation and TGF- β is important in this differentiation process. On a broader scale, this approach presents a valuable tool for future exploration into mechanisms that govern immune defense against sexually transmitted infections and other pathogens affecting the FRT.

22

1 Reference:

- 2
- Mueller, S. N., Gebhardt, T., Carbone, F. R. & Heath, W. R. Memory T Cell Subsets,
 Migration Patterns, and Tissue Residence. *Annu. Rev. Immunol* **31**, 137–61 (2013).
- Masopust, D. & Soerens, A. G. Tissue-Resident T Cells and Other Resident Leukocytes.
 Annu. Rev. Immunol. 37, 521–546 (2019).
- Heeg, M. & Goldrath, A. W. Insights into phenotypic and functional CD8 TRM heterogeneity. *Immunol. Rev.* (2023) doi:10.1111/imr.13218.
- 9 4. Paik, D. H. & Farber, D. L. Anti-viral protective capacity of tissue resident memory T cells.
 10 *Curr. Opin. Virol.* 46, 20–26 (2021).
- Rosato, P. C., Beura, L. K. & Masopust, D. Tissue resident memory T cells and viral immunity. *Curr. Opin. Virol.* 22, 44–50 (2017).
- Slütter, B. *et al.* Dynamics of influenza-induced lung-resident memory T cells underlie
 waning heterosubtypic immunity. *Sci. Immunol.* 2, eaag2031 (2017).
- McMaster, S. R., Wilson, J. J., Wang, H. & Kohlmeier, J. E. Airway-Resident Memory
 CD8 T Cells Provide Antigen-Specific Protection against Respiratory Virus Challenge
 through Rapid IFN-y Production. *J. Immunol.* **195**, 203–9 (2015).
- Bergsbaken, T. & Bevan, M. J. Proinflammatory microenvironments within the intestine regulate the differentiation of tissue-resident CD8⁺ T cells responding to infection. *Nat. Immunol.* 16, 406–14 (2015).
- Schenkel, J. M. *et al.* Resident memory CD8 T cells trigger protective innate and adaptive immune responses. *Science (80-.).* **346**, 98–101 (2014).
- 10. lijima, N. & Iwasaki, A. A local macrophage chemokine network sustains protective
 tissue-resident memory CD4 T cells. *Science (80-.).* 346, 93–98 (2014).
- Mackay, L. K. *et al.* Hobit and Blimp1 instruct a universal transcriptional program of tissue residency in lymphocytes. *Science (80-.).* 352, 459–463 (2016).
- Milner, J. J. *et al.* Runx3 programs CD8+T cell residency in non-lymphoid tissues and tumours. *Nature* 552, 253–257 (2017).
- Skon, C. N. *et al.* Transcriptional downregulation of S1pr1 is required for the
 establishment of resident memory CD8+ T cells. *Nat. Immunol.* 14, 1285–93 (2013).
- Bar-Ephraim, Y. E., Kretzschmar, K. & Clevers, H. Organoids in immunological research.
 Nat. Rev. Immunol. 20, 279–293 (2020).
- 15. Cattaneo, C. M. *et al.* Tumor organoid–T-cell coculture systems. *Nat. Protoc.* 15, 15–39 (2020).
- Blutt, S. E. & Estes, M. K. Organoid Models for Infectious Disease. *Annu. Rev. Med.* 73, 167–182 (2022).
- 37 17. Clevers, H. & Tuveson, D. A. Organoid models for cancer research. *Annu. Rev. Cancer* 38 *Biol.* 3, 223–234 (2019).
- Kim, J., Koo, B. K. & Knoblich, J. A. Human organoids: model systems for human biology
 and medicine. *Nat. Rev. Mol. Cell Biol.* 21, 571–584 (2020).
- 41 19. Xu, H. *et al.* Organoid technology and applications in cancer research. *J. Hematol. Oncol.*42 **11**, 1–15 (2018).
- 43 20. Ali, A. *et al.* Cell Lineage Tracing Identifies Hormone-Regulated and Wnt-Responsive
 44 Vaginal Epithelial Stem Cells. *Cell Rep.* **30**, 1463-1477.e7 (2020).
- 45 21. Ali, A., Syed, S. M. & Tanwar, P. S. Protocol for In Vitro Establishment and Long-Term
 46 Culture of Mouse Vaginal Organoids. *STAR Protoc.* 100088 (2020)
 47 doi:10.1016/j.xpro.2020.100088.
- 48 22. Cooley, A. *et al.* Dynamic states of cervical epithelia during pregnancy and epithelial barrier disruption. *iScience* **26**, 105953 (2023).
- Tucker, C. G. *et al.* Adoptive T Cell Therapy with IL-12–Preconditioned Low-Avidity T
 Cells Prevents Exhaustion and Results in Enhanced T Cell Activation, Enhanced Tumor

1		Clearance, and Decreased Risk for Autoimmunity. J. Immunol. 205, 1449–1460 (2020).
2	24.	Casey, K. A. et al. Antigen-independent differentiation and maintenance of effector-like
3	~-	resident memory T cells in tissues. J. Immunol. 188, 4866–75 (2012).
4	25.	Sheridan, B. S. et al. Oral infection drives a distinct population of intestinal resident
5	~~	memory cd8+ t cells with enhanced protective function. <i>Immunity</i> 40 , 747–757 (2014).
6	26.	Mackay, L. K. et al. The developmental pathway for CD103(+)CD8+ tissue-resident
7	07	memory T cells of skin. <i>Nat. Immunol.</i> 14 , 1294–301 (2013).
8	27.	Beura, L. K. <i>et al.</i> Intravital mucosal imaging of CD8+ resident memory T cells shows
9		tissue-autonomous recall responses that amplify secondary memory. <i>Nat. Immunol.</i> 19 ,
10	00	173–182 (2018).
11	28.	Schenkel, J. M., Fraser, K. A., Vezys, V. & Masopust, D. Sensing and alarm function of
12 13	20	resident memory CD8+ T cells. <i>Nat. Immunol.</i> 14 , 509–513 (2013).
13 14	29.	Kumar, B. V <i>et al.</i> Human Tissue-Resident Memory T Cells Are Defined by Core Transcriptional and Functional Signatures in Lymphoid and Mucosal Sites. <i>Cell Rep.</i> 20 ,
14		2921–2934 (2017).
16	30.	Bromley, S. K. <i>et al.</i> CD49a Regulates Cutaneous Resident Memory CD8+ T Cell
17	50.	Persistence and Response. <i>Cell Rep.</i> 32 , 108085 (2020).
18	31.	Mami-Chouaib, F. <i>et al.</i> Resident memory T cells, critical components in tumor
19	01.	immunology. <i>J. Immunother. Cancer</i> 6, 1–10 (2018).
20	32.	Reilly, E. C. <i>et al.</i> T RM integrins CD103 and CD49a differentially support adherence and
21		motility after resolution of influenza virus infection. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. 117, 12306-
22		12314 (2020).
23	33.	Mackay, L. K. et al. T-box Transcription Factors Combine with the Cytokines TGF-β and
24		IL-15 to Control Tissue-Resident Memory T Cell Fate. Immunity 43, 1101–1111 (2015).
25	34.	Khan, T. N., Mooster, J. L., Kilgore, A. M., Osborn, J. F. & Nolz, J. C. Local antigen in
26		nonlymphoid tissue promotes resident memory CD8+ T cell formation during viral
27		infection. <i>J. Exp. Med.</i> 213 , 951–66 (2016).
28	35.	McMaster, S. R. et al. Pulmonary antigen encounter regulates the establishment of
29		tissue-resident CD8 memory T cells in the lung airways and parenchyma. Mucosal
30	~ ~	<i>Immunol.</i> (2018) doi:10.1038/s41385-018-0003-x.
31	36.	Milner, J. J. et al. Heterogenous Populations of Tissue-Resident CD8+ T Cells Are
32	07	Generated in Response to Infection and Malignancy. <i>Immunity</i> 52 , 808-824.e7 (2020).
33	37.	Qiu, Z. <i>et al.</i> Retinoic acid signaling during priming licenses intestinal CD103+ CD8 TRM
34 35	20	cell differentiation. J. Exp. Med. 220, (2023).
	38.	Desai, P. & Person, S. Incorporation of the Green Fluorescent Protein into the Herpes Simplex Virus Type 1 Capsid. <i>J. Virol.</i> 72 , 7563–7568 (1998).
36 37	39.	Steinert, E. M. <i>et al.</i> Quantifying memory CD8 T cells reveals regionalization of
38	59.	immunosurveillance. <i>Cell</i> 161 , 737–749 (2015).
39	40.	Goplen, N. P. <i>et al.</i> Tissue-resident CD8 + T cells drive age-associated chronic lung
40	40.	sequelae after viral pneumonia. <i>Sci. Immunol.</i> 5 , eabc4557 (2020).
41	41.	Zhang, N. & Bevan, M. Transforming Growth Factor-β Signaling Controls the Formation
42		and Maintenance of Gut-Resident Memory T Cells by Regulating Migration and
43		Retention. <i>Immunity</i> 39 , 687–696 (2013).
44	42.	Inman, G. J. <i>et al.</i> SB-431542 is a potent and specific inhibitor of transforming growth
45		factor- β superfamily type I activin receptor-like kinase (ALK) receptors ALK4, ALK5, and
46		ALK7. Mol. Pharmacol. 62, 65–74 (2002).
47	43.	Henderson, N. C. <i>et al.</i> Targeting of α v integrin identifies a core molecular pathway that
48		regulates fibrosis in several organs. Nat. Med. 19, 1617–1624 (2013).
49	44.	Hirai, T. et al. Competition for Active TGFβ Cytokine Allows for Selective Retention of
50		Antigen-Specific Tissue- Resident Memory T Cells in the Epidermal Niche. Immunity 54,
51		84-98.e5 (2021).

1	45.	Mohammed, J. et al. Stromal cells control the epithelial residence of DCs and memory T
2		cells by regulated activation of TGF-β. <i>Nat. Immunol.</i> 17 , 414–421 (2016).
3	46.	Ferreira, C. et al. Type 1 Treg cells promote the generation of CD8+ tissue-resident
4		memory T cells. Nat. Immunol. 1-4 (2020) doi:10.1038/s41590-020-0674-9.
5	47.	Malenica, I. et al. Integrin-αV-mediated activation of TGF-β regulates anti-tumour CD8 T
6		cell immunity and response to PD-1 blockade. <i>Nat. Commun.</i> 12 , 1–16 (2021).
7	48.	Borges, H. et al. Article Sensing of ATP via the Purinergic Receptor P2RX7 Promotes
8		CD8 + Trm Cell Generation by Enhancing Their Sensitivity to the Cytokine TGF- b
9		Sensing of ATP via the Purinergic Receptor P2RX7 Promotes CD8 + Trm Cell
10		Generation by Enhancing Their Sensit. <i>Immunity</i> 1–14 (2020)
11	10	doi:10.1016/j.immuni.2020.06.010.
12	49.	Crowl, J. T. et al. Tissue-resident memory CD8+ T cells possess unique transcriptional,
13		epigenetic and functional adaptations to different tissue environments. <i>Nat. Immunol.</i>
14	50	(2022) doi:10.1038/s41590-022-01229-8.
15 16	50.	Künzli, M. <i>et al.</i> Long-lived T follicular helper cells retain plasticity and help sustain
17	51.	humoral immunity. <i>Sci. Immunol.</i> 5 , (2020). Borges da Silva, H., Wang, H., Qian, L. J., Hogquist, K. A. & Jameson, S. C.
18	51.	ARTC2.2/P2RX7 Signaling during Cell Isolation Distorts Function and Quantification of
19		Tissue-Resident CD8 + T Cell and Invariant NKT Subsets . J. Immunol. 202 , 2153–2163
20		(2019).
21	52.	Rissiek, B. <i>et al.</i> In Vivo Blockade of Murine ARTC2.2 During Cell Preparation Preserves
22	021	the Vitality and Function of Liver Tissue-Resident Memory T Cells. Front. Immunol. 9,
23		(2018).
24	53.	Jiang, X. et al. Skin infection generates non-migratory memory CD8+ TRM cells providing
25		global skin immunity. Nature 483, 227–231 (2012).
26	54.	McKinstry, K. K. et al. Effector CD4 T-cell transition to memory requires late cognate
27		interactions that induce autocrine IL-2. Nat. Commun. 5, (2014).
28	55.	Tannenbaum, J. & Bennett, B. T. Russell and Burch's 3Rs then and now: The need for
29		clarity in definition and purpose. J. Am. Assoc. Lab. Anim. Sci. 54, 120–132 (2015).
30	56.	Beura, L. K. et al. Novel Lymphocytic Choriomeningitis Virus Strain Sustains Abundant
31		Exhausted Progenitor CD8 T Cells without Systemic Viremia. (2022)
32		doi:10.4049/jimmunol.2200320.
33	57.	Bolger, A. M., Lohse, M. & Usadel, B. Trimmomatic: A flexible trimmer for Illumina
34	50	sequence data. <i>Bioinformatics</i> 30 , 2114–2120 (2014).
35	58.	Dobin, A. <i>et al.</i> STAR: Ultrafast universal RNA-seq aligner. <i>Bioinformatics</i> 29 , 15–21
36 37	59.	(2013). Love, M. I., Huber, W. & Anders, S. Moderated estimation of fold change and dispersion
38	59.	for RNA-seq data with DESeq2. <i>Genome Biol.</i> 15 , 1–21 (2014).
39	60.	Yu, G., Wang, L. G., Han, Y. & He, Q. Y. ClusterProfiler: An R package for comparing
40	00.	biological themes among gene clusters. <i>Omi. A J. Integr. Biol.</i> 16 , 284–287 (2012).
41	61.	Castanza, A. S. <i>et al.</i> Extending support for mouse data in the Molecular Signatures
42	01.	Database (MSigDB). <i>Nat. Methods</i> 20 , 1619–1620 (2023).
43	62.	Milner, J. J. <i>et al.</i> Delineation of a molecularly distinct terminally differentiated memory
44		CD8 T cell population. <i>Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.</i> 117 , 25667–25678 (2020).
45		
46		
47		

1 Method

2

3 Mice and Infection

4 C57BL/6j (B6) (strain-000664), CD45.1 mice (strain-033076), CD90.1 mice (strain-000406), and 5 OT-I CD8 T cell transgenic mice (strain-003831) were procured from the Jackson Laboratory and housed at Brown University, Providence, RI. P14 and gBT-I CD8 T cell transgenic mice were kind 6 7 gifts from David Masopust (University of Minnesota) and Gregoire Lauvau (Albert Einstein College 8 of Medicine) respectively. Congenically marked P14, gBT-I and OT-I genotype mice were 9 generated through crossbreeding original transgenic lines with congenic marker bearing mice 10 strains. The Tgfbr2^{i/f} dLck-cre+ and Tgfbr2^{i/f} dLck-cre- P14 mice have been described before and were maintained at the animal facility at University of Texas Health at San Antonio (San Antonio, 11 12 TX). Mice aged between 6-20 weeks were utilized in all experiments, adhering to the guidelines 13 set forth by Brown University's or University of Texas Health Science Center at San Antonio's 14 Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee guidelines. Lymphocytic choriomeningitis virus 15 (LCMV)-Armstrong was intravaginally or intraperitoneally administered using 10 uL or 200 uL of 16 sterile RPMI-1460 media containing $2x10^5$ plaque-forming units (PFU), respectively. For 17 intravaginal infections, Depo-provera (3 mg/mouse diluted with sterile PBS) was given 18 subcutaneously 5 days before viral delivery to improve infection efficiency.

19

20 Chemicals, cytokines and peptides

Most chemicals for organoid cultures (EGF, Y-27632 (ROCK inhibitor), and SB-431542) were
obtained from Sigma Aldrich. The αV integrin inhibitor, CWHM-12, was synthesized at
Washington University, St. Louis and obtained via a collaboration with Peter Ruminski.
Recombinant interleukin-2, 12 were purchased from Biolegend. Peptides were synthesized by
Alan Scientific to at least 95% purity.

26

27 Establishment of VEO-CD8 co-culture model

For establishing epithelial organoids from murine vaginal tissues, we followed a recently 28 29 described protocol by Ali et al.²⁰. Briefly, B6 mice aged at least 8 weeks were euthanized, and 30 vaginal epithelium was separated from underlying stroma after overnight digestion with pronase 31 and DNasel. A single cell suspension of vaginal epithelial cells was prepared by pipetting, mixed 32 with Cultrex[™] Basement Membrane Extract (BME) (RnD Systems), and plated in 24 well plates with organoid culture medium (OC) containing DMEM/F12 media supplemented with the following 33 34 agents: 1% Penicillin/streptomycin, 0.2 ug/mL Amphotericin B, 2% B27 Supplement, 5 µM 35 SB431542, 100 ng/mL murine Epidermal growth factor (EGF), and 10 µM Y-27632 added for the 36 first 4 days of culture. Epithelial stem cells were allowed to differentiate and form circular 37 organoids for 7-14 days, at which point further subculturing was done to propagate the VEOs. For 38 most co-culture studies. VEOs between passage number-3 and -8 were used. Spleen and lymph 39 nodes from C57BI/6j mice were isolated after euthanasia, and naïve CD8 T cells were isolated using a magnet-based negative enrichment protocol following the manufacturer's direction 40 41 (Mojosort mouse CD8 naïve T cell isolation kit, Biolegend). These CD8 T cells were activated in 42 the presence of anti-CD3ε (Biolegend), B7-1Fc (Biolgened), IL-2 (10 U/ml) and IL-12 (2.5ng/ml) 43 for 2 days. Afterwards, the expanded CD8 T cells were transferred to a new 24 well plate and 44 rested for 2 days with IL-2 alone (10U/ml). Then the effector CD8 T cells were mixed with epithelial 45 cells obtained from trypsinized VEOs, and the cell mixture was resuspended in BME and plated 46 at 8 µL per well on a 96-well plate. Following a 30-minute incubation upside down at 37°C, 200 uL of T cell-OC culture medium (T/OC) (1% Penicillin/streptomycin, 0.2 ug/mL amphotericin B. 47 2% B27 Supplement, 2mM L-glutamine, 1% non-essential amino acids, 1% sodium pyruvate, 55 48 49 uM Beta-mercaptoethanol, 100 ng/mL EGF, 10 U/mL IL-2, and 10 uM Y-27632 added for the first 4 days of culture) media was added to each well. Media changes occurred every two days during
 the culture, ensuring careful handling to preserve T cells lodged in the plate.

3

4 Transwell experiment

5 Transwell experiments utilized MatTek cell culture inserts with 0.4 µm membranes. Organoids 6 were trypsinized, quenched with 10% FBS in RPMI, and washed in T/OC media. The resulting 7 single-cell suspension was either directly plated on the insert in 50 µl BME or combined with 8 activated CD8 T cells before being plated in the bottom well at a density of 200,000 CD8 T cells 9 per 50 µL Matrigel. After a 30-minute upside-down incubation at 37°C, 500 µL of T/OC media 10 were added to each well. In the wells where VEOs and CD8 T cells were present in separate 11 chambers, approximately 300,000 effector CD8 T cells were added to the lower chamber. Media 12 in the bottom well was changed every two days. After incubation, T cells in the lower chamber 13 were analyzed, unless otherwise stated.

14

15 Lymphocyte isolation and phenotyping

16 For lymphocyte isolation from in vitro cultured cells, well contents were collected and washed in PBS, and cells were used for staining. The lymphocyte isolation from secondary lymphoid organs 17 18 (SLOs) and non-lymphoid tissues (NLTs) was performed as described with small modifications⁵⁶. 19 Lymphoid tissues were mashed using the plunger of a 3-mL syringe and filtered through 70 µm 20 mesh before staining. Female reproductive tract tissues were chopped into small pieces and 21 incubated with RPMI+2.5% FBS containing collagenase type-IV (Sigma, 1mg/ml) and Dnase I 22 (Sigma, 2µg/ml) at 37°C with constant shaking for 45 min. After the incubation, tissues were 23 further dissociated using a gentlemacs dissociator (Miltenyi Biotec) and filtered twice through a 24 70 µm mesh before staining.

25

26 Isolated lymphocytes were surface-stained with antibodies against CD8 α (53-6.7), CD8 β 27 (YTS156.7.7), CD45.1 (A20), CD90.1 (OX-7), CD45.2 (104), CD62L (MEL-14), CD44 (IM7), 28 CD69 (H1.2F3), CD103 (M290 or 2E7), Ly6C (HK1.4), CD49a (Ha31/8), PD1 (RMP1-30), P2rx7 29 (1F11), Epcam (G8.8), and CXCR6 (SA051D1). The following intracellular targets were also 30 detected using antibodies- IFN- γ (XMG1.2), TNF- α (MP6-XT22), IL-2 (JES6-5H4), Tbet (4B10), 31 Eomes (Dan11mag), granzyme-B (QA16A02), and Ki67 (B56). The above antibodies were 32 purchased from Biolegend, BD Biosciences, or Invitrogen. Cell viability was determined using 33 Ghost Dye 780 (Tonbo Biosciences). For intracellular transcription factors and granzyme-B, the 34 Tonbo Transcription factor staining buffer set was utilized. For intracellular cytokine staining after 35 restimulation, the BD Cytofix/Cytoperm kit was used. Antigen-specific CD8 T cells were detected 36 by staining with tetramers (gp33 tetramer for P14, SL8 tetramer for gBT-I, or SIINFEKL tetramer 37 for OT-I) conjugated to brilliant violet-421 dye obtained from the NIH tetramer core facility. The 38 stained samples were acquired using Aurora spectral cytometer (Cytek) and analyzed with 39 FlowJo software (Treestar).

40

41 Confocal Immunofluorescence Microscopy

42 VEOs or co-culture systems were plated in a chambered cell culture slide with 50 μ L of BME per 43 well. T/OC or OC media (500 µL) was changed every two days. After 6-14 days, each sample was fixed (60 minutes at room temperature in 4% Paraformaldehyde) and blocked/permeabilized 44 45 (overnight at 4°C in 5% normal donkey serum/0.5% Triton X-100/1X PBS). Samples were stained with unconjugated polyclonal rabbit anti-Ki67 (Abcam), unconjugated polyclonal rabbit anti-46 47 keratin-5 (Biolegend), Phycoerythrin conjugated anti-Epcam monoclonal (G8.8, Biolegend), and Phycoerythrin conjugated anti-CD90.1 monoclonal (OX-7, Biolegend). Donkey anti-rabbit Cy3 48 49 conjugated antibody (Jackson Immunoresearch) was used as a secondary antibody. Primary 50 antibodies were incubated at 4°C overnight, whereas secondary antibody was used at room

1 temperature for 1-1.5h. DAPI was used to visualize the nucleus. Samples were washed with PBS 2 between each step. Slides were mounted with ProLong Diamond Antifade (Invitrogen) before 3 being imaged on an Olympus FV3000 Confocal Microscope. Captured images were processed 4 in Fiji for visualization.

5

6 RNA-seq and analysis

RNA was extracted from CD8 T cells using the RNeasy Plus Micro Kit (Qiagen), and libraries 7 8 were constructed and sequenced on Illumina NovaSeg 2 × 150 bp paired-end sequencing 9 (Novogene). Adapter sequences and low-quality sequences were trimmed from the raw sequence 10 reads using Trimmomatic v0.36⁵⁷. STAR v2.7.3a⁵⁸ was used to align the trimmed sequences to the mm10 mouse genome and to estimate the number of reads per gene. Gene count was 11 12 normalized and differentially expressed genes (DEGs) were identified if Padj < 0.05 in DESeq2 v1.38.1 ⁵⁹. Enrichment pathway analysis utilized upregulated genes in co-cultured samples and 13 was performed with ClusterProfiler v4.7.1⁶⁰ using MSigDB ⁶¹. Previously published gene lists for 14 15 core TRM and circulating signature¹² were used for Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA), and it was performed and visualized using the limma v3.54.1 The gene expression pattern of CD8 and 16 17 co-cultured samples was compared to the previously published TCM and TRM signatures dataset

- GSE 147080⁶² and visualized using pheatmap v1.0.12. 18
- 19

20 Quantitative PCR (qPCR)

VEOs were harvested at post-culture days 5, 9, and 15, followed by resuspension in 1 mL of cold 21 22 5 mM EDTA in DPBS in 1.5 mL Eppendorf tubes. Subsequently, the suspension was incubated 23 on ice for 30 min. After incubation, samples were washed in 1 mL of cold DPBS by centrifugation 24 at 1,000 x g for 5 min at 4 °C, repeated twice. For the final wash, samples were collected at 1,200 25 x q for 5 min at 4 °C. The resulting pellets were resuspended in 1 mL of TRI Reagent (Zymo 26 Research) and incubated for 5 min at RT. 0.2 mL of chloroform was added to the tube, and the 27 tube was shaken vigorously followed by 5 min incubation at RT. Subsequently, samples were 28 centrifuged at 12,000 x g for 20 min at 4 °C, and the clear upper layer was collected. To the 29 obtained laver. 0.5 mL of isopropanol was added followed by a 10 min incubation at 4 °C. 30 Subsequently, samples were centrifuged at 12,000 x g for 15 min at 4 °C, and the pellet was 31 washed in 1 mL of cold 75% EtOH by centrifugation at 12,000 x g for 5 min at 4 °C, repeated 32 twice. The collected pellet was air-dried for 10 min and resuspended in 30 µL of nuclease-free 33 water. TURBO DNA-free Kit (Invitrogen) was used to eliminate the remaining genomic DNA from 34 the isolated RNA samples. cDNA was synthesized from the isolated RNA with the High-Capacity 35 cDNA Reverse Transcription Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific). gPCR reactions were prepared using 36 Maxima SYBR Green/ROX gPCR Master Mix (Thermo Fisher Scientific) with primer sets for Axin2 (F: 5'-CGACCCAGTCAATCCTTATCAC-3', R: 5'-GGGACTCCATCTACGCTACTG-3'), Birc5 (F: 37 5'-CCAGGCATGAAGAGTCAGGG-3'. R: 5'-GGCTGCCTGCTTAGAGTTGA-3'). Ki67 (F: 5'-38 39 GAGGAGAAACGCCAACCAAGAG-3', R: 5'-TTTGTCCTCGGTGGCGTTATCC-3'), Sprr1a (F: 5'-40 CAAGGCACCTGAGCCCTGCAA-3', R: 5'-AGGCTCTGGTGCCTTAGGTTGG-3'), and Krt1 (F: 5'-GACTCGCTGAAGAGTGACCAGT-3', R: 5'-GGTCACGAACTCATTCTCTGCG-3') genes. 41 42 Gene expression was normalized to Gapdh (F: 5'-TGGCAAAGTGGAGATTGTTGCC-3', R: 5'-43 AAGATGGTGATGGGCTTCCCG-3'), and relative expression was calculated using the $\Delta\Delta$ Ct 44 method. Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn's multiple comparison test was used to find significant 45 differences between the groups.

46

47 Retroviral transduction mediated Runx3 overexpression

48 Retroviral particles encoding Runx3-IRES-EGFP or mCherry alone were produced as described previously ¹². Briefly, Plat-E cells were seeded using high glucose DMEM (HyClone) 49 supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum in 6-well plates at a density of 5×10^5 cells/well 1 d 50 51 before transfection. Transfections were performed using 1.5 µg plasmid DNA from pRunx3-EGFP

1 and 1 ug pCL-Eco with TransIT-LT1 (Mirus) in Opti-MEM I Reduced-Serum Medium (Gibco). 2 Retroviral supernatant was harvested 48 h and 72 h after transfection. For transductions, 3 negatively enriched naive CD8 T cells from spleen and lymph nodes were activated in 6-well 4 plates coated with 100 µg/ml goat anti-hamster IgG (H+L; Thermo Fisher Scientific), 1 µg/ml anti-5 CD3 (145-2C11; eBioscience), and 1 µg/ml anti- CD28 (37.51; eBioscience). T cells were subsequently transduced by replacing media with retroviral supernatant supplemented with 50 6 7 μ M β -mercaptoethanol (Gibco) and 8 μ g/ml polybrene (Millipore) followed by a 1 h spinfection 8 centrifugation at 2,000 rpm and 37°C. One day after transduction, Runx3 and empty vector 9 transduced cells were mixed 1:1, and 100,000 total cells were co-cultured with organoids for 5-10 10 days to generate TRM.

11

12 In vitro Peptide Restimulation Assay:

After at least 7 days of VEO-CD8 T cell co-culture, the wells were treated with 0.2 μ g/ml of cognate peptide (SIINFEKL for OT-I CD8 T cells, gp33 for P14 CD8 T cells, or SL8 for gBT-I CD8 T cells) for 4 hours in a restimulation media containing 10% FBS, 1% pennicililin/streptomycin, 1% Lglutamine, 1% non-essential amino acids, 1% sodium pyruvate, 0.25 ug/mL Amphotericin B, and 55 μ M beta-mercaptoethanol in RPMI, supplemented with Brefeldin-A. After 4 hours at 37°C, the cells were collected, washed, and stained for phenotype assessment using the BD cytofixcytoperm system as per manufacturer's instruction.

- 20
- 21 Statistics

22 If the samples followed normal distribution, then parametric tests (unpaired two-tailed Student ttest for two groups and one-way ANOVA with Tukey multiple-comparison test for more than two 23 24 groups) were used. Two-way ANOVA with Sidak multiple-comparison test was used if the effect 25 of two independent variables were being considered among more than two sample groups. If the 26 samples deviated from a Gaussian distribution, nonparametric tests (Mann-Whitney U test for two 27 groups and Kruskal-Wallis with Dunn multiple-comparison test for more than two groups) were 28 used, unless otherwise stated in the figure legends. For paired analyses not conforming to 29 Gaussian distribution, the Wilcoxon matched-pair signed-rank test was used. Shapiro-Wilk 30 normality test was used to determine whether samples adhered to Gaussian distribution or not. 31 Variances between groups were compared using an F test and found to be equal. All statistical analysis was done in Prism (GraphPad Software). p values <0.05 were considered significant. 32 33

Acknowledaments

Schematics were generated with Biorender.com. This work was supported by National Institutes of General Medical Sciences Grant 2P20GM109035, Rhode Island Foundation, Searle Scholar's program (to L.K.B.). G.H. was supported by an American Association of Immunology Careers in Immunology Fellowship, F.J.M. was supported by Brown Respiratory Research Training Program NIH T32HL134625 and Molecular Biology, Cell Biology, and Biochemistry Graduate Program training grant 5T32GM136566. We would like to thank David Knipe (Harvard University) and Gregoire Lauvau (Albert Einstein College of Medicine) for providing the HSV-1gfp virus and gBT-I CD8 transgenic mice. We would also like to thank Peter Ruminski (Washington University) for synthesizing the CWHM-12 compound. We acknowledge the NIH tetramer core facility for providing all the tetramer reagents used in the study and Brown University flow cytometry core for facilitating the flow-based assays.

Author contributions

Conceptualization: MRU, YL, LKB; Methodology and reagents: CM, SG, NZ, JM: Experimentation: MRU, YL, JRR, GH, MHH, FJM, LKB; Data analysis: MRU, YL, LKB; Writing: MRU, YL, LKB; Funding acquisition: LKB

Disclosure of interests

The authors declare no competing interests.