Flexible and scalable control of T cell memory by a reversible epigenetic switch

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Abstract

The immune system encodes information about the severity of a pathogenic threat in the quantity

and type of memory cell populations formed in response. This encoding emerges from the

decisions of lymphocytes to maintain or lose self-renewal and memory potential during a

challenge. By tracking CD8 T cells at the single-cell and clonal level using time-resolved

transcriptomics and quantitative imaging, we identify a flexible memory strategy, whereby T

cells initially choose whether to maintain or lose memory potential early after antigen

recognition, but following pathogen clearance may regain memory potential if initially lost. This

flexibility is implemented by a cis-epigenetic switch silencing the memory regulator TCF1 in a

stochastic, reversible manner in response to stimulatory inputs. Mathematical modeling shows

how this strategy allows memory cell numbers to scale robustly with pathogen virulence and

immune response magnitudes. Thus, flexibility in cellular decision making ensures optimal

immune responses against diverse threats.

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Main

The immune system keeps a memory of prior infections with information about the inducing threat. This memory is encoded by the numbers and types of memory lymphocytes generated upon challenge. The quantity of memory T cells, in particular, scales with the magnitude of a prior infection, such that the memory population is a fixed fraction of the T cell number at the infection peak, across a range of pathogenic challenges[1–3]. This scaling in memory production is robust across T cell clones with different epitope specificities and allows the body to generate memory proportional to the severity of the pathogenic challenge. The regulatory mechanisms that enable this critical feature of adaptive immunity are not well understood.

The size and characteristics of the memory compartment are determined by the fate decision-making strategies of T cells responding to an acute infection[4]. As naive CD8 T cells respond to antigens, they must decide whether and when to maintain long-term viability and self-renewal potential, and thereby persist to form memory cells as the infection is cleared. One class of models posits that cells make this decision early after antigen encounter, and in a mutually exclusive manner with effector differentiation (Fig. 1A)[5–7]. Under this model, memory cells form directly from naive cells without first passing through an effector phase, but through an early lineage bifurcation that concurrently gives rise to short-lived effector cells. A second class of models posits that cells decide later, only after they have undergone effector differentiation (Fig. 1A)[8–10]. In this strategy, cytotoxic effectors that maintain memory potential populate the memory compartment upon infection clearance. However, in contrast with both models, it is also possible that this process is inherently flexible[11], such that T cells have multiple opportunities to commit to the memory state. From a social and cognitive sciences perspective[12,13], flexibility in decision

making allows individuals to adapt and better respond to uncertain and dynamic environments;

in the immune system, such flexibility may allow T cells to optimize memory formation for

threats whose properties might only manifest as they unfold in time. It is unclear whether there

exists such flexibility in T cell memory formation and, if so, what its underlying mechanisms and

functional roles are.

In this study, we sought to elucidate the memory decision-making dynamics of CD8 T cells by

following the regulation of TCF1 (encoded by *Tcf7*), a transcription factor essential for memory

cell generation[14]. *Tcf7* is expressed in naive and memory cells, where it is crucial for maintaining

self-renewal, and is silenced during effector differentiation, resulting in loss of memory potential

and entry into a short-lived state[5,15]. To follow *Tcf7* regulation and memory decision-making in a

controlled environment where cells can be continuously observed and signaling inputs carefully

manipulated, we developed an *ex vivo* system to mimic stimulation of T cells by acute challenge.

Using this system and complementary testing *in vivo*, we uncover a flexible decision-making

strategy: T cells can gain or lose memory potential at multiple junctures after antigen encounter,

and do so in a stochastic and reversible manner. Mathematical modeling reveals that this flexible

decision-making strategy allows for the number of memory cells to scale linearly with total

numbers of expanded T cells at the peak of infection, thereby encoding information about the

severity of the prior threat.

A minimal *ex vivo* system for effector and memory differentiation

In our system, naive ($CD44^-CD62L^+$) CD8 T cells with a knock-in YFP reporter for *Tcf7*[16] are

activated with plate-immobilized anti-CD3 and anti-CD28 antibodies and IL-2, together with

additional cytokines present during acute infection (IL-12, IL-7, and IL-15[17–19]). These

conditions minimize variability in the exposure of individual cells to stimulatory signals,

enabling cell-intrinsic lineage control mechanisms to be studied apart from environmental

heterogeneity.

In this system, all cells begin dividing rapidly after 24 hours and upregulate the transmembrane

glycoprotein CD44, indicating uniform activation (Fig. 1B). Activated cells downregulate *Tcf7*

and the lymph node-homing adhesion molecule CD62L, consistent with effector differentiation.

The inflammatory cytokines IL-12 and IFN-β1 enhance *Tcf7*-YFP silencing (Fig. 1C, Fig. S1C-

D), consistent with their roles in driving effector differentiation[20,21]. When TCR stimulation

(anti-CD3/CD28) and inflammation (IL-12) are removed to mimic pathogen clearance, the cells

demonstrate a population-level increase in CD62L and *Tcf7*-YFP while continuing to divide, as

previously observed[4]. *Tcf7* and CD62L levels are heterogeneous both during stimulation and

after removal, suggestive of an early memory and effector differentiation decision. YFP levels

closely matched TCF1 protein levels throughout activation, validating use of the reporter in this

system (Fig. S1A-B).

Naive cells bifurcate early into effectors and memory precursors

To determine whether the heterogeneity in *Tcf7* and CD62L downregulation reflects early

memory and effector programming (Fig. 1), we analyzed *ex vivo* activated cells using the

temporally-resolved single-cell transcriptome sequencing method, *sci-fate*[22]. Here, metabolic

labeling of newly-synthesized transcripts reveals a cell's current activity state apart from its

history[22,23] (Fig. 2A). We subjected cells at days 1, 2, and 4 to 4-thiouridine (4sU) pulse-labeling

for 2 hrs, followed by sequencing and analysis as previously described[22]. We obtained old and

new transcriptomes for ~17,000 single cells, with a median of 17,574 total and 2,529 new

transcripts detected per cell (Fig. S2A). To disentangle effector and memory gene programs from

other activation-induced programs, we performed an integrative analysis of our temporally-

resolved transcriptome data and existing transcription factor (TF) binding data[24] to identify TF

modules, consisting of co-regulated groups of TFs and their cognate target genes (see Methods).

This analysis revealed two main TF modules, a cell cycle module and a T cell differentiation

module, the latter further separable into submodules that included known regulators of effector

and memory differentiation (Fig. 2B; Fig. S2C).

By visualizing cell states using genes in the T cell differentiation module for Uniform Manifold

Approximation and Projection (UMAP) dimensionality reduction, we resolved distinct effector

and memory states with coherence between timepoints (Fig. 2C; Fig. S2B, D). Unsupervised

clustering and differential gene expression analysis revealed distinct early and late (A vs. B)

effector (E1 and E2) and memory precursor (MP) states. E1 and E2 cells exhibited higher

expression of the effector-associated genes *Gzmb, Ifng, Tbx21, Zeb2,* and *IL12rb2,* while MP

cells had higher expression of the stem- and memory-associated factors *Bach2, Lef1, Tcf7, Sell*,

and *Slamf6*, and lower expression of effector-associated genes (Fig. 2D-E; Fig. S2E-F;

Supplementary Table 1-2)[25]. These differential gene expression patterns were present at day 2

and amplified at day 4.

Consistent with an early fate bifurcation, RNA velocity vectors calculated using reads from

newly synthesized transcripts originate from the undifferentiated state (U), and flow along

separate effector and memory branches[26] (Fig. 2F). To gain insight into the dynamics of genes

differentially regulated between divergent trajectories, we visualized their expression over

pseudotime along each trajectory (Fig. 2G; Supplementary Table 3). This analysis, together with

RNA velocity and TF activity analysis (Fig. 2H-I), identified effector and memory regulators

with greatest differential regulation along their respective trajectories. *Tbx21, Egr1,* and *Irf4*,

among other effector regulatory genes, were specifically active along the E1 trajectory, while a

distinct set of effector regulators, including *Eomes, Bhlhe40*, *Stat5a* and *Stat3*, characterize the

E2 trajectory. This effector heterogeneity and its potential influence on downstream

differentiation will be interesting to investigate in future studies but is not further pursued here.

Finally, regulators of T cell stemness and survival, including *Tcf7, Myb, Mxd4* and *Fli1*, were

active in the MP trajectory. *Tcf7* was the most significantly differentially expressed gene

between trajectories, upregulated early along the MP trajectory and absent in both E1 and E2

trajectories. Its expression furthermore coincided with that of target genes identified through TF

linkage that promote self-renewal, such as *Ikzf2, Sesn3, Aff3*, and *Pecam1* (CD31). Thus, *Tcf7* is

a critical driver of this early divergent memory trajectory in our system.

The early effector and memory decision occurs heterogeneously within clones

The divergence of cells into effector and memory lineages, occurring even under the strong,

uniform stimulatory conditions of our *ex vivo* system, is suggestive of a cell-intrinsic regulatory

mechanism involving *Tcf7* that generates heterogeneity in fate outcomes. To elucidate the degree

to which this decision is heterogeneous within cell lineages amid constant environmental signals,

we acquired multi-day time-lapse movies of clonal CD8 T cell lineages during activation with

continuous measurement of *Tcf7* reporter levels (Fig. 3). As T cells are difficult to track with live

imaging due to their high mobility, tendency to adhere to one another, and rapid proliferation, we

optimized adhesion conditions and computational analyses that allow continuous tracking of a

fate regulating TF across clonal CD8 T cell lineages (Fig. 3; Fig. S3; see Methods)[27]. Using this

method, we tracked a total of 120 clonal lineages over 4 days and an average of 4.4 cell

generations.

Naive cells in these time-lapse movies start small, adhere to the antibody-bound plate, acquire

CD69 expression, increase dramatically in size, and divide rapidly after 1-2 days (Fig. S3G;

Supplemental movie 1). Strikingly, individual activating T cell clones often gave rise to *Tcf7*

high and low subpopulations (Fig. 3A; Fig. S3J; Supplementary Movie 1), indicating that the

effector and memory decision is made heterogeneously within clones. Of note, *Tcf7* low and high

cells showed similar degrees of attachment to the surface, indicating that these intra-clonal

differences are not due to differences in TCR stimulation, but more likely due to cell-intrinsic

mechanisms generating heterogeneity in *Tcf7* silencing.

Differences in *Tcf7*-YFP levels after multiple cell divisions likely stem from earlier *Tcf7*

silencing events propagated through dilution of the stable fluorescent protein by cell division. To

pinpoint the timing of early regulatory events that give rise to these differences in *Tcf7*-YFP

levels, we calculated the *Tcf7* promoter activity over time in single cells, defined as the rate at

which total *Tcf7*-YFP levels increase over time, using a Hidden Markov Model (HMM) to assign

Tcf7 promoter activity states to each cell at each timepoint and identify switching points between

those states (Fig. 3A-C; Fig. S3A-F; see Methods).

This analysis revealed that cells silence *Tcf7* expression at variable times after the onset of

stimulation, and can do so as early as the first cell division as well as at later generations. Cells

activated the *Tcf7* promoter prior to the first cell division, reflecting exit from quiescence, and

then proceeded to switch the *Tcf7* promoter to a silent state. The timing at which the *Tcf7*

promoter transitioned to the silent state varied between cell tracks both within and between cell

lineages, consistent with observed heterogeneity in *Tcf7*-YFP levels within clones (Fig. 3A-D).

Removing IL-12 increased the fraction of cells in an active promoter state (Fig. 3C,E). Silent

Tcf7 promoter states persisted across multiple cell divisions (Fig. 3A; Fig. S3I-J) and thus

represent heritable regulatory changes as opposed to more transient dynamics such as

transcriptional bursting. These results provide evidence that a cell-intrinsic *Tcf7* silencing event,

occurring heterogeneously within clones, underlies the early divergence in effector and memory

states.

A stochastic epigenetic switch controlling *Tcf7* silencing underlies the early effector and

memory decision

Heterogeneity in *Tcf7* silencing could derive from asymmetric cell division[6,28], whereby cell fate

determinants partition unequally, giving rise to discordant behavior between two sister cells.

Alternatively, this heterogeneity could result from stochastic control[29–31], whereby two sisters

would make *Tcf7* silencing decisions independently. While two sister cells could still make

different decisions, they would silence *Tcf7* discordantly no more frequently than expected by

chance. To test these predictions, we analyzed the fractions of daughter cell pairs that silence

Tcf7 either discordantly (ON/OFF) or concordantly (OFF/OFF), doing so for cell pairs across all

cell generations, with or without IL-12 (Fig. 3F). By plotting concordant (OFF/OFF) versus

discordant (ON/OFF) sister pair fractions, we found that all data points adhered to a theoretical

curve representing the expected relationship between sister pair fractions for independent

regulation (Fig. 3G). Consistently, by statistical analysis using a modified Cohen's kappa

coefficient (κ'), we found that daughter cells were no more likely to make discordant decisions

than expected by chance (Fig. 3H; Supplementary Table 4). These findings support the view that

Tcf7 silences in a stochastic manner to drive divergent decision making within clones.

Epigenetic switching mechanisms, involving changes in chromatin modifications or

conformation at gene loci, can introduce stochastic rate-limiting steps to gene activation or

silencing[32–34]. As *Tcf7* silencing involves repressive DNA or histone methylation[14,20,35,36], it

could be gated by such a mechanism. Epigenetic mechanisms act in *cis* at individual gene loci

and therefore would silence each *Tcf7* locus independently. To test for this mechanism, we

compared *Tcf7*-YFP silencing kinetics in cells from mice homozygous and heterozygous for the

reporter, with the prediction that homozygous reporter cells would yield a smaller population of

YFP-low cells, since both loci need to silence for loss of reporter expression (Fig. 3I-J, Fig.

S3K). Indeed, the *Tcf7*-YFP silent population was significantly smaller in homozygous reporter

cells and increased with IL-12, consistent with a *cis*-epigenetic silencing mechanism modulated

by inflammation. Together, these results provide evidence that a stochastic *cis*-epigenetic switch,

tunable by external stimuli, controls the early decision of naive cells to silence *Tcf7* expression

and memory potential.

Reversibility of *Tcf7* silencing enables a late memory decision

Tcf7 silencing has been proposed to be an irreversible event that marks a 'point of no return' for

effector differentiation and loss of memory potential[5,37]. Conversely, various studies have

demonstrated that cells that acquire cytotoxic effector function are able to populate memory

compartments after an infection is resolved[8,9,38], suggesting that *Tcf7*-silenced effectors may still

be able to reactivate *Tcf7* and reacquire memory potential. Our data thus far provide evidence for

an early T cell decision to abandon or maintain memory potential, driven by stochasticity in

antigen-driven *Tcf7* silencing, but do not exclude the possibility that effector cells can reverse

their decisions and regain memory potential later after withdrawal of stimulation.

To test this possibility, we sorted *Tcf7*-YFP low and *Tcf7*-YFP high cells after initial culture and

subjected them to reculture with variable stimulation conditions *ex vivo* (Fig. 4A). As expected,

sorted *Tcf7*-YFP high cells maintained *Tcf7*-YFP expression without stimulation but underwent

heterogeneous silencing under continuing stimulation (Fig. 4B-C, Fig. S4A-B). Furthermore,

Tcf7-YFP low cells maintained a silent state upon continued stimulation, as observed. Strikingly,

however, upon stimulation withdrawal, *Tcf7* reactivated, with the fraction of *Tcf7* expressing

cells increasing over 6 days. *Tcf7* reactivation upon stimulation withdrawal coincided with CD25

downregulation and CD62L upregulation, suggesting re-entry into a memory state (Fig 4D). To

test whether *Tcf7* reactivation and reacquisition of memory potential also occurs *in vivo*, we

transferred *Tcf7*-YFP low and high cells into naive recipient mice (Fig. 4A), and assayed their

Tcf7 expression at successive time points. Indeed, *Tcf7*-YFP low cells reactivated *Tcf7*

expression progressively in the spleen and lymph nodes over 10 days with concomitant increases

in CD62L and IL7Rα, indicating reacquisition of a memory phenotype (Fig. 4E-G; Fig. S4C-D).

We next used clonal live imaging of sorted *Tcf7*-YFP low cells confined in microwells to test if

Tcf7 reactivation is heterogeneous within individual effector clones, as would be expected if

reactivation occurs via reversal of stochastic *cis*-epigenetic silencing (Fig. 3). Consistent with

reactivation observed from bulk starting populations, individual *Tcf7* silenced cells gave rise to

Tcf7 high cells (Fig 4H-I; Supplementary Movies 2 and 3; Supplementary Table 5). Similar to

the initial *Tcf7* silencing event, reactivation was heterogeneous within clones. Reactivation

occurred only after multiple divisions, which may reflect the need for cell division for permissive

chromatin state changes. Overall, these results indicate that cells that have silenced *Tcf7* and

relinquished memory potential can reverse this decision later, after resolution of an immune

challenge.

Tcf7 high cells formed through early and late decisions acquire a common memory

program

Our results show that memory cells can arise through two pathways: a "naive to memory" (NM)

pathway, whereby some cells maintain *Tcf7* expression during initial antigen stimulation, and a

"naive to effector to memory" (NEM) pathway, by which cells that have silenced *Tcf7* and

entered an effector state can turn expression back on after stimulation removal. To determine

whether *Tcf7* high cells emerging through these two pathways both have genomic and functional

memory programs, we subjected them to transcriptomic, epigenomic, and cytokine secretion

analysis, alongside control *in vivo* naive (CD44$^-$CD62L$^+$), memory (CD44$^+$CD62L$^+$), and *ex vivo*

generated effector cells (Fig. 5).

Remarkably, NM and NEM cells showed similar memory characteristics, despite different *Tcf7*

regulatory history. They were both more similar to naive and memory *in vivo* controls compared

to *ex vivo* generated effector cells in their shared expression of memory-defining genes, though

they also maintained some effector characteristics, in line with their recent stimulation (Fig. 5A-

C; Fig. S5A). Similar to memory controls, NM and NEM cells demonstrated greater TNF-α and

IFN-γ secretion upon re-stimulation compared to naive cells (Fig. 5D-E). NM and NEM cells

were most similar in global chromatin accessibility to memory controls (Fig. 5F; Fig. S5B-C).

NEM cells recovered similar *Tcf7* accessibility to NM cells (Fig. 5G). At the *Ifng* locus,

intermediate accessibility of NM and NEM cells between naive and effector controls suggests

that both were poised for rapid recall response, and accessibility at other memory- and effector-

associated loci support this conclusion (Fig. S5D).

While NM and NEM cells were largely similar, notable differences in tissue localization and

gene expression suggest they may be primed for different functional memory properties *in vivo*.

Transferred *Tcf7* high cells showed greater engraftment in secondary lymphoid organs than *Tcf7*

low sorted cells, suggesting different homing capabilities (Fig. S5E). NEM cells also had higher

expression and accessibility of some effector-associated genes compared to NM, possibly

indicative of enhanced effector capabilities or an effector memory state[37,38] (Fig. S5F-G).

Overall, both NM and NEM decision strategies give rise to cells with genomic and functional

characteristics of memory, suggesting that memory formation may proceed through a flexible

decision-making strategy, allowing both for memory and effector divergence during the initial

immune challenge and for effector reacquisition of memory potential after the challenge is

resolved.

Multiple paths to memory enable robust encoding of pathogen experience through memory

population size

Flexibility in memory decision-making may have functional benefits, and may in particular

allow for scaling of memory population sizes with immune response magnitudes. To test this

idea, we used mathematical modeling to evaluate different T cell decision-making strategies in

their memory outcomes in response to pathogens of different virulence, modeled as having

different rates of replication (see Mathematical Appendix). In our first model, we consider the

flexible strategy we observed (Fig. 6A). Here, naive T cells (T_n) initially transition to a Tcf7-

expressing memory-competent state (MC, T_m) that divides upon exposure to pathogen (v), but

stops dividing and persists upon pathogen clearance. These cells can either maintain memory

competence upon continuing stimulation, or transition to *Tcf7*-silent effector state (T_e), where

they control pathogen growth, but are short-lived. Based on our findings (Fig. 3), this transition

to an effector state is stochastic, with a probabilistic rate that increases with pathogen. Effector

cells can reverse *Tcf7* silencing and re-enter the memory-competent state in the absence of

pathogen, as we observe (Fig. 4).

Mathematical simulations of this flexible decision model recapitulate the canonical features of

the T cell response to acute infection (Fig. 6B; Fig. S6A-B). T cells expand rapidly in response to

pathogen, reaching a peak 4-8 days after infection onset that consists mostly of effector cells,

followed by a contraction to a stable, lower level of memory-competent cells (T_m). Consistent

with known studies[1,39], the quantity of memory cells is ~5% of the peak cell number.

In response to pathogens with varying replication rates, this flexible decision model allows

memory cells to form robustly and scale linearly with peak cell expansion numbers. Increasing

effector expansion with faster pathogen replication was accompanied by a proportional increase

in memory cells, such that the memory fraction relative to the peak T cell number remained

constant (Fig. 6B and 6C – top, yellow shading, γ_v>0.02/hr). This relation is given by:

$$f_{T_m} = \frac{\beta_{e,m}}{\beta_{e,m}+\delta_e}$$

where $\beta_{e,m}$ is the maximum effector to memory conversion rate and δ_e is the effector death rate.

This scaling breaks down when pathogen replication is slow (γ_v<0.02/hr): reduced antigen

encounter decreases the probability of the early effector cell decision, such that the number of

memory cells generated converges to the starting naive cell number rather than increasing with

pathogen replication rate. This ensures a baseline level of memory amid weak challenges that do

not elicit a full effector response[3].

To ask whether flexibility is necessary for scalable memory encoding, we analyzed two

alternative decision models, where memory decisions are made at only one juncture. The early

decision model, where naive cells irreversibly commit to the *Tcf7*-silent effector state, generated

robust memory upon challenge with slow-dividing pathogens but cannot reproduce the linear

scaling of the memory population to the peak population in response to faster-replicating

pathogens (Fig. 6C, middle; Fig. S6C-F; see also Mathematical Appendix). Conversely, the late

decision model, where naive cells transition obligatorily to the effector state and decide later

whether to regain memory competence, generated constant memory fractions upon stronger

challenges but attenuated memory populations in response to weaker challenges (Fig. 6C,

bottom; Fig. S6G-H). These analyses underscore the importance of flexibility in memory

decision making for optimal long-term immunity against variable threats.

Discussion

Our finding that reversible epigenetic silencing of *Tcf7* generates inherent flexibility in the T cell

memory decision reconciles two prevailing models for memory development that have often

been regarded as mutually opposed. While there is evidence that memory cells can form both

directly from naive cells with little or no effector differentiation and from effector cells that

dedifferentiate upon infection clearance[8,9], no model has explained how both pathways can

coexist. In this mechanism, stochastic control of *Tcf7* silencing enables early divergent memory

and effector decision making, and its reversibility enables late effector dedifferentiation. Antigen

and inflammatory signals tune the decision-making probabilities at both junctures (Fig. 2-4) and

would thereby influence which pathway would predominate across challenges that differ in

signal duration and intensity[40]. This study, together with others[33], implicate stochastic epigenetic

switches as drivers of cellular diversification in the immune system. Through regulatory events

that initiate over timescales spanning cell generations, these switches allow multiple cell

populations to emerge in defined numbers without strict spatially-organized cues[41], facilitating

division of labor for optimal pathogen defense.

Our modeling results lay the groundwork for understanding how the adaptive immune system

can encode information about the nature and severity of a pathogen in its memory cell population

(Fig. 6). In future work, it will be interesting to determine whether other pathogen features, such

as antigenicity or latency, may also be encoded quantitatively. Our findings that memory cells

emerging from different decision points may differ in their functional properties (Fig. S5E-G)

raise the possibility that flexible decision making could underlie qualitative encoding of

pathogen information through the generation of heterogeneous memory subsets[37,38]. In future

work, it will be interesting to investigate the extent to which each decision pathway is utilized

under various threats *in vivo* and whether cells emerging from different pathways are

functionally heterogeneous[42].

Overall, our study highlights the utility of plasticity in cell fate decision making in biological

systems. From a strategic standpoint, flexibility enables decision makers to change their minds

with new information, allowing them to mount optimal responses amid uncertain

circumstances[12]. For immune cells responding to a pathogen, an ability to reassess prior

decisions, as opposed to making early commitments, may enable bet-hedging and greater

responsiveness as an immune challenge evolves. Observed plasticity in mammalian stem cell

fate decision making[43,44] may similarly allow the body to rapidly adapt its regenerative output to

changing physiological needs[45]. A fuller consideration of flexibility in cellular decision making,

along with its mechanisms and roles, will shed light into design principles of these systems and

provide valuable insight for harnessing cells as environmentally-responsive therapeutic agents.

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Author Contributions

K.A. and H.Y.K. conceived the study and designed the experiments. E.C.C., J.S. and J.C.

contributed to experimental design. K.A. and E.C.C. performed the experiments and analyzed the

data. J.C. performed the scRNA-seq experiments, and R.D. performed bulk RNAseq and

ATACseq. W.Y. performed initial analysis on the scRNA-seq experiments. J.F. and A.L.W

performed analysis on imaging data. K.K.H.N. helped set up the *ex vivo* T cell activation system.

H.Y.K. developed the mathematical models and O.U., A.N., and H.Y.K. analyzed the

mathematical models. A.B. provided the *Tcf7*-YFP reporter mice and guidance. K.A. and H.Y.K

wrote the manuscript. E.C.C. contributed to the writing of the manuscript.

Declaration of interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Data availability

The time-resolved single-cell RNA-seq and bulk RNA-seq and ATAC-seq data generated for this

study will be deposited in the Gene Expression Omnibus. All other data will be made available

upon reasonable request.

Code availability

Scripts for processing sequencing and imaging data are written in Python, R, and Matlab and will

be made available upon request at https://github.com/KuehLabUW.

<u>Figures</u>

Figure 1: A minimal *ex vivo* system to track CD8 T cell effector and memory decision making dynamics. (**A**) Candidate decision-making strategies for CD8 T cell memory generation (left); a minimal *ex vivo* system for tracking memory decision-making dynamics at the single-cell level. (**B-C**) Naive CD8 T cells were isolated from *Tcf7*-YFP reporter mice, then cultured using this minimal *ex vivo* system. Flow cytometry plots show analysis of cultured CD8 T cells during initial stimulation for 2 days (left) and continued stimulation to day 5 (middle), or after stimulation withdrawal (removal of αCD3/αCD28 after day 2 and IL-12 after day 3) (right). (**C**) *Tcf7*-YFP silencing is tunable by IL-12 levels. Data are from a single experiment representative of at least 3 independent experiments.

Figure 2

Figure 2: Naive cells diverge into effector and memory states early after activation. (**A**)

Naive CD8 T cells were activated as in Fig. 1A, with 0.05 ng/ml IL-12. After 1, 2, and 4 days,

cells were treated with 4sU for 2 hours to label new transcripts, then harvested for time-resolved

transcriptomics using *sci-fate*. (**B**) Heatmap showing the absolute Pearson's correlation

coefficient between the activities of pairs of TFs, generated using *sci-fate*. Key TFs in each

module are labeled at right. T cell differentiation module used for subsequent analysis is boxed.

(**C**) UMAP visualization of cells based on the activity of T cell differentiation-related TF

module, using newly synthesized mRNA, colored by cluster ID (top). Percentage of cells in each

T cell activation state cluster after indicated days (bottom). (**D**) Aggregated expression (scaled,

$\log_{10}$ normalized) of top 400 differentially expressed (DE) genes between clusters (q < 3 x 10^{-45}

for all genes except for *Ifng*, q = 7.3 x 10^{-29}). (**E**) DE genes between E1(A) and MP(A) at day 2

only; log2FC > 0.5 and adj. p < 0.05. (**F**) UMAP visualization as in (C), characterized by

labeling-based RNA velocity analysis. Streamlines indicate the integration paths that connect

local projections from the observed state to the extrapolated future state(*26*). (**G**) Pseudotemporal

ordering of top 200 DE genes and additional genes of interest (q < 1.4 x 10^{-17}) between

trajectories. Gene labels correspond to all DE TFs in the T cell differentiation TF module (left

text) and DE target genes linked to *Tbx21*, *Egr1*, *Eomes*, and *Tcf7* (right text). (**H**) RNA velocity

and (**I**) Loess smoothed TF activity over pseudotime for four of the most DE genes between

trajectories. TF activity is calculated as the normalized aggregation of levels of newly

synthesized mRNA for all TF target genes, scaled across all cells. Cells in the undifferentiated

(U) cluster are set to pseudotime = 0 for each trajectory.

Figure 3

Figure 3: Heterogeneous *Tcf7* silencing within clones is controlled by a stochastic epigenetic

switch. (**A**) Representative lineages demonstrating clonal heterogeneity in *Tcf7*-YFP silencing:

image snap shots (left), lineage trees (middle), and reporter intensity (area x median YFP levels)

over time for each track (right), with the first cell division marked by a vertical dashed line. Cell

borders in snapshots are colored and labeled to match their corresponding leaves in the lineage

trees. Lineage trees and tracks are colored by HMM-derived promoter state, outlined in (**B**).

Cells are cultured with 1 ng/ml IL-12 unless otherwise indicated. (**C**) Reporter intensity for all

overlaid tracks, colored by promoter state. (**D**) For each track, from left to right: time of first

division, time of first transition to a stable active state, time of first transition to a stable silent

state (stable state ≥ 10 hrs). (**E**) For all lineages combined, fraction of cells in an active promoter

state over time, +/- 1 ng/ml IL-12. (**F-H**) Each division of a parent cell with the *Tcf7* promoter

ON was categorized as giving rise to zero, one, or two daughters that transition to an OFF state.

(**F**) Examples of each division category. (**G**) The OFF/OFF fraction by ON/OFF fraction is

plotted separately for each generation, +/- IL-12, to distinguish concordant, independent, and

asymmetric silencing mechanisms. (**H**) Modified Cohen's kappa test for division events in (G).

(**I**) Comparison of YFP/YFP and YFP/+ reporters to distinguish *cis* and *trans* regulation of *Tcf7*

silencing (left). YFP distributions for YFP/YFP and YFP/+ reporters cultured for 5 days with 0.2

ng/ml IL-12 (right). YFP off fractions are calculated from gaussian fits to distributions. (**J**) YFP

off percentages as in (I), over a range of IL-12 concentrations. Mean ± s.d. Statistical

significance was calculated with an unpaired two-tailed t test; n.s. $p=0.05$, ***$p<0.005$.

Individual data points are from a single experiment representative of 2 independent experiments

(I-J).

Figure 4

Figure 4: Effector cells reverse *Tcf7* silencing and regain memory potential upon

stimulation withdrawal. (**A**) Naive cells from *Tcf7*-YFP mice were stimulated as indicated,

sorted for *Tcf7*-YFP low and high populations after 3 days, and recultured either *ex vivo* (B-D,

H-I) or adoptively transferred to naive recipients (E-G). Light and dark blue coloring throughout

correspond to sorted YFP low and high populations, respectively. (**B-C**) *Tcf7*-YFP levels during

reculture with or without αCD3/αCD28 and IL-12 (+/- stim) compared to non-fluorescent

controls. (**D**) CD25, CD62L, and *Tcf7*-YFP expression in *Tcf7*-low sorted cells recultured +/-

stimulation. (**E-F**) *Tcf7*-YFP levels over time in CD45.2$^+$CD45.1$^-$CD8$^+$ cells harvested from the

spleen after sort and adoptive transfer to naive recipients. (**G**) CD62L and IL7Rα expression in

cells from E, F after *in vivo* transfer. (**H**) Representative microwells of sorted *Tcf7*-low cells

recultured without stimulation: snap shots (left), top and bottom wells represent single clones;

corresponding histograms (middle) with binned cell data for each time point, with YFP +/- gate

drawn at 2 standard deviations above the mean YFP intensity from the first 25 hrs;

corresponding YFP$^+$ fractions over time (right). (**I**) YFP$^+$ fraction for all wells overlaid. Mean

activation time = 59.1 hr. [C, F] Mean ± s.d. [B-D] Data are from a single experiment

representative of 1 and 3 independent experiments for +stim and 0 stim, respectively. [E-G] Data

are from a single experiment with n=3-4 biological replicates.

Figure 5

Figure 5: *Tcf7* high cells emerging from different routes acquire memory programming

and functions. *Tcf7*-YFP low and high cells were sorted after 2 days of stimulation followed by

one day of rest, recultured without TCR stimulation or IL-12 for an additional 6 days *ex vivo,*

and then sorted for high *Tcf7*-YFP expression and subjected to genomic and functional analyses.

(**A**) PCA of RNA-seq profiles (top 500 DE genes) for recultured cells compared to day 3 effector

(Eff) and day 0 naive (CD44$^-$CD62L$^+$, N) and memory (CD44$^+$CD62L$^+$, Mem) controls. NM and

NEM cells were sorted as YFP-high and YFP-low on day 3, respectively. (**B**) GSEA of gene

signatures from MSigDB (C7, collections deposited by Goldrath (GR) and Kaech (KA)

comparing *ex vivo* recultured populations to Eff and Mem controls. (**C**) Heatmap displaying top

500 DE genes (lfc ≥ 2, Bonferroni-adjusted p value <0.05) between recultured populations and

Eff, N, and Mem controls. Scale bar indicates row z-scores of regularized log transformed count

data. Memory and effector associated genes from MSigDB Goldrath and Kaech collections are

highlighted. (**D-E**) Cytokine secretion of recultured cells compared to N and Mem controls after

PMA/Ionomcyin restimulation. (**F**) PCA of ATAC-seq counts of top 500 differentially accessible

peaks between recultured cells and controls. (**G**) ATAC-seq read coverage tracks; vertical bars

annotate differentially accessible peaks between recultured cells and controls. [A-C] n = 2

biological replicates for each sample. [D-E] Mean ± s.d. Statistical significance was calculated

with an unpaired two-tailed t test performed between groups. *p<0.5, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001.

Data are n=3 biological replicates from a single experiment. [F-G] n = 1 biological replicate for

Eff, N, Mem, n = 2 for NM, n = 3 for NEM.

Figure 6

Figure 6: Flexible decision making enables quantitative encoding of pathogen experience

during T cell memory formation. (**A**) Model incorporates pathogen proliferation, T cell

memory decision making through reversible epigenetic switching. Orange arrows indicate

modulation of T cell state transitions by pathogen load. (**B**) Time traces show memory T cell

levels (top), total T cell levels (middle) and pathogen load (bottom), for different rates of

pathogen replication (left to right). Dotted line shows the number of memory T cells formed in

the case when this number is a defined fraction of the peak total T cell number, f_{Tm}. (**C**) Distinct

strategies for memory decision making: flexible (top), early (middle) or late (bottom); the

fraction of T cells at the response peak that become memory cells f_{Tm}; the peak cell number

(black) and memory cell number (orange), both plotted against pathogen replication rate γ_v. The

dotted line indicates the number of starting naive cells, and the yellow shading marks scalable

memory.

<u>Methods</u>

Mice

Tcf7-YFP mice have been described[16]. We note that a small number of experiments utilized mice

harboring an additional non-perturbing *Tbx21*-CFP BAC transgene reporter allele[46], though this

reporter was not further analyzed for this study. All mice used in experiments were heterozygous

for the *Tcf7*-YFP reporter except where specified. WT C57BL/6 mice (Jackson Laboratory) were

utilized as reporter negative controls, where applicable. Both male and female mice were used

for *ex vivo* experiments, aged 8 to 12 weeks. Female CD45.1 mice, 8-12 weeks of age, were

purchased from the Jackson Laboratory for use as recipients for adoptive transfer experiments.

For donors for adoptive transfer experiments, homozygous *Tcf7*-YFP mice were crossed with an

LCMV specific TCR transgenic strain[47] (P14) (Jackson Laboratory) and heterozygous offspring

were used. P14 homozygous mice without *Tcf7*-YFP were utilized as non-fluorescent controls

for sort gate setting. All mice were used in accordance with Institutional Animal Care and Use

Committee guidelines for the University of Washington.

Naive T cell extraction

Spleens were harvested from mice, massaged between rough glass slides to generate a single-cell

suspension, and filtered through 40 μm nylon mesh into HBH (HBSS, 10 mM HEPES, 0.5%

BSA, pH 7.4). Cells were spun down for 5 min at 300g, resuspended in 3 ml red blood cell

(RBC) lysis buffer (150 mM NH_4Cl, 10 mM $NaHCO_3$, 1 mM EDTA) for 3-5 min, and quenched

with HBH. Cells were spun down for 5 min at 300g and resuspended in HBH with 2.4G2

blocking solution and incubated for 30 min on ice. Cells were counted, spun down again, and

then enriched for CD8 T cells using a CD8a$^+$ T Cell Isolation Kit, mouse (Miltenyi, #130-104-

075), with the volume and amount of antibodies and microbeads used scaled down to 70% of

that specified by the manufacturer. One LS column was used per spleen (Miltenyi, # 130-042-

401). To obtain a pure population of naive CD8 T cells, the cell suspension was stained with

anti-CD8 (PerCP/Cyanine5.5, eBioscience, # 45-0081-82 or Biolegend, #100734), anti-CD44

(APC or PE, Invitrogen, #17-0441-82, or #12-0331-82), and anti-CD62L (APC/eFluor780,

Invitrogen, #47-0621-82) at 1:600 antibody to cell suspension volume ratio in 30×10^6 cell/ml

HBH with Fc block for 15-30 min on ice and then sorted with a BD FACS Aria III (BD

Biosciences) with assistance from the University of Washington Pathology Flow Cytometry

Core Facility. The naive population was gated as CD8$^+$CD44$^-$CD62L$^+$*Tcf7*-YFP$^+$. Memory cells

were gated as CD8$^+$CD44$^+$CD62L$^+$*Tcf7*-YFP$^+$. The cells were sorted into HBH and kept on ice

until plating.

Ex vivo **T cell differentiation**

One day prior to T cell harvest and activation (day -1), plates were prepared by coating with anti-

CD3e (Tonbo, #40-0031-U100), anti-CD28 (Tonbo, #40-0281-U100), RetroNectin (Takara,

#T100B), and when specified, anti-CD11a (Biolegend, #101117). Unless otherwise specified,

each well of a 96-well plate received 0.2 µg anti-CD3, 0.1 µg anti-CD28, 1 µg Retronectin, and

(when specified) 1 µg anti-CD11a in 50 µL of PBS. For differentiation in larger wells, these

amounts were scaled up by well surface area. Plates were sealed with parafilm and incubated at

4°C overnight. On day 0, plates were allowed to come to room temperature for at least 30 min

and washed 2x with PBS. Purified cells were added to wells in T cell media [85% RPMI 1640

with L-glutamine, 10% Fetal Bovine Serum, Pen-Strep-Glutamine, 20 mM HEPES, 1 mM

Sodium Pyruvate, 0.1 mM NEAA, 50 µM BME] with indicated cytokine concentrations, mixed,

and spun down for 1 min at 150g to ensure initial contact for all cells with the coated plate

surface. Cytokines added to the media were 100 U/mL IL-2 (PeproTech, # 200-02), 0.5 ng/mL

IL-7 (PeproTech, # 200-07), 50 ng/mL IL-15 (PeproTech, # 210-15), and 1 ng/mL IL-12

(PeproTech, #210-12) unless otherwise specified. Where specified, IFN-β1 (Biolegend,

#581302) was added at 1000 U/mL. The cell seeding concentration was 0.1 - 2.5 million cells /

ml unless otherwise indicated. Cells were incubated at 37°C in 5% CO_2 and split every two days

by mixing, removing half of the well volume, and topping off the volume with TCM and

respective cytokines. Where applicable, prior to seeding, cells were stained with 5 µM CellTrace

Violet (CTV) (Invitrogen, #C34557) following the manufacturer's instructions.

Flow cytometry analysis

For timecourse analyses with cell surface protein staining, cells were spun down in round-bottom

96-well plates or 1.5 ml eppendorf tubes, resuspended in 2.4G2 blocking solution for 15-30 min

on ice, stained with cell surface antibodies at 1:1200 (anti-CD8: PerCP-Cyanine5.5, eBioscience,

45-0081-82, or Biolegend, #100734, anti-CD44: APC, Invitrogen, #17-0441-82, anti-CD62L:

APC-e780, Invitrogen #47-0621-82 , anti-CD25: APC, #17-0251-82), 1:400 (anti-CD45.1: APC,

Biolegend, #110714), 1:200 (anti-CD45.2: PE/Dazzle594, Biolegend, #109846) or 1:100 (anti-

CD127/IL7Rα: PE, Invitrogen, #12-1271-83) antibody to cell suspension volume ratio for an

additional 15-30 min on ice, and spun down again for a final resuspension in HBH prior to

acquisition. For samples that required intracellular protein staining, cells were fixed and

permeabilized using Cytofix/Cytoperm Fixation and Permeabilization kit (BD #554714)

according to manufacturer instructions and incubated with antibody for 30 min on ice. The TCF1

antibody (PE, BD Biosciences, #564271) and T-bet antibody (PE, Biolegend, #644809) were

used at 1:50 and 1:200, respectively. For samples that required intracellular cytokine staining,

cells were restimulated for 5 hr with PMA/Ionomycin (1x in 100 μL per sample Thermofisher,

#00-4970-93) in round-bottom 96-well plates, with a protein transport inhibitor (1x

Thermofisher, #00-4980-93) added after 1 hr. For cytokine secretion after sorting (for Naive,

Mem, and NM/NEM) cells were stained with Zombie Near IR at a 1:1000 dilution in PBS

following the manufacturer's instructions (Biolegend, #423117). Cells were then fixed,

permeabilized, and stained with antibodies for cytokine and other intracellular protein antibodies

as described above. All cytokine antibodies were used at 1:100 dilution in 1x BD Perm/Wash

buffer (anti-IFN-γ (APC/Cyanine7 or PE, Biolegend, #505849, #505808) and anti-TNF-α

(BV711 Biolegend, #506349). Data were acquired using an Attune Nxt Flow Cytometer

(ThermoFisher Scientific) and analyzed using FlowJo (BD) software.

Sample processing for sci-fate-seq

Naive CD8 T cells were activated *ex vivo*, as described. For this experiment, media was

supplemented with 100 U/mL IL-2, 0.5 ng/mL IL-7, 50 ng/mL IL-15, and 0.05 ng/mL IL-12.

The moderate level of IL-12, 0.05 ng/ml, was chosen for this experiment to produce a relatively

even representation of *Tcf7* high and low cells (see Fig. 1C). At days 1, 2, and 4 of activation,

two subsequent sci-fate time points were taken as follows: cells were mixed and split into two

wells, which had been coated with anti-CD3 and anti-CD28 at day -1 and remained in the

incubator with TCM; 4sU was added to one well for a final concentration of 200 μM, and that

well was harvested 2 hr later. At that time, 4sU was similarly added to the second well, and that

well was harvested 2 hr later. After each 4sU addition, cells were mixed and spun down at 150g

for 1 min. Harvested cells were prepared for sci-RNA-seq as described for the sci-fate protocol

[22]. Briefly, cells were fixed with ice-cold 4% PFA for 15 min, washed and flash frozen with

PBSR [PBS, pH 7.4, 0.2 mg/ml bovine serum albumin (Fisher), 1% SuperRnaseIn

(Thermofisher) and 10 mM dithiothreitol (DTT)]. PFA-fixed cells were thawed, washed, and

treated with iodoacetamide (IAA) to attach a carboxyamidomethyl group to 4sU. Following

these steps, a single-cell RNA sequencing library was prepared using the sci-RNA-seq

protocol[48,49]. The library was sequenced on the Illumina Next-seq system.

Computational analysis for sci-fate-seq

Read alignment, downstream processing, and TF module construction

Read alignment and downstream processing, linking of TFs to regulated genes, and construction

of TF modules was performed as described in Cao et al., 2020, with minor modifications.

Briefly, for each gene, across all cells, the correlation between mRNA levels of each expressed

TF and that gene was computed using LASSO (least absolute shrinkage and selection operator)

regression. We sought to comprehensively define gene programs with distinct dynamics by

doing this correlation separately both using only newly synthesized transcript levels for potential

target genes and using overall transcript levels, expecting that target genes with more stable

transcripts would be more readily identified using newly synthesized transcripts, while less

abundant, more lowly detected target genes would be more readily identified in the overall

transcriptome. After filtering out the resultant covariance links with a correlation coefficient less

than 0.03, we identified 2,117 putative TF - target gene covariance links using newly synthesized

transcriptome levels and 9,927 using overall transcriptome levels, resulting in a total of 10,405

unique links after aggregation. These were further filtered to retain only links supported by ChiP-

seq binding, motif enrichment, or predicted enhancer binding[24], resulting in 1065 links between

51 TFs and 632 genes. Of these 1065 links, 147 were identified using the newly synthesized

transcriptome levels, 649 were identified using the overall transcriptome levels, and 269 were

identified by both. To calculate TF activity scores in each cell, newly synthesized unique

molecular identifier (UMI) counts for all linked target genes were scaled by library size, log

transformed, aggregated, and normalized. The absolute correlation coefficient was computed

between all TF pairs with respect to their activity across all cells. Pairwise correlations were

hierarchically clustered using the ward D2 method to identify TF modules, with the reasoning

that co-regulatory TFs must be simultaneously active within the same cell.

Cell ordering, clustering, and differential gene expression analysis between clusters

We initially attempted to resolve T cell differentiation states by performing dimensionality

reduction with Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection (UMAP) on whole or new

transcriptomes using all detected genes. This analysis largely separated cells by the time point at

which they were sampled (Fig. S2B), as previously observed[50,51], likely a consequence of the

host of other temporal changes occurring during activation apart from differentiation, such as cell

cycle control and metabolic programming. To characterize T cell differentiation dynamics apart

from other regulatory processes, cells were represented in UMAP space using newly synthesized

reads for all genes within the T cell differentiation TF module with monocle3 (v.0.2.3.0)

(reduction_method = 'UMAP', umap.n_neighbors = 15L, umap.min_dist = 0.001) [52] using the

function align_cds[53] to remove effects of cell cycle phase (preprocess_method = 'PCA',

alignment_group = 'Phase'). The resultant UMAP was clustered using density peak clustering[54],

which resulted in 5 main clusters (Fig. 2C, U and E2(A) combined, E1(A), E1(B), E2(B), and

MP(A) and MP(B) combined). To further resolve observed variable T cell differentiation marker

expression within two of these clusters, *k*-means clustering was used to further divide U and

E2(A) into separate states and MP(A) and MP(B) into separate states (k = 2 and 2.5,

respectively). Cells in different cell cycle phases were relatively evenly distributed across this

UMAP, with S phase representation highest in E1(A) (Fig. S2D). Differential gene expression

testing was performed between clusters using the monocle3 fit_models function.

RNA velocity analysis

RNA velocity analysis and visualization of velocity streamlines was performed using Dynamo

(v.0.95.2.dev)[26] using expression matrices from the full and new transcriptome. The dataset was

subsetted to include only the T cell differentiation module genes prior to analysis, but the

resultant streamlines were similar when the analysis was performed with all genes. The

streamline results were also similar when scVelo (v.0.2.2)[55] was used for velocity analysis (data

not shown), with the full and new transcriptome used as the unspliced/spliced expression

matrices, indicating that the streamline results are consistent between multiple analysis methods.

The scVelo results were also similar with or without subsetting to include only the T cell

differentiation module genes.

Trajectory analysis

Cells in each putative trajectory (E1, E2, MP) were ordered in pseudotime based on the point

position on the principal curve estimated using the princurve package[56]. To align the precursor

cells between trajectories, cells in the undifferentiated (U) cluster were set to pseudotime = 0. To

identify genes that distinguish the trajectories, differentially expressed genes were identified

using the monocle3 fit_models function with the model formula as the trajectory and pseudotime

terms. Only resulting DEG associated with the trajectory term were selected.

Time-lapse imaging

Long-term time-lapse imaging of cultured cells, both to track *Tcf7* regulation during initial

activation in naive cells and to track *Tcf7* reactivation in sorted *Tcf7*-low cells, was performed as

previously described with some modifications[57,58]. Images were acquired with an inverted

widefield fluorescence microscope (Leica DMi8) fit with an incubator to maintain a constant

humidified environment at 37°C and 5% CO_2, using a 40X dry objective. For imaging of the

initial 4 days of activation (Fig. 3), cells were seeded at low density (2-5k c/well) in wells of a

96-well glass bottom plate (Mattek) coated with anti-CD3, anti-CD28, anti-CD11a, and

RetroNectin, as described above. For *Tcf7* reactivation imaging experiments (Fig. 4), *Tcf7*-low

cells were sorted on day 3 after 2 days of initial culture with anti-CD3 and anti-CD28 in media

with IL-2, IL-7, IL-15, and IL-12 and one additional day of culture with anti-CD3 and anti-CD28

removed. These cells were seeded onto PDMS micromesh (250 μm hole diameter,

Microsurfaces) mounted on top of a 24-well glass bottom plate (Mattek) to enable clonal

tracking, as seeded cells show considerably enhanced motility in the absence of TCR

stimulation. To prepare the micromesh for imaging, the surface was first coated with BSA while

mounted on top of a 24-well plate overnight at 4°C and then transferred to a new glass well and

coated with anti-CD11a and RetroNectin for improved adhesion but without anti-CD3 and anti-

CD28. For reactivation experiments, cells were cultured in TCM with IL-2, IL-7, and IL-15, but

without IL-12.

To determine if the experimental conditions required for imaging affect differentiation, we

systematically compared expression of CD44, CD62L, and *Tcf7*-YFP in cells activated on glass

or tissue culture plates, at high or low seeding density, and with or without presence of anti-

CD11a (Fig. S3L). CD44 levels were comparable across all conditions, confirming that all cells

activated in all conditions. In tissue culture plates, CD62L and *Tcf7*-YFP levels were also

comparable, though the *Tcf7*-YFP levels were slightly reduced at lower cell density, particularly

in the condition without IL-12, consistent with previous findings that memory differentiation

occurs less efficiently at lower cell densities[59]. On glass plates, the fraction of CD62L low cells

was increased compared to on tissue culture plates. *Tcf7* levels were similarly low for the

condition with IL-12, but the combination of low seeding density and presence of anti-CD11a on

the glass plate resulted in a lower *Tcf7* distribution in the no IL-12 condition than was otherwise

observed. This analysis shows that the specific conditions used for imaging do not affect overall

differentiation trends but may underestimate the differences in differentiation between conditions

with and without IL-12.

Computational analysis for time-lapse imaging

Image segmentation and tracking

Image pre-processing, cell segmentation, and tracking was performed in MATLAB (Mathworks,

Natick, MA) using the ictrack movie analysis pipeline we described previously[58,60] (Fig. S3A-B),

modified to enable segmentation of cells from brightfield movies. Importantly, to segment cells

without additional fluorescent labels besides *Tcf7*-YFP, we first trained a convolutional neural

network (CNN) with a U-net architecture[61] to predict fluorescence images of whole cells from

brightfield images, using images of cell-trace violet labeled T cells as a training data set[27]. We

trained separate CNNs for the images acquired in 96-well plates (Fig. 3) and in microwells (Fig.

4), as predictions are optimal when images for training and prediction have similar features. For

each training dataset, hundreds of images of CTV-stained cells were acquired at multiple

timepoints during the process of interest (e.g. initial T cell activation or culture after stimulation

removal). Using the trained CNN, we then generated predicted whole-cell fluorescence images

from acquired brightfield movies, which were used for cell segmentation (Fig. S3B, 1.). Briefly,

in the ictrack analysis pipeline, images underwent (1) correction by subtraction of uneven

background signal stemming from the bottom of the glass plate or the side of the PDMS

microwells (2) Gaussian blur followed by pixel value saturation to fix uneven signal intensity

within the nucleus of the cell and (3) Laplacian edge detection algorithm to identify the nucleus

boundary. Non-cell objects were excluded via size and shape limit exclusions. To generate clonal

lineage trees, cells were tracked automatically between adjacent movie frames using the

Munkres assignment algorithm, and the resulting cell tracks were manually checked for errors

and to annotate cell divisions (Fig. S3B, 2.).

Tcf7 *promoter state assignment and analysis*

To enable quantitative analysis of *Tcf7* promoter activity in clonal cell lineages, we assembled

separate full tracks of total *Tcf7*-YFP fluorescence levels from the starting cell to each ending

cell within a lineage tree, for all lineage trees analyzed (Fig. S3B, 3.). Fluorescence levels are

halved at each cell division; thus, to ensure continuity in *Tcf7*-YFP levels in these tracks, we

calculated for each parent-daughter cell pair an offset in *Tcf7*-YFP levels, that we added to the

daughter cells and their progeny, as previously implemented[32]. These 'continuized' tracks were

then smoothed using MATLAB medfilt1 (N=5) and smooth (span = 80 time points, equivalent to

20 hours, method = lowess), and their first derivatives with respect to time were calculated to

generate single-cell tracks of *Tcf7* promoter activity for downstream HMM analysis (Fig. S3B,

4.).

Cell tracks were exported from MATLAB to R for downstream processing. *Tcf7* promoter states

for each cell and time point were called from tracks of *Tcf7*-YFP level derivatives using Hidden

Markov Model (HMM) modeling, implemented with the msm Package for R (v1.6.9)[62]. We

initially tested four candidate HMM models with either three or four promoter states and variable

constraints on the derivative ranges within each state (Fig. S3C-D). For each model, we

constrained the mean and variance in *Tcf7* promoter activities of each state by fitting Gaussian

distributions to the *Tcf7*-YFP derivatives at different time windows, to reflect our observations

that cells are expected to be mostly in an inactive, active, or attenuated state at different times.

We then compared the performance of these four models by calculating their log-likelihood and

corresponding AIC (Akaike information criterion) scores. We also checked the quality of each

model's fit to the data by assessing whether residuals of the fit follow a Gaussian distribution[63]

(Fig. S3E). Based on this analysis, we chose a model in which cells transition between 4 states:

off (initial), low active, high active, and off (Fig. 3B, Fig. S3F), and all start in the off-initial

state at the beginning of the track. This four-state model performed favorably compared to other

models, likely because it better accounts for the distinct distributions of promoter activity of

silent and active cells at initial and later time points.

Using this four-state model, we assigned promoter activity states at each time point for each cell,

removing potentially spurious transient promoter states by finding all promoter states lasting less

than 8 hours and replacing them with the previously assigned promoter state. From these states,

we then identified promoter silencing events as those involving a switch from active (high or

low) to an inactive (off) state, and activation events as those involving a switch from inactive

(off-initial or off) to active (high or low) states. We did not allow transitions back to the starting

inactive (off-initial) state, as this state has a distinct *Tcf7* promoter activity distribution from the

later silent state (off), likely reflecting the distinct noise characteristics of *Tcf7*-YFP levels at

different stages after activation.

For analysis of *Tcf7* silencing between sister cells, we first assigned an ending cell state to all

cells in the dataset, representing the final promoter state of the cell prior to division or the end of

the cell track. Cells with a tracked duration of less than 3 hours and parents with ending cell state

durations of less than 10 hours were also excluded, to ensure the analysis only includes

sufficiently tracked cells and durable promoter states. We then collected all division events for

which the parent cell was in an ON promoter state prior to division and asked whether the

daughter cell tracks ended in an ON or OFF promoter state. We thus calculated the number of

division events that lead to no (ON/ON), unequal (ON/OFF), or concordant (OFF/OFF) daughter

silencing and then calculated the fractions of each category in the entire dataset and within each

generation. To statistically analyze the degree of discordance in *Tcf7* silencing decisions between

sister pairs by modifying Cohen's kappa statistical test for inter-rater reliability as follows:

division events were categorized as concordant (ON/ON or OFF/OFF) or discordant (ON/OFF)

between sisters. The modified Cohen's kappa coefficient, κ', was calculated as the observed

percentage of discordant events minus the percentage of discordant events expected by chance,

divided by 1 minus the percentage of discordant events expected by chance[64] (Supplementary

Table 4).

Analysis of *Tcf7*-YFP negative fractions in homozygous and heterozygous reporter cells

For analysis in Fig. 3I-J and Fig. S3K, YFP distributions were exported from FlowJo as csvs,

imported to Python, and represented as histograms. The positive and negative populations were

fit simultaneously as two gaussian distributions using the scipy.optimize.least_squares function

(scipy v1.5.2), and the gate between YFP positive and negative populations was identified as the

intersection between the gaussian curves. The silent fraction was then calculated as the sum of

the histogram below the gate divided by the sum of the entire histogram. Two-tailed unpaired t

tests between homozygous and heterozygous YFP silent fractions were performed using

scipy.stats.

Sort and adoptive transfer or *ex vivo* reculture of activated cells

Cells were cultured *ex vivo* in the presence of anti-CD3/28 (+TCR stim) and IL-2, IL-7, IL-12,

and IL-15 as described. On day 2, cells were transferred to a non-antibody-coated plate (-TCR

stim) but kept in the same cytokine environment until day 3 for sorting. For adoptive transfer

experiments only, CD8 T cells were activated directly after purifying with the Miltenyi CD8a$^+$ T

Cell Isolation Kit using 100% recommended reagent amounts, without further purifying naive

starting cells by sorting, and RetroNectin was not used during anti-CD3/anti-CD28 stimulation.

Prior to *ex vivo* activation, cells were stained with 2 or 5 µM CellTrace Violet (Invitrogen,

#C34557). For *ex vivo* reculture experiments, cells were sorted from a single CellTrace peak

representing cells that had undergone the same number of divisions over the 3 day culture period,

to ensure YFP differences were due entirely to *Tcf7* regulation differences and not cell division

differences. Cells were recultured with and without TCR stimulation and IL-12 (with IL-2, IL-7,

and IL-15 maintained except where specified), as labeled in each figure, for an additional 6-10

days. For genomics experiments, effector controls (Eff) were activated with TCR stimulation and

cytokines for 3 full days. For adoptive transfer, cells were sorted that had undergone at least 4

divisions. Cells were sorted on CellTrace Violet and *Tcf7*-YFP levels. The *Tcf7* low gate was set

using wild type non-fluorescent control cells that were stimulated identically *ex vivo.* Using this

negative gate, the top and bottom 20% of the YFP distribution were selected as *Tcf7* high and

low. Sorted cells were resuspended in PBS and transferred retro-orbitally (1 million cells

transferred per recipient) to naive CD45.1 mice. On days 1.5, 4, and 10 after adoptive transfer,

mice were euthanized, and blood, spleens, and lymph nodes were collected for flow cytometry.

Blood and lymph node processing

Blood was collected from euthanized mice by cardiac puncture. Red blood cells were lysed 2x

for 5 minutes at room temperature using 1x RBC lysis buffer (described in naive T cell

extraction), prior to proceeding with cell staining as described in Flow Cytometry Analysis.

Inguinal lymph nodes were harvested, and massaged over a 40 μm cell strainer and resuspended

for flow cytometry staining as described in Flow Cytometry Analysis.

Sample processing for RNA-seq

Cells were centrifuged at 500g for 5 minutes, resuspended in 350 μL of Trizol (Ambion), mixed

well, and frozen at -80°C for processing, starting from step 2 of the RNeasy micro kit (Qiagen,

#74004) following the manufacturer's instructions. After processing, RNA was resuspended in

RNase free water, quantified using a NanoDrop 2000c (Thermo Scientific), and shipped on dry

ice to Novogene Corporation Inc. (Sacramento, CA) for library preparation and sequencing.

Computational analysis for RNA-seq

Raw FASTQ files from RNA-seq paired-end sequencing were aligned to the GRCm38/mm10

reference genome using Kallisto (v0.46.1)[65], and the resultant transcript-level abundance

estimates were imported to genes by cells matrices using tximport (v1.18.0) for downstream

analysis. Transcripts with low counts (<10) were removed. Differentially expressed genes were

identified with DESeq2 (v1.30.1)[66]. PCA plots were generated using the top 500 differentially

expressed genes between NM and NEM samples and naive, memory, and effector controls.

Significantly differentially expressed genes were also used for gene set enrichment analysis,

performed with fgsea (v1.16.0)[67] and using gene sets from the C7 immunologic or the H

Hallmark gene-sets from Molecular Signatures Database deposited by Goldrath and Kaech.

Sample processing for ATAC-seq

After sorting, cells were centrifuged at 500g for 5 minutes then supernatant was aspirated

without disturbing the pellet. The pellets were resuspended in 100 µL of ATAC freezing buffer[68]

(50 mM Tris at pH 8.0, 25% glycerol, 5 mM Mg(OAc)$_2$, 0.1 mM EDTA, 5 mM DTT, $1\times$ protease

inhibitor cocktail (Roche-noEDTA tablet), 1:2,500 superasin (Ambion)), flash frozen in liquid

nitrogen and stored at -80°C. On the day of processing, samples were thawed, centrifuged at 4°C

500g for 5 minutes, and washed with 100 µL of cold 1X PBS. Cells were again centrifuged and

resuspended in 100 µL Omni lysis buffer[69] (RSB with 0.1% NP40, 0.1% Tween 20 and 0.01%

Digitonin) and incubated on ice for 3 minutes, then quenched with 500 mL of RSB + 0.1%

Tween 20. Nuclei were pelleted at 500g for 5 minutes at 4°C, resuspended in 100 µL cold PBS

and counted. 50,000 nuclei were used per reaction, pelleted (500g for 5 min at 4°C), resuspended

in tagmentation master mix[69] (50 µL total: 25 µL 2X TD buffer, 16.5 µL 1x DPBS, 0.5 µL 1%

Digitonin, 0.5 µL 10% Tween 20, 5 µL water, 2.5 µL Tn5 enzyme), and incubated at 55°C for

30 minutes. Samples were purified using DNA Clean and Concentrate-5 (Zymo Research) and

eluted in EB buffer (10 mM Tris) for amplification of tagmented DNA. PCR amplifications were

performed using Illumina indexed primers and NEBNext High-Fidelity 2X PCR Master Mix.

SYBR green was added to each PCR reaction to monitor amplification before it reached

saturation. Samples in this study were amplified between 11-15 cycles using recommended

conditions[70]. Unpurified products were run on a 6% TBE gel for quality control. PCR

product/library were purified using DNA Clean and Concentrate-5 (Zymo Research) then ran on

a tapestation to visualize nucleosome distribution. The libraries were normalized to 2nM then

pooled equimolar for sequencing. Pooled libraries were loaded onto a NextSeq 500 High150

cycle kit at 1.5 pM loading concentration with paired ends sequencing (read 1: 74 cycles, read 2:

74 cycles, index 1: 10 cycles, index 2: 10 cycles).

Computational analysis for ATAC-seq

Raw ATAC-seq FASTQ files from paired-end sequencing were processed and aligned to the

mm10 mouse genome using the PEPATAC (v0.10.3)[71] pipeline, which uses bowtie2[72] for

alignment. Unmapped, unpaired, and mitochondrial reads were removed. Following alignment,

peak calling, merging across all samples, and annotation was performed using HOMER

(v4.10)[73]. Differentially accessible regions were identified using DESeq2. PCA plots were

generated using the top 500 differentially accessible regions between recultured samples and

naive, memory, and effector controls. Coverage tracks were generated from bigwig read

alignment files using karyoploteR (v1.14.1).

Statistical Analysis

All analyses and p or adjusted p value significance are listed with each figure caption. Statistics

were performed in R using the rstatix package (v0.7.0) or Python using scipy (v1.5.2).

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