Primary nasal viral infection rewires the tissue-scale memory response

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ABSTRACT

The nasal mucosa is frequently the initial site of respiratory viral infection, replication, and transmission. Recent work has started to clarify the independent responses of epithelial, myeloid, and lymphoid cells to viral infection in the nasal mucosa, but their spatiotemporal coordination and relative importance remain unclear. Furthermore, understanding whether and how primary infection shapes tissue-scale memory responses to secondary challenge is critical for the rational design of nasal-targeting therapeutics and vaccines. Here, we generated a single-cell RNA-sequencing (scRNA-seq) atlas of the murine nasal mucosa sampling three distinct regions before and during primary and secondary influenza infection. Primary infection was largely restricted to respiratory mucosa and induced stepwise changes in cell type, subset, and state composition over time. Interferon (IFN)-responsive neutrophils appeared 2 days post infection (dpi) and preceded transient IFN-responsive/cycling epithelial cell responses 5 dpi, which coincided with broader antiviral monocyte and NK cell accumulation. By 8 dpi, monocyte-derived macrophages expressing *Cxcl9* and *Cxcl16* arose alongside effector cytotoxic CD8 and *Ifng*-expressing CD4 T cells. Following viral clearance (14 dpi), rare, previously undescribed *Meg3*+*MHC-II*+ epithelial cells and **K**rt13+ **n**asal **i**mmune-**i**nteracting **f**loor **e**pithelial (KNIIFE) cells expressing multiple genes with immune communication potential increased concurrently with tissue-resident memory T (T_{RM})-like cells and IgG+/IgA+ plasma cells. Proportionality analysis coupled with cell-cell communication inference underscored the CXCL16–CXCR6 signaling axis in effector CD8 T cell and T_{RM} cell formation in the nasal mucosa. Secondary influenza challenge administered 60 dpi induced an accelerated and coordinated myeloid and lymphoid response with reduced IFN-responsive epithelial activity, illustrating how tissue-scale memory to natural infection engages both myeloid and lymphoid cells without broad epithelial inflammation. Together, this atlas serves as a reference for viral infection in the upper respiratory tract and highlights the efficacy of local coordinated memory responses upon rechallenge.

INTRODUCTION

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As the primary passage to the lower airway, the nasal mucosa balances the complex roles

of olfaction, filtration and conditioning of inhaled air, and host defense. To accomplish these

diverse functions, the nose contains distinct anatomical structures, harbors a varied yet organized

cellular composition, and secretes a multitude of proteins with distinct and complementary roles

(Harkema et al., 2006). In the face of pathogens, the nasal mucosa is thought to mount a variety

of incompletely understood defense mechanisms to protect against infection and limit spread to

the lower respiratory tract (Bosch et al., 2013). Nevertheless, many respiratory pathogens

manage to infect or colonize the upper airways and disseminate into the lungs, causing millions

of cases of severe disease, hospitalizations, and deaths annually (Clark, 2020; Roth et al., 2018;

Shinya et al., 2006).

There is a growing appreciation for how the inflammatory state of nasal tissue affects

respiratory viral infection outcome. The COVID-19 pandemic has helped accelerate research to

understand the roles of interferons (IFNs) in nasal protection and disease trajectory, with studies

highlighting the importance of sample timing and location, viral burden, and strain (Bastard et al.,

2022; Kim and Shin, 2021; Park and Iwasaki, 2020; Sposito et al., 2021). Study of the human

nasopharynx during SARS-CoV-2 infection showed muted IFN-response in epithelial cells from

individuals who went on to develop severe disease when compared with mild cases (Ziegler et

al., 2021). Expression of specific IFN stimulated genes (ISGs) like *OAS1* associate with protection

from severe COVID-19 and may even drive viral mutations to overcome host protection

(Wickenhagen et al., 2021). More generally, evidence of a recent prior infection in children

receiving a live-attenuated influenza vaccine was associated with enhanced ISG signaling and

lower viral shedding (Costa-Martins et al., 2021). Collectively, this suggests that the present nasal

state, cellular composition, and antiviral signaling capacity, as informed by the cumulative history

of environmental exposures, may drive disease outcomes (Bastard et al., 2020; Habibi et al.,

2020; Ordovas-Montanes et al., 2020; Weisberg et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2020).

Following viral infection or intranasal (i.n.) vaccination, immune memory in the nasal

mucosa can provide long-term protection both systemically and at the mucosal barrier, reducing

pathology and infection burden in the lower airways and elsewhere (Johnson et al., 1986; Johnson

Jr. et al., 1985; Rutigliano et al., 2010). Local protection is afforded by both cellular and humoral

immune mechanisms. For example, CD8+ tissue-resident memory (T_{RM}) cells that form following

upper respiratory tract influenza A virus (IAV) infection correlate with enhanced protection against

heterologous IAV strain rechallenge (Pizzolla et al., 2017). Protective mucosal IgA producing

plasma cells, and antibodies capable of neutralizing virus, can be generated in the nasal mucosa

following IAV, vesicular stomatitis virus, respiratory syncytial virus, and SARS-CoV-2 infections

(Johnson Jr. et al., 1985; Liew et al., 2023; Sterlin et al., 2021; Wellford et al., 2022; Weltzin et

al., 1996). Even so, respiratory infections like IAV remain epidemic and kill up to 500,000 people

each year (Iuliano et al., 2018).

To develop protective, durable, and efficacious vaccines for respiratory viruses, we must

reach a deeper understanding of the establishment, timing, and cooperation of tissue-scale

memory following natural infection (Morens et al., 2023). Immune responses to pathogens often

occur in stepwise fashion: recognition of pathogen-associated molecular patterns by immune

and/or epithelial cells leads to cytokine production that broadly activates innate immune cells that

in turn recruit pathogen-specific effector lymphocytes, some of which will develop into circulating

and tissue-resident memory cells (Iwasaki and Medzhitov, 2015). Prior infection or vaccination,

however, has the capacity to re-order and even invert these circuits locally in the barrier tissues

that re-encounter infection (Kadoki et al., 2017; Kaufmann et al., 2018; Ols et al., 2020; Ordovas-

Montanes et al., 2020; Schenkel et al., 2014). During viral rechallenge, T_{RM} cells exhibit antiviral

effector functions and can act as sentinels that send antigen-specific inflammatory "alarms" to

local immune cells to activate multicellular anti-microbial responses at the site of infection (Ariotti

et al., 2014; McMaster et al., 2015; Schenkel et al., 2014; Steinbach et al., 2016). In mucosal

vaccination, IFN-γ produced by antigen-specific T cells is sufficient to induce increased

inflammatory cytokine production by both distal (Bosch-Camós et al., 2022; Stary et al., 2015)

and local (Yao et al., 2018) antigen presenting cells, suggesting that recruited and/or tissue-

resident cells can contribute to rapid memory responses. Similarly, antibodies can directly

neutralize virus and also orchestrate a variety of antiviral effector functions through antibody Fc-

receptor mediated binding by NK cells, macrophages, and neutrophils (Boudreau and Alter,

2019). However, most of these studies to date have focused on the role of individual cell types or

limited interactions during a memory response.

Here, we present a tissue-scale single-cell RNA-sequencing (scRNA-seq) atlas of the

murine nasal mucosa before and during primary IAV infection and secondary rechallenge. By

sampling multiple regions, timepoints, and cell lineages, we develop a compositional landscape

of the tissue and reveal how the diversity of cell subsets and states dynamically changes in

response to infection and during a memory response. Primary IAV infection induced reproducible

stepwise shifts in cell composition starting with increased IFN-responsive neutrophil subsets

followed by broader antiviral/IFN-stimulated responses in epithelial, myeloid, and lymphoid

immune cells. Next, monocyte-derived macrophages (MDMs) accumulated along with effector

CD8 and CD4 T cells. Following viral resolution, T_{RM} cells and plasma cells are established

alongside increased frequencies of rare *Meg3+MHC-II+* epithelial cells and **K**rt13+ **n**asal
immune-interacting **f**loor **e**pithelial (KNIIFE) cells expressing genes for several ligands and
receptors known to modulate immune cell activity. Learning cell cluster identity in samples
generated in memory and during IAV rechallenge, we demonstrate the applicability of our atlas to
inform newly generated data and show that the nasal memory response to IAV is accelerated and
coordinated compared to primary infection. Collectively, our spatial and temporal datasets
enumerate and characterize the diversity of cell types, states, and subsets in the murine nasal
mucosa and highlight those recruited and local cell subsets that exhibit memory and respond to
viral infection.

RESULTS

Nasal mucosa infection with influenza virus and tissue processing

We administered 10^4 plaque forming units (pfu) of IAV H1N1 strain PR8 i.n. to awake,
naïve mice in a small volume (5 µl/nostril) to restrict infection to the upper respiratory tract
(Klinkhammer et al., 2018; Pizzolla et al., 2017), and collected and processed nasal mucosa
tissue (n=3 biological samples/timepoint) by scRNA-seq at 0, 2, 5, 8, and 14 days post infection
(dpi; "primary"). Later, additional samples were collected on 60 dpi and immediately following IAV
rechallenge with sample collection 2 and 5 days post rechallenge (dprc) during the memory
response (n=3/timepoint) (**Figure 1A**).

Anatomically, the murine nasal mucosa can be divided into several distinct morphological,
histological, and functional tissue regions (Harkema et al., 2006). We mapped the cellular and
structural diversity in the naïve nasal mucosa by immunofluorescence imaging, observing broad
heterogeneity in epithelial, immune, and neural distribution throughout the tissue (**Figure 1B**).
Thus, to capture region-specific changes in cell composition and response following IAV infection,
we micro-dissected the tissue and separated into three different regions: (1) respiratory mucosa
(RM), inclusive of the nasal and maxillary turbinates, septum, and vomeronasal organ; (2)
olfactory mucosa (OM), inclusive of the ethmoid turbinates; and (3) the lateral nasal gland (LNG),
which sits underneath the RM and OM in the maxillary sinus (see **Methods**).

Single-cell spatiotemporal atlas of primary influenza infection in the nasal mucosa

Across all primary infection timepoints, regions, and replicates (n=45), we collected
156,572 single-cell transcriptomes after filtering low-quality cell barcodes and hash-annotated cell
multiplets (**Methods**). Top-level clustering on the entire primary infection dataset captured dozens
of clusters belonging to neural, epithelial, immune, and stromal (endothelial, fibroblast, and

others) cell lineages demarcated by known lineage-restricted genes (**Figures 2A and S1A**). We
captured variable numbers of each cell type, with neurons and epithelial cells making up more
than half of the dataset (**Figure S1B**). Major cell types were found to be distributed differently
across nasal regions, with enrichment of neurons, granulocytes, B cells, and hematopoietic stem
cells (HSCs) in the OM and more epithelial cells, fibroblasts, myeloid cells, and T & NK cells in
the RM (**Figures 2B and S1C**). Since we collected bone (and thus bone marrow) along with the
mucosa, the relative enrichment of specific immune cell types — including HSCs and other
immune progenitors — in the OM can likely be attributed to cells localized to bone marrow (see
Figure 1B).

Sample replicates were called by demultiplexing oligo-hashtag count tables (Li et al.,
2020) and did not exhibit strong batch effects (**Figure S1D**). While clustering and differential
expression were performed on all singlets regardless of successful hash assignment, we counted
only those cells with annotated sample replicates for downstream compositional analyses.

To delineate the diversity of cell subsets and states present in the nasal mucosa, we split
the dataset by cell type and conducted new clustering analyses, yielding 9-to-28 subclusters per
cell type for a total of 127 clusters across the dataset (**Figure S1F and Supplementary Table 1**).
By counting the number of cells assigned to each cluster in each sample replicate and normalizing
across samples, we calculated cell cluster abundances to interrogate the relationship between
samples in cell compositional space (see **Methods**). Performing principal component analysis
(PCA) on samples over cell cluster abundances, we saw strong separation by region (**Figure 2C**),
reinforcing that the nasal mucosa contains distinct regions with specific functions. Examination of
the PCA loadings revealed that LNG is defined by higher abundances of odorant binding protein
(OBP)-expressing cells, serous cells, and capillary endothelial cells (**Figure S1G**). OM has
relatively more Schwann cells, sustentacular cells (Brann et al., 2020), and olfactory sensory
neurons, while RM is enriched for vomeronasal sensory neurons, chondrocytes, and resting basal
cells. Collectively, this atlas represents a high-resolution, comprehensive view of the mouse nasal
mucosa enabling characterization of the dynamic differences in cellular composition within and
between nasal regions during infection.
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Influenza infection is largely restricted to the RM and induces reproducible changes in
cellular composition

181   While viral, immune cell, and epithelial cell dynamics following IAV infection of the lung
182   have been partially mapped (Bouvier and Lowen, 2010; Boyd et al., 2020; Manicassamy et al.,
183   2010; Matsuoka et al., 2009; Steuerman et al., 2018), responses in the nasal mucosa are less

studied. Viral titers of entire nasal mucosa showed robust infection 2 dpi that waned through 8 dpi and was completely cleared by 14 dpi (**Figure 2D**), while data from lungs showed sporadic spread of virus from the nasal mucosa only occurring between 5 and 8 dpi (**Figure S2A**). Aligning to a joint IAV and mouse genome, we also captured viral transcripts by scRNA-seq and thus could identify which cells may have been infected or contained virus. Individual genes like NP and HA were detected most strongly in epithelial and myeloid cells (**Figure S2B**). We calculated a summative IAV unique molecular identifier (UMI) count for every single cell to assess "positivity" for IAV (**Figure 2E**). Infected cells producing large amounts of virus may not survive tissue dissociation and processing, leading to lower-than-expected numbers of IAV+ cells. Looking across time points and regions in epithelial and myeloid cells, we captured low, but reproducible numbers of IAV+ cells 2, 5, and 8 dpi in the RM, but no positive cells in the OM, and only at 5 dpi in the LNG (**Figures S2C-D**).

Staining for IAV NS2 and 5 dpi confirmed that infection was largely restricted to epithelial cells in the RM (**Figures 2F and S2E**) and is consistent with expression of binding receptors marked by α2,3-linked sialic acid in mucous producing cells (Ibricevic et al., 2006). We performed qPCR of total RM to validate an early response to infection and found robust upregulation of type I and III IFNs 2 dpi, with even higher expression 5 dpi despite relatively lower viral titers (**Figure S2G**). As expected, *Ifng* expression exhibited delayed kinetics peaking 8 dpi.

To understand how infection remodels each nasal region, we applied PCA to the sample replicates within each region. In OM, 5 and 14 dpi samples separated from each other and the other time points (**Figure S2H**). In LNG, only 14 dpi samples separated from the rest (**Figure S2I**). Comparatively, PCA of RM samples showed clear separation between all timepoints in chronological order across the first two PCs (**Figure 2G**) suggesting dynamic and linked responses occur over the course of infection in this region. PCA loadings from RM highlight a shift in composition from resting basal cells, fibroblasts, and ciliated cells in naïve mice and 2 dpi to diverse activated myeloid and lymphoid clusters 5 and 8 dpi that gave way to specific goblet/secretory cells, T_{RM}-like cells, and mature myeloid cells following viral resolution 14 dpi (**Figure 2H**). Even though virus had been cleared by 14 dpi, we note that all three nasal regions reached compositions distinct from naïve mice at this timepoint.

Cataloging the epithelial subsets and states present in the murine nasal mucosa at baseline and throughout infection

Cellular diversity of the nasal epithelium

Having acquired high-level knowledge of how IAV infection broadly impacts the nasal
mucosa, we next sought to understand the variety of epithelial cells present across the tissue and
how they respond during infection as the main target of infection. Subclustering on all epithelial
cells yielded 28 clusters encompassing diverse differentiation states and functions (**Figures 3A**
and S3A). We categorized these clusters into broader subsets including basal (*Krt5, Krt14*),
ciliated (*Foxj1, Dnah5*), serous (*Ltf, Ccl9*), glandular (*Bpifb9b, Odam*), goblet/secretory (*Reg3g,*
Selenom, Scgb1c1, and mucin-encoding genes), ionocyte (*Cftr, Coch*), tuft (*Trpm5, Il25*), and
sustentacular cells (*Sec14l3, Cyp2g1*) (**Figure 3B**). In addition to known subsets, we also
identified unique clusters of epithelial cells potentially specific to the nasal mucosa and present in
naïve mice and throughout primary infection that separated distinctly in UMAP space: *Scgb-*
b27+Cck+, *Klk1+Fxyd2+*, *Meg3+MHC-II+*, and *Krt13+Il1a+* cells. Epithelial clusters were
differentially distributed across regions (**Figure 3C**): recently described nasal tuft cells, ionocytes,
and *Dclk1+* cells (Ualiyeva et al., 2022), as well as olfactory sensory neuron supportive
sustentacular cells (Brann et al., 2020), were enriched in OM, whereas serous and glandular cells
were specific to LNG.
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Cycling and IFN-responsive epithelial cells arise in the RM during infection
To understand the impact of IAV infection on the nasal epithelial compartment, we first
determined which clusters harbored viral reads. Looking at the distribution of IAV UMIs across all
epithelial clusters, we found that IAV+ cells were most prevalent in the IFN-stimulated cluster
followed by cycling basal and ciliated cells (**Figure S3B**). The IFN-stimulated cluster, largely
restricted to the RM, exhibited high levels of *Krt5*, a basal cell marker, but also *Cxcl17*, which in
our dataset is expressed at steady state in serous cells in the LNG and some goblet/secretory
subsets. While infection was well-established at 2 dpi, we were surprised to see that IFN-
stimulated epithelial cells only arose starting at 5 dpi and made up ~20% of all RM epithelial cells
5 and 8 dpi (**Figure 3D**). We cannot rule out that the lack of IFN-responsive cells 2 dpi may have
been from loss of infected cells during processing, but host silencing mechanisms by IAV itself
may have contributed as well (Kochs et al., 2007). Comparing cells within the IFN-stimulated
cluster by presence of IAV transcripts, we found relatively higher levels of ISGs but lower
expression of transcription factors *Atf3*, *Egr1*, and *Junb* in IAV+ cells (**Figure S3C**), suggesting
dysregulation of epithelial cell state.
Cycling basal cells demonstrated a similar transient increase in abundance, peaking 5 dpi
(**Figure 3E**). Interestingly, differential expression across timepoints revealed many ISGs were
upregulated in these cells 5 dpi (**Figure S3D**). Given recent work demonstrating that the epithelial

IFN-response can impede proliferation and tissue repair in the lower airway (Broggi et al., 2020;
Major et al., 2020), we leveraged our single-cell resolution to assess if individual nasal basal cells
co-express pathways for cell cycle and IFN-response. Gene set analysis confirmed significant
enrichment for both cell cycle and IFN-response pathways in cycling basal cells. Additionally, a
largely mutually exclusive apoptosis pathway was also significant (**Figures S3E-F**). Pathway
module scoring showed that while the IFNα response score changed over time, the G2M
Checkpoint score was equally distributed across time points and independent of IFNα response
(**Figure 3F**). Thus, unlike their lower respiratory tract counterparts, nasal cycling basal cells
proliferate during primary infection and may concurrently support ISG expression alongside non-
proliferative IFN-stimulated basal cells.

Rare unique epithelial cell subsets with lymphoid and myeloid communication potential
accumulate following viral clearance

Looking at the compositional PCA, RM samples from 14 dpi separated from other
timepoints (**Figure 2F**). Among epithelial cells, two clusters, *Emp1+Ccdc3+* basal cells and
Gp2+Lyz2+ goblet/secretory cells, accumulated to 9-12% of all epithelial cells following viral
clearance by 14 dpi (**Figure S3G**). In addition to *Gp2* and *Lyz2*, the goblet/secretory subset was
also enriched for *Il33*, *Muc1*, *Isg20*, and *Cd14* suggesting a potential shift in the epithelium toward
an antibacterial state. Additionally, two rare and transcriptionally distinct subsets of epithelial cells
(*Meg3*+MHC-II+ and *Krt13*+*Il1a*+), each only making up ~1% of all RM epithelial cells prior to viral
clearance, accumulated at 14 dpi (p=0.032 and p=0.067, respectively). The *Meg3*+MHC-II+
subset expressed high levels of maternally imprinted Meg genes (*Meg3*, *Rian*) alongside *Cd74*,
H2 class II genes, *Wnt5a*, *Cxcl12*, and *Ccl25* (**Figure 3G**). They also uniquely expressed *Fezf2*,
a transcription factor studied in the context of thymic self-antigen expression and immune
tolerance induction by thymic epithelial cells (Takaba et al., 2015), but not *Aire,* which is necessary
in the thymus for presentation of autoantigens. Whether these cells can promote tolerance in the
upper respiratory tract, similar to their thymic counterparts, remains to be determined.

The *Krt13*+*Il1a*+ subset uniquely expressed *Krt13* (93.8% expressing within cluster vs
0.6% expressing in other clusters), a keratin previously described on "hillock" cells in the trachea
with undetermined functions (Montoro et al., 2018). These nasal cells exhibited several of the
markers specific to tracheal hillock cells including *Lgals3*, *Ecm1,* and *Anxa1* but were not enriched
for *Cldn3* or club cell marker *Scgb1a1*. Unlike hillock cells, this nasal subset expressed genes for
several secreted and membrane bound immune cell regulatory factors including *Il1a*, *Tnf*, *Cd274*
(PD-L1), *Ifngr2*, and *Cxcl16* as well as secretory proteins like *Defb1*, *Muc4*, and *Muc1* (**Figure**

3H). Given the potential for these *Krt13*+ cells to communicate with immune cells, we stained the

mucosa for Krt13 to understand their distribution throughout the nasal cavity. We found the

strongest signal for Krt13 along the nasal floor in the anterior RM (**Figure 3I**) and more distally

where the nasal mucosa meets the oral mucosa (**Figure S3H**). Comparing samples from naïve

mice and 14 dpi, we saw increased Krt13 staining and colocalization with PD-L1 in the post-

infection samples (**Figure 3J**). Thus, following resolution of IAV infection, rare subsets of nasal

epithelial cells with immune communication potential accumulate in the RM.

Neutrophils mature and activate in the RM immediately following IAV infection

Neutrophil accumulation in IAV infected lung has largely been associated with severe

disease and poor prognosis (Brandes et al., 2013; Johansson and Kirsebom, 2021; Tang et al.,

2019), but their role in the nasal viral infection is unknown. Given recent work showing a

relationship between neutrophil activation in the nose prior to RSV infection and symptom

occurrence (Habibi et al., 2020), and intrigued by the large number of neutrophils and mast cells

captured across the nasal mucosa (n=7,987), we investigated the transcriptional programs and

change in frequency of granulocytes in the nasal mucosa. Subclustering and UMAP embedding

revealed a continuum of granulocyte development starting with granulocyte-myeloid precursor

like cells (*Elane, Mpo)*, differentiating through immature states (*Camp, Mmp8, Retnlg*), and ending

with several clusters of mature neutrophils (*Il1b, H2-D1, Siglecf*) (**Figures 4A and S4A**). Mast

cells expressing *Il6*, *Gata2*, and *Il4* were also detected in small numbers. Most neutrophils

originated from OM samples (**Figures 2C and S4B**) and are likely present in high numbers in the

bone marrow. Pseudotime analysis across both the OM and RM recapitulated known maturation

gene expression patterns in the blood (Grieshaber-Bouyer et al., 2021) and systemically (Xie et

al., 2020) (**Figures 4B and S4C**), suggesting that precursors and immature neutrophils in OM

bone marrow may give rise to activated and mature subsets in the RM.

By 2 dpi, neutrophil composition in the RM transitioned into mature IFN-stimulated and

MHC-I-Hi states alongside an antimicrobial immature subset near the end of the pseudotime

development trajectory (**Figure 4C**). The accumulation of these neutrophil clusters is one of the

earliest changes in the RM following infection and may make up some of the earliest responses

to local IFN, with epithelial IFN-Stim responses in either infected or uninfected cells not arising

until 5 dpi. Interestingly, the OM exhibited increased frequencies of mast cells, progenitors, and

cycling immature granulocytes in 2-of-3 mice at 5 dpi, likely within bone marrow, indicating IAV

infection may induce changes to nearby hematopoiesis (**Figure S4D**). Thus, neutrophil activation

and maturation mark the earliest detectable responses using our sampling strategy in the nasal

mucosa to IAV infection.

Recruited monocytes and monocyte-derived macrophages constitute the myeloid effector

response to IAV

Next, we explored heterogeneity among non-granulocyte myeloid cells (**Figure 4D and**

S5A) — i.e., macrophages, monocytes, and dendritic cells (DCs). We captured a spectrum of

macrophage (*Cd74, C1qb, Ccl4*) clusters including a putative tissue-repair subset expressing

Trem2, Fcrls, and *Il1a*, an innate immune recruiting subset expressing *Ccl7, Ccl8,* and *Pf4*

(CXCL4), and a small cluster of osteoclasts (*Ctsk, Mmp9*). Monocytes clustered into classical

(*Ly6c2, Ccr2, Chil3*) and non-classical (*Ace*, *Ear2, Itgal*) subsets (Jung et al., 2022) alongside

IFN-stimulated monocytes and monocyte-derived macrophages (MDMs). DCs separated into

distinct clusters including Langerhans-like (*Epcam, Ccl17, Ccl22*), intraepithelial (*Cd103, Xcr1,*

Tlr3), migratory (*Ccr7, Ccl22, Cd274)*, and a subset uniquely expressing *Cd209a* (DC-SIGN),

Tnfsf9 (4-1BB), and *Klrd1*. We also captured plasmacytoid DCs (*Siglech, Irf8*; pDCs). Most

myeloid clusters were present in all nasal regions with some exceptions like the IFN-stimulated

monocytes and MDMs, which were restricted to the RM (**Figure S5B**).

While non-existent at baseline, upward of 30-40% of all myeloid cells belonged to these

antiviral monocyte and MDM clusters 5 and 8 dpi, respectively (**Figure 4E**). The appearance and

accumulation of monocytes and MDMs is concordant with lower frequencies of several tissue

macrophage clusters, likely reflecting an overall increase in the total number of myeloid cells in

the tissue as monocytes infiltrate from circulation. To understand the difference between the IFN-

stimulated monocytes and MDMs, we performed differential expression analysis between clusters

(**Figure 4F**). While the monocyte cluster had higher ISG expression than the MDM cluster, the

MDMs still had relatively high ISG expression when compared with resting tissue macrophages.

Notably, IFN-stimulated MDMs expressed higher levels of *Cxcl9* and *Cxcl16*, whose receptors

(CXCR3 and CXCR6, respectively) have been implicated in T_{RM} cell development in the lung

(Slütter et al., 2013; Wein et al., 2019). This cluster also had the largest number of IAV+ cells of

all myeloid cells (**Figure S5C**). Bystander analysis showed higher ISG expression in IAV+ myeloid

cells, like IAV+ epithelial cells (**Figure S5D**). However, IAV+ MDMs also had lower expression of

MHC-II genes and inflammatory cytokine genes *Ccl6* and *Cxcl9* suggesting reduced antigen

presentation and inflammatory signaling capacity, consistent with prior research in the lung

showing IAV suppresses myeloid cell activation and maturation (Moriyama et al., 2016; Zhang et

al., 2022a).

The rapid shift in the myeloid compartment from IFN-stimulated monocytes at 5 dpi to a

predominance of IFN-stimulated MDMs 3 days later (**Figure 4E**) suggested that recruited

monocytes differentiated into MDMs within the RM during this interval. To test this idea, we treated

mice daily with an anti-CCR2 antibody (Mack et al., 2001) to deplete circulating monocytes from

3 to 5 dpi (**Figure S5E**). We stained for differentiating monocytes in the nasal mucosa by flow

cytometry using MHC-II, CD11c, F4/80, CD64, and an intravascular CD45 stain to separate cells

that had extravasated into the tissue from those in circulation (**Figure S5F**). Ly6C+ and Ly6C++

cells represent recently recruited monocytes with and without patrolling function; expression of

MHC-II, in addition to F4/80 and CD64, by monocytes reflects differentiation into MDMs.

Treatment with anti-CCR2 antibody reduced frequencies of Ly6C+ monocytes overall. Moreover,

the proportion and number of differentiated Ly6C++ and Ly6C+ cells (i.e., MDMs) were

considerably lower, suggesting monocytes recruited after 7 dpi had not yet differentiated (**Figures**

4G and S5G). Together, these data show that IAV infection induces a large recruitment of antiviral

monocytes 5 dpi that differentiate into MDMs by 8 dpi in the RM.

Antiviral NK cell responses precede transient effector T cells that are replaced by durable

T$_{RM}$ cells following viral clearance

Following the accumulation of inflammatory and chemokine secreting monocytes and

MDMs at 5 and 8 dpi, we anticipated a strong lymphocyte response during IAV infection. Thus,

we next further investigated NK and T cells, the latter of which have been shown to be essential

in clearing IAV infection in the lungs (Hufford et al., 2015) and nasal mucosa (Pizzolla et al., 2017).

Subclustering revealed NK cell subsets (*Klrb1c, Ncr1*), type 2 (*Areg, Il13*) and type 3 (*Il22, Rorc*)

innate lymphoid cells (ILC), γδT cells (*Trdc, Cd163l1*), and a spectrum of αβT cell subsets and

states including naïve/central memory CD8 (*Ccr7, Dapl1*), effector CD8 (*Gzmb, Gzmk*), T$_{RM}$-like

CD8 cells (*Itgae* [CD103]), resting CD4 (*Cd4, Tnfrsf4* [OX40]), Th1 CD4 (*Ifng, Cd200*), Th17

(*Cd40lg, Il17a*), and a cluster of Helios (*Ikzf2*) expressing cells (**Figures 5A and S6A**). Most T

and NK cell clusters were enriched or restricted to the RM, but *Ccr7*+ CD8 T cells, ILCs, and γδT

cells were also found in the OM and LNG (**Figure S6B**).

Looking at T and NK cell frequencies, we found that IFN-stimulated T and NK cells

accumulated 5 dpi alongside cytotoxic NK cells that remained elevated through 8 dpi (**Figure**

S6C). By 8 dpi, the T and NK cell compartment completely shifted towards effector antiviral T cell

subsets, with high abundances of *Gzmk*+ CD8, Th1-like *Ifng*+*Cd200*+ CD4, cycling, and Helios+

T cell clusters (**Figure 5B**). These effector responses were short-lived, however, and were

followed by increased frequencies of T$_{RM}$ cells and resting CD4 T cells (**Figure 5C**). Notably, while

detectable infection was largely restricted to the RM, T_{RM} cells also increased in OM and LNG 14

dpi (**Figure S6D**), supporting the notion that even low levels of infection can result in T_{RM}

accumulation and development (Jiang et al., 2012).

To contextualize the T_{RM}-like cells that arise following IAV clearance, we examined two

recently published signatures separating resident memory from central/circulating memory. A

universal T_{RM} gene score (Milner et al., 2017) reasonably separated our T_{RM} cluster from effector

and naïve/memory CD8 T cells, but IFN-stimulated T cells also scored highly (**Figure 5D**).

Conversely, the T_{RM}-like cells also scored low for the associated circulating memory gene score,

while naïve/memory CD8 T cells scored highest (**Figure S6E**). Closer inspection of known

resident memory and central memory markers and transcription factors (Crowl et al., 2022)

confirmed restriction of *CD103* (*Itgae*) expression to our T_{RM} cluster, but *Cd69* was only highly

expressed in IFN-stimulated cells. *Runx3* was also most highly expressed in T_{RM}-like cells but

also at lower levels in effector CD8 T cells. The *Cd103*+ CD8 cluster lacked the known

naïve/central memory transcription factors *Klf2* and *Tcf7* (**Figure 5E**). In summary, effector T cell

responses in the RM 8 dpi are replaced by T_{RM}-like cells across all nasal mucosa regions following

viral clearance.

Plasma cells populate throughout the NM following viral clearance

Following IAV infection, local mucosal plasma cells and activated B cells produce and

secrete neutralizing soluble IgA into the airways (Rossen et al., 1970; Wellford et al., 2022; Woof

and Mestecky, 2005). In the lungs, resident memory B cells form after primary infection and can

be recruited upon secondary challenge to produce additional antibodies (MacLean et al., 2022),

suggesting infection can lead to long term changes in both local and distal B cell subsets.

Clustering of B cells in the nasal mucosa (**Figures S7A-B**) revealed mature subsets (*Ighd, Cd74*),

plasma cells (*Mki67, Ighg2b, Igha*), lambda-chain-high expressing cells (*Iglc1, Iglc2*), nucleoside

diphosphate kinase (NME) expressing cells (*Nme1*, *Nme2*) and, primarily in OM, developing

subsets including pro-B (*Dntt, Vpreb1, Rag1*), pre-B (*Bub1b, Mki67, Sox4*), and immature B cells

(*Ms4a1, Ifi30*). The preponderance of precursor and developing B cell subsets in OM likely reflects

bone marrow cells, whereas IgG+/IgA+ plasma cells were found at highest frequency within LNG

tissue, but class-switched B cells were also detectable in RM and OM (**Figure S7C**).

Looking at changes in cluster frequency over the course of IAV infection, we found that

pro-B and pre-B cells collectively comprised up to 80-90% of all B cells in the OM 5 dpi increasing

from 5-15% at baseline, suggesting that IAV infection may induce local B cell proliferation and

differentiation in the bone marrow following infection and/or egress of mature B cells from this

region (**Figure S7D**). This increase in B cell precursor frequency in OM 5 dpi paralleled that of

granulocyte precursors (**Figure S4D**), supporting the notion of the activation of nasal bone

marrow. By 14 dpi, IgG+/IgA+ plasma cells were reliably detected in the RM in all three replicate

samples. However, plasma cell recovery was more variable in OM and LNG samples, which could

be due to biological variability and/or inconsistent cell capture. Indeed, imaging of the RM and

LNG at 30 dpi confirmed increased IgA+ cells in both regions when compared with naïve mice,

with the largest number of IgA-expressing cells localizing to the LNG (**Figure S7E**). Thus, B cells

may undergo proliferative development during acute IAV infection and plasma cells accumulate

in the RM and LNG following clearance.

Proportionality guided cell-cell communication analysis highlights the CXCL16-CXCR6

signaling axis in effector and memory T cell responses

To understand how compositional changes in the tissue during primary infection may be

coordinated across multiple cell subsets, we next characterized relationships between pairs of

cell clusters over time using our compositional data. We employed proportionality analysis (Lovell

et al., 2015), an alternative to correlation that avoids intra-sample abundance dependence

present in compositional data (Quinn et al., 2018), to find cell clusters with significantly similar

abundance trajectories (see **Methods**). Given that the RM was the major site of infection and

showed temporally structured changes in cell composition over time (**Figure 2G and H**), we

applied our proportionality analysis to all samples from this region. We discovered a highly

structured proportionality landscape with 101 significantly proportional cluster pairs (FDR < 0.05)

(**Figures 6A and S8A**). To understand coordination among larger groups of cell clusters, we built

a network of all significantly proportional cluster pairs (**Figure S8B**). The network revealed larger

groups of proportional responses made up of clusters from several different cell types and smaller

and single-pair groups with 1-2 contributing cell types. Next, to further characterize the

coordination among immune cells and between immune and epithelial cells, we investigated

subsets of clusters with high proportionalities by cell-cell communication analysis.

IFN-stimulated MDMs – Gzmk+ CD8 T cells – Ifng+Cd200+ CD4 T cells

The strongest proportionality was observed among highly networked IFN-stimulated

clusters and effector T cell clusters (**Figure 6B**). Given the strong myeloid and T cell responses

8 dpi and the possibility that activated MDMs may function as APCs within the nasal mucosa, we

focused on the relationship between the IFN-stimulated MDM, *Gzmk+* CD8 T cell, and

Ifng+Cd200+ CD4 T cell clusters. Plotting abundance values confirmed overlapping trajectories

of these three clusters with transient accumulation starting 5 dpi, peaking at 8 dpi, and waning by

14 dpi (**Figure 6C**). We next assessed cell-cell communication potential using NICHES, an

approach that finds single-cell pairs with multiplicative high expression of known interacting

ligands and receptors (Raredon et al., 2023). Differential ligand-receptor expression between

groups of cell-pairs was then used to identify interactions specific to pairs of clusters (see

Methods and Supplementary Table 2). Applied to cells from these three clusters at 8 dpi, we

found several predicted interactions between the MDM cluster and both effector T cell clusters

including *Cd274–Pdcd1* (PD-L1–PD-1), *Cd86–Ctla4*, and *Cxcl16–Cxcr6* (**Figure 6D**).

Cd103+ DCs – Dusp2+Icam1+ mature neutrophils – Gp2+Lyz2+ goblet/secretory cells

The second largest networked group included various myeloid, granulocyte, and epithelial

cell clusters. Intrigued by the inclusion of the late arising Gp2+Lyz2+ goblet/secretory cell cluster

(**Figure S3G**), we took a closer look at this cluster and the two clusters most proportional with it:

Cd103+ DCs and *Dusp2+Icam1*+ mature neutrophils. Plotting cluster abundances confirmed that

all three clusters peaked following viral clearance 14 dpi (**Figure S8C**). Closer inspection of

differentially expressed ligand-receptor pairs revealed potential pro-inflammatory signaling by

Gp2+Lyz2+ Gob/Sec cells to mature neutrophils via *Sftpd–Sirpa*, which blocks Cd47 binding

(Gardai et al., 2003), *Cirbp–Trem1* which has been shown to occur in sepsis (Denning et al.,

2020), and *Tgfb2–Tgfbr1*. DC–neutrophil interactions included *Ccl2–Ccr1* and *Il18–Il18rap*

suggesting mutual immune recruitment/homeostasis (**Figure S8D**). These interactions suggest

that late arising *Gp2+Lyz2*+ goblet/secretory cells may recruit and regulate *Cd103*+ DCs and

mature neutrophils in the RM following viral clearance.

Krt13+Il1a+ epithelial cells express Cxcl16 and increase when T_{RM}-like cells accumulate

Like IFN-stim MDMs producing *Cxcl16* 8 dpi in concert with abundant *Cxcr6* expressing

effector CD8 and CD4 T cells, the late arising *Krt13+Il1a*+ epithelial cell subset expressed *Cxcl16*

alongside increasing frequencies of *Cxcr6*+ T_{RM} and CD4 T cells 14 dpi (**Figures 6E-F**). Although

not significantly proportional over all time points (ρ = 0.53, 0.32, 0.77), we applied cell-cell

communication analysis to cells from 14 dpi in these three clusters given the role of CXCL16–

CXCR6 signaling in T_{RM} localization in the lower airways (Morgan et al., 2008; Wein et al., 2019).

In addition to discovering the *Cxcl16-Cxcr6* interaction, the analysis also captured additional

interactions like *Cd274–Pdcd1*, *Timp2–Itgb1*, *Il18–Cd48*, *Alcam–Cd6*, and *Il16–Cd9* (**Figure 6G**).

RNAscope of the nasal floor 14 dpi confirmed expression of *Cd274* (PD-L1) and *Cxcl16* by *Krt13*+

cells in the vicinity of cells expressing *Cxcr6* (**Figures S8E and 6H**). Considering the

transcriptional programming and localization of these cells, we propose the name *Krt13*+ **n**asal
immune-**i**nteracting **f**loor **e**pithelial (KNIIFE) cells. Notably, KNIIFE cells are a fraction of many
cells on the nasal floor expressing *Cxcl16* at 14 dpi, suggesting that this region of the nasal
mucosa may be important in instructing T_{RM} cells following viral clearance and/or tissue damage.
In summary, proportionality analysis coupled with cell-cell communication approaches
reveal temporally synced cell cluster abundance changes over the course of primary infection and
highlight potential cell-cell interactions contributing to T cell function and residual inflammation
following viral clearance.
496
Learning the cellular composition of new scRNA-seq datasets of the nasal mucosa
To assess the ability of our primary IAV infection atlas to contextualize and analyze new
scRNA-seq data generated from murine nasal mucosa, we utilized the replicate structure of our
dataset to test label transfer methods. Separating one RM replicate from each timepoint as a
query set, we compared Seurat's built-in weighted nearest neighbors method (Hao et al., 2021)
to the generative model approach used in single-cell Annotation using Variational Inference
(scANVI) (Xu et al., 2021). First trying cluster annotation on the entire RM query dataset, we found
poor accuracy in assigning correct cluster identity in both methods and several clusters were
completely lost in the predicted annotations (**Figure S9A**). Since the primary infection atlas
clusters were found following multiple rounds of clustering, we next applied the same stepwise
approach for label transfer: assign a cell type label and then split into cell types for cluster label
predictions (**Figure 7A**). Using this stepwise approach, we correctly labeled 99.66% cell types
using Seurat and 99.27% using scANVI (**Figure S9B**). Cluster identity calling, however, was more
accurate in Seurat with 89.11-95.19% of cells correctly annotated across cell types, whereas
scANVI had 69.33-92.31% properly labeled (**Figure S9C**). Moving forward with Seurat given its
superior predictions in this use case, we next validated the output by calculating cell cluster
abundances using the predicted cell cluster labels and projecting these "query" replicates into the
primary infection RM compositional PCA. Remarkably, the query replicates aligned very closely
to their real sample replicate counterparts in compositional space (**Figure S9D**). Thus, we
validated a label transfer approach to learn cell cluster identities and cellular composition of new
scRNA-seq data using our primary infection atlas as a reference.
518
IAV rechallenge is characterized by accelerated and concurrent myeloid and lymphocyte
memory responses

Having developed a tissue-scale response timeline of acute IAV infection in the nasal
mucosa, we next asked how a memory response differs from primary infection on cluster and
compositional levels. Thus, we applied our label transfer approach — using the primary infection
data as a reference — to new RM samples harvested from mice 60 dpi and 2- and 5-days post
rechallenge (dprc) with the same strain of IAV (**Figures 1A and 7A**). All cell types present in the
primary infection dataset were captured in the rechallenge samples (**Figure 7B**) and UMAP
projection showed strong overlap between the datasets (**Figure S10A**). Plaque assays detected
infectious virus in 1-of-5 mice in nasal mucosa, and in 0-of-6 mice in lung upon rechallenge,
suggesting immediate control of infection or baseline resistance (**Figure S10B**). If protection was
completely neutralizing antibody mediated, however, we would not expect to see large changes
in tissue composition. Surprisingly, despite this viral rechallenge paradigm with a matched strain
leading to barely any infectious viral shedding, we measured increased proportions of
granulocytes, T & NK cells, and B cells following rechallenge that were concordant with relatively
reduced proportions of epithelial, endothelial, and stromal cells, indicating immune cell
accumulation in the tissue (**Figures 7C and S10C**).

Following annotation, we compared changes in cluster abundance over time between the
primary and secondary responses to IAV infection (**Figures 7D and S10D**). Like primary infection,
IFN-Stim and MHC-I-Hi neutrophil subsets accumulated immediately and maintained elevated
levels through 5 dprc. Interestingly, IFN-stimulated MDMs rapidly accumulated while monocytes
only slightly increased. Given the total proportion of myeloid cells in the dataset was similar
between 60 dpi, 2 dprc, and 5 dprc, these data suggest that MDMs already inside the RM prior to
rechallenge quickly responded. Effector Th1 CD4 T cells were also elevated 2 dprc, but effector
CD8 T and T$_{RM}$ cells were slower to accumulate. Interestingly, plasma cell abundances, though
variable, remained at similar levels between 60 dpi and 2 dprc; however, these abundances
decreased 5 dprc, concurrent with an overall reduction in B cell proportion. Cycling basal cells
showed no change in abundance following rechallenge, and the increase in IFN-responsive
epithelial cells was stunted. Notably, both the *Meg3*+*MHC-II*+ subset and KNIIFE cells that arose
following viral clearance in primary infection remained at low levels throughout rechallenge. While
we do not yet understand whether their roles may be restricted to resolving primary infection,
there may be a necessary inflammation threshold for their expansion, or they may take longer to
increase in frequency than the relatively early sampling timepoints post re-challenge.

To understand if the quality of antiviral effector responses changed between primary and
secondary infection, we performed differential expression analysis within cell clusters (**Figure 7E**
and Supplementary Table 3). Compared to 8 dpi, *Gzmk*+ CD8 T cells at 5dprc exhibited reduced

expression of cytotoxic and activation genes, but higher levels of cell survival genes *Birc5* and

Selenoh, and histone *H2afv*, suggesting induction of epigenetic modifications. T_{RM} cells had lost

some activation surface markers by 60 dpi; however, following rechallenge they showed similar

expression profiles to those that appeared 14 dpi. Interestingly, expression of *Cd103* and *Gzma*

were highest 5 dprc. *Ifng+Cd200+* CD4 T cells may become more prone to cell death during a

memory response, with loss of *Mapkapk2*, *Bcl2l1*, and *Cd200*. However, they expressed higher

levels of *Itga1*, which has been shown to mark a subset of CD4 T cells that rapidly secrete IFN-γ

in the airways following IAV infection (Chapman and Topham, 2010). IFN-stimulated MDMs at 2

dprc compared to 8 dpi had lower expression of ISGs, *Ccl4*, and *Fcgr1*, but higher levels of

Tnfaip2, *Atp5k*, and ribosomal protein coding genes.

While changes in abundance or gene expression on an individual cell subset/state level

highlight specific differences between primary and secondary responses, we sought to

understand how the collective RM tissue-scale response differs. To contextualize on the

compositional level, we projected the memory and rechallenge sample replicates into the

previously derived compositional PC space for RM in primary infection (**Figure 7F**). The RM 60

dpi samples were separated from naïve samples and most resembled 2 dpi, suggesting that even

though IAV was cleared by 14 dpi, the nasal mucosa sustained significant changes in

composition. The first memory timepoint 2 dprc recapitulated the variance described by PC1, but

there was no significant shift along PC2 unlike in primary infection, suggesting increases in

effector immune responses but not broad antiviral activation across all cell types like those seen

5 dpi (i.e., IFN-Stim cluster) (**Figure 2G**). Notably, by 5 dprc, the tissue had almost returned to

"memory baseline" at 60 dpi in PC-space, indicating that responses had already largely resolved.

In case projection obscured important variation between the primary and secondary samples, we

also re-ran PCA with abundances from all timepoints and found that the first two PCs were

remarkably similar (**Figure S10E**). PC3 captured the differences between datasets, with specific

epithelial cell subsets higher in primary infection and chondrocytes, plasma cells, and T_{RM} cells

enriched in samples during and after rechallenge (**Figure S10F**).

To quantify the overall difference between timepoints, we calculated compositional

distances between all pairs of sample replicates (**Figure S10G**). In primary infection, RM

increasingly separated from the naïve state up through 8 dpi but then became closer as infection

is resolved (**Figure 7G**). Corroborating the PCA, the nasal mucosa 60 dpi was still distinct from

its naïve state. Upon rechallenge, RM also separated from 60 dpi; however, the extent of that

difference (MD=3.50) was less than between naïve and 5 dpi (MD=5.37) and 8 dpi (MD=6.67)

indicating that the memory response was more succinct (**Figure 7H**). Comparing primary infection

timepoints with peak memory response, each primary infection timepoint was similarly distinct

from 2 dprc, suggesting that prior infection rewired the RM response to IAV infection (**Figure 7I**).

Summarizing the primary and secondary responses to infection described here, we present a

timeline of the key immune and epithelial cell responses during IAV infection and rechallenge

illustrating that many of the stepwise changes seen in primary infection occur in a more

coordinated and accelerated fashion (**Figure 7J**).

DISCUSSION

Here, we present a longitudinal, multi-region, scRNA-seq atlas of the murine nasal

mucosa during primary and secondary IAV infection. Cataloguing the distribution and temporal

dynamics of the diverse cell types, subsets, and states present, we develop and apply a

compositional framework to understand tissue-scale changes occurring throughout primary and

memory responses to viral infection. Neutrophil activation responses following infection precede

broader IFN-stimulated responses in epithelial, myeloid, and lymphoid cells. By 8 dpi, effector

CD8 and CD4 T cell subsets accumulate alongside recently differentiated MDMs. Following viral

clearance at 14 dpi, T_{RM}-like cells and IgG+/IgA+ plasma cells appear in the nasal mucosa, which

has achieved distinct cellular composition from the naïve state with these adaptive immune

subsets being sustained until 60 dpi. Careful investigation of the epithelial cell compartment also

revealed rare, previously undescribed subsets, including KNIIFE cells. We validate and localize

the presence of these cells, provide evidence for their interaction with *Cxcr6*-expressing

lymphocytes, and show co-expression of *Krt13*, *Cd274* (PD-L1), and *Cxcl16* on the nasal floor

following viral clearance. Even using the same viral strain, which was effectively controlled to limit

almost any detectable viral replication, our use case of the primary infection atlas to understand

secondary infection shows that rechallenge induces surprisingly widespread yet coordinated and

accelerated changes to cellular composition. In particular, we identify accelerated neutrophil,

macrophage, and T cell responses in memory with a reduced burden on epithelial cells to express

the joint interferon and proliferative response programs of primary infection.

Comprehensively understanding airway mucosal immunity has become an urgent unmet

need in the face of emerging and recurring respiratory pathogens (Lavelle and Ward, 2022;

Morens et al., 2023; Roth et al., 2018; Russell et al., 2020). In particular, the nasal mucosa is at

the forefront of mammalian host responses to airborne pathogens and functions as both an entry

site and the primary barrier for infections of the respiratory tract. Consequently, the nasal mucosa

is thought to be the site of initial engagement of respiratory viruses to generate both local T cell

memory (Pizzolla et al., 2017) and neutralizing antibodies (Liew et al., 2023; Sterlin et al., 2021;

Wellford et al., 2022; Weltzin et al., 1996). Determining how these responses occur following
primary infection, and how immune and non-immune cells in the nasal mucosa contribute to viral
clearance and subsequent memory, is critical to inform the design of next-generation nasal
vaccines and therapeutics.

Although live-attenuated IAV mucosal vaccines work in children (Costa-Martins et al.,
2021; Johnson Jr. et al., 1985), recent attempts to administer new vaccine formulations i.n. in
both children and adults have had mixed results (Madhavan et al., 2022; Nouën et al., 2022; Vaca
et al., 2023). New approaches utilizing "prime-and-pull" strategies (Mao et al., 2022) and mucosa-
targeting delivery platforms (Hartwell et al., 2022) support the promise of i.n. vaccines. A better
understanding of natural mucosal immune memory may inform a more comprehensive
assessment of the efficacy of these and other immunization approaches and potentially reveal
avenues for further improvement. The present atlas of murine nasal mucosa comprehensively
catalogues the tissue-scale response following primary and secondary IAV infection, highlighting
the dynamic and cooperative cell subsets and states contributing to viral resolution and memory
recall.

One focus of the present work is the multi-faceted epithelial makeup of the nasal mucosa
and its response to IAV infection. Basal cells in the nasal mucosa give rise to epithelial cells
reminiscent of pseudostratified epithelium found in the trachea (Davis and Wypych, 2021), but we
and others have also captured several additional epithelial cell subsets not found in other parts of
the airway. Our atlas validates recent work in mouse describing sustentacular cells, ionocytes,
nasal tuft cells, and serous cells (Brann et al., 2020; Ualiyeva et al., 2022). Moreover, we describe
for the first time several clusters of epithelial cells with undetermined function: (1) *Scgb-*
b27+Cck+, (2) *Meg3*+MHC-II+, (3) *Klk1+Fxyd2+*, and (4) KNIIFE cells. Except for the *Scgb-*
b27+Cck+ cluster, the remaining previously undescribed clusters all exist at low frequencies (<
1% of all epithelial cells) in naïve mice and may have been missed in experiments without
sufficient cell numbers or utilized cell sorting.

The viral signaling and proliferative capacities of epithelial cells associate with COVID-19
disease trajectory (Sposito et al., 2021; Ziegler et al., 2021). Our data confirm that transient IFN-
responsive epithelial cell subsets, including cycling basal cells, arise in the nasal mucosa during
IAV infection. During the peak response, nasal basal cells co-expressed cell cycle and IFN-
response programs, which have been previously described as non-compatible in lungs (Broggi et
al., 2020; Major et al., 2020). Given the diverse roles of nasal epithelial cells and the need to
protect olfactory sensory neurons (Dumm et al., 2020), nasal basal cells may be more tolerant of
IFN-response signaling during proliferation than basal cells in the lower airways. Notably,

epithelial IFN-induced responses were significantly reduced upon rechallenge. This difference

could reflect several non-exclusive mechanisms during recall, including an overall reduction or

shortening in IFN production or signaling, lower viral load, or a potential tolerized basal cell state.

Airway basal cells can develop transcriptional memory in vitro (Adamson et al., 2022), but whether

primary infection can confer durable memory to viral immunity, as has been seen for allergic

inflammation (Ordovas-Montanes et al., 2018), requires further investigation.

In addition to epithelial responses, IAV infection also precipitated a highly dynamic,

stepwise response by immune cells that was initially dominated by myeloid subsets. Specifically,

we observed a substantial early influx of neutrophils followed by monocytes that then

differentiated into MDMs concurrent with the arrival of effector T cells. The evidence for both

resident (Yao et al., 2018) and recruited (Aegerter et al., 2020) macrophages in the lungs to

engage in memory responses suggests that a similar phenomenon may occur in the nasal

mucosa. After depleting circulating monocytes during acute infection, MDM formation was

markedly reduced, indicating that the majority of nasal MDMs at 8 dpi differentiated from newly

recruited monocytes. Interestingly, during a memory response MDMs, but not monocytes,

increased in abundance 2 dprc even though overall myeloid frequencies remained unchanged,

indicating that either recruited MDMs replaced local myeloid cells or MDMs already present in the

tissue expanded to exert antiviral effector functions. If the latter, understanding the mechanisms

by which enhanced myeloid function is maintained and recalled in the nasal mucosa could yield

a new avenue for designing improved mucosal vaccines.

The role of adaptive immune responses to IAV infection have been well described in the

lower respiratory tract (Chapman and Topham, 2010; Krammer, 2019; McMaster et al., 2015;

Onodera et al., 2012; Slütter et al., 2013; Wein et al., 2019), but their dynamics and quality in the

nasal mucosa are less understood. Antibody-mediated immunity following primary and secondary

IAV infection has been described (Chen et al., 2018) and falls outside the scope of the present

study. Capturing substantial bone marrow resident cells in the OM samples during primary

infection, we noted a marked increase in this region of granulocyte and B cell progenitors 5 dpi.

Systemic and circulating cytokine responses are documented to induce hematopoiesis during

infection (Zaretsky et al., 2014), so it follows that local type I inflammation in the nasal mucosa

alongside high levels of IFNs could induce rapid granulo- and lymphopoiesis. Antibody-producing

B cell response dynamics, however, were variable in our model with sizeable frequencies of

plasma cells detected in 1- or 2-of-3 mice at 14 dpi, 60 dpi, and 2 dprc. Wellford et al., recently

showed in an influenza B model that the OM requires mucosa resident plasma cells to prevent

transmission to the brain; the RM, alternatively, can receive neutralizing antibodies from both

serum and local plasma cells (Wellford et al., 2022). To what extent local nasal plasma cell derived

IgG and IgA play roles in stymying infection during rechallenge, and whether non-neutralizing

antibody functions help activate other immune subsets (e.g., Fc receptor mediated signaling),

must be further explored.

IAV infection of the nasal mucosa resulted in classical T cell responses with both antiviral

effector CD8 T cells expressing cytotoxic genes and Th1 CD4 T cells expressing *Ifng* and *Tnfrsf4*

(OX40) arising at 8 dpi. Proportionality analysis revealed their coordination with an influx of IFN-

Stim MDMs expressing *Cxcl9* and *Cxcl16*, and NICHES predicted several modes of

communication between all three clusters, suggesting MDMs may provide activation signals for T

cells in the nasal mucosa. While infectious titers waned between 2 and 8 dpi, effector T cell

responses likely played a critical role in completely extinguishing IAV infection by 14 dpi. Finding

upward of ~50% of all T and NK cells by 14 dpi belonged to the T_{RM}-like cluster in the RM tissue,

we validate their presence and phenotype in the nasal cavity following IAV infection (Pizzolla et

al., 2017; Wiley et al., 2001). Unlike in the lung where T_{RM} cells quickly wane following infection

(Slütter et al., 2017), our data demonstrate robust frequencies out to 60 dpi that are further

amplified during rechallenge; moreover, in addition to the RM, we find T_{RM} in OM and LNG tissue,

where virus is only detected at low levels or not at all. While T_{RM} contribute to an effective memory

response upon rechallenge (Ariotti et al., 2014; McMaster et al., 2015; Schenkel et al., 2014;

Steinbach et al., 2016), differential expression across timepoints of the *Cd103*+ CD8 T cell cluster

in our dataset did show strong gene expression differences between these cells at 2 dprc and

following primary infection; moreover, their relative proportion only increased by ~2x over levels

at 60 dpi. Given recent work highlighting the importance of T_{RM} in mitigating nasal viral infections

(Mao et al., 2022; Pizzolla et al., 2017), understanding which cell subsets and signals establish

and maintain the T_{RM} niche could help guide mucosal vaccine strategies with heterotypic

protection.

Following viral clearance, several unique subsets of epithelial cells with potential immune

signaling and inflammatory regulation capacity substantially increased in abundance. In addition

to a large cluster of goblet/secretory cells with predicted DC/neutrophil communication ability, we

also discovered a subset of epithelial cells uniquely expressing *Krt13* and *Krt6a* in the nasal

mucosa, hereto named **K**rt13+ **n**asal **i**mmune-**i**nteracting **f**loor **e**pithelial (KNIIFE) cells.

Phenotypically, KNIIFE cells were reminiscent of the recently described "hillock" cells in the

trachea expressing *Krt13, Ecm1*, and *Lgals3* (Montoro et al., 2018); however, KNIIFE cells

additionally expressed several genes often found in macrophages including *Cd274* (PD-L1), *Il1a*,

Tnf, and *Cxcl16*. This cluster was present at low levels throughout infection until expanding 14

dpi and remained stable during rechallenge. At 14 dpi, we measured *Krt13* and *Cxcl16* co-
expression in situ nearby *Cxcr6* expressing cells, especially along the nasal floor. These results
raise the possibility that KNIIFE cells, by providing a source for CXCL16 beyond that expressed
by myeloid cells, may contribute to the establishment of the resident memory T cell pool in the
nasal mucosa, as has been suggested for this chemokine pathway in other tissues (Clark et al.,
2006; Morgan et al., 2008; Tse et al., 2014; Wein et al., 2019). The enrichment of KNIIFE cells
along nasal floor and below the vomeronasal organ prompts the question of whether these cells
interact with particles or irritants just entering or settling in the nose and play a regulatory role in
tissue tolerance and/or immunity.

Compositional scRNA-seq analyses are becoming more common to discern differences
between disease trajectories (Ordovas-Montanes et al., 2018; Smillie et al., 2019; Zheng et al.,
2021), treatment groups (Darrah et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2022b), and/or species (Chen et al.,
2022; Li et al., 2022). Current tools focus on identifying specific clusters or gene programs that
are compositionally distinct between groups (Büttner et al., 2021; Cao et al., 2019; Dann et al.,
2022). However, the power of compositional scRNA-seq data lies in its structure; namely, singular
changes in composition cannot be independent and must correspond with mutual changes in
other clusters/programs. Leveraging the biological replicates and multiple timepoints present in
our atlas, we utilized straightforward tools for compositional analysis adapted from microbiome
research (Gloor et al., 2017; Lin and Peddada, 2020; Quinn et al., 2018) to understand tissue-
scale changes within the nasal mucosa throughout IAV infection. PCA of cell cluster abundances
across sample replicates separated nasal regions and depicted structured stepwise changes in
epithelial and immune cell subsets throughout infection trajectory. Proportionality analysis, which
avoids the spurious associations present in Pearson correlation applied to compositional data
(Lovell et al., 2015), revealed pairs and groups of clusters with significantly similar compositional
trajectories (e.g., IFN-stimulated MDMs and effector CD4 and CD8 T cells) and can be readily
applied to discover similarities across various metadata. Finally, metrics like Aitchison distance
(Aitchison et al., 2000) capture holistic changes in tissue-scale cellular composition and support
standard tests for differences between group means (e.g., Welch's ANOVA) to assess global
similarity and compositional distance traveled by a tissue. Applied to our datasets, the RM
"travels" less during the memory response to IAV than during primary infection, suggesting prior
infection induces a coordination of responses that were previously unsynchronized. We propose
that these approaches for analyzing scRNA-seq data constitute a new framework for
understanding and summarizing whole tissue- and biopsy-scale changes in cellular composition
at high resolution in health, disease, and/or under perturbation.

Collectively, our murine nasal mucosa atlas of primary IAV infection longitudinally
catalogues the cell types, subsets, and states present throughout distinct nasal regions. We
demonstrate the utility of our dataset to serve as an annotation reference for newly generated
scRNA-seq datasets and apply it to understand how the response to infection in the RM differs
during a memory recall following IAV rechallenge. These findings will help contextualize studies
of the nose in humans and highlight key immune and epithelial cell responses to recapitulate in
future nasal vaccines and therapeutics to drive increased synchronicity in nasal memory
responses.
767

Limitations of the study
First, we acknowledge that cluster abundance-based compositional analyses are inherently
dependent on how clustering was performed, and thus implicitly incorporates, to some degree,
operator bias. While we believe our approach to be as impartial as possible through use of
iterative clustering, it will be imperative to implement robust, reproducible clustering analyses (Hu
et al., 2019; Patterson-Cross et al., 2021; Zheng et al., 2021) prior to compositional analysis
moving forward. Partial labeling of cells by hashing antibodies may also have obscured changes
in composition over time. Second, detection of IAV transcripts by scRNA-seq was limited. Other
studies have included spike-in primers to facilitate additional capture of viral nucleic acids
(Ratnasiri et al., 2023); it is possible that we were not sufficiently sensitive to IAV transcripts
without these spike-in primers. Also, cells productively infected with virus may not be sufficiently
viable through our tissue processing pipeline, leading to artificially low numbers of cells containing
IAV reads. Third, to increase the relative proportion of non-epithelial cells in our scRNA-seq
dataset, we performed a partial EpCAM depletion using magnetic beads. This decision was made
following preliminary experiments comparing this approach to un-depleted RM tissue in naïve
mice and 2 dpi; we found that depletion similarly reduced all epithelial cell clusters without bias
and did not result in the loss of IAV+ cells. Thus, the cellular compositions throughout the study
represent the nasal mucosa tissue after both dissociation and epithelial cell depletion and,
therefore, do not reflect the true frequencies of cell types within intact nasal mucosa.
Nevertheless, our atlas can still be used to assign cell cluster labels to new datasets where
epithelial cells have not been depleted and could inform spatial transcriptomics approaches to
derive more accurate cell abundances in vivo. Indeed, spatial transcriptomics and/or multiplexed
immunofluorescence approaches will help validate the spatial organization and quantification of
cell clusters defined here; however, given the complexity of the nasal mucosa and difficulty in
sectioning through the nasal bone, further work will need to be done to validate, adapt and refine

imaging protocols for this unique tissue. Additional experiments to test how various influenza
strains, other respiratory pathogens, and vaccination strategies impact the composition and timing
of responses in the nasal mucosa to IAV challenge are warranted (Rutigliano et al., 2010).
796

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822

Author contributions
Conceptualization, S.W.K., C.M., U.H.vA., and J.O-M,;
Methodology, S.W.K. and C.M.;
Software, S.W.K., E.M.L., and T.J.L.;

Formal Analysis, S.W.K., C.M., E.M.L., and T.J.L.;

Investigation, S.W.K., C.M., E.M.L., J.M., K.N., E.O., and J.O-M.;

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Writing – Review & Editing, S.W.K., C.M., E.M.L., U.H.vA., and J.O-M.;

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Declaration of Interests

S.W.K. reports compensation for consulting services with Monopteros Therapeutics, Flagship

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and SQZ.

METHODS
Resource availability
Lead contact

Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be fulfilled by the lead contact Jose Ordovas-Montanes (jose.ordovas-montanes@childrens.harvard.edu).

Material availability

All the mouse lines used in this study are available from Jackson Laboratories. The anti-CCR2 antibody MC-21 was provided as a gift by Prof. Matthias Mack. This study did not generate new unique reagents.

Data and code availability

All sequencing data reported in this paper will be available in FASTQ read format and cellbender corrected gene expression matrix format at Gene Expression Omnibus upon publication as we plan to submit this work for pre-print. The annotated data can also be explored at the Broad Institute Single Cell Portal under study numbers SCP2216 and SCP2221. All the code generated and used to analyze the data reported in this paper will be available on GitHub in the jo-m-lab/IAV-nasal-sc-atlas repository.

Experimental model and subject details
Mice

All experiments were approved by the Harvard University Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee and run following NIH guidelines. C57BL/6J (B6) mice 6 to 8 weeks old were purchased from The Jackson Laboratory and experiments commenced 1 to 3 weeks following their arrival. Mice were infected with 10^4pfu PR8 in a 10µL volume that was administered by pipette dropwise to the nares to allow each drop to be inhaled. Mice were restrained during this administration but not anesthetized, to maintain the virus in the upper respiratory tract. All mice were housed in a BSL-2+ facility with specific pathogen free conditions.

Method details
Virus growth, quantification, and mouse infections

IAV strain A/Puerto Rico/8/1934 (PR8) and Madin-Darby canine kidney (MDCK) cells were generously provided by Dr. Daniel Lingwood and Dr. Maya Sangesland of the Ragon Institute of

Mass General, MIT, and Harvard. Virus was propagated and quantified in MDCK cells. MDCK
cells were grown at 37°C with 5% CO_2 in cell growth media: Dulbecco's modified eagle's medium
(DMEM) (Corning, #10-017-CV), 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS; Gemini #100-106), 1X
Penicillin:Streptomycin (Gemini, 100X stock: 400109). PR8 was grown in MDCK cells in influenza
growth media: Iscove's DMEM (Corning, # 10-016-CV), 0.2% bovine serum albumin (BSA; EMD
Millipore, EM-2960), 1Xm Penicillin:Streptomycin, and 2μg/mL TPCK treated Trypsin (Sigma,
T1426).

886   For viral load quantification experiments, mice were sacrificed in CO_2 and lungs and heads
were separated. For the nasal cavity, fur and skin were removed and the lower jaws cut off. The
entire nasal cavity or lungs were collected into 1mL PBS with 2.3mm Zirconia/Silica beads
(Biospec Products, 11079125z) and stored on ice. The tissue was homogenized in an OMNI Bead
Ruptor Elite at 3m/s for 30 seconds twice, centrifuged 500g for 5 minutes, and supernatant was
collected and stored at -80°C until thawed for plaque assays. Virus titers were measured by
plaque assays in confluent MDCK cells in 6-well plates. MDCK cells were grown in cell growth
media, washed with sterile phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), then washed with influenza growth
media. Media was removed and serial dilutions of viral supernatant in influenza growth media
were added to each well in a 400μL volume, incubated for 1 hour at 37°C, then overlayed with
0.3% agarose in influenza growth media. Infected cells were incubated for three days at 37°C,
fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde, stained with crystal violet, washed, and plaques were counted.
898

899   **Tissue harvesting, single-cell suspension preparation, and hashtag labeling**
900   Three separate regions of the nasal tissue were harvested independently: (1) the
respiratory mucosa (RM), (2) the olfactory mucosa (OM), and (3) the lateral nasal gland (LNG).
The nasal tissue was collected by removing the skin and connective tissue from around the head,
cutting off the lower jaw, and opening the nasal cavity by peeling away the nasal bone from the
rest of the skull. Tissue separation and collection was performed using a dissection scope with a
4x objective. All nasal tissue surrounding the nasoturbinates, maxillary turbinates, and septum,
including the mucosa that runs along the nasal lateral walls between the nasoturbinates and
maxillary turbinate, and the mucosal tissue under the nasal bone that connects the nasoturbinates
and septum, were collected together and constitute the RM. After removal of the RM the ethmoid
turbinates were collected including both the mucosal tissue and the bone and cartilage of the
turbinates, but not the surrounding skull, constituting the OM. After removal of the OM, the LNG
was exposed and could be collected without any bone or cartilage. The nasal-associated
lymphoid tissue (NALT) was not collected in any of the three regions.

Each nasal tissue region was collected into 750µL Wash Media (RPMI 1640, 2% FBS, 10

mM HEPES, and 100U/ml penicillin G, 100µg/ml streptomycin) and stored on ice. Tissues were

chopped with scissors then 750µL Digestion Media (Wash Media with 100µg/mL Liberase (Sigma,

#5401127001) and 100µg/mL of DNAse I (Roche, #10104159001)) was added. Tissues were

incubated at 37°C with end-over-end rotation, 30 minutes for RM and OM, 20 minutes for LNG.

13.3µL EDTA (0.5M) was added to each sample and then cells were washed with HBSS Media

(HBSS (Ca, Mg Free, 500 mL), 10mM EDTA, 10mM HEPES, 2% FBS) and filtered through a

70µm nylon cell strainer. Cells were pelleted by centrifugation 500g for 10 minutes, resuspended

with ACK (Ammonium-Chloride-Potassium) lysis buffer for 1 minute on ice, and then diluted with

9mL HBSS Media and centrifuged 500g for 5 minutes twice. Cells were then resuspended in 1mL

Isolation Buffer (PBS, 0.1% BSA, 2mM EDTA) pre-mixed with 25µL anti-EpCAM-biotin-

Dynabeads (anti-EpCAM-biotin antibody (G8.8, Biolegend) bound to Dynabeads Biotin Binder

(ThermoFisher)) for a light epithelial cell depletion, incubated for 15 minutes on ice, washed with

Isolation Buffer and placed on a Dynamag for 2 minutes. Supernatants were collected, centrifuged

500g for 5 minutes, resuspended in 100µL Staining Buffer (PBS, 1% BSA, 0.01% Tween) and

10µL Fc block, and incubated on ice for 10 minutes. Next, 0.5µg Biolegend TotalSeq Hashing

antibodies B0301, B0302, or B0303 were added so that each mouse had all three nasal regions

(RM, OM, and LNG) stained with one of the three antibodies, and incubated on ice for 20 minutes.

Cells were then washed extensively to remove excess antibody with 10mL Staining Buffer and

centrifugation at 500g for 5 minutes twice. Cells were resuspended in Loading Buffer (PBS and

0.04% BSA), counted, and pooled equally (13,500 cells/sample) between three mice for each

region. Finally, each set of pooled cells were centrifuged 500g for 5 minutes and resuspended in

42µl Loading Buffer for downstream scRNA-seq processing.

Single-cell RNA-seq

Pooled samples from each nasal region (RM, OM, and LNG) were processed using the

10x Genomics Chromium Next GEM Single Cell 3' Kit v3.1 and Feature Barcoding Kit with dual

indices per the manufacturer's instructions. Approximately 40,000 cells per pooled reaction were

loaded on the 10x Genomics Chromium Controller. Library quality was evaluated using the Agilent

TapeStation 4200 (Agilent). Prior to sequencing, the gene expression and hashtag libraries were

pooled 20:1. Sequencing was performed on either the NovaSeq 6000 or NextSeq 2000 (Illumina)

with an average RNA read depth of 16,000 reads/cell and hashtag read depth of 500 reads/cell.

Immunofluorescence Microscopy

947    Mice were euthanized in CO_2 and their heads following skin, fur, and lower jaw removal

948 were placed in 4% paraformaldehyde for 1-4 hours on ice for fixation. Heads were transferred to

949 0.5M EDTA for 2-3 days at 4°C for bone decalcification. Heads were transferred to 30% sucrose

950 in PBS for cryoprotection for 2 days at 4°C then rapidly frozen in NEG-50 using dry ice. Frozen

951 heads were stored at -20°C until cryostat sectioning. Mouse nasal tissues were cut into 50-100μm

952 sections, permeabilized with 0.3% Tween in PBS (PBST) for 1 hour, then incubated overnight at

953 4°C with antibodies, DAPI, and Fc block at a 1:200 dilution in PBST. Antibodies used: anti-

954 Influenza A virus NS1 (PA5-32243, ThermoFisher), anti-acetyl-α-tubulin (Ly640, D20G3, Cell

955 Signaling Technology), anti-CD45 (30-F11, Biologend), anti-EpCAM (G8.8, Biologend), anti-Krt13

956 (EPR3671, Abcam), anti-PD-L1 (10F.9G2, Biologend), and anti-IgA (mA-6E1, ThermoFisher).

957 Samples were then washed 3 times with PBST in 15-minute intervals at room temperature,

958 mounted on glass slides with Prolong Gold, and visualized with an Olympus FLUOVIEW FV3000

959 confocal laser scanning microscope.

961 **qPCR**

962    RM tissue was collected as described above from mice and lysed in Buffer RLT (Qiagen)

963 + 1% beta-mercaptoethanol (Sigma) via gentleMACS Octo Dissociator in M-Tubes (Miltenyi

964 Biotec). RNA was extracted from tissue lysate by RNAEasy Mini column purification (Qiagen)

965 following the manufacturer's instructions. cDNA was then generated following the SmartSeq II

966 protocol as previously described (Trombetta et al., 2014). qPCR was performed using TaqMan

967 reagents and probes (ThermoFisher) on a CFX384 Real-Time PCR System.

969 **Antibody-based depletion**

970    Naïve or PR8 infected B6 mice were administered daily 20μg anti-CCR2 depleting

971 antibodies (MC-21 generously provided by Prof. Matthias Mack, Universität Regensburg) or rat

972 IgG2b,κ isotype control (Biolegend, #400644) intraperitoneally (i.p.). 24h following one

973 administration, blood was collected from naïve mice by tail vein bleed into FACS buffer (PBS,

974 0.5% BSA, 2mM EDTA) and stored on ice before processing for flow cytometry.

975    PR8 infected mice were administered antibodies 3, 4, and 5 dpi in 24h intervals. For this

976 experiment, mice were euthanized at 8 dpi.

978 **Flow cytometry**

979    Blood was processed for flow cytometry by pelleting cells by centrifugation and

980 resuspending with ACK lysis buffer to remove RBCs. Cells were then washed with FACS buffer

and stained in 50 µL for flow cytometry using the following antibodies: anti-CCR2 (475301, R&D

Systems), anti-CD11b (M1/70, Biolegend), anti-CD19 (6D5, Biolegend), anti-CD3e (145-2C11,

Biolegend), anti-CD45 (30-F11, Biologend), anti-Ly6C (HK1.4, Biolegend), anti-Ly6G (1A8,

Biolegend), and anti-NK1.1 (PK136, Biolegend). Cells were analyzed using the Beckman Coulter

CytoFLEX.

For RM tissue, mice were anesthetized i.p. with ketamine (100 mg/kg body weight) and

xylazine (10 mg/kg body weight) prior to euthanasia and administered 1µg anti-CD45 antibody

(30-F11, Biologend) by retroorbital intravascular injection to label CD45+ cells in circulation. Mice

were then euthanized 3 minutes later in CO_2. RM tissue was processed as described above for

tissue harvesting and single-cell suspension preparation through ACK lysis and dilution. Cells

were then centrifuged and resuspended in 100 µL FACS buffer LIVE/DEAD Fixable Aqua Dead

Cell Stain (ThermoFisher #L34966) per manufacturer's instructions. Cells were then washed and

stained for 30min at 4°C in the dark with Fc block diluted 1:200 and the following antibodies: anti-

CD11b (M1/70, Biolegend), anti-CD11c (HL3, BD Biosciences), anti-CD19 (6D5, Biolegend), anti-

CD3e (145-2C11, Biolegend), anti-CD45 (30-F11, Biologend), anti-CD64 (X54-5/7.1, Biolegend),

anti-Ly6C (HK1.4, Biolegend), anti-Ly6G (1A8, Biolegend), anti-F4/80 (BM8, Biolegend), anti-

MHC-II (M5/114.15.2, Biolegend), and anti-NK1.1 (PK136, Biolegend). Following staining, cells

were washed in FACS buffer, and analyzed. To determine cell counts, AccuCheck Counting

Beads (ThermoFisher #PCB100) were added to every sample.

1000

RNAscope Microscopy

RNA *in situ* hybridization was performed according to manufacturer's instructions for the

RNAscope Multiplex Fluorescent Reagent Kit v2 (Advanced Cell Diagnostics ACD, 323270) on

20 µm thin sections of fixed-frozen murine nasal mucosa tissue collected 14 dpi. We implemented

the following modifications to preserve tissue integrity: 1) 5 min PBS wash preceding initial baking

of slides was removed; 2) slides were baked for 30 min at 60°C following EtOH dehydration; 3)

target retrieval time was reduced to 5 min; 4) slides were baked for 60 min at 60°C following target

retrieval; and 5) tissue sections were incubated in Protease Plus instead of Protease III for milder

protease digestion. Probes used included Mm-Krt13 (ACD, 575341), Mm-Cxcr6-C2 (ACD,

871991-C2), Mm-Cxcl16-C3 (ACD, 466681-C3), and Mm-Cd274-C3 (ACD, 420501-C3).

Following signal amplification, Opal 520 (Akoya Biosciences, FP1487001KT), Opal 570 (Akoya

Biosciences, FP1488001KT), and Opal 690 (Akoya Biosciences, FP1497001KT) dyes were used,

diluted 1:1000 in TSA buffer (ACD, 322809). Nuclei were stained with DAPI and slides were

mounted with VECTASHIELD PLUS (Vector Laboratories, H-1900). Confocal images were

collected using an Olympus FLUOVIEW FV3000 confocal laser scanning microscope.

1016

Quantification and statistical analysis

Single-cell RNA-seq alignment, cleanup, and pre-processing

To detect reads originating from IAV, we built a combined genome of mm10 (GRCm39)

and the sequences for PR8 (NCBI Taxonomy ID #211044). The eight PR8 genomic viral segment

sequences (NC_002023.1, NC_002022.1, NC_002021.1, NC_002020.1, NC_00219.1,

NC_2018.1, NC_002017.1, and NC_002016.1) and associated IAV gene annotations were added

to the GRCm39 FASTA and GTF files and processed using the CellRanger's built in "mkref"

function. Sequences were then aligned and quantified using this combined genome with the

CellRanger toolkit (v6.0.1) via Cumulus tools (Li et al., 2020)

(https://cumulus.readthedocs.io/en/stable/). Cell sample identity was assigned from the

measurement of TotalSeqB aligned counts using the cumulus demultiplexing tool for feature

barcoding, calling identity for any cell with at least 100 barcodes. To correct for transcript spill-

over, cellbender (Fleming et al., 2022) was applied to the raw output UMI matrices from

CellRanger with the following parameters: *expected_cells=30000*, *fpr=0.01,*

total_droplets_included=50000. Cellbender corrected cells were then filtered based on Unique

Molecular Identifiers (UMI) count (>750 & <10000), number of detected genes (>500), and

percentage of mitochondrial genes (<15%). Finally, cells labeled as doublets by demultiplexing

were removed.

1035

Iterative clustering, cell cluster annotation, and IAV+ cell calling

Downstream analysis was performed using Seurat (v.4.2.1) (Hao et al., 2021). Briefly, the

entire primary infection dataset underwent normalization using the *scTransform* function followed

by principal component analysis (PCA), shared nearest neighbors (SNN) graph generation,

Louvain clustering, and UMAP embedding. Clustering was performed at multiple resolutions to

help annotate similar and dissimilar clusters. Using clustering *resolution = 0.6,* cluster

specific/enriched markers were calculated. Each cluster was labeled by major cell type based on

the expression of known lineage markers (e.g., *Omp*, *Epcam*, *Ptprc, Flt1,* etc.). Doublet clusters

were also annotated based on the lack of unique markers and/or the presence of multiple mutually

exclusive lineage markers (e.g., *Omp+Ptprc+* cells). Following annotation, doublet clusters were

removed, and the normalization/clustering/doublet removal process was repeated twice more

(total of three times) until no doublet clusters were discernable.

The dataset was then divided into separate objects by cell type label for further
subclustering. Following the same routine applied to the full dataset, clusters for each cell type
were annotated with subset/state labels based on prior knowledge and previously published
scRNAseq datasets of the nasal mucosa (Brann et al., 2020; Ualiyeva et al., 2022; Ziegler et al.,
2021). After the first set of annotations in every cell type object, it was apparent that there were
still intra-sample doublets present: mostly contaminating cell types, but also within cell type
doublets (e.g., ionocyte/sustentacular doublets). These clusters were iteratively removed like in
the analysis of the full dataset, for a total of three rounds in each cell type, yielding a total of 127
clusters across the whole dataset. To visualize these clusters' relationships and distribution
across nasal regions, we built a cell cluster "phylogenetic tree" using ARBOL (Zheng et al., 2021),
where the first tier encodes major cell type, the second tier encodes defined subtypes, and the
third tier encodes cluster identity (**Figure S1F**).

Since IAV transcript capture was sparse, we classified IAV+ cells as any cell with 2 or
more UMIs aligned to any IAV PR8 gene.

1062

Compositional analyses

After removing multiplets, immune (>97.5%) and endothelial cells (89%) had nearly all
cells assigned a sample replicate while neurons (30.7%), epithelial cells (65.9%), fibroblasts
(52.4%), and other stromal cells (56.4%) had lower sample annotation rates. We note that cells
without a sample replicate assignment were excluded from all compositional analyses. Within cell
type frequencies were calculated on a per replicate basis by counting the number of cells within
each cluster label and dividing by the total number of cells for that cell type captured in that
replicate. For tissue- and region-level compositional analyses, cell cluster abundances were
calculated by deriving cell cluster frequencies over all labeled cells in each sample replicate,
scaling to 3,000 cells per replicate, and log transforming. Subsequent PCAs were calculated from
these log-transformed cell cluster abundances.

Proportionality analysis was performed using the propr package (v4.2.6) (Quinn et al.,
2017) on non-log-transformed cell cluster abundances across all RM sample replicates. We
compared the proportionality statistic ρ to standard Pearson correlation across all pairwise
comparisons and found ρ to be more stringent for significance cutoffs (FDR<0.05) generated by
permutating testing (**Figure S8A**). We built a network using Cytoscape (v3.9.1) comprised of all
significantly proportional cell cluster pairs to assess groups of cell clusters with similar cell
abundance trajectories throughout the infection time course.

RM sample replicate distances were calculated using the Aitchison distance (Aitchison et
al., 2000). Cell cluster abundances were first normalized using the center-log-ratio (clr). Euclidean
distance was then calculated between all pairs of RM sample replicates, yielding three distances
within a timepoint and nine distances between two timepoints. Statistics on Aitchison distances
were performed using a one-sided non-parametric Welch's ANOVA and Dunnett's T3 test for
multiple comparisons in Prism.

1087

Neutrophil pseudotime analysis

The neutrophil pseudotime analysis was performed using diffusion mapping as previously
described (Grieshaber-Bouyer et al., 2021). A principal component analysis was run on all cells
assigned to granulocyte clusters, excluding mast cells. The first 20 principal components were
used to compute a cell-to-cell distance matrix using $1 - Pearson\ correlation\ coefficient$ as the
distance metric. Using the destiny package in R (Angerer et al., 2016), we computed a diffusion
map with standard parameters with density normalization and rotate enabled. We manually
selected "Progenitor" cells as the root of the trajectory and used the DPT function to calculate the
pseudotime values, manually scaling the values from 0 to 1.

1097

Cell-cell signaling analysis

Three cell networks (IFN-stimulated MDMs : *Gzmk+* CD8 T cells : *Ifng+Cd200+* CD4 T
cells; *Cd103+* DCs : *Dusp2+Icam1+* mature neutrophils : *Gp2+Lyz2+* goblet/secretory cells*;*
Krt13+Il1a+ epithelial cells : *Cd103+* CD8 T cells : CD4 T cells) were selected based on high
proportionality throughout the primary infection time-course or specific biological interest to the
authors. Data for the clusters of interest in each network were then subset to RM and timepoint
of interest to best capture individual cells with sufficient spatial and temporal proximity to plausibly
interact, and re-normalized with Seurat's *NormalizeData* function. Since NICHES calculates the
multiplicative expression of ligand-receptor pairs from a random sampling of cells from each cell
type to predict cell-cell communication, Adaptively thresholded Low-Rank Approximation (ALRA)
imputation was applied to each cell network to reduce the impact of technical zeros due to
potential dropout events (Linderman et al., 2022). NICHES was then run on each cell network
individually, drawing from the OmniPath database of ligand-receptor pairs (Türei et al., 2016) to
generate a cell interaction object whereby rows are ligand-receptor pairs and columns are cell
type pairs (Raredon et al., 2023). These objects were then scaled and passed through principal
component analysis and UMAP dimensionality reduction to generate low-dimensional
embeddings of cell interactions. Differentially expressed interactions were identified using the

1115 Seurat *FindAllMarkers* function, and highly differentially expressed interactions of interest were
1116 selected for display as heatmaps.

1117

1118 **Cluster annotation in memory samples**

1119  To assign cluster labels to new scRNA-seq datasets generated from the nasal mucosa,
1120 we leveraged the structure of our data to test the label transfer methods provided in Seurat (Hao
1121 et al., 2021) and scANVI (Xu et al., 2021). We separated the cells from one RM replicate from
1122 each time point as a query dataset, using the remaining cells as the reference. With Seurat, we
1123 implemented the FindTransferAnchors function on the scTransformed data, using the first 40 PCs
1124 from the PCA as the reference. Labels were then assigned with the TransferData function using
1125 either cell cluster or cell type identities. With scANVI, we first built a scVI model on the reference
1126 data, and then a scANVI model using either cell cluster or cell type identities as labels. The
1127 reference scANVI model was then used to train a model on the query data. We calculated the
1128 percentage of correctly called cell labels using each method for both sets of labels and found
1129 calling to be superior on the cell type level. Thus, we next repeated each procedure within each
1130 cell type to learn cell cluster labels and found Seurat to perform better across all cell types (**Figure
1131 S9C**). To further validate, we calculated cell cluster abundances using the predicted cell cluster
1132 labels for the query replicates and projected into the PCA calculated across the RM samples.

1133  We next applied the two-step label transfer approach using Seurat to new data generated
1134 from RM 60 dpi and 2 and 5 dprc. Before performing label transfer, we removed all hashtag
1135 annotated cell doublets from the new dataset and applied the same filtering criteria as above. We
1136 next performed *scTransform* and PCA on the new dataset. We then predicted cell type labels
1137 using all cells from RM samples in the primary infection dataset for reference. We next removed
1138 any cells from subsequent analysis that had a maximum assignment score < 0.8 (i.e., 80% is the
1139 greatest confidence in label prediction), making up 5% of the total dataset. Given our loading
1140 strategy and number of intrasample doublets found in the primary infection dataset, we chose a
1141 more stringent cutoff following cell type label prediction. Separating into each cell type and using
1142 the processed data from the matching cell type in the primary infection dataset as reference, we
1143 performed the same procedure. Here, we were more liberal, keeping all cells with a maximum
1144 assignment score ≥ 0.4 since very similar clusters within cell types could receive almost equal
1145 prediction probability (e.g., Resting Basal and Abi3bp Resting Basal). With cell cluster labels
1146 assigned, we then calculated cell cluster abundances as above and performed downstream
1147 differential expression analysis.

1148

 MAIN TEXT FIGURES

Figure 1

Figure 1: Experimental design and the structure of the murine nasal mucosa

(A) Schema depicting the sampling scheme and three tissue regions collected and processed for scRNA-seq: respiratory mucosa (RM), olfactory mucosa (OM), and lateral nasal gland (LNG). For both primary infection and rechallenge, 10^4 pfu Influenza A Virus (IAV) PR8 was administered intranasally (5µl/nostril). dpi = days post infection; dprc = days post rechallenge.

(B) Representative immunofluorescence images of coronal slices of the nasal mucosa from a naïve mouse moving from anterior (left) to dorsal (right) staining for epithelial cells (EpCAM, teal), immune cells (CD45, red), and ciliated cells/neurons (α-acetylated tubulin, green). Distinct regions of the mucosa are labeled. Labeled white boxes outline higher resolution images below. White arrows point to olfactory sensory nerve bundles; white arrowheads point to cilia. The olfactory epithelium (OE) and respiratory epithelium (RE) both reside within the collected RM tissue and are differentiated by morphology and the presence of olfactory sensory neurons. NT = nasoturbinate; S = septum; MT = maxillary turbinate; VNO = vomeronasal organ; LNG = lateral nasal gland; ET = ethmoid turbinate; NALT = nasal-associated lymphoid tissue.

Figure 2

Figure 2: Single-cell atlas of the nasal mucosa during primary IAV infection

(A) UMAP embedding of 156,572 nasal cells across three tissue regions and five time points (n=3 per region/timepoint) colored by cell type. HSC = hematopoietic stem cell.

(B) Stacked bar chart depicting the relative proportions of cells annotated for each cell type by region and time point.

(C) Compositional principal component analysis (PCA) of all acute infection sample replicates.

Each point represents a sample replicate and distance reflects variation in cell cluster

abundance (scaled cell counts). Dots are colored by region and time point as in **B**.

(D) Infectious IAV PR8 quantification in plaque forming units (pfu) of the entire nasal mucosa.

(E) Summative scTransform-corrected UMI counts per cell across all IAV PR8 genes split by cell

type.

(F) Representative images of IAV infection in RM taken from mice 2 dpi (top) and 5 dpi (bottom).

Staining for EpCAM (teal), CD45 (red), and IAV-NS2 (yellow). Images on the right depict only

the signal in the IAV-NS2 channel.

(G) Compositional PCA of all cell clusters from only RM samples.

(H) Cell cluster abundance loadings for PC1 (left) and PC2 (right) from (G). Cell cluster names

for several of the most negative and most positive weights for each PC are depicted.

1185

Figure 3

Figure 3: Epithelial cell subclustering reveals diverse subsets including transient IFN-responsive/cycling cells and rare cells with immune-interaction potential arising 14 dpi

(A) UMAP embedding of 38,367 epithelial cells across 27 clusters.

(B) Violin plot depicting epithelial lineage and subset marker expression levels (scTransform-
corrected log-normalized UMI counts) across all discovered clusters (see **Supplementary**
Table 1).

(C) Stacked bar chart depicting the relative proportions of cells annotated for each cluster by
region and time point.

(D & E) Relative frequencies of cells clustered as IFN-Stim (D) and Cycling Basal (E) as a
proportion of all epithelial cells per replicate RM sample. Only cells with assigned hash calls
are included. Welch's t test, *p < 0.05.

(F) Scatter plot of gene module scores for the Hallmark IFNα Response and Hallmark G2M
Checkpoint gene lists (MsigDB v7.5.1) in cycling basal cells. Density plots represent the
scatter plot data.

(G & H) Relative frequency plots of *Meg3*+MHC-II+ (G) and *Krt13*+*Il1a*+ (KNIIFE cells) (H) clusters
(left) as a proportion of all epithelial cells per replicate RM sample. Violin plots of select cluster
specific/enriched genes, except for *Krt5* (FDR corrected p-values ≤ 10^{-242} by 1-vs-rest
Wilcoxon Rank Sum Test) (right).

(I) Representative immunofluorescence images of the very anterior nasal mucosa in naïve mice
(left) and 14 dpi (right) staining for Krt13 (green) and EpCAM (white).

(J) Representative images within the region shown in (I) in naïve mice (top) and 14 dpi (bottom)
staining for Krt13 (green) and PD-L1 (red). Welch's t test, *p < 0.05.

1209

Figure 4

Figure 4: Immediate neutrophil responses are bolstered by recruited antiviral monocytes that differentiate into antiviral monocyte-derived macrophages

(A) UMAP embedding of 7,987 granulocytes across 10 clusters.

(B) Violin plot of assigned pseudotime values to all granulocytes (except mast cells) split by cluster identity.

(C) Relative frequencies of various neutrophil clusters as a proportion of all granulocytes per replicate RM sample. Only cells with assigned hash calls are included. Welch's t test, *p < 0.05.

(D) UMAP embedding of 22,654 macrophages, monocytes, and dendritic cells (DCs) across 17
clusters.
(E) Relative frequencies of various myeloid cell clusters as a proportion of all macrophages,
monocytes, and DCs per replicate RM sample. Welch's t test, *p < 0.05.
(F) Volcano plots depicting differentially expressed genes ($|log2FC| \geq 0.5$; FDR < 0.01) between
IFN-Stim MDMs and IFN-Stim Mono (top) and between IFN-Stim MDMs and MHC-II-Hi Macs
(bottom). Only cells from RM were used in the differential expression analysis. Genes of
interest are labeled.
(G) Mice were infected with 10^4 pfu IAV PR8 and then treated 3, 4, and 5 dpi with either MC-21
(anti-CCR2; n=3) or IgG2b (isotype control; n=3). At 8 dpi mice received anti-CD45
intravascularly immediately prior to euthanasia to distinguish cells in the tissue
(extravascular, EV) from those in circulation (IV). Flow cytometry statistics are gated on
CD45-EV+ cells; Welch's t test, *p < 0.05.
1232

Figure 5

Figure 5: Effector CD4 and CD8 T cells 8 dpi are replaced by T_RM cells following viral clearance

(A) UMAP embedding of 6,573 T, NK, and innate lymphoid cells across 16 clusters.

(B & C) Relative frequencies of various T cell clusters as a proportion of all T and NK cells per replicate RM sample. Only cells with assigned hash calls are included.

(D) Violin plot depicting a gene module score derived from the universal T_RM signature as published in (Milner et al., 2017) across all CD8 T cell clusters for cells collected from RM. Cohen's D for effect size is reported between *Ccr7*+ CD8 T cells and each other cluster. Welch's t test, *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01.

1243   (E) Dot plot of genes encoding for canonical surface markers, proteases, and transcription

1244   factors enriched or absent in T_{RM} cells from circulating memory and naïve CD8 T cells. Gene

1245   list derived from (Crowl et al., 2022).

1246

Figure 6

Figure 6: Proportionality and cell-cell communication analyses highlight the CXCL16– CXCR6 signaling pathway in T cell:MDM and T cell:KNIIFE cell interactions

(A) Hierarchically clustered similarity heatmap of sample replicate proportionality calculated across all RM primary infection time points. Black box surrounds the proportionality results for the cell clusters depicted in (B).

(B) Network of significantly proportional (FDR<0.01) cell clusters as in (A). Nodes are colored by cell type and edge weight is representative of proportionality.

(C) Abundance plot of *Gzmk*+ CD8 T cells, IFN-Stim MDMs, and *Ifng*+*Cd200*+ CD4 T cells in replicate RM samples. Smoothed lines are calculated using local polynomial regression fitting.

(D) Heatmap depicting a subset of differentially expressed receptor-ligand interaction pairs between single-cell pairs identified by NICHES (Raredon et al., 2023) for the clusters depicted in (C); see **Supplementary Table 2**. Interaction expression is the multiplicative expression of receptor and ligand gene expression for each member of a single-cell pair. See for all receptor-ligand interaction pairs.

(E) Abundance plot of *Cd103*+ CD8 T cells, CD4 T cells, and *Krt13*+*Il1a*+ epithelial (KNIIFE) cells in replicate RM samples.

(F) Dot plot of scTransform-corrected log-normalized *Cxcl16* and *Cxcr6* expression 8 dpi (left) in the clusters depicted in (C) and 14 dpi (right) in the clusters depicted in (E).

(G) Heatmap like (D) for the clusters shown in (E).

(H) Representative RNAscope in situ staining for *Krt13* (gray)*, Cxcr6* (red)*, and Cd274* (i.e., PD-L1; green) of the nasal floor 14 dpi. Images depict a maximal intensity projection across 5 μm (10 slices) in the z-plane.

(I) RNAscope as in (H) staining with *Krt13* (gray)*, Cxcl6* (red)*, and Cxcl16* (green). Here, maximal intensity projection is across 3 μm (6 slices) in the z-plane.

Figure 7

Figure 7: IAV rechallenge induces accelerated and coordinated memory immune
responses

(A) Analysis scheme applied to RM samples collected 60 dpi and 2 and 5 days post IAV
rechallenge (dprc) to learn cell cluster identity.

(B) Stacked bar chart depicting the relative proportions of cells annotated for each cell type
by time point. Cells from RM samples only.

(C) Relative frequencies of immune cell types as a proportion of all sequenced cells per RM
replicate sample in primary infection and following rechallenge.

(D) Abundance plots of various clusters showing overlaid primary infection (gray) and
rechallenge (purple) responses. Baseline refers to samples from naïve mice in primary
infection and to samples from 60 dpi in rechallenge. dpc = days post challenge. Smoothed
lines are calculated using local polynomial regression fitting.

(E) Dot plots depicting select cluster-specific and differentially expressed genes between
primary infection and rechallenge time points in *Gzmk*+ CD8 T cells (top left), *Cd103*+
CD8 T cells (top right), *Ifng*+*Cd200*+ CD4 T cells (bottom left), and IFN-Stim MDMs
(bottom right). Time points were chosen from peak responses in each challenge.
Significantly enriched (white star) or decreased (black star) genes are labeled at each
timepoint (FDR<0.01). See **Supplementary Table 3** for all differentially expressed genes
in each comparison.

(F) Compositional PCA of both primary infection and secondary challenge RM sample
replicates. Here, secondary challenge samples were projected into the PC space
calculated across only primary infection samples (see **Figure 2F**).

(G, H, & I) Euclidean distances calculated between center log ratio transformed abundance
values (Aitchison distance). The farther the Aitchison distance between two sample
replicates, the less similar their compositions. (G) All pairs of naïve replicates and primary
infection + 60 dpi replicates. (H) All pairs of 60 dpi replicates and rechallenge replicates.
(I) Pairs of replicates between 2 dprc and 2, 5, and 8 dpi. Dotted line plotted at the median
naïve-naïve Aitchison distance (N-N). P values reported for multiple hypothesis corrected
Welch's ANOVA. MD = mean difference; *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001, ****p< 0.0001.

(K) Timeline schematic of primary IAV infection and rechallenge depicting viral load trajectory
and immune and epithelial cell cluster response timing and duration.

1306

1307 *SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL*

Figure S1

Figure S1: Clustering and sample replicate assignment across nasal mucosa regions and cell types

(A) Violin plots of representative genes used to assign cell type identity to clusters.

(B) Numbers of cells classified as each cell type across all samples, including cells that did not receive a hash call.

(C) UMAP embedding as in **Figure 2A** colored by region and time point.

(D) UMAP as in (D) colored by hash call assignment. There are 45 sample replicates across the dataset in addition to cells without definitive hash identities ("Unassigned").

(E) Stacked bar chart depicting the relative proportion of cells with assigned sample replicate identity (i.e., hash call) by cell type. Singlet = single sample replicate call; unknown = too few barcodes measured to assign a sample replicate identity.

(F) Cell lineage tree generated with ARBOL (Zheng et al., 2021) depicting all 127 clusters found in the dataset through cell type subclustering. Branches are colored by cell type. Pie charts at each branching point depict the relative proportion of cells from each nasal mucosa region. Dot size at each end node is proportional to the number of cells assigned to that cluster. See **Supplementary Table 1** for all differentially expressed markers across clusters within each cell type.

(G) Cell cluster abundance loadings from the PCA shown in **Figure 2C** for PC1 (left) and PC2 (right) from (F). Cell cluster names for several of the most negative and most positive weights for each PC are depicted.

Figure S2: Viral transcript capture, global antiviral responses, and changes in OM and LNG composition

(A) Infectious IAV PR8 quantification in plaque forming units (pfu) of the entire lung.

(B)　scTransform-corrected UMI counts for the IAV PR8 genes encoding NP (left) and HA (right)

by cell type.

(C & D) Number of PR8+ epithelial cells (D) and myeloid cells (E) by time point and region. PR8+

cells are classified by having at least 2 UMI aligning to PR8 genes.

(E & F) Representative images of IAV infection in OM (E) and LNG (F) taken from mice 2 dpi (top)

and 5 dpi (bottom). Staining for EpCAM (teal), CD45 (red), and IAV-NS2 (yellow). Images on

the right depict only the signal in the IAV-NS2 channel.

(G) qPCR of *Ifnb1* (left), *Ifng* (center), and *Ifnl3* from RNA extracted from RM tissue. C_q ratios are

normalized by *Gapdh* C_q. n = 5 per time point.

(H & I) Compositional PCA of only OM samples (H) and only LNG samples (I).

1344

Figure S3

Figure S3: Epithelial cell heterogeneity and response cluster dynamics

(A) Violin plots depicting differentially expressed marker genes (FDR<0.01) across all 28 epithelial clusters (see **Supplementary Table 1**).

(B) Summative scTransform-corrected UMI counts across all 8 IAV genes by epithelial cell cluster. Clusters with ≥5 cells with more than 2 PR8 UMIs have their cluster names bolded in blue.

(C) Heatmap depicting all differentially expressed genes between PR8 positive (≥2 PR8 UMIs) and bystander IFN-Stim epithelial cells from RM 5 and 8 dpi. Scaled Pearson residuals from scTransform are plotted.

(D) Heatmap depicting all differentially expressed genes (FDR<0.01) in Cycling Basal cells from RM between timepoints. Scaled Pearson residuals from scTransform are plotted.

(E) Gene set analysis (hypergeometric test) of all differentially enriched genes in Cycling Basal cells compared to all other epithelial cell clusters (FDR<0.01). The Hallmark pathways from MsigDB (v7.5.1) were used.

(F) Venn diagram showing the number genes used in (E) that are within the Hallmark Apoptosis, E2F Targets, and Interferon Gamma Response pathways.

(G) Relative frequencies of *Emp1+Ccdc3*+ basal cells (top) and *Gp2+Lyz2*+ Gob/Sec cells (bottom) as a proportion of all epithelial cells per replicate RM sample. Only cells with assigned hash calls are included. Welch's t test, *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01.

(H) Representative immunofluorescence images of the nasal mucosa 14 dpi taken more posterior than **Figure 3H** where the nasal mucosa connects to the oral cavity.

Figure S4

1369 **Figure S4: Granulocyte heterogeneity**

1370 (A) Violin plots depicting differentially expressed marker genes (FDR<0.01) across all 10

1371 granulocyte clusters (see **Supplementary Table 1**).

1372 (B) Stacked bar chart depicting the relative proportions of cells annotated for each granulocyte

1373 cluster by region and time point.

1374 (C) UMAP of granulocytes colored by pseudotime. Mast Cells were not included in the

1375 pseudotime analysis and are colored gray.

1376 (D) Relative frequencies of Mast cells (left), progenitors (center), and cycling immature (right) as

1377 a proportion of all granulocytes per replicate OM sample.

1378

Figure S5: Myeloid heterogeneity, viral+ cells, and monocyte depletion

(A) Violin plots depicting differentially expressed marker genes (FDR<0.01) across all 18
macrophage, monocyte, and DC clusters (see **Supplementary Table 1**).

(B) Stacked bar chart depicting the relative proportions of cells annotated for each myeloid
cluster by region and time point.

(C) Summative scTransform-corrected UMI counts across all 8 IAV genes by myeloid cell cluster.
Clusters with ≥5 cells with more than 2 PR8 UMIs have their cluster names bolded in blue.

(D) Heatmap depicting all differentially expressed genes between PR8 positive (≥2 PR8 UMIs)
and bystander IFN-Stim MDMs from RM 8 dpi. Scaled Pearson residuals from scTransform
are plotted.

(E) Mice (n = 4) were treated i.p. with control antibody (top) or anti-CCR2 antibody (bottom) and
blood was collected 24 hours later for flow cytometry. Pre-gated on Dead–CD45+CD3–
CD19–CD11b+.

(F) Representative gating scheme for Ly6C+ and Ly6C++ monocytes in the nasal mucosa.

(G) Cell counts for the experiment performed in **Figure 4G**; Welch's t test, *p < 0.05.

1396

Figure S6: T cell, NK cell, and innate lymphocyte heterogeneity and T_RM responses

(A) Violin plots depicting differentially expressed marker genes (FDR<0.01) across all 16 T cell, NK cell, and innate lymphocyte cell clusters (see **Supplementary Table 1**).

(B) Stacked bar chart depicting the relative proportions of cells annotated for each myeloid cluster by region and time point.

(C) Relative frequencies of IFN-Stim NK cells (left), IFN-Stim T cells (middle), and *Gzma+Ctla2a+* NK cells (right) as a proportion of all T cells, NK cells, and innate lymphocytes per RM replicate sample.

1406   (D) Relative frequencies of *Cd103*+ CD8 T cells as a proportion of all T cells, NK cells, and innate

1407   lymphocytes per OM replicate sample (left) and LNG replicate sample (right).

1408   (E) Violin plot depicting a gene module score derived from the universal T circulating memory

1409   (T_{CM}) cell signature as published in (Milner et al., 2017) across all CD8 T cell clusters.

1410   Cohen's D for effect size is reported between *Ccr7*+ CD8 T cells and each other cluster.

1411

Figure S7

DAPI CD45 IgA

Figure S7: B cell heterogeneity and cluster dynamics

(A) UMAP embedding of 10,167 B cells across 12 clusters.

(B) Violin plots depicting differentially expressed marker genes (FDR<0.01) across all 12 B cell
clusters (see **Supplementary Table 1**).

(C) Stacked bar chart depicting the relative proportions of cells annotated for each B cell cluster
by region and time point.

(D) Relative frequencies of several B cell clusters as proportions of all B cells per RM replicate
sample (top), OM replicate sample (middle), and LNG replicate sample (bottom).

(E) Representative immunofluorescence images staining for IgA producing cells in the RM (left)
and LNG (right) in naïve mice (top) and 30 dpi (bottom). White arrows point to IgA+ cells in
the sparser images.

1424

Figure S8: Proportionality and cell-cell communication analysis

(A) Histograms of calculated proportionality (left) and Pearson correlation (right) statistics across all RM sample replicates. The significance cutoff (FDR<0.05) for each statistic is marked by the red dashed line and was calculated from a background of 1000 permutations of the data.

(B) Network of all significantly proportional (FDR<0.01) cell clusters across all RM replicate
samples. Nodes are colored by cell type and edge weight is representative of proportionality.
(C) Abundance plot of *Cd103*+ DCs, *Gp2+Lyz2*+ Gob/Sec cells, and *Dusp2+Icam1*+ Mature
Neutrophils in replicate RM samples. Smoothed lines are calculated using local polynomial
regression fitting.
(D) Heatmap depicting a subset of differentially expressed receptor-ligand interaction pairs
between single-cell pairs identified by NICHES (Raredon et al., 2023) for the clusters
depicted in (C); ; see **Supplementary Table 2**. Interaction expression is the multiplicative
expression of receptor and ligand gene expression for each member of a single-cell pair.
1439

Figure S9: Validating label transfer methods to assign cell cluster identities to new nasal

mucosa samples

One sample replicate per timepoint was separated from the RM dataset to be used as a query

trained using a reference made from the remaining sample replicates and unclassified cells.

The left and right side depict results from Seurat and scANVI respectively.

(A) Heatmaps depicting the per-cluster on-target prediction frequency when calculated across

all 127 cluster labels.

(B) Heatmaps depicting the per-cell-type on-target prediction frequency when calculated across

the 9 cell type labels.

(C) After predicting cell type labels, new query and reference pairs were generated within each

cell type and label transfer was performed within each. Heatmaps depicting the per-cluster

on-target prediction frequency when calculated within all clusters within each respective cell

type.

(D) Compositional PCA from **Figure 2F** where the query sample replicates were projected using

the predicted cell cluster labels.

1456

Figure S10: Changes in RM composition following secondary challenge

(A) UMAP of all RM cells from the primary infection dataset (left) and the projected UMAP of all

cells in the rechallenge dataset (right) colored by cell type.

(B) Infectious IAV PR8 quantification in pfu of the entire nasal mucosa (left) and lung (right)

during IAV rechallenge.

(C) Relative frequencies of non-immune cell types as a proportion of all sequenced cells per RM

replicate sample in primary infection and following rechallenge.

(D) Abundance plots of various clusters showing overlaid primary infection (gray) and

rechallenge (purple) responses. Baseline refers to samples from naïve mice in primary

infection and to samples from 60 dpi in rechallenge. dpc = days post challenge. Smoothed

lines are calculated using local polynomial regression fitting.

(E) Compositional PCA recalculated using both primary infection and secondary challenge RM

sample replicates. PCs 1-2 (left) and 3-4 (right).

(F) Cell cluster abundance loadings for PC3 (E). Cell cluster names for several of the most

negative and most positive weights for each PC are depicted.

(G) Heatmap depicting all pairwise Aitchison distances between all RM sample replicates.

1474

1475 **Supplementary Table 1: Differentially expressed genes across clusters within each cell**

1476 **type.** Differential expression analysis was performed across cells from all samples within each

1477 cell type using the Wilcoxon Rank Sum test.

1478

1479 **Supplementary Table 2: Differentially expressed receptor-ligand pairs identified by**

1480 **NICHES.** Within each NICHES analysis, differential expression was performed across all cell-

1481 pairs at the specific timepoint of interest using the ROC test built into Seurat. See **Figure 6**.

1482

1483 **Supplementary Table 3: Differentially expressed genes between primary infection and**

1484 **secondary challenge.** Differential expression analysis ("bidomal" test) was performed between

1485 timepoints using cells from RM only within the specified clusters in **Figure 7E**.

1486

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