1 **Longitudinal proteomic analysis of T cell differentiation in vivo reveals dynamic**
2 **changes of the interactome**
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Abstract

T cell differentiation has been extensively studied on the cellular, transcriptional, and epigenetic levels. However, proteomic profiling of T cell differentiation directly *ex-vivo* has not been performed, despite numerous studies demonstrating discrepancy between transcriptional and proteomic profiles of cells. Here, we present the first exhaustive longitudinal proteomic profiling of T cell differentiation *in vivo* using the well-characterized lymphocytic choriomeningitis virus (LCMV) mouse model. We performed *ex-vivo* protein abundance profiling of effector to memory differentiation (T_{EFF}/T_{MEM}) and early to late exhausted T cell (Tex) differentiation following LCMV infection with the acute Armstrong and chronic Clone-13 strains, respectively. Our results show dynamic alterations of the T cell proteome during differentiation that are either common or distinct for acute and chronic infection. Importantly, several proteins that are significantly abundant for a specific cell state were not previously highlighted by transcriptional profiling. Thus, our study provides a comprehensive resource for the proteome of *in vivo* T cell differentiation that could unravel novel protein interactions with potential therapeutic implications.

Introduction

T cells are the main arm of the adaptive immune system combating tumor cells and intracellular pathogens including viruses. In the context of acute infection, naive T cells are activated giving rise to effector cells (T_{EFF}) which upon clearing the pathogen differentiate into memory T cells (T_{MEM})[1]. This is accompanied by extensive changes in the phenotypic, transcriptional, and epigenetic profiles of T cells[2, 3, 4, 5]. For chronic infections and cancer, antigen persistence accompanied by chronic inflammation and a skewed cytokine milieu lead to alternative T cell differentiation through the "exhaustion" pathway[6]. Exhausted T cells (T_{EX}) exhibit hierarchical loss of functions, as well as unique phenotypic, transcriptional, and epigenetic profiles distinct from T_{EFF}/T_{MEM}[1, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11]. However, the proteomic landscape of T cell differentiation directly *ex vivo* is understudied. While transcriptomics captures a momentary view of RNA expression and epigenetics shed light on gene regulation, they do not provide a direct measurement of proteins which represent the primary molecular machines and the functional components that drive biology within a cell. Additionally, numerous studies highlighted the limited correlation between RNA and protein levels, and the discordance between the half-lives of mRNA and their corresponding proteins, underscoring the fact that transcriptional profiling is not an ideal proxy for protein expression[12, 13].

Several studies have tackled proteomic profiling of immune cell activation *in vitro*, where they demonstrated the extensive remodeling of the proteome upon activation, and heterogeneous correlation between protein abundance and mRNA quantification, thus confirming results from other fields of biology on the discordance between the proteome and transcriptome. However, all these studies were performed *in vitro*, and were mainly focused on the early stages of T cell activation upon brief antigenic stimulation[14, 15, 16, 17, 18]. Similar efforts were made to profile the proteome of *in vitro* activated human T cells[19, 20, 21]. Other studies aimed at profiling the proteome of human immune cells, and again demonstrated that proteomic profiling highlighted proteins that were overlooked in transcriptomic data sets that have potential as immunotherapeutic targets[22, 23]. Thus, comprehensive longitudinal proteomic profiling of CD8 T cells in a well-established model is needed to dissect the interactome of T cell differentiation.

Here, we profiled the dynamics of proteomic interactions during the differentiation of T cells *in vivo* in the context of acute versus chronic infection with LCMV Armstrong and Clone-13 strains, respectively. Our comprehensive analysis of global protein abundance data demonstrates a strong alignment with well-established knowledge of T cell biology, including key canonical markers associated with different cell states. We also identify several proteins of interest associated with T cell exhaustion and T_{EFF}/T_{MEM} differentiation previously not directly associated with T cell differentiation. Collectively, our data provides proof for the validity of our proteomics approach and provides novel insights into the protein-driven mechanisms underlying T cell differentiation. We identify several proteins of potential roles in T cell differentiation that were not previously reported, and that merit future validation.

Results

Longitudinal proteomic profiling of antigen-specific CD8 T cells shows significant modulation of the proteome upon activation followed by moderate modulations during differentiation.

Extensive phenotypic, transcriptional, and epigenetic profiling of T cell differentiation has greatly benefited from using the well-characterized lymphocytic choriomeningitis virus (LCMV) mouse model. By comparing mice infected with the Clone 13 strain (LCMV-Cl13) causing chronic infection to mice infected with the Armstrong strain (LCMV-Arm) causing acute infection[2, 8, 10, 24, 25, 26, 27]. Here, we used high-resolution Mass Spectroscopy (MassSpec) to characterize the proteome of antigen-specific T cells longitudinally at the different stages of both acute and chronic infections. For this, we adoptively transferred congenically distinct transgenic CD8 T cells (P14 cells) expressing the T cell receptor (TCR) specific for the LCMV glycoprotein epitope 33-41, GP33, into two groups of congenically distinct recipient mice. One group of mice was infected with the chronic LCMV-Cl13 strain, while the other was infected with the acute LCMV-Arm strain, respectively generating exhausted T cells (T_{EX}) and effector/memory T cells (T_{EFF}/T_{MEM}). P14 cells were isolated and sorted across a time course experiment 8, 15, and 30 days post-infection (hereafter d8, d15, and d30), representing the early, intermediate, and late stages of infection, in four replicate experiments. Naïve P14 cells were also sorted to provide a benchmark for protein expression in naïve T cells (Fig.1A). The sampling times were chosen based on the extensive literature previously published about LCMV infection in mice[2, 8, 10, 24, 26]. At least 2.1×10^5 (median 1.13×10^6) antigen-specific CD8 T cells were sorted from the different samples at high purity (Supp. Fig.1C), and frozen pellets were banked. All samples were processed together and were analyzed using our in-house TimsTOF Pro 2 mass spectrometer (Bruker) in DIA mode and searched using the industry-standard Spectronaut software package, Biognosys (Fig.1A).

Our flow cytometry analyses validated the previously reported phenotype of T_{EX} and T_{EFF}/T_{MEM} at the various phases of infection, compared to naïve T cells. This included the significantly higher levels of expression (as measured by mean fluorescence intensity, MFI) of canonical exhaustion markers, such as PD-1, Tox, and CD39 (encoded by *Entpd1*) on CD8 T cells harvested from chronically C13-infected mice, compared to the significant upregulation of activation markers KLRG1, CX3CR1, and CD44 on T_{EFF}, as well as GzmB production. Whereas differentiation into T_{MEM} was accompanied by the upregulation of the expression of the alpha subunit of interleukin-7 (IL-7) receptor, IL7Rα (CD127). As previously reported [1, 7, 10, 24, 26], we observed that the majority of T_{EFF} (d8 p-inf. with LCMV-Arm) exhibited that the activated phenotype KLRG1$^+$PD1$^-$CD127$^-$, that shifted to the KLRG1^{lo}CD127$^+$ phenotype as the cells transitioned to the T_{MEM} phenotype (d15 and d30 p-inf. with LCMV-Arm) (Fig.1B,C,D, and Supp. Fig.1A,B, Supp. Fig.2F). In parallel, the majority of early-T_{EX} (d8 p-inf. with LCMV-Cl13) displayed the PD1$^+$CD127$^-$ with a significantly lower frequency of cells that are KLRG1$^+$. The frequency of KLRG1$^+$ cells progressively decreased during the intermediate and late exhaustion phases that are (d15 and d30 p-inf. With LCMV-Cl13), whereas the majority of antigen-specific CD8 T cells remained PD1$^+$CD127$^-$.

We successfully quantified more than 6,700 proteins across the entire dataset, which meets our expectations based on similar cell types we have analyzed (Supp. Fig.2A). Expression levels for proteins from four biological replicates showed strong correlation (Supp. Fig.2B). Most importantly, the abundance of individual proteins displayed a wider dynamic

range than that of mRNAs; where protein measurements spanned several orders of magnitude
more than that spanned by transcriptional profiling of mRNAs from previously published data
(Supp Fig 2C-E). This means that relative measurements of protein abundance using
MassSpec in our dataset can measure proteins with very low abundance, including transcription
factors not highly expressed by a specific T cell state such as Tox expression in T_{EFF}/T_{MEM}, with
comparable accuracy to top-ranked proteins such as GAPDH and histone proteins.
We next sought to confirm the concordance between the expression levels of canonical
markers of T cell differentiation as measured by flow cytometry (MFI) and the protein
abundance of the same markers quantified by MassSpec. This comparison validated that the
relative protein abundance quantified by MassSpec of the canonical markers of the different cell
states recapitulates the expression patterns measured by flow cytometry (Fig.1D-E, and Supp.
Fig.1F,G). This was true for markers associated with activation and effector phenotype
including granzyme B, CD44, CX3CR1, and KLRG1, as well as exhaustion-associated markers,
such as PD1, Tox, and Entpd1.
Globally, differentiation of naive CD8 T cells in the context of acute or chronic infection
was accompanied by substantial changes in their proteomic profile that followed two distinct
pathways, as reflected in the principal component analysis (PCA) (Fig.1E). This confirmed the
unique differentiation path for T_{EX} as compared to the T_{EFF}/T_{MEM} proteomically that was
previously shown phenotypically[25, 26], transcriptionally[10, 24], and epigenetically[2, 8]. Quantitatively,
activation from the naive T cell state to either T_{EFF} or early-T_{EX} was accompanied by changes in
~1,000 proteins, which is significantly higher than the protein modulations occurring at further
stages of differentiation. Importantly, these proteomic changes from the naïve state included
significant downregulation of 337-401 proteins, confirming previous findings that the naïve state
of T cells is actively maintained[20] (Fig.1F). Significant changes continued as the antigen-
specific CD8 T cells transitioned from a Teff-dominated response at the early stage of infection
(d8) towards a T_{MEM}-dominated response at the intermediate stage of acute infection (d15)
(~200 proteins changing), and to a much lesser extent from intermediate to late stages (only 22
proteins). However, during chronic infection significant proteome modulation extended from the
early-intermediate exhaustion transition to the intermediate-late exhaustion transition, with
changes in the levels of 200 and 114 proteins, respectively.
Overall, the dynamic protein changes accompanying transitions between cell states in
acute and chronic infections are in line with previously reported transcriptional and epigenetic
studies[2, 8, 10, 24]. Major modulation of the T cell proteome occurs following activation and
transition from the naïve state, with subsequent more limited modulations as the cell
differentiates during the intermediate and late stages of infection.
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Expression profiles of proteins defining T cell activation and differentiation in the context
of acute LCMV-Arm infection.
Previous work has demonstrated key phenotypic, transcriptional, and epigenetic markers and
pathways in the differentiation of naïve T cells into effector then into memory T cells[1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 10, 24,
25, 26]. Several studies of early T cell differentiation upon brief *in vitro* stimulation demonstrated
extensive remodeling of the proteome upon activation, as well as a degree of discordance
between proteomic and transcriptomic quantifications, allowing the elucidation of several novel
insights into the biology of T cell activation, and the specific roles of various transcription factors,
kinases, and environmental cues in shaping the T cells proteome[14, 16, 17, 18, 19, 21]. However, the
elucidation of the full extent of *in vivo* dynamic changes of the proteome longitudinally during the

various stages of acute infection accompanied by the differentiation of naïve T cells into
T_{EFF}/T_{MEM} has not been studied. We analyzed the high-resolution MassSpec profiling of the
proteome of antigen-specific CD8 P14 T cells sorted on d8, d15, and d30 post-infection (p.inf.)
with acute LCMV-Arm. Our analyses revealed extensive changes of the T cell proteome upon
activation, where the protein abundance of 962 proteins was significantly changed as the cells
differentiated from naïve to T_{EFF}, compared to less changes as the CD8 T cells transitioned from
the effector to the memory state as only 204 proteins significantly changed their abundance
between d8 and d15 post-infection with acute LCMV-Arm. Very limited change was observed
between the intermediate (d15) and late (d30) time points, where only 23 proteins were
significantly different between these two time points (Supp Fig.3A). Comparing each of the
T_{EFF}/T_{MEM} cell states at the various phases of infection to the initial naïve state confirmed these
dynamics, where the change in abundance of 301 proteins remained stable at the various
T_{EFF}/T_{MEM} cell states compared to 538 proteins that only exhibited statistically significant
between naïve and d8-T_{EFF} (Supp Fig.3B). Additionally, as with the pairwise analyses between
the different time points, the significant changes in protein abundance when comparing all time
points to naïve T cells reflected modest changes post the activation phase, with 97 proteins that
exclusively changed abundance between d8 and d15, and only 50 proteins were exclusive
between d15 and d30 (Supp Fig.3B).
Unsupervised clustering of our protein abundance data for CD8 T cell differentiation
during acute infection showed dynamic changes of the T cell proteome (Fig.2A). Compared to
naïve T cells, ten protein modules were observed that followed distinct kinetics (Fig.2A-B).
Clusters 1 and 2 represented modules that showed consistent downregulation post-activation of
naïve CD8 T cells, where the abundance of these proteins remained lower than that of naïve T
cells in T_{EFF}/T_{MEM} starting at the earliest time point examined (d8 p.inf.) until the latest time point
(d30 p.inf.). Other modules exhibited temporary downregulation, e.g. cluster 3 that showed
lower abundance of its proteins at the early stage of infection (d8), but regained a level of
expression comparable to naïve T cells by d15. Conversely, cluster 4 showed slower kinetics of
change, where the proteins within this cluster exhibited changes in their abundance only at the
intermediate stage of infection (d8), and these changes persisted until d30. Cluster 5 despite
lower abundance of its proteins at the early stage of infection (d8), they exhibited similar or
slightly higher levels than naïve T cells. The remaining clusters generally showed an increase
in their relative abundance compared to naïve T cells with variable kinetics. Whereas cluster 6
and 7 showed higher abundance of its proteins at the early stage of infection (d8), but regained
a level of expression comparable to naïve T cells or slightly higher by d15, clusters 8, 9 and 10
showed persistently higher abundance throughout the time course examined, with low,
intermediate or high abundance, respectively, compared to naïve. Some biological processes
associated with representative clusters are represented in Fig.2C. Where proteins in cluster 6
that exclusively show higher abundance of its proteins at the early stage of infection (d8), were
associated with DNA replication, metabolic processes, and mitotic cell processes. On the other
hand, proteins in clusters 9 and 10, that showed higher abundance sustained until d30, were
associated with inflammatory responses, leukocyte activation, and cell migration, as well as
killing of cells and granzyme-mediated pathways (Fig.2C).
Pairwise analysis focusing on individual proteins showed significantly increased protein
abundance of the canonical markers associated with each state (Fig.2D-F). Comparing the T_{EFF}
proteome from the peak of the immune response (d8) to either the naive state or the d15
proteome accompanied by the T_{EFF}-to-T_{MEM} transition showed increased abundance of Ki67

(encoded by the *Mki67* gene), granzyme B (*GzmB*), and CX3CR1, whereas the abundance of
TCF-1 (*Tcf7*) was significantly higher in naïve/T_{MEM}. For the T_{EFF}/naïve comparison, many other
proteins were significantly more abundant in the activated and highly functional T_{EFF}, such as
the functional proteins GzmA, gamma-interferon (IFNγ) and perforin, the activation marker
CD44, as well as the transcription factors T-bet (*Tbx21*) and Zeb2. Additionally, several
proteins that were not among the top differential mRNAs in the microarray are currently under
investigation for their potential roles in T cell differentiation in the context of acute infection.
Analyzing the correlation between our protein abundance analysis and transcriptional
analysis using microarray data from Doering et al.[24], showed that generally there was a
correlation between the changes in protein abundance measured by proteomics and the
changes in mRNA measured by microarray (Fig.2G-I). Similar to the previous analyses,
activation and functional markers were highly enriched in d8-T_{EFF} compared to naïve cells or
d15 (Fig.2G), whereas memory markers became more enriched as the cells transitioned to a
more profile by d15 (Fig.2H). Again, minimal changes were observed between d15 and d30
(Fig.2I).
Together, our longitudinal proteomic profiling of the protein abundance landscape of
antigen-specific CD8 T cells during acute viral infection corroborated with transcriptional and
epigenetic profiling of these cells, where extensive modulation occurs at the early stages of
infection as the cell exits the naïve quiescent state into the activated antigen-experienced state,
followed by moderate changes as they differentiate from the effector to the memory state. Our
results also confirmed previous findings from proteomic profiling of eukaryotic cells that showed
subtle differences in protein abundance of specific proteins as compared to the quantification of
their corresponding mRNAs measured by transcriptional profiling. Several proteins revealed by
our protein abundance were not previously investigated for their role in T cell differentiation in
the context of acute infection and are under investigation.
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Common and distinct dynamic changes of the T cell proteome in the context of acute
LCMV-Arm and chronic LCMV-Cl13 infections.
T cell exhaustion is a hallmark of cancer and chronic viral infection. The generation of exhausted
CD8 T cells (T_{EX}) is associated with failure to clear tumor cells and virus-infected cells, mainly due
to progressive hierarchical loss of functions[6, 26, 27]. T cell exhaustion represents an independent
differentiation path adopted by T_{EX} completely distinct from the differentiation path of
effector/memory T cells (T_{EFF}/T_{MEM}) generated during acute infection[2, 9, 10, 26, 28, 29, 30]. This is
reflected by the unique phenotypic, metabolic, transcriptional, and epigenetic profiles distinct from
T_{EFF}/T_{MEM} that start very early post-infection[24, 31, 32,33, 34, 35, 36].
We harnessed the full potential of the LCMV mouse model that enables comparison of
antigen-specific CD8 T cells with the same specificity during acute and chronic infection in
parallel, and was the well-established model used to establish the uniqueness of phenotypic,
metabolic, transcriptional, and epigenetic profiles of T_{EX} that start very early post-infection[24, 31, 32,33, 34, 35, 36]. Dissecting the protein abundance profile of P14 cells at the different stages of
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infection under both acute and chronic conditions compared to naive P14 cells revealed
interesting dynamics of the proteome. The kinetics of protein abundance could be grouped into
16 modules (Fig3A, B). Some of these modules had comparable kinetics in both acute and
chronic conditions, such as modules associated with exiting the naïve state, e.g. upregulated
clusters C15/C16 and downregulated cluster C1/C2, that maintained the increased/decreased
abundance compared to naïve throughout the course of infection. Other modules with common
kinetics were associated with activation, where the protein abundance was significantly changed

at the early time point (d8) but reverted close to the naïve levels by d30 e.g. upregulated C9 and
downregulated cluster C5/C6. Some clusters showed gradual decrease/increase under both
settings, e.g. upregulated C11 and downregulated cluster C3.
Several biological processes were associated with the different proteomic modules that
are commonly regulated in CD8 T cells under both acute and chronic conditions (Supp. Fig.4B).
In the modules associated with exiting the naïve state, clusters containing proteins with higher
abundance compared to naïve cells (C15/C16) were associated with cytokine production,
inflammatory response, as well as leukocyte differentiation and migration, whereas lower
abundance clusters' proteins (C1/C2) were associated with processes such as negative
regulation of growth. Activation-specific clusters were associated with higher abundance of
proteins involved in pyrimidine nucleoside biosynthesis (C9), and lower abundance of proteins
associated with small molecule and lipid catabolism and galactose metabolism (C5/C6).
Thus, by profiling the protein abundance landscape of CD8 T cells using acute LCMV-
Arm in parallel with LCMV-Cl13 enabled defining common proteomic modules that suggests
they represent core program of T cell differentiation, compared to acute-specific and chronic-
specific programs (Fig.3A-B, and D-F).
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Specific proteomic modules are associated with T cell exhaustion during chronic LCMV-
Cl13 infection.
Therapeutically targeting T_{EX} to reverse their dysfunction revolutionized cancer immunotherapy.
Immune checkpoint blockade (ICB) strategies, such as PD1:PDL1 pathway blockade, to
reinvigorate T_{EX} demonstrated significant success in curing cancer patients[37]. However, not all
patients benefit from immunotherapy[38], and ICB does not have the same success rate in all cancer
indications. Even successful checkpoint blockade is not durable in all cases due to lack of
modulation of the epigenetic landscape of T_{EX} by immunotherapy[8, 9] or upon complete cure of
chronic disease[39, 40]. Hence, there is an urgent need to further our mechanistic understanding of
T cell exhaustion, to rationally design novel therapeutic strategies that would expand the benefits
of immunotherapy to more patients and new indications.
Thus, we next focused our analyses on the exhaustion-specific modules (Fig.3A-C, and
Supp. Fig.4A-B) and pairwise comparison of T_{EX} versus T_{MEM} (Fig.3D-H, and Supp. Fig.4C-E),
especially during later stages of infection. Several modules within our unsupervised clustering
had distinct dynamics in T_{EX} compared to T_{EFF}/T_{MEM}. For some of these modules, there was
consistently relative higher abundance of component proteins in T_{EX} versus T_{EFF}/T_{MEM},
C4/C7/C10, whereas for other modules T_{EX} had differential kinetics compared to T_{EFF}/T_{MEM}, e.g.
C8/C12/C13/C14. GoTerm analysis of biological processes associated with the proteins leading
these modules revealed that clusters containing proteins with consistently higher abundance in
T_{EX} (C4/C7/C10) were associated with processes such as response to interferon-beta, negative
regulation of the immune system, and negative regulation of metabolic processes such as
proteolysis, peptidase activity, and hydrolase activity (Fig.3A-B, and Supp. Fig.4B). Clusters
with differential kinetics, where abundance of proteins in T_{EX} at the early stage of infection (d8)
was comparable to T_{EFF} but was higher than T_{MEM} at intermediate and late stages,
C12/C13/C14, were linked to lymphocyte activation, adaptive immune response, DNA
replication, and mitotic cell-cycle processes. Whereas the cluster that had higher protein
abundance in T_{EX} than T_{EFF} at the early stage of infection (d8) but lower abundance than T_{MEM} at
the late stage of infection (d30), C8, associated with translation, as well as peptide metabolism
and biosynthesis. Some of these biological processes showed extensive modulation of most of
their components in T_{EX} versus T_{EFF}/T_{MEM}, such as respiratory chain complex 1 and

mitochondrial ribosomes (Fig.3C, and Supp. Fig.4E), underscoring the significant impact of
proteome modulation on the flexibility of the cellular metabolic state.
A main advantage of using the LCMV-Arm in parallel with LCMV-Cl13 is the ability to
determine the core program of T cell differentiation versus acute-specific and chronic-specific
programs. Proteins associated with the core T cell differentiation program are reflected by the
intersection between Arm and Cl13 Venn diagrams, as well as proteins within the top-right and
bottom-left quadrants of the correlation graphs when compared to naïve proteomic profile
(Fig.3D-F). Pairwise analyses of the acute/Arm versus chronic/Cl13 protein abundance profiles
revealed proteins that are specific for each state at the different stages of infection, where 245,
351, and 292 proteins were significantly different between acute and chronic at the early,
intermediate, and late stages of infection, respectively (Supp. Fig.4A). Volcano plots highlighted
the T_{EX}-specific proteins of significant abundance compared to T_{EFF}/T_{MEM}, at the various stages
of infection (Fig.3G, and Supp. Fig.4C-D). Dissecting the proteomic profile of late-T_{EX} compared
to T_{MEM} by comparing LCMV-Cl13 and LCMV-Arm at d30 (Fig.3G) demonstrated significantly
elevated protein abundance of canonical exhaustion markers for late-T_{EX} that have been
extensively studied (red dots in the volcano plots). These included the inhibitory receptors
(IRs), CD39 (encoded by *Entpd1*), PD1 (*Pdcd1*), TIM3 (*Havcr2*), 2B4 (*Cd244*), LAG3 and TIGIT,
in addition to the transcription factors (TFs), Tox and Eomes. Additionally, proteins belonging to
the interferon-stimulated genes (ISGs) Isg15, Ifit1, and Isg20, several members of the granzyme
family granzyme-B, -K, and -A, the apoptosis-associated protein Caspase-3, and the
proliferation marker Ki67 (*Mki67*), were significantly more abundant in T_{EX}, as previously
reported. Some of these markers showed consistent higher protein abundance by T_{EX} versus
T_{EFF}/T_{MEM} at the various stages of chronic disease, including the hallmark marker of exhaustion
PD1, and other checkpoints such as LAG3 and TIGIT, as well as Tox, the main TF orchestrating
the exhaustion program[33, 34, 35] (Supp. Fig.4C-D). Conversely, the activation marker KLRG1
consistently exhibited lower abundance in T_{EX} versus T_{EFF}/T_{MEM}, in addition to lower abundance
of the memory-associated marker CD127 (*Il7r*) and TF TCF1 (*Tcf7*) at the intermediate and late
stages. This was also associated with enrichment in previously published signatures of T_{EX} and
dysfunctional CD8 T cells (Fig.3H). Additionally, several proteins that have not been extensively
studied for their role in the T_{EX} biology showed significantly different abundance in T_{EX} versus
T_{EFF}/T_{MEM} (gray dots in the volcano plots), which merits further investigation.
Together, these analyses show similar patterns for protein abundance of T_{EX}-associated
established markers that go in line with previously reported transcriptional and epigenetic
profiling in the same LCMV mouse model, as well as in other T cell exhaustion/dysfunction
models and datasets. More importantly, our protein abundance profiling of T_{EX} revealed novel
proteins with potential role in the exhaustion biology that requires further investigation to
validate their specific function.
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Integration of proteomic-transcriptomic profiling data of T cell differentiation.
Transcriptomic analysis has been pivotal to our understanding of T cell differentiation. However,
for some genes mRNA amounts are unable to predict protein amounts upon T cell activation *in*
vitro [20, 41, 42]. However, the correlation between transcript and protein abundance during T cell
differentiation *in vivo* has not been elucidated.
We sought to compare the correlation between the fold-change in protein abundance in
comparison to the fold-change in transcripts between T_{EX} and T_{EFF}/T_{MEM} at the different stages
of infection using microarray data from Doering et al.[24] (Fig.4A). Our analyses revealed a

correlation coefficient of 0.47-0.49 for the late and intermediate time points, and even a lower
correlation (0.28) for the early stage of infection, suggesting moderate to low correlation
between measurements of the transcriptional changes and protein abundance changes across
the different time point. This could be attributed partially to the higher median protein intensity
compared to the median microarray counts (Supp. Fig.5A). Additionally, when categorizing the
transcriptional data according to the median transcript counts, it revealed that the main
discrepancy was for mRNAs with lower median counts (Fig.4B, and Supp. Fig.5B). This argues
for higher accuracy for protein abundance measurements over a wider dynamic range
compared to transcriptional measurements. However, when focusing on a specific group of
exhaustion-specific markers that were consistently higher in T_{EX} versus T_{EFF}/T_{MEM} there seemd
to be better correlation (Supp. Fig.5C).
These results are similar to previously published estimates in B cells, and has been
generally reported for eukaryotic cells[43, 44], and underscores the importance of performing
proteomic profiling for accurate characterization of the protein interactome of the cell, since
transcriptional profiling might not be the ideal proxy for protein abundance for all proteins and
under all conditions.
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Discussion

We performed the first in vivo longitudinal proteomic profiling of antigen-specific CD8 T cell in the context of both acute and chronic viral infection compared to naïve T cells. Our analyses showed dynamic protein changes accompanying transitions between cell states in acute and chronic infections that are in line with previously reported transcriptional and epigenetic studies[2, 8, 10, 24]. Most modulations of the T cell proteome occur at the early stages of infection following activation, as the cells exit the naïve state, whereas subsequent modulations as the cell differentiates during the intermediate and late stages of infection are more limited. Longitudinal proteomic profiling during acute viral infection corroborated with previously published transcriptional and epigenetic characterization of these cells, but several proteins identified by our protein abundance were not previously investigated for their role in T cell differentiation in the context of acute infection, and future studies are needed to investigate their potential role in T cell differentiation. Using acute LCMV-Arm in parallel with LCMV-Cl13 enabled defining common proteomic modules that suggests they represent a core proteomic program of T cell differentiation, versus acute-specific and chronic-specific programs. Analysis of the LCMV-Cl13 chronic infection setting showed similar patterns for protein abundance of T_{EX}-associated established markers that go in line with previously reported transcriptional and epigenetic profiling in the same LCMV mouse model, as well as in other T cell exhaustion/dysfunction models and datasets. More importantly, our protein abundance profiling of T_{EX} revealed novel proteins with potential role in the exhaustion biology that necessitates investigation to validate their specific function.

The fields of immunology and immunotherapy are on a quest for novel interventions to enhance the efficacy and durability of immunotherapy. One overlooked and understudied aspect for T cell biology is profiling the biochemical alterations within the cells, including the protein interaction landscape that highlights pathways which may functionally influence the exhausted state. Despite thorough characterization of T cell differentiation using microarray[10, 24], bulk RNAseq[5, 35], and single-cell RNAseq[45, 46], numerous studies highlighted the limited correlation between RNA and protein levels, and the discordance between the half-lives of mRNA and their corresponding proteins, underscoring the fact that transcriptional profiling is not an ideal proxy for protein expression[12, 13]. Several endeavors were made to characterize modulation of the protein-interactome of T cells upon activation in vitro, and the profiling of cells from human samples ex-vivo, the direct *ex-vivo* mapping of the proteome associated with the different states of T cell differentiation under various conditions is lacking. This data is essential since it could bring invaluable insights into biochemical networks driving the T cell effector/memory and exhaustion programs, as well as identify novel roles of specific proteins in the differentiation of T cells that might have been overlooked due to discrepancies between the gene expression levels measured by transcriptional profiling and the actual protein abundance which could only be resolved by proteomic profiling. Future work should focus on dissecting the specific role of newly reported proteins in our dataset in T cell differentiation, and their impact in the modulation of the protein interactome of CD8 T cells.

State-of-the-art mass spectrometry-based proteomics is capable of quantifying thousands of proteins[47], and is a powerful tool for studying both biochemical networks and proteomic phenotypes. While proteomics has been applied to provide a better understanding of

T cell activation *in vitro* [15, 16, 17, 48], there is no systematic proteomic study investigating

differentiation of antigen-specific T cells directly *ex-vivo*. A global understanding of the

proteomic landscape accompanying T cell exhaustion will highlight opportunities for therapeutic

intervention. Defining the exhaustion-specific biochemical alterations and functional pathways

holds promise to identify novel targets for immunotherapeutic interventions that were not

identified by transcriptional profiling. Indeed, our preliminary analyses for applying protein

abundance profiling of T_{EX} using the well-established LCMV mouse model identified proteins

differentially abundant in T_{EX} compared to T cells in acute settings that were not previously

identified by other profiling methods. The work presented here is an endeavor to address

important unanswered questions: Which differentially abundant T_{EX}-associated proteins

functionally impact the exhaustion program? and what is the potential of manipulating these

exhaustion-associated proteins to synergize with checkpoint blockade?

Mass spectrometry-based proteomics is a powerful tool for studying the dynamics of

mRNA translation kinetics and protein turnover in T cells [49], or the systematic assessment of T

cell activation mediated by the T cell antigen receptor [50]. To date, there is no systematic

proteomic study investigation T cell exhaustion with antigen-specific cells in the LCMV model,

arguably the most well established and characterized model for studying T cell differentiation in

the context of acute and chronic infection[2, 7, 8, 9, 10, 24, 25, 26, 27]. To our knowledge, our application

of cutting-edge proteomics to study this well-established mouse model of T cell differentiation is

the first endeavor for an unbiased longitudinal proteomic analysis of antigen-specific exhausted

T cells directly *ex-vivo*. We have pioneered the use of proteomic analysis to study T cell

exhaustion in this model system, demonstrating striking results that recapitulate known

exhaustion markers and identify novel proteins of interest. Investigating the potential role of

these understudied proteins in the T_{EX}-biology could unravel promising drug targets.

Author contributions

MSA conceptualized the study. MSA and DEG conceived and designed the experiments. ASD and AO performed the immunology experiments with help from AF, SM, CN, AA, and CR. SM and CN provided technical help with flowcytometry panels. ASD was responsible for mouse breeding and colony maintenance with help from AAG. CMB performed the proteomics experiments with help from SLW. CMB performed the proteomic analyses. CMB performed the bioinformatic analyses. MSA wrote the manuscript. CMB prepared the figures with help from ASD and MSA.

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Materials & Methods

Mice

Age and sex matched C57BL/6 mice (CD45.2+) from The Jackson Laboratory between the ages of 5-7 weeks, were used for all infection experiments. Both male and female mice were used in the study. P14 TCR transgenic mice expressing a TCR specific for the H-2D^b GP33-41 epitope of LCMV were bred at Emory University. Transgenic P14 CD8 T cells were harvested from mice aged between 6-24 weeks from donor P14 mice matching the gender of the recipient mice. Mice were maintained in a temperature-controlled animal facility at Emory University with a 12-h light/dark cycle. All experimental procedures and breeding conditions were in accordance with Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) guidelines for Emory University.

Adoptive T cell transfer and LCMV infections

Peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) containing P14 CD8+ T cells (CD45.1$^+$) were adoptively transferred intravenously (i.v.) into recipient mice (CD45.2$^+$) one day before infection with LCMV. Recipient mice were engrafted with either $5×10^3$ P14 cells for LCMV-Arm, and $1×10^3$ P14 cells for LCMV-Cl13. For acute viral infections, mice were injected intraperitoneally (i.p) with $2×10^5$ plaque-forming units (PFU) of LCMV-Arm. For chronic viral infections, mice were injected i.v. with $4×10^6$ PFU of LCMV-Cl13. LCMV-Arm and Cl13 were grown in BHK cells (ATCC, catalog no. CCL-10) at a multiplicity of 0.01, 0.02 and/or 0.1 and supernatants were harvested at 60h post-infection. Viral productions were titrated on VERO cells (ATCC, catalog no. CCL-81) using plaque assay as previously described (1).

Cell preparation

Spleens isolated from mice at each time point (days 8, 15, and 30) post-infections with LCMV-Arm and Cl13, were collected and homogenized together as a pooled sample using 70-μm cell strainers to remove clumps. Cells were then centrifuged at 500x g for 5 minutes at 4°C. After removing the supernatant, the cell pellet was resuspended in ammonium-chloride-potassium (ACK) lysis buffer and incubated for 3 minutes at room temperature to lyse the red blood cells. After incubation, an additional 20 mL of RPMI + 1% fetal bovine serum (FBS) was added to neutralize the lysis buffer, and the cells were centrifuged at 500x g for 5 minutes at 4°C. The resulting cell pellet was resuspended in RPMI + 10% FBS, and then counted. The splenocytes were then used for flow cytometry and cell sorting. Before cell sorting, CD8+ T cells were enriched from total splenocytes using the EasySep™ Mouse CD8+ T Cell Isolation Kit (STEMCELL Technologies) (routinely >90% purity).

Antibodies, flow cytometry and cell sorting

The following fluorochrome-conjugated antibodies were used (clone mentioned in parentheses). From Biolegend: anti-CD44–BV785 (IM7), dilution 1:300; anti-CD45.1–A700 (A20), 1:200; anti-CD69–BV785 (H1.2F3), 1:200; anti-CD127–PE-Cy5 (A7R34), 1:200; anti-PD-1–PE-Cy7 (RMP1-30), 1:200; anti-PD-1–APC-Fire 810 (29F.1A12), 1:200; anti-TIM3–BV605 (RMT3-23), 1:200; anti-CX3CR1–BV650 (SA011F11), 1:200. From BD Biosciences: anti-CD8–BV650 (53–6.7), 1:200; anti-CD8–BUV805 (53–6.7), 1:200; anti-CD44–BUV737 (IM7), 1:200; anti-CD45.1–FITC (A20), 1:200; anti-CD45.1–BUV496 (A20), 1:200; anti-CD39–BV711 (Y23-1185), 1:200; anti-PD-1–BV786 (29F.1A12), 1:200; anti-Ly108–BB700 (13G3), 1:200; anti-granzyme–PE-CF594 (GB12), 1:100; anti-TCF-1/TCF7–R718 (S33-966), 1:100. From ThermoFisher Scientific: anti-

CD101–PE-Cy7 (Moushi101), 1:100; Live/Dead Fixable Aqua Dead Cell Stain Kit, 1:500; Live/Dead Fixable Blue Dead Cell Stain Kit, 1:500. From Miltenyi Biotec: anti-TOX–APC (REA473), 1:100. From Southern Biotech: anti-KLRG1–FITC (2F1), 1:150. Tetramers of MHC class I H-2D^b GP33 were obtained from the NIH Tetramer Facility, Emory University, dilution 1:500.

Flow cytometry surface staining was performed by incubating cells with indicated antibodies for 20 minutes at 4°C. Intracellular staining was conducted with the eBioscience™ Foxp3/Transcription Factor Fixation/Permeabilization Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Flow cytometry data were obtained using BD FACSymphony™ A5 prior to sorting to examine the phenotypes of LCMV-specific CD8 T cells. Subsequently, Cytek Aurora (Cytek Biosciences) was used to achieve greater depth in phenotypic analysis. Data were analyzed using FlowJo™ v10.10 Software (FlowJo, LLC).

The enriched CD8+ T cells were stained on ice for 20 minutes with the relevant antibodies cocktail. P14 cells (CD45.1$^+$GP33$^+$) were sorted with a FACS Aria II (BD Biosciences) using a 70-mM nozzle in RPMI, 10% FBS. P14 cells were sorted from different time points on days 8, 15, and 30 post-infections with LCMV in four replicate experiments. Naïve P14 cells were also sorted to provide a benchmark for protein expression in naïve T cells. At least 2x10^5 antigen-specific CD8 T cells were sorted from the different samples. Following FACS sorting, cells were washed twice in ice-cold PBS and frozen pellets were used for proteomics analysis. Sorted cells were washed twice in PBS and snap-frozen at -80 °C.

Proteomics sample preparation

Cell pellets were resuspended in 100 mM Tris pH 8, supplemented with 1% SDC, 10 mM TCEP, and 40 mM CAA. Samples were boiled for 10 min at 95 °C and sonicated in a Bioruptor (Diagenode) for 10 cycles of 30 sec on/30 sec off. The protein amount was determined by BCA following manufacturer instructions (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and samples were digested overnight with a 1:100 (w/w) Trypsin/Lys-C Mix (Promega) at 37 °C. 200 ng of peptides were loaded onto preconditioned EvoTips (EvoSep) and washed following manufacturer instructions.

LC-MS/MS

Samples were injected in an EvoSep One system (EvoSep) coupled to a timsTOF Pro2 mass-spectrometer (Bruker Daltonics). The peptides were loaded on a 15 cm Aurora Elite CSI column (IonOpticks) and chromatographic separation was achieved using the predefined 20 SPD method. The mass-spectrometer operated in positive polarity for data collection using data-independent acquisition (diaPASEF) mode[51]. DIA isolation windows were optimized by py_diAID, consisting of 4 ion mobility windows and 12 mass isolation windows[52]. All spectra were acquired within an m/z range of 100 to 1700 and fragmentation energy was set to 20 eV at 0.85 1/K0 and 59 eV at 1.30 1/K0.

Proteomics data analysis

Protein identification and quantification were performed using Spectronaut[53] (version 18) in library-free mode using the Mus musculus SwissProt database (UP000000589, downloaded on 7.1.2022, 17'090 entries) with default settings. Modifications were defined as follows, Carbamidomethylation (C) as a fixed modification, and Acetyl (Protein N-term) and Oxidation (M) as variable modifications. All further data processing was performed in R (version 4.3.1). Only proteins with at least 3 quantified values in at least one sample group were kept. Intensities were

normalized by median centering and logs2-scaling. Missing values were imputed by Bayesian
PCA imputation[54] and downshift sampling, for proteins missing at random or not at random,
respectively[55]. All statistical comparisons between the two groups were performed based on two-
tailed Student's t-tests. For analysis across multiple groups, ANOVA was employed. Gene
ontology enrichment analysis was performed in Metascape, defining all identified proteins as
background[56]. Correlations are reported as Pearson correlation unless otherwise noted. A p-value
below 0.05 was considered statistically significant.
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Integration of RNA sequencing data set
Public Microarray data from *Doering et al.* was downloaded from the original publication and the
Gene Omnibus website[24]. Single-cell transcriptomics (scRNASeq) data from mouse TILs were
downloaded from *Andreatta et al*[57]. Correlation of scRNAseq data was performed with CS-CORE,
using default settings[58]. To increase the robustness of the correlation approach, only gene
products with an average read count of at least 0.2 in one of the cellular subsets, as defined in
the original publication, were considered.

Data availability
The mass spectrometry proteomics data files will be deposited to the ProteomeXchange
Consortium via the PRIDE partner repository[59].

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Figure legends

Figure 1: Longitudinal proteomic profiling of antigen-specific CD8 T highlighting the differential expression of proteins in acute versus chronic conditions. (**A**) Experimental strategy detailing the profiling proteome-wide alteration in CD8+ T cell differentiating in acute resolving and chronic viral infections. (**B, C**) Representative flow cytometry dot plots demonstrating the levels of the canonical exhaustion marker PD-1 and the antigen-experienced marker Klrg1. (**D**) Comparison of protein expression assessed through flow cytometry (top) and proteomics (bottom). The absence of a measurement bar indicates no quantification. (**E**) Principal component analysis (PCA) across all proteomics samples. (**F**) Quantification of protein abundance alterations across the T cell differential axis in acute resolving and chronic viral infections. Dark wedges represent up-regulated proteins ($p < 0.05$ from one-sided ANOVA, log2FC > 1), while grey wedges signify down-regulated proteins ($p < 0.05$ from one-sided ANOVA, log2FC > 1). N = 4 for all proteomics samples, with error bars representing mean ± standard deviation.

Figure 2: Expression profiles of proteins defining T cell activation and differentiation in the context of acute LCMV-Arm infection. (**A**) Unsupervised hierarchical clustering of proteins that exhibit significant regulation ($p < 0.05$ from one-sided ANOVA) and log2FC > 1 along the T cell differentiation pathway from naïve to the memory cell. (**B**) Longitudinal protein changes for proteins within selected clusters. (**C**) Gene ontology enrichment analysis of selected protein clusters derived from the heatmap. (**D, E, F**) Statistical analysis of protein alterations observed from naïve to memory effector antigen-specific T cells. (**G**, **H, I**) Comparison between proteomics measurements and data from a published microarray study by *Doering et al.*[24] N = 4 for all proteomics samples and microarray samples.

Figure 3: Common and distinct dynamic changes of the T cell proteome in the context of acute LCMV-Arm and chronic LCMV-Cl13 infections. (**A**) Unsupervised hierarchical clustering of proteins that shows significant regulation ($p < 0.05$ from one-sided ANOVA) and log2FC > 1 comparing acute resolving and chronic viral infections. (**B**) Comparison of protein alterations between acute and chronic T cells across each clustering. (**C**) Distribution of protein expression change belonging to the respiratory chain complex 1 across all samples. (**D**, **E**, **F**) Scatter plots comparing protein expression changes of acute and chronic infected T cells relative to Naïve ones on days 8, 15, and 30. (**G**) Volcano plot depicting proteins having statistically significant abundance in CD8 T cells isolated from mice infected with Armstrong or Clone 13 strains 30 days post-infection. (**H**) Protein signatures of statically regulated proteins from G), extracted by CellMarker. N = 4 for all proteomics samples. Sample correlation was determined using Pearson correlation. The Jaccard index was employed to compare statically significant regulated proteins ($p < 0.05$, absolute log2 FC > 1).

Figure 4: Integration of T cell mRNA and protein profiling reveals variable correlation profiles for different proteins. (**A**) Scatter plots comparing proteomics data with microarray data from *Doering et al*. for the various time points. (**B**) Evaluation of microarray depth concerning significantly regulated proteins identified by either microarray or proteomics experiments. Sample correlation was determined using Pearson correlation.

Supplementary Figure legends

Supplementary Figure 1: Flowcytometry validation of the phenotype and sorting purity of antigen-specific CD8 T cells used for proteomic profiling by MassSpec.
(**A**) Gating strategy for flow cytometry analysis.
(**B**) Representative dot plots of the phenotypic analysis of antigen-specific CD8 T cells.
(**C**) Representative dot plots reflecting the sorting purity (post-sorting, right panels) compared to the original frequencies pre-sorting.

Supplementary Figure 2: Logistics of protein abundance profiling of antigen-specific CD8 T cells in the context of acute and chronic infection.
(**A**) Number of quantified proteins in the different samples.
(**B**) Correlation between the different samples from the four replicates .
(**C-E**) Dynamic range for the protein abundance quantification for the naïve (**C**), acute (**D**), and chronic (**E**) samples.
(**F**) Comparison of protein expression assessed through flow cytometry (top) and proteomics (bottom). The absence of a measurement bar indicates no quantification. **E**) Principal component analysis (PCA) across all proteomics samples.
(**G**) Correlation between protein expression levels assessed through flow cytometry (Y-axis) and proteomics (X-axis).

Supplementary Figure S3: Protein abundance alterations during T cell differential in acute viral infection.
(**A**) Quantification of protein abundance alterations across the T cell differential axis in acute viral infection.
(**B**) Significant protein alterations intersections at the different time points post-infection with acute LCMV-Arm compared to naïve CD8 T cells.

Supplementary Figure S4: Protein alterations in the context of T cell exhaustion
(**A**) Quantification of protein abundance alterations at the specific time points between the acute and chronic infections at a given time point.
(**B**) Biological processes associated with significant protein alterations intersections at the different time points post-infection with acute LCMV-Arm compared to naïve CD8 T cells.
(**C-D**) Volcano plots depicting proteins having statistically significant abundance in CD8 T cells isolated from mice infected with Armstrong or Clone 13 strains at 8 (**C**) or 15 (**D**) days post-infection.
(**E**) Distribution of protein expression change belonging to the mitochondrial proteins across all samples.

Supplementary Figure S5: Integration of transcriptional and proteomic profiling of antigen-specific CD8 T cells.
(**A**) Comparison of median microarray count and median log2 protein intensity across samples.
(**B**) Correlation between the log2 fold change of proteins (X-axis) versus log2 fold change of mRNA (Y-axis) in Cl13 samples compared to Arm samples.
(**C**) Heatmaps reflecting dynamic changes in selected exhaustion-associated markers across samples, from proteomic analysis (left) and microarray analysis (right).
Microarray data from *Doering et al.*[24]

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Figure 4: Integration of T cell mRNA and protein profiling reveals variable correlation profiles for different proteins. (**A**) Scatter plots comparing proteomics data with microarray data from *Doering et al.* for the various time points. (**B**) Evaluation of microarray depth concerning significantly regulated proteins identified by either microarray or proteomics experiments. Sample correlation was determined using Pearson correlation.

Supplementary Figure 1: Flowcytometry validation of the phenotype and sorting purity of antigen-specific CD8 T cells used for proteomic profiling by MassSpec. (**A**) Gating strategy for flow cytometry analysis. (**B**) Representative dot plots of the phenotypic analysis of antigen-specific CD8 T cells. (**C**) Representative dot plots reflecting the sorting purity (post-sorting, right panels) compared to the original frequencies pre-sorting.

Supplementary Figure 2: Logistics of protein abundance profiling of antigen-specific CD8 T cells in the context of acute and chronic infection. (**A**) Number of quantified proteins in the different samples . (**B**) Correlation between the different samples from the four replicates . (**C-E**) Dynamic range for the protein abundance quantification for the naïve (**C**), acute (**D**), and chronic (**E**) samples. (**F**) Comparison of protein expression assessed through flow cytometry (top) and proteomics (bottom). The absence of a measurement bar indicates no quantification. (**E**) Principal component analysis (PCA) across all proteomics samples. (**G**) Correlation between protein expression levels assessed through flow cytometry (Y-axis) and proteomics (X-axis).

A

B

Supplementary Figure S3: Protein abundance alterations during T cell differential in acute viral infection. (**A**) Quantification of protein abundance alterations across the T cell differential axis in acute viral infection. (**B**) Significant protein alterations intersections at the different time points post-infection with acute LCMV-Arm compared to naïve CD8 T cells.

Supplementary Figure S4: Protein alterations in the context of T cell exhaustion. (**A**) Quantification of protein abundance alterations at the specific time points between the acute and chronic infections at a given time point. (**B**) Biological processes associated with significant protein alterations intersections at the different time points post-infection with acute LCMV-Arm compared to naïve CD8 T cells. (**C-D**) Volcano plots depicting proteins having statistically significant abundance in CD8 T cells isolated from mice infected with Armstrong or Clone 13 strains at 8 (**C**) or 15 (**D**) days post-infection. (**E**) Distribution of protein expression change belonging to the mitochondrial proteins across all samples.

Supplementary Figure S5: Integration of transcriptional and proteomic profiling of antigen-specific CD8 T cells. (**A**) Comparison of median microarray count and median log2 protein intensity across samples. (**B**) Correlation between the log2 fold change of proteins (X-axis) versus log2 fold change of mRNA (Y-axis) in Cl13 samples compared to Arm samples. (**C**) Heatmaps reflecting dynamic changes in selected exhaustion-associated markers across samples, from proteomic analysis (left) and microarray analysis (right). Microarray data from *Doering et al.*[24].