Functionally Distinct pTfh1 Subsets with Roles in Malaria-Specific Immunity

Running title: Tfh cell diversity in human infection

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Abstract

Antibodies induced by infection or vaccination are essential mediators of protection. Induction of

these protective responses is mediated by T-follicular CD4 T (Tfh) cells, and targeting these cells may

be a strategy to boost antibody mediate protection. In humans, Tfh cells are analysed based on

expression of CXCR3 and CCR6, with different subsets of Tfh (Tfh1, Tfh2, Tfh17) associated with

antibody induction in a context-dependent manner. Here we dissected Tfh cells heterogeneity in

healthy donors and individuals during controlled human malaria infection using scRNAseq. We

identified two distinct Tfh1-like subsets with functional relevance, defined based on CCR7

expression. $CCR7^{neg}$ Tfh1 cells express markers of cytotoxicity, while $CCR7^{pos}$ Tfh1 cells produce

reduced inflammatory cytokines and similar IL-21 resulting in unique cytokine milieu. In controlled

human malaria infection, both $CCR7^{pos}$ and $CCR7^{neg}$ Tfh1, along with Tfh2 cells, clonally expanded

and were transcriptionally and phenotypically activated. However, only $CCR7^{pos}$ Tfh1 and Tfh2 cells

associated with antibody development, suggesting a role for both these Tfh subsets in promoting

humoral immunity to malaria. Data identify specific protective Tfh subsets that can be targeted to

improve antibody mediated protection to malaria induced, and provide a frame work to dissect the

role of Tfh subsets in other disease contexts.

Introduction

Antibodies and B cells induced by infection or vaccination are essential mediators of protection from most pathogens. This includes malaria, caused by *Plasmodium falciparum* infection, which remains one of the largest killers globally with >200 million cases and 600 000 deaths annually [1]. While the introduction of two malaria vaccines, RTS,S/AS01 and R21/Matrix-M, bring new hope to malaria control efforts, these vaccines only have modest and variable efficacy that is short-lived [2,3]. Antibody development is driven by T-follicular helper (Tfh) cells, the key CD4 T cell subset that function within the germinal centre to support B cell activation. Cytokine and receptor mediated signals from Tfh cells, drive B cell selection, support antibody class switching, and differentiation into antibody-producing long-lived plasma cells and memory B cells. As such, Tfh cells are attractive targets to boost naturally acquired or vaccine-mediated protection and longevity [4]. To develop such therapies, an improved understanding of how Tfh cells drive antibody development in malaria and specific disease contexts is required.

Tfh cells, identified by expression of C-X-C chemokine receptor 5 (CXCR5) and programmed cell death protein (PD1), are recognised to exist in distinct subsets, which have specific and context dependent roles in antibody induction. These Tfh subsets take on characteristics of CD4+ T cell helper cell lineages [5], and are commonly analysed by CXCR3 and CCR6 expression to identify Tfh1 (CXCR3+/CCR6-), Tfh2 (CXCR3-/CCR6-) and Tfh17 (CXCR3-/CCR6+) cells, both in the periphery and also in (GC) Tfh cells in secondary lymphoid tissues [6]. The development and activation of Tfh subsets may be underpinned by 'skewing' of Tfh cells by the cytokine milieu induced during infection or vaccination, allowing Tfh cells to adopt specific roles to influence B cell development [5,7]. Indeed, defined Tfh cell subsets have differing abilities to activate naïve or memory B cells and have been associated with antibody development in a pathogen and vaccine-dependent manner. For example, Tfh2 cells have the highest capacity to activate naïve B cells, and peripheral (p)Tfh2 cells have been associated with the development of broadly neutralizing antibodies in HIV infection [8]. On the other hand, Tfh1 cells robustly activate memory B cells, and the activation of pTfh1 cells are consistently associated with antibodies induced by influenza vaccination [9,10]. Thus, development of strategies to

target Tfh cells to boost antibody development require a context specific and in-depth understanding

of specialised Tfh subsets that drive protective antibodies.

In malaria, progress has been made to define roles of Tfh cells in antibody development in infection

and vaccination [11]. Studies by our team have shown that the activation of pTfh2 cells was associated

with antibody development during controlled human malaria infection (CHMI) with *P. falciparum* [12].

Similarly, others have shown that pTfh2 cells are associated with induction of antibodies by approved

and experimental malaria vaccines [13–15]. These association are observed despite the overall response

during malaria being dominated by pTfh1 cells [12,16,17]. Further, in Malian children, pTfh1 cell

activation was not associated with antibody development following malaria treatment [17], and pTfh1

cells have been associated with induction of short-lived plasma cells which may hamper the germinal

centre [12,18]. As such, data suggests that strategies that can boost Tfh2 and reduce Tfh1 activation may

improve malaria antibody development. However, recent studies by our team have shown that these

relationships are more nuanced, with Ugandan children who had the highest levels of protective

antibodies having increased frequencies of activated pTfh2 and pTfh1 cells [19]. Additionally, parasite

activated pTfh1 cells induced T-bet+ B cells with high IgG3 expression [20], and IgG3 antibodies are

consistently associated with protection from malaria [21]. To develop Tfh cell targeted approaches to

improve malaria antibody development and longevity in infection and vaccination, an increased

understanding of the specific Tfh cells that drive protective antibodies is required.

We hypothesised that contradictory results may be in part due to the limited approaches to identify

subsets of Tfh cells, and an improved understanding of Tfh heterogeneity would reveal protective

subsets associated with antibody development in malaria. In this study, we applied scRNAseq and

spectral flow cytometry to unique clinical cohorts to discover functionally relevant Tfh cell subsets

that have differing roles in malaria antibody development. We identify two transcriptionally and

phenotypically distinct pTfh1 subsets in healthy individuals which can be identified based on CCR7

expression, with differences in expression of cytotoxic markers and cytokine production. Tracking

pTfh cell activation with sc-RNA/VDJ-seq during CHMI, we show Tfh subset specific activation and

clonal expansion, with increased activation and clonal expansion of pTfh1 CCR7^{pos} compared to other

subsets. Finally, we show that antigen specific pTfh1 CCR7^{pos} cells, along with pTfh2 cells, but not

pTfh1 CCR7^{neg} cells associated with development of functional and protective antibodies following

malaria. Our data explain previous contradictions in the field and highlight the phenotypic and

functional diversity of Tfh cells during human infection. Data open new avenues to develop

approaches which harness Tfh cells to enhances vaccine efficacy and improve antibody development

and protection.

Results

Analysis of Tfh cells with scRNAseq identifies two Tfh1-like subsets

We hypothesised that hidden diversity of Tfh cells with distinct functional capacity, not captured in

traditional analysis methods, underpinned the unclear roles of Tfh subset in antibody development in

malaria. To dissect this diversity and identify protective Tfh subset that drive malaria antibody

development we first performed scRNAseq on pTfh cells sorted from healthy human donors (n=4, sex

50% males, aged 28.5 [25.5-35], median [IQR] years). To understand the link between commonly

identified Tfh cells and potential hidden diversity, we sorted three Tfh subsets (pTfh1, pTfh2 and

pTfh17 from CXCR5+ PD1+ cells), based on classical definitions of CXCR3/CCR6 expression,

alongside the less functional or less activated CXCR5+ PD1- compartment (**Fig. 1A, Supplementary**

Fig. S1A). After QC, a total of 7,302 cells were analysed with high quality cells captured from each

donor and subset (pTfh1 n= 2,089, pTfh2 n=717, pTfh17 n=744, PD1- n=2,839, **Supplementary Fig.**

1B). Following data integration by donor (**Supplementary Fig. 1C**), we identified 11 Tfh cell clusters

using a combination of unsupervised and semi-supervised clustering methods (**Fig. 1B-D,**

Supplementary Table 1). Strikingly, two distinct Tfh1 clusters were identified, both with relatively

high expression of *CXCR3* and *CST7* (annotated Tfh1_cytotoxic and Tfh1_CCR7). A Tfh2 cluster

was identified with high expression of genes associated with GC Tfh cells, including *TOX2* [22,23]*, MAF*

[24,25]*,* and *TCF7*. The signature of this cluster mapped to the majority of tonsil GC Tfh cells in a

publicly available data set [26] (**Supplementary Fig. 1D**), confirming the transcriptional relationship

between Tfh2 cluster and GC Tfh cells identified here and reported previously [8]. Tfh17 cluster was

annotated based on high expression of genes associated with Th17 cells *CCR6, BHLHE40,* and

TGFB1 [27–29]. Most cells within these Tfh1/Tfh2 and Tfh17 transcriptional clusters were sorted from

the PD1+ cells (**Fig. 1B/C**). Other transcriptional clusters included cells enriched in Type I IFN genes

(annotated as IFNI), a cluster enriched with heat shock proteins (annotated stress), another cluster

enriched with ribosomal genes (annotated ribosomal), and two clusters without clear marker genes

(cluster 2, possibly a quiescence cell subset, with upregulation of genes *BTG1* and *ZFP36L2,* and

cluster 3 which only had limited upregulated genes including annexin family members *ANXA1*,

ANXA2, *S100A10)* (**Fig. 1D**). Analysis of key T helper genes also identified a small cluster of cells

positioned close to the Tfh1 cluster that expressed a mixture of Tfh1/Tfh17 signature, which were

manually clustered and annotated as Tfh1.17 (**Fig. 1B/D**). Additionally, another subset of cells

expressing *FOXP3* and Treg signature genes including *CTLA4* was identified manually and annotated

as Tfr (**Fig. 1D**). The remaining Tfh cell subsets expressed diverse levels of markers associated with

various aspects of Tfh or CD4 T cell development, with no clear patterns of expression across subsets

(**Supplementary Fig. 1E**).

Comparing the two cell clusters identified as Tfh1 cells, the Tfh1_cytotoxic cluster had high

expression of *GZMK*, *GZMM*, *CCL5* and *NKG7* (**Fig. 1D/E, Supplementary Fig. 1E,**

Supplementary Table 2). The signature of the Tfh1_cytotoxic annotated cells overlaps with

cytotoxic Tfh cells previously identified in mice models, including the increased expression of

EOMES [30], and in a recent small analysis of human Tfh cells from the periphery and tonsil

[31] (**Supplementary Fig. 1E**). Potentially cytotoxic, granzyme-K expressing pTfh cells have also

recently been identified in type-1 skewed response in mice, and in human CMV specific pTfh cells [32].

In contrast, the Tfh1_CCR7 cluster had lower expression of cytotoxic markers, and instead had

increased expression of *CCR7* and *SELL*. Differential expression of CCR7 along with PD1 has

previously been used to differentiate Tfh subsets within CXCR5+ cells in both mice and humans, with

$CCR7^{lo}/PD1^{hi}$ described as effector cells and $CCR7^{hi}/PD1^{lo}$ described as resting cells [33]. However

here, both Tfh1_cytotoxic and Tfh1_CCR7 subsets largely existed in clusters that were from the

PD1+ sorted populations thus identifying an unappreciated gradient of CCR7 expression within PD1+

cells (**Fig. 1C/F, Supplementary Fig. 1F).** Pathway analysis of Tfh1_CCR7 and Tfh1_cytotoxic

cluster marker genes highlighted the shared and divergent transcriptional signatures of these cells

(**Supplementary Fig. 1G**). For example, both subsets were enriched for 'Th1 pathway', and

'Interferon gamma signalling', while only Tfh1_CCR7 cells were enriched in 'Th2 pathway' and

'ICOS-ICOSL Signalling in T Helper Cells' suggesting potential functional differences between the

two transcriptional clusters (**Supplementary Fig. 1G**). Together with the distinct expression of

cytotoxic markers, data suggests Tfh1 cells exist in two distinct and functionally relevant subsets.

To dissect the relationship between the diversity of Tfh cells identified transcriptional, and the

phenotypic subsets these cells would have been characterized as with flow cytometry, the degree of

overlap between designated Tfh cell subsets and sorted cell phenotypes was analysed. Tfh1_cytotoxic,

Tfh1_CCR7, Tfh2 and Tfh17 clusters, defined by transcriptional profiles, were mainly found in cells

expressing *PDCD1*. Further, *CXCR3* and *CCR6* expression overlapped with the pTfh1 and Tfh17

sorted populations, respectively, suggesting some overlap between transcriptional clusters and those

identified via CXCR3 and CCR6 expression (**Fig. 1C**). Nearly all cells found within both Tfh1

transcriptional clusters (Tfh1_cytotoxic and Tfh1_CCR7), were from the pTfh1 sorted cell population.

However, the sorted pTfh1 population also contained cells from all other transcriptional subsets.

Similarly, the phenotypic pTfh2 population was dominated by the Tfh2 transcriptional subset but also

contained cells with diverse transcriptional annotations (**Fig. 1F, Supplementary Fig. 1F**). This

pattern was also seen for the phenotypic pTfh17 population. The PD1- phenotypic cells contained

cells of all clusters, but were dominated by IFNI, stress, ribosomal and cluster 2 and cluster 3 cells.

Thus, while commonly used flow cytometry strategies do overlap with transcriptional diversity,

further phenotypic markers would be required to fully dissect Tfh cell subsets.

To understand the clonal sharing between clusters, TCR sequences were analysed. TCR sequences

with complete TRA/TRB genes were captured for 3,998 (55.6%) cells. Clones were defined by the

sharing of identical amino acid sequences. While the majority of TRA/TRB cells were singletons

(3839 clones), clonal expansion was detected in 159 cells across 57 clones ranging in size from 2 to

20 identical clones. Clonal expansion was detected particularly within the Tfh1_cytotoxic subset

(**Supplementary Fig. 1H**). As expected, no clones were shared across individuals (**Supplementary**

Fig. 1I) Within each clonotype, we examined the fate sharing clones to investigate if clones of the

same family tend to share the same transcriptional subsets or were found across diverse Tfh

phenotypes. 40/57 clonotypes (70.2%) were found in a single subset. Clonal sharing was evident

between Tfh1_cytotoxic and Tfh1_CCR7 but not Tfh2 transcriptional clusters, while Tfh2 shared

clones with ribosomal, cluster 2 and cluster 3 cells (**Fig. 1G**). Together, these data show that while

commonly used phenotypic markers CXCR3 and CCR6 can resolve some heterogeneity in pTfh cells,

alternative distinct Tfh subsets, particularly within the pTfh1 compartment require additional

phenotypic markers to dissect subsets of potential functional relevance.

Fig. 1. scRNAseq analysis of pTfh cells from healthy individuals

A. Four populations were sorted from pTfh CD4+ cells from 4 healthy donors - 1) CXCR5+PD1-, 2)
CXCR5+PD1+ pTfh1, 3) CXCR5+PD1+ pTfh2, and 4) CXCR5+PD1+ pTfh17. Populations were
*analysed by 5' droplet scRNAseq for gene expression and TCR sequence. **B.** UMAP of data following*
*integration by donor, with 11 transcriptional subsets indicated. **C.** UMAP of data depicting cell sorted*
*identity. **D.** Relative gene expression of genes used to annotate transcriptional clusters. **E.** Average*
*expression of key genes in Tfh1_Cyto and Tfh1_CCR7 annotated transcriptional clusters. **F.***
*Relationship between cell sorted identity and transcriptional cluster identity in the data set. **G.** Fate*
sharing at the individual clonotype level across transcriptional subsets. Expanded clonotypes (n³2)
with only same fates (exist within the same subset), or different fates are shown See also
Supplementary Fig. 1 and Supplementary Table S1 and S2.

pTfh1 subsets with distinct phenotypic and functional characteristics can be defined by CCR7

expression

Transcriptional analysis identified two pTfh1-like subsets with distinct expression of cytotoxic and

memory associated genes suggesting functional relevance. To assess if these subsets could be

identified phenotypically and develop an approach to identify these subsets along with pTfh2 and

pTfh17 cells in clinical cohorts, we designed a comprehensive phenotyping panel for pTfh cells which

included commonly assessed chemokine receptors (CXCR3 and CCR6), markers identified in our

transcriptional data set or with reported roles in Tfh cell function or development (**Supplementary**

Table S3). To test this approach to define Tfh subsets, we first analysed pTfh cells in healthy human

donors (n= 19, sex 83.3% males, aged 24 years [20.2-28.2, median [IQR] years). pTfh cells were

identified based on CXCR5 and PD1 expression, and then analysed with unsupervised clustering

considering CXCR3, CCR6, CCR7, NKG7, GrzmB, GrzmK, cMAF, TIGIT and FoxP3. As seen in

transcriptomic analysis, unbiased clustering consistently identified two subsets of pTfh1 cells based

on CCR7 expression, where CCR7^{neg} cells also expressed high levels of NKG7, GrzmB and GrzmK,

while CCR7^{pos} cells were negative for these markers (**Fig. 2A, Supplementary Fig. 2A-C).** pTfh2,

pTfh17 and pTfh1-17 cells could also be identified with unbiased clustering (**Fig. 2A**). Additionally,

FoxP3+ Tfr cells were identified and largely clustered within the pTfh2 cell subset, consistent with

scRNAseq data (**Fig. 2A, Supplementary Fig. 2A-C**).

To assess if analysis of a single marker, CCR7, together with CXCR3 and CCR6 could capture this

underlying diversity in Tfh1 cells, we next applied manual gating approaches. Within pTfh cells

(CXCR5+PD1+ [FoxP3-/CD25-] CD4 T cells) a gradient of CCR7 expression was detected, and

pTfh1 cells could be divided into CCR7^{pos} and CCR7^{neg} subsets (**Fig. 2B, Supplementary Fig. 2D**).

Within pTfh subsets, expression of cytotoxic markers NKG7, GrzmB and GrzmK was significantly

higher in CCR7^{neg} pTfh1 compared to either CCR7^{pos} pTfh1 or pTfh2 and pTfh17 cells (**Fig. 2C-E**

Supplementary Fig. 2E). Within pTfh cells, we also quantified cMaf which was upregulated in Tfh2

cell clusters, and SAP (*SH2D1A)* and TIGIT which were increased transcriptionally in Tfh1_CCR7

cells (**Fig. 1D**). cMaf and SAP have essential roles in GC Tfh cell development [34], and TIGIT is

reported to have highest expression in GC-Tfh and pTfh2 cells [8]. cMaf expression was not different

between pTfh1 CCR7$^{neg/pos}$ cells, both of which had significantly lower expression compared pTfh2

and pTfh17, consistent with previous reports [8] (**Fig. 2F**). SAP expression was low across all subsets,

and was lowest in pTfh2, and comparable between the two pTfh1 subsets (**Fig. 2G**). Further, in

contrast to previous reports, TIGIT expression was highest on pTfh1 CCR7^{neg} cells compared to both

pTfh1 CCR7^{pos} and pTfh2 cells (**Fig. 2H**). Thus, while CCR7 expression could differentiate

populations of pTfh1 cells with distinct cytotoxic potential, how key transcriptional factors may

influence pTfh subsets requires further investigation.

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Figure 2: Phenotypic diversity of pTfh cell subsets based on CCR7 expression.
A comprehensive spectral flow cytometry panel was used to analyse pTfh cells in healthy individuals
(n =19). (A) pTfh cells were identified by CXCR5 and PD1 and analysed with unbiased analysis of
indicated markers. UMAP of a single experiment analysing n=7 individuals. Analysis performed three
independent times. (B) Tfh cells were analysed with manual gating. A gradient of CCR7 expression is
detected within pTfh cells, and pTfh1 CCR7neg (CCR7-) and pTfh1 CCR7pos (CCR7+) subsets can
be identified, along with pTfh2 and pTfh17 cells. Expression of cytotoxic markers NKG7 (C),
Granzyme K (D) and Granzyme B (E) and transcriptional factors cMaf (F), SAP (G), and TIGIT (H)
were analysed within pTfh cell subsets. Flow plots are a representative individual with marker
expression overlayed against CXCR3 and CCR6 or CCR7 and CD45RA. Boxplots with median and
IQR are indicated along with individuals. P is the paired Wilcoxon signed-rank test after adjustment

To further investigate potential functional differences of pTfh1 cell subsets, cytokine production from

pTfh cells was quantified following PMA/Io stimulation in healthy donors (**Supplementary Fig. 3,**

Supplementary Table S4, n=11, sex 36.36 % males, age 37.5[32-40], median[IQR] years). As seen

ex vivo, a gradient of CCR7 expression is detected within pTfh1 cell subsets identified with CXCR3

and CCR6 expression post stimulation (**Supplementary Fig. 3A/B**). Following PMA/Io stimulation

and within the commonly identified pTfh1, pTfh2 and pTfh17 cell subsets, the production of the Tfh-

related cytokine IL-21 was comparable, while pTfh1 produced higher IFNγ and TNF, pTfh2 produced

higher IL-4 and pTfh17 produced higher IL-17, as expected (**Supplementary Fig. 3C/D**). Production

of the regulatory cytokine IL-10 was detected at low levels in all subsets. When pTfh1 cells were

analysed based on CCR7 expression, there was no difference between pTfh1 CCR7^{pos} and CCR7neg

cells in IL-21, or TNF production, however Tfh1 CCR7neg cells produced significantly higher IFNγ,

IL-4 and a trend towards increased IL-10 (**Fig. 3A**). Further, when the total cytokine composition was

analysed, there was a significant difference in the cytokine composition produced by pTfh1 CCR7^{pos}

compared to CCR7^{neg} cells (**Fig. 3B**). Given the importance of the milieu Tfh cytokine production in

B cell responses [5], data suggest that subsets may have nuanced roles in antibody induction during

infection.

Together, these data show that transcriptionally, phenotypically and functionally, pTfh1 cell subsets

identified by CXCR3+ expression can be further distinguished based on CCR7 expression. These data

highlight a previously unrecognised diversity of pTfh cells in healthy individuals when only

considering subsets identified by CXCR3 and CCR6 expression, which may have important

implication to B cell development during infection.

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Figure 3. Functional diversity within pTfh cell subsets based on CCR7 expression
Cytokine production following PMA/ Io stimulation was measured by intracellular staining in healthy
individuals (n=11). pTfh cells subsets were identified by CXCR3 and CCR6 expression as pTfh1
(CXCR3+CCR6+), pTfh2 (CXCR3-CCR6-) and pTfh17 (CXCR3-CCR6+), and pTfh1 cells subsets
*identified as CCR7^{pos} and CCR7^{neg} cells. **A)**. IL-21, IFNγ, TNF, IL-4, IL-17, and IL-10 expression*
*within pTfh cell subsets. P is the paired Wilcoxon signed-rank test between pTfh1 cell subsets. **B)***
Overall cytokine production within pTfh1 CCR7^{pos} and CCR7^{neg} cells. P is permutation test in SPICE.
Box and whisker plots indicate first and third quartiles for hinges, median line and lowest and highest
values no further than 1.5 IQR from hinges. All individual data are represented by the grey dots and
lines. See also Supplementary Fig. 3.
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Expansion of pTfh1 and pTfh2 cell subsets in human malaria infection

To investigate the roles of pTfh1 CCR7^{pos} and pTfh1 CCR7^{neg} subsets, along with other pTfh cells,

during infection, we applied findings to human malaria with samples from a CHMI study cohort. pTfh

cells (CD45RA-CXCR5+PD1+) were sorted from individuals in CHMI at day 0 (prior to inoculation),

day 8 (peak infection), day 15 and day 36 (both after anti-parasitic drug treatment), and their

transcriptional profiles analysed using 5' droplet scRNAseq (n =4, 100 % males, age 22 [21.5-26],

median [IQR] years, **Supplementary Fig. 4A/B**). After QC, 27,552 cells were analysed, with high

quality cells captured from each donor and timepoint (day 0 n = 6,741, day 8 n=6,125, day 16

n=8,103, day 36 n=7,583, **Supplementary Fig. 4C**). Data were integrated based on donor and time

point **(Supplementary Fig. 4D),** and pTfh cell clusters identified by label transfer with scType (an

automated cell-type identification tool [35]), using the top 20 upregulated and downregulated marker

genes for each cell cluster identified in the healthy 'map' data set used as a reference

(**Supplementary Table S5**, **Supplementary Fig. 4E-H**). scType specificity scores were used to

collapse clusters into cell subsets (**Figure 4A, Supplementary Fig. 4H**). This approach identified

Tfh1_cytotoxic, Th1_CCR7, Tfh2, Tfh17, IFNI, stress, ribosomal, cluster 2 and cluster 3 subsets.

Tfh1.17 and Tfr cells were not included in the reference map because of overlapping signatures with

Tfh1/Tfh17 and Tfh2 subsets. Following label transfer, Tfh1.17 could not be identified manually,

however Tfr cells were identified by inspection of marker genes *FOXP3, CTLA4* and *IL2RA* (**Fig.**

4B). Gene expression of annotated cell clusters was consistent with the reference data set (**Fig. 4B,**

Supplementary Fig. 4G, Supplementary Table S6). For example, Tfh1_cytotoxic and Tfh1_CCR7

clusters both expressed *CXCR3*, with the two clusters having differing levels of inflammatory markers

including *GZMK*, *CCL5* and *NKG7,* which were increased in Tfh1_cytotoxic, and the memory

markers *SELL* and *CCR7,* which were increased in Tfh1_CCR7 (**Fig. 4B**). Similarly, Tfh17 cells

identified with label transfer had increased expression of *CCR6*, *BHLHE40* and *TNFRSF4*.

Interestingly, *TCF7*, *MAF* and *TOX2*, which were identified as marker genes in the reference data set

for Tfh2, were expressed both within the Tfh2 subset, but also relatively increased in the Tfh1_CCR7

cells in the infection data set (**Fig. 4B, Supplementary Fig. 4G).** Together, these data show the utility

of the reference map data set to identify Tfh cell subsets within sorted pTfh cells during multiple time

points in infection.

To investigate how the Tfh cell compartment was impacted by malaria, we assessed the proportion of

each cluster over time. There was a clear expansion of the Tfh1_CCR7 subset in all individuals at day

16 post infection, while Tfh1_cytotoxic cells were expanded at this time point to a lesser magnitude

(**Fig. 4C**). Tfh2 cells expanded in three of four individuals at day 8, consistent with the earlier

activation of this subset in this cohort reported previously [12]. Other subsets were not clearly impacted

by infection (**Supplementary Fig. 4I**). Within each subset, TCRA/B sequences were analysed. TCR

sequences with complete TRA/TRB genes were captured for 21,939 (77.97%) cells, and this was

comparable across the days/cell types (**Supplementary Fig. 5A**). Clones were defined as cells sharing

identical amino acid sequence in both TRA and TRB. During CHMI there was evidence of clonal

expansion at day 16, with a significant increase in clonal family size greater than 1 (**Fig. 4D/E**), and

increased Simpson Index, indicating increased clonal expansion (**Fig. 4F**). Expansion was highest in

Tfh1_cytotoxic and Tfh1_CCR7 clusters, consistent with the increased frequency of these cells and

indicative of clonal proliferation (**Fig. 4E, Supplementary Fig. 5B**). Clonal expansion was also

detected within Tfh2 cells at day 16 (**Fig. 4E**). As expected, minimal clonal sharing was detected

between donors with only a single clone shared between donor 0 and donor 1 on day 36, which may

indicate sequence convergence detected due to analysis of clones with amino acid rather than

nucleotide sequence [36,37] (**Supplementary Fig. 5C**). All other clonal sharing occurred within an

individual, the majority at a single timepoint (**Supplementary Fig. 5D**). For donor 3, clones were also

shared across time points including day 0 prior to malaria, with large clonal families maintaining a

single fate across time in the Tfh1_cytotoxic cell cluster, possibly indicating a subset expansion

during a prior infection (**Supplementary Fig. 5D**). At day 16, where malaria associated expansion

was most evident, clonal sharing across Tfh cell clusters were analysed. While there was a minimal

sharing between Tfh1_cytotoxic and Tfh2 cell subsets, Tfh1_CCR7 cells shared clones with both

Tfh1_cytotoxic and Tfh2 cells, consistent with the overlapping profiles of Tfh1_CCR7 with both

Tfh1_cytotoxic and Tfh2 subsets (**Fig. 4G**). Taken together, these data are consistent with the

emergence of malaria specific Tfh cells with diverse transcriptional signatures during infection. These

include pTfh1 CCR7^{pos} cells with increased functional capacity, pTfh1 CCR7^{neg} cells with cytotoxic

phenotypes, and pTfh2 cells which are transcriptionally most similar to GC Tfh cells [8].

Figure 4: Clonal expansion of diverse pTfh cell subsets during malaria infection

A) pTfh cells (CXCR5+PD1+nnCD4 T cells) were isolated from individuals (n=4) during controlled
human malaria infection (CHMI) at day 0, 8, 16 and 36. scType label transfer was used to identify Tfh
transcriptional subsets using the healthy Tfh cell data set as a reference. **B.** *Average expression of*
marker genes used to annotate reference data set in each subset in CHMI data set **C.** *Relative*
proportion of each pTfh transcriptional cluster during CHMI. Each individual is show. Statistical
testing was not performed due to limited sample size in scRNAseq data set. **D.** *Counts of clones with*
either a clone size = 1 (top) or clone size ≥ 2 across days (bottom). Clonal expansion was detected at
day 16. **E.** *Clone family size count over time in each subset - Clonal expansion was detected in*
Tfh1_cyto, Tfh1_CCR7 and Tfh2 clusters at day 16. **F.** *Simpsons diversity Index in each donor across*
time. **G.** *Clonal overlap at day 16 across clusters. Clonal size is indicated in count in top bar, each*
clonal proportion across subsets is indicated. See also Supplementary Fig. 4 and 5.
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Unique transcriptional activation of Tfh1 subsets during human malaria infection

To investigate transcriptional pathways activated in each Tfh transcriptional subset during malaria,

differential gene expression between day 0 and subsequent time points was performed with pseudo-

bulk analysis, grouped by individual (**Supplementary Table S7**). The largest transcriptional changes

were detected at day 16 within the Tfh1_CCR7 and Tfh1_cytotoxic subsets (**Fig. 5A**). Differentially

expressed genes (DEGs) at day 16 were also detected in Tfh2 cells consistent with clonal expansion

of these cells, and previously reported findings [12] (**Fig. 5A**). The number of DEGs was contracted by

day 36, with DEGs detected at this time point restricted to Tfh1_CCR7, suggesting this subset had a

sustained response to infection. The majority of DEGs at day 16 from Tfh1_CCR7, Tfh1_cytotoxic,

and Tfh2 were subset specific (**Fig. 5B**). Shared across all three subsets was the activation marker

CD38, and Tfh1_cytotoxic and Tfh1_CCR7 cells also both upregulated *MKI67* consistent with

proliferation and clonal expansion of these cells during malaria. However, overall expression of

activation and proliferation genes was highest in Tfh1_CCR7 cells (**Fig. 5C, Supplementary Fig.**

6A). Analysis of the top 20 upregulated genes from Tfh1_CCR7, Tfh1_cytotoxic and Tfh2 cells

highlighted the uniquely upregulated gene signatures identified from Tfh1_CCR7 and Tfh1_cytotoxic

cells (**Fig. 5D, Supplementary Fig. 6D**). Additionally, while shared upregulated genes also included

genes associated with increased inflammation and cytotoxicity including *NKG7, CCL5, GZMH,*

CXCR3 and *IFNG* the level of these genes was significantly higher in Tfh1_cytotoxic cells (**Fig. 5D,**

Supplementary Fig. 6B). Further, the transcriptional profile of Tfh2 cells was also maintained and

similar to that seen at day 0, despite upregulation of Tfh1 associated genes (**Supplementary Fig. 6C**).

Taken together, scRNAseq analysis of pTfh cells during malaria identify the activation, proliferation

and clonal expansion of Tfh1_CCR7, Tfh1_cytotoxic and Tfh2 cells with unique transcriptional

activation profiles.

Figure 5: Transcriptional activation of Tfh cell subsets during controlled human malaria infection
A. *DEGs for each cluster were calculated at day 8, 16, and 36 compared to day 0. The number of*
DEGs for each subset and timepoint. ***B.*** *Venn diagram indicating the shared and unique DEGS at day*
16 for Tfh1_cytotoxic, Tfh1_CCR7 and Tfh2 subsets. ***C.*** *Average expression of activation genes*
MKI67, CD38 and ICOS at day 16 in each Tfh subset compared to Day 0. ***D.*** *Average expression of*
top 50 unique upregulated genes for Tfh1_Cyto, Tfh1_CCR7 and Tfh2 (curated from top 20
upregulated DEGs in Tfh1_CCR7, Tfh1_cytotoxic and Tfh2) cells across all three subsets at day 16
subsets. See also Supplementary Figure 6.

Frequency and proliferation of malaria specific pTfh CCR7^{pos} cells is associated with the magnitude and function of antibody induction in CHMI

To confirm transcriptional findings at the phenotypic and antigen specific level and assess associations of different pTfh subsets with antibody induction, we applied our flow cytometry panel to identify pTfh subsets, including pTfh1 CCR7^{pos} and CCR7^{neg} cells to assessed the activation of pTfh cells during CHMI in a subset of individuals from a previously published cohort (n= 19, sex 83.3%% males, aged 24 years [20.2-28.2, median [IQR] years) [12]. Here we expanded on the published analysis by focusing on malaria specific pTfh cells which were identified by Activated Induced Marker (AIM) assays following PBMC stimulation with parasite infected RBCs (pRBCs) [16] (**Supplementary Fig. 7A).** Consistent with scRNAseq analysis, AIM+ (CD69+OX40+) pTfh cells were expanded at day 16 and 36 during CHMI. The frequencies of cells detected in control stimulated cultures (uninfected RBCs) were unchanged (**Fig. 6A).** The largest response of malaria specific (AIM+ in pRBC stim) pTfh cells occurred in pTfh1 CCR7^{pos} cells, however, increased frequencies of Tfh1 CCR7^{neg} and Tfh2 cells were also detected, consistent with the proliferation and expansion of these cells detected transcriptionally (**Fig. 6B).** Proliferation of AIM+ pTfh17 cells were also detected at day 36 (p=0.051), however given that pTfh17 cells did not expand clonally, nor have any detectable transcriptional changes during infection, these cells are likely to be TCR independent cells which are activated via cytokines within AIM assays [38]. Within malaria specific pTfh1 CCR7^{pos}, pTfh1 CCR7^{neg} and pTfh2 cells, there were significant increases in expression of activation markers ICOS and CD38, and proliferation marker Ki67 at day 16 and 36 (**Fig. 6C/D**). However, the expression of these markers was significantly higher on malaria specific pTfh1 CCR7^{pos} cells compared to other subsets, consistent with the greatest expansion and activation of pTfh1 CCR7^{pos} cells transcriptionally (**Fig. 6E/F**).

To investigate the link between each malaria specific pTfh cells and antibody development, we correlated malaria-specific pTfh cells with antibodies produced after infection in response to intact merozoites, quantified previously [12]. Antibody development was quantified with an antibody score which captured the magnitude, breadth and functionality of response, by measuring IgM, IgG and IgG

subclasses, C1q fixation, FcR crosslinking and opsonic phagocytosis [12]. The frequencies of malaria-specific pTfh1 CCR7^{pos}, pTfh1 CCR7^{neg} and pTfh2 cells correlated with each other, but not with pTfh17 cells (**Fig. 6G**). Despite this, pTfh1 CCR7^{pos} were correlated the most strongly and consistently with antibody induction compared to other subsets, and were positively correlated with total antibody score, and IgM and IgG to the merozoite (**Fig. 6G**), along with IgG1 and IgG2 (**Supplementary Fig. S7B).** In contrast, pTfh1 CCR7^{neg} cells only correlated with IgM and pTfh2 cells only correlated with antibody score (**Fig. 6G**). Similarly, while Ki67 expression amongst subsets was correlated, only Ki67+ pTfh1 CCR7^{pos} and Ki67+ pTfh2 cells were correlated with antibody score, IgG and IgM and antibody functions (**Fig. 6H, Supplementary Fig. S7D/E**). Together, data highlight that pTfh1 CCR7^{pos} and pTfh1 CCR7^{neg} cells have distinct functional potential. While both are activated in malaria, pTfh1 CCR7^{pos} cells, together with pTfh2 cells, are more strongly associated with antibody development.

Discussion

Here we provide data that advances understanding of Tfh cell subsets, highlighting their functional

diversity across the course of human malaria. Using unbiased analysis to integrate pTfh in the resting

state, we identify two clearly distinct pTfh1 subsets, which we show can be distinguished based on

CCR7 expression phenotypically. pTfh1 CCR7^{pos}cells do not express cytotoxic markers and produce

less inflammatory cytokines, but similar IL-21 levels compared to pTfh1 CCR7^{neg} cells. Expanding

our findings to the context of human infection, we show during malaria that while pTfh1 CCR7^{pos},

pTfh1 cytotoxic/CCR7^{neg}, and Tfh2 cell subsets expand, and are activated, activation pathways are

unique between the subsets. We show both transcriptionally and at the malaria specific level, the

magnitude of activation is greatest in pTfh1 CCR7^{pos} cells, which also expand clonally. Additionally,

the frequency and proliferation of pTfh1 CCR7^{pos} cells was most consistently associated with

antibody induction compared to other subsets. Taken together, these findings provide new knowledge

on Tfh cell activation and functions during human infection. The specific role of pTfh1 CCR7^{pos} and

pTfh2 cells, but not pTfh1 CCR7^{neg} responses in antibody induction during malaria informs

approaches to target Tfh cells to improve antibody development and protection.

Understanding the mechanisms driving the development of distinct Tfh cell subsets has important

translational implications for vaccine design and therapeutic interventions. Development of distinct

Tfh cell subsets is suggested to be mediated by cytokine skewing driven by distinct inflammatory

milieu occurring during different immune responses to infection or vaccination [5]. A recent

investigation of Tfh cell development in mice immunized with Type-1 or Type-2 adjuvanted

conditions supported this concept, inducing Tfh1 or Tfh2 cell-dominated responses, respectively [32].

However, a comparative investigation of Tfh cell development and function in different infections has

highlighted that cytokine signalling within Tfh cells is more important in driving subset fate than

pathogen class [7]. For example, within that study Tfh cell fates induced by LCMV and influenza, both

of which drive type-1 immune responses, were distinct and drove differing antibody responses [7],

highlighting nuanced roles of Tfh cell subsets in pathogen specific antibody development. While Tfh

cells enriched for different cytokine signalling pathways could be identified in human tonsils [7], how

distinct Tfh cell subsets develop in human infection is unclear. Further, our data highlight that even

within a single infection, induced pTfh cells are diverse. During malaria infection both pTfh1 CCR7^{pos}

and CCR7^{neg} subsets, along with pTfh2 are expanded, transcriptionally activated and malaria specific.

pTfh1 CCR7^{pos} cells shared clonal overlap with both pTfh1 CCR7^{neg} cells and pTfh2 subsets, but

these later subsets were largely clonally distinct from each other. Shared clonal relationships of

malaria specific pTfh1 and pTfh2 cells has been reported previously [39]. Whether these relationships

indicate cells along a single developmental pathway, or divergence from a parent population and how

cytokine signalling may influence subsets development is unknown.

The importance of understanding Tfh cell subset development is highlighted by the distinct functional

consequences on antibody development linked to Tfh cell subset function. Human studies linking Tfh

cell subsets to antibody development have largely been limited to identifying Tfh cell subsets based

on CXCR3 and CCR6 expression [8,9,40,41], including in malaria [12,16,17,19,39]. Alternatively, studies which

include a more comprehensive analysis of pTfh cells have not related Tfh cell diversity to antibody

development [31,42]. Here, our scRNAseq analysis shows that while CXCR3 and CCR6 are informative,

diversity is masked by this gating strategy. Of functional relevance, within pTfh1-like cells, we found

that pTfh1 CCR7^{neg} cells contain the large majority of Tfh cells expressing cytotoxic markers,

including *NKG7,* granzyme K and granzyme B. In contrast, these markers were absent from Tfh1

CCR7^{pos} cells, which produce less inflammatory cytokines but comparable levels of IL-21, resulting

in distinct cytokine milieu. Tfh cells with expression of cytotoxic markers have been identified

previously, and GC-Tfh cells which produce granzyme B in response to group A *Streptococcus* kill B

cells, potentially hampering antibody development [43]. More recently granzyme K+ CMV specific

pTfh cells were reported in humans. However, the function of these cells in the context of antibody

development is unknown [32]. During malaria infection, we show that that while malaria specific pTfh1

CCR7[pos], pTfh1 CCR7^{neg} and pTfh2 cell subsets are induced, only pTfh1 CCR7^{pos} and pTfh2 cell

subsets were clearly associated with antibody development. We have previously reported in the same

cohort that global pTfh2 cell activation early in infection (not considering antigen specificity) was

associated with antibody development [12]. While the importance of pTfh2 cells in antibody

development to malaria has been supported by others [13–15], a negative role of pTfh1 in antibody

development was difficult to rationalise in the context of what is known from *in vitro* studies and

animal models of induction of cytophilic IgG3 antibodies which protect from malaria [21]. Further, our

data from children in Ugandan in a high malaria transmission setting showed that children who had

the highest levels of functional antibodies had increased proliferating pTfh2 and pTfh1 cells [19]. Data

here resolve these contradictions with the identification of distinct pTfh1 cell subsets. Further studies

are required to investigate whether pTfh1 CCR7^{neg} cells with cytotoxic functions have negative roles

in antibody induction, and how pTfh1 CCR7^{pos} and pTfh2 cells function to induce protective

antibodies in malaria.

Limitations of our study include the analysis of pTfh cells isolated from peripheral blood of

volunteers, and not GC-Tfh within secondary lymphoid tissues. Future approaches to obtain and

analyse human secondary lymphoid tissue in the context of health and disease are needed. While pTfh

cells share overlapping signatures with GC-Tfh cells and are thought to provide a snapshot of the GC

response [6], activated pTfh may not fully represent all GC-Tfh phenotypes and functions [44]. Future

studies will focus on developing approaches for fine needle aspirate studies of draining lymph nodes

during human malaria infection as applied to COVID and influenza vaccination settings [44–48], and

investigating the immune response within the spleen in malaria infected individuals which is likely a

key site of antibody development in blood stage malaria [49,50]. Nevertheless, such approaches are not feasible for large human cohorts, thus data here on pTfh cells provides important insights that can be applied to other human infection and vaccinations. Future studies dissecting mechanisms of protective and disruptive Tfh cell development may lead to avenues to modulate Tfh cells during infection or vaccination to induced more robust and protective antibody responses.

In conclusion, this study provides important new knowledge on functional diversity with pTfh cells during human infection. We identify specific pTfh cell subsets that associate with antibody induction in malaria, thus informing the development of approaches that can target these cells to improve antibody development induced during vaccination. We provide a scRNAseq data set that can be applied to other diseases, and a optimised approach to identify distinct pTfh1 subsets based on CCR7 expression. The identification of further Tfh subsets and their potential functional importance is highly relevant to developing novel therapeutics or new vaccine strategies that can induce potent and long-lasting immunity against not only malaria, but other important pathogens.

Materials and methods

Ethics statement

Ethics approval for the use of human samples was obtained from the QIMR Berghofer Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC P1479) and the Alfred Health Ethics Committee (288/23). Written informed consent was obtained from all study participants.

Study cohorts

For CHMI studies, inoculum preparation, volunteer recruitment, infection, monitoring and treatment were performed as previously described [51]. In brief, healthy malaria naive individuals underwent CHMI with 2800 viable *P. falciparum* parasitized RBCs, and peripheral parasitaemia was measured at least daily by qPCR as described previously [52]. Participants were treated with antimalarial drugs at day 8 of infection when parasitaemia reaches approximately 20,000 parasites/ml. Blood samples

(from 5 studies across 6 independent cohorts) were collected prior to infection (day 0), at peak

infection (day 8) and 14 or 15 and 27-36 days (end of study, EOS) after inoculation (in analyses these

time points are grouped as 0, 8, 14/15 and EOS). PBMCs were isolated by Ficoll-Paque (Sigma,

USA) density gradient centrifugation, isolated PBMCs were cryopreserved in 10% DMSO/FBS.

Participants were healthy malaria naïve adults with no prior exposure to malaria or residence in

malaria-endemic regions. Clinical trials were registered at ClinicalTrials.gov NCT02867059 [53],

NCT02783833 [54], NCT02431637 [55], and NCT02431650 [55]. For trials NCT02867059,

NCT02783833, NCT02431637 all participants received the same study drug (no-randomization) and

3D7-strain parasites. For NCT02431650, participants were randomized 1:1 to receive study drug

or control and 3D7-strain parasites. Samples used here were from samples opportunistically

collected from volunteers who consented to donate blood for immunological studies within the parent

clinical trial. As such, no sample size estimation was performed for this immunology study.

PBMCs from healthy non-infected controls was collected by the same processes for analysis of

responses following PMA/Io stimulation, development of transcriptional map of pTfh cells in health

donors.

Sex as a biological variable: Both male and females were included in this study. For some parent

CHMI studies females of child baring age were excluded and as such the sex distribution is not evenly

distributed.

Ex vivo cell phenotyping with flow cytometry and activation induced marker assays

PBMCs were thawed in RPMI 1640 (Gibco) containing 10% FCS and 0.02% Benzonase and rested

for 2 hours at 37°C, 5% CO2, and then cultured overnight in 96-well plates in 10% FCS/RPMI at 1 x

10^6 cells per well and stimulated for 18 hours with pRBCS or uninfected red blood cells (uRBCs) at

1:1 ratio. pRBC stimulated cells were used to assess malaria specific responses, and uRBC stimulated

cells were used to phenotype all Tfh cells. PBMCs were stained with antibodies against CD49b and

LAG-3 along with Fc block for 45 minutes at 37C, 5% CO_2. Following 2 washes with PBS, cells were

then stained with LIVE/DEAD Fixable Blue Dead Cell Stain for 15 minutes at room temperature,

570 washed twice with 2% FCS/PBS, and then surface stained for 15 minutes at room temperature with

571 fluorescent-tagged antibodies from Biolegend (CA, USA), and BD Biosciences (CA, USA)

572 (**Supplementary Table S3**) e. After 2 washes with 2% FCS/PBS Cells were fixed and permeabilized

573 with eBioscienceTM Foxp3 / Transcription Factor Staining Buffer Set (Thermo Fisher Scientific

574 (MA, USA); Cat. #00-5523-00) solution for 20 minutes on ice. After 2 washes with 1X perm buffer,

575 intracellular staining was performed for 30 minutes on ice with fluorescent-tagged antibodies from

576 Biolegend (CA, USA), and BD Biosciences (CA, USA) (**Supplementary Table S3**). Cells were re-

577 suspended in 2% FCS/PBS, and events were collected on the Cytek Aurora 5 laser cytometer (CA,

578 USA).

579 **PMA stimulation and intracellular cytokine staining**

580 Approximately 1 x 10^6 PBMCs were used per patient per condition/ stain. Thawing of cryopreserved

581 PBMCs was done as previously described. For cytokine induction following PMA and Ionomycin

582 stimulation, PBMC samples were rested overnight in 10% FCS/RPMI after thawing. After rest,

583 PBMCs were stimulated with PMA (25 ng/ mL; Sigma) and Ionomycin (1 ug/mL; Sigma) for 6 hours

584 at 37°C, 5% CO2. Brefeldin A (10 ug/mL; BD Biosciences) and monensin (10 ug/mL; BD

585 Biosciences) were added after the first 2 hours of stimulation. To account for downregulation of

586 chemokine receptors after exposure to BFA and monensin, antibodies against CCR7, CXCR3,

587 CXCR5 and CCR6 were added alongside Fc block during stimulation with PMA/Ionomycin, prior to

588 addition of BFA and monensin. Anti-CD107a was also included during stimulation for intracellular

589 capture. After stimulation, cells were washed with PBS and stained at room temperature for

590 15 minutes with LIVE/DEAD Fixable Blue Dead Cell Stain, washed twice with 2% FCS/PBS, and

591 then surface stained with the antibodies listed in **Supplementary Table S4** for 15 minutes at room

592 temperature. Following 2 washes with 2% FCS/PBS, cells underwent fixation/permeabilization with

593 eBioscience Fixation/Permeabilization solution for 20 minutes on ice and washed in permeabilization

594 buffer. Intracellular staining (ICS) with the antibodies listed in **Supplementary Table S4** was

595 performed for 30 minutes on ice following washes with permeabilization buffer and then fixed with

596 BD stabilizing fixative. Samples were acquired on Cytek Aurora 5.

Flow cytometry data analysis

Flow cytometry data was analysed using FlowJo v10 and then analysed on R (version 4.4.2). For unsupervised data analysis, spectre (version 1.2.0) was used [56].

Single Cell RNA sequencing and analysis

Cell isolation

Healthy reference data set – PBMCs from four healthy donors were thawed in thawed in RPMI 1640 (Gibco) containing 10% FCS and 0.02% Benzonase. Cells were rested for 2 hours in 10% FCS/PBS at 37C, 5% CO_2. After rest, untouched CD4+ T cells were enriched from PBMCs using the CD4+ T cell isolation kit (Miltenyi). Enriched CD4+ T cells were then incubated with Fc block for 15 minutes and then surface stained with antibodies listed in **Supplementary Table S8** for 15 minutes at room temperature. Cells were washed with 0.5% BSA/PBS and stained for viability with Sytox Blue (Invitrogen (CA, USA), Cat. # S34857) and sorted on BD FACSAria™III Cell Sorter into 0.5% BSA/PBS. Four populations of cells were sorted, PD1- Tfh (nnCD4/CXCR5+/PD1-), pTfh1 (nnCD4/CXCR5+/PD1+/CXCR3+ CCR6-), pTfh2 (nnCD4/CXCR5+/PD1+/CXCR3- CCR6-) and pTfh17 (nnCD4/CXCR5+/PD1+/CXCR3- CCR6+). After sorting, cells of a single phenotype were pooled and run on a single 10X Chromium lane.

CHMI – PBMCs collected at day 0, 8, 16, 36 from four participants in CHMI study NCT02867059 [53] were thawed in RPMI 1640 (Gibco) containing 10% FCS and 0.02% Benzonase. Cells were washed with 0.5% BSA/PBS and then incubated with Fc block and antibodies against pan-gD and CXCR5 for 15 minutes at room temperature. Following that, the other antibodies listed in Stain 2 in **Supplementary Table S9** were added and cells were incubated for another 15 minutes at room temperature. Cells were washed and stained for viability with Sytox Blue (Invitrogen (CA, USA), Cat. # S34857) and sorted on BD FACSAria™III Cell Sorter into 0.5% BSA/PBS. Live Tfh cells were sorted as nnCD4, CXCR5+PD1+ cells. After sorting, cells from a single time point were pooled and run on a single 10X Chromium lane.

10 X Genomics Chromium GEX Library preparation and sequencing

Sorted cells were loaded into each lane of Chromium Next GEM Single Cell 5' Reagent Kit v2 and

Gel Bead-in- Emulsion (GEMs) generated in the 10X Chromium Controller (Chromium Next GEM

Single Cell 5' Kit v2, PN-1000263, Chromium Single cell V(D)J Amplification Kits: Human TCR,

PN-1000252, Chromium Next GEM Chip K Single Cell Kit, PN-1000286, , Dual Index Kit TT Set

A, PN-1000215). 5' Gene Expression

Libraries and VDJ libraries (TCR) were generated according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Generated libraries were sequenced in a NextSeq 550 System using High Output Kit (150 Cycles)

version 1 according to the manufacturer's protocol using paired-end sequencing (150-bp Read 1 and

150 bp Read 2) with the following parameters Read 1: 26 cycles, i7 index: 10 cycles, i5 index: 10

cycles and Read 2: 90 cycles.

Demultiplexing and analysis

ScRNAseq data was demultiplexed, aligned and quantified using Cell Ranger version 3.1.0 software

(10x Genomics) against the human reference genome (GRCh38-3.0.0) with default parameters. Cell

genotype was obtained using cellsnp-lite [57] with the list of informative SNPs obtained from

1000_Genome_Project [58]. Then vireo was used to predict the original donor utilising the cell's

haplotype ratios, only predicted singlets were used for the analysis [59]. Cell ranger count matrices for

each sample were loaded, merged and analysed using Seurat package v4.3.0 and v5.1.0 [60] and

visualised with scCustomize v3.0.1 [61]. The healthy reference and CHMI datasets were processed as

two separate datasets. Cells were filtered to remove those expressing fewer than 200 genes and more

than 4000 genes, and those with more than 10% mitochondrial content. Only genes expressed in three

or more cells were considered. TRA/TRB gene expression were removed from the GEX dataset prior

to further downstream processing.

For Healthy Reference map – Dataset was split by donor and then each individual donor dataset was

normalised with SCTransform where highly variable genes were also selected. Before integration, the

most variable genes shared among the donor datasets were identified using FindintegrationAnchors

and were used to integrate the datasets using the IntegrateData function. Following that, PCA

dimensionality reduction was performed using RunPCA and the top 20 PCs were used to compute

UMAP visualisation using RunUMAP.

For <u>CHMI data</u> - Dataset was split per donor and day, then each individual donor_day dataset was

normalised with SCTransform where highly variable genes were also selected.[62] Before integration,

the most variable genes shared among the datasets were identified using FindIntegrationAnchors and

used to integrate the datasets using the IntegrateData function. Following that, PCA dimensionality

reduction was performed using RunPCA and the top 20 PCs were used to compute UMAP

visualisation using RunUMAP.

Cell cluster annotation

<u>Healthy reference map –</u> We applied unsupervised clustering using the Louvain algorithm as our

modularity optimisation technique and set the granularity of clusters at a resolution of 0.3. A cluster

with high mitochondrial content and low read counts was removed as it implies a cluster of cells of

low quality. RNA-level counts were log-normalised using NormalizeData (scale factor = 10,000 by

default) and were used to run FindMarkers for identifying cluster marker genes as part of cluster

annotation. This identified the Tfh1 cluster, along with Tfh2, Tfh17 stress, ribosomal, Type I IFN,

cluster 2 and cluster 3 clusters. We then visualised the expression of Treg-related genes (*FOXP3* and

IL2RA) on the map to identify a cluster of cells belonging to Tfreg within Tfh2 cluster, and another

subset of Tfh1/17 cluster which expressed *RORC* along with *CXCR3*, that were positioned separately

from the main Tfh1 cluster. Further sub-clustering was also attempted on each of the main Tfh1/2/17

clusters separately to identify any higher-level annotations/groupings that could exist within each

subset, however only 2 sub-clusters within the Tfh1 subset were suggested to be of functional

difference. Automated cell labelling tool, scType [35], was used to transfer labels from the healthy

reference Tfh map onto a published human tonsil Tfh dataset [26] containing non-GC and GC Tfh

subsets. Detailed steps of how the label transfer was performed is as per described below in CHMI

data section. Cluster markers of each cluster were further analysed for pathway enrichment using the

Ingenuity Pathway Analysis (IPA) suite (v01-22-01, QIAGEN, DUS, Germany).

<u>CHMI data</u> – Unsupervised clustering was calculated using Louvain algorithm with resolution set at

2.2 to achieve overclustering. Low-quality clusters with high mitochondrial content and low read

counts were removed. Label transfer using cell type annotations from the Healthy Reference Map

onto the CMHI dataset was performed using scType [35]. The top 20 up- and down-regulated cluster

marker genes from each reference cell type were used to calculate a specificity score to predict the

cell type for each cluster in the CHMI dataset. Based on the final top-specificity score, similar clusters

are then stitched together for the final annotation. As an additional quality check step, a fold-change

between the score of the top-predicted cell type versus every other possible cell type was calculated

per cluster, and any cluster where the difference between the top-predicted cell type and the next

possible cell type was less than 1.1 was flagged as "low confidence". For clusters 14, 19 and 22 where

the top-predicted cell type was flagged as "low-confidence", a manual comparison of key cell type

marker genes was done to confirm the final cell annotation used (final annotation: cluster 14 as

Tfh1_CCR7, cluster 19 as cluster 2, cluster 22 as Tfh1_Cyto). After the final prediction, we visualised

Treg markers (*"Il2ra", "Foxp3"*) and manually selected for an area on the UMAP with high

expression of these markers as "Tfr" cluster. For the reference database, we omitted Tfh1/17 and Tfr

as input as these 2 clusters had signatures commonly shared with the other clusters: Tfh1/17 with

Tfh1 and Tfh17, and Tfreg with Tfh2. RNA-level counts were log-normalised using NormalizeData

(scale factor = 10,000 by default) and were used to run FindMarkers for identifying additional cluster

marker genes for each annotated cluster.

Pseudobulked Differential Gene Expression Analysis and Pathway Analysis

The normalised count matrix and the metadata were extracted from the Seurat object. Counts were

aggregated per sample (i.e. donor and day) for each cluster. Since we conducted a paired-wise

comparison (e.g. day 0 vs day 16) only clusters present in both samples were included in the analysis.

Significant genes were determined using the quasi-likelihood (QL) F-test with an FDR< 0.05 using

edgeR [63]. Aggregated counts were used for visualising changes in specific DEGs using

ComplexHeatmap.

TCRA/B clonal analysis

Annotated TCR sequences were integrated with the single-cell transcriptomics data using the

combineTCR and combineExpression functions from scRepertoire (version 2.0.0). The CDR3 amino

acid sequences were used to call and quantify clones. Only cells with single and complete paired TCRA

and TCRB chain were included. The R package circlize (v0.4.16) and clonalOverlap function of

scRepertoire were used to generate the circos and heatmap plots of clonal overlap, respectively. For

Simpson's diversity index calculations, data were down-sampled to 1,000 cells to adjust for cell count

variations between samples.

Statistical analysis

Non-parametric testing was performed for all analysis. Continuous data for all cellular responses were

compared between groups using Mann-Whitney U test, or in paired samples with Wilxcox paired

sign-rank test, or correlated with antibody score as a continuous variable with Spearman's

correlations. Statistical comparisons were adjusted for multiple comparisons where indicated. All

analyses were performed in R (version 4.4.2). Graphical outputs were made in ggplot2 (version 3.5.1)

and ggpubr (version 0.6.0). No sample size calculation was performed, instead all available

participant data was included. Due to sample size restrictions, no subgroup analysis was performed.

Data generation was performed with blinding to participant demographic data.

Data and code availability

All data generated or analysed during this study are included in this article and supplementary

information files or deposited online as follows. The raw sequencing data and processed Cell Ranger

outputs used in this study have been deposited in the NCBI data base under accession code

GSE272939 https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/query/acc.cgi?acc=GSE272939 and GSE253661

https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/query/acc.cgi?acc=GSE253661.

The processed single cell RNA sequencing data are available in the Zenodo,

https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.14847353.

Code used to analyse scRNAseq data is available at https://github.com/MichelleBoyle/CCR7-

expression-defines-distinct-pTfh1-subsets-involved-in-malaria-immunity.git

Flow cytometry files will be made freely available on publication in an online repository.

Author contributions

MSFS, ND, RM, DA, JRL and JAC generated data, supervised by JGB, CE, AH and MJB

MSFS, DAO, ZP analysed data

JM provided clinical samples used in this study

AH and MJB conceptualised study

MSFS and MJB led manuscript writing.

All authors contributed to and approved manuscript

Declarations of interest

739 All authors declare no conflicts of interest

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