TNF-α induces type I IFN signalling to suppress neurogenesis and recruit T cells

Tinne Amalie Damgaard Nissen[1,2], Arishma Baig[1], Daniel T. Rock[2], Sandra Shibu[2], Hyunah Lee[2], Lauren A. O'Neill[1], Susan John[3], Linda S. Klavinskis[1]*, Sandrine Thuret[2]*

[1] Department of Infectious Diseases, School of Immunology & Microbial Sciences,

King's College London, London SE1 9RT, UK

[2] Department of Basic and Clinical Neuroscience, Institute of Psychiatry, Psychology

and Neuroscience, King's College London, London SE5 9RT, UK

[3] Peter Gorer Department of Immunobiology, King's College London, London SE1 9RT,

UK

*Equally contributed and co-corresponding authors. Linda.Klavinskis@kcl.ac.uk and
Sandrine.1.thuret@kcl.ac.uk

Abstract

Adult hippocampal neurogenesis (AHN) is essential for learning, memory, and mood

regulation, and its disruption is implicated in ageing, neurodegeneration, and mood

disorders. However, the mechanisms linking inflammation to AHN impairment remain

unclear. Here, we identify chronic tumour necrosis factor-alpha (TNF-α) signalling as a

key driver of neurogenic dysregulation via a previously unrecognised type I interferon

(IFN) autocrine/paracrine loop in human hippocampal progenitor cells (HPCs). Using a

human *in vitro* neurogenesis model, single-cell RNA sequencing, and functional T cell

migration assays, we show that TNF-α induces a robust type I IFN response in HPCs,

promoting chemokine-mediated, and CXCR3-dependent T cell recruitment and

suppressing neurogenesis. This inflammatory signalling cascade drives a fate switch in

HPCs from a neurogenic trajectory towards an immune-defensive phenotype, with critical

implications for infectious and inflammatory disease pathogenesis. These findings

uncover a key inflammatory checkpoint regulating human AHN and highlight potential

therapeutic targets to restore neurogenesis in chronic inflammatory states.

Introduction

Adult neurogenesis occurs in two main neurogenic niches in the mammalian brain: the

subventricular zone (SVZ) lining the lateral ventricles and the subgranular zone (SGZ) of

the dentate gyrus of the hippocampus[1]. Upon activation, hippocampal neural stem cells

(NSCs) known as radial glia-like cells (RGLs) divide and differentiate into astrocytes or

excitatory, granule cells, integrating into the granule cell layer (GCL). Initially discovered

in rodents[2], human adult hippocampal neurogenesis (AHN) has since been demonstrated

using carbon dating[3], postmortem tissue[4–7], *in vitro* propagation of adult neural progenitor

cells (NPCs)[8], single nucleus RNA sequencing[9], and spatial transcriptomics[10]. AHN in

rodents enhances several cognitive functions, including memory and learning[11], the

development of individuality[12], and mood regulation[13].

Perturbations in AHN observed in ageing, neurodegenerative diseases, and mood

disorders are thought to contribute to cognitive decline and associated symptoms, given

AHN's role in memory and mood regulation[14,15]. Experimental enhancement of AHN

reduces depressive-like behaviours[16] and rescues memory and emotional deficits in

Alzheimer's disease (AD) mice[17]. Emerging evidence suggests that inflammation,

elevated in AD[18], ageing[19], and in some individuals with mood disorders such as

depression[20], may underlie these AHN deficits. In particular, the proinflammatory cytokine

TNF-α has been implicated in both AD[21,22] and depression[23,24], and is known to negatively

regulate AHN[25,26]. These observations support a model in which inflammation-driven

suppression of AHN contributes to shared clinical phenotypes across disorders. Targeting

this axis may represent a viable neuroprotective strategy[15]. Defining the molecular

mechanisms by which inflammatory mediators, such as TNF-α, influence hippocampal

neural stem cell (NSC) fate is crucial for developing interventions preserving AHN and its

associated cognitive functions in inflammatory conditions.

Chronic TNF-α-mediated inflammation was recently shown to drive a functional switch in

rodent olfactory NSCs, redirecting them from neuroregeneration toward immune

recruitment[27]. These NSCs actively recruited inflammatory cells, including T cells, at the

expense of their neurogenic capacity. We hypothesised that a similar switch could occur

in human hippocampal progenitor cells (HPCs), contributing to impaired AHN and T cell

infiltration observed in ageing and neurodegenerative disease, where TNF-α levels are

persistently elevated[28–30]. Using an established *in vitro* model of human hippocampal

neurogenesis[31–36], we found that chronic TNF-α exposure suppressed neurogenesis and

induced robust CXCL10 secretion. Single-cell RNA (scRNA) sequencing revealed that

TNF-α activated type I IFN signalling via autocrine/paracrine signalling, a mechanism not

previously described in central nervous system (CNS)-resident cells. This signalling

cascade drove the secretion of chemokines that mediated CXCR3-dependent T cell

chemotaxis and contributed to the anti-neurogenic effects of chronic TNF-α. Together,

our findings support a model in which chronic TNF-α reprograms human HPCs from a

neurogenic to a proinflammatory state, orchestrated by TNF-α-induced type I IFN
signalling.

Results

TNF-α-driven functional and phenotypic reprogramming of HPCs

To investigate how TNF-α reprograms human HPCs, we first confirmed that our cellular

model expressed the TNF-α receptors TNFR1 and TNFR2 (Supplementary Fig. 1). TNF-

α stimulation of HPCs induced rapid nuclear translocation of NF-κB p65, peaking at 30

minutes and remaining elevated for up to 48 hours (Fig. 1a–b), consistent with sustained

activation of a canonical proinflammatory pathway implicated in the regulation of

neurogenesis[37]. To assess the functional relevance of TNF-α signalling in HPCs and their

progeny, we evaluated the secretion of the NF-κB-regulated cytokine IL-6 and a panel of

NF-κB-regulated chemokines. Levels were measured in the supernatant at 24 and 48

hours after TNF-α treatment of the HPCs, as well as 24 hours, 48 hours, and seven days

of TNF-α treatment in differentiating HPCs (Supplementary Fig. 2). Among the

chemokines analysed (Supplementary Fig. 3-5), CXCL10 exhibited the most robust

induction in response to TNF-α stimulation (Fig. 1c–d). To examine the effects of chronic

TNF-α on neuronal differentiation, HPCs were pre-treated ± TNF-α under proliferative

conditions for 48 hours, followed by seven days of differentiation with continued TNF-α

exposure every 48 hours (Fig. 1e). TNF-α dose-dependently reduced the proportion of

doublecortin (DCX)+ neuroblasts (Fig. 1g), while only the highest dose (10 ng/ml)

decreased the percentage of cells expressing the neuronal marker microtubule-

associated protein 2 (MAP2) (Fig. 1h). In parallel, TNF-α reduced total neurite length in

both populations, indicating impaired morphological maturation (Supplementary Fig. 6).

Collectively, these findings suggest that chronic TNF-α functionally and phenotypically

reprograms HPCs.

Fig. 1 | TNF-α drives immune signalling and decreases neurogenesis in human hippocampal

progenitor cells. a, Representative immunocytochemistry images of three independent experiments with

similar results showing the expression of NF-κB p65 on HPCs treated ± 10 ng/ml TNF-α for 15 minutes.

Scale bar represents 100 μm. **b**, Quantification of the fraction of nuclear NF-κB p65 fluorescence intensity

relative to total cellular fluorescence. Data represent mean ± SEM from n = 3. Statistical analysis: one-way

ANOVA followed by Bonferroni multiple comparisons test. **c**, and **d**, Quantification of CXCL10 levels in

culture supernatants measured by ELISA. **c**, HPCs under proliferation conditions treated for 48 hours ± 0.1,

1, or 10 ng/ml TNF-α. **d**, HPCs under differentiation conditions treated for 7 days ± 0.1, 1, or 10 ng/ml TNF-

α. Data represent mean ± SEM from n = 3. Statistical analysis: one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni

multiple comparisons test. **e**, Schematic overview of the chronic TNF-α treatment regime for investigating its effect on neuronal differentiation. HPCs were treated under proliferation conditions for 48 hours ± 0.1, 1, or 10 ng/ml TNF-α before inducing differentiation for seven days under treatment ± 0.1, 1, or 10 ng/ml TNF-α every 48 hours. **f**, Representative images showing the expression of MAP2 (green) and DCX (orange) on seven days differentiated HPCs treated chronically ± 0.1, 1, or 10 ng/ml TNF-α. Scale bar represents 100 μm. **g**, and **h**, Quantification of the percentage of DCX+ cells and MAP2+ cells respectively based on **f**. Data represent mean ± SEM from. **g**, Data based on n = 4. Statistical analysis: Welch's ANOVA followed by Games-Howell post-hoc test for pairwise comparisons. **h**, Data based on n = 5. Statistical analysis: one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni multiple comparisons test.

Chronic TNF-α disrupts neuronal differentiation and upregulates a transcriptional type I IFN signature

To elucidate the molecular mechanisms underlying the effects of chronic TNF-α, we performed scRNA sequencing of HPCs exposed for 48 hours to low (0.1 ng/ml) or high (1 ng/ml) TNF-α, as well as their progeny after 7 and 14 days of differentiation under chronic TNF-α exposure (Fig. 2a). After quality control, 22,133 cells were identified across 15 clusters, including astrocyte-like (clusters 1-4), radial glial-like (RGL)/NSC-like (5-6), intermediate progenitor cell (IPC)-like (7-10), neuroblast-like (11), and immature neuron-like (12) clusters (Fig. 2b-d). The neurogenic identity of clusters 11 and 12 was confirmed by overlap with a human immature granule cell signature[9] and by enrichment of neuronal biological processes and cellular compartment gene ontology (GO) terms (Fig. 2e-g and Supplementary Fig. 7). Critically, HPCs differentiated in the presence of high-dose TNF-α showed a marked reduction in cells within neurogenic clusters (Fig. 2h), demonstrating disrupted neurogenesis.

While control and low-dose TNF-α treated cells clustered together, high-dose TNF-α treated cells formed distinct clusters (Extended Fig. 1a). RGL-like cluster 6 and IPC-like

cluster 10, primarily composed of HPCs treated with high-dose TNF-α, exhibited strong

upregulation of type I interferon (IFN) response genes including *ISG15*, *IFI27*, and *IFI6*

(Fig. 3a-b). GO enrichment analysis highlighting "response to type I IFNs" and phagocytic

vesicle components (Extended Fig. 1c-d; Supplementary Fig. 8). The type I IFN signature

was detected across clusters specific to treatment with high-dose TNF-α (Fig. 3c). HPCs

differentiated with high-dose TNF-α failed to align with astrocyte-, neuroblast-, or

immature neuron-like clusters, indicating disrupted lineage commitment and

transcriptional dysregulation. Go term analysis of clusters 13-15 indicated a shift toward

aberrant, immune-reactive states with activation of a type I IFN-mediated antiviral

program (Fig. 3d-f). Given that TNF-α does not directly induce type I IFN response genes,

we hypothesised that a type I IFN autocrine/paracrine loop mediated the ISG

upregulation. HPCs and their progeny expressed the machinery to respond to type I IFNs

(Supplementary Fig. 9), and cells from high-dose TNF-α-specific clusters strongly

overlapped with an NSC-specific IFN-β response signature[38] (Fig. 3g). Transcription

factor activity analysis predicted STAT1, STAT2, and IRF9 activity in these clusters,

consistent with IFN signalling (Fig. 3h). Together, these findings demonstrate that chronic

TNF-α exposure induces type I IFN response genes in HPCs, suppresses neurogenesis,

and promotes aberrant immune-reactive cellular states during differentiation.

153 **Fig. 2 | Chronic TNF-α impairs neuronal differentiation. a**, Schematic overview of the experimental

154 design. **b**, UMAP plot showing transcriptional clustering of single cells. Colors indicate the 15 cell clusters

identified. **c**, Stacked bar graphs showing the frequencies of cell clusters shown in **b** across the time and treatment groups. **d**, Dot plot showing the expression of canonical marker genes for expected cell types across the cell clusters. **e**, UMAP plot showing each cell scored against a human immature granule cells (imGCs) signature[9]. The outlined area highlight the of the signature with cluster 11 and 12. **f**, and **g**, dot plots showing GO enrichment analysis of biological process terms based on the top 100 genes positively defining cluster 11 and cluster 12 respectively. **h**, Bar plots show the percentage cells belonging to the neurogenic cluster 11 (green) and 12 (purple) within differentiation samples from 7 and 14 days by treatment condition: control, low TNF (0.1 ng/ml), and high TNF (1 ng/ml).

TNF-α drives type I IFN signalling through activation of IFNAR

As STAT1 negatively regulates human hippocampal neurogenesis[39] and STAT1/STAT2 regulates the expression of type I IFN-regulated genes, we assessed their activation in HPCs following TNFa stimulation. Phosphorylation of both STAT1 and STAT2 was delayed, peaking at 3–6 hours (STAT1: Fig. 4a–b and Supplementary Fig. 11; STAT2: Extended Fig. 2a–b and Supplementary Fig. 12; GAPDH stability in response to TNF-α: Supplementrary Fig. 10), consistent with a mechanism of indirect activation. In line with an autocrine/paracrine loop, factors secreted downstream of TNF-α-mediated receptor engagement increased the percentage of ISG15+ HPCs (Extended Fig. 2c–d). TNF-α transiently induced *IFNB1* expression, peaking at 3 hours (Fig. 4b), temporally correlating with STAT1/STAT2 activation, suggesting IFN-β as the likely mediator. TNF-α-induced *IFNB1* expression depended on NF-κB signalling (Extended Fig. 2e) but was independent of *de novo* protein synthesis (Extended Fig. 2f). As IRF1 is required for TNF-α–induced *IFNB1* expression in other cell types[40,41], we examined its regulation in HPCs. TNF-α markedly upregulated *IRF1*, peaking at 3 hours (Supplementary Fig. 13), preceding *IFNB1* induction and suggesting a potential regulatory role for IRF1 in HPC *IFNB1* induction. TNF-α-induced upregulation of the STAT1/STAT2-regulated chemokine CXCL10 has been found to depend on IFN-β[42]. Consistent with this, the delayed induction

of *CXCL10* in response to TNF-α in HPCs required *de novo* protein synthesis, as shown

by its sensitivity to cycloheximide treatment (Fig. 4d-e). To confirm that TNF-α induces

type I IFN signalling via an autocrine/paracrine loop, we blocked the IFN-α/β receptor

(IFNAR) using the antibody anifrolumab[43]. Anifrolumab fully abolished TNF-α-induced

STAT1+ cell induction and significantly reduced ISG15+ cell upregulation (Fig. 4f-h).

Similarly, Janus kinase (JAK) inhibition downstream of IFNAR using JAK Inhibitor I[44]

blocked TNF-α-induced ISG15+ HPC upregulation (Extended Fig. 2g-h). Finally, TNF-α

upregulated the type I IFN-induced surface marker tetherin/BST-2 on HPCs (Extended

Fig. 2i and Supplementary Fig. 14), which was recently shown to be elevated on

dysfunctional NSCs in ageing neurogenic niches[28]. Collectively, these findings

demonstrated that TNF-α drives autocrine/paracrine type I IFN signalling in HPCs via

IFNAR and downstream JAKs likely mediated by IFN-β.

Fig. 3 | Chronic TNF-α drives the upregulation of type I IFN genes. a, Heatmap of top 40 upregulated genes based on log fold change in cluster six as compared to cluster five. **b**, Heatmap of top 40 upregulated genes based on log fold change in cluster ten as compared to cluster seven, eight, and nine. **c**, Dot plot showing the expression of interferon response genes across the cell clusters. **d**, Dot plot showing gene

ontology (GO) enrichment analysis of biological processes terms based on the top 100 genes positively defining cluster 13. **e**, Dot plot showing gene ontology (GO) enrichment analysis of biological processes terms based on the top 100 genes positively defining cluster 14. **f**, Dot plot showing gene ontology (GO) enrichment analysis of biological processes terms based on the top 100 genes positively defining cluster 15. **g**, UMAP plot showing each cell scored against a NSC IFN-β transcriptional signature. The outlined area highlight the of the signature with cluster 6, 10, 13, 14, and 15. **h**, Heatmap showing the mean activity per cluster of the top 50 more variable transcription factors. STAT1, STAT2 and IRF9 is highlighted.

TNF-α-conditioned media from HPCs and differentiated progeny drive CXCR3-dependent T cell chemotaxis

After elucidating the molecular mechanism of TNF-α-induced type I IFN signalling in HPCs, we next investigated its functional consequences. Recent studies highlight T cell infiltration into neurogenic niches in ageing and AD, with T cells found near NSCs[28,30,45–49]. We found high levels of the type I IFN-regulated chemokines CXCL10 and CXCL11 in the supernatant of HPCs and their differentiated progeny following TNF-α treatment. As both chemokines promote T cell chemotaxis via the CXCR3 receptor[50], we hypothesised that their secretion could mediate CXCR3-dependent T cell recruitment. We established an *in vitro* transwell assay using primary human T cells from three healthy donors and validated that recombinant CXCL10 promotes CXCR3-dependent chemotaxis of both CD4+ and CD8+ T cells (Supplementary Fig.15-16).

Fig. 4 | TNF-α drives type I IFN signalling in human hippocampal progenitor cells via autocrine/paracrine signalling via IFNAR. a, Representative western blots of four independent experiments showing the activation of STAT1 in HPCs treated with 1 ng/ml TNF-α for 1 hr, 3 hrs, 6 hrs, and 12 hrs. Cell lysates were probed for phosphorylated STAT1 (p-STAT1 Tyr701), total STAT1, and GAPDH as a loading control. **b**, Quantification of STAT1 activation in human hippocampal progenitor cells from **a**. pSTAT1 and STAT1 intensities were normalised to GAPDH intensity before calculating the fold change pSTAT1/STAT1 relative to control. Data represent mean ± SEM from four independent experiments.

Statistical analysis: one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni's multiple comparisons. **c**, RT-qPCR data showing the relative gene expression of *IFNB1* in response to treatment with 1 ng/ml TNF-α. Data is represented as mean ± SEM of four independent experiments. Statistical analysis: one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni's multiple comparisons. **d**, RT-qPCR data showing the relative gene expression of *CXCL10* in response to treatment with 1 ng/ml TNF-α. Data is represented as mean ± SEM of four independent experiments. Statistical analysis: Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's post hoc correction. **e**, RT-qPCR data showing the relative gene expression of *CXCL10* in HPCs treated for six hours with 10 µg/ml CHX or DMSO ± 1 ng/ml TNF-α. Data is represented as mean ± SEM of three independent experiments. Statistical analysis: one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni's multiple comparisons. **f**, Representative images of three independent experiments with similar results showing the expression of STAT1 (green) and ISG15 (orange) on HPCs. Scale bar represents 100 µm. **g**, Quantification of the percentage of STAT1+ cells based on **f**. Data represent mean ± SEM. Statistical analysis: one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni's multiple comparisons. **h**, Quantification of the percentage of ISG15+ cells based on **f**. Data represent mean ± SEM. Statistical analysis: one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni's multiple comparisons.

We generated conditioned media (CM) from TNF-α–treated HPCs as well as from HPC-derived cells differentiated under chronic TNF-α exposure, and assessed its ability to induce CXCR3-dependent migration of activated primary human CD4+ and CD8+ T cells (Fig. 5a–h). CM from both TNF-α–treated HPCs and their differentiated progeny significantly enhanced the chemotactic index of CD4+ and CD8+ T cells. This effect was significantly blunted by pre-treatment of the T cells with a CXCR3 antagonist, indicating that the migratory response was primarily CXCR3-dependent. These findings suggest that both HPCs and their differentiated progeny secrete chemokines capable of promoting T cell migration through CXCR3 signaling.

As our data indicated TNF-α-induced *CXCL10* upregulation was mediated via the type I IFN autocrine/paracrine signalling loop, we tested whether IFNAR or JAK inhibition abrogated T cell chemotaxis in response to TNF-α-CM from HPCs (Fig. 6a-b).

Pharmacological blockage of both IFNAR and JAK independently abrogated the

chemotactic response of CD4+ T and CD8+ T cells towards chemokines secreted by

TNF-α-stimulated HPCs (Fig. 6c-d). These results indicated that the secretion of CXCR3

ligands by HPCs in response to TNF-α was dependent on the autocrine/paracrine type I

IFN signalling loop.

Fig. 5 | TNF-α-conditioned media from proliferating and differentiating HPCs drive CXCR3-

dependent chemotaxis of primary, human T cells. a, Schematic overview of the experimental design for

generating conditioned media (CM) from HPCs treated for ± 1 ng/ml TNF-α for 48 hrs. **b**, Chemokine

secretion by HPCs in response to TNF-α stimulation assessed for its ability to induce CXCR3-dependent T

cell chemotaxis. **c**, and **d**, Quantification of the chemotactic response (chemotaxis index) of **c** CD4+ T cells

and **d** CD8+ T cells treated ± 1 μM AMG487 or DMSO in response to control CM or TNF-α-CM from HPCs.

Data is represented as mean ± SEM of three healthy donors. Statistical analysis: one-way ANOVA followed

by Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test. **e**, Schematic overview of the experimental design for generating

CM from differentiated HPCs treated chronically ± 1 ng/ml TNF-α. **f**, Chemokine secretion by differentiated

HPCs in response to chronic TNF-α stimulation assessed for its ability to induce CXCR3-dependent T cell

chemotaxis. **g**, and **h**, Quantification of the chemotactic response (chemotaxis index) of **g** CD4+ T cells and

h CD8+ T cells treated ± 1 μM AMG487 or DMSO in response to control CM or TNF-α-CM from

differentiated HPCs. Data is represented as mean ± SEM of three healthy donors. Statistical analysis: one-

way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test.

In addition to chemokine secretion, TNF-α upregulated the expression of adhesion

molecules in HPCs implicated in T cell interactions including *ICAM1* and *VCAM1*

(Supplementary Fig. 17). Notably, *ICAM1* expression was significantly increased after 3-

6 hours of TNF-α exposure and remained elevated on the HPC surface at 24 hours post-

treatment (Supplementary Fig. 18b).

Together, these findings demonstrated that TNF-α stimulation of HPCs promoted

CXCR3-dependent chemotaxis of primary human T cells *in vitro* through a type I IFN-

mediated autocrine/paracrine loop. Furthermore, TNF-α enhanced HPC expression of

adhesion molecules, potentially facilitating direct HPC–T cell interactions.

Fig. 6 | JAK and IFNAR signalling are indispensable for TNF-α-induced HPC chemokine secretion directing T cell chemotaxis. a, Schematic overview of the experimental design for generating conditioned media (CM) from HPCs treated ± 1 ng/ml TNF-α, ± 10 μg/ml anifrolumab (IFNAR antagonist), and ± 0.16 nM JAK inhibitor I for 24 hrs. **b**, The effect of IFNAR and JAK inhibition was evaluated for its ability to abrogate CXCR3-dependent T cell chemotaxis towards HPC TNF-α-CM. **c**, and **d**, Quantification of the chemotactic response (chemotaxis index) of **c** CD4+ T cells and **d** CD8+ T cells in response to the CM

298   generated as outlined in **a**. Data is represented as mean ± SEM of three healthy donors. Statistical analysis:

299   one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test.

301   Blocking IFNAR signalling rescues DCX⁺ neuroblast loss induced by

302   chronic TNF-α

Given the prominent activation of STAT1/STAT2 downstream of TNF-α, and the established role

of STAT1 as a negative regulator of hippocampal neurogenesis and cognition[39,51–53], we

hypothesised that chronic TNF-α may exert its antineurogenic effects via IFNAR-dependent type

I interferon signalling. To test this, we administered the IFNAR-blocking antibody anifrolumab,

which effectively suppressed TNF-α–induced ISG15 expression in differentiating HPCs

(Supplementary Fig. 19), confirming inhibition of type I IFN signalling. As previously observed,

chronic exposure to 1 ng/ml TNF-α selectively impaired the generation of DCX⁺ neuroblasts

without affecting the proportion of MAP2⁺ neurons (Fig. 7a–c). Notably, IFNAR blockade fully

rescued the loss of DCX⁺ neuroblasts, implicating autocrine/paracrine type I IFN signalling as a

key mediator of TNF-α–driven neurogenic deficits. These findings are consistent with prior

evidence that disrupting type I IFN pathways can restore hippocampal neurogenesis in ageing

models[54].

Fig. 7 | IFNAR blockage rescues the chronic TNF-α-induced decrease in the percentage of DCX+ neuroblasts. a, Representative images showing the expression of MAP2 (green) and DCX (orange) ion seven days differentiated HPCs treated chronically ± 1 TNF-α ± 10 μg/ml anifrolumab. Scale bar represents 100 μm. **b**, and **c,** Quantification of the percentage of **b** MAP2+ cells and **c** DCX+ cells respectively based on **a**. Data represent mean ± SEM from five independent experiments. Statistical analysis: **b** Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's post hoc correction and **c** one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test.

Discussion

Emerging evidence implicates neuroinflammation, impaired AHN, and T cell accumulation within the hippocampal neurogenic niche as key features of ageing and neurodegenerative diseases[28–30]. However, the mechanistic links connecting these

phenomena remain unclear. Here, we hypothesised that chronic TNF-α exposure

functionally reprogrammes HPCs, diverting them from a neurogenic fate toward an

immune-defensive phenotype, parallelling recent observations in olfactory NSCs[27]. This

phenotypic switch may both impair AHN directly and promote T accumulation, which

could further suppress neurogenesis. Together, these effects may contribute to cognitive

deficits observed in ageing and neurodegeneration. Utilising a human *in vitro* model we

demonstrated that chronic TNF-α suppress hippocampal neurogenesis while promoting

CXCL10 secretion. To investigate the molecular mechanisms underlying these

observations, we performed scRNA sequencing, which unexpectedly revealed a type I

IFN transcriptional signature in HPCs and their differentiating progeny. Mechanistically,

we found that TNF-α engages a type I IFN signalling cascade in HPCs, driven by an

autocrine/paracrine IFN-β. Moreover, this pathway suppressed neurogenesis and

induced CXCR3 ligand secretion, promoting chemotaxis of activated primary human T

cells. Our data uncovered a previously uncharacterised TNF-α-IFN-β-IFNAR-CXCL10

axis that may exist in other CNS-resident cells and its role in reprogramming HPCs from

a neurogenic to an immune-defensive state under chronic inflammatory conditions.

Importantly, IFNAR antagonism restored TNF-α-induced neuroblasts loss and blocked T

cell recruitment, identifying IFNAR signalling as a dual-action candidate therapeutic target

for mitigating inflammation-induced neurogenic dysfunction.

The antineurogenic effect of TNF-α we observed closely mirrors findings from primary

NSCs and *in vivo* models[26,55–57], reinforcing the validity of our human cellular system.

Similarly, the TNF-α-induced impairment of neuronal morphological maturation[57,58] and

CXCL10 secretion align with previous reports in primary cells[59]. These parallels

underscore the physiological relevance of our model and support its utility for mechanistic

dissection of inflammation-driven neurogenic dysfunction. Future *in vivo* studies will be

critical to extend these findings.

While type I IFN signalling is well characterised in infectious diseases[60], its role in sterile

inflammation remains less understood, but increasingly recognised[61,62]. Our findings

identify a TNF-α-IFN-β-IFNAR axis in human HPCs, representing a novel mechanism of

type I IFN activation by an endogenous inflammatory cytokine in a CNS-resident

progenitor cell. Similar TNF-α-induced IFN-β responses have been reported in non-CNS

cell types, requiring IRF1 and NF-κB [40–42,63]. Consistent with this, we showed that TNF-α

induces *IFNB1* expression in HPCs via an NF-κB–dependent, protein synthesis–

independent mechanism that may involve IRF1. Whether the TNF-α-IFN-β-IFNAR axis

operates in CNS cell types beyond HPCs—such as microglia, where IFN signatures have

recently been identified across a broad range of sterile brain pathologies[64] remains an

important question for future investigations. Given IFNAR's ubiquitous expression[65],

HPC-derived IFN-β may act on surrounding niche cells, potentially amplifying local

inflammatory crosstalk.

Although type I IFNs are traditionally considered as antiviral and neuroprotective,

sustained or dysregulated signalling has been increasingly implicated in ageing[54,66] and

AD[67–69]. Elevated type I IFNs impair AHN[39,54] and promote cognitive deficits[54,68,70] both of

which can be reversed through IFNAR antagonism[54,68]. These cognitive impairments are

likely mediated, at least in part, by IFN-induced AHN dysfunction. Furthermore, type I

IFNs can directly promote amyloidogenic, neurotoxic processes[71]. Our data support the

pathogenic role for type I IFN signalling: notably, we found that TNF-α suppresses

neurogenesis via type I IFN signalling and shifts differentiating progenitors towards an

IFN-response, astroglial-like state. This is consistent with recent evidence that Zika virus,

which drives type I IFN signalling, promotes a molecular switch from neurogenesis

towards astrogliogenesis[72]. Thus, type I IFNs may represent a converging downstream

mechanism through which chronic inflammation impairs AHN and contributes to cognitive

decline in ageing and neurodegeneration.

T cells infiltrate neurogenic niches in the context of ageing and AD[28–30,45–49,73], and have

been demonstrated to modulate brain ageing and neuroregeneration[74,75]. Understanding

the mechanisms underlying their infiltration and interactions with brain resident cells is

therefore critical. We found that TNF-α treatment induces HPC chemokine secretion

promoting CXCR3-dependent chemotaxis of activated primary human T cells, suggesting

hippocampal NSCs may directly recruit T cells during neuroinflammation, consistent with

findings in murine olfactory NSCs[27]. This indicates a conserved mechanism across

neurogenic niches and species, where chronic TNF-α reprograms NSCs towards immune

cell recruitment. In addition to NSCs, microglial activation is reported to drive CXCL10-

mediated CD8+ T cell recruitment and promote aging-related white matter degeneration[76].

Thus, multiple CNS cell types likely cooperate in recruiting T cells via CXCR3 ligands in

ageing and neurodegeneration.

We demonstrated that IFNAR and JAK antagonism abolished T cell chemotaxis towards

TNF-α-stimulated HPC-derived CM, demonstrating that autocrine/paracrine type I IFN

signalling is the primary driver of CXCR3 ligand secretion. This mechanism parallels

findings in a nephritis model, where TNFR2-induced IFN-β autocrine signalling promotes

renal monocyte recruitment[41]. Of note, in the brain, type I IFN signalling in astrocytes

promotes brain metastasis by enhancing monocytic myeloid cell recruitment[77]. Beyond

promoting T cell chemotaxis, HPC-secreted CXCR3 ligands may exert direct deleterious

effects on within the neurogenic niche, as CXCR3 activation has been demonstrated to

drive hippocampal neural hyperexcitability[69,78,79].

As CXCL10 and CXCL11 are upregulated by IFN-γ[50], IFN-γ-producing CD8+ T cells

infiltrating ageing neurogenic niches[28] may promote further CXCR3 ligand secretion from

NSCs, potentially creating a feed-forward loop enhancing T cell recruitment. This may

explain why CD8+ T cells have been found in close proximity to NSCs[28]. Increasing the

number of CD8+ T cells in the hippocampus has been shown to decrease the number of

proliferative progenitors and DCX+ newborn neurons[29]. This effect is likely mediated by

IFN-γ secretion which has been shown to negatively affect NSCs[28]. Consistently, CXCL10

inhibition enhances neuroblast production[80], possibly by reducing T cell infiltration. Thus,

TNF-α may impair AHN both by driving antineurogenic type I IFN signalling in NSCs and

recruiting CD8+ T cells that suppress neurogenesis via IFN-γ. Blocking adaptive immune

cell infiltration into neurogenic niches may represent a therapeutic strategy for cognitive

decline in ageing and neurodegeneration. Given the low abundance of NSCs, future *in*

vivo studies are needed to determine their contribution to T cell recruitment in

neuroinflammation.

The TNF-α-induced functional switch we observed in human HPCs —from a neurogenic

to an immune responsive phenotype —may represent a protective adaptation to infection

or injury. Since neurogenesis is energetically costly, redirecting cellular resources to

mount an immune response could be advantageous for resolving the underlying pro-

inflammatory challenge.

Collectively, our results provide novel insights into how chronic TNF-α changes the fate

of human HPCs from neurogenesis towards immune functions, elucidating the molecular

mechanism underlying this switch. Furthermore, this work offers a novel explanation for

the emerging appearance of type I IFN signalling in ageing and neurodegeneration where

TNF-α levels are elevated and highlights HPCs as potential direct participants in the

progression of chronic inflammation.

Methods

Cellular model of hippocampal neurogenesis

We used the human hippocampal progenitor cell line (HPC0A07/03A; ReNeuron LTD.,

Surrey, United Kingdom), derived from a first-trimester female foetus ethically approved

under UK and US guidelines, as a cellular model for hippocampal neurogenesis as

previously described[33,34,36,81]. The cell line was immortalised using the c-*mycER^TAM* gene

to conditionally proliferate in presence of 100 nM 4-hydroxy-tamoxifen (4-OHT) (Sigma

Aldrich, Cat No. H7904), 10 ng/mL human basic fibroblast growth factor (bFGF)

(Peprotech, Cat No. 100-18B-500) and 20 ng/mL human epidermal growth factor (EGF)

(Peprotech, Cat No. AF100-15–500) and spontaneously differentiate in their absence.

The cells were cultured as previously described[82] on laminin (Gibco, Cat No. 23017015)

coated culture vessels (Nunclon, Denmark) at 37 °C, 5 % CO2.

TNF-α-treatments

446 The HPCs were treated with TNF-α (Peprotech, Cat No. 300-01A) for the duration and

447 with the concentrations indicated in the individual experiments.

Immunocytochemistry

Cells were washed with PBS and fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde (in PBS) for 15 min at

room temperature. Cells were permeabilised and blocked for 1 h at room temperature in

blocking buffer: 0.3% Triton X-100 (Sigma, Cat No. X100) and 5% normal donkey serum

(Bio-Rad, Cat No. C06SB) in PBS. For TNFR1 and TNFR2 staining, a non-permeabilising

block (5% normal donkey serum in PBS) was used. Primary antibodies (Supplementary

Table 1), diluted in blocking buffer, were applied overnight at 4 °C. The following day, cells

were washed 3× with PBS and incubated with secondary antibodies (Supplementary

Table 1) in blocking buffer for 2 h at room temperature, protected from light. 300 nM DAPI

(Sigma, Cat No. 62248) in PBS was applied for 5 min at room temperature. Cells were

then washed 4× with PBS and stored at 4 °C in PBS containing 0.05% sodium azide

(Merck, Cat No. S2002).

High-content imaging and analysis

Immunostained cells were imaged using the Opera Phenix Plus High-Content Screening

System (PerkinElmer). Imaging was performed in a single focal plane using a 20× water-

immersion objective. A minimum of 9 fields per well were acquired from 96-well plates

and averaged to generate a mean per well. Channels were captured using the following

excitation/emission settings: DAPI (ex 385 nm/em 425–475 nm), Alexa Fluor 488

(ex 488 nm/em 500–550 nm), and Alexa Fluor 555 (ex 561 nm/em 609–644 nm). A

minimum of three technical replicates per condition were imaged and averaged for each

biological replicate. Images were analysed using Harmony software (PerkinElmer).

Briefly, cells were segmented using the *Find Nuclei* building block. Morphological

parameters were calculated using *Calculate Morphological Properties*, and nuclei smaller

than 50 µm² or larger than 500 µm² were excluded to remove apoptotic bodies and

artefacts. Cells at image borders were also excluded. Cytoplasmic or nuclear signal

intensity was quantified using *Find Cytoplasm*, *Find Morphological Properties*,

and *Calculate Intensity Properties* building blocks. Positive cells were identified using

the *Select Population* building block by applying a per-plate intensity threshold based on

control wells. The percentage of positive cells was calculated using the *Define Results*

building block.

RNA extraction, cDNA synthesis, and RT-qPCR

HPCs (3.5×10^5 cells per well) were seeded in 6-well plates coated with 20 µg/mL mouse

laminin (Sigma, Cat No. L2020,). Cells were treated the following day as indicated. For

lysis, media were removed, wells were washed with PBS, and cells were lysed in 350 µL

Buffer RLT Plus (Qiagen, Cat No. 74134) supplemented with 1:100 2-mercaptoethanol

(Bio-Rad, Cat No. 1610710). Lysates were scraped, transferred to microcentrifuge tubes,

vortexed, and stored at –80 °C. Total RNA was extracted using the RNeasy Plus Mini Kit

(Qiagen, Cat No. 74134,) following the manufacturer's instructions, and RNA

concentrations were measured using a NanoDrop spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher

Scientific). Extracted RNA (200 ng) was reverse transcribed using the High-Capacity

cDNA Reverse Transcription Kit (Applied Biosystems, Cat No. 4368813) following the

manufacturer's protocol. The thermal cycler program (Biometra Trio series, Analytik Jena)

used for cDNA synthesis is provided in Supplementary Table 2. qPCR reactions

contained 5 µL cDNA (1:4 dilution in nuclease-free water), 10 µL SYBR Green Master Mix

(PCR Biosystems, Cat No. PB20.11-05,), 4 µL nuclease-free water, and 1 µL primer mix

(10 pmol), in a total volume of 20 µL. Reactions were run in triplicate in 384-well plates

(Applied Biosystems, Cat No. 4309849,) on a QuantStudio 5 Real-Time PCR System

(Applied Biosystems) using the cycling protocol described in Supplementary Table 3.

Data were analysed with QuantStudio Design & Analysis Software (v1.5.1), and relative

gene expression was calculated using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ method with GAPDH as the reference

gene. Primer sequences are provided in Supplementary Table 4.

Western blotting

HPCs (3–6×10^5 cells per well) were seeded in laminin-coated 6-well plates (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Cat No. 140675). Cells were treated the following day as indicated. Cells were washed with PBS and lysed in 150 µL 1 × Laemmli buffer (Bio-Rad, Cat. No. 1610747) diluted in PBS and supplemented with 355 mM β-mercaptoethanol (Bio-Rad, Cat. No. 1610710). Lysates were scraped, boiled for 5 min at 95 °C, and stored at –80 °C until analysis. Proteins were resolved by 10% SDS–PAGE and transferred to PVDF membranes (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Cat. No. 88518). Membranes were blocked for 1 h at room temperature in PBS containing 5% milk and 0.1% Tween-20, then washed 3× (10 min each) with PBS + 0.5% Tween-20. Primary antibodies (Supplementary Table 5) were applied overnight at 4 °C in blocking buffer. After washing, membranes were incubated with HRP-conjugated secondary antibodies for 1 h at room temperature, followed by 3× washes in PBS + 0.5% Tween-20. Detection was performed using Clarity Max ECL (Bio-Rad, Cat. No. 1705062,) for STAT proteins and Clarity ECL (Bio-Rad, Cat. No. 1705061) for GAPDH, each for 4 min. Membranes were imaged on an ImageQuant 800 Imager (Amersham), and band intensities were quantified using Image Studio.

Western blotting quantifications

Band intensities for phosphorylated and total STAT proteins, as well as GAPDH, were measured using Image Studio. Phosphorylated and total STAT signals were normalised to the corresponding GAPDH signal. The ratio of phosphorylated to total STAT protein was then calculated for each sample and expressed relative to control.

Statistical analysis

Analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism (v10.4.1) and R (v4.3.2) with rstatix (v0.7.2). Normality was assessed by Q–Q plots and Shapiro–Wilk test, and variance homogeneity by Levene's test. Results are reported as mean ± SEM, with statistical significance set at $p < 0.05$. The specific test and sample size are stated in each figure legend. For normally distributed data, unpaired Student's t-test was used for two-group comparisons, and one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni post hoc for >2 groups. If variances were unequal, we applied Welch's t-test or Welch's ANOVA with Games–Howell correction. Non-normally distributed data were analysed using the Wilcoxon rank-sum test for two groups or Kruskal–Wallis test with Dunn's post hoc for multiple groups.

NF-kB nuclear translocation assay

HPCs (1.2×10^4 cells per well) were seeded in laminin-coated 96-well plates. The following day cells were treated ± 10 ng/mL TNF-α and fixed after 0, 15, 30, 45, and 60 min, and 2, 3, 4, 24, and 48 h. Cells were immunostained for NF-κB p65 and counterstained with DAPI. High-content imaging was performed on an Opera Phenix (PerkinElmer), and images were analysed using Harmony software (PerkinElmer). Nuclear and cytoplasmic NF-κB p65 signal intensities were measured, and the nuclear fraction of p65 fluorescence was calculated as described below:

$$Fraction\ of\ nuclear\ fluorescence = \frac{Nuclear\ intensity}{Nuclear\ intensity + cytosol\ intensity}$$

Cytokine and chemokine secretion analysis

HPCs (1.2×10^5 cells) were seeded in laminin-coated 24-well plates (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Cat. No. 142475). The following day, the media was replaced with proliferation medium ± TNF-α. After 24 h and 48 h, supernatants were collected and stored at –80 °C. For differentiation, the cells cultured in proliferation media for 48 hours were washed twice with differentiation medium for 30 min, then cultured in differentiation medium ± TNF-α. Supernatants were collected after 24 h, 48 h, and 7 d. IL-6 levels were quantified using a human IL-6 ELISA Kit (BioLegend, Cat. No. 430504). A 13-plex panel of human pro-inflammatory chemokines (Supplementary Table 6) was analysed using a multiplex bead-based assay kit (BioLegend, Cat. No. 740985). Data was acquired using a FACSCanto II (BD Biosciences) flow cytometer and analysed using the LEGENDplex data analysis software suite (BioLegend).

Differentiation assay for immunocytochemistry

HPCs were seeded at 1.2×10^4 cells per well in laminin-coated 96-well plates (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Cat. No. 140675) in proliferation medium containing 4-OHT, bFGF, and EGF. The following day, the medium was replaced with proliferation medium ± TNF-α. After 48 h, cells were washed twice with differentiation medium (no 4-OHT, bFGF, or EGF) for 30 min, then cultured in differentiation medium ± TNF-α for 7 d, with media changes every 48 h. In a subsequent experiment, cells were treated with ± 1 ng/mL TNF-α and ± 10 µg/mL anifrolumab.

Neurite outgrowth analysis

Neurite outgrowth of DCX+ and MAP2+ cell populations was assessed using Harmony (PerkinElmer). Cells were identified as described in the High-Content Imaging and Analysis section. Neurites were detected using the 'Find Neurites' building block, and neurite morphology parameters, including the length of the longest neurite, were quantified.

Cell culture and treatment for the single-cell RNA sequencing

Proliferation

HPCs were seeded into 20 µg/ml mouse laminin (Sigma, Cat. No. L2020) coated T175 flasks (Sigma, Cat. No. L2020) at 2.9×10^6 cells for control or low TNF-α (0.1 ng/mL) conditions, and 5×10^6 cells for high TNF-α (1 ng/mL) conditions. The following day, the media was replaced with proliferation medium ± TNF-α. The cells were harvested after 48 h.

Differentiation

HPCs were cultured as described above in proliferation medium ± TNF-α for 48 hrs. Next, the media was changed to differentiation media ± 0.1 ng/ml TNF-α or 1 ng/ml TNF-α. The HPCs were allowed to differentiate for seven or fourteen days. To mimic a chronic TNF-α-mediated proinflammatory environment the differentiation media was changed every 48 hours to fresh differentiation media ± 0.1 ng/ml TNF-α or 1 ng/ml TNF-α. After seven or fourteen days of differentiation the cells were harvested.

Harvesting cells for single-cell RNA sequencing

On the day of harvest, medium was removed and cells washed with pre-warmed DPBS (Gibco, Cat. No. 14190144). Cells were detached using pre-warmed Accutase (Gibco, Cat. No. A1110501) at 37 °C, 5% CO_2 for 5–10 min, harvested with pre-warmed DMEM/F12 (Gibco, Cat. No. 21331020), and centrifuged at 100 × g for 5 min. Pellets were gently resuspended in 1 mL of the warm proliferation or differentiation medium. Viability was confirmed at ≥ 85% using Trypan Blue (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Cat. No. 15250061,) and a hemocytometer before proceeding to antibody labelling.

Cell surface staining with hashtag oligonucleotide antibodies

For 3′ scRNA-seq multiplexing on the 10x Genomics Chromium system, samples were labelled with TotalSeq™-B anti-human hashtag oligonucleotide (HTO) antibodies targeting CD298 and β2-microglobulin (BioLegend: Hashtag 1 Cat. No. 394631; Hashtag 2 Cat. No. 394633; Hashtag 3 Cat. No. 394635). Optimal antibody concentration (1:5,000; 125 ng/mL) was determined by titrating PE-conjugated anti-CD298 (BioLegend, Cat. No. 341704) and anti-B2M (BioLegend, Cat. No. 316305) at a 1:1 equimolar ratio, followed by ICC to confirm 100% labelling with minimal background. Samples were individually labelled with HTOs prior to pooling at the sequencing facility.

1×10^6 cells per sample were pelleted (300 × g, 5 min, 4 °C) and resuspended in 45 µL Cell Staining Buffer (CSB) (BioLegend, Cat. No. 420201). Cells were blocked with 5 µL TruStain FcX™ (BioLegend, Cat. No. 422301) for 10 min at 4 °C. TotalSeq™-B HTO antibodies were diluted 1:2,500 in CSB and mixed 1:1 with blocked cells to reach a final concentration of 1:5,000. Samples were incubated for 30 min at 4 °C. Cells were washed

602 3× in CSB (300 × g, 5 min, 4 °C) resuspending using wide-bore pipette tips (Starlab, Cat.

603 No. E1011-9618). Final concentration was adjusted to 700–1,200 cells/µL, assuming

604 ~50% cell loss. Cell suspensions were filtered through 40 µm Flowmi™ Cell Strainers

605 (Bel-Art, Cat. No. H13680-0040), and viability (>80%) was confirmed before proceeding

606 to the 10x Genomics workflow. All steps were performed on ice.

Single-cell capture, cDNA library preparation, and sequencing

608
HTO-labelled samples were pooled and processed by the Genomics Research Platform

at Guy's & St Thomas's Hospital (London, UK). The differentiation samples (three pools)

and the proliferation samples (one pool) were delivered to the facility on separate days.

Equal cell numbers were combined, and 18,000 cells per pool were loaded onto separate

lanes of the 10x Chromium X instrument (10x Genomics) for droplet-based single-cell

capture. cDNA libraries were prepared using the Chromium Single Cell 3′ Reagent Kit v3

(10x Genomics, Cat. No. PN-1000268,). Libraries were sequenced on an Illumina

NextSeq 2000 system using 50 bp paired-end reads.

Read alignment and sample demultiplexing

FASTQ files from gene expression and HTO libraries were processed using Cell Ranger

v7.1 (10x Genomics) with the cellranger multi pipeline. Data were imported into R (v4.3.2)

using Seurat v5 via the Read10X() function, returning UMI and HTO count matrices. Cells

with barcodes present in both matrices were retained, and RNA counts were used to

create a Seurat object (CreateSeuratObject()), with HTO data added as an independent

assay (CreateAssayObject()). HTO data were normalised using centred log-ratio

transformation and demultiplexed using HTODemux(assay = 'HTO') with default

parameters. Only singlets with confident HTO classification were retained for downstream

analysis.

Quality control

QC was performed separately on merged Seurat objects for differentiation and

proliferation samples. At the cell level, cells were excluded if they had >15% mitochondrial

gene expression, a novelty score ($\log_{10}$[genes/UMIs]) <0.8, <800 or >8,000 genes, or

<1,000 or >45,000 transcripts. This yielded 22,133 high-quality cells (15,053 derived from

differentiation samples; 7,080 derived from proliferation samples). At the gene level,

genes not expressed in any cells or expressed in ≤5 cells were excluded. Post-filtering,

26,288 genes were retained in the differentiation dataset and 21,951 in the proliferation

dataset.

Normalisation, dimensionality reduction, and clustering

The differentiation and proliferation Seurat objects were merged and normalised

using sctransform (v2) from Seurat. Dimensionality reduction was performed using

principal component analysis (PCA) on the top 3,000 highly variable genes. An ElbowPlot

indicated that the first 50 principal components captured the majority of variance in the

dataset which was used for downstream analysis. We constructed a shared nearest

neighbour graph using FindNeighbors(), tested clustering across resolutions from 0.1 to

1.2 (FindClusters()), and visualised cellular heterogeneity via UMAP (RunUMAP(dims =

1:50)), displayed with DimPlot(reduction = "umap").

Cluster annotation

Clusters were initially over-resolved using high-resolution settings and subsequently

merged if they lacked distinct marker genes, were not biologically meaningful, or shared

multiple canonical markers. This iterative approach—clustering, merging, and re-

clustering—was guided by marker gene expression. Cluster markers were identified using

the FindAllMarkers() function in Seurat, applying Wilcoxon rank-sum testing to compare

each cluster against all others. Marker genes were required to be expressed in ≥25% of

cells within the cluster and show positive differential expression (log_2 fold change ≥0.25).

Ultimately, 15 clusters were identified and annotated based on culture condition,

treatment, cell cycle stage, and canonical marker expression.

Functional enrichment analysis

659   [111]Gene Ontology (GO) over-representation analysis was performed using the

660   ClusterProfiler package[83]. The top 100 differentially expressed genes (ranked by log fold

661   change) between clusters were used as input. Raw p-values < 0.05 were considered for

662   enrichment. Multiple testing correction was performed using the Benjamini–Hochberg

663   method, with the default adjusted p-value threshold of 0.2.

Transcription factor activity inference

665   Transcription factor (TF) activity was inferred using decoupleR (v2.8)[84]. CollecTRI[85] was

666   retrieved via OmnipathR[86]. The univariate linear model generates a TF enrichment score

667   by fitting a linear model of gene expression based on TF–gene interaction weights. The

668   t-value of the slope (ULM score) indicates TF activity: positive scores denote activation

669   and negative scores indicate inactivity.

Gene module scoring for NSC-specific type I IFN response signature

Cells were scored using a 300-gene NSC-specific type I IFN response signature derived from murine SVZ NSCs treated *ex vivo* with IFN-β[38]. Average gene set expression per cell was calculated using the Seurat function AddModuleScore().

Gene module scoring for human immature dentate granule cell signature

Cells were scored against the top 20 genes from a gene list identifying human immature dentate granule cells[9]. Average gene set expression per cell was calculated using the AddModuleScore() funtion.

Conditioned media experiment for immunocytochemistry

To generate conditioned media (CM) 3×10^5 HPCs were seeded into six well plates coated with 20 μg/ml mouse laminin (Sigma, Cat. No. L2020). The following day, the media was replaced with fresh media ± 0.1 ng/ml, 1 ng/ml, or 10 ng/ml TNF-α. After 24 hours, media was switched to control media without TNF-α and cells were cultured for an additional 24 hours before CM collection. This approach captured HPC-secreted factors in response to TNF-α while eliminating residual TNF-α. To assess CM effects on IFN-regulated protein ISG15 expression, HPCs were seeded into laminin-coated 96-well plates. The next day, media was replaced with 70% CM mixed with 30% fresh media to maintain cell viability. After 48 hours, cells were fixed, immunostained, and imaged to quantify the percentage of ISG15$^+$ HPCs.

Protein synthesis inhibition

To investigate the requirement of *de novo* protein synthesis in the TNF-α-induced upregulation of candidate genes, we utilised the global protein translation inhibitor, cycloheximide. The HPCs were treated as described in the results section with 10 µg/ml cycloheximide (Merck, Cat. No. 01810).

Blocking NF-kB signalling

Cells were seeded in six-well plates coated with 20 µg/ml mouse laminin (Sigma, Cat. No. L2020). After 24 hours, the media was replaced with media containing 10 µM JSH23 (Abcam, Cat. No. ab144824) dissolved in 100% dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) or with DMSO as control. The final DMSO concentration in both groups was 0.1%. Following a 30-minute pre-treatment, 1 ng/ml TNF-α was added as indicated in the results section, and cells were harvested for gene expression analysis.

Probing the dependency of IFNAR in TNF-α-induced type I IFN signalling

To assess IFNAR dependency in TNF-α-induced type I IFN signalling, HPCs (1.2 × 10^4) were seeded in laminin-coated 96-well plates. The following day, cells were treated with or without 10 µg/ml anifrolumab (Bio X Cell, Cat. No. SIM0022), an anti-IFNAR1 antibody, or isotype control (Bio X Cell, Cat. No. SIM0014), and with or without 1 ng/ml TNF-α. After 24 h, cells were fixed and stained for ISG15, STAT1, and DAPI. High-content imaging quantified ISG15+ and STAT1+ cells as described.

Blocking JAK activity

1.2×10^4 HPCs were seeded in laminin-coated 96-well plates (Thermo Fisher Scientific,

Cat. No. 167008). The following day, cells were treated with or without 16 nM JAK inhibitor

I (Cayman Chemical, Cat. No. CAY15146) and with or without 1 ng/ml TNF-α. After 24 h,

media was removed, cells fixed and stained, and high-content imaging was used to

quantify ISG15+ HPCs.

Evaluating cell surface protein expression with flow cytometry

Cells were cultured in laminin-coated T75 flasks (Sigma, Cat. No. L2020) and treated ± 1

ng/ml TNF-α for 24 h. Cells were detached with Accutase (Sigma, Cat. No. A1110501)

for five min in the incubator, harvested, centrifuged, and resuspended in PBS. Cells were

stained with Zombie NIR viability dye (BioLegend, Cat. No. 423105; 1:2000 in PBS) for

15 min at room temperature. Cells were washed and stained with antibodies

(Supplementary Table 7) at 1:100 in staining buffer (PBS + 10 mM HEPES, 2 mM EDTA,

0.5% FCS) for 40 min at 4 °C. After washes, cells were resuspended in staining buffer.

Data were acquired on a BD FACS Canto II using FACSDiva v9.2 and analysed with

FlowJo v10.10.

Isolating peripheral blood mononuclear cells from leukocyte cones

727
Peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) were isolated from leukocyte cones

obtained from three healthy donors via NHS Blood and Transplant (NHSBT, Tooting, UK).

Donors provided generic consent for research use. Leukocyte cones were cleaned with

ethanol and processed in a biosafety cabinet. Blood was drained into a 50 ml tube which

was topped up to 50 ml with PBS containing 2% FCS. After gently mixing it was

centrifuged at 800 × g for 10 minutes. The pellet was resuspended 1:1 in DPBS and

layered onto 15 ml Ficoll-Paque PLUS (Cytiva, Cat. No. 17144002). After centrifugation

at 450 × g for 30 minutes with minimal acceleration and no brake, the buffy coat was

collected, washed twice with cold DPBS, and centrifuged at 400 × g for 10 minutes at

4°C. A final centrifugation step at 200 × g for 10 minutes at 4°C was performed to reduce

platelet contamination. Cells were counted, resuspended in freezing media (90% FBS,

10% DMSO) at 360–600 × 10^6 cells/ml, aliquoted into cryovials, frozen overnight at −80°C

in a Mr. Frosty container, and transferred to liquid nitrogen for long-term storage. Each

vial contained 9–15 × 10^6 cells.

Chemotaxis assay

T cell activation and expansion protocol

PBMC cryovials were thawed and seeded in T75 flasks at 37°C with 5% CO_2 in complete

RPMI (10% FCS (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Cat. No. 26140079), 1% penicillin-

streptomycin (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Cat. No. 15140122)). After 24 hours, nonadherent

lymphocytes were collected, centrifuged, and cultured in complete RPMI supplemented

with 100 IU/ml recombinant human IL-2 (BioLegend, Cat. No. 689104) and 2.5 µg/ml

phytohemagglutinin-L (PHA-L) (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Cat. No. 00-4977-93) in fresh

T75 flasks. After 48 hours, cells were harvested, washed, and resuspended in complete

RPMI with 100 IU/ml IL-2. The cells were cultured for a total of 10 days and were

resuspended in fresh complete RPMI media supplemented with 100 IU/ml IL-2 every

other day.

Transswell chemotaxis assay

Transswell migration assays were performed using 96-well transswell plates with 5 µm pore membranes (Corning, Cat. No. 3387). Upper wells were coated overnight with 2% BSA in PBS to prevent cell adhesion and washed thrice with PBS the following day. Activated lymphocytes were harvested, washed, and resuspended at 4–5 × 10^6 cells/ml in migration media (complete RPMI diluted 1:10 in neat RPMI), HPC proliferation media, or HPC differentiation media as appropriate. For CXCR3 dependency assays, cells were pretreated with 1 µM AMG487 (Cayman Chemical, Cat. No. 28416) or DMSO control for 30 minutes at 37°C with rotation. 75 µl cell suspension were added to upper chambers. Lower chambers were filled with 235 µl media containing 100 ng/ml recombinant human CXCL10 (R&D Systems, Cat. No. 266-IP), TNF-α-conditioned media (CM) from proliferating or differentiating HPCs, or CM from HPCs treated ± TNF-α, JAK inhibitor I, or anifrolumab. After 3 hours at 37°C, migrated cells in the lower chamber were collected into 96-well plates for analysis.

Flow cytometry of migrated cells

Migrated cells were collected by spinning the plate at 2000 rpm for 1 min and washed with 200 µl DPBS. Cells were stained with Zombie NIR viability dye (BioLegend, Cat. No. 423105; 1:2000 in DPBS) for 15 min at room temperature in the dark, followed by quenching with 100 µl DPBS and centrifugation. For CXCR3 surface expression, cells were incubated with anti-CXCR3 antibody (1:100 in staining buffer: DPBS + 10 mM HEPES + 2 mM EDTA + 0.5% FCS) at 37°C for 15 min. Next cells were stained with a master mix of antibodies (Supplementary Table 8; 1:50) for 40 min at 4°C. Cells were washed twice with staining buffer and resuspended in 100 µl staining buffer. Data were

acquired on a BD FACS Canto II with high-throughput sampler using FACSDiva v9.2 (BD

Biosciences) with settings: flow rate 3.0, sample volume 50 µl, mixing volume 50 µl,

mixing speed 200, two washes with 200 µl wash volume. Analysis was performed using

FlowJo v10.10.

Generating conditioned media from HPCs for chemotaxis study

HPCs (3.5×10^5) were seeded into six-well plates coated with 20 µg/ml mouse laminin

(Sigma, Cat. No. L2020). After 24 h, media was replaced with proliferation media ± 1

ng/ml TNF-α. After 48 h, CM was collected and centrifuged at 1500 × g for 10 min at 4°C.

Supernatants were transferred to new tubes to remove cell debris and stored at –80°C

until use.

Generating conditioned media from differentiating HPCs

After 48 h of treatment in proliferation conditions as described above, media was replaced

with differentiation media ± 1 ng/ml TNF-α. Cells were differentiated for 7 days, with media

± 1 ng/ml TNF-α refreshed every 48 h to simulate chronic inflammation. At the end of the

differentiation period, CM was collected, centrifuged at 1500 × g for 10 min at 4°C, and

the supernatants were transferred to new tubes and stored at –80°C for chemotaxis

assays.

Generating conditioned media from HPCs blocking JAK activity or IFNAR

3.5×10^5 HPCs were seeded in 6-well plates coated with 20 µg/ml mouse laminin

(Sigma, Cat. No. L2020). The following day, media was replaced with fresh proliferation

media with either DMSO (vehicle control), 1 ng/ml TNF-α, 10 µg/ml anifrolumab (anti-

798   IFNAR1; Bio X Cell, Cat. No. SIM0022) ± 1 ng/ml TNF-α, or 0.15 nM JAK inhibitor I

799   (Cayman Chemical, Cat. No. CAY15146) ± 1 ng/ml TNF-α After 24 h, CM was collected,

800   centrifuged at 1500 × g for 10 min at 4° C, and supernatants were transferred to fresh

801   tubes and stored at –80° C for chemotaxis assays.

Data availability

804   All source data will be made available via the repository platform *figshare.com* and scripts

805   on *github.com* at the same time as the peer-reviewed publication.

References

1.   Ming, G. & Song, H. Adult Neurogenesis in the Mammalian Brain: Significant
Answers and Significant Questions. *Neuron* **70**, 687–702 (2011).
2.   Altman, J. Autoradiographic investigation of cell proliferation in the brains of rats
and cats. *Anat Rec* **145**, 573–591 (1963).
3.   Spalding, K. L. *et al.* Dynamics of Hippocampal Neurogenesis in Adult Humans.
Cell **153**, 1219–1227 (2013).
4.   Boldrini, M. *et al.* Human Hippocampal Neurogenesis Persists throughout Aging.
Cell Stem Cell **22**, 589-599.e5 (2018).
5.   Knoth, R. *et al.* Murine features of neurogenesis in the human hippocampus
across the lifespan from 0 to 100 years. *PLoS One* **5**, e8809 (2010).
6.   Moreno-Jiménez, E. P. *et al.* Adult hippocampal neurogenesis is abundant in
neurologically healthy subjects and drops sharply in patients with Alzheimer's
disease. *Nat Med* **25**, 554–560 (2019).
7.   Tobin, M. K. *et al.* Human Hippocampal Neurogenesis Persists in Aged Adults
and Alzheimer's Disease Patients. *Cell Stem Cell* **24**, 974-982.e3 (2019).
8.   Palmer, T. D. *et al.* Progenitor cells from human brain after death. *Nature* **411**,
42–43 (2001).
9.   Zhou, Y. *et al.* Molecular landscapes of human hippocampal immature neurons
across lifespan. *Nature* **607**, 527–533 (2022).
10.   Dumitru, I. *et al.* Identification of proliferating neural progenitors in the adult
human hippocampus. *Science* **389**, 58–63 (2025).
11.   Shors, T. J. *et al.* Neurogenesis in the adult is involved in the formation of trace
memories. *Nature* **410**, 372–376 (2001).
12.   Freund, J. *et al.* Emergence of Individuality in Genetically Identical Mice. *Science*
340, 756–759 (2013).

13. Alonso, M., Petit, A.-C. & Lledo, P.-M. The impact of adult neurogenesis on
affective functions: of mice and men. *Mol Psychiatry* **29**, 2527–2542 (2024).
14. Babcock, K. R., Page, J. S., Fallon, J. R. & Webb, A. E. Adult Hippocampal
Neurogenesis in Aging and Alzheimer's Disease. *Stem Cell Reports* **16**, 681–693
(2021).
15. Berger, T., Lee, H., Young, A. H., Aarsland, D. & Thuret, S. Adult Hippocampal
Neurogenesis in Major Depressive Disorder and Alzheimer's Disease. *Trends Mol*
Med **26**, 803–818 (2020).
16. Hill, A. S., Sahay, A. & Hen, R. Increasing Adult Hippocampal Neurogenesis is
Sufficient to Reduce Anxiety and Depression-Like Behaviors.
Neuropsychopharmacology **40**, 2368–2378 (2015).
17. Li, Y.-D. *et al.* Activation of hypothalamic-enhanced adult-born neurons restores
cognitive and affective function in Alzheimer's disease. *Cell Stem Cell* **30**, 415-
432.e6 (2023).
18. Heneka, M. T. *et al.* Neuroinflammation in Alzheimer disease. *Nat Rev Immunol*
25, 321–352 (2025).
19. Zhang, W., Sun, H.-S., Wang, X., Dumont, A. S. & Liu, Q. Cellular senescence,
DNA damage, and neuroinflammation in the aging brain. *Trends Neurosci* **47**,
461–474 (2024).
20. Beurel, E., Toups, M. & Nemeroff, C. B. The Bidirectional Relationship of
Depression and Inflammation: Double Trouble. *Neuron* **107**, 234–256 (2020).
21. Swardfager, W. *et al.* A Meta-Analysis of Cytokines in Alzheimer's Disease. *Biol*
Psychiatry **68**, 930–941 (2010).
22. Holmes, C. *et al.* Systemic inflammation and disease progression in Alzheimer
disease. *Neurology* **73**, 768–774 (2009).
23. Brymer, K. J., Romay-Tallon, R., Allen, J., Caruncho, H. J. & Kalynchuk, L. E.
Exploring the Potential Antidepressant Mechanisms of TNFα Antagonists. *Front*
Neurosci **13**, (2019).
24. Enache, D., Pariante, C. M. & Mondelli, V. Markers of central inflammation in
major depressive disorder: A systematic review and meta-analysis of studies
examining cerebrospinal fluid, positron emission tomography and post-mortem
brain tissue. *Brain Behav Immun* **81**, 24–40 (2019).
25. Borsini, A., Zunszain, P. A., Thuret, S. & Pariante, C. M. The role of inflammatory
cytokines as key modulators of neurogenesis. *Trends Neurosci* **38**, 145–57
(2015).
26. Monje, M. L., Toda, H. & Palmer, T. D. Inflammatory Blockade Restores Adult
Hippocampal Neurogenesis. *Science* **302**, 1760–1765 (2003).
27. Chen, M., Reed, R. R. & Lane, A. P. Chronic Inflammation Directs an Olfactory
Stem Cell Functional Switch from Neuroregeneration to Immune Defense. *Cell*
Stem Cell **25**, 501-513.e5 (2019).
28. Dulken, B. W. *et al.* Single-cell analysis reveals T cell infiltration in old neurogenic
niches. *Nature* **571**, 205–210 (2019).
29. Wu, Y. *et al.* Multimodal transcriptomics reveal neurogenic aging trajectories and
age-related regional inflammation in the dentate gyrus. *Nat Neurosci* **28**, 415–430
(2025).

30.   Laurent, C. *et al.* Hippocampal T cell infiltration promotes neuroinflammation and
cognitive decline in a mouse model of tauopathy. *Brain* **140**, 184–200 (2017).
31.   Walgrave, H. *et al.* Restoring miR-132 expression rescues adult hippocampal
neurogenesis and memory deficits in Alzheimer's disease. *Cell Stem Cell* **28**,
1805-1821.e8 (2021).
32.   Borsini, A. *et al.* Neurogenesis is disrupted in human hippocampal progenitor cells
upon exposure to serum samples from hospitalized COVID-19 patients with
neurological symptoms. *Mol Psychiatry* **27**, 5049–5061 (2022).
33.   Du Preez, A. *et al.* The serum metabolome mediates the concert of diet, exercise,
and neurogenesis, determining the risk for cognitive decline and dementia.
Alzheimer's & Dementia **18**, 654–675 (2022).
34.   Maruszak, A. *et al.* Predicting progression to Alzheimer's disease with human
hippocampal progenitors exposed to serum. *Brain* **146**, 2045–2058 (2023).
35.   Anacker, C. *et al.* Role for the kinase SGK1 in stress, depression, and
glucocorticoid effects on hippocampal neurogenesis. *Proceedings of the National
Academy of Sciences* **110**, 8708–8713 (2013).
36.   de Lucia, C. *et al.* Lifestyle mediates the role of nutrient-sensing pathways in
cognitive aging: cellular and epidemiological evidence. *Commun Biol* **3**, 157
(2020).
37.   Gutierrez, H. & Davies, A. M. Regulation of neural process growth, elaboration
and structural plasticity by NF-κB. *Trends Neurosci* **34**, 316–325 (2011).
38.   Carvajal Ibañez, D. *et al.* Interferon regulates neural stem cell function at all ages
by orchestrating mTOR and cell cycle. *EMBO Mol Med* **15**, (2023).
39.   Borsini, A. *et al.* Interferon-Alpha Reduces Human Hippocampal Neurogenesis
and Increases Apoptosis via Activation of Distinct STAT1-Dependent
Mechanisms. *Int J Neuropsychopharmacol* **21**, 187–200 (2018).
40.   Yarilina, A., Park-Min, K.-H., Antoniv, T., Hu, X. & Ivashkiv, L. B. TNF activates an
IRF1-dependent autocrine loop leading to sustained expression of chemokines
and STAT1-dependent type I interferon–response genes. *Nat Immunol* **9**, 378–
387 (2008).
41.   Venkatesh, D. *et al.* Endothelial TNF Receptor 2 Induces IRF1 Transcription
Factor-Dependent Interferon-β Autocrine Signaling to Promote Monocyte
Recruitment. *Immunity* **38**, 1025–1037 (2013).
42.   Bonelli, M. *et al.* IRF1 is critical for the TNF-driven interferon response in
rheumatoid fibroblast-like synoviocytes. *Exp Mol Med* **51**, 1–11 (2019).
43.   Riggs, J. M. *et al.* Characterisation of anifrolumab, a fully human anti-interferon
receptor antagonist antibody for the treatment of systemic lupus erythematosus.
Lupus Sci Med **5**, e000261 (2018).
44.   Thompson, J. E. *et al.* Photochemical preparation of a pyridone containing
tetracycle: A jak protein kinase inhibitor. *Bioorg Med Chem Lett* **12**, 1219–1223
(2002).
45.   Chauquet, S. *et al.* Exercise rejuvenates microglia and reverses T cell
accumulation in the aged female mouse brain. *Aging Cell* **23** (2024).
46.   Krukowski, K. *et al.* Small molecule cognitive enhancer reverses age-related
memory decline in mice. *Elife* **9**, (2020).

47.   Unger, M. S. *et al.* CD8+ T-cells infiltrate Alzheimer's disease brains and regulate
neuronal- and synapse-related gene expression in APP-PS1 transgenic mice.
Brain Behav Immun **89**, 67–86 (2020).
48.   Gate, D. *et al.* Clonally expanded CD8 T cells patrol the cerebrospinal fluid in
Alzheimer's disease. *Nature* **577**, 399–404 (2020).
49.   Merlini, M., Kirabali, T., Kulic, L., Nitsch, R. M. & Ferretti, M. T. Extravascular
CD3+ T Cells in Brains of Alzheimer Disease Patients Correlate with Tau but Not
with Amyloid Pathology: An Immunohistochemical Study. *Neurodegener Dis* **18**,
49–56 (2018).
50.   Groom, J. R. & Luster, A. D. CXCR3 ligands: redundant, collaborative and
antagonistic functions. *Immunol Cell Biol* **89**, 207–215 (2011).
51.   Hsu, W.-L., Ma, Y.-L., Hsieh, D.-Y., Liu, Y.-C. & Lee, E. H. STAT1 Negatively
Regulates Spatial Memory Formation and Mediates the Memory-Impairing Effect
of Aβ. *Neuropsychopharmacology* **39**, 746–758 (2014).
52.   Imitola, J. *et al.* Stat1 is an inducible transcriptional repressor of neural stem cells
self-renewal program during neuroinflammation. *Front Cell Neurosci* **17**, (2023).
53.   Zheng, L.-S. *et al.* Mechanisms for Interferon-α-Induced Depression and Neural
Stem Cell Dysfunction. *Stem Cell Reports* **3**, 73–84 (2014).
54.   Baruch, K. *et al.* Aging-induced type I interferon response at the choroid plexus
negatively affects brain function. *Science* **346**, 89–93 (2014).
55.   Chen, Z. & Palmer, T. D. Differential roles of TNFR1 and TNFR2 signaling in adult
hippocampal neurogenesis. *Brain Behav Immun* **30**, 45–53 (2013).
56.   Liu, Y.-P., Lin, H.-I. & Tzeng, S.-F. Tumor necrosis factor-α and interleukin-18
modulate neuronal cell fate in embryonic neural progenitor culture. *Brain Res*
1054, 152–158 (2005).
57.   Keohane, A., Ryan, S., Maloney, E., Sullivan, A. M. & Nolan, Y. M. Tumour
necrosis factor-α impairs neuronal differentiation but not proliferation of
hippocampal neural precursor cells: Role of Hes1. *Molecular and Cellular*
Neuroscience **43**, 127–135 (2010).
58.   Neumann, H. *et al.* Tumor Necrosis Factor Inhibits Neurite Outgrowth and
Branching of Hippocampal Neurons by a Rho-Dependent Mechanism. *The*
Journal of Neuroscience **22**, 854–862 (2002).
59.   Sheng, W. S. *et al.* TNF-α-induced chemokine production and apoptosis in human
neural precursor cells. *J Leukoc Biol* **78**, 1233–1241 (2005).
60.   McNab, F., Mayer-Barber, K., Sher, A., Wack, A. & O'Garra, A. Type I interferons
in infectious disease. *Nat Rev Immunol* **15**, 87–103 (2015).
61.   Ninh, V. K. *et al.* Spatially clustered type I interferon responses at injury
borderzones. *Nature* **633**, 174–181 (2024).
62.   Ashby, K. M. *et al.* Sterile production of interferons in the thymus affects T cell
repertoire selection. *Sci Immunol* **9**, (2024).
63.   Tliba, O. *et al.* Tumor Necrosis Factor α Modulates Airway Smooth Muscle
Function via the Autocrine Action of Interferon β. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*
278, 50615–50623 (2003).
64.   Escoubas, C. C. *et al.* Type I interferon responsive microglia shape cortical
development and behavior. Preprint at https://doi.org/10.1101/2021.04.29.441889
(2021).

65.　de Weerd, N. A. & Nguyen, T. The interferons and their receptors—distribution and regulation. *Immunol Cell Biol* **90**, 483–491 (2012).

66.　Deczkowska, A. *et al.* Mef2C restrains microglial inflammatory response and is lost in brain ageing in an IFN-I-dependent manner. *Nat Commun* **8**, 717 (2017).

67.　Roy, E. R. *et al.* Type I interferon response drives neuroinflammation and synapse loss in Alzheimer disease. *Journal of Clinical Investigation* **130**, 1912–1930 (2020).

68.　Roy, E. R. *et al.* Concerted type I interferon signaling in microglia and neural cells promotes memory impairment associated with amyloid β plaques. *Immunity* **55**, 879-894.e6 (2022).

69.　Licht-Murava, A. *et al.* Astrocytic TDP-43 dysregulation impairs memory by modulating antiviral pathways and interferon-inducible chemokines. *Sci Adv* **9**, (2023).

70.　Wang, Q. *et al.* Brain derived β-interferon is a potential player in Alzheimer's disease pathogenesis and cognitive impairment. *Alzheimers Res Ther* **16**, 271 (2024).

71.　Hur, J.-Y. *et al.* The innate immunity protein IFITM3 modulates γ-secretase in Alzheimer's disease. *Nature* **586**, 735–740 (2020).

72.　Stokes, C. *et al.* The human neural cell atlas of Zika virus infection in developing brain tissue. *Cell Rep Med* **6**, 102189 (2025).

73.　Fernando, N. *et al.* Single-cell multiomic analysis reveals the involvement of Type I interferon-responsive CD8+ T cells in amyloid beta-associated memory loss. Preprint at https://doi.org/10.1101/2023.03.18.533293 (2023).

74.　Mason, H. D. & McGavern, D. B. How the immune system shapes neurodegenerative diseases. *Trends Neurosci* **45**, 733–748 (2022).

75.　Chen, X. & Holtzman, D. M. Emerging roles of innate and adaptive immunity in Alzheimer's disease. *Immunity* **55**, 2236–2254 (2022).

76.　Groh, J. *et al.* Microglia activation orchestrates CXCL10-mediated CD8+ T cell recruitment to promote aging-related white matter degeneration. *Nat Neurosci* **28**, 1160–1173 (2025).

77.　Ma, W. *et al.* Type I interferon response in astrocytes promotes brain metastasis by enhancing monocytic myeloid cell recruitment. *Nat Commun* **14**, 2632 (2023).

78.　Nelson, T. E. & Gruol, D. L. The chemokine CXCL10 modulates excitatory activity and intracellular calcium signaling in cultured hippocampal neurons. *J Neuroimmunol* **156**, 74–87 (2004).

79.　Petrisko, T. J. *et al.* Neuronal CXCL10/CXCR3 Axis Mediates the Induction of Cerebral Hyperexcitability by Peripheral Viral Challenge. *Front Neurosci* **14**, (2020).

80.　Kalamakis, G. *et al.* Quiescence Modulates Stem Cell Maintenance and Regenerative Capacity in the Aging Brain. *Cell* **176**, 1407-1419.e14 (2019).

81.　Du Preez, A. *et al.* Impaired hippocampal neurogenesis in vitro is modulated by dietary-related endogenous factors and associated with depression in a longitudinal ageing cohort study. *Mol Psychiatry* **27**, 3425–3440 (2022).

82.　Farmand, S., Ahmed, E., Zawar, H. A. & Thuret, S. Selenium deficiency negatively affects survival and integrity of human hippocampal progenitor cells. *Aging Brain* **7**, 100138 (2025).

83. Wu, T. *et al.* clusterProfiler 4.0: A universal enrichment tool for interpreting omics
data. *The Innovation* **2**, 100141 (2021).
84. Badia-I-Mompel, P. *et al.* decoupleR: ensemble of computational methods to infer
biological activities from omics data. *Bioinformatics advances* **2**, vbac016 (2022).
85. Müller-Dott, S. *et al.* Expanding the coverage of regulons from high-confidence
prior knowledge for accurate estimation of transcription factor activities. *Nucleic
Acids Res* **51**, 10934–10949 (2023).
86. Türei, D. *et al.* Integrated intra- and intercellular signaling knowledge for
multicellular omics analysis. *Mol Syst Biol* **17**, (2021).
1023

Authors contribution

L.S.K. and S.T. contributed equally and directed the research. T.A.D.N., L.S.K., and S.T.

designed the experiments. T.A.D.N. wrote the manuscript with contributions from L.S.K.

T.A.D.N. performed the majority of the experiments and conducted data analysis.

T.A.D.N. and D.T.R. generated the scRNA sequencing data in collaboration. A.B.

collected and analysed the RT-qPCR data. S.S. performed the morphological analysis of

differentiated HPCs. H.L. helped design and generate the differentiation and chemokine

data. T.A.D.N. and L.A.O'N. generated the ELISA and chemokine data. S.J. advised on

STAT signalling and helped generate the STAT western blot data. All authors read and

revised the manuscript.

Acknowledgements

T.A.D.N. was funded by the Wellcome Trust as part of the "Neuro-Immune Interactions in

Health & Disease Wellcome Trust PhD Programme [218452/Z/19/Z]". The work was

supported by a grant awarded to S.T. by the Medical Research Council UK

[MR/S00484X/1] and awards to L.S.K. by the Medical Research Council Discovery

1039   Award [MR/N012345/1]. D.T.R. was supported by a PhD Studentship awarded by the

1040   Medical Research Council UK [MR/R015643/1], H.L. was supported by a grant from The

1041   Galen and Hilary Weston Foundation awarded to S.T. Some panels of Figure 5 and 6

1042   were created with Biorender.com with a licence to S.T. at King's College London.

1043

We thank George Chennell and Chen Liang (Wohl Cellular Imaging Centre, King's

College London) for technical support with high-content imaging; the Genomics Research

Platform (Guy's and St Thomas' NHS Foundation Trust) for sequencing support;

Franziska Denk for advice on scRNA sequencing design; Robert Köchl and Aritz Lasarte

Cía for input on chemotaxis assays; Josephine Eum for guidance on PBMC isolation; and

Daniel Davies for advice on flow cytometry staining.

Ethics declaration

1051   The authors declare that ethical standards prevailing at their institution have been

1052   observed throughout this study.

Competing interests

1054   The authors declare no competing interests.

Extended data p. 2-6

&

Supplementary Information p.7-24

TNF-α-induced type I IFN signalling decreases neurogenesis and drives T cell chemotaxis

Tinne Amalie Damgaard Nissen[1,2], Arishma Baig[1], Daniel T. Rock[2], Sandra Shibu[2], Hyunah Lee[2], Lauren A. O'Neill[1], Susan John[3], Linda S. Klavinskis[1]*, Sandrine Thuret[2]*

[1]Department of Infectious Diseases, School of Immunology & Microbial Sciences, King's College London, London SE1 9RT, UK

[2]Department of Basic and Clinical Neuroscience, Institute of Psychiatry, Psychology and Neuroscience, King's College London, London SE5 9RT, UK

[3]Peter Gorer Department of Immunobiology, King's College London, London SE1 9RT, UK

*Equally contributed and co-corresponding authors. Linda.Klavinskis@kcl.ac.uk and Sandrine.1.thuret@kcl.ac.uk

Extended data

TNF-α-induced type I IFN signalling decreases neurogenesis and drives T cell chemotaxis

Tinne Amalie Damgaard Nissen[1,2], Arishma Baig[1], Daniel T. Rock[2], Sandra Shibu[2], Hyunah Lee[2], Lauren A. O'Neill[1], Susan John[3], Linda S. Klavinskis[1]*, Sandrine Thuret[2]*

[1]Department of Infectious Diseases, School of Immunology & Microbial Sciences, King's College London, London SE1 9RT, UK
[2]Department of Basic and Clinical Neuroscience, Institute of Psychiatry, Psychology and Neuroscience, King's College London, London SE5 9RT, UK
[3]Peter Gorer Department of Immunobiology, King's College London, London SE1 9RT, UK

*Equally contributed and co-corresponding authors. Linda.Klavinskis@kcl.ac.uk and Sandrine.1.thuret@kcl.ac.uk

Extended Fig. 1 | TNF-α drives the upregulation of type I IFN genes in HPCs. a, UMAP plot showing transcriptional clustering of single cells split by samples. Colours indicate the 15 cell clusters identified. **b**, Violin plots showing dose-dependent expression of the type I IFN stimulated genes ISG15, IFI27, IFI6, and IFITM3 in the HPCs treated for 48 hrs with vehicle (red), 0.1 ng/ml (low, green), or 1 ng/ml (high, blue) TNF-α. **c**, Dot plot showing gene ontology (GO) enrichment analysis of biological processes terms based on the top 100 genes upregulated genes in cluster 5 as compared to cluster 6. **d**, Dot plot showing gene ontology (GO) enrichment analysis of biological processes terms based on the top 100 genes upregulated genes in cluster 10 as compared to cluster 7, 8, and 9. **e**, UMAP plot showing the predicted transcription factor activity of STAT1. **f**, UMAP plot showing the predicted transcription factor activity of STAT2.

Extended Fig. 2 | TNF-α drives type I IFN signalling in human HPCs via autocrine/paracrine signalling via IFNAR. **a**, Representative western blots of three independent experiments showing the activation of STAT2 in HPCs treated with 1 ng/ml TNF-α for 1 h, 3 h, 6 h or 12 h. Cell lysates were probed for phosphorylated STAT2 (p-STAT2, Tyr690), total STAT2, and GAPDH as a loading control. **b**, Quantification of STAT2 activation in human hippocampal progenitor cells from A. pSTAT2 and STAT2 intensities were normalised to GAPDH intensity before calculating the fold change pSTAT2/STAT2 relative to control. Data represent mean ± SEM from three independent experiments. Statistical analysis: Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's post hoc correction. **c**, Representative images of three

independent experiments with similar results showing the expression of ISG15 (orange) on HPCs. Scale bar = 100 μm. HPCs treated for 48 hrs with conditioned media (CM) from other HPCs treated ± TNF-α for 24 hrs followed by 24 hrs treatment with media. **d**, Quantification of the percentage of ISG15+ cells based on C. Data represent mean ± SEM. Statistical analysis: one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test. **e**, RT-qPCR data showing the relative gene expression of *IFNB1* in HPCs pre-treated with 10 μM JSH23 or DMSO, followed by three hours of treatment ± 1 ng/ml TNF-α. Data represent as mean ± SEM of three independent experiments. Statistical analysis: one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test. **f**, RT-qPCR data showing the relative gene expression of *IFNB1* in HPCs pre-treated with 10 μg/ml cycloheximide (CHX) or DMSO followed by three hours of treatment ± 1 ng/ml TNF-α. Data represent as mean ± SEM of three independent experiments. Statistical analysis: one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test. **g**, Representative images of three independent experiments with similar results showing the expression of ISG15 (orange) on HPCs. Scale bar = 100 μm. HPCs were treated for 24 hrs with 16 nM JAK inhibitor I or DMSO, ± 1 ng/ml TNF-α. **h**, Quantification of the percentage of ISG15+ cells based on G. Data represent mean ± SEM. Statistical analysis: one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test. **i**, Cell surface expression of IFN-regulated BST2 (tetherin) quantified by measuring the mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) on HPCs treated 24 hrs ± 1 ng/ml TNF-α using flow cytometry. Data represent mean ± SEM. Statistical analysis: unpaired t-test.

Supplementary Information

TNF-α-induced type I IFN signalling decreases neurogenesis and drives T cell chemotaxis

Tinne Amalie Damgaard Nissen[1,2], Arishma Baig[1], Daniel T. Rock[2], Sandra Shibu[2], Hyunah Lee[2], Lauren A. O'Neill[1], Susan John[3], Linda S. Klavinskis[1]*, Sandrine Thuret[2]*

[1]Department of Infectious Diseases, School of Immunology & Microbial Sciences, King's College London, London SE1 9RT, UK
[2]Department of Basic and Clinical Neuroscience, Institute of Psychiatry, Psychology and Neuroscience, King's College London, London SE5 9RT, UK
[3]Peter Gorer Department of Immunobiology, King's College London, London SE1 9RT, UK

*Equally contributed and co-corresponding authors. Linda.Klavinskis@kcl.ac.uk and Sandrine.1.thuret@kcl.ac.uk

Supplementary Fig. 1 | TNFR expression on human HPCs treated ± TNF-α. a, and **b** Representative images of three independent experiments with similar results showing the expression of TNFR1 (green) on HPCs treated ± TNF-α for **a** 24 h or **b** 48 h. **c** and **d** Representative images of three independent experiments with similar results showing the expression of TNFR2 (orange) on HPCs treated ± TNF-α for **c** 24 h or **d** 48 h. Scale bar = 100 μm. DAPI; 4′,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole, HPC; hippocampal progenitor cells, TNFR1; tumour necrosis factor receptor 1.

Supplementary Fig. 2 | Schematic overview of the experimental design for harvesting supernatant from HPCs and their differentiated progeny. The day following seeding, the proliferating HPCs were treated ± TNF-α (0.1 ng/ml, 1 ng/ml, or 10 ng/ml). After 24 h, the supernatant was harvested. After 48 h of treatment, the supernatant was harvested, and the media was changed to induce differentiation (removal of 4-OHT, bFGF, and EGF) ± TNF-α (0.1 ng/ml, 1 ng/ml, or 10 ng/ml). The supernatant of the differentiating cells was harvested after 24 h, 48 h, or 7 days of differentiation. 4-OHT; 4- hydroxytamoxifen, bFGF; basic fibroblast growth factor, EGF; epidermal growth factor.

Supplementary Fig. 3 | ELISA measurement of IL-6 in the supernatant of HPCs and their differentiated progeny treated with TNF-α. a, Concentrations of IL-6 in the supernatant of proliferating HPCs 24 h and 48 h after TNF-α treatment. **b,** IL-6 in the supernatant of differentiating HPCs 24 h, 48 h, and 7 days after TNF-α treatment. Data is presented as mean ± SEM of three independent experiments.

Supplementary Fig. 4 | CCL2 and CCL17 levels in the supernatant of HPCs and their differentiated progeny treated with TNF-α. a, Concentrations of CCL2 (upper panel) and CCL17 (lower panel) in the supernatant of proliferating HPCs 24 h and 48 h after TNF-α treatment. **b,** CCL2 (upper panel) and CCL17 (lower panel) in the supernatant of differentiating HPCs 24 h, 48 h, and 7 days after TNF-α treatment. Data is presented as mean ± SEM of three independent experiments. Statistical test: Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's post hoc correction, or one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni's multiple comparisons, as indicated above the graphs. Dashed lines mark the detection limit for CCL17 (1.12 pg/ml).

Supplementary Fig. 5 | CXC chemokine levels in the supernatant of HPCs and their differentiated progeny treated with TNF-α. a, Concentrations of CXCL1, CXCL5, IL-8, CXCL9, CXCL10, and CXCL11 in the supernatant of proliferating HPCs 24 h and 48 h after TNF-α treatment. **b,** CXCL1, CXCL5, IL-8, CXCL9, CXCL10, and CXCL11 levels in the supernatant of differentiating HPCs 24 h, 48 h, and 7 days after TNF-α treatment. Data is

presented as mean ± SEM of three independent experiments. Statistical test: Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's post hoc correction or one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni's multiple comparisons as indicated above the graphs. Dashed lines mark the detection limits (lower limit for CXCL1: <0.99 pg/ml, lower limit for CXCL5: <2.07 pg/ml, lower limit for CXCL8: <6.86 pg/ml, lower limit for CXCL9: <0.098 pg/ml, lower limit for CXCL10: <23.44 pg/ml, lower limit for CXCL11 <2.13 pg/ml, and upper limit for CXCL11 > 4000 pg/ml). For visualisation, data points below the detection limit were set to zero, and data points above the upper detection limit for CXCL11 were set to the limit of 4000 pg/ml.

Supplementary Fig. 6 | Chronic TNF-α dose-dependently decreases the neurite length of DCX+ and MAP2+ differentiating HPCs. Quantification of the total neurite length (µm) of **a** DCX+ cells and **b** MAP2+ cells after seven days of differentiation ± chronic treatment with 0.1, 1, or 10 ng/ml TNF-α. Data represent mean ± SEM from four independent experiments. Statistical analysis: Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's post hoc correction**.**

Supplementary Fig. 7 | Neuronal cellular components enriched in cluster 12. Dot plot showing GO cellular component enrichment based on the top 100 genes positively defining cluster 12.

Supplementary Fig. 8 | Immune-related cellular components enriched in high-dose TNF-α-specific RGL-like and IPC-like clusters. Dot plot showing GO cellular component enrichment based on the top 100 genes upregulated in cluster 6 as compared to cluster 5 (left). Dot plot showing GO cellular component enrichment based on the top 100 genes upregulated genes in cluster 10 as compared to cluster 7, 8, and 9 (right).

Supplementary Fig. 9 | Molecular machinery for type I interferon signalling. UMAP plots showing the expression of key genes required for type I interferon signalling: *IFNAR1*, *IFNAR2*, *JAK1*, *TYK2*, *STAT1*, *STAT2*, and *IRF9*.

Supplementary Fig. 10 | TNF-α does not regulate GAPDH expression. a, Uncropped Western blot images for the three independent experiments probing for GAPDH. The HPCs were treated with 1 ng/ml TNF-α for 1, 3, 6, or 12 hours. Molecular weight markers (Precision Plus Protein Kaleidoscope Prestained Protein Standards) are shown for reference. **b,** Quantification of GAPDH band intensities in **a**. Data represent mean ± SEM. Statistical analysis: Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's post hoc correction.

Supplementary Fig. 11 | Uncropped Western blots corresponding to Fig. 4a-b. a, Uncropped Western blot images from four independent experiments probing for pSTAT1 (Tyr701). **b,** Uncropped Western blot images from four independent experiments probing for total STAT1. **c,** Uncropped Western blot images from four independent experiments probing for loading control GAPDH. HPCs were treated with 1 ng/ml TNF-α for 1, 3, 6, or 12 hours. Molecular weight markers (Precision Plus Protein Kaleidoscope Prestained Protein Standards) are shown for reference. Red arrows indicate the bands of interest.

Supplementary Fig. 12 | Uncropped Western blots corresponding to Extended data Fig. 1a-b. a, Uncropped Western blot images from four independent experiments probing for pSTAT2 (Tyr690). **b,** Uncropped Western blot images from four independent experiments probing for total STAT2. **c,** Uncropped Western blot images from four independent experiments probing for loading control GAPDH. HPCs were treated with 1 ng/ml TNF-α for 1, 3, 6, or 12 hours. Molecular weight markers (Precision Plus Protein Kaleidoscope Prestained Protein Standards) are shown for reference. Red arrows indicate the band of interest.

Supplementary Fig. 13 | HPCs upregulate transcription factor *IRF1* in response to TNF-α. RT-qPCR data showing relative *IRF1* gene expression in HPCs treated ± 1 ng/ml TNF-α for 1.5, 3, or 6 hours. Data is presented as mean ± SEM from four independent experiments. Statistical analysis: one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test.

Supplementary Fig. 14 | Gating strategy for assessing cell surface expression on HPCs. Representative gating strategy for analysing cell surface protein expression on live, single HPCs. Cells were first gated based on forward scatter (FSC) and side scatter (SSC) to exclude debris and identify the main population. Singlets were selected using FSC-A versus FSC-H to

exclude doublets. Live cells were identified by negative selection using the Zombie NIR viability dye.

Supplementary Fig. 15 | Transwell chemotaxis assay using primary human T cells to study CXCR3-dependent migration. a, PBMS were isolated from leukocytes cones from three healthy donors using a Ficoll-Paque density gradient, and a cell bank was generated for each donor. **b,** Schematic overview of the T cell chemotaxis assay. **c,** Representative gating strategy to identify CD4+ and CD8+ T cells. **d,** Percentage of T cell subsets following the activation protocol. Data is presented as mean ± SEM from three healthy donors. **e,** Quantification of CXCR3 MFI (median) between CD4+ T cells and CD8+ T cells. Data is presented as mean ± SEM from three healthy donors. Statistical analysis: unpaired, two-tailed, parametric t-test.

Supplementary Fig. 16 | Recombinant CXCL10 promotes CXCR3-dependent T cell recruitment. a, CXCL10 drives T cell chemotaxis by activating CXCR3. AMG487 is a selective CXCR3 antagonist. **b**, and **c**, Quantification of the chemotactic response (chemotaxis index) of **b** CD4+ T cells and **c** CD8+ T cells treated ± 1 µM AMG487 or DMSO in response to control media or media containing 100 ng/ml recombinant hCXCL10. The chemotactic index is the ratio of the number of cells migrated in response to a stimulus, as compared with controls. Data is represented as mean ± SEM of three healthy donors. Statistical analysis: one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test.

Supplementary Fig. 17 | HPCs upregulate molecules involved in T cell crosstalk in response to TNF-α. RT-qPCR data showing relative gene expression of *ICAM1, VCAM1, CEACAM1, CD70, NECTIN2, and LGALS9* in HPCs treated ± 1 ng/ml TNF-α for 1.5, 3, or 6 hours. Data is presented as mean ± SEM of four independent experiments. Statistical analysis: one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test or Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's post hoc correction as indicated.

Supplementary Fig. 18 | Cell surface expression of ICAM1 and VCAM1 on HPCs in response to TNF-α. a, Gating strategy for assessing cell surface protein expression on live, single HPCs. Cells were first gated by forward scatter (FSC) and side scatter (SSC) to exclude debris and identify the main population. Singlets were selected using FSC-A versus FSC-H, and live cells were identified by negative selection using the Zombie NIR viability dye. Representative histograms show ICAM1 and VCAM1 on the control-treated (blue) and TNF-α-treated (pink) HPCs. **b**, Quantification of ICAM1 and VCAM1 surface expression by mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) on HPCs treated ± 1 ng/ml TNF-α for 24 h, measured by flow cytometry. Data is presented as mean ± SEM. Statistical analysis: two-tailed, unpaired t test.

Supplementary Fig. 19 | Blocking IFNAR decreases the upregulation of ISG15+ differentiating HPCs in response to chronic TNF-α. a, Representative images showing the expression of ISG15 (orange) in HPCs differentiated for seven days treated chronically with ± 1 ng/ml TNF-α ± 10 µg/ml anifrolumab. Scale bar, 100 µm. **b,** Quantification of the percentage of ISG15+ cells based on panel **a**. Data represent mean ± SEM from four independent experiments. Statistical analysis: one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test.

Antibody	Manufacturer	Catalogue number	Dilution
Mouse Nestin	Chemicon	Mab5326	1:1000
Mouse MAP2	Abcam	Ab11267	1:500
Rabbit DCX	Abcam	Ab18723	1:500
Mouse STAT1	Cell Signalling Technology	9176	1:1000
Rabbit ISG15	Proteintech	15981-1-AP	1:500
Mouse NF-κB p65	Santa Cruz	Sc-8008	1:500

| Donkey anti-rabbit Alexa fluor 555 | Invitrogen | A-31571 | 1:500 |
| Donkey anti-rabbit Alexa fluor 488 | Invitrogen | A-21202 | 1:500 |

Supplementary Table 1 | Primary and secondary antibodies used for immunocytochemistry

Step	Temperature (°C)	Time (minutes)
1	25	10
2	37	120
3	85	5
4	4	∞

Supplementary Table 2 | Thermal cycler program employed for cDNA synthesis

Step	Temperature (°C)	Time
1	50	2 minutes
2	95	10 minutes
3 (40 cycles)	95	15 seconds
4 (40 cycles)	60	1 minute
5	95	15 seconds

Supplementary Table 3 | Thermal cycling conditions employed for RT-qPCR

Gene	Sequence
CD70	Forward: 5'-TTCGCACAGGCTCAGCAGCAG-3' Reverse: 5'-TTGTCCAGCTCTGGTCCATGCA-3'
CEACAM1	Forward: 5'-CACGCCAATAACTCAGTCACTGG-3' Reverse: 5'-TTGTGGAGCAGGTCAGGTTCAC-3'
CXCL10	Forward: 5'-GGTGAGAAGAGATGTCTGAATCC-3' Reverse: 5'-GTCCATCCTTGGAAGCACTGCA-3'
GAPDH	Forward: 5'-GTCTCCTCTGACTTCAACAGCG-3' Reverse: 5'-ACCACCCTGTTGCTGTAGCCAA-3'
ICAM1	Forward: 5'-AGCGGCTGACGTGTGCAGTAAT-3' Reverse: 5'-TCTGAGACCTCTGGCTTCGTCA-3'
IFNB1	Forward: 5'-CTTGGATTCCTACAAAGAAGCAGC-3' Reverse: 5'-TCCTCCTTCTGGAACTGCTGCA-3'
IRF1	Forward: 5'-GAGGAGGTGAAAGACCAGAGCA-3' Reverse: 5'-TAGCATCTCGGCTGGACTTCGA-3'
LGALS9	Forward: 5'-ACACCCAGATCGACAACTCCTG-3' Reverse: 5'-CAAACAGGTGCTGACCATCCAC-3'
NECTIN2	Forward: 5'-GAGCAGATGGTGTCACGGTCAC-3' Reverse: 5'-GAGATGGACACTTCAGGAGGGT-3'
VCAM1	Forward: 5'-GATTCTGTGCCCACAGTAAGGC-3' Reverse: 5'-TGGTCACAGAGCCACCTTCTTG-3'

Supplementary Table 4 | Primers used for RT-qPCR

Target	Company	Catalogue number	Species	Dilution
p-STAT1	Cell Signalling Technology	91715	Rabbit	1:1000
p-STAT2	Cell Signalling Technology	88410	Rabbit	1:1000
GAPDH	Proteintech	60004-1-1g	Mouse	1:10000
STAT1	Cell Signalling Technology	9176	Mouse	1:1000
STAT2	Cell Signalling Technology	71604	Rabbit	1:1000
Anti-rabbit	GE	NA9340V	Donkey	1:3000
Anti-mouse	Santa Cruz Biotechnology	D1321	Goat	1:9000

Supplementary Table 5 | Antibodies used for western blot experiments

Chemokine	Full name	Alias
CCL2	Chemokine (CC motif) ligand 2	MCP-1
CCL3	Chemokine (CC motif) ligand 3	MIP-1α
CCL4	Chemokine (CC motif) ligand 4	MIP-1β
CXCL1	Chemokine (CXC motif) ligand 1	GROα
CXCL5	Chemokine (CXC motif) ligand 5	ENA-78
CXCL8	Chemokine (CXC motif) ligand 8	IL-8
CXCL9	Chemokine (CXC motif) ligand 9	MIG
CXCL10	Chemokine (CXC motif) ligand 10	IP-10
CXCL11	Chemokine (CXC motif) ligand 11	I-TAC
CCL11	Chemokine (CC motif) ligand 11	Eotaxin
CCL17	Chemokine (CC motif) ligand 17	TARC
CCL20	Chemokine (CC motif) ligand 20	MIP-3α

Supplementary Table 6 | Chemokines included in the human pro-inflammatory chemokine panel

Protein	Fluorophore	Company	Catalogue number	Dilution
ICAM1	BV421	Biolegend	353132	1:100
VCAM1	FITC	R&D	BBA22	1:100
Tetherin (BST2)	APC	Biolegend	348410	1:100

Supplementary Table 7 | Antibodies used to analyse cell surface protein expression on HPCs

Protein	Fluorophore	Company	Catalogue number	Dilution
CXCR3	PE	Biolegend	353706	1:100
CD3	BV421	Biolegend	317344	1:100
CD4	PerCP/Cyanine5.5	Biolegend	317428	1:100
CD8	FITC	Biolegend	980908	1:100

Supplementary Table 8 | Antibodies used to analyse cell surface protein expression on immune cells