Tissue-embedded CD4+ plasticity defines mucosal immunity in Inflammatory Bowel Disease

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Highlights:

1. IBD inflammation shapes CD4$^+$ T-cell plasticity and tissue-residency programming.

2. Correlated CD4$^+$ and cytotoxic CD8$^+$ T cells co-localize in inflamed mucosa.

3. Mucosal CD4$^+$ memory T cells show hypo-responsiveness in active IBD.

4. HLA-DR$^+$CD38$^+$ memory CD4$^+$ T cells amplify inflammation via cytokine output.

Abstract

CD4$^+$ T helper (Th) cell responses to commensal microbiota are linked to Inflammatory Bowel Disease (IBD), yet how Th programs coexist and evolve in human tissues remains poorly defined. Here, we profiled CD4$^+$ memory T cells in intestinal biopsies using immunological and histological approaches to map their phenotypes, functional states, and spatial relationships across disease states. A marked expansion of CD4$^+$ T cells concomitant with a RORγt$^+$ Th population with elevated T-bet expression was linked to progression of inflammation. Moreover, Foxp3$^+$ cells co-expressing RORγt emerged within the inflamed niche, indicating regulatory–Th17 plasticity. Trajectory visualization revealed a potential branched differentiation path towards either regulatory or tissue-resident Th17-like fates, with both termini expressing activation and proliferation markers. Correlation network analysis connected pro-inflammatory CD4$^+$ states to T-bet$^+$Granzyme-B$^+$ CD8$^+$ subsets, indicative of crosstalk between helper and cytotoxic lineages. Histology corroborated this organization, showing frequent interactions between CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$ cells in the lamina propria and epithelial border. In functional assays, TCR stimulation during active disease revealed broad suppression of CD4$^+$ pro-inflammatory cytokines concomitant with expansion of Foxp3$^+$ cells. Conversely, HLA-DR$^+$CD38$^+$ memory subset retained multifunctionality, producing elevated levels of pro-inflammatory cytokines. Together, these results provide insight into a dynamic, tissue-embedded CD4 landscape in IBD.

Keywords

IBD; T helper cells; Plasticity; Tissue-resident cells; Mucosal immunology

1 Introduction

Disrupted immune responses to the gut microbiota in genetically susceptible individuals,
potentially triggered by largely unknown environmental factors, contribute to the
pathogenesis of Inflammatory Bowel Diseases (IBD)[1]. IBD typically follows a chronic, relapsing-
remitting course, and comprises two main subtypes: Crohn's disease (CD) and ulcerative colitis
(UC). UC affects the colon and is characterized by continuous mucosal lesions, whereas CD can
involve any segment of the gastrointestinal tract and frequently displays transmural
inflammation. Current therapeutic goals are to induce and maintain clinical, biochemical, and
durable endoscopic remission to minimize bowel damage and improve long-term outcomes[2].
Neither CD nor UC has a single phenotype; both are heterogeneous with respect to clinical
presentation, treatment responses, and immune profiles[3]. Management of disease remains
largely reactive, with treatment adjustments commonly driven by worsening of clinical
parameters. Molecular and cellular characterization that accounts for inter-individual
variability in tissue pathology could better guide clinical management and advance
personalized therapy in IBD[4]. Dysregulation of CD4^{+} T cell subsets is widely implicated in
chronic intestinal inflammation. In IBD, an imbalance between inflammation-promoting and
immunoregulatory populations sustains mucosal damage and persistent immune activation,
ultimately contributing to the development of chronic disease[5]. Upon antigen recognition,
naïve CD4^{+} T cells can differentiate into distinct effector subsets, including pro-inflammatory
Th1, Th2, and Th17, as well as a regulatory T (Treg) subset[6, 7]. In the intestine, regional tissue-
resident memory CD4^{+} T cells (T_{RM}) provide long-term local immunity to microbial antigens,
and can be rapidly reactivated, undergo transient proliferation, and reacquire distinct T-helper
phenotypes[8]. Recent studies have highlighted that polarized T-helper cells can adopt
alternative phenotypes and functionalities during disease progression, accompanied by
changes in signature transcription factors and lineage-defining cytokine profiles[9, 10]. While
bidirectional Treg–Th17 plasticity has been described in IBD[10, 11], the mechanisms governing
this switching in human intestinal tissues across disease states remain poorly defined.

Although CD4^{+} T cells are major contributors to chronic intestinal inflammation, the intestinal

immune landscape includes diverse cell types that interact with CD4^{+} T cells across the lamina

propria and intraepithelial compartments to shape adaptive responses in IBD. Among these,

CD8^{+} T cells, located in proximity to CD4^{+} T cells, are thought to be implicated in epithelial

injury in IBD[12, 13]. We previously identified an inflammation-associated immune network

enriched for activated HLA-DR^{+}CD38^{+} effector memory CD4^{+} T cells in treatment-naïve IBD

patients[14]. However, the phenotype, function, and trajectory of this population, particularly

during disease remission, remain poorly defined.

To address these gaps, we performed immunological functional assays with spectral flow

cytometry on freshly obtained intestinal biopsies and paired peripheral blood from patients

with active IBD or in clinical remission, as well as non-IBD noninflamed controls. Here, we

show that IBD harbors a dynamic, tissue-embedded CD4^{+} landscape with inflammatory

expansion that recedes in remission, regulatory-Th17 plasticity (Foxp3–RORγt), and branched

trajectories toward regulatory and tissue-resident fates. We also show coordinated CD4–CD8

networks and a multifunctional HLA-DR^{+}CD38^{+} memory subset that persists despite global

cytokine suppression, pointing to the development of rational therapeutic strategies to

rebalance resident/regulatory programs while preserving protective memory.

Results

CD4^{+} T cells are enriched in the inflamed mucosa

To comprehensively assess intestinal and circulating T cells, together with other conventional

and non-conventional lymphoid subsets, we applied a validated 37-plex full spectral flow

cytometric panel[5] to single-cell suspensions of endoscopic intestinal samples (n=68) and

peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) (n=32) from 27 IBD patients (CD, n=17; UC, n=10)

and 5 controls (clinical metadata listed in **Supplementary Table 1**), yielding a dataset on 3.5

million live CD45^{+} cells (**Supplementary Fig. 1A**). Based on marker expression profiles, we

delineated the intestinal T cell compartment and identified 7 major subsets: CD4^{+} T cells,

conventional CD8αβ^{+} T cells, CD8αα^{+} T cells, CD8αβ^{+} NKT cells, double-negative (DN) T cells

(CD8α^{−}CD8β^{−}CD4^{−}), mucosal-associated invariant T (MAIT) cells, and γδ T cells (**Fig. 1A**). Next,

samples were stratified by disease status (control, noninflamed, inflamed and remission),

disease subgroup (control, CD, UC), and intestinal location of the analyzed samples (colon and

ileum) (**Fig. 1B**). Cell-frequency analysis revealed pronounced heterogeneity in immune

composition, with CD4$^+$ T cell subsets predominating in the inflamed mucosa (**Fig. 1B**). Density

plots of an opt-SNE analysis highlight differential presence of the CD4$^+$ T cell subsets

depending on disease status (**Fig. 1C and Supplementary Fig. 1B**). Consistently, the frequency

of CD4$^+$ T cells was significantly increased during inflammation and decreased in remission

across disease types (CD, UC) and sites (colon, ileum) (**Fig. 1D**). In contrast, frequencies of

other major lineages declined (conventional CD8αβ$^+$ T, NKT and γδ T cells) or remained

unchanged (CD8αα$^+$ T, DN and MAIT cells) (**Supplementary Fig. 1C**) in the inflamed mucosa.

Inflammation shapes the CD4$^+$ memory T cell landscape

Next, we performed a t-SNE analysis of intestinal memory T cells (T$_M$), including the

CD45RA$^+$CCR7$^-$, CD45RA$^-$CCR7$^-$, and CD45RA$^-$CCR7$^+$ subsets gated within the CD4$^+$ population.

Based on the marker expression profiles, hierarchical clustering of the collective 65,732 cells

yielded 46 distinct T$_M$-helper clusters (**Fig. 2A–B and Supplementary Fig. 2A**). The associated

density plots display diverse distribution patterns related to disease state (**Fig. 2B**). Pearson's

rank correlation analysis identified four main cellular networks (**Supplementary Fig. 2B**), of

which two (**Fig. 2C**) correspond to the high-density regions of the noninflamed (bottom

clusters) and inflamed (top right clusters) groups shown in Fig. 2B, respectively. By analyzing

the frequencies of those clusters, we observed that CD4-15, CD4-12 and CD4-48 were

underrepresented during the active phase of disease (**Fig. 2D**), while CD4-13, CD4-5, CD4-7,

CD4-18, CD4-21 and CD4-4 were notably increased in the inflamed group and decreased

following the resolution of inflammation (**Fig. 2E**). The remaining clusters showed no

significant quantitative changes.

To refine the phenotypic features of subsets involved in IBD inflammation, we overlaid marker

expression across clusters (**Fig. 2F and Supplementary Fig. 2C**). Most CD4$^+$ T$_M$ clusters

displayed CD45RA$^-$CCR7$^-$ effector-memory features, whereas a minority within CD4-18 and

CD4-21 co-expressed low levels of CCR7, consistent with a central memory phenotype

(**Supplementary Fig. 2C**). Compared to naïve T cells, all these CD4$^+$ T$_M$ subsets exhibited

abundant expression of CD69, with cluster CD4-7 co-expressing CD103, indicating tissue-

residency. Strikingly, the six inflammation-linked clusters (CD4-13, CD4-5, CD4-7, CD4-18, CD4-

21, and CD4-4) co-expressed HLA-DR, CD38, and CD39 to varying degrees, consistent with

activation. In addition, the expression of Ki-67 in CD4-5, CD4-7 and CD4-18 suggested

proliferative potential. Distinct expression patterns of the transcription factors (T-bet, RORγt,

Foxp3 and Helios) were observed among the CD4$^+$ T$_M$ clusters. For example, CD4-5 and CD4-7

co-expressed RORγt and T-bet, consistent with Th1/Th17-like states, but were otherwise

phenotypically similar, differing primarily by CD103 expression restricted to CD4-7. Moreover,

inflammation-associated CD4-18, CD4-21 and CD4-4 expressed Foxp3, with variable RORγt

and Helios, indicating Treg identity and plasticity. Furthermore, we performed PCA on

frequencies of 46 CD4$^+$ T$_M$ cell clusters (**Supplementary Fig. 2D**). Noninflamed samples

(control, noninflamed IBD and remission) were clustered together and separately from

inflamed samples. CD and UC samples were separated from the controls, with clear colon-

ileum stratification. Overall, the inflammatory status and tissue location were the dominant

source of variation.

Collectively, these findings suggest a disease-state–dependent, tissue-resident CD4$^+$ memory

landscape, with heterogeneous Th1/Th17 and Foxp3$^+$ networks, whose frequencies stratify

colon *versus* ileum and IBD *versus* control, increase with inflammation, and recede in

remission.

Trajectory analysis reveals bifurcating inflammatory paths of CD4$^+$ memory T cell

differentiation

Given the observed plasticity within CD4$^+$ T-helper subsets, we next examined how these

states evolve during inflammation. We used the dynamic t-SNE visualization in Cytosplore with

naïve CD4$^+$ T cells as a reference (**Fig. 3A and Supplementary Fig. 3A**)[15, 16]. Cells were initially

unordered at onset of the t-SNE computation, but by stage 2 naïve cells segregated from the

remaining memory cells. By stages 3–4 an interconnected network emerged with two

branches bridged by cluster 13 (**Fig. 3A**). Disease-status overlays showed that the left branch

comprised noninflamed clusters (CD4-12, CD4-15, CD4-48), whereas the right branch

contained inflammation-linked clusters (CD4-5, CD4-7, CD4-4, CD4-18, CD4-21) (**Fig. 3B**).

Marker expression profiles showed CD127 enrichment along the noninflamed branch and

uniform CD39 positivity across inflamed clusters, with concurrent increases in CD38, HLA-DR

and Ki-67 on the inflamed branch (**Fig. 3C**), consistent with activation and proliferation.

To quantify marker dynamics along putative differentiation pathways, we applied Wishbone

rooted at the intermediate cluster 13. This analysis revealed a clear bifurcation driven by

divergent expression of RORγt/CD103 *versus* Foxp3/CTLA-4/CD25/Helios (**Fig. 3D–E**),

delineating inflammatory trajectories toward a tissue-resident Th17-like fate (Branch I) and a

regulatory fate (Branch II), respectively. Activation markers (HLA-DR, CD38, CD39, Ki-67) rose

along the inflamed branch, supporting a model of inflammation-associated maturation from

a shared intermediate. Additional overlays further corroborated branch identity (**Fig. 3C–E**):

CD161 and CCR6, canonical Th17 features, were concentrated along the inflamed, tissue-

resident branch (Branch I), whereas CCR4 and CD27, characteristic of Treg/less-differentiated

memory, were biased toward the inflamed, regulatory branch (Branch II). CXCR3 aligned with

T-bet–associated segments within Branch I, CD69 was broadly elevated across both branches,

and a small CD56$^+$ subset localized in the noninflamed branch, suggesting NK-like attributes.

Taken together, these analyses reveal a bifurcation from a shared intermediate into two

inflammatory trajectories, one toward a tissue-resident Th17-like effector state and the other

toward a regulatory fate, signifying inflammation-driven diversification of CD4$^+$ T-helper

memory programs.

Coordination of CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$ T-cell programs at the mucosal interface in IBD

To interrogate potential CD4–CD8 crosstalk in the intestine, we next characterized the CD8$^+$ T-

cell compartment. Unsupervised dimensionality reduction identified 20 phenotypically

distinct CD8$^+$ clusters (**Supplementary Fig. 4A**). We then integrated these CD8$^+$ clusters with

the CD4$^+$ memory clusters and performed a Pearson correlation network analysis, resolving

five multi-lineage cellular networks (**Fig. 4A**), characterized by strong within-network positive

correlations and between-network anticorrelations. Network 3 contained the five

inflammation-associated CD4$^+$ clusters (CD4-4, CD4-5, CD4-7, CD4-18, CD4-21) together with

five CD8$^+$ clusters (CD8-2, CD8-3, CD8-8, CD8-9, CD8-10). Four of the five CD8$^+$ clusters

displayed a CCR7$^-$CD45RO$^+$CD45RA$^-$ effector-memory phenotype, whereas CD8-3 was

CCR7$^-$CD45RO$^-$CD45RA$^+$, consistent with a terminally differentiated (T$_{EMRA}$-like) state (**Fig. 4B**

and Supplementary Fig. 4B). CD8-3, CD8-8, and CD8-9 showed a conventional CD8αβ

phenotype; clusters 8 and 9 expressed Granzyme-B, indicating cytolytic potential, and CD8-9

additionally expressed CD103, consistent with tissue residency. In contrast, CD8-2 and CD8-10

lacked CD8β and co-expressed CD4 with CD8α, alongside RORγt and T-bet (**Fig. 4C and**

Supplementary Fig. 4B). Notably, all five CD8$^+$ clusters were significantly increased, or trended

upward, in inflamed samples in parallel with their correlated CD4$^+$ memory clusters (**Fig. 4D**).

Conversely, four CD8$^+$ clusters were reduced in inflammation (**Supplementary Fig. 4C**),

indicating contraction of noninflamed/homeostatic states outside Network 3.

To define the spatial organization of resident CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$ T cells in the inflammatory

microenvironment, we performed six-color multispectral immunofluorescence on inflamed

colonic tissue from patients with CD (n=2) and UC (n=3), as well as on noninflamed colonic

tissue from healthy donors (n=2), displaying four representative regions of interest (ROIs) per

group. We simultaneously detected E-cadherin, CD3, CD4, CD8, CD103, and DAPI (**Fig. 4E**).

Compared with controls, IBD samples showed increased T-cell infiltration within the lamina

propria and along the epithelial interface, with frequent juxtaposition of CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$ cells

(white arrows). CD103$^+$ intraepithelial cells were predominantly CD8$^+$ (yellow arrows),

whereas CD103$^+$CD4$^+$ cells localized near the epithelial border or within the lamina propria

(magenta arrows), consistent with coordinated resident programs at the mucosal interface.

Notably, this spatial pattern accords with the trajectory analysis (**Fig. 3**), which revealed

progressive CD103 induction along the inflammatory CD4$^+$ branch, linking phenotypic

residency programming to tissue positioning.

Inflammation dampens TCR-mediated activation of CD4$^+$ memory T cells

To assess CD4$^+$ T cell function, we stimulated single-cell suspensions from intestinal biopsies

with α-CD3/α-CD28 for 6 hours and profiled CD40L together with cytokines characteristic of

Th1 (IL-2, TNFα, IFNγ), Th2 (IL-13, IL-4), Th17 (IL-17A, IL-21, IL-22), and Treg (IL-10) by spectral

flow cytometry (**Supplementary Fig. 5A**). Data from noninflamed samples (controls, 170 noninflamed IBD, remission) were pooled and compared with inflamed samples. Two 171 experimental batches showed concordant trends and are presented separately in 172 Supplementary Fig. 5B–C, and the combined cohort is shown in Figure 5.

CD40L was robustly induced by stimulation in all groups but rose less in inflamed tissue, 174 indicating attenuated activation (**Fig. 5A**). HLA-DR$^+$CD38$^+$CD4$^+$ T$_M$ cells were higher at baseline 175 in inflamed mucosa and remained at similar frequencies after stimulation (**Fig. 5B**). Although 176 CXCL13$^+$CD4$^+$ T$_M$ cells, indicative of a T follicular helper-like subset, were also increased at 177 baseline in inflamed tissue, their frequencies were instead reduced after stimulation 178 compared with noninflamed samples (**Fig. 5C**).

179 We next quantified cytokine production within the memory compartment (**Fig. 5D–E and** 180 **Supplementary Fig. 5C**). After 6 hours, Th1 cytokines (IL-2, TNFα, IFNγ) predominated, Th17 181 cytokines (IL-17A, IL-21, IL-22) were lower in abundance, and Th2/Treg cytokines (IL-13, IL-4, 182 IL-10) were largely rare. Moreover, TNFα was significantly decreased in the inflamed group, 183 with IL-2 and IFNγ showing only mild reductions (**Fig. 5D**); these differences persisted when 184 gating on activated CD40L$^+$ cells (**Fig. 5E**). IL-17A and IL-21 were largely unchanged, while IL-185 22 trended lower (**Supplementary Fig. 5C**). IL-13/IL-4 showed a small but statistically 186 significant difference with low absolute frequencies, and IL-10 showed no clear change (**Fig.** 187 **5D**). In the CD8$^+$ memory compartment, CD40L expression did not change after stimulation, 188 but IL-2 production was significantly reduced in inflamed versus noninflamed tissue, whereas 189 TNFα, IFNγ and IL-17A were comparable (**Supplementary Fig. 6A-B**).

190 To investigate mechanisms of reduced cytokine production, we related Foxp3$^-$ effector output 191 to Foxp3$^+$ Treg abundance. Significant negative correlations with Foxp3$^+$ frequency were 192 observed for IFNγ and IL-17A, with a trend for TNFα (**Fig. 5F**). Th2 cytokines and IL-10 were 193 not significantly correlated. In addition, a multifunctional subset co-producing IL-2, TNFα and 194 IFNγ was likewise diminished in inflamed tissue upon stimulation and inversely associated 195 with Foxp3$^+$ frequency (**Fig. 5G–H**).

Applying the same stimulation to paired blood samples revealed comparable CD40L induction

and cytokine production between inflamed and noninflamed groups (**Supplementary Fig. 6C-**
E), suggesting that the hypo-responsiveness is localized to the tissue.

Collectively, despite intact proximal activation through TCR engagement, CD4$^+$ T$_M$ cells from
inflamed mucosa display selectively blunted Th1 effector function and reduced
multifunctionality, features that are tissue-localized and in part linked to increased regulatory
burden.

HLA-DR$^+$CD38$^+$ memory CD4$^+$ T cells in IBD are tissue-resident, proliferative, and
multifunctional

We previously noted an expansion of activated HLA-DR$^+$CD38$^+$ effector-memory CD4$^+$ T cells
in treatment-naïve IBD[14]. Here, including both active disease and remission, we confirmed
that HLA-DR and CD38 were upregulated across central memory (T$_{CM}$), effector memory (T$_{EM}$)
and terminally differentiated effector memory (T$_{EMRA}$) subsets (**Fig. 6A**), and that the HLA-
DR$^+$CD38$^+$ fraction was increased in inflamed tissue and reduced in remission (**Fig. 6B**).

Analysis of the transcription factor composition demonstrates that within HLA-DR$^+$CD38$^+$
memory cells, a large subset (~25%) was negative for the lineage factors T-bet, RORγt and
Foxp3, with single-positive Foxp3$^+$ cells comprising a minority (~10%) (**Fig. 6C**). Nonetheless,
RORγt expression was clearly enriched (~23%) and included a subset co-expressing T-bet
(~20%). Cells co-expressing Foxp3 and Helios, markers linked to Treg stability, were present at
lower but increased levels in HLA-DR$^+$CD38$^+$ cells compared with HLA-DR$^-$CD38$^-$ cells
(**Supplementary Fig. 7A–C**), indicating a small embedded regulatory-like subset.

Next, we compared the phenotypic profiles among HLA-DR/CD38-defined memory subsets
within inflamed tissue. Compared with HLA-DR$^-$CD38$^-$ memory cells, the HLA-DR$^+$CD38$^+$
population showed higher CD25 and lower CD127 (**Fig. 6D**), indicating enhanced IL-2 receptor
signaling and recent activation. They also upregulated CTLA-4 and CD39 (**Fig. 6E**), consistent
with engagement of regulatory pathways and ectonucleotidase activity that can generate
immunomodulatory adenosine. The same cells expressed increased CD103 and CD69 (**Fig. 6F**),
markers of tissue residency and epithelial retention, and exhibited elevated Ki-67 (**Fig. 6G**),
indicating ongoing proliferation. T-bet and RORγt were enriched in the HLA-DR$^+$CD38$^+$ subset

(**Fig. 6H**), supporting polarization toward Th1/Th17 programs. Cells single-positive for HLA-DR

or CD38 generally displayed intermediate levels across these features (**Fig. 6D–H**), placing

them between quiescent double-negative and fully activated double-positive states.

Finally, we assessed cytokine production by HLA-DR$^+$CD38$^+$ CD4$^+$ T$_M$ cells. Upon stimulation

with α-CD3/α-CD28, this subset produced more IFNγ, IL-21, IL-22, IL-10 than in HLA-DR$^-$CD38$^-$

counterparts (**Fig. 6I**). In contrast, IL-2, TNFα, IL-17A and Th2 cytokines (IL-13/IL-4) were

comparable between groups (**Fig. 6I**), pointing to selective multifunctionality. t-SNE

visualization of cytokine expression within the HLA-DR$^+$CD38$^+$ compartment (**Supplementary**

Fig. 7) showed that activated Th1, Th17, Tfh/Th22-like cells largely occupied distinct regions

with only limited overlap; within this landscape, polyfunctional IFNγ$^+$IL-2$^+$TNFα$^+$ Th1-type cells

predominated, while IL-17A was mainly produced by separate cells, with only a small subset

co-expressing IL-17A together with these Th1 cytokines. Taken together with their activation,

residency, and proliferative features, these data position HLA-DR$^+$CD38$^+$ CD4$^+$ T$_M$ cells as

tissue-embedded effectors that can both amplify inflammation and modulate it through

targeted cytokine programs.

Discussion

Our findings show that inflammation in IBD reshapes the intestinal T cell landscape, marked

by an expansion of activated CD4$^+$ memory T cells and contraction of other T cell subsets.

These CD4$^+$ memory T cells displayed a tissue-resident, proliferative phenotype and correlated

with specific cytotoxic CD8$^+$ T cell subsets, suggesting coordinated mucosal immune responses.

Their numbers declined in remission, underscoring inflammation-dependent expansion. We

found these cells to be functionally hyporesponsive upon TCR stimulation, producing reduced

TNFα and IFNγ and displaying limited polyfunctionality. This functional restraint was inversely

correlated with local Foxp3$^+$ Treg abundance. However, a specific CD4$^+$ memory T cell subset

expressing HLA-DR and CD38 maintained polyfunctionality in inflamed IBD. In essence, active

IBD lesions are characterized by the coexistence of a broadly hyporesponsive CD4$^+$ memory

pool and a smaller HLA-DR$^+$CD38$^+$ subset that remains highly multifunctional, suggesting

differential regulation within the wider CD4$^+$ compartment under chronic inflammatory

conditions.

Our high-dimensional approach also captured several 'unconventional' T-cell subsets (γδ T

cells, MAIT cells and NKT-like cells)[17, 18]. We noted that γδ T cells, which normally reside

abundantly in intestinal epithelium, were markedly decreased in the inflamed mucosa in our

IBD cohort. This aligns with reports that mucosal γδ T cells are perturbed in IBD, although

findings have varied[19]. Similarly, invariant NKT cells (CD1d-restricted T cells) were diminished

in our inflamed samples. Consistently, clinical studies have reported that type 1 NKT cells are

reduced in the blood and intestine of CD and UC patients, whereas type 2 NKT cells can

accumulate in UC lamina propria, potentially contributing to typical Th2 responses[20]. MAIT

cells typically accumulate in the gut and help regulate responses to microbiota[21-23]; however,

we did not observe significant changes in their frequency in our dataset, in contrast to

previous studies. Nonetheless, our observations reinforce the idea that intestinal

inflammation can differentially affect innate-like T-cell populations.

A central finding of our study is the plasticity of CD4$^+$ T-helper cells under inflammatory

conditions. We identified RORγt$^+$ Th17-lineage subsets with divergence into Th1-like (T-

bet$^+$IFNγ$^+$) or Treg-like (Foxp3$^+$CTLA-4$^+$) fates, indicating context-dependent bifurcation within

the IBD mucosa. In our cohort, mixed Th1/Th17 subsets (clusters CD4-13, CD4-5, and CD4-7)

were selectively expanded in patients with active disease and returned toward baseline

frequencies in patients in remission, directly linking these plastic states to clinical

inflammation. This supports the concept that Th17 cells are highly flexible, adopting pro- or

anti-inflammatory phenotypes depending on the local cytokine milieu[24, 25]. In line with this,

HLA-DR$^+$CD38$^+$ EM CD4$^+$ T cells, previously also identified as a central disease-associated

population in treatment-naïve IBD[14] and as activated Th1/Th17 cells in CD-associated perianal

fistulas[26], likely represent a clinically relevant manifestation of this plastic Th17/Th1

continuum. Some studies have shown that IL-23 promotes the emergence of pathogenic Th17

cells that gain IFNγ-producing, Th1-like features, including IL-17A$^+$IFNγ$^+$ and ex-Th17 effectors,

particularly in T cell–transfer colitis models[27-29]. Blocking IL-23 in these models attenuates

these pathogenic populations and ameliorates colitis, and, in patients, antibodies targeting IL-

12/23p40 or IL-23p19 induce and maintain remission in both CD and UC[30-33]. Moreover,

Heredia *et al.* demonstrated that IL-12 can drive gut-homing TIGIT⁻CD38⁺ memory T cells

towards an ex-Th17/Th1-like pathogenic phenotype in a subset of pediatric CD with a severe

disease course[34]. In contrast, IL-17 neutralization failed to show efficacy in IBD and in some

trials was associated with worsening disease and paradoxical intestinal inflammation, likely

due to its role in mucosal integrity. These findings underscore the need to recalibrate, not

eliminate, Th17 responses.

Our trajectory analysis further supports a model in which Th17-like cells can shift toward

Foxp3⁺ regulatory phenotypes in response to inflammation. We observed RORγt⁺Foxp3⁺

double-positive cells enriched in inflamed tissue, potentially representing Th17-derived Tregs.

Expression of Foxp3 in RORγt⁺ cells may in part reflect activation rather than bona fide

regulatory function; however, these cells also upregulated CD39 and CTLA-4, consistent with

a Treg-like program potentially adapted to suppress Th17-skewed responses. Previous studies

similarly suggest that Tregs are also plastic and can transiently adopt lineage-defining

transcription factors to better control specific effector responses[35-37]. Interestingly, we noticed

these cells simultaneously expressing CD161, though it is typically linked to a RORγt-driven

transcriptional program and denotes a pro-inflammatory fate. This observation is consistent

with previous findings that reported existence of CD161⁺ regulatory T cells with preserved

suppressive capacity[38]. Conversely, Foxp3⁺ Tregs may become unstable under inflammatory

pressure[39], losing Foxp3 and acquiring effector functions. In support of this, single-cell

profiling of ileal CD4⁺ T cells in CD identified proinflammatory FOXP3⁺ Treg subsets with TNFα-

driven gene programs, impaired suppressive function, and enhanced cytokine production[40].

Thus, bidirectional plasticity between Th17 and Treg lineages may dynamically tune

inflammation and resolution. Therapeutically, this suggests restoring the Th17/Treg balance

as an attractive target. Low-dose IL-2, which preferentially expands Tregs, has shown safety

and partial efficacy in UC[41], though Treg instability remains a concern. Combining Treg-

expanding strategies with cytokine blockade (e.g., IL-6/STAT3 inhibition) or next-generation

antigen-specific or CAR-engineered Tregs may improve durability[39, 42, 43].

Our data also highlight that clusters on the Th17-like inflammatory trajectory upregulated

CD69 and CD103, indicating a transition to tissue-resident memory T cells. Tissue-resident T

cells reside in the gut mucosa for decades[44], where they can react swiftly to local stimuli[45]. In

line with this, CD4$^+$ T$_{RM}$ have been shown to be expanded and to constitute a major TNFα-

producing population in active CD[46], supporting their pathogenic potential. Recent work in CD

identified pathogenic CD103$^+$CD161$^+$CCR5$^+$ CD4$^+$ T cells with innate-like IFNγ responses and

epithelial localization[47]. These cells exhibited innate-like effector functions, produced large

amounts of IFNγ upon stimulation, and clustered near the epithelium. We similarly observed

inflammation-linked CD4$^+$ tissue-resident memory cells (exemplified by cluster 7), which likely

represent the long-lived pathogenic effectors that embed in the gut tissue and could drive

disease recurrence or persistence. The presence of such inflammation-prone resident

memory T cells might explain why some patients relapse quickly after treatment withdrawal.

Correlation network analysis of our data demonstrated that the inflammation-associated

CD4$^+$ clusters were tightly linked to certain CD8$^+$ T-cell clusters (forming a multi-lineage

network). These CD8 subsets, which expanded in active disease, included CD8αβ$^+$ cytotoxic

tissue-resident T cells and unconventional CD4$^+$CD8α$^+$CD8β$^-$ tissue-resident T cells, previously

described by Lockhart et al[48], co-expressing T-bet and RORγt in our data. Moreover, our

findings are consistent with reports that ileal CD8$^+$ tissue-resident memory T cells acquire

context-dependent inflammatory programs in IBD[49]. Jaeger *et al.* further reported a spatial

redistribution of CD8$^+$ T cells in CD, with a loss of CD8$^+$ IELs and a concomitant increase in

CD103$^+$ resident cells within inflamed tissue, suggesting that the depletion of CD8$^+$ IELs may

weaken epithelial barrier defense, while their accumulation in the lamina propria, together

with CD4$^+$ T cells, could amplify inflammation[50]. Spatially, multiplex immunofluorescence

revealed dense aggregates of CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$ T cells intermingled in inflamed IBD tissues. CD8$^+$

T cells (especially CD8αβ$^+$CD103$^+$ IELs) were observed within or just below the epithelium,

often adjacent to CD4$^+$ cells, pointing to possible crosstalk. This coordinated localization

suggests a scenario where CD4$^+$ T cells and CD8$^+$ cytotoxic T cells jointly contribute to

epithelial injury in IBD.

Our study has limitations that open avenues for further research. Our data are cross-sectional;

longitudinal sampling before, during, and after therapy would be valuable to observe T-cell

state transitions and confirm which changes are causes or consequences of healing. Technical

aspects like the use of *ex vivo* stimulation should be expanded with antigen-specific

stimulation assays to mimic chronic exposure to microbial antigens. The duration of T-cell

activation should be extended to elicit a broader range of cytokines, and provide clearer

evidence of functional exhaustion. Finally, it would be intriguing to molecularly characterize

the epigenetic landscape of these inflammation-adapted T cells.

In summary, this study provides an integrated view of how inflammation sculpts the intestinal

T-cell landscape in IBD, revealing distinct T-cell states linked to disease activity. We propose

that IBD flares are driven by a network of tissue-resident, Th17/Th1-skewed CD4$^+$ memory T

cells and cytotoxic CD8$^+$ T cells positioned at the mucosal interface, whose pathogenic activity

is counterbalanced by an expanding regulatory T-cell compartment. When inflammation

subsides (either naturally or via treatment), this pathogenic network contracts and the

regulatory arm regains dominance, restoring immune homeostasis. These findings underscore

the plasticity of mucosal T cells in inflammation, likely shaping patient-specific outcomes.

Targeting pathogenic T-cell memory while reinforcing regulatory circuits may offer a path to

durable IBD remission, offering opportunities for the development of more targeted

therapeutics.

Materials and Methods

<u>Patients</u>

IBD patients (minimum age 12 years old) were recruited from the Department of

Gastroenterology and the pediatric department at Leiden University Medical Center (LUMC).

Patients either had a prior diagnosis of IBD or underwent diagnostic ileocolonoscopy based

on clinical suspicion of new-onset IBD. Controls were patients $\geq$ 18 years old known with

another disease, such as history of colorectal cancer or familial colon cancer, who underwent

a surveillance ileocolonoscopy. The studies were reviewed and approved by the Medical

Ethical Committee of LUMC. After informed consent, fresh biopsies and peripheral blood were

obtained directly at the endoscopy room according to protocol P15.193. Fresh samples were

processed (see below) and results were stored in the LUMC-IBD biobank (protocol RP25.075).

The phenotype characterization cohort included 68 intestinal samples from 27 patients (CD,

n=17; UC, n=10) and controls (n=5). T cell receptor stimulation assays were conducted with

two cohorts of patients. The first included 20 intestinal samples from 6 IBD patients (CD, n=3;

UC, n=3), and 3 controls, while the second included 25 intestinal samples from 10 patients

(CD, n=5; UC, n=5) and 4 controls. Samples from 3 of these controls and 7 of these patients

(CD, n=3; UC, n=4) were utilized for phenotypical characterization as well.

<u>Sample and clinical data collection</u>

The clinical characteristics of all patients are shown in Supplementary Table 1. Samples from

rectum, colon and ileum, both from inflamed and endoscopic noninflamed mucosa (if

available) were collected from IBD patients. Noninflamed mucosa were bowel segments never

inflamed or bowel segments currently in endoscopic remission (previously involved segment).

Peripheral blood was drawn from all participants at the time of endoscopy.

Patients were classified according to the Montreal classification regarding age at diagnosis,

location/extent of disease and behavior. In CD patients, the inflamed segment of each patient

was classified according to the SES-CD, as inactive (0-2), mild (3-6), or moderate-severe (≥7).

In UC patients, severity of disease was scored according to the endoscopic Mayo score, as

inactive (0), mild (1) or moderate-severe (2-3).

<u>Isolation of single cells from endoscopic intestine and peripheral blood</u>

Single-cell suspensions were prepared from fresh endoscopic biopsies as previously

described[5]. Briefly, tissue samples were collected in Hank's balanced salt solution (HBSS,

ThermoFisher) and treated with 1 mM ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA, J. T. Baker)

under rotation for 2 × 45 minutes at 37°C to separate the epithelium from the lamina propria

and release the intraepithelial lymphocytes. To obtain single cells from the lamina propria,

biopsies were subsequently washed with HBSS and incubated with 5 mL Iscove's Modified

Dulbecco's Media (IMDM) (Lonza) containing 2% Fetal Calf Serum (FCS) (Bodinco), 1,000U/mL

collagenase IV (Worthington), and 10 mg/mL DNase I grade II (Roche Diagnostics) for 1.5 hours

at 37°C. Cells isolated from both the epithelium and lamina propria were then pooled and

filtered through a 70 µm cell strainer and collected by centrifugation. To remove dead cells,

the cell pellets were incubated with 10 mg/mL DNase I in 5 ml 2% FCS/IMDM and filtered

through a 30 μm cell strainer. The single-cell suspensions were collected after centrifugation

and resuspended in IMDM complete medium supplemented with 2 mM L-glutamine (Lonza),

10% human serum, 100 U/mL Penicillin-Streptomycin (ThermoFisher), 0.25 ug/ml

Amphotericin B (Gibco), 100 μg/mL Normocin (InvivoGen) at 4°C for future steps.

PBMCs were isolated from freshly drawn heparin anticoagulated blood samples using Ficoll-

Paque™ density-gradient centrifugation. Isolated cells were washed with phosphate-buffered

saline (PBS), counted, and 1 million cells were stored in 20% FCS/RPMI at 4°C for future steps.

<u>T-cell activation assay</u>

Non-tissue culture-treated plates were incubated with 4 μg/mL goat anti-mouse IgG (Jackson

ImmunoResearch) at 4°C overnight in PBS and subsequently with 2.5 μg/mL α-CD3 (clone

Hit3a, ThermoFisher) at 37 °C for 3 hours in PBS. The fresh intestinal single cells and PBMCs

were seeded in the α-CD3 pre-coated plates with 1 μg/mL α-CD28 (clone CD28.2,

ThermoFisher) in complete medium for 6 h at 37 °C. In cohort 1, brefeldin A (1:1000, Sigma-

Aldrich) was added for the final 5 hours; in cohort 2, monensin (1:1500, BD GolgiStop™) was

added for the final 3 h. Monensin and brefeldin A were used in separate settings but yielded

comparable cytokine retention efficiency. Data from both experiments were therefore

combined.

<u>Full-spectrum flow cytometry</u>

For surface staining, cells were incubated with fluorochrome-conjugated antibodies, human

Fc block and monocyte block (BioLegend) for 30 min at 4 °C in 0.5% FCS/PBS. Cells were then

fixed/permeabilized using Foxp3/Transcription Factor Staining Buffer Set (ThermoFisher).

Subsequently, intracellular staining for transcription factors, cytokines and Ki67 was

performed for 45 min at 4 °C in Perm Wash Buffer (ThermoFisher). Samples were measured

on 5-laser Aurora (Cytek), and unmixed with single stained controls on PBMCs or UltraComp

eBeads (ThermoFisher) on the SpectroFlo platform (Cytek). Unstained reference controls used

to subtract autofluorescence were paired to their corresponding fully stained samples. Sample

processing, staining and measurement for phenotypic identification were performed within

the same day; cells for cytokine profile identification were fixed and stored at 4 °C in 0.5%

FCS/PBS overnight, subsequently stained with intracellular antibodies and measured the

following day. To account for technical variation, reference samples of PBMCs and tonsillar

mononuclear cells from single donors were included in every spectral cytometry experiment.

Data were analyzed with FlowJo software version 10 (Tree Star Inc) and OMIQ online platform

(https://www.omiq.ai/, Inc., Santa Clara, CA, USA). All antibodies used are listed in

Supplementary Table 2 and 3.

<u>Multispectral immunofluorescence and microscopy</u>

Freshly obtained biopsies were formalin-fixed and paraffin-embedded by the Department of

Pathology at LUMC. 4 µm sections were cut using a microtome, mounted on silane-coated

slides, and dried overnight at 37 °C. Sections were deparaffinized using three rounds of xylene,

followed by three 100% ethanol washes, blocking of endogenous peroxidase for 20 min, and

then rinsed with 70% and 50% ethonal and Milli-Q water. For antigen retrieval, sections were

boiled in 1x Tris-EDTA buffer (10 mM, pH 9) for 10 min and allowed to cool down for ± 60 min.

Sections were stained in the dark in 5 staining cycles. Each staining cycle had the following

procedure: All sections were blocked by Superblock (Thermofisher) for 10 min at room

temperature (RT). Excess superblock was removed, and slides were incubated with primary

antibody for 1hr at RT. After incubation, tyramide signal amplification was performed with

poly-HRP (immunologic) for 10 min at RT, followed by incubation with Opal (Akoya Biosciences)

for 10 min in the dark at RT according to manufacturer's protocol. Next, sections were boiled

in 1x citrate buffer (10 mM, pH 6) for 15 min to permit further staining cycles. The primary

staining sequence followed the order of CD3, E-cadherin, CD103, CD8 and CD4 (antibodies

used are listed in Supplementary Table 4). The opal staining sequence followed the order of

520, 690, 620, 650 and 570. Lastly, the sections were incubated with 1 µM DAPI for 15 min at

RT for nuclear counterstaining, and mounted using ProLong Gold Antifade Reagent (CAT#9071,

CST). Each ROI was imaged at 20× magnification with the Vectra 3.0 Automated Quantitative

Pathology Imaging System (Perkin Elmer). Inform software (Akoya) was used for spectral

separation of Opals. Qupath software (version 0.6.0) was further used for image analysis.

<u>Data analysis</u>

Dimensionality reduction (opt-SNE) on CD3$^+$ T cell data was performed on OMIQ following the

R package "PeacoQC" to perform automated cleaning of anomalies and arcsinh-

transformation. Subsequently, pre-processed CD4$^+$ memory T cells and CD8α$^+$ T cells were

exported and analyzed by t-SNE (each downsampled to 1,000 cells for visualizations) in

Cytosplore version 2.3.1[16]. The t-SNE computation dynamics to predict the trajectory of CD4

memory T cells was performed by Cytosplore, as demonstrated in our previous work[15].

Wishbone analysis of IBD-associated clusters was conducted in OMIQ, with CD4-13 cluster as

starting point. PCA of the samples for cell cluster frequencies was performed using the R-

package 'pca3d', where the centroid for each patient group is plotted in a scatter plot. The R

package 'corrplot' was used to calculate the correlation networks of cell frequencies of the

identified cell subsets.

<u>Statistics</u>

Data were presented as median and interquartile range. Patient group comparisons were

performed using two-tailed Kruskal–Wallis test followed by Dunn's test for multiple

comparisons. Cytokine proportions between the noninflamed and inflamed groups (Fig. 5D, E,

and G) were analyzed using two-tailed Mann–Whitney tests, while comparisons between the

HLA-DR$^-$CD38$^-$ and HLA-DR$^+$CD38$^+$ populations (Fig. 6I) were performed using Wilcoxon tests

(GraphPad Prism version 10.2.3). Linear Mixed-effects model implemented in R was used to

account for stimulation effects within each inflammation group (Fig. 5A–C).

<u>Data availability</u>

Data will be made publicly available on Flow Repository upon publication of the manuscript.

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Author contributions

482 QJ, FK, MFP, AM and VvU conceived the study and wrote the manuscript. AvdM-dJ, CRM-B,

483 PV and LFO offered clinical advice and assisted in biopsies collection. QJ performed the

484 experiments and analyzed the data. NG analyzed part of PBMC data. VAM helped to perform

485 the staining of tissue sections, TH provided conceptual input for trajectory analysis, and CL

486 helped to perform the isolation of single cells.

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Conflict of interest statement

499 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or

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Figure legend

Fig. 1. CD4⁺ T cells dominate in inflamed tissue samples in IBD. (A), Bivariate plots showing

the gating strategy to identify 7 major CD3$^+$ T-cell subsets in intestinal samples, including CD4$^+$

T, conventional CD8αβ$^+$ T, CD8αα$^+$ T, NKT (CD56$^+$CD8αβ$^+$), Double Negative (DN, CD8ab$^-$CD4$^-$),

MAIT and γδ T cells. **(B)**, Bar graph showing cell frequencies of the 7 major CD3$^+$ T-cell subsets.

Depicted are the clinical metadata stratified for disease state(controls, noninflamed, inflamed,

remission); disease subtype (control, CD and UC); and intestinal location (colon and ileum).

(C), opt-SNE embedding of the collective CD3$^+$ T cells derived from 68 samples plots displaying

CD4 expression in intestinal CD3$^+$ T cells. Density maps showing the density of cells stratified

for disease state. **(D)**, The frequencies of CD4$^+$ T cells stratified for disease state, disease

subtype and intestinal location, as percentage of total CD3$^+$ T cells. Error bars indicate the

median with interquartile range. *p≤0.05, **p≤0.01, ***p≤0.001, Kruskal–Wallis test with

Dunn's test for multiple comparisons.

Fig. 2. The Inflammation niche harbors several activated tissue-resident CD4 T cell subsets

marked by distinct transcription factor expression profiles. (A), t-SNE plots embedding of

65,732 intestinal CD4^{+} memory T cells colored for the expression values of the indicated

markers. **(B)**, t-SNE plot showing cluster partitions and density maps showing the abundance

of cell subsets stratified for disease state. **(C)**, Pearson correlation matrix identifying a highly

correlated cluster of CD4 T cell subsets (bottom right). **(D-E)**, Dot plots showing frequencies

of indicated clusters stratified for disease state indicating that the CD4 T cell subsets in the

correlated cluster identified in C are all increased in patients samples. Error bars indicate the

median with interquartile range. $*p \leq 0.05$, $**p \leq 0.01$, $***p \leq 0.001$, Kruskal–Wallis test with

Dunn's test for multiple comparisons. **(F)**, Overlay of histograms of CD4^{+} naive T cells (random

selection of 1,000 naive cells from 68 samples) and IBD-associated clusters (derived from **Fig.**

2D–E) illustrating the expression patterns of markers related to tissue residency (CD69 and

CD103), cell proliferation (Ki-67), activation (HLA-DR, CD38 and CD39) and transcription

factors (T-bet, RORγt, Foxp3 and Helios).

Fig. 3. Potential differentiation trajectories of CD4 clusters during inflammation. (A), t-SNE

embeddings of CD4⁺ naive T cells (random selection of 1,000 naive cells from 68 samples) and

the 9 CD4 clusters derived from **Fig. 2D–F**, showing single cells at six stages over the course of

the t-SNE computation. Colors represent cluster partitions as described in **Fig. 2F**. **B**, stage 4

of the t-SNE embedding colored for inflammatory status and with arrows indicating 2

potential developmental trajectories associated with inflammation. **C**, Distinct marker

expression profiles distinguishing the non-inflamed and inflamed tissue samples. **(D–E)**, Line

plots generated by Wishbone (trajectory 0-1.0) showing the changes in normalized expression

of indicated markers along bifurcating developmental trajectories.

Fig. 4. CD4–CD8 T cell crosstalk in the lamina propria. (A), Pearson rank-based correlation

matrix showing pairwise relationships among all memory CD4 clusters and CD8 clusters based

on cell percentages (of total memory CD4$^+$ and CD8α$^+$ T cells) and a magnified view of the

third network containing the five inflammation-associated CD4$^+$ clusters together with five

CD8$^+$ clusters along with a statistical evaluation of inter-cluster correlations. "ns" denotes non-

significant correlations. **(B)**, Overlay of histograms showing the CD45RO, CD45RA and CCR7

expression profiles on the correlated CD8 subsets and an unrelated naïve cluster for

comparison. **(C)**, Heatmap showing median marker expression values of the correlated CD4

and CD8 clusters identified in **(A)**. **(D)**, The frequencies of CD8 clusters stratified for disease

state, as percentage of total CD8α$^+$ T cells. Error bars indicate the median with interquartile

range. *p≤0.05, **p≤0.01, ***p≤0.001, Kruskal–Wallis test with Dunn's test for multiple

comparisons. **(E)**, Representative images of the detection of CD103 positive CD4$^+$ and CD8α$^+$

T cells in control, CD and UC samples, showing E-cadherin (colored in cyan), CD3 (colored in

red), CD8α (colored in green), CD4 (colored in blue), and DAPI (colored in grey) as nuclear

counterstain. Regions of CD4–CD8 cell colocalization within each ROI are marked by white

arrows. Yellow arrows: CD3$^+$CD8α$^+$CD103$^+$ cells; magenta arrows: CD3$^+$CD4$^+$CD103$^+$ cells.

Scale bar, 50 μm.

Fig. 5. Functional profiling of intestinal CD4+ memory T cells. Intestinal suspensions were
treated with α-CD3 and α-CD28 for 6 hours. Flow cytometry was used to quantify marker and

cytokine expression. **(A–C)** The frequencies of CD40L$^+$, HLA-DR$^+$CD38$^+$, and CXCL13$^+$ cells in CD4$^+$ memory T cells before and after stimulation from noninflamed and inflamed samples. **(D–E),** Intracellular expression of IL-2, TNFα, IFNγ, IL-17A, IL-13/IL-4 and IL-10 in total CD4$^+$ memory T cells **(D)** and the responsive (CD40L$^+$) memory T cells **(E)**. **(F)**, Correlations between frequencies of Foxp3$^-$ CD4$^+$ memory T cells producing IL-2, TNFα, IFNγ, IL-17A, IL-13/IL-4, IL-10 and frequencies of Foxp3$^+$ CD4$^+$ memory T cells were assessed using simple linear regression. Spearman's rank correlation was used to determine correlation coefficients and p values. **(G),** The frequencies of TNFα$^+$IFNγ$^+$IL-2$^+$ cells in CD4$^+$ memory T cells and the responsive (CD40L$^+$) memory T cells. **(H),** Correlation analysis showing the relationship between the frequencies of Foxp3$^-$ CD4$^+$ memory T cells producing TNFα, IFNγ and IL-2 simultaneously and Foxp3$^+$ CD4$^+$ memory T cells. Error bars indicate the median with interquartile range. "ns" denotes not significant, *$p \leq 0.05$, **$p \leq 0.01$, ***$p \leq 0.001$, Mann-Whitney test.

Fig. 6. Phenotypic characterization and functional profile of IBD associated HLA-DR⁺CD38⁺

cells. (A), Dot plots showing the percentage of double positive HLA-DR and CD38 cells in the

naive, central memory (CM), effector memory (EM), and terminally differentiated effector memory (EMRA) CD4$^+$ T cells**. (B)**, The frequencies of double positive HLA-DR and CD38 cells stratified for disease state, as percentage of total CD4$^+$ memory T cells. **(C)**, Distribution of cells co-expressing various combinations of the three transcription factors (RORγ, T-bet and Foxp3) among HLA-DR$^+$ CD38$^+$ CD4$^+$ memory T cells. **(D–H)**, The frequencies of CD25$^+$CD127$^+$, CTLA-4$^+$CD39$^+$, CD103$^+$CD69$^+$, Ki-67$^+$ and RORγ$^+$T-bet$^+$ cells compared among four groups defined by HLA-DR (positive or negative) and CD38 (positive or negative) expression, shown in biaxial plots (left, naïve cells are shown for comparison) and dot plots (right) (data from one representative experiment).**(I)**, Comparison of the frequencies of IL-2, TNFα, IFNγ, IL-17A, IL-13/IL-4 and IL-10 positive cells in HLA-DR$^-$CD38$^-$ and HLA-DR$^+$CD38$^+$ populations. Error bars indicate the median with interquartile range. *p≤0.05, **p≤0.01, ***p≤0.001, "ns" denotes not significant, Kruskal–Wallis test with Dunn's test for multiple comparisons or Wilcoxon tests, as appropriate.