Progressive differentiation of memory CD8 T cells in the cervicovaginal tissue

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Abstract

The memory CD8 T cell compartment in human cervicovaginal tissue (CVT) is phenotypically

and functionally distinct compared to other non-lymphoid tissues. To determine if these

distinctive features are driven by residence in the tissue itself, rather than a consequence of

local antigenic insults, we used a mouse model to assess memory CD8 T cell differentiation in

the CVT. Following systemic immunization to elicit a CD8 T cell response to a herpes simplex

virus (HSV) epitope, HSV-specific memory CD8 T cells were stably maintained in other tissues

but gradually declined in the CVT over 5 months post-immunization, correlating with a delay in

viral control upon HSV challenge. While memory cells in the periphery and small intestine

maintained a fairly stable phenotype after 30 days, memory CD8 T cells in the CVT gradually

acquired a $CD103^+$, $TCF-1^-$, granzyme B^+ phenotype over the 5 month time span. Notably, a

sizable and phenotypically similar population of CD8 T cells was also found in human CVT. Our

data indicate that the CVT environment itself considerably affects memory CD8 T cell

maintenance and differentiation, and call for a reassessment of the prevalent model of memory

T cell maintenance which does not currently account for tissue-specific divergence.

Introduction

Pathogens that infect mucosal barrier surfaces represent a significant global health burden, yet immune cell function within reproductive mucosal tissues remains understudied. In addition, the phenotypic and functional characteristics of memory T cells in cervicovaginal tissue (CVT) compared to other mucosal and lymphoid organs is poorly understood, despite the potentially broad importance of this cellular population in the context of sexually-transmitted infections.

We recently reported that memory CD8 T cells in the human CVT displayed unique phenotypical and functional features including the presence of a subset of CD69$^-$ CD103$^-$ inflammatory CD8 T cells ([1]). Importantly, the majority of memory CD8 T cells in the CVT of healthy women typically expressed CD103 and CD69, which are biomarkers associated with tissue-residence ([2-4]), suggesting that most memory CD8 T cells in the human CVT stably reside there. Tissue-residence itself can affect functional and phenotypical properties of T cells ([5-13]), which is thought to be a consequence of exposure to metabolites, cytokines, and other factors present in the tissue environment in steady state conditions([14], [15]) ([16]). However, it is unclear if the distinctive features of memory CD8 T cells in the CVT are a consequence of recurring local infections and antigenic insults or driven by residence in the tissue itself. To address this question, we used a mouse model system to assess memory CD8 T cell differentiation and maintenance in the CVT. Specifically, we used a systemic immunization strategy to induce HSV-specific memory CD8 T cells. We then tracked these antigen-specific T cells across tissues over time and examined their protective capacity. Our results suggest that residence of memory CD8 T cells in the CVT itself is sufficient to alter their maintenance and differentiation in the absence of recurrent infections or antigenic exposures.

Results

Systemic immunization with LM-gB elicits stable HSV-specific CD8 T cell memory in secondary lymphoid organs and the small intestine, but not the CVT

We generated a recombinant strain of *Listeria monocytogenes* that expresses the SSIEFARL peptide derived from HSV glycoprotein B (LM-gB) to elicit a large population of HSV-specific CD8 T cells in mice without priming HSV-specific CD4 T cell or B cell responses (**Fig 1A**). Importantly, we chose this approach so we could specifically interrogate the ability of gB-specific memory CD8 T cells to mediate protection against HSV infection at later time points in the absence of other HSV-specific memory responses. We found that immunized mice mounted a robust CD8 T cell response, with gB-specific T cells making up an average of 36.4% of CD8 T cells in the blood by 1wk after immunization (**Fig 1B**). The gB-specific T cell compartment underwent contraction beyond 1wk post-immunization, constituting an average of 6.7% of CD8 T cells in the blood by 1mo post-immunization (**Fig. 1B**).

While the number of gB-specific CD8 T cells remained relatively stable in the spleen, dLN and small intestine beyond 1mo after immunization (**Fig. 1C-D**), this population underwent a threefold loss in number within the CVT, with some mice having very few gB-specific CD8 T cells remaining in the CVT by 5 months post-immunization (**Fig. 1D**). These results suggest that memory CD8 T cell maintenance in the CVT might diverge from that in other non-lymphoid tissues.

Memory CD8 T cells in the CVT acquire expression of canonical markers of tissue residency over time

Given that gB-specific CD8 T cells in the CVT continued to decline in number after T cell contraction had concluded in other lymphoid tissues, we next examined the expression of canonical markers of tissue residency and effector function. To reliably determine what proportion of the gB-specific CD8 T cells in each organ were located within the tissue, we

performed intravascular (i.v.) labeling ([17], [18]) (**Fig. S1**). We found that an average of 85.6% of

the gB-specific CD8 T cells in the CVT were protected from i.v. labeling by 1mo after

immunization (**Fig. 2A**). The proportion of CVT gB-specific CD8 T cells that were protected from

i.v. labeling remained stable across time points, suggesting that the smaller population of T cells

remaining at late time points was still composed of cells that were mostly located within the

tissue parenchyma (**Fig. 2A**).

We next assessed whether gB-specific CD8 T cells expressed CD69 and CD103, two

markers often used to indicate tissue residency. Consistent with previous reports ([19], [20]), we

found that these markers were mostly non-expressed on gB-specific CD8 T cells at the earliest

memory time point. However, the average frequency of CD103$^+$ cells within the gB-specific CD8

T cell subset increased from 20.6% to 54.4% between 1mo and 5mo after LM-gB immunization

(**Fig. 2B-D**). While the i.v.-label$^+$ fraction of gB-specific CD8 T cells in the CVT remained almost

completely CD103$^-$ for the entire duration of the experiment, the shift from a predominantly

CD103$^-$ population to a predominantly CD103$^+$ population was especially clear within the i.v.-

label$^-$ fraction of CVT gB-specific CD8 T cells (**Fig. 2C, D**) and was mainly attributable to a loss

of CD103$^-$ cells from the CVT over time (**Fig. 2E**). Conversely, the equivalent i.v. label$^-$ fraction

of gB-specific CD8 T cells in another mucosal tissue, the small intestine lamina propria (SI LP),

did not undergo a population-level shift towards becoming CD103$^+$ (**Fig. 2C**). Finally, the total

CD69$^+$ CD103$^+$ population in the CVT was stably maintained over time (**Fig. 2E**), which could be

due to conversion of other subsets to a CD69$^+$ CD103$^+$ phenotype or the ability to self-renew at

a rate sufficient for stable maintenance.

HSV-specific memory CD8 T cells in the CVT slowly change phenotype during the five months

following immunization

Given the changes we observed in the populations of memory gB-specific CD8 T cells

expressing CD69 and CD103 over time (**Fig. 2**), leading to a relative increase in CD103$^+$ cells

(**Fig. 2D**), we next wanted to determine if tissue-resident CD8 T cells in the CVT maintain

constitutive granzyme B expression similar to the tissue-resident CD8 T cells in the SI LP, which

express granzyme B in the absence of antigen re-exposure ([21], [22]). Few gB-specific CD8 T

cells in the CVT expressed granzyme B at 1mo post-immunization (mean: 3%), but the

granzyme B$^+$ population substantially increased in both number and frequency at later time

points (mean: 24%, **Fig. 3A, B**). By contrast, an average of 17.5% of SI LP gB-specific CD8 T

cells expressed granzyme B by 1mo after immunization, and expression remained stable

thereafter (**Fig. 3B**). As expected, granzyme B expression was rarely observed among gB-

specific CD8 T cells in the spleen or dLN, regardless of the memory timepoint (**Fig. 3B**). We

next examined the phenotypic identity of these granzyme B-expressing cells. We found that by

3mo post-immunization, granzyme B$^+$ gB-specific CD8 T cells in the CVT were almost

exclusively CD103$^+$, suggesting that these two dynamically-expressed markers were

demarcating the same cellular population (**Fig. 3C-E**). By contrast, the granzyme B$^+$ population

in the SI LP comprised both CD103$^+$ and CD103$^-$ cells (**Fig. 3D-E**). Together, these data

suggest that the differentiation of gB-specific memory CD8 T cell compartment in the CVT is not

synchronized with gB-specific memory CD8 T cell populations in the gut mucosa or peripheral

lymphoid organs.

Gene expression analysis of single HSV-specific CD8 T cells from the blood or CVT reveals

transcriptional differences between early and late memory time points

To assess differences in the CVT gB-specific CD8 T cell compartment at early and late

memory timepoints in a more unbiased manner, we FACS-sorted gB tetramer$^+$ cells from the

blood and i.v.-label$^-$ gB tetramer$^+$ cells from the CVT at early and late time points for single-cell

RNA sequencing (scRNAseq) using a droplet-based microfluidic platform (**Fig. 4A**). Circulating

gB-specific memory CD8 T cells showed an increase in *Sell* (CD62L) and *Il7r* expression in late

memory gB tetramer^{+} cells compared to the early memory time point, while the early time point

had higher expression of *Gzma*, *Gzmb*, and *Klrg1,* in line with the shift from effector to central

memory that is known to occur over time ([23]) (**Fig. 4B**). We also looked for transcriptional

differences between gB-specific CD8 T cells within the CVT at early and late memory time

points. We identified 10 genes that were differentially expressed (Bonferroni-adjusted *P*-value

<0.05) between HSV-specific CD8 T cells isolated from the CVT at early memory and late

memory time points (**Fig. 4C**). However, most of these genes (*Rps27rt*, *Rps19*, *Rps28*, *Rps5*,

Ccl4, *S100a4*, *Fth1*) were also differentially expressed in the same direction between blood-

derived HSV-specific CD8 T cells at early memory and late memory time points (**Fig. 4B**),

suggesting that memory T cells in both the circulation and non-lymphoid tissues undergo these

changes. Further, none of these genes differentially expressed by early and late memory CD8 T

cells in the CVT were obvious candidates to explain why this compartment declined numerically

and changed phenotypically.

gB tetramer^{+} CD103^{+} CD8 T cells in the CVT lack expression of TCF-1

Given the steady decline of gB tetramer^{+} T cells in the CVT over time, we examined

expression of TCF-1 protein, a transcription factor associated with self-renewal potential in CD8

T cells ([24]), in CD103^{+} granzyme B^{+} cells in the CVT (**Fig. 5A-B**). We observed that i.v.-label^{-}

CD103^{+} gB-specific CD8 T cells in the CVT were exclusively TCF-1^{-} after LM-gB immunization.

By contrast, the CD103^{-} gB-specific T cells in the CVT and dLN were TCF-1[mid] (**Fig. 5A-B**).

Interestingly, CD103^{+} and CD103^{-} gB-specific T cells in the SI LP did not express different

levels of TCF-1 (**Fig. S2**), again suggesting that memory T cells induced by the same

immunization displayed tissue-specific characteristics and may have different requirements for

self-renewal. In our scRNA-seq dataset, we likewise observed that *Tcf7* transcript (which

encodes TCF-1) was expressed by a significant proportion of gB tetramer$^+$ cells in the blood

(**Fig. 5C**), but rarely detected in gB tetramer$^+$ cells isolated from the CVT, regardless of time

point. Similar to this finding, the majority of CD103$^+$ CD8 T cells in human vaginal tissue were

TCF-1$^-$ (**Fig. 5D**) and expressed lower levels of TCF-1 than memory (CD45RA$^-$) CD8 T cells in

matched blood, though this result was not statistically significant (**Fig. 5E**). We additionally

observed that most granzyme B$^+$ CD8 T cells in human vaginal tissue co-expressed CD103

(**Fig. 5F-G**), also mirroring the phenotype we observed in mouse CVT. These data demonstrate

that CD103$^+$ CD8 T cells residing in both mouse and human cervicovaginal tissues express

granzyme B and lack TCF-1.

Numerical and phenotypical changes of HSV-specific memory T cells in the CVT lead to

delayed protection against viral challenge.

Given the decline in the number of gB-specific CD8 T cells in the CVT combined with their shift

towards CD103 and granzyme B expression, we next evaluated how this affected the immune

response to vaginal HSV-2 challenge. We considered that the most rapid antiviral responses

would likely be mediated by tissue-resident gB-specific CD8 T cells, while circulating gB-specific

CD8 T cells would contribute to later responses. We challenged immunized mice at either 1mo

("Early Memory") or 4mo ("Late Memory") after immunization (**Fig. 6A**). A similar proportion of

mice in each group survived lethal challenge (**Fig. 6B**), demonstrating that gB-specific memory

CD8 T cells were sufficient to confer protection against vaginal HSV-2 challenge in a subset of

immunized mice. However, mice challenged earlier after immunization began to show evidence

of faster viral clearance starting as early as 3.5d after challenge (**Fig. 6C**) and underwent

greater T cell expansion in the first 2.5d after challenge (**Fig. 6D**). We hypothesized that this

was due to quantitative and qualitative differences between the early and late CD8 T cell

compartment in the CVT. To better understand the relationship between CVT gB-specific CD8 T

cells and viral control, we used the mathematical model in **Equation 1** to characterize the

different gB-specific T cell response kinetics between the early and late memory groups. In this

model, susceptible cells in the CVT are infected by free HSV-2 virus, allowing them to produce

new virus or be killed by HSV-specific CD8 T cells (**Fig. 6E**, see methods for details). We

performed 100 model-fit rounds to all observations simultaneously for each group for both CVT

gB-specific CD8 T cell counts and viral load and overlaid these predictions onto our

experimental data (**Fig. 6D**). In naive mice, gB-specific CD8 T cells were absent from or rare in

the CVT at 0-3.5d after challenge but were abundant by 6.5d after challenge (**Fig. 6D**, top left),

corresponding with the entry of primary effector T cells into the CVT. In mice challenged at

either early or late time points, gB-specific CD8 T cells increased dramatically in number

between 0d and 2.5d after HSV-2 infection and HSV viral titer fell by 6.5 post-challenge (**Fig.**

6D). The best model fits predicted that naive mice had the highest basic reproductive number,

meaning that they had the highest number of new cellular infections predicted to derive from a

single HSV-infected cell in a susceptible pool (**Fig. 6F**). In addition, the greater areas under

fitted gB tet$^+$ T cell curves (shown in **Fig. 6D**, top row) were associated with earlier viral

clearance (**Fig. 6G**). These data suggest that the numerical and phenotypical changes we

observed within the CVT memory T cell compartment led to a decrease in the efficacy of the

anti-viral response in the first days after challenge. This may be of particular relevance to the

success of a vaccine-induced memory T cell response within the CVT, as the host-pathogen

events occurring within this early window likely result in the ultimate success or failure of the

protective response ([25]).

Discussion

Here, we report that immunization with LM-gB induces a robust HSV-specific memory

CD8 T cell population in both lymphoid and non-lymphoid tissues including the CVT. Over the

course of 5 months following immunization, gB-specific memory CD8 T cells in the CVT

numerically declined and gradually acquired expression of CD103 and granzyme B. Conversely,

HSV-specific CD8 T cells that were circulating (spleen, LN) or resident in the SI were

numerically and phenotypically stable over the same time course (**Figs. 1-3**). Previous studies

have shown that the memory CD8 T cell pool in the lung also declines over time ([26-28](#)).

However, around 90% of memory CD8 T cells in the lung are pulmonary vasculature-associated

([29](#)), and are thus i.v. label positive, whereas about 90% of the memory CD8 T cells in the CVT

were i.v. label negative cells associated with the tissue parenchyma (**Fig. 2**). Thus, our data

suggest that memory CD8 T cell maintenance and differentiation in the CVT is directly regulated

by the tissue environment.

The cervicovaginal mucosa is distinct from other parts of the female reproductive tract

and other mucosal tissues in terms of epithelium type and physiology. Specifically, the vagina

and ectocervix are composed of type II mucosa and the endocervix and uterus are composed of

type I mucosa, with the cervical transformation zone marking the area where the simple

columnar epithelial cells of the endocervix meet the stratified squamous epithelial cells of the

ectocervix and vagina. In contrast, the gut and the lung, other mucosal tissues commonly

studied in the case of CD8 T cell memory, are type I mucosal surfaces ([30](#)). In addition to these

differences in the structure of the epithelium, there are differences in the complexity and

makeup of the microbiota at different mucosal tissue sites, which may also contribute to tissue-

specific environmental differences that could affect memory CD8 T cell differentiation and

function. In line with these differences between the vagina and mucosal tissues such as the gut,

a possible explanation for the observed delay in canonical resident-memory differentiation is

that the CVT tissue microenvironment is deficient in signals that are important for resident-

memory formation and maintenance ([31]).

Memory T cell frequencies in the blood are often still considered to be representative of

tissues and are used as a benchmark in clinical studies to assess immune responses to

vaccines and to establish correlates of protection. Our data indicate that there is a disconnect

between memory CD8 T cell frequency, phenotype, and stability in the periphery and the CVT.

The numerical and phenotypical changes of the memory CD8 T cell compartment 1 month vs. 5

months post-immunization ultimately influenced the rapidity of the immune response to vaginal

viral challenge (**Fig. 6**). These data highlight the importance of tissue-resident memory CD8 T

cells in mediating immunity in the CVT as well the need to study immune responses directly

within the relevant tissue.

Sexually-transmitted infections (STI) have a significant impact on global health, yet we

currently lack effective vaccines to prevent the majority of these infections, including HIV, HSV,

and bacterial STIs. Our data demonstrate that following systemic immunization, animals were

partially protected against HSV-2 lethality by gB-specific memory CD8 T cells (**Fig. 6**). This

protection was observed despite the lack of HSV-specific CD4 T or B cell memory, elements of

the immune response that are often considered crucial for protection against HSV-2 ([32-35]). It

is possible that a new focus on vaccine strategies that elicit memory CD8 T cells within the

genital mucosa, the site of first exposure to STIs, will increase vaccine efficacy. Design of these

approaches relies on understanding how memory CD8 T cells are maintained within these

genital tract mucosal tissues. Of note, our data from human vaginal tissue biopsies suggest that

the phenotype we observed in the mouse CVT is not specific to the mouse. Further studies are

required to better understand the relationship between the different subsets in human tissues as

well as their potential to self-renew.

In summary, we demonstrate that residence within cervicovaginal tissue alters memory

CD8 T cell differentiation and maintenance compared to circulating memory T cells (spleen, LN)

as well as tissue-resident memory T cells in the SI. Given that memory CD8 T cells in our study

were elicited by systemic immunization and *Listeria monocytogenes* is cleared from spleen and

liver within 7-8 days and antigen-presentation is short-lived in this context (36), our data support

the conclusion that the CVT tissue environment directly affects memory CD8 T cell

differentiation, leading to a steady decline in the antigen-specific memory CD8 T cell population

and concomitant phenotypic changes.

Methods

Mice

C57BL/6J (strain 000664) and B6.PL-*Thy1ᵃ*/CyJ (strain 000406) mice were purchased from The

Jackson Laboratory and maintained in specific pathogen-free conditions at the Fred Hutchinson

Cancer Research Center (FHCRC). CD45.1 gBT-I$^{Tg/Tg}$ sires were crossed to B6.PL-*Thy1ᵃ*/CyJ

dams to generate CD45.1/2 Thy1.1/2 gBT-I$^{Tg/0}$ mice for adoptive transfer experiments. All mice

used in experiments were female and were 8–30 weeks of age. Experiments were approved by

the Fred Hutchinson Cancer Research Center (FHCRC) Institutional Animal Care and Use

Committee.

Study population

Five women were recruited for this study and consented to vaginal biopsy and blood sampling.

Eligibility criteria included aged > 18 to < 45, assigned female sex at birth, in good general

health, normal PAP smear within the past 3-5 years, not menopausal, Hepatitis C negative and

no report of active genital tract irritation or infection. Additionally, participants were screened to

be negative for HIV, HSV-2, bacterial vaginosis, chlamydia, gonorrhea, and trichomonas

vaginalis. Subjects were not using any type of steroid or medication for treatment of

autoimmune disorders. Samples were not collected during menses. Informed written consent

was obtained from all participants. The study and procedures were approved by the FHCRC

Institutional Review Board.

Adoptive CD8 T cell transfers

CD44^{low} CD8 T cells were purified from spleen and lymph nodes of female CD45.1/2

Thy1.1/2 gBT-I$^{Tg/0}$ mice by negative selection using mouse CD8a$^+$ T Cell Isolation kits (Miltenyi)

according to the manufacturer's protocol with some modifications. Specifically, spleens and

lymph nodes were dissociated by mashing through a 70 um cell filter. Cell suspensions were

incubated in ACK lysis buffer for 5 min. After red blood cell lysis, 10^8 cells were combined with

100 ul CD8 biotin antibody cocktail, 1 ul anti-CD44-biotin antibody (Clone IM7, eBioscience)

([37](#)), and 400 ul cold culture media After 10 min incubation at 4C, 200 ul anti-biotin microbeads

and 300 ul cold culture media were added to the sample. After a further 15 min incubation at

4C, the sample was washed in 10 ml culture media, resuspended in 500 ul culture media, and

passed through an LS column (Miltenyi) on a MACS Separator magnet (Miltenyi). After washing

the column, the resulting suspension of purified CD8 T cells was diluted to 2.5×10^5 cells/ml in

sterile PBS. 5×10^4 cells were injected into recipient B6 mice via i.v. injection into the tail vein.

Purity and CD44$^-$ phenotype of the isolated CD8 T cell suspension was confirmed by flow

cytometry.

Listeria monocytogenes immunization

A strain of *Listeria monocytogenes* (LM) was generated to recombinantly express and

secrete ovalbumin containing the HSV-2 glycoprotein B-derived peptide SSIEFARL according to

previously described methods. Briefly, a pPL2 vector ([38](#)) containing ovalbumin (AA134–387)

([39](#)) was digested with SapI. An oligonucleotide encoding SSIEFARL plus an alanine on each

side was ligated into the SapI restriction site. This construct was inserted into wildtype 10403s

LM by *E. coli* conjugation as previously described ([38](#)). The resulting SSIEFARL-expressing LM

strain (LM-gB) was grown in brain heart infusion broth to log phase. Bacterial concentration was

determined by measuring the optical density at 600 nm. Stocks were diluted to 2×10^4 CFU per

ml in sterile PBS before immunization. Naive B6 mice received 4,000 CFU i.v. via tail vein

injection. Infectious dose was confirmed by plating on brain-heart infusion media plates and

enumerating colonies.

Herpes simplex virus type 2 infections and vaginal washes

Mice were injected subcutaneously with 2 mg of medroxyprogesterone acetate

(Greenstone). Seven days later, mucus was removed from the vagina with a calcium alginate-

tipped swab (Puritan) and mice were infected via micropipette by applying 2×10^4 plaque-

forming units of wildtype herpes simplex virus type 2 (HSV-2) strain 186 syn+ to the vaginal

canal in a 10 ul volume ([40](#), [41](#)). To determine viral titer in the vaginal lumen, vaginal washes

were collected from mice by swabbing the vaginal canal, washing the vaginal canal with 50 uL

of titration buffer (PBS supplemented with 100 ug/ml $MgCl_2$, 132 ug/ml $CaCl_2$, 10 mg/ml

glucose, and 1% FBS) and repeating swabbing of the vaginal canal. Both swabs and the 50 ul

of wash buffer were added to 950 ul of cold titration buffer and stored at -80C until analysis.

Viral titer was determined by plaque assay on Vero cells (ATCC). Stock solutions of HSV-2

were propagated on Vero cells and titered by plaque assay to verify infectious doses. After

infection with HSV-2, mice were monitored daily and clinical disease progression was scored as

previously described ([33](#)) with minor modification. Scores were defined as follows: 0, No sign; 1,

slight genital erythema; 2, moderate genital erythema and edema; 3, significant genital

inflammation with visible lesion; 4, hind leg paralysis or other severe condition requiring

euthanasia; 5, moribund or dead. Mice were euthanized if they were moribund or showed signs

of severe disease, including hind leg weakness, hind leg paralysis, or hunched posture.

Labeling of T cells in the vasculature

To discriminate CD8 T cells in the vasculature from those located within tissues, we

utilized an intravascular labeling technique as previously described ([18](#)). Briefly, mice were

injected i.v. with 3 ug anti-CD8b antibody conjugated to either FITC or APC (Clone: H35-17.2,

eBioscience) in PBS via the tail vein 2-5 min before euthanasia by CO_2 inhalation.

Tissue collection and processing

<u>Mouse</u>

Blood samples were collected from live mice by submandibular venipuncture or via

thoracic venipuncture after sacrifice. Spleens and CVT-draining iliac and inguinal lymph nodes

were dissociated by mashing through 70 um cell filters. For spleen and blood samples, red

blood cells were lysed by incubating in ACK lysis buffer for 5-20 min.

Murine cervicovaginal tracts (consisting of the vagina, ectocervix, and endocervix) were

dissected by removing the bladder and excising the region between the vaginal opening and the

uterine corpus. To prepare single cell suspensions from cervicovaginal tracts, tissues were

minced with scissors and then incubated in 2 ml DMEM medium supplemented with 2% FBS, 2

mg/ml collagenase D, and 1.5 mg/ml DNase I (Roche) for 30 minutes at 37C with gentle

rocking. Tissues were then re-suspended in HBSS supplemented with EDTA and 2% FBS and

incubated for 5 minutes at 37 degrees C to quench the collagenase reaction. Finally, tissues

were dissociated by mashing through 70 um filters.

Single cell suspensions were prepared from small intestines by removing the Peyer's

patches and mesentery, washing thoroughly with HBSS supplemented with 2% FBS, and

incubating in 25 ml HBSS with 2% FBS, 5 mM EDTA, and 1 mM dithiothreitol for 15 min at 37C

with gentle rocking. Then, tissue pieces were washed and incubated in 5 ml DMEM medium

supplemented with 2% FBS, 2 mg/ml collagenase D, and 1.5 mg/ml DNase I (Roche, Basel,

Switzerland) for 30 minutes at 37C with gentle rocking. Finally, samples were passed through

19g needles and mashed through 70 um filters.

<u>Human</u>

Blood was collected into acid citrate dextrose tubes and mixed. Tubes were spun at 1000 xg for

10 minutes to remove the plasma. The remaining blood was diluted 1:2 in PBS and layered on a

Lymphoprep (STEMCELL) gradient and centrifuged at 800 xg for 20 minutes. The PBMC layer

was then removed and washed with PBS. Tissues were transported from the clinic in ice cold

PBS and immediately processed upon arrival. Biopsy samples were trimmed to 2mm^2 pieces

and digested with collagenase II (700 units/ml, Sigma-Aldrich) and DNAse I (1unit/ml, Sigma-

Aldrich) for two subsequent 30 minute-digestions at 37°C as previously described ([42](#)). Single

cell suspensions were then washed and filtered before use.

Generation of H-2Kb tetramers

Biotinylated H-2Kb monomers containing HSV-2 gB SSIEFARL were generated by the

FHCRC Immune Monitoring Lab. Tetramers were generated by incubating monomers with

premium-grade streptavidin-APC or streptavidin-PE (Invitrogen) at a 4:1 molar ratio for 30

minutes at room temperature.

Cell Staining for Flow Cytometry and Sorting

Cells were incubated in LIVE/DEAD fixable amine-reactive viability dye (Invitrogen),

blocked for Fc binding (Clone 2.4G2 for mice or TruStain (BioLegend) for human), and then

stained with tetramers and antibodies.

The following fluorochrome-conjugated antibodies were used to stain mouse cells for

flow cytometry: anti-CD8 (Clone 53-6.7, PerCP-eFluor710), anti-CD4 (Clone GK1.5, APC-

eFluor780), anti-CD45.1 (Clone A20, Brilliant Ultraviolet 395), anti-CD45.2 (Clone 104, Brilliant

Ultraviolet 737), anti-Thy1.1 (Clone HIS51, FITC or SuperBright645), anti-CD44 (Clone IM7,

APC or AlexaFluor700), anti-CD69 (Clone H1.2F3, PE-Dazzle594 or PE-Cy7), anti-CD103

(Clone M290, Brilliant Violet 786), anti-granzyme B (Clone GB11, Pacific Blue), and anti-TCF-1

(Clone C63D9, PE). Anti-CD8, anti-CD4, and anti-Thy1.1 were purchased from eBioscience.

Anti-CD45.1, anti-CD45.2, anti-CD44, and anti-CD103 were purchased from BD. Anti-CD69 and

anti-granzyme B antibodies were purchased from Biolegend. Anti-TCF-1 antibody was

purchased from Cell Signaling Technologies.

The following fluorochrome-conjugated antibodies were used to stain human cells for

flow cytometry: anti-CD3 (Clone UCHT1, Brilliant Ultraviolet 661), anti-CD45 (Clone HI30,

Brilliant Ultraviolet 805), anti-CD8 (Clone RPA-T8, Brilliant Ultraviolet 496), anti-CD4 (Clone

RPA-T4, Brilliant Violet 605), anti-CD45RA (Clone Clone HI100, APC-H7), anti-granzyme B

(Clone GB11, AlexaFluor700), anti-CD103 (Clone Ber-ACT8, Brilliant Violet 750), and anti-TCF-

1 (Clone C63D9, PE). Anti-CD3, anti-CD45, anti-CD4, anti-CD8, anti-CD45RA, anti-CD103, and

anti-Granzyme B were purchased from BD. Anti-TCF-1 antibody was purchased from Cell

Signaling Technologies.

Intracellular staining was conducted after fixation and membrane permeabilization using

Cytofix/Cytoperm Fixation/Permeabilization Kits (BD). If TCF-1 was included in the staining

panel, intracellular staining was conducted after nuclear permeabilization using

Foxp3/Transcription Factor Staining Kits (eBioscience) according to the manufacturer's protocol.

Samples were acquired on a FACSymphony instrument (BD) or sorted on a FACSAria (BD). To

estimate cell counts, 2×10^5 AccuCheck Counting Beads (ThermoFisher) were added to each

sample immediately before acquisition.

Single Cell RNA Sequencing and Data Analysis

In order to generate single cell transcriptomic data, CD8 T cell populations of interest

were sorted using a FACSAriaII fitted with a 70 um nozzle (BD). Live CD45.2^{+} CD8a^{+} CD8b i.v.-

label^{+} cells from the blood and live CD45.2^{+} CD8a^{+} CD8b i.v.-label^{-} cells from the CVT were

sorted and loaded onto a Chromium Controller (10x Genomics) to generate gel beads in

emulsion. After cDNA synthesis, samples were further processed using the Chromium Single

Cell 3' RNA sequencing kit version 2 (10x Genomics) and the resulting libraries were

sequenced on a HiSeq 2500 Next Generation Sequencer (Illumina) at the FHCRC Genomics

Shared Resource Facility. Cell Ranger software (10x Genomics) was used to generate FASTQ

files, demultiplex samples, and count transcripts per cell. The processed data were analyzed

using R (R Development Core Team) and the package Seurat version 2.3.4 ([43](#)). Quality

filtering steps included removal of genes detected in fewer than three cells and removal of cells

in which fewer than 200 genes were detected or in which greater than 5% of detected genes

were mitochondrial. Count data were normalized for each gene by dividing the per-cell

expression count by the total counts of all genes summed for that cell, multiplying the resulting

value by 10,000, adding 1, and taking the natural log. Variable genes were identified on the

basis of having a mean of non-zero expression values between 0.0125 and 3 and a standard

deviation of all expression values greater than 0.5. Data were scaled and centered using a

linear model that adjusted for the number of unique molecular identifiers per cell and the percent

mitochondrial genes detected per cell. Principle components analysis was performed using the

scaled and normalized data for all variable genes, and the first 20 principle components were

used to compute and display uniform manifold approximation and projection (UMAP) ([44](#)) plots

and to cluster the data using a graph-based clustering algorithm ([45](#)) implemented in Seurat.

Contaminating non-T cell subsets were identified by graph-based clustering and removed based

on high expression of *Krt4*, *Krt19*, *Cd74*, *Cd79a*, and *Cd79b* and no expression of *Cd3e*. Genes

that were differentially expressed between specific populations or clusters of cells were

identified using model-based analysis of single cell transcriptomics (MAST) ([46](#)) using criteria

described in results and in figure legends.

Statistical Analysis

Sample means between two unpaired groups were compared by *t*-test. Sample means

between three or more unpaired groups were compared by ordinary one-way ANOVA with

Tukey's multiple comparisons test. Sample means between three paired groups were compared

by repeated measures ANOVA with Greenhouse-Geisser correction. Paired mean fluorescence

intensity or relative frequency data were analyzed via paired *t*-test. All cell count and viral titer

data were $\log_{10}$-transformed before graphing and analysis. Error bars represent standard

deviations. Exact *P*-values are given for all results where $P < 0.05$. Analysis was performed

using Prism 7 (GraphPad Software).

HSV-2 and CD8 T cell Dynamics Modeling

To understand the virus and gB-specific CD8 T cell dynamic differences between the

Naive, Early Memory, and Late Memory groups as reflected in the observations, we used an

acute viral infection model that includes a cytotoxic effect of the CD8 T cell compartment. In this

model, susceptible cells (*S*) are infected at rate βVS by free HSV-2 virus (*V*). Productively HSV-

2-infected cells (*I*) have a clearance that is intrinsic or mediated by a humoral response with rate

$\delta_I I$ or a clearance mediated by HSV-specific CD8 T cells (*E*) with killing rate kEI. Free virus is

produced at a rate pI and cleared at rate cV. HSV-specific CD8 T cells are cleared at rate $\delta_E E$

and proliferate in the presence of infected cells at a maximum rate ωEI. We also assumed the

proliferation of HSV-specific CD8 T cells is constrained when infected and effector cells grow

over saturation levels I_{50} and E_{50}, respectively. Under these assumptions the model has the

form (see schematics in **Fig. 6D**):

466
$$\frac{dS}{dt} = -\beta VS$$
$$\frac{dI}{dt} = \beta VS - \delta_I I - kEI$$
$$\frac{dV}{dt} = pI - cV \qquad\qquad \textbf{(1)}$$
$$\frac{dE}{dt} = \frac{\omega EI}{\left(1+\frac{I}{I_{50}}\right)\left(1+\frac{E}{E_{50}}\right)} - \delta_E E.$$

The basic reproductive ratio, R_0, which represents the number of secondary infections produced

by an HSV-infected cell when introduced into a susceptible population, was calculated as $R_0 =$

$\frac{\beta p T_0}{c(\delta_I + kE_0)}$. When $R_0 < 1$, viremia is controlled.

Due to the limitation that some data points were from individual mice rather than

repeated from the same mouse across all time points, we fit the solution of the model for *V* and

E to the absolute viral load genome copies per vaginal wash and HSV-specific CD8 T cell

counts in CVT from all animals in each group. In this way, given that there were several

observations for each timepoint, we performed 100 rounds of model fits to observations from all

individual animals for each group with different initial parameter guesses in the optimization

algorithm. We assumed that all outcomes from the 100 fit rounds were plausible predictions of

the data and represented the variability in the infection dynamics in each group. For each round,

we re-parameterized the model in function of R_0, and used a nonlinear least-squares approach

using the differential evolution and the L-BFGS-B algorithms in R (R Development Core

Team) to fit the model and to estimate parameters: V_0, pT_0, E_0, R_0, δ, c, k, ω, δ_E, I_{50} and E_{50}.

Since mice were inoculated with ~2.3×10^6 HSV genomes, we set that number as the upper limit

for V_0. We also constrained the value estimate E_0 to the maximum and minimum HSV-specific

CD8 T cell observations at the moment of virus challenge. Finally, we ensured that $R_0 > 1$ in all

fitting rounds. In all simulations $t = 0$ represented the time of the HSV-2 vaginal challenge.

From the best fits, we computed the predicted time of viral clearance as the time when viral load

crossed the detection limit for the PCR assay of 4615.4 genomes per vaginal wash. We also

computed the predicted area under the curve of HSV-specific CD8 T cells using best fits of

variable *E* from challenge until the time of viral clearance.

We repeated the fits by exploring different possibilities for constraining HSV-specific

CD8 T cell growth. Specifically, we explored a model were CD8 growth is constrained only by a

saturation level in HSV-infected cells, i.e. $\frac{dE}{dt} = \frac{\omega EI}{\left(1+\frac{I}{I_{50}}\right)} - \delta_E E$, or only by a saturation for the

number of effector cells, i.e. $\frac{dE}{dt} = \frac{\omega EI}{\left(1+\frac{E}{E_{50}}\right)} - \delta_E E$. To determine the best and most parsimonious

model, we computed the Akaike Information Criteria, $AIC = n \ln \overline{SSE} + 2m$, where *m* is the

number of parameters estimated, *n* the number of data points in each group and $\overline{SSE}$ is the

average sum of squares error of all the 100 model-fit rounds in each group. We assumed a

model had similar support from the data if the difference between its AIC and the best model

(lowest) AIC was less than two. We selected and showed results from the model with the lowest

AIC.

Abbreviations

AIC, Akaike information criteria

AUC, area under curve

CVT, cervicovaginal tissue

dLN, CVT-draining lymph nodes

gB, HSV glycoprotein B

LM-gB, *Listeria monocytogenes* strain expressing the SSIEFARL peptide from HSV glycoprotein

B

LN, lymph node

SI, small intestine

SI LP, small intestine lamina propria

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Figure Legends

Figure 1. The cervicovaginal CD8 T cell memory compartment of LM-gB-immunized mice

is poorly maintained after immunization. (A) Schematic of experiment to assess

maintenance of HSV-specific T cell compartment in lymphoid and mucosal tissues of immunized

mice. **(B)** HSV-specific cells were identified in the blood via staining with an H-2Kb SSIEFARL

tetramer conjugated to PE. Left, representative flow plots gated on CD8 T cells. Right, gB

tetramer$^+$ CD8 T cell abundance as a percentage of total blood CD8 T cells. **(C-D)** Number and

relative abundance of HSV-specific CD8 T cells in spleen, CVT-draining LN (dLN), small

intestine lamina propria (SI LP), and cervicovaginal tissue (CVT) 1mo and 5mo after LM-gB

immunization. Data in B, C, and D are pooled from 2-5 individual experiments. Each dot in B

(right) represents the mean value of 20 mice from a representative experiment. Each dot in C

and D represents an individual mouse. Error bars represent mean $\pm$ SD. *P*-values in D were

calculated via *t*-test using log$_{10}$-transformed values. Exact *P*-values are given for all values <

0.05.

Figure 2. Gradual changes occur within the CVT HSV-specific CD8 T cell compartment

that are not mirrored in other organs. (A) Percentage of i.v. label$^-$ HSV-specific CD8 T cells

in different lymphoid and non-lymphoid tissues at 1mo, 3mo, and 5mo after immunization based

on gating shown in Fig. S1. **(B)** Representative staining showing CD69 and CD103 expression

on HSV-specific CD8 T cells in the CVT 1mo and 5mo after immunization. **(C)** Stacked bar plots

showing relative abundance of each of four subsets of HSV-specific CD8 T cells based on

CD69 and CD103 expression in the i.v. label$^+$ and i.v. label$^-$ fractions of the CVT and SI LP. **(D)**

CD103 expression on i.v. label$^-$ gB tetramer$^+$ CD8 T cells in the CVT 1mo, 3mo, and 5mo after

immunization. **(E)** Total count of each of four subsets of HSV-specific CD8 T cells based on

CD69 and CD103 expression 1mo, 3mo, and 5mo after immunization. Data in A, C, D, and E

are pooled from at least 2 individual experiments per time point. Data in B are from one

representative experiment. Each dot in A, D, and E represents an individual mouse. Error bars

represent mean $\pm$ SD. *P*-values in D and E were calculated via ordinary one-way ANOVA with

Tukey's post-hoc test using $\log_{10}$-transformed values for numbers and untransformed values for

percentages. Exact *P*-values are given for all values <0.05.

Figure 3. The immunization-induced cervicovaginal-resident CD8 T cell compartment

acquires expression of granzyme B much later than the gut-resident CD8 T cell

compartment. (A) Number of granzyme B-expressing cells among HSV-specific CD8 T cells at

time points after LM-gB immunization. **(B)** Frequency of granzyme B$^+$ cells among HSV-specific

CD8 T cells in spleen, dLN, CVT, and SI LP at 1mo, 3mo, and 5mo post-immunization. **(C)**

Concatenated flow files from 10 mice showing CD103 and granzyme B co-expression among

the HSV-specific CD8b i.v. label$^-$ populations in the CVT and dLN 5mo after LM-gB

immunization. **(D-E)** Frequency of CD69 and CD103 expression within granzyme B$^+$ HSV-

specific CD8 T cells in the CVT and SI LP 1mo, 3mo, and 5mo after immunization. Data in A-E

are pooled from at least 2 individual experiments. Each dot or triangle in A, B, and D represents

an individual mouse. Error bars represent mean $\pm$ SD. *P*-values in A and B were calculated via

ordinary one-way ANOVA with Tukey's post-hoc test using $\log_{10}$-transformed values for

numbers and untransformed values for percentages. Exact *P*-values are given for all values

<0.05.

Figure 4. LM-gB induced memory CD8 T cells in blood and cervicovaginal tissue undergo

transcriptional changes between 1mo and 5mo after immunization. (A) Schematic of

experimental design to evaluate single cell transcriptomes of HSV-specific and non-specific

CD8 T cells via droplet-based methodology. **(B-C)** Volcano plot of $\log_2$-transformed fold

changes and unadjusted *P*-values between Early and Late Memory HSV-specific CVT CD8 T

cells from (B) blood and (C) CVT. For the CVT plot, all genes with Bonferroni-adjusted *P*-values

<0.05 are labeled. For the blood plot, all genes with Bonferroni-adjusted *P*-values <0.05 and

log_2-transformed fold change >0.5 are labeled. Filled dots represent genes with Bonferroni-

adjusted *P*-values <0.05. Each dot in B represents averaged single cell fold change data for an

individual gene.

Figure 5. Cervicovaginal-resident CD8 T cells lack expression of TCF-1 transcript and

protein. (A) Protein expression of CD103 and TCF-1 among HSV-specific i.v. label⁻ CD8 T cells

in CVT (red) or dLN (black) 1mo after LM-gB immunization. Flow plots represent concatenated

data from 5 mice. **(B)** TCF-1 median fluorescence intensity from CD103⁺ or CD103⁻ subsets of

HSV-specific CD8 T cells compared to lymph node (LN) in CVT 42 days after LM-gB

immunization. **(C)** Violin plots of normalized single cell *Tcf7* transcript expression level in sorted

gB tetramer⁺ cells from blood and CVT from Early (1mo) and Late (7mo) time points after

immunization. **(D)** Representative flow plot of CD103 and TCF-1 among CD8 T cells in CVT

(red) or CD45RA⁻ CD8 T cells in blood (black) from an HSV-negative participant. **(E)** TCF-1

median fluorescence intensity and frequency from CD103⁺ or CD103⁻ subsets of CD8 T cells

from the CVT compared to CD45RA⁻ CD8 T cells in matched blood from five HSV-2-negative

women. **(F)** Representative flow plot of CD103 and granzyme B expression by CD8 T cells in

CVT from an HSV-negative participant. **(G)** Relative abundance of granzyme B expression

among CD103⁺ CD8 T cells in CVT from five HSV-negative women. A-B represent data from

one representative experiment (n=3-5). C represents data from one experiment using pooled

mouse samples (n=9 per group). Data from E-G represent pooled results from study

participants (n=5). Each dot in B represents an individual mouse. Each dot in E and G

represents an individual participant. Error bars represent mean ± SD. *P*-values in B were

calculated via repeated measures ANOVA with Greenhouse-Geisser correction. *P*-values in F

were calculated via paired *t*-test. Exact *P*-values are given for all values <0.05.

Figure 6. LM-gB immunized mice are protected against severe disease after lethal intravaginal challenge with HSV-2, but the efficacy of the immune response wanes over time. (A) Experiment schematic to compare protective efficacy of LM-gB immunization 1mo and 4mo after administration. **(B)** LM-gB immunized or naive mice were treated with 2 mg medroxyprogesterone s.c. and vaginally challenged with 10^4 pfu wildtype HSV-2 7d later. Survival of naive mice and mice challenged at either the "Early" or "Late" memory time point after LM-gB immunization. **(C)** Vaginal washes were collected from infected mice in B at 2.5d, 3.5d, and 6.5d post-challenge. HSV-2 pfu per ml of vaginal wash was determined by plaque assay on Vero cell monolayers and viral titers were compared between groups of challenged mice at each time point. Pink dots represent mice that survived challenge, as shown in B. **(D)** Top: number of HSV-specific CD8 T cells recovered from the CVT at each post-challenge time point in Naive, Early Memory, and Late Memory mice, with modeling estimates of immune response kinetics overlaid in blue. Bottom: HSV genomes recovered by PCR at each post-challenge time point in Naive, Early Memory, and Late Memory mice, with modeling estimates of viral expansion and control overlaid in blue. **(E)** Schematic of mathematical model used to relate CVT-infiltrating CD8 T cell immune response to HSV-2 viral expansion kinetics. *S* and *I* represent the number of susceptible and infected cells per CVT, respectively; *E*, the number of gB tet$^+$ CD8 T cells per CVT; and *V* the number of HSV genomes per vaginal wash. **(F)** Model estimates of basic reproductive ratios (number of new cells infected by one infected cell when introduced into a pool of susceptible cells) for Naive, Early Memory, and Late Memory mice. **(G)** Scatter plot of areas under curves (AUC) from D and corresponding predicted day of viral clearance. Dotted line represents a fitted line from quadratic regression. Data in B, C, and D are pooled from at least 2 individual experiments (n=8-14 per group in B). Each dot, square, or triangle in B, C, and D represents data from an individual mouse. Each dot, square, or triangle in F and G represents one model estimate. *P*-values in C were calculated via unpaired *t*-test

using $\log_{10}$-transformed values. *P*-values in F were calculated via pairwise corrected Mann-

Whitney's test using Bonferroni's correction. *P*- and r_s-value in G were calculated via

Spearman's rank correlation. Exact *P*-values are given for all values <0.05.

Figure S1. Example of gating strategies used to identify CD8 T cells in mouse and human

CVT. (A) Representative example from CVT of mouse sacrificed 1mo after LM-gB

immunization. **(B)** Representative example of T cell gating strategy from vaginal biopsies from

one study participant. **(C)** Comparison of intravascular staining using CD8b-APC in blood, dLN,

spleen, SI LP, and CVT. Representative staining examples from one mouse sacrificed 5mo after

LM-gB immunization.

Figure S2. Comparison of TCF-1 protein expression in HSV-specific CD8 T cells from

mouse CVT and SI LP. (A) Protein expression of CD103 and TCF-1 among HSV-specific i.v.

label$^-$ CD8 T cells in CVT, SI LP, and dLN 3mo after LM-gB immunization. Flow plots represent

concatenated data from 3 mice. **(B)** TCF-1 median fluorescence intensity from CD103$^+$ or

CD103$^-$ subsets of HSV-specific CD8 T cells from CVT and SI LP compared to LN 3mo after

immunization.

A

LM-gB i.v.
gBT-I cells

Assess gB-specific CD8⁺ T cells in
lymphoid and mucosal tissues

0d   1mo   5mo

B

1wk Blood

36.7

HSV gB tet PE

CD44 APC-eF780

gB tet+, % of CD8 T cells

1wk 2wk 1mo 3mo 5mo
Post-Immunization Timepoint

C

# of gB tet+ cells

CVT Spleen dLN

gB tet+, % of CD8 T cells

CVT Spleen dLN

D

Spleen   dLN   SI LP   CVT

# of gB tet+ cells

n.s.   *P* = 0.0064   *n.s.*   *P* < 0.0001

1mo 5mo   1mo 5mo   1mo 5mo   1mo 5mo
Post-Immunization Timepoint

A

LM-gB i.v.
gBT-I cells

Early Memory 1mo, *N* = 9

Late Memory 7mo, *N* = 9

0d

Pool organs, sort gB tet+ and gB tet- from CVT and blood

B

Blood gB tet+
Up in Early   Up in Late

C

CVT gB tet+
Up in Early   Up in Late

A

LM-gB i.v.
gBT-I cells

i.vag HSV-2 challenge
Survival and T cell phenotype

0d   1mo   4mo
            Early   Late
            Memory   Memory

B

% Surviving

Late
Early
Naive

Day Post-Challenge

C

HSV-2 PFU per ml vaginal wash

D2.5   D3.5   D6.5

P = 0.0045

Survived
Succumbed

LOD

Early Late   Early Late   Early Late

D

Naive   Early   Late

# of gB tet+ cells per CVT

Flow or PCR Data
Modeling estimate

HSV genomes per vaginal wash

Day Post-Challenge

E

V   Virus production (p)

Clearance (c)

S   I   E   Proliferation

Infection (β)   death (δ_I)   Cell killing (κ)   death (δ_E)

F

Basic reproductive ratio

P = 5e-13
P = 2e-9
P = 0.001

Naive   Early   Late
Group

G

Predicted day of viral clearance

Early
Late

P = 7e-7
r_s = -0.42

Area under predicted gB tet+ curve (x10⁴)