1

Systemic inflammation suppresses lymphoid tissue remodelling and B cell immunity during concomitant local infection

Yannick O Alexandre[1], Sapna Devi[1,2], Simone L Park[1], Laura K. Mackay[1,2], William
R. Heath[1,2], Scott N. Mueller[1,2]*

[1]Department of Microbiology and Immunology, The University of Melbourne, The Peter
Doherty Institute for Infection and Immunity, Melbourne, Victoria 3000, Australia.

[2]The Australian Research Council Centre of Excellence in Advanced Molecular Imaging, The
University of Melbourne, Melbourne, Victoria 3000, Australia.

* To whom correspondence may be addressed. Email: smue@unimelb.edu.au

Keywords: Inflammation, pathogen coinfection, immune response; B cells; lymphoid stromal
cells.

Abstract

Concurrent infection with multiple pathogens occurs frequently in individuals and can result in exacerbated infections and altered immunity. However, the impact of such coinfections on immune responses remains poorly understood. Here we reveal that systemic infection results in an inflammation-induced suppression of local immunity. During localized infection or vaccination in barrier tissues including the skin or respiratory tract, concurrent systemic infection induces a type I interferon-dependent lymphopenia that impairs lymphocyte recruitment to the draining lymph node (dLN). This leads to suppressed lymphoid stromal cell expansion and dLN remodelling and impaired induction of B cell responses and antibody production. Our data suggest that contemporaneous systemic inflammation constrains the induction of regional immunity.

Introduction

Viral pathogens that infect the skin and mucosa, including herpes simplex virus (HSV) and influenza viruses, induce immune responses in lymph nodes (LN) that drain the site of local infection. Induction of immune responses relies upon effective recruitment of B cells and T cells from the circulation where they can encounter cognate viral antigens presented by professional antigen presenting cells. Coordinated cellular interactions define T and B cell activation, proliferation and differentiation, and these interactions are supported by specialized microanatomical compartments within LNs [1]. Networks of non-hematopoietic lymphoid stromal cells (LSCs) construct the microarchitecture of LNs, providing both structural and functional support for the induction of immune responses. Lymphatic endothelial cells (LEC) form the afferent and efferent lymphatic vessels required for sampling peripheral tissues and exit of lymphocytes back to the blood circulation, respectively. Lymphocytes that enter the LN from the blood are recruited via specialized blood endothelial cells (BEC) that form PNAd$^+$ high endothelial venules (HEV) [2].

Subsets of mesenchymal fibroblastic reticular cells (FRC) construct the LN architecture and include marginal reticular cells (MRC), follicular dendritic cells (FDC), T cell zone FRC and additional reticular cells localized in B cell follicles. FRC are identified on the basis of expression of podoplanin (PDPN; also called gp38) and lack expression of the endothelial cell marker CD31. FRC respond dynamically to inflammation by modulating their gene expression program that influences immune responses [3, 4]. This includes down-regulation of the expression of the chemokines CCL19 and CCL21 and up-regulation of CXCL10, which affects the positioning of leukocytes that regulate CD8 and CD4 T cell responses [5, 6]. The importance of the mesenchymal LSC network was demonstrated in studies showing that depletion of the FRC network results in impaired induction of immune responses [7, 8].

Localized infections induce considerable enlargement of the LNs, including recruitment and proliferation of lymphocytes and expansion of stromal cell networks. T cell responses are initiated rapidly within LNs, with activation and proliferation of pathogen-specific T cells occurring in as little as 2 days, followed by egress of the expanded pool of effector cells after 5-6 days. B cell responses are initiated with similar rapidity, and B cells differentiate into short-lived antibody secreting cells (ASC) within days, while other B cells migrate to B cell follicles to form germinal centers (GC) and differentiate into high affinity plasma blasts (PB) or memory B cells. GCs form within days after infection but can persist for weeks or months. Notably, LN

expansion peaks 1-2 weeks after infection, which is delayed relative to the induction of T cell

responses, suggesting that remodelling of LN stromal cell networks may be particularly

important for supporting B cell responses. We have previously shown that LN enlargement

after HSV infection requires recruitment of lymphocytes from the circulation to induce LN

expansion, while B cells are required to sustain stromal cell responses [4].

The process of immune response generation in LNs draining the site of localized infection with

a single pathogen is well characterized. However, people are often infected with multiple

pathogens simultaneously, and such pathogen coinfections can substantially modulate immune

responses and the outcomes of infections [9, 10]. Yet, the mechanisms underlying altered

immunity during pathogen coinfections remains poorly understood. Here we investigated the

impact of systemic coinfection on LN remodelling and immune response generation following

localized viral infection. Both systemic coinfection of mice with lymphocytic choriomeningitis

virus (LCMV) and the induction of systemic inflammation, impaired LN swelling and LSC

expansion and inhibited B cell responses to localized infection. We show that systemic

inflammation induces a type I interferon (IFN-I) dependent lymphopenia, thereby impairing

the recruitment of B cells to draining LNs and hindering the induction of humoral immune

responses.

Results

Restrained LN remodelling and suppressed B cell responses after LCMV infection.

To investigate how different viral pathogens influence lymphoid tissue remodelling, we

infected mice subcutaneously in the footpad with HSV or LCMV Armstrong and enumerated

stromal cell populations in the draining popliteal LN (pLN) by flow cytometry 8 days after

infection (Fig. 1A). HSV inoculation results in an infection that remains localized to tissues

near the site of inoculation [4], whereas LCMV replicates locally as well as spreading

systemically, including to the spleen [11, 12]. HSV infection induced a marked increase in total

pLN cellularity and expanded all populations of pLN LSC: PDPN$^+$ FRC, PDPN$^+$ CD31$^+$ LEC,

CD31$^+$ BEC and CD31$^+$ PNAd$^+$ HEV (Fig. 1B). In contrast, LCMV infection resulted in only

a marginal increase in cellularity and no significant expansion of the subsets of LSC in the LN

compared to uninfected mice (Fig. 1B).

Examination of pLN by confocal microscopy revealed substantial enlargement of the draining

LN after HSV infection, whereas pLN were small and lacked organized B cell zones after

LCMV infection (Fig. 1C). Closer examination revealed substantial disorganisation of the

PDPN$^+$ T cell zone FRC network that ensheaths laminin$^+$ reticular fibers (Fig. 1D) and loss of

B cell zone stromal cell organisation after LCMV infection (Fig. 1E). Notably, in LCMV

infected mice B cell follicles were highly disorganized, and we could not detect FDC, whereas

B cell follicle organisation and FDCs were intact in HSV infected mice (Fig. 1E). Moreover,

we observed the formation of a network of PDPN$^+$ FRC on the capsular side of the B cell

follicles in LCMV infected mice (Fig. 1E, yellow arrows). This indicated that the B cell

follicles retracted from the LN capsule and a population of subcapsular PDPN$^+$ FRC formed in

this zone during LCMV infection.

Because MAdCAM-1$^+$ MRC form a specialized stromal layer between B cell follicles and the

subcapsular sinus, we postulated that the expanded subcapsular LSC in LCMV infected mice

might be MRC, but subsequent analysis revealed that MAdCAM-1$^+$ were not expanded

following LCMV infection. Conversely, we observed a substantial increase in MAdCAM-1$^+$

PDPN$^+$ FRC after HSV infection, but not after LCMV infection (Fig. 1F). Greater than half of

all FRC were MAdCAM-1$^+$ after HSV infection (Fig. 1G), suggesting that expression of this

adhesion molecule was upregulated after HSV but not LCMV infection. Staining of tissue

sections confirmed increased expression of MAdCAM-1 on T cell zone FRC in pLN after HSV

but not LCMV infection (Fig. S1). This suggests that MAdCAM-1, which is typically used to

define MRC and is also expressed by FDC in LNs, is not a reliable marker of MRC after infection.

Fig. 1. Restrained remodelling of the draining LN during LCMV infection. (A) Gating strategy to identify CD45⁻ Ter119⁻ stromal cell subsets by flow cytometry. (B) Numbers of total cells and stromal cell subsets in the pLN from uninfected (NI) mice and mice infected s.c. with HSV or LCMV analysed by flow cytometry. Graphs show pooled data (mean ± SEM) from 3 independent experiments each with 2-3 mice per group. *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, *** P < 0.001, ****P < 0.0001, ns, non-significant, by ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test. (C-E) pLN sections from NI, HSV or LCMV infected mice were stained for B220, Lyve1, CD31 and PNAd (C), laminin and podoplanin (D) or laminin, B220, podoplanin, amd FDC-M2 (E) and analysed by confocal microscopy. Data are representative of 2 experiments with 3 mice per group. Dotted lines depict border of B cell follicles and arrows show subcapsular FRC in LCMV pLN that were not observed in NI or HSV pLN. Scale bars, 200μm (C), 30μm (D-E) (F) MAdCAM-1 expression on FRC from NI mice and following HSV or LCMV infection. (G) Percentage and numbers of MAdCAM-1⁺ FRC in the pLN of NI and mice infected s.c. with HSV or LCMV. Graphs show pooled data (mean ± SEM) from 3 independent experiments each with 2-3 mice per group. ****P < 0.0001, ns, non-significant, by ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test.

Next, we examined virus-specific CD8$^+$ T cell responses in the pLN by major histocompatibility complex class I (MHC-I) tetramer staining. Local infection with LCMV induced larger numbers of virus-specific CD8$^+$ T cells compared to HSV infection (Fig. 2A-B). In contrast, we found that B cell numbers were significantly reduced in draining pLN after LCMV infection in comparison with HSV infected mice (Fig. 2D). Expansion of GL7$^+$ germinal center (GC) B cells and CD138$^+$ antibody secreting cells (ASC) was also significantly lower in the pLN after LCMV infection compared to HSV infection (Fig. 2C-E). B cell follicles were increased in size after HSV infection and contained GL7$^+$ GC B cells, while B cell follicles were markedly reduced in size and GL7$^+$ cells were extrafollicular in LCMV infected mice (Fig. 2F). Large numbers of CD138$^+$ ASC accumulated at the border between T and B cell zones and within the medullary cords after HSV infection, whereas ASC were reduced and only observed in the medulla during LCMV infection (Fig. 2F). Thus, LCMV infection results in impaired LN remodelling, loss of B cell follicles and restrained B cell responses in draining LN.

Fig. 2. Suppressed B cell responses during LCMV infection. (A) Tetramer staining of CD8$^+$ T cells, following HSV and LCMV infection. (B) Numbers of CD8$^+$ Tetramer$^+$ cells in the pLN of HSV and LCMV-infected mice. Data are pooled from 2 independent experiments with 3-4 mice per group. ***P < 0.001, by Mann-Whitney test. (C) Flow cytometry analysis of GL7$^+$ GC B cells and CD138$^+$ ASC. B cells were first gated on live CD19$^+$ CD3$^-$ NK1.1$^-$ cells. (D) Absolute numbers of B cells in the popliteal LN from NI mice and mice infected with HSV or LCMV. Graphs show pooled data (mean ± SEM) from 3 independent experiments each with 2-3 mice per group. ****P < 0.0001, ns, non-significant, by ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test. (E) ASC and GC B cells in the pLN from mice infected with HSV or LCMV. Graphs show pooled data (mean ± SEM) from 2 independent experiments each with 4 mice per group. *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, by unpaired two-tailed t test. (F) pLN sections from NI, HSV or LCMV

182 infected mice were stained for IgD, CD138, GL7 and Lyve1 and analysed by confocal
183 microscopy. Data are representative of 2 experiments with 3 mice per group. Scale bar, 200μm.
184

LCMV coinfection suppresses LN remodelling in response to localized infection.

The subdued stromal cell expansion and altered lymphoid tissue architecture observed
following LCMV infection led us to investigate the impact of LCMV infection on LN
remodelling during localized HSV coinfection. We infected mice with HSV in the footpad and
coinfected the mice 2 days later with LCMV either by the same route or systemically by
intraperitoneal infection (Fig. 3A). LCMV coinfection by either route markedly restrained the
increase in pLN cellularity induced by HSV infection and suppressed FRC expansion (Fig.
3B). Local infection with LCMV resulted in infection of pLN FRC whereas systemic LCMV
infection did not (Fig. S2A). Yet, both routes of infection resulted in equivalent suppression of
the draining LN response (Fig. 3B), ruling out an inhibitory role of LCMV through direct
infection of FRC. Since local LCMV infection also results in systemic spread of virus from the
LN to spleen [11], we performed subsequent experiments using systemic LCMV coinfection.
Importantly, LCMV coinfection did not alter the growth of HSV in the tissue (Fig. 3C).

We examined HSV-draining pLN sections by confocal microscopy and discovered that LCMV
coinfection prominently altered pLN remodelling in response to HSV. In coinfected mice B
cell follicles were small and disorganized and LYVE-1$^+$ medullary sinuses were more
prominent compared to mice infected with HSV alone (Fig. 3D). Closer examination of B cell
follicles in coinfected mice revealed fewer B cells, reduction of the FDC network within the
follicles and recession of the follicles away from the pLN subcapsular sinus (Fig. 3E).
Strikingly, a dense network of PDPN$^+$ FRC formed between B cell follicles and the pLN
capsule in coinfected mice (Fig. 3E, yellow arrows), similar to what we observed during local
LCMV infection (Fig. 1E), that was absent from mice infected with HSV alone.

Quantification of cells by flow cytometry revealed a significant reduction in total cellularity
and reduced expansion of pLN FRC, LEC, BEC and PNAd$^+$ HEV in HSV-draining LN from
LCMV coinfected mice (Fig. 3F). Coinfection suppressed the induction of MAdCAM-1 on
FRC (Fig. 3G), resulting in a significant reduction in both MAdCAM-1$^+$ as well as MAdCAM-
1$^-$ FRC (Fig. S2B). We also examined CD157 (BP-3) expression on FRC, a marker that has
been used to identify subpopulations of FRC including CD157-lo medullary FRC [13]. Both
CD157$^+$ T cell zone FRC and CD157-lo medullary FRC populations were reduced in the pLN

of mice coinfected with HSV and LCMV in comparison with mice infected with HSV alone
(Fig. 3H).

Fig. 3. LCMV coinfection suppresses lymphadenopathy to localized infection. (A) Experimental schematic of coinfection. Mice were infected subcutaneously (s.c.) with HSV and 2 d later infected with LCMV s.c. or intraperitoneally (i.p.). pLN were analysed 8 d post HSV infection. (B) Numbers of total cells and FRC in the pLN of infected mice analysed by flow cytometry. Graphs are representative of 2 experiments with 2-3 mice per group (mean ± SEM). (C) HSV viral load in the footpad of infected mice. Mice were infected as in A and footpad tissue harvested 5 d post-HSV infection for plaque assay. Data are pooled from 2 independent experiments with 4 mice per group. ns, non-significant, by Mann-Whitney test LD: limit of detection. (D-E) pLN sections from NI, HSV or coinfected mice were stained for B220, Lyve1, CD31, and PNAd (D), Laminin, B220, podoplanin, and FDC-M2 (E) and analysed by confocal microscopy. Data are representative of 2 experiments with 3 mice per group. Scale bar, 40μm. (F-G) Numbers of total cells and stromal cell subsets (F) and MAdCAM-1 expression analysis on FRC (G) in the pLN of HSV and coinfected mice analysed by flow cytometry. Graphs show pooled data (mean ± SEM) from 2 independent experiments with 4 mice per group. (H) Expression of CD157 on PDPN$^+$ CD31$^-$ MAdCAM-1$^-$ CD21/35$^-$ cells to define T cell zone FRC (CD157$^+$) and medullary FRC (CD157$^-$) by flow cytometry. Graphs are pooled data of 3 experiments with 2-4 mice per group (mean ± SEM). *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, *** P < 0.001, ****P < 0.0001, by unpaired two-tailed t test (F-H). (I) Mice were infected intranasally with Flu-gB and 2 d later infected systemically with LCMV. Mediastinal LN (medLN) were analysed 8 d post Flu infection. (J) Numbers of total cells, stromal cell subsets, and MAdCAM-1 expression analysis on FRC in the medLN of Flu and coinfected mice analysed by flow cytometry. Graphs show pooled data (mean ± SEM) from 2 independent experiments with 4-5 mice per group. *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, *** P < 0.001, ****P < 0.0001, by Mann-Whitney test. (K) Proliferation of stromal cell subsets following HSV and coinfection. Mice were infected as in A and pLN harvested 5 d post-HSV infection and intracellular KI67 expression was analysed flow cytometry. Graphs show pooled data (mean ± SEM) from 2 independent experiments each with 4 mice per group. *** P < 0.001, ****P < 0.0001, by unpaired two-tailed t test.

These data suggested that LCMV coinfection inhibited LN expansion in response to local HSV infection. To determine if systemic coinfection also suppressed dLN responses to other localized infections, we infected mice intranasally with Influenza A virus X31 and coinfected these mice with LCMV 2 days later (Fig. 3I). Coinfection suppressed immune responses in the draining mediastinal LNs (mLN), resulting in reduced cellularity and impaired expansion of FRC, LEC, BEC and PNAd$^+$ HEV, as well as impaired upregulation of MAdCAM-1 by mLN FRC compared to mice infected with influenza alone (Fig. 3J). This indicated that systemic infection concurrent with either a skin or respiratory viral infection suppresses immune responses in the LN draining the site of localized challenge.

Since systemic coinfection suppressed expansion of pLN LSC, we wanted to know if this was due to reduced proliferation or altered survival of LSC. We examined proliferating LSC in LCMV and HSV coinfected mice by staining for Ki67. Significantly fewer Ki67$^+$ FRC, LEC and BEC were detected in coinfected mice when compared to mice infected with HSV alone

(Fig. 3K). In contrast, coinfection did not alter the number of apoptotic (Annexin-V+ PI+) FRC, LEC or BEC compared to that observed following infection with HSV alone (Fig. S2C). Further, we observed no alterations in metabolic functions as determined by glucose or lipid uptake, mitochondrial mass or oxidative stress in pLN LSC in coinfected mice compared to mice infected with HSV alone (Fig. S2D-E). Thus, systemic LCMV coinfection suppressed dLN remodelling and stromal cell expansion in response to localized infection.

Systemic coinfection suppresses B cell responses to localized infection

We examined immune responses in HSV and LCMV coinfected mice and observed that although total numbers of CD8$^+$ T cells in the pLN were reduced by coinfection, HSV-specific CD8$^+$ T cell responses were unaffected (Fig. 4A). Systemic LCMV coinfection also reduced the accumulation of total CD4$^+$ T cells in the draining pLN and suppressed the induction of T follicular helper (T$_{FH}$) cells compared to mice infected with HSV alone (Fig. 4B, S3A). B cell numbers were significantly reduced in the pLN of coinfected mice and the induction of GC B cells and ASCs was impaired (Fig. 4C). This suppression of local B cell responses during LCMV coinfection was not due to increased apoptosis of B cells or T cells, as indicated by AnnexinV staining (Fig. 4D). Histological examination of pLN sections revealed a reduction in the size and numbers of GL7$^+$ GC B cells and fewer CD138$^+$ plasma cells in coinfected mice (Fig. 4E). Moreover, systemic LCMV coinfection significantly suppressed HSV-specific antibody responses (Fig. 4F).

To investigate the impact of systemic coinfection on the induction of local antigen-specific B cell responses, we examined ovalbumin (OVA)-specific B cell receptor transgenic OB-I B cell responses following transfer into B6 mice and immunization with OVA in complete freunds adjuvant (OVA/CFA) (Fig, 4G). OB-I B cells expanded significantly in the pLN following sub-cutaneous OVA/CFA immunization and formed GC B cells and ASCs (Fig. 4H and Fig S3B). Coinfection of mice with LCMV significantly impaired the expansion of the OB-I B cells in the pLN, reduced the number of GC cells and ASCs and reduced the frequency of OB-I B cells that developed into GC cells and ASCs (Fig. 4H and Fig. S3B). Together, these data show that systemic coinfection with an unrelated pathogen suppresses the induction of antigen-specific B cell responses in LN draining the site of a localized challenge.

291
Fig. 4. Systemic coinfection suppresses B cell responses to localized infection. (A-C) Mice
were infected as in Fig. 3A and pLN analysed for CD8$^+$ T cells and HSV gB tetramer$^+$ cells
(A), CD4$^+$ T cells and CXCR5$^+$ PD1$^+$ CD4$^+$ T$_{FH}$ cells (B) and B cells (C). Graphs show pooled
data (mean ± SEM) from 1-2 independent experiments with 4 mice per group. *P < 0.05, ***
P < 0.001, ****P < 0.0001, ns, non-significant, by unpaired two-tailed t test. (D) Coinfection
does not increase lymphocyte cell death. pLN from HSV and coinfected mice were harvested
5 d post-infection and analysed for Annexin V and PI expression on B and CD8$^+$ T cells by
flow cytometry. Inguinal LN from naïve mice were included as controls. Graphs show pooled
data (mean ± SEM) from 2 independent experiments with 4 mice per group. ns, non-significant,
by ns, non-significant, by unpaired two-tailed t test (E) pLN sections from NI, HSV or LCMV
infected mice were stained for IgD, CD138, GL7 and Lyve1 and analysed by confocal
microscopy. Data are representative of 2 experiments with 3 mice per group. Scale bar, 200μm.
(F) Serum anti–HSV-1 IgG titer assessed by ELISA. Mice were infected as in Fig. 3 and sera
harvested at day 8 and 14 post-HSV infection. Graph shows pooled data (mean ± SEM) from
2 independent experiments with 4 mice per group. *P < 0.05, ** P < 0.01, by unpaired two-
tailed t test. (G) Experimental schematic. Mice were given CD45.1$^+$ OBI B cells 1 day prior to
footpad immunization with OVA/CFA. Mice were infected with LCMV i.p. 2 days later. pLN
were analysed 8 d. (H) OBI B cell response in the pLN. Mice were injected i.v. with transgenic
OBI-GFP cells and two days later injected s.c. with an emulsion of OVA/CFA. Mice were
infected i.p. with LCMV 2 d post immunisation and pLN harvested 8 d post OVA/CFA
injection. Graphs show pooled data (mean ± SEM) from 2 independent experiments with 4
mice per group. *P < 0.05, ** P < 0.01, by Mann-Whitney test.

Coinfection-induced lymphopenia suppresses LN expansion and B cell responses

CTL can kill virus infected stromal cells and B cells during infection of mice with strains of LCMV that cause chronic infection[14, 15]. To determine if CD8$^+$ T cells contributed to reduced LN expansion and B cell responses during coinfection with LCMV Armstrong, which is an acute infection, we infected mice with HSV then treated with depleting anti-CD8α antibody prior to LCMV coinfection (Fig. 5A). Suppression of pLN remodelling and impairment of B cell responses in LCMV coinfected mice was unaffected by the loss of CD8$^+$ T cells (Fig. 5B and Fig. S3C). Myeloid cells can also impact B cell responses during chronic LCMV infection[16], but B cell responses were restrained in the dLN of LCMV infected CCR2$^{-/-}$ mice that have defective recruitment of monocytes (Fig. S3D).

The reduction in B and T lymphocytes in the pLN of LCMV coinfected mice led us to hypothesize that LCMV infection induces a general lymphopaenia that inhibits lymphocyte recruitment to the draining LN during peripheral viral infection. To examine this, we treated HSV-infected mice with the immunomodulatory drug FTY720 to induce a systemic lymphopenia [17] (Fig. 5C). Expansion of pLN LSC, and upregulation of MAdCAM-1 by FRC was impaired in FTY720 treated HSV infected mice compared to untreated controls (Fig. 5D). B cell accumulation and induction of GC B cells and ASC was also inhibited in FTY720 treated mice, whereas virus-specific CD8$^+$ T cell responses were unchanged, suggesting that lymphopenia impairs the induction of local B cell responses and LN remodelling but not virus-specific CD8$^+$ T cell responses (Fig. 5E).

To determine if B cell recruitment was required for expansion of the LN, we treated mice with an anti-CD20 antibody to deplete B cells prior to HSV infection and examined stromal cell and T cell responses in B cell ablated mice (Fig. 5F and Fig. S3E). In the absence of B cells, FRC expansion was significantly reduced and upregulation of MAdCAM-1 by FRC was blunted, whereas LEC and BEC expansion was unaffected (Fig. 5G). T cell recruitment to the HSV-draining pLN and induction of HSV-specific CD8$^+$ T cell responses were unimpaired by depletion of B cells (Fig. 5H). Thus, recruitment of B cells to the dLN during localized viral infection is required to drive FRC expansion, while additional signals contribute to the remodelling of LN endothelial cell compartments.

343
344
Figure 5. Lymphopenia induced during systemic infection suppresses local LN responses.
(A) Experimental schematic of CD8$^+$ T cell depletion during coinfection. Mice were infected
s.c. with HSV and injected with CD8 depleting antibody on days 1 and 2. Mice were infected
with LCMV on day 2. pLN were analysed 8 d post HSV infection. (B) Numbers of B cells and
FRC in the pLN of mice infected with HSV or coinfected with or without CD8$^+$ T cells. Graphs
show pooled data (mean ± SEM) from 2 independent experiments with 3-4 mice per group. ns,
non-significant, by ANOVA with Krukal-Wallis test. (C) Experimental schematic of FTY720
treatment during HSV infection. Mice were infected s.c. with HSV and the following day
injected i.p. with FTY720 or control for 7 d. pLN were analysed 8 d post-HSV infection. (D-
E) Absolute numbers of stromal cell subsets and MAdCAM-1 expression on FRC (D), B and
T cell responses (E) in pLN of HSV infected mice treated with FTY720. Graphs show pooled
data (mean ± SEM) from 2 independent experiments with 5 mice per group. (F) Experimental
schematic of B cell depletion during HSV infection. Mice were injected i.p. with CD20
depleting antibody and the following day infected s.c. with HSV. (G-H) Analysis of stromal
cells and T cells by flow cytometry in HSV-infected B cell-depleted mice. Graphs show pooled
data (mean ± SEM) from 2 independent experiments with 3-4 mice per group. *P < 0.05, **P
< 0.01, *** P < 0.001, ****P < 0.0001, ns, non-significant, by Mann-Whitney test (D-E, G-
H).

Systemic inflammation suppresses local immunity via IFN-I

We hypothesized that systemic inflammation was responsible for the lymphopenia-induced

suppression of local LN responses. To examine this, we administered the TLR agonists

poly(I:C) or lipopolysaccharide (LPS) to HSV infected mice (Fig. 6A). Both inflammatory

mediators substantially reduced the HSV-driven increase in pLN cellularity, FRC expansion,

as well as B cell responses (Fig. 6B). Systemic LCMV infection induces the production of pro-

inflammatory cytokines, including type I interferon (IFN-I) [18]. LCMV induced a substantial B

cell lymphopenia in mice that was dependent on IFN-I receptor (IFNAR) signalling as it did

not occur in IFNAR$^{-/-}$ mice (Fig. 6C). To determine a role for IFNAR signals for suppression

of local LN responses, we administered blocking antibodies against IFNAR (anti-IFNAR) to

mice infected with HSV or mice coinfected with LCMV in order to reduce IFNAR signals (Fig.

6D). Anti-IFNAR treatment did not significantly alter responses in mice infected singly with

HSV (Fig. 6E). In contrast, anti-IFNAR blockade significantly enhanced the expansion of FRC,

LEC, BEC and HEV in coinfected mice (Fig. 6E and Fig. S4A). HSV-specific T cell responses

were not altered by anti-IFNAR treatment (Fig. 6F), but T and B cell recruitment, GC B cells

and ASC numbers were restored by anti-IFNAR treatment of coinfected mice (Fig. 6G and Fig.

S4A).

We asked whether B cell intrinsic IFNAR signals contributed to reduced LN hypertrophy and

B cell recruitment during coinfection. We generated chimeric mice with a mixture of B cell

deficient (μMT$^{-/-}$) and IFNAR$^{-/-}$ BM to confine the lack of IFNAR expression to B cells (Fig.

S4B). However, loss of IFNAR in B cells did not restore LN remodelling or B cell responses

in coinfected mice to the levels observed in mice infected with HSV alone (Fig. S4C).

Together, these findings show that systemic inflammation during coinfection results in an

IFNAR-dependent lymphopenia that reduces cell recruitment to LN draining the site of local

infection and impairs LN remodelling and humoral immunity.

Figure 6. Systemic inflammation suppresses local immunity via IFN-I. (A) Experimental schematic of adjuvant injection in HSV-infected mice. Mice were infected s.c. with HSV and 2 d later received 2 i.p. injections of either poly(I:C) or LPS 24 h apart. pLN were harvested 8 d post-HSV infection. (B) Numbers of total cells, FRC and B cells analysed by flow cytometry in infected mice injected with poly(I:C) or LPS. Graphs show pooled data (mean ± SEM) from 2 independent experiments with 5 mice per group. (C) B cell cellularity in the blood of infected mice. WT or IFNAR KO mice were infected with HSV s.c. and the following day infected with LCMV i.p. Blood was collected on day 3 and B cell numbers analysed by flow cytometry. Graph shows pooled data (mean ± SEM) from 2 independent experiments with 2-4 mice per group. **P < 0.01, *** P < 0.001, ****P < 0.0001, ns, non-significant, by ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparisons test (B, C) and Games-Howell's multiple comparisons test (E). (D) Experimental schematic of IFNAR blocking during HSV and coinfection. Mice were infected s.c. with HSV, infected i.p. with LCMV on day 2 and injected with anti-IFNAR blocking antibody or isotype control (ISC) antibody on days 2-4. Mice were analysed on 8 d post-HSV infection. (E-G) Analysis of cellularity of stromal cell subsets (E), HSV-specific CD8^{+} T cells (F) and B cell response (G) in the pLN of HSV and coinfected mice during IFNAR blocking. Graphs show pooled data (mean ± SEM) from 2 independent experiments with 5 mice per group. *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ****P < 0.0001, ns, non-significant, by unpaired two-tailed t test (E-G)

Discussion

Coinfection with multiple pathogens occurs frequently and can alter disease outcomes and subsequent immunity [9, 10]. Diverse mechanisms likely contribute to altered immunity during pathogen coinfections, yet our understanding of these processes remains incomplete. Here, we show that widespread inflammation triggered by systemic coinfection impairs dLN remodelling and B cell responses during localised viral infections or immunization. Mechanistically, systemic inflammation results in a generalized IFN-I-dependent lymphopenia and impairs the recruitment of lymphocytes to LN draining sites of peripheral infection, thereby constraining the induction of local humoral immunity.

Many medically important pathogens cause acute or persistent systemic infections, and evidence suggests that immunity to vaccination or challenge with unrelated pathogens is often impaired during coinfection [9, 19]. Models of viral and bacterial coinfection have revealed increased susceptibility to infection and altered responses. During the early stage of LCMV infection, IFN-I sensitizes mice to bacterial endotoxin [18, 20], which can lead to NK cell-mediated impairment of the CD8$^+$ T cell responses [21]. Coinfection of mice with two systemic viral pathogens, LCMV and Ectromelia virus [22] or LCMV and Pichinde virus was also found to impair CD8$^+$ T cell responses to LCMV [23].

We found that LCMV coinfection did not inhibit HSV-specific CD8$^+$ T cell responses but rather impaired the induction of local B cell responses. In humans, humoral immunity can be impacted during coinfections, although coinfection may both directly and indirectly affect B cell differentiation and antibody production [9]. Bacterial coinfection of mice with *Streptococcus pneumoniae* was shown to either enhance or inhibit B cell responses to influenza virus depending on the timing of respiratory coinfection [24]. During the early phase of chronic LCMV infection, virus-specific B cell responses can be inhibited by IFN-I production that results in death of activated B cells and induction of short-lived ASCs at the expense of sustained neutralizing antibody responses [15, 16, 25]. Other viruses also directly interfere with B cell responses via a variety of mechanism [26].

Here, we describe novel pathway by which coinfection can impede B cell responses. We show that systemic inflammation induced by LCMV infection, the TLR3 agonist Poly(I:C) or the endotoxin LPS induced a lymphopenia that reduced the recruitment of lymphocytes to the dLN during localized infection. This suppression of dLN swelling, stromal cell expansion and B cell

immunity suggests that opportunistic localized infections might occur more frequently or be
harder to eradicate in hosts undergoing systemic inflammatory reactions. We would also
predict that both infectious and non-infectious systemic inflammatory reactions could suppress
regional immunity when occuring contemporaneously. In contrast, latent coinfection with
murine gammaherpesvirus 68 or murine cytomegalovirus was shown to protect against
bacterial infection [27], at least transiently [28], due to the systemic production of low levels of
cytokines. This indicates that the magnitude of systemic inflammation can influence the
outcomes of immunity.

Recruitment of lymphocytes to inflamed LNs triggers LN expansion in response to infection
or immunization [4, 29]. This requires circulating lymphocytes as a source of cells to feed the
draining LN. Systemic infections and autoimmune diseases including systemic lupus
erythematosus (SLE) can induce lymphopenia, resulting in the trapping of lymphocytes in
secondary lymphoid organs around the body, thereby reducing the circulating pool of
lymphocytes. We show that induction of lymphopenia during systemic infection, inflammation
or following FTY720 treatment impairs draining LN responses. B cells can coordinate the
expansion of the lymphatic network in LNs during inflammation[30]. We show that removal of
B cells impaired the expansion and activation of FRC but had little impact on expansion of
LEC or BEC during local HSV infection. The reason for this difference is unclear but may
reflect the ability of both $CD4^+$ and $CD8^+$ T cells to also support LN expansion and remodelling
[4].

Our results show that lymphopenia impairs lymphocyte recruitment and LN remodelling,
which impairs B cell responses but does not impact CTL responses. LN hypertrophy peaks 1-
2 weeks after infection, whereas T cells are activated and leave the draining LNs within 1 week
[31]. Conversely, B cells require a prolonged period of activation and maturation within LN in
order to form antibody secreting plasma cells and long-lived memory B cells [32]. This indicates
that lymphadenopathy may be critical for the support of B cell responses, probably to support
GC reactions and memory B cell formation in the dLN. In support of this, we also observed
reduced numbers of T_{FH} cells in coinfected mice. Recruitment of cells to the dLN and
expansion of LSC during infection requires IFNAR signalling [4]. Although antibody responses
can be enhanced via direct stimulation of T cells by IFN-I [33], we did not find a role for direct
IFNAR signalling in B cells. Whether IFNAR signalling on multiple cells types is sufficient to
dampen B cell responses during coinfection will require further investigation.

Overall, our data show that systemic inflammation impacts remodelling of LN and local B cell
responses during localized challenge. It will be important to determine how systemic
inflammatory responses in humans impact regional immunity and the progression of diseases
that are initiated in barrier tissues.

482
483

Methods

Mice. C57BL/6, B6.SJL-PtprcaPep3b/BoyJ (CD45.1), OBI x B6.129S7-$Rag1^{tm1Mom}$/J (OBI.RAG$^{-/-}$)[34], IFN-αR2$^{-/-}$, B6.129S2-$Ighm^{tm1Cgn}$/J (μMT$^{-/-}$) and B6.129S4-$Ccr2^{tm1Ifc}$/J (CCR2$^{-/-}$) mice were bred in the Department of Microbiology and Immunology. Animal experiments were approved by The University of Melbourne Animal Ethics Committee. All mice were sex and aged matched and used between 8-14 weeks old at the beginning of experiments.

Virus infections. Mice were infected subcutaneously (s.c.) in the footpad with either 5×10^4 plaque-forming units (PFU) of HSV-1 (KOS) or 2×10^4 PFU of LCMV (Armstrong). Mice were infected intranasally with 10^4 of the recombinant influenza virus X31 expressing the HSV glycoprotein-B-derived epitope gB$_{498-505}$ as described[35]. For all infections, mice were anaesthetized with isoflurane vaporized in O$_2$. Unless stated otherwise mice were coinfected intraperitoneally with 2×10^5 PFU of LCMV Armstrong two days after footpad HSV infection. HSV-1 viral titers were determined in homogenized footpads by PFU assay as described[12].

Stromal cell isolation and flow cytometry. pLN and iLN were harvested and processed as described previously[4]. Briefly, LN were teased apart with forceps and incubated at 37°C in RPMI with collagenase D, Dispase and DNase for 25 minutes. Following a second round of digestion for 15 minutes, single cell suspensions were resuspended in FACS buffer (PBS 2% BSA 5mM EDTA) and filtered through 70μM before antibody staining. Antibodies used in this study are listed in Table S1.

Live cells were discriminated with a fixable LIVE/DEAD™ Fixable Near-IR Dead Cell Stain Kit (Thermofischer). Annexin V staining was carried out with Annexin V PE and 7AAD from Biolegend according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Intracellular staining for KI67 and LCMV were performed using BD Cytofix/Cytoperm™ Fixation/Permeabilization Solution Kit according to the manufacturer's instructions. Purified LCMV antibody (Clone VL4, BioXcell) was conjugated to Alexa Fluor™ 594 with antibody labelling kit (ThermoFischer) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Endogenous HSV and LCMV-specific CD8 T cells were identified with H-2Kb-gB$_{498-505}$ and H-2Db-gp$_{33-41}$ (MBL international)-restricted tetramer staining respectively.

For metabolism analysis, cells were incubated with Mitotracker Deep Red FM, Bodipy FL C 16, CellROX orange reagent or 2-NBDG (all from ThermoFischer) in RPMI supplemented with 10% FCS for 30 minutes at 37°C except for 2-NBDG where glucose-free RPMI (ThermoFischer) was used instead.

Cells were enumerated by adding SPHERO calibration particles (BD Biosciences) to each sample before acquisition using FACSCantoII or FACSFortessa (both BD) and Flowjo software was used for analysis.

Immunomodulatory treatments. For $CD8^+$ T cell depletion, mice were injected i.p. twice with 100 µg of anti-CD8 antibody (clone 2.43), 24 hours apart. B cells were depleted with a single injection of 50 µg of anti-mouse CD20 antibody (clone 5D2, Genentech) prior HSV infection. To block lymphocyte egress, FTY720 (2-amino-2-(2-[4-octylphenyl]ethyl)-1,3-propanediol; Cayman chemical, #402616-26-6) was dissolved in 2% cyclodextrin (Sigma) in PBS and i.p. administered daily in mice at a dose of 1mg/kg from day 1 to day 7 post-HSV infection. Control mice were administered with 2% cyclodextrin only. To analyse the effect of systemic inflammation on local immune responses, HSV-infected mice were injected i.p. twice with either 50 µg Polyinosinic:polycytidylic acid high molecular weight (Poly(:IC), InvivoGen) or 5 µg of LPS (Sigma), 24 hours apart. IFNAR in vivo blocking during coinfection was performed by injecting infected mice with 500 µg of anti-IFNAR-1 (clone MAR1-5A3, from BioXcell) or isotype control antibody (clone MOPC-21, BioXcell) for two consecutive days and 250 µg on the third day. Immunization of mice was carried out by injecting 100µg of OVA (Sigma) emulsified in CFA (Sigma) s.c.

Generation of bone marrow chimeric mice. C57BL/6-Ly5.1 recipient mice were lethally irradiated with two doses of 550 rads, 3 h apart, followed by reconstitution with a 80/20 mixture of 8 x 10^6 $\mu MT^{-/-}$ / WT or $\mu MT^{-/-}$ / IFN-$\alpha R2^{-/-}$ donor bone marrow cells and maintained in antibiotic water (neomycin and polymyxin B) for 4 weeks. Recipients were used 8 weeks post-reconstitution.

Immunofluorescence and confocal microscopy. Lymph nodes were harvested and fixed in periodate-lysine-paraformaldehyde (PLP) fixative for 4 hours, incubated in 30% sucrose and embedded in OCT freezing media. LN were harvested and immediately embedded in OCT freezing media. Tissue sections were cut at 16 µm thickness with a cryostat (Leica CM3050S)

and air-dried before being fixed in acetone for 5 min, dried, and then blocked for 30 min
(Protein Block X0909, DAKO) at room temperature (RT). Sections were staining with primary
antibodies for 1 hour at RT, washed in PBS and when required stained with secondary
antibodies for 45 minutes at RT. Stained sections were mounted in ProLong Gold antifade
reagent (Invitrogen), and acquired on a LSM780 or LSM710 confocal microscope (Carl Zeiss)
and images processed with Imaris (Bitplane). Antibodies used for histology are listed in Table
S1.
557
Detection of HSV-1 IgG by ELISA. Nunc MaxiSorp round-bottom 96-well ELISA microtiter
plates (Thermo Scientific) were coated overnight at 4°C with 10 μg/ml HSV-1 inactivated Vero
cell extract (Advanced Biotechnologies). Unbound protein was washed away (PBS 0.05%
Tween20) and serially diluted serum samples (PBS 0.5% BSA) were plated and incubated at
RT for two hours. Bound mouse IgG Abs were detected using donkey anti-mouse IgG-HRP
and visualized using o-Phenylenediamine. The OD readings were determined at 450/492 nm.
Endpoint titers of anti-HSV-1 were calculated by using cut-off values defined as double the
OD of non-infected serum control.
566
567 **Statistical analysis.** Graphs and statistics were generated using Prism 8 (GraphPad). Samples
568 were tested for normality and two groups were compared using two-tailed Mann-Whitney U-
569 test or unpaired t-test. Multiple groups were analysed with one-way Anova followed by
570 Tukey's post-test comparison or Kruskal-Wallis, based on Gaussian distribution. All graphs
571 depict means ± SEM.
572
573

574   **Table S1.** Antibodies used for immunofluorescence staining, flow cytometry, blocking and

575   depletion experiments.

Antibody	Clone	Supplier	Application	Fluorochrome
anti-Hamster	Polyclonal	Invitrogen	IF	A647
anti-Rabbit IgG	Polyclonal	Invitrogen	IF	A488
anti-Rabbit IgG	Polyclonal	Invitrogen	IF	A594
anti-Rat IgG	Polyclonal	Invitrogen	IF	A594
B220	RA3-6B2	Biolegend	IF	Pacific Blue
B220	RA3-6B2	Biolegend	FC	PE-Cy7
B220	RA3-6B2	Biolegend	FC	A700
CD138	281-2	BD	FC	PE
CD138	281-2	Biolegend	IF	A647
CD157	BP-3	Biolegend	FC	APC
CD157	BP-3	BD OptiBuild	FC	BV650
CD19	1D3	BD	FC	PerCP/Cy5.5
CD19	1D3	BD	FC	BV605
CD20	5D2	Genentech	depletion	purified
CD31	390	Biolegend	FC	BV421
CD31	MEC13.3	BD	FC	PE
CD31	MEC13.3	Biolegend	IF	A647
CD31	390	ThermoFisher	FC	FITC
CD31	390	Biolegend	FC	Pe-Cy7
CD38	90	Biolegend	FC	PE-Cy7
CD3e	eBio500A2	ThermoFisher	FC	A700
CD4	RM4-5	Biolegend	FC	BV605
CD4	RM4-5	BD	FC	PE-Cy7
CD4	RM4-5	BD	FC	APC
CD45	l3/2.3	Biolegend	FC	A700
CD45	30-F11	BD	FC	PerCP
CD45.2	104	BD	FC	A700
CD8a	2.43	Bio X Cell	depletion	purified
CD8a	53-6.7	Biolegend	FC	BV785
CD8a	53-6.7	Biolegend	FC	APC
CD8b	eBioH35-17.2	ThermoFisher	FC	APC
CD8b	YTS156.7.7	Biolegend	FC	A700
CD8b	H35-17.2	BD	FC	BV785
CXCR5	SPRCL5	ThermoFisher	FC	Biotin
FDCM2	FDC-M2	ImmunoKontact	FC	purified
GL7	GL7	Biolegend	FC	A647
GL7	GL7	Biolegend	IF	Pacific Blue
IFNAR-1	MAR1-5A3	Bio X Cell	blocking	purified
IgD	11-26c.2a	Biolegend	IF	A594
IgG1 isotype control	MOPC-21	Bio X Cell	blocking	purified
KI-67	SolA15	ThermoFisher	FC	eFluor660
Laminin	polyclonal	Abcam	IF	purified
LCMV	VL4	Bio X Cell	FC	purified

Lyve1	polyclonal	Abcam	IF	purified
MAdCAM-1	MECA-367	Biolegend	FC	Biotin
MAdCAM-1	MECA-367	Biolegend	IF	purified
PD1	29F.1A12	Biolegend	FC	PerCP/C5.5
PNAd	MECA-79	ThermoFisher	FC, IF	A488
podoplanin	8.1.1	ThermoFisher	FC	PE
podoplanin	8.1.1	Biolegend	FC	PE-Cy7
podoplanin	8.1.1	Biolegend	IF	purified
podoplanin	8.1.1	ThermoFisher	FC	A488
RANK-L	IK22/5	ThermoFisher	FC	Biotin
Streptavidin		Life Technologies	IF	A555
Streptavidin		BD	FC	APC
Streptavidin		BD	FC	FITC
Streptavidin		BD	FC	PE
Streptavidin		Biolegend	FC	BV711
Streptavidin		BD	FC	PE-Cy7
TCRb	H57-597	BD	FC	BV711
TCRb	H57-597	BD	FC	FITC
TER-119	TER-119	ThermoFisher	FC	PerCP.Cy5.5
TER-119	TER-119	Biolegend	FC	A700

IF, immunofluorescence; FC, flow cytometry

Acknowledgments

We thank Hidde Ploegh (Whitehead Institute, Cambridge, MA) for OBI mice, Genentech for anti-mouse CD20 antibody, the Biological Optical Microscopy Platform (BOMP) for support, and Yu Kato for advice on HSV ELISA.

Funding: This work was supported by the National Health and Medical Research Council of Australia and the Australian Research Council (to LKM, WRH and SNM).

Author contributions: Conceptualization, YOA and SNM; Methodology, YOA and SD; Investigation, YOA, SD, and SLP; Writing, YOA and SNM; Resources, LKM and WRH; Visualization, YOA and SNM; Funding acquisition, SNM.

Competing interests: The authors declare no competing interests.

References

1. Alexandre YO, Mueller SN. Stromal cell networks coordinate immune response generation and maintenance. *Immunol Rev* **283**, 77-85 (2018).

2. Mueller SN, Germain RN. Stromal cell contributions to the homeostasis and functionality of the immune system. *Nat Rev Immunol* **9**, 618-629 (2009).

3. Malhotra D*, et al.* Transcriptional profiling of stroma from inflamed and resting lymph nodes defines immunological hallmarks. *Nat Immunol* **13**, 499-510 (2012).

4. Gregory JL*, et al.* Infection Programs Sustained Lymphoid Stromal Cell Responses and Shapes Lymph Node Remodeling upon Secondary Challenge. *Cell Rep* **18**, 406-418 (2017).

5. Mueller SN*, et al.* Regulation of homeostatic chemokine expression and cell trafficking during immune responses. *Science* **317**, 670-674 (2007).

6. Groom JR*, et al.* CXCR3 chemokine receptor-ligand interactions in the lymph node optimize CD4+ T helper 1 cell differentiation. *Immunity* **37**, 1091-1103 (2012).

7. Denton AE, Roberts EW, Linterman MA, Fearon DT. Fibroblastic reticular cells of the lymph node are required for retention of resting but not activated CD8+ T cells. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **111**, 12139-12144 (2014).

8. Cremasco V*, et al.* B cell homeostasis and follicle confines are governed by fibroblastic reticular cells. *Nat Immunol* **15**, 973-981 (2014).

9. Stelekati E, Wherry EJ. Chronic bystander infections and immunity to unrelated antigens. *Cell Host Microbe* **12**, 458-469 (2012).

10. Mabbott NA. The Influence of Parasite Infections on Host Immunity to Co-infection With Other Pathogens. *Front Immunol* **9**, 2579 (2018).

11. Olson MR, McDermott DS, Varga SM. The initial draining lymph node primes the bulk of the CD8 T cell response and influences memory T cell trafficking after a systemic viral infection. *PLoS Pathog* **8**, e1003054 (2012).

12. Jones CM*, et al.* Herpes simplex virus type 1-specific cytotoxic T-lymphocyte arming occurs within lymph nodes draining the site of cutaneous infection. *J Virol* **74**, 2414-2419 (2000).

13. Huang HY*, et al.* Identification of a new subset of lymph node stromal cells involved in regulating plasma cell homeostasis. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **115**, E6826-E6835 (2018).

14. Mueller SN*, et al.* Viral targeting of fibroblastic reticular cells contributes to immunosuppression and persistence during chronic infection. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **104**, 15430-15435 (2007).

15. Moseman EA, Wu T, de la Torre JC, Schwartzberg PL, McGavern DB. Type I interferon suppresses virus-specific B cell responses by modulating CD8(+) T cell differentiation. *Sci Immunol* **1**, (2016).

16. Sammicheli S*, et al.* Inflammatory monocytes hinder antiviral B cell responses. *Sci Immunol* **1**, (2016).

17. Halin C*, et al.* The S1P-analog FTY720 differentially modulates T-cell homing via HEV: T-cell-expressed S1P1 amplifies integrin activation in peripheral lymph nodes but not in Peyer patches. *Blood* **106**, 1314-1322 (2005).

18. Doughty L, Nguyen K, Durbin J, Biron C. A role for IFN-alpha beta in virus infection-induced sensitization to endotoxin. *J Immunol* **166**, 2658-2664 (2001).

19. Griffiths EC, Pedersen AB, Fenton A, Petchey OL. The nature and consequences of coinfection in humans. *J Infect* **63**, 200-206 (2011).

20. Nansen A, Randrup Thomsen A. Viral infection causes rapid sensitization to lipopolysaccharide: central role of IFN-alpha beta. *J Immunol* **166**, 982-988 (2001).

21. Straub T, Freudenberg MA, Schleicher U, Bogdan C, Gasteiger G, Pircher H. Bacterial coinfection restrains antiviral CD8 T-cell response via LPS-induced inhibitory NK cells. *Nat Commun* **9**, 4117 (2018).

22. McAfee MS, Huynh TP, Johnson JL, Jacobs BL, Blattman JN. Interaction between unrelated viruses during in vivo co-infection to limit pathology and immunity. *Virology* **484**, 153-162 (2015).

23. Kenney LL, Cornberg M, Chen AT, Emonet S, de la Torre JC, Selin LK. Increased Immune Response Variability during Simultaneous Viral Coinfection Leads to Unpredictability in CD8 T Cell Immunity and Pathogenesis. *J Virol* **89**, 10786-10801 (2015).

24. Wu Y*, et al.* Lethal coinfection of influenza virus and Streptococcus pneumoniae lowers antibody response to influenza virus in lung and reduces numbers of germinal center B cells, T follicular helper cells, and plasma cells in mediastinal lymph Node. *J Virol* **89**, 2013-2023 (2015).

25. Fallet B*, et al.* Interferon-driven deletion of antiviral B cells at the onset of chronic infection. *Sci Immunol* **1**, (2016).

26. Kuka M, Iannacone M. Viral subversion of B cell responses within secondary lymphoid organs. *Nat Rev Immunol* **18**, 255-265 (2018).

27. Barton ES*, et al.* Herpesvirus latency confers symbiotic protection from bacterial infection. *Nature* **447**, 326-329 (2007).

28. Yager EJ*, et al.* gamma-Herpesvirus-induced protection against bacterial infection is transient. *Viral Immunol* **22**, 67-72 (2009).

29.   Yang CY*, et al.* Trapping of naive lymphocytes triggers rapid growth and remodeling
of the fibroblast network in reactive murine lymph nodes. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*
111, E109-118 (2014).

30.   Angeli V*, et al.* B cell-driven lymphangiogenesis in inflamed lymph nodes enhances
dendritic cell mobilization. *Immunity* **24**, 203-215 (2006).

31.   Hor JL, Whitney PG, Zaid A, Brooks AG, Heath WR, Mueller SN. Spatiotemporally
Distinct Interactions with Dendritic Cell Subsets Facilitates CD4+ and CD8+ T Cell
Activation to Localized Viral Infection. *Immunity* **43**, 554-565 (2015).

32.   Cyster JG, Allen CDC. B Cell Responses: Cell Interaction Dynamics and Decisions.
Cell **177**, 524-540 (2019).

33.   Le Bon A*, et al.* Cutting edge: enhancement of antibody responses through direct
stimulation of B and T cells by type I IFN. *J Immunol* **176**, 2074-2078 (2006).

34.   Dougan SK*, et al.* IgG1+ ovalbumin-specific B-cell transnuclear mice show class
switch recombination in rare allelically included B cells. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **109**,
13739-13744 (2012).

35.   Davies B, Prier JE, Jones CM, Gebhardt T, Carbone FR, Mackay LK. Cutting Edge:
Tissue-Resident Memory T Cells Generated by Multiple Immunizations or Localized
Deposition Provide Enhanced Immunity. *J Immunol* **198**, 2233-2237 (2017).

Supplemental Figures

721
722   **Fig. S1. FRC upregulate MAdCAM-1 expression during HSV infection.** pLN sections from
723   NI, HSV or LCMV infected mice were stained for B220, RANK-L and MAdCAM-1, and
724   analysed by confocal microscopy. Data are representative of 2 experiments with 3 mice per
725   group. Scale bar, 40µm.
726

727
Fig. S2. Systemic coinfection impairs stromal cell expansion. (A) Mice were infected with
LCMV s.c. or i.p. and pLN harvested 3 d post-infection. LCMV was detected by intracellular
staining and analysed by flow cytometry. Left graph displays total LCMV infected cells, right
graph the percentage of infected FRC. Graphs show pooled data (mean ± SEM) from 2
independent experiments with 3 mice per group. **P < 0.01, by Mann-Whitney test (B) Mice
were infected with HSV or coinfected as described in Fig. 3. Numbers of FRC expressing or
not MAdCAM-1 in pLN were analysed by flow cytometry. Graphs show pooled data (mean ±

SEM) from 2 independent experiments with 4 mice per group. *P < 0.05, *** P < 0.001, by
unpaired two-tailed t test. (C) pLN from HSV and coinfected mice were harvested 5 d post-
infection and analysed for Annexin V and PI expression on stromal cells by flow cytometry.
iLN from naïve mice were included as controls. Graphs show pooled data (mean ± SEM) from
2 independent experiments with 4 mice per group. ns, non-significant, by by unpaired two-
tailed t test (D-E) Metabolism of stromal cells during infection. Mice were infected as in Fig.
3 and pLN harvested 8 days post-infection. iLN from naïve mice were used as controls. Cells
were incubated with the fluorescent glucose analog 2-NBDG, the fluorescent fatty acid analog
BODIPY FL C16, Mitotracker or CellRox before analysis by flow cytometry. Representative
histograms on FRC (D) and analysis of geometric mean values on stromal cell subsets (E).
Graphs show pooled data (mean ± SEM) from two independent experiments with 3-4 mice per
group.
747

Fig. S3. Lymphopenia suppresses LN expansion and B cell responses.

(A) Gating strategy to identify T_{FH} in infected mice. $CD4^+$ T cells were analysed for CXCR5 and PD1 expression and TFH cells defined as $CD4^+$ $CXCR5^+$ $PD1^+$ cells. (B) OBI B cell response in the pLN. Mice were injected i.v. with transgenic OBI-GFP cells and two days later injected s.c. with an emulsion of OVA/CFA. Mice were infected i.p. with LCMV 2 d post immunisation and pLN harvested 8 d post OVA/CFA injection. Gating strategy to identify OBI cells in the pLN. $CD19^+$ $CD3\varepsilon^-$ B cells were analysed for GFP expression and OBI cells analysed for GL7 and CD138 expression to identify GC OBI and ASC OBI. (C) Experimental

procedure as in Fig. 5A. Absolute numbers of CD8$^+$ T cells BEC and LEC in the pLN of mice
infected with HSV or coinfected with or without CD8$^+$ T cells. Graphs show pooled data (mean
± SEM) from 2 independent experiments with 3-4 mice per group. **$P < 0.01$, ****$P < 0.0001$,
ns, non-significant, by ANOVA with Krukal-Wallis test (D) Monocytes are not required for
CD8$^+$ and B cell responses during LCMV infection. WT and CCR2 KO mice were infected
with LCMV s.c. and pLN harvested 8 d post-infection. B cell and T cell responses were
analysed by flow cytometry. Graphs show data from 1 representative experiment out of 2
(mean ± SEM) with 4-5 mice per group. (E) B cell depletion following CD20 antibody
depleting antibody injection. See Fig. 5F for experimental procedure. *$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$,
ns, non-significant, by Mann-Whitney test.
768
769

Fig. S4. IFN-I induces local LN suppression via B cell-extrinsic IFNAR signals. (A) Mice were infected as in Fig. 6D. Analysis of cellularity of total cells, HEV, CD4^{+} and CD8^{+} T cells in the pLN of HSV and coinfected mice during IFNAR blocking. Graphs show pooled data (mean ± SEM) from 2 independent experiments with 5 mice per group. *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001, ns, non-significant, by unpaired t test (B) Experimental schematic of generating IFNAR deficient B cells. Lethally irradiated mice received a mixture of 80/20 bone marrow cells from µMT + IFNAR or µMT + WT donor mice. 8 weeks post reconstitution, mice were HSV and coinfected as described in Fig. 3A. (C) Absolute numbers of FRC and B cells in the pLN of HSV and coinfected mice in IFNAR B cells deficient mice. Graphs show pooled data (mean ± SEM) from two independent experiments with 4-5 mice per group. *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001, ns, non-significant, by ANOVA with Kruskal-Wallis test.