# Salivary gland macrophages assist tissue-resident CD8<sup>+</sup> T cell immune surveillance

- B. Stolp<sup>1,2,†</sup>, F. Thelen<sup>1,†</sup>, X. Ficht<sup>1,†</sup>, L. M. Altenburger<sup>3</sup>, N. Ruef<sup>3</sup>, V. V. G. K. Inavalli<sup>4,5</sup>, P. Germann<sup>6,7</sup>, N. Page<sup>8</sup>,
- 4 F. Moalli<sup>9</sup>, A. Raimondi<sup>9</sup>, K. A. Keyser<sup>10</sup>, S. M. Seyed Jafari<sup>11</sup>, F. Barone<sup>12</sup>, M. S. Dettmer<sup>13</sup>, D. Merkler<sup>8</sup>, M.
- 5 Iannacone<sup>9</sup>, J. Sharpe<sup>6,7,14</sup>, C. Schlapbach<sup>11</sup>, O. T. Fackler<sup>2</sup>, U. V. Nägerl<sup>4,5</sup>, J. V. Stein<sup>3,\*</sup>
- <sup>1</sup>Theodor Kocher Institute, University of Bern, 3012 Bern, Switzerland.
- 8 <sup>2</sup> Department for Infectious Diseases, Integrative Virology, Center for Integrative Infectious Disease Research,
- 9 University Hospital Heidelberg, Im Neuenheimer Feld 344, 69120 Heidelberg, Germany.
- <sup>3</sup> Department of Oncology, Microbiology and Immunology, University of Fribourg, 1700 Fribourg, Switzerland.
- <sup>4</sup> University of Bordeaux, 33700 Bordeaux, France.

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- <sup>5</sup> Interdisciplinary Institute for Neuroscience, CNRS UMR 5297, 33077 Bordeaux, France.
- 13 <sup>6</sup> EMBL Barcelona, Dr. Aiguader 88, 08003 Barcelona, Spain.
- <sup>7</sup> Universitat Pompeu Fabra (UPF), 08002 Barcelona, Spain.
- 15 Bepartment of Pathology and Immunology, University of Geneva, 1211 Geneva, Switzerland.
- <sup>9</sup> Division of Immunology, Transplantation and Infectious Diseases and Experimental Imaging Center, IRCCS
- 17 San Raffaele Scientific Institute and Vita-Salute San Raffaele University, Via Olgettina 58, 20132 Milan, Italy.
- 18 <sup>10</sup> Institute for Virology, OE5230, Hannover Medical School, Carl-Neuberg-Str. 1, 30625 Hannover, Germany.
- 19 Department of Dermatology, Inselspital, Bern University Hospital, University of Bern, Switzerland.
- 20 <sup>12</sup> Institute of Inflammation and Ageing, University of Birmingham, Birmingham, United Kingdom.
- 21 <sup>13</sup> Institute of Pathology, University of Bern, Switzerland.
- <sup>14</sup> Institució Catalana de Recerca i Estudis Avançats (ICREA), Pg. Lluis Companys 23, 08010 Barcelona, Spain.
- <sup>†</sup> These authors contributed equally to this work
- 25 \* To whom correspondence should be addressed
- 26 Contact: Jens V. Stein
- 27 Department of Oncology, Microbiology and Immunology

28 University of Fribourg 29 Ch. du Musée 5 30 CH-1700 Fribourg 31 email: jens.stein@unifr.ch 32 One sentence summary 33 Combined in vitro and in vivo imaging of salivary gland-resident tissue memory CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells (T<sub>RM</sub>) uncovers 34 35 their unique migratory behavior and describes a novel accessory function of tissue macrophages to assist T<sub>RM</sub> 36 surveillance.

## **Abstract**

Tissue macrophages and tissue resident memory CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells (T<sub>RM</sub>) play important roles for pathogen sensing and rapid protection of barrier tissues. To date, it is incompletely understood how these two cell types cooperate for efficient organ surveillance during homeostasis. Here, we used intravital imaging to show that T<sub>RM</sub> dynamically crawled along tissue macrophages in murine submandibular salivary glands (SMG) during the memory phase following a viral infection. *Ex vivo* confined SMG T<sub>RM</sub> integrated an unexpectedly wide range of migration modes: in addition to chemokine-and adhesion receptor-driven motility, SMG T<sub>RM</sub> displayed a remarkable capacity of autonomous motility in the absence of chemoattractants and adhesive ligands. This unique intrinsic SMG T<sub>RM</sub> motility was transmitted by friction and adaptation to microenvironmental topography through protrusion insertion into permissive gaps. Analysis of extracellular space in SMG using super-resolution shadow imaging showed discontinuous attachment of tissue macrophages to neighboring epithelial cells, offering paths of least resistance for patrolling T<sub>RM</sub>. Upon tissue macrophage depletion, intraepithelial SMG T<sub>RM</sub> showed decreased motility and reduced epithelial crossing events, and failed to cluster in response to local inflammatory chemokine stimuli. In sum, our data uncover a continuum of SMG T<sub>RM</sub> migration modes and identify a new accessory function of tissue macrophages to facilitate T<sub>RM</sub> patrolling of the complex exocrine gland architecture.

#### **Keywords**

- Tissue-resident CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells; non-lymphoid tissue; tissue macrophages; intravital imaging; super-resolution
- shadow imaging; exocrine glands; chemokines; adhesion

# Introduction

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Naïve CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells (T<sub>N</sub>) continuously traffic through lymphoid tissue such as peripheral lymph nodes (PLN) and spleen, where they screen antigen presenting dendritic cells (DCs) for the presence of cognate peptide-MHC (pMHC) complexes. Intravital two-photon microscopy (2PM) of peripheral lymph nodes (PLN) uncovered a high amoeboid-like T<sub>N</sub> motility of 12-15 μm/min (1-4), facilitating their search for rare cognate pMHC-presenting DCs interspersed on a 3D stromal scaffold of fibroblastic reticular cells (FRC) (5-10). Intranodal motility is mediated by the CCR7 ligands CCL19 and CCL21 that drive F-actin polymerization at the leading edge in a  $G\alpha$ i-dependent manner to generate a retrograde cortical actin flow. Cortical actin flow is conveyed by the integrin LFA-1 into forward movement without generating substantial substrate adhesion (11-15).During viral infections, effector CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells (T<sub>EFF</sub>) generated in reactive lymphoid tissue disseminate into nonlymphoid tissues (NLT) including gut, lung, genitourinary tract, and skin to eliminate infected cells. After clearance of viral antigens, part of T<sub>EFF</sub> differentiate into central memory T cells (T<sub>CM</sub>) and continue to patrol lymphoid organs, while others stably reside in NLT and to a minor extent in lymphoid tissue as nonrecirculating, self-renewing tissue-resident memory T cells (T<sub>RM</sub>). T<sub>RM</sub> in gut, skin, and genitourinary tract act as "first line" sentinels that eliminate infected cells and trigger an organ-wide alert status through cytokine secretion upon pathogen re-encounter (16-21). The scanning behavior of epidermal T<sub>RM</sub> has been extensively studied. These cells display characteristically elongated, dendritic shapes and move in a Gαi-dependent manner with speeds of 1-2 μm/min in proximity to the extracellular matrix (ECM)-rich basement membrane (BM) separating epidermis from dermis, i.e. in plane with the bottom keratinocyte layer (22, 23). Upon pathogen reencounter, epidermal CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells follow local chemokine signals to accumulate around infected cells (24). CD8<sup>+</sup> T cell accumulation is considered critical for cooperative elimination of infected stromal cells through repeated cytotoxic attacks (25). Similarly, CD8<sup>+</sup> T<sub>RM</sub> of the small intestine continuously patrol the absorptive epithelial layer (26). T<sub>RM</sub> are also present in exocrine glands of the head and neck region, including submandibular salivary glands (SMG). Salivary glands are targeted by several bacteria and viruses including human beta- and gammaherpesviruses, which can cause disease, mostly in immunocompromised individuals (27, 28). Similar to skin

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and gut, SMG contains epithelial tissue basally anchored onto connective tissue. However, while skin and gut 3D geometry is evenly layered, the SMG epithelium has an arborized structure, with acini secreting saliva into intermediate and collecting ducts. The glandular epithelium is separated by a BM from the supporting interstitium containing blood and lymphatic vasculature, fibroblasts and tissue macrophages (29). In tissue sections, most CD8<sup>+</sup> T<sub>RM</sub> in SMG are localized within the abundant acini and ducts, implying a mechanism that allows T<sub>EFF</sub> arriving in interstitial venules to cross the BM below the epithelial compartment and develop into memory T cells (30, 31). During acute inflammation of NLT, CD8<sup>+</sup> T cell recruitment is driven by chemokines and adhesion receptors (32). In contrast, the cellular dynamics of homeostatic T<sub>RM</sub> surveillance in SMG after viral infection and the involvement of tissue macrophages in this process have not been explored to date. Here, we used intravital microscopy of mouse SMG in the memory phase following a systemic viral infection to uncover a high baseline motility of T<sub>RM</sub>, which often followed tissue macrophage topology. Ex vivo, confinement alone in the absence of chemoattractants and adhesion receptors was sufficient to induce SMG T<sub>RM</sub> migration through friction- and protrusion-insertion-driven motility, which was further tuned by chemokines and adhesion molecules. Using super-resolution microscopy to explore extracellular space distribution in SMG, we observed discontinuous attachment of tissue macrophages to surrounding epithelium, offering paths of least resistance to migrating T<sub>RM</sub>. Accordingly, tissue macrophage depletion resulted in a significant disruption of T<sub>RM</sub> patrolling behavior. Taken together, our data uncover a new accessory role for tissue macrophages to enable T<sub>RM</sub> surveillance of salivary glands. Our observations suggest a continuum of chemokine- and adhesion receptor-dependent and -independent migration modes and topographic features facilitating this task.

Systemic viral infection leads to the establishment of  $T_{RM}$  in salivary glands

Results

We used a viral infection model for a comparative analysis of CD8<sup>+</sup> T cell populations in lymphoid tissue and SMG (**Fig. 1A and Fig. S1A**). Systemic infection with lymphocytic choriomeningitis virus (LCMV)-OVA, a replication-competent, attenuated LCMV mutant expressing ovalbumin (OVA) as model antigen (*33*), led to transient and low viral titers in spleen on day 3 p.i. that remained below the detection limit in PLN and SMG (**Fig. S1B**). Adoptively transferred GFP<sup>+</sup> OT-I CD8<sup>+</sup> TCR tg T cells (which recognize the OVA<sub>257-264</sub> peptide in the context of H2-K<sup>b</sup>) (*34*) underwent a prototypic expansion – contraction kinetic in spleen and PLN over the course of 30 days (**Fig. S1, C and D**). Despite the lack of detectable viral titers, OT-I T cells accumulated in SMG from day 6 p.i. onwards, with a stable population maintained until at least day 30 p.i. (**Fig. S1, C and D**). By day 30 p.i., OT-I T cells isolated from SMG but not PLN or spleen showed increased expression of CD103 and CD69, while losing the KLRG-1<sup>+</sup> population present on day 6 p.i. (**Fig. S1, E and F**). SMG OT-I T cells also

 $T_{RM}$  establishment in SMG was also observed at  $\geq$  30 day after systemic VSV-OVA infection (not shown). In addition, we detected memory P14 CD8<sup>+</sup> TCR tg T cells (which recognize the LCMV epitope gp<sub>33-41</sub> in the context of H2-D<sup>b</sup>) (36) in SMG after infection with the LCMV Armstrong strain (**Fig. S2, A and B**). In sum, systemic viral infection led to the recruitment and retention of CD8<sup>+</sup> T cell populations in SMG, even in the

upregulated PD-1 and CD44 surface levels (not shown), supporting the observation that most SMG CD8<sup>+</sup> T

cells had developed into bona fide T<sub>RM</sub> at day 30 p.i. (35). Memory OT-I CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells isolated from PLN were

approximately 65% CD62L+ CD44high T<sub>CM</sub>, with the remaining population being CD62L- CD44high memory T cells.

To take this heterogeneity into account, we refer to memory T cells isolated from PLN as T<sub>PLN-M</sub>.

absence of detectable viral titers in this organ.

SMG T<sub>RM</sub> migration is characterized by dynamic cell shape changes

We next determined the localization of  $T_{PLN-M}$  and  $T_{RM}$  in their target organs during the memory phase. Tissue sections showed that most GFP<sup>+</sup> OT-I T cells in PLN and SMG were dispersed evenly in the tissue at day 30 p.i. (**Fig. 1B**). In PLN, OT-I  $T_{PLN-M}$  cells localized mainly with smooth muscle actin (SMA)<sup>+</sup> FRCs, whereas most OT-I  $T_{RM}$  cells in SMG were within or adjacent to EpCAM<sup>+</sup> acini and ducts (**Fig. 1B**). We developed a sequential

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surgery method to visualize homeostatic tissue surveillance of T<sub>PLN-M</sub> and T<sub>RM</sub> in PLN and SMG, respectively, in the same host by 2PM (37). T<sub>PLN-M</sub> displayed characteristic amoeboid shapes and moved with high speeds comparable to  $T_N$  (11.8 ± 4.0  $\mu$ m/min, median ± SD) (Fig. 1, C and F to H; movie S1). Compared to  $T_{PLN-M}$ , SMG T<sub>RM</sub> displayed more pronounced shape changes, with several protrusions probing the microenvironment during migration, at times with thin and elongated cell bodies (Fig. 1, D to G; movie S2). While T<sub>PLN-M</sub> and T<sub>RM</sub> covered large distances throughout the observation period of intravital imaging sequences (20-60 min), both populations differed in their speed and arrest coefficients, i.e. percentage of track segments with speeds < 2.5 µm/min. Thus, SMG T<sub>RM</sub> were significantly slower than T<sub>PLN-M</sub> (Fig. 1H) and had higher arrest coefficients (Fig. 11). Nonetheless, SMG T<sub>RM</sub> retained a relatively high motility coefficient, which is a proxy of a cell's ability to scan the environment during random migration, of > 15  $\mu$ m<sup>2</sup>/min (Fig. 1J). Accordingly, their median speed of  $6.8 \pm 3.4 \,\mu\text{m/min}$  was notably higher than values reported for epidermal  $T_{RM}$  (1-2  $\mu\text{m/min}$ ) (22), with some cells achieving speeds of  $> 12 \mu m/min$ . Both  $T_{PLN-M}$  and SMG  $T_{RM}$  retained a fast response to antigenic stimulation, as systemic administration of cognate peptide resulted in immediate arrest and secretion of IFN- $\gamma$  (Fig. 1, J and K; Fig. S2, C and D). We measured similar speeds for GFP<sup>+</sup> P14 T<sub>RM</sub> in SMG before and after cognate peptide administration (Fig. **S2, A to D).** Furthermore, GFP+ OT-I T cells patrolled the structurally comparable lacrimal gland (LG) in the same speed range (7.6  $\pm$  4.3  $\mu$ m/min; median  $\pm$  SD; n = 255 tracks), suggesting that migration parameters of T<sub>RM</sub> patrolling exocrine glands during homeostasis are independent of TCR specificity and reflect tissue properties. In sum, our data uncover a remarkably fast motility of exocrine gland-resident CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells, which was characterized by dynamic shape changes.

T<sub>RM</sub> migrate along tissue macrophages during SMG surveillance

To explore the microenvironmental context of exocrine gland T<sub>RM</sub> migration, we used a CD11c-YFP reporter strain that labels SMG CD64<sup>+</sup> F4/80<sup>+</sup> tissue macrophages (*29*). CD11c-YFP<sup>+</sup> cells were also positive for the macrophage marker lba-1, whereas some lba-1<sup>+</sup> cells were CD11c-YFP<sup>low/negative</sup>, indicating that most but not all tissue macrophages were labeled in CD11c-YFP mice (**Fig. S3, A and B**). Confocal analysis of thick tissue sections showed that CD11c-YFP<sup>+</sup> tissue macrophages extended numerous protrusions from their cell bodies

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throughout the SMG tissue and were located within EpCAM<sup>+</sup> ducts and acini, as well as SMA<sup>+</sup> perivascular structures of the interstitium (Fig. S3C). Most macrophage protrusions were phosphotyrosine-positive (Fig. S3, D and E) and enriched in F-actin (not shown), suggesting the presence of podosomes or focal adhesions at these sites. To assess the spatial relationship between tissue macrophages and T<sub>RM</sub>, we transferred GFP<sup>+</sup> OT-I T cells into CD11c-YFP recipients one day prior to infection with LCMV-OVA and analyzed tissue sections by confocal microscopy in memory phase (≥ day 30 p.i.). We observed a striking spatial proximity of T<sub>RM</sub> and tissue macrophages in SMG, with approximately 70% of OT-I T cells directly in contact with CD11c-YFP+ cells (Fig. 2, A and B; movie S3). The close spatial association between tissue macrophages and T<sub>RM</sub> was confirmed by correlative light and electron microscopy imaging, with both cell membranes adjacent to each other (Fig. 2C). Electron microscopy images also highlighted the compact tissue structure of SMG, with tight junctions of acinar and ductal epithelium surrounded by a dense ECM (Fig. 2D). Their spatial proximity to SMG macrophages in tissue sections raised the question whether patrolling T<sub>RM</sub> migrate alongside macrophages. 2PM imaging of GFP+ T<sub>RM</sub> in LCMV-OVA memory phase CD11c-YFP recipients indeed confirmed that T<sub>RM</sub> crawled along CD11c-YFP<sup>+</sup> macrophages during most of the observation period, with T<sub>RM</sub> shapes often closely matching the underlying macrophage topology. This was particularly evident along thin macrophage protrusions, which  $T_{RM}$  often followed (Fig. 2E; movie S4). At the same time,  $T_{RM}$ protrusions occasionally detached from macrophages, apparently scanning the surrounding environment. Accordingly, we identified occasional T<sub>RM</sub> track segments which were not associated with tissue macrophages. T<sub>RM</sub> speeds were slightly elevated when in contact with tissue macrophages than when not  $(7.0 \pm 5.3 \text{ versus } 6.1 \pm 4.8 \,\mu\text{m/min}; \, p < 0.001)$ . Occasionally, we observed small  $T_{RM}$  clusters around tissue macrophages. Adoptively transferred CXCR3<sup>-/-</sup> T<sub>RM</sub> failed to accumulate at tissue macrophage clusters, suggesting the existence of local CXCL9/CXCL10 "hotspots" at these sites (Fig. 2F). We examined whether the noticeable proximity between tissue macrophages and T<sub>RM</sub> also occurred in other exocrine glands and species. A comparable association of T<sub>RM</sub> and tissue macrophages was observed in LG after LCMV-OVA infection (Fig. S3F). Furthermore, CD3<sup>+</sup>T cells colocalized with CD68<sup>+</sup> macrophages in human parotid gland sections, both as dispersed individual cells and in clusters (Fig. S3, G and H). Taken together,

SMG  $T_{RM}$  colocalized with and moved alongside tissue macrophages during homeostatic tissue patrolling of several exocrine glands.

SMG  $T_{RM}$  motility is induced by confinement and can be tuned by external factors

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The close proximity of T<sub>RM</sub> to tissue macrophages in vivo prompted us to examine the molecular factors involved in this interaction. We performed quantitative PCR analysis of cytokine and chemokine expression by CD11c-YFP+ cells sorted from SMG in steady-state, acute (day 6 p.i.) and memory phase (day 30 p.i.) of LCMV-OVA infection. We observed detectable mRNA levels of the cytokines IL-1 and TNF, as well as the chemokines CCL3, CCL4, CXCL2, CXCL9, CXCL10 and CXCL16 (not shown). Expression levels were similar at all time points analyzed, reflecting the lack of detectable viral spread to this organ (Fig. S1B). Given the expression of promigratory chemokines and adhesion receptors including ICAM-1 on tissue macrophages (38), we examined their influence on T<sub>RM</sub> migration parameters. To this end, we employed under agarose assays that allow to precisely control environmental factors and provide the confinement required for T cell motility (Fig. 3A) (15). To benchmark our system, we transferred T<sub>N</sub> on CCL21 - and ICAM-1-coated plates as surrogate lymphoid tissue microenvironment. We observed high chemokinetic T<sub>N</sub> motility with similar speeds as measured in vivo (13.3  $\pm$  5.9  $\mu$ m/min) (Fig. 3, B and C; movie S5) (14, 15). T<sub>RM</sub> showed a high motility (11.4 ± 3.0 µm/min) when migrating on CXCL10 + CXCL12- and ICAM-1-coated plates, which was only slightly lower than that of  $T_N$  (Fig. 3C; movie S6). These observations show that SMG  $T_{RM}$  respond to presence of chemokines and adhesion molecules with high speeds. We then examined T cell displacement on plates coated with fatty acid-free human serum albumin (HSA) and thus free of chemoattractants and specific adhesion ligands. In line with previous findings (15), T<sub>N</sub> and T<sub>PLN-M</sub> remained essentially immobile throughout the observation period (Fig. 3, D to F; movies S7 and S8). Under these conditions, only 16% of  $T_N$  and 31% of  $T_{PLN-M}$  migrated faster than 3  $\mu$ m/min, and showed low directionality (Fig. 3, G and H). In contrast, most SMG T<sub>RM</sub> showed robust intrinsic motility on HSA-coated plates despite the absence of chemoattractants and adhesion molecules (Fig. 3, D to F; movies S7 and S8). Almost 70% of SMG T<sub>RM</sub> migrated faster than 3 µm/min with high directionality, with their median speed of 5.5 µm/min approaching values observed in vivo (Fig. 3, G and H). High temporal resolution imaging revealed that migratory  $T_{RM}$  often formed several protrusions along the leading edge that appeared to probe the environment, followed by rapid displacement of the cell body along one of the protrusions (**movie S9**). Thus, unexpectedly, confinement alone was sufficient to induce spontaneous SMG  $T_{RM}$  migration, representing to the best of our knowledge the first observation of such a motility mode in resting T cells. Their speeds were increased in presence of chemokines and adhesion molecules, suggesting that external promigratory factors tune intrinsic cell motility.

Friction mediates  $T_{RM}$  migration in the absence of chemokines and ICAM-1

We set out to characterize the requirements for autonomous  $T_{RM}$  motility in under agarose assays. Reflecting the absence of chemoattractants and integrin ligands, pertussis toxin (PTx) treatment or addition of the  $\beta1$ -blocking peptide RGD did not affect  $T_{RM}$  speeds in this setting (Fig. 31). Although Mac-1 binds weakly to serum albumin (*39*), addition of anti-Mac-1 mAb did not cause a significant reduction in  $T_{RM}$  speeds (Fig. 31). These observations suggested a friction-based migration mechanism (*40*). Friction is the resisting force when two elements slide against each other and may be composed of a number of fundamental forces. While the nature of the weak interactions between  $T_{RM}$  and migratory surface causing friction are not defined, we hypothesized that these might in part involve bivalent cations. Indeed, chelation of bivalent cations by EDTA caused a strong decrease of  $T_{RM}$  speeds under agarose (Fig. 31). High temporal resolution imaging showed that despite the lack of translocation in presence of EDTA,  $T_{RM}$  continued to probe the environment via transient protrusion formation, essentially "running on the spot" (Fig. 3, J and K, movie S10). This behavior precipitated a loss in the motility coefficient (Fig. 3L). In sum, our data suggest that bivalent cation-dependent friction between  $T_{RM}$  and the confining 2D surfaces generated sufficient traction for translocation in the absence of considerable surface binding.

SMG  $T_{RM}$  insert protrusions between adjacent structures for translocation

In addition to friction-based migration, protrusion insertion has emerged in recent years as a complementary mechanism to allow cell migration without specific adhesions (40). The continuous probing of  $T_{RM}$  in presence of EDTA (**Fig. 3J**) provided an opportunity to test whether topographic features of the environment such as

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narrow intercellular spaces may rescue cell motility by permitting insertion of pseudopods as mechanical "footholds" (41, 42). As a surrogate approach to re-introduce a "2.5D" environmental geometry in under agarose assays, we co-transferred a surplus of T<sub>N</sub> together with T<sub>RM</sub> and performed time-lapse imaging in the presence of EDTA and in the absence of chemoattractants and adhesion molecules (Fig. 4A). Remarkably, T<sub>RM</sub> localized within T<sub>N</sub> clusters frequently showed lateral displacement despite the presence of EDTA (movies **S10** and **S11**). Under these conditions, T<sub>RM</sub> displacement occurred through insertion of protrusions between adjacent T<sub>N</sub> and subsequent translocation of the cell body accompanied by dynamic cell shape changes (Fig. **4B**).  $T_{RM}$  within  $T_{N}$  clusters were significantly faster than isolated  $T_{RM}$  (5.8 ± 3.0 and 2.3 ± 1.7  $\mu$ m/min, respectively), displayed higher directionality, and resembled in cell shape and speeds T<sub>RM</sub> migrating in vivo (Fig. 4C to E). Once T<sub>RM</sub> had traversed T<sub>N</sub> clusters, they returned to their probing behavior without efficient translocation, indicating a close interdependence on physical contact and motility (movie S10). We then examined whether potential residual molecular interactions between naive T cells and T<sub>RM</sub> might act as drivers of migration. We therefore transferred uncoated polystyrene beads with T<sub>RM</sub> in under agarose assays. These beads replaced T<sub>N</sub> as surrogate 2.5D structures and allowed to examine protrusion insertion in the absence of potential adhesive interactions. In this setting, T<sub>RM</sub> recapitulated the behavior observed within T<sub>N</sub> clusters, showing effective cell displacement only when in contact with clusters of beads for protrusion insertion (Fig. 4F; movie S12).  $T_{RM}$  speeds increased to  $6.4 \pm 1.9 \,\mu\text{m/min}$  and became more directional when in contact with beads, whereas isolated T<sub>RM</sub> showed no displacement (Fig. 4, G and H). In this setting, we further observed that T<sub>RM</sub> moved around dense bead areas, in line with a search for permissive gaps for locomotion (movie S12). In sum, SMG T<sub>RM</sub> displayed a unique ability to migrate by adapting to topographic features of the environment through protrusion insertion and shape deformation, even in the absence of considerable friction, chemoattractants and adhesion receptors.

Residual in vivo motility of SMG  $T_{RM}$  in presence of integrin and chemokine receptor blockade

Our in vitro experiments raised the question to which extent external cues govern  $T_{RM}$  motility in vivo. We explored the molecular mechanisms underlying  $T_{RM}$  scanning of SMG, focusing on well-described canonical chemoattractant- and integrin-signaling pathways. Integrins provide traction and force transmission through

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engagement of their ligands expressed by many cell types including macrophages, such as ICAM-1. SMG T<sub>RM</sub> express  $\alpha$ 1,  $\alpha$ 4,  $\alpha$ E,  $\alpha$ L,  $\beta$ 1,  $\beta$ 2 and  $\beta$ 7 integrins, and low levels of  $\alpha$ V (Fig. S1 and 4A). To assess their involvement in SMG T<sub>RM</sub> immune surveillance, we administered a mix of integrin-blocking mAbs against the major lymphocyte integrin  $\alpha$ L (CD11a/CD18, LFA-1), the E-cadherin ligand  $\alpha$ E (CD103), and  $\alpha$ 4 (VLA-4 and  $\alpha 4\beta 7$ ) to LCMV-OVA memory phase mice containing  $T_{PLN-M}$  and  $T_{RM}$  (Fig. 5A). We confirmed that mAbs were saturating surface integrins at the time point analyzed (Fig. S4B). We then followed OT-I T cell motility in PLN and SMG on ≥ day 30 p.i., using dual surgery 2PM as described above. Integrin blockade significantly lowered  $T_{PLN-M}$  speeds from 11.7 to 8.8  $\mu$ m/min (**Fig. S4C**), similar to the decreased cell speeds of CD18-deficient  $T_N$  in lymphoid stroma (14). In contrast, T<sub>RM</sub> speeds and crawling along tissue macrophages remained unaltered by this treatment (Fig. 5, B and C; movie S13). We did not detect Mac-1 (CD11b/CD18) expression on SMG T<sub>RM</sub> by flow cytometry, and addition of anti-Mac1 mAb to the integrin blocking mix did not decrease T<sub>RM</sub> speeds or guidance by tissue macrophages (not shown). Similarly, inclusion of blocking mAbs against  $\alpha 1$  and  $\alpha V$ together with  $\alpha L$ ,  $\alpha 4$  and  $\alpha E$  had no impact on  $T_{RM}$  cells speeds or association with macrophages (6.5 ± 2.7  $\mu$ m/min; n = 68 tracks). Poor surface saturation of blocking anti- $\beta$ 1 mAbs on OT-I T cells preempted us to assess the role of  $\beta$ 1 integrins for  $T_{RM}$  motility by this approach (not shown). As alternative, we directly administered the  $\beta$ 1blocking peptide RGD or the control peptide RAD through the Wharton's duct (WD) into SMG and followed its impact on T<sub>RM</sub> motility parameters by 2PM. The WD channels saliva from SMG into the oral cavity and can be used to administer reagents or pathogens through retrograde duct cannulation (43). Control experiments using WD administration of OVA<sub>257-264</sub> peptide led to instantaneous arrest of T<sub>RM</sub> similar to systemic injection, suggesting efficient peptide permeation of SMG by this route (not shown). While WD injection of either peptide slightly lowered T<sub>RM</sub> speeds, we did not observe any impact on RGD administration on T<sub>RM</sub> motility parameters as compared to control peptide (Fig. 5D). This reflected low  $\beta 1$  integrin levels in the interface between macrophages and T<sub>RM</sub> (Fig. S4D). Furthermore, E-cadherin levels on macrophages and T<sub>RM</sub> were barely detectable in SMG tissue sections, arguing against a role for this cadherin in mediating close spatial association with tissue macrophages (Fig. S4E).

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Cytokine-driven chemoattractant production plays a key role for T cell trafficking. Since the CXCR3 ligands CXCL9 and CXCL10 play a role in T<sub>RM</sub> clustering in SMG (Fig. 2F), we co-transferred WT and CXCR3-/- OT-I T cells one day prior to LCMV-OVA infection. Consistent with recent reports (44), we found that absence of CXCR3 did not impair T<sub>RM</sub> formation in SMG after viral infection. Non-clustered CXCR3<sup>-/-</sup> OT-I T<sub>RM</sub> showed no significant differences in speeds as compared to WT T<sub>RM</sub> (Fig. 5E), and lack of CXCR3 did not prevent T<sub>RM</sub> patrolling along tissue macrophages (Fig. 2F). To comprehensively assess a function for potential chemoattractants, we inhibited  $G\alpha$  is signaling by systemic PTx treatment (45) and performed 2PM analysis of OT-I T cell motility parameters on ≥ day 30 after LCMV-OVA infection. To control for inhibitor efficacy, we took advantage of the dual surgery of PLN and SMG in the same recipient. Systemic PTx administration significantly slowed T<sub>PLN-M</sub> down from 11.3 μm/min in control versus 8.6 μm/min in PTx-treated recipients (Fig. S4F), resembling observations made with PTx-treated T<sub>N</sub> in PLN (11, 13). Speeds were also decreased in SMG  $T_{RM}$  (from 6.6 to 5.5  $\mu$ m/min) by PTx treatment (Fig. 5F), suggesting a role for chemoattractants in mediating high T<sub>RM</sub> speeds. Nonetheless, we observed a robust residual motility and continued T<sub>RM</sub> crawling along tissue macrophages in presence of PTx (Fig. 5G, movie **S14**). These data suggest that while  $G\alpha$ i-coupled receptors contribute to SMG  $T_{RM}$  motility, they are not required for T<sub>RM</sub> association with tissue macrophages. Finally, since matrix metalloproteinases (MMP) play roles in cancer cell invasion, we interfered with MMP activity using the broad MMP-9, MMP-1, MMP-2, MMP-14 and MMP-7 inhibitor marimastat as described (46). Yet, MMP inhibition did not reduce T<sub>RM</sub> migration compared to vehicle and rather resulted in a minor increase in speeds (not shown). Taken together, with exception of a minor effect by PTx, the in vivo inhibitor treatment examined here did not alter TRM motility and close spatial proximity to tissue macrophages. To directly assess intercellular adhesion between tissue macrophages and T<sub>RM</sub> ex vivo, we co-incubated freshly isolated cells for 20 min and analyzed cluster formation by flow cytometry (Fig. 5H). As positive control for T cell association with tissue macrophages, we pre-incubated macrophages with cognate OVA257-264 peptide. While addition of OVA<sub>257-264</sub> to tissue macrophages induced detectable association with T<sub>RM</sub>, baseline association between both populations remained low (Fig. 5, H and I). Finally, we performed under agarose assays in presence of tissue macrophages. On the few occasions when motile T<sub>RM</sub> contacted co-plated tissue

macrophages, these contacts were mostly transient (**Fig. 5, J and K**; **movie S15**). Furthermore,  $T_{RM}$  did not crawl along macrophage protrusions as observed *in vivo* (**Fig. 5J**). These data suggested that  $T_{RM}$  association to macrophages occurred preferentially in the SMG microenvironment. Thus, within the technical limitations of our experimental approach, our *in vivo* and *in vitro* observations did not identify specific molecules that provide strong adhesion of SMG  $T_{RM}$  to tissue macrophages. Importantly, our data do not exclude the presence of unidentified adhesion receptors mediating  $T_{RM}$  association to tissue macrophages *in vivo*.

Discontinuous macrophage attachment within SMG

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We considered that tissue microanatomy may contribute to the close spatial association between T<sub>RM</sub> and tissue macrophages observed in vivo. Based on our observation that ex vivo SMG T<sub>RM</sub> are able to insert protrusions into narrow spaces between adjacent structures lacking adhesion between them (Fig. 4), we decided to examine macrophage attachment within SMG applying the super-resolution shadow imaging microscopy (SUSHI) technique. SUSHI was originally developed to visualize the complex topology of the extracellular space (ECS) in living brain slices (47). It was used to study dynamic changes in ECS in response to a hyperosmotic challenge, which leads to cell shrinkage and ECS widening in brain tissue. Here, we adapted SUSHI imaging to acutely sliced SMG sections, which were superfused with the cell-impermeable fluorescent dye Calcein (Fig. 6A). Steady-state imaging revealed that the interstitium contained more ECS as compared to the tightly packed epithelium (Fig. 6, B and C). We reasoned that SUSHI in combination with hyperosmotic challenge could be applied to explore attachment between neighboring cells. Performing time-lapse ECS imaging, we acutely increased the osmolarity to induce cell shrinkage, which led to a strong increase of ECS in the interstitium (movie S16). In turn, interepithelial junctions remained relatively stable and only mildly increased their spacing under osmotic challenge, reflecting the presence of adherens and tight junctions known to link epithelial cells (Fig. 6D). In contrast, hyperosmolarity induced intraepithelial CD11c-YFP+ macrophages detachment from the adjacent epithelium (Fig. 6, E and F). This observation confirms previous reports that tissue macrophages do not form continuous adhesive contacts with the epithelium, unlike the extensive cell-to-cell contacts between acinar epithelial cells (48).

We then investigated the spatial arrangement of macrophage protrusions with regard to epithelial BM markers. The laminin ligand CD49f ( $\alpha$ 6) was prominent on the basal side of acini and to a lesser extent on ducts, which were identified by the presence of the tight junction protein ZO-1 on the luminal side. In some cases, tissue macrophages appeared to cross adjacent acini and ducts via their protrusions (**Fig. 6G**). For a detailed examination, we analyzed laminin-stained tissue sections from immunized CD11c-YFP mice. We observed in some cases macrophage protrusions penetrating between adjacent acini, or between epithelium and connective tissue, thus bridging adjacent compartments separated by BM (**Fig. 6H**; **movie S17**). Using correlative confocal and transmission electron microscopy, we validated that some macrophage protrusions transversed BM (**Fig. 6I**). Taken together, our data support the notion of discontinuous attachment of tissue macrophages to neighboring cells and occasional penetration of macrophage protrusions across the epithelial BM.

Depletion of tissue macrophages disrupts  $T_{RM}$  patrolling

Our observations prompted us to examine T<sub>RM</sub> motility in the absence of tissue macrophages. To this end, we generated bone marrow chimera by reconstituting C57BL/6 or Ubi-GFP mice with control CD11c-YFP or CD11c-DTR bone marrow. At 6 weeks of reconstitution, we adoptively transferred GFP\* or DsRed\* OT-IT cells, followed by LCMV-OVA infection. In some experiments, we directly transferred OT-IT cells into CD11c-DTR mice and infected mice with LCMV-OVA. Both approaches allowed us to deplete CD11c\* macrophages by diphtheria toxin (DTx) treatment in the memory phase without affecting the unfolding of the adaptive immune response. Macrophage depletion in the memory phase had no impact on CD45\* and OT-IT cell numbers recovered from spleens and SMG up to one week after DTx treatment (not shown).

2PM imaging in DTx-treated mice revealed that SMG T<sub>RM</sub> patrolling behavior was disrupted when macrophages were depleted (Fig. 7A; movie 518). T<sub>RM</sub> motility was decreased, reflected by less displacement (Fig. 7B) and slower speeds (Fig. 7C). Also, we occasionally observed cells that returned and migrated back the same path within acini and ducts after macrophage depletion (Fig. 7A). To quantify this behavior, we developed a method to specifically retrieve U-turns from track parameters (Fig. 7D). This analysis confirmed that the percent of T cell tracks showing U-turns was doubled in DTx-treated CD11c-DTR SMG from 8.1 to

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16.7 % of tracks (Fig. 7E). For comparison, PTx treatment had essentially no impact on U-turn frequency (1.15 fold increase as compared to PTx<sub>mut</sub>). We observed a similar impact of macrophage depletion on T<sub>RM</sub> speeds in LG (from  $7.6 \pm 4.3$  to  $5.5 \pm 3.2 \,\mu\text{m/min}$ ), with a 2.5 fold increase in U-turns (Fig. S5). We next asked how impaired motility impacts organ surveillance. We generated tracks in silico from the data sets obtained by 2PM imaging of DTx- and control-treated SMG and assessed the average T<sub>RM</sub> dwell time in a sphere of 80 µm diameter as surrogate epithelial structure (Fig. 7D). This analysis uncovered a nearly threefold increased sphere dwell time from 24 ± 1.8 min for control SMG to 69 ± 6.5 min (median ± SEM) for DTx-treated CD11c-DTR SMG (Fig. 7F). For comparison, sphere dwell time was increased from  $31 \pm 1.8$  min in PTx<sub>mut</sub>-treated to 46 ± 2.45 min for PTx-treated SMG. Taken together, macrophage depletion disrupted motility parameters and increased the propensity of T<sub>RM</sub> to make U-turns. We investigated whether lack of macrophages may also affect T<sub>RM</sub> transitions into and out of epithelium as part of the impaired motility pattern. To address this point, we developed an approach to optically separate epithelial from connective tissue. We reconstituted irradiated Ubi-GFP mice expressing GFP in all cells with CD11c-YFP bone marrow before transfer of DsRed<sup>+</sup> OT-I T cells and systemic LCMV-OVA infection. We found that in these chimera, acini and ducts of surgically prepared SMG were GFP<sup>bright</sup> and readily identifiable by their glandular shapes, whereas connective tissue was GFP<sup>low</sup>. Using case-by-case 3D rendering of 2PM image sequences in memory phase (≥ 30 days p.i. with LCMV-OVA), we observed that DsRed<sup>+</sup> T<sub>RM</sub> were not restricted to individual epithelial structures but occasionally crossed between adjacent acini or between epithelial and connective tissue compartments in a bidirectional manner along macrophage protrusions (Fig. 7G top; movie S19). We confirmed this observation in a mouse model expressing membrane tomato and CD11c-YFP (**Fig. 7G bottom**). In total, 75% of  $T_{RM}$  transits (n = 42) into and out of epithelial structures occurred along macrophage protrusions (Fig. 7H). Given that not all tissue macrophages are YFP<sup>+</sup> (Fig. S3B), the actual percentage of macrophage-assisted transitions may still be higher. DTx treatment of CD11c-DTR SMG reduced, but did not abolish, T<sub>RM</sub> transit into or out of acini and ducts. In total, we observed 55 T<sub>RM</sub> crossing events into or out of acini in CD11c-YFP versus 12 events in CD11c-DTR chimera SMG. These data corresponded to a 77% fewer crossing events per h track duration and a 71% fewer transitions per 1000 μm

track length in macrophage-depleted SMG (**Fig. 7, I and J; movie S18**). Reduced  $T_{RM}$  crossing into and out of epithelial structures was also observed when we prolonged DTx treatment for 5 days (**movie S20**).

Impaired intraorgan accumulation of SMG T<sub>RM</sub> after macrophage depletion

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Tissue macrophages are best characterized for their core functions of maintenance or restoration of tissue homeostasis by engulfing apoptotic cells (efferocytosis), clearing debris and initiation of repair (49-52). Accordingly, we observed massively increased numbers of infected cell foci in macrophage-depleted SMG after WD infection with murine cytomegalovirus expressing OVA and mCherry (53), as compared to SMG containing tissue macrophages (Fig. S6, A and B). The efferocytic function of tissue macrophages was independent of the presence of T<sub>RM</sub> (Fig. S6C), although the latter partially suppressed viral replication as assessed by decreased mCherry intensity in viral foci (Fig. S6D). In support of this, we observed CD11c-YFP<sup>+</sup> cells engulfing MCMV-infected cells after SMG infection (Fig. S6, E and F). These observations preempted the use of a viral rechallenge model to assess a function for tissue macrophages in facilitating T<sub>RM</sub> patrolling. We therefore designed an alternative experiment to assess the support of SMG macrophages for T<sub>RM</sub> surveillance and local cluster formation. We treated LCMV-OVA-immunized CD11c-YFP and CD11c-DTR BM chimera mice with DTx, followed one day later by local injection of the CXCR3 ligand CXCL10 into SMG (Fig. **7K**). We also administered anti- $\alpha$ 4 and LFA-1 blocking mAbs that block recruitment of circulating T cells to SMG (44) but do not affect T<sub>RM</sub> motility in this organ (Fig. 5B). At 4 h after CXCL10 administration, we isolated SMG and quantified T<sub>RM</sub> enrichment in thick confocal SMG sections according to the area marked by the coinjected fluorescent marker. CXCR3<sup>-/-</sup> OT-I T cells did not show accumulation in CXCL10 injection sites, supporting the specificity of chemokine-triggered clustering (49 - 63 > 500 μm versus 60 - 68 cells/cm<sup>2</sup> cells < 500  $\mu m$  from injection site; range from two SMG each). WT OT-I  $T_{RM}$  were twofold enriched at CXCL10 injection sites, suggesting that these cells had followed a CXCL10 gradient or became retained during their surveillance path (Fig. 7L). In contrast, local accumulation of T<sub>RM</sub> was lost when macrophages had been depleted, although T<sub>RM</sub> numbers outside the site of chemokine injection remained comparable to macrophage-containing SMG (Fig. 7L). These data suggest a key role for SMG macrophages to assist T<sub>RM</sub> patrolling within and between epithelial structures and to cluster at local inflammatory sites (Fig. S7).

#### Discussion

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After clearing of pathogens, T<sub>RM</sub> display a remarkable capacity to patrol heterogeneous tissues without impairing vital organ functions (16-20). Their scanning behavior evolved because T cells are MHC-restricted and hence need to physically probe membrane surfaces of immotile stromal cells. The key point of this study was to examine how these cells achieve this feat in the complex arborized epithelial structure of SMG during homeostatic immune surveillance. Our main finding is that T<sub>RM</sub> mostly moved along tissue macrophages, and that depletion of macrophages impaired T<sub>RM</sub> patrolling. These observations assign a new accessory role to tissue macrophages in addition to their core functions for tissue homeostasis and sentinels of infection. Our data suggest two non-exclusive options to explain macrophage guidance of T<sub>RM</sub>: first, through unidentified specific adhesive interaction(s) independent of ICAM-1 and other adhesion molecules; and second, by offering paths of least resistance within the exocrine gland microenvironment for protrusion insertion by autonomously moving T cells. Our data provide evidence for the second option without discarding the first one. Reductionist in vitro experiments revealed that SMG T<sub>RM</sub> respond to exogeneous cues from chemoattractant and adhesion molecules. Remarkably, confinement alone suffices to trigger friction- and protrusion insertion-based motility without exogeneous chemoattractants or adhesion molecule. We speculate that the continuum of intrinsic motility and integration of external factors permits T<sub>RM</sub> to patrol these exocrine glands in homeostasis and rapidly respond to inflammatory stimuli. Macrophages and T cells closely cooperate during the onset of inflammation, the effector phase and contraction through antigen presentation, cytokine secretion and effector functions such as phagocytosis. Yet, little is known whether and how these two cell types collaborate for surveillance of NLT during homeostasis. Tissue macrophages are best characterized for their core function of maintenance or restoration of tissue homeostasis by engulfing apoptotic cells, clearing debris and initiation of repair (49-52, 54). A recent study has identified a role for tissue macrophages for cloaking of microlesions (55), a behavior we also observed in SMG after local laser injury (not shown). Tissue macrophages also serve as sentinels of infection, leading to cytokine secretion and leukocyte recruitment (16, 56, 57). In recent years, several nonphagocytic and non-sentinel functions were assigned to macrophages, as core functions of parenchymal parts of organs are outsourced to accessory cells. Accessory macrophage functions include blood vessel and

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mammary duct morphogenesis, hematopoietic stem cell maintenance, pancreatic cell specification, lipid metabolism, relay of long-distance signals during zebrafish patterning and electric conduction in the heart (58, 59). Our data suggest a novel accessory function, which is to facilitate  $T_{RM}$  patrolling within and between acini and ducts of arborized secretory epithelium. Our initial assumption was that specific adhesion receptors drive T cell association with tissue macrophages, while chemoattractants fuel their high baseline motility. Tissue macrophage express ICAM-1 and other adhesion molecules that can serve as ligands for T cell adhesion receptors, as well as chemoattractants (38). It was therefore startling that - against our initial expectations - we were unable to find evidence for strong adhesive contacts between salivary gland macrophages and T<sub>RM</sub>. The experimental systems we have used to address this point encompass in vivo inhibition of adhesion receptors in combination with reductionist in vitro adhesion assays. Such assays have previously been employed to identify intercellular adhesion through specific molecular interactions, such as ICAM-1-driven binding between T cells and DCs (60). It is important to note our data do not rule out the presence of specific adhesive and/or promigratory interactions between T<sub>RM</sub> and tissue macrophages in situ. For instance, low T<sub>RM</sub> binding to tissue macrophages in vitro may be owing to altered gene expression patterns after macrophage isolation (61). Along the same line, we have not examined talin-deficient T cells that lack functional integrins, and poor surface mAb saturation preempted an analysis of CD44 for SMG T<sub>RM</sub> motility (62). Of note, PTx treatment induced a minor but significant reduction in T<sub>RM</sub> speeds in vivo. Yet, PTx treatment had essentially no impact on U-turn frequency and movement along tissue macrophages. In line with this, recent observations suggest that guidance and adhesion do not necessarily correlate, as T<sub>N</sub> migrate along the FRC network even in the absence of LFA-1 and CCR7 (15). The influence of the physical properties of the microenvironment is increasingly recognized to play a central role for decision-taking by migrating leukocytes (63, 64). Yet, technical limitations in recreating the complex tissue microenvironment of exocrine glands under controlled in vitro conditions limit the experimental scope to address this issue in a definite manner. The canonical model of leukocyte migration postulates chemoattractant-stimulated F-actin polymerization at the leading edge (4). The resulting retrograde F-actin flow in turn generates traction and cell body translocation via an integrin "clutch" that binds to adhesion receptors of the ECM or on the surface of

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neighboring cells. Although integrin-independent migration in 3D matrices has become a widely accepted concept in cell biology based on studies with cell lines and DCs (40), several studies uncovered integrin involvement during immune surveillance of skin T cells (65, 66). Thus, it remained unclear to which extent integrin-free motility occurs in primary lymphocytes, which contain less cytoplasm and surface area as compared to DCs and cell lines. Another open question was whether memory T cells from distinct anatomical locations would employ similar or tissue-specific mechanisms of host surveillance. Work by Zaid et al. has identified a critical role of G-protein-coupled receptor signaling during scanning by epidermal T<sub>RM</sub> (66). Our own observations confirm that similar to  $T_N$  and  $T_{PLN-M}$ , ex vivo confined epidermal  $T_{RM}$  do not migrate in the absence of integrin ligands or chemoattractants (not shown). Spontaneous motility under 2D confinement appears to constitute therefore a distinctive hallmark of SMG T<sub>RM</sub> not shared by other resting T cells. Isolated T<sub>RM</sub> showed high intrinsic protrusive activity *in vitro*, which may reflect high F-actin turnover and/or increased Rho-ROCK-mediated actomyosin contractility. In fact, low adhesiveness under confinement induces spontaneous amoeboid motility via cortical contractility in adherent mesenchymal cell lines (67, 68), suggesting that T<sub>RM</sub> may use a similar mechanism for autonomous migration in vitro and in vivo. Yet, it remains currently unknown how this unique motility program is imprinted in SNG T<sub>RM</sub> and whether it is shared by tissue-resident cells from other exocrine glands. Adhesion-free motility in 2D conditions has been proposed for large, blebbing carcinoma cells, based on friction mediated by a large interface between migrating cells and substrates (69). We show that 2D confinement suffices to induce T<sub>RM</sub> motility through cation-dependent friction, since these cells become unable to translocate their cell bodies in presence of EDTA. Friction is composed of multiple nanoscale forces between two interfaces. For instance, electrostatic and van der Waals forces have been implicated in cell migration and non-specific adherence to substrate (63, 70, 71). As chelation of bivalent cations reduced friction below a threshold for cell translocation in our setting, electrostatic forces are likely to be relevant. In principle, cells may compensate for a lower friction by increasing the contacting surface area (72). However, lymphocytes are likely too small to generate a sufficiently large interface under these conditions. In turn, T<sub>RM</sub> regained the capability to translocate in presence of EDTA when narrow spaces are created by immotile neighboring cells or beads that lack strong adhesion to each other. This motility mode correlated with

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continuous changes in cell shapes owing to the intrinsic protrusion formation capacity of T<sub>RM</sub>. Thus, T<sub>RM</sub> continuously formed multiple simultaneous protrusions that probed the environment, leading to their insertion into permissive gaps and subsequent cell body translocation. How T<sub>RM</sub> protrusions generated tractive force for cell translocation under these conditions remains incompletely understood. One possibility is that protrusions insert into gaps of the 3D environment akin to cogs of a cogwheel and transmit the necessary force for translocation through retrograde actin flow along irregularly shaped surfaces, even in the absence of adhesion receptors. In fact, this translocation mode is reminiscent of the "squeezing and flowing" mechanism proposed for DCs (73), although SMG T<sub>RM</sub> do not require a chemokine gradient for displacement. We also observed that T<sub>RM</sub> avoided areas of high bead density, thus choosing the path of least resistance in this mode. The efferocytic function of tissue macrophages conceivably requires physical contact with surrounding cells to detect and phagocytose senescent or infected cells. Since salivary gland macrophages do not form continuous tight and adherens junctions with neighboring cells (48), these cells may create a path of least resistance for patrolling T<sub>RM</sub>. We speculate that the flexible anchorage of macrophage protrusions between epithelial cells may facilitate the insertion of F-actin-rich pseudopods by T<sub>RM</sub> before squeezing of the nucleus as biggest organelle (40, 42, 74). T<sub>RM</sub> migration along macrophages may be further assisted by unknown adhesion receptors or other molecular interactions between these cells. In any event, the non-proteolytic path finding is beneficial to preserve the integrity of the target tissue, as it does not require constant repair of newly generated discontinuities in the ECM (75). The scanning strategy adopted by T<sub>RM</sub> resembles the migration pattern of T cell blasts in 3D collagen networks, where these cells routinely bypass dense collagen areas, while probing the environment for permissive gaps for cell body translocation (76). In fact, leukocytes have recently been shown to use the nucleus to identify the path of least resistance in complex 3D environments with different pore sizes (64). This migration mode preserves tissue integrity is energetically favorable by avoiding ECM degradation. Reflecting the multiple functions of tissue macrophages, depletion studies make the interpretation of the physiological function of macrophage-assisted T<sub>RM</sub> surveillance of SMG experimentally difficult to dissect. As example, when we locally infected macrophage-depleted SMG with MCMV, we observed massively increased

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numbers of viral foci as compared to control SMG owing to a lack of efferocytosis. Our local CXCL10 deposition experiment in combination with impaired recruitment of circulating T cells suggests that macrophages facilitate local T<sub>RM</sub> accumulation at sites where inflammatory chemokines are produced. This resembles observations made in skin infection models where CXCR3 promotes CD8<sup>+</sup> T cell accumulation at sites of viral replication necessary for efficient elimination of infected cells (21, 77). A recent study by Förster and colleagues has uncovered an unexpectedly low killing rate of cytotoxic T cells against viral-infected stromal cells (78). Thus, effective stromal cell elimination requires cooperativity through repeated cytotoxic attacks by multiple CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells. Conceivably, the promigratory accessory function of tissue macrophages described here helps to cluster a quorum of T<sub>RM</sub> for successful stromal cell killing. Furthermore, unlike the monoclonal T<sub>RM</sub> population created in our experimental setting, not all T<sub>RM</sub> recognize the same pathogen under physiological conditions. This might impose a requirement for T cells to scan local sites of pathogen re-emergence and to form clusters for timely elimination of fast-replicating microbes. In sum, our data assign a previously unnoticed interplay between tissue-resident innate and adaptive immune cell populations. These findings further suggest a noticeable capacity of SMG T<sub>RM</sub> to integrate a continuum of intrinsic and external signals, friction and 3D structures for efficient motility, providing these cells with maximal flexibility for NLT surveillance. We propose that such a mode of tissue patrolling is ideally adapted to the arborized epithelial architecture of exocrine glands by permitting homeostatic surveillance while maintaining responsiveness to local inflammatory cues.

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**Materials and Methods** Mice OT-I TCR (34) and P14 TCR transgenic mice (36) were backcrossed to Tg(UBC-GFP)30Scha "Ubi-GFP" (79) or hCD2-dsRed (80) mice. Ubi-GFP (GFP+) OT-I mice backcrossed to CXCR3<sup>-/-</sup> mice have been described (81). Tg(Itgax-Venus)1Mnz CD11c-YFP (82) and Tg(Itgax-DTR/EGFP)57Lan CD11c-DTR mice were used as recipients or bone marrow donors for lethally irradiated C57BL/6 or Ubi-GFP mice. C57BL/6 mice were purchased from Janvier (AD Horst). All mice were maintained at the Department of Clinical Research animal facility of the University of Bern, at the Theodor Kocher Institute and the University of Fribourg. All animal work has been approved by the Cantonal Committees for Animal Experimentation and conducted according to federal guidelines. T cell transfer and viral infections CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells were negatively isolated from spleen, peripheral and mesenteric lymph nodes of GFP<sup>+</sup> or dsRed<sup>+</sup> OT-I or GFP<sup>+</sup> P14 mice, using the EasySep<sup>™</sup> Mouse CD8<sup>+</sup> T cell Isolation Kit (Stem Cell Technologies). CD8<sup>+</sup> T cell purity was confirmed to be > 95% by flow cytometry prior to cell transfer. 10<sup>4</sup> OT-I T cells were i.v. transferred into recipient mice 24 h before i.p. infection with 10<sup>5</sup> pfu LCMV-OVA (33). Experimental readouts for the acute, cleared and memory phase of viral infection were performed 6, 15 and ≥ 30 days p.i., respectively. LCMV virus titer C57BL/6 mice were infected i.p. with 10<sup>5</sup> pfu LCMV-OVA and sacrificed 3 or 5 days later. PLN, spleens and SMG were harvested and organs were snap frozen in liquid nitrogen. Recombinant LCMV-OVA infectivity was measured by immunofocus assay on MC57 cells as previously described <sup>96</sup>. Antibodies and reagents Alexa633-conjugated anti-PNAd MECA79, αL-integrin FD441.8 and anti-α4-integrin PS/2 mAbs were from nanotools (Freiburg, Germany). Anti- $\alpha$ 1-integrin Ha31/8 was from BD Bioscience, anti- $\alpha$ 4 integrin PS/2 and

anti- $\alpha$ E integrin M290 were from BioXCell, anti- $\alpha$ V integrin RMV-7 was from BioLegend, and anti-Mac1 mAb M1/70 was purified from hybridoma supernatant. TexasRed-Dextran 70 kDa was from Molecular Probes. Cascade Blue (MW 10 kDA) was purchased from Invitrogen. TRITC-Dextran (MW 70 kDa) and Diphtheria Toxin whereas purchased from Sigma. Pertussis toxin (PTx) and enzymatically inactive mutant PTx (PTx<sub>mut</sub>) were obtained from List Biological Laboratories. Sodium Pyruvate (100 mM; #11360-039), HEPES buffer (1M; #15630-056), Minimum essential Medium Non-essential amino acids (MEM NEAA, #11140-035), L-Glutamine (200 mM; #25030-024), PenStrep (#15140-122) and RPMI-1640 (#21875-034) were purchased from Gibco and Fetal Bovine Serum (FCS, #SV30143.03) was purchased from HyClone.

#### Flow cytometry analysis

PLN and spleen were harvested at the indicated time points and single cell suspensions were obtained by passing organs through cell strainers (70  $\mu$ m; Bioswisstec). Red blood cell lysis was performed on splenocytes in some experiments. For analysis of SMG and LG, organs were minced and treated with 2 U/ $\mu$ l collagenase II (Worthington Biochem), 2 U/ $\mu$ l bovine DNAse I (Calbiochem) and - only for intracellular stainings of cytokines – 5  $\mu$ g/ml Brefeldin A (B6542, Sigma-Aldrich) in CMR (RPMI/10% FCS/1% HEPES/1% PenStrep/2 mM L-Glutamine/1 mM Sodium Pyruvate) for 30 min at 37°C, passed through a 70  $\mu$ m cell strainer and washed with PBS/5 mM EDTA. We used following reagents for flow cytometry:

Antibody	clone	company	Order number
anti-CD3-APC	145-2C11	Biolegend	100312
anti-CD8a-PE	53-6.7	BD Biosciences	553033
anti-CD8a-PerCP	53-6.7	Biolegend	100732
anti-CD8a-APC/Fire750	53-6.7	Biolegend	100766
anti-CD11a-PE	M17/4	Biolegend	101107
anti-CD11b-PE	M1/70	BD Biosciences	553311
anti-CD11c-APC	HL3	BD Biosciences	550261
anti-CD18-PE	M18/2	Biolegend	101407

anti-CD29-PE	ΗΜβ1-1	Biolegend	102207
anti-CD44-PE	IM7	BD Biosciences	553134
anti-CD45-PerCP	30-F11	BD Bioscience	557235
anti-CD45-BV711	30-F11	Biolegend	103147
anti-CD45.1-AF488	A20	Biolegend	110718
anti-CD45R/B220-APC	RA3-6B2	Biolegend	103212
anti-CD49a-PE	ΗΜα1	Biolegend	142603
anti-CD49b-Biotin	DX5	Biolegend	108903
anti-CD49d-PE	PS/2	Southern Biotech	1520-09L
anti-CD51-PE	RMV-7	Biolegend	104105
anti-CD64-AF647	X54-517	BD Bioscience	558539
anti-CD69-PE	H1.2F3	Biolegend	104508
anti-CD103-APC	2E7	Biolegend	121414
anti-CD103-Biotin	M290	BD Bioscience	557493
anti-β7-integrin-Biotin	FIB504	Biolegend	321209
anti-F4/80-FITC	BM8	Biolegend	123108
anti-F4/80-APC	BM8	Biolegend	123116
anti-KLRG1-PE	2F1	BD Bioscience	561621
anti-KLRG-1-PE-Cy7	2F1	Biolegend	138415
anti-KLRG1-APC	2F1	Biolegend	138411
anti-NK1.1-APC	PK136	Biolegend	108710
anti-Siglec-F-PE	E50-2440	BD Bioscience	562068
Streptavidin-APC	-	Biolegend	405207
anti-rat IgG1 K-APC	-	Biolegend	400412
armenian hamster IgG-PE	-	Biolegend	400907

Single cell suspensions were stained for surface antigens on ice for 30 min with the indicated antibodies and

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washed in FACS buffer (FB; PBS/2% FCS/1 mM EDTA) or FB with 5  $\mu$ g/ml Brefeldin A for intracellular cytokine

stainings. All sample were washed in FB after staining, and for intracellular stainings, cells were permeabilized and fixed in Cytofix/Cytoperm (#51-2090KZ, BD Biosciences) for 20 min on ice. Fixative was removed by washing with Perm/Wash buffer (#51-2091KZ, BD Biosciences) and subsequent intracellular staining steps were performed in Perm/Wash buffer. Cells were washed again prior to acquisition and at least 10<sup>5</sup> cells in the lymphocyte FSC/SSC gate were acquired using a FACSCalibur (BD Bioscience), LSR II (BD Bioscience), LSR II SORP Upgrade (BD Bioscience) or Attune NxT Flow cytometer (ThermoFisher). Total cell counts were obtained by measuring single cell suspensions in PKH26 reference microbeads (Sigma) for 1 min at high speed. Gating for CD103<sup>+</sup> and KLRG1<sup>+</sup> was set according to isotype controls. For CD69 staining, positive and negative gates were set according to distinguishable populations and FMO was subtracted from the final % of CD69<sup>+</sup> cells as background.

#### *Immunofluorescence*

Mice were anesthetized with i.p. injection of ketamine and xylazine and perfused with ice-cold 1% PFA.

Organs were harvested and fixed overnight in 2% PFA prior to embedding in TissueTek O.C.T. compound (Sakura) for cryostat sectioning or 5% low-melting-point agarose (Sigma) for vibratome (Microslicer™ DTK-1000) sectioning. 6 μm-thick frozen cryostat sections were permeabilized, blocked and stained with 0.05% Triton-X 100 in 5% skimmed milk or 0.05% Tween 20 and 3% BSA for 1h, washed 3 times with PBS/1% BSA/0.05% Tween (TBPBS) and stained with goat-anti-lba1 1/200 (ab5076, Abcam) and anti-phosphotyrosine (pTyr) (ab179530, Abcam) for 2 h at RT prior to mounting with Fluoromount-G (Electron Microscopy Sciences).

For vibratome sections, 100 μm-thick section were collected in a 48-well plate and blocked with TBPBS for 2 h, then blocked with Fc-block o.n. at 4°C (hybridoma supernatant; 2.4 mg/ml diluted 1/800 in TBPBS). After washing once with TBPBS for 1 h, sections were stained in TBPBS for 2-3 days at 4°C (in 100 μl, 3 sections per well) with Alexa647-conjugated anti-EpCAM (1/160 dilution; clone G8.8, 118212, Biolegend), eFluor660-conjugated anti-E-cadherin (1/200 dilution; clone DECMA-1, 50-3249-1633, eBioscience), polyclonal rabbit anti-Laminin (1/1000 dilution; 20097, Dako) or Cy3-conjugated anti-α-smooth muscle cell actin (clone 1A4, C6198, Sigma). Sections were washed 3 times for 1 h with TBPBS and incubated with secondary Cy3-

conjugated anti-rabbit Ig (1/400 in TBPBS; 111-165-144, Jackson Immune Research), then washed 3 times 1 h with TBPBS and one time with PBS. Images were acquired with a Zeiss LSM510 or Leica SP5 confocal microscope and processed using Adobe Photoshop CS6 and Imaris 8.4.1. We used Imaris software for surface rendering and channel masking function to separate fluorophores with close emission spectra (i.e. GFP and YFP).

2PM image acquisition and analysis

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2PM intravital imaging of the popliteal lymph node was performed as described (83). In brief, mice were anesthetized with ketamine/xylazine/acepromazine. The right popliteal lymph node was surgically exposed. Prior to recording, Alexa 633-conjugated MECA-79 (10 μg/mouse) was injected i.v. to label HEV. 2PM was performed with an Olympus BX50WI microscope equipped with a 20X Olympus (NA 0.95) or 25X Nikon (NA 1.0) objective and a TrimScope 2PM system controlled by ImSpector software (LaVisionBiotec). Some of the image series were acquired using an automated system for real-time correction of tissue drift (84). For 2photon excitation, a Ti:sapphire laser (Mai Tai HP) was tuned to 780 or 840 nm. For 4-dimensional analysis of cell migration, 11 to 20 x-y sections with z-spacing of 2-4 μm (22-64 μm depth) were acquired every 20 s for 20-60 min; the field of view was 150-350 x 150-350 μm. Emitted light and second harmonic signals were detected through 447/55-nm, 525/50-nm, 593/40-nm and 655/40-nm bandpass filters with non-descanned detectors in case of C57BL/6 recipient mice. For CD11c-YFP+ recipient mice or bone marrow chimera, we used 447/55-nm, 513/20-nm, 543/30-nm and 624/30-nm bandpass filters. For imaging of the SMG, neck and thorax of the mouse were shaved, and residual hair removed with hair removal cream (Veet). Subsequently, the animal was fixed on its back onto a custom-built SMG imaging stage and stereotactic holders were attached to the head for stabilization. A 10 x 5 mm piece of skin on the right side of the neck was excised to expose the right SMG lobe, which was micro-surgically loosened from surrounding tissue. The right SMG lobe was flipped to the right and gently immobilized in between 2 cover glasses to minimize motion artifacts from heartbeat and breathing. During the whole operation and imaging procedure tissue was kept moist. During imaging, the temperature at the SMG was monitored and kept at 37°C by a heating ring. In most experiments, mice were operated twice (for PLN and SMG) in alternating

order to directly compare behavior of cells in different organs of the same recipient. Prior to imaging, blood vessels were labeled by i.v. injection of 400 – 600 μg of 10 kDa Cascade-blue dextran or 70 kDa TexasRed Dextran. Surgical exposure of the LG was essentially performed as for the SMG, with the mouse fixed on its left flank onto the custom-built SMG imaging stage and a 10 x 5 mm piece of skin excised between the right ear and eye of the mouse. Sequences of image stacks were transformed into volume-rendered four-dimensional videos with Volocity 6.0 or Imaris 6.00-9.00 (Bitplane), which was also used for semi-automated tracking of cell motility in three dimensions. Drift in image sequences was corrected using a MATLAB script recognizing 3D movement in a reference channel or by using the correct drift function of Imaris. Since our filter set up does not allow complete separation of GFP and YFP signals, we performed spectral unmixing of GFP and YFP using the Image J plugin "Spectral\_Unmixing" from Joachim Walter. Cellular motility parameters were calculated from x, y, and z coordinates of cell centroids using Volocity, Imaris and MATLAB protocols. The motility coefficient, a measure of the ability of a cell to move away from its starting position, was calculated from the gradient of a graph of mean displacement against the square root of time. We defined U-turns as the steepest turn over five steps of a track, if it is over more than 166 degrees and has a skew line distance between the first and last step smaller than one mean step of the respective track (Fig. 7D) to exclude continuous turns. The given binomial proportion 95% confidence intervals are Wilson Score intervals. We generated 100 synthetic tracks of 12 h duration for each condition using a sampling strategy, which was designed to preserve the correlation between velocity and turning angle and the autocorrelation of velocity and turning angle (10). We then took the first timestep further than 40 µm away from the origin of each track as simulated dwelling time in an acinus of 80 µm diameter. These analyses were performed using scientific computing packages for Python. For the image series depicted in the Figures, raw 2PM data was filtered with a fine median filter (3x3x1), and brightness and contrast were adjusted. Shape factors were determined by rendering and tracking cells in Imaris, and manually excluding all cells that did not move along a horizontal axis. The signal from the filter cells was projected into a single z-slice and the shape-factor of the 2D image calculated with Volocity.

In vivo inhibitor treatment

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Gαi signaling by chemokines was blocked as described previously (45). Briefly, mice were treated with 3 μg PTx or PTx<sub>mut</sub> by i.p. injection 3 h prior to imaging. For depletion of CD11c-positive cells in CD11c-DTR mice or BM chimera, 4 ng/g Diphtheria Toxin (DTx) was i.p. injected 24 h prior to imaging. Depletion efficiency of CD11c<sup>+</sup> cells was determined by flow cytometry and was above 98% in all organs analyzed. For the synchronous blocking of integrins, 100 µg each of the purified mAbs M290, FD441.8, M1/70 and PS/2 were injected i.v. 16 h prior to imaging. Surface saturation of blocking mAbs in PLN and SMG suspensions was determined at the end of the experiment by sample staining with or without the same mAb clones used for blocking, followed by a fluorescently labeled secondary mAb and flow cytometry. RGD peptide or as control GRADSP (RAD) peptide (SIGMA) was injected via Wharton's duct cannulation (approximately 600 nmol of either peptide in 30 µl per lobe in PBS), as described previously (43). For this procedure, mice were anesthetized with ketamine/xylazine and their upper incisors rested on a metal rod and the lower incisors pulled down with string, which kept the mouth open. With the aid of a stereomicroscope, we located the orifice of the Wharton's duct in the sublingual caruncle and inserted a pointed glass-capillary (Untreated Fused Silica Tubing - L × I.D. 3 m × 0.10 mm, #25715, Sigma). The glass capillary was connected to a Hamilton Micro-syringe (Hamilton) via fine bore polythene tubing (0.28 mm, #800/100/100, Smiths), which allowed the injection of small volumes. For inhibition of MMPs, Marimastat (#S7156) was obtained from Sellcheck and diluted in PBS/10% DMSO (0.2 mg/g) or the corresponding volume of PBS/10% DMSO was injected i.p. 90 min before starting imaging (46). OVA<sub>257-264</sub> (#BAP-201) and gp<sub>33-41</sub> (#BAP-206) peptides were obtained from ECM microcollections and 200 µg/100 µl saline injected i.v. immediately prior to imaging or 6 - 12 h prior to organ harvest for FACS staining.

Viral infection via Wharton's duct cannulation

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Wharton's duct cannulation was prepared as described above. Approximately 12500 pfu MCMV-OVAmCherry (85) were injected into the Wharton's duct (WD) of DTx-treated CD11c-DTR or CD11c-YFP mice in memory phase of LCMV-OVA infection. Mice were euthanized 48 h post infection and SMG tissue fixed in 4% PFA at 4°C for 12 h.

Under agarose assays

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T<sub>N</sub> were isolated from spleen and PLN of a naive mouse using CD8<sup>+</sup> T cell isolation kit from Stemcell. SMGderived macrophages were isolated from uninfected CD11c-YFP mice and sorted for CD11c-YFP+ cells. T<sub>RM</sub> and T<sub>CM</sub> were isolated from SMG and PLN respectively of > 30 d LCMV-OVA-infected C57BL/6 mice. Single cells suspension of SMG and PLN were stained with APC-conjugated anti-KLRG1 mAb and sorted for GFP+ or DSRED\* KLRG1 T<sub>RM</sub> and T<sub>PLN-M</sub>, respectively. A 17-mm diameter circle was cut into the center of 60-mm dishes. The hole was sealed from the bottom part of the dish using aquarium silicone (Marina) and a 24-mm glass coverslip. After the silicone dried, we overlaid a 5 mm-high ring cut from a 15-ml falcon tube and sealed the borders with low melting point paraffin. Coverslips were washed with PBS and coated with 3% human serum albumin (HSA; A1653, Sigma) o.n. at 4°C or for 3 h at 37°C. In some experiments, coverslips were coated with 10 μg/ml fibronectin (11080938001, Roche315-02, PeproTech). Fresh medium was added every 2 days and macrophages were cultured for 6-7 days. For naïve T cell migration, coverslips were coated with 20 μg/ml Protein A (6500-10, BioVision) for 1 h at 37°C, washed 3 times with PBS and blocked with 1.5 % BSA for 2 h at 37°C or o.n. at 4°C. After washing once with PBS, cover glasses were coated for 2 h at 37°C with 100 nM recombinant ICAM1-F<sub>c</sub> (796IC, R&D Systems) and washed 2 times with PBS. Five ml of 2 x HBSS and 10 ml of 2 x RPMI containing 1% HSA for T<sub>RM</sub> and T<sub>CM</sub> and 20% FBS for macrophage and naïve T cell experiments, were mixed and heated in a water bath to 56°C. Golden agarose (100 mg; 50152, Lonza) was dissolved and heated in 5 ml distilled water before adding to the prewarmed medium to give a 1% agarose mix. After cooling to 37°C, 500 μl of the agarose mix was added on top of the coverslip. In some cases, inhibitors were added (200 μg/ml PTx, 5 μg/ml anti-Mac1 mAb, 10 μM RGD or GRADSP, 2.5 mM EDTA, or 5 μg/ml Hoechst (H21492, Invitrogen). After incubation for 30 min at 4°C, the dish was warmed up to 37°C before adding 1 ml of PBS outside the ring to prevent agarose drying. We punched a sink hole (diameter approximately 2 mm) at the side of the agarose. Sorted T cell populations were suspended in RPMI/0.5% HSA and in some cases treated with 5 μg anti-Mac1, 10 μM RGD or GRADSP, and pelleted in an Eppendorf tube. Cells were resuspended in the smallest possible achievable volume (ca. 5-10 µl) and 0.3 µl were injected in the opposite side from the sink hole using a 2.5-µl Eppendorf pipette. In some experiments, polystyrene beads (Sigma-Aldrich, LB30 or 78462) were co-injected with the cells. From the sink hole surplus of medium was collected to confine cells between the agarose and the glass slide. Time-lapse images were taken from the center of the dish using a Zeiss fluorescent microscope (AxioObserver, Zeiss).

Correlative Confocal and Transmission Electron Microscopy

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Correlative confocal and transmission electron microscopy (TEM) was carried out as described (86). Briefly, CD11c-YFP mice were perfused with PBS and SMG were fixed in situ by left ventricle injection of 1.5% glutaraldehyde/2% PFA in 0.1 M sodium cacodylate buffer (pH 7.4). SMG were harvested and immersed in the same solution for 16 h. Fixed samples were cryoprotected in 30% sucrose prior to embedding in OCT and freezing. Thirty µm sections were cut with a CM1520 cryostat (Leica) and collected on Superfrost Plus slides (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Sections were processed for confocal imaging using PBS as mounting medium to prevent dehydration. After confocal image acquisition, the coverslips were gently removed and sections adherent to the slide were processed for TEM as described (86). Briefly, sections were postfixed using the ferrocyanide-reduced osmium-thiocarbohydrazide-osmium (R-OTO) procedure, en bloc stained in 1% uranyl acetate and dehydrated through increasing concentration of ethanol. Finally, sections were embedded by overlaying a BEEM capsule filled with Epoxy resin. The BEEM capsules containing the embedded sections were detached by immerging the slides in liquid nitrogen, leaving the section facing up on the resin block. The specimens were mounted on a Leica Ultracut UCT and 70-90 nm thick serial sections were collected on formvar-coated copper slot grids and imaged with a ZEISS Leo912AB Omega fitted with a 2k × 2k bottommounted slow-scan Proscan camera controlled by the EsivisionPro 3.2 software. Using the florescent confocal and bright field images, the same areas were relocated in the electron microscope and several images were acquired through the different serial section. Acquired TEM images were then aligned and overlaid with the confocal images by means of the eC-CLEM Icy plugin (87).

Super-resolution shadow imaging (SUSHI)

After euthanizing mice with CO<sub>2</sub>, submandibular salivary glands (SMG) were isolated from 8-11 weeks old C57BL6 or CD11c-YFP mice and submerged in ice-cold PBS. SMG were embedded in 4% low gelling agarose (Sigma), cut in 300 μm-thick transversal slices and submerged in cold complete RPMI medium containing:

10% FCS (Hyclone). Slices were left to recover at room temperature for 15-30 min before entering the imaging chamber of a custom-built 3D-STED microscopy setup (47). First, the positively labelled (YFP) macrophages were identified at a depth of 20-30 µm below the surface and imaged in STED mode (excitation 485 nm, depletion 597 nm, objective HC PL APO 63X/1.30 NA, Leica) with the following acquisition parameters: field of view: 200 μm X 200 μm; pixel size: 48 nm X 48 nm; pixel dwell time: 30 μs, frame acquisition time: 20 min. The medium was exchanged in the chamber with the complete RPMI containing 400 µM Calcein dye, which was allowed for 20 - 30 min to disperse throughout the extracellular space of the tissue. Subsequently, we acquired a SUSHI image to identify a region of interest around the macrophages. We performed a hyperosmolar challenge by exchanging the chamber solution (300 µl) with high osmolar solution (350 mOsm/L), and acquired time lapse images to track changes in ECS topology with a 20-min interval between the image frames. All image analysis including morphological measurements were done on raw images using the "Plot Line Profile" function in ImageJ on structures of interest. Brightness and contrast were adjusted using the "Brightness and Contrast" function in ImageJ. It was applied for illustration purposes only and did not affect the quantitative analysis. No filtering or any other image processing was applied, other than inverting the look-up-tables (LUT). The YFP signal was used only to identify macrophages and was not recorded during subsequent imaging. Only unambiguously recognizable macrophages and ECS were analyzed. Image analysis was performed on SMG slices from two mice in two independent experiments.

Confocal imaging of the p-Tyr signal and quantification

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Mice were perfused with PBS containing 4% paraformaldehyde, SMG were isolated and fixed in the same solution at 4°C for 18 h, followed by at least 5 h dehydration in 30% sucrose. Glands were embedded in OCT (Tissue-Tek) and cut at a thickness of 6 and 20 μm at the cryostat, flash dried and fixed with 4% PFA for 10 min at room temperature. Sections were permeabilized using 0.2% Triton X-100, blocked in 10% serum of the secondary antibody and 2% BSA containing PBS and stained with antibodies for 18 h at 4°C in the same solution, after being washed in PBS and mounted in Prolong Gold containing DAPI (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA). Fluorescence microscopy was performed using the LSM880 confocal microscopes with 40x oil (Plan-Apochromat 40x 1.3 Oil DIC M27) objectives (Zeiss,

Oberkochen, Germany). All images were recorded using sequential excitation. The lack of spectral overlap was confirmed using single fluorescing specimens and antibody specificity via secondary controls. Macrophages were identified via iba-1 and the presence and location of p-Tyr signal was quantified in 7 fields of view using Imaris software. Brightness and contrast were adjusted for each image individually. Gaussian filters were applied using Imaris software.

Chemokine-driven  $T_{RM}$  accumulation

After 6 weeks of reconstitution with CD11c-YFP or CD11c-DTR BM, we transferred  $10^4$  GFP<sup>+</sup> OT-I T cells and infected the day after with  $10^5$  pfu LCMV-OVA. After  $\geq 30$  days p.i., mice were anesthetized one day after i.p. injection of DTx (4 ng/g) as for 2PM imaging. To block immigration of cells from blood, we treated mice with integrin blocking antibodies anti- $\alpha$ L (FD441.8) and anti- $\alpha$ 4 (PS/2) (each at 50 µg/mouse; nanotools). SMG was surgically exposed. Using thin glass capillaries as for Wharton's duct injection, we injected 2 µl of a 1:1 mix of mCXLC10 (100 µg/ml; R&D 466-CR-010) and Qdots<sub>655</sub> (0.16 µM; Thermo Fisher Q2152MP), to obtain a final mCXCL10 amount of 0.5 µg per site of injection. After 4 h, we sacrificed the mice and harvest the SMG for vibratome sectioning. Mosaic images were taken of 100 µm-thick sections, and lobes with the highest Qdot signal were analyzed by transforming the 3D image into extended 2D image, using the Z-projection function of ImageJ.  $T_{RM}$  density in the surrounding area and injection area (defined as an octagon with 500 µm diameter) was calculated using Imaris 8.4.1.

Statistical analysis

Two-tailed, unpaired Student's t-test, Mann-Whitney U-test, one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparisons test, Kruskal-Wallis test, or a Wilcoxon rang test was used to determine statistical significance (Prism, GraphPad). Significance was set at p < 0.05.

**Acknowledgements** We thank Dr. Marcus Thelen (IRB, Bellinzona) for support with confocal imaging. This work benefitted from optical setups of the Microscopy Imaging Center of the University of Bern and of the BioImaging platform of the University of Fribourg. **Funding** This work was funded by Swiss National Foundation (SNF) project grants 31003A 135649, 31003A 153457 and 31003A 172994 (to JVS), Leopoldina fellowship LPDS 2011-16 (to BS) and SFB1129 (to BS and OTF), and the Novartis foundation fellowship 16C193 (to FT). PG and JS acknowledge support of the Spanish Ministry of Economy and Competitiveness, "Centro de Excelencia Severo Ochoa 2013-2017" and support of the CERCA Programme/Generalitat de Catalunya. **Author contributions** BS, FT and XF performed most experiments with support by LMA and NR. LMA and KI carried out SUSHI imaging under supervision of UVN. PG carried out computational analysis under supervision of JS. AR and FM performed correlative electron microscopy of SMG sections under supervision of MI. NP, KAK, FB, DM and OTF provided vital material and support. SMSF, MSD and CS analyzed human SMG sections. BS, FT, XF and JVS designed experiments and wrote the manuscript with input from all coauthors.

# **Competing interests**

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The authors declare no competing interests.

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## **Figure legends**

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Fig. 1. Dynamic motility parameters of memory CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells in PLN versus SMG. A. Experimental layout for CD8<sup>+</sup> T cell analysis in SMG and PLN. B. Immunofluorescent sections of GFP<sup>+</sup> OT-I T cells in PLN and SMG in memory phase (≥ day 30 p.i.). Scale bar, 100 μm (left panels) and 20 μm (right panel). C. Time-lapse 2PM image sequences showing OT-I CD8<sup>+</sup> T<sub>PLN-M</sub> cell motility in PLN in memory phase (≥ day 30 p.i.). **D and E.** Timelapse 2PM image sequences showing OT-I CD8<sup>+</sup> T<sub>RM</sub> cell motility in SMG in memory phase (≥ day 30 p.i.). Arrowheads indicate protrusions (D) and the arrow indicates squeezing behavior (E) of OT-I CD8<sup>+</sup> T<sub>RM</sub>. Scale bar in C-E, 10 μm. Time in min:s. F. Time-coded shapes of exemplary T<sub>PLN-M</sub> and T<sub>RM</sub> tracks. G. Shape factor distribution of T<sub>PLN-M</sub> and T<sub>RM</sub> with exemplary cell shapes. H. Speed frequency distribution of OT-I CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells in PLN and SMG. Arrows indicate median values (µm/min). I. Arrest coefficient frequency distribution of OT-I CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells in PLN and SMG (cut-off < 2.5 μm/min). J. Mean displacement versus time of OT-I T<sub>PLN-M</sub> (left) and  $T_{RM}$  (right) before and after OVA<sub>257-264</sub> injection with motility coefficients ( $\mu$ m<sup>2</sup>/min). **K.** IFN- $\gamma$  expression in OT-I  $T_{PLN-M}$  and  $T_{RM}$  24 h after OVA<sub>257-264</sub> injection (mean  $\pm$  SD). Data in G are from 2-3 independent experiments and 3 mice total for each group. Data in H and I are pooled from 5 to 6 mice from 4 independent experiments with at least 194 tracks analyzed per organ. Data in J are pooled of 3-4 mice from 2 independent experiments. Data in K show one of two independent experiments. Data in G and I were analyzed with Mann-Whitney-test and data in H with Student's t-test. \*\*\*, p < 0.001.

**Fig. 2. SMG T**<sub>RM</sub> **move alongside tissue macrophages. A.** Immunofluorescent section showing localization of SMG T<sub>RM</sub> adjacent to tissue macrophages (arrows). Scale bars, 1 mm (left), 100 μm (middle) and 20 μm (right). **B.** Percent of SMG T<sub>RM</sub> adjacent to tissue macrophages. Data are pooled from 105 FOV with a total of 3270 T<sub>RM</sub> and shown as box and whisker graph with 2.5 – 97.5 percentiles. **C.** Correlative light and electron microscopy sections (left; confocal image; middle and right, TEM image) showing close spatial association of SMG T<sub>RM</sub> and tissue macrophages. M, tissue macrophages; E, epithelial cell; ME, myoepithelial cell; ECM, extracellular matrix. Scale bar, 5 (left), 2 (middle) and 1 μm (right). **D.** TEM images showing attachment of epithelial cells to ECM (top) and through intercellular junctions (white arrows; bottom). Scale bar, 800 nm. **E.** 2PM time-lapse image sequence showing overlap of OT-I T<sub>RM</sub> tracks with tissue macrophages in SMG in

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memory phase ( $\geq$  day 30 p.i.). Scale bar, 20  $\mu$ m. Time in min:s. The right panels show the time accumulated overlays of images with or without OT-I  $T_{RM}$ . **F.** Immunofluorescent section of WT and CXCR3<sup>-/-</sup> OT-I T cells and macrophages. Magnified image shows association of CXCR3<sup>-/-</sup> OT-I  $T_{RM}$  to tissue macrophages (arrows). Scale bar, 100  $\mu$ m (left) and 20  $\mu$ m (right).

Fig. 3. Confinement induces SMG T<sub>RM</sub> motility through chemokine- and adhesion-mediated signals and bivalent cation-dependent friction. A. Experimental layout of under agarose assay. Arrows indicate F-actin flow. B. Representative  $T_N$  (n = 75) and  $T_{RM}$  (n = 58) tracks in presence of chemokine and ICAM-1. C. Speeds of T<sub>N</sub> and T<sub>RM</sub>. Data are presented as Tukey box and whiskers plot. **D.** Time-lapse image sequence showing T<sub>RM</sub> motility among immotile T<sub>N</sub>. T<sub>RM</sub> displacement shown by segmented line. Scale bar, 20 μm. Time in min:s. E. Time-lapse image sequence in under agarose plates coated with HSA showing T<sub>PLN-M</sub> (top) and T<sub>RM</sub> (bottom) motility. Cell displacement shown by segmented line. Scale bar, 10 μm. Time in min:s. F. Representative T<sub>N</sub> (n = 75),  $T_{PLN-M}$  (n = 226) and  $T_{RM}$  (n = 379) tracks. **G.**  $T_N$ ,  $T_{PLN-M}$  and  $T_{RM}$  speeds in under agarose plates coated with HSA. Numbers indicate percentage of tracks > 3 μm/min (boxed). Lines indicate median. H. Meandering index of T<sub>N</sub>, T<sub>PLN-M</sub> and T<sub>RM</sub> tracks. I. T<sub>RM</sub> speeds after treatment with PTx, RGD peptide, anti-Mac1 mAb, or in presence of EDTA. Numbers indicate percentage of tracks > 3  $\mu$ m/min (boxed). Lines indicate median. J. Image sequence of TRM protrusions in presence of EDTA. Scale bar, 10 μm. **K.** Representative T<sub>RM</sub> cell tracks in presence of EDTA (n = 75). L. Mean displacement over time of  $T_{RM}$  tracks. Numbers indicate motility coefficients (µm²/min). Data in C, G, H, I and L were pooled from at least 2 independent experiments each. Statistical analysis was performed with unpaired t-test (C) or Kruskal-Wallis with Dunn's multiple comparison in G - I (as compared to " $T_{RM}$ "). \*\*, p < 0.01; \*\*\*, p < 0.001.

Fig. 4.  $T_{RM}$  insert protrusions for cell displacement in absence of external chemoattractants and friction. A. Experimental layout. Arrows indicate protrusion direction. B. Image sequences of  $T_{RM}$  within  $T_N$  clusters in presence of EDTA. Arrowheads show membrane protrusions; segmented line indicates cell track. Scale bar, 10  $\mu$ m. Time in min:s. C. Graphical representation of  $T_{RM}$  inside  $T_N$  cluster (i) or dispersed (ii). D.  $T_{RM}$  track speeds according to their location. Numbers indicate percentage of tracks > 3  $\mu$ m/min (boxed). Lines indicate

median. **E.** Meandering index of  $T_{RM}$  tracks sorted according to their location. Lines indicate median. **F.** Image sequences of  $T_{RM}$  alone (top) and with 7 µm polystyrene beads (bottom) in presence of EDTA. Arrowheads show membrane protrusions. Segmented line indicates cell track. Scale bar, 10 µm, time in min:s. **G.**  $T_{RM}$  track speeds according to their association with or without beads. Numbers indicate percentage of tracks > 3 µm/min (boxed). Lines indicate median. **H.** Meandering index of  $T_{RM}$  tracks sorted according to their location. Lines indicate median. Data in D, E, G and H are pooled from 4 - 5 independent experiments. Statistical analysis was performed with Mann-Whitney test. \*\*\*, p < 0.001.

Fig. 5. Residual *in vivo* SMG T<sub>RM</sub> motility during inhibition of Gαi and integrins. A. Experimental layout. B. OT-I T<sub>PLN-M</sub> and T<sub>RM</sub> speeds after combined anti-αL, α4 and αE integrin mAb (αItg) inhibition. Arrows indicate median values (μm/min). C. 2PM image of T<sub>RM</sub> – tissue macrophage colocalization in αItg-treated SMG. Arrows indicate T cell – tissue macrophage contacts. Scale bar, 20 μm. D. OT-I T<sub>RM</sub> speeds in SMG after WD administration of RAD or RGD peptide. E. WT and CXCR3<sup>-/-</sup> OT-I T<sub>RM</sub> speeds in SMG in memory phase (≥ day 30 p.i.). Arrows indicate median values (μm/min). F. OT-I T<sub>PLN-M</sub> and T<sub>RM</sub> speeds after systemic treatment with active PTx or inactive (mutant) PTx (PTx<sub>mut</sub>). Arrows indicate median values (μm/min). G. 2PM image of T<sub>RM</sub> — tissue macrophage colocalization in PTx-treated SMG. Arrows indicate T cell – tissue macrophage contacts. Scale bar, 20 μm. H. Flow cytometry plot of mixed T<sub>RM</sub> and macrophages. I. Quantification of cluster formation as shown in H. J. Example image sequences showing T<sub>RM</sub> in transient contact with macrophages under agarose on fibronectin-coated plates. T<sub>RM</sub> displacement is shown by segmented line. Scale bar, 50 μm. Time in min:s. K. T<sub>RM</sub> — macrophage contact duration for individual tracks. Data in B, D, E and F are pooled from 2-5 independent experiments with a total of 2-7 mice with at least 111 tracks per condition and analyzed with unpaired Student's t-test. Data in I are pooled from 2 independent experiments and analyzed using unpaired Student's t-test. \*\*\*, p < 0.001.

Fig. 6. Tissue macrophage attachment in SMG. A. Experimental layout of super-resolution shadow imaging (SUSHI) of SMG slices. **B.** Example of SUSHI image for determination of extracellular space. E, epithelium; BV, blood vessel. Scale bar, 10  $\mu$ m. **C.** Overview of ECS signal with SMG epithelium (E) and CD11c-YFP+ tissue

macrophages. Scale bar, 10  $\mu$ m. **D.** Example of epithelial attachment before and after hyperosmotic challenge. Arrows show interepithelial junctions. Scale bar, 5  $\mu$ m. **E.** Example of macrophage detachment before and after hyperosmotic challenge. Arrowheads indicate detachment. Scale bar, 5  $\mu$ m. **F.** Quantification of gap size between macrophage and epithelium before and after hyperosmotic challenge. **G.** Immunofluorescent SMG section showing macrophages and epithelial cells in acini and ducts (identified by luminal ZO-1 labelling). Yellow dashed lines indicate outlines of acini and ducts. Scale bar, 10  $\mu$ m. **H.** Confocal image of SMG section with macrophage protrusions traversing a basement membrane below an epithelial acinus (indicated by arrow). Scale bar, 20  $\mu$ m (overview) and 5  $\mu$ m (insert). **I.** Electron microscopy image of macrophages creating a discontinuation of the basement membrane of an acinus (indicated by arrow). Numbers mark two neighboring macrophages. Arrowheads indicate lack of tight adhesion between macrophages and neighboring cells. Scale bar, 2  $\mu$ m. All images are representative of at least 2 independent experiments. Data in F were analyzed using a paired t-test. \*\*\*, p < 0.001.

Fig. 7. Tissue macrophages assist T<sub>RM</sub> patrolling of SMG. A. 2PM time-lapse image sequence of T<sub>RM</sub> in DTx-treated CD11c-YFP or CD11c-DTR -> Ubi-GFP chimeras. Magenta lines indicate outlines of acini, white segmented lines indicate cell tracks. Scale bar, 50 μm (overview) and 20 μm (insert). Time in min:s. B. Example T<sub>RM</sub> tracks in presence or absence of macrophage. Scale bar, 10 μm. C. Frequency distribution of T<sub>RM</sub> speeds in DTx-treated CD11c-YFP or CD11c-DTR bone marrow chimera. Arrows indicate median (μm/min). D. Track analysis outline. Top panel. U-turns (red) describe tracks reversing direction while excluding continuous turns. Bottom panel. Synthetic tracks were generated to assess dwell time in an 80 μm-diameter sphere (black). One example track is shown for control (light blue) and macrophage-depleted (dark blue) condition.

E. Percent of tracks making U-turn. Bars indicate 95% confidence intervals. F. *In silic*o dwell times for T<sub>RM</sub> tracks in 80 μm-spheres based on measured track parameters. G. 2PM time-lapse image sequences of T<sub>RM</sub> crawling along a macrophage to enter acini. Epithelial signal was manually masked to show an isolated acinus in zoomed panels. Dashed white line indicates area displayed in x2-view, and arrow indicates T<sub>RM</sub> - macrophage contact. Top: Scale bar, 50 μm (overview) and 20 μm (insert); bottom: Scale bar, 20 μm (overview) and 10 μm (insert). Time in min:s. H. Percentage of T<sub>RM</sub> transitions into or out of acini and ducts

in CD11c-YFP -> Ubi-GFP chimeras (n = 42) with and without contact to macrophages. I, J. 2PM time-lapse image sequence of CD11cYFP -> Ubi-GFP and DTx-treated CD11cDTR->Ubi-GFP chimeras were analyzed for  $T_{RM}$  crossing events (leaving or entering acini). I shows average transitions per hour track duration, and J depicts transitions per 1000  $\mu$ m total distance migrated. Data points represent individual image sequences. Line indicates mean. K. Experimental layout for analysis of  $T_{RM}$  response to local chemokine. CXCL10 was injected with a fluorescent tracer for 4 h to allow  $T_{RM}$  accumulation. Integrin blocking mAbs prevent recruitment of circulating T cells. L.  $T_{RM}$  per cm² at sites of CXCL10 injection in presence or absence of macrophages. Numbers indicate mean  $\pm$  SD. Data in C, I, J and L are pooled from 2-4 independent experiments with 4-6 mice total. Data in C, I and J were analyzed with Mann-Whitney and data in L were analyzed with Wilcoxon rank test. \*, p < 0.005; \*\*\*, p < 0.001.

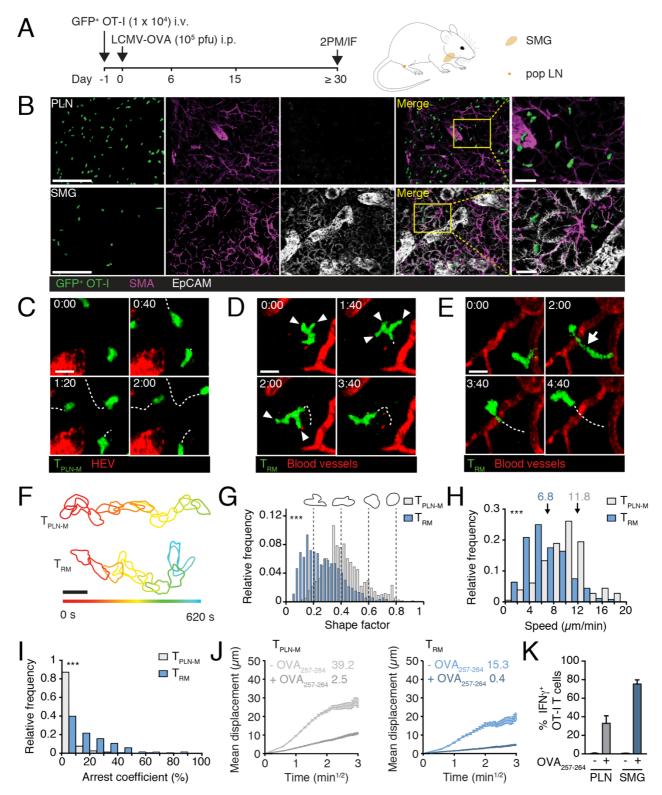


Figure 1

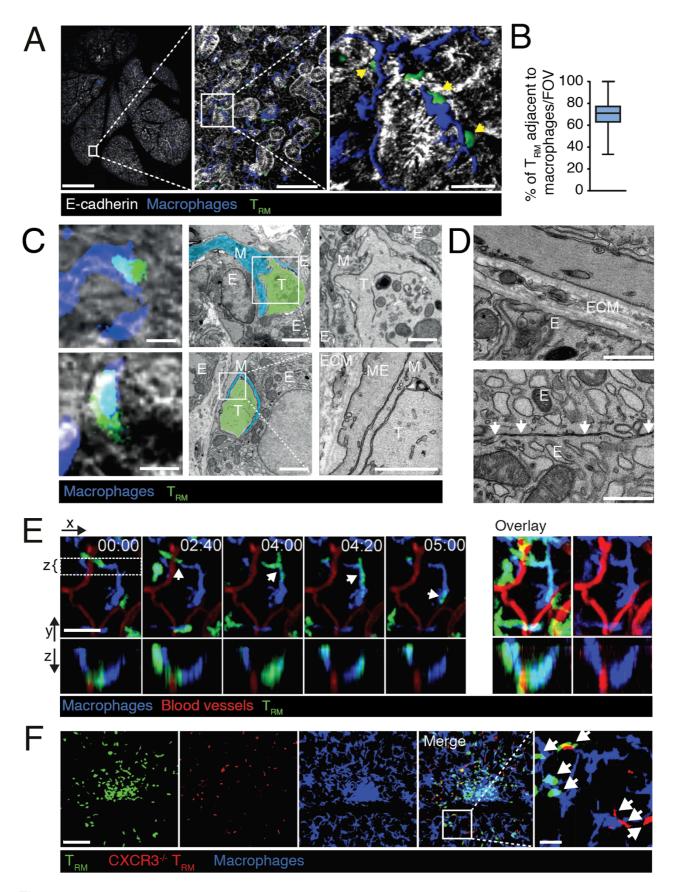
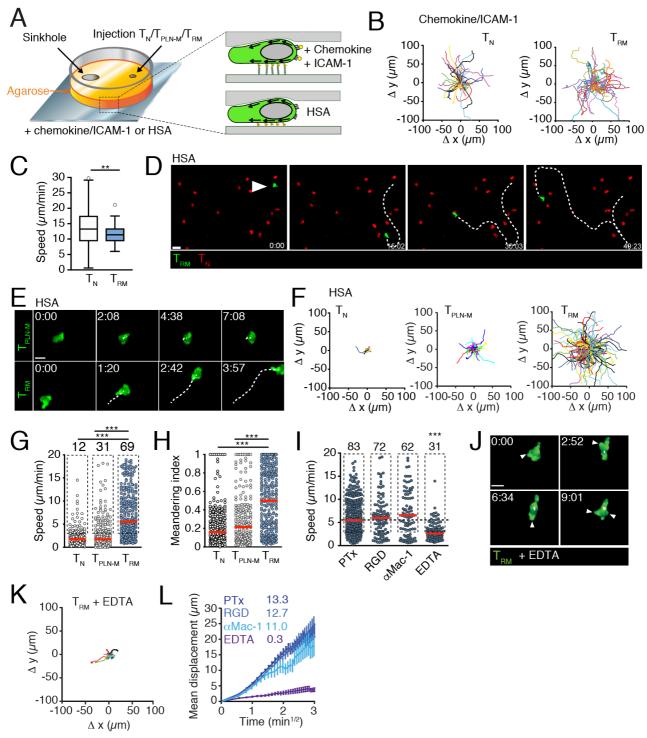


Figure 2



1133 Figure 3

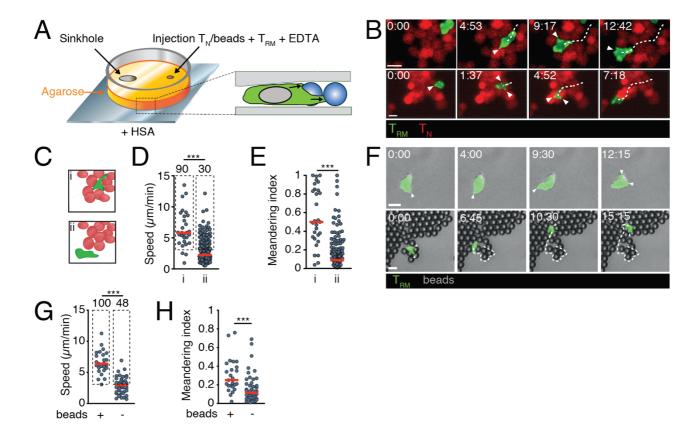


Figure 4

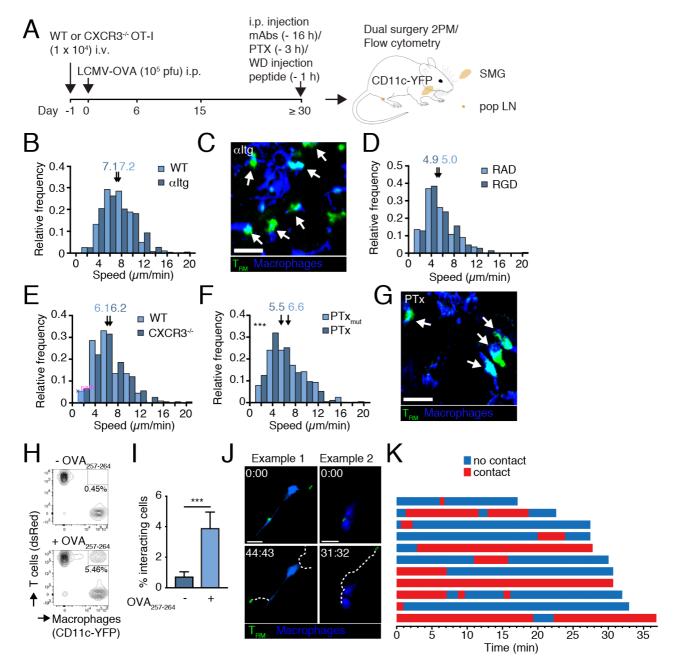


Figure 5

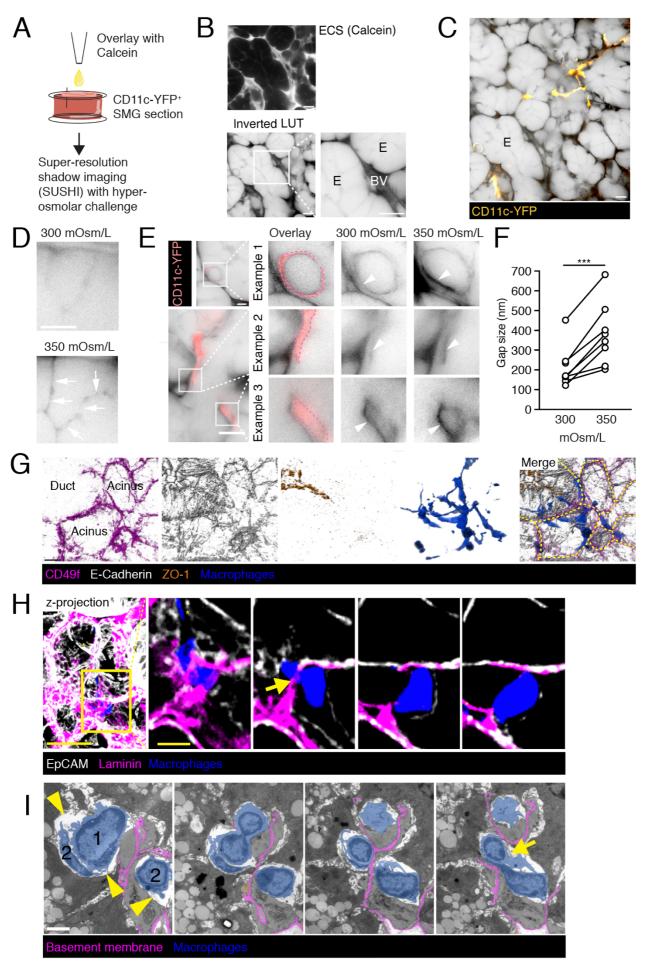


Figure 6

