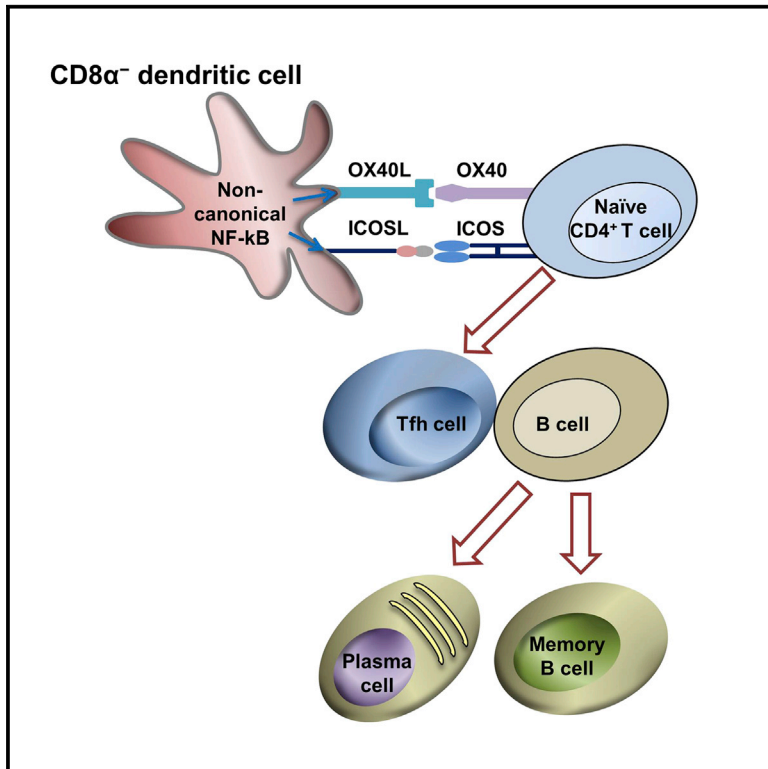


CD8 α ⁻ Dendritic Cells Induce Antigen-Specific T Follicular Helper Cells Generating Efficient Humoral Immune Responses

Graphical Abstract



Authors

Changsik Shin, Jae-A Han, Hyein Koh, ..., Eui-Cheol Shin, Seongho Ryu, Yoonkyung Do

Correspondence

ryu@sch.ac.kr

In Brief

Shin et al. demonstrate that the CD8 α ⁻ DC subset efficiently induces functional antigen-specific Tfh cells to generate both high-quality and high-quantity humoral immune responses. Furthermore, they describe a critical role of non-canonical NF- κ B-induced ICOSL and OX40L on CD8 α ⁻ DCs in Tfh cell differentiation.

Highlights

- The CD8 α ⁻ DC subset efficiently induces functional antigen-specific Tfh cells
- A small amount of antigen delivered to CD8 α ⁻ DCs is sufficient to induce Tfh cells
- ICOSL and OX40L on CD8 α ⁻ DCs have a critical role in Tfh cell differentiation
- Efficient humoral immune responses are generated by CD8 α ⁻ DC-induced Tfh cells



CD8 α ⁻ Dendritic Cells Induce Antigen-Specific T Follicular Helper Cells Generating Efficient Humoral Immune Responses

Changsik Shin,¹ Jae-A Han,¹ Hyein Koh,² Bongseo Choi,¹ Yongbin Cho,¹ Hyeongmin Jeong,¹ Jea-Sun Ra,¹ Pil Soo Sung,³ Eui-Cheol Shin,³ Seongho Ryu,^{4,5,*} and Yoonkyung Do^{1,5}

¹School of Life Sciences, Ulsan National Institute of Science and Technology, UNIST-gil 50, Ulsan 689-798, Republic of Korea

²Laboratory of Cellular Physiology and Immunology and Chris Browne Center, The Rockefeller University, New York, NY 10065, USA

³Laboratory of Immunology and Infectious Diseases, Graduate School of Medical Science and Engineering, Korea Advanced Institute of Science and Technology, Daejeon 305-338, Republic of Korea

⁴Soonchunhyang Institute of Medi-bio Science (SIMS), Soonchunhyang University, Chonan-Si, Chungcheongnam-do 336-745, Republic of Korea

⁵Co-senior author

*Correspondence: ryu@sch.ac.kr

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SUMMARY

Recent studies on T follicular helper (Tfh) cells have significantly advanced our understanding of T cell-dependent B cell responses. However, little is known about the early stage of Tfh cell commitment by dendritic cells (DCs), particularly by the conventional CD8 α ⁺ and CD8 α ⁻ DC subsets. We show that CD8 α ⁻ DCs localized at the interfollicular zone play a pivotal role in the induction of antigen-specific Tfh cells by upregulating the expression of *Icosl* and *Ox40l* through the non-canonical NF- κ B signaling pathway. Tfh cells induced by CD8 α ⁻ DCs function as true B cell helpers, resulting in significantly increased humoral immune responses against various human pathogenic antigens, including *Yersinia pestis* LcrV, HIV Gag, and hepatitis B surface antigen. Our findings uncover a mechanistic role of CD8 α ⁻ DCs in the initiation of Tfh cell differentiation and thereby provide a rationale for investigating CD8 α ⁻ DCs in enhancing antigen-specific humoral immune responses for improving vaccines and therapeutics.

INTRODUCTION

T follicular helper (Tfh) cells have been identified as a CD4⁺ T helper cell subset that functions as a true B cell helper (Crotty, 2011; Ma et al., 2012). Tfh cells highly express a B cell homing chemokine receptor, CXCR5, which facilitates their migration to germinal centers (GCs) in a CXCL13-dependent manner. There, they help cognate B cells to become antibody-secreting cells (ASCs) or memory B cells, leading to efficient humoral immunity with long-term memory (Goodnow et al., 2010; Tangye and Tarlinton, 2009). Since the term Tfh cells was first intro-

duced (Breitfeld et al., 2000; Schaerli et al., 2000), various research has provided valuable data on distinct features of Tfh cells, such as high expression of CXCR5, ICOS, PD1, and SAP, key cytokines such as IL-21 and recently IL-4 (Reinhardt et al., 2009), and the major transcription factors Bcl6 and c-Maf, to be distinguished from other CD4⁺ T helper cell lineages (Crotty, 2011; Ma et al., 2012). Given the fact that efficient Tfh cell-dependent long-term humoral immunity is an essential defensive arm of the vertebrate immune system, it is not surprising that aberrant Tfh cell development or activity has been known to be closely associated with various human diseases such as autoimmunity, humoral immunodeficiency, and T cell lymphomas (Tangye et al., 2013). Thus, an understanding of the initiation and the regulation of these specialized CD4⁺ T helper cells is critical to improve vaccine efficacy as well as to design novel therapies.

The role of cognate B cells regarding the differentiation of Tfh cells has been initially validated by several studies. Deficiency of not only B cells but also various B cell functional molecules, CD19, CD40, major histocompatibility complex (MHC) class II, and ICOSL, results in the decreased number of Tfh cells (Akiba et al., 2005; Deenick et al., 2010; Haynes et al., 2007; Johnston et al., 2009). In addition, the interaction between activated CD4⁺ T cells and cognate B cells via SAP, a cytoplasmic adaptor protein of the SLAM family, was shown to be critical in Tfh cell generation (Cannons et al., 2010). In contrast, another study has shown that continuous antigen presentation was sufficient to induce Tfh cell differentiation in B cell-deficient mice (Deenick et al., 2010), suggesting that other antigen-presenting cells (APCs) are essential in Tfh cell differentiation. Moreover, a number of recent independent studies demonstrated that Tfh cells could arise soon after priming by dendritic cells (DCs) (Baumjohann et al., 2011; Choi et al., 2011; Goenka et al., 2011; Vinuesa and Cyster, 2011), and thus, it seems that cognate B cells are generally required for maintaining functional Tfh cells, while DCs are necessary to prime Tfh cells, especially at the early stage of Bcl6 upregulation.

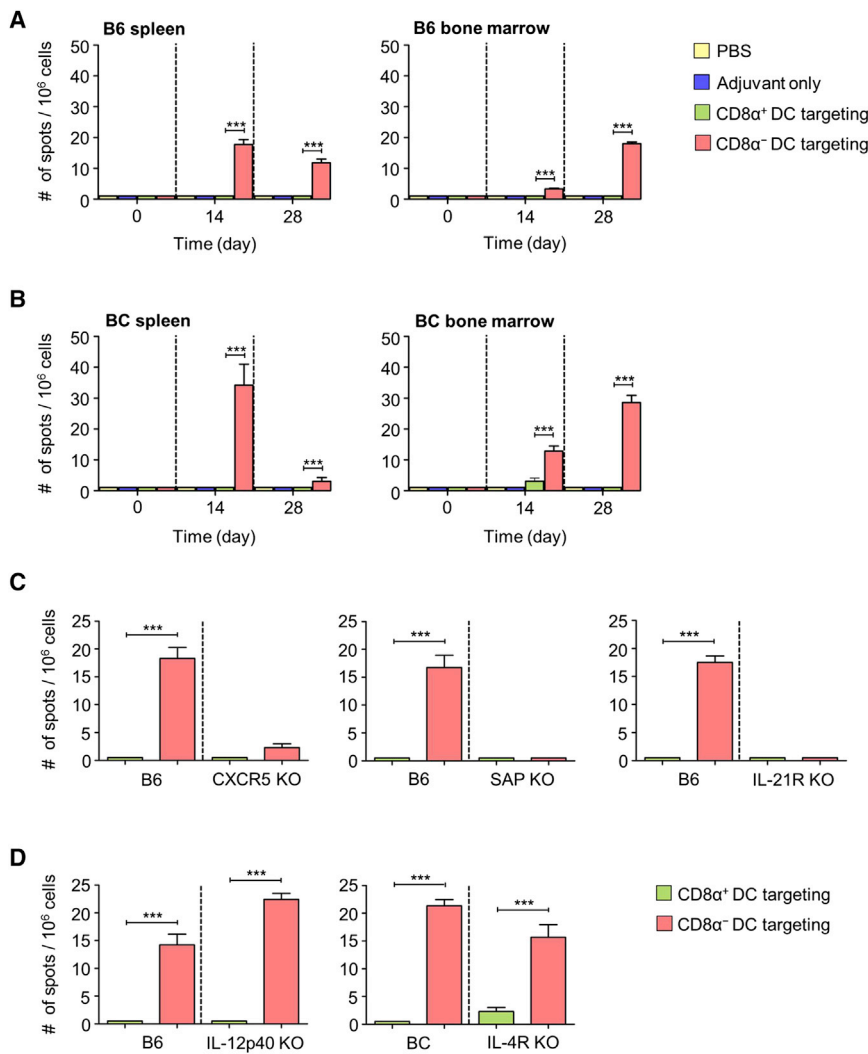


Figure 1. CD8 α^- DCs induce Tfh Cell-Dependent Antibody-Secreting Cells

(A and B) Naive C57BL/6 (B6) (A) or BALB/c (BC) (B) mice were immunized intraperitoneally (i.p.) with PBS, α CD40 monoclonal antibody (mAb) + poly(I:C) (adjuvant only), α DEC:V (CD8 α^+ DC targeting), or α DCIR2:V (CD8 α^- DC targeting) conjugated mAbs in the presence of α CD40 mAb and poly(I:C). At each indicated time point, spleen or bone marrow cells were prepared and anti-V IgG antibody-secreting cells (ASCs) were analyzed. (C and D) CXCR5-KO, SAP-KO, IL-21R-KO (C), IL-12p40-KO, IL-4R-KO (D), or naive B6 or BC mice were immunized i.p. with either α DEC:V (CD8 α^+ DC targeting) or α DCIR2:V (CD8 α^- DC targeting) conjugated mAbs in the presence of α CD40 mAb and poly(I:C). Two weeks after the immunization, spleen cells were prepared and anti-V IgG ASCs were analyzed.

***p < 0.001. All data represent mean \pm SD of three or more independent experiments (A–D); n = 3 per group.

various endocytic receptors expressed on DC subsets enriched our understanding of the roles of these DC subsets in vivo. Moreover, conjugating such targeting antibodies with a wide range of pathogenic antigens has been validated in various disease models to improve vaccine efficacy and develop novel therapeutic approaches (Do et al., 2010; Trumpfheller et al., 2012).

In this study, we utilized both DC-subset targeting and DC-subset sorting strategies to study how these two distinct DC subsets differently influence Tfh cell differentiation by unveiling their underlying mechanisms and signaling pathways.

Although some key molecules of DCs have been reported to be involved in the induction of Tfh cells (Choi et al., 2011; Cucak et al., 2009; Fillatreau and Gray, 2003), how DCs mechanistically drive naive CD4 $^+$ T cells into Tfh cells differently from various CD4 $^+$ effector T cell subsets still remains unclear. Particularly, the roles of two distinct splenic CD8 α^+ and CD8 α^- DC subsets in inducing Tfh cells are largely unexplored. Among various DC subsets characterized (Shortman and Liu, 2002), two major myeloid DC subsets in the spleen are well defined based on the expression of CD8 α and its anatomical location. CD8 α^+ DCs express the endocytic receptor, DEC-205, and are located in the T cell zone within the lymphoid organs. They are specialized in uptaking dying cells (Iyoda et al., 2002) and cross-presentation of non-replicating antigens, leading to cytotoxic T cell priming (den Haan et al., 2000). In contrast, CD8 α^- DCs, known to specialize in MHC class II presentation (Dudzick et al., 2007), express a distinct uptake receptor, DCIR2, and they are enriched in the bridging regions of the marginal zone (Iyoda et al., 2002). A DC targeting strategy by harnessing monoclonal antibodies (mAbs) (Nussenzweig et al., 1982; Swiggard et al., 1995) against

Our data demonstrate that functional Tfh cells are efficiently induced by the CD8 α^- DC subset in vivo via the enhanced expression of ICOSL and OX40L through the non-canonical NF- κ B pathway, leading to efficient humoral immunity against various human pathogenic antigens.

RESULTS

CD8 α^- DCs Enhance the Generation of Tfh Cell-Dependent ASCs

In order to examine whether the two DC subsets have different roles in the generation of Tfh cell-dependent antigen-specific ASCs in vivo and in situ, we utilized distinct DC subsets targeting mAbs conjugated with LcrV (V) protein from *Yersinia pestis*: anti-DEC-205:V- (for CD8 α^+ DCs) and anti-DCIR2:V-conjugated (for CD8 α^- DCs) antibodies. Only CD8 α^- DC targeting induced significant numbers of anti-V ASCs in the spleen and the bone marrow, while no ASCs were observed following CD8 α^+ DC targeting (Figure 1A). The total number of ASCs in the spleen was decreased after 28 days while those in the bone marrow

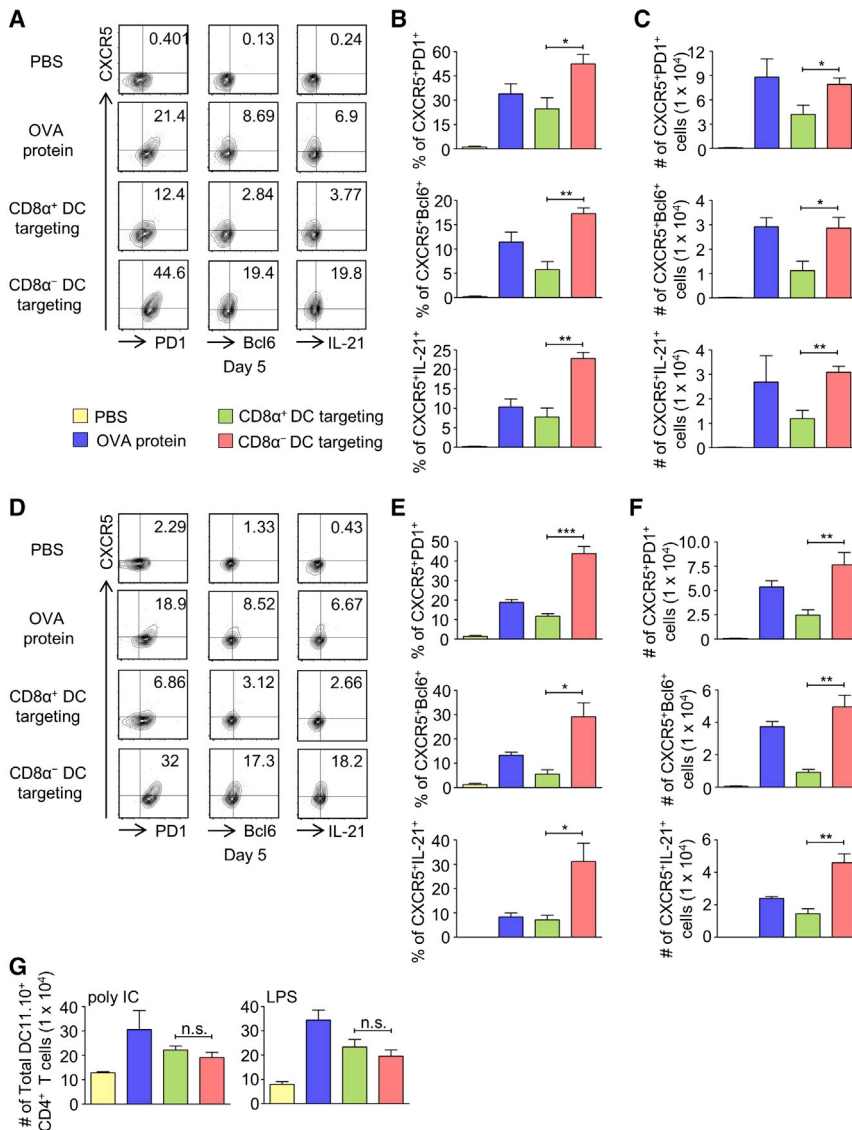


Figure 2. CD8 α^- DCs Efficiently Induce Tfh Cells In Vivo

(A–G) OVA-specific DO11.10 $^+$ Thy1.1 $^+$ CD4 $^+$ T cells were adoptively transferred to naive Thy1.2 $^+$ BALB/c mice at day –1 and immunized subcutaneously (s.c.) with PBS, soluble OVA protein (OVA protein), α DEC:OVA (CD8 α^+ DC targeting), or α DCIR2:OVA (CD8 α^- DC targeting) conjugated mAbs in the presence of poly(I:C) (A–C) or LPS (D–F) at day 0. At each indicated time point after immunization, lymph node cells were prepared and Tfh cells gated from the DO11.10 $^+$ CD4 $^+$ CD44 $^+$ T cells were analyzed.

(A and D) Representative flow cytometry plots of CXCR5 $^+$ PD1 $^+$, CXCR5 $^+$ Bcl6 $^+$, or CXCR5 $^+$ IL-21 $^+$ Tfh cells.

(B and E) Percentages (%) of Tfh cells described in (A) and (D), respectively.

(C and F) The number (#) of Tfh cells described in (A) and (D), respectively.

(G) The total number of DO11.10 $^+$ CD4 $^+$ T cells. Data represent mean \pm SEM of three or more independent experiments (B, C, and E–G).

* p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001. n = 3–4 per group. See also Figures S1 and S2.

CD8 α^- DCs Are Superior in Inducing Antigen-Specific Tfh Cells In Vivo

To investigate roles of the two DC subsets in antigen-specific Tfh cell induction in vivo, we utilized DC subset targeting strategy via ovalbumin (OVA)-conjugated antibodies and OVA transgenic mice. Five days after immunization, higher percentages and numbers of CXCR5 $^+$ PD1 $^+$, CXCR5 $^+$ Bcl6 $^+$, and CXCR5 $^+$ IL-21 $^+$ Tfh cells were observed in the lymph nodes and spleen in the CD8 α^- DC targeted group compared with those in the CD8 α^+ DC targeted group (Figures 2A–2C and S1B–S1D).

increased, confirming the previously known fact that long-lived ASCs reside in the bone marrow (Slifka et al., 1995). Similar observations were made in a different mouse strain (Figure 1B), suggesting that the increased total number of ASCs by CD8 α^- DC targeting is not limited to a particular MHC haplotype.

Then, we compared the generation of anti-V ASCs in various Tfh cell-related knockout (KO) mice. The data showed that anti-V ASCs induced by targeting CD8 α^- DCs were dramatically decreased in CXCR5-KO (Breitfeld et al., 2000), SAP-KO (Qi et al., 2008), and IL-21 receptor (R)-KO (Nurieva et al., 2008) mice (Figure 1C), but this decrease was not observed in IL-12p40-KO (Ma et al., 2009; Mosmann and Coffman, 1989) or IL-4R-KO (Kaplan et al., 1996) mice (Figure 1D). Taken together, these data indicated that CD8 α^- DCs enhance antigen-specific ASCs in a Tfh cell-dependent manner rather than a Th1 cell- or Th2 cell-dependent manner.

Next, to confirm the capacity of CD8 α^- DCs in inducing Tfh cells in vivo under different maturation cues, similar experiments were performed in the presence of LPS. We again observed that higher percentages and numbers of CXCR5 $^+$ PD1 $^+$, CXCR5 $^+$ Bcl6 $^+$, and CXCR5 $^+$ IL-21 $^+$ Tfh cells were induced by CD8 α^- DCs in the lymph nodes and spleen compared with those induced by CD8 α^+ DCs (Figures 2D–2F and S2B–S2D). There was no significant difference in the total number of DO11.10 $^+$ CD4 $^+$ T cells induced by both DC subsets in the lymph nodes (Figure 2G). In the spleen, the total number of DO11.10 $^+$ CD4 $^+$ T cells was higher in the CD8 α^- DC targeted group (Figures S1E and S2E). When the numbers of Tfh cells were normalized by the total number of DO11.10 $^+$ CD4 $^+$ T cells, we were still able to observe greater number of Tfh cells in the CD8 α^- DC targeted group (Figures S1F and S2F). As previously reported (Do et al., 2010), CD8 α^+ DCs were superior in inducing interferon- γ (IFN- γ)-secreting CD4 $^+$ T cells regardless of total number of

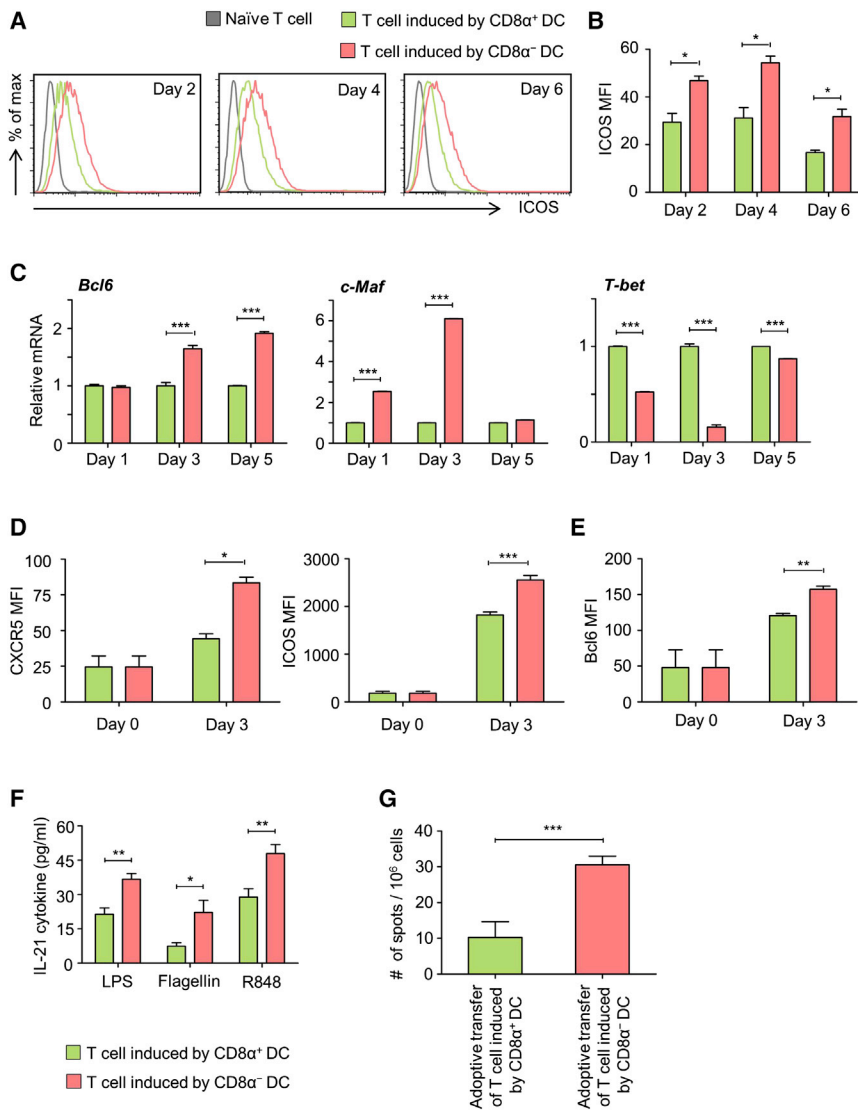


Figure 3. CD8 α ⁻ DCs Induce Tfh Cells In Vitro

(A–G) OT-II OVA specific V α 2⁺CD4⁺ T cells were co-cultured with each DC subset in the presence of OVA peptide (323–339) with poly(I:C) (A–C and G), LPS (D and E), or LPS, Flagellin, or R848 (F). At each indicated time point after the co-culture, V α 2⁺CD4⁺CD44⁺ T cells were analyzed. (A) Representative histograms of ICOS expression.

(B) Median fluorescence intensity (MFI) of three independent experiments described in (A); mean \pm SEM.

(C) The relative mRNA expression of *Bcl6*, *c-Maf*, or *T-bet*.

(D and E) MFI of CXCR5, ICOS (D), and *Bcl6* (E).

(F) IL-21 production.

(G) Three days after co-culture, V α 2⁺CD4⁺CD44⁺ T cells were sorted and adoptively transferred together with naive CD19⁺ B cells into RAG-1-deficient mice. Fourteen days after the boost immunization with OVA protein, spleen cells were prepared and anti-IgG ASCs were analyzed (n = 2 per group).

*p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001. Data represent mean \pm SEM of three or more (C–F) or two (G) independent experiments. See also Figure S3.

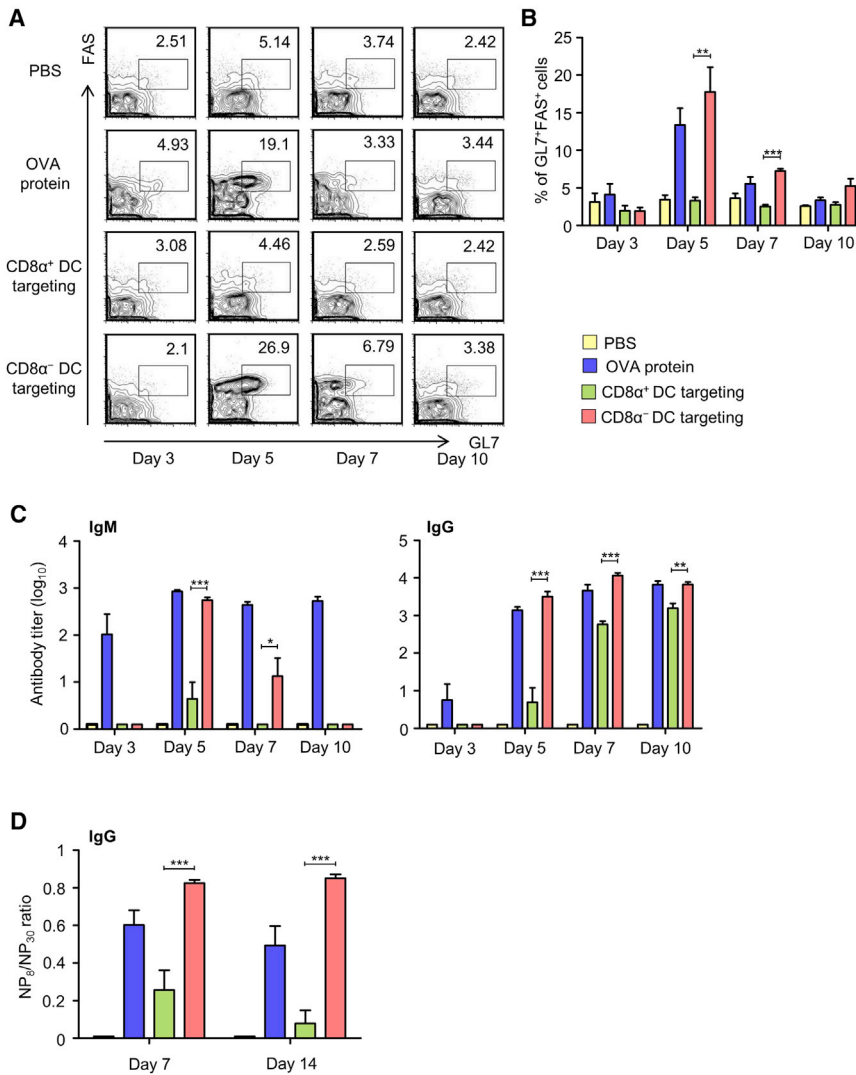
DO11.10⁺CD4⁺ T cells (Figure S2G), whereas CD8 α ⁻ DCs induced interleukin-4 (IL-4)-secreting CD4⁺ T cells (Figure S2H). Taken together, our data clearly showed that CD8 α ⁻ DCs specialize in priming antigen-specific Tfh cells in vivo.

CD8 α ⁻ DCs Specialize in Inducing Tfh Cells In Vitro

To validate that our observation of Tfh cells generated in vivo is due to intrinsic differences between CD8 α ⁺ DCs and CD8 α ⁻ DCs and not to DC subset receptor-specific responses via the DC targeting strategy, the two DC subsets were sorted and the induction of antigen-specific Tfh cells was compared in vitro. At each indicated time point after the co-culture of OVA-specific naive CD4⁺ T cells with either CD8 α ⁺ or CD8 α ⁻ DCs, the CD44⁺CD4⁺ T cells were sorted and then analyzed for Tfh cell-related surface molecules, transcription factors, and cytokines. Notably, we observed a higher expression of ICOS on the CD4⁺ T cells induced by CD8 α ⁻ DCs as early as day 2 followed by elevated *Bcl6* expression on day 3 (Figures

3A–3C and S3A), which supports the previously suggested hypothesis on a molecular hierarchy from ICOS to *Bcl6* (Choi et al., 2011). The expression of SAP and *c-Maf* (Bauquet et al., 2009) was also highly increased in the CD4⁺ T cells induced by CD8 α ⁻ DCs, whereas *T-bet*, a transcription factor of Th1 cells, was highly detected in those induced by CD8 α ⁺ DCs (Figures 3C and S3A). Such phenomena were again not restricted to a given DC-maturation cue, poly(I:C). We observed that the CD4⁺ T cells induced by CD8 α ⁻ DCs in the presence of lipopolysaccharide (LPS) expressed higher levels of CXCR5 and ICOS (Figure 3D), *Bcl6* (Figure 3E), and highly secreted IL-21 (Figure 3F). In addition, under Toll-like receptor 5 (TLR5) (flagellin) and TLR7/8 (R848) stimuli, the CD4⁺ T cells induced by CD8 α ⁻ DCs secreted higher IL-21 compared with those induced by CD8 α ⁺ DCs (Figure 3F). There was no significant difference in CD4⁺ T cell proliferation induced by the two DC subsets in vitro (Figure S3B).

In order to confirm the function of in-vitro-induced Tfh cells in B cell help, we adoptively transferred the in vitro DC subset-primed CD4⁺ T cells together with naive CD19⁺ B cells into RAG-1-deficient mice. After prime and boost immunization with soluble OVA protein, we observed significantly increased anti-OVA ASCs in the group that received the Tfh cells induced by CD8 α ⁻ DCs (Figure 3G). Together, these data clearly demonstrate that CD8 α ⁻ DCs specialize in priming antigen-specific Tfh cells.



CD8 α^- DCs Efficiently Enhance GC Formation, Reaction, and Antibody Titers

We examined the ability of Tfh cells as true B cell helpers *in vivo* by utilizing a DC targeting strategy. As expected, we observed higher percentage of CD19⁺IgD⁻GL7⁺FAS⁺ GC B cells in splenocytes collected from the CD8 α^- DC targeted group under different stimuli cues (Figures 4A, 4B, S4A, and S4B). Histologically, the formation of PNA⁺ cells surrounded by IgD⁺ cells was confirmed in the CD8 α^- DC targeted group, whereas no GC formation was observed in the CD8 α^+ DC targeted group (Figure S4C). The CD8 α^- DC targeted group showed higher titers of both anti-OVA immunoglobulin M (IgM) and IgG antibodies than those from the CD8 α^+ DC targeted group (Figure 4C). Titers of anti-OVA IgM induced by CD8 α^- DCs were higher than those induced by CD8 α^+ DCs at day 5, which were isotype-switched to IgG at day 5. In the case of the CD8 α^+ DC targeted group, the isotype-switched anti-OVA IgG was notably detected 7 days after the immunization, but its titers still remained lower than those from the CD8 α^- DC targeted group. To further confirm the

Figure 4. CD8 α^- DCs Enhance the Formation of GC B Cells and Antibody Titers

(A–D) OVA-specific DO11.10⁺Thy1.1⁺CD4⁺ T cells were adoptively transferred to naive Thy1.2⁺ BALB/c mice at day –1 and immunized s.c. with PBS, OVA protein, α DEC:OVA (CD8 α^+ DC targeting), or α DCIR2:OVA (CD8 α^- DC targeting) conjugated mAbs in the presence of poly(I:C) (A–C) or LPS (D) at day 0. At each indicated time point after the immunization, spleen cells (A and B) or sera (C and D) were prepared for analysis. (A) Representative flow cytometry plots of GL7⁺FAS⁺ GC B cells gated from CD19⁺IgD⁻ splenocytes. (B) Data represent mean \pm SEM of four independent experiments described in (A). (C) ELISA analyses of OVA-specific serum IgM or IgG antibodies. (D) Ten days after the immunization, each group was re-immunized with NP₁₆-OVA (day 0). ELISA of NP-specific serum IgG antibodies (NP₈/NP₃₀). **p* < 0.05, ***p* < 0.01, ****p* < 0.001. Data represent mean \pm SEM of four (C and D) independent experiments. (A–D) *n* = 3–4 per group. See also Figure S4.

enhanced GC reaction in the CD8 α^- DC targeted group, we examined affinity maturation of antibodies using NP-OVA. Briefly, 10 days after the immunization described in Figure 4A, the mice were re-immunized with 10 μ g of NP₁₆-OVA. After 7 and 14 days of re-immunization, we observed that higher ratio of NP₈ to NP₃₀ of anti-OVA IgG antibodies was induced by CD8 α^- DCs compared with those induced in both soluble OVA protein and CD8 α^+ DC targeted groups (Figure 4D). These data strongly support that the CD8 α^- DC subset is an inducer of

functional Tfh cells, which leads to efficient humoral immune responses *in vivo*.

Upregulated ICOSL and OX40L on CD8 α^- DCs Play a Critical Role in Inducing Tfh Cells

To understand distinct differences between the two DC subsets in the induction of Tfh cells, various Tfh cell-related ligands were compared in the presence of poly(I:C) or LPS stimulus. CD8 α^- DCs expressed higher levels of ICOSL (Choi et al., 2011) and OX40L (Fillatreau and Gray, 2003) with both poly(I:C) (Figure 5A) and LPS (Figure 5B), whereas CD8 α^+ DCs expressed higher levels of PDL1 and PDL2 (Figures S5A and S5B), which are known to negatively regulate Tfh-dependent humoral immune responses (Cubas et al., 2013; Hams et al., 2011). When ICOSL on the DC subsets was blocked during DC-T cell priming, the formerly increased expression of CXCR5 and ICOS on the CD4⁺ T cells induced by CD8 α^- DCs was significantly reduced to the level of that induced by CD8 α^+ DCs (Figures 5C and S5C). Interestingly, blocking

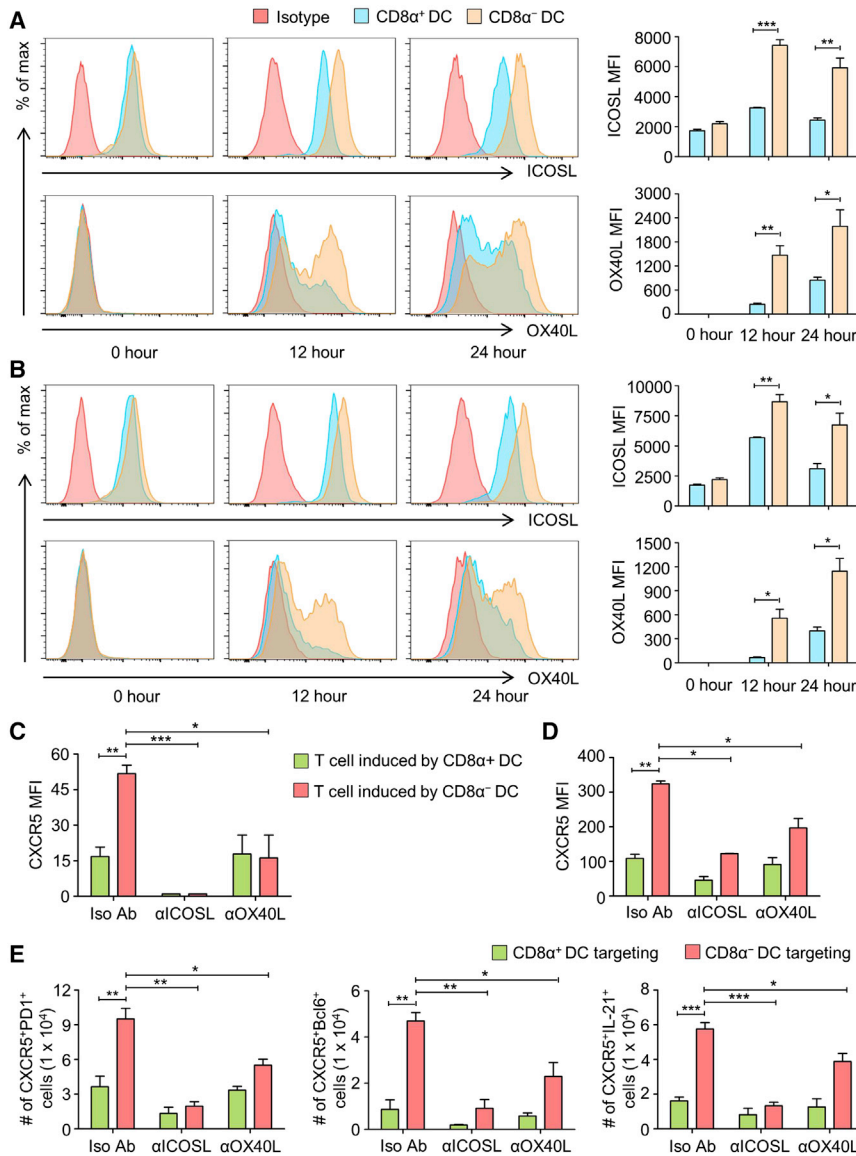


Figure 5. The Increased Number of Tfh Cells Was Induced by the Enhanced Expressions of ICOSL and OX40L on CD8 α ⁻ DCs

(A and B) Sorted DC subsets were stimulated either with poly(I:C) (A) or with LPS (B) for 0, 12, or 24 hr in vitro. Representative histograms of ICOSL and OX40L. MFIs represent mean \pm SEM of three independent experiments.

(C) OT-II OVA specific V α 2⁺CD4⁺ T cells were co-cultured with each DC subset with OVA peptide (323–339) and LPS in the presence of ICOSL- or OX40L-blocking (α ICOSL or α OX40L) mAbs or isotype mAbs (Iso Ab) for 3 days. MFI of CXCR5 was analyzed from three independent experiments; mean \pm SEM.

(D and E) OVA-specific DO11.10⁺Thy1.1⁺CD4⁺ T cells were adoptively transferred to naive Thy1.2⁺ BALB/c mice at day -1 and immunized s.c. with either α DEC:OVA (CD8 α ⁺ DC targeting) or α DCIR2:OVA (CD8 α ⁻ DC targeting) conjugated mAbs in the presence of LPS at day 0. ICOSL- or OX40L-blocking mAbs (α ICOSL or α OX40L) or isotype mAbs (Iso Ab) were injected intravenously (i.v.) to the immunized mice at day 0 and 2. Four days after immunization, lymph nodes cells were prepared. MFI of CXCR5 (D) and the number of CXCR5⁺PD1⁺, CXCR5⁺Bcl6⁺, or CXCR5⁺IL-21⁺ Tfh cells (E) were analyzed from three independent experiments; mean \pm SEM (n = 4 per group).

*p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001. See also Figure S5.

Enhanced Non-canonical NF- κ B Signaling Pathway of CD8 α ⁻ DCs Regulates *Icosl* and *Ox40l* Gene Expressions

Based on a recent study showing that the non-canonical NF- κ B pathway regulates high level of ICOSL expression in B cells (Hu et al., 2011), and based on our analysis of the NF- κ B signaling pathway in the two DC subsets from the published gene array data (Dudziak

et al., 2007), we hypothesized that the upregulated expressions of ICOSL and OX40L on CD8 α ⁻ DCs are regulated by the non-canonical NF- κ B signaling pathway. Notably, NF- κ B-inducing kinase (NIK), a signal integrator of the non-canonical NF- κ B signaling pathway (Sun, 2011), was detected in CD8 α ⁻ DCs even in the absence of stimulation and its expression level was further increased after poly(I:C) stimulation, whereas it was hardly detectable in CD8 α ⁺ DCs (Figures 6A and S6A). Upon anti-CD40 stimulation (Coope et al., 2002), which is known to elicit strong signals via both the canonical and non-canonical pathways, the expression level of NIK was increased in both DC subsets, but its level was still significantly higher in CD8 α ⁻ DCs (Figure 6A; Figure S6A). In addition, higher expression levels of phospho-100 (p100), p52, and RelB were observed in CD8 α ⁻ DCs in the absence or presence of stimulation (Figures 6A and S6A). CD8 α ⁺ DCs constitutively

OX40L on CD8 α ⁻ DCs during DC-T cell priming also decreased the expression of CXCR5 and ICOS as much as that induced by CD8 α ⁺ DCs (Figures 5C and S5C). To further confirm the roles of upregulated ICOSL and OX40L on CD8 α ⁻ DCs in inducing Tfh cells in vivo, blocking antibodies against ICOSL or OX40L were administered during distinct DC-subset targeting. The enhanced expression of CXCR5 on the CD4⁺ T cells induced by CD8 α ⁻ DCs was again significantly decreased by the blocking of either ICOSL or OX40L (Figure 5D). In addition, the blocking of either ICOSL or OX40L on CD8 α ⁻ DCs dramatically decreased the number of CXCR5⁺PD1⁺, CXCR5⁺Bcl6⁺, or CXCR5⁺IL-21⁺ Tfh cells induced by CD8 α ⁻ DCs both in the lymph nodes (Figure 5E) and spleen (Figure S5D). Thus, the data suggest the importance of both ICOSL and OX40L signaling in CD8 α ⁻ DCs in the differentiation of Tfh cells.

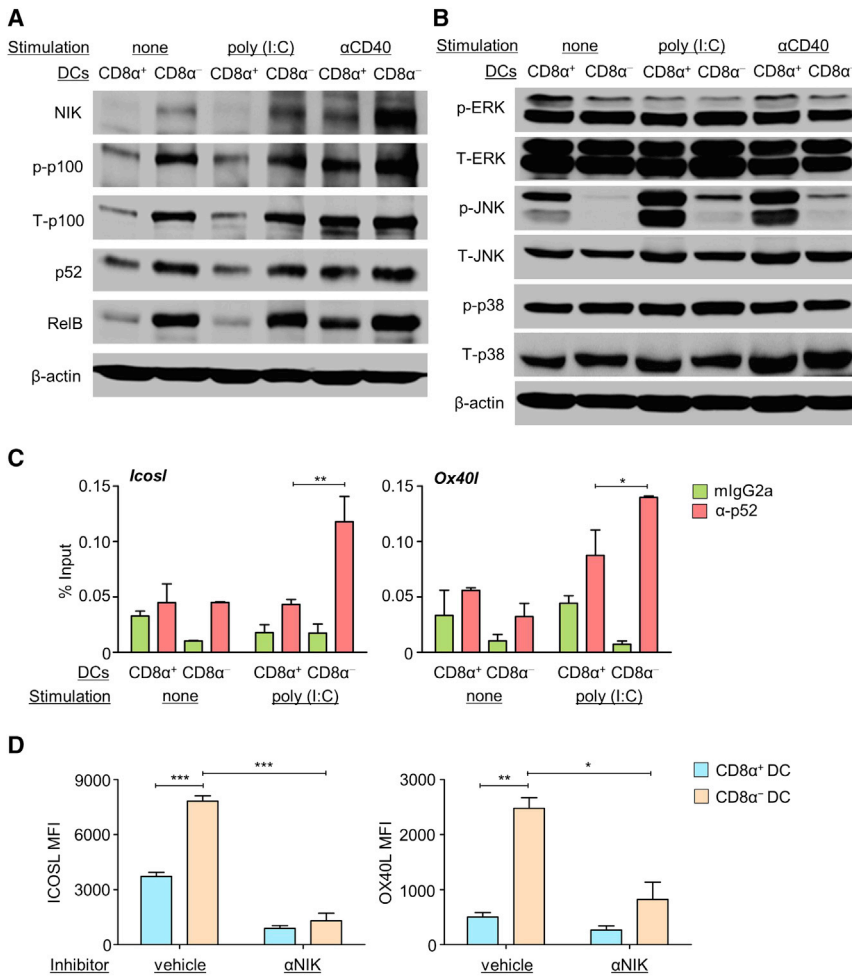


Figure 6. CD8 α ⁻ DCs Induce High Expression of ICOSL and OX40L via an Enhanced Non-canonical NF- κ B Signaling Pathway

(A and B) Sorted DC subsets were stimulated with either poly(I:C) or α CD40 for 2 hr in vitro followed by western blot analysis of non-canonical NF- κ B (A) or MAPK-pathway-related (B) molecules. p, phosphorylation; T, total.

(C) ChIP-PCR shows percent (%) input of p52 upstream of *Icosl* and *Ox40l* in the DC subsets in the absence or the presence of stimulation. Data are representative of three (A and B) or two (C) independent experiments (mean \pm SD).

(D) The two DC subsets were treated with either DMSO (vehicle) or an NIK inhibitor (α NIK) for 12 hr in the presence of poly(I:C), and the MFI of ICOSL or OX40L was analyzed. Data represent mean \pm SEM of three (ICOSL) or two (OX40L) independent experiments.

*p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001. See also Figure S6.

Harnessing CD8 α ⁻ DCs to Improve Vaccine-Induced Humoral Immunity

In order to validate the enhanced humoral immune responses conferred by CD8 α ⁻ DC-primed Tfh cells in respect to improved vaccine strategy, we utilized various human pathogenic antigens such as *Y. pestis* LcrV, HIV Gag, and hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg). For each pathogen, long-term protective humoral responses are required and vaccines are not available. First, with V antigen, we observed that only CD8 α ⁻ DC targeting induced significant numbers

of anti-V IgM ASCs in the lymph nodes, which were successfully isotype-switched to IgG1 (Figure 7A). In the spleen, similar observation was made where anti-V IgM ASCs were detected as early as day 3, isotype-switched to IgG1 at day 5, and migrated into the bone marrow (Figures 7B and 7C). On the contrary, targeting CD8 α ⁺ DCs with V antigen was inefficient in inducing anti-V ASCs in all lymphoid organs tested (Figures 7A–7C). Overall anti-V titers including IgG2a isotype were higher in the CD8 α ⁻ DC targeted group as well (Figure S7A). Moreover, data showing dramatically elevated numbers of anti-V ASCs 6 months after the immunization indicate the efficacy of CD8 α ⁻ DCs in the induction of long-term humoral immunity (Figure 7D).

expressed higher levels of signaling components in the pro-inflammatory mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) pathway, particularly p-JNK, which was hardly detectable in CD8 α ⁻ DCs (Figure 6B and S6A). To determine whether the promoter of *Icosl* or *Ox40l* associates with the non-canonical NF- κ B complex, we performed chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) experiments. The enriched DNA from the immunoprecipitates was quantified by qPCR using primers spanning the upstream regions of *Icosl* or *Ox40l* (Figure S6B). After poly(I:C) stimulation, the significant enrichment of p52 was found to be associated with the upstream region of *Icosl* (–3,000) or *Ox40l* (–1,000) in CD8 α ⁻ DCs (Figure 6C). *Gapdh* and *Ccl2* genes were used as negative and positive controls for p52, respectively (Figure S6C). Moreover, when a NIK inhibitor (4H-isoquinoline-1,3-dione) was utilized, the enhanced expression of both ICOSL and OX40L on CD8 α ⁻ DCs was dramatically decreased (Figure 6D). We observed comparable expression of co-stimulatory and MHC molecules on the two DC subsets upon stimulation in vitro (data not shown). Taken together, our findings suggest that highly activated non-canonical NF- κ B signaling regulates the enhancement of ICOSL and OX40L expression in CD8 α ⁻ DCs.

Second, to further confirm that enhanced humoral immune responses induced by CD8 α ⁻ DCs are not limited to V protein, we used DC-subset targeting antibodies conjugated with HIV Gagp24 (Gag) and observed consistent enhancement in anti-Gag ASCs and antibody titers from the CD8 α ⁻ DC targeted group (Figures 7E and S7B). Third, we utilized sorted CD8 α ⁻ DCs to enhance humoral immune responses against HBsAg, the immunogen of hepatitis B vaccine. We again observed the upregulated ICOS expression on the CD4⁺ T cells primed by

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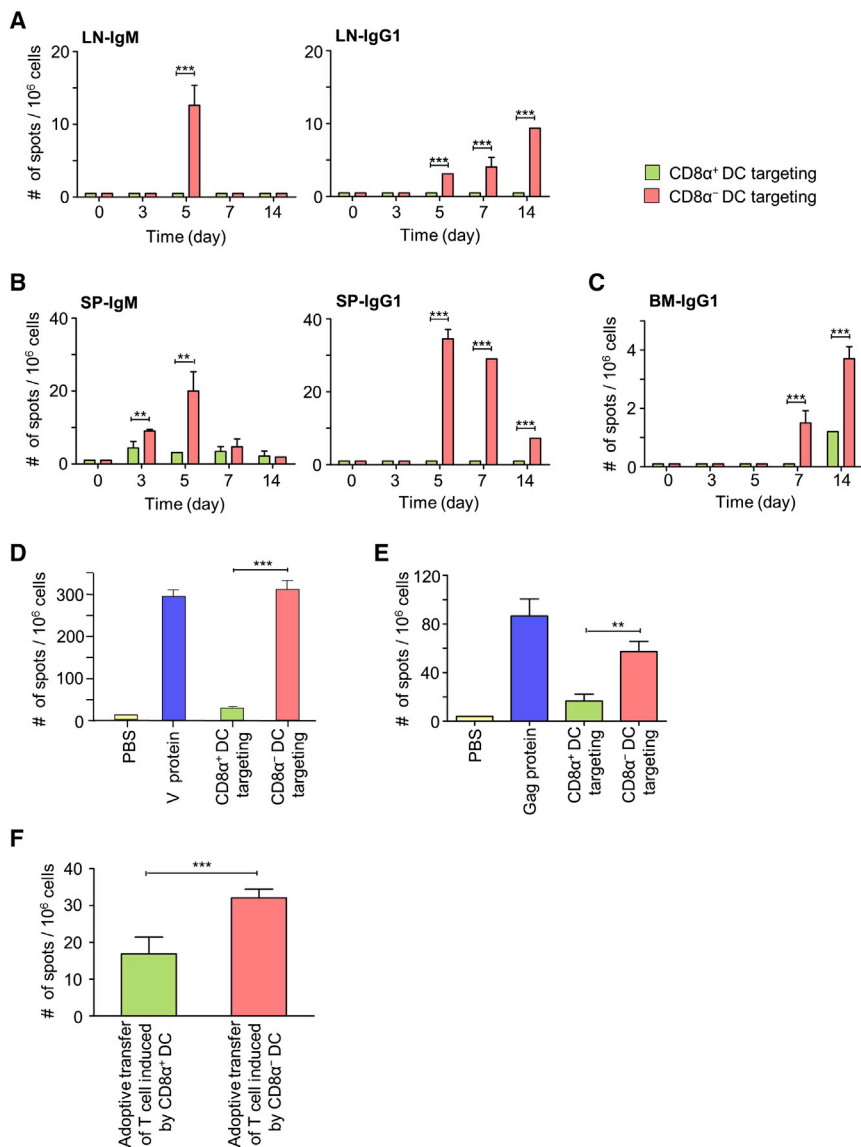


Figure 7. CD8 α^- DCs Enhance Tfh Cell-Dependent Humoral Immune Responses against Various Human Antigens

(A–C) BALB/c mice were immunized i.p. with either α DEC:V (CD8 α^+ DC targeting) or α DCIR2:V (CD8 α^- DC targeting) conjugated mAbs in the presence of α CD40 mAb and poly(I:C). At each indicated time point after the immunization, cells from the lymph nodes (LN) (A), spleen (SP) (B), or bone marrow (BM) (C) were prepared and anti-V (IgM or IgG1) ASCs were analyzed.

(D) BALB/c mice were primed and boosted with PBS, F1-V protein with ahydrogel (V protein), α DEC:V (CD8 α^+ DC targeting), or α DCIR2:V (CD8 α^- DC targeting) conjugated mAbs in the presence of poly(I:C). Six months later, bone marrow cells were prepared and anti-V ASCs were analyzed.

(E) B6 mice were primed and boosted i.p. with PBS, Gagp41 protein (Gag protein), α DEC:gagp24 (CD8 α^+ DC targeting), or α DCIR2:gagp24 (CD8 α^- DC targeting) conjugated mAbs in the presence of poly(I:C). Two weeks after the boost, bone marrow cells were prepared and anti-gagp24 ASCs were analyzed.

(F) Naive CD4 $^+$ T cells co-cultured with each DC subset in the presence of HBsAg and poly(I:C) for 3 days were isolated and then adoptively transferred together with naive CD19 $^+$ B cells to RAG-1-deficient mice. Fourteen days after the boost immunization with soluble HBsAg, spleen cells were prepared and anti-IgG HBsAg ASCs were analyzed.

p < 0.01, *p < 0.001. All data represent mean \pm SD of three or more independent experiments; n = 3 per group. See also Figure S7.

CD8 α^- DCs (data not shown) as well as significantly increased anti-HBsAg ASCs following adoptive transfer of the CD8 α^- DC-primed CD4 $^+$ T cells with naive CD19 $^+$ B cells into RAG-1-deficient mice (Figure 7F). These data clearly demonstrate the efficacy of CD8 α^- DCs in the induction of efficient humoral immunity via functional Tfh cell priming.

DISCUSSION

Various research suggests the importance of DCs in priming Tfh cells, but little is known about the mechanisms by which DCs promote the initial commitment of antigen-specific CD4 $^+$ T cells into Tfh cells. In this study, our data provide important cellular and molecular mechanisms regulated by CD8 α^- DCs to induce Tfh cell differentiation, enhancing Tfh cell-dependent humoral immunity. We also provide the rationale for targeting

CD8 α^- DCs to induce efficient humoral immune responses against various human pathogenic antigens.

Our study illuminates unexplored intrinsic differences between the two DC subsets in Tfh cell differentiation. In particular, our findings suggest that highly activated non-canonical NF- κ B signaling enhances the expression of ICOSL and OX40L on CD8 α^- DCs, thereby establishing a molecular mechanism of specific DC-subset-derived Tfh cell differentiation. Such intrinsic features or capacity of CD8 α^- DCs in inducing Tfh cells is not limited to a specific stimulus. A previous study showed that ICOS signals during DC T cell priming instruct Bcl6 expression, leading to CXCR5 expression on CD4 $^+$ T cells and thus determine the early bifurcation between Tfh and effector Th cell developments (Choi et al., 2011). However, it was not known that distinct CD8 α^- DCs upregulate ICOS signals promoting Tfh cell differentiation. Interestingly, our data also suggest that not only the enhanced ICOSL but also OX40L in CD8 α^- DCs play important roles in promoting ICOS signals of Tfh cells. Considering a previous study showing the importance of OX40L in CD11c $^+$ DCs for CD4 $^+$ T cell migration to the follicle (Brocker et al., 1999), as well as another study showing that OX40 stimulation could overcome the impaired

trafficking of CD4⁺ T cells to B cell follicles caused by lack of CD40 in DCs (Fillatreau and Gray, 2003), it is possible that the enhanced OX40L on CD8 α ⁻ DCs may also be involved in such a molecular hierarchy from ICOS to Bcl6 to CXCR5, which facilitate the migration of Tfh cells into B cell follicles. Given the fact that CD8 α ⁻ DCs upregulated the expression of ICOSL and OX40L via the non-canonical NF- κ B signaling pathway and that blocking of either ICOSL or OX40L critically decreased the capacity of CD8 α ⁻ DCs in inducing Tfh cells in vivo, the efficient induction of Tfh cells by the CD8 α ⁻ DC subset is delivered by its bona fide intrinsic property.

Given that the CD4⁺ T cells induced by CD8 α ⁺ DCs highly expressed T-bet, and since a number of previous studies demonstrated the efficacy of a CD8 α ⁺ DC targeting strategy in the induction of IFN- γ -secreting Th1 type cellular immunity (Do et al., 2010; Trumpfheller et al., 2012), we surmised that the highly activated JNK signaling may be involved in Th1 rather than in Tfh cell differentiation. However, further studies are required to examine whether CD8 α ⁺ DCs negatively regulate Tfh dependent-humoral immune responses with highly expressed PDL1/L2 and JNK signaling.

We do not exclude possibilities such as the differences in antigen processing in vivo (Dudziak et al., 2007), prolonged antigen presentation (Deenick et al., 2010; Lahoud et al., 2011), or extrafollicular B cell activation (Chappell et al., 2012) by DC subsets in Tfh cell differentiation. In addition, as reported by other studies that CD14⁺ dermal DCs (Klechevsky et al., 2008), late activator APCs (Yoo et al., 2012), or monocyte-derived DCs (Chakarov and Fazilleau, 2014) promote Tfh cell differentiation, we believe Tfh cell differentiation may be dependent on the type of the immune responses. Further investigations on how various DC subsets interact in vivo within lymphoid organs will also help us to appreciate diverse physiological functions of DC subsets. Since CD8 α ⁻ DCs locate at the bridging channel/interfollicular zone (Dudziak et al., 2007) and Tfh cell development initiates in the same zone (Kerfoot et al., 2011), the anatomical localization of CD8 α ⁻ DCs and their intrinsic features may synergistically contribute to Tfh cell development, whereas CD8 α ⁺ DCs located in the T cell zone are more likely to induce the differentiation of Th1 cells. Of interest, a recent insightful study demonstrated the importance of EB12 of splenic CD4⁺33D1⁺ DCs (equivalent of CD8 α ⁻ DCs in this study) in bridging channel positioning and homeostasis, as well as in facilitating the uptake and presentation of particulate antigens to lymphocytes (Yi and Cyster, 2013), adding to the potential of investigating CD8 α ⁻ DCs for promoting Tfh cell differentiation and thus providing B cell help against various blood-borne pathogens.

A previous study using peptide-pulsed bone-marrow-derived DCs showed that DCs were potent inducers of Bcl6 in naive CD4⁺ T cells, but such DC-restricted peptide immunization failed to induce potent GCs along with lower PD1 expression on Tfh cells than the soluble protein immunization regimen (Baumjohann et al., 2011). Likely, when antigens were restricted to DCs by using CD11c/A β ^b mice, it was shown to be sufficient to initiate Tfh cells, but these Tfh cells failed to produce IL-21, thereby requiring additional interaction with cognate B cells for full effector function (Goenka et al., 2011). In contrast, a CD8 α ⁻

DC targeting strategy showed that immunization with \sim 1.6 μ g of OVA per mouse could induce Tfh cells as well as Tfh cell-dependent humoral immune responses more efficiently than the group immunized with 500 μ g per mouse of soluble OVA protein (Figures 2, 4, S1, S2, and S4), suggesting the efficacy of targeting CD8 α ⁻ DCs in the induction of fully functional Tfh cells in vivo.

Recently the involvement of Tfh cells in human diseases is being unveiled. A study showed significant expansion of HIV-specific Tfh cells in chronic HIV-infected individuals explaining IgG hypersecretion seen in these patients (Lindqvist et al., 2012). Another study also reported that the expanded Tfh cells in HIV-infected individuals provided inadequate help for B cells due to the negative regulatory role of PDL1/L2 (Cubas et al., 2013). Based on a recent perspective on developing an HIV vaccine by harnessing CD4⁺ T cell responses, particularly Tfh cells (Streeck et al., 2013), the understanding of cellular and molecular mechanisms regulating Tfh cell initiation and differentiation is critical in developing vaccines and in improving therapeutic approaches. Our study clearly demonstrates the value of CD8 α ⁻ DCs in enhancing humoral immunity against human pathogenic antigens. In particular, CD8 α ⁻ DCs were utilized to increase the number of ASCs specific to HBsAg, the immunogen of currently available hepatitis B vaccine (Figure 7F). Although the current hepatitis B vaccine is very effective, \sim 5%–15% of vaccines fail to develop humoral immune responses (Coursaget et al., 1986; Hadler et al., 1986). Conjugation of HBsAg with CD8 α ⁻ DC targeting antibody would be an alternative for hepatitis B vaccine non-responders. Additionally, in our previous study, we demonstrated successful protection against virulent *Y. pestis* pneumonic plague when we targeted CD8 α ⁻ DCs with V protein, of which protection efficacy was mainly due to the increased anti-V titers (Do et al., 2010), which supports our current study in designing improved pneumonic plague vaccine by targeting CD8 α ⁻ DCs. Therefore, CD8 α ⁻ DCs can be potentially utilized as a preferential target for improving vaccine efficacy in various human diseases.

In conclusion, our findings provide insights on how DCs influence Tfh cell fate; it might not be a purely stochastic event, as currently suggested (Ballesteros-Tato and Randall, 2014; Deenick et al., 2011; Vinuesa and Cyster, 2011), but instead, it could be a selective initial commitment to Tfh cells by the CD8 α ⁻ DC subset. Our study sheds light on the mechanisms involved in Tfh cell differentiation by DC subsets, and we believe that these results, along with future efforts to characterize human DC subset counterpart of CD8 α ⁻ DCs, will provide a rationale to design improved vaccines by enhancing the quality and quantity of antibody responses.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Mice

BALB/c (BC, H-2^d) and C57BL/6 (B6, H-2^b) mice were purchased from Taconic. DO11.10 Thy 1.1, OT-II, RAG-1-deficient, CXCR5-KO, IL-4R-KO, and IL-12p40-KO mice were purchased from The Jackson Laboratory. IL-21R-KO mice were provided by The Rockefeller University (by the late Dr. Ralph M. Steinman). SLAM-associated protein or SAP KO mice were kindly provided by Dr. Pamela L. Schwartzberg from National Human Genome Research Institute, NIH. All mice were maintained under specific-pathogen-free conditions

and used at 6–8 weeks, as approved by the Ulsan National Institute of Science and Technology's institutional animal care and use committee (approval number: UNISTIACUC-12-006-A).

DC Preparation

The total number of splenic DCs was increased by Fms-like tyrosine 3 ligand (Flt3L) as described previously (Dudzian et al., 2007). In brief, 5×10^6 Flt3L-melanoma cells were subcutaneously injected to naive C57BL/6 mice. After 10–14 days, the expanded splenic CD11c⁺ DCs were enriched with positive magnetic-activated cell sorting (MACS) and were further sorted into DC subsets, CD3⁻B220⁻CD11c⁺CD8 α ⁺ or CD3⁻B220⁻CD11c⁺CD8 α ⁻ DCs, by MoFlo XDP (Beckman Coulter). To analyze intrinsic differences in the two DC subsets, DCs were stimulated with 25 μ g poly(I:C) or 100 ng/ml LPS for 0, 12 or 24 hr. In some experiments, 10 μ M NIK inhibitor (4H-isoquinoline-1,3-dione, combi-Blocks) (Ranuncolo et al., 2012) was added to the DC subsets.

CD4⁺ T Cell Preparation

OVA-specific transgenic CD4⁺ T cells from the lymph nodes and spleen of OT-II or DO11.10 Thy1.1 mice were purified negatively using hybridoma supernatant cocktail of rat-anti mouse CD8 (2.43), MHC class II (T1B120), M ϕ (F4/80), B220 (RA3-6B2), and natural killer cell (NK1.1) antibodies followed by depletion with Dynabeads sheep anti-rat IgG (Invitrogen).

Induction of Tfh Cells In Vitro

Naive OVA-specific CD4⁺ T cells purified from OT-II mice were co-cultured with sorted CD8 α ⁺ or CD8 α ⁻ DCs (1:10 ratio of DC to T cells) for 1–6 days in the presence of 25 μ g/ml poly(I:C), 100 ng/ml LPS, Flagellin, or R848 (InvivoGen) \pm 2 μ M of OVA peptide (aa 323–339) (Genscript). At each indicated time point, V α 2⁺CD4⁺CD44⁺ T cells were sorted and analyzed for the expression of various surface molecules, transcription factors, and cytokines by flow cytometry, qRT-PCR, and ELISA. To block ICOSL or OX40L expressed on DC subsets, 20 μ g/ml blocking antibodies or their corresponding isotype antibodies was added when CD4⁺ T cells were co-cultured with DC subsets for 3 days.

Induction of Tfh Cells In Vivo

Isolated CD4⁺ T cells from DO11.10 Thy 1.1 mice were adoptively transferred (3×10^6 cells per mouse) into naive Thy 1.2⁺ BALB/c mice intravenously (i.v.) at day -1. At day 0, PBS, 500 μ g soluble OVA protein (endotoxin-free; Seikagaku), or 5 μ g of each distinct DC subset targeting mAb (anti-DEC-205 or anti-DCIR2 mAbs) conjugated with OVA protein in the presence of 50 μ g poly(I:C) or LPS was injected via footpads. At the indicated time points, single cells from the lymph nodes or spleen were prepared and analyzed for the expression of various molecules by flow cytometry. In some experiments, 100 μ g isotype, ICOSL-, or OX40L-blocking mAbs were injected i.v. into immunized mice at days 0 and 2. Then, 4 days after immunization, cells were prepared for analysis.

Intracellular Staining

Tfh cells were induced in vivo as described above. Five days later, cells were prepared from the lymph nodes or the spleen, and Fc γ receptors were blocked with anti-CD16/CD32 antibodies. The cells were then incubated with anti-mouse Thy1.1 or DO11.10, CD4, CD44, and CXCR5 for 30 min. Following fixation and permeabilization with a Cytotfix/Cytoperm kit (BD Biosciences) according to the manufacturer's protocol, the cells were stained for intracellular Bcl6 or IL-21 along with their isotypes for 25 min at 4°C. Data were analyzed by flow cytometry. To detect IFN- γ - or IL-4-secreting CD4⁺ T cells, the cells were re-stimulated with 2 μ M OVA peptide (323–339) and 2 μ g/ml α CD28 mAbs for 2 hr followed by the addition of GolgiStop (Invitrogen) for 4 hr.

Statistics

Results are expressed as mean \pm SD or mean \pm SEM. We used Excel or Prism 4.0 (GraphPad Prism) and performed a nonparametric Mann-Whitney U test when appropriate. *p* values < 0.05 were considered significant.

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Supplemental Information includes Supplemental Experimental Procedures and seven figures and can be found with this article online at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.celrep.2015.05.042>.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

C.S., S.R., and Y.D. conceived and designed the experiments. C.S., J.-A.H., H.K., B.C., Y.C., H.J., J.-S.R., and Y.D. performed the experiments. C.S., S.R., and Y.D. analyzed the data. H.K., S.R., P.S., and E.-C.S. contributed reagents, materials, and analysis tools. C.S., S.R., and Y.D. wrote the manuscript, and J.-A.H. and E.-C.S. helped write the manuscript.

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