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Continued Bcl6 Expression Prevents the Transdifferentiation of Established Tfh Cells into Th1 Cells during Acute Viral Infection

Graphical Abstract

Highlights

- Induced ablation of Cxcr5 has minor effects on Tfh cell identity and function
- Continued Bcl6 expression is critical for the maintenance of established Tfh cells
- CD4+ T cell-expressed Bcl6 is important for the maintenance of germinal centers
- Induced ablation of Bcl6 converts “ex-Tfh” cells into Th1 cells during LCMV infection

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In Brief

Alterauge et al. show that the induced loss of CXCR5 in established T follicular helper (Tfh) cells has minor effects on Tfh cell identity and germinal center (GC) maintenance. In contrast, induced Bcl6 ablation in CD4+ T cells results in GC resolution and transdifferentiation of established Tfh cells into Th1 cells during acute viral infection.
Continued Bcl6 Expression Prevents the Transdifferentiation of Established Tfh Cells into Th1 Cells during Acute Viral Infection

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SUMMARY

T follicular helper (Tfh) cells are crucial for the establishment of germinal centers (GCs) and potent antibody responses. Nevertheless, the T cell-intrinsic factors that are required for the maintenance of already-established Tfh cells and GCs remain largely unknown. Here, we use temporally guided gene ablation in CD4+ T cells to dissect the contributions of the Tfh-associated chemokine receptor CXCR5 and the transcription factor Bcl6. Induced ablation of Cxcr5 has minor effects on the function of established Tfh cells, and Cxcr5-ablated cells still exhibit most of the features of CXCR5+ Tfh cells. In contrast, continued Bcl6 expression is critical to maintain the GC Tfh cell phenotype and also the GC reaction. Importantly, Bcl6 ablation during acute viral infection results in the transdifferentiation of established Tfh into Th1 cells, thus highlighting the plasticity of Tfh cells. These findings have implications for strategies that boost or restrain Tfh cells and GCs in health and disease.

INTRODUCTION

T follicular helper (Tfh) cells are critically important for providing help to B cells for potent antibody responses (Crotty, 2019; Vinuesa et al., 2016). Tfh cells are characterized by the expression of the chemokine receptor CXCR5 and the transcriptional repressor Bcl6. In addition, they express several co-stimulatory molecules such as inducible T cell co-stimulator (ICOS), CD40L, and B- and T-lymphocyte attenuator (BTLA) and inhibitory receptors such as programmed cell death protein-1 (PD-1) that allow for close interactions with B cells. Furthermore, Tfh cells produce cytokines such as interleukin-4 (IL-4) and IL-21 that instruct B cell class switching and survival.

Tfh cell differentiation is characterized by a multistep differentiation process that involves sequential interactions with dendritic cells (DCs) and B cells in distinct micro-anatomical locations, ultimately leading to the establishment of germinal centers (GCs), in which potent antibodies are generated (Crotty, 2019; Qi, 2016; Vinuesa et al., 2016). The induction of CXCR5- and Bcl6-expressing early Tfh cells from naive CD4+ T cell precursors is mediated by DCs, which at this stage are independent of cognate interactions with B cells (Baumjohann et al., 2011; Goenka et al., 2011). Bcl6 acts as a transcriptional repressor that restricts the expression of inappropriate genes and alternative fates in activated CD4+ T cells, thus promoting Tfh cell differentiation (Hatzi et al., 2015; Johnston et al., 2009; Liu et al., 2016; Nurieva et al., 2009; Yu et al., 2009). While the ensuing migration of these activated CD4+ T cells toward the T-B cell border and follicles is guided by the chemokine receptor CXCR5, simultaneous downregulation of the chemokine receptor CCR7, which is highly expressed on naive T cells, is required to enable activated T cells to re-localize to the T-B zone border and to enter the follicle and GC (Ansel et al., 1999; Arnold et al., 2007; Hardtke et al., 2005; Haynes et al., 2007; Junt et al., 2005). Interestingly, some CXCR5-deficient T helper cells have been observed in B cell areas in some of these studies, while in others they have not. The cause of these contradictory observations remains unclear. Localized within GCs, mature GC Tfh cells express the highest levels of CXCR5 and Bcl6 among CD4+ T cells.

Continued interactions between antigen-presenting cells, in particular B cells, and Tfh cells are required to maintain the Tfh cell phenotype and GC responses (Baumjohann et al., 2013b; Deenick et al., 2010). However, while the T cell-intrinsic factors that are required for the initial steps of Tfh cell differentiation
have been investigated in more detail (Crotty, 2019; Vinuesa et al., 2016), it remains largely unknown whether and how different T cell-expressed chemokine receptors and transcription factors are also required for the maintenance of already established Tfh cells, in part due to the lack of appropriate experimental systems. Here, we established a system that allowed us to ablate Cxcr5 and Bcl6 specifically in CD4+ T cells in a temporally controlled manner to systematically test the requirements of these two factors for Tfh cell and GC maintenance. We found that while Cxcr5− Tfh cells kept most of the Tfh cell features and functions, Bcl6 was strictly required for the maintenance of Tfh cell identity by preventing the transdifferentiation into Th1 cells in an acute viral infection model. These functional insights not only emphasize the high degree of plasticity of Tfh cells but they also give indications about how ongoing GC reactions may be modulated in different disease settings.

**RESULTS**

**Tfh Cells Retain B Cell Helper Capabilities upon Induced Cxcr5 Ablation**

To investigate the impact of a loss of Cxcr5 expression in preexisting Tfh cells, we crossed mice bearing an inducible Cd4-Cre-ERT2 allele to mice containing loxP-flanked Cxcr5 alleles to generate compound mice in which Cxcr5 can be deleted specifically in CD4+ T cells upon tamoxifen application (designated as iCxcr5−/− mice) (Figure 1A). Tamoxifen application on days 3 and 4 after subcutaneous (s.c.) hock immunization with nitrophenylacetyl conjugated to keyhole limpet hemocyanin (NP-KLH) in alum resulted in an almost complete absence of Cxcr5 protein in CD4+ T cells from iCxcr5−/− mice that were analyzed on day 10 after immunization (Figure 1B).}

![Figure 1. Tfh Cells Continue to Express Tfh Cell Markers upon Induced Cxcr5 Ablation](image-url)
expressed one allele of Cd4-CreERT2 but lacked ioxP-flanked Cxcr5 alleles served as controls. CXCR5+ PD-1hi (Tfh) and Cxcr5<sup>fl/fl</sup> mice, referred to as iCxcr5<sup>−/−</sup> and iCxcr5<sup>+/+</sup>, respectively, analyzed on day 10 after immunization. Cells were pre-gated as live CD19<sup>+</sup>CD4<sup>+</sup> lymphocytes. Gate frequencies indicate the percentage of IgD<sup>−</sup>CD95<sup>+</sup> GC B cells. Right, quantification of the results; each symbol represents an individual mouse (n = 4–6).

**Figure 2. Cxcr5-Ablated Tfh Cells Retain B Cell Helper Capabilities**

(A) Schematic representation of the experimental protocol for the analysis of the impact of induced CD4<sup>+</sup> T cell-specific ablation of Cxcr5 after NP-KLH/alum immunization.

(B) Flow cytometry of B cells from draining lymph nodes of tamoxifen-treated Cd4-CreERT2<sup>+</sup> Cxcr5<sup>+/−</sup> and Cd4-CreERT2<sup>+</sup> Cxcr5<sup>−/−</sup> mice, referred to as iCxcr5<sup>−/−</sup> and iCxcr5<sup>+/−</sup> mice, further highlighting the very efficient deletion of Cxcr5 by Cd4-CreERT2 (Figure 1B).

(C) Flow cytometry and quantification of NP-specific and IgG1+ GC B cells as in (B).

(D) Ratio of GC B cells with a CXCR4<sup>hi</sup>CD86<sup>lo</sup> dark zone (DZ) and CXCR4<sup>lo</sup>CD86<sup>hi</sup> light zone (LZ) phenotype in the draining lymph nodes of mice as in (B).

(E-G) Quantification of (E) GC B cell numbers, (F) NP+ GC B cells, and (G) IgG1+ GC B cells from mice as in (B), measured on days 10, 14, and 28 after immunization (n = 4–6).

*p < 0.05, **p < 0.01 two-tailed nonparametric Mann-Whitney test (B–G); means ± SEMs in (B)–(G). See also Figure S1.

As GC B cells depend strongly on the presence of Tfh cells (Baumjohann et al., 2013b), we additionally assessed the impact of the induced deletion of Cxcr5 in CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells on the B cell response. In iCxcr5<sup>−/−</sup> mice, the fraction of Fas<sup>+</sup>IgD<sup>−</sup> GC B cells was reduced compared to iCxcr5<sup>+/−</sup> control mice on day 10 (Figures 2A and 2B). NP-specific and immunoglobulin G1+ (IgG1+) class-switched GC B cells were not diminished (Figure 2C). Preferential GC B cell localization in the dark zone (DZ) of GCs was also unaffected by the CD4<sup>+</sup> T cell-specific Cxcr5 deletion, as determined by the expression of the DZ and light zone (LZ) markers CXCR4 and CD86, respectively (Figure 2D). GC B cells, IgG1+ class-switched cells, and NP-specific GC B cells were maintained over time until day 28 (Figures 2E–2G). Interestingly, we observed a trend toward a higher abundance of class-switched IgG1+ cells throughout the immune response, which
became more prominent by day 28 (Figure 2G). These findings did not depend on the continued presence of CXCR5 on the surface of CD4+ T cells. When Cxcr5 ablation was induced at the peak of the GC reaction on days 6 and 7 after immunization, similar effects on the maintenance of Tfh cell marker expression and GC B cell helper capabilities were observed (Figure S1).

**Induced Cxcr5 Deficiency Has Little Impact on the Identity of Tfh Cells**

To further explore the consequences of Cxcr5 ablation on established Tfh cells, we next crossed the Cd4-CreERT2/Cxcr5<sup>−/−</sup> and Cd4-CreERT2/Cxcr5<sup>fl/fl</sup> mice to animals bearing the lymphocytic choriomeningitis virus (LCMV)-specific SMARTA (SM) T cell receptor (TCR) transgene and congenic Cd45 alleles. Naive CD4+ T cells from these mice were adoptively transferred into wild-type hosts, followed by intraperitoneal (i.p.) infection with LCMV Armstrong to induce an acute viral infection (Figure 3A). Tamoxifen was administered on days 3 and 4 and the phenotype of the transferred SM cells was flow cytometry on day 10. In agreement with our findings from the immunization experiments, we observed a population of CXCR5<sup>+</sup> : iCxcr5<sup>5/Δ</sup> SM cells that exhibited surface marker expression reminiscent of Tfh cells with low levels of P-selectin glycoprotein ligand-1 (PSGL-1) and signaling lymphocytic activation molecule (SLAM) (Figure 3B). To examine whether CXCR5-deficient Tfh cells only kept a few Tfh cell markers or maintained an overall Tfh-characteristic expression profile, we conducted RNA sequencing (RNA-seq) of CD4+ T cells after subcutaneous NP-KLH immunization (Figure 3C). Cxcr5 ablation was induced by tamoxifen gavage on days 3 and 4. On day 10 after immunization, CXCR5<sup>+</sup> Tfh (CD4<sup>+</sup>CXCR5<sup>−</sup>PD-1<sup>−</sup>GITr<sup>−</sup>) cells were sorted from iCxcr5<sup>5/Δ</sup> mice together with Tfh (CD4<sup>+</sup>CXCR5<sup>−</sup>PD-1<sup>+</sup>GITr<sup>−</sup>) and non-Tfh (CD4<sup>+</sup>CXCR5<sup>−</sup>PD-1<sup>−</sup>GITr<sup>−</sup>) cells from control iCxcr5<sup>−/−</sup> mice (Figure 3D). Sorted cells were pre-gated on GITr<sup>−</sup> cells to avoid contamination with regulatory T (Treg) cells, which may also express PD-1. This strategy also excluded T follicular regulatory (Tfr) cells. Tran- 

### Figure 3. Induced Cxcr5 Deficiency Has Little Impact on the Identity of Tfh Cells

(A) Schematic representation of the experimental protocol for the analysis of the impact of induced CD4<sup>+</sup> T cell-specific ablation of Cxcr5 in SMARTA (SM) cells after i.p. infection with LCMV Armstrong.

(B) Flow cytometry of splenocytes from tamoxifen-treated wild-type recipient mice that had received adoptively transferred naive Cd4-CreERT2/Cxcr5<sup>−/−</sup> and Cd4-CreERT2/Cxcr5<sup>fl/fl</sup> SM cells, followed by i.p. infection of recipients with LCMV Armstrong and analysis 10 days later. Pre-gated as live CD4<sup>+</sup>C45.1/CD201<sup>+</sup> lymphocytes. The gate frequencies indicate the percentage of CXCR5<sup>+</sup>PSGL-1<sup>+</sup> or CXCR5<sup>+</sup>SLAM<sup>+</sup> cells, CXCR5<sup>−</sup>PSGL-1<sup>−</sup> or CXCR5<sup>−</sup>SLAM<sup>−</sup> or PSGL-1<sup>−</sup>SLAM<sup>−</sup> Tfh cells and CXCR5<sup>+</sup> or PSGL-1<sup>−</sup>SLAM<sup>−</sup> Tfh cells. Right, quantification of the results; each symbol represents an individual mouse (n = 4–5).

(C) Schematic representation of the experimental protocol for the analysis of the impact of induced CD4<sup>+</sup> T cell-specific ablation of Cxcr5 after NP-KLH/alum immunization.

(D) Non-Tfh (CXCR5<sup>−</sup>PD-1<sup>−</sup>GITr<sup>−</sup>, n = 4) and Tfh cells (CXCR5<sup>−</sup>PD-1<sup>+</sup>GITr<sup>−</sup>, n = 4) from iCxcr5<sup>−/−</sup> mice and Cxcr5<sup>+</sup> Tfh cells (CXCR5<sup>−</sup>PD-1<sup>−</sup>GITr<sup>−</sup>, n = 6) from iCxcr5<sup>5/Δ</sup> mice were sorted on day 10 after immunization for RNA-seq. Pre-gated as live CD4<sup>+</sup>CD19<sup>−</sup> lymphocytes.

(E) Heatmap of the normalized expression of selected Th1 or Tfh genes (rows) in non-Tfh, Tfh, and CXCR5<sup>+</sup> Tfh cells (columns) sorted as in (D).

(F) Principal-component analysis (PCA) of non-Tfh, Tfh, and CXCR5<sup>+</sup> Tfh cell transcriptionomes obtained from samples sorted as in (D). Ellipses surrounding the data points delineate computed confidence ellipses with a 95% confidence level.

*p < 0.05, **p < 0.01 two-tailed nonparametric Mann-Whitney test (B); means ± SEMs in (B).
of PD-1 and CXCR5, induced Bcl6 deficiency also resulted in a reduction of PSGL-1lo cells that are normally representative of GC Tfh cells (Figures S2D and S2E). Interestingly, when tamoxifen was administered on the earlier time point (days 3 and 4), CXCR5+Foxp3+ Tfr cell frequencies were almost unchanged, while CXCR5+Foxp3+ Tfh cells were strongly diminished, resulting in an altered Tfh:Tfr ratio (Figure 4C).

The induced loss of Bcl6 had a strong impact on the GC B cell response. The frequencies of GC B cells were significantly decreased in immunized iBcl6Δ/Δ mice as compared to control mice (Figures 5A and 5B). Similar to the stronger reduction of Tfh cells that we observed for days 3 and 4 versus days 6 and 7 tamoxifen treatment, Bcl6 ablation on days 3 and 4 caused a more pronounced decrease in GC B cell frequencies than tamoxifen gavage on days 6 and 7 (Figure 5B). While the total pool of antigen-specific NP-specific GC B cells was not affected in iBcl6Δ/Δ mice in both settings, we observed a defect in class switching toward IgG1 in the days 3 and 4 tamoxifen administration setting (Figure 5C). Consequently, the generation of IgG1+NP+ cells was also impaired in iBcl6Δ/Δ mice with an ~2.5-fold frequency decrease as compared to the control group (Figure 5C). In contrast, T cell-specific Bcl6 ablation at the peak of the GC reaction (days 6 and 7 after immunization) did not cause obvious alterations in class switching and NP specificity (Figure 5C). The established GC Tfh cells were particularly sensitive to the induced loss of Bcl6 expression, which also impeded the maintenance of GC B cell frequencies.

**Induced Bcl6 Ablation Alters the Ratio of Tfh versus Th1 Cells during Acute Viral Infection**

The data from the previous immunization experiments indicated that Bcl6 expression was particularly vital for GC Tfh cells. To gain further insight into the role of Bcl6 for Tfh cell maintenance,
we conducted cell fate analyses. In contrast to induced Cxcr5 deletion, Bcl6-ablated CD4+ T cells did not exhibit continued Tfh cell marker expression, thus hampering the tracking of these cells. To circumvent this issue, we used congenically marked SM cells of Cd4-CreERT2 Bcl6+/+ and Cd4-CreERT2 Bcl6fl/fl genetic backgrounds to follow the fate of these LCMV-specific...
CD4+ T cells after transfer into wild-type mice, followed by LCMV Armstrong infection on day 0 and tamoxifen treatment on days 3 and 4 to ablate Bcl6 (Figure 6A). By day 10 after infection, control iBcl6+/+ SM cells had differentiated roughly equally into Th1 and Tfh cell populations (Figure 6B). Induced Bcl6 deficiency resulted in an almost complete loss of CXCR5+ cells and a concomitant increase in Th1 cell frequencies, while the total number of SM cells per spleen remained unaltered (Figure 6B). Low SLAM and PSGL-1 expression levels, which are normally associated with Tfh cells, were not maintained in the absence of Bcl6 (Figure 6B). Instead, Bcl6-ablated cells appeared to have regained the expression of both markers. In fact, the decrease in Tfh cell numbers was paralleled by an increase in Th1 cell numbers (Figure 6B). Since total iBcl6∆/∆ SM cell numbers were not changed.
this suggested that Th1 cells either compensated for the loss of Tfh cells through increased proliferation or that Bcl6-ablated “ex-Tfh” cells had adopted a Th1 cell phenotype.

**Bcl6 Prevents the Transdifferentiation of Tfh Cells into Th1 Cells during Acute Viral Infection**

To dissect whether iBcl6Δ/Δ ex-Tfh SM cells converted into bona fide Th1 cells or still exhibited a Th1-like transcriptional program in the background, we sorted CD45.1/2+ iBcl6+/+ and iBcl6Δ/Δ SM cells for RNA-seq and transcriptomic analyses. Significant changes in differentially expressed genes between iBcl6Δ/Δ and iBcl6Δ/Δ SM cells revealed many Th1-associated genes being upregulated in iBcl6Δ/Δ SM cells (e.g., GzmB, Id2, Ifngr1, Ly6c2) (Figure 6C). In contrast, numerous important Th1 cell molecules, including Cxcr5, Ilb/a, Ilb/st, and Pou2a1f were downregulated. To assess the similarity of the SM iBcl6Δ/Δ cells to Th1 cell transcriptomes (Figure 6D), we used Th1 and Tfh signatures of SM iCxcr5Δ/Δ control cells obtained from a complementary adoptive transfer experiment (data not shown). Here, we used PC2 and PC3, since most of the variability represented by the first principal component was due to batch effects, which is commonly observed when independently generated RNA-seq data are compared. The control Th1 and Tfh signatures were separated and the transcriptomes of Bcl6-sufficient SM cells were found in between them (Figure 6D), as the cells consisted of an equal mixture of Th1 and Tfh cells (Figure 6B). The biological replicates of Bcl6-ablated SM cells clustered closely with the Th1 transcriptomes (Figure 6D). This indicated that these cells did not maintain a Tfh cell transcriptional pattern but instead had adopted a Th1 cell gene expression program. This supported our initial hypothesis that the induced loss of Bcl6 in Tfh cells led to transdifferentiation into Th1 cells. To finally prove this in vivo, we conducted a retransfer experiment to also exclude the possibility that Bcl6-ablated cells were lost during the immune response and were compensated for by increased Th1 cell expansion. To this end, we first co-transferred CD45.1/2 Cd4-CreERT2 iBcl6Δ/Δ and CD45.1/1 Cd4-CreERT2 iBcl6+/+ SM cells into primary hosts, followed by acute LCMV Armstrong infection (Figure 7A). Four days later, Th1 (CXCR5−PSGL-1low) and Tfh (CXCR5+PSGL-1high) cell identities of polyclonal as well as antigen-specific TCR-tg CD4+ T cell responses, with an emphasis on already-established Tfh cells. Here, we used temporally guided ablation of the Tfh cell characteristic genes Cxcr5 and Bcl6 to systematically assess their requirements for Tfh cell maintenance. Ablation of Cxcr5 in preexisting Tfh cells showed minor effects on the identity of these cells and their B cell helper abilities. In contrast, continued Bcl6 expression in T cells was critical for the maintenance of GC Tfh and GC B cells. More important, our data highlighted Bcl6 as a gatekeeper of Tfh cell plasticity in vivo that limited the transdifferentiation of established Tfh cells into Th1 cells during acute viral infection.

Several studies have addressed the requirement of CXCR5 expression by Tfh cells for entering the follicle and induction of GCs (Ansel et al., 1999; Arnold et al., 2007; Hardtke et al., 2005; Haynes et al., 2007; Junt et al., 2005). CXCR5-deficient CD4+ T cells could still mount GC B cell responses, although the size of GCs was reduced and the frequencies of GC B cells and class switching were slightly lower (Arnold et al., 2007; Haynes et al., 2007). It should be noted that CXCR5-dependent follicular recruitment may also be bypassed by some T helper cells that are passively dragged into the follicle by B cells (Okada et al., 2005). Interestingly, mice that lack CXCR5+ CD4+ T cells were completely resistant to collagen-induced arthritis, despite grossly normal GC formation (Moschovakis et al., 2017). Previously, it was difficult to assess the role of CXCR5, especially during later stages of the GC response due to the lack of conditional Cxcr5 alleles. Instead, these studies relied either on adoptively transferred TCR-tg cells or mixed bone marrow chimeras using CXCR5Δ−/− backgrounds. We therefore devised a versatile in vivo system that allowed us to delete a gene of interest specifically in CD4+ T cells in a temporally controlled fashion. Using this system, we explored the effect of acute ablation of Cxcr5 in settings of polyclonal as well as antigen-specific TCR-tg CD4+ T cell responses, with an emphasis on already-established Tfh cells. Interestingly, Tfh cells that no longer expressed CXCR5 on their surface were able to sustain the high, Tfh-characteristic protein expression levels of PD-1 and Bcl6. In addition, the transcriptome of Cxcr5-ablated cells was very similar to that of the CXCR5-sufficient control cells. These findings emphasize that CD4+ T cells can not only circumvent the need of CXCR5 expression for GC localization (Moriyama et al., 2014) but they also do not require continued CXCR5 expression to maintain their phenotype. This is surprising, as GC-localized Tfh cells express the highest levels of CXCR5, and the binding of CXCL13 induces
phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase (PI3K)-Akt signaling (Shi et al., 2018), which is essential for Tfh cells (Rolf et al., 2010). Although CXCR5 overexpression promotes enhanced GC localization (Shi et al., 2018), CXCR5-deficient CD4+ T cells were shown to still enter GCs, however, with reduced LZ polarization (Greczmiel et al., 2017; Haynes et al., 2007). This was associated with impaired affinity maturation toward epitopes of LCMV (Greczmiel et al., 2017). Therefore, it is conceivable that CXCR5 on T cells functions to first efficiently recruit T cells to the GC and then confine T cell help and hence selection of high-affinity GC B cells to the LZ, without affecting T cell-intrinsic properties.

Figure 7. Bcl6 Prevents the Transdifferentiation of Tfh Cells into Th1 Cells during Acute Viral Infection

(A) Schematic representation of the experimental protocol for the analysis of the impact of induced CD4+ T cell-specific ablation of Bcl6 in SM cells when Tfh and Th1 cells were first generated through LCMV Armstrong infection and then transferred into pre-infected secondary hosts as depicted prior to Bcl6 ablation.

(B) Flow cytometry of splenocytes from primary and secondary recipients, given adoptive transfers of SM cells. SM Tfh (CXCR5+PSGL-1lo) and SM Th1 (CXCR5−PSGL-1hi) cells were sorted from pooled spleens of primary recipient mice on day 4 after i.p. LCMV infection and retransferred into infection-matched secondary hosts (left panel). On day 12 after infection, the co-transferred Th1 (right panel, upper row) and Tfh cells (right panel, lower row) from SM Cd4-CreERT2Bcl6fl/fl and SM Cd4-CreERT2Bcl6+/+ mice were quantified. The gate frequencies indicate the percentage of CXCR5−PSGL-1hi Th1 and CXCR5+PSGL-1lo Tfh cells.

(C and D) Quantification of the results depicted in (B); each symbol represents an individual mouse (n = 6–7).

(D) Flow cytometric analysis and quantification of T-bet expression in co-transferred SM Tfh cells analyzed on day 12 post-infection as in (B). “Endogenous” refers to polyclonal CD4+ T cells of the infected secondary host mice.

*p < 0.05, **p < 0.01 two-tailed nonparametric Mann-Whitney test (C and D); paired t test (E); means ± SEMs in (C) and (D).
A possible disentanglement of the Tfh cell phenotype and CXCR5 expression was also recently suggested by the observation of peripheral PD-1(CXCR5+ Tfh-like cell populations with B cell helper abilities and Tfh cell marker expression patterns, for example, in the joints of rheumatoid arthritis patients and in tumors of cancer patients, although their ontogeny and function remain largely elusive (Gu-Trantien et al., 2017; Rao et al., 2017). The fact that many aspects of the GC B cell response were not altered by CD4+ T cell-specific morf of cancer patients, although their ontogeny and function deficient for both factors lost the capacity to enter GCs (Moriyama et al., 2014). Similar to control Tfh cells, differentiation is well established (Hollister et al., 2013; Johnston et al., 2009; Nurieva et al., 2009; Poholek et al., 2010; Yu et al., 2019), restricted localization within the LZ (Fuller et al., 1993; Hatzi et al., 2015). More surprisingly, we found that GC Tfh cells, which express the highest differentiation of Bcl6 in mature Tfh cells comes from chromatin immunoprecipitation sequencing (ChIP-seq) experiments that mapped the genomic occupancy at numerous genes relevant to Th1, Th2, and Th17 differentiation pathways (Hatzi et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2016), indicating a role for Bcl6 in preventing alternative cell fate programs. However, it has not been investigated before by detailed loss-of-function studies whether Bcl6 is required for the identity and function of fully matured Tfh cells. In our experiments, we found that GC Tfh cells, which express the highest levels of Bcl6, were particularly sensitive toward Bcl6 ablation, while Bcl6+/− Tfh cells were only modestly affected. In GCs, Tfh cells must adapt to conditions such as hypoxia (Zhu et al., 2019), restricted localization within the LZ (Fuller et al., 1993; Haynes et al., 2007), and high concentrations of the antagonistic cytokine IL-2 (Papillion et al., 2019). High levels of Bcl6 may therefore be required to maintain GC localization by repressing several T cell zone migratory molecules such as CCR7 and PSGL-1 or chemotactic receptors responding to cues outside the GC, such as S1PR1 and EB12 (Hatzi et al., 2015). More important, through the inhibition of other T helper cell programs, Bcl6 may enable Tfh cells to withstand non-Tfh cell cues, for example, IL-2 and interferon-γ (IFN-γ). Outside the GC, however, Tfh cells may not equally rely on Bcl6. Despite the collapse of the GC Tfh cell population upon Bcl6 ablation, the frequencies of GC B cells were not similarly affected in our experiments, and a small but stable GC B cell population was maintained over time. CXCR5+/PD-1(int/low) cells may be able to take over some of the functions of GC Tfh cells; however, these cells were not able to sustain normal frequencies of class-switched IgG1+ GC B cells.

Tfr cells share the expression of molecules that are normally associated with Tfh and Treg cells, as well as several molecular requirements for Tfh cell differentiation, such as co-stimulation and interactions with B cells (Chung et al., 2011; Linterman et al., 2011). Despite these striking similarities, we observed that Tfr cells were not equally affected by an induced loss of Bcl6. Moreover, when Bcl6 was deleted at early time points after immunization, Tfr cell frequencies were largely unaltered. This is unexpected, as Tfr cells are unable to form in Foxp3Cre Bcl6fl/fl mice (Botta et al., 2017; Fu et al., 2018; Wu et al., 2016). Nevertheless, Bcl6 expression is lower in Tfr cells relative to Tfh cells (Chung et al., 2011) and may be dispensable after Tfr cell development. It is also possible that despite a normal phenotype, Tfr cells in induced Bcl6-deficient mice may be functionally impaired and contribute to the defects observed in the GC response. It was recently shown that in the absence of Tfr cells, Tfh cells adopt a cytotoxic phenotype and appear to induce apoptosis in GC B cells (Xie et al., 2019). This could be an additional explanation for the reduced GC B cell frequencies in our system.

Plasticity among CD4+ T helper cells is a widely accepted concept (DuPage and Bluestone, 2016; O’Shea and Paul, 2010), and several lines of evidence also point to the extensive plasticity of Tfh cells (Cannons et al., 2013). For example, in vitro-generated Tfh-like cells could be polarized to increase Th1, Th2, or Th17 cytokine expression (Lu et al., 2011). The loss of the miR-17-92 cluster in LCMV-specific SM cells resulted in the co-expression of a Th17 gene expression program that was layered on top of the Tfh cell program (Baumjohann et al., 2013a). Another study found that Tfh cells gave rise to pathogenic Th2 cells in an allergy model (Ballesteros-Tato et al., 2016). Our finding that Bcl6 ablation in Tfh cells during LCMV Armstrong infection resulted in an increased plasticity toward Th1 cells expands the view of Bcl6 as a critical inhibitor of alternative T cell fates to already-established Tfh cells. The compatibility of Th1 and Tfh cell programs has been suggested by the co-expression of Bcl6 and T-bet in certain contexts, and Bcl6−/− Tfh cells may also represent a transitional differentiation state or may serve as precursors for other effector cells (Sheikh et al., 2019; Baumjohann et al., 2011; Nakayamada et al., 2011; Oestreich et al., 2011; Weinstein et al., 2018; Yusuf et al., 2010). In our experiments, upon induced Bcl6 ablation, LCMV-specific SM cells lost the characteristic surface marker expression of Tfh cells and downregulated T cell-associated transcripts, including Il6ra and Il6st. The loss of the Tfh cell phenotype and the propensity to adopt a Th1 cell phenotype in
our temporally controlled Bcl6 ablation system may be additionally explained by the findings of a recent study, in which IL-6 signaling during a viral infection was reported to shield Tfh cells from abundant IL-2 signals, which destabilize the Tfh cell phenotype (Papillon et al., 2019). Bcl6 expression in T cells has been previously shown to be required for the generation of Tfh cell-derived memory cells, in particular, of the central memory phenotype (Choi et al., 2013; Ichii et al., 2007; Kitano et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2012; Pepper et al., 2011). In this regard, our findings are in line with a study that showed a decrease in Tfh memory cells upon induced Bcl6 deletion (Ise et al., 2014). Interestingly, the loss of Tfh cell identity that we observed following induced Bcl6 expression in T cells resembles the rapid loss of the Tfh cell phenotype that was also described when T-B cell interactions were disrupted by the blockade of CD40:CD40L and ICOSL:ICOS pathways during ongoing GC responses following protein immunization (Baumjohann et al., 2013b). This is relevant, since ICOS signaling promotes Bcl6 expression for Tfh cell differentiation (Choi et al., 2011), and ICOS is important for Tfh cell maintenance (Akiba et al., 2005; Weber et al., 2015). Our data indicate that when strong cues for other cell fate programs are present (e.g., predominant Th1-polarization during LCMV infection), Tfh cells are highly dependent on Bcl6 to prevent transdifferentiation into other T helper cell subsets, thus highlighting the plasticity of Tfh cells.

STAR+METHODS

Detailed methods are provided in the online version of this paper and include the following:

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SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Supplemental Information can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.celrep.2020.108232.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

D.A. designed, performed, and analyzed most of the experiments, interpreted the data, and wrote the manuscript. J.W.B. and W.E. provided critical tools and performed the RNA-seq analyses. F.D. performed the qPCR analyses. B.M.B. and N.A.M. provided the Cxcr5fl/fl mouse strain. T.B. provided the C24-CreERT2 strain. D.B. conceived the project, designed the experiments, interpreted the data, wrote the manuscript, and provided the overall direction of the study. All of the authors read and approved the final version of the manuscript.

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.

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Critical Commercial Assays

| CD4+ T cell Isolation Kit, mouse | Miltenyi Biotech | Cat# 130-104-454 |
| CleanNGS | CleanNA | Cat# CNGS-0050 |
| EasySep Mouse Naive CD4+ T cell Isolation Kit | STEMCELL Technologies | Cat# 19765 |
| Foxp3 / Transcription Factor Staining buffer set | Thermo Fisher Scientific | Cat# 00-5523-00 |
| High Sensitivity DNA Analysis Kits | Agilent Technologies | Cat# 5067-4626 |
| Nextera XT DNA Sample Preparation Kit | Illumina | Cat# FC-131-1024 and Cat# FC-131-1001 |
| SensiFAST Probe No-ROX One-Step Kit | Bioline | Cat# BIO-76001 |

Deposited Data

| RNA-Sequencing data | This work | GEO: GSE142229 |

Experimental Models: Organisms/Strains

| Bcl6fl/fl (Bcl6tm1.1Dent) | The Jackson Laboratory | JAX #023727 |
| C57BL/6 | Charles River or Janvier Laboratories | n/a |
| CD45.1 (Ptprca Pepcb/BoyJ) | The Jackson Laboratory | JAX #002014 |
| Cd4-CreERT2 knock-in (CD4tm1.CreERT2Thbu) | Sledzinska et al., 2013 | n/a |
| Cxcr5fl/fl (Cxcr5tm1.Namt) | Bradford et al., 2017 | n/a |
| Rosa26Sor2-Stop-f-tETAG (Gt(ROSA)) | The Jackson Laboratory | JAX #006148 |
| SMARTA (Tg(TcrLCMV)Aox) | Oxenius et al., 1998 | n/a |
| B6.Cg-Cd4tm1(cre/ERT2)Thbu-Cxcr5tm1.Namt | This work | n/a |
| B6.Cg-Tg(TcrLCMV)Aox-Ptpcrα+ Ptpcrβ- Cd4tm1(cre/ERT2)Thbu | This work | n/a |
| B6.Cg-Tg(TcrLCMV)Aox-Ptpcrα+ Ptpcrβ- Cd4tm1(cre/ERT2)Thbu-Cxcr5tm1.Namt | This work | n/a |
| B6.Cg-Cd4tm1(cre/ERT2)Thbu-Gt(ROSA) | This work | n/a |
| B6.Cg-Cd4tm1(cre/ERT2)Thbu-Bcl6tm1.1Dent-Gt(ROSA)26SorYFP/Cos | This work | n/a |
| B6.Cg-Tg(TcrLCMV)Aox-Ptpcrα+ Ptpcrβ- Cd4tm1(cre/ERT2)Thbu-Gt(ROSA)26SorYFP/Cos | This work | n/a |
| B6.Cg-Tg(TcrLCMV)Aox-Ptpcrα+ Ptpcrβ- Cd4tm1(cre/ERT2)Thbu-Bcl6tm1.1Dent-Gt(ROSA)26SorYFP/Cos | This work | n/a |

Oligonucleotides

| PrimeTime Assay Bcl6 | IDTDNA | Mm.PT.58.1178966; FAM |
| PrimeTime Assay Actb | IDTDNA | Assay ID: Mm.PT.58.33257376;g6; HEX |

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Lead Contact
Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be fulfilled by the Lead Contact, Dirk Baumjohann (dirk.baumjohann@uni-bonn.de).

Materials Availability
This study generated several mouse strains by intercrossing various commercially and non-commercially available mouse strains. There are restrictions to the availability of the generated strains as some of the original strains were obtained under material transfer agreement that do not permit redistribution of these strains without prior permission of the strain owner.

Data and Code Availability
Source transcriptomic data are available through GEO: GSE142229. Other source data are available from the Lead Contact upon reasonable request.

EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND SUBJECT DETAILS

Cd4-CreERT2 knock-in (C57BL/6-Cd4tm1(CreERT2)ThBu) mice (Sledzinska et al., 2013) and Cxcr5^{fl/fl} (Cxcr5tm1.Namt) mice (Bradford et al., 2017) have been described previously. Bcl6^{fl/fl} (Bcl6tm1.1Dent, stock number 023727) and Rosa26^{fl-Stop-fl-YFP} (Gt(ROSA)26Sortm1(EYFP)Cos, stock number 006148) mice were purchased from The Jackson Laboratory. For adoptive transfer experiments, compound mouse lines were further intercrossed with LCMV GP61-80 peptide-specific SMARTA TCR-tg mice (Oxenius et al., 1998) and congenic CD45.1 alleles. Wild-type C57BL/6 mice were purchased from Charles River or Janvier Labs. All Mice were housed under specific pathogen free conditions in individually ventilated cages and all animal experiments were performed in accordance with European Regulation and Federal Law and approved by the Regierung von Oberbayern. All mice used for experiments were used at 8-12 weeks of age. Experimental groups were sex and age-matched. To better reveal the dynamic range of the gene ablation effects, our approved animal protocol containing limited numbers of experimental animals focused on testing a wide range of different tamoxifen application and analysis time points as well as independently reproducing the results in two different experimental systems with sufficient numbers of animals, instead of performing extensive repetition experiments for only a few time points.

METHOD DETAILS

Immunizations, adoptive cell transfers, immunizations, infections, and tamoxifen treatment
For immunizations, 4-hydroxy-3-nitrophénylacetyl conjugated to keyhole limpet hemocyanin (NP_{24}-KLH, Biosearch Technologies) dissolved in PBS was mixed 1:1 with alum (Imject Alum, Thermo Scientific) and rotated for 45 min at room temperature prior to
immunization. Mice were anesthetized by isoflurane inhalation and injected s.c. with 10μg NP-KLH into the hock of each hind limb using an insulin syringe (BD Biosciences). Adoptive cell transfers of SMARTA cells into wild-type hosts were performed as previously described (Baumjohann et al., 2013a). In brief, naïve CD4+ T cells were isolated from spleens and LNs of SMARTA mice through negative selection using the EasySep Mouse Naïve CD4 + T cell isolation kit (StemCell Technologies). For most experiments, 1×10^6 naïve SMARTA cells were adoptively transferred in PBS into wild-type recipients by tail vein injection, followed by i.p. injection of 2×10^6 pfu LCMV Armstrong. Tamoxifen-induced ablation experiments were performed with Cd4-CreERT2 knock-in mice as previously described (Zeitrag et al., 2020). In brief, tamoxifen (1g, Sigma-Aldrich) was dissolved in 100% Ethanol (1ml). 29ml corn oil (Sigma-Aldrich) were added and the mixture was incubated in a water bath at 56 °C until the solid tamoxifen was fully dissolved. Aliquots of the 33.3 mg/ml stock solution were stored at −20 °C until further use. Mice received a dose of 5 mg tamoxifen in 150 μl volume by intragastric gavage twice daily on two consecutive days (either day 3 and 4 or day 6 and 7 after immunization). For the retransfer experiment, 0.5×10^6 naïve SMARTA cells were adoptively transferred into wild-type mice one day prior to infection with 1×10^6 pfu LCMV Armstrong. Tfh and Th cells derived from the transferred CD45.1/2 Cd4-CreERT2 Bcl6+/+ and CD45.1/1 Cd4-CreERT2 T2iBcl6+/− SMARTA cells were sorted as CXCR5+PSGL-1lo and CXCR5–PSGL-1hi, respectively, into PBS + 2% FCS, washed, and counted. 2×10^4 Th1 or Tfh cells from both genotypes were then co-transferred into infection-matched secondary wild-type hosts. Recipients were gavaged with tamoxifen one and two days after the re-transfer.

**Flow cytometry**

General guidelines for the use of flow cytometry and cell sorting in immunological studies were followed (Cossarizza et al., 2019). Single-cell suspensions from spleen or peripheral lymph nodes were prepared by mincing the tissue between the frosted ends of glass slides. Dead cells were excluded with 7-AAD (eBioscience/Thermo Fisher) for surface maker analyses or with the fixable viability dye eFlor 780 (eBioscience/Thermo Fisher) for intracellular analyses. Before staining of surface/intracellular molecules, Fc receptors were blocked by preincubation of cells with anti-CD16/32 (clone 93; Biolegend) and 1% mouse/rat serum (StemCell Technologies). The following antibodies were used for analyses by flow cytometry: CD4 (RM4-5, BD Biosciences, BioLegend), CD45.2 (104, BD Biosciences, eBioscience), CD86 (GL1, BD Biosciences, BioLegend); CD19 (6D5), CD44 (IM7), CD45.1 (A20), PD-1 (29F.1A12), SLAM (TC15-12F12.2) (both Biolegend); Fas (Jo2), GITR (DTA-1), IgG1 (A85-1), PSLG-1 (2PH1) (all BD Biosciences); CXCR4 (2B11), PD-1 (J43), IgD (11-26c) (all eBioscience). CXCR5 was stained with biotinylated anti-CXCR5 (clone L138D7 from Biolegend) for 30 min on ice, followed by washing and incubation with streptavidin conjugated to APC or PE (Biolegend) for 15 min on ice (Baumjohann and Ansel, 2015). Intracellular transcription factor stainings were performed with the Foxp3 Staining Set from Biolegend using the following fluorophore-coupled mAbs: Bcl6 (K112-91, BD Biosciences), T-beta (4B10, BioLegend) and Foxp3 (FJK-16 s, eBioscience). NP-PE (4-Hydroxy-3-nitrophenylacetyl hapten conjugated to phycoerythrin) was purchased from Biosearch Technologies (conjugation ratio 28:1). Samples were acquired on a three-laser BD FACS Canto II or a 5-laser BD LSRIIotessa using BD FACSDiva software. Cell sorting was performed on a BD FACSariaFusion. Data were analyzed with FlowJo software (Treestar).

**Quantitative RT-PCR analysis**

RT-qPCR was used to quantify deletion efficiency of Bcl6 genomic DNA und mRNA. 200-500 CXCR5+ PD-1+ cells were sorted into a 96-well qPCR plate (Roche Diagnostics) containing 5 μl lysis buffer consisting of a 1:500 dilution of Phusion HF buffer (New England Biolabs) in nuclease free water (Thermo Fisher). Cellular components were removed by proteinase K (Ambion) digest for 10 minutes at 55 °C, followed by desiccation at 95 °C for 10 minutes without a seal to reduce the volume and inactivate proteinase K. RNA was subsequently transcribed into cDNA using the SensiFast One-Step Real-Time RT-PCR kit (Bioline). The expression of Bcl6 mRNA was measured by multiplexed qRT-PCR using PrimeTime gene expression probes (IDTDNA) for Bcl6 (Mm.PT.58.11789661; FAM); the housekeeper Actb (Mm.PT.58.33257376.gs; HEX). For the quantification of Bcl6 gDNA, the reverse transcriptase step was omitted and custom PrimeTime probes (IDTDNA) for genomic Bcl6 (F: ACCACTGACCCAGAGGATTAFAM; R: ACTAAGAGAAGGTCGGCTACT; HEX) were used. The expression was measured on a Light Cycler 480II (Roche) device with the Light Cycler 480 SW 1.5.1 software.

**RNA-sequencing**

For RNA-seq analysis, 1,000-2,000 Tfh or non-Tfh cells were sorted into a 96-well plate containing 50 μl lysis buffer using a FACSariaFusion cell sorter (BD Biosciences). The lysis buffer consisted of 5 M Guanidine hydrochloride (Sigma-Aldrich), 1% 2-mercaptoethanol (Sigma-Aldrich) and a 1:500 dilution of Phusion HF buffer (New England Biolabs). After sorting the cells were briefly centrifuged and immediately frozen on dry ice. cDNA was then generated using a modified version of the single cell RNA-seq protocol mcSCRB (Bagnoli et al., 2018). cDNA was tagged with the Nextera XT DNA Library Prep Kit (Illumina) using 0.8 ng as input. Libraries were paired-end sequenced on high output flow cells of an Illumina HiSeq 1500 instrument at LAFUGA Genomics of LMU Munich’s Gene Center. Sixteen bases were sequenced with the first read to obtain cellular and molecular barcodes and 50 bases were sequenced in the second read into the cDNA fragment. An additional 8 bp bases were sequenced to obtain the i7 barcode. All raw fastq data were processed with zUMIs (Parekh et al., 2018) and mapped to the mouse genome (mm10) using STAR 2.6.0a (Dobin et al., 2013). Gene annotations were obtained from Ensembl (GRCm38.75). Samples were identified via the i7 and Cellular Barcode or only the i7 barcode, with initial phred score filtering allowing 2 or 1 bases below 20, respectively. UMI phred filtering allowed 2 bases below 20. After initial data processing, generated count matrices were loaded into R. We filtered out sparsely detected
genes via UMI per genes and detection abundance (> 1 UMI) over all samples. Afterwards libraries were normalized with DESeq2 (Love et al., 2014). Hierarchical clustering for marker gene expression was performed using Complex Heatmaps. Differentially expressed genes were called with DESeq2. All plotting was performed using ggplot2 and cowplot.

QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Statistical analyses were performed with Prism 8 (GraphPad) and are specified in each corresponding figure legend.