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Shinde, Prashant V.; Xu, Haifeng C.; Maney, Sathish Kumar; Kloetgen, Andreas; Namineni, Sukumar; Zhuang, Yuan; Honke, Nadine; Shaabani, Namir; Bellora, Nicolas; Doerrenberg, Mareike; Trilling, Mirko; Pozdeev, Vitaly I.; van Rooijen, Nico; Scheu, Stefanie; Pfeffer, Klaus; Crocker, Paul R.; Tanaka, Masato; Duggimpudi, Sujitha; Knolle, Percy; Heikenwalder, Mathias; Ruland, Jürgen; Mak, Tak W.; Brenner, Dirk; Pandyra, Aleksandra A.; Hoell, Jessica I.; Borkhardt, Arndt; Häussinger, Dieter; Lang, Karl S.; Lang, Philipp A.

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1 Title: TNF-mediated survival of CD169⁺ cells promotes immune activation during

2 vesicular stomatitis virus infection

Prashant V. Shinde^{1,2}, Haifeng C. Xu^{1,2}, Sathish Kumar Maney^{1,2}, Andreas Kloetgen^{3,4}, Sukumar Namineni^{5,13},
Yuan Zhuang^{1,2}, Nadine Honke⁶, Namir Shaabani⁷, Nicolas Bellora⁸, Mareike Doerrenberg³, Mirko Trilling⁹,
Vitaly I. Pozdeev^{1,2}, Nico van Rooijen¹⁰, Stefanie Scheu¹¹, Klaus Pfeffer¹¹, Paul R. Crocker¹², Masato Tanaka¹³
Sujitha Duggimpudi³, Percy Knolle¹⁴, Mathias Heikenwalder^{5,15}, Jürgen Ruland¹⁶, Tak W. Mak¹⁷, Dirk
Brenner^{18,19}, Aleksandra A. Pandyra⁶, Jessica I. Hoell³, Arndt Borkhardt³, Dieter Häussinger², Karl S. Lang^{6,+},
and Philipp A. Lang^{1,+,*}

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10 ¹Department of Molecular Medicine II, Medical Faculty, Heinrich Heine University, Universitätsstr. 1, 40225 11 Düsseldorf, Germany, ²Department of Gastroenterology, Hepatology, and Infectious Diseases, Heinrich-Heine-12 University Düsseldorf, Universitätsstr. 1, 40225 Düsseldorf, Germany, ³Department of Pediatric Oncology, 13 Hematology and Clinical Immunology, Center for Child and Adolescent Health, Heinrich Heine University, 14 Medical Faculty, Duesseldorf, Germany, ⁴Computational Biology of Infection Research, Helmholtz Center for 15 Infection Research, Braunschweig, Germany, ⁵Institute of Virology, TU Munich, Schneckenburgerstr. 8, 81675 16 München, Germany, ⁶Institute of Immunology, Medical Faculty, University of Duisburg-Essen, Hufelandstr. 55, 17 Essen 45147, Germany, ⁷Department of Immunology and Microbial Science, The Scripps Research Institute, La 18 Jolla, CA 92037, USA, 8Instituto Andino Patagónico de Tecnologías Biológicas y Geoambientales (IPATEC), 19 Universidad Nacional del Comahue - CONICET, Bariloche, Argentina, ⁹Institute for Virology, University of 20 Duisburg-Essen, Hufelandstr. 55, Essen 45147, Germany, ¹⁰Department of Cell Biology, Vrije University 21 Medical Center, 1081 BT Amsterdam, Netherlands, ¹¹Institute of Medical Microbiology and Hospital Hygiene, 22 Heinrich-Heine-University Duesseldorf, 40225 Duesseldorf, Germany, ¹²Division of Cell Signalling and 23 Immunology, School of Life Sciences, University of Dundee, Dundee DD1 5EH, United Kingdom, 24 ¹³Laboratory of Immune regulation, School of Life Science, Tokyo University of Pharmacy and Life Sciences, 25 1432-1 Horinouchi, Hachioji, Tokyo 192-0392, Japan. 14 Institute of Molecular Immunology, Technische 26 Universität München and Helmholtz Zentrum München, Munich, Germany, ¹⁵Division of Chronic 27 Inflammation and Cancer, German Cancer Research Center (DKFZ), Heidelberg, Germany, ¹⁶Institut für 28 Klinische Chemie und Pathobiochemie, Klinikum rechts der Isar, Technische Universität München, Munich, 29 Germany, ¹⁷Princess Margaret Cancer Center, University Health Network, Toronto, Ontario, Canada M5G 2C1, 30 ¹⁸Department of Infection and Immunity, Experimental and Molecular Immunology, Luxembourg Institute of 31 Health, L-4354 Esch-sur-Alzette, Luxembourg, ¹⁹Odense Research Center for Anaphylaxis (ORCA), 32 Department of Dermatology and Allergy Center, Odense University Hospital, University of Southern Denmark, 33 Odense, Denmark; 34 *Address correspondence to PAL: langp@uni-duesseldorf.de

- 35 + contributed equally to this work
- 36 Key words: TNF, MALT1, innate immunity, interferon, NF-κB

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38 Abstract

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39 Innate immune activation is essential to mount an effective antiviral response and to prime adaptive immunity. Although a crucial role of CD169⁺ cells during vesicular stomatitis 40 41 virus (VSV) infections is increasingly recognized, factors regulating CD169⁺ cells during 42 viral infections remain unclear. Here we show that tumor necrosis factor is produced by 43 CD11b⁺ Ly6C⁺Ly6G⁺ cells following infection with VSV. The absence of TNF or TNF 44 receptor 1 (TNFR1) resulted in reduced numbers of CD169⁺ cells and in reduced IFN-I production during VSV infection, with a severe disease outcome. Specifically, TNF triggered 45 RelA translocation into the nucleus of CD169⁺ cells; this translocation was inhibited when 46 47 paracaspase MALT-1 was absent. Consequently, MALT1 deficiency resulted in reduced 48 VSV replication, defective innate immune activation, and severe disease development. These findings indicate that TNF mediates the maintenance of CD169⁺ cells and innate and 49 50 adaptive immune activation during VSV infection.

51 Importance

52 Over the last decade, strategically placed CD169⁺ metallophilic macrophages in the marginal 53 zone of the murine spleen and LN have been shown to play a very important role in host 54 defense against viral pathogens. CD169⁺ macrophages are shown to activate innate and 55 adaptive immunity via "enforced virus replication" a controlled amplification of virus 56 particles. However, factors regulating the CD169⁺ macrophages remain to be studied. In this 57 paper, we show that after Vesicular stomatitis virus infection, phagocytes produce tumor 58 necrosis factor (TNF) which signals via TNFR1 and promote "enforced virus replication" in

59 CD169⁺ macrophages. Consequently, lack of TNF or TNFR1 resulted in defective immune

60 activation and VSV clearance.

61 Introduction

62 Innate immune activation is crucial for inducing antiviral immunity through cytokine 63 production and adaptive immune priming (1). Splenic marginal zone macrophages and 64 metallophilic marginal zone macrophages play an important role in eliminating blood borne 65 bacterial, parasites and viral pathogens (2, 3). Metallophilic macrophages were originally 66 described when rat splenic marginal zone macrophages were stained with iron and silver impregnation (4). These metallophilic macrophages express the lectin like hemagglutinin 67 68 CD169, which was identified using a monoclonal antibody: MOMA-1 (5-7). CD169⁺ 69 macrophages are increasingly recognized to play a pivotal role in host defense (8). CD169⁺ 70 macrophages (referred to as CD169⁺ cells), specifically allow early viral replication to 71 promote innate immune recognition and antigen presentation (9). The absence of CD169⁺ 72 cells results in reduced type I interferon (IFN-I) production, reduced B-cell activation, and 73 severe disease development during viral infection (10, 11). B cell-derived lymphotoxin alpha 74 (Lt α) and lymphotoxin beta (LT β) drive the maintenance of CD169⁺ cells in spleen and 75 lymph node tissue (10, 12, 13). Consequently, B cell-deficient mice exhibit fewer CD169⁺ cells and limited immune activation, including the production of IFN-I (13, 14). However, 76 77 factors promoting survival and the presence of CD169⁺ cells after viral infection have not yet 78 been sufficiently studied.

79 IFN-I triggers strong inhibitory effects on viral replication and is crucial for 80 preventing severe infections with the vesicular stomatitis virus (VSV) model system (1, 15). 81 This system can be used as a laboratory system for immune recognition during viral 82 infection, as a vaccine vector system, as a tool for viral transduction, and as an oncolytic 83 virus (16, 17). Clearance of VSV depends heavily on IFN-I and the presence of neutralizing Downloaded from http://jvi.asm.org/ on November 20, 2017 by Brought to you by the University of Dundee Library & Learning Centre

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85 innate immune response, virus replication in secondary lymphoid organs and the central 86 nervous system (CNS) (19-21). Pathology during VSV infection is seen particularly during 87 infection of the central nervous system (CNS); this pathology includes paralysis and death 88 after infection with VSV (22). Accordingly, mice deficient in IFN- α/β receptor (IFNAR) 89 signaling exhibit paralysis and the presence of VSV in the CNS (15). Consistently, IFN-I can 90 inhibit VSV replication in neurons, and defects in IFN-stimulated genes in the CNS tissue 91 trigger pathology during VSV infection (23, 24). During infection with low doses of VSV, 92 replication of VSV in CD169⁺ cells in the spleen and lymph node tissue is important for inducing protective immunity and preventing CNS infection (9, 10). The VSV backbone is 93 94 also used during vaccination to induce protective immunity against viruses such as the Ebola 95 virus (25).

antibodies (15, 18). VSV has been used as a murine model of viral infections to study the

96 The role of tumor necrosis factor (TNF) in marginal zone development and marginal 97 zone function is controversial. Although reports show that marginal zone development is 98 impaired and fewer marginal zone macrophages are present in TNF-deficient and p55-TNFR 99 (tumor necrosis factor receptor 1 [TNFR1])-deficient mice (26), other reports suggest that 100 TNF triggers marginal zone macrophage depletion after infection (27, 28). It has also been 101 shown that TNFR1 deficient mice are less susceptible to West Nile virus infection as a result 102 of uncompromised blood brain barrier (29). However, these findings are contradicting other 103 studies utilizing Herpes simplex virus-1 as infection model where it is shown that TNFR1 104 deficient mice are more susceptible to virus infection (30, 31). It is clear that TNF-deficient mice exhibit CD169⁺ cells in the spleen, whereas this cell population is absent in $Lta^{-/-}$ mice 105 106 (26, 27). Furthermore, the production of neutralizing antibodies and the proliferation of

antiviral T cells can be induced in TNF-deficient animals (28, 32). These findings suggest
that TNF, which is crucial for overcoming bacterial infections (33-36) plays a minor role in
antiviral immunity.

110 In this study, we found that absence of TNF reduced the number of $CD169^+$ cells, 111 inhibited IFN-I production, and consequently led to a severe disease outcome during 112 infection with VSV. These effects were mainly transmitted by TNFR1 and were dependent 113 on canonical nuclear factor (NF)- κ B.

114 **Results**

115 TNF production by CD11b⁺Ly6C⁺Ly6G⁺ cells following VSV infection.

116 TNF can be detected during an infection with VSV (32, 37). Consistently, we found 117 that TNF expression levels were higher in the spleen after infection with VSV when 118 compared to uninfected controls (Fig. 1A). Backgating of intracellular TNF producing cells 119 showed that TNF-producing cells are a heterogeneous CD11b⁺ CD19⁻ population (Fig. 120 1B+C). Therefore, we hypothesized that TNF was likely not expressed by B or T cells during infection. Accordingly, we observed TNF mRNA expression levels in Cd8^{-/-}, B cell-deficient 121 $Jh^{-/-}$, and $Rag I^{-/-}$ mice comparable to WT mice (Fig. 1D). TNF producing cells could be 122 123 predominantly characterized as CD11b⁺CD11c⁻Ly6C⁺Ly6G⁺MHCII⁻ (Fig. 1E). Consistent 124 with reports that neutrophils (38, 39) and $CD11b^+Ly6C^+Ly6G^+$ cells (40) are important 125 during early defense against bacterial and viral infections via production of proinflammatory 126 cytokines such as IL1b, IL6, TNF and IFN-I, we found a significant increase of 127 $TNF^+CD11b^+Ly6C^+Ly6G^+$ cells (Fig. 1F). Treatment with clodronate liposomes can deplete 128 phagocytic cells in mice (Fig. 1G)(41, 42). Accordingly, clodronate depletion reduced TNF 129 expression after VSV infection suggesting a role of these phagocytic cells in the production 130 of TNF (Fig. 1H). However, when we employed diphtheria toxin- receptor (DTR) induced 131 specific cell depletion of $CD169^+$ cells and $CD11c^+$ cells; we did not observe reduction in 132 TNF production (Fig.1H). Taken together, these findings indicate that TNF production following intravenous VSV infection is triggered by CD11b⁺CD11c⁻Ly6C⁺Ly6G⁺ 133 134 phagocytes.

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136 TNF triggers the maintenance of CD169⁺ cells during viral infection to protect animals 137 against the development of severe disease

138 To determine whether TNF affects the outcome after VSV infection, we infected 139 wild-type (WT) and TNF-deficient mice. TNF-deficient mice developed severe VSV 140 infection in comparison to WT mice (Fig. 2A). Neutralizing antibody titer was achieved later 141 in TNF-deficient mice than in WT mice after infection with low doses of VSV (Fig. 2B). 142 Since IFN-I is critical to overcome an infection with VSV (15), we measured IFN alpha and 143 IFN beta in the serum of infected animals. IFN alpha production was impaired in TNF-144 deficient mice when compared to control animals (Fig. 2C). However, IFN beta was undetectable in the serum of infected animals when infected with 10⁵ PFU VSV (Fig. 2C). 145 146 Previous findings show that CD169⁺ cells contribute to innate immune activation not only by allowing viral replication but also by producing IFN-I in mice (10, 43). When we depleted 147 148 CD169⁺ cells expressing diphtheria toxin receptor (CD169-DTR) by administering diphtheria 149 toxin (DT) (44), we observed reduced IFN-I concentrations in the serum of infected animals 150 (Fig. 2D). To exclude the possibility of defective innate Toll-like receptor (TLR) activation, 151 we administered the TLR3 agonist poly I:C. We found that the IFN-I production was intact in 152 both WT and TNF-deficient mice (Fig. 2E). Hence, we speculated that TNF promoted the 153 function of CD169⁺ cells and thus contributed to IFN-I production following VSV infection. 154 Shortly after infection with VSV, the number of CD169⁺ cells in spleen tissue decreased in 155 TNF-deficient mice when compared to spleen tissue harvested from WT animals (Fig. 2F-H). 156 To understand the reduced production of IFN-I in absence of TNF, we monitored the virus replication in spleen tissue of WT and Tnfa^{-/-} mice. The expression of VSV glycoprotein 157 158 (VSV-G) was detected in lower quantities in spleen tissue harvested from TNF-deficient

159 animals compared to WT mice after VSV infection (Fig. 2I+J). Consistently, early VSV titers after infection were lower in Tnfa^{-/-} mice than in control mice, a condition that negatively 160 161 affects antiviral immune activation (Fig. 2K). Injection of ultraviolet light (UV)-inactivated 162 virus could increase TNF mRNA expression in WT mice (Fig. 2L). However, decrease of 163 CD169⁺ cells was dependent on live virus, because UV-inactivated virus did not affect CD169⁺ cells in spleen tissue of $Tnfa^{-/-}$ mice (Fig. 2M). These findings indicate that TNF is 164 165 necessary to sustain virus replication in early hours of infection but is dispensable for sterile innate immune activation. Notably, CD169^{-/-} mice exhibited VSV-G expression in spleen 166 167 tissue, a finding indicating that downregulation of the protein CD169 would not cause 168 absence of virus replication (Fig. 2N). Taken together, these findings indicate that the 169 absence of TNF results in defective antiviral innate immune activation after infection with 170 VSV.

171

172 CD169⁺ cell maintenance via TNFR1 results in productive VSV replication and 173 immune activation

To further characterize the role of TNF during viral infection, we infected TNFR1and TNFR2-deficient mice with VSV. In line with findings from TNF-deficient animals, the absence of TNFR1 but not that of TNFR2 resulted in a decrease in the number of CD169⁺ cells in spleen tissue (Fig. 3A + B). Furthermore, VSV-G production was lower in $Tnfrsf1a^{-/-}$ animals than in WT or $Tnfrsf1b^{-/-}$ mice (Fig. 3A). Consistently, VSV titers were reduced in spleen tissue shortly after infection in $Tnfrsf1a^{-/-}$ animals, in sharp contrast to the findings in WT and $Tnfrsf1b^{-/-}$ mice (Fig. 3C). Interestingly, IFN-I production was defective in $Tnfrsf1a^{-}$

^{/-} mice but was also lower in *Tnfrsf1b*^{-/-} animals than in WT control mice (Fig. 3D). IFN-I is 181 182 necessary for the expression of anti-virally active IFN-stimulated genes (ISGs) (1). Consistently, we found reduced expression of ISGs in the CNS of $Tnfrsfla^{-/-}$ mice after 183 184 infection with VSV (Fig. 3E). Defective ISG expression was not found to the same extent in $Tnfrsf1b^{-/-}$ CNS tissue (Fig. 3F). VSV can drive neuropathological symptoms by infecting 185 186 the CNS (22). When we measured viral titers in the spinal cord and brain tissue of mice 187 exhibiting hind leg paralysis, we found infectious VSV in tissue from TNFR1-deficient mice (Figure 3G). Consequently, *Tnfrsf1a^{-/-}* mice developed clinical signs of CNS infection, 188 189 unlike WT and $Tnfrsf1b^{--}$ mice (Fig. 3H). Taken together, these findings suggest that TNFR1 190 drives antiviral defense by promoting CD169⁺ cell survival.

191

192 TNFR1 triggers the survival of CD169⁺ cells

Next, we opted to determine which factors drive the maintenance of CD169⁺ cells and 193 194 enforced viral replication after viral infection. B cell-mediated Ltß production is important 195 for splenic CD169⁺ cells. Hence, we wondered whether the defects in absence of TNF were 196 triggered by B cells. Notably, we did not observe any major changes of B-cell subsets in 197 TNF, TNFR1 or TNFR2-deficient mice (Fig. 4A). Consistently, we did not see differential 198 expression of $Lt\alpha$, $Lt\beta$, or Lt\beta receptor (LtbR) in TNFR1-deficient mice (Fig. 4B). 199 Additionally, we found no major differences in B-cell subsets between WT and Tnfrsfla^{-/-} 200 mice after infection (Fig. 4C). Furthermore, we reconstituted lethally irradiated C57BL/6 mice with mixed bone marrow from $Rag1^{-/-}$ and $Tnfrsf1a^{-/-}$ and $Rag1^{-/-}$ and WT donors at a 201 ratio of 1:1. Mice reconstituted with $Rag1^{-/-}$: $Tnfrsf1a^{-/-}$ bone marrow exhibited no 202

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CD169⁺ cells.

203 significant reduction in IFN- α in the serum when compared to mice reconstituted with Rag1⁻ 204 ^{-/-}: WT bone marrow (Fig. 4D). Furthermore, there was no difference between these mice in 205 neutralizing antibody production (Fig. 4E). To elucidate if TNFR1 deficiency specifically on 206 CD169⁺ cells have a role in virus replication, we reconstituted lethally irradiated C57BL/6 mice with mixed bone marrow from CD169-DTR⁺ and $Tnfrsf1a^{-/-}$ donors as well as CD169-207 208 DTR⁺ and WT donors at a ratio of 1:1. We observed that the production of IFN- α was lower in the mice reconstituted with CD169-DTR⁺ + $Tnfrsfla^{-/-}$ bone marrow compared to control 209 mice reconstituted with CD169-DTR⁺ + WT after infection with VSV and DT treatment (Fig. 210 211 4F). Furthermore, we found slightly delayed presence of VSV neutralizing antibody titers in CD169-DTR⁺: $Tnfrsfla^{-/-}$ recipients when compared to corresponding CD169-DTR⁺:WT 212 recipients (Fig. 4G). CD169⁺ cells can be depleted in CD11c-DTR mice, because CD169⁺ 213 214 cells exhibit intermediate expression of CD11c (10, 45). Consistently, lethally irradiated mice reconstituted with mixed bone marrow from CD11c-DTR⁺ and $Tnfrsf1a^{-/-}$ mice exhibited 215 216 reduced concentrations of IFN- α after VSV infection when compared to CD11c-DTR⁺:WT 217 recipients (Fig. 4H). These findings suggest that TNFR1 triggers cell-intrinsic effects on

219 We speculated that TNF delivers an important survival signal for CD169⁺ cells. To 220 determine if TNF is involved in protection against VSV induced apoptosis, we measured 221 caspase 3 activity on whole spleen tissue lysates. After VSV infection caspase 3 activity was 222 significantly higher in $Tnfa^{-/-}$ mice compared to control animals (Fig. 5A). VSV is known to 223 induce apoptosis and inactivates Mcl-1 and Bcl-Xl (46). To elucidate if TNF plays a role in 224 promoting expression of anti-apoptotic genes, we measured mRNA expression of *Bcl2*, *Bcl-*225 *Xl* and *xIAP* in spleen tissue of mice after VSV infection (Fig. 5B). After VSV infection,

Bcl2 and Bcl-Xl expression was significantly reduced in Tnfa^{-/-} mice compared to WT mice 226 227 (Fig. 5B). To enumerate the mechanism which reduces CD169⁺ cells in TNF deficient mice 228 after infection we made use of terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase dUTP nick end 229 labelling (TUNEL) assay. The number as well as the mean fluorescence intensity of TUNEL-230 positive CD169⁺ cells was higher in spleen tissue from TNF deficient mice than in tissue 231 from corresponding WT control mice (Fig. 5C+D). The proportion of $CD169^+$ cells that 232 stained positive for 7-aminoactinomycin D (7-AAD) was higher in TNFR1-deficient mice 233 than in WT control mice 8h after infection (Fig. 5E). Next, we wondered if we can rescue the 234 CD169⁺ cells by injecting the pan-caspase inhibitor Z-Val-Ala-Asp-fluoromethylketone 235 (zVAD-FMK). Z-VAD treatment restored the presence of CD169⁺ cells in TNF-deficient 236 animals, a finding indicating that $CD169^+$ cells depend on TNF-mediated survival (Fig. 237 5F+G). Although treatment of TNF-deficient mice with Z-VAD rescued CD169⁺ cells, it 238 failed to rescue the IFN-I response suggesting the role of TNF signaling is not only essential 239 to prevent apoptosis, but also for IFN-I production (Fig. 5H). In summary, these findings 240 indicate that TNF delivers a survival signal that is important for the maintenance of CD169⁺ 241 cells in the spleen after viral infection and IFN-I production.

242

243 The NF-κB regulator MALT1 promotes canonical NF-κB expression, VSV replication 244 in CD169⁺ cells, and immune activation during viral infection

TNF can induce NF-κB activation via TNFR1 and can promote the expression of
genes driving survival and of proinflammatory cytokines (47). Furthermore, TNF is known to
promote IFN-I production (48). Consistently, RelA expression was increased in the marginal

248	zone of spleen tissue after VSV infection (Fig. 6A). We quantified cytoplasmic and nuclear
249	expression of RelA in CD169 ⁺ cells. Nuclear presence of RelA in CD169 ⁺ cells was higher in
250	VSV-infected mice than in naïve controls (Fig. 6B). We wondered whether nuclear RelA
251	expression was dependent on TNF. As expected, compared with WT control mice, VSV-
252	infected mice exhibited reduced expression of RelA in the nuclear compartment of CD169 ⁺
253	cells in absence of TNF (Fig. 6C). Notably, the presence of RelA was reduced in TNFR1
254	deficient mice, but we observed no difference in RelA expression between TNFR2-deficient
255	mice and corresponding control mice (Fig. 6D+E). It has been reported that one of the major
256	regulator of RelA signaling is RelB which acts through sequestration of RelA in the
257	cytoplasm and competitive binding of DNA (49). It is also reported that the paracaspase
258	MALT1 can promote canonical NF-KB signaling by cleaving RelB (50, 51). Hence, we
259	stained spleen sections of $Malt1^{+/-}$ and $Malt1^{-/-}$ mice for RelB. Ablation of MALT1 resulted
260	in increased levels of RelB in CD169 ^{$+$} cells in the marginal zone of the spleen (Fig. 7A+B).
261	In turn, nuclear RelA levels were lower in CD169 ⁺ cells in $Malt I^{-/-}$ spleen tissue than in
262	control tissue (Fig. 7C). Consistently, mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs) derived from
263	$Malt I^{-/-}$ mice showed reduced translocation of p65 into the nucleus after stimulation with
264	TNF but higher expression of RelB in the nucleus (Fig. 7D+E). These findings indicate that
265	MALT1 destabilizes RelB in marginal zone macrophages to promote canonical NF-ĸB
266	signaling. The presence of CD169 ⁺ cells in spleen tissue was not affected by <i>Malt1</i> before or
267	after infection with VSV (Fig. 8A). However, the expression of VSV-G was lower in Malt1 ^{-/-}
268	mice than in control mice (Fig. 8B+C). Consistently, the number of infectious VSV particles
269	were lower in spleen tissue harvested from $Malt I^{-/-}$ mice than in spleen tissue from control
270	mice (Fig. 8D). Hence, IFN-I serum concentrations after VSV infection were lower in

Σ

271	MALT1 deficient mice than in control mice (Fig. 8E). A previous report suggests that
272	MALT1 is not required for RIG-I activation (52). Consistently, when we injected polyI:C
273	into $Malt1^{+/-}$ and $Malt1^{-/-}$ mice, we found similar serum IFN-I levels in both groups (Fig.
274	8F). Hence we concluded that defective IFN-I production during VSV infection was caused
275	by reduced VSV replication early during infection. Consequently, MALT1 deficient mice
276	succumbed to the infection in sharp contrast to control animals (Fig. 8G).

Taken together, these findings indicate that absence of MALT1 results in reduced
canonical NF-κB signaling in response to VSV infection. *Malt1*-deficient mice exhibit
reduced VSV replication and immune activation.

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280 Discussion

In this study, we found that TNF plays a crucial role in the maintenance of CD169⁺ cells early after infection with VSV. Consequently, TNF, TNFR1, and MALT1 deficient animals exhibited reduced immune activation, limited IFN-I production, which consequently led to a sever VSV infection.

285 The role of TNF during viral infection is controversial and not sufficiently 286 understood. Although reports describe activating polymorphisms in TNF, which are 287 associated with the establishment of a chronic viral infection (53), other reports state that the 288 same mutations are protective against chronic hepatitis B virus infection (HBV) (54). In 289 vitro, TNF can propagate the viral replication of HCV (55) although HCV increases the 290 incidence of TNF-induced apoptosis (56). On the other hand, TNF strongly inhibits influenza 291 virus replication in porcine lung epithelial cells (57). Consistently, the attenuation of TNF 292 signaling in a murine T cell-independent model of HBV infection results in viral persistence 293 (58). In turn, the application of Smac mimetics enhances TNF signaling and is associated 294 with increased clearance of HBV in this model system (59). During infection with VSV, the 295 production of neutralizing antibodies is not defective in the absence of TNFR1 (32). 296 Moreover, TNF can induce T-cell dysfunction and, therefore, promote chronic viral infection 297 (60). Our findings that TNF is crucial for the maintenance of $CD169^+$ cells in spleen tissue 298 may be important for infections with lower doses of virus, because allowing viral replication 299 in CD169⁺ cells is particularly important for protective adaptive immunity (9, 13). This may 300 be crucial for the maintenance of CD169⁺ cells in spleen tissue during vaccination with 301 attenuated virus strains or VSV vector-based vaccines (25). These findings may not only be

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302 specific for splenic CD169⁺ cells, since intranasal infection with recombinant TNF
303 overexpressing Rabies virus (RV), reduced RV load and mortality (61).

304 Viral replication in CD169⁺ cells, which is promoted by TNF, contributes to 305 improved antigen presentation. CD169⁺ cells in the marginal zone are in close contact with 306 pathogens and are ideally situated to induce an immune response (62). Furthermore, CD169⁺ 307 cells have been shown not only to present antigens to B cells in the lymph nodes but also to 308 prime T cells (11, 63). Moreover, CD169⁺ cells are important for virus-mediated IFN-I 309 production which prevents severe CNS infection in mice (64). Our findings show that TNF 310 promotes maintenance of CD169⁺ cells and IFN-I production following VSV infection. 311 Furthermore, our findings show that the translocation of RelA to the nuclei of CD169⁺ cells 312 after VSV infection is dependent on TNF. It has been postulated that canonical NF- κ B can 313 contribute to the production of IFN- α (65, 66). However, RelA-deficient and p50-deficient 314 MEFs can produce IFN- α after viral infection, whereas only early IFN-I transcription is 315 reduced (67, 68). Furthermore, RelA-deficient plasmacytoid dendritic cells (pDCs) exhibited 316 reduced IFN production after exposure to Sendai virus (69). Our findings indicate that 317 canonical NF-KB activation can also promote early viral replication and consequently 318 contribute to the production of IFN-I. Consistently, non-canonical NF- κ B, which can inhibit 319 canonical NF-κB signaling, is a potent inhibitor of IFN-I production (70). Hence, the 320 paracaspase MALT1, which can cleave RelB and consequently promote canonical NF-KB 321 signaling (50, 51) is necessary for the sufficient propagation of VSV replication and IFN-I 322 production.

Taken together, we have found that TNF-TNFR1 signaling is crucial for protecting
 CD169⁺ cells and their function in innate immune activation during VSV infection.

325 Materials and Methods:

Mice, viruses, virus titration: $Tnfa^{-/-}$, $Tnfrsf1b^{-/-}$, $Cd8^{-/-}$ and $Rag1^{-/-}$ mice were purchased 326 327 from Jackson Laboratories (United States). Tnfrsfla^{-/-} mice have been previously described (34). Malt1^{-/-}, CD169^{-/-}, CD169-DTR, and CD11c-DTR mice have also been previously 328 329 described (71-74). All mice were maintained on a C57BL/6 genetic background. VSV 330 Indiana strain (VSV-IND, strain Mudd-Summers) was originally obtained from Prof. D. 331 Kolakofsky (University of Geneva, Switzerland). VSV was propagated and titrated as 332 previously described (13). Mice were infected with VSV via tail vein injection. In survival 333 experiments, mice exhibiting symptoms of hind leg paralysis were considered severe, taken 334 out of the experiment, and counted as dead. Blood was collected at the indicated time points 335 after infection. VSV neutralizing antibody titers were measured by plaque reduction 336 neutralization test (PRNT) as previously described (9, 13). Briefly, serum samples were 337 diluted 1:40 and incubated at 56°C for 30 min. To evaluate IgG, serum was pretreated with 338 0.1M β -mercaptoethanol. Serial 2 fold dilutions were performed for 12 steps and incubated 339 with 5000 PFU of VSV. Virus and serum mixture was incubated on a Vero cell monolayer. 340 Plates were stained with crystal violet after 24h. To inhibit caspase activity in vivo, we 341 administered three doses (2 µg/g each) of zVAD-FMK (Abcam, Cambridge, UK) (75, 76). 342 For chimera experiments, mice were lethally irradiated with 10.2 Gy. After 24 h, mixed bone marrow from WT or $Tnfrsfla^{-/-}$ and CD169-DTR, CD11c-DTR, and $Ragl^{-/-}$ mice was 343 344 transplanted into the irradiated mice as indicated. All mice were maintained under specific 345 pathogen-free conditions at the authorization of the Landesamt für Natur, Umwelt und Verbraucherschutz of North Rhine-Westphalia (LANUV NRW) in accordance with the 346 347 German laws for animal protection.

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Depletion of cells: To deplete macrophages, 200ul clodronate liposomes was injected intravenously, 24h later mice were infected with VSV. Clodronate was provided by Nico van Rooijen and used as previously described (41, 42)(Vrije University Medical Center, Netherlands). CD169⁺ and CD11c⁺ expressing cells in CD169-DTR and CD11c-DTR mice were depleted by injecting 2 doses of 100ng diphtheria toxin (DT) (Sigma) 1 day before and at the day of infection.

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Histology and ELISA: Histological analysis of snap-frozen tissue was performed as 355 356 previously described (9). Briefly, Snap-frozen tissue sections were cut in 7µm thickness, air 357 dried and fixed with acetone for 10min. Sections were blocked with 2% fetal calf serum in 358 PBS for 1h. Sections were stained with anti-CD169 (final conc. 4 µg/ml) (Acris, Germany; 359 clone: MOMA-1), anti-VSV-G (final conc. 1 µg/ml) (produced in-house, clone: Vi10), anti-360 RelA (final conc. 1µg/ml) (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, USA), anti-F4/80 (final conc. 2µg/ml) 361 (eBioscience, clone BM8) and anti-RelB (final conc. 1µg/ml) (Cell Signaling, USA; 362 polyclonal) for 1h. Then Sections were washed with PBS containing 0.05% Tween 20 363 (Sigma). Secondary antibodies, PE streptavidin (final conc. lug/ml) (eBioscience), anti-364 Rabbit FITC (final conc. 1µg/ml) (Thermofisher), anti-Goat FITC (final conc. 1µg/ml) (Santa 365 Cruz Biotechnology, USA) were incubated for 1h. Then sections were washed with PBS 366 containing 0.05% Tween 20 (Sigma) and mounted using fluorescence mounting medium 367 (Dako). Caspase 3 activity assay was performed with a fluorescence assay according to the 368 manufacturer's instructions (Cell Signaling). TUNEL staining was performed on formalin-369 fixed spleen sections according to the manufacturer's instructions (Thermo scientific, USA). 370 Images were obtained with a LSM510 confocal microscope and Axio Observer Z1

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371 fluorescence microscope (Zeiss, Germany). Analysis of the fluorescence images was
372 performed with ImageJ software. IFN-α and IFN-β (PBL Biosciences, New Jersey, USA)
373 concentrations were determined using enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA)
374 according to the manufacturers' instructions.

375 **RT-PCR analyses:** RNA purification was performed according to manufacturer's 376 instructions (Qiagen RNeasy Kit or Trizol). Gene expression of Bcl2, Bcl-xl, Xiap, Lta, Ltb, 377 Ifit1, Ifit2, Ifit3, Irf7, Isg15, Oasl1 and Tnfa, was performed using FAM/VIC probes (Applied 378 Biosystems) and iTAQ[™] One step PCR kit (Bio rad). For analysis, the expression levels of 379 all target genes were normalized to β -actin/GAPDH expression (Δ Ct). Gene expression 380 values were then calculated based on the $\Delta\Delta$ Ct method, using naive WT mice as a control to 381 which all other samples were compared. Relative quantities (RQ) were determined using the 382 equation: $RQ=2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$.

Immunoblotting: *Malt1^{+/-}* and *Malt1^{-/-}* mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs) were obtained
from Jürgen Ruland (Technische Universität München, Germany). *Malt1^{+/-}* and *Malt1^{-/-}*MEFs were stimulated with 100 ng/ml murine-soluble TNF (mTNF; R&D Systems).
Cytoplasmic and nuclear extracts were prepared according to manufacturer's instructions
(Active Motif, Belgium). Immunoblots were probed with primary anti-p65 (Santa Cruz
Biotechnology), anti-RelB (Cell Signaling), and anti-p100/p52 (Cell Signaling).

389 Flow cytometry: For intracellular cytokine staining, single-cell suspended splenocytes were 390 incubated with Brefeldin A (eBioscience), followed by an additional 5 h of incubation at 391 37°C. After surface staining with anti-CD3, anti-CD8, anti-CD11b, anti-CD11c, anti-CD19,

anti-CD115, anti-F4/80, anti-Ly6C, anti-Ly6G anti-MHC-II, and anti-NK1.1 antibodies (all
from eBioscience), cells were fixed with 2% formalin, permeabilized with 0.1% saponin, and
stained with anti-TNF antibodies (eBioscience) for 30 min at 4°C. B-cell subsets were
detected in single-cell suspensions of splenocytes with anti-CD5, anti-CD19, anti-CD21,
anti-CD23, and anti–immunoglobulin M (IgM) antibodies (all from eBioscience). BD
Calibrite[™] (BD Biosciences, USA) beads were added to the samples before acquisition by BD
LSRFortessa[™].

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400 **Statistical analyses:** Data are represented as +SEM or \pm SEM. Statistically significant 401 differences between two groups were determined with Student's *t*-test. Statistically 402 significant differences between several groups were determined by one-way analysis of 403 variance (ANOVA) with additional Bonferroni or Dunnett post hoc test. Statistically 404 significant differences between groups in experiments involving more than one time-point 405 were determined with two-way ANOVA (repeated measurements).

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674 Figure Legends

Fig. 1: Vesicular stomatitis virus infection leads to infiltration of TNF producing phagocytes.

(A to F) WT mice were infected with 2×10^8 PFU vesicular stomatitis virus (VSV). (A) 677 Tumor necrosis factor (TNF)- α mRNA expression levels in WT spleen tissue were 678 679 determined at the indicated time points after infection (n=4-10). (B) Surface molecule 680 expression of CD11b, CD11c, CD8, and CD19 on TNF⁺ cells is shown 4h after infection 681 (purple gate, whole spleen; pink gate, TNF^+ cells) (one representative result of n=5 is shown). 682 (C) Splenocytes from WT mice were stained for intracellular TNF production. TNF⁺CD11b⁺ 683 cells were determined (as % of total CD11b⁺ cells; n=5). (**D**) TNF- α mRNA expression was determined in the spleen of WT, $Jh^{-/-}$, $Rag^{-/-}$, and $CD8^{-/-}$ mice 4 h after infection (n=5-6). (E) 684 685 Surface molecule expression of TNF producing cells is shown 4h after infection. CD3⁻CD8⁻ 686 CD19⁻NK1.1⁻ cells were further characterized for expression of CD11b, CD11c, Ly6C, Ly6G, F4/80, MHC II, and CD115 on TNF^+ cells (n=6). (F) CD3⁻CD19⁻NK1.1⁻ 687 CD11b⁺Ly6C⁺Ly6G⁺TNF⁺ cells were quantified in spleen tissue 4h after infection (n=6). 688 689 (G) Mice were injected with PBS-liposomes or clodronate- liposomes. Spleen tissue was 690 harvested after 24h. Sections from snap frozen spleen tissue were stained with anti-F4/80 691 antibodies (n=3). (H) TNF- α mRNA expression was determined in the spleen of WT, clodronate-treated WT, Ifnar., DT-treated CD169-DTR, and CD11c-DTR mice 4 h after 692 693 infection (n=6).

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Fig. 2: Tumor necrosis factor is required for early innate immune activation via maintenance of CD169⁺ cells during viral infection.

(A to D) Mice were infected with 10^5 PFU VSV. (A) Survival of Wild-type (WT) and tumor 697 698 necrosis factor- α null (*Tnfa*^{-/-}) mice was monitored for 20 days after infection (*n*=9-12). (**B**) 699 Titers of neutralizing total immunoglobulin (Ig; left) and IgG (right) were determined in WT and $Tnfa^{-1}$ mice at indicated time points after infection (n=7). (C) Interferon (IFN)- α and β 700 concentrations were determined in the sera of WT and Tnfa^{-/-} mice 24 h after infection (n=6-701 702 9). (D) IFN- α levels were determined in sera from WT and CD169-DTR mice 24 h after infection (n=6). (E) IFN- α and β concentration was determined in the sera of WT and $Tnfa^{-/-1}$ 703 704 mice injected with 200µg of polyinosinic:polycytidylic acid (polyI:C) at indicated time points (n=3). (F) WT and $Tnfa^{-1}$ mice were infected with 2 × 10⁸ plaque-forming units 705 (PFU) of VSV. Snap-frozen spleen sections were stained with anti-CD169 antibodies (clone: 706 707 MOMA-1) at indicated time points (one representative result of n=6 mice is shown; scale bar 708 = 100 μ m). (G) MFI of CD169 was quantified across spleen section from naïve and VSV infected WT and Tnfa-/- mice using ImageJ (1-3 images per spleen from 3-4 mice were 709 analyzed). (H) MFI from *Tnfa^{-/-}* mice was normalized to WT MFI (I) Snap-frozen spleen 710 sections from WT and *Tnfa^{-/-}* mice were stained for VSV glycoprotein (VSV-G) expression 711 (clone: Vi10) after infection with 2×10^8 PFU VSV at indicated time points (one 712 713 representative result of n=6 mice is shown; scale bar = 100μ m). (J) MFI of VSV-G expression was quantified across spleen section from naïve and VSV infected WT and Tnfa^{-/-} 714 mice using ImageJ (1-3 images per spleen from 3-4 mice were analyzed) (K) WT and Tnfa^{-/-} 715 mice were infected with 10^5 PFU VSV. Viral titers were measured in the spleen of WT and 716 $Tnfa^{--}$ mice 8 h after infection with VSV (n=6). (L) Tnfa mRNA expression was determined 717

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in spleen tissue of WT mice before and 4h after injection with UV-inactivated VSV (n=4). (M) Spleen tissue sections were stained with anti-CD169 antibodies in WT and $Tnfa^{-/-}$ mice 8h after infection with 2×10^8 PFU of ultraviolet (UV)-inactivated VSV (one representative result of n=3 is shown). (N) Sections from snap-frozen spleen tissue harvested from WT and $CD169^{-/-}$ mice were stained for CD169 and VSV-G 7h after infection with 2×10^8 PFU VSV (n=3; scale bar = 100 µm).

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725 Fig. 3: VSV replication is sustained via TNFR1 on CD169⁺ cells.

(A) Spleen tissue sections from wild-type (WT), *Tnfrsf1a^{-/-}* (tumor necrosis factor receptor 1 726 [TNFR1]), and *Tnfrsf1b^{-/-}* (TNFR2) mice were stained with anti-CD169 and VSV-G 727 antibodies 8 h after infection with 2×10^8 PFU of VSV (One representative result of n=6 728 729 mice is shown; scale bar = 100μ m). (B) MFI of CD169 was quantified across spleen sections from WT, $Tnfrsfla^{-/-}$, and $Tnfrsflb^{-/-}$ infected mice, using ImageJ (1-3 images per spleen from 730 3-4 mice were analyzed). (C-G) WT, $Tnfrsfla^{-/-}$, and $Tnfrsflb^{-/-}$ mice were infected with 10^5 731 PFU VSV. (C) Viral titers were measured in spleen tissue 8h after infection in WT, Tnfrsfla 732 $^{\prime}$, and *Tnfrsf1b*^{-/-} mice (*n*=6-9). (**D**) IFN- α concentration was determined in the sera of WT, 733 *Tnfrsf1a*^{-/-}, and *Tnfrsf1b*^{-/-} mice 24 h after infection with VSV (n=6-9). (E) WT and *Tnfrsf1a*^{-/-} 734 735 $^{/2}$ mice were infected with 10⁵ PFU VSV. RNA expression levels of indicated genes were 736 determined in brain and spinal cord 24 h after infection (n=4-7, highest relative expression 737 values brain/spinal cord: Eif2ak2, 13.72/7.98; Ifit2, 5.41/6.13; Ifit3, 35.99/34.15; Irf7, 68.80/54.55; Isg15, 42.54/51.23; Oasl1, 70.43/84.94). (F) WT and Tnfrsf1b^{-/-} mice were 738 infected with 10⁵ PFU VSV. RNA expression levels of indicated genes were determined in 739

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brain and spinal cord 24h after infection (n=3-4, highest relative expression values brain/spinal cord: *Eif2ak*, 29.84/18.21; *Ifit2*, 7.99/10.24; *Ifit3*, 41.05/51.25; *Irf7*, 166.79/88.58; Isg15, 29.78/52.99; *Oasl1*, 75.60/114.39). (G) Viral titers were measured in brain and spinal cord tissue of WT and *Tnfrsf1a^{-/-}* mice, once *Tnfrsf1a^{-/-}* mice exhibited hind limb paralysis (*n*=3). (H) Survival of WT, *Tnfrsf1a^{-/-}*, and *Tnfrsf1b^{-/-}* mice was monitored over time after infection with VSV (*n*=15-24).

746

747 Fig. 4: TNFR1 on CD169⁺ cells is essential for early IFN-I response.

748 (A) Follicular B cells (CD19⁺CD23⁺) (FB), marginal zone B cells (CD19⁺CD21⁺ CD23⁻) 749 (MZB), and regulatory B cells (CD19⁺CD21⁺ CD5⁺IgM⁺) (RB) were analyzed in naïve WT, $Tnfa^{-/-}$, $Tnfrsf1a^{-/-}$, and $Tnfrsf1b^{-/-}$ deficient mice (n=6). (B) Lymphotoxin α (LT α), LT β , and 750 751 lymphotoxin β receptor (*Lt* βR) gene expression was determined in spleen tissue from WT and $Tnfrsfla^{-/-}$ mice by reverse-transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) (n=3). (C) 752 753 Splenic B-cell populations FB, MZB, and RB were analyzed after infection with 2×10^8 PFU of VSV in WT and *Tnfrsf1a*^{-/-} mice at indicated time points (n=5). (**D**) IFN- α concentration 754 755 was determined 24 h after infection with 10⁵ PFU VSV in the sera of lethally irradiated mice reconstituted with either WT: $Rag^{-/-}$ or $Tnfrsfla^{-/-}:Rag^{-/-}$ bone marrow at a ratio of 1:1 (n=4). 756 757 (E) Neutralizing total immunoglobulin (Ig; left) and IgG (right) antibody titers were determined in the sera of WT: $Rag^{-/-}$ or $Tnfrsfla^{-/-}:Rag^{-/-}$ reconstituted animals (n=4). (F-H) 758 759 Lethally irradiated WT mice were reconstituted with bone marrow (BM) from WT or *Tnfrsf1a*^{-/-} mice mixed with BM from (F) CD169-DTR and (H) CD11c-DTR at a 1:1 ratio. 760 After 40 days, mice were infected with 10⁵ PFU of VSV. Before the infection mice were 761

762 treated with 2 doses of 100 ng DT via intra peritoneal injection (F) IFN- α concentration was 763 determined 24h after infection in the sera of WT:CD169-DTR and Tnfrsfla^{-/-}:CD169-DTR reconstituted animals (n=4-5). (G) Neutralizing total immunoglobulin (Ig; left) and IgG 764 (right) antibody titers were determined in the sera of WT:CD169-DTR and Tnfrsf1a^{-/-} 765 :CD169-DTR reconstituted animals after infection with 10⁵ PFU VSV at indicated time 766 767 points (n=4). (H) IFN- α concentration was determined 24 h after infection in the sera of 768 WT:CD11c-DTR and $Tnfrsf1a^{-/-}$:CD11c-DTR reconstituted mice (n=4-5).

769

770 Fig. 5: Tumor necrosis factor mediates survival of CD169⁺ cells via TNFR1

(A-E) Mice were infected with 2×10^8 PFU VSV. (A) Caspase 3 activity was determined in 771 spleen tissue harvested from WT and $Tnfa^{-/-}$ mice 6h after infection with 2×10⁸ PFU VSV 772 773 (n=4-7, RFU = relative fluorescence units). (B) Bcl2, Bclzl, Xiap RNA expression was determined in spleen tissue from WT and $Tnfrsfla^{-/-}$ mice 8h after infection (n=3). (C) 774 775 Tissue sections from WT and $Tnfa^{-/-}$ mice were stained with terminal deoxynucleotidyl 776 transferase dUTP nick end labeling (TUNEL) 5 h after infection (one result representative of 777 3 or 4 mice is shown; scale bar = 10 μ m). (D) Mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) of TUNEL 778 was quantified across spleen sections from naïve and VSV infected WT and $Tnfa^{-2}$ mice 779 using ImageJ (1-2 images per spleen from 3-4 mice were analyzed). (E) At indicated time 780 points, the proportion of 7 aminoactinomycin D-positive (7AAD⁺) cells among CD11b⁺CD169⁺ cells were determined (n=5) in WT and Tnfrsf1a^{-/-} mice. (F) WT, Tnfa^{-/-} and 781 Tnfrsf1a^{-/-} mice were treated with Z-Val-Ala-Asp-fluoromethylketone (zVAD-FMK) and 782 infected with 2×10^8 PFU VSV. Spleen tissue sections were stained with anti-CD169 783

antibodies 8 h after infection (one result representative of 3-4 mice is shown; scale bar = 100 μ m). (G) MFI of CD169 was quantified across spleen sections from naïve and VSV infected WT and *Tnfa^{-/-}* mice treated with Z-VAD using ImageJ (1-3 images per spleen from 3-4 mice were analyzed). (H) IFN- α concentration was determined 24 h after infection in the sera of Z-VAD treated WT and *Tnfa^{-/-}* mice after infection with 10⁵ PFU of VSV (n=3).

789

Fig. 6: VSV infection leads to TNFR1 dependent canonical NF-κB activation in splenic CD169⁺ cells.

(A-D) Sections of snap-frozen spleen tissue were harvested 4h after infection with 2 x 10^8 792 793 PFU VSV. (A) Sections were stained for RelA before and after infection (one representative 794 result of n=3 is shown; scale bar = $100 \mu m$; side panel shows a cropped image; scale bar = 5 795 μ m). (B) MFI of cytoplasmic and respective nuclear RelA was quantified in CD169⁺ cells 796 from WT mice before and after VSV infection to evaluate nuclear translocation of ReIA (n = 48-63 are shown). (C to E) Spleen sections from WT and (C) $Tnfa^{-/-}$, (D) $Tnfrsfla^{-/-}$ and (E) 797 *Tnfrsf1b*^{-/-} mice were stained with anti-RelA antibodies 4h after infection with 2×10^8 PFU 798 VSV. MFI of RelA in the nucleus of CD169⁺ was determined with ImageJ software (n=35-799 800 57).

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802 Fig. 7: MALT1 regulates translocation of RelA into the nucleus after infection with 803 vesicular stomatitis virus.

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(A) Sections from snap-frozen spleen tissue harvested from naive $Malt 1^{+/-}$ and $Malt 1^{-/-}$ mice 804 805 were stained with anti-RelB antibodies (one representative result of n=3 is shown; scale bar = 10 μ m). (B) MFI of cytoplasmic and nuclear RelB was quantified in CD169⁺ cells using 806 ImageJ (n=39-42). (C) Sections of snap-frozen spleen tissue from $Malt I^{+/-}$ and $Malt I^{-/-}$ mice 807 were stained with anti-RelA antibodies 4h after infection with 2 x 10⁸ PFU VSV. The MFI in 808 the nucleus of CD169⁺ cells was quantified (n=29-41). (**D**+**E**) $Malt I^{+/-}$ and $Malt I^{-/-}$ mouse 809 810 embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs) were stimulated with 100 ng/ml recombinant mouse tumor 811 necrosis factor (rmTNF) at indicated time points. Cytosolic (CE) and nuclear extracts (NE) 812 were harvested and probed for p65. Densitometry analysis of p65 and RelB was performed

813 on the WB images from cytosolic and nuclear fractions at indicated time points. Proteins
814 were normalized to GAPDH or histone (n=4).

815 Fig. 8: MALT1 promotes vesicular stomatitis virus replication in CD169⁺ cells and 816 immune activation during viral infection.

(A) Spleen sections from naïve $Malt l^{+/-}$ and $Malt l^{-/-}$ mice were stained with anti-CD169 (one 817 818 representative result of n=3 is shown; scale bar = 100 µm). (B) Sections of snap-frozen spleen tissue from $Malt 1^{+/-}$ and $Malt 1^{-/-}$ mice were analyzed 8h after infection with 2 x 10⁸ 819 820 PFU VSV, stained with anti-CD169 and anti-vesicular stomatitis virus glycoprotein (VSV-821 G) (one representative result of n=3 is shown; scale bar = $100 \ \mu$ m). (C) MFI of CD169 and VSV-G was quantified across spleen sections from VSV infected *Malt1*^{+/-} and *Malt1*^{-/-} mice 822 using ImageJ (n=4). (**D** and **E**) Mice were infected with 10^5 PFU VSV. (**D**) Viral titers were 823 measured in spleen tissue of $Malt 1^{+/-}$ and $Malt 1^{-/-}$ mice 8h after infection (n=6). (E) IFN- α 824 concentration was determined in the sera of Malt1^{+/-} and Malt1^{-/-} mice 24 h after infection 825 (n=6). (F) IFN- α concentration was determined in the sera of $Malt 1^{+/-}$ and $Malt 1^{-/-}$ mice 826

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4). (G) Survival of $Malt 1^{+/-}$ and $Malt 1^{-/-}$ animals was monitored for 20 days after infection 828

(*n*=*13*-*14*). 829

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Fig. 1

-1

0 2 4 8

A



В

SSC

FSC-H

FSC-A

p<0.0001

p<0.000

p<0.01

Time (hours)













Fig. 2

100

80

60

40

Survival (%)

WT *Tnfa*≁

Α



В

p<0.05

10

8

6

4

WT *Tnfa*≁

p<0.00'

p<0.01



С

IFN-α (ng/ml)

p<0.001

WT *Tnfa*≁

p<0.01

4hrs

J

MFI (Arbitrary units) 11 21

0-

WT

-

Tnfa-⁄-

2 4 6 Time (hours)

p<0.01

6

24h

4-

3-

2-

1

0

24h

6hrs

IFN-ß (ng/ml)

4-

3-Т

2-

1

0.



Fig. 3





Fig 4

Α

₩ Tnfrsf1a⁺

WT



В

Lta (fold expression/WT)

D

2.5-

2.0

1.5

1.0

0.5

5-

4

3-

2-

1

0.

IFN-α (ng/ml)

Т

Т

■ WT □ Tnfrsf1a^{.,_}

n.s.

Т

2.5

2.0

1.5

1.0

0.5

Ltb (fold expression/WT)

■ WT+ Rag^{-/-} → WT □ Tnfrsf1a^{-/-}+ Rag^{-/-} → WT

n.s

2.5

2.0

1.5

1.0

0.5

0

n.s

Ltbr (fold expression/WT)

n.s

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PBS

Z-VAD

CD169



20 p<0.05 10 0 naive naive P851, 1AD 885 1, NAD Downloaded from http://jvi.asm.org/ on November 20, 2017 by Brought to you by the University of Dundee Library & Learning Centre



PBS

Z-VAD

CD169

















r Tnfrsf1b^{-/-}

Σ











15 45 Time (min)

0h

135







 \sum

Fig. 8

D

VSV Titer (log₁₀PFU)/spleen)







Ε







G • Malt1*/-Malt1^{-/-} 100 80-Survival (%) p<0.01 60-40 20 +0 0 16 20 12 8 4 Time (days)