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

2 vesicular stomatitis virus infection

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- 36 Key words: TNF, MALT1, innate immunity, interferon, NF-κB

Abstract

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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 virus (VSV) infections is increasingly recognized, factors regulating CD169⁺ cells during viral infections remain unclear. Here we show that tumor necrosis factor is produced by CD11b⁺ Ly6C⁺Ly6G⁺ cells following infection with VSV. The absence of TNF or TNF 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 RelA translocation into the nucleus of CD169⁺ cells; this translocation was inhibited when paracaspase MALT-1 was absent. Consequently, MALT1 deficiency resulted in reduced VSV replication, defective innate immune activation, and severe disease development. These findings indicate that TNF mediates the maintenance of CD169+ cells and innate and adaptive immune activation during VSV infection.

Importance

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

- CD169⁺ macrophages. Consequently, lack of TNF or TNFR1 resulted in defective immune 59
- 60 activation and VSV clearance.

Introduction

innate immune activation is crucial for inducing antiviral immunity through cytokine
production and adaptive immune priming (1). Splenic marginal zone macrophages and
metallophilic marginal zone macrophages play an important role in eliminating blood borne
bacterial, parasites and viral pathogens (2, 3). Metallophilic macrophages were originally
described when rat splenic marginal zone macrophages were stained with iron and silver
impregnation (4). These metallophilic macrophages express the lectin like hemagglutining
CD169, which was identified using a monoclonal antibody: MOMA-1 (5-7). CD169
macrophages are increasingly recognized to play a pivotal role in host defense (8). CD169
macrophages (referred to as CD169 ⁺ cells), specifically allow early viral replication to
promote innate immune recognition and antigen presentation (9). The absence of CD169
cells results in reduced type I interferon (IFN-I) production, reduced B-cell activation, and
severe disease development during viral infection (10, 11). B cell-derived lymphotoxin alpha
(Ltα) and lymphotoxin beta (LTβ) drive the maintenance of CD169 ⁺ cells in spleen and
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
factors promoting survival and the presence of CD169 ⁺ cells after viral infection have not yet
been sufficiently studied.

IFN-I triggers strong inhibitory effects on viral replication and is crucial for preventing severe infections with the vesicular stomatitis virus (VSV) model system (1, 15). This system can be used as a laboratory system for immune recognition during viral infection, as a vaccine vector system, as a tool for viral transduction, and as an oncolytic virus (16, 17). Clearance of VSV depends heavily on IFN-I and the presence of neutralizing

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antibodies (15, 18). VSV has been used as a murine model of viral infections to study the innate immune response, virus replication in secondary lymphoid organs and the central nervous system (CNS) (19-21). Pathology during VSV infection is seen particularly during infection of the central nervous system (CNS); this pathology includes paralysis and death after infection with VSV (22). Accordingly, mice deficient in IFN- α/β receptor (IFNAR) signaling exhibit paralysis and the presence of VSV in the CNS (15). Consistently, IFN-I can inhibit VSV replication in neurons, and defects in IFN-stimulated genes in the CNS tissue trigger pathology during VSV infection (23, 24). During infection with low doses of VSV, 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 also used during vaccination to induce protective immunity against viruses such as the Ebola virus (25).

The role of tumor necrosis factor (TNF) in marginal zone development and marginal zone function is controversial. Although reports show that marginal zone development is impaired and fewer marginal zone macrophages are present in TNF-deficient and p55-TNFR (tumor necrosis factor receptor 1 [TNFR1])-deficient mice (26), other reports suggest that TNF triggers marginal zone macrophage depletion after infection (27, 28). It has also been shown that TNFR1 deficient mice are less susceptible to West Nile virus infection as a result of uncompromised blood brain barrier (29). However, these findings are contradicting other studies utilizing Herpes simplex virus-1 as infection model where it is shown that TNFR1 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 $Lt\alpha^{-1}$ mice (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.

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

114 Results

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

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

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

To determine whether TNF affects the outcome after VSV infection, we infected wild-type (WT) and TNF-deficient mice. TNF-deficient mice developed severe VSV infection in comparison to WT mice (Fig. 2A). Neutralizing antibody titer was achieved later in TNF-deficient mice than in WT mice after infection with low doses of VSV (Fig. 2B). Since IFN-I is critical to overcome an infection with VSV (15), we measured IFN alpha and IFN beta in the serum of infected animals. IFN alpha production was impaired in TNFdeficient 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). 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 CD169⁺ cells expressing diphtheria toxin receptor (CD169-DTR) by administering diphtheria toxin (DT) (44), we observed reduced IFN-I concentrations in the serum of infected animals (Fig. 2D). To exclude the possibility of defective innate Toll-like receptor (TLR) activation, we administered the TLR3 agonist poly I:C. We found that the IFN-I production was intact in both WT and TNF-deficient mice (Fig. 2E). Hence, we speculated that TNF promoted the function of CD169⁺ cells and thus contributed to IFN-I production following VSV infection. Shortly after infection with VSV, the number of CD169⁺ cells in spleen tissue decreased in TNF-deficient mice when compared to spleen tissue harvested from WT animals (Fig. 2F-H). 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 (VSV-G) was detected in lower quantities in spleen tissue harvested from TNF-deficient

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 affects antiviral immune activation (Fig. 2K). Injection of ultraviolet light (UV)-inactivated virus could increase TNF mRNA expression in WT mice (Fig. 2L). However, decrease of 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 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 tissue, a finding indicating that downregulation of the protein CD169 would not cause absence of virus replication (Fig. 2N). Taken together, these findings indicate that the absence of TNF results in defective antiviral innate immune activation after infection with VSV.

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CD169⁺ cell maintenance via TNFR1 results in productive VSV replication and 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⁻

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/- mice but was also lower in *Tnfrsf1b*-/- animals than in WT control mice (Fig. 3D). IFN-I is 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 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 the CNS (22). When we measured viral titers in the spinal cord and brain tissue of mice 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, unlike WT and Tnfrsf1b^{-/-} mice (Fig. 3H). Taken together, these findings suggest that TNFR1 drives antiviral defense by promoting CD169⁺ cell survival.

TNFR1 triggers the survival of CD169⁺ cells

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

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significant reduction in IFN-α in the serum when compared to mice reconstituted with Rag1⁻ : WT bone marrow (Fig. 4D). Furthermore, there was no difference between these mice in neutralizing antibody production (Fig. 4E). To elucidate if TNFR1 deficiency specifically on 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-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 mice reconstituted with CD169-DTR⁺ + WT after infection with VSV and DT treatment (Fig. 4F). Furthermore, we found slightly delayed presence of VSV neutralizing antibody titers in CD169-DTR⁺: Tnfrsf1a^{-/-} recipients when compared to corresponding CD169-DTR⁺: WT recipients (Fig. 4G). CD169⁺ cells can be depleted in CD11c-DTR mice, because CD169⁺ cells exhibit intermediate expression of CD11c (10, 45). Consistently, lethally irradiated mice reconstituted with mixed bone marrow from CD11c-DTR⁺ and Tnfrsf1a^{-/-} mice exhibited reduced concentrations of IFN-α after VSV infection when compared to CD11c-DTR⁺:WT recipients (Fig. 4H). These findings suggest that TNFR1 triggers cell-intrinsic effects on CD169⁺ cells.

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

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

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

TNF can induce NF-kB 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

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

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- MALT1 deficient mice than in control mice (Fig. 8E). A previous report suggests that MALT1 is not required for RIG-I activation (52). Consistently, when we injected polyI:C into $Malt1^{+/-}$ and $Malt1^{-/-}$ mice, we found similar serum IFN-I levels in both groups (Fig. 8F). Hence we concluded that defective IFN-I production during VSV infection was caused by reduced VSV replication early during infection. Consequently, MALT1 deficient mice 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-kB signaling in response to VSV infection. Malt1-deficient mice exhibit reduced VSV replication and immune activation.

Discussion

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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.

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

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

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

Materials and Methods:

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Mice, viruses, virus titration: $Tnfa^{-/-}$, $Tnfrsf1b^{-/-}$, $Cd8^{-/-}$ and $Rag1^{-/-}$ mice were purchased from Jackson Laboratories (United States). Tnfrsfla^{-/-} mice have been previously described (34). Malt1^{-/-}, CD169^{-/-}, CD169-DTR, and CD11c-DTR mice have also been previously described (71-74). All mice were maintained on a C57BL/6 genetic background. VSV Indiana strain (VSV-IND, strain Mudd-Summers) was originally obtained from Prof. D. Kolakofsky (University of Geneva, Switzerland). VSV was propagated and titrated as previously described (13). Mice were infected with VSV via tail vein injection. In survival experiments, mice exhibiting symptoms of hind leg paralysis were considered severe, taken out of the experiment, and counted as dead. Blood was collected at the indicated time points after infection. VSV neutralizing antibody titers were measured by plaque reduction neutralization test (PRNT) as previously described (9, 13). Briefly, serum samples were diluted 1:40 and incubated at 56°C for 30 min. To evaluate IgG, serum was pretreated with 0.1M β-mercaptoethanol. Serial 2 fold dilutions were performed for 12 steps and incubated with 5000 PFU of VSV. Virus and serum mixture was incubated on a Vero cell monolayer. Plates were stained with crystal violet after 24h. To inhibit caspase activity in vivo, we administered three doses (2 µg/g each) of zVAD-FMK (Abcam, Cambridge, UK) (75, 76). 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 transplanted into the irradiated mice as indicated. All mice were maintained under specific pathogen-free conditions at the authorization of the Landesamt für Natur, Umwelt und Verbraucherschutz of North Rhine-Westphalia (LANUV NRW) in accordance with the 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 previously described (9). Briefly, Snap-frozen tissue sections were cut in 7µm thickness, air dried and fixed with acetone for 10min. Sections were blocked with 2% fetal calf serum in PBS for 1h. Sections were stained with anti-CD169 (final conc. 4 µg/ml) (Acris, Germany; clone: MOMA-1), anti-VSV-G (final conc. 1 µg/ml) (produced in-house, clone: Vi10), anti-RelA (final conc. 1μg/ml) (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, USA), anti-F4/80 (final conc. 2μg/ml) (eBioscience, clone BM8) and anti-RelB (final conc. 1µg/ml) (Cell Signaling, USA; polyclonal) for 1h. Then Sections were washed with PBS containing 0.05% Tween 20 (Sigma). Secondary antibodies, PE streptavidin (final conc. lug/ml) (eBioscience), anti-Rabbit FITC (final conc. 1µg/ml) (Thermofisher), anti-Goat FITC (final conc. 1µg/ml) (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, USA) were incubated for 1h. Then sections were washed with PBS containing 0.05% Tween 20 (Sigma) and mounted using fluorescence mounting medium (Dako). Caspase 3 activity assay was performed with a fluorescence assay according to the manufacturer's instructions (Cell Signaling). TUNEL staining was performed on formalinfixed spleen sections according to the manufacturer's instructions (Thermo scientific, USA). Images were obtained with a LSM510 confocal microscope and Axio Observer Z1

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fluorescence microscope (Zeiss, Germany). Analysis of the fluorescence images was performed with ImageJ software. IFN-α and IFN-β (PBL Biosciences, New Jersey, USA) concentrations were determined using enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) according to the manufacturers' instructions. RT-PCR analyses: RNA purification was performed according to manufacturer's instructions (Qiagen RNeasy Kit or Trizol). Gene expression of Bcl2, Bcl-xl, Xiap, Lta, Ltb, Ifit1, Ifit2, Ifit3, Irf7, Isg15, Oasl1 and Tnfa, was performed using FAM/VIC probes (Applied Biosystems) and iTAQTM One step PCR kit (Bio rad). For analysis, the expression levels of all target genes were normalized to β -actin/GAPDH expression (Δ Ct). Gene expression values were then calculated based on the $\Delta\Delta$ Ct method, using naive WT mice as a control to which all other samples were compared. Relative quantities (RQ) were determined using the 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). Flow cytometry: For intracellular cytokine staining, single-cell suspended splenocytes were incubated with Brefeldin A (eBioscience), followed by an additional 5 h of incubation at

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 CalibriteTM (BD Biosciences, USA) beads were added to the samples before acquisition by BD LSRFortessaTM.

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Statistical analyses: Data are represented as +SEM or ±SEM. Statistically significant differences between two groups were determined with Student's t-test. Statistically significant differences between several groups were determined by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with additional Bonferroni or Dunnett post hoc test. Statistically significant differences between groups in experiments involving more than one time-point 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 675
- 676 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^{-1} , Rag^{-1} , and $CD8^{-1}$ 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
- 688 CD11b $^{+}$ Ly6C $^{+}$ Ly6G $^{+}$ TNF $^{+}$ cells were quantified in spleen tissue 4h after infection (n=6).
- 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 10⁵ PFU VSV. (A) Survival of Wild-type (WT) and tumor necrosis factor- α null ($Tnfa^{-/}$) mice was monitored for 20 days after infection (n=9-12). (B) 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 concentrations were determined in the sera of WT and Tnfa^{-/-} mice 24 h after infection (n=6-9). (**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 $Tnfa^{-/-}$ 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 2×10^8 plaque-forming units (PFU) of VSV. Snap-frozen spleen sections were stained with anti-CD169 antibodies (clone: MOMA-1) at indicated time points (one representative result of n=6 mice is shown; scale bar = 100 µm). (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 analyzed). (H) MFI from Tnfa^{-/-} mice was normalized to WT MFI (I) Snap-frozen spleen sections from WT and Tnfa^{-/-} mice were stained for VSV glycoprotein (VSV-G) expression (clone: Vi10) after infection with 2×10^8 PFU VSV at indicated time points (one representative result of n=6 mice is shown; scale bar = 100µm). (J) MFI of VSV-G expression 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 analyzed) (**K**) WT and Tnfa^{-/-} mice were infected with 10⁵ PFU VSV. Viral titers were measured in the spleen of WT and Tnfa^{-/-} mice 8 h after infection with VSV (n=6). (L) Tnfa mRNA expression was determined

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 2×10⁸ 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 2×10⁸ PFU VSV $(n=3; scale bar = 100 \mu m).$

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

(A) Spleen tissue sections from wild-type (WT), *Tnfrsfla*. (tumor necrosis factor receptor 1 [TNFR1]), and Tnfrsf1b^{-/-} (TNFR2) mice were stained with anti-CD169 and VSV-G antibodies 8 h after infection with 2×10^8 PFU of VSV (One representative result of n=6 mice is shown; scale bar = $100\mu m$). (B) MFI of CD169 was quantified across spleen sections from WT, Tnfrsf1a^{-/-}, and Tnfrsf1b^{-/-} infected mice, using ImageJ (1-3 images per spleen from 3-4 mice were analyzed). (C-G) WT, Tnfrsf1a^{-/-}, and Tnfrsf1b^{-/-} mice were infected with 10⁵ PFU VSV. (C) Viral titers were measured in spleen tissue 8h after infection in WT, Tnfrsf1a $^{\prime}$, and $Tnfrsf1b^{\prime}$ mice (n=6-9). (**D**) IFN- α concentration was determined in the sera of WT, $Tnfrsf1a^{-1/2}$, and $Tnfrsf1b^{-1/2}$ mice 24 h after infection with VSV (n=6-9). (**E**) WT and $Tnfrsf1a^{-1}$ ¹ mice were infected with 10⁵ PFU VSV. RNA expression levels of indicated genes were determined in brain and spinal cord 24 h after infection (n=4-7, highest relative expression 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 infected with 10⁵ PFU VSV. RNA expression levels of indicated genes were determined in

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, $Tnfrsfla^{-/-}$, and $Tnfrsflb^{-/-}$ mice was monitored over time after infection with VSV (n=15-24).

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

(A) Follicular B cells (CD19⁺CD23⁺) (FB), marginal zone B cells (CD19⁺CD21⁺ CD23⁻) 748 749 (MZB), and regulatory B cells (CD19⁺CD21⁺ CD5⁺IgM⁺) (RB) were analyzed in naïve WT, $Tnfa^{-1}$, $Tnfrsf1a^{-1}$, and $Tnfrsf1b^{-1}$ deficient mice (n=6). (B) Lymphotoxin α $(LT\alpha)$, $LT\beta$, and 750 751 lymphotoxin β receptor ($Lt\beta R$) gene expression was determined in spleen tissue from WT and $Tnfrsf1a^{-/-}$ 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 2×10⁸ PFU of VSV in WT and $Tnfrsf1a^{-1}$ 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 $Tnfrsf1a^{-/-}:Rag^{-/-}$ 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

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

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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 spleen tissue harvested from WT and Tnfa^{-/-} mice 6h after infection with 2×10⁸ PFU VSV (n=4-7, RFU = relative fluorescence units). (B) Bcl2, Bclxl, Xiap RNA expression was determined in spleen tissue from WT and $Tnfrsfla^{-/-}$ mice 8h after infection (n=3). (C) Tissue sections from WT and *Tnfa*^{-/-} mice were stained with terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase dUTP nick end labeling (TUNEL) 5 h after infection (one result representative of 3 or 4 mice is shown; scale bar = $10 \mu m$). (D) Mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) of TUNEL was quantified across spleen sections from naïve and VSV infected WT and Tnfa--- mice using ImageJ (1-2 images per spleen from 3-4 mice were analyzed). (E) At indicated time 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 Tnfrsf1a--/- mice were treated with Z-Val-Ala-Asp-fluoromethylketone (zVAD-FMK) and infected with 2×10^8 PFU VSV. Spleen tissue sections were stained with anti-CD169

784	antibodies 8 h after infection (one result representative of 3-4 mice is shown; scale bar = 100
785	μm). (G) MFI of CD169 was quantified across spleen sections from naïve and VSV infected
786	WT and <i>Tnfa</i> ^{-/-} mice treated with Z-VAD using ImageJ (1-3 images per spleen from 3-4 mice
787	were analyzed). (H) IFN-α concentration was determined 24 h after infection in the sera of
788	Z-VAD treated WT and <i>Tnfa</i> ^{-/-} mice after infection with 10 ⁵ PFU of VSV (n=3).

- 790 Fig. 6: VSV infection leads to TNFR1 dependent canonical NF-κB activation in splenic
- CD169⁺ cells. 791
- (A-D) Sections of snap-frozen spleen tissue were harvested 4h after infection with 2 x 10⁸ 792
- 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 = $5 \mu m$
- 795 μm). (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 RelA (n =
- 48-63 are shown). (C to E) Spleen sections from WT and (C) Tnfa^{-/-}, (D) Tnfrsf1a^{-/-} and (E) 797
- Tnfrsf1b^{-/-} mice were stained with anti-RelA antibodies 4h after infection with 2×10⁸ PFU 798
- 799 VSV. MFI of RelA in the nucleus of CD169⁺ was determined with ImageJ software (n=35-
- 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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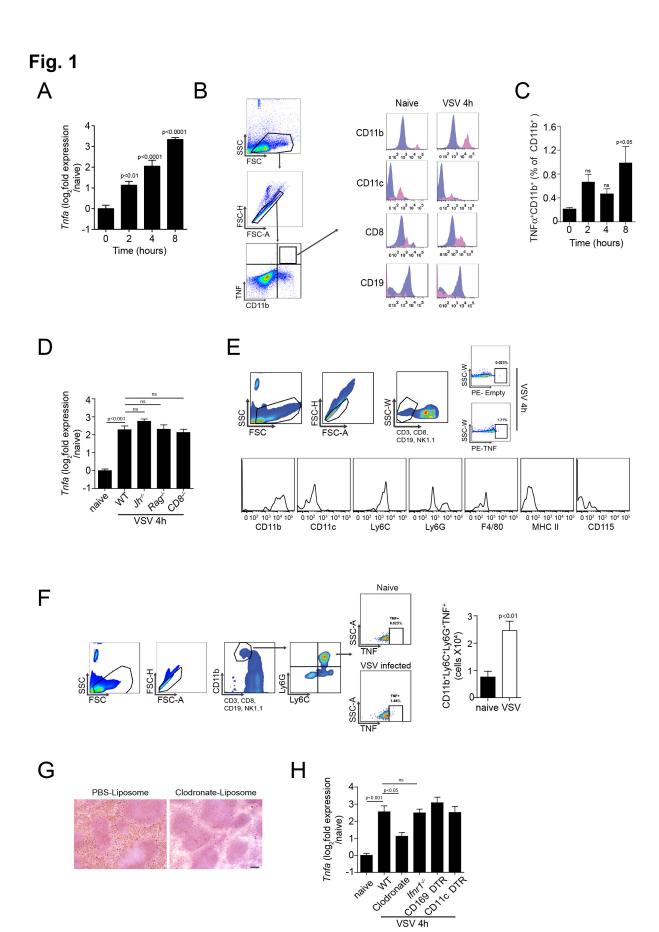
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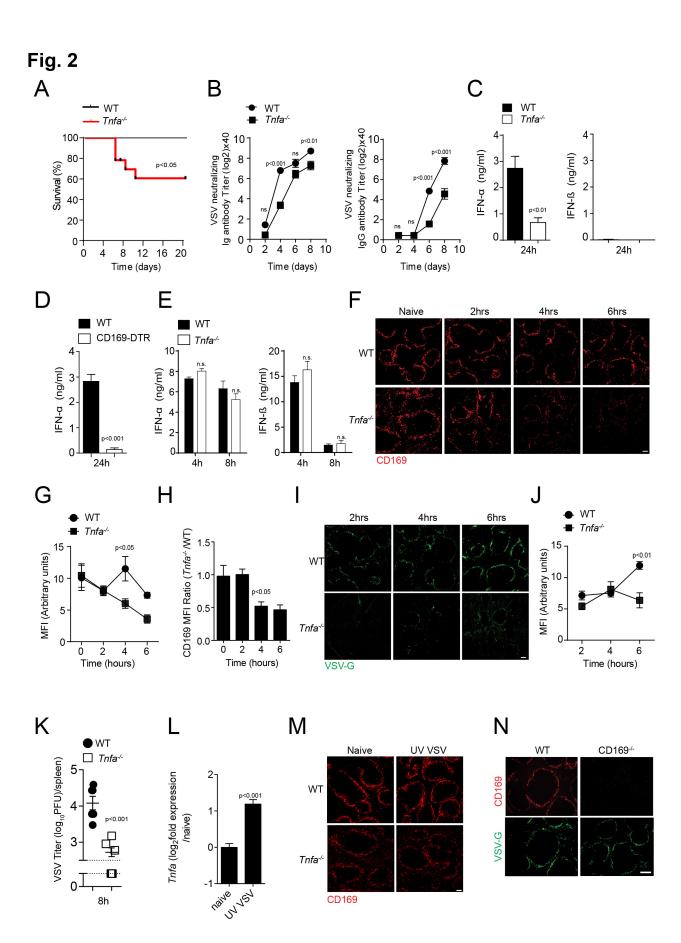
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(A) Sections from snap-frozen spleen tissue harvested from naive Malt1^{+/-} and Malt1^{-/-} mice were stained with anti-RelB antibodies (one representative result of n=3 is shown; scale bar = 10 μm). (B) MFI of cytoplasmic and nuclear RelB was quantified in CD169⁺ cells using ImageJ (n=39-42). (C) Sections of snap-frozen spleen tissue from Malt1^{+/-} and Malt1^{-/-} mice were stained with anti-RelA antibodies 4h after infection with 2 x 108 PFU VSV. The MFI in the nucleus of CD169⁺ cells was quantified (n=29-41). (**D+E**) Malt1^{+/-} and Malt1^{-/-} mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs) were stimulated with 100 ng/ml recombinant mouse tumor necrosis factor (rmTNF) at indicated time points. Cytosolic (CE) and nuclear extracts (NE) were harvested and probed for p65. Densitometry analysis of p65 and RelB was performed on the WB images from cytosolic and nuclear fractions at indicated time points. Proteins were normalized to GAPDH or histone (n=4). Fig. 8: MALT1 promotes vesicular stomatitis virus replication in CD169⁺ cells and immune activation during viral infection. (A) Spleen sections from naïve $Malt1^{+/-}$ and $Malt1^{-/-}$ mice were stained with anti-CD169 (one

representative result of n=3 is shown; scale bar = 100 µm). (B) Sections of snap-frozen spleen tissue from $Malt1^{+/-}$ and $Malt1^{-/-}$ mice were analyzed 8h after infection with 2 x 10^8 PFU VSV, stained with anti-CD169 and anti-vesicular stomatitis virus glycoprotein (VSV-G) (one representative result of n=3 is shown; scale bar = 100 µm). (C) MFI of CD169 and VSV-G was quantified across spleen sections from VSV infected Malt1^{+/-} and Malt1^{-/-} mice using ImageJ (n=4). (**D** and **E**) Mice were infected with 10⁵ PFU VSV. (**D**) Viral titers were measured in spleen tissue of $Malt1^{+/-}$ and $Malt1^{-/-}$ mice 8h after infection (n=6). (E) IFN- α concentration was determined in the sera of Malt1+/- and Malt1-/- mice 24 h after infection (n=6). (F) IFN- α concentration was determined in the sera of $Malt1^{+/-}$ and $Malt1^{-/-}$ mice

- 827 injected with 200 μ g polyinosinic:polycytidylic acid (poly I:C) at indicated time points (n=3-
- 4). (G) Survival of Malt1+/- and Malt1-/- animals was monitored for 20 days after infection 828
- 829 (n=13-14).





Time (days)

Fig. 3

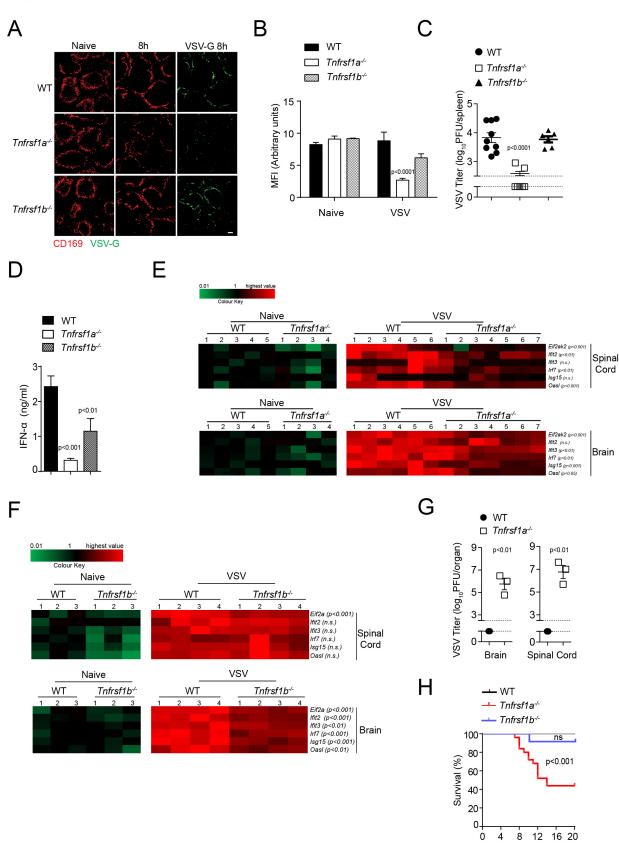
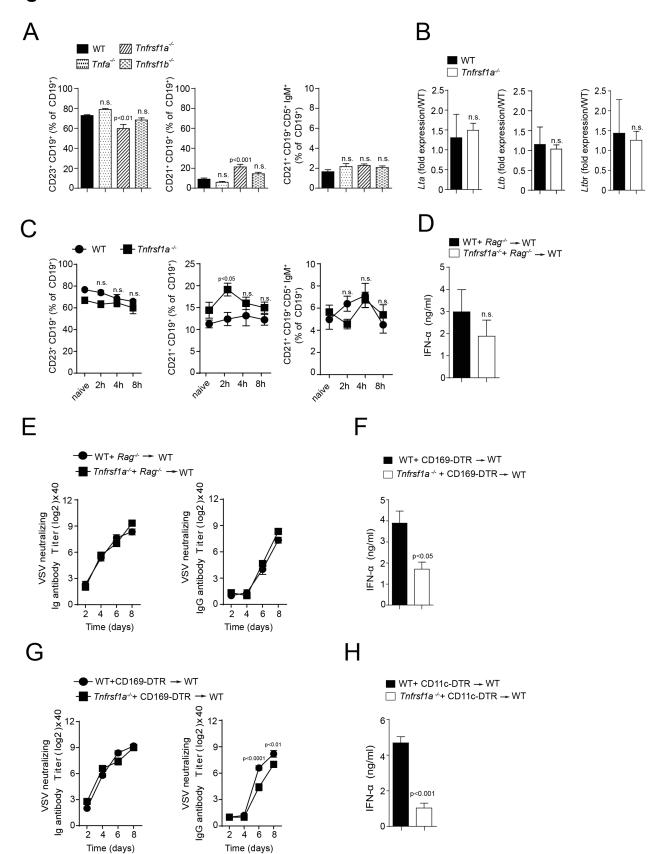
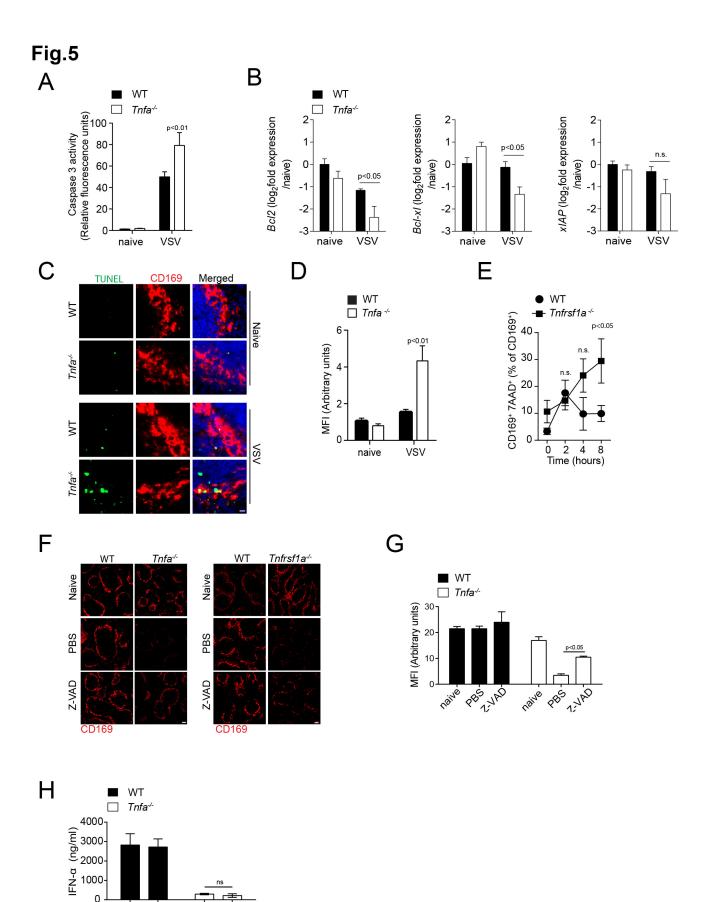


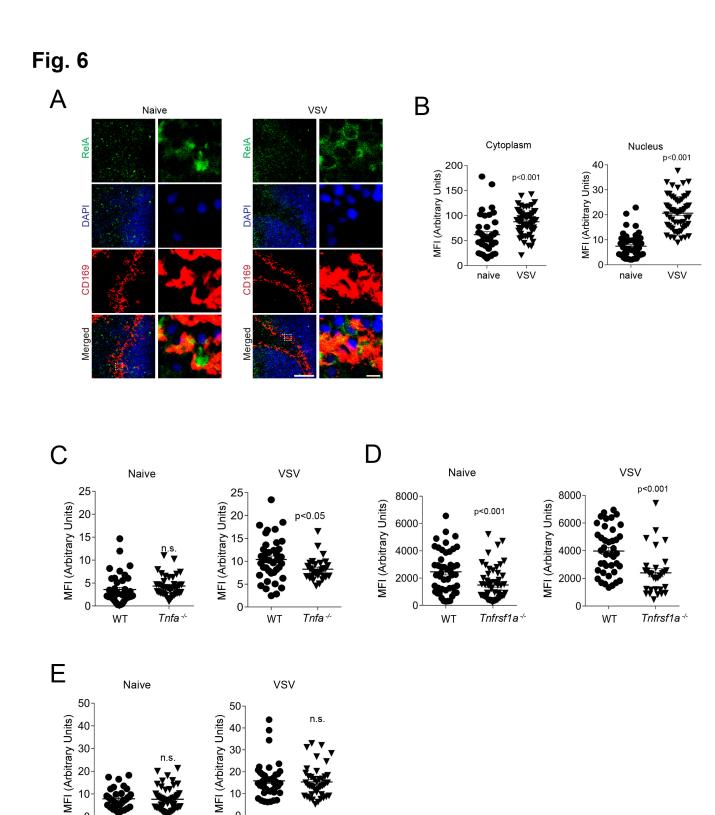
Fig 4



PBS Z-VAD

PBS Z-VAD





WT

Tnfrsf1b-/-

WT

Tnfrsf1b-/-

Fig. 7

