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Notch2 receptor signaling controls functional differentiation of dendritic cells in the spleen and intestine

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Summary

Dendritic cells (DCs) in tissues and lymphoid organs comprise distinct functional subsets that differentiate in situ from circulating progenitors. Tissue-specific signals that regulate DC subset differentiation are poorly understood. We report that DC-specific deletion of the Notch2 receptor caused a reduction of DC populations in the spleen. Within the splenic $CD11b⁺DC$ subset, Notch signaling blockade ablated a distinct population marked by high expression of the adhesion molecule Esam. The Notch-dependent Esam^{hi} DC subset required lymphotoxin beta receptor signaling, proliferated in situ and facilitated $CD4+T$ cell priming. The Notch-independent Esam^{lo} DCs expressed monocyte-related genes and showed superior cytokine responses. In addition, Notch2 deletion led to the loss of CD11b⁺ CD103⁺ DCs in the intestinal lamina propria and to a corresponding decrease of IL-17-producing CD4⁺ T cells in the intestine. Thus, Notch2 is a common differentiation signal for T cell-priming CD11b+ DC subsets in the spleen and intestine.

Introduction

Dendritic cells (DCs) represent the primary antigen (Ag)-presenting cell population in the immune system. They can detect pathogens through pattern recognition receptors such as Toll-like receptors (TLRs), migrate into the T cell areas of lymphoid organs, secrete immunostimulatory cytokines such as interleukin-12 (IL-12), and present pathogen-derived

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peptides to naïve T cells (Steinman and Idoyaga, 2010). To initiate appropriate immune responses to different pathogen types, DCs comprise distinct functional subsets including interferon-producing plasmacytoid DCs (pDCs) and two main subsets of classical DCs. The CD8 α -expressing CD8⁺ CD11b⁻ DCs in lymphoid organs and their CD103⁺ CD11b⁻ counterparts in tissues mediate efficient cross-presentation to cytotoxic T cells (Shortman and Heath, 2010). The CD8α-negative CD8− CD11b+ subset is preferentially involved in MHC class II (MHC II)-restricted Ag presentation to CD4⁺ helper T cells (Dudziak et al., 2007). In the spleen, CD11b⁺ DCs are preferentially localized to the marginal zone (MZ), a unique structure that filters the incoming blood (Mebius and Kraal, 2005). In the intestinal lamina propria (LP) , the CD11b⁺ DC population is comprised of two distinct subsets. The $CD11b⁺ CD103⁺$ subset is thought to mediate Ag capture and transport to mesenteric lymph node (LN). Recently, it was shown to be particularly efficient for the induction of interleukin 17 (IL-17)-secreting helper T cells (Th17) in vitro (Denning et al., 2011), although its role in T cell differentiation in vivo remains unclear. Conversely, the CD11b⁺ CD103− population does not migrate to LN, is capable of high-level cytokine secretion and appears closely related to macrophages (Bogunovic et al., 2009; Schulz et al., 2009; Varol et al., 2009).

Classical DCs along with pDCs, monocytes and macrophages originate from the common macrophage and DC progenitor (MDP) in the bone marrow (BM) (Fogg et al., 2006). Commitment to the DC lineage occurs in the BM at the level of common DC progenitors (CDP) (Naik et al., 2007; Onai et al., 2007), whereas the terminal differentiation of classical DC subsets occurs in the periphery. All DCs in the lymphoid organs and $CD8⁺$ or $CD103⁺$ DCs in tissues are thought to develop from pre-DC (Ginhoux et al., 2009; Liu et al., 2009), a blood-derived progenitor originally defined in the spleen (Naik et al., 2006). Similarly, the unique $CD11b^+CD103^+$ subset in the intestinal LP is derived from pre-DCs. All pre-DCderived subsets are low or negative for fractalkine receptor Cx3cr1 and preferentially depend on signaling by Flt3 ligand through its receptor Flt3. On the other hand, $CD11b⁺$ DCs in tissues arise from MDP-derived monocytes, express Cx3cr1 and depend on macrophage colony-stimulating factor receptor Csf1r rather than on Flt3 (Bogunovic et al., 2009; Ginhoux et al., 2009; Varol et al., 2009). Thus, the homogeneity and single pre-DC origin of DC subsets in lymphoid organs appears to contrast with the functional heterogeneity and dual origin of DC subsets in tissues such as the intestine. Furthermore, little is known about molecular signals that promote DC fate and impart subset and/or specificity on DC progenitors.

Notch is an evolutionarily conserved signaling pathway that allows cells to adopt cell fates dictated by their microenvironment (Bray, 2006). The interaction of Notch receptor with its ligand on a neighboring cell causes receptor cleavage that releases the intracellular domain of Notch (NICD), which translocates into the nucleus and binds the transcription factor CSL (called RBPJ in the mouse). The resulting NICD-RBPJ complex recruits coactivators of the Mastermind (MAML) family and activates Notch-dependent gene expression programs, including canonical targets such as *Hes1* and *Deltex* (*Dtx1*). Notch signaling is regulated at multiple levels including ligand endocytosis, receptor glycosylation and composition of the transactivation complex. Mammals have five Notch ligands of the Delta-like and Jagged families and four Notch receptors (Notch1–4), of which only Notch1 and Notch2 contain transactivation domains. These two receptors appear to mediate the majority of Notchdependent developmental processes and their deletion causes embryonic lethality.

Notch signaling plays essential roles in lymphocyte development by inducing progenitor differentiation in unique anatomic locations (Radtke et al., 2010; Yashiro-Ohtani et al., 2010; Yuan et al., 2010). Thus, Delta-like 4 (Dll4) on thymic epithelium drives T cell lineage development through Notch1 on thymic progenitors, whereas Delta-like 1 (Dll1) on

the splenic MZ stroma specifies MZ B cell subset through Notch2. However, the role of Notch in the development of innate immune system remains poorly understood. Notch1 has been implicated in DC differentiation in vitro (Cheng et al., 2003; Zhou et al., 2009), although earlier studies on Notch1 deletion in vivo argue against this notion (Radtke et al., 2000). We have shown previously that DC-specific deletion of RBPJ caused partial reduction of the splenic CD11b+ DCs, which express Notch target *Dtx1* in an RBPJdependent manner (Caton et al., 2007). However, major questions remain concerning the Notch receptor involved, the partial nature and functional consequences of the phenotype, and the role of Notch in DC differentiation in tissues.

We now report that the Notch2 receptor controls DC differentiation in the spleen. Among the CD11b⁺ DCs, Notch2-RBPJ signaling specifies a unique Cx3cr1^{lo} Esam^{hi} DC subset, which was required for efficient T cell priming in the spleen. Moreover, Notch2 was necessary for the development of lamina propria CD11b⁺ CD103⁺ DCs, which in turn maintain optimal numbers of Th17 cells. These results establish Notch2 signaling as an essential tissue-specific determinant of DC differentiation in the spleen and intestine. Furthermore, they demonstrate that $CD11b⁺DCs$ both in tissues and in lymphoid organs are heterogeneous and include a distinct Notch-dependent subset specialized in T cell priming.

Results

Notch2 controls splenic DC differentiation

To determine the role of individual Notch receptors in DC differentiation, we used *Itgax*-*cre* (*CD11c*-*cre*) deleter strain for DC-specific deletion of conditional *Notch1* (Radtke et al., 1999) and *Notch2* (McCright et al., 2006) alleles. As a complementary way to block canonical Notch signaling in DCs, we used *Itgax*-*cre*-induced expression of dominantnegative human MAML1 (DNMAML1) protein fused to green fluorescent protein (GFP) (Tu et al., 2005). The analysis of GFP fluorescence confirmed DC-specific activation of DN*MAML1* expression in the resulting DC-DN*MAML1* mice (Fig. S1). Indeed, Notch2 dependent MZ B cells showed minimal recombination and were present in normal numbers in mice with *Notch2* deletion (DC-*Notch2*Δ) or with DN*MAML1* activation (Fig. S1). As shown in Fig. 1A,B, mice with DC-specific deletion of *Notch1* (DC-*Notch1*Δ) had normal splenic DC populations. This is consistent with normal DC development after *Notch1* deletion in hematopoietic chimeras (Radtke et al., 2000). In contrast, DC-*Notch2*Δ and DC-DN*MAML1* mice had reduced fraction and absolute numbers of splenic CD11c^{hi} MHC II⁺ classical DCs (Fig. 1A,B). The reduction was specific to cDCs, as pDC populations were normal despite efficient *cre* recombination (Fig. S1).

As with DC-specific *Rbpj* deletion (DC-*Rbpj*Δ, (Caton et al., 2007)), the CD8− CD11b⁺ subset was significantly reduced in the spleens of DC-*Notch2*Δ and DC-DN*MAML1* mice (Fig. 1C,D). In addition, the CD8+ DC subset was decreased in DC-*Notch2*Δ spleens, whereas a distinct population of CD8− CD11b− double-negative cells became apparent within the DC population. A similar albeit less pronounced phenotype was observed in DN*MAML1*-overexpressing DCs, suggesting the involvement of canonical Notch signaling. The CD8− CD11b− double-negative DCs arising after *Notch2* deletion included two distinct populations expressing either signal regulatory protein alpha $(SIRP\alpha)$ or CD24, the markers associated with $CD11b⁺$ and $CD8⁺$ DC lineages, respectively (Naik et al., 2006) (Fig. 1E). Similar populations could be detected among the rare CD8− CD11b− DCs in wild-type mice, suggesting that they represent natural immature stages of $CD11b^+$ and $CD8^+$ DC development. Earlier developmental stages such as pre-DCs were unaffected by *Notch2* deletion (Fig. S1), consistent with a late differentiation defect.

In addition to the decrease in number, splenic CD11b+ DCs in DC-*Notch2*Δ mice exhibited an abnormal surface phenotype including higher CD11b and lower (albeit heterogeneous) SIRP α expression (Fig. 1F). Splenic CD11b⁺ DCs express the specific marker Dcir2 (33D1) (Dudziak et al., 2007) and a fraction of them express CD4 (Kamath et al., 2000). As shown in Fig. 1F, the fraction of $Der2^+$ and $CD4^+$ cells was profoundly reduced in Notch2deficient CD11b+ DCs. Altogether, these data demonstrate that *Notch2* deletion impairs the development of CD11b⁺ and CD8⁺ splenic DCs, and causes phenotypic abnormality of the residual CD11b+ DC population.

Notch2-RBPJ signaling specifies a distinct population of splenic CD8− **DCs**

To explain the partial reduction and abnormal phenotype of CD11b+ DCs in DC-*Notch2*Δ, DC-DN*MAML1* and DC- $Rbpj^{\Delta}$ mice, we hypothesized that CD11b⁺ DCs are heterogeneous and include a distinct population eliminated by Notch2-RBPJ blockade. We therefore crossed DC-*Rbpj*Δ mice to a *Cx3cr1*-GFP reporter strain, which has been used to resolve DC subsets in the spleen and tissues (Bar-On et al., 2010; Varol et al., 2009). We found that $CD11b^+DCs$ in wild-type spleens included GFP^{hi} and GFP^{lo} populations, whereas in DC- $Rbpj^{\Delta}$ spleens the GFP^{lo} population was missing (Fig. 2A). To identify a positive marker of this Notch-dependent DC population, we performed microarray analysis of total CD11b⁺ DCs from DC-*Rbpj*^Δ spleens and focused on genes that encode cell surface markers (data not shown). One prominently reduced gene encoded Esam, an immunoglobulin superfamily adhesion molecule that is expressed on endothelium and regulates neutrophil extravasation (Wegmann et al., 2006). We found that among the splenocytes Esam was abundant in a subset of $CD11b^+DCs$, low in $CD8^+DCs$ and absent from non-DCs (Fig. S2). The combination of Esam with *Cx3cr1*-GFP defined two distinct populations, Esamlo GFPhi and Esamhi GFPlo, the latter completely absent in DC-*Rbpj*Δ splenocytes (Fig. 2B). The RBPJdependent Esamhi population was also defined by low expression of Clec12a, a C-type lectin expressed by CD8+ DCs, pDCs and myeloid cells (Lahoud et al., 2009). Staining with Esam, particularly in combination with Clec12a, resolved the two CD11b+ DC populations and allowed their analysis in the absence of *Cx3cr1*-GFP reporter (Fig. 2C). The Esamhi but not Esam^{lo} CD11b⁺ DCs were nearly absent in all examined Notch mutants including DC-*Rbpj*Δ, DC-*Notch2*Δ and DC-DN*MAML1* (Fig. 2D). In contrast, the low Esam expression on CD8+ DCs was minimally affected by *Notch2* loss (Fig. S2).

To test the effect of Notch overactivation in DCs, we used the *Itgax*-*cre* strain in conjunction with a Cre-inducible overexpression cassette encoding Notch1 intracellular domain (NICD) (Buonamici et al., 2009). The NICDs of Notch1 and Notch2 are highly homologous (Radtke et al., 2010) and are likely interchangeable in gain-of-function experiments. In the resulting DC-NICD animals, splenic CD11b⁺ DCs consisted almost exclusively of Esam^{hi} Clec12a[−] cells (Fig. 2E). Furthermore, the expression of Esam was increased in all DCs including the CD8+ subset (Fig. 2F), showing that Esam as a faithful readout of Notch activity in DCs. Altogether, these data suggest that splenic $CD11b^+DCs$ contain a distinct Esam^{hi} population that is directly regulated by Notch2-RBPJ signaling.

Genetic and phenotypic analysis of splenic Esamhi DCs

We have tested genetic requirements for the development of Notch-dependent Esamhi CD11b+ DC population. Splenocytes from Flt3-deficient mice showed a modest but significant reduction of Esam^{hi} population (Fig. 3A,B), suggesting that Flt3 signaling contributes to its development or homeostasis. The blockade of lymphotoxin β receptor (LTβR) signaling partially reduces the number of splenic CD11b+ DCs and impairs their in situ proliferation in a cell-intrinsic manner (De Trez et al., 2008; Kabashima et al., 2005). We found that the fraction of Esam^{hi} but not of Esam^{lo} DCs was severely reduced in *Ltbr^{−/−}* mice (Fig. 3A,B). To circumvent the pleiotropic defects of LTβR deficiency, we analyzed

competitive chimeras reconstituted with a mixture of wild-type and LTβR-deficient BM. The fraction of LTβR-deficient donor cells was reduced in Esamhi DC population, suggesting that the phenotype was at least partially cell-intrinsic (Fig. 3C,D). In contrast, mice with DC-specific targeting of *Irf4* (Klein et al., 2006), a transcription factor regulating $CD11b⁺ DC development$, showed marginal decrease of both Esam^{hi} and Esam^{lo} populations (Fig. 3B and data not shown). Thus, Esam^{hi} CD11b⁺ DCs are genetically distinct from Esam^{lo} DCs and specifically depend on Notch2-RBPJ and LTβR signaling, and to a lesser extent on Flt3 signaling.

Cell surface staining of $CD11b^+DCs$ showed that the Esam^{hi} Cx3cr1-GFP^{lo} population was uniformly positive for CD4 and Dcir2 (Fig. 4A), in agreement with the preferential loss of $CD4^+$ and $Dcir2^+DCs$ after Notch2 deletion (Fig. 1F). Conversely, Esam^{lo} Cx3cr1-GFPhi cells were heterogeneous for CD4 and Dcir2 and high for CD11b and Clec12a. Esam^{lo} cells expressed high amounts of Flt3 and LTβR, despite their independence of these receptors (Fig 4A,B and Fig. S3). Cytospin preparations of sorted Esamhi DCs revealed irregular nuclei and thin cytoplasmic veils, whereas Esam^{lo} DCs showed typical mononuclear morphology (Fig 4C). Notably, Esam^{lo} DCs appeared distinct from splenic macrophages (Fig 4C) or intestinal CD11b+ CD103− DCs (Bogunovic et al., 2009), as they did not contain prominent cytoplasmic vesicles. After in vivo pulse with nucleoside analogue 5 bromo-2'-deoxyuridine (BrdU), Esamhi CD11b⁺ DC incorporated more BrdU than Esam^{lo} DC (Fig. 4D), revealing a faster turnover. Although the contribution of progenitors cannot be ruled out, the short BrdU pulse revealed more proliferating cells among Esam^{hi} DCs (Fig. 4E). Altogether, the Esam^{hi} subset of $CD11b^+DCs$ appears distinct in its higher turnover rate and dependence on Notch2 and LTβR signaling.

Gene expression profiles of splenic CD11b+ DC populations

To confirm genetic differences between the two subsets of $CD11b⁺DCs$, we compared genome-wide expression profiles of wild-type Esam^{hi} and Esam^{lo} CD11b⁺ DC populations, along with $CD11b^+DCs$ from $DC-Rbpi^{\Delta}$ mice. No major differences in the expression of Notch2 or other pathway components were found by microarray or quantitative polymerase chain reaction (PCR) (qPCR, Fig. S3), suggesting control by other factors such as ligand availability. Clustering analysis confirmed that RBPJ-deficient DCs were very similar to the Esam^{lo} subset (Fig 5A), as suggested by surface phenotype (Fig. 2). Pairwise comparison of Esam^{hi} and Esam^{lo} populations (Fig. 5B and Table S1) showed the expected differential expression of *Esam* and *Clec12a*. One of the most differentially expressed genes was *Gpr4*, which encodes a G protein-coupled receptor and is preferentially expressed in $CD11c^{hi}$ cDCs as revealed by a *Gpr4* locus-driven transgenic GFP reporter (Fig. S3). This reporter confirmed the expression of *Gpr4* in Esam^{hi} but not Esam^{lo} DCs (Fig. S3). Finally, Esamhi DCs showed lower expression of cell cycle inhibitor Cdkn1a (p21), in accordance with their higher proliferation rate.

Next, the Immgen database (Heng and Painter, 2008) was used to derive expression signatures of splenic CD11b⁺ CD4⁺ and CD11b⁻ CD8⁺ DCs and of blood Ly6C⁺ MHC II⁺ monocytes (Table S2). We then examined the distribution of these signature gene sets among Esam^{hi} and Esam^{lo} CD11b⁺ DC populations. As shown in Fig. 5C, genes characteristic of all DCs were equally expressed by both populations, confirming that they represent bona fide DCs. In contrast, CD11b+ DC-specific genes including the Notch target $DtxI$ were preferentially expressed in the Esam^{hi} subset. Conversely, monocyte-specific genes were preferentially expressed in Esam^{lo} cells, including such canonical myeloid genes as *Ly6c*, cytokine (*Csf1r*, *Csf3r*) and chemokine (*Ccr2*) receptors and lysozyme (*Lyz1*, *Lyz2*). Notably, the expression of myeloid genes such as colony stimulating factor (CSF) receptors in Esamlo DCs appear significantly lower than in macrophages (Fig. S3). Thus, the

Esam^{hi} population features the unique expression profile of CD11b⁺ cDCs, whereas Esam^{lo} population appears closer to but distinct from monocytes or macrophages.

Using red fluorescent protein (RFP) reporter driven by *Ccr2* locus (Saederup et al., 2010), we found that Esam^{hi} DCs were the only splenic DC population with low RFP expression, while Esam^{lo} DCs and the majority of CD8⁺ DCs were *Ccr2*-RFP^{hi}. To confirm the differential relationship of Esam^{hi} and Esam^{lo} DCs to myeloid cells, we used lineage tracing with a myeloid-specific *Lyz2*-*cre* (also known as *LysM*-*cre*) deleter strain (Jakubzick et al., 2008; Liu et al., 2009). In *Lyz2*-*cre* mice crossed to a *cre*-inducible yellow fluorescent protein (YFP) reporter, splenic Esam^{hi} DCs as well as CD8⁺ DCs harbored only a small (5– 7%) fraction of recombined YFP^+ cells (Fig. 5E). In contrast, the Esam^{lo} DCs showed substantial recombination (~30%) that was nevertheless lower than in monocytes and macrophages (\sim 45%). These data show that the Esam^{hi} DCs are uniquely low for *Ccr2*, have no developmental history of *Lyz2* expression and therefore are not derived from the Esamlo population or from monocytes.

The differences in signaling requirements, gene expression profile and *Lyz2* expression history suggest that the Esam^{hi} and Esam^{lo} population may arise from different precursors. Indeed, adoptively transferred $Cx3cr1$ -GFP⁺ MDP gave rise to both GFP^{hi} and GFP^{lo} splenic CD11b⁺ DC populations, whereas CDP gave rise almost exclusively to GFP^{lo} $CD11b⁺DCs$ corresponding to the Esam^{hi} subset (Fig. S3). These data suggest that the GFPlo Esamhi subset represents the canonical CDP-derived splenic DC population; conversely, GFPhi DCs likely arise from different myeloid progenitors.

Functional analysis of splenic CD11b+ DC populations

The Esam^{lo} DC subset showed preferential expression of multiple genes associated with TLR-mediated pathogen sensing, including several TLRs, MyD88, CD14 and CD36 (Table S1 and Fig. 6A). The expression of these genes in Esam^{lo} DCs was nevertheless lower than in macrophages (Fig. $6B$). We therefore tested the ability of CD11b⁺ DC subsets to produce cytokines in response to TLR ligands. Esam^{lo} DCs efficiently produced tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF- α) and IL-12 in response to the TLR9 agonist CpG DNA, in contrast to the weak production by Esamhi DCs (Fig. 6C). CD11c− CD11b+ monocytes and macrophages produced more TNF- α but less IL-12 than Esam^{lo} DCs, underscoring the distinct functionality of the latter population. A similarly superior cytokine production by Esamlo over Esamhi DCs was observed in response to TLR2 agonist heat-killed *L.monocytogenes* (Fig. 6D) and TLR7 agonist gardiquimod (data not shown). No expression of interferon-β or interleukin-10 by either DC population could be detected under these conditions (data not shown). Furthermore, Esam^{lo} DCs showed stronger TLR-mediated induction of costimulatory molecules than Esam^{hi} DCs (Fig. 6E), suggesting a higher overall sensitivity to TLR ligands.

Both subsets of CD11b+ DCs showed efficient phagocytosis of in vivo injected polystyrene beads (Fig. S4). In an in vitro Ag presentation assay, both Esam^{lo} and Esam^{hi} DCs sorted from ovalbumin (OVA)-pulsed mice efficiently primed naïve OVA-specific CD4+ OT-II T cells (Fig. S4). Furthermore, splenic DCs from DC-*Rbpj*Δ mice elicited strong OVA-specific OT-II proliferation in vitro, despite lack of the Esamhi DC subset. These data suggest that Esam^{hi} and Esam^{lo} DCs are equally capable of Ag-specific T cell priming in vitro on a per cell basis. To test the role of Esamhi DCs in T cell priming in vivo, we adoptively transferred carboxyfluorescein diacetate succinimidyl ester (CFSE)-labeled OT-II T cells into DC- Rbp^j ^{\triangle} mice and immunized with OVA. Three days after immunization, OT-II T cells showed extensive proliferation (as measured by CFSE dye dilution) in the spleens of control mice, but only minor proliferation in the spleens of DC-*Rbpj*^Δ mice (Fig. 6F). Because DC-

 $Rbpj^{\Delta}$ spleens specifically lack Esam^{hi} DCs, we conclude that this subset is required for optimal T cell priming in the spleen in vivo.

Notch2 is required for the development of intestinal CD11b+ CD103+ DCs

Given the tissue-specific nature of Notch signaling, we examined the role of Notch2 in DC differentiation outside of the spleen. We found that DC-*Notch2*Δ mice had normal numbers of $CD11b⁺$ and $CD103⁺$ DCs and Langerhans cells in the skin and/or skin-draining LN (Fig. S5). Similarly, CD11b⁺ and CD103⁺ DCs in the lung and liver were unaffected by *Notch2* deletion (Fig. S5). However, analysis of DCs in the intestinal LP revealed selective depletion of the CD11b⁺ CD103⁺ subset (Fig. 7A, B). In contrast, the monocyte-derived CD11b⁺ CD103⁻ population was unaffected, whereas the CD103⁺ population was moderately increased. Similarly, the fraction of $CD11b⁺ CD103⁺ DCs$ migrating from the LP was selectively reduced in the mesenteric LN (Fig. 7C). The LP CD11b⁺ CD103⁺ did not express Esam or Dtx1 and were not reduced in DC-*RBPJ*Δ or DC-DN*MAML1* mice (data not shown), suggesting that the Notch2 signal is transient or qualitatively different in this subset. However, the expression of the *Gpr4* reporter was detected in $CD11b^+$ CD103⁺ but not in CD11b+ CD103− DCs (Fig. S3). This selective expression was similar to *Gpr4* expression in Esam^{hi} but not Esam^{lo} splenic DCs, illustrating the similarity between Notch2dependent DC subsets in the spleen and intestine.

To test the functional consequences of $CD11b⁺CD103⁺DCs$ depletion, we examined intestinal T cell populations in DC-*Notch2*Δ mice. While the fraction of regulatory CD4+ T (Treg) cells expressing transcription factor FoxP3 was unchanged, the IL-17-producing Th17 cells were reduced \sim 50% (Fig. 7D). Similar results were observed in the small intestine (Fig. 7D) and colon (not shown). Thus, Notch2 provides a tissue-specific differentiation signal for the CD11b⁺ CD103⁺ DC population, which in turn support optimal effector T cell differentiation in the intestine.

Discussion

Although Notch signaling has been indirectly implicated in various aspects of DC development or function (Caton et al., 2007; Cheng et al., 2003; Feng et al., 2010; Zhou et al., 2009), the specific Notch receptor involved and DC populations affected were unclear. Here we have demonstrated that Notch2 receptor controls the development of specific DC subsets in the spleen and intestine. In contrast, Notch1 was dispensable for DC development, consistent with previous results of global inducible *Notch1* deletion (Radtke et al., 2000). Similarly, Notch4 deficiency did not affect DC populations (data not shown), establishing Notch2 as a non-redundant Notch receptor regulating the DC lineage development.

Canonical Notch signaling occurs through the NICD-RBPJ-MAML transcriptional activation complex, and *Rbpj* deletion (Han et al., 2002) or DNMAML1-mediated complex disruption (Maillard et al., 2004) recapitulates Notch receptor deletion in lymphocytes. Indeed, CD11b+ splenic DCs were equally affected by the loss of Notch2 or RBPJ or by DNMAML expression. However, *Notch2* deletion impaired the development of splenic CD8+ DCs and intestinal CD11b+ CD103+ DCs, whereas *Rbpj* deletion spared both subsets ((Caton et al., 2007) and data not shown). Although Notch2 signaling in these DC subsets may include a non-canonical RBPJ-independent pathway, this discrepancy likely reflects technical aspects of gene targeting in DCs. Because DCs have a rapid turnover and *Itgax*-*cre* recombination commences after DC commitment, delayed recombination kinetics and/or increased protein perdurance of RBPJ versus Notch2 would mitigate the phenotype. Indeed, continuous global deletion of RBPJ caused apparent loss of CD8+ DCs (Feng et al., 2010), suggesting the predominant role of canonical Notch2 signaling in DC development.

Notch signaling can provide the initial commitment signal as well as sustain further differentiation steps and/or homeostasis of a given cell type (Radtke et al., 2010; Yashiro-Ohtani et al., 2010). In splenic DCs, *Notch2* deletion affected both DC subsets and caused accumulation of immature CD11b− CD8− cells. In addition, mature CD11b+ DCs demonstrate ongoing Notch signaling activity, as evidenced by RBPJ-dependent expression of *Dtx1* and sensitivity to Notch2-RBPJ loss or DNMAML1 induction. In contrast, CD8⁺ DCs do not express *Dtx1* and are less affected by *Rbpj* deletion or DN*MAML1* induction. Thus, Notch2 signaling appears to initiate and maintain the differentiation of splenic $CD11b^+$ DC subset, starting at the common pre-DC stage and thereby promoting $CD8^+$ DC development as well. In tissues such as the intestine, Notch signaling in $CD11b^+CD103^+$ DCs may commence after the pre-DC stage, and would not affect CD103⁺ DCs.

Our data illustrate a tissue-specific role of Notch signaling in DC differentiation in the spleen and intestinal LP, in contrast to its proposed general role in DC development (Cheng et al., 2003; Zhou et al., 2009). Indeed, both tissues are classical sites of Notch activity, which drives the respective differentiation of splenic MZ B cells and of the intestinal epithelium (Wilson and Radtke, 2006). MZ B cell development is mediated solely by Notch ligand Dll1 (Hozumi et al., 2004), whereas the latter involves both Dll1 and Dll4 (Pellegrinet et al., 2011). Because both Dll1 and Dll4 are also expressed in the splenic red pulp and MZ (Tan et al., 2009), these two ligands may redundantly regulate Notch2 mediated DC development both in the spleen and intestine. A notable molecular feature of the splenic MZ is active LTβR signaling, which is required both for MZ formation and MZ B cell maintenance, likely in a cell-extrinsic manner (Mebius and Kraal, 2005). We found that both Notch2 and LTβR signals control the development of CD11b+ splenic DCs. The contribution of LTβR was at least in part intrinsic to the hematopoietic compartment, consistent with previous studies on LTβR in DC development (Kabashima et al., 2005) and function (Summers deLuca et al., 2011). Our results establish these two pathways as common regulators of the splenic MZ and of its two major immune constituents, the MZ B cells and CD11b+ DCs.

The CD11b⁺ and CD8⁺ DC populations in the lymphoid organs of naive animals were thought to be genetically and functionally homogeneous. However, it has been demonstrated recently that CD8+ DCs are comprised of two distinct populations, the *Cx3cr1*-GFP[−] classical CD8+ DCs and *Cx3cr1*-GFPhi cells affiliated with the pDC lineage (Bar-On et al., 2010). Here we combined genetic analysis with the *Cx3cr1*-GFP reporter and surface marker Esam to similarly sub-divide the splenic CD11b+ DCs. In particular, we found that Notch or LTβR signaling blockade causes a complete ablation of the Esamhi DC subset, rather than a partial decrease of all splenic CD11b⁺ DCs. The Notch2-dependent Esam^{hi} population exhibited properties of classical DCs, including cytoplasmic "veils" and rapid turnover. Although the CD4⁺ subset of CD11b⁺ DCs was reported to incorporate BrdU at a slower rate (Kamath et al., 2000), Esam is expressed only in a fraction of CD4+ DCs and thus provides a more precise subset definition. Furthermore, the higher turnover of RBPJdeficient $CD11b^+DCs$ (Caton et al., 2007) was based on prolonged BrdU pulse that aggregated proliferation with cell death and migration. Most importantly, the higher proliferation rate of Esamhi DCs is consistent with their dependence on Flt3 and LTβR signaling, both of which promote DC proliferation in situ (Kabashima et al., 2005; Waskow et al., 2008).

All blood-derived DCs in lymphoid organs are thought to originate from CDPs in the BM via the committed pre-DCs entering from the blood and differentiating in situ. Indeed, the Esam^{hi} Cx3cr1^{lo} CD11b⁺ splenic DCs apparently arise in this pathway as they can be derived from CDPs and lack developmental history of myeloid-specific *Lyz2* gene expression. In contrast, the Esam^{lo} Cx3cr1^{hi} subset could not be derived from transferred

CDPs and preferentially expressed myeloid genes, although at much lower level than monocytes or macrophages. Because splenic DCs cannot be derived from monocytes (Varol et al., 2007), the Esam^{lo} DCs likely arise from earlier progenitors such as MDPs. Splenic DC development is not dependent on myeloid cytokine receptors Csf1r (Ginhoux et al., 2009) or Csf2r (our unpublished data), consistent with the lower expression of these genes in Esam^{lo} DCs relative to macrophages (Fig. S3). In any case, our results suggest that the spleen is similar to non-lymphoid organs in the dual origin of its resident DCs from the CDPs and from a parallel myelomonocytic pathway.

In the spleen, the absence of Esamhi DCs after DC-specific *Rbpj* deletion impaired CD4+ T cell priming. This was not due to higher Ag uptake or presentation capacity of Esam^{hi} DCs on a per cell basis; therefore, Esam^{hi} DCs may be uniquely suited for T cell priming because of their specific localization in the MZ and/or migration properties. In the intestinal LP, the $CD11b⁺ CD103⁺$ cells represent a unique DC population that migrates to the mesenteric LN in the steady state and upon inflammation, suggesting its likely role in T cell priming (Bogunovic et al., 2009). We found that the loss of this population after DC-specific *Notch2* targeting was associated with a reduced fraction of Th17 T cells, a major effector $CD4^+$ T cell population in the intestine. Although this finding remains to be confirmed in mice with pure genetic background and more defined microflora, it is consistent with the recently reported capacity of CD11b+ CD103+ DCs to induce Th17 cell differentiation in vitro (Denning et al., 2011). Thus, DC-specific Notch2 targeting provided the first insight into the specific function of $CD11b^+$ CD103⁺ DC subset in vivo, opening the way for future studies of immune responses and tolerance in the intestine. Collectively, our results establish Notch2 as a common regulator of the two key T cell-priming DC populations in the spleen and the intestine.

Methods

Animals

The *Itgax*-*cre* hemizygous transgene was used to generate the following experimental animals on C57BL/6 (B6) background unless indicated otherwise: DC-*Rbpj*Δ (*Rbpj*flox/flox), DC-*Notch1*Δ (*Notch1*flox/flox), DC-*Notch2*Δ (*Notch2*flox/flox, mixed B6/129), DC-*Irf4*^Δ (*Irf4*flox/flox), DC-DN*MAML1* (*Rosa26*-StopFlox-DN*MAML1*, B6 or B6129F1), DC-NICD (*Eef1a1*-StopFlox-NICD1, mixed B6/129). Where indicated, DC-*Rbpj*Δ mice carried heterozygous *Cx3cr1*-GFP reporter allele. Because the *Itgax*-*cre* transgene does not affect DC numbers or phenotype (Caton et al., 2007), Cre-negative littermates were used as controls for the respective *Itgax*-*cre*+ animals. For the analysis of intestinal T cells, cohoused sex-matched littermates were used. Germline null mutants of Flt3 and LTβR on B6 background, as well as competitive chimeras established from LTβR-null BM have been described (Summers deLuca et al., 2011; Waskow et al., 2008). Chimeras were analyzed 11 weeks after reconstitution and the donor- or competitor-derived cells were distinguished by differential CD45 isoform expression. Homo- or heterozygous *Cx3cr1*-GFP and heterozygous *Ccr2*-RFP reporter mice were on the B6 background. The *Lyz2*-*cre* lineage tracing was performed as described (Jakubzick et al., 2008), and utilized mice hemizygous for *Lyz2*-cre and heterozygous for *Rosa26*-StopFlox-EYFP. All animal studies were performed according to the investigator's protocol approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of Columbia University.

Cell analysis

Cells were isolated *ex vivo* from lymphoid organs and stained for cell surface markers as described (Caton et al., 2007; Liu et al., 2009). The antibodies used for staining are listed in Table S3. The isolation and analysis of DCs from the intestinal LP and other tissues was

done as in (Bogunovic et al., 2009; Ginhoux et al., 2009). The isolation and analysis of intestinal T cells was done as described (Ivanov et al., 2006). Fluorochrome- or biotinconjugated antibodies were from eBiosciences or BD Biosciences. Biotinylated anti-Clec12a was kindly provided by Dr. M. Lahoud, at the Walter and Eliza Hall Institute. The samples were acquired on a LSR II flow cytometer or sorted on FACSAria flow sorter (BD Immunocytometry Systems), and analyzed using FlowJo software (Treestar Inc.). Cytospin preparations were done on Cytospin 3 centrifuge (Thermo Shandon) and stained by Giemsa stain.

For BrdU incorporation, *Cx3cr1*-GFP reporter mice were either injected i.p. with 1.5 mg BrdU and analyzed 2 hr later, or injected with 1.5 mg BrdU for two consecutive days and analyzed 48 hr after the first injection. BrdU staining was performed using APC BrdU Flow Kit (BD Biosciences), and combined with DAPI staining for 2 hr pulse. To measure cytokine production, splenocytes from *Cx3cr1*-GFP mice were depleted of lymphoid and erythroid cells by negative selection on MACS columns (Miltenyi). The DC-enriched flowthrough fraction was incubated in serum-containing medium at 37°C with 100 nM CpG-B oligonucleotides (ODN1826) or 10⁸ heat-killed *L.monocytogenes* (Invivogen). After 2 hours, Brefeldin A (10 μ g/ml) was added and the cells were incubated for an additional 4 hrs. Cells were stained for surface markers, fixed, permeabilized and stained with APCconjugated antibodies to IL-12 or TNF-α (BD Biosciences) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Gene expression analysis

For microarray analysis, spleens from *Cx3cr1*-GFP+ DC-*Rbpj*Δ mice or Cre-negative littermate controls were isolated and depleted of lymphoid and erythroid cells by negative selection on MACS columns. Total CD11c^{hi} CD11b⁺ DCs from DC-*Rbpj*^Δ spleens (uniformly Esam^{lo} GFP^{hi}, see Fig. 2) or Esam^{lo} GFP^{hi} and Esam^{hi} GFP¹⁰ subsets thereof from control mice were sorted and total RNA was isolated using RNeasy columns (Qiagen). Precipitated RNA was reverse-transcribed, labeled, and hybridized to GeneChip Mouse Gene 1.0 ST Array (Affymetrix) according to the manufacturer's instructions. RMAnormalized gene expression values were analyzed using NIA Array software (Sharov et al., 2005). The signatures of normal DC populations were derived by clustering analysis of Immgen subsets DC.4+.Sp, DC.8+.Sp and Mo.6c+II+.Bl (Heng and Painter, 2008). Realtime qPCR was performed as described (Caton et al., 2007).

T cell proliferation assay

Splenic and LN CD4+ T cells from OVA-specific OT-II transgenic mice (Barnden et al., 1998) were enriched by negative selection using MACS columns, labeled with CFSE and injected intravenously (i.v.) (2×10⁶ per animal) into DC-*Rbpj*Δ or control mice. After 24 hr recipient mice received 10 mg OVA (Sigma) i.v. and were analyzed 72 hr later. Transferred T cells were identified as $CD4^+$ TCR V α 2⁺ TCR V β 5⁺.

Statistical analysis

Statistical significance was estimated using unpaired, two-tailed Student's *t*-test.

Supplementary Material

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Highlights

- **•** Notch2 controls differentiation of splenic classical DCs
- Notch2 dependence defines a distinct Esam^{hi} population of splenic CD11b⁺ DCs
- The Esam^{hi} CD11b⁺ DCs are required for CD4⁺ T cell priming in the spleen
- Notch2 controls differentiation of CD11b⁺ CD103⁺ DCs in the intestinal lamina propria

Figure 1. Notch2 signaling regulates splenic DC development

Mice with *Itgax*-*cre* -mediated deletion of *Notch1* or *Notch2* or DC-specific overexpression of DN*MAML1* were analyzed along with the respective *cre*-negative littermate controls. Statistically significant differences are indicated as follows: ***, P<0.001; **, P<0.01; *, P<0.05.

(A) Representative staining profiles of total splenocytes with the fraction of CD11 c^{hi} MHC $II⁺ DCs$ indicated.

(B) The fraction (top) and absolute number (bottom) of splenic DCs (mean \pm S.D. of 3–6 animals per group).

(C) Staining profiles of gated CD11chi MHC II⁺ splenic DCs, with CD11b⁺ (blue), CD8⁺ (green), and double-negative (purple) subsets highlighted. The percentages represent mean \pm S.D., n=3–6 for DC-*Notch1*Δ and DC-DN*MAML1* and 11–12 for DC-*Notch2*Δ.

(D) The percentage among total splenocytes (top) and absolute number (bottom) of CD11b⁺ and $CD8^+$ DC subsets (mean \pm S.D. of 8–10 animals per group).

(E) The expression of SIRPα and CD24 in gated CD11chi MHC II+ CD11b− CD8− doublenegative DCs from conditional *Notch2* (DC-*Notch2*Δ) and littermate control (Ctrl) spleens.

The SIRP α^+ and CD24⁺ populations indicative of the differentiation towards CD11b⁺ and CD8+ DC subsets, respectively, are indicated (representative of 2 animals). (F) Expression of surface markers in CD11b+ DCs from DC-*Notch2*Δ and control spleens.

Figure 2. Notch2-RBPJ signaling specifies a distinct population of CD11b+ cDC

(A) The expression of *Cx3cr1*-GFP reporter in CD11b+ splenic DCs from conditional RBPJdeficient (DC- $Rbpj^{\Delta}$) mice. Shown is the histogram of GFP expression in gated CD11c^{hi} MHC II+ CD11b+ DCs from *Cx3cr1*-GFP+ control (Ctrl) or DC-*Rbpj*Δ mice (representative of 4 animals per group).

(B) The expression of Esam vs GFP in gated CD11b+ splenic DCs from *Cx3cr1*-GFP⁺ control or DC-*Rbpj*Δ mice.

(C) The expression of Esam vs Clec12a in gated CD11b+ splenic DCs from DC-*Rbpj*Δ or control mice.

(D) The percentage among total splenocytes (top) and absolute number (bottom) of the Esam^{hi} and Esam^{lo} CD11b⁺ DC subsets in mice with DC-specific targeting of the indicated genes (mean \pm S.D. of 3–5 animals). Significance is indicated as in Fig. 1.

(E) Splenic DC populations in mice with DC-specific expression of Notch1 intracellular domain (DC-NICD). Shown are staining profiles of gated splenic CD11 c^{hi} MHC II⁺ DCs

and of their CD11b⁺ subset from DC-NICD mice or Cre-negative littermate controls (Ctrl). Representative of 8 animals per genotype.

(F) The expression of Esam in splenic CD11b+ and CD8+ DCs from DC-NICD and control mice.

Figure 3. The development of Esamhi CD11b+ cDCs requires LTβR signaling

(A) Splenic CD11b+ Esamhi DC subset in experimental (Expt) *Flt3*−/− or *Ltbr*−/− animals or respective wild-type controls (Ctrl). The DC-*Rbpj*Δ splenocytes that lack Esamhi DCs (Fig. 2D) are included for comparison. Shown are staining profiles of gated B220− CD11b+ CD8[−] splenocytes, with the CD11chi Esamhi DC population highlighted.

(B) The fraction of Esamhi and Esamlo DC subsets among total splenocytes from *Flt3*−/−, *Ltbr*−/− or DC-*Irf4*Δ experimental (Expt) animals or controls (Ctrl). Significance is indicated as in Fig. 1.

(C) Splenic CD11b+ Esamhi DC population among gated wild-type competitor (WT) or *Ltbr^{−/−}* donor populations in competitively reconstituted BM chimeras, shown as in panel A (mean \pm S.D. of 3 animals).

(D) The fraction of WT competitor- or *Ltbr*−/− donor-derived CD11b+ DC subsets among total splenocytes in the BM chimeras (mean \pm S.D. of 3 animals).

Figure 4. Phenotypic analysis of the splenic CD11b+ DC subsets

Unless indicated otherwise, *Cx3cr1*-GFP reporter mice were used to separate the Esamhi GFP^{lo} and Esam^{lo} GFP^{hi} subsets of CD11c^{hi} CD11b⁺ CD8[−] splenic DCs. (A) Expression of the indicated surface markers in the gated Esam^{hi} GFP^{lo} and Esam^{lo} GFPhi subsets. Dashed lines indicate positive staining threshold. (B) Expression of LTβR on the indicated DC subsets from wild-type mice. (C) Microphotographs of the sorted DC subsets stained by Giemsa stain on cytospin

preparations. The CD11c− CD11b+ F4/80⁺ *Cx3cr1*-GFP+ macrophages (MΦ) are shown for comparison (magnification, 400x).

(D) Histograms of BrdU staining in the gated DC subsets after 2 days of in vivo BrdU pulse. The percentages of $BrdU^{+}$ cells are indicated; representative of 4 animals.

(E) Cell cycle profiles of DC subsets after 2 hr of in vivo BrdU pulse. Shown are gated DC subsets stained for DNA content (DAPI) and BrdU incorporation; the fractions of cells in S and G2/M phases are indicated (representative of 2 animals).

(A) The comparison of control and RBPJ-deficient CD11b+ DCs. Splenic CD11b+ DCs from *Cx3cr1*-GFP⁺ DC-*Rbpj*^{Δ} mice were sorted along with the Esam^{hi} GFP^{lo} and Esam^{lo} GFPhi subsets of CD11b+ splenic DCs from control *Cx3cr1*-GFP+ mice. Shown is unsupervised clustering analysis of the resulting microarray expression profiles. (B) Pairwise comparison of the Esam^{hi} and Esam^{lo} subsets. The probes overexpressed >2 fold in the respective populations are shown in green and red, and their percentage among the total probes is indicated. Probes for select relevant genes are highlighted in blue.

(C) The expression of signature probe sets in the Esam^{hi} and Esam^{lo} subsets. The signature sets of total DCs, CD11b⁺ DCs and monocytes were derived from Immgen database and their distribution among the Esam^{hi} and Esam^{lo} subsets is depicted as in panel B. (D) The expression of *Ccr2*-RFP reporter in DC subsets. Shown are histograms of RFP expression in the indicated splenic populations including CD11c− CD11b+ monocytes and macrophages (Mo-MΦ), and Clec12a[−] and Clec12a⁺ CD11b⁺ DCs corresponding to Esam^{hi} and Esam^{lo} subsets, respectively.

(E) Efficiency of *Lyz2*-*cre* recombination in DC subsets. Shown are histograms of YFP expression in the indicated splenic populations of *Lyz2*-*cre*+ mice with *cre*-inducible YFP reporter allele.

Figure 6. Functional properties of splenic CD11b+ DC subsets

(A) The expression of indicated genes in GFP^{lo} Esam^{hi} and GFP^{hi} Esam^{lo} subsets of splenic CD11b+ DCs sorted from *Cx3cr1*-GFP mice. Data represent normalized expression values relative to the Esamhi sample as determined by qPCR (mean \pm S.D. of triplicate reactions). (B) The expression of indicated genes in the same DC subsets as well as in CD11c− CD11b⁺ F4/80+ GFP+ macrophages (MΦ), determined by qPCR as in (A) and shown on a log scale. (C) Cytokine production by CD11b+ DCs in response to TLR9 ligand CpG. Lymphocytedepleted splenocytes from *Cx3cr1*-GFP mice were incubated for 6 hr with CpG and stained for surface markers and intracellular TNF-α or IL-12. Shown are cytokine expression profiles in GFP^{lo} Esam^{hi} or GFP^{hi} Esam^{lo} subsets of CD11c^{hi} CD11b⁺ DCs, or in CD11c[−] $CD11b^+$ GFP^{hi} monocytes and macrophages (Mo-M Φ). Data are representative of three independent experiments.

(D) TNF-α production by CD11b+ DCs in response to TLR ligands. Splenocytes from *Cx3cr1*-GFP mice were activated with CpG or TLR2 ligand heat-killed *L.monocytogenes* (HKLM) and stained as above.

(E) Phenotypic maturation of CD11b+ DCs in vitro. Splenocytes from *Cx3cr1*-GFP mice were activated with CpG or HKLM and stained for DC markers as above. Shown are staining profiles of $CD11b⁺ DC$ subsets for $CD40$, with mean fluorescence intensities indicated.

(F) In vivo CD4⁺ T cell priming in the absence of Esam^{hi} DCs. DC-*Rbpj*^{Δ} or littermate control (Ctrl) mice were administered CFSE-labeled OVA-specific OT-II T cells and immunized with OVA. Shown are CFSE staining profiles of gated OT-II T cells from the

recipient spleens 3 days after immunization. The fractions of T cells that did not divide or divided 1–3 and >3 times are indicated (mean of two recipients).

Figure 7. Notch2 controls the development of intestinal CD11b+ CD103+ DCs

(A) DC populations in the intestinal lamina propria from DC-*Notch2*Δ mice and littermate controls. Shown are staining profiles of $CD45^+$ CD11c^{hi} MHC II⁺ DCs and of the gated CD11b⁺ DCs, highlighting the CD11b⁺ CD103⁺ DC subset. Fractions represent average \pm S.D. of 4 animals per group. Statistical significance is indicated as in Fig. 1.

(B) Absolute numbers of the indicated DC subsets (mean \pm S.D. of 4 animals).

(C) Staining profiles of CD11 c^{hi} MHC II⁺ DCs from the mesenteric lymph nodes. Fractions represent average \pm S.D. of 7 animals per group.

(D) Effector T cell populations in the intestine. Lymphocytes were isolated from the LP of small intestine and stained ex vivo for intracellular FoxP3 or activated in vitro with PMA plus ionomycin and stained for intracellular IL-17. Shown are profiles of CD11c^{hi} MHC II⁺ LP DCs and of gated $TCR\beta^+ CD4^+ T$ cells isolated ex vivo or activated in vitro (two pairs of littermates shown; representative of 4 DC-*Notch2*Δ animals).