

## **An identical mechanism governs self-nonsel self discrimination and effector class regulation**

Prevailing immunological dogma dictates self-nonsel self discrimination, meaning to respond or not, and effector class regulation, meaning choosing the most effective response, are two separate decisions the immune system makes when faced with a new antigen.

Representing a cardinal departure from the past, our model instead predicts both self-nonsel self discrimination and effector class regulation are in fact one and the same process controlled by Foxp3<sup>+</sup> regulatory T cells (Tregs) whose antigen-specific repertoire is entirely maintained by commensal microbiota-derived cross-reactive antigens.

1 **An identical mechanism governs self-nonsel self discrimination and effector class regulation**

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## 8 Abstract

9           Prevailing immunological dogma dictates self-nonsel self discrimination, meaning to respond  
10 or not, and effector class regulation, meaning choosing the most effective response, are two  
11 separate decisions the immune system makes when faced with a new antigen. Representing a  
12 cardinal departure from the past, our model instead predicts both self-nonsel self discrimination and  
13 effector class regulation are in fact one and the same process controlled by Foxp3<sup>+</sup> regulatory T  
14 cells (Tregs) whose antigen-specific repertoire is entirely maintained by commensal microbiota-  
15 derived cross-reactive antigens.

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## 18 Introduction

19

20           For the past sixty years, advances in immunology closely followed transformative  
21 concepts in the field. Several, such as clonal selection theory (Burnet, 1976), (Lederberg, 1959),  
22 two-signal model (Bretscher and Cohn, 1970), dominant tolerance model (Coutinho et al.,  
23 1993), (Coutinho et al., 2001), and pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs) (Janeway,  
24 1989) and Danger models (Matzinger, 1994), formed the basis for much scientific progress  
25 observed to date in immunology.

26           Upon scrutiny, a common theme is these models work “in theory” either without Tregs  
27 altogether or suffice with presence of Tregs of a single or limited antigen specificity controlled by  
28 the innate immune system. Though compelled to acknowledge their existence, these models  
29 are instead “rescued” by assigning dubious functions to Tregs, such as regulation of anti-nonsel self  
30 T cell response magnitude or even actually representing as yet undefined CD4<sup>+</sup> T helper cells.  
31 Such inconsistencies and contradictions are to be expected as these concepts emerged long  
32 before the exact identity and nature of Tregs became known. However, more than fifteen years

33 since their discovery, no model of predictive value has emerged to harmoniously incorporate  
34 their role in self-nonself discrimination (antigen-specific immunological tolerance) and effector  
35 class regulation. Therapeutic applications of Tregs to treat immune disorders have thus been  
36 exceedingly slow to materialize.

37 Here, we propose, for the first time, a novel harmonized model that predicts antigen-  
38 specific Tregs control both self-nonself discrimination and effector class regulation, which are in  
39 fact one and the same process. Our model provides guiding principles for Treg function and  
40 bridges it to therapeutic application.

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### 43 **Self-Nonself Discrimination**

44

45 Conceptually, to respond or not to a new antigen may be the immune system's most  
46 consequential decision. As a single, naive antigen-specific T cell clone can initiate a complete  
47 immune response, its activation must be tightly controlled (Stemberger et al., 2007),  
48 (Stemberger et al., 2014), though strikingly neither it nor antigen-presenting cells (APCs) can  
49 intrinsically determine if an antigen (epitope) is self or nonself.

50 Initially, self-nonself discrimination was thought to occur at the embryonic or immature T  
51 cell level. However, subsequent discovery of mature T cells fully capable of responding to self  
52 antigens necessitated introduction, first, of antigen-specific variants, and later, following the  
53 collapse of T “suppressors” in the 1980s, of antigen non-specific variants of the two-signal  
54 model, which still dominate the field.

55 Hypothetically, self-nonself discrimination could be accomplished by either selective  
56 amplification of anti-nonself or selective abrogation of anti-self responses. Selective  
57 amplification of anti-nonself response, as proposed in the Associative Recognition of Antigen

58 (ARA) model, can essentially function without Tregs as it relies exclusively on an embryonic  
59 “primer” anti-nonsel T helper to initiate immune responses, with antigen-specific tolerance as  
60 the default state (Cohn and Langman, 2002), (Cohn, 2004). Alternatively, selective abrogation  
61 of anti-self response, such as proposed by PAMP or dominant tolerance models, can essentially  
62 function with Tregs having single or limited antigen specificity that suppress anti-self T cell  
63 responses in an antigen-nonspecific manner following “innate instructions”. However, these  
64 aforementioned models are incomplete since Tregs with a diverse T cell receptor repertoire do  
65 play a central role in maintaining tolerance (Levine et al., 2017), (Yu et al., 2017).

66 We argue that the role of diverse antigen-specific Foxp3<sup>+</sup> Tregs that control self-nonsel  
67 discrimination and effector class regulation is best described by a model wherein (a) Tregs are  
68 continually needed to prevent T cell-mediated inflammatory tissue damage since conventional T  
69 cells are constantly exposed to cognate antigens in an activation context, and (b) antigen-  
70 specific T cells, when activated, continue responding until their specific antigens are cleared as  
71 neither they nor any non-specific source can “tell” if this response is directed against self or  
72 nonself antigens.

73 To fully understand our model requires we rethink how central and peripheral tolerance  
74 are established. Prevailing concepts, largely variants of a two-signal model (Baxter and  
75 Hodgkin, 2002), argue peripheral tolerance to tissue-specific antigens is a “theoretical”  
76 necessity that must exist separately from central, thymic tolerance. Underlying presumptions are  
77 that:

- 78 (a) thymus cannot possibly tolerize against all peripheral tissue-specific antigens, and  
79 (b) since naive T cells are intrinsically unable to distinguish self from nonself antigens in  
80 the periphery, there must be certain mechanism(s) that make that call for them.

81 Following these arguments, possible outcomes for a self-specific naive T cell leaving the  
82 thymus and seeing its antigen in the resting peripheral tissue for the first time include

83 (a) deletion/inactivation.

84 (b) Treg conversion.

85 (c) activation and effector/memory differentiation.

86 Leaving “no trace” or “memory” of antigen encounter, option (a) is an unreliable  
87 peripheral tolerance mechanism as it risks autoimmunity with every single occurrence of  
88 infection since absent permanent “memory” of “what is what”, next encounter of the same  
89 specificity naive T cell clone with the same self antigen could occur in the context of chance  
90 inflammation leading to its activation. As activated anti-self T cells would invariably lead to non-  
91 productive response, it would seem relatively safe to conclude that deletion/inactivation of self-  
92 specific T cells by antigen (signal 1) in the periphery could not on its own be a reliable peripheral  
93 tolerance mechanism. In other words, to reliably and predictably avoid autoimmunity, the  
94 immune system must “know” where each of its T cell clones “stands”.

95 In contrast, models such as Danger allow a given antigen to be self one time and nonself  
96 at another as they unequivocally rely on the premise that activated, bystander anti-self T cells  
97 can be inactivated under steady state conditions once the “danger” is past. However, such  
98 models do not need Tregs to maintain antigen-specific tolerance.

99 Options (b) and (c) produce “trace” or “memory” of past self antigen encounter, either as  
100 benign Tregs or as potentially damaging conventional memory T cells, respectively. However,  
101 for the former to prevail the host immune system must ensure the initial wave of naive T cells  
102 that first migrates out of the thymus and encounters self antigens in the periphery become Tregs  
103 rather than effector/memory T cells. Problem is the immune system cannot anticipate that a self-  
104 specific naive T cell leaving the thymus wouldn't encounter its antigen in the periphery for the  
105 first time in the context of chance inflammation.

106 Why does this matter? Hypothetically, the response of activated T cells specific for a  
107 nominal, peripherally and transiently expressed nonself antigen would run its course, become

108 naturally extinguished upon memory T cell formation following antigen clearance, and require no  
109 Tregs. However, response of activated T cells specific for a persistent self (or nonself) antigen  
110 would run perpetually to exhaustion as functional memory T cells cannot be formed during  
111 continual engagement of TCR signaling by such antigen. As such sustained T cell responses  
112 invariably lead to irreversible tissue damage, we refer to them as non-productive “spiral”  
113 responses.

114 Obviously only antigen clearance or memory T cell formation could end such a T cell  
115 “spiral” response. With neither option ordinarily available to T cells responding to persistent  
116 antigens such as self antigens, how could the immune system deal with inevitable “spiral”  
117 responses? We conclude that

118 (a) Foxp3 transcription factor and associated Treg signature prevents perpetual T cell  
119 exhaustion by stabilizing T cell memory program to persistent antigens, and

120 (b) Foxp3<sup>+</sup> regulatory T cells evolved to prevent non-productive T cell “spiral” response  
121 to such persistent antigens.

122 Essentially, we posit that Tregs represent “memory” T cells specific for persistent  
123 antigens (van der Veecken et al., 2016). Unlike conventional memory CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells, their stability  
124 and/or functional viability would strictly depend on continual engagement of their TCRs with  
125 corresponding persistent antigens (Levine et al., 2014), (Vahl et al., 2014). We predict that in  
126 health, antigen (epitope)-specificity of Tregs and conventional memory CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells would be  
127 non-overlapping and mutually exclusive (Golding et al., 2017), (Bacher et al., 2016).

128 Could peripheral tissues initiate Treg conversion pathway? Though it sounds quite  
129 intuitive, thymus-independent peripheral Treg conversion by resting tissue injects much  
130 uncertainty into immune system decision-making since it necessarily relies on antigen non-  
131 specific readout of tissue “health” status. For a tissue to instruct Treg conversion, it must “know”  
132 that it was “healthy” and did not contain any nonself antigen. However, tissues capable of such

133 fine distinction between self and nonself antigens or between “health” and “non-health” status  
134 would not require Tregs to maintain antigen-specific tolerance to begin with. Thus, peripheral  
135 Treg conversion is only acceptable for T cells already committed in the thymus to Treg pathway  
136 or for such conversion to be directed by another Treg in an antigen-specific manner.

137         If peripheral Treg conversion is unlikely, how then is tolerance to tissue-specific self  
138 antigens in the periphery established? Since they dependably jump-start tolerance to such  
139 antigens (Legoux et al., 2015), (Malhotra et al., 2016), we hold that the only reliable mechanism  
140 for establishing peripheral tolerance is to export ready-made, committed thymic Foxp3<sup>+</sup> Tregs  
141 specific for self antigens that naive T cells are likely to see in the periphery after emigrating from  
142 the thymus. Such thymic Treg export makes requirement for a special developmental “tolerance  
143 window” in the periphery obsolete.

144         However, how to account for thymic Tregs specific for nonself microbial antigens such as  
145 those derived from commensal microbiota that the host hasn’t yet encountered but must  
146 tolerate? We predict the host had to “adopt” and thymically express all those antigens (as  
147 epitopes), including those from pathogens, that applied evolutionary selection pressure on the  
148 immune system in the form of non-productive T cell “spiral” responses. Over evolutionary time,  
149 such antigens became part of the “cross-reactive” self epitope landscape leading to thymic  
150 generation of functional “cross-reactive” Foxp3<sup>+</sup> regulatory T cells. Though thymically derived,  
151 such antigen-specific Tregs would be peripherally maintained by microbiota-derived “cross-  
152 reactive” nonself epitopes. Epitopes expressed synchronously by thymus and periphery  
153 guarantee development and peripheral maintenance of Foxp3<sup>+</sup> regulatory T cells specific for  
154 those epitopes.

155         It must be emphasized here that maintenance of both anti-self- and anti-nonself-  
156 (pathogen) Tregs would depend on microbiota-derived “cross-reactive” antigens. If peripheral  
157 self antigens maintained self-specific Tregs, their loss would require loss of self antigens that

158 maintained them. However, loss of such self antigens would preclude autoimmunity in the first  
159 place. Similarly, microbiota-derived “cross-reactive” antigens would maintain anti-pathogen  
160 Tregs since pathogens themselves, unlike commensal microbiota, cannot be constantly present  
161 in the host to maintain such Tregs. Here we only refer to pathogen-derived nonself antigens that  
162 applied evolutionary selection pressure on the immune system in the form of non-productive T  
163 cell “spiral” responses.

164 While prior models erroneously accept *a priori* that self-nonself discrimination is  
165 configured *de novo* ontogenetically each time within an individual's own lifetime, we posit it to be  
166 a phylogenetically powered process established, inherited and being perfected over the  
167 evolutionary history of a species.

168 Finally, if ordinarily thymus generates most Tregs, then default pathway for naive T cells  
169 that encounter their cognate antigen in the periphery would be activation and effector/memory  
170 differentiation (Bingaman et al., 2000), (Anderson et al., 2001).

171 We refer here to antigen-specific naive T cells newly emerged from the thymus that lack  
172 corresponding thymic Treg counterparts to buffer them. Normally, evolutionarily relevant self or  
173 nonself antigens (epitopes) would be “covered” by “cross-reactive” thymic Tregs that would  
174 prevent either by deletion, inactivation or conversion, naive T cells from responding to them  
175 (Kendal et al., 2011). Remaining “non-covered” antigens (epitopes) recognition would by default  
176 lead to cognate naive T cell activation and effector/memory differentiation.

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### 179 **Effector class regulation**

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181 Having provided a foundation for self-nonself discrimination based on thymic Foxp3<sup>+</sup>  
182 Tregs' ability to specifically prevent non-productive “spiral” T cell responses directed to

183 evolutionarily relevant “persistent” antigens, both genuine self and “cross-reactive” microbiota-  
184 derived nonself (extended self), we now expand this novel model to argue self-nonsel  
185 discrimination and effector class regulation are one and the same process mediated by antigen-  
186 specific Foxp3<sup>+</sup> Tregs.

187         Avoiding a non-productive anti-self “spiral” response and selecting the most effective  
188 anti-nonsel effector class are assumed goals of self-nonsel discrimination and effector class  
189 regulation, respectively. At first glance these two goals seem unrelated, requiring at least two  
190 different sets of mechanisms. While self-nonsel discrimination is essentially a “binary” choice,  
191 effector class regulation presents a unique “multiple choice” dilemma given the immune  
192 system's ability to deploy multiple response classes such as Th<sub>1</sub>, Th<sub>2</sub>, Th<sub>17</sub>, etc (Becattini et al.,  
193 2015). What mechanism(s) could govern “multiple choice” decisions that yield appropriate  
194 effector class?

195         No viable model for effector class regulation exists at present. Most if not all of several  
196 proposals put forward over the past forty years exclusively focus on trying to explain how the  
197 most effective anti-pathogen or tissue-compatible effector class could be selected. These  
198 models could be broadly divided into two major categories:

199             (a) those with innate signals that specifically instruct stereotypical effector classes to  
200 antigens, and

201             (b) those with adaptive feedback-loop learning processes.

202         While models based on adaptive feedback-loop learning processes gained little traction  
203 due to their complicated mechanisms of action (Langman, 1984), (Kalinski and Moser, 2005),  
204 models based on innate signals are simple, intuitive, somewhat predictive and widely referred to  
205 in the scientific literature. Two such “instructional” models worth noting here argue either  
206 PAMPs (Iwasaki and Medzhitov, 2015) or tissues (Matzinger, 2007) direct effective class(es) of  
207 immune response.

208           However, we posit neither proposal makes much evolutionary sense. On the one hand, it  
209 seems unlikely for a pathogen to direct the most effective immune response best able to clear it  
210 from the host. Rather, pathogens are more likely to evolve to instruct types of immune response  
211 less able to clear them efficiently.

212           On the other hand, for tissues to direct the most effective or tissue-compatible effector  
213 class requires they develop mechanism(s) to distinguish between effective (productive) and  
214 ineffective (non-productive) effector classes. However, anti-self immune response of any class  
215 being by default non-productive and thus non-selectable implies tissues must distinguish  
216 between anti-self (non-productive) and anti-nonsel (productive) responses by selectively  
217 inhibiting the former at the very least. In essence, such effector class control would entail tissue-  
218 based self-nonsel discrimination, which could function without Foxp3<sup>+</sup> Treg involvement, an  
219 untenable proposal.

220           Here we extend our new model and propose that contrary to such long-held views, self-  
221 nonself discrimination and effector class control are one and the same process mediated by  
222 antigen-specific Foxp3<sup>+</sup> regulatory T cells.

223           Earlier we concluded that self-nonsel discrimination is essentially inhibition of ineffective  
224 (non-productive) immune responses by antigen-specific Foxp3<sup>+</sup> Tregs, allowing effective  
225 (productive) ones to develop naturally. Ineffective T cell response could be anti-self, leading to  
226 *bona fide* autoimmunity, or anti-nonsel, leading to inflammatory tissue damage.  
227 Indistinguishable outcomes for the host, both would diminish host fitness and apply evolutionary  
228 selection pressure that directed development of novel specificity of Foxp3<sup>+</sup> regulatory T cells.

229           We can now seamlessly incorporate Foxp3<sup>+</sup> Tregs into effector class control. Rather  
230 than having some mechanisms supposedly select the most effective immune effector class, the  
231 reverse approach falls into place naturally: antigen-specific Foxp3<sup>+</sup> Tregs simply inhibit T cell  
232 specificities that “historically” led to non-productive (ineffective) T cell responses. In essence, if

233 a system could prevent initiation of ineffective (non-productive) T cell responses then those that  
234 remain are by default effective (productive).

235           How could Foxp3<sup>+</sup> Tregs control effector class in an antigen-specific manner? For an  
236 answer we need to rethink how various effector classes are established.

237           Unlike T cell response to self antigen where any response is non-productive “spiral” and  
238 thus detrimental by default, response to pathogen antigen could be divided into either  
239 productive or non-productive. Were every effector class able to run simultaneously and  
240 independently then immune response to any pathogen antigen would always end up productive  
241 as at least one of them would be expected to be effective. The fact that non-productive T cell  
242 responses to pathogen-derived antigens do occur suggests that at least in certain conditions  
243 multiple effector classes cannot co-exist, and in fact in such conditions, a non-productive  
244 effector class abnormally dominates by inhibiting other potentially effective classes. In essence,  
245 it is in the pathogen's interest to promote a non-productive T cell response to its antigens, which  
246 invariably ends up as a highly polarized dominant but ineffective effector class.

247           Reasons for such dominance of a particular effector class could be several. For one,  
248 immunodominant microbial antigens could inherently promote a highly polarized non-productive  
249 effector class that constrained other effector classes to other antigens. For another, the host  
250 could harbor genetic polymorphism(s) in signaling pathways that favored excessive generation  
251 of a particular effector class that also happened to be non-productive against a given microbial  
252 challenge.

253           Essentially, we conclude that nonself antigens being “neutral” in nature and host genetic  
254 mutations not favoring any particular effector class would allow host's immune response to such  
255 nonself antigens to be diverse, balanced and always effective, making presence of anti-nonsel  
256 Foxp3<sup>+</sup> regulatory T cells obsolete. However, if either a host mutation or the inherent nature of  
257 nonself antigens favored one particular effector class, such a polarized effector class would

258 inevitably undermine other effector classes and become non-productive by default. As such,  
259 highly polarized non-productive T cell response to nonself antigens would be subject to negative  
260 evolutionary selection.

261         In our opinion, effector class control is in fact control of non-productive T cell responses  
262 by Foxp3<sup>+</sup> Tregs in an antigen (epitope)-specific manner same as self-nonsel discrimination.  
263 The host does not care whether effective (productive) T cell response to microbe is Th<sub>1</sub>, Th<sub>2</sub> or  
264 Th<sub>17</sub> (Becattini et al., 2015). It could be either one or all of them, as long as they aren't non-  
265 productive. In evolutionary terms, rather than investing in selecting an effector class optimal to a  
266 particular microbe, we propose the immune system invested in preventing, in an antigen-  
267 specific manner, those types of T cell responses that were “historically” non-productive “spiral”  
268 and would have invariably diminished host fitness.

269         A nonself antigen that inherently promotes one particular effector class, for example, Th<sub>1</sub>  
270 response, would do it to each of its linked epitopes, a concept referred to as “coherence”  
271 (Bretscher, 2014). Were such a Th<sub>1</sub> response non-productive, then each of those epitopes  
272 would require a separate Foxp3<sup>+</sup> Treg to oversee them. Consequently, such nonself antigens  
273 would be off-limits to any effector class as typical self antigens (and their epitopes) are. How  
274 then, one may ask, are such nonself antigens eliminated? Since such nonself antigens are  
275 ordinarily themselves part of larger biological life forms such as pathogens, rather than being  
276 directly targeted, other nonself antigens and their epitopes from the same pathogen would be  
277 targeted by other effector classes that could now operate without constraint from one dominant  
278 overzealous effector class. Surely one of them would be productive and eliminate the pathogen.

279         If, on the other hand, a nonself antigen promotes a productive immune response while  
280 having one of its epitopes cross-reactive to a self epitope then only that particular cross-reactive  
281 “epitope” would be covered by existing epitope-specific Foxp3<sup>+</sup> Tregs while other epitopes  
282 would be targeted by conventional, productive T cell responses.

283 We conclude that microbial antigens evolutionarily associated with non-productive T cell  
284 responses would have been “adopted” by the successful host into “cross-reactive” self epitope  
285 map in the thymus to generate antigen (epitope)-specific Foxp3<sup>+</sup> Tregs, which would be  
286 maintained in the periphery via acquisition of commensals providing such “cross-reactive”  
287 antigenic epitopes. When a host encountered the same antigens expressed by a pathogen,  
288 existing antigen-specific Foxp3<sup>+</sup> Tregs would prevent activation of those naive T cells that could  
289 lead to non-productive response classes. Consequently T cell responses to remaining pathogen  
290 antigens would be productive (effective) by default.

291 By explaining how the immune system dealt, or rather avoided, the hard to solve  
292 “multiple choice” dilemma unique to effector class control, our model reveals it to be not a  
293 unique, separate concept but rather an integral part of self-nonself discrimination. Each principle  
294 that applies to the latter applies to the former. These two decisions entail one and the same  
295 biological process based on the Foxp3<sup>+</sup> regulatory T cell's ability to prevent non-productive T  
296 cell “spiral” responses in an antigen-specific manner.

297 Finally, we hold that our model does not necessarily suggest that PAMPs or tissues play  
298 no role in T cell effector differentiation. In fact, both PAMPs and tissue signals are involved in  
299 initiation of different effector classes. We just predict that for a given anti-microbial response,  
300 effectiveness of those innate signals or dominance of any particular T cell response class would  
301 be hard to predict. PAMPs and tissues can initiate selective or diverse sets of effector classes  
302 but the “veto” power to selectively modify effector classes to improve effectiveness rests with  
303 antigen-specific Foxp3<sup>+</sup> regulatory T cells.

304 In summary we have put forward a new model to explain how thymic antigen-specific  
305 Foxp3<sup>+</sup> Tregs maintained by commensal microbiota-derived cross-reactive antigens control both  
306 self-nonself discrimination and immune effector class by preventing non-productive T cell  
307 “spiral” responses to evolutionarily relevant antigens, both self and nonself. This model

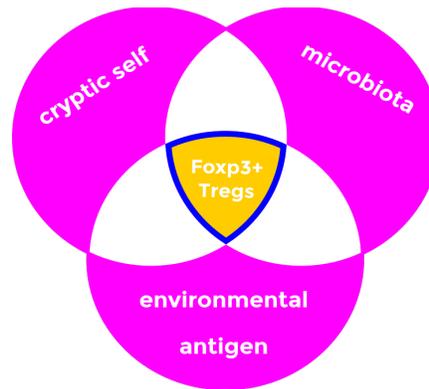
308 harmoniously incorporates the role Tregs and microbiota play in self-nonself discrimination and  
309 effector class regulation, and provides a roadmap for microbiota guided antigen-specific  
310 immunotherapies for diseases such as allergies, autoimmune diseases and others.

311

312 The essential highlights of this novel “SPIRAL” model (see figure below) are the  
313 following:

- 314 1. Treg signature (Foxp3, etc) maintains functionality of regulatory T cell memory  
315 specific for persistent antigens.
- 316 2. Maintenance of Foxp3<sup>+</sup> regulatory T cells is antigen-specific and antigen-  
317 dependent.
- 318 3. Most, if not all, Foxp3<sup>+</sup> regulatory T cells are thymus-generated and peripherally-  
319 maintained by microbiota.
- 320 4. T cell response to self and abnormally polarized T cell response to non-self  
321 antigens are by default non-productive “spiral” responses that invariably lead to  
322 inflammatory tissue damage and diminish host fitness.
- 323 5. Foxp3<sup>+</sup> regulatory T cell repertoire is phylogenetically configured by host species'  
324 evolutionary experience with non-productive T cell “spiral” responses.
- 325 6. Anti-self and non-productive anti-nonself responses impose the same evolutionary  
326 burden.
- 327 7. Nonself antigens that historically caused non-productive “spiral” responses became  
328 evolutionarily “adopted” as self antigens (epitopes) expressed in thymus and  
329 maintained in periphery by “cross-reactive” microbiota.
- 330 8. Maintained by commensal microbiota-derived cross-reactive antigens, Foxp3<sup>+</sup>  
331 regulatory T cells control non-productive responses to self and pathogen-derived  
332 nonself antigens in an antigen-specific manner to prevent non-productive self-

- 333 perpetuating T cell “spiral” responses.
- 334 9. A given antigen-specific Foxp3<sup>+</sup> regulatory T cell controls corresponding naive CD4<sup>+</sup>
- 335 T cells with the same or similar specificity.
- 336 10. Self-nonself discrimination and immune effector class regulation is one and the
- 337 same process.
- 338 11. Healthy antigen-specific TCR repertoires of conventional memory and Foxp3<sup>+</sup>
- 339 regulatory T cells are mutually exclusive.
- 340 12. Activated conventional T cells autonomously self-perpetuate their own response as
- 341 long as antigen is present.



342 **Figure legend:** Thymic FoxP3<sup>+</sup> regulatory T cells (Tregs) control self-nonself discrimination and

343 effector class regulation, and are peripherally maintained by cross-reactive commensal

344 microbiota-derived antigens.

345

346 **Conflict of interest statement:** Tirumalai Kamala and David Usharauli are founders of

347 Tregutix Inc., a biotech startup that focuses on developing microbiota guided antigen-specific

348 immunotherapies.

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