

1 **Going virtual as a memory-phenotype T lymphocyte**

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14

15 **Abstract**

16

17 Conventional or “true” memory CD8⁺ T cells (T_{TM}) arise from immunologically naive T cells which
18 circulate in the periphery after selection in the thymus. During infection or immunization by a foreign
19 antigen, naive T cells can receive antigen-specific activation signals after recognition of MHC-antigenic
20 peptide complexes. But the CD8⁺ T cell population in immunologically naive hosts is not restricted to
21 circulating naive T cells expecting cognate antigen encounter. Indeed, memory-phenotype T cells (T_{MP})
22 develop in absence of foreign antigen encounter and therefore exist in naive, pathogen-free as well as germ-
23 free conditions. T_{MP} have been shown to mediate bystander cell killing through innate mechanisms, as well
24 as rapidly respond to cognate antigen stimulation. While the existence of foreign antigen-inexperienced
25 T_{MP} is now well acknowledged in laboratory mice, and also recognized in humans, the extensive
26 nomenclature used for their description challenges the overall understanding of their multiple functions in
27 health and disease. This article discusses the current understanding and controversies on the origin,
28 maintenance and functions of the various populations recognized as T_{MP} and highlights some potential
29 challenges for deciphering their fate.

30 Introduction

31

32 Foreign Ag exposure results in the clonal expansion of Ag-specific effector T cells after MHC-peptide
33 recognition, which is followed by a contraction phase during which most T cells die and a small proportion
34 of those Ag-specific T cells acquire a long-lived memory phenotype, namely conventional or “true”
35 memory CD8⁺ T cells (T_{TM}) [1]. Based on the expression of specific combinations of surface receptors and
36 ligands, their longevity, as well as their effector, proliferative and migration characteristics, T_{TM} can be
37 divided in three major subsets: central memory (T_{CM}), effector-memory (T_{EM}), and tissue resident-memory
38 (T_{RM}) T cells [2]–[12]. There also exist more sub-populations characterized as long-lived effector cells,
39 “peripheral” memory T cells, or stem cell-like memory T cells. We could extend the list with exhausted T
40 cells (T_{EX}), which are not *per se* ‘memory’.

41 When non-self Ag are absent and the host is *per definition* immunologically “naive”, each circulating T
42 lymphocyte has its own unique TCR, which is specific for an unencountered antigen. Although naive T
43 cells (T_N) do not express memory markers, memory-like CD8⁺ T cells can also be found in the periphery,
44 as well as in the thymus of naive hosts [13]–[15]. Thus, these memory-phenotype T cells (T_{MP}) are
45 immunologically “naive” but share several common features with T_{TM}: they are αβ T cells undergoing
46 normal T cell receptor (TCR) rearrangement, they are present in the thymus and periphery, they upregulate
47 memory markers such as CD44, CD122 (IL-2 receptor β), CXCR3, as well as transcription factors like
48 EOMES and/or T-BET. However, T_{MP} downregulate the α4 integrin (CD49d), in contrast to T_{TM} [16]. Based
49 on how these cells are induced and their localization, these Ag-inexperienced T_{MP} have been divided in
50 three main subsets: homeostatic memory CD8⁺ T cells (T_{HM}), found in lymphopenic conditions; innate
51 memory CD8⁺ T cells (T_{IM}) which were identified in the thymus; and virtual memory CD8⁺ T cells (T_{VM})
52 which are found in the periphery. Of note, literature also reports several redundant denominations of cells
53 having similar characteristics like “Ag-inexperienced memory T cells” or “regulatory CD8⁺ T cells”.

54

55 Unconventional T_{MP}: what do we understand?

56 **T_{HM} cells – a response to lymphopenia.** Resting T_N are selected in the thymus to become tolerant to self-
57 antigens. However, the maintenance of T_N lymphocytes in the periphery also relies on a combination of
58 low affinity TCR signals, along with homeostatic IL-7 stimulation [17]–[19]. Such “tonic” signals ensure
59 that the T_N compartment is maintained with constant T cell number. Ionizing radiation or *Rag* deficiencies
60 can cause lymphopenic conditions, which can also be experimentally induced by T cell antibody-based
61 depletion. In lymphopenic hosts, both thymic *de novo* production of T_N and homeostatic stimulation of

62 residual or adoptively transferred peripheral T cells can regenerate the T cell compartment. Adoptive
63 transfer of T_N in a T lymphopenic environment not only results in the persistence of the donor cells, but
64 also in their homeostatic proliferation and their conversion into memory-like T cells [17],[20]–[27],
65 balancing the T cell pool [28],[29]. Although both $CD4^+$ and $CD8^+$ T cells can replenish the periphery by
66 homeostatic proliferation, $CD8^+$ T cells are less dependent on thymus to recover normal cell numbers.
67 Moreover, a recent study pointed that T_N recovery occurs after irradiation but only if the thymus was present,
68 whereas surviving T cells after irradiation of athymic mice only gave rise to T_{MP} , which were also more
69 responsive to homeostatic stimulation [30]. Thus, lymphopenia results in a replenishment of a T cell
70 compartment enriched in T_{MP} , also affecting the TCR repertoire in the periphery. In term of phenotype, T_{HM}
71 cells express CCR7 and CXCR5 and directly response to “tonic” self-antigen stimulation and homeostatic
72 signals in specific lymphopenic conditions [16],[31]–[34] (**Table 1, Fig. 1**).

73 **T_{IM} – a thymic tale.** T_{MP} have been identified in thymic single-positive $CD8^+$ T cells (SP8) of some
74 transgenic mouse strains, with increased EOMES expression but not T-BET [35],[36]. These cells were
75 referred to as T_{IM} and were initially identified in the thymus of mice lacking the TEC kinase IL-2-inducible
76 T cell kinase (ITK) or receptor like kinase (RLK) (**Table 1**) [37]. ITK-deficient and RLK/ITK double
77 deficient mice are almost devoid of conventional SP8 thymocytes and contain a large number of SP8 cells
78 that express consensus lineage markers indicative of T_{IM} . These cells develop in the thymus and acquire an
79 effector phenotype in absence of foreign antigen encounter and share some characters with T_{TM} [38]–[44].
80 Importantly, the generation of T_{IM} is dependent on IL-4 produced in the thymus, via a PLZF-dependent
81 mechanism and involving invariant NK-T lymphocytes (iNKT), present in BALB/c, DBA2 and CBA mice
82 but not in 129 or C57BL/6 mice [45],[46], although iNKT seem to be dispensable in ITK-deficient mice in
83 driving T_{IM} generation [47]. Phenotypically, T_{IM} display $CD44^+$ $CD122^+$ $EOMES^+$, and originate from SP8
84 naive T cells [48] (**Fig 1**). IL-4 is essential and sufficient to induce and expand T_{IM} with CXCR3
85 upregulation via EOMES in a cell-nonautonomous fashion [49],[50]. However, it remains unclear whether
86 the IL-4-dependent conversion of developing $CD8^+$ T cells into T_{IM} within the thymus is stochastic or
87 requires additional unidentified stimuli. Interestingly, T_{MP} in C57BL/6 mice develop from SP8 cells
88 upregulating EOMES which is triggered by recognition of self-ligands during their maturation in the
89 thymus [51]. However, potential combined effects of IL-4 and self-ligand recognition in the development
90 of T_{IM} remains elusive.

91 **T_{VM} – a memory in naive cells?** Beyond lymphopenic-induced T_{HM} or thymic T_{IM} , T_{MP} are also circulating
92 in the periphery of naive SPF or GF mice [16], meaning microbial antigens are not required for their
93 differentiation. These cells were named virtual memory T cells (T_{VM}) and have a phenotype similar to T_{HM}
94 and T_{IM} , with increased expression of CCR5, CXCR3, CXCR5 and variably express CCR2 [15],[52] (**Table**

95 **1, Fig 1).** T_{VM} form the majority of T_{MP} in unimmunized mice and around 10–20% of total $CD8^+$ T cells in
96 the peripheral blood and secondary lymphoid organs in C57BL/6 mice, and even more abundant in BALB/c
97 mice [53]–[57]. Although T_{IM} seem to express more CD49d (integrin $\alpha 4$ chain) when compared to T_{VM} in
98 periphery [53], it remains imprecise to distinguish T_{IM} from T_{VM} .

99 Thus, T_{VM} were essentially defined as peripheral T_{MP} (meaning in circulating blood and SLOs) in a naive
100 host (i.e. unexposed to its cognate antigen). Such definition infers that the history of antigenic exposure is
101 known, which challenges the clear definition of such a population in humans. Nonetheless, the identification
102 of human T_{VM} has been made as we will discuss in a following section. Another implication is that T_{IM} and
103 T_{HM} cells potentially represent some particular T_{VM} present in the thymus or developing in response to
104 homeostatic conditions, respectively. Finally, tissue-residence of T_{VM} is thus *per definition* a contradiction,
105 but we will not discuss further T_{RM} cells and their potential development in absence of non-self stimulation.

106

107 **Origin and maintenance of T_{VM} : a self-ligand tale?**

108 How and when T_{VM} are being generated and are maintained over time are important questions in the
109 understanding of how these cells function. Several key studies provided important insights in the dynamic
110 of T_{VM} generation and maintenance throughout life, in particular how cytokine signals and TCR
111 engagement are involved in these processes.

112 ***T_{VM} over time.*** Using inducible fate-mapping mice, newborn-derived $CD8^+$ T cells were shown to undergo
113 more proliferation and preferentially develop into T_{VM} when compared to adult-derived $CD8^+$ T cells. Thus,
114 $CD8^+$ T cells during the young age have a more inherent propensity to develop into T_{VM} [58], although T_{VM}
115 are also produced in the adult age. In addition, although lymphopenia-induced proliferation might
116 contribute to T_{VM} differentiation [59],[60], a lymphopenic environment in newborns does not seem to be
117 required for the formation of T_{VM} . Importantly, neonatal $CD8^+$ T cells have also been shown to mediate
118 enhanced innate-like bystander protection against unrelated pathogens, a mechanism controlled by a
119 balance between BACH2 and AP-1 transcription factor activities [61]. How the neonatal period represents
120 a T_{VM} -prone environment in the development of $CD8^+$ T cells remains to be explored. What seems to exist
121 is a layered immune development of T cells during life where neonatal T cells are more prone to respond
122 to inflammatory signals, whereas adult T cells have more avid TCR for antigenic responses [59].

123 Besides neonatal T_{VM} development, these cells also accumulate during aging at a period when thymic
124 functions decline [17]. Whereas early studies reported T_{CM} cell accumulation with age as a potential result
125 of lifelong foreign antigen exposure [54], such accumulation was rather explained by a lifelong
126 accumulation of T_{VM} and not conventional memory T cells [62]. During aging, T_{VM} become senescent but

127 not exhausted, similarly to aged T_N [63], and an elevated spare respiratory capacity (SRC, a higher
128 mitochondrial energy reserve) was observed, together with anti-apoptotic Bcl-2 expression [64]. Thus, T_{VM}
129 have a potential to be long-lived although their general lifespan is yet to be clarified. Asymmetric cell
130 division is an important mechanism to generate T cell diversity and maintain a memory T cell pool. When
131 compared with T_N , T_{VM} showed higher asymmetric cell division rate, likely contributing to the maintenance
132 of the pool and to the response to primary influenza infection [65],[66]. Nevertheless, when investigating
133 how the age, genetic background and microbiota composition could influence the gene expression program
134 in both T_{VM} and T_{IM} , only few differences could be observed [67].

135 ***T_{VM} and cytokines.*** Signalling through common γ (γ_c) chain cytokines, including the interleukins IL-2, IL-
136 4, IL-7 and IL-15 represent an essential driver in the homeostatic maintenance of memory T cells, including
137 T_{MP} [68]. Homeostatic-driven proliferation requires IL-7 signals to maintain T_{HM} cells, which seem to keep
138 their memory-phenotype despite some report of transient acquisition of memory following homeostatic
139 proliferation [24],[69]–[72]. Besides IL-7, it is now clear that homeostatic proliferation of T_N can be driven
140 by elevated amounts of other γ_c cytokines like IL-2 and IL-15. IL-15 is required for sustained lymphopenia-
141 induced proliferation of $CD8^+$ T cells [73], and irradiation-induced lymphopenia enhances T cell memory
142 formation via IL-15 [74]. At least for memory $CD8^+$ T cells, the homeostatic expansion can be supported
143 by either IL-7 or IL-15 [75]–[79]. Recipient mice with deficiency of *Il2ra*, *Il2rb*, or *Il2rg* makes adoptively-
144 transferred T_N undergo massive proliferation and rapidly acquire the characteristics of T_{MP} in presence of
145 high amounts of IL-2 or a mixture of both IL-2 and IL-15, together with recognition of self-pMHC ligands
146 [27],[80],[81]. T_N seem to effectively respond to IL-2 receptor signalling to convert into T_{HM} or T_{VM} . In
147 addition, deficiency of suppressor of cytokine signalling-1 (SOCS-1) in $CD8^+$ T cells resulted in increased
148 responsiveness to IL-15 and self-ligands, resulting in expansion of T_{MP} [81],[82]. During homeostatic
149 proliferation, the degree of proliferation is dictated by the number of T_N with sufficiently high affinity for
150 self-ligands in presence of peripheral IL-15 [83], and IL-15 is trans-presented by $CD8\alpha^+$ dendritic cells
151 (DCs) to T_N to induce T_{VM} differentiation [53].

152 Type I and II interferons (IFN), IL-12 and IL-18, also enhance memory $CD8^+$ T cell survival and/or
153 proliferation mediated through the induction of IL-15 [84]. Interestingly, the lack of IFN- γ receptor
154 signalling in $CD8^+$ T cells promoted the differentiation into T_{MP} without affecting cell numbers [85],[86].
155 While type I IFN enhance or reduce memory T cell proliferation, depending on the dose [87],[88], signalling
156 via IRF9 regulates the homeostasis and function of T_{VM} by driving EOMES expression [89]. Hence, type I
157 IFN signalling is required to maintain the T_{VM} pool. In addition, T_{VM} have been reported as the main IFN-
158 γ producers at steady state, regulating $CD8^+$ T cell avidity during primary response to foreign antigens and
159 establishment of T_{TM} [90].

160 ***IL-4 – a particular scenario.*** Among key cytokines, IL-4 has been extensively demonstrated to maintain
161 and expand T_{VM} in SLOs, and such IL-4 intriguing effects on T_{VM} were confirmed in IL-4^{-/-} and IL-4Rα^{-/-}
162 mice in both BALB/c and C57BL/6 backgrounds [60],[91]–[94], although T_{VM} can arise in absence of IL-
163 4 and IL-4Rα in the C57BL/6 background at steady-state [95]. In immunocompetent mice, IL-4 signalling
164 in T_{VM} results in their expansion in the SLOs mainly explained by the induction of cell proliferation with a
165 small contribution of cell recruitment, rather than conversion from T_N [93],[94]. IL-4 can drive EOMES
166 expression and innate-like memory phenotype through cooperation between STAT6- and AKT-dependent
167 pathways, in settings of attenuated TCR stimulation in CD8⁺ T cells cultured *in vitro* [96]. Importantly,
168 EOMES can directly drive BCL-2 expression to mediate the survival of low-affinity memory precursor
169 [97]. Hence, although the exact mechanisms explaining how IL-4 drives T_{VM} expansion are yet to be
170 elucidated, IL-4 could induce via EOMES an anti-apoptotic mechanism to maintain T_{MP}. Nevertheless, the
171 requirement of IL-4 signals is not absolute as IL-4 deficiency on T_{VM} could be compensated by type I
172 interferons to maintain their homeostasis [98]. The contribution of IL-4 and IL-15 in promoting T_{VM}
173 maintenance seems to depend on the mouse background, where T_{VM} rely more on IL-4 in BALB/c mice,
174 while IL-15 was shown to be essential in maintaining T_{VM} in C57BL/6 mice [99]. In-depth investigation of
175 T_{VM} expressing Ly-6C and/or Sca-1 markers in response to type I IFN and in presence of IL-4 and/or IL-
176 15 were shown to contribute to predominant Ly-6C⁺ subsets, while type I IFNs and IL-15 contributed to
177 Sca-1⁺ and Sca-1⁻ subsets, respectively [86]. Of note, Ly-6C⁺ T_{VM} were also enriched after whole body
178 irradiation, suggesting type I IFN in response to ionization results in phenotypic changes in T_{VM} [30].

179 ***Transcription regulation.*** T_{VM} induction, maintenance and functions are likely associated to a specific
180 transcription factor program, in which EOMES plays an important role. Istaces and collaborators showed
181 that T_{IM} acquired only a fraction of the fully active enhancer repertoire of T_{TM} [100], in which EOMES is
182 recruited to RUNX3-bound regions and induces epigenetic changes in enhancer regions. However, the
183 global epigenetic profile was not unique for T_{IM}. Epigenetic regulator BRG1 was shown to be critically
184 involved in the program of acquisition of memory features by CD8⁺ T cells under steady state and upon *in*
185 *vivo* injection of IL-4 – anti-IL-4 antibody complexes (IL-4c) [100]. In addition, deletion of the histone
186 methyltransferase DOT1L in the T cell lineage strongly increased the number of T_{VM} by controlling TCR
187 signalling and regulating a network of other transcriptional and epigenetic regulators, like EZH2
188 [101],[101]. Moreover, the ubiquitin-like modifier (UFM1) E3 ligase (UFL1) suppressed BATF activity
189 and apoptosis to promote T_{VM} survival and function [102]. Completing the role of EOMES regulation, a
190 recent study suggested AIOLOS (IKZF3) represses the expression of EOMES and CD122, resulting in a
191 tight regulation of T_{VM} generation [103].

192 ***Self-ligand recognition: a main driver.*** When we envision the origin and maintenance of T_{VM} , a long-
193 lasting key question has been whether TCR engagement contribute or not. One of the first observation
194 supporting the role of TCR signalling was that T_{VM} convert more likely from T cells expressing high levels
195 of CD5, a marker associated with self-reactivity [83],[104]. Expression levels of CD5 on T cells are directly
196 proportional to the affinity of the TCR [105], and the strength of the TCR affinity has been shown to
197 determine the relative “fitness” of naive T cells to compete for factors such as IL-7 to support cell survival
198 and homeostatic proliferation [106]. Moreover, $CD5^{high}$ T cells were shown to be better poised for reactivity
199 and differentiation than $CD5^{low}$ cells, and more reactive to antigenic stimulation [107],[108], and
200 spontaneously differentiate into T_{MP} [109],[110]. Supporting the hypothesis that self-ligands contribute to
201 T_{IM}/T_{VM} differentiation, TCR repertoire was shown to be distinct between T_{VM} and T_N [51],[111],[112].
202 Drobek and colleagues showed that a strong homeostatic TCR signal could significantly expand the T_{VM}
203 compartment but was not sufficient to enable all cells to assume a memory phenotype, implying that TCR
204 specificity for self is still an important parameter in T_{VM} generation. Indeed, only naive T cells expressing
205 T_{VM} -enriched TCR clones led to their differentiation into T_{VM} [51], and T_{VM} , including IL-4-responding
206 T_{VM} , expressed enriched CDR3 sequences with physico-chemical characteristics associated with self-
207 reactivity [94]. Thus, self-ligand recognition might be essential for T_{VM} maintenance and clonal expansion
208 induced by cytokines. Moreover, T_{VM} differentiation was associated with the upregulation of EOMES in
209 the thymus in C57BL/6 mice, suggesting that T_{VM} differentiation is already triggered in the thymus before
210 they receive further signals after thymic egress [51]. Deficiency of *Themis*, a protein regulating thymic
211 selection, resulted in the expansion of a T_{MP} population expressing $V\alpha 3.2^+$ TCR, having increased
212 responsiveness to IL-15 [113]. Moreover, deficiency in DOCK2, which contributes to cellular signalling
213 events by activating small G-proteins, resulted in increased sensitivity to TCR stimulation by low-affinity
214 peptides and T_{VM} expansion [114]. Together, these studies strongly support that self-ligand recognition
215 governs the generation of T_{VM} , implying that some self-reactive $CD8^+$ T cells do evict thymic selection, as
216 recently reported [115]. Thus, we could risk to make some parallels with $Foxp3^+$ regulatory T cells [116],
217 and consider T_{VM} might have regulatory functions. The following section further discusses some important
218 data supporting such consideration.

219 **T_{VM} functions in inflammation, infection and cancer.**

220 By definition, T_{VM} have not encountered foreign antigens but displayed an enhanced capability to respond
221 to their cognate antigen when compared to their T_N counterparts. These cells are capable of mediating potent
222 immunological protection against a bacterial challenge even in the absence of their cognate antigen [117],
223 of which bystander protection is maintained by IL-15 in C57BL/6 mice [83]. In addition, IL-4 can also
224 promote type 1 immune response and $IFN-\gamma$ in T_{VM} , and regulate the $CD8^+$ T cell response to acute viral

225 infection [91]. In the thymus, thymic IL-4 and IL-15 expression triggered by Th1-associated *Trypanosoma*
226 *cruzi* infection induced an adequate niche for development of innate memory CD8⁺ T cells as early as the
227 DP stage in WT mice [118]. In the periphery, CXCR3 regulates the recruitment of memory CD8⁺ T cells
228 to sites of inflammation [119], and CCR2⁺ T_{VM} were shown to rapidly infiltrate the lung in a CXCR3-
229 dependent manner early after a primary infection with a high dose of influenza virus, promoting early viral
230 control by producing IFN- γ and granzyme B [56]. During helminth exposure, IL-4 drives the expansion
231 and activation of IFN- γ -producing T_{VM} directly associated with the enhanced control of a subsequent viral
232 infection in the lung [93],[94]. Similarly, T_{VM} expanded by helminth infection were shown to confer
233 protection against subsequent bacterial infection via an IFN- γ -dependent mechanism [120]. These studies
234 provided a new prospect where type 1 and type 2 immune axes converge to drive the activation of immune
235 protection through T_{MP} (**Fig 2**).

236 Besides their function in response to viral or bacterial infections, T_{VM} also display enhanced responses
237 against tumours. Donor T_{VM} in a mouse model of prostate adenocarcinoma constituted a substantial fraction
238 of the tumour-infiltrating CD8⁺ T cells and the majority expressed high densities of the inhibitory receptor
239 PD-1, which may functionally impact antitumor immunity or directly be impacted by anti-PD-1 or anti-PD-
240 L1 checkpoint blockade antibodies [51]. Chemotherapy-treated cancer cells directly activated T_{VM} in MHC-
241 I-independent manner requiring cell-cell contact and activation of the PI3K pathway, which preferentially
242 promoted T_{VM} tumour-infiltrating and potent granzyme B-dependent cytotoxicity [121]. In addition,
243 systemic expression of IL-12 and IL-18 and an enrichment of T_{VM} displaying antitumor characteristics were
244 found in a melanoma and pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma tumour models [122], which was abolished in
245 the absence of IFN- γ .

246 The combination of a hyperresponsive differentiation state with the expression of self-reactive TCRs could
247 imply that T_{VM} would be less self-tolerant than T_N and represent a risk for inducing autoimmunity. However,
248 T_{VM} retain self-tolerance phenotypic traits and are less able to induce autoimmune diabetes compared to
249 T_{TM}, while they have a similarly low ability to drive experimental diabetes as T_N [111]. In general, T_{VM} do
250 not upregulate the high-affinity IL-2 receptor alpha chain CD25 and express low CD49d, suggesting T_{VM}
251 activation can be tightly controlled by potential counter-inhibitory mechanisms. Importantly, our work
252 demonstrated that IL-4 drives CD22 expression in expanding T_{VM} [94]. While CD22 is a canonical marker
253 expressed on B cells, its expression in T_{VM} was shown to limit IL-4-driven T_{VM} expansion resulting in
254 reduced responsiveness to stimulation of CD22⁺ T_{VM}, such reduced production of IFN- γ and GZMB. But
255 beyond intrinsic regulation of T_{VM} activation, CD22⁺ T_{VM} could also regulate T cell-induced
256 immunopathology, suggesting they could have regulatory functions. In addition, Foxp3⁺ regulatory CD4⁺
257 T cells limited expansion of T_{VM} *via* restraining IL-15 trans-presentation by DCs to maintain stable T_{VM}

258 population [123], suggesting multiple mechanisms of regulation of the T_{VM} response are involved. While
259 mostly protective, T_{VM} have also been associated with disease. Hence, local activation of T_{VM} expressing
260 high levels of CD44 caused alopecia areata (a chronic inflammatory skin disease) [124]. Whether such
261 pathological T_{VM} response escaped tolerance against self-ligand recognition is unclear.

262 $CD8^+CD122^+CD49d^{low}$ cells (i.e. T_{VM}) have also been reported as “regulatory $CD8^+$ T cells” [125],
263 mediating killing of activated T cells via Fas/FasL-mediated cytotoxicity. Thus, these observations together
264 with our work showing that $CD22^+$ T_{VM} protected *Rag*-deficient mice from inflammatory bowel disease
265 induced by co-transfer naïve $CD4^+$ T cells furtherly explained how T_{VM} contribute to regulation of
266 immunopathology [1]. Ly-49, a family of killer cell lectin-like receptor was also identified as a marker of
267 $CD8^+$ “regulatory” T cells [126],[127]. Mechanistically, thymic eviction of immature autoreactive SP8 into
268 the periphery was shown to drive self-tolerance of mature $CD8^+$ T cells [115]. Such phenomenon could
269 explain the observed association between self-reactivity and self-tolerance in T_{VM} biology, potentially
270 driving dual functions of bystander effector and regulatory mechanisms.

271

272 **Human T_{IM}/T_{VM} : how can we make sure?**

273 Recent data reasonably suggested the existence of human T_{VM} , although the demonstration of Ag-
274 inexperienced T cells in human will likely never be definitive. $CD8^+$ T cells expressing either KIR receptors
275 or the inhibitory NKG2A receptor with an EMRA phenotype (effector memory cells re-expressing
276 $CD45RA$, $CD45RA^+CCR7^-$) in cord blood, exempt of viral infection or placental pathology [128],
277 represent the most reliable demonstration of human T_{VM} . Supporting the idea of human T_{VM} , a substantial
278 number of T_{VM} -like cells in the spleens of pre-term infants, with EOMES expression and rapid IFN- γ
279 production upon restimulation [129]. Supporting the existence of T_{MP} during in early life, a recent study
280 reported single cell transcriptome and TCR usage atlas from several foetal tissues during the second
281 trimester of pregnancy. Interestingly, increasing proportions of $CD45RO^+$ memory T cells, T_{EM} and T_{RM}
282 were observed during developmental progression across organs [130], in which substantially higher
283 proportions of $\alpha\beta$ TCR clones recognizing diverse antigens including self-antigens were identified, when
284 compared to adult counterparts. PLZF is highly expressed in both thymic and splenic human foetal $CD4^+$
285 T cells, which potentially provide good conditions for T_{IM}/T_{VM} expansion [129],[131]. The notable
286 difference is that CD5 expression on human T cells decreases as the T cell undergoes differentiation [132],
287 and T cells expressing the lowest levels of CD5 are the most sensitive to IL-15 [132],[133]. These
288 $CD5^{low}CD122^{hi}$ cells increased expression of NUR77, suggesting a higher basal TCR–MHC self-affinity,
289 NKG2A, both EOMES and T-BET, and were $CD45RA^+KIR^+$ [83],[134]–[136] (**Table 1**). In an attempt to

290 categorize human T_{VM} , two subsets were described as $KIR^+/NKG2A^+CD45RA^+TIGIT^{+/-}CD226^{+/-}$ [137],
291 and RNA-seq revealed different gene signatures in these two subsets, notably for *Helios*, *Cd122* and *Tigit*
292 expression [127],[137]. The subset $TIGIT^+Helios^+NKG2A^+CCR7^-CD27^-CD28^-$ showed high cytotoxic
293 ability (perforin and granzyme B), a less diverse TCR repertoire and regulatory functions in autoimmune
294 diseases [48],[127]. Interestingly, $NKG2A^+$ innate-like memory T cells have been shown to develop early
295 in human life during gene therapy with *Il2rg* in X-linked severe combined immunodeficient individuals
296 and were shown to be epigenetically poised to rapidly elicit effector cytokines in an antigen-independent
297 manner [138]. However, these innate-like memory T cells upregulated both CD45RO and CD49d. In
298 addition, expression of IL-15R β on T_{VM} is significantly higher than that on T_N in young adults, increased
299 significantly with age [63]. In addition to $CD8^+ T_{MP}$, $CD4^+ T_{MP}$ were found in large numbers in the foetal
300 intestinal mucosa, showing effector memory while expressing significantly lower CD27 and CD28 than
301 infant cells [139].

302 During infection, the challenge would be to distinguish functions mediated by human T_{VM} from bystander
303 TCR-independent activities of T_{TM} . Whereas no study reported IL-4-induced expansion of human T_{VM}
304 during helminth infection, increased levels of IL-15 during hepatitis A virus (HAV) infection resulted in a
305 TCR-independent activation of memory $CD8^+$ T cells, while HAV non-specific $CD8^+$ T cells upregulated
306 NKG2D and displayed innate-like cytotoxicity associated with liver injury [140],[141]. IL-15 was shown
307 to upregulate CCR5 expression, which correlated with inflammation [142]. A population with T_{VM}
308 characteristics negatively correlated with HIV DNA loads and positively correlated with circulating IFN-
309 $\alpha 2$ and IL-15 in patients undergoing antiretroviral therapy, in which T_{VM} constitutively expressed high
310 levels of cytotoxic granule components, including granzyme B, perforin and granulysin [132],[133]. The
311 levels of HIV-1 DNA and cell-associated unspliced viral RNA correlated negatively with $CCL4^-CCL5^+$
312 $CD8^+$ terminally differentiated effector memory cells, in which a T_{VM} subset was enriched and showed
313 superior cytotoxicity potentially driven by T-BET and RUNX3 [143].

314 Thus, whereas there is no real doubt about the existence of human T_{VM} , there remains a significant gap to
315 fill in the understanding of their phenotype, function and regulation during homeostasis, and in disease.

316

317 **Conclusion and Perspectives**

318 The current literature converges in proposing that T_{VM} emerge from self-ligands recognition as the main
319 driving force to achieve a memory phenotype. But there is no evidence that such thymic eviction of self-
320 reactive T cells results in autoimmune reaction and immunopathology. Rather, T_{VM} maintenance and
321 activation is tightly regulated through various intrinsic mechanisms such as the upregulation of the

322 inhibitory receptor CD22 in response to IL-4, as well as extrinsic mechanisms, like their modulation via
323 Foxp3⁺ Tregs. Nonetheless, T_{VM} maintain their potential to mediate bystander functions, or even respond
324 to their cognate Ag presentation more effectively than T_N. Nonetheless, while there have been extensive
325 efforts to explore T_{VM} biology since their discovery, we have to recognize that while it is still too soon to
326 provide a clear response to how much similar or different T_{VM} are from T_{TM}, it is important to recognize
327 that a primary response to an antigen do not solely involve T_N, but also the participation of T_{MP} [4].

328 One aspect that we think would be worth clarifying, is the shift of paradigm in which a type 2 cytokine like
329 IL-4 drives the activation of memory/effector properties in T_{VM}, such as increased IFN- γ or production of
330 granzyme A. Although thymic IL-4 in some mouse strains has been demonstrated to drive T_{IM} expansion
331 more than a decade ago, no clear mechanism in term of signalling and gene regulation has been identified.
332 Do T_{MP} rely on IL-4 signals to drive EOMES directly? Or would an indirect phenomenon explain that IL-
333 4 drives activation signals leading to more self-ligand recognition signals via their TCR? In addition, what
334 happens to expanded T_{VM} after their activation, for instance during helminth infection? Could we expect an
335 imprinting of long-lived T_{VM} which would contribute to surveillance of primary infections throughout the
336 life, and would T_{VM} contribute to the regulation of inflammation induced by pathogens like parasitic worms,
337 and contribute to disease tolerance? These are only a few examples of investigation that would need to be
338 pursued, to which the hypothetical IL-4 responsiveness of human T_{VM} could also be added. There, the
339 development by several groups of controlled human helminth infections could represent a unique
340 opportunity to provide valuable information.

341 **Conflict of interest disclosure**

342 The authors have no conflict of interest to report.

343 **Data availability statement**

344 Data sharing is not applicable to this article as no datasets were generated or analysed during the current
345 study

346

347 **References**

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777 **Figure legends**

778

779 **Figure 1. Origin and maintenance of T_{MP}.** Summary of the origin, maintenance and the main phenotypes
780 of T_{HM}, T_{IM} and T_{VM}. Contribution of thymic T_{IM} to peripheral T_{VM}, remains unclear. DN, double negative;
781 DP, double positive; SP, single positive; APC, antigen-presenting cells; γ_c , common γ chain.

782

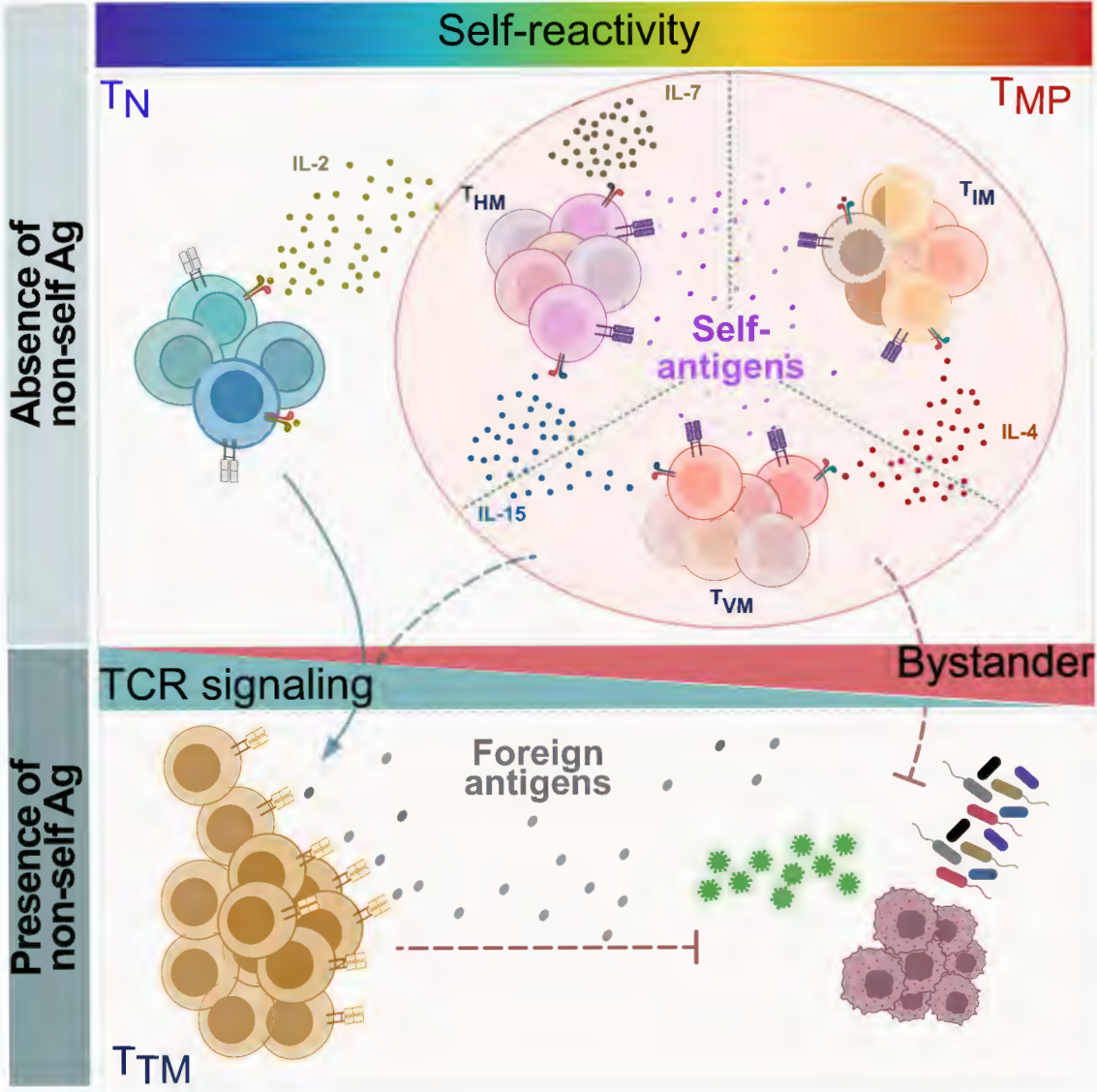
783 **Figure 2. The contribution of T_{VM} in disease.** T_{VM} acquire their memory phenotype in the thymus through
784 recognition of self-ligands, associated with EOMES expression. In the periphery, T_{VM} are self-reactive but
785 self-tolerant and are able to respond to bystander stimulation and infiltrate solid tumors to express high PD-
786 1 [51]. Upon helminth infection, IL-4 can lead to T_{VM} activation, expansion and upregulation of CD22 [94].
787 IL-4-expanded T_{VM} contribute to clearance of bacterial coinfection and enhanced control of respiratory viral
788 infection by differentiating into effector cells producing IFN- γ and GZMB, recruited to the lung and
789 exhibiting cytotoxicity [93],[120].

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791
792

Table 1. Phenotypic identification of T cells populations, based on foreign Ag experience [15],[52],[57],[62],[144].

	Immunologically “naïve” host					Antigen experienced host			
	T_N					T_{MP}			
Cell types	Mouse T _N	Mouse T _{HM}	Mouse T _{IM}	Mouse T _{VM}	Human T _{VM}	Mouse T _{CM}	Mouse T _{EM}	Mouse T _{RM}	Human Effector memory Re-expressing CD45RA
Key markers	CD44 ^{low} CD49d ^{low}	CD44 ^{hi} CD49d ^{low}	CD44 ^{hi} CD49d ^{low}	CD44 ^{hi} CD49d ^{low}	CD45RA ⁺ KIR ^{hi} and/or NKG2A ^{hi}	CD44 ^{hi} CD49d ^{hi}	CD44 ^{hi} CD49d ^{hi}	CD44 ^{hi}	CD45RA ⁺
Additional markers	CD62L ^{hi} CCR7 ^{hi} Eomes ^{low} CD122 ^{low} CD127 ^{hi} CXCR3 ^{low} CX3CR1 ^{low}	CD62L ^{hi} CD122 ^{hi} CXCR3 ⁺ CCR7 ⁺ CXCR5 ⁺ Ly6C ⁺ CD122 ⁺ CD69 ^{low} CD25 ^{low}	CD62L ^{hi} CD122 ^{hi} Eomes ^{hi} CXCR3 ^{hi} T-bet ⁻ CD5 ⁺	CD62L ^{hi} CCR7 ^{low} Eomes ^{hi} CD122 ^{hi} CD127 ^{hi} CXCR3 ^{hi} CX3CR1 ^{low} NKG2D ⁺ T-bet ⁺ CCR2 ^{+/-} CCR5 ⁺ CXCR5 ⁺ CD5 ⁺	CD45RO ⁻ CCR7 ^{low} Eomes ^{hi} CD27 ^{low} CD5 ^{low} CD122 ^{hi} NUR77 ^{hi} T-bet ⁺	CD62L ^{hi} CCR7 ^{hi} Eomes ^{hi} CD122 ^{int} CD127 ^{hi} CXCR3 ^{hi} CX3CR1 ^{low} T-bet ^{low}	CD62L ^{low} CCR7 ^{low} Eomes ^{low} CD122 ^{low} CD127 ^{low} CXCR3 ^{hi} CX3CR1 ^{hi} CX3CR1 ^{hi}	CD62L ⁻ CCR7 ⁻ CD103 ^{hi} CD69 ^{hi} CD27 ^{low} CD49a ⁺ CD127 ^{hi} CXCR3 ^{hi} CX3CR1 ^{low/int} T-bet ^{low} EOMES ^{-/low} (depending on tissue)	CD27 ⁻ CCR7 ⁻ CD127 ^{low}



Graphical abstract text :

This review highlights how memory-phenotype CD8⁺ T lymphocytes (T_{MP}) develop in immunologically naive hosts in absence of non-self antigens (Ag). We discuss the current understanding and controversies on the origin, maintenance and functions of the main populations recognized as T_{MP}, in comparison to naive (T_N) and Ag-specific true memory T cells (T_{TM}).

Fig01

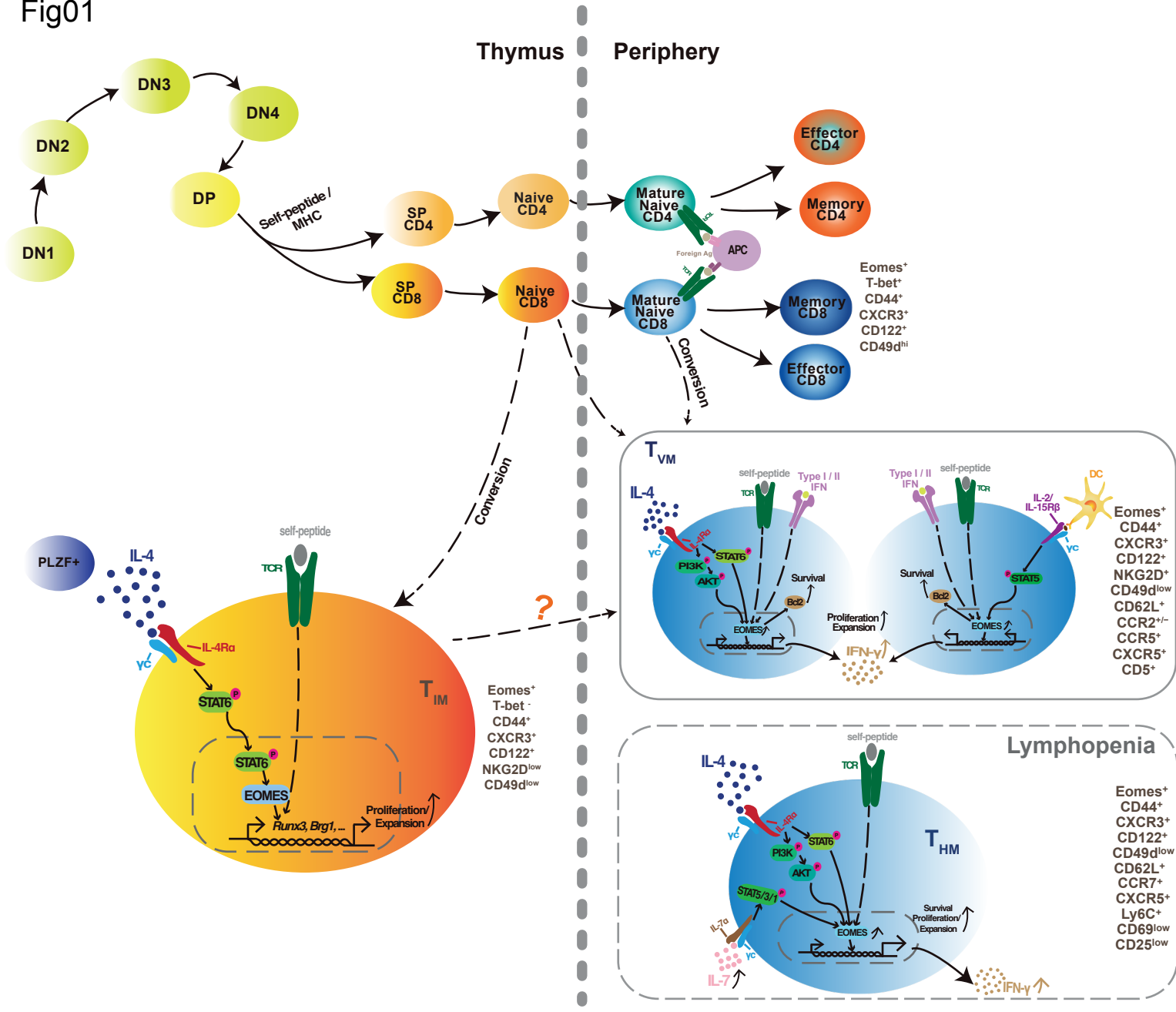


Fig02

