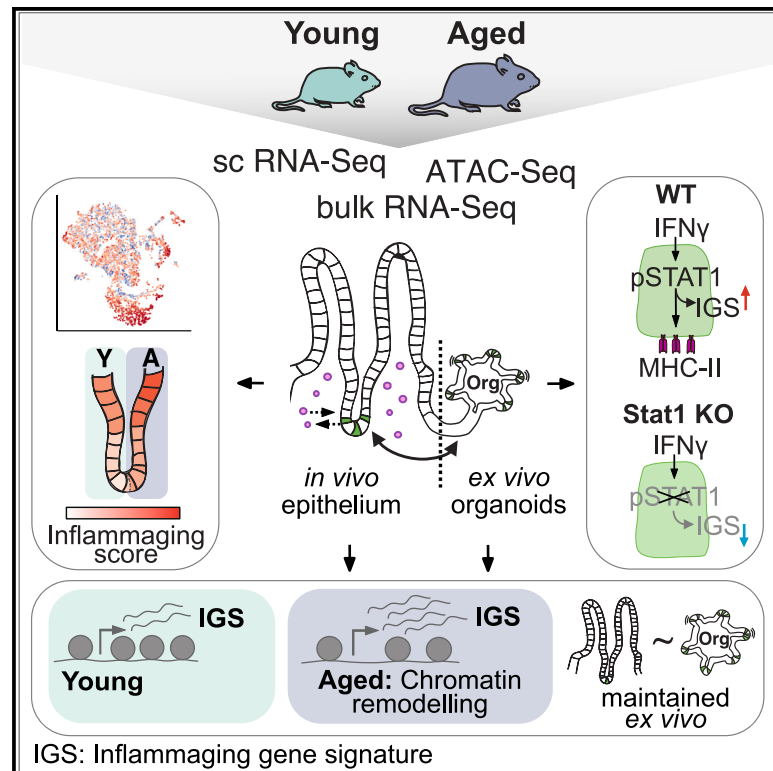


Developmental Cell

Aged intestinal stem cells propagate cell-intrinsic sources of inflammaging in mice

Graphical abstract



Authors

Maja C. Funk, Jan G. Gleixner, Florian Heigwer, ..., Simon Haas, Mathias Heikenwalder, Michael Boutros

Correspondence

m.boutros@dkfz.de

In brief

Funk et al. identify at the single-cell level that intestinal inflammaging in mice develops differently along the crypt-villus axis. Moreover, epithelial cells acquire *in vivo* age-specific changes in chromatin accessibility that are maintained *ex vivo* in organoid cultures and associated with inflammation-associated loci, promoting stem cell-intrinsic sources of inflammaging.

Highlights

- Inflammaging establishes differently along the intestinal crypt-villus axis
- Aged ISC upregulate MHC-II for CD4⁺ T cell interaction via IFN γ -STAT1 signaling
- *In vivo*-acquired changes in chromatin accessibility are maintained in organoids
- Aged ISCs propagate cell-intrinsic sources of inflammaging to the epithelium



Article

Aged intestinal stem cells propagate cell-intrinsic sources of inflammaging in mice

Maja C. Funk,¹ Jan G. Gleixner,^{1,2,3,4} Florian Heigwer,^{1,5} Dominik Vonficht,^{4,6,7} Erica Valentini,¹ Zeynep Aydin,¹ Elena Tonin,¹ Stefania Del Prete,⁸ Sylvia Mahara,⁹ Yannick Throm,¹ Jenny Hetzer,¹⁰ Danijela Heide,¹⁰ Oliver Stegle,^{2,3} Duncan T. Odom,⁸ Angelika Feldmann,⁹ Simon Haas,^{6,7,11,12} Mathias Heikenwalder,^{10,13} and Michael Boutros^{1,14,*}

¹German Cancer Research Center (DKFZ), Division Signaling and Functional Genomics, Heidelberg University, BioQuant & Department of Cell and Molecular Biology, Medical Faculty Mannheim, Heidelberg University, Institute for Human Genetics, Medical Faculty Heidelberg, 69120 Heidelberg, Germany

²German Cancer Research Center (DKFZ), Division of Computational Genomics and Systems Genetics, 69120 Heidelberg, Germany

³Genome Biology Unit, European Molecular Biology Laboratory (EMBL), 69117 Heidelberg, Germany

⁴Faculty of Biosciences, Heidelberg University, 69117 Heidelberg, Germany

⁵Department of Life Sciences and Engineering, University of Applied Sciences Bingen, 55411 Bingen am Rhein, Germany

⁶Heidelberg Institute for Stem Cell Technology and Experimental Medicine, (HI-STEM gGmbH), 69120 Heidelberg, Germany

⁷German Cancer Research Center (DKFZ), Division of Stem Cells and Cancer, DKFZ-ZMBH Alliance, 69120 Heidelberg, Germany

⁸German Cancer Research Center (DKFZ), Division Regulatory Genomics and Cancer Evolution, 69120 Heidelberg, Germany

⁹German Cancer Research Center (DKFZ), Junior Research Group Mechanisms of Genome Control, 69120 Heidelberg, Germany

¹⁰German Cancer Research Center (DKFZ), Division Chronic Inflammation and Cancer, 69120 Heidelberg, Germany

¹¹Berlin Institute of Health (BIH), Charité – Universitätsmedizin Berlin, 10178 Berlin, Germany

¹²Max Delbrück Center for Molecular Medicine in the Helmholtz Association, Berlin Institute for Medical Systems Biology, 10115 Berlin, Germany

¹³M3 Research Center, Medical Faculty Tübingen, Eberhard Karls University of Tübingen, 72074 Tübingen, Germany

¹⁴Lead contact

*Correspondence: m.boutros@dkfz.de

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SUMMARY

Low-grade chronic inflammation is a hallmark of ageing, associated with impaired tissue function and disease development. However, how cell-intrinsic and -extrinsic factors collectively establish this phenotype, termed inflammaging, remains poorly understood. We addressed this question in the mouse intestinal epithelium, using mouse organoid cultures to dissect stem cell-intrinsic and -extrinsic sources of inflammaging. At the single-cell level, we found that inflammaging is established differently along the crypt-villus axis, with aged intestinal stem cells (ISCs) strongly upregulating major histocompatibility complex class II (MHC-II) genes. Importantly, the inflammaging phenotype was stably propagated by aged ISCs in organoid cultures and associated with increased chromatin accessibility at inflammation-associated loci *in vivo* and *ex vivo*, indicating cell-intrinsic inflammatory memory. Mechanistically, we show that the expression of inflammatory genes is dependent on STAT1 signaling. Together, our data identify that intestinal inflammaging in mice is promoted by a cell-intrinsic mechanism, stably propagated by ISCs, and associated with a disbalance in immune homeostasis.

INTRODUCTION

During ageing, cell-intrinsic and -extrinsic factors act in concert, leading to impaired tissue function and onset of age-related diseases.^{1,2} An organ that is particularly exposed to external signals is the intestine. During homeostasis, the intestine forms a dynamic interface with the microenvironment and serves as a protective barrier against external stimuli.^{3–5} Furthermore, the intestinal epithelium mediates the host's immune response to clear invading pathogens and to provide tolerance against the commensal microbiome.⁵

To maintain tissue homeostasis, the small intestine relies on highly proliferative stem cells to continuously renew the entire

epithelium. Intestinal stem cells (ISCs) reside in their protective stem cell niche called crypt. New progenitor cells leave the crypt, enter the transit-amplifying zone, and are pushed upward toward the villi, the functional units of the intestine.⁶ Along the crypt-villus axis, different cell types can be found: ISCs, absorptive enterocytes as well as secretory cells, including Paneth cells (PCs), goblet cells (GCs), enteroendocrine cells (EECs), and chemosensory Tuft cells.⁷ PCs, intercalated between the ISCs, are part of the stem cell niche and secrete growth factors essential for proper stem cell function and antimicrobial peptides as a first-line defense against invading microbes.⁸ Additionally, immune cells and the microbiome in the intestinal microenvironment can directly regulate ISC function and epithelial homeostasis.^{9–11}



Upon ageing, ISC regeneration capacity is impaired,^{12–14} in part due to reduced canonical Wnt signaling in ISCs, neighboring PCs, and the subepithelial mesenchyme.^{13,14} Moreover, the ISC niche and entire epithelium are exposed to extrinsic factors from the microenvironment, which by themselves are subject to age-related changes.⁴ During ageing, direct interaction with immune cells and the microbiome causes chronic inflammation in the intestine,^{15–17} an ageing phenotype known as inflammaging.^{18,19} However, it remains poorly understood how extrinsic factors act in concert with ISC-intrinsic changes to establish and maintain chronic inflammation during ageing.

To identify cell-intrinsic and -extrinsic sources of increased inflammatory signaling as well as to unveil how they interact and reinforce each other, we first assessed age-related transcriptional changes in the freshly isolated *in vivo* intestinal epithelium. At the single-cell level, we show that inflammaging develops differently in cells along the crypt-villus axis and is marked by the upregulation of major histocompatibility complex class II (MHC-II) antigen presentation machinery in ISCs. Elevated MHC-II levels on aged ISCs are associated with compositional changes in the T cell compartment and an increase in physical interaction between aged ISCs and CD4⁺ T cells. To dissect whether the observed inflammaging phenotype is driven by cell-intrinsic or -extrinsic sources, we used intestinal organoids, which were cultured *ex vivo*, shielded from extrinsic signals, and constantly renewed from a limited stem cell population. These experiments demonstrated that cell-intrinsic inflammaging signatures persist in culture, independent of external signals from the microenvironment, and are stably propagated by ISCs over time. Analysis of open chromatin accessibility in organoids and freshly isolated epithelial cells further identified that the ISC-intrinsic inflammaging is primed at the chromatin level, established *in vivo*, and maintained in culture, suggesting the development of a memory of inflammation. Mechanistically, our data show that the expression of inflammaging signature genes is dependent on signal transducer and activator of transcription 1 (STAT1) signaling.

In summary, we identify the establishment of a cell-intrinsic inflammaging phenotype that is stably propagated by ISCs and associated with chromatin remodeling of inflammation-associated loci. These findings provide insights into how chronic inflammatory states evolve over time and how ISCs might contribute to systemic inflammation and the disbalance of immune homeostasis during ageing.

RESULTS

Intestinal epithelial cells develop chronic inflammation during ageing

To first investigate the *in vivo* ageing effect in all epithelial cell types of the intestine, we performed bulk and single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq) from freshly isolated epithelial cells (EpCam⁺, CD45⁻) from the proximal small intestine of three young and aged mice each (Figure 1A). In a principal-component analysis (PCA) of the bulk RNA-seq samples, the age of the mice was the major source of variance, suggesting drastic age-related transcriptomic changes (Figure S1A). Indeed, we identified 508 genes significantly differentially expressed upon ageing, of which 190 genes were upregulated and 318 genes

were downregulated (Figures 1B and S1B). Downregulated genes included alpha-defensins (*Defa3*, *Defa17*, *Defa24*, and *Defa26*) (Figures 1B and S1C), which are specifically secreted by PCs for antimicrobial defense,²⁰ indicating a diminished functionality of PCs and mucosal immunity upon ageing. We also detected reduced Wnt3 in the aged epithelium (Figure 1B), consistent with previous reports of decreased Wnt signaling during intestinal ageing.^{13,14} Upregulated genes comprised various immune response and interferon-inducible genes, such as *Igtp*, *Ly6e*, *Ccr2*, *Ifitm3*, *P2rx7*, and *Ifi47* (Figures 1B and 1C). To gain functional insights into the ageing phenotype of the intestine, we performed a gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) (Figure 1D). This analysis identified an enrichment for ageing-associated processes, including mechanistic target of rapamycin complex 1 (mTORC1) signaling, which has been previously linked to intestinal ageing.^{14,21} The most prominent alteration was an enrichment of inflammation-associated signaling pathways, including interferon-gamma (IFN- γ) and -alpha (IFN- α) response signatures as well as allograft rejection, tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF- α) signaling via nuclear factor κ B (NF- κ B), inflammatory response, and IL6-JAK-STAT3 signaling. Low-grade chronic inflammation during ageing is known as inflammaging,^{18,19} and we collectively defined the genes of these six inflammation-associated gene sets as *Inflammaging gene set*, which comprises in total 689 genes (Table S1). Accordingly, we also found increased expression of genes encoding for interferon-inducible guanylate-binding proteins (Gbps) (*Gbp2*, 6, 7, 8, 9) (Figure S1D), which are involved in inflammasome activation.²² Most notably, we identified several genes involved in major histocompatibility class II complex (MHC-II)-mediated antigen presentation highly upregulated in the aged intestinal epithelium, including the invariant chain *Cd74* and the MHC-II transactivator *Ciita* (Figures 1B and 1C). Immunohistochemistry (IHC) staining confirmed a striking upregulation of MHC-II on the protein level in the epithelium of aged mice, including intestinal crypts, where ISCs are located (Figures 1E–1G).

In summary, our bulk RNA-seq approach identified that the aged intestinal epithelium shows signs of reduced mucosal immunity and develops a pronounced inflammaging phenotype in intestinal epithelial cells (IECs), including ISCs.

Inflammaging establishes differently in cells along the crypt-villus axis

Next, we aimed to identify individual ageing phenotypes for all epithelial cell types and to assess how the different cell types are affected by inflammaging. To this end, we isolated and sequenced single epithelial cells (EpCam⁺, CD45⁻) from the small intestine of three young and aged mice (Figure 1A). Transcriptomes with more than 10,000 total counts and less than 15% of counts from mitochondrial genes passed our quality control, resulting in 13,360 high-quality transcriptomes (8,240 from young and 5,140 from aged mice) (Figures S2A–S2C). To assign a cell type to each of our single-cell transcriptomes, we transferred refined cell-type labels from a reference dataset²³ for each replicate independently. This approach enabled us to distinguish all known intestinal cell types (Figures 2A and S2D) at similar fractions as reported previously²³ (Figure S1E). Importantly, all identified cell-type clusters corresponded to epithelial cell types, strongly indicating that our results were not

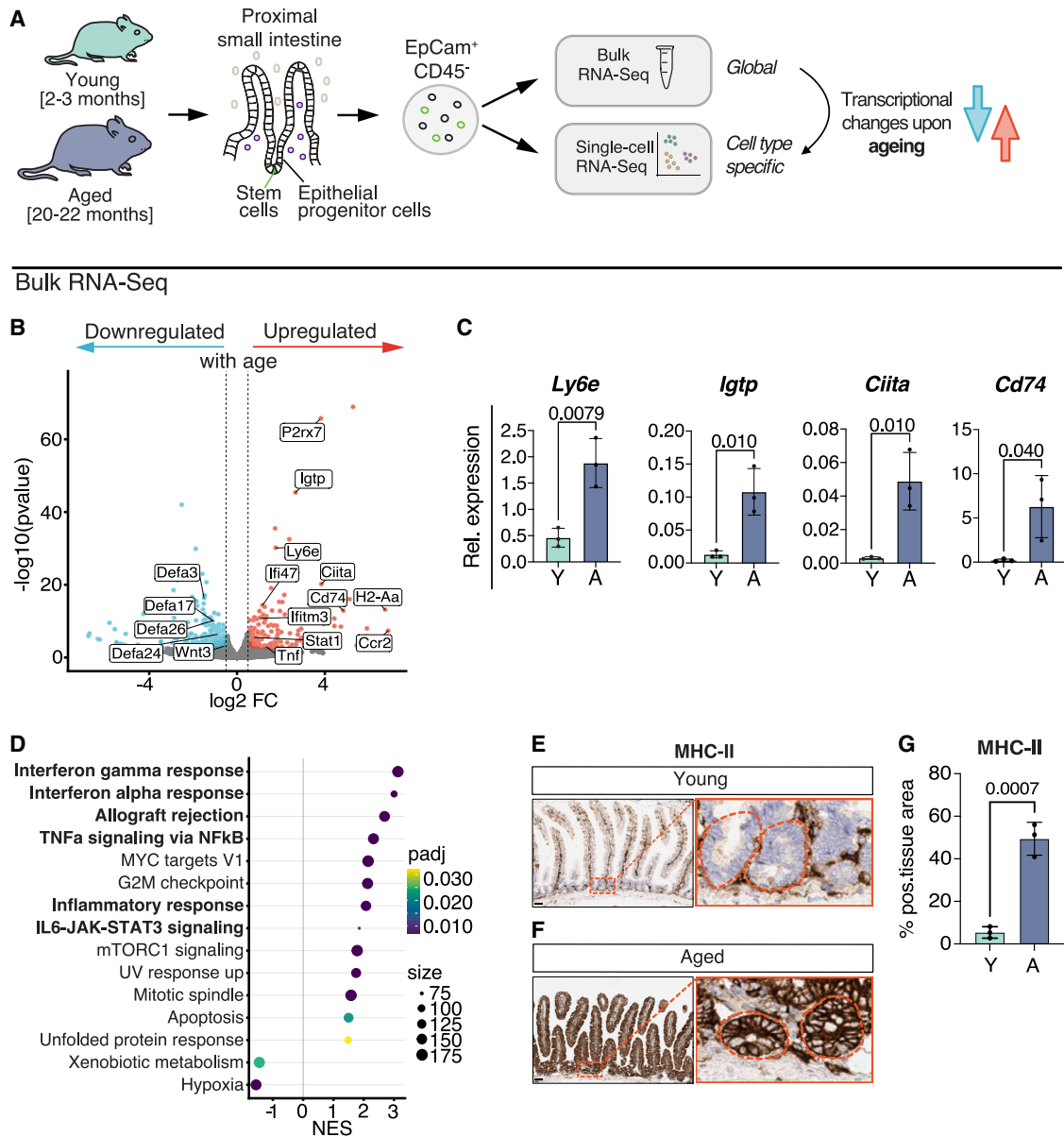


Figure 1. Intestinal epithelial cells develop chronic inflammation during ageing

(A) Schematic of the experimental approach of bulk and single-cell RNA-seq.
 (B) Volcano plot showing differentially expressed genes upon ageing (aged over young) in the small intestinal epithelium; red, significantly (false discovery rate, FDR ≤ 10%) upregulated (log₂ fold change, FC > 0.5); blue, significantly downregulated (log₂ FC < [-0.5]); gray, not significant and absolute log₂ FC < 0.5.
 (C) Transcriptional changes of *Ly6e*, *Igtp*, *Cd74*, and *Ciita* upon ageing in the small intestinal epithelium. Normalized transcript levels were assessed by quantitative real-time PCR. Data are represented as mean ± SD, and data points represent biological replicates. Statistical significance was tested by an unpaired t test (two-sided).
 (D) Normalized enrichment score (NES) based on gene set enrichment analysis upon ageing on hallmark gene sets (MSigDB), filtered for (FDR ≤ 5%).
 (E and F) IHC staining for MHC-II on whole intestinal tissue sections from young (E) and aged (F) mice. Inlet highlights intestinal crypt regions; scale bars, 50 μm.
 (G) MHC-II staining in (E) and (F) quantified as positive tissue area (n = 3 per young and aged mice). Data are represented as mean ± SD.
 See also [Figure S1](#) and [Table S1](#).

confounded by the presence of non-epithelial cells, such as hematopoietic cells. In a t-distributed stochastic neighbor embedding (tSNE), young and aged cells were evenly distributed across the different clusters, and the quantification of the fraction of cells per cell type did not detect substantial differences upon ageing ([Figures 2B](#) and [S1H–S1J](#)). PCA for all cell types together

showed that cell-type identity was largely maintained during ageing ([Figure S1F](#)), while within individual cell types, the age of the mice displayed the major source of variance between the samples ([Figure S1G](#)). These results identified robust transcriptomic changes in the aged epithelium at single-cell and cell-type levels.

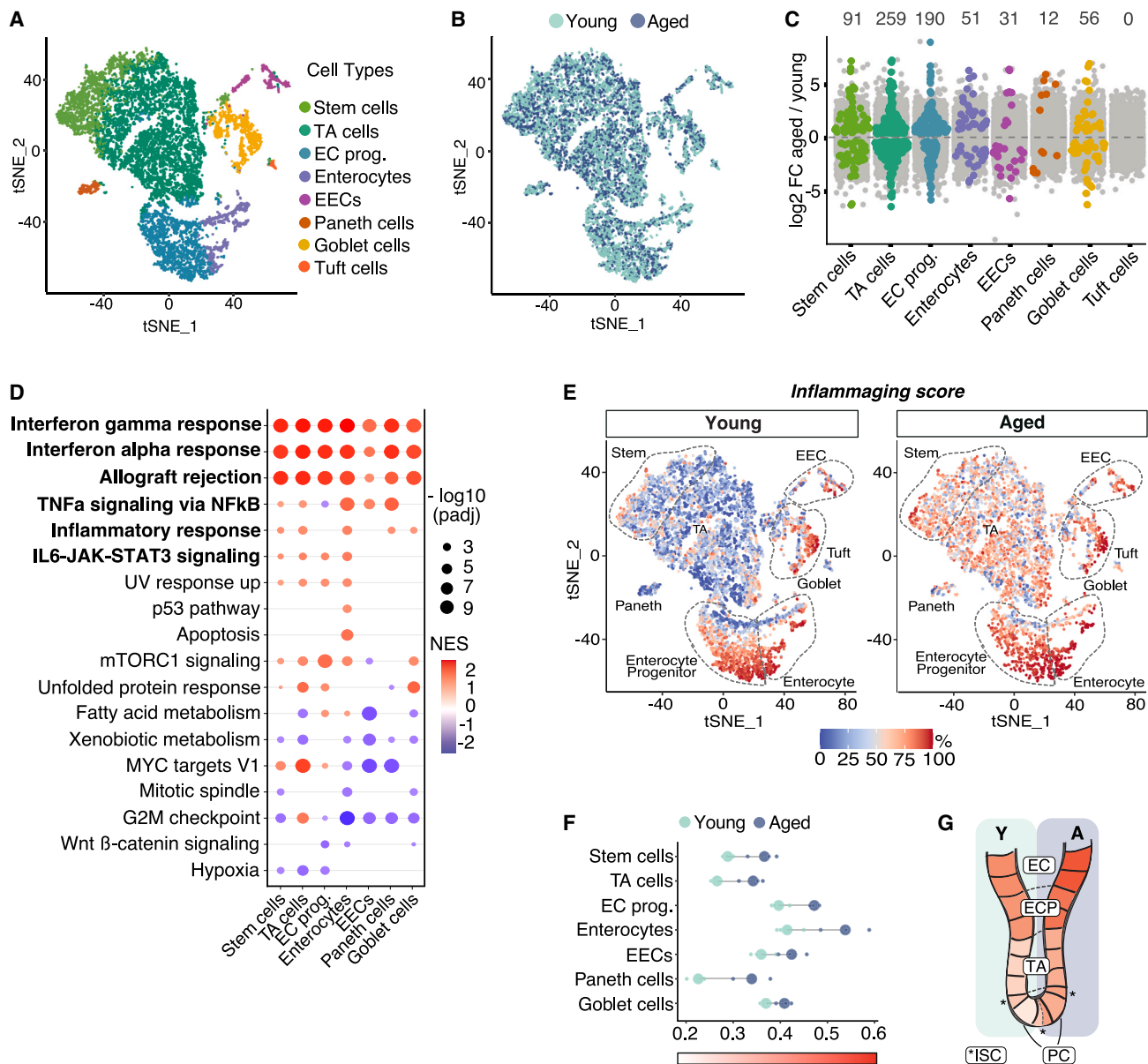


Figure 2. Inflammaging establishes differently in cells along the crypt-villus axis

(A) Cell-type assignment of all 13,360 sequenced cells from six different mice (3 young and 3 aged mice) visualized in a tSNE embedding.
 (B) tSNE visualization of all 13,360 sequenced cells, color-coded by the age of the respective mouse.
 (C) Number of differentially expressed genes in the small intestinal epithelium in young and aged mice per cell type. Significantly (FDR ≤ 10%) differentially expressed genes are colored in the respective cell-type-specific color; not significantly changed genes are displayed in gray.
 (D) Gene set enrichment analysis identifies broad enrichment of inflammaging gene sets in all cell types. Normalized enrichment score (NES) based on gene set enrichment analysis on hallmark gene sets for all cell types, filtered for FDR of ≤ 5%.
 (E) tSNE visualization of all young and aged cells separate and color-coded for their individual inflammaging score (quantile normalized).
 (F) Inflammaging score calculated for each cell type and for each sample (3 young and 3 aged mice).
 (G) Schematic of intestinal crypt (ISCs, PCs, and TA cells), enterocyte progenitors (ECP), and enterocytes (EC). Left side shows young intestine, while right side shows aged intestine. Color indicates the level of inflammaging according to the color scale in (F).
 Log₂ FC, log₂ fold change; TA, transit-amplifying cells; EC prog, enterocyte progenitors; EECs, enteroendocrine cells.
 See also Figures S1 and S2.

To determine transcriptional changes upon ageing in ISCs and IECs individually, we examined differentially expressed genes (DEGs) for each cell type (Figure 2C). We identified significant DEGs in all cell types, except in Tuft cells, due to the low

number of sequenced cells leading to insufficient statistical power. With 259 genes, we detected the highest number of DEGs in transit-amplifying cells (TA cells), while in ISCs, 91 genes were significantly changed upon ageing. Functionally, we

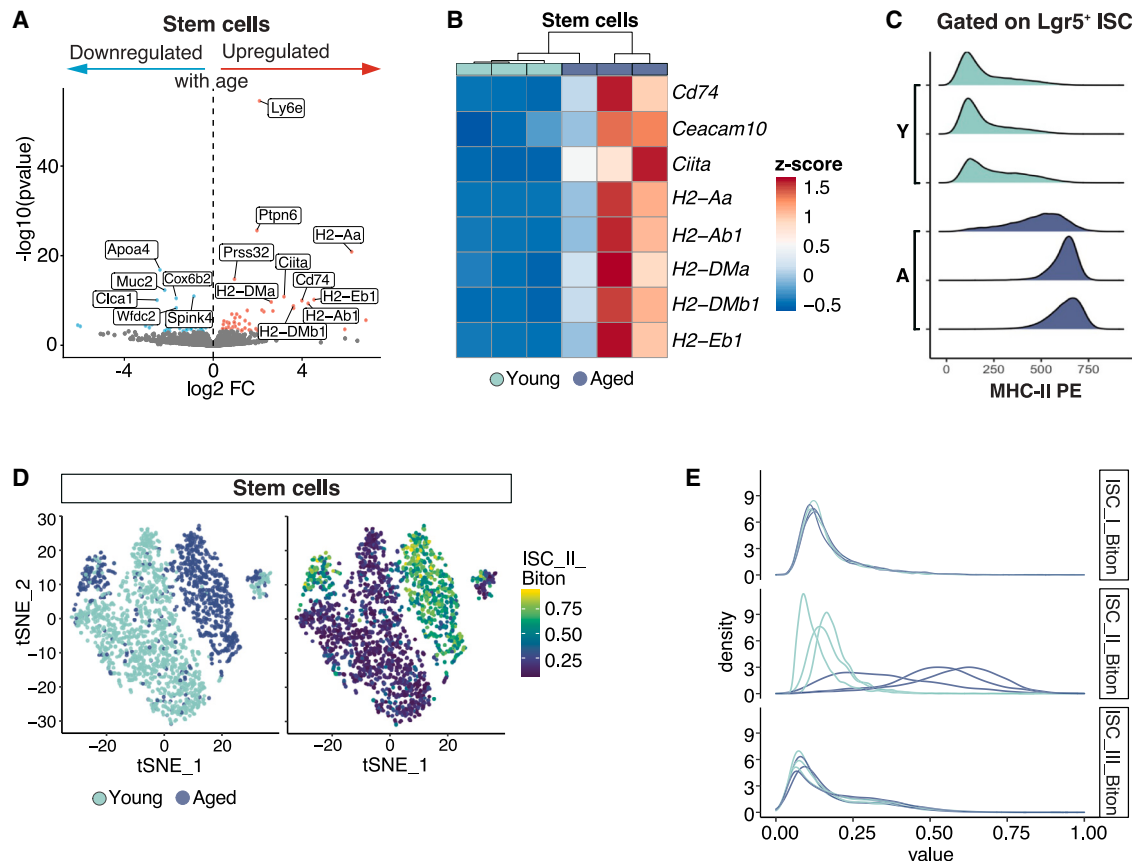


Figure 3. MHC-II upregulation as a hallmark of inflammaging in aged ISCs

(A) Volcano plot showing differentially expressed genes (DEGs) upon ageing in ISCs; red, significantly (FDR \leq 10%) upregulated; blue, significantly downregulated; gray, not significant. The 20 most significant DEGs are labeled.

(B) Upregulation of MHC-II gene expression in aged ISCs. Relative mean expression as Z score per MHC-II gene (row) and sample (column).

(C) Histograms depicting MHC-II surface expression in young and aged Lgr5⁺ ISCs, measured by flow cytometry.

(D) tSNE embedding of ISCs only, colored by age and by rescaled similarity to ISC-II cells of Biton et al.¹⁰ (Biton-ISC-II score): ISC age is major source of variation and correlated with ISC-II-score.

(E) Distribution of Biton-ISC-I to -III scores of cells across the three young and aged single-cell RNA-seq samples. Only ISC-II score is affected by age.

observed that ageing resulted in distinct signaling pathway changes across the individual cell types (Figure 2D). For example, fatty acid metabolism, which has been linked to intestinal ageing,¹² was enriched in aged enterocyte progenitors and enterocytes, while diminished in TA cells, EECs, and GCs. In contrast, inflammation-associated pathways of the *Inflammaging gene set* were enriched during ageing across all cell types. To resolve the inflammaging expression signature further to the single-cell level, we calculated an *Inflammaging score* per individual cell. For this, we aggregated the expression levels for all genes of the *Inflammaging gene set* and compared them with a random set of 100 genes with similar expression levels. We plotted the score for every single cell of the young and aged intestines separately in a tSNE visualization (Figure 2E). This analysis identified that in young tissue, ISCs, PCs, and TA cells in the intestinal crypt have a lower level of tonic inflammatory signaling than the cell types located above the crypt (Figure 2E), while upon ageing, the inflammatory status is clearly elevated in all cell types of the intestinal epithelium (Figures 2E and 2F). These results demonstrate that while inflammaging establishes

differently in cells along the crypt-villus axis, it affects all cell types of the aged intestinal epithelium (Figure 2G).

MHC-II upregulation as a hallmark of inflammaging in aged ISCs

ISCs are highly proliferative and constantly renew the entire epithelium every few days. Thus, ISCs are most critical for tissue homeostasis and especially susceptible to the manifestation of ageing phenotypes. To determine the impact of inflammaging on ISCs, we focused our analysis on the DEGs of the stem cell cluster. Among the 91 DEGs in aged ISCs, we identified the interferon-inducible gene *Ly6e* as the most significantly upregulated gene, alongside many MHC-II-encoding genes as well as *Ciita*, the transcriptional activator of MHC-II (Figures 3A and 3B). Generally, MHC-II molecules function on the cell surface by antigen presentation to CD4⁺ T cells,²⁴ and a recent study demonstrated that ISCs functionally present antigens to CD4⁺ T cells via MHC-II.¹⁰ To assess the functional relevance of increased transcript levels of MHC-II-encoding genes in aged ISCs, we measured MHC-II proteins on the cell surface of Lgr5⁺ ISCs

from young and aged mice. We detected a significant gain in MHC-II-derived signal on the surface of aged $Lgr5^+$ ISCs compared with that of young ISCs (Figure 3C). Thus, aged ISCs are marked by the upregulation of MHC-II, which are functionally located at the stem cells' surface, suggesting an increased potential for aged stem cells to interact with $CD4^+$ T cells. In a previous study, young $Lgr5^+$ ISCs were partitioned into three subsets (ISC-I-III) based on their expression of factors known to interact with immune cells, including MHC-II.¹⁰ Importantly, different stem cell characteristics were identified for the three ISC subsets. While stem cells in the ISC-I subset are low cycling and display most stem-like features, ISC-II and -III are more proliferative and progressively more differentiated. To test whether aged ISCs represent a higher overlap with one of these subsets, indicating a change in stem cell biology upon ageing, we scored the transcriptomes of our young and aged ISCs by their similarity to the three ISC subsets. Unsupervised clustering of ISCs showed a clear separation of young and aged cells (Figure 3D), and aged stem cells displayed high ISC-II scores compared with young ISCs (Figures 3D and 3E). In comparison, ISC-I and -III scores were not changed between young and aged cells (Figure 3E), indicating that aged ISCs shift toward a progressively more differentiated state with less stem-like features.

Increased MHC-II levels on aged ISCs are associated with elevated numbers and interactions with $CD4^+$ T cells

In order to address whether increased MHC-II levels on aged ISCs could mediate cellular interactions with surrounding immune cells that provide extrinsic signals to the epithelium and drive inflammaging, we investigated the ageing immune microenvironment. To this end, we performed 20-plex spectral flow cytometry on cells of the proximal small intestine of young and aged $Lgr5$ -EGFP reporter mice,⁶ enabling the quantification of all major immune cell populations at a single-cell level (Figure 4A). Clustering and dimensionality reduction of the recorded data allowed for distinction between $CD45^+$ immune cells and $EPCAM^+$ epithelial cells (Figure 4A). On the basis of known cell-type markers, we defined 12 different immune cell types within the $CD45^+$ population (Figures 4B and S3A–S3H). Stratifying the analysis by the age of the mice indicated an enrichment of $CD4^+$ and $CD4^+ CD8^+ TCR\alpha\beta^+$ T cells in the ageing intestine (Figures 4B and 4C). Further analysis identified a clear shift in the $TCR\alpha\beta^+$ T cell subtypes (Figure 4D). During ageing, the proportion of $CD4^+$ and $CD4^+ CD8^+$ T cells markedly increased from approximately 5%–10% of all $TCR\alpha\beta^+$ T cells, in accordance with previously reported proportions of intraepithelial lymphocytes,²⁵ to up to 25%–30% at the expense of $CD8^+$ T cells. On the basis of the described interaction of ISCs with $CD4^+$ T cells via MHC-II,¹⁰ we hypothesized that elevated MHC-II levels on ISCs might act as hub for increased ISC- $CD4^+$ T cell interactions. To test this, we quantified the abundance of potentially interacting cells by gating on $CD45^+ EPCAM^+$ double-positive heterotypic cell events²⁶ and further gated this population for $CD4^+$, $TCR\beta^+$, and $Lgr5^+$ (Figure S3I). This unveiled $CD4$ and $Lgr5$ double-positive events, indicating physically interacting ISCs and $CD4^+$ T cells. To further verify this interaction, we used the previous surface markers to gate double-positive cells (Figures S3I and S3J) and simultaneously captured images of these events by image flow cy-

tometry. This allowed us to directly visualize the ISC- $CD4^+$ T cell interaction pairs by flow cytometry (Figures 4E and S3K). IHC and immunofluorescence staining of small intestinal tissue sections further supported the existence of these interaction events *in vivo* (Figures 4F and S3L). Examining our spectral flow cytometry data, we found a tendency of increased interaction between $Lgr5^+$ ISC and $CD4^+ TCR\beta^+$ T cells in aged mice (Figure 4G). Probing our scRNA-seq data, we could also rule out an elevated co-occurrence of $Cd4$ and $Lgr5$ gene expression in cells of the intestine upon ageing (Figures S1K and S1L), which could have confounded our initial analysis.

In the ageing immune microenvironment, we detected elevated levels of PD-1 and PD-L1 (Figures S3M and S3N), indicators of T cell activation and exhaustion²⁷ as well as of FOXP3⁺ regulatory T cells (Figure S3O), which have a central role during immunological homeostasis.²⁸ Overall, these indicate a disbalance in immune homeostasis in the intestine upon ageing.

Taken together, our data show that the ageing immune microenvironment undergoes substantial changes, which include a shift in $TCR\alpha\beta^+$ T cell subtypes, resulting in elevated numbers of $CD4^+$ T cells. This alteration is associated with a trend toward an increased frequency of physical interaction between aged ISCs, which themselves have higher MHC-II levels, and $CD4^+$ T cells. As T cells are a major source of IFN- γ and other inflammatory mediators, this interaction may represent an extrinsic source to promote inflammaging in aged ISCs and IECs.

Aged ISCs propagate cell-intrinsic sources of inflammaging in intestinal organoids

Next, we aimed to decipher whether the inflammaging phenotype is mainly driven by direct interaction with the microenvironment, such as surrounding immune cells, or whether stem cells also acquire intrinsic sources of inflammaging. To this end, we assessed transcriptional changes in small intestinal organoids²⁹ that were generated from young and aged mice of 2–3 and 20–22 months, respectively (hereafter referred to as young and aged organoids) by bulk RNA-seq of six different organoid lines per age (Figure 5A). Prolonged culture period ensured immune-cell-free organoid cultures, as confirmed by our sequencing results, in which we could not detect $Cd45$, a pan hematopoietic cell marker. Therefore, recurrent passaging and renewal of organoid cultures from a limited population of ISCs should allow for the identification of age-related changes that are manifested intrinsic to ISCs during ageing, are propagated to progenitor cells, and are independent of immune cells.

First, we aimed to ascertain how well organoid cultures recapitulate the *in vivo* ageing phenotype. In a PCA, the age of the mice from which the organoids were generated was the first driving force to separate the samples (Figure 5B). This clear separation of *ex vivo* cultures by their age indicated that age-related transcriptional changes persist in culture for at least several weeks, independent of direct signals from the microenvironment. In total, we identified 599 genes significantly differentially expressed with age (Figure S4A), of which 147 genes overlapped with those detected *in vivo* (Figures S4B and S4C; Table S2). Within these 140 DEGs, we identified genes involved in the immune response as upregulated during ageing, such as $Ly6e$, $Ccr2$, $Ifitm3$, $P2rx7$, and Tnf (Figure 5C). When we analyzed the *in vivo* and *ex vivo* bulk RNA-seq datasets together, we observed

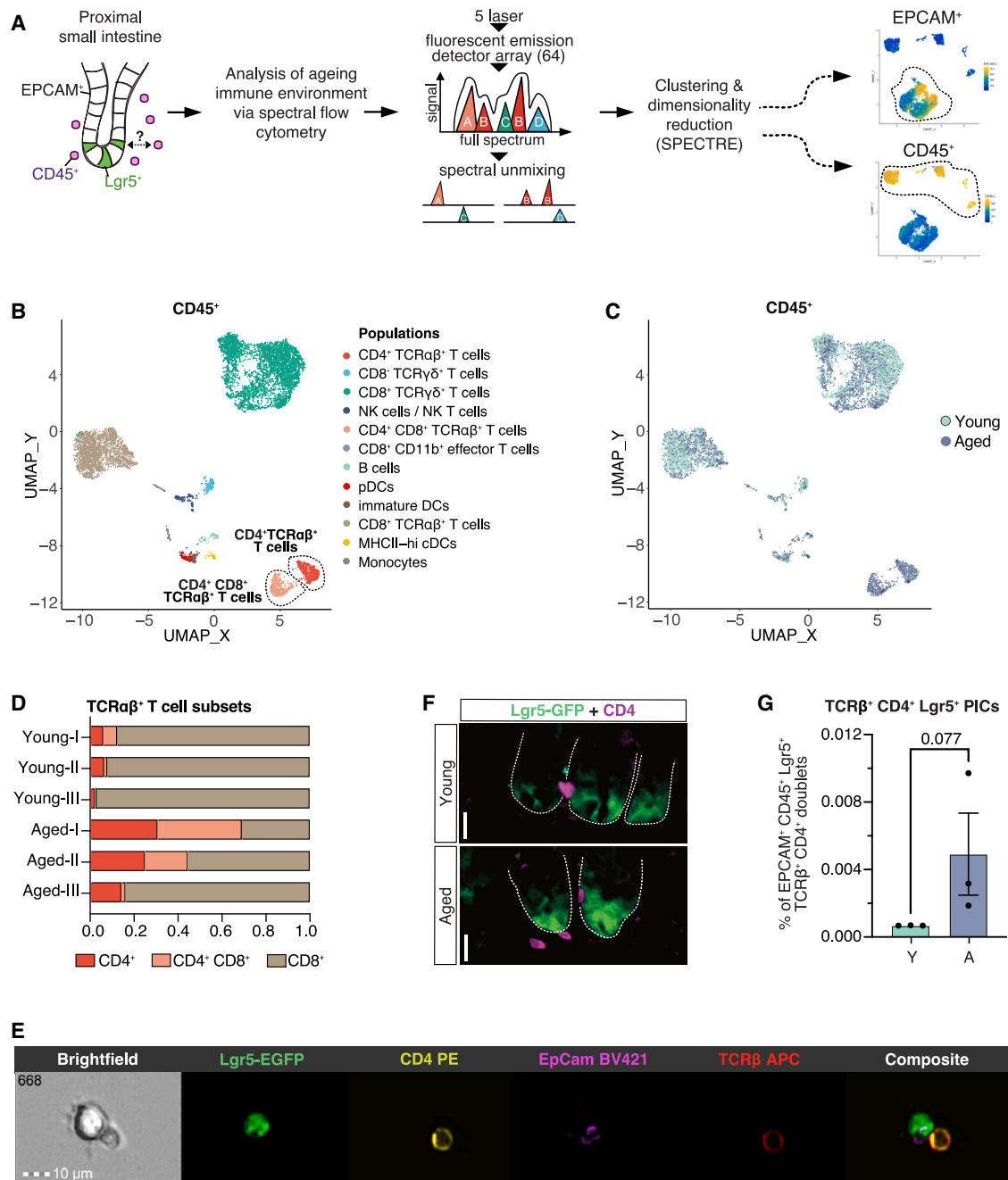


Figure 4. Increased MHC-II levels on aged ISCs are associated with elevated numbers and interactions with CD4⁺ T cells

(A) Experimental scheme for spectral flow analysis of the ageing intestinal immune microenvironment. Cells were split into CD45⁺ hematopoietic cells and EPCAM⁺ epithelial cells for downstream analysis.

(B) Representative UMAP display of surface measurements of single CD45⁺ hematopoietic cells from young and aged mice as described in (A). Colors indicate different cell types. 2,000 random cells from each of 3 young and aged mice are shown.

(C) UMAP from (B), colors indicate cells derived from young or aged mice

(D) Quantification of TCRαβ⁺ T cells in the intestine of individual mice by flow cytometry.

(E) CD4⁺/Lgr5⁺ interaction pairs, visualized as Lgr5-EGFP-, EpCam-BV421- and CD4-PE-, TRCβ-APC-positive cells by imaging flow cytometry.

(F) Composites of immunofluorescence staining against CD4 and GFP in the small intestine of Lgr5-EGFP mice. Intestinal crypts are highlighted with white dashed lines; scale bars, 25 μm.

(G) Quantification of TCRαβ⁺ CD4⁺ Lgr5⁺ cells out of CD45⁺ EPCAM⁺ double-positive heterotypic cell events as a percentage from all analyzed events. Data are represented as mean ± SEM and data points represent the results biological replicates. Statistical significance was tested by a Wilcoxon rank-sum test, p = 0.077.

See also [Figures S1](#) and [S3](#).

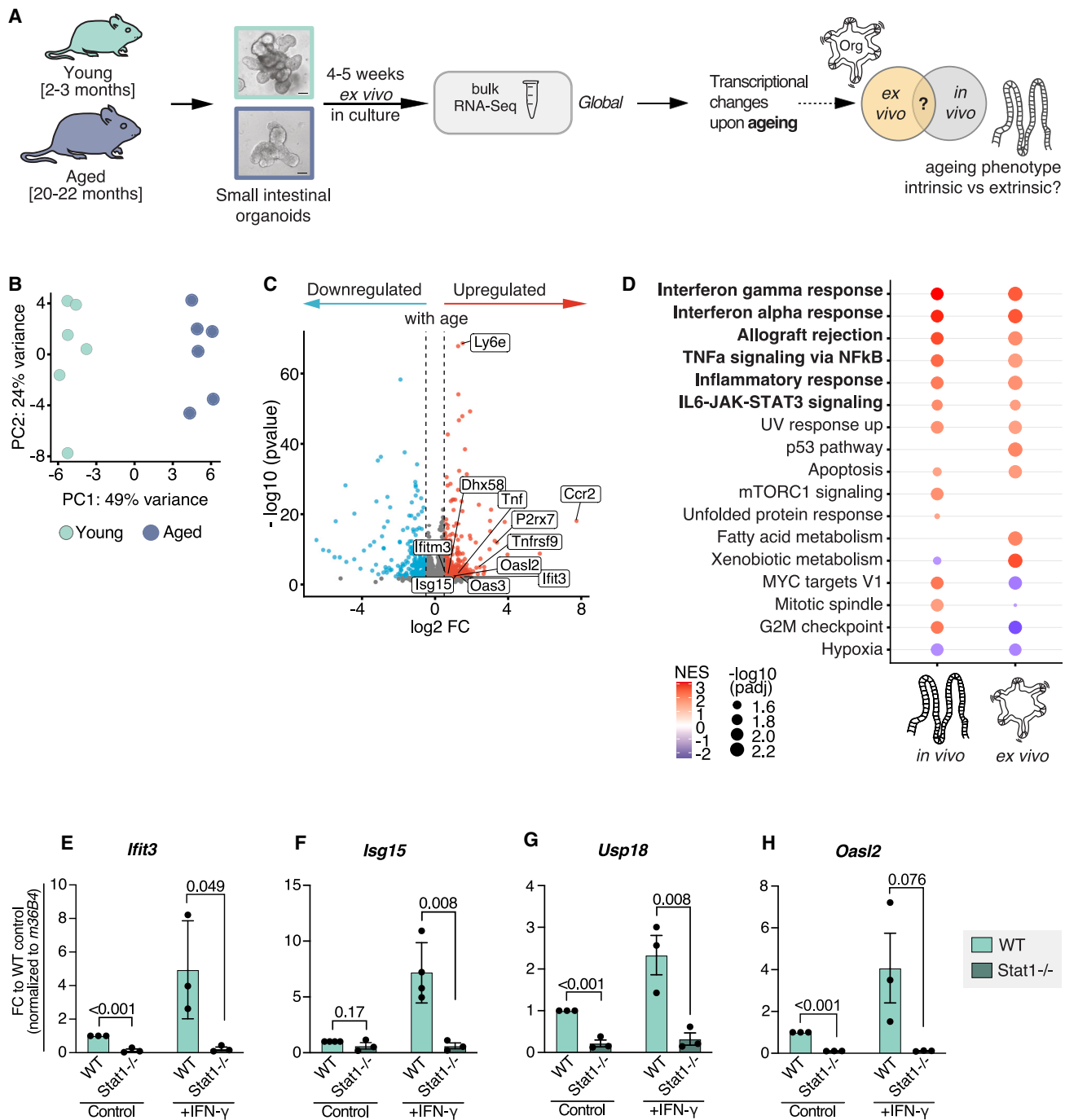


Figure 5. Aged ISCs propagate cell-intrinsic sources of inflammation in intestinal organoids

(A) Schematic of the experimental approach of bulk RNA-seq of small intestinal organoids.

(B) Principal-component analysis identifies the age of the mice (young, n = 6; aged, n = 6) from which the organoids were generated as the first driving force to separate the samples based on transcriptional changes.

(C) Volcano plot showing differentially expressed genes upon ageing (aged over young) in small intestinal organoids; red, significantly (FDR \leq 10%) upregulated (\log_2 FC > 0.5); blue, significantly downregulated (\log_2 FC < [-0.5]); gray, not significantly changed and absolute \log_2 FC < 0.5.

(D) Gene set enrichment analysis with side-by-side comparison of *in vivo* (left) and *ex vivo* (right) normalized enrichment score (NES); filtered for FDR of \leq 5%.

(E-H) Transcriptional changes of (E) *Ifit3*, (F) *Isg15*, (G) *Usp18*, and (H) *Oas2* in wild-type (WT) and Stat1 knockout (Stat1^{-/-}) organoids in control and IFN- γ (500 pg/ml, 6 h) treatment conditions. Transcript levels were assessed by quantitative real-time PCR (normalized to 36B4) in n = 3 biological replicates per age and treatment and calculated as fold change (FC) compared with the WT control condition. Data are represented as mean \pm SD, and data points represent the results of biological replicates. Statistical significance was tested by an unpaired t test (two-sided).

See also Figures S4 and S5 and Table S2.

a strong correlation between age-dependent DEGs (Figure S4D) and identified a stable age effect across all samples (Figures S4E and S4F). To further assess the overlap of age-related transcriptional changes between intestinal organoids and *in vivo* intestinal epithelium from a functional perspective, we compared the enriched gene sets between both bulk RNA-seq experiments. Notably, this analysis identified an enrichment for all six pathways previously defined as *Inflammaging gene set* in aged organoids (Figure 5D). In addition to the *Inflammaging gene set*, other pathways showed overlapping differential expression. For example, UV-response- and apoptosis-associated genes were upregulated, while hypoxia-associated genes were downregulated. Other pathways, such as the unfolded protein response or mTORC1 signaling, were exclusively enriched *in vivo*. From this, we concluded that organoids maintain some ageing phenotypes in culture, including the inflammaging phenotype of the aged intestinal epithelium, which is partially maintained in culture and persists even for a prolonged time of up to ten passages (Figures S4G and S4H).

To gain insight into the mechanism of the inflammaging phenotype, we examined the responsiveness and dependence of inflammaging genes on the IFN signaling pathway. As STAT1 functions as a major transcriptional regulator for IFN signaling pathways I and II,^{30,31} we generated organoids from a Stat1 knockout (KO) mouse model³⁰ and assessed the expression of inflammaging genes at the baseline state and upon IFN- γ stimulation (Figures 5E–5H, S4I, and S4J). At baseline, the expression of *Ifftm3*, *Iffit3*, *Oasl2*, and *Usp18* was significantly lowered in Stat1 KO compared with wild-type (WT) organoids, identifying a general dependence of these genes on STAT1 signaling in the intestinal epithelium. After 6 h of IFN- γ stimulation, WT organoids showed a 2.5- to 7-fold induction of gene expression, whereas Stat1 KO organoids showed no response to IFN- γ , demonstrating the dependence of genes of the inflammaging signature on STAT1 signaling.

Next, we targeted NF- κ B signaling, which had also shown an enrichment upon ageing. We treated organoids with TPCA-1 (Figures S4K–S4O), a known IKK β antagonist that primarily inhibits NF- κ B signaling.^{32,33} TPCA-1 has been shown to have anti-inflammatory effects in an identity by descent (IBD) model by reducing the secretion of inflammatory cytokines, including CXCL10.³² We observed a robust downregulation of *Cxcl10* expression upon TPCA-1 treatment in young and aged organoids (Figure S4L), confirming its efficient inhibitory function. *Isg15* and *Oasl2* were significantly downregulated by TPCA-1 in aged organoids to similar levels as observed in young ones (Figures S4M and S4N). However, we did not observe such an effect for *Ly6e*, which TPCA-1 did not reduce in young or aged organoids (Figure S4O).

In summary, epithelial cells develop an intrinsic inflammatory signature during ageing that persists in culture even in the absence of direct signals from the immune microenvironment. Mechanistically, the expression of inflammaging signature genes is dependent on STAT1 signaling. Moreover, the expression of some inflammatory genes can be attenuated by inhibition of the NF- κ B pathway. Since organoid cultures are repeatedly renewed from a limited population of ISCs, these results suggest that the inflammaging signature manifests intrinsic to ISCs during ageing and is propagated to newly arising cells of the organoids.

ISC-intrinsic inflammaging is primed on chromatin level

Next, we aimed to determine how cell-intrinsic inflammaging is maintained in culture without signals from the microenvironment. In the context of ageing, senescence-associated secretory phenotype (SASP) is a known potential source of cytokines that trigger inflammatory responses.³⁴ We detected SASP-associated cytokines secreted by organoids, but these showed no significant difference between the two age groups (Figures S5A–S5D). Furthermore, our bulk RNA-seq data also did not indicate a senescence phenotype. To extend our analysis to all secreted factors, we performed a functional secretome assay (Figure S5E). Here, young organoids were exposed to the secretome of aged organoids (A>Y) for 3, 6, or 24 h, and the expression of inflammaging genes (*Ly6e*, *Isg15*, *Iffit3*) was subsequently measured. Young organoids that were exposed to the secretome of young organoids (Y>Y) served as reference controls. We observed that the expression levels of the tested inflammatory genes in young organoids that were exposed to secretome of aged organoids are not higher than those in young-organoid-secreted factors (Figures S5F–S5H). From the results of the cytokine measurement and functional secretome assay, we concluded that secreted factors are unlikely to promote the inflammaging signature in aged organoids.

Previously a study on mouse tissue showed that ageing in the liver, heart, and neural lineage was associated with an inflammatory response accompanied by epigenetic remodeling.³⁵ Therefore, we asked whether epigenetic changes could underlie the inflammation-associated transcriptional changes observed in the aged small intestinal epithelium *in vivo* and explain how this transcriptional profile is maintained over weeks *ex vivo*. To test this hypothesis, we assessed changes in chromatin accessibility in young and aged small intestinal organoids by Assay for Transposase-Accessible Chromatin with high-throughput sequencing (ATAC-seq).³⁶ As expected, the majority of annotated peaks identified were located mainly in distal intergenic (30%) and promoter (26%) regions (Figure S6A). Remarkably, PCA showed a clear separation of young and aged samples based on open chromatin sites (Figure 6A). This demonstrated that chromatin accessibility changes upon ageing in IECs and that many of these changes are maintained in culture for at least several weeks. Differential accessible region analysis identified 2,442 peaks that changed significantly during ageing (Figure S6B). For example, we detected increased chromatin accessibility for *Ccr2*, *Ly6e*, and *Dhx58* (Figures 6B, S6C, and S6D), which are associated with immune response and inflammation and were also transcriptionally upregulated in aged organoids (Figure 5C). To investigate the mechanism that drives inflammaging in aged ISCs and progenitors, we assessed transcription factor (TF) binding sites enriched on age-dependent open chromatin regions. The enrichment analysis for genomic loci (*Locus Overlap Analysis*, LOLA)³⁷ showed an increased frequency of peaks associated with Stat1 and RelA, TFs that mediate immune and inflammatory responses (Figure S6E). Next, we plotted the significant DEGs of bulk RNA-seq against the significant peaks of the ATAC-seq and highlighted all genes belonging to our *Inflammaging gene set* (Figure 6C). This analysis identified that the transcriptional changes during ageing and the differentially accessible regulatory regions correlated with each other and showed the same directionality in their regulation. For example, *Ccr2* showed increased chromatin accessibility in aged organoids, which coincided with transcriptional upregulation

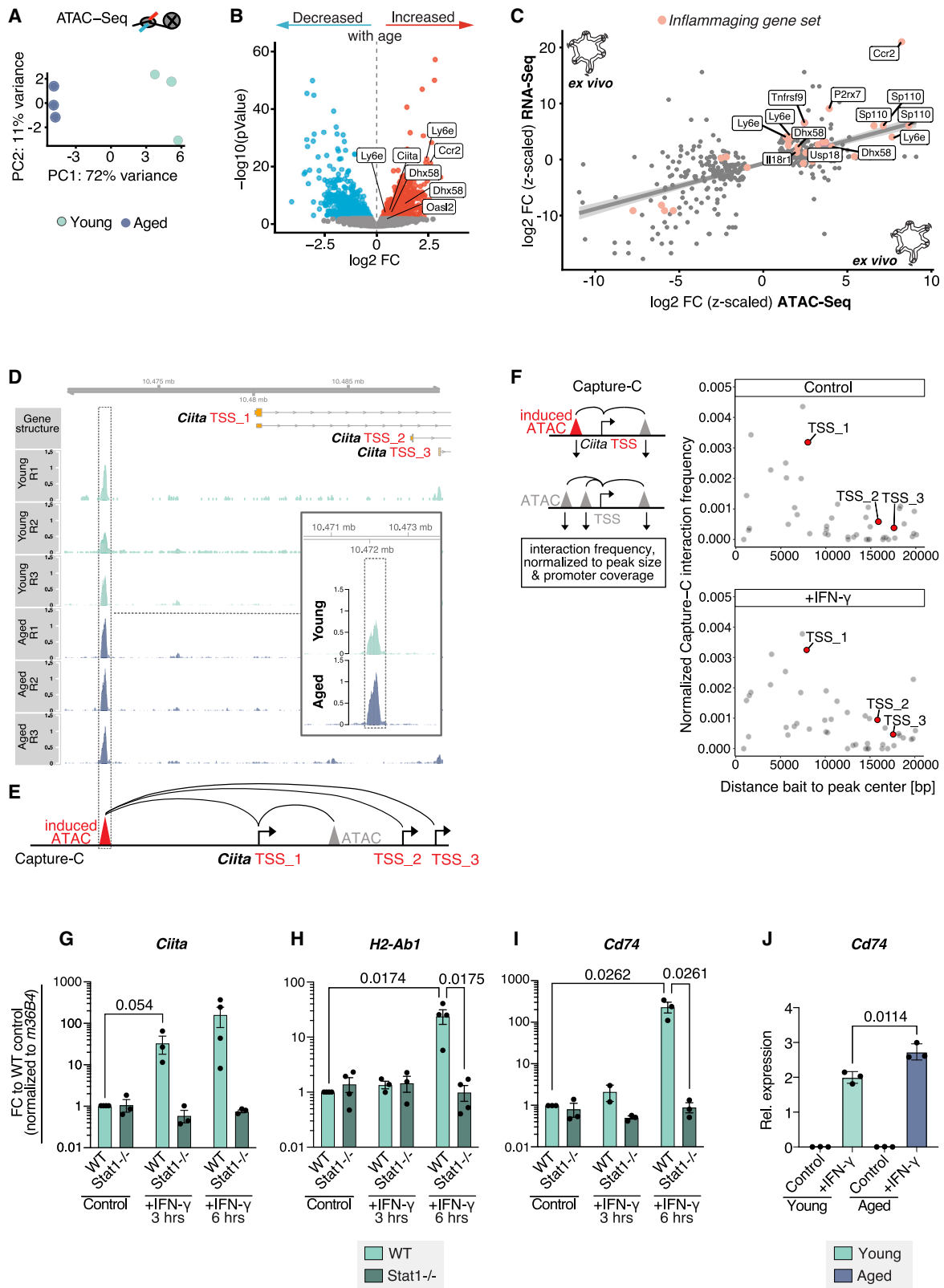


Figure 6. ISC-intrinsic inflammaging is primed on the chromatin level

(A) Chromatin accessibility in young and aged organoids was determined by ATAC-seq. PCA identifies the age of the mice (young: n = 3, aged: n = 3), from which the organoids were generated, as the first driving force to separate the samples.

(legend continued on next page)

during ageing (Figures 5C and 6B). Importantly, many genes that showed a similar trend to *Ccr2* belonged to the *Inflammaging gene set*, including *Ly6e*, *P2rx7*, *Usp18*, *Il18r1*, and *Tnfrsf9* (Figures 6C, 7D, 7E, S6C, and S6D), supporting our hypothesis that cell-intrinsic inflammaging is associated with chromatin remodeling. Based on the stem cell-dependent properties of intestinal organoids, these results suggest that age-associated chromatin remodeling manifests in aged ISCs and is transmitted to progenitor cells and therefore stable in culture over several weeks.

To test how the chromatin landscape from aged organoids would correlate with the age-dependent transcriptional changes of the *in vivo* epithelium, we plotted the significant peaks of the organoid ATAC-seq against the DEGs from the *in vivo* bulk RNA-seq experiment (Figure S6F). We observed a correlation between our bulk RNA-seq and ATAC-seq data, including genes of the *Inflammaging gene set*, suggesting that the elevated chromatin accessibility in the aged intestinal epithelium provides a permissive state for inflammatory signaling, and this epigenetic potential may be further exploited *in vivo*.

Interestingly, we also discovered in aged organoids a regulatory region with increased chromatin accessibility for *Ciita* (Figures 6B and 6D), the MHC-II transactivator that was strongly upregulated *in vivo* upon ageing (Figures 1B, 1C, 3A, and 3B). This finding piqued our interest because the expression of MHC-II-encoding genes is strongly reduced in culture, whereas co-culture with immune cells or direct treatment with IFN- γ has been shown to restore MHC-II expression.¹⁰ To assess whether IFN- γ treatment also induces *Ciita* expression in the intestinal epithelium, we treated intestinal organoids with IFN- γ and monitored the expression of *Ciita* and MHC-II genes *H2-Ab1* and *Cd74* over time (Figures 6G–6I). This identified a transcriptional induction of *Ciita* by approximately 30-fold as early as 3 h after treatment and a robust induction of *H2-Ab1* and *Cd74* after 6 h, reflecting the signaling dynamics of *Ciita* as MHC-II transactivator. Using Stat1 KO organoids,³⁰ we further demonstrated that the induction of *Ciita* and MHC-II genes by IFN- γ is strongly STAT1 dependent (Figures 6G–6I). To ascertain whether the induced ATAC peak 7 kb upstream of the first transcriptional start site (TSS_1) of *Ciita* (as highlighted in Figures 6D and 6E) is indeed regulatory for its gene expression and possibly

involved in IFN- γ -mediated transcriptional activation of *Ciita*, we examined the spatial proximity between this ATAC peak and the three TSSs of *Ciita* by low-input Capture-C³⁸ in aged control organoids after IFN- γ treatment. In control and IFN- γ -treated organoids, this approach demonstrated an enrichment in interaction frequency of the induced ATAC peak with *Ciita* TSS_1 compared with other promoter interactions with ATAC peaks within a 20-kb upstream and downstream radius, including *Ciita* TSS_2 and TSS_3 (Figure 6F). Importantly, the increased interaction frequency was observed independently of the total interaction frequency of the *Ciita* promoter (Figure S6G). Thus, our analysis strongly suggests that organoids exhibit age-related increased chromatin accessibility in a regulatory region of *Ciita*, indicating that *Ciita* possesses an increased epigenetic potential³⁹ for enhanced stimulation in aged IECs, which stays unexploited in culture due to the lack of extrinsic signals. *In vivo*, however, interaction with cells in the microenvironment, for example, IFN- γ -secreting immune cells, could trigger this primed potential. To test this increased sensitivity of MHC-II upon extrinsic stimulation, we treated organoids with IFN- γ , a key cytokine of CD4⁺ T cells, which are known to interact with ISCs (Figures 4E–4G and Biton et al.¹⁰). Indeed, IFN- γ treatment resulted in a more elevated transcriptional induction of the MHC-II genes *Cd74* and *H2-Ab1* in aged organoids than in young organoids (Figures 6J and S6H).

In summary, we identified an increase in open chromatin in inflammation-associated loci in aged ISCs and progenitors in *ex vivo* organoid cultures. These chromatin changes appear to be maintained in ISCs, being stable over several weeks in culture, and may underlie the intrinsic inflammaging signature of aged organoids. Our results also indicate that aged IECs harbor an increased epigenetic potential for inflammatory responses, which may be exploited by signals from the immune microenvironment, such as IFN- γ , a key cytokine of CD4⁺ T cells.

Changes in chromatin accessibility in the aged intestinal epithelium are established *in vivo* and maintained *ex vivo*

To determine whether age-related changes in chromatin accessibility, as observed in organoid cultures, are already established

(B) Volcano plot showing significantly (FDR \leq 10%) changed peaks of chromatin accessibility in genetic regions/loci upon ageing (aged over young) in small intestinal organoids derived from young (n = 3) and aged (n = 3) mice; red, increased (\log_2 FC > 0); blue, reduced (\log_2 FC < 0); gray, not significantly changed. (C) Scatterplot of the effects of ageing on the expression of genes as determined by bulk RNA-seq of intestinal organoids (y axis, z-scaled \log_2 FC) and on the chromatin accessibility as determined by ATAC-seq in intestinal organoids (x axis, z-scaled \log_2 FC). Genes of the inflammaging gene set are color highlighted, and a linear regression line indicates the agreement between the compared datasets (95% CI shaded gray). Only genes significantly (FDR \leq 10%) affected are included.

(D) Peak density in the regulatory region assigned to *Ciita* as assessed in intestinal organoids is shown for all young (n = 3) and aged (n = 3) samples in genomic coordinates close to *Ciita* by R/Gviz. Inlet shows aggregated peak densities per age.

(E) Schematic Capture-C approach: interaction of *Ciita* TSS_1–3 and other control gene promoters (listed in Table S4) with the induced ATAC peak (Figure 6D) and other ATAC peaks in a 20-kb radius was assessed.

(F) Normalized Capture-C interaction frequencies between ATAC peaks and gene promoters, plotted by the distance of peak center to promoter-overlapping bait center (bait: Capture-C probes designed against promoters of *Ciita* TSS_1–3 + control genes; Table S4) for control (top) and IFN- γ -treated (bottom) organoids. Red dots represent interactions of the induced ATAC peak highlighted in (D) and (E) with *Ciita* TSS_1–3 (as annotated in D and E).

(G–I) Transcriptional changes of (F) *Ciita*, (G) *H2-Ab1*, and (H) *Cd74* in wild-type (WT) and Stat1 knockout (Stat1^{-/-}) organoids in control and IFN- γ -treated (500 pg/ml) organoids (3 and 6 h). Transcript levels are shown in log scale and were assessed by quantitative real-time PCR (normalized to 36B4) in n = 3 biological replicates per age and treatment and calculated as fold change (FC) compared with the WT control condition. Data are represented as mean \pm SD, and data points represent the results of biological replicates. Statistical significance was tested by an unpaired t test (two-sided).

(J) Transcriptional changes of *Cd74* in young and aged organoids in control or IFN- γ treatment (2 ng/ml) conditions. Transcript levels assessed by quantitative real-time PCR (normalized to 36B4) in n = 3 biological replicates per age and treatment. Data are represented as mean \pm SD and data points represent the results of biological replicates.

See also Figure S6.

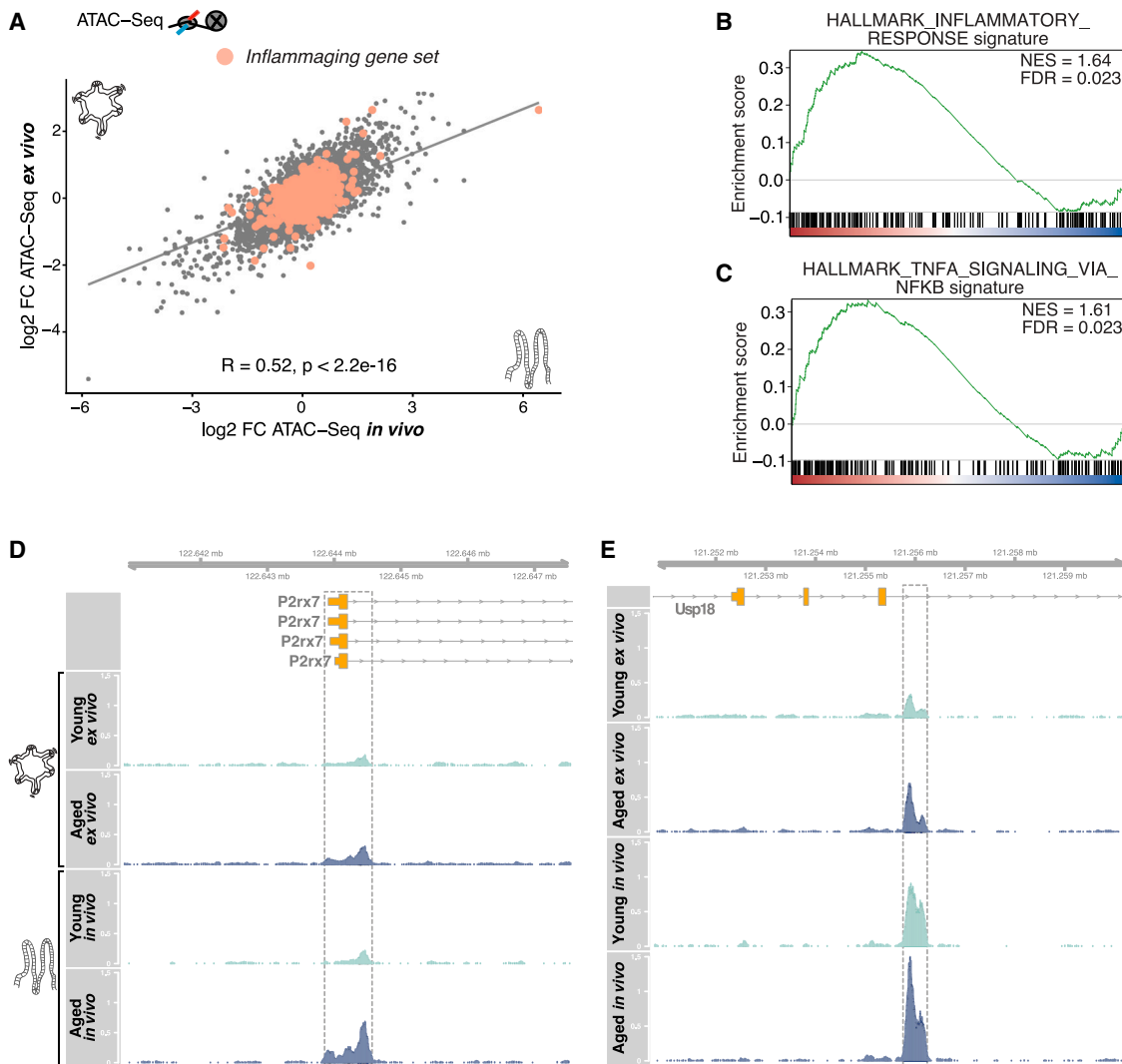


Figure 7. Age-related chromatin remodeling in the intestinal epithelium is established *in vivo* and maintained *ex vivo*

(A) Scatterplot of the effects of ageing on chromatin accessibility as determined by ATAC-seq of intestinal organoids (y axis, \log_2 FC) and *in vivo* intestinal epithelium (x axis, \log_2 FC). Genes of the inflammaging gene set are color highlighted. A linear regression line indicates the agreement between the compared datasets. Pearson correlation coefficient R and a p value (p) of a test for correlation are shown. All genes (irrespective of FDR) are included.

(B and C) Gene set enrichment analysis based on age-related changes in chromatin accessibility of freshly isolated *in vivo* intestinal epithelium. Normalized enrichment score (NES) based on gene set enrichment analysis on hallmark gene sets (MSigDB) and respective FDR are shown. The barcode indicates the position of gene-associated loci from the respective pathway according to their expression level (left/red, increased; right/blue, decreased).

(D and E) Peak density in the regulatory region assigned to (D) *P2rx7* and (E) *Usp18* as assessed in *ex vivo* intestinal organoids and freshly isolated *in vivo* intestinal epithelium is shown as aggregated peaks for all young (n = 3) and aged (n = 3) samples in genomic coordinates close to respective gene bodies by R/Gviz. See also Figure S7.

in vivo and then maintained *ex vivo* and do not display a culture artifact, we performed ATAC-seq from freshly isolated IECs from young and aged mice. As previously observed in organoid cultures, the majority of annotated peaks identified were located mainly in distal intergenic (30%) and promoter (29%) regions (Figure S7A). When we analyzed the *in vivo* and *ex vivo* ATAC-seq datasets together, we identified a stable age effect across all samples (Figure S7B). This indicated that age-related changes in chromatin accessibility of IECs are indeed established *in vivo* and are retained in culture. In line, the differentially accessible regulatory regions determined in freshly isolated epithelial cells and *ex vivo* organoid

cultures upon ageing showed a high correlation ($R = 0.52$, $p < 2.2e-16$) (Figure 7A), and many of the significantly differential ATAC peaks belonged to our *Inflammaging gene set* (Figures 7A, 7D, 7E, and S7C). This finding was confirmed by GSEA of the *in vivo* ATAC-seq dataset, which identified enrichment for inflammatory response and TNF- α signaling via NF- κ B signatures upon ageing (Figures 7B and 7C), as previously detected in transcriptional changes in *in vivo* and *ex vivo* samples (Figures 2D and 5D). In addition, analysis of transcription factor motifs on age-related changes in chromatin accessibility in our *in vivo* ATAC-seq dataset identified significant enrichment for the binding motif of the TF Jun

(Figures S8D and S7E), which has been shown to be involved in establishing an inflammatory memory in epidermal skin cells.⁴⁰

In summary, age-related changes in chromatin accessibility, including those at inflammation-associated loci, are established in the intestinal epithelium during ageing *in vivo* and largely maintained in *ex vivo* organoid cultures.

DISCUSSION

In this study, we aimed to dissect cell-intrinsic and -extrinsic sources of chronic inflammatory signaling during ageing, known as inflammaging, in the mouse small intestinal epithelium.

Previous studies have described inflammation in the aged intestine, either on tissue level or in isolated crypts.^{16,17} Using scRNA-seq, we were able to resolve the inflammaging phenotype down to a single-cell level of the intestinal epithelium and to define how it manifests differently along the crypt-villus axis. Interestingly, at a young age, the basal, low-level expression of inflammation-related genes was lower in cells of the intestinal crypt than in cells along the villi, in line with a previous report showing that the crypt structure shields ISCs from microbiota and external stimuli.⁴¹ However, the establishment of the inflammaging phenotype in aged cells appeared to be less dependent on their location along the crypt-villus axis, indicating that extrinsic signals are not the only factors to determine the inflammaging phenotype.

In aged ISCs, we identified a strong upregulation of MHC-II molecules, which mediate antigen presentation to CD4⁺ T cells. The functional role of MHC-II on epithelial cells has just recently started to be explored in more detail. MHC-II on lung epithelial cells were shown to be involved in maintaining barrier immunity and shaping the immune response.⁴² In the intestine, ISC-CD4⁺ T cell interactions via MHC-II are instructive for ISC differentiation and renewal, and MHC-II expression on ISCs is important for an efficient response during infection.¹⁰ In addition, high-fat-diet-induced reduction of MHC-II levels on ISCs can enhance intestinal tumorigenesis.⁴³ In our study, the strong upregulation of MHC-II in ISCs during ageing was associated with an increased frequency of CD4⁺ TCRβ⁺ T cells and a trend toward increased physical interaction between ISCs and CD4⁺ T cells. These findings allow hypothesizing that elevated levels of MHC-II on aged ISCs may promote epithelial inflammaging by attracting CD4⁺ T cells that secrete IFN-γ and other extrinsic inflammatory signals. Moreover, the data suggest that during ageing, a feedforward loop might manifest in the intestine: the increase in MHC-II levels, antigen presentation, and attraction of CD4⁺ T cells leads to elevated CD4⁺ T cells numbers and secretion of IFN-γ to ISCs, which in turn strongly induce MHC-II expression, as demonstrated in our organoid treatment experiments. Elucidating the chronology of these events will be an important aspect of future work and provide fundamental insights for developing anti-inflammatory interventions.

Ageing phenotypes observed *in vivo* display the result of crosstalk between many different cell types, making it difficult to dissect cell-intrinsic from -extrinsic effects. To disentangle the inflammaging phenotype, we exploited the *ex vivo* intestinal organoid cultures, which are renewed every few days from a limited ISC population. In aged organoids, we detected a stable age effect that persisted over weeks in culture, including an inflammaging pheno-

type in the absence of surrounding immune cells as an inflammatory trigger. To identify how aged intestinal organoids maintain the inflammaging signature in the absence of immune cells, we assessed open chromatin sites in our organoid cultures. The organization of the epigenome and transcriptome undergoes substantial changes upon ageing, as demonstrated in a set of murine organs, not including the small intestine.^{35,44} In our study, we show that age-related changes in chromatin accessibility are established already *in vivo* and maintained in *ex vivo* organoid cultures, thus independent of extrinsic signals from the microenvironment. Moreover, the ISC-intrinsic inflammaging signature coincides with increased chromatin accessibility in inflammation-associated loci, indicating that the ISC-intrinsic inflammaging is primed at the chromatin level, reminiscent of memory of inflammation in epithelial stem cells.⁴⁵ Future work will be required to identify what underlies the remodeling of the chromatin status at these genomic regions and if, for example, recurrent infections over a lifetime could enhance these modulations.

In addition to infections, age-related changes in the microbiome may be involved in the inflammaging phenotype. Inflammation can favor the colonization of pathobionts, which in turn can displace beneficial symbionts, for example, short-chain fatty acid (SCFA)-producing microbes.⁴⁶ Since SCFAs have anti-inflammatory functions, their decline in the intestinal mucosa may further exacerbate the inflammatory phenotype, creating a self-perpetuating cycle.

In summary, we provide evidence for stem cell-intrinsic sources of inflammaging. In addition, our data point to an extrinsic source, represented by IFN-γ secreted by CD4⁺ T cells inducing MHC-II and genes of the inflammaging signature via STAT1 signaling. These two sources may well act in parallel. Whether they are linked, for example, so that elevated IFN-γ levels in *in vivo* intestinal tissue are involved in the development of the cell-intrinsic inflammaging signature, is an interesting question for future experiments, as is the possible involvement of the microbiome.

Limitations of the study

Our study identifies stem cell-intrinsic sources of inflammaging that are associated with chromatin remodeling at inflammation-associated loci upon ageing. While we were able to exclude secreted factors as major driver to sustain the inflammatory signaling in culture, we cannot rule out that additional processes, such as deregulated endogenous retroviruses, or the microbiome are at play to facilitate age-related inflammation in the intestinal epithelium.

In addition to cell-intrinsic sources, our data provide evidence for an extrinsic source of inflammatory signaling, represented by CD4⁺ T cell-secreted IFN-γ, which induces MHC-II and genes of the inflammaging signature. While IFN signaling may well be involved in the chromatin remodeling in aged epithelial cells, our study could not directly link both sources of inflammatory signaling.

STAR★METHODS

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SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Supplemental information can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.devcel.2023.11.013>.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Conceptualization, M.C.F. and M.B.; investigation, M.C.F., F.H., D.V., Z.A., E.T., S.D.P., Y.T., J.H., D.H., S.M., and A.F.; formal analysis, F.H., J.G.G., E.V., D.V., S.M., A.F., and M.C.F.; visualization, M.C.F. and E.V.; writing – original draft, M.C.F.; writing – review & editing, M.C.F. and M.B.; funding acquisi-

tion, M.B.; supervision, M.C.F., O.S., D.T.O., A.F., S.H., M.H., and M.B. All authors edited and agreed on the manuscript.

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.

INCLUSION AND DIVERSITY

We support inclusive, diverse, and equitable conduct of research.

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STAR★METHODS

KEY RESOURCES TABLE

REAGENT or RESOURCE	SOURCE	IDENTIFIER
Antibodies		
Anti-mouse CD4	Thermo Fisher Scientific	RRID:AB_2865431
Anti-mouse CD8a	Thermo Fisher Scientific	RRID:AB_2572861
Anti-mouse FOXP3	Cell Signaling Technology	RRID:AB_2747370
Anti-mouse PD-1	R and D Systems	RRID:AB_354541
Anti-mouse MHC Class II	Novus	RRID:AB_10006678
Anti-rat HRP	Jackson ImmunoResearch	RRID:AB_233980
Anti-goat HRP	Agilent	RRID:AB_2617143
Anti-rabbit HRP	Leica Biosystems	RRID:AB_2891238
Anti-mouse CD4 PE	Thermo Fisher Scientific	RRID:AB_465506
Anti-GFP	Abcam	RRID:AB_300798
Anti-chicken 488	Thermo Fisher Scientific	RRID:AB_2534096
Anti-mouse CD45 BUV395	BD Biosciences	RRID:AB_2651134
Anti-mouse CD11b BUV805	BD Biosciences	RRID:AB_2871246
Anti-mouse CD11c BV711	BioLegend	RRID:AB_2563905
Anti-mouse CD274 BV421	BioLegend	RRID:AB_1089707
Anti-mouse CD279 PE-Dazzle	BioLegend	RRID:AB_2566547
Anti-mouse CD324 APC-Fire750	BioLegend	RRID:AB_2750301
Anti-mouse CD326 APC	Thermo Fisher Scientific	RRID:AB_2716944
Anti-mouse CD4 BUV496	BD Biosciences	RRID:AB_2813886
Anti-mouse CD44 Alexa Fluor 700	Thermo Fisher Scientific	RRID:AB_494011
Anti-mouse CD45R/B220 BUV661	BD Biosciences	RRID:AB_2870244
Anti-mouse CD8 PE-Cy5	Thermo Fisher Scientific	RRID:AB_468706
Anti-mouse F4/80 Pacific Blue	Thermo Fisher Scientific	RRID:AB_10373419
Anti-mouse Ly6C PerCP-Cy5.5	BioLegend	RRID:AB_1659242
Anti-mouse Ly6G BV605	BioLegend	RRID:AB_2565880
Anti-mouse MHC Class II (I-A/I-E)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	RRID:AB_465927
Anti-mouse NK1.1 BV785	BioLegend	RRID:AB_2564304
Anti-mouse TCR beta chain BV650	BioLegend	RRID:AB_2810348
Anti-mouse TCR gamma/delta PE-Cy7	BioLegend	RRID:AB_11203530
Anti-mouse CD326 BV421	BD Biosciences	RRID:AB_2738073
Anti-mouse CD4 PE	Thermo Fisher Scientific	RRID:AB_465506
Anti-mouse TCR beta APC	Thermo Fisher Scientific	RRID:AB_469480
Anti-mouse CD45 APC	Thermo Fisher Scientific	RRID:AB_469392
Anti-mouse CD326 PE	Thermo Fisher Scientific	RRID:AB_953619
Chemicals, peptides, and recombinant proteins		
AMPure XP beads	Beckman Coulter	A63881
T4 DNA Ligase, HC	Thermo Fisher Scientific	EL0013
TPCA-1	Sigma-Aldrich	T1452
Recombinant Murine IFN- γ	PeptoTech	315-05
Recombinant Murine IFN- γ (carrier-free)	BioLegends	575302
Critical commercial assays		
TruSeq Stranded mRNA Library Prep Kit	Illumina	20020594
HiSeq 3000/4000 SBS Kit (50 cycles)	Illumina	FC-410-1001

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Continued

REAGENT or RESOURCE	SOURCE	IDENTIFIER
Chromium Next GEM Single Cell 3' Kit v3.1, 16 rxns	10x Genomics	PN-1000268
NovaSeq 6000 S1 Reagent Kit v1.5 (100 cycles)	Illumina	20028319
Illumina Tagment DNA TDE1 Enzyme and Buffer Kit	Illumina	20034210
NextSeq 500/550 High Output Kit v2.5	Illumina	20024907
KAPA HyperCapture Reagent Kit	Roche	9075828001
KAPA HyperCapture Bead Kit	Roche	9075798001
NEBNext Ultra II DNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina	New England BioLabs	E7645L
NEBNext Multiplex Oligos for Illumina Primer sets 1	New England BioLabs	E7335S/L
NEBNext Multiplex Oligos for Illumina Primer sets 2	New England BioLabs	E7500S/L
QuantiTect reverse transcription kit	Qiagen	205311
Maxima SYBR Green/ROX qPCR Master Mix	Life Technologies	K0221
U-PLEX Custom Biomarker Group 1 (mouse) Assay	Meso Scale Discovery	K15069M
BOND Polymer Refine Detection Kit	Leica Biosystems	DS9800
Deposited data		
Sequencing reads (FASTQ)	GEO	GEO:GSE190286
Fluorescence signal data Spectral Flow Cytometry experiment (csv files)	FigShare	[https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.24271828]
Experimental models: Cell lines		
Mouse small intestinal organoid lines	This paper	N/A
Experimental models: Organisms/strains		
C57BL/6JRj	Janvier Labs	RRID:MG1:2670020
Lgr5-EGFP-IRES-creERT2	Jackson	RRID:IMSR_JAX:008875
B6.129S(Cg)-Stat1tm1Dlv/J	Durbin et al. ³⁰	RRID:IMSR_JAX:012606
Oligonucleotides		
Primer sequences for quantitative real-time PCR, see Table S3	This paper	N/A
Sequences of Capture-C probes, see Table S4	This paper	N/A
Software and algorithms		
Affinity Designer 1	Affinity Software	https://affinity.serif.com/de/designer/
Amnis IDEAS software v6.03.23	Amnis (now Cytek)	https://cytekbio.com/pages/imagestream
Amnis Inspire acquisition software v201.1.0.744	Amnis (now Cytek)	https://cytekbio.com/pages/imagestream
FlowJo v10	BD	https://www.flowjo.com/solutions/flowjo
SpectroFlo software	Cytek	https://cytekbio.com/pages/spectro-flo
GraphPad Prism v9	GraphPad Software	https://www.graphpad.com/features
Fiji	Schindelin et al. ⁷²	https://fiji.sc
QuPath 0.2.3	Bankhead et al. ⁷¹	https://qupath.github.io
Custom R-code	https://github.com/boutrosfab/Supp_Funk_2021	https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.8414654

RESOURCE AVAILABILITY

Lead contact

Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be fulfilled by the Lead contact, Michael Boutros (m.boutros@dkfz.de).

Materials availability

This study did not generate new materials or unique reagents.

Data and code availability

Sequencing (Fastq) data have been deposited at Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) and are publicly available as of the date of publication. Accession numbers are listed in the key resources table.

All original code has been deposited at GitHub (https://github.com/boutrosfab/Supp_Funk_2021) and Zenodo. DOIs are listed in the key resources table.

Any additional information required to reanalyze the data reported in this paper is available from the Lead contact upon request.

EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND STUDY PARTICIPANT DETAILS

Mouse husbandry

In this study, male mice of the strain C57BL/6JRj, Lgr5-EGFP-IRES-creERT2 (RRID:IMSR_JAX:008875) (referred to as Lgr5-EGFP reporter mice) and STAT1^{-/-30} (referred to as STAT1 KO, kind gift by Marieke Essers, DKFZ) were used and genotyped using primers listed in [STAR Methods](#) Key resource table. Young (2-3 months of age) and aged (20-22 months of age) mice were bought from Janvier Laboratories (C57BL/6JRj), where mice are maintained under specific-pathogen-free conditions and housed in a controlled environment and health status. Animals are kept at a day/night cycle of 12h/12h, cages are equipped with enrichment and mice are fed with a standard diet of 21% protein ad libitum. Lgr5-EGFP-IRES-creERT2 and STAT1^{-/-} were maintained under the same conditions in the DKFZ animal facility. Animals were sacrificed for organ removal and used for scientific purposes in accordance with Section 4 TierSchG; and according to institutional licenses (DKFZ223, DKFZ223-22, and DKFZ355) in compliance with German federal and state regulations.

Small intestinal organoid generation, maintenance & treatments

Small intestinal organoids were generated as described before.²⁹ Proximal small intestine was isolated, cleaned and villi were removed gently with a coverslip. The intestine was cut into small pieces and applied to serial washing steps in pre-chilled PBS and Penicillin-Streptomycin (100U) (15140122, Life Technologies). For crypt isolation the intestinal tissue pieces were transferred into 10 ml of Gentle Cell Dissociation Reagent (07174, STEMCELL Technologies) and incubated for 15 mins at room temperature (RT). After incubation, the tube was shaken vigorously for approximately to release the crypts and the solution was passed through a 70 μm cell strainer (43-10070-40, pluriSelect) into 30 ml PBS (20012027, Gibco) to stop the enzymatic digest and to exclude larger tissue pieces. Crypts were resuspended in Matrigel (Growth Factor Reduced, 356231, Corning) to obtain a final crypt concentration of 10 000 crypts per ml, which corresponds to 200 crypts per well of a 48-well plate. 20 μl of Matrigel-Crypt-Mix per well were seeded in a 48-well plate and 250 μl of IntestiCult Organoid Growth Medium (06005; STEMCELL Technologies) with Primocin (1:500, always added fresh) (ant-pm-05, InvivoGen) were added to each well and incubate at 37°C, in a humidified CO₂ incubator. Medium was renewed every 2-3 days and organoids were split every 7 days. For TPCA-1 treatment, organoids were treated with 5μM TPCA-1 (T1452, Sigma Aldrich) and controls with DMSO at the same final concentration for 24 hrs. For IFN_γ treatment, organoids were treated with 2ng/ml IFN_γ (575302, BioLegend Europe) or 500pg/ml IFN_γ (315-05, PeproTech) and controls with PBS for three, six or 24 hrs.

METHODS DETAILS

Single-cell dissociation of small intestinal tissue and FACS sorting of epithelial cells

Proximal small intestinal tissue was isolated, cleaned and incubated for 5 min in ice-cold PBS with 10 mM EDTA (AM9261, Invitrogen), followed by gentle shaking for 1 minute (min). Tissue was transferred into a new PBS solution with 10 mM EDTA and 10 μM Y-27632 (Dihydrochloride Rock inhibitor, SEL-S1049, Biozol Diagnostica), and incubated for 30 mins at 4 °C; released epithelial cells were filtered through a 70 μm cell strainer (43-10070-40, pluriSelect). To obtain a single cell suspension of epithelial cells, cells were resuspended in Advanced DMEM/F12 (AD) (11540446, Gibco) supplemented with TrypLE (12604-013, Gibco) and DNase I (0.3 U/mL (07900, STEMCELL Technologies)) and incubated 45 mins at 37 °C and further filtered through a 20 μm cell strainer (43-10020-40, pluriSelect). Cells were centrifuged and resuspended in 600 μl Blocking buffer (PBS + 2 % BSA (B9000S, New England Biolabs)) and incubated for 5 min on ice. Cells were stained with anti-CD326 (EpCam)-PE conjugated (12-5791-81; Invitrogen) and anti-CD45-APC conjugated (17-04510-82; eBioscience), both diluted 1:300 directly into the blocking buffer and incubated for 15 min on ice. Living cells were gated by DAPI dye exclusion, epithelial cells were isolated as EpCAM⁺, CD45⁻ cells and first 25 000 cells were sorted for single-cell RNA-Sequencing, and then 300 000 cells per sample for bulk RNA-Seq, into IntestiCult Organoid Growth Medium (06005; STEMCELL Technologies). Sorting was performed on a BD FACS Aria I cell sorter (100 μm nozzle size).

For bulk RNA-Seq, the cells were resuspended in 300 μl RLT buffer (79216; QIAGEN) with 1:100 β-Mercaptoethanol (63689; Sigma Aldrich). RNA extraction was conducted via QIAGEN RNeasy Mini kit (74106; Qiagen), including an on-column DNase digestion using the RNase-free DNase Set (79254; Qiagen).

Bulk RNA-Seq library generation & sequencing

Illumina sequencing libraries were prepared using the TruSeq Stranded mRNA Library Prep Kit (20020594, Illumina) according to the manufacturer's protocol. Briefly, poly(A)+ RNA was purified from 500 ng of total RNA using oligo(dT) beads, fragmented to a median insert length of 155 bp and converted to cDNA. The ds cDNA fragments were then end-repaired, adenylated on the 3' end, adapter ligated and amplified with 15 cycles of PCR. The libraries were quantified using Qubit ds DNA HS Assay kit (Life Technologies-Invitrogen) and validated on an Agilent 4200 TapeStation System (Agilent technologies). Based on Qubit quantification and sizing

analysis, multiplexed sequencing libraries were normalized, pooled and sequenced on HiSeq 4000 single-read 50 bp with a final concentration of 250 pM (spiked with 1% PhiX control).

Bulk RNA-Seq analysis of freshly isolated intestinal epithelium (1), intestinal organoids (2)

Raw sequencing reads were aligned using STAR aligner (vSTAR_2.6.1d).⁴⁷ To this end, the nf-core pipeline maseq (v1.4.2, doi: 10.5281/zenodo.1400710) was employed.⁴⁸ A conventional DESeq2 (1.30.1) pipeline was used to perform differential expression analysis.⁴⁹ (1) 23,703 or (2) 24,674 transcripts were detected. Variance stabilizing transformation was adopted to stabilize the variance of genes with low read count for visualization of the sample dispersion. Significantly differentially expressed genes were called within a threshold of FDR < 10 % and an absolute \log_2 FC > 0.5. Molecular signature and enrichment analysis were performed with the FGSEA package and hallmark signatures from MsigDB.^{50,51} Overlap analysis between experiments 1) and 2) was performed using the online Venn diagram tool () by VIB / U Gent, Bioinformatics & Evolutionary Genomics.

Single-cell RNA-Seq library generation & sequencing

Cells from the proximal small intestine were prepared for FACS sorting and living epithelial cells were gated by DAPI dye exclusion, epithelial cells were isolated as EpCAM⁺, CD45⁻ cells. Per samples, 25 000 cells were sorted into IntestiCult Organoid Growth Medium (0600-0, -2 and -3 combined, STEMCELL Technologies), centrifuged and directly processed for library generation with the 10x Genomics technology according to the manufacturer's protocol. Library generation was performed using the Chromium Controller instrument, the Chromium Single Cell 3' Library, and Gel Bead Kit v3, and the Chromium Single Cell B Chip Kit. All cleanup steps were conducted using AMPure XP beads (A63881, Beckman Coulter). In short, about 20,000 cells from each sample were loaded per lane of the chip. Gel Beads in Emulsion (GEMs) were successfully generated for all samples, reverse transcription of mRNA was followed by cDNA amplification using 11 or 12 PCR cycles. The final library was generated and amplified in a Sample Index PCR using 12 or 13 cycles. All libraries sequenced had an average fragment size of 483 – 515 bp. To minimize technical artifacts, we pooled the final libraries and sequenced the multiplex on 2 lanes of a NovaSeq 6000 instrument with 100 cycle S1 reagent kits (read1 (cell barcode + UMI): 28 bp, read2 (transcript): 94 bp, i7 (sample index): 8 bp).

Single-cell RNA-Seq analysis

Raw, demultiplexed sequencing data was processed with 'cellranger' v3.0.1⁵² with parameters '-transcriptome=mm10-1.2.0' and '-expect-cells=5000'. The filtered count matrices were further processed with Seurat v4.0.5: only cells with more than 10 000 UMI counts and with at most 15% of UMI counts from mitochondrial genes were selected for further analysis (Figure S2A). Cells from different replicates were integrated using Seurat's 'IntegrateData'.⁵³ For visualization, a tSNE embedding of cells was computed based on the first 10 Principal components of the integrated and scaled data, using a UMAP embedding of the same as initialization. Cells were assigned to their respective types based on the labels transferred from cells of²³ using Seurat's 'TransferData' but refining class labels along the Stem-Enterocyte axis to obtain simpler cell types, less dependent on cell cycle phases. Absolute differences in cell type ratios between young and aged samples was tested for with a paired t-test. Fold changes of cell type proportions were tested for with DESeq2 with size factors based on total counts and a global overdispersion estimate. Original UMI counts from all cells of each gene, sample and - for cell type specific analyses - cell type were aggregated by summation to form pseudo bulk aggregates and differential expression testing was performed on them separately for each cell type using DESeq2, adjusting for Chromium run. PCA embedding of samples was computed using DESeq2's 'varianceStabilizingTransformation' without adjusting for Chromium run. All single-cell RNA-seq analyses and visualizations have been performed in R v4.1.0 making heavy use of R packages 'data.table' and ggplot2.

Fgsea⁵⁰ (the fast R-package implementation of the pre-ranked gene set enrichment analysis algorithm (GSEA)⁵⁴) was used to perform the gene set enrichment analysis on each cell type based on a subset of the hallmark gene sets extracted from the Molecular Signature Database (MsigDB) collection. Those are gene sets that can be linked to the ageing process.

A smaller subset of 6 hallmark gene sets (HALLMARK_INTERFERON_ALPHA_RESPONSE, HALLMARK_INTERFERON_GAMMA_RESPONSE, HALLMARK_ALLOGRAFT_REJECTION, HALLMARK_TNFA_SIGNALING_VIA_NFKB, HALLMARK_INFLAMMATORY_RESPONSE, HALLMARK_IL6_JAK_STAT3_SIGNALING) was then combined to create the list of genes related to the inflammaging phenotype. That consisted of a total of 151 unique genes present in the single cell data. To associate an inflammaging score to each cell, later averaged to each cell type, the AddModuleScore function⁵⁵ from Seurat V4⁵⁶ was used. The inflammaging score was then scaled to range from 0 to 1.

Spectral flow cytometry

Single cells were isolated from the proximal small intestine of young and aged Lgr5-EGFP mice as described above for FACS sorting. For flow cytometric analyses cells were stained in PBS 2% FCS 0.5 mM EDTA for 25 min with corresponding antibodies (as listed in STAR Methods Key Resource table) and washed once, followed by centrifugation for 5 min at 400g. Finally, cells were filtered through a 35-40 μ M filter and acquired on a spectral analyzer (Cytek Aurora, Cytek).

Spectral flow cytometry data analysis

Recorded FCS files were unmixed using SpectroFlow (Cytek) and imported into FlowJo (BD). After gating out debris, doublet events and dead cells, expression data was transformed using the "logicle" transform using FlowJo (v.10.7.1). Exported files were loaded

into R and processed using the Spectre package⁵⁷ For clustering and dimensionality reduction, FlowSom⁵⁸ uniform manifold approximation and projection⁵⁹ were used. Epithelial cells and immune cells were identified via EPCAM and CD45 expression, respectively, and further subset for downstream quantification and surface marker expression analysis. CD45⁺ cells were annotated based on canonical cell type specific surface markers.

For analysis of heterotypic physically interacting cells, we followed a CD45⁺ EPCAM⁺ gating strategy from²⁶ and further analyzed interacting cells for co-expression of CD4, TCR β and Lgr5, which would identify Lgr5⁺ ISCs interacting with TCR β ⁺ CD4⁺ T cells. Frequency of such interacting cells was then quantified.

Image flow cytometry & data analysis

Single cell isolation, preparation and staining as described for Spectral Flow cytometry. Data acquisition occurred on a Luminex ImageStream MkII using the Inspire acquisition software (version 201.1.0.744). Cells were imaged using a 40x objective, at a low flow rate and an extended depth of field (EDF) imaging mode. Data analysis was performed with IDEAS software (version 6.03.23).

Organoid RNA isolation, cDNA generation and quantitative real-time PCR

Organoids from typically 3 wells were harvested in 300 μ l Cell Recovery Solution (354253; Gibco) and lysed in 300 μ l RLT lysis buffer. Samples were filtered with QIAshredder (79656; Qiagen) columns, followed by RNA isolation with QIAGEN RNeasy Mini kit (74106; Qiagen), including an on-column DNase digestion using the RNase-free DNase Set (79254; Qiagen). cDNA was prepared from 0.5–1 μ g total RNA with the QuantiTect reverse transcription kit (205311; Qiagen), according to the manufacturer's protocol. cDNA was diluted to 10 ng/ μ l and 20 ng were used for each quantitative real-time PCR reaction, using Maxima SYBR Green (K0221; Life Technologies) on the Lightcycler480 (Roche) in a 384-well format. Relative expression of each gene was calculated relative to the housekeeping gene *36B4* as $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$. Oligonucleotide sequences are listed in Table S3, all primers were validated prior to use in a cDNA dilution series.

Organoid single-cell dissociation and ATAC-Seq library generation

Per sample, organoids from 8 wells (48 well-plate) were harvested for single cell dissociation. Matrigel was dissolved using ice-cold Advanced DMEM/F12 (AD) (11540446, Gibco), washed once with AD and then subjected to an enzymatic digest with TrypLE (12604-013, Gibco) + DNase I (07900, STEMCELL Technologies) at a final concentration of 0.1 mg/ml for 5 mins at 37 C. Digestion was stopped by addition of AD + 10% FBS. Cells were washed twice with AD and then passed through a 20 μ m cell strainer (43-10020-40, pluriSelect) (pre-equilibrated with AD). ATAC-Seq library generation was based on.³⁶ Organoids were dissociated to single cells as described before. 100 000 single cells were treated with 50 μ l cold lysis buffer (0,1% NP-40 (492016, Millipore), 0,1% Tween-20 (P1379, Sigma Aldrich), 0,01% Digitonin (G9441, Promega) in Resuspension buffer (RB)) for 3 min on ice. Then 1 ml Washing buffer (0,1% Tween-20 in RB) was added to the cells and centrifuged for 10 min at 4C at 500g. Supernatant was discarded and the pellet including the nuclei was resuspended in a 50 μ l transposition reaction mix (Illumina Tagment DNA Enzyme and Buffer Kit, 20034210). Transposition reaction and PCR amplification was carried out according to,³⁶ using Nextera i5 and i7 index adapters to generate double index libraries. Libraries were purified via double-sided bead purification using AMPure XP beads (A63881, Beckman Coulter) and the library quality and quantity were assessed using Agilent High Sensitivity DNA Bioanalysis Chips (5067-4626, Agilent) and QuBit, respectively.

For ATAC-Seq libraries, of freshly isolated intestinal epithelial cells, tissue was dissociated and prepared for FACS-sorting as described below. Per sample, 100.000 epithelial cells (EpCAM⁺, CD45⁻) were sorted and then processed as described for organoids samples.

ATAC-Seq sequencing and analysis

ATAC-Seq libraries of all samples per *ex vivo* and *in vivo* experiment were pooled and sequenced on a NextSeq, Paired-end 75bp, this generated a total of 727 107 568 reads of which 725 802 530 passed quality control for the *ex vivo* experiment, for *in vivo* 733 374 374 reads of which 108 528 869. Raw reads were processed using the end-to-end integrated nf-core pipeline *atacseq* (version 1.2.1, <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.2634132>,⁴⁸). The results of the *broadPeak* analysis were used to pursue downstream analysis. The analysis was based on the ENSEMBL mouse genome release GRCm38.p6. Given the insights of the comparative analysis from Gontarz and colleagues we analysed our data set accordingly employing R/edgeR to call differentially open chromatin regions.^{60,61} As statistic for gene set enrichment analysis, we employed the equation $stat = qnorm(1-pvalue/2) * sign(\log_2 FC)$. Resulting differentially open peaks were annotated using ChipSeeker⁶² and the M. musculus mm10 UCSC transcript database (TxDb.Mmusculus.UCSC.mm10.knownGene). For PCA analysis data was variance stabilized using DESeq2. Differentially open peaks were called significant if their Benjamini Hochberg corrected p-value was below 0.1 (10 % FDR). For comparing ATAC-Seq differentially open chromatin regions with differentially expressed transcripts, results were merged by the official gene symbol. The \log_2 fold changes were z-scaled and results plotted. A linear regression shows the correlation of the two distributions. In order to understand the transcription factors involved in the regulation of transcripts by open chromatin regions, we employed Locus Overlap Analysis (LOLA) using the LOLACore database and differentially open chromatin regions in genes assigned to the HALLMARK of interferon gamma response.^{37,51} Results were visualized using R/Gviz and R/GenomicRanges.^{63,64} For motif enrichment analysis the monaLisa R package was used and enrichment of motifs was performed as described in the original publication using species number 10090.⁶⁵

Capture-C Extraction Protocol

Chromatin was extracted and fixed as described previously,⁶⁶ following the protocol for low input and adapting centrifugation steps to organoid cells (400 g). Briefly, 25,000 organoid cells were trypsinized, collected in 1ml medium and crosslinked with 134 μ l of 16% formaldehyde (1.89% final; ThermoFisher Scientific, #10751395) while rotating for 10 min at room temperature. Cells were quenched with 162 μ l 1M cold glycine, washed with cold PBS and lysed for 20 minutes at 4°C in 500 μ l lysis buffer (10mM Tris pH 8, 10mM NaCl, 0.2% NP-40, supplemented with cOmplete proteinase inhibitors (Roche)) prior to snap freezing on dry ice. Fixed chromatin was stored at -80°C.

Capture-C Library Construction Protocol

Capture-C libraries were prepared as described previously, following the recommendations for Low Input samples.⁶⁶ Briefly, lysates were thawed on ice, pelleted and resuspended in 200 μ l 1x DpnII buffer (New England Biology). The nuclei were subsequently permeabilized with SDS (ThermoFisher Scientific, AM9820, 0.28% final concentration, 1hr, 37°C, interval shaking 500rpm, 30 sec on/off), quenched with Triton X 100 (1.67% final concentration, 1hr, 37°C, interval shaking 500rpm, 30 sec on/off) and digested for 24 hours with 3x10 μ l DpnII (homemade, 37°C, interval shaking 500rpm, 30 sec on/off). The digested chromatin was then in situ ligated with 8 μ l T4 Ligase (240U, ThermoFisher Scientific, EL0013) in a volume of 1440 μ l (20 hours, 16°C). Following this, the nuclei containing ligated chromatin were pelleted to remove any non-nuclear chromatin, reverse-crosslinked and the ligated DNA was phenol-chloroform purified. The sample was resuspended in 100 μ l water and sonicated 13x (Bioruptor Pico, 30sec on/off) to obtain fragments of \sim 200bp, followed by a concentration using AmpureX beads (Beckman Coulter A63881, ratio: 1.8x). All material was adaptor-ligated and indexed in one reaction using the NEBNext Ultra II DNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina (New England Biolabs: E7645L) and NEBNext Multiplex Oligos for Illumina Primer sets 1 (New England Biolabs #E7335S/L) and 2 (New England Biolabs #E7500S/L). The libraries were amplified with 8 PCR cycles using Herculase II Fusion Polymerase kit (Agilent #600677) and their appropriate size assessed via Bioanalyzer. Capture-C probe sequences are listed in [Table S4](#).

Libraries were next hybridized in the following way: For each promoter-containing DpnII restriction fragment we designed one-two capture probes (aligned to mm10, 70bp each) using the online tool designed by the Hughes lab (CapSeqm2: <https://oligo.readthedocs.io/en/latest/>) with the following filtering parameters: Duplicates: <2, Density <30, SRepeatLength <30, Duplication: FALSE. Note that only one capture probe could be designed for the first Ciita TSS ([STAR Methods](#) Key Resource Table). The 5' biotinylated probes were pooled at a 2.9 nM each and the samples were multiplexed by mass prior to hybridization (2 μ g each, according to Qubit dsDNA BR Assay, Invitrogen #Q32850). Hybridization was carried out using the KAPA HyperCapture system (Roche, KAPA HyperCapture Reagent Kit #9075828001, KAPA HyperCapture Bead Kit #9075798001) according to Roche protocol for 72 hours followed by a 24 hours hybridization (double Capture). During the PCR amplification steps libraries were amplified for 18 cycles to ensure all of the low input sample is captured. Captured libraries were quantified by qPCR using the KAPA Sybr Fast Universal kit (KAPA #KK4602) and sequenced on Illumina NextSeq 500.

Capture-C analysis

Paired-end reads were aligned to mm10 and filtered for Hi-C artefacts using HiCUP⁶⁷ and Bowtie 2,⁶⁸ with fragment filter set to 100-800 bp. Quality was evaluated by ensuring a high proportion of valid reads (generally high, above 50%, for two IFN γ -treated samples of organoid 77 36.8 and 37.7%, respectively). High restriction digestion efficiency was assessed by evaluating the percentage of re-ligated fragments, suggesting that digestion efficiency was above 70% for all samples (lowest: 73.1%). Read counts of reads aligning to captured gene promoters were then called by CHICAGO.⁶⁹

For scatterplots we first determined all interactions between promoters and a given set of intervals (i.e. ATAC peaks). To enable a robust analysis of the Low Input data, ATAC peaks were extended for this to cover two adjacent DpnII restriction fragments on each side. Next, for each promoter-interval interaction we quantified the sum of read counts across all DpnII fragments overlapping this interval. This number was then divided by the total number of interval-overlapping DpnII fragments and total read coverage of the interacting promoter to obtain mean normalized read counts.

Cytokine assay

For the cytokine assay, we used the electrochemiluminescence-based multiplex assay⁷⁰ (K15069L-1; MSD U-PLEX Biomarker Group 1 (Mouse) Multiplex Assay; Meso Scale Discovery, Inc.) according to manufacturer's protocol. We measured the medium that had been added to organoid culture for 2 days before measurement. 4 biological replicates per age were measured in technical duplicates.

Histology, immunohistochemistry, immunofluorescence and quantification

Proximal small intestinal pieces were cleaned and fixed as swiss roll in 4% paraformaldehyde overnight at RT, paraffin embedded and sectioned (2 μ m). Immunohistochemistry was performed on a Bond max System (DS9800; Leica Biosystems), using the Bond Polymer Refine Detection Kit (DS9800; Leica Biosystems). Sections were first applied to a peroxide blocking step for epitope retrieval using Epitope Retrieval Solution I and II (AR9640, Leica Biosystems), followed by primary antibody incubation for 30 mins at RT (PD-L1: 1 hr incubation time) and secondary antibody for 20 mins at RT used antibodies are listed in [STAR Methods](#) Key Resource Table. DAB enzymatic staining development was performed for 10 mins at 37C, using the Enzyme Pretreatment Kit (AR9551; Leica Biosystems) and followed by a counterstaining with Hematoxylin (AR9551; Leica Biosystems). Slides were scanned with a Leica

Aperio AT2. For quantification the QuPath analysis software⁷¹ was used. In brief, regions for measurement were selected, followed by the positive cell detection command, which counts all cells and all DAB-positive cells, resulting in the percentage of positive cells in the region of interest. Intensity threshold parameters for the positive cell detection command were as follows: Score compartment: Nucleus: DAB OD mean; Threshold: 0.15, 0.2 or 0.3 depending on the analysed staining while thresholds for the same staining were not changed between samples. MHC-II staining was analysed with the Fiji software⁷² using the threshold command first to select tissue area and second to detect DAB-positive tissue areas. Statistical significance was tested by an unpaired t-test (two-sided). 3-4 biological replicates per age were stained and quantified.

For immunofluorescence staining, sections were blocked with 5% normal goat serum, anti-GFP antibody was incubated over night at 4C. Anti-chicken-488 and CD4-PE antibodies were incubated on the next day for 2 hrs at RT. Slides were scanned with a ZEISS Axioscan7.

QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

All statistical tests were performed with the GraphPad Prism Software (Version 9.2.0 & 9.5.0) or in the R program. All experiments include at least 3 biological replicates (biological replicate is defined as individual animal or organoid line derived from an individual animal) per age group or per treatment. Statistical details are described in the respective figure legend and exact p-values are plotted within the respective graph.