IL-22 and its receptors are increased in human and experimental COPD and contribute to pathogenesis

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30	Take home message
31	IL-22 and its receptors are increased in both human and experimental COPD. IL-22
32	drives neutrophilic inflammation and impaired lung function in experimental chronic
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ABSTRACT Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease (COPD) is the third leading
 cause of morbidity and death globally. The lack of effective treatments results from
 an incomplete understanding of the underlying mechanisms driving COPD
 pathogenesis.

Interleukin (IL)-22 has been implicated in airway inflammation and is increased in
COPD patients. However, its roles in the pathogenesis of COPD is poorly
understood. Here, we investigated the role of IL-22 in human COPD and in cigarette
smoke (CS)-induced experimental COPD.

IL-22 and IL-22 receptor mRNA expression and protein levels were increased in COPD patients compared to healthy smoking or non-smoking controls. IL-22 and IL-22 receptor levels were increased in the lungs of mice with experimental COPD compared to controls and the cellular source of IL-22 included CD4⁺ T-helper cells, $\gamma\delta$ T-cells, Natural Killer T-cells and group 3 innate lymphoid cells. CS-induced pulmonary neutrophils were reduced in IL-22-deficient (1/22-/-) mice. CS-induced airway remodelling and emphysema-like alveolar enlargement did not occur in II22-/mice. *II22^{-/-}* mice also had improved lung function in terms of airway resistance, total lung capacity, inspiratory capacity, forced vital capacity and compliance.

These data highlight important roles for IL-22 and its receptors in human COPD and
 CS-induced experimental COPD.

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66 Introduction

Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease (COPD) is the third leading cause of morbidity and death and imposes a significant socioeconomic burden globally [1]. It is a complex, heterogeneous disease characterised by chronic pulmonary inflammation, airway remodelling and emphysema, which are associated with progressive lung function decline [2]. Cigarette smoke (CS) is a major risk factor for COPD [2]. The mainstay therapies for COPD are glucocorticoids, β_2 -adrenergic receptor agonists and long-acting muscarinic antagonists [3]. However, these agents only provide symptomatic relief rather than modifying the causal factors or suppressing disease progression [3]. There is emerging interest in altered lung and gut microbiomes and the gut-lung axis that could be modified for therapeutic gain [4, 5]. Nevertheless, there is currently a lack of effective treatments for COPD due to the poor understanding of the underlying mechanisms.

Interleukin (IL)-22 is a member of the IL-10 cytokine family that is implicated in several human diseases, including mucosal-associated infections and inflammatory disorders of the lung [6]. CD4⁺ T-helper cells, $\gamma\delta$ T-cells, natural killer T (NKT)-cells and group 3 innate lymphoid cells (ILC3) are generally the major cellular sources of IL-22 [6]. Unlike IL-22, expression of the IL-22 receptor (IL-22R) is largely restricted to structural cells. This ligand-receptor distribution permits immune cells to regulate responses of stromal cells and particularly at barrier surfaces such as the lung, where epithelial cells play an active role in initiating, regulating, and resolving immune responses. IL-22R is a cell surface heterodimer consisting of IL-22RA1 and IL-10RB [6]. IL-22RA2 is a naturally occurring IL-22 antagonist that negatively regulates IL-22-induced inflammatory responses [6, 7]. Functional studies in murine systems indicate that IL-22 has immune-regulatory properties in infection,

inflammation, autoimmunity, and cancer [6]. In these models, the functional consequences of IL-22 expression can be either pathologic or protective, depending on the context in which it is expressed. Indeed, increased IL-22 levels and IL-22⁺ cells have been demonstrated in the blood, sputum and lung biopsies of COPD patients [8]. The role of IL-22 in lung antimicrobial defence and the impact of COPD on this defence pathway has been reported [9, 10]. In experimental COPD Haemophilus influenzae infection impaired IL-22 production and wild-type and IL-22deficient (-/-) mice had impaired clearance [10]. CS exposure suppressed Streptococcus pneumoniae induced IL-22 production and treatment with recombinant IL-22 restored bacterial clearance [11]. Despite this, there is limited knowledge of the role IL-22 plays in COPD pathogenesis independent of respiratory infection.

Here, we investigate its role using gene expression analysis of airway epithelial brushings and parenchymal cores from human COPD patients, an established mouse model of CS-induced experimental COPD that recapitulates the critical features of human disease [4, 12-18], and IL-22 reporter and II22-/- mice [19]. IL-22 and IL-22R mRNA and protein were increased in the airways of mild-moderate COPD patients. IL-22 and IL-22⁺ T-cells and ILC3s were increased in experimental COPD. CS-induced pulmonary neutrophilic inflammation, airway remodelling and emphysema were reduced and lung function was improved in *II22^{-/-}* mice compared to WT controls, thus implicating IL-22 in COPD pathogenesis.

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113 Methods

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3 4	116	
5 6	117	Human gene expression. Analysis of IL22, IL22RA1, IL10RB and IL22RA2 in
7 8 9	118	published human array datasets (Accession numbers: GSE5058 and GSE27597)
10 11	119	[20-22] was performed using Array Studio software (Omicsoft Corporation, Research
12 13	120	Triangle Park, NC, USA).
14 15 16	121	
17 18	122	Mice. Female, 7-8-week-old, WT C57BL/6 mice, <i>II17a^{eGFP/+};II22^{td-tomato/+}</i> reporter and
19 20	123	II22-/- mice on a C57BL/6 background [19].
21 22 22	124	
23 24 25	125	Experimental COPD. Mice were exposed to normal air or nose-only inhalation of CS
26 27	126	for eight weeks in a protocol representative of a pack-a-day smoker as extensively
28 29	127	described previously [4, 12-18, 23, 24].
30 31 32	128	
33 34	129	qPCR. Total RNA was extracted from whole lung tissue and blunt-dissected airways
35 36	130	and parenchyma and reversed transcribed [13]. mRNA transcripts were determined
37 38	131	by real-time quantitative PCR (qPCR, ABIPrism7000, Applied Biosystems, Scoresby,
39 40 41	132	Victoria, Australia) using custom designed primers (Integrated DNA Technologies,
42 43	133	Baulkham Hills, New South Wales, Australia) (supplementary table 1).
44 45	134	
46 47 48	135	Flow Cytometry. IL-17A ⁺ and IL-22 ⁺ CD4 ⁺ T-cells, $\gamma\delta$ T-cells, NKT-cells and ILC3s
49 50	136	in lung homogenates were determined based on surface marker expression
51 52	137	(supplementary table 2) [25-27] using a BD FACSAriaIII. Flow cytometry antibodies
53 54 55	138	were from Biolegend (Karrinyup, Australia) or BD Biosciences (North Ryde,
55 56 57	139	Australia) (supplementary table 3, supplementary figure 1).
58 59 60	140	

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Pulmonary Inflammation. Airway inflammation was assessed by differential enumeration of inflammatory cells in bronchoalveolar lavage fluid (BALF) [12, 14, 28, 29]. BALF supernatants were stored at -20°C for assessment of IL-22 protein levels. Tissue inflammation was assessed by enumeration of inflammatory cells [12-14, 29] and histopathological scoring based on established criteria [30].

ELISA. IL-17A, IL-22, MPO and neutrophil elastase protein levels were quantified with commercially available ELISA kits (R&D Systems or Biolegend) [19].

Immunohistochemistry (IHC). Lungs were perfused, inflated, formalin fixed, paraffin embedded, and sectioned (4µm)[13, 14]. Longitudinal sections of the left lung were deparaffinized and stained with antibodies against IL-22RAa1 or IL-22RAa2. IHC in human samples is described in online supplement (supplementary tables 4-65)[31] -

Airway Remodelling. Airway epithelial (μm^2) and collagen deposition area (μm^2) were assessed in a minimum of four small airways (basement membrane [BM] perimeter <1,000µm) per section [12-14, 17, 18]. Data were guantified using ImageJ software (Version 1.50, NIH) and normalised to BM perimeter (µm).

Alveolar Enlargement. Alveolar diameter was assessed using the mean linear intercept technique [12-14, 17, 18, 32].

Lung Function. Mice were anaesthetised with ketamine (100mg/kg) and xylazine (10mg/kg), tracheas cannulated and attached to Buxco® Forced Manoeuvres

apparatus (DSI, St. Paul, Minnesota, USA) to assess total lung capacity (TLC) [12, 13]. FlexiVent apparatus (FX1 System; SCIREQ, Montreal, Canada) was used to assess lung volume, airway resistance, inspiratory capacity (IC), forced vital capacity (FVC), compliance and elastance (tidal volume: 8mL/kg, respiratory rate: 450 breaths/min) [12, 33, 34].

> **Results**

IL-22 and IL-22R mRNA expression and protein levels are increased in human COPD

We first determined whether the mRNA expression of IL-22, and its receptors IL-22RA1 and IL-10RB and antagonist IL-22RA2 were altered in humans with mild-to-moderate COPD (GOLD Stage I or II Accession: GSE5058 [20, 21, 35]). Pre-existing microarray data from airway epithelial brushings of healthy non-smokers, healthy smokers and COPD patients were interrogated [20]). IL22, IL22RA1, IL10RB and IL22RA2 mRNA expression were not significantly altered in airway epithelial brushings from healthy smokers compared to non-smokers (Figure 1a-d). Importantly, however, IL22 (2.01-fold), IL22RA1 (2.48-fold), IL10RB (3.26-fold) and IL22RA2 (1.78-fold) mRNA expression were increased in airway epithelial brushings from patients with mild-to-moderate COPD compared to non-smokers. Similar results were observed when mild-to-moderate COPD was compared to healthy smokers.

We then assessed the mRNA expression of IL-22 and its receptors in pre-existing microarray data from lung parenchyma cores from severe COPD patients (GOLD Stage IV [35] Accession: GSE27597 [22]). There was no change in IL22, IL22RA1, IL10RB or IL22RA2 expression in cores from COPD patients compared to

non-smokers without COPD (Figure 1e-h). IL-22, IL-22RA1, IL-22RA2 and IL-10RB were unchanged in peripheral lung tissue from patients with mild emphysema (supplementary figure 2 from GSE8581). There was no significant correlation between pack years and IL-22, IL-22RA1 and IL-22RA2 gene expression in lung tissue (supplementary figure 3 from GSE17770). Using lung cancer as a disease control, no differential expression of IL-22, IL-22RA1, IL-22RA2 or IL-10RB in either bronchial brushings (GSE4115) or lung tissue (GSE1650) between healthy smokers and subjects with lung cancer were observed (supplementary figures 4-5).

Finally, we assessed IL-22 and receptor protein levels in human COPD by IHC. The percentage of IL-22⁺ alveolar macrophages and IL-22RA1⁺ and IL-10RB⁺ airway epithelial cells were increased in COPD compared to age- and smoke historymatched smokers with normal lung function (**Figure 2**, **supplementary figure 6** and supplementary tables 6-9). No change in IL-22RA2 was detected (supplementary table 8).

In a separate cohort of COPD patients, IL-22RA1 was also increased in
 airway epithelial cells of current smokers with COPD compared to non-smokers
 (Supplementary Figure 7 and supplementary table 10). When combined with ex smokers with COPD, these IL-22RA1 signal in the airway epithelium is lost
 (Supplementary Figure 7).

IL-22 and receptor protein levels are increased in the lungs in experimental COPD

We next investigated the expression of IL-22 and its receptors in CS-induced experimental COPD, which models mild-to-moderate COPD. We first confirmed that IL-22 was increased in experimental COPD. *II22* mRNA was difficult to detect in Page 13 of 69

mouse lungs, therefore we assessed protein levels by ELISA in both whole lung homogenates (includes both airways and parenchyma) and BALF supernatants. CS-exposure of WT mice resulted in increased IL-22 protein levels in lung homogenates, but not BALF supernatants compared to normal air-exposed controls (figure 3a-b). IL-22 protein levels were unaltered following 1 week of CS exposure (supplementary figure 87). Collectively, these data show that IL-22 is increased in both human and experimental COPD and are consistent with previous reports [8].

Next, we assessed IL-22 receptor expression in blunt-dissected airways versus parenchymal tissue [13]. CS-exposure had no statistically significant effect on *II22ra1* or *II10rb* mRNA expression, but did reduce *II22ra2* expression in the airways compared to normal air-exposed controls (figure 3c-e). CS exposure also did not affect II22ra1 or II22ra2 mRNA expression, but did increase II10rb expression in the parenchyma compared to normal air-exposed controls (figure 3f-h). Whilst no statistically significant differences in *ll22ra1* mRNA expression were observed in this model, it is notable that *ll22ra1* mRNA expression was ~10-fold higher in the airways than the parenchyma.

Finally, we assessed IL-22 receptor protein expression in mouse lung tissue sections. CS-exposure resulted in notable increases in both IL-22RA1 and IL-22RA2 protein levels, particularly in airway epithelial cells but also alveolar macrophages (supplementary figure 98).

IL-22⁺ CD4⁺ T-cells, $\gamma\delta$ T-cells, NKT-cells and ILC3s are increased in the lungs in experimental COPD

Given that IL-22 is increased in both human and experimental COPD, we next defined the cellular source of increased pulmonary IL-22 using II17aeGFP/+; II22td-

tomato/+ reporter mice that enable the detection of IL-17A⁺ and IL-22⁺ cells without ex vivo stimulation. CS-exposure of reporter mice resulted in increased numbers of IL-17A⁺, IL-22⁺ and IL-17A⁺IL-22⁺ CD4⁺ T-cells, $\gamma\delta$ T-cells, NKT-cells and ILC3s compared to normal air-exposed controls (figure 4a-p). We then assessed the relative proportions of these cells following CS-exposure (figure 4q-s). As previously shown [36], γδT-cells were the dominant source of IL-17A following CS exposure (figure 4g). CD4⁺ T-cells, NKT-cells, and ILC3s were the major IL-22-producing cells (figure 4r), whilst NKT-cells were the dominant source of dual IL-17A⁺IL-22⁺ cells (figure 4s).

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250 CS-induced pulmonary neutrophils were reduced in *II22^{-/-}* mice

We next investigated whether IL-22 plays a role in the pathogenesis of experimental COPD. WT and *II22^{-/-}* mice were exposed to normal air or CS for 8 weeks [12-18]. Pulmonary inflammation in BALF was assessed by staining and differential enumeration of inflammatory cells. CS exposure of WT mice resulted in significantly increased total leukocytes, macrophages, neutrophils and lymphocytes compared to normal air-exposed WT controls (figure 5a-d). CS-exposed II22^{-/-} mice also had increased numbers of these cells compared to normal air-exposed II22-1- controls. Neutrophils were significantly reduced, but total leukocytes, macrophages and lymphocytes were unaltered in CS-exposed II22^{-/-} mice compared to CS-exposed WT controls.

We then assessed inflammatory cell numbers in lung tissue sections [12-14, 262 29]. CS exposure of WT mice significantly increased inflammatory cell numbers in the parenchyma compared to normal air-exposed WT controls (**figure 5e-f**). CS-263 exposed *II22^{-/-}* mice also had increased parenchymal inflammatory cells compared to

their normal air-exposed controls. Numbers of parenchymal inflammatory cells were
 not different between CS-exposed *II22^{-/-}* and WT mice.

Next, histopathology was scored according to a set of custom-designed criteria as described previously [30]. CS exposure of WT mice increased histopathology score, which was characterised by increased airway, vascular and parenchymal inflammation (**figure 5g-k**). CS-exposed *II22^{-/-}* mice also had increased histopathology, airway, vascular and parenchymal inflammation scores compared to their normal air-exposed controls. *II22^{-/-}* mice had a small but significant reduction in total histopathology score, compared to CS-exposed WT controls.

We then profiled the mRNA expression of chemokines and cytokines, other than IL-22, that are involved in neutrophil influx into the lung including chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand (CXCL)1, CXCL2 and IL-17A [37]. CS-exposure of WT mice resulted in significantly increased Cxcl1, Cxcl2 and Il17a mRNA expression compared to normal air-exposed WT controls with Cxcl1 and Cxcl2 having approximately 200-fold greater expression than *II17a* (figure 51-n). CS-exposed *II22*-^{*L*} mice also had increased expression of *Cxcl1* and *ll17a*, but not *Cxcl2* compared to normal air-exposed *II22^{-/-}* controls. There was a significant reduction in *CxcI2*, but not Cxcl1 or II17a mRNA expression in CS-exposed II22-1- mice compared to CS-exposed WT controls. Protein levels of IL-17A, MPO and neutrophil elastase were increased in CS-exposed WT mice, but were unaltered in *II22^{-/-}* mice (supplementary figure 109).

CS-induced increases in airway epithelial area, collagen deposition
 and emphysema-like alveolar enlargement do not occur in *II22^{-/-}* mice

We have previously shown that CS-exposed WT mice develop small airway (increased epithelial area), fibrosis (collagen deposition) and remodellina emphysema-like alveolar enlargement after 8 weeks of CS exposure [12-14, 17, 18, 32]. Thus, we next determined whether IL-22 contributes to these disease features. In agreement with our previous studies, CS exposure of WT mice increased small airway epithelial cell area compared to normal air-exposed WT controls (figure 6a-**b**). In contrast, CS-exposed *II22^{-/-}* mice had no change in airway epithelial cell area compared to normal air-exposed *II22^{-/-}* controls.

CS-exposed WT mice had increased collagen deposition compared to normal air-exposed WT controls (figure 6c-d). However, CS-exposed II22^{-/-} mice did not have increased collagen deposition compared to *II22^{-/-}* normal air-exposed controls.

CS-exposed WT mice had significantly increased alveolar diameter compared to normal air-exposed WT controls (figure 6e-f). CS-exposed II22-1- mice did not have increased alveolar diameter compared normal air-exposed *II22^{-/-}* controls.

As a result of the relatively small differences in airway epithelial area, collagen deposition and alveolar diameter the differences were not statistically different between CS-exposed *II22^{-/-}* mice and CS-exposed WT controls.

CS-induced lung function impairment is improved in *II22^{-/-}* mice

We next assessed the role of IL-22 in CS-induced impairment of lung function, measured in terms of lung volume, airway resistance, TLC, IC, FVC and compliance. CS-exposed WT mice had increases in all of these parameters compared to normal air-exposed WT controls (Figure 7a-f). In CS-exposed *II22^{-/-}* mice none of these lung function parameters were significantly different compared to normal air-exposed *II22*-¹⁻ controls. Again, likely due to small changes in mild-moderate experimental COPD,

these lung function parameters were not significantly altered in CS-exposed *II22^{-/-}*mice compared to CS-exposed WT controls. However, CS-exposed *II22^{-/-}* mice had
similar lung function to air-exposed WT controls.

We also assessed tissue elastance and found a non-significant reduction in CS-exposed WT mice that was not different in *II22^{-/-}* mice (**supplementary figure**).

Discussion

Here, we demonstrate that IL-22 plays a previously undefined role in the pathogenesis of CS-induced experimental COPD. IL-22 and its receptors were increased in both human and experimental COPD. We show for the first-time using IL-22 reporter mice, that elevated lung IL-22 levels in experimental COPD result from increased IL-22⁺ CD4⁺ T-cells, $\gamma\delta$ T-cells, NKT-cells and ILC3s. We also demonstrated that CS-induced neutrophilic airway inflammation, was reduced in *II22*-¹⁻ mice compared to WT controls. Furthermore, *II22⁻¹⁻* mice did not develop CS-induced airway remodelling and emphysema and had improved lung function that was comparable to normal air-exposed controls. Hence, this study provides new insights into the roles of IL-22 in the pathogenesis of COPD.

The presence or absence of IL-22 may affect resident microbiota. Indeed, we have reviewed the pathogenic roles for gut and lung microbiota in the development of COPD [5, 38, 39]. To minimise the influence of altered microbiota WT and *II22-/*mice were derived from the same breeding pairs, maintained in the same facility and used experimentally at the same time, and so they would be expected to have very similar microbiomes.

338 Using pre-existing microarray datasets, we show that IL-22 and IL-22R mRNA
 ⁵⁹
 ⁶⁰ 339 expression were increased in airway epithelial cells from patients with mild-to-

moderate COPD [20]. However, IL-22 and IL-22R mRNA were unaltered in lung parenchymal cores in severe COPD [22]. Our data are supported by studies that show increased IL-22 protein levels and IL-22⁺ immune cells in blood, sputum and lung biopsies of COPD patients (reviewed in [8]). However, there are limited reports of IL-22 receptor expression in COPD. Neutrophil proteases have been shown alter IL-22R-dependent antimicrobial defence in COPD but there was no change in IL22RA1 mRNA expression in lung tissue or primary cultures of proximal airway epithelial cells from COPD patients compared to healthy controls [9]. IL-10RB and IL-22RA2 have not been assessed in COPD. Consistent with our human data, IL-22 was also increased in lung tissue homogenates in experimental COPD after 8 weeks but not before the development of disease upon 1 week of CS exposure. IL-22 receptor mRNA expression was different between human and mouse. However, at the protein level, IL-22RA1 and RA2 were visually increased in the airway epithelium of CS-exposed mice, which was consistent with changes at the mRNA level in humans. IL-22 receptors were also increased at protein level in human COPD. Collectively, our data show that IL-22 and its receptors are increased in both human and experimental COPD. However, the expression of IL-22 and its receptors is heterogenous and is influenced by tissue location and disease severity.

Given that IL-22 was increased in the lungs in experimental COPD, we utilised IL-17A and IL-22 dual reporter mice that facilitate the identification of IL-17A-and IL-22-expressing immune cells without ex vivo stimulation or cell fixation. This enables a more accurate determination of the *in vivo* lung environment. We show for the first time that CS exposure induced IL-22 production from CD4⁺ T-cells, $\gamma\delta$ T-cells, NKT-cells and ILC3s, which are the major cellular sources of IL-22 and all these cell subsets have known roles in COPD pathogenesis [36, 40, 41]. However,

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the individual contribution of each of these cells to IL-22 production and COPD
 pathogenesis, especially in humans remains to be fully elucidated.

Previously, the role of IL-22 in the pathogenesis of COPD was largely unknown. We addressed this gap in knowledge using an established mouse model of tightly controlled chronic nose-only CS-induced experimental COPD [12-18]. Our models are representative of a pack-a-day smoker [24]. We have consistently shown that 8 weeks of CS exposure in our models is sufficient to induce the hallmark features of human COPD: chronic inflammation, airway remodelling, emphysema and impaired lung function [12-18]. This 8-week time point was specifically chosen to investigate the underlying pathogenic mechanism(s) during the early stages (GOLD I/II) and identify potential therapeutic targets to halt the progression of COPD.

Using this established model, we show for the first time that IL-22 contributes to COPD pathogenesis independently of infectious exacerbations. II22-/- mice had reduced airway neutrophils, which was associated with decreased in Cxcl2 mRNA expression. CXCL1 and CXCL2 are the mouse orthologues/homologues of human IL-8 and have critical roles in neutrophil influx into the airways following CS-exposure [42]. It has been suggested that improper activation of neutrophils lies at the core of COPD pathology, and mechanisms regulating their function are potential therapeutic targets [43]. However, *II22^{-/-}* mice were protected from the increases in MPO or neutrophil elastase levels. *II22^{-/-}* mice also had decreased lung tissue inflammation indicated by reduced histopathological score. This is consistent with a previous report showing that administration of recombinant IL-22 (rIL-22) into the lung increased tissue inflammation [44].

We also demonstrate, as we have shown previously, that increases in airway
 We also demonstrate, as we have shown previously, that increases in airway
 section area, collagen deposition around small airways and emphysema-like

alveolar enlargement occur following chronic CS-exposure in WT mice [12-18]. Notably, these features did not develop in *II22^{-/-}* mice compared to normal air-exposed *II22^{-/-}* controls, although the changes were not significant between CS-exposed II22-1- mice and CS-exposed WT controls. IL-22 is essential for lung epithelial cell repair following influenza virus infection and is implicated in renal fibrosis [45, 46]. Others have shown that mice lacking IL-22 have delayed bacterial clearance and increased alveolar wall thickening and airway remodelling [10]. Administration of rIL-22 with or without acute CS-exposure induced airway epithelial thickening and collagen deposition, although this was not quantified [44].

Our study is the first report on the role of IL-22 in regulating multiple lung function parameters, particularly in models of COPD. We show that *II22^{-/-}* mice have improved lung function in terms of lung volumes, airway resistance, TLC, IC, FVC and compliance that are comparable to normal air-exposed WT mice. One previous report in an acute CS-exposure model showed increased airway resistance following administration of rIL-22 [44], however ours is the first study to assess lung function in *ll22^{-/-}* mice.

The absence of IL-22 in CS-exposed *II22^{-/-}* mice suppressed both airway remodelling and concomitantly the impairment of lung function in experimental COPD. Indeed CS-exposed *II22^{-/-}* mice were protected against increases in epithelial area, collagen deposition and emphysema compared to normal air-exposed controls. Airway remodelling involving epithelial hyperplasia and fibrosis are important in driving resistance to airflow [17, 18]. Emphysema leads to apparent increases in total lung and inspiratory capacity and tissue compliance, which results from the loss of alveolar and parenchymal tissue. In line with the protection against airway and emphysema-like alveolar enlargement, CS-exposed *II22^{-/-}* mice remodelling

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were also protected from impaired lung function and changes in airway resistance, total lung and inspiratory capacity and tissue compliance.

In summary, our study demonstrates previously unrecognised roles for IL-22 in COPD pathogenesis. It highlights the potential role of IL-22 in chronic lung diseases, which may be a useful biomarker in the diagnosis and/or prognosis of COPD patients. Furthermore, using a clinically-relevant and established model of experimental COPD, our study demonstrates that IL-22 promotes CS-induced pulmonary neutrophilic inflammation, airway remodelling and lung function impairment. However, inhibiting IL-22 may increase the risk of exacerbations due to its central role in pathogen clearance. Therefore, caution in therapeutic approaches targeting IL-22 signalling are required. The relationships between IL-22 and genetic factors, infections/colonisation and phenotypes in COPD remain to be defined.

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colonies.

Conflict of interest

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Pharmakea, Ausbio, and Allakos outside the submitted work. Other authors declared
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Figure 1: IL-22 and IL-22R mRNA expression are increased in airway epithelial brushings from mild-moderate human COPD patients compared to healthy smokers and non-smokers. Microarray data from airway epithelial cells from healthy human non-smokers (NS), healthy smokers without COPD (Smoker) and COPD patients with Global Initiative for Chronic Obstructive Lung Disease (GOLD) stage I (Mild) or II (Moderate) disease (Accession: GSE5058 [20]) were interrogated. (a) IL22 (b) IL22RA1, (c) IL10RB, (d) IL22RA2 mRNA expression. Microarray data from lung parenchymal cores from human healthy non-smokers (NS) and COPD patients with GOLD) stage IV (severe) disease (Accession: GSE27597 [22]) were interrogated. (e) IL22 (f) IL22RA1, (g) IL10RB, (h) IL22RA2 mRNA expression. Data are expressed as log₂ intensity robust multi-array average signals. The Benjamini-Hochberg method for adjusted P value/false discovery rate (FDR) was used to analyse differences between NS, Smokers and COPD patients. * = p<0.005compared to COPD. ns = not significant.

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5 6	465	Figure 2: IL-22, IL-22RA1 and IL-10Rb, but not IL-22RA2 protein is increased in
7 8	466	human COPD. IHC for IL-22 and its receptors in peripheral lung from smokers with
9 10 11	467	mild-to-moderate stable COPD and compared to age- and smoke history-matched
12 13	468	smokers with normal lung function. (a) IL-22 ⁺ alveolar macrophages, (b) IL-22RA1 ⁺
14 15 16	469	alveolar macrophages, (c) IL-22RA1 ⁺ airway epithelial cells, (d) IL-10RB ⁺ alveolar
16 17 18	470	macrophages, (e) IL-10RB ⁺ airway epithelial cells. Data are presented as mean \pm
19 20	471	SEM, n = 12.
21 22	472	
23 24 25	473	Figure 3: IL-22 protein levels are increased in the lungs of CS-exposed mice
23 26 27 28 29 30 31 32	474	with experimental COPD. Wild-type (WT) C57BL/6 mice were exposed to normal
	475	air or CS for 8 weeks. IL-22 protein levels in (a) lung homogenates and (b)
	476	bronchoalveolar lavage fluid (BALF) supernatants were assessed by ELISA. In
33 34	477	separate experiments, airways and parenchyma were blunt-dissected and IL-22
35 36	478	receptor mRNA expression assessed. Airway (c) II22ra1, (d) II10rb, (e) II22ra2 and
37 38 39	479	parenchymal (f) II22ra1, (g) II10rb and (h) II22ra2 mRNA expression. Data are
40 41	480	presented as mean ± SEM, n = 6, with another independent experiment showing
42 43	481	similar results. Two-tailed Mann-Whitney t-test was used to analyse differences
44 45 46	482	between two groups, whereby * = p<0.05 compared to normal air-exposed WT
47 48	483	controls.
49 50	484	
51 52 53	485	Figure 4: IL-22 ⁺ CD4 ⁺ T-cells, $\gamma\delta$ T-cells, NKT-cells and ILC3s are increased in
54 55	486	the lungs of CS-exposed mice with experimental COPD. //17aeGFP/+;//22td-tomato/+
56 57	487	reporter mice were exposed to normal air or CS for 8 weeks and the cellular source
58 59	488	of IL-17A and IL-22 in the lung was assessed by flow cytometry. (a) Representative
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FACS plot of IL-17A⁺ and IL-22⁺ CD4⁺ T-cells. Total numbers of (b) IL-17A⁺, (c) IL-22⁺ and (d) IL-17A⁺IL-22⁺ CD4⁺ T-cells in the lung. (e) Representative FACS plot of IL-17A⁺ and IL-22⁺ $\gamma\delta$ T-cells. Total numbers of (f) IL-17A⁺, (g) IL-22⁺ and (h) IL-17A⁺IL-22⁺ $\gamma\delta$ T-cells in the lung. (i) Representative FACS plot of IL-17A⁺ and IL-22⁺ NKT-cells. Total numbers of (i) IL-17A⁺. (k) IL-22⁺ and (l) IL-17A⁺IL-22⁺ NKT-cells in the lung. (m) Representative FACS plot of IL-17A⁺ and IL-22⁺ ILC3s. Total numbers of (n) IL-17A⁺, (o) IL-22⁺ and (p) IL-17A⁺IL-22⁺ ILC3 cells in the lung. Relative proportion of CD4⁺ T-cells, $\gamma\delta$ T-cells, NKT-cells and ILC3s expressing (**q**) IL-17A, (**r**) IL-22 and (s) IL-17 and IL-22. Data are presented as mean \pm SEM, n = 6, with another independent experiment showing similar results. Two-tailed Mann-Whitney t-test was used to analyse differences between two groups, whereby * = p < 0.05compared to normal air-exposed controls.

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Figure 5: CS-induced pulmonary inflammation is reduced in *II22^{-/-}* mice. Wild-type (WT) and IL-22-deficient (I/22-/-) C57BL/6 mice were exposed to normal air or CS for 8 weeks to induce experimental COPD. (a) Total leukocytes, (b) macrophages, (c) neutrophils and (d) lymphocytes in bronchoalveolar lavage fluid (BALF). (e) Representative images of parenchymal inflammatory cells. (f) Numbers of parenchymal inflammatory cells per high powered field. (g) Representative images of lung histopathology scoring. (h) Total histopathology score in lung sections and scores specifically in the (i) airway, (j) vascular and (k) parenchymal regions. (I) Cxcl1, (m) Cxcl2 and (n) Il17a mRNA expression in lung homogenates. Data are presented as mean \pm SEM, n = 6, with another independent experiment showing similar results.. The one-way analysis of variance with Bonferroni post-test analysed

differences between 3 or more groups, whereby * = p<0.05 compared to normal air-
exposed controls.

Figure 6: CS-induced increases in airway epithelial area, collagen deposition and emphysema-like alveolar enlargement do not occur in *II22^{-/-}* mice. Wild-type (WT) and IL-22-deficient (*II22-/-*) C57BL/6 mice were exposed to normal air or CS for 8 weeks to induce experimental COPD. (a) Representative images of small airway epithelium. (b) Small airway epithelial thickness in terms of epithelial cell area (µm²) per basement membrane (BM) perimeter (µm). (c) Representative images of collagen deposition around small airways. (d) Area of collagen deposition (µm²) per BM perimeter (µm). (e) Representative images of alveolar structure. (f) Alveolar diameter (μ m). Data are presented as mean ± SEM, n = 6, with another independent experiment showing similar results. The one-way analysis of variance with Bonferroni post-test analysed differences between 3 or more groups, whereby * = p<0.05 compared to normal air-exposed controls.

Figure 7: CS-induced lung function impairment is improved in II22^{-/-} mice. Wild-type (WT) and IL-22-deficient (I/22-/-) C57BL/6 mice were exposed to normal air or CS for 8 weeks to induce experimental COPD. Lung function was assessed in terms of (a) lung volume from pressure volume loops, (b) airway resistance, (c) total lung capacity, (d) inspiratory capacity, (e) forced vital capacity and (f) compliance. Data are presented as mean \pm SEM, n = 6, with another independent experiment showing similar results. The one-way analysis of variance with Bonferroni post-test analysed differences between 3 or more groups, whereby * = p < 0.05 compared to normal air-exposed controls.

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IL-22 and its receptors are increased in human and experimental COPD and contribute to pathogenesis

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Supplementary methods

Ethics statement. This study was performed in accordance with the 32 recommendations issued by the National Health and Medical Research Council of 33 Australia. All experimental protocols were approved by the animal ethics committee 34 of The University of Newcastle, Australia.

Gene Expression in Human COPD Microarray Datasets. Analysis of IL-22, IL-22RA1 IL-10RB and IL-22RA2 in published human array datasets (Affymetrix Human Genome U133 Plus 2.0 Array, Accession numbers: GSE5058 and GSE27597) [1-3] was performed using the Array Studio software (Omicsoft Corporation, Research Triangle Park, NC, USA) by applying a general linear model adjusting for age and gender and the Benjamini-Hochberg method for p-value adjustment. Data are expressed as log₂ intensity robust multi-array average signals. The Benjamini-Hochberg method for adjusted P value/false discovery rate (FDR) was used to analyse differences between two groups. Statistical significance was set at FDR < 0.05.

⁵⁷ 46 In the GSE5058 dataset, gene arrays from small airway epithelial cells ⁵⁹ $_{60}$ 47 obtained from normal non-smokers (n = 12), healthy chronic smokers (n = 12),

smokers with early COPD (n=9), and smokers with established COPD (n = 6) were evaluated. The FEV1/FVC ratio of the subjects in these groups were 99 ± 7 , 97 ± 7 , 78 ± 4 and 66 ± 14 , respectively.

In the GSE27597 dataset, gene arrays from 8 sample pairs from different lung slices from 6 subjects requiring lung transplant for COPD and 2 organ donors were analysed. The 6 subjects with COPD had a FEV1 <25% predicted (severe disease).

In addition, we examined gene expression from lung tissue specimens derived from 56 subjects (GSE8581 [4]). These subjects had undergone lobectomy for removal of a suspected tumour. Tissue was derived from histologically normal tissue distant from the tumour margin. COPD (cases, n = 15) were defined as subjects with FEV1<70% and FEV1/FVC<0.7 and controls (n = 18) as subjects with FEV1>80% and FEV1/FVC>0.7.

Mice. Female, 7-8-week-old, wild-type (WT) C57BL/6, II17aeGFP/+;II22td-tomato/+ reporter and *II22^{-/-}* mice were obtained from the Australian Bioresource Facility, Moss Vale, NSW, Australia. *II17a^{eGFP/+}II22^{td-tomato/+}* dual reporter and *II22^{-/-}* and mice were generated as previously described [5]. Mice were housed under a 12-hour light/dark cycle and had free access to food (standard chow) and water. After a period of acclimatization (5 days), mice were randomly placed into experimental groups and exposed to either normal air or nose-only inhalation of CS for eight weeks as described previously [6-13].

Isolation of RNA and qPCR. Total RNA was extracted from whole lung tissue and
blunt-dissected airways and parenchyma and reversed transcribed [8]. mRNA

transcripts were determined by real-time quantitative PCR (qPCR, ABIPrism7000,
 Applied Biosystems, Scoresby, Victoria, Australia) using custom designed primers
 (Integrated DNA Technologies, Baulkham Hills, New South Wales, Australia),
 normalized to the reference gene hypoxanthine-guanine phosphoribosyltransferase
 (*hprt*) (supplementary table 1).

Flow Cytometry Analysis. The numbers of IL-17A⁺ and IL-22⁺ CD4⁺ T-cells, γδ T-cells, NKT-cells and group 3 innate lymphoid cells in lung homogenates were determined based on surface marker expression using flow cvtometrv (supplementary table 2) [14-16]. Flow cytometric analysis was performed using a FACSAriaIII with FACSDiva software (BD Biosciences, North Ryde, Australia). Flow cytometry antibodies were purchased from Biolegend (Karrinyup, Western Australia, Australia) or BD Biosciences (supplementary table 3). BD compensation beads (BD Biosciences) were used to compensate for spectral overlap.

Mouse lung IHC. Lungs were perfused, inflated, formalin fixed, paraffin embedded, and sectioned (4µm)[8, 9]. Longitudinal sections of the left lung were deparaffinised by placing on a heating block at 70°C for 15mins then sections were immersed in fresh xylene for 10mins then 5mins. Rehydration was performed using a series of ethanol gradients (100% twice, 90%, 80%, 70%) and 0.85% saline for 5mins each. Heat-induced antigen retrieval was performed in citrate buffer (10mM citric acid, 0.05% Tween 20, pH 6.0) at 100°C for 30mins. Sections were blocked with casein blocker (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Scoresby, Victoria, Australia) for 1h. Sections were washed with PBS-T and incubated overnight at 4°C with either rat anti-Il22ra1

(MAB42941; R&D Systems, Minneapolis, Minnesota, United States) or rabbit anti-II22ra2 (ab203211; Abcam, Melbourne, Victoria, Australia) antibodies. Following washing with PBS-T, sections were incubated for 30mins at 37°C with either goat anti-rat (HAF005; R&D Systems) or goat-anti-rabbit (ab7090; Abcam) secondary antibodies conjugated to horseradish peroxidase. Each primary and secondary antibody was diluted 1:100 in PBS-T. Following washing with PBS-T, sections were incubated for 20 mins with 3,3'-diaminobenzidine chromogen-substrate buffer (Aligent Technologies, Mulgrave, Victoria, Australia) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Sections were washed with ddH₂O then counterstained with standard haematoxylin for 5mins. Sections were washed with tap H₂O and were dehydrated by immersion in a series of saline, ethanol then xylene, inverse to that described above. Coverslips were mounted with standard non-aqueous medium and slides imaged using a Zeiss Axio microscope with ZEN-blue edition software V2.5 (Carl Zeiss Microscopy, Thornwood, New York, United States). Unless otherwise stated, each incubation was at room temperature protected from light in a humidified chamber. All wash steps were performed 5 times for 3mins each.

Airway remodelling. Airway epithelial (μ m²) and collagen deposition area (μ m²) were assessed in a minimum of four small airways (basement membrane [BM] perimeter <1,000 μ m) per section [7-9, 12, 13]. Lung sections were stained using Masson's trichrome stain, and photographs of small intact airways were taken at 40x magnification. These photographs were then analysed in ImageJ software (Version 1.50, NIH).

Airway epithelial thickness analysis was performed by carefully tracing the BM Airway epithelial surface perimeters. Airway epithelial area was calculated by

subtracting the inner airway area from the outer airway area. This was thenexpressed as area per µm of BM.

For collagen analysis, a colour deconvolution method was used to isolate the collagen, stained blue. This method breaks the original photograph into three images, containing three separate colour ranges. In this manner, the blue-stained areas of the images (representing collagen) could be isolated and quantified separately. The BM was traced and measured as described above. Collagen deposition immediately surrounding the airway was traced and measured, but only in images that isolated the blue-stained pixels. We could then reach a quantitative 'collagen per airway' measurement by expressing the area of blue-stained pixels per µm of BM.

Pulmonary Inflammation. Airway inflammation was assessed by differential
enumeration of inflammatory cells in bronchoalveolar lavage fluid (BALF) [7, 8, 1719]. BALF supernatants were stored at -20°C for assessment of IL-22 protein levels.
Lung sections were stained with periodic acid-Schiff (PAS) and tissue inflammation
assessed by enumeration of inflammatory cells [7, 8, 17, 18]. Histopathological score
was determined in lung sections stained with hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) based on
established custom-designed criteria [19].

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ELISA. Right lung lobes were homogenised on ice in 500uL of PBS supplemented with Complete mini protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche Diagnostic, Sydney, NSW, Australia) and PhosphoSTOP tablets (Roche Diagnostic). Lung homogenates were incubated on ice for 5 mins and subsequently centrifuged (8,000xg, 15 mins).

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Supernatants were collected, stored at -20°C overnight and total protein levels were 145 determined using Pierce BCA assay kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific) prior to ELISA. IL-146 17A, IL-22, MPO and neutrophil elastase protein levels were quantified with 147 commercially available ELISA kits (R&D Systems or Biolegend) [5]. IL-22 protein 148 levels were normalised to total protein in lung homogenates. 149

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Lung Function. Mice were anaesthetised with ketamine (100mg/kg) and xylazine 151 (10mg/kg, Troy Laboratories, Smithfield, Australia) prior to tracheostomy. Tracheas 152 were then cannulated and attached to Buxco® Forced Manoeuvres systems 153 apparatus (DSI, St. Paul, Minnesota, USA) to assess total lung capacity [7, 8]. Mice 154 155 were then attached to a FlexiVent apparatus (FX1 System; SCIREQ, Montreal, 156 Canada) to assess lung volume, airway resistance, inspiratory capacity, forced vital capacity and compliance (tidal volume of 8mL/kg at a respiratory rate of 450 157 breaths/mins) [7, 20, 21]. All assessments were performed at least three times and 158 the average was calculated for each mouse. 159

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Human lung tissue study population. Peripheral lung samples were obtained from 161 subjects undergoing lung resection for peripheral lung carcinoma from the 162 Respiratory Unit of the University Hospital of Ferrara, Italy (supplementary table 4). 163 Smokers with mild-to-moderate stable COPD (n=12) were compared with age- and 164 smoke history-matched smokers with normal lung function (NLF) (n=12). Diagnosis 165 of COPD was defined according to international guidelines as the presence of post-166 bronchodilator FEV1/FVC ratio <70% or the presence of cough and sputum 167 production for at least 3 months in each of two consecutive years [22]. All patients 168 were in stable condition at the time of the surgery and had not suffered acute 169

exacerbations or upper respiratory tract infections in the preceding two months. None had received glucocorticoids or antibiotics within the month preceding surgery, or inhaled bronchodilators within the previous 48 h. Patients had no history of asthma or other allergic diseases. All former smokers had stopped smoking for more than one year. Each patient was subjected to medical history, physical examination, chest radiography, electrocardiogram, routine blood tests, and pulmonary function tests during the week prior to surgery. Pulmonary function tests (Biomedin Spirometer, Padova, Italy) were performed as previously described [23] according to published guidelines.

Lung sample preparation and IHC. Collection, processing, immunohistochemical analysis of lung tissue samples as well as data analysis were performed as previously published [24, 25]. The primary antibodies (anti-human) used are summarised in supplementary table 5. Negative antibody controls used were nonspecific isotype matched lg at their respective primary antibody concentrations. Image analysis was performed [24] using an integrated microscope (Olympus, Albertslund, Denmark), video camera (JVC Digital color, Tatstrup, Denmark), automated microscope stage (Olympus) and PC running Image pro-Plus Software (Media Cybernetics) to quantify the RBP staining areas. Immunostaining counting and interpretation were performed blinded without prior knowledge of clinical-pathologic parameters.

Scoring system for IHC in peripheral lung. Staining analysis was performed as previously published [24, 25]. A bronchiole was taken to be an airway with no

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cartilage and glands in its wall. According to a validated method [24] the number of positively stained endoalveolar macrophages was expressed as a percentage of the total cells with the morphological appearance of alveolar macrophages counted inside of the alveoli. The number of bronchiolar epithelial cells with positive staining was expressed as a percentage of the total number of epithelial cells counted in each bronchiolar section and group data were expressed as mean and standard error of the mean (SEM). Airway epithelial-specific IL-22RA1 protein intensity was quantified using the Aperio imaging system and normalized to the length of the basement membrane.

Statistical analyses. Unless otherwise stated, data are presented as means \pm standard error of mean (SEM) and are representative of two independent experiments with 6 mice per group. The two-tailed Mann-Whitney test was used to compare two groups. The one-way analysis of variance with Bonferroni post-test was used to compare 3 or more groups. Statistical significance was set at *P* < 0.05 and determined using GraphPad Prism Software version 6 (San Diego, CA, USA).

Supplementary table 1. Custom-designed primers used in qPCR analysis

Primer	Primer sequence (5' $ ightarrow$ 3')
II22ra1 forward	GTTTTACTACGCCAAGGTCACG
ll22ra1 reverse	CACTTTGGGGATACAGGTCACA
II10rb forward	ATTCGGAGTGGGTCAATGT
ll10rb reverse	CTGAGAAACGCAGGTGTAAAG
II22ra2 forward	CTCTTCTGTGACCTGACCAATGA
ll22ra2 reverse	TTATAGTCACGACCGGAGGATCT
Cxcl1 forward	GCTGGGATTCACCTCAAGAA
Cxcl1 reverse	CTTGGGGACACCTTTTAGCA
Cxcl2 forward	TGCTGCTGGCCACCAACCAC
Cxcl2 reverse	AGTGTGACGCCCCAGGACC
<i>ll17a</i> forward	GTGTCTCTGATGCTGTTGCT
<i>ll17a</i> reverse	GTTGACCTTCACATTCTGGA
Hprt forward	AGGCCAGACTTTGTTGGATTTGAA
Hprt reverse	CAACTTGCGCTCATCTTAGGATTT

214 Supplementary table 2. Surface antigens used to characterise mouse IL-17A ⁺ IL-22 ⁻	lung
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cell subsets by flow cytometry

8		Coll subset	Cell surface antigens
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13		γδ T cells	CD45⁺CD3⁺γδTCR⁺
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10		INK I CEIIS	CD45*CD3*aGalCer tetramer*
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19		ILC3	CD45 ⁺ CD3 ⁻ Lv6C/G ⁻ CD11b ⁻ B220 ⁻ TER119 ⁻ IL-
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21			7Rα+CD90.2+
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24		IL-17A and IL-22	Reported by eGFP and td-tomato, respectively
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Supplementary table 3. Antibodies used in flow cytometry analysis

Cell surfac	е	Clone	Fluorophore	Company
antigens				
CD45		30-F11	PerCP-Cy5.5	Biolegend
CD3		17A2	AF700	Biolegend
CD4		RM4-5	APC-Cy7	Biolegend
CD8		53-6.7	BV510	Biolegend
γδΤCR		GL3	BV421	Biolegend
α GalCer Te	etramer	N/A	BV605	N/A
Lineage	cocktail	17A2,	AF700	Biolegend
(CD3, Ly6C/G,		RB6-8C5,		
CD11b, B220,		M1/70,		
TER119)		RA3-6B2,		
		Ter-119		

Supplementary Table 4. Characteristics of subjects for the immunohistochemical study of
 interleukins on peripheral lung

Subjects	N.	Age	Sex	Smoking history	Pack-	Chronic	FEV ₁	FEV ₁ /
					years	bronchitis	% pred	FVC %
Control	12	70.8	10M/	8 Ex smokers	41.9	0	104.3±4.0	76.7±1.3
smokers		±2.3	2F	4 Current smokers	±11.4			
COPD	12	12 72.4 ±1.5	4 12M 5	7 Ex smokers	40.6 ±3.3	4 with chronic bronchitis	76.9±6.2	61.6±2.7
				5 Current smokers				

Supplementary table 5. Primary antibodies and immunohistochemical conditions used for identification of interleukins in the peripheral lung

Antigon	Compony	Cotologuo	Heat	Concentration	Secondary ontihed
Anugen	Company	Catalogue	nosi	Concentration	Secondary antibody
IL10Rb	MyBio Source	MBS2003603	Rabbit	1.8 µg/ml	Goat anti-rabbit IgG, Vector (BA 1000); 1:200
IL-22	R&D	AF782	Goat	4 µg/ml	Rabbit anti-goat IgG, Vector (BA 5000); 1:200
IL22RA1 / IL22R	<u>EMD</u> <u>Millipore/</u> L SBio	<u>06-1077-</u> <u>I/</u> LS-B1365	Rabbit	2.2 µg/ml	Goat anti-rabbit IgG, Vector (BA 1000); 1:200
IL22RA2	Atlas	HPA030582	Rabbit	1 µg/ml	Goat anti-rabbit IgG, Vector (BA 1000); 1:200
Suppleme cells	entary table	6. Immunohistoo	chemical p	ercentage of peripl	heral lung IL-22-positiv
Localizati	ion and	Control smoke	ers C	OPD	Mann-Whitney tes

Localization and antigen	Control smokers	COPD	Mann-Whitney test p value
Bronchiolar epithelium			
Nuclear	8.3±2.8	9.0±2.5	0.6427
	5.0 (9.6)	5.0 (8.7)	
	1.0-13.8	2.0-18.0	
Cytosolic	48.5±7.0	60.8±6.6	0.2037
	54.5 (24.1)	67.5 (22.8)	
	25.3-70.3	44.5-76.3	
Alveolar macrophages			
Nuclear	16.7±4.1	46.5±7.5	0.0130
	11.5 (14.1)	51.0 (26.1)	
Cytosolic	9.0-23.0	28.3-63.5	0.0602
	62.0 (20.3)	58.0 (13.8)	

20	Data expressed as m	hean + SEM (first line)		d line) and interquartile		
229 230 231	range (third line). Da interquartile range (th	ta expressed as mean $\frac{1}{2}$ hird line).	SEM (first line), me	edian (SD) (second line)		
232						
233 234	Supplementary table positive cells	le 7. Immunohistochemi	cal percentage of pe	eripheral lung IL22RA1-		
235						
	Localization and antigen	Control smokers	COPD	Mann-Whitney t p value		
	Bronchiolar epithelium					
	Nuclear	3.8±2.3	24.9±4.6	0.0009		
		0.8 (7.9)	24.5 (15.9)			
		0.0-4.0	16.8-27.5			
	Cytosolic	30.5±7.8	8.2±3.5	0.0123		
		21.5 (27.1)	2.0 (12.1)			
		7.0-57.3	0.0-16.8			
	Alveolar macrophages					
	Nuclear	1.9±0.9	20.7±4.3	0.0005		
		0.5 (3.2)	21.0 (15.0)			
		0.0-2.8	5.5-35.3			
	Cytosolic	0.0-2.8	5.5-35.3	0.0022		
		72.5±3.9	52.0±3.9			
		75.0 (13.4)	49.0 (13.5)			
236 237 238 239	Data expressed as m range (third line). Da interquartile range (th	nean ± SEM (first line), r ta expressed as mean ± nird line).	nedian (SD) (secon : SEM (first line), me	d line) and interquartile edian (SD) (second line)		
240 241	Supplementary table 8. Immunohistochemical percentage of peripheral lung IL22R positive cells					
	Localization and	Control smokers	COPD	Mann-Whitney t		

Nuclear	0	0	
	0	0	
	0	0	
Cytosolic	25.7±7.0	11.8±3.7	0.1645
	19.0 (24.1)	8.0 (12.8)	
	3.5-49.5	1.3-20.5	
Alveolar macrophages			
Nuclear	0	0	
	0	0	
	0	0	
Cytosolic	47.5±5.0	48.2±8.5	0.8173
	46.5 (17.5)	52.5 (29.3)	
	34.3-59.8	22.5-73.3	
Data expressed as n range (third line). Da interquartile range (t Supplementary tab positive cells	nean ± SEM (first line), i ita expressed as mean ± hird line). Ie 9. Immunohistochemi	median (SD) (second SEM (first line), me	I line) and interquartil dian (SD) (second lin ripheral lung IL10Rb-
Data expressed as n range (third line). Da interquartile range (t Supplementary tab positive cells Localization and antigen	nean ± SEM (first line), i ita expressed as mean ± hird line). Ie 9. Immunohistochemi Control smokers	median (SD) (second SEM (first line), me cal percentage of pe	I line) and interquartil dian (SD) (second lin ripheral lung IL10Rb- Mann-Whitney n value
Data expressed as n range (third line). Da interquartile range (t Supplementary tab positive cells Localization and antigen Bronchiolar epithelium	nean ± SEM (first line), i ita expressed as mean ± hird line). Ie 9. Immunohistochemi Control smokers	median (SD) (second SEM (first line), me cal percentage of pe	I line) and interquartile dian (SD) (second line pripheral lung IL10Rb- Mann-Whitney p value
Data expressed as n range (third line). Da interquartile range (t Supplementary tab positive cells Localization and antigen Bronchiolar epithelium Nuclear	nean ± SEM (first line), i ta expressed as mean ± hird line). Ie 9. Immunohistochemi Control smokers 1.8±0.8	median (SD) (second SEM (first line), me cal percentage of pe COPD 3.4±1.1	I line) and interquartile dian (SD) (second line pripheral lung IL10Rb- Mann-Whitney p value 0.1259
Data expressed as n range (third line). Da interquartile range (t Supplementary tab positive cells Localization and antigen Bronchiolar epithelium Nuclear	nean ± SEM (first line), i ta expressed as mean ± hird line). Ie 9. Immunohistochemi Control smokers 1.8±0.8 0.5 (2.6)	median (SD) (second SEM (first line), me ical percentage of pe COPD 3.4±1.1 2.0 (3.8)	I line) and interquartile dian (SD) (second line pripheral lung IL10Rb- Mann-Whitney p value 0.1259
Data expressed as n range (third line). Da interquartile range (t Supplementary tab positive cells Localization and antigen Bronchiolar epithelium Nuclear	nean ± SEM (first line), i ta expressed as mean ± hird line). Ie 9. Immunohistochemi Control smokers 1.8±0.8 0.5 (2.6) 0.0-2.8	median (SD) (second SEM (first line), me ical percentage of pe COPD 3.4±1.1 2.0 (3.8) 1.0-4.8	I line) and interquartile dian (SD) (second line pripheral lung IL10Rb- Mann-Whitney p value 0.1259
Data expressed as n range (third line). Da interquartile range (t Supplementary tab positive cells Localization and antigen Bronchiolar epithelium Nuclear	nean ± SEM (first line), i ta expressed as mean ± hird line). Ie 9. Immunohistochemi Control smokers 1.8±0.8 0.5 (2.6) 0.0-2.8 27.0±7.6	median (SD) (second SEM (first line), me ical percentage of pe COPD 3.4±1.1 2.0 (3.8) 1.0-4.8 26.9±5.3	I line) and interquartile dian (SD) (second line pripheral lung IL10Rb- Mann-Whitney p value 0.1259 0.7505
Data expressed as n range (third line). Da interquartile range (t Supplementary tab positive cells Localization and antigen Bronchiolar epithelium Nuclear	nean \pm SEM (first line), i ita expressed as mean \pm hird line). Ie 9. Immunohistochemi Control smokers 1.8 \pm 0.8 0.5 (2.6) 0.0-2.8 27.0 \pm 7.6 16.0 (26.5)	median (SD) (second SEM (first line), me ical percentage of pe COPD 3.4±1.1 2.0 (3.8) 1.0-4.8 26.9±5.3 18.5 (18.4)	I line) and interquartile dian (SD) (second line pripheral lung IL10Rb- Mann-Whitney p value 0.1259 0.7505
Data expressed as n range (third line). Da interquartile range (t Supplementary tab positive cells Localization and antigen Bronchiolar epithelium Nuclear	nean ± SEM (first line), i ita expressed as mean ± hird line). Ie 9. Immunohistochemi Control smokers 1.8±0.8 0.5 (2.6) 0.0-2.8 27.0±7.6 16.0 (26.5) 2.8-58.3	median (SD) (second SEM (first line), me ical percentage of pe COPD 3.4±1.1 2.0 (3.8) 1.0-4.8 26.9±5.3 18.5 (18.4) 13.0-41.8	I line) and interquartile dian (SD) (second line pripheral lung IL10Rb- Mann-Whitney p value 0.1259 0.7505
Data expressed as n range (third line). Da interquartile range (t Supplementary tab positive cells Localization and antigen Bronchiolar epithelium Nuclear Cytosolic	nean ± SEM (first line), i ita expressed as mean ± hird line). Ie 9. Immunohistochemi Control smokers 1.8±0.8 0.5 (2.6) 0.0-2.8 27.0±7.6 16.0 (26.5) 2.8-58.3	median (SD) (second E SEM (first line), me ical percentage of pe COPD 3.4±1.1 2.0 (3.8) 1.0-4.8 26.9±5.3 18.5 (18.4) 13.0-41.8	I line) and interquartile dian (SD) (second line pripheral lung IL10Rb- Mann-Whitney p value 0.1259 0.7505
Data expressed as n range (third line). Da interquartile range (t Supplementary tab positive cells Localization and antigen Bronchiolar epithelium Nuclear Cytosolic Alveolar macrophages Nuclear	nean ± SEM (first line), n ta expressed as mean ± hird line). Ie 9. Immunohistochemi Control smokers 1.8±0.8 0.5 (2.6) 0.0-2.8 27.0±7.6 16.0 (26.5) 2.8-58.3 5.5±1.7	median (SD) (second SEM (first line), me ical percentage of pe COPD 3.4±1.1 2.0 (3.8) 1.0-4.8 26.9±5.3 18.5 (18.4) 13.0-41.8 19.1±3.7	I line) and interquartile dian (SD) (second line pripheral lung IL10Rb- Mann-Whitney p value 0.1259 0.7505 0.7505

	0.	0-11.8		7.5-25.0				
	Cytosolic 59	9.8±5.9		59.6±4.0		0.9769		
	62	2.0 (20	.3)	58.0 (13.8)				
	38	8.5-76.	5	49.3-66.8				
248 249	Data expressed as mean range (third line).	± SEM	l (first line), mec	lian (SD) (second	l line) a	and interq	uartile	
250 251 252	Supplementary Table 10). Char	acteristics of su	bjects for the IL-2	22RA1	intensity i	in airway	
	Subjects		Non-smokers	<u>Healthy smok</u>	<u>(ers</u>	GOLD 2	<u>GOLD 3, 4</u>	
	Sex (M/F)		<u>2/4</u>	<u>2/4</u>	<u>(</u>	<u> 5/3</u>	<u>4/5</u>	
	Smoking status (current/e	x/NA)	<u>0/0/0</u>	<u>4/2/0</u>	4	4/3/2	<u>1/8/0</u>	
	<u>Age (mean ± SD)</u>		<u>58.0±18.1</u>	<u>65.8±9.2</u>	<u>(</u>	63.7±9.0	<u>60.3±6.0</u>	
	FEV1/FVC % (mean ± SE	<u>))</u>	<u>82.9±4.4</u>	<u>76.5±3.5</u>	ţ	57.1±5.6	<u>33.5±11.1</u>	
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256	References							
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2 3 4 5	373	Supplementary figure legends
5 6 7	374	Supplementary Figure 1: Gating strategy for lung immune cell subsets. (a)
8 9 10	375	CD4 ⁺ T cells, (b) $\gamma\delta$ T cells and NKT cells and (c) ILC3.
11 12 13	376	
14 15 16	377	Supplementary Figure 2: IL-22 and receptor mRNA in human peripheral lung
16 17 18	378	tissue is unchanged in mild emphysema. Microarray data from peripheral lung
19 20	379	tissue of patients with mild emphysema (Accession: GSE8581). (a) IL-22, (b) IL-
21 22	380	22RA1, (c) IL-22RA1 and (d) IL-10RB. Data are represented as log_2 intensity robust
23 24 25	381	multi-array average signals.
26 27 28	382	
29 30 31	383	Supplementary Figure 3: No correlation between smoking pack-years and IL-
32 33 34	384	22 or receptor expression. (a) IL-22, (b) IL-22RA1, (c) IL-22RA2
35 36 37	385	
38 39	386	Supplementary Figure 4: No change in IL-22 or receptors in bronchial
40 41	387	brushings in lung cancer. Microarray data from bronchial brushings in lung cancer
42 43	388	(Accession: GSE4115). (a) IL-22, (b) IL-22RA1, (c) IL-10RB. Data are represented
44 45 46 47	389	as log ₂ intensity robust multi-array average signals.
47 48 49	390	
50 51 52	391	Supplementary Figure 5: No change in IL-22 or receptors in lung tissue in lung
53 54	392	cancer. Microarray data from lung tissue in lung cancer (Accession: GSE1650). (a)
55 56	393	IL-22, (b) IL-22RA1, (c) IL-10RB. Data are represented as log_2 intensity robust multi-
57 58 59 60	394	array average signals.

Supplementary figure 6: Representative images of IL-22 and IL-22 receptor staining in human lung tissue. The four panels are showing the representative images of IL-22 (upper panel), IL-22RA1 (upper middle panel), IL-22RA2 (lower middle panel) and IL-10RB (lower panel) immunohistochemical staining in human peripheral lung tissue. (a and d) represent age- and smoke history-matched control smokers with normal lung function and (**b** and **e**) represent mild-to-moderate stable COPD. Upper lane images show the bronchiolar epithelium whereas lower lanes the alveolar macrophages. Representative images of positive control tissues (tonsils for IL-22, IL-22RA1 and IL-10RB), normal kidney for IL-22RA2 (kindly provided respectively by Prof Stefano Pelucchi and Prof Carmelita Di Gregorio) were stained with primary antibody (c) or with nonspecific immunoglobulin (Ig)G (negative control, **f**). Total magnification: 1000x (**a**, **b**, **d**, **e**; bar = 20 μm) or 200x (**c**, **f**; bar = 100 μm).

Supplementary figure 7: Increased IL-22RA1 protein intensity in the airway
epithelium of smokers with COPD. (a) IL-22RA1 protein intensity per micrometre
(μm) of basement membrane (BM) in non-smokers, healthy smokers without COPD
and COPD with or without current smoking separated into GOLD stage 2 and GOLD
stage 3-4. (b) IL-22RA1 intensity in airway epithelium of non-smokers vs. smokers
with COPD. (c) Representative images of IL-22RA1 positive staining, with red
staining in the airway epithelial cells indicating IL-22RA1 positive staining.

Supplementary figure <u>86</u>: IL-22 protein levels are unaltered in the lungs of mice
exposed to CS for 1 week. Wild-type (WT) C57BL/6 mice were exposed to normal
air or CS for 1 week. IL-22 protein levels in lung homogenates were assessed by

ELISA. Data are presented as mean \pm SEM, n = 6, with another independent experiment showing similar results. Two-tailed Mann-Whitney t-test was used to analyse differences between two groups.

Supplementary figure <u>97</u>: Representative images of IL-22RA1 and IL-22RA2
protein in mouse lung tissue sections. Wild-type (WT) C57BL/6 mice were
exposed to normal air or CS for 8 weeks. Representative images of negative control
(top row), IL-22RA1 and IL-22RA2 staining in mouse lung tissue sections from
normal air- (left) and CS-exposed (right) mice.

Supplementary figure 108: IL-17A, MPO and neutrophil elastase protein levels are increased in experimental COPD, but not in the absence of IL-22. Wild-type (WT) and IL-22-deficient (II22-/-) C57BL/6 mice were exposed to normal air or CS for 8 weeks to induce experimental COPD. (a) IL-17A, (b) MPO and (c) neutrophil elastase protein levels in lung homogenates. Data are presented as mean ± SEM, n = 6, with another independent experiment showing similar results. The one-way analysis of variance with Bonferroni post-test analysed differences between 3 or more groups, whereby * = p < 0.05 compared to normal air-exposed controls. ns = not significant.

439 Supplementary Figure <u>119</u>: CS induced non-significant reductions in tissue
 elastance that was not different in *II22^{-/-}* mice. Wild-type (WT) and IL-22-deficient
 440 (*II22^{-/-}*) C57BL/6 mice were exposed to normal air or CS for 8 weeks to induce
 experimental COPD. Lung function was assessed in terms of tissue elastance. Data

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are presented as mean \pm SEM, n = 6, with another independent experiment showing

similar results. The one-way analysis of variance with Bonferroni post-test analysed

differences between 3 or more groups. ns = not significant.



Figure 1

269x119mm (300 x 300 DPI)





272x81mm (300 x 300 DPI)



Figure 3 209x161mm (300 x 300 DPI)



Figure 4

140x273mm (300 x 300 DPI)



Figure 5

163x258mm (300 x 300 DPI)







Figure 7

149x157mm (300 x 300 DPI)























52x75mm (300 x 300 DPI)