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SUPPORTING INFORMATION

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Tissue eosinophils express the IL-33 receptor ST2 and type 2 cytokines in patients with eosinophilic esophagitis

To the Editor,

Eosinophilic esophagitis (EoE) is a type 2 inflammatory disease of the esophagus largely driven by food antigens and is characterized by esophageal eosinophilia, fibrosis, and clinically by dysphagia and food impactions¹. The alarmin interleukin (IL)-33 is elevated in the esophageal epithelium and endothelium of patients with EoE^{2,3}. Exogenous IL-33 causes esophageal eosinophilia and basal hyperplasia in mice³, implicating IL-33 in EoE pathogenesis. The IL-33 receptor, suppression of tumorigenicity 2 (IL1RL1/ST2), induces type 2 cytokines IL-4, IL-5, and IL-13. As blockade of IL-4/IL-13 improves both histologic and clinical EoE⁴, and trials of anti-IL-5R are ongoing, we aimed to identify cells that can respond to IL-33 and the cellular sources of pathogenic Type 2 cytokines in EoE. T-helper 2 (Th2) CD4 lymphocytes are known producers of IL-4, IL-5, and IL-13, as are group 2 innate lymphoid cells (ILC2), but whether tissue eosinophils, mast cells, or basophils contribute type 2 cytokines in active EoE is under explored^{5,6}.

We examined biopsies and blood samples from patients undergoing esophagogastroduodenoscopy at our institution (Table S1).

We found eosinophils, mast cells, basophils, and Th2 cells; however, ILC2s were not reliably detected in esophageal tissue and were withheld from further analyses (Figure 1A-B). ST2 was robustly detected on tissue eosinophils from patients with active EoE (Figure 1C, 1E), whereas blood eosinophils from healthy control, remission, and active EoE were uniformly low for ST2 (Figure 1D, 1F-G; Figure S1). Similarly, serum levels of soluble ST2 (sST2), which is shed as a decoy receptor, were not significantly different among healthy controls, patients with EoE in remission or active disease (Figure 1H, 1I).

We next measured IL-4, IL-5, and IL-13 by flow cytometry and immunofluorescence from esophageal tissue in patients with active EoE (Figure 2A-H). Eosinophils (which unlike T cells were not stimulated with PMA/ionomycin) were frequent expressors of these cytokines (Figure 2A-E). IL-4 was detected in most unstimulated eosinophils (60%) compared to mast cells (8.0%) and basophils 3.8% (Figure 2C). We found IL-13 in 74% of eosinophils compared to 17% of stimulated CRTH2+ Th2 cells, 3.5% of mast cells, and 3.4% of basophils (Figure 2D-F). Although the proportion

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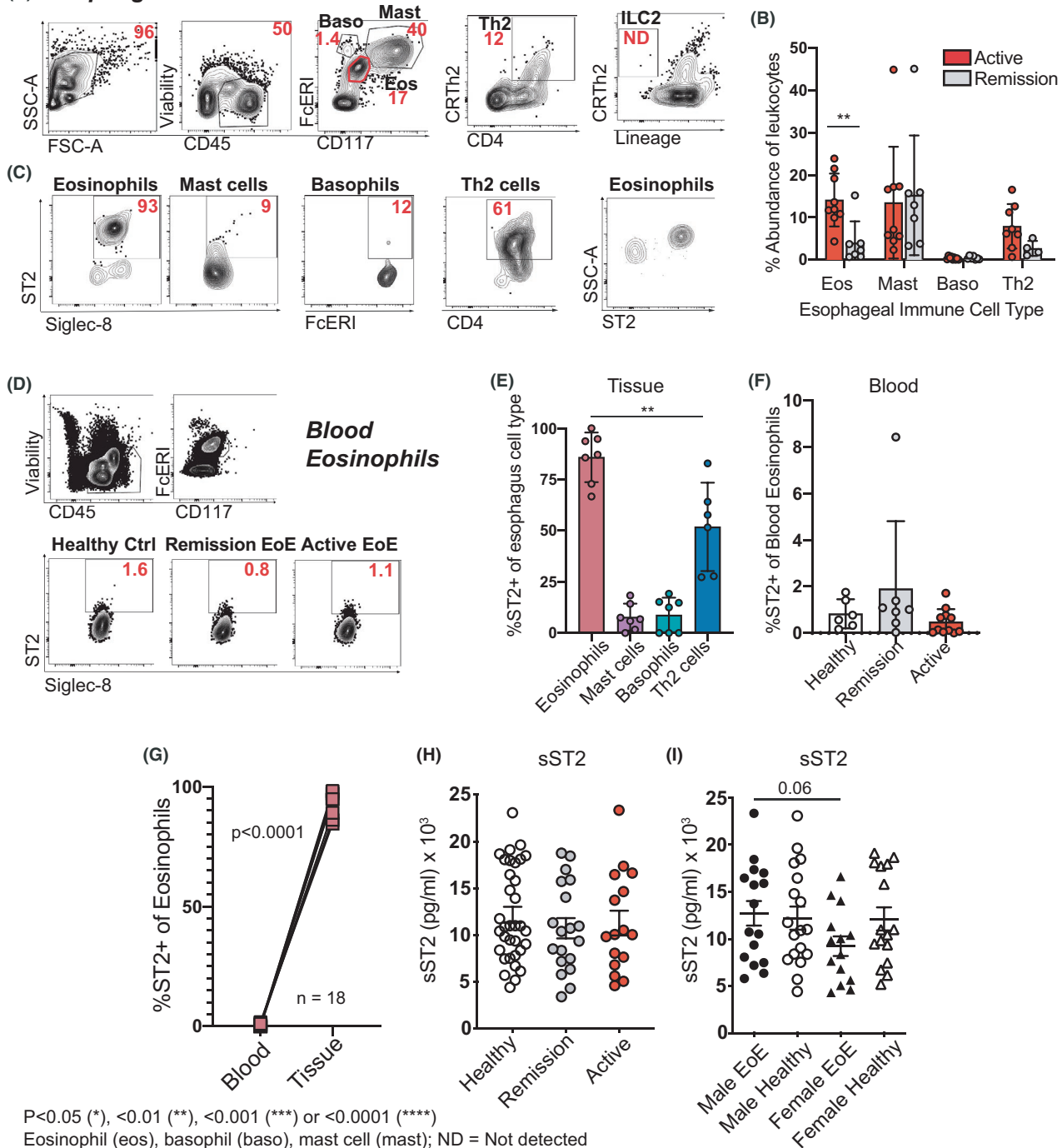
(A) *Esophageal Tissue*

FIGURE 1 Tissue eosinophils express ST2. (A) Flow cytometry of esophageal biopsies. (B) Cell type as percent of CD45⁺ leukocytes in patients with active (n=8–9) and remission (n=4–7) EoE. Flow cytometry showing ST2 expression across esophageal immune cells (C) and blood eosinophils (D). Quantification of ST2 in tissue (E) and blood eosinophils (F). (G) ST2 on blood versus tissue eosinophils. (H) Concentration of sST2 in healthy non-EoE, remission, and active EoE patients shown overall (H) and by sex (I). N=34 EoE (16 active, 16 remission), n=34 controls

of unstimulated mast cells positive for type 2 cytokines was relatively low, mast cells may be pathogenic in EoE and warrant further investigation. Tissue eosinophil expression of type 2 cytokine protein was further verified by immunofluorescent staining for IL-4, IL-13, and eosinophil peroxidase (EPX). A majority of the IL-4⁺ cells in the esophageal epithelium were eosinophils (80.7%); this was

similar for IL-13⁺ cells (82.7%) (Figure 2G–H; Figure S2). To assess whether eosinophils were necessary for type 2 cytokine induction, we administered IL-33 to eosinophil-sufficient (BALB/c WT) and deficient (BALB/c Δ dbiGATA-1) mice using a previously established model of EoE³ (Figure 2I). Immunofluorescence revealed eosinophil infiltration in IL-33-treated WT esophagi but not PBS-treated

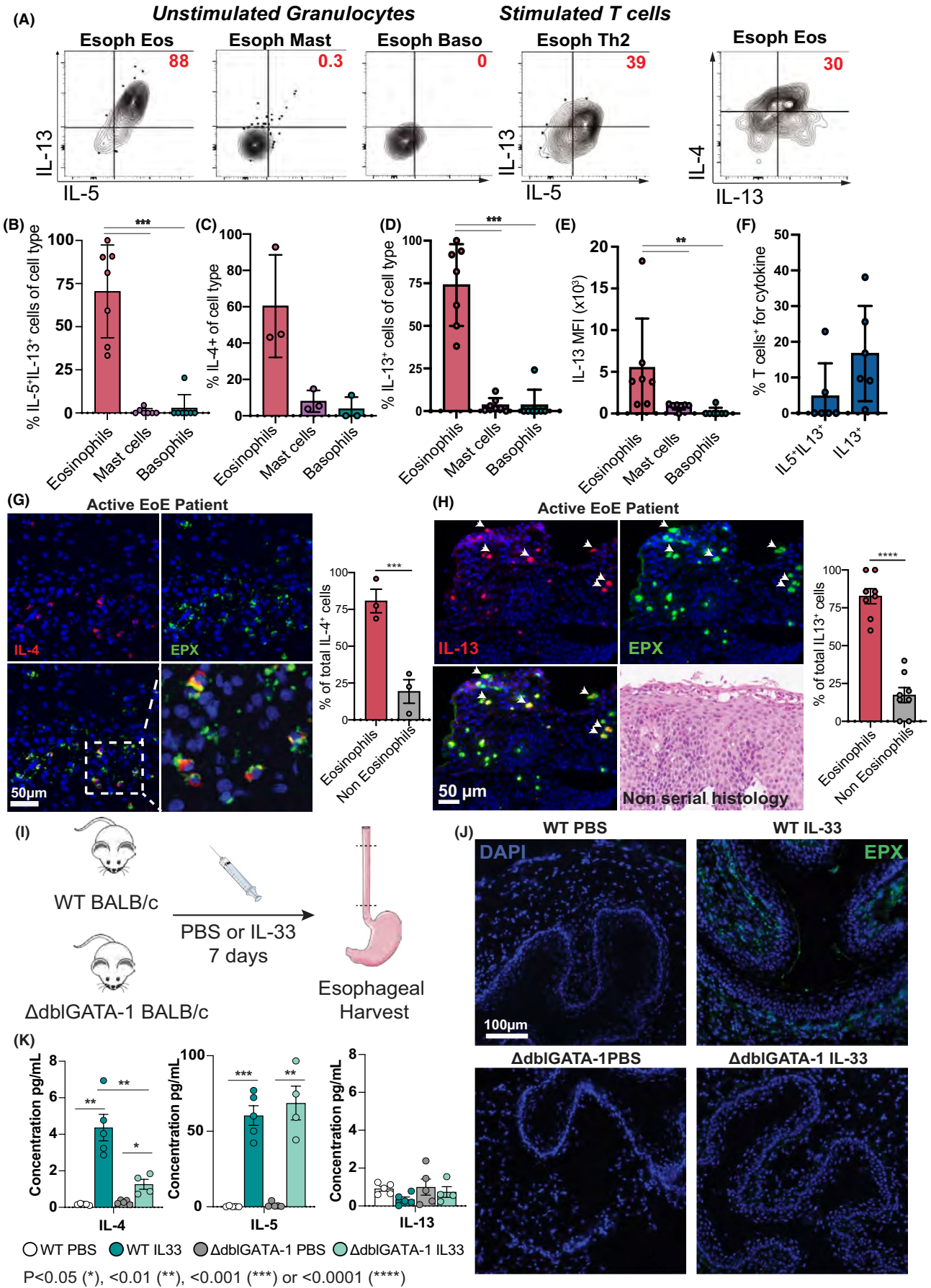


FIGURE 2 Human esophageal eosinophils express type 2 cytokines IL-4, IL-5, and IL-13 by flow cytometry and immunofluorescence. (A) Flow cytometry of intracellular cytokine IL-4, IL-5, and IL-13 on esophageal immune cells, quantification shown in (B) with IL-5 and IL-13 co-expression, (C) IL-4, (D) IL-13, and (E) IL-13 MFI. T-cell cytokines shown in (F). (G-H) Immunofluorescence of human esophageal tissue identifies eosinophils by eosinophil peroxidase (EPX), IL-4- and IL-13-expressing cells with quantification shown to the right. (I) IL-33 EoE mouse model; n=5/group. (J) Immunofluorescence of mouse esophagi. (K) Esophageal cytokine concentrations for IL-4, IL-5, and IL-13 from various treatment groups

WT or Δ dbpGATA-1 mice, as expected (Figure 2J). Although IL-13 was below the limit of detection in this model, multiplex cytokine analysis of esophagi showed IL-33-induced IL-4 was critically dependent on the presence of eosinophils (Figure 2K).

Here, we report frequent expression of the IL-33 receptor ST2 on esophageal-infiltrating eosinophils compared to blood eosinophils, other granulocytes, and Th2 cells. Noting eosinophils lack antigen-specific T-cell receptors, their ability to respond to IL-33 may explain continued inflammation observed in patients after removal of dietary antigen. Future studies are warranted to identify factors influencing ST2 and IL-33 expression and determine whether modulation of this pathway may be a novel therapeutic approach to this increasingly diagnosed yet poorly understood allergic disease.

KEYWORDS

clinical immunology, eosinophils, flow cytometry, interleukins, mucosal immunity

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST


AMU, PJL, PV, KCM, MVY, LQ, LAC, and LRA have no conflicts of interest to disclose. MD receives research support from Novartis and Eli Lilly, consulting fees from Partner Therapeutics, Tillotts Pharma, ORIC Pharmaceuticals, AzurRx, SQZ, Moderna, WebMD, and Experts at Your Fingertips, and Genentech, and is a member of the Scientific Advisory Board for Neoleukin Therapeutics. JJG reports no conflicts of interest related to this study but has received research support from Takeda and the American Partnership for Eosinophilic Disorders. SKD reports no conflicts of interest related to this study, but has received research support from Novartis, BMS, and Eli Lilly, is a co-founder and SAB member for Kojin, and received consulting fees from GSK.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

AMU performed and analyzed flow cytometry, immunofluorescence, and animal experiments. PV, PJL, MVY, LQ, and LRA assisted with acquiring data and conducting experiments. KCM and LAC screened and recruited subjects from the patient cohort and obtained samples for analysis. MD provided patient samples and also managed patient cohort, in addition to providing intellectual guidance. JJG provided patient samples, managed patient cohort, supervised experiments, and analyzed all data providing intellectual guidance of the project. SKD supervised experiments, analyzed all data, and provided intellectual guidance of the project. All authors approved the final version of the manuscript.

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SUPPORTING INFORMATION

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Allergic eye disease: Blocking LTB4/C5 in vivo suppressed disease and Th2 & Th9 cells

To the Editor,

Vernal keratoconjunctivitis (VKC) affects children and can impair vision if the cornea becomes involved. Immunosuppressives (steroids and cyclosporin A) are required but can have side effects, and novel immunotherapeutic approaches are needed.¹ The aim of this study was to investigate the contributions of LTB4 and complement C5 in a model of allergic eye disease (experimental allergy conjunctivitis, EAC).² Previous studies have demonstrated that nomacopan, a bifunctional recombinant biologic derived from blood-feeding ticks, has anti-inflammatory properties by capturing LTB4 and preventing it from interacting with its two known G protein-coupled cell surface receptors (GPCR BLT1 and BLT2). Simultaneously, nomacopan inhibited C5 end terminal complement activation, thereby preventing formation of C5b-9 and C5a.³ These two pathways have evolutionary connections as phylogenetic analysis showed that tick saliva started as an LTB4 inhibitor, and subsequently acquired the ability to inhibit C5. It has been shown in a mouse model of inflammatory arthritis that C5a production resulted in the release of LTB4 to promote further neutrophil migration to the interstitium.⁴

EAC is a model of allergic eye disease mainly driven by effector Th2 cells and mast cells (MC). During EAC, conjunctival inflammation can be detected after 5 days, scored non-invasively² (Figure S1A-C), with elevated levels of conjunctival IL-9-expressing CD4⁺T cells and MC detected in tissues and cells expanded from conjunctival explants (Figure S1D-J). Significantly increased levels of tryptase⁺ conjunctival MC were observed, co-expressing intracellular IL-9 in the sub-epithelial area within the fornix of conjunctival EAC tissues (Figure S1G).

In this study, we investigated the effects of topically administered nomacopan in EAC and observed a significant suppression of disease in treated mice, and a decrease in IL-9-expressing CD4⁺T cells (Figure 1A-C; Figure S2A). Recent studies have demonstrated that IL-9 can be produced by Th9 and Th2 cells.^{5,6} To determine which CD4⁺T cell subset was producing IL-9, transcription factor expression was investigated. IL-9-producing Th2 cells express GATA3, but not PU-1, whereas IL-9-producing Th9 cells express PU.1, but not GATA3. Within the infiltrating CD4⁺T cells in EAC, Th9 cells (IL-9⁺PU.1⁺) and IL-9-expressing Th2 cells

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