- 1 Title: Inception of early life allergen induced airway hyperresponsiveness is reliant on
- 2 IL-13⁺CD4⁺ T cells
- 3
- 4 **One Sentence Summary:**
- 5 6 The lymphoid cellular source of IL-13 driving AHR is age dependent.

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52	Abstract
53	Airway hyperresponsiveness (AHR) is a critical feature of wheezing and asthma in children,
54	but the initiating immune mechanisms remain unconfirmed. We demonstrate that both rIL-33
55	and allergen (house dust mite (HDM), or Alternaria alternata) exposure from day 3 of life

56 resulted in significantly increased pulmonary IL-13⁺CD4⁺ T cells which were indispensable for

57	the development of AHR. In contrast, adult mice had a predominance of pulmonary
58	Lin ^{neg} CD45 ⁺ CD90 ⁺ IL-13 ⁺ innate lymphoid cells (ILC2s) following administration of rIL-33.
59	HDM exposure of neonatal IL-33KO mice still resulted in AHR. However, neonatal CD4 ^{cre} IL-
60	13 KO mice (lacking IL-13 ⁺ CD4 ⁺ T cells) exposed to allergen from day 3 of life were protected
61	from AHR despite persistent pulmonary eosinophilia, elevated IL-33 levels and IL-13 ⁺ ILCs.
62	Moreover, neonatal mice were protected from AHR when inhaled Acinetobacter Iwoffii (an
63	environmental bacterial isolate found in cattle farms which is known to protect from childhood
64	asthma) was administered concurrent with HDM. A. Iwoffii blocked the expansion of
65	pulmonary IL-13 ⁺ CD4 ⁺ T cells while IL-13 ⁺ ILCs and IL-33 remained elevated. Administration
66	of A. Iwoffii mirrored the findings from the CD4 ^{cre} IL-13 KO mice, providing a translational
67	approach for disease protection in early life. These data demonstrate that IL-13 ⁺ CD4 ⁺ T cells,
68	rather than IL-13 ⁺ ILCs or IL-33 are critical for inception of allergic airways
69	hyperresponsiveness in early life.
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74 Introduction

75 The kev pathophysiological abnormalities of allergic asthma include airway 76 hyperresponsiveness (AHR), eosinophilic inflammation and remodelling (1). Childhood onset 77 disease is common, affecting approximately 10% of children, and is characterised by the key 78 clinical symptom of recurrent wheeze (2). Approximately one-third of all children develop 79 wheezing in the first 5 years of life, but only one-third of those will develop asthma (3). 80 However, the mechanisms by which allergic immune responses are initiated and the factors 81 that mediate onset of pre-school wheezing and progression to asthma are currently unidentified (4, 5). AHR is a central feature of recurrent wheezing in children who develop asthma, and 82 83 impaired lung function (6, 7) and AHR shortly after birth (8, 9), are known to be associated 84 with asthma in adolescence and adulthood (10).

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86 The importance of innate immunity, specifically innate lymphoid cells (ILCs), in the inception 87 of allergic asthma is increasingly proposed (11). However, during pregnancy there is a change 88 in the uterine environment towards a Th2 cytokine profile and the thymic microenvironment is 89 Th2-skewed in the early postnatal period and undergoes age-related suppression in favor of 90 increasing Th1 maturation (12). Despite this, the current dogma is that pulmonary type 2 ILCs, 91 not CD4⁺ T cells, are the primary cellular source of type 2 cytokines (IL-5 and IL-13) in early 92 life (13). Even though allergic asthma begins in childhood (14), mechanistic studies of allergic 93 airways disease had predominantly used adult experimental models (15-17), thus disregarding 94 the specific developmental effects of postnatal immune maturation (18). A number of recent 95 studies have utilized age appropriate murine neonatal models and have demonstrated that in 96 C57BL/6 mice perinatal type 2 immunity depends on IL-33 which is immediately upregulated 97 from the first day of life and drives accumulation and activation of IL-13 secreting ILC2s and 98 pulmonary eosinophils following house dust mite exposure (13, 19, 20). However, the 99 predominant clinical manifestation in infants and pre-school children is recurrent wheezing 100 with associated AHR and reduced lung function (21), but neonatal studies to date have not 101 investigated the mechanisms driving AHR.

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103 Age dependent maturation of the immune system occurs following birth once the neonate 104 encounters the antigen rich external environment (22). The composition of the airway bacterial 105 profile *in utero* and in early life is also important since exposure to a diverse bacterial mix, 106 such as that found on traditional cattle farms has been shown to protect from the development 107 of allergy and asthma (23, 24). The capacity of the adaptive immune system to induce memory 108 responses is limited and is thought to gradually develop following early-life environmental 109 exposure to microbes, pollutants and allergens (25). Interestingly, a population of fetally 110 derived CD4⁺ T cells with an effector memory phenotype are present in cord blood. These cells 111 develop during fetal life but have a variety of effector inflammatory functions associated with 112 $CD4^+$ T helper cells at birth (26). However, little is known about the phenotype or function of 113 tissue specific (pulmonary) effector T cells in early life. Studies in infants have shown allergen 114 induced immune responses in whole blood mononuclear cells can be detected at birth with IL-115 13 predominating following stimulation with the egg protein ovalbumin (27). A differential 116 developmental pattern of IL-13 vs IL-4, IL-5, and IFN-y production was evident in infants in 117 the first 3 months of life (28). Although these data implicate IL-13 in the inception of early 118 life allergic immune responses in children, there is little direct mechanistic evidence, 119 particularly for identification of a cellular source for IL-13 during this crucial period.

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We have previously demonstrated that exposure of neonatal mice from day 3 of life to inhaled house dust mite (HDM) promotes robust eosinophilia, Th2 type immune responses and AHR (29). We show here that the cellular source of type 2 mediators in neonatal mice is not restricted 124 to ILCs but that IL-13 secreting CD4⁺ T cells are crucial for the development of AHR in early 125 life. Additionally, we show that IL-33, which is elevated in school-age children with severe 126 asthma, and has been linked to airway remodelling, is not a requirement for the initiation of 127 allergic airways disease. Moreover, protection from AHR was achieved in neonatal mice using 128 inhaled farmyard bacteria administered concomitantly with HDM, with a selective reduction 129 in IL-13⁺CD4⁺ T cells and IL-13, despite elevated IL-33 and IL-13⁺ ILCs. Our data 130 demonstrate the cellular source of IL-13 is essential in determining the development of early 131 life AHR and underpins the concept of a window of immune development in early life that has 132 implications for development of AHR.

133

134 **Results**

135 $IL-13^+CD4^+T$ cells are induced by IL-33 in neonatal mice.

136 IL-33 is sufficient to generate allergic airway responses in adult mice via the induction of type 137 2 ILCs, and without the development of an adaptive immune response (30). Whilst ILCs have 138 been shown to drive type 2 immunity in some models, their role in initiating AHR in early life 139 has not been investigated. In order to determine whether ILCs are also the predominant cellular 140 source of IL-13 in neonatal mice, we delivered intra-nasal rIL-33 for 2 weeks to adult mice or 141 neonatal mice from day 3 of life (Fig. 1A) and enumerated IL-13⁺CD4⁺ T cells and ILCs by 142 flow cytometry (fig. S1, A and B). There are numerous published strategies to define an ILC, 143 using combinations of extracellular markers and intracellular cytokine or transcription factor 144 expression (31). However, expression of cell surface markers by ILCs is variable and context-145 dependent (32). Given the importance of IL-13 in driving the pathological features of early life 146 airway disease we focussed on cytokine secreting cells, initially gating on pulmonary Lin^{neg}CD45⁺IL-13⁺ cells and then examined the expression of the extracellular ILC markers 147 148 CD127, CD90, CD25, ST2 and ICOS within this population (fig. S1C). We found that in 149 neonatal BALB/c mice only CD90 reliably marked the IL-13⁺ ILC population at steady state 150 and during IL-33-driven inflammation (fig. S1C), therefore we used Lin^{neg}CD45⁺CD90⁺IL-13⁺ 151 as our definition for ILC2. ST2, CD25 and ICOS were variable expressed, being present on 152 only 30-40% of ILC2 at baseline (PBS treated) although this increased to 75% on rIL-33 153 induced ILC2 (fig. S1C & D). CD127 staining showed little separation from fluorescence 154 minus one controls in BALB/c ILC2s under all conditions tested (fig. S1E), precluding its 155 usefulness as a definitive marker of ILC2 populations in this strain of mice. Notably, more 156 substantial CD127 staining was observed on ILC2 in C57BL/6 mice, both at steady state and 157 during allergic airway inflammation (fig. S1E), suggesting that strain differences exist in 158 murine ILC2 surface phenotype. Importantly, Lin^{neg}CD45⁺CRTH2⁺ ILC2 in children with 159 STRA are also predominantly $CD127^{neg}(33)$. Collectively, these findings rationalise the use of Lin^{neg}CD45⁺CD90⁺ IL-13⁺ as a robust definition of functional IL-13 producing ILC2 in 160 161 neonatal BALB/c mice.

162 There was a significant difference in the balance of IL-13⁺ lymphoid cellular phenotypes 163 observed in the lungs of adult and neonatal mice exposed to the innate cytokine rIL-33. In adult 164 mice, as expected the effect was predominantly on induction of IL-13⁺ ILCs, compared to IL-165 13⁺CD4⁺ T cells (CD3⁺CD4⁺) (Fig. 1B). In contrast, neonatal mice responded to rIL-33 with 166 comparable increases in levels of both IL-13⁺CD4⁺ T cells and IL-13⁺ ILCs (Fig. 1C). Both 167 adult and neonatal mice developed significant eosinophilia following challenge with rIL-33 168 and this response was greatest in adult mice (Fig 1D). In addition, rIL-33 increased airway 169 resistance at both ages, concomitant with increased IL-13 levels (Fig. 1 E-H). Levels of IL-5 170 were also increased in mice of both ages although the magnitude of the response was greatest 171 in adult mice (Fig. 1I). Although 2 weeks exposure to cytokine is too short to observe 172 phenotypic changes in airway remodelling, increases in the mucin genes Muc5ac and Muc5b, 173 the principle components of airway mucous, were observed in both neonatal and adult mice 174 (Fig. 1 J&K). Muc5ac has been demonstrated to be necessary for the development of AHR, is

- increased in asthmatic patients including children and is regulated by levels of IL-13 (34).
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177 Both T cells and ILC comprise the neonatal response to allergen.

178 To determine the cellular source of IL-13 following exposure to an antigenically complex, 179 clinically relevant allergen, we compared intra-nasal HDM exposure for 2 weeks in neonatal 180 mice from day 3 of life to adult mice (Fig. 2). Duration of allergen exposure was limited to 2 181 weeks in order to focus on mechanisms underlying disease inception, before established 182 adaptive allergic immunity with elevated IgE levels. Both neonatal and adult mice developed 183 AHR (Fig. 2, A and B) and eosinophilia (Fig. 2C) in response to allergen. In contrast to the 184 immune response to rIL-33, which in adult mice skewed the IL-13 secreting cells towards an 185 ILC2 dominated response, HDM resulted in significantly elevated numbers of IL-13⁺CD4⁺ T 186 cells (Fig. 2D). In contrast, neonatal mice exposed to HDM had a mixed response with 187 induction of both Th2 and ILC2s (Fig. 2E). However, significantly more IL-13⁺CD4⁺ T cells 188 were induced compared to IL-13⁺ ILCs (Fig 2E). The increase in IL-13⁺ cells, irrespective of 189 their source resulted in elevated levels of pulmonary IL-13 in adult and neonatal mice (Fig. 190 2F). To extend our observations to another clinically relevant allergen we enumerated ILCs 191 and T cells following exposure to the fungal allergen Alternaria alternata (fig. S2A), which is 192 associated with severe paediatric asthma (35) and with elevated pulmonary IL-33 (36). In both 193 adult and neonatal mice inhaled Alternaria induced a strong inflammatory response with 194 significant elevations of both IL-13⁺CD4⁺ T cells and IL-13⁺ ILCs (Fig. 2, G and H) with 195 associated increased levels of IL-13 (Fig. 2I). The elevated IL-13 concentration in the lung 196 correlated with increased AHR (fig. S2, B and C). Congruent with a type 2 inflammatory 197 response both adult and neonatal mice exhibited significant pulmonary eosinophilia (fig. S2D).

199 We next phenotyped the allergen induced T cells present in neonatal lungs and compared them 200 to adults. In the CD4⁺IL-13^{neg} population the proportion of cells with a memory like phenotype (CD44⁺ CD62L^{low/-}) was equivalent in adults and neonates (Fig. 3, A and B), whereas the 201 202 percentage expressing CD103, an integrin associated with epithelial lymphocyte localisation, 203 and the activation markers CD69 and ICOS was greater in adults compared to neonates (Fig. 204 3, C - F). Examination of the CD4⁺IL-13⁺ T cells revealed similar patterns of extracellular 205 marker expression in cells recovered from both HDM and *Alternaria* treated mice although the 206 proportions of cells expressing specific markers was greatest in mice administered *Alternaria*. In contrast to the IL-13^{neg} population, the proportion of IL-13⁺CD4⁺ T cells with a memory like 207 208 phenotype was significantly higher in neonates than adults (Fig. 3, A and B). Likewise, more 209 neonatal IL-13⁺CD4⁺ T cells expressed CD103 than adults after HDM (Fig. 3, C and D). A 210 very high proportion of cells expressed CD69 and ICOS in adults and neonatal mice exposed 211 to either HDM or Alternaria (Fig. 3, E and F). Thus, the effector T cells in neonatal lungs, far 212 from having an immature phenotype appear analogous to adult T cells. 213 We next characterised the intra-cellular cytokine profile of the T cells. At baseline (PBS control 214 mice) the majority of neonatal cytokine producing CD3⁺CD4⁺ cells had the capacity to secrete 215 IFN- γ and IL-17, whereas this was more limited in cells from adult mice (Fig. 3, G and H). HDM elicited a mixed T cell response with an increase in the proportion of Th2 (IL-5⁺ or IL-216 217 13^+), Th1 (IFN- γ^+) and regulatory (IL- 10^+) T cells in both adults and neonates (Fig. 3, I and J). 218 One notable difference in the T cell response to HDM between adults and neonates is that in 219 neonates a high proportion of IL-13⁺CD4⁺ T cells co-express IL-5 but in adults these dual 220 positive cells are relatively rare. Exposure to *Alternaria* stimulated the greatest proliferation of 221 CD4⁺ T cells which predominantly generated IL-13 or IL-17 in neonates (Fig. 3K). In adult

mice *Alternaria* polarised T cells to a type 2 phenotype with very few Th17 cells compared to neonates (Fig. 3, K and L). 224 CD4⁺ effector cells have recently been identified in human cord blood (3). We therefore 225 investigated the relative proportions of CD4⁺IL-13⁺ T cells and IL-13⁺ ILCs in cord blood. 50% 226 of CD45⁺cells were CD4⁺, while only 0.02% were Lin⁻CD161⁺ ILCs (Fig. 3M). In keeping with our observations regarding pulmonary IL-13⁺ cells in neonatal mice, ILC2s in cord blood 227 228 (from healthy term infants) were not the predominant source of IL-13. Instead CD4⁺ T cells 229 contributed to the potential pool of neonatal IL-13 (Fig. 3N). Neonatal T cells were positive 230 for the T-cell receptor and negative for the CD1d dimer expressed on natural killer T cells (Fig. 231 30).

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Allergen exposure in neonatal SCID mice protects from AHR, while **II33**^{-/-} mice are unaffected. 234 235 To determine the functional significance of the pulmonary IL-13⁺CD4⁺ T cells in early life, we 236 exposed neonatal SCID mice, which lack T, B and NK cells, to HDM for 2 weeks (fig. S3A). 237 While the WT mice showed the expected increase in AHR (fig. S3B), the neonatal SCID mice 238 did not exhibit any AHR (fig. S3C). The observed AHR in WT mice correlated with increased 239 levels of IL-13 and IL-33 which were not apparent in SCID mice (fig. S3, D and E). IL-13 is 240 known to be critical for the generation of AHR. However, the dependence of AHR on the innate 241 cytokine IL-33 in neonates has not been investigated. Therefore, we exposed neonatal WT and 1133-/- mice to HDM from day 3 of life. Neonatal 1133-/- mice developed equivalent AHR and 242 243 an inflammatory response of similar composition and magnitude to WT mice (Fig. 4, A-D). IL-33 was absent in the *II33-/-* mice as expected but the type 2 cytokines IL-5 and IL-13 were 244 245 induced to similar levels in WT and KO mice (Fig. 4, E-G), demonstrating that in neonatal 246 mice AHR is independent of IL-33 but totally reliant on IL-13. These data underscore the 247 functional importance of perinatal IL-13⁺CD4⁺ T cells in inducing AHR in early life and 248 suggest pulmonary T cells are a critical source of IL-13 in the immediate postnatal period.

250 *Mice lacking IL-13 in CD4⁺ T cells do not develop AHR in response to allergen.* 251 In order to confirm the importance of T cell derived IL-13 on the generation of allergen induced AHR we exposed either neonatal WT or Cd4-cre Il-4Il13^{fl/fl} mice to inhaled HDM 252 or Alternaria. T cells from Cd4-cre Il-4Il13^{fl/fl} mice are unable to generate IL-13 or IL-4 253 254 so permit the specifc role of T cell derived IL-4/IL-13 to be investigated. Initial experiments 255 confirmed the previously observed allergen induced increase in IL-13⁺CD4⁺ T cells in WT 256 mice and established that these cells were absent in the Cd4-cre Il-4Il13^{fl/fl} mice (Fig. 5A). 257 Confirming our hypothesis, mice lacking these cells did not develop AHR following exposure 258 to either HDM or Alternaria (Fig. 5, B and C). We next determined the composition of the 259 pulmonary cellular infiltrate in these mice. The number of eosinophils (Fig. 5, D and E) and 260 IL-13⁺ ILC (Fig. 5, F and G) were not significantly different between WT and Cd4-cre Il-261 4//13^{fl/fl} mice. Likewise, T cells expressing IL-5 were not affected by the specific loss of IL-262 13⁺CD4⁺ T cells (Fig. 5, H and I). Despite the presence of increased IL-13⁺ ILC2 with the 263 capacity to secrete IL-13 (Fig. 5, F and G), there was only a minimal increase in pulmonary 264 IL-13 levels following HDM or Alternaria exposure (Fig. 5, J and K) in the absence of IL-265 13⁺CD4⁺ T cells. Expression of Muc5ac was increased in neonates exposed to both HDM and 266 Alternaria (Fig. 5, L and M). In mice lacking IL-13⁺CD4⁺ T cells the HDM induced increase 267 in Muc5ac was ablated (Fig. 5L) indicating that expression is dependent on IL-13 levels. 268 However, in mice administered Alternaria, allergen induced Muc5ac gene expression was 269 maintained (Fig. 5M). This suggests IL-13⁺ ILC2 alone are not sufficient to generate levels of 270 IL-13 necessary to drive AHR in the absence of IL-13⁺CD4⁺ T cells in early life. Thus, mice 271 lacking IL-13 specifically in CD4⁺ T cells were completely protected from developing AHR 272 following exposure to different allergens, underscoring the importance of these cells in the 273 inception of early life AHR.

275 Therapeutic manipulation of $IL-13^+CD4^+$ T cells protects neonatal mice from developing AHR. 276 Whilst studies using knockout mice show proof of principle, in order to determine whether it 277 is possible to translate these findings and therapeutically manipulate neonatal IL-13⁺CD4⁺ T 278 cells which drive allergen induced changes to lung function, we investigated the mechanism of 279 action of an immunomodulatory agent, the lyophilised bacteria Acinetobacter iwoffii, which is 280 associated with protection from asthma in children (17) and AHR in adult mouse models (20). 281 We administered A. iwoffii (a farmyard isolate with strong allergy protective properties) intra-282 nasally concomitant with HDM to neonatal BALB/c mice from day 3 of life for 3 weeks (Fig. 283 6A). Neonatal mice that received both the inhaled bacteria and HDM were completely 284 protected from the development of AHR (Fig. 6B). Moreover, eosinophils were significantly 285 reduced in the mice that received A. iwoffii (Fig. 6C). Pulmonary IL-33 levels remained 286 elevated in all mice that received HDM even those that received the bacterial isolate (Fig. 6D), but in keeping with the AHR results, allergen induced IL-13 levels were almost completely 287 288 abrogated in the mice that received A. iwoffii (Fig. 6E). When the lymphoid cellular source of 289 IL-13 was assessed, numbers of IL-13⁺ ILCs were increased in the mice that received bacteria 290 irrespective of allergen exposure (Fig. 6F), but IL-13⁺CD4⁺ T cells were significantly reduced 291 (Fig. 6G). Levels of allergen induced IL-5 were unaffected by the A. iwoffii (Fig. 6H). To 292 further investigate how the A. iwoffii prevented the recruitment of IL-13⁺CD4⁺ T cells we 293 enumerated pulmonary dendritic cells. In agreement with data in the literature, exposure to 294 HDM alone resulted in a significant increase in the number of CD11b⁺ cDCs (Fig. 6I). pDC 295 and MoDC numbers were also elevated. However, concomitant exposure to A. iwoffii 296 completely blocked the expansion of CD11b⁺ cDCs and MoDCs (Fig.6I) correlating with the 297 reduction in IL-13⁺CD4⁺ T cells and improvement in AHR in these mice. These data confirm 298 the critical role of IL-13 from IL-13⁺CD4⁺ T cells for the generation of neonatal AHR and

show that IL-13⁺ ILCs cannot compensate for the absence of IL-13 from T cells in inducing
neonatal AHR.

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302 Discussion

303 An essential clinical feature of asthma and wheezing in childhood, including infancy and the 304 pre-school years, is the presence of AHR (37). In addition, cohort studies have shown the 305 single most important factor that determines development of asthma in children is AHR in early 306 life, which may be apparent even before the onset of the manifest symptom of wheezing (38). 307 In order to identify mechanisms mediating allergen induced disease inception, and targets for 308 intervention to allow asthma prevention, achieving a reduction in AHR is essential. However, 309 the underlying molecular mechanisms remained unclear. AHR was the focus of this study in 310 order to optimally reflect paediatric symptoms. We determined that effector IL-13⁺ CD4⁺ cells 311 are critical for the development of AHR following exposure to either the ILC2 promoting 312 cytokine rIL-33 or clinically relevant allergens HDM and Alternaria in the first weeks of life. 313 IL-13⁺ ILCs were insufficient to compensate for an absence of IL-13⁺CD4⁺ T cells in early life, 314 demonstrated by the lack of AHR in neonatal SCID mice or in mice specifically lacking IL-13 315 in CD4⁺ T cells following exposure to inhaled allergen. Mice lacking functional T and B cells 316 or IL-13⁺CD4⁺ T cells did not develop increased levels of IL-13 following allergen exposure 317 from day 3 of life despite comparable numbers of IL-13⁺ ILCs. Moreover, administration of 318 inhaled farm dust bacteria during exposure to HDM to neonatal mice resulted in complete 319 protection from AHR with a significant reduction in pulmonary IL-13⁺CD4⁺ T cells and levels of IL-13, but sustained elevation of IL-33 and IL-13⁺ ILCs. Collectively these data show that 320 321 in neonatal mice, T cells are an essential early source of IL-13 to drive AHR. Our results 322 indicate that although ILCs have the potential to generate IL-13 when stimulated with PMA 323 and ionomycin *in vitro*, in the absence of IL-13⁺CD4⁺ T cells *in vivo* functional levels of IL-13

are not generated. Thus, despite the assumption that ILC2s initiate pulmonary allergic immune
responses, this is in fact dependent on age, and in neonatal mice IL-13⁺CD4⁺ T cells are critical
for disease inception in early life. This has significant implications for therapies to prevent
wheeze and asthma inception in childhood, since molecular targets that prevent the induction
of type 2 ILCs are unlikely to be effective in preventing early onset disease.

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330 Key distinctions between adult and neonatal immune responses following HDM exposure were 331 also shown in a neonatal model that used a single dose of allergen to achieve sensitisation at 332 day 3, 14 or adult life, followed by allergen challenge a week later (13). Similarly, previous 333 neonatal murine studies have shown the importance of the first 2 weeks of life in causing 334 exaggerated immune responses (39), but did not examine associated AHR or interrogate the 335 cellular source of the mediators that potentially generate AHR. We used a model of continuous, 336 low dose allergen exposure, rather than sensitisation followed by allergen challenge several 337 days later, as this reflects the type of exposure that young children likely experience with 338 perennial allergens such as HDM and Alternaria. Although ILC2 have been shown to be 339 important in generating Th2 immunity in experiments with papain or helminths in adult mice 340 (40, 41) our data indicate that in neonatal mice IL- $13^{+}CD4^{+}$ T cells drive early life allergen 341 induced AHR. We cannot rule out the role of T cell derived IL-4 in neonatal allergen-342 driven responses, and given the potnetial importance of IL-4, future studies are needed 343 to clarify the relative importance of IL-4 and IL-13 production in this process. In adult 344 mice, an elegant series of experiments using ILC deficient mice reconstituted with naïve CD4⁺ 345 T cells has also shown that activation of primed Th2 cells is independent of ILC2s (42). 346 However, in contrast to our findings in neonatal mice, the adult Th2 cell activation was 347 dependent on pulmonary IL-33. Similarly, in response to HDM or papain, adult Th2 cells 348 secreting IL-13 but not IL-4 have been shown to mediate TCR independent, IL-33 dependent innate-like immune responses (*43*). Thus, interactions between Th2 cells and ILC2 are vital in
developing pathophysiology, but are likely to be contextual depending on environmental or
temporal factors.

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353 The in utero environment is biased towards Th2 immunity in order to support a successful 354 pregnancy. CD4⁺ effector cells with a memory phenotype have previously been identified in 355 human cord blood (26) and we have also shown the presence of $IL-13^+$ CD4⁺ cells, but very 356 few IL-13⁺ILCs in cord blood from healthy newborns. A specific subpopulation of IL-4⁺CD4⁺ 357 T cells that are present in cord blood from naïve human neonates, but are lost during ageing, 358 has also been described (44). This distinct subpopulation of IL4⁺CD4⁺ cells was only found in 359 neonates, but not in adults, and supports the hypothesis of an endogenously poised type 2 360 cytokine profile of T cells in neonates and a link between cytokine production and 361 developmental stage (44). Using neonatal BALB/c mice we have shown that CD4⁺T cells make 362 a vital contribution to the pool of IL-13 in the lung which drives AHR. Caution should therefore 363 be exercised when interpreting data from C57BL/6 mice where allergen appears to induce 364 ILC2s as the major source of IL-13 secreting cells in an IL-33 dependent manner (13). An 365 important factor that determined our use of BALB/c mice is the direct reflection of the disease 366 phenotype of our patients with severe wheezing and asthma, incorporating a marked airway 367 eosinophilia, AHR and remodelling (45, 46), in this strain and protocol of allergen exposure. 368 Previous murine studies, also in BALB/c mice, have shown that polyclonal stimulation of lung 369 T cells results in a bias towards IL-4 and IL-5, and increased ratio of GATA3⁺ T cells compared 370 to T-bet⁺ T cells (47). Interestingly, this would appear to be an intrinsic feature of neonatal T 371 cells since BCG primed lung dendritic cells from either neonates or adults prime adult naïve T 372 cells towards Th1 whereas a Th2 cytokine response is observed from naïve neonatal T cells. 373 Cord blood cells, which are reflective of fetal blood, showed a substantial IL-13 response to

allergen stimulation *in vitro*, and the newborns had a Th2 cytokine bias that was restricted to
IL-13 (28). Although these results were in peripheral blood rather than the lung, they do
indicate that early life is indeed associated with a skewed IL-13 response. We now show that
T cell derived IL-13 is critical for the inception of allergen induced lung function changes.

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379 Our data highlight the critical role of T cell derived IL-13 in the neonatal period. Neonatal mice 380 have a population of IL-13⁺CD4⁺ T cells which have the capacity to rapidly promote AHR 381 when exposed to allergen. Modulating the allergen induced increase in dendritic cells in the 382 lung, and consequently the IL-13⁺CD4⁺ T cells, via a farm dust bacterial isolate specifically 383 abrogates AHR, even while IL-33 and IL-13⁺ ILCs are maintained. The concept of the neonatal 384 'window of opportunity' is gathering momentum with regard to the mucosal microbiota (39) 385 and we now know that life-long immune homeostasis and susceptibility to immune mediated 386 diseases (asthma, allergies, bronchiectasis) can be shaped during the postnatal period (22, 48, 387 49). The specialized neonatal adaptive immune response after birth also has a predisposition to 388 higher expression of GATA-3⁺, type 2 cytokine producing pulmonary T cells (47) as a result 389 of both normal development and in response to environmental exposures. In the current study 390 we have shown that interventional approaches to prevent AHR and asthma in early life need to 391 focus on reducing IL-13⁺CD4⁺ T cells, rather than IL-13⁺ ILCs, highlighting the need for age-392 specific therapeutic approaches in infants and young children compared to adults.

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400 Materials and Methods

401 *Study Design*

402 This study aimed to determine the immune mechanisms that drive the inception of airway403 hyperresponsiveness in neonatal mice.

404 *Research samples*.

405 Immune cells were collected from the lung tissue of adult and neonatal mice at the times 406 indicated depending on the experimental setup. Cord blood was collected at delivery of full 407 term pregnancies.

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409 Experimental design.

410 *Randomization*

In all experiments, mice from the control and experimental groups came from the same cohorts, were reared under the same environmental conditions, and were age-matched. Adult female mice were randomly placed in either the control group or the experimental group. Neonatal mice were of either sex and litters were randomly assigned to control or experimental groups.

415

416 Sample size.

The number of mice analyzed for each different experimental approach is indicated on each
figure. All experiments were repeated at least once with similar sample sizes and a minimum
number of 4 mice per group.

420

421 Animals and reagents

422 Female BALB/c wild-type and Beige SCID mice were initially obtained from Charles River

423 (Saffron Walden, UK) and maintained by in-house breeding. <u>*Cd4-cre II-4II*13^{fl/fl} mice</u>(50) on

a BALB/c background were a kind gift from David Voehringer. <u>II33^{-/-}</u> mice were a kind gift
from MedImmune Inc. Each mother with its litter was housed separately. Mice were
maintained in specific pathogen–free conditions and given food and water *ad libitum*. In
individual experiments all mice were matched exactly for age and background strain. All
procedures were conducted in accordance with the Animals (Scientific procedures) Act 1986.
Recombinant mouse IL-33 (50µg/kg) for intra-nasal administration was purchased from R&D
Systems (UK).

431

432 *Allergen challenge*

In experiments to assess the effect of allergen challenge on allergic airways disease 3 day old neonatal mice and adults (6-8 weeks) received intra-nasal administration of either HDM or *Alternaria alternata* (Greer, Lenior, NC, USA). From birth to 2 weeks of age mice were administered 20µg house dust mite (HDM) extract, 5µg *Alternaria* or 10µl phosphate buffered saline (PBS), three times a week. Adult mice received 25µg HDM or 10µg *Alternaria*. All outputs were assessed at 24 hours after allergen challenge (*51*).

439

440 Bacteria and allergen co-exposure

BALB/c mice were exposed to intermittent intra-nasal *Acinetobacter iwoffii* F78 (*A. iwoffii* F78) ($1.3x10^8$ cfu first 2 weeks, then $2x10^8$ cfu (52) (a kind gift from Johann Bauer) or PBS followed by HDM (10μ g first 2 weeks, then 15μ g) or PBS for 3 weeks starting on day 3 of life for 3 weeks. All outputs were assessed 24 hours post final challenge as described below.

445

446 Measurement of airway hyperresponsiveness

447 Airways resistance was calculated using the flexivent small animal ventilator (Scireq) using448 our established protocols (*29*).

449 Mice were anesthetized with pentobarbital sodium (50mg/kg intra-peritoneal) and ketamine 450 (100mg/kg intra-muscular), tracheostomised and connected to the flexivent ventilator via a 451 blunt-ended 21-gauge needle (neonate) or 19-gauge needle (adult). The mice were ventilated 452 with an average breathing frequency of 150 breaths/minute; tidal volume of 10ml/kg body 453 weight; positive end-expiratory pressure approximately 2cm H₂O. Changes in resistance to 454 increasing to increasing concentrations of nebulized methacholine (3 -3 100mg/ml were 455 calculated from the snapshot perturbation measurements.Resultant data was fitted using 456 multiple linear regression to the single compartment model in the form: pressure = resistance x 457 flow + elastance x volume + fitting constant.

458

459 Inflammation and cell recovery

460 Bronchoalveolar lavage (BAL) was performed with PBS via a tracheal cannula. The volume of 461 BAL fluid instilled was 3 x 200µl aliquots for neonatal mice, 3 x 300 µl for 3 week old mice and 3 x 400µl in adults (29). After lavage, the large left lobe of the lung was mechanically 462 463 chopped and incubated at 37°C for 1 hour in complete media (RPMI + 10% fetal calf serum, 464 2mM L-glutamine, 100U/ml penicillin/streptomycin) containing 0.15mg/mL collagenase 465 (Type D, Roche Diagnostics) and 25mg/mL DNAse (Type 1, Roche Diagnostics). Cells were 466 recovered by filtration through a 70-µm nylon sieve (Falcon, BD Biosciences, MA), washed 467 twice, resuspended in 1ml complete media, and counted in a haemocytometer (Immune 468 Systems). The total cell yield was quantified by haemocytometer. All cell counts were 469 performed blind by the same observer.

470

471 Flow cytometry

To reduce non-specific binding, cells were incubated with rabbit serum (Sigma) for 15 minutesbefore staining. Where staining for intracellular cytokines, single cell suspensions were

474 incubated at 37 °C in complete RPMI for 4 hours, in the presence of 20 ng/ml phorbol 12-475 myristate 13-acetate (PMA, Sigma-Aldrich), 1.5µg/ml ionomycin free acid from Streptomyces 476 conglobatus (Merck) and 5µg/ml Brefeldin A (Sigma-Aldrich). Cells were subsequently washed in PBS and stained with LIVE/DEADTM Fixable Blue Dead Cell Stain (Thermo 477 478 Fisher/Life Technologies), as per manufacturer's directions, before washing twice in PBS. Cell 479 suspensions were then stained with fluorochrome-conjugated monoclonal antibodies to surface 480 markers (see table/supplementary methods) in staining buffer (PBS containing 1% BSA and 481 0.01% sodium azide) for 20 minutes at 4 °C. Cells were then washed twice in staining buffer 482 and fixed in IC Fixation Buffer (Thermo Fisher/eBioscience) for 15 minutes at room 483 temperature. Where necessary, fixed cells were permeabilized using Permeabilization Buffer 484 (Thermo Fisher/eBioscience) and stained with fluorochome-conjugated antibodies to 485 intracellular cytokines (see table/supplementary methods) in Permeablization buffer for 20 486 minutes at 4 °C. 'Fluorescence minus one' (FMO) controls for extracellular and intracellular 487 antigens were used on matched tissue samples for quality control purposes and to assist with 488 gating. Data were acquired on an LSR Fortessa using FACSDIVA[™] software (both BD) and 489 analysed using FlowJo software (v10, Tree Star). For ILC identification in mouse samples, 490 lineage exclusion gates consisting of the surface markers TCRβ, TCRγδ, CD3e, CD5, CD19, 491 CD11b, CD11c, FCeR1, GR-1, F4/80, NKp46 and TER-119 were used (Supplementary table 492 1). For ILC identification in human samples, a lineage exclusion gate consisting of CD14, 493 CD16, CD19, CD20, CD3 and CD56 was employed.

494

495 Quantification of cytokines

496 Lung tissue was homogenized at 50mg/ml in HBSS (Gibco) containing protease inhibitor 497 tablets (Roche Diagnostics), centrifuged at 800 x g for 20minutes and the supernatant was 498 collected. Cytokines were analyzed in lung homogenate supernatants. Paired antibodies for 499 mouse interleukin IL-33 (R&D Systems) and IL-5 (BD Bioseciences) were used in 500 standardized sandwich ELISA's according to the manufacturer's protocols. IL-13 was 501 measured using a Quantikine kit (R&D Systems) as per the manufacturer's protocol.

502

503 *qPCR*

504 RNA was extracted from the lung using the Qiagen miRNeasy Plus Mini Kit, following the 505 manufacturer's instructions. Reverse transcription was performed with 1-2 µg RNA using the 506 High Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription Kit (Applied Biosystems), following the 507 manufacturer's instructions. Generated cDNA was used for quantitative real-time PCR analysis 508 using TaqMan® Fast Advanced Master Mix (Applied Biosystems) and quantified on the ViiA 509 7 (Applied Biosystems). Relative gene expression was determined via normalisation to the 510 housekeeping gene Gapdh. All TaqMan® primers were purchased from ThermoFisher 511 Scientific. Primers: Gapdh (Mm99999915 g1), Dye: FAM-MGB. II5 (Mm00439646 m1), 512 Dye: FAM-MGB. Il13 (Mm00434204 m1), Dye: FAM-MGB. Muc5ac (Mm01276726 g1), Dye: FAM-MGB. Muc5b (Mm00466391 m1), Dye: FAM-MGB. 513

514

515 Statistical analysis

All results were expressed as median and interquartile range and data were analyzed using GraphPad Prism 7 software (GraphPad Software). Non-parametric tests (Mann Whitney U) were used to detect differences between groups and statistical significance accepted when p < 0.05. *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, and ***p < 0.001

520

521 Supplementary Materials

522 Fig. S1. Defining IL-13⁺ CD4⁺ T cells and ILCs in neonatal mice.

- 523 Fig. S2. *Alternaria* induces AHR in neonatal mice.
- 524 Fig. S3. Allergen exposure in neonatal SCID mice does not result in AHR.
- 525 Table S1. Antibodies used for flow cytometry.

- 527
- 528

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706 The authors thank Jessica Rowley and Jane Srivastava of the Imperial College Core Flow 707 Cytometry facility for assistance. We also thank Johann Bauer (Lehrstuhl für Tierhygiene, 708 **Technische Universität München**,) for his kind gift of *A. iwoffii*. We are grateful to Prof Mark 709 Johnson (Chelsea and Westminster Hospital) for the cord blood samples. 710 711 Funding: This work was supported by the Wellcome Trust (grant 083586/Z/07/Z, 712 087618/Z/08/Z and 107059/Z/15/Z). CML is a Wellcome Senior Fellow in Basic Biomedical 713 Sciences, AB is an NIHR Senior Investigator, SS is an NIHR Career Development Fellow. 714 715

716 Author Contributions:

717 S.S. wrote the manuscript draft, conceived and designed the experiments. E.v.M supplied the

718 A. iwoffii and provided intellectual input on the farmyard dust. J.E.V., A.K.M., R. G., R.S.,

719 A.B., S.L. S.A.W., J.B., V.F., L.D., F.P., F.U., L.J.E., W.J.B., R.A.O. and L.G.G. performed

the experiments. <u>S.A.W., R.A.O. and L.G.G. carried out the statistical analyses</u>. A.K.M., A.B.

and L.G.G. revised the manuscript. C.M.L. conceived the study, designed the experiments andedited the manuscript.

723

724 Competing Interests:

725 The authors <u>declare that they</u> have no competing interests.

726

727 Data and materials availability:

All data needed to evaluate the conclusions in the paper are present in the paper and/or theSupplementary Materials.

731 **Figures captions:**

Fig. 1. T cells and ILCs are equally important sources of IL-13 in neonatal mice exposed
to rIL-33.

734 (A) BALB/c mice ages 3 days and 6-8 weeks were exposed to intermittent intra-nasal 735 recombinant IL-33 (rIL-33) (50µg/kg) or PBS for 2 weeks (♥). Harvest was carried out 24 736 hours post final dose. Numbers of CD3⁺CD4⁺IL-13⁺ T cells compared to innate lymphoid cells (Lin^{neg}CD45⁺CD90⁺IL-13⁺) in lungs of (**B**) adult and (**C**) neonatal BALB/c mice. (**D**) 737 738 Pulmonary eosinophils (SiglecF⁺CD11c^{low/neg}) enumerated by flow cytometry. Airway 739 resistance to methacholine (Mch) in (E) neonatal and (F) adult mice exposed to intra-nasal rIL-740 33. (G) IL-13 gene expression in the lung. (H) Levels of IL-13 in the lungs. (I) IL-5 gene 741 expression in the lung. Expression of (J) Muc5ac and (K) Muc5b. N=6-8 rIL-33, N=4-5 PBS. 742 Data representative of at least 2 experiments. *p<0.05, *p<0.01, ***p<0.001.

743

Fig. 2. In response to allergen T cells and ILCs are equally important sources of IL-13.

Airway responsiveness to methacholine (Mch) in (A) neonatal and (B) adult mice. (C) Pulmonary eosinophils (SiglecF⁺CD11c^{low/neg}). Numbers of Lin^{neg}CD45⁺CD90⁺IL-13⁺ILCs and CD3⁺CD4⁺IL-13⁺ T cells in lungs of (D) adult and (E) neonatal mice. (F) Levels of IL-13 in the lung of mice exposed to HDM. . IL-13⁺ILCs and T cells in lungs of (G) adult and (H) neonatal mice exposed to *ALT*. (I) Levels of IL-13 in the lung of mice exposed to ALT. N=6-8 allergen exposed, N=4-6 PBS. Data representative of 2 experiments. *p<0.05, **<0.01, ***p<0.001.

752

753 Fig. 3. <u>IL-13 is a feature of allergen activated neonatal T cells</u>.

CD4⁺ T cells from house dust mite HDM and *Alternaria alternata* (ALT) treated neonatal and
adult mice were classified as either IL-13⁺ or IL-13^{neg} and analysed for surface markers. Cells

756 were defined as either (A & B) memory-like (CD44⁺CD62L^{low}), (C & D) epithelial associated 757 (CD103⁺) or (E & F) activated (CD69⁺/ICOS⁺). The proportion of neonatal and adult CD4⁺ T 758 cells from (G & H) PBS control, (I & J) HDM treated or (K & L) ALT exposed mice 759 expressing cytokine were also enumerated. N=7-9 allergen exposed, N=5 PBS. Data 760 representative of 2 experiments. Human cord blood was analysed for (M) total CD4⁺ T cells 761 and total ILC2 (Lin⁻CD161⁺CD127⁺CRTH2⁺CD56⁻) and (N) IL-13⁺ CD4⁺ T cells and IL-13⁺ 762 ILC2. (**O**) Neonatal T cells expressed TCR-β but lacked expression of CD1d dimer. Values are expressed as a percentage of live CD45⁺ lymphoid cells. N=20. *p<0.05, **<0.01, ***p<0.001. 763

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Fig. 4. IL-33 is not critical for initiation of allergic airways disease phenotype.

3 day old wild type BALB/c (WT) and <u>II33-/-</u>mice were exposed to intermittent doses of house
dust mite (HDM) or PBS. (A) Airway responsiveness to methacholine (Mch) in neonatal WT
and <u>II33-/-</u> mice. (B) Pulmonary eosinophils (SiglecF⁺CD11c^{low/neg}). Numbers of pulmonary
(C) Lin^{neg}CD45⁺ IL-13⁺ILCs and (D) CD3⁺CD4⁺IL-13⁺ T cells. Levels of (E) IL-33, (F) IL-5
and (G) IL-13 in the lung. N=7-12 HDM, N=6-8 PBS. Data representative of 2 experiments.
*p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001.

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773 Fig. 5. T cell derived IL-13 is essential for the inception of AHR.

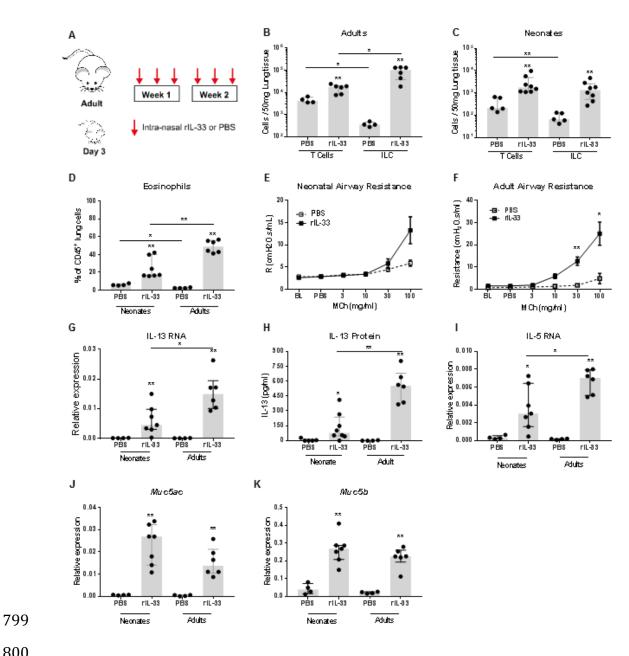
3 day old wild type BALB/c (WT) and <u>Cd4-cre II-4II13^{fl/fl}</u> (CD4Cre) mice were exposed to
intermittent doses of house dust mite (HDM), *Alternaria alternata* (ALT) or PBS for 2 weeks.
(A) Representative flow cytometry plots of cytokine expressing (IL-5 and/or IL-13) CD3⁺CD4⁺
T cells. Airway responsiveness to methacholine (Mch) in neonatal mice exposed to (B) HDM
or (C) ALT. Lung eosinophils enumerated by flow cytometry in mice exposed to (D) HDM or
(E) ALT. Lin^{neg}CD45⁺CD90⁺IL-13⁺ILCs in mice exposed to (F) HDM or (G) ALT. IL-5⁺T
cells to in mice exposed to (H) HDM or (I) ALT. IL-13 levels in mice exposed (J) HDM or

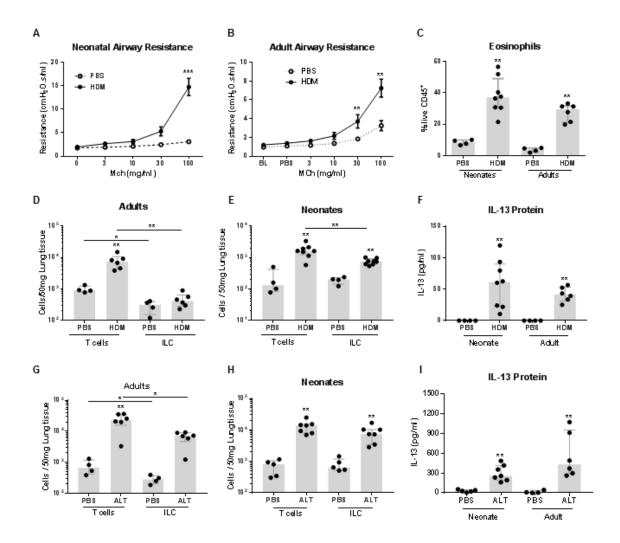
(K) ALT. Muc5ac gene expression in mice exposed to (L) HDM or (M) ALT. N=6-8 allergen
exposed, N=4-6 PBS. Data representative of at least 2 experiments. *p<0.05, **<0.01,
***p<0.001.

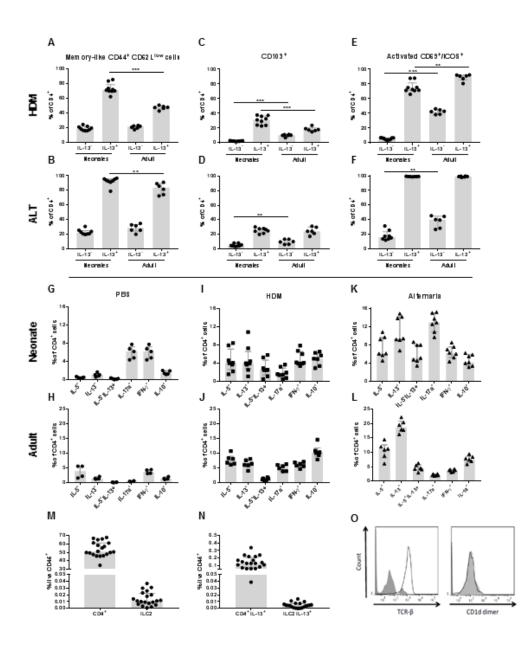
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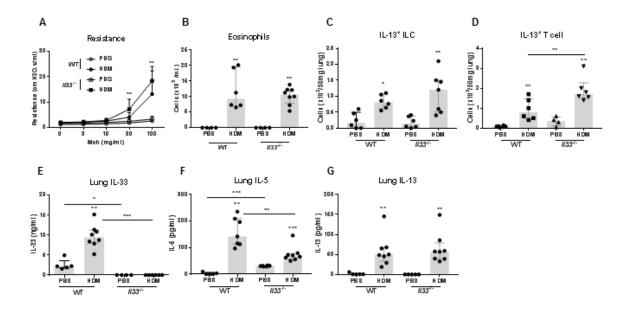
Fig. 6. Protection from AHR in neonatal mice can be achieved by reduction of IL-13⁺ T cells.

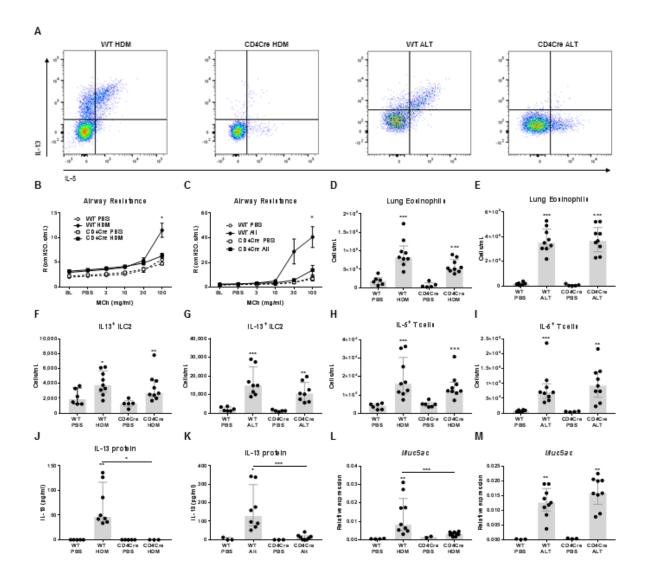
787 (A) BALB/c mice aged 3 days were exposed to intermittent intra-nasal Acinetobacter iwoffii 788 F78 (A. iwoffii F78) (1.3x10⁸ cfu first 2 weeks, then 2x10⁸ cfu) or PBS (①) followed by house 789 dust mite (HDM) (10µg first 2 weeks, then 15µg) or PBS for 3 weeks (♥). Analysis was carried 790 out 24 hours post final dose. (B) Airway hyperresponsivness (AHR) to methacholine (Mch) 791 after 3 weeks of A. iwoffii F78 and HDM co-exposure. (C) Numbers of eosinophils 792 (SiglecF⁺CD11c^{low/neg}) in lung. (D) IL-33 and (E) IL-13 levels from lung homogenate. (F) 793 Numbers of innate lymphoid cells (Lin $CD45^{+}IL-13^{+}$) and (G) $CD3^{+}CD4^{+}IL-13^{+}$ T cells. (H) 794 IL-5 levels in the lung tissue. (I) Dendritic cell (DC) populations in the lung enumerated by 795 cytometry. cDC (CD11b⁺CD11c^{high}), pDC $(CD11c^{int}Ly6c^{+}CD64^{-}),$ flow MoDC (CD11c⁺Ly6c⁺CD64⁺). N=8 for HDM and bacteria exposed groups, N=5 for PBS. *p<0.05, 796 **p<0.01, ***p<0.001. Data representative of 3 experiments. 797

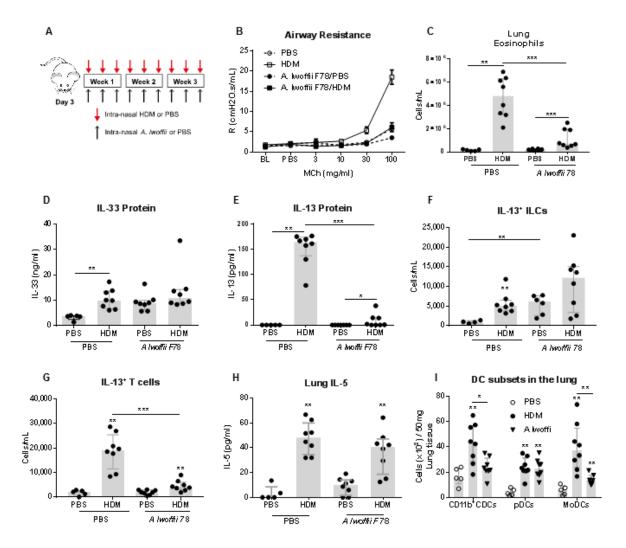


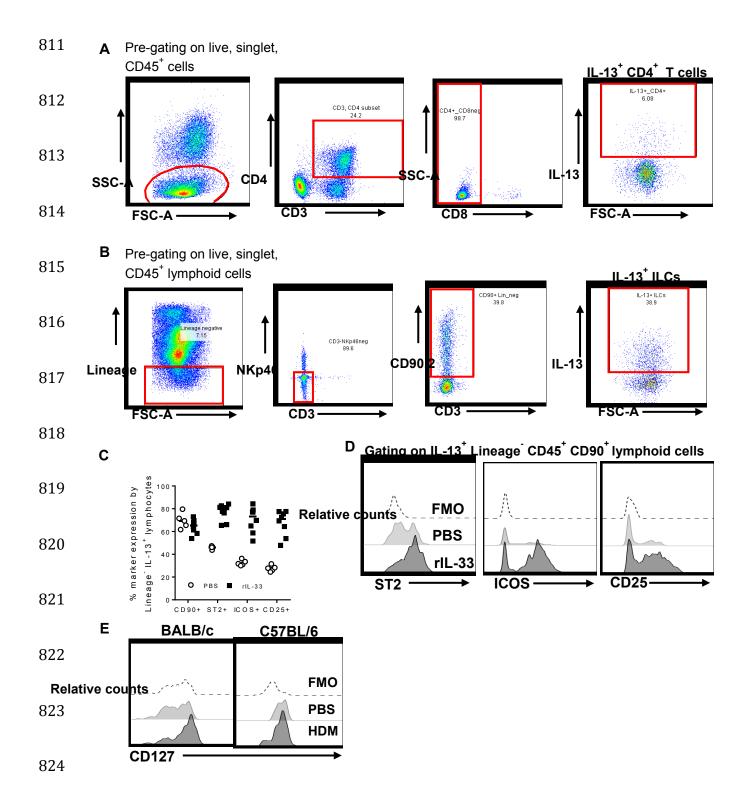


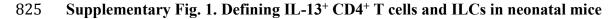






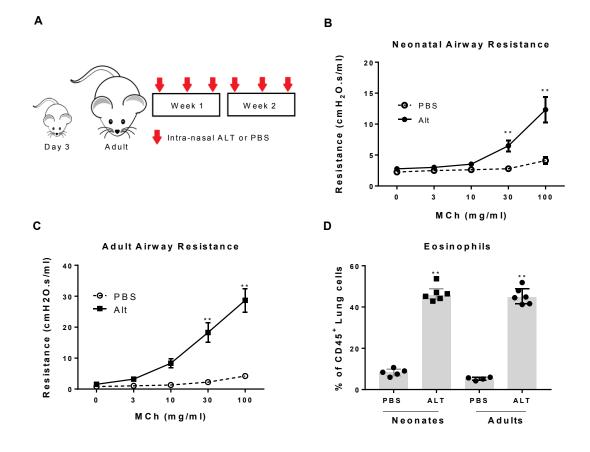






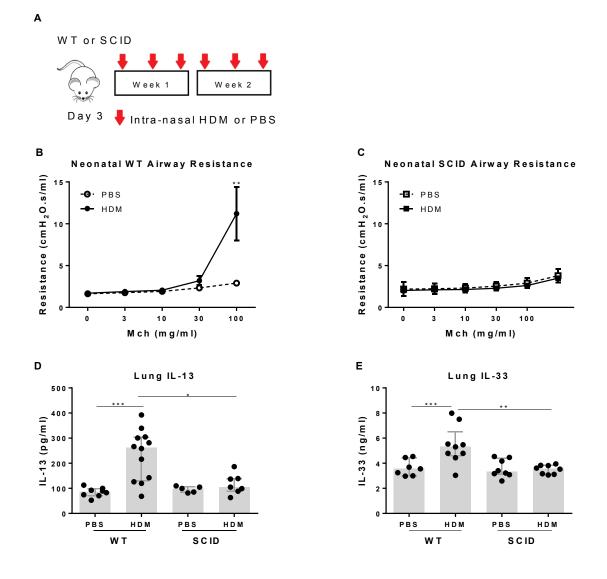
(A) Hierarchical (left to right) gating strategy for IL-13⁺ CD4⁺ T cells, defined as live, singlet,
CD45⁺, FSC/SSC low (lymphoid), CD4⁺, CD3⁺, CD8⁻ cells with positive intracellular IL-13
staining were then selected. (B) Hierarchical (left to right) gating strategy for IL-13⁺ ILCs,

829 defined as live, singlet, CD45⁺ lymphoid, lineage- (TCRβ, TCRγδ, CD3e, CD5, CD19, CD11b, 830 CD11c, FCeR1, GR-1, F4/80, NKp46 and TER-119) –negative, CD90.2⁺ cells with positive 831 intracellular IL-13 staining. Plots in (A) and (B) are from representative lung samples from IL-832 33-treated neonatal mice. (C) Percentages of IL-13⁺ Lineage⁻ CD45⁺ lymphoid cells in lung 833 tissue expressing typical ILC surface markers. (D) Representative histograms showing surface expression of ST2, ICOS and CD25 on pulmonary IL-13⁺ CD90.2⁺ CD45⁺ Lineage- ILCs, 834 835 relative to FMO controls. (E) Representative histograms showing CD127 surface staining on 836 IL-13⁺ CD90.2⁺ Lineage⁻ ILC2 from lungs of neonatal BALB/c (left) and C57BL/6 mice 837 treated with HDM or PBS for 2 weeks, relative to FMO controls. Data are representative of 4-838 8 replicate animals per group.



843 Supplementary Fig. 2. *Alternaria* induces AHR in neonatal mice

(A) Day 3 old and adult BALB/c mice were exposed to intermittent doses of *Alternaria alternata* (ALT) or PBS for 2 weeks (♥). Analysis was carried out 24 hours post final dose.
Airway resistance to methacholine (Mch) in (B) neonatal and (C) adult mice. (D) Numbers of eosinophils (SiglecF⁺CD11c^{low/neg}) in lung enumerated by flow cytometry. N=6-8 ALT, n=4-6
PBS. Data representative of 2 experiments. *p<0.05, **<0.01, ***p<0.001.





Supplementary Fig. 3. Allergen exposure in neonatal SCID mice does not result in AHR.
(A) Day 3 old WT BALB/c and beige SCID mice were exposed to intermittent doses of house
dust mite (HDM) or PBS for 2 weeks (♥). Analysis was carried out 24 hours post final dose.
Airway resistance to methacholine (Mch) in (B) WT mice and (C) SCID mice. Levels of (D)
IL-13 and (E) IL-33 from lung homogenates of WT mice compared to SCID mice. N=7-12
HDM, n=6-8 PBS. Data representative of 2 experiments. *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001.

Antigen	Clone	Fluorochrome	Target species	Manufacturer
CD103	2E7	FITC		Thermo Fisher/
CD105	2E/	FIIC	Mouse	eBiosciences
CD11b	M1/70	АРС	Mouse	Biolegend
CD11c	N418	APC or APC Cy7	Mouse	Biolegend
CD127	A7R34	BV711	Mouse	Biolegend
CD19	ebio 1D3	АРС	Mouse	Biolegend
CD25	PC61	BV510	Mouse	Biolegend
CD3e	145-2C11	APC cy7 or PE Cy7	Mouse	Biolegend
CD4	RM4-5	BV421 or APC Cy7	Mouse	Biolegend
CD44	IM7	PERCP Cy5.5	Mouse	Biolegend
		PerCP Cy5.5 or		
CD45	30-F11	BV711 or		Biolegend
		PE/Dazzle™ 594	Mouse	
CD5	53-7.3	АРС	Mouse	Biolegend
CD62L	MEL-14	BV605	Mouse	Biolegend
CD64	X54-5/7.1	BV421	Mouse	Biolegend
CD8a	53-6.7	BV605	Mouse	Biolegend
CD90.2	53-2.1	BV605	Mouse	Biolegend
F4/80	BM8	АРС	Mouse	Biolegend
FCeR1	MAR1	АРС	Mouse	Biolegend
GR-1	RB6-8C5	АРС	Mouse	Biolegend
IA/IE	M5/114.15.2	PECRP cy5.5	Mouse	Biolegend
ICOS	7E.17G9	PE cy7	Mouse	Biolegend

IFNγ	XMG1.2	FITC	Mouse	Biolegend
IL-10	JES5-16E3	APC	Mouse	Biolegend
IL-13	ebio 13A	PE	Mouse	Thermo Fisher/ eBiosciences
IL-17A	TC11-18H10	Alexa Fluor 700 or PERCP Cy5.5	Mouse	Biolegend
IL-5	TRFK5	BV421	Mouse	Biolegend
Ly6G	1A8	BV510	Mouse	Biolegend
Nkp46	29A1.4	PE/Dazzle™ 594 or BV605	Mouse	Biolegend
Siglec F	E50-2440	PE	Mouse	BD
ST2	DJ8	FITC	Mouse	MD Biosciences
TCRβ	H57-597	APC	Mouse	Biolegend
TCRγδ	ebio GL3	APC	Mouse	Biolegend
TER-119	TER-119	APC	Mouse	Biolegend
CD11c	3.9	FITC	Human	Biolegend
CD123	6H6	FITC	Human	Biolegend
CD127	A019D5	PERCP Cy5.5	Human	Biolegend
CD14	63D3	FITC	Human	Biolegend
CD16	B73.1	FITC	Human	Biolegend
CD161	HP-3G10	РЕ Су7	Human	Biolegend
CD19	HIB19	FITC	Human	Biolegend
CD1a	HI149	FITC	Human	Biolegend
CD20	2H7	FITC	Human	Biolegend

CD3	OKT3	BV510	Human	Biolegend
CD34	581	FITC	Human	Biolegend
CD4	OKT4	Alexa Fluor 700	Human	Biolegend
CD45	HI30	BV605	Human	Biolegend
CD5	L17F12	FITC	Human	Biolegend
CD56	HCD56	PE Texas Red	Human	Biolegend
CD8	SK1	FITC	Human	Biolegend
CRTH2	BM16	APC Cy7	Human	Biolegend
FCeR1	AER-37	FITC	Human	Biolegend
IL-13	JES10-5A2	PE	Human	Biolegend

861 Table S1. Antibodies used for flow cytometry