Immunity-and-Matrix-Regulatory Cells Derived from Human Embryonic Stem Cells Safely and Effectively Treat Mouse Lung Injury and Fibrosis

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Abstract

Lung injury and fibrosis represent the most significant outcomes of severe and acute lung disorders,

including COVID-19. However, there are still no effective drugs to treat lung injury and fibrosis. In this

study, we report the generation of clinical-grade human embryonic stem cells (hESCs)-derived

immunity- and matrix-regulatory cells (IMRCs) manufactured under good manufacturing practice (GMP)

requirements, that can treat lung injury and fibrosis in vivo. We generate IMRCs through sequentially

differentiating hESCs with xeno-free reagents. IMRCs possess a unique gene expression profile distinct

from umbilical cord mesenchymal stem cells (UCMSCs), such as higher levels of proliferative,

immunomodulatory and anti-fibrotic genes. Moreover, intravenous delivery of IMRCs inhibits both

pulmonary inflammation and fibrosis in mouse models of lung injury, and significantly improves the

survival rate of the recipient mice in a dose-dependent manner, likely through their paracrine functions.

IMRCs are superior to both primary UCMSCs and FDA-approved pirfenidone, with an excellent efficacy

and safety profile in mice, monkeys and two severely ill COVID-19 patients in our pilot study. In light

of recent public health crises involving pneumonia, acute lung injury (ALI) and acute respiratory distress

syndrome (ARDS), our findings indicate that IMRCs are ready for clinical trials on lung disorders.

Introduction

Lung injury is a serious threat to human health. It is caused by many chemical, physical and biological

factors, such as pneumonia, lung inflammation, and fibrosis. In a comprehensive analysis, the World

Health Organization ranks lung diseases as the second largest category, and predicts that by 2020, about

one fifth of human deaths will be attributed to lung diseases[1]. Acute lung injury (ALI) is the injury of

alveolar epithelial cells and capillary endothelial cells caused by various direct and indirect injury factors,

resulting in diffuse pulmonary interstitial and alveolar edema, and acute hypoxic respiratory insufficiency.

Pathophysiologically, its characteristics include decreased lung volume, decreased lung extensibility and

imbalance of the ventilation / blood flow ratio. When ALI develops into the severe stage (oxygenation

index < 200), it is called acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS). Globally, there are more than 3

million patients with ARDS annually, accounting for 10% of intensive care unit (ICU) admissions[2]. ALI

/ ARDS patients have an average mortality rate of 35-46%[3,4]. In late ARDS, pulmonary fibrosis (PF)

develops due to persistent alveolar injury, repeated destruction, repair, reconstruction and over-

deposition of extracellular matrix (ECM)[5], leading to progressive lung scars and common interstitial

pneumonia. In general, idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis (IPF) patients show very poor prognosis, with a

median survival time of 3-5 years after diagnosis[6]. It has also been reported that the degree of pulmonary

fibrosis is closely related to the mortality of ARDS[7,8]. Importantly, there are still no effective FDA-

approved drugs to treat ALI, ARDS or IPF hitherto, and most of the experimental drugs are still in Phase

II or Phase III studies[2, 9,10].

Stem cell therapy is an emerging treatment modality being used to cure various inflammatory and/or

degenerative diseases, including ALI and PF. In particular, mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs) have been

tested as an intravenous infusion therapy for ALI and PF[11,12]. Preclinical and clinical studies of

pulmonary fibrosis have shown that, after infusion, MSCs could migrate to the sites of lung injury, inhibit

inflammation and improve recovery[13-15]. However, clinical studies with primary MSCs derived from the

umbilical cord, bone marrow or adipose tissue have been hampered by the lack of available donors,

limited cell numbers from each donor, donor and tissue heterogeneity, inconsistent cell quality and the

lack of standardized cell preparations. Moreover, primary MSCs show limited self-renewal capacities

and finite lifespans. MSC-like cells derived from human embryonic stem (hESCs)[16] could solve these

problems[17-19], but the use of ill-defined and variable components of animal origin, such as fetal bovine

serum (FBS) or OP9 feeder cells, may greatly compromise their consistency, safety and clinical

applicability. Furthermore, these hESC-derived MSC-like cells have not been deeply characterized for

their immunomodulatory functions in disease models.

In this study, we have used hESCs to derive immunity- and matrix-regulatory cells (IMRCs) that

resemble MSCs in their capacity for self-renewal and tri-lineage differentiation. However, compared to

primary umbilical cord mesenchymal stem cells (UCMSCs), IMRCs displayed a higher consistency in

quality, stronger immunomodulatory and anti-fibrotic functions, and a robust ability to treat lung injury

and fibrosis in vivo.

Materials and methods

Generation of hESC-derived IMRCs

The hESC-derived IMRCs were generated by passaging cells that are migrating out from human

embryoid bodies (hEBs), with xeno-free reagents. The clinical hESC line (Q-CTS-hESC-2) was prepared

as described previously[20]. Clinical hESCs were maintained in commercially available Essential 8™ (E8)

basal medium (Gibco, Carlsbad, MO, USA; A15169-01) with Essential 8™ Supplement (Gibco,

A15171-01) on vitronectin-coated plates (1 µg/cm^2). To generate embryoid bodies (hEBs), hESCs were

dissociated into small clumps by incubating at 37°C for 5 min with 1 mg/mL dispase (Gibco, 17105-04)

and cultured to form hEBs for 5 days in KO-DMEM (Gibco, A12861-01) supplemented with 20% KOSR

(Gibco, A3020902), 1× L-glutamine (Gibco, A12860-01), 1× NEAA (Gibco, 11140050) and 10 ng/mL

bFGF (R&D systems, Minneapolis, MN, USA; 233-FB). Then, hEBs were transferred onto vitronectin-

coated plates and cultured for 14 additional days. During this period, the outgrowth from the hEBs

occurred. The outgrowth cells were dissociated by using Tryple (Gibco, A12859-01) and passaged at a

low cell density of $1×10^4$ cells per cm^2 in "IMRCs Medium" consisting of α-MEM (Gibco, 12561-049)

supplemented with 5% KOSR, 1% Ultroser G (Pall corporation, New York, NY, USA; 15950-017), 1×

L-glutamine, 1× NEAA, 10 ng/mL bFGF, 10 ng/mL TGF-β3 (R&D systems, 8420-B3) and 10 mg/L L-

ascorbic acid (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA; A4403). Cells were passaged upon reaching

approximately 80% confluence in IMRCs Medium. After 5 passages in culture, differentiated cultures

were harvested for characterization. By this time, IMRCs displayed a fibroblastic morphology, expressed

canonical "MSC-specific" surface markers including CD73, CD90, CD105 and CD29 and were negative

for typical hematopoietic markers (CD45, CD34, HLA-DR)[21].

Isolation and culture of UCMSCs

Healthy full-term human placental samples were collected according to the policy of the Ethics

Committee of the 306th Hospital of the Chinese People's Liberation Army, Beijing, China. Written

informed consents were obtained from all donors before this study. All the samples were used in

accordance with standard experimental protocols approved by the Animal and Medical Ethical

Committee of Institute of Zoology, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing, China.

Briefly, the newborn umbilical cords of full-term pregnancies were obtained from the clinic and washed

by PBS to remove all remnant blood. Then, the umbilical cords were cut to approximately 2 mm in size

after removing the artery and vein. The pieces of umbilical cords were directly transferred into a 10 cm^2

culture flasks in α-MEM supplemented with 5% KOSR, 1% Ultroser G, 1× L-glutamine, 1× NEAA, 10

ng/mL bFGF and 10 mg/L L-ascorbic acid, and cultured in an atmosphere of 5% CO_2 at 37°C. UCMSCs

were passaged upon reaching approximately 80% confluence. After 5 passages in culture, cells were

harvested for characterization.

Cell culture

The clinical hESC line (Q-CTS-hESC-2) was prepared as described previously[20]. Clinical hESCs were

maintained in the commercially available Essential 8^{TM} (E8) basal medium on vitronectin-coated plates.

Cells were passaged every 5 or 6 days using Versene (Gibco, A4239101). Clinical hESCs were tested

weekly for mycoplasma contamination using a Myco-detection Kit (InvivoGen, San Diego, CA, USA;

rep-pt1) and endotoxin contamination was tested using a ToxinSensor^{TM} Chromogenic LAL Endotoxin

Assay Kit (GenScript, Piscataway, NJ, USA; L00350). All cultures were maintained at 37°C, 5% CO_2

and atmospheric O_2 in a humidified incubator (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). A549

cells were purchased from Beina Biology (Shanghai, China). The cells were cultured in Ham's F-12K

medium (Gibco, 21127022) with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS; Gibco, 10091-148) at 37°C in 5% CO_2,

and were treated with 10 ng/mL TGF-β1 (R&D systems, 240-B) or IMRCs conditioned medium where

specified. To prepare the conditioned medium of IMRCs, IMRCs were cultured to 50% confluence in

culture dishes, then, were changed to new medium. The conditioned medium was harvested after

incubating IMRCs for 24 h.

Karyotyping

At passage 5, IMRCs were harvested. Karyotype analysis and G-binding were conducted at the Chinese

Academy of Medical Science & Peking Union Medical College (Beijing, China).

RNA-seq library preparation and data analysis

Total RNA was isolated from hESCs, IMRCs and UCMSCs by Trizol (Invitrogen, Waltham, MA, USA;

15596018). RNA-seq libraries were prepared with the NEBNext®Ultra™ RNA Library Prep Kit for

Illumina®. Sequencing was performed on an Illumina HiSeq X-Ten sequencer with 150 bp paired-end

sequencing reaction. The bulk RNA-Seq data for hESCs were downloaded from GEO database[22]. All

RNA-sequencing data analysis was performed with Hisat2 (version 2.1.0)[23] and Cufflinks (version

2.2.1)[24] using the UCSC hg19 annotation with default settings. Reads with unique genome locations and

genes with no less than 1 FPKM in at least one sample were used for the next step of analysis. Two-fold

change was used as the threshold to filter for differentially expressed genes (DEGs) i.e. increased or

decreased expression of less than 2-fold was not considered significant. Clustering, heatmap, Venn

diagram and scatterplots analysis were performed with hierarchical cluster and heatmap.2 functions in

R. Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated by cor.test in R. Gene set enrichment analysis were

performed by GSEA[25].

Flow cytometry

Cells were harvested and blocked with 2% bovine serum albumin (BSA; Sigma-Aldrich, B2064) for 20

min at room temperature. Then, the cells were stained with fluorescein-conjugated antibodies for 40 min

at room temperature in 1% BSA. After incubation, cells were washed 3 times and analyzed with MoFlo

(Beckman, Brea, CA, USA) and associated software. The antibodies used for flow cytometry were as

follows: PE-conjugated mouse anti-human CD29 (Biolegend, San Diego, CA, USA; 303004), PE-

conjugated mouse anti-human CD73 (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA, USA; 550257), PE-conjugated

mouse anti-human CD90 (eBioscience, San Diego, CA, USA; 12-0909-42), PE-conjugated mouse anti-

human CD105 (Biolegend, 323206), PE-conjugated mouse anti-human CD34 (BD Biosciences, 555822),

PE-conjugated mouse anti-human CD45 (BD Biosciences, 560957), PE-conjugated mouse anti-human

HLA-DR (BD Biosciences, 555561), and the PE-conjugated mouse IgG1 (BD Biosciences, 551436) as

an isotype control.

Trilineage differentiation

Osteogenic, adipogenic, and chondrogenic differentiation experiments were performed following the

instructions of the human mesenchymal stem cell functional identification kit (R&D systems, SC006).

For osteogenic differentiation, 4.2×10^3 cells were seeded per well in 96-well plates. When cells reached

50–70% confluency, the medium was replaced with osteogenic differentiation medium and kept for

3 weeks. To assess osteogenic differentiation, immunofluorescence (Osteocalcin) and Alizarin Red S

(Sigma-Aldrich, A5533) staining was performed for the calcium-rich extracellular matrix. For

adipogenic differentiation, cells were seeded into a 24-well plate at the density of 3.7×10^4 cells/well,

and maintained in culture medium until 100% confluency. Then, cells were cultured in adipogenic

differentiation medium for 3 weeks. Lipid droplets of the resultant differentiated cells were detected

using immunofluorescence (AFBP-4) and Oil red O (Sigma-Aldrich, O0625) staining. For chondrogenic

differentiation, 2.5×10^5 cells resuspended in chondrogenic differentiation medium were centrifuged for

5 min at 200×g in a 15-mL conical tube (Corning, NY, USA). Then, cells were cultured for 3 weeks.

After 3 weeks, chondrogenic pellet was harvest and fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde (Aladdin Chemical

Co., Ltd., Shanghai, China; C104190). Cryosectioning was performed by OTF Cryostat (Leica, Germany)

and 10 μm sections were stained with immunofluorescence (Aggrecan) and Alcian Blue (Sigma-Aldrich,

A5268) staining.

Growth curve

IMRCs and UCMSCs were seeded onto 96-well plates at a density of 8×10^3 cells per well. Cell Counting

Kit-8 (CCK8; Thermo Fisher Scientific, CK04) was used to measure the cells' growth. CCK8 solution

was added at day 1, day 3, day 5 and day 7 by following the CCK8 kit manufacturer's protocol. After 2

h of incubation, absorbance was measured at 450 nm.

Cell diameter analysis

The IMRCs and UCMSCs were harvested at passage 5 and the cell diameters were measured with Image

J software (NIH) software analysis. Normal Distribution curves were fitted to the cell diameter data to

analyze the cell size distribution characteristics.

Cell viability test

The IMRCs and UCMSCs were cryopreserved in a published clinical injection[26] for 15 days in liquid

nitrogen. After complete recovery of the cells, cells were suspended in clinical injection and remained

under 4°C. Then, cell viability was determined using 0.4% (w/v) Trypan Blue (Gbico, 15250061) at

different time points by a Cell Counter (Invitrogen, Countess II) using the average of 3 replicates.

Single-cell RNA-seq library preparation & sequencing

IMRCs and UCMSCs were harvested and suspended in PBS. Then, cell suspensions were loaded onto

the Chromium Single Cell Controller (10× Genomics) to generate single Gel Beads-in-Emulsion (GEMs)

by using Single Cell 30 Library and Gel Bead Kit V2 (10× Genomics, 120237). Cells were lysed and the

released RNA was barcoded through reverse transcription in individual GEMs. Following reverse

transcription, cDNAs with both barcodes were amplified, and a library was constructed using the Single

Cell 30 Reagent Kit (v2 chemistry) for each sample following the manufacture's introduction.

Sequencing was performed on an Illumina NovaSeq 6000 System in the 2×150 bp paired-end mode.

Raw files were processed with Cell Ranger using default mapping arguments. Gene expression analysis

and cell type identification were performed by Seurat V3.1. Briefly, after normalizing and quality control,

the tSNE was used for non-linear dimensional reduction. The figures were produced by DimPlot and

VlnPlot functions in Seurat.

Cell culture with IFN-γ treatment

206 Cells at passage 4 were digested and seeded into 6-well plates. IMRCs were seeded at a density of $3 \times$

207 10^5 cells / well, and UCMSCs were seeded at a density of 2×10^5 cells / well. After adherence for 24h,

208 IFN-γ (0, 25, 50, 100 ng/mL) (R&D systems, 285-IF) was added into the culture medium to culture for

209 24h. Cells and conditioned medium were harvested after IFN-γ stimulation for qPCR and cytokine

210 analysis.

Cytokine analysis

Conditioned medium of UCMSCs and IMRCs were collected after IFN-γ (100 ng/mL) stimulation for

24h. Forty-eight cytokines including FGF basic, Eotaxin (also known as CCL11), G-CSF (CSF3),

GMCSF (CSF2), IFN-γ, IL-1β, IL-1ra, IL2, IL4, IL5, IL6, IL7, IL8 (also known as CXCL8), IL9, IL10,

IL12 (p70), IL13, IL15, IL17A, IP10 (CXCL10), MCP1 (CCL2), MIP-1α (CCL3), MIP-1β (CCL4),

PDGFB, RANTES (CCL5), TNF-α, VEGF, IL-1α, IL-2Rα, IL-3, IL-12 (p40), IL-16, GRO-α, HGF, IFN-

α2, LIF, MCP-3, MIG, β-NGF, SCF, SCGF-β, SDF-1α, CTACK, MIF, TRAIL, IL-18, M-CSF, TNF-β

were detected by using the premixed 48-plex Bio-Plex Pro Human Cytokine Assay (Bio-Rad, Hercules,

CA, USA; 12007283) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Real-time quantitative PCR

For reverse transcription (RT), RNA was extracted using an RNAprep Pure Cell/Bacteria Kit (TIANGEN,

Beijing, China; DP430). Two micrograms of RNA were reverse transcribed into cDNA using a

PrimeScript™ First-Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit (TaKaRa, Shiga, Japan; 6110B). Real-time quantitative

PCR (qPCR) was performed and analyzed using a Stratagene Mx3005P system (Agilent Technologies,

Santa Clara, CA, USA) with SYBR Green Real-Time PCR Master Mix Plus (Toyobo, Osaka, Japan;

QPS-201). *GAPDH* was used for internal normalization.

Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA)

To determine the secretion of human MMP1, cell culture supernatants were collected after 48 hours of

culture. The levels of human MMP1 protein were measured by a Human MMP1 ELISA Kit (Cusabio,

Wuhan, China; CSB-E04672h) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Concentrations of TNF-α

(Expandbio, Beijing, China; Exp210030) and TGF-β1 (Expandbio, Exp210089) in the mouse lung

homogenates were measured using ELISA kits according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Human MMP1 activity

To determine the activity of human MMP1, cell culture supernatants were collected after 48 hours of

culture. The activity of human MMP1 were measured by a SensoLyte ® Plus 520 MMP-1 Assay Kit

(AnaSpec, San Jose, CA, USA; AS-72012) according to the manufacturer's instructions. A specific anti-

MMP-1 monoclonal antibody was used in combination with an MMP1 fluorogenic substrate, 5-

FAM/QXL®520 FRET peptide. The fluorescence signal is monitored at Ex/Em = 490 nm/520 nm upon

MMP-1-induced cleavage of the FRET substrate.

Immunofluorescence staining

Cells were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde for 15 min, permeabilized with 0.5% Triton X-100 for 15

min and blocked with 2% BSA for 60 min at room temperature. Then, the cells were stained with 1:200

mouse monoclonal IgG E-cadherin (Abcam, San Francisco, CA, USA; ab1416), 1:200 rabbit monoclonal

IgG Collagen I (Cell Signaling Technology, Danvers, MA, USA; 84336), 1:200 rabbit anti-FABP-4

(Thermo Fisher Scientific, PA5-30591), 1:200 rabbit anti-Osteocalcin (Thermo Fisher Scientific, PA5-

11849), 1:200 mouse anti Aggrecan (Thermo Fisher Scientific, MA3-16888) overnight at 4°C in 2%

BSA in PBS. The cells were washed three times with PBS and then incubated with 1:200 Alexa Fluor

488 donkey anti-mouse IgG (H+L) (Jackson ImmunoResearch, West Grove, PA, USA; 715-545-151),

1:200 Fluorescein (Cy3) donkey anti-rabbit IgG (H+L) (Jackson ImmunoResearch, 711-165-152), 1:200

Fluorescein (Cy3) donkey anti-mouse IgG (H+L) (Jackson ImmunoResearch, 715-165-151) or

Fluorescein (Cy2) donkey anti-rabbit IgG (H+L) (Jackson ImmunoResearch, 711-545-152) secondary

antibodies in 2% BSA for 60 min at room temperature in the dark. The washing step was repeated before

staining the nuclei with Hoechst 33342 (Invitrogen, H3570).

Western blot

Cells were harvested in RIPA Lysis Buffer (strong) (CWbio, Taizhou, China; CW2333S) containing

protease inhibitors (Roche, 4693124001). A total of 40 μg proteins were separated by 4-20% gradient

SDS-PAGE gels (GenScript, M42015C) and transferred to PVDF membranes (Millipore, Billerica, MA,

USA; IPVH00010). The membranes were blocked at room temperature with 1% BSA for 1 h and

incubated overnight at 4°C with primary antibodies: rabbit Collagen I antibody (Cell Signaling

Technology, 84336), mouse E-cadherin antibody (Abcam, ab1416) and mouse β-actin antibody (Sigma-

Aldrich, A1978). Then, the membranes were washed with TBST for 3 times and incubated for 1 h with

a secondary antibody: anti-mouse IgG antibody (HRD) (Sigma-Aldrich, A9044) and anti-rabbit IgG

antibody (HRD) (Sigma-Aldrich, A0545) at room temperature. Images were obtained using the

ChemiDoc XRS+ imaging system (Bio-Rad) and quantified using the Quantity One software.

Soft agar colony formation assay

Soft agarose gels were prepared according to previously published protocols[27]. Cells were harvested and

diluted to a cell concentration of 2.5×10^4/mL, before mixing with the agarose mixture in 6-well culture

plates. The plates were incubated in a 37°C incubator for 21 days.

Animals

Adult female and male cynomolgus monkeys (3–5 years old) were housed in single quarters with a 12/12-

hr light/dark cycle. Animals were provided with monkey chow and enrichment food twice a day and

water *ad libitum*. The monkey experiments were performed at the National Center for Safety Evaluation

of Drugs, National Institutes of Food and Drug Control (Beijing, China). The Institutional Animal Care

and Use Committee of the National Center for Safety Evaluation of Drugs approved all monkey studies

(NO. IACUC- 2018- k001).

Specific pathogen-free (SPF) 11- to 13-week-old C57BL/6 male mice were purchased from the Animal

Center of Peking University (Beijing, China). All experimental and control mice were weight-matched,

and their weights ranged from 25 to 30 g. All mice were housed in the animal care facility of the Institute

of Medical Science, China-Japan Friendship Hospital. Mice were maintained under SPF conditions at

room temperature (between 20–24°C), with humidity between 35–55%, in a 12/12 h light/dark cycle,

with food and water *ad libitum* and monitored with respect to their general state, fur condition, activity,

and weight according to institutional guidelines. The mice were sacrificed at each observational time

point by using intraperitoneal pentobarbital overdose. The Animal Studies Committee of the China-Japan

Friendship Hospital (Beijing, China) approved all mice studies (NO.190108).

Acute toxicity and long-term toxicity test

Acute toxicity test: Low dose (2.6×10^6), middle dose (2.6×10^7) and high dose (1×10^8) IMRCs were

infused into cynomolgus monkeys (3-5 years old) by single intravenous infusion. After 6 months, their

body weight, ophthalmology status, hematology, blood chemistry and urine chemistry were measured.

Long-term toxicity test: High dose (1×10^7) and low dose (2.6×10^6) IMRCs, or saline, were injected into

cynomolgus monkeys (3-5 years old) by intravenous infusion once a week for 22 times, after which their

body weight, body temperature, food intake and organ weights were measured.

Copy number variation calling

30X whole-genome sequencing data was produced by HiSeq X-Ten (Annoroad Gene Technology Co.,

Ltd) and used to analyze single nucleotide mutation changes between IMRCs and hESCs. As previously

described[28], the whole-genome sequencing data was mapped to the hg19 reference genome by BWA

(version 0.7.15) using the 'mem' mode with default parameters. The genome coverage were calculated

by bedtools[29]. The normalized coverage depth for each bin was calculated by dividing the raw coverage

depth by the average sequencing depth. Duplicate reads were removed and the uniquely mapped reads

were retained for the copy-number variation (CNV) analysis, in which chromosomal sequences were

placed into bins of 500 kb in length. The repeat regions annotated for hg19 genome by RepeatMasker

(http://www. repeatmasker.org) were removed from the genomic sequence before calculating the

coverage. The CNV scatterplot was drawn using ggplot2.

Histological staining and immunostaining staining analysis

Mouse lung histology was performed as follows. Briefly, the lung was dehydrated, paraffin-embedded

and cut into 4 μm sections. Lung sections were stained with H&E and Masson's trichrome stain for

assessment of pathological changes. Immunohistochemical staining was performed using antibodies

against α-SMA (Servicebio, Wuhan, China; GB13044), Fibronectin (Servicebio, GB13091), Collagen I

(Servicebio, GB13091) and GFP (Servicebio, GB13227). Immunofluorescence staining was performed

using antibodies against GFP (Servicebio, GB13227), CD31 (Servicebio, GB11063-3) and SPC

(Millipore, AB3786).

Labeling IMRCs with DiR dye

IMRCs were labeled with a lipophilic, near-infrared fluorescent dye 1,1-dioctadecyl- 3,3,3,3-tetramethyl

indotricarbocyanine iodide (DiR; YEASEN, Shanghai, China; 40757ES25). IMRCs were suspended at

a concentration of 1×10^6 cells / mL and incubated with DiR buffer for 20 min at 37°C according to the

manufacturer's protocol. After incubation, cells were centrifuged at 1000-1500 rpm for 5 min. After

washing twice with PBS and resuspension, the IMRCs were preheated at 37°C before infusion. Both

DiR-labeled and unlabeled cells (5×10^6 in 200 μL saline) were injected via the tail vein.

In vivo imaging of IMRCs' biodistribution

Mice were lightly anesthetized and were monitored using the in vivo imaging systems at 0 day, 1 day, 3

days, 5 days, 7 days, 9 days, 15 days, 21 days, 27 days, 32 days, 37 days and 46 days after tail intravenous

injection of DiR-labeled IMRCs (5×10^6 cells in 200 μL saline). Serial fluorescence images were also

obtained in major organs ex vivo. In order to reduce autofluorescence, the ideal filter conditions for DiR

imaging were an excitation/emission spectrum in the near infrared range (750/780 nm)[30,31].

Lung function

The flexiVentFX experimental platform was set up according to the manufacturer's instructions. On the

twenty-first day, after 3% pentobarbital sodium (40 mg/kg) intraperitoneal injection of anesthesia, mice

were fixed supine within five to eight minutes, and endotracheal intubation was inserted in the middle of

a tracheotomy. After computer processing, indicators of lung function required were obtained, including

the inspiratory capacity (IC), respiratory resistance (Rrs), static compliance (Crs), elastic resistance (Ers),

Newtonian resistance, tissue damping (G), tissue elasticity (H) and forced vital capacity (FVC)[32].

Lung coefficient

332 The lung tissue was completely removed, weighed by electronic balance, and the lung coefficient was

333 calculated according to the formula: wet lung weight (g) / total body weight (kg).

Cell therapy in BLM mouse model of pulmonary fibrosis

The BLM mouse model was generated by intratracheal injection of 1.5 mg.kg^{-1} bleomycin sulphate

(BLM; Bioway, China; DP721) in normal saline under light anaesthesia. The IMRCs were delivered

intravenously at 0 day or 1 day or 7 days or 14 days after injury. Mice were euthanized with 50 mg/mL

sodium pentobarbital (0.6 mg/10 g weight) according to published guidelines[33]. Animals were killed 21

days after BLM injury. After perfusion with normal saline, the left lungs were used for morphometric

analysis while the right lungs were removed and used for other analyses.

Micro-CT

342 Mouse CT scans were performed according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Compassionate use study of two severely ill COVID-19 patients

We conducted a pilot study using GMP-grade IMRCs, under an expanded access program for

compassionate use in COVID-19 patients. The pilot study was approved by the Ethics Committee of the

Beijing Youan Hospital, Capital Medical University (LL-2020-010-K, Youan EC [2020]005). After two

severely ill COVID-19 patients, who tested positive for SARS-CoV-2 by qRT-PCR and were diagnosed

with ALI (aged 44–46 yrs; 1 male and 1 female), gave their consent and met the eligibility criteria, their

serum samples were collected and processed in accordance with the ethical legislation and the guidelines

of the Ethics Committee of the Beijing Youan Hospital, Capital Medical University.

Statistics

All data are expressed as mean ± SEM. Survival curves were derived by the Kaplan-Meier method and

compared via generalised Wilcoxon test. Statistical analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism 5.0

statistical software (San Diego, CA, USA). The statistical significance of multiple groups was compared

to each other using Tukey's multiple comparison test ANOVA. A p value of <0.05 was considered

statistically significant.

Results

Generation of hESC-derived IMRCs

In this study, hESC-derived IMRCs were generated by passaging cells that are migrating from human

embryoid bodies (hEBs), using xeno-free reagents (Fig. 1A and 1B). The clinical hESC line (Q-CTS-

hESC-2) was prepared as described previously[20]. Clinical hESCs were maintained in Essential 8™ basal

medium (E8) on vitronectin-coated plates, before dissociation into small clumps to form hEBs for 5 days.

Then, hEBs were transferred onto vitronectin-coated plates and cultured for 14 additional days. The hEBs

outgrowth cells were dissociated and passaged continuously in IMRCs Medium. After 5 passages,

IMRCs were harvested for characterization. IMRCs possessed fibroblast-like morphology (Fig. 1B) and

maintained diploid karyotypes at passage 5 (Fig. 1C). Moreover, copy-number variation analysis by

whole genome sequencing data also indicated no chromosome aneuploidies, large deletions nor

duplication fragments were detected (Fig. 1D). Next, we analyzed the expression profile of MSC-specific

genes (Fig. 1E). IMRCs showed a pattern that greatly differed from hESCs, and closely resembled

primary umbilical cord-derived MSCs (UCMSCs). All pluripotency genes (*POU5F1, SOX2, NANOG,*

ZFP42, SALL4), mesendoderm genes (*MIXL1*), and ectoderm genes (*GAD1, GFAP*) were extinguished

in both IMRCs and UCMSCs (Fig. 1E). IMRCs expressed MSC-specific genes, including *PDGFRA* and

SPARC, and the MSC-specific surface markers *NT5E* (CD73), *ENG* (CD90), *THY1* (CD105) and *ITGB1*

(CD29). Flow cytometry analysis further confirmed this surface marker profile (Fig. 1F, Fig.S1A, B). By

contrast, IMRCs were negative for the hematopoietic surface markers *PTPRC* (CD45) and CD34. IMRCs

displayed the ability to undergo tri-lineage differentiation into mesenchymal tissues, such as adipose,

cartilage and bone cells (Fig. 1G, Fig.S1C). The proliferation rate of IMRCs was higher than that of

UCMSCs at passage 15, suggesting that IMRCs have a stronger capacity for long-term self-renewal (Fig.

1H). Interestingly, IMRCs were generally smaller than UCMSCs (Fig. 1I), suggesting that IMRCs can

pass through smaller blood vessels and capillaries more easily, and are thus may be less likely to cause

pulmonary embolism. To evaluate the clinical potential of the IMRCs, we measured the viability of

IMRCs suspended in a published clinical injection buffer at 4°C. We found that the viability of IMRCs

remained higher (93%) than UCMSCs (73%) after 48h (Fig. 1J).

IMRCs possess unique gene expression characteristics

To clarify the degree of similarity between hESCs, IMRCs and primary UCMSCs at the whole

transcriptome level, we performed genome-wide profiling of IMRCs and UCMSCs and compared their

gene expression with hESCs[22]. Whole-transcriptome analysis confirmed that IMRCs clustered together

with UCMSCs in an unsupervised hierarchical clustering (Fig. 2A). Accordingly, MSC-specific genes

such as *NT5E, ENG, PDGFRA, SPARC* and *ITGB1* were upregulated whereas pluripotency genes such

as *POU5F1, SOX2, SALL4* and *ZFP42* were extinguished in IMRCs, relative to hESCs, and the overall

correlation with hESCs was weak (R^2=0.66, Fig. 2B). Next, we analyzed for the expression of genes

specific to IMRCs, compared to UCMSCs (Fig. 2C). While the overall correlation with UCMSCs was

stronger (R^2=0.87), we also found that many genes were differentially expressed in IMRCs compared to

UCMSCs. The upregulated genes promote immunomodulation (*LIF*), tissue repair (*VEGFA, GREM1*),

cell division (*CDC20*) and anti-fibrosis (*MMP1*). By contrast, the downregulated genes predominantly

promote inflammation (*IL-1B, CXCL8, CCL2* and *CXCL1;* Fig. 2C). Gene set enrichment analysis

(GSEA) of the differentially expressed genes confirmed that IMRCs manifest reduced inflammation and

stronger proliferative capacity as their top gene signatures, compared to primary UCMSCs (Fig. 2D-E,

Fig. S2).

To elucidate the heterogeneity of gene expression amongst IMRCs, single cell RNA sequencing

(scRNAseq) was performed for both IMRCs and primary UCMSCs. Our scRNAseq data also showed

that IMRCs were relatively homogenous in expression for the MSC-specific markers *PDGFRA, SPARC,*

NT5E, ITGB1 and *ENG.* IMRCs were also relatively homogenous in their suppression of pluripotency

and non-mesenchymal markers, relative to hESCs and UCMSCs, suggesting they are likely to be similar

in biological activity to primary MSCs after transplantation (Fig. 2F). These results provided insight into

the clinical applicability of IMRCs, especially with regards to their complete loss of pluripotency and

their gain in hyper-immunomodulatory potential.

IMRCs treated with IFN-γ show hyper-immunomodulatory potency

To test the immunomodulatory capacity of IMRCs, we exposed them to the pro-inflammatory cytokine

IFN-γ. We found that after stimulation with IFN-γ, both primary UCMSCs and IMRCs displayed similar

characteristic morphological changes (Fig. 3A). IFN-γ stimulation also potently upregulated *IDO1*

expression in both primary UCMSCs and IMRCs, but much more significantly so in IMRCs (Fig. 3B).

This is important because *IDO1* (indoleamine 2, 3-dioxygenase 1) has been shown to mediate

immunosuppression in T cell-inflamed microenvironments through its catabolism of tryptophan and thus

suppression of the tryptophan–kynurenine–aryl hydrocarbon receptor (Trp–Kyn–AhR) pathway in T

cells. To further characterize IMRCs at a molecular level, we conducted genome-wide RNA profiling to

compare IMRCs with UCMSCs, after IFN-γ stimulation (Fig. 3C). Hierarchical clustering revealed that

IMRCs clustered separately from UCMSCs, although they appeared more similar after IFN-γ stimulation

(Fig. 3D). To analyse IMRCs after IFN-γ stimulation in greater detail, we separated their differentially

expressed genes into different categories and tested their overlap using Venn diagram analysis (Fig. 3E).

We found that some pro-inflammatory genes showed lower expression while some pro-regenerative

genes showed higher expression levels in IMRCs, compared to primary UCMSCs (Fig. 3F).

To confirm these findings, we performed a focused ELISA analysis of 48 biologically relevant

chemokines and cytokines in the secretomes of both stimulated IMRCs and UCMSCs. We found that at

least nine pro-inflammatory cytokines were lower in IMRCs than UCMSCs, including interleukin-6 (IL-

6), IL-1b, tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF-α), GRO-α, IFN-α2, IL-1α, IL-3, and IL-8 (Fig. 3G and

Fig. S3). Furthermore, while the anti-inflammatory IL-4 was lower, the immunomodulatory cytokines

IL-1RA, LIF, and RANTES were higher in IMRCs than UCMSCs (Fig. 3H). Amongst the pro-

regenerative cytokines, we found that GM-CSF was similar while VEGFA, MIG and SDF-1a were higher

in IMRCs than UCMSCs (Fig. 3I). These results indicate that IMRCs manifest much stronger

immunomodulatory and pro-regenerative functions than UCMSCs.

IMRCs suppress the pro-fibrotic effects of TGF-β1

Our scRNAseq results also indicated that more than 99% of IMRCs expressed *MMP1* compared with

primary UCMSCs (<1%) (Fig. 4A). Similarly, gene expression analysis by RT-qPCR showed that IMRCs

express much higher levels of *MMP1* than hESCs, UCMSCs or human foreskin fibroblasts (HFF; Fig.

4B). MMP1 could be detected as a highly secreted protein in the conditioned media of IMRCs by ELISA

(Fig. 4C). In addition, the secreted MMP1 was an enzymatically active and correctly processed isoform

(Fig. 4D, E). To investigate the role of the IMRCs on fibrosis, the human epithelial cell line A549 was

used to establish an in vitro fibrosis model. The morphology of A549 cells became myofibroblast-like

after 48h treatment with 10 ng/mL TGF-β1 (Fig. 4F). Consistent with the morphological changes, the

expression of myofibroblast markers such as *ACTA2*, *Collagen I*, *Collagen II*, *Fibronectin* and *TGFB1*

increased, while the expression of the epithelial identity marker *CDH1* was extinguished, suggesting that

the A549 cells had undergone TGF-β1-induced myofibroblast transdifferentiation (Fig. 4G).

Immunofluorescence and western blot analyses confirmed that TGF-β1 induced the upregulation of

collagen I and the downregulation of E-cadherin (Fig. 4H, I). These results indicated that the A549

alveolar epithelial cells could simulate lung fibrosis in vitro. Thereafter, A549 cells were cultured with

or without the conditioned media of IMRCs, along with TGF-β1 treatment. Our results showed that the

IMRCs conditioned media significantly ameliorated the induction of *Collagen I* expression (Fig. 4J).

Immunofluorescence and western blot analyses further confirmed that IMRCs conditioned media could

extinguish Collagen I protein expression during the A549-to-myofibroblast transdifferentiation (Fig. 4K,

L, M). These results suggested that IMRCs might be able to inhibit lung fibrosis.

Safety evaluation of IMRC transfusion into mice and monkeys

Tumorigenicity has long been an obstacle to the clinical application of cells derived from hESCs, due to

the contamination of residual hESCs that could form teratomas. Our single cell RNA sequencing showed

that no residual OCT4/SOX2/NANOG/TERT/DPPA5$^+$ hESCs remained amongst the IMRCs, and that

all pluripotency gene expression had been extinguished (Fig. 5A). To ensure their short-term and long-

term safety, a series of biosafety-related experiments were performed according to the "Guidelines for

Human Somatic Cell Therapies and Quality Control of Cell-based Products" of China Food and Drug

Administration (CFDA) (http://samr.cfda.gov.cn/WS01/CL0237/15709.html), whereupon the IMRCs

were verified as suitable for use in human therapy (Supplementary Table S1). These biosafety-related

experiments included testing for bacteria, fungi, mycoplasma, virus (by in vivo and in vitro methods),

pluripotent cell residuals, tumorigenicity and biopreparation safety (endotoxin and bovine serum albumin

residuals). According to these tests, the safety of the IMRCs has been verified as required by the National

Institutes for Food and Drug Control (NIFDC) in China.

To track the biodistribution and long-term engraftment of IMRCs in vivo, whole-animal imaging of mice

was performed at designated time points (day 0, 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 15, 21, 27, 32, 37 and 46) after injection

with DiR-labeled IMRCs. Our data showed that DiR fluorescence intensity declined by half on the 5th

day, and dropped steadily over at least 15 days, disappearing around day 46 (Fig. 5B, C and Fig. S4C).

No DiR fluorescence signals were observed in the control mouse. These results indicate that IMRCs

never show long-term engraftment in vivo. However, IMRCs were predominantly distributed to the lung,

with small amounts in the liver and spleen (Fig. S4B). To assess the recruitment of IMRCs to the lung,

GFP-labeled IMRCs were used to track the distribution of IMRCs. A number of GFP-labeled IMRCs

were observed in the interstitial spaces in the lung, but not in the lung capillaries (Fig. 5D).

Immunofluorescence analysis of the expression of the alveolar type II epithelial cell marker SPC and the

endothelial cell marker CD31 showed that neither marker was co-expressed with GFP-labeled IMRCs in

the lungs of mice by day 21 (Fig. 5D). These data suggested that IMRCs are unlikely to engraft nor

transdifferentiate into endothelial or epithelial cells, after homing to the interstitium of lung tissues in

vivo.

To give some indication of the tumorigenic potential of IMRCs in vitro, a soft agar assay was performed

(Fig. 5E). As a positive control, the PANC-1 pancreas tumor cell line showed a colony formation rate of

about 30%. A small number of clones were also formed in hESCs, and the colony formation rate was

about 0.5%. However, no colonies were formed by IMRCs. These results indicated that IMRCs had no

tumorigenic potential as determined by this assay. Somatic mutation analysis by whole genome

sequencing also showed zero mutations in all coding and noncoding exon regions of the IMRCs genome

(Fig. 5F). Tumor formation assays also confirmed that IMRCs could not form any tumors in

immunodeficient mice after injection in vivo (Supplementary Table S1).

We also transfused different doses of IMRCs into cynomolgus monkeys (*Macaca fascicularis*), to

evaluate the short- and long-term toxicity of IMRCs in primates. After 6 months, acute toxicity data

showed that all blood biochemistry and urinalysis markers remained in the normal range (Fig. 5G, H),

indicating normal liver, kidney, heart, muscular, pancreatic and overall metabolic functions. Moreover,

no abnormalities were observed in the long-term toxicity tests either (Fig. S5B, n=18). These results

indicated that IMRCs have a robust safety profile in in vitro and in vivo animal models and could

potentially provide therapeutic treatments with good safety levels for clinical potential.

IMRC transfusion treats lung injury and fibrosis in a dose-dependent manner

To evaluate the therapeutic effects of IMRCs on lung injury and fibrosis, IMRCs were administered

intravenously into a bleomycin-induced model of lung injury. IMRCs ameliorated the total body weight

reduction in mice exposed to bleomycin (BLM)-induced lung injury, in a dose-dependent manner (Fig.

6B). Kaplan-Meier survival curves indicated that IMRC treatment prolonged the overall survival rates

(BLM group 12.5% vs. 1×10^6 IMRCs 25%, 3×10^6 IMRCs 50%, 5×10^6 IMRCs 62.5% (P < 0.01)) and

the median survival time (BLM group 11.5d vs. 1×10^6 IMRCs 15.5d, 3×10^6 IMRCs 18d, 5×10^6 IMRCs

21d) in mice exposed to bleomycin-induced lung injury. There was a statistically significant difference

between the BLM group and the 5×10^6 IMRCs group, but not the other groups (Fig. 6C). Histological

staining of the lung at 21 days after bleomycin injection (inflammation phase) showed diffuse pneumonic

lesions with loss of the normal alveolar architecture, septal thickening, enlarged alveoli, and increased

infiltration of inflammatory cells in the interstitial and peribronchiolar areas, in the BLM lung compared

with normal lung. IMRC treatment reduced alveolar thickening in the lung in a dose-dependent manner

(Fig. 6D-F). Moreover, IMRC treatment reduced the number of macrophage in the lung (Fig. 6F). These

results indicated that IMRC treatment can reduce inflammation in the lung after acute injury. Moreover,

IMRC treatment also improved the Ashcroft score for pulmonary fibrosis in a dose-dependent manner

(Fig. 6G). In particularly, IMRC treatment decreased collagen deposition in the BLM lung in a dose-

dependent manner (Fig. S6). The expression levels of COL I, FN and α-SMA were also significant lower

after IMRC treatment (Fig. S6). ELISA showed that IMRC treatment reduced both TNF-α and TGF-β1

levels in the BLM lung in a dose-dependent manner (Fig. 6H, I). These results suggested that IMRCs

can significantly reduce inflammation and fibrosis after lung injury, in a dose-dependent manner.

IMRC treatment of lung injury and fibrosis is superior to UCMSCs and pirfenidone injections

Pirfenidone (PFD) is an FDA-approved drug for the treatment of idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis. It works

by reducing lung fibrosis through downregulating the production of growth factors and procollagens I

and II. To evaluate the efficacy of IMRC treatment, we compared it side-by-side with UCMSCs and PFD

treatments of BLM-injured mice (Fig. 6J). Our results showed that IMRC treatment led to an improved

amelioration of the weight reduction after BLM-induced lung injury, compared to UCMSCs or PFD

treatments (Fig. 6K). Kaplan-Meier survival curves indicated that the IMRC treatments also resulted in

the highest overall survival rates compared to UCMSCs or PFD treatments (Fig. 6L; BLM group 39.02%,

vs. IMRCs 70% (P<0.01), UCMSCs 52.63%, PFD 65% (P < 0.05)). Moreover, IMRC treatment showed

the best improvement in lung morphology (Fig. S7A) and the best reduction in BLM-induced edema, as

measured by the lung coefficient (lung wet weight/total body weight), compared to UCMSCs or PFD

treatments (Fig. S7B).

Functionally, mice treated with IMRCs showed the best improvements in indices for lung capacity,

including pressure-volume (PV), inspiratory capacity (IC), static compliance (Crs) and forced vital

capacity (FVC) (Fig. S8A, B, C, D). IMRC treatment also showed the best reduction in functional indices

for lung fibrosis, including respiratory resistance (Rrs), elastic resistance (Ers), tissue damping (G) and

tissue elasticity (H) were observed (Fig. S8E, F, G, H). Computed tomography (CT) scans also showed

that IMRC treatment led to the best improvement in lung morphology, compared to UCMSCs or PFD

treatment (Fig. S8I, J). In fact, measurements of the lung volume indicated that mice treated with IMRCs

had the best improvement in lung volume compared to UCMSCs or PFD treatments. These results

indicated that the IMRC therapy is superior to primary UCMSCs and pirfenidone in treating lung injury

and fibrosis.

Encouraged by these results, we pilot-tested IMRC transfusion as compassionate treatments in two

severely ill COVID-19 patients who were diagnosed with ALI, as part of an expanded access program.

After patient consent, IMRCs were administered intravenously in both patients. Within 14 days after

IMRC transfusion, both the COVID-19 patients had significantly recovered from pneumonia, tested

negative for SARS-CoV-2, and were recommended for discharge. Cytokine analysis of both patients'

plasma showed very high levels of inflammatory cytokines initially in days 1-2, as expected of the ALI-

induced cytokine storm that occurred at the point of treatment (Fig. 6M). However, by days 4-8, many

pro-inflammatory cytokines were suppressed after IMRC infusion, including GRO-α, IFN-α2, IL-3, IL-

9, IL-13, MCP-3, M-CSF, sCD40L and TNF-α (Fig. 6M). These results confimed that IMRCs do

manifest a hyper-immunomodulatory function, with significant therapeutic benefits to ALI patients

without other treatment options.

Discussion

In this study, IMRCs were derived from self-renewing hESC cultures with xeno-free reagents. Our results

showed that IMRCs, while similar to primary UCMSCs, were superior in their proliferative capacity,

hyper-immunomodulatory and anti-fibrotic functions. In addition, the cell diameters of IMRCs were

generally smaller than UCMSCs, suggesting that they pose lower risks for pulmonary embolism after

injection. Detailed analysis of mice and monkeys after IMRCs injections indicates that IMRCs do not

engraft nor transdifferentiate nor initiate tumorigenesis, showing excellent potential for short- and long-

term safety profiles by a range of in vitro and in vivo assays. Most importantly, our experiments with the

bleomycin mouse model of lung injury showed that treatments with IMRCs are superior to primary

UCMSCs and the FDA-approved pirfenidone in therapeutic efficacy.

In recent years, MSC-like cells have been generated from hESCs using various protocols[18,19,34,35].

However, to the best of our knowledge and in spite of significant effort by numerous groups, previously

reported studies lacked biosafety-related experiments. This has hindered their translation to clinical

application. To ensure safety, a series of biosafety-related experiments were performed according to the

"Guidelines for Human Somatic Cell Therapies and Quality Control of Cell-based Products" and the

IMRCs were verified as suitable for use in human therapy. Our data showed that there was no teratoma

formation observed after IMRCs injection into the testes of NOD-SCID mice. In addition, single cell

RNA sequencing data showed no residual hESCs were detected in IMRCs and soft agar assays also

showed that no colonies were formed by IMRCs. In addition, the somatic mutation analysis by whole

genome sequencing also showed no mutations in proto-oncogenes and tumor suppressor genes, nor any

coding and non-coding exon regions of IMRCs. These results indicated that IMRCs have no

demonstrable potential to form tumors. Moreover, IMRCs could not undergo long-term engraftment and

disappeared around day 46. IMRCs did not transdifferentiate into endothelial cells nor alveolar epithelial

cells in the lung. To evaluate the risks of clinical application, short- and long-term toxicity tests were

performed in cynomolgus monkeys. After 6 months, both acute toxicity tests and long-term toxicity test

data showed that no abnormalities were observed. These results proved that IMRCs could have an

excellent safety profile and clinical potential. Moreover, the above data suggested that the therapeutic

efficacy of IMRCs may not be due to long-term engraftment and direct repair of tissue, but due to their

hyper-immunomodulatory and anti-fibrotic functions at inflammatory sites of tissue interstitium.

Like MSCs, the IMRCs are immunoprivileged, and can escape the immune response through their lack

of expression of HLA class II and their weak expression of HLA class I, thus making them valuable

choices for allogeneic cell therapy. Moreover, it has been reported that MSCs could release

immunomodulatory factors, alter the expression of surface molecules, and produce growth factors during

an immune response to the inflammatory cytokines produced by T cells and antigen-presenting cells[36].

These immunomodulatory factors are crucial for regulating the immune system and promoting tissue

repair. Accordingly, expression of the T cell-suppressive *IDO1* greatly increased in IMRCs after

stimulation with the pro-inflammatory cytokine IFN-γ, even more than UCMSCs. Genome-wide RNA

sequencing revealed that IMRCs and UCMSCs had different expression profiles after exposure to IFN-

γ. Analysis of the secretomes of IMRCs and UCMSCs confirmed at least nine pro-inflammatory

cytokines that were lower, and several anti-inflammatory cytokines and pro-regenerative factors that

were higher in IMRCs than UCMSCs. All these results suggested that IMRCs possess a hyper-

immunomodulatory capacity compared to primary UCMSCs, after stimulation with IFN-γ. Thus, these

cells can be administered to immunocompetent animals and human patients without the need for further

immunosuppression.

Moreover, higher levels of MMP1 were secreted by IMRCs than primary UCMSCs. MMP1 plays a very

important role in the process of fibrosis, by degrading existing collagens and promoting the early stages

of tissue remodeling that are critical for the progression of fibrogenesis[37,38]. In general, an imbalance

between MMPs and TIMPs is the direct cause of fibrosis and tissue scarring. It has been reported that

transplantation of human *MMP1*-overexpressing bone marrow-derived mesenchymal stem cells can attenuate CCL4-induced liver fibrosis in rats[39]. Therefore, it is conceivable that IMRCs that highly express MMP1 may also reverse lung fibrosis. Accordingly, our data showed that the secretome from IMRCs could reduce collagen I levels during fibrogenesis induced by TGF-β1. However, it is still unclear whether MMP1 played a direct role in the decrease of collagen I. Future work will focus on the role of MMP1 by using *MMP1*-knockout IMRCs in vitro and in vivo.

The mouse BLM model is similar to human ALI/ARDS during the acute inflammatory phase. Although fibroblastic foci, alveolar epithelial type 2 cells hyperplasia and honeycombing lesions are reduced compared with those in humans, indicating that the reproduction of human ARDS is not complete in the mouse BLM model, injury to alveolar epithelial cells has been shown to be a common contributing factor to the pathogenesis of both human ARDS and BLM-induced mouse pulmonary injury[40,41]. To test the therapeutic efficacy of IMRCs in the BLM mouse model, the delivery route and schedule of administration (e.g. single dose versus repeated doses) was carefully considered. Intravenous infusion is one of the principal delivery routes, considered to be minimally invasive, simple-to-use, and is the most common mode for primary MSCs delivery in diverse lung disorders[42,43]. Furthermore, systemic intravenous transplantation may be a suitable administration route in other future clinical scenarios. In our present study, intravenous IMRCs improved the survival rate of mice with BLM-induced lung injury in a dose-dependent manner, by inhibiting both pulmonary inflammation and fibrosis. As demonstrated in vitro, IMRCs inhibited the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines and pro-fibrosis cytokines, such as TNF-α and TGF-β1, in lung tissue in vivo. Furthermore, lung function indicators such as PV, IC, Rrs, Crs, Ers, Rn, G, H and FVC were improved compared with the BLM group. Furthermore, pilot tests of IMRC transfusion in the clinic confirmed that IMRCs could rapidly suppress the inflammatory cytokine storm in two COVID-19 patients within 4-8 days, and both severely ill patients were recommended for discharge within 14 days after IMRC treatment.

It should be noted that IMRCs were administered at 1 and 7 days after initiation of BLM-injury, but before fibrosis has fully developed. In fact several studies have reported that primary MSCs treatments do not improve pathologically-established pulmonary fibrosis, while some studies suggest that primary MSCs actually exacerbate pulmonary fibrosis[44]. Regarding the efficacy of IMRCs in established fibrosis, further studies are necessary and our own investigation is still ongoing. It is unclear whether primary MSCs do promote pulmonary fibrosis, but their lack of positive therapeutic effect may be due to

differences in MSC subtypes, fibrosis stages after induction, species of model animals, and routes of administration of MSCs. Thus, clinical applications with MSCs should be considered carefully. As noted in this paper, it is important to carefully document the origin, preparation and characterization of MSC-like cells. Here we have established a substantial profile of efficacy and safety for the hESC-derived IMRCs. These efforts provide considerable grounds for hope that this artificial cell-type could provide significant clinical benefit in the treatment of fibrotic conditions.

Conclusions

In summary, our findings show that intravenously delivered IMRCs inhibited both pulmonary inflammation and fibrosis after acute lung injury in vivo. IMRCs significantly improved the survival rate in a dose-dependent manner. Furthermore, the mechanism for amelioration of pulmonary injury may be mediated by the IMRCs' paracrine action rather than their potential to differentiate and replace the damaged alveolar epithelial cells. The IMRCs' functional inhibition of TGF-β1-induced fibrosis could also be part of its mechanism. IMRCs were superior to UCMSCs and pirfenidone in therapeutic efficacy against lung injury and fibrosis. Furthermore, IMRCs showed an excellent safety profile in both mice and monkeys. In light of recent public health crises involving pneumonia, respiratory failure, ALI and ARDS, our pre-clinical results indicate that IMRCs are ready to be carefully considered for human trials in the treatment of lung injury and fibrosis.

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Author contributions

Liu Wang, Baoyang Hu, Huaping Dai and Jie Hao conceived the project and supervised the experiments.

Jun Wu, Dingyun Song and Zhongwen Li completed majority of the experiments. Jun Wu, Dingyun Song

and Zhongwen Li wrote the manuscript with help from all the authors. Jun Wu, Dingyun Song,

Zhongwen Li, Baojie Guo, Yani Xiao, Wenjing Liu, Lingmin Liang, Chunjing Feng, Tingting Gao, Zai

Wang, Jianyan Wen, Shengnan Yang, Peipei Liu, Lei Wang, Yukai Wang, Liang Peng, Guihai Feng,

Shiqiang Huang, Glyn Nigel Stacey, Wei Li, Yan Huo, Ronghua Jin, Qi Zhou, Liu Wang, Baoyang Hu,

Huaping Dai and Jie Hao participated in the experiments and data analysis.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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Figure legends

Figure 1

Fig. 1 Derivation of immunity- and matrix-regulatory cells (IMRCs) from human embryonic stem cells (hESCs).

A Different phase of the IMRCs derivation protocol. AA, L-ascorbic acid. **B** Representative morphology of cells at different stages observed by phase contrast microscopy. hEBs, human embryoid bodies. Scale bars, 100 μm. **C** A representative chromosome spread of normal diploid IMRCs with 22 pairs of

autosomes and two X chromosomes. **D** Copy number variation (CNV) analysis by whole genome

sequencing for hESCs, primary UCMSCs and IMRCs. UCMSCs, umbilical cord mesenchymal stem

cells. **E** Heatmap showing MSC-specific marker and pluripotency marker gene expression changes, from

hESCs and hEBs to IMRCs at passages 1-5 (P1-5), and primary UCMSCs. **F** IMRCs' expression of

MSC-specific surface markers was determined by flow cytometry. Isotype control antibodies were used

as controls for gating. Like MSCs, the IMRCs are CD34$^-$ CD45$^-$ HLA-DR$^-$ CD90$^+$ CD29$^+$ CD73$^+$ CD105$^+$

cells. **G** Representative immunofluorescence staining of IMRCs after they were induced to undergo

adipogenic differentiation (FABP-4), osteogenic differentiation (Osteocalcin), and chondrogenic

differentiation (Aggrecan). Scale bars, 100 μm. **H** Proliferation curve of IMRCs and UCMSCs at the

15th passage. **I** Distribution of cell diameters of IMRCs and UCMSCs. **J** Viability of IMRCs and

UCMSCs in clinical injection buffer over time at 4°C. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$; data are

represented as the mean ± SEM.

Figure 2

Fig. 2 IMRCs possess unique gene expression characteristics.

A Unsupervised hierarchical clustering analysis based on the Pearson correlation distance between the

whole mRNA profile of each cell type. **B** Scatter plot displaying the differentially expressed genes (DEGs)

between IMRCs and hESCs. Up-regulated genes are highlighted in red. Down-regulated genes are

highlighted in green. Gray dots represent non-DEGs (< 2-fold change). **C** Scatter plot displaying the

DEGs between IMRCs and primary UCMSCs. Up-regulated genes are highlighted in red. Down-

regulated genes are highlighted in green. Gray dots represent non-DEGs (< 2-fold change). **D** Gene set

enrichment analysis (GSEA) of the top up-regulated gene signature in IMRCs, compared with primary

UCMSCs. **E** GSEA of the top down-regulated gene signature in IMRCs, compared with UCMSCs. **F**

Heatmaps of specific gene expression amongst single IMRCs groups. **G** Quantification of non-

mesenchymal marker gene expression amongst single IMRCs, UCMSCs and hESCs, as measured by

single cell RNAseq.

Figure 3

Fig. 3 IMRCs activated by IFN-γ show hyper-immunomodulatory potency.

A Morphology of UCMSCs and IMRCs before and after IFN-γ (100 ng/mL) stimulation. **B** Quantitative

PCR for *IDO1* mRNA in UCMSCs and IMRCs before and after IFN-γ (0, 25, 50, 100 ng/mL) treatment.

GAPDH was used for internal normalization. **C** Scatter plot displaying the DEGs between UCMSCs and

IMRCs after treatment with 100 ng/mL IFN-γ. Up-regulated genes are highlighted in red. Down-

regulated genes are highlighted in green. Gray dots represent non-DEGs (< 2-fold change). **D**

Unsupervised hierarchical clustering analysis of UCMSCs and IMRCs, before and after IFN-γ

stimulation (S-UCMSCs and S-IMRCs). **E** Venn diagram shows the overlap among UCMSC- and

IMRCs -associated genes, before and after IFN-γ stimulation (S). **F** Heatmap illustrating the expression

of cytokines in UCMSCs and IMRCs, before and after IFN-γ stimulation (S). **G-I** ELISA analysis of

biologically relevant chemokines and cytokines in the secretome of unstimulated or stimulated IMRCs

and UCMSCs. Pro-inflammatory (G), immunomodulatory (H), and pro-regenerative (I) cytokines. * p <

0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001; data are represented as the mean ± SEM. Scale bar, 100 μm.

Figure 4

Fig. 4 IMRCs reduce the pro-fibrotic effects of TGF-β1.

A Quantification of *MMP1* gene expression amongst single IMRCs, UCMSCs and hESCs, as measured

by single cell RNAseq. **B** Quantitative PCR for *MMP1* mRNA in hESCs, UCMSCs, IMRCs and human

foreskin fibroblasts (HFF). **C** ELISA for MMP1 protein in the conditioned media of IMRCs and

UCMSCs. **D** MMP1 activity in the conditioned media of IMRCs and UCMSCs. **E** Western blot for

MMP1 protein in IMRCs and UCMSCs. β-actin was used as a loading control. **F** Representative

morphology of A549 cells, with or without 10 ng/mL TGF-β1 treatment for 48 h. **G** Quantitative PCR

for the relative expression of *CDH1*, *ACTA2*, *Collagen I*, *Collagen II, Fibronectin* and *TGFB1* mRNA in

A549 cells, with or without TGF-β1 treatment for 48 h. **H** Immunofluorescence staining for E-cadherin

and Collagen I expression in A549 cells, with or without 10 ng/mL TGF-β1 treatment for 48 h. **I** Western

blot for E-cadherin and Collagen I protein expression in A549 cells, with or without 10 ng/mL TGF-β1

treatment for 48h. **J** Quantitative PCR for *Collagen I* mRNA in A549 cells, with or without 10 ng/mL

TGF-β1 and IMRCs conditioned media treatment for 48 h. **K** Immunofluorescence staining for E-

cadherin and Collagen I expression in A549 cells, with or without 10 ng/mL TGF-β1 and IMRCs

conditioned media treatment for 48 h. **L** Western blot for E-cadherin and Collagen I protein expression

in A549 cells, with or without 10 ng/mL TGF-β1 and IMRCs conditioned media treatment for 48 h. **M**

Quantification of the relative Collagen I protein expression levels in **L**. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p <$

0.001; data are represented as the mean ± SEM. Scale bar, 100 μm.

Figure 5

G Acute toxicity test in cynomolgus monkeys: blood biochemistry (after six months)

Group	ALT (U/L)	AST (U/L)	ALP (U/L)	CK (U/L)	GGT (U/L)	LDH (U/L)	TBIL (μmol/L)	BUN (mmol/L)	CRE (μmol/L)	GLU (mmol/L)	CHO (mmol/L)	TG (mmol/L)
1×10^8	55.00	30.00	165.00	123.00	65.00	497.00	3.00	6.00	58.00	5.00	3.00	1.00
0.26×10^8	73.00	34.00	160.00	164.00	38.54	330.00	3.17	8.00	61.00	4.05	3.83	0.32
0.026×10^8	63.00	49.00	94.00	317.00	51.64	298.00	5.89	7.60	71.00	2.57	2.60	0.32

Group	TP (g/L)	ALB (g/L)	A/G	IgA (g/L)	IgG (g/L)	IgM (g/L)	C3 (g/L)	C4 (g/L)	K+ (mmol/L)	Na+ (mmol/L)	Cl- (mmol/L)
1×10^8	71.00	42.00	1.00	1.00	6.00	1.00	1.00	0.00	3.00	146.00	108.00
0.26×10^8	72.20	42.60	1.44	1.79	7.48	0.76	0.93	0.14	3.62	145.4	98.00
0.026×10^8	78.70	40.90	1.08	2.81	10.81	0.73	0.96	0.09	3.45	146.8	99.80

H Acute toxicity test in cynomolgus monkeys: urinalysis (after six months)

Group	GLU (mmol/L)	PRO (mg/L)	BIL (μmol/L)	URO (μmol/L)	PH	SG	ERY (mg/L)	KET (mmol/L)	NIT	Color
1×10^8	-	-	-	Normal	8.5	<1.005	-	-	-	Light yellow
0.26×10^8	-	+-	-	Normal	8.5	1.015	-	-	-	Yellow
0.026×10^8	-	-	-	Normal	8.0	1.015	-	-	1+	Colorless

Fig. 5 Evaluation of the safety of IMRC transfusion.

A t-SNE projection of single cells and their pluripotency gene expression amongst IMRCs. **B** In vivo

imaging of the far red fluorescence in mice after injection of DiR-labeled IMRCs. **C** Quantification of

the DiR fluorescent radiance in the whole body over time. **D** Immunofluorescence staining of lung

sections for the endothelial marker CD31 and the alveolar epithelial marker SPC, 21 days after injecting

GFP-labeled IMRCs. Scale bar, 100 μm. **E** Soft agar colony formation assay for the tumorigenic potential

of IMRCs, relative to PANC-1 cancer cells and hESCs. Scale bar, 100 μm. **F** Single nucleotide variants

(SNVs) and insertions/deletions (InDels) in the non-repeat regions of the IMRCs genome, relative to

hESCs. **G** Blood biochemistry results of cynomolgus monkeys (*Macaca fascicularis*) injected with a low

(2.6×10^6), medium (2.6×10^7) or high (1×10^8) dose of IMRCs after six months. AST, aspartate

aminotransferase; ALT, alanine aminotransferase; ALP, alkaline phosphatase; CK, creatine

phosphokinase; GGT, glutamyltransferase; LDH, lactate dehydrogenase; TBIL, total bilirubin; BUN,

urea nitrogen; CRE, creatinine; GLU, glucose; CHO, total cholesterol; TG, triglyceride; TP, total protein;

ALB, albumin ; A/G, albumin/globulin. **H** Urinalysis results of cynomolgus monkeys (*Macaca*

fascicularis) injected with a low (2.6×10^6), medium (2.6×10^7) or high (1×10^8) dose of IMRCs after six

months. PRO, urine protein; BIL, urine bilirubin; URO, urinary gallbladder; SG, specific gravity; ERY,

erythrocyte; KET, ketone; NIT, nitrite. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$; data are represented as the

mean ± SEM.

Figure 6

Fig. 6 IMRC transfusion treats lung injury and fibrosis dose-dependently.

A Diagram of the animal experimental protocol for dose escalation. Mice received intratracheal bleomycin (BLM; 2.5 mg/kg body weight) or the same amount of saline at day 0. At day 1, some BLM-injured mice received an intravenous (I.V.) injection of 1×10^6, 3×10^6 or 5×10^6 IMRCs via the caudal vein. A group of BLM-injured mice and normal control mice received the same volume of saline. Mice were randomly grouped (n=8 per group). **B** Relative body weight (%) changes of the mice receiving

different interventions. **C** Kaplan-Meier survival curves of the mice receiving different interventions. **D**

Representative images of whole lungs from all groups at 21 days post-injury. **E, F** Representative

histology of lung sections stained with H&E (Scale bar, 500 µm and 50 µm) at 21 days post-injury.

Arrowheads, inflammatory infiltration. **G** Quantitative evaluation of fibrotic changes with the Ashcroft

score in lungs of mice receiving different interventions. The Ashcroft scores based on the lung H&E

sections. The severity of fibrotic changes in each section was assessed as the mean score of severity in

the observed microscopic fields. Six fields per section were analyzed. **H-I** ELISA for the protein levels

of TNF-α and TGF-β1 in the lungs of mice receiving different interventions. **J** Diagram of the animal

experimental protocol for multiple arm testing. Double I.V. injections of 1×10^6 and 0.5×10^6 IMRCs (at

days 1 and 7 respectively) were compared side-by-side with double I.V. injections of 1×10^6 and 0.5×10^6

UCMSCs (at days 1 and 7 respectively), vs. daily pirfenidone (PFD) or saline treatments of mice injured

with intratracheal bleomycin (BLM; 2.5 mg/kg body weight) at day 0. **K** Relative body weight (%)

changes of mice receiving different interventions. **L** Kaplan-Meier survival curves of mice receiving

different interventions. **M** ELISA analysis of pro-inflammatory cytokines in the plasma of two ALI

patients after intravenous IMRC transfusion. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$; data are represented

as the mean ± SEM.

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