CCL28 modulates neutrophil responses and impacts the trajectory of mucosal infections.

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Summary

The mucosal chemokine CCL28 is highly upregulated during infection but its role in this context

is not well understood. Utilizing *Ccl28*^{−/−} mice, we discovered that CCL28 promotes neutrophil

recruitment to the infected mucosa. Neutrophils from these tissues expressed the CCL28 receptor

CCR3, and CCR3 stimulation enhanced neutrophil antimicrobial activity against *Salmonella*.

Moreover, bone marrow neutrophils harbored pre-formed intracellular CCR3 that was rapidly

mobilized to the cell surface following phagocytosis or inflammatory stimuli. The functional

consequences of CCL28 deficiency were strikingly different between two infection models, as

Ccl28^{−/−} mice were highly susceptible to *Salmonella* gut infection, but highly resistant to otherwise

lethal *Acinetobacter* lung infection. CCL28 thus plays a critical role in the immune response to

mucosal pathogens by regulating neutrophil recruitment and activation, a response whose

ultimate consequence ranges from beneficial (control of the pathogen) to exceedingly negative

(death of the host), depending on the infectious agent and impacted organs.

Introduction

Chemokines comprise a family of small chemoattractant proteins that play important roles

in diverse host processes including chemotaxis, immune cell development, leukocyte activation

and effector functions, tumor growth, and metastasis (Charo and Ransohoff, 2006; Zlotnik and

Yoshie, 2000; Zlotnik et al., 2011). The chemokine superfamily includes 48 human ligands and

19 receptors, commonly classified into subfamilies (CC, CXC, C, and CX_3C) depending on the

location of the cysteines in their sequence (Hughes and Nibbs, 2018; Nomiyama et al., 2013).

Four chemokines predominate in mucosal tissues: CCL25, CCL28, CXCL14, and CXCL17

(Hernández-Ruiz and Zlotnik, 2017).

CCL28, also known as Mucosae-associated Epithelial Chemokine (MEC), belongs to the

CC (or β-chemokine) subclass, and is constitutively produced in mucosal tissues including the

digestive system, respiratory tract, and female reproductive system (Mohan et al., 2017). Although

best studied for its homeostatic functions, CCL28 can also be induced under inflammatory

conditions and is thus considered a dual function (homeostatic and inflammatory) chemokine

(Mohan et al., 2017).

CCL28 signals via two receptors: CCR3 and CCR10 (Pan et al., 2000). During

homeostasis in mice, CCL28 provides a chemotactic gradient for $CCR10^+$ B and T cells and

guides the migration of $CCR10^+$ IgA plasmablasts to the mammary gland and other tissues

(Burkhardt et al., 2019; Matsuo et al., 2018; Mohan et al., 2017). In a disease context, CCL28 has

been best studied in allergic airway inflammation. High CCL28 levels are present in airway

biopsies from asthma patients (O'Gorman et al., 2005), and $CCR3^+$ and $CCR10^+$ cells are

recruited to the airways in a CCL28-dependent fashion in murine asthma models (English et al.,

2006; John et al., 2005). Recently, CCL28 was noted to be highly induced in adult patients with

severe disease and organ damage stemming from SARS-CoV-2 infection (COVID-19) and

children with COVID-19-associated multisystem inflammatory syndrome (Gruber et al., 2020; Yan

Yan et al., 2020).

In the human gut, CCL28 is upregulated during inflammation of the gastric mucosa in

Helicobacter pylori-infected patients (Hansson et al., 2008) and in the colon of patients with

ulcerative colitis, an important form of inflammatory bowel disease (Lee et al., 2020a; Ogawa et

al., 2004). In the mouse gut, CCL28 production is increased in the dextran sulfate sodium (DSS)

model of colitis (Matsuo et al., 2018). Epithelial cells are an important source of CCL28 (Lee et

al., 2020a; Ogawa et al., 2004), and its expression can be induced by stimulation of cultured

airway or intestinal epithelial cells with the proinflammatory cytokines IL-1α, IL-1β, or TNFα, or

following *Salmonella* infection of cultured HCA-7 colon carcinoma cells (Ogawa et al., 2004).

Collectively, a variety of studies have postulated that CCL28 is an important chemokine

for inflammatory diseases ranging from asthma to ulcerative colitis, and during the immune

response to infection with bacterial or viral pathogens. Yet, CCL28 function in health and disease

remains understudied, largely because *Ccl28*^{-/-} mice have only recently been described

(Burkhardt et al., 2019; Matsuo et al., 2018). Here, we investigate the function and underlying

mechanism of CCL28 during the mucosal response to infection.

By comparing infection in *Ccl28*^{-/-} mice and their wild-type littermates, we discovered a key

role for CCL28 in promoting the migration and/or retention of neutrophils to the gut during infection

with *Salmonella enterica* serovar Typhimurium (*S.* Typhimurium), and to the lung during infection

with multidrug-resistant *Acinetobacter baumannii*. Although the host responses modulated by

CCL28 are similar in the gut and in the lung mucosa, we observed striking differences between

the functional consequences of CCL28 deficiency in a gut infection model and a lung infection

model. We conclude that the CCL28/CCR3 axis plays a critical role in the innate immune response

to mucosal pathogens by regulating neutrophil recruitment and activation, a response whose

ultimate outcome ranges from beneficial (control of the pathogen) to exceedingly negative (death

of the host), depending on the infectious agent and impacted organs.

Results

CCL28-mediated responses limit *Salmonella* gut colonization and systemic dissemination.

CCL28 is constitutively produced by many mucosal tissues and further upregulated during

inflammation (Hansson et al., 2008; Lee et al., 2020a; Ogawa et al., 2004). To study the role of

CCL28 during gastrointestinal infection, we utilized the enteric pathogen *S.* Typhimurium and the

well-established streptomycin-treated C57BL/6 mouse model of colitis (Barthel et al., 2003). At

96h post-infection with *S.* Typhimurium we observed an ~4-fold increase of CCL28 by ELISA

analysis of feces from wild-type mice relative to uninfected controls (**Fig. 1A**). In a preliminary

characterization, *Ccl28*^{-/-} mice infected with *S*. Typhimurium exhibited increased lethality

compared to their wild-type littermates beginning at 24h post-infection (Burkhardt et al., 2019). As

such, we enumerated *S*. Typhimurium colony-forming units (CFU) in tissues at 72h post-infection,

instead of the frequently studied 96h endpoint. We recovered significantly higher *S*. Typhimurium

CFU from the gastrointestinal tract (cecum content, Peyer's patches), the mesenteric lymph

nodes, and systemic sites (bone marrow and spleen) of *Ccl28*^{-/-} mice vs. wild-type littermates

(**Fig. 1B**), demonstrating that the chemokine is an essential component of host defense against

S. Typhimurium in this colitis model. When bypassing the gut by infecting mice with *S*.

Typhimurium via the intraperitoneal route, we also observed an ~4-fold increase of CCL28 in the

serum (**Suppl. Fig. 1A**); however, we recovered equal numbers of *S*. Typhimurium CFU in the

spleen, liver, and blood of wild-type and *Ccl28*^{-/-} mice (**Suppl. Fig. 1B**). Taken together, these

results indicate that CCL28 helps the host to control *S*. Typhimurium infection at its point of origin

in the gut mucosa, prompting us to further investigate the underlying mechanisms of CCL28-

mediated mucosal protection.

CCL28 promotes neutrophil recruitment/retention to the gut during *Salmonella* infection.

During homeostasis, CCL28 has chemotactic activity in the gut mucosa towards CD4$^+$ and

CD8$^+$ T cells and IgA-producing B cells (Burkhardt et al., 2019; Matsuo et al., 2018; Mohan et al.,

2017). However, we found that B and T cell numbers in the intestine of wild-type and *Ccl28*^{-/-} mice

were similar during homeostasis (**Suppl. Fig. 2A** and **2C**) and 48h after *S*. Typhimurium infection

(**Suppl. Fig. 2B** and **2D**), indicating that the chemokine's protective role is likely independent of

its B or T cell chemotactic activity. A second role attributed to CCL28 is a direct antimicrobial

activity against some bacteria (e.g., *Streptococcus mutans* and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*) and

fungi (e.g., *Candida albicans*) (Hieshima et al., 2003). However, we found that *S.* Typhimurium is

not susceptible to CCL28's antimicrobial activity *in vitro* (**Suppl. Fig. 1C, D**)**.**

Neutrophils are a crucial component of the host response to *S.* Typhimurium (reviewed in

(Perez-Lopez et al., 2016)), and neutropenia increases the severity of infection with non-typhoidal

Salmonella in both mice and humans (Bhatti et al., 1998; Fierer, 2001; Vassiloyanakopoulos et

al., 1998; Yaman et al., 2018). Strikingly, we found that ~50% fewer neutrophils (CD11b$^+$ Ly6G$^+$

cells) were recruited to the gut of *Ccl28$^{-/-}$* mice 48h after *S.* Typhimurium infection relative to their

wild-type littermates (**Fig. 1C, D**). Commensurate with this finding, neutrophil counts in the blood

of infected *Ccl28$^{-/-}$* mice were increased compared to wild-type mice (**Fig. 1C, D**), indicating a

defect in recruitment of circulating neutrophils to the site of infection. Neutrophil counts in the bone

marrow were similar between wild-type and *Ccl28$^{-/-}$* animals (**Fig. 1C, D**), excluding a defect in

granulopoiesis. Likewise, bone marrow and blood neutrophil counts were similar in wild-type and

Ccl28$^{-/-}$ mice under homeostatic conditions (**Suppl. Fig. 2E, F**) and neutrophils were not found in

uninfected gut tissue (data not shown). Thus, CCL28 promotes recruitment and/or retention of

neutrophils to the gut during *S.* Typhimurium infection by a mechanism that transpires after bone

marrow neutrophil production and their egress into the blood circulation.

Gut proinflammatory gene expression and tissue pathology are reduced in *Ccl28$^{-/-}$* mice.

Neutrophils can mediate inflammation by directly producing proinflammatory molecules or

by engaging in crosstalk with other cells (Sabroe et al., 2005). We evaluated the expression of

genes encoding proinflammatory cytokines in the cecum of *Ccl28$^{-/-}$* mice and their wild-type

littermates 72h after *S*. Typhimurium infection. IFNγ and IL-1β gene transcripts were significantly

higher in the cecum of infected wild-type mice vs. *Ccl28$^{-/-}$* mice, while expression of genes

encoding other factors involved in neutrophil recruitment (CXCL1, GM-CSF, IL-17A) or the

proinflammatory cytokine TNF-α did not differ significantly (**Fig. 1E**). No difference in the

expression of these genes was found between uninfected wild-type mice and *Ccl28$^{-/-}$* mice (data

not shown). Consistent with the role of neutrophils as important mediators of inflammation in *S*.

Typhimurium colitis, histopathology at 72h post-infection revealed marked cecal inflammation in

wild-type mice that was greatly reduced in *Ccl28*$^{-/-}$ mice (**Fig. 1F-H**). Thus, by modulating the

recruitment/retention of neutrophils to the infected gut, CCL28 promotes the development of

inflammatory tissue pathology and colitis during *S*. Typhimurium infection.

Gut neutrophils express receptors CCR3 and CCR10 during *Salmonella* infection

CCL28 attracts leukocytes that express at least one of its receptors (CCR3, CCR10).

Eosinophils express CCR3, whereas CCR10 is found on T cells, B cells, and IgA-secreting

plasma cells (Mohan et al., 2017). Although early studies concluded that CCR3 was a marker of

eosinophils but absent in neutrophils (Höchstetter et al., 2000), the receptor was later detected

on the surface of neutrophils isolated from patients with chronic inflammation (Hartl et al., 2008).

Based on our findings of CCL28-dependent neutrophil recruitment to the gut during enteric

infection (**Fig. 1**), we performed flow cytometry on single-cell suspensions from the gut, blood,

and bone marrow of mice infected with *S*. Typhimurium to study surface expression of CCR3 and

CCR10. While both chemokine receptors were identified on a subset of bone marrow neutrophils

(36% CCR3, 12% CCR10) and blood neutrophils (25% CCR3, 16% CCR10) during infection,

neutrophils expressing these receptors were enriched in the inflamed gut, with ~80% expressing

CCR3 and ~28% expressing CCR10 (**Fig. 2A**, **B**). In a separate experiment where neutrophils

were simultaneously stained for both CCR3 and CCR10, ~35% of gut neutrophils from infected

wild-type mice expressed both receptors (**Suppl. Fig. 3A)**, and infected *Ccl28*$^{-/-}$ mice expressed

similar levels of these receptors as wild-type mice (**Suppl. Fig. 3B)**. Thus, neutrophil expression

of a CCL28 receptor, particularly CCR3, appears to facilitate recruitment and/or retention to the

gut during *S*. Typhimurium colitis.

Proinflammatory stimuli and phagocytosis induce expression of CCR3 and CCR10 on neutrophils

We next investigated potential mechanisms underpinning the upregulation of CCR3 and CCR10 in neutrophils. A prior study indicated that a cocktail of proinflammatory cytokines (GM-CSF, IFNγ, TNFα) boosted CCR3 expression in human peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) from healthy donors (Hartl et al., 2008) expression of these cytokines is highly induced during *S.* Typhimurium colitis (**Fig. 1E**). We thus stimulated bone marrow neutrophils from wild-type mice (which express low levels of CCR3 and CCR10) with these cytokines (alone or in combination), or with lipopolysaccharide (LPS), with the protein kinase C activator phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate (PMA), or with the N-formylated, bacterial-derived chemotactic peptide fMLP. Treatment of neutrophils with the GM-CSF + IFNγ + TNFα cytokine combination or with LPS induced higher CCR3 (~40% positive cells) and CCR10 (~20% positive cells) expression, whereas PMA and fMLP separately yielded more modest yet significant induction (**Fig. 2C, D** and **Suppl. Fig. 4A, B**).

Phagocytosis of microbes and necrotic debris are critical neutrophil functions at tissue foci of infection and inflammation (Uribe-Querol and Rosales, 2020), and gene expression changes are observed in human neutrophils following phagocytosis (Kobayashi et al., 2002). We thus tested whether CCR3 and CCR10 were induced by phagocytosis, incubating bone marrow neutrophils with latex beads, with or without the aforementioned cytokine cocktail. Although phagocytosis of latex beads alone did not significantly induce neutrophil CCR3 receptor expression (~7% of neutrophils), latex beads augmented cytokine cocktail-induced CCR3 expression (~53% of neutrophils vs. ~30% with cocktail alone; **Fig. 2E**). This synergistic effect of phagocytosis was not noted for CCR10 (**Fig. 2F**).

To further probe the role of phagocytosis in CCR3 expression, we incubated bone marrow

neutrophils with live *S.* Typhimurium for 1h. We found that *S.* Typhimurium rapidly induced the

expression of CCR3 on the neutrophil surface (~80% of cells; **Fig. 2G**), whereas CCR10 was only

minimally induced (**Fig. 2H**). To confirm that phagocytosis of bacteria was responsible for inducing

receptor expression, the assay was repeated with cytochalasin D, a potent inhibitor of the actin

polymerization required for phagocytic uptake, or with vehicle alone (DMSO). Whereas ~60% of

bone marrow neutrophils became CCR3$^+$ within 1h of *S.* Typhimurium infection, this induction

was largely blocked by cytochalasin D (**Fig. 2I**); and while CCR10 was expressed in ~4% of

neutrophils following infection, cytochalasin D exhibited a similar inhibitory effect on its expression

(**Fig. 2J**). Proinflammatory stimuli and phagocytosis thus enhance the expression of CCR3 and,

to a lesser extent, CCR10, on the neutrophil surface.

CCR3 is stored intracellularly in neutrophils

Neutrophil intracellular compartments and granules harbor enzymes, cytokines, and

receptors that are required for rapid responses to pathogens. For example, activation of human

neutrophils induces a rapid translocation of complement receptor type 1 (CR1) from an

intracellular compartment to the cell surface, increasing its surface expression up to 10-fold

(Berger et al., 1991).

As we detected a rapid (within 1h) increase of neutrophil CCR3 surface expression upon

S. Typhimurium infection, we hypothesized that CCR3, akin to CR1, may be stored in a neutrophil

intracellular compartment, consistent with reports of intracellular CCR3 in eosinophils (Spencer

et al., 2006). We found that uninfected bone marrow neutrophils express relatively low surface

levels of CCR3 (**Fig. 3A**), but when permeabilized for intracellular staining, most (~85%) were

CCR3$^+$, indicating that CCR3 is stored intracellularly (**Fig. 3B**). Upon *S.* Typhimurium infection *in*

vitro, bone marrow neutrophils rapidly increased CCR3 surface expression (**Fig. 3A**), consistent

with a mobilization of pre-formed receptor from an intracellular compartment (**Fig. 3B**).

Intracellular stores of CCR10 were not detected in bone marrow neutrophils under homeostatic

conditions nor during *S.* Typhimurium infection (**Suppl. Fig. 4C**). Neutrophils from bone marrow,

blood, and gut tissue of mice orally infected with *S.* Typhimurium harbored both intracellular and

surface CCR3, albeit at differing levels (**Fig. 3C**). We conclude that CCR3 is present intracellularly

in neutrophils and quickly mobilized to the cell surface upon infection, phagocytosis, and/or

cytokine stimulation.

Contributions of CCL28 to neutrophil chemotaxis and antimicrobial activity

243   Chemokines are essential for neutrophil migration to sites of infection and may regulate

additional neutrophil bactericidal effector functions including the production of reactive oxygen

species (ROS), release of antimicrobial peptides, and formation of neutrophil extracellular traps

(NETs) (Capucetti et al., 2020). We tested if CCL28 has chemotactic and/or immunostimulatory

activity towards bone marrow neutrophils *in vitro* after boosting their CCR3 surface expression

with the cytokine cocktail (GM-CSF + IFNγ + TNFα) shown in **Fig. 2**. We incubated the neutrophils

either with CCL28, or with the well-known neutrophil chemoattractant CXCL1, or with

CCL11/eotaxin (a chemokine that binds CCR3 and is induced in the asthmatic lung to promote

eosinophil recruitment (Conroy and Williams, 2001; Garcia-Zepeda et al., 1996; Kitaura et al.,

1996)). We found CCL28 promoted neutrophil chemotaxis, though not as potently as CXCL1,

while CCL11 had no significant effect (**Fig. 3D**).

254   To test whether CCL28 stimulation enhanced neutrophil effector function, we incubated

S. Typhimurium with bone marrow neutrophils for 2.5h with or without CCL28 or CCL11, then

quantified bacterial killing. Stimulation with CCL28 strongly increased neutrophil bactericidal

activity against *S.* Typhimurium, with clearance of ~40% of the bacterial inoculum, compared to

only ~10% clearance seen with unstimulated neutrophils (**Fig. 3E**). Neutrophils stimulated with

CCL11 displayed an intermediate phenotype (~25% bacterial killing). Corroborating receptor

specificity, the CCL28-mediated increase in neutrophil bactericidal activity was reversed in the

presence of the small molecule SB328437, a CCR3 antagonist (White et al., 2000) (**Fig. 3F**).

Similarly, SB328437 also reversed the effect of CCL11 on neutrophil bactericidal activity (**Fig.**

3F). Together, these results demonstrate that CCL28 boosts neutrophil effector function in a

CCR3-dependent manner.

***Ccl28*^{-/-} mice are protected from lethal infection in an *Acinetobacter* pneumonia model**

CCL28 is expressed in several mucosal tissues beyond the gut, including the lung (Mohan

et al., 2017). To investigate if CCL28 mediates neutrophil recruitment and host protection during

lung infection, we employed a murine *Acinetobacter baumannii* pneumonia model *(Dillon et al.,*

2019; Lin et al., 2015). *A. baumannii* is an emerging, frequently multidrug-resistant Gram-negative

pathogen that causes potentially lethal nosocomial pneumonia in intensive care unit patients

(Ayoub Moubareck and Hammoudi Halat, 2020). Following intratracheal *A. baumannii* infection,

we observed a striking and unexpected phenotype in the mortality curves of wild-type vs. *Ccl28*^{-/-}

mice: while 6 out of 8 wild-type littermates (75%) died within 48h, 7 out of 8 of the *Ccl28*^{-/-} knockout

mice (88%) survived through Day 10 post-infection (**Fig. 4A**). The enhanced resistance of *Ccl28*⁻

^{/-} mice relative to their wild-type littermates was not associated with a significant reduction in *A.*

baumannii CFU recovered from bronchoalveolar lavage (BAL) fluid or blood (**Fig. 4B, C**). Thus,

opposite to what we observed during *S*. Typhimurium gut infection, CCL28 did not confer

protection during *A. baumannii* lung infection, but rather exacerbated lethality.

CCL28 promotes neutrophil recruitment/retention to the lung during *Acinetobacter* infection

Prior studies demonstrated that neutrophils are recruited to the lungs of mice infected with *A. baumannii* beginning at 4h post-infection, and peak at 24h post-infection (Tsuchiya et al., 2012; Van Faassen et al., 2007). As CCL28 contributed to neutrophil recruitment during *S.* Typhimurium gut infection, we analyzed neutrophil recruitment to the lung mucosa 24h after *A. baumannii* infection in wild-type and *Ccl28*$^{-/-}$ mice. BAL fluid showed a significantly greater cellular infiltrate (largely comprised of neutrophils; CD11b$^+$ Ly6G$^+$ cells) in wild-type mice than in *Ccl28*$^{-/-}$ littermates (**Fig. 4D-F**). A similar higher percentage of neutrophils was identified in lung tissue of wild-type mice compared to *Ccl28*$^{-/-}$ mice post-infection, whereas we found no differences in neutrophil numbers in the blood or bone marrow (**Fig. 4E-F**). Although histopathology of lung tissue revealed substantial lung inflammation in both wild-type and *Ccl28*$^{-/-}$ mice after *A. baumannii* infection (**Supp. Fig 5**), immunofluorescence analysis revealed remarkable differences in the composition of the cellular infiltrate — lungs from infected wild-type mice showed an abundant infiltrate of neutrophils (Ly6G$^+$ cells) that was significantly reduced in *Ccl28*$^{-/-}$ mice (**Fig. 4G-H** and **Supp. Fig 5**).

Comparable to what we observed during *S.* Typhimurium gut infection, induction of the genes encoding IFNγ and IL-1β was significantly lower in *A. baumannii*-infected lungs of *Ccl28*$^{-/-}$ mice relative to wild-type mice (**Fig. 4I**). By contrast, expression of the *Cxcl1* gene was reduced, whereas the other proinflammatory genes tested (*Il17a*, *Csf2*, *Tnfa*) did not differ between the groups (**Fig. 4I**). CCL28 thus contributes to lung inflammation and neutrophil recruitment/retention during *A. baumannii* pneumonia.

Lung neutrophils express receptors CCR3 and CCR10 during *Acinetobacter* infection

As with neutrophils isolated from the gut of wild-type mice infected with *S.* Typhimurium,

neutrophils isolated from the BAL of *A. baumannii*-infected wild-type mice were positive for CCR3

and CCR10 surface expression, with ~73% of neutrophils expressing CCR3 (**Fig. 5A**) and ~43%

expressing CCR10 (**Fig. 5B**). In a separate experiment where neutrophils were simultaneously

stained for both CCR3 and CCR10, ~20% of BAL neutrophils from infected wild-type mice

expressed both receptors (**Suppl. Fig. 3C**), and infected *Ccl28*$^{-/-}$ mice expressed similar levels of

these receptors as wild-type mice (**Suppl. Fig. 3D**). As predicted, a lower percentage of

neutrophils isolated from the blood and the bone marrow of mice infected with *A. baumannii* were

positive for the receptors (**Fig. 5A, 5B**). Moreover, neutrophils isolated from all of these locations

harbored CCR3 intracellularly, and surface expression levels were higher on neutrophils isolated

from the BAL relative to other sites (**Fig. 5C**).

In vitro infection with *A. baumannii* rapidly induced surface expression of CCR3 on

neutrophils (**Fig. 5D**), although the induction was smaller than that observed with *S.* Typhimurium

(**Fig. 2G**). In contrast to findings with *S.* Typhimurium, *ex vivo* neutrophil killing of *A. baumannii*

was not significantly enhanced by CCL28 or CCL11 treatment (**Fig. 5E**). Taken together, our

results indicate that CCL28 modulates host responses in the lung, including the recruitment of

neutrophils, during *A. baumannii* infection. However, CCL28 is not protective in this context, in

part because the CCL28-mediated influx of neutrophils (**Fig. 4D-H** and **Supp. Fig. 5**) fails to

reduce pathogen burden (**Fig. 4B,C**).

CCR3 and CCR10 are highly induced in neutrophils isolated from COVID-19 patients

We next sought to determine whether our findings in the mouse model could be evidenced

in humans. At this point in our study (mid-2020), infection with SARS-CoV-2 had become a global

pandemic, and predominated among patients hospitalized with an infection. A subset of COVID-

19 patients progress to severe disease with pneumonia and organ damage. Such patients

typically exhibit a marked increase of neutrophils, accompanied in the most severe cases by an

increased neutrophil to lymphocyte ratio (Fu et al., 2020). SARS-CoV-2 also induces the formation

of neutrophil extracellular traps (NETs) that further exacerbate inflammatory pathology (Veras et

al., 2020). These characteristic findings gave us a window to investigate whether CCR3 and

CCR10 are expressed on the surface of neutrophils in human patients with severe COVID-19

disease including those in critical condition (see recruitment criteria in the materials and methods).

Consistent with the aforementioned reports, both severe and critical COVID-19 patients

exhibited a marked increase in the percentage of blood neutrophils relative to healthy controls

(**Supp. Fig. 6A**). Neutrophils from both groups of COVID-19 patients exhibited low surface

expression of L-selectin (CD62L; **Supp. Fig. 6B**), indicating that these cells were activated. In

healthy controls, only a small percentage of neutrophils (fewer than ~4%) expressed CCR3 and

CCR10 on their surface (**Supp. Fig. 6C,D**). In contrast, patients with severe COVID-19 showed

a significant upregulation of surface CCR3 and, to a lesser extent, CCR10 (**Supp. Fig. 6C,D**).

Analysis of clinical parameters for COVID-19 patients revealed that the percentage of CCR3$^+$

neutrophils correlated with many markers of disease severity, including higher respiratory

frequency, elevated prothrombin time, and D dimer (**Supp. Fig. 6E, F**). Thus, neutrophils isolated

from COVID-19 patients express CCR3 and CCR10 on their surface, indicating that these

receptors are indeed present on neutrophils during human disease.

Discussion

The mucosal immune response serves to maintain tissue homeostasis and to protect the

host against invading pathogens. Here we discovered that the chemokine CCL28 recruits

neutrophils to the mucosa, a response that was protective during gastrointestinal infection with

Salmonella, but detrimental during lung infection with *Acinetobacter*.

Consistent with our initial observation that *Ccl28*^{-/-} mice exhibit higher lethality during *S.*

Typhimurium infection (Burkhardt et al., 2019), we found higher intestinal colonization and

dissemination of *S.* Typhimurium in *Ccl28*^{-/-} mice than their wild-type littermates. This beneficial

role for CCL28 was negligible when the pathogen was inoculated intraperitoneally to bypass the

gut mucosa. Although it has been reported that CCL28 exerts direct antimicrobial activity against

some bacteria and fungi (Hieshima et al., 2003), the chemokine does not directly inhibit

Salmonella in vitro. Moreover, even though the CCL28 receptors CCR3 and CCR10 are

expressed on eosinophils and on B and T cells (Höchstetter et al., 2000; Pan et al., 2000; Wang

et al., 2000), none of these cell types appeared to be responsible for the observed protective role

of CCL28 during *Salmonella* infection. Eosinophils are not a major component of the host

response to *Salmonella*, and we observed comparable numbers of B and T cells in the gut during

homeostasis, as well as during *Salmonella* infection, in wild-type and *Ccl28*^{-/-} mice.

Neutrophils are a hallmark of inflammatory diarrhea. In the *Salmonella* colitis model,

neutrophils are rapidly recruited to the gut following infection. We found that neutrophil numbers

were significantly reduced in the mucosa of infected *Ccl28*^{-/-} mice relative to wild-type mice,

thereby identifying CCL28 as a key factor for neutrophil recruitment/retention during infection.

Neutrophils migrate from the bone marrow to the blood to infected sites following a chemokine

gradient (Capucetti et al., 2020), and express chemokine receptors CXCR1, CXCR2, CXCR4 and

CCR2, as well as CCR1 and CCR6 under certain circumstances (Kobayashi, 2008). CXCR2 is a

promiscuous receptor that binds to the chemokines CXCL1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, and 8 (Ahuja and

Murphy, 1996), whereas CXCR1 only binds CXCL6 and CXCL8 (Capucetti et al., 2020).

Activation of CXCR2 induces mobilization of neutrophils from the bone marrow to the bloodstream

and participates in the release of NETs (Marcos et al., 2010). Engagement of CXCR1 and CXCR2

also triggers signaling pathways resulting in the production of cytokines and chemokines that

amplify neutrophil responses (Sabroe et al., 2005). Following extravasation to the site of infection,

neutrophils downregulate CXCR2 and upregulate CCR1, 2, and 5, which cumulatively boosts

neutrophil ROS production and phagocytic activity (Capucetti et al., 2020). Our results indicate

that CCL28 contributes to neutrophil migration and activation, and that its receptors CCR3 and

CCR10 are upregulated in the mucosa during infection, where ~80% of neutrophils express

surface CCR3.

Although an initial study concluded CCR3 was absent on neutrophils (Höchstetter et al.,

2000), two subsequent studies reported CCR3 expression on human neutrophils isolated from

the lung of patients with chronic lung disease (Hartl et al., 2008) and on neutrophils isolated from

the BAL of mice infected with influenza (Rudd et al., 2019). CCR10 expression in neutrophils has

not been previously reported. Our study demonstrates that a substantial number of neutrophils

isolated from infected mucosal sites express CCR3 as well as CCR10 on their surface, whereas

in healthy humans and mice the vast majority of neutrophils do not express these receptors on

their surface. As we detected CCR3 on the neutrophil surface quite rapidly after infection, we

predicted that the receptor was stored in intracellular compartments, akin to what was found in

eosinophils (Spencer et al., 2006). Indeed, neutrophils isolated from bone marrow, blood, and

infected mucosal tissue were all positive for CCR3 intracellular staining, and we could recapitulate

the increase of surface receptor expression *in vitro* by incubating bone marrow neutrophils with

proinflammatory stimuli (LPS, or the cytokines GM-CSF + IFNγ + TNFα), or following

phagocytosis of bacterial pathogens. In all cases, upregulation of surface CCR3 on neutrophils

was more robust than that of CCR10. CCL28 stimulation of bone marrow neutrophils *in vitro*

increased their antimicrobial activity against *Salmonella*, which was reverted by the addition of a

CCR3 antagonist. These results were consistent with the *in vivo* data showing reduced

Salmonella colonization in wild-type mice.

The lung, possessing a thin, single-cell alveolar layer to promote gas exchange, may be

less resilient than the intestine to neutrophil inflammation before losing barrier integrity and critical

functions. Thus, insufficient neutrophil recruitment can lead to life-threatening infection, whereas

extreme accumulation of neutrophils can result in excessive inflammatory lung injury (Craig et al.,

2009). In the *Acinetobacter* pneumonia model, *Ccl28*$^{-/-}$ mice exhibit a marked reduction in the

number of neutrophils in the BAL and in the lung. However, in stark contrast to *Salmonella*

infection, *Ccl28*$^{-/-}$ mice were protected during *A. baumannii* pneumonia. Most *Ccl28*$^{-/-}$ mice

survived until the experiment's arbitrary endpoint at Day 10 post-infection, whereas nearly all wild-

type littermates succumbed by Day 2. In contrast to *Salmonella*, stimulation with CCL28 did not

enhance neutrophil antimicrobial activity against *Acinetobacter*. Moreover, the high survival of

Ccl28$^{-/-}$ mice infected with *A. baumannii* indicates that CCL28 can play a detrimental role for the

host during pulmonary infection. While functioning neutrophils have been described to play a role

in controlling *Acinetobacter* infection (García-Patiño et al., 2017; Grguric-Smith et al., 2015; Van

Faassen et al., 2007), an exaggeration of neutrophil recruitment to the *Acinetobacter*-infected

lung is deleterious (Yamada et al., 2013; Zeng et al., 2019, 2020). For example, in one relevant

Acinetobacter pneumonia study, depletion of alveolar macrophages increased neutrophil

infiltration, promoted extensive tissue damage, and increased systemic dissemination of

Acinetobacter (Lee et al., 2020b).

Our findings highlight the fact that the impact of the host response to infection can be

context dependent, and that some immune components mediate different outcomes in the gut

and in the lung. For example, neutrophil recruitment to the gut via CXCR2 has a protective effect

during *Salmonella* infection (Marchelletta et al., 2015). In contrast, *Cxcr2*$^{-/-}$ mice are protected

during lung infection with *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*, due to reduced neutrophil recruitment and

reduced pulmonary inflammation (Nouailles et al., 2014). Thus, CCL28-dependent modulation of

neutrophil recruitment/retention during infection, and activation of CCR3 and/or CCR10, are

protective or detrimental depending on the pathogen and on the site of infection. Consistent with

this notion, an increase in circulating neutrophils is associated with severe disease in COVID-19

patients, where neutrophils contribute to lung and tissue damage (Veras et al., 2020). In our

patient cohort, CCR3 and CCR10 surface expression on blood neutrophils was increased relative

to healthy controls, which correlated with disease severity. Although we did not have access to

BAL or lung tissue, it is possible that CCR3 and CCR10 expression may even be higher in

neutrophils at these sites, similar to our observations in animal models of infection.

Altogether, this study demonstrates that CCL28 plays an important role in the mucosal

response to pathogens through the recruitment of neutrophils to the site of infection and through

the activation of CCR3. These findings could have implications for other infectious and non-

infectious diseases where neutrophil recruitment plays a major role, and may lead to the

identification of new CCL28-targeted therapies to modulate neutrophil function and mitigate

collateral damage.

Materials and methods

Generation and breeding of *Ccl28*^{-/-} mice

The first colony of *Ccl28*$^{-/-}$ mice was described in a prior manuscript (Burkhardt et al., 2019) and

used for initial studies at UC Irvine. At UC San Diego, we generated a new colony of *Ccl28*$^{-/-}$ mice

with Cyagen Biosciences (Santa Clara, California), using CRISPR/CAS9 technology. Exons 1

and 3 were selected as target sites, and two pairs of gRNA targeting vectors were constructed

and confirmed by sequencing. The gRNA and Cas9 mRNA were generated by *in vitro*

transcription, then co-injected into fertilized eggs for knockout mouse production. The resulting

pups (F0 founders) were genotyped by PCR and confirmed by sequencing. F0 founders were

bred to wild-type mice to test germline transmission and for F1 animal generation. Tail genotyping

of offspring was performed using the following primers:

F: 5'-TCATATACAGCACCTCACTCTTGCCC-3', R: 5'-GCCTCTCAAAGTCATGCCAGAGTC-3'

and He/Wt-R: 5'-TCCCGGCCTTGAGTATGTTAGGC-3'. The expected product size for the wild-

type allele is 466 bp and for the knockout allele is 700 bp.

All mouse experiments were conducted with cohoused wild-type and *Ccl28*^{-/-} littermate mice, and

were reviewed and approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committees at UC Irvine

and UC San Diego.

***Salmonella* infection models**

For the *Salmonella* colitis model, 8-10 week-old male and female mice were orally gavaged with

20mg streptomycin 24h prior to oral gavage with 10^9 colony-forming units (CFU) of *Salmonella*

enterica serovar Typhimurium strain IR715 (a fully virulent, nalidixic acid-resistant derivative of

ATCC 14028s) (Stojiljkovic et al., 1995), as previously described (Barthel et al., 2003; Raffatellu

et al., 2009). Mice were euthanized at 72h post-infection, then colon content, spleen, mesenteric

lymph nodes, Peyer's patches, and bone marrow were collected, weighed, homogenized, serially

diluted, and plated on Miller Lysogeny broth (LB) + Nal (50µg/mL) agar plates to enumerate

Salmonella CFU. For the *Salmonella* bacteremia model, mice were injected intraperitoneally with

10^3 CFU. Mice were euthanized at 72h post-infection, then blood, spleen, and liver were collected

to determine bacterial counts.

***Acinetobacter* infection model**

For the murine pneumonia model, *Acinetobacter baumannii* strain AB5075 was cultured in Cation-

Adjusted Mueller-Hinton Broth (CA-MHB) overnight, then subcultured the next day to an OD_{600} of

~0.4 ($1x10^8$ CFU/mL; mid-logarithmic phase). These cultures were centrifuged at 3202x*g*, the

supernatant was removed, and pellets were resuspended and washed in an equal volume of 1x

Dulbecco's PBS (DPBS) three times. The final pellet was resuspended in 1x DPBS to yield a

suspension of 2.5×10^9 CFU/mL. Using an operating otoscope (Welch Allyn), mice under 100

mg/kg ketamine (Koetis) + 10 mg/kg xylazine (VetOne) anesthesia were inoculated intratracheally

with 40 μL of the bacterial suspension (10^8 CFU/mouse). Post-infection mice were recovered on

a sloped heating pad. For analysis of bacterial CFU, mice were sacrificed at 24h post-infection,

the BAL was collected, and serial dilutions were plated on LB agar to enumerate bacteria (Dillon

et al., 2019).

Blood samples from COVID-19 patients and healthy donors

Whole-blood samples were collected from COVID-19 patients and healthy donors that were

recruited at a tertiary care center in Mexico City (Instituto Nacional de Ciencias Médicas y

Nutrición Salvador Zubirán). Hospitalized patients with a positive qPCR test for SARS-CoV-2 on

nasopharyngeal swab were invited to participate in the study. Patients were classified as "severe"

or "critical" depending on the following disease severity criteria. Patients with <u>severe</u> illness

displayed one or more of the following signs: respiratory failure, respiratory rate >30 bpm, oxygen

saturation < 92% at rest, arterial partial pressure of oxygen (PaO_2)/fraction of inspired oxygen

(FiO2) (PaO_2/FiO_2) ratio < 300 mmHg. Patients with <u>critical</u> illness displayed one or more of the

following signs: requirement for mechanical ventilation, shock, or concomitant organ failure (Liu

et al., 2020). Healthy controls and patients signed an informed consent form before inclusion in

the study, and the protocol was approved by the Instituto Nacional de Ciencias Médicas y

Nutrición Salvador Zubirán ethics and research committees (Ref. 3341) in compliance with the

Helsinki declaration.

CCL28 ELISA

Fresh fecal samples were collected at 96h post-infection from wild-type mice. Fecal pellets were

weighed, resuspended in 1 mL of sterile PBS containing a protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche),

and incubated at room temperature shaking for 30 min. Samples were centrifuged at $9391xg$ for

10 min, supernatants were collected, then analyzed to quantify CCL28 using a sandwich ELISA

kit (BioLegend).

Cell extraction and analysis

For the *Salmonella* colitis model, the terminal ileum, cecum, and colon were collected and kept in

IMDM medium supplemented with 10% FBS and 1% antibiotic/antimycotic. Next, the Peyer's

patches were removed, and the intestinal fragments were cut open longitudinally and washed

with HBSS supplemented with 15 mM HEPES and 1% antibiotic/antimycotic. Then, the tissue

was shaken in 10 mL of an HBSS/ 15 mM HEPES/ 5 mM EDTA/ 10% FBS solution at 37 ºC in a

water bath for 15 min. The supernatant was removed and kept on ice. The remaining tissue was

cut into small pieces and digested in a 10 mL mixture of collagenase (Type VII, 1 mg/mL),

Liberase (20 μg/mL), and DNAse (0.25 mg/mL) in IMDM medium for 15 min in a shaking water

bath at 37 ºC. Afterwards, the supernatant and tissue fractions were strained through a 70 μm

cell strainer and pooled, and the extracted cells were used for flow cytometry staining. For the *A.*

baumannii infection model, the lungs were collected and processed as described for the gut. BAL

was collected, centrifuged, and pellets were washed with 1x PBS. The obtained cells were used

for flow cytometry staining. Briefly, cells were blocked with a CD16/32 antibody (Bio-Legend),

stained with the viability dye eFluor780 (Thermo Fisher), then extracellularly stained using the

following monoclonal antibodies: anti-mouse CD45 (clone 30-F11), anti-mouse CD3 (clone

17A2), anti-mouse CD4 (clone RM4-5), anti-mouse CD8α (clone 53-6.7), anti-mouse CD19 (clone

1D3/CD19), anti-mouse Ly6G (clone 1A8), anti-mouse CD11b (clone M1/70) from BioLegend;

anti-mouse CCR3 (clone FAB729P) and anti-mouse CCR10 (clone FAB2815A) from R&D

Systems. After staining, cells were fixed for 20 min with 4% paraformaldehyde (Fixation buffer;

BioLegend).   When intracellular staining was performed, cells were permeabilized

(Permeabilization buffer; BioLegend), and the staining was performed in the same buffer following

the manufacturer's instructions. Cells were analyzed on an LSRII flow cytometer (BD Biosciences)

and the collected data were analyzed with FlowJo v10 software (TreeStar). For analysis of human

neutrophils, whole-blood samples were collected in ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA) for

cellular analyses. Whole blood cell staining was performed using an Fc receptor blocking solution

(Human TruStain FcX; BioLegend), the viability dye eFluor780 (Thermo Fisher), and the following

conjugated monoclonal antibodies: PerCP/Cy5.5 anti-human CD45 antibody (clone HI30), Pacific

Blue anti-mouse/human CD11b antibody (clone M1/70), FITC anti-human CD62L antibody (clone

DREG-56), from BioLegend; PE anti-human CCR3 antibody (clone 61828), and APC anti-human

CCR10 antibody (clone 314305) from R&D Systems. Samples were analyzed by flow cytometry

using an LSR Fortessa flow cytometer (BD Biosciences), and data was analyzed using FlowJo

v10 software.

***In vitro* neutrophil stimulation**

Neutrophils were obtained from the bone marrow of C57/BL6 wild-type mice using the EasySep

Mouse Enrichment Kit (STEMCELL), following the manufacturer's instructions. After enrichment,

1×10^{6} neutrophils were seeded in a round-bottom 96-well plate with RPMI media supplemented

with 10% FBS, 1% antibiotic/antimycotic mix, and HEPES (1mM) (Invitrogen). For stimulation,

cells were incubated with the following concentrations of recombinant mouse cytokines: TNFα

(100 ng/mL), IFNγ (500 U/mL) and GM-CSF (10 ng/mL), all from R&D systems. Recombinant

cytokines were added alone or in combination. For indicated experiments, polystyrene beads

(Thermo Fisher) were added to neutrophils at a 1:1 ratio. Cells were incubated for 4 hours at 37

°C and 5% CO_2. After incubation, cells were recovered by centrifugation, washed with PBS, and

processed for flow cytometry as described above.

Chemotaxis assay

Enriched neutrophils from the bone marrow of wild-type mice were stimulated with a cocktail of

mouse recombinant cytokines (TNFα, IFNγ, GM-CSF), as described above, to induce receptor

expression. After stimulation, cells were washed twice with PBS, resuspended in RPMI media

supplemented with 0.1% BSA (w/v) to a final concentration of $1x10^7$ cells/mL, and 100 µL of the

cell suspension were placed in the upper compartment of a Transwell chamber (3.0 µm pore size;

Corning Costar). 50 nM of recombinant mouse CCL28, CCL11 (R&D Systems), or CXCL1

(Peprotech) were placed into the lower compartment of a Transwell chamber. The Transwell plate

was then incubated for 2h at 37 °C. The number of cells that migrated to the lower compartment

was determined by flow cytometry. The neutrophil chemotaxis index was calculated by dividing

the number of cells that migrated in the presence of a chemokine by the number of cells that

migrated in control chambers without chemokine stimulation.

Neutrophil *in vitro* infection and bacterial killing assays

Bone marrow neutrophils were obtained from mice as described above. *Salmonella* and *A.*

baumannii were grown as described in the respective mouse experiment sections. Bacteria were

then opsonized with 20% normal mouse serum for 30min at 37 °C. After neutrophils were

enriched, $1x10^6$ neutrophils were seeded in a round-bottom 96-well plate and bacteria were added

at a multiplicity of infection (MOI)= 10. The plate was centrifuged to ensure interaction between

cells and bacteria. For flow cytometry analysis, cells were incubated for 1h at 37 °C and 5% CO_2.

Then, cells were recovered by centrifugation, washed with PBS, and processed for flow cytometry

as described above. For inhibition of phagocytosis, bone marrow neutrophils were pre-incubated

with cytochalasin D (10 μM) in DMSO (0.1%), or DMSO (vehicle), for 30 min prior to infection with

opsonized *S*. Typhimurium for 1h at an MOI=10. For killing assays, recombinant mouse CCL28

(50nM) (Wang et al., 2000) and CCL11 (25nM) (Shamri et al., 2012) (R&D systems) were added

to neutrophils. When indicated, the CCR3 receptor antagonist SB328437 (Tocris Bioscience) was

added at a final concentration of 10 μM (White et al., 2000). Neutrophils infected with STm were

incubated for 2.5h and neutrophils infected with *A. baumannii* were incubated for 4.5h at 37 $^{\circ}$C

and 5% CO_2. After incubation, 1:2 dilution was performed with PBS supplemented with 2% Triton

X-100 and then serial dilution was performed and plated on LB agar to enumerate bacteria. To

calculate the percentage of bacterial survival, we divided the number of bacteria recovered in the

presence of neutrophils by the number of bacteria recovered from wells that contained no

neutrophils, then multiplied by 100.

Growth of *Salmonella* in media supplemented with recombinant chemokines

Cultures of *S.* Typhimurium wild-type were grown overnight at 37°C in LB supplemented with 50

μg/mL of nalidixic acid (Nal). The following day, cultures were diluted 1:100 in LB and grown at

37°C for 3 hr, subsequently diluted to ~0.5 x 10^6 CFU/mL in 1 mM potassium phosphate buffer

(pH 7.2), then incubated at 37°C in the presence or absence of recombinant murine CCL28

(BioLegend) at the indicated concentrations. After 2h, samples were plated onto LB + Nal agar to

enumerate viable bacteria. In other assays, *Salmonella* was grown as described above and

~1x10^7 CFU/mL were incubated at 37°C for 2.5h in the presence or absence of recombinant

murine CCL28 (50 nM) (Wang et al., 2000) or CCL11 (25 nM) (Shamri et al., 2012) in RPMI

medium supplemented with 10% FBS. After incubation, samples were plated onto LB + Nal agar

to enumerate viable bacteria.

RNA extraction and qPCR

Total RNA was extracted from mouse cecal or lung tissue using Tri-Reagent (Molecular Research

Center). Reverse transcription of 1 μg of total RNA was performed using the SuperScript VILO

cDNA Synthesis kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Quantitative real-time PCR (qRT-PCR) for the

expression of *Actb* (β-actin), *Cxcl1, Tnfa, Ifng, Csf2, Il1b,* and *Il17a* was performed using the

PowerUp SYBR Green Master Mix (Applied Biosystems) on a QuantStudio 5 Real-Time PCR

System (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Gene expression was normalized to *Actb* (β-actin). Fold

changes in gene expression were relative to uninfected controls and calculated using the *ΔΔ*Ct

method.

Histopathology

Cecal and lung tissue samples were fixed in 10% buffered formalin, embedded in paraffin

according to standard procedures, and sectioned at 5 μm. Pathology scores of cecal and lung

samples were determined by blinded examinations of hematoxylin and eosin (H&E)-stained

sections. Each cecal section was evaluated using a semiquantitative score as described

previously (Moschen et al., 2016). Lung inflammation was assessed by a multiparametric scoring

based on previous work (Lammers et al., 2012).

Immunofluorescence

Deparaffinized lung sections were stained with a purified rat anti-mouse Ly6G antibody (clone

1A8, BioLegend) according to standard immunohistochemical procedures. Ly6G+ cells were

visualized by a goat anti-rat secondary antibody (Invitrogen). Cell nuclei were stained with DAPI

in SlowFade Gold Antifade Mountant (Invitrogen). Slides were scanned on a Zeiss Axio Scan.Z1

slide scanner and whole lung scans were evaluated with QuPath analysis software (Bankhead et

al., 2017). Ly6G+ cells per mouse were quantified by averaging the neutrophil numbers of 3

consecutive high-power fields in regions with moderate to severe inflammation.

Statistical analysis

627 All statistical analysis was conducted in GraphPad Prism 8. Statistical significance was

628 determined by using one-way ANOVA (multiple comparisons) or *t* test (single comparisons) for

629 the *in vitro* experiments, or Mann-Whitney U for the *in vivo* experiments. Differences were

630 considered statistically significant if the *p* value was <0.05.

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648 Author contributions

APL and MR conceived the overall study. APL, ND, SLB, RRG, MHL, S-PN, VN, and MR designed

the *in vitro* and *in vivo* experiments and analyzed the data. APL, SS, ND, SLB, RRG, MHL, and

KM performed experiments. APL, JT-R, VAS-H, RC-D, AP-F, SR-R, DG-M, and JLM-M performed

the human neutrophil studies. RRG analyzed the histopathology. APL, S-PN, VN, and MR wrote

the paper. APL, S-PN, VN, and MR provided supervision and funding support.

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 FIGURES AND LEGENDS

Figure 1

Figure 1. CCL28 confers protection during *Salmonella* colitis and mediates the recruitment of neutrophils to the gut. (**A**) For the colitis model, wild-type mice were gavaged with streptomycin 24h prior to oral infection with *S. enterica* serovar Typhimurium (STm). At 96h post-infection, CCL28 in feces was quantified by ELISA. Data shown comprise two independent experiments (uninfected, n=10; STm, n=10). Bars represent the mean ± SD. (**B**) CFU in cecum content, Peyer's patches, mesenteric lymph nodes, spleen, and bone marrow were determined at 72h post-infection of wild-type (WT, black circles) and *Ccl28*$^{-/-}$ (white circles) littermate mice. Data shown comprise three independent experiments (WT, n=10; *Ccl28*$^{-/-}$, n=8). Bars represent the geometric mean. (**C**) Representative contour plots of neutrophils (CD11b$^+$ Ly6G$^+$ cells; gated on live, CD45$^+$ cells) obtained from the gut, blood, and bone marrow of STm-infected WT or *Ccl28*$^{-/-}$ mice, as determined by flow cytometry at 48h post-infection. (**D**) Frequency of neutrophils per million live cells obtained from the gut, blood, and bone marrow of STm-infected WT (black bars) or *Ccl28*$^{-/-}$ mice (white bars). Data shown comprise three independent experiments (WT, n=15; *Ccl28*$^{-/-}$, n=15). Bars represent the mean ± SD. (**E**) Relative expression levels (qPCR) of *Cxcl1* (CXCL1), *Tnfa* (TNFα), *Ifng* (IFNγ), *Csf2* (GM-CSF), *Il1b* (IL-1β), and *Il17a* (IL-17A) in the cecum of WT (black circles, n=8) or *Ccl28*$^{-/-}$ mice (white circles, n=6). Bars represent the geometric mean. Data shown comprise three independent experiments. (**F-H**) Histopathological analysis of cecum collected from STm-infected WT or *Ccl28*$^{-/-}$ mice (WT, n=8; *Ccl28*$^{-/-}$, n=5). (**F**) Sum of the total histopathology score, (**G**) histopathology scores showing the analyzed parameters, and (**H**) H&E-stained sections from one representative animal for each group (200X). (**F**) Bars represent the mean ± SD. A significant change (Mann-Whitney U) relative to WT controls is indicated by *p ≤ 0.05, **p ≤ 0.01, ***p ≤ 0.001. ns = not significant.

Figure 2

Figure 2. Surface expression of the CCL28 receptors CCR3 and CCR10 on neutrophils upon stimulation with proinflammatory stimuli and phagocytosis. (A-B) Surface expression of (**A**) CCR3 or (**B**) CCR10 on neutrophils obtained from the gut, blood, and bone marrow 72h post-infection with STm, analyzed by flow cytometry. Left panels show representative histograms of (**A**) CCR3 or (**B**) CCR10 expression on the surface of neutrophils (gated on live, CD45$^+$ CD11b$^+$ Ly6G$^+$ cells) from the gut (blue), blood (red), and bone marrow (BM; black). Right panels show the percentage of (**A**) CCR3$^+$ or (**B**) CCR10$^+$ neutrophils obtained from gut, blood, and BM. Data are from two independent experiments. (**C-F**) Bone marrow neutrophils were unstimulated or treated with the indicated stimuli for 4h. Surface expression of (**C**, **E**) CCR3 and (**D**, **F**) CCR10 on neutrophils was determined by flow cytometry. Left panels show representative histograms of (**C, E**) CCR3 or (**D, F**) CCR10 surface expression after stimulation with: (**C, D**) cytokines TNFα + IFNγ + GM-CSF (blue); fMLP (magenta); PMA, (purple); LPS (red); (**E, F**) cytokines TNFα + IFNγ + GM-CSF (blue); beads alone (magenta); cytokines plus beads (red). Right panels show the percentage of (**C, E**) CCR3$^+$ or (**D**, **F**) CCR10$^+$ neutrophils following stimulation with the indicated stimuli. US = unstimulated. Data shown are representative of two independent experiments. (**G, H**) Bone marrow neutrophils were infected with opsonized *S*. Typhimurium at a multiplicity of infection (MOI)=10 for 1h. Surface expression of (**G**) CCR3 or (**H**) CCR10 was determined by flow cytometry. Data are from two independent experiments. (**I, J**) Bone marrow neutrophils were treated with cytochalasin D or mock-treated with DMSO (vehicle) for 30 min before infection with opsonized STm for 1h at an MOI=10. Surface expression of (**I**) CCR3 or (**J**) CCR10 was determined by flow cytometry. Data shown is representative of two independent experiments. Left panels show representative histograms of surface receptor staining on neutrophils, and right panels show the percentages. (**A-J**, right panels) Bars represent the mean ± SD. (**A-F**, **I**, **J**) Data was analyzed by one-way ANOVA on log-transformed data. (**G, H**) Data was analyzed by paired *t* test. Significant changes are indicated by *$p ≤ 0.05$, **$p ≤ 0.01$, ***$p ≤ 0.001$, ****$p ≤ 0.0001$.

Figure 3

Figure 3. CCL28 modulates neutrophil chemotaxis and antimicrobial activity. (**A, B**) Bone

marrow neutrophils were infected with opsonized STm at MOI=10 for 1h. (**A**) Surface CCR3 or

(**B**) intracellular CCR3 were detected by flow cytometry. (**C**) Neutrophils were obtained from the

gut, blood, and bone marrow 72h post-infection with STm. Surface (clear histograms) or

intracellular (solid histograms) CCR3 expression was analyzed by flow cytometry. (**A-C**) Left

panels show representative histograms, and right panels show the percentage of neutrophils

expressing CCR3 on their surface (clear bars) or intracellularly (solid bars). (**D**) Bone marrow

neutrophils were stimulated with TNFα + IFNγ + GM-CSF for 4h before adding 1×10^6 cells to the

upper compartment of a transwell chamber for chemotaxis assays. Each of the chemokines

(CCL28, CCL11, or CXCL1), or no chemokine (NC), were placed in separate lower

compartments. The transwell plate was incubated for 2h at 37^oC. Cells that migrated to the lower

compartment were enumerated by flow cytometry. Neutrophil chemotaxis index was calculated

by taking the number of cells that migrated in response to a chemokine and dividing it by the

number of cells that migrated in the absence of a chemokine. Data are from four independent

experiments. (**E**) Opsonized STm (1×10^7 CFU) was cultured alone, or added to bone marrow

neutrophils (1×10^6 cells) stimulated with CCL28, CCL11, or no chemokine, for 2.5h at 37^oC. CFU

were enumerated by plating serial dilutions. Percentage of STm survival was calculated for each

condition by taking the CFU from bacteria incubated with neutrophils and dividing it by the CFU

from bacteria incubated without neutrophils, multiplied by 100. Data shown comprise three

independent experiments. (**F**) The effect of the CCR3 antagonist SB328437 on neutrophil-

mediated STm killing was evaluated by performing the experiment as described in panel (**E**), with

or without the antagonist. Data shown comprise three independent experiments. (**A-F**) Bars

represent the mean ± SD. Data was analyzed by one-way ANOVA on log-transformed data. (**F**)

Data was analyzed by paired *t* test. Significant changes are indicated by *$p \le 0.05$, **$p \le 0.01$,

****$p \le 0.0001$. ns = not significant.

Figure 4

Figure 4. Absence of CCL28 confers protection in a lethal _Acinetobacter_ pneumonia model.

(**A**) WT mice (black line) and _Ccl28$^{-/-}$_ mice (red line) were intratracheally infected with _Acinetobacter baumannii_ (Ab) and their survival was determined for 10 days. Data shown comprise two independent experiments (WT, n=8; _Ccl28$^{-/-}$_, n=8). (**B-F**) WT and _Ccl28$^{-/-}$_ mice were compared 24h post-infection with Ab. (**B, C**) Ab CFU in (**B**) BAL (bronchoalveolar lavage) fluid or (**C**) blood in WT mice (black circles) and _Ccl28$^{-/-}$_ mice (white circles). (**D**) The number of total host cells per mL of BAL, as determined by flow cytometry. (**E, F**) Representative (**E**) contour plots of neutrophils (CD11b$^+$ Ly6G$^+$ cells; gated on live, CD45$^+$ cells) and (**F**) frequency of neutrophils obtained from the BAL, lung, blood, and bone marrow of Ab-infected WT or _Ccl28$^{-/-}$_ mice, as determined by flow cytometry. Data comprise two independent experiments (WT, n=8; _Ccl28$^{-/-}$_, n=8). Bars represent (**B, C**) the geometric mean or (**D, F**) the mean ± SD. (**G**) Representative immunofluorescence image showing Ly6G$^+$ cells (magenta) in the lungs of WT and _Ccl28$^{-/-}$_ mice 24h post-Ab infection. DAPI (blue) was used to label nuclei. (**H**) Quantification of Ly6G$^+$ cells per high-power field (HPF) from immunofluorescence images of lungs from WT mice (n=4) and _Ccl28$^{-/-}$_ mice (n=4). Bars represent the mean ± SD. (**I**) Relative expression levels (qPCR) of _Cxcl1_ (CXCL1), _Tnfa_ (TNFα), _Ifng_ (IFNγ), _Csf2_ (GM-CSF), _Il1b_ (IL-1β), and _Il17a_ (IL-17A) in the lung of WT (black circles, n=12) or _Ccl28$^{-/-}$_ mice (white circles, n=12) infected with Ab. Bars represent the geometric mean. Data shown comprise three independent experiments. A significant change (Mann-Whitney U) relative to WT controls is indicated by *p ≤ 0.05, **p ≤ 0.01, ***p ≤ 0.001. ns = not significant.

Figure 5

Figure 5. Lung neutrophils express CCR3 and CCR10 in an *Acinetobacter* lethal pneumonia

model. WT mice were infected with *A. baumannii* (Ab) for 24h. (**A-C**) Cells obtained from BAL,

blood, and bone marrow were analyzed by flow cytometry to determine: (**A**) CCR3 or (**B**) CCR10

surface expression on neutrophils (CD11b$^+$ Ly6G$^+$ cells; gated on live, CD45$^+$ cells); (**C**) Surface

(clear histograms) or intracellular (solid histograms) CCR3 expression in neutrophils. Data shown

comprise two independent experiments. (**A-C**) Left panels show representative histograms, and

right panels show the percentage of neutrophils expressing the indicated receptor on their surface

(clear bars) or intracellularly (solid bars). (**D**) Bone marrow neutrophils were infected with

opsonized Ab at an MOI=10 for 1h. Surface CCR3 was determined by flow cytometry. Left panel

shows representative histograms of CCR3 expression, and the right panel shows the percentage

of CCR3$^+$ neutrophils. Data are from two independent experiments. (**E**) Opsonized Ab (1x10^7

CFU) was cultured alone, or added to bone marrow neutrophils (1x10^6 cells) stimulated with

CCL28, CCL11, or no chemokine (NC), for 4.5h at 37°C. CFU were enumerated by plating serial

dilutions. Percentage of Ab survival was calculated for each condition by taking the CFU from

bacteria incubated with neutrophils and dividing it by the CFU from bacteria incubated without

neutrophils, multiplied by 100. Data shown comprise three independent experiments. Bars

represent the mean ± SD. (**A-C**, **E**) Data was analyzed by one-way ANOVA on log-transformed

data. (**D**) Data was analyzed by paired *t* test. Significant changes are indicated by *$p \leq 0.05$, **p

≤ 0.01, ***$p \leq 0.001$, ****$p \leq 0.0001$.

 SUPPLEMENTAL FIGURES

A

B

C **D**

Supp. Fig. 1

Supplementary Figure 1. CCL28 does not confer protection in a *Salmonella* bacteremia model, and lacks direct antimicrobial activity against *Salmonella*.

(**A, B**) For the bacteremia model, mice were infected by intraperitoneal injection with *S. Typhimurium* (STm, 1×10^3 CFU) or sterile PBS (uninfected control). (**A**) At 96h post-infection, CCL28 in serum was quantified by ELISA of wild-type mice (uninfected, n=7; STm, n=12). Data shown comprise two independent experiments. Bars represent the mean $\pm$ SD. (**B**) STm CFU was determined in the spleen, liver, and blood of WT mice (black squares) and *Ccl28$^{-/-}$* mice (white squares) 96h after intraperitoneal infection with STm (1×10^3 CFU). Data shown comprise two independent experiments (WT, n=5; *Ccl28$^{-/-}$*, n=5). (**C, D**) *In vitro* antimicrobial activity of CCL28 against STm. (**C**) STm (0.5×10^6 CFU/mL) was incubated with recombinant murine CCL28 at the indicated concentrations (n=6 per group) and CFU were enumerated after 2h. (**D**) STm (1×10^7 CFU/mL) was incubated with recombinant murine CCL28 (50 nM) or CCL11 (25 nM) and CFU were enumerated at 75 min (n=4 per group) and 150 min (n=6 per group). Bars represent the geometric mean. A significant change (Mann-Whitney U) relative to uninfected controls is indicated by *$p \leq 0.05$.

Supp. Fig. 2

Supplementary Figure 2. **Wild-type and *Ccl28*^{-/-} mice exhibit similar numbers of T and B**

cells, as well as bone marrow and blood neutrophils.

Flow cytometry analysis of (**A**, **B**) CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$ T cells, and (**C**, **D**) CD19$^+$ B cells isolated from

the gut of (**A, C**) uninfected WT and *Ccl28*$^{-/-}$ mice or (**B, D**) WT and *Ccl28*$^{-/-}$ mice infected with STm

for 48h (colitis model; see also **Fig. 1**). (**E, F**) Cells from (**E**) bone marrow or (**F**) blood of uninfected

WT (black bars) or *Ccl28*$^{-/-}$ (white bars) mice were analyzed by flow cytometry to determine the

percentage and number of neutrophils. (**A-F**) Left panels show representative contour plots. Right

panels show the frequency of the indicated cells per million live cells of WT mice (black bars) and

Ccl28$^{-/-}$ mice (white bars). Each circle represents a mouse. Bars represent the geomean $\pm$ SD.

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STm
infection
(Gut)

Ab
infection
(BAL)

Supp. Fig. 3

Supplementary Figure 3. **Expression of CCR3 and CCR10 in neutrophils isolated from the**

gut and lung mucosa.

(**A**) Surface expression of CCR3 and CCR10 on neutrophils obtained from the gut of WT mice

(n=5) infected with STm for 72h, analyzed by flow cytometry. (**B**) Percentage of CCR3$^+$ and

CCR10$^+$ neutrophils obtained from the gut of WT (n=5) and *Ccl28*$^{-/-}$ mice (n=3) infected with STm

for 72h, analyzed by flow cytometry. (**C**) Surface expression of CCR3 and CCR10 on neutrophils

obtained from the BAL of WT mice (n=4) infected with Ab for 24h, analyzed by flow cytometry.

(**D**) Percentage of CCR3$^+$ and CCR10$^+$ neutrophils obtained from the BAL of WT (n=4) and *Ccl28*$^-$

$^{/-}$ mice (n=3) infected with Ab for 24h, analyzed by flow cytometry. (**A**, **C**) Left panels show

representative contour plots, and right panels show the percentages of neutrophils expressing

the indicated receptor on their surface. Bars represent the mean $\pm$ SD.

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Supp. Fig. 4

Supplementary Figure 4. **CCR3 surface expression is enhanced in bone marrow**

neutrophils stimulated with a cytokine cocktail.

Bone marrow neutrophils were incubated with the indicated cytokines for 4h, and surface

expression of CCR3 was evaluated by flow cytometry. (**A**) Representative histograms and (**B**)

percentage of CCR3$^+$ neutrophils. Bars represent the mean ± SD. Data shown are representative

of two independent experiments, and statistical analysis was performed by a paired t test.

Significant changes are indicated by *$p \leq 0.05$, **$p \leq 0.01$. (**C**) Bone marrow neutrophils were

infected with opsonized STm at MOI=10 for 1h. Surface (left panels) or intracellular (right panels)

CCR10 was detected by flow cytometry. Surface CCR10 is also shown in **Fig. 2H** and displayed

here for comparison.

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Supp. Fig. 5

Supplementary Figure 5. Immunofluorescence staining and histopathology of

Acinetobacter-**infected lungs from WT and *Ccl28*^{-/-} mice.**

(**A**) Representative immunofluorescence image of lungs from WT and *Ccl28*$^{-/-}$ mice, uninfected or

infected with *A. baumannii* (Ab) stained for the neutrophil marker Ly6G (magenta). DAPI (blue)

was used to label nuclei. (**B**) Quantification of Ly6G$^+$ cells in lungs from WT and *Ccl28*$^{-/-}$ mice,

uninfected or infected with Ab. Bars represent the mean $\pm$ SD, and each circle represents an

individual mouse. (**C**) Histopathological analysis of lungs from WT and *Ccl28*$^{-/-}$ mice infected with

Ab at 24 h post-infection. Each bar represents an individual mouse

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Supp. Fig. 6

Supplementary Figure 6. CCR3 and CCR10 are expressed on the surface of neutrophils

isolated from COVID-19 patients, and correlate with disease severity. Blood samples were

obtained from healthy donors and COVID-19 patients, then processed to analyze neutrophils by

flow cytometry. (**A**) Left panel shows a representative dot-plot of neutrophils (gated on live, CD45$^+$

CD11b$^+$ CD62L$^+$ cells) isolated from the blood, and right panel shows the percentage of

neutrophils in the blood of healthy donors and COVID-19 patients classified as severe or critical.

(**B-D**) Left panels show representative histograms of (**B**) CD62L, (**C**) CCR3, or (**D**) CCR10

expression on the surface of blood neutrophils from healthy donors, or severe or critical COVID-

19 patients. Right panels show (**B**) Median Fluorescence Intensity (MFI) of CD62L, (**C**)

percentage of surface CCR3$^+$ neutrophils or (**D**) percentage of surface CCR10$^+$ neutrophils in

blood from healthy donors, or severe or critical COVID-19 patients. (**A-D**) Bars represent the

mean ± SE. Data was analyzed by one-way ANOVA. Significant changes are indicated by *$p \leq$

0.05, **$p \leq$ 0.01, ****$p \leq$ 0.0001. (**E, F**) Pearson correlation between the percentage of CCR3$^+$

neutrophils and clinical parameters of patients with severe or critical COVID-19. Representative

correlation plots between the percentage of CCR3$^+$ neutrophils and selected clinical parameters

with statistically significant p values in (**E**) severe and (**F**) critical COVID-19 patients. R coefficients

(95% confidence interval) and p values are shown.