Pulmonary mesenchymal stem cells are engaged in distinct steps of host response to respiratory syncytial virus infection

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ABSTRACT

Lung-resident (LR) mesenchymal stem and stromal cells (MSCs) are key elements of the alveolar

niche and fundamental regulators of homeostasis and regeneration. We interrogated their

function during virus-induced lung injury using the highly prevalent respiratory syncytial virus

(RSV) which causes severe outcomes in infants. We applied complementary approaches with

primary pediatric LR-MSCs and a state-of-the-art model of human RSV infection in lamb.

Remarkably, RSV-infection of pediatric LR-MSCs led to a robust activation, characterized by a

strong antiviral and pro-inflammatory phenotype combined with mediators related to T cell

function. In line with this, following *in vivo* infection, RSV invades and activates LR-MSCs,

resulting in the expansion of the pulmonary MSC pool. Moreover, the global transcriptional

response of LR-MSCs appears to follow RSV disease, switching from an early antiviral signature

to repair mechanisms including differentiation, tissue remodeling, and angiogenesis. These

findings demonstrate the involvement of LR-MSCs during virus-mediated acute lung injury and

may have therapeutic implications.

Keywords: mesenchymal stem and stromal cells, respiratory syncytial virus, acute lung injury,

repair and regeneration, bronchiolitis, interstitial pneumonia, respiratory virus infection.

AUTHOR SUMMARY

27   This work identifies a novel function of lung-resident MSCs during virus-induced acute lung injury.

28   These findings contribute to the understanding of host response and lung repair mechanisms

29   during a highly prevalent clinical situation and may have therapeutic implications.

INTRODUCTION

The ability of organs to maintain homeostasis and regenerate following injury is vital to an organism. These processes are maintained by many supportive cells including tissue-resident mesenchymal stem and stromal cells (MSCs). MSCs are found in nearly every vascularized tissue including the upper and lower respiratory tract. More specifically, they are localized in perivascular niches of small and larger blood vessels and were shown to be lung-resident [1-7]. In the alveolar niche, lung-resident (LR)-MSCs can interact with epithelial cells and promote alveolar cell growth, differentiation, and self-renewal. This is of particular importance for epithelial maintenance as well as for repair and regeneration as demonstrated in artificial rodent models of lung injury [8-10]. Failure of these mechanisms may play a role in the etiology of several chronic lung diseases [11, 12]. LR-MSCs can directly interact with various pulmonary immune cell populations via cellular contact or in a paracrine manner by secretion of soluble factors [13]. Characterization of immunomodulatory properties of mesenchymal cells are of great clinical importance since non-resident MSCs are the subject of cell-based treatment approaches for various lung disorders [14, 15].

The human respiratory syncytial virus (RSV) is of high prevalence and causes a huge burden on public health systems. Globally, RSV is the leading cause of severe acute lower respiratory tract infections in early childhood and suspected to have an underestimated impact on the elderly [16, 17]. Several animal models have been established to study RSV infection, with the lamb model best reflecting anatomical and immunological properties of the neonatal human lung. This model recapitulates the clinical features of the human pediatric disease and the closely related bovine RSV is a natural pathogen of ruminants. Furthermore, unlike rodents, lambs present a similar lung development, are susceptible to human RSV, and develop comparable pulmonary lesions [18-20].

Despite intense research on MSCs, no information is available about their role during acute respiratory infection and their contribution following virus-induced injury. Given the important role of the mesenchymal compartment and LR-MSCs in lung regeneration and repair, we hypothesize that this applies during respiratory virus infection. Therefore, we aimed to explore the role of the

pulmonary mesenchymal compartment, in particular LR-MSCs, during RSV infection using an

experimental approach based on primary LR-MSCs isolated from human pediatric donors and a

translational model of human RSV infection in lamb.

RESULTS

LR-MSCs are highly permissive to RSV infection

To study the immunobiology of LR-MSCs during respiratory virus infection, we determined first if

these cells are susceptible towards RSV infection in comparison to a well described cellular target

of RSV, namely airway epithelial cells (AECs) [21-23]. We characterized the LR-MSCs isolated

from pediatric donors according to the three criteria proposed by the Mesenchymal and Tissue

Stem Cell Committee of the International Society for Cellular Therapy [24]. As shown in **Fig. 1A,**

LR-MSCs were positive for the three MSC surface markers CD73, CD90, and CD105.

Additionally, we confirmed plastic adherence of the cells and their trilineage potential by

differentiating them towards chondrocytes, osteocytes, and adipocytes (**Fig. 1B**). Next, we

assessed mRNA expression levels of different putative RSV cell-surface receptors/co-receptors

[25-30], namely nucleolin, toll-like receptor 4 (TLR4), intercellular adhesion molecule 1 (ICAM-1),

annexin II, and CX3CR1 in pediatric LR-MSCs in comparison to donor-matched AECs. All tested

receptors were expressed in both cell types at various levels (**Fig. 1C**), suggesting that LR-MSCs

are susceptible to RSV infection. Thereby, we detected fast replication kinetics of RSV RNA in

LR-MSCs similar to levels measured in infected AECs (**Fig. 1D**). To confirm the replication of

RSV in LR-MSC, we next used a flow cytometry (FCM) approach. We infected LR-MSCs with a

clinical isolate of RSV subtype A (RSV-ON1-H1) and with RSV-A2 at low multiplicity of infection

(MOI; 0.1 PFU/cell). After 144 hours post-infection (p.i.) 40-100% of LR-MSCs were infected

depending on the donor (**Fig. 1E**). However, when using higher MOIs (1 PFU/cell), 144 hours p.i.,

both RSV-A2 and RSV-ON1-H1 infected nearly 100% of the cells (**Fig. S1A**). Given that LR-

MSCs are highly susceptible to RSV infection, we were wondering how the virus spreads among

the cells. To follow visually virus spread in the two different cell types, we performed live imaging

in specific areas of the cellular layer following infection with a recombinant RSV construct

expressing constitutively the mCherry reporter (RSV-mCherry). While infected well-differentiated

(WD)-AECs appear as discrete RSV-positive cells, infected LR-MSCs showed up in discrete foci,

suggesting RSV spread via cell-to-cell contact (**Fig. 1F**). In order to confirm that the increase of

mCherry reporter signal in LR-MSCs foci is due to RSV spread, we infected LR-MSCs with RSV-

A2 and visualized the presence of RSV over time using a high definition confocal microscopy

approach. Notably, while the RSV signal was often located at the plasma membrane at 24h p.i, it

increased over time and became mainly perinuclear and/or cytosolic at later time points,

suggesting replication (**Fig.1G**). To further confirm the distinct life cycles, we measured infectious

virus release over time in LR-MSCs in comparison to WD-AECs by applying a plaque-forming

unit (PFU) assay. Remarkably, at most of the time-points tested, there was significantly higher

infectious virus release in the apical washings of infected WD-AECs compared to the

supernatants of LR-MSC cultures infected with a low or a high MOI. Moreover, while there was

almost no infectious virus detectable in the supernatants of LR-MSCs with both MOIs tested (**Fig.**

1H, S1B), we observed an exponential increase of the intracellular infectious RSV titers over time

at both MOIs tested (**Fig. 1I, S1C**). Finally, when assessing the extracellular viral RNA loads in

WD-AECs in comparison to LR-MSCs, we observed a rapid exponential increase of virus loads

in the apical washes of WD-AECs and rather an accumulation of RSV RNA in the supernatants

of LR-MSCs, suggesting the presence of substantial levels of non-infectious RSV particles (**Fig.**

1J, S1D). Altogether, these results demonstrate that primary pediatric LR-MSCs are highly

permissive to RSV infection and that RSV replicates in LR-MSC, although the life cycle of RSV is

distinct to AECs.

RSV infection is altering the immune properties of LR-MSCs

We therefore aimed to establish if LR-MSCs can mount an antiviral response upon RSV infection.

Twenty-four hours p.i., we observed a significant increased expression of interferon stimulated

genes (ISGs) commonly induced during RNA virus infections [31]. More specifically, RSV-A2 and

RSV-ON1-H1 infection induced a significant upregulation of retinoic acid-inducible gene-I (RIG-

I), melanoma differentiation-associated protein 5 (MDA-5), 2',5'-oligoadenylate synthetase 2

(2',5'-OAS), interferon (IFN)-induced dynamin-like GTPase (MxA), and virus inhibitory protein, endoplasmic reticulum-associated, IFN-inducible (Viperin) compared to mock control (**Fig. 2A**). Furthermore, the mRNA levels of both IFN-β and IFN-λ1 had a trend towards significantly higher levels upon RSV infection (**Fig. 2B**). We also verified if RSV infection-induced increased mRNA levels of type I and III IFNs resulted in an increased protein release. IFN-β release was significantly stimulated by the two RSV strains over time and was quantified at highly significant levels after 72 hours p.i. (**Fig. 2C**). Furthermore, the protein levels of IFN-λ1/3 were significantly elevated after 24 and 72 hours p.i. compared to mock control for RSV-A2 and had a trend towards significance for the RSV-ON1-H1 strain (**Fig. 2D**). Notably, infection of WD-AECs in comparison to LR-MSCs induced comparable IFN type I and III levels 24 to 72 hours p.i., suggesting a similar IFN response upon RSV infection (**Fig. S2A-C**). Next, we wanted to evaluate whether infection has an impact on the immunomodulatory properties of LR-MSCs. First, we evaluated the cell-surface expression levels of two co-stimulatory molecules, namely programmed death-ligand 1 (PD-L1) and major histocompatibility complex (MHC) class I, described in LR-MSCs to be involved in their immunomodulatory characteristics [32, 33]. LR-MSCs expressed baseline levels of both co-stimulators. Poly(I:C), a ligand mimicking RNA virus infection, induced a significant upregulation of both co-stimulatory molecules in comparison to mock control. In line with this, RSV infection led to the induction of slightly increased levels of PD-L1 and MHC class I expression compared to mock-treated LR-MSCs, with differences not reaching significance, as shown in representative histograms (**Fig. S2D**) and upon quantification (**Fig. S2E**). Next, we evaluated the secretory profiles of LR-MSCs following RSV infection in comparison to WD-AECs. Upon infection of WD-AECs with RSV-A2 or RSV-ON1-H1, the basolateral cytokine secretion revealed mainly CXCL10/IP-10 and CXCL8/IL-8 release (**Fig. 2E**). Contrary to WD-AECs, RSV infection of LR-MSCs led to a massive secretion of several cytokines. In fact, 24 and 72 hours p.i., expression was remarkably increased for most of the cytokines measured, including CXCL10/IP-10, CXCL8/IL-8, IL-6, G-CSF, CCL5/RANTES, IL-9, IFN-γ, IL-5, and L-17 to name the most notable ones (**Fig. 2F**). Taken together, these data demonstrate that RSV infection leads to a robust

142 activation of LR-MSCs, characterized by a strong antiviral and pro-inflammatory phenotype

143 combined with cytokines modulating T cell function (**Fig. 2G**).

RSV infection is causing lung injury in lamb

To study the MSC compartment of the lung and its role during an acute respiratory virus infection,

we applied an *in vivo* approach using the neonatal lamb model of RSV infection. Although data

are available on ovine MSCs derived from several tissues, ovine LR-MSCs have not been

described yet [34-36]. Thus, we isolated and expanded LR-MSCs cultures from healthy ovine

lung cell suspensions as described previously for human tissue [3]. Characterization by

immunophenotyping displayed a high level of cell surface markers typically found in MSCs such

as the hyaluronate receptor CD44 and CD29 (ITGB1). An additional marker, CD166 (ALCAM),

was also expressed on cultured MSCs (**Fig. S3A**). The plastic-adherent cells were large with a

fibroblast-like morphology. Multilineage capacity was confirmed following specific culture

conditions, as ovine LR-MSCs transdifferentiated to chondrocytes, osteocytes, and adipocytes

(**Fig. S3B**). Together, these features fulfill the accepted criteria to identify MSCs proposed by the

Mesenchymal and Tissue Stem Cell Committee of the International Society for Cellular Therapy

[24]. Before infection of the animals, we performed an infection of ovine LR-MSCs cultures with

human RSV. Virus replication was evident as observed by an increase of RSV load of cell-

associated viral RNA over time. Similarly to RSV-infected human LR-MSCs, the infectious virus

in the supernatants was undetectable or close to the detection limit suggesting cell-to-cell spread

(**Fig. S3C**). Furthermore, *ex vivo* infection of ovine precision-cut lung slice (PCLS) cultures with a

recombinant RSV construct expressing constitutively the green fluorescent protein (RSV-GFP)

led to an increase of the reporter signal over time, indicating replication (**Fig. S3D**). When

analyzing the infected PCLSs at higher magnification, the GFP signal was mainly located in the

alveolar wall suggesting infection of pneumocytes (**Fig. S3E**). Newborn lambs were infected with

human RSV-A2 and respiratory disease was evaluated during the acute (3 and 6 days p.i.),

recovery (14 days p.i.), and convalescence (42 days p.i.) phases. To do so, at each timepoint

p.i., we examined the lung tissue and the cellular components of bronchoalveolar lavage (BAL)

fluid (**Fig. 3A**). RSV-infected neonates showed clear nasal discharge, occasional coughing and wheezing. Macroscopic lesions were detected at necropsies performed 3 and 6 days p.i. Lungs failed to collapse and showed multiple, irregular, mildly reddened areas with slightly increased consistency of up to 2 cm in diameter in all lung lobes. Histopathological evaluation of the lung revealed tissue consolidation, bronchiolitis, and thickening of interalveolar walls 3, and 6 days following RSV infection (**Fig. 3B**). Following infection, alveolar type 2 cell hyperplasia was observed, indicating tissue injury (**Fig. S4A**). In addition, at 6 days p.i. we observed occasionally potential syncytial cells lining alveoli (**Fig. S4A, B**). These features disappeared 14 days p.i. (**Fig. 3B**), indicating resolution of lesions after RSV-mediated acute lung injury. Immunohistochemistry analysis of lung tissue sections revealed the presence of RSV antigen in pneumocytes (**Fig. 3C**). We evaluated the viral RNA levels in the lung and BAL tissues. In the lung, the RSV loads decreased over time with no virus detectable in 50% of the animals 14 days p.i. and in all animals 42 days p.i. In the cellular fraction of the BAL, RSV copies were highest at 3 days p.i., with viral RNA detectable in 66% of the animals 14 days p.i. and reaching undetectable levels 42 days p.i. There was a significant difference in viral loads with approximately 100 times higher level of RSV copies detectable in the BAL compartment compared to the lung at both, 3 and 6 days p.i. (**Fig. 3D**). To confirm the histopathological evaluation revealing RSV-mediated tissue injury, we assessed cell death by quantifying cleaved caspase-3-positive cells using an approach summarized in **Fig. S5**. The percentage of cleaved caspase-3 positive cells in the lung, was significantly increased for infected animals 3, and 6 days p.i. and similar 14, and 42 days p.i. compared to mock controls (**Fig. 3E**). Lung injury is further indicated by shedding of apoptotic cells into the bronchoalveolar space. Indeed, there are significantly more cleaved caspase-3 positive cells 3 days p.i. assessed for infected compared to mock-infected animals (**Fig. 3F**). The impact of RSV infection on the bronchoalveolar space is further indicated by an infiltration of cells as assessed in the BALs from infected compared to mock-infected animals 3 to 14 days p.i. (**Fig. 3G**). In summary, the life cycle of RSV is similar in human and ovine LR-MSCs and infection of neonatal lambs with human RSV is causing lung injury. These data support the use of the lamb model to investigate LR-MSCs in RSV disease.

LR-MSCs are a target for RSV infection *in vivo*

To determine if LR-MSCs can be a target for RSV *in vivo*, we designed a FCM assay allowing the

identification of the pulmonary epithelial (CD31⁻CD45⁻panCTK⁺) and mesenchymal (CD31⁻CD45⁻

panCTK⁻CD29⁺CD44⁺) compartments, as well as detection of RSV infection *in vivo* (**Fig. 4A)**. In

13-80% of the infected animals, both RSV-positive epithelial cells and LR-MSCs were detected

in the lung cell suspensions 3, 6 and 14 days p.i. (**Fig. 4B, S6**). When RSV-positive LR-MSCs

were plotted as a function of RSV-positive epithelial cells, a significant positive association was

found, suggesting that the spread of RSV infection to LR-MSCs is linked to the extent of

replication in the pulmonary epithelium (**Fig 4C**). Next, MSCs derived from lung tissue and BALs,

were isolated from each animal at the different time points p.i. and expanded in culture. When

testing the presence of RSV within the lung-derived MSC cultures, viral RNA was detectable in

most cultures from the animals at 3 and 6 days p.i. and in none of the cultures isolated from

animals at 14 and 42 days p.i. In line with the higher viral loads in the BAL cellular fraction

compared to the lung tissue, we detected high levels of RSV RNA in all BAL-derived MSCs from

animals at 3 and 6 days p.i. and from 3 out of 7 animals isolated at 14 days p.i. RSV RNA levels

were undetectable in all cultures isolated from animals at 42 days p.i. (**Fig. 4D**). Interestingly, we

noticed giant multinucleated cells in cultures derived from infected animals which were never seen

for mock animal-derived cultures (**Fig. 4E**). Given that RSV spread in foci and infectious virus

was rarely detected in the supernatants of infected human and ovine LR-MSCs cultures, we

hypothesized that these phenotypically distinct cells were RSV-infected MSCs. This was

confirmed by confocal microscopy visualization (**Fig. 4F**) and by the infection of cultures from

human and ovine LR-MSCs with RSV-mCherry (**Fig. S7A, B**). Together, these results indicate

that the lung MSC compartment is a target for RSV infection *in vivo* during the early phase of

respiratory disease.

RSV infection leads to the expansion of the pulmonary MSC niche *in vivo*

To investigated the impact of virus-mediate lung injury on LR-MSCs *in vivo*, we analyzed the

mesenchymal compartment of RSV-infected newborn lambs during the acute, recovery, and

convalescence phases of RSV disease. As a mild to asymptomatic RSV disease control, adult

animals were infected for a period of 14 days (**Fig. 5A**). Contrary to RSV-infected neonates,

infection of adults did not lead to any notable clinical manifestation nor macroscopic lesions, while

rare foci of interstitial thickening with leukocyte infiltrates and mild alveolar type 2 hyperplasia

were visible histologically (**Fig. 5B**). A colony-forming unit-fibroblast (CFU-F) assay was applied

to lung-derived cells from infected and mock-infected animals. This assay is commonly used to

assess the proliferative activity of MSCs and their ability to form discrete fibroblast-like colonies

[37, 38]. The analysis revealed a significant effect of RSV infection on the proliferative properties

of LR-MSCs by increasing their activity already 3 days p.i. compared to mock control (**Fig. 5C**).

Quantitative analysis confirmed significantly increased CFU-F counts during the acute phase of

infection 3 and 6 days p.i. Interestingly, there was still a nonsignificant tendency of more CFU-F

counts during later phases of RSV disease 14 and 42 days p.i. compared to age-matched non-

infected animals (**Fig. 5D**). CFU-F counts were around 20 times lower for control adults (average

CFU-F count of 0.6) in comparison to control neonates (average CFU-F count of 14.2), indicating

an age-dependent effect on the steady-state proliferative properties of LR-MSCs. However, RSV

infection led to a significant increase of these colonies 14 days p.i. with an average count of 6.3

(average CFU-F count of 29.9 for infected neonates 14 days p.i.) (**Fig. 5E, F**). These results

provide evidence that RSV infection leads to a stimulation of the proliferative activity and the

expansion of the pulmonary MSC pool, particularly in neonates compared to older animals.

The transcriptional activity of LR-MSCs is related to the phases of RSV disease

To investigate how RSV infection impacts LR-MSCs at the transcriptional level *in vivo*, we applied

an experimental approach developed by Spadafora *et al.*, who showed that tracheal aspirate-

derived MSCs retain their transcriptional signature following a short expansion in culture [39]. We

undertook whole transcriptome analysis from expanded LR-MSCs isolated from infected

neonates during the acute, recovery and convalescent phases of RSV disease in comparison to

mock-infected neonates. To confirm identity of MSCs expanded in culture, we calculated the

transcripts per million (TPM) of markers used for their identification [24, 40]. LR-MSCs had high

transcriptional levels of ENG (CD105), NT5E (CD73), THY1 (CD90), ITGB1 (CD29), CD44 and

PDGFRA among others, and lacked transcripts of HLA-DR or HLA-DQ, PTPRC (CD45), CD34,

ITGAM (CD11b), or PECAM (CD31) confirming their MSC identity (**Fig. 6A**). Next, we compared

the transcriptome profiles of LR-MSCs during the acute phase of RSV disease (6 days p.i.) to

mock-infected animal-derived LR-MSCs and found 14 differentially expressed genes (DEGs) to

be significantly upregulated. The majority of them belong to the IFN pathway and are associated

with antiviral responses, such as RSAD2 (Viperin), OASL, ISG15, IFI44, and IFI44L and two pro-

apoptotic genes, namely TNFSF10/TRAIL and STC1 (**Fig. 6B**). These findings are in line with our

in vitro results derived from human LR-MSC and support the idea that LR-MSCs mount an

antiviral response against RSV infection *in vivo*. Remarkably, while there was no significant

difference in the recovery phase (14 days p.i.) compared to mock-infected control (**Fig. 6C**), there

were 43 DEGs differentially expressed in LR-MSCs isolated during the convalescence phase (42

days p.i.) (**Fig. 6D**). Several of these genes are associated with secretory pathway, including

MAGE2 (protein trafficking), TBC1D20 (autophagosome maturation), MAP7D3 (microtubule

assembly), and MARCHF9 (protein processing). In line with this, high transcriptional activity of

LR-MSCs during the convalescence phase is evidenced by the upregulation of various non-

coding RNAs and ribonuclease proteins involved in pre-RNA processing and regulation of

transcription and/or translation. Furthermore, genes linked with differentiation and developmental

processes, such as SOX4 NOC3L, and C2CD3 were differentially expressed during the

convalescence phase. Remarkably, many of the upregulated DEGs were related to endothelial

cell function and angiogenesis, such as TRPC4 or KDR which codes for the vascular endothelial

growth factor receptor 2 (VEGFR2), and ITGA9, the receptor of VCAM1. Finally, among the top

downregulated DEGs were two genes coding for matrix-metalloproteases (MMPs), MMP1 and

MMP3, which are involved in the remodeling of the extracellular matrix (ECM). The list of

significant DEGs and associated literature from infected *versus* noninfected animal-derived LR-

MSCs is provided in **Table S1.** To confirm the interpretation of our findings, we used a

computational method for pathway enrichment analysis of the transcriptional profiles of LR-MSCs

over RSV infection. Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) revealed that the transcriptional

signature of LR-MSCs isolated from RSV- and mock-infected animals is retained during the short

ex vivo culture phase and is following the different phases of respiratory disease. During the acute

phase of infection, the significant enriched hallmark gene sets were associated to IFN pathway,

inflammation, and stress response. Notably, the only enriched gene set downregulated in the

acute phase of RSV infection was Notch signaling, a central pathway regulating cell proliferation

and differentiation. During the recovery and the convalescence phases, shared gene sets

associated with cell cycle regulation, such as E2F and Myc pathway, were downregulated

compared to mock controls. Further, during the convalescence phase of RSV disease, five

additional hallmark gene sets were upregulated. More precisely, the transcriptional signature of

LR-MSCs isolated from infected animals long after viral clearance revealed processes such as

myogenesis, epithelial-mesenchymal transition (EMT), angiogenesis, p53 pathway, and TGF-β

signaling, suggesting that LR-MSCs are involved in tissue repair and regeneration following virus-

induced injury (**Fig. 6E**). To sum up, these results show that LR-MSCs, are activated during virus-

induced lung injury by an increase in their proliferative activity and by mounting dynamic

transcriptional profiles leading to an early antiviral and inflammatory response followed by

mechanisms associated with tissue remodeling, repair and regeneration (**Fig. 6F**).

DISCUSSION

This work was undertaken to explore the role of the pulmonary MSC compartment during acute

respiratory virus infection and its contribution to lung repair. Our investigations herein reveal upon

infection, LR-MSCs mount an antiviral response and release a variety of immunomodulatory

mediators, which may have a biological impact on the pulmonary microenvironment. Furthermore,

we show that RSV-mediated lung injury activates and stimulates the expansion of LR-MSCs

which mount a dynamic transcriptional program related to mechanisms of repair and

regeneration.

Contrary to the well-described replication of RSV in AECs, the primary cellular target of RSV

infection [21-23], our data indicates a distinct life cycle in LR-MSCs with viral spread via cell-to-

cell contact. Such mechanism may improve virus dissemination and promote immune evasion

[41]. In a humanized mouse model, pulmonary mesenchymal cells were shown to be susceptible

to different viruses such as Middle East respiratory syndrome coronavirus, Zika virus, and

cytomegalovirus [42]. In addition, they were recently proposed as an immune-privileged niche for

M. tuberculosis persistence [43]. Since LR-MSCs are described to localize perivascular and in

close proximity to the respiratory and alveolar epitheliums, this makes them a potential

nonepithelial target for virus infection. Here, we show accessibility of LR-MSCs possibly through

physical disruption of the alveolar epithelium. Indeed, already 3 days p.i., we observed evidence

of lung injury associated with alveolar infection and concomitant LR-MSCs targeting by the virus.

RSV infections can lead to a number of extrapulmonary manifestations [44]. Assuming the

presence of MSCs in most tissues, it is conceivable that in some predisposed subjects, RSV may

target other MSC niches throughout the body. In line with this, bone marrow and umbilical cord

vein MSCs were shown to be susceptible to RSV infection *in vitro* [45, 46].

During the acute phase of RSV disease, we observed RSV-positive multinucleated LR-MSCs in

the BAL-expanded cultures, indicative of a cytopathic effect on these cells. Thereby, the

concomitant expansion of the pulmonary MSC compartment is potentially indicative of a

replenishment of the lost fraction of LR-MSCs following RSV infection. Furthermore, we show that

RSV infection is signaled by LR-MSCs through the induction of antiviral and pro-inflammatory

mediators, both associated with RSV disease severity [47-49]. In addition, RSV infection of LR-

MSCs lead to a type I and III IFN release and subsequent ISGs induction, shifting LR-MSCs

towards an antiviral state. This is in line with the pro-inflammatory and antiviral transcriptional

signatures found in LR-MSCs, isolated form infected animals during the acute phase of RSV

disease. In mice, it has been shown that IFN signaling of the lung stromal compartment was

protective against influenza virus by reducing viral replication [50]. Massive lung infiltration of

immune cells following cytokine release, termed "cytokine storm", is characteristic of severe

respiratory virus infections including RSV [51]. Among the most abundant chemokines in infants

suffering from RSV bronchiolitis are CXCL10/IP-10, CXCL8/IL-8, CCL2/MCP-1 and CCL3/MIP-

1α. Similarly, in our setting, RSV infection of LR-MSCs led to a massive release of chemokines

with the potential to attract neutrophils, eosinophils, monocytes, and lymphocytes, such as

CXCL8/IL-8, CCL5/RANTES, CCL2/MCP-1, and CXCL10/IP-10, respectively. In RSV disease, it

is believed that the cellular sources of the pulmonary chemokine responses are epithelial and

inflammatory immune cells; our data suggests that LR-MSCs might provide an additional source

[52].

Besides the vast chemokine production, RSV infection of LR-MSCs led as well to the release of

a number of other mediators and growth factors. Interestingly, the secretory profile of RSV-

infected LR-MSCs was very distinct to the one described for RSV infected BM-MSCs, supporting

tissue specificity of MSC populations [45, 53, 54]. Notably, VEGF, a key mediator of angiogenesis,

is released by pediatric LR-MSCs at increased levels after RSV infection. Also, the transcriptional

profiles of LR-MSCs isolated during the convalescence phase of RSV disease were related to

endothelial biology and pathway analysis revealed pro-angiogenic enriched gene sets. In line with

this, using an adult rat model, VEGF signaling disruption was shown to cause an enlargement of

the air spaces and an alteration of the alveolar structure, suggesting that VEGF has a crucial role

during normal adult alveolarization [55]. Considering the perivascular location of MSCs in tissues,

our data indicate that LR-MSCs may modulate endothelial cells activity during virus-induced lung

injury.

TGF-β is a central regulator of the respiratory system and controls epithelial and mesenchymal

cell fate through several mechanisms such as promotion of EMT, myofibroblast differentiation,

and stimulation of ECM production and remodeling [56]. Our transcriptional data from LR-MSCs

isolated from infected animals during the convalescence phase of RSV disease, revealed that

these cells might play a role in these mechanisms. Indeed, compared to noninfected control-

derived LR-MSCs, their transcriptome profiles are linked with TGF-β signaling and EMT. The

latter is linked with the acquisition of more proliferative stem-like states providing an additional

link between activation of EMT and wound healing [57]. In line with this, the p53 pathway

activation further supports the maintenance of MSC stemness for subsequent repair processes

[58]. Transcriptome analysis of LR-MSCs isolated long after virus clearance, positively associated with myogenesis. Myofibroblasts, an activated type of mesenchymal cells and an important source of ECM, participates in tissue repair but their persistence after wound healing is linked to fibrotic disorders [59]. Thus, failure of these mechanisms may potentially increase the risk of developing fibrotic abnormalities following respiratory virus infections. Comorbidities such as recurrent wheezing and asthma are happening years after RSV infection has resolved. To date, it remains unclear if pulmonary mesenchymal cells deficiency in lung repair and regeneration are linked with such disorders [60, 61].

Due to their immunomodulatory properties, MSCs are applied in cell-based therapies with promising outcomes for the treatment of pulmonary morbidities such as idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis (IPF), acute-respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS) and severe influenza infections [14, 62-65]. Furthermore, the current coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic is leading to a strong interest in MSCs as a treatment option for severe COVID-19 cases. As a consequence, an increasing number of clinical investigations of such MSC-based therapy approaches are under evaluation [66-69]. Safety concerns regarding susceptibility of MSCs towards different viruses, as well as potential viral reactivation events have been raised [70]. On one hand, our data indicate eventual safety concerns due to the targeting of LR-MSCs during the acute phase of virus infection. On the other hand, we provide evidence that LR-MSC seem to have a beneficial effect after virus clearance, supporting the use of MSC-based therapies to treat virus-induced lung injury.

The ovine lung is a classical model of the human respiratory tract due to similarities in size, structure, development and immune system [71]. However, some limitations should be mentioned. First, we observed a high animal-to-animal variability in most endpoints measured, probably due to the outbred nature of the animals. While this might look like a limitation, we believe it reflects best the situation in humans compared to inbred models. Secondly, we used the isolated LR-MSCs as a single population but previous single-cell transcriptomic studies demonstrated that MSC, are a rather heterogeneous population composed of distinct MSC subsets [8, 9, 72]. Third, due to the lung size, we analyzed three pooled specimens, representative of each lung region.

This might explain why we didn't detect RSV-positive cells for some animals for whom productive

infection was demonstrated by the assessment of the viral loads.

In summary, our data demonstrate the involvement of pulmonary MSCs during respiratory virus

infection. While being a target for RSV, these cells can respond to infection by switching to an

antiviral state and by a profound remodeling of their immune phenotype. Furthermore, LR-MSCs

show hallmarks of tissue repair and regeneration processes after viral clearance. Our findings

identify a function of LR-MSCs in a highly prevalent clinical situation and constitute a basis for

further exploration of the pulmonary mesenchymal compartment during respiratory viral

infections.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Virus propagation and titration

Human RSV-A2 strain was derived from ATCC (VR-1540, GenBank accession number

KT992094.1). The recombinant RSV-mCherry is described elsewhere [73] and the RSV-GFP

construct was generated by Mark Peeples (Nationwide Children's Hospital Columbus, USA) [74]

and kindly provided by Dominique Garcin (University of Geneva, Switzerland). The clinical RSV

isolate, RSV-ON1-H1, was collected from a child below the age of five years with confirmed RSV

infection, hospitalized at Hannover Medical School, Germany. The virus was isolated from

nasopharyngeal aspirates and was passaged up to five times in HEp-2 cells (ATCC, CCL-23).

The caregivers gave informed consent for the donation of nasopharyngeal aspirates, and all steps

were conducted in compliance with good clinical and ethical practice and approved by the local

ethical committee at Hannover Medical School, Germany (permission number 63090/2012) [75].

All RSV strains were propagated on HEp-2 cells, cultivated in DMEM (Gibco) supplemented with

10% fetal bovine serum (FBS, Gibco). Briefly, HEp-2 cells were infected at a MOI of 0.02 PFU/cell

for 2 hours before the addition of DMEM supplemented with 5% FBS. The cell-associated virus

was harvested by scraping the cell monolayer when 60% of cytopathic effect was observed. The

virus was released from the cells by one freeze-thaw cycle followed by centrifugation to get rid of

cell debris. Virus stocks were stored in aliquots containing 10% sucrose (Sigma) at -150°C. To

prepare a mock control the same procedure was applied without adding virus. A similar approach

was applied to assess the intracellular RSV titers from infected LR-MSCs. For virus titration, serial

dilutions of supernatants were added to HEp-2 cells and incubated for 48-96 h at 37°C, 5 % CO_2.

Next, the cells were washed with PBS, fixed with methanol supplemented with 2% H_2O_2 and

incubated with a biotinylated anti-RSV antibody (Bio-Rad) in PBS containing 1% bovine serum

albumin (BSA, Sigma) for 1 h, followed by 30 min incubation with ExtrAvidin Peroxidase (Sigma)

and staining with 3,3′-diaminobenzidine substrate (Sigma). Virus titers were expressed as

PFU/ml.

Primary cells

Primary pediatric MSCs were obtained as described previously [32, 72]. Briefly, healthy lung

tissue was obtained from pediatric patients undergoing elective surgery for congenital pulmonary

airway malformation and other various airway abnormalities at the Children's University Hospital

of Zurich (n=9, age range: 5 days to 181 months, (**Table S2**)). Written informed consent was

obtained for all the patients and/or parent/guardian and the study protocol was approved by the

local Ethics Commission of the Canton of Bern (KEK-BE:042/2015). Minced tissue was further

disaggregated enzymatically using a solution containing collagenase I and II (Worthington

Biochemicals) at a concentration of 0.1 and 0.25%, respectively. Further, digestion buffer was

supplemented with 0.2 mg/ml deoxyribonuclease I (Biochemicals) to the digestion buffer to

prevent cell clumps and improve cell recovery. To isolate MSCs, a FCM assay was applied using

a panel of fluorescently-conjugated human monoclonal antibodies: CD45, CD14, CD31, and

EpCAM for negative and CD73 and CD90 for positive selection. FACS-sorted MSCs were

expanded in tissue culture flasks pre-coated with 0.2% gelatin solution (Sigma) and in chemically

defined growth medium consisting of α-MEM with ribonucleosides (Sigma) supplemented with

1% FBS, GlutaMAX (Invitrogen), 10 ng/ml of recombinant human fibroblast growth factor 2 (FGF2,

Life Technologies), 20 ng/ml of recombinant human epidermal growth factor (EGF, Life

Technologies), human insulin (Sigma), 10'000 units/ml of penicillin and 10'000 µg/ml streptomycin

(Sigma). Cells were maintained in a humidified atmosphere at 37°C, 5% CO_2 until confluence was

reached. The medium was aspirated carefully and replaced with fresh medium six days after

plating and after that point performed twice a week. Cells were used prior to passage 5 in all

experiments. WD-AECs isolated from independent healthy donors (MucilAir™, Epithelix Sàrl,

Geneva, Switzerland) were used for RSV infection. The cultures were maintained on 24-well

transwell inserts (Corning) at the air-liquid interface (ALI) in MucilAir™ culture medium (Epithelix

Sàrl, Geneva, Switzerland) in a humidified incubator at 37° C, 5% CO_2. Every 3 days culture

medium was changed. The apical surface was rinsed with Hank's balanced salt solution (HBSS,

ThermoFisher) once a week and prior to infection, to washout the mucus.

Precision-cut lung slices

Isolated ovine lungs were infused with 1.5% low-melting point agarose (Promega) in DMEM and

subsequently put into cold PBS in order to allow the agarose to solidify. Next, the perfused lung

tissue was cut into pieces of 0.1-1 cm^3 and embedded in 4% low-melting point agarose. An

automated vibrating microtome (VT1200S, Leica Biosystems) was used at a speed of 0.1 mm/sec

and an amplitude of 2.5-2.8 to generate PCLS with a thickness of 200 µm. Uniformly sized slices

were punched at a diameter of 8.5 mm. The PCLS were maintained in DMEM, supplemented with

1% FBS, 10'000 units/ml of penicillin and 10'000 µg/ml streptomycin, and Amphotericin B (all from

ThermoFisher) in a humidified atmosphere at 37°C, 5% CO_2. The culture medium was changed

every 24 h and the PCLS cultures were infected 2-3 days following preparation.

RSV infection

To perform infection of primary pediatric LR-MSCs and AECs with RSV-A2, RSV-mCherry, or

RSV-ON1-H1, 10^5 cells per well of a 12 well plate were seeded 24 h prior to infection and/or

stimulation. Cells were infected at selected MOIs of RSV or mock-control in FBS-free medium for

1 h at 37°C and 5% CO_2. Subsequently, cells were washed three times with 1X PBS and then

incubated in growth medium. Ten µg/ml of poly(I:C) (Sigma) was applied in growth medium and

incubated alike until harvesting. At selected time points, supernatants and cells were harvested

and stored appropriately for further analysis. For infection of WD-AECs, virus preparations were

diluted in medium and virus dilutions were applied apically to the tissue, assuming an average of

500,000 cells per insert. As a mock control, the culture supernatant of mock-infected HEp-2 cells

was used. Virus particles were allowed to adsorb for 3 h at 37°C and 5% CO_2 before the inoculum

was removed and each insert was carefully washed three times with pre-warmed HBSS and

placed on a new well containing fresh MucilAir™ culture medium. For stimulation of the WD-AEC

inserts, 10 µg/ml poly(I:C) were applied to the basolateral chamber containing the culture medium.

For examination of infectious viral particle release 2, 24, 48, 72, and 144 hours p.i., 250 µl HBSS

was added to the apical surface and incubated for 20 min at 37°C, harvested, and stored at −70°C

until further analysis. Basolateral media was collected and similarly stored, and replaced with

fresh media in the basolateral chamber of the inserts. For the infection of ovine PCLS, $5x10^5$ PFU

of RSV-GFP per PCLS were applied in growth medium, supplemented with 0.1% FBS and

incubated for 24 h at 37°C and 5% CO_2. Subsequently, the infection medium was changed to

growth medium and media was changed every 24 h.

RNA isolation and quantitative PCR

Total RNA of primary pediatric LR-MSCs, human AECs, and ovine lung- and BAL-derived cultured

MSCs was extracted using the Nucleospin RNA Plus Kit (Macherey-Nagel) according to the

manufacturer's protocol. For the isolation of the total RNA from the supernatants of infected LR-

MSCs, we used the QIAamp Viral RNA kit following manufactures recommendations (Qiagen).

For reverse transcription and synthesis of complementary DNA the Omniscript RT Kit (Qiagen)

using random hexamers (Invitrogen) was applied. Quantitative PCR was performed with target-

specific primers using the TaqMan Gene Expression Assay (Applied Biosystems) or the Fast

SYBR Green Assay (ThermoFisher) on an ABI Fast 7500 Sequence Detection System (Applied

Biosystems). For lung tissue and the BAL cellular fraction quantification was performed using

AgPath-ID™ One-Step RT-PCR Reagents (ThermoFisher), according to the manufacturer's

instructions. The data were analyzed using the SDS software (Applied Biosystems). Relative

expression was calculated with the ΔΔCT method [76]. The expression levels of the genes of

interest, were normalized to the housekeeping 18S rRNA. For the analysis of viral loads, RNA

copy numbers were interpolated from a standard curve generated with the serial dilution of a

plasmid containing the cDNA of the RSV L gene or the housekeeping 18S rRNA. The sequence

of all the primers and probes is summarized in **Table S3**.

Flow cytometry

FCM assays using different multicolor staining protocols were applied for the analysis of co-

stimulatory molecule expression and RSV infection of primary pediatric LR-MSCs, for the

identification and analysis of RSV infection of different cell types (AECs and LR-MSCs) in lung

cell suspensions derived from lambs, the assessment of apoptosis in the lung and the alveolar

space of infected and mock-infected animals. Further, a combination staining was applied to

evaluate the phenotype of cultured LR-MSCs. The detailed list of reagents used is summarized

in **Table S4**. FCM acquisitions were performed using a BD FACS Canto II (BD Bioscience) using

the DIVA software and were further analysed with the FlowJo software version 10.6.0 (BD). Dead

cells were excluded by electronic gating in forward/side scatter plots, followed by exclusion of

doublets as well as LIVE/DEAD® Fixable Dead Cell Staining (Invitrogen). Permeabilization and

fixation were undertaken according to the manufacturer's protocol (BD and Invitrogen).

Trans-differentiation assay

For differentiation, pediatric LR-MSCs (passage 5) and ovine LR-MSCs (passage 3) were plated

in a 24-well plate in regular culture medium and placed in a humidified atmosphere at 37°C with

5% CO_2. After 48 hours, cells were washed with PBS and complete differentiation media of the

different StemPro Differentiation Kits (Thermofisher) was added. For adipogenic induction cells

were plated at 10^4 cells/cm^2, for chondrogenic induction cells were plated at 2.7×10^4 cells/cm^2,

and to induce osteogenic differentiation, cells were plated at 5×10^3 cells/cm^2. Medium was

changed twice a week and after 15-21 days, cells were fixed with 4% PFA (Sigma). Adipocytes

were stained with Oil Red O (Sigma) to detect the formation of lipid droplets and counterstained

with hematoxylin (Carl Roth). Chondrocytes were stained with Alcian Blue (Sigma) to visualize

glycosaminoglycan synthesis and Alizarin Red S staining (Sigma) was used to detect Ca^{2+}

deposits in osteocytes.

Microscopy analysis

Ovine BAL-derived MSCs and culture expanded pediatric LR-MSCs were cultured on a Nunc™

Lab-Tek™ II Chamber Slide™ System with 50'000 cells per chamber (ThermoFisher). Next, the

cells were washed with cold PBS with Ca^{2+} and incubated with Wheat Germ Agglutinin (WGA)-

AF633 (Molecular Probes) for 10 min at 4°C. Then, cells were fixed with 4% PFA for 10 min at

room temperature. Next, the cells were washed with 0.3% saponin (Sigma) and stained with RSV-

fusion protein antibody (Millipore) for 20 min at 4°C. Then, 20 min incubation at 4°C with anti-

mouse IgG2a-AF546 or -AF488 (both ThermoFisher) was applied. Finally, DAPI (Sigma) was

added for 5 min at 37°C and cells were washed three times with cold PBS with Ca^{2+} before

mounting with MOWIOL® 4-88 Reagent (Sigma-Aldrich). The detailed list of antibodies used is

summarized in **Table S4**. Confocal microscopy analysis was performed with a Nikon Eclipse Ti

microscope (Nikon). All images were acquired using a 63X oil-immersion or a 40X objective. The

images were analyzed with IMARIS 7.7 software (Bitplane) with threshold subtraction and gamma

correction. To monitor the spread of RSV-mCherry infection in WD-AEC in comparison to MSC

cultures, a Nikon BioStation CT was used (Nikon). The cultures were followed over a period of 2

days with a 10X objective and images were acquired in an automated sequence every 4 to 8

hours following infection. Reporter expression of RSV-mCherry-infected pediatric LR-MSCs,

ovine LR-MSCs, and RSV-GFP-infected ovine PCLS was assessed using an Evos FL Auto 2 cell

imaging system (ThermoFisher) or a Leica TCS-SL, respectively. The micrographs from the trans-

differentiation assays were captured using an inverted microscope ECLIPSE TS100 with a Nikon

DS-Fi3 camera using a DS-L4 application v.1.5.03 (all form Nikon).

Immunoassays

When performing cytokine quantification, the supernatants and the basolateral medium from

RSV-A2 and RSV-ON1-H1 infections as well as of poly(I:C)-stimulated and unstimulated, and

mock-infected pediatric LR-MSCs and WD-AECs, respectively, were harvested after 24 and 72 h

of culture at 37°C with 5% CO_2. Human IFN-β, IFN-λ1/3 concentrations were determined using

commercial enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) kits (R&D Systems) following the

manufacturer's protocol. For the multiplex assay, the Pro™ Human Cytokine 27-plex Assay (Bio-

Rad) was used according to the manufacturer's protocol and read on a Bio-Plex 3D suspension

array system including a Bio-Plex Manager software v 6.0 (Bio-Rad).

Animals

The experiments with lambs were performed in compliance with the Swiss animal protection law

(TSchV SR 455.1; TVV SR 455.163). They were reviewed by the cantonal committee on animal

experiments of the canton of Bern, Switzerland and approved by the cantonal veterinary authority

with the license number BE125/17 (Amt für Landwirtschaft und Natur LANAT, Veterinärdienst

VeD, Bern, Switzerland). Newborn lambs, males and females were allocated randomly to different

groups (see below). Before and during the experiment, they were kept with their ewes. In order

to prevent secondary bacterial infections, the lambs received a prophylactic long-acting antibiotic

treatment by intramuscular injection of an oxytetracycline hydrochloride preparation (Cyclosol LA,

20 mg/kg) starting at 18 to 24 h before RSV infection. The treatment was repeated 2 times with 4

days interval. The trans-tracheal RSV inoculation was performed under sedation and analgesia

by intramuscular injection of a mixture of midazolam (Dormicum) 0.2 mg/kg and butorphanol

(Morphasol) 0.2 mg/kg. The trachea was punctured between the tracheal rings with a 0.9 x 40

mm needle (20G) and a volume of 2 ml of virus (10^8 PFU) or PBS (mock-infected controls) were

injected. Body temperature, body weight and clinical status (respiratory and heart rates) were

assessed daily by a veterinarian, whenever possible by the same person to ensure unbiased

clinical assessment. At defined time points, namely at 3, 6, 14, and 42 days p.i., the lambs were

euthanized and examined for gross- and histopathology. The lung was processed for *post-*

mortem bronchoalveolar lavage.

Histopathological evaluation of lung tissue

Lung specimens were fixed in 4% buffered formalin for 48 h, embedded in paraffin and routinely

processed for histology. Histological sections of 3 μm were stained with hematoxylin and eosin

coloration and observed by light microscopy. For immunohistochemistry, deparaffinization of the

sections was done with xylol for 5 minutes followed by rehydration in descending concentrations

of ethanol (100, 95, 80, and 75%). H_2O_2 (3.25% in methanol, 10 min at room temperature)

inhibited endogenous peroxidase activity. Then, the slides were incubated in boiling citrate buffer

(pH 6.0) for 10 min for antigen retrieval. 1% BSA (10 min) was used for blocking of nonspecific

antibody binding, followed by an overnight incubation at 4°C with the primary antibody targeting

RSV (ThermoFisher). For secondary antibody incubation and signal detection LSAB and AEC

Kits (DakoCytomation) were used following the manufacturers protocol. Counterstaining was

done with Ehrlich hematoxylin and cover slips were mounted using Aquatex (Merck) [77].

Processing of lung tissue and bronchoalveolar lavage

One specimen per lung region (cranial, middle, and caudal) were pooled and dissociation was

done using a collagenase I and II and a DNase I enzyme mix (all from BioConcept) and the

gentleMACS Octo Dissociator (Miltenyi Biotec). Following this mechanical and enzymatical

dissociation, the samples were applied to a sieve, to remove any remaining particulate matter.

The cell suspensions were passed through cell strainers (100 and 70 μm pore-size, Falcon) and

centrifuged at 350g for 10 min at 4°C to obtain single-cell suspensions. For the isolation of cells

from BALs, the lungs were isolated with the trachea, which was clamped before cutting, to prevent

blood from entering the lungs. Then, a PBS-containing antibiotic solution with 100 units/ml of

penicillin and 100 μg/ml streptomycin (both Sigma), and 2.5 μg/ml Amphotericin B was poured

into the lungs through a sterile funnel (200-500 ml). The cell suspensions were then passed

through cell strainers (100 and 70 μm pore-size, Falcon) and centrifuged at 350g for 10 min at

4°C to obtain single cell suspensions. If needed, red blood cells were lysed by resuspending the

pellet with 2 ml of H_2O and washed immediately in cold PBS before centrifugation at 350g for 10

min at 4°C. Cells were then processed for FCM analysis, CFU-F assay or expanded in culture to

obtain lung-derived MSCs. To isolate and expand MSCs in culture, lung cell suspensions were

seeded at a density of 3.5×10^4 cells per cm^2 in tissue culture flasks as described previously [3].

Cells were maintained in α-MEM (Thermofisher) supplemented with 10% FBS (ThermoFisher),

an antibiotic solution containing 100 units/ml of penicillin and 100 µg/ml streptomycin, and 2.5

µg/ml Amphotericin B. After one to two days, the medium was changed and cells were maintained

at 37°C with 5% CO_2 until reaching ~80% of confluence. Regular media changes were performed

twice a week.

Colony-forming unit-fibroblast assay

623   Lung single-cell suspensions were seeded at a density of 3.5×10^4 cells per cm^2 in a six-well plate

624   as described previously [3]. Cells were fixed after 7-14 days with ice-cold methanol for 20 min

625   and then washed with PBS. The cells were stained with Giemsa stain for 6 min, rinsed with H_2O,

626   and air-dried. Images were captured using an ImmunoSpot analyzer (CTL). Two experienced

627   investigators performed the CFU-F counts independently.

RNA isolation and mRNA sequencing and data analysis

For mRNA sequencing, total RNA was extracted from ovine LR-MSCs using TRIzol reagent

(ThermoFisher) in combination with the Nucleospin RNA Kit (Machery-Nagel) as previously

described [78]. In short, cells were lysed with 1 ml of TRIzol reagent and kept at -70°C until further

processing. After thawing, 0.2 ml chloroform was added to the TRIzol lysate and the samples

were mixed vigorously and incubated for 2-3 min at room temperature. The extractions were then

centrifuged at 12'000g for 15 min at 4°C. The aqueous phase was collected and mixed with 500

µl 75% ethanol and the RNA precipitated for 10 min at room temperature. The RNA precipitate

was further purified with the Nucleospin RNA kit according to the manufacturer's instructions. The

quantity and quality of the extracted RNA was assessed using a ThermoFisher Scientific Qubit 4.0

fluorometer with the Qubit RNA BR Assay Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and an Advanced Analytical

Fragment Analyzer System using a Fragment Analyzer RNA Kit (Agilent), respectively. Thereafter, cDNA

libraries were generated using an illumina TruSeq Stranded mRNA Library Prep (illumina) in combination

with IDT for Illumina – TruSeq RNA UD Indexes (Illumina). The illumina protocol was followed using the

recommended input and quality of total RNA. The quantity and quality of the generated NGS libraries were evaluated using a Thermo Fisher Scientific Qubit 4.0 fluorometer with the Qubit dsDNA HS Assay Kit (ThermoFisher) and an Advanced Analytical Fragment Analyzer System using a Fragment Analyzer NGS Fragment Kit (Agilent), respectively. The library pool was paired end sequenced using a NovaSeq 6000 SP Reagent Kit v1.0, 100 cycles (illumina) on an Illumina NovaSeq 6000 instrument. The quality of the sequencing runs was assessed using illumina Sequencing Analysis Viewer (illumina version 2.4.7) and all base call files were demultiplexed and converted into FASTQ files using illumina bcl2fastq conversion software v2.20. The average number of reads per library was 33.5 million. The RNA quality-control assessments, generation of libraries and sequencing runs were performed at the Next Generation Sequencing Platform, University of Bern, Switzerland. Analysis of the RNA-seq data was performed at the Interfaculty Bioinformatics Unit at the University of Bern, Switzerland. RNAseq data quality was assessed using fastqc v. 0.11.5 and RSeQC v. 2.6.4 [79]. The reads were mapped to the *Ovis aries* reference genome (Oar_v3.1) with Hisat2 v.2.1.0 [80]. To count the number of reads overlapping with each gene, as specified in the Ensembl annotation FeatureCounts from Subread v.1.5.3 [81] was used. The Bioconductor package DESeq2 [82] was applied to test for differential gene expression between the experimental groups. To evaluate gene expression levels of MSC markers we applied the TPM normalization method [83]. The molecular signatures database (MSigDB) with the Hallmark gene sets was used for gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) [84]. Analysis was done using R v.3.4.4 (2018-03-15).

Statistical analysis

The Prism 8 software (GraphPad) was used for statistical analysis. To determine differences between two groups, non-parametric paired Wilcoxon test or Mann–Whitney U-test were used. For multiple comparisons one-way ANOVA with Tukey post-hoc test or Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn's correction were used. A $p < 0.05$ was considered statistically significant.

NOTES

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Competing interest

All the authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Data availability statement

The data generated and analyzed during the current study are available from the corresponding

author on reasonable request.

Author's contributions

Conception and design: MPA, MB. Collection of pediatric samples: UM, TMM, RAS, SRRH.

Acquisition of data: MB, BZ, TD, KM, NR, BIOE, QH, AS, SRRH. Contribution to reagents: MARW,

JFE. Analysis and interpretation: MPA, MB, KM, HP, GTB. Drafting the manuscript: MB, MPA.

Final approval of the manuscript: all authors.

SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Figure S1. Infection of LR-MSCs with RSV at a MOI of 1 PFU/cell

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failure, and Regenero, a consortium for Chilean regenerative medicine (public and private funding), for skin ulcer and Lupus. Conflict of interest: F.F. Cruz has nothing to disclose. Conflict of interest: F.E. Figueroa has a patent WO/2019/051623 pending and is a board member of Cells for Cells, as the director of the programme of translational cell therapy at Universidad de los Andes, the academic institution that originated the Consorcio Corfo Regenero and the Cells for Cells biotechnological spin-off. Conflict of interest: P.R.M. Rocco has nothing to disclose. Conflict of interest: D.J. Weiss reports grants from NIH, Cystic Fibrosis Foundation and US Department of Defense, outside the submitted work.

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FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1: **LR-MSCs are highly permissive to RSV infection**

(A) Representative histograms showing expression of the surface markers CD73, CD90, CD105 on pediatric LR-MSCs. (B) Representative phase-contrast (PC) micrograph showing morphology in culture and demonstrates plastic adherence. Representative images of Toluidine blue, Alizarin Red S, and Oil Red O stainings after chondrogenic (C), osteogenic (O), and adipogenic (A) differentiation, respectively. Magnification 40X (PC, O) and 200X (C, A). (C) mRNA expression levels of RSV receptors relative to 10^6 18S. A Mann-Whitney U test was applied to compare the two cell types (AECs *versus* LR-MSCs). Boxplots indicate the median value (centerline) and interquartile ranges (box edges), with whiskers extending to the lowest and the highest values. Each symbol represents an individual donor (n=5). *p<0.05, **p<0.01. (D) Intracellular viral loads in AECs and LR-MSCs over time following infection with RSV-A2 at a MOI of 1 PFU/cell expressed as RSV copies per 10^{12} 18S copies. Each symbol represents an individual donor (n=5). (E) RSV F-protein positive LR-MSCs assessed by FCM and plotted over time. LR-MSCs were infected with 0.1 PFU/cell with RSV-A2 (n=3) or a clinical isolate RSV-ON1-H1 (n=4-6). Each symbol represents an individual donor. (F) Representative live-cell imaging of WD-AECs and LR-MSCs infected with 0.1-0.5 PFU/cell with RSV-mCherry and followed over time. The micrographs were taken at 16, 32, and 48 h p.i. in the same area of the cellular layer. (G) Representative confocal microscopy evaluation of LR-MSCs noninfected (mock) or infected with RSV-A2 at 1 PFU/cell 24 to 72 hours p.i. RSV, green; DAPI, dark blue; WGA, white. Scale bar, 20 μm. (H) Supernatants of infected LR-MSCs or apical washes of infected WD-AEC cultures were analyzed by a PFU assay. Cells were infected with RSV-ON1-H1 at a MOI of 0.1 PFU/cell. A Mann-Whitney U test was applied to compare the two cell types (WD-AECs, n=3 *versus* LR-MSCs, n=5-6). Each symbol represents an individual donor. *p<0.05, **p<0.01. (I) Intracellular infectious RSV titers in LR-MSCs infected with RSV-A2 or RSV-ON1-H1 at 0.1 PFU/cell. Each symbol represents an individual donor (n=3) (J). Extracellular RSV RNA load over time in supernatants of infected LR-MSCs or apical washes of infected WD-AEC cultures. Cells were infected with RSV-ON1-H1 at a

1068   MOI of 0.1 PFU/cell. A Mann-Whitney U test was applied to compare the two cell types (WD-

1069   AECs, n=3 *versus* LR-MSCs, n=4-6). Each symbol represents an individual donor. *p<0.05.

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Figure 2: RSV infection is altering the immune properties of LR-MSCs

(A, B) mRNA levels of selected ISGs (A) and IFNs (B) in LR-MSCs treated with mock control,

poly(I:C) 10 µg/ml, RSV-A2, or RSV-ON1-H1 for 24 h at 1 PFU/cell. Boxplots indicate the median

value (centerline) and interquartile ranges (box edges), with whiskers extending to the lowest and

the highest values. Each symbol represents an individual donor (mock, n=6; poly(I:C), n=5; RSV-

A2, n=4; RSV-ON1-H1, n=6). The data were compared with the Kruskal–Wallis test followed by

Dunn's post hoc test. *p<0.05, **p<0.01. (C, D) IFN-β (C) and IFN-λ1/3 (D) protein levels in

supernatants of LR-MSCs treated with mock control, poly(I:C) 10 µg/ml, RSV-A2, or RSV-ON1-

H1 for 24 h and 72 h at 1 PFU/cell. Boxplots indicate median value (centerline) and interquartile

ranges (box edges), with whiskers extending to the lowest and the highest values. Each symbol

represents an individual donor (mock, n=6; poly(I:C), n=5; RSV-A2, n=4; RSV-ON1-H1, n=6). A

Kruskal–Wallis test followed by a Dunn's post hoc test was applied to compare the different

groups. *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001. The detection limits of the assays are indicated with the

dotted line at 7.7 pg/mL and 79.8 pg/mL for IFN-β and IFN-λ1/3, respectively. (E, F) Multiplex

assay of supernatants of LR-MSCs (E) or basolateral medium of WD-AECs (F), 24 and 72h after

treatment with mock control, 10 µg/ml poly(I:C), RSV-A2, or RSV-ON1-H1 for 24h and 72h at 1

PFU/cell. The concentration ranges of the different cytokines are indicated (lower detection limit-

highest concentration measured). An asterisk is present when the concentration of the sample

was higher than the upper range of the assay. Each column represents a different donor (mock,

n=6; poly(I:C), n=5; RSV-A2, n=4; RSV-ON1-H1, n=6). (donors a-c for WD-AECs and d-i for LR-

MSCs). (G) Overview of the impact of RSV infection of LR-MSCs activity. RSV-mediated

activation of LR-MSCs, characterized by an antiviral and pro-inflammatory phenotype combined

with cytokines promoting T helper cell (Th) polarization.

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Figure 3: **RSV infection is causing lung injury in lamb**

(A) Newborn animals were trans-tracheal inoculated with 10^8 PFU per animal of the human strain

RSV-A2 or PBS (mock). Animals were euthanized 3, 6, 14, and 42 days p.i. and lung and BAL

tissues were harvested for histopathological evaluation, qPCR, and FCM analysis (B)

Representative H&E stained histopathological sections of the lung tissue from noninfected (mock)

and RSV-infected lambs at 3, 6, 14, and 42 days p.i. Scale bar, 200 µm. (C) Histological lung

sections from animals 6 days p.i. stained for RSV (red) and counterstained with haematoxylin

(blue). From left to right panels, scale bars 50 µm, 100 µm and 20 µm, respectively. (D) Viral load

in lungs and the cellular fraction of the BAL of infected lambs measured 3, 6, 14, and 42 days p.i.

Comparison of viral loads between BAL and lung tissues was done with a one-way ANOVA and

the Tukey post-hoc test. Each symbol represents an individual animal (n=6 per timepoint).

*p<0.05. (E, F) Frequency of cleaved caspase 3 (CASP3)-positive cells in the lung (E) and BAL

(F) of infected animals 3 to 42 days p.i. Boxplots indicate the median value (centerline) and

interquartile ranges (box edges), with whiskers extending to the lowest and the highest values.

Each symbol represents an individual animal (mock, n=3 and RSV, n=6). Multiple comparison

was done with a one-way ANOVA and the Tukey post-hoc test. *p<0.05. (G) Total BAL cell counts

in mock and RSV-infected animals 3, 6, and 14 days p.i. pooled. Boxplots indicate the median

value (centerline) and interquartile ranges (box edges), with whiskers extending to the lowest and

the highest values. Each symbol represents an individual animal (n=9, mock and n=18, RSV). A

Mann-Whitney U test was applied to compare the two groups. **p<0.01.

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Figure 4: **LR-MSCs are a target for RSV infection *in vivo***

(A) FCM gating strategy to identify RSV-infected epithelial cells (CD31⁻CD45⁻panCTK⁺) (panCTK,

pan-cytokeratin) and LR-MSCs (CD31⁻CD45⁻panCTK⁻CD29⁺CD44⁺). (G1, gate 1) (B) Percentage

of animals with RSV-positive epithelial and LR-MSCs 3 to 42 days p.i. The fractions indicate the

number of infected animals where infection was detected by FCM compared to the total number

of animals. (C) Correlation of RSV-positive LR-MSCs and RSV-positive epithelial cells at 3 and 6

days p.i. Associations were tested using the Spearman rank correlation test. Each symbol

represents an individual animal. (D) RSV loads in MSCs isolated from lung and BAL tissues of RSV-infected animals 3, 6, 14, and 42 d p.i. and expanded in culture. Each symbol represents an individual animal (n=6-8). (E) Phase-contrast micrographs of LR-MSCs derived from BALs expanded in culture from noninfected (mock) or infected (RSV) animals 3 days p.i. Magnification 100X. The yellow arrowheads indicate a cluster of nuclei of a potential syncytium. (F) Representative confocal microscopy evaluation of LR-MSCs derived from BALs expanded in culture from noninfected (mock) or infected (RSV) animals 3 days p.i. RSV, orange; DAPI, dark blue; WGA, light blue. Scale bars, 15 µm (left and middle panels) and 10 µm for the 3D capture (right panels).

Figure 5: RSV infection leads to the expansion of the pulmonary MSC niche *in vivo*

(A) Newborn or adult (average age of 29 months) animals were trans-tracheal inoculated with 10^8 PFU per animal of the human strain RSV-A2 or PBS (mock). Newborns were euthanized 3, 6, 14, and 42 days p.i. and adults 6 and 14 days p.i. and lung tissue was harvested for CFU-F assay. Lung tissue of adults was harvested for histopathological evaluation (B) Representative H&E stained histopathological sections of the lung tissue from noninfected (mock) and RSV-infected adults at 6 and 14 days p.i. scale bar, 200 µm. (C, E) Representative images of the CFU-F assay for mock control and RSV-infected neonates (C) and adults (E) 3 to 42 days p.i. and 6 and 14 days p.i., respectively. Each image represents an individual animal. (D, F) Quantification of the CFU-F assay for each neonate (D) and adult (F) animals, given as CFU-F count relative to 3.33×10^5 nucleated cells over time. Boxplots indicate the median value (centerline) and interquartile ranges (box edges), with whiskers extending to the lowest and the highest values. Each symbol represents an individual animal (neonates, per timepoint: mock, n=3-4; RSV, n=6-8; adults: mock, n=14; RSV, n=3 per timepoint). A one-way ANOVA and the Holm-Sydak post-hoc test was applied to compare differences between groups. $*p<0.05$, $***p<0.001$, $****p<0.0001$.

Figure 6: The transcriptional activity of LR-MSCs is related to the phases of RSV disease

(A) Expression levels of selected classical MSC markers expressed as $\log_2$TPM (TPM, transcripts

per million). Each column is a different time p.i. (6, 14, and 42 days p.i.). (B-D) Volcano plot of the

DEGs from the comparison of RSV infection and mock control 6 (B), 14 (C), and 42 (D) days p.i.

with p_{adj}<0.05 (red filed circles). (B) Pie chart with the 14 DEGs (p_{adj}<0.05) categorized according

to their function. (D) Pie chart with the 43 DEGs (p_{adj}<0.05) categorized according to their function.

(E) Normalized enrichment score of significant (false discovery rate, FDR<0.05) hallmark gene

sets for the comparisons of RSV infection and mock control 6, 14, and 42 days p.i.

(downregulated, blue and upregulated, red) (F) Cartoon summarizing the different functions of

LR-MSCs during distinct steps of RSV disease.

Fig. 1

Fig. 2

Fig. 3

Fig. 4

Fig. 5

Fig. 6