Vitamin D constrains inflammation by modulating the expression of key genes on Chr17q12-21.1

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Summary

Vitamin D possesses immunomodulatory functions and vitamin D deficiency has been associated with the rise in chronic inflammatory diseases, including asthma [1]. Vitamin D supplementation studies do not provide insight into the molecular genetic mechanisms of vitamin D mediated immunoregulation. Here we provide evidence for vitamin D regulation of two human chromosomal loci, Chr17q12-21.1 and Chr17q21.2, reliably associated with autoimmune and chronic inflammatory diseases [2–4]. We demonstrate increased vitamin D receptor (VDR) expression in mouse lung CD4+ Th2 cells, differential expression of Chr17q12-21.1 and Chr17q21.2 genes in Th2 cells based on vitamin D status and identify the IL-2/Stat5 pathway as a target of vitamin D signaling. Vitamin D deficiency caused

severe lung inflammation after allergen challenge in mice that was prevented by long term

prenatal vitamin D supplementation. Mechanistically, vitamin D induced the expression

of the *Ikzf3* encoded protein Aiolos to suppress IL-2- signaling and ameliorate cytokine

production in Th2 cells. These translational findings demonstrate mechanisms for the

immune protective effect of vitamin D in allergic lung inflammation with a strong molecular

genetic link to the regulation of both Chr17q12-21.1 and Chr17q21.2 genes and suggest

further functional studies and interventional strategies for long- term prevention of asthma

and other autoimmune disorders.

Results

To address the genetic and molecular mechanisms by which vitamin D can influence

asthma, allergic and autoimmune disease risk, we studied the genetic loci of two

chromosome regions of interest: 1) the 17q12-21.1 region, that includes the well-known

asthma-associated *ORMDL3* gene [5], and 2) the 17q21.2 region, that includes the *STAT5*

gene, known to be extensively associated with autoimmune diseases [6,7]. We first

examined the entire set of significant disease and trait associations in the Chr17q12-21.1

(181 associations) and Chr17q21.2 (100 associations) loci using the NHGRI-EBI GWAS

Catalog [8]. Both regions had multiple Th1 and Th2 diseases associations with at least one

significant SNP. Chr17q12-21.1 had the highest number of associations related to Th2

diseases (Fig. 1a) and 17q21.2 had the highest number of associations related to Th1

diseases (Extended Data Fig. 1a). To address the possible link to vitamin D intake, we

next investigated a potential overlap of these SNPs with VDR binding sites. Out of the

169 VDR binding sites on Chr17, seven were located in the 17q12-21.1 locus,

concentrated in two bands on or near *IKZF3* and *ZPBP2* (Fig. 1b). These VDR binding

sites also overlapped with RXRA binding sites (Fig. 1b). To assess their functional

relevance, we searched for eQTLs in these VDR binding regions. We found that four cis-

eQTLs control *IKZF3* expression in whole blood and EBV-transformed lymphocytes:

rs2941522 and rs12946510 in the enhancer region targeting *ORMDL3* and *IKZF3*, and

rs1453559 and rs35564481 in the enhancer region targeting *ORMDL3*, *GSDMA* and

GSDMB (Fig. 1b). Rs1453559 and rs2941522 have previous GWAS associations with

both asthma and autoimmune diseases[9–11], rs12946510 has previous GWAS

associations with autoimmune diseases[12,13], and rs35564481 has no known GWAS

associations. For the 17q21.2 locus, the only VDR binding site resides near the gene

PSMC3IP in an enhancer site targeting *STAT5A* (Extended Data. Fig. 1b). PSMC3IP

expression is controlled by three eQTLs overlapping with this VDR binding site

(rs4793244, rs62078362 and rs111708606), none of which have any known disease

associations. These results suggest that vitamin D binding is critical in this genomic

region.

We next examined the linkage disequilibrium (LD) pattern between the Th1/Th2-

associated SNPs and the SNPs in the VDR binding sites (Fig. 1c). Out of the seven SNPs

with VDR binding sites identified in 17q12-21.1 and 17q21.2, the first four in 17q12-21.1

(rs2941522, rs12946510, rs35564481, rs1453559) were in a high-LD block with many

other Th1-Th2 associated SNPs in the same region. These same four SNPs in 17q12-

21.1 were also in high-LD with two SNPs in *ZPBP2* and *ORMDL3* (rs12936231 and

rs4065275, respectively) that were previously shown to be functionally relevant to asthma

[3,4,14]. Additionally, two of the three SNPs with VDR binding sites in 17q21.2 (rs4793244

and rs62078362) were in strong-LD with three other Th1-Th2 associated SNPs in

the17q21.2 region (rs11871801, rs2006141, rs4793090). Overall, these results highlight

strong statistical association between vitamin D binding sites and multiple genotypic

variations linked to asthma, autoimmune and allergic diseases.

Two SNPs in *ZPBP2* and *ORMDL3* (rs12936231 and rs4065275, respectively) that were

previously shown to be functionally relevant to asthma [3,4,14], were also in high linkage

disequilibrium with the four SNPs that we identified in the VDR binding regions of the

17q12-21.1 loci (Fig. 1c). Importantly, in both the 17q12-21.1 and 17q21.2 regions, the

VDR binding sites coincide with CTCF and IKZF3 binding sites, as well as H3K27ac peaks

indicating active enhancer sites (Fig. 1b and Extended Data Fig. 1b). In particular, the two

enhancer sites in 17q12-21.1 (GH17J039753 and GH17J039859) were both predicted to

interact with the *ORMDL3* promoter region (Fig. 1b), and the enhancer site in 17q21.2

(GH17J042576) was predicted to interact with the *STAT5A* promoter region (Extended

Data Fig. 1b). This suggests a similar mechanism to the one described in [4], whereby
SNPs in LD with each other in these enhancer sites affect VDR and CTCF binding, the
co-dependence of which in turn could modulate *ORMDL3* and *STAT5A* expression.
Although it has been shown that CTCF binding sites can be vitamin D-sensitive[15], no such
sites were found in our genomic regions of interest (Fig. 1b and Supp. Fig. 1b).
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Next, we investigated cord blood gene expression data in the Vitamin D Antenatal Asthma
Reduction Trial (VDAART) (see Methods) and looked at the genes of interest in the 17q12
and 17q21 regions and their interaction with cord blood vitamin D levels as predictors of
asthma/wheeze risk at age 3 year of age. After adjusting for relevant covariates (see
Methods), the baseline expression term of *IKZF3* was not found to be significantly
associated with asthma risk, while the interaction between vitamin D and *IKZF3* was
statistically significant (p-val. < 0.05), suggesting that the association of *IKZF3* expression
with asthma risk was mediated by vitamin D levels in the cord blood (Extended Data Table
1).
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130   Based on our bioinformatic analysis of the Chr17q12 and 17q21 regions, we hypothesize
131   that low vitamin D tissue levels is associated with decreased *IKFZ3* expression and
132   increased expression of *ORMDL3*, *STAT3*, *STAT5A*, *STAT5B*, and *IL2*.
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Vitamin-D receptor (VDR) is expressed in Th2 cells in allergic airway inflammation

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To test our hypothesis of vitamin D activity at the Chr17q12-21 locus we utilized a mouse
model of allergic airway inflammation and identified vitamin D responsive leukocyte
subsets in house dust mite (HDM)-sensitized and challenged mice using flow cytometry
(Fig.2a, Extended Data Fig. 2a-c). VDR expression was significantly induced in HDM
sensitized and challenged mice and almost absent in leukocytes isolated from control
(vehicle) lungs (Extended Data Fig. 2c) but. Within the CD45+ population, VDR
expression was high in CD4+ T cells (p= 0.0357), while only very few CD8+ T cells and
CD19+ B cells expressed VDR (Fig. 2b, Extended Data Fig. 2c HDM). Within the CD4+
T cell population, highest VDR expression was detected in Gata3+ Th2 cells (p= 0.002
vs Tbet+ and p< 0.0001 vs Foxp3+ T cells). VDR expression was very low in Tbet+ Th1

and CD4+ Foxp3+ Treg cells (Fig. 2b). The differential expression of VDR in Th2 cells was further validated by western blot analysis using naïve CD4+ T cells immediately after isolation (0hrs), after activation with CD3/CD28 for 48 hrs and in *in vitro* polarized Th1, Th2 and iTreg cells with well-defined culture conditions (Extended Data Fig. 3a, see Methods section). VDR expression appeared as early as day 1 of Th2 culture conditions and gradually increased during the polarization process (Extended Data Fig. 3b). In the absence of the VDR ligand vitamin D, VDR expression localized to the cytoplasm of Th2 cells. Addition of the VDR ligand calcitriol led to a strong translocation of VDR into the nucleus, suggesting functionality of the expressed receptor in the presence of its ligand (Extended Data Fig. 3c). These results identify Th2 cells as vitamin D targets in allergic airway inflammation.

Vitamin D status regulates the expression of key genes on Chromosome17q12-21.1 and Chr17q21.2

Taking cell type specific gene expression and selective expression of VDR in Th2 cells into account, we next analyzed the expression of genes encoded on Chr17q12-21.1 and 17q21.2 loci in WT and vitamin D deficient Th2 cultures as well as in Th2 cells post calcitriol stimulation.

Vitamin D deficiency differentially regulated the expression levels of several Chr17q12-21.1 encoded genes, with lower expression of *Ikzf3*, *Ormdl3* and *Gsdma* (all p=0.0286) (Fig. 2d). Conversely, stimulation with calcitriol induced the expression of the same genes (all p=0.043) (Fig. 2e). Expression of the Chr17q21.2 genes *Stat3*, *Stat5a* and *Stat5b* was not affected by vitamin D deficiency (Fig.2f). However, after calcitriol stimulation *Stat5a* (p=0.0082) and *Stat5b* (p=0.003) genes were strongly suppressed and *Stat3* (p= 0.0048) expression was increased in Th2 cells. (Fig. 2g). These results hint to a protective role of vitamin D in allergic airway inflammation, by regulating the expression of the IL-2 downstream signaling molecules *Stat5a* and *Stat5b*.

Deficiency in vitamin D signaling augments allergic airway inflammation

To decipher the protective role of vitamin D signaling in allergic airway inflammation, we employed vitamin D deficient and VDR^{-/-} mice (Fig. 3a) [16]. HDM sensitization of vitamin D

deficient mice led to a stronger reaction to the allergen resulting in more prominent peri-bronchial and perivascular leukocytic infiltrates (Fig. 3b). This phenotype was accompanied by lower VDR expression in CD4+ T cells isolated from HDM-exposed lungs compared to WT (Fig. 3c). Vitamin D deficiency led to a robust increase in total immunoglobulin (Ig)E levels (Fig. 3d). Histological findings were associated with higher total BAL leukocyte (p= 0.0008) (Fig. 3e), eosinophil (p= 0.0002) (Fig. 3f) and lymphocyte (p= 0.0023) (Fig. 3g) numbers in vitamin D deficient mice. Th2 cell numbers (p= 0.0127) were also higher in the HDM exposed mice (Fig. 3h) in a manner that was independent of T helper cell skewing (Extended Data Fig. 4a, b). Differentiation and recruitment of Th17 and IL-10 producing CD4+ T cells was not affected by vitamin D deficiency (Extended Data Fig. 4a, b). To validate these findings from vitamin D deficiency, we next employed VDR$^{-/-}$ mice (see Methods). As with the vitamin D deficient mice, HDM sensitization and challenge of VDR$^{-/-}$ mice led to an increased Th2 immune response. The lung phenotype in the VDR$^{-/-}$ mice was marked by dense leukocytic infiltrates around and mucus plugs in the airways (Fig. 3b). The augmented systemic and local immune response increased total IgE titers (p= 0.0489), and total BAL (p< 0.0001 vs WT HDM and p= 0.003 vs Vit D deficient HDM), eosinophil (p< 0.0001 vs WT HDM and Vit D deficient HDM), total lymphocytes (p=0.0194 vs WT HDM and p= 0.0421vs Vit D deficient HDM) and Th2 cells (p= 0.0009 vs WT HDM) (Fig. 3. d-h). VDR$^{-/-}$ did not significantly affect recruitment of Treg and Th17 cells (Extended Data Fig. 4a, b).

To explore the mechanisms underlying the augmented Th2-phenotype in the lungs of vitamin D deficient and VDR$^{-/-}$ mice after HDM allergen challenge, we analyzed the transcriptional profiles of in vitro polarized Th2 cells from WT and vitamin D deficient mice (Fig.3i). Differential expression and enrichment analysis revealed dysregulation of several pathways implicated in Th2-cell activation, cytokine production, proliferation, and survival with prominent changes in the IL-2/ STAT5 - pathway in vitamin D deficient Th2 cells (p= 0.0014) (Fig. 3j, Extended Data Table 2 & 3). The effects of impaired vitamin D signaling on these pathways was confirmed by qRT-PCR and flow cytometry. Baseline expression of IL-2 was markedly increased at both the RNA (p= 0.0286)) and protein levels (p= 0.0079) in vitamin D deficient and VDR$^{-/-}$ Th2 cells (Fig. 3k, l). In Vitamin D deficient and

VDR$^{-/-}$ Th2 cell *in vitro* incubation, the elevated IL-2 levels were accompanied by a sharp

increase in IL-13 production (VitD deficient: p< 0.0001; VDR$^{-/-}$: p= 0.0141) (Extended Data

Fig. 5).

Taken together, these results indicate a critical role for vitamin D/VDR signaling in

regulating type 2 inflammation and identify the IL-2/ Stat5 pathway as a downstream

target of vitamin D in Th2 cells.

Vitamin D suppresses the activation of the IL-2/Stat5 pathway and cytokine

production in Th2 cells

To ascertain the vitamin D dependent regulation of the IL-2/Stat5 pathway and the impact

on the effector program of Th2 cells, we first analyzed the transcriptional profile of WT

Th2 cells exposed to calcitriol during differentiation (Fig. 4a). Gene ontology enrichment

analysis of biological processes revealed regulation of several processes impacting

inflammatory responses, including chemotaxis and activation of cells (Extended Data

Table 4). Calcitriol stimulation of Th2 cells affected several immune related disease

pathways, including asthma (Extended Data Fig. 6, Extended Data Table 5). Gene set

enrichment analysis (GSEA), performed on the differentially expressed genes,

highlighted the negative regulation of IL-2/Stat5 pathway in Th2 cells by calcitriol (Fig. 4b,

Extended Data Table 6). Calcitriol stimulation suppressed the expression of *Il2*

(p<0.0001), *Stat5a* (p<0.0008) and *Stat5b* (p<0.0008) genes (Fig. 4c). Concordantly,

levels of activated Itk (phospho-Itk) (p= 0.029) and expression of the IL2Rβ (CD25) (p=

0.0441) were reduced on a per cell basis (Fig. 4d).

Next, the impact of calcitriol stimulation on the effector function of Th2 cells was assessed

by flow cytometric analysis for the T2 cytokine IL-13. Activation of the vitamin D/VDR

pathway led to significant suppression of IL-13 production in CD4+ T cells (p= 0.0012)

(Fig. 4e).

To further delineate the molecular impact of vitamin D on Th2 cell biology, we integrated

the murine transcriptional profile with a recently developed human Protein-Protein

Interaction (PPI) database[17] . By modeling the signal transduction process as a sequential

path on the PPI network that starts from a receptor and propagates downstream to a

transcription factor via multiple intermediate proteins (for details see Methods section,

Extended Data Fig. 7a), we inferred the active signaling flow in Th2 cells for control

(vehicle) and calcitriol stimulated Th2 cells. As input of our network analysis, we selected

a subset of receptors and transcription factors that are known to be involved in CD4+ T

cell activation, Th2 cell differentiation, and cytokine production (Extended Data Table 7).

For clarity of the figure, we display the gene names. Corresponding protein names are

attached in Extended Data Table 8. In control Th2 cells, our network analysis revealed

the engagement of a variety of receptors including IL4R, IL2RA, CD28, and TNF-

receptors. Downstream to these receptors, the most active signaling paths highlighted

the activation of STAT3, STAT5A/B, NFkB1, and IKZF1 transcription factors (Extended

Data Fig. 7b) via multiple adapter proteins of the TRAF and JAK family. Interestingly,

these transcription factors are known to be involved in differentiation and activation

pathways in Th2 cells Conversely, after calcitriol stimulation, signal from IL4R, CD28 and

TNFSF8 propagated over different interaction partners (Fig. 4f). Calcitriol specific edges

are highlighted in orange color. Molecular mediators included the cytoskeletal proteins

VAV1 and RACK1 and emphasized activation of the transcription factors AP-1

(FOS/JUND dimer) and NFATC1.

Our network analysis highlighted a central role of the transcriptional repressor IKZF1

(IKAROS) upon calcitriol stimulation, which was targeted by multiple downstream

mediators including IKZF3 (AIOLOS). Notably, the IKZF3 gene encodes for the AIOLOS

protein, a direct interaction partner of the IKZF1-encoded IKAROS. Both transcription

factors, as homo- and heterodimers, suppress IL-2 expression on the transcriptional

levels in mouse and human lymphocytes[18]. Calcitriol increased the number of edges

connecting intermediate proteins to the transcriptional repressor IKAROS. Among the

connecting proteins, AIOLOS interaction with IKAROS was implicated in repression of IL-

2 expression in Th2 cells by vitamin D. Absence of STAT5A/B mediators in the active

signaling paths of calcitriol stimulated Th2 cells further suggested repression of the Th2

cell STAT5 pathway with calcitriol compared to control (Extended Data Fig. 7b).

Taken together, these results indicate that the specific suppression of the IL-2/Stat5

pathway by vitamin D results in reduced cytokine production by Th2 cells. Our findings

suggest that this suppression was mediated by the vitamin D dependent regulation of

IKAROS (IKZF1) through the induction of AIOLOS (IKZF3).

274   Vitamin D supplementation alleviates the allergic phenotype in the lung by

275   suppressing type 2 cytokine production in a dose dependent manner

To test if vitamin D supplementation prevents the development of T2 driven allergic

inflammation in the lung, custom rodent diets with select vitamin D doses were used: 400

IU/kg chow (400 IU; low), 1000 IU/kg chow (1000 IU; regular) and 4000 IU/kg chow (4000

IU; high) (see Methods section). The 1000 IU group was used as the control group, as it

contains the average amount of vitamin D fortified in standard rodent chow. HDM

exposure led to recruitment of leukocytes into the lung tissue and BAL (Fig. 5a, b), with a

predominant eosinophilic and lymphocytic infiltrate as well as high numbers of IL-13+ Th2

cells (Fig. 5c-e). There were trends for higher cellular infiltration in the airways when mice

were supplemented with the low vitamin D doses (400 IU), but these inflammatory

responses were not significantly different from the phenotype observed with 1000 IU.

Lung and airway pathology were similar between these dosing groups, with similar

numbers and frequencies of the different leukocyte populations. In sharp contrast, dietary

supplementation with the higher vitamin D dose (4000 IU) decreased the inflammatory

phenotype in HDM exposed mice compared to the 400 IU and 1000 IU dosed animals.

Concordant with the histological findings, BAL leukocytes (p< 0.0001) were decreased

with marked reductions in BAL eosinophil (p=0.0016) and lymphocyte numbers (p=0.026)

(Fig. 5c-d), and the frequency of IL-13+ Th2 cells was significantly reduced in the lungs

with 4000 IU of vitamin D (p= 0.0066 vs 400 IU HDM; p=0.0011 vs 1000 IU HDM) (Fig.

5e). Of note, dietary supplementation with high vitamin D levels, increased VDR

expression in CD4+ T cells from HDM exposed lungs (p< 0.0001) (Extended Data Fig.

8b).

To ascertain that dietary supplementation with vitamin D specifically altered mouse Th2

cell differentiation and the effector program, splenic naïve CD4+ T cells from 400 IU and

4000 IU mice were studied. Of interest, naïve CD4+ T cells did not express VDR until

they were exposed to Th2 polarizing conditions. Gata3 expression on per cell basis was

lower in 4000 IU Th2 cells (p= 0.0286) (Extended Data Fig. 9a). This was accompanied

by higher VDR protein expression (p= 0.0286) (Extended Data Fig. 9b). The expression

of IL-2 (p= 0.0004) and the Th2 cytokines IL-13 (p= 0.0159) and IL-5 (p= 0.0159) were

lower in 4000 IU Th2 cultures (Extended Data Fig. 9c-f).

To explore the specific induction of Aiolos expression for vitamin D mediated suppression

of IL-2 production in Th2 cells, Aiolos expression was monitored throughout Th2

differentiation. Aiolos expression gradually increased under Th2 polarizing conditions in

CD4+ T cells, starting as early as day 1 of in vitro culture (Fig. 5f). Simultaneous exposure

to calcitriol further increased Aiolos protein levels compared to vehicle in Th2 cells (p=

0.0079) (Fig. 5g).

To test if vitamin D exerts its inhibitory effect on IL-2 production via Aiolos induction, Ikzf3^{-}

[/-] mice were employed, exposed to Th2 polarizing conditions and assessed for IL-2

production after calcitriol exposure. IL-2 production in control Ikzf3^{-/-} Th2 cultures was

significantly higher compared to WT Th2 cells. Calcitriol significantly reduced IL-2 levels

in both, WT (p= 0.0001) and Ikzf3^{-/-} Th2 cells (p= 0.0001) (Fig. 5h); however, the

suppressive effect of calcitriol on IL-2 production was significantly higher in WT Th2 cells

(~ 65% inhibition) compared to Ikzf3^{-/-} Th2 cells (~40% inhibition) (p= 0.0001) (Fig. 5h).

Taken together, these results indicated that vitamin D can regulate Aiolos expression and

suggested a role for Aiolos as a downstream effector for selectively fine-tuning Th2 cell

IL-2 production by vitamin D.

Discussion

We utilized human genetics to identify SNPs on chromosome 17q12-21.1 and 17q21.2

that were within GWAS regions for Th1 and Th2 autoimmune diseases. Of note, many of

these SNPs were within VDR binding sites. We then determined by eQTL analysis of the

genes in these two genomic regions that IKZF3 expression was controlled by four cis-

eQTLs in the enhancer region targeting ORMDL3 and IKZF3, and in the enhancer region targeting ORMDL3, GSDMA and GSDMB. Next, we demonstrated that two SNPs in CTCF binding sites were in strong LD with these 4 eQTL SNPs and that the two enhancer sites in 17q12-21.1 were both predicted to interact with the ORMDL3 promoter region, and the enhancer site in 17q21.2 was predicted to interact with the STAT5A promoter region thus, suggesting a plausible human molecular genetic mechanism by which vitamin D could activate IKZF3 to repress ORMDL3 and immune system development. Finally, we leveraged bulk RNAseq in the cord blood of the VDAART trial to show that an interaction for vitamin D level and IKZF3 expression that was associated with reduced asthma risk at 3 years of age.

The vitamin D receptor was genetically associated with asthma in 2004[19] and high intake of vitamin D by pregnant women is associated with about a 50% reduction in asthma risk in the mother's offspring[15,20]. Together, these exciting findings led to a comprehensive theory about how vitamin D deficiency could influence asthma occurrence through its effects on lung and immune system development and that progressive decreases in vitamin D intake from 1946 onward could be contributing to the epidemic of allergic and autoimmune diseases[1]. Vitamin D deficiency is the most common vitamin deficiency in the world today and is particularly prevalent in pregnant women where the fetal lung and immune system are developing[21–23].

To determine the impact of vitamin D supplementation, we performed a clinical trial, the Vitamin D Antenatal Asthma Trial (VDAART) in pregnant women who either had allergies or asthma or had family members with these conditions. The participants were given either 4400 IU of vitamin D3 or 400 IU and were followed throughout their pregnancy and for the first six years of the life of the child[24]. The results of the trial were not statistically significant using conventional intent to treat analysis[25,26] but the reasons were complex, as is often seen when the effects of nutrients are studied. Most importantly, unlike conventional drug trials where one compares drug to no drug or alternative drug, in nutrient trials there is nutrient already present in the placebo group. This creates misclassification that can reduce trial power. When we performed a meta-analysis of the

two pregnancy related trials of vitamin D, we got a statistically significant reduction in
asthma in the offspring of women who had the higher vitamin D intake during pregnancy
and, when we adjusted for the baseline level of vitamin D in the meta-analysis, we got a
reduction in asthma risk of 50 percent, exactly what we saw in the observational studies
performed previously[27,28].

To link the results of the VDAART trial directly to the chr17q12 locus we genotyped SNP,
rs12936231, in ZPBP2, the gene adjacent to ORMDL3, and stratified the VDAART trial
results by maternal genotype at this locus and found that the vitamin D effect in the trial
was significantly influenced by genotype with the GG genotype exhibiting a protective
effect on asthma risk in the child and the CC or GC genotype not being responsive to
vitamin D, additionally this result was related to sphingolipid production with the children
protected from asthma having higher sphingolipid production[3].

This SNP (rs12936231) is one of two SNPs (the other being rs4065275) that alter the
chromatin state of a regulatory domain, specifically two CTCF binding sites, in the
chr17q12-21.1 locus that are correlated with the expression of ORMDL3[4,14]. 4C-seq
assays previously demonstrated that the ORMDL3 promoter interacts with a long-range
enhancer in IKZF3 that promotes (or represses) transcription of ORMDL3 in cells
expressing both genes and the binding of CTCF per the G allele of rs12936231 in ZPBP2
blocks this interaction resulting in reduced transcription of ORMDL3 on haplotypes with
the rs12936231-G allele[4]. If rs12936231 is not activated then there is activation of the
other CTCF binding site (rs4065275) intronic to ORMDL3 thus favoring the expression of
ORMDL3 and increased asthma risk[4].

Mouse models have contributed to our understanding of ORMDL3 function as mice
expressing the ORMDL3 transgene exhibit spontaneous increases in airway hyper
responsiveness, the essential feature of asthma. This increase in AHR was associated
with airway remodeling and peri bronchial fibrosis without airway
inflammation[29]. ORMDL3 is pleotropic, influencing Ca++ signaling, and the unfolded
protein response. Most importantly, increased expression of ORMDL3 inhibits the

enzyme serine palmityl-transferase, the rate limiting step in the production of
sphingolipids and ORMDL3 TG mice have reduced levels of sphingolipids[30]. What has
been unclear is how ORMDL3 is controlled.

To confirm our human molecular genetic findings, we chose to utilize mouse models of
allergic lung inflammation. We show strong VDR expression in CD4+ Th2 cells and
alterations in chr17q12-21.1 and 17q21.2 gene expression induced by vitamin D status.
Expression of VDR has been reported for airway epithelial cells and different immune cell
types present in the lung[31]. In lymphocytes, *ex vivo* and *in vitro* studies describe low
baseline VDR transcript expression levels that were transiently increased by activating
signals and calcitriol stimulation[32]. Here, we report a differential VDR expression pattern
in CD4+ T cell subsets in allergic inflamed lungs and post lineage specific cytokine
stimulation *in vitro*, with strongest expression in Th2 cells. Activation of VDR suppressed
IL-2, IL-5, and IL-13 production by Th2 cells. The expression of VDR in Gata3+Th2 cells
in the lung might represent an endogenous control mechanism to curb the pathogenic
cell activity and cytokine production after repetitive allergen contact. *Ex vivo* and *in vitro*
Th1, nTreg and iTreg cells expressed low VDR protein levels at baseline. It remains to be
determined whether other Th-subsets described in allergic inflammation express VDR at
baseline and if either calcitriol or other secondary signals, specific for each subset, could
induce VDR expression during inflammation.

Vitamin D deficiency that had been introduced over two generations and impaired vitamin
D signaling led to an augmented allergic phenotype in the lung after allergen exposure
with a dominating Th2-signature locally and systemically. This had likely been due to
specific deregulation of Th2 cells instead of Th cell skewing, since neither Th17 nor Treg
development and recruitment had been significantly affected. In contrast, in mice
supplemented with high vitamin D doses over two generations, VDR expression and
consequently vitamin D responsiveness was higher in CD4+ T cells from the animals'
lungs, almost abrogating the inflammatory process in the lung after allergen challenge.
While the vitamin D dose had been chosen to replicate the VDAART trial in the mouse,
the duration of supplementation was adopted to the protocol of generating vitamin D

deficient mice. Both factors might influence the outcome here compared to prior rodent
studies with inconclusive results.

Differentiation of Th2 cells is driven by IL-4 induced Gata3 expression in naïve CD4+ T
cells. This process depends on a positive feedforward loop by IL-2 and its downstream
STAT5 signaling pathway for the effective expression of IL-4[33]. Therefore, either
interfering with Gata3 expression or the IL-2 pathway represents a promising strategy to
finetune Th2-driven immunity. Our data highlight the specific regulation of the IL-2/STAT5
pathway by vitamin D. Vitamin D deficiency and impaired VDR signaling caused elevated
IL-2 production by Th2 cells, mounting in high IL-13 production. Elevated IL-13 levels *in*
vivo, could amplify the local T2 responses in the lung. In sharp contrast, exposure of
polarizing Th2 cells to calcitriol was able to suppress IL-2 production, expression and
activation of STAT5A/B and therefore IL-13 production by Th2 cells. The transcription
factor AIOLOS has previously been shown to suppress IL-2 expression on the
transcriptional level[18]. We report here a vitamin D mediated induction of Aiolos expression
in Th2 cells, which is impaired by vitamin D deficiency. High Aiolos expression coincided
with lower IL-2 production, ameliorated STAT5A/B expression, and IL-13 production in
Th2 cells. *In vitro* Th2 polarization of naïve CD4+ T cells isolated from mice supplemented
with higher vitamin D levels, without further exogenous calcitriol stimulation, developed a
weakened Th2 phenotype, characterized by lower IL-2, IL-5, and IL-13 production. Since
naïve CD4+ T cells do not express VDR, these results implicate changes in chromosomal
accessibility by high vitamin D in the developing immune system, which needs further
investigation.

Experiments here with Ikzf3^{-/-} mice demonstrated significant reductions in vitamin D
mediated control of Th2 cell cytokine production, but the vitamin D response was not
completely impaired, suggesting additional mechanisms for vitamin D regulation of Th2
cells – several possibilities were uncovered by our PPI analyses. These will be the subject
of future research. In addition, we only investigated a Th2 mouse model of asthma and
have not extended our mouse work to Th1 models of autoimmunity. We have still to
consider other genes that might be linked to these two genetic loci and there are likely

other VDR binding sites of importance in both asthma and Th1 autoimmunity. More work

to determine the exact levels of vitamin D that confer this protective effect would also be

worthy of further investigation.

In summary, we have leveraged clinical trial data, molecular genetic bioinformatic data

and mouse model data to outline for the first time, a comprehensive molecular genetic

mechanism for how vitamin D influences not only asthma, but both Th1 and Th2

autoimmune disease. The significance of these findings relates to the high prevalence of

vitamin D deficiency, especially during pregnancy, and the strong possibility that the

epidemic of asthma and autoimmunity might be significantly reduced if vitamin D levels

were elevated worldwide.

Figure Legends

Figure 1. VDR binding sites on Chr17q12 and q21.1 overlap with open chromatin

signatures. a, Significant disease, and trait associations in 17q12-21.1 (y-axis), retrieved

from the NHGRI-EBI GWAS Catalog, with at least one significant SNP (x-axis) in

Chr17q12-21.1. Colored bars denote autoimmune diseases mapped to Th1 (red bars) or

Th2 (blue bars) driven immunity. **b,** University of California Santa Cruz (UCSC) Genome

Browser tracks showing chromosomal location, common dbSNPs, VDR-, RXR-, CTCF-

and IKZF3-binding sites and H3K27Ac marks present in the Chr17q12-21.1 locus. VDR

binding sites overlapping with active regulatory elements are highlighted by colored

boxes. **c**, Linkage disequilibrium (LD) between the significant SNPs in the Chr17q12-21.1

(magenta) and 21.2 (green) region, highlighting Th1/Th2-associated SNPs (red and blue,

respectively), eQTLs in the VDR binding regions in Chr17q12-21.1 and 21.2 (yellow), and

functional asthma SNPs from the literature (cyan).

Figure 2. VDR expression is elevated in Th2 cells and vitamin D regulated

expression of genes on Chr1q12 and Chr17q21. a, Scheme of the house dust mite

(HDM) induced airway inflammation protocol. **b,** Flow cytometric analysis and cell

frequencies of VDR expression in CD45+ CD4+ T cells in the respective groups (n=4-5).

c, Flow cytometric analyses and cell frequencies of VDR expression in Th1 (Tbet+), Th2

(Gata3+) and Treg (Foxp3+) cells in the respective groups (n=4-7). Quantitative RT-PCR

analysis of relative mRNA expression levels of genes encoded on Chr17q12-21.1 in Th2

cultures of WT and vitamin D deficient mice (**d**) and control and calcitriol stimulated

cultures (**e**). Quantitative RT-PCR analysis of relative mRNA expression levels of genes

encoded on Chr17q21.2 in Th2 cultures of WT and vitamin D deficient mice (**f**) and control

and calcitriol stimulated cultures (**g**). Gene expression levels were normalized to the

house keeping gene *L32* and are expressed relative to the expression level in WT (**d, f**)

or WT-vehicle (**e, g**) Th2 cells. (n ≥ 4 per group). Each symbol represents one mouse.

Numbers in flow plots indicate percentages. Error bars indicate the s.e.m. Statistical tests:

two-tailed Mann-Whitney U test (**b, c**). *$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$, ***$P < 0.001$. Data

summarize results from two independent experiments.

Figure 3. Vitamin D deficiency augments allergic airway inflammation. a, Schematic

presentation of the different mouse strains used. **b,** Representative H&E-stained lung

sections from saline and HDM-exposed wild type (C57/BL6; WT), vitamin D deficient and

VDR$^{-/-}$ mice (x 10 magnification). Black arrows point to the peri bronchial infiltrate. **c,**

Representative flow plots assessing VDR expression in lung CD4+ T cells from the

indicated groups. **d,** Total IgE levels detected in the sera of respective groups. **e- g,**

Absolute numbers of leukocytes (**e**), eosinophils (**f**) and lymphocytes (**g**) in the airways of

the respective groups. **h**, Frequencies of IL-13 producing Th2 in the lung. **i,** Heat map

showing differentially expressed genes between WT and vitamin D deficient Th2 cultures

identified by RNA-Sequencing analysis. Analysis and visualization were performed with

DESeq2. **j**, Overrepresentation analysis of Hallmark gene sets in the differentially

expression gene set. The x-axis represents the gene ratio in the respective gene set. Dot

sizes denote the number of genes in the respective pathway. The dot color indicates the

FDR-adjusted p-value. Analysis and visualization were performed with the clusterProfiler

package. **k,** Quantitative RT-PCR analysis of *Il-2* mRNA expression in Th2 cultures from

the respective groups (n=4 per group). Gene expression levels were normalized to the

house keeping gene *L32* and are expressed as fold-induction compared to WT Th2 cells.

l, Flow cytometric analysis and cell frequencies of IL-2 production in WT and VDR$^{-/-}$ Th2

cultures (n=5 per group). Each symbol represents one mouse. Error bars indicate the s.e.m. Statistical significance was determined with: Mixed-effect analysis with Holm-Šidák's post-hoc analysis (**d –h**), two-tailed Mann-Whitney U test (**k, l**). *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001, ****P < 0.0001. Data summarize results from two or three independent experiments with n>8 per group.

Figure 4. Vitamin D stimulation of polarizing Th2 cells suppresses the IL-2/Stat5 pathway. a, Heat map of differentially expressed genes between vehicle (EtOH [% v/v]) and calcitriol treated WT Th2 cells. Analysis and visualization were performed with DESeq2. **b**, Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) of differentially expressed genes. Analysis and visualization were performed with the clusterProfiler package. **c**, Quantitative RT-PCR for *Il-2*, *Stat5a* and *Stat5b* mRNA expression in Th2 cells exposed to either vehicle or calcitriol. Gene expression levels were normalized to the house keeping gene *L32* and are expressed as fold-induction compared to control cells. **d**, Flow cytometric analysis and mean fluorescence intensities of Itk and Il2rβ expression in indicated groups. **e**, Flow cytometric analysis and quantification of IL-13 expression in respective groups. **f**, Network analysis to visualize vitamin D induced molecular changes in the molecular interactome of calcitriol stimulated CD4+ Th2. Predefined set of cell membrane receptors were set as starting points (orange nodes) and annotated transcription factors were set as ending points (blue). All intermediate proteins on the PPI are visualized as grey nodes. Molecular interactions only overrepresented in calcitriol stimulated cells are shown as orange arrows. Each symbol in the bar graphs represents one individual sample and data summarize the results from two or three independent experiments with n≥ 5. Error bars indicate the s.e.m. Statistical test: two-tailed Student's t-test (**c, e**) and two-tailed Mann-Whitney U-test (**d**). *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001.

Figure 5. Prenatal vitamin D supplementation protects from asthma development. a, H&E staining of representative lung sections of indicated experimental groups. Arrowheads point to peri bronchial infiltrates. **b-e,** Absolute numbers of total BAL leukocytes (**b**), eosinophils (**c**), lymphocytes (**d**) and lung IL-13+ Th2 cells (**e**). **f**, Flow cytometric analysis of Aiolos expression in differentiating Th2 cells at indicated time

points. **g**, QRT-PCR analysis of *Ikzf3* transcripts in respective groups. Expression levels were normalized to the house keeping gene *L32* and are expressed as fold change expression over the control samples WT-vehicle/ WT. **h**, Flow cytometric analysis of Aiolos expression in control and calcitriol stimulated Th2 cells. **i**, Flow cytometric analysis and frequencies of IL-2+ cells in WT and Ikzf3$^{-/-}$ cultures post indicated treatment. Each symbol represents and independent sample (n= 9 per group). Flow cytometric analysis and quantification of VDR expression in lung CD4+ T cells of the respective groups. Each symbol represents one individual mouse and data summarize the results from two to three independent experiments with n>8 per group. Error bars indicate the s.e.m. Statistical significance was determined with Mixed-effect analysis with Holm-Šidák's post-hoc analysis (**b-e**), two-tailed Mann-Whitney U-test (**g, h**) and One-way ANOVA with Holm-Šidák's post-hoc analysis (**g**). *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001, ****P < 0.0001.

Extended Data Figure 1: a, Significant disease and trait associations in 17q21.2 (y-axis), retrieved from the NHGRI-EBI GWAS Catalog, with at least one significant SNPs (x-axis) in Chr17q21.2. Colored bars denote autoimmune diseases mapped to Th1 (red bars) or Th2 (blue bars) driven immunity. **b,** University of California Santa Cruz (UCSC) Genome Browser tracks showing chromosomal location, common dbSNPs, VDR-, RXR-, CTCF- and IKZF3-binding sites and H3K27Ac marks present in the Ch17q21.2 locus. VDR binding sites overlapping with active regulatory elements are highlighted by colored boxes.

Extended Data Figure 2. Baseline VDR expression is confined to the CD4+ Foxp3- Teff cell population. a, Gating strategy for the analysis of VDR expression in different leukocyte populations in the lung. **b,** Flow cytometric analysis and cell frequencies of VDR expression in CD45+, CD4+, CD8+ and CD19+ in the respective groups (n=4-5). **c**, Representative flow plots of lung CD45+ CD4+ T cells isolated from saline and HDM-immunized and -challenged mice for the co-expression of Foxp3 and VDR. Each symbol represents one mouse. Numbers in flow plots indicate percentages. Error bars indicate the s.e.m. Statistical tests: two-tailed Mann-Whitney U test. *P < 0.05. Data summarize results from two independent experiments.

Extended Data Figure 3. VDR expression is induced during CD4+ Th2 cell differentiation. a, Representative immunoblot for VDR expression in freshly isolated (0 hrs) and activated CD4+ CD62L+ CD44- naïve T cells (48 hrs.) and *in vitro* polarized Th1, Th2 and iTreg cells. Kidney samples of WT and VDR$^{-/-}$ mice were used as controls. **b**, Representative immunoblot for VDR expression in polarizing Th2 at the indicated days of *in vitro* culture. **c**, Representative image of VDR localization in *in vitro* polarized Th2 cells stimulated with vehicle (EtOH, [% v/v]) or calcitriol.

Extended Data Figure 4. Vitamin D deficiency does not alter CD4+ IL-10 and IL-17A expression allergic airway inflammation. Frequencies of IL-10 (**a**) and IL-17A (**b**) CD4+ T cells. Each symbol represents one mouse. Error bars indicate the s.e.m. Data summarize results from two or three independent experiments with n>8 per group.

Extended Data Figure 5. Flow cytometric analysis and frequencies of IL-13 expression in WT, vitamin D deficient and VDR$^{-/-}$ Th2 cultures (n=5-9 per group). Each symbol represents one individual sample and data summarize the results from two or three independent experiments. Error bars indicate the s.e.m. Statistical tests: Kruskal- Wallis Test with Dunn's post-hoc analysis. *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ****P < 0.0001.

Extended Data Figure 6. KEGG pathways analysis post vitamin D stimulation. List of KEGG pathways enriched (p-adj. < 0.05) in DE genes after calcitriol stimulation. The x-axis indicates the number of genes annotated to each pathway. The bar colors indicate the FDR-adjusted p-value based on the colormap on the right side of the figure. The R package clusterProfiler was used for the enrichment analysis and visualization.

Extended Data Figure 7. Active signaling pathways in Th2 cells. a, Schematic representation of the network analysis employed. **b**, Network analysis to visualize active signaling paths in control stimulated Th2 cultures. Predefined set of cell membrane receptors were set as starting points (orange nodes) and annotated transcription factors were set as ending points (blue). All intermediate proteins on the PPI are visualized as

grey nodes. Molecular interactions only overrepresented in control stimulated cells are

shown as purple arrows.

Extended Data Figure 8. Prenatal vitamin D supplementation increases VDR

expression in CD4+ T cells. a, Schematic presentation of the dietary intervention

protocol and breeding scheme with vitamin D. **b**, Flow cytometric analysis and

quantification of VDR expression in lung CD4+ T cells of the respective groups. Each

symbol represents one individual mouse and data summarize the results from two to three

independent experiments with n>8 per group. Error bars indicate the s.e.m. Statistical

significance was determined with One-way ANOVA with Holm-Šidák's post-hoc analysis.

*$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$, ***$P < 0.001$, ****$P < 0.0001$.

Extended Data Figure 9. Prenatal vitamin D supplementation mitigates Th2

development and cytokine production *in vitro*. a-g, Representative flow plots and cell

frequencies of (**a**) Gata3, (**b**) VDR, (**c**), IL-2, (**d**) IL-13, (**e**) IL-5 expression in indicated

groups. Each symbol represents one individual sample and data summarize the results

from two to three independent experiments (n= 4-5 per group). Error bars indicate the

s.e.m. Statistical test: two-tailed Mann-Whitney U-test (a – g). *$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$, ***P

< 0.001.

Supplementary Figure 1. Uncropped immunoblot shown in Extended Data Fig. 2a

Supplementary Figure 2. Uncropped immunoblot shown in Extended Data Fig. 2b

Methods

In silico analysis of VDR binding sites on Chr17q12-21

For our *in-silico* analysis, we focused on two genomic regions that are known to harbor

variants associated with asthma and autoimmune disease susceptibility. The first one is

a 240 kb region that covers parts of the 17q12 and 17q21.1 loci and contains IKZF3,

ZPBP2, ORMDL3, GSDMA and GSDMB (chr17: 37,899,254–38,139,253; hg19) and the

second one is a 420 kb region in the 17q21.2 locus that includes STAT3, STAT5A and

STAT5B (chr17: 40,330,000-40,750,000; hg19). When selecting these genomic ranges,

our criterion was to make the window inclusive of any potential enhancer regions targeting

the above genes of interest. We used the GeneHancer [34] track in the UCSC Genome

Browser (http://genome.ucsc.edu) to determine predicted enhancer-target gene

interactions. We obtained VDR, IKZF3, CTCF and Vitamin D-sensitive CTCF binding sites

from [35–38], converted their genomic coordinates to hg19 if a different genome build was

used in the original publication, and added them as custom tracks on the Genome

Browser. We retrieved the known disease and trait associations in these loci from the

NHGRI-EBI GWAS Catalog (downloaded on 7/26/2021) [8] and retained all hits that were

deemed significant ($p<10^{-5}$). We downloaded significant single-tissue eQTLs for IKZF3

and PSMCIP3 in all tissues from the Common Fund (CF) Genotype-Tissue Expression

Project (GTEx) Analysis Release V8 (dbGaP Accession phs000424.v8.p2), through the

GTEx Portal (https://www.gtexportal.org/home/) in July 2021. We calculated linkage

disequilibrium (LD) using the NCI LDmatrix Tool (https://ldlink.nci.nih.gov/?tab=ldmatrix),

and by selecting all available populations.

Gene expression analysis in VDAART cohort

To understand the putative mechanism linking IKZF3 expression and Vitamin D to asthma

risk we considered umbilical cord blood (CB) RNA-seq data from the VDAART trial. Total

RNA was isolated from cord blood using the QIAGEN PAXgene Blood RNA Kit according

to the manufacturer's protocol. Quality was assessed using the Nanodrop 8000

spectrophotometer. Sequencing libraries were constructed with the TruSeq® Stranded

Total RNA Library Prep Globin Kit (Illumina) and the NEXTflex Small RNA sequencing Kit

v3 (Boo Scientific). Sequencing was performed using a NextSeq 550 instrument

(Illumina). Trimmed reads were mapped to The GRCh38 reference genome using

STAR[39]. Read counts were computed with htseq[40]. The data includes 443 expression

profiles of pregnant women with and without asthma undergoing measurements of

Vitamin D levels in their CB. Each sample is matched with the observed patterns of

wheezing and asthma in the newborn. We filtered all the samples where information about

Vitamin D levels, asthma/wheezing patterns or other covariates were missing, obtaining

393 expression profiles. Data was normalized with the voom function of the edgeR R
package [41], and Vitamin D levels were binarized using 30 ng/ml as threshold. We
performed logistic regression of asthma status as a function of the expression levels of
IKZF1 and IKZF3, including their interaction term and the interaction between IKZF3 and
Vitamin D. Since IKZF3 forms homodimers and heterodimers with IKZF1, we included
IKZF1 in the model. We adjusted the model for maternal asthma status and child race.
678
Mice
All animal studies were approved by the institutional animal care committee. Mice were
maintained in a virus- and parasite-free animal facility under a 12-h light, 12-h dark cycle.
C57BL6/J wild type (WT) mice were bred and housed at the MGH animal facility. Vitamin
D-deficient mice (C57BL6/J) were bred and maintained in a UV-free environment and
weaned onto a similar diet lacking vitamin D metabolites (TD97340; Harlan Teklad) that
results in undetectable circulating 25-hydroxyvitamin D levels[16]. VDR$^{-/-}$ mice (Vd$^{rtm1Mbd/J}$),
on C57BL6/J background, were weaned at 18 d on a diet that maintains normal mineral
ion homeostasis in the absence of VDR signaling (2% calcium, 1.25% phosphorus, 20%
lactose supplemented diet, TD96348; Harlan Teklad, Madison WI)[42].
689
BALB/c male and female mice were purchased from Charles River Laboratories at 6–8
weeks of age and fed with diets supplemented with varying amounts of vitamin-D3
(TD97340 was used as base diet and supplemented with either 400 IU vitamin D/kg, 1000
IU vitamin D/kg or 4000 IU vitamin D/kg). Mice were bred on the specific diets for two
generations to assure stabilization of vitamin D levels. Resulting F2 litters were used for
the experiments. Mice were housed under standard conditions with free access to rodent
chow and water. All animal protocols were reviewed and approved by the Harvard
Medical School standing committee on animals.
698
House dust mite induced-airway inflammation.
Mice were exposed to D. pteronyssinus extracts (Greer Laboratories, 10.52 EU/mg
endotoxin) via the intranasal application of HDM (25 µg in saline) on days 1,2,3, 8 to 15.
Control mice received equal volumes of saline (Hospira Inc., Lake Forest, IL, USA).

Twenty-four hours after the final challenge, mice were sacrificed, and specimens
sampled.
705
Bronchoalveolar Lavage.
Bronchoalveolar Lavage (BAL) was performed with 2 × 1 mL of PBS/0.02% bovine serum
albumin (BSA). The total number of leukocytes was determined using a TC20 Automated
Cell Counter (BioRad Systems). To differentiate cell types, cytospins were prepared and
stained with Kwik-Diff solutions as per manufacturer's instructions (Fisher Scientific) and
200 immune cells per slide were counted.
712
713   *Histological staining*
714   Lungs were perfusion fixed with zinc fixative (BD Pharmingen, San Diego, CA) Tissues
715   were paraffin embedded, divided into sections, and stained with hematoxylin and eosin
716   by MGH DF/HCC Specialized Histopathology Services Core Histology Core. After paraffin
717   embedment, 3-µm sections were stained with hematoxylin and eosin.
718
719   *Measurements of serum immunoglobulins*
720   Blood samples were collected 24 hours after the final aerosol challenge and serum was
721   prepared. Total IgE levels were measured by ELISA (Chondrex) according to
722   manufacturer's instructions.
723
Dissociation of mouse tissues, in vitro polarization of CD4 Th-subsets and flow cytometry
analyses.
Lungs were perfused via the right heart ventricle with PBS, excised, and digested with
collagenase D (2 mg/ml; Roche) in RPM 1640 (Sigma-Aldrich) for 30 minutes at 37°C.
The cell suspension was washed twice with PBS. Erythrocytes were removed by
hypotonic lysis. Cells were washed twice with PBS and sieved with 30-µm cell strainers
(Miltenyi Biotec). The resulting single cells suspension was used to detect leukocyte
populations (CD45 BV421 [clone: 104; Biolegend], CD4 PerCPeFluor710 [RM4-5;
eBioscience], CD8a APC-Cy7 [53-6.7; Biolegend], CD19 PE-Cy7 [6D5; Biolegend]) and
CD4+ Foxp3+ Treg (CD45 BV421, CD4 PerCPeFluor710, Foxp3 PE [FJK-16s; Thermo

Fisher]), VDR AlexaFluor647 (D2K6W; Cell Signaling Technologies), Aiolos PE (8B2;

Biolegend) and cytokine production by Th-cells (see below).

Spleens were excised and mononuclear cells were isolated using a syringe plunger and

100-µm cell strainers. Red blood cells were removed by hypotonic lysis. Tonicity was

restored by the addition of RPMI 1640 (Sigma Aldrich). The resulting cell suspension was

washed twice with PBS and used for the isolation of naïve CD4+ T cells according to the

manufacturer's instructions (Naive T Cell Isolation Kit II; Miltenyi Biotec). Naive CD4+ T

cell purity was assessed by staining for CD4 PerCPeFluor710 (clone: RM4-5), CD44 FITC

(IM7), and CD62L PE (mel-14).

Naïve T cells were activated with plate bound anti-CD3ε (5 µg/ml, clone: 145-2C11, BD

Biosciences) and soluble anti-CD28 (0.5 µg/ml, clone: 37.51, BD Biosciences). Th-subset

polarization was induced by exposing naïve CD4+Tcells to following culture conditions

for 3 days. Th1 cells: recombinant murine IL-12 (rmIL-12) (10 ng/mL; Peprotech), anti–

IL-4 (5 µg/mL; BD Biosciences); Th2 cells: rmIL-4 (20 ng/mL; Peprotech), anti–IFN-γ (5

µg/mL; BD Biosciences), and anti–IL-12 (5 µg/mL; BD Biosciences); Treg: rmTGFβ1 (2

ng/mL; Peprotech), anti–IL-4 (5 µg/mL), anti–IFN-γ (5 µg/mL) for 3 days. Proliferation of

Th1 and Th2 cells was induced using rmIL-2 (20 ng/mL; Peprotech) in the presence of

Th-polarizing reagents for an additional 2 days. Polarization efficiency was verified by

staining for intracellular cytokines (please see below) or Foxp3 expression (see above).

For intracellular cytokine staining, cells were stimulated with phorbol 12-myristate 13-

acetate (PMA)/ionomycin and brefeldin A (Cell Stimulation Cocktail; Tonbo Biosiences)

for 4 hours. Cells were fixed with Fixation Buffer (Biolegend). Cells were permeabilized

using 0.3% saponin in FACS buffer (0.5% FBS in PBS). Antibody staining was performed

for 30 minutes in the dark using CD4, IFN-γ (XMG1.2-FITC), IL-10 (JES5-16E3-PE), IL-

13 (eBio13A-eFluor660), IL-17A (TC11-18H10.1-PE-Cy7). Cells were washed twice with

permeabilization buffer and suspended in FACS buffer. For analysis, 30,000 counts (in

the CD4+ gate) were recorded on a FACSFortessa (BD Biosciences) and analyzed with

FlowJo software (v10; Tree Star).

Western blot analyses

Cells were lysed in 50 mmol/L Tris/HCl (pH 7.5), 150 mmol/L NaCl, 1% NP-40, and 1× protease and phosphatase inhibitor mix (both Roche) for 15 minutes on ice. Lysates were clarified, and total protein concentrations were measured with BCA (Pierce). Proteins (20 µg) were separated on gradient gels (Mini-PROTEAN® TGX; BioRad) and transferred on a Immun-Blot PVDF membrane (BioRad). Unspecific binding was blocked using 5 % milk powder in TBST for 30 min. Anti-VDR (D2K6W, 1:1000; Cell Signaling Technologies, CST) was incubated in 0.5 % milk powder in TBST overnight at 4° C. Membranes were washed 3 times with TBST and incubated with secondary anti-rabbit IgG, HRP-linked Antibody (#7074; CST) for 2 hours. To control for equal loading, membranes was probed for β-actin (AC-15; 1:10,000; Sigma-Aldrich) expression for 2 hrs. at RT. Protein bands were visualized with Luminol reagent (Pierce) using the ChemiDoc XRS+system (BioRad).

Immunofluorescence staining for confocal microscopy

In vitro polarized Th2 cells (see above) were stimulated with 100 nm calcitriol (in ethanol) or ethanol [equal v/v] for the final 24 hrs of culture. Cells were washed twice with PBS and spun onto poly-L-lysine coated glass slides. After drying, cells were fixed with 4 % PFA in PBS for 15 min. Cells were permeabilized using 0.2% Triton X-100 in PBS for 20 min. Cells were washed 3 times for 5 min with PBS and incubated with Image-iT FX Signal Enhancer (Thermo Fisher Scientific) for 30 min at RT. After three consecutive washes with PBS, unspecific binding was blocked using blocking buffer (PBS/5 % goat serum/0.3 % Triton X-100) for 60 min at RT. Primary antibodies directed against CD4-FITC (clone; 1:100, BD Biosciences), VDR (D2K6W; 1: 200, CST) were incubated in a humidified chamber over night at 4° C. After 3 washes with PBS, slides were incubated with the secondary reagent, anti-rabbit-Cy3 (1:500; Thermo) for 30 min at RT in the dark. After three more washes with PBS, slides were mounted with ProLong Gold with DAPI according to manufacturer's instructions (Invitrogen). Images were acquired in a single z-plane using a Zeiss immunofluorescence microscope with a 40x objective.

Total RNA isolation, quality control, and RNA-sequencing analysis.

Total RNA was isolated using TRIzol™ Reagent (Invitrogen) according to the
manufacturer's instructions. Quality was assessed using the Nanodrop 8000
spectrophotometer. Sequencing libraries were constructed with the TruSeq® Stranded
Total RNA Library Prep Globin Kit (Illumina). Sequencing was performed using a HiSeq.
2500 instrument (Illumina). Trimmed reads were mapped to the GRCm38 reference
genome using STAR[39]. Read counts were computed with htseq[40]. Data were normalized
and differential expression was analyzed with the R package DESeq2 (v.1.34.0) [43] using
a false discovery rate (FDR) < 0.05.
804

805   *Pathway enrichment, Overrepresentation and Gene Set Enrichment analysis.*
806   KEGG pathway, overrepresentation and gene set enrichment analyses were performed
807   with the "enrichKEGG", "enrichr" and "GSEA" function in the R package "clusterProfiler"
808   (v.3.10.1) with default settings [44]. P-values were adjusted using the BH-FDR correction
809   and enriched terms with a p-adj.<0.05 selected.
810

Network analysis
RNA-Sequencing data extracted from murine Th2 cells were analyzed using the R
package DESeq2 (v.1.22.2) [43]. Raw counts were normalized and transformed for variance
stabilization using the DESeq2 function rlog (regularized-logarithm transformation). Batch
effects were removed using the function removeBatchEffect of the R package LIMMA[45].
Gene with counts lower than 5 in at least one sample were removed for downstream
analyses.
818

819   Differential expression analysis was performed between control Th2 cells versus calcitriol
820   stimulated Th2 cells using DeSeq2 [43]. The design matrix was built to consider batch
821   effects derived from the RNA isolation process. DESeq2-independent filtering was
822   applied [43] and P values were corrected for multiple hypothesis testing by using the
823   Benjamini-Hochberg (BH)-FDR adjustment [46].
824

The PPI network used in our network analysis was developed by Silverbush et al. [17]. As
described in the original paper, this human PPI network was reconstructed by integrating

large scale PPI databases, drug response repositories, and cancer genomics data. Only
the largest connected component of the network was considered, resulting in an
interactome of 15,500 proteins and 234,585 consensus-oriented interactions. Conversion
between murine and human gene IDs was performed using the BioMart conversion tool
[47]. We also assumed a one-to-one correspondence between genes and their protein
products in the entire analysis.

To identify the active signaling paths in control and calcitriol stimulated Th2 cells, we
modelled the transmission of the molecular signal as a sequential path on the PPI network
(called a network path) that starts from a receptor, connects the receptor to multiple
intermediate proteins, and leads to a transcription factor. Receptors and transcription
factors were selected from a predefined list based on their role in Th2 cell biology and IL-
2 expression (Extended Data Table 8). CD3, CD28, IL-4R, IL-13R were selected based
on their role in Th2 differentiation. The IL-2R complex was included due to being a target
of vitamin D signaling. TGFβRs were selected based on the immunomodulatory activity
of this signaling path in CD4+ T cells. role in mediating immunoregulation. Using this
subset of receptors and transcription factors as input for the implementation of our
network analysis, we computed all the shortest paths connecting each receptor-
transcription factor pair on the PPI network. For both control and calcitriol stimulated Th2
cells, we ranked each network path based on the average expression of the path's nodes.
The top selected paths represent the most active downstream processes in Th2 cells in
each condition.

mRNA isolation, reverse transcription, and real-time RT-PCR.
Total RNA from in vitro polarized Th2 cells was isolated with the RNeasy Mini Kit
(Qiagen). First-strand cDNA synthesis was performed with the Omniscript kit (Qiagen).
Quantitative real-time PCR was performed with the SsoFast EvaGreen Supermix Kit
(BioRad) on a AriaMx Real-time PCR System (Agilent) as per manufacturer's instructions.
Primers sequences used in this study are listed in Extended Data Table 9. Relative gene
expression levels were calculated with the $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ method, with normalization to the murine
ribosomal L32 as the housekeeping gene. Data are presented as fold induction over the

respective control groups (vehicle or WT). All standard procedures were performed
according to the manufacturer's instructions.
860
Quantification and statistical analysis.
For each figure the number of replicates per experiment is indicated in the corresponding
figure legend. In the figures, mean and standard error of the mean (s.e.m.) are presented
and error bars represent the mean ± s.e.m. Two group comparisons were analyzed using
unpaired two-tailed Student's t-tests (parametric data) and Mann–Whitney U-test (non-
parametric data). Multiple group comparisons were analyzed with Kruskal-Wallis and
One-way ANOVA test with Tukey's post hoc analysis. *In vivo* experiments were analyzed
using Mixed-effect analysis or Two-way ANOVA test with Holm-Šidák's post-hoc analysis
(factors: genotype & exposure, diet & exposure). Prism 9.2 (GraphPad Software) was
used to calculate statistics. P values of less than 0.05 were considered statistically
significant.
872

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Contributions
A.K. and S.T.W. designed the experiments, analyzed data, and wrote the manuscript.
A.K., M.G.D., T.R.B., J.R.Q., A.O.S, J.K., T.N., H.Y.P., N.K. and R.E.A performed
experiments. A.H., E.M., M.D.M. and R. C. analyzed data. M.D. and K.G. provided critical
mouse lines and scientific input. A.A.L. assisted on VDAART related analyses. H.R. and

B.D.L. supervised experiments and provided critical scientific input. All authors critically
reviewed the manuscript.
890

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892 **Competing interest**
893 Dr. Weiss receives royalties from UpToDate and is an investor in Histolix. All other
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895

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1040

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

a   gating strategy

total lung cells

SSC-A / FSC-A

CD45+

SSC-A / CD45-BV421

Live CD45+ cells

CD45-BV421 / Live/dead-BV605

Singlets

SSC-A / FSC-W

CD8a-APC-Cy7 / CD4-PerCP-eF710

saline

CD4-PerCP-eF710 / VDR-AF647

HDM

CD19-PE-Cy7 / CD4-PerCP-eF710

b

	CD45-BV421	CD4 PerCP-eF710	CD8 APC-Cy7	CD19 PE-Cy7
saline	1.46	0.84	0.08	0.11
HDM	9.06	16.1	0.32	0.47

VDR- AF647

VDR$^+$ (%)

□ saline   ■ HDM

*

CD45   CD4   CD19   CD8a

c   gated on CD45+ CD4+

saline   HDM

Foxp3 PE / VDR- AF647

Extended Data Figure 2

a

naive   CD4+

WT | VDR⁻/⁻ | 0h | 48h | Th1 | Th2 | iTreg

VDR

β-actin

b

days

Th0 | 1 2 3 5

VDR

β - actin

c

EtOH

DAPI   CD4   VDR

5µm   5µm   5µm

calcitriol

DAPI   CD4   VDR

b

Extended Data Figure 7

a

diets:
400 IU (low) /
1000 IU (regular)/
4000 IU (high)
Vitamin D / kg chow

b

Extended Data Figure 9

Loading order:
1- marker
2- empty
3- WT kidney sample: positive control
4- VDR-/- kidney sample: negative control
5- CD4+ CD62L+CD44- naïve T cells fresh
6- Th0 cells (24 h CD3 & CD28 stimulation)
7- in vitro Th1
8- in vitro Th2
9- in vitro iTreg
10- WT kidney sample: positive control
11- VDR-/- kidney sample: negative control

Supplementary Figure 1

VDR

β - actin

Loading order:
1- marker
2- empty
3- CD4+ CD62L+CD44- naïve T cells fresh
4- in vitro differentiating Th2 day 1
5- in vitro differentiating Th2 day 2
6- in vitro differentiating Th2 day 3
7- in vitro differentiating Th2 day 5
8- empty
9- WT lung sample: positive control
10- VDR-/- lung sample: negative control

Supplementary Figure 2