Autophagy functions in lung macrophages and dendritic cells to regulate allergen-dependent

inflammatory responses

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ABSTRACT

Asthma affects 260 million people worldwide, with severe asthma cases that are associated with

T_H17/T_H1 responses and neutrophil dominated inflammation being the most difficult to treat due

to corticosteroid insensitivity. Single nucleotide polymorphisms in the *ATG5* gene, which encodes

for a protein required for the cellular recycling process of autophagy, are associated with higher

risk for developing severe asthma. However, the role for ATG5 during allergic inflammation

remains mostly unknown. We have identified an autophagy-dependent role for ATG5 in lung

macrophages and dendritic cells (DCs) for suppressing T_H17 responses and neutrophil

accumulation in house dust mite (HDM)-challenged mice, a T_H17/T_H1 dominated model for

allergic airway inflammation due to contamination of the HDM with lipopolysaccharide. In

contrast, autophagy was required to promote eosinophil accumulation in the T_H2-dominated

ovalbumin model of allergic airway inflammation, supporting a model where autophagy functions

in lung macrophages and DCs to suppress T_H17 responses and promote T_H2 responses in an

allergen-dependent manner. In addition, we discover that autophagy is also required in

macrophages exposed to HDM to suppress the secretion of cytokines and chemokines that would

otherwise recruit neutrophils to the lungs, independent of T cell responses. Together, our data

identify multiple roles for autophagy in suppressing the neutrophil accumulation in lungs that is

associated with severe asthma.

INTRODUCTION

Asthma affects nearly 260 million people worldwide[1] and involves a deleterious inflammatory

response that results in immune cell infiltration in the lungs, bronchoconstriction, airway

remodeling, and airway hyperresponsiveness (AHR)[2]. Asthma and allergic airway inflammation

occurs in response to a wide variety of substances called allergens that induce varying levels of

immune hypersensitivity[3]. The most prevalent form of asthma is associated with T_H2 responses

signaled through airway epithelial cell-derived alarmins IL-33 and IL-25, which stimulate the

production of IL-4, IL-5, IL-13, and TGF-β cytokines by airway cells and an influx of eosinophils

and mast cells, along with other inflammatory cells, into the lungs[4–6]. Although this form of the

disease is usually less severe and responsive to conventional corticosteroid therapy[4], asthma can

also present with other distinct immunological and pathological features[7–9]. In particular, 5-

15% of the total asthma cases involve a T_H17-dominated response, leading to neutrophil

recruitment and accumulation in the lungs[10,11]. Increased accumulation of neutrophils is

associated with severe asthma[10,11], which is clinically defined by resistance to corticosteroid

therapy[8,12–14]. In addition, T_H1 responses mediated by interferon-γ (IFN-γ) production by

CD4$^+$ T cells are also associated with severe asthma cases[15,16]. The association of heightened

T_H17 responses, T_H1 responses, and neutrophil accumulation with AHR and corticosteroid

resistance has been reported during severe asthma in both mice and humans[14–17].

A better understanding of the immunological processes that contribute to severe asthma is

required to develop alternative therapies for when corticosteroids fail. Several studies attempting

to map genetic associations with asthma have identified a link between the *ATG5* gene and

susceptibility to severe asthma. A single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) in the third intron of the

ATG5 gene (rs12212740, alleles G/A, minor variant: G) was associated with lower pre-

bronchodilator forced expiratory volume (FEV1) and a risk of moderate to severe asthma in non-

Hispanic Caucasian children[18]. In a separate genome wide association study, a SNP in the 5'

untranslated region (UTR)/annotated promoter region of the *ATG5* gene (rs510432, alleles G/A,

minor variant: G) was associated with increased risk of asthma in children[19]. The G variant allele

of SNP rs510432 results in increased promoter activity and higher expression of *ATG5* mRNA in

nasal mucosal cells isolated from the children with acute asthma compared to non-acute and

healthy controls. Another study reported the association of the G variant allele of SNP rs510432

with increased sputum neutrophil counts in adult asthma patients, establishing a correlation

between dysregulated *ATG5* expression and neutrophil recruitment during asthma[20].

73   ATG5 is essential for the process of autophagy, which involves multiple protein complexes

that target cytosolic components and organelles to the lysosome for degradation[21–23]. The

ULK1 complex (ULK1/ULK2, ATG13, FIP200, ATG101) and PI3 kinase complex (ATG14,

BECLIN1, VPS15, and VPS34) initiate autophagy by generating a phagophore from the

membranes of the endoplasmic reticulum[24,25]. Elongation of the autophagosomal double

membrane depends on two ubiquitin-like conjugation systems. In the first system, ATG12 is

activated by ATG7, transferred to ATG10, and covalently attached to ATG5. In the second system,

LC3 (microtubule-associated protein 1 light chain 3) is conjugated to phosphatidylethanolamine

to generate the membrane bound form LC3-II through the actions of ATG7, ATG3, and the ATG5-

ATG12/ATG16L complex[25,26]. The autophagosome membrane is then completed and targeted

for fusion with the lysosome, where the autophagosome cargo are degraded. Several studies have

reported that the expression of genes required for autophagy, including *ATG5*, are elevated in the

lungs of asthma patients compared to non-asthmatic individuals[27–29]. Furthermore, LC3-II

expression is increased in the sputum granulocytes from severe asthma patients compared to non-

severe asthma patients[20,30]. Despite the genetic associations of ATG5 and autophagy with

severe asthma, the precise roles for autophagy during asthma have remained elusive. Several

experimental studies have implicated both deleterious and protective functions of autophagy

during asthma[31], creating uncertainty in the field. There are likely multiple contributors to the

discrepancies. For example, in most of the experimental studies so far, the interpretations were

largely made based on pleiotropic chemical treatments that impact autophagy, among other

pathways[32–38]. In addition, autophagy likely plays cell-type specific roles during exposure to

allergens, which may complicate studies that use chemical treatments or globally knockdown
autophagy gene expression[14].

Innate immune cells are a primary contributor to lung inflammation during asthma and
ATG5 has been shown to function both dependent and independent of autophagy to regulate
inflammatory responses in innate immune cells during infection[21,22,39–42]. However, studies
into the roles for autophagy specifically in innate immune cells during asthma and allergic airway
inflammation have been limited. In the one study that focused on ATG5 in innate immune cells,
loss of *Atg5* in hematopoietic cells was sufficient to cause increased neutrophils and macrophages
in bronchoalveolar lavages (BAL), increased AHR, and higher levels of IL-17 and IL-1β in
response to house dust mites (HDM) challenge in mice[14]. When *Atg5*-deficient bone marrow
cells were cultured in the presence of GM-CSF to generate a mixed culture of dendritic cells (DCs),
macrophages, and granulocytes, and treated with HDM, the cells produced higher levels of IL-1α,
IL-1β, IL-23, and caspase-1 as compared to wild type (WT) GM-CSF cultures. $Atg5^{-/-}$ GM-CSF
cultures also caused a higher level of IL-17 production in a co-culture with $CD4^{+}$ T cells as
compared to WT GM-CSF cultures. Transfer of $Atg5^{-/-}$ GM-CSF cultured cells loaded with HDM
into WT mice intratracheally resulted in increased neutrophilic inflammation and IL-17 production
as compared to transfer of WT GM-CSF cultured cells, indicating that ATG5 is important to
control neutrophil recruitment in response to HDM exposure. These studies support a role for
ATG5 in innate immune cells to control neutrophilic inflammation during allergic challenge.
However, it is still unknown which innate immune cell types specifically require ATG5 and
whether its role in controlling neutrophilic inflammation during allergic challenge is dependent on
autophagy, since ATG5 and other autophagy proteins have been shown to function outside of
autophagy to regulate inflammation[21,23,41,42]. To address these gaps in understanding, we used
genetic tools to dissect the autophagy-dependent and independent roles for ATG5 in specific innate
immune cells in two allergic airway inflammation mice models. We find that autophagy is
specifically required in $CD11c^{+}$ lung macrophages and DCs to shift the balance away from T_H17
responses and towards T_H2 responses in an allergen-dependent manner. In addition, autophagy
functions in macrophages in a T cell-independent manner to suppress pathogen associated
molecular pattern (PAMP)-triggered cytokine and chemokine production that would otherwise
recruit neutrophils to the lung. Thus, autophagy impacts multiple different processes within innate
immune cells that are important for regulating inflammation in response to exposure to allergens.

RESULTS

ATG5 is required in LysM$^+$ cells to promote eosinophilia and to suppress neutrophilia in airways following allergen exposure

The role of ATG5 and autophagy in specific innate immune cell types during asthma has yet to be tested since all prior work was done with general administration of pleiotropic and non-cell type specific treatments[28,32,36,37] or using cell cultures containing a mixed population of cell types[14]. To determine if ATG5 functions in innate immune cells during allergic airway inflammation, we used *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* mice[21,39,43,44], which specifically delete *Atg5* in monocytes, macrophages, neutrophils, and some DCs. Flow cytometric analysis of the immune cell populations in the naïve mouse lungs showed that the only cell type that was significantly different in its abundance in the *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* and *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$* mice was a higher number of non-alveolar macrophages in the lungs *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* mice compared to the *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$* mice (**Figure S1A**). Whereas, the numbers of neutrophils, eosinophils, alveolar macrophages, DCs, inflammatory monocytes, naïve CD4$^+$ T cells (CD44$^-$CD62L$^+$), activated CD4$^+$ T cells (CD44$^+$CD62L$^-$), regulatory T cells (T$_{regs}$) (CD4$^+$CD25$^+$), and CD8$^+$ T cells were similar between the between *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* and *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$* mice (**Figure S1A**). To determine the role of ATG5 during allergic airway inflammation, we performed an ovalbumin (OVA) induced allergic airway inflammation model[45] (**Figure 1A**), which induces a T$_H$2-dominanted allergic inflammatory response in lungs. We sensitized the *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* mice and *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$* control mice by intraperitoneal (i.p.) administration of 50 μg purified OVA coupled with an aluminum potassium sulfate adjuvant (alum) on days 0, 7, and 14, before challenging the mice intranasally (i.n.) with 1 mg OVA on days 20, 21, and 22. Analysis of the immune cell populations in the lungs on day 23 compared to naïve mice confirmed that both eosinophils and neutrophils were recruited to the lungs in response to the OVA challenge, but the inflammatory response to OVA challenge was dominated by eosinophils in the *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$* mice (**Figures 1B-C, S1A**), as would be expected in a T$_H$2 dominant model. There was no difference in the number of neutrophils in the lungs of OVA-challenged *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* and *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$* mice (**Figure 1C**). However, OVA-challenged *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* mice accumulated significantly lower numbers of eosinophils in the lungs compared to *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$* mice (**Figures 1B-C**), suggesting a shift away from T$_H$2 responses. OVA-challenged *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* mice also accumulated significantly lower numbers of non-alveolar

macrophages, DCs, and CD4$^+$ T cells in the lungs compared to OVA-challenged *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$* mice

(**Figure 1C**). There were no differences in the number of alveolar macrophages, inflammatory

monocytes, B cells, CD8$^+$ T cells, and T$_{regs}$ in the lungs of OVA-challenged *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* and

Atg5$^{fl/fl}$ mice (**Figure S1B**). We also analyzed immune cell accumulation specifically in the

airways by instilling a fluorescently labeled αCD45.2 antibody into the airways before analysis by

flow cytometry. The airways of OVA-challenged *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* mice contained significantly

fewer eosinophils and a higher number of neutrophils and B cells compared to OVA-challenged

Atg5$^{fl/fl}$ mice (**Figures 1D, S1C**), whereas the number of the other immune cell types analyzed

were similar between OVA-challenged *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* and *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$* mice (**Figure S1C**).

The data from OVA-challenged *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* and *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$* mice indicates that ATG5 is

required in LysM$^+$ cells to promote eosinophilia and suppress neutrophilia in the airways during a

T$_H$2-dominated allergic inflammatory response. To determine how ATG5 would impact immune

responses in a T$_H$17/T$_H$1-dominated model for allergic airway inflammation, we used an intranasal

HDM challenge model where lipopolysaccharide (LPS) contamination of the HDM has been

shown to drive a primarily T$_H$17/T$_H$1-dominated response[46–48]. In this model, which is similar

to as used in the prior study that exposed tamoxifen inducible global *Atg5$^{-/-}$* mice to HDM and

reported increased neutrophilic inflammation in the airways of *Atg5$^{-/-}$* mice[14], HDM

administered intranasally is sensed directly by innate immune cells in the lung through several

pattern recognition receptors[49–51]. In addition, residual LPS contamination in the HDM is

sensed by TLR4 and the DerP2 antigen in HDM mimics MD2, a TLR4 co-stimulatory molecule

that confers hypersensitivity to LPS, together skewing T cell responses towards a T$_H$1/T$_H$17

response[46,47,52]. We challenged the *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* and *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$* mice with HDM intranasally

on days 0, 7 and 14 before analyzing immune cell infiltrates in the lungs and airways on day 15

by flow cytometry (**Figure 1E**). HDM challenge resulted in the accumulation of a higher number

of neutrophils than eosinophils in the lungs and airways of both *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* and *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$*

mice (**Figures 1F-H, S1A**), consistent with HDM eliciting a T$_H$17/T$_H$1-dominated allergic airway

inflammatory response. Unlike in the T$_H$2-dominated OVA model, there was no difference in the

number of eosinophils that accumulated in the lungs or airways of HDM-challenged *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-*

Cre and *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$* mice (**Figure 1G-H**). In contrast, HDM-challenged *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* mice

accumulated significantly more neutrophils in the lungs and airways than HDM-challenged *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$*

controls **(Figures 1F-H)**. HDM challenge of *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* mice also resulted in the

accumulation of significantly more non-alveolar macrophages, DCs, inflammatory monocytes,

activated CD4$^+$ T cells, and T$_{regs}$ in the lungs as compared to *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$* controls **(Figures 1G)**,

although the numbers of non-alveolar macrophages, DCs, inflammatory monocytes, activated

CD4$^+$ T cells, and T$_{regs}$ in the airways of OVA-challenged *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* and *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$* mice were

similar **(Figure S1D)**. There were no differences in the numbers of alveolar macrophages, B cells,

naïve CD4$^+$ T cells, and CD8$^+$ T cells in the lungs or airways of HDM-challenged *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-*

Cre and *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$* mice **(Figure S1D-E)**. Together, these data indicate that loss of ATG5 expression

in LysM$^+$ cells results in an enhanced inflammatory response to HDM challenge. Indeed, when we

performed histological analysis with hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) staining of lung sections from

the HDM challenged *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* and *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$* mice, we observed a greater area of cellular

infiltrate in the lungs of HDM-challenged *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* mice compared to *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$* mice

(Figures 1I-J, S1F), supportive of an increased inflammatory response in the lungs.

The heightened neutrophil-dominated inflammatory response in the airways of HDM-challenged

Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre mice suggests that the mice are experiencing a more severe allergic reaction to

the HDM. A characteristic feature of airway allergic reactions is the accumulation of mucus in the

lungs, which increases with the severity of the allergic reaction[53]. We assessed the accumulation

of neutral mucins (glycoproteins in mucus) in the airways of the HDM-challenged mice by staining

with the periodic acid-schiff (PAS) dye and observed that a significantly greater area of the lung

was PAS positive in HDM-challenged *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* mice compared to *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$* controls

(Figures 1K-L, S1G). Therefore, the lung pathology in HDM-challenged *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* mice

is consistent with a more severe airway allergic reaction. These data demonstrate that ATG5

expression is required in LysM$^+$ cells to suppress neutrophil-dominated inflammation in the

airways of mice challenged with HDM.

ATG5 expression in innate immune cells promotes T$_H$2 responses and suppresses T$_H$17

responses during allergic airway inflammation

Eosinophil and neutrophil recruitment to the airways following allergen exposure is generally

associated with T$_H$2 and T$_H$17/T$_H$1 mediated immune responses, respectively[9,46,52,54]. We

investigated whether the differences in eosinophil and neutrophil recruitment to the airways of

allergen challenged $Atg5^{fl/fl}$-*LysM-Cre* and $Atg5^{fl/fl}$ mice reflected variances in the numbers of T$_H$2

versus T$_H$17 and T$_H$1 cells by analyzing the expression of transcription factors that are associated

with specific CD4$^+$ T helper cell subsets. Specifically, we identified the CD4$^+$ T cell populations

expressing RORγt, GATA3, or T-bet by flow cytometry to quantify T$_H$17, T$_H$2, and T$_H$1 cells,

respectively. Similar to our prior analyses **(Figure 1C)**, the lungs of OVA-challenged $Atg5^{fl/fl}$-

LysM-Cre mice contained significantly fewer CD4$^+$ T cells compared to OVA-challenged $Atg5^{fl/fl}$

mice (**Figure 2A**), where specifically the numbers of GATA3$^+$ and T-bet$^+$, but not RORγt$^+$, CD4$^+$

T cells were significantly lower in the lungs of the OVA-challenged $Atg5^{fl/fl}$-*LysM-Cre* mice

compared to OVA-challenged $Atg5^{fl/fl}$ mice (**Figure 2B**). Therefore, the decreased number of

eosinophils recruited to the airways of OVA-challenged $Atg5^{fl/fl}$-*LysM-Cre* mice compared to

OVA-challenged $Atg5^{fl/fl}$ mice **(Figure 1B-D)** correlates with a decreased number of T$_H$2 and T$_H$1

cells in the lungs of $Atg5^{fl/fl}$-*LysM-Cre* mice.

The significantly increased numbers of CD4$^+$ T cells in the lungs of HDM-challenged $Atg5^{fl/fl}$-

LysM-Cre mice compared to HDM-challenged $Atg5^{fl/fl}$ mice (**Figures 1G, 2C**) was comprised of

significantly higher numbers of RORγt$^+$ CD4$^+$ T cells (**Figure 2D**), without differences in the

numbers of GATA3$^+$ or T-bet$^+$ CD4$^+$ T cells between the genotypes (**Figure 2D**). Thus, the

increased number of neutrophils recruited to the airways of HDM-challenged $Atg5^{fl/fl}$-*LysM-Cre*

mice compared to HDM-challenged $Atg5^{fl/fl}$ mice **(Figure 1B-D)** correlates with an increased

number of T$_H$17 cells in the lungs of $Atg5^{fl/fl}$-*LysM-Cre* mice. To specifically determine if the

increased accumulation of neutrophils and RORγt$^+$ CD4$^+$ T cells in lungs of HDM-challenged

$Atg5^{fl/fl}$-*LysM-Cre* mice was accompanied by increased IL-17 expression from T cells, we crossed

the $Atg5^{fl/fl}$-*LysM-Cre* and $Atg5^{fl/fl}$ mice with an IL-17 reporter mouse[55] (*Il17a*^{eGFP}, Jackson

Laboratory) that expresses GFP as a proxy of IL-17, generating $Atg5^{fl/fl}$-*LysM-Cre/Il17a*^{eGFP} and

$Atg5^{fl/fl}$/*Il17a*^{eGFP} mice. Following HDM challenge, we detected a similar increase in the abundance

of neutrophils and activated CD4$^+$ T cells in $Atg5^{fl/fl}$-*LysM-Cre/Il17a*^{eGFP} mice compared to

$Atg5^{fl/fl}$/*Il17a*^{eGFP} controls (**Figure 2E**) as observed in the $Atg5^{fl/fl}$-*LysM-Cre* and $Atg5^{fl/fl}$ parent

strains (**Figures 1E-F).** We monitored GFP expression from immune cells following HDM

challenge of $Atg5^{fl/fl}$-*LysM-Cre/Il17a*^{eGFP} and $Atg5^{fl/fl}$/*Il17a*^{eGFP} mice using flow cytometry and

found that the only cell types positive for GFP were CD4$^+$ T cells. A higher percentage of total

CD4$^+$ T cells, activated CD4$^+$ T cells, and T$_{regs}$ expressed GFP in HDM-challenged $Atg5^{fl/fl}$-*LysM-*

Cre/Il17a^{eGFP} mice compared to *Atg5*^{fl/fl}/*Il17a*^{eGFP} mice **(Figure 2F)**, which reflected a higher number of GFP$^+$ activated CD4$^+$ T cells and T$_{regs}$ in the lungs of HDM-challenged *Atg5*^{fl/fl}-*LysM-Cre/Il17a*^{eGFP} mice compared to HDM-challenged *Atg5*^{fl/fl}/*Il17a*^{eGFP} controls **(Figure 2G)**. Based on mean fluorescence intensity (MFI), the activated CD4$^+$ T cells in *Atg5*^{fl/fl}-*LysM-Cre/Il17a*^{eGFP} mice also expressed more GFP and, as a proxy, IL-17 per cell than activated CD4$^+$ T cells from *Atg5*^{fl/fl}/*Il17a*^{eGFP} mice following HDM challenge **(Figure 2H)**. These data indicate that loss of *Atg5* in LysM$^+$ cells results in increased IL-17 expression from activated CD4$^+$ T cells, likely reflecting the increased number of RORγt$^+$ CD4$^+$ T cells. A higher T$_H$17/T$_{reg}$ ratio is also associated with increased asthma severity, increased AHR, and corticosteroid-refractory asthma[56–60]. Indeed, we observed an increased ratio of IL-17$^+$ CD4$^+$ T cells to T$_{regs}$ in HDM-challenged *Atg5*^{fl/fl}-*LysM-Cre/Il17a*^{eGFP} mice compared to HDM-challenged *Atg5*^{fl/fl}/*Il17a*^{eGFP} controls **(Figure 2I)**, supporting that loss of *Atg5* in myeloid cells results in a CD4$^+$ T cell imbalance that is associated with increased asthma severity[56,57,59]. Together, our data demonstrate that ATG5 is required in innate immune cells to promote T$_H$2 responses in OVA-challenged mice and to suppress T$_H$17 responses in HDM-challenged mice.

Increased T$_H$17 responses in HDM-challenged *Atg5*^{fl/fl}-*LysM-Cre* mice are partially responsible for the increased neutrophil accumulation

To investigate how ATG5 regulates inflammatory responses during exposure to airway allergens, we further dissected the role for ATG5 in the HDM challenge model. Given the association of T$_H$17 responses with increased neutrophil accumulation during asthma, we investigated whether the increased T$_H$17 responses in the lungs of HDM-challenged *Atg5*^{fl/fl}-*LysM-Cre* mice contributed to the accompanying increased neutrophil accumulation. To investigate the role of T cells in the neutrophil accumulation, we depleted T cells in HDM-challenged *Atg5*^{fl/fl}-*LysM-Cre* and *Atg5*^{fl/fl} mice by administering 250 μg each of αCD4 and αCD8 neutralizing antibodies intraperitoneally 2 days before (day -2) the first HDM challenge and again on days 5 and 12 post the initial HDM challenge (**Figure 3A**). Separate groups of HDM-challenged mice received 500 μg of isotype control antibodies on the same schedule to serve as controls. Flow cytometric analysis of immune cell populations in the lungs at 15 days following the first HDM dose confirmed efficient T cell depletion in the *Atg5*^{fl/fl}-*LysM-Cre* and *Atg5*^{fl/fl} mice treated with αCD4 and αCD8 antibodies (**Figure 3B**). Similar to prior experiments **(Figures 1F-G)**, HDM-challenged *Atg5*^{fl/fl}-*LysM-Cre*

mice that received the isotype control antibody accumulated higher numbers of neutrophils in the

lungs compared to HDM-challenged *Atg5fl/fl* mice that received the isotype control (**Figure 3C**).

T cell depletion significantly decreased the number of neutrophils in the lungs of HDM-challenged

Atg5fl/fl-LysM-Cre mice (**Figure 3C**), demonstrating that T cells contribute to the neutrophil

accumulation in HDM-challenged *Atg5fl/fl-LysM-Cre* mice. However, even after T cell depletion,

the neutrophil numbers were still higher in the lungs of HDM-challenged *Atg5fl/fl-LysM-Cre* mice

than observed in the lungs of HDM-challenged *Atg5fl/fl* mice (**Figure 3C**). These data suggest that

although T cells contribute to neutrophil accumulation in response to HDM challenge, there exists

a T cell-independent process that also promotes neutrophil accumulation in the lungs of HDM-

challenged *Atg5fl/fl-LysM-Cre* mice.

To investigate the effects of T cell depletion on T_H1, T_H2, and T_H17 responses, we monitored the

levels of IFN-γ, IL-5, and IL-17, respectively, in the lungs of HDM-challenged *Atg5fl/fl-LysM-Cre*

and *Atg5fl/fl* mice following T cell depletion versus treatment with isotype control antibodies.

Within the isotype control antibody treated groups, we observed significantly higher levels of IL-

17 in the lungs of HDM-challenged *Atg5fl/fl-LysM-Cre* mice compared to the *Atg5fl/fl* controls

(**Figure 3D**), but no differences in the levels of IFN-γ and IL-5 (**Figure 3E, F**). This is consistent

with the higher number of RORγt$^+$ T_H17 cells, but no differences in the numbers of GATA3$^+$ T_H2

or T-bet$^+$ T_H1 cells, in the lungs of HDM-challenged *Atg5fl/fl-LysM-Cre* mice compares to HDM-

challenged *Atg5fl/fl* mice (**Figure 2D**). T cell depletion significantly reduced the elevated IL-17

levels in the lungs of HDM-challenged *Atg5fl/fl-LysM-Cre* mice to the levels observed in the HDM-

challenged *Atg5fl/fl* mice (**Figure 3D**). Consistent with the data from the *Atg5fl/fl-LysM-*

Cre/Il17a^{eGFP} mice (**Figure 2**), these studies support that T cells are the primary source of IL-17

during HDM challenge and indicate that ATG5 specifically suppresses T_H17 responses in response

to HDM challenge. T cell depletion also reduced the levels of IFN-γ in the lungs of HDM-

challenged *Atg5fl/fl* mice to below the limit of detection, but did not affect the IFN-γ levels in the

HDM-challenged *Atg5fl/fl-LysM-Cre* mice (**Figure 3E**). These data suggest that while T cells are

the major source of IFN-γ in HDM-challenged *Atg5fl/fl* mice, IFN-γ is produced independently of

T cells in HDM-challenged *Atg5fl/fl-LysM-Cre*.

The T cell depletion studies indicate that enhanced T_H17 responses contribute to the enhanced

neutrophil accumulation in the lungs of HDM-challenged $Atg5^{fl/fl}$-$LysM$-Cre mice. To directly

examine the role of IL-17 signaling, we intraperitoneally administered 100 µg of an antibody that

binds and blocks IL-17 1 day before the first HDM challenge (day -1) and again on days 1, 3, 5,

6, 8, 10, 12, and 13 following the initial HDM challenge **(Figure 3G).** Separate groups of HDM-

challenged mice received 100 µg of isotype control antibodies on the same schedule to serve as

controls. Blocking IL-17 signaling significantly reduced the number of neutrophils accumulating

in the lungs of HDM-challenged $Atg5^{fl/fl}$-$LysM$-Cre mice **(Figure 3H)**, to a similar degree as

observed during T cell depletion in HDM-challenged $Atg5^{fl/fl}$-$LysM$-Cre mice **(Figure 3C).** This

supports that elevated T_H17 responses contribute to increased neutrophil accumulation in the lungs

of HDM-challenged $Atg5^{fl/fl}$-$LysM$-Cre mice. However, similar to as observed during T cell

depletion **(Figure 3C)**, the neutrophil numbers remained higher in the lungs of HDM-challenged

$Atg5^{fl/fl}$-$LysM$-Cre mice than observed in HDM-challenged $Atg5^{fl/fl}$ mice following αIL-17

treatment **(Figure 3H)**. Therefore, ATG5 inhibits neutrophil accumulation during HDM challenge

in part through suppressing T_H17 responses, but also through another T cell-independent

mechanism.

ATG5 is required in macrophages to control the expression of neutrophil recruitment signals

during exposure to HDM

A T cell-independent inflammatory process that is negatively regulated by autophagy in innate

immune cells is inflammasome activation[61–63]. Several reports have demonstrated a role for the

NLRP3 (nucleotide-binding oligomerization domain-like Receptor Family Pyrin Domain

Containing 3) inflammasome pathway, which catalyzes caspase-1 dependent release of pro-

inflammatory cytokines IL-1β and IL-18, during severe allergic inflammation[64–67]. In addition,

$Atg5^{-/-}$ bone marrow cells cultured in GM-CSF produce higher levels of IL-1β than wild-type

cultures following exposure to HDM *in vitro*[14]. We measured the levels of IL-1β in the lungs of

HDM-challenged $Atg5^{fl/fl}$-$LysM$-Cre and $Atg5^{fl/fl}$ mice and although there was a trend of higher

levels of IL-1β in the HDM-challenged $Atg5^{fl/fl}$-$LysM$-Cre mice, the IL-1β levels were not

significantly different than in HDM-challenged $Atg5^{fl/fl}$ mice (**Figure S2A**). To directly interrogate

if the increased neutrophil accumulation following HDM challenge is a consequence of

inflammasome activation in the absence of autophagy in $Atg5^{fl/fl}$-$LysM$-Cre mice, we crossed the

Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre and *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$* mice with *Casp1/11$^{-/-}$* mice (Jackson Laboratory), which are deleted

for the genes encoding caspase-1 and caspase-11. We challenged *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre/Casp1/11$^{-/-}$*

and *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$/Casp1/11$^{-/-}$* mice with HDM and analyzed the lung immune cell populations. Similar

to *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* mice, the lungs of HDM-challenged *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre/Casp1/11$^{-/-}$* mice

accumulated more neutrophils, non-alveolar macrophages, DCs, activated CD4$^+$ T cells, and T$_{regs}$

than *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$/Casp1/11$^{-/-}$* mice, with no differences in the number of eosinophils **(Figure S2B)**.

Deletion of *Casp1* and *Casp11* also did not alter the non-significant trends in IL-1β levels in the

lungs of HDM-challenged *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* and *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$* mice **(Figure S2C)**. These data indicate

that neutrophils accumulate in the lungs of HDM-challenged *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* mice independent

of caspase-1 and caspase-11.

To explore the T cell and inflammasome-independent mechanism by which ATG5 regulates

neutrophil accumulation during HDM exposure, we examined the inflammatory signals that

remained higher in the lungs of HDM-challenged *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* mice compared to HDM-

challenged *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$* mice during T cell depletion using a cytokine bead array **(Figures 4A, S2D)**.

We found that the levels of G-CSF (granulocyte colony stimulating factor), KC (IL-8), IL-1α, IL-

12p40, and MIP-1α were higher in the lungs of HDM-challenged *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* mice

compared to HDM-challenged *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$* mice when T cells were depleted (**Figures 4A**). G-CSF is a

cytokine important for neutrophil development, KC is a neutrophil chemoattractant, and IL-1α,

IL-12p40, and MIP-1α have all been associated with neutrophil recruitment during inflammation

[68–71]. The higher levels of G-CSF, KC, IL-1α, IL-12p40, MIP-1α, and IFN-γ in HDM-

challenged *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* mice depleted for T cells (**Figures 3E, 4A)** implies that the source

of these inflammatory signals may be an innate immune cell.

Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre mice delete *Atg5* in multiple different types of innate immune cells, including

neutrophils, macrophages, inflammatory monocytes, and some DCs. To determine if ATG5

functioned specifically in macrophages to suppress neutrophil accumulation during HDM-

challenge, we challenged *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-CD11c-Cre* (delete *Atg5* in lung macrophages and DCs) with

HDM and monitored lung inflammatory responses. Similar to as observed in HDM-challenged

Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre mice **(Figure 1)**, the lungs of HDM-challenged *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-CD11c-Cre* mice

accumulated higher numbers of neutrophils, non-alveolar macrophages, DCs, inflammatory

monocytes, activated CD4$^+$ T cells, and T$_{regs}$ with no difference in the number of eosinophils

(**Figure 4B**) as compared to HDM-challenged *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$* controls. In contrast, the lungs of HDM-

challenged *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-MRP8-Cre* mice that delete *Atg5* specifically in neutrophils accumulated

similar numbers of immune cells as HDM-challenged *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$* controls (**Figures S2E**). Therefore,

ATG5 functions in lung macrophages and DCs, but not neutrophils, to control neutrophil

accumulation during HDM challenge.

We have previously reported that autophagy functions in macrophages independent of its role in

inhibiting inflammasome activation to suppresses the production of G-CSF and KC as well as

neutrophil recruitment to the lungs during *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* infection[72], however,

this role for autophagy has only been studied in the context of infection. To directly test if ATG5

is required in macrophages to suppress G-CSF and KC production following the noninfectious

HDM exposure, we differentiated bone marrow stem cells from *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* and *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$*

mice into bone marrow derived macrophages (BMDM) by culturing *ex vivo* in the presence of

macrophage colony-stimulating factor (M-CSF). We treated the *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* and *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$*

BMDMs with 200 µg HDM for 24 hours and measured the levels of G-CSF and KC secreted into

the media. The levels of G-CSF and KC produced by naïve macrophages from *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre*

and *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$* mice was below the limit of detection. HDM treatment resulted in significantly higher

levels of G-CSF and KC secreted from *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* macrophages compared to *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$*

macrophages (**Figures 4C**). Therefore, ATG5 functions in macrophages to suppress G-CSF and

KC production following direct sensing of PAMPs in HDM, which could otherwise promote

neutrophil accumulation in lungs.

Autophagy is required in innate immune cells to control neutrophil-dominated inflammation

during HDM challenge

ATG5 has been shown to control inflammatory responses via both autophagy-dependent and

autophagy-independent pathways[21,41–43,72–75]. To determine whether the regulation of

neutrophil recruitment and inflammation by ATG5 in HDM-challenged mice was dependent on

other autophagy proteins or represented an autophagy-independent role for ATG5, we monitored

neutrophil abundance in the lungs of mice lacking expression of the essential autophagy genes

Atg16l1, Becn1, or Fip200 in LysM$^+$ cells following HDM challenge by flow cytometry.

BECLIN1 (encoded by *Becn1*) and FIP200 operate during the nucleation step of the

autophagosome membrane biogenesis, whereas ATG16L1 functions with ATG5 in the

phagophore elongation complex[25]. Similar to as observed in *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* mice, HDM-

challenged *Atg16l1$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre, Becn1$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre*, and *Fip200$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* mice accumulated

more neutrophils and activated $CD4^+$ T cells in their lungs compared to HDM-challenged

Atg16l1$^{fl/fl}$, Becn1$^{fl/fl}$, and *Fip200$^{fl/fl}$* controls, respectively **(Figures 5A-B)**. The lungs of HDM-

challenged *Atg16l1$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* and *Fip200$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* mice also accumulated significantly

higher numbers of non-alveolar macrophages, DCs, and T_{regs} in comparison to HDM-challenged

Atg16l1$^{fl/fl}$ and *Fip200$^{fl/fl}$* controls, respectively **(Figures 5C-E)**. The lungs of HDM-challenged

Becn1$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre mice also accumulated a higher number of inflammatory monocytes compared

to HDM-challenged *Becn1$^{fl/fl}$* mice **(Figures 5F)**. Similar to *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* mice, we did not

observe differences in eosinophils in the HDM-challenged *Atg16l1$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre, Becn1$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-*

Cre, and *Fip200$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* mice compared to controls **(Figure 5G)**. While ATG5, ATG16L1*,*

and BECLIN1 are essential for both canonical autophagy as well as the non-canonical autophagy

processes LC3 associated phagocytosis (LAP) and LC3-dependent endocytosis (LANDO), FIP200

is dispensable for the LAP and LANDO pathways. Therefore, the requirement for ATG5,

ATG16L1*,* BECLIN1, and FIP200 implies that canonical autophagy is necessary in $LysM^+$ innate

immune cells to suppress the accumulation of neutrophils in the lungs of mice following HDM

challenge.

Together, our data supports a model where during airway exposure to allergens, ATG5 functions

in lung macrophages and DCs to tip the balance of T cell responses to favor T_H2 responses and

suppress T_H17 responses (**Figure 5H**). In addition, ATG5 is required in macrophages to inhibit

the secretion of cytokines and chemokines that can recruit neutrophils to the lungs during allergen

exposure in a T cell-independent manner. Therefore, ATG5 plays multiple roles in lung innate

immune cells to limit the neutrophil recruitment and mucus accumulation that would be associated

with severe asthma.

DISCUSSION

The association of genetic polymorphisms in the *ATG5* gene with susceptibility to asthma in

humans has drawn attention to the roles for autophagy in regulating inflammatory responses during

allergen challenge and asthma. In the present study, we directly investigate the roles for ATG5 and

autophagy in innate immune cells during asthma using a series of conditional knockout mouse

lines and two murine models of allergic airway inflammation model. Our data support a model

where ATG5 functions in an autophagy-dependent process in CD11c$^+$ lung macrophages and/or

DCs to promote T$_H$2-associated eosinophil accumulation and suppress T$_H$17 responses in an

allergen-dependent manner. In addition to regulating T cell responses, we find that autophagy

functions in macrophages exposed to HDM to suppress the secretion of cytokines and chemokines

that would otherwise recruit neutrophils to the lungs, independent of T cell responses.

Our studies reveal a function for autophagy in innate immune cells that can promote T$_H$2 responses

while suppressing T$_H$17 responses, positioning autophagy as a central regulator of T cell

polarization during allergen exposure. There are multiple possible mechanisms by which

autophagy could be functioning in CD11c$^+$ DCs and lung macrophages to impact T cell

polarization during HDM challenge. Both DCs and lung macrophages are antigen-presenting cells

(APCs) that could serve to activate allergen specific CD4$^+$ T cells during asthma[76–78].

Autophagy plays a central role in transferring antigen to vesicles that contain MHC class II

molecules for antigen presentation to CD4$^+$ T cells[79,80]. In addition to direct roles in MHC class

II antigen presentation, autophagy also regulates the production of cytokines that can impact the

polarization of T cells during activation. Loss of autophagy can result in increased production of

IL-23 by macrophages and DCs[81], and IL-23 can induce the differentiation of T cells into T$_H$17

cells[82,83]. Loss of autophagy in macrophages also promotes pro-inflammatory M1-like

macrophage polarization in inflammatory conditions such as aging-associated hepatic injury and

obesity[73,84], and macrophage polarization can also impact T cell responses. M1-like

macrophages produce T$_H$1 associated cytokines (TNF-α, IL-6, IL-1β, and IL-23) and induce a

T$_H$1/T$_H$17 type inflammatory response, while M2-like macrophages produce type 2 cytokines (IL-

5 and IL-13), activating a T$_H$2 responses[85]. M1-like macrophages also express higher levels of

the transcription factor IRF5, which was demonstrated to drive T$_H$1/T$_H$17 responses in culture[86]

and deletion of *Irf5* in mice causes a reduction in IFN-γ, IL-17, and neutrophil recruitment in

HDM-challenged mice[87]. Therefore, autophagy in macrophages and DCs can drive differential

T cell responses via antigen presentation and the production of inflammatory signals.

Loss of autophagy in lung macrophages and DCs also resulted in the accumulation of T_{regs} in the

lungs following HDM challenge. Although T_{regs} are well-known to suppress the inflammatory

responses during asthma[88–91], T_{reg} accumulation is also reported to be increased during severe

asthma[92,93]. Transfer of purified T_H17 cells promoted the expansion of T_{regs} in mice[94].

Therefore, it is possible that the increased T_H17 responses directly contribute to the increase in

T_{regs} during HDM challenge of *Atg5^{fl/fl}-LysM-Cre* mice, which may serve as a countermeasure to

dampen the increased inflammatory response. Loss of autophagy in DCs is also associated with

dysregulated T_{reg} function in mice due to an accumulation of ADAM10 metalloprotease on the

surface of DCs in the absence of autophagy[95]. Accumulation of ADAM10 leads to cleavage of

ICOS-L, which is required for the efficient maturation of T_{regs} in steady state. Moreover, in the

absence of proper maturation, $FOXP3^+CD25^+$ T_{regs} transition to $IL-17^+$ $CD4^+$ T cells[95], which

may explain the increased IL-17 expression in T_{regs} that we observed in HDM-challenged *Atg5^{fl/fl}-*

LysM-Cre mice.

In addition to its role in regulating T cell polarization during allergen exposure, we find that

autophagy also functions in macrophages independent of T cells to suppress the production of

IFN-γ, G-CSF, and KC in response to HDM exposure. High levels of IFN-γ, G-CSF, and IL-8

(KC) have all been associated with neutrophilic inflammation, asthma progression, and severe

asthma in humans[15,96,97]. Autophagy has been reported to serve a similar role in lung

macrophages during *M. tuberculosis* infection[72], however, this was assumed to be a response to

the active infection. Our studies here show that autophagy more generally regulates the production

of neutrophil recruitment signals from macrophages during exposure to PAMPs. This is supported

by prior studies that autophagy-deficient BMDMs upregulated pro-inflammatory cytokine

production in response to LPS and IFN-γ[98]. HDM is a complex mix of bioactive molecules and

immune stimulatory molecules (including proteases and other allergens, β-glucans, and chitin

exoskeleton) that can directly be sensed by innate immune cells through several pattern recognition

receptors (TLR and CLR), NOD like receptors, and protease activated receptors[49–51]. In

addition, the residual LPS present in HDM is sensed by TLR4, where increased doses of LPS shift

the eosinophilic lung inflammation induced by LPS-free HDM to neutrophil-dominated

inflammation[46,48]. Indeed, mice deficient in *Myd88* and *Tlr4* were found to be protected from
HDM induced allergic response[99]. ATG5 has also been reported to directly interact with and
regulate MyD88 in mouse embryonic fibroblast (MEF) cells by preventing the formation of
MyD88 condensates that result in increased MyD88-TRAF6-NFκB signaling complex
activation[100]. In addition, autophagy suppresses pro-inflammatory responses in macrophages
through mitophagy[101–104], the clearance of damage-associated molecular patterns (DAMPs)
and PAMPs[105–107], and ER-phagy[108,109]. These roles for autophagy could also impact
neutrophil recruitment and accumulation in the lungs during HDM challenge. The increased
sensitization to PAMP signaling in the absence of autophagy could also be contributing to the
enhanced T_H17 responses where autophagy promotes T_H17 responses through increased IL-23
secretion in response to TLR agonists[81]. Given the similarities between the roles for autophagy
during *M. tuberculosis* infection and HDM challenge, it is also likely that autophagy also regulates
inflammation in a similar manner during other pulmonary inflammatory diseases. In addition, there
is evidence that autophagy may play similar roles in other tissues where autophagy in myeloid
cells alleviated intestinal inflammation and neutrophil accumulation during macrophage activation
syndrome and adherent-invasive *Escherichia coli* (AIEC) infection in mice[98]. These findings
highlight autophagy as a central regulator of inflammatory responses from innate and adaptive
immune cells in multiple tissues and diseases.

Human asthma is a heterogeneous condition characterized by multiple endotypes with distinct
cellular signatures[110]. Patients with T_H2-high versus T_H2-low endotypes respond differently to
corticosteroid treatments, which is associated with distinct and mixed granulocytic phenotypes. In
addition, there exists incredible heterogeneity in what environmental trigger causes asthma in
humans, which can also include viral infections. In our mouse models, we examined one example
each of T_H2-high and T_H2-low allergic airway responses. Using these models we have identified
a protective role for autophagy in controlling neutrophil accumulation during asthma, suggesting
that inducing autophagy may hold promise as a therapeutic for treating severe asthma cases.
Although this provides a starting point for understanding the role of autophagy in innate immune
cells during allergic airway inflammation, the application of these findings to the spectrum of
diversity observed in asthma cases in humans will still require expanding the complexity of the
system, a challenge for all animal models of human disease. In addition, the therapeutic potential

for targeting autophagy is currently limited by the absence of autophagy-specific inducers and the

multitude of diverse roles for canonical autophagy in eukaryotic cells. Therefore, the translation

of these findings to treatments will benefit from future studies into the effectors that function

downstream of autophagy to govern the immune responses during airway exposure to allergens.

METHODS

Mouse strains

All flox mice (*Atg5$^{fl/fl}$, Becn1$^{fl/fl}$, Atg16l1$^{fl/fl}$*) used in this study have been described

previously[39,44,111,112] and are maintained in an enhanced barrier facility. LysM-Cre (Jax

#004781), CD11c-Cre (Jax #007567), and MRP8-Cre (Jax #021614) mice from the Jackson

Laboratory were crossed to specific flox mice, respectively. *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* and *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$* mice

were crossed with *Casp1/11$^{-/-}$* (Jax #016621) germline deletion mice to generate *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-*

Cre/Casp1/11$^{-/-}$ and *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$/Casp1/11$^{-/-}$* mice. *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* and *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$* mice were crossed

with *Il17a^{eGFP}* (Jax #018472) mice to generate *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre/Il17a^{eGFP}* and *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$/Il17a^{eGFP}*

mice. Adult male and female mice (aged 8–12 weeks) were used for the experiments. All

experiments were performed with respective littermate flox controls. All mice have been

backcrossed to C57BL/6J background. The mice were housed and bred at Washington University

in St. Louis in specific pathogen-free conditions in accordance with federal and university

guidelines. All procedures involving animals were conducted following National Institute of

Health guidelines and protocols were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use

Committee of Washington University in St. Louis. Animals were euthanized by CO_2 asphyxiation,

approved by Euthanasia of the American Veterinary Association.

Allergic airway inflammation models

Mice were used in an OVA model of airway allergic inflammation as described before, with few

modifications[45]. 8-12 week old sex matched mice were sensitized with 50 µg OVA (Sigma,

A5503-5G) complexed with aluminum hydroxide and magnesium hydroxide suspension (Imject™

Alum Adjuvant, Thermo scientific, 77161) on day 0, 4 and 14 intraperitoneally in 200 µl 1X PBS.

Mice were challenged with 1 mg OVA in PBS in 25 µl intranasally on days 20, 21, and 22. Mice

were sacrificed on day 23, and the whole lung (without the post-caval lobe) was processed for flow

cytometry analysis. For the HDM model of allergic airway inflammation, 8-12 week-old sex

matched mice were challenged with HDM as described previously[14]. Briefly, mice were

challenged intranasally with HDM (Greer Laboratories, NC9756554) in PBS (Gibco, 10010023).

The first primary dose of HDM (200 μg in 40 μl PBS) was administered on day 0 and two

secondary (100 μg in 20 μl PBS) doses were administered on days 7 and 14. Mice were sacrificed

on day 15 and the whole lung except the post-caval lobe was processed for the flow cytometry

experiments.

Flow cytometry

Mouse lungs were excised after PBS perfusion, placed in DMEM (Gibco, 12100046), minced

finely, and digested at 37ºC for an hour with mechanical disruption with a stir bar and enzymatic

digestion with collagenase D (Roche, 11088875103) and DNase I (Sigma, D4527). Digested tissue

was treated with ACK buffer (Life technologies, A1049201) to remove red blood cells and were

passed through a 70 μm cell strainer to generate single cell suspension in 1 ml of semi-facs buffer

(1X PBS pH 7.4 supplemented with 2% FBS and 2 mM EDTA). 100 μl of cells were stained with

Zombie-NIR before staining with the antibody cocktail mix. Cells were resuspended in semi-facs

buffer in the presence of Fc receptor blocking antibody (BioLegend, 101302) and stained with

antibodies at a 1:200 dilution with the myeloid or lymphoid antibody cocktails. The innate immune

cell staining antibody cocktail included the following antibodies: Ly6G-BV421 (Biolegend, 1A8),

SiglecF-BV480 (Biolegend, E50-2440(RUO), CD45-BV570 (Biolegend, 30-F11), CD11b-BV650

(Biolegend, M1/70), CD103-BV750 (Biolegend, M290), Ly6C-BV785 (Biolegend, HK1.4),

MHCII-SparkBlue550 (Biolegend, M5/114.15.2), CD64-PerCP-eFluor710 (Biolegend, X54-

5/7.1), MerTK-PE-Cy7 (Biolegend, DS5MMER), CD206-eF660 (AF647) (eBiosciences,

C068C2), CD11c-APC/Fire750 (Biolegend, N418). The lymphoid cell staining antibody cocktail

included the following antibodies: CD8α-Pacific blue (Biolegend, 53-6.7), CD44-BV510

(Biolegend, IM7), CD45-BV570 (Biolegend, 30-F11), CD19-BV605 (Biolegend, 6D5), CD11b-

BV650 (Biolegend, M1/70), NK1.1-BV785 (Biolegend, PK136), TCRβ-FITC (Biolegend, H57-

597), NKp46-PerCP-eFluor710 (eBiosciences, 29A1.4), CD62L-PE/Cy5 (Biolegend, MEL-14),

CD25-PE-Cy7 (Biolegend, PC61), and CD4-APC (Biolegend, 100516). For the intracellular

staining, surface-stained cells were fixed with 4% PFA before proceeding for intracellular staining

for the transcription factors. Cells were permeabilized with 1X FoxP3 permeabilization buffer

(Biolegend, 421403) and the intracellular staining is performed for the transcription factors using

fluorophore conjugated antibodies for RORγt-APC (eBiosciences, B2D), GATA3-APC

(Biolegend, 16E10A23), and T-bet-APC (Biolegend, 4B10), in separate panels, as per Biolegend's

instructions . To label immune cells in the airways before performing flow cytometry analysis,

mice were anesthetized with a ketamine-xylazine cocktail injected intraperitoneally. CD45.2-FITC

(Biolegend, 104) was administered intratracheally in the anesthetized mice to allow for airway

specific cell staining in the live mice for 30 minutes. Mice were then sacrificed, and total lungs

were collected and processed for immune cell staining as described above. The airway localized

immune cell populations were identified based on the CD45.2 antibody label. Flow cytometric

analysis was performed on a Cytek Aurora and data was analyzed with FlowJo software (Tree

Star). The gating strategies are shown in **Figure S3**.

T cell depletion and IL-17 blocking experiments

For T cell depletion experiment, 8-10-week-old sex-matched mice groups received antibodies

against either anti-rat isotype control or anti CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$ neutralizing antibody. Mice were

injected with either 500 µg anti-rat isotype antibody or a combination of 250 µg each of αCD4

and αCD8 neutralizing antibodies in PBS intraperitoneally two days (day -2) before the first HDM

challenge and again on day 5 and day 12 during the ongoing HDM challenge on day 0, 7 and 14,

followed by the sacrifice on day 15. Separate groups of HDM-challenged mice received 500 µg of

isotype control antibodies on the same schedule to serve as controls. For IL-17 blocking, mice

were injected intraperitoneally with 100µg anti-mouse anti-IL17 blocking antibody on days -1, 1,

3, 5, 6, 8, 10, 12, and 13, together with i.n. HDM challenge on day 0, day 7 and day 15, followed

by sacrifice on day 15. Separate groups of HDM-challenged mice received 500 µg of isotype

control antibodies on the same schedule to serve as controls. Following sacrifice, whole lung

(without the post-caval lobe) is processed for flow cytometry and analysis.

Histology experiments

Unperfused intact lung lobes were harvested from the HDM challenged mouse. Lungs were fixed

in 4% paraformaldehyde for 24 hours before transferring to 1X PBS until further processing. All

the lung sections were processed for paraffin embedding, microtome sectioning, and stained

separately with hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) and periodic acid-schiff (PAS) stain at the Anatomy

and pathology core (AMP core) at Washington University in St. Louis. Slides were imaged using
the Zeiss Axioscan 7 at the Washington University Center for Cellular Imaging (WUCCI). Images
were analyzed using ImageJ Fiji software as described in **Figure S4**.
616

Cytokine bead array
For cytokine analysis, the post-caval lobe of the lungs was resuspended in PBS, homogenized by
bead beating. Homogenates were centrifuged to isolate the cell debris-free supernatant and
analyzed by BioPlex-Pro Mouse Cytokine 23-Plex Immunoassay (Bio-Rad, M60009RDPD).
Assay was performed as per manufacturer's instructions. Total protein concentration of the cell
debris-free supernatant was estimated using a Bicinchoninic Acid (BCA) Assay kit
(ThermoFisher, 23225). Bead array data is normalized to the total protein concentration of the
individual sample and represented as picogram (pg) per milligram (mg) of total protein.
625

BMDM treatment and cytokine analysis
8-12-week old sex matched mice were euthanized, followed by collection of the femur and tibia
bones. Bones were flushed with complete RPMI media (Gibco, 11875135) containing 10% FBS
(HiMedia, RM10432) three times to harvest the bone marrow stem cells. Red blood cells were
lysed by ACK lysis buffer, followed by washing with 1X PBS to retrieve purified bone marrow
cells. Bone marrow cells were differentiated in the presence of conditioned RPMI media
containing the macrophage colony-stimulating factor (M-CSF), for 6 days, with additional media
supplementation on day 3. After 6 days, supernatant containing the non-adherent cells was
removed and adherent cells were washed with PBS three times, before collecting the differentiated
macrophages for the experiment. Cultured bone marrow derived macrophages (BMDMs) were
seeded in 6 well plate and treated with either mock or with 200 µg/ml HDM in RPMI media for
24 hours. Post incubation, cell supernatant was collected, centrifuged, and filtered to remove any
cellular components. The cell-free supernatant was used to analyze G-CSF and KC by ELISA
(R&D systems, DY414-05 for G-CSF and DY453-05 for KC) as per manufacturer's guidelines.
640

641 Statistical analysis for biological experiments
642 All the data from mouse experiments is from at least two independent experiments, unless
643 specified otherwise. Samples represent biological (not technical) replicates of mice randomly

sorted into each experimental group. No blinding was performed during animal experiments. If presented on a log scale, the data was log transformed before statistical analysis. Statistical differences were calculated using Prism 9.0 (GraphPad Software) using either unpaired Welch's t-tests or one-way ANOVA or two-way ANOVA test with or without corrections as denoted in the figure legends. Statistically significant differences are shown for comparisons within a genotype or within treatment groups. Sample sizes were sufficient to detect differences as small as 10% using the statistical methods described. When used, center values and error bars represent means $\pm$ S.E.M. $P < 0.05$ was considered significant. $P < 0.05$ was denoted *, ** for $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$, and **** $P < 0.0001$. Statistical test details aad outcomes for each comparison for all graphs are available in Supplementary Dataset 1.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

N.D. and C.L.S. designed the project, analyzed the data, and wrote the manuscript. N.D., S.V.H., S.R.M., N.R.E., R.L.K., S.K.N., M. S., and R.W. performed the experiments. N.D., A.R., A.L.K, and C.L.S. designed the asthma protocols. A.S. assisted with the flow cytometry experiments and analysis. D.K. maintained and bred the mouse lines. A.L.K. and C.L.S. advised project design. All authors read and edited the manuscript.

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682 **DISCLOSURE STATEMENT**
683 No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.
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941 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

Figure 1. ATG5 is required in LysM$^+$ cells to promote eosinophilia and to suppress neutrophilia in airways following allergen exposure

(A) Schematic of the OVA induced allergic airway inflammation model, made in part with BioRender. (B) Representative flow gating of eosinophils as a frequency of CD45$^+$ cells in lungs of *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* and *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$* mice. (C) Number of neutrophils, eosinophils, non-alveolar macrophages, DCs, total CD4$^+$ T cells, and activated CD4$^+$ T cells in the lungs of OVA-challenged *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* and *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$* mice, represented as cells per ml of lung suspension. (D) Number of neutrophils and eosinophils in the airways of OVA-challenged *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* and *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$* mice, represented as cells per ml of lung suspension. (E) Schematic of the HDM-induced allergic airway inflammation model, made in part with BioRender. (F) Representative flow gating of neutrophils as a frequency of CD45$^+$ cells in lungs of *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* and *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$* mice. (G) Number of neutrophils, eosinophils, non-alveolar macrophages, DCs, inflammatory monocytes, total CD4$^+$ T cells, activated CD4$^+$ T cells, and T$_{regs}$ in the lungs of HDM-challenged *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* and *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$* mice, represented as cells per ml of the lung suspension. (H) Number of neutrophils and eosinophils in the airways of the HDM-challenged *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* and *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$* mice, represented as cells per ml of lung suspension. (I,K) Lung sections from HDM-challenged *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* and *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$* mice stained with (I) H&E or (K) PAS stain. The boxed area in the top panels is zoomed in on the bottom panels. (J,L) Quantification of area of (J) inflammation based on nuclei area in H&E-stained lung histology sections and (L) mucus stain score calculated by analyzing the total PAS-stained area normalized to total area of lung section. Each datapoint is from an individual mouse. Data is presented on a log$_{10}$ transformed scale except for panels J and L. The bar graphs represent the mean +/- S.E.M. Unpaired Welch's t-test was used to determine the statistical significance of differences and only the statistically significant differences are shown. * P < 0.05, ** P < 0.01, *** P < 0.001, **** P < 0.0001.

Figure 2. ATG5 expression in innate immune cells promotes T$_H$2 responses and suppresses T$_H$17 responses during allergic airway inflammation

(A,C) Number of total CD4$^+$ T cells in the lungs of (A) OVA- or (C) HDM-challenged *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* and *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$* mice, represented as cells per ml of the lung suspension. (B,D) Number of CD4$^+$ T cells expressing RORγt, GATA3, or T-bet in the lungs of (B) OVA- or (D) HDM-challenged *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* and *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$* mice, represented as cells per ml of the lung suspension.

(E) Number of neutrophils and activated CD4$^+$ T cells in the lungs of HDM challenged *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-*

LysM-Cre/Il17a^{eGFP} and *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$/Il17a*^{eGFP} mice, represented as cells per ml of the lung suspension.

(F) Percentage and **(G)** number of CD4$^+$ T cells, activated CD4$^+$ T cells, and T$_{regs}$ expressing IL-

17A based on flow cytometry analysis of GFP expression in HDM-challenged *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-*

Cre/Il17a^{eGFP} and *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$/Il17a*^{eGFP} mice. **(H)** Mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) of GFP (IL-17)

in CD4$^+$ T cells, activated CD4$^+$ T cells, and T$_{regs}$. **(I)** Ratio of the number of IL-17$^+$ CD4$^+$ T cells

to total T$_{regs}$. Legend for panel **E** also applies to panels **F-I**. Each datapoint is from an individual

mouse. **(A-E)** Data is presented on a log$_{10}$ transformed scale. The bar graphs represent the mean

+/- S.E.M. **(A,C, E-I)** Unpaired Welch's t-test or **(B and D)** two-way ANOVA with Sidak's

correction was used to determine the statistical significance of differences between the groups and

only the statistically significant differences are shown. * P < 0.05, ** P < 0.01.

Figure 3. Increased T$_H$17 responses in HDM-challenged *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* mice are partially

responsible for the increased neutrophil accumulation

(A) Schematic of time-course of antibody mediated depletion of T cells in a murine HDM model.

(B-C) Number of **(B)** T cells and **(C)** neutrophils in the lungs of HDM-challenged *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-*

Cre and *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$* mice that received either isotype control antibody or αCD4 and αCD8 antibodies,

represented as cells per ml of the lung suspension. **(D-F)** Concentration of **(D)** IL-17, **(E)** IFN-γ,

and **(F)** IL-5 in total lung homogenates from HDM-challenged *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* and *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$* mice

that received against either isotype control or αCD4 and αCD8 antibodies, based on cytokine bead

array. Only the data that is above the limit of detection is plotted, where # designates conditions

with samples below the limit of detection. Legend for panel B also applies to panels C-F. **(G)**

Schematic of time-course of the antibody mediated blocking of IL-17 in a murine HDM model.

(H) Number of neutrophils in the lungs of HDM-challenged *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$-LysM-Cre* and *Atg5$^{fl/fl}$* mice

that received either isotype control antibody or αIL-17 blocking antibody. Each datapoint is from

an individual mouse. The bar graphs represent the mean +/- S.E.M. Two-way ANOVA with

Fisher's LSD test was used to determine the statistical significance of differences between the

groups and statistically significant differences are shown for comparisons within a genotype or

within treatment groups. * P < 0.05, ** P < 0.01, *** P < 0.001, **** P < 0.0001.

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Figure 4. ATG5 is required in macrophages to control the expression of neutrophil
recruitment signals during exposure to HDM
(**A**) Concentration of G-CSF, KC, IL-1α, IL-12p40, and MIP-1α in total lung homogenate from
HDM-challenged $Atg5^{fl/fl}$-$LysM$-Cre and $Atg5^{fl/fl}$ mice that received against either isotype control
or αCD4 and αCD8 antibodies, from cytokine bead array. Only the data that is above the limit of
detection is plotted. (**B**) Number of neutrophils, non-alveolar macrophages, DCs, inflammatory
monocytes, activated CD4$^+$ T cells, T_{regs}, and eosinophils in the lungs of HDM-challenged $Atg5^{fl/fl}$-
$CD11c$-Cre and $Atg5^{fl/fl}$ mice. Data is presented on a log_{10} transformed scale. (**C**) BMDMs were
differentiated from bone marrow cells harvested from $Atg5^{fl/fl}$-$LysM$-Cre and $Atg5^{fl/fl}$ mice and
treated with or without 200 µg HDM for 24 hours. Concentration of G-CSF and KC secreted into
the media by ELISA. Each datapoint is from an individual mouse. The bar graphs represent the
mean +/- S.E.M. Two-way ANOVA with Fisher's LSD test was used to determine the statistical
significance of differences between the groups in panel A. Unpaired Welch's t-test was used to
determine the statistical significance of differences between the groups for panels B and C. Only
the statistically significant differences are shown in the graphs. * $P < 0.05$ and ** $P < 0.01$ *** P
< 0.001.
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Figure 5. Autophagy is required in innate immune cells to control neutrophil-dominated
inflammation during HDM-challenge
Number of (**A**) neutrophils (**B**) activated CD4$^+$ T cells, (**C**) non-alveolar macrophages, (**D**) DCs,
(**E**) T_{regs}, (**F**) inflammatory monocytes, and (**G**) eosinophils in the lungs of HDM-challenged
$Atg16l1^{fl/fl}$-$LysM$-Cre, $Atg16^{fl/fl}$, $Becn1^{fl/fl}$-$LysM$-Cre, $Becn1^{fl/fl}$, $Fip200^{fl/fl}$-$LysM$-Cre, and $Fip200^{fl/fl}$
mice, represented as cells per ml of the lung suspension. Legends for panel A also applies to panel
B-G. Each datapoint is from an individual mouse. Data is presented on a log_{10} transformed scale.
The bar graphs represent the mean +/- S.E.M. Unpaired Welch's t-test was used to determine the
statistical significance of differences between the groups, and only the statistically significant
differences are shown. * $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$ *** $P < 0.001$. (**H**) Model for the roles of ATG5 in
lung macrophages and DCs during allergic airway inflammation. The image is generated in part
with BioRender.
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Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5