GATA1-defective immune-megakaryocytes as possible drivers of idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis

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Summary

Idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis (IPF) is a progressive fibrotic lung disorder with limited therapeutic options. Insufficient understanding of driver mutations and poor fidelity of currently available animal models has limited the development of effective therapies. Since GATA1deficient megakaryocytes sustain myelofibrosis, we hypothesized that they may also induce fibrosis in lungs. We discovered that lungs from IPF patients and *Gata1low* mice contain numerous GATA1negative immune-poised megakaryocytes that, in mice, have defective RNA-seq profiling and increased TGF-β1, CXCL1 and P-selectin content. With age, *Gata1low* mice develop fibrosis in lungs. Development of lung fibrosis in this model is prevented by *P-selectin* deletion and rescued by P-selectin, TGF-β1 or CXCL1 inhibition. Mechanistically, P-selectin inhibition decreases TGF-β1 and CXCL1 content and increases GATA1positive megakaryocytes while TGF-β1 or CXCL1 inhibition decreased CXCL1 only. In conclusion, *Gata1*low mice are the first genetic-driven model for IPF and provide a link between abnormal immune-megakaryocytes and lung fibrosis.

Keywords

Idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis, megakaryocytes, GATA1, TGF-β, P-selectin, CXCL1.

Highlights

- Lungs from IPF patients contain many GATA1 negative immune MK

- *Gata1*low mice are the first genetic model with a pathophysiology similar to IPF

- *Gata1*low lungs mice contain defective immune MK with high P-sel, TGF-β and CXCL1

- *P-sel* ablation or P-sel/TGF-β/CXCL1 inhibition rescues fibrosis in *Gata1*low lung

Introduction

Idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis (IPF) is a chronic, progressive form of pneumonia associated with fibrosis of unknown etiology[1]. IPF represents the prototypic form of progressive pulmonary fibrosis (PPF), also associated with other non-idiopathic conditions. IPF occurs primarily in older adults (usually >60 years of age) and leads to progressive deterioration of pulmonary function, and eventual death from chronic or acute respiratory failure[1,2]. Its incidence is 3-9 cases every 100,000 inhabitants and manifests itself prevalently in males with known risk factors such as smoking[3]. Studies of IPF and PPF pathobiology are hampered by limited availability of lung biopsies due to the fact that lung biopsy is no longer needed for diagnosis. While animal models of IPF/PPF have been proposed, the fidelity between the human disease and the currently available models is poor. Current animal models employed to study the pathobiology and to identify candidate treatments for IPF are animals (usually mice or rats) forced to breath bleomycin[4], a chemotherapeutic compound that has lung toxicity as its major adverse effect[5]. Animals subjected to bleomycin develop acute inflammation and fibrosis in the lungs which eventually leads to their death within one-two weeks. In spite of its widespread use, bleomycin has several limitations which reduce its clinical relevance. First, the aggressive progression of fibrosis in this model does not resemble that of IPF, where fibrosis develops slowly over many years. Second, IPF usually affects individuals without previous exposures to chronic inflammatory insults, suggesting that inflammation represents a confounding factor in translating the results from these models to humans. Third and most importantly, the lesions developed in this model are associated with acute alveolar damage, including edema, and have a bronchiolo-centric localization, likely the consequence of the intra-tracheal route of the drug administration[6]. By contrast, in IPF fibrosis occurs mostly in the basal lobes of the lung, is predominantly subpleural, and tends to extend to the para-septal parenchyma generating the typical honeycomb pattern revealed by high-resolution computed tomography (HRCT) of the chest[7]. Such different anatomic localization strongly suggests that the cells responsible for fibrosis in the animal models and in IPF patients are different. Nevertheless, studies in bleomycin mice, validated by observations in patients, have implicated abnormally high levels of several pro-fibrotic proteins, such as transforming growth factor-β (TGF-β)[8], interleukin-8 (IL-8)[9], and the adhesion receptor P-selectin (P-SEL)[10], among others, in the etiology of IPF. In the case of TGF- β, the availability of chemical inhibitors[11] and validation experiments demonstrating that mice forced to breath adenoviruses containing TGF-β develop fibrosis in the lung[12,13], have

inspired clinical trials with pirfenidone and nintedanib, two pleiotropic proinflammatory inhibitors

also targeting TGF-β, in IPF[14–17]. However, these two drugs have been shown to be effective in

slowing down the decline of lung function, but not in preventing disease progression in most IPF

patients[14–17]. Therefore, the only cure for IPF is lung transplantation, an option available to only a

limited number of patients[1–3]. The clinical needs of IPF patients highlight the need for novel,

possibly genetically driven, animal models which more closely resemble the pathological

mechanisms of IPF in patients. It is conceivable that these models may also shed light on the

genetic drivers for IPF which are still largely unknown. In fact, although familial clustering and

association studies suggest that the disease has a genetic basis[3,18], a causative genetic link is yet to

be established. The identification that loss-of-function mutations in the *telomerase* gene[19], or in

genes, such as *ZCCH8*, which encode proteins required for expression of the *telomerase*[20], in

patients with familiar IPF raised great hope that the genetic cause of the disease had been finally

discovered[21]. However, induction of telomerase-deficiency in mice increases the senescence of

both hematopoietic and alveolar stem cells but the mice, although more susceptible to bleomycin-

induced lung fibrosis, do not develop IPF at baseline[22,23].

Recent experiments have demonstrated that activation of *c-Jun*, a gene downstream to TGF-β,

induces fibrosis in multiple organs, including bone marrow (BM) and lung, in mice[24,25]. In the case

of myelofibrosis (MF), the most severe of the Philadelphia-chromosome negative

myeloproliferative neoplasms[26,27], c-jun is activated by increased microenvironment

bioavailability of TGF-β produced by abnormal megakaryocytes[28,29]. In fact, the MK in the BM

of patients with myelofibrosis remain immature due to a RSP14 ribosomopathy induced by the

driver mutations that reduces the translation of the mRNA for GATA1[30,31], the transcription factor

essential for their proper maturation[32]. The causative role of this abnormal MK in the etiology of

the disease has been validated by experiments demonstrating that mice expressing either the driver

mutations or low levels of *Gata1* (*Gata1low mice)* only in MK[33] develop myelofibrosis with age[34].

The abnormalities of human and murine GATA1 hypomorphic MK include a content greater than

normal of TGF-β[35], CXCL1, the murine equivalent of IL-8[36], and P-SEL[37], three of the

proinflammatory proteins that have been implicated also in the development of IPF.

MK are important cellular components of the lungs where they exert the function to release

platelets (Plt) intravascularly[38,39] and to participate in immune reactions against opportunistic

infections[40,41]. In fact, by leveraging single cell RNA-seq and other methods, recent studies have

demonstrated the existence of three distinct types of MK, each one exerting a different function[41–43]: The BM of adult mice and humans contains the Plt-producing, which correspond to the cells previously defined as mature MK, and the niche-supportive and immune MK, both of which have immature morphology. The Plt-producing MK are the most frequent, have high levels of ploidy, express genes related to thrombopoiesis, including the transcription factor GATA1, and are identified by the CD42b/ARNL markers. Niche-supportive MK are mostly >=8N and express high levels of PF4 and TGF-β, and possibly of other pro- inflammatory cytokines, which regulate growth of hematopoietic stem cells, and low levels of GATA1. These cells express the CD61 and MYLK4 markers and may be induced in vitro by thrombopoietin to acquire a mature morphology and to produce Plt. Immune-poised MK are low ploidy with signatures of inflammatory response and myeloid leukocyte activation genes. These cells can be identified by the CD41 and LPS1 markers by confocal microscopy and by the CD41 and CD53 markers by flow cytometry. They have phagocytic activity and can stimulate T cell expansion and have been identified in lungs where their numbers increase in response to infectious challenges and are activated by neutrophil netosis to phagocytize the infective agents[40,41]. Although previous studies had already implicated MK abnormalities in the development of fibrosis in the lung of bleomycin-treated mice[44], the pathobiological role of these cells in IPF is far from established. Based on the driving role exerted by GATA1 hypomorphic MK in establishing fibrosis in the BM[30,31,34], we hypothesized that IPF may be driven by a specific MK subpopulation with an abnormally low GATA1 content. Here, we tested this hypothesis by comparing the MK subclasses and their GATA1 content in the lung from patients with IPF and the non-diseased tissue of lung cancer patients and assessed whether lungs from mice carrying the *Gata1*^{low} mutation contain abnormal MK and became fibrotic with age.

Results

The lung from patients with IPF contains an excess of GATA1 hypomorphic megakaryocytes biased for the immune lineage

To determine the role of MK in the development of IPF, we first compared the frequency and GATA1 content of MK (CD42b^{pos} cells) in lungs from IPF patients with those observed in the non-diseased tissues of patients with lung cancer (three subject per group) by immunofluorescence microscopy. The clinical features of the patients are described in **Table S1**. Hematoxylin-Eosin

and reticulin staining of consecutive sections confirmed the abnormal architecture and the presence

of fibrosis in the lung of IPF patients, but not in those from the no-IPF controls, validating the

diagnosis referred to us by the Anatomo-Pathology repository (Figure 1A, S1). MK were identified

with *similar* low frequency in lung sections from IPF and no-IPF subjects (5-10 vs 0.1-1 CD42b^{pos}

cells/Area, not statistically different). However, while most (80%) of the MK from the no-IPF

lungs contains robust levels of GATA1, GATA1 is detectable in less than 20% of the MK from

that of the IPF group ($p<0.05$) (**Figure 1A,B, S1**).

To assess whether reduced GATA1 content had affected the type of MK present in the lung of the

patients, confocal microscopy studies with markers specific for the three subpopulations were

performed (**Figure 1C,D**). MK with immune, HSC-supportive and Plt-poised phenotype were

recognized in the lungs from both no-IPF and IPF patients. However, the immune-subpopulation

was contained with a frequency significantly greater (by 2-fold) in lungs from IPF patients vs.

normal.

Megakaryocytes in the lungs from Gata1^{low} mice are immature and with age became biased for

the immune-lineage and express a defective immune-signature

To assess the effects of reduced GATA1 content on the MK present in the lung, we quantified the

frequency, maturation and lineage fate of MK present in mice harboring the *Gata1*^{low} mutation

(**Figure 2, S2**). MK (CD42b^{pos} cells) are readily identified in the lungs from both *Gata1*^{low} and

wild-type (WT) littermates (approximately 20 CD42b^{pos} cells/Areas) by both immune-

histochemistry and fluorescent analysis (**Figure 2A,B and S2A**). As expected only a minority

(<10%) of CD42b^{pos} cells from the lung of *Gata1*^{low} mice contains GATA1 while this transcription

factor is clearly detected in the vast majority (>90%) of those from the WT littermates (p<0.0001)

(**Figure 2B and S2B**).

The localization and maturation state of MK in lung sections from *Gata1*^{low} and their WT

littermates determined by morphological observations is compared in **Figures 2, S2C** and **Table**

1. MK are observed either intravascularly or within the perivascular interstitium in the lungs from

both WT and *Gata1*^{low} littermates (**Figure S3**). Most of the CD42b^{pos} megakaryoctes in the lungs

from WT mice have a mature morphology and are surrounded by structures resembling Plt (Plt

forming MK, PfMKs) (**Figure 2A, S2A, Table 1**). When detected in the alveolar septa, WT MK

are arranged in clusters (**Figure S2A**). By contrast, the MK in the lung from *Gata1*^{low} mice have

an immature morphology which includes a circular shape and scant cytoplasm (**Figure 2A, S2A,**
Table 1). We observed that a minority of the *Gata1*^{low} MK are surrounded by CD42b positive Plt
which would identify them as PfMKs (**Figure S2A**). The few *Gata1*^{low} PfMKs are found isolated
near blood vessels inside the septa, have a reduced cytoplasm and an elongated nucleus that
extends itself between epithelial cells (**Figure S2A**).

Statistical analyses of the frequency and maturation state of the MK observed in the lungs from a
large cohort of mice indicate that, without controlling for the effects of age or sex, the difference
in the frequency of total, immature and mature MK in the lung from WT and *Gata1*^{low} mice is
statistically significant (total p=0.001, immature p<0.001, mature p=0.007) (**Table 1**).

The maturation state of the MK in the lungs from WT and Gata1^{low} mice was further compared by
flow cytometry determinations of the ploidy state using the CD42b antibody coupled with
propidium iodide staining that assess the cell DNA content (Figure 2C, S2C). As expected[43], the
ploidy of CD42b^{pos} cells in WT lungs ranged from 2N up to 64N with approximately 60% of the
cells displaying a DNA content >8N. This result confirms the morphological observation that most
of the **MK** present in WT lungs are mature. By contrast, the DNA content of the majority
(approximately *80*%) of CD42b^{pos} cells from Gata1^{low} lungs is 4N and few (<20%) of them has a
DNA content greater than 8N, providing further indication that most of these cells are immature.

To assess whether reduced GATA1 content had affected the type of MK present in the lung of
Gata1[low] mice, confocal microscopy studies with markers specific for the three MK subpopulations
were performed (**Figure 2D, S4**). These studies included WT mice as control and analyzed age as
independent variable. MK with HSC-supportive or Plt phenotype were recognized in the lungs
from both young and old WT and *Gata1*^{low} mice (**Figure 2D, S4**). The frequency of the two
populations was significantly greater than normal in the lungs from *Gata1*^{low} mice at both ages.
By contrast, immune-MK were not detected in the lungs from young and old WT mice and in
young *Gata1*^{low} mice but were present in robust numbers in those from old *Gata1*^{low} mice (**Figure**
2E-G).

To understand the effect of reduced GATA1 content on the expression profiling of the MK, we
performed RNAseq on purifed CD41^{+} cells (>95% CD41^{+} by re-analyses) from BM and lung of
15-months old WT and *Gata1*^{low} mice. Principal component analysis (PCA**)** of the RNAseq data
from individual mice indicate a strong separation and clustering among groups, with the

differences between tissue of provenience (BM or lung) accounting for approximately 79% of the

variance in the expression data (**Figure 2H and S5A**). Comparison of WT and *Gata1^{low}* cells

derived from the lung revealed extensive changes in gene expression (3,593 genes were up-

regulated and 1,837 genes were down-regulated) (**Figure 2I**). The expression of representative

genes characterizing the signatures of the three recently described Mk subpopulations[43] indicate

that the majority of the expression changes are found among immune-MK genes which are

downregulated (*Clec4a2*, *Il1b*, *Cxcl3*, *Cxcl5*, *Lcn2*, etc.) (**Figure 2J**). In addition, pathway analysis

indicated that pathways which regulate immune-functions (such as production of molecular

mediator of immune response, cell chemotaxis, activation of the immune-response, humoral

immune response, and immunoglobulin production) are among the top 10 pathways abnormally

expressed by *Gata1^{low}* MK (**Figure S5B,C**). Of note, MK purified from the BM and the lung of

Gata1^{low} mice displayed similar abnormalities, suggesting that they are driven by insufficient

expression of the transcription factor rather than by pro-inflammatory cytokines present in the lung

microenvironment (**Table S2**).

Collectively, these results demonstrate that the lungs from old *Gata1^{low}* mice contain increased

levels of immune-MK vs. normal and that the function of these cells is likely impaired.

Fibrosis is only present in Gata1^{low} mice

The observation that the fibrosis in the lung from bleomycin-treated animal models is associated

with an inflammatory state induced by the chemical insult prompted us to detail the level of

inflammation and of fibrosis present in lungs from *Gata1*^{low} and WT littermates as they aged

(**Figure 3, Figures S3, S6, Table 1**).

Histological features consistent with interstitial pneumonia are observed in the lungs from a

significant number (>40%) of both the WT and *Gata1*^{low} mice analyzed (**Figures 3A** and **S3**).

More specifically, interstitial pneumonia (mild, moderate and severe) characterized by infiltration

of lymphocytes, macrophages and neutrophils in the alveolar septae and in the peri-bronchial-

vascular spaces, was observed in 9 out of 12 WT mice analyzed and in 27 out of 37 of the *Gata1*^{low}

mice (**Figure 3B**). In the *Gata1*^{low} mice, pneumonia extend from the alveolar septae to the

subpleural interstitium (**Figure S3**). Without controlling for the effects of age or sex, there are no

statistically significant differences in severity of lung inflammation between the two genotypes.

Sensitivity analyses adjusting for age and for sex also failed to find a statistically significant

difference (**Table 1**). Notably, the high level of inflammation observed in the lung of WT (CD1)

mice is consistent with previous studies on their baseline pathologies which showed they suffer

from acute inflammatory pathology, including pneumonia[45].

In contrast to the lack of inflammation differences, we found elevated incidence of fibrosis in lungs

from *Gata1*^{low} mice, but we observed it seldom in those from their WT littermates (**Figure 3A,**

3C, S6, S7A). Both by reticulin and Masson's tricrome staining, fibrosis is not detectable (66.7%)

or is overall mild (Grade 1, 33.3%) in the lungs from WT mice. By contrast, is absent only in a

minority (27.6%) of the lung from *Gata1*^{low} mice and is present at mild (Grade 1), moderate (Grade

2) or severe (Grade 3) levels in 31.03%, 27.59% and 13.79% of the mice in this group, respectively

(**Table 1**) with a penetrance of 85.71% at >22 months of age.

Without controlling for the effects of age or sex, there are statistically significant differences

between WT and *Gata1*^{low} mice in lung fibrosis as assessed by semiquantitative (p=0.01) or by

quantitative methods (p=0.006) (**Table 1**). In multivariable analysis, the formal test of interaction

between genotype and age was statistically significant (p=0.02); indicating that age is a statistically

significant modifier on the relationship between genotype and lung fibrosis. By contrast. there is

insufficient evidence to conclude there is a relationship between sex and fibrosis grade (p=0.99)

(**Figure 3E,F**). When stratifying by genotype, there is evidence of a statistically significant

relationship between age and lung fibrosis grade in *Gata1*^{low} mice (p<0.001), with lung fibrosis

grade increasing with increasing age; there is insufficient evidence to conclude there exists a

relationship between age and fibrosis grade in WT mice (p=0.26).

Taken together, these data suggest that mild interstitial pneumonia is to be considered a

background lesion of the CD1 strain, while fibrosis in the lungs is an age-associated trait in mice

harboring *Gata1*^{low} genetic lesions.

Lungs from old Gata1^{low} mice contain elevated levels of P-SEL, TGF-β1 and CXCL1 in cells

with a megakaryocyte morphology

Previous described results in mice indicated that in the bleomycin model, IPF is associated with

greater than normal expression of several pro-inflammatory factors including: P-selectin

(produced by endothelial cells); TGF-β (produced by several cell types including alveolar

macrophages, epithelial and endothelial cells, interstitial fibroblasts and Type II pneumocytes);

and CXCL1, the murine equivalent of human interleukin-8 (IL-8) in bronchoalveolar lavages[10,46–]

[56]. Notably, some of these observations have been validated with samples from human fibrotic

patients [10,46–56].

We assessed whether the inflammatory milieu of the lungs from $Gata1^{low}$ mice has similar

abnormalities by comparing the content of P-SEL, TGF-β1 and CXCL1 in the lungs from $Gata1^{low}$

and WT littermates by immunohistochemistry (**Figure 4**). Strikingly, we found that the lungs from

$Gata1^{low}$ mice contain levels 10-fold greater than normal of P-SEL, 20-fold greater than normal of

TGF-β1 and 2-fold greater than normal of CXCL1 (**Figure 4A,B**). By morphological analysis, all

the pro-inflammatory proteins were expressed by endothelial cells, macrophages and neutrophils

also from lungs of $Gata1^{low}$ mice and mutant type II pneumocytes contained levels greater than

those observed in WT cells of P-SEL and TGF-β1. In addition, cells with MK-like morphology

were readily detected only in lung sections immune-from $Gata1^{low}$ mice stained for all the three

pro-inflammatory proteins. The high levels of TGF-β1 (fold-change 1.49, p=0.006) and P-sel (fold

change 1.63, p=0.031) contained in $Gata1^{low}$ MK is consistent with the high expression of these

genes (**Table S2**).

We note that further support that the pro-inflammatory proteins produced by the abnormal MK

drive fibrosis in our model is provided by histo-morphological observations showing that MK

found in the lung of $Gata1^{low}$ mice are embedded within the collagen fibers (**Figure S7**).

These results indicate that high expression of P-SEL, TGF-β1 and CXCL1 by endothelial cells,

bronchial epithelium and macrophages are drivers for lung inflammation observed in both WT and

$Gata1^{low}$ littermates, but that expression of these pro-inflammatory proteins by type II

pneumocytes and MK are responsible for the increased bioavailability which leads to fibrosis in

the lungs of the mutant mice.

Fibrosis in the lung from Gata1^{low} mice is prevented by genetic ablation of P-selectin

To assess the role of P-SEL in the pathogenesis of lung fibrosis, we compared the MK profile and

the histopathology of lungs from $Gata1^{low}$ and from their $Gata1^{low}$ littermates lacking P-sel with

age (**Figures 2A,3D-F, 5 *and* Tables 1** and **S2A**).

In the lung of mice carrying only the P-sel^{null} mutation, used as control, the total numbers of MK

were similar to those observed in WT littermates (**Table S3**). However, mature MK were less

frequent in lungs from P-sel^{null} mice than in those from WT littermates (**Figures 2A, S1** and **Table**

S3). Moreover, the lungs from *P-sel*^{null} mice manifest levels of inflammation not significantly different from that expressed by WT mice (**Figure 5A, Table S3**). These results indicate that deletion of *P-sel* has modest effects on the baseline inflammatory phenotype of the murine strain used for this study. Critically, the WT littermates of *P-sel*^{null} mice did not develop fibrosis in the lungs (**Figure 5A, 3D-F** and **Table S3**).

Although the lungs from *Gata1*^{low} and *P-sel*^{null}*Gata1*^{low} mice contain similar numbers of abnormal MK (**Figure 2A,** and **Table 1**), the frequency of those expressing an immature phenotype was greatly decreased in the lungs from the double mutants compared to the *Gata1*^{low} littermates. Also in this case, the modestly higher rates of severe inflammation (grade 2 or 3) observed in *Gata1*^{low} compared to *P-sel*^{null}*Gata1*^{low} mice (43.2% vs 27.8%) is not a statistically significant (unadjusted p=0.27; age-adjusted p=0.08; sex-adjusted p=0.34) (**Figure 5A, Table 1**). However, lung fibrosis is higher among *Gata1*^{low} compared to *P-sel*^{null}*Gata1*^{low} mice (Mean [±SD]=12. [±11.6] vs 5.2 [±5.3]). After adjusting for differences in sex or in age (age-adjusted p=0.04; sex-adjusted p=0.002), the difference in lung fibrosis between the two group is statistically significant (**Figure 3D-F, Figure 5A, Table 1**).

Mechanistically, reduction of severe inflammation in mice lacking *P-sel* is associated with barely detectable levels not only, as expected due to the genetic lesion, of P-SEL, but also of TGF-β and CXCL1 (**Figure 4A,B**). As expected, single cell analyses indicate that genetic deletion of *P-sel* reduced P-SEL content in endothelial cells, type II pneumocytes, bronchial epithelium, macrophages but did not affect the content of TGF-β and CXCL1 in these cells with respect to WT (compare **Figure S8 with Figure 4C**). By contrast, deletion of *P-sel* in *Gata1*^{low} mice specifically reduced the content of TGF-β and CXCL1 in MK with respect to that observed in *Gata1*^{low} mice (compare **Figure S8** with **Figure 4C**), providing support for the hypothesis that MK are the driver for their increased microenvironmental bioavailability associated with lung fibrosis in *Gata1*^{low} mice.

In conclusion, ablation of *P-sel* has modest effects on inflammation but, after adjusting for age and sex, significantly reduces fibrosis in the lungs of *Gata1*^{low} mice. Reduction of fibrosis is associated with reduced frequency of morphologically immature MK and of MK producing TGF-β1 and CXCL1 in the lung.

Fibrosis in the lung from Gata1^{low} mice is rescued by inhibitors of P-selectin, TGF-β or CXCL1

Fibrosis in the lung from Gata1^{low} mice is rescued by inhibitors of P-selectin, TGF-β or CXCL1

Given the role of pro-inflammatory factors involved in the development of lung fibrosis in
Gata1^{low} mice, we hypothesized that it may be to assess whether the pharmacologically reversible.
To test this, we treated, 12-month monthsold *Gata1*^{low} mice with the P-SEL neutralizing antibody
RB40.34, or the TGF-β1 trap AVID200 or the CXCR1/2, the receptor for CXCL1, inhibitor
Reparixin (**Figure 5B-D**). RB40.34 treatment significantly reduced not only inflammation but also
fibrosis in the lungs within 5 days. By day 40, 50% of the treated mice had no sign of lung
inflammation, and fibrosis was undetectableundetected by Masson staining and only persisted at
low level by reticulin staining. AVID200 treatment had modest effects on lung inflammation and
did not reduce fibrosis by reticulin staining, h. owever, it significantly decreased fibrosis detected
by Masson by 10 weeks **(Figure 5E-G)**. CXCR1/2 inhibitor reduced, lung inflammation by day
20 and fibrosis was significantly reduced by reticulin staining both at day 20 and 37 and by Masson
at day 20 only (**Figure 5H-J**).

Taken together, although inhibition of P-SEL, TGF-β1 or CXCL1 as single agents are all effective
in reverting fibrosis in the lungs from *Gata1*^{low} mice, a temporal gradient of efficacy was observed
among the three drugs with inhibition of P-SEL being the most effective. In fact, P-SEL inhibitors
were effective both at early and late points and reduced both reticulin and collagen fibers. TGF-β1
inhibitors were effective at late points only and reduced complex collagen deposition while
CXCR1/2 inhibitors were effective at early and late time points both on reticulin and collagen
fibers and at late time points on reticulin fibers only.

Inhibition of P-SEL reduces the content of both TGF-β1 and CXCL1 and increases that of
GATA1 of the megakaryocytes

Mechanistic insights on the effects exerted by the three pro-inflammatory inhibitors on the fibrosis
of the lung were obtained by investigating their effects on the TGF-β1, CXCL1 and GATA1
content of the MK (**Figure 6**). Treatment with the P-SEL inhibitor significantly reduced both the
TGF-β1 and CXCL1 content by day 5 and persisted up to day 40 **(Figure 6A-C)**. At the single cell
level, treatment with the P-SEL inhibitor reduced the TGF-β content in MK and that of CXCL1
both in MK and in type II pneumocytes (**Figure S9** and data not shown). Treatment with this
inhibitor also increased the GATA1 content of the MK (**Figure 6D,E**). By contrast, treatment with
either the TGF-β1 or the CXCR1/2 inhibitor significantly reduced only the CXCL1 content by the

end of the treatment without affecting that of TGF-β1 (**Figure 6A-C**). These reductions also were
more pronounced at the level of the MK (**Figure S9** and data not shown). The TGF-β1 and the
CXCR1/2 inhibitor did not significantly affect the GATA1 content of MK which remained low
Figure 6F-I). These results provide further support to the hypothesis that in *Gata1^{low}* mice IPF is
sustained by pro-inflammatory proteins, such as TGF-β1 and the CXCL1, produced by the
abnormal MK.

Discussion

We describe that the lungs of IPF patients and those from old mice harboring the *Gata1^{low}* mutation
which impairs expression of this gene in MK, contain MK expressing low levels of GATA1 and
biased toward the immune lineage. In addition, *Gata1^{low}* mice develop with age fibrosis in the
lung. These results suggest that abnormalities in the immune-MK populations produced by the BM
and sustained by low GATA1 content, represent possible drivers for IPF. Importantly, we propose
Gata1^{low} mice as a novel animal model for IPF.

Overall, the histological features of the fibrosis observed in the lung from *Gata1^{low}* mice are more
similar to that observed in IPF in patients than that displayed by the currently available bleomycin
model of the disease: i) as IPF patients, *Gata1^{low}* mice progressively develop both reticulin and
collagen fibrosis in the lungs as they age, recapitulating the chronic nature of the disease, while in
the bleomycin model fibrosis is an acute event retained until the insult persist. ii) although the lung
from *Gata1^{low}* mice never acquires the honeycomb morphology typical of those from IPF patients,
in the *Gata1*^{low} lung, as in those from the patients, fibrosis is present predominantly in the
subpleural region of the basal lobes and, occasionally, in the para-septal parenchyma while in
bleomycin-treated animals, fibrosis has a bronco centric localization that reflects the site where
the insult is applied; iii) as in IPF patients, inflammation is not the primary cause of fibrosis in the
lung from *Gata1^{low}* mice while fibrosis is a direct consequence of inflammation in bleomycin-
treated animals. The evidences that inflammation is not the primary driver of fibrosis in *Gata1^{low}*
mice are: i) inflammation is observed also in the lung from WT littermates which never develop
fibrosis; ii) genetic deletion of *P-sel* prevents development of fibrosis in the lung of mice carrying
the *Gata1^{low}* mutation but does not reduce the base-line inflammation of this organ; iii)
pharmacological inhibition of either P-SEL, TGF-β or CXCR1/2, has modest, if any, effect on

inflammation but rescues the fibrosis in the lung of *Gata1^low* mice. Based on these data, we conclude that inflammation is a confounding factor rather than a cause of fibrosis in IPF and that *Gata1^low* mice represent a model for IPF more stringent than the bleomycin-treated mice currently used to study the etiology of this disease.

In the bleomycin-animal model, inflammation is initially associated with accumulation of neutrophils within the lung, which are subsequently replaced by lymphocytes[57]. This accumulation is associated with an increase in the levels of systemic and microenvironmental pro-inflammatory cytokines (TGF-β, CXCL1 and others), which precede pro-fibrotic markers (fibronectin and pro-collagen 1), eventually leading to fibrosis[5]. Abnormal expression of P-SEL by endothelial cells[10] and of TGF-β by numerous cell types, including endothelial cells, epithelial cells, type II pneumocytes and alveolar macrophages[50,51], has been implicated in the development of fibrosis in the lungs of bleomycin-treated animals. In addition, although CXCL1 is elevated in bronco-alveolar lavages of these mice[58], the cells responsible for its production are not yet been identified. Some of these findings in mice have been validated by studies involving IPF patients[52,54,55,59 47–49] but, by contrast with the results with the bleomycin mouse models, P-SEL is expressed at levels greater than normal on the Plt from IPF patients[46]. However, since studies in the bleomycin model are confounded by inflammation, it is not possible to discriminate the cells which produce factors responsible for inflammation from those which produce factors responsible for fibrosis.

To address this, we used a combination of genetic and pharmacological approaches to dissect the identity of the cells responsible to sustain these two pathological aspects in our model. By immune-histochemistry analyses, endothelial and epithelial cells, alveolar macrophages and interstitial fibroblasts from the lung not only of *Gata1^low* mice but also of their WT littermates and of *Psel^null* mice, which express inflammation but no fibrosis, contain robust levels of P-SEL, TGF-β and/or CXCL1, suggesting that the abnormal content of these proteins in these cells is responsible for the baseline inflammation. By contrast, MK, and to some extent type II pneumocytes, are the cells that contain robust levels of these pro-inflammatory mediators mainly in the lung from *Gata1^low* mice, suggesting that these cells are responsible to establish the pro-inflammatory milieu that drives fibrosis in this model. This interpretation is consistent with the observation that GATA1-deficient immune MK are detectable in the lung from old *Gata1^low* mice and from IPF patients. In the case of *Gata1^low* MK, their altered immune functions were confirmed by RNA-seq profiling which includes upregulation of the inflammatory mediators TGF-β (fold-change= 1.49, *p*=0.006) and

CXCR2 the receptor for CXCL1[60,61] (fold change=1.95, p=0.007), and downregulation of factors
involved in the MK-specific anti-microbial response of the lung: *CXCL1* fold-change=2.8,
p=0.000), *CXCL5* (fold-change -2.691, *p*=0.017, and *CXCL10* (fold-change -1.88, *p*=0.033) [60–63].
The discrepancy between normal levels of *CXCL1* mRNA detected in the *Gata1*^low MK by RNA-
seq and their high *CXCL1* content detected by immunohistochemistry may be explained by the
high levels of the mRNA for *CXCL2*, a receptor which internalize its ligand without routing it to
the degradation system, expressed by these cells which allow accumulation of the protein in the
cell cytoplasm.

The pathogenetic role of P-SEL, TGF-β and CXCL1 in the fibrosis of the lung from *Gata1^low* mice
was further dissected by evaluating the effects of the deletion of *P-sel* and inhibition of P-SEL,
TGF-β and CXCR1/2 on the lung phenotype of these mice. Genetic deletion of *P-sel* prevented
the development of fibrosis in the lung from mice carrying the *Gata1*^low mutation with age. This
effect was associated with reduced content of both TGF-β and CXCL1 in the MK from this organ.
Furthermore, inhibition of P-SEL reduced fibrosis (both as reticulin and collagen fibers) quickly,
the effects were sustained upon the end of the treatment and were associated with significant
reductions in the frequency of MK with low GATA1 content and high TGF-β and CXCL1 content.
CXCR1/2 inhibition also reduced reticulin fibers both at early and late time points but reduced
collagen fibers only at early time points. The failure of Reparexin, the CXCL1/2 inhibitor tested
in our models to reduce collagen fibers at early time points is consistent with previous observations
indicating that this drug effectively reduces fibrosis in Bleomycin-treated mice which represent a
model for early stages of the disease[64,65]. The effects of the CXCR1/2 inhibitor were associated
with reduced CXCL1 content in the lung but the levels of TGF-β remained high and that of GATA1
remained low in the MK from the CXCR1/2 treated *Gata1*^low mice. Moreover, TGF-β inhibition
had modest effects on the reticulin fibers, reduced collagen fibers only at the latest time point and
the effects were associated with reduced CXCL1 content. As for CXCR1/2 inhibition, the TGF-β
content of the MK remained high and that of GATA1 remained low also upon TGF-β inhibition.
Although the effects exerted the TGF-β inhibitor on the fibrosis of the lung from *Gata1*^low mice
are inferior to those exerted by drugs inhibiting the same pathway in bleomycin-treated model,
they are consistent with the poor performance of drugs which inhibit a spectrum of pro-
inflammatory cytokines which include TGF-β clinically tested up to now in IPF[14–17].

Overall, these data suggest that in *Gata1*^{low} mice fibrosis in the lung is triggered by an abnormal

population of immune-MK which initiates a sequence of pathological effects exerted by multiple

pro-inflammatory proteins over time. The first step is accumulation of immune-MK and

engagement of these cells in a pathological cell interaction mediated by P-SEL. This cell

interaction increases the bioavailability of TGF-β and CXCL1, and possibly of other

proinflammatory cytokines not identified as yet, in the microenvironment that sustain the cell

mesenchymal transition responsible for fibrosis. The cell undergoing the mesenchymal transition

in the *Gata1*^{low} lung has not been identified as yet. However, since the genes encoding the

extramedullary matrix are down-regulated in the RNA-seq profiling of the *Gata1*^{low} MK from the

lung (**Figures S5C** and **S7**), we exclude that this population is represented by the niche-poised

MK, a population responsible to synthesize the extracellular matrix during organo-genesis[42] and

that, when pathologically reactivated in adulthood, promote scarring of the BM[25].

The finding that *Gata1*^{low} mice develop with age both myelofibrosis and fibrosis in the lung is

counterintuitive with respect to the clinical practice. In fact, patients with MF, a disease driven by

mutations in the hematopoietic stem cells which reduces GATA1 content in MK, include

development of pulmonary hypertension[66] but not of lung fibrosis (Dr. Hoffman, personal

communication) while those with IPF seldom develop myeloproliferative neoplasms (Dr. Richeldi,

unpublished observations). This apparent paradox is reconciled by the observation that in

Gata1[low] mice myelofibrosis and IPF are driven by two distinctive MK populations: Myelofibrosis

is sustained by reactivation of the differentiation of the niche-MK, a population which plays an

important role during organogenesis which is absent in adult BM[42] and that is responsible to

produce collagen in the BM on these patients[25]. By contrast, our data indicate that in IPF, fibrosis

is driven by pro-inflammatory proteins produced by the abnormal immune-MK. In other words,

the mutations (or epigenetic events) that drive myelofibrosis and those, still to be identified, that

drive IPF sustain the generation of abnormal GATA1^{low} MK belonging to different lineages:

GATA1[low] niche-supporting MK are responsible for myelofibrosis and GATA1^{low} immune-MK

for IPF. Since the *Gata1*^{low} mutation affects the GATA1 content of MK of all lineages, it mimics

downstream effects induced by both the myelofibrosis and IPF driver mutations and the *Gata1*^{low}

mice develop both phenotypes. Indirect support for this hypothesis, is provided by the observation

that loss of telomerase function predisposes not only to IPF but also to aplastic anemia[19], a

condition associated with hematopoietic failure and insufficient production of MK[67]. We

hypothesize that the epigenetic reprogramming (or genetic event) restricting the differentiation
potential of hematopoietic stem cells toward the MK lineage occurring during the process of clonal
hematopoiesis associated with aging [68], determines whether telomerase-deficient hematopoietic
stem cells will generate GATA1low immune-MK, resulting in IPF. In this regard, cells of BM origin
had been already associated with development of IPF[69], leading to the interesting therapeutic
hypothesis that IPF may be treated with BM transplantation[70].

In conclusion, *Gata1low* mice are the first genetically driven IPF animal model and provide strong
evidence that immune-MK alterations play a major role in the development of this disease. The
*Gata1*low model also clarifies that P-SEL dysregulation predates TGF-β and CXCL1 in the
pathobiology of IPF and should be considered for treatment of these patients.

Limitations of study

The limitations of this study are: 1) insufficient evidence that the molecular abnormalities of the
immune MK found in the lungs from IPF patients are similar to that found in the cells from
Gata1low mice; 2) insufficient evidence that the *Gata1low* mutation drives the IPF phenotype in a
cell autonomous fashion and 3) insufficient evidence in support of innovative therapeutic options
in IPF. Limitation 1) will be addressed by additional studies investigating the abnormalities of the
MK and the hematopoietic stem cells from IPF patients. Limitation (2) will be addressed by
demonstrating that WT mice develop fibrosis in the lungs when transplanted with *Gata1*low
hematopoietic stem cells while the fibrosis in the lungs of *Gata1*low mice is cured by transplantation
with WT hematopoietic stem cells. The experiments, that will be done as part of separate studies,
required to overcome limitation 1 and 2 will also overcome limitation (3) by providing preclinical
rational to test the beneficial effects of BM transplantation for IPF.

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Author contributions

FG, MZ, PV, MF, FA, FM and GS performed experiments and analyzed data. MM and JV performed the RNA-seq analysis. CMH and ACD did the statistical analysis. AP, GS, SN, and LR reviewed the data and wrote the manuscript. ARM, designed the experiments, analyzed and reviewed the data and wrote the manuscript. All the authors read the manuscript, concur with its content and approved the submission.

Declaration of Interest

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest. ARM received funding for research from Dompé Pharmaceutics, Forbius, Novartis for other projects.

Methods

Human Subjects. Consecutive lung sections from IPF and non-IPF patients (three different patients per group) were provided, respectively, by the Institute of Human Pathology, Policlinico Sant'Orsola, Bologna, Italy and by Policlinico Campus Bio-Medico (Rome). Details of the subjects included in the study are provided in **Table S1**. This is not a human study because all the human specimens were provided as de-identified material by public repositories and it is not subjected to prior IRB approval according to the Declaration of Helsinki for Studies Involving Human Subjects.

Mice. Male and female WT, *P-sel*[null], *Gata1*^{low} and *P-sel*[null]*Gata1*^{low} mice were generated in the animal facility of Istituto Superiore di Sanità as previously described [71]. All the mutations are in the CD1 background. The study was approved by the Italian Ministry of Health (protocol n. 419/2015-PR and D9997.121) and conducted according to the European Directive 2010/63/EU for the protection of animals used for scientific purposes.

Treatments. _P-SEL inhibitors:_ Twenty 8-11 months-old *Gata1*^{low} mice were randomly divided in two groups which were treated either with vehicle (2% v/v dimethyl sulfoxide in H_2O) or with biotinylated mAb RB40.34 (BD Pharmigen, San Diego, CA; 30 µg/mouse every other day by tail vein injection), as described [72,73]. Mice were sacrificed after 5-12-40 days for histopathologic determinations. _TGF-β1 inhibitors_: *Gata1*^{low} mice (10 - 12 months-old) were weighted and

randomly divided into two groups (four males and four females/group) and treated with either vehicle (PBS) or with the TGF-β1 trap AVID200 (5mg/Kg twice a week by intraperitoneal injection), as described[74]. Mice were treated either for 42 (six mice, three females and three males with AVID200 and 2 females with vehicle) or 72-78 (eight mice, four females and four males in each group) days. At day 42, 72 or 78 from the beginning of the treatment, mice were euthanized, and their lung removed for histopathology observations. *CXCR1/CXCR2 inhibitors*: Sixteen eight-month-old *Gata1*^{low} mice were anesthetized with 2-to-3% isoflurane and implanted subcutaneously with an ALZET® Osmotic Pump (model 2002) pre-filled with 200μL of vehicle (sterile saline) or the CXCR1/CXCR2 inhibitor Reparixin (7.5mg/h/Kg in sterile saline) as described [75,76]. Mice were sacrificed after 17 or 37 days after treatment, and their lungs removed for histopathological determinations.

Histochemistry. Lung and bone marrow (BM) from WT, *Gata1*^{low}, *P-sel*[null] and *P-sel*[null]*Gata1*^{low} mice were fixed in 10% (vol/vol) phosphate-buffered formalin, paraffin embedded and cut into consecutive 3μm sections, according to standard procedures. Consecutive sections from the mouse organs, as well as from BM and lungs of the patients, were stained with Hematoxylin-Eosin (H&E, cat no. 01HEMH2500 and 01EOY101000, respectively; Histo-Line Laboratories, Milan, Italy), Reticulin (Bio-Optica, Milan, Italy) or Masson's trichrome (Bio-Optica) and evaluated with a Nikon Eclipse E600 microscope (Nikon Instruments Europe BV, Amsterdam, NL) equipped with the Imaging Source "33" Series USB 3.0 Camera (DFK 33UX264; Bremen, DE). Inflammation was assessed on de-identified H&E stained sections by an experienced veterinarian pathologist and expressed on the basis of a semiquantitative scale based on the numbers of inflammatory cells (neutrophils, macrophages and lymphocytes) that were infiltrating the alveolar septae and/or peribronchial-vascular spaces: grade 0 (absence of inflammatory cells); grade 1 (rare inflammatory cells in <10% of the area); grade 2 (moderate numbers of inflammatory cells in 10-30% of the area) and grade 3 (presence of large numbers inflammatory cells in >30% of the area). Fibrosis. Semiquantitative and quantitative assessment of fibrosis were performed on sections stained with Reticulin or Masson's trichrome staining by an experienced veterinary pathologist and by Image analysis using the software ImageJ (version 1.52t, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD, USA), respectively. The semiquantitative scoring was the following: grade 0 (presence of collagen fibers only at the bronchovascular level and absence of septal alveolar fibrosis); grade 1 (presence of focal mature collagen fibers in the alveolar-septal interstitium); grade 2 (deposition of multifocal

to coalescing collagen fibers in the alveolar-septa interstitium); grade 3 (deposition of collagen

bundles that irregularly thicken the alveolar septa and alterations of the overall pulmonary

architecture) (**Figure S4A**). Quantitative image analysis was performed on five different

photomicrographs randomly selected per each lung section/mouse (area of each

photomicrograph=1.49mm^2) (**Figure S4B**). The number of mice analysed per experimental group

is indicated in the legends. Fibrosis was expressed as percent of the area stained in blue with respect

to the total area of the field censored of the empty alveolar spaces. Statistical analyses confirmed

a good correlation between the semiquantitative and quantitative determinations of fibrosis

(**Figure S4C**).

Immunofluorescence (IF) studies. Mouse and human lung and sections (3μm thick each) were

dewaxed in xylene and treated with EDTA (buffer pH=8), incubated for 20min in a pressure cooker

(110-120°C, high pressure) for antigen retrieval and then with antibodies against CD42b (cat no.

ab183345, Abcam, Cambridge, UK) or/and GATA1 (cat no. sc-265, Santa Cruz Biotechnology,

Santa Cruz, CA, USA), Collagen I (cat no. NB600-408, Novus biologicals, Centennial, CO, USA),

Collagen III (cat no. ab7778, Abcam) or Collagen IV (cat no. ab6586, Abcam) over night at 4°C.

Cell binding of the primary antibodies was visualized with a secondary antibody goat anti-rat

Alexa Fluor 488 (cat no. ab150165, Abcam) or anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor 555 (cat no. ab150078,

Abcam), as appropriate. Sections were counterstain with DAPI (cat no. D9542-5MG, Sigma

Aldrich, Saint Louis, MI, USA) and mounted with Fluor-shield histology mounting medium (cat

no. F6182-10MG, Sigma Aldrich). The slides were examined using a Nikon Eclipse Ni microscope

equipped with the appropriate filter cubes to distinguish the fluorochromes employed. The images

were recorded with a Nikon DS-Qi1Nc digital camera and NIS Elements software BR 4.20.01 and

selected sections were acquired using FV1000 confocal microscope (Olympus, Tokyo, Japan)

equipped with a confocal spectral imaging system (Olympus Fluoview 1000). The number of

megakaryocytes was counted in 10 fields per section and expressed as mean value.

Confocal Microscopy. Femurs were fixed in formaldehyde (10% v/v with neutral buffer), treated

for 1h with a decalcifying kit (Osteodec; Bio-Optica, Milan, Italy) and included in paraffin. Three

micron-thick BM sections were dewaxed in xylene and antigens were retrieved by treatment with

EDTA buffer (pH=8) for 20' in a pressure cooker (110-120°C, high pressure). For each sample

almost 3 consecutive sections were obtained. One was incubated with antibodies against CD41

(rat anti mouse, Santacruz Biotechnology INC. (MWReg30): sc-19963) and LSP1 ([EPR5997].

Another one with monoclonal rabbit anti mouse (Abcam cat. ab133506) and the last one incubated

with antibodies against CD61 ((B-7) mouse anti mouse, Santacruz Biotechnology INC., sc-46655)

conjugated with Alexa 488, and MYLK (polyclonal rabbit anti-mouse, Proteintech, 24309-1-AP);

and the last one incubated with antibodies against CD42b (mouse monoclonal, Santacruz

Biotechnology INC, sc-271171) and ARNTL (rabbit anti mouse/human NB100-2288, Bio-

Techne), for 2 hours at room temperature. After extensive washing, sections were incubated for

45 min at room temperature with the following secondary antybody: CD41 was visualized with

the antibody goat anti rat Alexa Fluor 488 (Catalog #A-11006, Invitrogen); the LSP1, CD42b and

MYLK antibodies were visualized with the antibody donkey anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor 555 (Catalog

A-31572, Invitrogen) and ARNTL was visualized with the antibody goat anti mouse Alexa Fluor

488 (Catalog #A32723, Invitrogen), CD61 is directly conjugated with Alexa 488. All sections were

mounted with Mounting Medium With DAPI - Aqueous, Fluoroshield (Catalog #ab104139,

Abcam) and examined using a confocal microscope Zeiss LSM 900 (Carl Zeiss GmbH, Jena,

Germany) in Airyscan mode, using a (Zeiss) planapo objective 60x oil A.N. 1,42. Excitation light

was obtained by a Laser Dapi 408 nm (DAPI), an Argon Ion Laser (488 nm) for Alexa 488 and a

Diode Laser HeNe (561 nm) for Alexa 555. DAPI emission was recorded from 415 to 485 nm,

Alexa 488 emission was recorded from 495 to 550 nm, Alexa 555 emission was recorded from

583 to 628 nm. Images recorded have an optical thickness of 0.3 μm and were processed with the

Zen Blue (3.2) (Carl Zeiss GmbH, Jena,Germany) and ImageJ (1.53t – National Institutes of

Health, USA, http://imagej.nih.gov/ij) softwares. All images were collected with the same detector

value for DAPI, Alexa 488 and Alexa 555, respectively. The background of each signal was

calculated splitting the channels and the single channel background obtained in areas external to

cells. The number of positive cells were obtained in the whole section(s).

Immunohistochemistry (IHC). Three micron-thick lung sections were dewaxed and rehydrated.

Endogenous peroxidase was blocked by immersion in H_2O_2 in methanol (3%, v/v) for 30' at room

temperature. Antigen retrieval was performed by incubation in citrate buffer, pH=6.0 for 1min in

a microwave oven at 750W, followed by cooling at room temperature for 20'. After blocking of

non-specific antigenic sites by incubation with goat serum in PBS (10%, v/V) for 30' at room

temperature, slides were incubated with CD42b (cat no. ab183345, Abcam, Cambridge, UK),

biotinylated anti-P-SEL (cat no. 553743, BD Pharmigen), anti-TGF-β1 (cat no. sc-130348, Santa

Cruz Biotechnology), anti-CXCL1 (cat no. ab86436, Abcam), anti-CXCR1 (cat no. GTX100389,

Genetex, Irvine, CA, USA) and anti-CXCR2 (cat no. ab14935, Abcam) antibodies overnight at 4°C. Binding sites were revealed with the commercial avidin-biotin-peroxidase kit (ABC Kit Elite, Vector, Burlingame, CA) and the chromogen 3,3′-diaminobenzidine (0.05%, Histo-Line Laboratories) either directly or previous incubation with suited secondary biotinylated antibodies. Slides were counterstained with Harris hematoxylin (Histo-Line Laboratories) and mounted with HistoMount DPX medium (cat no. 01BM500H, Histo-Line Laboratories). Image analysis was performed using ImageJ program and the content of antibody binding was calculated as intensity of the brown staining above the threshold in areas ($1.49mm^2$ each) from 5 different photomicrographs randomly selected for each sample. The intensity of the staining of individual cells recognized according to standard morphological criteria was arbitrarily assessed as "–" (below detection), "+" (detectable) and "++" (strongly detectable).

Flow cytometry of lung megakaryocytes. Lungs were incubated in Dulbecco's modified Eagle Medium (cat no. D8537, Sigma-Aldrich, Saint Lois, M0, USA), supplemented with 10% (v/v) fetal bovine serum (cat no. F7524, Signa Aldrich), penicillin/streptomycin (cat. no. 15140122), vitamins (cat no. 11120052), Glutamax (cat. no. 10566016), non-essential amino acids (cat no. 11140050) and sodium pyruvate (cat no. 11360070) plus collagenase type II (1mg/mL, cat no. 17101015) (all from Gibco; Grand Island, NY, USA), as described[43]. After 30min at 37°C, lungs were mashed through a 100-µm cell strainer (BD Pharmingen) and washed with cold media and centrifuged at 1200 rpm for 5 minutes. ACK Lysing Buffer (cat no. A1049201, Gibco) was added to the pellet for 5 minutes in ice. The ACK was washed out with 50 mL of PBS and centrifuged at 1200 rpm for 5min. Cells were then incubated with phycoerythrin (PE)-CD41 (cat no. 558040) and fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC)-CD61 (cat. no. 553346). Dead cells were excluded by Sytox Blue staining (0.002mM, Molecular Probes, Eugene, OR, USA). For DNA content determinations, cells were then incubated with phycoerythrin (PE)-CD42b (cat. no. 555473) and FITC-CD61, washed and fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde (Sigma-Aldrich) for 60min, permeabilized with Triton-X100 (0.2% v/v in PBS, cat. no. 108643; Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) for 15min and incubated with propidium iodide (40 µg/mL in PBS) and RNase A (100units/mL, cat. no. 10109142001, Merck) for 30min at 37°C. All the antibodies are from BD Pharmingen. Cells were analyzed with Gallios (Beckman Coulter, Brea, CA, USA) and the flow cytometry data processed with the Kaluza program (version 2.1, Beckman Coulter).

RNA seq analysis. MK were purified from the BM and lungs of two *Gata1^low^* and three WT

littermates (11-25 months of age. Total RNA was collected using the Direct-zol™ RNA MiniPrep

(>200,000 sorted Megakaryocytes) or MicroPrep (<200,000 sorted Megakaryocytes) (Zymo

Reaserch). Illumina libraries were constructed using SMARTer Stranded Total RNA-Seq Kit v3 -

Pico Input Mammalian (TaKaRa, Japan). RNA-seq libraries were sequenced at read lengths 2 x

151bp on the Illumina Novaseq 6000 (Illumina). Aligment was performed using RNA-STAR

(2.3.1) using the ENCODE 4 default transcriptome annotation (GENCODE v25). Gene counts

were obtained using featureCounts and FPKM per gene were calculated using Cufflinks.

Differentially expressed genes (DEGs) between the two groups of lungs megakaryocytes from

*Gata1^low^* mice and WT mice were analyzed with R package DESeq2 and the GO Enrichment

Analysis was performed with R package enrichplot, DOSE[77] and clusterProfiler [78,79]. Multiple

testing correction was performed using the Benjamini-Hochberg method and significance was

established at an FDR of 5%.

Gene Set Enrichment Analysis. GSEA was performed using GSEA software GSEA 4.3.1 wiTH

default parameters. The CURATED gene set (m2.all.v2022.1.Mm.symbols.gmt) used for the

analysis   was   downloaded   from   MSigDB

(https://www.broadinstitute.org/gsea/msigdb/collections.jsp). A total of 32,527 expressed genes

were included in the analysis. Genes were pre-ranked in order of their differential expression

between megakaryocytes from *Gata1^low^* lungs and from CD1 lungs.

Statistical methods. Categorical variables are presented as counts and percentages by genotype;

Fisher's exact tests were used to test the univariate association between genotype and outcome.

Continuous variables are presented as mean (standard deviation [SD]), median, and range).

Statistical analyses was performed by parametric t-test or one-way ANOVA for multiple

comparisons, as appropriate. Multiple linear regression and ordinal logistic regression were used

to model relationships between genotype and outcomes, adjusted by age or by sex. Multiple linear

regression was used to test the interaction between age and genotype on the outcome of percent

fibrosis. Where interaction was found, simple linear regression was used to assess the relationships

between fibrosis outcomes and age, stratified by genotype. Alignment between semiquantitative

and quantitative levels of fibrosis was assessed using box plots. All hypothesis testing was two-

sided, with p<0.05 used as the threshold for statistical significance. Analyses were conducted using

SAS software (version 9.4; SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA), R (version 3.6.3), and Prism 8

(version 8.0.2; GraphPad Software, La Jolla, CA).

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Figure Legends

Figure 1. The lung from patients with IPF contains numerous GATA1 hypomorphic

megakaryocytes biased for the immune lineage. (A) First line: Double IF staining with anti-

GATA1 (green) and CD42b (red, as a marker of MK) of lung sections from one IPF and one

representative no-IPF patient, as indicated. Nuclei are counterstained with DAPI. The inserts show

representative MK at high power fields. The signal captured in the individual channels are

presented in **Figure S1**. Second and third lines: Hematoxilin&Eosin (H&E) and reticulin staining

of the corresponding consecutive sections confirming that the lung from the IPF patient has an

overall abnormal architecture with fibrosis. Magnification 400x in the panels on the top and 200x

in the middle and bottom panels. (B) Frequency of CD42b^{pos} MK per area (0.488mm^2) and

percentage of GATA1^{pos} MK (over the total number of CD42b^{pos} cells) observed in the lungs from

IPF and no-IPF patients, as indicated. Data are presented as Mean(±SD) and as value in individual

subjects (each dot represents a single subject). The data are analyzed by One-way ANOVA and

significant p values are indicated within the panels. C) Confocal microscopy analyses for markers

of immune (CD41, green/LSP1, red), HSC-supporting (CD61 green/MYLK4 red) and Plt-poised

(CD42b red/ARNTL green) MK in the lung from a representative no-IPF and a IPF patients, as

indicated. Signals are presented in the individual channel and merged mode. The signals in the

green and red channel are presented individually and in combination. Original Magnification 400x.

D-F) Frequency of total CD41pos and CD41pos/LPS1pos (immune-MK. D), CD61pos and

CD61pos/MYLKpos (HSC-supporting MK, E) and total CD42b^{pos} and CD42b^{pos}/ARNTL^{pos} (Plt-

MK, F) MK detected in the lungs from three representative No-IPF and three IPF patients, as

indicated. Data are presented as Mean(±SD) and as value in individual subjects (each dot

represents a single subject). The data are analyzed by One-way ANOVA and significant p values

are indicated within the panels.

Figure 2. The megakaryocytes in the lungs from *Gata1^{low}* mice are immature and with age

became biased for the immune-lineage and express a defective immune-signature. (A) IHC

with the CD42b antibody of lung sections from WT (wild-type) and *Gata1*^{low} littermates, as well

as from *P-sel*^{null} and *P-sel*^{null}*Gata1*^{low} mice used as additional controls, as indicated. The panels

present representative immature (MK) and mature Plt-forming (PfMK) MK found in the different

groups. Scale bar 50µm. Magnification See Figure S2A for further detail. (*B*) Confocal microscopy

analysis for CD42b (red) and GATA1 (green) of the MK in the lung from representative *Gata1^low*
and WT littermates. Original Magnification 400x. The signal captured in the individual channels
are presented in **Figure S2B**. The frequency of CD42b^{pos} MK per area ($0.488mm^2$) and the
percentage of GATA1^{pos} MK (over the total number of CD42b^{pos} cells) observed in the lungs from
multiple mice is presented as Mean($\pm$SD) and as value in individual mice (each dot represents a
single mouse). The data are analyzed by One-way ANOVA and significant p values are indicated
within the panels. C) Frequency of CD42b^{pos} cells with a DNA content 2N, 4N and >8N in lungs
from *Gata1^low* mice and WT littermates (both 15-months old) determined by Flow cytometry, as
indicated. Data are presented as Mean ($\pm$SD) and as value in individual mice (each symbol a single
mouse) and were analyzed by ANOVA. Statistically significant p values are indicated within the
panels. D) Confocal microscopy analyses for markers of immune (CD41, green/LSP1, red), HSC-
supporting MK (CD61 green/MYLK4 red) and Plt-poised (CD42b red/ARNTL green) MK in the
lung from representative WT and *Gata1^low* mice at 2-3 (young) and 15-months (old) of age, as
indicated. Original Magnification 40x. The signal captured in the individual channels are presented
in **Figure S4**. E-G) Frequency of total CD41pos and CD41pos/LPS1pos (immune-MK, E),
CD61pos and CD61pos/MYLKpos (HSC-supporting MK, F) and total CD42b^{pos} and
CD42b^{pos}/ARNTL^{pos} (Plt-MK, G) MK detected in the lungs from multiple young and old WT and
Gata1^low mice. Data are presented as Mean($\pm$SD) and as value in individual subjects (each dot
represents a single mouse). The data are analyzed by One-way ANOVA and significant p values
are indicated within the panels. **H)** Principal component analysis (PCA**)** of the RNAseq data
obtained with MK purified from the BM and lungs of individual 15-months old WT and *Gata1^low*
littermates (each dot an individual mouse) as indicated. The strong separation and clustering of
samples demonstrates the high reproducibility of the data from the same group. The differences
between tissue of provenience (BM or lung) account for approximately 79% of the variance in the
data. **I)** Log ratio vs mean average (MA) plot of up- and down-regulated genes in MK from the
lungs of *Gata1^low* mice lungs with respect to the MK from WT lungs. **F)** Heatmaps for the level of
expression of representative genes which characterize the signature of immune (blue), HSC-
supporting (green) and Plt-poised (red) MK described by[43] . Statistically significant (p<0.05)
differences are indicated by asterisks. Interestingly, in spite of the fact that the lungs from Gata1^{low}
mice are enriched for immune-MK, they have an overall defective immune-signature.

Figure 3. Although inflammation is present in lungs from young and old wild-type and *Gata1*^low littermates alike, fibrosis is present only in those from old *Gata1*^low mice. (A) Stack images of the lungs from representative WT and *Gata1*^low littermates (both 20 months old) stained by H&E or Masson's trichrome, as indicated. Original magnification 40x. Abbreviations: cr=cranial: cd=caudal; d=; l=lateral and m=medial. B) H&E staining of sections of the lungs from representative WT and *Gata1*^low littermates expressing interstitial pneumonia at grade 0, 1, 2 and 3, as indicated. Red and green arrows indicate lymphocytes and neutrophils respectively. Magnification 200x. The frequency of mice found to express the different grades of inflammation in the two groups is indicated on the right. C) H&E, Reticulin and Masson's trichrome staining of consecutive sections from the lungs of representative WT and *Gata1*^low littermates, as indicated. Magnification 100x. D-F) Quantification of fibrosis by reticulin staining (D) and association of fibrosis evaluated by Masson's trichrome staining with age (E) and sex (F) in the lung, stratified by WT, *Gata1*^low, *P-sel*^null and *Gata1*^low*P-sel*^null littermates, as indicated. P-values from One-way ANOVA (D) and simple linear (E) or logistic (F) regression models, stratified by genotype are overlayed, along with p-value for the interaction term from a multivariable model including age and genotype (E) or sex and genotype (F) as covariates (see **Table 1** for further detail).

Figure 4. Lungs from old *Gata1*^low mice contain levels greater than normal of P-SEL, TGF-β1 and CXCL1 which are specifically accumulated in cells with a megakaryocyte morphology. A) Immunohistochemical staining for P-SEL, TGF-β1 and CXCL1 of lung sections from representative WT, *Gata1*^low, *P-sel*^null and *Gata1*^low*P-sel*^null mice (8-24 months old), as indicated. Magnification 200x. B) Quantification by computer assisted imaging of the P-SEL, TGF-β1 and CXCL1 content in the lungs from the four experimental groups. Data are presented as Mean(±SD) and were analyzed by Tukey's multiple comparisons test. Values observed in individual mice are presented as dots. Statistically significant p values (<0.05) among groups are indicated withing the panels. C) P-SEL, TGF-β1 and CXCL1 content in endothelial cells, Type II pneumocytes, bronchial epithelium, macrophages, neutrophils and MK from representative WT and *Gata1*^low littermates (both 13-months old) as indicated. Cells were identified according to the following morphological criteria: Endothelial cells were recognized as flat cells delimiting the vessels lumina; Type II pneumocytes were identified as cuboidal cells intermingled to flat cells (Type I pneumocytes) along alveolar walls; Bronchial epithelium as pseudostratified to mono-stratified cuboidal cells along airways; macrophages as cells with round nucleus and abundant

cytoplasm; neutrophils on the basis of their small size (9μm) and kidney shaped nuclei and MK on

the basis of their size (10 times greater than that of any other cell type) and the polylobate

morphology of their nuclei. Magnification 400x. Semi-quantitative estimates of protein content

are indicated as undetectable (-), present (+) and strongly present (++).

Figure 5. Development of fibrosis in the lung from *Gata1^low* mice is prevented by genetic

ablation of *P-selectin* and is rescued by treatments with inhibitors of either P-selectin, TGF-

β or CXCR1/2. A) H&E, Reticulin and Masson's trichrome staining of consecutive sections of

lungs from representative WT, *Gata1*^low, *P-sel*^null and *P-sel*^null*Gata1*^low mice (all 12-15 months

old), as indicated. Magnification 40x. Results observed in multiple mice per experimental group

are presented and analyzed in detail in **Figure 2** and **Table 1**. B, E and H) H&E, Reticulin and

Masson's trichrome staining of consecutive sections from lungs of representative *Gata1*^low mice

treated with either vehicle or the P-SEL antibody for 5, 12 or 40 days (B), with either vehicle or

the TGF-β inhibitor for 5 or 10 weeks (E) or either with vehicle or the CXCR1/2inhibitor for 20

or 37 days. H), as indicated. Magnification 200x. C, F and I) Number of *Gata1*^low mice (in percent

of the total) expressing Grade 0, 1, 2 or 3 of inflammation when treated with either vehicle or the

P-SEL inhibitor C), or when treated either with vehicle or the TGF-β (F) or either with vehicle or

the CXCR1/2 inhibitor (I). Results of the vehicle groups at different time points were pooled,

because similar. D, G, J) Level of fibrosis detected by reticulin or Masson staining in consecutive

lung sections from mice treated either with vehicle or with the P-SEL inhibitor (D), either with

vehicle or the TGF-β inhibitor (G). or either with vehicle or the CXCR1/2 inhibitor (J). Data are

presented as Mean (±SD) and as data per individual mouse (each dot a single mouse). Statistical

analyses were performed were by one-way ANOVA and p values statistically significant between

groups are indicated within the panels.

Figure 6. In the lung from *Gata1^low* mice, treatment with the P-SEL inhibitor reduces the

content of both TGF-β1 and CXCL1 and increases that of GATA1 of the megakaryocytes

while those with either the TGF-β1 or the CXCR12 inhibitor reduce the levels of CXCL1

only. A) Immunohistochemical staining for TGF-β1 and CXCL1 of consecutive lung sections

from representative *Gata1*^low mice treated either with vehicle (one mouse representative of the

vehicle group for all the treatments) or with the P-SEL (day 12 and 40), TGF-β1 (5 and 10 weeks)

or CXCR1/2 (20 or 37 days) inhibitor, as indicated. Magnification 400x. B,C) Quantification of

the TGF-β1 (B) and CXCL1 (C) content of lungs from *Gata1*^low mice treated either with vehicle

or inhibitors for P-SEL, TGF-β1 or CXCR1/2, as indicated. Data are presented as Mean (±SD) and

as values per individual mice (each symbol a different mouse) and were analyzed by one-way

Anova. P values statistically significant are indicated within the panels. D) Double immune-

fluorescence staining with anti-GATA1 (green) and CD42b (red as a marker of MK) of lung

sections from representative *Gata1^low* mice treated either with vehicle or inhibitors for either P-

SEL (day 12 and 40), TGF-β1 (5 and 10 weeks) or CXCLR1/2 (20 or 37 days), as indicated. Nuclei

were highlighted with DAPI (blue). Magnification 400x. The signal captured in the individual

channels are presented in **Figure S10**. E) Total number of MK (CD42b^pos cells) and of MK

expressing detectable levels of GATA1 in the lungs from *Gata1*^low mice treated either with vehicle

or the P-SEL, TGF-β1 or CXCR1/2 inhibitor, as indicated. Data are presented as Mean (±SD) and

as values per individual mice (each symbol a different mouse) and were analyzed by one-way

Anova. P values statistically significant are indicated within the panels.

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Table 1: Comparison of age, sex, and histological parameters between *Gata1*^{low} mice vs WT and *Gata1*^{low} mice vs P-sel[null]Gata1^{low}

	Gata1[low] (n=47)	WT (n=18)	Unadjusted p-value	Age-adjusted p-value	Sex-adjusted p-value	P-sel[null]Gata1^{low} (n=25)	Unadjusted p-value	Age-adjusted p-value	Sex-adjusted p-value
Age (months)			0.01[a]				0.07[a]		
N (Missing)	47 (0)	18 (0)				25 (0)			
Mean (SD)	12.6 (5.44)	8.7 (5.56)				10.4 (4.04)			
Range	2.0, 24.0	2.0, 18.0				11.0			
						3.0, 16.0			
Sex, n (%)			0.37[b]				0.62[b]		
Female	5 (31.3%)	19 (48.7%)				14 (56.0%)			
Male	11 (68.8%)	20 (51.3%)				11 (44.0%)			
Missing	2	8				0			
Total MK in the lung			0.001[a]	<0.001[c]	0.004[c]		0.80[a]	0.92[c]	0.14[c]
N (Missing)	9 (9)	22 (25)				10 (15)			
Mean (SD)	3.6 (2.42)	1.5 (0.91)				1.5 (0.49)			
Range	1.1, 8.3	0.0, 3.8				0.8, 2.2			
Immature MK in the lung	22 (25)	9 (9)	<0.001[a]	<0.001[c]	<0.001[c]		0.70[a]	0.48[c]	0.01[c]
N (Missing)	0.7 (0.84)	3.4 (2.53)				10 (15)			
Mean (SD)	0.0, 3.6	1.0, 8.3				0.8 (0.39)			
Range	22 (25)	9 (9)				0.2, 1.4			
Mature MK in the lung	22 (25)	9 (9)	0.007[a]	0.009[c]	0.02[c]		0.37[a]	0.43[c]	0.72[c]
N (Missing)	0.9 (0.59)	0.3 (0.42)				10 (15)			
Mean (SD)	0.0, 2.3	0.0, 1.2				0.7 (0.36)			
Range	22 (25)	9 (9)				0.2, 1.2			
Severity of lung inflammation, n (%)			>0.99[b]	0.85[d]	0.86[d]		0.27[b]	0.08[d]	0.34[d]
0	10 (27.0%)	3 (25.0%)				9 (50.0%)			

Table 1: Comparison of age, sex, and histological parameters between *Gata1*^{low} mice vs WT and *Gata1*^{low} mice vs P-sel[null]Gata1^{low}

	Gata1[low] (n=47)	WT (n=18)	Unadjusted p-value	Age-adjusted p-value	Sex-adjusted p-value	P-sel[null]Gata1^{low} (n=25)	Unadjusted p-value	Age-adjusted p-value	Sex-adjusted p-value
1	11 (29.7%)	4 (33.3%)				4 (22.2%)			
2 or 3	16 (43.2%)	5 (41.7%)				5 (27.8%)			
Missing	10	6				7			
Semiquantitative fibrosis, n (%)			0.01[b]	0.02[d]	0.001[d]		0.009[b]	0.01[d]	<0.001[d]
0	8 (27.6%)	8 (66.7%)				12 (66.7%)			
1	9 (31.0%)	4 (33.3%)				5 (27.8%)			
2 or 3	12 (41.4%)	0 (0.0%)				1 (5.6%)			
Missing	18	6				7			
Quantitative fibrosis			0.006[a]	0.01[c]	0.002[c]				
N (Missing)	29 (18)	12 (6)				18 (7)	0.01[a]	0.04[c]	0.002[c]
Mean (SD)	12.8 (11.56)	3.0 (3.10)							
Range	0.0, 45.1	0.0, 9.0							

[a]Equal variance two sample t-test p-value; [b]Fisher's exact p-value; [c]Parameter p-value from multiple linear regression with age or sex as covariate; [d]Parameter p-value from ordinal logistic regression with age or sex as covariate.

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

A Wild type — H&E — Masson — *Gata1*low — H&E — Masson

B Wild type / *Gata1*low

Grade 0 – Absent   Grade 1 – Mild   Grade 2 – Moderate   Grade 3 – Severe

Inflammation (% of mice)

- Grade 3
- Grade 2
- Grade 1
- Grade 0

WT   *Gata1*low

C 3 months old — H&E — Reticulin — Masson — 24 months old — H&E — Reticulin — Masson

Wild type / *Gata1*low

D Fibrosis by Reticulin (% of Area)

p<0.01   p<0.01

WT   *Gata1*low   P-sel^null   *Gata1*low P-sel^null

E Lung fibrosis (computer assisted)

Genotype
- Gata1low
- Gata1lowPselnull
- Pselnull
- WT

p = 0.37
p = 0.64
p = 0.01
p = 0.99

Interaction *p* = 0.53

F   M

Sex

F Lung fibrosis (computer assisted)

Genotype
- Gata1low
- Gata1lowPselnull
- Pselnull
- WT

p < 0.001
p = 0.11
p = 0.45
p = 0.26

Interaction *p* = 0.02

Age (months)

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6