Interferon Epsilon Protects Epithelial Barriers from Viral Infection through Autocrine Intracellular Signaling

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Abstract

Antiviral defenses at mucosal barriers are essential for preventing viral entry and systemic infection. Interferon epsilon (IFNε), a unique type I interferon not induced by infection, is constitutively expressed in the female reproductive tract (FRT), where it provides broad antiviral protection and fluctuates with hormone status. The role of IFNε outside the FRT remains unclear, although it is expressed in the intestinal epithelium. We generated an IFNε knockout mouse (*Ifnε-/-*) and confirmed its antiviral activity in the FRT. Using single-cell RNA sequencing of the cycling mouse FRT, we show that *Ifnε* expression is restricted to specific epithelial cells, is not hormonally regulated, and induces basal interferon-stimulated genes in an autocrine manner. scRNASeq of WT and *Ifnε$^{-/-}$* uteruses showed that loss of *Ifnε* reduced basal ISG levels in *Ifnε*-expressing epithelial cells without impacting other cell types. Consistent with this, IFNε was retained intracellularly in primary human FRT cells. scRNASeq of human stem cell-derived enteroids and tissue revealed that multiple GI epithelial cells express high basal IFNε levels, and *Ifnε-/-* mice are more susceptible to enteric viral infection. Our findings reveal that IFNε is an intracellular IFN that provides mucosal immunity across various epithelial tissues, extending its protective functions beyond the FRT.

Introduction

Antiviral defenses at barrier sites are essential for preventing entry and dissemination of viruses, which could compromise tissue integrity and lead to systemic infection. In the reproductive tract, these defenses are particularly crucial given exposure to external pathogens, such as sexually transmitted viruses, and their essential role in safeguarding reproductive health and ensuring successful reproduction. Robust antiviral responses are essential for maintaining a balanced immune environment within the reproductive tissue niche, minimizing the risk of infection while preserving tissue function and integrity.

Interferon epsilon (IFNε) is a type I IFN that has been described as specifically enriched in the epithelial cells of the female reproductive tract (FRT) (Bourke et al., 2022; Fung et al., 2013). Unlike other type I IFNs, IFNε is constitutively expressed and is not induced by viral infections. Despite its lack of induction by infection, IFNε plays a direct role in innate antimicrobial defense against sexually transmitted infections, including HIV, herpes simplex virus (HSV), Zika virus (ZIKV), and Chlamydia (Coldbeck-Shackley et al., 2023; Fung et al., 2013; Stifter et al., 2018). In addition to its role in antiviral defenses, IFNε may also play a direct role in tumorigenesis in the FRT, where it exerts tumor suppressive activities in the epithelial cells of the fallopian tubes (Marks et al., 2023).

IFNε has also been proposed to play a role in pregnancy, as it is expressed in the human myometrium, cervix, and chorioamniotic membranes, suggesting a constitutive role in host defense mechanisms at these sites (Miller et al., 2022). It is also elevated in amniotic fluid during spontaneous preterm labor with intra-amniotic infection (Miller et al., 2022), indicating a potential role in antimicrobial responses within the amniotic cavity. However, consistent with viral infections, its expression is not enhanced by bacterial stimulation *in vitro*, suggesting alternative sources of IFNε during infection (Fung et al., 2013; Miller et al., 2022).

Several clues exist as to the regulation of *IFNε* expression. Analysis of the *IFNε* promoter region revealed progesterone response elements implicating hormonal modulation in its

expression (Hardy et al., 2004). Consistent with this, *Ifnε* expression fluctuates in the mouse

uterus with the estrous cycle, and peaks during estrous when progesterone levels are highest

(Fung et al., 2013). The transcription factor ELF3, which directly regulates the expression of genes

important for maintaining the integrity and function of epithelial barriers, contributes to the control

of IFNε expression in the uterus and levels fluctuate with estrous status (Fung et al., 2024).

Transcription factor binding site analysis has also revealed potential regulatory sites for NF-κB, a

critical mediator in immune and inflammatory responses (Hardy et al., 2004). NF-κB binding

elements in the IFNε promoter suggest that this cytokine might be responsive not only to hormonal

signals but also to cellular stress and inflammatory stimuli, which aligns with its role in epithelial

immune defense. Indeed, treatment of cells with tumor necrosis factor-α (TNF-α) upregulates

IFNε expression (Matsumiya et al., 2007). Taken together, these findings suggest that *IFNε*

expression may be finely tuned by both hormonal and inflammatory cues, with transcription

factors including NF-κB and ELF3 potentially coordinating epithelial immune readiness in

response to estrous phase and/or local environmental stimuli.

In addition to antimicrobial and antitumor properties in the epithelium of the FRT, IFNε

potentially plays a role in modulating the immune system. For example, *Ifnε*^{-/-} mice exhibit less

uterine NK cell accumulation at baseline and less activation after infection than WT mice, a

phenotype which results in part from differences in cytokine secretion in *Ifnε*^{-/-}

macrophages/monocytes (Mayall et al., 2024). Additionally, T-, B-, and NK cells respond to

recombinant IFNε *in vitro* (Stifter et al., 2018). These findings suggest that IFNε not only fortifies

epithelial defenses but also plays a broader immunoregulatory role in the FRT, coordinating both

innate and adaptive immune responses to maintain tissue homeostasis and readiness against

infection.

Recent studies have suggested that IFNε might also play a role in inflammatory signaling

outside of the FRT. In addition to epithelial cells of the FRT, *Ifnε* is expressed in the intestinal

epithelium, where it helps limit inflammation and supports the intestinal regulatory T cell

compartment (de Geus et al., 2024). In rhesus macaques, IFNε is expressed in the epithelium of

the large and small intestines, lung, and foreskin in addition to the female reproductive tract

(Demers et al., 2014). These studies highlight IFNε as a multifaceted cytokine with roles in

maintaining immune balance across diverse mucosal tissues, suggesting it may provide a

widespread defense mechanism beyond the FRT.

The mechanisms underlying the regulation of IFNε and its effects on antiviral responses

beyond the FRT are incompletely defined. In this study, we generated an IFNε knockout mouse

model (*Ifnε$^{-/-}$*) using a modified intracytoplasmic gene editing via oviductal nucleic acids delivery

(iGONAD) technique, which allows for *in vivo* genetic modifications without the need for embryo

transfer (Ohtsuka et al., 2018; Skavicus and Heaton, 2023). We confirmed that, like a previously

described *Ifnε$^{-/-}$* mouse model (Fung et al., 2013), IFNε exerts antiviral activity against intravaginal

infection with herpes simplex virus-2 (HSV-2) in this model. Analysis of single-cell RNA

sequencing (scRNA-Seq) datasets across the estrous cycle in the mouse FRT (Winkler et al.,

2024) revealed that *Ifnε* is expressed in tissue-specific epithelial cell clusters and is not directly

regulated by the estrous cycle. However, its expression varies due to fluctuations in the

populations of *Ifnε*-expressing epithelial cells throughout the cycle. We also found that *Ifnε*-

expressing epithelial populations expressed high levels of interferon-stimulated genes (ISGs),

which were absent in epithelial cell types lacking *Ifnε* expression, suggesting an autocrine role for

IFNε. Consistent with this, scRNA-Seq analysis of uterine tissues from WT and *Ifnε$^{-/-}$* mice

showed that deletion of *Ifnε* significantly reduced interferon stimulated gene (ISG) expression in

specific epithelial cell populations, without affecting other transcripts. In human primary FRT cells,

we found that IFNε was constitutively expressed, not induced by pathogens, and remained non-

secreted. Additionally, using scRNASeq of human stem cell derived enteroids and analysis of

existing human tissue datasets, we found that IFNε is constitutively expressed in several cell types

in the human intestine (e.g., mature enterocytes, Tuft cells) and exerts antiviral activity against

the enterovirus coxsackievirus B (CVB) in the intestine *in vivo*. These findings highlight IFNε as an important contributor to mucosal immunity, supporting antiviral defenses in tissue-specific epithelial cells across the FRT and intestine and expand our understanding of its role beyond traditional pathogen-induced responses.

Results

Generation of *Ifnε*^{-/-} mice using iGONAD

We used a modified iGONAD protocol (Skavicus and Heaton, 2023) to generate an *Ifnε*^{-/-} knockout mouse. The iGONAD technique was chosen for its efficiency and precision in gene editing, particularly in the context of creating knockout models. To achieve this, we employed a dual sgRNA approach targeting the single coding exon of the *Ifnε* gene, which resulted in a 263 basepair deletion (**Figure 1A, Supplemental Figure 1A**). 15 total pups were born following the injection and electroporation of sgRNAs and Cas9 into the oviducts of pregnant dams,. These pups were subsequently screened for *Ifnε* knockout by PCR using primers spanning both gRNA target sites. The genotyping results revealed that 6 out of the 15 pups were homozygous for the *Ifnε* deletion, indicating a successful knockout of both alleles. Additionally, 3 pups were identified as heterozygous, carrying one wildtype and one knockout allele, while the remaining 6 pups were wildtype (representative genotypes, **Figure 1B**). Successful gene knockout was further validated by Sanger sequencing, which confirmed the deletion at the nucleotide level (**Figure Supplemental 1B**). Following this, a qPCR-based genotyping assay was developed in collaboration with a commercial vendor (Transnetyx) to streamline the genotyping process for subsequent generations. To establish a stable knockout line one animal (15) identified as homozygous for the *Ifnε* deletion was selected as the founding sire. To ensure genetic integrity and minimize potential off-target effects, this animal was backcrossed ~6 times with C57Bl/6J mice. Following backcrossing, a stable and reproducible *Ifnε*^{-/-} line was developed and used for subsequent studies.

To confirm that this newly established *Ifnε^-/-* line recapitulated phenotypes observed in a

previous *in vivo* model (Fung et al., 2013) regarding the role of IFNε in antiviral signaling in the

FRT, we infected *Ifnε^-/-* and WT female mice intravaginally with 100PFU of HSV-2 (strain 333) and

scored mice daily for clinical signs. Despite equivalent weight loss (**Figure 1C**), a higher

percentage of *Ifnε^-/-* mice had disease onset compared to WT mice (77% vs 40%), defined as any

observable clinical sign, (**Figure 1D**) and a higher percentage of *Ifnε^-/-* mice succumbed to

infection (70% vs 46%) (**Figure 1E**). Disease peaked at ~10dpi and *Ifnε^-/-* mice displayed higher

frequencies of advanced clinical signs throughout the course of infection (**Figure 1F**). Following

infection with 10,000PFU of HSV-2, *Ifnε^-/-* had higher viral burdens in vaginal lavages at 2 and 3dpi

(**Figure 1G**) and had significantly worse clinical outcomes measured by clinical scores (**Figure

1H**). Taken together, these data show that *Ifnε^-/-* mice generated using iGONAD recapitulate the

heightened susceptibility and impaired antiviral response observed in a previous *in vivo* model of

HSV-2 infection in the FRT.

***Ifnε* is expressed in epithelial cells of the oviduct, uterus, cervix, and vagina independent**

of estrous status

To determine the specific cell types expressing *IFNε* in the FRT, and to determine the

impact of the estrous cycle on this expression, we analyzed an existing single cell atlas of the

cycling mouse female reproductive tract based on 378,516 cells from normal cycling young mice

in the four cycle phases (proestrus [Pro], estrus [Est], metestrus [Met], and diestrus [Di]) (Winkler

et al., 2024). The dataset contained cells harvested from ovary, oviduct, uterus, cervix, and vagina

from 3-5 independent animals. We restricted our analyses to non-pregnant young mice (aged <12

months). A total of 71173 (Ovary), 75091 (Oviduct), 49889 (Uterus), 78967 (Cervix), and 82861

(Vagina) cells passed quality control and were used for cluster analysis and cell-type specific

marker expression analysis following integration to correct for batch effects (**Figure 2A, Figure

S2A-J**). We broadly clustered cells into epithelial cells (EpC), stromal cells, immune cells,

endothelial cells (EndoC), or muscle cells. Each tissue site exhibited site-specific enrichment of

these cell types, consistent with what has been described (Winkler et al., 2024), with the cervix

and vagina most enriched in EpCs and ovary, oviduct, and uterus more enriched in stromal cells

(**Figure 2A**, **Figure S2A-J**). While there was slight variation in the proportion of these cell types

during the estrous cycle, including the enrichment of immune cell types in the cervix and vagina

during Met, the proportion of cell types were largely maintained across all tissues (**Figure 2B**).

We next determined the cell type(s) expressing *Ifnε* across all tissue sites and defined the

impact of the estrous cycle on this expression. For this analysis, we further clustered cell types to

increase resolution. In the oviduct, uterus, cervix, and vagina, we found that *Ifnε* was specifically

enriched in EpC cell types that also expressed high levels of epithelial markers (e.g., *Cdh1*,

EpCam) (**Figure 2C**). We did not detect any *Ifnε* in the ovaries (**Figure 2C**). We next determined

the levels of *Ifnε* expressed in EpCs across the estrous cycle in all tissues. In the oviduct, cervix,

and vagina, we observed highly similar levels of expression across all stages of the estrous cycle

(**Figure 2D**). In the uterus, levels of *Ifnε* were consistent across Pro, Est, and Di, with significantly

lower levels in Met (**Figure 2D**). Similarly, *Ifnε* levels were low in the uterus of pregnant mice

(**Figure S2K, S2L**). Taken together, these data indicate that IFNε is predominantly expressed in

epithelial cell types across the FRT, with consistent expression levels across the estrous cycle,

except in the uterus where levels significantly decrease during Met and pregnancy.

***Ifnε*-expressing epithelial cells in the FRT express high basal ISGs**

The FRT is lined by specialized epithelial cell types, each with distinct functions tailored to their

anatomical location. These include ciliated and secretory EpCs in the oviduct, luminal and

glandular EpCs in the uterus, mucus-secreting EpCs in the cervix, and stratified squamous EpCs

in the vagina. Given that *Ifnε* was expressed in EpC populations across the FRT, we next sought

to identify the specific EpC populations responsible for this expression and whether it varied by

location. Furthermore, we sought to investigate whether *Ifnε*-expressing epithelial cell populations

exhibited distinct transcriptional profiles, including elevated ISG levels. To do this, we subsetted

the EpC cell cluster from all anatomical sites and re-clustered to obtain better resolution between

distinct EpC types. In the oviduct, EpC cells were clustered into ciliated (cEpC) and secretory

(SEpC) populations, which were distinguished based upon marker expression (**Figure 3A-3B**).

We found that *Ifnε* was specifically expressed in an SEpC cell population marked by *Serpina1e*

expression (**Figure 3C, 3D**). This population also exhibited high basal levels of ISGs (**Figure 3C**).

In the uterus, EpCs were distinguished between markers associated with luminal EpCs (LEpCs)

and glandular EpCs (GlEpCs) (**Figure 3E**), with *Ifnε* expression restricted to a LEpC population

expressing high levels of Tactstd2 (**Figure 3F-3H**). This cluster also expressed high levels of

diverse ISGs (**Figure 3G**). The cervix contained the largest number of EpCs, which sub-clustered

into intermediate (IEpCs), superficial (SuEpCs), and basal EpCs (BEpC), some of which were

proliferating (pBEpC) (**Figure 3I, 3J**). *Ifnε* was expressed in both SuEpC populations, with

significantly higher levels in the Sprr2d$^+$ cluster, which also showed elevated ISG expression

(**Figure 3K, 3L**). The vaginal EpCs clustered into SuEpCs, BEpCs, and columnar EpCs

(ColEpCs), with ColEpCs expressing both *Ifnε* and basal ISGs (**Figure 3M-3P**). These data

demonstrate that *Ifnε* is expressed in specific epithelial cell populations across tissue sites, with

its expression correlating with high basal levels of ISG expression within these clusters.

The data described above suggested that *Ifnε* is expressed in distinct EpC types in an

anatomical location-specific manner, suggesting that these cell types might exhibit conserved

expression of factors responsible for *Ifnε* expression. To determine if this was the case, we

compared the differentially enriched genes in all *Ifnε* expressing clusters across anatomical sites

and identified the genes shared between these cell types. This analysis revelated that only 31

genes (1% of the total genes) were shared between *Ifnε* expressing EpC types (**Supplemental**

Figure 3A). The top-most gene shared across all cell clusters was *Elf3* (**Supplemental Figure**

3B), which has been shown previously to regulate *Ifnε* expression (Fung et al., 2024). In fact,

there were only two transcription factors shared between all *Ifnε*-expressing EpC clusters, which

included *Elf3* and *Maff* (**Supplemental Figure 3C**). These findings suggest that, despite the

anatomical specificity of *Ifnε* expression, only a small set of conserved transcription factors, which

included *Elf3*, may play a role in regulating *Ifnε* expression across diverse epithelial cell types.

IFNε is a Key Modulator of Basal ISG Expression in the FRT Epithelium

We observed high basal ISG expression exclusively in EpC clusters that also expressed *Ifnε*

across the FRT. To determine whether *Ifnε* expression was required for these basal levels, we

performed scRNASeq on uterine tissue isolated from WT and *Ifnε$^{-/-}$* mice in estrous, with 19227

cells passing quality control. Cluster analysis and cell-type specific marker expression following

integration to correct for batch effects across independent animals revealed four distinct clusters

of EpCs, two populations of endothelial cells (Endo), stroma and fibroblasts, two populations of

muscle cells (Musc-1 and Musc-2), pericytes (Peri), and various immune cells including

macrophages (Mac), dendritic cells (DC), and NK cells (NK) (**Figure 4A**). There were near-

equivalent ratios of all cell types between WT and *Ifnε$^{-/-}$* mice (**Figure 4B, Supplemental Figure**

4A) and cell clusters expressed cell type-specific markers, which were conserved between WT

and *Ifnε$^{-/-}$* mice (**Figure 4C**, **Supplemental Figure 4B**). Consistent with the findings discussed

above, we identified a single cluster of EpCs (EpC-2) that highly expressed *Ifnε* and expressed

high basal ISG levels (**Figure 4D**). This cluster also expressed markers associated with LEpCs

(e.g., *Prap1*, *Tacstd2*, *Ltf*) (**Supplemental Figure 4C**, **4D**).

To assess whether *Ifnε* expression was required for basal ISG expression in EpC-2 and

other cell types, we performed pseudobulk differential expression analysis across all cell clusters

in WT and *Ifnε$^{-/-}$* mice. We identified a total of 115 differentially downregulated transcripts in

Ifnε$^{-/-}$ mice compared to WT, with ~70% of these differentially expressed genes (DEGs) attributed

specifically to the EpC-2 cluster (**Supplemental Figure 4E**). Pathway analysis of these DEGs

showed a significant enrichment in genes associated with IFN signaling and the antiviral response

(**Figure 4E**). Of the 81 differentially downregulated DEGs in EpC-2, ~45% of them were ISGs

(**Figure 4F).** Several additional clusters also exhibited a downregulation of select ISGs (EpC-3,

EpC-4, Stroma, and DC), but the total number of DEGs was significantly lower than that observed

in EpC-2 (**Figure 4F**). Additional clusters, including EpC-1, Endo-2, Fib, and Musc-1 did not

exhibit any changes in gene expression in *Ifnε^-/-* mice (**Figure 4F**). There were only two DEGs

enriched in *Ifnε^-/-* mice, *Ppbp* and *Crct.* Importantly, although ISGs were significantly

downregulated in EpC-2, other non-IFN-mediated inflammatory transcripts were unchanged,

including those associated with IL1 signaling (e.g., *Il1a*), chemokine signaling (e.g., *Cx3cl1*), and

cytokine signaling (e.g., *Mif*) (**Figure 4G-4I**). Taken together, these data show that *Ifnε* expression

is crucial for maintaining basal ISG expression in EpC populations in the FRT.

IFNε is retained intracellularly and is not induced by viral infections in primary human

epithelial cells

To assess whether IFNε expression levels changed following infection, we cultured human

primary endometrial and vaginal epithelial cells, infected them with Sendai virus (SeV) or HSV-2,

or treated them with a variety of PAMPs including poly(I:C), cGAMP, and LPS, and measured

IFNε expression by qRT-PCR. Consistent with what we observed in the mouse scRNAseq

analysis described above, *IFNε* was basally expressed in both uterine and vaginal primary cells

and expression levels were unchanged with infection or PAMP treatment (**Figure 5A, 5B**). In

contrast, *IFNβ* was undetected at baseline, and was induced by all conditions except for LPS

treatment (**Figure 5A, 5B).** To broadly profile the induction of *IFNε* and other IFNs, we performed

whole transcriptome bulk RNA-Seq on uterine and vaginal epithelial cells infected with SeV, as

well as on mock-infected controls. Both cell types responded to infection by induction of various

IFNs, including *IFNβ* and *IFNλ* 1-3, as well as canonical ISGs (e.g., *OAS1*, *OASL*, *ISG15*) (**Figure**

5C-5E). In contrast, although *IFNε* was expressed basally, it was not induced by SeV infection in

either cell type (**Figure 5D**, **5E**).

In our scRNAseq datasets, we observed basal ISG expression in clusters that also

expressed *Ifnε*, suggesting an autocrine role for IFNε signaling in subsets of epithelial cells of the

FRT. To determine if IFNε is retained intracellularly, we examined both lysates and supernatants

from human uterine and vaginal primary epithelial cells for IFNε or IFN-β levels by ELISA. IFNε

was undetectable in the supernatants from vaginal and uterine primary cells basally, after poly(I:C)

treatment, and after SeV infection (**Figure 5F, 5G**). However, there were high levels of IFNε

detected in the cell lysates in all conditions, although there was significantly more IFN-ε at

baseline than there was following poly(I:C) treatment or infection (**Figure 5F, 5G).** In contrast,

IFN-β was undetectable at baseline and although it could be observed at low levels in cell lysates

following poly(I:C) treatment or SeV infection, it was significantly higher in the supernatants

(Figure 5H, 5I). Together, these data indicate that IFNε is constitutively expressed and retained

intracellularly within epithelial cells of the FRT, where it likely functions through autocrine signaling,

in contrast to IFN-β, which is secreted in response to infection.

IFNε is basally expressed in the gastrointestinal tract and protects against enteric virus

infection

IFNε has been reported to be expressed in the gastrointestinal tract and may be associated with

colitis (de Geus et al., 2024). However, whether IFNε is expressed in select EpC subtypes in the

GI tract like the FRT or whether it exerts antiviral activity in the GI tract is unknown. To define the

expression of IFNε in the GI tract, we first generated human stem-cell derived enteroids and

performed scRNASeq. To include diverse GI cell types, human enteroids were grown in expansion

media (Exp) to maintain a proliferative state with stem and progenitor cells or under differentiation

conditions (Dif) to promote their maturation into specialized cells, including enterocytes, goblet

cells, and Paneth cells (Fujii et al., 2018; He et al., 2022). Enteroids cultured under these

conditions contained CD24$^+$ progenitor cells, transit amplifying cells, immature enterocytes,

mature enterocytes, BEST4$^+$ ionocytes, goblet cells, and enteroendocrine cells, which expressed

canonical markers associated with these cell types (**Figure 6A-6C**). As expected, we found that

Exp enteroids were enriched in CD24$^+$ cells, transit amplifying cells, and immature enterocytes

and Dif enteroids were enriched in mature enterocytes, and BEST4$^+$ ionocytes and exhibited

differences in cell type-specific expression (**Figure 6B, Supplemental Figure 5A, 5B**). We found

that *IFNε* was enriched in both mature enterocyte populations, as well as in a population of

immature enterocytes (**Figure 6D, Supplemental Figure 6C**). The only other IFN detectable in

the dataset was *IFNκ*, which was expressed at very low levels in CD24$^+$ cells (**Figure 6D**). IFNε-

expressing mature enterocyte populations expressed higher levels of basal ISGs than other cell

types (**Figure 6E**).   Consistent with the FRT epithelium, IFNε was undetectable in the

supernatants of both Exp and Dif enteroids and was only detected by ELISA in the cell lysates of

both culture conditions (**Figure 6F**). Next, we analyzed publicly available scRNASeq datasets

from human intestine tissue (Burclaff et al., 2022; Triana et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2020), which

included diverse cell types including stem cells and transit amplifying cells, enterocytes, BEST4$^+$

ionocytes, Tuft cells, enteroendocrine and goblet cells, and immune cells (**Figure 6G, 6H,**

Supplemental Figure 5D). Consistent with our findings in human enteroids, we found that

IFNε was expressed in enterocytes (**Figure 6I**). However, these data also suggested that *IFNε* is

expressed in transit amplifying cells and Tuft cells (**Figure 6I**). These populations also highly

expressed ISGs (**Figure 6J**). Together, these findings indicate that *IFNε* is selectively expressed

in specific epithelial cell types within the GI tract and is retained intracellularly, suggesting a

potential autocrine role in GI mucosal immunity similar to that observed in the FRT.

The basal expression of *IFNε* in the intestinal epithelium suggested that it may contribute

to antiviral defenses in the GI tract. To test this, we infected WT and *Ifnε$^{-/-}$* mice with coxsackievirus

B (CVB), an enterovirus that infects via the enteral route. Mice were infected with CVB3 (H3) by

oral gavage. We found that *Ifnε$^{-/-}$* mice lost significantly more weight than WT controls (**Figure 6K**)

and had higher rates of death following infection (**Figure 6L**). Notably, viral burdens in secondary

organs, including the heart, liver, pancreas, and brain, sites commonly affected by CVB, were

markedly elevated in *Ifnε*^{-/-} mice relative to WT controls, indicating enhanced viral dissemination

from the intestines to distant tissues (**Figure 6M**). To confirm that these differences were not due

to microbiome alterations in WT or *Ifnε*^{-/-} mice, which have been shown to impact CVB infection

(Robinson et al., 2019), we conducted 16S rRNA sequencing of the small ribosomal subunit from

fecal samples of *Ifnε*^{+/-} and *Ifnε*^{-/-} littermates, thereby controlling for potential cage effects. The

resulting dataset contained 2,695 OTUs, excluding those with a total count below three. On

average, 76,503 quality-filtered reads were generated per sample, ensuring a robust analysis of

microbiome composition (**Supplemental Figure 6A**). High-quality reads were classified using the

Silva v. 138 reference database, and OTUs were aggregated at each taxonomic rank

(**Supplemental Figure 6B**). Alpha diversity, measured by the Shannon index, was comparable

between *Ifnε*^{-/-} (mean = 4.004, SD = 0.015) and WT (mean = 3.865, SD = 0.262) mice

(**Supplemental Figure 6C**). Differential abundance testing using DESeq2 revealed no OTUs with

statistically significant differential abundance between WT and *Ifnε*^{-/-} mice, indicating that

microbiome composition was similar across genotypes. Together, these data indicate that IFNε

controls enteral viral infections and thus serves as a barrier against systemic viral spread from

the GI tract to secondary organs.

Discussion

Antiviral defenses at mucosal surfaces are a crucial first-line defense against systemic

infection. Type I IFNs play well-established roles in mucosal immunity and are induced by infection

to elicit antiviral programs in target cells by signaling through the type I IFN receptor. Although

IFNε is a type I IFN that also signals through the type I IFN receptor, it is not induced by infection

or PAMPs. IFNε was initially characterized in the epithelium of the FRT where it was proposed to

be hormonally regulated, and more recently in the epithelium of the colon, indicating that IFNε

has a role in immunity across many epithelial barriers. Here, we showed that IFNε plays a

constitutive, essential role in antiviral defenses across multiple mucosal sites. Using an *Ifnε*^{-/-}

mouse model, we confirmed that IFNε provides innate antiviral protection within the FRT, where

it is expressed in specific epithelial cell clusters in a location-dependent manner and is associated

with basal expression of ISGs. scRNASeq across the estrous cycle demonstrated that *Ifnε*

expression is not directly regulated by the cycle but instead reflects the distribution of IFNε-

expressing epithelial cells. Moreover, we observed that IFNε is retained intracellularly in FRT-

derived primary human cells. Extending these findings to the GI tract, we found that IFNε is

expressed at high levels in enterocytes of human enteroids and tissue and provides antiviral

protection, as *Ifnε-/-* mice showed increased susceptibility to enteric viral infection. Together, these

results highlight IFNε as a critical component of mucosal immunity, offering sustained antiviral

defense across both reproductive and GI epithelial tissues.

IFNε has been primarily studied in the context of the FRT, where it is expressed in the

epithelium and has direct antimicrobial and antitumor activity. Using scRNAseq, we further defined

the epithelial populations that express *Ifnε* throughout the mouse FRT using an existing single cell

atlas of normally cycling mice (Winkler et al., 2024). We found that *Ifnε* is expressed in distinct

epithelial cell types in each tissue: luminal and secretory cells in the uterus; columnar cells in the

vagina; ciliated cells in the oviducts; and superficial cells in the cervix. In each epithelial population

that expressed *Ifnε* we examined its expression levels at each estrous cycle stage.   While *Ifnε*

expression showed some fluctuations with estrous stage within individual tissues, it was

consistently observed at all stages, with no patterns of fluctuation that were consistent across all

tissues. The cell types that express *Ifnε* in the uterus; secretory and luminal epithelial cells, make

up the layers of the endometrium that expand in preparation for embryo implantation during

estrous (Jin, 2019) which could result in the higher gross *Ifnε* transcripts at a tissue level that

others have observed in the uterus. These findings refine our understanding of *Ifnε* expression in

the FRT, revealing its presence in distinct epithelial populations across tissues and estrous

stages, suggesting a stable role in mucosal immunity that adapts to tissue-specific epithelial

dynamics, especially in the endometrial layers preparing for implantation.

In *Ifnε*^{-/-} mice we observed that IFNε exhibits antiviral activity against the enteric virus

coxsackievirus B (CVB) following oral infection. *Ifnε*^{-/-} mice exhibited increased weight loss and

mortality following infection which corresponded with higher viral titers in the intestines, heart and

liver at 4dpi. Previous studies have identified a role for IFNε in modulating inflammation in colitis

models and shown Ifnε expression by IHC in the colon (de Geus et al., 2024). To further define

the cell types that express IFNε in the intestine, we analyzed *IFNε* expression in human enteroids

and in human intestinal scRNAseq data sets. We used enteroid models cultured under two

separate conditions to capture the spread of intestinal cell types in the intestine and found that

IFNε both in mature and immature enterocytes in both our enteroid and human intestine single

cell datasets, as well as in tuft cells in human intestine. Taken together, these data define a role

for IFNε throughout the intestines, where it is expressed in enterocytes and controls viral infection.

Although IFNε has been observed previously outside of the FRT, our findings reveal its antiviral

function in an additional mucosal environment.

It is possible that IFNε is expressed at other cellular barriers including the upper and lower

airway, blood brain barrier, urinary tract, testes and/or eyes. We initially expected that IFNε-

expressing cell types would share common features; however, we observed distinct anatomical

differences among the epithelial populations expressing *IFNε*. IFNε has been identified in tissues

by IHC and is often found in the epithelial cells lining the lumen of tissues (de Geus et al., 2024;

Demers et al., 2014; Fung et al., 2013; Marks et al., 2023). This pattern suggests that IFNε

expression may be influenced by specific environmental or spatial triggers within these barriers.

Recently, the transcription factor ELF3 was identified as driver of *Ifnε* expression in the mouse

uterus (Fung et al., 2024), where it appears to support tissue-specific immune readiness. ELF3 is

an epithelium-specific transcription factor involved in regulating the expression of genes essential

for barrier function and epithelial integrity. While we consistently observed *Elf3* expression almost

exclusively in *Ifnε*-expressing clusters throughout the FRT, in the intestine *ELF3* was detectable

in all cell types, indicating that there are other factors that control *IFNε* expression. This finding

indicates that distinct transcriptional programs may regulate IFNε expression across different

tissues, potentially adapting its expression to localized immune needs and environmental cues.

Together, these observations suggest that IFNε expression is not only anatomically specialized

but may also be regulated by diverse transcriptional drivers in response to the unique

environmental contexts of each barrier tissue.

We focused on the direct antiviral effects of IFNε signaling in epithelial cells, but it is likely

that IFNε also plays a nuanced role in immune cell signaling. Many groups have reported that

immune cells respond to recombinant IFNε treatment by becoming activated, expanding, or

upregulating ISGs (de Geus et al., 2024; Garcia-Minambres et al., 2017; Marks et al., 2019). This

is not surprising, as type I IFNS can activate or influence virtually all immune cell types. However,

it remains to be determined whether IFNε is also retained intracellularly in immune cells, and if

basal, intracellular IFNε signaling has distinct effects than exogenous treatment. It has been

observed that IFNε knockout mice have reduced NK cells numbers in the uterus, a phenotype

that results in part from decreases in IL-15 signaling in *Ifnε$^{-/-}$* macrophages/monocytes (Mayall et

al., 2024). In mouse models of colitis, *Ifnε$^{-/-}$* mice exhibit decreased levels of T$_{regs}$ in the intestines

which exacerbates intestinal pathology (de Geus et al., 2024; Fung et al., 2013). These findings

indicate that IFNε likely has a role in regulating resident tissue immune cells as well as those that

respond during infection.

Although many cell types respond to IFNε after exogenous treatment with recombinant

protein, the cellular targets of IFNε signaling have not been well-defined in models where it is

basally expressed. In our scRNAseq analyses, we observed ISG expression restricted to cells

that also basally expressed IFNε. This ISG expression is dependent on IFNε, as *Ifnε$^{-/-}$* mice lack

ISG expression in the absence of IFNε signaling, suggesting an autocrine role for IFNε. Moreover,

in primary human vaginal and uterine epithelial cell lines, we found that IFNε was detectable by

ELISA in cell lysates but was undetectable in cell supernatants regardless of viral infection or

stimulation. We observed similar results in human enteroids, where IFNε expression could be

readily detected by scRNAseq and ELISAs of cellular lysates, but not in supernatants. Taken

together, these results indicate that while IFNε is basally expressed, it is retained intracellularly

and exerts an antiviral effect in epithelial cells through autocrine signaling. The exact mechanism

by which IFNε signals to cells without being secreted remains unclear, but several possible

explanations can be considered. For example, the type I IFN receptor is endocytosed immediately

after binding IFNs, allowing JAK/STAT signaling to continue within the endosome (Zanin et al.,

2020). This suggests that IFNε may activate the type I IFN receptor intracellularly, possibly within

endosomal compartments. Future studies will be crucial in elucidating the precise intracellular

mechanisms by which IFNε initiates signaling and identifying the specific cellular contexts where

its autocrine activity plays a protective role, which may provide new insights into its unique function

at mucosal barriers.

Unchecked interferon responses can lead to debilitating autoimmune diseases and post

infection pathology, highlighting the need for regulation of a constitutively expressed interferon.

Retaining IFNε intracellularly within specific epithelial layers vulnerable to infection may prevent

aberrant immune activation while still providing basal antiviral protection. However, in cases of

cellular damage or viral infection, IFNε could also function as a damage-associated molecular

pattern (DAMP). Upon epithelial cell damage or lysis, IFNε may be released into the extracellular

space, where it could act in a paracrine manner to signal neighboring mucosal cells or immune

cells. This release could enhance local immune responses and alert surrounding tissues to

infection or injury, promoting a targeted antiviral response while still limiting widespread immune

activation.

Together, our findings underscore the unique role of IFNε in maintaining mucosal immunity

as a constitutively expressed, intracellularly-retained IFN within epithelial barriers. By providing

baseline antiviral protection while remaining poised for activation upon cellular damage or

infection, IFNε serves as both a steady immune defender and a potential DAMP, capable of alerting neighboring cells to pathogenic threats. This dual functionality helps prevent unwanted immune activation that could lead to autoimmune pathology, while ensuring rapid and localized antiviral responses when needed. Future studies aimed at clarifying the intracellular signaling mechanisms of IFNε and its DAMP-like functions may reveal new therapeutic approaches for enhancing mucosal immunity without triggering systemic inflammation.

Acknowledgments

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Methods

Generation of IFNε Knockout Mice Using iGONAD

IFNε knockout (*Ifnε^{-/-}*) mice were generated using the Genome Editing via Oviductal Nucleic Acid Delivery (iGONAD) technique, as previously described (Ohtsuka et al., 2018; Skavicus and Heaton, 2023). Briefly, female C57BL/6J mice were mated with C57BL/6J males. On the morning of day E0.7, CRISPR/Cas9-mediated gene editing was performed on pregnant mice by injecting a ribonucleoprotein (RNP) complex consisting of Cas9 protein and two guide RNA (gRNAs) targeting exon 1 (AACGGATTCCCTTCCAATTG[TGG] and AAGTCTTAGCTGCGCTTCAC[CGG], where the PAM sites are indicated with [PAM]) of the *Ifnε* gene into the oviducts. The two gRNAs were designed to flank and induce double-strand breaks, leading to the deletion of a 263 basepair fragment within exon 1, which resulted in a frameshift mutation and knockout of IFNε expression. After injection, the oviducts were electroporated to facilate the delivery of the ribonucleoprotein (RNP) complex into presumed one-cell stage zygoyes. After gene editing surgery, embryos continued to develop, and pregnant females were

allowed to deliver naturally. Genotyping of the resulting pups was carried out by extracting

genomic DNA from toe biopsies using a lysis buffer containing 50 mM Tris-base (pH 8.0), 50 mM

KCl, 2.5 mM EDTA, 0.45% IGEPAL CA-630 (NP40), 0.45% Tween-20, and 20 mg/mL proteinase

K, followed by incubation at 94°C for 10 minutes. PCR amplification was performed with primers

flanking the gRNA target sites (forward: AGACAAGTGCACAGTGAAGCCA; reverse:

TCCGCCACCAACCTATGTCTTTC) using TITANIUM Taq DNA Polymerase (Takara). The

knockout was further confirmed by Sanger sequencing using a primer upstream of the gRNA sites

(TCCCAGAACTGGAGTGGT) to verify successful deletion of the *Ifnε* gene. Ifnε^{-/-} mice were

backcrossed to C57BL/6J for at least six generations before use in experiments to establish a

stable knockout line. Once established, Transnetyx developed a custom qPCR-based genotyping

assay to streamline the identification of *Ifnε* knockout alleles in subsequent generations.

Viruses

HSV-2 (strain 333) was provided by Helen Lazear (University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill)

and propagated and titrated using a plaque assay in Vero cells, which were cultured in Dulbecco's

Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM) supplemented with 5% fetal bovine serum (FBS). CVB3 (H3

strain) (Hardy et al., 2004) were propagated and titrated in HeLa cells cultured in Modified Eagle'

s Medium (MEM) supplemented with 5% FBS. For titration, serial dilutions of virus were added to

Vero (HSV-2) or CVB3 (HeLa) cell monolayers and incubated for 1 day at room temperature.

Following binding, cells were overlaid with a mixture of phenol red-free MEM and 0.5% agarose

and incubated for 48-72hrs at 37°C and 5% CO_2. The overlay was removed after incubation and

plaques were subsequently visualized by staining with crystal violet. Sendai virus (Cantell Strain)

was purchased from Charles River (Pl-1, SV).

HSV-2 infections

8–10-week-old virgin female mice were used for all experiments. For HSV-2 infections females

were treated with 2mg of MPA (MedroxyProgesterone Acetate, NDC 66993-270-83) by

subcutaneous injection 5 days prior to infection to synchronize females in diestrus. Diestrus was

confirmed by vaginal cytology as previously described(Byers et al., 2012) 100 or 10,000 PFU of

HSV-2 was given by vaginal inoculation in a 10uL volume. HSV-2 was diluted in sterile PBS. Mice

were weighed and scored for pathology daily according to the following criteria: 0 no inflammation;

1 vaginal edema and redness; 2 hair loss or ulceration localized to the vaginal-anal area; 3 severe

ulceration, extensive hair loss extending beyond the vaginal-anal area; 4 overt disease signs; 5

paralysis; 6 death. Vaginal washes were taken by pipetting 110uL of PBS in and out of the vagina

5 times. Vaginal lavages were titrated by plaque assay on Vero cells as described above.

CVB-H3 infections

All CVB-H3 infections were performed in 8–10-week-old male mice. Mice were infected by oral

gavage with 1x10^8 pfu in 100uL of PBS. For viral burden experiments mice were sacrificed after

4 days, tissues were harvested and homogenized in DMEM using an Omni International Bead

Ruptor Elite (19-042E) at 4m/s for 1 minute using 2.8mm ceramic beads in 2 ml tubes (Omni

International 19-628). Viral burdens were quantified using a $TCID_{50}$ assay on HeLa cells. Serial

ten-fold dilutions of virus samples were prepared in complete medium and added to confluent

monolayers of HeLa 7B cells in 96-well plates. Cells were incubated for 3 days (37°C, 5% CO_2).

Cells were fixed and stained with crystal violet to visualize cytopathic effect (CPE). The dilution at

which 50% of wells showed CPE was recorded as the $TCID_{50}$ endpoint, using the Reed-Muench

method to calculate the viral titer.

Generation of uterine single-cell suspension for scRNASeq

Naturally cycling WT and IFNE mice in estrus were confirmed by vaginal cytology (Byers et al.,

2012). The whole uterus was dissected and placed in 1x DPBS on ice until all tissues were

harvested. Uteruses were minced into 1-2mm pieces with dissecting scissors and placed into

2.5mL of D-PBS supplemented with Ca and Mg (Gibco, 14040117). Once all tissues were minced,

2.5 mLs of pre-warmed 2x disassociation media was added. 2x disassociation media was made

by dissolving 4mg/mL of Collegnase A (Roche, 10103578001) and 2U/mL of DNAase I (Roche

04536282001) in dispase (Corning 354235). Samples were incubated for 30 minutes at 37

degrees and were shaken vigorously for 30 seconds every 5 minutes. After incubation, enzymes

were inactivated by adding 0.5mL of FBS and samples placed on ice. Samples were pushed

through 100um filter (VWR 732-2759) using a plunger of a 1mL syringe. Cells were pelleted at

400g for 3 minutes at 4C and resuspended in 1mL of ice-cold PBS. 2ml of RBC lysis buffer

(Invitrogen, 00-4333-57) was added for 1 minute with a single inversion to mix, and then 10mLs

of 1% FBS-DPBS was added to each sample. Cells were pelleted at 400g for 3 minutes at 4C

and resuspended in 500uL of ice cold 1% FBS-PBS. Cells were counted and resuspended at a

final volume of 1.5×10^6 cells/mL in 1% FBS-DPBS. Cells were kept on ice immediately dropped

off for scRNAseq processing.

Enteroid Growth and Single Cell Preparation

Human fetal enteroid culture and differentiation were based on published protocols for adult stem

cells (Beumer et al., 2022; He et al., 2022; Pleguezuelos-Manzano et al., 2020). For expansion,

enteroids were passaged by single-cell dissociation in TrypLE (Gibco) at 37°C for 5 min,

resuspended in 40 μl Matrigel (Corning) domes, and overlayed with expansion medium (ExM) for

7 days. For differentiation, enteroids were mechanically disrupted in DPBS, resuspended in 40 μl

Matrigel domes, grown in patterning medium (PaM) for 16 days and in differentiation medium

(DiM) for 3 days. For single-cell analysis, enteroids were expanded (Exp) or differentiated (Dif),

scraped into cold DPBS, pelleted 5 min at 400 xg, resuspended in TrypLE, and incubated at 37°C

for 15 min. Enteroids were mechanically dissociated by pipetting up and down 30 times, diluted

in basal media, pelleted 5 min at 400 xg, resuspended in DPBS with 1% BSA, and filtered through

a 30 µm strainer. Basal media contained: 10 mM HEPES, 2 mM L-glutamine, and 100 U/ml

penicillin-streptomycin in Advanced DMEM/F12 (Gibco). Expansion media (ExM) additionally

contained: 1X B27 (Invitrogen), 1 mM N-acetylcysteine (Sigma), 50 ng/ml mouse EGF

(Peprotech), 100 ng/ml mouse Wnt3a, 500 ng/ml mouse R-Spondin, 100 ng/ml human noggin

(R&D Systems), 1x N2 (Invitrogen), 10 mM Nicotinamide (Sigma), 100 ng/ml human IGF-1, 50

ng/ml human FGF-2 (Peprotech), 500 nM A83-01 (Tocris), 10 nM PGE2 (R&D Systems), and 10

nM [leu15]-Gastrin I (Millipore). Patterning media (PaM) additionally contained: 1X B27, 1 mM N-

acetylcysteine (NAC), 50 ng/ml mouse EGF, 100 ng/ml mouse Wnt3a, 500 ng/ml mouse R-

Spondin, 100 ng/ml human noggin, 500 nM A83-01, and 2 ng/ml IL-22 (Peprotech). Differentiation

media (DiM) additionally contained 1X B27, 1 mM N-acetylcysteine (NAC), 50 ng/ml mouse EGF,

50 ng/ml BMP-2 and 50 ng/ml BMP-4 (Peprotech).

Single-Cell RNA-seq Library Preparation and Data Analysis

Publicly available datasets from cycling mouse tissue (Winkler et al., 2024) were downloaded

from ArrayExpress (E-MTAB-11491 and from human intestine were downloaded from GEO

(accession numbers: GSE185224, GSE171620, GSE125970) (Burclaff et al., 2022; Triana et al.,

2021; Wang et al., 2020). For uterus tissue from WT and $Ifn\varepsilon^{-/-}$ mice, single-cell RNA-seq libraries

were prepared from ~10,000 cells/mouse using the 10x Genomics Chromium Single Cell 3'

Reagent Kit (v2 chemistry, Manual Part #CG00052) following the manufacturer's protocol. Briefly,

single-cell suspensions were loaded into the 10x Chromium Controller to capture and barcode

individual cells. Libraries were constructed, and sequencing was performed on an Illumina

NovaSeq 6000 system (Illumina, San Diego) using an S2 flow cell, providing an average

sequencing depth of ~61,000 reads per cell. After sequencing, raw base call (BCL) files were

processed with the 10x CellRanger pipeline (v6.1.2, 10x Genomics) for demultiplexing, alignment

to the mouse reference genome (GRCm38), and quantification of gene expression. Quality control

and post-processing were carried out using the CellRanger count and aggregate functions to

generate gene expression matrices. Data analysis was performed using the Seurat package

(Hafemeister and Satija, 2019; Satija et al., 2015) (v4.0) in R. Cells were filtered to include those

with at least 700 but no more than 12,000 unique expressed genes. Additionally, cells with over

10% mitochondrial gene content were excluded from further analysis. To correct for batch effects,

datasets from individual animals were normalized using the SCTransform() function (v2) in Seurat,

and integration was performed using the FindIntegrationAnchors() and IntegrateData() functions.

Dimensionality reduction was conducted via principal component analysis (PCA) using the

RunPCA() function.Cell clusters were identified using Louvain clustering with the FindClusters()

function in Seurat. The optimal clustering resolution was determined by evaluating clustering

stability across a range of resolutions (0.2 to 1.0) using the clustree() package, with a resolution

of 0.3 selected for downstream analysis. For combined analyses of wild-type (WT) and $Ifn\varepsilon^{-/-}$

datasets, previously integrated datasets were merged and further integrated using the Harmony

algorithm (Korsunsky et al., 2019) (v1.0) for batch correction and alignment. Differential

expression analysis between clusters was performed using the Wilcoxon rank sum test

implemented in Seurat's FindAllMarkers() function. Genes with a log2 fold change > 0.25 and an

FDR-adjusted p-value < 0.05 were considered significantly differentially expressed. Marker genes

for each cluster were identified by searching for positively enriched genes using the

aforementioned criteria.

Human fetal enteroid single-cell RNA-seq libraries were similarly prepared, sequenced

and analyzed with minor differences. ~10,000 cells/sample were targeted, providing an average

sequencing depth of ~61,000 reads per cell. After sequencing, BCL files were processed with the

10x CellRanger pipeline (v7.0.1, 10x Genomics) for demultiplexing, alignment to the human

reference genome (GRCh38), and quantification of gene expression. Cells were filtered to include

those with at least 3,000 but no more than 10,000 unique expressed genes. Cells with less than

2% or more than 20% mitochondrial gene content were excluded from further analysis. Individual

samples were merged and integrated using the FindIntegrationAnchors() and IntegrateData()

function into Exp and Dif. Percent mitochondrial genes, feature count, read count, and the

difference of G2M and S phase scores were regressed. For combined analysis, Exp and Dif were

merged and further integrated using the Harmony algorithm (Korsunsky et al., 2019) (v1.0) for

batch correction and alignment.

Human intestinal tissue datasets were downloaded and cells filtered to include those with

at least 1,000 but no more than 10,000 unique expressed genes. Cells with less than 2% or more

than 25% mitochondrial gene content were excluded from further analysis. Cells from regions

outside the small intestine were excluded. Individual samples were merged using the

FindIntegrationAnchors() and IntegrateData() function. Percent mitochondrial genes, feature

count, read count, and the difference of G2M and S phase scores were regressed. All files

associated with this single-cell RNA-seq study have been deposited in the Gene Expression

Omnibus (GEO).

Primary cells

Primary human cells were purchased from Lifeline Cell Technologies (FC-0078, FC-0083) and

thawed into 24-well or 6-well plates according to manufacturer instructions. At 90% confluency

cells were treated with PAMPS or infected at the following concentrations; polyIC float (Invivogen,

tlrl-picw) 10ug/mL; polyIC transfection (Inviogen, tlrl-picw) 1ug/mL (0.5ug/well); cGAMP

transfection (Invivogen, tlrl-nacga23-02) 10ug/mL; SeV Cantell 20HAU well; HSV-2 333 MOI of

1; LPS float (invivogen, tlrl-eklps) 100ng/mL. cGAMP and polyIC transfected using

xTREMEgene9 (Roche, XTG9-RO) according to manufacturer's instructions.

qPCR and bulk RNA Sequencing

RNA was extracted from cells using Qiagen Rneasy mini kit (74104) according to

manufacter instructions. *IFNε*, *IFNβ*, and *ACTB* RNA levels were detected by qRT-PCR using IDT

PrimeTime Std qPCR Assay Primer Probes: *IFNε* Hs.PT.58.4812867; *IFNβ1*

Hs.PT.58.39481063.g, ACTB: Hs.PT.39a.22214847 and Itaq one step kit (BIO-RAD 172-5140).

qRT-PCR was run using a Biorad Opus. For bulk RNA sequencing, libraries were prepared by the

Duke Center for Computational Biology and Genomics (GCB) using a mRNA standed KAPA

hyperprep kit. Sequencing was performed an Illumina Novaseq X Plus using 100bp paired end

sequencing and targeting 10 billion reads across all samples Reads were aligned to the human

genome using Qiagen CLC Genomics (v20). Differential expression analysis was performed using

DESeq2. Briefly, raw count data were imported into R and DESeq2 (Love et al., 2014) was used

to normalize counts and identify differentially expressed genes between specified conditions.

Genes with an adjusted p-value < 0.05 and log2 $\pm$ 2 fold change were considered significantly

differentially expressed.

ELISA

IFNε and IFNβ protein levels were detected by ELISA (R&D Systems, DY9667-05, DY814-05).

IFNε and IFNβ levels were normalized to total protein quantified by Pierce BCA Assay (23227).

Cellular lysates were generated using M-PER Mammalian Protein extraction reagent (Thermo

Scientific 78501).

16S Ribosomal Sequencing

Fecal samples were collected from adult *Ifnε^+/- and Ifne^-/-* littermates and sent to Microbiome

Insights for 16S sequencing and analysis. Specimens were placed into a MoBio PowerMag Soil

DNA Isolation Bead Plate. DNA was extracted following MoBio's instructions on a KingFisher

robot. Bacterial 16S rRNA genes were PCR-amplified with dual-barcoded primers targeting the

V4 region (515F 5'-GTGCCAGCMGCCGCGGTAA-3', and 806R 5'-

GGACTACHVGGGTWTCTAAT-3'), as previously described (Kozich et al., 2013). Amplicons were

sequenced with an Illumina MiSeq using the 300-bp paired-end kit (v.3). Sequences were

denoised, taxonomically classified using Silva (v. 138) as the reference database, and clustered

into 97%-similarity operational taxonomic units (OTUs) with the mothur software package (v.

1.44.1)　　(Schloss　　et　　al.,　　2009),　　following　　the　　recommended　　procedure

(https://www.mothur.org/wiki/MiSeq_SOP; accessed Nov 2020). Alpha diversity was estimated

with the Shannon index on raw OTU abundance tables after filtering out contaminants. The

significance of diversity differences was tested with ANOVA or linear mixed model depending on

the study design. To estimate beta diversity across samples, we excluded OTUs occurring with a

count of less than 3 in at least 5 % of the samples and then computed Bray-Curtis indices. We

visualized beta diversity, emphasizing differences across samples, using Principal Coordinate

Analysis (PCoA) ordination. Variation in community structure was assessed with permutational

multivariate analyses of variance (PERMANOVA) with treatment group as the main fixed factor

and using 999 permutations for significance testing.A dot-dash circle in ordination plot represent

for the central of each cluster (Nguyen et al., 2020). All analyses were conducted in the R

environment.

Figure 1: Increased HSV-2 susceptibility in *Ifnε* deficient mice generated via iGONAD

CRISPR/Cas9. A) Schematic of CRISPR/Cas9 knockout strategy. **B)** Representative PCR

genotyping results from the first generation of pups born to dams that underwent iGONAD gene

editing. Mouse 6 (*Ifnε+/+),* 11 (*Ifnε+/-)* and 15 (*Ifnε-/-)* are shown. Mouse 15 was chosen as the

founding sire for the line. **C-F)** WT and *Ifnε-/-* females were infected with 100PFU of HSV-2 333

and weighed and monitored for disease signs daily. Weight loss (C), disease onset (D), and

survival (E) are shown. Disease onset (D) includes any observable pathology score. In (F),

clinical scores are shown at multiple days post-infection (dpi) from 6-12dpi. Key at right. **G-H).**

643   WT and *Ifnε*^{-/-} females were infected with 10,000PFU of HSV-2 333. Vaginal lavages were

644   collected at 2 and 3dpi and titrated by plaque assay. Significant differences were calculated by

645   T-test in Graphpad Prism. Individual animals are depicted by symbols in (G).

Figure 2: ***Ifnε* is expressed in epithelial cells of the female reproductive tract throughout**

the estrous cycle. **A)** UMAPS showing clustering of stromal (Stroma, orange), epithelial (EpC,

blue), immune (Immune, green), endothelial (EndoC, red), and muscular (Musc, yellow) cells

within the different tissues of the female reproductive tract (FRT). **B)** The proportions of each cell

type split by estrous stage: Proestrous (Pro); Estrous (Est); Metestrous (Met), and Diestrous (Di).

C-D) DotPlots showing expression of epithelial cell markers and *Ifnε* in all clusters **(C)** or only in

clusters that express *Ifnε* split by estrous stage **(D)**.

Figure 3: *Ifnε* **expression correlates with ISG expression in anatomic site-specific epithelial cells**. Epithelial cell clusters from Figure 2 were reclustered. **A,E,I,M)** UMAPS showing clustering of epithelial cell types within each tissue. Oviduct **(A)**: general epithelial cells (Epc), ciliated epithelial cells (cEpC), and secretory epithelial cells (SEpC-2). Uterus **(E)**: luminal epithelial cells (LEpC) and glandular epithelial cells (GlEpC). Cervix **(I)**: intermediate epithelial cells (IEpC), superficial epithelial cells (SEpC), basal epithelial cells (BEpC), and parabasal epithelial cells (pBEpC). Vagina **(M)**: superficial epithelial cells (SEpC), basal epithelial cells (BEpC), and Columnar epithelial cells (ColEpC). **B,F,J,N).** Dot plots showing markers of each epithelial

674   subpopulation. **C,G,K,O)** Dot plot showing Ifnε and ISG expression within each cluster. **D,H,L,P)**

675   Feature plots showing expression and coexpression of Ifnε and a top marker for the cluster in

676   which it is expressed.

Figure 4. *Ifnε⁻/⁻* mice lack basal ISG expression in select uterine epithelial cells. A) UMAPs
showing uterine cell clusters from *Ifnε-/-* and WT mice. **B)** Bar plot of the proportions of each cell
cluster in *Ifnε-/-* and WT mice. **C)** DotPlot of canonical cell type markers in each cell cluster. Key
and scale at right. **D)** DotPlot of *Ifnε* and ISG expression in each cell cluster. Key and scale at
right. **E)** Pathway analysis on differentially expressed genes in *Ifnε-/-* and WT uteruses. Shown
are the gene counts per pathway and the p-value of each pathway. **F)** The total number of DEGS
in each cluster. ISGs are shown in red and non-ISGs are shown in blue. **G)** DotPlot showing ISG
and cytokine expression levels split by mouse genotype. Scale at right. **H)** FeaturePlots showing
co-expression of *Oas3* and *Oas1g* in either WT (top) or *Ifnε⁻/⁻* (bottom) samples. **I)** FeaturePlots
showing co-expression of *Csf3* and *Il1a* in either WT or *Ifnε⁻/⁻* samples.

Figure 5: IFNε is retained intracellularly in primary human epithelial cells and is not induced by viral infections. **A, B),** Primary human uterine (UtEpV) (A) or vaginal (VagEpC) (B) epithelial cells were treated infected with Sendai virus cantell (SeV, 200HAU) or HSV2 (MOI of 1), treated with LPS or poly(I:C), or transfected with cGAMP or poly(I:C). Cells were harvested 20hpi and *IFNE* and *IFNB* levels were quantified by qRT-PCR. **C),** Volcano plots of differentially expressed genes (log$_2$ ≥ 2 or ≤ -2, p$_{adj}$ ≤0.01) in UtEpC (left) or VagEpC (right) infected for ~24hrs with 200HAU SeV. Upregulated genes are shown in red and downregulated genes are shown in blue. Select gene names are shown in black. **D, E),** Reads per kilobase of transcript, per million mapped reads (RPKM) of the indicated IFN gene in Mock- (blue) or SeV-infected (red) UtEpC (D) or VagEpC (E). **F-I),** IFNε(F, G) and IFN-β (H, I) protein levels were measured from cell lysates and cell supernatants from uterine (F, H) or vaginal (G, I) epithelial cells by ELISA . Significance was determined by two-way ANOVA using a Tukey's test for multiple comparisons (*, p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001, ****p<0.0001, ns ,not significant).

Figure 6: *IFNε* **is expressed in the epithelium of the GI tract and protects against enteric**

viral infections. (A-F), Human enteroids were grown under expansion (Exp) or differentiating

conditions (Dif) and then analyzed by scRNAseq. **A)** UMAP plot depicting distinct cell clusters

identified in the dataset. Each cluster is represented by a unique color, indicating cellular

heterogeneity and grouping based on transcriptomic profiles. **B)** Bar plot depicting cell enrichment

under Exp or Dif conditions. **C),** DotPlot of canonical cell makers used to define clusters. Key and

scale at right. **D)** *IFNε* and *IFNκ* expression in cell clusters. **E)** DotPlot of ISGs and ELF3 Key and

scale at right. **F)** IFNε levels in supernatants and cell lysates from Exp and Dif enteroids, measured by ELISA. Data points represent IFNε concentration across experimental conditions, with significance determined by two-way ANOVA followed by multiple comparisons to assess differences between groups (ns, not signficiant, **$p<0.01$, ***$p<0.001$). **G)** UMAP showing cell clusters from human intestinal samples analyzed by scRNAseq. **H)** DotPlot of canonical cell makers used to define clusters. Scale and key at right. **I)** DotPlot of *IFNε, IFNγ*, and *IFNλ1* expression in cell clusters. Scale and key at right. **J)** DotPlot of ISGs and ELF3 Key and scale at right. **K-M)** WT and *Ifnε*$^{-/-}$ mice were orally infected with 1×10^8 PFU of CVB-H3 and weighed and monitored daily for signs of illness (K,L), or sacrificed at 4 days post infection (dpi). Viral burdens in tissues (M) were determined by TCID50. Significant differences in weight (*$p<0.05$) were calculated by t-test in Graphpad Prism. Differences in viral burden were calculated by Mann-Whitney test (*$p<0.05$).

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Supplemental Figure 1. (A) Diagram of Ifnε gene, guide RNAs, primers and deleted region. **(B)**
Sequence alignment following Sanger sequencing of genomic DNA isolated from an *Ifnε*^{-/-} mouse
(top) or wild-type (WT, bottom) mouse. Bold red sequences denote location of gRNAs (gRNA1
and gRNA2). Dashes denote sequence missing in the *Ifnε*^{-/-} mouse.

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Supplemental Figure 2. (A, C, E, G, I) UMAPS showing clustering of stromal (Stroma, orange),
epithelial (EpC, blue), immune (Immune, green), endothelial (EndoC, red), and muscular (Musc,
yellow) cells within distinct phases of the estrous cycle the different tissues of the female
reproductive tract (FRT) shown at left. **(D, F, H, J),** DotPlot of canonical markers in Oviduct (D),
Uterus (F), Cervix (H), Vagina (J), and Uterus (J). **(K),** UMAP of uterine tissue throughout the
estrous cycle and pregnant uterus (Preg). **(L),** DotPlot of cadherin-1 (*Cdh1*), *Epcam*, and *Ifnε* in
uterine tissue split by phase of the estrous cycle or pregnancy (in orange).

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Supplemental Figure 3. (A), Venn diagram denoting the overlap of gene enriched in Ifnε-
expressing clusters from Oviduct (green), Uterus (purple), Cervix (orange), and Vagina (blue).
Key at right with red indicating the highest number of genes. The percent of overlap is also shown.
(B), DotPlot of the genes differentially enriched in *Ifnε*-expressing clusters in Oviduct (top), Uterus
(second from top), Cervix (second from bottom), and Vagina (bottom). Key and scale at right. **(C),**
DotPlot of the expression of *Ifnε*, *Elf3*, and *Maff* in Oviduct, Uterus, Cervix, or Vagina as indicated.
Key and scale at bottom.

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Supplemental Figure 4. (A), UMAP of cell clusters in uterine tissue isolated from WT (left) of Ifnε⁻
⁻ mice (right) split by genotype. (B), DotPlot of canonical cell markers in WT (blue) or *Ifnε⁻/⁻* (red)
mice. **(C),** DotPlort of cell type markers in the combined dataset from WT and *Ifnε⁻/⁻* mice. Scale
and key at right. (D), DotPlot of luminal cell markers in WT and *Ifnε⁻/⁻* dataset. Key and scale at
right. (E), Bar plot indicating the cell clusters associated with differentially upregulated genes (115
total) in WT mice compared to *Ifnε⁻/⁻* mice. The percent is shown at right.

Supplemental Figure 5. (A), UMAP of cell clusters in enteroids cultured under expansion (Exp) or differentiated (Dif) conditions. **(B),** DotPlot of canonical makers in enteroids split by either Dif (red) or Exp (blue) growth conditions. **(C),** FeaturePlot of *IFNE* in enteroids. Scale at right. **(D)**, UMAP of human intestine dataset split by original sample.

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844 **Supplemental Figure 6. (A),** Total reads generated from 16S sequencing on fecal samples from
845 *Ifn⁺ᐟ⁻* (WT) and *Ifnε⁻ᐟ⁻* (KO) littermates **(B),** Proportions of OTUs at each taxonomic rank in each
846 sample **(C)** Alpha diversity measured by Shannon Index for *Ifnε⁺ᐟ⁻* (WT) and *Ifnε⁻ᐟ⁻* (KO)
847 littermates.

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