Title: Osteopontin and iCD8α cells promote intestinal intraepithelial lymphocyte homeostasis

Running title: Osteopontin, iCD8α cells and intraepithelial lymphocytes

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Abstract

Intestinal intraepithelial lymphocytes (IEL) comprise a diverse population of cells residing in the

epithelium at the interface between the intestinal lumen and the sterile environment of the lamina

propria. Because of this anatomical location, IEL are considered critical components of intestinal

immune responses. Indeed, IEL are involved in many different immunological processes ranging

from pathogen control to tissue stability. However, despite their critical importance in mucosal

immune responses, very little is known about the homeostasis of different IEL subpopulations.

The phosphoprotein osteopontin is important for critical physiological processes, including

cellular immune responses such as survival of Th17 cells and homeostasis of NK cells, among

others. Because of its impact in the immune system, we investigated the role of osteopontin in the

homeostasis of IEL. Here, we report that mice deficient in the expression of osteopontin exhibit

reduced numbers of the IEL subpopulations $TCR\gamma\delta^+$, $TCR\beta^+CD4^+$, $TCR\beta^+CD4^+CD8\alpha^+$ and

$TCR\beta^+CD8\alpha\alpha^+$ cells in comparison to wild-type mice. For some IEL subpopulations the decrease

in cells numbers could be attributed to apoptosis and reduced cell division. Moreover, we show *in*

vitro that exogenous osteopontin stimulates the survival of murine IEL subpopulations and

unfractionated IEL derived from human intestines, an effect mediated by CD44, a known

osteopontin receptor. We also show that $iCD8\alpha$ IEL, but not $TCR\gamma\delta^+$ IEL, $TCR\beta^+$ IEL or intestinal

epithelial cells, can promote survival of different IEL populations via osteopontin, indicating an

important role for $iCD8\alpha$ cells in the homeostasis of IEL.

Key Points

1. Osteopontin promotes homeostasis of mouse and human IEL, mediated by its ligand CD44

2. $iCD8\alpha$ cells produce osteopontin which impacts the survival of other IEL

3. Lack of osteopontin renders mice susceptible to intestinal inflammation

Introduction

One of the largest immunological compartments in the body is comprised of intraepithelial lymphocytes (IEL), a group of immune cells interspaced between the monolayer of intestinal epithelial cells (IEC). IEL can be divided into two groups based on T cell receptor (TCR) expression (1-3). TCR$^+$ IEL express $\alpha\beta$ or $\gamma\delta$ chains. TCR$\alpha\beta^+$ IEL can be further subdivided into TCR$\alpha\beta^+$CD4$^+$, TCR$\alpha\beta^+$CD4$^+$CD8$\alpha\alpha^+$, TCR$\alpha\beta^+$CD8$\alpha\alpha^+$, and TCR$\alpha\beta^+$CD8$\alpha\beta^+$ cells. TCR^{neg} IEL comprise innate lymphoid cells (ILC) (4-6) and lymphocytes characterized by expression of intracellular CD3γ chains (iCD3$^+$), some of which express CD8$\alpha\alpha$ (iCD8α cells) (7, 8).

Because of their anatomical location, IEL function as sentinels between the antigenic contents of the intestinal lumen and the sterile environment under the basal membrane of the epithelium. Indeed, TCR$\gamma\delta$ IEL surveil for pathogens (9), secrete antimicrobials conferring protection against pathobionts (10), and protect from intestinal inflammation (11). Other IEL, like conventional CD8 T cells that migrate into the epithelium, can protect against *Toxoplasma* infection (12) and reside in this organ as memory cells (13, 14). TCR$\alpha\beta^+$CD4$^+$CD8$\alpha\alpha^+$ IEL can prevent development of disease in the T cell adoptive transfer model of colitis (15). iCD8α cells confer protection against *Citrobacter rodentium* infection and may protect against necrotizing enterocolitis in neonates (8), but these cells can also promote intestinal inflammation in some experimental conditions (16). iCD3$^+$ IEL are involved in malignances associated with celiac disease (7).

Osteopontin is a glycosylated phosphoprotein encoded by the Spp-1 (secreted phosphoprotein) gene, originally characterized as part of the rat bone matrix (17, 18). Osteopontin is a versatile molecule involved in many physiological and disease processes (19-21). The role of osteopontin in intestinal inflammation is diverse. For example, Spp-1-deficient mice present with

milder disease in the trinitrobenzene sulphonic acid and DSS models of colitis (22, 23). In humans

with inflammatory bowel diseases (IBD), plasma osteopontin is significantly increased compared

to healthy individuals (24, 25). Some reports indicate that osteopontin is downregulated in the

mucosa of Crohn's disease (CD) patients (26), whereas other groups have reported higher

osteopontin expression in the intestines of individuals with CD and ulcerative colitis (UC)

compared with healthy controls (25, 27). Because of its involvement in IBD, this molecule could

be a potential biomarker (28) and has been explored as a therapeutic target in clinical trials (29).

These reports clearly underscore the importance of osteopontin in intestinal inflammation and

warrant further investigation of this molecule in mucosal immune responses.

Studies of osteopontin in the immune system have provided important insight into the role

of this molecule. For example, osteopontin is involved in macrophage chemotaxis (30), inhibition

of NK cell apoptosis and promotion of NK cell responses (31), as well as modulation of dendritic

cell function (32). In terms of T cells, osteopontin has been shown to stimulate the survival of

concanavalin A-activated lymph node T cells *in vitro*, to promote the survival of anti-myelin

specific T cells in the central nervous system (33), and to stimulate Th1 responses (34). However,

because IEL are different from "conventional" T cells, and have varied and distinct developmental

pathways and functions specialized for the environment of the intestinal epithelium (3), what has

been investigated for T cells in other anatomical compartments may not directly translate to IEL,

underscoring the need to investigate the role of osteopontin in this peculiar immune site. What we

know about the role of osteopontin and IEL homeostasis is very limited. For example, it was

reported that the frequency and numbers of TCR$\gamma\delta^+$ IEL were reduced in osteopontin-deficient

mice, while unfractionated TCR$\alpha\beta^+$ IEL numbers remained similar in comparison to wild type

controls (35). However, *in vitro* neutralization of IEL-derived osteopontin resulted in decreased

survival of TCRγδ and TCRαβ IEL (35), confounding the *in vivo* results. Our group has recently

shown that iCD8α IEL enhance the survival of ILC1-like IEL, via osteopontin, impacting the

development of intestinal inflammation (36). Here, we hypothesize that osteopontin and iCD8α

cells are key components involved in the homeostasis of most IEL populations. In the present

report, we investigated this hypothesis by carefully studying the role of osteopontin in the

homeostasis of different IEL subpopulations in mice and total IEL derived from human tissue. We

present data showing that osteopontin differentially influences the survival, proliferation and

migration of distinct IEL subpopulations, and that these effects are mediated in part by one of the

many osteopontin ligands, CD44. Furthermore, we show that IEL survival is mediated primarily

by iCD8α cell-derived osteopontin, whereas other TCRγδ$^+$ and TCRβ$^+$ IEL do not contribute, at

least *in vitro*, to the survival of IEL. Moreover, our *in vivo* experiments show that IEC-derived

osteopontin do not seem to promote IEL survival. Finally, we present evidence of the impact of

osteopontin in the development of intestinal inflammation.

Material and methods

Mice. C57BL/6J were originally purchased from The Jackson Laboratory (000664) and have been maintained and acclimated in our colony for several years. CD44$^{-/-}$ (005085), CD45.1 (002014), RFP-Foxp3 (008374) and Spp-1$^{-/-}$ (004936) mice on the C57BL/6 background were originally purchased from The Jackson Laboratory. Rag-2$^{-/-}$ mice on the C57BL/6 background were provided by Dr. Luc Van Kaer. Spp-1$^{-/-}$, CD44$^{-/-}$, and Rag-2$^{-/-}$ mice were crossed with C57BL/6J wild-type mice to generate heterozygous offspring, and subsequently bred among themselves to generate mutant mice. Vill-Cre$^{+/-}$ mice were provided by the laboratory of Dr. Keith Wilson. Spp-1$^{fl/fl}$ mice in the C57BL/6J background were generated by the Vanderbilt Transgenic Mouse/ES Cell Shared Resource following an established protocol (37). Briefly, intron 1/2 and intron 3/4 of the Spp-1 gene were targeted for insertion of LoxP sites by CRISPR/Cas9 ribonucleoproteins (RNP) along with a 1528 bp megamer symmetrical donor ssDNA oligonucleotide (IDT). crRNA sequences were 5'-GTGTGATAACACAGACTCAT-3' and 5'-AACCAGTACCTTACATGTT-3'. Vill-Cre$^{+/-}$·Spp-1$^{fl/fl}$ and Vill-Cre$^{-/-}$·Spp-1$^{fl/fl}$ littermate mice were generated by crossing Vill-Cre$^{+/-}$ mice and Spp-1$^{fl/fl}$ mice. Spp-1$^{-/-}$Rag-2$^{-/-}$ mice were generated in our colony by breeding Spp-1$^{+/-}$ with Rag-2$^{+/-}$ mice. Male and female mice were used for all experiments. Mice were maintained in accordance with the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee at Vanderbilt University.

Lymphocyte isolation. IEL were isolated by mechanical disruption as previously reported (38). Briefly, after flushing the intestinal contents with cold HBSS and removing excess mucus, the intestines were cut into small pieces (~1 cm long) and shaken for 45 minutes at 37°C in HBSS supplemented with 5% fetal bovine serum and 2 mM EDTA. Supernatants were recovered and cells isolated using a discontinuous 40/70% Percoll (General Electric) gradient. To obtain lamina

propria lymphocytes, intestinal tissue was recovered and digested with collagenase (187.5 U/ml,

Sigma) and DNase I (0.6 U /ml, Sigma). Cells were isolated using a discontinuous 40/70% Percoll

gradient. Spleen cells were isolated by conventional methods.

Human samples. The Vanderbilt University Medical Center Institutional Review Board approved

sample collection (IRB# 090161 and 190182). Peripheral blood mononuclear cells were isolated

by ficoll gradient from unidentified healthy adult volunteers as previously described (39). A

pathologist from the Vanderbilt Children's Hospital provided de-identified fresh intestinal tissue

specimens from infants. Isolation of human cells associated with the intestinal epithelium was

performed as previously described (40). Briefly, tissue was cut in small ~1 cm pieces and incubated

with slow shaking for 30 minutes at room temperature in HBSS (without calcium and magnesium)

supplemented with 5% fetal bovine serum, 5mM EDTA and 1% antibiotic mix (pen-strep-

AmphoB; Fisher-Lonza). After incubation, cells in the supernatant were recovered.

Reagents and flow cytometry. Fluorochrome-coupled anti-mouse CD4 (GK1.5), -CD44 (1M7), -

CD45 (30F11), CD45.1 (A20), CD45.2 (104), -CD8α (53−6.7), -CD8β (REA793 or H35-17.2), -

TCRβ (H57-597), -TCR$\gamma\delta$ (eBioGL3), Ki69 (solA15) and isotype controls were purchased from

Thermofisher, BD Biosciences or Tonbo. Annexin V and 7AAD were purchased from BD

Biosciences. All staining samples were acquired using BD FACS Canto II or 4-Laser Fortessa

Flow cytometers (BD Biosciences) and data was analyzed using FlowJo software (Tree Star). Cell

staining was performed following conventional techniques. Manufacturer's instructions were

followed for Annexin V staining; briefly, early apoptotic cells were considered as annexin

V$^+$7AAD^{neg}, late apoptotic cells or undergoing necrosis as annexin V$^+$7AAD$^+$, and necrotic cells

as annexin V$^-$7AAD$^+$. FACS sorting was performed using a FACSAria III at the Flow Cytometry

Shared Resource at VUMC.

In vitro survival assay. FACS-enriched IEL subpopulations were incubated in a 96-well flat-

bottom well plate (Falcon, Fisher Scientific) at a density of 5×10^5 cells/ml in RPMI containing

10% fetal bovine serum. In some groups culture media was supplemented with recombinant

osteopontin (2 μg/ml) (R&D) or anti-CD44 (5 μg/ml) (Thermofisher; clone IM7). Cells were

cultured in 5% CO_2 at 37°C. At time 0 and every 24 h, an aliquot from the culture was taken to

count live cells using trypan blue to exclude dead cells. Percentage of live cells was calculated in

reference to time 0. For human samples, total PBMC or IEL were cultured in the presence or

absence of recombinant human osteopontin (2 μg/ml) (R&D) and anti-human-CD44 (5 μg/ml)

(Thermofisher; clone IM7).

Co-culture survival assays. CD45$^+$ IEL from Spp-1$^{-/-}$ mice were positively selected using magnetic

beads (Miltenyi) and cultured (1×10^5 cells/well) in a 96-well flat-bottomed well plate in RPMI

complemented with 10% fetal bovine serum, penicillin/streptomycin, HEPES, L-glutamine and β-

mercaptoethanol. These are "read out" cells. Then, these cells were cultured in the presence (1×10^5

cells/well) or absence of magnetic bead-enriched (Miltenyi) iCD8α cells from Rag-2$^{-/-}$ mice, or

TCRβ$^+$ or TCRγδ$^+$ IEL from CD45.1 WT mice. For normalization purposes, the purity of these

cells was determined by flow cytometry. Anti-osteopontin antibodies (2 μg/ml) (R&D; clone

AF808) were added to some wells. After 4 h of incubation, cells were recovered and stained for

surface markers, 7AAD and Annexin V. For all experiments, IEL were gated according to their

size in a forward versus side scatter. Then, cells were selected by their expression of CD45.2 and

gated for the individual subpopulations, followed by analysis of 7AAD incorporation and annexin

V staining. Increased survival was determined as 100 - [% of annexin V$^+$ read-out cells in co-

culture x 100 / % of annexin V$^+$ cells cultured alone]. Osteopontin concentration from these

cultures was determined by an ELISA kit (R&D) following the manufacturer's instructions.

Adoptive transfer of total T cells. Total splenocytes from WT mice were depleted of CD19-positive

cells using magnetic beads (Miltenyi). Four to 6 million cells were adoptively transferred (i.p.)

into Rag-2$^{-/-}$ or Spp-1$^{-/-}$Rag-2$^{-/-}$ mice (similar results were observed regardless of the number of

cells transferred). Starting weight was determined prior to injection. Seven or 28 days later,

recipient mice were weighed, sacrificed and donor cells from the intestines analyzed by flow

cytometry. In some experiments a segment of the colon was excised and prepared for histological

examination. In some experiments CD19-depleted splenocytes from CD44$^{-/-}$ mice were adoptively

transferred into Rag-2$^{-/-}$ or Spp-1$^{-/-}$Rag-2$^{-/-}$ mice. Mice were weighed weekly for 4 weeks, and cells

and colon analyzed as indicated above. Pathological evaluation of the colons was done in a blind

fashion by Dr. Piazuelo, following established parameters (41).

In vitro and in vivo Foxp3 expression. Lamina propria lymphocytes isolated from RFP-Foxp3 mice

were cultured in the presence or absence of recombinant osteopontin and anti-CD44 antibodies as

described above. At time 0 and 72 h later, cells were analyzed by flow cytometry to detect RFP

expression in live TCR$^+$CD4$^+$ cells. For *in vivo* experiments, CD4$^+$RFP$^+$ splenocytes were enriched

by FACS and 2 x 10^5 cells were adoptively transferred i.p. into Rag-2$^{-/-}$ or Spp-1$^{-/-}$Rag-2$^{-/-}$ mice.

Eight weeks later, IEL were isolated and RFP expression analyzed in CD45$^+$TCRβ$^+$CD4$^+$ donor-

derived cells.

Transcription profile analysis. For gene expression array, RNA was isolated from FACS-enriched

IEL subpopulations from 4 individual WT and Spp-1$^{-/-}$ mice. Samples were prepared for RT^2

Profiler PCR Array (QIAGEN PAMM-012Z) and analyzed following manufacturer's instructions.

For RNAseq analysis, RNA was isolated from FACS-enriched CD45$^+$ IEL derived from WT mice

cultured for 24 h in the presence or absence of recombinant osteopontin using the QIAGEN

RNeasy micro kit. Sequencing was performed on an Illumina NovaSeq 6000 (2 x 150 base pair,

paired-end reads). The tool Salmon (42) was used for quantifying the expression of RNA

transcripts. The R project software along with the edgeR method (43) was used for differential

expression analysis. For gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA), RNAseq data was ranked according

to the t-test statistic. The gene sets curated (C2), GO (C5), immunological signature collection

(C7) and hallmarks of cancer (H) of the Molecular Signatures Database (MSigDB) were used for

enrichment analysis. GSEA enrichment plots were generated using the GSEA software (44) from

the Broad Institute with 1000 permutations.

Real time PCR for osteopontin expression. RNA from colon tissue was isolated using Trizol

following the manufacturer's instructions. First strand cDNA was synthesized using RT2 first

strand kit (Qiagen). Real time PCR was performed using RT2 SYBR Green Mastermix (Qiagen).

Osteopontin and GADPH primers were from Qiagen.

Statistical analysis. Statistical significance between 2 groups was determined using Mann-

Whitney U-test. For analysis of 3 groups or more, two-way ANOVA followed by Dunn's multiple

comparison tests were used appropriately. All data was analyzed in GraphPad Prism 7 and shown

as mean ± standard error mean (SEM). A *P* value <0.05 was considered significant.

Results

Osteopontin deficiency has a differential effect on the homeostasis of individual IEL populations

A previous report has shown that mice deficient in osteopontin (Spp-1$^{-/-}$) have reduced TCR$\gamma\delta^+$ total cell numbers in the small intestine, while unfractionated TCR$\alpha\beta^+$ IEL numbers remained the same (35). In the same report, *in vitro* experiments showed that the survival of both of these IEL populations was decreased when cultured in the presence of anti-osteopontin antibodies (35). To further investigate, we analyzed in detail the IEL compartment of WT and Spp-1$^{-/-}$ mice. Fig. 1A depicts the gating strategy used. Our analysis showed a decrease in TCR$\gamma\delta^+$ small intestine IEL, but contrary to the report by Ito et al (35), we observed that Spp-1$^{-/-}$ mice presented significant reduction in the total numbers of total TCRβ^+ cells and IEL subpopulations TCRβ^+CD4$^+$, TCRβ^+CD8α^+ (which includes CD8$\alpha\beta^+$ and CD8$\alpha\alpha^+$), and TCRβ^+CD4$^+$CD8α^+ in comparison to cells derived from WT mice (Fig. 1B, top rows). IEL deficiencies were also observed in the colons of Spp-1$^{-/-}$ mice (Fig. 1B bottom rows). TCR^{neg} and iCD8α IEL, presented similar total cell numbers in the small intestine of Spp-1$^{-/-}$ and WT mice but reduced numbers in the colons of Spp-1$^{-/-}$ mice (Fig. 1B). Further subdivision of TCRβ^+CD8α^+ IEL based on CD8β expression, showed reduction in small intestine TCRβ^+CD8$\alpha\alpha^+$ and TCRβ^+CD8$\alpha\beta^+$ IEL numbers in Spp-1$^{-/-}$ mice (Supplemental Fig. 1A and 1B). In the colon, while the number of TCRβCD8$\alpha\beta^+$ IEL were similar between WT and Spp-1$^{-/-}$ mice, there was a significant reduction in the total cell numbers of TCRβ^+CD8$\alpha\alpha^+$ IEL in Spp-1$^{-/-}$ mice (Supplemental Fig. 1A and 1B). Interestingly, osteopontin deficiency did not affect spleen T lymphocytes (Fig. 1C) or lamina propria CD19$^+$, TCRβ^+CD4$^+$, and TCRβ^+CD8$^+$ cells (Fig. 1D), suggesting that the major influence of this molecule is confined to the intestinal IEL compartment.

To investigate whether the reduction in IEL numbers in Spp-1$^{-/-}$ mice was due to increased

cell death, we stained the cells with annexin V and 7AAD to determine the levels of early apoptosis

(annexin V$^+$7AAD^{neg}), late apoptosis/undergoing necrosis (annexin V$^+$7AAD$^+$) and necrosis

(annexin V$^-$7AAD$^+$). TCRγδ$^+$, TCRβ$^+$CD4$^+$, TCRβ$^+$CD4$^+$CD8α$^+$, TCRβ$^+$CD8αα$^+$, and

TCRβ$^+$CD8αβ$^+$ IEL derived from Spp-1$^{-/-}$ and WT mice presented similar levels of cells in early

apoptosis (annexin V$^+$7AAD^{neg}) and necrosis (annexin V^{neg}7AAD$^+$) (Fig. 2A). On the other hand,

TCRγδ$^+$, TCRβ$^+$CD4$^+$, and TCRβ$^+$CD4$^+$CD8α$^+$ IEL derived from Spp-1$^{-/-}$ mice presented an

increase in cells in late apoptosis/undergoing necrosis (annexin V$^+$7AAD$^+$), suggesting that the

decreased total numbers of these IEL subpopulations in the absence of osteopontin may be due to

increased cell death.

We also analyzed the cell division potential of TCRγδ$^+$, TCRβ$^+$CD4$^+$, TCRβ$^+$CD4$^+$CD8α$^+$

and TCRβ$^+$CD8αα$^+$ and TCRβ$^+$CD8αβ$^+$ IEL derived from WT and Spp-1$^{-/-}$ mice. TCRβ$^+$CD4$^+$,

TCRβ$^+$CD4$^+$CD8α$^+$ and TCRβ$^+$CD8αα$^+$ IEL from osteopontin-deficient mice presented

decreased Ki67 staining in comparison to IEL derived from WT mice (Fig. 2B), indicating lower

proliferation of these IEL populations. Interestingly, TCRγδ$^+$ IEL had similar Ki67 staining levels

in cells from osteopontin-deficient and -competent mice (Fig. 2B).

Overall, these results show that osteopontin is required for proper IEL cell numbers,

survival and cell division. Importantly, the effect caused by osteopontin is not homogeneous across

most IEL populations, and instead, each IEL population responds differently to this cytokine.

IEL subpopulations survive better in vitro *in the presence of osteopontin*

To investigate the role of osteopontin in IEL survival, we cultured FACS-enriched TCRγδ$^+$,

TCRβ$^+$CD4$^+$, TCRβ$^+$CD8α$^+$, and TCRβ$^+$CD4$^+$CD8α$^+$ IEL subpopulations in the presence or

absence of recombinant osteopontin, and measured survival every 24 h for a period of 3 days.

More than 50% of TCRγδ$^+$ IEL died after only 24 h of incubation with plain media and continued

to die after 48 and 72 h (Fig. 3A). Although TCRγδ$^+$ IEL incubated in the presence of osteopontin

showed cell death during the first 48 h of cultures, their survival at 72 h was higher than cells

incubated without recombinant osteopontin (Fig. 3A). A similar increased survival trend was

observed for TCRβ$^+$CD8α$^+$ and TCRβ$^+$CD4$^+$CD8α$^+$ IEL (Fig. 3A). TCRβ$^+$CD4$^+$ IEL were more

viable than the other populations at 24 h post culture even without recombinant osteopontin, but

addition of this cytokine maintained a constant survival rate of TCRβ$^+$CD4$^+$ IEL (Fig. 3A).

Osteopontin binds to several integrin receptors including αvβ1, αvβ3, and αvβ5, among others

(45), but also interacts with CD44 (46). Staining TCRγδ$^+$ and unfractionated TCRβ$^+$ IEL from

naïve mice with CD44 results in ~40 to 50% CD44$^+$ cells respectively (Supplemental Fig. 1C). To

determine whether the improved survival observed in the presence of osteopontin depends on

CD44 binding, IEL subpopulations were incubated in the presence of recombinant osteopontin and

anti-CD44 antibody. As shown in Fig. 3A, whenever IEL survival was improved by osteopontin,

this effect was blunted by addition of anti-CD44.

To determine whether osteopontin-mediated survival is specific for IEL, we investigated

the influence of osteopontin on the survival of splenic T cells. First, CD45$^+$ splenocytes from naïve

WT mice were cultured in the presence or absence of recombinant osteopontin. As shown in Fig.

3B, survival of CD45$^+$ spleenocytes was not affected by osteopontin. Moreover, FACS-enriched

TCRβ$^+$CD44^{hi} spleen cells from naïve WT and Spp-1$^{-/-}$ mice cultured in the presence or absence

of recombinant osteopontin and/or anti-CD44 presented no difference in their survival (Fig. 3C),

indicating that osteopontin preferentially influences the *in vitro* survival of IEL via CD44 but not

of total or CD44$^+$ splenic T cells.

The immune system of mice maintained in specific pathogen-free conditions more closely

resembles that of human neonates rather than adults (47). Therefore, to determine whether our

findings with murine IEL are relevant to humans, we isolated total IEL from human neonates and

cultured them in the presence or absence of recombinant human osteopontin. Human IEL survived

better in the presence of recombinant osteopontin than in its absence, and the addition of anti-

human CD44 blunted the cytokine effect (Fig. 3D), in parallel to the results observed with mouse

IEL. To determine the effect of osteopontin on other human lymphocytes, we employed PBMC

from healthy adults, as we were unable to obtain PBMCs from the same neonate individuals for

this purpose. As shown in Fig. 3E, PBMC survival was not enhanced or reduced by any of the

treatments used, which corroborates an intestinal IEL-specific effect. Overall, our results indicate

that in *in vitro* conditions, osteopontin differentially promotes both murine and human IEL

survival, an effect that is blunted by blocking its interaction with CD44.

Because anti-CD44 blocked the survival effect mediated by osteopontin, we investigated

whether the IEL compartment is disrupted in CD44-deficient mice. In comparison to IEL derived

from WT mice, $CD44^{-/-}$ mice presented reduced TCR^{neg} and $TCR\beta^+CD4^+$ IEL in the small

intestines, whereas the colon presented reduction in unfractionated $TCR\beta^+$, TCR^{neg}, $TCR\beta^+CD4^+$,

and $TCR\beta^+CD8\alpha^+$ IEL (Supplementary Fig. 1D).

Osteopontin induces a differential anti-apoptotic gene expression in IEL

The previous sections suggest an important role for osteopontin in the survival of different IEL

subpopulations. To investigate whether osteopontin induces a survival gene expression profile, we

isolated   RNA   from   FACS-enriched $TCR\gamma\delta^+$, $TCR\beta^+CD4^+$, $TCR\beta^+CD8\alpha^+$ and

$TCR\beta^+CD4^+CD8\alpha^+$ IEL derived from naïve WT and $Spp-1^{-/-}$ mice, and determined the expression

of genes involved in preventing apoptosis. Comparison of genes expressed in IEL from WT and

Spp-1$^{-/-}$ mice showed that TCRγδ$^+$ cells from WT animals had more differentially expressed anti-

apoptotic genes in comparison to the other IEL populations (Supplemental Fig. 2A and B).

TCRβ$^+$CD8α$^+$ IEL presented little differential expression among the anti-apoptotic genes

analyzed. On the other hand, TCRβ$^+$CD4$^+$ and TCRβ$^+$CD4$^+$CD8α$^+$ IEL differentially expressed

some of these genes (Supplemental Fig. 2A and B). Birc2, a known inhibitor of apoptosis in

malignancies (48), was one of the genes consistently differentially expressed in most IEL analyzed

from WT mice, including TCRβ$^+$CD4$^+$CD8α$^+$ cells (Supplemental Fig. 2A and B). Overall, these

results indicate that osteopontin induces the expression of anti-apoptotic genes, but the gene profile

varies between different IEL subpopulations.

Because addition of recombinant osteopontin rescued IEL survival when cultured *in vitro*

(Fig. 3A), we interrogated whether addition of this cytokine in cultured wild type IEL modifies

their gene expression profile. For this purpose, we cultured FACS-enriched CD45$^+$ IEL from wild

type mice in the presence or absence of osteopontin. Twenty-four hours post-culture, cells were

collected, RNA extracted, sequenced and the gene expression profile determined. As recovery of

sufficient cells for gene expression profile analysis after 24 h of culture from individual IEL

populations was limiting, total CD45$^+$ IEL were used as an alternative approach. Gene set

enrichment analysis (GSEA) revealed that IEL cultured in the presence of recombinant osteopontin

express genes associated with retinoid X receptor (RXR) functions (Supplemental Fig. 2C and D).

GSEA also showed that IEL cultured in media alone present enriched pathways related to

apoptosis, degradation of p27/p21 and downregulation of genes in regulatory T cells

(Supplemental Fig. 2C and D). These results indicate that *in vitro* IEL exposure to osteopontin has

an impact on IEL gene transcription and modifies gene sets related to cell survival.

Osteopontin does not influence T cell migration into the epithelium but maintains homeostasis of

TCRβ⁺CD4⁺ and TCRβ⁺CD4⁺CD8α⁺ IEL

Because some IEL populations are derived from conventional $CD4^+$ and $CD8^+$ T cells, we investigated whether osteopontin is important for the relocation of these cells into the IEL compartment. To test this hypothesis, we adoptively transferred total spleen T cells from WT mice into $Rag-2^{-/-}$ or $Spp-1^{-/-}Rag-2^{-/-}$ recipient mice, and after 7 days we determined the number of cells migrating into the intestinal epithelium. Fig. 4A (top) shows the gating strategy to identify cells derived from donor mice. Both TCRβ⁺CD4⁺ and TCRβ⁺CD8α⁺ cells migrated similarly into the epithelium of $Rag-2^{-/-}$ or $Spp-1^{-/-}Rag-2^{-/-}$ recipient mice (Fig. 4A, bottom), indicating that osteopontin in the recipient mice does not influence the migration of these cells into the intestinal mucosa. Interestingly, reconstitution analysis of $Spp-1^{-/-}Rag-2^{-/-}$ recipient mice at 28 days post transfer showed a reduction in the total number of TCRβ⁺CD4⁺ and TCRβ⁺CD4⁺CD8α⁺ cells but not TCRβ⁺CD8αβ⁺ IEL (Fig. 4B), which resembled what was observed in naïve Spp-1-deficient mice (Fig. 1B and Supplemental Fig. 1B). To prevent the development of intestinal inflammation in $Rag-2^{-/-}$ recipient mice, we transferred total T cells, which includes regulatory T cells. To our surprise, $Spp-1^{-/-}Rag-2^{-/-}$ recipient mice lost more weight than $Rag-2^{-/-}$ mice (Fig. 4C) and presented increased colon inflammation (Fig. 4D). The impact of ostopontin produced by donor-derived cells in IEL reconstitution and disease development was minimal, as determined by total colon osteopontin mRNA expression prior to, and after 28 days post T cell transfer (Fig. 4E).

To interrogate why $Spp-1^{-/-}Rag-2^{-/-}$ mice developed intestinal inflammation when regulatory T cells were present in the inoculum, we investigated the fate of regulatory T cells in the presence or absence of osteopontin. Regulatory T cells are known to express CD44, which

when ligated, promotes sustained Foxp3 expression (49). Thus, we hypothesized that binding of

osteopontin to CD44 is a potential signal that maintains proper Foxp3 expression. To test this

possibility, we cultured total T cells from the intestines of RFP-Foxp3 mice in the presence or

absence of osteopontin, with or without anti-CD44. After 72 h of culture, there was an increase in

the percentage of RFP$^+$ cells in the presence of osteopontin, which was blunted with the addition

of anti-CD44 antibodies (Fig. 5A). Figure 5B shows the combined fold increase over untreated

cells.

To test whether osteopontin sustains Foxp3 expression *in vivo*, we sorted splenic RFP$^+$

cells from RFP-Foxp3 reporter mice and adoptively transferred them into Rag-2$^{-/-}$ or Spp-1$^{-/-}$Rag-

2$^{-/-}$ recipient mice. Eight weeks after transfer, IEL were isolated and the percentage of donor-

derived (CD45$^+$TCRβ$^+$CD4$^+$) RFP$^+$ cells was determined (Fig. 5C). Rag-2$^{-/-}$ mice presented a trend

of higher percentage of donor-derived cells in the IEL compartment than Spp-1$^{-/-}$Rag-2$^{-/-}$ recipient

mice (Fig. 5D). Approximately 10% of the donor-derived cells from Rag-2$^{-/-}$ recipient mice

remained RFP$^+$, whereas only 4% of cells recovered from Spp-1$^{-/-}$Rag-2$^{-/-}$ recipient mice remained

RFP$^+$ (Fig. 5E). These results indicate that osteopontin sustains Foxp3 expression in regulatory T

cells in the IEL compartment, possible mediated by CD44 ligation, which significantly impacts

the development of intestinal inflammation.

To test whether CD44 expression, as one of the receptors for osteopontin on T cells, is

critical for prevention of experimental colitis, we adoptively transferred total T cells from CD44$^{-/-}$

donor mice into Rag-2$^{-/-}$ and Spp-1$^{-/-}$Rag-2$^{-/-}$ recipient mice. Rag-2$^{-/-}$ mice that received total spleen

T cells from WT mice did not lose weight, whereas Rag-2$^{-/-}$ and Spp-1$^{-/-}$Rag-2$^{-/-}$ recipient mice that

received spleen cells from CD44$^{-/-}$ donor mice lost weight comparably starting at 2 weeks post

transfer (Supplemental Fig. 3A), with clear signs of intestinal inflammation (Supplemental Fig.

3B).

Overall, these results show that osteopontin is not involved in the migration of adoptively

transferred conventional T cells into the intestinal epithelium, but sustains proper TCRβ$^+$CD4$^+$ and

TCRβ$^+$CD4$^+$CD8$^+$ cell numbers once in the IEL compartment. Moreover, the lack of osteopontin

in recipient mice results in development of colitis, even in the presence of regulatory T cells in the

inoculum. A similar outcome was observed when CD44-deficient T cells were transferred into

Rag-2$^{-/-}$ or Spp-1$^{-/-}$Rag-2$^{-/-}$ recipient mice, highlighting the importance of the osteopontin-CD44

interaction in intestinal homeostasis.

iCD8α cell-derived osteopontin increases IEL survival

iCD8α cells are a population of TCR^{neg} IEL involved in different immunological roles and are

known as an important source of osteopontin in the intestines (8). Recently, it has been shown that

survival of TCR^{neg} ILC1-like IEL depends in part on iCD8α cells, an effect most likely associated

with the production of osteopontin by these cells (36). To determine whether the survival of TCR$^+$

IEL populations is dependent on iCD8α cell-derived osteopontin, we performed experiments in

which the source of osteopontin is confined to a specific IEL population (iCD8α, TCRβ$^+$ or

TCRγδ$^+$ cells). Then, these individual IEL populations were co-cultured in the presence of total

IEL derived from osteopontin-deficient mice. After 4 h of culture, cells were stained for annexin

V and the increased in survival was calculated as indicated in the Materials and method section.

As shown in Fig. 6A, addition of osteopontin-competent iCD8α cells to the IEL culture resulted

in an increased survival (over IEL cultured in the absence of iCD8α cells) of almost 30% for

TCRγδ$^+$ and TCRβ$^+$CD8αα$^+$ IEL, whereas there was variable survival increase for unfractionated

TCRβ+, and the IEL subpopulations TCRβ+CD4+, TCRβ+CD4+CD8α+ and TCRβ+CD8αβ+.

Survival was reduced by addition of anti-osteopontin antibodies, indicating that iCD8α cell-

derived osteopontin was responsible for the observed increase in survival. A previous report

indicated that TCRβ+ and TCRγδ+ IEL also produce osteopontin (35). To determine whether these

IEL populations promote *in vitro* survival of IEL, we performed a similar experiment but the

potential source of osteopontin were TCRβ+ or TCRγδ+ IEL (Fig. 6B and C). TCRβ+ IEL were

capable of stimulate survival of only TCRγδ+ IEL and addition of anti-osteopontin antibodies

blunted the survival below the levels of cells cultured alone. For other IEL population, the addition

of TCRβ+ IEL from osteopontin-competent mice did not enhance IEL survival (Fig. 6B). When

TCRγδ+ IEL were used as the source of osteopontin, these cells were capable of increasing only

the survival of TCRβ+CD8αβ+ IEL. To determine that the osteopontin-competent cells have

similar viability after 4 h of culture, we analyzed their annexin V profile. As indicated in

Supplemental Fig. 4A, iCD8α, TCRβ+ and TCRγδ+ IEL presented low percentage of annexin V-

positive cells, and these percentages were similar among the 3 different type of IEL. To determine

the production of osteopontin from each cell type in these co-cultures, we recovered the

supernatants and measured osteopontin concentration by ELISA. As expected, osteopontin was

not detected in supernatants from CD45+ IEL derived from Spp-1-/- mice cultured alone, but was

readily detectable in cultures containing iCD8α cells (Supplemental Fig. 4A). On the other hand,

osteopontin was not detected in the supernatants that included TCRβ+ or TCRγδ+ IEL from

osteopontin-competent mice (Supplemental Fig. 4A). These results suggest that the observed

increased survival promoted by TCRβ+ and TCRγδ+ IEL may not be completely dependent on

osteopontin, since this protein was not detected in the supernatants. Overall, these results indicate

that iCD8α cell-derived osteopontin is an important survival signal for IEL.

Intestinal epithelial cells are known to constitutively express low levels of osteopontin (25,

26), representing a potential source of this protein for the homeostasis of IEL. Because IEC rapidly

die in *in vitro* culture conditions, we determine their contribution to IEL homeostasis by analyzing

the IEL compartment of mice with conditional mutation of the osteopontin gene driven by the

villin promoter, which is preferentially expressed in IEC (Vill.Cre$^{+/-}$Spp-1$^{fl/fl}$). Expression of

osteopontin in IEC is ablated, but not in activated T cells, in Vill.Cre$^{+/-}$Spp-1$^{fl/fl}$ mice validating

the conditional mutation (Supplemental Fig. 4C). As shown in Fig. 7A and B, the absence of

osteopontin expression in IEC does not impact total small intestine or colon IEL cell numbers,

indicating that IEC-derived osteopontin does not contribute to the homeostasis of most IEL

populations.

Discussion

Intestinal IEL reside in the unique environment of the IEC monolayer. In this anatomical location, IEL are poised as one the first immunological defenses against potential pathogens from the intestinal lumen. In order to fulfill their immunological roles, IEL need to maintain their homeostasis. However, because IEL represent a diverse population of lymphoid cells, requirements for their homeostasis within the epithelium may depend on the particular type of IEL. For example, $TCR\gamma\delta^+$ IEL require IL-7 for their proper development whereas other IEL are not affected by this cytokine (50). On the other hand, IL-15 deficiency does not disturb $TCR\gamma\delta^+$ IEL but has a significant impact on $TCR\alpha\beta^+CD8\alpha\alpha^+$, $iCD8\alpha$ and $iCD3^+$ IEL (7, 8, 51). The results presented in this report indicate that osteopontin is important for the homeostasis of many different IEL subpopulations. This implies that despite having different developmental pathways and cytokine requirements, the presence of osteopontin in the epithelium ensures proper homeostasis of most types of intestinal IEL.

Osteopontin-mediated T cell survival has been documented previously. For example, concanavalin A-activated T cells from lymph nodes show reduced levels of cell death in the presence of osteopontin (33). It is important to note that this report demonstrated a pivotal role for osteopontin as an enhancer for the survival of effector Th17 cells, particularly during brain inflammation (33). However, whereas this group studied differentiated Th17 cells in the context of brain inflammation our results are based on IEL in naïve animals. In the present report, using an *in vitro* system, we show that TCR^+ IEL rapidly die in the absence of osteopontin, whereas the presence of this cytokine increased their *in vitro* survival (Fig. 3). Interestingly, each IEL subpopulation presented different survival kinetics, but appeared to have a similar survival requirement for osteopontin. Strikingly, the effect of osteopontin was only observed at 48 h

(TCRβ⁺CD4⁺ and TCRβCD4⁺CD8α⁺ IEL) or 72 h (TCRγδ⁺ and TCRβ⁺CD8α⁺ IEL). The reason

why the osteopontin effect is only observed at later time points and not at 24 h is not clear.

However, it is possible that as IEL are exposed to exogenous osteopontin during the first hours of

culture, there is a decrease in their annexin V profile (as shown in Fig. 6), however their resilience

to cell death is delayed, which is observed at later time points.

CD44 is known to be one of the receptors for osteopontin, and the interaction between

these two molecules promotes adhesion and chemotaxis of bone marrow cells (52), increases

growth of cancer cell lines (53), stimulates survival of pro-B cell lines (54), induces production of

IL-10 in T cells (55), and protects T cell hybridomas from activated-induced cell death (56), among

other functions. Despite the many roles attributed to the osteopontin-CD44 interaction, its role in

IEL survival has not been investigated. IEL are considered to be in a "semi-activated" state (57),

and most of these cells express CD44. Therefore, it is reasonable to speculate that some IEL

subpopulations receive survival signals via the interaction between osteopontin and CD44.

Interestingly, splenic CD44⁺ T cell survival was not increased by the addition of osteopontin *in*

vitro, which suggests that osteopontin may not affect all T cells expressing CD44. We also show

that the IEL survival promoted by osteopontin can be blunted by addition of anti-CD44 antibodies

(Fig. 3), underscoring the importance of the osteopontin-CD44 interaction in IEL biology.

However, it is noteworthy that IEL deficiencies in CD44⁻/⁻ mice do not faithfully resemble those

observed in Spp-1⁻/⁻ mice, suggesting that in the absence of CD44, other receptors may bind

osteopontin to stimulate survival of specific IEL subpopulations.

In the adoptive transfer experiments reported here, donor CD4 T cells from WT mice

reconstituted the IEL compartment of Spp-1⁻/⁻Rag-2⁻/⁻ recipient mice less efficiently than in Rag-

2⁻/⁻ recipient mice, suggesting that an environment capable of producing osteopontin is important

for proper cell reconstitution in the intestines. However, transfer of T cells from osteopontin-

deficient donor mice into Rag-2$^{-/-}$ recipient mice resulted in reduced survival rates in the spleen

and lymph nodes in comparison to donor T cells from wild type donor mice (31). These results

indicate that intrinsic T cell-derived osteopontin is critical for normal cell reconstitution in

secondary lymphoid organs whereas T cells present in the IEL compartment depend on osteopontin

from the environment.

Adoptive transfer of total spleen T cells into immunodeficient hosts, such as Rag-2$^{-/-}$ mice,

normally results in cellular reconstitution and protection from T cell-mediated colitis due to the

presence of regulatory T cells (58, 59). Surprisingly, when recipient Rag-2$^{-/-}$ mice were deficient

in osteopontin (Rag-2$^{-/-}$Spp-1$^{-/-}$ animals), mice developed colitis even in the presence of regulatory

T cells (Fig. 4), raising the possibility that environmental osteopontin is important for maintaining

regulatory T cell function, as shown in Fig. 5.

If most IEL subpopulations require osteopontin for their homeostasis, what are the cellular

sources for this protein in the intestines? IEC produce osteopontin, and its expression increases

during inflammation (25, 26). Other sources of osteopontin are within the IEL compartment, which

appear to be confined to IEL expressing CD8α, including TCR$\gamma\delta^+$, TCRβ^+, and iCD8α cells (8,

35). We have previously shown that the survival of TCR^{neg} ILC1-like IEL (NKp46$^+$NK1.1$^+$)

depends on iCD8α cell-derived osteopontin (36). Our previous publication and the results

presented herein provide significance evidence to suggest that one of the main roles for iCD8α

cells is the maintenance of proper IEL homeostasis. iCD8α cells constitute around 2 to 5% of the

total IEL compartment. Considering that IEL are interspaced between IEC at an approximate ratio

of 1 IEL for 10 IEC (2), how do iCD8α cells promote osteopontin-dependent survival of IEL in

the monolayer of intestinal epithelial cells? It is known that some IEL, like TCR$\gamma\delta^+$ cells scan the

intestinal epithelium by moving out through the basal section of the epithelium and entering the

IEC monolayer in another location (60). Therefore, it is possible that iCD8α cells use a similar

mechanism to scan the monolayer, reach other IEL and provide needed osteopontin to other cells.

In the past few years, the role of osteopontin in the etiology of human diseases has been

greatly appreciated. For example, recent work has investigated the use of neutralizing anti-

osteopontin antibodies as a therapeutic with preclinical studies currently underway (ref. in (61)).

Studies such as the one described herein show that osteopontin neutralization may affect IEL

homeostasis in individuals with non-gastrointestinal tract disorders, but may be beneficial for IBD

patients. Osteopontin appears to be a critical molecule with multiple effects, one of them

supporting proper IEL homeostasis, and therefore additional studies are needed to better

understand its function and how it affects the biology of the mucosal immune system.

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 Figure legends

Figure 1. Osteopontin-deficient mice have a reduced IEL compartment. (A) Gating strategy

utilized in this report. After gating on live cells, IEL were gated as indicated. (B) Total IEL

numbers from the small intestine (top) and colon (bottom) of WT and Spp-1$^{-/-}$ mice. Each dot

represents an individual mouse (n = 13). (C) Total cell numbers of the indicated populations in the

spleens from WT and Spp-1$^{-/-}$ mice (n = 8). Bars indicate SEM. (D) Total cell numbers of the

indicated populations in the lamina propria from WT and Spp-1$^{-/-}$ mice. Each dot represents an

individual mouse (n = 5). Data from (B) to (D) are representative of two to three independent

experiments. * *P*<0.05; **P<0.01; ****P<0.0001 (Mann-Whitney U test).

Figure 2. Differential apoptosis and cell division in IEL from osteopontin-deficient mice. (A)

Annexin V staining of different small intestine IEL populations derived from WT and Spp-1$^{-/-}$

mice. After gating cells by size based on forward and side scatter profiles, cells were gated for the

expression of CD45 and other surface markers as indicated in Fig. 1A, and then analyzed for

annexin V and 7AAD staining. Dot plots show a representative sample. Summary is indicated in

the graphs. Data are representative of three independent experiments. Each dot represents an

individual sample (*n* = 8 to 10). (B) Ki67 intracellular staining of different small intestine IEL

populations derived from WT and Spp-1$^{-/-}$ mice. Cells were gated as in Figure 1A. Data are

representative from two independent experiments. Each dot represents an individual sample (*n* =

9 to 10). **P*<0.05; **P<0.01 (Mann-Whitney U test).

Figure 3. Osteopontin promotes *in vitro* IEL survival. (A) Indicated FACS-enriched IEL

populations from WT mice were left untreated or treated with recombinant murine osteopontin

(rOPN; 2 μg/ml), with or without anti-mouse CD44 (5 μg/ml). After the indicated time points, cell

survival was determined. Data are representative of three independent experiments. Biological

replicas consisted of two to three pooled IEL preparations from individual mice; each experiment

consisted of 3 biological replicas. (B) Enriched CD45$^+$ splenocytes were treated as in (A). Data

are representative of two independent experiments (n = 3). (C) FACS-enriched TCRβ$^+$CD44$^+$

spleen cells from WT and Spp-1$^{-/-}$ mice were treated as in (A). Data are representative of two

independent experiments (n = 3). (D) Neonatal human IEL were incubated in the presence or

absence of recombinant human osteopontin (2 μg/ml) and anti-human CD44 (5μg/ml). After the

indicated time points, cell survival was determined. Each symbol represents an individual human:

circle, small intestine from 1-day old patient presenting volvulus and necrosis; square, ileum and

colon from 17-day old patient presenting necrotizing enterocolitis; triangle, jejunum from 12-day

old patient presenting necrotizing enterocolitis; diamond and hexagon, de-identified individuals.

(E) PBMC from adult humans were treated as in (D). Data are representative of two independent

experiments (n = 3). *$P<0.05$, **$P<0.01$, ***$P<0.001$ (One-way ANOVA).

Figure 4. Environmental osteopontin influences IEL reconstitution and colon inflammation.

Enriched total spleen T cells from WT mice were adoptively transferred into Rag-2$^{-/-}$ and Spp-1$^{-/-}$

Rag-2$^{-/-}$ mice. (A) Gating strategy to identify cells derived from donor mice (top). Representative

analysis of mice analyzed seven days after transfer (bottom). Dot plots show a representative

sample. Results are summarized in the graphs. TCRβ$^+$CD4$^+$CD8α$^+$ cells were not detected above

background at this time point in either group. Data are representative from two independent

experiments. Each dot represents an individual sample (n = 4 to 5). (B) The same analysis as in

(A) performed at 28 days post transfer. Dot plots show a representative sample. Results are

summarized in the graphs. Data are representative from three independent experiments. Each dot

represents an individual animal (n = 9). (C) Total weight change at 28 days post transfer of mice

treated as in (B). (D) Representative H&E stained samples of colon sections from the indicated

mice at 28 days (100X magnification). Graph indicates total histological score [immune cell

infiltration (3 points), loss of goblet cells (3 points), crypt damage (3 points) and epithelial

hyperplasia (3 points)]. For (C) and (D) data are representative from three independent

experiments, each dot represents an individual mouse (n = 9). (E) Total mRNA expression from

colons of naïve and T cell treated (28 days post-transfer) Rag-2$^{-/-}$ and Spp-1$^{-/-}$Rag-2$^{-/-}$ mice (n=3-

5). **P<0.01 (Mann-Whitney T test).

Figure 5. Osteopontin sustains Foxp3 expression. (A) Intestinal T cells from RFP-Foxp3 reporter

mice were isolated and cultured in the presence or absence of recombinant osteopontin (2 μg/ml)

and anti-CD44 (5 μg/ml). Seventy-two hours later, the percentage of RFP$^+$ cells was determined

by flow cytometry. After excluding dead cells, dot plots were gated as CD45$^+$TCRβ$^+$ cells. (B) Bar

graph indicates the fold change in CD4$^+$RFP$^+$ cells in relation to the null group. Data are

representative of three independent experiments. (C) Enriched splenic RFP$^+$ cells from RFP-Foxp3

reporter mice were adoptively transferred into Rag-2$^{-/-}$ and Spp-1$^{-/-}$Rag-2$^{-/-}$ recipient mice. Eight

weeks after transfer, IEL from small intestine were isolated and the percentage of RFP$^+$

determined. After excluding dead cells, plots were gated as indicated by the arrows. (D) Summary

of the percentage of donor-derived cells recovered; each dot represents an individual mouse. Data

are representative from three independent experiments. (E) Summary of the percentage of RFP$^+$

cells within the donor-derived cells.　*P<0.05 (Mann-Whitney T test). rOPN = recombinant

osteopontin; aCD44 = anti-CD44 antibodies.

Figure 6. iCD8α cell-derived osteopontin promotes IEL survival. Enriched CD45$^+$ IEL from small

intestine and colon derived from Spp-1$^{-/-}$ mice were incubated in the presence or absence of

enriched iCD8α IEL (A), TCRβ^+ IEL (B), or TCR$\gamma\delta^+$ IEL (C) from osteopontin-competent donors.

Some cells were cultured in the presence of anti-osteopontin antibodies (2 μg/ml). Four hours after

incubation, cells were stained for surface markers, including annexin V, and 7AAD. Cells were

gated as in Figure 2A. Graphs indicate "increased survival", which was determined as 100 - [% of

annexin V$^+$ read-out cells in co-culture x 100 / % of annexin V$^+$ cells cultured alone].

Figure 7. IEC-derived osteopontin does not promote IEL homeostasis. Small intestine (A) and

colon (B) IEL were isolated from Villin-Cre$^{-/-}$Spp-1$^{fl/fl}$ and Villin-Cre$^{+/-}$Spp-1$^{fl/fl}$ mice, and the

cellularity determined as indicated in Fig. 1A and B.

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7