Extracellular adenosine enhances the ability of PMNs to kill *Streptococcus*

pneumoniae by inhibiting IL-10 production

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Summary Sentence: Extracellular adenosine produced by CD73 promotes the

ability of PMNs to kill *Streptococcus pneumoniae* by blunting IL-10 production

Running Title: PMN anti-bacterial phenotype requires CD73

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oxygen species

Abbreviations

CFU: Colony Forming Units

CT: Cycle thresh-hold

EAD: Extracellular adenosine

I.P: Intra peritoneal

I.T: Intra tracheal

MFI (Mean Fluorescent Intensity)

MOI: Multiplicity of infection

MPO: Myeloperoxidase

NE: Neutrophil Elastase

OPH: Opsonophagocytic

PLY: Pneumolysin

PMA: Phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate

PMNs: Polymorphonuclear leukocytes

Pneumococcus: *Streptococcus pneumoniae*

ROS: Reactive oxygen species

WT: Wild type

Abstract

PMNs are crucial for initial control of *Streptococcus pneumoniae*

(pneumococcus) lung infection; however, as the infection progresses their

persistence in the lungs is detrimental. We found that the progressive inability of

PMNs to control infection correlated with phenotypic differences characterized by

a decrease in CD73 expression, an enzyme required for production of

extracellular adenosine (EAD). EAD production by CD73 was crucial for PMN

function as PMNs from CD73$^{-/-}$ mice failed to kill pneumococci and

supplementation with EAD reversed this defect. Further, adoptive transfer of

PMNs from wild type mice prior to lung challenge was sufficient to boost the

resistance of CD73$^{-/-}$ mice to infection. Importantly, CD73 activity was important

for the antimicrobial function of PMNs from human donors. We found that CD73-

mediated resistance is due to its inhibitory effects on IL-10. PMNs from CD73$^{-/-}$,

but not wild type mice, up-regulated IL-10 production upon pneumococcal

infection in the lungs and *in vitro*. IL-10 inhibited PMN function, as addition of

recombinant IL-10 impaired the ability of PMNs from wild type mice to kill

pneumococci *ex vivo*, and treatment with anti-IL-10 boosted the bactericidal

activity of CD73$^{-/-}$ PMNs. Blocking IL-10 also boosted the resistance of *CD73$^{-/-}$*

mice to pneumococcal pneumonia. CD73/IL-10 did not affect apoptosis, bacterial

uptake and intracellular killing or production of anti-microbial Neutrophil Elastase

and Myeloperoxidase. Rather, inhibition of IL-10 production by CD73 was

important for production of extracellular ROS by PMNs upon *S. pneumoniae*

infection. This study demonstrates that CD73 regulates PMN anti-microbial

phenotype during pneumococcal pneumonia.

1. Introduction

Neutrophils, also known as polymorphonuclear leukocytes or PMNs, play

a major role in host defense against *S. pneumoniae* lung infection (1, 2). PMNs

are required to control bacterial burden early in the infectious process. In mouse

models, early PMN recruitment into the lungs within the first 12 hours following

pneumococcal pulmonary infection coincided with a decrease in bacterial

numbers and immunodepletion of PMNs prior to infection resulted in host lethality

(3). *Ex vivo*, PMNs are thought to kill *S. pneumoniae* by engulfing the bacteria

and producing serine proteases including cathepsin G (CG) and neutrophil

elastase (NE) (4), which were also required for controlling bacterial numbers in

murine models of pneumonia (5). Interestingly, later during infection, PMN

persistence in the lungs promotes disease (3, 6, 7). In fact, we previously found

that depletion of PMNs 18 hours after pneumococcal lung infection resulted in

reduced bacterial numbers and enhanced mouse survival (3). These findings

demonstrated that while PMNs are required at the start of infection, their

persistence is detrimental for host survival. This also suggested that the

antibacterial function of these innate immune cells and their ability to clear

pneumococci is altered during the course of infection (3). However the

mechanisms of this alteration in PMN phenotype remain unexplored.

A major regulator of host resistance to pneumococcal infection is

extracellular adenosine (EAD) (3). Upon damage due to a variety of insults

including infection, ATP is thought to leak from damaged cells into the

extracellular space and is converted into EAD by the sequential action of two

exonucleosidases, CD39 and CD73 (8). EAD can then signal via four known

receptors, i.e. A1, A2A, A2B and A3 (9). Several drugs targeting this pathway are

in clinical studies or in use to treat a variety of inflammatory diseases (9), making

it an attractive avenue for modulating immune responses during infection. We

previously found that blocking EAD production by CD73 dramatically increased

bacterial numbers in organs and resulted in host lethality upon *S. pneumoniae*

lung infection in mice (3). EAD production by CD73 regulated PMN recruitment to

the lungs and potentially boosted PMN function (3).

IL-10 is an anti-inflammatory cytokine associated with impaired control of

pneumococcal pneumonia (10, 11). In mouse models, IL-10 levels increase in

the lungs within 12 hours following pneumococcal challenge (10). Intranasal

administration of IL-10 at the time of bacterial challenge results in decreased host

survival and increased bacterial numbers in the lungs and blood, while blocking

IL-10 prior to infection enhances bacterial clearance and boosts host survival

(10). Interestingly, while IL-10$^{-/-}$ mice have reduced lung and systemic bacterial

loads, these mice suffer increased mortality due to excessive pulmonary

inflammation (12). IL-10 can be produced by many types of immune cells and it is

now appreciated that murine PMNs can also produce this anti-inflammatory

cytokine during infections (13-16). PMNs are a significant source of IL-10 in

sepsis models (17) and stimulation with several bacterial pathogens, including

Escherichia coli, *Shigella flexneri* and mycobacterial BCG, triggers IL-10

production by PMNs both *in vitro* and *in vivo* within 8 hours of infection (16).

Parasitic infections such as *Leishmania major* (14) and *Trypanosoma cruzi* (15)

also induce IL-10-producing PMNs during mouse infection. IL-10 production by

PMNs may reduce their microbicidal capacity, as *in vitro* treatment of PMNs with

IL-10 impairs their ability to phagocytose *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Candida*

albicans and *E. coli* and blunts superoxide production (18, 19)*. Further*, in a *S.*

aureus burn infection model, a subset of IL-10 producing PMNs is associated

with impaired host resistance to infection (13). It is not currently known if *S.*

pneumoniae infection triggers IL-10 production by PMNs.

In this study, we explored the involvement of CD73 in the diminished

efficacy of PMNs during the course of pneumococcal pneumonia. We found that

during the course of lung infection, CD73 expression on PMNs decreased.

Notably, this change in CD73 expression coincided with an increase in IL-10-

producing PMNs, and we showed that CD73 suppressed IL-10 production by

PMNs during infection and was required for the ability of these cells to kill *S.*

pneumoniae ex vivo. This study identifies a role for CD73 in maintaining the

antimicrobial phenotype of PMNs and elucidates the mechanisms by which CD73

regulates PMN anti-microbial function and host resistance to pneumococcal

pneumonia.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1 Mice

All experiments were conducted in accordance with Institutional Animal Care and

Use Committee (IACUC) guidelines. Wild type (WT) C57BL/6 mice were

purchased from Jackson Laboratories (Bar Harbor, ME). CD73^{-/-} mice on

C57BL/6 background were purchased from Jackson Laboratories and bred at a

specific-pathogen free facility at Tufts University and The University at Buffalo.

Female 8-12 week old mice were used in all experiments.

2.2 Bacteria

Wild type *S. pneumoniae* TIGR4 strain (serotype 4) and pneumolysin-deletion

mutant (ΔPLY) *S. pneumoniae* (20) were kind gifts from Andrew Camilli. Bacteria

were grown at 37°C in 5% CO_2 in Todd-Hewitt broth supplemented with 0.5%

yeast extract and oxyrase until culture reaches mid-exponential phase. Bacterial

aliquots were frozen at -80°C in the growth media with 20% (v/v) glycerol. Prior to

use, aliquots were thawed on ice, washed and suspended in PBS to obtain the

appropriate concentration. The inoculums were then confirmed by serial dilution

and dribble plating on Tryptic Soy Agar plates supplemented with 5% sheep

blood agar.

2.3 Isolation of PMNs

Bone marrow cells were harvested from femurs and tibias of uninfected mice,

flushed with RPMI 1640 supplemented with 10% FBS and 2 mM EDTA, and

resuspended in PBS. Neutrophils were then separated from the rest of the bone

marrow cells through density gradient centrifugation, using Histopaque 1119 and

Histopaque 1077 as previously described (21). The isolated neutrophils

were resuspended in Hanks' Balanced Salt Solution (HBSS)/0.1% gelatin

without Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+}, and used in subsequent assays. The purity of neutrophils

was also measured by flow cytometry using APC-conjugated anti-Ly6G and 85-

90% of enriched cells were Ly6G+.

2.4 Opsonophagocytic killing assay

The ability of PMNs to kill pneumococci was assessed *ex vivo* through an

Opsonophagocytic (OPH) killing assay as previously described (3, 22). Briefly,

100µl reactions in HBSS/0.1% gelatin consisted of $1x10^5$ PMNs incubated with

$1x10^3$ bacteria grown to mid log phase and pre-opsonized with 3% mouse sera.

The reactions were incubated rotating for 45 minutes at 37°C. Where indicated,

PMNs were incubated as indicated with adenosine (100µM) or rIL-10 (50ng/mL)

or anti-IL10 (1ug/mL JES5-2A5) or isotype control (1ug/mL) or 1x protease

inhibitor cocktail for 30 minutes prior to adding pre-opsonized bacteria. HBSS

with 3% sera was added to PMNs without treatment as the control. Percent killing

was determined by dribble plating on blood agar plates and calculated in

comparison to no PMN control under the exact same conditions (+/- treatments).

2.5 IL-10 Enzyme-Linked Immunosorbent Assay (ELISA)

$1x10^6$ Bone marrow PMNs were incubated with HBSS/0.1% gelatin or adenosine

for 30 minutes, followed by 45 minutes infection at 37° C with pre-opsonized *S.*

pneumoniae TIGR4 at an MOI of 2 or mock treated with HBSS and sera only

(uninfected). The reactions were spun down and the supernatants were obtained

to measure IL-10 production using Mouse IL-10 ELISA kit (e-bioscience)

according to manufacturer's instructions.

2.6 ROS Assay

Following isolation from the bone marrow, PMNs were re-suspended in HBSS

(Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} free) and acclimated at room temperature for one hour. The cells

were then spun down and re-suspended in KRP buffer (Phosphate buffered

saline with 5mM glucose, 1mM $CaCl_2$ and 1mM $MgSO_4$) and equilibrated at room

temperature for 30 minutes. The cells were then seeded in 96-well white

LUMITRAC^{TM} plates (Greiner Bio-One) at 5×10^5 PMNs per well, treated with anti-

IL-10 or rIL-10 for 30 minutes at 37° C. For detection of extracellular ROS, 50μM

Isoluminol (Sigma) plus 10U/ml HRP (Sigma) were added, while for detection of

intracellular ROS, 50μM Luminol (Sigma) was added to the wells as previously

described (23-26). The cells were infected with pre-opsonized *S. pneumoniae*

TIGR4 at an MOI of 2 or mock treated with buffer containing 3% mouse sera

(uninfected). PMNs treated with 100 nM Phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate (PMA)

(Sigma) were used as a positive control. Luminescence was immediately read

(following infection) over a period of one hour at 37° C in a pre-warmed Biotek

Plate reader. Wells containing buffer and Isoluminol plus HRP or Luminol alone

were used as blanks.

2.7 Animal infections and scoring

Mice were lightly anesthetized with isoflurane and challenged intra-tracheally (i.t.)

with $5x10^5$ colony-forming units (CFU) of WT *S. pneumoniae* TIGR4 strain by

instilling 50μl of bacteria directly into the trachea with the tongue pulled out to

facilitate delivery of bacteria directly into the lungs (3). Following the infection,

mice were monitored daily for weight loss and blindly scored for signs of sickness

including weight loss, activity level, posture and breathing, scored as healthy [0]

to severely sick [21] as previously described (27). The lung and brain were

harvested and homogenized in sterile PBS. Blood was collected to follow

bacteremia. Each sample was diluted in sterile PBS and dribble plated on blood

agar plates to enumerate bacterial numbers.

2.8 Isolation of cells from the lungs and flow cytometry

Mice were perfused with 10ml PBS, the lungs removed, washed in PBS, and

minced into small pieces. The lungs were then digested for 1 hour with RPMI

1640 supplemented with 10% FBS, 1 mg/ml Type II collagenase (Worthington),

and 50 U/ml Deoxyribonuclease I (Worthington) at 37° C/ 5% CO_2. Single-cell

suspensions were obtained by mashing the digested lungs, and the red blood

cells were removed by treatment with a hypotonic lysis buffer (Lonza). Cells were

analyzed using flow cytometry. Intracellular cytokine staining (ICS) was

performed using the Cytofix/Cytoperm kit (BD Biosciences). GolgiPlug was

added to the digestion media and following red blood cell lysis, the cells were

incubated with RPMI 1640 supplemented with 10% FBS and Golgi Plug for 3

more hours at 37° C/ 5% CO_2. Cells were surface stained with anti-mouse CD45

(clone 30-F11, e-Bioscience), Ly6G (clone 1A8, BD Biosciences) and CD73

(Clone TY/11.8, e-Bioscience). For intracellular staining, cells were

permeabilized and stained with IL-10 (clone JES5-16E3, e-Bioscience) or isotype

control (Rat IgG2b K Isotype Control, Biolegend). Fluorescence intensities were

measured on a FACSCalibur and at least 25,000 events for lung tissue were

analyzed using FlowJo.

2.9 Adoptive transfer of PMNs

Bone marrow PMNs were isolated from uninfected mice using density gradient

centrifugation as described above and resuspended in PBS. Mice either received

2.5×10^6 cells via intraperitoneal (i.p.) injection or mock-treated (PBS). One hour

post transfer, mice were challenged i.t. with 5×10^5 CFU of *S. pneumoniae.* Mice

were euthanized at 24 hours post infection, and the lungs, brain, and blood were

collected and plated on blood agar plates for CFU.

2.10 Blocking IL-10 in vivo

Mice were treated with 0.1mg/mouse of IL-10 blocking antibody (JES52A5,

Biolegend) or the isotype control (Rat IgG1 K Isotype Control, Biolegend) through

i.p. injection. After 2 hours, mice were then challenged i.t. with 5×10^5 CFU of *S.*

pneumoniae. The lungs and blood were collected two days post-infection to

determine bacterial burden.

2.11 Assays with human PMNs

Young (23-38 years old), male and female healthy human volunteers were

recruited in accordance with The University at Buffalo Human Investigation

Review Board (IRB) and signed informed consent forms. Individuals taking

medication, reporting symptoms of infection within the last 2 weeks or that were

pregnant were excluded from the study. Whole blood was obtained using acid

citrate/dextrose as an anti-coagulant. PMNs were isolated using a 2% gelatin

sedimentation technique as previously described (28) which allows for isolation

of active PMNs with ~90% purity. 5×10^5 PMNs were treated with the selective

and competitive inhibitor of CD73, α,β methylene ADP (1 or 10μM) or DMSO

vehicle control for 30 minutes at 37° C. The PMNs were then infected with 10^3

CFU *S. pneumoniae* pre-opsonized in 10% (v/v) baby rabbit serum (Pel-Freeze)

for 45 minutes at 37°C with rotation. Samples were then placed on ice to stop the

process of opsonophagocytosis followed by serial dilution and plating on blood

agar plates to enumerate viable CFU. The percentage of bacterial killing was

calculated relative to no PMN controls incubated under the same treatment

conditions.

2.12 mRNA measurement

RNA was extracted from $2×10^6$ human PMNs using the RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen)

as per manufacturer's protocol. TURBO DNA-free kit (Invitrogen) was used to

digest DNA from the RNA samples prior conversion into cDNA. RNA

concentration and 260/280 ratio were determined using Nano-drop (Thermo

Fischer Scientific). For each sample, 500ng of RNA was converted into cDNA

using SuperScript VILO^{TM} cDNA synthesis kit (Life Technologies) according to

the manufacturer's protocol. RT-PCR was performed using CFX96 Touch™

Real-Time PCR Detection System from Bio-Rad and CT (cycle thresh-hold)

values were determined using the following TaqMan probes from Life

Technologies (Thermo Fischer Scientific): GAPDH (human Hs99999905_m1)

CD73 (human Hs00159686_m1) and IL-10 (human Hs00961622_m1). Each

sample was run in duplicates. Data were analyzed by the comparative threshold

cycle ($2^{-\Delta CT}$) method, normalizing the CT values obtained for CD73 and IL-10

expression to those for GAPDH of the same sample. For comparison of IL-10

levels upon infection, relative quantity of transcripts (RQ) values were calculated

by the ΔΔCT method by using the formula RQ =$2^{\wedge -}$ (ΔΔCT) (29). The ΔΔCT

values were obtained by subtracting ΔCT value of the infected (test) from that of

the uninfected control.

2.13 Statistics

All statistical analysis was performed using Prism7 (Graph Pad). CFU data were

log-transformed to normalize distribution. For all graphs, the mean values +/- SD

are shown. Significant differences were determined by 2-way ANOVA followed

by Sidak's multiple comparisons test or Student's t-test where *p* values less than

0.05 were considered significant (as indicated by asterisks). Pearson test was

used to determine correlation.

Online Supplemental Material

Adenosine measurement

Blood was collected from mice by venipuncture in microtainer tubes. The tubes

were centrifuged at 9000rpm for 2 minutes and the sera obtained. Adenosine

level in the sera was measured using the Adenosine Assay Fluorometric Kit

(BioVision) as per manufacturer's instructions.

Bacterial uptake and intracellular killing assay

To determine uptake/phagocytosis and intracellular killing by PMNs, we

performed Gentamicin-protection assay. Isolated PMNs from uninfected mice

were incubated with pre-opsonized wild type or ΔPLY *S. pneumoniae* (MOI=2) for

10 minutes at 37°C. Gentamycin (100ug/ml) was then added for 40 minutes to kill

extracellular bacteria. The reactions were washed three times with HBSS and

resuspended in 100ul HBSS/0.1% gelatin. To measure initial bacterial uptake,

the reactions were diluted and plated on blood agar plates and the percentage of

the input inoculum that was engulfed was calculated. To determine intracellular

killing, the reactions were returned to 37°C and incubated for 30 minutes and 90

minutes. The reactions were diluted and plated on blood agar plates and the

percentage of the engulfed inoculum (at 10 minutes) that was killed was then

calculated.

Neutrophil Elastase and Cathepsin G activity assay

$1x10^6$ Bone marrow PMNs were treated with adenosine, anti-IL-10 or rIL-10 or

mock treated with HBSS/0.1% gelatin for 30 minutes at 37° C. The PMNs were

then infected with pre-opsonized *S. pneumoniae* TIGR4 at an MOI of 2 or mock

treated with buffer containing 3% mouse sera (uninfected) for 45 minutes at 37°

C. The reactions were spun down and the supernatants were used to measure

neutrophil elastase and cathepsin G activities with the Neutrophil Elastase

Activity Assay Kit Fluorometric (Abcam) and the Cathepsin G Activity Assay Kit

(Abcam) respectively (28).

Apoptosis Assay

PMNs were pre-treated with buffer or incubated with anti-IL-10 or rIL-10 for 30

minutes at 37° C then infected with pre-opsonized *S. pneumoniae* TIGR4 at an

MOI of 2 or mock treated with buffer containing 3% mouse sera (uninfected) for

45 minutes at 37° C. The percentage of apoptotic cells were then determined by

flow cytometry using the FITC Annexin V apoptosis detection kit with PI

(BioLegend) following manufacturer's instructions.

Myeloperoxidase (MPO) levels

1×10^6 Bone marrow PMNs were treated with anti-IL-10 or rIL-10 or mock treated

with HBSS/0.1% gelatin for 30 minutes at 37° C. The PMNs were then infected

with pre-opsonized *S. pneumoniae* TIGR4 at an MOI of 2 or mock treated with

buffer containing 3% mouse sera (uninfected) for 30 minutes at 37° C. The cells

were lysed with lysis buffer containing 0.1% Triton-X and MPO levels measured

by ELISA (Invitrogen) according to manufacturer's instructions.

3. Results

3.1 CD73 expression on PMNs decreases over the course of infection

We previously found that PMNs are required for protection at the

beginning of *S. pneumoniae* lung infection (3), but are detrimental at later times.

To test if there was a correlation between PMN numbers in the lungs and

bacterial burden, we infected young C57BL/6 mice intra-tracheally (i.t.) with

5×10^5 colony-forming units (CFU) of *S. pneumoniae* TIGR4 strain and monitored

bacterial burden and pulmonary influx of PMNs over the first 72 hours. We then

performed correlation analysis between PMN number and lung CFU for 0-12

hours vs. 18-72 hours following infection. We found that PMN influx into the lungs

strongly correlated with a decrease in bacterial burden for the first 12 hours

following infection (Fig 1A left panel, R-squared =0.71, *p=0.0001*). However,

there was no correlation between PMN presence in the lungs and bacterial

numbers for the remainder of the infection (Fig 1A right panel) suggesting that

PMNs are no longer able to control the infection.

To determine if this was associated with a difference in the phenotype of

pulmonary PMNs over time, we monitored the expression of the EAD-producing

enzyme CD73 on PMNs in the lungs for 72 hours following lung challenge. We

found that in the first 18 hours of infection, the majority (~75-80%) of PMNs in the

lungs expressed CD73 (Fig. 1B). However, both the percentage of PMNs

expressing CD73 and the amount (measured by the mean fluorescent intensity

or MFI) of CD73 expressed on PMNs in the lungs significantly dropped over the

course of infection. CD73 expression had dropped to half by 72 hours and the

drop started to occur after 12 hours post-infection, a time point after which PMN

presence in the lungs no longer correlated with control of bacterial numbers (Fig

1A) (3). The decrease of CD73 expression also occurred on circulating PMNs

and bone marrow PMNs (Fig. 1C), suggesting that this was a systemic decrease

and not only localized in the lungs. A recent study identified a population of

PMNs in the spleen with intermediate expression of Ly6G on their surface that

exhibited a lowered ability to engulf *S. pneumoniae* during i.v. infection (30).

When we compared Ly6G expression, we found that CD73 positive pulmonary

PMNs had significantly higher expression of Ly6G (MFI) on their surface at all the

time points tested (Fig. 1D). These data show that there are changes in PMNs

over the course of pneumococcal pneumonia and that low CD73 expression on

PMNs may be indicative of a PMN subset that is associated with lower anti-

microbial activity.

3.2 CD73 and extracellular adenosine are required for the ability of PMNs to

kill *S. pneumoniae*

Prior studies demonstrated that EAD is required for protection against *S.*

pneumoniae lung infection (3). To test if EAD production has a role in anti-

pneumococcal function of PMNs, we compared *ex vivo* opsonophagocytic killing

of pneumococci by PMNs isolated from the bone marrow of $CD73^{-/-}$ or wild type

C57BL/6 (WT) mice. Strikingly, $CD73^{-/-}$ PMNs completely failed to kill *S.*

pneumoniae and in fact the presence of these PMNs promoted an increase in

bacterial numbers as indicated by negative bacterial killing on the graph (Fig. 2).

To test if the inability of $CD73^{-/-}$ PMNs to kill bacteria was due to a defect in EAD

production, we added back adenosine to the opsonophagocytic reactions. Upon

infection, adenosine levels in the sera of WT mice varied considerably, but on

average significantly increased five-fold to 52.6 +/- 29.0 μM as measured by a

fluorometric kit (Fig S 1A). We found that supplementing $CD73^{-/-}$ PMNs with EAD

at 100 μM (closer to the higher levels found in infected mice) restored the ability

of these cells to kill bacteria back to levels comparable with WT PMNs. The

difference in bacterial killing observed was not due to difference in bacterial

survival in WT versus $CD73^{-/-}$ sera or direct toxic effects of EAD on bacterial

viability (Fig. S1B and C). Also, addition of EAD had no significant effect on

bacterial killing by WT PMNs (Fig 2).

To test the clinical relevance of our findings, we tested the effect of CD73

inhibition on the anti-bacterial activity of PMNs from human donors. PMNs were

isolated from the blood of young healthy donors and treated with the selective

and competitive inhibitor of CD73, α,β methylene ADP or vehicle control *in vitro*

and their ability to kill pneumococci was assessed. We found that in over half (i.e.

4 out of 7) of the donors tested, CD73 inhibition completely abrogated the ability

of PMNs to kill pneumococci and in fact promoted bacterial growth in the

presence of PMNs instead (Fig. 3A). The inhibitor had no direct effect on the

viability of *S. pneumoniae* (data not shown) as previously described (3). CD73

mRNA was detected in all five donors we tested (Fig. 3B) and relative expression

did not correlate with the responsiveness of donor PMNs to CD73 inhibition.

These findings demonstrate that production of EAD by CD73 is required for the

ability of PMNs to kill pneumococci.

3.3 Adoptive transfer of PMNs from wild type mice boosts resistance of

CD73$^{-/-}$ mice to *S. pneumoniae*

To test the role of EAD production by PMNs *in vivo*, we adoptively

transferred 2.5×10^6 PMNs isolated from WT or CD73$^{-/-}$ mice into CD73$^{-/-}$ mice,

one hour later infected the mice with 5×10^5 CFU of *S. pneumoniae* i.t. and then

compared bacterial burdens in the lung, blood and brain at 24 hours post

infection. We found that although transfer of WT PMNs had no impact on

bacterial numbers in the lungs (Fig. 4A), it significantly reduced the systemic

spread of pneumococci and resulted in a 50 and 5-fold reduction in blood and

brain bacterial loads respectively (Fig. 4B and C) when compared to no transfer

controls. Surprisingly, we found that adoptive transfer of CD73$^{-/-}$ PMNs worsened

susceptibility to infection and resulted in a significant ~10-fold increase in

bacterial numbers in all sites (lung, blood, brain) tested (Fig. 4A-C) when

compared to no transfer controls. This was consistent with our *in vitro* findings

where bacterial numbers increased in the presence of CD73$^{-/-}$ PMNs. These

findings suggest that EAD production by PMNs is required and sufficient to

promote resistance to *S. pneumoniae* infection.

3.4 Bacterial uptake and intracellular killing by PMNs are not altered by

CD73 and EAD

We next wanted to identify how CD73 and adenosine were regulating the

ability of PMNs to kill *S. pneumoniae*. Pneumococcal killing by PMNs was

previously shown to depend on uptake and serine proteases (4, 5). To test if

EAD production was affecting bacterial phagocytosis, we used a gentamicin-

protection assay where gentamicin was added following PMN incubation with

pre-opsonized pneumococci to kill any extracellular bacteria. A potentially

confounding factor is that wild type *S. pneumoniae* produce pneumolysin (PLY),

which creates pores in the mammalian cell membranes and may allow

gentamicin to enter the host cell and kill intracellular bacteria. In fact, a PLY-

deletion mutant demonstrated 2-fold greater gentamicin protection than wild type

S. pneumoniae (Fig. S2A)*. This was not due to difference in sensitivity to

gentamicin (Fig. S2B) or susceptibility to overall opsonophagocytic killing by

PMNs (Fig. S2C) which is consistent with previous reports that PLY has no

significant role in bacterial killing by PMNs (31). These data suggest that using

gentamicin protection assays to determine intracellular entry/growth of bacteria

such as *S. pneumoniae* that produce pore forming toxins may underestimate the

true numbers of intracellular bacteria.

We proceeded with using *S. pneumoniae* ΔPLY to compare phagocytosis

between WT and CD73$^{-/-}$ PMNs. To differentiate uptake from intracellular killing,

we looked at an early time point 10 minutes post infection, and found no

significant difference in the percentage of engulfed bacteria between the different

mouse strains (Fig. S2D). We also found that the engulfed bacteria were very

efficiently killed by both WT and CD73$^{-/-}$ PMNs (Fig. S2E) with 50% and 100% of

the engulfed inoculum being killed at 30 and 90 minutes post-uptake

respectively. These findings suggest that CD73/EAD does not affect bacterial

uptake or intracellular killing by PMNs.

3.5 Neutrohil Elastase levels are not altered by CD73 and EAD

Serine protease such as cathepsin G (CG) and neutrophil elastase (NE)

were shown to be essential for the ability of PMNs to kill *S. pneumoniae* (4, 5).

We therefore measured if CD73 and EAD altered the activities of serine

proteases Cathepsin G and NE. We were unable to detect Cathepsin G

enzymatic activity either at baseline or upon pneumococcal infection in any of the

samples we collected. NE activity was easily detected, however, we found no

significant difference in NE activity between WT and CD73$^{-/-}$ PMNs at baseline or

upon infection. Further, addition of adenosine did not alter this response (Fig

S3A). To test if neutrophil proteases were important for the ability of adenosine to

rescue CD73$^{-/-}$ PMN function, we used a protease inhibitor cocktail to inhibit

protease activity. Consistent with previous reports, inhibition of neutrophil

proteases completely abrogated the ability of WT PMNs to kill bacteria (Fig. S3B)

and also prevented the ability of EAD to boost CD73$^{-/-}$ PMN function. These

findings show that functional protease activity is important for the ability of EAD

to boost PMN anti-pneumococcal function, however, CD73 and EAD had no

effect on the activity of NE, a major granular component and serine protease

important for killing pneumococci (4, 5, 32).

3.6 Extracellular adenosine dampens IL-10 production from PMNs following infection

EAD was previously shown to play a role in regulating production of cytokines by immune cells (33) including IL-10 by macrophages (34-36), an anti-inflammatory cytokine whose production early on during pneumococcal infection was reported to be detrimental for host resistance (10). To test whether EAD was targeting IL-10, we compared IL-10 production by WT and CD73^{-/-} PMNs at baseline and upon *ex vivo* infection with *S. pneumoniae.* We found that at baseline, there was no significant difference in IL-10, however, upon infection, CD73^{-/-} PMNs produced significantly more IL-10 as compared to WT PMNs (Fig. 5A). Further, while WT PMNs did not upregulate IL-10 production upon pneumococcal infection, CD73^{-/-} PMNs displayed a ~ 2.5-fold increase in IL-10 above resting baseline levels (Fig 5A and B) and this upregulation was significantly blunted (Fig. 5B) upon exposure to EAD. When we examined PMNs isolated from three human donors, we could not detect any upregulation in IL-10 mRNA in response to *S. pneumoniae* infection (data not shown). These findings show that, in contrast to wild type PMNs, CD73-deficient PMNs produce IL-10 in response to *S. pneumoniae*, and that the induction of IL-10 production upon infection can be blocked by EAD.

3.8 IL-10 impairs the ability of PMNs to kill *S. pneumoniae*

Although the role of IL-10 during *S. pneumoniae* infection in mice is well established (10-12, 37), its effect on PMN anti-pneumococcal function has not

been elucidated. To test that, WT PMNs were treated with either recombinant IL-

10 or IL-10 blocking antibody and their ability to kill pneumococci measured in

our opsonophagocytic assay. We found that addition of IL-10 abrogated the

ability of WT PMNs to kill pneumococci while blocking this cytokine boosted the

anti-bacterial efficiency of PMNs (Fig 6).

To test whether the anti-bacterial activity of CD73$^{-/-}$ PMNs can be rescued

by targeting IL-10 we treated the PMNs with the IL-10 blocking antibody and

performed the opsonophagocytic assay. We found that blocking IL-10 restored

the pneumococcal killing ability of CD73$^{-/-}$ PMNs to WT levels (Fig 6). To test if

the ability of adenosine to rescue CD73$^{-/-}$ PMN function was dependent on

blunting IL-10, we added recombinant IL-10 to CD73$^{-/-}$ PMNs supplemented with

adenosine. We found that the addition of recombinant IL-10 had no discernable

effect on bacterial killing by CD73$^{-/-}$ PMNs, consistent with the (already high)

levels of IL-10 produced by these cells (Fig. 6). In addition, the addition of IL-10

prevented the ability of adenosine to boost the anti-microbial function of these

cells (Fig 6). These findings demonstrate that EAD's ability to blunt IL-10

production is crucial for the anti-pneumococcal function of PMNs.

3.9 IL-10 has no effect on PMN viability, bacterial association or NE

production

We wanted to start exploring potential mechanisms by which IL-10

inhibition by CD73 regulates PMN function. It was previously reported that IL-10

producing PMNs were apoptotic (38). Since cellular death pathways including

apoptosis and necrosis are known to play a role in the anti-bacterial function of

PMNs (39), we compared the percentage of apoptotic and necrotic cells using

Annexin V and propidium iodide staining and flow cytometry. We found that as

expected (40), pneumococcal infection induced pore formation and necrosis of

PMNs (PI and Annexin V double positive cells) (Fig S4A). However, there was no

difference in viability of PMNs at baseline or upon infection between WT and

CD73$^{-/-}$ PMNs and addition or inhibition of IL-10 did not further alter the

percentage of necrotic PMNs (Fig S4A). We also tested the effect of IL-10 on the

association of PMNs with GFP-labeled pneumococci and found that neither

addition nor blocking of IL-10 altered association (data not shown). When we

examined the effect of IL-10 on NE activity, we found that neither addition of

recombinant IL-10 nor blocking IL-10 significantly altered the activity of the

enzyme by PMNs (Fig S3A).

3.10 CD73 and IL-10 regulate extracellular ROS production by PMNs upon

***S. pneumoniae* infection**

IL-10 was reported to down regulate reactive oxygen species (ROS)

production by PMNs (18). To determine whether the CD73/IL-10 axis regulated

ROS production upon pneumococcal infection, we first compared production of

both intracellular and extracellular ROS by WT and CD73$^{-/-}$ PMNs. When we

measured intracellular ROS production over time, we found that the infection up

regulated ROS production rapidly within minutes to more than 50-fold increase

around the peak of the response at the 25 minute mark in both strains of mice

(Fig. 7A). There was no significant difference in intracellular ROS production by

WT vs CD73$^{-/-}$ PMNs in response to pneumococcal infection, consistent with our

findings that bacterial uptake and intracellular killing was not affected by CD73.

554   When we examined production of extracellular ROS in uninfected PMNs,

no ROS production was observed (Fig. 7B). However, upon exposure to

pneumococci, ROS production was rapidly induced by PMNs from both strains of

mice. This response was immediate and peaked within the first five minutes of

infection and waned over time (Fig. 7B) as previously described (23). Importantly,

during the first 10 minutes, PMNs from B6 mice produced significantly higher

levels of extracellular ROS than CD73$^{-/-}$ PMNs, producing 3-fold higher levels of

ROS at the peak of the response (Fig. 7B at the 5 minute mark). Intriguingly,

extracellular ROS production by PMNs in response to the positive control PMA

was not different between mouse strains (Fig. S4B), indicating that the blunted

response observed in CD73$^{-/-}$ PMNs was not due to a general defect in ROS

production, but rather was specific to pneumococcal infection.

566   To determine if IL-10 had a role in production of extracellular ROS by

PMNs, we added recombinant IL-10 to B6 PMNs and found that this cytokine

significantly blunted the magnitude of the response during pneumococcal

infection, which is consistent with its reported anti-inflammatory role (18) (Fig.

7C). Next we tested whether the extracellular ROS response of CD73$^{-/-}$ PMNs

upon infection can be rescued by treating the PMNs with the IL-10 blocking

antibody. We found that blocking IL-10 significantly boosted extracellular ROS

production in infected CD73$^{-/-}$ PMNs, resulting in around a 2-fold increase at the

peak of the response at 5 minutes post infection (Fig. 7D). Taken together, these

data demonstrate that inhibition of IL-10 production by CD73 is important for an

optimal extracellular ROS response by PMNs during *S. pneumoniae* infection.

The enzyme myeloperoxidase (MPO) was reported to play a crucial role in

clearance of *S. pneumoniae* and that it exerted its function partially by facilitating

ROS production (41). Therefore we compared the effect of IL-10 and CD73 on

MPO production by PMNs. We found that pneumococcal infection significantly up

regulated MPO levels (Fig S4C) as previously reported (41). However, there was

no difference in the levels of the enzyme between WT and CD73$^{-/-}$ PMNs, nor

was its levels altered by blocking or adding IL-10 (Fig S4C). This suggests that

the effect of IL-10 and EAD on extracellular ROS production by PMNs upon

pneumococcal infection is not mediated via MPO.

3.11 Pulmonary PMNs from CD73$^{-/-}$ mice produce IL-10 early on during *S.*

***pneumoniae* infection**

Next, we wanted to test the relevance of our findings *in vivo* and assess

IL-10 production during lung infection. WT C57BL/6 and CD73$^{-/-}$ mice were

infected i.t. with 5x10^5 CFU of *S. pneumoniae* TIGR4 and IL-10 production by

pulmonary PMNs was monitored at 6 hours post infection by intracellular

cytokine staining. We focused on early time points since that is when PMNs are

most relevant for the control of bacterial numbers. When we gated on PMNs

(Ly6G+; see Fig. S5 for the gating strategy), we found that a low percentage

(~6%) of PMNs in the lungs of WT mice expressed IL-10 and similar to our

observations *ex vivo*, there was no increase in IL-10 production upon infection

(Fig. 8A and B). However, we observed a significant increase in IL-10 production

by pulmonary PMNs in CD73$^{-/-}$ mice where the percentage of IL-10 producing

PMNs increased from 5% at baseline to 20% (Fig. 8A) and the amount of IL-10

produced (measured by MFI) increased approximately 1.5-fold (Fig. 8B) at 6

hours post-infection. When we compared the number of PMNs producing IL-10,

we found that in CD73$^{-/-}$ mice, there is a significant increase in IL-10 producing

PMNs above baseline by 6 hours post-infection. In contrast, in WT mice, we did

not observe an increase in PMNs until 18 hours following infection. Further, as

compared to WT, CD73$^{-/-}$ mice had 6-fold and 2-fold more PMNs making IL-10 at

6 and 18 hours after lung challenge, respectively. When we measured total IL-10

production in the lungs at 6 hours following infection, we found that CD73$^{-/-}$ mice

had on average more IL-10 (231.9 +/-20.51 pg/ml) as compared to WT mice (190

+/- 86.65 pg/ml), but the difference did not reach statistical significance. These

findings show that upon lung infection, in the absence of CD73, IL-10 production

by pulmonary PMNs is higher and occurs more rapidly.

3.12 Blocking IL-10 pre-infection partially rescues the susceptibility of

***CD73$^{-/-}$* mice to pneumococcal lung infection**

To test whether the early increase in IL-10 production by PMNs in CD73$^{-/-}$

mice contribute to their susceptibility to infection, we treated the mice with either

isotype control or the IL-10 blocking antibody 2 hours prior to infection. Mice were

then challenged i.t. with 5x10^5 CFU of *S. pneumoniae*, and bacterial burdens in

the lung and blood were determined two days post-infection. Blocking IL-10 prior

to infection significantly boosted the resistance of CD73$^{-/-}$ mice resulting in a 20

and 24-fold reduction in bacterial numbers in the lung and blood respectively as

compared to isotype treated controls and rendering bacterial burdens in these

mice indistinguishable from those of WT mice (Fig 9). Our data suggest that the

increased susceptibility of CD73$^{-/-}$ mice during pneumococcal infection is at least

in part mediated by IL-10.

4. Discussion

There is mounting evidence that PMNs are plastic and display phenotypic

and functional heterogeneity under different disease states (42). These range

from traditional pro-inflammatory subsets during infections (13, 42) to B-helper

PMNs (30, 43) to suppressive phenotypes in tumor microenvironments (44, 45)

and anti-inflammatory in response certain pathogens and microbial products (13-

16, 46-48). In the context of pneumococcal pneumonia, we previously found that

the efficacy of PMNs during the course of disease changes from clearing bacteria

early on to promoting infection at later time points (3). Here we show that this

shift away from an anti-microbial phenotype is associated with a decrease in

CD73 expression on PMNs. Using *in vitro* bacterial killing assays and adoptive

transfer of PMNs into CD73$^{-/-}$ recipients, we found that CD73 expression on

PMNs was crucial for the ability of these cells to kill *S. pneumoniae* and mediate

protection during lung infection *in vivo.* In fact loss of CD73 expression on PMNs

seem to actively promote bacterial growth as *S. pneumoniae* grew in the

presence of CD73$^{-/-}$ PMNs *in vitro* and adoptive transfer of CD73$^{-/-}$ PMNs

worsened the infection resulting in increased bacterial burdens in the lungs,

blood and brain of recipient mice. Importantly, CD73 mRNA was also expressed

in PMNs isolated from all the human donors we tested and pharmacological

inhibition of this enzyme *in vitro* abrogated the ability of PMNs to kill

pneumococci in 60% of donors, highlighting the clinical relevance of this

pathway. These findings suggest that CD73 expression on PMNs regulates their

antimicrobial phenotype.

During systemic infection with *S. pneumoniae,* a subset of immature

PMNs with a lower expression of surface Ly6G that exhibited a low ability to bind

bacteria was observed immobilized in the spleen (30). When we followed Ly6G

expression on PMNs (gated on Ly6G positive cells) over time, we noticed it

changed over time where we observed an increase in Ly6G expression on

pulmonary PMNs recruited at the 6 hour time point followed by a subsequent

decrease after that. However, we observed that CD73 negative PMNs in the

lungs had significantly lower amounts of Ly6G on their surface as compared to

their CD73^{+} counterparts at all time points suggesting that they could denote a

less mature subset. We believe that these CD73-negative pulmonary PMNs

migrate from the circulation after originating from the bone marrow, as the

reduced expression of CD73 following infection was also observed on circulating

PMNs as well as the PMN pool in the bone marrow.

In exploring mechanisms of how CD73 controls the PMN antimicrobial

phenotype, we found that it inhibited IL-10 production in response to

pneumococcal infection. In wild type mice, we did not see any up regulation in IL-

10 production by PMNs early in infection and IL-10 producing PMNs only started

to accumulate at the 18h time point that coincided with a decrease in CD73 on

pulmonary PMNs and their inability to control bacterial numbers (3). In contrast,

PMNs from CD73$^{-/-}$ mice up regulated IL-10 production early on within 6 hours of

infection, and our IL-10 blocking experiments both *in vitro* and *in vivo* suggest

that this impaired the ability of these mice to control the infection. Our data align

with previous reports that administration of IL-10 early in infection impairs the

ability of the host to control pneumococcal numbers (10). However, studies have

also found that mice that lack IL-10 had exacerbated PMN influx in their lungs

(12, 37) and succumbed to the infection despite having lower bacterial burden in

their organs (12). These findings suggest that early production of IL-10 is

deleterious for the host's ability to control the infection, however, it may be

required later on for resolution of inflammation and return to homeostasis.

Therefore, the eventual accumulation of IL-10 producing PMNs in wild type mice

we observed here may be beneficial in resolution of pulmonary inflammation

observed in healthy hosts (3).

Murine PMNs have been described to produce IL-10 in sepsis models and

in response to several bacterial infections such as *Escherichia coli*, *Shigella*

flexneri (16) and *Staphylococcus aureus* (13) as well as parasitic infections such

as *Leishmania major* (14) and *Trypanosoma cruzi* (15). In contrast, IL-10

production by pulmonary PMNs was actively repressed during *Mycobacterium*

tuberculosis (49). In this study, we did not detect an up regulation in IL-10

production by PMNs in response to *S. pneumoniae* infection in wild type mice

either *in vivo* during lung challenge or *in vitro* in response to direct bacterial

infection. Further, we were unable to detect an increase in IL-10 mRNA in PMNs

isolated from human donors in response to stimulation with *S. pneumoniae*. This

fits with previous studies demonstrating that resting human PMNs have histone

modifications at the IL-10 locus rendering it transcriptionally silent (50) and that

induction of IL-10 production by PMNs requires further stimulation such as direct

contact with LPS-treated Tregs or IL-10 itself that promote histone

posttranslational modifications that can activate IL-10 transcription (38).

Our data suggests that IL-10 production by PMNs in response to *S.*

pneumoniae is actively down regulated by EAD production by CD73 as addition

of exogenous adenosine to CD73$^{-/-}$ PMNs prevented the increase in IL-10

production following infection. This is in contrast to what has been described for

macrophages where adenosine induced IL-10 production by macrophages in

response to LPS stimulation (35, 36) or *E. coli* infection (34) by acting via the

A2A or A2B receptor to facilitate binding of transcription factors to the IL-10 locus

and enhancing transcription (34) or via posttranscriptional modifications of the 3'-

UTR that facilitated translation (35) respectively. These differences observed

could be accounted for by the cell type i.e. macrophages vs. PMNs or the

stimulation where the macrophage studies have been performed with Gram-

negative bacteria and their products (LPS) while we are examining responses to

a Gram positive organism.

PMNs were shown to kill *S. pneumoniae* in a manner that requires

phagocytosis and serine proteases (4). In exploring how the CD73/IL-10 axis

regulated PMN anti-pneumococcal activity we found that apoptosis, bacterial

uptake and intracellular killing and production of anti-microbial Neutrophil

Elastase and Myeloperoxidase were not affected by this pathway. Rather,

inhibition of IL-10 production by CD73 was crucial for optimal production of

extracellular ROS by PMNs upon *S. pneumoniae* infection. This is in line with

previous findings that adenosine signaling via the A1 receptor enhanced

superoxide production by PMNs in response to antibody coated erythrocytes (51)

and that IL-10 blunted PMN superoxide production in response to PMA and *C.*

albicans hyphae (18, 19).

Previous work showed that *S. pneumoniae* triggered extracellular

respiratory burst by PMNs (52) and that PLY released by the bacteria also

triggered production of intracellular ROS (23). Similarly, we found here that the

bacterial infection triggered both intracellular and extracellular ROS production.

NADPH oxidase is known to assemble both at the phagosomal membrane and

on the cell surface in response to bacterial infections (53), here we found that

CD73 was important for optimal extracellular ROS production but had no effect

on intracellular ROS suggesting that this pathway may target cell surface

assembly of the NADPH oxidase complex only. The role of ROS production in

anti-pneumococcal function of PMNs and host resistance to *S. pneumoniae* is

arguable. Studies showed that mice lacking components of the NADPH oxidase

are not more susceptible to pneumococcal lung infection (30, 54) and that

inhibition of respiratory burst has no effect on the ability of PMNs to kill *S.*

pneumoniae (4). In contrast, ROS production by PMN-derived MPO was

important for bacterial clearance during pneumococcal otitis media (41) and

bacterial mutants lacking components that detoxify ROS die more readily in

response to oxidative stress (55-57).

Adenosine is a well-known regulator of PMN function and is known to

regulate PMN recruitment, release of inflammatory cytokines, phagocytic

capacity and oxidative burst (33). However, the majority of those studies have

been conducted in the context of sterile inflammation or in response to *in vitro*

stimulation by inflammatory mediators such as fMLP, LPS, TNF or inert particles

(33). The role of the EAD pathway in PMN response to infections is now better

appreciated and was shown to play a role in host resistance during pulmonary

infections with influenza A virus (58, 59), *Klebsiella pneumoniae* (60) and *S.*

pneumoniae (3)*.* Here, we identified the mechanisms by which EAD production

by CD73 regulated PMN anti-pneumococcal function and further found it was

relevant for the function of PMNs from human donors. This may be relevant for

incorporating clinically available adenosine-based drugs to combat

pneumococcal pneumonia and other serious lung infections in the future.

Authorship

NS and JNL conducted research, analyzed data and wrote the paper. EYIT, MB

and JYH conducted research, JML provided essential expertise and reviewed the

paper. ENBG designed research, conducted research, analyzed data, wrote the

paper and had primary responsibility for final content.

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Conflict of Interest Disclosure

None

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1041

Figure Legends

Figure 1. Expression of CD73 on pulmonary PMNs changes over the course

of infection. C57BL/6 mice were inoculated i.t with $5x10^5$ CFU of *S. pneumoniae*

TIGR4. The blood, bone marrow and lungs were harvested, plated for bacterial

enumeration and analyzed by flow cytometry. (A) Mice were euthanized at 0, 6,

12, 18, 24 and 48 hours following infection. We then compared bacterial numbers

in the lungs to PMN numbers (Ly6G+ cells) for the first 0-12 and subsequent 18-

72 hours post infection and performed Pearson correlation analysis where

asterisks, denotes significant correlation. We gated on PMNs (Ly6G+ cells) and

also monitored (B) the percentage of cells expressing CD73 and (B-C) the

amounts of CD73 (mean fluorescent intensity or MFI) in the indicated organs, at

the indicated time points. (D) We gated on all Ly6G+ cells and then gated on

CD73 positive versus negative populations and compared the expression (MFI)

of Ly6G. Data are pooled from two separate experiments with 4-5 mice per time

point (A) and 4-7 mice per time point (B-D). Asterisks indicate significant

differences from uninfected controls calculated by Student's t-test.

1058

Figure 2. CD73 and extracellular adenosine are required for the ability of

neutrophils to kill *S. pneumoniae.* (A) PMNs were isolated from the bone

marrow of C57BL/6 (WT) or CD73$^{-/-}$ mice and treated with 100μM Adenosine or

PBS (vehicle control) for 30 minutes at 37°C. The reactions were then infected

with *S. pneumoniae* pre-opsonized with homologous sera for 45 minutes at 37°C.

Reactions were then stopped by placing samples on ice and viable CFU were

determined after serial dilution and plating. The percentage of bacteria killed

upon incubation with PMNs was determined by comparing surviving CFU to a no

PMN control. Positive percent killing indicates bacterial death while negative

percent indicates bacterial growth. Data shown are pooled from three separate

experiments (n=3 biological replicated or mice per strain) where each condition

was tested in triplicate (n=3 technical replicates) per experiment. Asterisks

indicate significance calculated by Student's t-test.

1072

Figure 3. CD73 is required for the ability of neutrophils isolated from

human donors to kill *S. pneumoniae.* PMNs were isolated from the blood of

young healthy donors and (A) pre-treated with CD73 inhibitor (α,β methylene

ADP) or vehicle control for 30 minutes at 37°C and then incubated for 45 minutes

with complement-opsonized *S. pneumoniae* TIGR4. For each donor, the average

percent bacterial killing compared to a no PMN control was calculated from

triplicate wells per condition. Data from 7 donors are shown. (B) RNA was

isolated from resting PMNs of the indicated donors and the expression of CD73

mRNA was measured by RT-qPCR and normalized to GAPDH. Significant

differences denoted by asterisk, were determined by Student's t-test.

1083

Figure 4. Adoptive transfer of PMNs from wild type mice boosts resistance

of CD73$^{-/-}$ mice to *S. pneumoniae.* CD73$^{-/-}$ mice were mock treated (no transfer)

or injected i.p with 2.5×10^6 PMNs isolated from the bone marrow of C57BL/6 or

CD73$^{-/-}$ mice. One hour post transfer, mice were infected i.t with 5×10^5 CFU of *S.*

pneumoniae and bacterial numbers in the lung (A), blood (B) and brain (C) were

determined 24 hours post infection. Significant differences, determined by

Student's t-test, are indicated by asterisks. Representative data from one of three

separate experiments (n=3 mice per group) are shown.

1092

Figure 5. Extracellular adenosine blunts IL-10 production from PMNs

following infection. (A) PMNs from the indicated mouse strains were incubated

for 45 minutes at 37°C with *S. pneumoniae* pre-opsonized with homologous sera

or mock treated with buffer and homologous sera (uninfected). The supernatants

were then collected and assayed for IL-10 production by ELISA. (B) PBS control

or adenosine (100µM) were added to the PMNs 20 minutes prior to infection and

the fold-change in IL-10 production was calculated by dividing the values of

infected reactions by uninfected controls for each condition. Data were pooled

from three separate experiments (n=3 mice) with each condition tested in

triplicate per experiment. Asterisks indicate significant differences determined by

Student's t-test.

1104

Figure 6. IL-10 impairs the ability of PMNs to kill *S. pneumoniae*. PMNs from

C57BL/6 or CD73$^{-/-}$ mice were incubated for 20 minutes with the indicated anti-IL-

10 (1µg/ml JES5-2A5), isotype control (1µg/ml), rIL-10 (50ng/ml) or adenosine

(100µM) and then infected with pre-opsonized *S. pneumoniae* for 45 minutes at

37°C. Reactions were then plated on blood agar plates and the percentage of

bacteria killed compared to a no PMN control under the same conditions was

calculated. Data shown are pooled from three separate experiments (n=3 mice

per strain) with each condition tested in triplicate. Asterisks indicate significant

differences determined by Student's t-test.

1114

Figure 7. Inhibition of IL-10 production by CD73 is important for optimal

production of extracellular reactive oxygen species by PMNs in response

to *S. pneumoniae* infection. PMN were isolated from the bone marrow of the

indicated strains of mice and left untreated (A and B) or treated with the indicated

rIL-10 (50ng/ml) (C) or anti-IL-10 (1µg/ml JES5-2A5) or isotype control (1µg/ml)

(D). PMNs were then infected with *S. pneumoniae* pre-opsonized with

homologous sera (+*Sp*) or treated with 3% matching sera (uninfected) and

intracellular ROS production measured by chemiluminescence of Luminol (A) or

extracellular ROS production measured by chemiluminescence of Isoluminol in

the presence of HRP (B-D). Representative data are shown from one of six (B)

and one of four (A, C-D) separate experiments with one mouse per strain per

experiment where each condition is tested in quadruplicates. Significant

differences (*p<0.05*) were determined by 2-way ANOVA followed by Sidak's

multiple comparisons test.

1129

Figure 8. Pulmonary PMNs from CD73$^{-/-}$ mice produce IL-10 early on during

***S. pneumoniae* infection.** Wild-type C57BL/6 or *CD73$^{-/-}$* mice were mock-

infected or i.t challenged with 5 x 10^5 CFU of *S. pneumoniae*. Six (grey bars) and

18 hours (black bars) following challenge, (A) the percentage of IL-10 producing

PMNs (Ly6G+), (B) the mean florescent intensities (MFI) of IL-10 in PMNs

(Ly6G+) and (C) the number of IL-10 producing PMNs (Ly6G+) recruited into the

lungs were determined by intracellular cytokine staining and flow cytometry (see

Materials and Methods). Pooled data are from three separate experiments (n=6-9

mice per strain per time point). Significant differences determined by Student's t-

test are indicated by asterisks.

1140

Figure 9. Blocking IL-10 pre-infection partially reverses the susceptibility of

CD73^{-/-} mice to pneumococcal challenge. CD73$^{-/-}$ mice were treated i.p with IL-

10 blocking antibodies (anti-IL-10) or isotype control two hours prior to pulmonary

challenge with 5x10^5 CFU of *S. pneumoniae*. Pneumococcal burdens in the lungs

(A) and blood (B) were determined 48 hours post-infection. Pooled data from two

separate experiments with 8 mice per group are shown. Values significantly

different by Student's t-test are indicated by asterisk.

1148

Figure 1.

Figure 2.

Figure 3.

A.

B.

Figure 4.

Figure 5.

Figure 6.

Figure 7.

A.

B.

C.

D.

Figure 8.

Figure 9.