

THE ROLE OF RELM α IN OSM-MEDIATED LUNG INFLAMMATION

THE ROLE OF RESISTIN-LIKE MOLECULE ALPHA IN ONCOSTATIN M-
MEDIATED LUNG INFLAMMATION

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ABSTRACT

Resistin-like molecule alpha (RELM α) is a secreted protein implicated in murine models of allergen-induced asthma, bleomycin-induced pulmonary fibrosis, and helminth infection. Transient pulmonary overexpression of Oncostatin M by Adenovirus vector (AdOSM) induces lung inflammation biased toward Th2 cytokines, eosinophil and alternatively activated (AA/M2) macrophage accumulation. In AdOSM-treated C57Bl/6 and BALB/c mice, we observed RELM α mRNA and protein markedly induced. RELM α is recognized as a marker of AA/M2 macrophages, and we observed by chromogenic *in situ* hybridization that RELM α mRNA co-expresses with the macrophage marker CD68, and RELM α mRNA was also highly induced in columnar airway epithelial cells upon AdOSM treatment. Assessing IL-6 as a comparator gp130 cytokine, AdIL-6 induced RELM α at significantly lower levels, however maximal induction of RELM α by AdOSM in C57Bl/6 mice required IL-6, assessed in IL-6^{-/-} mice. Maximal induction of RELM α by AdOSM also required IL-33 in C57Bl/6 mice but not in BALB/c mice, assessed in IL-33^{-/-} mice.

We investigated functions of RELM α in response to OSM, in RELM α ^{-/-} mice. Inflammatory cell infiltration and Th2-associated cytokine responses were not altered in RELM α ^{-/-} in comparison to wildtype mice. However, RELM α -deficiency resulted in less accumulation of CD206⁺ AA/M2 macrophages, IFN γ ⁺ Th1 cells in the lung, reduced induction of extracellular matrix gene mRNAs for COL1A1, COL3A1, MMP13, TIMP1, and reduced parenchymal alpha smooth muscle actin. RELM α ^{-/-} mice also showed less

airway epithelial hyperplasia, increased epithelial cell damage/death (assessed morphologically) and increased LDH and soluble CK18 in response to AdOSM. Our findings suggest that RELM α does not modulate Th2 cytokines, but does participate in matrix deposition, airway remodelling mechanisms, and protection from inflammation-induced damage due to OSM-overexpression in lungs of C57Bl/6 mice.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AA/M2	Alternatively activated/M2 macrophages
AdDel70	Adenovirus control vector, backbone only
AdIL-6	Adenovirus encoding mouse IL-6
AdOSM	Adenovirus encoding mouse OSM
AEC	Alveolar epithelial cell
Arg1	Arginase-1
α SMA	Alpha smooth muscle actin
BAL	Bronchoalveolar lavage
BSA	Bovine serum albumin
BMDM	Bone marrow-derived macrophages
CA/M1	Classically activated/M1 macrophages
CD	Cluster of differentiation
CISH	Chromogenic <i>in situ</i> hybridization
CK	Cytokeratin
COL	Collagen
COPD	Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease
DMEM	Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium
DTT	Diothioreitol
ECM	Extracellular matrix
ELISA	Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay

FBS	Fetal bovine serum
FIZZ	Found in inflammatory zone
Gp130	Glycoprotein 130
H&E	Hematoxylin & eosin
IFN	Interferon
IHC	Immunohistochemistry
IL	Interleukin
IPF	Idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis
JAK	Janus kinase
LDH	Lactate dehydrogenase
LIF	Leukemia inhibitory factor
LIFR	Leukemia inhibitory factor receptor
LPS	Lipopolysaccharide
M-CSF	Macrophage-colony stimulating factor
MAPK	Mitogen-activated protein kinase
MCP	Monocyte chemotactic factor
MMP	Matrix metalloproteinase
OSM	Oncostatin M
OSMR β	Oncostatin M receptor beta
OVA	Ovalbumin
PAS	Periodic acid-Schiff
PBS	Phosphate buffered saline

PFU	Plaque-forming unit
PI3K	Phosphatidylinositide 3-kinase
PMA	para-Methoxyamphetamine
PMSF	Phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride
PSR	Picrosirus red
RELM	Resistin-like molecule
RIPA	Radioimmunoprecipitation assay
RPMI	Roswell Park Memorial Institute
RT-PCR	Reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction
SDS-PAGE	Sodium dodecyl sulfate polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis
STAT	Signal transducer and activator of transcription
TBS	Tris buffered saline
Th	T helper cell
TIMP	Tissue inhibitors of metalloproteinase
TGF β	Transforming growth factor beta

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Chronic Respiratory Diseases

Chronic respiratory diseases such as idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis (IPF), chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD), and severe asthma are conditions with reduction in lung function that involves extracellular matrix (ECM) remodelling [1]. In COPD, damaged alveolar walls and loss of shape and structure in larger airways reduces gas exchange efficiency [2], whereas IPF and severe asthma are characterized by excessive ECM deposition in the airways or around alveoli, therefore decreasing gas exchange with the capillary network and consequently impairing pulmonary function [1,3,4]. These conditions are often progressive in nature and current therapies have much room for improvement [3,5]. Animal models of lung fibrosis clearly implicate activated T cells and alternatively activated macrophages in induction of ECM [6,7]. Although cytokines such as transforming growth factor beta (TGF β) [8] and interleukin-4 (IL-4) [9] are critical factors in fibrogenesis in many systems, studies have also shown pathways independent of TGF β /SMAD3 and IL-4/STAT6 that can lead to fibrosis in animal models *in vivo* [10]. Overactivation of STAT3 in mouse models increases fibrotic responses in lungs, and gp130 cytokines (see below) such as Oncostatin M and IL-6 activate STAT3 in various cell types. Thus, understanding the various mechanisms of how ECM remodeling occurs and through which cells and signaling molecules will provide a better understanding to inform new potential therapeutic approaches separate from the TGF β pathway.

1.2 GP130 Cytokines and Chronic Lung Inflammation

Gp130 cytokines, also referred to as the IL-6 family of cytokines, are secreted proteins produced by immune and nonimmune cells that have pleiotropic functions involving differentiation, hematopoiesis, cell proliferation, and inflammation [11]. Members of the gp130 family of cytokines include IL-6, leukemia inhibitory factor (LIF), IL-11, cardiotrophin-1 (CT-1), ciliary neurotrophic factor (CNTF), IL-27, oncostatin M (OSM), and IL-31. These cytokines share a common gp130 cell surface receptor subunit, with the exception of IL-31 which engages the IL-31R and OSMR β complex rather than gp130. The gp130 cytokines bind to their specific receptor chain, then recruits the gp130 chain for cell signaling. Activation of these receptor complexes induces several signaling pathways including the Janus family of tyrosine kinases/signal transducer and activator of transcription (JAK/STAT), mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK), and phosphatidylinositide 3-kinase (PI3K) [11]. The STAT family of transcription factors plays a crucial role in immunity and inflammation. Upon ligand-receptor interaction, STAT proteins are phosphorylated and activated by JAKs. Phosphorylated STATs (pSTAT) dimerize and translocate to the nucleus and bind to specific DNA elements or other transcription factors to regulate gene expression. Several members of the gp130 cytokine family have been implicated in inflammatory responses of chronic respiratory diseases and ECM remodeling in the lung, including Oncostatin M and IL-6 [12–15].

1.2.1 *Oncostatin M*

Expressed primarily by T cells, macrophages, neutrophils and dendritic cells, OSM has been implicated in diverse physiological processes in stromal cells including bone metabolism, joint inflammation, cancer, vascularization, and inflammation [11,16]. OSMR β and gp130 receptor chains, required for the active OSM receptor complex on cell surfaces [13], are widely expressed in stromal/connective tissue cells, including fibroblasts, osteoblasts, endothelial cells, smooth muscle cells, and epithelial cells in several organs including the heart, lungs, skin, and liver [11,16,17].

Since its discovery, OSM has been extensively studied in various homeostatic and pathological processes. It is well established that several of the gp130 cytokines can regulate bone metabolism [11,18]. Bone fracture healing is a complex process that involves the proper balance of bone resorption by osteoclasts and bone formation by osteoblasts [19]. OSM has been shown to induce osteoclast differentiation *in vitro* [20], and in a model of bone injury, OSMR β -deficient mice had reduced osteoblast and osteoclast numbers, and thus delayed bone regeneration [21]. In joints, OSM has been found at high levels in the synovial fluid of patients with rheumatoid arthritis, and has been shown to stimulate cartilage remodeling and induce ECM remodeling components in fibroblasts including TIMPs and MMPs [11,18,22]. *In vivo*, OSM levels are elevated in mouse models of obesity and type 2 diabetes, and *in vitro* studies have shown that OSM, but not IL-6, suppresses adipogenesis while promoting dedifferentiation of mature adipocytes [23,24]. In the cardiovascular system, while OSM can have pathological consequences in promoting

atherosclerosis and cardiomyopathy, if appropriately regulated OSM signaling can promote wound healing and revascularization through increasing endothelial and smooth muscle cell proliferation and cardiomyocyte dedifferentiation [25,26]. While OSM signaling can elicit different pathophysiological responses depending on the organ or cell type, in general OSM-induced effects include the induction of inflammatory cytokines and chemokines, modulating the expression of ECM components, and altering cell proliferation and differentiation.

Although receptors for other gp130 cytokines, such as IL-6R α , may also be expressed on connective tissue cells, their expression are relatively lower than OSMR β [27]. In addition, we have previously shown that OSM is able to activate such cells more robustly than other cytokines in this family [14,28]. Furthermore, OSM has been detected at elevated levels in the bronchoalveolar lavage (BAL) fluid of IPF patients, sputum of asthma and COPD patients, as well as in allergic rhinitis tissue suggesting that OSM may be participating in the pathogenesis in these chronic diseases [12,29–31]. We have previously shown that overexpression of OSM induces ECM accumulation and accumulation of arginase-1⁺ (Arg1) alternatively activated (AA/M2-like) macrophages, which was associated with eosinophilia and a T helper 2 (Th2)-skewed cytokine profile in lungs of C57Bl/6 mice [14,32–34]. In preliminary work for the present study, we observed marked induction of the gene for resistin-like molecule alpha (RELM α), a typical AA/M2 macrophage product. Regulation of RELM α by OSM has not been previously described, and whether RELM α participates in OSM-induced inflammation and pathology is examined here.

1.2.2 Interleukin-6

IL-6 is a cytokine with pleiotropic functions in inflammation, immune response, and hematopoiesis. It signals through two pathways, classical and *trans*-signaling, where IL-6 interacts with membrane-bound IL-6R α or a soluble IL-6R α respectively [35]. Unlike OSMR β which is widely expressed on stromal cells, membrane-bound IL-6R α is found predominantly on leukocytes and forms a receptor complex with gp130 in classical IL-6 signaling [36]. Upon binding of soluble IL-6 with soluble IL-6R α , the complex can then interact with two gp130 receptor subunits to initiate *trans*-signaling in cells that possess gp130 but not membrane-bound IL-6R α .

IL-6 is a pleiotropic cytokine with both pro-inflammatory and anti-inflammatory properties. For example, in a model of colon cancer, signaling through the membrane-bound IL-6R α initiates anti-inflammatory responses and activates STAT3, resulting in epithelial cell proliferation while inhibiting epithelial cell apoptosis. In contrast, *trans*-signaling through the soluble IL-6R α initiates pro-inflammatory responses and activates the immune system. IL-6 is known to play significant roles in recruiting mononuclear cells to the site of infection, as well as stimulate B cell and T cell differentiation [37]. Although a limited number of cells express membrane-bound IL-6R α , *trans*-signaling through the soluble IL-6R α greatly increases target cells of IL-6. This has been demonstrated in several studies showing that hematopoietic stem cells, liver progenitor cells and neural cells, for example, respond to IL-6 and is dependent on soluble IL-6R α [37].

Engagement of IL-6 with IL-6R α /gp130 activates the JAK/STAT pathway. *In vivo* studies have shown that hyperactivation of STAT3 can lead to excessive ECM deposition and consequently pulmonary fibrosis [15]. Similar to OSM, IL-6 has also been detected at elevated levels in patients with COPD and IPF [38]. In bleomycin-induced pulmonary fibrosis models, ablation of systemic IL-6 attenuated fibrosis, whereas overexpression of IL-6 in mouse lung amplified fibrotic responses [15,39]. Previous work have shown that IL-6 can hyperpolarize macrophages into the AA/M2 macrophage phenotype and induce the expression of Arg1 in AA/M2-polarized macrophages [39,40]. Recent studies have also suggested that AA/M2 macrophages can enhance the anti-inflammatory response by recruiting Th2 and group 2 innate lymphoid cells (ILC2) to the site of injury, which enhances myofibroblast differentiation and consequently tissue fibrosis [7,39,41]. However, whether IL-6 can also induce RELM α in AA/M2 macrophages has not been characterized yet.

1.2.3 Interleukin-33

The alarmin IL-33 is a member of the IL-1 family of cytokines that is expressed predominantly by stromal cells including endothelial and epithelial cells. It signals through the ST2 and IL-1 receptor accessory protein (IL-1RAP) receptor complex which is expressed on group 2 innate lymphoid cells (ILC2s) and Th2 cells, and thus plays an important role in Th2 inflammation [42,43]. IL-33 is constitutively expressed and localized in the nucleus. It is known as an ‘alarmin’ because for biologically active full-length IL-33 to be released, the cell must undergo cell death by necrosis or necroptosis. If the cell

undergoes apoptosis, activated caspase-3 and -7 will cleave IL-33, making it inactive [44,45]. Once released, full-length IL-33 can be processed by serine proteases to enhance its activity [43]. Engagement with the ST2/IL-1RAP receptor complex on target cells activates the NF κ B or MAPK signaling pathways.

IL-33 has been detected at elevated levels in lung epithelial cells of patients with asthma and COPD in comparison to healthy individuals [46,47]. Studies using ST2-deficient mice in a model of OVA-induced airway inflammation showed that in comparison to wildtype mice, ST2^{-/-} mice have impaired type 2 inflammatory responses [46]. IL-33 has also been implicated in inflammation models through eosinophil accumulation and AA/M2 macrophage polarization in mouse lungs, which resulted in exacerbated airway inflammation [46,48]. Recently, IL-33 was shown to induce RELM α in eosinophils through an IL-4/IL-13-dependent manner [49]. Bouffi *et al.* proposed that IL-33 could directly stimulate eosinophils to produce IL-4, which then acts on eosinophils in an autocrine fashion to activate the STAT6 signaling pathway and induce RELM α [50]. This was demonstrated using eosinophils derived from IL-4^{-/-} mice and stimulating with IL-4 or IL-33 [50]. Thus, induction of RELM α mRNA expression in OSM-induced lung inflammation *in vivo* may originate from a number of cell sources including macrophages and eosinophils.

1.3 Family of Resistin-like Molecules

The RELM/FIZZ (found in inflammatory zone) family is a class of cysteine-rich secreted proteins that consists of four known members – RELM α (FIZZ1), RELM β (FIZZ2), resistin

(FIZZ3), and RELM γ [51]. These proteins are characterized based on their highly conserved 10-cysteine residue motif at the C-terminal domain but have unique tissue-specific expression patterns [52]. Their conserved signature region suggests that there may be a related family of receptors that remains to be discovered. All four members exist in mice, however in humans only RELM β and resistin have been identified.

1.3.1 Resistin

Resistin or FIZZ3, also known as adipocyte-specific secreted factor (ADSF), is predominantly expressed in white adipose tissue in mice [53]. It has been implicated in adipogenesis and insulin resistance [54,55]. Kim *et al.* showed that resistin was able to inhibit adipocyte differentiation *in vitro* using 3T3-L1 preadipocytes [54]. Interestingly, another group showed that RELM α could also inhibit adipocyte differentiation in the same cell line [56], suggesting some degree of functional overlap between members of the RELM family, at least in certain cell types. Receptors for resistin are better characterized than for RELM α or RELM β . In mouse adipose stromal cells, resistin can bind to an isoform of decorin, a proteoglycan, and lead to adipocyte proliferation and migration [57]. However in humans, resistin binds to TLR4 thereby inhibiting binding of LPS and preventing endotoxic shock in a model of sepsis [58].

1.3.2 RELM α

RELM α or FIZZ1 (9.4 kDa) can be secreted by several different cell types including AA/M2 macrophages, eosinophils, B lymphocytes, adipocytes, and alveolar epithelial cells

(AEC) [59–63]. In both AA/M2 macrophages and type II AECs, RELM α could be upregulated by IL-4 or IL-13 *in vitro*, and its dependence on STAT6 was confirmed using STAT6 knockout mice [64,65]. Unlike other members of the RELM family, RELM α lacks a cysteine residue at the N-terminus, at position Cys26, and thus cannot homodimerize [66]. However, co-immunoprecipitation experiments have shown that RELM α could form heterooligomeric structures with resistin or RELM β [56,67].

RELM α has been implicated in murine models of experimental asthma, parasitic infection, pulmonary fibrosis, and wound healing [52,60,63,68–71]. Liu *et al.* showed that RELM α -deficient mice challenged with bleomycin were protected from the fibrotic phenotype, suggesting a profibrotic role for RELM α [52]. In a different model, Nair *et al.* demonstrated that RELM α -deficient mice challenged with the parasite *Schistosoma mansoni* developed exacerbated lung inflammation associated with elevated Th2 cytokine expression, presenting a healing phenotype [60]. Similarly, Sutherland *et al.* showed that RELM α -deficient mice infected with the nematode *Nippostrongylus brasiliensis* presented with greater lung tissue damage, and that RELM α was required for tissue repair following parasitic infection [72]. Given the proposed functions of RELM α in mouse lung inflammation, in this study we evaluate the regulation of RELM α by gp130 cytokines OSM and IL-6 *in vivo* and examine the roles of RELM α in OSM-induced lung inflammation and ECM gene expression *in vivo* using RELM α -deficient mice.

1.3.3 *RELM β*

Similar to *RELM α* , *RELM β* or *FIZZ2* is also a secreted protein but was originally found to be only expressed in the gastrointestinal tract in both mouse and human [73]. It is implicated in allergen-induced airway inflammation in animal models, and was later reported to induce fibrosis through lung collagen deposition following intratracheal administration of *RELM β* [74,75]. In human asthmatic patients, *RELM β* is produced in excess in the bronchial mucosal tissue [76]. It is believed to play a significant role in airway remodeling through myofibroblast differentiation and induction of ECM proteins including type I collagen and α SMA [77,78]. Although the human *RELM β* gene is the closest homolog to murine *RELM α* , whether they play similar roles in human and mouse lung inflammation remains unclear.

1.3.4 *RELM γ*

RELM γ is the least studied among the *RELM* family of proteins. *RELM γ* is most closely related to *RELM α* since the two genes share the highest homology within this gene family [79]. Like *RELM α* , there is no human ortholog of *RELM γ* . Despite the highly conserved genetic sequences, the expression pattern of *RELM γ* is clearly distinct from that of *RELM α* . In mice, *RELM γ* is highly expressed in cells and organs of the hematopoietic system including bone marrow, white blood cells, the spleen and thymus [79,80]. Although *RELM γ* can also be expressed in lung and adipose tissue, its expression is significantly lower than *RELM α* [79].

1.4 Adenoviral Vectors for Assessing Cytokine Function

Currently, adenoviral vectors are being used for gene therapy, as vaccine delivery vehicles, and in cancer immunotherapy studies. In this study, we use replication-deficient adenoviral vectors to examine effects of cytokine function expressed in the mouse lung. The adenoviral vectors used here have deletions in the E1 genomic region, rendering the virus replication-incompetent, and in the E3 genomic region, which is not essential for replication of viral DNA [81,82]. By using this system, adenoviruses can infect a variety of non-replicating cell types, with natural tropism for epithelial cells, which can express the inserted cytokines of interest, OSM or IL-6. The virus can be administered endotracheally to ensure it infects cells locally in the lung, and at a controlled dosage. To some degree, the transient overexpression of cytokine by the adenoviral vector mimics cytokine expression in inflammatory diseases [82]. Previous work have shown that intra-articular administration of adenoviral vectors expressing mouse OSM (AdOSM) but not mouse IL-6 (AdIL-6) induced joint inflammation and cartilage damage [83]. Intramuscular injection of AdOSM also induced IL-6 and acute-phase protein levels in serum, and endotracheal treatment of AdOSM induced accumulation of ECM and immune cells in mouse lungs, demonstrating that adenovirus-encoded mouse OSM can induce local and systemic effects *in vivo* [82,84].

1.5 Hypothesis and Aims

Preliminary data showed high induction of RELM α mRNA expression in lung tissue upon AdOSM treatment in wildtype mice. This was associated with a Th2-skewed cytokine

profile and accumulation of AA/M2 macrophages, conditions which are known to regulate RELM α . Thus, we hypothesize that OSM induces the expression of RELM α in mouse lung epithelial cells and macrophages, and that lung inflammation and ECM remodeling induced by OSM *in vivo* is elevated in part through the increase of RELM α (**Figure 1a**).

1.5.1 Aim 1: *In vivo* regulation of RELM α

The first aim is to assess the *in vivo* regulation of RELM α by OSM, IL-6, and IL-33 in both C57Bl/6 and BALB/c mice. Wildtype C57Bl/6 and BALB/c mice will be endotracheally administered with adenoviral vectors expressing mouse OSM (AdOSM) or IL-6 (AdIL-6) to induce transient overexpression of these cytokines over various time points. Empty adenoviral vectors (AdDel70) will be used as controls. To further assess the role of IL-33 and IL-6 in OSM-induced inflammation, IL-33^{-/-} mice on both C57Bl/6 and BALB/c backgrounds or IL-6^{-/-} C57Bl/6 mice will also be treated with AdDel70 or AdOSM. Following adenovirus administration, mice will be culled at various time points (day 2, 7, or 14) and assessed for RELM α expression, lung inflammation and ECM accumulation.

1.5.2 Aim 2: *In vitro* regulation of RELM α

The second aim is to assess the *in vitro* regulation of RELM α by OSM and other cytokines to determine potential sources of RELM α . Mouse C10 type 2 AEC and LA4 epithelial cells will be stimulated for 24 h with recombinant mouse OSM as well as other gp130 cytokines as comparators. Cells will also be co-stimulated with IL-4 and IL-13 to characterize

synergistic responses with OSM. After 24 h, cell culture supernatants will be analyzed for pro-inflammatory cytokines, such as MCP-1, by ELISA.

To assess macrophage expression of RELM α , bone marrow cells will be extracted from femurs of wildtype mice and differentiated *ex vivo* into macrophages. Bone marrow-derived macrophages (BMDM) will then be stimulated with LPS/IFN γ for classically activated (CA)/M1 macrophage polarization, or with IL-4/IL-13 for AA/M2 macrophage polarization. BMDMs will also be co-stimulated with IL-6 or IL-33. Cell culture supernatants will be analyzed for RELM α by ELISA.

1.5.3 Aim 3: OSM-induced inflammation in RELM α -deficient mice

The third aim is to examine the role of RELM α using RELM $\alpha^{-/-}$ mice following administration of AdOSM. RELM $\alpha^{-/-}$ mice will be endotracheally administered with AdDel70, AdOSM, or PBS as a negative control. At day 7 following adenovirus administration, mice will be culled and lung tissue assessed for mRNA and protein expression of RELM α and other molecules by NanoString analysis and Western blot, as well as ECM accumulation in the lung by histology. Sources of RELM α mRNA and colocalization with CD68 or IL-33 will be determined by chromogenic *in situ* hybridization (CISH). BAL fluid will also be examined for cellular infiltration, inflammatory mediators by ELISA, and measures of cell damage/death (cytocentrifuge smears), including LDH and CK18 in BAL by Western blot.

CHAPTER 2: MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 Animals

Female wildtype C57Bl/6 and BALB/c mice (6-8 or 8-10 weeks old) were purchased from The Jackson Laboratory (Bar Harbor, ME, USA) or Charles River Laboratories (Wilmington, MA, USA). Female IL-6^{-/-} mice (C57Bl/6 background; 6-8 weeks old) were purchased from The Jackson Laboratories. Female IL-33^{-/-} mice (C57Bl/6 and BALB/c background; 6-8 weeks old) were obtained from MedImmune, LLC (Gaithersburg, MD, USA). Female RELM α ^{-/-} mice (C57Bl/6 background; 8-10 weeks old) were purchased from The Jackson Laboratory (Bar Harbor, ME, USA). Mice were acclimatized one week prior to experimental procedures and housed under specific pathogen-free conditions within the McMaster University Central Animal Facility. All experimental procedures were approved by the McMaster University Animal Research Ethics Board.

2.2 Administration of Adenoviruses

Mice were anaesthetized and endotracheally administered 50 μ L of sterile phosphate buffered saline (PBS) as naïve controls, empty adenoviral vectors AdDel70 (5×10^7 PFU/mouse), or those expressing mouse OSM (AdOSM, 5×10^7 PFU/mouse) or mouse IL-6 (AdIL-6, 3×10^7 PFU/mouse). Mice were culled 2, 7, or 14 days following adenovirus administration.

2.3 Sample Collection

Mice were anaesthetized by isoflurane and serum was collected from the hepatic vein. After exsanguination, bronchoalveolar lavage (BAL) fluid and cells were collected from lungs by perfusing twice with 500 μ L of cold sterile PBS. The lobes of the right lung were excised and flash frozen in liquid nitrogen, which were then stored at -80°C for further protein and RNA extraction. The left lung was perfused and fixed with 10% formalin for 48 h then transferred and stored in 70% ethanol prior to embedding in paraffin for histological analyses.

2.4 Bronchoalveolar Lavage Cytospin Preparation

BAL fluid cells were enumerated by manual counting using a haemocytometer and stained by Trypan Blue (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA, USA) to assess cell viability. Samples were centrifuged and the supernatants were stored at -80°C for further cytokine analysis. Cell pellets were resuspended in PBS and cytocentrifuged at 1000 rpm for 3 min. Cytospin slides were stained with Hema-3 fixative solutions (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) for differential cell analysis of 500 leukocytes, and classified as macrophages, eosinophils, neutrophils, or lymphocytes.

2.5 Protein Extraction from Lung Tissues

Flash frozen lung tissues were transferred back into liquid nitrogen, then crushed into a fine powder. Each sample was divided into two and placed in either 1 mL of TRIzol (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) for RNA extraction or 1mL of RIPA buffer (1X PBS, 1% IGEPAL

CA-130, 0.5% Na-deoxycholate, 0.1% SDS) containing protease inhibitors (1 mM Na-orthovanadate, 5 µg/mL aprotinin, 1 mM phenylmethanesulphonylfluoride, 1 mM dithiothreitol) for protein extraction. Protein samples were processed using a homogenizer and stored at –80 °C until further analysis.

2.6 RNA Extraction from Lung Tissues

RNA from lung tissue samples in TRIzol were purified by phenol-chloroform extraction. One volume of chloroform was added to homogenized tissue and inverted. After mixing, the sample was centrifuged and the upper aqueous phase was transferred to a new Eppendorf. One volume of RNase-free isopropanol was added to the sample and inverted. After mixing, the sample was centrifuged to pellet the RNA, and the isopropanol was decanted. The RNA pellet was washed with 70% RNase-free ethanol, centrifuged, and the supernatant was removed. The pellet was dried at room temperature, resuspended with RNase-free water, and stored at –80 °C for further analysis.

2.7 Cell Culture

2.7.1 Isolation and Culture of Mouse Bone Marrow-derived Macrophages

Bone marrow cells were isolated from femurs of naïve female C57Bl/6 mice following euthanization. Bone marrow cells were cultured in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium/Nutrient Mixture F12 (DMEM/F12) medium containing 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) and 20 ng/mL of macrophage colony-stimulating factor (M-CSF) for 7 days. Non-adherent cells were washed off and adherent cells constituting the macrophage population,

known as bone marrow-derived macrophages (BMDM), were plated in 6-well plates at a cell density of 1 000 000 cells/well. Cells were then treated with various exogenous stimuli for 24 or 48 h. To polarize macrophages into the classically activated/M1 phenotype, BMDMs were treated with 100 ng/mL of LPS and 10 ng/mL of IFN γ . To polarize macrophages into the alternatively activated/M2 phenotype, BMDMs were treated with 20 ng/mL of IL-4 and 50 ng/mL of IL-13. Macrophages were co-stimulated with IL-6 or IL-33 and the CA/M1 or AA/M2 polarization cocktails to test the effect of IL-6 and IL-33 on macrophage RELM α production.

2.7.2 Mouse Lung Epithelial Cells (LA4)

LA4 cells (ATCC, Manassas, VA, USA) were thawed from previously frozen vials and cultured in 150 mm² tissue culture flasks under standard conditions (37 °C, 5% CO₂) in DMEM/F12 media containing 10% FBS and supplemented with 1% L-glutamine and 1% penicillin/streptomycin. Cells were passaged 1:4 or 1:6 when they reached 80-90% confluency.

2.7.3 Mouse Type II Alveolar Epithelial cells (C10)

C10 cells (gift from Dr. Christopher Migliaccio, University of Montana) were thawed from previously frozen vials and culture in 150 mm² tissue culture flasks under standard conditions (37 °C, 5% CO₂) in Roswell Park Memorial Institute (RPMI) media containing 10% FBS and supplemented with 1% L-glutamine and 1% penicillin/streptomycin. Cells were passaged 1:4 or 1:6 when they reached 80-90% confluency.

2.7.4 Cytokine Stimulations

LA4 or C10 cells were seeded at a cell density of 100 000 cells/well in 96-well plates and incubated overnight at 37 °C, 5% CO₂ prior to cytokine stimulations. The following day, cells were washed with 1X PBS to remove residual serum and stimulated with 5 ng/mL of IL-6, 100 ng/mL of LPS, 10 ng/mL of IFN γ , 20 ng/mL of IL-4, 50 ng/mL of IL-13, or 10 ng/mL of OSM in media containing 0.5% FBS, or in various of combinations of cytokines as indicated. After 24 h, supernatants were collected and stored at –80 °C for further analysis by ELISA.

2.7.5 Preparation of Cell Lysates and RNA Extracts

To extract protein, cells were lysed in RIPA buffer (1X PBS, 1% IGEPAL CA-130, 0.5% Na-deoxycholate, 0.1% SDS) containing protease inhibitors (1 mM Na₃VO₄, 5 μ g/mL aprotinin, 1 mM PMSF, 1 mM DTT), and homogenized by passing the lysate through 23 gauge needles. RNA was extracted from cells using PureLink™ RNA Mini Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). Protein and RNA extracts were stored in -80 °C.

2.8 Chromogenic *In Situ* Hybridization

Chromogenic *in situ* hybridization (CISH) for mouse CD68, IL-33, and RELM α mRNA was performed using the RNAscope® 2.5 Duplex Assay Kit (Advanced Cell Diagnostics, Newark, CA, USA). Formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded lung tissue sections were pretreated with heat and protease prior to hybridization with the target oligo probes.

Specific RNA staining signal was identified as punctate dots unless at very high levels in which signals converge.

2.9 Histology and Immunohistochemistry

Following formalin fixation, the left lobe of lungs was dissected into three sections per lung, embedded in paraffin and stored at rt for further analysis. Sections of 3 μm were cut and stained with hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) to assess lung pathology, Periodic acid-Schiff (PAS) to assess mucous-producing goblet cells, and Picrosirius red (PSR) to assess collagen fibrils. Immunohistochemistry for Ki67 to assess cell proliferation and alpha smooth muscle actin (αSMA) was also performed. Slide images were captured using Zeiss Axio Imager 2 (ZEISS, Oberkochen, Germany), or scanned using Aperio ImageScope (Leica Biosystems, Wetzlar, Germany).

2.9.1 Quantification of Ki67 and αSMA Staining

Images from Ki67-stained slides were captured using Zeiss Axio Imager 2 (ZEISS, Oberkochen, Germany). Ki67 staining was quantified using ImageJ v1.51k ImmunoRatio plugin (National Institutes of Health, USA). Images from αSMA -stained slides were scanned using Aperio ImageScope (Leica Biosystems, Wetzlar, Germany). αSMA staining in the lung parenchyma was quantified using QuPath v0.1.2 (<https://qupath.github.io/>). Three sections were analyzed per mouse, excluding major airways and blood vessels.

2.10 Western Blot

Cell lysates, whole lung homogenates, or BAL fluid were loaded onto 12-15% SDS-PAGE gels (20 µg of protein/well) and separated by electrophoresis at 120 V for 1 h, then transferred to nitrocellulose membranes at 400 mA for 2 h. Blots were blocked using Odyssey Blocking Buffer (LI-COR Biosciences, Lincoln, NE, USA) for 1 h at rt, then probed for using rabbit anti-RELMα pAb (PeproTech, Rocky Hill, NJ, USA), rabbit anti-pSTAT3 (Tyr705) mAb (Cell Signaling Technology, Danvers, MA, USA), mouse anti-Arg1 mAb (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA, USA), goat anti-IL-33 pAb (R&D Systems, Minneapolis, MN, USA), rabbit anti-CK18 pAb (Abcam, Cambridge, MA, USA), or mouse anti-β-actin mAb (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Dallas, TX, USA) overnight at 4 °C. The following day blots were washed with TBS + 0.15% Tween20, and IRDye® donkey anti-rabbit, goat anti-mouse, or donkey anti-goat secondary antibodies (LI-COR Biosciences, Lincoln, NE, USA) was added to the blots for 45 min at rt. After subsequent washes with TBS + 0.15% Tween20, blots were imaged on Odyssey LI-COR Imaging System (Lincoln, NE, USA). Protein bands of interest were quantified by densitometry using Image Studio Lite (LI-COR Biosciences, Lincoln, NE, USA).

2.11 NanoString Analysis

Gene expression using a custom probe set was measured by NanoString Technologies (Seattle, WA, USA). Analysis of raw mRNA counts was performed using nSolver™ Analysis Software v4.0 (NanoString Technologies, Seattle, WA, USA). Gene expression levels were normalized to housekeeping genes *Actb* and *Pgkl*.

2.12 Reverse Transcription Polymerase Chain Reaction (RT-PCR)

Lung RNA purified by phenol-chloroform extraction were reverse transcribed into cDNA and stored at -80°C . cDNA was analyzed by TaqMan[®] Gene Expression Assay (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA) using pre-determined assay reagents and specific probes for 18S, RELM α , endogenous OSM and viral OSM (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA).

2.13 Enzyme-linked Immunosorbent Assay (ELISA)

BAL fluid and serum from mice were analyzed using commercially available DuoSet ELISA kits from R&D Systems (Minneapolis, MN, USA). For measuring RELM α by ELISA, an in-house sandwich ELISA was developed using rabbit anti-mouse RELM α polyclonal antibody (PeproTech, Rocky Hill, NJ, USA) and biotinylated anti-mouse RELM α antibody (PeproTech, Rocky Hill, NJ, USA).

2.14 Flow Cytometry

Whole lung mononuclear cell suspensions were generated from a section of the right lobe by mechanical mincing and collagenase digestion. Tissues were degraded with Collagenase I and DNase I for 2 h on an incubated shaker at 37°C . Debris were removed by passage through $45\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ mesh filter and cells were resuspended in 1X PBS/0.3% bovine serum albumin (BSA). Cells were stimulated with para-methoxyamphetamine (PMA) and ionomycin for 4 h prior to flow cytometric analysis. Forward scatter and side scatter parameters and Zombie-Aqua dye (BioLegend, San Diego, CA, USA) were used to define

the live cell gate. Cells were stained with Zombie-Aqua dye for 20 min at rt prior to surface staining with fluorophore-conjugated antibodies. Cells were surface-stained for 30 min at 4 °C with antibodies for CD3, CD4, CD38, and CD45 (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA, USA). Following surface staining, cells were fixed with BD Cytofix/CytoPerm (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA, USA) for 20 min at 4 °C and then washed with BD 1X Perm/Wash (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA, USA) prior to intracellular staining for 30 min at 4 °C with antibodies for CD206 and IFN γ (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA, USA). Cells were then washed and resuspended in 1X PBS/0.3% BSA for analysis on the BD LSR II flow cytometer (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA, USA).

2.15 Lactate Dehydrogenase Assay

Lactate dehydrogenase in BAL fluid was measured using Pierce LDH Cytotoxicity Assay Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) according to manufacturer's protocol.

2.16 Statistical Analysis

Statistical analyses were carried out using GraphPad Prism 7. The Student's t test, one-way or two-way analysis of variance was used to determine significant differences between sample groups, where $^*P < 0.05$, $^{**}P < 0.01$, $^{***}P < 0.001$, $^{****}P < 0.0001$, and $^{\#}P < 0.05$ relative to controls groups.

CHAPTER 3: *IN VIVO* REGULATION OF RELM α BY OSM, IL-6, AND IL-33 IN C57BL/6 AND BALB/C MICE

3.1 Induction of RELM α by OSM

To examine the *in vivo* regulation of RELM α , wildtype C57Bl/6 and BALB/c mice were endotracheally administered PBS as naïve controls, AdDel70, or AdOSM to induce transient overexpression of mouse OSM in the lungs for 7 or 14 days as previous [14,32,33,40], as outlined in **Figure 1b**. Whole lung tissues were assessed for RELM α mRNA expression by RT-PCR, and BAL fluid and serum were analyzed for RELM α protein by ELISA. In AdDel70-treated C57Bl/6 mice, RELM α mRNA was detectable at low levels, which was significantly upregulated upon treatment with AdOSM at day 7 (**Figure 3a, left panel**). At the protein expression levels, RELM α was detectable at basal levels of approximately 100 ng/mL in BAL fluid of naïve and AdDel70-treated C57Bl/6 mice. Following overexpression of OSM, RELM α protein detected was markedly induced 180-fold to up to approximately 12 μ g/mL at day 7, and afterwards decreased to approximately 4 μ g/mL by day 14 (**Figure 3b, left panel**). RELM α was present at 150-200 ng/mL in serum of naïve and AdDel70-treated animals, and elevated 2-fold upon AdOSM infection both at days 7 and 14 in C57Bl/6 mice (**Figure 3c, left panel**). Similar trends were observed in BALB/c mice at the mRNA expression level and in BAL fluid (**Figure 3a, b, right panels**), however, RELM α levels in serum of BALB/c mice were similar across all treatments (**Figure 3c, right panel**).

Given that previous studies in other models have shown that RELM α could be expressed in other cell types in addition to AA/M2 macrophages [60,85], we sought to determine the cell sources of RELM α following AdOSM treatment. Lung tissue sections from wildtype C57Bl/6 and BALB/c mice treated with AdOSM were analyzed for RELM α mRNA expression by CISH using custom probes for RELM α . Upon overexpression of OSM for 7 days, RELM α mRNA is highly expressed in columnar airway epithelial cells in both strains of mice (**Figure 4**). In C57Bl/6 mice, RELM α is also expressed in mononuclear cells throughout the lung parenchyma, whereas the RELM α mRNA signal in BALB/c lung parenchyma was much lower than in C57Bl/6 lung parenchyma. This is associated with lower total RELM α mRNA levels in BALB/c mice (**Figure 3a**). This is consistent with unpublished observations, where less accumulation of Arg1⁺ AA/M2 macrophages is observed in the lung parenchyma of BALB/c mice in this model. The specificity of the custom RELM α CISH probe is demonstrated using CISH negative control probe of serial sections of the same lung tissue sample.

3.2 Induction of RELM α by IL-6

As a comparator of OSM to another typical gp130 cytokine IL-6, AdIL-6 was endotracheally administered to both C57Bl/6 and BALB/c strains of mice to induce transient overexpression of mouse IL-6 for 2 and 7 days and compared to mice treated in parallel with AdOSM. RELM α protein in BAL fluid was quantified by ELISA (**Figure 5a**) and Western blot (**Figure 5b, c**). In C57Bl/6 mice, AdOSM induced RELM α in BAL fluid 2 days following treatment, and levels were further elevated by day 7 (**Figure 5a, left**

panel). A similar trend was observed with AdIL-6, where RELM α levels at day 2 were elevated but not statistically different from controls, whereas AdIL-6 was also able to induce RELM α by day 7 albeit to markedly lower levels than AdOSM (2 vs 6 μ g/mL). Similar trends were observed in BAL fluid of BALB/c mice (**Figure 5a, right panel**). Analysis of day 7 BAL fluid samples by Western blot showed that AdOSM treatment resulted in high levels of RELM α protein detected as a single full-length band at the expected molecular weight (~10 kDa), and that AdIL-6 induced some but significantly lower levels of signal at the expected molecular size (**Figure 5b**, signals in left panel quantified by densitometry in right panel).

To determine if IL-6 is required for AdOSM-induced RELM α expression, wildtype C57Bl/6 and IL-6^{-/-} mice were administered AdDel70 or AdOSM, and BAL fluid was assessed for RELM α by Western blot. In this assay (less sensitive than ELISA), RELM α could not be detected in BAL fluid of AdDel70-treated mice (**Figure 5c**). RELM α was highly expressed in BAL fluid of AdOSM-treated wildtype mice, but was significantly reduced in IL-6^{-/-} mice (signals quantified by densitometry in **Figure 5c, right panel**), suggesting that IL-6 is required for maximal induction of RELM α by OSM.

3.3 Regulation of RELM α in the Absence of IL-33

In our model of lung inflammation, OSM is known to upregulate IL-33 which enhances the Th2 inflammatory response in the mouse lung [28]. This raised questions as to whether RELM α also participates in such activity in the lung, and whether RELM α is regulated

downstream of IL-33 or directly induced by OSM. To address this, wildtype and IL-33^{-/-} C57Bl/6 mice were endotracheally administered with AdDel70 or AdOSM. Mice were culled 7 or 14 days following adenovirus administration. At day 7, whole lung homogenates were analyzed by RT-PCR for mRNA expression of RELM α . Both wildtype and IL-33^{-/-} mice treated with AdDel70 expressed minimal levels of RELM α mRNA in C57Bl/6 mice at day 7 (**Figure 6a**). After 7 days, AdOSM markedly upregulated RELM α mRNA expression in whole lung, but in the absence of IL-33, RELM α expression was significantly reduced more than 2-fold.

To assess if similar trends were reflected at the protein level, RELM α in BAL fluid of wildtype and IL-33^{-/-} C57Bl/6 mice collected at days 7 and 14 were analyzed by Western blot (**Figure 6b**) and ELISA (**Figure 6c**). Both assays showed similar trends where basal levels of RELM α were detected in control animals at both time points. At day 7 in wildtype C57Bl/6 mice treated with AdOSM, RELM α protein could be detected, and at significantly higher levels than in IL-33^{-/-} mice, consistent with mRNA expression levels at day 7 (**Figure 6c, left panel**). By day 14 although RELM α protein levels were lower than at day 7, it remained elevated in AdOSM-treated mice, with significantly lower levels in IL-33^{-/-} mice than in wildtype mice (**Figure 6c, right panel**). Similar trends were also observed in day 7 and day 14 serum, where RELM α protein was found at elevated levels in AdOSM-treated wildtype mice, but not in IL-33^{-/-} mice (**Figure 6d**).

To examine possible differences in another strain of mouse, wildtype and IL-33^{-/-} BALB/c mice were endotracheally administered with AdDel70 or AdOSM, and mice were culled 7 or 14 days following adenovirus administration, similar to experiments in the C57Bl/6 model. At day 7, very low levels of RELM α mRNA were detected by RT-PCR in AdDel70-treated mice, and upon AdOSM infection RELM α expression was significantly upregulated in whole lung of both wildtype and IL-33^{-/-} BALB/c mice (**Figure 7a**). BAL fluid collected at day 7 and day 14 post adenovirus infection were analyzed by Western blot (**Figure 7b**) and ELISA (**Figure 7c**). In both assays, RELM α was detected at basal levels in naïve and AdDel70-treated mice at day 7. Upon AdOSM treatment, RELM α in BAL fluid at day 7 were markedly elevated in both wildtype and IL-33^{-/-} mice, however there was no effect of IL-33-deficiency on RELM α protein expression (**Figure 7c, left panel**). By day 14, RELM α protein levels in BAL fluid of AdOSM-treated mice remained elevated but at lower levels than at day 7 (**Figure 7c, right panel**). RELM α protein in serum was measured by ELISA, however the levels were similar across all treatments in both wildtype and IL-33^{-/-} BALB/c mice (**Figure 7d**).

Day 7 lung tissue sections from AdDel70- and AdOSM-treated wildtype and IL-33^{-/-} C57Bl/6 mice were analyzed by CISH and stained for RELM α and IL-33 mRNA (**Figure 8**). In AdDel70-treated mouse lung sections, RELM α mRNA expression could be seen in some cells in the airway epithelium, and very few IL-33⁺ cells in the lung parenchyma. Upon AdOSM treatment, RELM α mRNA is highly expressed in columnar airway epithelial cells, and consistent with mRNA levels measured by RT-PCR (**Figure 6a**) there is less

RELM α staining in AdOSM-treated IL-33^{-/-} mice. IL-33⁺ cells could be observed in cells throughout the lung parenchyma and in the basement membrane of the airway epithelium. A number of cells in the lung parenchyma were also RELM α ⁺ IL-33⁺, as demonstrated by colocalization of the two stains.

Figure 1. Schematic of RELM α regulation by OSM and IL-6, and *in vivo* experimental design. (a) Proposed mechanism by which RELM α is regulated. Classically activated/M1 macrophages produce gp130 cytokines OSM and IL-6. We speculate that OSM acts on connective tissue/stromal cells whereas IL-6 acts on alternatively activated/M2 macrophages to induce expression of RELM α . Regulation of RELM α by OSM or IL-6 has not been previously described, and whether RELM α participates in OSM-induced inflammation and pathology is examined here. **(b)** As a model of chronic pulmonary inflammation, we use adenovirus vectors to transiently overexpress mouse OSM (AdOSM) or IL-6 (AdIL-6) in the lung through endotracheal administration, or the empty vector AdDel70 as negative controls. 7 and 14 days after infection, mice are culled and lung cells and tissue are harvested for analysis of inflammation and ECM accumulation. Yellow shaded region shows the level of adenovirus vector expression of cytokines OSM or IL-6 over time.

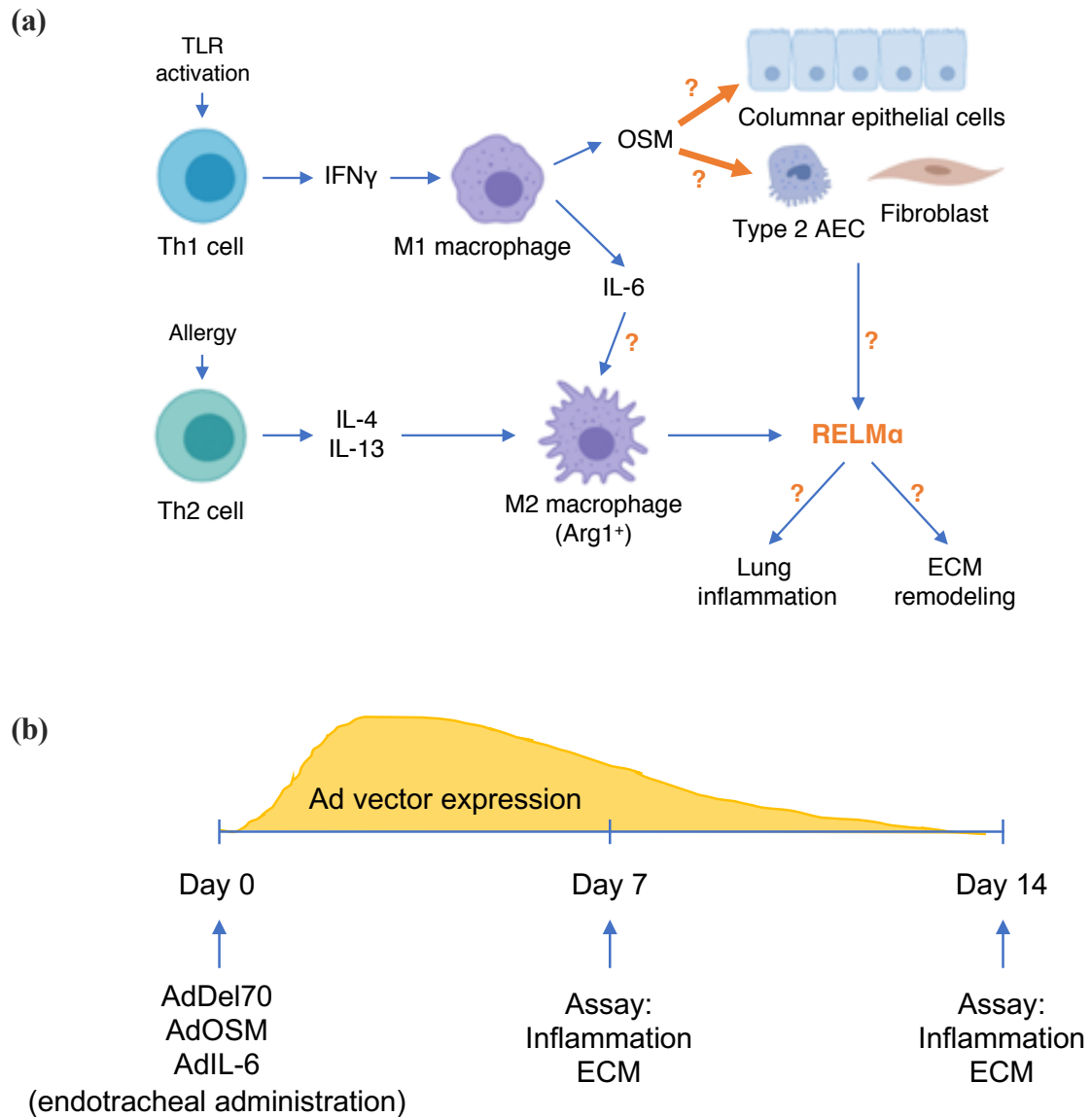
Figure 1

Figure 2. Specificity of anti-murine RELM α polyclonal antibody by Western blot.

Whole lung homogenates and BAL fluid from AdDel70- and AdOSM-treated C57Bl/6 mice were analyzed by Western blot. Known amounts of recombinant RELM α (0-2 ng) were loaded on the same gel as a positive control and to generate a standard curve for semi-quantitative densitometric analysis. **(a)** Immunoblot was probed with rabbit anti-murine RELM α polyclonal antibody and donkey anti-rabbit secondary antibody. **(b)** Immunoblot was probed with donkey anti-rabbit secondary antibody alone, showing that bands detected in **(a)** are not due to non-specific binding of the secondary antibody. Each lane indicates sample extracts from separate mouse lungs. ($n = 3$ mice/group). *(Submitted to Journal of Leukocyte Biology in the manuscript entitled “RELM α is induced by Oncostatin M in vivo and modulates extracellular matrix and cytoprotection in mouse lung inflammation.”)*

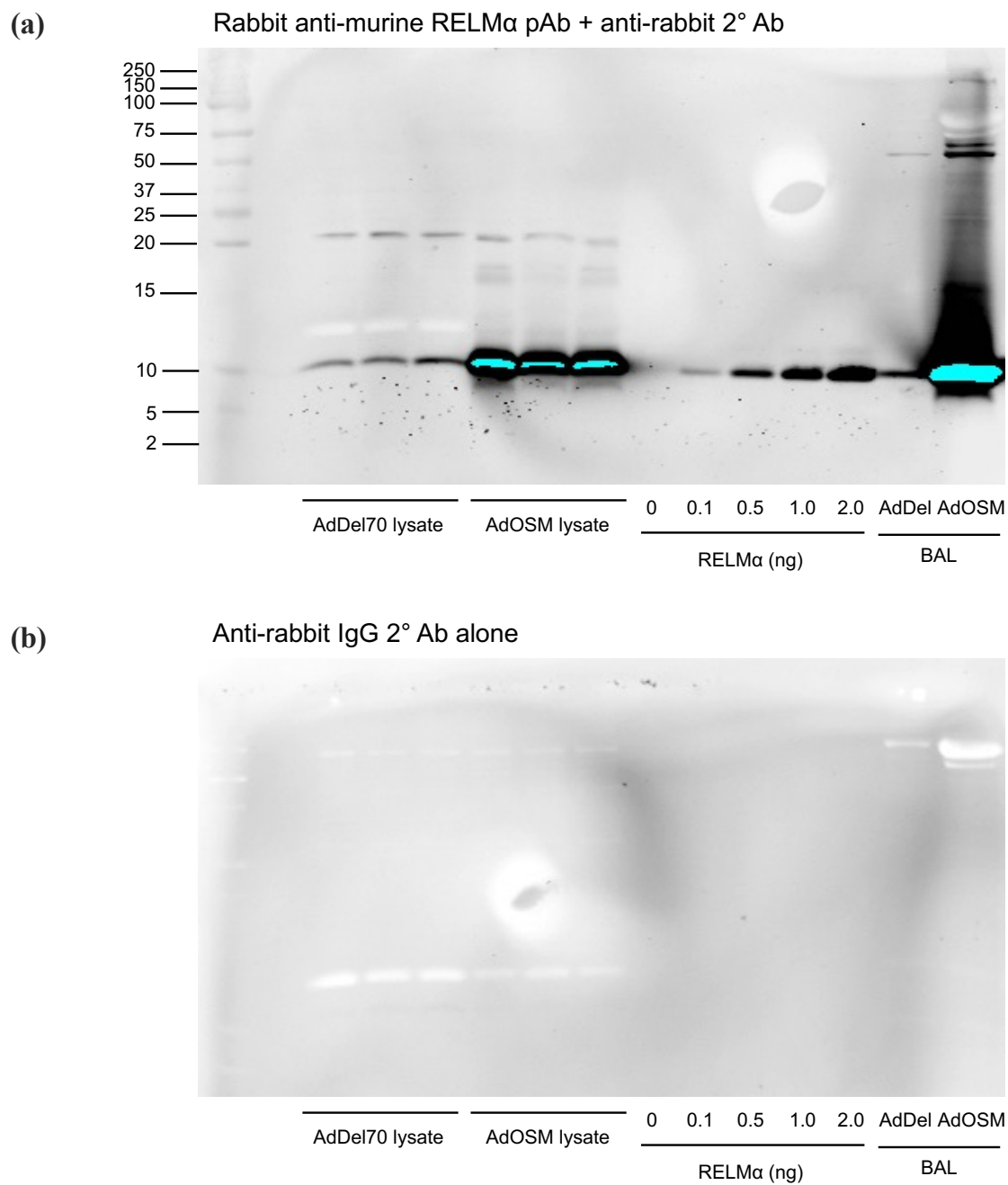
Figure 2

Figure 3. Transient overexpression of OSM induces RELM α mRNA and protein expression in lungs of C57Bl/6 and BALB/c mice. (a) RELM α mRNA expression in total lung homogenates 7 days following administration of AdDel70 or AdOSM to wildtype C57Bl/6 (left panels) and BALB/c mice (right panels). RELM α mRNA levels are expressed relative to 18S ribosomal RNA. RELM α protein levels in **(b)** BAL fluid and **(c)** serum in naïve animals or 7 and 14 days post adenovirus infection, assessed by ELISA. Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM ($n = 4-6$ mice/group). Statistical significance determined by one-way ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc test ($^{\#}P < 0.05$ relative to controls at the indicated time point; $^*P < 0.05$, $^{**}P < 0.01$, $^{****}P < 0.0001$ between indicated groups). *(RT-PCR performed by Rex Park; ELISAs performed by Ashley Yip. Submitted to Journal of Leukocyte Biology in the manuscript entitled "RELM α is induced by Oncostatin M in vivo and modulates extracellular matrix and cytoprotection in mouse lung inflammation.")*

Figure 3

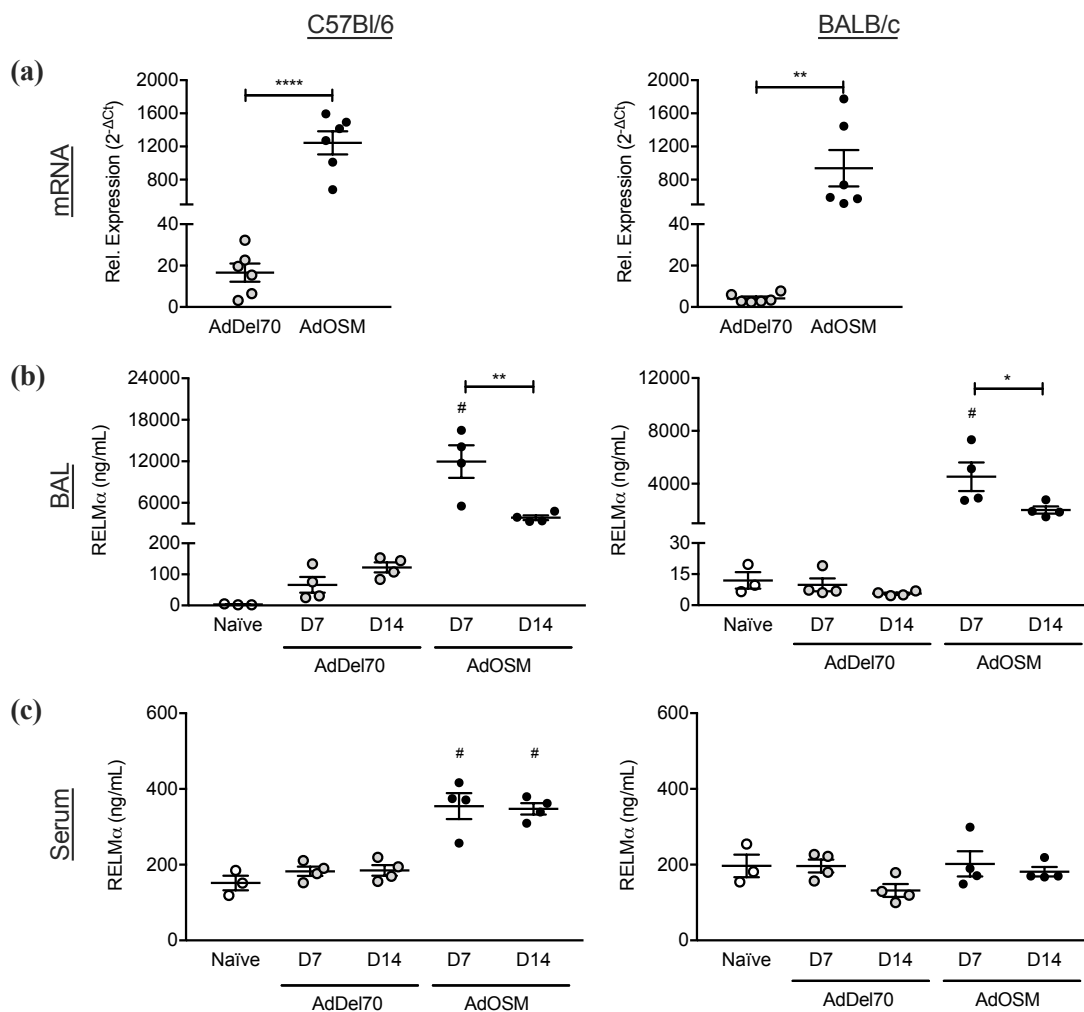


Figure 4. RELM α mRNA is highly induced in columnar airway epithelial cells.

Representative images are shown of CISH for RELM α in formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded lung tissue sections from AdOSM-treated wildtype C57Bl/6 and BALB/c mice at day 7. RELM α mRNA (red) in AdOSM-treated mouse lung sections (top panels). Negative controls for serial sections of the same lung sample are shown (bottom panels). Scale bars, 50 μ m. ($n = 5$ mice/group). *(Submitted to Journal of Leukocyte Biology in the manuscript entitled “RELM α is induced by Oncostatin M in vivo and modulates extracellular matrix and cytoprotection in mouse lung inflammation.”)*

Figure 4

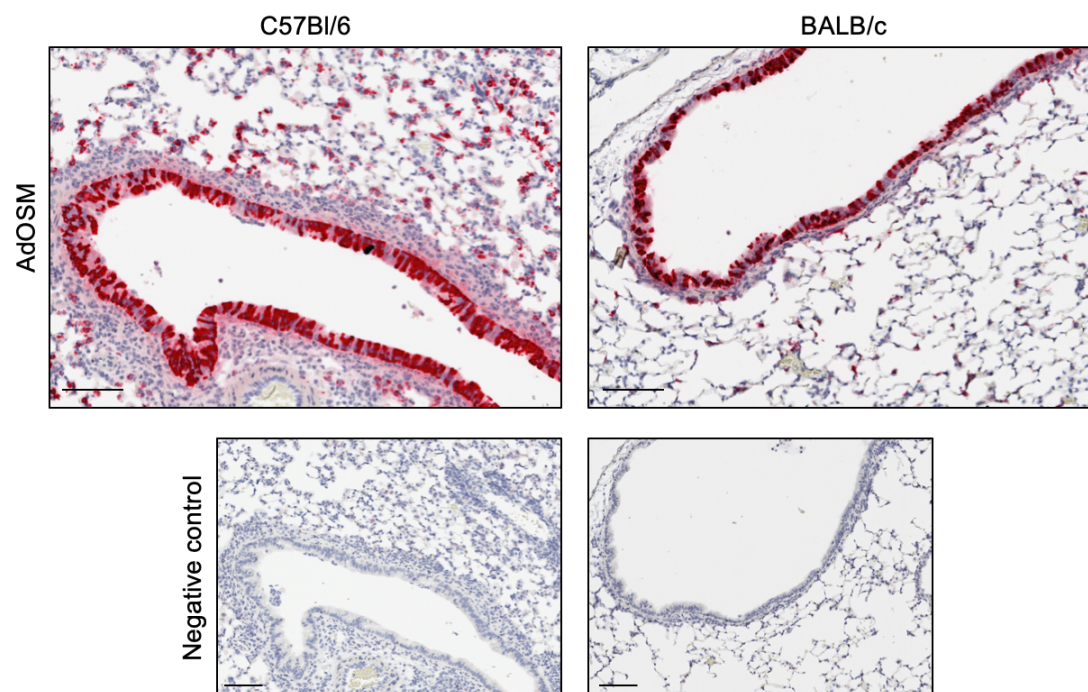


Figure 5. IL-6 is required for maximal induction of RELM α by OSM. (a) RELM α protein levels in BAL fluid from C57Bl/6 (left panel) and BALB/c mice (right panel) at day 2 or day 7 after AdDel70, AdOSM or AdIL-6 treatment, as assessed by ELISA. **(b)** BAL fluid from wildtype C57Bl/6 mice 7 days post-infection with AdDel70, AdOSM or AdIL-6 were analyzed by Western blot for RELM α (detecting a single band, left panel) and densitometry signals were quantified (right panel). **(c)** BAL fluid from wildtype and IL-6^{-/-} C57Bl/6 mice 7 days post-infection with AdDel70 or AdOSM were analyzed by Western blot (left panel), and densitometry signals were quantified (right panel). Each lane indicates sample extracts from separate mouse lungs. Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM ($n = 4-5$ mice/group). Statistical significance determined by one-way ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc test ([#] $P < 0.05$ relative to controls at the indicated time point; ** $P < 0.01$, **** $P < 0.0001$ between indicated groups). (ELISAs performed by Ashley Yip. Submitted to *Journal of Leukocyte Biology* in the manuscript entitled "RELM α is induced by Oncostatin M in vivo and modulates extracellular matrix and cytoprotection in mouse lung inflammation.")

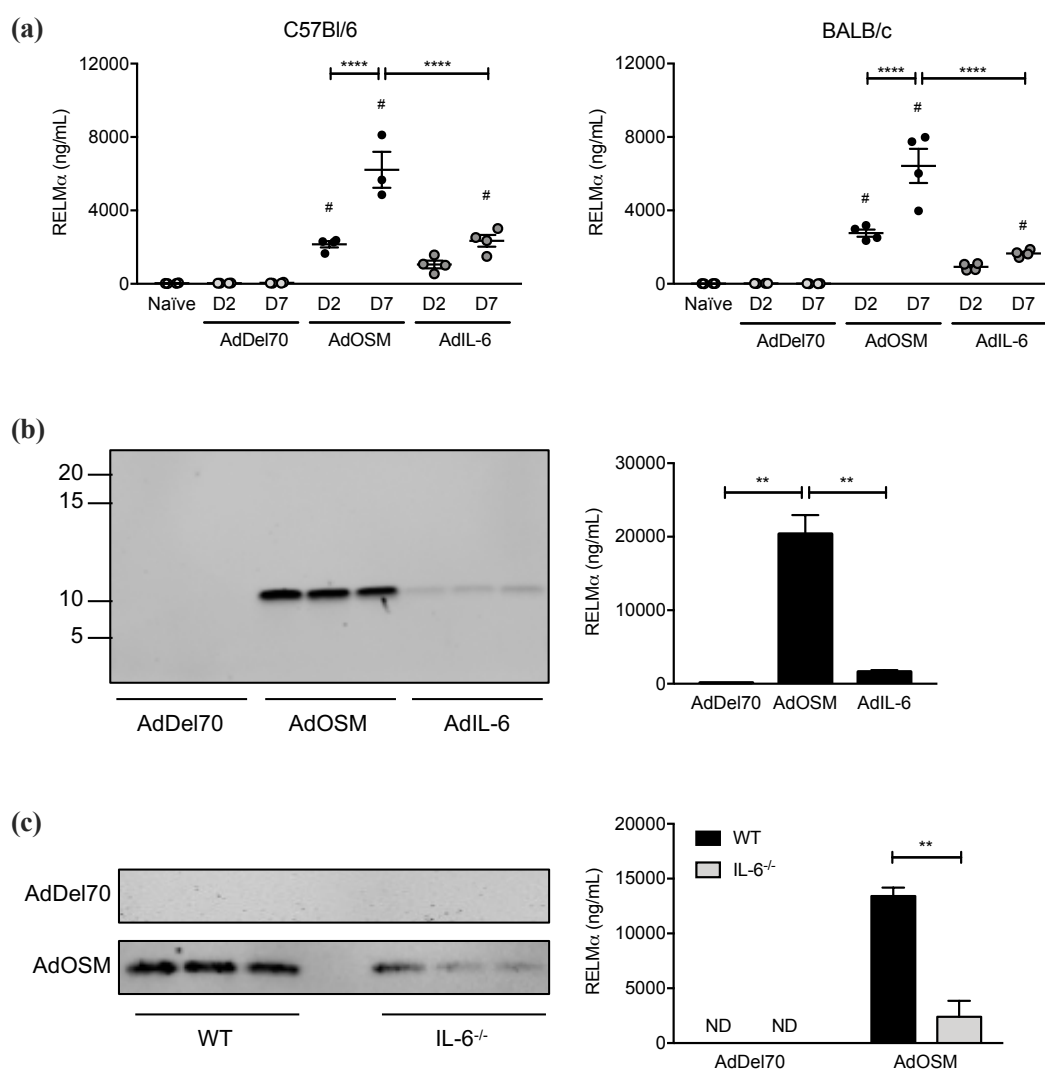
Figure 5

Figure 6. Regulation of RELM α by IL-33 in C57Bl/6 mice. Wildtype and IL-33^{-/-} C57Bl/6 mice were endotracheally administered AdDel70 or AdOSM. **(a)** RELM α mRNA expression in total lung homogenates 7 days post-infection. mRNA levels are expressed relative to 18S ribosomal RNA. RELM α protein levels 7 days (left panels) and 14 days (right panels) post-infection in BAL fluid assessed by **(b)** Western blot and **(c)** ELISA, and in **(d)** serum, assessed by ELISA. Each lane indicates sample extracts from separate mouse lungs. Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM ($n = 4-6$ mice/group). Statistical significance determined by two-way ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc test (* $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$, **** $P < 0.0001$ between indicated groups). (*RT-PCR performed by Rex Park; ELISAs performed by Ashley Yip.*)

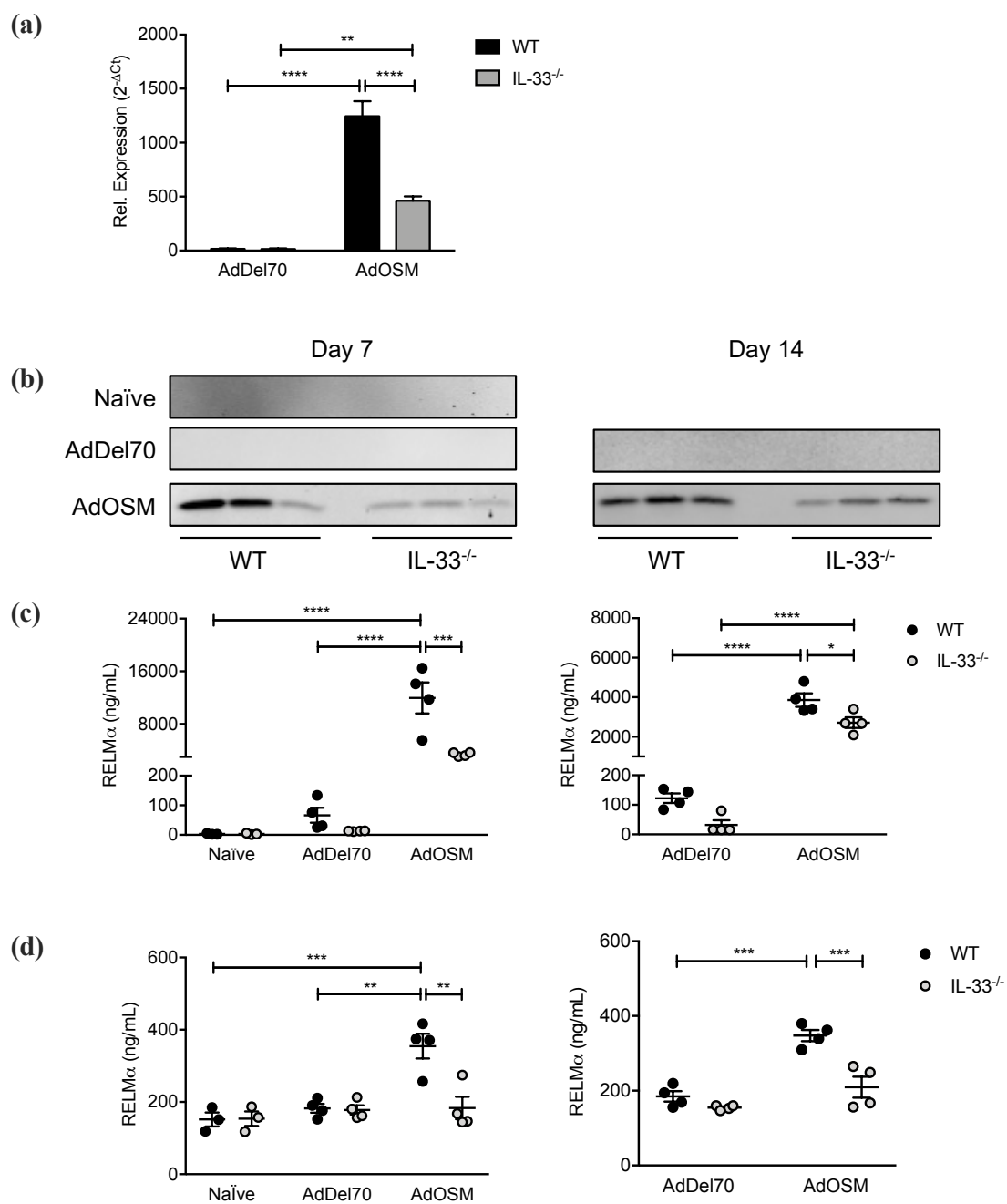
Figure 6

Figure 7. Regulation of RELM α by IL-33 in BALB/c mice. Wildtype and IL-33^{-/-} BALB/c mice were endotracheally administered AdDel70 or AdOSM. **(a)** RELM α mRNA expression in total lung homogenates 7 days post-infection. mRNA levels are expressed relative to 18S ribosomal RNA. RELM α protein levels 7 days (left panels) and 14 days (right panels) post-infection in BAL fluid assessed by **(b)** Western blot and **(c)** ELISA, and in **(d)** serum, assessed by ELISA. Each lane indicates sample extracts from separate mouse lungs. Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM ($n = 4-6$ mice/group). Statistical significance determined by two-way ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc test (** $P < 0.01$, **** $P < 0.0001$ between indicated groups). (*RT-PCR performed by Rex Park; ELISAs performed by Ashley Yip.*)

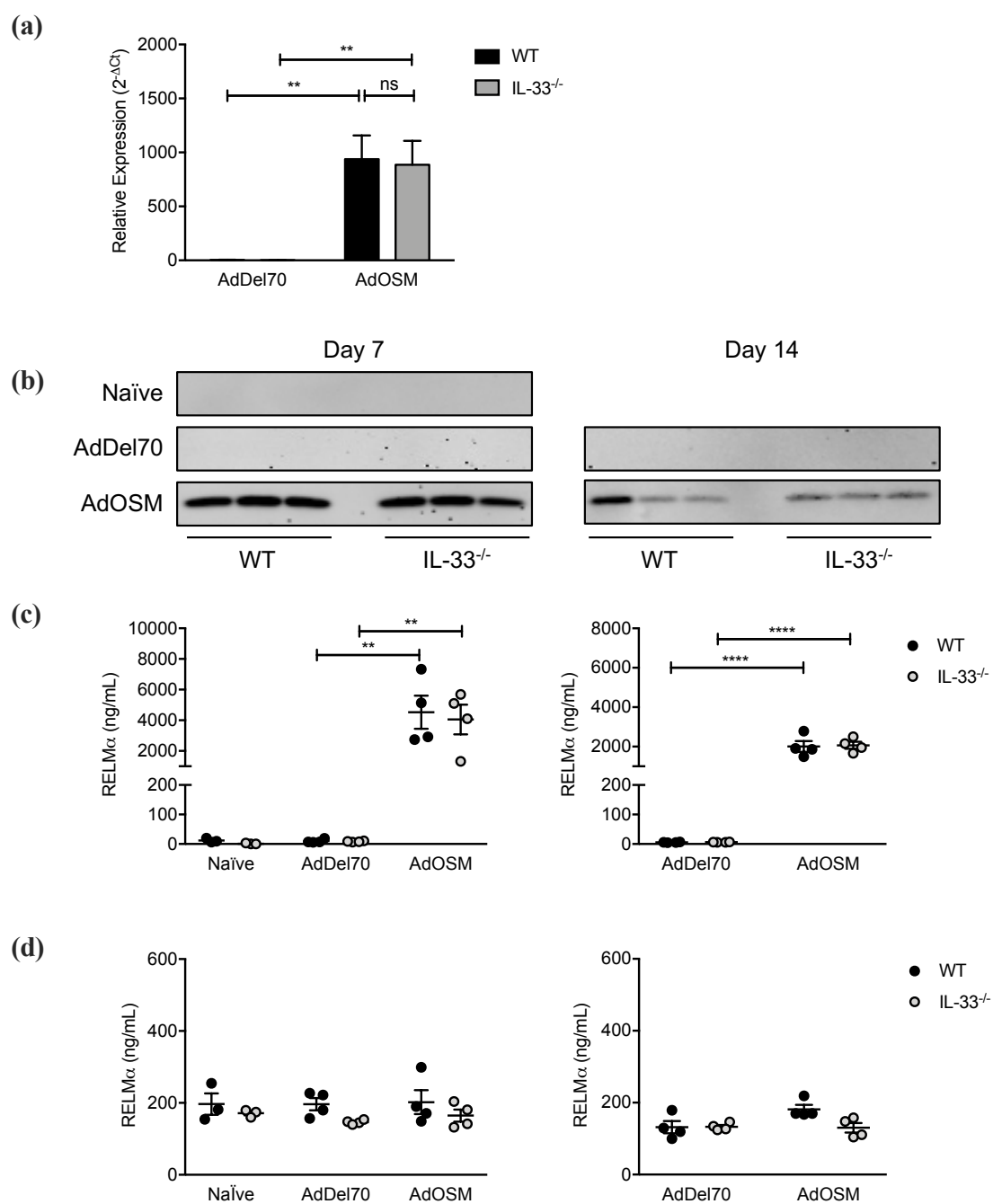
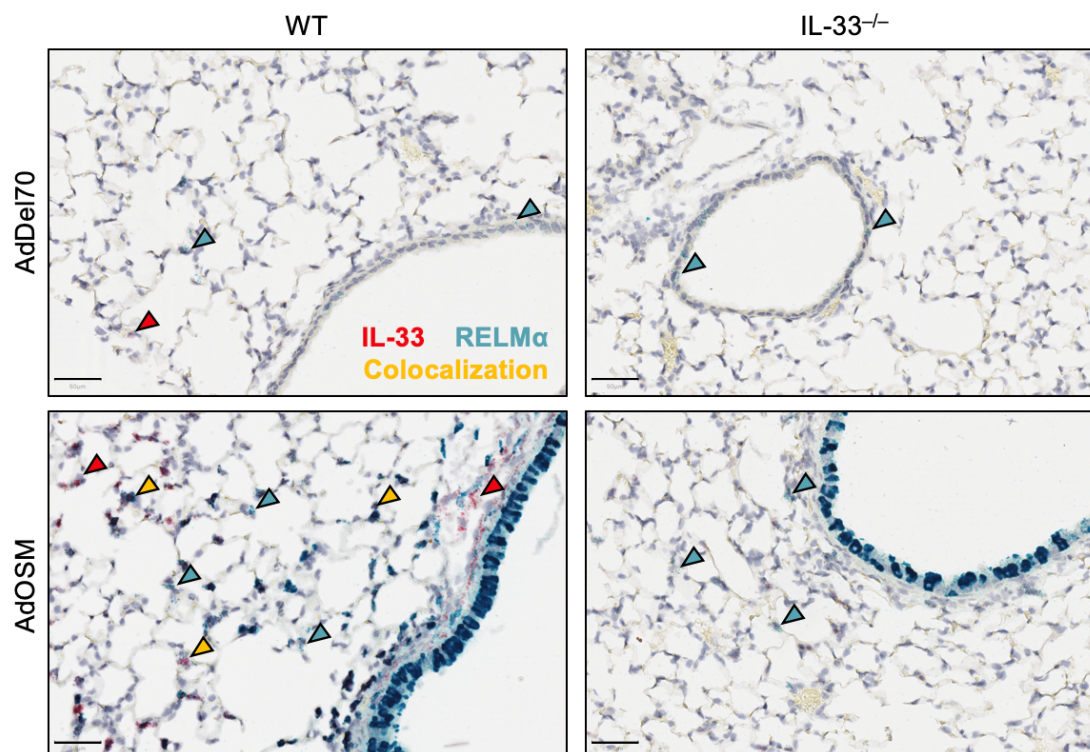
Figure 7

Figure 8. Chromogenic *in situ* hybridization of RELM α and IL-33 in AdDel70- and AdOSM-treated wildtype and IL-33^{-/-} C57Bl/6 mice. Representative images of CISH for RELM α (turquoise) and IL-33 (red) in formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded lung tissue sections from AdDel70- and AdOSM-treated wildtype and IL-33^{-/-} C57Bl/6 mice 7 days post adenovirus infection. Colocalization of both signals is shown in AdOSM-treated wildtype sections (yellow arrowheads). Scale bars, 50 μ m. ($n = 5$ mice/group).

Figure 8



CHAPTER 4: *IN VITRO* REGULATION OF RELM α

4.1 Expression of RELM α in Bone Marrow-derived Macrophages

Given that RELM α is widely recognized as a marker of AA/M2 macrophages, we examined the *in vitro* regulation of RELM α in bone marrow-derived macrophages (BMDM). Bone marrow cells were extracted from femurs of naïve C57Bl/6 mice and differentiated into macrophages by treating with M-CSF for 7 days. BMDMs were then stimulated with either LPS/IFN γ (CA/M1 stimulus) or IL-4/IL-13 (AA/M2 stimulus) and in the presence or absence of IL-6 or IL-33 for 24 and 48 hours, as outlined in **Figure 9a**. RELM α in culture supernatants were measured by Western blot and ELISA (**Figure 9b**), and in both assays RELM α was not detectable in unstimulated cells or those stimulated with IL-6 alone or with CA/M1 cytokines. AA/M2-polarized BMDMs secreted significant amounts of RELM α , and when co-stimulated with IL-6, RELM α expression was further enhanced.

Since *in vivo* experiments using IL-33^{-/-} C57Bl/6 mice demonstrated that RELM α mRNA and protein expression were reduced upon overexpression of AdOSM in the absence of IL-33, suggesting that IL-33 is an upstream regulator of RELM α , we tested whether IL-33 could also regulated RELM α expression in BMDMs *in vitro*. BMDMs derived from C57Bl/6 mice were polarized into CA/M1 or AA/M2 macrophage phenotypes and co-stimulated with IL-33 for 24 or 48 hours. After 24 and 48 hours, RELM α protein was not detectable in culture supernatants of unstimulated or CA/M1-polarized BMDMs. IL-33 alone also did not stimulate the production of RELM α , demonstrating that IL-33 cannot

directly induce RELM α in this cell type under these conditions (**Figure 9c**). AA/M2-polarized macrophages produced RELM α after 24 and 48 hours, but this was not further enhanced when cells were co-stimulated with IL-33. Thus, *in vivo*, IL-33 may be acting on a different cell population other than macrophages to regulate RELM α through an indirect pathway.

4.2 Stimulation of Alveolar Epithelial Cell Lines

Another possible source of RELM α is alveolar epithelial cells [63]. To address this, C10 type 2 alveolar epithelial and LA4 lung epithelial cell lines were stimulated for 24 hours with a number of cytokines including OSM, IL-6, LPS/IFN γ (CA/M1 stimulus) and IL-4/IL-13 (AA/M2 stimulus), alone or in combinations. However, RELM α protein in culture supernatants could not be detected by ELISA in any of the conditions (**Figure 10a**). To test if these cells were responsive to stimuli, culture supernatants were also analyzed by ELISA for MCP-1 and eotaxin-2. C10 alveolar epithelial cells responded to CA/M1 and AA/M2 stimuli with induced MCP-1 production after 24 hours, whereas LA4 epithelial cells responded to CA/M1 stimuli with significant induction of MCP-1 in comparison to unstimulated cells (**Figure 10b**). Co-stimulation of OSM with AA/M2 stimuli also induced MCP-1 production in LA4 epithelial cells. Both C10 and LA4 cells also produced eotaxin-2, but the levels were not statistically different across the treatments (**Figure 10c**).

Figure 9. Secretion of RELM α by M2-polarized bone marrow-derived macrophages.

(a) Experimental design for stimulation of BMDMs. Bone marrow cells are harvested from femurs of wildtype C57Bl/6 mice. Cells are differentiated into macrophages by stimulating with M-CSF for 7 days, and non-adherent cells were washed off. At day 7, BMDMs were stimulated with LPS/IFN γ (classically activated/M1 stimulus) or IL-4/IL-13 (alternatively activated/M2 stimulus) and in the presence or absence of IL-6 and IL-33. 24 or 48 h after, cell culture supernatants were analyzed by ELISA for secretion of RELM α . **(b)** Secretion of RELM α in culture supernatants by CA/M1- and AA/M2-polarized BMDMs in the presence or absence of IL-6 after 24 h was measured by Western blot (left panel) and ELISA (right panel). **(c)** RELM α protein in culture supernatants by CA/M1- and AA/M2-polarized BMDMs in the presence or absence of IL-33 after 24 h (left panel) and 48 h (right panel) was measured by ELISA. Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM ($n = 4-6$ /group). Statistical significance determined by one-way ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc test (**** $P < 0.0001$ between indicated groups). (*Figure 9b submitted to Journal of Leukocyte Biology in the manuscript entitled "RELM α is induced by Oncostatin M in vivo and modulates extracellular matrix and cytoprotection in mouse lung inflammation."*)

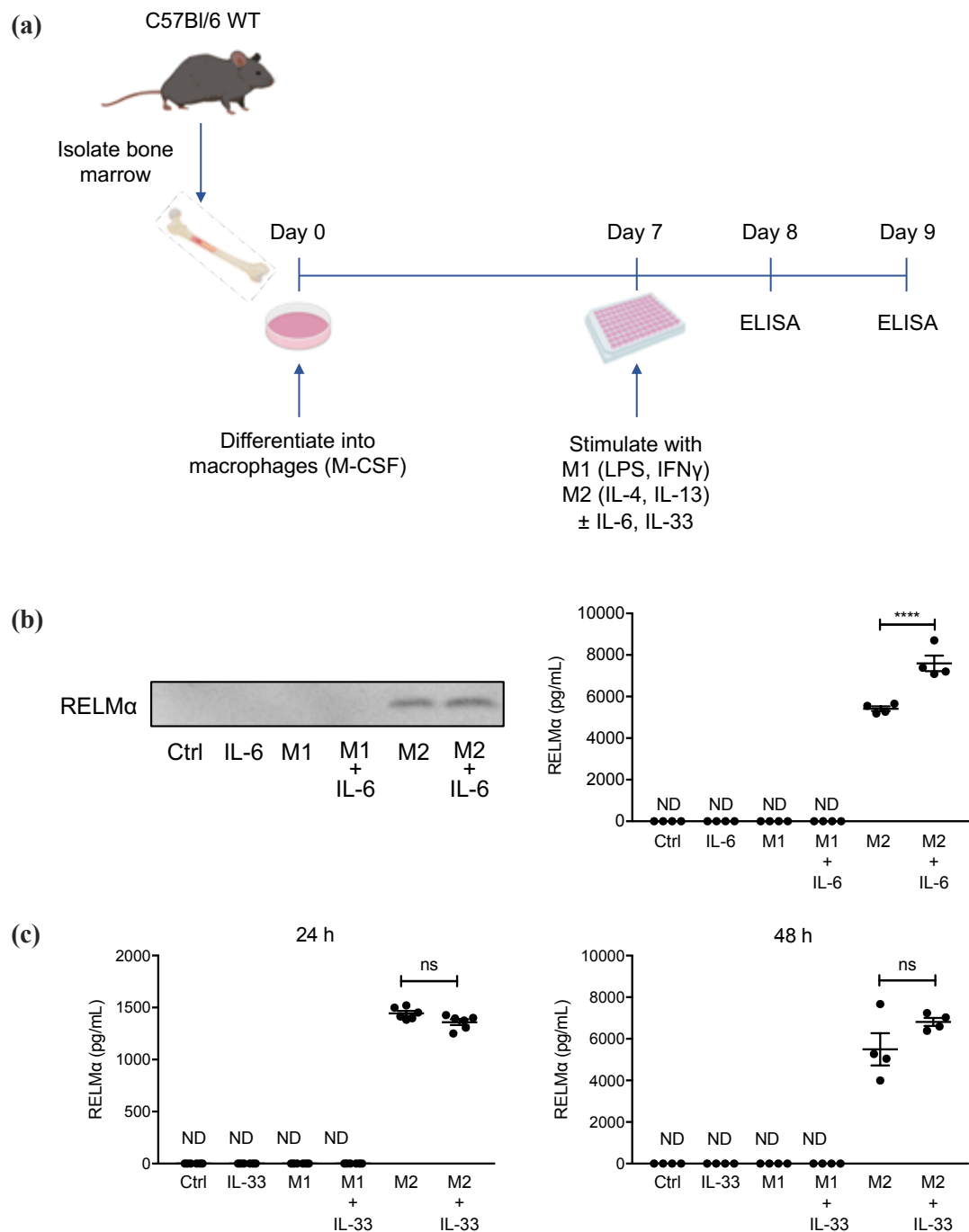
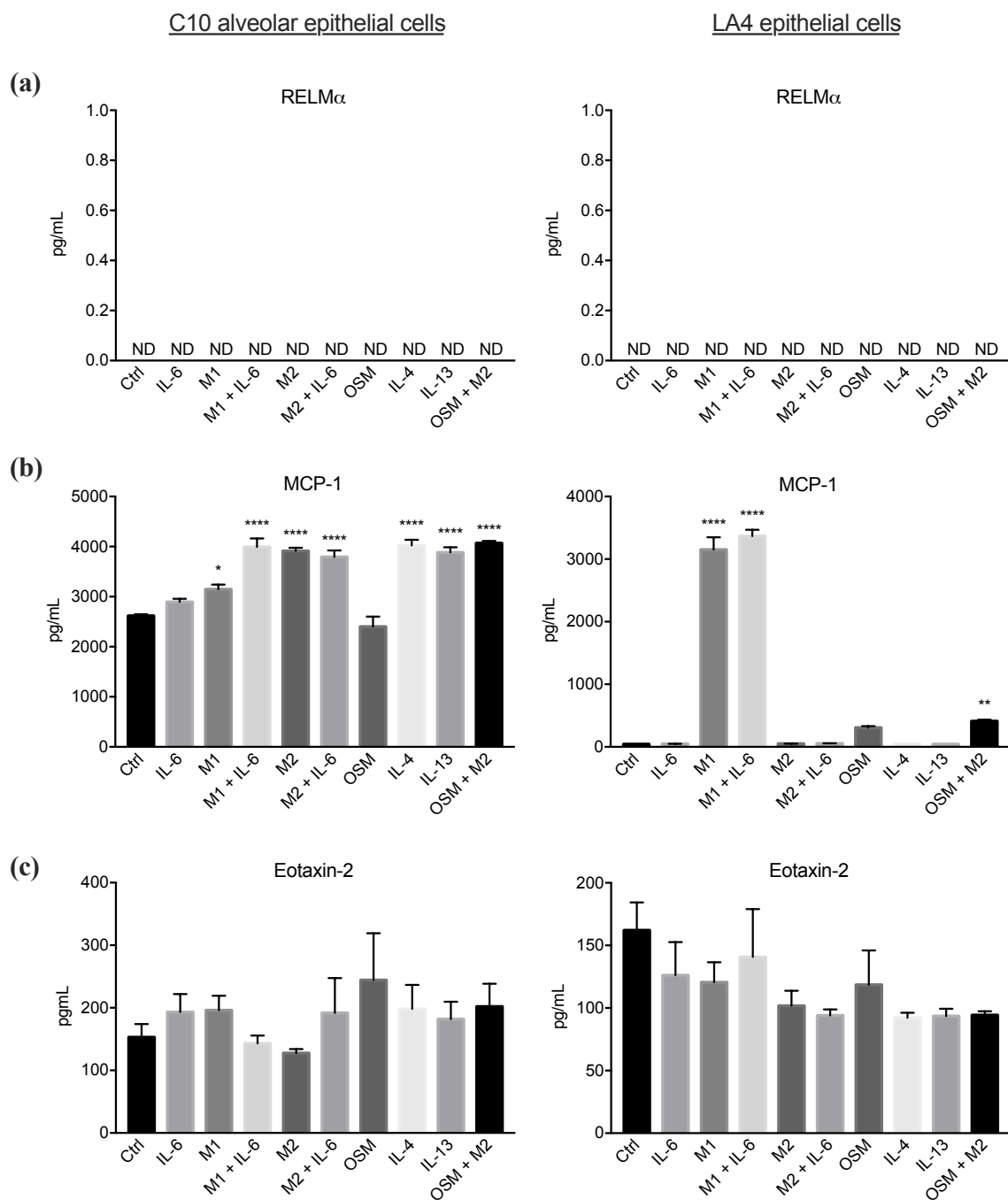
Figure 9

Figure 10. Stimulation of C10 and LA4 alveolar epithelial cell lines. C10 alveolar epithelial cells (left panels) and LA4 epithelial cells (right panels) were stimulated with LPS/IFN γ (CA/M1 stimulus) or IL-4/IL-13 (AA/M2 stimulus), alone or in combination with IL-6 and OSM (as indicated) for 24 h. **(a)** RELM α protein in culture supernatants were assessed by ELISA but were not detectable. **(b)** MCP-1 and **(c)** eotaxin-2 in culture supernatants were also measured by ELISA as an assessment of cell responsiveness. Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM ($n = 4$ /group). Statistical significance determined by one-way ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc test (* $P < 0.01$, ** $P < 0.01$, **** $P < 0.0001$ relative to control).

Figure 10

CHAPTER 5: EFFECT OF RELM α IN OSM-INDUCED LUNG

INFLAMMATION

Although RELM α has been implicated in mouse models of allergic airway inflammation, pulmonary fibrosis, and parasitic infection, its biological function remains unclear [52,60,69]. To address the role of RELM α in our model of lung inflammation, wildtype and RELM $\alpha^{-/-}$ C57Bl/6 mice were endotracheally administered PBS, AdDel70, or AdOSM. Mice were culled 7 days later, at which the OSM-induced effects reached its peak. RELM α mRNA expression in whole lung homogenates was measured by NanoString analysis (**Figure 11a**), RELM α levels in BAL fluid (**Figure 11b**) and serum (**Figure 11c**) were measured by ELISA, and RELM α protein in whole lung homogenates were measured by Western blot (**Figure 11d**). In all three assay systems, RELM α mRNA and protein were not present at detectable levels in naïve, AdDel70-treated or AdOSM-treated RELM $\alpha^{-/-}$ mice, but markedly upregulated by AdOSM in wildtype animals in comparison to control animals.

Total OSM mRNA in whole lung and protein in BAL fluid were also measured to confirm overexpression of the cytokine in AdOSM-treated animals. The absence of RELM α did not affect overexpression of adenovirus-encoded OSM mRNA or protein in whole lung (**Figure 12a, left panel**) or BAL fluid (**Figure 12c**) as assessed by NanoString or ELISA, respectively. In addition, the absence of RELM α did not alter mRNA expression of OSMR β (**Figure 12a, right panel**) as assessed by NanoString analysis. Viral and endogenous OSM

in whole lung were also measured by RT-PCR (**Figure 12b**), and mRNA expression of viral OSM showed similar trends as total OSM expression assessed by NanoString analysis. Of note, viral and endogenous OSM mRNA expression were measured on separate PCR plates and cannot be compared directly. Serum OSM levels were also measured by ELISA but were not detectable in any of the treatments (**Figure 12d**).

Cells were recovered from BAL fluid, cytocentrifuged and stained for differential cell analysis. Macrophage, eosinophil, neutrophil, and lymphocyte populations were counted as an indication of immune cell infiltration upon adenovirus infection. Consistent with previous findings [40], AdOSM-treated wildtype mice demonstrated accumulation of eosinophils, lymphocytes, and neutrophils in BAL fluid in comparison to naïve or AdDel70-treated animals (**Figure 13**). However, RELM α -deficiency did not affect the accumulation of these immune cell populations detected at day 7. Interestingly, differential cell counts in BAL fluid revealed an additional population of cells that morphologically appeared to be dead cells (**Figure 14a**). This population was enumerated and designated as “dead cells” (**Figure 14b**). These cells were observed at significantly higher counts in RELM $\alpha^{-/-}$ mice treated with AdOSM in comparison to wildtype controls. To examine possible indicators of cell death, a lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) assay was performed on BAL fluid. This assay measures the release of the enzyme LDH as an indication of necrosis since necrotic cells are characterized by membrane permeabilization. In naïve and AdDel70-treated wildtype and RELM $\alpha^{-/-}$ mice, LDH levels were similar to the background signal (PBS alone) (**Figure 14c**). The levels of LDH in BAL fluid were significantly

increased in wildtype animals treated with AdOSM, and was further enhanced in RELM α ^{-/-} mice.

Based on *in vitro* experiments, we show that RELM α can be expressed by BMDMs (**Figure 9**). Next, we examined whether RELM α could be expressed by macrophages in the lung. Lung tissues harvested at day 7 post-infection were analyzed by CISH and stained for RELM α and CD68, a marker of macrophages. As expected, RELM α mRNA was not detected in knockout mouse sections (**Figure 15a, lower panels**). CD68⁺ RELM α ⁻ cells were found throughout the parenchyma across all treatments. RELM α ⁺ CD68⁻ cells were found in the airway epithelium of naïve and AdDel70-treated wildtype lung sections, and upon AdOSM infection, cells in the lung parenchyma and airway epithelium highly expressed RELM α mRNA (**Figure 15a, upper panels**). In the lung parenchyma of AdOSM-treated wildtype mice, CD68⁺ RELM α ⁺ macrophages were also observed, as demonstrated by colocalization of both stains (**Figure 15b, left panel**).

Lung tissue sections were also stained for RELM α and IL-33 by CISH. In AdDel70-treated wildtype lungs, RELM α mRNA expression was observed in some cells of the airway epithelium, whereas IL-33 mRNA was localized to cells of the lung parenchyma (**Figure 16, upper panel**). After AdOSM treatment, columnar airway epithelial cells highly expressed RELM α mRNA, as well as cells in the lung parenchyma (**Figure 16, lower panel**). IL-33⁺ cells were observed in the basement membrane of the airway epithelium and

also throughout the lung parenchyma. RELM α ⁺ IL-33⁺ cells could also be seen distributed throughout the lung parenchyma, as demonstrated by colocalized of both stains.

We next examined whether RELM α would affect the accumulation of AA/M2 macrophages in lungs treated with AdOSM by flow cytometry. Macrophages were classified as CD45⁺ (hematopoietic cell marker), F4/80⁺ (macrophage marker), and either CD206⁺ (AA/M2 macrophage marker) or CD38⁺ (CA/M1 macrophage marker). Similar to previous observations [40], AdOSM induced the accumulation of CD206⁺ CD38⁻ AA/M2 macrophages in the lung at day 7 (**Figure 17b**), and CD38⁺ CD206⁻ CA/M1 macrophages also accumulated in the lung following AdOSM treatment (**Figure 17c**). In the absence of RELM α , there was approximately 60% reduction in total numbers of CD206⁺ AA/M2 macrophages in the AdOSM group in comparison to wildtype counterparts, whereas there was no significant effect of RELM α -deficiency on CD38⁺ CA/M1 macrophage accumulation.

Th1 cells were identified through flow cytometry as CD45⁺, CD3⁺ (T cell marker), CD4⁺ (T helper cell marker), and IFN γ ⁺ (Th1 cell marker). At day 7, AdOSM markedly induced the accumulation of IFN γ -producing Th1 cells in the lungs of both wildtype and RELM α ^{-/-} mice, with 40% fewer total IFN γ ⁺ Th1 cells in knockout animals in comparison to wildtypes (**Figure 18b, right panel**). In correlation with the IFN γ ⁺ Th1 cell population as assessed by flow cytometry, IFN γ mRNA in total lung was upregulated, albeit to a low extent (2-fold), by AdOSM treatment in wildtype animals, but in RELM α ^{-/-} mice its gene

expression was similar across all treatment groups (**Supplementary Figure 1**). Other genes associated with Th1 inflammation (IFN β , IFNAR, and IFIT1) were not differentially expressed between wildtype and RELM $\alpha^{-/-}$ mice in whole lung, as assessed by NanoString analysis (**Supplementary Figure 1**).

We did not observe significant changes of Th2-associated inflammatory cytokine mRNA expression as a result of RELM α -deficiency (**Figure 19**). AdOSM upregulated similar levels of MCP-1, IL-4, IL-5, IL-6, and IL-33 mRNA after 7 days in both wildtype and RELM $\alpha^{-/-}$ mice. mRNA expression of IL-4R α were similar across all treatments (**Supplementary Figure 1**). Consistent with our previous findings [40], AdOSM induced Arg1 mRNA, but its expression was significantly reduced in the absence of RELM α . Together with flow cytometry of CD206 $^{+}$ macrophages (**Figure 17**), this suggests a potential role for RELM α in maximizing the accumulation of AA/M2 macrophages.

We have previously demonstrated that pulmonary overexpression of OSM can induce ECM deposition in C57Bl/6 mice. We therefore examined the role of RELM α in OSM-induced ECM accumulation by analysis of gene expression. Consistent with our previous findings [14], genes implicated in ECM remodeling COL1A1, COL3A1, MMP13, and TIMP1 were upregulated in lungs of AdOSM-treated wildtype mice at day 7 (**Figure 20**). Similar trends were observed in RELM $\alpha^{-/-}$ mice; however, expression of these genes was significantly reduced in the absence of RELM α , suggesting that ECM accumulation induced by OSM may be regulated in part through RELM α .

Protein expression of cell signaling molecules and cytokines were analyzed by Western blot. Whole lung homogenates from wildtype and RELM $\alpha^{-/-}$ mice treated with AdOSM or AdDel70 were probed for pSTAT3, Arg1, IL-33, cytokeratin 18 (CK18), and actin as the loading control (**Figure 21a**). Densitometric analysis of signals (**Figure 21b**) showed that pSTAT3, IL-33, and CK18 were induced in AdOSM treatments relative to AdDel70-treated controls, but were not differentially detected between wildtype and RELM $\alpha^{-/-}$ mice, consistent with IL-33 mRNA expression (**Figure 19**). Arg1 protein expression in AdOSM-treated RELM $\alpha^{-/-}$ mice were lower than in wildtype mice, however this was not statistically significant due to variability within treatment groups, but similar to trends detected at the mRNA level by NanoString analysis (**Figure 19**). CK18 in BAL fluid was analyzed by Western blot and signals were quantified by densitometry (**Figure 21c, d**) and normalized to Ym1 levels in BAL fluid since levels were consistent in both AdOSM-treated wildtype and RELM $\alpha^{-/-}$ mice (**Figure 22**). CK18 levels in BAL fluid of RELM $\alpha^{-/-}$ mice were markedly elevated in comparison to wildtype mice treated with AdOSM.

BAL fluid was assessed by ELISA for proteins elevated in Th2 inflammation including Ym1, eotaxin-2, and IL-5 (**Figure 22**). In addition to RELM α , Ym1 is another protein that is widely recognized as a marker of AA/M2 macrophages [65]. In naïve and AdDel70-treated wildtype and RELM $\alpha^{-/-}$ mice, Ym1 was detected at basal levels of ~500 ng/mL. Upon AdOSM treatment, Ym1 was significantly induced to as high as ~6000 ng/mL, however the absence of RELM α did not alter OSM-induced Ym1. Similar trends were observed with eotaxin-2, where low levels were detected by ELISA in naïve and AdDel70-

treated mice, and AdOSM induced similar levels of eotaxin-2 in both wildtype and RELM $\alpha^{-/-}$ mice. IL-5 protein levels in BAL fluid were not statistically different across treatments.

Lung tissue sections from AdDel70- and AdOSM-treated wildtype and RELM $\alpha^{-/-}$ mice were examined by histological analyses to determine the effects of RELM α on cell proliferation, goblet cell hyperplasia, and accumulation of α SMA. Formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded lung tissue sections stained with H&E showed thickening of the airway epithelium in AdOSM-treated wildtype mouse lungs, which was reduced in RELM α -deficient animals (**Figure 23a**, high magnification images of AdOSM-treated lung sections shown in **Figure 24a**). These sections were stained with the cell proliferation marker Ki67 to determine whether airway thickness was due to increased proliferating epithelial cells, however, there did not appear to be obvious differences in Ki67⁺ cells in the epithelium between wildtype and RELM $\alpha^{-/-}$ mice at day 7 (**Figure 23b**). Quantification of Ki67⁺ cells in these sections did show that AdOSM-treated lungs had a greater proportion of Ki67⁺ cells around the airways and throughout the lung parenchyma, whereas in the absence of RELM α there was a significant reduction in proliferating cells (**Figure 23e**). PAS staining, an indicator of mucous-producing goblet cells, indicated increased numbers of goblet cells in the epithelium of AdOSM-treated mouse lungs, however we did not observe striking differences between wildtype and RELM $\alpha^{-/-}$ animals (**Figure 23c**). Lung tissues were stained for α SMA (**Figure 23d**), and analysis of parenchymal cells in entire lung sections, excluding major airways and blood vessels, revealed that AdOSM induced the

accumulation of α SMA⁺ cells in the lung parenchyma of wildtype mice (**Figure 23f**, entire lung tissue sections of AdOSM-treated lungs shown in **Figure 24b**). In RELM α ^{-/-} mice treated with AdOSM there were significantly less α SMA⁺ staining. These sections were also stained for PSR as an assessment of collagen accumulation (**Figure 24c**), however at day 7 in preliminary examination, not quantified, we did not observe striking differences in PSR staining between wildtype and RELM α ^{-/-} mouse lungs.

Other studies have shown that among the RELM family of proteins, RELM α lacks a cysteine residue in the N-terminus which is responsible for forming disulfide bonds and higher order (hexamer) complex formations by resistin and RELM β [66,86]. Day 7 BAL fluid from AdDel70-treated wildtype and AdOSM-treated wildtype and RELM α ^{-/-} mice were analyzed by Western blot under reducing and non-reducing conditions to examine structural properties of RELM α . Under reducing conditions, a single band for RELM α was detected at the expected size (~9.4 kDa) in BAL fluid from AdOSM-treated wildtype mice, but under non-reducing conditions RELM α signal was detected as multiple bands ranging from 10-70 kDa, which were absent in BAL fluid of AdOSM-treated RELM α ^{-/-} mice (**Figure 25**).

Since RELM α has not been identified in humans yet, and RELM β is the closest human homolog for murine RELM α , we examined whether mouse RELM β was regulated in our model of OSM-mediated lung inflammation. Similar to RELM α mRNA expression in whole lung, RELM β was expressed at low levels in AdDel70-treated wildtype and IL-33-

^{-/-} mice, assessed by RT-PCR. In wildtype C57Bl/6 mice, AdOSM upregulated RELM β expression at day 7 and in the absence of IL-33, its expression was reduced (**Supplementary Figure 2a, left panel**). A similar trend was observed in AdOSM-treated wildtype BALB/c mice, but RELM β expression was not altered in IL-33^{-/-} BALB/c mice (**Supplementary Figure 2a, right panel**).

In the experiment assessing wildtype vs RELM α ^{-/-} mice, RELM β mRNA expression was markedly upregulated in whole lung extracts of AdOSM-treated wildtype C57Bl/6 mice, assessed by NanoString analysis, consistent with **Supplementary Figure 2a, left panel** assessed by TaqMan® assay. In RELM α ^{-/-} mice treated with AdOSM, RELM β was induced to a much lower extent than in wildtype counterparts at day 7 (**Supplementary Figure 2b**). Lung tissue sections from AdDel70- and AdOSM-treated wildtype and RELM α ^{-/-} mice at day 7 were analyzed by CISH and stained for OSM and RELM β mRNA. OSM⁺ cells could be observed in some cells of the airway epithelium and throughout the lung parenchyma in AdOSM-treated mouse lung sections (**Supplementary Figure 2c, lower panels**). RELM β ⁺ cells were localized in the airway epithelium, and unlike RELM α , parenchymal cells did not express RELM β . We could not detect OSM and RELM β mRNA colocalization.

Figure 11. RELM α expression in wildtype and RELM $\alpha^{-/-}$ mice. Wildtype and RELM $\alpha^{-/-}$ mice were endotracheally administered PBS, AdDel70 or AdOSM. **(a)** Total lung mRNA expression of RELM α 7 days post-infection analyzed by NanoString Technologies. Gene expression levels are normalized to housekeeping genes ACTB and PGK1. RELM α protein in **(b)** BAL fluid and **(c)** serum were quantified by ELISA. Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM ($n = 5$ mice/group). Statistical significance was determined by two-way ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc test (**** $P < 0.0001$ between indicated groups). **(d)** Total lung homogenates were probed by Western blot for RELM α protein. Each lane (dot) indicates sample extracts from separate mouse lungs. ($n = 3-4$ mice/group). *(ELISAs performed by Ashley Yip. Submitted to Journal of Leukocyte Biology in the manuscript entitled "RELM α is induced by Oncostatin M in vivo and modulates extracellular matrix and cytoprotection in mouse lung inflammation.")*

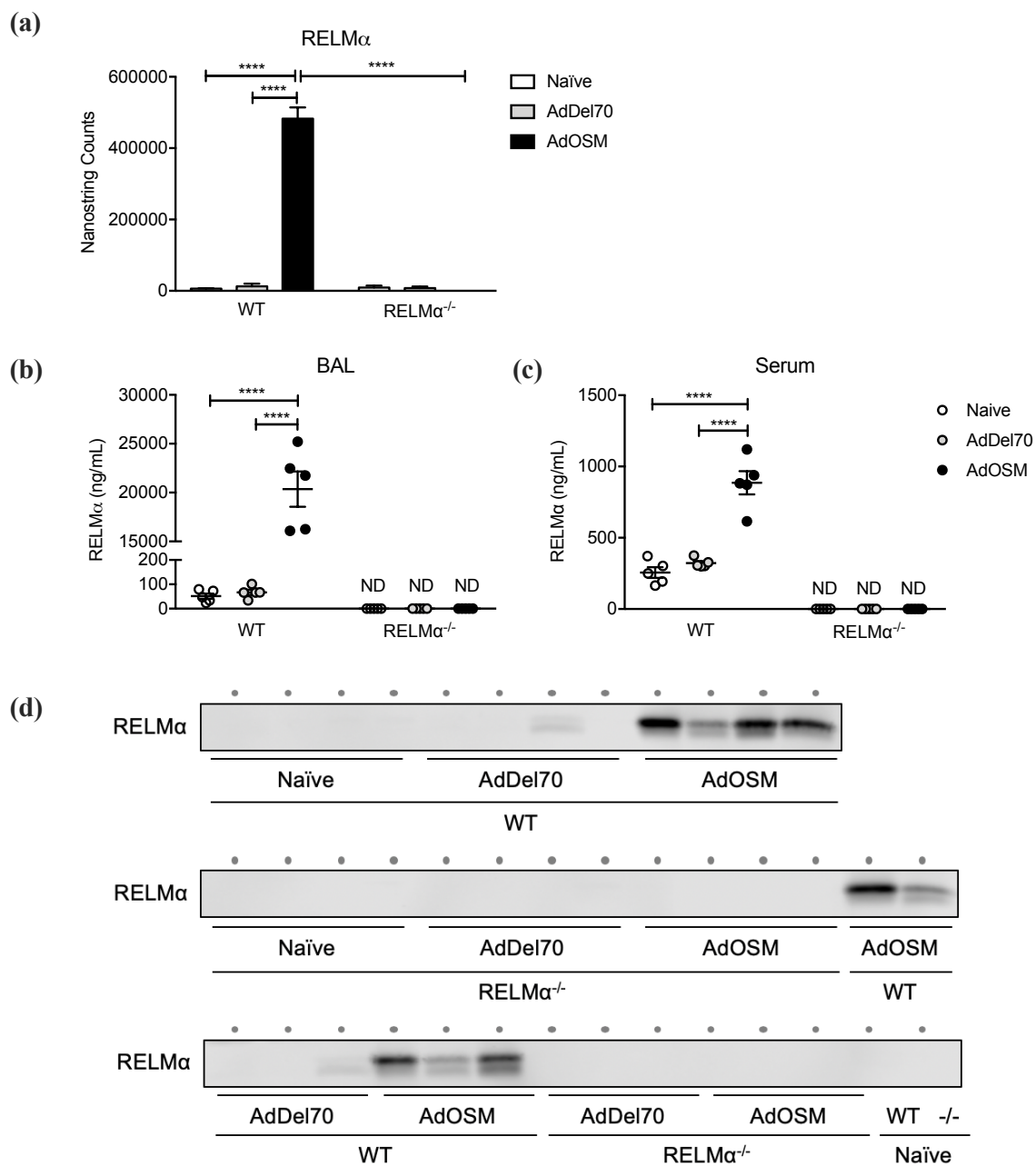
Figure 11

Figure 12. RELM α -deficiency does not alter OSM overexpression by AdOSM vector.

(a) Total lung mRNA expression of OSM and OSMR β 7 days post adenovirus infection, analyzed by NanoString Technologies. Gene expression levels are normalized to housekeeping genes ACTB and PGK1. **(b)** Viral and endogenous OSM mRNA expression analyzed by RT-PCR. mRNA levels are expressed relative to 18S ribosomal RNA. **(c)** OSM protein in BAL fluid were quantified by ELISA, and was not detectable in naïve or AdDel70-treated animals. **(d)** OSM protein could not be detected in serum by ELISA. Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM ($n = 5$ mice/group). Statistical significance was determined by two-way ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc test (* $P < 0.05$, **** $P < 0.0001$ between indicated groups; § $P < 0.05$ relative to the limit of detection of the assay). (*ELISAs performed by Ashley Yip. Submitted to Journal of Leukocyte Biology in the manuscript entitled "RELM α is induced by Oncostatin M in vivo and modulates extracellular matrix and cytoprotection in mouse lung inflammation."*)

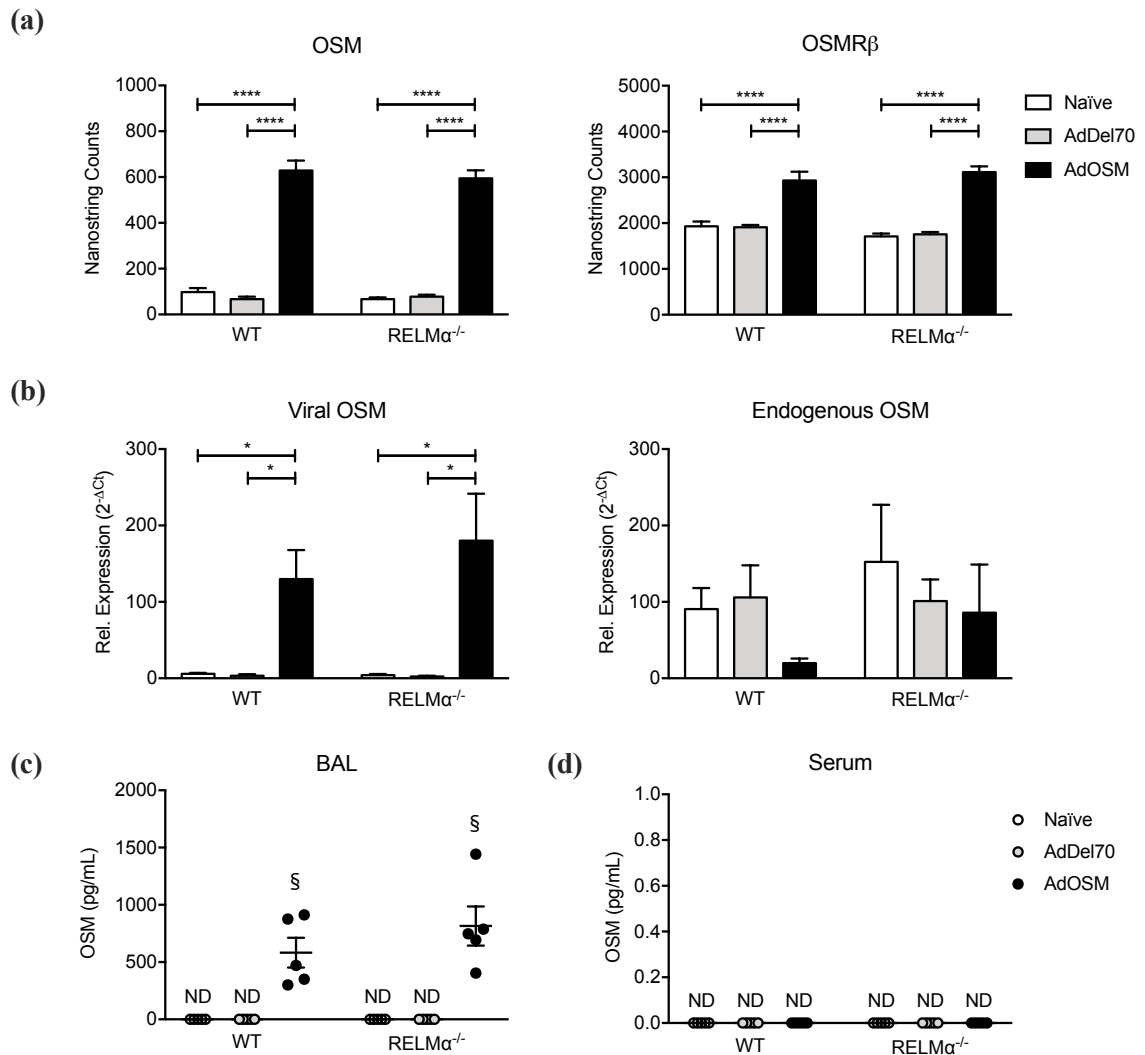
Figure 12

Figure 13. BAL fluid differential cell counts in naïve, AdDel70- and AdOSM-treated wildtype and RELM α ^{-/-} mice. 7 days post adenovirus infection with AdDel70 or AdOSM, cells recovered from BAL fluid were cytocentrifuged and stained with Hema-3 fixative. Macrophages, eosinophils, neutrophils and lymphocytes were enumerated in cytocentrifuge smears and shown as **(a)** total cells and **(b)** percentage of total BAL fluid cells. Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM ($n = 5$ mice/group). Statistical significance was determined by two-way ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc test (* $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$, **** $P < 0.0001$ between indicated groups). *(Figure 13a submitted to Journal of Leukocyte Biology in the manuscript entitled "RELM α is induced by Oncostatin M in vivo and modulates extracellular matrix and cytoprotection in mouse lung inflammation.")*

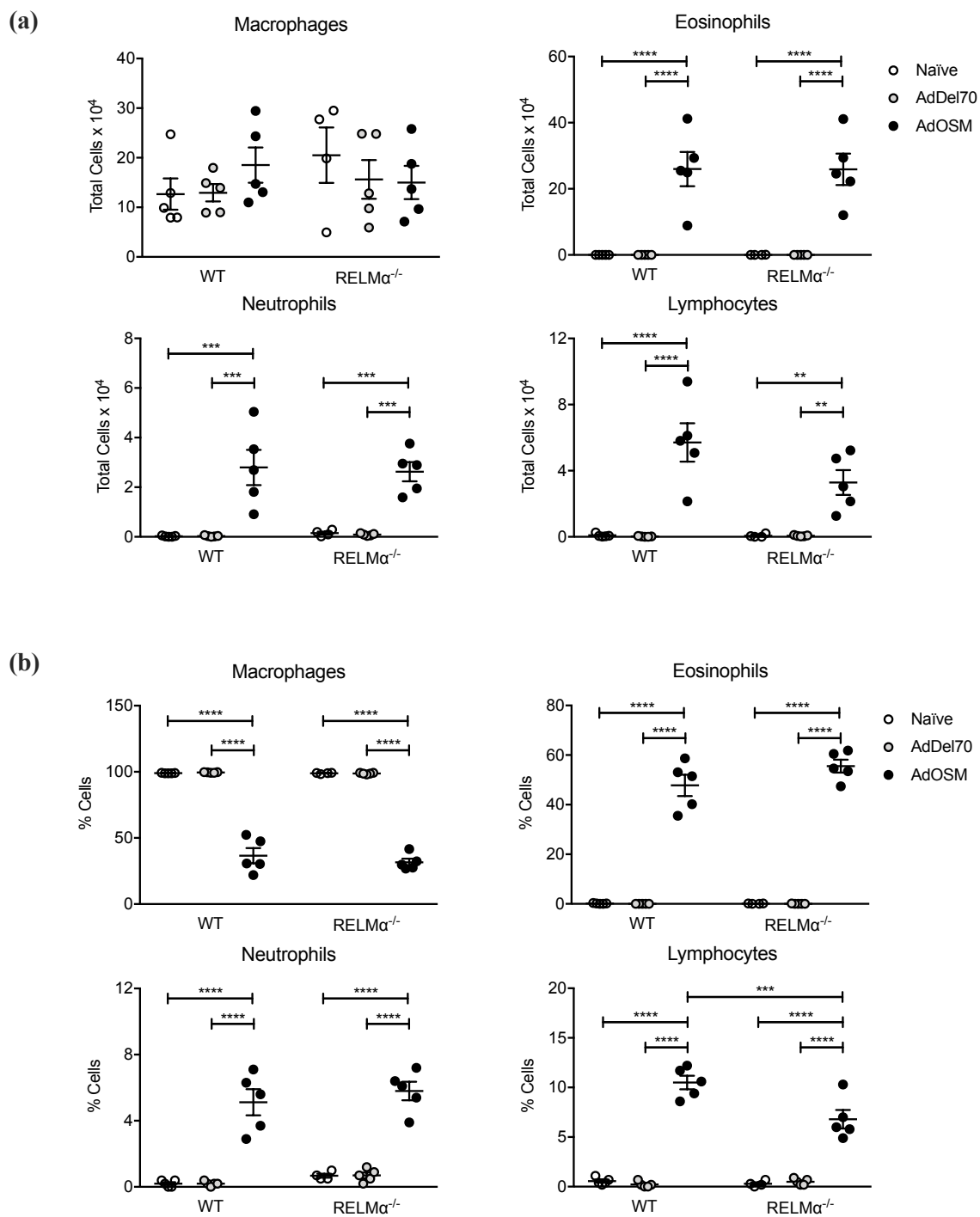
Figure 13

Figure 14. RELM α ^{-/-} mice may be more susceptible to cell death upon AdOSM treatment. Cells recovered from BAL fluid 7 days post adenovirus infection were cytocentrifuged and stained with Hema-3 fixative solutions. **(a)** Representative images of cytopspin slides from AdDel70- and AdOSM-treated wildtype and RELM α ^{-/-} mice. In the BAL fluid of AdOSM-treated RELM α ^{-/-} mice, we observed a subset of cells that morphologically appeared to be dead cells (red arrowheads). These cells were designated as “Dead cells” and quantified in **(b)**. **(c)** An LDH assay was performed on BAL fluid as a measure of cell death. Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM ($n = 5$ mice/group). Statistical significance was determined by two-way ANOVA with Tukey’s post hoc test (**** $P < 0.0001$ between indicated groups). *(LDH assay performed by Preksha Rathod. Submitted to Journal of Leukocyte Biology in the manuscript entitled “RELM α is induced by Oncostatin M in vivo and modulates extracellular matrix and cytoprotection in mouse lung inflammation.”)*

Figure 14

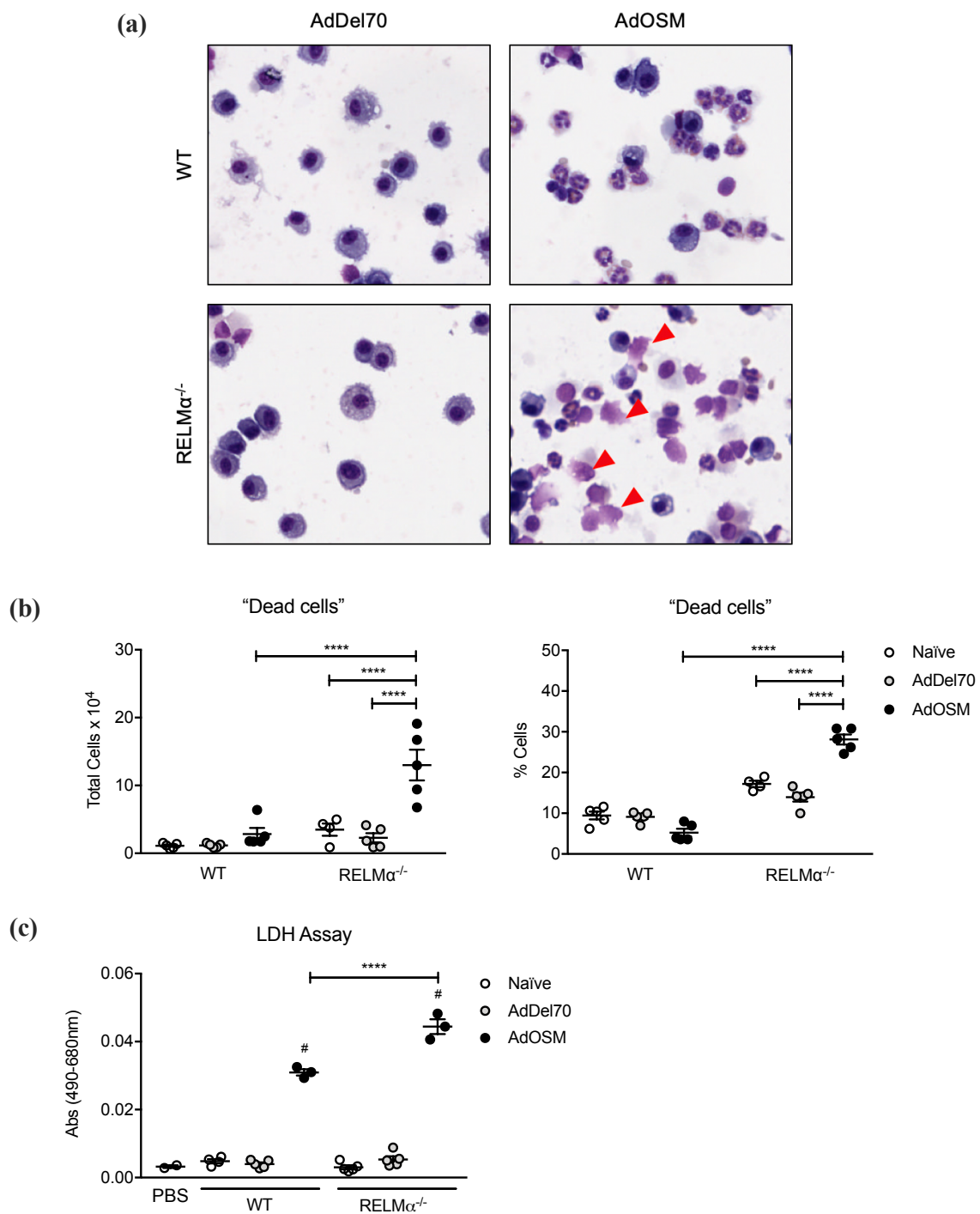


Figure 15. Colocalization of RELM α and CD68, a macrophage marker, in AdOSM-treated wildtype lung tissue. Representative images are shown of CISH for RELM α and CD68 in formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded lung tissue sections from naïve, AdDel70- or AdOSM-treated wildtype or RELM $\alpha^{-/-}$ mice (as indicated) at day 7. **(a)** RELM α (turquoise) and CD68 (red) mRNA signals shown as punctate dots unless at very high levels in which signals converge. **(b)** High magnification images of indicated regions from AdOSM-treated mouse lungs from **(a)**, and colocalization of both signals (yellow arrowheads) in wildtype mice. Scale bars, 50 μ m. ($n = 5$ mice/group). *(Submitted to Journal of Leukocyte Biology in the manuscript entitled “RELM α is induced by Oncostatin M in vivo and modulates extracellular matrix and cytoprotection in mouse lung inflammation.”)*

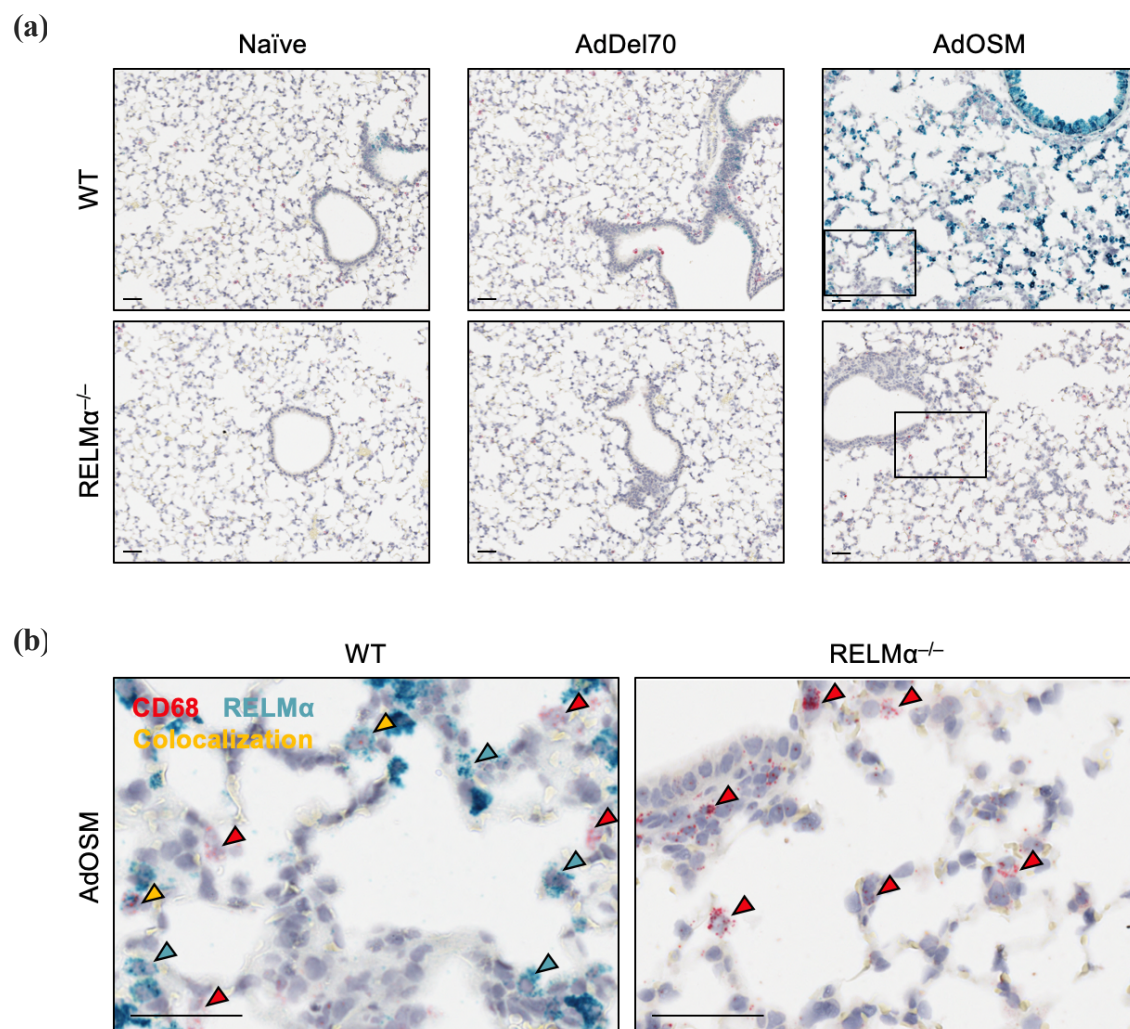
Figure 15

Figure 16. Colocalization of RELM α and IL-33 in AdOSM-treated wildtype lung tissue. Representative images of CISH for RELM α (turquoise) and IL-33 (red) in formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded lung tissue sections from AdDel70- and AdOSM-treated wildtype and RELM $\alpha^{-/-}$ C57Bl/6 mice 7 days post adenovirus infection. Colocalization of both signals is shown in AdOSM-treated wildtype lung sections (yellow arrowheads). Scale bars, 50 μ m. ($n = 5$ mice/group).

Figure 16

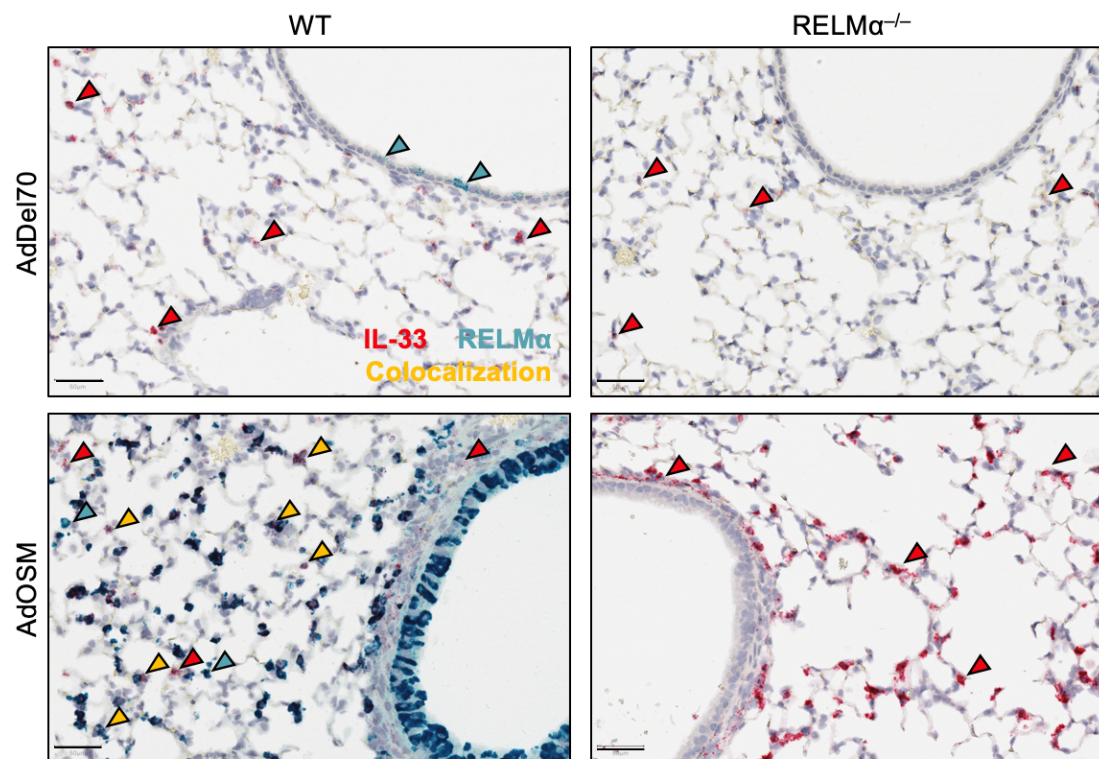


Figure 17. Reduced CD206⁺ alternatively activated macrophage numbers in total lung of AdOSM-treated RELM α ^{-/-} mice. Lung tissue cells were harvested 7 days post-infection and analyzed for macrophage accumulation by flow cytometry. Macrophages were identified as CD45⁺ F4/80⁺. **(a)** Representative FACS plots showing gating strategy of F4/80⁺ macrophages and percent and total **(b)** CD206⁺ AA/M2 macrophages or **(c)** CD38⁺ CA/M1 macrophages. Data are represented as mean \pm SEM ($n = 5$ mice/group). Statistical significance was determined by two-way ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc test (* $P < 0.05$, *** $P < 0.001$ between indicated groups). (*Submitted to Journal of Leukocyte Biology in the manuscript entitled "RELM α is induced by Oncostatin M in vivo and modulates extracellular matrix and cytoprotection in mouse lung inflammation."*)

Figure 17

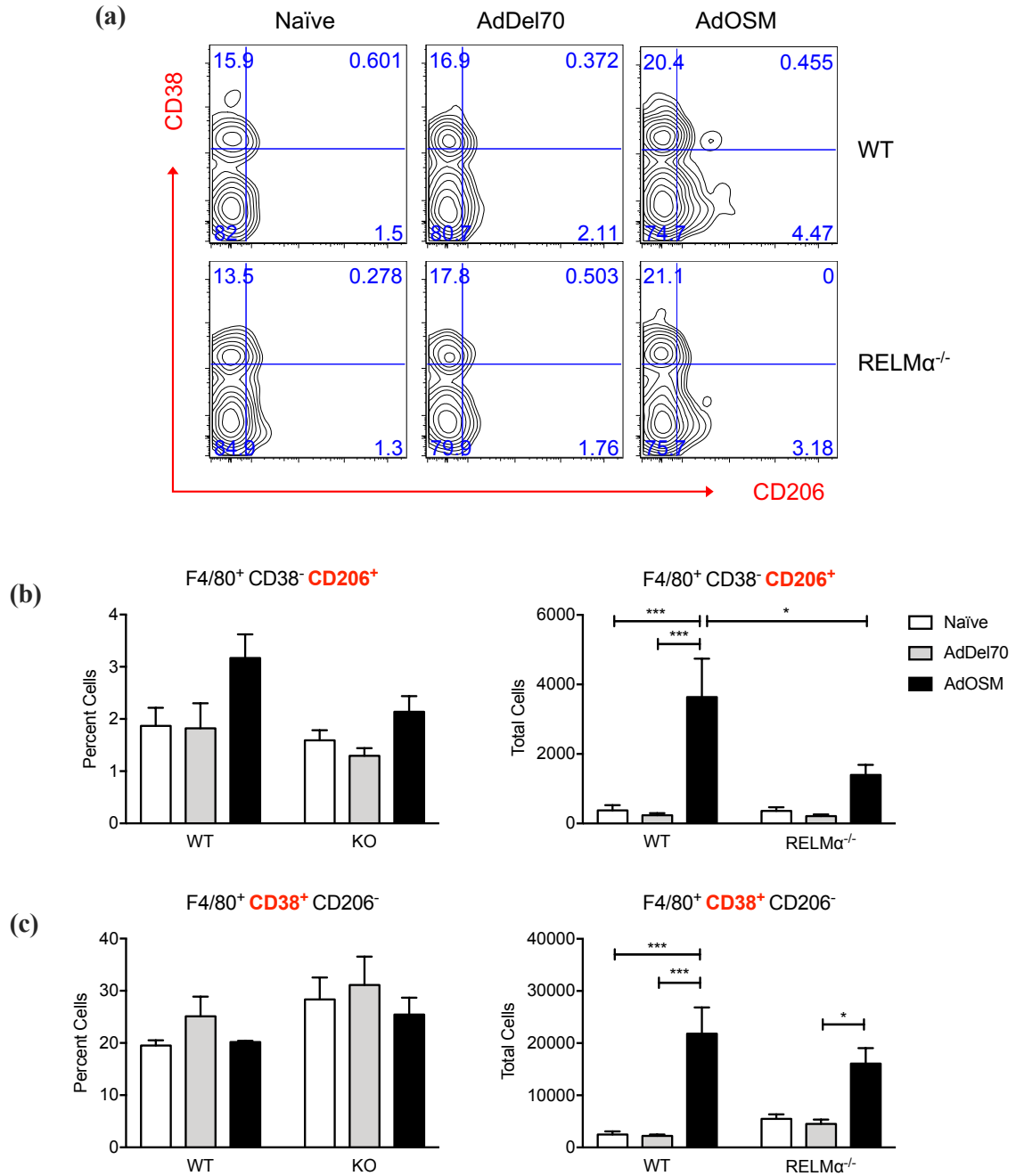


Figure 18. Reduced IFN γ -producing CD4⁺ Th1 cells in total lung of AdOSM-treated RELM α ^{-/-} mice. Lung tissue cells harvested 7 days post-infection were analyzed for T cell accumulation by flow cytometry. Cells were stimulated with PMA and ionomycin for 4 hours prior to flow cytometric analysis. Th cells were identified as CD45⁺ CD3⁺ CD19⁻ CD4⁺. **(a)** Representative FACS plots showing gating strategy and **(b)** percent and total IFN γ -producing CD4⁺ Th1 cells. Data are represented as mean \pm SEM ($n = 5$ mice/group). Statistical significance was determined by two-way ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc test (* $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$, **** $P < 0.0001$ between indicated groups). (*Submitted to Journal of Leukocyte Biology in the manuscript entitled "RELM α is induced by Oncostatin M in vivo and modulates extracellular matrix and cytoprotection in mouse lung inflammation."*)

Figure 18

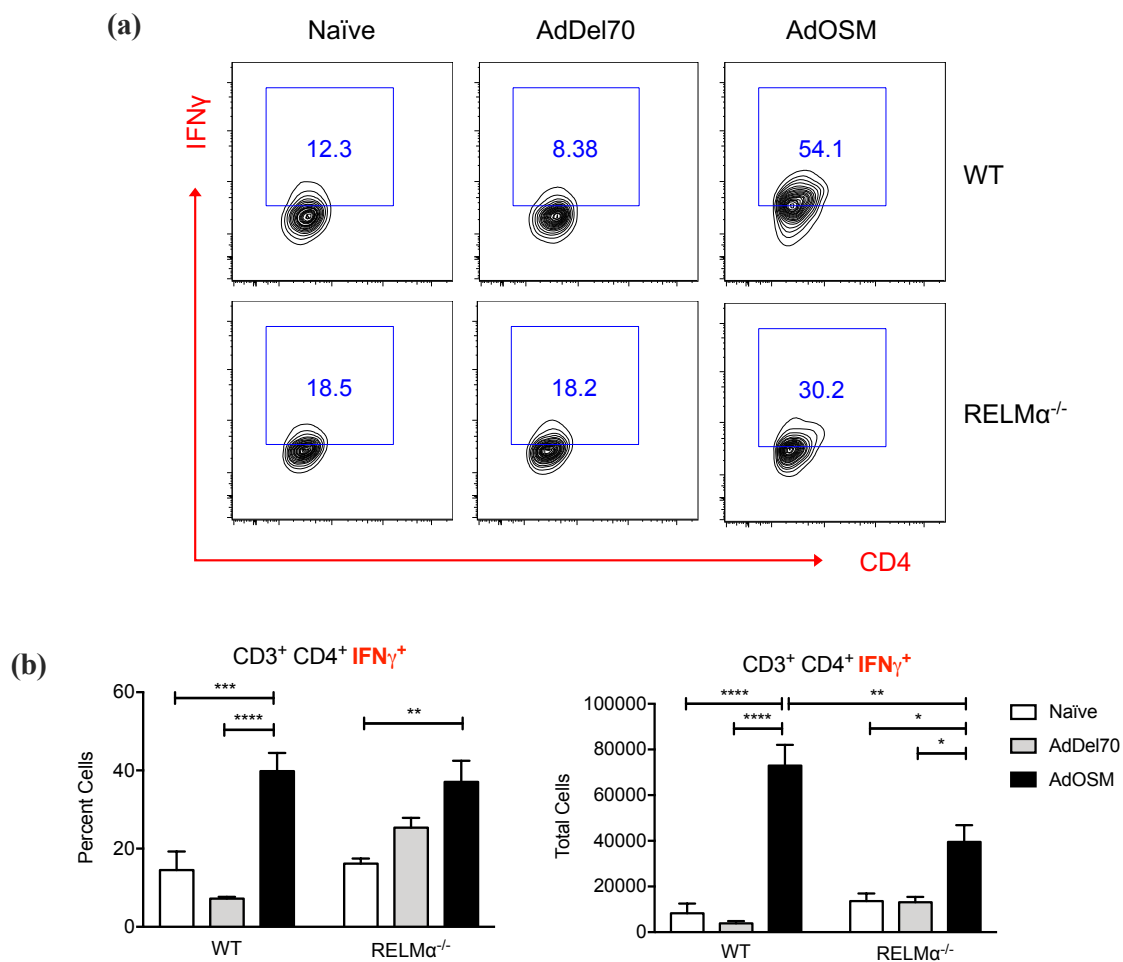


Figure 19. RELM α modulates gene expression of Arg1, but not of Th2-associated inflammatory cytokines. Total lung mRNA expression of inflammatory cytokines MCP-1, IL-4, IL-5, and IL-6, and Arg1 and IL-33, analyzed by NanoString Technologies 7 days post adenovirus infection. Gene expression levels are represented as NanoString counts and are normalized to housekeeping genes ACTB and PGK1. Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM ($n = 5$ mice/group). Statistical significance was determined by two-way ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc test (* $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$, **** $P < 0.0001$ between indicated groups).
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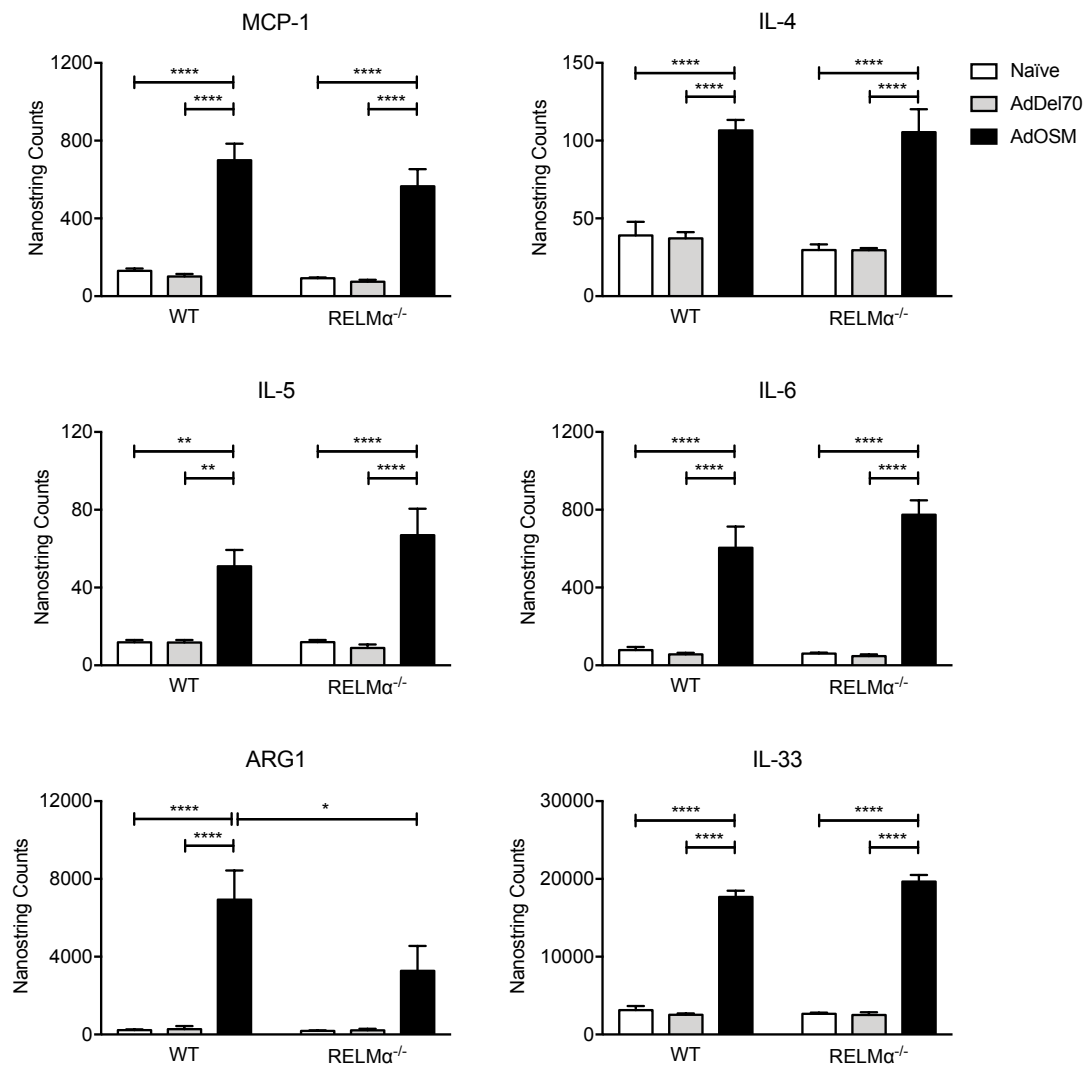
Figure 19

Figure 20. RELM α modulates gene expression of ECM proteins. Total lung mRNA expression of ECM genes analyzed by NanoString Technologies 7 days post-infection. Gene expression levels are represented as NanoString counts and are normalized to housekeeping genes ACTB and PGK1. Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM ($n = 5$ mice/group). Statistical significance was determined by two-way ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc test (* $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$, **** $P < 0.0001$ between indicated groups).
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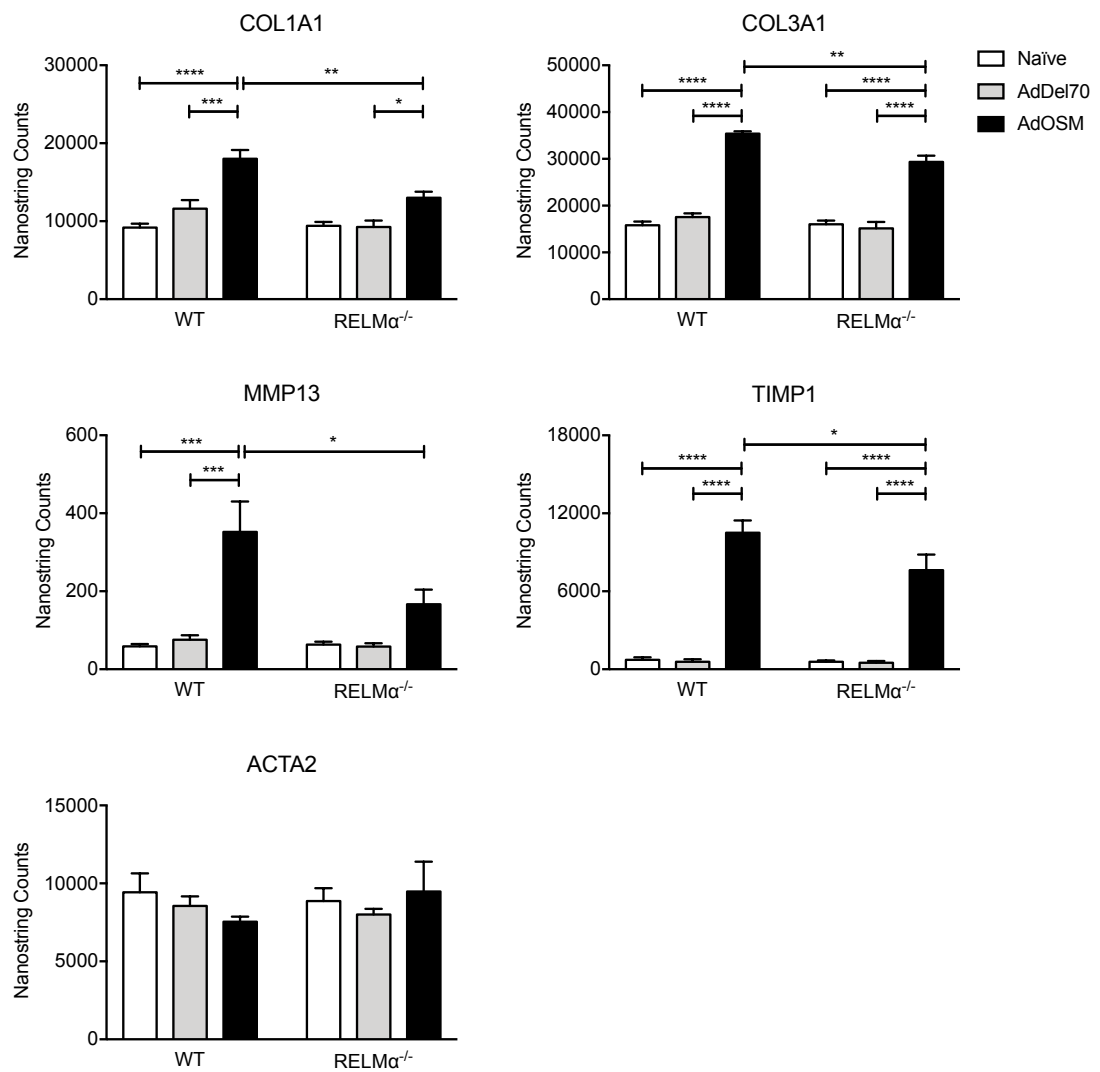
Figure 20

Figure 21. Protein expression in whole lung extracts and BAL fluid of AdOSM-treated wildtype and RELM α ^{-/-} mice. (a) Day 7 whole lung homogenates were analyzed by Western blot and probed for pSTAT3, Arg1, IL-33, and cytokeratin-18 (CK18), and actin as a loading control. **(b)** Signals in **(a)** were quantified by densitometry and corrected to actin. **(c)** Day 7 BAL fluid was analyzed by Western blot and probed for CK18. **(d)** Signals in **(c)** were quantified by densitometry and corrected to Ym1 levels in BAL fluid (Figure 22), and expressed as arbitrary units. Each lane (dot) indicates sample extracts from separate mouse lungs. ($n = 5$ mice/group). *(Submitted to Journal of Leukocyte Biology in the manuscript entitled “RELM α is induced by Oncostatin M in vivo and modulates extracellular matrix and cytoprotection in mouse lung inflammation.”)*

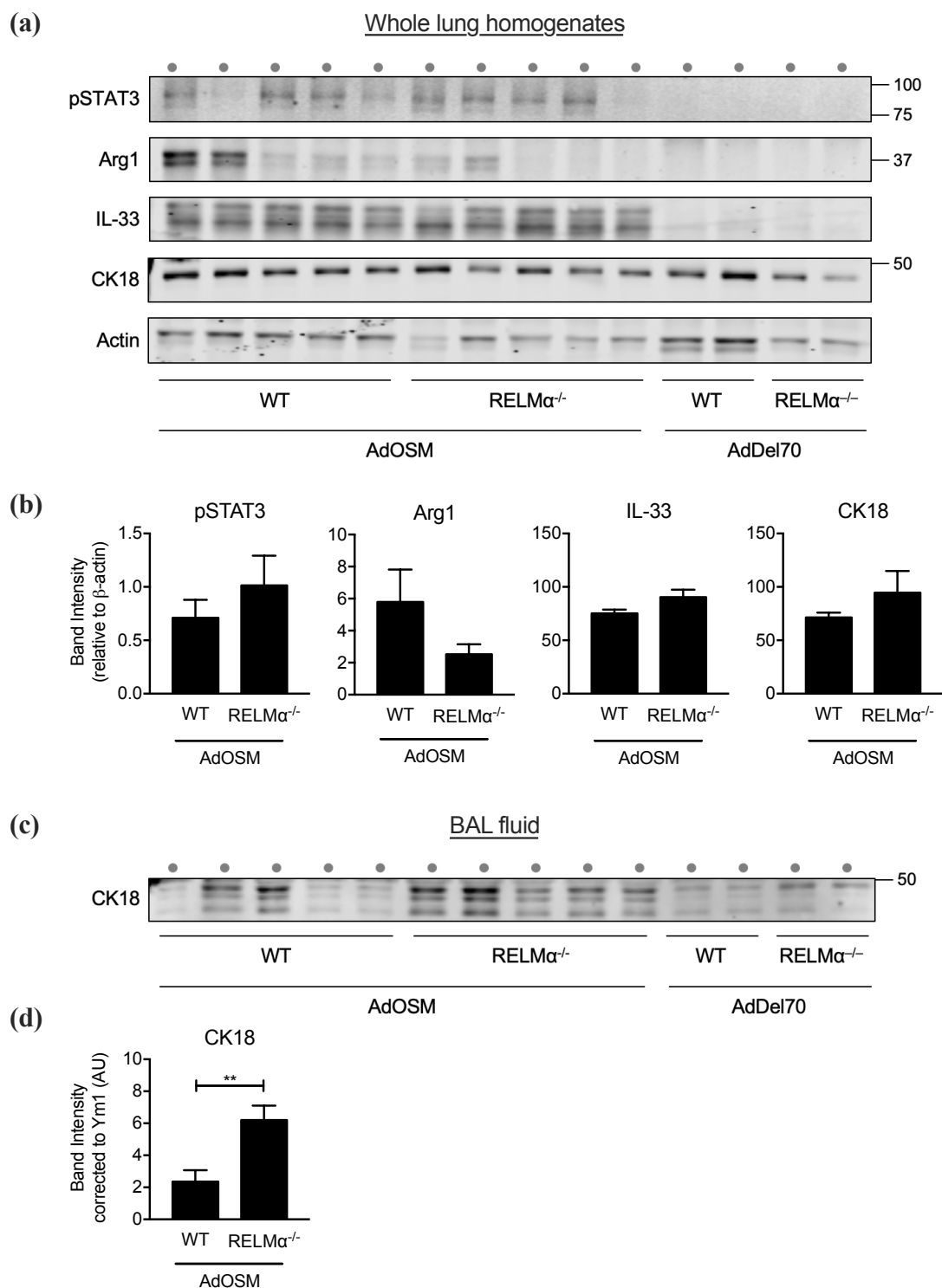
Figure 21

Figure 22. Ym1, eotaxin-2, and IL-5 protein in BAL fluid. BAL fluid from naïve, AdDel70- and AdOSM-treated wildtype and RELM $\alpha^{-/-}$ mice were analyzed by ELISA for the alternatively activated/M2 marker Ym1 and Th2-associated mediators eotaxin-2 and IL-5. Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM ($n = 5$ mice/group). Statistical significance was determined by two-way ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc test (* $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$, **** $P < 0.0001$ between indicated groups). (*Ym1 ELISA submitted to Journal of Leukocyte Biology in the manuscript entitled "RELM α is induced by Oncostatin M in vivo and modulates extracellular matrix and cytoprotection in mouse lung inflammation."*)

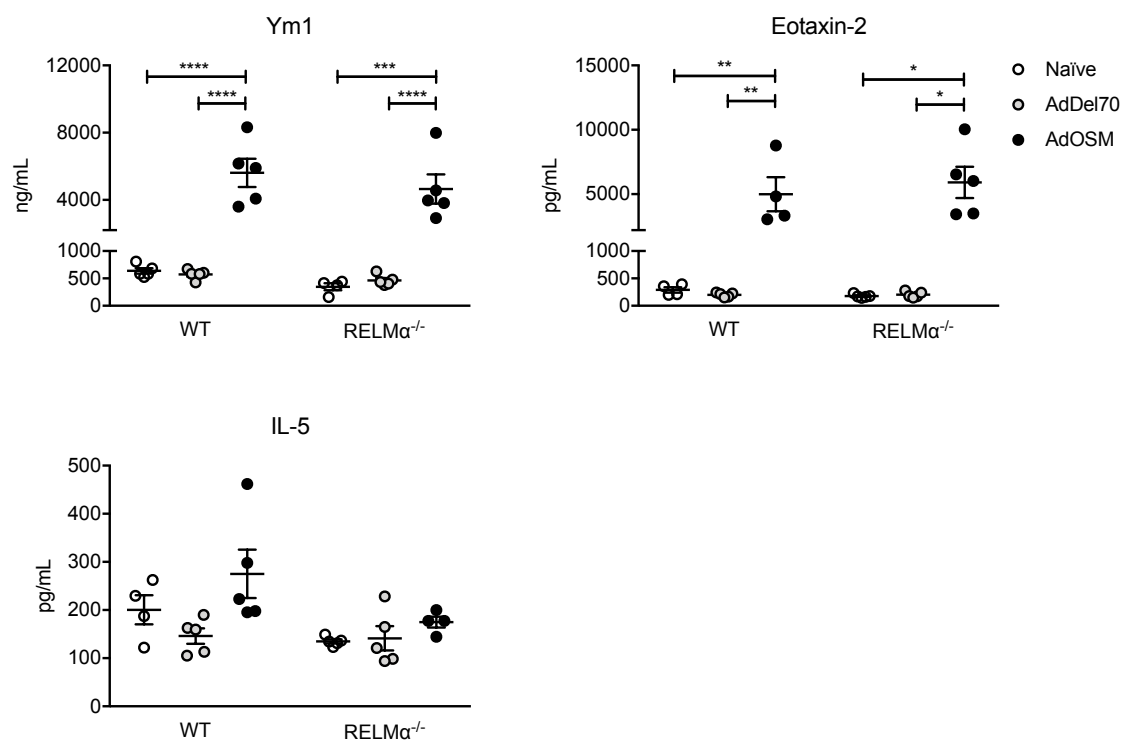
Figure 22

Figure 23. Histological analyses of formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded lung tissue from AdDel70- and AdOSM-treated wildtype and RELM α ^{-/-} mice. Lung sections were prepared from AdDel70- or AdOSM-treated wildtype or RELM α ^{-/-} mice as indicated. Representative images of lung tissue sections stained with (a) H&E, (b) Ki67 for proliferating cells, (c) PAS for mucous-producing goblet cells, and (d) α SMA. Scale bars, 100 μ m. (e) Quantification of % Ki67⁺ cells in the epithelium and parenchyma. (f) Quantification of % α SMA staining in the parenchyma per lung tissue section. Three sections were analyzed per mouse, excluding major airways and blood vessels. Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM ($n = 3-5$ mice/group). Statistical significance was determined by two-way ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc test ([#] $P < 0.001$ relative to controls, **** $P < 0.0001$ between indicated groups). *(Submitted to Journal of Leukocyte Biology in the manuscript entitled "RELM α is induced by Oncostatin M in vivo and modulates extracellular matrix and cytoprotection in mouse lung inflammation.")*

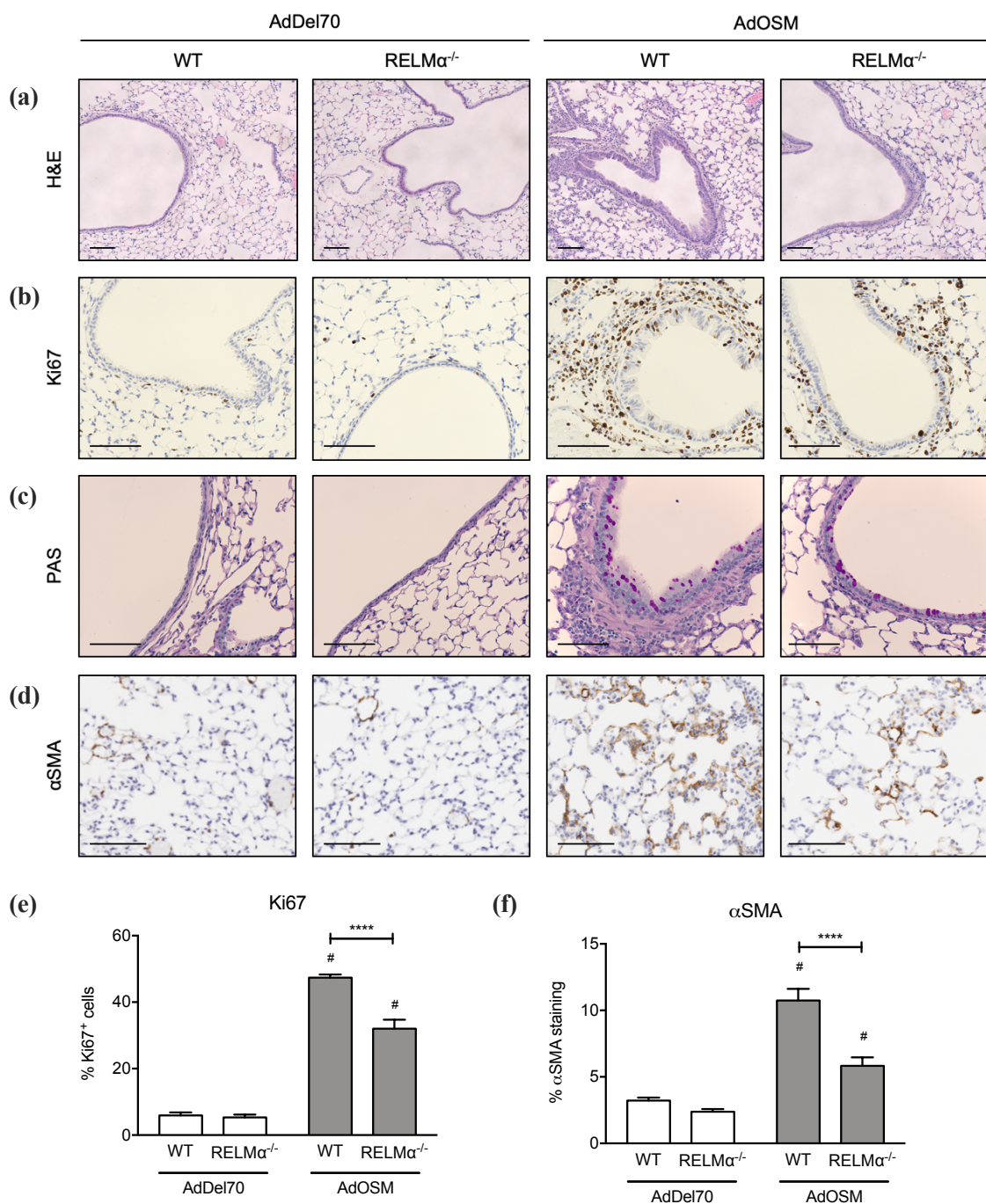
Figure 23

Figure 24. Representative images of H&E, α SMA, and PSR-stained lung tissue sections of AdOSM-treated animals. (a) High magnification images of H&E stained lung tissue sections from AdOSM-treated wildtype and RELM $\alpha^{-/-}$ mice, showing thickening of the airway epithelium in wildtype but not in RELM $\alpha^{-/-}$ mouse lungs. Scale bars, 50 μ m. **(b)** Representative images of entire lung sections from AdOSM-treated wildtype and RELM $\alpha^{-/-}$ mice stained with α SMA. Wildtype sections have a higher proportion of positive staining (brown). Scale bars, 1 mm. **(c)** Representative images of lung parenchyma stained with PSR, captured under polarized light, to show collagen accumulation in AdDel70- and AdOSM-treated wildtype and RELM $\alpha^{-/-}$ mice. Scale bars, 200 μ m. ($n = 5$ mice/group).

Figure 24

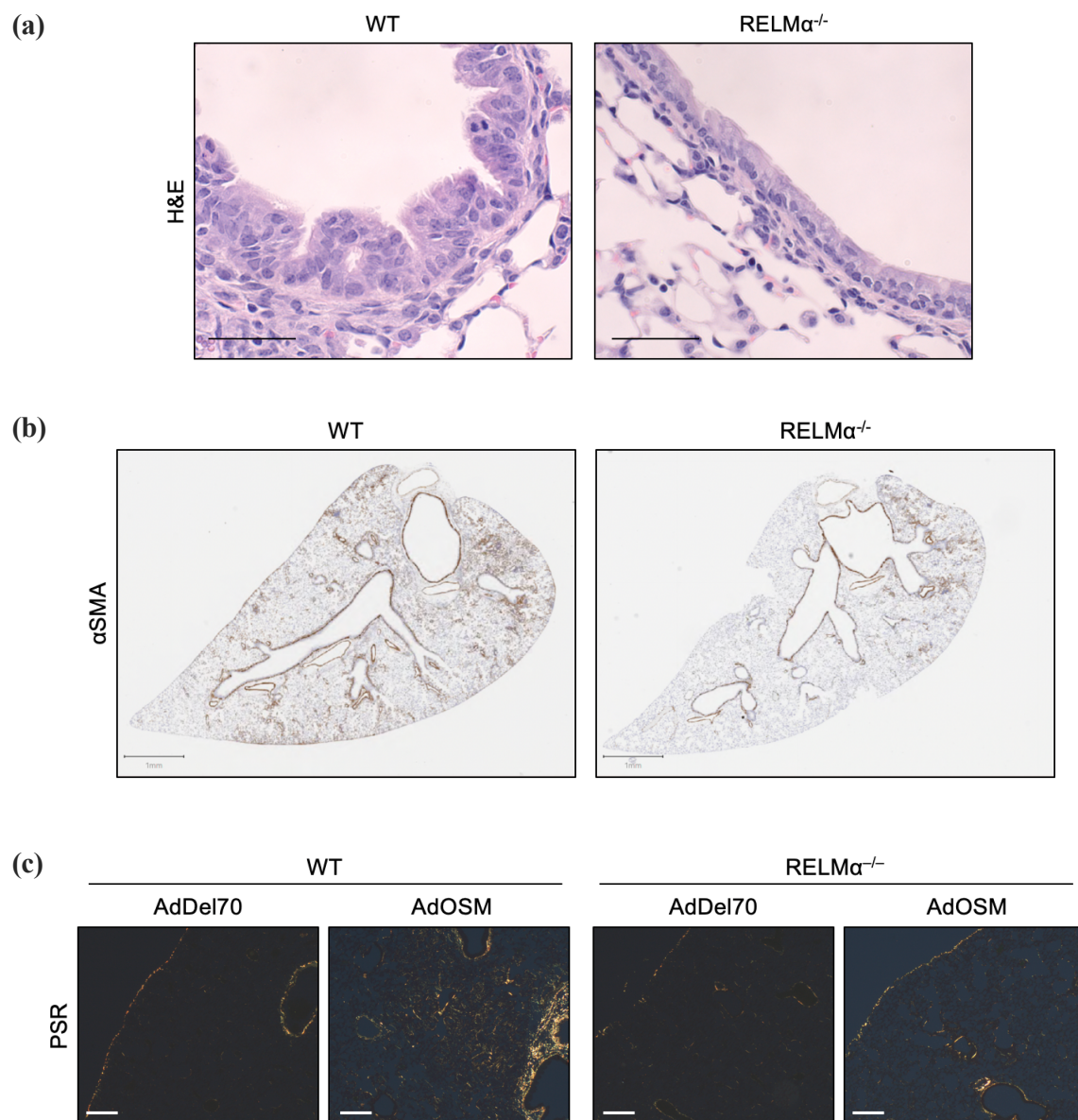
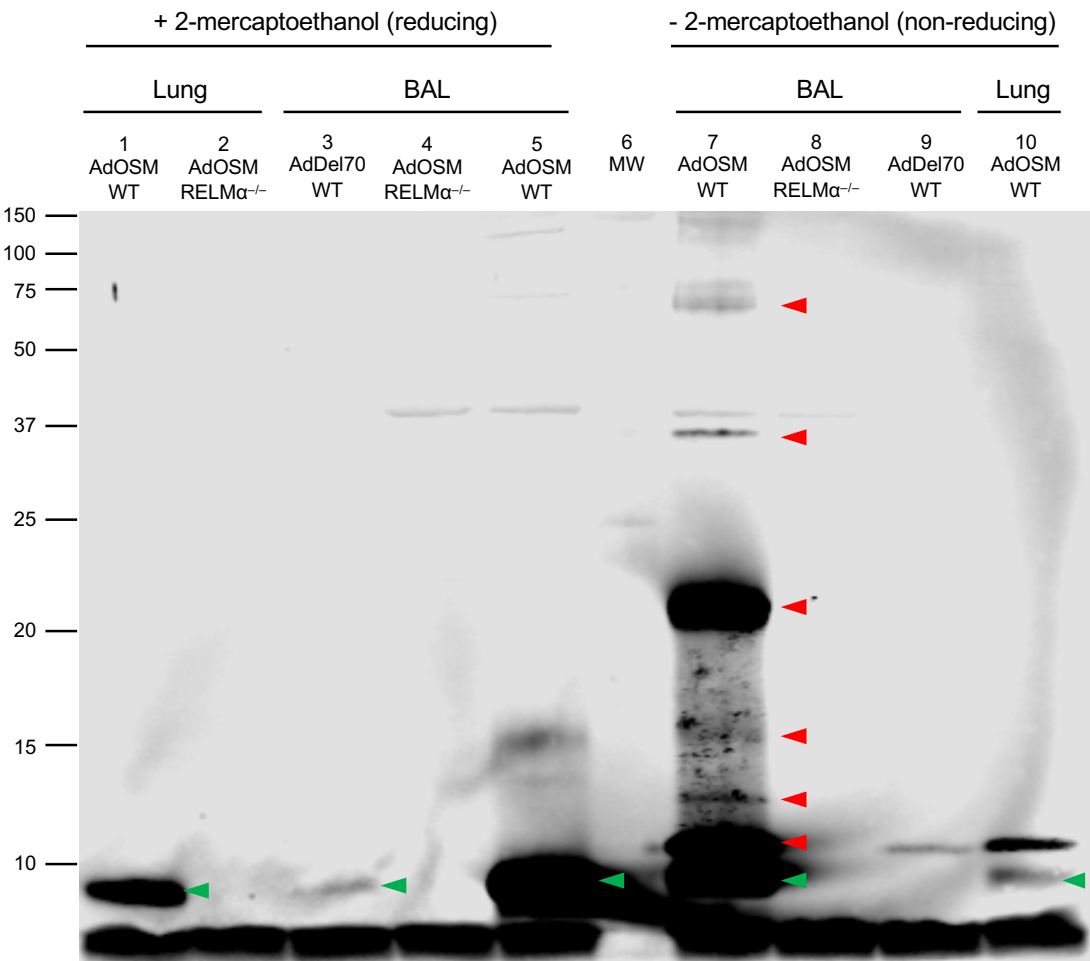
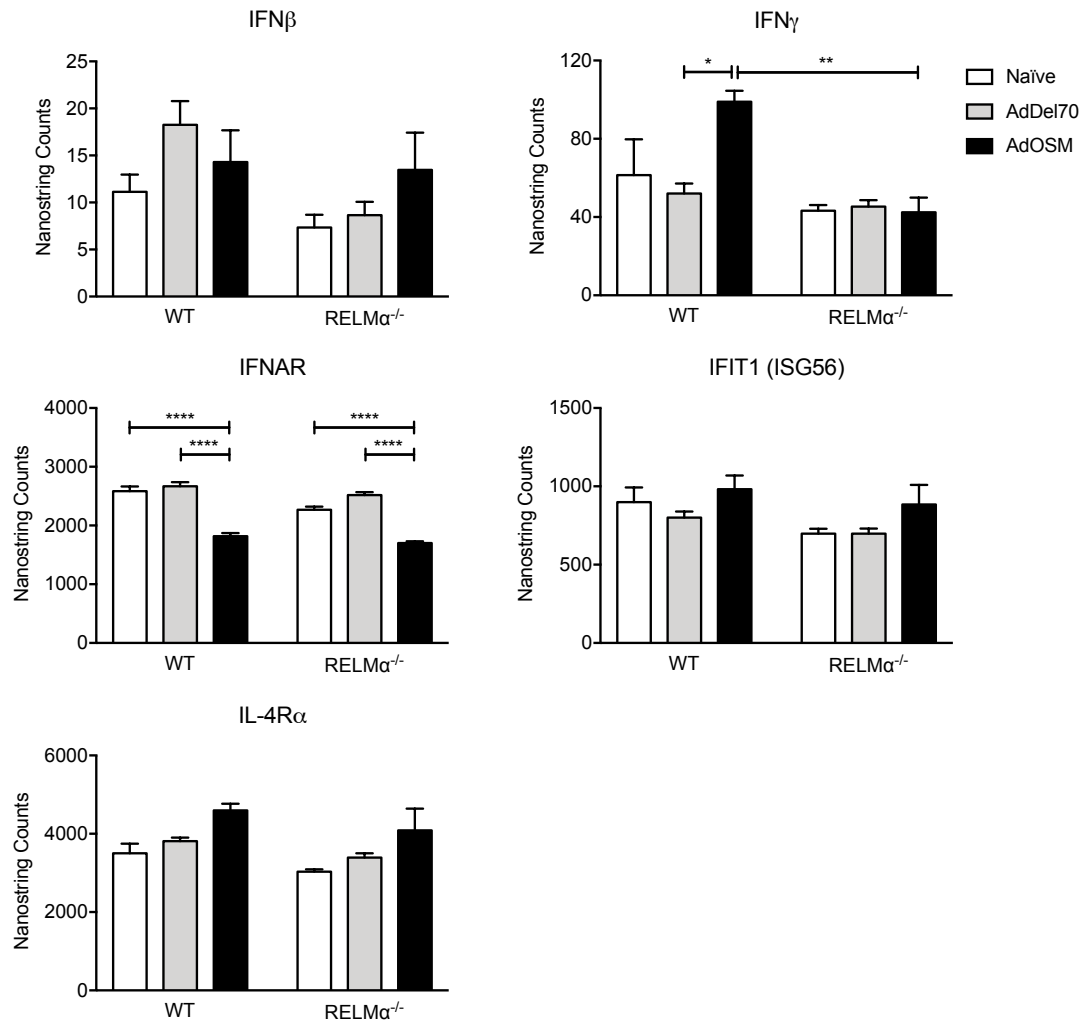


Figure 25. RELM α is capable of forming higher-order oligomers in BAL fluid, but not in whole lung. BAL fluid and whole lung homogenates from AdDel70- and AdOSM-treated wildtype mice and AdOSM-treated RELM $\alpha^{-/-}$ mice were analyzed by Western blot under reducing and non-reducing conditions and probed for RELM α . Under reducing conditions, RELM α can be found as a monomer (~9.4 kDa) in BAL fluid (green arrowheads) and whole lung extracts. Under non-reducing conditions, we observed multiple bands (red arrowheads) in BAL fluid of AdOSM-treated wildtype mice, suggesting that RELM α is capable of forming higher-order oligomers in BAL fluid but much less so in whole lung tissue.

Figure 25

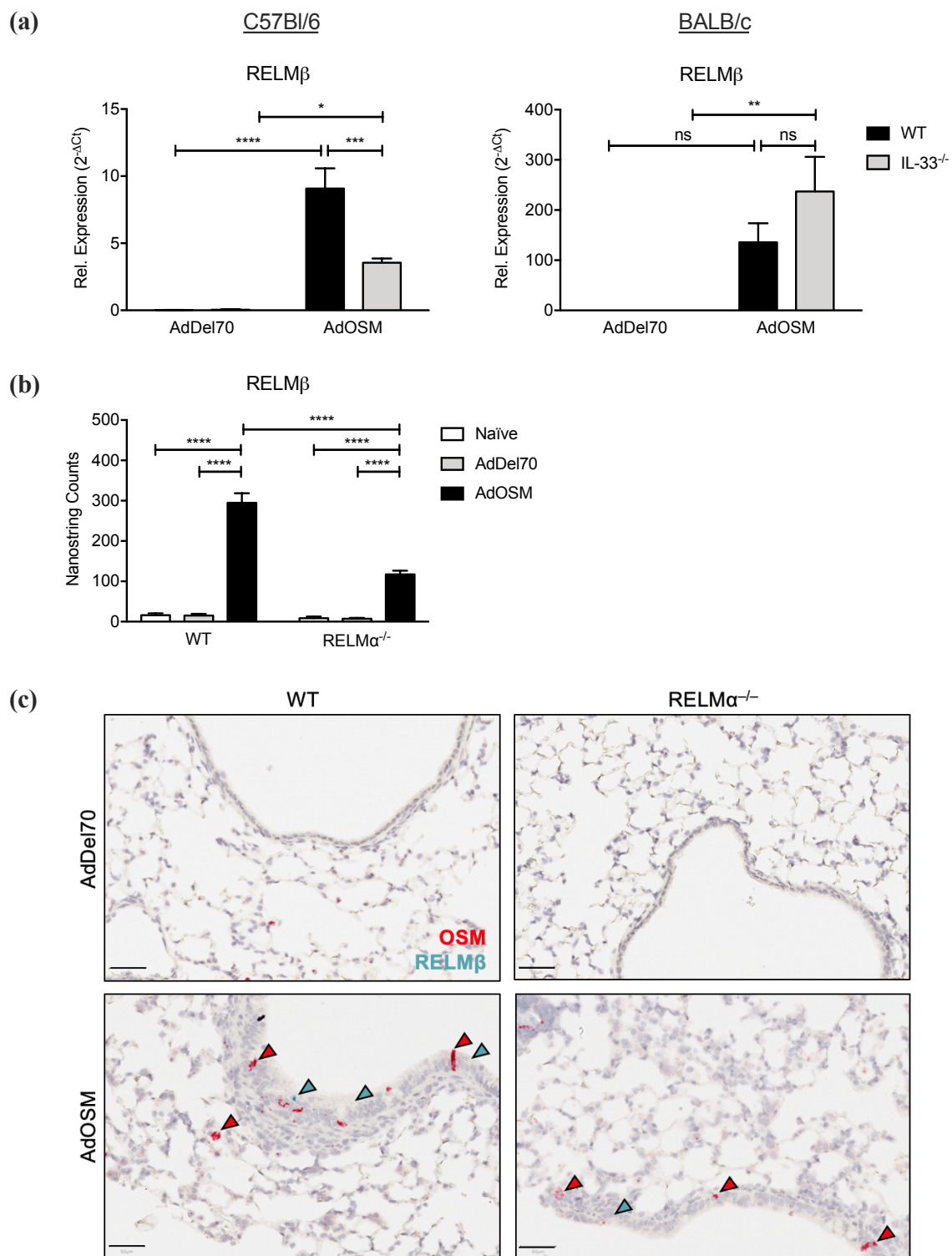


Supplementary Figure 1. Gene expression of IFN β , IFN γ , IFNAR, IFIT1, and IL-4R α in wildtype and RELM $\alpha^{-/-}$ mice. Total lung mRNA expression analyzed by NanoString Technologies 7 days post-infection. Gene expression levels are represented as NanoString counts and are normalized to housekeeping genes ACTB and PGK1. Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM ($n = 5$ mice/group). Statistical significance was determined by two-way ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc test (* $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$, **** $P < 0.0001$ between indicated groups). (*IFN γ gene expression submitted to Journal of Leukocyte Biology in the manuscript entitled "RELM α is induced by Oncostatin M in vivo and modulates extracellular matrix and cytoprotection in mouse lung inflammation."*)

Supplementary Figure 1

Supplementary Figure 2. Regulation of RELM β by RELM α and IL-33 in C57Bl/6 and BALB/c mice. **(a)** Wildtype and IL-33^{-/-} C57Bl/6 (left panel) and BALB/c mice (right panel) were endotracheally administered AdDel70 or AdOSM. RELM β mRNA expression in total lung homogenates 7 days post-infection, analyzed by RT-PCR. Expression levels are relative to 18S ribosomal RNA. **(b)** Whole lung RELM β mRNA expression in wildtype and RELM α ^{-/-} C57Bl/6 mice 7 days post-infection, analyzed by NanoString Technologies. Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM ($n = 4-6$ mice/group). Statistical significance determined by two-way ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc test (* $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.0001$ between indicated groups). **(c)** Representative images of CISH for OSM (red) and RELM β (turquoise) in formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded lung tissue sections from AdDel70- and AdOSM-treated wildtype and RELM α ^{-/-} C57Bl/6 mice at day 7. Scale bars, 50 μ m.

Supplementary Figure 2



CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION

6.1 Summary of findings

In vivo experiments using a mouse model of OSM-induced lung inflammation demonstrated that overexpression of OSM in mouse lungs strongly induces mRNA expression of RELM α in columnar airway epithelial cells (**Figure 4**) and RELM α protein detected in BAL fluid in both C57Bl/6 and BALB/c strains of mice after 7 and 14 days (**Figure 3**). Similar trends were observed with overexpression of IL-6 in C57Bl/6 and BALB/c mouse lungs at day 7 (**Figure 5a**), although RELM α protein levels in BAL fluid were much lower than induced by AdOSM (**Figure 5b**). Maximal induction of RELM α protein by AdOSM in C57Bl/6 mice required IL-6, as demonstrated using IL-6^{-/-} and IL-33^{-/-} mice (**Figure 5c**). As observed in lung tissue sections stained by CISH, RELM α mRNA expression was primarily localized to columnar airway epithelial cells, with some RELM α ⁺ mononuclear cells in the lung parenchyma.

Given that both IL-6 and IL-33 can regulate RELM α expression *in vivo*, RELM α production by macrophages was assessed *in vitro*. Unstimulated, CA/M1-polarized BMDMs, and those stimulated with IL-6 or IL-33 alone did not produce RELM α after 24 and 48 hours. AA/M2-polarized BMDMs secreted RELM α into culture supernatants and when co-stimulated with IL-6, induction of RELM α was further elevated, assessed by Western blot and ELISA (**Figure 9b**). However, when AA/M2-polarized BMDMs were co-stimulated with IL-33, RELM α protein levels were not further elevated (**Figure 9c**). To

address other possible cell sources of RELM α , C10 and LA4 alveolar epithelial cell lines were stimulated with LPS/IFN γ (CA/M1 stimulus) or IL-4/IL-13 (AA/M2 stimulus), alone or in combination with IL-6 or OSM for 24 hours. Although these cells responded to the stimuli with MCP-1 production, RELM α could not be detected in culture supernatants by ELISA (**Figure 10**).

To investigate the functions of RELM α in OSM-mediated lung inflammatory responses, wildtype and RELM $\alpha^{-/-}$ C57Bl/6 mice were compared. RELM α mRNA and protein in whole lung homogenates, and RELM α protein in BAL fluid and serum were detectable in naïve and AdDel70-treated wildtype mice and were significantly upregulated upon AdOSM infection (**Figure 11**). RELM α mRNA and protein were not detectable in RELM $\alpha^{-/-}$ mice. RELM α -deficiency in C57Bl/6 mice did not affect the mRNA and protein expression of adenovirus-encoded OSM in lung tissue and BAL fluid, respectively, nor of mRNA expression of OSMR β in lung tissue (**Figure 12**), nor of OSM-induced accumulation of immune cell infiltrates in BAL fluid (including eosinophils, neutrophils and lymphocytes). Interestingly, quantification of damaged/dead cells in BAL fluid of AdOSM-treated RELM $\alpha^{-/-}$ mice were present at significantly high numbers in comparison to other treatment groups (**Figure 14**). This correlated with increased LDH and increased CK18 in RELM $\alpha^{-/-}$ mice, indicative of cell death.

Although RELM α -deficiencies did not affect mRNA expression of Th2-associated mediators including IL-4, IL-5, IL-6 and eotaxin-2 (**Figure 19**), the absence of RELM α

resulted in less accumulation of AA/M2 macrophages (**Figure 17**) and Th1 cells (**Figure 18**), less upregulation of ECM remodeling genes (**Figure 20**) and less parenchymal αSMA^+ staining in $\text{RELM}\alpha^{-/-}$ mice treated with AdOSM (**Figure 23d, f**), characteristics of altered tissue repair and wound healing phenotypes.

Together, these results indicate that $\text{RELM}\alpha$ is induced downstream of OSM, IL-6 and IL-33 in C57Bl/6 mice, and suggest that OSM-induced $\text{RELM}\alpha$ increases matrix deposition and protects against epithelial cell damage in mouse lung tissue.

6.2 OSM and IL-6 regulate $\text{RELM}\alpha$ in C57Bl/6 and BALB/c mice

There were significantly higher levels of $\text{RELM}\alpha$ protein present in the BAL fluid of C57Bl/6 mice in response to AdOSM compared to BALB/c mice (**Figure 3b**). We have previously shown that in BAL fluid of AdOSM-treated C57Bl/6 mice, there was marked elevation of Th2 inflammatory mediators and eosinophilia which were absent in the BALB/c strain [14]. Since $\text{RELM}\alpha$ can be regulated by Th2 cytokines [64,87], the absence of a Th2-skewed cytokine environment in BALB/c mice correlates with lower levels of $\text{RELM}\alpha$ found in BAL fluid of these mice. In addition, $\text{RELM}\alpha$ expression could be seen in mononuclear cells throughout the lung parenchyma of C57Bl/6 mice by chromogenic *in situ* hybridization (**Figure 4**), whereas in BALB/c mouse lung parenchymal cells, $\text{RELM}\alpha^+$ cells were much less frequent, a likely reason for lower protein levels in BAL fluid in BALB/c mice.

We also show that in wildtype mice treated with AdOSM, there was accumulation of RELM α ⁺ CD68⁺ macrophages by CISH colocalization (**Figure 15b, left panel**). Cells that stained positive for CD68 but not RELM α likely reflect non-activated or CA/M1 macrophages. In this model of lung inflammation, we postulate that a major source of RELM α are the columnar airway epithelial cells, and that lung AA/M2 macrophages also contribute to RELM α levels in C57Bl/6 mice.

Among the gp130 cytokines, the receptor chains for OSM, OSMR β and gp130, are widely expressed on connective tissue cells, and for this reason OSM is able to activate several signaling pathways including JAK/STAT, MAPK, and PI3K/Akt [17,27]. Based on *in vitro* studies [28,88], OSM is more active than other gp130 cytokines, such as IL-6, LIF or IL-31, and robustly regulates expression of signaling intermediates including STAT3 and STAT1, as well as genes including of IL-4R α , IL-6, and ECM genes MMP1 and TIMP1 in connective tissue cells. A similar trend was also observed *in vivo* in both C57Bl/6 and BALB/c strains of mice, where overexpression of AdOSM in mouse lung was able to induce RELM α protein expression more robustly than AdIL-6 at days 2 and 7 post-infection (**Figure 5a, b**). Using IL-6-deficient C57Bl/6 mice, we also show that maximal RELM α expression induced by AdOSM is mediated in part through IL-6 (**Figure 5c**). We have previously demonstrated that IL-6 was able to activate STAT3 and STAT6, and further enhance STAT6 signaling in AA/M2-polarized macrophages, and that IL-6 is required for OSM-induced M2 macrophage accumulation in mouse lung [40]. Similarly, using BMDMs we demonstrate that IL-6 can further upregulate RELM α protein expression

in AA/M2-polarized macrophages (**Figure 9b**), consistent with other studies showing that IL-6 can “hyperpolarize” AA/M2 macrophage phenotype [39,40]. We speculate that *in vivo*, OSM acts on lung epithelial/stromal cells whereas IL-6 acts on AA/M2-polarized macrophages to maximally induce expression of RELM α directly, and to maximize accumulation of AA/M2-polarized cells in the lung.

6.3 IL-33 regulates RELM α in C57Bl/6 mice, but not in BALB/c mice

IL-33 has been implicated in models of allergic airway disease and in asthma, where it can amplify Th2-skewed responses upon engagement with its receptor, ST2, which is widely expressed on Th2 cells [42,43]. Previous work has shown that overexpression of AdOSM for 7 days highly induces IL-33 mRNA and protein expression in lungs of both C57Bl/6 and BALB/c mice [28]. In correlation with induced IL-33 expression in AdOSM-treated C57Bl/6 mice, Th2-associated mediators including IL-4, IL-5, and eotaxin-2 were also elevated [14]. Although IL-33 was also induced in AdOSM-treated BALB/c mice [28], Th2 cytokines were not elevated [14], and thus knocking out IL-33 would have no effect on the Th2-skewed microenvironment or lack thereof, and therefore RELM α expression would not be altered in IL-33^{-/-} BALB/c mice (**Figure 7**). On the other hand, the absence of IL-33 in C57Bl/6 mice would decrease Th2 responses and thus reduce RELM α expression (**Figure 6**).

Similar to a previous study demonstrating that in AdOSM-treated mice, IL-33 was expressed in type II alveolar epithelial cells by immunohistochemistry [28], analysis of

AdOSM-treated wildtype mouse lung sections by CISH also showed IL-33 mRNA expression in cells of the lung parenchyma (**Figure 8**), some of which were also RELM α ⁺. *In vitro* studies in C10 alveolar epithelial cells showed that stimulation with OSM markedly induced IL-33 more robustly than other gp130 cytokines including IL-6, LIF, and IL-31 [28]. However, when the same cell line was stimulated with OSM, RELM α could not be detected in cell culture supernatants (**Figure 10**). Of note, C10 alveolar epithelial cells are derived from a BALB/c background, which may affect RELM α responses compared to cells generated from a C57Bl/6 background. Albeit cell lines *in vitro* are not necessarily representative of the complex microenvironment *in vivo* that could regulate RELM α , we did not observe RELM α mRNA in type II AEC *in vivo*. It is likely that columnar epithelial cells (see CISH images, **Figure 4**), are major sources of RELM α in our system. Whether OSM directly stimulates RELM α in columnar epithelial cells, or indirectly through other mediators is not known.

Since RELM α expression was not altered between wildtype and IL-33^{-/-} BALB/c mice treated with AdOSM but was reduced in IL-33-deficient C57Bl/6 mice, *in vitro* experiments using BMDMs derived from C57Bl/6 mice were examined for the regulation of RELM α by IL-33. Kurowska-Stolarska *et al.* showed that IL-33 released upon epithelial cell injury can synergize with IL-13 and act on alveolar macrophages to induce macrophage polarization into the AA/M2 phenotype, while enhancing expression of Arg1 and Ym1 [46], typical markers of AA/M2 macrophages in addition to RELM α . However, BMDMs co-stimulated with IL-33 and IL-4/IL-13 did not further enhance RELM α secretion in

comparison to those stimulated with IL-4/IL-13 alone (**Figure 9c**). Further testing of BMDMs for expression of ST2 receptors is required to ensure whether these cells respond to IL-33.

6.4 RELM α and Th2 inflammation

RELM α has been implicated in several different murine models of lung inflammation, including parasitic infection and pulmonary fibrosis [52,60]. In a model of pulmonary inflammation, RELM $\alpha^{-/-}$ mice challenged with the parasite *S. mansoni* (*Sm*) eggs presented elevated Th2 cytokine levels including IL-4, IL-5, and IL-13 in comparison to wildtype counterparts [60]. However, in a different model of pulmonary fibrosis where RELM $\alpha^{-/-}$ mice were treated with bleomycin, these mice exhibited decreased IL-4 expression and less fibrosis in comparison to wildtype mice [52]. In our model of Th2-skewed pulmonary inflammation, Th2 cytokines were not differentially expressed between wildtype and knockout mice (**Figure 19**), suggesting the Th2 cell responses were not altered. We did observe lower IFN γ mRNA expression in RELM $\alpha^{-/-}$ mice (**Supplementary Figure 1**), as well as reduced IFN γ -producing CD4⁺ Th1 cells in total lung of knockout mice relative to wildtype mice (**Figure 18**). However, in this and previous studies [40], we cannot detect IFN γ or IL-12 in BAL fluid, and the mRNA for IFN γ is low and minimally induced (2-fold) by AdOSM in total lung. That being noted, it appears that RELM α can regulate activated Th1 cells although it is not clear if this is a direct or indirect action. Taken together, the function of RELM α in regulating Th1 and Th2 responses appears dependent on the specific model of lung inflammation. In a model of type 2 immunity during nematode infection,

studies have shown that Ym1 can induce epithelial cell expression of RELM α [72]. Ym1 is another AA/M2 macrophage-associated protein elevated in Th2 inflammation. Whether OSM induces Ym1 in our model system, and whether OSM induces RELM α in columnar epithelial cells directly or indirectly (or both) through Ym1 requires further study.

6.5 RELM α and ECM accumulation

In our system of OSM-induced lung inflammation, although there were no significant differences in Th2 cytokine expression between wildtype and RELM $\alpha^{-/-}$ mice, we did observe a lower fibrotic response in knockout mice treated with AdOSM. Similar to the bleomycin model of pulmonary fibrosis [52], we observed reduced type I collagen lung mRNA expression (**Figure 20**), correlating with markedly less α SMA⁺ staining in lung tissue of AdOSM-treated RELM $\alpha^{-/-}$ mice relative to wildtype mice (**Figure 23d, f**), suggesting that knockout mice were partially protected from this particular fibrotic phenotype, and that RELM α may participate in myofibroblast accumulation.

Several studies have suggested a role for AA/M2 macrophages in the exacerbation of pulmonary fibrosis and other models of tissue repair and wound healing [39,89]. Here, we show that AdOSM induced the accumulation of CD206⁺ M2 macrophages, whereas in the absence of RELM α there was significantly less accumulation of these macrophages in the lung (**Figure 17**). This trend was also associated with reduced lung mRNA expression of ECM remodeling genes COL1A1, COL3A1, MMP13, and TIMP1 in knockout animals (**Figure 20**). Taken together, RELM α may function to maintain M2 macrophage numbers

in the lung, which may then contribute to myofibroblast differentiation and ultimately lead to matrix deposition and lung fibrosis.

6.6 RELM α and cell death

In addition to the roles of RELM α in lung fibrosis and Th2-mediated lung inflammation, others have also suggesting that RELM α has anti-apoptotic properties. Using explant cultures of embryonic mouse lung, Wagner *et al.* showed that RELM α treatment resulted in reduced numbers of apoptotic cells, suggesting that RELM α impairs apoptosis while regulating maturation in the developing mouse lung [90]. Chung *et al.* demonstrated that mouse lung fibroblasts treated with TNF α and cycloheximide, an antibiotic that disrupts protein synthesis, induced expression of caspase-3 and -8, indicative of programmed cell death [91]. Pre-treatment with RELM α inhibited activation of caspase-3 and -8 by TNF α and cycloheximide, again suggesting an anti-apoptotic role for RELM α in mouse lung cells. In AdOSM-treated RELM $\alpha^{-/-}$ mice a subset of cells, that were not the typical immune cells found in BAL fluid, were observed at a significantly higher frequency than other treatment groups (**Figure 14**). These cells appeared to be damaged/dead cells since there was lack of an intact membrane and nucleus, and may be dead epithelial cells as a result of epithelial injury. An LDH assay also indicated higher cytotoxicity in BAL fluid of AdOSM-treated RELM $\alpha^{-/-}$ mice, in correlation with high numbers of damaged/dead cells. Furthermore, CK18 levels in whole lung tissue were not altered between treatment groups, whereas full-length CK18 released into BAL fluid were higher in RELM $\alpha^{-/-}$ mice than wildtype mice treated with AdOSM (**Figure 21c, d**). As a component of the intermediate filament system,

CK18 is expressed at high levels in epithelial cells, and is used as a marker for distinguishing epithelial cell death modes. Upon cell death by apoptosis, activated caspases cleave CK18 into fragments, whereas in necrosis CK18 is released in its full-length intact form [92,93]. In addition, there was less epithelial cell hyperplasia evident in AdOSM-treated RELM $\alpha^{-/-}$ mice observed in H&E-stained lung tissue sections (**Figure 23a, Figure 24a**). Together, this shows that AdOSM infection in the absence of RELM α led to more epithelial cell death in mouse lung, and supports a cytoprotective role for RELM α .

The mechanism(s) by which RELM α is cytoprotective and modulates ECM remodeling in the AdOSM model is not clear. Although the receptor for RELM α remains to be identified, some have suggested that RELM α could bind to intracellular Bruton's tyrosine kinase (BTK) [60,94]. While the interaction between the two is unclear since RELM α is secreted whereas BTK is cytoplasmic, activation of the BTK pathway can lead to myeloid cell chemotaxis, and in a different study, downregulate Th2 cytokine production in CD4⁺ T cells [60,94]. Others have proposed that RELM α could induce myofibroblast differentiation through the induction of α SMA in fibroblasts [95], however it is unclear how RELM α binds or activates these fibroblasts. RELM α also induces myofibroblast transition in mouse adipocytes and this may play a role in dermal fibrosis [96].

To date, the human homolog for mouse RELM α has yet to be identified, but interestingly, one study demonstrated by immunohistochemistry that human RELM β was present in epithelial cells and alveolar macrophages of human lung tissue from IPF patients [78],

consistent with murine models showing RELM α expression in the same cell types [63]. In another study, RELM β was found at significantly higher levels in bronchial biopsies of patients with asthma compared to healthy individuals [76]. Using primary human lung fibroblasts, Fang *et al.* also demonstrated that stimulation with RELM β increased ECM deposition, including type I collagen and α SMA protein expression, suggesting that RELM β may play a significant role in airway remodeling mechanisms in human asthma [76]. Further investigation is required to determine whether murine RELM α and human RELM β function similarly in animal models of lung inflammation and in human pulmonary fibrosis patients.

6.7 RELM α and homeostasis

In both strains, RELM α protein was present in serum of naïve mice at approximately 200 ng/mL (**Figure 3c**), however it is unclear whether RELM α plays a role in systemic circulation in this model. Since the levels of RELM α in BAL fluid can be induced to as high as 12 μ g/mL, it is unlikely that the source of RELM α in mouse lung comes from circulating immune cells, but rather the increase in RELM α levels in serum of AdOSM-treated C57Bl/6 mice is due to spillover or absorption from BAL fluid. Interestingly, in naïve mice RELM α was present at lower levels in BAL fluid than in serum, suggesting different sources of RELM α in these compartments and implying that RELM α derived from different cell sources may play different roles in the lung than in circulation. Recently, RELM α has been shown to play an important role in whole-body metabolism *in vivo*. Kumamoto *et al.* demonstrated that CD301b⁺ mononuclear phagocytes (MNP) in white

adipose tissue were a major source of RELM α [62]. Depletion of these cells disrupted metabolic homeostasis, resulting in significant weight loss and reduced blood glucose levels. These mice also showed decreased levels of RELM α in serum, and reconstitution of RELM α by intraperitoneal administration was able to reestablish homeostasis, revealing a role of systemic RELM α in glucose metabolism. Whether the increases of serum RELM α in our system of AdOSM overexpression in C57Bl/6 mice has effects on glucose homeostasis would require further study.

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSION

In this thesis, the role of RELM α in OSM-induced lung inflammation and ECM accumulation were examined. In both C57Bl/6 and BALB/c mice, RELM α was significantly induced by AdOSM after 7 and 14 days at the mRNA level in whole lung tissue and at the protein level in BAL fluid. However, CISH staining of lung tissue sections revealed that in addition to columnar airway epithelial cells, mononuclear cells in the lung parenchyma of C57Bl/6 but not BALB/c mice also expressed RELM α . In IL-6^{-/-} and IL-33^{-/-} mice on C57Bl/6 background, induction of RELM α by AdOSM was significantly reduced, demonstrating that maximal induction of RELM α is dependent on IL-6 and IL-33. Based on *in vitro* experiments and literature, one possible pathway by which IL-6 induces RELM α is through AA/M2-polarized macrophages, whereas IL-33 amplifies the Th2-skewed cytokine response to induce RELM α expression.

The roles of RELM α have been studied in context of different models of inflammatory diseases and metabolic dysfunction. In models of lung injury and allergic airway inflammation, RELM α promotes chemotaxis for anti-inflammatory macrophages and dendritic cells and induces myofibroblast differentiation and ECM deposition. In adipose tissue and liver, RELM α functions to increase glucose tolerance. In this model of OSM-induced lung inflammation, the absence of RELM α led to less accumulation of AA/M2 macrophages and Th1 cells in the lung and less upregulation of ECM genes. Strikingly,

RELM α -deficiency led to increased epithelial cell damage/death, supporting a cytoprotective role for RELM α .

Taken together, this data suggests that OSM-induced RELM α increases ECM deposition and protects against epithelial cell damage/death, though further investigation is required to determine clinical significance. Although RELM α has yet to be identified in humans and its receptor(s) is not well characterized, the closest human homolog, RELM β , has been found in patients with asthma and others have shown that human RELM β shares similar functions as mouse RELM α in airway remodeling mechanisms, where both can induce expression of type I collagen and α SMA. Given that both human RELM β and mouse RELM α are expressed in the same cell types in lungs of asthma/IPF patients and in murine models of asthma and Th2-skewed lung inflammation, RELM α may be a more closely related functional homolog to human RELM β than its structural homolog, mouse RELM β . Whether mouse RELM α and human RELM β function similarly in tissue repair and fibrosis requires further study. Thus, studying RELM α , the functional homolog of human RELM β , in OSM-mediated lung inflammation may serve as a model of human chronic respiratory diseases and help to identify alternative mechanisms of pathogenesis.

CHAPTER 8: REFERENCES

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