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Prostaglandin E₂ constrains systemic inflammation through an innate lymphoid cell–IL-22 axis

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Systemic inflammation, resulting from massive release of pro-inflammatory molecules into the circulatory system, is a major risk factor for severe illness, but the precise mechanisms underlying its control are incompletely understood. We observed that prostaglandin E\textsubscript{2} (PGE\textsubscript{2}) through its receptor EP4 is down-regulated in human systemic inflammatory disease. Mice with reduced PGE\textsubscript{2} synthesis develop systemic inflammation, associated with translocation of gut bacteria, which can be prevented by treating with EP4 agonists. Mechanistically, we demonstrate that PGE\textsubscript{2}–EP4 signaling directly acts on type 3 innate lymphoid cells (ILCs), promoting their homeostasis and driving them to produce interleukin-22 (IL-22). Disruption of the ILC/IL-22 axis impairs PGE\textsubscript{2}–mediated inhibition of systemic inflammation. Hence, PGE\textsubscript{2}–EP4 signaling inhibits systemic inflammation through ILC/IL-22 axis–dependent protection of gut barrier dysfunction.
Systemic inflammation commonly develops from locally invasive infection, is characterized by dysregulation of the innate immune system and overproduction of pro-inflammatory cytokines and can result in severe critical illness (e.g., bacteremia, sepsis and septic shock) (1,2). Despite much research on systemic inflammation, our understanding of the precise mechanisms for its control remains incomplete and represents an unmet clinical need (1-3). Prostaglandins (PGs) are bioactive lipid mediators generated from arachidonic acid via the enzymatic activity of cyclooxygenases (COXs) (4). PGs participate in the pathogenesis of inflammatory disease (4,5) and many inflammatory conditions are treated using non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) that inhibit PG synthesis by blocking COXs (6). NSAID therapy is also thought to confer similar beneficial effects in treating severe inflammation, but large randomized controlled clinical trials have found that NSAIDs failed to reduce mortality in severe systemic inflammation (7,8). More importantly, NSAIDs use during evolving bacterial infection is associated with more severe critical illness (9-13). Therefore there is an imperative to define the paradoxical regulatory role of PGs in systemic inflammation (14).

PGE$_2$ is one of the most abundantly produced PGs and modulates immune and inflammatory responses through its receptors (EP1 – 4) (4). We performed a genome-wide gene expression analysis of whole blood samples from neonates with sepsis (15) and found that expression of $PTGES2$ (encoding membrane-associated PGE synthase-2) and $PTGER4$ (encoding EP4) were significantly diminished in the sepsis group compared with non-infected controls (Fig. 1A). The reduced expression of $PTGES2$ and $PTGER4$ was associated with increased neutrophil blood count as a marker of inflammation (Fig. 1B). Down-regulation of $PTGER4$ and $PTGS2$ (encoding COX2) was similarly observed in patients suffering from systemic inflammatory response syndrome,
sepsis, septic shock or severe blunt trauma; but in contrast, expression of HPGD (encoding 15-PGDH which mediates PGE₂ degradation) in these patients was up-regulated compared to non-infected controls (fig. S1). Consistent with this, blood monocytes from patients with sepsis and septic shock produced less PGE₂ (16). Thus the PGE₂–EP4 pathway is down-regulated in human severe systemic inflammatory disease.

To understand the mechanism(s) whereby PGE₂ regulates systemic inflammation, we challenged wild-type (WT) C57BL/6 mice with lipopolysaccharide (LPS) to induce systemic inflammation after pre-treatment with indomethacin, which effectively suppresses PGE₂ production (17,18). Mice pre-treated with indomethacin developed an enhanced cytokine storm (e.g., tumor necrosis factor-α (TNF-α) and IL-6) (Fig. 1C) as well as other inflammatory signs in indomethacin-treated mice, e.g., splenomegaly (Fig. 1D), peritonitis characterized by accumulation of CD11b⁺Ly-6G⁺ neutrophils (Fig. 1E), and a low-grade hepatic inflammation as characterized by sinusoidal lymphocytosis and necrosis/inflammatory foci in the parenchyma (Fig. 1F). Furthermore, co-administration of an EP4 agonist almost completely diminished indomethacin-augmented systemic inflammation (Fig. 1, G to I). Thus PGE₂-EP4 signaling constrains LPS-induced systemic inflammation.

Besides the inflammatory markers described above, we also detected dissemination of gut bacteria into normally sterile tissues (e.g., liver) of indomethacin-treated, but not control, mice (Fig. 2A). The co-administration of EP4 agonist blocked the dissemination of bacteria to sterile tissues (Fig. 2B). Although pathogenic bacteria spread via the bloodstream usually cause severe systemic inflammation, gut leakage of commensal bacteria, especially in patients with damaged gut
epithelium or endothelium, may also trigger systemic inflammation. We therefore tested whether these disseminated bacteria contribute to indomethacin-augmented systemic inflammation by treating mice with indomethacin and antibiotics, known to effectively deplete gut bacteria (19). Antibiotic therapy reduced indomethacin-facilitated systemic inflammation (Fig. 2, C to F). Indomethacin-dependent systemic inflammation was also observed in Rag1−/− mice (fig. S2), and this was again diminished by EP4 agonism (Fig. 2, G to I). Thus PGE2-EP4 signaling prevents systemic inflammation independently of adaptive immune cells.

Given that IL-22 has recently been shown to inhibit inflammatory responses, particularly in the intestine (19-22), we hypothesized that IL-22 may mediate PGE2 control of systemic inflammation. To test this hypothesis, we first examined the effect of PGE2 on IL-22 production. Mice treated with indomethacin reduced LPS–induced IL-22 production (Fig. 3A), which was mimicked by an EP4 antagonist (Fig. 3B). Thus PGE2-EP4 signaling promotes IL-22 production in vivo. While LPS-induced systemic inflammation in WT mice was worsened and prevented by indomethacin and EP4 agonist, respectively (Fig. 1, G to I), both had little effects on LPS-induced inflammation in IL-22-deficient mice (ref. 23) (Fig. S3). Thus IL-22 is required for coupling PGE2-EP4 signaling-dependent control of systemic inflammation. Furthermore, co-administration of recombinant IL-22 (rIL-22) reduced indomethacin–induced bacterial dissemination, which positively correlated with reduced systemic inflammation (Fig. 3, C to E), implying that IL-22 mediates PGE2 suppression of gut bacterial dissemination and subsequent systemic inflammation.

As both PGE2 and IL-22 can potentially protect the gut epithelial barrier (17-22), we reasoned that inhibition of bacterial dissemination by PGE2 may act through augmenting IL-22 action on gut
epithelial cells. We therefore examined gene expression related to barrier function in intestinal tissues. Indomethacin not only suppressed expression of IL-22 but also its receptors, i.e., \textit{Il22ra1} (encoding IL-22Rα1) and \textit{Il10rb} (encoding IL-10Rβ), and their suppression was prevented by rIL-22 (Fig. 3F), suggesting that PGE\(_2\) may strengthen IL-22–IL-22R signaling in intestinal epithelial cells. Indeed, IL-22R–target genes such as \textit{Reg3b}, \textit{Reg3g}, \textit{Fut2} (24), mucins and tight junctions were similarly down-regulated by indomethacin but rescued by rIL-22 (Fig. 3G and fig. S4). Expression of genes related to IL-22R signaling and barrier function inversely correlated with gut bacterial dissemination (Fig. 3E). Given the protective role of PGE\(_2\) in acute colonic mucosal injury (17), we proposed that this protection is mediated by IL-22. Indeed, indomethacin worsened dextran sulfate sodium (DSS)-induced colitis and this was rescued by rIL-22, which elicited significantly less colitis disease activity index measured by weight loss, diarrhea and rectal bleeding (Fig. 3H-J). Our results thus indicate an important role of PGE\(_2\) in regulating the intestinal epithelial barrier function through innate IL-22 signaling.

Flow cytometric analysis showed that IL-22-producing cells were CD45\textsuperscript{Low}\text{Lineage(Lin)}\textsuperscript{−} CD90.2\textsuperscript{+}ROR\text{γt}(retinoid acid receptor-related orphan receptor gamma)\textsuperscript{+}CCR6(CC chemokine receptor 6)\textsuperscript{+} type 3 innate lymphoid cells (ILC3s, ref. 22) in the gut and CD45\textsuperscript{+}\text{Lineage}\textsuperscript{−} CD90.2\textsuperscript{+}CD4\textsuperscript{+} ILC3s in the spleen (fig. S5). We wondered whether these cells are involved in EP4-dependent control of systemic inflammation. Although \textit{Rag1}\textsuperscript{−/−} mice co-treated with indomethacin and an EP4 agonist (i.e., lacking PG signaling except through EP4) did not develop systemic inflammation (Fig. 2, G to I), depletion of CD90.2\textsuperscript{+} ILCs restored indomethacin-induced systemic inflammation in these mice (Fig. 4A). To address whether PGE\(_2\)–EP4 signaling specifically in ILCs controls systemic inflammation, we crossed CD90.2-Cre mice (25) with EP4-
floxed mice (26) to generate tamoxifen-induced selective down-regulation of EP4 in CD90.2\(^+\) cells (including T cells and ILCs) in heterozygous CD90.2\(^{\text{CreEP4}}^{\text{fl/}}\) mice (Fig. 4B). CD90.2\(^{\text{CreEP4}}^{\text{fl/}}\) mice produced less IL-22 in response to LPS, which was associated with augmentation of systemic inflammatory response, e.g., TNF-\(\alpha\) production (Fig. 4B), while down-regulation of EP4 in T cells (27) affected neither IL-22 nor TNF-\(\alpha\) production (fig. S6). These data demonstrate that PGE\(_2\)-EP4 signaling controls systemic inflammation, at least in part, through the regulation of ILC3s.

Next, we investigated the impact of PGE\(_2\) on ILC3 maintenance. Indomethacin significantly diminished ILC3 numbers in the gut and spleen at the steady state (Fig. 4C and fig. S7, A to C). This reduction was prevented by an EP4 agonist and was mimicked by an EP4 antagonist (Fig. 4C and fig. S7). Consistently, ILC3s express PGE\(_2\) receptors with especially high expression levels of EP4 (fig. S8). Furthermore, indomethacin down-regulated Ki-67 expression and an EP4 agonist prevented this reduction in ILC3s (Fig. 4D), suggesting that PGE\(_2\)-EP4 signaling potentiates ILC3 proliferation. PGE\(_2\)-EP4 signaling also prevented ILC3 apoptosis \emph{in vitro} but it had little effect on ILC3 apoptosis \emph{in vivo} (Fig. S9, A and B). Moreover, down-regulation of EP4 in CD90.2\(^+\) ILCs not only decreased ROR\(\gamma\)^\(+\) ILC3s but also weakened IL-7 responsiveness, e.g., Bcl-2 expression, in ILC3s (Fig. S9C). To further understand the effect of PGE\(_2\) on ILC3s, we measured gene expression by quantitative polymerase chain reaction in Lin\(^-\)CD45\(^{\text{low}}\)CD90.2\(^{\text{hi}}\)KLRG1\(^-\)CCR6\(^+\) ILC3s sorted from small intestines of mice treated with indomethacin and EP4 agonist. PGE\(_2\)-EP4 signaling up-regulates many ILC3 signature genes including \emph{Rorc, Il23r, Il1r1, Il22, Il17a, Lta, Ltb, Tnfsf11} and \emph{Tnfsf4} as well as \emph{Bcl2l1} (Fig. 4E).
We next asked whether and how PGE\(_2\) regulates ILC3 function. PGE\(_2\) promoted IL-23-driven IL-22 production by gut lamina propria leukocytes isolated from \(\text{Rag}^{1-}\) mice \textit{in vitro} (Fig. 4, F and G) and this was inhibited by indomethacin (Fig. 4H). PGE\(_2\) also promoted IL-22 production from splenic CD4\(^+\) ILC3s, which was mediated by EP2 and EP4 (fig. S10, A to C). More importantly, PGE\(_2\) increased IL-23-driven IL-22 production from highly purified CD45\(^+\)Lin\(^-\)CD90.2\(^+\)KLRG1\(^-\)CCR6\(^+\) ILC3s from intestines and CD3\(^-\)CD11b\(^-\)CD11c\(^-\)CD4\(^+\) ILC3s from spleen or bone marrow (Fig. 4I and fig. S10D), suggesting a direct action of PGE\(_2\) on ILC3s. In addition, PGE\(_2\) also increased IL-22 production from ILC3s in response to IL-1\(\beta\) and IL-7 (fig. S11). PGE\(_2\) activated cyclic adenosine monophosphate signaling in ILC3s and in turn enhanced IL-22 production (Fig. 4J and fig. S12, A and B). Moreover, PGE\(_2\)-augmented IL-22 production depended on the transcription factor signal transducer and activator of transcription 3, which is critical for IL-22 production by ILC3s (28), but not ROR\(\gamma\)t or Ahr (fig. S12, C to E). Altogether, these data demonstrate that PGE\(_2\)–EP4 signaling promotes ILC3 homeostasis and IL-22 production through promoting ILC3 proliferation and enhancing cytokine (e.g., IL-7, IL-23 and IL-1) responsiveness.

Finally, we questioned whether PGE\(_2\) promotes IL-22 production from human ILC3s. To answer this, we sorted human Lin\(^-\)CD161\(^+\)CD127\(^+\)CD117\(^+\)CRTH2\(^-\) ILC3s from periphery blood of healthy donors and cultured them with IL-2, IL-23 and IL-1\(\beta\) to induce IL-22 production. Addition of PGE\(_2\) similarly up-regulated IL-22 production from sorted human ILC3s (Fig. 4K). Moreover, expression of the human \textit{IL22} gene in healthy individuals infused with a bacterial endotoxin (ref. 29) positively correlated with expression of \textit{PTGS2} and \textit{PTGES} (encoding mPGES-1) (fig. S13); two inducible enzymes that mediate PGE\(_2\) synthesis (4). Acute pancreatitis (AP) is a sterile initiator of systemic inflammation that results in multiple organ dysfunction where gut barrier injury is
central to the pathogenesis (30). Given that IL-22 was protective in an animal model of AP (31), we measured IL-22 levels in patients with AP. IL-22 concentrations in plasma were lower in patients with AP compared to healthy controls at the time of admission to hospital (Fig. 4L), further confirming that the reduction of IL-22 signaling is associated with development of systemic inflammation.

In summary, we identify a physiological role of endogenous PGE_2–EP4 signaling in activating the ILC3/IL-22 axis, which functionally contributes to crosstalk between the innate immune system, gut epithelium and microflora, and subsequently constrains systemic inflammation (fig. S14). These findings provide valuable insight towards understanding how inactivation of COXs may be harmful in severe bacterial infection and inflammation (32-34) and advance a crucial cellular and molecular mechanism for a scenario in which maintaining or augmenting PGE_2 signaling, e.g., by inhibiting the PGE_2-degrading enzyme 15-PGDH, protects intestinal barrier injury and potentiates its repair and control of systemic inflammation (35, 36).
References and Notes


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SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

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Materials and Methods
Figs. S1 to S14

References (37–55)
Fig. 1. PGE$_2$–EP4 signaling controls LPS–induced systemic inflammation. (A) Gene expression of PTGES2 and PTGER4 in whole blood samples of neonates suffering from sepsis with confirmed bacterial infection (Red, n=27) and matched non-infection controls (Blue, n=35). Line graphs display gene expression (Log$_2$ scale) as probability density plots for both group samples. Non-parametric Wilcoxon-Rank-Sum tests ($P_{\text{diff}}$) were used to test for differential expression of a gene between infected and control neonates. Fligner-Killeen tests ($P_{\text{var}}$) were used to test if sepsis and control groups have substantively different inter-subject variation in gene expression levels. (B) Supervised heat map of clinical neutrophil counts and expression levels for PTGES2 and PTGER4 genes for non-infected healthy controls (n=12) and bacterially infected neonates (n=27). Colored scale bar is shown for neutrophil count or gene expression z-score transformed values, respectively. ***$P<0.001$ by non-parametric Spearman correlation test performed to analyze the negative association between PTGES2 ($r_s$=-0.6111) or PTGER4 ($r_s$=-0.6323) gene expression and blood neutrophil counts. (C to F) Serum levels of TNF-$\alpha$ and IL-6 (C), spleen size and weight (D), neutrophil counts in peritoneal cavity lavage (E) and liver histology (F) of WT C57BL/6 mice treated with indomethacin (Indo) or vehicle control (Veh) for 5 d followed by LPS challenge injection for another 2 (C, n=6 per group) or 24 h (D to F, n=8 per group). (G to I) Spleen weight (G), neutrophils (H) and serum levels of TNF-$\alpha$ and IL-6 (I) of WT C57BL/6 mice treated with indomethacin and agonists for EP2 or EP4 followed by LPS challenge for 24 (G and H) or 2 h (I). Data shown as means ± SEM are pooled from two independent experiments. Scale bar, 50 μm. *$P<0.05$, **$P<0.01$ by one-way ANOVA. NS, not significant; ND, not detected.
Fig. 2. PGE$_2$ control of systemic inflammation involves gut bacterial dissemination and acts independently of adaptive immune cells. (A) Colony forming units (CFU) present in liver homogenates from WT C57BL/6 mice (n=6) treated with indomethacin for 5 d followed by LPS challenge for another 24 h. (B) CFU present in liver homogenates from WT C57BL/6 mice treated with indomethacin plus administration of an EP4 agonist (n=6) or vehicle (n=8) for 5 d followed by LPS challenge for another 24 h. (C to F) Spleen size and weight (C), neutrophils (D), liver histology (E) and serum levels of TNF-α and IL-6 (F) of WT C57BL/6 mice (n=6 per group) treated with indomethacin and antibiotics (ABX) for 5 d followed by LPS challenge for another 24 (C to E) or 2 h (F). (G to I) TNF-α and IL-6 levels in serum (G) and peritoneal cavity lavage (H) and CFU present in liver homogenates (I) from Rag1$^{-/-}$ mice treated with indomethacin plus administration of an EP4 agonist or vehicle control (n=8 per group) for 4 d. Data shown as means ± SEM are pooled from two independent experiments. Scale bar, 50 μm. *P<0.05, **P<0.01, ***P<0.001 by two-way ANOVA (C, D and F) or Mann-Whitney test (G to I). ND, not detected.
Figure 3. IL-22 mediates PGE₂ protection against systemic inflammation and intestinal barrier injury. (A) Serum IL-22 levels of WT C57BL6 mice treated with indomethacin (Indo, n=6) or vehicle control (Veh, n=6) for 5 days followed by challenge with LPS or PBS for 2 h. (B) Serum IL-22 levels in WT C57BL/6 mice treated with an EP4 antagonist or vehicle (n=4 per group) in drinking water for 5 d followed by LPS challenge for another 2 h. (C to G) Rag1⁻/⁻ mice were treated with vehicle (Veh, n=9) or indomethacin (Indo) plus administration of rIL-22 (n=10) or vehicle control PBS (n=10) for 4 d. (C) CFUs present in liver homogenates; (D) neutrophil counts; (E) correlation of liver CFU with systemic inflammation profile and expression profile of genes related to intestinal barrier function; (F and G) gene expression of IL-22 and its receptors (F) and antimicrobial peptides (G) in the terminal ileum. Expression was measured by real-time PCR, normalized to Gapdh gene and presented as relative expression (in Log₂ Fold Change) to the vehicle control group. (H to J) Change in body weight (H), disease activity index (I) and colon length (J) of WT C57BL/6 mice (n=10 per group) treated with 2% DSS and indomethacin or vehicle control in drinking water plus administration of rIL-22 or vehicle control PBS for 6 days. Data shown as means ± SEM are pooled from two (A, H, I and J) or three (C to G) independent experiments or represent one experiment (B). *P<0.05, **P<0.01, ***P<0.001 by Mann-Whitney test (A, B and D), one-way ANOVA (C, F to J) or two-tailed Pearson correlation test (E).
Fig. 4. PGE$_2$–EP4 signaling potentiates ILC3 homeostasis and function that contributes to control of systemic inflammatory response. (A) Splenic CD90.2$^+$ ILCs, serum TNF-$\alpha$ levels in and neutrophil counts in Rag1$^{/-}$ mice co-treated with indomethacin and an EP4 agonist plus anti-CD90.2 ($\alpha$CD90.2) or control IgG antibodies (n=8 per group) for 4 days. (B) Expression of Ptger4 mRNA in splenic CD90.2$^+$ cells and serum levels of IL-22 and TNF-$\alpha$ in tamoxifen-treated CD90.2$^{Cre}$EP4$^{fl/+}$ mice (n=7) and control C57BL/6 mice (n=5) at 1.5 h after LPS challenge. (C-E) Rag1$^{/-}$ (C,D) or C57BL/6 (E) mice were treated with indomethacin with or without an EP4 agonist for 4-5 d. (C) Percentages and numbers of ILC3s in small intestines. Cells were ex vivo stimulated with IL-23 for 3 h. Each point represents an individual mouse. (D) Ki-67 expression in gut ILC3s. Each point represents an individual mouse. (E) Gene expression profile in gut ILC3s presented as relative expression to the vehicle control group. Data are the summary of two independent experiments with 8 mice for each group. (F) Expression of ROR$\gamma$t and IL-22 by Rag1$^{/-}$ gut CD45$^+$ lamina propria leukocytes (LPLs) stimulated with IL-23 and PGE$_2$ for 4 h. Numbers in brackets represent IL-22 MFI of the ROR$\gamma$t$^{+}$IL-22$^{+}$ populations. (G to J) IL-22 production in supernatants by LPLs or ILC3s isolated from small intestines of Rag1$^{/-}$ mice and then cultured with indicated conditions overnight (G, H, J) or for 3 d (I). (K) IL-22 production by human ILC3s cultured with IL-2, IL-23, IL-1$\beta$ and PGE$_2$ for 4 d (n=5 donors). (L) Plasma IL-22 levels in individuals with acute pancreatitis (AP) at the time of presentation to hospital (n=48) or from healthy individual donors (n=28). Horizon line represent the mean for each group. Data shown as means ± SEM are pooled from two or more independent experiments (A, C to E, G, J and K) or represent one (B) or two (F, H, I) independent experiments. *$P<0.05$, **$P<0.01$, ***$P<0.001$ by unpaired Student’s $t$-test (A, B, H and I), one-way ANOVA (C, D, F, G and J), ratio paired $t$-test (K) or Mann Whitney test (L).
Supplementary Materials for

Prostaglandin E₂ constrains systemic inflammation through an innate
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Materials and Methods

Mice.

Wild-type C57BL/6 mice were purchased from Harlan UK. To generate mice with selective EP4 deficiency in CD90.2\(^+\) ILCs, CD90.2(Thy1.2)-Cre mice on C57BL/6 background (25) were crossed to lox-flanked Ptger4 (EP4-floxed) mice on C57BL/6 background (26). EP4-floxed mice were also crossed with Lck-Cre mice (on C57BL/6 background) to generate mice with selective EP4 deletion in T cells (27). All gene-modified mice including C57BL/6 Rag1\(^-\)/\(^-\) and IL-22\(^-\)/\(^-\) mice were bred and maintained under specific pathogen-free conditions in accredited animal facilities at the University of Edinburgh. Mice were aged >8 weeks old at the beginning of use and sex-matched. Both male and female mice were used in experiments. Mice were analyzed individually and no mice were excluded from the analysis, with the exception of exclusions due to technical errors in preparation of intestinal LPLs and failure of induction of Cre recombination by tamoxifen. All experiments were conducted in accordance with the UK Scientific Procedures Act of 1986 and had local ethical approval.

Treatment with small compounds, antibiotics, antibodies and rIL-22.

When indicated, mice were treated with indomethacin (5 mg/kg body weight/d, Sigma) or vehicle control (0.5% EtOH) in drinking water for 4-6 consecutive days for WT C57BL/6, Rag1\(^-\)/\(^-\) and IL-22\(^-\)/\(^-\) mice. In some experiments, mice were co-treated by intraperitoneal (i.p.) injection with an EP2 selective agonist (butaprost, Cayman) or an EP4 selective agonist (L-902,688, Cayman) at the dose of 10 µg per injection (one injection daily for 5 consecutive days) together with indomethacin from the starting day.
0.5% EtOH in PBS was used as vehicle control. As indicated, mice were treated with an EP4 selective antagonist (L-161,982 from Abcam, 10 mg/kg body weight/d) or vehicle control (0.5% DMSO) in drinking water for 6 consecutive days or through i.p. injection (20 µg per injection, one injection daily; vehicle control, 2% DMSO in PBS) for 5 consecutive days. To deplete ILCs, an anti-CD90.2 antibody (clone 30H12, BioXcell) or a rat IgG2b isotype control antibody (BioXcell) was injected i.p. into Rag1−/− mice at the dose of 250 µg per mouse every 3 days. Depletion efficiency was confirmed by flow cytometry. Recombinant IL-22 (PeproTech) was intravenously (i.v.) injected into Rag1−/− mice at the dose of 500 ng per mouse (one injection daily for 4 consecutive days) from the beginning of experiments. Control mice were injected i.v. with PBS. For antibiotic therapy, a cocktail of antibiotics containing ampicillin (0.5 mg/ml), gentamycin (0.5 mg/ml), metronidazole (0.5 mg/ml), neomycin (0.5 mg/ml), vancomycin (0.5 mg/ml) plus sucralose (4 mg/ml) was used as referenced to a previous report (19). All antibiotics were purchased from Sigma and were administrated in drinking water together with indomethacin or vehicle for 5 d. When indicated, WT C57BL/6 mice were injected i.p. with lipopolysaccharides (LPS, Escherichia coli 0127:B8, Sigma) at a dose of 10 µg per mouse on d 5. Blood was withdrawn at 2 h after LPS injection or at the time that mice were culled. Serum was isolated following whole blood centrifugation and stored at -80°C for analysis. In some experiments, mice were sacrificed 24 h after LPS/PBS injection and the peritoneal cavity lavaged (3 x 2 ml cold PBS) for neutrophil counts and lavage supernatant cytokines measurements. Other tissues such as spleen, liver, small and large intestines were then removed for further analysis.
**Tamoxifen-induced EP4 deletion.**

Induction of Cre recombination in CD90.2^{Cre-EP4^{fl/+}} mice by tamoxifen was described in a previous report (25). Briefly, Tamoxifen (Sigma) was dissolved in sunflower oil/ethanol (10:1 ratio) at 10 mg/ml and injected i.p. into CD90.2^{Cre-EP4^{fl/+}} and control mice at the dose of 0.18 mg/g body weight/day for 3-5 consecutive days for Fig. 4B. Mice were injected i.p. with LPS (10 ug per injection per mouse) at 5 days after the last tamoxifen injection and blood was withdraw at 1.5 h after LPS injection. Splenic CD90.2^{+} cells were isolated using EasySep™ Mouse CD90.2 Positive Selection Kit II (Stemcell technologies) and Ptger4 gene expression was measured by real-time PCR in isolated splenic CD90.2^{+} cells to confirm the efficiency of conditional EP4 deletion. In Fig. S9C, tamoxifen was dissolved in sunflower oil excluding ethanol. Mice received tamoxifen by gavage at a dose of 0.18 mg/g body weight/day for five doses over seven days and were rested for further 4 days after the last tamoxifen treatment before being subjected to analysis.

**DSS colitis.**

WT C57BL/6 mice (8-9 weeks old at the beginning of experiments) were administrated with 2% (w/v) of dextran sulfate sodium (DSS, MW 36-50kDa, MP Biochemical) together with indomethacin (5 mg/kg body weight/d) or vehicle control (0.5% EtOH) in drinking water for 6 consecutive days. Recombinant IL-22 or PBS was injected i.p. into indicated mice at the dose of 500-1,000 ng per injection (one injection daily for 6 consecutive days) from the beginning of the experiments. Throughout the experimental timeline, mice were weighed and scored daily for a disease activity index (DAI) score to
allow for monitoring colitis progression and pathology. The DAI was scored by the following system (37). Body weight: 0 (no or <1% weight loss compared to d 0 body weight), 1 (1-5% weight loss), 2 (5-10% weight loss), 3 (10-20% weight loss), and 4 (>20% weight loss); bleeding: 0 (no bleeding), 1 (blood present in/on faeces), 2 (visible blood in rectum), and 4 (visible blood on fur); and stool consistency: 0 (well formed/normal stool), 1 (pasty/semi-formed stool), 2 (pasty stool with some blood), 3 (diarrhea that does not adhere to anus), and 4 (diarrhea that does adhere to anus). Mice were immediately culled when body weight loss was greater that 25% or the total colitis score was 9 or higher.

**Liver histology.**

Liver samples were fixed with 10% neutral buffered formalin solution (Sigma), embedded in paraffin, and 5 µm sections were used for staining with hematoxylin and eosin (H&E). Adjustment of white balance was applied to the entire images.

**Bacteria culture.**

Counts of gut bacterial translocation to the liver were performed as described in a previous report (19). Briefly, livers were removed under aseptic conditions and mechanically homogenized in sterile PBS. Tissue homogenates were serially diluted and cultured on LB agar (Sigma) at 37°C for 2 days for subsequent colony counts.

**Isolation of intestinal lamina propria cells.**
Intestinal lamina propria (LP) cells were isolated as described previously (38). In brief, mice were culled and their intestines removed and placed in cold PBS. After removing any remaining fatty and mesenteric tissues, samples were cut open longitudinally and any contents removed before being washed with HBSS buffer containing 2% FCS, and then cut into 0.5 cm pieces. Intestines were shaken at 37°C for 15 min in HBSS containing 2 mM EDTA. After washing with pre-warmed HBSS buffer, intestines were again shaken at 37°C for 30 min in HBSS containing 2 mM EDTA followed by wash with HBSS. Intestines were then transferred into gentleMACS C tubes (Miltenyi) digested in RPMI 1640 medium containing 10% FCS, 1% L-glutamine and antibiotics with 1.25 mg/ml collagenase IV (Roche) and 30 ug/ml DNase-I (Roche) by shaking at 37°C for 30 min. Digested tissues were homogenized by gentleMACS disassociator running the programme m_intestine_01 and mashed through 40 µm cell strainer and flushed through HBSS containing 2% FCS. After centrifugation, cells were resuspended in complete RPMI 1640 medium for counting, staining, culture and/or sorting.

**In vitro cell culture.**

MACS sorted small intestinal LP CD45+ cells, FACS sorted intestinal LP CD45−Lin−CD90.2−KLRG1−CCR6+ ILC3s, total Rag1−/− spleen cells, or FACS sorted splenic/bone marrow CD3−CD11b−CD11c−CD4+ ILCs were cultured in completed RPMI 1640 medium (Gibco) supplemented with 10% FBS, 2-Mercaptoethanol (50 µM, Gibco), L-glutamine (2 mM, Gibco) and antibiotics (Penicillin and Streptomycin, 100 U/ml, Gibco). When indicated, recombinant IL-23 (20 ng/ml, eBioscience), IL-1β (20 ng/ml), IL-2 (10 ng/ml), IL-7 (10 ng/ml), indomethacin (10 µM, Sigma), PGE2 (10 µM for detection of pCREB
and 100 nM for all other experiments except dose-response experiments, Cayman), an EP2 agonist butaprost (500 nM, Cayman), an EP4 agonist CAY10598 (500 nM, Cayman), an EP2 antagonist PF-04418948 (10 µM, Cayman), an EP4 antagonist L-161,982 (10 µM, Cayman), db-cAMP (300 µM, Sigma), 3-isobutyl-1-methylxanthine (IBMX, 500 µM for spleen cells and 100 µM for gut LPLs, Cayman), H-89 (10 µM, Merck), STAT3 inhibitor VI (S31-201, 25 µM, Merck), RORγt inhibitor (SR2211, 10 µM, Cayman), Ahr inhibitor (CH-223191, 10 µM, Merck) and their respective vehicle control (i.e. EtOH or DMSO) or combination of these reagents were added into cell cultures. For detecting cytokines in supernatants, cells were cultured for overnight or for 3 d as indicated in figure legends, and for intracellular staining of IL-22, cells were stimulated with IL-23 for 3-4 h in the presence of 0.2% GolgiPlug (BD Bioscience). In vitro cell cultures were performed in triplicates and repeated two or more times.

**FACS sorting.**

For purifying ILC3s from the small intestine of *Rag1⁻/⁻* mice, CD45⁺ LP cells were first isolated by MACS using mouse CD45 Microbeads (Miltenyi) and then stained with anti-CD45 eFluor450 or APC-Cy7 (clone 30-F11, eBioscience), anti-CD11c PE (clone N418, BioLegend), anti-CD11b PE (clone M1/70, eBioscience), anti-NK1.1 PE (clone PK136, eBioscience), anti-CD90.2 FITC or PE-Cy7 (clone 53-2.1, eBioscience), anti-KLRG1 APC (clone 2F1, eBioscience), anti-CCR6 Brilliant Violet (clone 29-2L17, Biolegend) on ice for 30 min. Alive CD45⁺Lin⁺(CD11c⁻CD11b⁻NK1.1⁻)CD90.2⁺KLRG1⁻CCR6⁺ ILC3s were sorted by FACSaria II (BD Bioscience). For purifying ILC3s from bone marrow and spleens of WT C57BL/6 mice, the CD4⁺ cell population was first isolated by MACS.
with mouse CD4 MicroBeads (Miltenyi) and then stained with anti-CD3e PE (clone 145-2C11, eBioscience), anti-CD11b FITC (clone M1/70, BioLegend) and anti-CD4 PerCP-Cyanine5.5 (clone RM4-5, eBioscience) on ice for 30 min. In some experiments, an anti-CD11c PE (clone N418, BioLegend) was also used. Alive Lin^−(CD3^−CD11b^−CD11c^−)CD4^+ cells were sorted by FACSaria II (BD Bioscience).

**Surface and intracellular staining.**

For surface staining, cells were first stained with the Fixable Viability Dye eFluor® 780 (eBioscience) on ice for 30 min to exclude dead cells. After wash, cells were stained on ice for another 30 min with indicated Abs such as anti-CD45 eFlour® 450, anti-CD3e PE, anti-CD11c PE, anti-CD11b PE, anti-B220 PE (clone RA3-6B2, eBioscience), anti-CD90.2 FITC, anti-CD4 PerCP-Cyanine5.5 or APC. Staining with Annexin V was performed using the FITC-Annexin V staining kit (Biolegend). For intracellular staining of IL-22, cells were stimulated with IL-23 (20 ng/ml) for 3-4 h in the presence of GolgiPlug (BD Bioscience). After staining with the Fixable Viability Dye eFluor® 780 and surface markers, cells were fixed by the BD Cytofix/Cytoperm Fixation buffer (BD Bioscience) for 30 min and then stained with anti-human/mouse IL-22 APC (clone IL22JOP, eBioscience) in the BD Perm/Wash Buffer on ice for 1 h. For staining of RORγt, a Foxp3/Transcription Factor Fix and Staining Buffer (eBioscience) and Anti-Mouse ROR-γt PerCP-eFluor710 (clone B2D, eBioscience) were used. For staining of peritoneal CD11b^+Ly-6G^+ neutrophils, peritoneal cells were first stained with Fixable Viability Dye eFluor® 780 on ice for 30 min. After wash, cells were stained on ice for another 30 min with anti-CD45 eFlour® 450, anti-CD11b FITC and anti-Ly-6G (Gr-1)
APC (clone RB6-8C5, eBioscience). To stain p-CREB, cells were stimulated with 10 uM of PGE2 or vehicle at 37°C for 30 min, then fixed by a Foxp3/Transcription Factor Fix buffer (eBioscience) for overnight followed by staining with surface markers and a Phospho-CREB (Ser133) XP Rabbit mAb (clone D1G6, Cell Signaling) or a normal rabbit IgG for 1 h. After washing, cells were incubated with AF680 Donkey anti-Rabbit IgG for another 30 min. To stain pSTAT3, fresh spleen cells from Rag1−/− mice were cultured with PGE2 or vehicle for 5 h and then stimulated with IL-23 for 15 min. Cells were fixed by the Foxp3/Transcription Factor Fix buffer for overnight followed by staining with surface markers and Alexa Fluor 488 Mouse Anti-STAT3(pS727) (clone 49, BD Bioscience). Flow cytometry was performed on the BD LSRFortessa (BD Bioscience) and analyzed by FlowJo software (Tree Star).

**Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA).**

For detection of cytokines in serum and supernatants of cell cultures or peritoneal lavage fluids, commercial ELISA kits were used according to the manufacturers’ instructions. ELISA Ready-SET-Go!® kits for mouse IL-22 and IL-6 were obtained from eBioscience, while the Mouse TNF-α ELISA MAX™ Deluxe was purchased from BioLegend.

**Gene expression and Real-time PCR.**

RNA purification from sorted ILC3s or homogenized terminal ileum tissues was performed by using the Rneasy Mini Kit (Qiagen). cDNA was obtained by reverse transcription using the High-capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription Kits (ABI). Samples were analyzed by real-time PCR with SYBR Premix Ex Taq II (Tli RNase H Plus) kit
(Takara) or GoTaq qPCR Master Mix (Promega) on the Applied Biosystem 7900HT Fast machine. Below primers (some were obtained from ref. 39-47) were used. Il22 forward, 5'-CATGCAGGAGGTGGTACCTT-3'; Il22 reverse, 5'-CAGACGCAAGCATTTCTCAG-3'. Il22ra1 forward, 5'-TGCTCTGTATCTGGGCTACAA-3'; Il22ra1 reverse, 5'-TCAGGACACGTTGGACGTT-3'. Il10rb forward, 5'-TCTCTTCACAGCACCTGAA-3'; Il10rb reverse, 5'-GAACACCTCGGCCTCCTC-3'. Reg3b forward, 5'-TGGGAATGGAGTAAAATG-3'; Reg3b reverse, 5'-GGCAACTTCACCTCACATGAGG-3'. Reg3g forward, 5'-CCATCTTCACG TAGCAGC-3'; Reg3g reverse, 5'-CAAGATGTGCTCTGAGG-3'. Reg3g forward, 5'-GCAGGACTGTGGATGTCCTG-3'; Cldn1 reverse, 5'-AAAGATGTCCAGTGCCCACA-3'. Mcui forward, 5'-GTGGTCTTGGGCTATCGTCTATTT-3'; Muc1 reverse, 5'-AAAGATGTCCAGTGCCCACA-3'. Muc3 forward, 5'-CGTGCTTGGGCTATCGTCTATTT-3'. Cldn1 reverse, 5'-AAAGATGTCCAGTGCCCACA-3'. Muc3 forward, 5'-CGTGCTTGGGCTATCGTCTATTT-3'. Cldn1 reverse, 5'-AAAGATGTCCAGTGCCCACA-3'. Muc3 forward, 5'-CGTGCTTGGGCTATCGTCTATTT-3'. Cldn1 reverse, 5'-AAAGATGTCCAGTGCCCACA-3'. Muc3 forward, 5'-CGTGCTTGGGCTATCGTCTATTT-3'. Cldn1 reverse, 5'-AAAGATGTCCAGTGCCCACA-3'.
AACCTCAAAGTC-3'; *Il17a* reverse, 5'-GAGGGATATCTATCAGGGTCTTCA-3'.
*Il23r* forward, 5'-CCAAATATTGTGATGTAAGA-3', *Il23r* reverse, 5'-AGCTTGAGCAGATATGTGTTGT-3'; *Il1r1* forward, 5'-TGGAAACAGAGCCAGTTGACG-3'; *Il1r1* reverse, 5'-CAGGAGAGAGGAGAGAGAGGAGAGGAGAGGAGAG-3'.
*Il23r* forward, 5'-GAGGGATATCTATCAGGGTCTTCA-3'.
*Lta* forward, 5'-GTACCCAA
CAAGGTGAGCAGC-3'; *Lta* reverse, 5'-CCAGGACACCCCATCCACT-3'.
*Ltb* forward, 5'-ACGCTTTCTTCTTGGCTCG-3'; *Ltb* reverse, 5'-ACCTCATAGGGCTTGGGATG-3'.
*Il7ra* forward, 5'-GAAGGAAACTATGTAAGAAGCCAAAAACG-3'; *Il7ra* reverse, 5'-AAGATCATTGGGCAGAAAACTTTCC-3'.
*Ccr6* forward, 5'-CCTCACA
TTCTTAGGACTGGAGC-3'; *Ccr6* reverse, 5'-GGCAATCAGAGCTCTCGGA-3'.
*Csf2* forward, 5'-GCATGTAGAGGCCATCAAAGA-3'; *Csf2* reverse, 5'-CGGGTCTTGACA CATGTGA-3'.
*Bcl2* forward, 5'-AGTACCTGAACCCGCCATCTG-3'; *Bcl2* reverse, 5'-AGGTATGCAGGCCCATCAAAGA-3';
*Bcl2l1* forward, 5'-ATGACCACCTAGAGCC TTGGA-3'; *Bcl2l1* reverse, 5'-GAAGAGTGAGCCAGAGGAGAGGAGAGGAGAGGAGAGGAGAG-3'.
*Ptger4* forward, 5'-CCTAACCCCACCCCTACAGGT-3'; *Ptger4* reverse, AGAAGGACGCCTTGAC TCC-3'.
*Gapdh* forward, 5'-TGAACCGGAAGCTCAGTCTG-3'; *Gapdh* reverse, 5'-TCCACCACCTGTTGCTGTA-3'.
Expression of genes *Rorc* (Mm01261022_m1), *Ahr* (Mm00478932_m1), *Stat3* (Mm01219775_m1), *Id2* (Mm00711781_m1), *Tcf7* (Mm00493445_m1), *Zbtb16* (Mm01176868_m1), *Tox* (Mm00455231_m1), *Nfil3* (Mm00600292_s1) were measured by Taqman Gene Expression Master Mix (Life Technologies) with respective primer sets obtained from Life Technologies. Expression was normalized to mouse glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (*Gapdh*) and presented as relative expression to control group by the $2^{-\Delta\Delta C_{t}}$ method.
**Gene expression analysis of neonatal sepsis blood cells.**

Gene transcription levels were measured by transcription microarray in a study by Smith *et al.* (15) on human neonates comparing confirmed bacterial infection (n=27 independent neonates) with non-infection controls (n=35 independent neonates). Processed and normalized data for genes *PTGES2* and *PTGER4* were retrieved from this study and probability density functions computed for each gene, per group. For each gene, the hypothesis of differential expression between infected and control neonates was tested through a Wilcoxon-Rank-Sum test. A separate hypothesis of different inter-subject variability was tested for through Fligner-Killeen tests. Data of blood neutrophil counts in neonatal sepsis and control patients were retrieved from our previous report (15) to complete a new analysis work for investigating their association with *PTGES2* and *PTGER4* gene expression by non-parametric Spearman correlation test.

**Human ILC3 sort and culture and human IL-22 analysis.**

Human Lin-CD161+CD127-CD127-CD117+ ILC3s were sorted from peripheral blood of healthy donors. Lineage markers used for sorting included CD1a (clone HI149), CD3 (clone OKT3), CD14 (clone HCD14), CD34 (clone 581), CD94 (clone DX22), CD123 (clone 6H6), TCRα/β (clone IP26), TCRγ/δ (clone B1), BDCA2 (201A) and FceR1 (clone AER-37). Anti-human CD161 (clone HP-3G10), CD127 (clone A019D5), CD117 (clone 104D2) and CD294/CRTH2 (clone BM16) were also used. All these Abs were obtained from Biolegend except CD294, which was purchased from BD Bioscience. Sorted human ILC3s were cultured with recombinant human IL-2 (5 ng/ml, Biolegend), human IL-23 (50 ng/ml, R&D system) and human IL-1β (50 ng/ml, Biolegend) for 4
days to induce IL-22 production. PGE₂ (100 nM) or vehicle was added into the culture system from the starting of culture. IL-22 levels in supernatants was measured by Human IL-22 ELISA MAX Deluxe (Biolegend).

**Acute pancreatitis patients.**

Human plasma samples were obtained with ethical approval and fully-informed consent (MREC ref. number 13/SS/0136, United Kingdom). Samples from our clinical archive obtained from persons presenting to hospital with acute pancreatitis (AP) over a three-month continuous period in 2013 (UKCRN ID: 16116) (http://public.ukcrn.org.uk/Search/StudyDetail.aspx?StudyID=16116) were included. The diagnosis of AP was made according to the Revised Atlanta Criteria 2012 (48), namely an elevated serum amylase concentration > 300 IU/L in the context of abdominal pain, nausea and/or vomiting. Healthy volunteer blood samples were collected with ethical approval and fully-informed consent (REC ref. number 08/S1103/38, United Kingdom). Plasma aliquots were stored at -80°C for <2 years with a single thaw before use. IL-22 concentrations were measured by ELISA as described above.

**Statistical analysis.**

All data were expressed as mean ± SEM. Statistical significance between two groups was examined by the Student’s t-test or the Mann-Whitney test, while the one-way and two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Bonferroni’s, Holm-Sidak’s or Newman-Keuls multiple comparisons test were used to evaluate multiple groups. Correlation analysis Fig. 3E and Fig. S13 was calculated by Pearson’s correlation coefficient (r). Statistical
work was performed using Prism 6 software (GraphPad) and a \( P \) value of less than 0.05 was considered as significance.

**Author Contributions**

Fig. S1. Down-regulation of PGE$_2$-EP4 signaling is associated with development of severe systemic inflammatory diseases in humans. (A) A schematic chart indicates PGE$_2$ synthesis from arachidonic acid by COX2 (encoding by PTGS2) and degradation into biologically inactive 15-keto PGE$_2$ by 15-PGDH (encoding by HPGD). The PGE$_2$ receptor EP4 (encoding by PTGER4) is also shown. (B) Expression of PTGS2, HPGD and PTGER4 in blood cells taken from patients diagnosed with systemic inflammatory response syndrome (SIRS, n=12) or healthy control individuals (n=18) on d 1. Data were retrieved from the Gene Expression Omnibus dataset GSE40012 (49). (C) Expression of PTGS2, HPGD and PTGER4 in blood cells taken from patients with sepsis (n=10) or healthy control (n=20). Data were retrieved from the Gene Expression Omnibus dataset GSE28750 (50). (D) Expression of PTGS2, HPGD and PTGER4 in blood cells taken from normal children (n=18) or children with septic shock (n=67) on d 1. Data were retrieved from the Gene Expression Omnibus dataset GSE13904 (51). (E) Expression of PTGS2, HPGD and PTGER4 in blood cells taken from healthy individuals (n=37) or patients with severe blunt trauma or burn injury (n=205) within 24 h from injury. Data were retrieved from the Gene Expression Omnibus dataset GSE36809 (52). *P<0.05, **P<0.01, ***P<0.001, ****P<0.0001 by 2-tailed Mann-Whitney test.
Fig. S2. Adaptive immune cells are not required for indomethacin-dependent systemic inflammation. Rag1−/− mice were treated with indomethacin (n=5) or vehicle control (n=4) in drinking water for 4 d. (A) Spleen size and weight. (B) IL-6 and TNF-α concentrations in serum. (C) IL-6 and TNF-α concentration in peritoneal cavity lavage fluids. (D) Accumulation of CD11b+Ly-6G+ neutrophils in peritoneal cavities. (E) H&E staining histological sections of the liver. Data shown as mean ± SEM are pooled from two independent experiments. Scale bar, 50 µm. *P<0.05 by the unpaired, 2-tailed student t-test. ND, not detected.
Fig. S3. **IL-22 is required for control of systemic inflammation by PGE2–EP4 signaling.** Spleen size and weight (A), neutrophils in peritoneal cavity (B) and serum levels of TNF-α and IL-6 (C) of C57BL/6 IL-22−/− mice treated with indomethacin in drinking water plus administration (i.p.) of an EP4 agonist or vehicle control for 5 d followed by LPS challenge (i.p.) for another 24 h (A and B) or 2 h (C). Each point represents one mouse. Data are pooled from two independent experiments. Scale bar, 0.5 cm. *P<0.05, **P<0.01 by one-way ANOVA. NS, not significant.
**Fig. S4. Gene expression profile of intestinal barrier function.** *Rag1*−/− mice treated with vehicle (n=9) or indomethacin in drinking water plus administration (i.v.) of rIL-22 (n=10) or PBS (n=10) for 5 d as in Fig. 3, C to G. (A to C) Gene expression of mucins (A), fucosyltransferase 2 (B) and tight junctions (C) in the terminal ileum. Expression was normalized to *Gapdh* gene and presented as relative expression (in Log2 Fold Change) to the vehicle/PBS control group. Data shown as means ± SEM are pooled from three independent experiments. *P<0.05, **P<0.01 by one-way ANOVA.
Fig. S5. Identification of IL-22-producing type 3 innate lymphoid cells in the gut and spleen. (A) Intracellular staining of small intestinal lamina propria lymphocytes (LPLs) from Rag1−/− mice cultured with IL-23 for 4 h. The result indicates that IL-22-expressing innate cells in the gut are CD45+/LowLineage−(CD11c/CD11b/NK1.1)CD90.2+CCR6+RORγt+ILC3s and most of these cells (>90%) do not express CD4. (B) Intracellular staining of total Rag1−/− spleen cells cultured with IL-23 for 4 h. The result indicates that all IL-22-expressing innate cells in the spleen are CD45+Lin−CD90.2+ and the majority (70-80%) of them are CD4+ ILC3s.
Fig. S6. PGE₂–EP4 signaling in T cells is not required for control of systemic inflammation. Serum levels of IL-22 and TNF-α of mice with specific EP4 deletion in T cells (i.e., Lck-EP4 mice mixed of Lck\textsuperscript{Cre}EP4\textsuperscript{fl/+} and Lck\textsuperscript{Cre}EP4\textsuperscript{fl/fl} mice, n=4) and control litter mates (mixed of Lck\textsuperscript{Cre}, EP4\textsuperscript{fl/fl}, EP4\textsuperscript{fl/+} and EP4\textsuperscript{+/+} mice, n=8) at 1.5 h after LPS challenge. Efficiency of EP4 deletion in T cells of Lck\textsuperscript{Cre}EP4\textsuperscript{fl/+} (~50%) and Lck\textsuperscript{Cre}EP4\textsuperscript{fl/fl} (~97%) mice comparing to control mice has been shown previously (27). Data shown as means ± SEM are pooled from two independent experiments. \( P \) values are calculated by unpaired two-tailed Student’s \( t \)-test.
Fig. S7. PGE$_2$–EP4 signaling regulates innate lymphoid cell homeostasis in spleen.

(A) Intracellular staining of small intestinal LPLs of C57BL/6 $Rag^{1/-}$ mice treated with vehicle (n=9) or indomethacin in drinking water plus an EP4 agonist (n=8) or vehicle (n=10) for 4 days as in Fig.4C. Representative dot plot data show ROR$\gamma$T$^{+}$IL-22$^{+}$ cells within alive CD45$^{+}$ populations. (B) Frequencies of CD45$^{+}$CD4$^{+}$ and CD45$^{+}$IL-22$^{+}$ ILC3s in spleens of $Rag^{1/-}$ mice treated with indomethacin (Indo, n=8) or vehicle (Veh, n=6) for 4 d. (C) Frequencies of CD45$^{+}$CD4$^{+}$ ILC3s in spleen of $Rag^{1/-}$ mice treated with vehicle (n=6) or indomethacin plus administration (i.p.) of agonist for EP2 (n=6), EP4 (n=6) or vehicle control (n=8) for 4 days. (D) Frequencies of CD45$^{+}$CD90.2$^{+}$ROR$\gamma$T$^{+}$ ILC3s in spleen of $Rag^{1/-}$ mice treated with indomethacin plus administration (i.p.) of an EP4 agonist or vehicle control (n=8 per group) for 4 days. (E) Frequencies and numbers of CD45$^{+}$CD4$^{+}$IL-22$^{+}$ ILC3s in spleens of $Rag^{1/-}$ mice treated (i.p.) with an EP4 antagonist (n=10) or vehicle (n=9) for 4 d. Data shown as mean ± SEM are pooled from two independent experiments. *$P<0.05$, **$P<0.01$, ***$P<0.001$ by Mann-Whitney test (B, D and E) or one-way ANOVA (C).
**Fig. S8. Expression of PG receptors by ILC3s.** Gene expression of PG receptors in FACS-sorted ILC3 populations isolated from various tissues including splenic Lin' CD90.2^CD25^CD4^+ ILC3s/LTis (Lymphoid tissue inducer cells, n=4), small intestinal LP (si-LP) CD45^Lin'NKp46^RORγ^hi^ ILC3s (n=3), and mesenteric lymph node (mLN) Lin'CD90.2^CD127^CCR6^hi^ST2^ ILC3s (n=4). Gene expression in lymph node (LN) TCR^CD4^CD8^CD25^CD62^hi^CD44^low^ naïve T cells (n=2) was used as control. Results suggest that in ILC3s the PGE\(_2\) receptor EP4 (encoded by Ptger4) is the most expressed among 8 subtypes of PG receptors. While ILC3s may also express PGE\(_2\) receptors EP1 (encoded by Ptger1) and EP2 (encoded by Ptger2) and thromboxane A2 receptor TP (encoded by Tbxas2r), ILC3s are unlikely to express PGD\(_2\) receptor DP (encoded by Ptgdr), PGE\(_2\) receptor EP3 (encoded by Ptger3), PGF\(_{2\alpha}\) receptor FP (encoded by Ptgfr) and PGI\(_2\) receptor IP (encoded by Ptgir). Data were retrieved from the Gene Expression Omnibus dataset GSE37448 for LN CD4^+ T cells and si-LP RORγ^hi^ ILC3s (53), GSE46468 for splenic CD4^+ ILC3s/LTis (54), and GSE67076 for mLN CCR6^+ ILC3s (55).
Fig. S9. PGE₂ prevents ILC3 apoptosis and augments IL-7 responsiveness in vitro.
(A) Expression of Annexin V in CD45⁺Lin⁺CD90.2⁺CCR6⁺ ILC3s from mesenteric lymph nodes of C57BL/6 mice treated with vehicle (n=4) or indomethacin in drinking water plus an EP4 agonist (n=7) or vehicle (n=5) for 5 days. (B) Mesenteric lymph node cells of Rag1⁻/⁻ mice were cultured in vitro with indomethacin in the presence or absence of PGE₂ for 24 h. Data showing expression of Annexin V in CD45⁺Lin⁺CD90.2⁺CCR6⁺ ILC3s are representative of two independent experiments. (C) Mesenteric lymph node cells from tamoxifen-treated CD90.2⁺EP4⁺ (n=8) or control (n=7) mice were cultured in vitro with IL-7 for 24 h. Expression of Bcl-2 and RORγt in CD45⁺Lin⁺CD90.2⁺ ILCs were shown. *P<0.05, **P<0.01 by two-tailed unpaired Student’s t-test.
Fig. S10. PGE$_2$ promotes IL-22 production from splenic ILC3s via EP2 and EP4 receptors in vitro. (A) IL-22 levels in supernatants of total Rag1$^{-/-}$ spleen cells cultured with IL-23 and PGE$_2$, indomethacin or EP2 agonist plus EP4 agonist overnight. (B) Intracellular IL-22 expression in Lin$^-$ (CD3$^-$B220$^-$/Ter119$^-$/CD11c$^-$/CD4$^+$) cells of Rag1$^{-/-}$ spleen cells cultured under indicated conditions for 4 h. (C) IL-22 levels in supernatants from total Rag1$^{-/-}$ spleen cells cultured with IL-23 without or with indomethacin plus agonists and/or antagonists for EP2 or EP4 as indicated overnight. (D) IL-22 production by Lin$^-$/CD4$^+$ ILC3s sorted from spleen and/or bone marrow and then cultured with IL-23 in the presence or absence of PGE$_2$ for 3 d. Data shown as means ± SEM are representative of two (B-D) or three (A, right) or pooled from five (A, left) independent experiments. *$P<0.05$, **$P<0.01$, ***$P<0.001$ by one-way ANOVA (A right, B and C), unpaired (D) or paired (A left) Student’s $t$-test or. ND, not detected.
Fig. S11. Cytokine response of ILC3s regulated by PGE$_2$. IL-22 levels in supernatants of LPLs isolated from small intestines of Rag1$^{-/-}$ mice and then cultured with indicated cytokines in the presence or absence of PGE$_2$ overnight (A) or for 3 days (B). Data shown as means ± SEM are pooled from 2-3 independent experiments. For the panel A, n=6-7 biological replicates and for the panel B, n=4 biological replicates. *P<0.05, **P<0.01 by 2-way ANOVA (A) or unpaired Student’s t-test (B).
Fig. S12. Cyclic AMP-PKA and IL-23-STAT3 (transcription factor signal transducer and activator of transcription) signaling pathways mediate innate IL-22 production in vitro. (A) Intracellular expression of phosphorylated CREB (pCREB) in splenic CD45<sup>+</sup>Lin<sup>−</sup>CD90.2<sup>+</sup> ILCs and CD45<sup>+</sup>Lin<sup>−</sup>CD90.2<sup>+</sup>CD4<sup>+</sup> ILC3s stimulated with PGE<sub>2</sub> or vehicle for 30 min. MFI, mean fluorescence intensity. Data shown as means ± SEM are representative of two independent experiments. (B) IL-22 production in supernatants from total Rag1<sup>−/−</sup> splenocytes cultured with IL-23 plus db-cAMP or IBMX with or without H-89 overnight. db-cAMP, dibutyryl-cAMP; IBMX, 3-isobutyl-1-methylxanthine. Data shown as means ± SE are representative of two independent experiments. (C) Intracellular expression of phosphorylated STAT3 (pSTAT3) in splenic CD45<sup>+</sup>Lin<sup>−</sup>CD90.2<sup>+</sup>CD4<sup>+</sup> ILC3s stimulated with PGE<sub>2</sub> or vehicle for 5 h and then restimulated with IL-23 for a further 15 min. Data shown as means ± SEM are pooled from three independent experiments. (D) IL-22 production in supernatants from small intestinal LPLs of Rag1<sup>−/−</sup> mice cultured with IL-23 with or without PGE<sub>2</sub> and a STAT3
inhibitor overnight. Data shown as means ± SEM (n=5 biological replicates). (E) IL-22 production in supernatants from total Rag1−/− splenocytes cultured with IL-23 with or without db-cAMP and RORγt inhibitor (RORc i) or Ahr inhibitor (Ahr i) overnight, suggesting that neither RORγt nor Ahr is likely needed for cAMP-enhanced IL-22 production. Data shown as means ± SEM are representative of four independent experiments. *P<0.05, **P<0.01, ***P<0.001 by one-way ANOVA.
**Fig. S13. Positive correlations between gene expression of IL22 and PGE2 synthases in response to endotoxin infusion in humans.** Expression of *IL22* (encoding human IL-22), *PTGS2* (encoding human COX2) and *PTGES* (encoding human mPGES) genes in peripheral blood leukocytes obtained from healthy individuals before or after (2-24 h) infusion with endotoxin (CC-RE-Lot 2) or 0.9% sodium chloride (29). Raw data were retrieved from the Gene Expression Omnibus dataset GSE3284 (29). Data shown here were presented as the ‘Log₂ Ratio’ of post-infusion (2, 4, 6, 9, 24 h) vs pre-infusion (0 h) of the endotoxin. Statistical analysis was calculated by the Pearson correlation coefficients (r).
Fig. S14. A proposed model. PGE$_2$, produced by many types of cells such as macrophages, dendritic cells and gut epithelial cells, through the EP4 receptor contributes to maintaining ILC3 homeostasis. PGE$_2$ also works together with IL-23 to promote IL-22 production by ILC3s. The PGE$_2$/EP4/ILC3/IL-22 axis protects intestinal epithelial barrier function through amplification of IL-22-IL-22R signaling and promotion of production of antimicrobial peptides, mucus family proteins and tight junctions. This enables prevention of peripheral bacterial dissemination and subsequently contributes to control of systemic inflammation.
References


27. C. Yao, *et al.*, Prostaglandin E₂ promotes Th1 differentiation via synergistic amplification of IL-12 signalling by cAMP and PI3-kinase. *Nat. Commun.* **4**, 1685


51. H.R. Wong, et al., Genomic expression profiling across the pediatric systemic


Figure 1

A. Density plots for PTGES2 and PTGER4 gene expression with statistical significance indicated.

B. Heatmap showing Row z-score of gene expression, with healthy controls and bacterial infection conditions.

C. Bar graphs showing serum TNF-α and IL-6 levels with comparison of Veh and Indo treatments.

D. Images and graphs depicting spleen weight and neutrophil counts under PBS and LPS conditions.

E. Bar graphs showing neutrophil counts with comparison of Veh and Indo treatments.

F. Images showing tissue morphology under PBS and LPS conditions.

G. Bar graphs showing spleen weight with comparison of Vehicle, Vehicle agonist, EP2 agonist, and EP4 agonist treatments under LPS.

H. Bar graphs showing neutrophil counts with comparison of Veh and Indo treatments under LPS.

I. Bar graphs showing serum TNF-α and IL-6 levels with comparison of Veh and Indo treatments under LPS.
Figure 2

(A) Log$_{10}$ CFU/g liver

(B) Log$_{10}$ CFU/g liver

(C) Spleen weight (mg)

(D) Neutrophils ($\times 10^6$)

(E) Histological images of LPS and LPS+ABX groups

(F) Serum TNF-α (ng/ml)

(G) Serum IL-6 (ng/ml)

(H) Peritoneal TNF-α (pg/ml)

(I) Peritoneal IL-6 (pg/ml)

(J) Log$_{10}$ CFU/g liver
Figure 3

A. Serum IL-22 (ng/ml) with Veh and Indo treatments

B. Serum IL-22 (ng/ml) with LPS and EP4 antagonist

C. Log_{2} CFU/g of liver

D. Neutrophils (x10^6)

E. Correlation with liver CFU

F. Log_{2} Fold change for different genes

G. Log_{2} Fold change for Reg3b and Reg3g

H. Weight change (%)

I. Disease Activity Index

J. Colon length (cm)
Figure 4

A

CD90.2+ ILCs (% of CD45+ Lin cells)  

B

Pigr4 mRNA (a.u.)  

C

% of CD45+  

D

Gut CD45+LinCD90.2+RORγt+ ILC3s  

E

Gut CD45+LinCD90.2+CCR6+KLRG1+ RORγt+ ILC3s  

F

Gut CD45+ LPLs  

G

Gut CD45+ LPLs  

H

Gut CD45+ LPLs  

I

Sorted gut ILC3s  

J

Gut LPLs  

K

Sorted human ILC3s  

L

IL-2/IL-23/IL-1β