1	A deficient immune response to viral infections in children predicts later asthma persistence	
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16 manuscript. SB, MC, MB, DS, DB, EB: acquisition and analysis of data at baseline and follow-up (baseline:

17 bronchoscopy, experimental analyses on bronchial brushing and biopsies; follow-up: clinical examination,

18 statistical analysis).

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## 2 To the editor

3 Rhinovirus infection is the most frequent cause of asthma exacerbations in children, and respiratory viral 4 infections in early life have been associated with increased risk of asthma later on (1). However, the 5 mechanisms driving this association are incompletely understood. We recently showed that deficient antiviral 6 immune responses by bronchial epithelium, with decreased rhinovirus-induced IFNs production and increased 7 viral replication, are already present in preschool asthmatic children (with or without atopy) and in atopic 8 children without asthma (2). Our original cohort of 34 children was prospectively followed for 8 years in order 9 to investigate if the impaired rhinovirus-induced interferon production seen in the original population could be 10 a risk factor for the development of asthma later in life (as diagnosed by a respiratory pediatrician blinded to 11 antiviral response data).

12 Our results seem to confirm this possibility. Analyses of epithelial IFN production and viral replication along 13 with epithelial destruction and eosinophil counts in bronchial biopsies were performed as previously reported 14 (2). Follow-up data were available for 27 children: 62% of children with asthma at baseline remained asthmatic 15 at follow-up, while 21% of children with no asthma at baseline developed asthma. Children with asthma at 16 follow-up, when compared to non-asthmatics, had lower IFNλ and IFNβ and increased viral replication at 17 baseline (Table 1, Figure 1). At baseline, the deficient IFN production was associated to the percentage of 18 destroyed epithelium in bronchial biopsies (r=0.68,p<0.05). After 8 years we found an association between 19 impaired IFN at baseline and frequency of asthmatic symptoms and antibiotics use during follow-up. Notably, 20 children with no asthma at baseline, who later became asthmatics (Figure 1, open circles), also had significantly 21 lower IFNs and increased viral replication compared to those who remained non-asthmatics (IFN $\lambda$ :2.9±0.1 vs 22 3.8±0.9; IFNβ: 2.9±0.5 vs 3.9±1; RV: 5.7±0.9 vs 4.8±0.8 log10copies/μgRNA);all p<0.05]. These findings confirm 23 previous data showing that an abnormal immune response in asymptomatic infants would promote persistent 24 airway inflammation and asthma later on (3,4). Altogether these data support the concept that an 25 inappropriate response to infectious pathogens, either viral or bacterial, may not only be important for the 26 persistence of symptoms but even precede the development of asthma.

A strength of our study is that we investigated IFNs production directly from airway epithelial cells, the site where infections occur, which allowed us to correlate the epithelial functional changes with the structural changes in bronchial biopsies, in particular epithelial damage. Epithelial damage is now increasingly recognized as a crucial hallmark of asthma pathogenesis (5), not only by the newly described deficient immune function, but also by its fragility and impaired barrier function that would favor the passage of allergens and pathogens
 into the airways.

3 In our study, the decreased production of interferons by epithelial cells was also associated with the extent of 4 airway eosinophilia (r=-0.76,p=0.001), as part of the Th2 pattern of inflammation. The mechanisms linking Th2-5 induced eosinophilia with viral infections and IFN responses are complex. On one side, mice with congenital IFN 6 deficiency develop airway eosinophilia and  $T_{H2}$  cytokines when challenged with viruses (6); on the other,  $T_{H2}$ -7 induced airway eosinophilia inhibits IFNs and impairs antiviral responses (7). These data imply a reciprocal 8 regulation between antiviral responses and eosinophils in the airways with relevant clinical consequences: 9 impaired IFNs responses to viral infections would promote  $T_{H2}$  inflammation, and  $T_{H2}$ -eosinophilic 10 inflammation may, in turn, reduce the ability to respond to viruses. 11 In addition, when stratified by IgE levels (above or below the median) we found that children with high IgE 12 produced less IFNs [IFN $\lambda$ :3.1±0.5 vs 4.1±1, p=0.007; IFN $\beta$ :3.4±1 vs 4.1±1 log10copies/µgRNA, p=0.05). IgE levels 13 were correlated to peripheral blood eosinophils (r=0.66; p=0.0002) and biopsy eosinophils (r=0.43; p=0.05). 14 These results indicate that, along with eosinophils, IgE levels were related to an impaired IFN production by 15 epithelial cells, supporting the importance of a negative modulation between IgE and IFN not only in systemic 16 antiviral responses (8) but also in local responses, though the mechanisms are yet undetermined. 17 The relative contributions of respiratory viral infections vs atopy in asthma pathogenesis are still debated. It 18 has long been recognized that risk for asthma in childhood tracks with atopy. Emerging evidence shows that 19 early wheezing with respiratory infections is an important risk factor for the development of asthma, and the 20 effect of infections may even overcome the influence of sensitization at early time points (1). Thus, it has been 21 suggested that an impaired immune response of the airway epithelium may be the primary disturbance in 22 asthma, which may even anticipate atopy. Conversely, it is also possible that  $T_{H2}$  inflammation may be the 23 initiating event inducing an impairment of IFNs production with poor response to viruses and worsening of 24 asthma. In this context, recent clinical evidence supports the hypothesis of an early effect of  $T_{H2}$  inflammation 25 on viral-induced exacerbations: preventive treatment of children with anti-IgE or ICS before return to school 26 reduced viral-induced asthma exacerbations during the fall, an effect that was associated with increased IFN 27 production (9).

It should be highlighted that the complex design of our study, requiring bronchial brushing and biopsies, may imply some limitations since for ethical constraints we had to study children undergoing a clinically indicated bronchoscopy. However the indications for bronchoscopy did not differ between asthmatic and non-asthmatic children which, together with similar results recently obtained in non-bronchoscopic bronchial brushings (10), supports the validity of our results. We should acknowledge that there was a certain degree of overlap in IFNs

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1 responses between asthma and non-asthma groups. However, in biological experiments, an overlap of this

2 kind is usually expected. Despite these unavoidable biases, the conclusions we reached, suggesting that

3 impaired immune responses to infective agents in children are linked to the presence of asthma later in life, are

4 in agreement with published epidemiological data (3,4) and offer a plausible mechanism for this association.

5 In conclusion, our study suggests that a deficient epithelial interferon response to rhinovirus in early childhood

6 related to epithelial damage, in combination with  $T_H 2$  inflammation and atopy, which are known depressors of

7 IFN production, are key factors in determining the natural history of childhood asthma.

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   responses from children with asthma to rhinoviral infection. Clin Exp Allergy. 2016;46(11):1441-1455.
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- 1 Figure Legend
- 2

## **3** Figure 1 IFN-λ production at baseline in relation to asthma or no asthma at follow-up

- 4 Rhinovirus (RV16)-induced IFN-λ mRNA levels at baseline were decreased in children with asthma at follow-up
- 5 compared to those with no asthma at follow-up. Closed circles represent children with asthma at baseline,
- 6 open circles represent children without asthma at baseline. Comparison between groups was evaluated by
- 7 Student's t-tests.

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1 Table 1. Characteristics of the cohort in relation to asthma or no-asthma at follow-up

	Asthma at follow-up	No asthma at follow-up
	(n=11)	(n=16)
BASELINE CHARACTERSTICS		
Age at baseline (yrs)	5.7±3	5±3
Total IgE (U/ml)	517±902 <sup>+</sup>	187±537
Eosinophils in blood (cells*10 <sup>9</sup> /L)	0.50±0.48	0.26±0.18
Eosinophils in biopsies (cells/mm <sup>2</sup> )	86 (9-180) <sup>†</sup>	11(0-304)
IFN-λ mRNA (log <sub>10</sub> copies/μg RNA)	3.0 ± 0.46 *	4.1 ± 0.93
IFN-β mRNA (log <sub>10</sub> copies/μg RNA)	3.0 ± 0.40 †	4.2 ± 0.98
<b>IFN-β protein</b> (pg/ml)	1.6±0.2 <sup>†</sup>	2.6±1.2
Viral RNA (log <sub>10</sub> copies/µg RNA)	5 ± 0.68 †	4.5 ± 0.82
FOLLOW-UP DATA		
Duration of follow up (yrs)	7.6±0.7	7.8±0.5
Age at follow-up (yrs)	13.3±3	12.8±2.9
FEV1/FVC (%)	84±10	90±8
FEV1 (% pred)	84±10	85±11
FeNO (ppb)	17 (7-137)	14 (6-54)
Regular inhaled steroids+oral courses n. of children (%)	1 (9%)	0 (0%)
Regular inhaled steroids n.of children (%)	4 (36%)*	0 (0%)
Intermittent inhaled steroids n.of children (%)	4 (36%)*	0 (0%)
Frequency of asthma symptoms (score) #	2 [0-5]*	0
Antibiotic courses in the last year (n.)	1.7±1.8 <sup>+</sup>	0.4±0.8

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either  $\chi^2$ , Student's t-tests or Mann-Whitney-U-test. + p<0.05, + p<0.005. # Frequency Scale (0 = no symptoms;

5 1 = less than 1 episode/month; 2 = 1 episode/month; 3 = 2-3 episodes/month; 4 = 1 episode/week; 5 = more

6 than 1 episode/week; 6 = daily episodes).

<sup>3</sup> Data are expressed as mean ± SD or as median (range); comparisons between groups were evaluated with

