Immunity

Tissue resident iNKT17 cells facilitate cancer cell extravasation in liver metastasis via interleukin-22

Graphical abstract

Highlights

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- Il22-deficient mice are protected against metastasis formation
- ^d IL-22 neutralization blocks cancer cell extravasation
- ^d IL-22 acts on endothelial cells, promoting cancer cell extravasation via ANPEP induction
- Tissue resident iNKT17 cells are the key IL-22 source during cancer cell extravasation

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In brief

Interleukin-22 (IL-22) is produced by immune cells and promotes tissue repair and regeneration; however, in malignancy, IL-22 can promote tumor growth. Giannou et al. find that tissue resident iNKT17 cells produce IL-22 and promote cancer cell extravasation through regulation of aminopeptidase N. Neutralization of IL-22 inhibits metastasis formation, suggesting therapeutic avenues for cancer treatment.

Article

Tissue resident iNKT17 cells facilitate cancer cell extravasation in liver metastasis via interleukin-22

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SUMMARY

During metastasis, cancer cells invade, intravasate, enter the circulation, extravasate, and colonize target organs. Here, we examined the role of interleukin (IL)-22 in metastasis. Immune cell-derived IL-22 acts on epithelial tissues, promoting regeneration and healing upon tissue damage, but it is also associated with malignancy. Il22-deficient mice and mice treated with an IL-22 antibody were protected from colon-cancer-derived liver and lung metastasis formation, while overexpression of IL-22 promoted metastasis. Mechanistically, IL-22 acted on endothelial cells, promoting endothelial permeability and cancer cell transmigration via induction of endothelial aminopeptidase N. Multi-parameter flow cytometry and single-cell sequencing of immune cells isolated during cancer cell extravasation into the liver revealed iNKT17 cells as source of IL-22. iNKT-cell-deficient mice exhibited reduced metastases, which was reversed by injection of wild type, but not II22-deficient, invariant natural killer T (iNKT) cells. IL-22-producing iNKT cells promoting metastasis were tissue resident, as demonstrated by parabiosis. Thus, IL-22 may present a therapeutic target for prevention of metastasis.

INTRODUCTION

Metastasis is a common cause of cancer-related death. What is known as the ''metastatic cascade'' describes the multi-step process of metastasis formation: invasion, intravasation, circulation, extravasation, and colonization of the target organs.^{[1](#page-16-0)} The crosstalk among the immune system, cancer cells, and tissue-specific stromal cells is thought to be the critical determinant in metastatic progression,^{[2](#page-16-1)} although specific insight into the cells and factors mediating this communication is limited. Tissue resident immune cells lodge in non-lymphoid tissues, providing continuous immune surveillance, and enable a prompt and efficient *in situ* response upon pathogen invasion. $3,4$ $3,4$ Furthermore, tissue resident immune cells, and specifically CD8⁺ T cells, innate lymphoid

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cells (ILCs), and innate-like T cells, perform an anti-tumorigenic function in the primary tumor in mice.^{5[,6](#page-16-5)} Tissue resident invariant natural killer T (iNKT) cells can also contribute to the anti-tumor response. $⁷$ $⁷$ $⁷$ There are distinct subsets of iNKT cells, namely</sup> iNKT1, iNKT2, and iNKT17 cells, whose transcriptional profiles and signature cytokines are analog to Th1, Th2, and Th17 cell subsets among CD4⁺ T cells. However, the role of tissue resident immune cells in the metastatic cascade is poorly understood.

Interleukin (IL)-22, a cytokine belonging to the IL-10 family, can be produced by tissue resident immune cells.^{[8](#page-16-7)} Furthermore, iNKT cells, and specifically iNKT17 cells, are able to produce IL-22.^{[9–12](#page-16-8)} IL-22 is also released by several other immune cell types, including ILCs and CD4⁺ T lymphocytes.^{[13](#page-16-9)} Interestingly, cancer cells can directly induce IL-22 production *in vitro* and *in vivo*[14](#page-16-10) and IL-22-producing Th17 cells accumulate in colon cancer tissues.^{[15](#page-16-11)} Accordingly, the number of infiltrating CD4⁺ IL17A⁺ IL-22⁺ T cells is higher in human colorectal cancer (CRC), while CD4⁺IL17A⁻IL-22⁺ T cells are not increased compared to healthy adjacent tissue.^{[16–18](#page-16-12)} Unlike other cytokines, IL-22 binds to non-immune cells expressing its specific receptor, IL-22RA1.^{[19](#page-16-13)} Thus, IL-22 may mediate the communication between the immune system and the tissue.

Interestingly, IL-22 has dual functions: short-term IL-22 exposure promotes intestinal integrity and protects intestinal stem cells against genotoxic stress.^{[19](#page-16-13)[,20](#page-16-14)} However, uncontrolled and prolonged IL-22 activity promotes intestinal tumorigenesis.²¹⁻²³ IL-22 promotes cancer cell stemness 24,25 24,25 24,25 24,25 24,25 and facilitates tumor growth. $26,27$ $26,27$ These data are further supported by human studies, which indicate a detrimental role of uncontrolled IL-22 activity in cancer. $28,29$ $28,29$ $28,29$ Despite these data, the role of IL-22 during metastasis formation is still unclear.

In this study, we examined the role of IL-22 in metastasis formation. We found that tissue-resident iNKT17 cell-derived IL-22 acted directly on endothelial cells, thereby facilitating cancer cell extravasation via induction of endothelial aminopeptidase N (ANPEP) and, subsequently, liver metastasis formation. Our data present a rationale for targeting IL-22 in the clinic.

RESULTS

Il22-deficiency in mice protects against liver metastasis

First, we analyzed the role of IL-22 using a forced metastatic mouse model,^{[30](#page-17-1)} namely intrasplenic (i.s.) injection of CRC cells (MC38, murine colon adenocarcinoma cells). *Il22*-deficient mice were protected from metastasis formation compared to littermate

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Figure 1. Il22-deficient mice are protected against liver metastasis

(A) Schematic overview of the experiment (i.s. injection of MC38 cells).

(B) Representative pictures, number of macroscopic liver metastases, and liver weight of $II22^{+/+}$ mice compared to $II22^{-/-}$ mice. n ≥ 11 mice per group.

(C) H&E staining and metastatic foci. n = 5 mice per group.

(D) Schematic overview of the experiment (i.s. injection of MC38 cells).

(E) Liver weight and number of macroscopic liver metastases in mice treated with an α -IL-22 or IgG control antibody. $n \ge 8$ mice per group.

(F) Schematic overview of the experiment (i.s. injection of CT26CAG-Luc cells).

(G) Ex vivo bioluminescent imaging of livers after hydrodynamic overexpression of eGFP or II22eGFP plasmid. Bioluminescent scale: 2 x 10⁷-2 x 10⁸ photons/sec/cm² /sr. Liver weight and number of macroscopic liver metastases in Balb/c mice after hydrodynamic overexpression of *eGFP* or *Il22eGFP* plasmid. $n \geq 6$ mice per group.

(H) Bioluminescent imaging of Balb/c mice after hydrodynamic overexpression of eGFP or *Il22eGFP* plasmid. Bioluminescent scale: 5 x 10⁷-5 x 10⁸ photons/sec/cm²/sr. n ≥ 6 mice per group. Scale bar: 2 mm.

(I) Schematic overview of the experiment (injection of LLC cells into the cecum).

(J) Representative pictures and number of macroscopic liver metastases in $II22^{+/+}$ and $II22^{-/-}$ mice. n ≥ 6 mice per group.

controls [\(Figures 1A](#page-3-0)–1C). Likewise, IL-22 blockade protected mice from developing liver metastasis [\(Figures 1](#page-3-0)D and 1E). We then used a gain-of-function approach: *Il22tg8Tg* transgenic mice overexpress IL-22 in the liver and also have increased serum IL-22 levels (\approx 6,000 pg/ml).^{[31](#page-17-2)} Indeed, we found an increased number of liver metastases in *Il22tg8Tg* transgenic mice compared to littermate controls upon induction of forced liver metastasis ([Figure S1](#page-15-0)A). The pro-metastatic function of IL-22 was seen also in *Balb/c* wild-type (WT) mice after hydrodynamic overexpression of IL-22 or control plasmid administration (*eGFP*) in the liver followed by an i.s. induction of liver metastasis with the CT26GAG-Luc colon cancer cell line [\(Figures 1](#page-3-0)F–1H and [S1B](#page-15-0)–S1F).

We next examined the role of IL-22 in spontaneous metastasis models. To this end, we first injected C57BL/6 Lewis lung adenocarcinoma syngeneic cancer cells (Lewis lung carcinoma [LLC] cell line) into the cecum of *Il22*-deficient mice and littermate controls. *Il22*-deficient mice were largely protected from metastasis forma-tion compared to littermate controls [\(Figures 1](#page-3-0)I and 1J). As a second model, we used *Apc^{15lox};Kras^{G12D}* mice,^{[32](#page-17-3)[,33](#page-17-4)} a genetic model which spontaneously develops CRC and liver metastasis upon adenovirus, Ad-Cre (see STAR Methods), injection. Upon hydrodynamic overexpression of IL-22 in the liver, 60% of the mice developed liver metastases compared to no detectable metastases in mice with control (*Egfp*) gene transfer [\(Figures 1K](#page-3-0)–1N). There was no difference in the formation of the primary tumor in the colon. As a third spontaneous model, we used an intramucosal injection of CT26GAG-Luc cells in order to mimic human CRC development. This experimental setup resulted in liver metastasis formation only in*Balb/c*WT mice overexpressing IL-22 in their liver, while *Balb/c Il22-*deficient mice with a control hydrodynamic gene transfer did not develop any liver metastases [\(Figure S1](#page-15-0)G).

Thus, in various experimental models, IL-22 promoted liver metastasis formation.

IL-22 affects the host endothelium, thereby promoting metastasis

The next step was to identify the target cells of IL-22.Wefound that tumor cells (MC38 and LCC) express IL-22RA1 and can respond to IL-22 *in vitro* [\(Figures S2A](#page-15-0)–S2D). Furthermore, IL-22 increased cancer cell stemness, evidenced by enhanced tumor sphere formation *in vitro* ([Figure S2](#page-15-0)E). To assess the relevance of this finding *in vivo*, we injected LLC-GFP (LLC-Green Fluorescent Protein) cancer cells into the cecum of mice or MC38-GFP cells intrasplenically. *Il22*-deficient mice showed lower circulating tumor cell (CTC) numbers in both models ([Figures S2](#page-15-0)F-S2I). In order to test whether IL-22 acts directly on tumor cells *in vivo*, we silenced the expres-sion of IL-22RA1 in MC38 cells [\(Figures S2J](#page-15-0) and S2K). We found no difference upon injection of *Il22ra1-*deficient and control MC38 cells when we used WT mice as recipients, suggesting that endogenous IL-22 levels are not sufficient to promote metastasis by acting on tumor cells directly. However, we observed reduced metastatic sites in *Il22tg8Tg* transgenic mice receiving

*Il22ra1-*deficient MC38 cells compared to the control group [\(Figures 2](#page-5-0)A and 2B), thus indicating that IL-22 in high concentrations can act on tumor cells *in vivo*. On this basis, we aimed to assess whether IL-22 could also act on non-tumor cells *in vivo*. To this end, we injected WT MC38 cells (which express IL-22RA1) intrasplenically into *II22ra1*-deficient¹⁹ and littermate control mice. *Il22ra1*-deficient mice exhibited lower liver weight and macroscopic metastases compared to WT littermate controls [\(Figures 2C](#page-5-0) and 2D). Thus, IL-22 can act on non-tumor cells, thereby promoting metastasis formation.

We next aimed to identify the non-tumor cell that would respond to IL-22. We did not detect expression of the IL-22RA1 receptor in CD45+ (immune) cells. However, we found that the liver sinusoidal endothelial cells (LSECs) highly expressed the IL22RA1 receptor [\(Figures 2](#page-5-0)E and 2F). Furthermore, IL-22 induced STAT3 phosphorylation in LSECs *in vitro* [\(Figure 2](#page-5-0)G). We further used a mouse model with conditional deletion of *Il22ra1* ([Figures S2](#page-15-0)L, S2M, and S2O). This was crossed with *Cdh5^{Cre}* mice to obtain an endothelial-specific deletion, [34](#page-17-5) and we observed Cre recombina-tion in approximately 60% of endothelial cells [\(Figure S2](#page-15-0)O). As control, we used mice with a hepatocyte-specific driver, Albumin Cre (Alb^{Cre}), because hepatocytes can also respond to IL-22.³⁵ We did not observe a difference in the number of metastatic sites in *Il22ra1flox/flox;AlbCre+* mice compared to littermate controls upon i.s. injection of MC38 cells inducing liver metastasis [\(Figures 2H](#page-5-0) and 2I). In contrast, *Il22ra1flox/flox Cdh5Cre+* mice phenocopied *Il22ra1*-deficient mice by showing reducedforced livermetastases [\(Figures 2](#page-5-0)J and 2K).

Taken together, these findings indicate that IL-22 acts on the host endothelium, thereby promoting metastasis formation.

IL-22 signaling in endothelial cells promotes cancer cell extravasation

Next, we aimed to uncover the mechanism by which IL-22 signaling would promote metastasis formation. We hypothesized that this is due to altered endothelial adhesion of cancer cells, increased permeability of the endothelial layer allowing enhanced extravasation of cancer cells, or a combination of both. To test this, we used an *in vitro* adhesion assay and found that IL-22 did not increase the adhesion of CRC cells, HT-29 or MC38, to human umbilical vein endothelial cells (HUVECs) or LSECs, respectively [\(Figures S3](#page-15-0)A–S3C). As positive control, we used IL-1 α and tumor necrosis factor (TNF)- α [\(Figures S3](#page-15-0)A–S3C). Additionally, IL-22 did not affect the expression of adhesion molecules such as E-Sel, P-Sel, ICAM-1, and VCAM-1 ([Figures S3](#page-15-0)D–S3F). Next, we tested whether IL-22 would increase endothelial permeability and thus cancer cell extravasation. We found that IL-22 signaling enhanced the extravasation of tumor cells into the liver parenchyma, whereas this was decreased upon IL-22 blockade ([Figures 3A](#page-6-0)-3F and [S3G](#page-15-0)–S3K). Likewise, *Il22ra1flox/flox;Cdh5Cre+* mice lacking IL-22 signaling on the endothelium showed reduced extravasation

⁽K) Schematic overview of the experiment (adenoviral infection of colonic epithelium for orthotopic colon cancer induction as a model of spontaneous liver metastasis).

⁽L) Endoscopic score of primary colon cancer of Apc^{15lox} ; Kras^{G12D} mice. n ≥ 6 mice per group.

⁽M) *Il22* mRNA levels in total liver of *Apc15lox;KrasG12D* mice upon hydrodynamic liver overexpression of *eGFP* or *Il22eGFP* plasmid. n = 6 mice per group. (N) Representative pictures and percentage of *Apc15lox;KrasG12D* mice that developed macroscopic metastases. n = 6 mice per group. Scale bar: 2 mm. Data presented as mean ± SEM, not significant (ns): $p > 0.05$; *p < 0.05; **p ≤ 0.01 ; ***p ≤ 0.001 as assessed by Mann-Whitney U test or Fischer's exact test (K).

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Figure 2. IL-22 affects the host endothelium, thereby promoting metastasis

(A) Schematic overview of the experiment (i.s. injection of MC38shC and MC38*shIl22ra1* cells in *Il22tg(wt)* and *Il22tg8(Tg)* mice).

- (B) Liver weight and number of macroscopic liver metastases. $n \ge 7$ mice per group.
- (C) Schematic overview of the experiment (i.s. injection of MC38 cells in WT and *Il22ra1/* mice).
- (D) Liver weight and number of macroscopic liver metastases. $n \ge 7$ mice per group.
- (E) IL-22RA1 expression in CD45⁺ cells and LSECs.
- (F) Immunostaining of LSECs with CD31 (green) and IL-22RA1 (red). Scale bar, 50 mm.
- (G) pSTAT3 levels in LSECs isolated from 6 WT mice and treated with recombinant murine (rm) IL-22.
- (H) Schematic overview of the experiment (i.s. MC38 cell injection in *Il22ra1wt/wt;AlbCre+* and *Il22ra1flox/flox;AlbCre+* mice).
- (I) Liver weight and number of macroscopic liver metastases. $n \ge 7$ mice per group.
- (J) Schematic overview of the experiment (i.s. MC38 cell injection in *Il22ra1wt/wt;Cdh5Cre+* and *Il22ra1flox/flox;Cdh5Cre+* mice).
- (K) Liver weight and number of macroscopic liver metastases. $n \geq 14$ mice per group. Scale bar, 2 mm (B, D, I, and K). Data presented as mean \pm SEM, ns:

 $p > 0.05$; *p < 0.05; **p ≤ 0.01 ; ***p ≤ 0.001 as assessed by Mann-Whitney U test (C, D, I, and K) or one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni post hoc tests (B and G).

Figure 3. IL-22 signaling in endothelial cells is required for cancer cell extravasation

(A) Schematic overview of the experiment (i.s. injection of MC38 GFP-labelled cells in WT, *Il22/*, and *Il22ra1/* mice [extravasation assay]). See also [Figure S3.](#page-15-0) (B) Representative FACS (fluorescence-activated cell sorting) plots and number of extravasated cancer cells 24 h post i.s. cancer cell injection. $n \geq 4$ mice per group.

(C) Representative images of immunostaining of MC38 Cherry-labeled cells and endomucin (endothelial marker; green) 24 h post i.s. cancer cell injection. Scale bar. 50 um.

(D) Number of extravasated cancer cells 24 h post i.s. injection. n = 6 mice per group.

(E) Schematic overview of the experiment (injection of MC38 Cherry-labeled cells in WT

mice receiving an anti-IL-22 or IgG control antibody).

(F) Representative FACS plots and number of extravasated cancer cells from (E). $n \geq 5$ mice per group.

(G) Schematic overview of the experiment (i.s. injection of MC38 GFP-labeled cells in *Il22ra1wt/wt;Cdh5Cre+* and *Il22ra1flox/flox;Cdh5Cre+* mice [extravasation assay]).

(H) Representative FACS plots and number of extravasated cancer cells 24 h post i.s. cancer cell injection. n ≥ 8 mice per group.
(I) Schematic overview of the experiment (i.s. injection of MC38 cells in *II22ra 1^{wt/wt};*

(J) Immune cell infiltration in the liver 24 h post i.s. injection. $n \ge 7$ mice per group. Data presented as mean ± SEM, ns p > 0.05; *p < 0.05; **p ≤ 0.01 ; **p ≤ 0.01 ; **p ≤ 0.001 as assessed by one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni post hoc tests (B and D) or Mann-Whitney U test (F, H, and J).

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[\(Figures 3](#page-6-0)G–3J). Finally, humanized MISTRG mice (*Rag2-/-Il2rg-/* mice in which the genes encoding human M-CSF, human IL-3 and GM-CSF, and human TPO are knocked in to their respective mouse loci; they also include a BAC-transgene encoding human SIRP_a) that were engrafted with hCD34+ cells showed reduced extravasating human cancer cells (HCT-116, human CRC cells) into the liver parenchyma upon treatment with Fezakinumab, a human IL-22 antibody ([Figures S3](#page-15-0)L and S3M).

Thus, these findings indicate that IL-22 blockade can be a therapeutic approach to prevent extravasation of tumor cells into the target organ.

IL-22 promotes increased endothelial expression of ANPEP and thereby cancer cell extravasation

In order to identify the molecular mechanisms underlying the effect of IL-22, we first used an *in vitro* assay. We found that LSEC exposure to rmIL-22 particularly induced the expression of three transcripts, namely *Anpep*, *Epas1*, and *Fgfr3 in vitro* [\(Figures 4](#page-8-0)A and [S4](#page-15-0)A–S4E). We decided to focus on the aminopeptidase ANPEP, since ANPEP has been implicated in metastasis formation before³⁶ and the increased expression in LSECs could be verified by qPCR and immunoblotting [\(Figures 4](#page-8-0)B, 4C, and [S4](#page-15-0)A–S4E). Additionally, MC38 cell i.s. injection in WT mice induced the expression of *Anpep* in LSECs 12 h after injection compared to *Il22*-deficient mice ([Figure S4F](#page-15-0)). Indeed, ANPEP staining of WT LSECs isolated from a murine liver at the steady state revealed that the majority of CD31⁺ endothelial cells are positive for ANPEP [\(Figure 4](#page-8-0)D). Subsequently, we used two different *in vitro* endothelial cell assays. These experiments showed that IL-22 acts on the endothelium and affects cancer cell transmigration and vascular permeability [\(Figures 4](#page-8-0)E and 4F). We then silenced the ANPEP expression on HUVEC cells using lentiviral transduction [\(Figure 4H](#page-8-0)). This resulted in reduced cancer cell transmigration compared to respective controls [\(Figure 4I](#page-8-0)). Next, we used Ubenimex, which blocks aminopeptidase activity. Ubenimextreated mice exhibited reduced metastatic sites compared to respective controls [\(Figures S4I](#page-15-0) and S4J). However, Ubenimex treatment also resulted in reduced tumor cell proliferation [\(Figures S4G](#page-15-0) and S4H). Thus, ubenimex might also act on cancer cells and have ANPEP-independent effects. Therefore, we next intrasplenically injected MC38 cells into ANPEP-deficient mice $(Cd13^{-/-}$ mice) and WT littermate controls. ANPEP-deficient mice showed reduced metastasis formation compared to littermate controls [\(Figures S4](#page-15-0)K and S4L). In order to further examine the role of the IL-22-ANPEP axis in the extravasation of tumor cells, we treated $Cd13^{-/-}$ mice with an anti-IL-22 neutralizing antibody and assessed the extravasation of tumor cells. WT mice, but not *Cd13^{-/-}* mice, receiving anti-IL-22 neutralizing antibody showed a decreased extravasation of tumor cells compared to mice receiving IgG antibody ([Figures 4J](#page-8-0)–4K).

Thus, IL-22 regulates ANPEP expression in endothelial cells *in vitro* and *in vivo*. Furthermore, the effect of IL-22 on cancer cell extravasation seems to depend at least in part on ANPEP.

IL-22 promotes lung metastasis by promoting cancer cell extravasation

On the basis of our data obtained in the liver, we next aimed to extend our findings to lung metastasis. We used two lung metastasis models and found in both models that *Il22*-deficient mice

were protected from metastasis formation [\(Figures 5](#page-9-0)A and 5B). In contrast, *Il22tg8Tg* mice showed increased lung metastasis [\(Figure S5](#page-15-0)A). In this model of forced lung metastasis, 60% of *Il22tg8Tg* mice also developed liver metastasis, while this was not the case in any of their littermate controls ([Figure S5B](#page-15-0)).

In line with our data in liver metastasis, *Il22ra1flox/flox;Cdh5Cre+* mice ([Figure S2](#page-15-0)) were also protected in a forced lung metastasis model ([Figures 5C](#page-9-0) and 5D). To test the hypothesis that IL-22 acts on the endothelial cells in the target organ, we transplanted a single left lung from *Il22ra1*-deficient mice (*Il22ra1/*) orthotopically into C57BL/6N *Il22ra1*-proficient mice (*Il22ra1+/+*). Thus, an *Il22ra1*-proficient lung and an *Il22ra1*-deficient lung were in the same host. The mice subsequently underwent the forced metastasis model by intravenous (i.v.) administration of MC38 cells. We found that the orthotopically transplanted *Il22ra1*-deficient left lung from the donor was protected from metastasis compared to the host *Il22ra1*-proficient right lung ([Figures 5](#page-9-0)E and 5F), indicating that IL-22 acts on the endothelial cells of the target organ.

To test whether IL-22 would increase the permeability of the endothelial layer, thereby allowing enhanced extravasation of cancer cells, we performed an *in vivo* extravasation assay. We found that *Il22-* and *Il22ra1*-deficient mice as well as mice treated with an α -IL-22 antibody showed less cancer cell extravasation compared to littermate WT controls [\(Figures 5G](#page-9-0)–5J). *Il22ra1flox/flox;Cdh5Cre+* mice lacking IL-22 signaling on the endothelium showed reduced extravasation into the lung ([Figures 5K](#page-9-0) and 5L). Finally, we exposed mouse primary lung endothelial cells to rmIL-22, which resulted in increased *Anpep* expression [\(Figure S5C](#page-15-0)).

Next, we aimed to investigate the identity of IL-22-producing cells that participate in cancer cell extravasation into the lung. Using flow cytometry, we found that the relative contribution of T and $\gamma \delta$ T cells of all IL-22-producing cells increased 12 h post cancer cell injection ([Figure S5](#page-15-0)D). On this basis, we performed an extravasation assay in WT and *Rag1^{-/-}* mice, which lack adaptive immune cells. We observed higher cancer cell extravasation in the lungs of WT compared to *Rag1^{-/-}* mice, suggesting that adaptive immune cells affect cancer cell extravasation [\(Figures S5](#page-15-0)E and S5F). We then used *Il22flox/flox;CD4Cre+* mice and found that T cell-derived IL-22 does not impact extravasation into the lung [\(Figures S5](#page-15-0)G and S5H). To test the role of iNKTs (invariant natural killer T cells), we used Ja18^{-/-} mice, injected intravenously with MC38 Cherry-labeled cancer cells. No difference was observed in mice lacking iNKT cells compared to littermate controls [\(Figures S5](#page-15-0)I and S5J). Finally, we used diphtheria toxin-induced $\gamma\delta$ T cell-deficient mice (*Tcrd^{GDL/GDL*} [GDL: GFP, human diphtheria toxin receptor, and luciferase knocked-in]) and found that these mice had reduced cancer cell extravasation into the lungs compared to controls [\(Figures S5](#page-15-0)K and S5L).

Taken together, IL-22 also acts on the lung endothelium, thereby inducing ANPEP and, consequently, cancer cell transmigration and metastasis formation.

IL-22-producing iNKT cells facilitate cancer cell extravasation into the liver parenchyma

Our next aim was to identify the source of IL-22 at the extravasation step of liver metastasis formation. To this end, we used an IL-22 reporter mouse model (*IL-22sgBFP;IL-17AeGFP;Foxp3mRFP)* and analyzed IL-22 expression 12 h post i.s. cancer cell injection. IL-22

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Figure 4. IL-22 increases endothelial ANPEP expression, thereby promoting endothelial permeability and cancer cell transmigration

(A) Gene expression analysis of LSECs upon rm IL-22 or PBS stimulation. (B) *Anpep* expression in LSECs upon stimulation with rmIL-22.

(C) Immunoblotting analysis and quantification of ANPEP in LSECs upon rmIL-22 stimulation.

(D) Confocal microscopy pictures of *in vitro* cultured LSECs showing the CD31 (green) and ANPEP (red) expression.

(E) *In vitro* extravasation model of HT29 GFP-labeled cancer cells through HUVEC cells.

(F) TEER of HUVEC cell layers upon rmIL-22 stimulation.

(G) *ANPEP* RNA levels upon rmIL-22 stimulation.

(H) *ANPEP* RNA expression after shRNA silencing of *ANPEP* in different HUVEC clones.

(I) *In vitro* extravasation model of HT29 GFP-labeled cancer cells through *shC* or *shANPEP* HUVEC cells. n = 2 independent experiments.

(J) Schematic overview of the experiment (i.s. injection of MC38 Cherry cells in *Cd13+/+* or *Cd13/* mice receiving an a-IL-22 or IgG control antibody).

(K) Representative FACS plots and statistics. n ≥ 10 mice per group. Data presented as mean \pm SEM, ns p > 0.05; *p < 0.05; **p \leq 0.01; ***p \leq 0.001 as assessed by one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni post hoc tests (D and K) or Mann-Whitney U test (B, E, F, and I).

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was already expressed in steady state and was further upregu-lated 12 h post cancer cell injection [\(Figures 6A](#page-11-0) and 6B). The highest IL-22 frequency was observed in CD8⁺ T cells, but several other immune cells including CD3⁺CD4⁻CD8⁻immune cells ([Figures 6C](#page-11-0), 6D, and [S6A](#page-15-0)) and ILCs expressed IL-22 ([Figures S6](#page-15-0)B-S6G). To test whether ILCs are a relevant source of IL-22 in cancer cell extravasation, we performed an extravasation assay in *Rag1^{-/-}* mice, which lack adaptive immune cells, and WT mice with IgG or a neutralizing IL-22 antibody. Treatment of WT but not *Rag1/* mice with the neutralizing IL-22 antibody resulted in reduced cancer cell extravasation ([Figures 6E](#page-11-0) and 6F). In line with these data, both *Rag1^{-/-}* and *Rag1^{-/-}Il22^{-/-}* mice showed a similar liver metastasis burden 21 days post can-cer cell injection [\(Figure S6](#page-15-0)H). This finding suggests that adaptive immune cells promote cancer cell extravasation via IL-22. On this basis, we used *Il22flox/flox;CD4Cre+* mice and found that IL-22 derived from CD4⁺ or CD8⁺ T cells does not impact cancer cell extravasation into the liver [\(Figures 6G](#page-11-0) and 6H). Based on these data, we hypothesized that a CD3⁺CD4⁻CD8⁻cell, which is not present in $Raq1^{-/-}$ mice, might be the functionally relevant source of IL-22. This could, for example, be iNKT or $\gamma\delta$ T cells. To test this hypothesis, we engrafted *Rag1/Il22/* mice with the total population of iNKT or $\gamma \delta$ T cells isolated from the livers of WT (*II22^{+/+}*) or *Il22-*deficient mice [\(Figures 6](#page-11-0)I and [S6I](#page-15-0)–S6L). Indeed, we found that *Rag1/Il22/* mice harboring WT (*Il22+/+*) iNKT cells exhibited increased extravasation compared to mice harboring $I/22^{-/-}$ iNKT cells 24 h upon i.s. injection of labeled tumor cells ([Figures 6I](#page-11-0) and 6J). On the contrary, *Rag/Il22/* mice receiving I I22^{+/+} or I I22^{-/-} $\gamma \delta$ T cells did not show a difference in cancer cell extravasation [\(Figures S6](#page-15-0)M and S6Q). Thus, in contrast to our observations in lung tissues, absence of $\gamma\delta$ T cells had no impact on cancer cell extravasation into the liver parenchyma [\(Figures S6](#page-15-0)M– S6Q). Next, we used *Ja18*-deficient mice, which lack iNKT cells. These mice were largely protected from metastasis formation compared to littermate controls [\(Figure S6R](#page-15-0)–S6S). We then engrafted *Ja18*-deficient mice with iNKT cells. Engraftment with iNKT cells isolated from the livers of WT (*Il22+/+*) mice resulted in increased extravasation compared to mice harboring $I/22^{-/-}$ iNKT cells [\(Figures 6](#page-11-0)K and 6L). Finally, we aimed to examine whether iNKT cells would also express IL-22 in human liver metastasis [\(Figures S6](#page-15-0)T–S6V). Using flow cytometric analysis of human

perimetastatic liver and liver metastasis from patients with primary CRC (M1, TNM staging), we found that iNKT cells were also able to produce IL-22 in human liver metastasis, particularly in the peri-metastatic region ([Figure S6V](#page-15-0)).

Thus, iNKT cells in the liver can produce IL-22 in mice and humans. Furthermore, IL-22 derived from iNKT cells plays a key functional role during cancer cell extravasation into the liver parenchyma.

Tissue resident iNKT17 IL-22-producing cells facilitate cancer cell extravasation

A tissue resident phenotype could explain why IL-22 is expressed in the target organ prior to metastasis formation. To test this, WT and IL-22 reporter mice were injected with MC38 cancer cells intrasplenically. 12 h post cancer cell injection, the mice received an a-CD45-AF700 antibody intravenously in order to label circulating immune cells and were sacrificed 2–3 min later. Using flow cytometric analysis, we found that the frequency of CD45-PeCy7 single-positive (infiltrating) cells increased upon cancer cell injection ([Figures 7A](#page-13-0) and 7B). We then aimed to assess the relative contribution of IL-22-producing iNKT cells to the total amount of IL-22-producing CD3⁺ cells. We found that the relative contribution of iNKT cells accounted for about 13% of all CD3⁺IL-22-producing cells and increased to about 21% 12 h post cancer cell injection [\(Figures 7C](#page-13-0) and [S7](#page-15-0)). There was a higher frequency of infiltrating iNKT cells producing IL-22 compared to circulating ones ([Figures 7](#page-13-0)C and [S7](#page-15-0)). We further assessed the contribution of IL-22-producing iNKT cells within IL-22-producing CD45⁺ cells. The frequency of IL-22-producing iNKT cells, in particular the frequency of infiltrating IL-22 producing iNKT cells, also increased within this cell fraction, while the frequency of $\gamma\delta$ T cells, which was measured as a con-trol, stayed the same ([Figures 7D](#page-13-0), 7E, and [S7](#page-15-0)). In order to better characterize the iNKT cells 12 h post i.s. injection, we used flow cytometry and single-cell sequencing. Using flow cytometry, we found that among iNKT cells, the production of IL-22 was almost exclusive to iNKT17 cells. Only a very small percentage of iNKT1 or iNKT2 cells produced IL-22. Furthermore, the single cell sequencing data demonstrated that iNKT cells express tissue resident markers, namely *Tmem176a and Tmem176b* [\(Figures 7](#page-13-0)F, 7G, and $S7$).^{[37](#page-17-8)} We could not test the iNKT17

Figure 5. IL-22 promotes lung metastasis by promoting cancer cell extravasation

(A) Schematic overview of the experiment (i.v. injection of MC38 cells for forced lung metastasis), representative pictures and number of macroscopic metastases, H&E staining, and metastatic foci percentage of *II22^{+/+}* and *II22^{-/−}* mice. n ≥ 10 mice per group.

(B) Schematic overview of the experiment (flank injection of MC38 cells for spontaneous lung metastasis), representative pictures, and number of macroscopic metastases. $n \geq 10$ mice per group. Scale bar, 2 mm.

(D) Number of macroscopic lung metastases. $n > 5$ mice per group.

- (I) Schematic overview of the experiment (i.v. injection of MC38 GFP-labeled cells in WT mice receiving an anti-IL-22 or IgG control antibody).
- (J) Representative FACS plots and number of extravasated cancer cells. $n \geq 11$ mice per group.

(L) Representative FACS plots and number of extravasated cancer cells from *Il22ra1wt/wt;Cdh5Cre+* and *Il22ra1flox/flox;Cdh5Cre+* mice 24 h post i.v. injection. n = 5 mice per group. Data presented as mean \pm SEM, ns p > 0.05; *p < 0.05; **p \leq 0.01; ***p \leq 0.001 as assessed by Mann-Whitney U test (A–D, J, and L), one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni post hoc tests (H), or two-tailed Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank test (F).

⁽C) Schematic overview of the experiment (i.v. injection of MC38 for forced lung metastasis in *Il22ra1wt/wt;Cdh5Cre+* and *Il22ra1flox/flox;Cdh5Cre+* mice).

⁽E) Schematic overview of the experiment (i.v. MC38 cell injection following single left orthotopic lung transplantation using WT mice as recipients and *Il22ra1/* mice as donors).

⁽F) Representative pictures and quantification of lung metastases. $n = 7$ mice per group.

⁽G) Schematic overview of the experiment (i.v. injection of MC38 Cherry-labeled cells in WT, *II22^{-/-}* and *II22ra1^{-/-}* mice [extravasation assay]).

⁽H) Representative FACS plots and number of extravasated cancer cells 24 h post i.v. injection. n = 4 mice per group.

⁽K) Schematic overview of the experiment (i.v. injection of MC38 GFP-labeled cells in *Il22ra1wt/wt;Cdh5Cre+* and *Il22ra1flox/flox;Cdh5Cre+* mice [extravasation assay]).

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phenotype of the iNKT cells using the single-cell sequencing data, since *Il17a* and *Il22* were barely detectable and only a very small percentage of *Rorc*-positive cells were found [\(Fig](#page-15-0)[ure S7\)](#page-15-0). Finally, we performed parabiosis experiments, thereby creating parabiotic pairs between CD45.2 and CD45. $\frac{1}{2}$ mice.^{[38](#page-17-9)} Fourteen days post connection [\(Figure 7H](#page-13-0)), we injected MC38 cells or PBS into the portal vein of the CD45.2 members of the pairs [\(Figures 7](#page-13-0)I and 7J). Twelve hours post injection, we found that the majority of liver CD45⁺IL-22⁺ cells were in fact tissue resident cells ([Figure 7K](#page-13-0)). In addition, we created pairs consisting of either two WT (littermate controls of *Il22*-deficient mice) mice or WT and *Il22*-deficient mice ([Figure 7L](#page-13-0)). After 14 days, MC38 GFP-labeled cells were injected into the portal vein of both mice of the pair, which were then sacrificed 24 h later. *Il22*-deficient mice showed less extravasation compared to WT mice of the same pair [\(Figures 7](#page-13-0)M and 7N). WT mice paired with WT (littermate controls of $II22^{-/-}$ mice) mice showed an equal extravasation number, suggesting that tissue-resident cell-derived IL-22 promotes extravasation of cancer cells.

Taken together, tissue resident iNKT17 cells are the functional relevant source of IL-22 during cancer cell extravasation.

DISCUSSION

Metastasis is responsible for the majority of cancer-related deaths worldwide.^{[39](#page-17-10)} The secondary tumor development and growth are influenced by tumor-infiltrating immune cells, ^{[40](#page-17-11)} which can either promote or inhibit metastasis development.⁴¹⁻⁴³ However, the role of the immune cells that reside at the target site prior to its colonization with cancer cells in metastasis formation remains elusive. Thus, it is unclear whether tissue resident immune cells facilitate or inhibit metastasis. Consequently, it is unknown whether these cells and their cytokines could be targets for novel immunotherapies.

We report here that IL-22 is produced by tissue resident iNKT17 cells and mediates the immune system – cancer cell – tissue-specific stromal cell crosstalk, thereby facilitating cancer cell extravasation and thus liver metastasis formation. IL-22 increased endothelial permeability, thereby facilitating cancer cell extravasation. The consequence was tissue invasion, the critical step in metastasis formation. This effect was mediated by an IL-22-mediated upregulation of ANPEP expression in LSECs (see [graphical abstract](#page-12-0)).

ANPEP is an aminopeptidase produced by a plethora of cells.[44](#page-17-13) Interestingly, myeloid-derived ANPEP expression facilitates metastasis formation because *Anpep*-deficient mice show reduced lung metastases compared to *Anpep*-deficient mice transplanted with bone marrow from WT donors.^{[36](#page-17-7)} We extend this finding and we suggest that ANPEP aminopeptidase is an IL-22 target gene that increases endothelial permeability when expressed in the murine endothelium.

Several studies have reported that iNKT cells interact with liver sinusoids via the CXCL16-CXCR6 axis.^{[45,](#page-17-14)[46](#page-17-15)} Interestingly, CXCL16 secretion by liver sinusoids has been linked to anti-tumor and anti-metastatic activity of iNKT cells in the liver. 46 Thus, we assessed whether this pathway also correlates with IL-22 production. However, this was not the case. Therefore, it seems that while the anti-tumorigenic functions of iNKT cells are linked to the CXCL16-CXCR6 axis, the pro-metastatic functions of iNKT cells shown here are linked to the IL-22-ANPEP axis. Interestingly, this effect of IL-22 as a promoter of cancer cell extravasation was not only found in the liver, but also in lung. The liver and the lungs both have extended endothelium, but their endothelial cells are markedly different.^{[47](#page-17-16)} In contrast to the lung, the liver is characterized by unique capillaries that differ from other capillaries in the body because of the presence of open pores. However, the endothelial permeability cannot fully explain the higher metastatic rates and metastatic organotropism exhibited by various forms of cancer. For example, primary CRC exhibits high metastatic rates both in the liver and the lung. 48 Regardless of these differences, our findings indicate that an IL-22 blockade could serve as a therapy to prevent both liver and lung metastasis. Indeed, from a therapeutic point of view, the extravasation process where the circulating cancer cells interact with the endothelium of the target organ is likely a ratelimiting step of metastasis formation. Here, cancer cell – endothelial cell interaction is required, and endothelial intercellular junctions are loosened in order to allow cancer cell transmigration into the stroma of the host organ. 49 IL-22 blockade could therefore have a major therapeutic effect. Indeed, we could show that Fezakinumab, a human monoclonal IL-22 antibody, which is already tested in Phase II trials for atopic dermatitis,⁵⁰ was able to block cancer cell extravasation in a humanized mouse model. 51

Of note, cancer cells, like the endothelial cells, were responsive to IL-22, indicating that IL-22 can also mediate the communication between the immune system and the cancer cells.

- (A) Schematic overview of the experiment (i.v. injection of MC38 cells in IL-22 reporter mice).
- (B) *Il22* mRNA levels in the liver at steady state, 12 and 24 h post i.s. MC38 cell injection.

(F) Representative FACS plots and statistics. $n \geq 4$ mice per group.

(H) Representative FACS plots and number of extravasated cancer cells 24 h post i.s. injection. $n \geq 4$ mice per group.

⁽C) Representative concatenated FACS plots indicating mean and statistics of CD45⁺, CD3⁺CD4⁺, CD3⁺CD8⁺, and CD3⁺CD4⁻CD8⁻ IL-22-producing cells in the liver at 0 and 12 h post i.s. MC38 cell injection.

⁽D) *Il22* mRNA levels from indicated cell populations sorted from the liver at 0 and 12 h post i.s. MC38 cell injection.

⁽E) Schematic overview of the experiment (i.s. injection of MC38 GFP-labeled cells in WT and *Rag1/* mice, receiving an a-IL-22 or IgG control antibody).

⁽G) Schematic overview of the experiment (i.s. injection of MC38 GFP-labeled cells in *II22* $^{nt/wt}$;CD4^{Cre+} and *II22^{flox/flox*;CD4^{Cre+} mice). n \geq 5 mice per group.}

⁽I) Schematic overview of the experiment (i.s. injection of MC38 GFP-labeled cells in *Rag/Il22/* mice engrafted with *Il22+/+*or *Il22/* iNKT cells).

⁽J) Representative FACS plots and number of extravasated cancer cells 24 h post i.s. injection. $n \ge 10$ mice per group.

⁽K) Schematic overview of the experiment (i.s. injection of MC38 Cherry-labeled cells in Ja18^{-/-} mice engrafted with *II22^{+/+}or II22^{-/-} iNKT cells*).

⁽L) Representative FACS plots and number of extravasated cancer cells 24 h post i.s. injection. $n \geq 10$ mice per group. Data presented as mean \pm SEM, ns $p > 0.05$; *p < 0.05; **p ≤ 0.01 ; ***p ≤ 0.001 as assessed by one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni post hoc tests (B and F) or Mann-Whitney U test (C, D, H, J, and L).

Figure 7. IL-22-producing iNKT17 cells are tissue resident and facilitate cancer cell extravasation (A) Injection of an α -CD45 antibody intravenously after i.s. injection of MC38 cells. (B) Representative FACS plots and statistics 0 and 12 h post i.s. injection. $n \ge 10$ mice per group.

Indeed, IL-22RA1 silencing in cancer cells reduced the metastatic sites in an environment with high IL-22 levels. This finding shows an additive effect of IL-22 on cancer cells that express IL-22RA1. Thus, IL-22 promotes cancer cell extravasation. However, this does not exclude the fact that IL-22 has additional prometastatic effects. Indeed, other studies reported a direct tumorigenic effect of IL-22 on cancer cells, thereby promoting survival and proliferation.^{[52](#page-17-21)}

Many different cell types are able to produce IL-22 in liver metastasis. However, we found that tissue resident iNKT cells represent one major functionally relevant source of IL-22 in the early extravasation step of cancer cells. In this phase, iNKT17-cell-derived IL-22 acts on endothelial cells and increases their permeability to extravasating cancer cells. Importantly, our data indicate that iNKT cells control metastasis formation in the liver but not in the lungs. Indeed, we found low frequencies of IL-22-producing iNKT cells in the lung. Instead, we identified that $\gamma \delta$ T cells represent the relevant cellular source of IL-22 in this setting and control the extravasation of cancer cells into the lungs. Thus, we speculate that, depending on the target organ, different cells can regulate the extravasation step of metastasis formation by producing IL-22. Interestingly, it has been reported before that NKT cells can have tissue residency and an effector-memory phenotype.^{[53,](#page-17-22)[54](#page-17-23)} Indeed, we found here that IL-22-producing iNKT17 cells are tissue resident and play an essential role during cancer cell extravasation. It is tempting to speculate that this specific effect of iNKT17 cells is due to their tissue residency and presence in the liver even prior to the arrival of the circulating cancer cells.

NKT cells were best known for their anti-tumorigenic func-tion.^{[46](#page-17-15)} However, emerging data involving innate-like T cells (NKT and MAIT [mucosal-associated invariant T cells]) indicate that these cells might also have a tumor-promoting function.^{[55](#page-17-24)} For example, it was published that invariant NKT cells are pro-tumorigenic in the colon,^{[56](#page-17-25)} but this activity disappears when a-GalCer is administered to the mice.^{[57](#page-18-0)} Furthermore, Molgora et al. showed that $ll1r8^{-/-}$ mice were protected from the devel-opment of liver metastasis.^{[58](#page-18-1)} Of note, these mice had increased numbers of NK cells and also a more mature NK cell phenotype. Furthermore, the adoptive transfer of $II1r8^{-/-}$ NK cells also protected mice from the development of MC38 liver metastasis. Thus, *II1r8^{-/-}NK* cells seem to play a protective role in metastasis. However, this study did not specifically investigate the role of tissue resident iNKT cells or the effect of IL-22 in this process. For our study, we wanted to address two points that remained open: whether IL-22-producing iNKT17 cells are tissue

resident and, if so, whether they contribute to metastasis formation. Indeed, we found both to be affirmative. However, the mechanisms regulating IL-22 production in iNKT17 cells require further investigation.

In conclusion, our findings allowed us to identify the mechanisms by which tissue resident immune cells mediate the immune system – cancer cell – tissue-specific stromal cell crosstalk and revealed how tissue-resident iNKT-cell-derived IL-22 promotes extravasation during metastasis formation by acting on endothelial cells and inducing ANPEP expression. We would like to stress that the pro-metastatic effect of IL-22 can in fact be targeted therapeutically. When we neutralized IL-22 using an antibody, it blocked cancer cell extravasation and thus prevented metastasis formation in the target organ both in a murine model and also in a humanized mouse model. Based on these data, we propose targeting IL-22, e.g., by using Fezakinumab, as immunotherapy in patients suffering from established or impending metastasis.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

We found that IL-22 promotes both lung and liver metastasis. However, the cellular mechanism involving iNKT cells as IL-22 producers in aminopeptidase regulation on endothelial cells has only been shown for the hepatic environment. Therefore, further studies are critical to extend this finding to other organs. Indeed, in the lung, $\gamma \delta$ T cells seem to be the functionally relevant source of IL-22 during metastasis. Thus, depending on the target organ, different cells may regulate metastasis formation. Further studies are required to test whether this difference is just due to different number, location, or function of iNKT and $\gamma \delta$ T cells.

Other genes, besides ANPEP, known to promote cancer cell invasion and angiogenesis might also contribute to the effects of IL-22. We found that, besides ANPEP, NRP1 was also impacted by IL-22. Furthermore, we found that IL-22 can regulate VEGF (vascular endothelial growth factor) expression *in vitro*. Thus, we cannot exclude that other factors besides ANPEP may play an additional role in mediating the pro-metastatic effect of IL-22, and further studies will be critical in order to address this.

Blockade of IL-22 protected WT mice from developing forced liver metastasis. Testing this therapeutic regimen in *Apc15lox; KrasG12D* mice, which develop spontaneous cancer, was not feasible, since only mice with hydrodynamic overexpression of IL-22 in the liver and no control mice developed liver metastasis.

(F) Representative FACS plots showing the immune characterisation of iNKT cells gated on CD1d-tetramer⁺ IL-22⁺ cells 12 h upon i.s. cancer cell injection.

(H) CD45.2 reporter mice were connected together with CD45.1 (n = 3 mice per group) mice and the established blood chimerism was checked 14 days later. (I) CD45.2 reporter mice were connected together with CD45.½ mice (n = 12 mice per group), followed by intraportal cancer cell injection after established blood chimerism.

⁽C) Pie charts showing the proportion of infiltrating and circulating immune subsets among CD3⁺IL-22⁺ cells in murine liver 0 and 12 h post i.s. injection. (D) Concatenated FACS plots of iNKT and $\gamma \delta$ T cells gated on CD45⁺IL-22⁺ cells, including *in vivo* and *in vitro* CD45 staining. n ≥ 8 mice per group.

⁽E) Statistics of iNKT and $\gamma \delta$ T cells gated on CD45⁺IL-22⁺ cells, including *in vivo* and *in vitro* CD45 staining. $n \geq 8$ mice per group.

⁽G) Representative FACS plots and statistics showing the immune subtypes (iNKT1, iNKT2, and iNKT17) of iNKT cells gated on CD1d-tetramer⁺IL-22⁺ cells 12 h upon i.s. cancer cell injection.

⁽J) Representative FACS plots of CD45.½ and CD45.2 cells from parabiotic pairs.

⁽K) The proportion of CD45.½ and CD45.2 cells of parabiotic pairs was quantified.

⁽L) WT mice were connected with WT or *II22^{-/-}* mice (n ≥ 8 mice per group), followed by intraportal injection of MC38 GFP-labeled cells.

⁽M and N) Mice were sacrificed and the number of extravasated cancer cells was quantified. Data presented as mean \pm SEM, ns p > 0.05; *p < 0.05; *p \leq 0.01; $*$ * $p \le 0.001$ as assessed by Mann-Whitney U test (B, E, and K) or two-tailed Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank test (N).

Immunity

STAR★METHODS

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SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Supplemental information can be found online at [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.immuni.2022.12.014) [immuni.2022.12.014](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.immuni.2022.12.014).

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

A.D.G., J.K., and A.M.S. conceived, designed, and carried out most experiments, analyzed data, and wrote the manuscript; J. Lücke, L.Z., and T.Z. carried out *in vivo* experiments and flow cytometry assays; D.E.Z. did immune labeling, confocal microscopy, *in vitro* transmigration assays and endothelial assays; F.C. helped with NKT characterization; K.R. and T.A. constructed expression vectors and performed transfection experiments; A.D.G., J.S.L., and M.C.A.V. carried out parabiosis experiments; H.X. carried out sorting; E.K. engrafted humanized mice; L.G.-P. performed ILC staining; A.D.G., Y.Y., and W.J. carried out single-left orthotopic lung transplantations; E.Z. established the intramucosal injection; K.F.K., L.K., K.S., J.V.F., M.R., and J.M. provided the human liver metastasis specimens; B.S. and J.W. carried out single-cell sequencing; A.C. isolated murine LSECs; P.M. and D.B. provided us with CRISPR for *Il22ra1* silencing; L.B. and T.B. performed fluorescence-activated cell sorting; S. Soukou and T.L. performed *in vitro* adhesion assays; C.K. and S.R. carried out CTC experiments; P.P., M.B., and M.S. performed *in vitro* experiments; F.J.H. performed *in vivo* experiments; S. Soukou characterized the *Il22ra1flox/flox;Cdh5Cre+;R26YFP* mice; A.W. performed genotyping of *Il22ra1/*, *Il22ra1flox/flox;AlbCre+* and *Il22ra1flox/flox;Cdh5Cre+* mice; C.M. performed experiments of orthotopic colon cancer induction; B.G. provided the *Il22tg8+/* mice; M.R., J.K.G., R.W., H.S., B.-O.S., M.F.A., A.D., G.P., I.C.M., D.P., P.S., M.T., T.G., A.H., J. Li, and N.M. provided the human liver metastasis specimens; S.G.Z. established the transendothelial electrical resistance (TEER) assay; T.S. provided *Il22ra1/* and *Il22ra1flox/flox* mice and provided critical intellectual input; R.P. and W.A. provided Anpep^{-/-} mice and provided critical intellectual input; J.S.G. provided *Il22flox/flox;CD4Cre+* mice and critical intellectual input; P.C.A., S.K., A.H.G., M.T., T.G., A.H., J. Li, N.M., O.M., J.R.I., K.P., U.S., A.W.L., and R.A.F. provided critical intellectual input; N.G. designed experiments, provided critical intellectual input, and edited the paper; and S.H. conceived the idea and supervised the study, designed experiments, and wrote the manuscript. All authors reviewed and concur with the submitted manuscript.

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

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INCLUSION AND DIVERSITY

We support inclusive, diverse, and equitable conduct of research.

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STAR+METHODS

KEY RESOURCES TABLE

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CellPress

RESOURCE AVAILABILITY

Lead contact

Further information and requests for reagents may be directed to, and will be fulfilled by, the lead contact, Anastasios Giannou (a.giannou@uke.de).

Materials availability

All data necessary to understand and assess the conclusions of the manuscript are available in the body of the paper and in the supplementary materials. *II22^{-/-}* (VG437) mice are available under a material transfer agreement with Regeneron. *II22^{flox}* mice are available under a material transfer agreement with Lexicon and Genentech. α -IL-22 treatment antibody was kindly provided by Genentech under a material transfer agreement with the University Medical Center Hamburg-Eppendorf. *Apc15lox* mice are available under a material transfer agreement with Prof. Dr. Ron Smits from Erasmus University Medical Center. *Ja18^{-/-}* mice were kindly provided by Dr. Paolo Dellabona at Ospedale San Raffaele - Milano (Italy). *MISTRG* (humanized mice) were kindly provided by Dr. Richard Flavell as part of an ongoing collaboration. All reagents generated or used in this study are available on request from the lead contact with a completed Materials Transfer Agreement. Information on reagents used in this study is available in the key resources table.

Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to Anastasios Giannou (a.giannou@uke.de) and Samuel Huber ([s.huber@uke.de\)](mailto:s.huber@uke.de).

Data and code availability

All the data supporting the findings of the article are available within the main text or supplemental information. The published article includes datasets generated during this study. Original single cell RNA-seq data has been deposited in GEO: GSE217223.

METHOD DETAILS

Reagents

IL-22 neutralizing antibodies and IgG2a control were provided by Genentech (San Francisco, CA). rmIL-22 and rmTNF-a were from Peprotech (London, UK), rmIL-1a and rhIL-22 from R&D Systems (Minneapolis, MN), ELISA kits from Peprotech, R&D or Antigenix America and Boyden chambers from Millipore (Billerica, MA).

Cells

Lewis lung carcinoma (LLC), human cell line expressing mutant version of the SV40 large T antigen (HEK293T) (ATCC, Manassas, VA), colon adenocarcinoma (MC38) syngenic for C57BL/6 mice, colon adenocarcinoma (CT26) syngenic for Balb/c mice, [60,](#page-18-3)[61](#page-18-4) human colon carcinoma (HT29)^{[62](#page-18-5)} and Human Umbilical Vein Endothelial (HUVEC) cells^{[63](#page-18-6)} were cultured and tested as described in the Supplemental Experimental Procedures.

Animals

C57BL/6J, *C57BL/6N, Balb/c Il22+/+, Il22/, Il22ra1/, Il22tg8Tg, Apc15lox;LSL-KrasG12D, IL-22sgBFP;IL-17AsgGFP;Foxp3mRFP*, *IL-22sgBFP;IL-17AKatushka;Foxp3mRFP;IL-10sgGFP, Il22ra1flox/flox;AlbCre+, Il22ra1flox/flox;Cdh5Cre+, Cd13/ (Anpep knock out), MISTRG (humanized mice), Il22ra1flox/flox;Cdh5Cre+;R26YFP, Il22flox/flox;CD4Cre+, Ja18/, Rag/* and *Rag/;Il22/, TcrdGDL/GDL and Tcrd+/+* mice[64–66](#page-18-7) were bred and housed under specific pathogen-free conditions in the animal facility of the University Medical Center Hamburg Eppendorf. *Ja18/* mice were kindly provided by Dr. Paolo Dellabona at Ospedale San Raffaele - Milano (Italy). *MISTRG* (humanized mice) were kindly provided by Dr. Richard Flavell as part of an ongoing collaboration. Age- and sex-matched littermates between 8 and 16 weeks of age were used. Animal experiments were carried out in accordance with the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of Yale University or the Institutional Review Board "Behörde für Justiz und Verbraucherschutz, Lebensmittelsicherheit und Veterinärwesen" (Hamburg, Germany).

Isolation of hematopoietic cells from murine and human liver metastasis

Hematopoietic cells were isolated from macroscopically healthy human liver, perimetastatic liver and human liver metastasis or murine liver or lung metastasis. Human tissues were obtained freshly after surgical removal of metastases from patients diagnosed with CRC and liver metastasis. Human studies were approved by the local ethical committee (Ethik-Kommission der Ärztekammer Hamburg). To isolate the lymphocytes, the human or murine tissues were cut into small pieces and minced using a scalpel. The healthy liver or metastasis tissue was incubated for 30 min at 37°C on a shaking incubator in HBSS (with Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺) with Collagenase (1 mg/mL) and DNase I (10 U/ml) and supernatant was collected. Leukocytes were further enriched by Percoll gradient centrifugation (GE Healthcare, Chicago, IL).^{[35](#page-17-6)}

Fluorescence-activated cell sorting

Fc-g receptors were blocked using a mAb (clone 2.4G2). The cells were stained with fluorochrome-conjugated antibodies. BD LSRFortessa and FACSAria (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA) were used for cell analysis and cell sorting, respectively. Data were analyzed using FlowJo v.6.1 (TreeStar, Ashland, OR).

Mouse models of forced metastasis

Intrasplenic (i.s.) injection (forced liver metastasis). For induction of forced liver metastases, mice received 250 µL PBS containing $3x10^5$ cancer cells i.s. The injection was performed in hemi-spleen which was removed 3 min after cancer cell injection. The mice were sacrificed after 3 weeks. Macroscopic liver metastases were counted using a stereoscope (Olympus Corporation, Germany).^{[30,](#page-17-1)[67](#page-18-8)}

Intraportal (in.p.) injection (forced liver metastasis). Mice were anesthetized using continuous isoflurane, and their abdomens were sterilized. After administration of analgesic agents, median laparotomy (10 mm) was performed, and the incision site was held open using a retractor. After exposure of the peritoneal cavity, the intestines were located and exteriorized onto a sterile field surrounding the incision site to visualize the portal vein. Throughout the procedure, the intestines were kept hydrated with sterile PBS that was pre-warmed at 37°C. For intraportal injection, sterile PBS or MC38 cancer cells (3x10⁵ suspended in 250 µL of sterile PBS) were injected into the portal vein via a 30-gauge needle. Successful injection was confirmed by partial blanching of the liver. After the injection, a sterile coagulation gauge was then held over the injection site for 1 min to ensure that no injected contents would leak into the peritoneal cavity. Afterward, the intestines were placed back into the peritoneal cavity, and the peritoneum and skin were closed with a suture and autoclips, respectively. The mice were sacrificed after 24 h. Livers were harvested and an extravasation assay was performed.

Intravenous (i.v.) injection (forced lung metastasis). For induction of forced lung metastases, mice received 100 µL PBS containing 2.5x10⁵ cancer cells i.v. The mice were sacrificed after 3 weeks. Macroscopic metastases in harvested lungs were counted using a stereoscope.

Mouse models of spontaneous metastasis

Flank model (spontaneous lung and liver metastasis). For induction of solid tumors, mice were anesthetized using isoflurane inhalation and received subcutaneous injection of 100 μ L PBS containing 5x10⁵ LLC cells. Three vertical tumor dimensions (81, 82, and 83) were monitored longitudinally and tumor volume was calculated using the formula π *81 *82 *83/6. Both models were described elsewhere.^{[30](#page-17-1)} The tumors were resected after 2 weeks. The mice were sacrificed 4 weeks after tumor resection and macroscopic metastases in lungs were counted using a stereoscope.

Cecum model (spontaneous liver metastasis). The cecum of anesthetized mice was exteriorized through an abdominal laparotomy. 1×10⁶ LLC cells were injected into the cecal wall between the mucosa and the muscularis externa layers using a 30-gauge needle. A proper implantation into the cecum was confirmed at day 0 by a localized bubble in the cecal wall. The mice were sacrificed after 4 weeks and macroscopic metastases in livers were counted using a stereoscope.^{[68](#page-18-9)}

Orthotopic colonic sub-mucosal implantation of CRC cells

Mice were anesthetized using isoflurane. Sub-mucosal injections were accomplished using stainless flexible stainless steel; 8 inch long, 30 gauge and 45° bevel hypodermic needles custom made according to our specification (Cadence Inc. U.S.A). The needle was inserted through Luer lock (Söllner, GmbH) screwed on the working channel of the scope to avoid air leakage. Subsequently, the scope was inserted into the mouse colon and following its inflation the needle was brought through the working channel to the scope's front. The CRC cell implantation procedure was performed by two coordinated persons; one person was navigating the colonoscopy while the other person was operating the injection maneuver. The injection was performed under observation by a very gentle sub-mucosal penetration with the open side of the bevel heading up in a flat angle. 50 μ L PBS containing 1.5x10⁵ CRC tumor cells were then injected into the colonic sub-mucosa.

Adenoviral infection of colonic epithelium for orthotopic colon cancer induction

Apc15lox;LSL-KrasG12D mice were fasted overnight and anesthetized using 2% isoflurane. A midline incision was performed and the distal colon was clamped 3 cm from the anus. After washing with PBS, 100 µL trypsin were injected into the colon for 10 min. The lining of the distal colon was then mechanically abraded using a small caliber brush. After washing with PBS, 10⁹ pfu of adenovirus in 100 µL PBS were injected into the colon for 30 min. For all incubations, a second clamp was placed 1 cm from the anus to ensure localization during the entire incubation period. After the infection period, both clamps were removed and the abdominal wall was closed in two layers. These procedures were well tolerated by all animals. Ad5CMV^{Cre} and adenoviruses were obtained from the Cellbiolabs (San Diego, USA). Mice developed CRC after 6– 8 weeks and were sacrificed after 8 months. The primary tumors and macroscopic liver metastases were quantified by colonoscopy or using a stereoscope, respectively.

Mouse colonoscopy

Mice were fasted overnight and anesthetized using 2% isoflurane. A custom-made colonoscopy system (Karl Storz) was used as previously described.^{[69](#page-18-10)} Air was carefully insufflated into the colon to allow full visualization but avoid perforation. Endoscopic images and movies were saved for later offline analysis with ImageJ software to calculate the ratio of the tumor area relative to that of the lumen. Tumor sizes were graded from 1 to 5. Tumors observed during endoscopy were counted to obtain the total number of tumors per animal. The total tumor score per mouse was calculated as the sum of all tumor sizes.

Immunity

Immunoblotting

To analyze protein activation and expression, LSECs or hepatocyte lysates were separated in a 10% SDS-PAGE assay, transferred to polyvinylidene difluoride membranes (Merck Millipore), probed with specific antibodies, and were visualized by enhanced chemiluminescence. Band density was determined by incubation with the appropriate HRP-conjugated secondary Abs (Dako, Carpintera, CA) and were visualized with the ECL substrate (Merck Millipore).

Hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) staining

Liver or lung specimens were fixed in 4% buffered formalin, embedded in paraffin or OCT (Sakura, Tokyo, Japan), and stored at -80° C. Tissue sections (4 µm) were prepared and stained with H&E. Metastatic lesion areas were quantified using ImageJ (ImageJ, U.S. National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD).

Plasmids and transfections

The coding sequences for IL-22 were cloned via reverse transcription and PCR from murine C57BL/6 intestinal total RNA with the corresponding primers (primer set A), Superscript III reverse transcriptase (Invitrogen) and Phusion Hot Start Flex DNA polymerase (New England Biolabs). After cleanup and addition of 3' A overhangs, the PCR product was cloned in pGEM-T Easy vector (Promega). A second PCR product using the pGEM-T Easy-IL-22 construct template with Phusion Hot Start Flex DNA polymerase and primer set B was performed that was sub-cloned into pCMV-EGFP C1 (Clontech) mammalian expression vector by the InFusion ligation system (Takara). The IL22 expressing construct was verified by standard Sanger sequencing.

The construct expressing the sgRNA against IL-22RA1 was a kind gift of Dr Sebastian Kobold. Chemiluminescent MC38 cells stably expressing the sgRNA against IL-22RA1 protein were obtained as follows: MC38 CRC cells were transfected with TransIT-LT1 reagent (Mirus) instructions and a mixture of 1:5 of GAC.Luc-puro Plasmid (Addgene Number# 74409): *Il22ra1*sgRNA encoding vector. Briefly, 1.5x10⁵/mL MC38 cells were plated in full DMEM medium for overnight incubation in 5 cm diameter cell culture plates. On the next day, the plasmids and TransIT-LT1 reagent were each diluted in 100 µL OptiMEM (Gibco) and left for 5 min at room temperature (RT). The plasmid and reagent solutions were then combined, mixed briefly by vortex and were left for 15 min at RT. The medium was removed from MC38 cells leaving approximately 800 µL at the plate. The plasmid and reagent solution was carefully overlaid on the cells and the plates were incubated overnight at 37° C in a 5% CO₂ humidified incubator. 24 h later, 1–3 mL DMEM medium supplemented with 10% FBS was added into the cell culture medium. Cells were collected 48 h after transfection, washed twice with PBS, trypsinized and splitted into three 10 cm diameter plates containing 5, 10 and 15 µg/ml puromycin. After 5 days, stable visible clones were individually picked into a 96-well plate and assessed for pSTAT3 and chemiluminescence. Correct clones were expanded for liver metastasis induction.

Isolation of primary hepatocytes

For the isolation of primary hepatocytes, the liver was digested with Liberase (Roche Diagnostics) and was then gently disrupted to free residual cells. Single-cell suspension was filtered through a 100-um cell strainer and the cells were allowed to settle by gravity for 20 min. Subsequently, parenchymal cells were separated by 10 min centrifugation in a 90% Percoll gradient (GE Healthcare). For primary hepatocyte culture, William's E + GlutaMAX-I medium (Life Technologies, Karlsruhe, Germany) was supplemented with 10% FBS (Life Technologies), 1% penicillin/streptomycin (Life Technologies) and 1% L-glutamine (Life Technologies). The cells were incubated overnight at 37°C, 40% O₂. Subsequently, the hepatocytes were washed and incubated with 100 ng/mL rmIL-22 or rmIL-6 for 15 min (eBioscience; R&D Systems; Peprotech, respectively). Finally, the cells were harvested and the RNA was extracted.

Immunofluorescence

Primary LSECs were fixed for 10 min in 4% paraformaldehyde at RT. Sections (5 µm) were washed with PBS and incubated in PBS-Triton 0.3% for 5 min. After washing, sections or cells were incubated for 60 min in blocking buffer. Samples were stained overnight with specific antibodies at 4°C. After washing, secondary antibody staining was performed (1 h, RT) followed by 5 min staining with Hoechst 33,258 (1:5000). As control, the primary Ab was omitted. Bright-field and fluorescent microscopy was carried out using either an Axio Vert.A1 (Zeiss, Jena, Germany) inverted microscope or an SP5 (Leica, Heidelberg, Germany) confocal microscope.

Isolation of LSECs

For the isolation of LSECs, a slit was cut in the left ventricle of the heart. The liver was perfused with PBS and then with \sim 5 mL 0.05% collagenase through the portal vein and vena cava, until it was clear of blood. After perfusion, the liver tissues were collected in complete medium on ice. Afterward, the liver was sliced into small pieces of approximately 0.5 cm. Two livers per genotype were digested in collagenase with 1% collagen and 0.83% DNase at 37 $^{\circ}$ C for 25 min, while shaking. The remaining liver pieces were filtered through a 200-µm cell strainer and further centrifuged to remove the hepatocytes. The supernatant was again centrifuged. The pellet was resolved with maximum 5 mL PBS and added to 2 mL Optiprep. On top, 1 mL PBS was carefully pipetted and then centrifuged. The white interphase was collected in a new tube and washed with PBS. Single-cell suspension was filtered through a 40-um cell strainer and centrifuged. For isolating the LSECs, the magnetic activated cell sorting was used. IMDM complete medium was used in order to culture the LSECs on collagen-coated plates at 37° C.

IL-22 ELISA

IL-22 serum levels were measured using a mouse IL-22 ELISA kit (Antigenix America) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Adoptive transfer

INKT cells were isolated from livers using fluorescent activated cell sorting (see Sorting panel in [Figures S6H](#page-15-0) and S6I). *Rag1^{-/-}Il22^{-/-}* or Ja18^{-/-} mice were engrafted with 10⁵ iNKT or γδ T cells by intraportal injection. After 5–7 days, an *in vivo* extravasation assay was performed.

Laminar flow adhesion assay

The dynamic adhesion of human HT29 and mouse MC38 tumor cells to endothelial cells under physiological flow conditions was analyzed in a laminar flow adhesion assay as previously described.^{[70](#page-18-11)} In short, HUVEC cells (PromoCell, Heidelberg) or LSECs were seeded in ibidiTreat µ-slide IV0.4 (ibidi GmbH, Germany) flow chambers and after confluence to monolayers, endothelial cells were stimulated with 10 ng/mL recombinant human or murine IL-1 α (R&D Systems, Minneapolis, MN), 10 ng/mL recombinant human or murine TNF α or 20 to 100 ng/mL human or murine IL-22 for 4 h prior to the flow assay (tumor cell suspension: 1x10⁵ cells/ml; flow rate: 8.5 mL/h; shear stress: 0.25 dyn/cm²). Non-stimulated endothelial cells served as negative controls. Data were acquired and evaluated with CapImage software (version 8.6, Dr. Heinrich Zeintl, Heidelberg). The adhesive events on the endothelium were distinguished into firm adhesion, rolling and tethering and counted in three separate regions of interest for 1 min each.

Extravasation assay

For the *in vivo* extravasation assay, mice received 250 µL PBS containing 1x10⁶ MC38 GFP-labelled cells i.s. The mice were sacrificed after 24 h and their livers were weighed. To isolate the MC38 GFP-labelled cells, the murine livers were cut in small pieces and minced using a scalpel. The tissue was incubated for 30 min at 37°C on a shaking incubator in HBSS (with Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺) with Collagenase (1 mg/mL) and DNase I (10 U/ml) and supernatant was collected. Then, the supernatants were centrifuged for 4 min at 40 g. We repeated this step twice more. After 3 centrifugations, the hepatocytes were removed and the cells were diluted in PBS 1x. Onefifth of the cells were mixed with beads in 1:10 dilution and were analyzed by flow cytometry. In every extravasation assay, we used a mouse injected with not labeled cells in order to set up the gate of GFP + or Cherry + cells.

Circulating tumor cell isolation and quantification

6 mL Ficoll (Ficoll Paque PLUS, endotoxin tested, Cytiva, Uppsala, Sweden) were placed in a 15 mL Falcon tube and overlayed with the mouse blood (2 mL)/PBS (5 mL) mixture. After centrifugation for 30 min at 400 x g (rotor brake inactivated), supernatant and interphase were carefully removed and transferred to a 50 mL Falcon tube using a serological pipette and mixed with 30 mL PBS. Erythrocytes were lysed by adding 1 mL Flow Cytometry Human Lyse Buffer (R&D systems), mixing and incubating for 1 min. Subsequently, the sample was centrifuged for 10 min at 400 x g (rotor brake activated). Supernatant was discarded and the cell pellet was resuspended in 3 mL PBS. Cytospins with 500.000 cells per slide were prepared by spinning the appropriate volume for 3 min at 150 x g (Swing out rotor 1626, 1100 rpm, Hettich ROTOFIX 32) and air-drying. All steps were performed at RT.

Administration of antibody and aminopeptidase inhibitor treatment

For administration of antibodies, the abdomen of mice was sterilized, and anti-IgG or anti-IL-22 (50 μ g in 200 μ L PBS; Genentech, California, USA) were suspended in 200 µL of sterile PBS. For administration of Ubenimex, 20 mg/kg was diluted and injected for 7 days.

IV injection of CD45 Ab

To distinguish between circulating CD45⁺ cells and CD45⁺ cells infiltrating into the liver parenchyma, we injected fluorochrome labeled antibody specific for PeCy7 conjugated anti-CD45 Ab (30-F11) into the bloodstream of mice. Briefly, mice received 5 µg PeCy7 conjugated anti-CD45 Ab (30-F11) in PBS intravenously, and were euthanized after 3 min. For *in vitro* CD45 staining, an A-700 conjugated anti-CD45 antibody was used. In all the experiments blood staining controls were used and around 96–99% of CD45⁺ T cells were labeled.

Parabiosis

In short, females were anesthetized with a mixture of ketamine/xylazine (100 mg/kg and 10 mg/kg, respectively). After shaving the corresponding lateral aspects of each mouse, matching skin incisions were made from behind the ear to the hip and sutured together with nylon and collagen (5-0 Ethicon, Vicryl) absorbable suture. Then, these areas were clipped with 7-mm stainless-steel wound clips (Reflex7).^{[38](#page-17-9)}

Orthotopic single left lung transplantation (LuTx)

Orthotopic LuTxes were performed as described previously with minor modifications.^{[71](#page-18-12)} No immunosuppression was applied to any of the transplanted mice. *Il22ra1/* mice were used as donors, and WT mice were used as recipients. Briefly, donors were anesthetized with isoflurane anesthesia. The pulmonary artery, bronchus, and pulmonary vein were carefully separated from one another with blunted forceps, prior to cuffing with 24-, 20-, and 22-gauge cuffs, respectively. The left lung graft was stored for less than 20 min

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before its implantation. The recipient mouse was anesthetized with isoflurane anesthesia, intubated and ventilated using a small-animal ventilator (UNO Apparatus) at a respiratory rate of 120 bpm and a tidal volume of 300 µL. The chest was opened on the left side between the third and fourth ribs and the native left lung was retracted with a clamp. The hilar structures were carefully separated from one another with blunted forceps. After arrest of the blood and air flow toward the left lung, the cuffed graft pulmonary artery, bronchus, and pulmonary vein were inserted into the recipient counterparts and ligated with 10-0 sutures. The native left lung was removed and the incision in the chest was closed with a 6-0 suture, after removing all potential air bubbles from the chest. The mice were extubated. After the operation, the recipient mice were allowed to recover at 30°C overnight and received buprenorphine for 3 days. The mice were sacrificed at indicated time points according to the experimental plan.

Endothelial gene assay

Endothelial gene RNA levels were measured using a RT² profiler PCR assay (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The altered genes were verified by qPCR analysis

Measurement of the transendothelial electrical resistance (TEER)

HUVEC cells were seeded onto collagen-coated supported polycarbonate and polyester porous (0.4 µm pores) membranes (Transwell and Transwell Clear; Corning-Costar, Corning, NY) and cultured at 37°C and 5% CO₂ in HUVEC complete medium to promote proliferation. Media were changed every 2 days and TEER was measured using an epithelial Ohm-voltmeter (Millicell ERS 2, Merck Millipore, Darmstadt, Germany). After reaching a plateau of TEER, we exposed HUVEC cells to recombinant human (rh) IL-22 (100 ng/ml). 0 and 24 h after exposure to rh IL-22, TEER was measured in every well.

In vitro transmigration assay

HUVEC cells (1x10⁵) were seeded onto collagen-coated supported polycarbonate and polyester porous (0.4 µm pores) membranes (Transwell and Transwell Clear; Corning-Costar, Corning, NY) and cultured at 37°C and 5% CO₂ in HUVEC complete medium to promote proliferation and creating monolayer. Media were changed every 2 days and TEER) was measured using an epithelial Ohm-voltmeter (Millicell ERS 2, Merck Millipore, Darmstadt, Germany) to check the monolayer induction. $5x10^4$ HT-29 GFP-labelled cells were then seeded in the transwell inserts with an endothelial monolayer in HUVEC medium with 2% FBS in presence of 0.1% BSA or rh IL-22 (100 ng/ml). 24 h after seeding, cells were washed and fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde. Cells on the apical side of each insert were scraped off and the migration to the basolateral side was visualized using a Zeiss fluorescence microscope.

Lentiviral transfer of shRNAs into HUVEC cells

Lentiviral vectors expressing shRNAs under control of the human U6 promoter (MISSION pLKO.1-puro) directed against human ANPEP (TRCN0000050238, TRCN0000050239, TRCN0000050240, TRCN0000050241, TRCN0000050242, TRCN0000435991, TRCN0000418482, TRCN0000425830) and a non-targeted control shRNA (SHC002) were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (Munich, Germany). Production of lentiviral particles was described in detail earlier^{[59](#page-18-2)} and protocols are available online ([http://www.](http://www.LentiGO-Vectors.de) [LentiGO-Vectors.de\)](http://www.LentiGO-Vectors.de). Selection of successfully transduced cells with 1 µg/mL puromycin in the culture medium was started two days after transduction.

Bioluminescence imaging

Cells and mice were imaged after addition of 300 µg/mL D-luciferin to culture media or i.v. delivery of 1 mg D-luciferin on a Xenogen Lumina II. Data were analyzed on Living Image v.4.2 (Perkin-Elmer, Waltham, MA).^{[72](#page-18-13)}

Hydrodynamic injection of plasmid

For hydrodynamic injection of plasmid, mice were anesthetized using continuous isoflurane, and their tail was sterilized. Subsequently, 10 µg of plasmid (eGFP or *II22eGFP*) diluted in PBS (volume of 9% of mouse weight) were injected into the tail vein.

Depletion of $\gamma\delta$ T cells in Tcrd^{GDL/GDL} mice

 γ T cells in *Tcrd^{GDL/GDL}* mice were depleted using a single intraperitoneal diphtheria toxin injection (50 ng/g bodyweight). Experiments using these mice always included WT littermates injected with diphtheria toxin and *TcrdGDL/GDL* mice injected with PBS as correct controls.

RNA analysis

Total RNA was extracted from tissue and cells of colon, lymph nodes, liver and spleen using TRIzol Reagent (Invitrogen). The High capacity cDNA synthesis Kit (Applied Biosystems) was used for cDNA synthesis. Primers and probes were purchased from Applied Biosystems. Real-time PCR was performed using the Kapa Probe Fast qPCR Master Mix (Kapa Biosystems) on the StepOne Plus system (Applied Biosystems). For both human and mouse, relative expression was normalized to HPRT and calculated using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ method.

scRNA-seq

Droplet-based single-cell RNA sequencing (10x Chromium single cell 5' solution v1.1, 10x Genomics) experiments were performed according to the manufacturer's protocol. In brief, after sorting, cells were centrifuged and loaded onto the chip for GEM generation. The droplets were recovered and reverse transcription as well as cell barcoding were performed. The cDNA was recovered using Dynabeads MyOne SILANE (ThermoFisher Scientific). Afterward, cDNA was amplified and the quality was checked with a Bioanalyzer 2100 (Agilient Technologies). For the gene expression library construction, cDNA was fragmented and end-repaired, followed by further amplification with index primers. The libraries were sequenced on a Illumina NovaSeq 6000. After demultiplexing, the Cellranger pipeline (v. 3.0.1, 10x Genomics) was used to process fastq files, aligning the reads to the mm10 mouse genome draft. The resulting barcode-read count matrices were processed in R, using the Seurat package v. 4.0.4.^{[73](#page-18-14)} Briefly, low quality and suspected doublet cells were removed, resulting in 7065 CD45⁺IL-22⁻ cells and 277 CD45⁺IL-22⁺ cells before injection, as well as 9730 CD45⁺ IL-22 cells and 1302 CD45⁺ IL-22 + cells 12 h after injection. All four samples were normalized using the SCTransform function, 74 74 74 followed by integration as described previously.^{[75](#page-18-16)} PCA was ran on the integrated expression values, followed by UMAP based on the top 30 PCs and shared nearest neighbor prediction on the top 20 PCs. 23 clusters were found which were grouped into 11 higher level clusters based on cell type markers (see heatmap in [Figure S7](#page-15-0)). To compute the tissue residency score, the AddModuleScore function was used based on the following marker genes: *Cd69*, *Cxcr3*, *Cxcr6*, *Itgal*, *Itga1*, *Pdcd1*, *Cd101*, *Selplg*, *Itgb2*, *Ccr10*, *Zfp683*, *Prdm1*, *Runx3*. [76](#page-18-17)

Quantification and statistical analysis

Sample size was calculated using G*power [\(http://www.gpower.hhu.de/\)](http://www.gpower.hhu.de/) assuming α = 0.05, β = 0.8, and ρ = 0.3. No data were excluded. Animals were allocated to treatments by alternation and transgenic animals were enrolled case-control-wise. Data acquisition was blinded on samples previously coded by a non-blinded investigator.

Statistical analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism Software (GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA, USA). For paired group comparison, the non-parametric two-sided Mann-Whitney test was used. Multiple comparisons testing was examined by one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni post-hoc tests. Paired group comparison test was carried out using two-tailed Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank test. Sample size (*n*) refers to biological replicates. The mRNA expression of the cytokines was transformed using a base 10 logarithm. The significance level α was set to 0.05.

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Supplemental information

Tissue resident iNKT17 cells

facilitate cancer cell extravasation

in liver metastasis via interleukin-22

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Zigmond, Karl-Frederick Karstens, Babett Steglich, Jonas Wagner, Leonie Karl-Frederick Karstens, Konczalla, Antonella Carambia, Kornelius Schulze, Johann von Felden, Peter May, Daria Brockmann, Sarah Starzonek, Lange, Claudia Koch, Sabine Riethdorf, Penelope Pelczar, Marius Böttcher, Morsal Sabihi, Francis J. Huber, Matthias Reeh, Julia Kristin Grass, Ramez Wahib, Hannes Seese, Björn-Ole Stüben, Mohammad Fard-Aghaie, Anna Duprée, Pasquale Scognamiglio, Gabriel Plitzko, Jan Meiners, Shiwa Soukou, Agnes Wittek, Caroline Manthey, Ioannis C. Maroulis, Petra C. Arck, Daniel Perez, Bin Gao, Sotirios G. Zarogiannis, Till Strowig, Renata Pasqualini, Wadih Arap, Javier Suárez Gosálvez, Sebastian Kobold, Immo Prinz, Andreas H. Guse, Michael Tachezy, Tarik Ghadban, Asmus Heumann, Jun Li, Nathaniel Melling, Oliver Mann, Jakob R. Izbicki, Klaus Pantel, Udo Schumacher, Ansgar W. Lohse, Richard A. Flavell, Nicola Gagliani, and Samuel Huber

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Tissue resident iNKT17 cells facilitate cancer cell extravasation in liver metastasis via IL-22

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Figure S1, related to Figure 1. High IL-22 levels promote liver metastasis

(A) Representative pictures, liver weight and number of macroscopic metastases in total liver of mice with normal ($IIZ2tg8^{(Wt)}$) or high ($IIZ2tg8^{(Tg)}$) levels of IL-22. n \geq 5 mice per group. Scale bar: 5 mm. (B) Map of *Il22eGFP* plasmid. (C) *In vitro* cultured 293T cells transfected with *eGFP* (left) and *Il22eGFP* (right) plasmid. Scale bar: 50μm. (D) 293T cells were transfected with *peGFP* and *pIl22eGFP* plasmid. GFP levels were measured using immunoblotting. (E) Representative picture of liver tissue upon hydrodynamic injection of *peGFP* plasmid. Scale bar: 100μm. (F) IL-22 serum levels in mice hydrodynamically injected with *eGFP* or *Il22eGFP* plasmid. n ≥ 6 mice per group. (G) Schematic overview and incidence of liver metastases in mice with no (*Il22-/-* mice upon hydrodynamic injection of eGFP plasmid), normal (WT upon hydrodynamic injection of eGFP plasmid) or high (WT upon hydrodynamic injection of Il22eGFP plasmid) levels of IL-22 using hydrodynamic overexpression of eGFP or Il22eGFP plasmid and intramucosal injection of CT26 CAG-Luc cells. $n \ge 7$ mice per group. Data presented as mean \pm SEM. ns>0.05; *:p<0.05; **:p≤0.01; ***:p≤0.001 as assessed by Mann-Whitney U test (A, F) or Fischer´ s exact test (G).

Figure S2, related to Figure 2. IL-22 signaling increases cancer cell stemness

(A) IL-22RA1 surface protein levels in MC38 and LLC cancer cells measured using FACS (B) *Il22* mRNA levels in MC38, LLC cancer cells as well as murine colon, small intestine (SI) and liver (RNA extracts from total tissue). (C) Immunostaining of IL-22RA1 in MC38 cells. Scale bar: 50μm. (D) Immunoblotting of p-STAT3 on MC38 cells upon IL-22 exposure in different time points. (E) Representative pictures and number of tumor spheres after exposure to 0.1% BSA or rmIL-22. Scale bar: 20 μm. (F) Schematic overview of intrasplenic injection of MC38 GFP-labelled cells for forced liver metastasis induction. (G) Representative pictures and number of GFP-labelled CTCs in *Il22+/+* and *Il22-/-* mice. n=2 independent experiments with 5 mice per group each time. Scale bar: 50 μm. (H) Schematic overview of cecum injection of LLC-GFP cells for spontaneous liver metastasis induction in *Il22+/+* and *Il22-/-* mice (I) Representative pictures and number of GFPlabelled CTCs in *Il22+/+* and *Il22-/-* mice. n=3 independent experiments with 6 mice per group each time. Scale bar: 50 μm. (J) Validation of silencing of *Il22ra1* in MC38 cancer cells by FACS. (K) Functional assay of silencing of *Il22ra1* in MC38 cancer cells by analyzing the pSTAT3 levels upon IL-22 exposure. (L) Construct map of II22ra1flox/flox mice. (M) Genotyping PCR of II22ra1^{-/-} and Il22ra1flox/flox mice. (N) Hepatocytes were isolated from *Il22ra1wt/wt;AlbCre+* and *Il22ra1flox/flox;AlbCre+* mice and treated with 50 ng/ml recombinant murine (rm) IL-22 for 15 min, 30 min, 60 min and 240 min. IL-6 was used as a positive control. pSTAT3 levels were measured using immunoblotting. n=2 mice per group. (O) Gating strategy for identification of YFP+ LSECs isolated from liver of *Il22ra1flox/flox;Cdh5Cre+* mice and respective quantification. Data presented as mean ± SEM. ns:p>0.05; *:p<0.05; **:p≤0.01; ***:p≤0.001 as assessed by Mann-Whitney U test (E, G).

Figure S3, related to Figure 3. IL-22 does not affect cancer cell endothelial adhesion, but cancer cell extravasation

(A) Schematic overview of the *in vitro* adhesion assay of endothelial HUVEC and HT-29 cancer cells. (B) HT-29 cancer cells were perfused over HUVEC cells (flow rate 8 mL/h) and retaining cells were counted. (C) MC38 cancer cells were perfused over LSECs (flow rate 8 mL/h) and retaining cells were counted. (D-F) FACS plots and histograms showing the expression of adhesion molecules, namely E-Sel, P-Sel, ICAM-1, VCAM-1, on LSECs upon stimulation with TNF-α, IL-1α and IL-22 in two different concentrations. (G) Schematic overview of intrasplenic injection of MC38 GFP-labelled cells in WT mice (extravasation assay). (H) FACS plot of liver of Wt mouse after intrasplenic injection of MC38 shC cells (I) FACS plot of MC38 GFP-labelled cells in culture. (J) Schematic overview of intrasplenic injection of MC38 Luc-GFP-labelled cells in WT, *Il22-/-* and *Il22ra1-/-* mice (extravasation assay). (K) Bioluminescent imaging and quantification of bioluminescent signal of WT, *Il22-/-* and *Il22ra1-/-* mice 12 and 24 hours after intrasplenic injection of MC38 Luc-GFP cells. Bioluminescent scale: 1x10⁵-1x10⁶ photons/sec/cm²/sr. (L) Injection of HCT116 CAG-Luc-GFP-labelled cells in humanized mice receiving a treatment with Fezakinumab (a human α-IL-22 antibody) or IgG control antibody. (M) Representative FACS plots showing the percentage of extravasated GFP+ cancer cells in the liver and bar plots showing the total number of extravasated cancer cells from (L). Data presented as mean \pm SEM. ns>0.05; *:p<0.05; **:p≤0.01 as assessed by one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni post hoc tests (B, C, E, F and K) or Mann-Whitney U test (M).

Figure S4, related to Figure 4. Inhibition of aminopeptidases reduces liver metastasis formation

(A) *Fgfr3, Epas1* and *Cdh5* expression in LSECs upon stimulation with rmIL-22**.** (B) *Cxcl12, Angpt1,* and *Plg* expression in LSECs upon stimulation with rmIL-22**.** (C, D, E) Fold change of C*xcl16, Vegfa* and *Nrp1* expression in the liver tissue 12h post intrasplenic injection of MC38 cells in *Il22+/+* and *Il22-/-* mice compared to 0h. (F) Fold change of *Anpep* expression in LSECs and liver tissue 12h post intrasplenic injection of MC38 cells in WT and *II22^{-/-}* mice (G) MTS assay of MC38 cells upon Ubenimex treatment in different time points of culture. (H) *Anpep* expression of MC38 cells upon Ubenimex treatment in different time points of culture. (I) Schematic overview of intrasplenic injection of MC38 cells for forced liver metastasis induction in mice receiving a control or Ubenimex treatment, respectively. (J) Liver weight and number of macroscopic metastases in total liver of mice treated with PBS or Ubenimex. $n \geq 8$ mice per group. (K) Schematic overview of intrasplenic injection of MC38 cells for forced liver metastasis induction in *Cd13+/+* and *Cd13-/* mice. (L) Representative pictures, number of macroscopic metastases in total liver and liver weight of $Cd13^{+/+}$ mice compared to $Cd13^{/-}$ mice. n = 5 mice per group. Data presented as mean ± SEM. ns>0.05; *:p<0.05; **:p≤0.01 as assessed by one-way (H, K, L) or two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni post hoc tests (G) or Mann-Whitney U test (A-F, J).

Figure S5, related to Figure 5. IL-22 producing γδ T cells affect cancer cell extravasation into the lung via ANPEP induction

(A) Schematic overview of intravenous injection of MC38 cells for forced lung metastasis induction and number of macroscopic metastases in total lungs of mice with normal (*Il22tg8(Wt)*) or high (I I22tg8^(Tg)) levels of IL-22. $n \ge 5$ mice per group. (B) Representative pictures and percentage of mice with normal (*Il22tg8(Wt)*) or high (*Il22tg8(Tg)*) levels of IL-22 which develop macroscopic liver metastases. n ≥ 5 mice per group. (C) *Anpep* expression of sorted CD45+ and CD31+ cells upon stimulation with rmIL-22 (100 ng/ μ I). (D) Diagram showing the proportion of different immune subtypes of CD45+IL-22+ cells in murine lung 0 and 12 hours upon intravenous injection of MC38 cells. (E) Schematic overview of intravenous injection of MC38 Cherry-labelled cells in WT and *Rag1-/-* mice. (F) Representative FACS plots and statistics of MC38 Cherry-labelled extravasated cells in Wt and *Rag1^{-/-}* mice. n \geq 4 mice per group. (G) Schematic overview of intravenous injection of MC38 GFP-labelled cells in *Il22wt/wt;CD4Cre+* and *Il22flox/flox;CD4Cre+* mice (extravasation assay). n ≥ 5 mice per group. (H) Representative FACS plots and number of extravasated cancer cells from *Il22wt/wt;CD4Cre+* and *Il22flox/flox;CD4Cre+* mice 24h post intravenous injection. n ≥ 4 mice per group (I) Schematic overview of intravenous injection of MC38 Cherry-labelled cells in *Ja18+/+* and *Ja18^{* \div *}* mice. n \geq 8 mice per group. (J) Representative FACS plots and number of extravasated cancer cells from *Ja18^{+/+}* or *Ja18^{-/-}* mice 24h post intravenous injection. Mice were sacrificed and the number of extravasated cancer cells in the lungs was quantified. (K) Schematic overview of intravenous injection of MC38 Cherry-labelled cells in *Tcrd^{GDL/GDL}* and *Tcrd^{+/+}* mice following DT (Diphtheria toxin) injection (DT injection in *TcrdGDL/GDL* mice leads to γδ T cell depletion). n ≥ 4 mice per group. (L) Representative FACS plots and number of extravasated cancer cells from *TcrdGDL/GDL* or *Tcrd+/+* mice 24h post intravenous injection. Mice were sacrificed and the number of extravasated cancer cells in the lungs were quantified. Data presented as mean \pm SEM. ns>0.05; *:p<0.05; **:p≤0.01; ***:p≤0.001 as assessed by Mann-Whitney U test (C, F, H, J and L) or Fischer´ s exact test (B).

Figure S6, related to Figure 6. IL-22 producing iNKT cells, but not T, γδ T and Lin- cells, affect cancer cell extravasation into the liver parenchyma (A) Gating strategy used to assess the IL-22 expression in different immune subtypes upon intrasplenic injection of MC38 cells. (B) Gating strategy used to assess the Lin-IL-7Ra+IL-22+, Lin-IL-7Ra-IL-22+ and Lin+IL-22+ cells isolated from murine liver 0 and 12h upon intrasplenic injection of MC38 cells. (C) Gating strategy used to assess the Lin-IL-7Ra+, Lin-IL-7Ra- and Lin+ cells isolated from murine liver 0 and 12h after intrasplenic injection of MC38 cells. (D) Diagram showing the proportion of different subtypes of CD45+IL-22+ cells in murine liver 0 and 12h after intrasplenic injection of MC38 cells. (E, F, G) FACS plots showing the production of IL-22 in the Lin-IL-7Ra+, Lin-IL-7Ra- and Lin+ cells isolated from murine liver 0 and 12h after intrasplenic injection of MC38 cells. $n \ge 4$ mice per group. (H) Liver weight and number of macroscopic liver metastases post intrasplenic injection of MC38 cells in WT, *Rag-/- and Rag-/- ;Il22-/-* mice. n ≥ 6 mice per group. (I, J) FACS plots showing the gating strategy used for the sorting of iNKT and γδ T cells from *Il22+/+* and *Il22-/-* mice. (K) Engraftment with iNKT cells (total population) from *Il22+/+* or *Il22-/-* into *Rag1-/-* and *Ja18-/-* mice. (L) Engraftment with γδ T cells from *II22^{+/+}* into *Rag1^{-/-}II22^{-/-} mice.* (M) Schematic overview of intrasplenic injection of MC38 GFP-labelled cells in *Rag-/- Il22-/-* mice engrafted with *Il22+/+*or *Il22-/-* γδ Τ cells (extravasation assay). (N) Representative FACS plots and number of extravasated cancer cells from *Rag-/- Il22-/-* mice engrafted with *Il22+/+*or *Il22-/-* γδ Τ cells 24h postintrasplenic injection. n ≥ 7 mice per group. (O) Schematic overview of intrasplenic injection of MC38 GFP-labelled cells in *TcrdGDL/GDL and Tcrd+/+* mice following DT (Diphtheria toxin) injection (DT injection in *TcrdGDL/GDL* mice leads to γδ T cell depletion). n ≥ 7 mice per group. (P) Representative FACS plots and quantification of γδ T cells of *TcrdGDL/GDL and Tcrd+/+* mice upon DT injection. (Q) Representative FACS plots and number of extravasated cancer cells from *Tcrd^{GDL/GDL}* or *Tcrd^{+/+}* mice 24h post intrasplenic injection. (R) Schematic overview of intrasplenic injection of MC38 cells for forced liver metastasis induction in Ja18^{+/+} and Ja18^{-/-} mice. (S) Representative pictures, number of macroscopic metastases in total liver and liver weight of Ja18^{+/+} mice compared to Ja18^{-/-} mice. n ≥ 6 mice per group. (T) Schematic overview of human liver metastasis. (U) Fresh specimen from resected liver metastasis and hematoxylin & eosin staining of perimetastatic and metastatic human liver. (V) Flow cytometry of perimetastatic and metastatic human liver and diagram showing the proportion of iNKT IL-22-producing cells in perimetastatic and metastatic human liver. Cells were isolated from fresh perimetastatic and metastatic liver tissue and analyzed using flow cytometry. $n = 5$ patients. Scale bar: 200 μ m. Data presented as mean \pm SEM. ns>0.05; *:p<0.05; **:p≤0.01; ***:p≤0.001 as assessed by one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni post hoc tests (H, V) or Mann-Whitney U test (E, F, G, N, P, Q, S).

Figure S7, related to Figure 7. IL-22 producing iNKT17 cells express tissue resident markers (A-C) Gating strategy used for Figure 7 C. (A) FACS plots showing the IL-22+ T cell populations in the livers of *Foxp3RFP;Il17aeGFP;Il22BFP* mice 0h and 12h post MC38 cell injection compared to WT mice. (B,C) Representative FACS plots of the indicated fractions within the IL-22+ T cell population showing the percentage of infiltrating and circulating cells at 0h (B) and 12h (C). (D) The contribution of CD4+ and CD4- of iNKT+IL-22+ cells 12 hours upon intrasplenic cancer cell injection. (E) Cell clusters of identified CD45+ cells using single-cell sequencing in mouse livers 12 hours upon intrasplenic cancer cell injection, overlaid with tissue residency score and iNKT17 markers.

Supplementary table 1, related to the STAR method section: Taqman probes and primer sequences utilized for this study

Supplementary table 2, related to STAR method section: Cloning oligonucleotide sequences corresponding to shRNA and sgRNAs used in this study

