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ABSTRACT

 Influenza A virus (IAV) infections lead to severe inflammation in the airways. Patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) characteristically have exaggerated airway inflammation and are more susceptible to infections with severe symptoms and increased mortality. The mechanisms that control inflammation duirng IAV infection and the mechanisms of immune dys-regulation in COPD are unclear. We found that IAV infections lead to increased inflammatory and antiviral reponses in primary bronchial epithelial cells (pBECs) from healthy non-smoking and smoking subjects. In pBECs from COPD patients, infections resulted in an exaggerated inflammatory but deficient antiviral responses. A20 is an important negative regulator of nuclear factor-kappaB (NF-κB)-mediated inflammatory but not antiviral response, and A20 expression was reduced in COPD. IAV infection increased the expression of micro(miR)-125a/b, which directly reduced the expression of A20 and mitochondrial antiviral signaling (MAVS), and caused exaggerated inflammation and impaired antiviral responses. These events were replicated *in vivo* in a mouse model of experimental COPD. Thus, miR-125a/b and A20 and may be targeted therapeutically to inhibit excessive inflammatory responses and enhance antiviral immunity in IAV infections and in COPD.

INTRODUCTION

 Influenza A viruses (IAVs) are amongst the most important infectious human pathogens that cause enormous morbidity and mortality worldwide. This largely results from seasonal influenza but an important feature of the biology of IAVs is the frequent emergence of novel pandemic strains/subtypes. Infections cause symptoms ranging from mild to severe viral pneumonia, with uncontrolled inflammation in the airways.

 Bronchial epithelial cells (BECs) are the primary site of IAV infection, and innate immune responses produced by these cells are important in the early protection against the viruses [\(1,](#page-15-0) [2\)](#page-15-1). During infection viral RNAs are recognized by toll-like receptor 3 (TLR3) and retinoic acid-inducible gene-I (RIG-I). Upon binding of TLR3 to viral RNAs signalling pathways are initiated that activate receptor interacting protein 1 (RIP1) by ubiquitination. Activated RIP1 indirectly phosphorylates IκBα, leading to the release of active p65 and p50 subunits of nuclear factor-kappaB (NF-κB) into the nucleus where they induce the transcription of inflammatory genes including of cytokines such as interleukin-6 (IL-6), tumor necrosis factor-α (TNF-α), and IL-1β, and chemokines such as CXC chemokine ligand-8 (CXCL-8/IL- 8) [\(3-5\)](#page-16-0). These inflammatory cytokines recruit immune cells, in particular macrophages and neutrophils, to the site of infection that phagocytose pathogens and apoptotic cells [\(6,](#page-16-1) [7\)](#page-16-2). RIG- I interacts with mitochondrial antiviral-signaling protein (MAVS), which activates interferon regulatory factor 3 (IRF3) by phosphorylation. Activated IRF3 then translocates into the nucleus where it initiates the production of type I and III interferons (IFNs) [\(8,](#page-16-3) [9\)](#page-16-4). These innate cytokines induce the transcription of over 300 IFN-stimulated genes (ISGs) including the Mx1 protein that disrupts virus replication [\(10\)](#page-17-0).

 The control of inflammation is critical to achieving optimal inflammatory responses that clear viruses without excessive damage to host tissues and airways. We have previously shown that A20, also known as TNF-α-inducing protein 3 (TNFAIP3), is a negative regulator of NF-κB-mediated inflammation that functions by targeting RIP1 for degradation, and therefore suppresses NF-κB activation [\(11-14\)](#page-17-1). Micro-RNAs (miRNAs; miRs) are another important class of immune signaling regulators that silence gene expression by degradation [\(15\)](#page-17-2). miR-125a and b have recently been shown to directly inhibit A20, leading to increased NF-κB activation [\(16\)](#page-17-3). It is currently unknown if A20 or miR-125a/b regulates type I and III IFNs during IAV infections.

The Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) is the $3rd$ leading cause of illness and death globally and is characterized by progressive airway inflammation, emphysema, and reduced lung function [\(17\)](#page-18-0). The most important risk factor for COPD in Western societies is cigarette smoking [\(18\)](#page-18-1). COPD patients have increased susceptibility to IAV infections that cause acute exacerbations and result in more severe symptoms, disease progression, and increased mortality [\(19-21\)](#page-18-2). Current therapeutics remain limited to vaccination and antiviral drugs. These have major issues with the constant need for developing new vaccines, COPD patients respond poorly to vaccination, IAVs have become drug resistant and all therapeutics have questions surrounding availability and efficacy in future pandmics [\(22,](#page-18-3) [23\)](#page-19-0). There is therefore an urgent need to develop novel therapeutics for influenza, especially for those most susceptible to infection.

 Despite inflammatory signalling pathways being well-characterized, the mechanisms underlying the exaggerated inflammatory responses to IAV, including in COPD are unclear. It is known that increased NF-κB activation is elevated in biopsies from COPD patients [\(24\)](#page-19-1). We have previously shown that human influenza H3N2 infection induced heightened inflammatory responses [\(25\)](#page-19-2), and high pathogenic avian H5N1is known to induce severe cytokine storms in 88 the lung [\(9,](#page-16-4) [26\)](#page-19-3). We also showed that primary BECs (pBECs) from COPD subjects and our established *in vivo* model of experimental COPD have increased inflammatory and impaired antiviral responses to IAV infections, leading to more severe infection [\(27-29\)](#page-19-4). Furthermore,

measured 24hr after infection. Virus titers increased at 24hr (Fig. 1A), and was two-fold greater

in COPD pBECs compared to controls. Infection resulted in the production of the pro-

116 inflammatory cytokines/chemokines IL-6, CXCL-8, TNF- α , and IL-1 β , and antiviral cytokines type I (IFN-β) and type III interferons (IFN-λ1) (Fig. 1B). In COPD, the induction levels of cytokines were substantially higher (2.5-10 fold) compared with healthy control and smoker pBECs (Fig. 1B). In contrast, the induction of IFN-β and IFN-λ1 proteins were reduced in COPD.

 We then measured the levels of activity of NF-κB by assessing the levels of phosphorylated p65 at Ser536 (phospho-p65) [\(35,](#page-20-3) [37,](#page-21-1) [38\)](#page-21-2). Infection significantly increased the activation of p65 (phospho-p65) in both healthy and smoker pBECs at 6hr, which was further increased at 24hr (Fig. 1C; Supplementary Fig. S1A). In COPD pBECs the protein levels of phospho-p65 was elevated at baseline (media controls) at 6hr and significantly increased with infection at 24hr compared to healthy and smoker controls.

IAV infection also induces increased inflammatory but reduced antiviral responses *in vivo* **in experimental COPD**

 We then demonstrated these events also occur *in vivo*. BALB/c mice were exposed to either normal air (Air) or cigarette smoke (Smk) for eight weeks. The Smk group develops hallmark features of COPD as previously described extensively [\(27,](#page-19-4) [28,](#page-19-5) [32-35,](#page-20-2) [39\)](#page-21-3). Mice were then infected with IAV A/PR/8/34, and viral titers, airway inflammation (histopathological score), and inflammatory and antiviral cytokines were determined at 7 days post infection (dpi) (Fig. 2A). Infection in Air-exposed controls leads to virus replication (Fig. 2B) that was accompanied by significant airway inflammation (histopathological score, Supplementary Fig. S1B). Infection in Smk-exposed mice resulted in a significantly higher virus titers (four-fold) and airway histopathological score (three fold) compared to Air-exposed mice. In support of these data, the levels of the pro-inflammatory cytokines/chemokines IL-6, KC (mouse equivalent of CXCL-8), TNF-α, and IL-1β were also increased by infection in Air- and to a

 greater extent in Smk-exposed groups (Fig. 2C). Antiviral cytokines were increased in infected Air-exposed controls but were either not induced (IFN-β) or were induced to a much reduced level (IFN-λ3) in infected Smk-exposed groups (Fig. 2D). The exaggerated release of pro- inflammatory cytokines was associated with significantly increased levels of phospho-p65 protein in infected Smk-exposed compared to Air-exposed controls (Fig. 2E; Supplementary Fig. S1C). In all experiments, ultraviolet-inactivated virus did not have any effects compared to media controls (data not shown).

 Taken together these human *ex vivo* and experimental *in vivo* data demonstrate that IAV infections result in increased airway inflammation, pro-inflammatory and antiviral responses. However, COPD is associated with exaggerated inflammation and reduced antiviral responses, leading to increased virus replication.

 A20 is an important negative regulatory of NF-κB-mediated inflammatory but not antiviral responses, and its expression is reduced in human COPD and experimental COPD

 We have previously shown that A20 is an important negative regulator of NF-κB activation [\(11-14\)](#page-17-1), but its roles during IAV infection and whether it also regulates the induction of type I and III IFNs is unclear. We hypothesized that A20 protein expression would be down-regulated and would contribute to the increased activation of NF-κB in response to IAV infection in COPD. IAV infection led to a significant induction of A20 protein at 6hr and 24hr in healthy 161 and smoker controls, but this increase was impaired in COPD pBECs (Fig. 3A; Supplementary Fig. S2A). Similarly in Smk-exposed mice, A20 protein expression was reduced in airway epithelial cells compared to Air-exposed controls (Supplementary Fig. S2B). We then investigated if A20 was important in NF-κB-mediated inflammatory responses, and if

exaggerated p65 activation was the direct result of reduced A20 protein levels during infection

 in COPD pBECs. We inhibited A20 expression using A20-specific siRNA 24hr before infection, and measured the activation of p65 and the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines/chemokines 24hr after infection. Inhibition of A20 expression (Fig. 3B; Supplementary Fig. S2C) resulted in significant increases in the protein levels of phospho-p65 (Fig. 3C; Supplementary Fig. S2C), and pro-inflammatory cytokines/chemokines IL-6, CXCL- 8, TNF-α, and IL-1β (Fig. 3D) compared to un-treated controls, whether pBECs were infected or not. Conversely, ectopic (ecto-) expression using a pcDNA-A20 expression vector reduced the phosphorylation of p65 (Supplementary Fig. S2D). Nevertheless, inhibition or ecto- expression of A20 did not affect IFN-β and IFN-λ1 induction (Fig. 3E; Supplementary Fig. 175 S2D). siRNA negative control or control vector did not affect the induction of A20 or phospho-p65 protein (Supplementary Fig. S2E-F).

 Collectively these data indicate that A20 is an important negative regulator of NF-κB but is dispensible in the induction of type I and III IFNs. A20 protein expression is dysregulated in COPD.

Elevated miR-125a and b levels decrease A20 levels, increase inflammation and impair antiviral responses in COPD pBEC and experimental COPD

 miR-125a and b have recently been shown to directly target and inhibit A20 expression [\(16\)](#page-17-3), but its roles during IAV infection and in COPD are unknown. Thus, we measured the levels of miR-125a and b induced by IAV infection. H3N2 and H1N1 infections resulted in significant increases in the levels of these miRs at 24hr in pBECs from all groups (Fig. 4A). However, their levels were substantially greater at baseline and during infection (2-4 fold) in COPD pBECs compared to healthy controls. We then confirmed the direct link between increased miR-125a and b levels and reduced A20 protein induction using specific antagomiRs and mimetics. pBECs were pre-treated with either miR-125a or b specific antagomiRs or mimetics

 for 24hr before infection, and A20, phospho-p65, inflammatory and antiviral cytokines and were assessed 24hr after infection. AntagomiR treatment inhibited miR-125a or b expression (Supplementary Fig. S3A), and this resulted in significant increases in A20 protein production, reduced phosphorylation of p65, subsequent induction of pro-inflammatory cytokines/chemokines, and enhanced antiviral IFN-β and λ1 responses (Fig. 4B and Supplementary Fig. S3B-E) compared to un-treated controls. Conversely miR-125a or b mimetics decreased A20 protein induction, increased phospho-p65protein levels and reduced IFN-β responses (Supplementary Fig. S3F). Treatment with scrambled miR or mimetic controls did not affect A20, phospho-p65, or IFN-β production (Supplementary Fig. S3G-H).

 We then assessed whether similar events occurred *in vivo*. IAV infection significantly increased the levels of miR-125a and b in both groups, with the levels in Smk group significantly higher compared to Air-exposed controls (Fig. 4C). We then inhibited miR-125a or b before and during infection (Fig. 4D). We also extended the *ex vivo* data by inhibiting both miR-125a and b together. Treatment with miR-125a or b antagomiR, alone or in combination, reduced histopathological scores (Fig. 4E and Supplementary Fig. S4A) and improved lung function (reduced lung volume determined during a pressure-volume loop manoeuvre) in Air and Smk- exposed groups compared to infected scrambled antagomiR-treated controls (Supplementary Fig. S4B). Inhibition of miR-125a, b, or a and b, also increased A20 protein expression in the airway epithelium and decreased the levels of phospho-p65 compared to the controls (Fig. 4F; Supplementary Fig. S4C-D). Importantly while we could only detect reductions in TNF-α and KC with combined treatment (Supplementary Fig. S4E), antagomiR treatment, either alone or in combination, also significantly increased IFN-β and IFN-λ3 protein induction (Fig. 4F and Supplementary Fig. S4D).

 Collectively, these data show that miR-125a and b are directly involved in the regulation of both inflammatory cytokines, through the control of A20, and antiviral cytokine production 216 through an unknown target.

miR-125a and b target MAVS

 To determine the mechanism of miR-125a and b-mediated regulation of antiviral IFN-β/λ, we performed miRNA prediction analysis using TargetScan [\(www.targetscan.org\)](http://www.targetscan.org/). miR-125a and b have a putative binding site in the 3′-UTR of human and mouse *MAVS* (Fig. 5A-B). To examine these putative interactions we first assessed the protein levels of MAVS in pBECs. MAVS protein levels were significantly increased 24hr after IAV infection in healthy control and smoker, but notably not in COPD pBECs (Fig. 5C; Supplementary Fig. S5A). Similarly, infection in Smk-exposed mice was also associated with signficantly impaired production of MAVS compared to infected Air-exposed controls at 7dpi (Fig. 5D; Supplementary Fig. S5B). To confirm the potential interaction of miR-125a/b and MAVS, we cloned the putative binding region of miR-125a and b in wild-type (MAVS-WT) or mutant (MAVS-MT) *MAVS* 3′-UTR into a luciferase reporter construct. The construct was co-transfected into HEK293 cells along with miR-125a or b mimetics, or scrambled controls, and then luciferase activity was assessed. Co-transfection of miR-125a or miR-125b mimetics with MAVS-WT resulted in a significant decrease in luciferase activity compared to scrambled controls (Fig. 5E). There was no reduction in activity with co-transfection with MAVS-MT. We then determined if *MAVS* gene is present with the miR-125a or b mimetics in the silencing complex. To do this we immunoprecipitated Argonaute 2 (Ago2), a core component of RNA-induced silencing complex (RISC) that binds to the miRNAs and their target mRNA, with a specific antibody and detected the presence of both *A20* and *MAVS* by qPCR, which could not be detected with

 immunoprecipitation with IgG control (Fig. 5F). This confirmed that miR-125a and b directly bind to the endogenous 3′-UTR of *MAVS*.

miR-125a and b targeting of MAVS regulates antiviral responses in COPD pBEC and experimental COPD

 We then investigated whether inhibition of miR-125 has a functional outcome. We showed that miR-125a and b antagomiR treatment lead to significant increases in MAVS (Fig. 6A and Supplementary Fig. S6A-B), IFN-β and IFN-λ1 protein induction (Fig. 4B and Supplementary Fig. S3C), and reduced viral replication in both healthy and control pBECs (Fig. 6B). In contrast, mimetics suppressed the induction of antiviral cytokines and increased virus titers (Supplementary Fig. S3F). Similarly in Smk-exposed mice, inhibition of miR-125a, b, or a+b resulted in increased induction of MAVS (Fig. 6C and Supplementary Fig. S6C), IFN-β and IFN-λ3 (Fig. 4F and Supplementary Fig. S4D-E), and inhibited virus replication (Fig. 6D). Collectively these data demonstrate that miR-125a and b negatively regulate MAVS expression

252 and suppress the induction of IFN- β/λ , and may potentially be targeted therapeutically in the prevention and/or treatment of IAVs and COPD.

DISCUSSION

 Here we discover that IAV infections induce airway inflammation and antiviral responses, however in COPD pBECs and experimental COPD inflammatory responses and activation of NF-κB are exaggerated but antiviral responses are impaired. We show that A20 is a negative regulator of NF-κB-mediated induction of inflammatory but not antiviral cytokines, and that A20 protein levels were impaired in COPD. The impaired induction of A20 and antiviral responses in COPD was attributed to increased expression of miR-125a and b. Elevated levels

 of these miRNAs suppressed A20 expression, leading to heightened NF-κB activity and inflammation and reduced antiviral responses. Inhibition with miR-125a and b antagomiRs increased A20 levels and reduced NF-κB activity, and also promoted IFN production. We then demonstreated that miR-125a and b modulated IFN induction by targeting MAVS translation. MAVS protein levels were reduced in COPD, but could be increased with specific miR-125a and b antagomiR treatment that also induced IFN production. Thus, IAV infection induces the expression of miR-125a/b that suppress A20 and MAVS, in turn promoting NF-κB-induced inflammation and attenuating anitviral IFN production, respectively, increasing viral replication. All these events are exaggerated in COPD (Fig. 7).

 IAV is a major infectious pathogen that poses serious health concerns worldwide. Infections, particularly with highly pathogenic influenza viruses, cause severe airway inflammation and a cytokine storm with high morbidity and mortality. COPD is a major global health problem that is underpinned by exaggerated inflammatory responses in the airways [\(40\)](#page-21-4). IAV infections frequently result in acute exacerbations of COPD, leading to accelerated 277 declines in lung function [\(41,](#page-21-5) [42\)](#page-21-6) and increased mortality [\(20\)](#page-18-4). The mechanisms of exaggerated inflammation and severe outcomes in COPD are poorly understood, and there are no effective therapies for these events.

 Here we show that IAV-mediated inflammatory response are dampened with ectopic expression of A20 that reduces NF-κB activity and inflammatory responses, without affecting type I and III IFN responses. A20 is a de-ubiquitinating enzyme that degrades RIP1 and inhibits NF-κB activation [\(13\)](#page-17-4), and has been shown to suppress the induction of IFN-β [\(43\)](#page-22-0). We found that A20 modulated NF-κB activity and inflammation, but did not affect type I and III IFNs production.

 Consistent with our previous findings [\(27\)](#page-19-4), IAV infections in COPD pBECs and experimental COPD led to heightened inflammation and production of inflammatory cytokines

 but impaired antiviral responses (IFN-β and IFN-λ), which were associated with greater viral replication. Increased inflammation, inflamamtory cytokines and activation of NF-κB are well- known in COPD [\(24,](#page-19-1) [44\)](#page-22-1). Here we show that these are the result of reduced induction of A20, leading to uncontrolled activation of NF-κB and subsequent induction of inflammatory cytokines. A20 is a pleiotropic protein involved in various ubiquitin-dependent pathways 293 including NF- κ B [\(16\)](#page-17-3) and mitogen-activated protein (MAP) kinase pathway [\(45\)](#page-22-2), and has also been shown to negatively regulate type I IFN inductions [\(43,](#page-22-0) [46,](#page-22-3) [47\)](#page-22-4). Surprisingly inhibition or ectopic expression of A20 did not affect IFN-β production. The precise roles of A20 during viral infections therefore require further investigation. We could not rule out that other factors may also contribute to the regulation of A20 expression and of NF-κB activity, including other un-identified miRNAs, which may also be dys-regulated in COPD.

 Forced expression of A20 may be a novel therapeutic option that reduces IAV- mediated inflammation and cytokine storm, particularly from high pathogenic IAVs such as H5N1, or in COPD where airway inflammation is already persistently heightened.

 The lack of the induction of A20 protein during IAV infection in COPD was attributed to increased levels of miR-125a and b. These miRNAs down-regulate A20 expression by directly binding to its 3′-UTR, leading to constitutive activation of NF-κB [\(16\)](#page-17-3). We found that heightened levels of miR-125a/b resulted in increased activation of NF-κB in COPD. Inhibition of miR-125a or b in both healthy and COPD pBECs and in experimental COPD increased A20 protein levels and reduced NF-κB activation during IAV infection.

 We also found that miR-125a and b modulated the induction of type I and III antiviral IFNs. This occurred by the direct targeting of MAVS 3′-UTR, therefore down-regulating the subsequent induction of IFN-β and IFN-λ. MAVS is an important adaptor protein on mitochondria that facilitates the production of IFNs [\(8\)](#page-16-3), however there was an impaired induction of MAVS by IAV infections in COPD pBECs and in experimental COPD. Inhibition of miR-125a and/or b increased the levels of MAVS and antiviral IFNs, which lead to reduced virus replication both *in vivo* and *in vivo*. Interestingly antagomiRs against miR-125a and/or b (either alone or in combination) in experimental COPD, partially reduced the release of inflammatory cytokines, and substantially suppressed virus replication. This may indicate that miR-125a and b may preferentially target MAVS over A20 during IAV infection in COPD, although such binding preferences of miRNAs have not been widely investigated. Furthermore, as MAVS is transcriptionally driven by IFN-sensitive response element (ISRE) as part of the IFN-stimulated genes [\(48\)](#page-22-5), and miR-125a/b have been reported to be induced by NF-κB [\(49\)](#page-22-6), it is possible that reduced MAVS partly attributed to impaired IFNs in COPD, and with enhanced expression of miR-125a/b (NF-κB-inducible) this then leads to continuous cycle of exaggerated inflammation and impaired antiviral immunity in COPD.

 Although miR-125a/b appears to be NF-κB-inducible, the exact molecular mechanisms of enhanced miR-125a/b expression in COPD require further investigation. In colorectal cancer tissues the levels of miR-125a have been shown to be reduced, which is asoociated with hyper-methylation at the CpG island within the promoter region of miR-125a [\(50\)](#page-22-7). Similarly in breast cancer cell line reduced miR-125a has also been shown to be associated with tri-methylation at H3K9 and H3K27 at the promoter region of miR-125a [\(51\)](#page-23-0). It is therefore possible that the methylation status of miR-125a/b promoter site is altered in COPD, leading to increased expression of miR-125a/b. Nevertheless, our data also demonstrate that specific inhibition of miR-125a/b may be novel therapeutic options against IAV infections and for those whom are most vulnerable.

 Cigarette smoke is the major risk factor for COPD. Acute exposure results in oxidiative stress and NF-κB activation [\(52-54\)](#page-23-1). However the effects we have observed in COPD appear to be independent of acute eposure to cigarette smoking, as the pBECs obtained from subjects with COPD were all abstinent from smoking for at least 10 years. It is likely that chronic exposure progressively leads to persistent induction of miR-125a and b and NF-κB activation [\(55,](#page-23-2) [56\)](#page-23-3), that then reduces the induction of A20 and MAVS in COPD.

 Collectively, our results demonstrate that A20 regulates NF-κB activation and subsequently the production of inflammatory cytokines but not antiviral IFNs. COPD pBECs and mice with experimental COPD responded to IAV infection with an exaggerated inflammatory but impaired antiviral responses. Increased levels of miR-125a and b by IAV and in COPD suppressed protein inductions of A20 and MAVS, leading to heightened airway inflammation and reduced IFN production. Inhibition of miR-125a and b reduced the induction of inflammatory cytokines and enhanced antiviral responses to IAV infection in both healthy and COPD states. This study therefore identifies a novel potential therapeutic target for IAV infection in general and in COPD.

Materials and Methods

Ex vivo:

 COPD patients (10) and healthy non-smoking (10) and smoking (5) controls were recruited and their characteristics are shown in Table 1. Subject recruitment, viruses, cell culture and viral infection, A20 plasmid, siRNA, and miR-125a and b antagomiR/mimetic treatment, cloning and mutagenesis of miR-125a and b binding sites in the MAVS 3′-UTR, reporter assays, immunoblotting, cytometric bead array, immunoprecipitation, miR extraction and analysis, and statistical tests were performed as previously described and/or as in the online supplement [\(27,](#page-19-4) [31,](#page-20-1) [57,](#page-23-4) [58\)](#page-23-5).

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360 In vivo:
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 Experimental COPD and influenza infection were induced, miR-125a and b was inhibited using specific antagomiRs, histopathology, immunohistochemistry, immunoblotting and cytometric

 bead array and data analyses were performed as previously described and/or as in online supplement [\(33,](#page-20-4) [35,](#page-20-3) [39,](#page-21-3) [59-67\)](#page-24-0).

Study Approvals

 All procedures were approved by The University of Newcastle Human and Animal Ethics Committees.

Author contributions

 A. C-Y. H. conceived and designed the study. A. C-Y. H. and K. P. performed all *in vitro* experiments. K. D., T-J. H., and P. M. N. performed all in vivo experiments. All authors participated in the completion of the manuscript.

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	Healthy	COPD	Smoker	$P - value$
Number	15	15	5	NA
Sex	1.14	1.2	1.5	$p = 0.6$
(Male:Female				
ratio)				
Mean Age	62(9.9)	68 (4.1)	64.33	$p = 0.06$
(SD)			(12.82)	
Mean FEV1	105%	40% (7.75)	97.66%	p < 0.001
$(SD)^*$	(13.5)		(12.66)	
FEV1/FVC ratio	886x	40.20 (13.50)	77.80	p < 0.001
$(SD)^*$	(14.50)		(12.28)	
Cigarette	Ω	53.70	30	p < 0.001
(Packs/year; SD)		(15.90)	(17.32)	
Years abstinent	θ	13.0	Ω	NA
(SD)		(4.64)		
ICS	$\overline{0}$	Seretide (10%)	$\overline{0}$	NA
(percent treated)		Spiriva (10%)		
		Tiotropium (10%)		
		Spiriva/Salbutamol (10%)		
		Seretide/Tiotropium (20%)		
		Seretide/Tiotropium/Ventolin		
		(20%)		
		Seretide/Spiriva/Ventolin		
		(20%)		

591 **Table 1. Subject characteristics**

592 *FEV₁ and FEV₁/FVC ratios are % predicted values. FEV₁ is the forced expiratory volume in

593 1s expressed as a percentage of the predicated value. FVC is forced vital capacity. The

594 statistical analysis used was ANOVA for multiple groups. NA = Not applicable.

FIGURE AND FIGURE LEGENDS

 Fig. 1. IAV infection is more severe and results in exaggerated inflammatory but impaired antiviral responses in pBECs from patients with COPD. pBECs from healthy controls, COPD patients and healthy smokers were infected with human IAV H3N2 or H1N1, and (A) virus replication was measured at 24hr. (B) Pro-inflammatory cytokines/chemokines IL-6, CXCL-8, TNF-α, and IL-1β, and antiviral cytokines IFN-β and IFN-λ1 were measured in culture

 supernatants at 24hr. (C) Phospho-p65 was assessed at 6hr and 24hr, densitometry results (from Supplementary Fig. S1A, representative immunoblot) were calculated as phospho- p65:GAPDH ratios, and expressed as fold change from healthy media control. Data are mean \pm SEM, *n* = 15 (healthy controls and COPD patients) or 5 (healthy smokers). **P*≤0.05 versus respective un-infected media control, + *P*≤0.05 versus infected or un-infected healthy controls. Statistical differences were determined with one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post-test.

 Fig. 2. IAV infection is more severe and results in exaggerated inflammatory and impaired antiviral responses in experimental COPD. (A) BALB/c mice were exposed to cigarette smoke (Smk) or normal air (Air) for eight weeks, infected with IAV H1N1 (A/PR/8/34, 8pfu) or media (Sham) on the last day of smoke exposure and sacrificed 7 days post infection (dpi). (B) Virus titers were measured in bronchoalveolar lavage fluid. (C) IL-6, KC, TNF-α, and IL-1β, and (D) IFN-β and IFN-λ3 were assessed in lung homogenates. (E) Phospho-p65 protein was determined in lung homogenates, densitometry results (from Supplementary Fig. S1D, representative immunoblot) were calculated as phospho-p65 or IFN-β:β-actin ratios, and 620 expressed as fold change from Air sham control. Data are mean \pm SEM, $n = 6-8$ per group,

- **P*≤0.05 versus Sham control, +*P*≤0.05 versus Air control. Statistical differences were
- determined with one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post-test.

 Fig. 3. A20 expression is reduced and it negatively regulates inflammatory but not antiviral responses in pBECs from patients with COPD. (A) pBECs were infected with human IAV H3N2 or H1N1 and the protein levels of A20 were determined at 6hr and 24hr. Densitometry results (from Supplementary Fig. S2A, representative immunoblot) were calculated as A20 or phospho-p65:GAPDH ratios, and expressed as fold change from healthy media control. Data 629 are mean \pm SEM, $n = 15$ per group. *P \leq 0.05 versus respective un-infected media control, + *P*≤0.05 versus healthy control. A20 expression was inhibited with a specific siRNA, pBECs were infected with IAVs and (B) protein levels of A20 and (C) phospho-p65 and of (D) cytokines/chemokines IL-6, CXCL-8, TNF-α, and IL-1β, and antiviral (E) IFN-β and IFN-λ1 were measured 24hr later. Densitometric ratios (from Supplementary Fig. S2C, representative 634 immunoblot) were expressed as fold change from un-treated media control. Data are mean \pm SEM, *n* = 3 per group. **P*≤0.05 versus un-treated, un-infected media control, +*P*≤0.05 versus un-treated infected or un-infected control. Statistical differences were determined with one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post-test.

 Fig. 4. IAV infection increases the levels of miR-125 and b that suppress the production of A20, increase inflammatory and reduce antiviral responses in human COPD pBECs and experimental COPD. pBECs were infected with human IAV H3N2 or H1N1 and (A) miR-125a

642 and b levels were assessed 24hr. Data are mean \pm SEM, $n = 15$ per group, * $P \le 0.05$ versus un- infected media control. +*P*≤0.05 versus healthy or smoker control. (B) pBECs were treated with miR-125a or b antagomiR, infected, and the levels of A20, phospho-p65, IFN-β and IFN- λ1 were assessed. Densitometry results (Supplementary Fig. S3B, representative immunoblot) were calculated as A20 or phospho-p65:GAPDH ratios and expressed as fold change from un-647 treated, un-infected control. Data are mean \pm SEM, $n = 3$ per group, * $P \le 0.05$ versus un-treated, un-infected media control, +*P*≤0.05 versus un-treated infected or un-infected group. (C) BALB/c mice were exposed to cigarette smoke (Smk) or normal air (Air) for eight weeks, inoculated with IAV H1N1 (A/PR/8/34, 8pfu) or media (Sham) on the last day of smoke exposure, sacrificed 7 days post infection (dpi) and the levels of miR-125a and b were 652 measured. Data are mean \pm SEM, $n = 6-8$ per group, *P≤0.05 versus Sham group, +P≤0.05 versus Air infected or un-infected group. (D) In other groups on the last day of smoke exposure mice were treated with miR-125a or b antagomiR alone or in combination, infected with IAV, 655 and (E) airway histological scores were assessed. Data are mean \pm SEM, $n = 6-8$ per group, **P*≤0.05 versus infected and scrambled treated Air controls, +*P*≤0.05 versus infected and scramble-treated Smk group. (F) The protein levels of A20, phospho-p65, and IFN-β in lung homogenates were also measured. Densitometry results (Supplementary Fig. S4D) were calculated as A20 or phospho-p65:β-actin ratios and expressed as fold change from un-treated, 660 un-infected control. Data are mean \pm SEM, $n = 6$ -8 per group, *P \leq 0.05 versus infected scrambled-treated Air group, +*P*≤0.05 versus infected scrambled Smk group. Statistical differences were determined with one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post-test.

 Fig. 5. miR-125a and b target a functional binding site of the 3′-UTR of the mRNA of MAVS to suppress its expression. (A) Representation of *MAVS* gene structure and location of miR- 125a and b binding site. (B) The binding site on 3′-UTR of *MAVS* is 100% conserved between human and mouse *MAVS*. (C) pBECs were infected with H3N2 or H1N1 and MAVS protein was detected at 6hr and 24hr. Densitometry results (Supplementary Fig. S5A, representative immunoblot) were calculated as MAVS:GAPDH ratios and expressed as fold change from un-671 treated, un-infected controls. Data are mean \pm SEM, $n = 15$ per group, * $P \le 0.05$ versus un-infected healthy or smoker controls, +*P*≤0.05 versus infected or un-infected healthy controls.

 Fig. 6. miR-125a and b suppresses the induction of MAVS and promote virus replication in human COPD pBECs and experimental COPD. (A) miR-125a and b antagomiR or mimetics were added to pBECs before infection with human IAV H3N2 or H1N1 and mitochondrial antiviral signaling (MAVS) protein were assessed 24hr after infection. Densitometry results (Supplementary Fig. S6A, representative immunoblot) were calculated as MAVS:GAPDH 693 ratios and expressed as fold change from un-treated, un-infected controls. Data are mean \pm SEM, *n* = 3, **P*≤0.05 versus un-treated, un-infected media controls, +*P*≤0.05 versus un-treated, 695 infected or un-infected controls. (B) Virus replication was also measured. Data are mean \pm 696 SEM, $n = 3$. * $P \le 0.05$ versus un-treated, infected controls. (C) BALB/c mice were exposed to cigarette smoke (Smk) or normal air (Air) for eight weeks, treated with mir125a and/or b antagomiR, infected with IAV H1N1 (A/PR/8/34, 8pfu) or media (Sham) on the last day of smoke exposure, sacrificed 7 days post inoculation (dpi) and MAVS protein was measured. Densitometry results (Supplementary Fig. S6C, representative immunoblot) were calculated as

 MAVS:β-actin ratios and expressed as fold change from un-treated, un-infected controls. Data 702 are mean \pm SEM, $n = 6$, *P \leq 0.05 versus infected, scramble treated Air or Smk controls. (D) 703 Virus replication was assessed. Data are mean \pm SEM, $n = 6$, * $P \le 0.05$ versus infected, scramble-treated controls. Statistical differences were determined with one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post-test.

 Fig. 7. Roles of miR-125a and b in the regulation of inflammatory and antiviral responses in IAV infection. Increased levels of miR-125a and b, for example in COPD, reduces the protein expression of A20 that results in uncontrolled NF-κB activation, leading to exaggerated induction of pro-inflammatory cytokines. miR-125a and b also targets and reduces MAVS and antiviral type I and III IFN production. Inhibition of miR-125a and b enhances MAVS and antiviral responses and suppresses viral infection.