AUS DER MEDIZINISCHEN KLINIK UND POLIKLINIK I LUDWIG-MAXIMILIANS-UNIVERSITÄT MÜNCHEN



Dissertation zum Erwerb des Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.) an der Medizinischen Fakultät der Ludwig-Maximilians-Universität zu München

The developmental origins of macrophages define their metabolic and inflammatory properties

vorgelegt von:

Sara Rahamatalla Mohamed Elhag

aus:

Alkamline, Sudan

Jahr:

2022

Mit Genehmigung der Medizinischen Fakultät der Ludwig-Maximilians-Universität zu München

First evaluator:Prof. Dr. med. Christian SchulzSecond evaluator:Prof. Dr. Barbara SchramlThird evaluator:Prof. Dr. Christian WeberFourth evaluator:Priv. Doz. Dr. Anne Hilgendorff

Dean:

Prof. Dr. med. Thomas Gudermann

date of the defense:

08.04.2022

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work in memory of my mother, from whom I learned to be the ambitious strong person I am. To my father for his ongoing love and support. To my beloved sisters and all my family members.

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Abstract

It is established that tissue resident macrophages have mixed developmental origins in most organs. They derive in variable extent from yolk sac (YS) hematopoiesis during embryonic development. Bone marrow (BM) hematopoietic progenitors give rise to tissue macrophages in postnatal life, and their contribution increases upon organ injury.

Tissue resident macrophages are in perpetual interplay with their surroundings; thus, they are continuously reprogrammed by the microenvironment of their tissue of residence in order to serve immunologic and tissue specific functions. However, in tissue where macrophages are programmed to keep tissue homeostasis and other tissue specialized features, gene expression profiling and epigenetic landscape data revealed that heterogeneity among macrophage population exists, a property that could be attributed to distinct cells origin. Nevertheless, whether YS- and BM-derived macrophages functional properties and their contributions in their tissue of residence homeostasis or in the event microbial or inflammatory challenge varies, still remains to be shown and represents a significant question with major clinical importance.

In order to decipher cell-intrinsic macrophage programs that are independent of the tissue environment, we immortalized hematopoietic progenitors from YS and BM using conditional homeobox protein Hox-B8 (Hoxb8) and carried out an in-depth functional and molecular analysis of differentiated macrophages. While YS and BM macrophages demonstrate close similarities in cellular growth, differentiation, phagocytic properties, migration velocity and their susceptibility to cell death inducers they display differences in cell metabolism, expression of inflammatory markers, and inflammasome activation. Thus, macrophage ontogeny is associated with distinct cellular programs and immune response.

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List of abbreviations

2DG	2-deoxy-glucose
AA	Antimycin A
AGM	Aorto-gonado-mesonephros
ASC	Apoptosis-associated speck-like protein containing a CARD
АТР	Adenosine triphosphate
BIL	Bilirubin
BM	Bone marrow
BSA	Bovine serum albumin
cDNA	Complementary DNA
CE	Coupling efficiency
СН	Cholesterol
СНО	Chinese hamester ovary cells
CNS	Central nervous system
cRCR	Cellular respiratory control ratio
CSF1r	Colony stimulating factor 1 receptor
DAMPs	Damage-associated molecular patterns

DNA	Deoxyribonucleic acid
DNP	2,4-Dinitrophenol
dsDNA	Double stranded DNA
E10.5	Embryonic day 10.5
E12.5	Embryonic day 12.5
E7.5	Embryonic day
E8	Embryonic day 8
E9.5	Embryonic day 9.5
ECAR	Extracellular acidification rate
ER	Endoplasmic reticulum
ER-Hoxb8	Estrogen-regulated Hoxb8
FCS	Fetal calf serum
GM-CSF	Granulocyte-macrophage colony stimulating factor
HSC	Hemopoietic stem cells
IFN-β	Interferon beta
IFN-γ	Interferon gamma
IL-10	Interleukin 10

IL-12	Interleukin 12
IL-1β	Interleukin 1 beta
IL34	Interleukin 34
IL-4	Interleukin 4
IL-6	Interleukin 6
IL-8	Interleukin 8
LDTFs	Lineage-determining factors
LPS	Lipopolysaccharides
M-CSF	Macrophage colony stimulating factor
МНС	Major histocompatibility complex
MPS	Mononuclear Phagocyte System
MSU	Monosodium urate
NLRP3	NOD-, LRR- and pyrin domain-containing protein 3
OCR	Oxygen consumption rate
OMVs	Outer membrane vesicles
PAMP	Pathogen associated molecular pattern
PBS	Phosphate buffer saline

PDMS	Polydimethylsiloxane
PFA	Paraformaldehyde
PRR	Pattern recognition receptor
PS	Phosphatidylserine
R	Rotenone
RNA	Ribonucleic acid
SCF	Stem cell factor
TCA	Tricarboxylic acid cycle
Th1	T helper 1
Th17	T helper 17
Th2	T helper 2
TLR	Toll-like receptor
TLR4	Toll-like receptor 4
TNF	Tumor necrosis factor
TSTFs	Tissue-specific transcription factors
UV	Ultra violet

Yolk sac

YS

1. Introduction and literature review

1.1 Macrophages

Macrophages are important members of the innate and adaptive immunity (Junt, 2007; Thompson, 2011). Being uniquely armed with a massive pattern of receptors, high phagocytic capacity as well as the ability to release cytokines, macrophages play a key role in host defence against pathogens. For instance, their phagocytic properties are important for the clearance of dead cells and cellular debris, which contributes to the maintenance of homeostasis (Flannagan, 2012). Macrophages are diverse in their functions. Within organs, macrophages provide tissue specific functions such as the resorption of bone, erythrocyte clearance (spleen, liver), collagen degradation (arteries), clearance of surfactant (lung) as well as metabolic features (Davies, 2013). Moreover, they can both promote or inhibit inflammatory processes through release of cytokines and therefore play an important role in tissue remodelling (Wynn, 2010, 2016). Thus, macrophages are important for the physiological functionality of the tissues in addition to their significant role in infection and tissue damage (Zani, 2015). The heterogeneity of macrophages, which is in part associated with their developmental paths, is the subject of this research project.

1.2 Origin of tissue resident macrophages

Classically, macrophages are described as a member of the mononuclear phagocyte system (MPS) (Klein, 2007; Okabe, 2018) that derives from circulating monocytes, originating from bone marrow (BM) progenitors. Recently, the origins and distribution of macrophages within tissues during the process of development have been an area of extensive research. Using microarray, proteomic analysis, fate mapping and gene expression patterns, researchers were able to reverse many aspects of the perception regarding the origin and the heterogeneity of tissue resident macrophages.

Based on a study by Moore and Metcalf, the yolk sac has been described as the main source of definitive haematopoiesis as early as 1970, where E7.5 mice embryos were cultured for a short period after Yolk sac removal. Interestingly, no hematopoietic cells in fetal liver were observed, concluding that Yolk sac progenitors are the source for early embryonic haematopoiesis (Moore, 1970). By employing the newly developed techniques, scientists were able to show that macrophages appear in the yolk sac (YS) earlier than hemopoietic stem cells (HSC) derived haematopoiesis. These YS derived macrophages can found in the blood islands of the YS as early as embryonic day 8 (E8) (J. Y. Bertrand, 2010), seed fetal liver at E9 (Kieusseian, 2012) and colonize developing embryonic tissues between embryonic day E9.5 and E10.5 (Schulz, 2012). While, definitive HSC appear within the hematogenic endothelium of the aorto-gonado-mesonephros (AGM) region around E10.5 (Boisset, 2010), initiate fetal definitive haematopoiesis from E12.5, and later migrate to the bone marrow and enucleate the definitive haematopoiesis (Kissa, 2010).

Tissue resident macrophages in most tissues such as alveolar macrophages, Kupffer cells, peritoneal macrophages, Langerhans cells, and spleen are derived from the YS (Hashimoto, 2013; Sawyer, 1982; Yamada, 1990; Zhou, 2013). They self-maintain by local proliferation in steady state with negligible monocytic cells recruitment to most organs however the recruitment of monocytes increases in case of inflammation (Hashimoto, 2013; Yona, 2013). The extent of replacement from BM hematopoiesis varies according to specific tissue turnover and age. Indeed, tissues with high turnover rate such as the intestine and dermis are continuously maintained from blood monocytes pool (Bain, 2014; Tamoutounour, 2013). Currently, there is a considerable body of research showing that macrophages in most tissues are of mixed origin i.e., YS and BM derived macrophages (Cavaillon, 2011; Ginhoux, 2016; Perdiguero, 2015). One

exception is microglia, the central nervous system (CNS) resident macrophages; which considered to originate solely from YS progenitors, that colonize the CNS early during the embryonic development before the blood– brain barrier establishment and persist throughout adulthood by self-renewal (Ginhoux, 2010).

1.3 Macrophage activation

Macrophage interaction with other cell types such as lymphocytes, microorganisms and their products, and environmental immune-modulators, can define the macrophage activation phenotype (Mills, 2000; Nau, 2002). It became conventional to use the simplistic M1/M2 terminology, that divides activated macrophages into two subsets with distinct characteristics and functions in immune response. In fact, the terminology stemmed from associating those characteristic phenotypes to the activity of the cytokines produced by CD4 T helper lymphocyte a major class of lymphocytes. Cytokines released by TH1 (T helper 1) promote M1 phenotype, while cytokines produced by TH2 (T helper 2) lymphocyte induce M2 status (Mills, 2000).

On one hand, classically activated macrophages (M1) linked to augmented microbicidal activity, inflammatory and antigen-presentation functions, are characteristic for intracellular microbial infections and are involved in tissue injury during chronic infections (Edwards, 2006; Nathan, 2000). M1 activation is induced by pathogen associated molecular pattern (PAMP) such as Lipopolysaccharides (LPS), muramyl dipeptide, lipoteichoic acid and cytokines such GM-CSF and IFN-γ (Lehtonen, 2007; Nau, 2002; Pace, 1983). LPS is the most thoroughly investigated M1 macrophage inducer. Macrophages recognize LPS by Toll-like receptor 4 (TLR4) a member of the PRR family. Binding of LPS to its receptor leads to NF-κB activation. LPS stimulation results in significant nitric oxide production, release of the inflammatory cytokines such as IL-1, IL-8 and TNF, in addition to

increased Major Histocompatibility Complex (MHC) proteins expression, in addition to other molecules involved in antigen processing and presentation (Gilad, 1996).

On the other hand, alternatively activated macrophages (M2-like) show anti-inflammatory properties together with a specific set of antimicrobial functions, and they are associated with parasitic infections, allergies, tissue repair and fibrosis (Albina, 1990; Hesse, 2001). M2 can be subclassified to various subgroups including M2a, M2b and M2c according to their stimuli namely interleukin-4 (IL-4), antigen-antibody complex and Toll-like receptor (TLR) ligands, and IL-10 and glucocorticoids respectively (Stouch, 2014). However, IL-4 the main product of Th2 is among the most appreciated stimuli of alternatively activated macrophages, binding of IL-4 to its receptor on macrophages induces JAK–STAT pathway that leads to activation of STAT6, a transcription factor critical for expression of M2 signature genes such as Retnla, Arg1, and Chil3 (Murray, 2011). IL-4 induced M2 macrophages are characterized by increased mannose receptor expression, arginase/ornithine production, and their compromised ability to produce nitric oxide and inflammatory cytokines secretion (Hesse, 2001; Stein, 1992)

1.4 Macrophage heterogeneity and tissue microenvironment programming

Tissue resident macrophages are in constant interaction with the stroma in their tissue of residence; thus, cytokines and metabolites contribute towards shaping of transcriptional and epigenetic programs of tissue macrophages and thereby tissue specific function. Several landmark studies emphasize macrophage programming by their tissue milieu. One example is the study carried out by Lavin and his colleagues, where they examined the gene expression and chromatin landscape of tissue resident macrophages isolated from various tissues namely CNS, spleen, lungs, liver, peritoneum, as well as large and small intestine. It was concluded that by regulating the transcription factors (TFs), the tissue of residence determines the tissue resident macrophages identity and function (Lavin, 2014). Moreover, adoptive transfer of mature macrophages between organ compartments results in their rapid molecular and phenotypic adaptation to the new microenvironment (Gosselin, 2014; Lavin, 2014). The macrophage lineage-determining factors (LDTFs) such as PU.1, are determined by differentiation signals such as M-CSF and IL34. In addition to that, the tissue microenvironment induces the expression of divergent secondary transcription factors known as tissue-specific transcription factors (TSTFs) that establish tissue-specific enhancers (Gosselin, 2014; Kohyama, 2009; Teitelbaum, 2003). Thus, tissue environment induces TSTFs that work in close coordination with LDTFs (Stanley, 2014; Y. Wang, 2012). Altogether, phenotypes and functional programs of tissue macrophages are determined by the signals they receive in their tissue microenvironments which programs them to fulfil distinct functional demands of different tissues (Gordon, 2013). For instance, Kupffer cells (KCs) guarantee physiological liver function by clearing the blood of microbes, cell debris, and old erythrocytes (Ganz, 2012). Microglia eliminate non-needed neuronal synapses, and those which failed to reach maturity, thereby fine-tune the CNS development and functionality (Ekdahl, 2012). In lymph nodes, subcapsular sinus macrophages activate adaptive immunity by taking the immune complexes and presenting these complexes to follicles B cells (Junt, 2007). Adipose tissue macrophages control lipolysis and regulate heat production in white and brown adipose tissue respectively (Guttenplan, 2018). Moreover, bone resorption by osteoclasts (the macrophages in bone) is vital for bone remodelling and turnover (Raggatt, 2010).

Therefore, the tissue resident macrophages functions are defined by their specific tissue microenvironment and are fundamental for the ordinary tissue physiology. Consequently, defects in their functions were linked to many diseases such as some bone diseases, adult-onset diabetes, in addition to immunocompromising and neurodevelopmental disorders (Wynn, 2013). Therefore, deciphering and manipulation of the

functions of tissue resident macrophage seem to represent a possible therapeutic approach for such illnesses.

1.5 Phagocytosis

Macrophages engulf pathogens and apoptotic cells in a process known as phagocytosis, that was first observed by 'Elie Metchnikoff more than one century ago (Cavaillon, 2011). Since then, it is been considered as the first line of defence against infection and it has a critical role in adaptive immune response induction. Moreover, a large body of evidences connects phagocytosis to tissue turnover, homeostasis and remodelling (Boada-Romero, 2020).

Phagocytosis requires the recognition and binding of the target by receptors expressed on the cell surface. After recognition and internalisation, the engulfed particles accommodated in the phagosome, a membrane-bound vesicle. After detachment from cell plasma membrane, phagosome undergoes strict fusion and fission processes in addition to various biochemical changes including increased acidity that changes it into mature phagosome, a microbicidal compartment (Desjardins, 1994; Pitt, 1992). First of all, phagosome fusses with early endosome giving rise to early phagosome that has distinct markers such as GTPase Rab5. As phagosome proceeds towards late phagosome, its PH changes i.e., becomes more acidic (pH 5.5–6.0) and other markers such as GTPase Rab7 become prominent (Kinchen, 2010). Finally, late phagosome develops into mature phagosome the supreme microbicidal compartment, through interaction with lysosomes which results in even more drop in pH (4.5-5) and activation of hydrolases and oxygen species production (Luzio, 2010).

The end result of phagocytosis is not only killing invading microorganism but also critical for presentation of degraded antigen to T lymphocytes on either MHC1 or MHC2 depending on the antigen nature, the step that is critical for immune response fate; either

induction of adaptive immunity in response to microorganisms or tolerance in case of ingestion of apoptotic bodies (Ravichandran, 2007; Roberts, 2017).

1.6 Cell death

Macrophages play an important role in tissue homeostasis and apoptotic cells clearance by means of a plethora of receptors that recognize translocated phosphatidylserine (PS) and modified sugars. However, their response to the pathogens and environmental insults results in their death by either apoptosis or necrosis. Due to its importance, cell death is a strictly regulated and has a significant impact on organogenesis and maintaining tissue homeostasis during development and adult life; it is also important for defining the outcome of intracellular bacterial infections beside its involvement in various pathologies (Behar, 2011; FADEEL, 2005; GLÜCKSMANN, 1951; Seimon, 2009).

Apoptosis and necrosis are two different types of cell death. Apoptosis involves DNA segmentation and plasma membrane blebbing where intact organelles in addition to nucleic acid segments are accommodated in a plasma membrane bound vesicle; eventually known as apoptotic bodies that released outside the cell. While apoptosis is a normal process that does not lead to tissue damage or induce inflammation, it is vital for organs development and adult tissues turnover. Necrosis is non-physiological type of cell death that was characterized by organelles deformation and non-reversable cell swelling ending up with cell rupture and release of cell content, the event that effects surrounding cells and eventually leads to exudative inflammation (Cohen, 1993; Steller, 1995).

One well-studied inducer of cell death is Fas ligand (fasL or CD95L). CD95/CD95L mediated cell death is a defence mechanism through which the immune system eliminates virus infected cells. It is also central in the process of developing immune tolerance by eliminating autoreactive T cells in the thymus and B cells in spleen as well as eliminating unneeded T and B lymphocytes and hereby supressing unwanted immune response (Krammer, 1998). CD95 cell death receptor belongs to the family of tumour necrosis factor receptor (TNF-R), that has a cytoplasmic death domain through which the apoptotic signal is transduced (Kischkel, 1995). The signalling pathway triggered by binding of its ligand CD95L (fas ligand) on cytotoxic T lymphocytes, CD95L can also be released in form of vesicles or by proteolytic shedding (Martínez-Lorenzo, 1999; Tanaka, 1995). Engagement of CD95/CD95 L leads to CD95 oligomerization and recruitment of Fas-associated death domain protein (FADD) an adaptor protein that reacts homological by means of its death domain with CD95 death domain at one end, and with caspase 8 by means of its death-effector domain (DED) at the other, the event that leads to its proteolytic cleavage and release of Caspase8 into cytoplasm (Muzio, 1996) and eventually Caspase 3 activation by either mitochondrial dependant or independent pathway (Scaffidi, 1998).

Another inducer of cell death, is ultra violet (UV) irradiation, an ionizing radiation involved in skin aging, inflammation, arresting of immune response and skin cancer development (Fisher, 1996; Kraemer, 1997; Kripke, 1990). As an ionizing agent UV irradiation induces stress response namely DNA damage response and ER stress response and activates cascade of signalling pathways that eventually results in Caspase 8 activation and cell death by Apoptosis (Zitvogel, 2010). UV induced cell death is well investigated in keratinocytes and it is established that P53 is central player in the UV induced Cell death. However, more evidences prove that UV irradiation can activate Fas (CD95) and induce cell death in similar way as FasL (Aragane, 1998; Rehemtulla, 1997).

1.7 Immunometabolism and metabolic reprograming

The field of immunometabolism has more recently evolved and connects immune cell functions to their metabolic phenotype. The link between metabolic pathways and their intermediates to cellular response found to be prominent in cancer, thereafter a large body of work in this area has been conducted to explore the association of various metabolic pathways in T cells, differentiation and activation states and targeting them for cancer and autoimmune diseases therapy (Buck, 2015; O'Sullivan, 2015; Ramsay, 2015). Later on, several studies have explored and established the involvement of macrophages both bone marrow derived and tissue resident macrophages, not only in combating infection, but also in diverse tissue functions introducing further complexity that impacts the metabolic dynamics of the cells.

Metabolic pathways such as glycolysis, the Tricarboxylic acid cycle (TCA cycle), and lipid metabolism are more than merely energy providers. They also affect activation status of macrophages and thereby affect the outcome of infections and other pathologies, such as type 2 diabetes and atherosclerosis (Semenkovich, 2006). For instance, the delivery of surplus amount of nutrients leads to elevated mitochondrial metabolism and elevated reactive oxygen species (ROS) production and oxidative stress, mitochondrial and ER and thereby inflammation. In fact, the incidence of metabolic syndrome seems to be a factor that helps to foresee the onset of diabetes (Wannamethee, 2005). Increased glucose uptake and metabolic switch towards glycolysis has been established as a proinflammatory feature in T lymphocytes and macrophages. For instance, activation of glycolysis is a hallmark for proinflammatory Th17 phenotype development (Buck, 2015). Similarly, elevated glycolytic activity is also considered as M1 (proinflammatory) macrophage feature and is crucial for releasing proinflammatory cytokines (Newsholme, 1986; Tannahill, 2013). Moreover, glycolysis found to elevate during phagocytosis (OREN, 1963).

Elevated glycolytic metabolism is characteristic of M1 macrophages, which permits the rapid production of ATP to cope with fast-replicating microbes. While M2 macrophages is linked to augmented β -oxidation, that considered to be the energy efficient metabolic pathway and thus more suitable for defence against slow-growing and endemic parasites (Figure 1.1). LPS and IL4 are among the most appreciated stimuli that provide macrophage polarisation to classical proinflammatory (M1-like) and alternative (M2-like) anti-inflammatory and pro-fibrotic subsets. The first is, the most known TLR agonist, that

is in addition to induction of LPS-inducible genes expression it activates Akt and leads to enhanced glucose oxidation and production of phospholipids and thereby facilitating inflammatory cytokines secretion (Hardie, 2007). While the second is proved to be responsible for metabolic switch to β -oxidation in (M2) via induction of PPAR- γ and PPAR- δ , and PGC1 β (Vats, 2006).



Figure 1.1: Illustration summarizes the main metabolic changes in M1 and M2 macrophages. adapted from (*Covarrubias, 2015*)

Glycolysis also known as anaerobic respiration, partially harvests the ATP out of glucose and converts it into pyruvate. In the absence of oxygen pyruvate is converted to lactate that leads to acidification. However, in presence of oxygen mitochondria oxidise pyruvate through TCA into carbon dioxide. The Seahorse XFe96 instrument measures the two major cellular metabolic pathways, mitochondrial respiration and glycolysis, simultaneously and in real-time, by measuring changes in O2 concentration (oxygen consumption or OCR), and pH (extracellular acidification rate, or ECAR) in the extracellular environment surrounding living cells cultured in a microplate, that result from changes in these two energy pathways.

1.8 The inflammasomes

The term 'inflammasome' was coined by Martinon, Burns and Tschopp in 2002, to describe intracellular multi-component protein complex that recruits and activates inflammatory caspases (Martinon, 2002). Its assembly can be triggered by pathogens and damage-associated molecular patterns (DAMP) (Muruve, 2008). Inflammasome machinery consists of intracellular sensors for example NOD-like receptors (NLRs) and DNA sensors, the adaptor molecule apoptosis-associated Speck-like protein containing a CARD (ASC), or Pycard, and procaspase-1 (P-Y Ting, n.d.). The inflammasome is classified into several groups according to the sensory molecules involved. While NLR family including NLRP1, NLRP3 and NLRC4 has NLR sensors, Absent In Melanoma 2 (AIM2) has a DNA sensor.

Inflammasome activation results in secretion of IL1β and IL18, both play central role in eliciting local and generalized inflammatory response to micro-organisms and other immunologic challenges. In addition, both are pivotal for the modulation of adaptive immune response (Chen, 2011; C.A. Dinarello, 1995; Charles A. Dinarello, 1998). IL1β secretion is considered as the hallmark of inflammasome activation. It is found to be involved in tissue injury, abnormal airway morphogenesis and bronchopulmonary dysplasia (BPD) in the developing mice embryos (Liao, 2015; Stouch, 2016). Moreover, Inflammasome components expression and activation found to be abnormal in numerous types of cancers, alcoholic liver disease and autoinflammatory disorders (Agostini, 2004; Le Daré, 2021; H. Wang, 2018).

1.8.1 The NLRP3 inflammasome

The NLRP3 inflammasome is the most studied family of inflammasomes that can be triggered by pathogen as well as particulate matters, it is also found to be involved in bacterial and viral infections, cancer and chronic inflammatory diseases (Allen, 2009a; Duewell, 2010a). It can be activated by either canonical or non-canonical pathway (Figure 3.2). In most systems, two consecutive signals are required for canonical NLRP3 inflammasome activation. Signal one, is provided by cytokines such as tumour necrosis factor (TNF), IL1 β or PAMPs such as LPS (Luigi Franchi, Tatjana Eigenbrod, 2009; Xing, 2017). Cytokines or LPS, signal through NF-kb which leads to the transcriptional upregulation of the inflammasome component NLRP3, Caspase1 and IL1 β (Bauernfeind, 2009). Whereas signal two leads to the inflammasome machinery assembly, and is provided by diverse set of DAMPs, for example particulates, crystals such as silica, uric acid, and cholesterol, ATP, and nigericin, or PAMPs such as, fungi, bacterial toxins, and RNA viruses(Allen, 2009b; Franchi, 2009; Gross, 2009; Jo, 2016). Inflammasome assembly starts with NLRP3 oligomerization via homotypic interaction between its NACHT domains, the event that leads to ASC recruitment and ASC filament formation. ASC assembly enables caspase 1 autonomous cleavage and activation which acts on pro IL1 β and cleaves it into its mature form (Lu, 2014; Schmidt, 2016).

Activation of NLRP3 through non-canonical pathway requires cytosolic LPS. Outer membrane vesicles (OMVs) are secretory vesicles of gram negative bacteria which range from 20 to 250 nm in diameter, LPS abundant and capable of activating signalling via NOD and NF-kB (Ellis and Kuehn 2010; Gankema et al. 1980; Bonham and Kagan 2014). Consequently, cytosolic LPS recognition by caspase 4 and 5 in human and Caspase 11 in mice triggers their auto-proteolytic cleavage and activation which in turn cleaves Gasdermin D (GSDMD) and leads to its insertion in cell membrane and triggering of pyroptosis and consequent K+ efflux that leads to NLRP3 activation IL1 β secretion (Kayagaki, 2015; Lee, 2018; Shi, 2014, 2015).



Figure 1.2: Mechanisms of NLRP3 inflammasome activation. A) Canonical and B) non-canonical pathway. Permission to reuse was provided from Springer Nature under license number (5158450053132) (*Guo, 2015*).

1.9 ER-hoxb8

Hoxb8 is a protein that formerly known as Hox-2.4. It is encoded by hoxb8 gene a member of Homeobox family, a group of genes highly conserved in nature. Hoxb8 protein is a sequence-specific transcription factor, with ability to arrest myeloid differentiation and allow the progenitors to divide indefinitely. Homeobox proteins are involved in embryonic development, haematopoiesis and leukemic transformation in adults (Gene, 1993; Kongsuwan, 1989; Pear, 1998; Perkins, 1993).

Estrogen-regulated Hoxb8 (ER-Hoxb8) has been utilized to generate stable bone marrow derived hematopoietic progenitors with myeloid and lymphoid potential that can be used to study and manipulate biological functions of leukocytes (Redecke, 2013; G. G. Wang, 2006). Hoxb8 cells generated from bone marrow have been validated as tool for studying neutrophils functionality their response to infections both in vitro and in vivo (Orosz, 2021; Saul, 2019; Sochalska, 2020). In combination with cas9 genetic modulation tool, BM ER-hoxb8 has also been used for studying macrophage migration and response to intracellular infection (Accarias, 2020; Cabron, 2018; Roberts, 2019). Moreover, BM ER-hoxb8 progenitors have been exploited to study osteoclasts and their role in osteoarthritis (Di Ceglie, 2016; Zach, 2015).

We decided to adopt the system to generate YS derived macrophage cell line allowing us to study their biology, functional characterization in direct comparison with BM ERhoxb8 under identical conditions. Thereby, we exclude the microenvironment programming and investigate origin specific differences.

1.10 Research Rational

Macrophages are widely spread cell type; they present in almost every tissue. Beside their role in immune defence against microbial invasions they serve tissue specific functions and are key for tissue homeostasis. Therefore, their cellular identity is continuously imprinted by tissue microenvironment. Upon adoptive transfer of mature macrophages between organ, transferred cells adopt molecular signature and phenotypic properties similar to their host tissue counterparts. Despite the strong impact of the local milieu on macrophage identity, great deal of heterogeneity can be observed among macrophages within the same tissue. This heterogeneity might be explained in part by diverse developmental origins of macrophage populations, that extends to various organs in which a dual origin of tissue macrophages has been identified, such as heart, lung, kidney and other organs. However, the impact of ontogeny on the cellular identity of macrophages remains unclear. A precise knowledge of the macrophage programs and their regulation might contribute to better understanding of inflammatory processes and, ultimately, offers tools to modulate their functions to improve tissue remodelling.

Therefore, we aimed to address the influence of developmental origin of macrophages on their cellular identity, with this aim in mind we sought to compare macrophages from the two ontogenic origins i.e., yolk sac versus bone marrow haematopoiesis, independently of tissues environmental cues. In order to achieve this goal, we immortalized their precursors ex vivo using conditional Hoxb8 and studied their functions under defined conditions in vitro. 2. Materials and methods

2.1 Table of materials and software

REAGENT or RESOURCE	SOURCE
Antibodies	
Western blot antibodies	
NLRP3 (D4D8T)	Cell Signaling (15101T)
ASC/TMS1 (D2W8U)	Cell Signaling (67824T)
Caspase1 (E271C)	Cell Signaling (24232T)
Beta Actin	Abcam (ab8227)
Flow cytometry antibodies	
APC anti-mouse CD16/32 Antibody	Biolegend (101326)
APC/Cyanine7 anti-mouse CD45 Anti- body	Biolegend (103116)
Brilliant Violet 421™ anti-mouse F4/80 Antibody	Biolegend (123132)
PE anti-mouse CD115 (CSF-1R) Antibody	Biolegend (135506)

Alexa Fluor [®] 647 anti-mouse CX3CR1 Antibody	Biolegend (149004)
PE Rat Anti-CD11b	BD (553311)
APC/Cyanine7 anti-mouse/human CD11b	Biolegend (101226)
BV 605 anti-mouse Ly-6G	Biolegend (127639)
Purified Rat Anti-Mouse CD16/CD32 (Mouse BD Fc Block™)	BD (553141)

Immunofluorescence antibodies

anti-KI67	Abcam (ab15580)
CX3CR1 Recombinant Rabbit Monoclo- nal Antibody (1H14L7)	Thermo Fisher (702321)
Anti-F4/80 antibody [CI:A3-1]	Abcam (ab6640)

Bacterial and Virus Strains

pCL-Eco	
pMSCVneo-ER-Hoxb8	
ER-Hoxb8 MSCV	Generation protocol is described in 2.2.2.1

Reagents, Chemicals and Recombinant Proteins

RPMI-Medium	Sigma (R 8758)
FBS Superior	BIO-SELL (S 0615)
Penicilin-streptomycin (P/S)	Sigma (P 4333)
Estradiol	Sigma (E2257)
Beta-Mercaptoethanol	Sigma (M3148)
Recombinant Mouse Macrophage Col- ony Stimulating Factor (rm M-CSF)	Immuno Tools (12343115)
Recombinant Mouse Interferon Gamma (rm IFN-gamma)	Immuno Tools (12343536)
Recombinant Mouse Interleukin-4 (rm IL-4)	Immuno Tools (12340043)
Dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO)	Carl Roth (A994.1)
Dulbecco's Phosphate Buffered Saline	Sigma-Aldrich (P5493)
Tween [®] 20	Merck (P1379)
Trypsin/EDTA solution	Biochrom GmbH (L2153)
Trypan Blue solution	Sigma (T8154)
Giemsa solution	Sigma-Aldrich (GS500)
May-Grünwald solution 0.2 %	Sigma-Aldrich (63590)

NucBlue nucleus stain	Thermo Fisher (R37605)
Paraformaldehyde (PFA)	Carl Roth (0335.3)
Lipopolysaccharides from Escherichia	Sigma (L8274)
coli O26:B6 (LPS)	
Oligomycin	Sigma (O4876)
2,4-Dinitro-phenol	Sigma (34334)
Sodium pyruvate	Sigma (P8574)
Rotenone	Sigma (R8875)
Antimycin A	Sigma (A8674)
Glucose	Sigma (G6152)
XF assay medium	Agilent (102365-100)
Seahorse XFe96 FluxPak	Agilent (102416-100)
HISTOPAQUE-1083	Sigma-Aldrich (10831)
Ibidi mounting medium for fluorescence microscopy	Ibidi (50001)
Recombinant murine (rm) IL-3	Sigma-Aldrich (14144)
Recombinant murine (rm) IL-6	Sigma-Aldrich (19646)
Collagenase D	Roche (11088866001)

Deoxyribonuclease I	Sigma-Aldrich (D7291)
Polybrene Transfection Reagent	Sigma-Aldrich (TR-1003)
Critical Commercial Assays	
Mouse IL-1 beta/IL-1F2 DuoSet ELISA	R&D Systems (DY401-05)
Anti-Ly-6G MicroBeads UltraPure + LS Columns	Miltenyibiotec (130120337)
SsoAdvanced Universal SYBR Green Su- permix	BIO-RAD (64296124)
RNeasy Micro Kit	Qiagen (74004)
RNeasy Mini Kit	Qiagen (74104)
High-capacity cDNA reverse transcrip- tion kit	Applied Biosystems (10400745)
DuoSet Ancillary Reagent Kit 2 (5 plates)	Applied Biosystems (DY008)
Recombinant Mouse Interleukin-4 (rm IL-4)	Immuno Tools (12340043)
Bio-Plex Pro Mouse Cytokine MIG	BIO-RAD LABORATORIES (171G6005M)
Bio-Plex Pro Mouse Cytokine MIP-2	BIO-RAD LABORATORIES (171G6006M)
MO CYTO IL-18 SET	BIO-RAD LABORATORIES (171G6009M)

Bio-Plex Pro Mouse Cytokine 2 Stand-	BIO-RAD LABORATORIES (71160001)
ards	
pHrodo™ Green Zymosan Bioparticles™ Conjugate for Phagocytosis	Thermo Fisher (P35365)
Quant-iT PicoGreen dsDNA Assay Kit	Thermo Fisher (P7589)
Pierce™ BCA Protein Assay Kit	Thermo Fisher (23225)

Experimental Models: Cell Lines

НЕК-293Т	293T ATCC [®] CRL-3216™
NIH-3T3	NIH/3T3 ATCC [®] CRL-1658™
RAW 264.7 murine Cell Line	Merk (91062702)
SCF producing CHO-MGF cell line	

Experimental Models: Organisms/Strains

C57BL/6J mouse line	JAX (000664)
B6N.129S2-Casp1tm1Flv/J mouse line	JAX (016621)

Oligonucleotides

Mm_Actb			Qiagen (QT00095242)
Mm_Runx1_1_SG	QuantiTect	Primer	Qiagen (QT00100380)
Assay			

Mm_Kit_1_SG QuantiTect Primer Assay	Qiagen (QT00145215)
CX3CR1	Qiagen (QT00259126)
Mm-Csf1r_1_SG QuantiTect Primer As- say	Qiagen (QT01055816)
Mm_Lyz2_1_SG QuantiTect Primer As- say	Qiagen (QT01555701)
EmR F4/80 QuantiTect Primer Assay	Qiagen (QT00099617)

Software and Algorithms

Microsoft Office 2016	Microsoft
Seahorse Wave Software	Agilent
GraphPad Prism version 7.00 for Win- dows	GraphPad Software, La Jolla California USA
FlowJo™ Software for Windows	Treestar, Ashland, Oregon, USA
ZEN Digital Imaging for Light Micros- copy, RRID:SCR_013672	Zeiss
Mendeley reference management soft- ware	Elsevier
Other	The RNA-seq raw data have been depos-
	ited in NCBI GEO under the accession code
	GSE176409. The mass spectrometry

proteomics data have been deposited to the ProteomeXchange Consortium via the PRIDE partner repository with the dataset identifier PXD026922.

2.2 Experimental model and subject details

2.2.1 Mice

C57BL/6J CD45.2 (*Ptprc^b*) congenic mice were purchased from Jackson Laboratories. *Casp1/Casp11* double knockout mice were previously described (Kuida et al., 1995), and were kindly provided by Veit Hornung, Gene Center Munich, Ludwig-Maximilian-University, Germany. All animal procedures were performed in adherence to our project
license (55.2-2532.Vet_02-16-183) issued by the German regional council at the Regierungspräsidium Oberbayern, Munich, Germany.

2.2.2 Cell lines

2.2.2.1 Generation of yolk sac and bone marrow derived ER-Hoxb8 progenitors

For the immortalization of BM hematopoietic progenitors, we followed the published protocol (*Redecke, 2013*)(*Redecke, 2013*), here we are describing for the first time the generation of Yolk sac Hoxb8-SCF. The *pCL-Eco and pMSCVneo-ER Hoxb8* plasmids were kindly provided by H. Häcker (Department of Pathology, University of Utah), the protocol was established with the help of Professor Barbara Walzog, Department of Physiology at LMU.

HEK-293T cells (ATCC 293T ATCC[®] CRL-3216[™]) were transfected with both ecotropic packaging vector *pCL-Eco* and retroviral backbone *pMSCVneo-ER-Hoxb8* using Lipofectamin (Invitrogen 11668-019). Forty-eight hours following the transfection the virus-containing supernatant was collected. NIH-3T3 cells were used for the virus titration, the CFU per milliliter was determined, the virus was aliquoted at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 10 and kept at -80°C till it is needed.

Bone marrow hoxb8 hematopoietic progenitors generation was performed as described previously (Redecke, 2013). In brief, 8- to 10- week-old wild type and casp1/11 ko mice were sacrificed by cervical dislocation, femurs tibias and humerus bones were collected and the bone marrow was isolated. Then the progenitors were enriched on HIS-TOPAQUE-1083 (Sigma-Aldrich) gradient. The progenitors were cultivated in stem cell medium composed of RPMI 1640 containing 15% FCS, 1% penicillin/streptomycin, in addition to, 10 ng/ml recombinant murine (rm) IL-3 (Sigma-Aldrich), 20 ng/ml rmIL-6

(Sigma-Aldrich), in addition to 2% SCF-containing supernatant (produced by Chinese hamster ovary cells), 72 hours later Hoxb8 retroviral transfection was carried out.

In order to immortalize macrophage progenitors from the embryonic yolk sac, yolk sac membranes from mouse embryos were isolated at embryonic day (E) 9.5. Pregnant C57BL/6J females were sacrificed by cervical dislocation. Embryos were removed from the uterus and washed with cold phosphate buffered saline (PBS)(Invitrogen). The YS membrane was collected and digested in enzymatic mixture composed of 1 mg/ml Collagenase D (Roche 11088866001), 100 U/ml Desoxyribonuclease I (Sigma-Aldrich D7291) and 1% FCS (BIO-SELL S0615), at 37 °C for 15 minutes. Yolk sac membranes were mechanically dissociated and sieved using a 100µm cell strainer (BD).



Figure 2.1: Schematic diagram illustrates the process of generation and differentiation Yolk Sac derived Hoxb8 progenitors

2.3 Methodology

2.3.1 Generation of SCF supernatant

The Chinese hamster ovary cells, genetically engineered to produce Stem Cell Factor (CHO-SCF) were cultivated in 30ml RPMI 1640 (Sigma R8758) supplemented with 10%

FCS (BIO-SELL S0615) in addition to 1% penicillin/streptomycin (Sigma P4333) in a T175 cell culture flask. 1-2 days after confluency, medium was collected and passed through a 0.4 μ m sterile filter prior freezing at -20°C for future use.

2.3.2 Thawing and culturing HoxB8 progenitor cells

Cells were thawed quickly using 10ml of cold proliferation Medium, transferred to 15ml Falcon tube and pelleted at 300g for 5 mins, supernatant was decanted and the pellet was suspended in 12 ml proliferation medium and transferred to T75 cell culture flask and incubated at 37 / 5% co2 for 2 to 5 days and checked every day till they are confluent then they were split at density of 500 thousand cell/T75 flask.

2.3.3 Determination of cell counts

In order to count the number of the cultured cells, 20 μ l of the cell suspension were mixed (ratio 1:1) with trypan blue staining solution (Sigma Aldrich) that stains dead cells with blue leaving viable cells clear. After incubating for approximately 3 minutes at room temperature, 20 μ l of the mixture was transferred to a Neubauer cell counting chamber (Laboroptik). The number of living cells in 1 milliliter of cells suspension was calculated according to the following equation:

Number of cells per ml = mean
$$*$$
 dilutionfactor(2) $*$ area(10⁴)

2.3.4 Growth curve

In order to compare the growth and doubling time between BM and YS ER-Hoxb8 progenitors, one hundred thousand cells of each cell line were seeded in 3 ml of proliferation medium per each well of 6 well plate at 12pm, cells were counted every day in the same time for 6 days, doubling time was calculated using Doubling Time calculator tool (Roth, 2006) according to the following equation: $DoublingTime = \frac{duration * log (2)}{log(finalConcentration) - log(InitalConcentration)}$

2.3.5 Differentiation of ER-Hoxb8 progenitors to Macrophages

 $5x10^5$ YS and BM ER-Hoxb8 progenitor cells were seeded per 10 cm tissue culture dish in 5ml of differentiation medium (RPMI 1640 with 10% FCS (BIO-SELL), 1% penicillin/streptomycin (Sigma), 30 μ M 2-Mercapto-Ethanol (Sigma) and 6% SCF-containing supernatant and 10 ng/ml M-CSF (ImmunoTools)) at 37°C/5% CO2. Cell culture medium was changed every second day till desired experiments were performed. Bright field images during the process of differentiation were collected with Zeiss Axiovert 200, Axiocam HRC microscope.

2.3.6 Detachment of differentiated adherent cells

Differentiated macrophages were washed twice with cold (4°C) PBS (Sigma-Aldrich) and incubated at 37°C in 2 ml Accutase (Sigma) for 5-10 minutes with slight agitation till full cell detachment was achieved. If detachment was incomplete, cells were gently detached using a cell scrapper. Subsequently, detached cells were washed using cell culture medium and kept on ice for further processing.

2.3.7 Flow cytometry

To determine the expression of CD16/32, CD45, CD11b, CSF1r and F4/80 on BM and YS cells during their differentiation towards macrophages, cells were detached/transferred into 15ml falcon tube and pelleted at 400 g for 5 minutes, after decanting the supernatant, cells were resuspended in cold PBS (Sigma-Aldrich), transferred to non-tissue treated round-bottom 96-well plates in order to be stained for FACS analysis. The mixtures of desired antibodies were prepared with 1% BSA/PBS and incubated together with the cells for 20 minutes at 4°C. Flow cytometry evaluation was achieved using BD

Biosciences LSR Fortessa flow cytometer and data were analyzed using FlowJo 10 (Treestar, Ashland, Oregon, USA).

2.3.8 Giemsa May-Grünwald stain

In order to assess hoxb8 macrophage morphology, hoxb8 progenitors were seeded and differentiated in 1 well glass slide (Nunc[®] Lab-Tek[®] II Chamber Slide[™] system). On day 5, slides were placed in May-Grünwald-Giemsa (Sigma-Aldrich 63590) staining solution for 5 minutes, then washed in Phosphate Buffer pH 7.2, for 90 seconds, followed by Giemsa staining solution (Sigma-Aldrich) (diluted 1:20 in deionized water) for 15-20 minutes. Slides were rinsed in deionized water, air-dried and analysed with Zeiss Imager.M2 microscope.

2.3.9 Immunofluorescence staining

For immunofluorescence evaluation of various markers, BM and YS ER-Hoxb8 progenitors were plated and differentiated on 8 well chamber slides (Nunc[®] Lab-Tek[®] Chamber Slide[™] system). On day 5, differentiation medium was decanted and slides were washed two times using PBS, fixed with 4% PFA (Carl Roth) for 10 minutes and washed again. Blocking was performed with 10% donkey serum for 30 mins. Slides were stained with primary antibodies namely anti-KI67 (ab15580), anti-CX3CR1 (702321) and anti-F4/80 (ab6640) followed by secondary antibodies generated in respective host for 1 hour each. Nuclei were counterstained with Hoechst (Invitrogen H3569). Slides were mounted using Ibidi mounting medium for fluorescence microscopy (Ibidi 50001) and visualized using a ZEISS LSM 880 microscope.

2.3.10 Phagocytosis assay

YS and BM ER-Hoxb8 progenitor cells were plated and differentiated on 8 well chamber slides. On day 5 differentiation medium was decanted and slides were washed with sterile PBS. Subsequently, 100 µl of pHrodo™ Green Zymosan Bioparticles™ Conjugate for Phagocytosis (Thermofisher) were added per well and incubated for 60 minutes at 37°C. Slide was washed with PBS, fixed using 4% PFA for 10 minutes and washed again before staining for F-actin with Invitrogen™ Texas Red™-X Phalloidin (Invitrogen T7471). Nuclei were counterstained with Hoechst (Invitrogen H3569). Slides were visualized using ZEISS LSM 880 microscope.

2.3.11 Gene expression analyses

RNeasy Micro Kit (Qiagen 74004) was used for RNA isolation. Subsequently High-Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription Kit (Applied Biosystems 10400745) with RNase Inhibitor (Thermofisher Scientific EO0381) was used to transcribe the isolated RNA to cDNA. Quantification of cDNA was performed with desired primers (see Key Resource Table) by real-time polymerase chain reaction with SsoAdvanced Universal SYBR Green Supermix (BIO-RAD 64296124) using StepOnePlus Real-Time PCR System.

2.3.12 Lysate collection for transcriptome and proteome analyses

Hoxb8 progenitors' cells were differentiated for 5 days, tissue culture plates were then washed twice with PBS. For stimulation experiments cells were incubated for 5 hours in 5 ml of differentiation medium supplemented with 100 ng/ml LPS (Sigma L8274), or 100 ng/ml IL4 (ImmunoTools 12340043) as indicated. After stimulation, cells were washed, pelleted and resuspended in 500 μ l TRIzol (Sigma T9424) (for transcriptome analyses) or 500 μ l of urea/thiourea buffer (for protein analyses) in low protein binding 1,5 ml Eppendorf tubes.

2.3.13 RNA sequencing and data analysis

Library preparation and RNA sequencing was carried out with IMGM, Martinsried, Germany. And the procedure is summarized below.

2.3.13.1 RNA quantification and purity

Purity and concentration of all RNA samples were measured using the NanoDrop ND-1000 spectral photometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Further, the 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent Technologies) together with RNA Nano/HS LabChip Kits (Agilent Technologies) were used to determine RNA integrity.

2.3.13.2 Library preparation

Library preparation was achieved with the Illumina TruSeq® Stranded mRNA technology, according to the manufacturer's protocol. The protocol started with an RNA fragmentation step using divalent cations. Samples were then introduced into a reverse transcription to generate first strand cDNA. In the second strand cDNA synthesis dTTP was replaced by dUTP, to evade DNA replication and thus guarantee strand specificity. Following that, the adenylation of the 3'-ends and sequencing adapters ligation were accomplished. Those comprise sequencing primer- and flow cell-binding sites, as well as guides for multiplexed sequencing of pooled libraries. Adapter-ligated fragments were amplified during a limited-cycle PCR reaction. After the limited cycle PCR at the end of the library preparation, DNA 1000/HS LabChip kits were used together with 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent Technologies) to quality control the prepared samples. Additionally, quantification of libraries was performed using the very sensitive fluorescent dye-based Qubit[®] ds DNA HS Assay Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Briefly, the ds DNA concentration $(ng/\mu l)$ of each sample was determined against known concentration standard. The DNA concentration was determined by creating a linear trend line and applying the mathematical equation of the linear regression. Sequencing library was generated by pooling the single libraries and equal DNA amount from each sample was added. Following quantification, the dilution and NaOH denaturation of the final sequencing library were performed to ensure the presence of single stranded DNA fragments for cluster generation.

2.3.13.3 Cluster generation and sequencing

Cartridge loading was conducted following the manufacture's recommendations for NovaSeq 6000 according to the standard workflow using a SP flowcell. Template amplification and clustering was performed onboard of the NovaSeq 6000 applying the exclusion amplification (ExAmp) chemistry. For cluster generation and subsequent sequencing of all samples, one single-read 75 cycle run was performed, on a SP flowcell. Cluster generation and sequencing were operated under the control of the NovaSeq Control Software (NVCS) v1.6.0. After cluster generation, adapter sequences ligated to each fragment hybridize with sequencing primers and sequencing is carried out. Sequencing was performed with reads of a length of 75 bp (single-read).

2.3.13.4 Data analysis

RNA sequencing reads were aligned to the mouse genome (ENSEMBL release GRCm38.94) and counted per-gene using STAR (version 2.6.1d). Transcript-per-million (TPM) estimates were obtained using RSEM (version 1.3.0). Differential expression analysis was performed in R/bioconductor with DESeq (1.26.0). Data analysis was carried out together with Tobias Straub, Bioinformatics Core Facility, LMU Biomedical Center, Martinsried, Germany.

2.3.14 Protein profiling by mass spectrometry

MS analysis of indicated samples was carried out at the Interfaculty Center for Genetics and Functional Genomics at the University of Greifswald, Germany. Elke Hammer and Josefine Plocke generated the raw data, and greatly supported bioinformatic analysis, data presentation and its interpretation. Sample preparation and mass spectrometric analyses by liquid chromatography coupled tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) on a LTQ-Orbitrap Velos instrument was carried out as described earlier (Bhardwaj, 2017). For all conditions four bioreplicates from independent experiments were analysed. In short: Protein was extracted by multiple freeze-thaw cycles, and collected by 1-hour centrifugation (room temperature, 19.000g) after nucleic acid fragmentation with a sonication probe. Three µg protein of each sample was reduced (DTT) and alkylated (iodoacetamid) before digestion with trypsin at a protein to enzyme ratio 25:1 (37°C, 16 h). Peptides' mixtures were desalted on C18 material (µZipTip, Merck Millipore). Peptides were separated by LC (nano-Acquity UPLC system, Waters) before data-dependent acquisition of MS data. MS spectra were acquired in the Orbitrap whereas fragment spectra (MS2) of the 20 most abundant ions were recorded in a linear ion trap (LTQ).

Mass spectrometric raw data was searched against a mouse SwissProt database (16/09/2016). Identification and comparative quantification of proteins in YS and BM macrophages was carried out in Progenesis QI (Nonlinear Dynamics) via a Mascot search algorithm (v2.3, Matrix Science). For protein quantitation Hi3-non-conflicting peptides (score >20) were considered.

For data analysis of cells stimulated with LPS in comparison with untreated cells peptide/ protein identification at FDR of 1% was carried out with the Andromeda algorithm implemented in MaxQuant v1.5.3.8., MaxQuant LFQ algorithm for label-free quantification was used to normalize for the differences in peptide loading (*Cox, 2014*). Resulting protein intensities (Label Free Quantification values (LFQ)) were exported and statistically analysed.

2.3.15 UV and FasL induced cell death assays

Hoxb8 progenitors were differentiated for 5 days, cells were detached by cell scraping and seeded at a density of 20 thousand cells in 3 ml of differentiation medium in each well of 12 well plates. Macrophages were treated with different doses of SuperFasLigand (Enzo Life Sciences ALX-522-020-C005) or UV irradiation on a UV Stratalinker 1800 (Stratagene), respectively. At the indicated time points, cell culture supernatants were collected and macrophages were detached by Accutase (Sigma A6964) treatment. The corresponding cell culture supernatants and detached macrophages were combined and washed with annexin V binding buffer (BD Biosciences 556454). Afterwards, macrophages were stained with annexin V-FITC (BD Biosciences 556547) and 2 µg/ml propidium iodide (Sigma-Aldrich 25535-16-4) in 100 µl annexin V binding buffer for 15 min on ice. Subsequently, stained macrophages were washed with annexin V binding buffer and subjected to flow cytometry on an LSR II cytometer (BD Biosciences). Annexin V-FITCpositive, propidium iodide-negative macrophages were considered as apoptotic, while annexin V-FITC and propidium iodide-double-positive macrophages were considered as necrotic. Induction of cell death experiments were performed in collaboration with Kerstin Lauber lab, Clinic and Polyclinic for Radiotherapy and Radiation Oncology, LMU hospital.

2.3.16 Extracellular flux XF96 Seahorse measurement

Differentiated Hoxb8 macrophages were detached by cell scraping and seeded at a density of approximately 10^5 cells per well (in 200 µL differentiation medium) in a Seahorse 96-well plate. The extracellular flux XF96 Seahorse measurement was performed as described previously (Keuper, 2014; Yi, 2017).

On the day of measurement, medium was removed and cells were incubated with and without the following stimuli: 100 ng/ml LPS (Sigma L8274) or 100 ng/ml IL4 (Immuno Tools 12340043). After 4 hours incubation time, medium was replaced with 180 µl/well XF assay medium (Agilent 102365-100) supplemented with 11 mM glucose (Sigma G6152) (pH 7.5) and incubated for 60 minutes in an air incubator. The XF96 plate (Seahorse Bioscience, Agilent Technologies) was then moved to Seahorse extracellular flux analyser (Agilent Technologies) with the temperature being adjusted to (37 °C) and left to reach equilibrium. Each assay cycle contained 1 minute of mixing, 2 minutes of

waiting, and 3 minutes of acquiring. Oxygen consumption rates (OCR) and extracellular acidification rates (ECAR) were analysed and dissected into different functional modules as described in detail previously (Keuper, 2014). In short: following 4 basal assay cycles, oligomycin (1 µg/ml) (Sigma O4876) was injected to achieve ATP synthase inhibition to determine OCR linked to ATP production. After 3 cycles, 2,4-Dinitrophenol (DNP; 100 μM) (Sigma 34334) was injected to provoke maximal respiration, indicating maximal substrate oxidation rates (3 cycles). Next, pyruvate (5 mM) (Sigma P8574) was injected to remove rate-limitation by glycolysis (3 cycles). In order to estimate the non-mitochondrial OCR, Rotenone (Sigma R8875) in addition to antimycin A (AA) (Sigma A8674) were added and measured for 4 cycles. The mean of 4 OCR measurement after injection of R/AA was deducted from all other OCR measurements. To determine the glycolysis derived extracellular acidification rates (ECARs), 2-deoxy-glucose (2DG, 100 mM) was injected. The mean of 4 ECAR measurements after 2DG injection was deducted from all ECAR values to obtain ECAR that results from glycolysis. Mitochondrial efficiency was determined by calculating coupling efficiency CE (the fraction of basal mitochondrial respiration that is linked to ATP synthesis) and by calculating cellular respiratory control ratio cRCR (maximal respiration divided by proton leak). After the measurement, the wells of XF96 plate were lysed and Quant-iT PicoGreen dsDNA Assay Kit (Thermo Fisher) was used to determine the dsDNA amount per well. All rates were normalized to 130 ng dsDNA (= mean DNA content/well of all measurements). Extracellular flux XF96 Seahorse measurement was performed in collaboration with Martin Jastroch Lab Helmholtz Center Munich and Stockholm University.

2.3.17 Multiplex immunoassays

Cytokines` concentration in cell supernatants of Hoxb8 macrophages was quantified at Professor Lauber lab. To determine Cytokines` concentration hoxb8 cells were differentiated in 6 well plates for 5 days with 5x10⁴ cell per well. Medium was changed on day 3 and 4. On day 5, medium was replaced with either 2 ml of differentiation medium only, or differentiation medium with stimuli as follows with 100 ng/ml LPS (Sigma L8274) or 100 ng/ml IL4 (Immuno Tools 12340043). Three wells per condition were used and supernatants were pooled. The Bio-Plex Pro Mouse Cytokine Assay (BIO-RAD LABORATO-RIES 171G6005M, 171G6006M and 171G6009M) was used on a Luminex 200 system according to the manufacturer's protocol (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Munich, Germany).

2.3.18 Cholesterol monohydrate crystals preparation

Cholesterol monohydrate crystals were prepared and kindly provided by Mahajan, Ujjwal Mukund, The Medical Clinic and Polyclinic II, LMU hospital. Briefly, ultrapure cholesterol (100 mg, Sigma Aldrich) was dissolved in 95% pure ethanol. The solution was mixed with distilled water (1:9) and incubated for at least 10 minutes at room temperature for stabilization of cholesterol monohydrate crystals. Following incubation, suspension was incubated at 55°C to remove ethanol by evaporation. Subsequently, cholesterol crystals were re-suspended in PBS. The suspension was then subjected to ultra-sonication for 15 min at 30% power. Cholesterol monohydrate size was quantified and regulated by hydrodynamic diameter measured using Zetasizer (Malvern Analytical) and kept at 4°C for future use.

2.3.19 Monosodium urate crystals preparation

For the production of MSU crystals, a solution of 10mM uric acid with 154mM NaCl was prepared and pH was adjusted to 7.2 using NaOH. the solution then agitated left for overnight at 37C. On the next day the supernatant was decanted and crystals were harvested. Followed by three cycles of washing using cold sterile PBS and filtrated using filter paper. Subsequently, the crystals were left under the hood for 1-day until complete dryness was reached at room temperature. Afterward, crystals were suspended in PBS at a concentration of 125 mg/ml, sterilized using autoclave and kept at 4°C for future use.

2.3.20 IL1β quantification using ELISA

Differentiated Hoxb8 cells were washed and incubated in 5 ml of differentiation medium supplemented with 200 ng/ml LPS (Sigma L8274) for 3 hours. Then, 250 μ g/ml MSU, 375 ug/ml cholesterol crystals or 2 μ g/ml Ecoli OMVs were added and incubated for indicated time periods. Supernatant was collected and IL1 β was measured using Mouse IL-1 beta/IL-1F2 DuoSet ELISA, (R&D Systems DY401-05) according to the manufacturer's instruction. Tecan GENios was used for OD evaluation, concentrations were calculated with standard curve (detection limit 15.6 pg/ml).

2.3.21 Western blotting

Cell were harvested in 500 µl of Radioimmunoprecipitation assay buffer (RIPA buffer) (Sigma-Aldrich R0278) supplemented with Halt[™] Protease Inhibitor Cocktail (100X) (Thermo Scientific PIER87786) and collected in 1.5 ml Eppendorf tubes. After incubation for 30 minutes on ice, lysates were centrifuged for 20 minutes at 14000g. Supernatant was collected and protein amount was estimated using Pierce[™] BCA Protein Assay Kit (Thermofisher 23225) according to manufacturer's instructions. 10 μ g amount of total protein was loaded per lane on a 10%/4 to 12% NuPAGE Bis-Tris gel (Thermofisher NP0301BOX and NP0322PK2). After electrophoresis, proteins were transferred to nitrocellulose membrane. 5% non-fat milk for 1 hour at room temperature was enough for membranes blocking. Subsequently, the membrane was washed and incubated with desired primary antibodies at 4°C overnight. Following washing the membranes for 3 times, secondary antibodies were incubated for 1 hour at room temperature. For final evaluation, membrane was washed again and incubated with ECL western blot substrate (Thermofisher 32209), before transfer to an Amersham ImageQuant 800 Western blot imaging system. Membranes were incubated in Restore[™] Plus Western Blot Stripping Buffer (thermoscientific 10016433) for 5 minutes, followed by a washing step and the blocked with 5% non-fat milk for 1 hour at room temperature, before incubation with indicated primary antibodies.

2.3.22 Quantification and statistical analysis

All experiments were performed with at least two independent clones per cell line. Extracellular flux assays were evaluated by 2-way ANOVA, followed by Sidak post-hoc test. Comparisons between other groups were calculated by using either 2-way ANOVA, unpaired, two-tailed t-tests (***) p<0,001, (**) p<0,01, (*) p<0,05. Error bar indicate mean +/- standard deviation. All graphs and calculations were generated with GraphPad Prism 7 software.

3. Results

3.1 Characterization of E9.5 YS progenitors

We first sought to investigate cells populations in 9.5 YS tissues. In previous studies, investigators described YS erythromyeloid progenitors as KIT+ Cx3cr1- population (Hoeffel, 2015; Perdiguero, 2015; Stremmel, 2018). Flowcytometry analysis of single cell suspensions from E9.5 YS showed YS erythromyeloid progenitors' population (KIT+ Cx3cr1-) while pre-macrophages were (KIT- Cx3cr1+) (Figure 3.1). Those populations were also identifiable at RNA level as indicated by RT-PCR (Figure 3.2).



Figure 3.1: Flow cytometry analysis of expression patterns of early E9.5 hematopoietic cells in the YS membrane. After enzymatic digestion, cells were stained for c-kit and Cx3cr1 and evaluated using BD Biosciences LSR Fortessa flow cytometer. Data were analyzed using FlowJo 10. YS progenitors are Cx3cr1-C-kit+ population. Cells were gated on live cells. n=.



Figure 3.2: Gene expression comparison of YS progenitors from E9.5 yolk sac membrane to same age embryo. mRNA expression analysis of sorted *kit+* YS and embryonic *KIT+* progenitors and *CX3CR1+* premacrophages from YS and embryo. Data are presented as mean±SD; n=3; *p<0.05; ** p<0.01.

3.2 Immortalization of YS and BM hematopoietic progenitors using conditional Hoxb8

In this study we investigated the differences between macrophages originating from YS and BM in-vitro under defined conditions, in order to overcome the effects of tissues microenvironment. We employed Hoxb8 system to immortalize hematopoietic progenitors isolated from E 9.5 YS and BM of 8-12 weeks old mice. Cells were transduced with an estrogen-regulated Hoxb8 (ER-Hoxb8) allowing their maintenance and expansion at the progenitor level (Redecke, 2013). Within 5days of estrogen removal and supplementing macrophage colony-stimulating factor (M-CSF), both cell lines differentiated to mature macrophages (Figure 2.1).

3.3 Characterization of YS and BM hoxb8 progenitors

We then confirmed *Kit* expression in immortalized Hoxb8 cell lines from both YS and BM origins, in addition, markers of early progenitor states, namely *Kit* and *Runx1*, were downregulated in BM and YS Hoxb8 macrophages upon maturation while, markers of macrophage differentiation, such as *Lyz2*, *Csf1r* and *Cx3cr1*, were upregulated in both populations (Figures 3.3).

In summary, the Hoxb8 system successfully conserves the progenitor stage of cells isolated from the YS as well as the BM.



Figure 3.3: Gene expression analysis. mRNA expression analyses of Hoxb8 progenitors and differentiated Hoxb8 macrophages for indicated genes in percent (%) relative to *actin* expression. Data are presented as mean±SD; n=3; *p<0.05; ** p<0.01.

Further, we compared cell growth between YS and BM Hoxb8 cell lines. Cell proliferation was similar in both populations with doubling time of approximately 16 hours (Figure 3.4).



Figure 3.4: Growth curve for YS and BM Hoxb8 progenitors. Cells were counted every 24 hours over a period of 6 days. Data are presented as mean±SD; n=3, no significant difference. Data was analyzed using 2way ANOVA.

3.4 YS and BM Hoxb8 cell lines differentiation, morphology and phagocytic capacity

To compare the rate of differentiation YS and BM hoxb8 cells into macrophages, we removed estradiol from the culture medium and added M-CSF. Consequent to estrogen withdrawal and M-CSF supply, YS- and BM-derived Hoxb8 progenitors differentiated in similar fashion reaching mature macrophage morphology around day 5 and showing the typical macrophage morphology (Figure 3.5).



Figure 3.5: Bright field images of Hoxb8 cell lines during the process of macrophage differentiation. Hoxb8 cells were incubated with M-CSF after estradiol withdrawal. Their differentiation was observed over 5 days period and representative images were taken to compare their differentiation. Scale bars represent 10 μm.

Giemsa May-Grünwald stain is one of Romanowsky stains that used as reference stain in hematology and cytopathology to differentiate cells. May-Grünwald-Giemsa-stained macrophages from both origins i.e., BM and YS showed the typical macrophage morphology (Figure 3.6).



Figure 3.6: macrophage morphology in May-Grünwald-Giesma stained smears. After 5 days of differentiation BM and YS Hoxb8 macrophages show typical macrophage morphology. Representative images (n=6). Scale bars represent 20 μm.

In our attempt to test the purity of the differentiated hoxb8 cells, we performed flowcytometry analysis of differentiated cells on day 5 of incubation with M-CSF, macrophages represented the most prominent cell populations in YS- as well as BM-derived Hoxb8 cells. A small population of floating and loosely adhering cells represented undifferentiated progenitor cells as well as a minor proportion of neutrophils characterized by LY6G expression. However, medium exchange and simple washing allowed removal of these cells before macrophage harvest (Figures 3.7).



Figure 3.7: Flow cytometry analysis of floating or adherent differentiated Hoxb8 BM cells. Cells labeled with indicated antibodies (representative plot, n=3).

Analogue expression patterns for KI67 as well as leukocyte (CD45), myeloid (CD11b) and macrophage (F4/80, CSF1R) markers were confirmed at protein level by immunofluores-cence and flowcytometry (Figures 3.8 and 3.9).



Figure 3.8: Representative epifluorescence microscopy images of *Hoxb8* **macrophages.** Immunofluorescence staining with anti-KI67, anti-CX3CR1 and anti-F4/80. (*Nucleus, Hoechst, blue*). Scale bar: 20 μm.



Figure 3.9: Flow cytometry analyses of Hoxb8 progenitors in the process of differentiation towards macrophages. (d0 to d6) labelled with indicated antibodies (a representative experiment of n=3).

Differentiated YS and BM Hoxb8 macrophages exhibited efficient phagocytotic capacity when incubated with Zymosan bioparticles, as phagosomes and lysosomes fuse and the pH become more acidic, pHrodo dye conjugated to engulfed Zymosan bioparticles emits green fluorescence indicating successful phagocytosis. In immunofluorescence analyses, both cell types showed comparable amounts of engulfed particles after 60 minutes incubation (Figure 3.10).



Figure 3.10: Phagocytosis assay. BM and YS hoxb8 macrophages successfully phagocytose pHrodo Zymosan bioparticles (GFP, green) after 1 hour of incubation A) Images taken with epifluorescence microscopy (Nucleus *Hoechst, blue*), B) confocal images (phalloidin in red, Nucleus, *Hoechst, blue*). Representative images (n=3). Scale bar: 20 μm.

3.5 BM and YS Hoxb8 macrophages response to cell death stimuli

YS-derived macrophages are long-lived in the brain and other tissues. In contrast, BMderived macrophages longevity is controversial, they are continuously recruited to systems that are in continues communication with their surrounding environment and their recruitment rises in case of infection and inflammation to serve defense function. We therefore asked, whether YS and BM Hoxb8 macrophage might respond differentially to defined inducers of cell death; namely, Fas ligand (SuperFasL) and ultraviolet (UV) rays. Macrophages were labelled with (AnxV) as measurement of apoptosis and (AnxV and PI) as indicator of secondary necrosis and the percentage of AnxV+ and AnxV+ PI+ cells over period of 34 hours were quantified on an LSR II flow cytometer. On one hand, YS and BM macrophages showed dose dependant susceptibility to UV, as majority die with secondary necrosis (AnxV+ PI+ cells (%). On the other hand, Both YS and BM macrophages showed resistance to SuperFasL, interestingly the percentages of cells that showed apoptosis and/or secondary necrosis were minimal regardless the SuperFasL concertation.



Figure 3.11: YS and BM macrophages response to cell death stimuli. Quantification of UV- and SuperFasLdependent apoptosis and necrosis in differentiated Hoxb8 macrophages (A and B respectively) after incubating with annexin V-FITC and propidium iodide. n=3. Unpaired, two-tailed t-test.

3.6 Comparison of Transcriptome of BM and YS Hoxb8 macrophages

We next conducted a transcriptome analysis to compare RNA expression of BM and YS Hoxb8 macrophages under identical environmental conditions. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) of progenitors and differentiated BM and YS under steady state and LPS and IL4 stimulation allows an explorative analysis with reduced dimensions. Using this statistical approach, we assessed data sets and their variance with a reduced number of variables. We identified clusters of 1) YS and BM progenitors, 2) mature macrophages in the presence and absence of IL-4, 3) LPS-stimulated differentiated macrophages when applying the indicated principal components 1 and 2 (Figure 3.11).



Figure 3.12: Principal Component Analysis (PCA) of progenitors and differentiated BM and YS under steady state and LPS and IL4 stimulation. BM hoxb8 progenitors and YS hoxb8 progenitors. BM C and YS C: are differentiated YS and BM hoxb8 cells without stimulation. BM LPS and YS LPS: are differentiated YS and BM hoxb8 cells stimulated with 100 ng/ml LPS for 5 hours. BM IL4 and YS IL4: are differentiated YS and BM hoxb8 cells stimulated with 100 ng/ml IL4 for 5 hours.

A large proportion of genes overlapped as expected (Figure 3.12). Nonetheless, we identified several genes that were differentially expressed between YS and BM macrophages. on one hand, RNA abundance of Ripk3 and Pycard were increased in BM Hoxb8 macrophages (Figures 3.12). Similarly, C-X-C motif chemokine ligand (Cxcl) 10 and Cxcl11 in addition to inducible nitric oxide synthase (Nos2) were upregulated in BM Hoxb8 macrophages. Further, in BM Hoxb8 macrophages we identified an increased abundance of apoptosis-associated genes such as Tgm2, which promotes leukocyte apoptosis (Sándor, 2016). Additional, Fam129a encodes for the apoptosis-regulating protein Niban was among upregulated genes in BM macrophages (Ji, 2012; Tang, 2019).



Figure 3.13: MA-plot of macrophage gene expression. The plot indicates fold changes (log2) of differentiated YS and BM hoxb8 cells without stimulation plotted against abundance (log2). Genes are marked in grey (not significant) or red (significant differences), genes of interest labelled.

On the other hand, YS-derived Hoxb8 macrophages expressed higher RNA levels of clusterin (apolipoprotein J), which has been associated with apoptotic cell clearance and matrix reorganization (Cunin, 2016; Shim, 2011). Similarly, the transcription factor Mafb, which is known to promote anti-inflammatory polarization and cholesterol efflux, was upregulated in YS-derived Hoxb8 macrophages (H, 2017). Triggering receptor expressed on myeloid cells 2 (Trem2) and Sal-like protein (SALL) 1 and 3, were upregulated in YS macrophages (figure 3.13). Similarly, Microtubule-associated tumor suppressor candidate 2 (Mtus2) is among the most upregulated genes in YS Hoxb8 macrophages, and has recently been identified as a binary protein interaction partner of macrophage colony-stimulating factor (M-CSF) in a large screening approach (Luck, 2020).



Figure 3.14: Fold upregulation of selected genes in BM and YS-derived macrophages. The graph shows selected genes that were found to be significantly upregulated in differentiated BM hoxb8 macrophages in comparison to differentiated YS hoxb8 macrophages and vice versa.

We further investigated RNA expression levels after stimulation with either IL4 or LPS under standardized in vitro conditions. Cell type specific differences between YS and BM macrophages in top regulated genes were in part independent of cytokine stimulation (Figure 3.14 and 3.15), supporting the role of cell-intrinsic macrophage programs.



Figure 3.15: Heatmap showing the top 25 upregulated genes in BM compared to YS macrophages. RNA transcripts of differentiated YS and BM hoxb8 cells without stimulation and stimulated with either LPS or IL4 (100 ng/ml each for 5 hours).



figure 3.16 Heatmap showing the top 25 downregulated genes in BM compared to YS macrophages. RNA transcripts of differentiated YS and BM hoxb8 cells without stimulation and stimulated with either LPS or IL4 (100 ng/ml each for 5 hours).

3.7 Proteome analysis of BM and YS Hoxb8 macrophages

We next conducted an in-depth proteome analysis by quantitative mass spectrometry to further compare both YS and BM macrophages under identical environmental conditions. Besides a large proportion of overlapping proteins as expected, we identified proteins with differential abundance between both cell populations (Figure 3.16).



Figure 3.17: Proteome analysis of day 5 differentiated Hoxb8 macrophages. Protein intensities (log2) of BM versus YS macrophages are indicated. Selected, differentially abundant proteins are annotated and colored in red (BM) or green (YS).

BM Hoxb8 macrophages expressed high levels of the inflammasome activator ASC (PY-CARD) and proteins of the TNF signaling pathway such as receptor-interacting serine/threonine-protein kinase 3 (RIPK3). Further in line with the transcriptome analysis, we determined high abundance of the apoptosis-associated enzyme TGM2. Likewise, Intercellular adhesion molecule 1 (ICAM1), an important adhesion molecule involved in leukocyte migration, showed increased abundance in BM macrophages. Lastly, lipopro-tein lipase (LPL), Myc box-dependent-interacting protein 1 (BIN1), Oxysterol-binding protein 1 (OSBP), the leucine-rich repeat-containing protein 59 (LRRC59) and protein niban (FAM129A) displayed high abundance in BM Hoxb8 macrophages (Figure 3.16).



Figure 3.18: Top 10 upregulated proteins in BM and YS macrophages after LPS stimulation. Top upregulated proteins of LPS stimulated BM (A) and YS (B) after LPS stimulation (100 ng/ml for 5 hours) in comparison to unstimulated BM and YS macrophages respectively.

YS Hoxb8 macrophages showed increased abundance of coagulation factor 5, the lysosomal protein galactosamine (N-Acetyl)-6-sulfatase (GALNS) and ADP-dependent glucokinase (ADPGK), a protein of the glycolysis pathway (Figure 3.16). Interestingly, Chitinase-like protein 3 precursor (CHIL3) – a protein which has been associated with alternatively activated macrophages – was slightly elevated in BM-derived Hoxb8 macrophages, whereas after lipopolysaccharide (LPS) stimulation CHIL3 was identified among the top ten upregulated proteins in YS-derived macrophages (Figure 3.17). BM-derived Hoxb8 macrophages showed an increased abundance of sequestosome-1 (SQSTM1), which has been associated with autophagy, after stimulation. In addition, TGM2 and CD14 expression significantly increased after LPS in BM-derived macrophages.

3.8 Comparison of YS and BM derived macrophage energy metabolism

The decision to carry out extracellular flux measurement was guided by the differences in oxidative phosphorylation indicated in the gene set enrichment analysis GSEA (see appendix). Extracellular flux allows interrogation of this aspect on the functional level by measuring changes in O2 concentration (oxygen consumption or OCR), and pH (extracellular acidification rate, or (ECAR), that result from changes in mitochondrial respiration and glycolysis pathways. We carried the measurement in steady state as well as under LPS and IL4 stimulation.

OCR from the medium surrounding cells reflects important metabolic activity such as non-mitochondrial respiration, mitochondrial respiration, ATP-linked, Proton Leakage (PL) maximum oxidation maximum oxidation after adding pyruvate. Under steady state, BM derived macrophages showed higher maximum substrate oxidation capacity (figure) and lower proton leak respiration (PL) in comparison to YS derived macrophages (figure 3.19).



Figure 3.19: Oxygen Consumption Rate (OCR). A) Time laps Oxygen consumption rates (OCR) traces of unstimulated BM and YS macrophages using respiratory inhibitors to probe bioenergetic modules. Oligomycin, DNP, Rotenon and AA, known inhibitors of the mitochondria and the electron chain reaction were automatically and consecutively injected to the wells of XF96 plate in order to estimate mitochondrial respiration and glycolysis. Moreover, Pyruvate was injected to feed TCA cycle and 2DG was injected to shut down glycolysis. B) Oxygen Consumption Rate OCR dissected into non-mitochondrial respiration, mitochondrial respiration, ATP-linked, Proton Leakage (PL) maximum oxidation maximum oxidation after adding pyruvate. In steady state, BM derived macrophages show higher maximum substrate oxidation capacity and lower proton leak respiration (PL) in comparison to YS derived macrophages. Data represent the mean of 26-29 wells measured on three independent experimental days and are normalized to 130 ng ds DNA/well. Statistic: T-Test, * p<0.05; ** p<0.01; ***p<0.001.

Coupling efficiency (CE) corresponds to the fraction of basal mitochondrial respiration dedicated to ATP production while, Cellular respiratory control ratio (cRCR) measures the ratio of Maximum substrate oxidation capacity to proton leak respiration, as from our experiment, BM show higher efficiency to produce ATP as retrieved from (CE) and (cRCR) in steady state, interestingly, LPS and IL4 stimulation seem to improve efficiency of ATP production in YS (figure 3.20).





Time lapse ECAR traces for BM and YS, can be dissected into different functional modules such as non-glycolytic acidification, glycolysis (acidification) and induced glycolysis, while LPS stimulation has significantly increased glycolysis in YS, BM derived macrophages show higher glycolytic activity than their YS counterparts under all conditions (Figure 3.21).


Figure 3.21: ECAR linked to glycolytic activity of unstimulated and stimulated macrophages. Data represent the mean of 26-29 wells measured on three independent experimental days and are normalized to 130 ng ds DNA/well. 2-way ANOVA, followed by Sidak post-hoc test. Stimulation: * p<0.05; ** p<0.01; ***p<0.001; cell line: # p<0.05; ## p<0.01; ### p<0.001.

There was no significant difference in ATP turnover/demand between BM and YS, neither at steady state nor under stimulation with LPS or IL4 (figure 3.22). moreover, ATP production was Partitioned into OXPHOS and glycolysis, BM derived macrophages showed higher glycolytic contribution to ATP homeostasis however LPS found to increase YS macrophages dependence on glycolysis for ATP production (figure 3.23).



Figure 3.22: Comparison of total ATP Demand/turnover between BM and YS macrophages. Neither LPS nor IL4 significantly changes ATP demand/turnover in BM and YS macrophages. Data represent the mean of 26-29 wells measured on three independent experimental days and are normalized to 130 ng ds DNA/well. 2-way ANOVA, followed by Sidak post-hoc test.



Figure 3.23: Partitioning of ATP production. From glycolysis A) and oxidative phosphorylation B) under steady state as well as LPS and IL4 stimulation. BM macrophages showed further dependence on glycolysis for ATP production, while LPS switches ATP production to glycolysis in YS macrophages. Data represent the mean of 26-29 wells measured on three independent experimental days and are normalized to 130 ng ds DNA/well. 2-way ANOVA, followed by Sidak post-hoc test. Stimulation: * p<0.05; ** p<0.01; ***p<0.001; cell line: # p<0.05; ## p<0.01; ### p<0.001.

Plotting OCR against ECAR revealed higher overall metabolic activity in BM versus YSderived Hoxb8 macrophages, in addition LPS triggered metabolic switch from oxidative phosphorylation to glycolysis ('Warburg-like effect'), an effect happened to be more pronounced in BM-derived macrophages. IL4 stimulation did not induce metabolic switch (Figure 3.24).



Figure 3.24: BM and YS macrophages metabolic switch following LPS and IL4 stimulation. Glycolytic ECAR plotted against ATP-linked OCR revealing the metabolic switch induced by LPS in BM Hoxb8 macrophages while IL4 does not seem to affect the metabolic status of BM and YS macrophages.

In summary, BM-derived Hoxb8 macrophages higher mitochondrial efficiency in the steady state and higher glycolytic activity under all conditions. Moreover, YS cells show higher dependence on oxidative phosphorylation for ATP production while BM cells depend on glycolysis.

3.9 Cytokine secretion and Inflammasome activation

First, we studied the response of Hoxb8 macrophages to LPS and IL4 in a multiplex cytokine analysis. Interestingly, cytokine release was similar between YS and BM macrophages (Figure 3.25).



Figure 3.25: Cytokine expression analysis by Multiplex ELISA. Quantification of cytokines in cell culture supernatant of stimulated Hoxb8 macrophage. BM and YS macrophages were treated for 2,12 and 24 hours with 100 ng/ml LPS or IL-4. Non-polarized cells served as controls. Data are shown as heatmap; Results are representative for three independent experiments. untreated (control) and LPS or IL4 stimulated samples. n=3. Pearson's correlation.

The increased abundance of PYCARD, an important adaptor protein associated with inflammasome activation, on both RNA and protein level, drove us to further investigate both canonical and non-canonical activation of the NLRP3 inflammasome pathway in YS and BM macrophages.

In order to investigate canonical activation of the NLRP3 inflammasome pathway, we primed Hoxb8 macrophages with LPS and stimulated them with crystals (Duewell, 2010b). Using ELISA, we carried IL1 β quantification as measure of inflammasome activation. Monosodium urate (MSU), Cholesterol (CH) and Bilirubin (BIL) crystals, classical activators of the canonical inflammasome pathway induced the release of IL1 β from LPS-primed BM macrophages. As expected, IL1 β secretion was absent in caspase 1/11-deficient BM macrophages. Notably, IL1 β secretion from LPS-primed and crystal-stimulated YS Hoxb8 macrophages was low, indicating low-level of inflammasome activation (Figure 3.26).



Figure 3.26: Measurement of IL-1 β in cell culture supernatants after stimulation with LPS followed by MSU, CH and BIL crystals. YS and BM macrophage were left without stimulation (control) or treated with

200 ng/ml LPS for 3 hours followed by either A) 250 ug/ml MSU crystals, B) Cholesterol crystals, C) Bilirubin crystals. Stimulation was carried out for 6 and 12 hours. Data are presented as mean±SD; Two-way ANOVA test.; n=6-8 per group; * p<0.05; ** p<0.01; ***p<0.001.

Furthermore, we confirmed our findings using western blot and determined a pronounced inflammasome response upon MSU crystal stimulation in BM Hoxb8 macrophages represented by high expression levels of PYCARD and CASP1, in contrary to YS macrophages (Figure 3.27).



Figure 3.27: Quantification of NLRP3 inflammasome proteins in BM and YS macrophage cells lysate after stimulation with LPS followed by MSU crystals. Western blotting of non-stimulated YS and BM macrophage or treated with 200 ng/ml LPS for 3 hours followed by 250 ug/ml MSU crystals for 24 hours, A) Western blots representative of 5 independent experiments. B) Quantitative comparison of Proteins level of NLRP3 inflammasome components using Western blot normalized to Actin. Data are presented as mean±SD; n=3; *p<0.05** p<0.01; ***p<0.001.

To address non-canonical inflammasome activation, we harnessed Escherichia coli outer membrane vesicles (Ecoli OMVs). OMVs are typically produced by Gram-negative bacteria and mediate cytosolic LPS localization leading to robust caspase-11 activation (Vanaja, 2016). Stimulation with E. coli derived OMVs elicited a pronounced IL1 β response in BM derived macrophages which was abrogated in their YS-derived counterparts (Figure 3.28).



Figure 3.28: Measurement of IL-1 β in cell culture supernatants after stimulation with *E. coli* OMVs. YS and BM macrophages were treated with 2ug/ml Escherichia coli outer membrane vesicles (OMVs) for 6 and 12 h. Data are presented as mean±SD; (n=3). * p<0.05; ** p<0.01; ****p<0.001; ****p<0.0001. Two-way ANOVA test.

Altogether, BM-derived but not YS-derived Hoxb8 macrophages exhibited robust NLRP3 inflammasome activation via both canonical and non-canonical pathways, suggesting a fundamental difference between macrophages originating from YS and BM.

4. **Discussion**

4.1 Methods

Conditional expression of Hoxb8 in hematopoietic progenitors allows to preserve their proliferative, immature status and to prohibit terminal differentiation into immune effector cells (Redecke, 2013; G. G. Wang, 2006). Upon estrogen withdrawal the ectopically expressed gene encoding Hox is inactivated allowing synchronous differentiation of Hoxb8 progenitors under guidance of specific cytokines. In the presence of GM-CSF or M-CSF, they differentiate into dendritic cells and macrophages and granulocytes respectively. Hoxb8 dendritic cells show potent immune functions both in vivo and in vitro, and were protective against tumor when injected prior the encounter of experimentally induced tumor. Hoxb8 macrophages show phagocytic activity and produced NO in levels comparable to primary bone marrow macrophages (Redecke, 2013). However, to the best of our knowledge, YS derived hoxb8 cell lines have not been reported to date.

In previous studies, differences in lineage commitment and efficiency have been described for the SCF Hoxb8 system when differentiating myeloid cells in vitro. The efficiency can be modified by preselection of hematopoietic cells subjected to Hoxb8 transfection. For example, depleting MacI+, B220+, Thy1.2+ cells from whole bone marrow before Hoxb8 transfection has been described to promote lineage decision towards neutrophils (98%-99%). ER-Hoxb8 progenitors immortalized in presence of GM-CSF only were described to have more than 99% macrophage commitment (G. G. Wang, 2006). Our protocol is a modified version of both and comprised of isolation of BM mononuclear progenitors without negative selection in addition to hoxb8 transfection in presence of SCF. Besides, our modified differentiation protocol that includes changing the medium and supply M-CSF every other day purifies the population and removes all other non-adherent progenitors and or granulocytes. By applying our protocol, we achieved macrophage populations of high purity as confirmed by flow cytometry, Giemsa stain and RNA sec and proteomic analysis.

Erythro-myeloid progenitors (EMP) that appear in the yolk sac of mouse embryos by E8.25 have been defined as first 'definitive' progenitors (Bertrand, 2005; Palis, 1999). EMPs seed fetal liver already by E9, in Yolk sac EMPs peak between E9.5 and E10.5 (Kieusseian, 2012). We have chosen E9.5 embryonic age, as EMP production is at its peak and the progenitor cells are about to exit the YS to travel to the embryo proper and seed the different tissues (Boisset, 2010; Stremmel, 2018).

Flow cytometry is a well-established method for studying cell death through determination of the percentage of AnxV+ and AnxV+ PI+ after labelling them with (AnxV) as measurement of apoptosis and (AnxV and PI) as indicator of secondary necrosis. We employed the method to measure BM and YS macrophages response to FasL and UV radiation. However, determination of the percentage and the type of cell death following stimulation and or infection may reveal more in-depth differences in YS and BM cell death response during microbial and immunological challenge. Furthermore, this may reveal more differences related to the nature of the two cell types as YS macrophages represent tissue macrophages that are long-lived while BM macrophages represent monocyte derived macrophages that are recruited to tissues in case of infection to provide defence functions and die shortly after the performing their purpose. For instance, investigation of cell death after stimulation with MSU crystals or other inflammasome stimuli will be valuable to decipher differences in pyroptosis, the inflammasome specific form of cell death.

We investigated NLRP3 both canonical and not canonical. However, neither other NLRs inflammasomes such as NLRP1 and NLRC4 inflammasomes nor AIM2 inflammasomes were studied. In the light of these limitations, we cannot conclude whether activation of other inflammasomes is impaired in YS macrophages. Besides, no in vivo investigation was performed to further investigate our in vitro findings due to the in vivo system

complexity and the lack of scientific tools, as distinguishing cells from different origin in the tissues is not an easy task due to the microenvironment reprogramming. However, mice models of myeloid cells depletion such as CD169-DTR, macrophages depletion such as CD11b-DTR and gene deficiency models such as Csf1r-KO seem to represent valuable tools for further investigating these findings in inflammation settings.

4.2 Results

Macrophages play a fundamental role in both inflammation and tissue homeostasis, defending the body against infection besides carrying out vital tissue-specific functions. Nevertheless, they are also involved in the pathology of several illnesses such as malignancies and diverse inflammatory conditions. Currently, it is known that macrophages of different developmental origin i.e., YS and BM co-exist and function in conjunction with each other in the steady state. In case of microbial challenge or inflammation the diversity is enhanced further as blood monocytes are recruited to tissues and differentiate into macrophages (Ginhoux, 2016). Moreover, tissue resident macrophages are long-lived; potentially they are maintained throughout life independently of BM progenitors.

The co-existence of macrophages of different ontogeny, i.e., YS and BM, in most tissues necessitates the investigation of its impact on macrophage function. As the phenotype and functions of macrophages are largely modulated by the tissue of residence, the heterogeneity among macrophage populations in a defined tissue persists be implicated to their ontogeny (DR, 2014; Stergachis, 2013). Nonetheless, how macrophage origin and environment integrate to define gene expression networks and functions remains indeterminate. Understanding the influence of macrophages developmental origin and the microenvironment of the tissue of residence on macrophages is essential for designing therapeutic approaches to modulate macrophage functions at specific tissues and at specific pathology settings.

In this study, we aimed to differentiate the cell-intrinsic programs and functions of YS and BM macrophages under defined conditions independently of the organ environment. Scientists have been hampered in addressing this question due to adaptation and re-programming of macrophages within tissues. To overcome these limitations, we established stable YS and BM Hoxb8 progenitor cells, which can be cultured and differentiated to mature macrophages as needed.

EMPs are described to be Kit+, CD41+, CD16/32+ (FCyII/III receptors), Cx3cr1- and CD45low and Runx1 dependent (J. Bertrand, 2005; McGrath, 2015; Perdiguero, 2015; Stremmel, 2018). Our YS ER-hoxb8 progenitors are KIT+ Cx3cr1-CD16/32+ in addition to their expression of Runx1. Hence, Hoxb8 system conserves the progenitor status of YS progenitors, and allows us to differentiate them into macrophages and compare them to their bone marrow counterparts under defined conditions without the influence of tissue micro-environment.

Through a broad variety of experimental approaches, including immunofluorescence analysis, flow cytometry, proteomics, transcriptomics, chemokine analyses and functional assays, we were able to draw the following conclusions: macrophage progenitors expand and differentiate within 5 days into mature macrophages independently of their cellular origin. These macrophages express a very similar panel of basic macrophage markers and they are equally capable of phagocytosis. Moreover, they show a similar resistance to FasL and susceptibility to UV induced cell death. Nevertheless, various differences in their cell-intrinsic programs were recognized ensuing further analysis.

As from our transcriptomics and proteomics analysis, a large proportion of genes and proteins overlapped as expected. However numerous differentially expressed genes between macrophages of YS and BM origin were detected that link them to their developmental origin. On one hand, Fam129a encodes for the apoptosis-regulating protein Niban (Ji, 2012; Tang, 2019), which has recently been identified in human atherosclerotic plaques in a macrophage subpopulation with strong implications to be of BM origin (Winkels, 2018), was upregulated in BM hoxb8 macrophages. On the other hand, clusterin (apolipoprotein J) RNA was more abundant in YS hoxb8 macrophages. At the protein level, Clusterin has been shown to act as a binding partner of TREM2, which is significantly expressed in brain microglia that are exclusively of YS origin; which facilitates their uptake of amyloid-beta (Ginhoux, 2010; Turnbull, 2006; Yeh, 2016). In line with this, we identified the upregulation of Sal-like protein (SALL) 1 and 3, which have been globally linked to microglia development in both mouse and human (Bian, 2020; Mass, 2016).

By paying a closer look at our proteome and RNA sequencing data, Pycard (central protein in inflammasome pathway) and RIPK3, which is another protein playing a role in NLRP3 inflammasome activation, found to be downregulated in YS derived macrophages compared to their BM counterparts as well as reduced levels of SQSTM1. In addition, TGM2 and CD14 expression significantly increased after LPS stimulation in BM-derived macrophages in comparison to LPS stimulated YS macrophages. CD14, in association with TLR4, is involved in the inflammatory response to LPS stimulation, which is a process commonly associated with M1-like macrophages (Duewell, 2010b; Wright, 1990). All these findings drove us to inspect the inflammasome as an important part of the innate immunity, as well as the adaptive immune response modulation. In particular, we examined whether the observable differences at RNA and protein levels extend to functional properties. In order to do so, we stimulated our cells with canonical NLRP3 stimuli such as MSU, CH and Bil and non-canonical NLRP3 inflammasome stimulus such as Ecoli OMV and measured IL1ß secretion, which considered as the hallmark for activation of inflammasome. Interestingly, IL1ß secretion is reduced in YS derived macrophages in comparison to BM derived macrophages under stimulation with canonical and non-canonical NLRP3 stimuli, to a level (below the detection limit of our sensitive ELISA assay) comparable to non-stimulated and casp1/11 knock out macrophages that were used as control. These findings are consistent with the results from Lakhdari and colleagues (2019) where they compared F4/80HI YS macrophages to CD11bHI fetal liver derived macrophages at both mRNA and protein level. Indeed, when stimulation was performed with LPS, IL1β expression was found to be restricted to CD11bHI fetal liver macrophages, but not detected in F4/80HI cells (Lakhdari, 2019). Moreover, authors demonstrated upregulation of other inflammatory response genes after LPS stimulation in CD11bHI I fetal liver macrophages, but not in F4/80HI yolk sac derived macrophages. Additionally, we employed immunoblotting technique to check the expression level of NLRP3, ASC (pycard) and Casp1 levels in YS and BM macrophages after MSU stimulation. Interestingly, their levels were higher in BM macrophages in comparison to YS macrophages. Although NLRP3 level increased after MSU stimulation in both YS and BM, which indicates the triggering of NF-kB signalling pathway activation (Shimada, 2011), it did not result in IL1b secretion in YS macrophages, which may be explained by the respectively lower pycard and casp1 levels.

Proinflammatory and non-inflammatory properties of BM and YS respectively are further confirmed with extracellular flux measurement. In fact, BM cells showed higher glycolytic levels in steady state and glycolysis increased further upon LPS stimulation that links them even more to inflammasome activation (Tannahill, 2013). Moreover, our YS macrophages resemble microglia; established YS derived tissue macrophages and alveolar macrophages in their utilization of the Oxidative Phosphorylation pathway, a pathway broadly linked to anti-inflammatory and tissue-regenerative phenotypes (Gimeno-Bayón, 2014; Kelly, 2015; OREN, 1963). YS macrophages show an increased dependence on oxidative phosphorylation for ATP production in contrary to their BM counterparts, which seem to bear a resemblance to M1 macrophages in their dependence on glycolysis for securing their energy supply. Additionally, the transcription factor Mafb, known to promote anti-inflammatory polarization and cholesterol efflux, was upregulated in YS-derived Hoxb8 macrophages (H, 2017). Finally, clusterin (apolipoprotein J), which has been associated with apoptotic cell clearance and matrix reorganisation, common properties of M2-like macrophages found to be upregulated in YS-derived Hoxb8 (Cunin, 2016; Shim, 2011).

Non inflammatory signature of YS could have various biological implications. For instance, as the mother's immune system represents a critical challenge to the fetus in the uterus. The development of immunologic tolerance and balance of the counter reactions of maternal immune response and fetal immune response against each other's antigens represents an important aspect for the completion of the pregnancy. Thus, colonization of the various organs of the growing embryos with non-inflammatory YS derived macrophages increases the survival chances of the embryos. Besides, it might play a role in development of immunologic tolerance towards food antigens and more importantly tolerance against normal bacterial flora. Similarly, presence of such macrophages in the tissues in the settings of chronic inflammation may support in balancing inflammatory versus repair responses that could results in a better outcome.

The reduced inflammatory properties of YS derived macrophages do not only apply to mouse but extend to human as well. In their study on human embryonic hematopoiesis, Bian and his colleagues showed that as macrophages develop towards microglia they lose the expression of the inflammatory transcription factors and at the same time the expression of tissue development and neurodevelopmental genes increases, the property that may pave the road for many therapeutic approaches and applied research in the field of inflammatory diseases (Bian, 2020).

Hence, the precise mechanism of inflammasome regulation in YS macrophages remains to be elucidated. Furthermore, studying how specific tissue macrophage characteristics are established and preserved and whether the ontogeny related functional difference maintained in vivo, regardless the influence of microenvironment; need to be further investigated in order to assist in unravelling the effect of environment, as opposed to cell ontogeny on macrophage cellular identity. Answering such questions may open a window for better understanding of macrophage heterogeneity and function with vital clinical relevance to chronic inflammation and other pathology outcome.

5. Conclusions

The findings of this study add to the growing body of research that indicates that the ontogeny of macrophages contributes to their cellular identity and reveals important functional differences in inflammasome activation and metabolism. Further complementary studies such as investigating whether the differences between YS and BM are maintained regardless of the tissue microenvironment and whether BM-derived macrophages replacing embryonic macrophages in case of inflammation can acquire functional and homeostatic properties of prior embryonic macrophages, will be crucial for the field of macrophage biology. Eventually, translating these findings to human macrophage biology may be crucial and may help with the design of suitable therapeutic interventions for inflammatory diseases and cancer where macrophages play a central role in determining clinical outcome.

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Appendix

The gene set enrichment analysis GSEA

Pathway	Gene ranks	NES	pval	padj
HALLMARK_OXIDATIVE_PHOSPHORYLATION		2.99	4.5e-03	1.2e-02
HALLMARK_E2F_TARGETS		2.91	5.1e-03	1.2e-02
HALLMARK_MYC_TARGETS_V1		2.47	4.7e-03	1.2e-02
HALLMARK_G2M_CHECKPOINT		2.44	5.1e-03	1.2e-02
HALLMARK_MYC_TARGETS_V2	Immunians source in	2.08	3.3e-03	1.2e-02
HALLMARK_IL2_STAT5_SIGNALING		-1.89	1.3e-03	7.8e-03
HALLMARK_ALLOGRAFT_REJECTION		-1.93	1.3e-03	7.8e-03
HALLMARK_INFLAMMATORY_RESPONSE		-2.17	1.3e-03	7.8e-03
HALLMARK_INTERFERON_ALPHA_RESPONSE) II II - II - II - II - II - II - I	-2.28	1.4e-03	7.8e-03
HALLMARK_INTERFERON_GAMMA_RESPONSE		-2.45	1.2e-03	7.8e-03
	0 5000 10000			

Acknowledements

My sincere gratitude goes to my supervisor Prof. Dr. med. Christian Schulz who gave me the opportunity to work with him on this project, his scientific advice, knowledge and all the insightful discussions and suggestions were indispensable for the success of this project. I would also like to extend my gratitude to my thesis advisory committee members Prof. Dr. Barbara Schraml and Prof. Dr. rer. nat. Jörg Renkawitz and formal thesis advisory committee member Dr. rer. nat. Julia von Blume. I also wish to thank Mr. Michael Lorenz for all the suggestions and the scientific support during my PhD training. Many thanks to Elisabeth Raatz for all the professional and personal support. I want to as well thank my colleagues: Julia Winterhalter, Shaza El Nemr and Filip Prica who also helped, encouraged and contributed in various ways during my PhD. I also acknowledge, the support and contributions of Tien Cuong Kieu, Dr. Stephanie Regenfielder, Dominic van den Heuvel, Zeljka Sisic and Dr. Susanne Sauer. I would also like to acknowledge, Dr. Elke Hammer and Ms. Josefine Plocke for their efforts in generating the proteomic data, and their support in the data analysis, presentation and interpretation. As well as AG Lauber, AG Jastroch, AG Walzog and Dr. Tobias Straub for their productive collaboration. I would also like to thank the DFG for the funding during my Doctoral training and Dr. Verena Kochan for her support and guidance. Finally, my deepest gratitude goes to my family for their support and to my best friends for always being there for me.

Publications and scientific presentations

Publications

Elhag, S., Stremmel, C., Zehrer, A., Plocke, J., Hennel, R., Keuper, M., ... Schulz, C. (2021). "Differences in Cell-Intrinsic Inflammatory Programs of Yolk Sac and Bone Marrow Macrophages." https://doi.org/10.3390/cells10123564

Scientific presentations

June 2018	1 st TAC Meeting	Oral Presentation
November 2019	Scientific Retreat of IRTG914, Günzburg,	Oral Presentation
	Germany	
October 2019	2 nd TAC Meeting	Oral Presentation

Affidavit



Dekanat Medizinische Fakultät Promotionsbüro



Affidavit

Elhag, Sara Rahamatalla Mohamed

Surname, first name

Address

I hereby declare, that the submitted thesis entitled

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is my own work. I have only used the sources indicated and have not made unauthorised use of services of a third party. Where the work of others has been quoted or reproduced, the source is always given.

I further declare that the dissertation presented here has not been submitted in the same or similar form to any other institution for the purpose of obtaining an academic degree.

Munich, 20.05.2022

Sara Elhag

Place, Date

Signature doctoral candidate

Affidavit

20.05.2022

Confirmation of congruency between printed and electronic version of the doctoral thesis



Congruency of submitted versions

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