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Citation for published version:

Jenkins, SJ, Ruckerl, D, Thomas, GD, Hewitson, JP, Duncan, S, Brombacher, F, Maizels, RM, Hume, DA & Allen, JE 2013, 'IL-4 directly signals tissue-resident macrophages to proliferate beyond homeostatic levels controlled by CSF-1', *Journal of Experimental Medicine*, vol. 210, no. 11, pp. 2477-2491.
<https://doi.org/10.1084/jem.20121999>

Digital Object Identifier (DOI):

[10.1084/jem.20121999](https://doi.org/10.1084/jem.20121999)

Link:

[Link to publication record in Edinburgh Research Explorer](#)

Document Version:

Peer reviewed version

Published In:

Journal of Experimental Medicine

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IL-4 directly signals tissue resident macrophages to proliferate beyond homeostatic levels controlled by CSF-1.

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Running title: IL-4 drives macrophage proliferation

Summary caption: Independent IL-4 and CSF-1 mechanisms contribute to macrophage proliferation during nematode infection, but IL-4 permits increased tissue macrophage density without the co-incident monocyte infiltration associated with elevated CSF-1 levels.

Character Count: 39596

Non-standard abbreviations: GI, gastro-intestinal; IL-4c, IL-4 complex; IL-13c, IL-13 complex; *Hp*, *Heligmosomoides polygyrus*; *Ls*, *Litomosoides sigmodontis*; MΦ, macrophage.

Abstract

Macrophages (M Φ) colonize tissues during inflammation in two distinct ways; recruitment of monocyte-precursors and proliferation of resident cells. We recently revealed a major role for IL-4 in the proliferative expansion of resident M Φ during a Th2-biased tissue nematode infection. We now show that proliferation of M Φ during intestinal as well as tissue nematode infection is restricted to sites of IL-4 production and requires M Φ -intrinsic IL-4R signaling. However, both IL-4R α -dependent and independent mechanisms contributed to M Φ proliferation during nematode infections. IL-4R-independent proliferation was controlled by a rise in local CSF-1 levels but IL-4R α expression conferred a competitive advantage with higher and more sustained proliferation and increased accumulation of IL-4R α ⁺ compared to IL-4R α ⁻ cells. Mechanistically, this occurred by conversion of IL-4R α ⁺ M Φ from a CSF-1-dependent to CSF-1-independent program of proliferation. Thus, IL-4 increases the relative density of tissue M Φ by overcoming the constraints mediated by the availability of CSF-1. Finally, while both elevated CSF1R or IL-4R α signaling triggered proliferation above homeostatic levels, only CSF-1 led to the recruitment of monocytes and neutrophils. Thus, the IL-4 pathway of proliferation may have developed as an alternative to CSF-1 in order to increase resident M Φ numbers without co-incident monocyte recruitment.

Introduction

The number of resident macrophages (M Φ) in several tissues can apparently be maintained without replenishment from blood monocytes and other hematopoietic precursors (Ajami et al., 2007; Kanitakis et al., 2004; Klein et al., 2007; Murphy et al., 2008; Schulz et al., 2012; Volkman et al., 1983; Yona et al., 2013) through in situ proliferation (Chorro et al., 2009; Davies et al., 2011; Hashimoto et al., 2013; Jenkins et al., 2011). Local proliferation restores homeostatic numbers of resident lung and peritoneal M Φ following their loss due to acute inflammation (Davies et al., 2011; Hashimoto et al., 2013) but can act also as an ‘inflammatory’ mechanism, leading to an outgrowth of tissue resident M Φ beyond homeostatic levels. For example, infection with the rodent filarial nematode *Litomosoides sigmodontis* (*Ls*) causes a pleuritis characterized by expansion of the resident M Φ population to high densities equivalent to that reached by recruited monocyte-derived M Φ during classical inflammation (Jenkins et al., 2011). Similarly, Langerhans cells and microglia increase in density via elevated self-renewal during atopic dermatitis and experimental autoimmune encephalitis, respectively (Ajami et al., 2011; Chorro et al., 2009).

Proliferation, differentiation and survival of M Φ is controlled by the CSF1R ligands CSF-1 and IL-34 produced by local tissue stroma to regulate the density of resident M Φ (Hume and MacDonald, 2011). CSF-1 administration to mice can increase blood monocyte and tissue M Φ numbers (Hume et al., 1988). Mice lacking the CSF1R exhibit an extreme deficit in resident M Φ in many tissues (Dai et al., 2002) and the same cells are ablated in a time-dependent manner following treatment with a blocking anti-CSF1R antibody (MacDonald et al., 2010). A proliferative signal through the CSF1R has been shown to maintain homeostatic numbers of resident peritoneal M Φ in the steady-state (Davies et al., 2013), and mediate repopulation of resident lung and peritoneal M Φ following acute inflammation or experimental depletion (Davies et al., 2013; Hashimoto et al., 2013). CSF1R signaling can also control in vivo proliferation of monocyte-derived M Φ , required for the population of the growing myometrium in pregnancy (Tagliani et al., 2011) or maintenance of recruited cells during the resolution phase of sterile peritonitis (Davies et al., 2013).

The Th2 lymphokine IL-4, was first shown to regulate proliferation and accumulation of resident M Φ in the context of filarial nematode infection. Moreover, serial administration of a rIL-4 complex (IL-4c) was sufficient to induce proliferation and accumulation of M Φ throughout the body, including in the peritoneal cavity and liver (Jenkins et al., 2011), lung and spleen (unpublished data), and to drive proliferation of recruited monocyte-derived cells (Jenkins et al., 2011). These studies did not reveal whether the actions of IL-4 were direct or indirect.

Akt signaling is required for CSF-1-mediated proliferation (Huynh et al., 2012; Irvine et al., 2006; Smith et al., 2000) and we have recently shown that intact Akt signaling is critically important for in situ M Φ proliferation in response to IL-4 (Ruckerl et al., 2012). IL-4 receptor (IL-4R) signaling however, does not effectively activate Akt in M Φ in vitro despite phosphorylating PKB (Heller et al., 2008), thus raising the possibility that IL-4 acts via CSF1R signaling to induce Akt-dependent M Φ proliferation. Indeed, many important parallels exist between IL-4 and CSF-1 activated M Φ . For example, both IL-4 and CSF-1 promote a suppressive and a pro-repair phenotype in M Φ (Alikhan et al., 2011). Further, the transcription factors c-Myc and KLF-4, are critical for both the ‘alternative activation’ state induced in M Φ by engagement of the IL-4R (Liao et al., 2011; Pello et al., 2011), and CSF-1-dependent proliferation that occurs in the absence of Maf B and c-Maf (Aziz et al., 2009). Thus, understanding the relationship between CSF-1 and IL-4 is important, not least because several groups have used CSF-1 to generate human ‘M2’ M Φ (Fleetwood et al., 2007; Martinez et al., 2006; Verreck et al., 2004), which are often considered highly parallel to alternatively activated M Φ driven by IL-4.

This study seeks to determine the contribution of CSF-1 to IL-4 driven M Φ proliferation and alternative activation. Alternatively activated M Φ are a distinguishing feature of inflammation driven by helminth infections and allergy but may also appear in cold-stressed adipose tissue (Karp and Murray, 2012; Nguyen et al., 2012), certain immunogenic tumors (DeNardo et al., 2009; Linde et al., 2012), and even the steady-state (Wu et al., 2011). Using direct delivery of IL-4 and Th2-biased infection models, we demonstrate that IL-4-mediated proliferation requires M Φ -intrinsic IL-4R α signaling that is entirely independent of the CSF1R. However, these

studies revealed a significant contribution of IL-4R α independent, CSF1R-dependent M Φ proliferation during nematode infection. We further demonstrate that IL-4R α expression confers a major competitive advantage to M Φ , such that IL-4R α ⁺ cells rapidly outcompete those lacking receptor expression.

Results

IL-4 dependent proliferation does not require the CSF1R. We utilized delivery of IL-4c as a reductionist approach to investigate whether IL-4 acts via the CSF1R to drive expansion of resident serous cavity M Φ . Ki67 expression was used to determine the frequency of all F4/80^{High} M Φ in cycle, as described previously (Jenkins et al., 2011), while a 3hr BrdU pulse prior to necropsy or high level of Ki67 expression (Ki67^{High}) was used to identify cells in S phase (Fig. S1A; (Landberg et al., 1990)). Intracellular staining for RELM α and/or Ym1 were used as markers of alternative activation. Consistent with the established role of CSF-1 in regulating steady state M Φ levels (Davies et al., 2013), proliferation observed in control PBS-treated mice was completely blocked by treatment with anti-CSF1R mAb (Fig. 1A). In contrast, neither elevated proliferation nor marker induction by IL-4c was affected by antibody treatment (Fig. 1A). The only influence of blocking CSF1R on IL-4c treatment was to reduce the final M Φ number (Fig. 1A). Daily oral gavage of GW2580, an inhibitor of the CSF1R tyrosine kinase, also had no effect on IL-4-induced M Φ proliferation or alternative activation (Fig. 1B). Furthermore, *Csf1r* gene expression was significantly reduced in FACS-purified peritoneal M Φ 24h after injection of IL-4c (Fig. 1C). As expected, because the ligand is cleared by receptor-mediated endocytosis (Hume and MacDonald, 2011), CSF1R blockade resulted in elevated levels of CSF-1 in the tissue and bloodstream (Fig. 1D), thereby confirming the effectiveness of the antibody. However, CSF-1 production was not increased in response to IL-4 (Fig. 1D). Thus, in the context of IL-4 delivery there was no evidence of CSF1R involvement in proliferation and alternative activation.

IL-4 driven proliferation requires M Φ -intrinsic IL-4R α -signaling. We next addressed the possibility that IL-4 signals directly to M Φ to induce proliferation. We used *LysM^{cre} Il4ra^{-lox}* mice to delete the IL-4R α chain on myeloid cells including M Φ

and neutrophils (Herbert et al., 2004). Injection of IL-4c into *LysM^{cre}Il4ra^{-lox}* mice resulted in elevated proliferation of F4/80^{High} MΦ in the cavities as well as elevated frequencies of alternatively activated MΦ (Fig. 2A). Nevertheless, MΦ proliferation was lower in *LysM^{cre}Il4ra^{-lox}* mice than in *Il4ra^{-lox}* controls (pleural, $P < 0.01$, Fig. 2B; peritoneal, $P < 0.001$). Co-staining for RELMα and BrdU (Fig. 2B) revealed that [RELMα⁺ MΦ from *LysM^{cre}Il4ra^{-lox}* mice underwent significantly greater levels of proliferation than RELMα⁻ cells.](#) Because RELMα expression is a known marker of IL-4Rα engagement on MΦ (Jenkins and Allen, 2010) and LysM-Cre is relatively inefficient (Hume, 2011) the data suggest that IL-4-dependent proliferation [predominantly](#) occurs in the subset of MΦ that retain the IL-4R in *LysM^{cre}Il4ra^{-lox}* animals.

To confirm this conclusion, *Il4ra^{+/+}Cd45.1⁺Cd45.2⁺* C57BL/6 mice were lethally irradiated and transplanted with a 50:50 mix of BM from *Il4ra^{+/+}Cd45.1⁺Cd45.2⁺* and *Il4ra^{-/-}Cd45.2^{+/+}Cd45.1^{null}* mice, so that cells derived from *Il4ra^{-/-}* BM could be distinguished from WT by a lack of CD45.1 expression. Blood-borne monocytes (Fig. 2C) and other myeloid populations (data not shown) exhibited roughly equal proportions of CD45.1⁺ and CD45.1⁻ cells 8wk after reconstitution. This extends earlier data showing the key mediator of IL-4R signaling, STAT6, has no intrinsic role in steady-state proliferation or survival of hematopoietic stem cells despite their ubiquitous IL-4Rα⁺ expression (Bunting et al., 2004). Likewise, similar frequencies of *Il4ra^{+/+}* and *Il4ra^{-/-}* cells were detected in the resident F4/80^{High} pleural and peritoneal cavity MΦ populations in control mice treated with PBS (Fig. 2D & data not shown). By contrast, *Il4ra^{+/+}* F4/80^{High} MΦ greatly outnumbered *Il4ra^{-/-}* cells in the pleural and peritoneal cavities of mice treated with IL-4c. Indeed, only the IL-4Rα⁺ population increased in number following treatment with IL-4c (Fig. 2D & data not shown), consistent with increased S phase BrdU⁺ cells (Fig. 2E) and Ki67⁺ cells (data not shown) being observed only in the CD45.1⁺ IL-4Rα⁺ cells. Notably, steady-state levels of proliferation in PBS-treated controls did not differ between *Il4ra^{+/+}* and *Il4ra^{-/-}* cells, suggesting IL-4 is only important in an inflammatory context. Intracellular staining for RELMα (data not shown) and Ym1 (Fig. 2E) in these experiments confirmed an absolute requirement for intrinsic IL-4Rα-signaling to up-

regulate production of these archetypal alternative activation markers under this reductionist condition.

Both IL-4R α -dependent and independent pathways contribute to proliferation during nematode infection. The Th2 cytokines IL-4 and IL-13 can both signal via the IL-4R α to drive alternative activation (Gordon and Martinez, 2010). In our previous study, nematode-associated increased M Φ proliferation was not entirely absent in *Il4*^{-/-} mice (Jenkins et al., 2011) suggesting a possible contribution from IL-13. To assess the potential of IL-13 to induce proliferation mice were injected with IL-13 complexed with a neutralizing antibody (IL-13c). IL-13c led to significant ($P < 0.01$) M Φ proliferation, at a similar magnitude to IL-4c delivery (Fig. 3A), but as documented previously (Heller et al., 2008), IL-13 was somewhat less effective at stimulating RELM α production by M Φ . To determine whether IL-13 was responsible for the residual rise in proliferation observed in nematode-infected *Il4*^{-/-} mice, we infected mice lacking the IL-4R α chain (*Il4ra*^{-/-}). Proliferation and accumulation of pleural M Φ following *Ls* infection was significantly ($P < 0.001$) reduced in *Il4ra*^{-/-} mice compared to WT controls (Fig. 3B) but to no greater extent than in the *Il4*^{-/-} mice (Jenkins et al., 2011) suggesting no contribution of IL-13. By contrast, marker induction in M Φ was entirely dependent upon IL-4R α signaling (Fig. 3B) and worm burdens did not significantly differ between strains at this stage of infection (data not shown). Hence, mechanisms independent of the IL-4R α contribute to elevated M Φ self-renewal during nematode infection. Comparison of the kinetics of alternative activation and proliferation stimulated by IL-4c vs *Ls* infection revealed key differences; IL-4c induced marker expression in peritoneal and pleural M Φ prior to detectable proliferation (Fig. 3C and S1B), while during infection proliferation preceded marker expression (Fig. 3D). The data indicate that IL-4R α -independent proliferation occurs early during infection with subsequent peak proliferation driven by IL-4.

Of note, proliferation induced by a single IL-4c dose subsided after 4d, whereas alternative activation markers were sustained (Fig. 3C and S1B). Following two sequential IL-4c doses at d0 and d2 proliferation remained evident at d4 (Fig. 1A). We therefore titrated the dose of IL-4c. As expected, proliferative activity required

high doses of IL-4, whereas induction of RELM α was maximal at the lowest dose tested (Fig. 3E). Thus, detection of alternative activation markers in the tissues is not synonymous with proliferation, as marker expression may only indicate prior or low-level exposure to IL-4.

IL-4 switches M Φ to CSF-1-independent proliferation. We used CSF1R blockade to assess the potential contribution of CSF1R-signaling to the IL-4R α -independent proliferation that occurs during *Ls* infection. Mice were treated with anti-CSF1R mAb between d8 and 10 to coincide with the approximate onset of alternative activation (Fig. 3D) and when IL-4R-independent proliferation is detectable (Fig. 3B). CSF1R blockade led to a significant reduction in infection-induced proliferation of pleural M Φ (Fig. 4A), whereas alternative activation (Fig. 4A), Th2 responses, and worm burden (data not shown) were unaffected. However, the response in the infected group appeared bimodal, with 13 of 20 anti-CSF1R treated mice showing almost complete inhibition of proliferation (Fig. 4A; black squares), while the remaining animals were similar to controls (Fig. 4A; grey squares). The anti-CSF1R-treated infected animals in which high-level proliferation remained evident showed the highest frequencies of Ym1⁺ M Φ (Fig. 4A; grey squares), and indeed the frequency of M Φ able to proliferate in the presence of anti-CSF1R correlated positively with Ym1⁺ M Φ (Spearman $r = 0.84$, $p < 0.0001$). The data suggest that as the strength of Th2 response and corresponding IL-4R α -signaling increased, the dependence upon CSF1R-signaling for M Φ to proliferate and accumulate during tissue nematode infection declined. In other words, IL-4 can substitute for CSF-1.

CSF-1 is increased in the circulation and local lesions in many infections, chronic inflammation and malignancy (Chitu and Stanley, 2006; Hume and MacDonald, 2011). We therefore measured levels of cytokine in the pleural lavage fluid and serum. There was a modest increase in accumulation of CSF-1 in the pleural cavity of infected anti-CSF1R treated mice compared to naïve controls, but no increase in the serum (Fig. 4B). No correlation was found between the level of pleural CSF-1 and frequency of BrdU⁺ M Φ in anti-CSF1R-treated infected mice (Spearman $r = 0.1398$, $P = 0.5565$), consistent with IL-4R-signalling controlling CSF-1-independent proliferation in these mice directly rather than via elevation of CSF-1.

IL-4R α expression provides a competitive advantage to M Φ during nematode infection. We next infected *Il4ra*^{+/+} *Cd45.I*⁺: *Il4ra*^{-/-} *Cd45.I*^{null} mixed BM chimeric mice with *Js* to investigate the relevance of M Φ -intrinsic IL-4R α -signaling in a setting in which IL-4R α -independent proliferation can occur. In contrast to the highly restricted response seen in these mice following IL-4c injection (Fig. 2D&E), increased proliferation of both *Il4ra*^{+/+} and *Il4ra*^{-/-} pleural F4/80^{High} M Φ was evident by d10 post-*Js* infection (Fig. 5A). The frequency of cycling cells was however, significantly greater in the IL-4R α ⁺ population in all infected mice at this time ($P < 0.001$), and only in these cells did heightened proliferation remain evident at d16 (Fig. 5A). In contrast, production of Ym1 (Fig. 5A) and RELM α (data not shown) during infection was wholly dependent upon M Φ intrinsic IL-4R α -signaling. Consistent with the pattern of proliferation, both *Il4ra*^{+/+} and *Il4ra*^{-/-} populations significantly increased in number in the pleural cavity by d10 post-infection ($P < 0.01$), yet by d16 the IL-4R α ⁻ M Φ , although still elevated in number ($P < 0.05$), were significantly outnumbered by the IL-4R α ⁺ cells (Fig. 5B; $P < 0.05$). The selective-advantage provided by the IL-4R α was only observed in the F4/80^{High} M Φ population and not other myeloid cells (Fig. 5C). Thus, while confirming the existence of an IL-4R α -independent pathway of proliferation, these data show that direct IL-4R α -signaling to M Φ conveys a competitive advantage during infection at least in part by enhancing entry into cell-cycle. These findings explain the emergence of RELM α ⁺ pleural M Φ in M Φ -specific IL-4R α -deficient *LysM*^{cre} *Il4ra*^{-lox} mice during the later phase of *Js* infection (Fig. 5D). Indeed, by day 60 post-infection, RELM α and Ym1 expression by M Φ is indistinguishable between WT and *LysM*^{cre} *Il4ra*^{-lox} mice (data not shown). IL-4R α expression on M Φ in the *LysM*^{cre} *Il4ra*^{-lox} mice was confirmed by surface staining (Fig. 5D). Thus, IL-4R α expression can give M Φ a competitive advantage during a chronic Th2-inflammatory setting such as helminth infection.

Proliferation during infection requires adaptive immunity and is localized to the infection site. We have previously established using *Rag1*^{-/-} mice that IL-4 driven M Φ proliferation *per se* does not require adaptive immunity (Jenkins et al., 2011). In the context of chronic nematode infection however, M Φ accumulation requires Th2 cells and MHC class II (Loke et al., 2007). We thus assessed the requirement for

adaptive immunity in MΦ proliferation during infection. There was a dramatic reduction in the number of F4/80⁺ MΦ in nematode-infected *Rag1*^{-/-} mice compared to WT controls, matched by a complete failure of the MΦ to divide or up-regulate alternative activation markers (Fig. 5E). Consistent with a need for cognate antigen specific interaction, proliferation and alternative activation were localized to the site of parasite infection in WT animals, with significantly ($P < 0.05$) elevated responses observed in the pleural but not the peritoneal cavity of infected mice (Fig. 5F).

IL-4 dependent MΦ proliferation, alternative activation and competitive advantage are features of intestinal nematode infection. Oral infection of BALB/c mice with the gastrointestinal (GI) nematode *Heligmosomoides polygyrus bakeri* (*Hp*) leads to invasion of the submucosa of the duodenum where the worms undergo developmental maturation. Despite restriction of the worms to the GI tract, there is systemic dissemination of Th2 cells with selectivity for the peritoneal cavity (Mohrs et al., 2005). In *Hp* infected mice, there was a striking increase in proliferation of F4/80^{High} resident MΦ by day 7 post-infection in the peritoneal (Fig. 6A) but not the pleural cavity (data not shown) consistent with the localized MΦ proliferation observed in our *Ls* model. Infection led to a 2 to 3-fold increase in cells in the peritoneal lavage, exclusively within the F4/80^{High} MΦ population. As expected for a Th2 setting, these MΦ expressed RELMα and Ym1 (Fig. 6A). As in the *Ls* model, *Il4*^{-/-} mice had a reduced response, although a significant increase in BrdU⁺ ($P < 0.001$), Ki67⁺ ($P < 0.001$) and total MΦ ($P < 0.01$) remained (Fig. 6B). A minor population of Ym1⁺ MΦ were also detected in infected *Il4*^{-/-} mice suggesting a limited influence of IL-13 (Fig. 6B). Blockade of CSF1R signaling demonstrated a CSF1R-dependent component to the proliferative but not the alternative activation response (Fig. 6C), and thus as in the *Ls* model both CSF1R and IL-4Rα signaling also contribute to MΦ proliferation in this model. We also re-examined the relative importance of cell autonomous IL-4R signaling in the *Hp* model. The majority of F4/80^{High} MΦ, but not other myeloid cell populations, were IL-4Rα⁺ by d14 post-infection of *Il4ra*^{+/+} *Cd45.1*⁺: *Il4ra*^{-/-} *Cd45.1*^{null} mixed BM chimeric mice, despite earlier accumulation of both IL-4Rα⁺ and IL-4Rα⁻ cells (Fig. 6D). This competitive advantage was confirmed using *LysM*^{cre} *Il4ra*^{-/lox} mice infected with *Hp*, in which the proportion of RELMα positive cells increased from 4% in naïve mice (data not

shown) to 25% at day 14 and 70% by day 28 (Fig. 6E), by which point more than 50% of the M Φ expressed IL-4R α detectable by flow cytometry (data not shown). Infection with a GI nematode thus led to a M Φ response in the peritoneal cavity that mirrored the pleural cavity during infection with the filarial worm *Ls*. In both models CSF1R and IL-4R α contributed independently to proliferation.

Differing consequences of CSF-1 vs IL-4 induced inflammation. Since both IL-4 and CSF-1 can induce local M Φ proliferation, we sought to compare the M Φ elicited by the two stimuli. To assess the contribution of CSF-1 to cellular dynamics in the serous cavity, we used a new reagent, Fc-CSF-1 designed for stable in vivo delivery of CSF-1. We compared Fc-CSF-1 to IL-4c at similar molar doses that induced maximal levels of proliferation with both reagents ($\geq 80\%$ Ki67⁺ by 48hr, data not shown). Despite near identical levels of M Φ proliferation at 24hr, only IL-4c induced RELM α (Fig. 7A) or Ym1 (data not shown) production. Furthermore, Fc-CSF-1 induced the recruitment of inflammatory cells including neutrophils and Ly-6C⁺ monocytes (Fig. 7B), consistent with its recently described ability to drive pro-inflammatory chemokine production (Tagliani et al., 2011) and acute monocytopenia (Ulich et al., 1990). In striking contrast, no inflammatory recruitment was seen with IL-4c, consistent with the ability of IL-4 to actively down-regulate pro-inflammatory chemokines (Thomas et al., 2012). Thus although CSF-1 and IL-4 both induce M Φ proliferation in the tissues, they have otherwise markedly different consequences. Additionally, these data demonstrate that elevated CSF-1 signaling is sufficient to stimulate heightened proliferation (Fig. 7A) and accumulation (data not shown) of resident M Φ in vivo without need for additional signals that occur during infection/inflammation, and provide some explanation for the elevated peritoneal M Φ numbers seen in the original studies of systemic CSF-1 treatment of mice (Hume et al., 1988).

Discussion

Previous studies demonstrated the requirement for IL-4 to achieve maximal proliferation of M Φ during nematode infection and an absolute requirement for the IL-4R α for M Φ proliferation following IL-4c delivery (Jenkins et al., 2011). Our working hypothesis was that IL-4 acted indirectly via an intermediate cell, to

stimulate production of a M Φ mitogenic factor, such as CSF-1, similar to the process by which a Vitamin D3 analogue acts on keratinocytes to stimulate Langerhans cell proliferation (Chorro et al., 2009). This hypothesis was supported by our preliminary data in which IL-4 driven proliferation was observed in mice apparently lacking IL-4R α on M Φ . However, using mixed BM chimeric mice we demonstrate that M Φ intrinsic IL-4R α signaling is required for M Φ proliferation in response to endogenous or exogenous IL-4. Furthermore, IL-4 mediated proliferation was entirely independent of CSF1R-signalling, in contrast to the homeostatic proliferation of cavity resident M Φ , which is completely dependent upon CSF-1 (Fig. 1A,1B&4A)(Davies et al., 2013). Treatment with IL-4c did not increase production of CSF-1 in either serum or tissues, consistent with an intrinsic and CSF-1-independent effect of IL-4 on M Φ . Thus, it would appear that IL-4R α signaling to M Φ allows their substantial outgrowth above normal tissue levels at least in part by switching them to a CSF-1-independent program of proliferation.

Nevertheless, IL-4R $^+$ M Φ remain reliant upon CSF-1 for survival following IL-4-driven expansion, as indicated by the reduced numbers observed following CSF1R blockade. Seemingly at odds with such a requirement, we found that IL-4 treatment was accompanied by a sharp down-regulation in M Φ transcription of the CSF1R. However, lower levels of CSF1R signaling are required for M Φ survival than are needed for their proliferation (Tushinski et al., 1982). CSF-1 is likely present in the steady-state serous cavities in greater abundance than required for M Φ survival given the evident homeostatic CSF-1-dependent proliferation in these sites (Fig. 1&3)(Davies et al., 2013). We suggest that IL-4-mediated down-regulation of CSF1R reduces local CSF-1 consumption by individual cells thereby maintaining sufficient tissue CSF-1 levels to allow survival of the expanding M Φ population. Such a model would explain how the basal levels of proliferation and total number of IL-4R α^- M Φ in mixed BM chimeras appeared to be maintained at near normal steady-state levels following treatment with IL-4c (Fig. 2E) despite the large out-growth of IL-4R α^+ cells and without corresponding increase in CSF-1 production (Fig. 1D). Together, our data suggest that IL-4 and CSF-1 are entirely distinct in terms of proliferation although CSF-1 is still critical for survival in the context of IL-4 expansion.

During nematode infection, our data suggests that CSF-1 plays an early role in MΦ proliferation but is superseded by IL-4 presumably upon entry of Th2 cells. Supporting this, CSF1R blockade during infection almost completely inhibited proliferation in all WT animals except those exhibiting the highest levels of IL-4 exposure as indicated by the percent of cells expressing alternative activation markers (Fig. 4A). Furthermore, time course analysis during infection demonstrated that proliferation occurred before, but only peaked after, the onset of alternative activation (Fig. 3D), while more sustained and higher proliferation was achieved by IL-4Rα⁺ than IL-4Rα⁻ cells in infected mixed BM chimeric mice (Fig. 5A). Lastly, the restriction of proliferation and MΦ accumulation to the infection site, and the absence any such response in *Rag1*^{-/-} animals (Fig. 5E & F) mirrors our previous findings that MΦ fail to accumulate in a related nematode infection in the absence of Th2 cells (Loke et al., 2007). IL-4 may also contribute to elevated tissue MΦ density during infection through additional cell-intrinsic mechanisms, for example, by reducing reliance on local glucose levels (Vats et al., 2006), inhibiting migration from the tissue (Thomas et al., 2012), or protecting against apoptosis, as occurs in other leukocytes (Wurster et al., 2002). While the mixed *Il4ra*^{+/+}:*Il4ra*^{-/-} BM mice do not reflect the natural distribution of IL-4R expression in vivo, they are critically important for understanding how cell-intrinsic IL-4R-signalling augments MΦ numbers during nematode infection. Furthermore, the data generated using these mice may be relevant to circumstances in which differential IL-4R expression does occur (Wermeling et al., 2013).

RELMα and Ym1 were used here as surrogate markers of IL-4R experienced MΦ. Elsewhere, Ym1 expression has been documented in MΦ from *LysM*^{cre}*Il4ra*^{-lox} mice in the liver granulomas surrounding schistosome eggs and peritoneal cavity following injection of schistosome eggs (Dewals et al., 2010). Because Ym1 expression is reduced significantly by in vivo IL-10 blockage it was concluded that IL-10 induces MΦ Ym1 expression in these settings independently of IL-4 (Dewals et al., 2010). However, we observed a large proportion of serous cavity MΦ in *LysM*^{cre}*Il4ra*^{-lox} mice expressing Ym1 and RELMα in response to IL-4c injection and during infection with *Ls* or *Hp*, with co-staining confirming IL-4Rα expression. Moreover, expression of both Ym1 and RELMα was exclusively restricted to IL-4Rα⁺ MΦ in IL-4-treated

or nematode infected mixed BM chimeric mice despite abundant IL-10 detectable in the pleural lavage fluid during infection (data not shown). It would seem that the selective advantage of IL-4R α expression leads to accrual of a minor non-gene-deleted population, which could account for the Ym1⁺ cells observed in *LysM^{cre}Il4ra^{-lox}* mice during schistosome infection (Dewals et al., 2010). Alternatively, M Φ elicited by schistosome eggs may differ qualitatively from those found during nematode infection and IL-4c injection, being capable of Ym1 production in response to IL-10. In this respect, schistosome eggs elicit CCR2-dependent inflammatory M Φ (Chensue et al., 1996; Lu et al., 1998), contrasting with the resident-derived cells in our systems (Jenkins et al., 2011). Furthermore, *Il4ra^{-/-}* and *LysM^{cre}Il4ra^{-lox}* mice show no defect in overall M Φ numbers elicited to schistosome granulomas (Dewals et al., 2010), perhaps due to the pro-inflammatory nature of the eggs. Therefore, the balance of proliferation vs recruitment in Th2 settings almost certainly depends upon integration of multiple inflammatory signals. Of relevance, variation of IL-4c dose and delivery timing suggested that proliferation may only be apparent in environments in which critical IL-4 thresholds are sustained.

Steady-state proliferation in naïve animals was not influenced by IL-4R α signaling, either in mixed BM chimeric mice, *LysM^{cre}Il4ra^{-lox}* mice or in global IL-4R α -deficient animals demonstrating that IL-4 mediates density of cavity M Φ only under conditions of inflammation and not homeostasis. IL-4R α signaling also had little or no bearing on the wholly CSF-1-dependent elevated proliferation of resident peritoneal M Φ that occurs during resolution of microbial-induced peritonitis (Davies et al., 2013). In this process however, proliferation acts simply to restore the M Φ population to its original level following depletion during the acute stage of inflammation (Davies et al., 2011) and is therefore akin to homeostatic maintenance rather than an inflammatory process. In keeping with this, the levels of CSF-1 did not differ between naïve and inflammatory challenged mice in these studies (Davies et al., 2013). Elevated levels of circulating CSF-1 do occur in many disease states and administration of CSF-1 can greatly increase tissue M Φ numbers in rodents and primates (Hume and MacDonald, 2011), but it is unclear if this increase results from the outgrowth of resident M Φ or recruitment of new monocyte-derived cells. Using a recombinant Fc-CSF-1 fusion protein we demonstrate that CSF-1 efficiently

stimulates proliferation of resident peritoneal MΦ (Fig. 7A). Furthermore, during nematode infection, we detected an approximate doubling in the number of IL-4Rα-deficient MΦ in mixed BM chimeras (Fig. 5) and in global *Il4ra*^{-/-} mice (Fig. 3B), mirroring the two-fold increase in local CSF-1 production (Fig. 5E). Elevated CSF-1 can therefore act during an inflammatory episode to increase local numbers of resident tissue MΦ, and could play a more significant role in expansion of resident MΦ in pathologies in which much higher CSF-1 levels are observed (Hamilton, 2008).

Although both IL-4 and CSF-1 elicited proliferation of resident MΦ, they differed fundamentally in other actions. In particular, injection of Fc-CSF-1 also induced recruitment of Ly6C⁺ monocytes and neutrophils, consistent with reports elsewhere (Lenda et al., 2003; Tagliani et al., 2011), suggesting elevated CSF-1 secretion may act as an emergency stopgap to rapidly fill the tissue MΦ compartment. In contrast, we saw no evidence of increased recruitment of inflammatory cells following IL-4c administration and previously observed recruitment of only low numbers during the early stages of *Ls* infection despite the large increase in resident tissue MΦ (Jenkins et al., 2011). CSF1R signaling directly induces production of CCR2 ligands by tissue MΦ in order to stimulate recruitment of Ly-6C⁺ monocytes (Tagliani et al., 2011), while IL-4 down-regulates MΦ production of CCL2, CCL7, and CCL3, during tissue nematode infection (Thomas et al., 2012). While the finding that IL-4 mediated proliferation is CSF1R-independent was at first unexpected, our data suggests that this mechanism may have developed as an alternative to a CSF-1 pathway in order to increase numbers of resident MΦ without co-incident increase in monocyte recruitment. This could be seen as an additional tissue protective function of IL-4 beyond induction of the immunoregulatory and pro-wound repair phenotype associated with alternative activation (Murray and Wynn, 2011).

In summary, the impact of IL-4 during infections is likely two-fold; it increases numbers without need for recruitment, while in the presence of recruitment it insures a non-inflammatory environment by switching MΦ to an alternatively activated phenotype. Thus, the numerical advantage provided by MΦ IL-4Rα expression combined with the anti-inflammatory chemokine profile, and alternative activation

state ultimately leads to the development of a non-inflammatory environment to contain worm infection and repair tissue regardless of M Φ source.

Acknowledgements

The authors thank A. Fulton, S. Afrough, S. McGarvie and E. Slattery for technical assistance, and Dr. P. Taylor for critical reading of the manuscript. This work was funded by the Medical Research Council UK (G0600818 & MR/K01207X/1 to J.E.A.), with additional support from the Wellcome Trust (strategic award for Centre for Immunity, Infection and Evolution; 082611/Z/07/Z , Ph.D studentship to G.D.T. and grants to R.M.M.). F.B. is a South African Research Chair holder supported by the National Research Foundation (South Africa) and South African Medical Research Council. D.A.H was supported by an Institute Strategic Programme Grant to The Roslin Institute from the BBSRC (project grant BB/H012559/1). The Fc-CSF-1 reagent is the subject of UK patent Application GB1303537.1. The authors have no additional conflicting financial interests.

Material and Methods

Mice

BALB/c *Il4*^{-/-} (Noben-Trauth et al., 1996), *Il4ra*^{-/-}, *LysM*^{cre}*Il4ra*^{-/lox}, and *Il4ra*^{-/lox} mice (Herbert et al., 2004) and C57BL/6 *Il4ra*^{-/-} and *Rag1*^{-/-} mice and wild-type controls were bred and maintained in specific-pathogen free facilities at the University of Edinburgh. All experiments were permitted under a Project License granted by the Home Office UK and were approved by the University of Edinburgh Ethical Review Process. Experimental mice were age and sex matched. C57BL/6 *Il4ra*^{-/-} mice were generated by back-crossing from the BALB/c *Il4ra*^{-/-} strain a minimum of '9' times. Competitive mixed BM chimeric mice were created by lethally irradiating C57BL/6 *Cd45.1*⁺ *Cd45.2*⁺ mice with 11.5 Gy γ radiation administered in two doses approximately 3h apart followed by i.v. injection of with 5×10^6 BM cells depleted of mature T cells using CD90 microbeads (Miltenyi Biotec) and comprised of a 1:1 mix of cells from C57BL/6 *Cd45.2*^{+/+} *Il4ra*^{-/-} mice and C57BL/6 *Cd45.1*⁺ *Cd45.2*⁺ mice. Chimeric animals were left for at least 8 wk before further experimental manipulation.

Parasites and reagents

Hp and *Ls* life cycles were maintained and infective third-stage larvae (L3) obtained as described elsewhere (Behnke and Wakelin, 1977; Le Goff et al., 2002). Mice were infected with 200 *Hp* L3 by oral gavage or 25 *Ls* L3 by s.c. injection. IL-4/anti-IL-4 mAb (IL-4c) were prepared as described previously (Finkelman et al., 1993) and unless stated otherwise, mice injected i.p. with 5 μ g of recombinant IL-4 (Peprotech; 13.5 kDa) complexed to 25 μ g 11B11 (BioXcell) or 100 μ l PBS vehicle control on d0 and 2, and peritoneal and pleural exudate cells harvested on d4. IL-13/anti-IL-13 complexes were similarly prepared using 5 μ g recombinant IL-13 (Peprotech; 12.3 kDa) complexed to 25 μ g eBio13A (eBioscience). Fc-CSF-1 is a fusion protein of pig CSF-1 with the Fc region of pig IgG1A (43.82 kDa total) that was produced using mammalian cell line expression by Zoetis for D. Hume (UK patent Application GB1303537.1). CSF-1 was conjugated to Fc for increased stability in vivo. Extensive studies in mice and pigs reveal that pig CSF-1 is equally active in mice (Gow et al., 2012). The presence of endotoxin-like activity in Fc-CSF-1 was tested in murine bone marrow-derived macrophages. There was no detectable induction of the LPS-responsive TNF- α gene under conditions in which LPS induced the gene more than

1000-fold. Mice were injected with 20 μ g i.p. Fc-CSF-1 in PBS. Where specified, mice were given 1mg BrdU i.p. 3h before experimental end-point.

Isolation of cells from the peritoneal and pleural cavity

Mice were sacrificed by exsanguination via the brachial artery under terminal anesthesia. Following sacrifice, pleural or peritoneal cavity exudate cells were obtained by washing of the cavity with lavage media comprised of RPMI 1640 containing 2mM L-glutamine, 200U/ml Penicillin, 100 μ g / ml Streptomycin and 2 mM EDTA (Invitrogen). The first 2 or 3ml of lavage wash supernatant from the pleural or peritoneal cavities, respectively, was frozen prior to analysis by ELSIA. Worm burden in the pleural lavage fluid of *Ls* infected mice was determined by counting under a Leica MZ9 stereo-microscope. Erythrocytes were removed by incubating with red blood cell lysis buffer. Cellular content of the cavities and organs was assessed by cell counting using a Casy TT cell counter (Roche) in combination with multi-color flow-cytometry.

Flow cytometry

Equal numbers of cells or 20 μ l of blood were stained for each sample. Blood samples were mixed and washed with Hank's buffered saline solution containing 2mM EDTA (Invitrogen). Cells were stained with LIVE/DEAD® (Invitrogen). All samples were then blocked with 5 μ g/ml anti-CD16/32 (2.4G2; produced in-house) and heat-inactivated normal mouse serum (1:20) in FACS buffer (0.5% BSA, 2mM EDTA in Dulbeccos PBS) before surface staining on ice with antibodies to F4/80 (BM8), Siglec-F (E50-2440), Ly-6C (AL-21 or HK1.4), Gr-1 (RB6-8C5), CD11b (M1/70), CD11c (N418), MHCII (M5/114.15.2), CD19 (eBio1D3), CD4 (GK1.5), CD3 (17A2), CD115 (AFS98), IL-4R α (mIL4R-M1), CD45.1 (A20) or CD45.2 (104) (eBioscience, or BD Europe). Erythrocytes in blood samples were lysed using FACSlyse solution (BD Europe).

Detection of intracellular RELM α , Ym1, Ki67 and BrdU was performed directly *ex vivo*. Cells were stained for surface markers then fixed and permeabilized using FoxP3 staining buffer set (eBioscience). For BrdU staining, cells were incubated first with or without DNase for 30 mins at 37°C. Cells were then stained with biotinylated

goat anti-Ym1 (R & D Systems), purified polyclonal rabbit anti-RELM α (Peprotech EC, London, UK) or directly labeled monoclonal antibodies to Ki67 (B57) or anti-BrdU (B44 or Bu20a) (BD Europe or Biolegend) followed by Zenon anti-rabbit reagent (Invitrogen) or Streptavidin-conjugated fluorochromes (Biolegend). Expression of Ym1, RELM α and Ki67 was determined relative to appropriate polyclonal or monoclonal isotype control, whereas incorporation of BrdU was determined relative to staining on non-DNase treated cells. Analysis of proliferation and alternative activation was performed on single live cells, determined using LIVE/DEAD[®] and forward-scatter width (FSC-W) vs forward-scatter area (FSC-A), respectively, and subsequently gated on CD19⁻ cells to remove B-cell:M Φ doublets. Analysis for calculation of total F4/80^{High} M Φ was performed on all cells. Samples were acquired using FACS LSR II or FACS Canto II using BD FACSDiva software (BD Europe) and analyzed with FlowJo v9 software (Tree Star, Inc.).

Analysis of M Φ from competitive mixed BM chimeras

M Φ derived from *Cd45.1⁺ Il4ra^{+/+}* BM appeared to have a greater tendency to form doublets with CD19⁺ B cells following injection of IL-4c than cells derived from *Cd45.1⁻ Il4ra^{-/-}* BM, as judged by the high level of F4/80 expression on B cell:M Φ doublets (Fig. S2A), a marker which is known to be up-regulated by IL-4R-signaling (Jenkins et al., 2011). If doublets were excluded from analysis, such bias in doublet formation would distort the ratio of WT to *Il4ra^{-/-}* M Φ . Thus, cells were treated for 5 minutes with Accumax cell aggregate dissociation medium (eBioscience) immediately prior to fixation, and population frequency analysis performed without a single cell gate applied. To further prevent bias induced by the few remaining doublets, the gate for CD45.1⁺ CD45.2⁺ cells was set to exclude events that deviated from the expected linear relationship of CD45.1 and CD45.2 on this population (R1 Fig. S2B). Analysis of proliferation and alternative activation in these experiments was performed on CD19⁻ F4/80^{High} M Φ gated on single cells, using FSC-W vs FSC-A, to minimize the potential for false positives (R2 Fig. S2B). Due to a minor bias towards more WT than *Il4ra^{-/-}* pleural M Φ in naïve chimeras, 1-way ANOVA was used to analyze differences in cell numbers following infection, whereas paired statistical tests were used to analyze rates of proliferation and alternative activation, to better account for the variation in overall level of proliferation between mice.

CSF1R studies

Mice were injected i.p. with 0.5 mg anti-CSF1R mAb (Clone AFS98), purified rat IgG control antibody, or PBS vehicle control either concurrent with IL-4c injections or on d8 post-*Ls* infection or d6 post-*Hp* infection. AFS98 mAb and purified rat IgG control were produced in house from cultured hybridoma cells or from naïve rat serum respectively. The c-fms kinase inhibitor GW2580 (Conway et al., 2005) (LC Laboratories) was suspended in 0.5% hydroxypropylmethylcellulose and 0.1% Tween20 using a Teflon glass homogenizer. Diluent control or 160 mg / kg GW2580 were administered daily by oral gavage from 1h before initial dose of IL-4c on d0, to 5h before mice were culled on d3. Previous pharmacokinetic analysis has shown this daily dose regime is as effective as twice daily administration of 80 mg / kg and maintains a serum concentration of the drug over 24h above that estimated to achieve therapeutic effect (Priceman et al., 2010). Analysis of CSF-1 in brachial arterial blood and pleural lavage fluid was performed as per manufacturers instruction (Peprotech EC).

MΦ purification and gene expression

Gene expression analysis on MΦ from IL-4c or PBS treated mice was performed on mRNA for which we have previously published data (Ruckerl et al., 2012). Briefly, 24h after treatment of mice with PBS or IL-4c peritoneal MΦ were sorted using a FACSAria cell sorter (BD Biosciences) according to their expression of F4/80⁺, Siglec-F⁻, CD11b⁺, CD11c⁻, B220⁻, CD3⁻ to purities above 90%. Total RNA was then isolated using the miRNEasy-kit (Qiagen) according to manufacturers instructions, measured using a NanoDrop (Thermo Scientific) and converted to cDNA with BioScript™ Reverse Transcriptase (Bioline) and p(dT)₁₅ Primers (Roche Applied Science). Expression levels were quantified using LightCycler® 480 SYBR Green I Master (Roche Applied Science), with measurements performed on a Lightcycler® 480 (Roche Applied Science). Expression of *Csf1r* (5'-CGAGGGAGACTCCAGCTACA-3' & 5'-GACTGGAGAAGCCACTGTCC-3') was normalized against *Gapdh* (5'-ATGACATCAAGAAGGTGGTG-3' & 5'-CATACCAGGAAATGAGCTTG-3').

Statistics

Data was log-transformed to achieve normal distribution and equal variance where required and then tested using 1-way ANOVA, or *t* test. Where equal variance or normal distribution was not achieved, Kruskal Wallance, or Spearman correlation was used. Paired *t* test was used to determine differences between proliferation and alternative activation of CD45.1⁺ and CD45.1⁻ MΦ obtained from *Ls*-infected competitive mixed BM chimeric mice. Statistics were performed using Prism 5 (GraphPad Software). Each data point represents one animal, with horizontal bars indicate mean values unless otherwise specified.

Online supplementary material. Fig. S1A shows that MΦ in S phase express the highest levels of Ki67, such that gating on Ki67^{High} cells provides an accurate estimate of their frequency. Fig. S1B provides representative flow cytograms of Ki67, RELMα and Ym1 staining on peritoneal and pleural MΦ at various time after IL-4c injection. Fig. S2 shows the gating strategy used to determine frequency of MΦ subsets from competitive mixed BM chimera experiments.

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Figure 1. IL-4 drives CSF-1-independent MΦ proliferation.

(A) BL/6 mice were injected i.p. with IL-4c or PBS plus anti-CSF1R mAb (CSF1R), Rat IgG (RIgG) or PBS on d0 or d2. The proportion of F4/80^{High} pleural MΦ positive for Ki67, Ki67^{High} or RELMα and total MΦ numbers were determined by flow-cytometry on d2 after the last injection. Graphs depict individual data for 4 mice/group. (B) As (A) but on d3 after daily oral gavage with vehicle control or GW2580 on d0 to 3. (C) Mice were injected with single dose of PBS or IL-4c and the expression of CSF1R mRNA determined 24h later in FACS-purified F4/80^{High} peritoneal MΦ. **P* < 0.001 determined by two-tailed *t* test. Individual data for 5 mice/group is shown. (D) CSF-1 levels in pleural lavage fluid and serum from mice in (A) determined by ELISA. All data are representative of 2-3 separate experiments, with the same results observed in the peritoneal cavity.

Figure 2. MΦ-intrinsic IL-4Rα signaling is essential for proliferation and alternative activation triggered by IL-4c.

(A) *LysM^{cre}Il4ra^{-lox}* BALB/c mice were injected i.p. on d0 and 2 with PBS or IL-4c and peritoneal lavage cells analyzed on d4 by flow cytometry for BrdU incorporation, or Ki67, RELMα and Ym1 versus F4/80 expression. Representative flow-cytograms gated on F4/80^{High} peritoneal MΦ with frequencies depicting the mean ± SEM of 4 mice per group. (B) *Il4ra^{-lox}* (Het), *LysM^{cre}Il4ra^{-lox}* (Lys) or *Il4ra^{-/-}* (-/-) BALB/c were treated with PBS (open) or IL-4c (filled) as in (A) and BrdU incorporation by F4/80^{High} pleural MΦ determined on d3 together with the frequency of BrdU⁺ cells in RELMα positive (+) or negative (-) F4/80^{High} MΦ from the IL-4c-treated *LysM^{cre}Il4ra^{-lox}* group. **P* < 0.05, ***P* < 0.01, and ****P* < 0.001 determined by ANOVA (left graph) or paired *t* test (right graph). Data are representative of 4 independent experiments inclusive of data in (A), with 3-4 mice/group. (C) BL/6 *Il4ra^{+/+}Cd45.1⁺Cd45.2⁺* mice were lethally irradiated and reconstituted with a 50:50 mix of *Il4ra^{+/+}Cd45.1⁺Cd45.2⁺* and *Il4ra^{-/-}Cd45.1^{null}Cd45.2^{+/+}* congenic BM cells. The frequency of blood monocytes (gated as side-scatter [SSC]^{Low} CD11b⁺ CD115⁺) derived from each BM was determined by analysis of CD45.1 and CD45.2 expression 8 wk later. A representative flow cytogram of CD45.1 and CD45.2 expression on blood monocytes is shown together with a graph depicting the frequency of CD45.1⁺ and CD45.1⁻ monocytes in all blood leukocytes from 10 individual mice. (D) Mice from (C) were subsequently injected

i.p. twice, two days apart, with PBS or IL-4c and pleural lavage cells analyzed 2d after the last injection for CD45.1 and CD45.2 expression. Representative flow cytograms gated on all live F4/80^{High} MΦ are shown together with a graph depicting the total number of *Il4ra*^{+/+} *Cd45.1*⁺ (closed circles) and *Il4ra*^{-/-} *Cd45.1*^{null} (open circles) pleural F4/80^{High} MΦ in each group, with individual data for 5 mice/group presented. (E) Representative flow cytograms depicting CD45.1 expression versus BrdU incorporation or Ym1 expression gated on single F4/80^{High} CD19⁻ pleural MΦ from mice in (D), and graphs showing the proportion of *Il4ra*^{+/+} *Cd45.1*⁺ (closed circles) and *Il4ra*^{-/-} *Cd45.1*^{null} (open circles) F4/80^{High} CD19⁻ MΦ positive for BrdU or Ym1 for individual mice. (C-E) Representative of 2 experiments.

Figure 3. IL-4Rα-dependent and independent mechanisms of proliferation during nematode infection. (A) BL/6 mice were given a single i.p. injection of IL-13c, IL-4c or PBS and the proportion of BrdU⁺, Ki67⁺, and RELMα⁺ F4/80^{High} peritoneal MΦ determined 36hr later. Graphs depict individual data for 6 mice per group and are representative of 2 independent experiments. Horizontal bars indicate median values. Equivalent results were obtained in the pleural cavity. **P* < 0.05, ***P* < 0.01, and ****P* < 0.001 determined by Kruskal-Wallis test. (B) C57BL/6 (WT) and *Il4ra*^{-/-} (-/-) mice were infected with *Ls* and the total number of F4/80^{High} pleural MΦ and the proportion positive for BrdU, Ki67, and RELMα determined on d10. Results pooled from 2 experiments with 15-16 mice/group shown. ***P* < 0.01 and ****P* < 0.001 determined by ANOVA. (C) BL/6 mice were given a single i.p. dose of IL-4c (solid line) or PBS (dashed line), following which the total number of pleural cavity F4/80^{High} MΦ and the proportion positive for RELMα, Ki67^{High} or Ki67, were determined over a 4d time course. Data are mean ± SEM of 4 mice/group, representative of 2 experiments, and with the same results obtained for peritoneal MΦ. Day zero represents naïve. (D) As (C) but from *Ls*-infected (solid line) or naïve (dashed line) mice. Data are mean ± SEM from 4-5 mice per group and representative of 3 experiments. (E) Representative flow cytograms of F4/80^{High} peritoneal MΦ 4d after a single i.p. injection of PBS or IL-4c containing 5, 1.25, or 0.31 μg of IL-4 on d0 and 2. Frequencies are means with SEM in brackets of 3-6 IL-4c-treated animals per group, or a single value for pooled cells from 3 PBS-treated mice. A repeat using a single injection regime verified dose effect for both of IL-4c and IL-13c.

Figure 4. Elevated CSF-1 production contributes to MΦ proliferation during tissue nematode infection. (A) BL/6 mice were infected with *Ls* and injected i.p. on d8 with anti-CSF1R mAb (CSF1R), Rat IgG (RIgG) or PBS. Total number of F4/80^{High} pleural MΦ and the proportion positive for BrdU, Ki67 or Ym1 were determined on d10. Data is pooled from 2 experiments with 7, 13, and 20 mice for naïve, PBS and RIgG treated infected, and anti-CSFR1-treated infected, groups respectively. **P* < 0.05 and ***P* < 0.01 determined by Kruskal-Wallis test. (B) CSF-1 levels in pleural lavage (left) or serum (right) from mice in (A) determined by ELISA. (A&B) Horizontal bars indicate median.

Figure 5. IL-4Rα signaling to MΦ provides a competitive advantage during tissue nematode infection. (A) BL/6 *Il4ra*^{+/+}*Cd45.1*⁺*Cd45.2*⁺ mice were lethally irradiated and reconstituted with a 50:50 mix of *Il4ra*^{+/+}*Cd45.1*⁺*Cd45.2*⁺ and *Il4ra*^{-/-}*Cd45.1*^{null}*Cd45.2*^{+/+} congenic BM cells over 8 wk. Mice were infected with *Ls* following which BrdU incorporation or Ym1 expression versus expression of CD45.1 was determined on single F4/80^{High} CD19⁻ pleural MΦ at d10 and 16 post-infection. Representative flow cytograms are shown, while graphs depict the proportion of IL-4Rα⁺ CD45.1⁺ (closed squares) and IL-4Rα⁻ CD45.1⁻ (open squares) cells positive for BrdU or Ym1, with each line illustrating paired measurements from individual mice. Data pooled from 2 experiments, with 11-12 mice/group. ****P* < 0.001 determined by paired *t* test. (B) CD45.1 and CD45.2 expression gated on all F4/80^{High} pleural MΦ from mice in (A) and graphical presentation of the total number of IL-4Rα⁺ CD45.1⁺ (closed squares) and IL-4Rα⁻ CD45.2^{+/+} (open squares) subsets of these cells. **P* < 0.05, ***P* < 0.01, and ****P* < 0.001 determined by Kruskal-Wallis test. Horizontal bars indicate median values. (C) Frequency of IL-4Rα⁺ CD45.1⁺ cells within CD115⁺ CD11b⁺ SSC^{Low} blood monocytes and pleural cavity eosinophils (SSC^{High}, F4/80^{Low}, MHCII⁻), DC (CD11c^{High} MHCII^{High}) and F4/80^{High} MΦ at d10 and 16 post-infection of mice in (A), with lines joining cells of individual mice. (D) *Il4ra*^{+/+} (WT), *Il4ra*^{-/lox} (Het), *LysM*^{cre}*Il4ra*^{-/lox} (*Lys*) or *Il4ra*^{-/-} (-/-) mice were infected with *Ls* or left naïve and RELMα and IL-4Rα staining on F4/80^{High} pleural MΦ determined at d17. Frequencies are means with SEM in brackets of 5-7 mice/group. The emergence of RELMα⁺ MΦ in *LysM*^{cre}*Il4ra*^{-/lox} mice was confirmed in a further 3 independent

experiments between d14 and 60 post-infection. **(E)** C57BL/6 (WT) or *Rag1*^{-/-} (-/-) mice were infected with *Ls* and the total number of pleural cavity F4/80^{High} MΦ and the proportion incorporating BrdU or expressing Ym1 was determined on d10, with mean and SEM of 5 mice/group shown. **(F)** As (E) but both peritoneal (PeC) and pleural (PleC) cavity F4/80^{High} MΦ from naïve (open circles) or *Ls*-infected C57BL/6 mice were analyzed at 10d post-infection. Representative of 3 experiments with 8 mice/group. **P* < 0.05 and ***P* < 0.01 determined by Kruskal-Wallis test. Horizontal bars indicate median values.

Figure 6. IL-4 dependent proliferation occurs during GI nematode infection and provides a competitive advantage to IL-4Rα⁺ MΦ.

(A) BALB/c mice were infected orally with *Hp* and peritoneal lavage cells assessed at d7. Representative flow cytograms of all peritoneal cells showing gates and frequencies for all, or BrdU⁺, Ki67⁺, RELMα⁺ or Ym1⁺, F4/80^{High} MΦ. Representative of 5 experiments. **(B)** BALB/c (WT) or *Il4*^{-/-} (-/-) mice were infected with *Hp* (closed symbols) or left naïve (open symbols) and the total peritoneal F4/80^{High} MΦ and the proportion positive for BrdU, Ki67, Ym1, and RELMα⁺, determined on d7. Representative of 3 experiments with 3-4 mice per group. **P* < 0.05, ***P* < 0.01 and ****P* < 0.001 determined by ANOVA. **(C)** As (B) but following treatment of BALB/c mice with anti-CSF1R mAb (CSF1R) or Rat IgG (IgG) on d6. **(D)** *Il4ra*^{+/+} *Cd45.1*⁺ *Cd45.2*⁺ mice were lethally irradiated and reconstituted for 8 wk with a 50:50 mix of *Il4ra*^{+/+} *Cd45.1*⁺ *Cd45.2*⁺ and *Il4ra*^{-/-} *Cd45.1*^{null} *Cd45.2*⁺ congenic BM cells before infection with *Hp*. The frequency of CD45.1⁺ cells in different leukocyte subsets in the peritoneal cavity in naïve (open symbols) and *Hp*-infected mice (closed symbols) was determined on d7 and 14 post-infection. The graph shows total numbers of *Il4ra*^{+/+} *Cd45.1*⁺ and *Il4ra*^{-/-} *Cd45.1*^{null} peritoneal F4/80^{High} MΦ obtained in naïve (open) and infected (closed) mice at each time-point. **(E)** *Il4ra*^{-/lox} (Het), *LysM*^{cre} *Il4ra*^{-/lox} (Lys) or *Il4ra*^{-/-} (-/-) mice were infected with *Hp* and RELMα expression by F4/80^{High} peritoneal MΦ determined on d14 and 28. (C-E) Data are from independent experiments performed once and are confirmatory of data from the *Ls* model.

Figure 7. CSF-1 but not IL-4 stimulates neutrophil and monocyte recruitment alongside elevated proliferation of resident tissue MΦ. (A) BL/6 mice were injected i.p. with PBS (open circles), Fc-CSF-1 (closed squares) or IL-4c (closed triangles) and Ki67 and RELM α expression by F4/80^{High} peritoneal MΦ determined 24h later. Representative flow cytograms show all live peritoneal lavage cells. Data representative of 2 independent experiments. (B) Total Ly-6C⁺ CD115⁺ monocytes and Ly-6C^{Intermediate} SSC^{Intermediate} neutrophils in peritoneal lavage cells from mice in (A), and representative flow-cytograms depicting gating strategies. Upper flow-cytograms also depict CD115⁺ Ly6C⁻ monocytes/MΦ (left-hand gate) and lower flow-cytograms show SSC^{High} Ly6C^{Low} eosinophil gate, both of which exhibited no change in total number.

Figure S1. Ex vivo S phase MΦ are distinguished by high levels of Ki67 expression. (A) BL/6 mice were injected with PBS or IL-4c on d0 and 2 and peritoneal cavity F4/80^{High} MΦ analyzed on d4 for Ki67 expression versus BrdU incorporation. Frequency of cells expressing high levels of Ki67 (*italics*) is approximate to those positive for BrdU (Roman text). Gates distinguishing positive events were set using isotype control staining (Ki67) or the absence of DNase treatment (BrdU). Representative of pleural and peritoneal MΦ from 4 separate experiments. (B) BL/6 mice were given a single i.p. injection of IL-4c or PBS and single F4/80^{High} CD19⁻ MΦ from peritoneal and pleural cavities were assessed over the following 96h period for proliferation and alternative activation. Representative flow cytograms depict the gates used to determine the frequency of Ki67⁺, Ki67^{High}, RELM α ⁺ and Ym1⁺ cells, with the proportion of F4/80^{High} MΦ in cell cycle or S phase determined as Ki67⁺ or Ki67^{High}, respectively. Of note, control injection of PBS led to a small but significant increase in proliferation of MΦ in the peritoneal cavity injection site but not in the pleural cavity suggesting that 27G needle stick injury drives MΦ into cycle, with ramifications for methodologies used to directly manipulate tissue sites and study MΦ functions. Data is from the same experiment as that shown in Fig. 3C.

Figure S2. Dissociation of cell aggregates for analysis of F4/80^{High} MΦ composition. (A) FSC-A vs FSC-W plots of pleural cavity cells from PBS or IL-4c

treated animals showed that between 20-25% of events are doublets. The majority of these were B cell:B cell events (data not shown) but the second most common were B cell:M Φ doublets, identified as F4/80^{High} CD19⁺. The proportion of M Φ in doublets with B cells increased greatly to almost 50% upon treatment with IL-4c, and appeared mainly formed of cells expressing the highest levels F4/80, suggesting a wild-type CD45.1⁺ phenotype. (B) Less than 10% of pleural cavity events were doublets when Accumax cell aggregate dissociation medium was used prior to fixation. Almost all remaining doublets were B cell:B cell interactions (data not shown), with B-cell:M Φ doublets reduced to \leq 10% of all F4/80^{High} events. However, to further prevent bias induced by these remaining doublets, the CD45.1⁺ CD45.2⁺ cell gate was set to exclude events that deviated from the expected linear relationship between CD45.1 and CD45.2 on this population. The absence of such events on dot-plots from which doublets had been excluded using a FSC-A vs FSC-W gate confirmed them to be doublets of CD45.1⁻ CD45.1⁺ and CD45.1⁺ CD45.2⁺ cells. Analysis of M Φ CD45.1/CD45.2 composition was performed on all live F4/80^{High} cells (R1), whereas analysis of proliferation and alternative activation was performed on CD19⁻ F4/80^{High} cells gated on single events (R2).

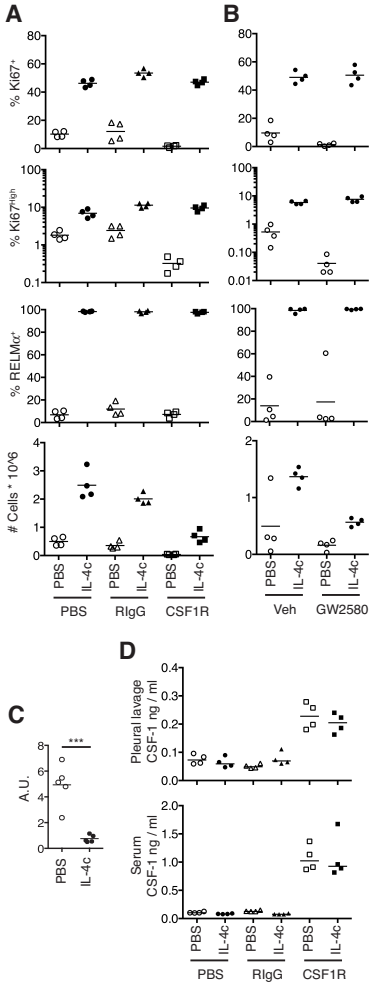


Figure 1

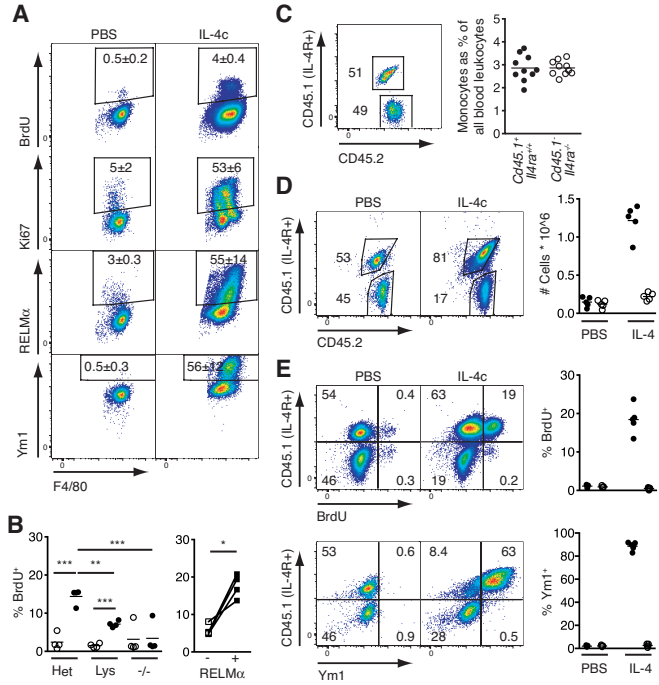


Figure 2

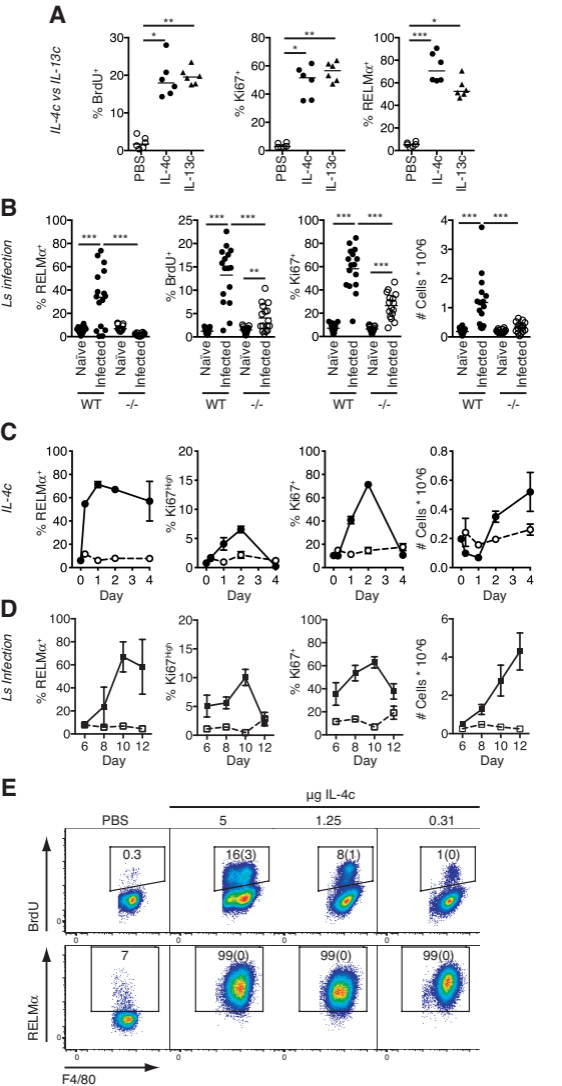


Figure 3

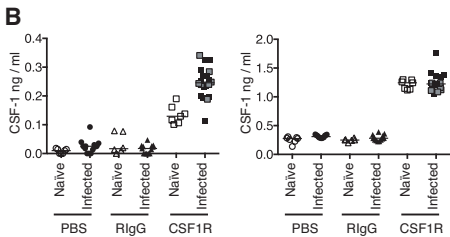
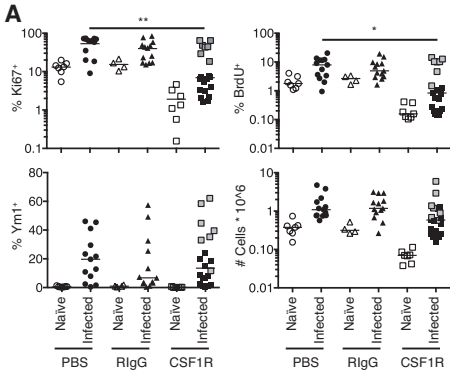


Figure 4

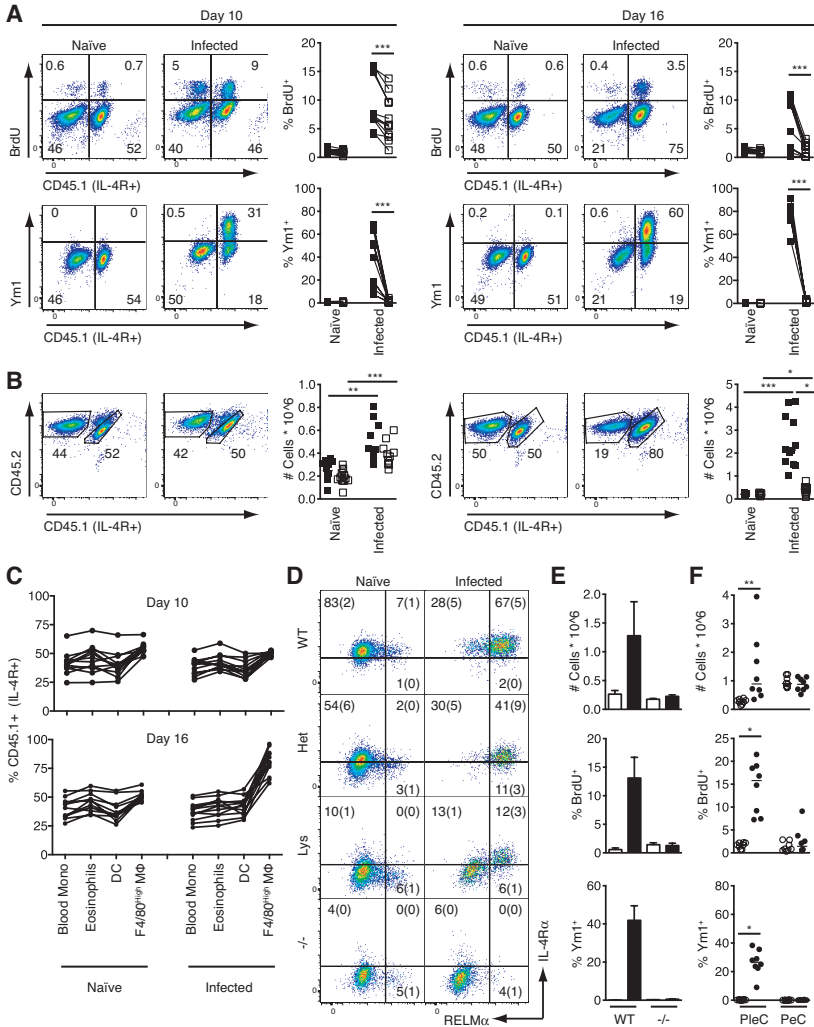


Figure 5

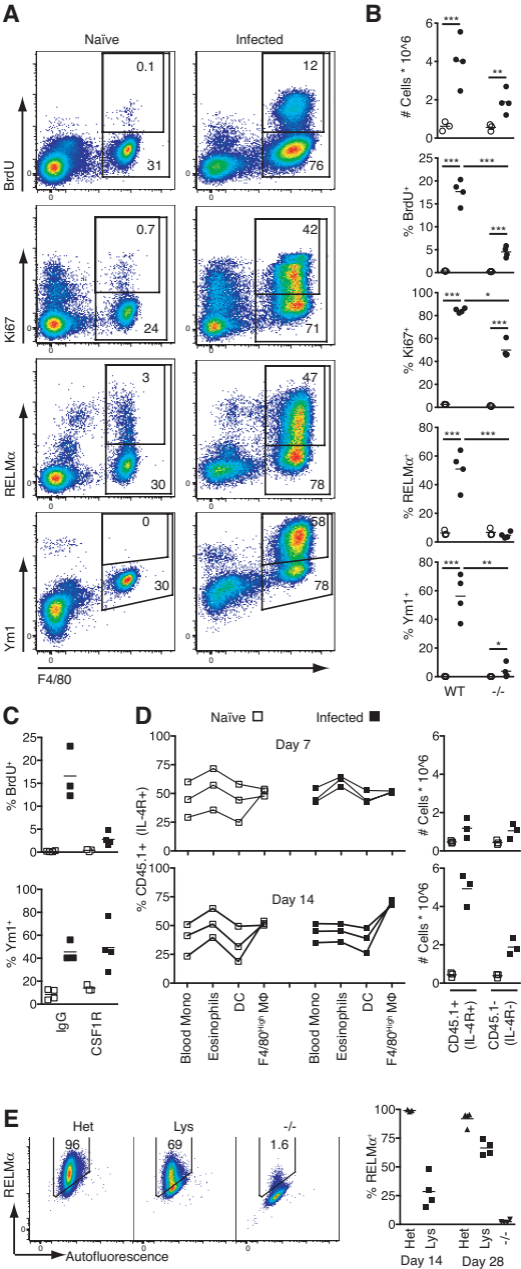


Figure 6

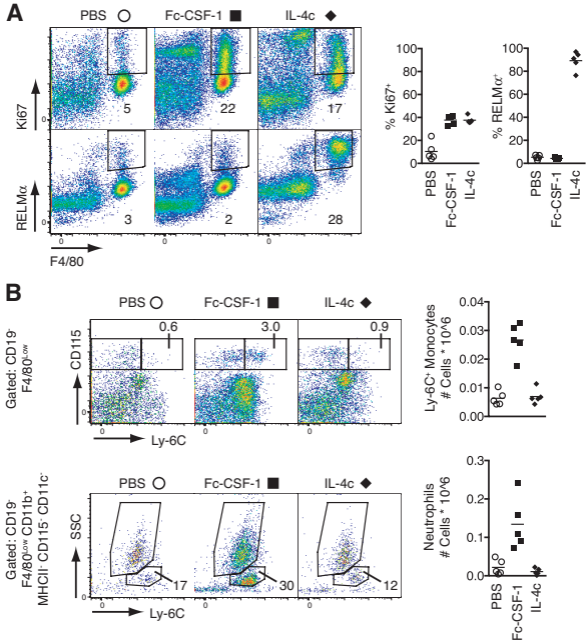


Figure 7

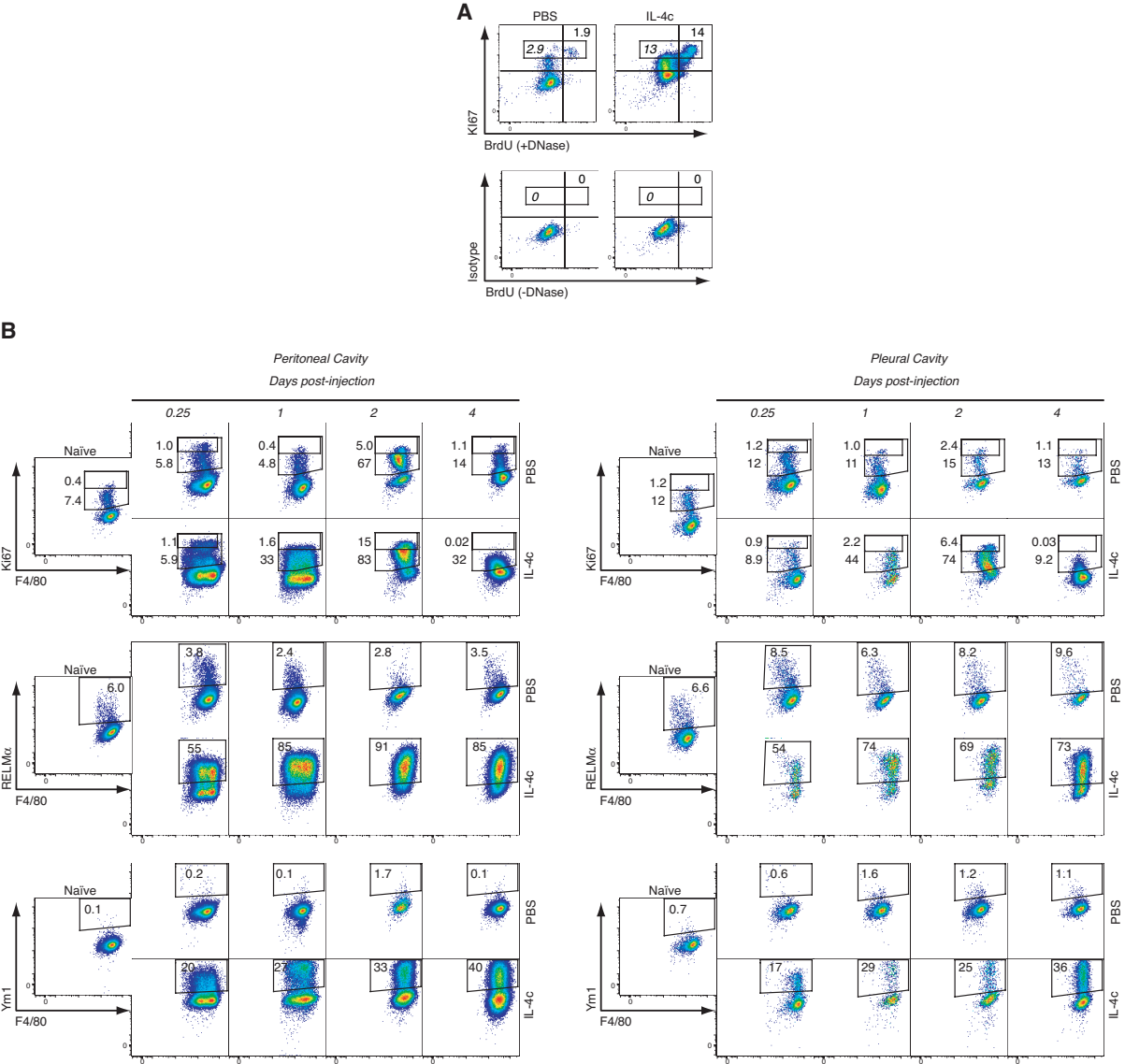
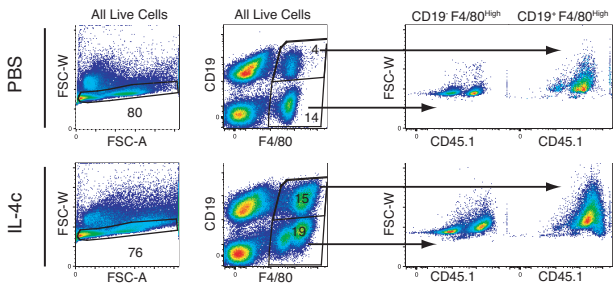


Figure S1

A Standard procedure



B Cell dissociation prior to fixation

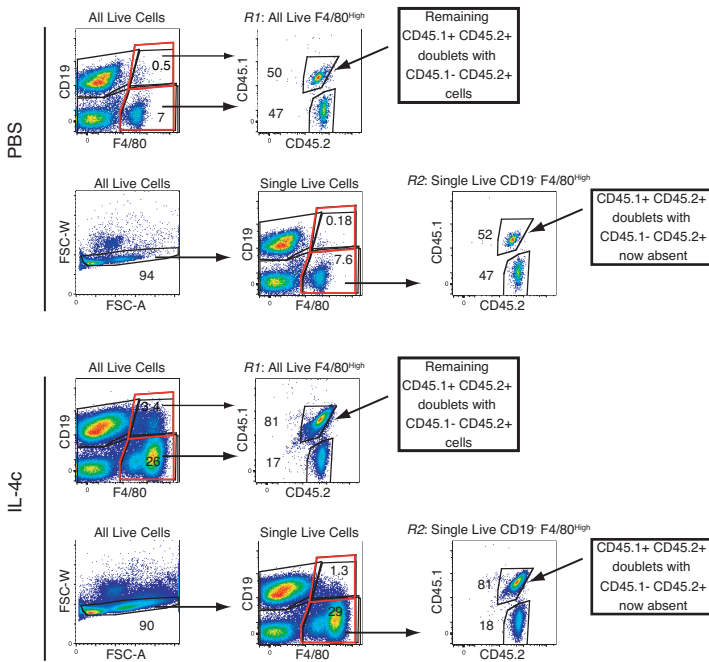


Figure S2