Inflammatory dendritic cells in mouse and human Elodie Segura^{1,2} and Sebastian Amigorena^{1,2} 1. INSERM U932, 26 rue d'Ulm, 75005 Paris, France 2. Institut Curie, Section Recherche, 26 rue d'Ulm, 75005 Paris, France Corresponding author: Elodie Segura, elodie.segura@curie.fr, +33-156246720 Keywords: dendritic cells; inflammation

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Abstract

3 Dendritic cells (DCs) are a heterogeneous population of professional antigen-presenting cells. 4 Several murine DC subsets have been identified that differ in their phenotype and functional 5 properties. In the steady state, DC precursors originating from the bone marrow give rise to lymphoid organ-resident DCs and to migratory tissue DCs. During inflammation, an 6 7 additional DC subset has been described, the «inflammatory DCs » (infDCs), which differentiate from monocytes recruited to the site of inflammation. Here, we review recent 8 9 work on the development and functions of murine infDCs. We also examine the criteria that 10 define infDCs. Finally, we discuss the characterization of human infDCs and their potential

in

inflammatory

diseases.

Dendritic cells (DCs) are a heterogeneous population comprising several subsets that can be separated based on phenotypic markers. Murine steady-state DC subsets can be classified in two main categories: plasmacytoid DCs (pDCs) and conventional DCs (cDCs), which can be further divided into lymphoid organ-resident DCs (that remain in lymphoid organs during their entire life cycle) and migratory DCs (that are present in peripheral tissues and non-lymphoid organs and migrate to the draining lymph nodes). cDCs derive from a common precommitted precursor, the pre-cDC, that is dependent on Fms-like tyrosine kinase 3-Ligand (Flt3L) [1] and share key functional properties, such as constitutive expression of MHC class II molecules, ability to process antigens and to stimulate naive T cells, as well as molecular signatures [2, 3].

Definition of inflammatory DCs

In mice, inflammatory DCs (infDCs) were initially identified as MHC II⁺ CD11b⁺ CD11c⁺ F4/80⁺ Ly6C⁺ DCs that are absent from steady-state tissues and lymphoid organs, and differentiate from monocytes during inflammation [4]. InfDCs have since been described during pathogenic inflammation (cutaneous *Leishmania major* infection [4, 5], systemic *Listeria monocytogenes* infection [6-8], systemic *Trypanosoma brucei* infection [9, 10], fungal infections [11-13], genital *Herpes simplex* virus-2 (HSV-2) infection [14], lung Influenza infection [8, 15, 16], lung *Streptococcus pneumoniae* infection [8], oral *Salmonella Typhimurium* infection [8], *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* lung infection [17] and mycobacterial granuloma [18]), experimental sterile inflammation [19-23] and in models of inflammatory diseases, such as allergic asthma [24, 25], colitis [26, 27], rheumatoid arthritis [28] and experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis (EAE) [8, 29].

1 The phenotypic description of infDCs has been completed by several studies: in addition to 2 MHC II, CD11b, CD11c, F4/80, Ly6C [4], infDCs express CD206 [22], CD115/GM-CSFR 3 [5, 8], Mac3 [8, 19], FceRI [24] and CD64 [8, 25]. Because of the promiscuous expression of 4 some of these markers on myeloid cell populations, infDCs are not always easily identified 5 (Box1). FceRI is probably the best marker to distinguish infDCs from macrophages and cDCs (Table 1), and a recent study proposed combined FcERI and CD64 staining as the best gating 6 7 strategy to analyze infDCs in both tissues and lymphoid organs [25]. 8 9 A cardinal feature of DCs, as opposed to macrophages, is their ability to migrate from tissues 10 to lymph nodes. InfDCs have been identified in lymph nodes draining the sites of infection in 11 several studies [4, 11, 15, 20, 23-25, 28]. This migration appears to be CCR7-dependent 12 because infDCs in lymph nodes express CCR7 [4, 23, 25], and infDCs from alum-injected 13 muscle [23] and allergen-loaded lung-derived DCs (including infDCs) in allergic asthma [25] were absent from the draining lymph nodes of CCR7^{-/-} mice. Consistent with this, the infDCs 14 15 that are found in the lymph nodes of *plt* mice (that do not express CCR7 ligands) have been proposed to derive from monocytes that enter directly from the blood rather than from 16 17 lymphatics [21]. 18 Finally, infDCs are characterized by their ability to activate T cells, a key property of DCs 19 (see below). By contrast, macrophages purified from inflamed tissues can not activate 20 antigen-specific T cells ex vivo in vaginal HSV-2 infection [14], in a model of EAE [29] or a 21 model of allergen-induced asthma [25], although in the latest they were shown to capture the 22 allergen very efficiently.

Development of infDCs

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InfDCs were initially described to differentiate *in situ* from monocytes recruited to the sites of inflammation [4]. Several lines of evidence support a precursor-product relationship between monocytes and infDCs. *In vivo* transfer experiments have shown that injected monocytes differentiate into infDCs in different inflammation models [4, 8, 9, 11, 19, 20, 25-27, 30]. A similar conclusion was drawn using a reporter mouse expressing fluorescent CCR2 (a chemokine receptor expressed by monocytes and required for their migration), in which infDCs that express CCR2 appear during *Aspergillus fumigatus* infection [11]. In addition, in the absence of monocyte migration in CCR2^{-/-} mice [5, 10-12, 14, 16, 21], infDC numbers are greatly reduced in inflamed tissues and draining lymph nodes. Consistent with this, infDCs are not affected in Flt3L^{-/-} mice [25] whereas cDCs are dramatically reduced [1], suggesting that infDCs do not derive from pre-cDCs (Fig1).

Although most DCs in the steady-state derive from pre-cDCs, some DC subpopulations, such as intestinal CD103⁻CD11b⁺ DCs, originate from monocytes [31, 32]. Recent evidence, however, suggests that this population is heterogeneous and includes macrophages [33]. Moreover, in addition to cDCs some monocyte-derived DCs are also found in skeletal muscle, but these cells do not migrate to the lymph nodes in the steady-state [23]. Therefore, only monocyte-derived DCs appearing during inflammation should be termed infDCs.

Little is known about the factors that drive infDC differentiation. Because bone marrow monocytes cultured with GM-CSF differentiate into DCs that phenotypically resemble infDCs [34], GM-CSF was initially proposed to be involved in infDC development. In addition, infDCs were described in several GM-CSF-dependent inflammation models [19, 28]. However, a recent study using GM-CSFR-/- bone marrow chimeras showed that GM-CSF was dispensable for infDCs development during pathogen-induced lung inflammation or

systemic inflammation [8]. By contrast, infDC numbers were reduced in the absence of M-CSFR [8]. These results do not exclude a role for GM-CSF in infDC maintenance or survival, especially during chronic inflammation. Although MyD88 and IFNγ signaling are required for infDC activation [5, 7, 10, 20], it seems that they are not required for their actual differentiation from monocytes [5, 10]. No transcription factor has been described so far to be essential for infDC development from monocytes. Of note, the DC lineage-specific transcription factor *zbtb46* is expressed in *in vitro*-generated monocyte-derived DCs [33] and in *in vivo*-generated infDCs [30].

infDCs and T cell activation

Several studies demonstrated that infDCs can present antigens to CD4⁺ T cells. InfDCs purified from lymphoid organs [4, 11, 15, 22-25] or tissues [14] can activate antigen-specific CD4⁺ T cells *ex vivo*. Indirect evidence also suggests that infDCs can activate CD4⁺ T cells *in vivo* in peripheral tissues [35]. In addition, CD4⁺ T cell activation *in vivo* is abrogated during *Aspergillus fumigatus* infection in mice depleted of CCR2⁺ cells [11] and strongly decreased in CCR2^{-/-} but not in Flt3L^{-/-} mice during allergen-induced asthma [25], indicating a dominant role for infDCs in CD4⁺ T cell stimulation *in vivo* in these models.

In terms of T helper (Th) cell polarization, infDCs induce Th1 cell-mediated responses during CFA-induced inflammation [21] (a setting known to induce strong Th1 responses), and in *Leishmania major* or *Aspergillus fumigatus* infections [4, 11]. However, in the Th2 responsedominated experimental settings of alum-induced inflammation [20] or allergen-induced asthma [24, 25], infDCs induce Th2 cell-mediated responses. In addition, infDCs produce IL-12 [7, 21], IL-23 [25-27], type I interferon [6], inflammatory chemokines [25] or the proinflammatory cytokines IL-1 α and IL-1 β [17] in different inflammatory environments.

1 Therefore, infDCs appear to be plastic and the type of T cell response that they induce

depends on the inflammatory environment and type of infection.

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4 InfDCs can also present exogenous antigens to CD8⁺ T cells, a process known as cross-

presentation. In a model of HSV-1 reactivation, the stimulation of antigen-specific memory

CD8⁺ T cells in the inflamed tissue is decreased when monocytes are depleted, indicating a

role for infDCs [35]. In addition, purified infDC that have captured antigens in vivo are able

to cross-present to CD8⁺ T cells ex vivo [15, 16, 22, 23]. A recent study suggests that infDCs

cross-present antigens in vivo during EAE, even if the infDC population analyzed may be

heterogeneous [29]. Regarding the intracellular mechanisms involved, infDCs use both the

cytosolic and vacuolar pathways for cross-presentation, in contrast to resident DCs that

mainly use the cytosolic pathway [22].

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Several studies have addressed how infDCs fit in the DC network and cooperate with other

DC subsets during immune responses. In some settings, infDCs play a major role in antigen

uptake and transport to lymphoid organs where they can present antigens to T cells. In

Leishmania major infection, infDCs are the main infected cells [4], and in Aspergillus

fumigatus infection antigen transport to the draining lymph nodes is abrogated in CCR2⁺

cells-depleted mice, indicating that infDCs are the main transporter of antigens [11]. This

predominant role in antigen uptake might be due to differential expression of pathogen-uptake

or pathogen-recognition receptors as compared to cDCs.

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Other studies showed a role for infDCs in the stimulation of antigen-specific T cells directly

in inflamed tissues. In a model of HSV-1 reactivation, infDCs initiate memory responses in

the tissue via stimulation of CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ tissue-resident memory T cells [35]. In mucosal

HSV-2 infection, effector T cell stimulation in infected tissues is impaired in the absence of infDCs (in CCR2^{-/-} mice) while T cell priming in lymph nodes is unaffected [14]. In addition, infDCs directly purified from the central nervous system of mice with EAE display antigen-MHC II complexes on their surface, as evidenced by specific antibody staining [29]. InfDCs purified from peripheral inflamed tissues also stimulate antigen-specific T cells ex vivo, suggesting that they present antigenic peptide on their MHC molecules in vivo [14, 16, 25]. Whether infDCs stimulate T cells in the tissues or in the lymph nodes might depend on the antigen dose and the degree of inflammation. Indeed, it was recently shown in allergen-induced asthma that infDCs can prime T cells in lymph nodes at high dose of allergen, but at low dose only stimulate T cells in the lungs [25].

Human infDCs

In humans, several DC subsets have also been identified, including lymphoid organ-resident and migratory DCs. "Inflammatory" DCs have been described in several pathological inflammatory situations: atopic dermatitis, psoriasis, rheumatoid arthritis and tumor ascites. "Inflammatory dendritic epidermal cells" (IDEC) were first described in the skin of atopic dermatitis patients [36]. These cells express surface markers different from Langerhans cells and dermal DCs from healthy skin. Recently, we identified infDCs in synovial fluid from arthritis patients and in tumor ascites, and showed by transcriptomic analysis that these cells represent a distinct DC subset [37]. A population of HLA-DR⁺ CD11c⁺ cells observed in the skin of psoriasis patients, but absent from healthy skin, was also proposed to represent "inflammatory dermal" DCs [38]. However, these cells were recently proposed to be similar to a population of blood CD16⁺ cells expressing 6-sulfo LacNAc (slanDC) [39], which have been shown by transcriptomic and functional analysis to be a subset of CD16⁺ monocytes rather than *bona fide* DCs [40]. In addition these "inflammatory dermal" cells resemble

dermal macrophages, in particular in the expression of phenotypic markers and inflammatory

cytokines [41, 42]. Further studies are therefore required to clarify the identification of

3 infDCs in psoriatic skin.

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4 Human infDCs express HLA-DR, CD11c, BDCA1, CD1a, FcεRI, CD206, CD172a, CD14

5 and CD11b [37, 43, 44]. Similar to murine infDCs, human infDCs also express M-CSFR and

ZBTB46 [37]. The ontogeny of human infDCs is difficult to address, even if transcriptomic

7 analysis showed that infDCs from tumor ascites and in vitro GM-CSF-cultured monocyte-

derived DCs share transcriptomic signatures [37], suggesting that human infDCs derive from

monocytes rather than from DC precursors.

10 There is limited data on the functional properties of human infDCs. Atopic dermatitis is an

inflammatory disease initiated by a Th2-type inflammation, with a chronic phase dominated

by a Th1-type response [45]. Using in vitro-generated monocyte-derived DCs as a model of

IDEC, it has been proposed that these cells could initiate Th1 cells differentiation [46].

However, the T cell responses induced by naturally-occurring IDEC remains to be analyzed.

By contrast, rheumatoid arthritis is a Th17-mediated disease [47] and infDCs from

rheumatoid arthritis synovial fluid induce Th17 cell polarization ex vivo [37]. InfDCs from

tumor ascites also induce Th17 responses ex vivo through the secretion of the Th17-polarizing

cytokines TGFβ, IL1β, IL-6 and IL-23. Of note, only infDCs, but not macrophages from the

same samples, secrete IL-23 [37]. Human infDCs are therefore likely to be monocyte-derived

and very plastic, similar to their murine counterparts.

Perspectives

23 Recent work has shed new light on the development and functions of infDCs. Important

questions, however, remain open for future investigation. Although the ontogeny of cDCs and

pDCs has been dissected in much detail in the past few years, we still do not know what factors drive infDC differentiation from monocytes. Recent studies have analyzed the molecular signatures of steady-state DC subsets and macrophages, but the identification of a molecular signature for infDCs is still lacking. This might open new avenues for the targeted depletion of infDCs in mouse, which would enable a more refined analysis of the function of infDCs in different pathological situations. With the identification of human infDCs that resemble their murine counterparts, infDCs could become targets of interest for

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Summary

immunotherapies in inflammatory diseases.

InfDCs are a distinct subset of DCs that appear during inflammation and derive from monocytes that differentiate *in situ* at the site of inflammation. InfDCs can migrate to the draining lymph nodes and activate CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells. InfDCs have also been shown to stimulate effector or memory T cells directly in the inflamed tissue. Human equivalents of infDCs have been identified in several inflammatory diseases and in tumor ascites.

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Box1. Cases of mistaken identity

An early study described a population of monocyte-derived cells in *Listeria monocytogenes* infection that expressed CD11c and MHC II and were termed "Tip-DC" for TNFα/iNOS-producing DC [48]. In this study however, the T cell stimulatory activity of these cells was not analyzed. In subsequent studies, the term "Tip-DC" has sometimes been used to designate infDCs, and has generated some confusion. Indeed, production of iNOS and TNFα is also observed in monocytes and activated macrophages, populations that can both express low levels of CD11c and MHC II. It has been argue that "Tip-DC" are actually inflammatory monocytes [49] and it was recently shown that these "Tip-DC" in Listeria-infected mice did not express the DC-specific transcription factor *zbtb46* [33]. Because of overlapping phenotypic markers, other myeloid cells are sometimes mistaken for infDCs. For instance, DCs that are recruited to the skin-draining lymph nodes after LPS systemic injection were proposed to be infDCs [50], but later shown to be skin-derived migratory cDCs [51]. The reverse situation also occurs: skin DCs that appear after UV inflammation have been referred to as "inflammatory" Langerhans cells, but display characteristics that closely resemble that of infDCs [52].

Figure 1. Current model of DC ontogeny. CMP = common myeloid precursor; MDP = monocyte/DC precursor; CDP = common DC progenitor. In the bone marrow, CMP give rise to MDP that differentiate into CDP and monocytes. Monocytes and the progeny of CDP (pDC and pre-cDC) circulate in the blood, through which they reach peripheral tissues and lymphoid organs. There, cDC undergo a final differentiation stage that generates CD11b-like DCs and CD8-like DCs. During inflammation, monocytes give rise to inflammatory DCs and macrophages. Resident macrophages are also present in peripheral tissues and lymphoid organs and are thought to originate from seeded embryonic precursors that renew locally.

Table 1. Phenotype of murine infDCs as compared to other myeloid populations

	CD8	lineage	CD11b	lineage	pDC	infDC	Macrophage	Ly6C+
	DC		DC					Monocyte
CD11b	-		+		-	+	+	+
Ly6C	-				++	+	+	++
CD206	-		- (resident)		-	+	+	-
			+ (migra	tory)				
FcεRI				-	+	-	-	
CD64	-		-		-	+	++	+/-
CD11c	++		++		+	+	+/-	+/-
CD172a	-	+		-	+	+	+	
F4/80	- +		-	+	+	+		

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