CXCR4 identifies transitional bone marrow premonocytes that replenish the mature monocyte pool for peripheral responses

Shu Zhen Chong  
*Singapore Immunology Network*

Maximilien Evrard  
*Singapore Immunology Network*

John E. Harris  
*University of Massachusetts Medical School*

*See next page for additional authors*

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Authors
Shu Zhen Chong, Maximilien Evrard, John E. Harris, and Lai Guan Ng

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CXCR4 identifies transitional bone marrow premonocytes that replenish the mature monocyte pool for peripheral responses

Shu Zhen Chong,1* Maximilien Evrard,1,2* Sapna Devi,1 Jinmiao Chen,1 Jyue Yuan Lim,1 Peter See,1 Yiru Zhang,3 José M. Adrover,4 Bernett Lee,1 Leonard Tan,1 Jackson L.Y. Li,1 Ka Hang Liong,1 Cindy Phua,1 Akhila Balachander,1 Adrian Boey,5 David Liebl,5 Suet Mien Tan,2 Jerry K.Y. Chan,6,7,8 Karl Balabanian,9 John E. Harris,10 Mariaelvy Bianchini,11 Christian Weber,11 Johan Duchene,11 Josephine Lum,1 Michael Poidinger,1 Qingfeng Chen,3 Laurent Rénia,1 Cheng-I Wang,1 Anis Larbi,1 Gwendalyn J. Randolph,12 Wolfgang Weninger,13 Mark R. Looney,14 Matthew F. Krummel,14 Subhra K. Biswas,1 Florent Ginhoix,1 Andrés Hidalgo,4,11 Françoise Bachelier,9 and Lai Guan Ng1,2

Abbreviations used: ALI, acute lung injury; CLP, cecal ligation and puncture; CMap, connectivity map; cMoP, common monocyte progenitor; DEG, differential gene expression; Fucci, fluorescence ubiquitin cell cycle indicator; IPA, ingenuity pathway analysis; NGS, next generation sequencing; OLO, optimal leaf ordering; PCA, principal component analysis; TpMo, transitional premonocytes; t-SNE, t-distributed stochastic neighbor embedding; WHIM, warts, hypogammaglobulinemia, infections, and myelokathexis; ZT, zeitgeber.

INTRODUCTION

Monocytes arise from common monocyte progenitors (cMoPs) in the BM (Hettinger et al., 2013) and develop into mature Ly6Cμ monocytes before being released into the blood. In comparison to other myeloid cells (Terashima et al., 1996), monocytes have an exceedingly short transit time through the BM and are rapidly released into the circulation after their last division (Goto et al., 2003). Upon entering the circulation, Ly-6Cμ monocytes have a half-life of just 20 h before undergoing terminal differentiation into longer-lived Ly6Cδ monocytes (with a half-life of 48 h; Varol et al., 2007; Hanna et al., 2011;...
It is therefore highly essential that circulating Ly6C<sup>hi</sup> monocytes are constantly being replenished through the coordinated release of these cells from the BM. Current evidence indicates that the release of BM Ly6C<sup>hi</sup> monocytes is governed by CCR2 and CX<sub>3</sub>CR1, with the latter receptor reportedly influencing the survival of Ly6C<sup>lo</sup> monocytes (Serbina and Pamer, 2006; Landsman et al., 2009; Shi and Pamer, 2011; Jacquelin et al., 2013). CXCR4-signaling also acts as an anchoring force that retains Ly6C<sup>hi</sup> monocytes in the BM (Jung et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2015), whereas its inhibition (Beaussant Cohen et al., 2012; McDermott et al., 2014) reverses the observed monocytopenia present in patients with WHIM syndrome (Warts, hypogamma-globulinemia, infections, and myelokathexis; Hernandez et al., 2003; Gulino et al., 2004).

Although circulating monocytes have historically been regarded as precursor cells that replenish tissue macrophages and DC populations (Segura and Amigorena, 2013; Varol et al., 2015), it is now increasingly being recognized that monocytes exert potent effector functions at peripheral sites throughout the body (Mildner et al., 2013). Monocytes comprise between ~4 and 10% of total blood leukocytes and include two major subsets that participate in host defense and tissue repair (Ginhoux and Jung, 2014). In mice, Ly6C<sup>hi</sup> monocytes resemble human CD14<sup>+</sup>CD16<sup>−</sup> classical monocytes (Cros et al., 2010; Ingersoll et al., 2010; Wong et al., 2011) that express multiple cytokines and granule-associated proteins for effector functions at infectious and inflammatory sites (Serbina et al., 2008). In contrast, murine Ly6C<sup>lo</sup> monocytes resemble human CD14<sup>+</sup>CD16<sup>−</sup> nonclassical monocytes (Cros et al., 2010; Ingersoll et al., 2010) that patrol and eliminate cellular debris from blood vessel walls (Auffray et al., 2007; Carlin et al., 2013), as well as control tumor metastasis in the lung (Hanna et al., 2015). In addition, several studies have shown that monocytes mediate the recruitment of leukocytes in response to pathological insults (Kreisel et al., 2010; Carlin et al., 2013), and are essential for peripheral tissue repair during the resolution phase (Nahrendorf et al., 2010). Consequently, their ability to be rapidly mobilized from the BM for their deployment to inflammatory sites, as well as to return to a state of homeostasis, is critical for effective immune responses and prevention of collateral tissue damage. Furthermore, monocytes are progressively being recognized as attractive targets for therapeutic interventions, as lipid nanoparticles and antagonists that target monocytes have shown therapeutic efficacy in several diseases (Leuschner et al., 2011; Majmudar et al., 2013; Poupel et al., 2013). It is therefore imperative that a better understanding of their cellular and molecular mechanisms be explored at multiple tissue levels.

Using a combination of computational analysis approaches coupled with transcriptome profiling and in vivo assays, we identify a previously unknown heterogeneity that exists among BM Ly6C<sup>hi</sup> monocytes in both human and mice. Specifically, BM Ly6C<sup>hi</sup> monocytes consist of two distinguished subpopulations (CXCR4<sup>hi</sup> and CXCR4<sup>lo</sup> subpopulations) and that the immobilized CXCR4<sup>hi</sup> subset serves as a transitional precursor for the replenishment of mature CXCR4<sup>lo</sup> monocytes. Additionally, we provide new insights into the role of CXCR4 in mediating the spatiotemporal localization of monocytes in peripheral sites by demonstrating its role in diurnal oscillations and pulmonary margination. Importantly, disruption of CXCR4-signaling also led to reduced lung injury and sepsis mortality. Together, our findings identify a previously undefined developmental transition that exists among BM Ly6C<sup>hi</sup> monocytes and demonstrates the multifaceted role of CXCR4 in their peripheral tissue responses.

**RESULTS**

**CXCR4 defines heterogeneity among BM Ly6C<sup>hi</sup> monocytes**

It is now well established that cMoPs give rise to Ly6C<sup>hi</sup> monocytes in the BM (Hettinger et al., 2013). However, it is unclear whether BM Ly6C<sup>hi</sup> monocytes consist of a homogeneous population or if further heterogeneity exists among these cells. To address this question, we analyzed BM Ly6C<sup>hi</sup> monocytes (excluding their progenitors) using an unsupervised dimensional reduction algorithm (distributed stochastic neighbor embedding [t-SNE]; Amir et al., 2013; Becher et al., 2014) on flow cytometry data based on six common myeloid cell markers, CXCR4, CD31, CD16/32, CX<sub>3</sub>CR1, CCR2, and CD11b (Fig. 1A). This approach allows us to visualize multidimensional similarities of cells in a 2D scatter plot, known as the t-SNE map, which results in enhanced visualization of small cellular subpopulations through cell clusters with similar protein expression patterns (Amir et al., 2013; Becher et al., 2014). Visualization of BM Ly6C<sup>hi</sup> monocytes on the t-SNE map revealed heterogeneity among these cells, which can be categorized into two main subsets through automated clustering (Fig. 1A). Upon examination of each selected marker, we found that CXCR4 delineated BM Ly6C<sup>hi</sup> monocytes into two subsets that closely represented the outcome generated by automated clustering (Fig. 1B). Furthermore, CXCR4 segmentation resulted in the highest ratio in median intensity between these two clusters (Fig. 1C), suggesting that CXCR4 could serve as a suitable surface marker in delineating BM Ly6C<sup>hi</sup> monocyte heterogeneity. Indeed, we found two distinct populations of Ly6C<sup>hi</sup> monocytes in the BM that consisted of a CXCR4<sup>hi</sup> subset (Fig. 1D). Furthermore, scanning electron microscopy revealed morphological differences between these two subsets, with only the CXCR4<sup>lo</sup> subset protruding its cytoplasmic membrane upon adhering to coverslips (Fig. 1E). We also validate the presence of CXCR4-defined heterogeneity among human BM monocytes and observed the presence of CXCR4<sup>hi</sup> and CXCR4<sup>lo</sup> monocytes (Fig. 1F). Collectively, our results identify heterogeneity in the current established BM Ly6C<sup>hi</sup> monocyte pool and the presence of a distinct subpopulation that can be delineated through CXCR4.

**Transcriptome profiling reveals distinct gene expression signatures between BM CXCR4<sup>hi</sup> and CXCR4<sup>lo</sup> Ly6C<sup>hi</sup> monocytes**

To further characterize the CXCR4<sup>hi</sup> and CXCR4<sup>lo</sup> monocyte subsets, we sorted all cells in the monocyte
developmental pathway, specifically cMoPs, CXCR4 hi, and CXCR4 lo Ly6C hi monocyte subsets, and Ly6C lo monocytes from the BM (Fig. 2 A). Subsequently, we performed whole transcriptome sequencing using next generation sequencing (NGS) on these cells to compare their genome-wide RNA expression profiles. Princi-
pal-component analysis (PCA) of all expressed genes revealed distinct and well-separated transcriptomic profiles (Fig. 2 B), implying that the CXCR4 hi subpopulation was clearly distinct from all other monocyte subsets in the BM. In particular, comparative analysis of cMoP and the CXCR4 hi subpopulation revealed an enrichment of genes in the CXCR4 hi subset that was predominantly associated with cell migration and monocyte function, such as Fn1, Vcan, Ccr1, Lyz2, and Msr1 (Fig. 2 C). In contrast, cMoPs displayed an enrichment of self-renewal genes, such as Cd34 and Kit, and neutrophil-associated microbicidal activity genes such as Mpo, Ctsg, and Elane (Fig. 2 C). Comparative analysis of the CXCR4 hi to CXCR4 lo subset also revealed a significantly large enrichment of cell cycle–dependent genes in the CXCR4 hi subset, such as Ccnf, Top2a, Mki67 and Cdk1. In contrast, the CXCR4 lo subpopulation displayed an enrichment of monocyte effector function genes such as Cd14, C5ar1, Nod2, and Il1b (Fig. 2 C). Biofunction enrichment analysis using Ingenuity pathway analysis (IPa; Fig. 2 D) and heat maps (Fig. S1) of gene expression data further confirmed these findings. In particular, the CXCR4 hi subset was found to be functionally more mature than cMoPs but less mature than the CXCR4 lo subset. We also discovered several candidate surface markers that allow the discrimination of the CXCR4 hi subset from the CXCR4 lo subset and cMoPs (Fig. 2 E and Fig. S2).

Although BM Ly6C hi monocytes have been thought to be terminally differentiated cells that proliferate minimally in the steady state (van Furth et al., 1979), the enrichment of cell cycle genes in the CXCR4 hi subset prompted us to determine if these cells may proliferate in vivo. To address this, we used a fluorescence ubiquitin cell cycle indicator (Fucci) transgenic mouse that labels for cells in the S and G2/M phase of the cell cycle. Although the CXCR4 hi subset and Ly6C lo monocytes were not fluorescent for Fucci, the CXCR4 hi subset and cMoP were found to be Fucci+ and actively cycling in the S/G2/M phase (Fig. 2 F). BrdU incorporation assays further revealed that the majority of cells belonging to the CXCR4 hi subset were in the S phase of the cell cycle, in contrast to the CXCR4 lo subset that was in the G0/G1 phase (Fig. 2 G). Furthermore, we made similar observations in human BM cells (Fig. 2 H). Specifically, the CXCR4 hi subset was found to be actively replicating in the S phase of the cell cycle through BrdU incorporation in vitro and expressed slightly lower levels of CD14 and CD11b but higher levels of HLA-DR (Fig. 2 H). To understand how the newly identified CXCR4 hi subset may relate to monocyte development in the BM, we first compared the transcriptomic signature of the CXCR4 hi subset with signatures specific for both Ly6C hi and Ly6C lo monocytes by Connectivity map (CMap) analysis (Fig. 3 A). Notably, the CMap analysis is a gene-set enrichment analysis algorithm that generates indicative scores of closeness to one cell subset of a defined signature gene set (Lamb et al., 2006). CMap analysis revealed a skewing of transcriptomic characteristics of the CXCR4 hi subset toward the Ly6C hi but not Ly6C lo monocyte signature, suggesting that the CXCR4 hi subset may be an intermediate precursor that bridges the cMoP and the CXCR4 lo subset (Fig. 3 A). Furthermore, optimal leaf ordering (OLO; Bar-Joseph et al., 2001) of transcriptomic data obtained from cMoP, CXCR4 hi, and CXCR4 lo Ly6C hi monocytes produced a dendrogram that supports the appearance of the CXCR4 hi subset before the development of the CXCR4 lo subset (Fig. 3 B). To further understand the developmental relationship and phenotypic changes that may occur between the CXCR4 hi and CXCR4 lo subsets, we used the Wanderlust algorithm, which orders single cells according to their most immature to mature stage into a constructed trajectory (Bendall et al., 2014). Based on FACS data that consisted of six parameters indicated in Fig. 1 B, we selected the starting point as cells that expressed high levels of CXCR4, CD31, and CD16/32 as observed on cMoPs (Fig. 2 E). Based on these data, the Wanderlust algorithm computationally determined early events (i.e., immature cells) as CXCR4 hiCD11b hiCCR2 loCX3CR1 hi cells, whereas late events (i.e., mature cells) consisted of CXCR4 hiCD11b loCCR2 hiCX3 CR1 lo cells (Fig. 3 C). Furthermore, we found that CXCR4 hi, CD31, and CD16/32 were down-regulated, whereas CCR2, CX5CR1, and CD11b were up-regulated during the course of BM Ly6C hi monocyte maturation (Fig. 3 D). These results hence strongly suggest that the CXCR4 hi subset may be a precursor of the mature CXCR4 lo subset. To confirm these findings in vivo, we adoptively transferred sorted CXCR4 hi BM Ly6C hi monocytes into recipient mice and observed that the CXCR4 hi subset differentiated into the CXCR4 lo subset (Fig. 3 E). Moreover, administration of BrdU into mice, which allowed us to track the maturation of these cells, further confirmed the CXCR4 lo subset as an immediate precursor of the CXCR4 hi subset (Fig. 3 F). Notably, we did not detect the presence of Ly6C lo monocytes upon the appearance of Ly6C hi monocytes in these experiments (unpublished data). We also provide evidence that CXCR4 is critically linked to BM Ly6C hi monocyte maturation and that the CXCR4 hi subset represents mature Ly6C hi monocytes that eventually egress into the bloodstream during homeostatic conditions (Fig. 3, G and H; and Fig. S3). Collectively, our results describe a previously undefined developmental pathway of monocytes and that the CXCR4 hi subset acts as an immediate precursor of mature Ly6C hi monocytes.
The CXCR4<sup>hi</sup> subset functions as a transitional precursor for the replenishment of active CXCR4<sup>lo</sup> mature Ly6C<sup>hi</sup> monocytes

The circadian rhythmic release of immune cells, in particular hematopoietic stem cell progenitors and monocytes, from the BM into the circulation represents a fundamental physiological process that is integral for host defense and homeostasis (Nguyen et al., 2013; Scheiermann et al., 2013). Because our current results identify BM Ly6C<sup>hi</sup> monocytes as a heterogeneous population (Figs. 1, 2, and 3), we therefore examined their behavior at different periods of the circadian rhythm. Here, we observed that only the mature CXCR4<sup>lo</sup> subset, but not the CXCR4<sup>hi</sup> subset, cMoP, or Ly6C<sup>lo</sup> monocytes, in the BM oscillated in numbers according to the circadian rhythm (Fig. 4A). Although the CXCR4<sup>lo</sup> subset exhibited lower CXCR4 expression and a reduced number in the BM at ZT5 (zeitgeber 5; 5 h after the onset of light) and a higher CXCR4 expression and number at ZT13 (at the beginning of the active phase; Fig. 4B). These results...
hence suggest that both subsets of monocytes may display a difference in their mobilizing capacity. Therefore, we next determined how a strong mobilizing cue, such as LPS (Shi et al., 2011; Evrard et al., 2015), may impact their mobilization. Intriguingly, we observed that LPS administration resulted in the egress of the CXCR4lo subset and Ly6Clow monocytes, but not the CXCR4high subset and cMoP in the BM (Fig. 4, C and D). Further analysis demonstrated that the CXCR4high subpopulation displayed a much lower surface expression of CCR2 (Fig. 4 E), which led to a drastically poorer migration toward the cognate ligand CCL2 (Fig. 4 F). Together with our transcriptomic and functional data (Fig. 2), our results hence indicate that the CXCR4high subpopulation is essentially immobilized in the BM under both homeostatic and inflam-
matory conditions to serve as a transitional precursor for the replenishment of CXCR4lo mature monocytes.

CXCR4 mediates circadian rhythmic oscillations of mature monocytes and their homing into reservoirs

In contrast to the heterogeneity observed in the BM, we found that circulating Ly6C[hi] monocytes (Fig. S4) were exclusively CXCR4loCD11b[hi] cells (Fig. 5A). However, it remains unclear if the reduced expression of CXCR4 upon their exit from the BM indicates its diminished role in peripheral tissue compartments. Because BM CXCR4loLy6C[hi] monocytes was found to exhibit diurnal fluctuations in CXCR4 expression (Fig. 4, A and B), we hence examined whether such physiological rhythms could also occur among circulating monocytes. We also determined if CXCR4 mediates these physiological processes by studying their diurnal oscillations in a conditional knockout mouse (Lyz2creCxcr4fl mice) that permits efficient and selective deletion of the Cxcr4 gene.
in myeloid lineage cells, such as monocytes and neutrophils (Clausen et al., 1999; Fig. 5, B and C). Indeed, we found that circulating monocytes exhibited fluctuations in CXCR4 expression (Fig. 5, D and E) that corresponded to the high and low number of circulating Ly6Chi (Fig. 5 D) and Ly6Clo monocytes (Fig. 5 E) at ZT5 and ZT13, respectively. More importantly, this diurnal oscillation in monocyte numbers was abrogated in the absence of CXCR4 (Fig. 5, D and E) and highlights the role of CXCR4 in mediating the diurnal variations in circulating monocyte numbers.

Although it is likely that circadian-mediated fluctuations in CXCR4 expression could influence the release of monocytes from the BM and impact on the overall numbers of circulating monocytes, we hypothesize that this process may also act on the trafficking patterns of monocytes in peripheral compartments. To test this hypothesis, we established parabiosis between CD45.1 WT mice and CD45.2 CXCR4 genetic-modified mice (Fig. 6, A and B). CXCR4 genetic-modified mice included either Lyz2creCxcr4fl mice or a knock-in mouse strain that carries a CXCR4 gain-of-function mutation characteristic of WHIM patients (termed Cxcr4WHIM or WHIM mice; Balabanian et al., 2012; Beaussant Cohen et al., 2012; McDermott et al., 2014). The homing ratio of cells were then calculated (Fig. 6 A) to normalize for their chimerism (Fig. 6 C). Using this approach, we observed a significant decrease in the homing of Lyz2creCxcr4fl control mice (left) and counts between Cxcr4fl control and Lyz2creCxcr4fl mice (right) were quantified at ZT5 and ZT13. Data are representative of one out of three experiments. Results are expressed as mean ± SD (n = 5 mice per group). ns, not significant; **, P < 0.01; ***, P < 0.001; ****, P < 0.0001 (Student's t test).

Figure 5. CXCR4 regulates circadian rhythmic oscillations of monocytes. (A) Representative FACS plot of CXCR4 and CD11b expression by blood Ly6C⁻ monocytes (gating strategy in Fig. S4) of one out of four independent experiments. (B) Representative FACS plot depicting loss of CXCR4 expression in Lyz2creCxcr4fl mice (blue) as compared with Cxcr4fl controls (red) of one out of three independent experiments. (C) Comparison of blood leukocyte populations in RosamT/mG::Lyz2cre mice and RosamT/mG::Lyz2creCxcr4fl mice showing the percentage of Ly2-cre mediated recombination (GFP⁺) at the Rosa26 locus (left) and normalized CXCR4 MFI (arbitrary units) of circulating leukocyte subsets (right). Results are expressed as mean ± SD (n = 4–5 mice per group). ns, not significant; *, P < 0.05; **, P < 0.01; ***, P < 0.001 (two-way ANOVA). (D and E) Blood Ly6C hi (D) and Ly6C lo (E) monocyte values of normalized CXCR4 MFI on Cxcr4fl control mice (left) and counts between Cxcr4fl control and Lyz2creCxcr4fl mice (right) were quantified at ZT5 and ZT13. Data are representative of one out of three experiments. Results are expressed as mean ± SD (n = 5 mice per group). ns, not significant; **, P < 0.01; ***, P < 0.001; ****, P < 0.0001 (Student’s t test).
In contrast, no significant differences in T cell homing ratio were observed between the Lyz2cre Cxcr4fl and WT parabionts as T cells are not targeted by the Lyz2cre-mediated deletion of CXCR4 (Eash et al., 2009; Fig. 6 A) and confirms that our earlier observations on monocytes are cell intrinsic and specifically mediated by CXCR4. In contrast, WHIM mice exhibited a corresponding increase in monocyte homing to the BM in their WT partners (Fig. 6 B). Adoptive transfer experiments further confirmed these findings, as CD45.1 BM monocytes that were transferred into CD45.2-reipient mice were observed to rapidly decline in the blood and accumulate in the BM via a mechanism that was disrupted by AMD3100 treatment (Fig. 6, D and E). Interestingly, we also observed a significant decrease in the homing of Lyz2cre Cxcr4fl monocytes into the spleen (Fig. 6 A). Conversely, there was a trend toward an increased homing of WHIM monocytes into the spleen (Fig. 6 B). Collectively, our data highlights a role for circulation and sequestered into the lung microvasculature in circulating monocytes are transiently withdrawn from the compartment (Fig. 7 F). Therefore, these data suggests that monocytes and not vascular stromal cells, as our BM chimeric phenomenon was mediated by the intrinsic sensing of LPS by (spleen, liver, and kidney; unpublished data). Furthermore, this phenomenon was abrogated in Lyz2cre Cxcr4fl mice (Fig. 8 D). Because it is well known that Ly6C hi monocytes also express lower levels of GFP in Cx3cr1crefl mice (Auffray et al., 2007), we ensured that our approach was able to detect Ly6C hi monocytes during intravital imaging by administering an anti-Ly6B.2 antibody into Cx3cr1crefl mice to stain these cells in vivo (Fig. 8 E and F; and Video 2) and confirmed that our imaging approach accounted for these cells.

We next further determined whether CXCR4 regulated monocyte margination equally in both subsets. By using a lung efflux assay to quantify monocyte release from the pulmonary circulation (Devii et al., 2013; Fig. 9 A) without the interference from interposing organs (Bierman et al., 1952), we observed that AMD3100 treatment increased the net release of both Ly6C hi and Ly6C lo monocytes from the lungs (Fig. 9 B). However, only the Ly6C hi subset displayed a significant increase in lung retention following LPS and this process could be prevented with the preadministration of AMD3100 (Fig. 9 B). To extend these findings in the context of humans, we found that AMD3100 also markedly increased circulating CD14 + CD16 + classical monocytes in humanized mice, which was accompanied by an increased net release of these cells from the pulmonary circulation (Fig. 9, C and D). This phenomenon was similarly observed in an experimental model of non-human primates (Fig. 9 E).

The accumulation of myeloid cells in the lung is a hallmark of injury in pulmonary diseases (MacNee and Selby, 1993). It is thus likely that an increase in margination in the lung endothelium may predispose toward tissue injury. To test this hypothesis, we used a model of acute lung injury (ALI; O’Dea et al., 2009) and found that Lyz2cre Cxcr4fl mice displayed a significant decrease in vascular leakage compared with the Cxcr4fl control mouse (Fig. 9 F). Further-
Figure 6. CXCR4 regulates homing of monocytes back to reservoirs. (A and B) Homing capacity (calculated as a ratio) of monocytes or indicated immune cells of WT and Lyz2\textsuperscript{cre}Cxcr4\textsuperscript{fl} (A) or Cxcr4\textsuperscript{WHIM} (B) into the BM or spleen of their respective partners in parabiotic mice. Monocyte, neutrophil and T cell numbers were quantified in blood, BM and spleen before calculation of the respective homing ratios to normalize for unequal exchange in circulating leukocytes (n = 4–5). ns, not significant; *, P < 0.05; **, P < 0.01 (Student’s t test). Results are representative of one out of two independent experiments. (C) Percentage of nonhost cells present in blood of WT and Lyz2\textsuperscript{cre}Cxcr4\textsuperscript{fl} mice (left), and WT and Cxcr4\textsuperscript{WHIM} parabiotic mice (right). Results are expressed as
more, Ly6C^hi monocytes did not accumulate in the lungs of 
Lyz2^cre Cxcr4^fl mice in a high-grade cecal ligation and puncture 
(CLP) model of sepsis (Fig. 9 G) and exhibited a significant 
improved survival outcome compared with Cxcr4^fl control 
mice (Fig. 9 H). Together, these data suggest that CXCR4 
continues to play important roles in regulating monocyte 
margination in the pulmonary circulation, whereas disruption 
of its signaling ameliorated lung injury and sepsis mortality.

**DISCUSSION**

In this study, we report the discovery of heterogeneity among 
BM Ly6C^hi monocytes. Specifically, BM Ly6C^hi monocytes 
consist of two developmentally related subsets of monocytes 
(CXCR4^hi and CXCR4^lo subpopulations) that are function-
ally distinct in their immunological roles. Furthermore, we 
extend the role of CXCR4 beyond its reported function as a 
more BM anchoring signal by demonstrating its involvement 
in the control of monocyte tissue trafficking activities. Speci-
fically, we reveal that CXCR4 controls monocyte margination 
in the lung vasculature and contributes to lung injury and 
sepsis-induced mortality. Our study hence provides a concep-
tual advancement in the understanding of monocyte biology 
by identifying the presence of a transitional precursor pop-
ulation among BM Ly6C^hi monocytes and deciphering the 
peripheral mechanisms that control monocyte homeostasis 
in the tissue (Fig. 10).

Using a combination of computational analytical ap-
proaches and flow cytometric analysis, we observed that 
cMoP–derived BM Ly6C^hi monocytes consist of two distinct 
subpopulations defined by CXCR4 expression. Isolation of 
these cells revealed that CXCR4^hi and CXCR4^lo subpopula-
tions are transcriptionally distinct. In particular, the CXCR4^hi 
subpopulation was enriched in genes associated with cell 
cycle, cell division, and DNA repair whereas the CXCR4^lo 
subpopulation was over-represented with genes associated 
with cellular activation, phagocytosis, motility, and pattern 
recognition. Comparative analysis of the CXCR4^hi subpopu-
lation with its progenitor, cMoP, also revealed distinct genetic 
differences, with the CXCR4^lo subset displaying a more ma-
ture phenotype than cMoPs. Our results hence suggest that 
a considerable amount of functional maturation continues to 
occur in the CXCR4^hi subpopulation. Consistent with this 
notion, results from our functional studies validated that the 
CXCR4^hi subpopulation is actively proliferating and dis-
played reduced bead internalization in vivo compared with 
the CXCR4^lo subpopulation. More importantly, we show that 
the CXCR4^hi subpopulation gives rise to mature CXCR4^lo 
Ly6C^hi monocytes over time. Furthermore, this CXCR4^hi 
subpopulation, like cMoPs, remains immobilized in the BM 
even under inflammatory conditions and is insensitive to-
ward circadian rhythmic fluctuations. Together, we propose 
that the CXCR4^hi subpopulation of BM Ly6C^hi monocytes 
represents a population of transitional premonocytes (TpMo). 
It is noteworthy that although Hettinger et al. (2013) have 
shown the cMoP to be the only subset in the BM monocyte 
fraction to form colonies and is committed strictly toward 
monocyte development, it remains unclear if cMoPs are fully 
committed toward the Ly6C^lo monocyte lineage, or may give 
rise to Ly6C^lo monocytes independent of their differentiation 
from Ly6C^hi monocytes (Thomas et al., 2015). Because our 
CMap analysis and in vivo data strongly demonstrates a linear 
developmental transition from Ly6C^hi monocytes from TpMo, it is likely 
that the loss of c-kit on TpMo represents a loss of self-renewal 
ability (Ogawa et al., 1991) upon their differentiation from 
cMoPs, and that TpMos differ from cMoPs by serving as the 
first fully committed and immediate precursor of mature Ly-
6C^lo monocytes. More importantly, we believe that this newly 
defined developmental transition forms a regulatory check-
point that prevents an uncontrolled release and allows for 
the rapid replenishment of BM monocytes. Our results also 
suggest a new working model whereby monocytes program 
their intrinsic mobilizing capacity according to their func-
tional maturity, which ensures that only functionally mature 
monocytes are being mobilized into the circulation.

It is well established that CXCR4-signaling plays a crit-
ical role in multiple biological processes in the BM compart-
ment (Nagasawa, 2014). Consequently, studies have implica-
ted a role for CXCR4 in monocyte retention in the BM (Jung 
et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2015). However, it remains unclear if 
reduced expression of CXCR4 on monocytes, upon their 
extit from the BM, indicates its diminished role in monocyte 
biology in the circulation. Contrary to this assumption, we 
observed that CXCR4 functions as an important mediator 
in the spatiotemporal localization of monocytes in periph-
eral compartments. Notably, monocytes have been shown 
to shuttle back to the BM through an unknown mechanism 
(Varol et al., 2007). Using parabiosis and adoptive transfer 
approaches, we provide the first experimental evidence of 
CXCR4–mediated BM homing as a key mechanism in regu-
lating circulating monocyte numbers, which is in line with 
postulations discussed by Wang et al. (2009). Furthermore, we 
found a similar trend in CXCR4–dependent homing into the 
spleen, which further supports the idea that the spleen con-
tains a reservoir of bona fide monocytes (Swirski et al., 2009) 
that is not simply synonymous with the blood pool. Although 
we believe that the BM remains the major compartment 
where circulating monocytes home to as the spleen reser-
voir (Swirski et al., 2009) and its CXCL12 expression (Inra 
et al., 2015) are much smaller than that of the BM, splenic 
monocytes are mobilized during vascular and ischemic injury

mean ± SD (n = 4–5) and representative of one out of two independent experiments. (D and E) Total number of donor (CD45.1 +) monocytes with a Ly6Chi 
(left) or Ly6Clo (right) phenotype detected in blood (D) or BM (E) in recipient CD45.2 + mice that had been pretreated with or without AMD3100. Results are 
expressed as mean ± SD (n = 4) and representative of one out of three independent experiments. * P < 0.05; ** P < 0.01; *** P < 0.001 (two-way ANOVA).
Figure 7. Endotoxemia promotes monocyte retention in the pulmonary circulation. (A) Blood Ly6C<sup>hi</sup> (top) and Ly6C<sup>lo</sup> (bottom) monocyte counts after i.v. treatment with 10 ng LPS. Results are expressed as mean ± SEM (n = 4) and representative of one out of three independent experiments. ns, not significant; *, P < 0.05; **, P < 0.01; ****, P < 0.0001 (one-way ANOVA). (B) Illustration showing the intravascular labeling of leukocytes with anti-CD45 antibodies. (C) Representative flow cytometry plots showing the extravascular and intravascular localization of lung immune cells of one out of three independent experiments. (D and E) Quantification of Ly6C<sup>hi</sup> (left) and Ly6C<sup>lo</sup> (right) monocytes in blood (D) and lung tissues (E) from LPS-treated mice. Results are expressed as mean ± SEM (n = 4) and representative of one out of four experiments. ns, not significant; *, P < 0.05; **, P < 0.01; ***, P < 0.001; ****, P < 0.0001 (one-way ANOVA). (F) WT and Tlr4<sup>−/−</sup> chimeric mice were analyzed for Ly6C<sup>hi</sup> monocyte numbers after 1 h of LPS administration. Each data point represents one individual mouse and results are representative of two individual experiments. ns, not significant; **, P < 0.01 (one-way ANOVA).
and increase in numbers through extramedullary hematopoiesis (Leuschner et al., 2012; Robbins et al., 2012). Therefore, future work would be required to determine the extent of monocyte homing to the spleen in these scenarios.

Leukocytes rely heavily on the circulatory system to transport themselves to various tissues/organs. During this trafficking process, leukocytes may interact with endothelial cells for prolonged periods of time, which determines their transit time in organs. However, the functional outcomes of these leukocyte intravascular activities have been underappreciated. It has been proposed that the marginated pool is caused by the need for leukocytes to alter their morphology as they transit and crawl through small-caliber microvessels (Kuebler and Goetz, 2002). In particular, the lung represents a major site of leukocyte margination (Staub and Schultz, 1968; Hogg, 1987) and is the only organ to receive the full...
cardiac output. Previous studies have shown that leukocyte margination depends on a balance between the propelling force executed by the shear stress of blood flow (Martin et al., 1982) and a retaining force that delays monocyte transit. Data from our intravital imaging and lung efflux experiments suggest that CXCR4 interactions partly constitute the retention force in the lung vasculature. Importantly, we were able to successfully replicate these findings in both humanized mice and in a nonhuman primate model, suggesting that CXCR4 regulation of monocyte margination is likely to be physiologically relevant in humans.

Although leukocyte margination is a fundamental physiological process, their dysregulated intravascular migration and uncontrolled aggregation are associated with several human inflammatory diseases (MacNee and Selby, 1993; Looney and Bhattacharya, 2014). Here, we show that LPS...
triggers increased pulmonary accumulation of inflammatory Ly6C\textsuperscript{hi} monocytes that leads to lung injury but is ameliorated by CXCR4 inhibition. On the other hand, it appeared that CXCR4 did not play a significant role in Ly6C\textsuperscript{lo} monocyte margination during endotoxemia, suggesting that Ly6C\textsuperscript{lo} monocytes may use a different array of molecules to interact with the endothelium, such as integrins, as supported by a previous study (Carlin et al., 2013). Nevertheless, our study provides a mechanistic understanding of how CXCR4 antagonism may attenuate lung inflammatory diseases, as described by previous studies (Lukacs et al., 2002; Drummond et al., 2015). Furthermore, we show that interfering with CXCR4 signaling results in reduced monocyte accumulation in the lung, which was associated with increased sepsis survival. Notably, although monocytes are essential for bacteria clearance, they are also major contributors of the cytokine storm that leads to organ damage and mortality (Weber et al., 2015). Furthermore, monocyte depletion during ALI has been shown to improve the outcome of vascular injury (O’Dea et al., 2009; Dhaliwal et al., 2012). However, it is important to note that more experimental work would be required to determine the immune and organ-specific contexture of monocyte margination in the lung. Hence, our study shows that CXCR4-mediated monocyte compartmentalization may serve as a major biological regulatory mechanism that underlies immune homeostasis to prevent excessive damage to the host.

In summary, our study provides new insight into the current framework of monocyte development and homeostasis by identifying a previously undescribed population of TpMo among BM Ly6C\textsuperscript{hi} monocytes. Furthermore, our results extend the role of CXCR4 beyond its function as a BM retentive force to an important regulator in the peripheral

Figure 10. CXCR4 identifies a TpMo population in the BM and mediates monocyte cellular responses in peripheral tissues. (top) Monocytes arise from cMoPs and undergo a developmental pathway that ends with Ly6C\textsuperscript{hi} monocytes as the terminally differentiated form of monocytes. In this study, we propose that cMoP-differentiated Ly6C\textsuperscript{hi} monocytes undergo a developmental transition, which involves a transitional premonocyte (TpMo) stage, before giving rise to mature Ly6C\textsuperscript{hi} monocytes. TpMos are identified based on their CXCR4\textsuperscript{hi} expression compared with mature Ly6C\textsuperscript{lo} monocytes that are CXCR4\textsuperscript{lo}. Furthermore, TpMos can be distinguished from cMoPs based on their negative expression for c-kit. Functionally, TpMos are immobilized in the BM to serve as an immediate precursor for the active pool of mature CXCR4\textsuperscript{lo} Ly6C\textsuperscript{hi} monocytes. (Bottom) Upon entering the circulation, CXCR4 plays a significant role in monocyte margination in the pulmonary vasculature. Exposure to subclinical LPS doses triggers increased pulmonary monocyte margination, leading to a transient state of monocytopenia that can be reversed with CXCR4 inhibition using AMD3100. Disruption in CXCR4 signaling also attenuated lung injury and prevented sepsis mortality.
tissue compartment with implications in pulmonary inflammation. Hence, we envision that our results will provide a new framework for understanding monocyte biology and may lead to the engineering of improved monocyte-targeting therapeutic strategies.

MATERIALS AND METHODS
Mice and treatments
C57BL/6 mice (6–10-wk-old) were bred and maintained under specific pathogen–free conditions in the Biological Resource Centre (BRC) of A*STAR, Singapore. Lyz2cre/cre (B6.129P2-Lyz2miRg/Cre), Cx3cr1gay+/- (B6.129P2-Cx3cr1tm1Amf/J), Cxcr4fl/fl (B6.129P2-Cxcr4tm2Yzo/J), NOD-scid Il2rg-/- (NSG; NOD.Cg-Prkdcscid Il2rgtm1Wjl/SzJ), Rosa26+GrTmG (STOCK Gt(Rosa)26Sor1Mmtd/Flk-Ert2(Cre)R1Aav/J), and CD45.1 mice were obtained from The Jackson Laboratory. Fucci-4 mice were from the Biomedical Research Resource Center (Ibaraki, Japan; Sakaue-Sawano et al., 2009). Tlr4−/− mice were from the Institute of Physical and Chemical Research (Nakazawa et al., 2013). All transgenic mice were generated as described (Chen et al., 2013). All transgenic mice were maintained on a C57BL/6 background and experiments were performed under the approval of the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) of the BRC, in accordance with the guidelines of the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology of Japan and the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) of the Singapore National University. Mice were treated with 5mg/kg AMD3100 (perixiafor; Sigma-Aldrich) via subcutaneous injection and/or with 10 ng LPS derived from Escherichia coli (serotype O55:B5; Alexis Biochemicals) administered via intravenous route. All experiments were performed between ZT4 to ZT8 unless otherwise stated.

Tissue preparation for flow cytometry and sorting
Blood was obtained via cardiac puncture or incision in the submandibular region and was then treated with commercial-grade red blood cell lysis buffer (eBioscience). Lungs were removed en bloc in experiments looking at pulmonary margination and mice were perfused with PBS containing 2 mM EDTA using a peristaltic pump (MINIPULS 3; Gilson), followed by removal of the spleen and femurs. Lungs and spleens were finely minced and homogenized to single-cell suspensions using 70-µm nylon mesh sieves with syringe plungers (O’Dea et al., 2009). Mouse femurs were flushed and the effluent passed through a 70-µm nylon mesh sieve to obtain a BM cell suspension. Human BM mononuclear cells were purchased from Lonza and processed according to the manufacturer’s instructions. Antibodies were purchased from eBioscience, BioLegend, BD, or R&D Systems. Mouse cells were stained with the following antibodies: CCR2 (475301), CD3e (145-2C11), CD4 (GK1.5), CD8 (53–6.7), CD11b (M1/70), CD11c (N418), CD16/32 (93), CD19 (eBio1D3), CD31 (390), CD34 (RAM34), CD43 (S7), CD45 (30-F11), CD45.1 (A20), CD45.2 (104), CD45R/B220 (RA3-6B2), CD49a (HMb1), CD49f (GoH3), CD62L (MEL-14), CD71 (YTAD74.4), CD88 (20/70), CD115 (AFS598), CD172a (P84), CD274 (10E9G2), eKit (2B8), CXCR4 (2B11), CX3CR1 (SA011F11), F4/80 (Cl:A3-1), Flt3 (A2F10), IA-IE (M5/114.152), Ly6C (HK1.4), Ly6G (1A8), NK1.1 (PK136), and Ter119 (TER-119). Human cells were stained with the following antibodies: CD3 (UCHT1), CD10 (eBioCB-CALLA), CD11b (ICRF44), CD11c (B-ly6), CD14 (322A-1), CD16 (5G8), CD19 (HB19), CD20 (2H7), CD34 (581), CD45 (H30), CD56 (MEM188), CD62L (6H6), CXCR4 (12G5), and HLA-DR (2L243). Dead cells were identified and excluded using DAPI staining. Lungs, blood, and BM monocytes were identified as CD45+CD115−eKit+Ly6G−Lineage (CD3, CD19, CD45R/B220, and NK1.1) negative and Ly6C−CD43− or Ly6C+CD43+ according to the subset in mice and human BM classical monocytes identified as CD14+CD16+CD45−HLA-DR−Lineage (CD3, CD10, CD19, CD20, CD56, and CD123). Cells were acquired on a BD LSRII flow cytometer (BD) using FACSDiva Software, and data were analyzed using FlowJo Software (Tree Star). Total number of cells collected from blood or each tissue/organ was quantified using count beads (CountBright; Life Technologies) according to the manufacturer’s protocol. CXCR4 expression on monocytes was quantified as median fluorescent intensity (MFI) and normalized by subtracting the fluorescence minus one (FMO) control. For cell sorting, BM cells were sorted using a FACSAria II (BD) to achieve >98% purity.

Brdu pulsing and proliferation assays
For in vivo assays, mice were administered 1.5 mg BrdU (BD) via intraperitoneal injection at indicated time points for cell tracking or for 30 min to assess their proliferative capacity. For in vitro cell proliferative assays, human BM cells were pulsed with 10 µM of BrdU for 45 min. To detect BrdU incorporation into monocytes, cells were surface-stained, fixed, permeabilized, and subjected to intracellular staining with FITC-conjugated anti-BrdU antibody, together with 7-AAD for cell cycle analysis, according to the manufacturer’s protocol. CXCR4 expression on monocytes was quantified as median fluorescent intensity (MFI) and normalized by subtracting the fluorescence minus one (FMO) control. For cell sorting, BM cells were sorted using a FACSAria II (BD) to achieve >98% purity.

In vivo bead uptake
The ability of cells to uptake beads in vivo was assessed as previously described (Tacke et al., 2007). In brief, 0.5 µm Fluoresbrite polychromatic red microspheres (2.5% solids
[wt/vol]; Polysciences Inc.) were diluted 1:25 in PBS, and 250 μl of the solution was injected into the lateral tail vein of mice. After 4 h, mice were sacrificed and BM was collected, flushed, and stained with antibodies to distinguish the different monocyte cell populations.

Adoptive transfer of BM monocytes

Femurs and tibias were harvested from CD45.1 mice and flushed with ~5 ml PBS containing 3% FCS. RBCs were lysed and the remaining cells were resuspended in sterile PBS. A total of 10 million CD45.1 donor cells were adoptively transferred into CD45.2 recipient mice that were simultaneously treated with AMD3100 or PBS.Recipient mice were euthanized at the time points indicated in the respective figures, and the perfused femurs were harvested for flow cytometric identification of donor monocyte (CD45.1) engraftment into the BM of recipient animals (CD45.2). For intrafemoral transfer of BM Ly6C<sup>hi</sup> monocyte subsets, sorted 5 × 10<sup>5</sup> CD45.1<sup>+</sup> CXCR4<sup>hi</sup> were suspended in PBS and were transferred into the left femur of CD45.2<sup>+</sup> mice via an insulin syringe with a short needle (BD). At 8 and 24 h after cell transfer, BM femurs were collected, and the resulting cell suspensions were analyzed by flow cytometry to establish the phenotype of the CD45.1<sup>+</sup> progeny of the transferred cell populations.

Dimensionality reduction using t-SNE and automatic clustering

BM Ly6C<sup>hi</sup> monocytes were manually gated from multicolor flow cytometry data, as shown in Fig. 1 A, and were exported in a FCS file. In this study, t-Distributed Stochastic Neighbor Embedding (t-SNE) dimensionality reduction was performed using bh_tse, an implementation of t-SNE via Barnes-Hut approximations. R was used as an interface to execute bh_tse, as previously described (Becher et al., 2014). K-means automatic clustering was performed using CYT in Matlab. 90,000 events were used for t-SNE dimensionality reduction.

Transcriptomics

cMoP, Ly6C<sup>hi</sup>CXCR4<sup>hi</sup>, Ly6C<sup>hi</sup>CXCR4<sup>lo</sup>, and Ly6C<sup>lo</sup> monocytes were sorted according to the gating strategy shown in Fig. 2 A. After sorting, cells were incubated for 3 h in RPMI + 10% FCS and were then subjected to RNA isolation. Total RNA was extracted using Arcturus PicoPure RNA Isolation kit according to the manufacturer’s protocol. All mouse RNAs were analyzed on Perkin Elmer Labchip GX system for quality assessment with RIN > 7.9. cDNA libraries were prepared using 2 ng of total RNA and 1 μl of a 1:50,000 dilution of ERCC RNA Spike in Controls (Ambion) using SMARTSeq v2 protocol (Picelli et al., 2014), except for the following modifications: (1) use of 20 μM TSO; and (2) use of 250 pg of cDNA with 1/5 reaction of Illumina Nextera XT kit. The length distribution of the cDNA libraries was monitored using DNA High Sensitivity Reagent kit on the Perkin Elmer Labchip. All eight samples were subjected to an indexed PE sequencing run of 2 × 51 cycles on an Illumina HiSeq 2500 Rapid mode (14 samples/lane).

RNA-Seq data in the form of FASTQ files were subsequently mapped to the mouse genome build mm10 using the STAR alignment software. The mapped reads were then counted using featureCounts (part of Subread package) based on the GENCODE M9 annotations. The raw counts were then used for a differential gene expression analysis (DEG) using edgeR (R version 3.1.2) with adjusted P < 0.05 and fold change >2 to identify genes differentially regulated in monocyte subsets. A filter for genes having a mean count of at least 10 was done to eliminate low expressing and non-expressing genes before DEG analysis. PCA of samples was done using logCPM (count per million reads) values of all detected genes. PCA, volcano plot, and heat maps were done in R version 3.1.2. Pathway analysis of DEGs was done using IPA software (Qiagen).

Computational inference of developmental path

CMap (Lamb et al., 2006) analysis was performed using DEGs between Ly6C<sup>hi</sup>CXCR4<sup>hi</sup> and Ly6C<sup>lo</sup> monocytes. Positive CMap scores indicate enrichment of Ly6C<sup>hi</sup> signature genes, whereas negative CMap scores indicate enrichment of Ly6C<sup>lo</sup> signature genes. R package seriation (Hahsler et al., 2008) was used to find a suitable linear order for cMoP, CXCR4<sup>hi</sup>, and CXCR4<sup>lo</sup> Ly6C<sup>hi</sup> monocytes. Six different seriation methods, including TSP, R.2E, ARSA, HC, GW, and OLO, were applied. TSP, ARSA, and OLO produced the best and identical results with regard to the shortest path length, minimal AR events, and minimum Moore stress. Seriation analysis was done using logCPM values of all detected genes. PCA, CMap, and seriation analyses suggest a developmental path from cMoP to CXCR4<sup>hi</sup>, followed by CXCR4<sup>lo</sup> Ly6C<sup>hi</sup> monocyte.

Wanderlust was executed using CYT in Matlab, as previously described (Bendall et al., 2014). Wanderlust was run on six phenotypic markers: CXCR4, CD31, CD16/32, CX3CR1, CCR2, and CD11b, using the following parameters: number of neighbors l = 30, k = 5, number of landmarks nl = 20, number of graphs to generate ng = 25, distance metric = angular. The starting point (early events) consisted of selected Ly6C<sup>hi</sup> cells that expressed high levels of CXCR4, whereas negative CMap scores indicate enrichment of Ly6C<sup>hi</sup> signature genes. R package seriation (Hahsler et al., 2008) was used to find a suitable linear order for cMoP, CXCR4<sup>hi</sup>, and CXCR4<sup>lo</sup> Ly6C<sup>hi</sup> monocytes. Six different seriation methods, including TSP, R.2E, ARSA, HC, GW, and OLO, were applied. TSP, ARSA, and OLO produced the best and identical results with regard to the shortest path length, minimal AR events, and minimum Moore stress. Seriation analysis was done using logCPM values of all detected genes. PCA, CMap, and seriation analyses suggest a developmental path from cMoP to CXCR4<sup>hi</sup>, followed by CXCR4<sup>lo</sup> Ly6C<sup>hi</sup> monocyte.

Parabiosis and BM chimeric mice

Female mice were anesthetized using 2.5% Avertin (15 ml/kg), shaved at the corresponding lateral sides of the body, and then surgically joined as previously described (Hashimoto et al., 2013). After surgery, the mice were treated with Baytril (0.05–2 mg/kg s.c.) and Buprenorphine (5–20 mg/kg s.c.) and allowed to recover for 8 wk. Since Lyz2<sup>cre</sup>Cxcr4<sup>fl</sup> and Cxcr4<sup>−/−</sup> mice exhibit steady-state monocytosis and monocytopenia, respectively, parabiosis with WT animals results in unequal exchange of circulating leukocytes (Fig. 6 C); the re-
results of these experiments were hence represented as a homing ratio to control for differences in absolute cell numbers between these mice. To determine the number of cells that had infiltrated a given organ, the number of nonhost cells present in that organ was divided by the total number of nonhost cells present in the host circulation (expressed as the homing ratio). To determine the total number of circulating cells, the blood volume present in an individual mouse was calculated using the formula: \( y = 0.0715x \), where \( y \) and \( x \) represent the blood volume (milliliters) and body weight (grams), respectively, as previously described (van Furth and Slutier, 1986).

To generate BM chimeric mice, 6-wk-old WT and \( Tlr^{−/−} \) mice were irradiated with two doses of 550 rad spaced 3 h apart and reconstituted with BM from WT or \( Tlr^{−/−} \) mice under sterile conditions. Recipient mice were analyzed 6 wk after irradiation, and number of Ly6C\(^{hi} \) monocytes were quantified 1 h after administration of LPS.

**Scanning electron microscopy**

Sorted CXCR4\(^{4+} \) and CXCR4\(^{4−} \) monocytes were seeded onto coverslips and incubated at 37°C, 5% CO\(_2\), for 3 h to allow cell adhesion onto coverslips. Cells were fixed with 2.5% Glutaraldehyde (Sigma-Aldrich) in PBS, washed, and post-fixed in 1% Osmium tetroxide (Electron Microscopy Services) in PBS, and then dehydrated in ethanol and processed by critical point drying (EM CPD030; Leica). Finally, samples were sputter-coated with gold using an EM SCD050 (Leica) and imaged on the JSM-6701F, JEOL scanning electron microscope at 4,000 × magnification. 60–70 cells were acquired for each tested group and representative images of a typical phenotype were presented in the figure.

**Intravital multiphoton imaging of lung**

Imaging of the lung was performed as previously described (Looney et al., 2011). In brief, mice were anaesthetized with a cocktail of ketamine and xylazine before cannulation of the trachea to allow connection to a mechanical ventilator (tidal volume, \( \sim 8–10 \mu l/g \) body weight; respiratory rate, \( \sim 120 \) breaths per minute; MiniVent 845; Hugo Sachs Elektronik). Mice were then placed onto a heat pad to maintain body temperature at 37°C, followed by the removal of skin, muscle, and two rib bones to expose the lung. A custom-made vacuum window ring was used to immobilize the lung via application of a negative pressure vacuum (\( \sim 40 \) mmHg). To label the pulmonary vasculature, 70kD TRI-coupled dextran (250 mg in 100 \( \mu l \) saline; Sigma-Aldrich) or Evan’s blue (50 \( \mu g \) in 50 \( \mu l \) sterile PBS) was administered i.v. into mice. Experimental groups consisted of mice administered with AMD3100 s.c., LPS i.v., or a combination of AMD3100 and LPS administered together via the different routes. Imaging of the lung began 45 min after single treatment with AMD3100 or LPS, whereas co-treatment of both AMD3100 and LPS were imaged at 2 h into AMD3100 and 45 min into LPS simultaneously. For the visualization of monocyte subsets, 4 \( \mu g \) of Ly6B.2-PE (Novus Biologicals) were administered i.v. in Cx3cr1\(^{Gfp/+} \) mice (Fig. 8, E and F). Experiments were performed at 880 or 990 nm excitation and \( 364 \times 364 \) \( \mu m \) images were acquired in fast mode over a period of 30 min using a 4-\( \mu m \) z-step size with an approximate depth of 20 \( \mu m \). After acquisition, images were averaged to match respiratory movements, and drifts during imaging were corrected where necessary (FIJI software). Images were subsequently transformed into time series movies using Imaris. Tracking of GFP\(^{+} \) cells was performed semiautomatically using Imaris spot-tracking algorithms, and mean velocity was extracted. The duration of GFP\(^{+} \) cell adherence in the lung vasculature was tabulated manually.

**Localization of intravascular lung monocytes**

Intravascular staining of lung monocytes was performed in vivo according to a previously described protocol (Anderson et al., 2014). In brief, mice were anaesthetized by isoflurane inhalation and APC-conjugated anti-CD45.2 (clone 104; eBioscience) was administered i.v. (4 \( \mu g \) antibody in 200 \( \mu l \) saline). The antibody was allowed to circulate for 3 min before the mice were euthanized. Lungs were removed en bloc and processed immediately in an excess volume of PBS containing 3% FCS and 2 mM EDTA to dilute any excess antibody. FITC-conjugated anti-CD45.2 (clone 104; eBioscience) was included in the antibody-staining panel to identify extravascular cells.

**Lung efflux assay**

The method used for tandem blood sample collection from the carotid artery and vena cava has been described previously (Devi et al., 2013). In brief, mice were anaesthetized with isoflurane and a midline incision was performed on the neck to expose the underlying carotid artery. A microvascular clamp was applied to the artery, which was then cannulated by insertion of EDTA-filled polyethylene 10 tubing (inner diam, 0.28 mm; outer diam, 0.61 mm). After securing the cannula with a surgical suture, the clamp was released and \( \sim 40 \) \( \mu l \) of arterial blood was collected into an Eppendorf tube. Blood was simultaneously drawn from the inferior vena cava using a 26-gauge needle attached to a prefilled EDTA syringe. Samples were collected 1 h after LPS injection, or 2 h after AMD3100 treatment. For mice that were cotreated with AMD3100 and LPS, the CXCR4 inhibitor was administered 1 h before injection of LPS, and blood sample collection took place an additional 1 h later. Both arterial and venous blood samples were subsequently analyzed by flow cytometry.

For lung efflux assays done on nonhuman primates, all experiments were performed on adult female Macaca fascicularis at the SingHealth Experimental Medicine Center (accredited by the Association for Assessment and Accreditation of Laboratory Animal Care) under approval #2012/SHS/692 from the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of Singapore, as previously described (Devi et al., 2013). In brief, midline laparotomy was performed under general anesthesia and \( \sim 1 \) ml of blood was each collected from the abdominal
aorta and inferior vena cava at baseline and hourly intervals after s.c. administration of AMD3100 (0.5 mg/kg). Monocyte numbers were determined using a Hematology Analyzer (Beckman-Coulter).

The number of monocytes leaving the pulmonary circulation (termed net release) was calculated by subtracting the number of monocytes present in the venous blood sample from the number of monocytes present in the arterial blood sample.

**Pulmonary vascular permeability assay**

To assess the influence of monocytes or CXCR4-signaling on pulmonary vascular permeability, we used a LPS-Zymo-

san induced model of ALI (O’Dea et al., 2009). For the induction of ALI, mice were administered i.v. with 10 ng of LPS for 2 h. Subsequently, 150 μg in 100 μl of Zymosan-A (Sigma-Aldrich) was resuspended with 5 μl per g of 10 mg/ml of Evans blue (Sigma-Aldrich) and injected i.v. into mice. Mice were sacrificed 1 h later and lungs were perfused with PBS using a peristaltic pump (MINIPULS 3, Gilson). Lungs were weighed and Evans blue was extracted from the lung by incubating samples in 1 ml of N,N-dimethlyformamide (Sigma-Aldrich) at 37°C overnight. The supernatant was separated by centrifugation at 5,000 g for 30 min. The concentration of Evans blue in lung homogenate supernatants was quantified by a dual wavelength spectrophotometric method at absorptions of 620 and 740 nm, which allows for correction of containing heme pigments using the following formula: $E_{620}$ (corrected) = $E_{620} - (1.426 \times E_{740} + 0.030)$

**Chemotaxis assay**

Femurs and tibias were harvested from C57BL/6 mice and flushed with ~5 ml of PBS containing 3% FCS. RBCs were lysed and the resultant cells were suspended in sterile PBS for labeling with antibodies against CD11b, CD45, CD115, CXCR4, Flt3, cKIT, and Ly6C, as well as an exclusion cocktail of antibodies against unwanted lineages (CD3, CD45R/B220, Ly6G, and NK1.1). BM monocytes were identified as Lin−Flt3−cKit−CD115−Ly6C− cells that displayed either a CXCR4lo or CXCR4hi phenotype. The CXCR4hi and CXCR4lo subsets were then sorted at high speed using a BD FACSAria III apparatus (BD). A total of 10⁵ sorted monocytes were transferred onto the top layer of a polycarbonate membrane with 3 μm pore size (Transwell; Corning), before being placed into lower chambers containing 0–50 ng of recombi-

nant CCL2 (R&D Systems) and incubated at 37°C for 2 h. After incubation, the cells in the bottom chamber were harvested and analyzed by flow cytometry to determine the percentage of migrated monocytes (expressed as a proportion of the total cells that were initially loaded into the top chamber).

**CLP-induced sepsis**

Experimental procedures were performed as previously described (Rittirsch et al., 2009). In brief, the peritoneal cavity was exposed under ketamine/xylazine anesthesia and the cecum was exteriorized. ~80% of the cecum was ligated distal of the ileo-cecal valve using a nonabsorbable 7–0 suture. A 23-gauge needle was used to perforate the distal end of the cecum, and a small drop of feces was extruded through the puncture before being relocated into the peritoneal cavity. The peritoneum was closed and subsequently treated with saline and Buprenorphine (5–20 mg/kg s.c.) via s.c. injection. Age-matched controls were included for all procedures.

**Statistical analysis**

Statistical analyses were performed using Prism software (GraphPad). Data were tested using either Student’s t test (normal distribution) or ANOVA (one-way or two-way as appropriate), as indicated in the respective figure legends. P < 0.05 was considered significant.

**Accession nos.**

All RNA-sequencing data have been deposited at the National Center for Biotechnology Information Gene Expres-

sion Omnibus public database under accession no. GSE86079.

**Online supplemental material**

Fig. S1 shows heat maps of genes that are significantly and differentially expressed between cell subsets of the monocyte developmental pathway. Fig. S2 shows detailed histograms of cell surface marker expression for distinguishing monocyte subsets. Fig. S3 shows gating strategy for the analysis of CXCR4 expression on BM Ly6Clo monocytes. Fig. S4 shows gating strategy of blood monocytes in mice. Video 1 shows monocyte margination in the pulmonary vasculature. Video 2 shows the visualization of Ly6Clo monocytes in a Cx3cr1gfp/+ mouse with an anti-Ly6B.2 antibody.

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