1 ***Schistosoma mansoni* infection reprograms the metabolic potential of the myeloid lineage in**
2 **a mouse model of metabolic syndrome**
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Summary

Despite evidence that helminths protect from metabolic disease, a major gap exists in

understanding the underlying mechanism(s). Here we demonstrate that bone marrow derived

macrophages (BMDM) from *S. mansoni* infected male ApoE$^{-/-}$ mice have dramatically increased

mitochondrial respiration compared to those from uninfected mice. This change associates with

increased glucose and palmitate shuttling into TCA cycle intermediates and decreased

accumulation of cellular cholesterol esters. Moreover, systemic metabolic modulation by

schistosomes is a function of biological sex, where infection protects ApoE$^{-/-}$ male, but not

female, mice from obesity and glucose intolerance. Sex-dependence extends to myeloid cells,

where reprogramming leads to opposite cholesterol phenotypes in BMDM from females and

males. Finally, the metabolic reprogramming of male myeloid cells is transferrable via bone

marrow transplantation to an uninfected host, indicating maintenance of reprogramming in the

absence of sustained antigen exposure. This work reveals that *S. mansoni* systemic reprograming

of myeloid metabolism is sex-dependent.

Introduction

Cardiovascular disease (CVD) is the leading worldwide cause of mortality (Hinton et al., 2018;

Roth et al., 2017). In the United States, 65% of adults diagnosed with diabetes have elevated

LDL cholesterol levels or take cholesterol lowering medications, and death rates from

atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease (CVD) are ~1.7 times higher in this population as

compared to non-diabetic adults (Emerging Risk Factors et al., 2010). It is well established that

in the diabetic population, obesity, and dyslipidemia are risk factors underlying these increases in

mortality, while hyperglycemia is an independent risk factor (Marks and Raskin, 2000; Wong et

al., 2016). Underlying conditions such as diabetes and atherosclerosis contribute to the burden of

CVD in both females and males. While, the incidence of CVD is markedly higher in men than in

age-matched women (Opotowsky et al., 2007; Tan et al., 2010), the risk of developing CVD

while diabetic is much greater in women than men (Humphries et al., 2017; Peters et al., 2014).

In non-diabetic patients, females exhibit increased insulin sensitivity in comparison to males, as

well as reduced prevalence of dysglycemia and enhanced muscle glucose uptake (Cnop et al.,

2003; Kim and Reaven, 2013; Moran et al., 2008; Willeit et al., 1997), suggesting sex-dependent

modulations in whole body metabolism. Recent studies suggest a role of the gut microbiota in

the differences between sexes in the regulation of lipid metabolism (Baars et al., 2018).

Nevertheless, complete understanding of mechanistic basis behind sexual dimorphism in

metabolic syndrome is still lacking.

Previous studies have uncovered an association between a history of helminth infection and

reduced prevalence of metabolic disease in humans and rodents ((Doenhoff et al., 2002; Stanley

et al., 2009; Wiria et al., 2015). Specifically, infection by Schistosomes reduces cholesterol and

atherosclerotic plaques (Doenhoff et al., 2002; Stanley et al., 2009), this effect has been

attributed, in part, to an anti-inflammatory phenotype in macrophages (Wolfs et al., 2014) and

transcriptional reprogramming of phospholipid and glucose metabolism related genes in hepatic

macrophages (Cortes-Selva et al., 2018). Moreover, it has been postulated that schistosomes

have the potential to affect long term glucose metabolism in T cells (Chen et al., 2013).

Accumulating evidence suggests that biological sex affects disease progression; yet the effect of

schistosomiasis on metabolic-protection in females and males it is not well understood, as most

studies have been conducted only in males or no sex differentiation has been made during data

analysis ((Sanya et al., 2019; Shen et al., 2015; Wolde et al., 2019)). To date, no report with a

particular emphasis on females has been conducted.

Schistosomiasis induces Th2 polarization and alternative activation of macrophages, essential for

host survival (Barron and Wynn, 2011; Fairfax et al., 2012; Herbert et al., 2004). IL-4 induced

alternative activation of macrophages relies on oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS) and fatty

acid oxidation for energy production, and is dependent on cell intrinsic lysosomal lipolysis

(Huang et al., 2014; Vats et al., 2006). Macrophage metabolism follows a dysmorphic pattern, as

sex-related differences affect the processes involved in cholesterol and lipid metabolism in

macrophages as well as inflammatory cytokine production in adipose tissue (Griffin et al., 2016;

Ng et al., 2001). Moreover, in rats, phagocytes from females had increased ROS generation than

males (Rudyk et al., 2018). Such differences have often been attributed to the role of sex

hormones in gene expression and immune cell function (Rubinow, 2018; Taneja, 2018; Winn et

al., 2019), but a clear understanding of the effects of sex on the regulation of macrophage

metabolism, as well as how sex modulates the effects of schistosomiasis in the protection from

metabolic disease is lacking.

In the present study, we sought to determine the systemic effects of *S. mansoni* infection on the

myeloid lineage. Surprisingly, we discovered that macrophages derived from the bone marrow of

S. mansoni infected male mice have dramatically increased oxygen consumption and

mitochondrial mass compared to those from uninfected males. This shift is accompanied by

increased carbon shuttling into TCA cycle intermediates, a decrease in cholesterol esters, and

increased fatty acid oxidation. When we examined the role of biological sex in schistosome

induced modulation we found that *S. mansoni* infection does not reliably protect ApoE^{-/-} female

mice from HFD induced weight gain or glucose intolerance. The sex-dependent effect of

infection extends to the myeloid lineage, where bone marrow derived macrophages from infected

females display the opposite metabolic phenotype as those from infected males, with a dramatic

increase in cellular cholesterol esters. Overall, these data present the first evidence that *S.*

mansoni systemically modulates the myeloid compartment in a sex-dependent manner and

provide a more comprehensive understanding of how *S. mansoni* infection may confer metabolic

protection at the cellular level.

Results

Macrophages derived from *S. mansoni* infected male mice have increased oxygen

consumption and spare respiratory capacity

We have previously reported that schistosomiasis alters the expression of numerous genes

relevant to glucose, cholesterol, and amino acid metabolism in hepatic macrophages of male

mice (Cortes-Selva et al., 2018). These alterations are associated with improved insulin

sensitivity and atherosclerotic score in male mice.   Since it has previously been shown that

during *S. mansoni* infection the majority of liver macrophages are monocyte derived, and

monocyte recruitment drives both atherosclerosis (Potteaux et al., 2011; Tacke et al., 2007) and

obesity induced insulin resistance (Beliard et al., 2017; Liang et al., 2007; Oh et al., 2012; Rull et

al., 2010), we hypothesized that Schistosome infection may imprint the monocyte- macrophage

lineage with altered metabolic propensities. To elucidate whether infection imprints

macrophages with an altered metabolic phenotype we infected (and mock infected controls)

atherogenesis-prone male ApoE$^{-/-}$ mice on high-fat diet (HFD), and sacrificed them at 10-weeks

post-infection to harvest bone marrow cells. Macrophages were differentiated *in vitro* with M-

CSF in a 6-7-day culture. We performed real-time extracellular flux analysis on unstimulated

bone marrow derived macrophages (BMDM) from ApoE$^{-/-}$ HFD infected and uninfected

(control) HFD mice to quantify oxygen consumption rate (OCR) (Figure 1A). BMDM from

ApoE$^{-/-}$ HFD infected mice showed improved basal respiration (Figure 1B) and significantly

increased spare respiratory capacity ($p < 0.0001$, Figure 1C). Since eukaryotic cells integrate

oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS), glycolysis and the tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle to

satisfy energy requirements, we also tested the extracellular acidification rate (ECAR), which is

suggested as a marker of inhibited mitochondrial respiration (Pike Winer and Wu, 2014), in

BMDM from infected and uninfected ApoE$^{-/-}$ HFD mice. We observed no differences in ECAR

in infected male mice compared to uninfected controls (Figure 1D). Cell intrinsic lysosomal

lipolysis has previously been shown to support macrophage spare respiratory capacity in the

context of macrophage alternative activation (Huang et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2017). We stained

for hydrophobic and neutral lipids by Oil Red O (ORO) (Mehlem et al., 2013) and observed that

the lipid content of BMDM from infected ApoE$^{-/-}$ males trended to reduction in comparison to

the control group, but was not significantly reduced (Figure 1E). To analyze BMDM

mitochondrial mass, which has also been linked to increased respiratory capacity (Langston et

al., 2017), we analyzed mitochondrial activity by Mitotracker Deep Red FM. We observed that

BMDM from infected mice exhibited increased MitoTracker median fluorescent intensity (MFI)

in comparison to the BMDM from uninfected mice (Figure 1F). Overall, these data indicate that

S. mansoni infection in males leads to increased oxygen consumption and mitochondrial

metabolism in BMDM. Mitochondrial oxidative dysfunction in macrophages has recently been

linked to insulin resistance (Jung et al., 2018), so this metabolic shift could contribute to the

infection-induced improvement in glucose tolerance seen in infected males .

Schistosomiasis in male ApoE$^{-/-}$ mice alters metabolic flux of glucose and the lipidomic

fingerprint of macrophages

In order to understand how Schistosome infection alters the metabolic fingerprint and promotes

mitochondrial metabolism in macrophages derived from ApoE$^{-/-}$ HFD male mice, we performed

metabolic tracing analysis, where macrophages were differentiated in the presence of normal

glucose and then switched to ^{13}C-labeled glucose for 24 hours. We observed increased shuttling

of heavy labeled glucose to malate (Figure 2A), citrate (Figure 2B), itaconate (Figure 2C), and

succinate Figure 2E in BMDM from infected mice in comparison to BMDM from uninfected

mice. The lack of increased heavy lactate production (Figure 2D), suggests that the primary

reprogramming is focused on glucose-dependent mitochondrial metabolism. Importantly, we

found no upregulation of alternative activation markers (CD301, CD206, Arg1, Nos2) in

unstimulated BMDM from infected mice when compared to BMDM from controls

(Supplementary Figure 1). Since we have previously shown that infection alters the phospholipid

and cholesterol metabolism in hepatic macrophages (Cortes-Selva et al., 2018), we performed

unbiased lipidomics using liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC-MS). We used a

supervised model by partial least squares-discriminant analysis (PLS-DA), with two components

to determine the lipidomic profile of BMDM. There was a robust separation between groups that

indicates the metabolic profiles of BMDM from infected and uninfected males differ

significantly and suggests that there is a prominent alteration of metabolites induced by infection

in male mice (Figure 2F). The lipid species that drive the variation observed in the PLS-DA as

measured by the Variable Importance in Projection (VIP) score from uninfected males in

comparison to infected males included cholesterol esters (CE) (20:1), CE (22:0), CE (24:0), CE

(24:1), CE (22:4), CE (22:1), CE (18:0); diacylglycerols (DG) (16:0_16:0), DG (16:0_18:0) and

triacyclglycerol (TG) (16:0_16:0_16:0) (Figure 2G,H). We then analyzed the total CE levels in

macrophages from both groups of male mice and found that infection led to significantly reduced

CE in male mice ($p<0.0001$, Figure 2I), further evidencing an important role of cholesterol

metabolism in macrophages following helminth infection. Next, we determined the

transcriptomic modifications induced by infection in unstimulated BMDM from infected and

uninfected males by mRNA sequencing (mRNAseq). Significant gene expression differences

were observed in BMDM from infected male mice, compared to uninfected controls. Transcripts

from the two groups are depicted in Volcano plots, using false discovery rate (FDR<0.05 in red,

FDR<0.01 in blue) and Log2 fold changes (cut off of .6 Log2 FC) to identify statistically

significant genes (Figure 2J). Among the differentially regulated factors are Gbp6, which is

related to interferon-γ signaling and innate immune function; Gm7609, a predicted pseudogene;

Gbp4, a member of the GTPase family involved in protective immunity against microbial and

viral pathogens; Apol9a, which is predicted to be related to lipid transport, lipoprotein metabolic

processes and stimulated by interferon; Iigp1, a GTPase with roles in response to intracellular

pathogens; CD300e, which belongs to families of paired activating and inhibitory receptors

implicated in immune responses; and Batf2, a basic leucine zipper factor whose activation is

detrimental for type-1 infectious disease. Importantly, Mgll, which encodes monoacylglycerol

lipase that catalyzes the conversion of monoacylglycerides to free fatty acids and glycerol was

significantly increased. Mgll is required for lipolysis and improved glucose homeostasis in mice

on HFD (Berdan et al., 2016; Douglass et al., 2015), an infection driven increase was validated

by RT-qPCR (Figure 2L). In addition, Slc1a3, which encodes for the glutamate aspartate

transporter 1 that is localized in the inner mitochondria membrane as part of the malate-aspartate

shuttle and is relevant for amino acid homeostasis in adipocytes, was significantly altered in our

model, and was further validated by RT-qPCR (Figure 2M). Interestingly, the pathways

significantly altered (Figure 2K) during infection included hematopoietic cell lineage (p=5.779

$\times 10^{-8}$), asthma (p=3.169 $\times 10^{-5}$), and cytokine-cytokine receptor interactions, graft-versus host

disease, type 1 diabetes and allograft regression (p=0.0000894). Together, these data identify key

factors in immune and metabolic responses as well as novel factors with unknown functions that

are regulated by exposure to *S. mansoni* infection.

***S. mansoni* infection protects male mice, but not female mice, from obesity and glucose**

intolerance independently of systemic alternative macrophage activation

Sex is a key contributor to the phenotype of cardiovascular and metabolic features in mammals

(Chella Krishnan et al., 2018), so we assessed the sex dependent impact of *S. mansoni* infection

on obesity and glucose intolerance. For this, we fed male and female ApoE$^{-/-}$ HFD for 10-days

before infection. We infected and mock infected mice (controls) as described in the methods.

Ten weeks post infection we analyzed body weight and glucose tolerance (via an IP glucose

tolerance test) and found that infection is significantly beneficial for male, but not female mice,

as only males are protected from HFD-induced weight gain and glucose intolerance (Figure 3A,

3B). We also analyzed serum triglyceride (TG) and diglyceride (DG) levels using untargeted

lipidomics and found that relative abundance of both TG and DG were decreased in infected

males as compared to uninfected males, while TGs were increased by infection in females and

DGs were unchanged (Figure 3C). These data indicate that *S. mansoni* infection induces a sex-

dependent modulation of metabolic disease parameters. We then wondered if this infection-

mediated effect in males only was correlated with differences in systemic alternative activation

of hepatic macrophages in females. Flow cytometry analysis showed that alternative activation

markers (CD206, CD301, Arg1) were highly expressed in macrophages from male and female

mice following infection, but not in naïve mice (Figure 3D), suggesting that *S. mansoni* induced

alternative activation irrespective of sex. Previous studies characterizing the dynamics of

alternatively activated macrophages during schistosome infection have found that these

macrophages primarily arise from Ly6C^{high} monocytes (Girgis et al., 2014; Nascimento et al.,

2014). Naïve male and female ApoE$^{-/-}$ mice on HFD had equivalent frequencies of Ly6c^{high}

monocytes circulating in peripheral blood. At 10-weeks post infection we found an increased

percentage of both Ly6C^{int} and Ly6C^{high} cells (Figure 3E) in both male and female mice

compared to the mock infected controls, with the frequency of Ly6C^{high} cells in females 1.74

times that of males, suggesting either increased monopoiesis in females, or increased tissue

recruitment in males . Since we had found increased mitochondrial MFI in BMDM from infected

male mice, we asked whether circulating blood monocytes are similarly modulated. We observed

an infection induced increase in Mitotracker fluorescent intensity in monocytes from male ApoE^{-}

$^{/-}$ mice on HFD, but not from females (Figure 3F). These data suggest that there is sex-specific

increased mitochondrial activity following infection in the monocyte cell population. We then

wondered if these effects in the differentiated monocytes are the result of long-lasting changes in

the myeloid lineage after helminth infection. For this, we analyzed the main lineages of

hematopoietic progenitors that produce myeloid cells: granulocyte-monocyte progenitors (GMP),

monocyte-DC progenitors (MDP) and the common myeloid progenitor (CMP) in female and

male ApoE$^{-/-}$ mice. CMP were defined as Lin$^-$CD127$^-$c-Kit$^+$Sca-1$^-$CD34$^+$FcRII/III$^{lo/-}$(Paul et al.,

2016), GMP were defined as Lin$^-$IL-7R$^-$Sca-1$^-$c-kit$^+$CD34$^+$FcR II/III$^+$, and MDP were defined

as defined as Lin$^-$ c-Kit$^+$ Sca-1$^-$ CD34$^+$ FcγR^{lo} CD115^{hi} cells. Overall bone marrow cellularity

was not affected by Schistosome infection (Figure 3G), however, the numbers of CMP and GMP

in infected male mice were significantly reduced compared to uninfected controls, while GMP

and CMP were not reduced in females (Figure 3 H-J). The numbers and percentages of MDP

remained unchanged in infected females and males compared to uninfected controls (Figure 3K,

3L). These data suggest that *S. mansoni* infection modulates both metabolic disease and the

myeloid lineage in a sex-specific manner that is independent from the induction of systemic

alternative activation.

***S. mansoni*-increases fatty acid oxidation in male but not female ApoE$^{-/-}$ mice on HFD**

In order to determine whether infection-induced pathologic differences in males and females

were accompanied by sex-specific differential macrophage metabolic regulation, we cultured

bone marrow cells from 10-week infected or uninfected control male and female mice for 7 days

to generate BMDM. OCR was measured in real time in basal conditions and following the

addition of mitochondrial inhibitors in unstimulated BMDM from both infected and uninfected

male and female ApoE$^{-/-}$ animals. Similar to as seen in Figure 1A, BMDM from infected males

exhibited increased basal OCR and spare respiratory capacity compared to uninfected male

controls (Figure 4A, 4B, 4C). However, basal OCR and spare respiratory capacity of BMDM

from infected females remained unaltered in comparison to BMDM from uninfected females

(Figure 4A, 4B, 4C). Moreover, side by side OCR analysis in females and males with palmitate

as a substrate (glucose limiting conditions) showed that BMDM from infected male, but not from

infected females had an increased ability to oxidize exogenous palmitate (Figure 4D). In

addition, BMDM from infected males but not females had significantly increased palmitate basal

OCR and palmitate spare respiratory capacity, suggesting exogenous free fatty usage as a carbon

source for OXPHOS (Figure 4E, 4F). Similar to the male only data, we observed no differences

in macrophage lipid content in either group, suggesting that global lipolysis may not underlie

OCR and spare respiratory capacity in our model (Figure 4G). Additionally, analysis of

mitochondrial mass in females and males showed that similar to blood monocytes, BMDM from

infected male mice, but not females have a significantly higher Mitotracker MFI. These data

suggest that *S. mansoni* infection improved mitochondrial biogenesis in males, but not females.

Again, suggesting differential regulation of macrophage metabolism based on biological sex.

This regulation may account in part for the differences in the role of infection in modulating

obesity and insulin sensitivity.

***S. mansoni* infection differentially alters the cellular lipid profile in female and male mice**

To understand the sex specific modulations induced by schistosomiasis in macrophage lipid

metabolism, we isolated cellular lipids from unstimulated BMDM and performed unbiased

lipidomics in male and female derived-cells. PLS-DA showed that *S. mansoni* infection led to a

sex-specific lipid profile (Figure 5A). Further, analysis of total CE (identified as a VIP species in

males in Figure 2) showed that infection led to decreased levels of CE in cells derived from

infected male mice. In contrast, infection led to significantly increased total CE in BMDM

derived from infected female mice (Figure 5B). Similar to males, infection in females induces a

unique lipid signature (Figure 5C), with two species of plasmanyl-PE, three species of

plasmanyl-PC, BMP and CE as the main drivers of the altered lipid profile in females during

infection (Figure 5D). Since we observed BMP's as a VIP compound driven by *S. mansoni*

infection in females, but not males, we went back and performed targeted lipidomics to quantify

BMPs at the class level. Indeed, total BMPs were significantly increased by infection in BMDM

from females but not males (Figure 5E). Our Seahorse data indicates that *S. mansoni* infection

induced differential oxidation of exogenous palmitate in BMDM derived from males and

females. In order to understand the metabolic flux of exogenous palmitate, we performed

metabolic tracing analysis of palmitate, where macrophages were differentiated in the presence

of normal glucose and then switched to C^{13}-labeled palmitate for 24 hours. Similar to what we

documented with glucose, we observed increased shuttling of heavy labeled palmitate into

succinate, malate, and fumarate in BMDM derived from infected males, with decreased shuttling

into myristate (a marker of fatty acid elongation). BMDM derived from infected females

displayed the opposite phenotype, with decreased shuttling of heavy labeled palmitate into

succinate, malate, and fumarate, and increased shuttling into myristate compared to BMDM from

uninfected controls. These data suggest that BMDM derived from infected male ApoE$^{-/-}$ mice

have increased basal utilization of exogenous palmitate for beta-oxidation, while the female data

suggests increased lipid synthesis, strengthening the data obtained from our palmitate

extracellular flux analysis.

To further understand the role of biological sex in the *S. mansoni* induced reprograming of the

BMDM lipidome, we isolated cellular lipids from male and female BMDM either unstimulated

(media), or following LPS stimulation, and then performed untargeted lipidomics as described in

Figure 5. We analyzed the lipidomic data with machine learning using a two-step selection

process (see Methods). This approach identified ~20 features (lipid compounds) contributing to

an elastic net regression model that can predict the infection status of samples-originating

animals (Zou, 2005). These informative features are listed in descending order of importance

(Supplemental Figure 2A). Interestingly, some key features (for instance, the top scoring one) are

not represented as significant in the univariate tests (univariate adjusted p values, Supplemental

Figure 2B). However, these features are important contributors to the multivariate machine

learning model. This is not unexpected – some features that would be considered uninformative

individually may be very useful in improving predictions if combined with other features. When

we examine these features individually, we can see a differential response to infection for males

and females (for instance, PG 18:1_18:2, a glycerophospholipid) represented in Supplemental

Figure 2C). Seven of the 20 molecular features identified by machine learning are BMP

(Bis(monoacylglycerol)phosphate) species, which have been implicated in glycosphingolipid

degradation and cholesterol transport (Anheuser et al., 2019; Luquain-Costaz et al., 2013). These

data further support the hypothesis that *S. mansoni* infection differentially modulates the

metabolism of myeloid cells from male and female animals, and that this modulation revolves

around decreased cholesterol storage and fatty acid synthesis in males and increased cholesterol

storage and fatty acid synthesis in females. Cholesterol and lipid metabolism has previously been

associated with inflammatory myeloid effector function (Carroll et al., 2018; Funk et al., 1993;

Oiknine and Aviram, 1992), so we quantified the acute inflammatory effectors nitrite and iNOS,

along with pro-inflammatory cytokines/chemokines IL-12p70, CXCL1, and IL-6

(chemokines/cytokines with known pathogenic roles in obesity, insulin resistance and

atherosclerosis) following stimulation with LPS. *S. mansoni* infection increases LPS induced

nitrite and iNOS production in BMDM from male, but not female ApoE$^{-/-}$ mice on HFD (Figure

5 J,K). Conversely, BMDM from infected males have decreased production of IL-2p70, CXCL1,

and IL-6 (Figure 5 L-N) following LPS stimulation as compared to BMDM from uninfected

controls. LPS induced IL-12p70, CXCL1, and IL-6 production by female BMDM is unaffected

by infection status. Increased production of the effector molecules nitrite and iNOS combined

with decreased production of pro-inflammatory mediators associated with chronic inflammation

supports the idea that *S. mansoni* infection promotes a hybrid macrophage state in males.

***S. mansoni* infection modulates the myeloid transcriptome in a sex-specific manner**

Since we documented significant sex dependent shifts in functional metabolism in BMDM from

male and female *S. mansoni* infected mice, we sought to determine if differential transcriptional

modulation underlies these shifts. In order to investigate the genes and respective pathways that

were associated with specific conditions and the ones that were differentially regulated by sex we

performed mRNAseq on unstimulated BMDM derived from male and female ApoE$^{-/-}$ mice at 10-

weeks post *S. mansoni* or mock infection. We identified different subsets of genes that were

preferentially upregulated in males (p<0.05, Figure 6A). Among 1448 genes upregulated in

males regardless of infection status with a p value <0.05, the majority of these (238 genes) were

associated to metabolic functions by pathway analysis. Of these 238 genes involved in

metabolism we identified hexokinase 1 (hk1), citrate synthase (cs), apolipoprotein A2 (apoa2),

aldehyde dehydrogenase 3 family member A2 (aldh3a2), lipoyltransferase (lipt1), solute carrier

family 19 member 1 (slc19a1), LDL receptor related protein 1 (lrp1), many of these are involved

in lipoprotein and cholesterol metabolism. These data suggest that myeloid metabolism is

differentially regulated by sex, at least in the context of HFD. In addition, we found 216 genes

involved in immunity. Among these genes with immune function we identified interleukin 10 (il-

10), Toll like receptor 5 (tlr5), NLR family pyrin domain containing 3 (nlrp3), inducible T cell

costimulatory (icos), which have diverse pro and anti-inflammatory function in the immune

system. Next, we surveyed the genes that are differentially regulated in males and females

following *S. mansoni* infection. We found 66 genes involved in metabolism, hemostasis, the

adaptive immune system, collagen degradation and not annotated to specific pathways.

Following the genes with known function, the majority (10) of differentially regulated genes

have documented roles in metabolism. Among these, we identified type II iodothyronine

deiodinase (dio2), which has been implicated in the regulation of diet induced obesity

(Kurylowicz et al., 2015; Vernia et al., 2013). Moreover, we found that hexokinase 3 (hk3), fatty

acid binding protein 4 (fabp4), sphingomyelin synthase 2 (sgms2), solute carrier family 6

member 8 (slc6a8) were all upregulated in male and downregulated in female BMDM following

S. mansoni infection (Figure 6B). In addition, we performed gene ontology analysis from the 66

genes that were differentially regulated in females and males. The most significant pathways

were response to glucocorticoids, glycoprotein metabolism, and fatty acid metabolism, again

suggesting that there is a sex-specific metabolic response to *S. mansoni* infection in myeloid

cells. These pathways may help explain the differential metabolic modulation induced by

schistosomiasis in males and females (Figure 6C).

***S. mansoni* induced modulation of male macrophage metabolism is long-lived in the**

absence of antigen

Our metabolic and transcriptomic data from BMDM differentiated *in vitro* from male *S. mansoni*

infected mice suggested that metabolic modulation may be long-lived in the absence of ongoing

antigen exposure. In order to determine durable nature of modulation we transferred bone

marrow from either 10-week *S. mansoni* infected male ApoE^{-/-} mice on HFD, or uninfected male

controls into busulfan treated recipient ApoE^{-/-} mice on HFD. At 10 weeks post-bone marrow

transfer we assayed glucose tolerance via an i.p. GTT. Mice that received bone marrow from

infected males have a significantly lower glucose area under the curve (AUC) than those that

received control bone marrow. We harvested bone marrow from all recipients and differentiated

BMDM in M-CSF for 6 days and then performed real-time extracellular flux analysis. BMDM

from recipients of bone marrow from *S. mansoni* infected mice had significantly higher basal

oxygen consumption and a trend towards increased spare respiratory capacity as compared to

BMDM generated from recipients of uninfected control bone marrow. Additionally, BMDM

from recipients of bone marrow from *S. mansoni* infected mice had a significantly higher

Mitotracker MFI than BMDM from recipients of control bone marrow. These data suggest that *S.*

mansoni induced metabolic modulation of the myeloid lineage in males is long-lived even in the

absence of ongoing exposure to egg antigens, and that hematopoietic cells are at least partially

responsible for the regulation of whole-body glucose metabolism in the HFD ApoE^{-/-} model.

Discussion

Helminth infections in general, and schistosomiasis in specific, have been known to be

inversely correlated with obesity and glucose intolerance for over a decade, a phenomenon

thought to be associated with Type 2 polarization of macrophages and T cells. In the current

study we report that *S. mansoni* infection induces dramatic metabolic alterations in BMDM from

male ApoE^{-/-} mice on HFD. Our results indicate that macrophages derived from the bone marrow

of infected male mice have increased basal oxygen consumption and spare respiratory capacity

compared to those derived from uninfected males. In T cells, an increase in spare respiratory

capacity has been linked to mitochondrial biogenesis, and controls the transition to a long-lived

memory phenotype (van der Windt et al., 2012). In macrophages, M2 (alternative) activation has

previously been shown to lead to increased spare respiratory capacity, a process that also

involves mitochondrial biogenesis (Kannan et al., 2016), while TLR recognition of bacteria has

been shown to increase mitochondrial respiration via modulation of complex I and II (Garaude et

al., 2016) . In both cell types, the increased mitochondrial respiration underlies the longevity of

the cells. In our model we have not found most of the traditional markers used to define M2

alternative activation by flow cytometry at steady state (Supplemental Figure 1). Arg1 is the only

canonical M2 transcript that is modulated in the BMDM from infected male mice at steady state,

and that fold increase is relatively low (.894 log FC, adjusted p-value =.035). Arg1 drives the

production of polyamines, which in turn are able to modulate mitochondrial OxPHOS (Galvan-

Pena and O'Neill, 2014; Puleston et al., 2019). In the currently accepted paradigm of M2

polarization stat6 phosphorylation upregulates PGC1-β and PPARγ, leading to mitochondrial

biogenesis and increased beta-oxidation in addition to Arg1transcription. Here we present a

model where neither PGC1-β or PPARγ are modulated, but Arg1 transcription is increased with

a concomitant dramatic increase in mitochondrial respiration, suggesting that there may be

alternative ways to modulate mitochondrial metabolism.

Alternative activation has previously been shown to be dependent on cell intrinsic

lysosomal lipolysis and lal, with the defining feature being reductions in lipid droplets (Huang et

al., 2014). In our model using unstimulated BMDM from *S. mansoni* infected mice there is no

gross difference in lipid droplets, nor an increase in lal transcripts. Instead, we found a

significant shift in the lipidome of BMDM from infected male mice that centered on a reduction

in cholesterol esters. Previously published work in IL-4 induced M2 macrophages has found that

lipolysis centered on TGs as a fatty acid source. While we did find reductions in two species of

DGs and one species of monoacylglycerol (MG), there were no significant alterations to TAGs

in the BMDM generated from infected males. Flux analysis with heavy carbon labeled glucose

and palmitate suggest that BMDM from male infected mice have increased shuttling of both

glucose and palmitate into TCA cycle intermediates, suggesting that these cells have increased

mitochondrial beta oxidation. In addition to the unique lipidomic modulations, we found that the

dramatic increase in both basal oxygen consumption and spare respiratory capacity we observed

in BMDM from male infected mice was significantly palmitate dependent. This observation

further supports the idea that *in vivo* exposure of myeloid precursors to helminth antigens

induces unique metabolic modulations that focus on cholesterol and lipid metabolism as a source

for palmitate for beta oxidation. These data suggest that hybrid metabolic states in the absence of

M1 or M2 polarization occur in macrophages in the context of chronic disease, and present a

challenge to the dichotomy of M1 versus M2 activation being driven by immunometabolism.

Future studies exploring the immunometabolism of bone marrow derived and tissue resident

macrophages and dendritic cells from other chronic infections and inflammatory diseases are

needed in order to obtain a true picture of the correlation between metabolism and myeloid

polarization.

There are significant clinical differences in both the etiology and pathology of diabetes

and cardiovascular disease between males and females, but sex differences in immunological

activation or modulation by *S. mansoni* infection have not previously been studied in humans or

animal models. Surprisingly, we found that the unique metabolic modulations induced by *S.*

mansoni infection in BMDM from male mice do not occur in females, and infected females are

not reliably protected from high-fat diet induced obesity or glucose intolerance. Interestingly,

hepatic macrophage alternative activation in response to infection is equivalent between males

and females, but infection increases blood monocyte frequency in females to a much greater

extent than in males, suggesting sex specific modulation of either monopoiesis or monocyte

recruitment into tissues. Blood monocytes from infected males phenocopy the increase in

Mitotracker MFI that we have found in BMDM generated from infected males, indicating that

our BMDM model is likely an accurate representation of the *in vivo* potential of the myeloid

compartment. Interestingly, we found that infection significantly reduced the total number of

CMP and GMP in male, but not female bone marrow, again pointing to a sex-specific

modulation of the myeloid lineage at the precursor level. The reduction of CMP and GMP in

infected males suggests either an increase in the rate of differentiation into

monocytes/granulocytes, or decreased homeostatic proliferation. Since males have fewer blood

monocytes than female, we favor the later possibility. These possibilities and the relationship

between reductions in numbers of CMP and GMP in males, and the functional metabolic

differences in BMDM will be explored in future work.

Analysis of the BMDM transcriptomes from males and females revealed that over a

thousand genes are up regulated in male versus female BMDM regardless of *S. mansoni*

infection state. At the same time, over five dozen are differentially regulated by infection.

Focusing on the genes that are up-regulated in BMDM from infected males and down-regulated

in females, we found more than ten genes with known functions in cellular metabolism. Some of

these genes, like PFKFB3, have known regulatory elements for progesterone and estrogen (Shi et

al., 2017), but some of them, like fabp4, have no published mechanism of sex hormone

regulation. Glycolysis and cholesterol metabolism have previously been shown to directly affect

the inflammatory potential of myeloid cells. Our data indicate that *S. mansoni* infection induces a

hybrid inflammatory state in male but not female BMDM, where the LPS induced production of

nitrite and iNOS is enhanced, while the production of the key chronic pro-inflammatory

mediators IL-12p70, CXCL1, and IL-6 are reduced. This inflammatory profile is distinct from

what has previously been published with IL-4 induced M2 macrophages, where the production of

iNOS and nitrite are reduced following TLR stimulation (Lam et al., 2016). CXCL1 and IL-6

have previously been linked to increased monocyte recruitment and disease progression in both

atherosclerosis and obesity-induced diabetes (Boisvert et al., 2006; Hartman and Frishman, 2014;

Nunemaker et al., 2014; Qu et al., 2014; Zhou et al., 2011), so these data support the possibility

of infection driven modulation of macrophage function supporting the decreased pathology seen

in infected males. We have demonstrated that the modulation of macrophage oxygen

consumption is transferrable to an uninfected recipient, and can last for at least ten weeks,

suggesting that in males, *S. mansoni* infection induces long-lived metabolic modulation of the

myeloid lineage that survives in the absence of ongoing antigenic exposure. Trained innate

immunity has previously been documented to be induced by BCG immunization (Kaufmann et

al., 2018), and has recently been suggested to be the mechanism underlying the association

between previous bacterial and fungal infections and the development of atherosclerosis

(Hoogeveen et al., 2018; Leentjens et al., 2018). In these models, trained immunity and

epigenetic reprogramming is driven in part from a switch from oxidative phosphorylation to

increased aerobic glycolysis (Cheng et al., 2014; Stienstra et al., 2017). In the case of BCG,

trained circulating monocytes can be found months after immunization, which strongly suggests

reprogramming of bone marrow progenitors (Ifrim et al., 2014). Recent reports indicate that

western high-fat diet itself also induces innate training of bone marrow progenitors in both the

Ldr$^{-/-}$ model of atherosclerosis (Christ et al., 2018) and in obesity related steatohepatitis (Krenkel

et al., 2020). Our data suggests that *S. mansoni* infection in males trains the myeloid lineage in

the opposite fashion; modulating the metabolic transcriptome of the myeloid lineage such that

oxidative phosphorylation and mitochondrial activity is increased, while the chronic

inflammatory potential is decreased. Alterations to the numbers and frequency of myeloid

progenitors and the transferability of our phenotype via bone marrow suggests that progenitors

are indeed modulated in our model, the relative role of epigenetic modulation versus microRNA

regulation in dictating the *S. mansoni* induced myeloid transcriptome will be the subject of future

studies.

515   There are significant differences in both the susceptibility and disease presentation

between males and females for both diabetes and cardiovascular disease, but few studies have

focused on the role of immunometabolism in this dichotomy. Our data suggests apparent

biological sex-dependent differences in both the ability of schistosomes to protect from the

development of HFD induced metabolic disease parameters, and the ability to modulate

macrophage glucose and lipid metabolism. The current epidemiological data strongly indicates

an inverse correlation between helminth infections and metabolic diseases such as diabetes and

cardiovascular disease, but these studies were not designed to identify sex-specific correlations.

Few animal studies have focused on the role of myeloid cells in driving sex-specific metabolic

differences. Our current data indicate a clear need for further studies in both humans and animal

models to specifically probe the relationship between biological sex and myeloid metabolism,

and how chronic helminth infections modulate this.

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no competing interests.

Acknowledgements

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STAR Methods

KEY RESOURCES TABLE

REAGENT or RESOURCE	SOURCE	IDENTIFIER
Antibodies		
Anti-mouse F4/80 (Clone: BM8)	Biolegend	Cat no. 123114
Anti-mouse CD64 a and b Alloantigens (Clone: X54-5/7.1.1)	BD Biosciences	Cat no. 558455
Biotinylated Goat Anti-m-Mer	R&D Systems	Cat no. BAF591
Anti-mouse CD11c (Clone: N418)	BioLegend	Cat no. 117306
Rat Anti-mouse I-A/I-E (Clone: M5/114.15.2)	BD Biosciences	Cat no. 562366
Anti-mouse Ly6A/E (Sca-1) (Clone: D7)	eBiosciences	Cat no.17-5981-82
Rat anti-mouse CD117/c-kit	R&D Systems	Cat no. FAB1356
Anti-mouse CD115 (Clone: AFS98)	eBiosciences	Cat no. 25-1152-82
Anti-mouse CD16/32 (Clone: 93)	Invitrogen	Cat no.25-0161-82
Anti-mouse CD4 (Clone: GK1.5)	BioLegend	Cat no.100406
Anti-mouse CD206 (Clone:C06C2)	BioLegend	Cat no. 141721
Rat Anti-mouse CD301	BioRad	Cat no. MCA2392A488
Anti-mouse Nos2 (Clone: CXNFT)	Invitrogen	Cat no. 46-5920-80

Anti Hu/Mo Arg1 (Clone: A1exF5)	Invitrogen	Cat no.48-3697-80
Anti-mouse CD19 (Clone: MB19-1)	Invitrogen	Cat no.11-0191-85
Anti-mouse Ter119 (Clone: Ter-119)	Invitrogen	Cat no. 11-5921082
Rat Anti-mouse Ly6G and Ly6C (Clone: RB6-8C5)	BD Biosciences	Cat no. 553127
Anti-mouse CD3 (Clone: 17A2)	BioLegend	Cat no. 100204
Anti-mouse Ly6C (Clone: HK1.4)	Invitrogen	Cat no. 45-5932-82
Anti-mouse CD45 (Clone 30-F11)	Biolegend	Cat no.103154
Anti-mouse CD11b (Clone: M1/70)	eBiosciences	Cat no. 56-0112-82
MitoTracker™ Deep Red FM	Invitrogen	Cat no. M22426
Anti-mouse CD34 (Clone: SA376A4)	BioLegend	Cat no.152203
TrueStain fcX (anti-mouse CD16/32) (Clone: 93)	BioLegend	Cat no.101320
Anti-mouse CD127 (Clone: A7R34)	BioLegend	Cat no. 135043
Biological Samples		
Fetal Bovine Serum	ThermoFisher	Cat no. 10091148
Chemicals, Peptides, and Recombinant Proteins		
Endotoxin free LPS (Escherichia coli Serotype O)	InvivoGen	Cat no. tlrl-eblps
D-Glucose-^{13}C6	Sigma Aldrich	Cat no. 389374
Recombinant murine M-CSF	Peprotech	Cat no. 315-03
BD Pharm Lyse Lysing Buffer	BD Biosciences	Cat no. 555899
Taqman Gene Expression Master Mix	Applied Biosystems	Cat no.4369016
Trypan Blue solution	Sigma	T81154-100ML
Streptavidin APC	BD Biosciences	Cat no. 554067
Streptavidin APC/Fire 750	Biolegend	Cat no.405250
Streptavidin PE	BD Biosciences	Cat no. 554061
Streptavidin PB	Invitrogen	Cat no. S11222
Streptavidin PE-Cy5	BD Biosciences	Cat no. 554062
(Ethylenedinitrilo)tetraacetic acid (EDTA)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat no. AM9260G
Fixation/Permeabilization		
Collagenase	Sigma Aldrich	Cat no. 5138
Trizol LS Reagent	Ambion	Cat no. 10296028
Chloroform	Alfa Aesar	Cat no. 32614
Glucose	Sigma Aldrich	Cat no. G7528
2-Propanol	Fisher Chemical	Cat no. A416
Critical Commercial Assays		
Seahorse Bioassay	Agilent Technologies	Cat no.102416
SuperScript IV-VILO Master Mix	Thermo Fisher	Cat no.11766050
RNA Clean and Concentrator Kit	Zymo Research	Cat no. 11-353
Zombie Red Fixable Viability Kit	BioLegend	Cat no.423109
^{13}C Glucose	Santa Cruz Biotech	Cat no. 106032-62-6
^{13}C Palmitate	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat no. 605573
Cellstripper cell dissociation reagent	Corning	Cat no. 25-056-CI

Western High-fat diet	Envigo	TD 88137
Deposited Data		
GEO	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/	GSE144447
Experimental Models: Organisms/Strains		
B6.129P2-Apoetm1Unc/J	The Jackson Laboratory	Stock No: 002052
Parasite: *Schistosoma mansoni*	Biomedical Research Institute	https://www.afbr-bri.org/schistosomiasis/ordering/
Software and Algorithms		
FlowJo Software X 10.0.7r2	BD Biosciences	https://www.flowjo.com/solutions/flowjo/downloads/previous-versions
GraphPad Prism 8.2.0	GraphPad	https://www.graphpad.com/support/faq/prism-820-release-notes/
Attune NxT Accoustic Focusing Cytometer	Invitrogen	https://www.thermofisher.com/us/en/home/life-science/cell-analysis/flow-cytometry/flow-cytometers/attune-acoustic-focusing-flow-cytometer.html
iPathways Guide	Advaita	https://advaitabio.com/ipathwayguide/
MH Qual	Agilent Technologies, Inc	https://www.agilent.com/en/products/software-informatics/masshunter-suite/masshunter/masshunter-software
MassHunter Quantitative Analysis B.07.00	Agilent Technologies, Inc	https://www.agilent.com/en/products/software-informatics/masshunter-suite/masshunter/masshunter-software
LipidMatch	University of Florida	http://secim.ufl.edu/secim-tools/lipidmatch/
MetaboAnalyst 3.0	Xia et al., 2015	http://www.metaboanalyst.ca
Other		

Mgll Taqman Gene Expression Assay	ThermoFisher	Assay ID: Mm00449274_m1
Slc1a3 Taqman Gene Expression Assay	ThermoFisher	Assay ID: Mm00600697_m1.
Beta actin Taqman Gene Expression Assay	ThermoFisher	Assay ID: Mm00607939_s1

LEAD CONTACT AND MATERIALS AVAILABILITY

544 Further information requests should be directed to and will be fulfilled by the Lead Contact,

545 Keke Fairfax (keke.fairfax@path.utah.edu). These studies generated no new reagents.

EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND SUBJECT DETAILS

Parasite and Mouse Models

This study was carried out in accordance with the recommendations in the Guide for the Care

and Use of Laboratory Animals of the National Institutes of Health. The protocols were

approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committees of the University of Utah and

Purdue University. Snails infected with *S. mansoni* (strain NMRI, NR-21962) were provided by

the Schistosome Research Reagent Resource Center for distribution by BEI Resources, NIAID

NIH. Male and female ApoE$^{-/-}$ (B6.129P2-Apoetm1Unc/J) were purchased from the Jackson

Laboratories and bred at the University of Utah. Mice were housed in pathogen-free conditions

and were fed standard rodent chow (2019 rodent chow, Harlan Teklad) until 10-14 days before

infection when they were transitioned to a high-fat diet (HFD: 21% milk fat, 0.15% cholesterol:

TD 88137 Envigo). Bone marrow chimeras were generated by treating ApoE$^{-/-}$ mice that had

been on high- fat diet for 4 weeks with 20mg/kg of pharmaceutical grade busulfan for 5 days

(total dose of 100mg/kg). On day 6 mice were i.v. injected with 2.5-3 x 10^6 bone marrow cells

from either 10-week *S. mansoni* infected or control uninfected ApoE$^{-/-}$ mice on high-fat diet.

Reconstitution was validated via flow-cytometry at 3-weeks post-transfer and recipient mice

were maintained on high-fat diet for 10-weeks post-reconstitution.

METHOD DETAILS

S. mansoni **infection and glucose tolerance test**

ApoE$^{-/-}$ female and male mice of 6 weeks of age were exposed percutaneously to 75-90 cercariae

of *S. mansoni* or were mocked infected (as controls). At five- and ten-weeks post-infection mice

were fasted for 5 hours and baseline blood glucose levels were obtained via lateral tail vein nick.

Mice were then administered a single intraperitoneal injection of glucose (2mg/g of body weight,

ultrapure glucose, Sigma G7528). Blood glucose levels were obtained at 20, 60, and 90 min post

injection. Individual data points obtained were analyzed by Area Under Curve (AUC).

Mouse macrophage culture

Mouse bone marrow-derived macrophages (BMDM) were generated as follows: bone marrow

cells were isolated by centrifugation of bones at >10,000 x g in a microcentrifuge tube for 15

seconds as previously described (Amend et al., 2016). Cells were differentiated in M-CSF

(20ng/mL, Peprotech, Rocky Hill, NJ) in complete macrophage medium (CMM: RPMI1640,

10% FCS, 2mM L-glutamine and 1 IU/mL Pen-Strep for 6 or 7 days. On the last day, cells

were harvested in Cellstripper cell dissociation reagent (Corning) were washed with CMM) and

prepared for downstream assays.

Glycolytic and phospho-oxidative metabolism measurement (seahorse assay)

BMDM from different conditions (uninfected controls or *S. mansoni* infected) were resuspended

at the same concentration in XF assay media supplemented with 5% FCS and 5mM glucose. The

day before the assay, the probe plate was calibrated and incubated at 37 C in a non-CO2

incubator. Resuspended cells were seeded at a concentration of 1.5×10^5 cells per well and

incubated for 20-60 minutes in the Prep Station incubator (37 C non-CO2 incubator). Following

initial incubation, XF Running Media (XF assay media with 5% FCS and 10mM Glucose) were

dispensed into each well. OCR and ECAR were measured by an XF96 Seahorse Extracellular

Flux Analyzer following the manufacturer's instructions. For the seahorse assay, cells were

treated with oligomycin (1uM), FCCP (1.5uM), rotenone (100nM) and antimycin A (1uM). Each

condition was performed in 2-3 technical replicates. For determination of palmitate dependent

respiration, BSA-conjugated palmitate (BSA: palmitate = 1:6, molar ratio) was prepared

according to the Seahorse protocol (Seahorse Bioscience). Briefly, 1 mM sodium palmitate

(Sigma Aldrich) was conjugated with 0.17 mM fatty acid free-BSA (Sigma Aldrich) in 150 mM

NaCl solution at 37°C for 1h. Palmitate-BSA was stored in glass vials at -20°C until use. Cells

were incubated as above in glucose limited XF media per manufacturer instructions.

Flow Cytometry

Livers from uninfected and infected mice were perfused with 1X PBS, mashed and digested in

DMEM 0.5% Collagenase (Sigma) at 37°C for 15 min. Then, livers were mashed and filtered

through a 100 μm metal strainer and digested an additional 15 min. Following second digestion,

the liver contents were strained, washed with DMEM and spun down 1500 rpm for 5 min. The

pellet was lysed with 1X lysis buffer (BD PharmLyse), quenched with 1% FBS DMEM, and

washed to be used in flow cytometry. Surface staining was performed using the following mAb

against mouse antigens: CD45 (30-F11, eBioscience), CD301(BioRad), CD206 (C068C2,

Biolegend), F4/80 (BM8, Biolegend), mouse Mer biotinylated (R&D), CD64(X54-5/7.1, BD).

Intracellular antigen staining such as Nos2 (CXNFT, Invitrogen, and C-11, Santa Cruz) and Arg1

(Invitrogen, A1exF5)) was performed using the Intracellular Fixation and Permeabilization

Buffer set (Thermo Fisher Scientific cat. no. 88-8824) per manufacturer's instruction. Further,

bone marrow cells were obtained by centrifugation of bones into tubes at >10000 rpm for 15 s.

Surface staining for bone marrow precursors was performed using the following antibodies:

Ter119, CD19, CD4, CD3, Gr-1, CD11b, Sca-1, CD115, Ly6C, c-Kit, flt3, CD127 and CD16/32.

PBMC from whole blood were obtained following red blood cell lysis and used for flow

cytometry analysis. Surface staining of PBMC was performed using Ter119, CD64, CD11b,

CD115, Ly6C and MitoTracker Red.

Samples were acquired using Attune NxT Focusing Flow Cytometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific)

and analyzed using Flowjo X 10.0.7r2 (FlowJo LLC, Inc.).

RNA Isolation and q-RT-PCR

BMDM were stored in Trizol, and RNA isolation was performed as described in the

Immunological Genome Project Total RNA isolation protocol. Next, cDNA was synthesized

from RNA using Superscript IV VILO (ThermoFisher Scientific) for reverse transcription. qPCR

was performed using TaqMan Gene expression assays (Mgll, Slc1a3, beta actin, ThermoFisher)

on an Applied Biosystems Stepone Plus Real-Time PCR System. Beta-Actin assay number

Mm00607939_s1, mgll assay Mm00449274_m1, slc1a3 assay Mm00600697_m1. Relative

expression was calculated using the $2\text{-}\Delta\Delta Ct$ method.

Measurement of Cytokines and Inflammatory mediators

For cytokine levels of BMDCs, supernatants were collected at 24 hours post stimulation and

measured with Mouse Cytokine and Chemokine ProcartaPlex 26plex panel (Life Technologies)

per manufacture instructions using a Luminex Magpix system. Nitrite levels in cell culture media

were determined using a Griess reagent kit for nitrite determination (Invitrogen) according the

manufacturer's instructions.

Untargeted lipidomics

Sample extraction from serum or cell pellets

Lipids were extracted from serum (50μL) or cell pellets in a combined solution as described in

(Matyash et al., 2008). In detail, samples were combined in solution with 225 μL MeOH

containing internal standards (IS; Avanti splash Lipidomix (Lot#12), 10μL each sample) and 750

μL methyl tert-butyl ether (MTBE). The samples were sonicated for 1 min, rested on ice for 1

hour, briefly vortexed every 15 min then an addition of 200μL dd-H2O was made to induce

phase separation. All solutions were pre-chilled on ice. The sample were then vortexed for 20 s,

rested at room temperature for 10 min, and centrifuged at 14,000 g for 10 min at 4 C. The upper

organic phase was collected and evaporated to dryness under vacuum. Lipid samples were

reconstituted in 200μL IPA and transferred to an LC-MS vial with insert for analysis.

Concurrently, a process blank sample was brought forward as well as quality control sample was

prepared by taking equal volumes (10μL per sample) from each sample after final resuspension.

LC-MS Methods

Lipid extracts were separated on a Waters Acquity UPLC CSH C18 1.7 um 2.1 x 100 mm

column maintained at 65 °C connected to an Agilent HiP 1290 Sampler, Agilent 1290 Infinity

pump, equipped with an Agilent 1290 Flex Cube and Agilent 6530 Accurate Mass Q-TOF dual

ESI mass spectrometer. For positive mode, the source gas temperature was set to 225 °C, with a

gas flow of 11 L/min and a nebulizer pressure of 50 psig. VCap voltage was set at 3500 V,

fragmentor at 110 V, skimmer at 85 V and Octopole RF peak at 750 V. For negative mode, the

source gas temperature was set at 325 °C, with a drying gas flow of 12 L/min and a nebulizer

pressure of 30 psig. VCap voltage is set 3000 V, fragmentor at125 V, skimmer at 75 V and

Octopole RF peak at 750 V. Reference masses in positive mode (*m/z* 121.0509 and 922.0098)

were infused with nebulizer pressure at 2 psig, in negative mode reference masses (*m/z*

1033.988, 966.0007, 112.9856 and 68.9958) were infused with a nebulizer pressure at 5psig.

Samples were analyzed in a randomized order in both positive and negative ionization modes in

separate experiments acquiring with the scan range m/z 100-1700. Mobile phase A consisted of

ACN:H_2O (60:40 *v/v*) in 10 mM ammonium formate and 0.1% formic acid, and mobile phase B

consisted of IPA:ACN:$H_2$0 (90:9:1 *v/v*) in 10 mM ammonium formate and 0.1% formic acid.

The chromatography gradient for both positive and negative modes started at 15% mobile phase

B then increased to 30% B over 2.4 min, then increased to 48% from 2.4-3.0 min, followed by an

increase to 82% B from 3-13.2 min, and then to 99% from 13.2-13.8 min where it was held until

15.4 min and then returned to the initial conditioned and equilibrated for 4 min. Flow was 0.5

mL/min throughout, injection volume was 5μL for positive and 7 μL negative mode. Tandem

mass spectrometry is conducted using the same LC gradient at collision energies of 20 V and 40

V.

Targeted lipidomics

Sample Preparation

Lipids were extracted from cell pellets (500,000 cells) as described in detail above (Matyash et

al., 2008). For targeted lipidomics, lipid extracts were separated on a Waters BEH HILIC column

1.7 μm, 100 mm × 3 mm column maintained at 60 °C connected to an Agilent HiP 1290

Sampler, Agilent 1290 Infinity pump, and equipped with an Agilent 6490 triple quadrupole

(QqQ) mass spectrometer. Lipids were detected using dynamic multiple reaction monitoring

(dMRM) in negative ion mode. Source gas temperature is set to 225 °C, with a gas flow of 13

L/min and a nebulizer pressure of 30 psi. Sheath gas temperature was 350 °C, sheath gas flow

was 11 L/min, capillary voltage of 4000 V, nozzle voltage was 500 V, high pressure RF was 190

V and low-pressure RF was 120 V. Injection volume was 2 μL and the samples were injected in

a randomized order. Mobile phase A consisted of H_2O, mobile phase B consisted of $ACN:H_2O$

(96:4 *v/v*) and both contain 7 mM ammonium acetate. The chromatography gradient started at

100% mobile phase B and decreased to 84% B over 10 min. Post-time was 9 min and the flow

rate was 0.4 mL/min throughout. Collision energies (25 V) and cell accelerator voltages (3 V)

were optimized using lipid standards with dMRM quantifier transitions as $[M-H]^-\rightarrow[T2\_RCOO]^-$

and qualifier transitions of $[M-H]^-\rightarrow[T1\_RCOO]^-$ and $[M-H]^-\rightarrow[NL\_T2Ketene]^-$.

Lipid data analysis

The pooled QC samples and process blank samples were injected throughout the sample queue to

ensure the reliability of acquired LC-MS data. Results from LC-MS experiments were collected

using Agilent MassHunter (MH) Workstation and analyzed using the software packages MH

Qual, MH Quant (Agilent Technologies, Inc) and LipidMatch to prepare the data set.

The data table exported from MHQuant was evaluated using Excel where initial lipid targets

were parsed based on the following criteria. Only lipids with relative standard deviation (RSD)

less than 30% in QC samples were used for data analysis. Additionally, targets identified in

blanks or double blanks at significant amounts (area under the curve (AUC) target blank/AUC

target QC >30%) were removed from analysis. Lipids were quantitated based on peak area ratios

to the spiked IS of the same or nearest class.

RNA Sequencing

Library Preparation and sequencing

The concentration and quality of total RNA samples was first assessed using Agilent 2100

Bioanalyzer. A RIN (RNA Integrity Number) of five or higher was required to pass the quality

control. Then 200 nanograms of RNA per sample were used to prepared dual-indexed strand-

specific cDNA library using KAPA mRNA Hyperprep Kit (Roche). The resulting libraries were

assessed for its quantity and size distribution using Qubit and Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer. Two

hundred pico molar pooled libraries were utilized per flowcell for clustering amplification on

cBot using HiSeq 3000/4000 PE Cluster Kit and sequenced with 2.75bp paired-end configuration

on HiSeq4000 (Illumina) using HiSeq 3000/4000 PE SBS Kit. A Phred quality score (Q score)

was used to measure the quality of sequencing. More than 90% of the sequencing reads reached

Q30 (99.9% base call accuracy).

Sequence alignment and gene counts

The sequencing data were first assessed using FastQC (Babraham Bioinformatics, Cambridge,

UK) for quality control. Then all sequenced libraries were mapped to the mouse genome (UCSC

mm10) using STAR RNA-seq aligner (Dobin et al., 2013) with the following parameter: "--

outSAMmapqUnique 60". The reads distribution across the genome was assessed using bamutils

(from ngsutils) (Breese and Liu, 2013). Uniquely mapped sequencing reads were assigned to

mm10 refGene genes using featureCounts (from subread) (Liao et al., 2014) with the following

parameters: "-s 2 –p –Q 10". Quality control of sequencing and mapping results was summarized

using MultiQC (Ewels et al., 2016). Genes with read count per million (CPM) > 0.5 in more than

2 of the samples were kept. The data was normalized using TMM (trimmed mean of M values)

method. Differential expression analysis was performed using edgeR (McCarthy et al., 2012;

Robinson et al., 2010). False discovery rate (FDR) was computed from p-values using the

Benjamini-Hochberg procedure.

Pathway analysis

The Data (significantly impacted pathways, biological processes, molecular interactions.) were

analyzed using Advaita Bio's iPathwayGuide (http://www.advaitabio.com/ipathwayguide).

Pathway analysis was performed on $\log_2$-transformed data using Bonferroni-corrected *p*-values.

The data discussed in this publication have been deposited in NCBI's Gene Expression Omnibus

(Edgar *et al*., 2002) and are accessible through GEO Series accession number GSE

144447(https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/query/acc.cgi?acc=GSE144447)

Heavy glucose and heavy palmitate labeling

For metabolomics tracing in Figure 2 BMDM were differentiated in CMM containing normal

glucose. At Day 6 of culture cells were switched to CMM containing $^{13}C_6$-glucose (Santa Cruz

Biotech) for 24 hours. Cells were harvested and processed as described below. For metabolomics

tracing in figure 5 BMDM were differentiated in CMM containing normal glucose and serum. At

Day 6 of culture cells were switched to CMM containing dialyzed serum and 1 mM ^{13}C

palmitate (sigma Aldrich) for 36 hours. Cells were harvested and processed as described below.

Metabolomics

Extraction

Cold 90% methanol (MeOH) solution was added to each sample to give a final concentration of

80% MeOH to each cell pellet. Samples were incubated at -20 °C for 1 hr. After incubation, the

samples were centrifuged at 20,000 x g for 10 minutes at 4 °C. The supernatant was transferred

from each sample tube into a labeled, fresh micro centrifuge tube. The samples were dried *en*

vacuo.

Mass Spectrometry Analysis of Samples

All GC-MS analysis was performed with an Agilent 7200 GC-QTOF and an Agilent 7693A

automatic liquid sampler. Dried samples were suspended in 40 µL of a 40 mg/mL O-

methoxylamine hydrochloride (MOX) (MP Bio #155405) in dry pyridine (EMD Millipore

#PX2012-7) and incubated for one hour at 37 °C in a sand bath. 25 µL of this solution was

added to auto sampler vials followed by the automatic addition of 60 µL of N-methyl-N-

trimethylsilyltrifluoracetamide (MSTFA with 1%TMCS, Thermo #TS48913) and incubated for

30 minutes at 37 °C. Following incubation, each sample were vortexed and 1 µL of the prepared

sample was injected into the gas chromatograph inlet in the split mode with the inlet temperature

held at 250 °C. A 10:1 split ratio was used for analysis for the majority of metabolites. Any

metabolites that saturated the instrument at the 10:1 split was analyzed at a 50:1 split ratio. The

gas chromatograph had an initial temperature of 60 °C for one minute followed by a 10°C/min

ramp to 325 °C and a hold time of 10 minutes. A 30-meter Agilent Zorbax DB-5MS with 10 m

Duraguard capillary column was employed for chromatographic separation. Helium was used as

the carrier gas at a rate of 1 mL/min.

Data Analysis

The area under the curve for each isotope was extracted using MHQuant software (Agilent). This

data was exported as a .csv file and isotopically corrected using an in house modified version of

DeuteRater (Naylor et al., 2017)

Machine Learning

The selection of the most informative or important features (i.e., the features contributing to the

prediction) was performed using a machine-learning approach involving an elastic-net regressor,

which followed a round of traditional univariate filtering. The process included two steps:

1. Creating a series of ANOVA models (one for each of the lipid-based features), and pre-

selecting features based on η^2 to limit the complexity of the downstream elastic net

model. The uninformative features were rejected and not used in the second step.

2. Establishing an elastic net regression model via cross-validation and grid-search of the

parameters. The zero coefficients of the model were removed. The top 20 non-zero

coefficients provided ranking for the features in terms of their importance.

The elastic net regression attempts to minimize the following functional:

$$\hat{\beta} = \underset{\beta}{\operatorname{argmin}}\left(\left\| y - X\beta \right\|^2 + \lambda\left((1-\alpha)\left\| \beta \right\|^2 / 2 + \alpha \left\| \beta \right\|_1 \right) \right)$$

over a grid of α and λ values (Zou, 2005). The elastic-net approach linearly combines the L_1 and

L_2 penalties used in LASSO (Tibshirani, 1996) and ridge-regression methods (Hoerl, 1970),

respectively. Therefore, the elastic net penalty would become LASSO penalty for $\alpha = 1$ and ridge

penalty for $\alpha = 0$. The parameter λ controls the overall strength of the combined penalty term.

The input X in the model consists of all the molecular features identified, and y is probability of

observing a particular animal.

Statistical Analysis

Statistical analyses of data were performed using one-way ANOVA, a non-parametric Mann-

Whitney test, or unpaired Student's t-test depending on the data distribution. $P \leq 0.05$ were

considered statistically significant. Analyses and graphing were performed using Prism

(GraphPad v8.0) and R-language for statistical computing.

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Figure legends

Figure 1. Bone marrow derived macrophages (BMDM) from ApoE$^{-/-}$ male *S. mansoni*

infected mice exhibit increased oxygen consumption and mitochondria mass. ApoE$^{-/-}$ male

were fed HFD for 10 days before infection with *S. mansoni*. Ten weeks post infection mice were

sacrificed and bone marrow cells were harvested and cultured for 7 days under M-CSF. (A)

SeaHorse assay results for OCR of BMDC from infected and uninfected ApoE$^{-/-}$ males in basal

conditions and in response to mitochondrial inhibitors. (B) Quantification (in picomoles per

minute) of the basal oxygen consumption of BMDM from uninfected or infected ApoE$^{-/-}$ HFD

male mice. (C) Quantification of the spare respiratory capacity of BMDM from uninfected or

infected ApoE$^{-/-}$ HFD male mice (D) Extracellular acidification rate of BMDM from male

uninfected or infected ApoE$^{-/-}$. (E) Oil Red O relative staining in BMDM from ApoE$^{-/-}$ mice (F)

MitoTracker Red Deep Stain measure by flow cytometry in BMDM from ApoE$^{-/-}$ mice.

SeaHorse assay analysis were performed the Seahorse XFe96 instrument. $*p < 0.05$; $**p < 0.01$;

$***p < 0.001$. Graphs are representative of multiple experiments (2-3), with n>4 per group.

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Figure 2.
BMDM from male *S. mansoni* infected HFD ApoE$^{-/-}$ mice have increased TCA cycle usage

and significantly reduced cholesterol esters. A-E) Mϕ were differentiated from bone marrow

of 10-week infected animals with M-CSF in a 7-day culture in normal glucose and then switched

to ^{13}C-labeled glucose for 24 hours. F-H) Mϕs were differentiated with M-CSF in a 7-day culture

and then total cellular lipids were extracted and analyzed via LC-MS based lipidomic analysis.

F) PLS-DA derived score from HFD Infected and HFD Uninfected BMDM. G) Plot of lipid

species from the BMDM of infected and uninfected males on HFD, significantly altered lipid

species are red and labeled. H)Table of statistical analysis of VIP I) Box whisker plot of

normalized AUC of cholesterol ester species, which were identified as VIP compounds from the

PLS-DA analysis. J-L) Bone marrow macrophages were differentiated with M-CSF and mRNA

sequenced via RNASeq. J) Volcano plot of significantly differentially expressed genes between

BMDM from *S. mansoni* infected uninfected mice. K) iPathway analysis showed distinct profiles

in BMDM from *S. mansoni* infected, mice. L,M) Total RNA was extracted from biologically

independent BMDM differentiated in M-CSF for Real-time PCR validation of mgll and slc1a3

regulation.

Data in A-I are representative of 3 experiments with 4-6 mice per group in each experiment.

Data in J and K are representative of sequencing of 2 biologically independent experiments with

5-6 mice per group. Data in L are from 2 biologically independent experiments with 4-6 mice per

group.

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Figure 3

***S. mansoni* infection does not protect females from metabolic disease despite inducing**

alternative activation in hepatic macrophages. (A-B) Total body weight and glucose tolerance

test (GTT) at 10 weeks post-infection. GTT values were analyzed by Area Under the Curve and

graphed using GraphPad Prims. (C) (D) Flow cytometry analysis of alternative activation

markers CD206 and CD302 in perfused and digested livers gated on hepatic macrophages

(CD45$^+$CD64$^+$MertK$^+$) Arg-1 expression in hepatic macrophages from uninfected and infected

ApoE$^{-/-}$ mice Nos-2 expression by flow cytometry in hepatic macrophages 10 weeks post

infection. (E) Ly6C expression in monocyte from peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMC) at

10-week post infection by flow cytometry (F) MitoTracker Red in CD115$^+$ monocytes from

PBMC at 10 weeks post immunization in uninfected and infected ApoE$^{-/-}$ mice. (G) Total cell

counts from bone marrow cells utilizing trypan-blue discrimination of apoptotic cells (H)

Percentages of CMP (Lin$^-$CD127$^-$c-Kit$^+$Sca-1$^-$CD34$^+$CD16/32^{low}) and GMP (Lin$^-$CD127$^-$c-

Kit$^+$Sca-1$^-$CD34$^+$CD16/32^{hi}) (I) CMP cell counts in bone marrow ApoE$^{-/-}$ (J) GMP cell counts 10

week post infection in ApoE$^{-/-}$ mice (K) Flow cytometry analysis of MDP defined as Lin$^-$c-

Kit$^+$Sca-1$^-$FcγR^{low}CD34$^+$CD115$^+$ (L) MDP cell counts in ApoE$^{-/-}$uninfected and infected male

mice. Graphs are representative from experiments that were performed 3-4 times with n>4.

Exception is MitoTracker data, which was performed twice, with n>4. Statistical analysis was

done using unpaired Student's t test, *$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$.

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Figure 4.

S. mansoni **infection induces sex-specific modulation of oxygen consumption and beta-**

oxidation in BMDM. (A-C) oxygen consumption rate and spare respiratory capacity were

measured at steady state. D-F) BMDM palmitate dependent oxygen consumption and spare

respiratory capacity was measured in glucose limiting conditions. G) Oil Red O relative staining

in BMDM from ApoE$^{-/-}$ mice (H) MitoTracker Red Deep Stain measure by flow cytometry in

BMDM from ApoE$^{-/-}$ mice. SeaHorse assay analysis were performed the Seahorse XFe96

instrument. *$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$; ***$p < 0.001$. Graphs are representative of multiple

experiments (2-3), with n>4 per group.

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Figure 5**.**

S. mansoni **infection induces significantly different cellular lipid profiles in BMDM from**

HFD female and male ApoE$^{-/-}$ mice. A) PLS-DA derived score of LC-MS based lipidomic

analysis of BMDM from HFD Infected females vs males. B) Box whisker plot of normalized

AUC of cholesterol ester species, between female and male infected and uninfected HFD ApoE$^{-/-}$

mice. C) PLS-DA derived score from Female HFD Infected and uninfected BMDM. D) Dot plot

of lipid species identified in BMDM from infected and uninfected female ApoE$^{-/-}$ mice on HFD,

significant lipid species are represented by red dots and labeled. E) Relative quantitation of BMP

compounds in BMDM from male and female animals with and without *S. man*soni infection. F-I)

Macrophages were differentiated with M-CSF in a 7-day culture with normal glucose and serum,

and then switched to ^{13}C-labeled palmitate in dialyzed serum for 36 hours. J-N) Culture

supernatants from BMDM stimulated with LPS for 24 hours were assayed for

chemokines/cytokines. Data in A-E and J-N are representative of 2 biologically independent

experiments with 4-8 mice per group. F-I are one experiment with 5-6 mice per group.

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Figure 6.

***S. mansoni* infection differentially regulates the transcriptomes of BMDM from female and**

male ApoE$^{-/-}$ mice. (A) Venn diagram showing upregulated genes in males only, independently

of infection state and pathway analysis corresponding to the identified genes. (B) Venn diagram

and pathway analysis of differentially expressed genes in males compared to females. (C) Gene

ontology map of differentially expressed genes in response to *S. mansoni* infection in male

compared to female ApoE $^{-/-}$ mice on HFD. Sequencing data are from one experiment with 5-6

mice per group.

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Figure 7. *S. mansoni* induced modulation of male macrophage metabolism is long-lived in

the absence of antigen. Bone marrow from 10-week *S. mansoni* infected or control ApoE-/-

mice on HFD was transferred into busulfan treated ApoE$^{-/-}$ recipients on HFD. A,B) Glucose

tolerance test (GTT) at 10 weeks post-infection. GTT values were analyzed by Area Under the

Curve and graphed using GraphPad Prism. C-E) Oxygen consumption rate and spare respiratory

capacity were measured at steady state in 7day BMDM. F) MitoTracker Red Deep Stain measure

by flow cytometry in BMDM. Data is two combined experiments 7-8 animals per group.

Statistical analysis was done using Welch's t-tests.

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Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

A Upregulated genes in males

Pathways	Number of genes
Metabolism	238
Innate Immune System	216
Gene expression	183
Metabolism of proteins	149
Class I MHC Mediated Antigen Processing	85
Cell cycle	76
Vesicle mediated transport	72
Unassigned	63
Regulation of TP53 activity	52
NK-KappaB Signaling	47
DNA Double-strand break repair	42
Organelle biogenesis and maintenance	42
TNFR1 Pathway	31

B Differential regulation in male vs. female

Pathways	Number of genes
Unassigned	31
Metabolism	10
Hemostasis	6
Adaptive immune system	2
Collagen degradation	2
Developmental biology	2
Metabolism of proteins	2
Neurotransmitter receptors and postsynaptic signal transmission	2
ROS and RNS production in phagocytes	2
Signal transduction	2

C Gene Ontology Map