Intraperitoneal oil application causes local inflammation with depletion of

resident peritoneal macrophages

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Abstract

Oil is frequently used as a solvent to inject lipophilic substances into the peritoneum of laboratory animals. Although mineral oil causes chronic peritoneal inflammation, little is known whether other oils are better suited. Here we show that olive, peanut, corn or mineral oil causes xanthogranulomatous inflammation with depletion of resident peritoneal macrophages. However, there were striking differences in the severity of the inflammatory response. Peanut and mineral oil caused severe chronic inflammation with persistent neutrophil and monocyte recruitment, expansion of the vasculature and fibrosis. Corn and olive oil provoked no or only mild signs of chronic inflammation. Mechanistically, the vegetal oils were taken up by macrophages leading to foam cell formation and induction of cell death. Olive oil triggered caspase-3 cleavage and apoptosis, which facilitates the resolution of inflammation. Peanut oil and, to a lesser degree, corn oil triggered caspase-1 activation and macrophage pyroptosis, which impairs the resolution of inflammation. As such, intraperitoneal oil administration can interfere with the outcome of subsequent experiments. As a proof-of-principle, intraperitoneal peanut oil injection was compared to its oral delivery in a thioglycolate-induced peritonitis model. The chronic peritoneal inflammation due to peanut oil injection impeded the proper recruitment of macrophages and the resolution of inflammation in this peritonitis model. In summary, the data indicate that it is advisable to deliver lipophilic substances like tamoxifen by oral gavage instead of intraperitoneal injection.

Introduction

Oil is frequently used as solvent in animal research. For instance, inducible gene recombination using the Cre-ERT2 -loxP system requires administration of tamoxifen which is usually dissolved in olive, peanut, corn or mineral oil. The oil solution is administered orally or by intraperitoneal injection (*i.p.*) (1, 2). Also, in a liver fibrosis model carbon tetrachloride (CCl_4) is delivered by *i.p.* injection in oil, inhalation or oral gavage (3). Interestingly, *i.p.* injection generates stronger liver fibrosis when compared with the other two administration methods (4),

raising the question whether CCl_4 or its solvent act locally within the peritoneum. Indeed, *i.p.*

injection of mineral oil causes chronic inflammation (5-9). Also, subcutaneous injection of olive

oil can cause lipogranuloma, a granulomatous inflammatory soft tissue reaction (10).

Therefore, it can be assumed that any experimental immune cell analysis within the

peritoneal cavity would be strongly affected by oil. It is surprising how little is known about the

peritoneal immune cell reaction towards oil and comparative studies of different oils are

missing to our knowledge.

Peritoneal inflammation can be divided into the initiation and resolution phase.

Pathogens trigger infiltration of neutrophils, which phagocytose pathogens, clear apoptotic

cells and recruit monocytes from the blood stream into the peritoneal fluid. Recruited

monocytes eliminate dying neutrophils and differentiate into monocyte-derived macrophages

(11). This is important, as the number of resident peritoneal macrophages, which are derived

from embryonic progenitors and have self-renewal capacity (12), get strongly decreased as a

result of the so-called "macrophage disappearance reaction" (13). As such, resident peritoneal

$CD11b^+$ macrophages, expressing high F4/80 levels (F4/80^{hi}) get replaced by monocyte-

derived $CD11b^+$ macrophages, expressing low F4/80 levels (F4/80^{low}) on the membrane (12,

14, 15). Subsequently, monocyte-derived macrophages increase surface expression of F4/80

from a low to an intermediate level (F4/80^{int}) to initiate the resolution phase (16).

The switch from inflammatory to resolving macrophages is triggered by phagocytosis

of apoptotic cells. Deficiency in this phagocytic process leads to chronic inflammation (17). For

instance in atherosclerotic plaques, macrophages take up excessive amounts of lipids and

become foam cells, which cannot initiate the resolution phase, perpetuating further neutrophil

and monocytes infiltration (18).

The aim of this study was to analyze how the most commonly used oils in animal

research affect the myeloid cells within the peritoneum and whether this would diminish their

capability to resolve the peritoneal inflammation.

Materials and methods

Animal models

The study was approved by institutional and regional animal research committees. All animal

procedures were in accordance with institutional guidelines and performed according to the

guidelines of the local institution and the local government. Female C57BL/6 mice were group-

housed under specific pathogen-free barrier conditions.

Administration of peanut (P2144, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, USA), corn (C8267, Sigma- Aldrich,

St. Louis, USA), olive (88631, Carl Roth, Germany), mineral oil (HP50.2, Carl Roth, Germany)

or 0,9% sterile NaCl (Braun, Germany) in 8 to 12-week-old randomized mice was performed

by daily *i.p.* injection of 100 µl for 5 consecutive days or by oral gavage of peanut oil once with

100 µl. After three weeks mice were euthanized. For peritoneal lavage, 5 ml of cold PBS

(Gibco/Thermo Fisher Scientific, NY, USA) was injected *i.p.* after a careful massage to mobilize

cells, peritoneal fluid was collected. Cells were isolated by centrifugation (5 min, 200 g) and

suspended in 1 ml of PBS.

8 to 12-week-old randomized mice were euthanized and administrated with peanut, olive, corn

and mineral oil. After 5 minutes the peritoneal lavage was collected.

Three weeks after oil treatment, mice were *i.p.* injected with thioglycolate (2 mg in 1 ml H_2O;

B2551, Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, USA). After 24 or 72 hours mice were sacrificed and

peritoneal lavage collected. All groups were randomized.

Immunofluorescence and tissue histology

Histological analysis was performed on formalin-fixed paraffin-embedded sections (3 µm).

Sections were deparaffinized and rehydrated. For hematoxylin-eosin (H&E) and Sirius Red

(Dianova, Germany) staining, sections were processed according to standard protocols. For

myeloid cell staining, antigen retrieval at pH 6 with citrate buffer and the primary antibody rabbit

anti-mouse CD11b (1:200) (ab133357, Abcam, Cambridge, MA, USA) and antigen retrieval

with 1:20 proteinase K/TE buffer and rat anti-mouse F4/80 (1:100) (T-2006, Dianova,

Germany) incubated at 4°C overnight. After washing, sections were incubated with secondary

antibodies coupled with HRP (1:200) (DAKO, Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA) for

one hour at room temperature. For immunofluorescence staining, antigen retrieval at pH 9 was

performed using citrate buffer and sections were incubated with the primary antibody rabbit

anti-mouse CD31 (1:50) (ab28364, Abcam, Cambridge, MA, USA) at 4°C overnight. After

washing, sections were incubated with secondary antibody (1:200) goat anti-rabbit Alexa

Fluor-647 (A21245, Life Technologies/Thermo Fisher Scientific, NY, USA) for 1 hour at room

temperature. H&E images were obtained with slide scanner (Zeiss Axio Sacn.Z1, Carl Zeiss,

Germany). CD11b images were obtained with widefield microscope (Zeiss Axioplan, Carl

Zeiss, Germany). All images were processed with ZENblue software (Carl Zeiss, Germany).

Immunofluorescence was imaged at the confocal (LSM 700, Carl Zeiss, Germany) microscope

with ZENblack software (Carl Zeiss, Germany). Sections of seven Z-stacks per omentum and

mesentery and three random fluorescence images per slide were taken. Numbers of CD31

positive vessels per view field and lipid droplet size from H&E images were counted with

ImageJ software (NIH, Bethesda, MD, USA).

Oil Red O staining

Peritoneal lavage was plated into one well of a 6-well plate on top of coverslips and incubated

for 30 min with Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) (Gibco/ Thermo Fisher Scientific,

NY, USA). Afterwards non-adherent cells were removed by careful washing three times with

PBS. J774A.1 cells cultured in DMEM with 10% fetal calf serum (Biochrom, UK) were seeded

into 12-well plates on coverslips and treated with 100 µl oil in 1 ml medium for four hours. Cells

on coverslips were stained with Oil Red O (O0625, Sigma-Aldrich) following the protocol

published elsewhere (19) and counterstained with hematoxylin. Images were obtained with

widefield microscope (Zeiss Axioplan Carl Zeiss, Germany).

Flow cytometry

Cells obtained from peritoneal lavage were washed and erythrocytes lysed with ACK lysis

buffer (Gibco/Thermo Fisher Scientific, NY, USA). Cells were suspended at approximately 10^6

cells/ml in PBS with 2% FCS. Cell suspensions were incubated with the different fluorophore-

coupled primary antibodies for 20 minutes on ice. These antibodies were used: CD45

(552848), CD11b (552850), CD19 (560375), Ly6G (560600), Ly6C (560594) and F4/80-like

(564227) all from BD Biosciences (Bedford, MA, USA), CD3 (100203) and F4/80 (123128)

from BioLegend (St. Diego, CA, USA) and Tim4 (12-5866-82, Life Technologies/Thermo

Fisher Scientific, NY, USA). Concentration of the different antibodies was determined by

titration. Flow cytometer results in percentage were extrapolated to the total amount of cells

obtained from the previous cell counting.

Western Blot analysis

Cell lysates were separated by SDS-PAGE and proteins blotted on nitrocellulose membranes.

Membranes were blocked with 5% skim milk in TBS with 1% Tween-20. The following primary

antibodies were used: CD36 (ab124515), VCP (ab11433) from Abcam (Cambridge, MA, USA),

ABCG1 (NB400-132SS, Novus Biologicals, CO, USA), Cleaved-Caspase 3 (Asp175; 9664S),

Arginase-1 (D4E3M™; 93668S) from Cell Signaling (Danvers, MA, USA) and Caspase 1

(14F468; sc-56036, Santa Cruz Technologies, Dallas, TX, USA). Primary antibodies were

incubated overnight at 4°C and appropriate HRP-conjugated secondary antibodies (DAKO,

Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA) for 1 hour at room temperature.

Chemiluminescence was detected by Pierce ECL Western Blotting Substrate (Thermo Fisher

Scientific, NY, USA) and ChemiDoc imaging system (Biorad, Hercules, CA, USA) and

quantified with Image Lab 3.0 software (Biorad, Hercules, CA, USA).

Quantitative PCR

RNA was isolated using the innuPREP RNA Mini kit (Analytik Jena, Germany). cDNA was

synthesized with the High-Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription Kit (Applied Biosystems). The

cDNA was applied to qPCR using the POWER SYBR Green Master Mix (Applied Biosystems).

Fold changes were assessed by $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ method and normalized with the *CPH* gene. The

following primers were used for qPCR: CD36 forward GCAAAACGACTGCAGGTCAA and

reverse GGCCATCTCTACCATGCCAA, ABCG1 forward CTTTCCTACTCTGTACCCGAGG

and reverse CGGGGCATTCCATTGATAAGG, IL10 forward GCATGGCCCAGAAATCAAGG

and reverse GAGAAATCGATGACAGCGCC and CPH forward ATGGTCAACCCCACCGTG

and reverse TTCTTGCTGTCTTTGGAACTTTGTC.

Cell death detection

J774A.1 cells were plated at 5×10^5 cells per well into a 12 well-plate with 100 µl of the different

oils in 1 ml medium and incubated for four hours. Afterwards, supernatant and attached cells

were collected and stained with Annexin V-FITC (640905, BioLegend, St. Diego, CA, USA)

and PI (Cayman Chemical, USA) and incubated for 15 minutes on ice. After washing, cells

were immediately analyzed by flow cytometry.

An apoptosis/necrosis immunofluorescence assay kit (ab176749, Abcam, Cambridge, MA,

USA,) was used for detection of necrosis or apoptosis cell death. J774A.1 cells were plated at

5×10^5 cells/well into a 24 well-plate on top of a coverslip. To each well, 50 µl of oil was added

in a final volume of 1 ml medium and incubated for two hours. Afterwards, the staining was

performed following the manufacturer's protocol. Three fluorescence images of each channel

at fixed positions of each triplicate were collected at the wide-field Cell Observer microscope

(Carl Zeiss, Germany) with ZENblue software (Carl Zeiss, Germany). FIJI software was

employed for the quantification of positive cells of each channel per field.

For determination of lactate dehydrogenase activity in the cell supernatant, J774A.1 cells were

plated at 5×10^4 cells/well into a 96 well-plate with 100 µl of medium containing 10 µl oil in

triplicates and incubated for 2 hours. Oleic acid (O1008, Sigma- Aldrich, St. Louis, USA),

diluted in absolute ETOH was added to the medium or mixed with 5 µl peanut oil when

indicated. Then, levels of LDH were detected using the LDH-Cytotoxicity Assay Kit (Ab65393,

Abcam, Cambridge, MA, USA) following the manufacturer's protocol.

Statistical analysis

GraphPad Prism 8 (GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA, USA) was used to generate graphs

and for statistical analysis. Statistical significance was calculated using one-way or two-way

ANOVA as indicated in the figure legends. Data sets are presented as mean ± SD. $P < 0.05$

was considered as significant.

Results

Macroscopic changes upon intraperitoneal oil injection

Peanut, olive, corn and mineral oil were injected into the peritoneum (*i.p.*) of adult mice

for five consecutive days. This mimics a typical protocol for delivering tamoxifen to induce gene

recombination in transgenic mice expressing Cre[ERT2] recombinase (2). Analysis was done

three weeks later. As controls, untreated mice and mice treated with peanut oil by oral gavage

were used (**Figure 1A**).

In contrast to untreated mice or those receiving oil by oral gavage, the *i.p.* injected mice

showed macroscopically visible alterations in the peritoneal cavity. Peanut oil was still visible

as oil droplets (**Figure 1B**), whereas this was not the case for the other oils. White nodules, in

the size of <3 mm, were visible on the surface of liver, diaphragm or colon in mice receiving

peanut, olive and mineral oil *i.p.* but not corn oil. The nodules formed due to olive oil treatment

were only loosely attached to the organ surfaces, whereas the nodules in mice that were *i.p.*

injected with peanut or mineral oil were firmly attached to the liver surface (**Figure 1B**).

Xanthogranulomatous inflammation in the peritoneum upon oil injection

Histological analysis revealed no pathological changes in liver (**Figure 1C**) and spleen (**Supplementary Figure 1A**) of mice that received *i.p.* injection of oil. The nodules that were firmly attached to the liver surface in mice treated with peanut or mineral oil could be classified as xanthogranulomas with foamy macrophages and mixed inflammatory background (**Figure 1C**).

Next, we examined the greater omentum. The greater omentum is an organ that filters excessive fluid from the abdominal cavity, senses microorganisms or damaged cells, initiates immune responses and supports repair of damaged organs (20). Omenta of mice treated with oral gavage were indistinguishable from those of untreated mice. However, omenta of mice that received *i.p.* oil injections showed a remarkable change in morphology. The omenta were swollen, darker and had enlarged blood vessels, particularly in mice treated with peanut and mineral oil (**Figure 2A**). Histological analysis revealed that lipid droplet size in adipocytes was reduced in mice treated *i.p.* with any of the different oils. Again, the changes were most pronounced in mice injected with peanut and mineral oil (**Figures 2B and 2F**).

Immunohistochemical analysis of CD31-positive endothelial cells revealed an increase in vessel density in the omenta after oil injection. It was strongly increased in the case of peanut and mineral oil but mild in olive and corn oil-treated mice (**Figure 2C and 2G**). In addition, higher numbers of CD11b⁺ myeloid cells were present in all four oil-treated mice, but again, peanut and mineral oil-treated mice had highest infiltration rates (**Figure 2D**).

So far, the described changes are indicative of peritoneal inflammation upon local oil injection. Prolonged inflammation may impede tissue healing resulting in organ fibrosis. Indeed, Sirius Red staining revealed an increase in collagen deposition, a typical sign of fibrosis, in the greater omentum of *i.p.* oil-injected mice. Such fibrotic changes were in particular observed in mice treated with peanut and mineral oil (**Figures 2E**).

Histopathological scoring of the inflammation grade in the greater omentum by H&E staining was based on the granularity of the tissue, the presence of foamy macrophages or

other inflammatory cells, multinucleated giant cells, fibrosis or necrosis with a score from 0 (no

inflammation) to 3 (severe chronic inflammation). This showed that *i.p.* injection of all four oils

causes xanthogranulomatous inflammation of the omentum with highest scores for mineral

and peanut oil. (**Figure 2H**).

Similar data were obtained during the analysis of mesentery. The almost transparent

membrane became opaque in mice treated *i.p.* with oil. The strongest changes were observed

in mice treated with peanut and mineral oil (**Figure 3A**). Lipid droplets in adipocytes of

mesentery from mineral oil-treated mice were much smaller compared to controls. Such

changes were also observed but to a lesser extent in mice injected *i.p.* with peanut oil, whereas

the effects of olive and corn oil were mild (**Figures 3B and 3F**). The number of blood vessels

were increased in peanut and mineral oil-treated mice. We detected increased numbers of

CD11b$^+$ myeloid cells in the mesentery of olive, corn, peanut and to the maximum extent in

mineral oil-treated mice (**Figure 3D**). There was mild fibrosis in the mesentery of mice treated

with peanut oil and severe fibrosis in mice that had received mineral oil (**Figure 3E**).

Histopathological scoring of the inflammation grade revealed that peanut and mineral oil, but

not olive and corn oil, generated xanthogranulomatous inflammation (**Figure 3H**).

In summary, the histopathological analysis revealed that mineral oil and peanut oil

induce a strong xanthogranulomatous inflammatory response in the peritoneum. Olive and

corn oils also induce inflammation, but to a much lesser degree.

Intraperitoneal oil injection causes myeloid cell infiltration into the peritoneum

To further analyze the immune response, peritoneal lavage was obtained three weeks

after the *i.p.* injection. Flow cytometry revealed that the total cell number in the peritoneal

lavage was significantly increased in mice treated with either peanut or mineral oil compared

to untreated animals (**Figure 4A**). The vast majority of the cell population were myeloid cells

(CD45$^+$CD19$^-$CD11b$^+$). Peanut and mineral oil increased the total number of myeloid cells,

whereas olive and corn oil had no significant effect (**Figure 4B and Supplementary Figure**

2A).

We also observed that oil injection led to a decrease in the number of B

(CD45$^+$CD19$^+$CD3$^-$) and T lymphocytes (CD45$^+$CD19$^-$CD3$^+$) (**Supplementary Figure 2B**).

This was expected as during peritoneal inflammation lymphocytes migrate from the peritoneal

fluid into the greater omentum (21, 22).

Peanut and mineral oil increases neutrophil and monocyte recruitment

A more detailed evaluation of the myeloid population revealed that peanut and mineral

oil injection strongly increased the presence of neutrophils (CD45$^+$CD11b$^+$Ly6G$^+$Ly6C^{int}) and

recruited monocytes (CD45$^+$CD11b$^+$Ly6G$^-$Ly6C$^+$) in the peritoneal fluid. Neutrophils and

infiltrated monocytes were almost absent in peritoneal lavage derived from untreated mice or

mice treated with olive oil, corn oil or oral gavage (**Figures 4C, D and E**).

Importantly, the injection itself did not cause such alterations. Injection of 0.9% NaCl

did not lead to macroscopic or histological changes, nor to significant changes in total number

of cells in peritoneal fluid or changes within the myeloid cell compartment (**Supplementary**

Figure 3A-G).

Oil injection leads to a severe reduction of resident peritoneal macrophages

During inflammation, neutrophils are the first cells being recruited to clear apoptotic

cells or eliminate pathogens. Afterwards, monocytes reach the inflamed zone to eliminate

dying neutrophils and to differentiate into macrophages. The latter is in particular essential

when resident macrophages are eradicated. Therefore, we next examined the macrophage

population within the peritoneum. The total macrophage (CD45$^+$CD11b$^+$F4/80$^+$) cell number

was not significantly changed in peritoneal lavage of mice treated *i.p.* with oil compared to the

untreated mice or to those which received oil by oral gavage (**Figure 4F**).

We further characterized the F4/80 population by analyzing the amount of Tim4 on the

cell surface as Tim4 can be employed as a marker to differentiate long-term (F4/80$^+$Tim4$^+$)

from newly recruited (F4/80$^+$Tim4$^-$) resident macrophages (23). This revealed that all four oils

led to a dramatic decrease in long-term resident (F4/80$^+$Tim4$^+$) macrophages and a

replacement by recently recruited (F4/80$^+$Tim4$^-$) macrophages (**Figure 4G**).

The level of F4/80 on the macrophage cell membrane varies depending on the

differentiation stage (15). In this regard, resident macrophages express high levels of F4/80,

while newly recruited monocyte-derived macrophages express low to intermediate levels

(F4/80^{int}). Peanut oil injection led to a strong decrease in resident F4/80^{hi} macrophage numbers

(**Figure 4H**). Mineral oil showed a similar but not significant trend, whereas olive oil and corn

oil did not alter the proportion of F4/80^{hi} macrophages.

The full resolution of inflammation is carried out by F4/80^{int} macrophages (16). Analysis

of this cell population revealed that only the *i.p.* injection of olive oil led to a significant increase

in F4/80^{int} macrophages at this time point (**Figure 4I**).

Collectively, the data imply that injection of any oil into the peritoneum triggers an

inflammatory response in which resident macrophages get replaced by monocyte-derived

ones. However, the resolution of inflammation depends on the type of oil, with olive oil and

corn oil (to a lesser extent) showing signs of resolution.

Oil injection induces foam cell formation

Monocytes and macrophages can take up excessive amounts of lipids (24). Therefore,

we examined lipid uptake in macrophages upon oil injection. Peritoneal lavage was performed

three weeks after *i.p.* oil injection. Adherent peritoneal macrophages were stained with Oil Red

O, which marks lipids and neutral triglycerides. Macrophages derived from the control mice

were not stained by Oil Red O while peritoneal macrophages derived from mice injected *i.p.*

with peanut oil contained multiple large lipid droplets. Fewer amounts were detected in the

macrophages from the olive oil and corn oil group, whereas the macrophages of the mineral

oil group contained almost no detectable lipid droplets (**Figure 5A**).

To further evaluate this, we tested lipid uptake in the J774A.1 macrophage cell line.

J774A.1 macrophages took up lipids when in contact with olive, corn and peanut oil, but not

mineral oil, suggesting that the effect of this oil is independent of the cellular lipid uptake.

In atherosclerotic plaques, monocyte-derived macrophages endocytose lipids such as

oxidized LDL and become foam cells. During this transition, an upregulation of the fatty acid

translocase (CD36) expression and downregulation of the cholesterol transporter ABCG1 is

evident (25). J774A.1 macrophages showed the same changes in gene expression when

cultured for four hours in the presence of vegetal oils (**Figure 5C-F**).

In summary, these results indicate that peanut, olive and corn, but not mineral oil *i.p.*

injection leads to foam cell formation.

Peritoneal macrophage cell death after exposure to different oils

Lipoprotein uptake can cause macrophage cell death (26). Therefore, we evaluated

whether peritoneal macrophage cell death is induced by the four different oils. Mice were

injected once *i.p.* with 100 µl oil and five minutes later peritoneal cells were harvested and

subjected to flow cytometry (**Figure 6A**). This revealed that compared to untreated mice there

was approximately a 50% decrease in $CD11b^+F4/80^+$ macrophages in the peritoneum of mice

that received any of the oils (**Figure 6B**). There was a 5-10% decrease in the fraction of live

cells (Annexin V^-, PI^-) and an equivalent increase of necrotic (PI^+), apoptotic (Annexin V^+) and

Annexin V^+PI^+ cells in the peritoneal lavage of mice that received peanut or olive oil (**Figure

6C**). The Annexin V^+PI^+ double-positive population can be the result of both, apoptosis and

necrosis (27). The increase in cell death was milder in the presence of corn oil, whereas in

mineral oil injected mice cell death was not different as compared to untreated mice,

suggesting that the mechanism for mineral oil-induced injury is different (**Figure 6C**).

To further analyze cell death in macrophages, J774A.1 cells were treated with different

oils. All three vegetal oils increased cell death. In this case, the increase in Annexin V$^+$, PI$^+$

double positive cells was present for olive, corn and peanut oil. Moreover, necrotic cell death

(Annexin V$^-$, PI$^+$) was also increased in the presence of peanut and corn oil (**Figure 6D**).

In order to further clarify whether macrophages die by apoptosis or necrosis we

incubated J774A.1 cells with different oils to determine apoptotic and necrotic cell death. There

was an increase in apoptotic cells in the case of incubation with olive oil and a mild increase

in the presence of corn oil. 7-AAD incorporation (necrosis) was increased upon treatment with

peanut and to a lesser extent upon treatment with corn and mineral oil (**Figure 6E-G**).

Another way to detect necrotic cell death is measuring lactate dehydrogenase (LDH)

activity in the cell culture supernatant. Membrane disruption of necrotic cells allows release of

cytosolic LDH. Peanut oil caused pronounced release of LDH. There was also LDH release

from macrophages treated with olive and corn oil, however to a lesser degree (**Figure 6H**).

Interestingly, the LDH release upon treatment with peanut oil could be strongly decreased by

supplementing peanut oil with the polyunsaturated oleic acid (**Supplemental Figure 4A**).

We corroborated the different mechanisms of cell death further and observed that only

treatment with olive oil induces cleavage of caspase-3 in macrophages, a major effector of

apoptosis (**Figure 6J**). On the other hand, peanut oil-treated macrophages showed an

increase in active p20 caspase-1, which is a marker for pyroptosis (**Figure 6J-K**), which has

similar features as necrosis but is driven by caspase-1 activation (28). In contrast, olive oil-

treated macrophages showed increased levels of IL10 and Arginase-1 indicating an anti-

inflammatory switch towards resolution of inflammation (**Figure 6I-K**).

These results suggest that macrophages in contact with olive oil die by apoptosis,

which facilitates the subsequent resolution of the inflammation, whereas peanut oil induces

macrophage pyroptosis, which impairs the resolution of inflammation.

I.p. **injection of peanut oil impairs the resolution of inflammation in a peritonitis model**

The results presented indicate that *i.p.* oil injection leads to a dramatic change in the

peritoneal immune cell composition. Chronic inflammation is induced by peanut oil and this

would potentially alter the outcome of experiments executed subsequently. One such example

could be a peritonitis experiment in transgenic mice that had been injected *i.p.* before with

tamoxifen in peanut oil to induce gene recombination. We decided to test this in experimental

peritonitis model, in which mice received peanut oil by *i.p.* injection or by oral gavage as control.

Three weeks later, thioglycolate was applied to mimic bacterial peritonitis (**Figure 7A**).

It is known that thioglycolate initially induces a massive neutrophil and monocyte

infiltration, followed by differentiation into macrophages that resolve inflammation by clearance

of apoptotic cells (16). Consistently, mice that had received peanut oil by oral gavage had

approximately 50% increase in myeloid cell numbers 24 and 72 hours after thioglycolate

injection. However, mice pretreated *i.p.* with oil, already had high numbers of $CD45^+CD11b^+$

myeloid cells in peritoneal fluid at baseline and this was not further increased upon

thioglycolate administration (**Figure 7C**). In mice treated by oral gavage, the number of

monocytes and neutrophils in peritoneal fluid increased strongly upon thioglycolate injection

and subsequently returned below baseline. This suggests that the first inflammatory response

by these cells had already been cleared. However, in mice that had been *i.p.* injected with

peanut oil there was a higher proportion of monocytes and neutrophils already under basal

conditions, which was maintained after thioglycolate administration (**Figure 7B and D-E**).

Mice treated orally showed the expected increase in $CD45^+CD11b^+F4/80^+$

macrophages 72 hours after thioglycolate injection. However, mice that had been injected *i.p.*

with peanut oil had only few macrophages present in the peritoneum (approximately 12% of

all myeloid cells) and these increased only marginally (**Figure 7F**). Orally treated mice showed

disappearance of $F4/80^{hi}$ macrophages 24 hours after thioglycolate administration and

subsequent recovery, which was accompanied by an increase of $F4/80^{int}$ macrophages

(**Figure 7G-H**). This suggests that resident macrophages disappear after thioglycolate

administration and get replaced by monocyte-derived macrophages as the inflammation

resolves. Yet, in mice that received peanut oil *i.p.* there were only few $F4/80^{hi}$ macrophages at

baseline and there was only a minor increase in F4/80[int] macrophages (**Figure 7G-H**). The

lower presence of F4/80[int] macrophages, together with the continuous influx of monocytes and

neutrophils, suggests that resolution of inflammation cannot take place. As such, *i.p.* peanut

oil injection leads to a dramatic change in the myeloid cell composition of the peritoneum that

affects the outcome of subsequent experiments.

Discussion

Animal experimentation requires careful planning and analysis to allow reproducibility

and the possibility to translate basic research into successful clinical trials. Oil injection is

frequently performed in animal research, in particular to deliver tamoxifen for inducible gene

recombination (1, 2, 4). Oil is considered to be safe and non-toxic. However, few studies

reported peritoneal inflammation after subcutaneous or intraperitoneal oil injection (6, 10, 29).

To our knowledge, little is still known about changes in the immune cell composition and related

reactions within the peritoneum upon intraperitoneal oil delivery. This work demonstrates that

intraperitoneal injection of four different oils causes inflammation, foam cell formation and

depletion of resident macrophages. However, the severity of inflammation strongly depends

on the type of oil.

Within the peritoneum, the omentum plays a major role in recognition and

encapsulation of pathogens (30). During this process, it expands, a feature which we observed

after injection of the different oils. Interestingly, the applied oils were not completely resorbed

even three weeks after injection into the peritoneal cavity. In particular larger amounts of

peanut oil were still visible in the peritoneal fluid. The failed clearance can be assumed to

prolong the phase of acute inflammation (17). Consistently, chronic xanthogranulomatous

inflammation and fibrosis were observed, particularly upon peanut and mineral oil treatment.

Myeloid cell infiltration and fibrosis were more severe in the omentum compared to the

mesentery. This is consistent with the fact that the omentum is an immunological niche and

the first organ to react against pathogens, but only when this inflammation becomes chronic it

starts to affect the mesentery (20).

Mechanistically, the type of oil-induced macrophage cell death appears to determine

whether inflammation gets resolved. For successful resolution of the inflammation, there is the

need of efferocytosis, where macrophages engulf apoptotic cells (31). Non-resolving

inflammation contributes substantially to the progression of atherosclerotic plaques and other

chronic inflammatory diseases (18, 32, 33). Our data indicate that macrophages in contact with

olive oil die by apoptosis, which facilitates efferocytosis-mediated resolution of inflammation.

Conversely, peanut oil induces pyroptosis of macrophages. Excessive pyroptosis impairs the

resolution of inflammation (34, 35). As such, peanut oil injection results in chronic peritoneal

inflammation, whereas olive oil induces macrophage apoptosis, followed by efferocytosis and

initiation of the resolution phase.

At the cellular level, all three vegetal oils were taken up by macrophages and caused

foam cell formation. This change in the expression pattern has been observed in peritoneal

macrophages isolated from obese mice, and blood monocytes from patients suffering from

severe atherosclerosis (36-38). In principle, one could even use intraperitoneal peanut oil

injection as a fast model to obtain viable foam cells for *in vitro* experiments. Future research

will determine the potential of this model.

In conclusion, our study shows that intraperitoneal injection of different oils causes

peritoneal inflammation and depletion of resident peritoneal macrophages. Whereas olive oil

triggers macrophage apoptosis and resolution of inflammation, peanut oil induces pyroptosis

and chronic non-resolved inflammation. This has important consequences for animal

experiments. In a proof-of-principle approach, we demonstrated this in a thioglycolate-induced

peritonitis model after peanut oil injection. To overcome such limitations, it is advisable to

deliver lipophilic substances like tamoxifen by oral gavage instead of intraperitoneal injection.

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Conflict of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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Figure legends

Figure 1. Macroscopic changes in mice three weeks after *i.p.* oil injection. A. Schematic

illustration of the *i.p.* or oral oil administration protocol. **B.** Representative images of the

peritoneum. Black arrows indicate visible lipid droplets. White arrowheads mark nodules on

the surface of organs. Scale bar, 3 mm. **C**. Representative microscopic images of liver sections

stained with H&E. Xanthogranuloma on the liver surface in mice treated with peanut and

mineral oil. Scale bar, 50μm.

Figure 2. Xanthogranulomatous inflammation in the omentum upon oil injection.

A. Representative images of omenta from untreated mice and such that were treated with oil

by *i.p.* injection or oral gavage. Analysis was performed three weeks after treatment. **B.**

Representative confocal images of mesentery sections stained with H&E. Scale bar, 50 μm.

C. Immunofluorescence microscopy to detect CD31$^+$ endothelial cells (white). Scale bar 20

μm. **D**. CD11b$^+$ myeloid cells. Scale bar, 100 μm. **E** Sirius Red staining to detect fibrosis. Scale

bar, 100 μm. **F**. Lipid droplet size quantification from H&E images. Untreated micen=3, peanut

oil n=4, olive oil n=3, corn oil n=5, mineral oil n=5 and oral gavage n=3. Bar graphs show

mean ± SD, *, p<0.05 (one way ANOVA). **G**. Quantification of microvessel density. Olive oil

n=4 and all other groups n=5. Bar graphs show mean ± SD, *, p<0.05 (one way ANOVA). **H**.

Xanthogranulomatous inflammation score. 0: no inflammation to 3: very strong inflammation.

All data represent n=5 mice, bar graphs show mean ± SD, *, p<0.05 (one way ANOVA).

Figure 3. Xanthogranulomatous inflammation in the mesentery upon peanut and

mineral oil injection. A. Representative images of mesentery from untreated mice and such

that were treated with oil by *i.p.* injection or oral gavage. Analysis was performed three weeks

after treatment. **B.** Representative confocal images of mesentery sections stained with H&E.

Scale bar, 50 μm. **C**. Immunofluorescence microscopy to detect CD31$^+$ endothelial cells

(white). Scale bar, 20 μm **D**. CD11b$^+$ myeloid cells. Scale bar, 100 μm **E** Sirius Red staining to

detect fibrosis. Scale bar, 100 µm **F**. Lipid droplet size quantification from H&E images. n=3

mice. Bar graph shows mean ± SD, *, p<0.05 (one way ANOVA). **G**. Quantification of

microvessel density. n=5 mice. Bar graph shows mean ± SD, *, p<0.05 (one way ANOVA). **H**.

Xanthogranulomatous inflammation score. 0: no inflammation to 3: very strong inflammation.

Olive oil n=4 and all other groups n=5. Bar graph shows mean ± SD, *, p<0.05 (one way

ANOVA).

Figure 4. Resident peritoneal macrophage depletion and persistent monocyte and

neutrophil infiltration upon peanut and mineral oil injection. Peritoneal lavage (PL) was

obtained three weeks after treatment with oil. **A**. Total cell number in peritoneal lavage **B**.

Myeloid cells $(CD45^+CD11b^+)$ in peritoneal lavage. **C**. Neutrophils

$(CD45^+CD11b^+Ly6G^+Ly6C^{int})$ in peritoneal lavage. **D**. Monocytes $(CD45^+CD11b^+Ly6G^-Ly6C^+)$

in peritoneal lavage. **F**. Macrophages $(CD45^+CD11b^+F4/80^+)$ in peritoneal lavage. **E**.

Representative blots of flow cytometry analysis of monocytes, neutrophils and macrophages.

G. Percentage of $CD45^+CD11b^+F4/80^+Tim4^+$ and $CD45^+CD11b^+F4/80^+Tim4^-$ macrophages. **H.**

Percentage of $CD45^+CD11b^+F4/80^{hi}$ macrophages. **I.** Percentage of $CD45^+CD11b^+F4/80^{int}$

macrophages. All data represent n=4 mice for untreated, peanut, corn and mineral groups and

n=5 for olive and oral gavage groups. Bar graphs show mean ± SD, *, p<0.05 (one way

ANOVA).

Figure 5. Macrophage foam cell formation upon contact with vegetal oil. A. Isolation of

peritoneal macrophages from untreated mice and three weeks after peanut, olive, corn,

mineral oil intraperitoneal injection. Cells from peritoneal lavage were plated for 30 minutes

and stained with Oil Red O. Scale bar, 5 µm. **B.** J774A.1 macrophages after four hours in

contact with the different oils. Representative images of Oil Red O staining. Scale bar, 50 µm.

C. Representative Western blot of CD36 expression in J774A.1 macrophages after four hours

in contact with the different oils. **D.** Representative Western blot of ABCG1 expression in

J774A.1 macrophages after four hours in contact with the different oils. **E.** Quantification of

CD36 and ABCG1 mRNA expression levels expression in J774A.1 macrophages after four

hours in contact with the different oils. Fold change in comparison to untreated cells. All data

from n=3 biological replicates, bar graphs represent mean ± SD, *, p<0.05 (one way ANOVA).

Figure 6. Macrophage cell death upon exposure to vegetal oil. A. Schematic illustration of

i.p. oil administration. Peritoneal lavage was obtained five minutes later. **B**. Percentage of

macrophages (CD45$^+$CD11b$^+$F4/80$^+$). Untreated mice n=3, peanut oil n=6 mice and all other

groups n=5 mice, mean ± SD, *, p<0.05 (one way ANOVA). **C**. Percentage of live (Annexin V$^-$

PI$^-$), apoptotic (Annexin V$^+$PI$^-$), necrotic (Annexin V$^-$PI$^+$) or double positive (Annexin V$^+$PI$^+$) cells

from total number of cells in peritoneal lavage. Untreated mice n=6, peanut and olive oil n=9

mice, corn and mineral oil n=10 mice, bar graphs represent mean ± SD, *, p<0.05 (2-way

ANOVA). **D.** J774A.1 macrophage cell line untreated or incubated with different oils for four

hours and analysis of the percentage of live (Annexin V$^-$PI$^-$), apoptotic (Annexin V$^+$PI$^-$), necrotic

(Annexin V$^-$PI$^+$) or double positive (Annexin V$^+$PI$^+$) cells. n=3 biological replicates, bar graphs

represent mean ± SD, *, p<0.05 (2-way ANOVA). **E.** J774A.1 macrophages untreated or

incubated with different oils for two hours. Quantification positive cells per field in comparison

to untreated, blue (alive cells), green (apoptotic) and red (necrotic). n=3 biological replicates,

mean ± SD, *, p<0.05 (one-way ANOVA). **H.** LDH activity in the supernatant upon treatment

of J774A.1 macrophages for two hours. n=3 biological replicates, mean ± SD, *, p<0.05 (one-

way ANOVA). **I.** Normalized mRNA expression levels of IL10. n=4 biological replicates,

mean ± SD, *, p<0.05 (one-way ANOVA). **J.** Representative Western blot cleaved caspase-3,

arginase-1 and active p20 caspase-1 of J774A.1 macrophages untreated or incubated for four

hours with different oils. **K.** Quantification of Western blots. n=3 biological replicates,

mean ± SD, *, p<0.05 (one-way ANOVA).

Figure 7. Intraperitoneal injection of peanut oil impairs the resolution of inflammation in

a thioglycolate-induced peritonitis model. A. Schematic illustration of *i.p.* or oral oil

administration followed by thioglicolate *i.p.* injection three weeks after treatment with oil. **B.**

Representative blots of flow cytometry analysis of monocytes, neutrophils. **C**. Percentage of

myeloid cells (CD45$^+$CD11b$^+$) in peritoneal lavage. **D**. Percentage of neutrophils

(CD45$^+$CD11b$^+$Ly6G$^+$Ly6C^{int}) in peritoneal lavage. **E**. Percentage of monocytes in peritoneal

lavage. **F**. Percentage of macrophages (CD45$^+$CD11b$^+$F4/80$^+$) in peritoneal lavage. **G.**

Percentage of macrophages CD45$^+$CD11b$^+$F4/80^{hi} in peritoneal lavage. **I.** Percentage of

macrophages CD45$^+$CD11b$^+$F4/80^{in} in peritoneal lavage. n=3 mice for oral gavage followed

by thioglycolate and analysis at 24 hours. All other groups n=4 mice.

A

i.p. (100 µl/day)

Analysis
after 3 weeks

Oral gavage (100 µl)

B

Untreated	Peanut oil	Olive oil	Corn oil	Mineral oil	Oral gavage

C

Untreated	Peanut oil	Olive oil	Corn oil	Mineral oil	Oral gavage

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4.

Figure 5.

Alive : apoptotic : necrotic

Figure 6.

Figure 7.