Title: Whole transcriptome-sequencing and network analysis of CD1c+ human

dendritic cells identifies cytokine-secreting subsets linked to type I IFN-negative

autoimmunity to the eye

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Graphical Abstract:

ABSTRACT

Background: Inflammatory subsets of CD1c+ conventional dendritic cells (CD1c+ DCs) are promoted by type I interferons (IFN), but the molecular basis for CD1c+ DCs involvement in conditions not driven by type I IFNs is unknown.

Methods: Our objective was to use RNA-sequencing of blood CD1c+ DCs and high-dimensional flow cytometry of two cohorts of autoimmune uveitis patients and healthy donors to characterize the CD1c+ DCs population of type I IFN-*negative* autoimmune uveitis.

Results: We report that the CD1c+ DCs pool from patients with autoimmune uveitis (n=45) is skewed towards a transcriptional network characterized by surface receptor genes *CX3CR1, CCR2,* and *CD36*. We confirmed the association of the transcriptional network with autoimmune uveitis by RNA-sequencing in another case-control cohort (n=35) and demonstrated that this network was governed by NOTCH2-RUNX3 signaling. Unbiased flow cytometry analysis based on the transcriptional network identified blood CD1c+ DC subsets that can be distinguished by CX3CR1 and CD36 surface expression. A CD36+CX3CR1+CD1c+ DC subset within the novel DC3 population was diminished in peripheral blood of patients, while CD1c+ DCs expressing *CD36* and *CX3CR1* accumulate locally in the inflamed eye. The CD36+CX3CR1+CD1c+ DC subset showed a differential capacity to produce cytokines, including TNF-alpha, IL-6, and VEGF, but not IL-23.

Conclusion: These results show that CD1c+ DC subsets defined on the basis of surface expression of CD36 and CX3CR1 are linked to type I IFN-negative human autoimmune uveitis and show a differential capacity to secrete proinflammatory mediators that drive its pathophysiology.

Main Text:

INTRODUCTION:

Autoimmune uveitis - or *non-infectious* uveitis- refers to a family of severe inflammatory eye conditions that are a leading cause of preventable vision loss in the Western world (*1,2*). The disease mechanisms of human autoimmune uveitis are poorly understood. T cells are considered to play a role in autoimmune uveitis predominantly based on a large body of mechanistic studies using *experimental autoimmune uveitis* (EAU) in rodents (*3,4*). In human autoimmune uveitis, it is unknown where and through which signals these T cells are activated. Genetic studies of archetypal forms of autoimmune uveitis; HLA-B27-associated anterior uveitis, idiopathic intermediate uveitis, and HLA-A29-associated Birdshot Uveitis, demonstrated strong genetic association with *HLA* and *ERAP* genes, indicating that antigen presentation is central to the etiology of autoimmune uveitis (*5-8*). Although the role of antigen presenting cells in autoimmune uveitis is under explored, dendritic cells – key antigen presenting cells - strongly promote EAU (*9-11*). Previous studies have shown that in blood, the proportion of CD1c+ conventional dendritic cells (CD1c+ DCs) is associated with disease activity (*12-14*), and dendritic cells increase in abundance in eye fluid of patients (*15*). Thus, it is important to understand the role of dendritic cells in autoimmune uveitis.

Recent single-cell studies have revealed that the human CD1c+ DC pool (and the murine equivalent termed "cDC2s") constitute at least two phenotypically distinct subsets that originate from distinct progenitors (*16-18*). Cytokines of the type I Interferon (IFN) family have been shown to promote the expansion of a discrete subset within the CD1c+ DC pool in peripheral blood, termed "DC3" (*16,19,20*), which increase in frequency in blood during the type I IFN-driven condition *systemic lupus erythematosus* (SLE)(*17*). However, in contrast to SLE, uveitis disease activity in humans is accompanied by decreased type I IFN levels (21). More importantly, while the administration of type I Interferons can induce *lupus-like* disease, type I interferon therapy suppresses autoimmune uveitis (*21-23*), suggesting a distinct disease mechanism for CD1c+ DC involvement in human autoimmune uveitis. Therefore, our

understanding of the CD1c+ DC characteristics during autoimmunity is incomplete, especially

for conditions not driven by type I IFNs.

Our objective was to use whole transcriptome profiling by bulk RNA-sequencing of peripheral

blood CD1c+ DCs and multiparameter flow cytometry of two cohorts of autoimmune uveitis

patients and healthy donors to characterize the core transcriptional features and subset

composition of CD1c+ DCs in autoimmunity of the eye. We constructed data-driven co-

expression networks that identified a core transcriptional circuit in patients that helped

identify novel CD1c+ DC subsets that are functionally distinct and associated with

autoimmune uveitis.

Results

An CD1c+ DC transcriptome cluster is associated with autoimmune uveitis

We aimed to characterize the transcriptome of CD1c+ DCs from patients with autoimmune

uveitis (**Fig. 1A**). We purified CD1c+ DC cells from blood of 29 adult patients with

anatomically distinct types of autoimmune uveitis (**Table 1**) and 16 age- and sex-matched

controls and studied the transcriptome of the cell fractions by bulk RNA-sequencing (RNA-

seq). We identified 6,794 differentially expressed genes (DEGs) at $P<0.05$ (power ≥ 0.8, see

methods) between all groups (**Supplemental Table 6**). The expression profile of the DEGs

split the samples into clear patient and control groups in the two-dimensional PCA subspace

(**Fig. 1B**). To detect a biologically relevant higher order organization of the transcriptome, we

constructed co-expression networks of the DEGs, which discerned 24 gene modules (**Fig.**

1C). Inspection of the module's *eigengene* values across the samples revealed that the

'black' module (1,236 DEGs) was the largest and associated with uveitis, regardless of

disease subtype (**Fig. 1D**). Within the black module, transcripts encoding the chemokine

receptors *CX3CR1* (Module Membership [MM] = 0.95, $P = 5.9 \times 10^{-22}$) and *CCR2* (MM =

0.92, $P = 1.8 \times 10^{-17}$) showed the highest module membership and thus best represent the

expression pattern of the uveitis-associated module. The black module also includes *ESAM*

and *CLEC12A* which encode for surface markers that distinguish mouse cDC2 subsets

(*24,25*). Because the surface receptors *CX3CR1* and *CCR2* have also been associated with

distinct subsets cDC2s (*24,26,27*), we focused on the 100 genes in the black module that

encode cell surface proteins (according to *surfaceome* predictor *SURFY*)(*28*) and their

transcriptional regulation (**Supplemental Table 6**); In addition to *CX3CR1* and *CCR2*, the

scavenger receptor *CD36*, and Toll like receptor (TLR) family members *1,4,6-8*, and *CD180*,

all showed higher gene expression levels in CD1c+ DC cells of patients (**Fig. 1E**). Other

surface receptor genes in this module were down-regulated in patients, including *SLC2A1*

and *SLC7A5* (encoding the glucose and amino acid transporters GLUT1 and LAT1,

respectively)*.* Eight transcription factors previously shown to be linked to distinct human

CD1c+ DC subsets (*29*) were also detected in the black module, including *RUNX3, IRF8,*

and *NFKB1* (**Fig. 1E**).

The gene signature encompassing *CX3CR1*, *CCR2*, and *CD36* has been linked to a

population within the CD1c+ DC pool with a 'monocyte-like' transcriptome (*16,24,30*).

Although we observed CD14 expression in our CD1c+ fractions, there was no enrichment of

CD14-positive cells in our patient samples used for RNA-seq (**Fig. 1F**) nor was *CD14*

differentially expressed by RNA-seq (P_{LRT}= 0.32). To assess if the uveitis gene module was

dependent on CD14 surface expression by CD1c+ DCs, we purified CD14-negative CD1c+

DCs from an independent cohort of 35 patients and controls and used bulk RNA-seq to study

their transcriptome. Similar to the first cohort, the detected DEGs (n=2,016; *P*<0.05) clearly

distinguished patients from controls by PCA (**Fig. 2A** and **Supplemental Table 7**). Co-

expression network analysis of the DEGs from the second cohort identified six gene

modules, of which three modules exhibited a significant number of overlapping co-expressed

genes with the black module from the discovery cohort (**Fig. 2B**). In total, 147 DEGs of the

black module in the first cohort were also co-expressed DEGs in the second cohort of

patients and controls (**Fig. 2C**), of which 94% of these co-expressed genes also showed

consistent direction of effect (e.g., upregulated in both cohorts)(**Fig. 2D**, **Supplementary**

Table 8), which substantiates this gene set as a core transcriptional feature of human

autoimmune uveitis. Among the 147 genes we replicated *CX3CR1*, *CD36*, *CCR2*, *CCR5*,

CD36, *TLR-6,-7,-8*, *CD180* (**Fig. 2E**), but also *TNFRSF1A* (the main TNF-alpha receptor),

CYBB, (critically involved in T cell activation by DCs in autoimmune models) (*31*), and

transcription factors *RUNX3*, *IRF8*, and *NFKBI* associated with cDC2 subsets (*18,29*). Note,

CCR2 and *CX3CR1* also showed high module membership in the second cohort

(**Supplementary Table 8**). Collectively, these data show a core transcriptional signature in

blood CD1c+ DCs of autoimmune uveitis patients.

Compromised NOTCH2-RUNX3 signaling recapitulates the transcriptional signature of

autoimmune uveitis

To better understand the transcriptional regulation of the identified gene module, we

generated module-specific regulator-target networks for each cohort using *RegEnrich* (*32*).

After filtering for differentially and co-expressed expressed regulators (i.e., regulatory genes

among the 147 genes with consistent direction of effect in both cohorts), we identified

RUNX3, *IRF8*, *ATF4, JDP2, MEF2D*, *PATZ1,* and *NFKB1* as transcriptional regulators for the

black module. Note that *RUNX3, IRF8,* and *NFKB1* also clustered into a single transcriptomic

cluster in single cell analysis of human CD1c+ DC subsets by Brown and associates (*29*).

Because loss of RUNX3 in mononuclear phagocytes (i.e. cDC2s) has been linked with

chronic inflammation in mice models (*33*), we hypothesized that the signaling that involves

the transcription factor *RUNX3* may promote the transcriptomic signature that characterize

CD1c+ DCs of patients.

Efforts to study the effects of siRNA-mediated knockdown or CRISPR-Cas9-mediated

knockout (KO) of *RUNX3* in CD1c+ DCs were unsuccessful (no knock-down or knock-out of

RUNX3 achieved). Therefore, we analyzed gene expression data of the (CD11b+) cDC2s

(murine equivalent of human CD1c+ DCs) cells from CD11c-DC-*Runx3Δ* mice (*34*). Loss of

runx3 in murine cDC2s resulted in a gene expression profile that considerably recapitulates

the gene module associated with autoimmune uveitis (**Fig. 3A**). In detail, we detected

enrichment for many genes that are upregulated in *runx3*-KO cDCs2, including increased

expression levels for *cd36*, *ccr2*, and *cx3cr1* by gene-set enrichment analysis (GSEA) (**Fig.**

3B). This supports our hypothesis that the 'monocyte-like' signature genes (i.e. *CD36*,

CX3CR1, *CCR2*) are regulated by RUNX3. Indeed, RUNX3 directly binds the promoter of

CD36 and negatively regulates its expression in myeloid cells (*35*). Importantly, overnight

stimulation of MACS-sorted CD1c+ DCs by various key myeloid cytokines or Toll-like

receptor (TLR) ligands did not result in a decrease in expression of *RUNX3* nor in a

concordant increase in *CD36* expression, suggesting that the observed gene signature in the

CD1c+ DC pool is unlikely to reflect an activation continuum (**Fig. 3C**). In fact, TLR-

stimulation (with LPS, LTA, or R848) resulted in a strong upregulation of *RUNX3* and

downregulation of CD36, which is the opposite of the expression pattern detected in patients.

Also, overnight stimulation with cytokines GM-CSF and IFN-alpha that are implicated in the

promotion of specific cDC2 subsets (*19,20*) did not decrease the expression of *RUNX3* (**Fig.**

3C). In general, the transcriptional signature of autoimmune uveitis did not resemble the

gene signature of *in vivo* activated cDC2s (termed 'inflammatory' cDC2s' [*infcDC2s*]) (*36*).

However, we did observe a significant positive enrichment score (NES=1.30, *Padj* = 0.02) for

genes down-regulated in infcDC2s in the transcriptome of IU patients (**Fig. 3A** and **3B**).

Because murine studies underscored a Notch-dependent divergence of cDC2 subsets

(*24,37*), we reasoned that the CD1c+ DC transcriptional signature driven by *RUNX3* of

patients would be dependent on NOTCH2 signaling. To explore this, we investigated the

transcriptome of dendritic cells of notch2Δ-CD11c mice (*38*). In agreement with the

expression data of the CD11c-DC-Runx3Δ mice, loss of Notch2 resulted in up regulation of

ccr2, *cd36*, *cx3cr1*, and decreased expression of *runx3* (**Fig. 3A**), and we detected

enrichment for genes upregulated in *notch2*-KO cDCs2 (**Fig. 3B**). This supports that

NOTCH2 is upstream of RUNX3 and mediates the transcriptomic characteristics of blood

CD1c+ DCs of autoimmune uveitis. These findings were further strengthened in reanalysis of

previously published transcriptomic data of murine bone marrow progenitors cultured for 7

days with OP9 stromal cells that express the NOTCH2 ligand DLL1 or OP-9 cells without

DLL1 (*39*). This analysis revealed that *notch2*-controlled genes were enriched in the transcriptome of CD1c+ DCs of patients and that notch2-signalling governs the expression of *cd36, ccr2, and cx3cr1* in cDC2s (**Fig. 3D** and **Fig. 3E).** To investigate if NOTCH2 was also important at more mature stages of cDC2 development (i.e., in dendritic cells that circulate in blood), we also generated CD1c+ DCs from human CD34+ hematopoietic progenitors in cultures with OP9-DLL1 (NOTCH2-stimulation), in which we inhibited NOTCH2 after CD1c+ DCs normally occur in culture at day 7. We used an anti-NOTCH2 antibody or an inhibitor for ADAM10, a key regulator of the NOTCH2 pathway involved in cDC2 biology (*40*) and measured the CD1c+ DC numbers at day 14. This analysis showed that late inhibition of NOTCH2 signaling substantially impaired the cell numbers of CD1c+ DCs in culture and supports that NOTCH2 signaling is actively involved in the maintenance of human CD1c+ DCs (**Supplemental Fig. S1**). Collectively, these observations support that compromised *NOTCH2-RUNX3* signaling promotes a transcriptomic signature that closely resembles the gene profile of CD1c+ DCs in human autoimmune uveitis.

A CD36+CX3CR1+CD1c+ DC3 subset is decreased in autoimmune uveitis

We reasoned that the transcriptomic signature of the CD1c+ DC pool in patients may be an impression of changes in the proportions of CD1c+ DC subsets in blood. To allow identification of undefined phenotypes, we first used unbiased flow cytometry data analysis to identify CD1c+ DC clusters in peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) samples from 26 cases and 11 controls. We designed a panel based on genes from the uveitis gene signature (CD36, CX3CR1, CCR2, and CD180), surface markers previously linked to CD1c+ DC subsets, but that were not DEGs (CD5, and CD163) (*17*), and classical CD1c+ DC markers (CD1c and CD11c), and a lineage marker (CD3/CD19/CD56). FlowSOM (*41*) was used on singlets (PBMCs) to cluster cells into a predetermined number of 100 clusters (flowSOM default of 10 x 10 grid) to facilitate unbiased detection of possible CD1c+ DC phenotypes in blood. The analysis with flowSOM clearly distinguished four (Lin-HLA-DR+CD11c+) CD1c+ DC clusters (cluster number 41, 61, 81, and 83) (**Fig. 4A** and **Supplemental Fig. 2**). We

extracted the data for the four CD1c+ DC clusters (i.e., clusters 41, 61, 81, and 83) and

conducted principal component analysis (PCA). The first two principal components explained

98.5% of the variance and the PCA biplot identified CX3CR1 and CD36 as top loadings,

indicating that these proteins distinguish CD1c+ DC phenotypes in blood (**Fig. 4B**). We also

repeated this analysis using Lineage-(CD3/CD56/CD19) HLA-DR+ cells as input for

flowSOM clustering, which corroborated CD36 and CX3CR1 as key markers that distinguish

CD1c+ DC phenotypes (**Supplemental Fig. 3**).

Next, we designed a simple gating strategy for CD1c+ DC subsets based on the expression

of CD36 and CX3CR1 (**Fig. 4C**). Manual gating distinguished four CD1c+ DCs subsets; a

CD36-CX3CR1- subset, a CD36+CX3CR1- subset and a rare CD36-CX3CR1+ subset, and

a CD36+CX3CR1+ subset of CD1c+ DCs in peripheral blood. The CD36+CX3CR1- and

CD36+CX3CR1+ subsets express both CD163 (**Fig. 4C**) and CD14 (**Fig. 4D** and

Supplementary Fig. 4). Comparison between patients and controls revealed that the

frequency of CD36+CX3CR1+ CD1c+ DCs were decreased in the blood of autoimmune

uveitis patients (**Fig. 4E** and **4F**).

We speculated that the decrease in blood CD36+CX3CR1+ CD1c+ DCs was a result from

migration of these cells to the eye during autoimmune uveitis. Recent single-cell RNA

sequencing data by Kasper and co-workers in eye biopsies of autoimmune uveitis patients

show infiltration in the eye by conventional dendritic cells, which are transcriptionally similar

to CD1c+ DCs (*42*). Reanalysis of this data using *CLEC10A* as a specific marker for CD1c+

DCs in tissues (*43*) showed that eye-infiltrating CD1c+ DC cells express *CD36* and *CX3CR1*

(**Fig. 4G**). Together, these results demonstrate that a specific CD36+CX3CR1+ subset of

CD1c+ DCs was diminished in the blood of patients with autoimmune uveitis.

CD36 and CX3CR1 define functionally distinct CD1c+ DC subsets

Finally, we were interested if the identified CD36+CX3CR1+CD1c+ DC subset was

functionally different from other CD1c+ DC subsets. To this end, we freshly sorted primary

human CD1c+ DC subsets based on the surface expression of CD36 and CX3CR1 (**Fig.**

5A), of which double-positive and double-negative subsets could be sorted from the selected

healthy subjects in sufficient numbers for experimental analysis. Since CD36 is a co-receptor

for TLR2 (*44*), we overnight stimulated the subsets with the TLR2 ligand lipoteichoic acid

(LTA). Interleukin (IL)-23, a cytokine potently produced by CD1c+ DCs in general, was

equally strong secreted by both subsets of CD1c+ DCs (**Fig. 5B**). To assess the secretome

of the CD1c+ DC subsets in more detail, we profiled the supernatants of LTA-stimulated

CD1c+ DC subsets for additional soluble immune mediators: The CD1c+ DC subsets could

be distinguished based on the secreted protein profile (**Fig. 5C**), of which the levels of TNF-

alpha, IL-6, VEGF-A, and TNFR1 showed significant differences between the subsets (**Fig.**

5D). These results show that CD1c+ DC subsets defined on the basis of surface expression

of CD36 and CX3CR1 show a differential capacity to secrete pro-inflammatory mediators that

participate in the pathophysiology of human autoimmune uveitis.

Discussion

In this study of 80 autoimmune uveitis patients and controls, we identified and replicated a

core disease transcriptional network in CD1c+ DCs. We were able to track back the network

to a cytokine-producing CD36+CX3CR1+ CD1c+ DC subset that was diminished in

peripheral blood of patients with autoimmune uveitis.

Using data from genetic models, we show that reciprocal expression of the gene network

associated with autoimmune uveitis relies on transcription factors NOTCH2 and RUNX3.

Brown *et al.*, (*29*) recently showed that in human blood CD1c+ DCs the differential

expression of transcription factors, including *RUNX3*, *IRF8*, and *NFKB1* (which were all in the

transcriptional signature of CD1c+ DCs of patients) delineate CD1c+ DC subsets. Our

observation that these transcription factors were differentially co-expressed support that the

gene expression changes identified in uveitis patients were mediated by compositional

changes in discrete subsets with reciprocal gene expression patterns (*16*).

Other preceding studies into human CD1c+ DCs revealed functionally distinct subsets

termed "DC2" and "DC3", with the DC3 showing both transcriptomic features reminiscent of

294 cDC2s and monocytes - such as elevated *CD36* levels (*16*). DC3s also have distinct

295 developmental pathways and transcriptional regulators compared to DC2 (*16-18,20*).

296 Recently, Cytlak and associates revealed that lower expression of *IRF8* is linked to DC3 (*20*),

297 a transcription factor that was also decreased in autoimmune uveitis. Dutertre and co-

298 workers (*17*) showed that the phenotype of peripheral blood CD1c+ DCs can be further

299 segregated according to the expression of CD163 and CD5, with "DC3" cells being

300 characterized as CD5-CD163+ cells and "DC2" as CD5+CD163 cells. We show that CD1c+

301 DCs can also be segregated based on surface expression of CD36 and CX3CR1 and that

302 DC3s (CD1c+CD5-CD163+) are found both in the CD36+CX3CR1- and CD36+CX3CR1+

303 subsets. In other words, CD36 and CX3CR1 surface expression defines phenotypically

304 discrete DC3 subsets in peripheral blood. The CD36-CX3CR1- subset was CD5+CD163-

305 and similar to DC2 cells (*12*). Patients with *Systemic lupus erythematosus* (SLE) display

306 accumulation of CD5-CD163+ DC3s in blood (*13*), while this population of DC3 cells (CD5-

307 CD163+CD1c+ DCs) was decreased in autoimmune uveitis patients (**Fig. 4)**. The differences

308 between autoimmune uveitis and SLE may be related to distinct (i.e., opposite)

309 immunopathological mechanisms; Type I interferons drive the maturation of cDC2s into

310 "inflammatory cDC2s" (infcDC2s)(*36*) and can induce CD1c+ DCs to express a distinct set of

311 surface-receptors (*19*). The type I interferon (IFN)-α drives immunopathology of SLE (*21*) and

312 administration of type I interferon therapy can induce *lupus-like* disease (*22,23*). In favor of

313 attributing the seemingly contrasting observations in blood CD1c+ subsets between SLE and

314 autoimmune uveitis to distinct biology is the fact that, in contrast to elevated IFN-α in patients

315 with SLE, in autoimmune uveitis patient's disease exacerbations correlate with reduced

316 blood IFN-α concentrations (*21*). In addition, we demonstrated that the transcriptional

317 signature of CD1c+ DCs in autoimmune uveitis was not positively enriched for transcriptomic

318 features of IFN-driven cDC2 subset (**Fig. 3B**).

320 This also indicates that unlike SLE (*45*), changes of the CD1c+ DC peripheral blood pool in

321 autoimmune uveitis are not driven by increased type I interferon signaling (*21*), but rather by

yet unspecified pathological molecular pathways. This is supported by the fact that in our

stimulation experiments, IFN alpha did not induce the uveitis gene signature in CD1c+ DCs

(**Fig. 3**) and that type I interferon therapy inhibits autoimmune uveitis (*21*). However, an

argument against this is the observation that in IU patients we detected enrichment for genes

down-regulated in infcDC2s (*20,36*). Indeed, although not all statistically significant, genes

such as *ccr2*, *cd36*, *cx3r1* show a relative decrease in expression, while *runx3* shows a

relative increase in expression in the transcriptome of *infcDC2s* versus "non-inflammatory"

cDC2s (based on GSE149619). In other words, this suggest that the profile of *infcDC2s*

within the CD1c+DC pool was 'decreased' in IU patients, which is in line with the decrease in

the frequency of CD5-CD163 DC3s as a whole or the TNF-alpha and IL-6-secreting

CD36+CX3CR1+ DC3 subset in patients with autoimmune uveitis. One possible explanation

for the decrease in this subset may be that in the systemic condition SLE 'inflammatory'

DC3s 'accumulate' in blood, while in autoimmune uveitis this population exits the circulation

to infiltrate secondary lymphoid tissues and ocular structures to mediate eye inflammation.

Indeed, emerging single cell analysis of ocular fluids of patients support the infiltration of

CD1c+ DC subsets in the eye during autoimmune uveitis (*42*), and we show that these cells

express *CD36* and *CX3CR1* (**Fig. 4G**). However, ideally longitudinal data are used to follow

the dynamics of these populations in patients in relation to disease activity, which is a

limitation of the current study.

Other disease modifying factors possibly affect the CD1c+ DC pool in uveitis patients. In

mice, antibiotic treatment to experimentally disturb the microbiota affects a cDC2 subset

phenotypically similar to CD1c+ DCs and decreases their frequency in the intestine of mice,

which suggests microbiota-dependent signals involved in the maintenance of cDC2 subsets

(*16*). This is especially interesting in light of growing evidence that microbiota dependent

signals cause autoreactive T cells to trigger uveitis (*46,47*), which makes it tempting to

speculate that gut-resident cDC2 subsets contribute to the activation of T cells in uveitis

models. Dietary components can influence subsets of intestinal dendritic cells (*48*).

Regardless, most likely, an ensemble of disease modulating factors is involved. For example,

myeloid cytokines, such as GM-CSF, contribute to autoimmunity of the eye (*49*) and GM-

CSF has been shown to stimulate the differentiation of human CD1c+ subset from

progenitors (*20*). However, GM-CSF signaling in conventional dendritic cells has a minor role

in the inception of EAU (*49,50*). Our data supports that stimulation of CD1c+ subsets with

GM-CSF or TLR ligands does not induce the transcriptional features of CD1c+ DCs during

autoimmune uveitis, which is in line with previous observations that support that stimulated

cDC2s do not convert from one into another subset (*20*). Note that key transcription factors

(e.g. *RUNX3*) defining the here identified CD1c+ subsets are definitely affected by TLR

stimulation (**Fig. 3C**), but the overall transcriptomic program of activated CD1c+ DCs is

distinct (**Fig. 3B**).

Better understanding of the changes in the CD1c+ DC pool during human autoimmune

uveitis will help develop strategies to pharmacologically influence putative disease pathways

involved at an early disease stage, which may lay the foundation for the design of effective

strategies to halt progress towards severe visual complications or blindness. Perhaps

targeting CD1c+ DCs may be achieved by dietary (microbiome) strategies and provide

relatively safe preventive strategies for noninfectious uveitis.

In conclusion, we discovered a CD36+CX3CR1+CD1c+ DC subset that decreased in the

peripheral blood of patients with autoimmune uveitis. The fact that this population secretes

high levels of TNF-alpha, is decreased in the circulation of patients, while CD1c+ DCs

expressing *CD36* and *CX3CR1* accumulate locally in autoimmune uveitis patients may not

only explains the therapeutic benefit of TNF inhibition for autoimmune uveitis, it also opens

new avenues for therapeutic targeting to prevent blindness due to autoimmune uveitis.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Patients and patient material

This study was conducted in compliance with the Helsinki principles. Ethical approval was

requested and obtained from the Medical Ethical Research Committee in Utrecht. All patients

signed written informed consent before participation. We collected blood from a discovery

cohort of 29 and a replication cohort of 22 adult patients (**Table 1**) with HLA-B27-associated

Acute Anterior Uveitis (AU), Idiopathic Intermediate Uveitis (IU), or HLA-A29-associated

Birdshot Uveitis (BU). Patients were recruited at the outbound patient clinic of the department

of Ophthalmology of the University Medical Center Utrecht between July 2014 and January

2017. No minimize bias we recruited twenty-nine age and sex matched anonymous blood

donors of European Ancestry with no history of ocular inflammatory disease at the same

institute to served as unaffected controls (16 for the discovery cohort and 13 for the

replication cohort). Uveitis was classified and graded in accordance with the SUN

classification (*51*). Each patient underwent a full ophthalmological examination by an

ophthalmologist experienced in uveitis, routine laboratory screening, and an X-Ray of the

lungs. Laboratory screening included erythrocyte sedimentation rate, renal and liver function

tests, angiotensin converting enzyme (ACE), and screening for infectious agents in the

serum and an Interferon-Gamma Release Assay (IGRA) was obtained for all patients. All

patients with AU and BU were HLA-B27 or HLA-A29-positive, respectively (confirmed by

HLA typing). All patients had active uveitis (new onset or relapse) and there was no clinical

evidence for uveitis-associated systemic inflammatory disease (e.g., rheumatic condition) till

the time of sampling. None of the patients received systemic immunomodulatory treatment in

the last 3 months, other than low dose (≤10mg) oral prednisolone in one BU patient of the

discovery cohort and one AU patient of the replication cohort.

CD1c+ DC purification

Peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) were isolated by standard ficoll density

gradient centrifugation from 70mL heparinized blood immediately after blood withdrawal (GE

Healthcare, Uppsala, Sweden). For the discovery cohort, fresh PBMCs were immediately

subjected to magnetic-activated cell sorting (MACS) for the removal (positive selection) of

CD304+ cells (pDC), followed by CD19+ cells (B cell), and subsequently isolation of CD1c+

cells by using the CD1c+ (BDCA1) isolation kit (Miltenyi Biotec, Germany) according to the

manufacturer's instructions. The isolated CD1c+ fraction contained on average 147,114 cells

(range 46,000-773,000) and purity was determined by flow cytometry measured on the BD

LSR Fortessa^{TM} Cell analyzer (**Supplementary Table 1**). Data were analyzed using FlowJo

software (TreeStar Inc.). For the replication cohort, ten batches (individual days) of 4-5

randomly selected patient and control samples of nitrogen stored PBMCs (mean storage

time of 11 [range 0-31] months) were carefully thawed and subjected to sorting by the BD

FACSAria™ III sorter after incubation with a panel of surface antibodies (**Supplementary**

Table 2) and FACS buffer (1% bovine serum albumin and 0.1% sodium azide in phosphate

buffered saline). CD3-CD19-CD56-HLA-DR+CD11c+CD1c+CD14- cells were sorted. The

average number of collected cells by sorting was 56,881 (range 6,669-243,385). MACS or

FACS purified CD1c+ cells were immediately taken up in a lysis buffer (RLT plus, Qiagen)

containing 1% β-mercaptoethanol, snap frozen on dry ice, and stored at -80°C until RNA

extraction was performed. Isolation of CD1c+ DC for functional experiments was done by

MACS as described above. Purification of CD1c+ DC subsets (based on CD36 and CX3CR1

expression) from freshly isolated PBMCs was conducted by flow cytometry using the panel in

Supplementary Table 3.

CD1c+ DC cultures

Purified CD1c+ DCs were cultured in RPMI Glutamax (Thermo Fisher Scientific)

supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum (FBS) (Biowest Riverside) and

1% penicillin/streptomycin (Thermo Fisher Scientific). CD1c+ DCs were cultured at a

concentration of 0.5×10^6 cells/mL in a 96-well round-bottom plate (100µL/well). Cells were

stimulated overnight (18 hours) with multiple stimuli listed in **Supplementary Table 4**. After

stimulation, supernatants were collected and frozen at -80°C until cytokine production

analysis. Cells were lysed in an *RLT plus* lysis buffer (Qiagen) and stored at -80°C until RNA

extraction was performed. In separate cultures, CD1c+ DC subsets (based on CD36 and

CX3CR1 expression) were cultured in the presence of 1µg/mL Lipoteichoic acid (LTA). After

18 hours of stimulation, supernatants were harvested and IL-23 cytokine production was

analyzed by ELISA (R&D Systems). Cell lysates were stored at -80°C until RNA extraction

was performed for qPCR. The levels of IL-2, IL-5, IL-6, IL-10, IL-12p70, IL-13, IL-17, IL-22,

IL-27, TNF-alpha, IFN-alpha, IFN-beta, CCL1, CXCL10, CXCL13, VEGF, CD40L, FAS,

TNFR1, TNFR2, Elastase, and Granzyme B were simultaneously measured in supernatant

of CD1c+ DC cultures using the in-house multiplex immunoassay based on Luminex

technology. Protein concentrations that were out of range were replaced with the LLOQ

(lower limit of quantification) and ULOQ (upper limit of quantification) for each analyte and

divided by 2 for the proteins detected below the range of detection or multiplied by 2 for

values above the detection range.

Ex vivo generation of dendritic cells

CD1c+ Dendritic cells were generated from primary human CD34+ cells following the

protocol of Kirkling and coworkers (*52*). Briefly, umbilical cord blood (CB) was collected after

informed consent was obtained according to the Declaration of Helsinki. The ethics

committee of the University Medical Center Utrecht approved these collection protocols

(protocol number TC-bio 15-345). CB mononuclear cells were isolated from human umbilical

CB by density centrifugation over Ficoll-Paque solution (GE Healthcare). CD34+ cells were

isolated using anti-CD34 magnetic beads following the manufacturer's instructions (Miltenyi

Biotec). CD34+ cells were cryopreserved until further use. OP-9 cells expressing DLL1

(NOTCH ligand) were cultured with MEM alpha Glutamax (Gibco) containing 20% heat-

inactivated FBS (Biowest Riverside) and 1% penicillin/streptomycin (Thermo Fisher

Scientific). CD34+ cells (10.000 cells/well) were plated onto 24-well plates coated with OP-9

cells (20.000 cells/well) and cultured in medium containing 20ng/mL SCF, 100ng/mL FLT3

ligand and 10ng/mL GM-CSF (all from Peprotech). After 7 days of culture, fresh media

containing either 10µM ADAM10 inhibitor (GI 254023X; R&D systems), 50ng/mL anti-

NOTCH2 (clone B6; Absolute Antibody) or a combination of the inhibitors were added to the

cells and cultured for another 7 days. Cells were harvested and used for FACS analysis on

day 14.

Real-time Quantitative PCR

First-strand cDNA was synthesized from total RNA using Superscript IV kit (Thermo Fisher

Scientific), and quantitative real-time PCR (RT-qPCR) was performed on the QuantStudio

12k flex System (LifeTechnologies), following manufacturer's instructions. Sequences of the

primers used are listed in **Supplementary Table 5.** RT-qPCR data were normalized to the

expression of the selected housekeeping gene *GUSB* (ENSG00000169919). CT values were

normalized to *GUSB* by subtracting the CT mean of *GUSB* (measured in duplo) from the CT

mean of the target mRNA (i.e., *CD36*, *RUNX3).* The resulting value is referred to as the ΔCT.

The fold change (FC) of each sample was calculated in relation to the ΔCt of the medium

control according to the formula FC = 2−ΔΔCt, where ΔΔCt = ΔCt sample—ΔCt reference.

Phenotyping CD1c+ DC populations in uveitis patients

PBMC samples from the discovery and replication cohort (HC 11 samples; AU 9 samples; IU

6 samples; BS 11 samples) were randomly selected and measured by flow cytometry in

batches of 9 to 10 mixed samples per run, divided over 4 days. Per batch, 10 million PBMCs

per sample were quickly thawed, washed with ice cold PBS and stained with the antibody

panel depicted in **Supplementary Table 3**. PBMCs were incubated with Fixable Viability Dye

eF780 (eBioscience) at room temperature for 10 minutes. Cells were then plated in V-

bottomed plates (Greiner Bio- one), washed with PBS and incubated for 30 minutes at 4˚C in

the dark with Brilliant Stain Buffer (BD) and the fluorescently- conjugated antibodies. Next,

the cells were washed and taken up in the FACS buffer. Flow cytometric analyses were

performed on the BD FACSAria™ III sorter. Manual gating of data was done using FlowJo

software (TreeStar inc. San Carlos, CA, USA). FlowSOM (*41*) analysis was done as

described previously (*53*). Single-cell data (FSC- A versus FSC- H gate) or Lin- (negative for

CD3/CD56/CD19) HLA-DR+ data were transformed using the *logicleTransform* function of

the *flowCore R* package (*54*). The SOM was trained for a 10x10 grid (100 clusters) with 2000

iterations, or 7x7 grid (49 clusters) for Lin-HLA-DR+ cells. Consensus hierarchical clustering

was used to annotate clusters, based on the ConsensusClusterPlus R package (*55*).

Principal component analysis (PCA) analysis was done on normalized expression data from

flowSOM using the *factoextra* R package.

RNA isolation and RNA sequencing

Total RNA from CD1c+ DC cell lysates from patients and controls was isolated using the

AllPrep Universal Kit (Qiagen) on the QIAcube (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer's

instructions. Library preparation and Illumina sequencing was performed on 44 samples of

the discovery cohort at BGI (Hong Kong). RNA-seq libraries were generated with the TruSeq

RNAseq RNA Library Prep Kit (Illumina Inc., Ipswich, MA, USA) and were sequenced using

Illumina NextSeq 500 generating approximately 20 million 100bp paired end reads for each

sample. For the replication cohort, RNA-seq libraries were generated by *GenomeScan*

(Leiden, the Netherlands) with the TruSeq RNAseq RNA Library Prep Kit (Illumina Inc.,

Ipswich, MA, USA), and were sequenced using Illumina HiSeq 4000 generating ~20 million

150bp paired ended reads for each sample.

Power analysis

We conducted power analysis of the discovery cohort using the PROPER R package

(version 1.22.0)(*56*) with 100 simulations of the *build-in* RNA-seq count data from antigen

presenting (B) cells from a cohort of 41 individuals (i.e., large biological variation as expected

in our study) (*57*). Simulations parameters used the default of 20,000 genes and an

estimated 10% of genes being differentially expressed. We detected 0.8 power to detect

differentially expressed genes (*P*<0.05) at a $\log_2$(fold change)>1 for the smallest patient

group (9 cases) and we considered the sample size reasonable for analysis.

Differential gene expression and statistical analysis

Quality check of the raw sequences was performed using the FastQC tool. Reads were
aligned to the human genome (GRCh38 build 79) using STAR aligner (*58*) and the Python
package HTSeq was used to count the number of reads overlapping each annotated gene
(*59*). We aligned the reads of the RNA sequencing data sets to 65,217 annotated *Ensemble*
Gene IDs. Raw count data were fed into the DESeq2 (*60*) to identify differentially expressed
genes (DEGs) between the four disease groups (AU, IU, BU, HC). Using DESeq2, we
modelled the biological variability and overdispersion in expression data following a negative
binomial distribution. We then used Wald's test to identify DEGs in each pair-wise
comparison and used likelihood ratio test to identify DEGs considering multiple disease
groups. We constructed co-expression gene networks (β = 6) with the WGCNA R package
(61) using the cumulative differentially expressed genes ($P<0.05$) from all pairwise and group
comparisons. We calculated the intersect between the modules constructed from the two
cohorts and used Fisher's exact test to identify modules that exhibited significant overlap in
genes. Pathway enrichment analysis was done with *ToppGene* Suite (BMI CCHMC,
Cincinnati, OH, USA)(*62*).

Module specific regulator-target networks were generated using the *RegEnrich* R package
(*32*). Gene expression data from *runx3*-knockout(KO) cDC2s, *notch2*-KO cDC2s, and
inflammatory cDC2s were obtained from the NCBI Gene Expression Omnibus (accession
numbers GSE48590 [2 wild-type [WT] CD11b+Esam+ splenic cDC2s versus 2
CD11b+Esam+ cDC2s from CD11c-DC-*Runx3*Δ mice], GSE119242 [2 untreated cDC2
versus untreated cDC2 from CD11c-Cre *notch2*f/f mice], GSE149619 [5 CD172+MAR1-
cDC2s in mock condition vs 3 CD172+MAR1+ cDC2 in virus (flu) condition]) using GEO2R in
the GEO database, which builds on the *GEOquery* and *limma* R packages (*63,64*). RNA-seq
data from the mouse bone marrow stromal cell line OP9 expressing NOTCH ligand DLL1
(OP9-DLL1)-driven cDC2 cultures (GSE110577, [2 sorted CD11c+MHCII+B220−CD11b+
cDC2 from bone marrow cultures with FLT3L for 7 days vs 2 sorted
CD11c+MHCII+B220−CD11b+ cDC2 from bone marrow cultures with FLT3L + OP9-DLL1
cells for 7 days]) were analyzed using *DESeq2* and normalized count data plotted using the

plotCounts function. Gene set enrichment analysis was done using the Fast Gene Set

Enrichment Analysis R package and data plotted using the *GSEA.barplot* function from the

PPInfer R package (*65*). Gene sets for *runx3*-KO, *notch2*-KO, inflammatory cDC2s, and

cDC2s from OP9-DLL1 bone marrow cultures were generated by taking the top or bottom

percentiles of ranked [$-\log_{10}(P) \times \text{sign}(\log_2(\text{fold change}))$] genes from each data set as

indicated.

Data and Code Availability

The data code, bulk RNA-Seq datasets, flow cytometry dataset, and cytokine expression

dataset in this publication will be made available via https://dataverse.nl/ doi:XXXX and

deposited in NCBI's Gene Expression Omnibus accessible through GEO Series accession

number GEO:XXXX.

Supplementary Materials

Fig. S1. Flow cytometry analysis of CD1c+ DC cells generated from CD34+ hematopoietic

cord blood after NOTCH2 and ADAM10 inhibition.

Fig. S2. FlowSOM results for CD1c+ DC clusters in PBMCs.

Fig. S3. FlowSOM analysis using Lineage (CD3/CD19/CD56) negative and HLA-DR-positive

cells as input.

Fig. S4. Flow cytometry gating example of CD1c+ CD11c+ DCs subsets based on CD36 and

CX3CR1.

Table S1-Table S8

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771 **Figures:**

Fig. 1. A CD1c+ Dendritic cell (CD1c+ DC) transcriptional network is increased in expression in human autoimmune uveitis. A) Study design. CD1c+ DCs were purified from blood and subjected to RNA sequencing. Co-expression network analysis of differentially expressed genes was used to identify gene modules associated with uveitis and focus on the surface-protein encoding genes (predicted by *SURFY*[28]) and their transcriptional regulators (predicted by *RegEnrich*[32]). **B**) Principal component analysis of the 6,795 differentially expressed genes. **C**) Number of genes for each of the 24 identified gene modules. **D**) The *eigengene* values for the black module (y-axis) for each sample of cohort 1 (x-axis). **E**) The module membership (y-axis) and the (Log2) fold change in gene expression compared to healthy controls (x-axis) for genes in the black module in patients with AU (top), IU (middle), and BU (bottom). The 100 genes encoding surface proteins are indicated in black. Key transcription factors associated with functionally distinct CD1c+ DC subsets[29] are indicated in blue. **F**) The percentage of CD14-positive cells in the CD19(-) CD303(-) CD1c(+) cell fractions used for RNA sequencing. KWt; Kruskal-wallis test. AU; Anterior uveitis. IU; Intermediate uveitis. BU; Birdshot uveitis.

Fig. 2. Independent replication of the CD1c+ Dendritic cell (DC) core transcriptional signature in autoimmune uveitis. A) Principal component analysis of the 2,016 DEGs ($P<0.05$) in 35 patients and control samples of cohort 2. B) Cross-tabulation of the preservation of co-expressed genes from the black module in the second cohort. Each row and each column are labeled by the corresponding module color and the total number of genes in the module. The numbers represent the counts of genes in the intersection of the black module and modules identified in the second cohort. P value is from Fisher's exact test. Note that 147 co-expressed genes of the black module from cohort 1 are preserved across the blue, yellow and green modules of cohort 2, indicating co-expression for these genes across the two cohorts. C) Heatmaps of the 147 replicated co-expressed genes (rows) for samples (columns) from cohort 1 and cohort 2. D) Venn diagram of the upregulated and downregulated genes (clusters shown in **Fig. 2C**) from cohort 1 and 2. E) The (Log2) fold change in gene expression compared to healthy controls (x-axis) for all 147 replicated genes in patients with AU, IU, AND BU. Genes encoding surface proteins are indicated in black/grey. Key transcription factors associated with the surface-encoding genes identified by *RegEnrich*[32] are indicated in blue. AU; Anterior uveitis. IU; Intermediate uveitis. BU; Birdshot uveitis.

Fig. 3. Loss of NOTCH2-RUNX3 signaling in CD1c+ Dendritic cells (CD1c+ DCs) recapitulates the
transcriptional signature of autoimmune uveitis. A) Volcano plot for the expression of genes of the black
module in cDC2s of *runx3*-KO mice (GSE48590), *notch2*-KO mice (GSE119242), and inflammatory [inf-]cDC2s
(GSE149619). Red dots denote the up-regulated genes and blue dots denote the down-regulated genes in cDC2s
of each condition; grey dots denote the genes with no significant change in expression. Key genes identified in
the uveitis cohorts (see **Fig. 2E**) are labeled. **B**) Results from gene-set enrichment analysis for 20,668 ranked
genes (with baseMean>4) for AU, IU, and BU patients. The top or bottom percentiles of the ranked [-$\log_{10}(P)\times$
sign($\log_2$(FC))] genes from *runx3*-KO cDC2s, *notch2*-KO cDC2s, and inf-cDC2s (see *a*) were used as gene sets
(all <500 genes). Normalized enrichment scores (NES) and *P* values (calculated by *Fast Gene Set Enrichment*
Analysis R package, see methods) for each gene set is indicated. The dotted lines indicate *Padj* = 0.05. **C**) Gene
expression (mean[SEM]) for *RUNX3* and *CD36* in primary human CD1c+ DCs from healthy donors stimulated
overnight with Toll-like receptor ligands and cytokines implicated in dendritic cell biology. Each dot represents a
single donor used in the experiment. **D**) Normalized counts (and adjusted *P* values from *DESeq2*) for *cx3cr1*,
ccr2, *cd36*, and *runx3* from cDC2s (GSE110577) generated from murine bone marrow cells and OP-9 with (in
blue) or without (in ochre) Notch ligand Delta-like 1 (DLL1). **E**) Gene set enrichment analysis similar to *b,* using
the top 1%, (n=202) genes associated with the NOTCH-negative condition in *d* as the gene set. AU = Anterior
uveitis. IU = Intermediate uveitis. BU = Birdshot uveitis. R848 = Resiquimod, LTA = Lipoteichoic acid, LPS =
Lipopolysaccharides, Pam3CSK4 = Pam3CysSerLys4, OxLDL = Oxidized low-density lipoprotein, IFNα =
Interferon alpha, TGFβ = transforming growth factor beta. FLT3L = FMS-like tyrosine kinase 3 ligand, TNFα =
tumor necrosis factor alpha, S100A12 = S100 calcium-binding protein A12, IL-4 = interleukin 4, GM-CSF =
Granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor.

Fig. 4. A subset of CD36+CX3CR1+CD1c+ Dendritic cells (CD1c+ DCs) is decreased in circulation of patients with autoimmune uveitis. A) Heatmap of the surface protein expression for the 100 flowSOM clusters of 11-parameter flow-cytometry analysis of PBMC samples from 26 cases and 11 controls. The four CD1c+ (CD3-CD19-CD56-HLA-DR+CD11c+) DC clusters identified (cluster 41, 61, 81, and 83) are highlighted. **B)** PCA biplot of the surface protein expression for CD36, CX3CR1, CCR2, CD5, CD163, CD14, CD11c, HLA-DR, and CD180 in flowSOM clusters 41, 61, 81, and 83 identified in *a*. The loadings for PC1 and PC2 are shown on the right. **C)** Flow cytometric example of manual gating strategy of CD1c+ DC subsets showing the (color-coded) relative expression for CD5 and CD163 in a biplot of CD36 and CX3CR1. The color-coded relative expression for CD36, CX3CR1, CD1c, CCR2, CD14, and CD180 is shown in a biplot of CD5 and CD163 on the right (representative example of n = 37). **D)** Biplot of CD14 and CD163 in each of the identified CD1c+ DC subsets based on CD36 and CX3CR1. **E)** The relative proportion of CD1c+ DC subsets based on CD36 and CX3CR1 among total CD1c+ DCs and **F)** the frequency of CD36+CX3CR1+ CD1c+ DCs, and CD5+CD163- DC2s and CD5-CD163+ DC3 cells among PBMCs in uveitis cases and controls. *P* values from unpaired *t* test. **G)** UMAP projections of transcriptomic data from 606 CD1c+ DC cells from eye fluid from 4 (HLA-B27-positive) AU patients ("DC2" cluster from *Kasper et al. 2021* (*54*)). The eye-infiltrated CD1c+ DCs are shown in grey, cells expressing *CLEC10A (*CD1c+ DC tissue marker*), CD36,* or *CX3CR1* are indicated in blue. Plots were generated with https://osmzhlab.uni-muenster.de/shiny/cerebro_uveitis/. AU = Anterior uveitis.

Fig. 5. CD36+CX3CR1+CD1c+ Dendritic cells (DCs) are functionally distinct A) The gating strategy to sort primary human CD1c+ DC subsets based on the expression of CX3CR1 and CD36 for downstream analysis. The CD1c+ DC cells were FACS sorted into CD36+CX3CR1+ and CD36-CX3CR1- CD1c+ DCs. **B**) The concentration of IL-23 (ELISA) in supernatants of 18h cultured primary human CD1c+ DC subsets cells stimulated with lipoteichoic acid (LTA). **C**) Heatmap of the levels (Z-score) of 16 detected proteins in supernatants of 18h cultured LTA-stimulated primary human CD1c+ DC subsets cells using an in-house multiplex *Luminex* assay. **D**) Scatter plots with overlay boxplot with mean and interquartile range of the levels of secreted TNF-alpha, Interleukin(IL)-6, VEGF-A, and TNFR1 from the multiplex protein data in *d.* (*Padj = P* values from likelihood ratio test Bonferroni corrected for 16 detected proteins)

862 **Table 1.**

Discovery cohort	AU	IU	BU	HC	*P* value
N	9	9	10	16	n.a.
Male / Female	3/6	2/7	4/6	6/10	0.90*
Age in years; mean ± SD	47.7 ± 17.0	39.3 ± 14.0	52.9 ± 13.2	41.4 ± 9.8	0.09**
Disease duration in years; median (range)	5.8 (0.1-39.3)	3.7 (0.2-20.0)	1.3 (0.2-15.1)	n.a.	0.14***
Replication cohort	AU	IU	BU	HC	*P* value
N	10	5	8	13	
Male / Female	2/8	3/2	5/3	5/8	0.25*
Age in years; mean ± SD	45.9 ± 16.1	29.9 ± 10.7	42.1 ± 10.5	42.2 ± 13.3	0.20**
Disease duration in years; median (range)	8.1 (0.2-22.3)	3.4 (0.4-14.1)	0.9 (0.2-19.9)	n.a.	0.36***

864 **Table 1**. Characteristics of the patients and controls from cohort 1 and cohort 2. Abbreviations: BU: Birdshot

865 uveitis, AU: HLA-B27 associated anterior uveitis, HC: healthy control, IU: idiopathic intermediate uveitis, n.a.: not

866 applicable, * Fisher's exact test, ** ANOVA,*** Kruskal-Wallis.

873 **Supplemental Fig. S1. Flow cytometry analysis of CD1c+ DC cells generated from CD34+ hematopoietic**

874 **cord blood after NOTCH2 and ADAM10 inhibition.** CD34+ cells from umbilical cord blood mononuclear cells

875 were cultured with OP-9 cells (see methods) After 7 days 10µM ADAM10 inhibitor (GI 254023X; R&D systems) or

876 50ng/mL anti-NOTCH2 (clone B6; Absolute Antibody) or a combination of the inhibitors were added to the cells

877 and cultured for another 7 days. Cells were harvested and used for FACS analysis on day 14.

Supplemental Fig. S2. FlowSOM results for CD1c+ DC clusters in PBMCs. The normalized intensities of the protein expression of surface markers by the four CD1c+ DC clusters identified by flowSOM[41] in flow cytometry data from 11 controls and 26 autoimmune uveitis patients.

Supplemental Fig. S3. **FlowSOM analysis using Lineage (CD3/CD19/CD56) negative and HLA-DR-positive**

cells as input. This analysis distinguished 3 CD1c+ DC phenotypes among a predetermined number of 49

clusters (7x7 grid). PCA biplot identified CD5 as a top loading in PC1 and CX3CR1 and CD36 as top loadings in

PC2 among the three CD1c+ DC subsets in Lin-HLA-DR+ cells. These data support that genes associated with

autoimmune uveitis (i.e., CX3CR1 and CD36) encode surface markers that distinguish CD1c+ DC phenotypes.

A) Heatmap for surface protein expression for 49 cell clusters (7x7 grid) identified by flowSOM[41] using Lineage

(CD3/CD19/CD56) negative and HLA-DR-positive cells as input from 37 PBMC samples from cases and controls

from this study. The three CD1c+ DC clusters identified in this analysis (population 37, 44, and 45) are

highlighted. **B**) PCA Biplot of the normalized intensity data from flowSOM for CD36, CX3CR1, CCR2, CD5,

CD163, CD14, and CD180. The loadings for PC1 and PC2 are shown on the right.

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Supplemental Fig. S4. Flow cytometry gating example of CD1c+ CD11c+ DCs subsets based on CD36 and

CX3CR1.